Cell, Vol. 81, 289–298, April 21, 1995, Copyright © 1995 by Cell Press

Polycystic Kidney Disease: The Complete Structure of the *PKD1* Gene and Its Protein

The International Polycystic Kidney Disease Consortium*

Summary

Mutations in the *PKD1* gene are the most common cause of autosomal dominant polycystic kidney disease (ADPKD). Other *PKD1*-like loci on chromosome 16 are approximately 97% identical to *PKD1*. To determine the authentic *PKD1* sequence, we obtained the genomic sequence of the *PKD1* locus and assembled a *PKD1* transcript from the sequence of 46 exons. The 14.5 kb *PKD1* transcript encodes a 4304 amino acid protein that has a novel domain architecture. The amino-terminal half of the protein consists of a mosaic of previously described domains, including leucine-rich repeats flanked by characteristic cysteine-rich structures, LDL-A and C-type lectin domains, and 14 units of a novel 80 amino acid domain. The presence of these domains suggests that the PKD1 protein is involved in adhesive protein–protein and protein–carbohydrate interactions in the extracellular compartment. We propose a hypothesis that links the predicted properties of the protein with the diverse phenotypic features of ADPKD.

Introduction

Autosomal dominant polycystic kidney disease (ADPKD) is one of the most common monogenic disorders in humans, affecting 1 in 1000 individuals. Its major manifestation is progressive cystic dilatation of the renal tubules, leading to renal failure in half of affected individuals by age 50. ADPKD is also associated with hepatic, pancreatic, and splenic cysts, cardiac valve abnormalities, and an increased incidence of cranial aneurysms and subarachnoid hemorrhage (Gabow, 1990).

Despite intensive investigation, the underlying biochemical defect in ADPKD remains unknown. A series of apparently unrelated abnormalities has been detected at the cellular and tissue levels both in ADPKD and in other forms of renal cystic disease. The most carefully documented of these findings are abnormalities in the composition of the tubular basement membrane, proliferation of tubular epithelial cells, and a reversal of the normal polarized distribution of cell membrane proteins such as the Na^+/K^+ ATPase (Wilson et al., 1986).

Phenotypically indistinguishable forms of ADPKD are caused by mutations in three separate loci (Reeders et al., 1985; Kimberling et al., 1993; Peters et al., 1993). Two of these loci, *PKD1* and *PKD2*, have been mapped to the short arm of chromosome 16 and chromosome 4, respectively. The third locus has not been mapped (Fossdal et al., 1993; Daoust et al., 1995). Mutations in *PKD1* account for approximately 90% of ADPKD cases. This locus previously had been mapped to a gene-rich 500 kb interval in band 16p13.3 (Germino et al., 1992) that includes the *TSC2* locus for tuberous sclerosis (TS) (European Chromosome 16 Tuberous Sclerosis Consortium, 1993). Some TS patients are known to develop renal cystic lesions that resemble those of ADPKD, which led investigators to examine families with TS for positional segregation of ADPKD. One unusual family had members with polycystic

***The International Polycystic Kidney Disease Consortium comprises the following groups:**

Group 1:

M. Alexandra Glücksmann-Kuis,† Olga Tayber,‡ Elizabeth A. Woolf,‡ Lydie Bougueleret, Nanhua Deng, Geoffrey D. Alperin, François Iris, Fiona Hawkins, Cheryl Munro, Nathan Lakey, and Geoffrey Duyk
Millennium Pharmaceuticals, Incorporated
Cambridge, Massachusetts 02139

Group 2:

Michael C. Schneider,† Lin Geng, Fan Zhang, Zhihui Zhao, Steven Torosian, Jing Zhou, and Stephen T. Reeders
Renal Division
Department of Medicine
Brigham and Women's Hospital
and Harvard Medical School
Boston, Massachusetts 02115

Group 3:

Peer Bork
European Molecular Biology Laboratory
Meyerhofstrasse 1
D-69117 Heidelberg
Federal Republic of Germany
and Max Delbrück Center for Molecular Medicine
D-13125 Berlin-Buch
Federal Republic of Germany

Group 4:

Marita Pohlschmidt,‡ Corinna Löhning,‡ Barbara Kraus, Urszula Nowicka, Alan L. S. Leung, and Anna-Maria Frischauf†
Imperial Cancer Research Fund
Lincoln's Inn Fields
London WC2A 3PX
England

†*Correspondence should be addressed to M. Alexandra Glücksmann-Kuis, Michael C. Schneider, or Anna-Maria Frischauf.*
‡*These authors contributed equally within this group.*

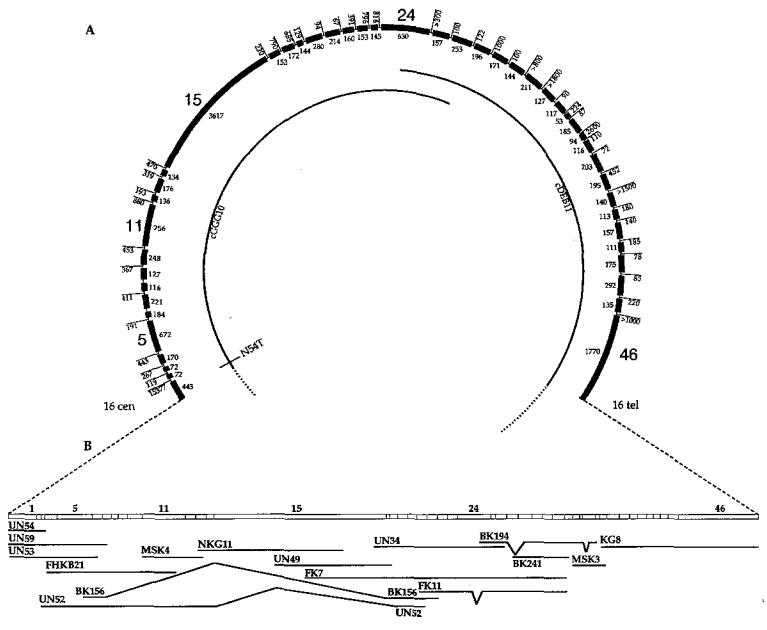

Figure 1. Schematic Representations of the *PKD1* Genomic Region and the Full-Length *PKD1* cDNA

(A) Schematic representation of the *PKD1* genomic region. The large bold numbers indicate the numbers of selected exons. The numbers outside of the semicircle denote the size of the introns. The small numbers inside the circle represent the size of the exons. Solid lines inside the semicircle represent the cosmids from this region. N54T denotes a NotI site in cGGG10. The distance between exons 1 and 2 is larger than 15,377 bp by at least 1000 bp. The distance between exons 22 and 23 is larger than 796 bp by at least 2000 bp. These represent the genomic gaps not sequenced.

(B) Schematic representation of the full-length *PKD1* cDNA. The numbers above the rectangles indicate selected exons. Below is a physical representation of the partial cDNAs described in the Experimental Procedures.

kidney disease who were found to have inherited a balanced translocation near the *TSC2* locus, with a breakpoint in a novel gene named the polycystic breakpoint protein gene (*PBP*). *PBP* codes for a 14 kb mRNA (European Polycystic Kidney Disease Consortium, 1994). Deletions and point mutations confined to the *PBP* gene confirmed its identity as the *PKD1* gene (European Polycystic Kidney Disease Consortium, 1994; Schneider et al., 1994, Am. J. Hum. Genet., abstract). cDNA clones comprising the terminal 5.6 kb of the *PKD1* transcript were found to contain an open reading frame (ORF) of 4.8 kb. Analysis of the deduced peptide encoded by the last third of the gene did not reveal any homologies to known proteins and, therefore, did not suggest a biochemical function for the product of the *PKD1* gene.

A major problem in the isolation and sequencing of the remaining part of the *PKD1* gene has been the presence of several transcriptionally active copies of closely related *PKD1*-like sequences that map centromeric to *PKD1* on chromosome 16p13.1 (European Polycystic Kidney Disease Consortium, 1994). This has posed great difficulty in distinguishing the *PKD1* locus transcript from those of the *PKD1*-like loci.

Here we describe a strategy leading to the identification of the complete *PKD1* gene sequence. We also provide the genomic structure of the gene and show that the mRNA transcripts are alternatively spliced. One form of the *PKD1* transcript encodes a 4304 amino acid polypeptide with five distinct extracellular peptide domains that are likely to be involved in protein–protein and protein–carbohydrate interactions. Although the PKD1 protein shares domains with a number of extracellular proteins, the combination of domains found in PKD1 has not been found in any known protein.

Results

A series of overlapping cosmid clones spanning the predicted *PKD1* genetic interval has been described (Germino et al., 1992). The integrity of the cosmid contig was confirmed by long-range restriction mapping and genetic linkage analysis of polymorphic sequences derived from the cosmids. Three cosmids (cGGG1, cGGG10, and cDEB11 from centromere to telomere) form a contig that includes the 3′ end of *TSC2* (cDEB11) and extends over 80 kb centromeric to it. At the proximal end of cGGG10, there is a CpG island represented by a NotI site, N54T (Himmelbauer et al., 1991) (Figure 1A).

To identify transcripts from the region, the cosmid clones were hybridized to a set of five cDNA libraries. KG8, a cDNA clone containing the last 3.2 kb of the *PBP* sequence and located on cDEB11, was mapped by use of a panel of somatic cell hybrids and found to hybridize to a single locus on chromosome 16p13 (data not shown). Sequence analysis showed that KG8 contains the polyadenylated 3′ end of a gene and has an ORF of 2100 bp and a 1019 bp 3′ untranslated region. KG8 was also found to contain a polymorphic microsatellite repeat (Snarey et al., 1994). Analysis of this repeat in a large number of *PKD1* kindreds revealed no recombination in the disease locus (S. Somlo, unpublished data).

To obtain clones extending 5′ of KG8, the cosmids cGGG10 and cDEB11 were hybridized to a series of different cDNA libraries (see Experimental Procedures). In contrast with KG8, when some of the resulting cDNA clones were analyzed using somatic cell hybrid panels (data not shown), they were found to hybridize strongly to several loci on chromosome 16 as well as to the *PKD1* region. The restriction maps of the hybridizing loci were so similar

that we concluded that a series of recent duplications of part of the *PKD1* gene had occurred (excluding the KG8 segment) and had given rise to several *PKD1*-like genomic segments.

Because of the high degree of similarity between *PKD1* and *PKD1*-like loci and because they all are transcriptionally active, it was not possible to determine the correct full-length *PKD1* cDNA sequence by assembling overlapping partial cDNA clones. To determine the sequence of the authentic *PKD1* transcript, we sequenced cGGG10 entirely and parts of cDEB11 containing *PKD1* exons.

Sequence of the Genomic Region of the *PKD1* Locus

The duplicated portion of the *PKD1* gene is largely contained within the cGGG10 cosmid. Prior to sequencing cGGG10, we established the integrity of the clone in several ways. First, the restriction map of cGGG10 was compared with a map of the genomic DNA from the *PKD1* region and was found to be identical. Second, restriction maps of the overlapping portions of cGGG1 and cDEB11 were compared with cGGG10 and were also found to be identical. Third, sequences derived from cGGG10 and overlapping portions of cDEB11 showed 100% identity. Finally, a P1 phage, PKD 1521, was obtained by screening a genomic P1 library with primers from the *TSC2* gene. No sequence differences were observed between PKD 1521 and cGGG10 in the regions sampled.

Several approaches were taken to obtain the sequence of cGGG10 (see Experimental Procedures). A final 10-fold sequence redundancy was achieved for this cosmid in order to compare the genomic sequence accurately with that of the *PKD1*-specific and *PKD1*-like cDNAs (homologous to this cosmid). The cGGG10 sequences were assembled into three contigs of 8 kb, 23 kb, and 4.4 kb, separated by 1 kb and 2.2 kb gaps (Figure 1). The cosmid cDEB11 was also sequenced and assembled to a 2-fold redundancy and compared with *PKD1*-specific cDNAs in order to obtain intron/exon boundaries of the unique 3′ end of the gene.

cDNAs from the *PKD1* and the *PKD1*-like Loci

To identify putative coding regions and intron/exon boundaries, genomic and cDNA sequences were compared (see Experimental Procedures). When the sequences of overlapping cDNAs were assembled, a transcript length of 14.5 kb was obtained. The predominant transcript detected by Northern blot analysis using the unique sequence KG8 probe is ~14 kb (data not shown), suggesting that the cDNA clones represent the full length of the *PKD1* transcript. Restriction and sequence analyses indicate that a CpG island overlaps the 5′ end of the sequence. CpG islands have been found to mark the 5′ ends of many genes (Antequera and Bird, 1993). The most 5′ cDNA clones (UN53, UN54, and UN59) all have identical 5′ ends, providing further evidence that no additional upstream exons were missed (see Experimental Procedures).

The cDNAs used to assemble the *PKD1* transcript, along with genomic exon/intron structure, are shown in Figures 1A and 1B. By comparing the sequences of overlapping cDNAs with the *PKD1* genomic sequence, *PKD1*-specific cDNAs were distinguished from those encoded by the homologous loci (see Experimental Procedures). We identified 46 exons and their exon/intron boundaries. The full-length transcript constructed from the genomic sequence of the exons produces a large continuous ORF of 12,912 bp.

Alternative splicing of the primary *PKD1* transcript is apparent from the sequences of the cDNAs. For this reason, we sought to isolate a minimum of two cDNAs containing each exon, thereby increasing the probability that all exons that contribute to the *PKD1* transcript were detected. Despite this degree of coverage, it is possible there are *PKD1* transcripts containing exons that are not present in any of the cDNAs we sampled.

Exon 17 was found in two cDNAs (UN34 and BK156) and in cGGG10, but was not included in the final transcript for a number of reasons. First, the cDNAs in which this exon is found differed in sequence from the cosmid and are likely to represent *PKD1*-like genes (see Experimental Procedures). Second, this exon is not found in FK7 (a cDNA that was cloned by using a *PKD1*-specific probe; see Experimental Procedures), whose sequence is identical to the genomic sequence. Finally, when included in the full-length cDNA, this exon introduces a stop codon (743 nt downstream of exon 17) that would produce a truncated protein of 2651 amino acids. We have recently identified an ADPKD patient with a heterozygous mutation that introduces a stop codon at position 10,601 of the ORF (Schneider et al., 1994, Am. J. Hum. Genet., abstract). Other mutations that truncate the PKD1 protein downstream of this exon have also been reported by the European Polycystic Kidney Disease Consortium. Therefore, it is unlikely that transcripts that include exons 17 are predominant forms in the kidney. Further studies are needed to determine whether this exon is included in other spliced forms of the *PKD1* transcript.

Sequence Analysis of the Predicted PKD1 Protein

The assembly of 46 exons yields a predicted transcript of 14.5 kb in length with 228 nt of 5′ untranslated and 1019 nt of 3′ untranslated sequence. This transcript differs from the *PBP* sequence (European Polycystic Kidney Disease Consortium, 1994) because of the presence of two extra cytosines at positions 12,873 and 12,874 of the ORF described in this paper (position 4563 of *PBP*). The polypeptide encoded by the assembled transcript is 4304 amino acids in length, with a predicted molecular weight of 462 kDa.

The nucleotide sequence encompassing the putative Met-1 codon, CTAACGATGC, is an uncommon translation start site (Kozak, 1984). Nevertheless, this methionine is chosen as the probable start site because it is preceded by an in-frame stop codon 63 bases upstream. The PKD1-coding region begins with a 23 amino acid sequence with many of the properties of a signal peptide and is followed

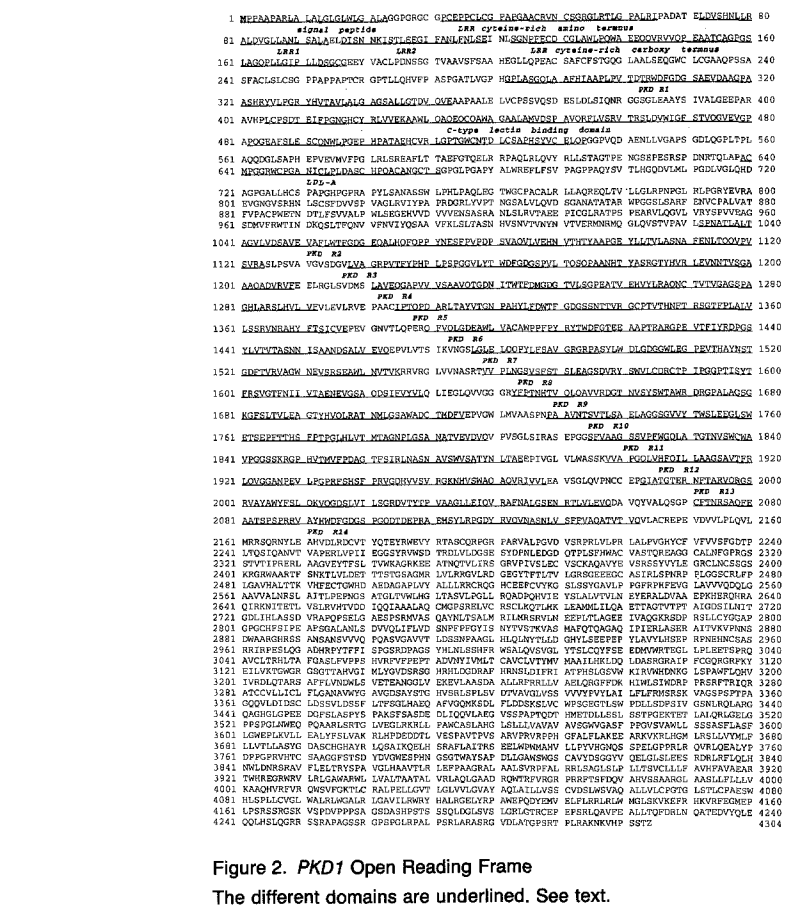

Figure 2. *PKD1* Open Reading Frame

The different domains are underlined. See text.

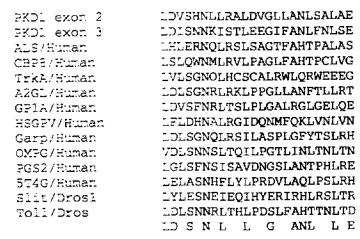

Figure 3. LRRs

LRRs are coded by exons 2 and 3 on the *PKD1* transcript. Examples of proteins that also contain LRRs are human insulin-like growth factor–binding protein complex acid-labile chain precursor (ALS); human carboxypeptidase 83 kb chain (CBP8); human high affinity nerve growth factor receptor (trkA); leucine-rich α-2-glycoprotein (A2GL); platelet membrane glycoprotein 1B α chain precursor (GP1A); platelet glycoprotein V precursor (HSGPV); human *garp* gene product (garp); human oligodendrocyte–myelin glycoprotein precursor (OMPG); human bone proteoglycan, decorin (PGS2); human 5T4 oncofetal antigen (5T4G); and Drosophila slit and Toll proteins. Conserved amino acids are represented in the bottom line of the figure.

by a predicted cleavage site (von Hejne, 1986) (Figure 2). In addition to the signal sequence, the identification of five domains that have been identified in other extracellular proteins strongly suggests the extracellular location of at least the amino-terminal half of the protein.

Immediately downstream of the signal sequence, there are two leucine-rich repeats (LRRs) (Figure 2). These LRRs (in exons 2 and 3) are flanked on both sides by cysteine-rich regions that have homology to the flanking regions of a subset of other LRRs. LRRs occur in numerous proteins (Figure 3) and have been shown to be involved in diverse forms of protein–protein interaction. The number of LRRs within the respective proteins varies between 2 and 29 (Kobe and Deisenhofer, 1994). Adhesive platelet glycoproteins form the largest group in the LRR superfamily (Kobe and Deisenhofer, 1994). The structure of the array of 15 LRRs in porcine ribonuclease inhibitor (RI) has recently been determined (Kobe and Deisenhofer, 1995); the LRRs form a horseshoe-like structure that surrounds and binds to RNase A (Kobe and Deisenhofer, 1995). It has been suggested that proteins containing only a few LRRs, such as the PKD1 protein, interact with other proteins via the LRRs in order to form the horseshoe-like superstructure for protein binding (Kobe and Deisenhofer, 1994).

Although LRRs occur in various locations in different proteins, the additional flanking cysteine-rich domains define a subgroup of extracellular proteins (Kobe and Deisenhofer, 1994). Only a few proteins contain both the distinct amino-terminal and carboxy-terminal flanking cysteine-rich domains (Figures 4 and 5). Among this group are Toll, slit, Trk, TrkB, and TrkC. This set of proteins all have intracellular domains that could relay signals to the cytoplasm. For example, the Drosophila Toll protein is required for mediating dorsoventral patterning (Hashimoto et al., 1988). The Drosophila slit protein is believed to mediate interactions between growing axons and the surrounding extracellular matrix (Rothberg et al., 1990). In vertebrates, these domains are found in the Trk family of tyrosine kinase receptors (Schneider and Schweider, 1991); the platelet glycoproteins I and V, which mediate the adhesion of platelets to sites of vascular injury (Roth, 1991); and the 5T4 oncofetal trophoblast glycoprotein, which appears to be highly expressed in metastatic tumors (Myers, 1994).

The PKD1 protein also contains a single domain with homologies to C-type (for calcium-dependent) lectin proteins (Drickamer, 1988) (see Figure 2). These domains are believed to be involved in the extracellular binding of carbohydrate residues for diverse purposes, including internalization of glycosylated enzymes (asialoglycoprotein receptors) and cell adhesion (selectins) (Weis, 1992). The classification of C-type lectins has been based on exon organization and the nature and arrangement of domains within the protein (Bezouska et al., 1991). For example, class I (extracellular proteoglycans) and class II (type II transmembrane receptors) all have three exons encoding the carbohydrate recognition domain (CRD), whereas in classes III (collectins) and IV (lectin cell adhesion molecules [LEC-CAMs]), the domains are encoded by a single exon. The C-type lectin CRD in the PKD1 protein does not fit into the above classification, because it has a novel combination of protein domains and because it is encoded by two exons (exons 6 and 7; Figure 6). Previous analysis has failed to establish a correlation between the type of carbohydrate bound to each C-type lectin and the primary structure of its CRD (Weis, 1992).

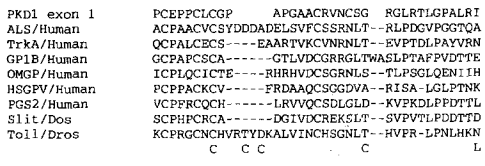

Figure 4. Amino-Terminal Cysteine-Rich Domain

This repeat is encoded by exon 1 in the *PKD1* transcript. Examples of proteins that also contain these repeats are human insulin-like growth factor–binding protein complex acid-labile chain precursor (ALS); human high affinity nerve growth factor receptor (trkA); platelet membrane glycoprotein 1B α chain precursor (GP1B); human oligodendrocyte–myelin glycoprotein precursor (OMPG); platelet glycoprotein V precursor (HSGPV); human bone proteoglycan, decorin (PGS2); and Drosophila slit and Toll proteins. Conserved amino acids are represented in the bottom line of the figure (conserved amino acids are not aligned).

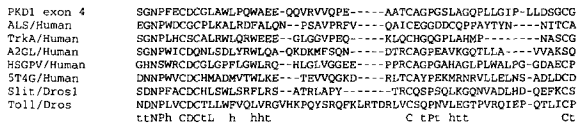

Figure 5. Carboxy-Terminal Cysteine-Rich Domain

This repeat is encoded by exon 4 in the transcript. Examples of other proteins that contain these domains are also listed, such as human insulin-like growth factor–binding protein complex acid-labile chain precursor (ALS); human high affinity nerve growth factor receptor (trkA); leucine-rich α-2-glycoprotein (A2GL); human heparin sulfate glycoprotein V (HSGPV); human 5T4 oncofetal antigen (5T4G); and Drosophila slit and Toll proteins. The hydrophobic and turn-like or polar amino acids are denoted by h and t, respectively. Conserved amino acids are represented in the bottom line of the figure.

Exon 10 encodes a low density lipoprotein A (LDL-A) module (see Figure 2), a cysteine-rich domain of about 40 amino acids in length. This module was originally identified in the LDL receptor (Sudhof et al., 1985), but it is also present in the extracellular portion of many other proteins, often in tandem arrays (Bork and Bairoch, 1995) (Figure 7). Because of their hydrophobic nature, these domains have been implicated as ligand-binding regions in LDL receptor–related proteins (Krieger and Herz, 1994).

In addition to the five extracellular protein modules that have been recognized previously, the PKD1 protein contains 14 copies of a novel domain of approximately 80 amino acids (see Figure 2). We named this domain the PKD domain. The first such domain is encoded by exon 5 between the LRRs and the C-type lectin module. The other 13 PKD domains are arrayed in tandem, starting at amino acid 1031 and ending at amino acid 2142 and contained in exons 13, 14, and 15. Profile and motif searches (see Experimental Procedures) identified several other extracellular proteins that also contain one or more copies of this novel domain. The PKD domains are unusual in that they are found in the extracellular parts of proteins from higher organisms, eubacteria, and archaebacteria. In general, extracellular modules of proteins from higher organisms are not found in bacteria. The few exceptions appear to be the result of horizontal gene transfer (Doolittle and Bork, 1993) (Figure 8). The animal proteins containing an individual PKD domain are heavily glycosylated, melanoma-associated cell surface proteins, such as melanocyte-specific human Pmel17 (Kwon, 1993), the melanosomal matrix protein (MMP) 115 protein (Mochii et al., 1991), and the Nmb protein (Weterman et al., 1995). The physiological functions of these glycoproteins remain to be elucidated. Four eubacterial extracellular enzymes, including three distinct collagenases (Yoshihara et al., 1994) and lysine-specific Achromobacter protease I (API), also contain a single copy of the domain adjacent to their catalytic domains. Four copies of the PKD domain are also present in the heavily glycosylated surface layer protein (SlpB) from Methanothermus (Brockl et al., 1991; Yao et al., 1994).

The PKD domain is predicted to be a globular domain that contains an antiparallel β sheet. Although the PKD domains do not contain conserved cysteines, we believe they are extracellular domains, first because all homologous domains are extracellular; second, because the first such domain in PKD1 (amino acids 281–353) is located between other known extracellular modules; and third, because there are no predicted transmembrane regions between the other identified (extracellular) modules in PKD1 and the 13 remaining PKD domains. Whereas the PKD domains in SlpB are very similar (Brockl et al., 1991), pointing to a rather recent duplication, the 14 domains in PKD1 are quite divergent. Even the most conserved (WDFGDG) motif is considerably modified in some of the PKD domains (Figure 8). Therefore, it is unlikely that unequal recombination between genomic sequences encoding these domains is a common source of mutations in this disease.

In the carboxy-terminal half of the protein, we found regions of similarity to a putative Caenorhabditis elegans protein (GenBank accession number Z48544) encoded by

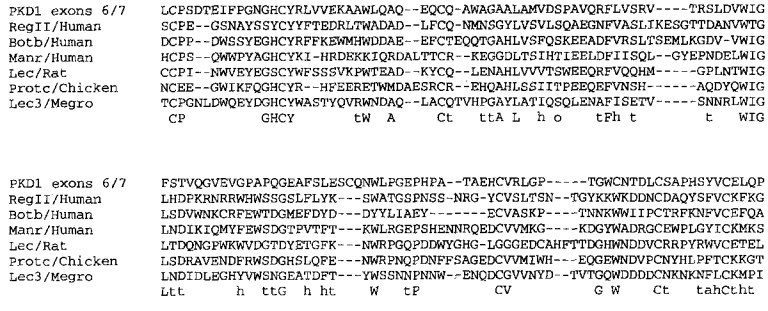

Figure 6. C-Type Lectin Domain

This repeat is encoded by exons 6 and 7. Examples of other proteins that contain these repeats are also listed, such as human regenerating islet cell factor (RegII); human botrocetin (Botb); human mannose receptor (Manr); rat C-lectin (Lec); chicken proteoglycan core protein (Protc); and barnacle lectin BRA3 (lec3). The hydrophobic and turn-like or polar amino acids are denoted by h and t, respectively. Conserved amino acids are represented in the bottom line of the figure. A lowercase letter o represents serine, threonine, or both; a lowercase letter a represents aromatic amino acids.

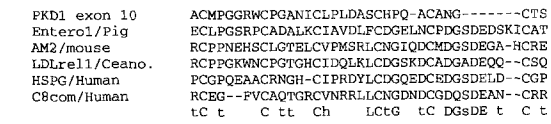

Figure 7. LDL-A Domain

The LDL-A domain is encoded by exon 10. Examples of other proteins that contain these domains are also listed, such as pig enteropeptidase, mouse AM2 receptor, C. elegans LDL-related receptor, human basement membrane proteoglycan (HSPG), and human C8 complement β chain. The turn-like or polar amino acids are denoted by t. Conserved amino acids are represented in the bottom line of the figure.

chromosome III (Wilson et al., 1994). The differences in the amino termini of these proteins imply that they are paralogs (i.e., not the equivalent genes in different species) and thus hint at the presence of a multigene family.

Between positions 3986 and 4040 there are several hydrophobic regions that might represent possible transmembrane domains, but without any clear resemblance to other such domains. Since the overall architecture of the PKD1 protein does not resemble other known proteins in which membrane domains are present, future independent data will be required to determine whether this segment spans the cell membrane.

Discussion

We report the DNA sequence and deduced protein sequence of *PKD1*, the gene that is commonly mutated in autosomal dominant polycystic kidney disease (ADPKD). The sequence presented in this paper extends the previously published partial sequence (by 2689 amino acids) and shows that the *PKD1* gene encodes a 4304 amino acid protein whose amino-terminal portion is made up of a series of extracellular protein domains. Since these domains are present in a combination that has not been seen in other multidomain proteins, the product of the *PKD1* gene cannot be assigned to an existing protein family. The recognizable modules include two leucine-rich repeats flanked by cysteine-rich domains, a C-type lectin carbohydrate recognition domain, an LDL-A domain, and a novel 80 amino acid domain present both as a single unit and separately as a tandem array (Figure 9).

In view of its enormous length and the presence of multiple adhesive domains, the PKD1 protein appears to be a multifunctional protein that is involved in various protein–protein and protein–carbohydrate interactions in the extracellular compartment. The presence of several distinct binding domains suggests that the PKD1 protein binds to more than one molecule or to several parts of a large extracellular molecule. It is unclear whether the PKD1 protein contains a cytoplasmic segment or whether the protein is wholly extracellular. Nevertheless, the structure of the PKD1 protein suggests that it binds to components of the extracellular matrix or to cell membrane–associated proteins. Therefore, the PKD1 protein may mediate cell–cell or cell–matrix interactions, or may itself be an intrinsic component of the extracellular matrix.

Although a number of defects have been observed at both the cellular and the tissue levels in ADPKD and in rodent models of renal cystic disease, it has been unclear whether they represent primary or secondary events (Calvet, 1993; Carone et al., 1994). One such defect is the abnormal distribution of cell membrane components between the apical and the basolateral surfaces of the polarized tubular epithelium. For example, Na^+/K^+ ATPase is found on the basolateral surface of normal tubules and nondilated tubules in ADPKD samples, but is present on the apical surface of cystic epithelia (Wilson et al., 1991). It has been suggested that mislocalization of membrane proteins results from a defect in protein sorting. However, the structure reported here makes it unlikely that the PKD1 protein is involved in the primary sorting of proteins (Carone et al., 1994).

Another hypothesis is that the *PKD1* gene encodes a growth factor or growth factor receptor and that mutations in the *PKD1* gene result in epithelial proliferation (Grantham, 1990; Wilson et al., 1986). An increase in the number of cells lining the tubules inevitably leads to dilatation in all

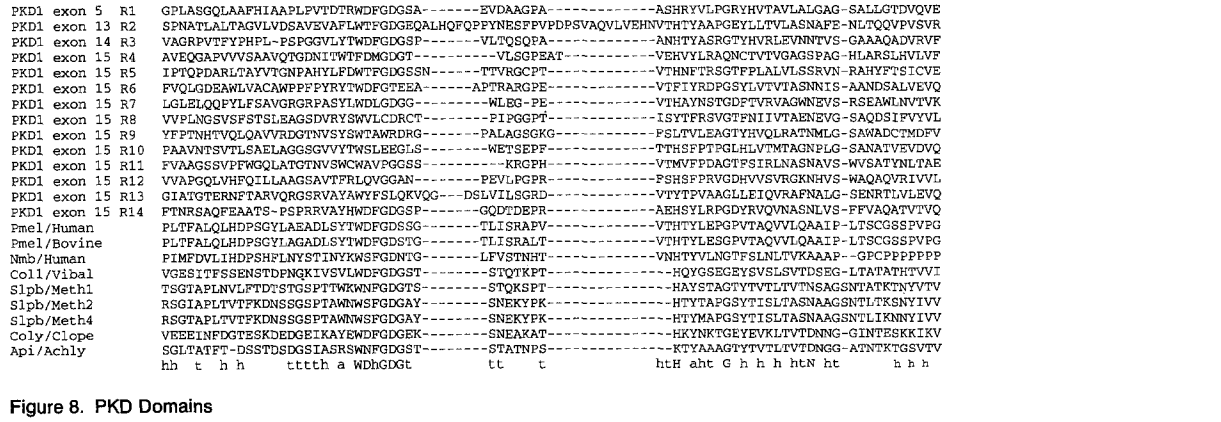

Figure 8. PKD Domains

These domains are present in exons 5, 13, 14, and 15. Other proteins that contain PKD domains are also listed, such as human and bovine melanoma antigen Pmel17, human Nmb protein, Clostridium perfringens collagenase, four domains of the Methanothermus fervidus Slpb protein, and Achromobacter lyticus protease (API). The hydrophobic and turn-like or polar amino acids are denoted by h and t, respectively. Conserved amino acids are represented in the bottom line of the figure.

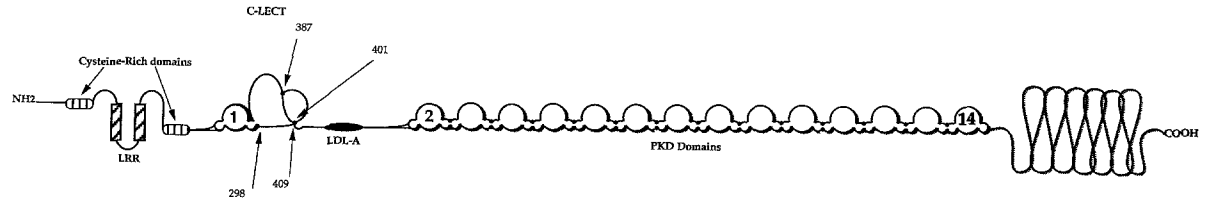

Figure 9. A Schematic Representation of the PKD1 Protein

The figure depicts the location of the LRRs, flanked by cysteine-rich domains, the C-lectin domain (C-LEC), the LDL-A domain, and the fourteen PKD domains represented by numbers. The amino acid sites for predicted cysteine disulfide bonds in the C-lectin domain are identified with arrows. The cysteines represented by the numbers 298, 387, 401, and 409 should be represented instead by the numbers 419, 507, 522, and 530. The carboxyl half of the protein has no identifiable domains.

forms of cystic disease, including ADPKD. The structure of *PKD1* protein makes it unlikely that the primary defect in ADPKD involves a growth factor or classical receptor-mediated signal transduction pathway.

A number of reports have suggested that defects in extracellular matrix components or cell–matrix interactions are involved in the pathogenesis of ADPKD (Haverty and Neilson, 1988). First, it is known that the ADPKD phenotype encompasses nonrenal abnormalities such as vascular aneurysms and cardiac valve defects (Gabow, 1990). These abnormalities are also prominent features of diseases such as Ehlers–Danlos syndrome and Marfan syndrome that result from mutations in extracellular matrix components such as collagen and fibrillins (Kontusaari et al., 1990; Tsipouras et al., 1992). Analysis of ADPKD tissue reveals variably thickened basement membrane with decreased amounts of proteoglycans and increased amounts of fibronectin relative to those of normal individuals (Carone et al., 1989). A well-studied rodent model of acquired cystic disease provides further evidence that extracellular matrix abnormalities are involved in cyst formation (Butowski et al., 1985).

One hypothesis linking extracellular matrix abnormalities and ADPKD postulated that the mechanical compliance of the tubular basal membrane is altered, allowing tubules to distend (Welling and Grantham, 1972). However, in this study, altered elasticity in cystic tubules was not detected. A second hypothesis relies on a growing body of evidence that the extracellular matrix influences the development and morphology of the cells in contact with it (Rodriguez-Boulan and Nelson, 1989). The extracellular matrix interacts with the cell cytoplasm through cell adhesion molecules known as integrins (Hynes, 1992). During normal tubular development, coordinated interactions between the extracellular matrix and epithelial cells, mediated by cell–extracellular matrix adhesion, are critical for tubular morphogenesis. These interactions lead to a specific pattern of gene expression that in turn results in normal cell differentiation. Cell differentiation in turn modulates the synthesis of matrix components.

Our data suggest that the PKD1 protein presents several adhesive domains to the extracellular space. We hypothesize that these domains bind matrix or cell membrane–associated ligands, and that these interactions mediate normal epithelial differentiation. One property of the differentiated state is the maintenance of tubular architecture and an epithelial cell morphology that is appropriate for each tubular segment. Mutation of the PKD1 protein leads to failure of these interactions, so that epithelial differentiation does not occur or is not maintained.

The abnormal state of differentiation accounts for the range of features of the ADPKD phenotype; although cyst-lining cells are arranged in a monolayer and have well-defined tight junctions and other features of a differentiated epithelium, gene expression is abnormal for a mature epithelium (Carone et al., 1993). Epithelia fail to acquire, or maintain, critical properties of the differentiated state, such as the synthesis of extracellular matrix components that define the mature tubular basement membrane (Klingel et al., 1993; Dvergsten et al., 1994). The increased cell proliferation and occasional micropolyp formation seen in ADPKD (Evan et al., 1979) also reflect a less developed state. Another characteristic of cystic epithelium that more closely resembles the undifferentiated state is the distribution of cell membrane markers: the apical location of Na^+/K^+ ATPase, for example, is similar in cystic and fetal kidneys.

A number of experimental approaches can be used to test the hypotheses that arise from our predicted protein. First, antibodies raised against the PKD1 protein can be used to determine the cellular localization of the protein and will also help to dissect the molecules interacting with the extracellular domains of the protein. Second, these antibodies may block interactions in cell culture, where properties such as cell adhesion, cell polarity, synthesis of matrix components, and morphology could be assessed. A cell culture approach has been used successfully to determine the functions of integrins (Ruoslahti and Pierschbacher, 1987). Identification of the PKD1 protein ligands will allow the definition of the pathways that lead to normal epithelial morphogenesis.

Further study is also needed to determine the spectrum of mutations and the basis for the dominant inheritance of ADPKD. The distribution of mutations reported to date is biased by the relative ease of analyzing the unique 3′ end of the *PKD1* gene. The great majority of *PKD1* mutations remain uncharacterized and may be distributed throughout the gene. The genomic sequence did not provide clues that might account for the high new mutation rate observed in *PKD1* (Snarey et al., 1994). The intron/exon structure reported here will expedite the analysis of mutations in the duplicated part of the *PKD1* gene.

ADPKD is only one of many genetic forms of renal cystic disease. Mutations in at least fifteen nonallelic loci in human and mouse have been shown to cause the disease (Reeders, 1992; Calvet, 1994). It is clear that a large number of genes, involved in one or more biochemical pathways, are responsible for maintaining normal tubular morphology. Determination of the structure of the *PKD1* gene and its protein provides an important entry point for the dissection of these pathways.

Experimental Procedures

Genomic Clones

The P1 phage named PKD 1521 was obtained from a human genomic library (Genome Systems, St. Louis, MO) and was isolated by use of primers from both the 5′ end of the TSC2 gene and the 5′ end of KG8. The cosmid cGGG10 has been described (Germino et al., 1992). A random library of the cosmid was constructed by cloning sheared DNA fragments into the SmaI site of pUC 19. Initial sequence assembly for the cosmid cGGG10 was performed with forward and reverse sequences from approximately 1000 random cloned fragments. A preliminary map was constructed by using the restriction map of the cosmid. Directed subclones of cGGG10 were made in pBluescript in order to create sequencing islands anchored to specific restriction enzymes. These large subclones from cGGG10 were then restricted with more frequent cutter enzymes and cloned into M13mp19 and mp18. Directed sequencing employing primer walks to form large anchored contigs was also performed by using the appropriate subclones of cGGG10. A contig of 34.3 kb was constructed, with two gaps that contain highly repetitive regions with no identifiable coding sequence. cDEB11 has been described (Germino et al., 1992). A random library was constructed with sheared cDEB11 DNA and cloned into the SmaI site of pUC 19. This cosmid was sequenced to obtain at least 2-fold coverage.

The products of cycle sequencing were separated on automated sequencers (Applied Biosystems, Incorporated) according to the instructions of the manufacturer, with modifications described below. Because of the difficulty of sequencing certain regions, the standard chemistry needed to be modified. We used both dye terminator and dye primer methods when appropriate for sequencing different regions. We also used a range of polymerases, different melting temperatures, and polymerization conditions to optimize the quality of the sequence. When sequencing across the CpG island at the 5′ end of the *PKD1* gene, we obtained the best sequencing results by adding 5% dimethyl sulfoxide to the polymerization step and sequencing single-stranded templates.

cDNA Library Screening

cDNA clones were identified in two ways. First, fragments of cosmids cGGG10 and cDEB11 were hybridized to five cDNA libraries (lymphoblast, fetal kidney, adult kidney, brain, and teratocarcinoma). Second, each cDNA clone was hybridized to fetal kidney and lymphocyte cDNA libraries to obtain overlapping clones to extend the sequence. The first cDNA used to screen libraries was KG8, which maps to the unique region of the *PKD1* locus and was recovered from an adult lymphocyte library. To obtain the rest of the *PKD1* transcript, 14 new cDNAs were sequenced to completion, 4 cDNAs were partially sequenced, and an additional 20 cDNAs were mapped with respect to cGGG10. Additional data were obtained from polymerase chain reaction (PCR) products of the renal cell carcinoma library as a template (American Type Culture Collection).

Overlapping partial cDNAs described below were isolated from lymphocyte and fetal kidney libraries. In this way, we assembled a 14.5 kb transcript starting from the 3′ end until we reached the CpG island. We assumed we had reached the 5′ end of the transcript, not only because of the presence of the CpG island, but because three cDNAs isolated (UN53, UN54, and UN59, described below) all had the same 5′ end. No further upstream clones were recovered upon further screening (with UN53) the libraries that provided most of the cDNAs used to build the full-length cDNA.

FK7 and FK11 were recovered from a 14–16 week fetal kidney cDNA library by using KG8. This library was oligo(dT) primed and constructed with the Superscript Lambda System (GIBCO BRL). FK7 and FK11 were recovered as SalI inserts. BK156, BK194, and UN49 and UN52 were recovered from a Jurkat library by using FK7 as a probe. UN34 was recovered from the same library by hybridizing a ScaI–SalI probe from the 5′ end of FK7. UN53, UN54, and UN59 were recovered from the same library by double screening for clones that were both negative when probed with an FK7 and positive when screened with BK156 and UN52. This Jurkat library was a gift of the laboratory of M. Owen at the Imperial Cancer Research Fund. NKG11 was recovered from a lymphocyte library screened with cGGG10 and has been described previously (Germino et al., 1992). Fhkb21 was isolated from a fetal kidney library by using BK156 as a probe (Clontech). MSK3 was obtained by probing an adult kidney library (Clontech) with the 5′ end of KG8. MSK4 was obtained by nested reverse transcription–PCR with primers spanning from exons 7 to 8 and exons 13 to 14, followed by a second round of PCR with internal primers in exons 8 and 13.

cDNA Sequencing

The cDNAs were sequenced to 5-fold coverage by primer walking and by subcloning small fragments into M13 or pBluescript. All cDNA sequences were compared with cGGG10 sequence to assess whether they were from the correct locus and to determine intron/exon boundaries. Regions of discrepancy were sequenced again to determine whether the differences were genuine. Some of the cDNAs described above were unequivocally different from the genomic sequence (more than 3 bp difference for every 100 bp), suggesting that these cDNAs were encoded by another locus.

MSK3, FK7, and FK11, obtained by using a *PKD1*-specific probe (KG8), were found to be 100% identical to the genomic sequence. UN49 showed 99% identity and is possibly *PKD1* specific. BK241, BK194, UN52, UN53, UN54 and UN59, BK156, Fhkb21, and NKG11 were 97%–98% homologous to the cGGG10-defined exon sequence and therefore were assumed to have originated from the duplicated loci. In general, differences between genomic and cDNA sequences were nucleotide substitutions scattered throughout the cDNA sequence. One exception is BK194, which has an extra CAG at position 1863 of the published sequence and arose from alternative splicing of exon 33. Another exception is BK241, which has a tandem repeat of TTATCAATACTCTGGCTGACCATCGTCA inserted at position 1840 of the previously published sequence (European Polycystic Kidney Disease Consortium, 1994) and was not included in the full-length cDNA because it arose from a duplicated locus. Except for BK241, cDNAs in the UN and BK series that overlap each other are more similar to themselves than to the cGGG10 sequence.

All sequence assembly was performed by using the Staden package, XBAP (Dear and Staden, 1991).

Protein Homology Searches

The *PKD1* sequence was subjected to a number of sequence analysis approaches (Koonin et al., 1994; Bork et al., 1994). To identify homologs, initial (SwissProt, PIR, GenPept, TREMBL, EMBL, GenBank, and NRDB) database searches were performed by use of the BLAST series of programs (Altschul and Lipman, 1990) by applying a filter for compositionally biased regions (Altschul et al., 1994). By default, the BLOSUM62 amino acid exchange matrix was used (Henikoff and Henikoff, 1993). To detect additional candidate proteins that might be homologous to *PKD1*, the BLOSUM45 and PAM240 matrices were also applied. Putative homologs with a BLAST p value below 0.1 were studied in detail. Multiple alignments of the candidate domains were carried out using CLUSTALW (Thompson et al., 1994), and patterns (Rohde and Bork, 1993), motifs (Tatusov et al., 1994), and profiles (Gribskov et al., 1987) were derived. With all these constructs, iterative database searches were performed. Results of these database searches were used for improving the multiple alignments that were then used for the next round of database searches. The final multiple alignment, containing all retrieved members of a module family, was then used as input for the secondary structure predictions (Rost and Sander, 1994).

Acknowledgments

M. Owen and J. Dunne provided the Jurkat library. The human fetal kidney was obtained from the Medical Research Council fetal tissue bank with permission of the ethics committee. M. C. S. and S. T. R. are funded in part by the National Institute of Diabetes and Digestive and Kidney Diseases. We would like to thank G. G. Germino, K. Harris, N. J. Barton, S. Somlo, D. Weinstat-Saslow, and G. Waterbury for the isolation of KG8 and NKG11. The laboratory of A.-M. F. was funded by the Imperial Cancer Research Fund. M. P. was funded by a Boehringer Ingelheim Foundation fellowship. C. L. has a fellowship from the Deutsche Forschungsgemeinschaft. The Imperial Cancer Research Fund group would like to thank K. Zerres, B. Wirth, A. Poustka, B. Korn, G. Neild, and S. Wood. We also thank the members of the Millennium Pharmaceuticals sequencing core (T. Brody, S. Ellis, P. Paglierani, T. Revett, P. Shu, and S. Yang), L. Berkemeier, J. Pulido, Y.-H. Fu, A. Shyjan, J. Shao, and L. Holmgren for technical assistance. B. M. Brenner, F. Lee, R. Tepper, and L. Reid are thanked for critical reading of this manuscript. M. Levin and T. Clark are thanked for helpful discussions. D. Allison is thanked for her graphic designs.

Received March 30, 1995; revised April 3, 1995.

References

Altschul, S. F., and Lipman, D. J. (1990). Protein database searches for multiple alignments. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA *87*, 5509–5513.

Altschul, S. F., Boguski, M. S., Gish, W., and Wooton, J. C. (1994). Issues in searching molecular sequence databases. Nature Genet. *6*, 119–129.

Antequera, F., and Bird, A. (1993). Number of CpG islands and genes in human and mouse. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA *90*, 11995–11999.

Bezouska, K., Crichlow, G. V., Rose, J. M., Taylor, M. E., and Drickhamer, K. (1991). Evolutionary conservation of intron position in a subfamily of genes encoding carbohydrate-recognition domains. J. Biol. Chem. *226*, 11604–11609.

Bork, P., and Bairoch, A. (1995). Extracellular modules. Trends Biochem. Sci. *20(3)*, poster.

Bork, P., Ouzounis, C., and Sander, C. (1994). From genome sequences to protein function. Curr. Opin. Struct. Biol. *4*, 393–403.

Brockl, G., Behr, M., Fabry, S., Hensel, R., Kaudewitz, H., Biendl, E., and Konig, H. (1991). Analysis and nucleotide sequences of the genes encoding the surface-layer glycoproteins of the hyperthermophilic methanogen *Methanothermus fervidus* and *Methanothermus sociabilis*. Eur. J. Biochem. *199*, 147–152.

Butowski, R. J., Carone, F. A., Grantham, J. J., and Hudson, B. G. (1985). Tubular basement membrane changes in 2-amino-4,5-diphenylthiazol induced polycystic kidney disease. Kidney Int. *28*, 744–751.

Calvet, J. P. (1993). Polycystic kidney: primary extracellular matrix abnormality or effective cellular differentiation? Kidney Int. *43*, 101–108.

Calvet, J. P. (1994). Injury and development in polycystic kidney disease. Curr. Opin. Nephrol. Hyper. *3*, 330–348.

Carone, F. A., Hollenberg, P. F., Nakamura, S., Punyarit, P., Glogowski, W., and Flouret, G. (1989). Tubular basement membrane change occurs pari passu with the development of cyst formation. Kidney Int. *35*, 1034–1040.

Carone, F. A., Nakamura, S., Bacallao, R., Nelson, W. J., and Kanwar, Y. S. (1993). Cell polarity in human renal cystic disease. Lab. Invest. *70*, 648–655.

Carone, F. A., Bacallao, R., and Kanwar, Y. S. (1994). Biology of polycystic kidney disease. Lab. Invest. *70*, 437–448.

Daoust, M. C., Reynolds, D. M., Bichet, D. G., Somlo, S. (1995). Evidence for a third genetic locus for autosomal dominant polycystic kidney disease. Genomics *25*, 733–736.

Dear, S., and Staden, R. (1991). A sequence assembly and editing program for efficient management of large projects. Nucl. Acids Res. *19*, 3907–3911.

Doolittle, R. F., and Bork, P. (1993). Evolutionary mobile modules in proteins. Sci. Am. *269*, 50–56.

Drickamer, K. (1988). Two distinct classes of carbohydrate-recognition domains in animal lectins. J. Biol. Chem. *263*, 9557–9561.

Dvergsten, J., Manivel, J. C., Correa-Rotter, R., and Rosenberg, M. E. (1994). Expression of clustering in human renal diseases. Kidney Int. *45*, 828–835.

European Chromosome 16 Tuberous Sclerosis Consortium (1993). Identification and characterization of the tuberous sclerosis gene on chromosome 16. Cell *75*, 1305–1315.

European Polycystic Kidney Disease Consortium (1994). The polycystic kidney disease 1 gene encodes a 14 kb transcript and lies within a duplicated region on chromosome 16. Cell *77*, 881–894.

Evan, A. P., Gardner, K. D., and Grantham, J. J. (1979). Polypoid and papillary hyperplasia: a potential cause of ductal obstruction in adult polycystic kidney disease. Kidney Int. *16*, 743–750.

Fossdal, R., Bothvarsson, M., Amundsson, P., Ragnarsson, J., Peters, D., Breuning, M. H., and Jensson, O. (1993). Icelandic families with autosomal dominant polycystic kidney disease: families unlinked to chromosome 16p13.3 revealed by linkage analysis. Hum. Genet. *91*, 609–613.

Gabow, P. A. (1990). Autosomal dominant polycystic kidney disease: more than a renal disease. Am. J. Kidney Dis. *16*, 403–413.

Germino, G. G., Weinstat-Saslow, D., Himmelbauer, H., Gillespie, G. A. J., Somlo, S., Wirth, B., Barton, N., Harris, K. L., Frischauf, A.-M., and Reeders, S. T. (1992). The gene for autosomal dominant polycystic kidney disease lies in a 750 kb CpG-rich region. Genomics *13*, 144–151.

Grantham, J. J. (1990). Polycystic kidney disease: neoplasia in disguise. Am. J. Kid. Dis. *15*, 110–116.

Gribskov, M., McLachlan, A. D., and Eisenberg, D. (1987). Profile analysis: detection of distantly related proteins. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA *84*, 4355–4358.

Hashimoto, C., Hudson, K. L., and Anderson, K. V. (1988). The *Toll* gene of Drosophila, required for dorsal–ventral embryonic polarity, appears to encode a transmembrane protein. Cell *52*, 269–279.

Haverty, T. P., and Neilson, E. G. (1988). Basement membrane gene expression in polycystic kidney disease. Lab. Invest. *58*, 245–248.

Henikoff, S., and Henikoff, J. G. (1993). Performance evaluation of amino acid substitution matrices. Proteins *17*, 97–61.

Himmelbauer, H., Germino, G. G., Ceccherini, I., Romeo, G., Reeders, S. T., and Frischauf, A. M. (1991). Saturating the region of the polycystic kidney disease gene with NotI linking clones. Am. J. Hum. Genet. *48*, 325–334. Erratum: Am. J. Hum. Genet. *48*, 1017.

Hynes, R. O. (1992). Integrins: versatility, modulation, and signals in cell adhesion. Cell *69*, 11–25.

Kimberling, W. J., Kumar, S., Gabow, P. A., Keynon, J. B., Connolly, C. J., and Somlo, S. (1993). Autosomal polycystic kidney disease: localization of the second gene to chromosome 4q13-q23. Genomics *18*, 467–472.

Klingel, R., Ramadori, G., Schuppan, D., Knittel, T. K. H., Meyer zum Buschenfelde, K. H., and Kohler, H. (1993). Co-expression of extracellular matrix glycoproteins undulin and tenascin in human autosomal dominant polycystic kidney disease. Nephron *65*, 111–118.

Kobe, B., and Deisenhofer, J. (1994). The leucine-rich repeat: a versatile binding motif. Trends. Biochem. Sci. *19*, 415–421.

Kobe, B., and Deisenhofer, J. (1995). A structural basis of the interactions between leucine-rich repeats and protein ligands. Nature *374*, 183–186.

Kontusaari, S., Tromp, G., Kuivaniemi, H., Romanic, A. M., and Prockop, D. J. (1990). A mutation in the gene for type III procollagen (COL3A1) in a family with aortic aneurysms. J. Clin. Invest. *86*, 1465–1473.

Koonin, E. V., Bork, P., and Sanders, C. (1994). Yeast chromosome III: new gene functions. EMBO J. *13*, 493–503.

Kozak, M. (1984). Compilation and analysis of sequences upstream

from the translational start site in eukaryotic mRNAs. Nucl. Acids Res. *12*, 857–872.

Krieger, M., and Herz, J. (1994). Structures and functions of multiligand lipoprotein receptors. Annu. Rev. Biochem. *63*, 601–637.

Kwon, B. S. (1993). Pigmentation genes: the tyrosinase gene family and the pmel 17 gene family. J. Invest. Derm. (Suppl.) *100*, 134–140.

Mochii, M., Agata, K., and Eguchi, G. (1991). Complete sequence and expression of a cDNA encoding a chicken 115 kD melanosomal matrix protein. Pigment Cell Res. *4*, 41–47.

Myers, K. A., Rahi-Saund, V., Davison, M. D., Young, J. A., Cheaters, A. J., and Stern, P. L. (1994). Isolation of a cDNA encoding 5T4 oncofetal trophoblast glycoprotein. J. Biol. Chem. *269*, 9319–9324.

Peters, D. J. M., Spruit, L., Saris, J. J., Ravine, D., Sandkuijl, L. A., Fossdal, R., Boersma, J., Vaneijk, R., Norby, S., and Constantinoudeltas, C. D. (1993). Chromosome 4 localization of a second gene for autosomal-dominant polycystic kidney disease. Nature Genet. *5*, 359–362.

Reeders, S. T. (1992). Multilocus polycystic disease. Nature Genetics *1*, 235–237.

Reeders, S. T., Breuning, M. H., Davies, K. E., Nicholls, D. R., Jarman, A. J., Higgs, D. R., Pearson, P. L., and Weatherall, D. J. (1985). A highly polymorphic DNA marker linked to adult polycystic kidney disease on chromosome 16. Nature *317*, 542–544.

Rodriguez-Boulan, E., and Nelson, W. J. (1989). Morphogenesis of the polarized epithelial cell phenotype. Science *247*, 718–725.

Rohde, K., and Bork, P. (1993). A fast, sensitive pattern-matching approach for protein sequences. Comput. Appl. Biosci. *9*, 183–189.

Rost, B., and Sander, C. (1994). Combining evolutionary information and neural networks to predict protein secondary structure. Proteins *19*, 55–72.

Roth, G. J. (1991). Developing relationships: arterial platelet adhesion, glycoprotein Ib, and leucine-rich glycoproteins. Blood *77*, 5–19.

Rothberg, J. M., Jacobs, J. R., Goodman, C. S., and Artavanis-Tsakonas, S. (1990). Slit: an extracellular protein necessary for development of midline glia and commissural axon pathways contains both EGF and LRR domains. Genes Dev. *4*, 2169–2187.

Ruoslahti, E., and Pierschbacher, M. D. (1987). New perspectives in cell adhesion: RGD and integrins. Science *238*, 491–539.

Schneider, R., and Schweider, M. (1991). A novel modular mosaic of cell adhesion motifs in the extracellular domains of the neurogeneic trk and trk B tyrosine kinase receptors. Oncogene *6*, 1807–1811.

Snarey, A., Thomas, S., Schneider, M. C., Pound, S. E., Barton, N., Wright, A. S., Somlo, S., Germino, G. G., Harris, P. C., Reeders, S. T., and Frischauf, A.-M. (1994). Linkage disequilibrium in the PKD1 region. Am. J. Hum. Genet. *55*, 365–371.

Somlo, S., Wirth, B., Germino, G. G., Weinstat-Saslow, D., Gillespie, G. A., Himmelbauer, H., Steevens, L., Coucke, P., Willems, P., Bachner, L., Coto, E., Lopez-Larrea, C., Peral, B., San Millan, J. L., Lavinha, J., Saris, J. J., Breuning, M. H., Frischauf, A.-M., and Reeders, S. T. (1992). Fine genetic localization of the gene for autosomal dominant polycystic kidney disease (*PKD1*) with respect to physically mapped markers. Genomics *13*, 152–158.

Sudhof, T. C., Goldstein, J. L., Brown, M. S., and Russell, D. W. (1985). The LDL receptor gene: a mosaic of exons shared with different proteins. Science *228*, 815–822.

Tatusov, R. L., Altschul, S. F., and Koonin, E. V. (1994). Detection of conserved segments in proteins: iterative scanning of sequence databases with alignment blocks. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA *91*, 12091–12095.

Thompson, J. D., Higgins, D. G., and Gibson, T. (1994). CLUSTALW: improving the sensitivity of progressive multiple sequence alignment through sequence weighting, position-specific gap penalties and weight matrix choice. Nucl. Acids Res. *22*, 4673–4680.

Tsipouras, P., Del Mastro, R., Sararazi, M., Lee, B., Vitale, E., Child, A. H., Godfrey, M., Devereux, R. B., Hewett, D., Steinmann, B., Viljoen, D. L., Sykes, B., Kilpatrick, M., Ramirez, F., and the International Marfan Syndrome Collaborative Study (1992). Linkage analysis demonstrates that Marfan syndrome, dominant ectopia lentis and congenital contractural arachnodactyly are linked to the fibrillin genes on chromosomes 15 and 5. N. Engl. J. Med. *326*, 905–909.

von Hejne, G. (1986). A new method for predicting signal sequence cleavage sites. Nucl. Acids Res. *14*, 4683–4690.

Weis, W. I., Quesenbery, M. S., Taylor, M. E., Bezouska, K., Hendrickson, W. A., and Drickhamer, K. (1992). Molecular mechanisms of complex carbohydrate recognition at the cell surface. Cold Spring Harbor Symp. Quant. Biol. *57*, 281–289.

Welling, L. W., and Grantham, J. J. (1972). Physical properties of isolated perfused renal tubules and tubular basement membranes. J. Clin. Invest. *51*, 1063–1075.

Weterman, M. A. J., Ajubi, N., van Dinter, I., Degen, W., van Muijen, G., Ruiter, D. J., and Bloemers, H. P. J. (1995). *nmb*, a novel gene, is expressed in low-metastatic human melanoma cell lines and xenografts. Int. J. Cancer *60*, 73–81.

Wilson, P. D., Schrier, R. W., Breckon, R. D., and Gabow, P. A. (1986). A new method for studying human polycystic kidney disease epithelia in culture. Kidney Int. *30*, 371–378.

Wilson, P. D., Sherwood, A. C., Palla, K., Du, J., Watson, R., and Norman, J. T. (1991). Reversed polarity of Na^+, K^+-ATPase: mislocation to apical plasma membranes in polycystic kidney disease epithelia. Am. J. Physiol. *260*, F420–F430.

Wilson, R., Ainscough, R., Anderson, K., Baynes, C., Berks, M., Bonfield, J., Burton, J., Connell, M., Copsey, T., Cooper, J., et al. (1994). 2.2 Mb of contiguous nucleotide sequence from chromosome III of *C. elegans*. Nature *368*, 32–38.

Yao, R., Macario, A. J. L., and Conway, E. (1994). An archaeal S-layer gene homolog with repetitive subunits. Biochim. Biophys. Acta *1219*, 697–700.

Yoshihara, K., Matsushita, O., Minami, J., and Okabe, A. (1994). Cloning and nucleotide sequence analysis of the *colH* gene from *Clostridium histolyticum* encoding a collagenase and a gelatinase. J. Bacteriol. *176*, 6489–6496.

GenBank Accession Numbers

The accession numbers for the sequences reported in this paper are as follows: for the open reading frame, U24499; for the cDNA, U24497; and for the genomic region, U24498.