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Gemcitabine Pharmacogenomics: Deoxycytidine Kinase (DCK) and Cytidylate Kinase (CMPK) Gene Resequencing and Functional Genomics

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Abstract

Gemcitabine and other cytidine antimetabolites require metabolic activation by phosphorylation. Deoxycytidine kinase (*DCK*) and cytidine monophosphate kinase (*CMPK*) catalyze these reactions. We have applied a genotype-to-phenotype strategy to study DCK and CMPK pharmacogenomics. Specifically, we resequenced *DCK* and *CMPK* using 240 DNA samples, 60 each from African-American, Caucasian-American, Han Chinese-American and Mexican-American subjects. We observed 28 *DCK* polymorphisms and 28 polymorphisms in *CMPK*, 33 of which were novel. Expression in COS-1 cells showed that variant allozyme enzyme activities ranged from 32 to 105% of the wild type (WT) for DCK, and from 78 to 112% of WT for CMPK – with no significant differences in apparent K_m values for either enzyme except for a DCK Val24/Ser122 double variant allozyme. Relative levels of DCK and CMPK immunoreactive protein in the COS-1 cells paralleled relative levels of enzyme activity and were significantly correlated for DCK ($R_p = 0.89$, $P = 0.0004$) but not for CMPK ($R_p = 0.82$, $P = 0.095$). The results of an analysis of DCK and CMPK structural models were compatible with the observed functional consequences of sequence alterations in variant allozymes. We also confirmed that the CMPK protein expressed in COS-1 cells and in a rabbit reticulocyte lysate was 196 rather than 228 amino acids in length. In summary, we determined common sequence variation in *DCK* and *CMPK* and systematically evaluated its functional implications. These gene sequence differences may contribute to variation in the metabolic activation of gemcitabine and other cytidine antimetabolites.

Introduction

Gemcitabine (2′-deoxy-2′,2′-difluorocytidine; dFdC) is an antineoplastic deoxycytidine analog that has proven activity against a wide spectrum of solid tumors, including pancreatic, lung and breast cancer (Carmichael, 1998; Ulrich et al., 2003; Giovannetti et al.,

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2006). Gemcitabine and other cytidine analog antimetabolites such as cytosine arabinoside (AraC) require cellular uptake and subsequent phosphorylation for activation (Mini et al., 2006). These drugs are phosphorylated by deoxycytidine kinase (DCK EC2.7.1.74) to form a monophosphate, which is then converted to the diphosphate (dFdCDP) by cytidine monophosphate kinase (CMPK EC2.7.4.14) (Mini et al., 2006; Nakano et al., 2007), as illustrated in Figure 1. The phosphorylation of gemcitabine by DCK is the rate-limiting step in metabolic activation (Kroep et al., 2002; Mini et al., 2006). CMPK also plays an important role in the activation of many antineoplastic and antiviral deoxycytidine analogs (Cheng, 2001; Galmarini et al., 2001; Galmarini et al., 2002; Hsu et al., 2005). The cytotoxic effects of gemcitabine occur as a result of a series of actions of the diphosphate (dFdCDP) and triphosphate (dFdCTP) metabolites. dFdCDP is an inhibitor of ribonucleotide reductase, while dFdCTP is incorporated into DNA. Both of these actions result in the inhibition of DNA synthesis (Plunkett et al., 1995; Galmarini et al., 2001; Pauwels et al., 2006), so the antitumor effects of this drug are dependent on intracellular metabolism – metabolism that includes phosphorylation as a critical step (Maring et al., 2005).

We set out to study the pharmacogenomics of gemcitabine phosphorylation by applying a genotype-to-phenotype research strategy to genes encoding the two proteins that catalyze the intracellular phosphorylation of gemcitabine and structurally-related pyrimidine antagonists such as cytosine arabinoside (Maring et al., 2005). Specifically, we resequenced *DCK* and *CMPK* using 240 DNA samples from four different ethnic groups, i.e., 60 samples each from African-American (AA), Caucasian-American (CA), Han Chinese-American (HCA) and Mexican-American (MA) subjects. Functional genomic studies were then performed using expression constructs for all nonsynonymous coding single nucleotide polymorphisms (cSNPs) that were observed in these two genes, as well as combinations of cSNPs that were inferred from haplotype analyses. Since the *CMPK* gene has two different potential ATG translation initiation codons, there has been confusion with regard to which of those codons is utilized *in vivo* (Maring et al., 2005). Therefore, to make it possible to perform our functional genomic studies, we also verified which of these translation initiation codons is utilized *in vivo*. Finally, we took advantage of the crystal structures of DCK and CMPK to evaluate the potential effect of these naturally occurring alterations in encoded amino acid sequence on protein structure and to determine whether our results were plausible based on the known structures of these proteins. These results represent a step toward future translational studies of the role of these two genes in cytotoxic cytidine analog pharmacogenomics.

Materials and Methods

DNA Samples

DNA samples from 60 CA, 60 AA, 60 HCA, and 60 MA subjects (sample sets HD100CAU, HD100AA, HD100CHI, HD100MEX) were obtained from the Coriell Cell Repository (Camden, NJ). The present study was reviewed and approved by the Mayo Clinic Institutional Review Board.

DCK **and** *CMPK* **Gene Resequencing**

Each of the 240 DNA samples studied was used to perform PCR amplifications of all *DCK* and *CMPK* exons, splice junctions and a portion of the 5′-FRs for each gene. This study was powered to make it possible to reliably detect variant alleles with minor allele frequency (MAF) of 2% in the 120 alleles required for each of the 4 ethnic groups studies. For *CMPK*, a region identified by rVISTA (Loots et al., 2002) located upstream of the site of transcription initiation contained a cluster of putative transcription factor binding sites and showed high sequence homology to orthologous sequences in the dog and mouse genomes.

This region was also resequenced. Primer sequences are listed in the Supplementary Material (Tables 1 and 2). Amplification reactions were performed with FastStart Taq DNA polymerase, and amplicons were sequenced on both strands in the Mayo Molecular Biology Core Facility with an ABI 3730×1 DNA sequencer using BigDyeTM dye terminator sequencing chemistry (Perkin-Elmer). To exclude PCR-related artifacts, independent amplifications were performed for any SNP observed in only a single DNA sample or for any sample with an ambiguous chromatogram. The sequencing chromatograms were analyzed using Mutation Surveyor version 2.41, PolyPhred 3.0 (Maring et al., 2005) and Consed 8.0 (Maring et al., 2005). GenBank accession numbers for the *DCK* reference sequences used in these experiments were NT_006216.16 and NM_000788.1, and for *CMPK* were NT_032977.7 and NM_016308.1.

DCK **and** *CMPK* **Expression Constructs and Transient Expression**

The wild type (WT) DNA open reading frame (ORF) sequences for both genes were cloned into the eukaryotic expression vector pCR3.1 (Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA). These expression constructs were then used to perform site-directed mutagenesis with the QuikChange kit (Stratagene, La Jolla, CA). Circular PCR was used to create variant allozyme constructs. The sequences of primers used to perform site-directed mutagenesis are also listed in the Supplementary Material (Tables 1 and 2). The sequences of all inserts were confirmed by sequencing both DNA strands. COS-1 cells were then transfected with expression constructs encoding WT and variant DCK and CMPK allozymes, as well as "empty" vector that lacked an insert as a control, using the TransFast reagent (Promega, Madison, WI) at a charge ratio of 1:2. Specifically, 7 µg of construct DNA was cotransfected with 7 µg of pSV-βgalactosidase DNA (Promega) to correct for possible variation in transfection efficiency. The coefficient of variation for the cotransfected β-galactosidase averaged 8.2%. After 48 h, the cells were harvested in 50 mM Tris-HCl (pH 7.6), 100 mM KCl, 1 mM $MgCl₂$ and 2 mM dithiothreitol for DCK, or with 50 mM Tris-HCl (pH 8.0), 5 mM $MgCl₂$ and 10 mM dithiothreitol for cells transfected with CMPK constructs. The cells were then homogenized with a Polytron homogenizer (Brinkmann Instruments, Westbury, NY); homogenates were centrifuged at 100,000 × g for 1 h; and supernatant preparations were stored at −80°C for use in the functional genomic studies.

Enzyme Assays and Substrate Kinetics

DCK catalyzes the formation of 2',2'-difluorodeoxycytidine 5'-monophosphate (gemcitabine monophosphate) from gemcitabine. DCK activity was measured using a modification of the assay of Usova and Eriksson (Usova and Eriksson, 2002) with gemcitabine (Eli Lilly, Indianapolis, IN) as a substrate. Our assay measured the product of the reaction using the extraction procedure and HPLC separation conditions described by Ruiz van Haperen *et al.* (Ruiz van Haperen et al., 1994). CMPK catalyzes the formation of 2′,2′ difluorodeoxycytidine 5′-diphosphate (gemcitabine diphosphate) from gemcitabine monophosphate. A modification of the assay described by van Rompay *et al*. (Van Rompay et al., 1999) was used to measure CMPK activity. This assay measured the depletion of gemcitabine monophosphate (Eli Lilly) during the reaction and employed the extraction procedure and HPLC separation described by Ruiz van Haperen *et al.* (Ruiz van Haperen et al., 1994).

Western Blot Analysis

Quantitative Western blot analyses were performed with recombinant DCK and CMPK allozymes after correction for transfection efficiency on the basis of the cotransfected βgalactosidase activity measured using the Promega β-Galactosidase Enzyme Assay System. For DCK, these assays used rabbit polyclonal antibody generated by Cocalico Biologicals that was directed against the C-terminal 59–80 amino acids of DCK. A rabbit polyclonal

antibody to purified recombinant CMPK was kindly provided by Dr. Yung-Chi Cheng, Yale University School of Medicine, New Haven, CT. To perform quantitative Western blot analysis, COS-1 cell cytosol was loaded on 12% Tris-HCl acrylamide gels on the basis of the cotransfected β-galactosidase activity, and proteins were separated by SDS-PAGE prior to transfer to PVDF membranes (BioRad). Immunoreactive proteins were detected using the ECL Western Blotting System (Amersham Pharmacia, Piscataway, NJ). The IPLab Gel H (Biosystemetica, Plymouth, UK) system and the NIH image program (http//rsb.info.nih.gov/nih-image) were used to quantify immunoreactive proteins.

Rabbit Reticulocyte Lysate (RRL) Studies

Radioactively-labeled WT and variant CMPK allozyme proteins were synthesized using the $T_NT[®] RRL system (Promega, Madison, WI) as described by Wang et al. (Wang et al.,$ 2003). CMPK has two potential in-frame ATG translation initiation codons, resulting in an ORF encoding either a 228 amino acid protein or a 196 amino acid protein (Van Rompay et al., 1999).

Data Analysis

Values for π, θ and Tajima's D were calculated as described by Tajima (Tajima, 1989). D' values, a measure of linkage disequilibrium that is independent of allele frequency, were calculated as described by Hartl and Clark (Hartl and Clark, 2000) and Hendrick (Hendrick, 2000). Haplotype analysis was performed as described by Schaid *et al.* (Schaid et al., 2002) using the E-M algorithm. Mean protein and K_m values were compared using Students t-test. To construct models of the DCK and CMPK variants, the altered amino acids were computationally substituted within the 1.9 Å resolution crystal structure of the human DCK dimer bound to deoxycytidine and ADP (PDB accession code 1P60) (Sabini et al., 2003) and the 2.1 Å resolution crystal structure of the human CMPK monomer (PDB accession code 1TEV) (Segura-Peña et al., 2004) using the interactive graphics program O (Jones, 1991). Molecular figures were prepared with Molscript (Kraulis, 1991) and Raster3D (Merritt and Bacon, 1997).

Results

DCK **and** *CMPK* **Gene Resequencing**

The areas of *DCK* and *CMPK* that we resequenced included exons, splice junctions, a portion of the 5′-FR and a 1 kb region located approximately 2.4 kb upstream of the site of *CMPK* transcription initiation. This area was amplified because it displayed high crossspecies homology with mouse and dog sequences and was predicted by rVISTA (Loots et al., 2002) to possibly be involved in transcription regulation. These areas of both genes were resequenced using 240 DNA samples from 4 ethnic groups. The polymorphisms observed in *DCK* and *CMPK* are listed in Table 1. For *DCK*, 28 polymorphisms, including 26 SNPs and 2 indels, were observed in the 480 alleles resequenced. Two upstream variants, 5'-FR (−248) and 5'-FR (−201), were located in potential regulatory elements identified by rVISTA within conserved DNA sequence. Further studies will be needed to determine whether these variants influence binding of transcription factors and therefore regulate transcription. The 3 nonsynonymous cSNPs observed in *DCK* resulted in the following amino acid substitutions: Ile24Val, Ala119Gly and Pro122Ser (Table 1). Two of these polymorphisms, Ile24Val and Ala119Gly, were observed only in samples from AA subjects, while Pro122Ser occurred in both the AA and HCA populations. Sixteen of the 28 *DCK* SNPs were "novel" (Table 1). For *CMPK*, all exons, intron sequence flanking exons, and approximately 5 kb of the 5′-FR were resequenced. Once again, 28 polymorphisms, including 26 SNPs and 2 indels, were observed. Three nonsynonymous cSNPs that resulted in the following amino acid alterations were observed: Gln48His, Glu75Lys and Asn83Ser

(Table 1). The Gln48His and Asn83Ser polymorphisms were observed in all four populations studied. The Gln48His polymorphism had a minor allele frequency (MAF) of 15% in the HCA samples, but 5% or less in three other ethnic groups. The Asn83Ser polymorphism occurred with low frequency (0.8%) in all four ethnic groups, and the Glu75Lys polymorphism was observed only in MA subjects. Seventeen of the 28 *CMPK* SNPs were novel (Table 1). All of the SNPs that we identified were deposited in the NIH database PharmGKB.

We also determined "nucleotide diversity", a quantitative measure of genetic variation, adjusted for allele frequency, in all four ethnic groups by calculating θ, a population mutation measure that is theoretically equal to the neutral mutation variable, and π , the average heterozygosity per site (Maring et al., 2005). Tajima's D values were also estimated as a test of the neutral mutation hypothesis (Table 2). For both genes, as anticipated, samples from AA subjects displayed the greatest nucleotide diversity. Although negative values for Tajima D indicate a departure from neutrality, none of the values listed in Table 2 was statistically significant (Table 2).

Haplotype and Linkage Disequilibrium Analysis

We also performed population-specific linkage disequilibrium and haplotype analysis for both genes. Haplotype designations were based on the encoded amino acid sequence of the allozyme, with the WT sequence designated as **1.* For example, for *DCK*, the **2*, **3* and **4* designations were used for sequences that encoded Val24, Gly119 and Ser122, respectively (Table 3A). Alleles encoding DCK Val24, Gly119 and Ser122, as well as Val24/Ser122 and Val24/Gly119/Ser122 variant allozymes were also present. Therefore, we designated these multiple amino acid variant haplotypes as **5* and **6*, respectively. **1A* was observed with high frequency in all four populations, while the **4* haplotype was observed in only AA and HCA subjects. The **2*, **3, *5* and **6* haplotypes were observed only in AA DNA (Table 3A). For CMPK, the *2, *3 and *4 designations were used for sequences that encoded His48, Lys75 and Ser83, respectively. Combinations of these cSNPs were not observed or inferred in any of the DNA samples. *CMPK* haplotypes **1B*, **1C*, **1H*, **1L* and **2A* were observed in all populations, while the *3 haplotype was seen in only MA subjects (Table 3B). We also calculated population-specific linkage disequilibrium based on pairwise D′ values for all *DCK* and *CMPK* SNPs (data not shown).

Functional Genomic Studies

Expression constructs for the WT and variant allozymes for both *DCK* and *CMPK* were created to determine the effect of nonsynonymous SNPs on level of protein, level of enzyme activity and substrate kinetics. Since our haplotype analysis had shown that multiple variant *DCK* alleles were present that encoded Val24/Ser122 and Val24/Gly119/Ser122, we also created expression constructs for those allozymes. Although the DCK double variants, Gly119/Ser122 and Val24/Gly119 were not observed in our samples, we also created those variants to help us understand the effect on enzyme activity of combinations of the polymorphisms. However, before expressing the CMPK constructs, one issue required clarification. *CMPK* contains two in-frame ATGs at the 5′-end of the gene – creating confusion with regard to which might be used *in vivo* as the translation initiation codon. To address that issue before studying results obtained with our expression constructs, we created four CMPK "test" expression constructs to determine which ATG might be used to initiate translation. These additional constructs included one with a mutated initial ATG (Mut ATG1/WT ATG2); one with the second ATG mutated (WT ATG1/Mut ATG2); a construct with a perfect Kozak sequence (Kozak, 1986) for the initial ATG and the wild type second ATG (Kozak ATG1/WT ATG2); and a final construct with a perfect Kozak sequence surrounding the initial ATG and a mutated second ATG (Kozak ATG1/Mut

Kocabas et al. Page 6

ATG2) (Fig. 2). The sequences of the ATG in these constructs are listed in Table 4. The top panel in Fig. 2 shows this situation diagrammatically, with the location of the two inframe ATGs – separated by 99 nucleotides (33 putative codons) – indicated. When these constructs were expressed in COS-1 cells, the 196 amino acid sequence was always produced in the presence of WT ATG2 but the 228 amino acid sequence was only seen if a perfect Kozak sequence was created for the initial (Kozak ATG1/WT ATG2), putative, translational initiation codon (Fig. 2B). Identical results were observed during rabbit reticulocyte lysate expression, with the 196 amino acid recombinant protein encoded by only the ORF that began with naturally occurring "ATG2" being expressed (Fig. 2C). These results indicated clearly that the second inframe ATG ("ATG2") was utilized as the translation initiation codon, so all subsequent data relate to the 196 amino acid CMPK protein.

The *DCK* and *CMPK* expression constructs were transfected into COS-1 cells, and the cells were co-transfected with β-galactosidase to make it possible to correct for transfection efficiency. Immunoreactive protein levels were then measured by quantitative Western blot analysis, and levels of enzyme activity were measured in the same samples. Each transfection was performed in triplicate and was repeated three times. Levels of DCK and CMPK immunoreactive protein, as well as the enzyme activity for all of these transfections, are shown in Fig. 3. Because DCK and CMPK are both widely expressed, it was necessary to include an "empty vector" control in all transfections, and the results for those samples are shown in the figure for levels of enzyme activity. These empty vector control samples displayed an average 8.1% of WT construct values for DCK and 18.7% for CMPK. However, no evidence of endogenous immunoreactive protein for either DCK or CMPK was detected when the quantitative Western blot studies were performed.

Immunoreactive DCK protein levels showed significant differences from WT, specifically Val24 (67 \pm 7%); Gly119 (51 \pm 7%); Ser122 (75 \pm 7%); Val24/Gly119 (50 \pm 7%); and the combination of Val24/Ser122 (60 \pm 3%) as compared with WT (Fig. 3A). The "triple" variant ($*6$) which included Val24/Gly119/Ser122 (99 \pm 7%) and the combination Gly119/ Ser122 ($85 \pm 8\%$) did not show significant differences from the WT protein. DCK allozyme enzyme activity levels when compared with that for WT were Val24 (70 \pm 11%), Gly119 $(42 \pm 7\%)$, Ser122 (66 \pm 15%), Val24/Gly119/Ser122 (105 \pm 7%), Gly119/Ser122 (82 \pm 8%), Val24/Gly119 (44 \pm 4%) and Val24/Ser122 (32 \pm 5%). These results for activity, with gemcitabine as a substrate, correlated significantly with corresponding protein levels (R_p = 0.89, $P = 0.0004$) (Fig. 3B). Recombinant CMPK protein levels did not differ significantly from those for WT for His48 (106 \pm 9%) or Lys75 (88 \pm 10%). However, the protein level for CMPK Ser83 was significantly lower than that for WT ($68 \pm 11\%$) (Fig. 3C). Once again, levels of protein and enzyme activity were very similar $(R_p = 0.82)$ but, in this case, the correlation was not significant ($P = 0.095$).

Because of the possibility that some of the differences in levels of enzyme activity that we had observed might have been due to alterations in substrate kinetics as a result of changes in the encoded amino acids, substrate kinetic studies were also performed. For those experiments, gemcitabine substrate concentrations for the DCK studies ranged from 1.25 to 75 µM and gemcitabine monophosphate concentrations for the CMPK studies ranged from 50 to 2000 μ M. The apparent K_m values observed are listed in Table 5. Only the DCK Val24/Ser122 apparent K_m value differed significantly from that for the WT of the enzyme being studied.

DCK and CMPK Structural Models

High resolution x-ray crystal structures of human DCK and CMPK (Sabini et al., 2003; Segura-Peña et al., 2004) were used as starting scaffolds to map variant amino acids encoded by the naturally occurring nonsynonymous cSNPs in *DCK* and *CMPK.* We then

Kocabas et al. Page 7

assessed the computationally substituted variant residues for compatibility with the wildtype native protein structures to determine whether our observations with recombinant protein were plausible within the context of the structures of these enzymes (Fig. 4). The DCK monomer structure has a central β-sheet surrounded by helices. Ile24 is located in a βstrand which is first in amino acid sequence, but physically in the middle of the β-sheet, and the Ile24 side chain is buried in a hydrophobic environment. Since the Val24 variant amino acid is smaller than Ile24, it could be accommodated structurally, but a small void resulting from the change in amino acid could result in a locally destabilizing conformational change. Ala119Gly is located in a loop near the N-terminus of a strand next to the Ile24 strand in the central β-sheet and far from the active site $(\sim 25 \text{ Å})$. The Ala119 carbonyl oxygen atom forms a hydrogen bond with the Arg20 side chain and tethers the Ala119 loop to the Ile24 containing strand. The Ala119 amide nitrogen atom also interacts with the carbonyl oxygen of Leu116 to stabilize the loop conformation. In addition, the Ala119 side chain is partially buried, since it packs against Pro122. The smaller Gly119 variant could be easily accommodated in the structure sterically, but Gly119 might introduce an increase in local flexibility due to its lack of a bulky side chain, altering the local conformation so that interactions between this loop and adjacent β strands would be destabilized, resulting in the striking decrease in enzyme protein that we observed (Fig. 3A). DCK Pro122Ser is located at the N-terminus of the strand next to the Ile24 strand in the central β-sheet, and distant from the active site (-22 Å) . The Pro122 side chain is mostly buried in a hydrophobic environment formed by several residues, one of which is Ala119. In addition, the main chain Pro122 carbonyl oxygen atom forms a long hydrogen bond with the Lys22 main chain amide nitrogen (located in the adjacent Ile24 strand). The smaller Ser122 could be easily accommodated sterically, but it could introduce increased local flexibility as a result of loss of the rigid proline ring. This increased flexibility might alter the local conformation so that interactions between the Pro122 strand and the adjacent Ala119 loop and Ile24 strand would be destabilized. This analysis provides structural explanations for how the single DCK variants may result in the observed decreased protein quantity and activity. Unfortunately it is not possible to reliably model the specific altered conformations of the single variants, to provide a basis for a similar structural analysis of the double or triple variants.

All three CMPK variant residues are located far from the active site (Fig. 4B). However, Gln48His alters a highly exposed residue that forms a hydrogen bond with Arg74. His48 would be easily accommodated sterically, and it would allow the hydrogen bond to be retained. Glu75Lys affects an exposed residue that interacts only with a water molecule, so the Lys substitution would be accommodated easily. Asn83Ser also alters an exposed residue, and the Ser substitution would be easily accommodated. The structural predictions for these CMPK residues are compatible with the observed functional effects of all three SNPs, indicating modest to no consequences after variant substitution (Fig. 3C). Overall, the three DCK variant substitutions were less compatible with the native protein structure than were the three CMPK variants, results consistent with our experimental observations that the decreases in protein and activity levels for the DCK variants were more significant than for the CMPK variants.

Discussion

DCK and *CMPK* catalyze the phosphorylation of antineoplastic nucleoside analogs such as gemcitabine and Ara-C (Mini et al., 2006). *DCK* is thought to be the rate-limiting step for nucleoside analogue phosphorylation, but *CMPK* also plays an essential role in the activation of these drugs (Van Rompay et al., 1999). In addition, previous studies have reported that mutations in *DCK* (Owens et al., 1992; Flasshove et al., 1994; Stegmann et al., 1995; Galmarini et al., 2004), low levels of *DCK* enzyme activity (Bergman et al., 1999; Kroep et al., 2002), and increased levels of the active gemcitabine triphosphate metabolite

(Sebastiani et al., 2006) might all be factors that contribute to variation in gemcitabine response.

In the present study, we set out to perform comprehensive studies of *DCK* and *CMPK* pharmacogenomics. We began by resequencing both genes using 240 DNA samples from four different ethnic groups. We observed a total of 28 SNPs in *DCK*, 16 of which were novel. Joerger *et al* (2006) had previously discovered 6 *DCK* SNPs in their resequencing study of a mixed ethnic cohort of healthy volunteers (−243 G>T, −135 G>C, 261 G>A, 364 C>T, 727 A>C, IVS6 +41T>A). We observed two of those SNPs, 364C>T and IVS6 +41T>A, but not the other four in our samples. Very recently, Lamba *et al* (2007) studied polymorphisms in *DCK*, using genomic DNA from the 30 CEPH (CA) and 30 YRI (African) trios (90 subjects of each ethnicity in groups of 3 that included related parent-child trios) that had been used in the HapMap Project. Those investigators resequenced *DCK* exons, all of the first intron plus an additional 300 bp of the 5′-FR beyond what we resequenced. In the studies reported here, we have extended *DCK* resequencing to include previously unreported ethnic populations (HCA and MA), as well as performed haplotype analysis, genetic diversity determination, neutrality testing, and linkage disequilibrium analysis for all four (AA, CA, HCA, and MA) ethnic groups.

To determine the effect of nonsynonymous SNPs on protein and activity levels, 8 DCK expression constructs were created, four of which included more than one SNP, three double variants (Val24/Gly119; Val24/Ser122; Gly119/ Ser122), as well as a triple variant (Val24/ Gly119/Ser122). Levels of immunoreactive protein and allozyme activity were determined when these constructs were used to transfect COS-1 cells. The common *DCK* 24 A>G (Ile24Val) and *DCK* 122 C>T (Pro122Ser) polymorphisms resulted in moderate decreases in levels of both activity and protein. The correlation between levels of immunoreactive protein and allozyme activity for all DCK variant allozymes was highly significant (Fig. 3B). It was of interest that the DCK "compound variants" with two or three of the naturally occurring variant amino acids displayed less striking alterations in activity and protein levels than did those with only a single variant amino acid (Fig. 3A). The mechanism(s) responsible will have to be the subject of future studies, but these results clearly indicate that the functional effects of nonsynonymous SNPs cannot be assumed to be purely "additive". Our substrate kinetics analyses indicated that, except for the compound variant Val24/Ser122, no variant DCK allozyme had a K_m value significantly different from that of WT. Our results contrasted with those of Lamba *et al* (2007) who reported that not only were "single variant" DCK allozymes expressed at equivalent levels to WT but that Gly119 and Ser122 had significantly lower K_m values than WT. However, no direct comparison of those results with our data can accurately be made, as mammalian COS-1 cells were employed in our studies for the expression of DCK allozymes to ensure appropriate post-translational modification of expressed proteins as well as the presence of mammalian protein degradation systems, as opposed to the bacteria employed by Lamba *et al*. In addition, we employed the pyrimidine analog gemcitabine (2', 2'-difluorodeoxycytidine) as substrate in our deoxycytidine kinase kinetics studies, as opposed to the purine analog cladribine (2-chloro-2'-deoxyadenosine) employed by Lamba *et al*.

The *CMPK* cDNA presented an interesting challenge since it has two possible inframe translational start codons, one encoding a 228 and the other a 196 amino acid protein, assuming that the N-terminal methionine is retained (Liou et al., 2002). To determine which ATG was utilized *in vitro*, we mutated each ATG in turn. The results shown in Fig. 2 indicated that the 196 residue protein was that expressed in mammalian cells, results consistent with previous reports (Bucurenci et al., 1996; Liou et al., 2002). Therefore, this 196 amino acid protein was used in our recombinant variant allozyme studies. We identified 17 novel *CMPK* SNPs among the 28 observed. Functional genomic studies of variant

allozymes after COS-1 cell transfection showed that protein levels for the *CMPK* His48 and Lys75 allozymes were similar to that for the WT allozyme. However, activity and protein levels for *CMPK* Ser83 were decreased to 78% and 67% of WT, respectively (p<0.05) (Fig. 3). Our apparent K_m value of 250 µmol/L for recombinant WT *CMPK* with gemcitabine monophosphate as a substrate can be compared with a value of 450 µmol/L that Van Rompay *et al.* (1999) observed using the same substrate. Analysis of the CMPK structure was compatible with our observation that these *CMPK* variants failed to alter apparent K_m values since they were far from the active site.

In summary, we have performed comprehensive pharmacogenomic studies of genes encoding two enzymes required for the metabolic activation of antineoplastic cytidine antimetabolites. We identified a series of novel SNPs for these two genes in four ethnic groups by resequencing these genes – followed by comprehensive functional genomic characterization of variant allozymes. These observations may now contribute to translational pharmacogenomic studies of gemcitabine, AraC and other cytidine antimetabolites.

Supplementary Material

Refer to Web version on PubMed Central for supplementary material.

Abbreviations

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Figure 1. Gemcitabine activation

DCK, deoxycytidine kinase; CMPK, deoxycytidylate kinase; dFdC, gemcitabine; dFdCMP, gemcitabine monophosphate; dFdCDP, gemcitabine diphosphate; and dFdCTP, gemcitabine triphosphate.

Figure 2. *CMPK* **translation initiation**

(A) Diagrammatic representation of the 5′-portion of the gene structure showing the locations of the two potential in-frame translation initiation ATGs. (B) COS-1 cell transfection with CMPK expression constructs. See text and Table 4 for a description of the constructs. (C) RRL *in vitro* transcription and translation. See text for a detailed explanation.

Figure 3. *DCK* **and** *CMPK* **allozyme functional genomics**

(A) and (C) show levels of allozyme activity and immunoreactive protein for *DCK* and *CMPK*, respectively, expressed as percentages of WT. Each bar represents the average of 9 independent transfections (mean \pm SE). All values were corrected for transfection efficiency. (B) and (D) show correlations between average levels of immunoreactive protein and enzyme activity for *DCK* and *CMPK*, respectively.

Figure 4. Human *DCK* **and** *CMPK* **structural models**

(A) The two monomers in the DCK dimeric crystal structure are shown as ribbon structures in two shades of blue. Bound in the active site of each monomer are ADP (orange) and deoxycytidine (dC, blue), shown as space-filling structures. The Ca atoms of the three residues altered by SNPs (Ile24, Ala119, Pro122) are drawn as purple spheres. The N- and C- termini, active site ligands, and positions of the altered residues are labeled for the right monomer. (B) The human *CMPK* monomer is shown as a blue ribbon structure. Bound in the active site is a sulfate ion shown as space-filling spheres. The Ca atoms of the three residues altered by SNPs (Gln48, Glu75, and Asn83) are drawn as purple spheres.

Human *DCK* and *CMPK* polymorphisms.

Locations in the gene, nucleotide sequence alterations, amino acid sequence alterations, and minor allele frequencies (MAFs) of polymorphisms in the four populations studied are listed. If a polymorphism has been deposited in a public database (dbSNP or HapMap), an rs number is indicated. All other polymorphisms listed are unique to this study.

*** indicates polymorphisms also reported recently by Lamba *et al.* (2007). Polymorphisms within exons have been boxed. IVS is intervening sequence (intron). The numbering scheme for nucleotide positions is based on assignment of the (+1) position to the "A" in the translation initiation codon, with nucleotides 5′ to that position assigned negative, and those 3′ within the cDNA assigned positive numbers. Nucleotide positions in introns are numbered from the nearest splice site, with (+1) as the first nucleotide at the 5′-end, and (−1) as the first nucleotide at the 3′-end of the intron.

Kocabas et al. Page 19

AA, African-American; CA, Caucasian-American; HCA, Han Chinese-American; MA, Mexican-American; FR, flanking region; UTR, untranslated region.

DCK and *CMPK* genetic diversity and neutrality test values.

	π , $\times 10^4$	θ , $\times 10^4$	Tajima's D P Values	
DCK				
AA	$8.75 + 5.2$	$10.8 + 3.6$	-0.52	0.62
CA.	$2.51 + 2.1$	$6.99 + 2.6$	-1.63	0.10
HCA	$442 + 31$	$6.99 + 2.6$	-0.93	0.36
МA	$2.27 + 1.9$	$7.01 + 2.6$	-1.73	0.08
CMPK				
AA	$12.8 + 7.3$	$13.9 + 4.4$	-0.23	0.83
CA ⁻	$9.66 + 5.8$	$8.99 + 3.2$	0.20	0.85
HCA	$649 + 42$	$6.92 + 2.7$	-0.15	0.88
МA	$8.09 + 5.0$	$10.4 + 3.6$	-0.60	0.57

Estimates of two measures of nucleotide diversity, π, θ are listed, as well as Tajima's *D*, a test of the "neutral" mutation hypothesis.

The P values refer to Tajima's D.

Human *DCK* and *CMPK* haplotypes.

Variant nucleotides compared with the "reference sequence" (i.e., the most common sequence in African-American subjects) are highlighted as white on black. Initial haplotype designations (*1, *2, etc.) were made on the basis of amino acids that vary, with the WT allozyme designated *1. Subsequent assignments/letter designations were made within ethnic groups based on descending allele frequencies, starting with haplotypes present in AA subjects. The *2, *3 and *4 designations for *DCK* were used for sequences that encoded Val24, Gly119 and Ser122, respectively. The combination of Val24/Ser122, and of Val24/Gly119/Ser122 were inferred, and these combinations were designated as *5 and *6,respectively. The symbols I and D in the 5'-FR (−698 to −697) and 3'-UTR (968 to 969) represent indels. The *CMPK* *2, *3, and *4 designations were used for sequences that encoded His48, Lys75 and Ser83, respectively. The symbols I and D in the 5'-FR (-3174 to -3173) and (-432 to-431) represent indels. o=observed haplotype; i=inferred haplotype with frequency ≥ 2%. Some inferred haplotypes with frequencies lower than 2% were included in the table because they included an amino acid change.

a Indicates inferred data.

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Sequence of the two potential CMPK translation initiation codons and results of studies performed to determine which codon might be functional *in vivo* (see also Fig. 2).

Recombinant DCK and CMPK allozyme substrate kinetics.

Gemcitabine substrate kinetics for WT and variant DCK allozymes and gemcitabine monophosphate substrate kinetics for CMPK were measured in the presence of 1 mM ATP. Values represent mean \pm SEM (n \geq 6).

*** Indicates a statistically significant difference from the WT allozyme (P < 0.025 by Student's t-test).