

## The gene structure of human anti-haemophilic factor IX

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**The mRNA sequence of the human intrinsic clotting factor IX (Christmas factor) has been completed and is 2802 residues long, including a 29 residue long 5' non-coding and a 1390 residue long 3' non-coding region, but excluding the poly(A) tail. The factor IX gene is ~34 kb long and we define, by the sequencing of 5280 residues, the presumed promoter region, all eight exons, and some intron and flanking sequence. Introns account for 92% of the gene length and the longest is estimated to be 10 100 residues. Exons conform roughly to previously designated protein regions, but the catalytic region of the protein is coded by two separate exons. This differs from the arrangement in the other characterized serine protease genes which are further subdivided in this region.**

**Key words:** Christmas disease/clotting factor IX/gene cloning/haemophilia B/mRNA

### Introduction

Factor IX (Christmas factor) is the precursor of a serine protease required for blood clotting by the intrinsic clotting pathway. Clinically, defects in this factor result in haemophilia B (or Christmas disease), and this X-linked disorder occurs in ~1 in 30 000 males (reviewed by McKee, 1983). Patients are treated with factor IX prepared from pooled plasma from normal individuals.

Cloning of the mRNA and the gene for factor IX from normal human sources is a necessary preliminary to a number of future studies, some of direct clinical relevance to haemophiliacs and their families, and some of academic interest. The first clones isolated by ourselves from part of the human gene (Choo *et al.*, 1982) have already proved useful in demonstrating extensive gene deletions in one subgroup of patients (Giannelli *et al.*, 1983), although this study was limited by a lack of 'probes' covering the entire factor IX gene. Clones covering the coding region of the human factor IX mRNA (Kurachi and Davie, 1982; Jaye *et al.* 1983) have been used to demonstrate a naturally occurring frequent *Taq*I polymorphism (Camerino *et al.*, 1984). Clones have now been successfully used for carrier diagnosis in several Christmas disease families (Giannelli *et al.*, 1984; Peake *et al.*, 1984). Probes have also been used to localize the factor IX gene to the Xq2.7 region of the X chromosome (Boyd *et al.* 1984; Camerino *et al.*, 1984).

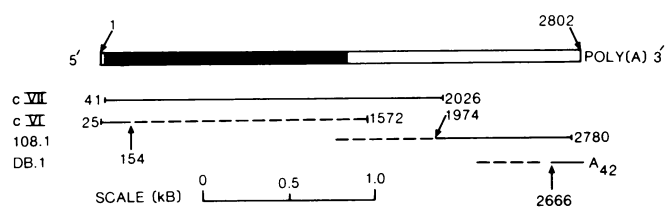
We report here the complete nucleotide sequence of the factor IX mRNA and an extensive characterization of the gene defining the promoter region, the mRNA start, the eight exon regions and the mRNA stop point. This should provide a more secure foundation for further studies of the molecular pathology of the disease and for the isolation of further polymorphisms for use in diagnosis, as well as provide a basis for studies of the expression of factor IX protein from recombinant DNA sources. If successful, this would prevent the risks of hepatitis or acquired immune deficiency syndrome (AIDS) present in the current treatment of haemophiliacs.

### Results

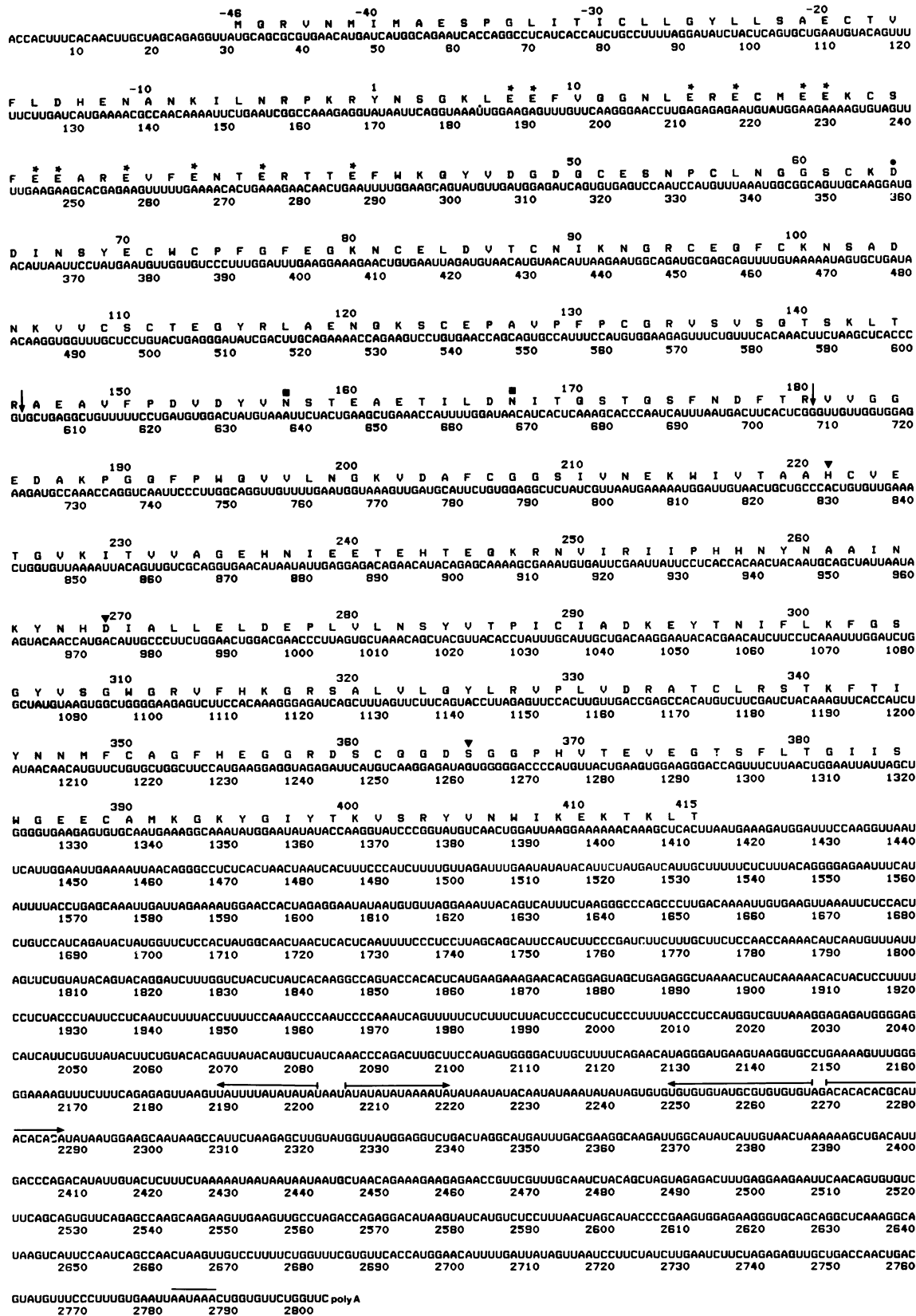
#### *cDNA cloning and sequence analysis of factor IX mRNA*

Bovine factor IX mRNA is enriched in the 20–22S fraction of liver mRNA (Choo *et al.*, 1982). Assuming human mRNA to be similar, we constructed cDNA libraries from this same sized fraction of a normal human liver (see Materials and methods). Factor IX clones were identified using a previously isolated exon probe (Choo *et al.*, 1982) and four overlapping clones were characterized and used to derive the sequence of the factor IX mRNA (see Materials and methods and Figure 1). Clone cVII was the longest cDNA clone which was fully characterized and it extended from residues 41 to 2026 of the mRNA sequence (see Figure 2). However, the sequence between residues 41 and 135 was inverted and complementary in sense with respect to the remaining sequence. Clone cVI was also rearranged in a similar manner in its first 15 residues. Both rearrangements are presumably due to cloning artefacts. Clones 108.1 and DB.1 provided overlapping sequences to complete the 3' non-coding sequence and to define the location of the poly(A) tail.

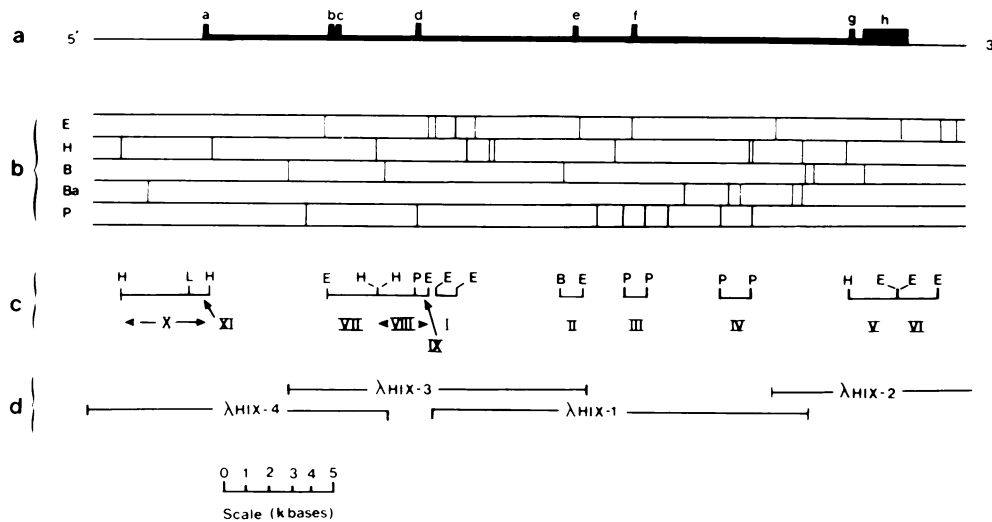
Figure 2 shows the mRNA sequence derived from these cDNA clones and this includes evidence on the sequence of the 5' non-coding region and the mRNA start point derived subsequently from the analysis of genomic clones (see below). The mRNA is 2802 residues long; it contains a short 29 residue long 5' non-coding sequence and an extensive 1390 residue long 3' non-coding sequence including the UAAUGA



**Fig. 1.** Line diagram of four overlapping cDNA clones used in the sequence analysis of the mRNA. The block diagram represents the structure of the factor IX mRNA. The solid area represents coding and the open areas 5' and 3' non-coding sequence. The four clones and their identification symbols are shown, with solid lines representing sequenced and dashed lines unsequenced regions. The extent of the sequenced regions and of the clone (if known) is indicated by the nucleotide number (see Figure 2). Clone cVII was previously referred to as probe V (Giannelli *et al.* 1983).



**Fig. 2.** Sequence of factor IX mRNA and its encoded protein. The symbols 1–415 define the mature protein and –46 to –1 the precursor region. The latter may be further subdivided into a hydrophobic signal region –46 to –21, and a hydrophilic precursor region –20 to –1 containing three basic amino acids between residues –4 to –1. Vertical arrows indicate the peptide bonds cleaved during activation in clotting. Post-translational modifications are marked (\* = 12  $\gamma$ -carboxylglutamyl residues, ● =  $\beta$ -hydroxyaspartyl and ■ = two Asn-linked carbohydrate residues). The AUAUAA consensus sequence is overlined. His (221), Asp (269) and Ser (365) are marked (▼). Local potential hairpin loops are shown by horizontal arrows.



**Fig. 3.** Line diagram of the organization of the factor IX gene. (a) Shows the exon/intron arrangement, (b) the restriction enzyme map, (c) the genomic subclones generated for sequencing the exons and for patient studies (Giannelli *et al.*, 1983) and (d) the recombinant  $\lambda$  clones. The symbols a–h mark exons; restriction enzyme sites are abbreviated as follows: *EcoRI* (E), *HindIII* (H), *BglII* (B), *BamHI* (Ba), *PvuII* (P) and *BglI* (L).  $\lambda$ HIX-2 extends a further 8-kb in a 3' direction.

double stop translation terminator and the usual AAUAAA sequence, 21 residues before the poly(A) addition site (Proudfoot and Brownlee, 1976). The first potential initiator methionine occurs at nucleotide 30, giving an open reading frame until termination occurs just after residue 1412 at the C-terminal threonine. The principal features of the precursor and of the coding sequence of the protein have been presented previously by others (Kurachi and Davie, 1982; Jaye *et al.*, 1983). We confirm that the mature factor IX protein is 415 amino acids long, as in the corrected sequence of Davie *et al.* (1984). There remains one difference in the nucleotide sequence in the coding region of the mRNA between our results and those of Jaye *et al.* (1983) at position 609, which would alter the amino acid sequence. We agree with the corrected sequence of Davie *et al.* (1984) with a further correction at nucleotide 67 (Kurachi, personal communication). We find nucleotide 609 is the same in our genomic clones (see below). It would therefore seem premature to conclude that residue 609 is a genuine polymorphism before eliminating the possibility of a sequencing error in the other report.

A computer scan of the mRNA sequence for local secondary structures shows two stable hairpin loops could exist within the 3' non-coding region (Figure 2). These centre on residues 2203 and between residues 2267 and 2268 giving base paired stems of 14 and 19 residues, respectively. No function has been ascribed to non-coding regions in mRNA (other than to the AAUAAA sequence), so their functional significance is unknown.

#### *The isolation, mapping and sequence analysis of factor IX genomic clones*

Previously we had isolated a 17-kb section of the human factor IX gene as a clone in bacteriophage  $\lambda$  and had characterized a short exon sequence (Choo *et al.*, 1982). To complete the structural analysis, we isolated and mapped three further clones  $\lambda$ HIX2, 3 and 4 from two different bacteriophage  $\lambda$  libraries (Figure 3). The exon regions of subclones II, III, V, VI, VII, IX and XI were completely sequenced (except the region corresponding to the 3' non-coding region of the mRNA), together with some intron and some 5'- and 3'-flanking sequence (Figure 4). The factor IX gene (Figure

3a) is ~34 kb long and is split into eight exons, which we label a–h. These are separated in most cases by long introns, the longest >10 kb. We have found no sequence polymorphisms between the corresponding regions of the gene and the mRNA. All splice junctions conform to the consensus rules (Breathnach and Chambon, 1981).

#### *The mRNA start point*

The mRNA start point in the gene was studied by both S1 nuclease mapping experiments (Berk and Sharp, 1977; Weaver and Weissman, 1979) and by primer extension experiments (Baralle, 1977; Proudfoot *et al.*, 1980). With 200 units of S1 nuclease (Figure 5, lane 1), we observed a triplet of bands (a), the lowest of which corresponds to residue A296. This position and others discussed below were identified by reference to the G plus A sequencing ladder in lane 3, assuming that the product in the ladder position is about one residue faster than the equivalent product in the S1 nuclease or primer extension experiment (Sollner-Webb and Reeder, 1979). Minor single bands (b and c) were observed corresponding to A299 and A325. With less S1 nuclease (100 units), band b was absent; with more enzyme (1000 units), the lowest of the three bands in the triplet (a) was stronger relative to the other two bands (results not shown). In the primer extension experiment, lane 2, the major band b corresponded to A299 and there were minor bands correspondingly to A296 and A325. We interpret these results as follows. The S1 nuclease triplet is fairly typical of results with other 'capped' mRNA molecules and probably defines an authentic mRNA start point. The other minor singlet bands b and c as well as a faint background ladder are probably artefacts due to mRNA nicking either before or during the experiment. The primer extension results confirmed that the lowest band of the triplet corresponded to the end of the mRNA and, as expected, there were no longer products. We interpret the fact that band a (lane 2) is weak compared to band b (lane 2) as indicating that the reverse transcriptase has difficulty copying the first few residues of the mRNA. We conclude that A296 is likely to be the mRNA start, noting that the sequence around this position conforms to the weak consensus in this region (Baralle and Brownlee, 1978; Breathnach and Chambon, 1981).



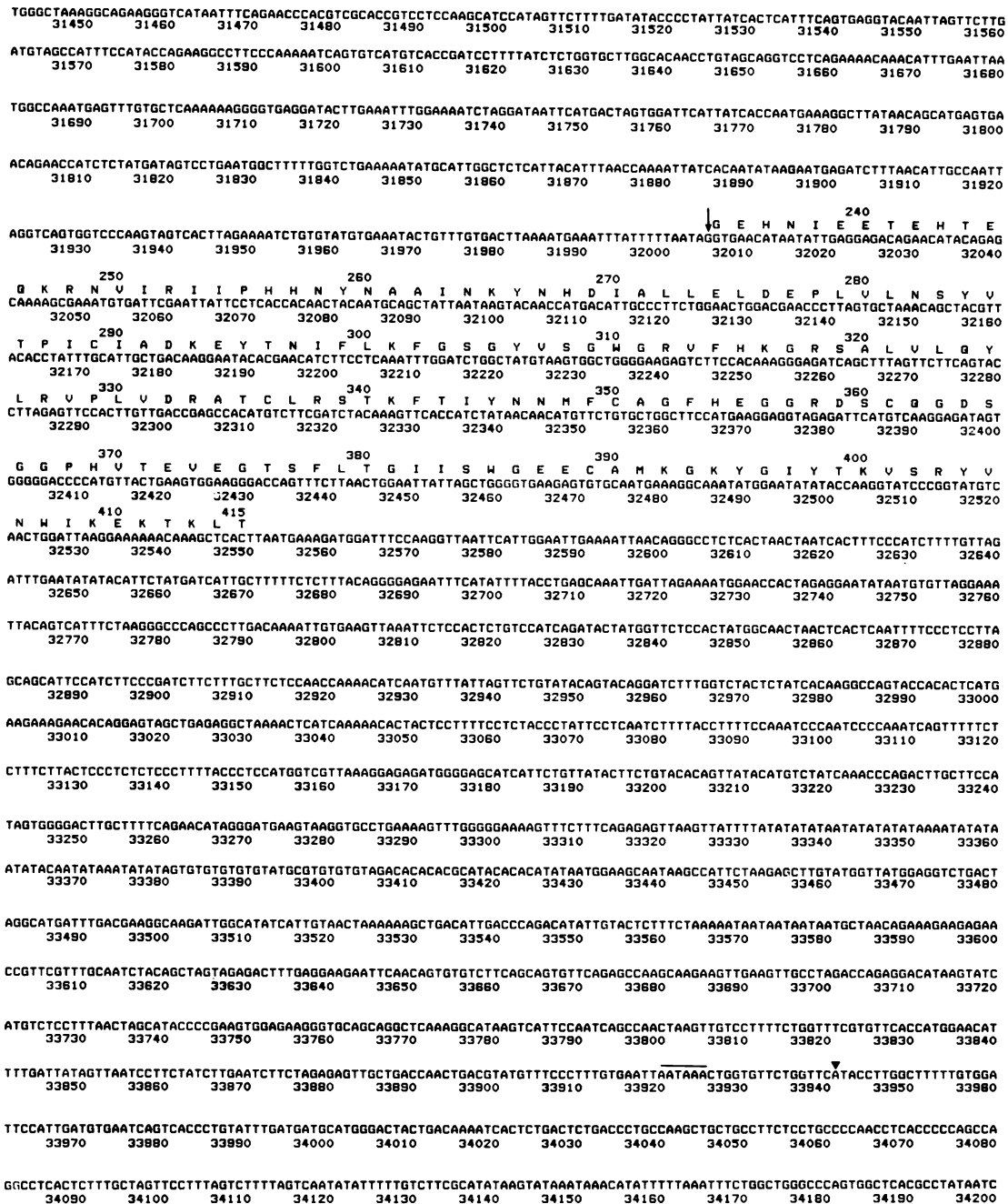


Fig. 4. Sequence of the eight exon regions of the factor IX gene including the promoter and some 3'-terminal flanking sequence. The arrows mark splice junctions and the symbol (●) marks the proposed mRNA start point (residue 296). The symbol (▼) marks the position of poly(A) addition site (residue 33 941) in the mRNA. The dashed lines indicate the approximate length of those introns not shown. More than 95% of the region between residues 14 000 (approx.) and 26 000 (approx.) has been sequenced with the help of Mr. R.J. Matthews and is available on request. Two *Alu* repeat sequences (Deininger *et al.*, 1981) were located starting at approximately residues 21 760 and 23 470.

However, our results cannot exclude the possibility of additional minor mRNA start points.

**Discussion**

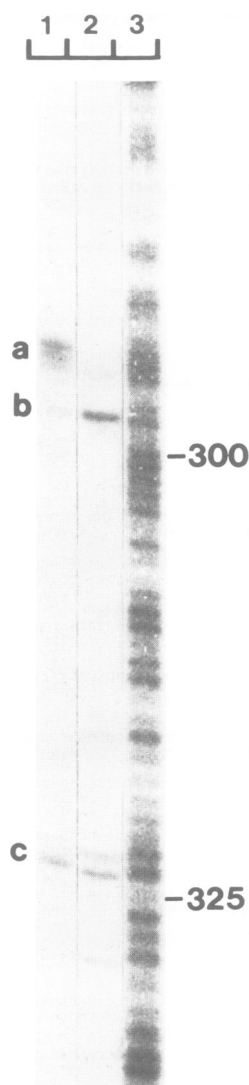
*The gene structure*

The total length of the factor IX gene as estimated from our cloning, mapping and sequencing is 34 kb, which is >12 times as long as the mRNA because of its extensive introns. However, genes of this length are well known. For example, the dihydrofolate reductase gene, coding for a smaller protein than factor IX, is estimated to be 42 kb in length (Nunberg *et al.*, 1980), and the gene for hypoxanthine-guanine phospho-

ribosyl transferase (HPRT), which is encoded on the X chromosome, is probably >32 kb (Jolly *et al.*, 1982). But the factor IX gene is much larger than the gene for prothrombin, a closely related vitamin K-dependent clotting factor, in those regions of that gene for which information is available (Degen *et al.*, 1983; Davie *et al.*, 1984).

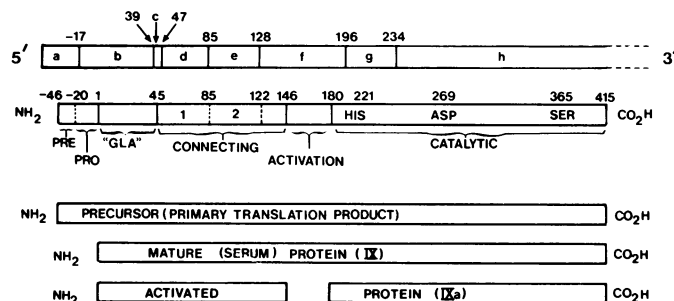
*Presumed promoter sequence*

Studies on many eukaryotic genes indicate that a consensus TATA box, and sometimes a CCAAT box (Breathnach and Chambon, 1981) and further upstream sequences (McKnight, 1982) are important elements of eukaryotic promoters. The

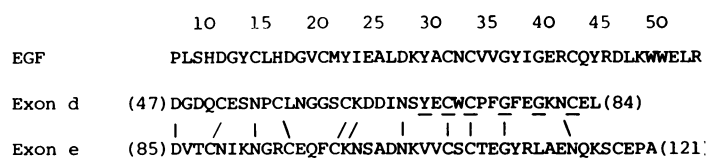


**Fig. 5.** Mapping of the mRNA start point in the gene by S1 nuclease and primer extension experiments. **Lane 1** shows the S1 nuclease experiment, **lane 2** the primer extension experiment, and **lane 3** a sequencing ladder (G + A reaction) carried out on the same fragment (see Materials and methods) as for the S1 nuclease experiments. Fractionation was by electrophoresis on an 8% acrylamide 7 M urea sequencing gel with the origin at the top of the Figure. a, b and c indicate the main products (see text). Residues 300 and 325 are marked on the ladder, and cross-refer to Figure 4.

first residue of the canonical TATA box consensus occurs somewhere between 26 and 34 bases from the mRNA start. In the factor IX gene (Figure 4) the sequence TGTA occurs 27 residues away from the mRNA start at residues 269–272 and this is a candidate for the TATA box sequence. Although a G residue at position 2 of the TATA box is unusual, it is not unknown (Breathnach and Chambon, 1981). However, there is no further match of this region of the factor IX gene to the wider consensus GTATAAA (Breathnach and Chambon, 1981). This might suggest that this TGTA sequence of factor IX is less important than the TATA box in other genes in defining accurate initiation. Some viral promoters have been noted which lack a convincing TATA box (Baker *et al.*, 1979), suggesting that this is a dispensable element in some cases. A second possible TATA box sequence is found 42 residues from the mRNA start at the sequence TAAA (residues 254–257). This sequence is more closely



**Fig. 6.** A comparison of the exon regions of the Factor IX gene and its protein domains. The exon regions a–h are shown above and the protein domains below, both defined by amino acid position. 'Gla' is an abbreviation for the  $\gamma$ -carboxyglutamyl-containing region. There are two subregions marked 1 and 2 within the connecting peptide region which show homology to one another and homology to human epidermal growth factor (See text and Figure 7). Also shown is the relationship between precursor, mature and activated factor IX molecules. The two chains of activated factor IX (IXa) are held together by an interstrand disulphide bridge.



**Fig. 7.** Homologous amino acid sequences in factor IX and epidermal growth factor (EGF). At the top of the figure is shown the amino acid sequence of residues 7–53 of human EGF with residue numbers given above. Below is shown the amino acid sequence of the regions of factor IX encoded by exons d and e with the numbers of the first and last residues encoded by each exon in brackets (see Figure 4). Homology between these regions is indicated by vertical lines. Homology of each region with EGF is indicated by underlining of conserved residues. These homologies were first noted by Dayhoff (1978) in the closely related clotting factor X.

homologous to the wider TATA consensus, but is outside the known spatial limits for the distance between it and the mRNA start. Direct experimental evidence would be required to distinguish which of the two possible TATA boxes is used, or indeed whether a TATA box is required at all for the correct factor IX mRNA start. We observe no CCAAT sequence in the factor IX promoter region.

#### Exons and protein regions

The exons of the factor IX gene appear to correspond at least in part to protein regions (Figure 6), as has been found with many other eukaryotic genes. The first exon, a, codes for the 5' non-coding region of the mRNA and the hydrophobic signal domain of the precursor molecule (primary translation product). Exon b codes for the hydrophilic pro sequence of the precursor molecule and also for the calcium-binding domain of factor IX as it contains 11 of the 12  $\gamma$ -carboxy glutamyl residues found in the mature protein (\* in Figure 2). Unexpectedly, the twelfth  $\gamma$ -carboxy glutamyl residue is found in the third and smallest exon, c, which is only 25 nucleotides long (Figure 4). Exons d and e form the connecting peptide region of the protein and the single  $\beta$ -hydroxy-aspartate is probably located at residue 64 (Drakenberg *et al.*, 1983). Dayhoff (1978) noted an internal homology between two regions of amino acid sequence within the connecting peptide of the closely related clotting factor X (Katayama *et al.*, 1979), as well as homology of each of the duplicated regions with human epidermal growth factor. A similar but more extensive internal homology can be drawn between

residues 47 and 84 on the one hand and residues 85 and 121 on the other hand in the case of factor IX (Figure 7). We can now see (Figure 6) that these internal homologous regions of factor IX are located in the separate exons d and e, which suggest that the duplication of a single exon in an ancestral gene could have occurred to give the present day factor IX (and presumably factor X) structures. The roughly equivalent lengths of exons d and e further support this theory. The significance of the homology with epidermal growth factor and the exact function of connecting region is unknown. The activation peptide region of factor IX is contained within the single exon f.

The last two exons, g and h, code for the serine protease catalytic region of the molecule. The active site His (221) is in exon g, but the other two active site residues, Asp (269) and Ser (365), are both in exon h. Interestingly, this arrangement differs from that in other serine proteases whose gene structures are known. In the human complement protein factor B (Campbell and Porter, 1983), in human prothrombin (Degen *et al.*, 1983), and in mouse kallikreins (Mason *et al.*, 1983), as well as apparently in chymotrypsinogen and trypsinogen (Craik *et al.*, 1982), these functionally important elements are coded by separate exons. Given the interdependence of the three functionally important regions of the catalytic site, and given the proposed common ancestral gene for all eukaryotic serine proteases (Dayhoff, 1978), we might have expected there to be a uniform number and position of exon/intron boundaries. The observed variation must therefore reflect the capacity for change in gene organization, while still preserving this catalytic function. A change in the number and the position of exons has occurred, presumably as part of the adaptation of an ancestral gene in the evolution of the presently known serine proteases. However, we might expect that the more closely related serine proteases, such as the factor IX, factor X and protein C family (Katayama *et al.*, 1979), would preserve a common gene arrangement in their catalytic region, as they have had less time to diverge from one another. This diversity of the genetic arrangement in the catalytic region of serine proteases contrasts with the conservation of the gene arrangement in the region corresponding to the signal and precursor and  $\gamma$ -carboxyglutamyl regions of two of the vitamin K-dependent proteins. The positions of the first three exon boundaries (a/b, b/c and c/d) are identical with respect to the protein sequence in both factor IX and in prothrombin (Davie *et al.*, 1984).

## Materials and methods

### Preparation of amplified libraries of cDNA clones from human liver mRNA

Three libraries were constructed. The first two were derived from a 20–22S sucrose density gradient enriched fraction of poly(A)<sup>+</sup> mRNA prepared by guanidinium hydrochloride extraction (Chirgwin *et al.*, 1979) of frozen human liver. Double-stranded DNA was synthesized using an oligo(dT)<sub>12-18</sub> primer and reverse transcriptase (Life Sciences) for the first strand using tracer amounts of [ $\alpha$ -<sup>32</sup>P]dATP, and DNA polymerase I (from N. Gascogne) for the second strand followed by S1 nuclease essentially as in Wickens *et al.* (1978). After a further incubation with DNA polymerase I to 'fill in' the S1 ends, DNA was fractionated in the case of library I on a Sephacryl S400 column in 0.2 M NaCl, 0.01 M Tris-HCl pH 7.5, 0.001 M EDTA. The first 70% of the breakthrough peak was pooled, extracted with butanol-1-ol:chloroform (1:4 v/v) and DNA recovered by ethanol precipitation in the presence of 1  $\mu$ g carrier yeast RNA (B.D.H.). For library II, sucrose-density gradient centrifugation was used instead of Sephacryl chromatography to select double-stranded DNA in the 1–5 kb size range. Library III (constructed by Drs. A. and D.R. Bentley) was derived from >5S poly(A)<sup>+</sup> mRNA and sucrose-density centrifugation was used to select for double-stranded DNA  $\geq$  1 kb. For all libraries, double-stranded DNA was ligated under optimized conditions into

the unique *Pvu*II site of phosphatased pAT153/*Pvu*II/8 (see below). After transforming excess competent *Escherichia coli* MC1061 (Casadaban and Cohen, 1980), ampicillin-resistant clones were grown for 6 h in L broth containing 100  $\mu$ g/ml ampicillin at 37°C. After amplification, the bacteria were collected by centrifugation, resuspended in one-tenth volume of L broth containing 15% glycerol and stored aliquoted at –70°C. Library I from which the clones cVI and cVII were isolated had a complexity before amplification of 60 000 and an estimated background of 10 000 non-recombinants. Library II, from which clone 108.1 derived, had a complexity before amplification of 10 000 with ~2000 non-recombinants. Library III had a complexity of 95 000 before amplification, and DB.1 was isolated from it. Libraries were screened according to Grunstein and Hogness (1975) on Whatman 541 paper (Gergen *et al.*, 1979).

### Cloning into pAT153/*Pvu*II/8

pAT153/*Pvu*II/8 was used as a blunt-end cloning vector and was constructed from pAT153 (Twigg and Sherratt, 1980) as follows. pAT153 was restricted with *Bam*HI and *Hind*III and the 3393 linear fragment purified by 0.7% agarose gel electrophoresis. After dephosphorylation with calf intestinal phosphatase, this fragment was ligated using T4 DNA ligase with an excess of an equimolar mixture of the partially complementary chemically synthesized oligonucleotides, 5' pGATCCAGCTGA 3' and 5' pAGCTTCAGCTG 3'. pAT153/*Pvu*II/8 was a clone containing a single insert of the synthetic oligonucleotide, thus introducing a unique *Pvu*II site with adjacent unique *Eco*RI, *Cl*aI and *Hind*III sites on one side and unique *Bam*HI on the other. It is amp<sup>r</sup>tet<sup>s</sup>. After *Pvu*II digestion and treatment with calf intestinal phosphatase (Huddleston and Brownlee, 1982), it was used directly for cloning double-stranded DNA synthesized *in vitro*, or for subcloning of restriction fragments derived from  $\lambda$  genomic clones, if necessary after 'filling in' any 5' overhanging ends. Transformation was carried out using *E. coli* MC1061.

### Cloning in $\lambda$ EMBL 3

Partial *Mbo*I digests of high mol. wt. DNA prepared from the human 4X lymphoblastoid cell line (GM1416B, Human Genetic Mutant Cell Repository, NJ, USA) were size fractionated on sucrose gradients as described by Maniatis *et al.* (1982). Fragments of 15–25 kb were then cloned into *Bam*HI-restricted EMBL 3 (Frischauf *et al.*, 1983), essentially as described by Karn *et al.* (1980) for  $\lambda$ 1059. Approximately 5 x 10<sup>5</sup> recombinants were prepared and screened without an amplification step. After the master plates had been used in the isolation of  $\lambda$ HIX-4 (see below and Figure 3), the phage was washed off the plates and stored as an amplified GM1416B library.

### Screening $\lambda$ libraries

Both the Charon 4A human library (Lawn *et al.*, 1978), generously donated by Dr. T. Maniatis, and the EMBL 3 GM1416B library (see above) were screened essentially as described by Benton and Davis (1977).  $\lambda$ HIX1, 2 and 3 were isolated from the library constructed by Lawn *et al.* (1978).  $\lambda$ HIX4 was isolated from the GM1416B library.

### DNA sequencing and analysis

All sequencing was by the chemical degradation method described by Maxam and Gilbert (1980) using the G, G + A, T + C and C specific reactions. Most DNA fragments generated for sequencing were 3' end-labelled by 'filling in' of restriction enzyme fragments using the Klenow fragment of *E. coli* DNA polymerase I and with the appropriate <sup>32</sup>P-labelled deoxynucleoside triphosphate in the presence of the other 3'-unlabelled triphosphates. Alternatively, DNA was labelled at the 5' end by treatment with calf intestinal phosphatase and subsequent rephosphorylation with T4 polynucleotide kinase and [ $\gamma$ -<sup>32</sup>P]ATP (Maniatis *et al.*, 1982). DNA sequences were stored and analysed using the DBUTIL and other computer programs of Staden (1980).

### S1 nuclease mapping

This was carried out according to Berk and Sharp (1977) and Weaver and Weissman (1979). 50  $\mu$ g of human poly(A)<sup>+</sup> liver mRNA (Choo *et al.*, 1982) and 10 000 d.p.m. of <sup>32</sup>P-labelled single-stranded probe were co-precipitated with ethanol and redissolved in 10  $\mu$ l of 0.4 M NaCl, 10 mM Pipes-NaOH buffer, pH 6.4. [The probe was the 132-residue long *Ddel* fragment from residue 266 to 397 (Figure 4) labelled at its 5' end with <sup>32</sup>P-phosphate using T4 polynucleotide kinase (Maniatis *et al.*, 1982).]. The hybridization mixture was sealed in a glass capillary, heated at 95°C for 3 min, and then incubated at 63°C for 5 h. The solution was then treated with either 100, 200 or 500 units of S1 nuclease (Boehringer) in a volume of 200  $\mu$ l in 0.28 M NaCl, 5 mM ZnSO<sub>4</sub>, 5% glycerol and 30 mM sodium acetate, pH 4.5, for 30 min at 25°C. DNA was recovered by ethanol precipitation and analysed by electrophoresis on an 8% acrylamide, 7 M urea sequencing gel.

### Primer extension

This was done by the methods of Baralle (1977) and Proudfoot *et al.* (1980). 37.5  $\mu$ g of human poly(A)<sup>+</sup> liver mRNA and 10 000 d.p.m. of acrylamide gel purified single-stranded <sup>32</sup>P-labelled probe [the non-coding strand of the

42-residue long *Ddel/HinfI* fragment from residues 356 to 397 (Figure 4), labelled with  $^{32}\text{P}$ -phosphate at its 5' end using T4 polynucleotide kinase (Maniatis *et al.*, 1982)] were co-precipitated with ethanol and annealed under identical conditions to those used for S1 nuclease. After the 5 h incubation, the hybridization mixture was adjusted to 100 mM Tris-chloride pH 8.5, 140 mM KCl, 10 mM  $\text{MgCl}_2$ , 20 mM  $\beta$ -mercaptoethanol and 0.5 mM of each of the four deoxynucleoside triphosphates in a final volume of 50  $\mu\text{l}$  (Maniatis *et al.* 1982). 25 units of reverse transcriptase was added and the reaction incubated at 42°C for 1 h. After adding excess EDTA to stop the reaction, 5 ng of heat-treated pancreatic RNase (Maniatis *et al.*, 1982) was added and the reaction incubated for a further 30 min at 42°C, followed by phenol/chloroform extraction and recovery of DNA by ethanol precipitation. The reaction mixture was analysed by electrophoresis on an 8% acrylamide 7 M urea sequencing gel.

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