

Cloning of the γ -aminobutyric acid (GABA) ρ_1 cDNA: A GABA receptor subunit highly expressed in the retina

(ligand-gated ion-channel receptors/polymerase chain reaction/chloride channels/gene family/oocyte expression)

GARRY R. CUTTING*^{†‡}, LUO LU[§], BRUCE F. O'HARA[¶], LAURA M. KASCH[†], CHAHRAZAD MONTROSE-RAFIZADEH[§], DAVID M. DONOVAN[¶], SHOICHI SHIMADA[¶], STYLIANOS E. ANTONARAKIS*[†], WILLIAM B. GUGGINO[§], GEORGE R. UHL^{¶||}, AND HAIG H. KAZAZIAN, JR.*[†]

Departments of *Pediatrics, [§]Physiology, [¶]Neurology and Neurosciences, and [†]Center for Medical Genetics, Johns Hopkins University School of Medicine, Baltimore, MD 21205; and ^{||}Laboratory of Molecular Neurobiology, Addiction Research Center, National Institute on Drug Abuse, Baltimore, MD 21224

Communicated by J. W. Littlefield, November 30, 1990

ABSTRACT Type A γ -aminobutyric acid (GABA_A) receptors are a family of ligand-gated chloride channels that are the major inhibitory neurotransmitter receptors in the nervous system. Molecular cloning has revealed diversity in the subunits that compose this heterooligomeric receptor, but each previously elucidated subunit displays amino acid similarity in conserved structural elements. We have used these highly conserved regions to identify additional members of this family by using the polymerase chain reaction (PCR). One PCR product was used to isolate a full-length cDNA from a human retina cDNA library. The mature protein predicted from this cDNA sequence is 458 amino acids long and displays between 30 and 38% amino acid similarity to the previously identified GABA_A subunits. This gene is expressed primarily in the retina but transcripts are also detected in the brain, lung, and thymus. Injection of *Xenopus* oocytes with RNA transcribed *in vitro* produces a GABA-responsive chloride conductance and expression of the cDNA in COS cells yields GABA-displaceable muscimol binding. These features are consistent with our identification of a GABA subunit, GABA ρ_1 , with prominent retinal expression that increases the diversity and tissue specificity of this ligand-gated ion-channel receptor family.

γ -Aminobutyric acid (GABA), the major brain inhibitory neurotransmitter, mediates fast synaptic inhibition by activating a chloride channel. The receptor belongs to a superfamily of ligand-gated ion channels that include the strychnine-sensitive glycine receptors, glutamate receptors, and nicotinic acetylcholine receptors (1–3). The type A GABA (GABA_A) receptor is postulated to be a heterooligomeric structure composed of various combinations of subunits belonging to at least four reported classes (α , β , γ , and δ) (3). Molecular cloning reveals further diversity within each class; six α , three β , and two γ subunits have been reported (1, 4–10). Most of the subunits can be activated by GABA when expressed individually in oocytes. Different subunit combinations can yield receptors displaying differing responses to a variety of ligands, particularly benzodiazepine and barbiturates (8, 11, 12). Considerable regional variation in the expression of each GABA_A subunit in the brain is also observed (10, 13, 14).

Cloning of several GABA_A subunits has demonstrated similarities in their predicted amino acid sequences that are highest in areas encoding four hydrophobic segments that are believed to form the chloride channel pore. Glycine receptors also form chloride channels and display homologies in these proposed channel-forming domains. These homologies are greater than those of ligand-gated channels that pass other

ions, e.g., kainate or nicotinic acetylcholine (15, 16). We have, therefore, used the regions of greatest similarity among transmembrane segments 2 and 3 of the GABA_A and glycine subunits to clone additional proteins encoding chloride channels. Subcloning and sequencing of products amplified from human genomic DNA and cDNA from a colonic tumor cell line (T84) believed to express the chloride channel defective in cystic fibrosis (17) have identified an additional GABA subunit, termed GABA ρ_1 that demonstrates unique pharmacological properties, and is primarily expressed in the retina.**

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Polymerase Chain Reaction (PCR) Amplification of Human DNA Sequences from the GABA_A/Glycine Receptor Gene Family. Primers for the PCR were selected from regions of high similarity among the amino acid sequences of the bovine $\alpha 1$ and $\beta 1$ GABA_A subunits (1) and the rat glycine receptor (2). Mixed oligonucleotides primer A [5'-AC(A,C)AC(A,T)-GTGCT(C,G)AC(A,C)ATCAC(A,C)AC-3'] was derived from the octameric amino acid sequence TTVLTMTT in the second transmembrane region of the GABA_A $\alpha 1$ and glycine subunits (1, 2). Mixed primer B [5'-CAG(A,G)GC(C,T)-GA(A,G)AA(C,T)AC(A,G)AA-3'] was selected from the conserved amino acid residues FVFSAL in the third transmembrane segment of the $\alpha 1$ GABA_A and glycine receptor subunits. Genomic DNA for PCR amplification was derived from peripheral lymphocytes of healthy individuals or phage libraries (LL07NS01 and LA07NS01; American Type Culture Collection). cDNA was synthesized from 1 μ g of mRNA isolated from a human colonic tumor cell line (T84) by using Moloney murine leukemia virus reverse transcriptase (BRL) and standard methods (18, 19).

The PCR was performed in 100 μ l containing either 500–1000 ng of genomic DNA or 50–100 ng of cDNA, 2.5 units of *Taq* polymerase (Cetus), all four deoxynucleotide 5'-triphosphates (Pharmacia; each at 0.02 μ M), and the 5' and 3' primers (each at 20 pM) in *Taq* polymerase buffer (50 mM KCl/10 mM Tris·HCl, pH 8.3/1.5 mM MgCl₂/0.01% gelatin). The DNA was amplified by denaturation at 94°C for 6 min, then by 30 cycles of annealing at 45°C for 1 min, extension at 72°C for 1 min, and denaturation at 94°C for 30 sec, and finally by an extension at 72°C for 10 min.

Abbreviations: GABA, γ -aminobutyric acid; GABA_A receptor, type A GABA receptor; PCR, polymerase chain reaction.

[†]To whom reprint requests should be addressed at: CMSC 10-07, The Johns Hopkins Hospital, 600 North Wolfe Street, Baltimore, MD 21205.

**The sequence reported in this paper has been deposited in the GenBank data base (accession no. M62323).

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

Subcloning and Sequencing of PCR Amplification Products. To facilitate cloning, 123-base-pair (bp) fragments from each reaction mixture were reamplified using 100 pM of primers G and F, which are identical to primers A and B, respectively, but include a *Hind*III site at the 5' end of primer G and a *Bam*HI site at the 5' end of primer F. Amplified DNA fragments (140 bp) were subcloned into the pGEM-3Z+ plasmid (Promega) and recombinants were PCR-amplified using universal M13 sequencing primers. Direct sequencing of the PCR products using the Forward primer was performed as described (20).

Identification and Sequencing of the Full-Length cDNA. Seven cDNA libraries were screened for the cDNA corresponding to clone D by using standard methods (19). These included the following: a T84 library constructed in λ gt10, a second T84 library (Clontech 1079k), a fetal human brain library, a 1-day-old human cortex library, an adult rat cortex library constructed in λ ZAP, an adult human lung library (Clontech 1066b), and a human retina library. Phage DNA from a single colony isolated from the human retina cDNA library was partially digested with *Eco*RI to yield a full-length cDNA, since an *Eco*RI site exists within the cDNA. The resultant 2.0-kilobase (kb) fragment was subcloned into the pBluescript KS+ vector (Stratagene) and designated pR5-2.0. Sequencing of the entire coding region (1.4 kb) of pR5-2.0 was performed in both directions by the dideoxynucleotide method using sequencing primers (21). Sequence translation and alignments were performed using the PC Gene V6.25 (IntelliGenetics) software package.

Expression of the Full-Length cDNA. Sense and antisense mRNA for injection into *Xenopus* oocytes was synthesized from the linearized pR5-2.0 plasmid using the T3 and T7 RNA polymerase promoters, respectively (19). Adult female *Xenopus laevis* frogs (*Xenopus* I, Ann Arbor, MI) were anesthetized in 0.15% tricaine methanesulfonate (Ayerst Laboratories), ovarian lobes were excised, oocytes were defolliculated, (22) and stage V and VI oocytes were selected and stored in modified Barth's solution [MBS; 88 mM NaCl/1 mM KCl/2.4 mM NaHCO₃/0.3 mM Ca(NO₃)₂/0.4 mM CaCl₂/0.8 mM MgSO₄/15 mM Tris-HCl, pH 7.6/penicillin (100 units/ml)/streptomycin (100 μ g/ml)] at 18°C. Eighteen to 24 hours after defolliculation, oocytes were injected with 50 ng of mRNA in 50 nl of water with a positive-displacement micropipette (Drummond). Two-microelectrode voltage clamp experiments were performed in normal frog saline (96 mM NaCl/2 mM KCl/2 mM CaCl₂/1 mM MgCl₂/5 mM HEPES-NaOH, pH 7.4) (22).

To facilitate expression in mammalian cells, the 2.0-kb fragment from pR5-2.0 was subcloned into *Not* I-*Xho* I sites in pCDM8 (Invitrogen, San Diego). This construct was transfected into COS cells by using electroporation (23). GABA-displaceable binding of [³H]muscimol to COS cell membrane homogenates was determined by a filtration assay in cells harvested 3 days after transfection (24).

RESULTS

Identification of Sequences from the M2-M3 Regions of Human GABA_A Receptor Genes. Analysis of 101 clones derived from PCR amplification of genomic DNA and human colonic tumor cell (T84) cDNA using primers A and B produced 12 sequences. Seven of the 12 sequences (clones A to F and H) showed various degrees of amino acid similarity with the M2-M3 regions of the GABA_A and glycine subunits when translated in the same frame as the GABA_A/glycine receptor genes (Fig. 1A). All 7 sequences were amplified from human genomic DNA whereas only clones A, C, and D were amplified from T84 cDNA. Analysis of the relatedness of the 7 clones, the GABA_A receptor subunits, and the 48-kDa α 1 glycine receptor subunit (Fig. 1B) indicates that clones A, E,

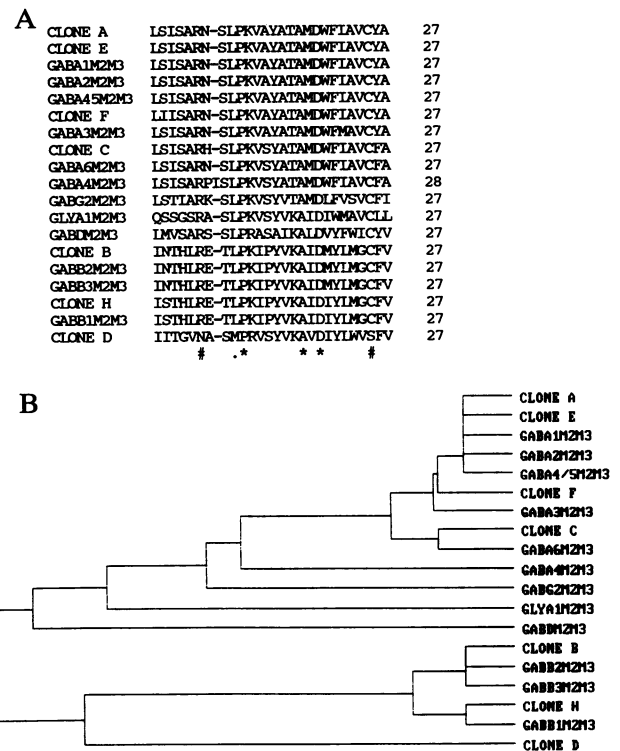


FIG. 1. Alignment of the predicted amino acid sequence of PCR-amplified sequences clones A to F and H with comparable regions (transmembrane segments M2-M3) from the GABA_A α 1 (GABA1M2M3; ref. 25), α 2 (GABA2M2M3; ref. 4), α 3 (GABA3M2M3; ref. 4), α 4 (GABA4M2M3; ref. 5), α 4/ α 5 (GABA45M2M3; refs. 6 and 7), α 6 (GABA6M2M3; ref. 8), β 1 (GABB1M2M3; ref. 25), β 2 (GABB2M2M3; ref. 9), β 3 (GABB3M2M3; ref. 9), γ 2 (GABG2M2M3; ref. 11), δ (GABDM2M3; ref. 10), and glycine α 1 (GLYA1M2M3; ref. 26) subunits using the program Clustal (PC Gene; IntelliGenetics). Residues that are completely conserved are indicated (*). Residues that are the same in all sequences except clone D are identified for a conservative change (.) and for nonconservative changes (#). (B) Phylogenetic tree generated during alignment of the amino acid sequences in A. Sequences on the same vertical line are identical, and sequences separated by a branch have at least one amino acid difference.

F, and C belong to the GABA_A α subunit class. The sequence of clone E is identical to that of the human α 1 GABA_A subunit (25); it is possible that clone A is derived from the human α 2 subunit gene. Clone F is also closely related to the α 1/ α 2 subunits and may represent another member of this group. Clone C may be the human α 6 subunit because it has only a single amino acid difference from the bovine α 6 subunit and 87% similarity at the nucleotide level. Clones H and B correspond to human GABA_A β subunits, clone H is identical to the human β 1 subunit (25), and clone B most closely resembles the rat β 3 subunit.

Clone D is distinct. The clone is similar to the GABA_A and glycine receptors and is most closely related to the GABA_A β subunits. However, it displays the lowest amino acid similarity with the known subunits. Specifically, three residues that are completely conserved among the GABA_A and the glycine receptor subunits are different in clone D (Fig. 1A). These features all suggest that clone D is related to the GABA_A and glycine receptors but represents another subclass of these proteins (Fig. 1B).

Cloning and Sequencing of the GABA ρ 1 Subunit. Screening of 3×10^6 phage from two T84 cDNA libraries, 1×10^6 phage from a human adult lung cDNA library, 1×10^6 phage from a human fetal brain cDNA library, 0.3×10^6 primary recombinants from a 1-day old-human cortex cDNA library, and 2

in the GABA receptor family and has been designated as subunit ρ_1 .

Tissue Distribution of the GABA ρ_1 Subunit. Northern blot analyses of poly(A)-selected RNA extracted from several brain regions and peripheral tissues demonstrated hybridization to an mRNA of 3.9 kb in bovine retina and cerebellum. Bovine retina also contained at least two additional hybridizing bands at 3.1 and 4.8 kb (Fig. 4). Much lower or undetectable levels of hybridization were found in RNA prepared from rat and guinea pig cerebellum, guinea pig and human fetal forebrain, bovine and rat midbrain, human fetal and bovine hindbrain, human adult caudate/putamen, rat and bovine cerebral cortex, bovine spinal cord, rat lung, and rat thymus (Fig. 4 and data not shown). Three weakly hybridizing transcripts were detected in 68 μg of mRNA from T84 cells (data not shown).

Xenopus and COS Cell Expression of GABA ρ_1 . Superfusion of 1 μM GABA onto oocytes injected with sense RNA transcribed from the GABA ρ_1 cDNA induced an inward current (78 recordings from 15 oocytes) (Fig. 5 A–C). The current was eliminated by removing GABA from the bath solution and as much as 2 mM glycine had no effect ($n = 3$). In the presence of 1 μM GABA, addition of 200 nM picrotoxin inhibited the current by as much as 80% ($n = 5$). Concentrations of picrotoxin of 0.5 to 10 μM completely inhibited GABA-activated currents ($n = 10$). No GABA-activated currents were observed in noninjected ($n = 5$) oocytes or in those injected with antisense RNA ($n = 3$). Current–voltage relationship of the GABA-activated current revealed a measured reversal potential of -35 mV with 120 mM chloride in the extracellular solution (Fig. 5D). The calculated reversal potential was -32 mV (33). The reversal potential shifted to -18 mV when extracellular Cl^- was reduced to 50 mM ($n = 3$). Currents were intermediate at 0.5 μM GABA and saturated at 10 μM GABA. The calculated concentration for half-maximal activation was 2 μM .

Cell membranes prepared from cells transfected with the GABA ρ_1 cDNA demonstrated GABA-displaceable muscimol binding. The binding affinity of this homooligomeric receptor was low [$K_d = 0.4$ to 1.0 μM ($n = 3$)]. Displacement

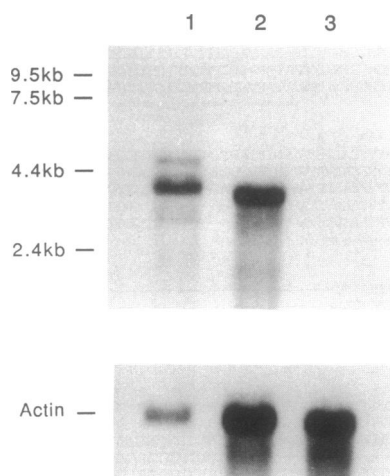


FIG. 4. Northern blot analysis for the presence of GABA ρ_1 mRNA. Lanes: 1, bovine retina [1 μg of poly(A)⁺ RNA]; 2, bovine cerebellum [10 μg of poly(A)⁺ RNA]; 3, bovine cerebral cortex [10 μg of poly(A)⁺ RNA] hybridized at 37°C for 16–24 hr with a 400-bp *EcoRI*–*HindIII* cDNA fragment (corresponding to transmembrane regions 1–3) radiolabeled by random priming (31) in a standard 50% formamide buffer (19). Below, the same blot probed with a β -actin cDNA (32). Filters were washed for three 20-min periods in 0.4 \times standard saline/citrate/0.5% SDS at 48°C and autoradiographed at -70°C for 1–6 days using an intensifying screen. An RNA ladder (BRL) was used to standardize RNA sizes.

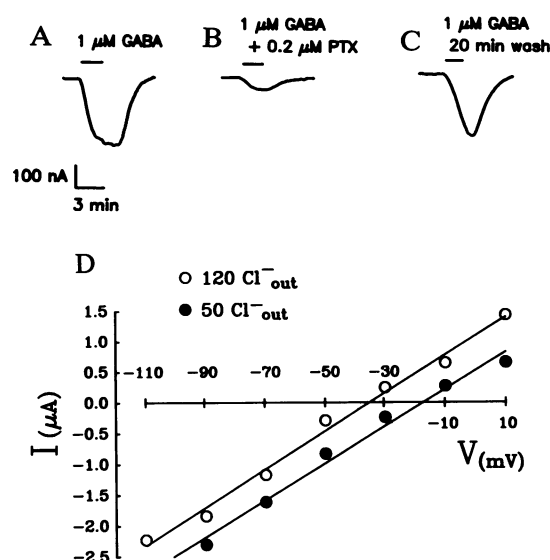


FIG. 5. Expression of the GABA ρ_1 receptor in *Xenopus* oocytes injected with sense mRNA derived from clone pR5-2.0. GABA-activated membrane currents were evoked by perfusion of 1 μM GABA (A); 1 μM GABA plus 200 nM picrotoxin (PTX) (B); or 1 μM GABA, after washing out the picrotoxin for 20 min (C). Membrane potentials were clamped at -90 mV, and bars show the perfusion period of GABA in the extracellular solution. (D) Current (I)–voltage (V) relationship of the GABA-activated currents (10 μM GABA applied in extracellular solution).

of muscimol binding by GABA was not observed in cell membranes isolated from pCDM8-transfected or nontransfected cells.

DISCUSSION

Amplification of human GABA_A genes by using PCR and mixed oligonucleotides for conserved regions has identified additional members of the GABA receptor gene family. In addition to isolation of sequences from potential members of the α and β subunit groups, an entire cDNA has been cloned and expressed that represents another class of GABA receptor subunits. We have also identified human counterparts for portions of some bovine and rat GABA_A receptor genes. This method appears to be useful for any closely related family of genes, as demonstrated by the amplification of guanine nucleotide binding (G) proteins, P-glycoproteins, ATP kinase-dependent transport proteins, and the rat δ GABA_A subunit by similar procedures (34–38).

Several subunits of GABA_A receptors have been expressed in *Xenopus* oocytes (1, 10) and have shown ligand-gated chloride channel activity. Injection of ρ_1 mRNA into *Xenopus* oocytes demonstrates that the protein can form a homooligomeric receptor responsive to GABA. Transfection of mammalian cells with the ρ_1 cDNA confers GABA-displaceable muscimol binding to the cell membranes, confirming that the product of this cDNA can interact with GABA. In *Xenopus* oocytes, the cloned subunit displays dose–response relationships to GABA agonists similar to those displayed by cloned bovine α and β subunits (1) and a much lower half-maximal GABA concentration than chicken brain GABA_A receptors (39). Compared with other GABA-activated chloride channels expressed singly in oocytes, this cloned subunit has a higher sensitivity to picrotoxin, a convulsant inhibitor of GABA-activated chloride channels. A picrotoxin concentration of 0.5 to 10 μM completely inhibits responses after ρ_1 subunit mRNA injection whereas 5–500 μM is required for GABA_A receptors (4, 26, 40). This indicates the ρ_1 subunit has a distinct pharmacologic character. Chloride ion substitution

experiments (Fig. 5D) confirm that that ρ_1 subunit contains a chloride-selective anion channel.

Each of the four cloned GABA_A subunits demonstrates distinct regional variations of expression within the brain (3). GABA_A-responsive chloride channels have been detected in the pancreas and retina, indicating that they are also present in tissues outside of the central nervous system (41, 42). Our experimental results suggest that expression of the GABA ρ_1 gene in retina is substantially higher than expression in brain regions. Although four brain libraries were screened using clone D, no hybridizing cDNA were obtained. Conversely, a human retina cDNA library yielded a 2.0-kb cDNA in the first screen, among eight positive λ gt10 plaques. These results were consistent with the results of a Northern blot analysis of RNA prepared from the retina and other brain regions. The hybridization seen after Northern blot analysis of as little as 1 μ g of retinal poly(A) RNA was significantly higher than the expression in the next-highest brain region tested, the bovine cerebellum, and dramatically higher than other regions tested. This relatively selective distribution leads us to propose that this receptor cDNA can be designated the ρ subunit class to denote its relative, although not absolute, retina-specific localization.

Clone D corresponding to the GABA ρ_1 gene was amplified from cDNA created from the T84 cell line raising the possibility that GABA ρ_1 might be present in colonic cells. However, hybridization of T84 mRNA with a GABA ρ_1 probe revealed only faint signals, indicating very low levels of transcription of this gene in T84 cells. Clones A and C, probably GABA_A α subunits, and β globin sequences (G.R.C., unpublished observations) have also been amplified from T84 cDNA. This suggested that a number of tissue-specific genes are transcribed at levels detectable by PCR amplification in T84 cells. This phenomenon has been observed for other cell types (43, 44). The low intensity of hybridization of RNA from lung and thymus with the GABA ρ_1 cDNA may reflect low abundance of this mRNA in these tissues or that only a small fraction of cells from these tissues express the ρ_1 gene.

In the retina, GABA is contained within retinal amacrine cells where it has been linked to inhibition processes and may even play a role in "straight-through" transmission of information on the path to retinal ganglion cells (45). Ligand-binding and physiological studies suggest that both GABA_A and GABA_B receptors are present in the retina (45). It is thus possible that the ρ_1 GABA receptor subunit could play a role in retinal neurotransmission. Preliminary *in situ* hybridization analysis of rat retina is consistent with the presence of this receptor subunit mRNA in retinal cell subpopulations (S.S. and G.R.U., unpublished data). The availability of the ρ_1 GABA receptor subunit cDNA will help elucidate the roles that these receptors may play in retinal information processing.

We thank R. Neve, E. Barbosa, and J. Nathans for cDNA libraries, A. Scott and G. Yellen for assistance in sequence analysis and B. Shaffer for excellent secretarial assistance. This work was supported by grants from the National Institutes of Health to G.R.C., S.E.A., G.R.U., and H.H.K., Jr.; from the Cystic Fibrosis Foundation to G.R.C., S.E.A., W.B.G., and H.H.K., Jr.; and from the intramural program of the National Institute on Drug Abuse to G.R.U.

1. Schofield, P. R., Darlison, M. G., Fujita, N., Burt, D. B., Stephenson, F. A., Rodriguez, H., Rhee, L. M., Ramachandran, J., Reale, V., Glencorse, T. A., Seeburg, P. H. & Barnard, E. A. (1987) *Nature (London)* **328**, 221-227.
2. Grenningloh, G., Rienitz, A., Schmitt, B., Methfessel, C., Zensen, M.,

- Beyreuther, K., Gundelfinger, E. D. & Betz, H. (1987) *Nature (London)* **328**, 215-220.
3. Olsen, R. W. & Tobin, A. J. (1990) *FASEB J.* **4**, 1469-1480.
4. Levitan, E. S., Schofield, P. R., Burt, D. R., Rhee, L. M., Wisden, W., Kohler, M., Fujita, N., Rodriguez, H. F., Stephenson, A., Darlison, M. G., Barnard, E. A. & Seeburg, P. H. (1988) *Nature (London)* **335**, 76-79.
5. Ymer, S., Draguhn, A., Kohler, M., Schofield, P. R. & Seeburg, P. H. (1989) *FEBS Lett.* **258**, 119-122.
6. Krestchatsky, M., MacLennan, A. J., Chiang, M., Xu, W., Jackson, M. B., Brecha, N., Sternini, C., Olsen, R. W. & Tobin, A. J. (1989) *Neuron* **3**, 745-753.
7. Pritchett, D. B. & Seeburg, P. H. (1990) *J. Neurochem.* **54**, 1802-1804.
8. Luddens, H., Pritchett, D. B., Kohler, M., Killisch, I., Keinanen, K., Monyer, H., Sprengel, R. & Seeburg, P. H. (1990) *Nature (London)* **346**, 648-651.
9. Ymer, S., Schofield, P. R., Draguhn, A., Werner, P., Kohler, M. & Seeburg, P. H. (1990) *EMBO J.* **8**, 1665-1670.
10. Shivers, B. D., Killish, I., Sprengel, R., Sontheimer, H., Kohler, M., Schofield, P. R. & Seeburg, P. H. (1989) *Neuron* **3**, 327-337.
11. Pritchett, D. B., Sontheimer, H., Shivers, B. D., Ymer, S., Kettenmann, H., Schofield, P. R. & Seeburg, P. H. (1989) *Nature (London)* **338**, 582-585.
12. Verdoorn, T. A., Draguhn, A., Ymer, S., Seeburg, P. H. & Sakmann, B. (1990) *Neuron* **4**, 919-928.
13. Siegel, R. E. (1988) *Neuron* **1**, 579-584.
14. Sequier, J. M., Richards, J. G., Malherbe, P., Price, G. W., Mathews, S. & Mohler, H. (1988) *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA* **85**, 7815-7819.
15. Hollman, M., O'Shea-Greenfield, A., Rogers, S. W. & Heinemann, S. (1989) *Nature (London)* **342**, 643-648.
16. Noda, M., Furutani, Y., Takahashi, H., Toyosato, M., Tanabe, T., Shimizu, S., Kikuyotani, S., Kayano, T., Hirose, T., Inayama, S. & Numa, S. (1983) *Nature (London)* **305**, 818-823.
17. Halm, D. R., Rechkemmer, G. R., Schoumacker, R. A. & Frizzell, R. A. (1988) *Am. J. Physiol.* **254**, C505-C511.
18. Huynh, T. V., Young, R. A. & Davis, R. W. (1985) *DNA Cloning: A Practical Approach*, ed. Glover, D. M. (IRL, Oxford).
19. Maniatis, T., Fritsch, E. F. & Sambrook, J. (1982) *Molecular Cloning: A Laboratory Manual* (Cold Spring Harbor Lab., Cold Spring Harbor, NY).
20. Higuchi, R., von Beroldingen, C. H., Sensabaugh, G. F. & Erlich, H. A. (1988) *Nature (London)* **332**, 543-546.
21. Sanger, F., Nicklen, S. & Coulson, A. R. (1977) *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA* **74**, 5463-5467.
22. Lu, L., Montrose-Rafizadeh, C., Hwang, T.-C. & Guggino, W. B. (1990) *Biophys. J.* **57**, 1117-1123.
23. Schaeffer, J. C., Chien-Liang, L., Kitayama, S. & Uhl, G. R. (1991) *Mol. Brain Res.*, in press.
24. Pritchett, D. B., Sontheimer, H., Gorman, C. M., Kettenmann, H., Seeburg, P. H. & Schofield, P. R. (1988) *Science* **242**, 1306-1308.
25. Schofield, P. R., Pritchett, D. B., Sontheimer, H., Kettenmann, H. & Seeburg, P. H. (1989) *FEBS Lett.* **244**, 361-364.
26. Grenningloh, G., Schmieden, V., Schofield, P. R., Seeburg, P. H., Siddique, T., Mohandas, T. K., Becker, C. M. & Betz, H. (1990) *EMBO J.* **9**, 771-776.
27. von Heijne, G. (1986) *Nucleic Acids Res.* **14**, 4683-4690.
28. Woodgett, J. R., Gould, K. L. & Hunter, T. (1986) *Eur. J. Biochem.* **161**, 177-184.
29. Pless, D. D. & Lennarz, W. J. (1977) *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA* **74**, 134-138.
30. Kozak, M. (1989) *J. Cell Biol.* **108**, 229-241.
31. Feinberg, A. P. & Vogelstein, B. (1983) *Anal. Biochem.* **132**, 6-13.
32. Hanukoglu, I., Tanese, N. & Fuchs, E. (1983) *J. Mol. Biol.* **163**, 673-678.
33. Barish, M. (1983) *J. Physiol. (London)* **342**, 309-325.
34. Wilson, C. M., Serrano, A. E., Wasley, A., Bogenschütz, M. P., Shankar, A. H. & Wirth, D. F. (1989) *Science* **244**, 1184-1186.
35. Libert, F., Parmentier, M., Lefort, A., Dinsart, C., Van Sande, J., Maenhaut, C., Simons, M.-J., Dumont, J. E. & Vassart, G. (1989) *Science* **244**, 569-572.
36. Strathmann, M., Wilkie, T. M. & Simon, M. I. (1989) *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA* **86**, 7407-7409.
37. Wilks, A. F. (1989) *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA* **86**, 1603-1607.
38. Zhao, Z.-Y. & Joho, R. H. (1990) *Biochem. Biophys. Res. Commun.* **167**, 174-182.
39. Miledi, R., Parker, I. & Sumikawa, K. (1982) *Proc. R. Soc. London Ser. B* **216**, 509-515.
40. Blair, L. A. C., Levitan, E. S., Marshall, J., Dionne, V. E. & Barnard, E. A. (1988) *Science* **242**, 577-579.
41. Ishida, A. T. & Cohen, B. N. (1988) *J. Neurophysiol.* **60**, 381-396.
42. Rorsman, P., Berggren, P.-O., Bokvist, K., Ericson, H., Mohler, H., Ostenson, C.-G. & Smith, P. A. (1989) *Nature (London)* **341**, 233-236.
43. Sarkar, G. & Sommer, S. S. (1989) *Science* **244**, 331-334.
44. McLeod, J. F. & Cooke, N. E. (1989) *J. Biol. Chem.* **264**, 21760-21769.
45. Daw, N. W., Brunken, W. J. & Parkinson, D. (1989) *Annu. Rev. Neurosci.* **12**, 205-225.