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**Permalink** <https://escholarship.org/uc/item/471829j4>

**Journal** Molecular Genetics and Genomics, 263(4)

**ISSN** 1617-4615

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**Publication Date** 2000-05-01

# **DOI**

10.1007/s004380051215

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Peer reviewed

## ORIGINAL PAPER

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# Cloning and expression of the S-adenosylmethionine decarboxylase gene of Neurospora crassa and processing of its product

Received: 4 August 1999 / Accepted: 14 February 2000

Abstract S-adenosylmethionine decarboxylase (Ado-MetDC) catalyzes the formation of decarboxylated AdoMetDC, a precursor of the polyamines spermidine and spermine. The enzyme is derived from a proenzyme by autocatalytic cleavage. We report the cloning and regulation of the gene for AdoMetDC in Neurospora crassa, spe-2, and the effect of putrescine on enzyme maturation and activity. The gene was cloned from a genomic library by complementation of a spe-2 mutant. Like other AdoMetDCs, that of Neurospora is derived by cleavage of a proenzyme. The deduced sequence of the Neurospora proenzyme (503 codons) is over 100 codons longer than any other AdoMetDC sequence available in genomic databases. The additional amino acids are found only in the AdoMetDC of another fungus, Aspergillus nidulans, a cDNA for which we also sequenced. Despite the conserved processing site and four acidic residues required for putrescine stimulation of human proenzyme processing, putrescine has no effect on the rate  $(t_{0.5} \sim 10 \text{ min})$  of processing of the Neurospora gene product. However, putrescine is absolutely required for activity of the Neurospora enzyme  $(K_{0.5} \sim 100 \mu M)$ . The abundance of spe-2 mRNA and enzyme activity is regulated 2- to 4-fold by spermidine.

Key words  $Neurospora \cdot$  Polyamines  $\cdot$  S-adenosylmethionine decarboxylase · Proenzyme processing

Communicated by C. A. M. J. J. van den Hondel

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### Introduction

The polyamines spermidine and spermine are tri- and tetravalent organic cations that are essential for the normal growth of eukaryotic organisms (Tabor and Tabor 1984; Pegg 1986). The divalent polyamine putrescine, a product of the ornithine decarboxylase (ODC) reaction, is converted to spermidine and then spermine by successive aminopropyl transfer reactions. The S-adenosylmethionine decarboxylase (AdoMetDC) reaction produces decarboxylated S-adenosylmethionine, which serves as the aminopropyl donor in putrescine and spermidine aminopropyltransferase reactions (catalyzed by spermidine synthase and spermine synthase, respectively). Studies with polyamine auxotrophs of the fungi Saccharomyces cerevisiae and Neurospora crassa have demonstrated that spermidine, the major polyamine in these organisms, serves functions for which putrescine cannot substitute (Cohn et al. 1978; Whitney and Morris 1978; Pitkin and Davis 1990; Balasundaram et al. 1991). In animal cells, both spermidine and spermine are predominant (Watanabe et al. 1991), and inhibitors that block the formation of these polyamines also restrict the growth of cultured cells (Pegg et al. 1988; Kramer et al. 1989).

In eukaryotic cells, AdoMetDC is a  $(\alpha\beta)_2$  dimer, each half being composed of two non-identical subunits derived by cleavage of a proenzyme precursor. The cleavage generates a pyruvate prosthetic group at the Nterminus of the  $\alpha$  subunit, the larger, C-terminal fragment. AdoMetDC belongs to a class of enzymes in which the presence of this pyruvoyl group is essential for activity (van Poelje and Snell 1990). Studies with the yeast and human proenzymes have shown that the cleavage reaction occurs at a glutamyl-serine bond in the sequence YVLSESS (Stanley et al. 1989; Kashiwagi et al. 1990), with the pyruvoyl moiety being derived from the serine.

The activity of AdoMetDC from many eukaryotes is stimulated by putrescine (Pegg et al. 1998). In addition,

the processing of the human AdoMetDC proenzyme is also stimulated by putrescine (Kameji and Pegg 1987). These regulatory mechanisms make the synthesis of one substrate of spermidine synthase, decarboxylated Sadenosylmethionine, dependent on the presence of the other, putrescine. Because S-adenosylmethionine serves as a methyl donor, and decarboxylated S-adenosylmethionine cannot fulfill this role, the regulation of Ado-MetDC activity by putrescine levels prevents the inappropriate decarboxylation of S-adenosylmethionine. By contrast, the enzyme activity of the AdoMetDC of Escherichia coli, in which putrescine is the predominant polyamine, is stimulated by  $Mg^{2+}$  (Wickner et al. 1970).

In N. crassa, as in other eukaryotes, AdoMetDC activity is regulated by cellular polyamine levels (Pitkin and Davis 1990). In this paper we report the characterization of the spe-2 gene of N. crassa, which encodes an unusually large AdoMetDC, so far peculiar to filamentous fungi. We show that changes in AdoMetDC activity in response to polyamines are correlated with similar changes in the abundance of spe-2 mRNA. Our results demonstrate that putrescine is absolutely required for the catalytic activity of N. crassa AdoMetDC. However, putrescine does not stimulate proenzyme processing in N. crassa, even though the amino acid residues required for putrescine stimulation of processing in the human gene product are conserved in the fungal protein.

#### Materials and methods

#### N. crassa strains and growth conditions

The N. crassa strains used in this study were IC3 (aga), IC1894-53 (spe-1, aga), IC2568-15 (spe-2, aga), and IC2798-15 (spe-1, spe-2, aga). The specific alleles used were  $aga(UM906)$ , spe- $I(LV10)$ , and spe-2(JP100). Strain IC2798-15 was isolated from a cross between strains IC1894-53 and IC2568-15. The aga mutation imposes a complete deficiency for arginase (Davis et al. 1970), the enzyme required for ornithine formation when arginine is present in excess. The addition of arginine to cultures of strains carrying the aga mutation results in feedback inhibition of endogenous arginine synthesis, and, owing to the lack of arginase, a consequent starvation for ornithine and polyamines.

For RFLP mapping, a set of standard strains (Metzenberg et al. 1984) was obtained from the Fungal Genetics Stock Center at the Department of Microbiology, University of Kansas Medical Center, Kansas City, Kan. (FGSC strains 4411-4430).

Growth and maintenance of N. crassa strains followed standard methods (Davis and de Serres 1970). Cultures were supplemented with 1 mM arginine hydrochloride, 1 mM putrescine dihydrochloride, and 1 mM spermidine trihydrochloride, where indicated.

Plasmids, cosmid DNA preparation, and N. crassa transformation

The Orbach/Sachs pMOcosX genomic library (Orbach and Sachs 1991) was obtained from the Fungal Genetics Stock Center as an ordered set of 50 96-well microtiter plates containing a total of 4800 individual clones. For screening by complementation, pools of 96 cosmid clones were replicated onto LB agar containing ampicillin (100  $\mu$ g/ml) and grown overnight at 37 °C. Bacteria were harvested

as a pool from the agar plates and cosmid DNA was isolated using a Qiagen plasmid midi kit. Cosmid DNA (5 µg) was used for transformation of N. crassa spheroplasts (Orbach et al. 1986). Cosmid pools that complemented strain IC2798-15 (spe-1, spe-2, aga) were selected by their ability to enable the recipient to use putrescine as a polyamine precursor. A single complementing plasmid was identified in an active pool, using a sib selection strategy (Vollmer and Yanofsky 1986).

Restriction fragments of N. crassa genomic DNA from the complementing cosmid were subcloned into pSP72 vectors (Promega): pWVC1 contains a 6-kb EcoRI fragment with the spe-2 gene at the 5' end; pWVC2 contains the same insert as pWVC1, in the opposite orientation; pSPE2 contains a EcoRI-SmaI fragment of pWVC2, in which the spe-2 gene is located; and pSP6- SPE2 contains a *HincII-SmaI* fragment carrying the *spe-2* gene with the AdoMetDC start codon downstream of the SP6 promoter. The pSP6-SPE2 plasmid was constructed by digesting pWVC2 with HindIII at a unique restriction site, in the pSP72 multiple cloning site, between the SP6 promoter and the EcoRI insert. This site was filled in, to generate blunt ends, using Klenow DNA polymerase (Sambrook et al. 1989), and the linear plasmid was subsequently cut at a unique *BamHI* site in the spe-2 coding region. A *HincII-BamHI* fragment containing the 5<sup>'</sup> end of the spe-2 coding region was directionally cloned into the HindIII + BamHI-cleaved pWVC2 plasmid. Blunt-end ligation joined the filled HindIII site in the multiple cloning site to the HincII site found 26 bp upstream of the initiating ATG of the spe-2 coding region.

Nucleic acid isolation and analysis

N. crassa genomic DNA was isolated from lyophilized mycelial powders (Bainbridge et al. 1990). Small-scale plasmid DNA preparations were obtained by the alkaline lysis method as previously described (Williams et al. 1992). Plasmid DNA for sequencing was prepared using a Qiagen plasmid midi kit, following the manufacturer's protocol. Plasmids for sequencing were generated using convenient restriction sites in pSPE2 to generate overlapping DNA fragments that were then subcloned into pSP72 vectors. DNA sequencing was carried out using SP6 and T7 primers flanking the pSP72 multiple cloning site. DNA sequencing was performed by the University of Chicago Cancer Research Center's DNA sequencing facility (http://cancer-seqbase.uchicago.edu). Chromatograms were manually inspected and edited using Chromas software (version 1.44; http://www.technelysium.com.au/chromas.html), and sequences were assembled using the SeqMan program in the DNASTAR program suite. Sequence information was analyzed using the DNASTAR program suite and the BLAST sequence similarity search tool at the National Center for Biotechnology Information, Bethesda, Md. (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/ BLAST/).

N. crassa RNA was prepared as previously described (Williams et al. 1992), with minor modifications. Wet mycelial pads were collected by filtration, frozen, lyophilized overnight, and powdered by vortexing in a tube with a spatula. Dissolution of RNA was routinely followed by a brief (2 min) centrifugation (10,000  $\times$  g) to remove insoluble material.

Total RNA was denatured in  $10\times$  3-(N-morpholino) propanesulfonic acid (MOPS) buffer/37% (v/v) formaldehyde (2:15;  $1 \times \text{MOPS}$  buffer is 200 mM MOPS, 50 mM sodium acetate, 10 mM EDTA, pH 7.0) and separated by electrophoresis on denaturing (6% formaldehyde,  $1 \times \text{MOPS}$  buffer)  $1\%$  agarose gels. RNA was transferred to Nytran nylon membranes (Schleicher and Schuell) by capillary transfer using  $10 \times SSC$  (Sambrook et al. 1989). The RNA was crosslinked to the membranes by irradiation with UV light (following the manufacturer's protocol) and prehybridized in 50% deionized formamide,  $5 \times$  SSPE,  $5 \times$  Denhardt's reagent, 0.1% SDS, and 0.1 mg/ml sheared salmon sperm DNA. Hybridization was carried out overnight at 42 °C using a (random primed) <sup>32</sup>P-labeled 1.8-kb *EcoRI-BamHI* fragment from pSPE2 (to probe for spe-2 mRNA), or a 1.2-kb SstI fragment from  $p\beta T6$ (for  $\beta$ -tubulin mRNA; Orbach et al. 1986). Hybridized membranes

were washed three times at room temperature for 5 min with  $2 \times$  SSPE, 0.1% SDS, and three times at 65 °C for 30 min with  $0.1 \times$  SSPE, 0.1% SDS. Signals from hybridized membranes were visualized by autoradiography, and autoradiographs were quanti fied by densitometry, using Photoshop software (Adobe Systems).

For reverse-transcriptase-polymerase chain reaction (RT-PCR) analysis, 10 µg of total RNA isolated from an *aga* strain grown in the presence of arginine, and primer P2 (5'-TCCAGG-CGCTTGGAACCACT-3') were used for first-strand synthesis with Superscript RT RNase H-reverse transcriptase (Life Technologies) following the manufacturer's protocol. PCR was carried out using  $10\%$  (v/v) of the first-strand synthesis reaction or 5 ng of plasmid DNA,  $1 \times PCR$  buffer (10 mM TRIS-HCl, 1.5 mM MgCl2, 50 mM KCl, pH 8.3, Boehringer Mannheim), 0.2 mM of each  $dNTP$ , 1.0  $\mu$ M of each primer, P1 (5'-TCAA- $CAACCCCCTCAAACCC-3'$  and P2, and 0.025 units/ $\mu$ l Taq DNA polymerase (Boehringer Mannheim). Reactions were carried out, in 100-µl volumes, in a MJ Research PTC-100 thermal controller for 25 cycles  $[2 \text{ min } 95 \degree C$  (4 min for the first cycle), 2 min annealing at 55 °C, 2 min extension at 68 °C].

#### Restriction fragment length polymorphism mapping

In RFLP mapping of the  $spe-2$  cosmid in the N. crassa genome (Metzenberg et al. 1984), random-primer labeling (Sambrook et al. 1989) of a NotI insert from the X2:B09 cosmid was used to generate probes. This probe recognized an EcoRI polymorphism between the Oak Ridge and Mauriceville strains. Southern analysis (Sambrook et al. 1989) of EcoRI-digested genomic DNA from these strains and a standard set of 18 of their progeny was carried out using the X2:B09 insert as a probe.

#### Extraction and assay of AdoMetDC activity

Cell extracts were prepared as described previously (Pitkin and Davis 1990). Briefly, 250-1000 ml exponential cultures of strain IC3 were harvested by filtration, and extraction was carried out at 4 °C. Wet pads were ground with sand in extraction buffer (50 mM potassium phosphate pH 7.3, 2 mM dithiothreitol, 1 mM  $MgCl<sub>2</sub>$ ,  $0.1 \text{ mM}$  EDTA, and  $0.1 \text{ mM}$  phenylmethylsulfonyl fluoride). The crude extract was subjected to centrifugation (12,500  $\times g$ , 15 min) and the supernatant was desalted using Sephadex G-25, which removed endogenous polyamines. Crude extracts were immediately used for AdoMetDC assays (Pitkin and Davis 1990).

#### In vitro synthesis and processing of AdoMetDC proenzyme

The pSP6-SPE2 plasmid, in which the coding region for the N. crassa AdoMetDC proenzyme lies downstream from the SP6 promoter, was used in transcription and translation reactions with the TNT SP6 Coupled Reticulocyte Lysate system (Promega) to measure AdoMetDC processing by the method of Xiong et al. (1997), who established that this preparation contains less than 1 nM putrescine. Reactions were carried out following the manufacturer's protocol, with the modifications indicated below. A 50-µl reaction contained 50% TNT rabbit reticulocyte lysate,  $0.5 \mu$ g of  $p$ SP6-SPE2 plasmid DNA, 1 $\times$  TNT reaction buffer, 20 pmol of [  $^{35}$ S]methionine (1000 Ci/mmol), the other 19 amino acids at 20 µM each, 40 units of RNasin, and 1 µl of TNT SP6 RNA polymerase. In reactions containing putrescine, the polyamine was added to a final concentration of 1 mM. Reactions were incubated for the indicated periods at 30 °C, and further incorporation of [<sup>35</sup>S]methionine was blocked by the addition of cycloheximide to a final concentration of 200  $\mu$ M. Incubation was then continued at 30  $^{\circ}$ C, and 5-ul samples were removed to 20 ul of sample buffer (Garfin 1990) and heated to 100 °C for 2 min at various times after translation was stopped. Labeled products of the translation reactions were separated by SDS-PAGE on 12% gels, fixed, dried, and exposed to autoradiographic film.

#### **Results**

Identification and mapping of a cosmid containing the spe-2 gene

To clone the spe-2 gene, we screened the Orbach/Sachs pMOcosX genomic library by sib-selection (Staben et al. 1989) for complementation of a strain carrying the spe-2 mutation. Strains containing the *spe-2* JP100 allele are unable to synthesize spermidine from putrescine; however, the spermidine pool present in spe-2 mutant cells at the time of inoculation is sufficient to allow growth for several doubling times before this polyamine pool is exhausted and growth stops (Pitkin and Davis 1990). This "leaky" growth of the spe-2 mutant was eliminated by using a spe-1, spe-2 double mutant (strain IC2798-15) lacking both ODC and AdoMetDC activities. The double mutant failed to grow in putrescine-supplemented medium, confirming its specific and absolute requirement for spermidine. The strain was used as a transformation recipient to screen the *N. crassa* genomic library for a cosmid that would enable this strain to grow on putrescine. A single complementing cosmid, X2:B09, was identified.

An approximately 30-kb *Not*I fragment of the X2:B09 cosmid was used to generate a random-primer labeled probe for RFLP mapping. An EcoRI polymorphism between the Oak Ridge (O) and Mauriceville (M) parental strains was detected, and recombinants from a cross between these strains were scored for this difference (Fig. 1). Comparison of the mapping data with the available RFLP maps (Nelson et al. 1998) indicates that the genomic DNA in cosmid X2:B09 segregates with markers for the loci spe-1, am and inl. The spe-2 locus is located near  $(\sim 20 \text{ cM})$  the *inl* locus on the right arm of Linkage Group V, 6 and 7 cM to the left of the am and spe-1 loci, respectively (Pitkin and Davis 1990) (Fig. 1). The ability of cosmid X2:B09 to complement the spe-2 mutation and its map localization in the genome at the same position as the *spe-2* locus strongly suggests that the cosmid contains the spe-2 gene.

The spe-2 gene encodes the S-adenosylmethionine decarboxylase proenzyme

A mutation at the spe-2 locus eliminates AdoMetDC activity, and AdoMetDC activity is kinetically altered in revertants of this mutant (Pitkin and Davis 1990). This suggests that the spe-2 locus is the structural gene for AdoMetDC. To identify a DNA fragment from cosmid  $X2:$ B09 containing the spe-2 gene, we first tested various restriction endonucleases for their ability to destroy the complementation activity of the cosmid. Among the enzymes tested, BamHI, ClaI, KpnI, and XhoI eliminated the ability of the cosmid DNA to complement the spe-2 mutation, suggesting that sites for these enzymes lay within the spe-2 gene. Subcloning was carried out



Fig. 1A, B Partial genetic map of linkage group V and RFLP mapping of cosmid  $\overline{X}2$ : B09. A Map of the *spe-2-inl* segment of N. crassa linkage group V, showing the relative positions of the spe-1 (ODC), spe-2 (AdoMetDC), am (NADP-glutamate dehydrogenase), his-1 (imidazole glycerolphosphate dehydratase) and inl (inositol synthase) genes. Map distances (in percent recombination) are shown below the line. **B** Distribution of an *EcoRI* polymorphism among progeny of a cross between Mauriceville (M) and Oak Ridge (O) parents (shown together with progeny, in parentheses), using probes specific for the genes involved. The distribution is shown for three of the markers shown in A and of the DNA insert of the X2: B09 cosmid, carrying the putative spe-2 gene. One of the progeny (dash) was not probed successfully in the case of the cosmid insert

using DNA fragments generated from the X2:B09 cosmid by digestion with EcoRI, an enzyme that did not affect complementation activity. For sequence analysis, we subcloned a 3.6-kb EcoR I-Sma I fragment, which complemented the spe-2 mutation, into plasmid pSPE2 (Fig. 2) and sequenced the insert.

The sequence of this 3663-bp DNA fragment (Gen-Bank Accession No. AF151380) revealed a continuous ORF of 1512 nucleotides, encoding a 503 amino acid polypeptide with a predicted molecular weight of 54,721 Da. An examination of public databases using the BLAST search algorithm (Altschul et al. 1997) revealed that this sequence represented a reading frame with homology to the AdoMetDC proenzyme from numerous eukaryotic sources. In agreement with the results of the complementation studies, restriction sites for the endonucleases that eliminated complementing



Fig. 2 Maps of inserts in plasmids pSPE2 and pSP6-SPE2. The restriction map of the 3.6-kb EcoR1-SmaI N. crassa genomic fragment containing the spe-2 gene in plasmid pSPE2 is shown at the top, and below it is a diagram of the spe-2 ORF subcloned into pSP6-SPE2. The relative positions of the AdoMetDC proenzyme ORF and the predicted  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  subunits are indicated in the box to the right of the SP6 promoter. Abbreviations: B, BamHI; C, ClaI; E, EcoRI; H, HindIII; K, KpnI; S, SalI; Sm, SmaI; X, XhoI

activity of the spe-2 cosmid lay within the predicted AdoMetDC open reading frame (Fig. 2). These results, and those of the RFLP mapping studies, indicate that spe-2 is the N. crassa structural gene for AdoMetDC.

The context of the initiator methionine codon in the putative spe-2 ORF, GACTCAAAATGTCT, is similar to the consensus for sequences surrounding initiation codons of known coding regions in N. crassa, CNNNCA(A/C)(A/C)ATGGCT (Edelmann and Staben 1994). In addition, the presence of an in-frame stop codon, 66 nucleotides upstream of this methionine codon, and the relative position of the predicted N-terminus compared to other eukaryotic AdoMetDC sequences (see below) supports the assumption that this is the translational start codon. The coding region shows a bias for codons with C or G in the third position, typical of N. crassa coding regions, and this coding region is terminated by a TAA codon, the most frequently used stop codon in N. crassa (Edelmann and Staben 1994).

The deduced amino acid sequence of the N. crassa AdoMetDC proenzyme shows moderate homology to those of yeast  $(S.$  cerevisiae,  $30\%$  identity), and mammals (human, 28% identity), and less to that of plants (potato, 23% identity). Although overall identity is low when these AdoMetDC proenzymes are compared to that of N. crassa, sequence identity is highly conserved in several regions (Fig. 3). These regions include residues involved in proenzyme processing, enzyme activity, and putrescine stimulation of these processes in other eukaryotes. The N. crassa proenzyme contains the sequence  $YLLSESSMFV$  (aa 98–107), which is nearly identical to the sequence surrounding the site of proenzyme cleavage in AdoMetDC proenzymes from human (YVLSESSMFV; Stanley et al. 1989) and yeast (YVL-SESSLFI; Kashiwagi et al. 1990). The amino acid residues corresponding to those of the human proenzyme previously shown to be required for catalytic activity (Glu8, Glu11, Ser68, Cys82, Ser229, and His243 in the human sequence), and putrescine stimulation of processing and activity (Glu11, Glu15, Arg76, Lys80, Asp174, Glu178, and Glu256) are identical or similar in the N. crassa AdoMetDC (Fig. 3) (Stanley and Pegg 1991; Stanley et al. 1994; Xiong et al. 1997, 1999) . The conservation of these residues suggests that proenzyme processing and the catalytic activity of the N. crassa enzyme might be stimulated by putrescine.

The deduced length of the N. crassa AdoMetDC proenzyme (503 amino acids) makes it the largest identified thus far  $-$  more than 100 residues longer than the S. cerevisiae proenzyme (396 amino acids). Two large segments in the *N. crassa* sequence (Ser216 to Pro244, and Ala281 to Cys306) account for most of the additional amino acids when compared to the S. cerevisiae proenzyme. In addition, the AdoMetDC proenzymes from S. cerevisiae and N. crassa contain N-terminal extensions when compared to those of mammalian or plant origin.

Examination of N. *crassa* expressed sequence tag (EST) databases at the University of New Mexico and 668

Fig. 3 Sequence alignment of AdoMetDC proenzyme sequences from human, yeast, potato and N. crassa. The amino acid sequences of AdoMetDC proenzymes from human (Hs, GenBank M21154), N. crassa (Nc), Saccharomyces cerevisiae (Sc, GenBank M38434), and potato (So, GenBank S74514) were aligned by the CLUSTAL method. Residues that are identical in N. crassa and at least one other proenzyme are shaded. The conserved proenzyme cleavage site in human, yeast, and potato is indicated in bold letters. Additional residues in the human sequence  $-$  those in the active-site pocket and those essential for catalytic activity (Glu8, Glu11, Ser68, Cys82, Ser229, and His243) are indicated by the asterisks. Together with Glu11, four additional residues required for putrescine stimulation of human proenzyme processing (Lys80, Asp174, Glu178, and Glu256) are indicated by plus signs. (see Ekstrom et al. 1999 for details)



So 320 FGAASVFYQKFCKASTGFGATNKPKPALKCCWKEDKFEE-EKDY 363

the University of Oklahoma, using the BLAST search algorithm, failed to reveal cDNAs corresponding to the spe-2 sequence. However, an EST database for the related fungus Aspergillus nidulans (Advanced Center for Genome Technology, University of Oklahoma) located a partial cDNA, m0f09a1 (GenBank Accession No. AF153765), encoding a protein sequence very similar to the C-terminal region of the N. crassa AdoMetDC coding region (Fig. 4). The most N-terminal conserved residue encoded by the A. nidulans cDNA corresponds to Gly199 of the N. crassa coding region. The A. nidulans AdoMetDC sequence shows 53% identity to the N. crassa sequence in the overlapping region. The insertions present in the N. crassa AdoMetDC coding region, relative to AdoMetDC from other eukaryotic sources, are also found in the putative AdoMetDC from A. nidulans. The similarity of the two enzymes with respect to the presence of additional amino acids suggests that the N. crassa sequence lacks introns in these positions, and that the unusually long proenzyme sequence may be characteristic of filamentous fungi.

## Characterization of the spe-2 transcript

Because the predicted coding region of the spe-2 gene contains short amino acid sequences homologous to

those of other eukaryotic AdoMetDC proenzymes throughout its entire length, and lacks signals normally associated with intron splicing in N. crassa genes, we assumed the coding region lacked intronic sequences. To confirm the absence of introns, primers flanking the *spe*-2 coding region were used to amplify this region from the *spe-2* mRNA by RT-PCR, and from the cloned gene by conventional PCR. The amplified products were then subjected to restriction analysis with *BamHI* and compared (Fig. 5). The results show that PCR amplification from spe-2 cDNA and genomic DNA results in products of identical size. Digestion of the amplified genomic DNA with *BamHI* generates fragments of 740 and 820 bp in length. Because the average N. crassa intron is approximately 70 bases in length (Edelmann and Staben 1994), differences in the size of the amplified cDNA due to the presence of introns would have been detectable. We conclude that the *spe-2* coding region lacks introns, and this is supported further by the similarity of the large carboxyl portion of the N. crassa coding region to the predicted sequence encoded by the  $A$ . nidulans cDNA.

Northern analysis (Fig. 6) indicates that spe-2 mRNA is expressed as a single 2.0-kb transcript. Cells grown in minimal or spermidine-supplemented medium have little *spe-2* mRNA. Starvation for polyamines, brought about by growth of an aga (arginaseless)

GKMNGDHWYLYITSPTSSLTPPRTPTSSRGVSPSRRSKIPTGIVAPFG-GVIE 199 N. crassa GKMNGEHWYLYLTEPYTSLTPPATPTADSDDEVTQTKFTQLPDRSDLGMGPQD A. nidulans 1 NNADETLEILMTDLDPENAKKFYLEEATAIAKEKLFSKSEANGDASFDVFSSS N. crassa 251 EASDETLEVLMTDLDEESAKQFYLDHATSVA-EKRYSNFEKDDHV--DVFSNG A. nidulans 54 304 GD------CDADGQAILPEALTTEGHALGTVVSEACGLSAVYPTSTYPDARID N. crassa SDLEVDDVSSSQGSGILPAELTTEGHALGTVVSESCGLSDVYPKGKFPDSRID A. nidulans 104 351 AYOFSPCGFSANGVVPPVAGADGTIPKSGHYFTVHVTPEPOCSFASFETNVPG N. crassa A. nidulans 157 AYLFTPCGFSANGVIPSPDGGKGT-----HYFTVHVTPEPHCSYASFETNVPH 404 GQNGRQTAEVIEQVVNIFRPGRFSVTLFEAKGALATTPGEDADDSRRSWGAAA N. crassa A. nidulans 205 SRNGQTSAGIIQQVVNIFKPGRFTVTVFEAKPGVDGEWDADKEARYIERQAAR N. crassa 457 K-QRMERINGYRRVDRIVHDFEDYDLVFRYYEREDWVGGGGARMGEEF RVSKGENVEGYKRVDRIVHDLHGYDLVFRYYERLDWKGGA-PRLGEEVIA A. nidulans 258

Fig. 4 Comparison of the predicted amino acid sequences of AdoMetDC from N. crassa and an A. nidulans cDNA. The CLUSTAL method was used to align amino acids 199-503 of the predicted N. crassa AdoMetDC proenzyme and a conceptual translation of an ORF from the partial A. nidulans cDNA m0f09a1 (GenBank Accession No. AF153765). The predicted partial amino acid sequence of the A. nidulans proenzyme is numbered from the most N-terminal residue encoded by the cDNA. Amino acids which are identical in both predicted coding sequences are highlighted. The two sequence insertions found in N. crassa that are absent in most other eukaryotes are overlined

mutant on arginine, or growth of a spe-1 mutant in the absence of polyamine supplementation, leads to a 2- to 4-fold increase in the abundance of spe-2 mRNA, similar to the changes in N. crassa AdoMetDC activity detected under the same conditions (Pitkin and Davis 1990). Depletion of cellular polyamines also causes an increase in the abundance of ODC mRNA, encoded by the spe-1 gene of N. crassa (Williams et al. 1992; Pitkin et al. 1994). Inspection of the regions of the spe-2 and spe-1

**MW** kb 2 1 1.6  $1.0$ 

genes upstream of their coding regions, however, fails to reveal significant homology.

An ORF capable of encoding a 27-residue peptide lies 509 nucleotides upstream of the AdoMetDC coding region. Because upstream ORFs (uORFs) are regulatory features of mammalian AdoMetDC genes (Ruan et al. 1996), we wished to determine whether this potential uORF resided within the spe-2 transcribed region. Northern analysis was carried out using a SacI-EcoRV probe that overlaps the uORF. This probe failed to detect any transcript, indicating that this upstream region was not part of the spe-2 mRNA.

Stimulation of N. crassa AdoMetDC activity by putrescine

The activity of AdoMetDC from the fungi *S. cerevisiae* and A. nidulans (Poso et al. 1975; Stevens et al. 1976), the trypanosomes Trypanosoma brucei and T. cruzi (Tekwani et al. 1992; Persson et al. 1998), the nema-



Fig. 6 Effects of cellular polyamine status on spe-2 mRNA abundance. Total RNA was isolated from cultures of strain IC3 (aga) and the ODC-deficient strain IC1894-53 (spe-1, aga), and subjected to Northern analysis using a 0.7-kb XhoI-BamHI fragment of pSP2 (spe-2, above), or a 1.2-kb SacI fragment of the N. crassa  $\beta$ -tubulin gene of p $\beta$ T6 (tub, below) as probes. Lanes: 1, aga strain grown with 1 mM spermidine; 2, aga strain grown with 1 mM arginine (polyamine depleted); 3, spe-1, aga strain grown with 1 mM spermidine; 4, spe-1, aga grown with 1 mM arginine (severe polyamine depeletion)





Fig. 7 Putrescine stimulation of the AdoMetDC reaction. The graph shows a plot of enzyme activity against putrescine concentration. *Inset*: Lineweaver-Burk plot of the same data. The  $K_{0.5}$  for putrescine, derived from the X-intercept, is approximately 100  $\mu$ M

todes Ascaris suum and Onchocerca volvulus (Rathaur et al. 1988), and mammalian cells (Pegg and Williams-Ashman 1969) is stimulated by putrescine. We measured the effects of putrescine (up to  $5$  mM) on  $N$ . crassa AdoMetDC activity in desalted crude extracts (Fig. 7). The results show that putrescine is absolutely required for N. crassa AdoMetDC activity in vitro, with the  $K_{0.5}$ being approximately 0.1 mM.

### Processing of the N. crassa AdoMetDC proenzyme

In the N. crassa AdoMetDC coding region, both the amino acid sequences surrounding the glutamyl-serine  $bond - the site of processing in the yeast and human$ AdoMetDC proenzymes  $-$  and the amino acid residues required for stimulation by putrescine of processing of the human proenzyme, which lie elsewhere in the polypeptide, are conserved. This suggests that the N. crassa proenzyme is processed and that putrescine might stimulate processing. In this study we used a coupled in vitro transcription/translation system to confirm that the  $N$ . crassa AdoMetDC enzyme is synthesized as a proenzyme and to determine the requirements, if any, for posttranslational processing of the proenzyme. We placed the spe-2 ORF downstream of the SP6 promoter in plasmid pSP6-SPE2 and synthesized the RNA and the encoded protein using the TNT SP6 assay system. We detected products corresponding to the proenzyme (predicted molecular weight 55 kDa) and the processed  $\alpha$  subunit (44 kDa). We failed to detect the smaller (11 kDa)  $\beta$ subunit, perhaps due to its small size and the fact that it contains only two methionine residues.

Following a 30-min synthesis period, the majority of the *N. crassa* AdoMetDC appeared as the processed  $\alpha$ subunit (Fig. 8A), and by 1 h after translation was inhibited with cycloheximide, almost all the proenzyme had disappeared. The N. crassa proenzyme, therefore, appears to be rapidly and autocatalytically processed to the mature form. The use of a shorter (10 min) synthesis period (Fig. 8B) revealed that approximately half the proenzyme was converted to the processed



Fig. 8A-C In vitro processing of the N. crassa AdoMetDC proenzyme. Using pSP6-SPE2 as a template, a coupled transcriptiontranslation reaction was allowed to proceed for 30 min (A) or 10 min  $(B, C)$  before terminating the reaction with 200  $\mu$ g/ml cycloheximide. Samples were withdrawn periodically after termination for 60 or 120 min (top scale). The samples were subjected to SDS gel electrophoresis and visualized by autoradiography. Reactions were carried out in the absence  $(A, B)$  or presence  $(C)$  of 1 mM putrescine. The relative positions of molecular weight markers (in kDa) are indicated on the *left*. The small  $\beta$  subunit liberated in the processing reaction is not visible

form 10 min after its synthesis. By 30 min after inhibition of translation, virtually all the proenzyme was processed, with a corresponding increase in the intensity of the band representing the mature  $\alpha$  subunit. This is rapid compared to the human AdoMetDC: only 15% of this precursor is converted to the mature enzyme after 30 min in the absence of putrescine (Xiong et al. 1997). A previous study (Xiong et al. 1997) found that the TNT reticulocyte lysate, used in these experiments, contained insufficient putrescine  $(< 1 \text{ nM})$  to stimulate the processing of human AdoMetDC. Therefore, the rapid processing of the N. crassa proenzyme is unlikely to be caused by putrescine in the reaction mixture. Addition of 1 mM putrescine to the reaction failed to increase the rate of processing (Fig. 8C). The processing of the N. crassa proenzyme was also unaffected by the addition of  $1 \text{ mM } MgCl<sub>2</sub>$  to the reactions (result not shown). These results suggest that the conservation of acidic amino acids, required for putrescine stimulation of processing in the human enzyme, is insufficient to impart this requirement to the N. crassa proenzyme.

### **Discussion**

Two noteworthy aspects of AdoMetDC of N. crassa have come to light in this work. First, a comparison of the structural gene sequence with other AdoMetDC genes and cDNAs reveals that it has a much longer amino acid sequence than any known to date. Initially, this suggested that introns might interrupt the  $N$ . crassa sequence. However, while a N. crassa cDNA was not retrieved and sequenced, the RT-PCR product and its restriction fragments did not differ in size from the corresponding genomic sequence. More interesting was the finding, occasioned by a successful search of the A. nidulans EST database, that the C-terminal region of AdoMetDC from this related filamentous fungus was quite similar in length to that of N. crassa AdoMetDC. The corresponding sequence of yeast (S. cerevisiae) differs from those of the two filamentous fungi. So far, the latter form a distinct and restricted class of AdoMetDCs.

Second, the processing of the *N. crassa* proenzyme appears to differ from that in mammals. Although cDNAs encoding the AdoMetDC proenzyme have been isolated from many organisms, the processing step and its stimulation by cellular cations has been characterized in only a few cases. The amino acid residues surrounding the site of processing are highly conserved in eukaryotes. The site of cleavage has been determined definitively for the proenzymes from human (Stanley et al. 1989), yeast (Kashiwagi et al. 1990), and potato (Xiong et al. 1997): processing occurs at a glutamyl-serine bond. It is therefore likely that processing of the N. crassa proenzyme occurs between the corresponding amino acid residues, Glu102 and Ser103. Although we have not demonstrated this directly, the size of the  $\alpha$  subunit liberated in the in vitro processing reaction is consistent with this assumption.

Human AdoMetDC activity is activated by putrescine, but the activity of potato AdoMetDC, unlike that of N. crassa, is not (Xiong et al. 1997). Studies by Pegg and his collaborators have shown that putrescine both increases the rate of processing of the human Ado-MetDC proenzyme, and stimulates the catalytic activity of the mature enzyme (Pegg et al. 1998). They also found that mutation of amino acid residues distal to the processing site of the human proenzyme could slow or prevent cleavage of the proenzyme (Stanley and Pegg 1991; Stanley et al. 1994; Xiong et al. 1997). These mutations occurred within highly conserved regions, and at least four acidic residues (Glu11, Asp174, Glu178, and Glu256) were essential for stimulation of processing by putrescine (Stanley et al. 1994; Xiong et al. 1997). These acidic residues are conserved in the N. crassa proenzyme, as Glu44, Asp254, Glu258, and Glu398. The potato AdoMetDC proenzyme lacks the aspartic acid corresponding to the conserved residues in human (Asp-174) and N. crassa (Asp-254), and maximal rates of processing of the plant proenzyme do not require putrescine (Xiong et al. 1997). Based on a model in which the divalent putrescine bridges acidic residues in the proenzyme to bring about or stabilize a conformational change, Xiong et al. (1999) speculated that the absence of this aspartic acid might explain the lack of putrescinestimulated processing in the potato proenzyme, described in previous work (Xiong et al. 1997). Despite the conservation of all amino acid residues required for putrescine stimulation of processing in human Ado-MetDC in the *N. crassa* gene product, putrescine has no effect on the processing of the latter. It is noteworthy that insertions occur in the N. crassa sequence between the acidic amino acid residues required for putrescine stimulation of processing relative to the human sequence. Glu44 of the *N. crassa* proenzyme is separated from Asp254 and Glu258 by approximately 45 more residues than are the corresponding residues of the human proenzyme. Similarly, Asp254 and Glu258 are about 60 residues further away from Glu398 in the primary sequence than the corresponding human residues. In addition, the *N. crassa* proenzyme (and that of S. cerevisiae) has an extended N-terminal region when compared to the human AdoMetDC. These differences may render ionic interactions between putrescine and the acidic residues unnecessary for optimal rates of processing.

The potato proenzyme and the N. crassa proenzyme are processed much more rapidly than the human proenzyme in vitro (Xiong et al. 1997). The mature  $\alpha$ subunit appears almost immediately upon synthesis of the proenzyme in the case of potato, and the  $t_{0.5}$  of the N. crassa proenzyme is about 10 min. Putrescine stimulation of these processing reactions would have little advantage. Possibly the processing of the human proenzyme and others like it may require a specially evolved stimulatory mechanism to compensate for their unusually slow rate of processing  $(t_0, 6, \sim 80 \text{ min})$ ; Xiong et al. 1997). Only a systematic survey of putrescine stimulation of S-AdoMetDC proenzyme processing can answer this question.

The crystal structure of the mature human Ado-MetDC enzyme has been reported recently (Ekstrom et al. 1999). The  $\alpha\beta$  monomer forms a novel  $\alpha/\beta$ -sandwich fold comprising two eight-stranded antiparallel  $\beta$ sheets facing one another and flanked by  $\alpha$  and  $3_{10}$ helices on the exterior of the  $\beta$  sheets. Comparison of the sequences of the human and N. *crassa* enzymes suggests that the additional amino acids in the  $N$ . crassa AdoMetDC might lie on the periphery of the monomer. The insertion of the sequence  $Pro219-Glu250$  of the N. crassa enzyme would occur in a sequence between  $\beta$ strands 8 and 9 of the human enzyme that connects the two facing  $\beta$  sheets of the monomer. The Lys282– Thr327 segment of N. crassa AdoMetDC would lie within the peripheral  $\alpha$ -helix 8 of the human AdoMetDC monomer. Neither insertion, nor the large N-terminal extension, would necessarily impair the architecture of the residues surrounding the active site.

The catalytic activity of AdoMetDC from many eukaryotes is activated by putrescine. Three of the four conserved acidic amino acids involved in the putrescine stimulation of AdoMetDC proenzyme processing are also required for putrescine activation of the catalytic activity of the mature human enzyme (Stanley et al. 1994; Xiong et al. 1997). [The effects of mutation of the fourth residue (human Glu11) on putrescine activation could not be tested because it is required for catalytic activity; Stanley and Pegg 1991.] In the fungi S. cerevisiae and A. nidulans, putrescine stimulates or is required for AdoMetDC enzyme activity (Poso et al. 1975; Stevens et al. 1976). In the present work, we have demonstrated that in N. crassa, putrescine is an obligatory cofactor in the AdoMetDC reaction, and, in previous work, that the  $K_m$  of the enzyme for S-adenosylmethionine decreases with increasing putrescine concentration (Pitkin and Davis 1990). Although putrescine appears not to be involved in processing of the proenzyme, the acidic residues conserved between the human and N. crassa proenzymes may nevertheless be required for the stimulation of catalytic activity.

Acknowledgements This work was supported by National Institutes of Health Grant GM-35120 to R.H.D. and by funding from the University of California, Irvine (Office of Research and Graduate Studies). M.A. Hoyt and J. Pitkin were predoctoral trainees supported by U.S. Public Health National Service Training Grants GM07311 and GM07134, respectively. We thank Emily Parkhurst and Wuttichai Chayasirisibhon for assistance in the cloning and sequencing of the spe-2 gene. The text is taken in part from a dissertation submitted by M.A. Hoyt for the Ph.D. degree from the University of California, Irvine in 1999. The work was carried out in accordance with the laws governing genetic experimentation in the United States of America.

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