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# MOLECULAR ANALYSIS OF HIV-1 REV BY DAVID MCDONALD

# **DISSERTATION**

Submitted in partial satisfaction of the requirements for the degree of

# DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

in

# **IMMUNOLOGY**

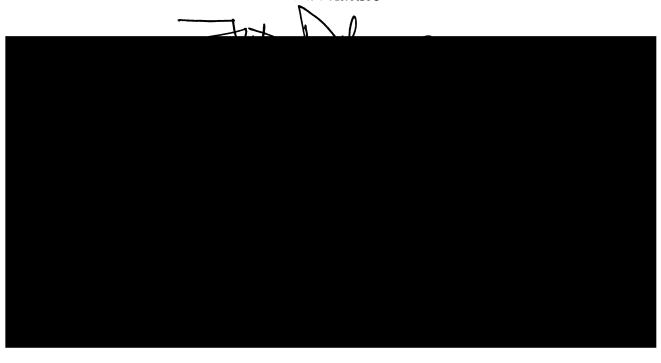
in the

# **GRADUATE DIVISION**

of the

# **UNIVERSITY OF CALIFORNIA**

San Francisco



to Mom and Dad for their unconditional love and understanding always

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I would like to express my thanks to Tris Parslow, for providing an especially friendly work environment, for lending untold hours of help and encouragement, and for never losing the faith. I also thank Tom Hope, an outstanding colleague and a rare friend.

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# MOLECULAR ANALYSIS OF HIV-1 REV

by

## David McDonald

The *rev* gene of the Human Immunodeficiency Virus Type-1 (HIV-1) encodes an essential regulatory molecule belonging to a class of nuclear RNA-binding proteins found in complex retroviruses, including Human T-cell Leukemia Virus (HTLV) Types-I and -II, Simian immunodeficiency viruses (SIV) and Visna viruses. These proteins act post-transcriptionally by binding their target RNAs in the nucleus of the cell and allowing the cytoplasmic expression of the unspliced and incompletely spliced viral mRNAs encoding the structural proteins of the virion.

We have performed mutagenic analyses of HIV-1 Rev and its RNA target sequence, the Rev-response element (RRE). Mutagenesis of Rev suggested that it is organized in a two-domain structure: an N-terminal, arginine-rich RNA-binding domain, and a C-terminal effector domain which has been postulated to interact with an unidentified cellular factor required for transactivation. We identified a functionally homologous effector domain in the HTLV-I Rex protein by fusing Rex to a Rev mutant which lacks an effector domain. Successive truncations of the Rex moiety revealed that a 52-amino acid internal segment from Rex could functionally replace the Rev effector domain, and that both Rev and Rex contain an essential tetrapeptide motif which can also be found in other viral Rev-like molecules.

The target of Rev-binding, the RRE, was originally described as a 240-base RNA sequence within the HIV-1 *env* coding region which has the potential to form substantial secondary structure. We found that much of the RRE

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could be deleted without eliminating function, and that a subregion of the RRE containing a single high-affinity Rev-binding site was sufficient to mediate transactivation, suggesting that the sole function of the RRE is to bind Rev. Two tandem copies of this sequence conferred wild-type RRE function, consistent with other reports suggesting that multiple Rev molecules need to be bound to a single RNA for efficient transactivation.

These findings suggested a mechanism of Rev action whereby multiple effector domains are tethered to the regulated RNA, and the remaining portions of the protein, along with the viral RNA response element, serve only to facilitate such linkage and are potentially dispensable. We tested this hypothesis by fusing Rev to the RNA-binding coat protein of bacteriophage MS2. We found that the resulting chimera, called Rev/MS2, could transactivate efficiently in the absence of any RRE sequences when two MS2binding sites were present on the reporter RNA. Transactivation was dependent on an intact effector domain, but mutations in Rev which abolish RRE-specific binding did not diminish activity through the MS2 operator. We extended this analysis to include a similar Rex/MS2 fusion. This chimera also functioned efficiently through the MS2-operators, and mutation of the Rex effector domain eliminated function. Taken together, these results support the hypothesis that Rev and Rex function by tethering effectordomains to the regulated RNA, and that these proteins act through the same pathway, possibly by interacting with the same hypothetical cellular effector protein.

Abstract approved:

Thesis supervisor

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## CHAPTER I:

# THE MOLECULAR BIOLOGY OF THE HUMAN IMMUNODEFICIENCY VIRUS TYPE-1 REV PROTEIN

Human Immunodeficiency Virus type-1 (HIV-1), the causative agent of acquired immune deficiency syndrome (AIDS) (1,2), is a retrovirus with an 8.5-kilobase genome that comprises a complex array of genetic elements. In addition to the structural proteins Gag/Pol and Env, HIV-1 encodes at least six other known protein products (3-5), including two important *trans*-acting regulators of gene expression called Tat and Rev (Fig. 1). The mRNAs corresponding to these various gene products are all derived from a single primary transcript which spans the entire HIV-1 genome, and which can be differentially spliced to produce three classes of mRNAs. Unspliced message encodes the Gag and Gag/Pol polypeptides (3). A single splicing event, initiating 5' to the Gag translational start and removing nearly the entire Gag/Pol coding region, gives rise to Env message, or, alternatively, to mRNAs encoding Vif, Vpu or Vpr, depending on the 3' splice acceptor site utilized (3,4). A second splice, eliminating the *env* coding sequence, creates the multiply spliced messages encoding Tat, Rev or Nef proteins (5).

All of the unspliced and singly spliced mRNAs contain signals for further splicing reactions, and can therefore be considered incompletely spliced messages. This is an unusual circumstance for alternatively spliced mRNAs. Most cellular genes that undergo alternative splicing do so by exon skipping or by alternative splice-site selection, resulting in deletion of one or both

Figure 1. Genomic organization and mRNA production by HIV-1. Schematic representation of the 9 kilobase proviral genome. Coding sequences for the viral proteins are depicted by rectangles. Tat and Rev are each specified by two coding exons separated by the same intron. Sequences encoding the four known splice donor (D1-D4) and six known splice acceptor (S1-S6) sites are indicated. Representative unspliced, singly spliced, and multiply spliced mRNAs are depicted below, with the proteins they encode listed at right. Dotted lines indicate the regions excised by splicing to produce a given mRNA. LTR = Long terminal repeat; R = Vpr; U = Vpu.

# HIV-1

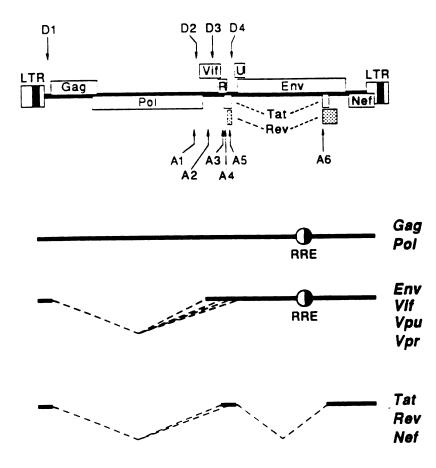


Figure 1

splice sites (6,7). Cellular messages that contain intact splicing signals are retained in the nucleus, and so are not allowed access to the cytoplasmic translation system until they are fully spliced. Because of the overlapping organization of genes in HIV-1 and many other retroviral genomes, however, the distinction between introns and exons is blurred: for example, the *env* exon can be treated as an intronic sequence that must be removed from the doubly-spliced messages, and, likewise, the *gag/pol* exon is an intron removed from both singly- and doubly-spliced mRNAs. According to the usual rules of cellular gene expression, then, the incompletely spliced HIV-1 RNAs should normally be retained in the nucleus until splicing is complete. To resolve this problem of cytoplasmic access, HIV-1 encodes the posttranscriptional regulatory protein Rev--a small, nuclear protein encoded by multiply-spliced HIV-1 mRNAs (8).

Proviruses that harbor mutations in the *rev* gene are incapable of producing the structural proteins of the virion, and so are defective for virus replication (8-10). Transcription of *rev*-defective provirus proceeds normally: following activation by cellular transcription factors, Tat protein is produced, and it acts on the LTR to enhance transcription to very high levels. These transcripts are processed in the nucleus, and the three classes of RNAs accumulate there, but only the fully spliced mRNAs appear in the cytoplasm (11-13). The incompletely spliced mRNAs encoding the virion structural proteins are trapped in the nucleus, as would be expected of other incompletely spliced mRNAs. Addition of Rev protein in *trans*, however, relieves this nuclear retention, and results in cytoplasmic expression and translation of the structural messages. Rev, therefore, is an essential, posttranscriptional regulator of viral gene expression that allows the

cytoplasmic expression of incompletely spliced viral mRNAs.

Rev acts through a cis-acting RNA sequence within the env coding region known as the Rev-response element (RRE). The RRE was initially described as a 240-base sequence which has the potential to form a highly complex secondary structure, comprising a major double-stranded stem (Stem 1) crowned by a single-stranded loop that includes four smaller stem-loops designated SL2-SL5 (Fig. 2). Deletion of the entire RRE renders viral messages unresponsive to Rev, and regulation is restored only when the RRE is reinserted in the correct orientation. These observations led Malim et al. to postulate that Rev binds specifically to the RRE, and that binding of Rev in the nucleus of the cell allows cytoplasmic expression of the incompletely spliced structural mRNAs (13). This hypothesis was supported by subsequent studies demonstrating RRE-specific RNA binding by Rev in vitro (14-18). Rev was shown to bind with high affinity to one specific stem-loop structure within the RRE, called SL2, as well as to lower-affinity sites located throughout the RRE. Although much of the RRE, including the low affinity sites, can be deleted, SL2 is critically required for RRE function (16, 17).

Interestingly, the RRE is not the sole requirement for Rev regulation of a given mRNA. When the RRE was inserted into a beta-globin intron, the message was processed normally, and no unspliced mRNA was seen in the cytoplasm in response to Rev expression (19). However, replacement of either of the globin splice sites with the corresponding HIV-1 signals conferred Rev regulation. Moreover, mutations of the globin splice sites which were known to decrease the processing efficiency of the message also conferred Rev responsiveness. Globin RNAs which were rendered Rev-responsive were seen to accumulate in the nucleus as unspliced precursor in

Figure 2. Sequence and predicted secondary structure of the HIV-1 RRE. The sequence depicted corresponds to residues 7770-8011 of the viral genome, and lies within the Env coding region. The broken circle indicates the primary binding site for Rev. SLII-SLV = Stem loops I to V. Redrawn from ref. 13 with modifications from refs. 91 and 92.

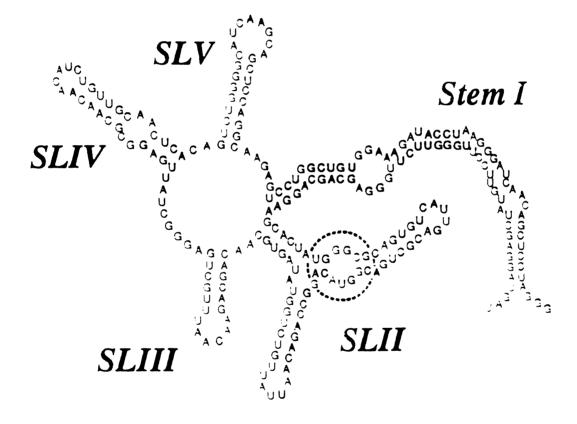


Figure 2

the absence of Rev, whereas the RRE-containing message with wild-type globin signals did not accumulate. The authors interpreted these data as evidence that Rev regulation requires engagement by the cellular splicing machinery, and that Rev might function, in part, by inhibition of splicing (19). An alternative interpretation of these data is that there is a kinetic requirement for Rev function: unspliced, RRE-containing precursor must persist within the nucleus in order for Rev to act on it. When, as in the case of wild-type splice sites, the splicing reaction is efficient, RRE-containing substrate is efficiently processed, and there is little unspliced product for Rev to act upon.

Although there are no known cellular counterparts of Rev, proteins with Rev-like function are encoded by a number of evolutionarily distinct retroviruses, including the simian (20) and feline (21) immunodeficiency viruses, sheep Visna virus (22), and the Human T-cell Leukemia Virus (HTLV) types I and II (23, 24). Although these proteins have widely divergent sequences, each appears to function in a manner analogous to that of HIV-1 Rev. For example, the HTLV-I protein, Rex, acts through its operator, the Rex response element (XRE), to induce the cytoplasmic expression of HTLV-I structural mRNAs (23). Indeed, Rimsky *et al.* made the remarkable observation that, although Rev and Rex share virtually no amino acid sequence similarity, Rex can functionally replace Rev to rescue the production of virions from a *rev*-defective HIV-1 provirus (24). It was subsequently discovered that Rex regulates HIV-1 expression by binding to the RRE at a site distinct from the Rev high-affinity site (25).

Further evidence of a common pathway for Rev and Rex transactivation comes from mutational analysis of the two proteins. Rev is divided into two

distinct functional domains. The larger, N-terminal domain includes an arginine-rich tract (residues 34-50) that is critical for function. Mutations in this region affect the nuclear transport, nucleolar localization, and RRE-specific binding activity of the protein (26,27). Additionally, residues at positions 14-20 are also required for Rev function, and appear to contribute to RNA binding and multimerization (28, 29). The second, more carboxy-terminal domain of Rev contains essential residues that do not contribute to RNA binding or subcellular localization. Instead, mutations in this region, which is called the effector domain, are thought to interfere with critical functional contacts between Rev and an unidentified (and still hypothetical) cellular cofactor--perhaps a component of the splicing or transport apparatus. Some mutations in the effector domain can give rise to a dominant-negative Rev mutant--a molecule which is not only inactive, but can block the function of wild-type Rev when expressed in excess in the same cell (26).

Although the domain structure of Rex is not as simple as that of Rev, residues important for nuclear and nucleolar localization, and for XRE-specific binding have been identified by mutagenic analysis of the protein (30-33). Dominant-negative Rex mutants were also derived in these studies, and these molecules were found to inhibit Rev transactivation through the RRE as well (31,32). Further analysis revealed that dominant-negative Rex mutants can inhibit Rev activity even when the RRE is modified to abolish Rex-specific binding, and that dominant-negative Rev mutants can also inhibit Rex function without binding the response-element (25). This reciprocal inhibition in the absence of response-element binding by the dominant-negative proteins implies that the inhibition does not occur by competition for the regulated RNAs, and supports the hypothesis that the

inhibition can occur by competition for a common cellular cofactor that is involved in transactivation by both Rev and Rex.

In the following pages, I describe a series of studies designed to characterize the functional domains of Rev and Rex, and to investigate the contribution of these domains, and of their RNA response elements, to this novel form of gene regulation. Chapter two describes the development of a simplified assay for Rev and Rex function based on the forced regulation of the bacterial chloramphenicol acetyl-transferase (CAT) gene in cell culture transfection experiments. Each of the following four chapters correspond to individual publications resulting from these studies which can be found in references 28, 34, 35 and 36. In particular, chapter three describes initial mutagenesis of the Rev protein, and the identification of critical amino-acid residues N-terminal to the arginine-rich tract. Chapter four deals with the mutagenesis of the Rev-response element, resulting in the derivation of a minimal-length RRE that is active in vivo. The fifth chapter describes the use of a Rev/Rex chimeric fusion protein to further map functional domains of the two proteins, demonstrating that Rex contains an effector domain that is functionally equivalent to that of Rev, and that they are likely to share structural similarity. In chapter six, fusion of Rev and Rex to the RNAbinding bacteriophage MS2 coat protein is shown to redirect the target specificity of the two proteins. The chimeras transactivate efficiently through the MS2-binding site, and do not require any RRE or XRE sequences to function. Mutation of the Rev/MS2 chimera reveals that residues outside the effector domain are dispensable for function, supporting a model for Rev transactivation in which the essential contribution of the RNA-binding domain and of the RRE is to tether effector domains onto the regulated RNA.

The final chapter contains a summary and discussion of the results presented. My collaborators for each of these studies are listed in the acknowledgements on page iv.

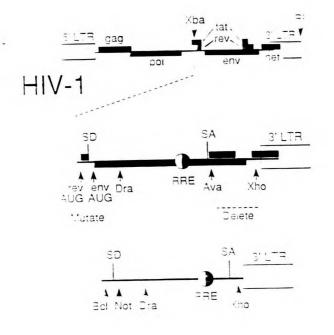
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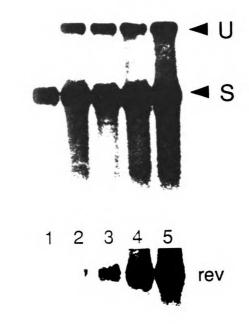
# CHAPTER II:

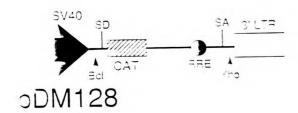
# A NOVEL TRANSFECTION ASSAY FOR REV FUNCTION

Rev was first identified functionally by its ability to rescue virion production from a *rev*-defective provirus when infected cells were cotransfected with a Rev expression construct (8). While this proviral assay can provide a sensitive measure of Rev activity, it involves the production of a potentially lethal pathogen, and also can be influenced by the expression of other proteins encoded in the HIV-1 genome. We wished to simplify the assay of Rev function, and to eliminate potential complications that might result from the expression of other viral gene products. To this end, we developed a reporter plasmid, called pDM128, derived from the 3' half of the HIV-1 genome (Fig. 3A). This construct contains unique HIV-1 donor and acceptor splice sites flanking the env exon, and is driven by the simian virus 40 (SV40) promoter. In addition, a portion of the env exon is replaced by the bacterial chloramphenicol acetyl-transferase (CAT) coding sequence to create a CAT-encoding unspliced message which mimics Rev-regulated Env expression. In the absence of Rev, the unspliced message encoding CAT is retained in the nucleus of the cell, and no CAT protein is produced. Coexpression of Rev allows the cytoplasmic expression of this unspliced message, and so enables CAT to be translated. CAT activity is very low in cells transfected with pDM128 alone, and increases up to 100-fold in response to functional Rev expression.

Figure 3. A transient transfection assay for Rev activity. (A) Derivation of the Rev-dependent reporter plasmid pDM128 from the HIV-1 genome. The RRE and the splice donor (SD) and splice acceptor (SA) sites are indicated. (B) Cytoplasmic RNA expression in COS7 cells transfected with 0.5  $\mu$ g of pDM128 either alone (lane 1) or with 2, 5, 10, or 20  $\mu$ g of pRSV-Rev (lanes 2-5). Duplicate 5- $\mu$ g aliquots of RNA were probed for spliced (S) and unspliced (U) pDM128 transcripts by using a 3' LTR probe (Upper) or for *rev* coding sequences (Lower). The 3' LTR probe was HIV-1 nt 8915-9575; the Rev probe was a full-length cDNA. (C) CAT enzyme assay of CV1 cells cotransfected with 1  $\mu$ g of p128 and the indicated amounts of wild-type (lanes 7-11) or mutant forms of pRSV-Rev (lanes 12 and 13). FS = frameshift at Rev codon 58 as described (13);  $\Delta$ 2 = in-frame deletion of codons 38-50.







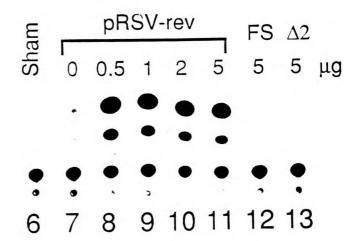


Figure 3

### MATERIALS AND METHODS

Plasmid constructions. The reporter plasmid pDM128 was derived from pSV9B, which transcribes the genome of HIV-1 strain SF2 under control of the simian virus-40 (SV40) promoter and enhancer (37). The 5' half of the HIV-1 genome, encoding the gag and pol genes, was deleted to nucleotide (nt) 5863, and replaced with an Xba I linker. Oligonucleotide-directed mutagenesis (38) was used to introduce an Eco RI site at the end of the 3' LTR (nt 9722), and to replace the rev and env start codons with unique Bcl I and Not I sites at nt 5979 and 6233, respectively. The second exon of *rev* was deleted by introduction of an Ava I site at 8915 and subsequent deletion to the Ava I site at nt 8400. The CAT gene was placed at the env translational start site by subcloning the 780-base pair CAT coding sequence into the Not I toDra III sites. The entire transcription unit (Sal I/Eco RI) was then subcloned into pUC9 to produce pDM128 (see Fig. 3). The pDM138 derivative was constructed by replacing the 1.2-kb Stu I-Bsm I fragment of the env intron (nt 6852-8066), which contains the RRE, with a unique Cla I site. pRSV-Rev contains the Rev coding sequence from HIV-1 strain BRU (39), the Rous sarcoma virus (RSV) promoter, and HIV-1 polyadenylation signals (nt 9575-9694) in pUC118. The sequences of the pDM128 and pRSV-Rev transcription units can be found in appendix A.

Transfection and Expression Assays. Transfections were performed by the calcium phosphate coprecipitation method using doubly CsCl-purified plasmids. Each 10-cm plate of cells received the indicated amounts of Rev plasmids along with 1 µg of pDM128, and sufficient pUC118 to maintain total

DNA input at 10  $\mu$ g. Cells were washed 16 h later and given fresh medium, and then harvested 30-36 h after transfection. For isolation of cytoplasmic RNA, cells from each transfected plate were washed once in Tris-buffered saline and then resuspended in 200 $\mu$ l of ice-cold 10 mM Tris (pH 8.0)-10 mM NaCl-1.5mM MgCl<sub>2</sub>-.5% (wt/vol) 3-[(3-cholamidopropyl)-dimethyl-amonio]-1-propanesulfonate (CHAPS)-20% (wt/vol) sucrose. Nuclei were removed by microcentrifugation (1 min. and then 10 min.) at 4 $^{\circ}$ C. Supernatants were combined with 200  $\mu$ l of Tris-buffered saline-0.5% CHAPS-0.5% sodium dodecyl sulfate and repeatedly extracted with phenol-chloroform. RNA was then precipitated with ethanol, analyzed by formaldehyde-agarose gel electrophoresis, transferred to nitrocellulose, and probed for pDM128- or Revspecific sequences.

For CAT assays, 0.25  $\mu g$  of the  $\beta$ -galactosidase expression vector pCH110 (40) was included in the transfected DNA to provide an internal control for transfection efficiency and for nonspecific effects on the SV40 promoter. After harvesting the transfected cells, lysates were prepared by freeze thawing three times in 0.25 M Tris (pH 7.5) followed by centrifugation. Aliquots of lysate were assayed colorimetrically for  $\beta$ -galactosidase activity, and volumes that contained equal  $\beta$ -galactosidase activity were then assayed for CAT enzyme activity, which was quantitated by thin-layer chromatography and scintillation counting.

## **RESULTS**

We first asked whether the pDM128 reporter accurately mimicked a Revregulated transcript at the level of cytoplasmic mRNA expression. COS7 cells were transfected with pDM128 alone or with pRSV-Rev, and cytoplasmic RNA was isolated and analyzed by Northern blot hybridization (Fig 3B). In the absence of cotransfected Rev, only a single band, corresponding to the spliced form of the reporter, was detected in the cytoplasm. Addition of a small amount of pRSV-Rev plasmid resulted in the appearance of the unspliced transcript, containing the CAT coding sequence, in the cytoplasm. Increasing amounts of pRSV-Rev did not induce significantly more unspliced message, suggesting that under these assay conditions, maximal Rev-response is achieved by relatively low levels of protein expression.

The ability of Rev to control CAT protein expression was next tested. In this case, CV1 cells, which lack the SV40 T-antigen, were chosen for transfection. Because COS7 cells express T-antigen, SV40-based vectors, such as pDM128, are expressed at very high levels. While this is convenient for the relatively insensitive Northern blot RNA assay, we have found that transfection of pDM128 into COS7 cells results in significant expression of CAT enzyme activity in the absence of Rev, presumably due to leakage of the unspliced message from the nucleus. Transfection of pDM128 alone into CV1 cells, on the other hand, resulted in a very low level of CAT activity (Fig. 3C). When pRSV-Rev was included in the transfection, CAT activity was dramatically increased by more than 75-fold. Addition of increasing amounts of pRSV-Rev plasmid did not induce more CAT activity, again suggesting that this assay system is sensitive to low levels of Rev expression. That the induction of CAT activity is dependent on expression of a functional Rev protein is demonstrated in lanes 12 and 13, in which addition of two mutant forms of Rev, previously shown to be nonfunctional (26), did not increase CAT activity above background levels. As a control for transfection efficiency

and for nonspecific effects on the SV40 promoter, the plasmid pCH110 (40), which directs the synthesis of the bacterial  $\beta$ -galactosidase gene under control of the SV40 promoter, is included in all transfections. After harvesting the transfected cells, volumes of lysate containing equal amounts of  $\beta$ -galactosidase activity are assayed for CAT activity. This internal transfection control allows accurate quantitative comparison of all samples in the transfection.

We next tested the ability of the reporter to detect limiting amounts of Rev protein. The RSV promoter in pRSV-Rev was replaced by the Herpes Simplex Virus type 1 (HSV-1) minimal thymidine kinase promoter to make ptk-Rev. This vector expresses at least 25 fold less Rev protein than pRSV-Rev, as judged by Western immunoblotting (data not shown). When ptk-Rev was tested for its ability to transactivate in this assay, we found that CAT expression was induced in a linear, dose-dependent manner. Under standard conditions, as little as 1 $\mu$ g of pRSV-Rev induced maximal CAT expression. One  $\mu$ g of ptk-Rev, on the other hand, yielded only partial transactivation, and the CAT response increased in direct proportion to the amount of ptk-Rev plasmid used, up to 5  $\mu$ g (Fig. 4).

## DISCUSSION

The pDM128 assay has a number of advantages over other Rev detection methods that have been reported. Because there is no HIV virion production involved, the need for biological containment is minimal. Other assays based on the regulation of *env* (12) or of a truncated form of *tat* (13) by Rev have been described, but these assays require high-level expression of the reporter

Figure 4. Quantitative analysis of Rev transactivation in CV1 cells. Induction of CAT enzyme activity from reporter plasmid pDM128 by cotransfection of Rev expression vectors. Each plate of cells received 1 µg of pDM128. Western blot titrations indicate that pRSV-Rev yields at least 25-fold higher Rev protein expression than does an equivalent amount of ptk-Rev (data not shown).

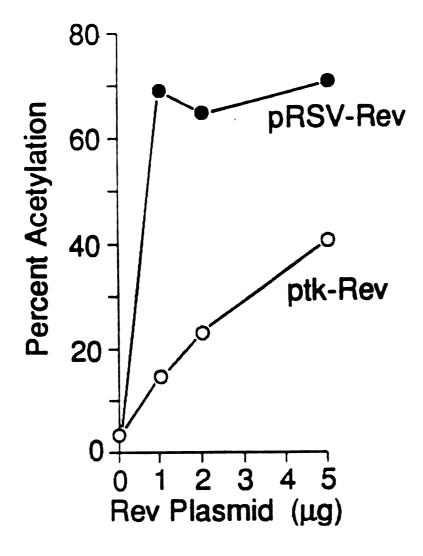


Figure 4

using replicating vectors, and depend upon immunoprecipitation of biosynthetically radiolabelled products by specific antisera to detect the regulated polypeptides. Detection of the CAT protein, by comparison, is extremely sensitive, easy to perform and relatively inexpensive. Because pDM128 does not require plasmid replication, the assay can be applied to a wide variety of cell types. We and others have successfully detected pDM128 transactivation by Rev in human fibroblast and T-cell lines, mouse L-cells, and rat, chicken and quail cell lines.

We have also derived a related reporter, called pDM138, in which the Revresponse element of pDM128 is replaced by a unique *Cla* I restriction site. As expected, this reporter does not respond to Rev transactivation, but reintroduction of the RRE in the correct orientation restores the response. This plasmid has been useful for mapping important sequences in the RRE, as will be discussed in Chapter IV, and for testing response elements of other Rev-like proteins (Chapter V), as well as heterologous RNA targets (Chapter VI).

The intermediate responses seen with limiting amounts of Rev in the pDM128 assay contradict a report by Pomerantz *et al.*, who observed a nonlinear, threshold effect of Rev expression required for efficient replication of a *rev*-defective provirus. The authors hypothesized that this effect might indicate an important role for Rev in the maintenance of proviral latency (41). Although the reason for these differing observations is not known, it is probably due to differences in the assays. Transactivation of pDM128 is dependent only on Rev expression, whereas the proviral rescue assay relies on the expression of HIV-1 structural proteins and assembly of virion particles. Therefore, the observed threshold effect could be at some other

## CHAPTER III:

## MUTATIONAL ANALYSIS OF HIV-1 REV

Rev is encoded by two viral exons specifying amino acids 1 to 26 and 27 to 116, respectively. Previous studies (26) have distinguished two regions of the protein that are essential for its function in vivo. The first of these has been mapped by mutagenesis to amino acids 25 to 50 (26, 27) and so encompasses a prominent arginine-rich tract at residues 35 to 50; this region contains the signals that target Rev to nuclei and nucleoli (26, 27, 42) and may also participate in binding of the RRE (48). A second region near amino acid 80 is also required for transactivation but appears to have no role in localization of the protein (26). Point mutations outside these two regions have little or no effect on Rev activity. Some evidence suggests, however, that additional sequences near the N-terminus might also contribute to function. Malim et al. (26) have observed, for example, that deletion of amino acids 5 to 17 abolishes transactivation, and exon-shuffling experiments suggest that residues within the first 26 amino acids of Rev may be a major determinant of its specificity for the RRE (20). We therefore undertook a further mutational analysis of Rev to identify features at the N-terminus that are essential for biological activity.

# MATERIALS AND METHODS

Fluorescence immunocytochemistry. COS7 cells growing on glass cover slips were transfected with derivatives of pRSV-Rev or pRSV-Rev/GR (10 µg

per 3-cm plate). At 40 h after transfection, the cells were briefly washed twice in phosphate-buffered saline (PBS) and once in ice-cold methanol, fixed in methanol at -20°C for 20 min, and air-dried for 1 h. After rehydration for 15 min, the specimens were incubated for 2 h in the primary antiserum, washed for 15 min, incubated for 1 h in a 1:50 dilution of rhodamine-conjugated goat anti-rabbit immunoglobulin G (Boehringer Mannheim), and then washed again for 15 min, all in PBS at room temperature. Use of the primary GR antiserum has been described (42). The primary Rev antiserum was a mixture of two rabbit antipeptide sera (each at 1:800 dilution) directed against residues 1 to 20 and 27 to 50, respectively (9), along with a third rabbit serum (a gift from M.-L. Hammarskjold and D. Rekosh; used at 1:1500 dilution) raised against an *E. coli* fusion protein (43) that contained the C-terminal half of Rev.

Western immunoblot analysis. COS7 cells transfected 40 h previously with the indicated plasmids (20  $\mu$ g per 10-cm plate) were washed and then suspended in 75  $\mu$ l of 100 mM Tris (pH 7.5)-50 mM NaCl-10% glycerol-1 mM dithiothreitol--1 mM phenylmethysulfonyl fluoride-1 mg each of leupeptin, aprotinin, and pepstatin per ml. Cells were lysed by three cycles of freeze-thawing, and samples containing equivalent amounts of total protein were analyzed by sodium dodecyl sulfate-polyacrilamide gel electrophoresis and then transferred to nitrocellulose by electroblotting. The membranes were then preincubated for 15 min, incubated for 1 h with the mixed primary Rev antisera described above, briefly washed three times, incubated for 1 h with 5  $\mu$ Ci of <sup>125</sup>I-labeled staphylococcal protein A (Amersham), and again washed three times, all at room temperature in PBS containing 2.5% (wt/vol) nonfat dry milk and 0.1% Tween-20.

## **RESULTS**

With pRSV-Rev as a template for oligonucleotide-directed mutagenesis, we prepared a series of plasmids that encode mutant forms of Rev. The mutations included some deletions and frameshifts as well as individual and clustered missense mutations at selected sites throughout the protein. Each of these mutants was then tested for its ability to induce CAT expression from pDM128 in the cotransfection assay. As seen in Fig. 5, we found that several mutations involving amino acids 27 to 50, as well as three different mutations involving the C-terminal half of the protein, completely abolished transactivation, whereas mutations in the intervening region (residues 53 to 66) had relatively little effect. The properties of these mutants was consistent with previous studies (26). We also observed that deletion of N-terminal residues 4 to 26 strongly inhibited Rev function, suggesting that critical residues might lie in this region.

The Rev protein sequence encoded by pRSV-Rev is that of HIV-1 strain BRU (39). In this sequence, positions 7 to 11 are occupied by a cluster of acidic amino acids that includes one of the two phosphoserines in Rev (26), and positively charged residues are found at positions 4, 14, 17 and 20 (Fig. 6A). A computerized secondary-structure prediction, done by the method of Finer-Moore and Stroud (44) indicated that the N-terminal region of Rev (amino acids 8 to 18) has a very strong propensity to form an  $\alpha$ -helix.

With these features in mind, we constructed and tested six additional derivatives of pRSV-Rev (designated MA1 through MA6) that contained missense mutations in the N-terminal region. As illustrated in Fig. 6B, most of these mutations had relatively minor effects on Rev function. Mutations

Figure 5. Functional analysis of mutant HIV-1 Rev proteins. Mutations were introduced into the coding region of pRSV-Rev by oligonucleotidedirected mutagenesis (38). Hatching denotes the location of the arginine-rich tract in the wild-type protein; vertical bars indicate sites of missense mutations. In-frame deletions of indicated codons are designated with  $\Delta$ ; fs58 is a frameshift mutation at codon 58 created by cleaving pRSV-Rev with Bam HI, filling in with the Klenow fragment of DNA polymerase I and religation. A short C-terminal missense coding sequence is added as a consequence of the frame-shift (filled rectangle). Naming of missense mutants indicates the native and mutant residues (in single-letter code) at the affected positions; for instance, Y 23 S refers to a substitution of serine for tyrosine at position 23. LE 78, 79 is identical to the mutant designated M10 in ref. 13 and Fig. 9. The autoradiogram depicts results of CAT enzyme assays of extracts from CV1 cells that had been cotransfected with pDM128 and wildtype or mutant pRSV-Rev; these data are from a single representative experiment. Sham, pUC118 and pCH110 (β-galactosidase control plasmid) only; None, no pRSV-Rev. Summarized at right are the relative activities of mutants compared with wild-type Rev, based on two or more tests of each construct: +++=50 to 100%; ++=25 to 50%; +, 5 to 25%; -, 0 to 5%.

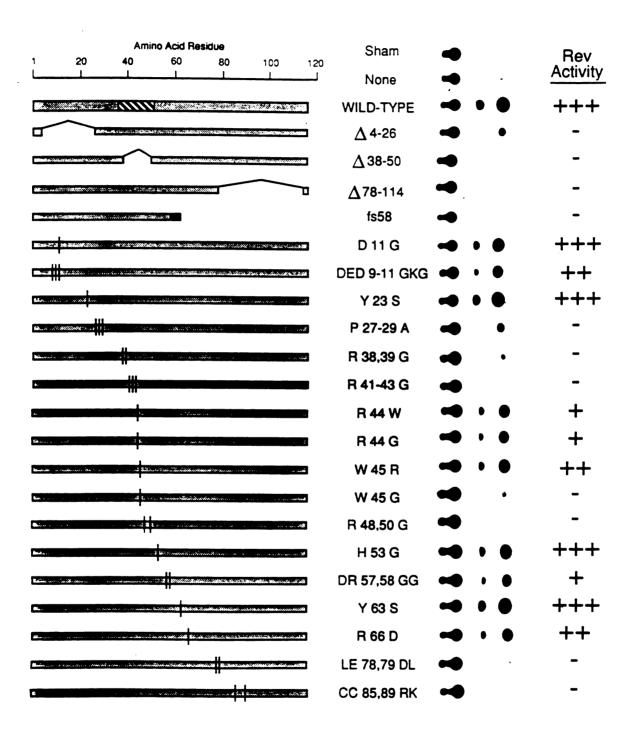
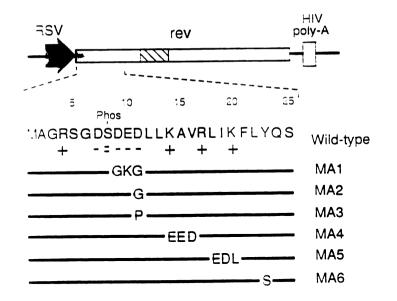
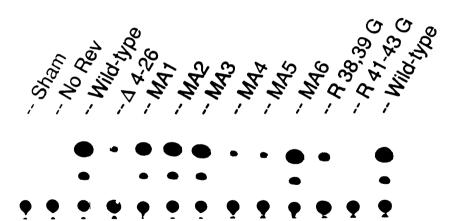
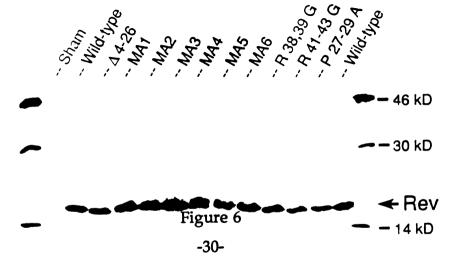


Figure 5

Figure 6. Mutations near the N-terminus can functionally inactivate Rev. (A) Structures of wild-type and N-terminal mutant forms of pRSV-Rev. Hatching denotes the arginine-tract. N-terminal amino-acid sequences (in single letter code) are depicted for the wild-type and six mutants. Charged residues in the wild-type sequence are also indicated. HIV-1 poly-A, HIV-1 polyadenylation site. (B) CAT enzyme assay of CV1 cells after cotransfection of pDM128 with wild-type or mutant forms of pRSV-Rev. Sham, pUC118 and pCH110 only; No Rev, pDM128, pCH110 and pUC118. (C) Western blot detection of variant Rev proteins in transfected COS7 cells with Rev-specific antisera and radioiodinated protein A after fractionation in a 14? polyacrylamide gel. Positions of <sup>14</sup>C-labeled molecular mass standards (in kilodaltons) are indicated at right.







that altered the charge of the acidic region (MA1) or introduced helix-breaking amino acids at position 11 (MA2 and MA3) produced only partial loss of activity, and replacement of tyrosine by serine at position 23 (MA6) had little effect. In striking contrast, however, two mutations (MA4 and MA5) that introduced acidic residues at positions 14 to 16 or 18 to 20, respectively, completely abolished function.

Western blot analysis was performed to see if the effect of the N-terminal mutations resulted from decreased protein stability. When lysates of transfected COS7 cells were analyzed with Rev-specific antisera, each plasmid was found to yield a single predominant immunoreactive protein (Fig 6C). The mutant proteins were expressed at levels comparable to that of the wild type and were of the expected molecular weight.

The subcellular distribution of these mutant proteins was analyzed by fluorescence immunocytochemistry in situ. When COS7 cells that had been transfected with wild-type pRSV-Rev were stained with Rev-specific antisera (Fig. 7), Rev was found to be associated primarily with nucleoli, as reported previously (9). This pattern of localization was also observed for the functional mutants MA1, MA2, MA3, and MA6 (data not shown). In contrast, the inactive mutants MA4 and MA5 were each expressed diffusely throughout both nucleus and cytoplasm (Fig. 7). Thus, the inability of these mutant proteins to transactivate is associated with improper subcellular localization in transfected cells.

We then asked whether the function of these mutants could be restored by correcting the defect in nuclear translocation. Our lab has reported that translocation defective Rev mutants can be transported efficiently into the nucleus by fusion with a portion of the rat glucocorticoid receptor (GR) (42).

Figure 7. Defective subcellular localization of Rev proteins that contain N-terminal mutations. COS7 cells that had been transfected with wild-type or mutant pRSV-Rev were fixed *in situ* and then stained with a mixture of three Rev-specific primary antisera, followed by a fluorescent second antibody. Approximately 5% of cells in each population showed detectable expression of the transfected gene by this assay. The results shown are typical of two or more independent experiments with each construct.

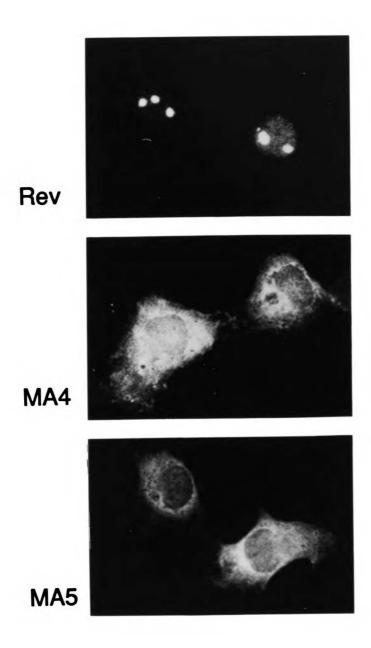
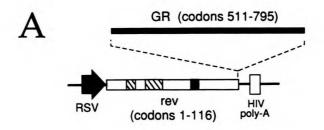


Figure 7

Although the GR moiety ensures nuclear translocation of such fusion proteins when steroid is present, signals in the Rev moiety remain essential for nucleolar localization and for transactivation. To test for such signals in the N-terminus, we introduced selected mutations into the expression vector pRSV-Rev/GR, which codes for the Rev/GR fusion protein (Fig 8A). The resulting plasmids were transfected into CV1 cells growing in the presence of a steroid agonist. By Western blotting, each of the mutants was found to be strongly expressed in the transfected cells (Fig. 8D). Every mutant tested(Δ4-26, MA1, MA4 and MA5) also exhibited a wild-type pattern of localization in hormone treated cells (e.g. Fig. 8B), implying that these mutations did not inactivate the nucleolar targeting signals in Rev. Unlike the wild-type and MA1 fusion proteins, however, proteins that contained the MA4 and MA5 mutations failed to transactivate CAT expression from pDM128 (Fig. 8C). The latter mutations can therefore abolish transactivation even in the absence effect on protein localization.

Malim, *et al.* (26) have demonstrated that certain inactive mutant rev proteins can block the activity of the wild-type protein in *trans*. This dominant-negative phenotype has been observed only for mutations in the C-terminal half of Rev; mutations in the arginine rich tract have yielded only recessive-negative proteins. To determine whether MA4 or MA5 had *trans*-inhibitory activity, we tested the ability of the mutant plasmids to block the function of a wild-type Rev vector in our transfection assay. For comparison, two plasmids (Δ78-114 and M10) encoding C-terminal mutants were also tested. As illustrated in Fig. 9, cotransfection of increasing amounts of these C-terminal variants progressively inhibited the induction of CAT by

Figure 8. Function and subcellular localization of mutant Rev/GR fusion proteins in the presence of steroid hormone. (A) Structure of pRSV-Rev/GR. This vector was derived by inserting cDNA sequences encoding the steroidbinding domain of the rat GR into codon 116 of pRSV-Rev in frame (42). Hatching indicates locations of the arginine-rich tract and of the MA4 and MA5 mutations; the black rectangle marks residues 75 to 90. (B) Nucleolar localization of wild-type Rev/GR and representative mutants in the presence of dexamethasone. Proteins were detected by using primary antisera specific for the Rev moiety. (C) Transactivation of CAT expression by mutant and wild-type Rev/GR. CV1 cells were cotransfected with pDM128, pCH110, and a pRSV-Rev derivative and were then grown in the continuous presence of the steroid agonist dexamethasone (10-5 M) for 36 h prior to harvest. As expected (42), none of the Rev/GR derivatives showed detectable activity in the absence of steroid (data not shown). (D) Western blot hybridization of Rev and Rev/GR expression in transfected COS7 cells. Proteins were detected by using Rev-specific antisera after fractionation on a denaturing 12% polyacrylamide gel. kD, Kilodaltons.



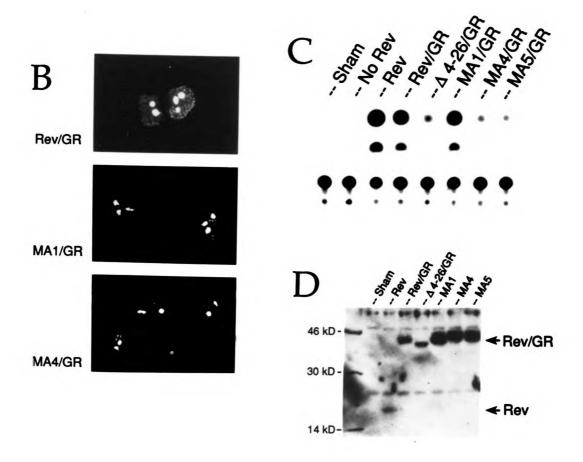


Figure 8

Figure 9. Lack of *trans*-dominant inhibitory activity in N-terminal mutants of the Rev protein. CV1 cells were cotransfected with pDM128, pCH110 and 5 μg of ptk-Rev along with the indicated amounts of wild-type ptk-Rev or pRSV-Rev (competitor) plasmid. CAT expression was assayed 36 h later and is expressed relative to the value observed in the absence of any competitor plasmid. Steady-state expression of Rev protein from ptk-Rev was substantially lower than that produced by an equimolar amount of pRSV-Rev (data not shown). M10 is the pRSV-Rev equivalent of a mutant derived by Malim *et al.* (26) and is identified as LE 78, 79 DL in Fig. 5B.

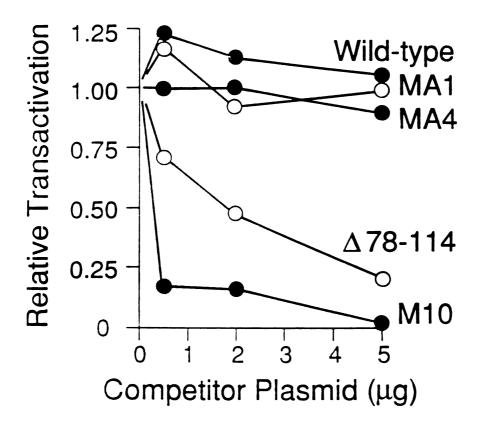


Figure 9

wild-type Rev. As little as 5 µg of M10, a mutant previously shown to be strongly dominant-negative (26), was sufficient to achieve 98% inhibition of transactivation in this assay. In contrast, neither MA4 nor MA5 produced significant inhibition under any of the conditions tested. We therefore conclude that both MA4 and MA5 are recessive-negative mutants.

# DISCUSSION

The Rev transactivator of HIV-1 is a small RNA-binding protein that is thought to interact with certain incompletely spliced HIV-1 transcripts in the nucleus (14,15,45). As a result of this interaction, the transcripts are selectively exported to the cytoplasm, where they direct the synthesis of essential virion proteins (11,13,46). The precise mechanism of Rev action remains unknown, but its importance in the viral life cycle is clear: HIV-1 proviruses that cannot express functional Rev protein also fail to generate infectious viral particles (8,10,47). It appears likely that this form of posttranscriptional control is critical for other primate retroviruses as well. Thus, similar Rev proteins are expressed by HIV-2 and by simian immunodeficiency virus (SIV) (20), and a structurally distinct protein (termed Rex) produced by human T-cell leukemia virus type I (HTLV-I) appears to serve a virtually identical function (25). The effect of each of these proteins is mediated by a cis-acting RNA target element found in transcripts from the corresponding virus. Although their sequences are unique to each virus, some of these proteins and response elements can substitute for one another under certain conditions (20, 24, 31), implying that they may act through a common pathway.

This study is an extension of earlier work (26) which delineated two

essential regions in the Rev protein of HIV-1. One of these spans the arginine-rich tract at amino acids 35 to 50 and has also been shown to extend to near residue 25; the other lies in the C-terminal half of the protein. Although mutations in either region can inactivate Rev, the resulting mutant proteins have markedly dissimilar properties. Thus, mutations in the arginine-rich region tend to be recessive negative and to disrupt localization of the protein, whereas mutations near amino acid 80 impair function without affecting localization and can exhibit a dominant-negative phenotype.

Here we have presented the results of a further mutational analysis of Rev. Using a reporter plasmid to detect Rev transactivation in vivo, a series of missense mutations was tested that together involved over 40% of the residues in the N-terminal half of the protein. While generally confirming the results of earlier studies, these data also reveal that point mutations at positions 14 to 16 or 18 to 20 can completely abolish Rev function. The N-terminal domain defined by these mutations (MA4 and MA5) coincides with a relatively basic segment of the protein in which three of seven consecutive amino acids carry positive charges. Indeed, the density of basic residues in this short segment of the proteins that of the nearby arginine tract: the mutant proteins do not accumulate normally within nuclei and fail to act as *trans*-dominant inhibitors of wild-type Rev. In light of these similarities, it is reasonable to view the N-terminal locus together with the arginine-rich tract as a single contiguous domain, spanning residues 14 to 50, that is essential for the localization and function of Rev.

When transported passively into the nucleus by fusion with the GR, Rev proteins containing certain mutations in the arginine-rich region are

selectively excluded from nucleoli (42), suggesting that the affected residues may target Rev to that organelle. Other mutations in this region, however, inactivate the Rev/GR fusion protein without affecting its localization (42). The latter finding provides support for the view that sequences in the arginine-rich tract form part of the RRE-binding domain of Rev, just as similar arginine-rich motifs are thought to function in a variety of eucaryotic and procaryotic RNA-binding proteins (48). In this study, we found no evidence that sequences encoded by the first exon are required for nucleolar localization of Rev/GR. The finding that mutations MA4 and MA5 inactivate this fusion protein (Fig. 8) therefore implies that these mutations interfere directly with transactivation.

A comparison of predicted Rev protein sequences from all available HIV-1 isolates (49) reveals that, although individual residues in the vicinity of positions 14 to 20 may vary, the overall structure is conserved (Fig. 10). three positively charged residues, separated from one another by pairs of nonpolar amino acids, are predicted at corresponding positions in every known HIV-1 sequence. Interestingly, Rev sequences from HIV-2 and closely related strains of SIV also predict a very similar organization in this region but are distinguished by the presence of additional charged residues in several positions. By contrast, there is no recognizable counterpart of this N-terminal motif in the HTLV-I Rex protein. One obvious possibility is that, when present, the basic side chains in this region could contribute to RNA binding through electrostatic interactions. This might account for the observation (20) that a fusion protein formed by linking the first exon of HIV-1 rev with the second exon of HIV-2 rev can transactivate through the HIV-1 RRE, whereas the HIV-2 Rev protein itself cannot. It is also consistent with reports that

Figure 10. Conserved structure of an essential N-terminal motif in Rev proteins of primate immunodeficiency viruses HIV-1, HIV-2, and SIV. Predicted sequences are shown for amino-acids 12 to 23 of HIV-1 Rev and for corresponding residues in HIV-2 and SIV Rev proteins. For each viral species, a sequence from one representative strain is depicted at the top, and any alternative amino-acids found in other strains are listed below (in arbitrary order) for each position. Positively charged residues are shown by open letters, and the proposed conservation of these residues are shown by dashed-line boxes. Sequences and alignments are based on data compiled in ref. 48 and comprise 13 North American and Zairean isolates of HIV-1, seven isolates of HIV-2, and three isolates of macaque or sooty mangabey SIV.

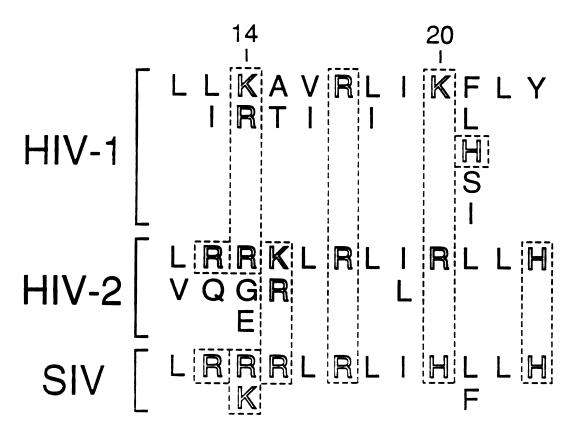


Figure 10

hybrid HIV-1 proteins containing only the second rev exon are partially (50) or completely (50, 51) defective in transactivation. It is possible, then that this novel N-terminal motif may be a principal determinant of RRE-binding specificity in Rev proteins from the primate immunodeficiency viruses.

The development of in vitro RRE-binding assays (14-17, 45) will permit a direct test of this hypothesis. A more speculative possibility is that this conserved motif mediates specific protein-protein interactions that may be essential for transactivation in vivo. The existence of such interactions, however, has not yet been demonstrated.

### CHAPTER IV:

# A MINIMAL REV-RESPONSE ELEMENT

## FOR HIV-1

Rev transactivation requires direct binding of Rev protein to the Revresponse element (RRE) present in the regulated mRNA. On the basis of functional mapping, Malim et al. (13) postulated that the RRE coincides with a 240-base region of RNA secondary structure in the env coding region; subsequent studies have confirmed both the existence of such a structure in vivo (52,53) and its importance for transactivation (15-17, 44, 54). Rev protein binds specifically to a discrete 30- to 71-base region within the RRE (16, 17), and mutations that disrupt this binding region abolish transactivation (17, 54, 55), The importance of sequences elsewhere in the RRE, however, remains uncertain: mutations at a variety of sites in the 240-base element can severely inhibit Rev binding and transactivation (14-17, 44, 54, 55), but it is not known whether these sites have independent functions or merely affect folding or accessibility of the Rev binding locus. To address this issue, we attempted to define the minimal sequence required for RRE activity. We found that an 88nucleotide truncated RRE encompassing the Rev binding site is sufficient to mediate transactivation in vivo and that two tandem copies of this sequence function as efficiently as the intact RRE. These findings imply that most of the RRE has no unique role in transactivation and suggest that Rev binding might be the only function of the RRE.

### MATERIALS AND METHODS

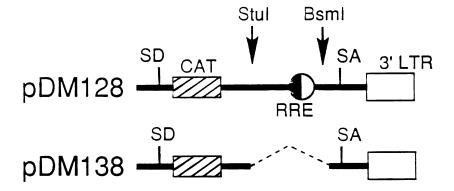
Plasmid constructions. pDM138 was prepared from pDM128 by replacing a 1.2-kb Stu I-Bsm I (HIV nt 6852 to 8066) fragment with a Cla I linker. The 318bp DNA fragment encompassing the RRE was prepared from pDM128 by the polymerase chain reaction with a pair of oligonucleotide primers with the sequences 5'-GGG-GGATCCATCGATAGGCAAAGAGAAGAG-3' and 5'-GGGGGATCCATCGATGC-AAATGAGTTTTT-3'; the amplified fragment corresponded to HIV-1 nucleotides 7725 to 8043, flanked on either side by a 15bp linker containing Cla I and BamH I sites (underlined). This fragment was trimmed with BamH I and cloned into pUC118 for oligonucleotide-directed mutagenesis (38); wild-type or mutant RRE derivatives were then excised with Cla I and subcloned into the unique Cla I site of pDM138. DNA encoding the bull mutant and its derivatives was synthesized with two partially complementary oligonucleotides that together encompassed the mutant along with flanking Cla I sites; these oligonucleotides were annealed and extended with Klenow polymerase, trimmed with Cla I, cloned in pUC118 and subsequently subcloned into the pDM138 Cla I site.

### **RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

We derived a defective reporter (pDM138) by deleting 1.2-kb of intron sequence from pDM128 which contains the RRE (Fig. 11A). Various RRE derivatives were then compared for their ability to restore transactivation when inserted at the site of the deletion. Insertion of a 318-bp DNA fragment encompassing the entire 240-base RRE conferred a 23-fold CAT induction in response to Rev (Table 1). The failure of this insertion to restore the full

Figure 11. Rev reporter constructs and the RRE. (A) A 1.2-kb *Stu I-Bsm I* fragment (HIV-1 nt 6852 to 8066) was excised from pDM128 and replaced by a *Cla I* linker to produce pDM138. The unique splice donor (SD) and acceptor (SA) sites and the RRE are indicated. LTR, Long terminal repeat.

(B) Predicted secondary structure of the RRE from HIV-1 strain SF2, redrawn from ref. 13. Note that the modifications of the structure referred to in Fig. 2 are not included here.



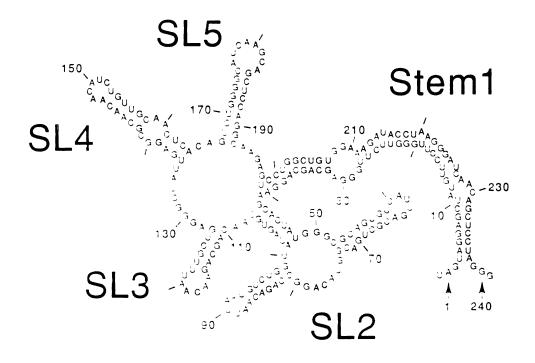


Figure 11

Table 1. Functional characterization of RRE mutants in the cotransfection assay. (a) Wild-type or mutant RREs were inserted into the pDM138  $\it Cla$  I site. Numbers in parenthes are the nucleotide positions deleted. (b) Relative CAT activity is expressid as % acetylation normalized to the  $\beta$ -glactosidase internal control. (c) Values exceeded linear range of the assay and were not used in calculating mean response.

Table 1

Construct <sup>a</sup>	Presence of Rev	Relative CAT activityb				Mean Rev
		Expt 1	Expt 2	Expt 3	Expt 4	response (fold)
pDM128	+			43.5, 53.0		110
	-			0.5, 0.4		
pDM138	+			6.2, 3.0		1
2401	-	o= =C	04.46	4.4, 3.0 69.0, 47.6	72.1	23
240-base RRE	+	87.7 <sup>c</sup> 3.5	94.6 <sup>c</sup> 6.0	3.1, 1.9	3.2	23
	-			3.1, 1.9	3.2	
ΔSL2 (43-106)	+	22.6	69.0			2
	-	11.5	37.0			
ΔSL2A (82-98)	+	4.4	12.8			2
	-	2.1	7.3			
ΔSL2B (53-72)	+	28.4	94.7			8
	-	3.5	11.2			
ΔSL3 (111-126)	+	56.4	77.3			186
	-	0.5	0.3			
ΔSL4 (137-163)	+	6.2	4.0			9
	-	0.4	1.0			
ΔSL5 (168-191)	+	13.6	54.5			22
	-	0.6	2.5			
bul1RRE						
1 copy	+			16.5, 10.2	29.8	6
	-			2.9, 2.2	4.5	
2 copies	+			47.7, 26.0	25.2	22
	-			1.4, 1.4	1.8	
4 copies	+			23.4, 17.7	21.7	7
	-			2.4, 2.8	5.9	
ΔSL2A (82-98)	+			5.2	1.9	<1
	-			5.5	5.1	
ΔSL2B (53-72)	+			5.1	2.6	<1
	-			4.2	5.6	

100-fold response seen with pDM128 may suggest the presence of additional regulatory sequences elsewhere in the deleted region. For this study, however, a 23-fold CAT induction was considered the wild-type response attributable to the RRE.

The 240-base RRE has been proposed (13) to form a double stranded stem (Stem 1) crowned by four stem-loop structures (SL2 to SL5), one of which gives rise to two additional stem-loops, called SL2A and SL2B (Fig. 11B). Consistent with previous reports (52, 54), we found that mutants of the 240-base RRE lacking any of four stem-loops (SL2B, SL3, SL4 or SL5) could support transactivation, but that precise deletion of SL2 or SL2B alone reduced transactivation to very low levels (Table 1). These data confirm that SL2B is the region most critical for RRE function. Like other investigators (52), we observed that some RRE mutations also affected basal CAT activity in the absence of Rev, for reasons that are unknown.

Although point mutations in and around SL2B can inhibit RRE function, compensatory mutations designed to preserve the folding pattern (Fig. 12, structure A) predicted by Malim et al. (13) have been found to restore both Rev binding and transactivation (17, 55). This suggests that the conformation of this region is a major determinant of Rev binding, although primary sequence is also known to play a role (54). A comparison of predicted RRE conformations among different strains, however, led Heaphy et al. (16) to propose an alternative structure for this region (Fig 12, structure B). To test the validity of this alternative model, we constructed two additional mutants of the 240-base RRE. The first (called het1) contained four consecutive point mutations that would completely disrupt structure B but would only partially destabilize structure A. This mutant was found to retain substantial RRE

Figure 12. Alternative models for the secondary structure of RRE SLIIB. The structures predicted by Malim *et al.* (13) and Heaphy *et al.* () for residues 48 to 74 of the RRE are shown (residues are numbered as described in the legend for Fig. 11A) Also shown are two sets of clustered point mutations (het1 and het2) introduced into this region of the 240-base RRE. Under model B, the het2 mutations would be expected to complement het1, restoring all putative base pairing while preserving an unpaired adenosine. Results of a representative CAT assays of reporters containing the wild-type (wt) and mutant RREs are depicted below the models.

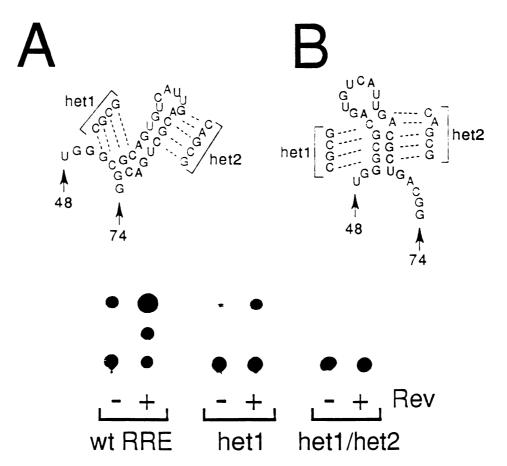


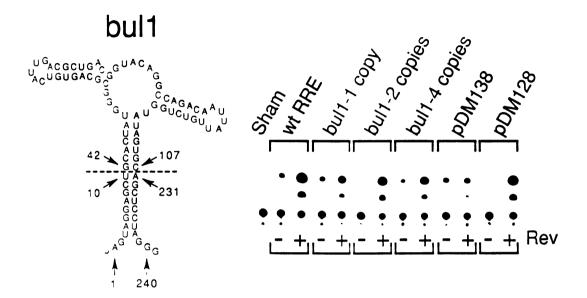
Figure 12

activity (Fig. 12). The second mutant (het1/het2) contained the het1 mutations along with four additional mutations that were predicted either to restore the base pairing of structure B or to further disrupt structure A. As depicted in Fig. 12, the het1/het2 mutant was completely unresponsive to Rev. This limited analysis thus favored structure A for the critical SL2B subdomain.

Having confirmed that SL2 is indispensable in the context of the 240-base RRE, we examined whether this element might be sufficient for RRE function. An 88-base truncated RRE (designated bul1) was constructed in which the wild-type SL2 sequence was fused to an 8-base sequence from the base of stem 1, with all intervening and flanking residues deleted. The likely secondary structure of bull is depicted in Fig. 13A. When inserted into pDM138 and tested in the cotransfection assay, a single copy of bull yielded sixfold transactivation of CAT in response to Rev (Fig. 13A and Table 1). Insertion of two tandem copies of bull yielded 22-fold transactivation, a level of responsiveness comparable to that of the 240-base RRE. Curiously, four tandem copies of bul1 showed a degree of responsiveness similar to that observed with a single copy; this might reflect the increased likelihood that adjacent copies will anneal with one another to form aberrant, nonfunctional secondary structures. Two truncated forms of bull, designated bull- $\Delta A$  and bull- $\Delta B$ , that lacked SL2A and SL2B, respectively (Fig. 13B), failed to respond to Rev when present in a single copy (Table 1).

This study extends previous mapping of the essential features of the RRE. Although earlier reports have shown that SL2 is indispensable for function, mutations in other regions of the RRE have also been reported to inhibit Rev

Figure 13. An 88-base truncated RRE is sufficient for Rev transactivation. (A) Sequence and predicted structure of the bul1 mutant RRE (numbered as described in the legend for Fig. 11B), with representative CAT assay results for pDM128, pDM138 and pDM138 derivatives containing either the 240-base RRE or the indicated number of tandem copies of bul1. Lane Sham, Cells transfected with no reporter plasmid. Residues from stem 1 were included to promote proper folding. (B) Two nonfunctional derivatives of the bul1 RRE. Each mutant was constructed from synthetic oligonucleotides as described. Point mutations (open lettering) introduce a unique Stu I or Nar I site at the site of deletions in bul- $1\Delta A$  and bul- $1\Delta B$ , respectively.



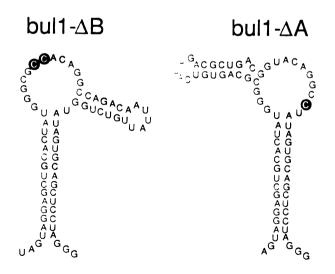


Figure 13

binding (14, 44, 55) and transactivation (17, 52, 55). This has prompted speculation that the latter regions might serve as binding sites for unidentified cellular factors that are need for transactivation or that Rev binding might require two or more noncontiguous regions of the RRE (14, 16, 55). This study has shown that an 88-base truncated RRE (bul1) derived almost entirely from SL2 is sufficient to mediate Rev transactivation in vivo and that tandem copies of bul1 can mediate a degree of responsiveness comparable to that of the full-length RRE. Sequences from the RRE that are not present in bul1 thus have no unique role in transactivation and make no more than a quantitative contribution to RRE function.

The SL2 sequence contained in bul1 is the minimal region known to bind Rev protein in vitro (16, 17). While this suggests that the ability to bind Rev may be the only requirement for RRE function, we cannot exclude the possibility that SL2 might also contain binding sites for unknown accessory factors or that Rev might act by displacing such factors from this region of the RRE. The finding that two tandem copies of bul1 are needed to fully replace the wild-type response element suggests that some regions in the RRE may be functionally redundant, perhaps serving as secondary sites for cooperative binding of Rev or other factors. For example, deletion of the SL2A arm completely inactivates bul1 but only partially inactivates the 240-base RRE (Table 1), suggesting that other sequences can compensate for the loss of SL2A in its normal context. The comparatively small size of bul1 may make it a useful model for further investigation of these issues as well as for structural analysis of a biologically active RRE.

### CHAPTER V:

# ARE FUNCTIONALLY INTERCHANGEABLE AND SHARE AN ESSENTIAL PEPTIDE MOTIF

HIV-1 Rev and HTLV-I Rex are comparable in many respects: both are nuclear phosphoproteins that associate preferentially with nucleoli, and each acts by binding directly to its target transcripts at its response element sequence, the RRE or the XRE. Indeed, Rex can functionally replace Rev under certain conditions (24, 32), suggesting that both proteins may act through a common pathway. Yet there is little apparent sequence similarity between these two proteins that could account for their similar effects. To search for peptide domains within Rev and Rex that serve related functions, we have constructed and characterized a series of fusion proteins containing sequences from both transactivators. Here we demonstrate that short effector domains which mediate the regulatory activities of Rev and Rex are functionally interchangeable and we identify a tetrapeptide present in both domains that may be a core effector motif for transactivators of this type.

### MATERIALS AND METHODS

Plasmid constructions. All transactivator expression vectors (Fig. 14A) were derivatives of pRSV-Rev. To construct Rex and Rev/Rex vectors, rev codon 116 in pRSV-Rev was mutated to a *Bgl* II site (Asp replaces Glu), and a Rex cDNA with appropriate flanking restriction sites was either inserted in

place of the *rev* sequence (*Sac* I-*Bgl* II) or fused to the 3' end of *rev* in frame (*Bgl* II-*Bgl* II). In all fusions, Leu replaces Met at *rex* codon 1. The XRE fragment was prepared from cloned HTLV-I by polymerase chain reaction with primers 5'-CGCGGATCCATCGATCGATCATATAAACTAGCAGGAGTC-TAT-3' and 5'-CGCGGATCCATCGATCGATCTCGAGAGTTGAGCAAGCA-GGGTC-3'; the amplified fragment was trimmed with *Bam* HI and cloned in pUC 118, and then subcloned into the Cla I site of pDM138.

Western immunoblot analysis. Immunoblots were performed as described in Chapter III. Rex proteins were detected with an antipeptide serum (provided by W.C. Greene, Duke University) against the Rex C-terminus; because this Rex antiserum reacted with a background of cellular proteins in the 30- to 46-kDa range, the anti-Rev serum was used to detect fusion proteins.

### **RESULTS**

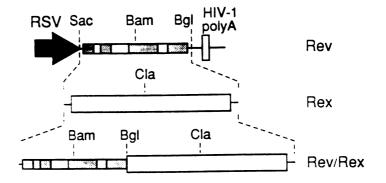
Previous studies have delineated at least two essential functional domains in the 116-amino acid HIV-1 Rev protein. Sequences in the N-terminal half of Rev provide signals for nuclear and nucleolar localization and also mediate high-affinity binding of the RRE, whereas the C-terminal region known as the Rev effector domain is believed to interact with unidentified cellular factors required for transactivation (26-29, 42). The functional organization of the 189-amino acid Rex protein of HTLV-I is less well characterized, but protein localization signals have been identified at the N-and C-termini (30, 31), and mutations at several other sites within the protein have been found to abolish function (31-33). To extend the mutational analysis of Rev and Rex, and to search for peptide sequences within the two

proteins that might serve related functions, a construct encoding a chimeric Rev/Rex fusion protein was prepared and tested for its ability to transactivate through the Rev- or Rex-responsive elements (Fig. 14A).

Under the conditions of this transfection assay, each wild-type transactivator functioned efficiently only through its cognate response element (Fig. 14C, construct 1 and 4); in particular, Rex yielded little or no CAT induction through the RRE. This relatively strict specificity of Rex contrasts with findings in some other transfection systems (24, 56) but is in accord with the observations of at least one other group (57). Although the technical features of an assay that maintain such specificity have not been identified, we speculate that our use of nonreplicating expression vectors may be contributory. As expected, we found that deletion of residues 89 to 116 from Rev had no functional effect (Fig. 14C, construct 2), but that a slightly larger deletion (residues 78 to 114) which removed the effector domain abolished activity completely (construct 3). By fusing the full-length Rex sequence to the C-terminus of Rev, a chimeric protein (construct 5) that could transactivate efficiently through either the RRE or the XRE was produced. Remarkably, the dual activity of this fusion protein was not affected by deletion of the Rev effector domain (construct 6, designated Rev $\Delta$ /Rex), nor by point mutations that are known (26, 28) to inactivate this domain (constructs 7 and 8). These findings indicated that fusion with the N-terminal portion of Rev could confer RRE specificity onto Rex in this assay and also implied that fusion with Rex could complement loss of the effector domain from Rev.

To map the sequences required to confer RRE specificity, selected missense

Figure 14. A Rev/Rex fusion protein transactivates through either the RRE or the XRE. (A) Transactivator plasmids. The expression vector pRSV-Rex was constructed by replacing the Rev coding sequence of pRSV-Rev with that of Rex. pRSV-Rev/Rex was constructed by in-frame fusion of the Rex coding sequence onto the C-terminus of Rev. Open rectangles in the *rev* sequence denote the essential N-terminal region, arginine-rich tract, and C-terminal effector domain. RSV, Rous Sarcoma virus 5′ LTR; Sac, Sac I; Bam, Bam HI; Cla, Cla I. (B) Functional characterization of wild-type, mutant and chimeric transactivators in the cotransfection assay. CV1 cells were transfected with either pDM128 (RRE) or a pDM138 derivative containing the XRE (XRE) along with the indicated transactivators and assayed for CAT enzyme activity 36 h later. Δ indicates inframe deletion of rev codons; Δ89-116 contained a stop codon at residue 89; LE 78,79 DL is the mutation designated M10 by Malim *et al.* (26). Sham, pUC118 and pCH110 only; None, pUC118, reporter and pCH110 only.



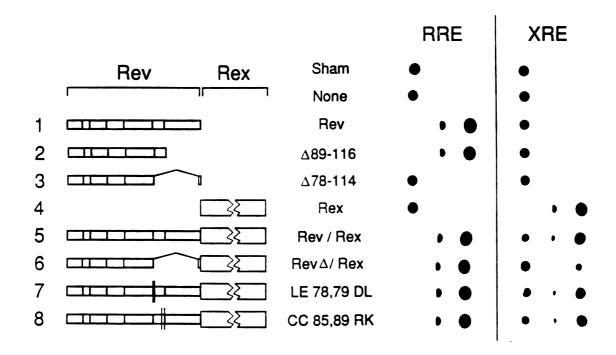
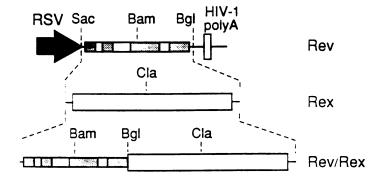


Figure 14



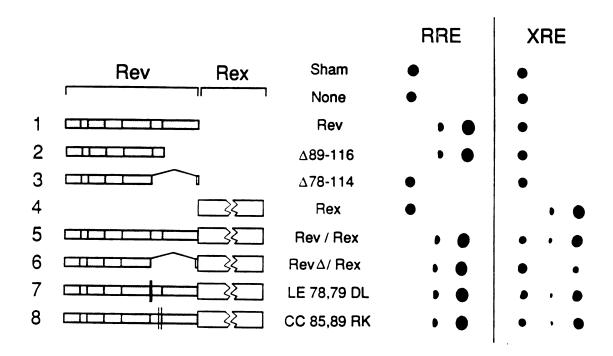
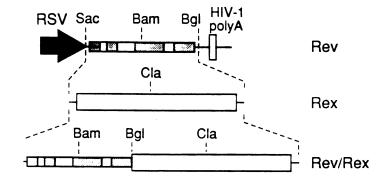


Figure 14

mutations were introduced into the Rev moiety of Rev $\Delta$ /Rex (Fig. 15, constructs 9 to 15). Each mutation had previously been found to inhibit binding of Rev to the RRE in vitro (29, 58, 59) and to inactivate Rev in vivo (26, 28). In the context of the fusion protein, five of these mutations selectively eliminated transactivation through the RRE; the latter mutations each involved sequences within the arginine-rich tract in Rev (amino acids 35 to 50) that is known to be critical for RRE binding (29, 58, 59). By contrast, two other mutations (involving Rev amino acids 14 to 20) had no detectable effect, suggesting that the function of these sequences was complemented by Rex. Indeed, we found that large simultaneous deletions could be introduced at both Rev termini (amino acids 4 to 26 and 78 to 114) without diminishing RRE-specific transactivation (construct 16). Parallel testing confirmed that all seven mutants could transactivate through the XRE, implying that the proteins were stably expressed and that signals in the intact Rex moiety could ensure appropriate localization within the nucleus. Fusion with a 51-amino acid region that includes the arginine-rich tract of Rev is therefore necessary and sufficient to confer RRE specificity onto Rex in this assay.

Mutational analysis was next performed on the Rex moiety in RevΔ/Rex to map the sequences that could complement deletion of the Rev effector domain. Representative functional data are shown in Fig. 16A and Table 2; the size and stability of selected mutant proteins were confirmed by immunoblot analysis of the transfected cells (Fig. 16B). Missense mutations involving known protein localization signals (30, 31) at the N- and C-termini of Rex (constructs 17 and 22) did not inactivate RevΔ/Rex, presumably because equivalent signals are present in the Rev moiety (26, 42). Three other

Figure 15. Fusion with N-terminal Rev sequences confers RRE specificity onto Rex. Reporter plasmids containing the RRE or the XRE were cotransfected with vectors encoding Rev, Rex, Rev/Rex, or various derivatives of RevΔ/Rex. Naming of missense mutations in the Rev moeity of RevΔ/Rex indicates native and mutant amino acids (in single-letter code) at the affected positions. Δ4-26 denotes in-frame deletion of *rev* codons 4 to 26. Mutant vectors were prepared by replacing the 5′ *Sac* I-Bam HI fragment of construct 5 (Fig. 14B) with corresponding fragments from pRSV-Rev mutants described previously (Chapter 3). None, reporter with no transactivator.



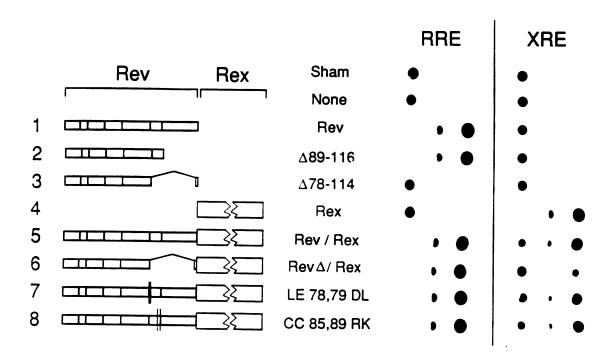


Figure 15

Figure 16. Mutational analysis of the Rex moiety in Rev $\Delta$ /Rex. (A) Functional analysis. CAT enzyme activity was assayed in CV1 cells that had been transfected with indicated transactivator constructs together with reporter plasmids containing either the RRE or the XRE. Mutations were prepared by oligonucleotide-directed mutagenesis of a cloned Rex cDNA and were then subcloned into expression vectors. Missense mutations in the Rex moiety are named as described in the legend to Fig. 15; each introduces a unique Bgl II site. The mutations in constructs 17 and 19 to 22 are similar or identical to those designated M1, M6, M7, M13, and M15, respectively, in a previous study (31). Truncated mutants (constructs 23 to 32) were prepared by cleaving rex at the Bgl II site introduced by a missense mutation or at an endogenous Cla I site (codons 78 and 79) and are named according to the rex amino-acid residues present. (B) Immunoblot analysis of mutant proteins. Extracts (60 µg of total protein per lane) of transfected COS7 cells were fractionated on a denaturing sodium dodecyl sulfate-14% polyacrylamide gel and probed with antipeptide antisera specific for the N-terminal half of Rev. Sham, pUC118 and pCH110 only; None, pUC118, pCH110 and reporter only.

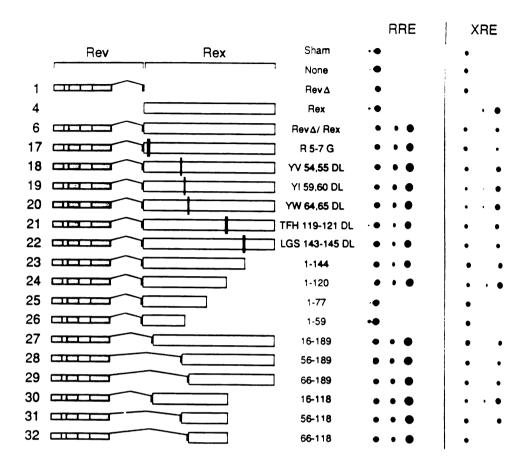




Figure 16

Table 2. Transactivation by Rev $\Delta$ /Rex chimeras through the RRE or the XRE. (a) Constructs are numbered as in Fig. 17. (b) Ratio of CAT expression in CV1 cells transfected with and without each indicated construct. Data are from two independent experiments. Acetylation of chloramphenicol was assayed by thin-layer chromatography and quantified by scintillation counting. All data were corrected for the trace acetylation produced by extracts from untransfected cells and were normalized within each experiment relative to the  $\beta$ -galactosidase internal control.

Table 2

	Induction (fold) of CAT activityb					
Construct <sup>a</sup>	RR	EE	XRE			
	Expt 1	Expt 2	Expt 1	Expt 2		
3		2.8		1.8		
4	2.1	4.1	38.0	40.4		
6	44.2	89.6	10.9	4.7		
17	52.9	102	5.1	2.6		
18	52.3	131	9.5	7.7		
19	57.7	137	17.6	8.9		
20	59.1	97.3	17.5	10.4		
21	36.9	53.5	8.1	6.0		
22	34.7	58.4	5.8	4.8		
23	29.4	58.3	8.8	2.7		
24	43.7	83.3	12.4	7.3		
25	1.4	1.9	0.8	0.6		
26	1.7	2.2	1.3	1.0		
27	58.7	97.2	6.3	2.9		
28	54.1	110	7.0	4.9		
29	59.0	116	9.6	3.7		
30	54.0	120	11.2	9.8		
31	53.3	118	5.4	4.1		
32	50.8	84.0	1.3	1.7		

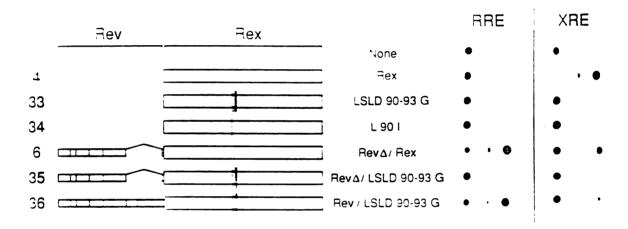
missense mutations that have been reported (31, 32) to abolish effector function in Rex failed to inactivate the fusion protein (constructs 19 to 21). Progressive truncations of the Rex moiety (constructs 23 to 29) revealed that up to 79 C-terminal or 65 N-terminal residues could be deleted without eliminating function, although simultaneous deletion of both of these regions profoundly inhibited XRE-specific transactivation (construct 32). Most importantly, two chimeras that lacked the central portion of Rex failed to transactivate through either response element (construct 25 and 26), whereas a fusion protein comprising only amino acids 66 to 118 of Rex (construct 32) transactivated through the RRE as efficiently as wild-type Rev.

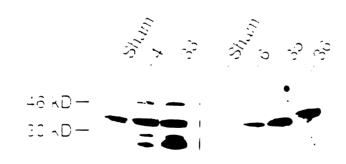
These findings indicated that a 52 amino-acid internal segment from Rex could functionally replace the effector domain of Rev. Comparison of the of these two regions (Fig. 17A) revealed the shared tetrapeptide sequence Leu, Thr or Ser, Leu, Asp. Moreover, related (though not identical) sequences are present at comparable locations in a number of other known retroviral transactivators of this type, including HTLV-II Rex, Rev proteins from two related families of primate immunodeficiency lentiviruses (simian immunodeficiency virus type sm SIV<sub>sm</sub>/HIV-2 and SIV<sub>agm</sub>), and the functionally equivalent OrfL/Rev-V protein of Visna, an ungulate lentivirus (22, 60). In the HTLV-I and Visna proteins, this motif encompasses the site of mutations that have been reported (31, 61) to inhibit transactivation.

We therefore asked whether this tetrapeptide was required for Rex effector activity. As shown in Fig. 17B and Table 3, Rex was completely inactivated when all four residues in the tetrapeptide were replaced by glycines (construct 33) and that even a highly conservative mutation (isoleucine replacing leucine) at the first position of the tetrapeptide strongly inhibited function

Figure 17. A conserved and essential effector motif in posttranscriptional transactivator proteins. (A) Conserved tetrapeptide in HIV-1 Rev, HTLV-I Rex and equivalent proteins from other complex retroviruses. Sequences of effector domains from the HIV-1 (BRU strain) and HTLV-I proteins are aligned with respect to the proposed conservation (solid rectangle). Partial sequences of HTLV-II Rex, Visna OrfL/Rev-V (22, 60) protein, and Rev proteins from representative strains of HIV-2 (strain ROD), SIV<sub>sm</sub> (strain 251), and SIV<sub>agm</sub> (strain TYO) are also shown. In proteins in which the tetrapeptide is most divergent from the consensus sequence, a second copy may be present (dashed rectangle). Mutations at the nine underlined sites in HTLV-I Rex have no functional effect (31, 32). (B) Mutation of the tetrapeptide in Rex eliminates function and is complemented by the effector domain of Rev. CAT assays with CV1 cells transfected with the indicated transactivator and reporter plasmids were performed. (C) Immunoblot analysis of transfected COS7 cells expressing the indicated constructs. Extracts (100 µg of total protein per lane) were fractionated on denaturing sodium dodecyl sulfate-14% polyacrylamide gels and blotted with the indicated antisera. Sham, pUC118 only; None, reporter only.

∃iV-1	89- ERVPLGLPPLER LTLD CNEDCG (4)
¬TLV-I	## PPVQS   RSPGTPSMDALSAQLYSS LSLD SPPSPPPEPLRPSRSLPRQSLICPP +118
TLV-II	ET- PPVQSTNSPGTPSMDALSALLSNT LSLA SPPSPPREPQGPSRSLPLPPLLSPP -119
√isna	100- PNMESNMVGMENILTLE TOLEDNALYN -125
-1V-2	STESPLEQTIQHLQQ LTIQ ELPEPPTHLP -92
SIVsm	67- TPECLAIQUONILATE STPDPPTNTP -92
SIVaam	60- YAVDRLADE AQHILATQ QLPDPPHSA64





Anti-Rex Anti-Rev

Figure 17

Table 3. Effects of mutations in the conserved tetrapeptide motif on the ability of Rex and of Rev/Rex chimeras to transactivated through the XRE.

(a) Constructs are numbered as in Fig. 17. (b) Ratio of CAT expression in CV1 cells transfected with and without each indicated construct. Data derived and expressed as described in Table 2, footnote (b).

Table 3

		Induction (fold) of CAT activityb			
C	_				Mean +/- SEM
Construct <sup>a</sup>	Expt 1	Expt 2	Expt 3	Expt 4	
4	50.6	30.6	29.5		36.9 +/- 9.7
33	1.1	1.6	1.1	0.6	1.1 +/- 0.4
34	1.2	1.7	2.0	1.4	1.6 + / - 0.3
6	9.7	9.4	10.1	6.8	9.0 +/- 1.3
35			0.4	0.4	0.4
36			3.9	6.2	5.1 +/- 1.2

(construct 34). In contrast, data from previous studies (31, 32) indicate that mutations at nine nearby sites (Fig. 17A, underlined) have no effect on Rex activity, suggesting that the tetrapeptide is the only essential sequence in the Rex effector domain. We also found that fusion with full-length Rev partially restored the ability of a Rex tetrapeptide mutant to transactivate through the XRE (construct 36) but that deletion of the Rev effector domain prevented this complementation (construct 35). Immunoblot analysis confirmed that these effects were not due to differences in protein stability (Fig. 17C). Thus, the tetrapeptide in Rex is essential for transactivation and is interchangeable with a region from Rev that contains this same peptide motif.

### DISCUSSION

These studies extend earlier mutational analyses and provide new insights into the functional architecture of Rev and Rex. Under conditions of the in vivo assay, in which each of these proteins can transactivate only through its cognate response element, it was shown that sequences in and around the arginine-rich tract of Rev are sufficient to confer RRE specificity onto Rex. This observation is compatible with earlier evidence (29, 58, 59) that mutations throughout this region in Rev inhibit RRE binding in vitro and that similar arginine-rich tracts together with their flanking sequences dictate the target specificities of several other RNA-binding proteins (48, 62). Our data suggest, however, that the structural determinants of XRE specificity may be very different: although an arginine-rich tract is present at amino acids 1 to 15 in Rex, several RevΔ/Rex mutants which lacked this region (constructs

27 to 31) remained fully competent for transactivation through the XRE. A similar interpretation has been suggested by Hofer et al. (33), who found that the arginine-rich sequence in Rex could be replaced by that of Rev without affecting recognition of the XRE. Sequences critical for target discrimination must therefore be located in the remainder of Rex, which includes relatively few arginines or other basic residues but can nevertheless confer XRE specificity onto Rev in vivo (e.g., construct 27).

This study also reveals that amino acids 66 to 118 of Rex comprise an autonomous effector domain that is functionally interchangeable with the effector domain of Rev. The shared function of these two domains appears to depend upon a previously unrecognized tetrapeptide motif found in both Rev and Rex, as well as in other known retroviral transactivators of this type (Fig. 17A). Identification of this conserved effector motif provides a structural basis for the view (63, 64) that, while the posttranscriptional transactivators of various complex retroviruses have markedly different sequences and target specificities, they may nevertheless act through a common effector pathway. Although the details of this pathway are presently unknown, transactivation is believed to result from specific interactions of the viral protein not only with the target mRNA but also with one or more cellular components of the RNA splicing or transport apparatus (26, 31, 63, 65). The existence of a conserved and essential effector motif suggests that posttranscriptional transactivators from diverse retroviruses may exert their effects through contact with a common cellular factor.

## CHAPTER VI:

# POSTTRANSCRIPTIONAL REGULATION BY HIV-1 REV AND HTLV-I REX THROUGH A HETEROLOGOUS RNA BINDING SITE

Binding of Rev or Rex to their viral response element is critical for their biological effects. While much of the RRE can be deleted without eliminating either Rev protein binding in vitro or Rev responsiveness in vivo, we have found that a discrete 77-base region known as stem-loop 2, which serves as the primary Rev binding site in the RRE, is both necessary and sufficient for biological activity (35). Rev binding appears to be accompanied by conformational changes in both the protein and the RRE (66, 67), but it is not known whether these changes are important for triggering the response. It also is not known whether cellular factors must interact with the RRE or XRE, or whether these elements make other unrecognized contributions to the response. The fact that both Rev and Rex tend to localize in nucleoli suggests that this organelle might have an important role in the response, but it has been difficult to evaluate the significance of this localization conclusively because mutations that inactivate the nucleolar localization signals in Rev or Rex (13, 30, 31, 42, 68) also abolish RNA binding (29, 58, 69, 70).

To dissect the roles of these retroviral proteins and their RNA response elements, we have created a series of chimeric proteins in which Rev and Rex are fused to the coat protein of bacteriophage MS2. The MS2 coat protein has no intrinsic regulatory activity in eucaryotic cells but binds as a dimer to a

specific 21-base RNA operator (71-73). Here we demonstrate that Rev and Rex can exert their effects when tethered by this phage protein to a target RNA containing the MS2 operator. Under these conditions, nucleolar localization, the viral RNA response elements, and the specific RNA binding sequences in Rev can all be shown to be unnecessary for inducing release of unspliced RNAs to the cytoplasm.

#### MATERIALS AND METHODS

Plasmid construction. Response elements were synthesized as overlapping oligonucleotides with flanking *Cla* I sites and were ligated into the *Cla* I site of pDM138. The reporter used for Northern RNA blot experiments was derived from pDM138 by inserting MS2.4 and replacing the SV40 promoter with the cytomegalovirus immediate-early gene promoter (Mokarsky); this variant yielded higher levels of mRNA expression than does its SV40 counterpart but gave proportionally similar CAT responses (data not shown). The pRSV-Rev and pRSV-Rex expression plasmids were modified to create the fusion proteins by converting the last codon of *rev* or *rex* to a *Bgl* II site (encoding Asp-Leu) by oligonucleotide-directed mutagenesis (38), and a polymerase chain reaction fragment comprising codons 1 to 130 of MS2 was then inserted in frame.

#### **RESULTS**

As described in chapter four, we found that much of the 240-base RRE is not required for Rev-responsiveness, and that the 77-base region known as stem-loop 2 is sufficient for RRE activity. This finding suggests that Rev binding might be the sole requirement for RRE function. To test this

hypothesis, the Rev expression vector, pRSV-Rev, was modified to encode a chimeric protein, called Rev/MS2, in which the MS2 phage coat protein is fused to the C-terminus of Rev (Fig. 18A). We reasoned that fusion with the coat protein would enable Rev to bind indirectly to target RNAs containing the MS2 operator, and that such indirect binding might support function.

To test the chimera, a target response element was first designed based on the minimal RRE bul1. Sequences that are essential for Rev binding were replaced with the MS2 operator, producing a modified response element called bul-MS2A (Fig. 18D). Because earlier studies had shown that duplicate copies of bul1 are needed for maximal (23-fold) CAT induction by Rev, we initially inserted two tandem copies of bul-MS2A into the pDM138 reporter.

When tested in the cotransfection assay (Fig. 19B), Rev/MS2 induced CAT expression through the full-length RRE as efficiently as did Rev. Unlike Rev, however, Rev/MS2 also functioned through bul-MS2A, implying that fusion with the MS2 coat protein could extend the target range of Rev. To confirm that Rev protein sequences were necessary for this response, a series of missense mutations within the two functional domains of Rev were constructed. Each of the mutations tested had previously been shown to abolish Rev function through the RRE (28, 42). Four separate mutations involving the N-terminal domain (MA4, MA5, MB3, and MB8), each of which eliminates the RRE binding and oligomerization activities of Rev in vitro (29), eliminated Rev/MS2 function through the RRE but not through bul-MS2A. In contrast, two different mutations (M10 and DN2) that have been shown to inactivate the Rev effector domain (26, 28) each abolished function through both response elements. Immunoblots confirmed the sizes and stabilities of all six mutant proteins (Fig. 19C). Thus, transactivation

Figure 18. Reporters and RRE derivatives for analysis of the Rev response. (A) Structure of pRSV-Rev and pRSV-Rev/MS2. The Rev/MS2 expression construct was generated by in-frame insertion of the MS2-coat protein coding sequence at the 3' end of rev (codon 116 of rev was converted to a Bgl II site encoding Asp-Leu). Open rectangles indicate the N-terminal RNA-binding and C-terminal effector domains of rev. RSV, Rous sarcoma virus 5' LTR; HIV-1 polyA, HIV-1 polyadenylation site; Bam, Bam HI; Bgl, Bgl II; Sac, Sac I. (B) Structure of reporter pDM 138. SV40, Simian virus 40 early promoter; SD and SA, HIV-1 splice donor and acceptor sites, respectively; Cla, Cla I. (C) Sequence and possible structure of bul1, the minimal response element (described in Chapter IV) encompassing stem-loop 2 of the RRE. (D) Sequence and possible structure of the bul-MS2A variant of bul1, with the MS2 operator (open lettering) indicated. Response elements were ligated into the Cla I site of pDM138.

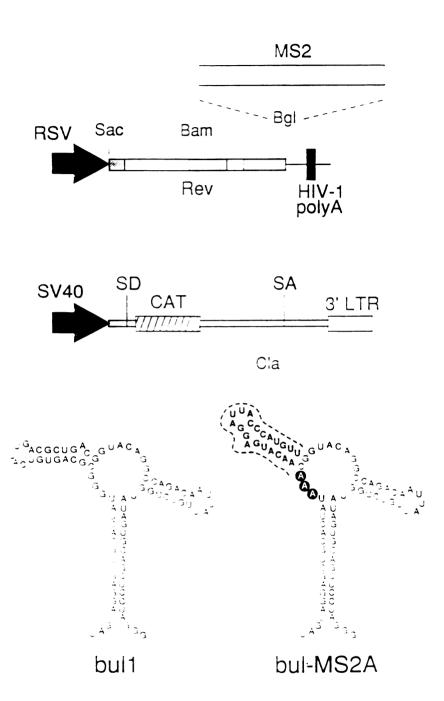
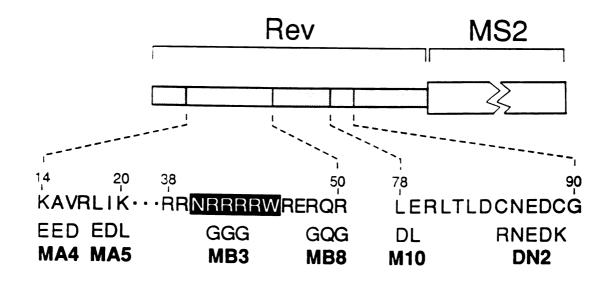


Figure 18

Figure 19. Function of the Rev/MS2 fusion protein through a modified response element. (A and B) Structures and activities of wild-type and mutant forms of Rev/MS2. (A) Schematic view of Rev/MS2. Open rectangles represent the N-terminal and effector domains of *rev*; partial sequences of each are shown, along with the six mutations tested below. Open lettering indicates a hexapeptide that is required for nuclear and nucleolar localization (42, 68). (B) CAT expression in CV1 cells after transfection with a pRSV-Rev derivative (4μg) encoding the indicated proteins, a reporter containing either the full-length RRE or two tandem copies of bul-MS2A, and pCH110. The RRE reporter was pDM128. None, reporter with no transactivator. (C) Immunoblot analysis of mutant proteins. Positions of molecular weight standards are shown at left; unfused MS2-coat protein is 13.7 kDa.



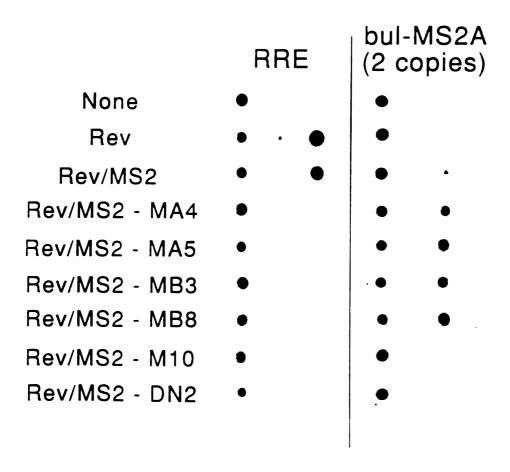


Figure 19

through bul-MS2A required the coat protein in conjunction with an intact Rev effector domain but was not inhibited by mutations that eliminate RRE binding.

Mutation MB3 was of particular interest, as it is known also to prevent nucleolar localization of Rev (42). Using in situ immunoflourescence, we found that wild-type Rev/MS2 was expressed throughout the nucleoplasm of transfected cells and was especially abundant in the nucleoli (Fig. 20A); significant amounts of the protein were also detected in the cytoplasm, suggesting that Rev/MS2 may be translocated into the nucleus somewhat less efficiently than Rev. In contrast, the mutant Rev/MS2-MB3 also was found throughout the nucleoplasm and cytoplasm but was selectively excluded from nucleoli (Fig 20B). Nevertheless, this mutant functioned at least as efficiently as Rev/MS2 through bul-MS2A (Fig. 19B). Preferential nucleolar localization is therefore not essential for Rev/MS2 activity.

These observations were extended in tests of a similar fusion of the MS2 protein with HTLV-I Rex (Table 4). Rex contains an effector domain that is functionally interchangeable with that of Rev (34, 74), but the two proteins have significantly different RNA binding specificities; in particular, Rex cannot interact functionally with the portion of the RRE contained in bull (25, 69). As shown in Table 4, however, Rex/MS2 functioned almost as efficiently through two copies of bul-MS2A as it did through the XRE and that a mutation (M510) known to inactivate the Rex effector domain (34) eliminated this response. Thus, fusion with the MS2 coat protein extended the target ranges of both Rev and Rex, but only if their effector domains were intact.

To determine whether the MS2 operator alone could mediate the response

Figure 20. A functional Rev derivative with defective nucleolar localization. In situ immunolocalization of Rev/MS2 (A) and Rev/MS2-MB3 (B) was performed in transfected COS7 cells, using an antiserum specific for the C-terminal half of Rev. The patterns shown typified essentially all immunoreactive cells in each population.

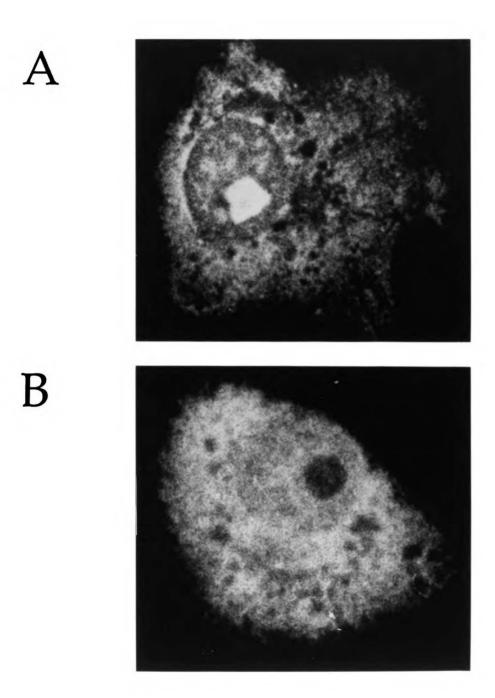


Figure 20

Table 4. Function of Rex/MS2 through the bul-MS2A response element. (a) In CV1 cells transfected with a pDM138 derivative containing either a single XRE or two copies of bul-MS2A, along with plasmids encoding the indicated transactivators. Data are means +/- standard errors of the means from triplicate transfections. Mutation M510 replaces Rex residues 90 to 93 with glycines (34). The stability of Rex/MS2-M510 was confirmed by immunoblot (data not shown).

Table 4

Response element	Transactivator	CAT activity (% acetylation) <sup>a</sup>	Fold induc- tion
XRE	None (reporter alone)	0.9 +/- 0.1	
	Rex	54.3 +/- 0.4	60
	Rex/MS2	25.2 +/- 2.5	28
	Rex/MS2-M510	1.1 + - 0.1	1
Bul-MS2A (2 copies)	None	1.3 + / - 0.1	
-	Rex	1.0 +/- 0.1	1
	Rex/MS2	31.1 +/- 0.6	24
	Rex/MS2-M510	1.2 +/- 0.1	1

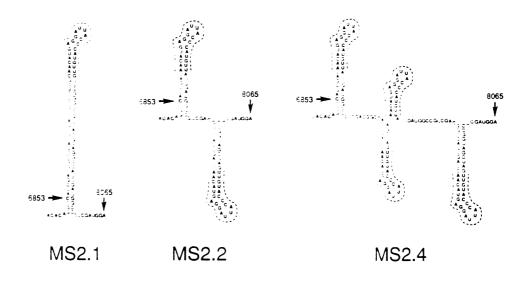
to these fusion proteins, we then designed three completely heterologous elements (Fig. 21A) that included no XRE or RRE sequences but contained one, two or four operators, respectively. Each was inserted into pDM138 and tested for responsiveness to Rex/MS2 and the Rev/MS2-MB3 mutant (Fig. 21B). Reporters containing only one operator (MS2.1 or a single copy of bul-MS2A) gave little or no response, but those containing two or more operators (MS2.2 and MS2.4) responded strongly to both fusion proteins. Indeed, the CAT responses achieved by Rex/MS2 through MS2.4 were equal in magnitude to those it produced through the XRE (Table 4). The response thus required no XRE or RRE sequences, provided that two or more MS2 operators were present.

Northern blots of cytoplasmic RNA from the transfected cells confirmed that the CAT inductions observed were due to changes in mRNA expression (Fig. 22). CV1 cells transfected with an MS2.4-containing derivative of pDM138 expressed spliced reporter transcripts constitutively in the cytoplasm. Cotransfection with a Rex/MS2 expression vector reproducibly led to the accumulation of unspliced reporter transcripts in the cytoplasm, and the M510 effector domain mutation completely eliminated this response.

An arginine-rich peptide from the Rev N-terminal domain has been reported to inhibit splicing of RRE-containing RNAs in vitro (75). We found that while much of the N-terminal domain could be deleted from Rev/MS2 without inhibiting function through MS2.4, selective deletion of the arginine-rich sequence completely inactivated the protein (Fig. 23). Activity was fully restored, however, by substitution of a different arginine-rich sequence (Scram) that lacks the ability to inhibit splicing in the in vitro assay (75). This finding implies that while basic amino acids may be required at this

Figure 21. Function of Rev/MS2-MB3 and Rex/MS2 in the absence of the viral response elements. (A) Sequences and possible structures of heterologous elements containing the MS2 operator (outlined). Each is shown as an insertion between HIV-1 nucleotides 6853 and 8065 (arrows) in the pDM138 transcript. MS2.4 is two tandem copies of MS2.2; lower energy conformations are possible. (B) Functional analysis of heterologous elements. CV1 cells were transfected with pDM138 containing the indicated response elements, either alone (None) or with a plasmid encoding Rev/MS2-MB3 or Rex/MS2. CAT expression (relative to that of the  $\beta$ -galactosidase control minus the activity of sham-transfected cell) in triplicate transfections was assayed at 36 h and quantified by scintillation counting. Error bars indicate standard errors of the means (SEM) exceeding +/- 0.4%; numbers above bars indicate responses expressed as fold CAT induction.

Figure 21



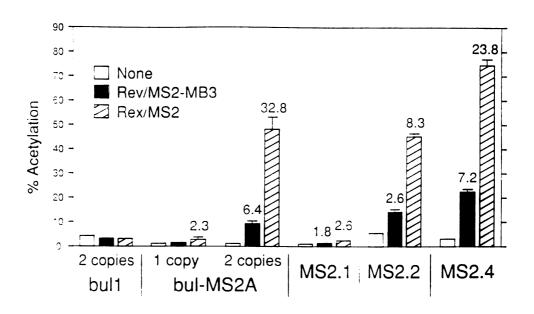


Figure 22. Northern blot analysis of reporter transcripts in cytoplasmic RNA. CV1 cells were transfected with the MS2.4-containing reporter (10  $\mu$ g) either alone (None) or with a vector encoding Rex/MS2 or Rex/MS2-M510 (5  $\mu$ g). Total cytoplasmic RNA was isolated 48 h after transfection, and 5- $\mu$ g samples were analyzed on a 1% agarose-formaldehyde gel and probed for HIV-1 long terminal repeat sequences not present in the transactivator transcripts. Positions of the 18S and 28S rRNAs are indicated. Sham, 10  $\mu$ g of pUC118 alone.

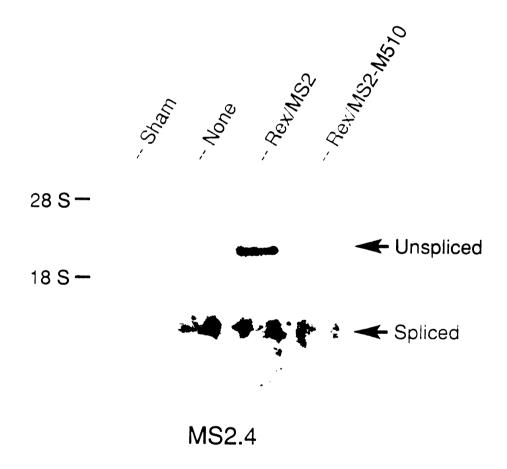
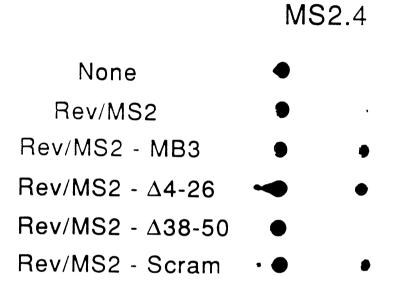


Figure 22

Figure 23. Mutagenesis of the arginine-rich domain in Rev/MS2. CAT enzyme expression in CV1 cells transfected with plasmids encoding the indicated Rev/MS2 variant together with the pDM138 derivative containing MS2.4. Δ, deletion of residues from Rev; Scram, replacement of residues 34 to 50 with the sequence shown. Properties of the Scram peptide have been described elsewhere (75). None, reporter alone. Rev/MS2-Scram does not function through the RRE (data not shown).



TRQARRNRRRRWRERQR Wild-type
RWRRERTRQRNRQRRAR Scram

Figure 23

location in the fusion protein, the arginine-rich domain of Rev makes no sequence-specific contribution to the responses observed.

## **DISCUSSION**

The results of this study reveal that fusion with a bacteriophage RNAbinding protein can redirect the target specificities of Rev and Rex in vivo. This finding confirms the strong inference from earlier data that RNA binding is critical for the response to these proteins (14-17, 45, 69, 76, 77). This data also sheds new light on the minimal requirements for this response. Most notably, we find that when tethered to RNA by a bacteriophage protein, Rev and Rex can each induce cytoplasmic expression of intron-containing RNAs which contain no RRE or XRE sequences. The responses achieved under these conditions (by using the heterologous target element MS2.4) are 35 to 50% as strong as those produced by unfused Rev or Rex through their native viral response elements. Thus, at least a substantial proportion of the response does not depend upon any unique structural features of the RRE or XRE or on recognition of these elements by cellular proteins, except insofar as these elements might be required for binding a particular transactivator. Although other specific properties of the viral elements (75) might be needed for a maximal quantitative response, the ability to bind Rev or Rex is the only essential requirement for RRE or XRE function in vivo.

Rev and Rex each contain sequences that function as nucleolar localization signals (30, 31, 42, 68). Early reports showed that mutations in these sequences profoundly inhibit transactivation, but the subsequent finding that these mutations also prevent RNA binding has left the significance of this localization unresolved (29, 58, 69, 70, 76, 77). This study

now demonstrates that when RNA binding is maintained by the phage protein, nucleolar localization is not required for Rev function. This finding suggests that the localization of Rev and Rex simply reflects their affinity for nucleolar constituents that are not required for the response, a view supported by recent in vitro evidence of Rev's interactions with nucleolar proteins (78).

The effector domains from Rev and Rex proved essential and interchangeable for function of the fusion constructs, as they are in the native proteins. By contrast, mutations throughout the N-terminal Rev domain did not diminish function through the phage operator, implying that sequence-specific contacts between this domain and the target RNA are not needed for the responses observed. Moreover, as the N-terminal mutations tested also inactivate the oligomerization signals in Rev, oligomerization per se also does not appear essential. This finding weighs against the possibility that oligomerization of Rev through its N terminus might be required for allosteric activation of the effector domain.

These findings strongly suggest, moreover, that multiple effector domains must be linked to each target RNA in order to trigger a response: assuming that all operator sites are accessible and competent for binding and that the fusion proteins bind as MS2 dimers (72), the data in Fig. 3B suggest a threshold requirement for three or four effector domains per transcript. This possibility is consistent with reports (15, 18, 67) that a single RRE can bind up to eight copies of Rev and that a single bound Rev is not sufficient for function (58). The data suggest the further conjecture that HTLV-I transactivation may require binding of multiple copies of Rex to the XRE.

Taken together, these studies suggest a model in which the effect of Rev or

Rex on RNA localization depends upon the linkage of a critical number of effector domains to a target RNA. For this aspect of transactivation, the remaining portions of each protein, and the viral RNA response elements themselves, serve only to facilitate such linkage and are potentially dispensable. The nucleolar localization of Rev and Rex can be viewed as reflecting their affinity for nucleolar constituents that have no obligatory role in releasing unspliced viral mRNAs from the nucleus.

# CHAPTER VII: CONCLUSIONS AND DISCUSSION

The initial mutagenesis of HIV-1 Rev, conducted in other labs, revealed two distinct regions of the protein that are critical for its function: the Nterminal RNA binding domain, and the C-terminal effector domain. The most prominent feature of the N-terminal domain was a 17 amino-acid arginine-rich region (residues 34 to 50) which was shown to be critical for RRE-specific binding (29, 70). Similar arginine-rich motifs have also been implicated in specific RNA recognition by HIV-1 Tat (79), and by the bacteriophage antiterminator N-proteins (48). All of these proteins recognize short, stem-loop RNA structures (RRE-SLIIB for Rev, TAR for Tat, and nut for N-proteins), with specificity for both structural determinants and for sequences in unpaired regions of the RNA (reviewed in (80)). In the case of Rev and Tat, peptides encompassing the arginine motif have been shown to bind specifically to their RNA targets in vitro. Tat binding to TAR RNA appears to depend little on the amino-acid sequence or intrinsic secondary structure of the binding peptide, since only a single arginine residue need be present in the peptide to retain full binding specificity (81), and since peptides which bind to TAR RNA appear to be unstructured in solution, as determined by circular dichroism spectroscopy (82). Indeed, the Rev arginine peptide binds well to TAR PNA in vitro, and, in fact, the Rev sequence can be substituted for the arginine motif in Tat without diminishing Tat activity in vivo (83). RRE binding, on the other hand, appears to depend more

stringently upon the sequence and three-dimensional structure of the arginine-rich region. Several amino-acid residues within the Rev arginine-rich motif have been shown to be critical for specific binding, both in the intact protein (29), and in isolated peptides (84, 85). Circular dichroism studies have revealed that the Rev peptide takes on a partial  $\alpha$ -helical conformation in solution even though it is highly charged, and modifications of the N- and C- termini which increase the  $\alpha$ -helical content also increase the binding affinity *in vitro* and *in vivo* . These findings suggest that specific recognition of the RRE is mediated by critical residues within the arginine-rich region in the context of an  $\alpha$ -helical structure (85).

Our mutational analysis extended the N-terminal domain of Rev beyond the arginine-rich tract to include essential residues at positions 14 to 20. *In vitro* binding studies suggested that these residues are also important for RRE-specific binding (29). Consistent with the arginine peptide binding data, however, these residues are dispensable for RRE recognition in some circumstances. For instance, when Rev was fused to Rex, mutations in the Rev arginine-tract abolished RRE-specific transactivation as expected, but mutation or deletion of residues 14 to 20 had no effect on RRE binding (Chapter V, Fig. 15). This suggested that these residues might serve some function other than specific RNA contact. We have proposed that the region could be involved in protein-protein interactions. These might include homologous Rev: Rev interactions either on or off the RRE; in support of this, mutations in this region block *in vitro* multimerization of bacterially expressed Rev protein. Up to eight Rev monomers bind the full-length RRE *in vitro* under saturating conditions (18), and it has been proposed that

multiple Rev molecules bound to a single RNA is a requirement for efficient transactivation (58). Alternatively, we can't rule out involvement of the region in interactions with cellular proteins which might be involved in Rev function. Interestingly, we have observed that the amino-acid sequence in the region has a strong propensity to form an  $\alpha$ -helical structure when analyzed in a protein secondary-structure prediction program (Chapter III). This suggests multimerization might involve interactions between hydrophobic faces of identical helices in Rev monomers, as occurs in the helix-loop-helix family of DNA binding proteins. Rev does not, however, contain classical helix-loop-helix or leucine zipper motifs.

The second, more C-terminal domain of Rev has been termed the effector domain because it is not involved in RNA binding, but is nevertheless essential for function. The finding that some mutations in this region give rise to a dominant-negative phenotype suggested that the domain might interact with an as-yet-unidentified cellular factor, presumably in the nucleus of the cell, and that functional interaction is required for Rev transactivation. Dominant-negative Rev mutants are presumed to be unable to functionally interact with the cellular factor, and could, in principle, interfere with wildtype Rev function either by competing for RRE binding or by forming inactive protein complexes. Our lab has investigated the function of such dominant-negative Rev molecules using the Rev/Glucocorticoid Receptor (Rev/GR) fusion protein. Fusion to the GR permits the control of cellular localization: in the absence of the hormone dexamethasone, Rev/GR is excluded from the nucleus, and unable to transactivate target RNAs; addition of the hormone allows rapid nuclear accumulation and subsequent transactivation (42). We found that dominant-negative mutants retained

their inhibitory activity when fused to the GR (DN Rev/GR), and the inhibition was independent of cellular localization. This suggested that inhibition was not a result of competition for RRE substrates in the nucleus, but rather might be a result of heteromultimer formation. Consistent with this, introduction of a mutation in the proposed multimerization domain of the DN Rev/GR (at amino acids 14 to 16) eliminated dominant-negative activity. The interaction between Rev and DN Rev/GR was confirmed using an immunoflourescence colocalization assay: overexpression of the DN Rev/GR caused unfused Rev to be retained in the cytoplasm in the absence of hormone and translocated to the nucleus when hormone was added. As expected, introduction of the mutation at residues 14 to 16 into the DN Rev/GR abolished the colocalization of unfused Rev. We concluded from this evidence that *trans*-dominant inhibition of Rev activity does not require competition for nuclear substrates, but may instead reflect the ability of a mutant to form inactive complexes with the wild-type Rev protein (86).

The finding that Rex can take the place of Rev in the regulation of HIV-1 gene expression (24), and that dominant-negative Rex mutants can inhibit Rev activity (29) suggested that the two proteins act through the same pathway. This hypothesis is supported by our description of a polypeptide sequence within the Rex protein that can functionally replace the Rev effector domain (Chapter V). Although the Rev and Rex effector domains share little sequence similarity, they each contain a core tetrapeptide motif that is essential for function. Using the same approach as described in Chapter V, our lab has mapped the effector domains of a number of other retroviral Revlike proteins, and we have found that all contain a similar core motif. This is strong evidence that all of these proteins act through the same pathway, and

suggests that each forms a similar effector domain structure which could interact with the same hypothetical cellular effector-binding factor.

Interestingly, some mutations of Rex which give rise to dominantnegative molecules lie outside of the Rex effector domain, which is located between residues 80 and 100 (31, 42). A number of dominant-negative Rex proteins have been derived by mutation or deletion of amino acids 57 to 67. The mutant proteins retain their ability to bind the Rex-response element in vitro, but are apparently defective in their ability to oligomerize, as wild-type Rex activity can be restored by replacing the region with the putative Rev multimerization domain (87). This is in contrast to the recessive-negative phenotypes of Rev multimerization mutations. Although most multimerization-defective Rev mutants do not bind the RRE, one mutation has been described which blocks multimer formation but not RRE binding. This mutant protein was also found to have a recessive-negative phenotype (58). The ability of Rex multimerization-defective mutants to block wild-type Rex activity may reflect a greater ability of Rex monomers to bind their target RNAs in vivo than that of Rev monomers, and further implies the importance of oligomeric complex formation on the XRE.

The two-domain structure of Rev, and the existence of a family of discrete, modular effector domains in all known Rev-like proteins suggests a mechanism of action whereby the viral effector domains are tethered to target RNAs and presented to the cellular machinery responsible for mRNA export from the nucleus. Further, the apparent requirement for multiple Rev or Rex proteins bound to a single RNA suggests a need for several effector domains arrayed in close proximity for efficient transactivation. This model implies that both the RNA-binding domain of Rev and the RRE sequence are

dispensable for function, and that they could be replaced by some other RNA-binding protein and its target RNA. Our results, presented in Chapter VI, support this assumption. Fusion of Rev to the bacteriophage MS2-coat protein redirected the specificity of Rev to the MS2 RNA operator, and relieved the need for specific RNA-binding by the Rev moiety. The Rev/MS2 fusion protein mediated function through the MS2 operator in the absence of any RRE sequences in the target RNA, provided that two or more MS2-binding sites were present. As predicted, transactivation was dependent on an intact Rev effector domain, but missense mutations in Rev known to affect multimerization and RRE-specific binding did not diminish MS2-mediated transactivation, and, in fact, in all cases significantly increased the response. We speculate that the multimerization domain of Rev may interfere with the proper dimerization of the MS2-coat protein moiety, and that mutation of the Rev domain eliminates this interference.

The significant complexity of the RRE, despite the relatively minor sequence requirement for Rev-specific binding, has led others to speculate that the RRE might serve some other function in addition to Rev-binding (88). Although extensive mutagenesis of the RRE has revealed that only the high-affininty Rev-binding site, SLIIB, is essential for function, other regions of the RRE may contribute to the magnitude of the Rev-response, possibly by binding cellular factors (88). To this end, a nuclear factor which binds specifically to the RRE has been described (89). While our data cannot rule out the possible quantitative contribution of such a factor to the Rev-response, we have demonstrated that the RRE is not essential for transactivation when an alternative RNA-binding domain is provided.

The finding that a single MS2-operator did not confer efficient

transactivation by Rev/MS2 or Rex/MS2 supported the hypothesis that multiple effector domains must be tethered to the regulated RNA. Since the MS2-coat protein binds its operator as a dimer, we concluded that a minimum of three or four effector domains are needed. This is consistent with the finding that the minimal functional Rev-response element (described in Chapter IV) can bind up to three Rev monomers (18). We found that this minimal response-element could mediate transactivation, but that two copies were needed to confer maximal response. Interestingly, when two MS2-binding sites were separated by over 200 nucleotides on the RNA, the response to Rev/MS2 and Rex/MS2 was virtually identical to the reporter with tandemly arrayed operators, even when the Rev multimerization domain was disrupted (data not shown). This suggests that the response does not require the effector domains to be in immediate proximity to one another, which would be expected if multiple juxtaposed domains are needed to create a single factor binding site or to increase the affinity of interaction with the cellular effector-binding protein. Rather, it might indicate that multiple effector-binding proteins must be targeted to the RNA, but need not be directly adjacent to one another. One possibility is that the viral effector domains act to nucleate binding of the target RNA by a cellular low-affinity RNA binding protein, which could then multimerize on the RNA. Possible candidates for such a cellular factor are the heteronuclear RNA-binding proteins (hnrnps), which are known to bind nuclear RNAs nonspecifically and coat all mRNAs prior to export from the nucleus (90).

Although our data largely supported the tethering model for Rev activity, we found that we could not entirely eliminate the arginine-rich domain of Rev/MS2. Kjems *et al.* have reported that peptides encompassing the

arginine-domain specifically inhibit the in *vitro* splicing of RRE-containing transcripts, and have suggested that this inhibition is essential for Rev function (75). To address this issue, we substituted the Rev arginine-domain with a scrambled version of the polypeptide sequence which did not inhibit splicing in the *in vitro* assay (Chapter VI, Fig. 23). This Rev/MS2 chimera did not transactivate through the RRE, but functioned efficiently through the MS2-operator. We concluded from this evidence that the inhibition of splicing seen in the *in vitro* assay is not an essential feature of the Revresponse. However, we could not rule out some other essential contribution of the arginine residues in that region which is independent of peptide sequence. One possibility is that multiple arginines increase the binding affinity non-specifically through electrostatic interactions. Alternatively, they could mediate interactions with other nuclear proteins involved in the response.

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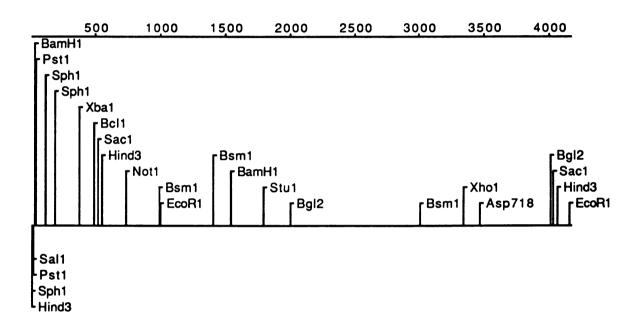
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pDM 128
Insert in pUC9



- 1. SV-40 immediate early promoter, Sal1-Xba1
- 2. HIV-1 (ARV-2) nucleotides 5851 (Xba1)to 9730 (EcoR1)
- 3. rev ATG mutated to Bcl1
- 4. Splice donor at 561
- 5. env ATG mutated to Not1
- 6. CAT sequence into Not1-(Dra3 (blunted))
- 7. Splice Acceptor at 3331
- 8. rev deleted Ava1 (8399) to Xho1(8915)
- 9. EcoR1 introduced (9730) after polyA site in LTR

# pDM128 Restriction Enzyme Sites

(5 cut sites or less)

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Enzyme	#Cuts	Positi	ons	:			NONCUT
Aat1	1	2067	:	:			Aat2
Acc1	1	20	••••••				Aos1
Acc2	3	626	•••••••	4040	······································		ApaL1
Acc3	3		• • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •	4111			Asp700
Acy1	4	123	••••••		4210		AspA1
Afl2	1	4319	•••••		······································		Asu2
Afl3	2	• • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •	2713				Ban3
Aha1	3	138	625	2115	:		BssH2
Aha2	4	123	237	258	4210		BstB1
Aha3	4	1193	1532	1831	3786		BstE2
AlwN1	3	305	630	4223			Cla1
Aoc1	4	<b>7</b> 90	2546	3204	3729		Dra3
Apa1	1	630					Esp1
Aqu1	2	3615	4098				Fdi2
Ase1	1	968			:		Fsp1
Asp718	1	3733			:		Hpa1
Ava1	2	3615	4098		•	:	Mst1
Ava3	2	379	451				Nde1
Avr2	2	666	3221				Nhe1
Bal1	1	1540	:				Nru1
BamH1	2	295	1808	······································	,		Pvu1
Ban1	5	122	236	257	1739	3733	Rsr2
Bbe1	3	126	240	261	******************		Sac2
Bcl1	1	<b>754</b>			:		Sma1
Bgl1	1	582			······································		SnaB1
Bgl2	2	2274	4275		:		Spe1
Bsm1	3	1266	1673	3281	,		Spl1
BspH1	1	181	······································	:	:	:	Sst2
BspM1	1	6					Tth111I

# pDM128 Restriction Enzyme Sites

(5 cut sites or less)

BspM2	3	623		4111	103 01 10		Xma1
BstU1	3	626	720	4040			Xmn1
BstX1	2	307	624				
Bsu36I	4	790	2546	3204	3729		
Ccr1	1	3615			•		
Cfr1	4	139	271	1006	1538		
Cfr101	2	260	269	:		: :	:
Cvn1	4	<i>7</i> 90	2546	3204	3729		
Dra1	4	1193	1532	1831	3786		
Dra2	3	147	627	2555			
Eae1	4	139	271	1006	1538		
Eag1	1	1006	;	:			
Eco47III	1	178					
Eco52I	1	1006	:				
Eco81I	4	790	2546	3204	3729		
EcoN1	3	47	755	2854			:
EcoO109I	3	147	627	2555			
EcoR1	2	1273	4423				
EcoR5	1	3917					
EcoT22I	2	379	451				
FnuD2	3	626	720	4040			
Hae2	4	126	180	240	261		
Hga1	5	31	270	3059	4046	4199	
HgiA1	4	87	788	2462	4293		
Hinc2	2	21	2224				
Hind2	2	21	2224	:			
Hind3	3	1	811	4333			
Kpn1	1	3737					
Mae2	3	1360	1535	2151			
Mlu1	1	718					
Mro1	3	623	1269	4111			
Mst2	4	<b>7</b> 90	2546	3204	3729		
Nae1	1	271		:	:		
Nar1	3	123	237	258			1
Nci1	3	138	625	2115	:		

# pDM128 Restriction Enzyme Sites

(5 cut sites or less)

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Nco1	2	536	1574					
Not1	1	1006						
Nsi1	2	379	451					
Nsp(7524)1	5	11	112	377	449	2717		
NspH1	5	11	112	377	449	2717		
PaeR7I	1	3615		:				
Pfim1	1	1505						
PflM1	1	1505						
Ple1	4	33	<i>7</i> 97	3189	4373			
PpuM1	1	2555						
Pss1	3	150	630	2558				
Pst1	2	17	304				: 	
Pvu2	4	305	1173	2318	4237			
Sac1	2	788	4293					
Sal1	1	19		:			:	
Sau1	4	<i>7</i> 90	2546	3204	3729			
Sca1	4	922	1690	2006	4118			
Sfi1	1	582						
Sph1	4	11	112	377	449			
Ssp1	4	862	943	1585	2783		· ·	
Sst1	2	788	4293		:		·	
Stu1	1	2067			*********			
Taq1	4	20	617	3616	4138			
Tha1	3	626	720	4040				
Xba1	1	635						
Xho1	1	3615			;			
Xma3	1	1006						

					>Sal1											
		Pst1	>1	>BamH1	:	   		Hind3								
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TGTGT	TGGAA	AGCTG	CCNNC	NGGAT	CGACN	CAGGT	GCCTG	TGCAT	AAGCT	-						
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GTATG	CAGAA	GCAGG	CCCCA	AGGCT	TCCCC	GAAAG	GTGTG	TTAGG	GTCAG							
150 *					125 *											
CCAGG	AGTCC	TGGAA	AGGTG	CAACC	GTCAG	AATTA	ATCTC	CATGC	CAAAG							
200 *					175 *											
AGCAA	TAGTC	TCAAT	GCATC	AGCAT	TGCAA	AAGTA	GGCAG	CAGCA	CTCCC							
250 *					225 *											
CCAGT	TCCGC	CTAAC	CGCCC	CATCC	CCGCC	TAACT	GCCCC	GTCCC	CCATA							
300 *					275 *											
GCAGA	TTTAT	TTTTA	ATTTT	GACTA	TGGCT	CCCCA	CTCCG	CCATT	TCCGC							
350 *					325 *											
AGGNN	TGAGG	AGTAG	CCAGA	CTATT	CTGAG	GGCCT	GCCTC	AGGCC	GGCCG							
400 *					375 *											
AGCCT	AAGTC	CCAGG	AGCAT	CTGGA	GAGCC	CTCTA	CCCTG	CCNNN	RAGAT							
450 *					425 *											
TGCTA	TTCAT	TTGCT	AAGTG	GTAAA	CTATT	AATTG	GTAAC	TGCTT	AGGAC							
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GAAGC	AGGAA	TGATC	CTCCT	GGCAT	GCTTA	AAAAG	ACAAG	GTTTC	CGCGT							

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GGAGA	CAGCG	ACGAA	GAGCT	CCTCA	GGACA	GTCAG	ACTCA	TCAAG	CTTCT
				575 *					600
CTATC	AAAGC	AGTAA	GTAGT		TAATG	CAATC	TTTAC	AAATA	
				625					650 *
AATAG	TATCA	TTAGT	AGTAG		ATAAT	AGCAA	TAGTT	GTGTG	
				675 *					700
TAGTA	CTCAT	AGAAT	ATAGG		ATTAA	GACAA	AGAAA	ATAGA	CAGAT
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				725 *					750 *
TAATT	GATAG	AATAA	GAGAA	AAAGC	AGAAG	ACAGT	GGCGG	CCGCA	AGGGG
				775 *					800
ATCTG	AGCTT	GGCGA	GATTT	TCAGG	AGCTA	AGGAA	GCTAA	AATGG	AGAAA
				825					850 *
AAAAT	CACTG	GATAT	ACCAC	CGTTG	ATATA	TCCCA	ATGGC	ATCGT	AAAGA
				875 *					900
ACATT	TTGAG	GCATT	TCAGT		GCTCA	ATGTA	CCTAT	AACCA	GACCG
				925					950 *
TTCAG	CTGGA	TATTA	CGGCC		AAAGA	CCGTA	AAGAA	AAATA	
				975 *					1000
AAGTT	TTATC	CGGCC	TTTAT		TTCTT	GCCCG	CCTGA	TGAAT	GCTCA
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 				1025					1050
TCCGG	AATTC	CGTAT	GGCAA		GACGG	TGAGC	TGGTG	ATATG	GGATA

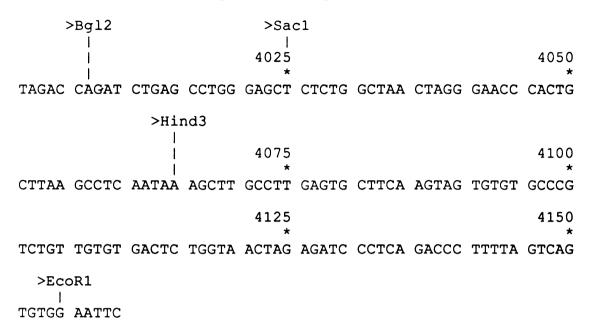
				1075					1100
GTGTT	CACCC	TTGTT	ACACC	GTTTT	CCATG	AGCAA	ACTGA	AACGT	TTTCA
				1125					1150
TCGCT	CTGGA	GTGAA	TACCA		ATTTC	CGGCA	GTTTC	TACAC	
				1175 *					1200
TTCGC	AAGAT	GTGGC	GTGTT	ACGGT	GAAAA	CCTGG	CCTAT	TTCCC	TAAAG
				1225 *					1250 *
GGTTT	ATTGA	GAATA	TGTTT	TTCGT	CTCAG	CCAAT	CCCTG	GGTGA	GTTTC
				1275 *					1300 *
ACCAG	TTTTG	ATTTA	AACGT	GGCCA	ATATG	GACAA	CTTCT	TCGCC	CCCGT
				1325 *					1350 *
TTTCA	CCATG	GGCAA	ATATT	ATACG	CAAGG	CGACA	AGGTG	CTGAT	GCCGC
				1375 *					1400
TGGCG	ATTCA	GGTTC	ATCAT	GCCGT	CTGTG	ATGGC	TTCCA	TGTCG	GCAGA
				1425 *					1450 *
ATGCT	TAATG	AATTA	CAACA	GTACT	GCGAT	GAGTG	GCAGG	GCGGG	GCGTA
				1475 *					1500 *
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AATAA	GTGAT	AATAA	GCGGA	TGAAT	GGCAG	AAATT	cgccg	GATCC	TCTAG
				1575 *					1600 *
TCTGT	GTTAC	TTTAA	ATTGC	ACTGA	TTTGG	GGAAG	GCTAC	TAATA	CCAAT
				1625 *					1650 *
AGTAG	TAATT	GGAAA	GAAGA	AATAA	AAGGA	GAAAT	AAAAA	ACTGC	TCTTT

				1675 *					1700
CAATA	TCACC	ACAAG	CATAA		AAGAT	TCAGA	AAGAA	AATGC	ACTTT
				1725					1750 *
TTCGT	AACCT	TGATG	TAGTA		AGATA	ATGCT	AGTAC	TACTA	
									>Stu1
				1775 *					1800
TATAC	CAACT	ATAGG	TTGAT	ACATT	GTAAC	AGATC	AGTCA	TTACA	
				1825 *					1850 *
CTGTC	CAAAG	GTATC	ATTTG	AGCCA	ATTCC	CATAC	ATTAT	TGTAC	CCCGG
				1875 *					1900
CTGGT	TTTGC	GATTC	TAAAG	TGTAA	TAATA	AAACG	TTCAA	TGGAA	AAGGA
				1925 *					1950 *
CCATG	TACAA	ATGTC	AGCAC	AGTAC	AATGT	ACACA	TGGAA	TTAGG	CCAAT
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AGTGT	CAACT	CAACT	GCTGT	TAAAT	GGCAG	TCTAG	CAGAA	GAAGA	GGTAG
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TAATT	AGATC	TGACA	ATTTC	ACGAA	CAATG	CTAAA	ACCAT	AATAG	TACAG
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CTGAA	TGAAT	CTGTA	GCAAT	TAACT	GTACA	AGACC	CAACA	ACAAT	ACAAG
				2125					2150
AAAAA	GTATC	TATAT	AGGAC		AGAGC	ATTTC	ATACA	ACAGG	AAGAA
				2175					2200
TAATA	GGAGA	TATAA	GAAAA		TTGTA	ACATT	AGTAG	AGCAC	AATGG

				2225					2250
AATAA	CACTT	TAGAA	CAGAT		AAAA	TTAAG	AGAAC	AGTTT	GGGAA
				2275					2300
TAATA	AAACA	ATAGT	CTTTA		TCCTC	AGGAG	GGGAC	CCAGA	AATTG
				2325					2350
TAATG	CACAG	TTTTA	ATTGT	AGAGG	GGAAT	TTTTC	TACTG	TAATA	CAACA
				2375					2400
CAACT	GTTTA	ATAAT	ACATG	GAGGT	TAAAT	CACAC	TGAAG	GAACT	AAAGG
				2425 *					2450
AAATG	ACACA	ATCAT	ACTCC	CATGT	AGAAT	AAAAC	AAATT	ATAAA	CATGI
				2475 *					2500 *
GGCAG	GAAGT	AGGAA	AAGCA	ATGTA	TGCCC	CTCCC	ATTGG	AGGAC	AAATI
				2525 *					2550 *
AGTTG	TTCAT	CAAAT	ATTAC	AGGGC	TGCTA	TTAAC	AAGAG	ATGGT	GGTAC
				2575 *					2600
AAATG	TAACT	AATGA	CACCG	AGGTC	TTCAG	ACCTG	GAGGA	GGAGA	TATGA
				2625 *					2650 *
GGGAC	AATTG	GAGAA	GTGAA	TTATA	TAAAT	ATAAA	GTAAT	AAAA	TTGAA
				2675 *					2700 *
CCATT	AGGAA	TAGCA	CCCAC	CAAGG	CAAAG	AGAAG	AGTGG	TGCAG	AGAGA
				2725 *					2750 *
AAAAA	GAGCA	GTGGG	AATAG	TAGGA	GCTAT	GTTCC	TTGGG	TTCTT	GGGAG
				2775 *					2800
CAGCA	GGAAG	CACTA	TGGGC	GCAGT	GTCAT	TGACG	CTGAC	GGTAC	AGGCC

2850 *					2825				
AGGGC	TGCTG	CAATT	CAGAA	AACAG	AGTGC	GGTAT	TGTCT	ATTAT	AGACA
2900					2875 *				
	GGCAT	TCTGG	CACAG	CAACT		ACATC	CAACA	AGGCG	TATTG
2950					2925				
	GGATC	CTAAG	GATAC	GGAAA		TCCTG	AAGAG	CAGGC	AGCTC
3000					2975				
GCTGT	CCACT	TTGCA	CTCAT	GAAAA	CTCTG	GGTTG	TTTGG	AGGGA	CTCCT
3050 *					3025				
GGATA	ATTTG	AAGAC	TCTGG	AAATC	GTAAT	TTGGA	GCTAG	GGAAT	GCCTT
3100					30 <b>75</b>				
ACACA	CACAA	AATTA	TTGAC	AGAAA	GAAAG	AGTGG	GATGC	ACCTG	ACATG
3150 *					3125 *				
GAACA	AGAAT	AGAAA	CAACA	AGAAC	ATCGC	GAAGA	TACTT	CACCT	ATATA
3200					3175 *				
TAGCA	TGGTT	GGAAT	TTTGT	GCAAG	AGTGG	GGATA	GAATT	TATTA	AGAAT
3250 *					3225				
GAGGC	AGTAG	ATGAT	TCATA	GATAT	ATAAA	GGTAT	GCTGT	AACTG	TAACA
3300					3275				
AGAGT	TGAAT	TATAG	CTTTC	CTGTG	TTTTG	ATAGT	TAAGA	AGGTT	TTGGT
>Xho1	>								
3350					3325				
CCTCG	CCAGT	GCCTC	GACCC	TTTCA		ACCAT	TACTC	AGGGA	TAGGC
3400					3375 *				
TACTA	GCAGC	ATACA	TAGCA	ACAAG		TGGAG	AAACA	TGGAA	AGACC

3450 *					3425 *				
GTTTT	GGTGG	GAAGA	AGGAG	ACAAG	GAAGC	GGCTA	TGCCT	GATTG	ATGCT
3500 *					3475				
GCTTT 3550	AGGCA	TTACA	ATGAC	GACCA	TTTAA 3525	GTACC	CTCAG	CAGAC	CCAGT
AATTT	GGGCT	TGGAA	GGGAC	AAGGG	AAGAA	TTTAA	CACTT	TTAGC	AGATA
3600 *					3575 *				
CACAA	CCACA	ATCTA	TGTGG	TGATC	ATCCT	AAGAG	AAGAC	CAAAG	GGTCC
3650 *					3625 *				
AGATA	GGATC	GCCAG	CCAGG	ACACA	GAATT	TGGCA	CTGAT	CTTCC	GGCTA
3700 *					3675 *				
AGAGA	GAGCC	CAGTT	AGTAC	AAGCT	GCTTC	ATGGT	TTTGG	TGACC	TCCAC
3750 *					3725 *				
CTATG	ACACC	TTGTT	ACAGC	GAACA	GGAGA	ATGAA	GGCCA	GAAGA	AGGTA
3800 *					3775 *				
AGGTT	TGTGG	GTTAG	GAAGT	AGAAA	CGCGG	GAGGA	GGATG	GCATG	AGCCT
3850 *					3825				
GGAGT	CATCC	AGCTG	CCGAG	ATGGC	ATCAC	ATTTC	CTAGC	GCAAA	TGACA
3900 *					3875				
CTGGG	TTCCG	GGACT	ACAAG	TTTCT	CGAGC	GACAT	CTGCT	AAAGA	ACTAC
3950 *					3925 *				
CCCTC	GGCGT	GGAGT	ACTGG	GCGGG	CCTGG	CGTGG	GGAGG	TCCAG	GACTT
4000					3975				
CTGGT	TCTCT	CTGGG	CTGTA	TTTGC	TGCTT	GCAGC	TATAA	CTGCA	AGATG



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