Disruption of the adenosine deaminase gene causes hepatocellular impairment and perinatal lethality in mice

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ABSTRACT We have generated mice with a null mutation at the *Ada* locus, which encodes the purine catabolic enzyme adenosine deaminase (ADA, EC 3.5.4.4). ADA-deficient fetuses exhibited hepatocellular impairment and died perinatally. Their lymphoid tissues were not largely affected. Accumulation of ADA substrates was detectable in ADA-deficient conceptuses as early as 12.5 days postcoitum, dramatically increasing during late *in utero* development, and is the likely cause of liver damage and fetal death. The results presented here demonstrate that ADA is important for the homeostatic maintenance of purines in mice.

Adenosine deaminase (ADA) is a pivotal enzyme of purine catabolism. It catalyzes the irreversible deamination of adenosine (Ado) and deoxyadenosine (dAdo) to inosine (Ino) and deoxyinosine (dIno), respectively. The importance of the enzyme for vertebrate organisms stems in part from the physiological impact of its substrates. Ado functions as an extracellular signal transducer that mediates a vast array of cellular responses via interaction with cell surface receptors. Elevations in dAdo are often associated with cytotoxicity resulting from interference with deoxynucleotide metabolism (1).

In mice, the cellular localization and developmental control of ADA expression has been well studied. Prenatally, a high level of ADA expression occurs at the maternal-fetal interface, first in the secondary decidua, a maternal tissue surrounding the implanting embryo, and later in trophoblast cells of fetal origin that contribute to the formation of the chorioallantoic placenta (2). Postnatally, a very high level of ADA is found in the keratinized squamous epithelium of the upper alimentary tract (3). However, the physiological role of tissuespecific ADA is not understood.

In humans, ADA deficiency causes an autosomal recessive form of severe combined immune deficiency (1). The pathophysiology of the disease can be accounted for by the sensitivity of the lymphoid tissues to the toxic substrates. Ado, dAdo, and the metabolite dATP, which accumulate in the absence of ADA. Alternatively, ADA might be directly involved in T-cell activation, since it has been demonstrated that ADA is directly associated with human CD26, an essential accessory molecule for T-cell activation (4). These possibilities regarding the pathogenesis of ADA deficiency warrant further investigation.

In the current study, we disrupted the murine *Ada* gene in embryonic stem cells to generate ADA-deficient mice. These mice can be used as laboratory mammals for the study of tissue-specific ADA function and pathogenesis related to ADA deficiency.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Isolation of ADA-Targeted Embryonic Stem Cell Clones. An 8.6-kb *Hin*dIII fragment of the murine *Ada* gene (exons 2–6) was inserted into the Bluescript II KS + vector (Stratagene). A PGKneobpA cassette (5) was inserted into a unique *Aat* II site in exon 5. Two copies of the MC1TKpA cassette (6) were inserted at the 3' end of the homologous sequences. Culture, electroporation, and selection of AB1 embryonic stem cells (6) were as described (7). DNA was extracted from individual clones (8) and digested with the restriction enzyme *Bam*HI, and Southern blot analysis was carried out with the 3' flanking probe (Fig. 1*A*).

ADA and Purine Nucleoside Phosphorylase (PNP) Conversion Assay. Crude tissue extracts were obtained by homogenizing and then freezing and thawing in 0.25 M Tris·HCl (pH 7.9). ADA activity and PNP activity were determined as described (9, 10). Each reaction mixture contained 0.8 μ g of total protein.

Histology and Electron Microscopy. Fetuses and placentas were fixed with zinc formalin (Z-Fix, Anatech, Battle Creek, MI). The tissues were dehydrated, cleared, infiltrated, and embedded in paraffin wax. The longitudinal hemisections were cut and stained with hematoxylin/eosin. For ultrastructural studies, the liver specimens were fixed in 3% (vol/vol) glutar-aldehyde, buffered with 0.1 M Pipes (pH 7.2) overnight, postfixed in 2% (wt/vol) osmium tetroxide for 1 h, dehydrated, and embedded in Spurr's resin. Sections of 60 nm were cut, stained with uranyl acetate and lead citrate, and examined in a JEOL 100C electron microscope.

Biochemical Analysis. Pooled plasma samples were tested for total protein, albumin, aspartate aminotransferase, and alanine aminotransferase on an automated random-access clinical chemistry analyzer (Hitachi 704, Boehringer Mannheim). To determine plasma amino acid levels, each plasma sample was analyzed individually by using a Beckman model 6300 amino acid analyzer.

Nucleoside and Nucleotide Analysis. Nucleosides were extracted as described (11). The HPLC system consisted of two Contrametric III pumps controlled by a GM 4000 gradient programmer, a constant wavelength UV monitor, and a CI-10B integrator (LDC Analytical, Riviera Beach, FL). Separation was through a reversed-phase Customsil ODS column (4.6 \times 254 mm) with a 20-mm ODS precolumn (Custom LC, Houston). The mobile phase was 0.02 M NH₄H₂PO₄ (pH 5.1) with a superimposed methanol gradient. Flow rate was 1 ml/min and the injection volume was 200 μ l. Absorbance was continuously monitored at a wavelength of 254 nm and peaks

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Abbreviations: ADA, adenosine deaminase; PNP, purine nucleoside phosphorylase; dpc, day(s) postcoitum.

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FIG. 1. Homologous recombination into the murine Ada locus. (A) Restriction enzyme maps of the murine Ada wild-type allele, targeting vector p129H8.6, and mutant allele. The thick line indicates genomic sequences of the murine Ada with exons 2-9 as thick bars. The thin line in p129H8.6 indicates plasmid vector sequences. The neomycinresistance (neo) gene and the herpes simplex virus tk genes are transcribed in the direction indicated by the arrows. The hatched box indicates a 3.5-kb internal probe inside p129H8.6. The open box indicates a 1.4-kb 3' flanking probe external to p129H8.6. H, HindIII; Hp, Hpa I; B, BamHI. (B) Southern blot analysis of the murine Ada locus in fetuses from an adam1/ada+ intercross. Genomic DNA (lanes 1-6) was digested with the restriction enzyme BamHI or Hpa I and hybridized with the internal probe (A). Hybridizing fragments are 4.7 kb (wt, wild-type allele) and 6.3 kb (m, mutant allele) with BamHI digestion and are 11.7 kb (wt) and 13.3 kb (m) with Hpa I digestion. The DNA size marker shown is a λ /HindIII digest and the numbers indicate kb.

were identified and quantitated based on coretention of known amounts of external standards (Sigma). Peaks of interest were verified by enzymatic shift assays. Nucleotides were extracted as described (12). HPLC conditions were the same as described above except that ion-pairing mobile phase was used with isocratic flow.



ADA/PNP 1.21 0.00 0.78 0.00 0.00 0.83 ----

FIG. 2. ADA enzymatic activity in fetuses from an ada^{m1}/ada^+ intercross. Crude tissue extracts were prepared from 15.5-dpc fetuses (lanes 1–6). Lane 7 contains no extract. ADA and PNP activities are presented as nmol per h per μ g of protein. ADA/PNP, normalized ADA activity, is a ratio of ADA activity to PNP activity.

Flow Cytometric Analysis. After treatment with ammonium chloride, fetal liver mononuclear cell suspensions were incubated with rat fluorescein isothiocyanate-conjugated monoclonal antibodies, specific to murine T lymphocytes (CD4, clone GK1.5; CD8, clone 53.6.7.), B lymphocytes (B220, clone RA3-6B2), granulocytes (Gr-1, clone RB6-8C5; PharMingen), and macrophages (Mac-1, clone MI/70; Boehringer Mannheim) on ice for 35 min. Flow cytometric analysis was conducted with a FACScan flow cytometer (Becton Dickinson Immunocytometry Systems) equipped with an argon ion laser (Spectra–Physics), operated at 488 nm and 300 mW. Green (fluorescein isothiocyanate) fluorescence was detected using a 530/30-nm bandpass filter. Data acquisition and analysis were performed with the FACScan LYSYS II research software (Becton Dickinson).

RESULTS

Generation of ADA-Deficient Mice. A replacement-type gene targeting vector that allowed for a positive-negative selection (13) was constructed (Fig. 1A) and electroporated into the AB1 line of embryonic stem cells (6). The cells were then selected for resistance to G418 and 1-(2-deoxy-2-fluoro- β -D-arabinofuranosyl)-5-iodouracil. The frequency of G418-



FIG. 3. Light microscopy of livers in 17.5-dpc fetuses. (A) Liver in ada^{ml}/ada^+ control fetus has normal-sized hepatocytes with centrally located nuclei and granular or vacuolated cytoplasm (arrows). Extramedullary hematopoiesis characterized by megakaryocytes (m) and erythrocytic or granulocytic precursor cells (arrowheads) can be seen in the hepatic sinusoids. (B) ada^{ml}/ada^{ml} fetus with enlarged hepatocytes (arrows) and marked extramedullary hematopoiesis in sinusoids adjacent to affected hepatocytes (arrowheads). (Bar for A and $B = 32 \mu m$.)

resistant colonies was 1.9×10^{-4} and that of double-resistant colonies was 0.2×10^{-4} per cell electroporated. Of the 288 double-resistant colonies analyzed, 23 clones (8%) were targeted correctly. This allele is referred to as ada^{m1} . Of the five positive clones injected into C57BL/6J blastocysts, three clones generated chimeras that transmitted the mutation in the germ line. Heterozygous (ada^{m1}/ada^+) mice [(C57BL/6J × 129/Sv)F₁ hybrid] were completely viable, fertile, without abnormalities, and had ~50% of ADA red blood cell enzymatic activity found in wild-type (ada^+/ada^+) mice. ada^{m1}/ada^+ mice were intercrossed to obtain homozygous (ada^{m1}/ada^{m1}) mutants (Fig. 1B).

The ada^{m1} Allele Is a Null Mutation. ADA enzymatic activity was measured in fetuses from an ada^{m1}/ada^+ intercross (Fig. 2). A wild-type mouse converted Ado to Ino with ADA activity at 1.21 nmol per h per μ g of protein. ada^{m1}/ada^+ mice had two-thirds of this activity, and none was detectable in ada^{m1}/ada^{m1} mice at a level of ≤ 0.02 nmol per h per μ g of protein. Because of a report that there may be another gene at the 3' end of the murine Ada locus, we also examined this transcript by Northern blot analysis (14). We found that the transcript was not affected in the mutant fetuses (data not shown). Collectively, these studies indicate that with the insertion of the neomycin-resistance gene in exon 5, a null mutation was introduced into Ada but not into the downstream gene, leading to ADA-deficient mice.

 ada^{m1}/ada^{m1} Mice Die Perinatally. When ada^{m1}/ada^+ mice were intercrossed to obtain ada^{m1}/ada^{m1} mice, none were found at 3 weeks of age. We observed that most of ada^{m1}/ada^{m1} pups were born dead, although they were not grossly smaller or deformed compared to their littermates. Fewer than 10% of ada^{m1}/ada^{m1} pups were born with beating hearts, and these did not move and remained cyanotic until they died a few hours later. Timed heterozygous matings revealed that ada^{m1}/ada^{m1} fetuses were viable up to 18 days postcoitum (dpc) in *utero*, and the survival rate decreased rapidly after this time. It was found that $\approx 90\%$ of ada^{m1}/ada^{m1} fetuses had died by 19 dpc. The complete penetrance of ada^{m1}/ada^{m1} lethality was observed in all three mutant lines generated, suggesting that disruption of the Ada gene alone accounted for the lethality.

ADA-Deficient Fetuses Exhibit Hepatocellular Impairment. Gross evidence of hepatic necrosis was observed in ADAdeficient fetuses at 17.5 dpc. Body weight and liver weight/ body weight ratios of ada^{m1}/ada^{m1} fetuses were decreased by 15% and 29%, respectively, at late gestation. Liver function tests performed in pooled plasma samples from 17.5-dpc fetuses showed that ada^{m1}/ada^{m1} fetuses had hypoproteinemia (59% reduction) and hypoalbuminemia (57% reduction), whereas there were no significant changes in plasma amino acids, which are readily supplied to fetuses by the maternal circulation. ada^{m1}/ada^{m1} fetuses also had elevated levels of two hepatocellular enzymes, aspartate aminotransferase (66% elevation) and alanine aminotransferase (56% elevation). These findings are all compatible with hepatocellular dysfunction, necrosis, and leakage.

Histological analysis was performed on fetuses ranging from 12.5 dpc to 18.5 dpc and on 17.5-dpc placentas. In ada^{ml}/ada^{ml} fetuses, liver was the only organ that was identified as abnormal. No morphologic lesions were detected in any major lymphoid organs, including thymus, spleen, gut-associated lymphoid tissues, and bronchial-associated lymphoid tissue, nor were any other lesions reported in ADA-deficient humans detected (15, 16). ada^{ml}/ada^+ fetuses had normal livers (Fig. 3A). In contrast, the livers from ada^{ml}/ada^{ml} fetuses contained hepatic plates that were disorganized, resulting in isolated packets of cells (Fig. 3B). There was a quantitative decrease in numbers of hepatocytes per lobule, and the hepatocytes illustrated a variety of morphological changes that were consistent with hepatocellular impairment. The morphologic changes in ada^{ml}/ada^{ml} hepatocytes were detectable in

some cells as early as 16.5 dpc and the number of affected cells increased with gestational age. At 18.5 dpc, hepatocellular degeneration and necrosis were widespread.

Ultrastructural examination illustrated enlarged hepatocytes with karyomegaly, irregularly shaped nuclear envelopes, and a significant decrease in heterochromatin in *ada^{m1}*/*ada^{m1}* livers. A single large nucleolus was often observed. The cytoplasm of affected cells had decreased amounts of glycogen, normal mitochondria, and an increased volume of rough endoplasmic reticulum. Hepatocytes lost their normal polyhedral shape and became round, and individual cells were in close apposition to each other (Fig. 4).

ADA Substrates and dATP Are Markedly Elevated in ada^{m1}/ada^{m1} Mice. To investigate the biochemical consequences of ADA deficiency, purine nucleoside concentrations were examined in fetuses and placentas at 10.5 dpc through 17.5 dpc by using reversed-phase HPLC. Ado concentrations were elevated in ada^{m1}/ada^{m1} fetuses at all stages and increased with development (Fig. 5A). dAdo was not detected in ada^{m1}/ada^{+} fetuses at any stage examined, but



FIG. 4. Electron microscopy of livers in 17.5-dpc fetuses. (A) Liver in ada^{mI}/ada^+ control fetus with angular shaped hepatocytes, abundant cytoplasmic glycogen (G), and an oval nucleus (N) with evenly distributed heterochromatin. Erythrocytic precursor cells (*) are adjacent to hepatocytes. (B) Enlarged hepatocyte from ada^{mI}/ada^{mI} fetus has increased amounts of cytoplasmic rough endoplasmic reticulum (er) and an irregular shaped nucleus (N) with infolding of the nuclear envelope. (Bars: A, 2 μ m; B, 5 μ m.)



FIG. 5. Ontogeny of nucleosides in fetuses from ada^{ml}/ada^+ intercrosses. Nucleoside concentrations are presented as nmol/mg of protein (mean \pm SEM). The numbers of conceptuses examined were on average 3 ada^+/ada^+ , 7 ada^{ml}/ada^+ , and 4 ada^{ml}/ada^{ml} at 10.5, 12.5, 14.5, 15.5, 16.5, and 17.5 dpc. (A) Fetal adenosine levels. (B) Fetal deoxyadenosine levels. (C) Fetal inosine levels.

increased in ada^{m1}/ada^{m1} fetuses during development so that by 17.5 dpc, dAdo concentrations were 1.17 nmol/mg of protein, at least 1000-fold higher than levels found in wild-type fetuses (Fig. 5B). Ino levels increased in ada^+/ada^+ fetuses during late fetal development but remained low throughout development in ada^{m1}/ada^{m1} fetuses (Fig. 5C). dIno levels were below the level of detection in fetuses irrespective of genotype. The ada^{m1}/ada^{m1} placentas, which normally express high levels of ADA, exhibited similar patterns in changes of Ado and Ino concentrations during gestation as seen in the fetuses, but accumulation of dAdo was not observed (data not shown).

Adenine nucleotide levels were also examined in blood from 17.5-dpc fetuses to monitor alterations in deoxynucleotide metabolism (Table 1). The dATP levels in ada^{m1}/ada^{m1} fetal blood was elevated by 2000-fold, while ATP levels decreased slightly. Thus, these data indicate that adenine nucleoside catabolism is profoundly affected in ADA-deficient conceptuses and accumulated dAdo may be phosphorylated to dATP. The ratio of dATP to ATP, which is often used for analysis of nucleotide disturbances in human ADA deficiency, demonstrates the severity of nucleotide pool alterations in ada^{m1}/ada^{m1} fetuses.

Hematopoietic Cells in ada^{m1}/ada^{m1} Mice. To evaluate leukocyte subpopulations in ada^{m1}/ada^{m1} fetuses, flow cytometric analysis with the cell surface markers CD4, CD8, B220, Gr-1, and Mac-1 was carried out on livers of 14.5-dpc and 16.5-dpc fetuses (Table 2). T cells, B cells, granulocytes, and macrophages were found in substantial amounts in the fetuses examined, regardless of the genotype. The two-sample *t* test revealed that the percentages of CD4⁺ cells and CD8⁺ cells in ada^{m1}/ada^{m1} mice were significantly different from those of age-matched controls at 16.5 dpc (0.02 < P < 0.05). Thus, mature T-cell subpopulations in ada^{m1}/ada^{m1} mice were decreased compared to controls at 16.5 dpc, although the decrease was not as dramatic as the lymphocyte depletion seen in human ADA-deficient patients.

 Table 1. ATP and dATP concentrations in 17.5-dpc fetal blood

Fetus	ATP, nmol/mg of protein	dATP, nmol/mg of protein	dATP/ATP	n
ada+/ada+	10.8	ND*	_	1
ada ^{m1} /ada+	13.3 ± 2.8	0.4 ± 0.3	0.03	5
ada ^{m1} /ada ^{m1}	6.0 ± 0.1	2.4 ± 0.2	0.40	2

Values are the mean \pm SEM.

*ND, not detected at a level of $\leq 0.001 \text{ nmol/mg}$ of protein.

DISCUSSION

Changes in the relative concentrations of ADA substrates in ada^{m1}/ada^{m1} conceptuses during late in utero development were dramatic, which suggests that under normal conditions there is a considerable flux of adenine nucleosides through the ADA-catalyzed reaction. The metabolic load of ADA substrates in fetuses was so great that the maternal circulatory system could not adequately reduce these nucleosides to nontoxic levels, probably due to a slower rate of nucleoside passage across the placental barrier compared to the rate of production and input of nucleosides to the fetuses. A variety of cytotoxic effects caused by Ado, dAdo, and particularly dATP are believed to contribute to the pathogenesis of human ADA deficiency, and it is likely that the liver pathology found in ada^{m1}/ada^{m1} mice is also associated with the accumulation of these molecules. In mice, the major pathway of dAdo phosphorylation is thought to be through the enzyme adenosine kinase, which is fairly abundant in liver (17, 18), and the highest levels of dAdo phosphorylation activity are found in the liver of adult mice (18). Therefore, it is possible that dATP selectively accumulates in the liver of ada^{m1}/ada^{m1} fetuses to cause selective impairment of this organ. Investigating tissuespecific accumulations of dATP in ada^{m1}/ada^{m1} fetal livers should clarify this matter. Adult liver is also a site of synthesis of the enzyme S-adenosylhomocysteine hydrolase, whose inhibition by dAdo should be considered as a possible mecha-nism of the liver degeneration seen in ada^{m1}/ada^{m1} fetuses (19). It has recently been reported (20) that lack of this enzyme can lead to early embryonic lethality in mice. Determining levels of the S-adenosylhomocysteine hydrolase activity in the mutants will be necessary to test this possibility.

The ADA-deficient phenotype in mice differs some from that of humans, a result observed in other purine metabolism deficiencies in mice such as hypoxanthine-guanine phosphoribosyltransferase deficiency and uricase deficiency (7, 21). Accumulation of toxic metabolites, and the subsequent lymphopenia and developmental arrest in the thymus, can be detected in human ADA-deficient fetuses as early as the second trimester (22) and the patients die of overwhelming infection accompanying severe combined immunodeficiency. However, it is unlikely that ada^{m1}/ada^{m1} mice have severe combined immunodeficiency, since their lymphoid tissues were histologically normal at 17.5 dpc. Furthermore, we did not find any evidence of infection. Because of the potential importance of fetal hepatic function and the sequence of the events in ada^{m1}/ada^{m1} fetuses before fetal death (first a purine metabolism anomaly, moderate-to-progressive hepatocellular degeneration, and then cell death), it is likely that liver disease due to purine metabolic disturbances is responsible for the

Age, dpc	Genotype	n	% of total cells				
			CD4	CD8	B220	Gr-1	Mac-1
14.5	+/+ and m1/+	10	2.05 ± 0.75	3.16 ± 0.96	6.05 ± 1.65	2.19 ± 0.51	0.38 ± 0.28
	m1/m1	3	3.00 ± 0.78	4.13 ± 1.66	8.34 ± 4.86	3.84 ± 2.84	0.63 ± 0.49
16.5	+/+ and m1/+	9	$2.37 \pm 0.47^*$	2.99 ± 0.60*	5.46 ± 1.18	2.08 ± 0.53	0.38 ± 0.32
	m1/m1	6	$1.63 \pm 0.62^*$	$2.26 \pm 0.61^*$	4.74 ± 1.02	1.95 ± 1.36	0.22 ± 0.22

Table 2. Flow cytometric analysis of leukocyte subpopulation in fetal liver

Values are the mean \pm SD.

*Significantly different between ada^{m1}/ada^{m1} and the control (0.02 < P < 0.05 in two-sample t test).

lethality. However, further examination of the immunological status and the possibility of congenital infection in ada^{ml} / ada^{ml} mice should be performed.

ADA is highly expressed at the maternal-fetal interface throughout postimplantation development, first on the maternal side (decidua) and later in the fetal placenta (2). Profound changes in purine catabolism in ada^{m1}/ada^{m1} fetuses became evident at \approx 14.5 dpc, when decidual ADA was coincidentally lost, indicating a possible involvement of decidual ADA in purine metabolism during early postimplantation stage of development. It is possible that decidual ADA prevents the accumulation of some toxic substrates during early postimplantation stages of development (11). Placental ADA may have a similar responsibility during the remainder of development. The results presented here demonstrate the metabolic importance of ADA in mammalian organisms and have exposed the vital function of murine embryonic ADA. Our ADA-deficient mice will be useful as laboratory mammals for the study of tissue-specific ADA function and pathogenesis related to ADA deficiency. In addition, it might be possible to rescue ada^{m1}/ada^{m1} mice by gene transfer techniques using recombinant adenoviruses or liposomes. Another possibility could be rescue by genetic reconstitution of placenta-specific ADA expression in ADA-deficient mice by using placentaspecific regulatory elements characterized in the murine Ada gene (23). Such approaches could enhance the utility of these ADA-deficient mice as an animal model.

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