## Expression cloning of a human cDNA encoding folylpoly( $\gamma$ glutamate) synthetase and determination of its primary structure

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ABSTRACT A human cDNA for folylpoly $(\gamma$ -glutamate) synthetase [FPGS; tetrahydrofolate:L-glutamate y-ligase (ADP forming), EC 6.3.2.17] has been cloned by functional complementation of an *Escherichia coli folC* mutant. The cDNA encodes a 545-residue protein of  $M_r$  60,128. The deduced sequence has regions that are highly homologous to peptide sequences obtained from purified pig liver FPGS and shows limited homology to the E. coli and Lactobacilus casei FPGSs. Expression of the cDNA in E. coli results in elevated expression of an enzyme with characteristics of mammalian FPGS. Expression of the cDNA in AUXB1, a mammalian cell lacking FPGS activity, overcomes the cell's requirement for thymidine and purines but does not overcome the cell's glycine auxotrophy, consistent with expression of the protein in the cytosol but not the mitochondria.

Cellular folates exist primarily as  $poly(\gamma$ -glutamate) derivatives with typical peptide chains ranging from five to nine residues in mammalian tissues (1). Metabolism of pteroylmonoglutamates to polyglutamates, catalyzed by the enzyme folylpoly(y-glutamate) synthetase [FPGS; tetrahydrofolate: L-glutamate  $\gamma$ -ligase (ADP forming), EC 6.3.2.17], allows tissues to concentrate folate at higher levels than in plasma. In addition, folylpolyglutamates are the active coenzymatic forms of the vitamin and display increased affinities or lowered  $K<sub>m</sub>$  values for most of the enzymes of one carbon metabolism (reviewed in refs. <sup>1</sup> and 2). The essential role of folylpolyglutamate synthesis was first demonstrated in a Chinese hamster ovary (CHO) cell mutant (AUXB1) that lacks FPGS activity (3). This cell has an impaired ability to accumulate folate and is auxotrophic for products of one carbon metabolism such as purines, thymidine, and glycine  $(3-5)$ .

Metabolism of antifolate drugs to polyglutamate forms also plays a role in their cytotoxic efficacy due to their increased affinity for target enzymes and the increased retention of drug within the cell, whereas a decrease in FPGS activity can lead to resistance to antifolates (refs. 6-9; J.-S. Kim and B.S., unpublished data). FPGS is a potential target for antifolate drugs and an understanding of the catalytic mechanism and the specificity of the substrate binding sites of FPGS should aid in the design of antifolate agents.

FPGS has been purified to homogeneity from Corynebacterium sp. (10), Lactobacillus casei (11), and Escherichia coli (12), and the  $E.$  coli and  $L.$  casei genes have been cloned and sequenced and the proteins have been overexpressed (12- 14). However, the bacterial enzymes are poor models for mammalian FPGS as they can only metabolize folates to short polyglutamate derivatives and they display a folate substrate specificity quite distinct from the mammalian enzyme. Some characterizations of crude or partially purified rat (15), mouse (16), beef (17), and human (18) liver FPGS have been reported and pig liver FPGS has been purified to homogeneity (19) but, in each case, only small amounts of protein have been obtained, which has limited characterization to kinetic analyses (15-22). The low abundance and instability of mammalian FPGS have complicated its purification in sufficient quantity to carry out mechanistic studies.

CHO-human (23) and CHO-mouse (24) hybrids have been used to localize the human and murine FPGS genes to chromosomes 9 and 2, respectively. To aid in the further characterization of the mammalian protein and to study its regulation, we initially attempted to clone the human FPGS gene by purifying human sequences capable of complementing CHO AUXB1 cells to the wild-type phenotype using multiple rounds of DNA transfection (25). Although CHO cells expressing human FPGS were obtained, we were unable to isolate unique size fragments when restricted DNA from independent transfectants was probed with human Alu sequences or bulk human DNA, and we were unable to complement AUXB1 cells with various human cosmid libraries. As an alternative approach, we have attempted to purify and sequence peptides derived from pig liver FPGS to develop oligonucleotide probes for the isolation of a porcine cDNA. During the course of these studies,  $\lambda$ -YES, an efficient system for the expression cloning of cDNAs in bacteria and yeast, was described by Elledge et al. (26).

In this report we describe the cloning of a human FPGS cDNA§ by its complementation of an  $E$ . *coli* FPGS mutant and the ability of the cDNA to functionally complement the CHO FPGS mutant AUXB1, and we compare its deduced amino acid sequence with that of pig liver FPGS peptides and bacterial FPGS proteins.

## MATERIALS AND METHODS

Materials. L- $[U^{-14}C]$ Glutamic acid (270 mCi/mmol; 1 Ci = 37 GBq) and  $[\alpha^{-32}P]dATP$  (7000 Ci/mmol) were obtained from Amersham. Staphlococcus V8 protease was obtained from Promega. Pig livers were generously supplied by the Department of Animal Science at the University of California, Davis.

Bacterial, Bacteriophage, and Plasmid Strains and Media. The E. coli mutant SF4  $(F^-, folC, strA, recA, tn10:srlC)$  and its parent strain W1485  $(F<sup>-</sup>)$  have been described (12, 13). SF4 is defective in FPGS and dihydrofolate synthetase (DHFS) activities, both of which are encoded by the  $folC$ gene (13), and requires methionine (50  $\mu$ g/ml) and glycine (50  $\mu$ g/ml) for growth when cultured in minimal medium (12).

Bacteriophage AYES-R, <sup>a</sup> human cDNA library in  $\lambda$ YES-R, and E. coli BNN132 containing  $\lambda$ KC were gifts from

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Abbreviations: FPGS, folylpoly(y-glutamate) synthetase; DHFS, dihydrofolate synthetase; H4PteGlu,, tetrahydropteroylpoly(y-glutamate), n indicating the number of glutamate moieties; H2Pte, dihydropteroate; CHO, Chinese hamster ovary. <sup>‡</sup>To whom reprint requests should be addressed.

<sup>§</sup>The sequence reported in this paper has been deposited in the GenBank data base (accession no. M98045).

S. Elledge (Baylor College of Medicine, Waco, TX). The construction of  $\lambda$ KC and  $\lambda$ YES-R has been described (26). The  $cre$  gene on  $\lambda$ KC allows automatic subcloning of plasmid pSE936, contained between lox sites on  $\lambda$ YES-R, when E. coli is infected with  $\lambda$ YES-R (26). The human cDNA library, containing  $EcoRI-Xho I-Bgl I$  linkers, was made from mRNA derived from Epstein-Barr virus-transformed B lymphocytes and was cloned into a unique EcoRI site located downstream from the *lac* promoter in the pSE936 region of  $\lambda$ YES-R (26). AKC was rescued from BNN132 by mitomycin C induction and used to infect SF4 (26). Kanamycin-resistant colonies were tested for the correct phenotype on VB plates containing kanamycin with or without methionine and glycine supplementation. Single cells of  $SFA(\lambda KC)$  were isolated.

DNA Sequencing and Mutagenesis. EcoRI inserts of pSE936 that complemented  $SFA(\lambda KC)$  were subcloned into pTZ18U and transformed into E. coli MV1190 (Bio-Rad). Singlestranded DNA, produced using helper phage M13KO7, was sequenced by the method of Sanger et al. (27) using Sequenase 2 (United States Biochemical). Primers were synthesized by the Micro-Chemical Facility (University of California, Berkeley).

An Nco <sup>I</sup> site was introduced at an ATG in the cDNA by oligonucleotide-directed mutagenesis using the method of Eckstein (28). Nco I-Sal <sup>I</sup> fragments were cloned into similarly treated pTrc99A (Pharmacia), a vector that contains the trc promoter and lacZ ribosome binding site for high expression of nonfusion proteins in E. coli.

FPGS and DHFS Assays. FPGS and DHFS activities were measured by incorporation of  $[{}^{14}C]$ glutamate (250  $\mu$ M) into folate products using assay conditions described for pig liver FPGS (19) using 40  $\mu$ M tetrahydropteroylmonoglutamate [(6RS)-H<sub>4</sub>PteGlu (FPGS)] or 25  $\mu$ M dihydropteroate [H<sub>2</sub>Pte (DHFS)] as the substrate. The glutamate concentration was not saturating (12, 20). Reaction mixtures were incubated at 37°C for 1 hr. One unit of activity catalyzes the formation of <sup>1</sup> nmol of product per hr.

Purification of Pig Liver FPGS. FPGS was purified from pig liver (1.3 kg) as described (19) with the following modifications. Extraction and column buffers up to the chromatofocusing step contained Triton X-100 (0.02%) to stabilize enzyme activity. Enzyme eluted from phenyl-agarose was concentrated by reapplication to the phenyl-agarose column. Ammonium sulfate was added to 10% saturation to peak activity fractions and the extract was reapplied to a smaller phenyl-agarose column (2.5 cm  $\times$  1 cm) equilibrated with 100 mM Tris HCl buffer (pH 8.4) containing 10% saturated ammonium sulfate and <sup>50</sup> mM 2-mercaptoethanol. The column was washed with equilibration buffer (3 ml) and enzyme was eluted with 80 mM Tris-HCl buffer (pH 8.4) containing 10% ethylene glycol (vol/vol), 0.02% Triton X-100, and <sup>40</sup> mM 2-mercaptoethanol.

Protein was determined by a modified Lowry procedure (29). Protein purity was determined by gradient (8-20%) SDS/PAGE with a 4% stacking gel. The discontinuous buffer system of Laemmli (30) was used. Protein bands were visualized by silver staining.

Sequencing of Pig Liver FPGS Peptides. One molar Tris buffer pH 8  $(1.5 \mu I)$ , 5% SDS (1.5  $\mu I$ ), and 100 mM EDTA (1.5  $\mu$ l) were added to pig liver FPGS (2  $\mu$ g) in 30 mM potassium phosphate buffer, pH  $7.5/50$  mM 2-mercaptoethanol (150  $\mu$ l), and the mixture was heated at 95°C for 2 min and allowed to cool to room temperature. Twenty percent 4-vinylpyridine in isopropyl alcohol  $(3 \mu l)$  was added and the mixture was incubated at 37 $\degree$ C for 5 hr. V8 protease (0.5  $\mu$ g) was added and FPGS was digested overnight at room temperature. Peptides were separated on a  $C_4$  reverse-phase column using a gradient from  $10\%$  acetonitrile/0.1% trifluoroacetic acid (TFA) to 60% acetonitrile/30% n-propyl alcohol/0.1% TFA. Peptides were also separated by electrophoresis. In these cases, the 4-vinylpyridine step was omitted and, after proteolysis, the

sample was Iyophilized and peptides were separated by SDS/PAGE using a 4% stacking gel and a linear gradient separating gel (15-20%) using the buffer system of Schagger and von Jagow (31). Peptides were blotted onto a Pro-Blott membrane (Applied Biosystems) using 25 mM Tris HCl/25 mM Tricine/15% methanol transfer buffer. Peptides were visualized by staining with 0.05% Coomassie blue/50% methanol followed by destaining in 50% methanol. The membrane was washed for <sup>2</sup> min in <sup>10</sup> mM NaCI followed by water, the membrane was then air dried, and the stained peptide bands were cut out and stored at 4°C until sequenced. Automated amino acid sequencing was performed using an Applied Biosystems 477A protein sequencer.

Transfection of CHO Cells. The 2.2-kilobase (kb) EcoRI insert from pSE936-25 (see below) was cloned into the EcoRI site of pSVK3 (Pharmacia) to give pSVK-hFPGS, and the orientation of the insert was checked by Sma I digestion. The EcoRI site in pSVK3 is downstream from the simian virus 40 early promoter and upstream from a small tumor antigen splice site and a  $poly(A)$  signal allowing expression of inserts in mammalian cells. CHO AUXB1 cells were cultured in  $\alpha$ -minimum essential medium ( $\alpha$ -MEM) medium containing 10% dialyzed fetal calf serum, PteGlu  $(2 \mu M)$ , and glycine, thymidine, and hypoxanthine (5, 25). The cells were transfected with pSVK-hFPGS (10  $\mu$ g) as described (25), and the ability of transfectants to grow in the absence of glycine, thymidine, and purines was assessed.

## RESULTS

Cloning of Human FPGS by Conplementation of SF4(AKC).  $SFA(\lambda KC)$  cells ( $\approx 10^{10}$ ) were infected with the human cDNA library in  $\lambda$ YES-R (4  $\times$  10<sup>7</sup> phage) as described by Elledge *et*  $al.$  (26) and cultured for 2 hr at 30°C in nonselective medium (plus methionine/glycine) containing 1 mM isopropyl  $\beta$ -Dthiogalactoside. Washed cells were then plated on selective agar plates (minimal medium plus 50  $\mu$ g of ampicillin per ml). After 6 days at 30°C, 50 colonies were restreaked onto selective plates. Ten of the colonies continued to grow without methionine and glycine supplementation. Plasmid was isolated from the 10 transformants and used to transform SF4. Four plasmids retained the ability to complement the SF4 phenotype (pSE936-3, -8, -10, and -25).

Three plasmids contained  $EcoRI$  inserts of  $\approx$  2.2 kb and one (pSE936-10) contained an insert of  $\approx$  2.3 kb. All four plasmids had similar restriction maps. Table <sup>1</sup> shows FPGS activity in crude extracts of the SF4 transformants and in SF4 and its parent strain (W1845) when transformed with pSE936 lacking <sup>a</sup> cDNA insert. W1845 showed typical substrate specificities expected for the  $E.$  coli protein  $(12, 13)$ . Activity was observed with  $H_2$ Pte as a substrate, whereas  $H_4$ PteGlu was a poor substrate (10-formyl-H4PteGlu is the preferred monoglutamate substrate for  $E.$  coli FPGS), and activities were increased at higher KCI concentrations. SF4 displayed neg-

Table 1. FPGS and DHFS activities in E. coli transformants

<b>Transformant</b>	Specific activity, nmol/hr per mg			
	20 mM KCl		200 mM KCI	
	H <sub>2</sub> Pte	<b>H</b> PteGlu	$H2$ Pte	<b>H</b> PteGlu
W1845/pSE936*	0.50	0.08	0.74	0.11
SF4/pSE936*	0	0	0	0
SF4/pSE936-3	0	24	O	15
SF4/pSE936-8	0	18	0	11
SF4/pSE936-10	0	26	0	15
SF4/pSE936-25		27	0	16

Bacteria were cultured overnight in LB medium containing ampicillin and cell extracts were prepared by sonication. \*No cDNA insert.

ligible DHFS and FPGS activity under these assay conditions. SF4 transformed with pSE936-3, -8, -10, and -25 displayed elevated FPGS activities but lacked DHFS activity and activities were reduced at higher KCI concentrations. These properties are typical of mammalian FPGS (1, 2, 19). Sequence analysis (below) indicated that the inserts in pSE936-3, -10, and -25 were in frame with an ATG translation start site in the pSE936 vector (26) and consequently the transformants may have expressed fusion proteins. The cDNA insert in pSE936-8 was out of frame with this ATG and translation must have started at an internal ATG in the cDNA, which may explain why FPGS activity in pSE936-8 transformants was lower than in other transformants.

Nucleotide Sequence of Human FPGS cDNA. The EcoRI inserts of the pSE936 vectors were cloned into an EcoRI site ing. One insert (from pSE936-25) was completely sequenced in both orientations. Approximately 200 base pairs (bp) of the <sup>5</sup>' and <sup>3</sup>' ends of the other inserts were sequenced to verify that they contained essentially identical inserts except for a few base pairs at the <sup>5</sup>' and <sup>3</sup>' ends. The inserts in pTZ18U complemented SF4 if cloned in an orientation that allowed expression from the lac promoter.

The cDNA sequence of human FPGS and the deduced protein sequence are shown in Fig. 1. All inserts contained a potential poly(A) signal and one insert (from pSE936-10) contained a stretch of about 80 As that accounted for the slightly larger size of this insert. The open reading frame codes for a protein of 545 amino acid residues with a predicted  $M_r$  of 60,128. This is similar to the molecular weight of pig liver FPGS ( $M_r$  60,000) and larger than that of the bacterial FPGS proteins  $(M_r \approx 45,000)$ .



FIG. 1. Nucleotide sequence of human FPGS cDNA and derived amino acid sequence. The amino acid sequence is numbered from the first ATG codon. Asterisks (\*) indicate the initial nucleotide in the insert in pSE936-3, -8, -25, and -10, respectively, and the final nucleotide in the insert in pSE936-3, -25, -8, and -10, respectively. The presumed poly(A) signal is doubly underlined. A four-base sequence that could potentially act as a Shine-Dalgarno sequence for translation in E. coli is singly underlined.





\*nmol/hr.

A polypurine tract <sup>7</sup> bp prior to the presumptive start ATG has homology with bacterial Shine-Dalgarno sequences (Fig. 1) and may explain the expression of FPGS activity in bacteria transformed with pSE936-8. G-69 in the cDNA sequence (Fig. 1) was changed to a C to generate an  $Nco$  I site and a 2.1-kb Nco I-Sal <sup>I</sup> fragment was cloned into pTrc99A. SF4 transformed with this construct expressed active nonfusion FPGS. Met-37 in the deduced sequence is also preceded by a polypurine tract. However, expression of the cDNA from Met-37 in pTrc99A did not result in active enzyme.

Homology with Pig Liver FPGS Peptides. The purification of pig liver FPGS is summarized in Table 2. The protein was purified about 180,000-fold and displayed a single band of  $M_r$ 60,000 on <sup>a</sup> SDS/PAGE gel. The protein had <sup>a</sup> blocked N terminus, and multiple attempts at the generation of peptides using various proteases were unsuccessful due to the formation of insoluble peptides or protein and/or very poor recovery of peptides from reverse-phase columns. This mirrored some of our past experience with the E. coli protein. Although FPGS is a soluble protein, it behaves like a hydrophobic protein and it is difficult to resolubilize precipitated protein or peptides. Four peptides were isolated and sequenced after V8 protease treatment in the presence of SDS. Under the conditions used (phosphate buffer), V8 protease can cleave on the C-terminal side of Glu and Asp residues. The sequences obtained, AVRILNTLQTNA, GGPPLTL-GLEGEHQRTNAA, XIRINGQPIGPE, and ATSRPSLL-GQLP, were highly homologous to regions of the deduced human sequence (Fig. 2) with one peptide sequence starting OUT peptides were isolated and se-<br>
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at residue six of the deduced sequence. Italicized residues reflect some ambiguity in the assignment.

Homology with Bacterial FPGS. A comparison of the deduced human FPGS protein sequence with the GenBank and EMBL nucleic acid data bases using TFASTN and TBLASTN failed to pick up any significant homology with any sequences except for E. coli and L. casei FPGS. A comparison of the three protein sequences is shown in Fig. 2. The C-terminal region of the proteins are omitted as there is no significant homology between any of these proteins in this region. In the region shown there is about 25% residue identity between the human and each bacterial sequence. There are only limited areas of homology between the three proteins, and the two major conserved regions, around human FPGS residues 59-67 [VXGTXGKG(S/T)] and 153-171 [DX4EVG(I/ L)GGXXDXTN(I/V)(I/V)], are the presumptive A and B nucleotide binding sites (13, 14).

Expression in CHO Cells. Expression of the cDNA (pSVKhFPGS) in AUXB1 cells restored their ability to grow in the absence of purines and thymidine but the transfectants remained auxotrophic for glycine.

## DISCUSSION

We have screened an Epstein-Barr virus-transformed human lymphocyte cDNA library using functional complementation of an E. coli FPGS mutant to isolate <sup>a</sup> cDNA for human FPGS. The deduced protein sequence is highly homologous to pig liver FPGS peptides and is of similar size to the pig liver protein and considerably larger than bacterial FPGSs.



FIG. 2. Comparison of the amino acid sequence of human FPGS with the E. coli (422 residues) and L. casei (428 residues) proteins and pig liver FPGS peptides. The C-terminal residues of the three proteins are omitted. The original alignment was made using <sup>a</sup> PAM <sup>256</sup> matrix and minor modifications were made manually. Lines (I) indicate amino acid identity between the three proteins. Dots ( $\cdot$ ) indicate amino acid identity between the human sequence and one of the bacterial sequences or amino acid similarity between the human sequence and one or both of the bacterial sequences. Similarity is defined as (E/D), (N/Q), (K/R), (A/G), (S/T), (F/Y), and (I/L/M/V).

FPGS activity was elevated in E. coli transformed with plasmids containing the human cDNA although the specific activities in crude bacterial extracts were <0.1% of that of homogeneous pig liver FPGS. However, these specific activities were still >500-fold higher than we have previously found in crude extracts of human liver (unpublished data). We must attempt to improve its expression further as <sup>a</sup> prelude to enzyme purification. The substrate specificities noted for the expressed cDNA were those expected for mammalian FPGS and different from bacterial enzyme.

The 2.3-kb cDNA appears to be of near full length. The <sup>3</sup>' poly(A) tail was retained in one clone, and Northern analysis of mRNA from human cells or AUXB1 cells transfected with human genomic DNA and expressing human FPGS activity  $(8, 25)$  demonstrated a single band of  $\approx 2.3$  kb; the intensity of the signal was proportional to the level of expressed FPGS activity and was consistent with a very low abundance mRNA. No hybridization signal was detected with mRNA from wild-type CHO cells, AUXB1 cells, or pig liver unless the stringency was greatly reduced (J.-S. Kim, L. Chen, and B.S., unpublished data). FPGS activity is located in mitochondria and cytosol of mammalian cells and expression of the enzyme in mitochondria is required for glycine synthesis (refs. 8; B. F. Lin and B.S., unpublished data). Transfection of the cDNA in <sup>a</sup> mammalian expression vector in AUXB1 cells restored cytosolic folate metabolism but not mitochondrial metabolism. Although this suggests that the isolated cDNA codes for the cytosolic form of FPGS, <sup>a</sup> mitochondrial isoform cannot be eliminated as the cDNA was obtained by expression cloning, and expression of a full-length mitochondrial mRNA may have been selected against as it may not have produced an active protein in bacteria. The nucleotides <sup>5</sup>' to the presumed ATG start site would code for the sequence RGITTQVAARRGLSAWPVPQEPS, which shares features similar to the motif reported for mitochondrial leader sequences (32), and it is possible that the cDNA codes for the mitochondrial isozyme but lacks the start ATG. Reversion frequencies of the AUXB1 mutant are consistent with a single mutation causing the multiple auxotrophy  $(3, 4, 4)$ 25), and in multiple transfection studies with human genomic DNA we have always observed restoration of mitochondrial and cytosolic FPGS activities in transfectants (unpublished data). These data are consistent with a single gene coding for both isozymes. As only one mRNA species was detected by Northern analysis, it is possible that <sup>a</sup> single mRNA may be responsible for mitochondrial and cytoplasmic forms of the protein (33).

The peptides isolated from pig liver FPGS showed a high degree of homology with the human protein and the alignment of one of the peptides, starting at residue six, supports the deduced start site of the protein. Human FPGS shows only limited homology with the  $E$ . coli and  $L$ . casei proteins and the two bacterial proteins are only homologous in limited regions. This may reflect the different substrate specificities of the proteins. The bacterial proteins have different preferred pteroylmonoglutamate substrates, only effectively use 5,10-methylene-H<sub>4</sub>PteGlu<sub>n</sub> as their polyglutamate substrates, metabolize folates to only the tri- or tetraglutamate, and have <sup>a</sup> >100-fold difference in their affinities for MgATP (10-12). In addition, the E. coli protein also possesses DHFS activity, whereas the L. casei and mammalian proteins lack this activity or any affinity for  $H_2$ Pte. We have recently cloned two yeast genes that complement the E. coli SF4 mutant (A. Brenner and B.S., unpublished data). One of these codes for <sup>a</sup> DHFS and most closely resembles the bacterial proteins, whereas the other codes for a FPGS and most closely resembles the human protein.

The availability of <sup>a</sup> human cDNA for FPGS will allow studies on the regulation of expression of the protein and on the mechanism of subcellular localization of the protein. Studies on the overexpression of the protein are necessary to allow purification and more detailed studies on the mechanism of the FPGS reaction.

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