

Internal Duplication and Homology with Bacterial Transport Proteins in the *mdr1* (P-Glycoprotein) Gene from Multidrug-Resistant Human Cells

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Summary

Resistance of tumor cells to multiple cytotoxic drugs is a major impediment to cancer chemotherapy. Multidrug resistance in human cells is determined by the *mdr1* gene, encoding a high molecular weight membrane glycoprotein (P-glycoprotein). Complete primary structure of human P-glycoprotein has been determined from the cDNA sequence. The protein, 1280 amino acids long, consists of two homologous parts of approximately equal length. Each half of the protein includes a hydrophobic region with six predicted transmembrane segments and a hydrophilic region. The hydrophilic regions share homology with peripheral membrane components of bacterial active transport systems and include potential nucleotide-binding sites. These results are consistent with a function for P-glycoprotein as an energy-dependent efflux pump responsible for decreased drug accumulation in multidrug-resistant cells.

Introduction

Multidrug-resistant mammalian cells are characterized by cross-resistance to many lipophilic cytotoxic compounds, including various plant alkaloids and anti-tumor antibiotics. The widespread occurrence of multidrug resistance in tumor cells represents a major impediment to successful cancer chemotherapy, since it involves resistance to some of the most commonly used antineoplastic agents. Analysis of different multidrug-resistant cell lines has indicated that this phenomenon is due to decreased drug accumulation in the resistant cells (reviewed by Riordan and Ling, 1985). Studies of drug transport in different multidrug-resistant cell lines have suggested that decreased drug accumulation in the resistant cells results at least in part from an increased rate of drug efflux occurring by an energy-dependent mechanism, since drug accumulation is enhanced by metabolic inhibitors (Dano, 1973; Skovsgaard, 1978; Inaba et al., 1979; Fojo et al., 1985; Willingham et al., 1986). These studies have led to the concept of an efflux pump responsible for the removal of vari-

ous lipophilic compounds from multidrug-resistant cells (Dano, 1973). Other mechanisms for multidrug resistance have been proposed, including decreased drug influx (Skovsgaard, 1978; Ling et al., 1983) and altered drug binding in the resistant cells (Beck et al., 1983).

The most common biochemical characteristic of multidrug-resistant cells is the increased expression of a membrane glycoprotein with a molecular weight of approximately 170 kd, termed P-glycoprotein (Juliano and Ling, 1976; Kartner et al., 1983). In some studies, high molecular weight glycoproteins appear as a heterogeneous group in multidrug-resistant cells (Peterson et al., 1983), but it is unknown whether this heterogeneity reflects different proteins or variations in the oligosaccharides attached to the same P-glycoprotein. The size of P-glycoprotein in the absence of N-glycosylation has been estimated as approximately 140 kd (Ling et al., 1983). Using cDNA clones for the hamster P-glycoprotein, several investigators have shown that the P-glycoprotein gene is amplified in multidrug-resistant cell lines, and that gene amplification is accompanied by increased expression of 4.5-5.0 kb P-glycoprotein mRNA. Differential amplification of DNA sequences hybridizing to P-glycoprotein clones has suggested that P-glycoproteins may be encoded by a multigene family (Riordan et al., 1985; van der Bliek et al., 1986; Scotto et al., 1986). The P-glycoprotein gene has been mapped to the human chromosome 7 (Trent et al., 1985). It has been speculated that P-glycoprotein may be directly involved in drug transport in multidrug-resistant cells, either as an efflux pump or by changing permeability of the lipid bilayer (Riordan and Ling, 1985). Studies using photoaffinity-labeled analogues of vinblastine have provided direct evidence for drug binding by P-glycoprotein (Cornwell et al., 1986; Safa et al., 1986).

We have previously used the in-gel DNA renaturation procedure (Roninson, 1983) to clone a Chinese hamster gene, designated *mdr*, which spans approximately 80 kb of DNA and is amplified in two independently derived multidrug-resistant Chinese hamster cell lines (Roninson et al., 1984; Gros et al., 1986a). Using the hamster *mdr* gene as a probe, we have cloned segments of two cross-hybridizing human genes that were amplified in multidrug-resistant derivatives of KB epidermoid carcinoma cells (Roninson et al., 1986). One of these genes, designated *mdr1*, is amplified and/or overexpressed in human cell lines of different origins, selected with different cytotoxic drugs (Shen et al., 1986a), as well as in certain normal and tumor tissues (A. Fojo, K. Ueda, D. J. Slamon, D. G. Poplack, H. R. Keiser, M. M. Gottesman, and I. Pastan, submitted). The human *mdr1* gene is transferred and amplified in multidrug-resistant transfectants of mouse NIH 3T3 cells, transfected with DNA from multidrug-resistant human cells (Shen et al., 1986c). Recently Gros et al. (1986b) have demonstrated that the expression of a full-length mouse *mdr* cDNA clone confers a complete multidrug-resistant phenotype onto sensitive cells. Several properties of the *mdr1* gene suggest that it is a

member of the P-glycoprotein gene family. These properties include the size of *mdr1* mRNA (4.5 kb; Roninson et al., 1986; Shen et al., 1986a), its localization on chromosome 7 (Fojo et al., 1986), and amplification of *mdr1* in the cell lines that have amplified the P-glycoprotein gene or overproduced P-glycoprotein (Roninson et al., 1984; Riordan et al., 1985; Shen et al., 1986a, 1986b). Identification of *mdr1* as a human P-glycoprotein gene has been recently confirmed by cross-hybridization between P-glycoprotein and *mdr1* cDNA clones (K. Ueda, M. M. Gottesman, I. Pastan, I. B. Roninson, V. Ling, and J. R. Riordan, unpublished).

In the present communication, we report the complete cDNA sequence of the human *mdr1* gene. The protein encoded by the *mdr1* gene consists of two approximately equal parts that are homologous to each other. Both parts contain a hydrophobic and a hydrophilic domain. Each hydrophobic domain includes six potential transmembrane segments, whereas the hydrophilic domains share sequence homology with peripheral membrane components of bacterial periplasmic transport systems and include potential nucleotide-binding sites. The predicted membrane orientation of the protein and homology with bacterial active transport proteins are consistent with the function of P-glycoprotein as an efflux pump responsible for decreased drug accumulation in multidrug-resistant cells.

Results and Discussion

mdr1 cDNA Sequence

Construction of the cDNA library from multidrug-resistant KB-C2.5 cells and isolation of *mdr1* cDNA clones will be described in detail elsewhere (K. Ueda, D. P. Clark, C.-J. Chen, I. B. Roninson, M. M. Gottesman, and I. Pastan, submitted). Briefly, a cDNA library in the λ gt11 phage vector (Young and Davis, 1983), prepared from multidrug-resistant KB-C2.5 cells (Akiyama et al., 1985; Shen et al., 1986b), was screened with a probe (pMDR1) containing a 0.8 kb PvuII fragment of the *mdr1* genomic clone pHDR4.4 (Roninson et al., 1986). cDNA clones containing the longest inserts were designated λ HDR69A, λ HDR28, λ HDR10, and λ HDR5 (Figure 1). Restriction enzyme mapping has indicated considerable sequence heterogeneity among different clones hybridizing with pMDR1, even though all the clones contained the same 267 bp PvuII fragment, which hybridized to the genomic probe. Partial DNA sequencing has shown that clones λ HDR10 and λ HDR5, as well as several other clones (not shown), contain identical overlapping sequences, and therefore most likely represent the major species of *mdr1* mRNA. The clones λ HDR69A and λ HDR28, on the other hand, appear to represent rare variants, which in the case of λ HDR69A have resulted from aberrant RNA splicing (J. E. Chin, and I. B. Roninson, unpublished). The rest of the *mdr1* cDNA sequence has been isolated by screening the library with a 638 bp terminal fragment of λ HDR5 (indicated with a striped bar in Figure 1). The resulting clones λ HDR103, λ HDR104, and λ HDR105 showed no divergence from each other or from clone λ HDR5 either in their restriction

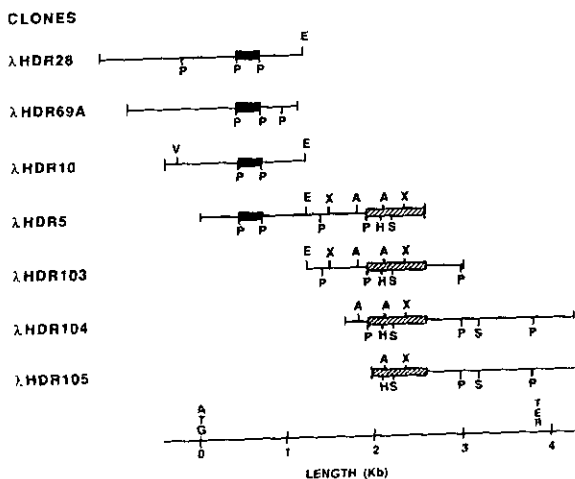


Figure 1. Restriction Maps of *mdr1* cDNA Clones

Restriction sites: A, AccI; E, EcoRI; H, HindIII; P, PvuII; S, SstI; V, AvaI; X, XmnI. The solid bar indicates the region hybridizing to the genomic pMDR1 probe (Roninson et al., 1986); the striped bar corresponds to the fragment of clone λ HDR5 that was used as a probe to isolate the clones containing 3' terminal sequences. Positions of the translation initiation (ATG) and translation termination (TER) sites are indicated.

maps or in partial DNA sequences, except for a variant 12 bp sequence at the 5' end of clone λ HDR105, which could result from a cloning artifact. Clones λ HDR10, λ HDR5, and λ HDR104 were sequenced in their entirety on both strands, providing a nearly full-length cDNA sequence for *mdr1*. It should be noted that since this sequence was determined from three different overlapping clones and not from a single cDNA molecule, there is a formal possibility that the 5' and 3' parts of this sequence have not necessarily been derived from the same mRNA.

The 4669 bp sequence of *mdr1* cDNA is shown in Figure 2. The sequence contains a long open reading frame between positions -177 and 3840, where position 1 has been assigned to the first ATG codon in the cDNA sequence. This codon is preceded by a purine nucleotide at position -3, found at almost all functional initiation codons in eukaryotic mRNA (Kozak, 1984). The size of the protein encoded by the open reading frame is 1280 amino acids, with a calculated molecular weight of 141,475 daltons, which is in good agreement with the estimated size of the polypeptide moiety of P-glycoprotein (Ling et al., 1983).

To confirm that the cDNA clones were in fact derived from *mdr1* and not from another member of the *mdr* gene family, the *mdr1* genomic clone pHDR4.4 has been sequenced in the region that hybridized to the cDNA clones. Figure 3 shows that the genomic and cDNA clones contain two identical exon sequences, corresponding to residues 339-530 and 531-702 of the cDNA. The 808 bp PvuII fragment, corresponding to the pMDR1 clone used in earlier studies (Shen et al., 1986a) as a probe for *mdr1* mRNA expression, includes 267 bp of exon sequences and a 541 bp intron.

Figure 2. *mdr1* cDNA Sequence

Intron | exon
 PHDR.4
 cDNA
 TTTCTTTTTCAGCTATGCCCTATTATTACAGTGGAAATTGGTCTGGGGTCTGGTTGCTGCTTACATTCAGGTTTCATTTTGGTGCCCTGGCAGCTGGGAAGACAAATACACAAAATTAGAAAA
 330 340 350 360 370 380 390 400 410 420 430 440
 GACATGACCAAGGATATGCCCTATTATTACAGTGGAAATTGGTCTGGGGTCTGGTTGCTGCTTACATTCAGGTTTCATTTTGGTGCCCTGGCAGCTGGGAAGACAAATACACAAAATTAGAAAA
 PHDR.4
 cDNA
 CAGTTTTTTCATGCTATAATGCGACAGGAGATAGGCTGGTTTGATGTGCACGATGTTGGGGAGCTTAACACCCGACTTACAGAGTAAGTATTAGTTTATGTGTGAACCTTGGGTGCTGTT
 450 460 470 480 490 500 510 520 530
 CAGTTTTTTCATGCTATAATGCGACAGGAGATAGGCTGGTTTGATGTGCACGATGTTGGGGAGCTTAACACCCGACTTACAGAGTAAGTATTAGTTTATGTGTGAACCTTGGGTGCTGTT
 PHDR.4
 cDNA
 CTTATCCITAGTAAATGAAATAGATGTCATCACAATCTGTTAGGAGGGTGAATGATCATTCAAAGGTACTTATGAGACAAAATTCCTCTAAGCAGCAACAATGTCGTGTCATCCTT
 PHDR.4
 cDNA
 TTGTTCCCAAGTGCCTTGACAGGGTATGGGGGACCTGCATGACTAGCATTAAATGAAGACTGGGCTTCCAGAATGAAGAAATCCTCTGAGAATGTGCAGTAGAGCAAAAACAGATACT
 PHDR.4
 cDNA
 TTCTGAGGAAATTTCTGAGCAATTTGAAATTCCTAGGTTCAATACTTCTTGTGTACACGATGTCATTTCCTGGGGCCATGCGCTATGGATTTTGTGTTAATGACAAATATCCTAGT
 PHDR.4
 cDNA
 AGAAACTTCTACCCCTGCTAAATAAAACAAAGCATAGGCACAAAATACTCTAGCCATAAATACCCCTACACTCAAAACAGGCTTCAGGAGAAAAGTTGATGTTTACAATTTCTGACAATTAT
 Intron | exon
 PHDR.4
 cDNA
 TTCTAACACTATCTGTTCTTTTTCAGTGTCTCTAAGATTAAATGAAGTATTGGTGACAAAATTGGAATGTTCTTTTCAGTCAATGGCAACATTTTTCAGTGGGTTTATAGTAGGATTAC
 540 550 560 570 580 590 600 610 620
 TGATGTCTCTAAGATTAAATGAAGTATTGGTGACAAAATTGGAATGTTCTTTTCAGTCAATGGCAACATTTTTCAGTGGGTTTATAGTAGGATTAC
 PvuII
 PHDR.4
 cDNA
 ACGTGGTTGGAAGCTAACCTTGTGATTTTGCCATCAGTCTGTCTTGGAGTGTGAGTGTGCTGCTGGGCAAAAGTAGGTGAAGCCTGTGAATCCAGATTTTGAACGTGACCTTCTCC
 630 640 650 660 670 680 690 700 710 720 730 740
 ACGTGGTTGGAAGCTAACCTTGTGATTTTGCCATCAGTCTGTCTTGGAGTGTGAGTGTGCTGCTGGGCAAAAGTAGGTGAAGCCTGTGAATCCAGATTTTGAACGTGACCTTCTCC

The first intron/exon boundary is shown three residues 3' from the start of sequence homology, on the assumption that the actual boundary occurs at the conventional AG/GT splice site. PvuII sites flanking the previously described pMDR1 subclone (Roninson et al., 1986) are indicated with arrows.

Analysis of the primary structure of the *mdr1* gene product reveals that this protein consists of two approximately equal parts sharing considerable amino acid sequence homology with each other. An alignment of the N-terminal (residues 1–637) and C-terminal (residues 638–1280) halves of the protein is shown in Figure 4. For an optimal

alignment, two large gaps (11 and 19 residues) and four small gaps (1–2 residues) had to be introduced. Of the amino acids aligned, 43% (263 out of 613) are identical. Another 215 (35%) represent pairs of functionally similar residues, defined as having a "relative rate of acceptance of point mutations" (Dayhoff et al., 1972) larger than 20. At the DNA level, the homology is 52%, using the same

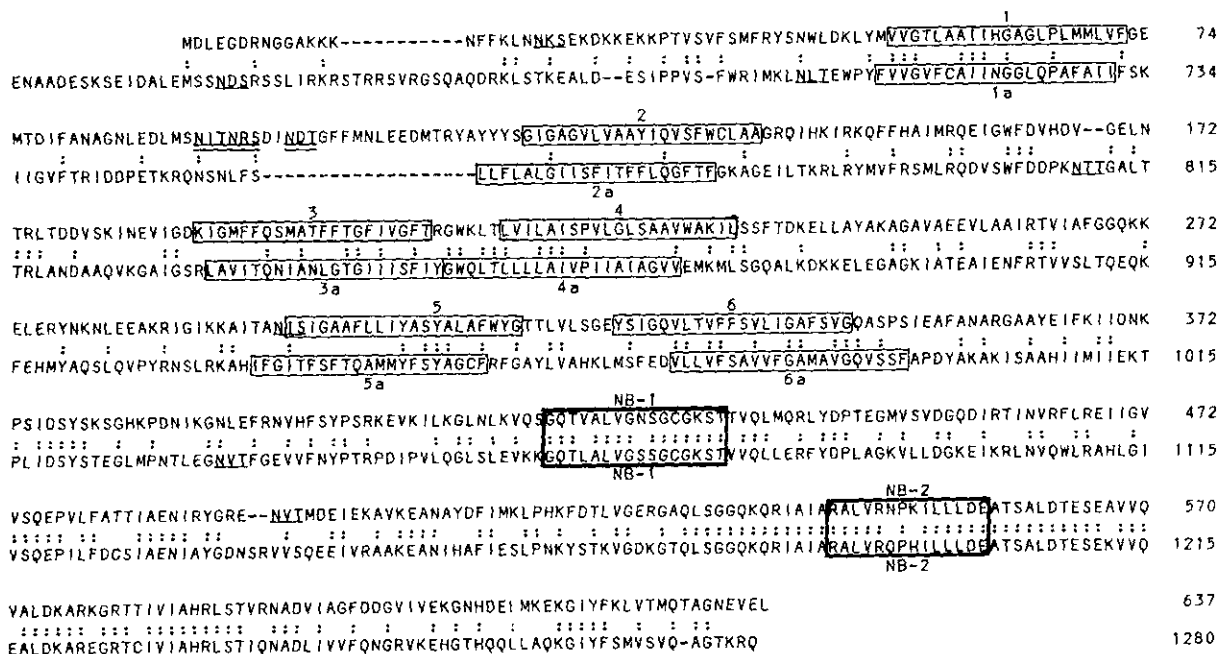


Figure 4. Primary Structure of the *mdr1* Gene Product and Alignment of the N-Terminal and C-Terminal Halves

The standard single-letter amino acid code is used. Colons indicate identical residues. Potential N-glycosylation sites (Asn-X-Ser/Thr) are underlined; the sites localized in the predicted extracytoplasmic region (see Figure 7) are underlined twice. Potential transmembrane segments (1-6 and 1a-6a), predicted by the algorithm of Eisenberg et al. (1984), are enclosed in thin boxes. Potential nucleotide-binding sites (NB-1 and NB-2) are enclosed in thick boxes.

alignment as for the protein sequences. The level of homology is considerably higher in the C-terminal than in the N-terminal parts of the aligned sequences. Two pairs of segments have a particularly high homology level. These include residues 529-591 and 1174-1236 (56 identical residues out of 62), as well as residues 419-446 and 1061-1088 (21 out of 27 identical residues). These segments contain the potential nucleotide-binding sites, NB-1 and NB-2, which are described below. The internal homology in the *mdr1* cDNA sequence suggests that the *mdr1* gene has likely arisen as a consequence of an internal duplication.

The similarity of the N-terminal and C-terminal halves of the protein is also obvious from their hydropathy plots (Kyte and Doolittle, 1982; Figure 5). Based on the hydropathy plots, each half of the protein can be subdivided into a short hydrophilic region at the N-terminus, a long hydrophobic region and a long relatively hydrophilic region near the C-terminus. These regions are referred to as the N-terminus (residues 1-48), hydrophobic region 1 (residues 49-350), and hydrophilic region 1 (residues 351-637) in the N-terminal half, and as the linker (residues 638-708), hydrophobic region 2 (residues 709-993), and hydrophilic region 2 (residues 994-1280) in the C-terminal half. The protein sequence of *mdr1* was further analyzed for the presence of potential transmembrane domains using the algorithm of Eisenberg et al. (1984), which can distinguish membrane-spanning regions from hydrophobic cores of globular proteins. This analysis has predicted six 21 amino acid long transmembrane domains within

each hydrophobic region of the *mdr1* protein. The transmembrane segments are designated 1-6 and 1a-6a in Figure 4 and Figure 5. The imprecise alignment of the transmembrane segments between the N-terminal and C-terminal halves (Figure 4) suggests that this assay does not provide exact delineation of the membrane-spanning domains. The assignment of the termini of transmembrane segments in our model should therefore be viewed only as approximate. The average hydropathy of these segments according to the scale of Eisenberg et al. (1984) ranges from 0.55 (segment 3) to 0.81 (segments 2a and 4a), well above 0.42, the minimum value of hydropathy for transmembrane segments. The predicted transmembrane localization of the *mdr1* gene product is consistent with its identification as the human P-glycoprotein. Analysis of the amphiphilicity of the transmembrane segments by a hydrophobic moment plot (Eisenberg et al., 1984) has indicated that most transmembrane segments of *mdr1* are more amphiphilic than the corresponding segments in proteins that span the membrane only once (data not shown). However, similar values of amphiphilicity have been observed in other proteins containing multiple transmembrane segments, including some channel-forming proteins (Eisenberg et al., 1984).

Homology to Bacterial Transport Proteins

The National Biomedical Research Foundation (Georgetown University) database was used to search for homology between *mdr1* and other protein sequences. The sequences of hydrophilic regions 1 and 2 were found to

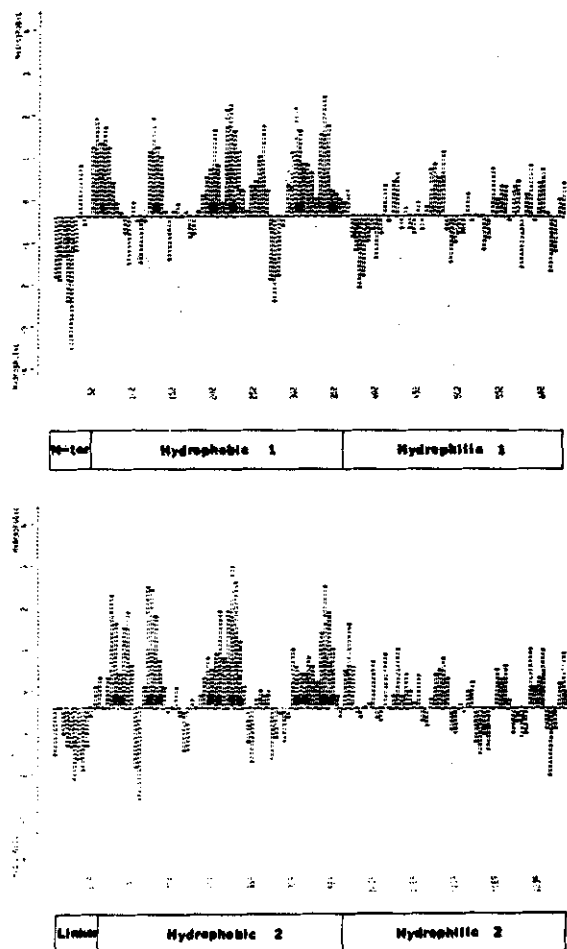


Figure 5. Hydropathy Plots of the N-Terminal and C-Terminal Halves of Human P-Glycoprotein

The plots were derived using the algorithm of Kyte and Doolittle (1982). Each point corresponds to an average of the hydropathic indices of 9 consecutive amino acids. Positions of potential transmembrane segments (1-6; 1a-6a), identified as described by Eisenberg et al. (1984), are indicated. The joined boxes depict the hydrophilic and hydrophobic domains in each half of the protein (see text for detailed description).

share significant homology with bacterial proteins *hisP* of *Salmonella typhimurium* (Higgins et al., 1982) and *malK* of *E. coli* (Gilson et al., 1982). These proteins are peripheral membrane components of periplasmic active transport systems for histidine, lysine, arginine, and ornithine (*hisP*; Higgins et al., 1982) or maltose and maltodextrins (*malK*; Gilson et al., 1982). Homology with *mdr1* has also been found in recently published sequences of two other bacterial proteins with similar transport functions: *oppD* protein of the oligopeptide permease complex of *Salmonella* (Higgins et al., 1985) and *pstB* protein of the phosphate-specific transport complex of *E. coli* (Surin et al., 1985). Different bacterial periplasmic transport systems are characterized by a similar organization (Ames and Higgins, 1983). Within these multicomponent systems, *hisP*, *malK*, *oppD*, and *pstB* proteins correspond to relatively hydrophilic peripheral membrane components. These proteins interact with periplasmic substrate-bind-

ing proteins (*hisJ* or *LAO* in the case of *hisP*), as well as with hydrophobic integral membrane proteins (*hisQ* and *hisM* in the case of *hisP*). The interaction with integral membrane proteins is apparently required for membrane association of the peripheral membrane components (Shuman and Silhavy, 1981). *hisP*, *malK*, and *oppD* have been tentatively identified as the energy-coupling components in their respective active transport systems. This identification has been made on the basis of their capacity to bind ATP and from the presence of a consensus nucleotide-binding sequence in these proteins (Hobson et al., 1984; Higgins et al., 1985). As shown below, the same nucleotide-binding sequence is also present in the *pstB* protein.

A pairwise alignment of the *hisP* and *mdr1* proteins (not shown) has indicated that approximately 33% of all residues of the *hisP* protein can be matched with identical residues of *mdr1*, and another 28% match with functionally similar residues. Similar levels of homology were observed with *malK*, *oppD*, and *pstB* proteins. To identify the most highly conserved regions between bacterial transport proteins and *mdr1*, we have prepared a multiple alignment of the amino acid sequences of hydrophilic regions 1 and 2 and all four bacterial proteins (Figure 6). The highest level of homology is observed in the regions designated NB-1 and NB-2. These regions correspond to two parts of the nucleotide-binding fold (Walker et al., 1982), which has been previously detected in the *hisP*, *malK*, and *oppD* proteins (Higgins et al., 1985). In Figure 6, NB-1 and NB-2 regions have been aligned with the corresponding sequences of several known nucleotide-binding enzymes. The sequences of NB-1 and NB-2 are in agreement with the consensus sequence of a nucleotide-binding site, as identified by Walker et al. (1982). Though the highest homology between *mdr1* and bacterial periplasmic transport proteins is observed within the nucleotide-binding sites, the homology is not limited to these sites. On the other hand, no significant homology outside of NB-1 and NB-2 regions could be detected between *mdr1* and any other nucleotide-binding proteins, suggesting that the homology of *mdr1* with periplasmic transport proteins indicates additional functional similarities aside from the potential nucleotide-binding properties.

Figure 7 shows a hypothetical model for membrane orientation of the human P-glycoprotein. This model is based on the predictions of transmembrane segments 1-6 and 1a-6a by the algorithm of Eisenberg et al. (1984). The protein is oriented so that the potential nucleotide-binding folds are located on the cytoplasmic side. This orientation is in agreement with the results of Kartner et al. (1985), who have used antibodies against the C-terminal region of hamster P-glycoprotein to show that the C-terminus is located inside the cell. The protein sequence of *mdr1* contains ten potential N-glycosylation sites, Asn-X-Ser/Thr (Kornfeld and Kornfeld, 1985). Seven of these sites are, according to our model, located on the cytoplasmic side of the membrane, and therefore are not expected to be glycosylated. The remaining three sites, corresponding to residues 91-93, 94-96, and 99-102, are

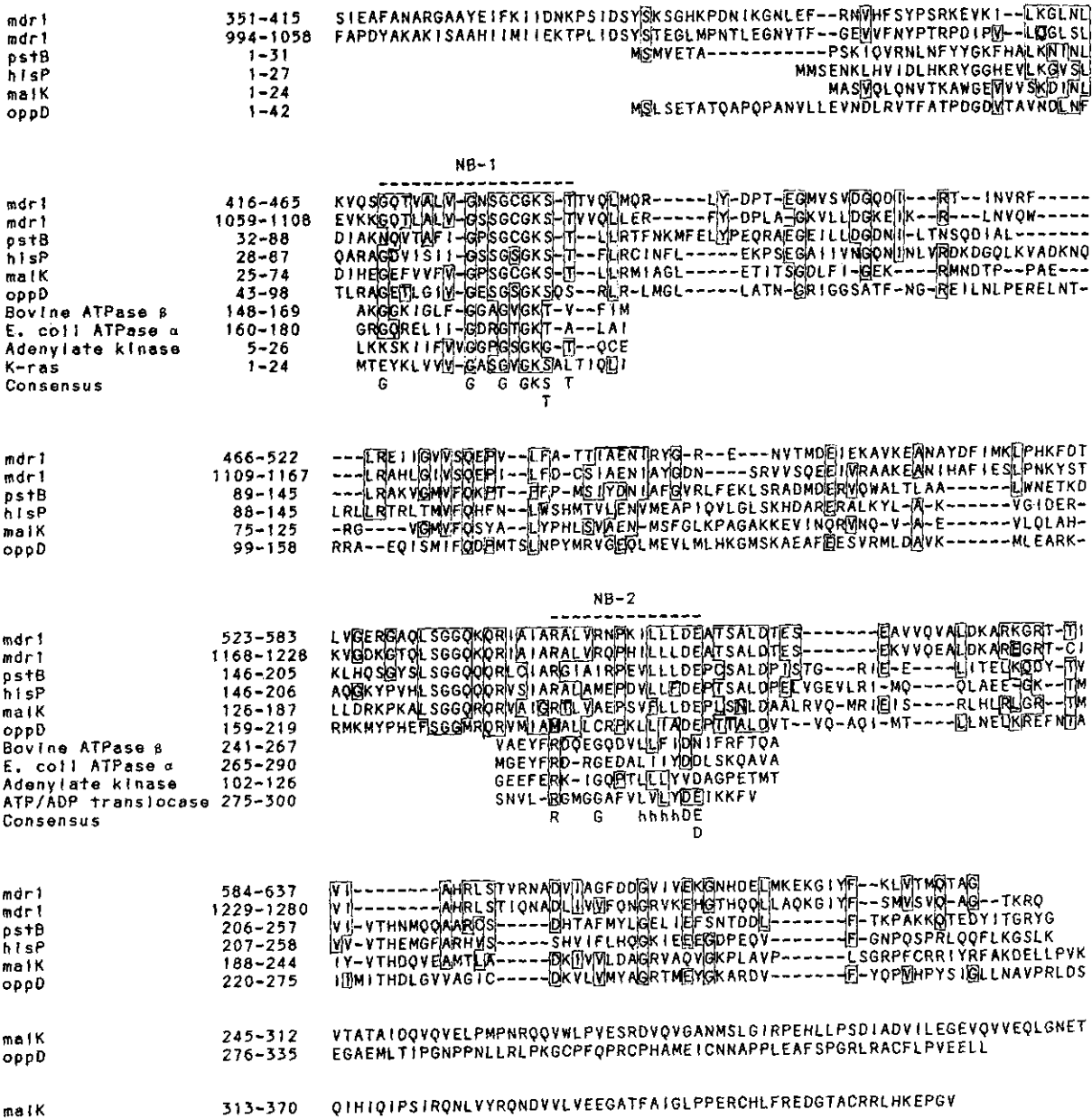


Figure 6. Alignment of Amino Acid Sequences of Two Hydrophilic Regions of *mdr1* and Bacterial Transport Proteins *pstB*, *hisP*, *ma1K*, and *oppD* in the regions of consensus nucleotide-binding sites (NB-1 and NB-2), these sequences have also been aligned with several known nucleotide-binding proteins. The sequences and alignment of *hisP*, *ma1K*, and *oppD* are from Higgins et al. (1985). The sequence of *pstB* is from Surin et al. (1985). The sequences and alignment of nucleotide-binding proteins (except for K-ras), as well as the consensus nucleotide-binding sequence are from Walker et al. (1982). The amino acid sequence of viral K-ras is from Tsuchida et al. (1982). Amino acids identical in three or more of the proteins, including at least one of *mdr1* sequences, are boxed. h in the consensus sequence indicates a conserved hydrophobic residue.

all clustered in one predicted extracytoplasmic domain. These three sites are tentatively shown as glycosylated in Figure 7.

Functional Considerations

The predicted transmembrane localization, the presence of potential nucleotide-binding sites, and homology of the hydrophilic regions of the *mdr1* gene product with bacterial transport proteins are consistent with the hypothesis that P-glycoprotein functions as an efflux pump respon-

sible for the removal of drugs from the cell by an ATP-dependent mechanism. Since genetic evidence has implicated *mdr1* as the gene responsible for the multidrug-resistant phenotype, analysis of the P-glycoprotein sequence, together with the data on increased drug efflux in multidrug-resistant cells and the sensitivity of the efflux to inhibitors of energy metabolism provides a strong argument that active drug efflux is the main mechanism of multidrug resistance.

While homology of *mdr1* with *hisP*, *ma1K*, *oppD*, and

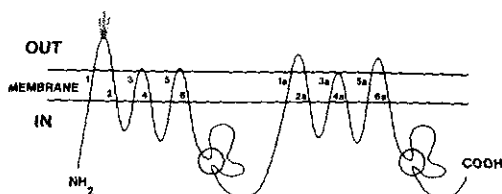


Figure 7. Model for the Transmembrane Orientation of P-Glycoprotein. The transmembrane segments, predicted by the algorithm of Eisenberg et al. (1984), are as follows: 1, residues 52-72; 2, residues 120-140; 3, residues 189-209; 4, residues 216-236; 5, residues 297-317; 6, residues 326-346; 1a, residues 711-731; 2a, residues 757-777; 3a, residues 833-853; 4a, residues 854-874; 5a, residues 937-957; and 6a, residues 974-994. The predicted glycosylation sites are marked by chains. The predicted nucleotide-binding folds are circled.

pstB indicates either a common evolutionary origin for the P-glycoprotein and bacterial periplasmic transport systems or functional similarities in their transport mechanisms, there are clear structural and functional differences between these systems. Structurally, *hisP*, *malK*, *oppD*, and *pstB* are separate proteins that form a quaternary complex with the binding protein and hydrophobic integral membrane components, whereas the hydrophilic regions of P-glycoprotein are parts of a larger protein, which includes its own hydrophobic membrane-spanning domains. No significant homology has been observed between the hydrophobic regions of P-glycoprotein and the integral membrane components of bacterial periplasmic transport systems (data not shown). It should be noted, however, that the sequences of integral membrane proteins are not highly conserved even among different bacterial transport systems (Ames and Higgins, 1983). The most obvious functional difference between P-glycoprotein and the bacterial complexes concerns the direction of the transport, since P-glycoprotein is presumed to pump its substrates out of the cell, whereas the bacterial transport systems function to deliver the substrate from the periplasmic space into the cell. Another important functional difference concerns the limited substrate specificity of the bacterial transport systems, as opposed to a very broad range of lipophilic compounds transported by P-glycoproteins. In the bacterial systems, the specificity is achieved primarily through the recognition of the substrate by specialized periplasmic binding proteins, which then transmit the substrate to the membrane components. The substrate specificity in the histidine and maltose transport systems, however, can also be affected by mutations in the integral membrane components (Payne et al., 1985; Shuman, 1982). Furthermore, mutations in the integral membrane components of the maltose transport system may result in direct binding and translocation of maltose by the membrane complex, even in the absence of the periplasmic binding protein (Shuman, 1982; Treptow and Shuman, 1985). A similar observation has been reported for the methylgalactoside transport system of *E. coli* (Robbins and Folman, 1975). In the P-glycoprotein system, biochemical evidence indicates that the P-glycoprotein itself is capable of substrate binding (Cornwell et al., 1986), but the existence of additional drug-binding

cytoplasmic protein(s) cannot be excluded by the available data. Future studies will indicate whether heterogeneity of P-glycoproteins, observed in different cell lines, contributes to the broad substrate specificity of this transport system.

To understand the significance of the internal duplication in the P-glycoprotein, it will be important to determine whether all twelve predicted transmembrane segments interact to form a single transmembrane channel or whether each hydrophobic region forms a separate channel composed of six segments. At present, we cannot distinguish between these possibilities. Each half of the protein contains a potential nucleotide-binding site. If the function of these sites involves hydrolysis of ATP or a related nucleotide, P-glycoprotein would represent the first known example of a single protein with two ATPase sites. It is possible, however, that nucleotide binding at either one or both sites does not lead to hydrolysis of ATP but rather plays a regulatory role. It would also be important to determine whether the function of the potential nucleotide-binding sites is differentially affected by phosphorylation of P-glycoprotein (Carlsen et al., 1977). With regard to the drug-binding properties of the P-glycoprotein, it is tempting to speculate that internal duplication in the P-glycoprotein structure gives rise to two different drug-binding sites, thereby increasing the range of substrates for the P-glycoprotein system. There is presently no information regarding the location of drug-binding sites in P-glycoprotein.

The availability of *mdr1* cDNA clones and the complete amino acid sequence of the human P-glycoprotein make it possible now to initiate detailed biochemical and genetic analysis of the mechanisms by which normal and tumor cells protect themselves against potentially cytotoxic lipophilic compounds. The predictions of the transmembrane orientation and structural organization of the human P-glycoprotein also provide a convenient working model for designing new chemical and immunological approaches to the problem of drug resistance in cancer chemotherapy.

Experimental Procedures

DNA Sequencing

Prior to sequencing, cDNA inserts from λ gt11 phage clones were recloned into the EcoRI sites of plasmid vectors pUC18 or pGEM4 (Promega Biotec). Clone λ HDR5, containing an internal EcoRI site, was subcloned as two separate fragments, designated pHDR5A (3' end) and pHDR5B (5' end). The genomic clone pHDR4.4 (Roninson et al., 1986) was mapped with several restriction enzymes, and individual 200-1000 bp fragments were subcloned into pUC18. DNA was sequenced using modifications of the enzymatic chain-termination technique (Sanger et al., 1977). A part of the cDNA sequence was determined by subcloning the inserts into an M13 vector (Messing, 1983) and generating a series of overlapping deletion subclones (Henikoff, 1984). Most of the sequence was obtained by using supercoiled plasmid DNA as a template (Zagursky et al., 1985) and synthesizing a series of specific oligonucleotide primers with a DNA synthesizer (Applied Biosystems). All the sequences were determined on both strands, with a minimum of two gel readings per sequence.

Sequence Analysis

Homology search and initial alignments of amino acid and nucleotide sequences were done by the program of D. J. Lipman and W. R. Pearson based on the algorithm of Wilbur and Lipman (1983). The hydropa-

thy plots (Kyte and Doolittle, 1982) were obtained using sequence analysis software from International Biotechnologies, Inc. The hydropathy and hydrophobic moment analysis was done by the algorithm of Eisenberg et al. (1984).

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