

Cloning, Chromosomal Mapping, and Expression of a Novel Human Secretory Phospholipase A₂*

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Secretory phospholipases A₂ (sPLA₂s) represent a rapidly expanding family of structurally related enzymes found in mammals as well as in insect and snake venoms. In this report, a cDNA coding for a novel sPLA₂ has been isolated from human fetal lung, and its gene has been mapped to chromosome 16p13.1-p12. The mature sPLA₂ protein has a molecular mass of 13.6 kDa, is acidic (pI 5.3), and made up of 123 amino acids. Key structural features of the sPLA₂ include: (i) a long prepropeptide ending with an arginine doublet, (ii) 16 cysteines located at positions that are characteristic of both group I and group II sPLA₂s, (iii) a C-terminal extension typical of group II sPLA₂s, (iv) and the absence of elapid and pancreatic loops that are characteristic of group I sPLA₂s. Based on these structural properties, this sPLA₂ appears as a first member of a new group of sPLA₂s, called group X. A 1.5-kilobase transcript coding for the human group X (hGX) sPLA₂ was found in spleen, thymus, and peripheral blood leukocytes, while a less abundant 0.8-kilobase transcript was detected in the pancreas, lung, and colon. When the hGX sPLA₂ cDNA was expressed in COS cells, sPLA₂ activity preferentially accumulated in the culture medium, indicating that hGX sPLA₂ is an actively secreted enzyme. It is maximally active at physiological pH and with 10 mM Ca²⁺. hGX sPLA₂ prefers phosphatidylethanolamine and phosphatidylcholine liposomes to those of phosphatidylserine.

dins, hydroxy fatty acids, leukotrienes, thromboxanes, and platelet-activating factor. Over the last two decades, two major classes of mammalian PLA₂s (intracellular and secretory) have been characterized and cloned. Secretory PLA₂s were first characterized and then classified into different groups according to their molecular structure and the localization of their disulfide bridges (4, 5). Recently, an updated classification of PLA₂s has been proposed that include both intracellular and secretory types of PLA₂s (2). A number of intracellular PLA₂s have been characterized and now comprise the well known Ca²⁺-sensitive arachidonoyl-specific 85-kDa cPLA₂ (6, 7), multiple Ca²⁺-independent PLA₂s (1, 2, 8) as well as several other types of cytosolic enzymes less extensively characterized (9–13).

Secretory low molecular mass PLA₂s (sPLA₂s, 13–18 kDa) form a class of structurally related enzymes whose members are also rapidly increasing (2). These enzymes are characterized by the presence of several disulfide bridges, an absolute catalytic requirement for millimolar concentration of Ca²⁺, and a broad specificity for phospholipids with different polar head groups and fatty acyl chains (14). sPLA₂s have been purified from a variety of sources including not only mammalian pancreas, spleen, lung, platelets, and extracellular fluids, but also insect and snake venoms (1, 15–17). Pancreatic sPLA₂, non-pancreatic inflammatory sPLA₂, bee venom sPLA₂, and a novel sPLA₂ highly expressed in heart, are prototypes of group I, II, III, and V, respectively (2). The pancreatic group I sPLA₂, as its name indicates, was originally purified from pancreatic juice and then identified and cloned in other tissues, such as lung, spleen, kidney, and ovary (3, 18–20). Besides its primary function in digestion of dietary lipids, the pancreatic group I sPLA₂ has been proposed to play a role in cell proliferation (21), smooth muscle contraction (22, 23), as well as acute lung injury (24). The inflammatory group II sPLA₂ (initially called nonpancreatic sPLA₂) has been purified and cloned from various sources, including platelets and extracellular fluids (16, 25, 26). It is highly expressed in the plasma and synovial fluids of patients with various inflammatory diseases, such as rheumatoid arthritis, acute pancreatitis, Crohn's disease, and in endotoxic shock (27–31), as well as in various gastrointestinal cancers (32, 33). It is considered as a potent mediator of the inflammatory process (16, 27, 29, 30, 34) and has been recently proposed as a tumor suppressor gene of intestinal tumorigenesis (35). The human group V sPLA₂ has been cloned from brain and is found strongly expressed in heart (36, 37). More recently, this sPLA₂ has been detected in P388D1 murine macrophages where it may act as a novel sPLA₂ effector involved in lipid mediators production (38). A fourth sPLA₂ has been cloned in rat and mouse (39), but appears to be a non-functional pseudogene in humans (40). This sPLA₂ belongs to

Phospholipases A₂ (PLA₂s; phosphatidylcholine 2-acylhydrolase, EC 3.1.1.4)¹ represent a growing family of enzymes that catalyze the hydrolysis of glycerophospholipids at the *sn*-2 position, producing free fatty acids and lysophospholipids (1–3). PLA₂s generate rate-limiting precursors in the biosynthesis of various types of biologically active lipids, including prostaglan-

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The nucleotide sequence(s) reported in this paper has been submitted to the GenBank™/EBI Data Bank with accession number(s) U95301.

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¹ The abbreviations used are: PLA₂, phospholipase A₂; sPLA₂, secretory phospholipase A₂; hGX, human group X; EST, expressed sequence tag; PCR, polymerase chain reaction; bp, base pair; kb, kilobase pair; GC-MS, gas chromatography-mass spectrometry.

group IIC and is prevalently expressed in testis. Other low molecular mass PLA₂s have been characterized from various tissues including spermatozoa, brain, and lung, suggesting a larger diversity of PLA₂s (41–44). Moreover, a sPLA₂-related gene has been cloned from human teratocarcinoma cells and found to code for a protein of 689 amino acids containing two domains of high homology with sPLA₂s (45).

A wealth of sPLA₂s have also been described in snake and insect venoms. Besides a role in prey digestion, several venom sPLA₂s are potent toxins that display neurotoxicity and myotoxicity among a variety of other toxic effects (17, 46, 47). Studies with several iodinated venom sPLA₂s, including OS₁ and OS₂ purified from Taipan snake venom, have shown the existence of various high affinity sPLA₂ receptors (48). N-type sPLA₂ receptors were first identified in rat brain membranes and are made up of several protein subunits of 36–51 kDa and 85 kDa (49). These receptors display a high affinity for neurotoxic sPLA₂s, but not for nontoxic sPLA₂s, suggesting that N-type receptors may contribute to sPLA₂ neurotoxic effects (49–51). M-type sPLA₂ receptors were first identified in skeletal muscle cells (52). They consist of a single 180-kDa subunit and bind a number of toxic and nontoxic venom sPLA₂s. The M-type sPLA₂ receptor has now been cloned in various species (53–56), and its molecular properties have been analyzed in detail (57–61). Although the physiological roles of M- and N-type receptors remain to be discovered, M-type receptors from various species have been shown to associate with high affinity pancreatic group I sPLA₂s as well as inflammatory group II sPLA₂s with K_d values of 1–10 nM, suggesting that mammalian endogenous sPLA₂s might be the natural ligands of these receptors (21, 48, 54, 61).

We now report the cloning, chromosomal mapping, and recombinant expression of a novel human sPLA₂. Based on its structural properties, this sPLA₂ appears as a first member of a new group of mammalian sPLA₂s, called group X, according to the PLA₂ nomenclature defined recently (2).

EXPERIMENTAL PROCEDURES

Identification of the 309343 3' Expressed Sequence Tag (EST) Sequence—Protein sequences of different sPLA₂s were used to search for homologues in gene data bases stored at the National Center for Biotechnology (NCBI) by using the tBLASTn sequence alignment program (62). Translation of an EST sequence (I.M.A.G.E. Consortium clone identification 309343, 3', GenBank™ accession no. N93958) (63) in one frame presented a significant sequence similarity ($p = 9.9 e^{-21}$) with several sPLA₂s. This 445-bp sequence was originally obtained from a human fetal lung cDNA library. A 327-bp DNA fragment corresponding to the EST sequence was then amplified by reverse transcriptase-PCR using human fetal lung cDNA. For that purpose, poly(A)⁺ mRNA (CLONTECH Laboratories, Inc.) was reverse-transcribed with the Moloney murine leukemia virus reverse transcriptase (Life Technologies, Inc.) according to the manufacturer's protocol and used for PCR with a sense primer (5'-GGAATTCGCCTATATGAAATATGGT-3') and an antisense primer (5'-GGAATTC AAGGTAGTCAGTCACACTTG-3') containing *EcoRI* restriction sites. PCR reactions were performed using a low error rate DNA polymerase (PWO polymerase, Eurogentec Corp., Belgium) in a total volume of 50 μ l containing 10 mM Tris-HCl, pH 8.85, 25 mM KCl, 2.0 mM MgCl₂, 200 μ M dNTPs, 200 μ M of each primer, 20 ng of cDNA template, and 1 unit of PWO DNA polymerase. PCR conditions were: 94 °C, 30 s; 50 °C, 30 s, and 72 °C, 30 s, for 33 cycles. The 327-bp DNA fragment was then subcloned into pBlueScript (Stratagene Cloning Systems) and sequenced to verify its identity with the EST sequence by using an automatic sequencer (Applied Biosystems model 373A) with the dideoxy nucleotide method.

Chromosomal Mapping of the hGX sPLA₂ Gene—*In situ* hybridization was performed on chromosome preparations obtained from phytohemagglutinin-stimulated human lymphocytes cultured for 72 h. 5-Bromodeoxyuridine (60 μ g/ml) was added for the final 7 h of culture to ensure a posthybridization chromosomal banding of good quality. The 5' Alu repeat element was removed from the full-length hGX sPLA₂ cDNA clone by restriction with *ApoI*, and the resulting DNA fragment

(nucleotides –370 to 580, see Fig. 1) inserted into pBlueScript was tritium-labeled by nick-translation to a specific activity of 10⁸ dpm/ μ g. The radiolabeled probe was hybridized to metaphase spreads at a final concentration of 200 ng/ml of hybridization solution as described previously (64). After coating with nuclear track emulsion (Kodak NTB₂), slides were exposed for 20 days at 4 °C and then developed. To avoid any slipping of silver grains during the banding procedure, chromosome spreads were first stained with buffered Giemsa solution and metaphase-photographed. R-banding was then performed by the fluorochrome-photolysis-Giemsa method, and metaphases were rephotographed before analysis.

Northern Blot Analysis—Three human multiple tissue Northern blots (CLONTECH Laboratories, Inc., catalog nos. 7759-1, 7760-1, and 7770-1) were first probed with the randomly primed ³²P-labeled PCR fragment corresponding to a partial sequence of hGX sPLA₂ cDNA (nucleotide 179–507 in Fig. 1) in 50% formamide, 5 \times SSPE (0.9 M NaCl, 50 mM sodium phosphate, pH 7.4, 5 mM EDTA), 5 \times Denhardt's solution, 0.1% SDS, 20 mM sodium phosphate, pH 6.5, and 250 μ g/ml denatured salmon sperm DNA at 42 °C for 18 h. Blots were washed to a final stringency of 0.1 \times SSC (30 mM NaCl, 3 mM trisodium citrate, pH 7.0) with 0.1% SDS at 55 °C and then exposed to Kodak X-Omat AR films with two intensifying screens. Northern blots were then stripped and hybridized in the same conditions as above with the entire coding sequences of the human group V sPLA₂ (36), the human group II sPLA₂ (25), the human group I sPLA₂ (19), and finally with the manufacturer-supplied β -actin probe.

Expression of hGX sPLA₂ in COS and HEK 293 Cells—The full-length 1020-bp cDNA clone coding for hGX sPLA₂ was subcloned directly into the expression vector pcDNA I (Invitrogen Corp.) by using convenient restriction enzyme sites. hGX sPLA₂ clones Met-42 and Met-32 were prepared by a PCR-assisted strategy using a low error rate PWO DNA polymerase (Eurogentec Corp., Belgium) and respective sense oligonucleotides primers (Met-42, 5'-GGAATTCGCGGCCGCCA-TGGGCGCGCTACTGTGT-3'; Met-32, 5'-GGAATTCGCGGCCGCCA-TGCTGCTCTGCTACTGC-3') in combination with a common antisense oligonucleotide (5'-GTCTAGAGTCAGTCACACTTGGGCGAGT-3'). Primers contained restriction sites to facilitate subcloning of the PCR fragments and consensus Kozak sequences were added to the sense primers to enhance protein expression (65). The PCR products were subcloned into pcDNA I and sequenced to verify the integrity of DNA constructions. The various plasmids were then transfected into COS or HEK 293 cells by a modification of the DEAE-dextran/chloroquine method (66) or by the Ca/PO₄ procedure (67), respectively. Cells at 50% confluence were transfected with 5 μ g of plasmid DNA/75-cm² Petri dish. Cell supernatants were harvested at different times post transfection and assayed for hGX sPLA₂ activity. On day 3, washed cells were harvested and disrupted by sonication in 300 μ l of 20 mM Tris-HCl, pH 7.4, 2 mM EDTA, and 1 mM phenylmethylsulfonyl fluoride to measure cell-associated sPLA₂ activity. To test whether hGX sPLA₂ is secreted as a proenzyme, serum-free cell supernatants containing hGX sPLA₂ activity were treated with 3 μ g/ml trypsin (Sigma, T-1005 type XI from bovine brain) in 20 mM Tris-HCl, pH 8.0, 10 mM CaCl₂ for 3 h at 37 °C and then assayed for sPLA₂ activity with [³H]oleate-labeled *Escherichia coli* membranes.

sPLA₂ Activity Assay on [³H]Oleate-labeled E. coli Membranes—Preparation of autoclaved *E. coli* membranes and sPLA₂ assays were performed essentially as described previously (57). Unless otherwise specified, sPLA₂ assays were performed at 25 °C in a total volume of 100 μ l consisting of 140 mM NaCl, 50 mM Tris-HCl, pH 7.4, 10 mM CaCl₂, 0.1% bovine serum albumin, and 100,000 dpm of [³H]oleate-labeled *E. coli* membranes. Incubation times and sample volumes were adjusted to ensure hydrolysis rates within the linear range of enzymatic assays. Typically, 3–10 μ l of solution containing hGX sPLA₂ were incubated for 30–60 min at 20 °C to measure sPLA₂ activity. Reaction mixtures were stopped by adding 300 μ l of 0.1 M EDTA, pH 8.0, and 1% fatty acid-free bovine serum albumin. After centrifugation at 10,000 \times g for 3 min, 300 μ l of supernatant containing hydrolyzed phospholipids were counted. Control incubations in the absence of added sPLA₂ were carried out in parallel and used to calculate specific hydrolysis.

sPLA₂ Activity Assay on Mixed Phospholipid Liposomes—Liposomes were prepared by sonication using different phospholipid mixtures (phosphatidylethanolamine, phosphatidylcholine, or phosphatidylserine, with D- α -dipalmitoylphosphatidylcholine, 75:25 mol%). D- α -Dipalmitoylphosphatidylcholine is a nonhydrolyzable phospholipid that is used for formation of liposomes with the various hydrolyzable phospholipids. L- α -Phosphatidylcholine (from egg yolk), L- α -phosphatidylethanolamine (from egg yolk), L- α -phosphatidylserine (from bovine brain), and D- α -dipalmitoylphosphatidylcholine were purchased from Sigma.

Phospholipids were dissolved in chloroform, dried under a nitrogen stream, and resuspended at 0.33 mM in 100 mM Tris-HCl buffer, pH 7.4. The lipid suspension was then sonicated twice for 2 min with a 20-kHz MSE tip probe at 100 W. Incubations were carried out for 15 min at 37 °C in a total volume of 500 μ l containing 200 nmol of hydrolyzable phospholipids resuspended in 100 mM Tris-HCl, pH 7.4, 10 mM CaCl₂, and 0.1% fatty acid-free BSA. hGX sPLA₂ activity was measured by adding 20 μ l of a 72-h COS cell supernatant, and incubation was carried out for 15 min at 37 °C. Released fatty acids were extracted by a modification of Dole's procedure (68), methylated with diazomethane, and quantified as described below by GC-MS measurements. Control incubations in the absence of added sPLA₂ were carried out in parallel and used to calculate specific hydrolysis.

sPLA₂ Activity Assay on Erythrocyte Membrane Phospholipids—Human erythrocytes were isolated from fresh citrated blood by the procedure of Steck *et al.* (69). Briefly, blood was centrifuged for 10 min at 4 °C at 100 \times *g*. Red blood cells were then collected, washed several times with 5 volumes of an ice-cold phosphate saline buffer (150 mM NaCl, 5 mM sodium phosphate, pH 8.0), and hemolyzed in 40 volumes of 5 mM sodium phosphate, pH 8.0. Erythrocyte ghosts were collected by centrifugation for 20 min at 22,000 \times *g* and washed several times with 5 mM phosphate buffer until "white ghosts" were obtained. sPLA₂ assays were performed in a total volume of 500 μ l containing erythrocyte membranes (representing 200 nmol of hydrolyzable phospholipids) resuspended in 100 mM Tris-HCl, pH 7.4, 10 mM CaCl₂, and 0.1% fatty acid-free bovine serum albumin. Incubations were carried out for 15 min at 37 °C with translational shaking. 20 μ l of a 72-h COS cell supernatant were used to measure hGX sPLA₂ activity. The released fatty acids were extracted by a modification of the Dole's procedure (68), methylated with diazomethane, and quantified by GC-MS measurement as described below. Control incubations in the absence of added sPLA₂ were carried out in parallel and used to calculate specific hydrolysis.

GC-MS Measurements—The released fatty acids extracted by Dole's procedure were methylated with diazomethane and separated by gas chromatography on a capillary column of Supelcowax-10 bonded phase (0.32 mm \times 30 m, Supelco) with a Hewlett Packard 5890 Series II gas chromatograph. Fatty acids were detected by mass spectrometry (Nermag 10-10C, France) in the chemical ionization mode with ammonia (0.1 bar) as the reagent gas. The positive quasi-molecular ions were monitored and time-integrated. Quantification referred to an internal standard of heptadecanoic methyl ester with response factors was calculated with the various fatty acid methyl ester calibrators.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Molecular Cloning of hGX sPLA₂ and Chromosomal Localization of Its Gene—Protein sequences of various sPLA₂s were used to search for related sequences in gene data bases by using the tBLASTn sequence alignment program (62). As a result, we identified a human EST of 445 bp that was originally obtained from a fetal lung cDNA library (Fig. 1). The deduced amino acid sequence of the EST displayed a high homology to other sPLA₂s, including several amino acids invariably conserved in catalytically active sPLA₂s. We thus postulated that this EST was a partial copy of a mRNA coding for a novel low molecular mass sPLA₂. This sPLA₂ was assigned as hGX sPLA₂ in accordance with the recent numbering system proposed by Dennis (2). Two primers were then designed from the EST sequence and used in PCR amplification to screen for the presence of hGX sPLA₂ in human testis, human placenta, and human fetal lung cDNAs. Only human fetal lung cDNAs produced the expected 327-bp PCR fragment predicted from the EST sequence. This fragment was cloned and sequenced, confirming its identity with the EST sequence. This PCR fragment was then used as a probe to hybridize to several human multiple Northern blots to analyze the transcription pattern of hGX sPLA₂. A 1.5-kb transcript coding for this sPLA₂ was found in spleen, thymus, and peripheral blood leukocytes, while no such expression was observed in several other human tissues, including human fetal lung (see Fig. 5). These data indicate that this novel sPLA₂ is expressed at a fairly low level in a limited number of human tissues. This prompted us to request the clone from which the EST sequence was derived at

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ggccttccaaagtgtgggattacaggcgtgagtcaccgc-401
gcccgcccaaaataaaataaaatgttaagcaaatcagga-361
ctaccctcctccaagtcttctgttcccttggggcgcaca-321
ggtgagcgggggagggtgtggggagtaataacatcaaaa-281
gagcgcttcttctccttattccgaggagacttccctgg-241
gctgactcccggtcctgtccccagcccgcccgctct-201
ggagccctcagtgaccagaatcacagagatcaggacgcc-161
tttggcgcccccagggtgccccccctagctggtctgct-121
tggggccgaggggaaggtgaggtcgggggcgagccggg-81
cgtgacagccgggtgtgtgtccgcccggcttgggtgctc-41
cggtggcctgcagcaccgtcccacctctgccacctccg-1

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ATG	GGG	CCG	CTA	CCT	GTG	TGC	CTG	CCA	ATC	30
M	G	P	L	P	V	C	L	P	I	-33
-42										
ATG	CTG	CTC	CTG	CTA	CTG	CCG	TCG	CTG	CTG	60
M	L	L	L	L	L	P	S	L	L	-23
-32										
CTG	CTG	CTG	CTT	CTA	CCT	GGC	CCC	GGG	TCC	90
L	L	L	L	L	P	G	P	G	S	-13

GGC	GAG	GCC	TCC	AGG	ATA	TTA	CGT	GTG	CAC	120
G	E	A	S	R	I	L	R	V	H	-3

CGG	CGT	GGG	ATC	CTG	GAA	CTG	GCA	GGA	ACT	150
R	R	G	I	L	E	L	A	G	T	8
■	■	+1								
GTG	GGT	TGT	GTT	GGT	CCC	CGA	ACC	CCC	ATC	180
V	G	C	V	G	P	R	T	P	I	18

GCC	TAT	ATG	AAA	TAT	GGT	TGC	TTT	TGT	GGC	210
A	Y	M	K	Y	G	C	F	C	G	28

TTG	GGA	GGC	CAT	GGC	CAG	CCC	CGC	GAT	GCC	240
L	G	G	H	G	Q	P	R	D	A	38

ATT	GAC	TGG	TGC	TGC	CAT	GGC	CAC	GAC	TGT	270
I	D	W	C	C	H	G	H	D	C	48

TGT	TAC	ACT	CGA	GCT	GAG	GAG	GCC	GGC	TGC	300
C	Y	T	R	A	E	E	A	G	C	58

AGC	CCC	AAG	ACA	GAG	CGC	TAC	TCC	TGG	CAG	330
S	P	K	T	E	R	Y	S	W	Q	68

TGC	GTC	AAT	CAG	AGC	GTC	CTG	TGC	GGA	CCG	360
C	V	N	Q	S	V	L	C	G	P	78

GCA	GAG	AAC	AAA	TGC	CAA	GAA	CTG	TTG	TGC	390
A	E	N	K	C	Q	E	L	L	C	88

AAG	TGT	GAC	CAG	GAG	ATT	GCT	AAC	TGC	TTA	420
K	C	D	Q	E	I	A	N	C	L	98

GCC	CAA	ACT	GAG	TAC	AAC	TTA	AAG	TAC	CTC	450
A	Q	T	E	Y	N	L	K	Y	L	108

TTC	TAC	CCC	CAG	TTC	CTA	TGT	GAG	CCG	GAC	480
F	Y	P	Q	F	L	C	E	P	D	118

TCG	CCC	AAG	TGT	GAC	TGA	ctaccttgacttgaa				513
S	P	K	C	D	*					124

atgctcttttgcacaaggaa aatataag cgctcctctcagtaa										553
tgaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaa										580

Fig. 1. Nucleotide and deduced amino acid sequences of hGX sPLA₂. The predicted prepropeptide segment is boxed and possible initiator methionines are shown in bold. The arginine doublet preceding the mature protein is indicated by squares. The putative Asn-glycosylation site is marked with a triangle. The putative polyadenylation signal is underlined and shown in bold. The original EST sequence (I.M.A.G.E. Consortium Clone identification 309343, 3') comprised nucleotides 117–580 in a reverse complement orientation.

the "I.M.A.G.E. consortium" (LLNL) cDNA clones data base (63). This clone was found to contain a cDNA insert of 1020 bp bearing an open reading frame of 166 amino acid residues, thus coding for the entire protein sequence of the novel sPLA₂ (Fig. 1). The 5'-noncoding region was found to contain an Alu repetitive element, while the short 3'-noncoding region contained a canonical polyadenylation site located 18 bases upstream from a poly(A) tail (Fig. 1).

After removal of the 5' Alu repeat, the cDNA clone was used as a probe to map the hGX sPLA₂ gene by *in situ* hybridization on human metaphase chromosomes. In the 100 metaphase cells examined after *in situ* hybridization, there were 191 silver grains associated with chromosomes and 59 of these (30.9%)

were located on chromosome 16. The distribution of grains on this chromosome was not random, since 74.6% (44/59) of them mapped to the p13.1-p12 region of chromosome 16 short arm (Fig. 2). These results indicate that the hGX sPLA₂ gene maps to the 16p13.1-p12 region of the human genome. The chromosomal localization of this novel sPLA₂ is thus distinct from those of other known sPLA₂s which have been mapped on chromosomes 1 and 12 (Table I) (40, 70, 71).

Structural Features of hGX sPLA₂ and Comparison with Other sPLA₂s—The hGX sPLA₂ cDNA clone predicts a mature sPLA₂ protein of 123 amino acids (calculated molecular mass, 13.6 kDa) and the presence of a signal peptide with a maximal length of 42 amino acids (Fig. 1). The calculated isoelectric point of the mature protein is 5.29, thus placing hGX sPLA₂ as the most acidic human sPLA₂ (Table I). Sequence pattern analysis indicates that hGX sPLA₂ contains a potential glycosylation site at position 71, which is also found in the sequence of the mouse group IIC sPLA₂ (Table I and Fig. 3). Two potential initiator methionines located at positions -42 and -32 relative to the mature protein are found in the hGX sPLA₂ sequence (Fig. 1). Interestingly, two potential initiator methionines were also observed in the mouse group IIC sPLA₂ (39). Although the second methionine of the hGX sPLA₂ sequence does not appear in a more favorable context for initiation of translation as compared with the first methionine (65), the use of this second methionine as a translation initiation site will reduce the length of the prepropeptide to 32 amino acids, *i.e.* to a size more consistent with those of other sPLA₂ signal peptide sequences (19, 25, 26, 36, 37, 39). The presence of an arginine doublet and of other polar residues preceding the mature sPLA₂ protein strongly suggests that the signal sequence of hGX sPLA₂ is a

prepropeptide. It was, however, difficult to assign the position of the signal peptidase cleavage site that separates prepeptide and propeptide sequences (72). In addition, no evident homology was observed between the putative hGX sPLA₂ propeptide sequence and that of other sPLA₂s containing propeptides (19, 39). Although the maturation processing of hGX sPLA₂ remains to be elucidated, cleavage at dibasic amino acid motifs, including an arginine doublet, is known to be efficiently catalyzed by subtilisin-like protein convertases in the Golgi apparatus (73), thus suggesting that hGX sPLA₂ might be secreted as an active enzyme after removal of its propeptide sequence into the cell interior.

An alignment of the amino acid sequence of various mammalian sPLA₂s with the sequence of hGX sPLA₂ is presented in Fig. 3, and the biological properties of these sPLA₂s are compared in Table I. Fig. 3 shows that hGX sPLA₂ displays only 27–35% identity with other mammalian sPLA₂s, indicating no preferential homology with most of the other sPLA₂s. However, comparison of the complete hGX protein sequence with data bases indicates a slightly higher level of identity with group II sPLA₂s including those of snake venom origin. For example, hGX sPLA₂ displays 35% identity with human group II sPLA₂, while only 29% identity is observed with human group I sPLA₂. As a hallmark of all other sPLA₂s, the hGX sPLA₂ protein contains a large number of cysteines that are most probably assembled into disulfide bridges. Of the 16 cysteines found in the structure of hGX sPLA₂, two are located at positions 11 and 77, which are characteristic of group I sPLA₂s, while two others are found at positions 50 and 137, which are typical of group II sPLA₂s (Table I). The other cysteines are located at positions observed in both group I and II sPLA₂s, but not at positions that are characteristic of group IIC sPLA₂s (Fig. 3 and Table I). This cysteine pattern places the newly cloned sPLA₂ in a novel group, assigned as group X, according to the PLA₂ nomenclature recently refined by Dennis (2). In fact, the cysteine pattern of hGX sPLA₂ resembles that of PLA₂L3' (Table I), except that this latter sPLA₂ contains an extra cysteine at position 18 (Fig. 3). It is also interesting to note that hGX sPLA₂ has an amino acid C-terminal extension, which is characteristic of group II sPLA₂s, while it contains neither the elapid loop characteristic of group IA nor the pancreatic loop, a particular feature of group IB sPLA₂s, or the 4 amino acid insertion found in group IIC sPLA₂s (Table I and Fig. 3) (5). Fig. 3 also shows that hGX sPLA₂ contains all of the amino acids that are absolutely conserved in active sPLA₂ enzymes, indicating that the newly cloned sPLA₂ could be catalytically active.

A phylogenetic tree was derived from an alignment of all

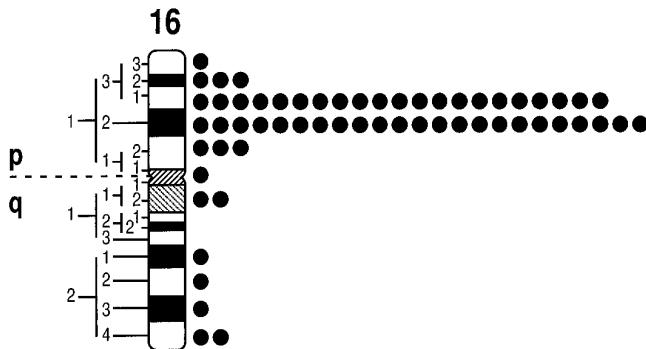


FIG. 2. **Chromosomal localization of the hGX sPLA₂ gene.** Idiogram of the human G-banded chromosome 16 illustrating the distribution of labeled sites for hGX sPLA₂ probe.

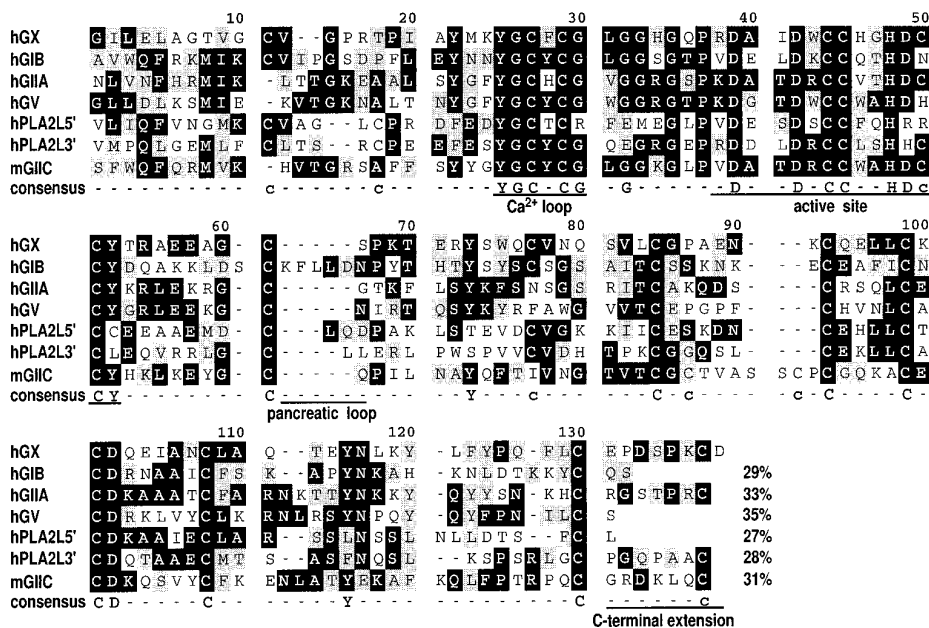
TABLE I
The different groups of mammalian sPLA₂s

sPLA ₂	Group	Major sources	Molecular mass ^a	pI ^a	N-glycosylation site ^a	No. of cysteines	Specific disulfide bridges ^b			Other specific features	Chromosomal localization
							11–77	50–137	86–92		
Pancreatic	IB	Pancreas, lung, spleen	13.2	7.6		14	+	–	–	Pancreatic loop propeptide	12
Inflammatory	IIA	Synovial fluid, platelets	13.9	9.3	101	14	–	+	–	C-terminal extension	1
PLA ₂ -8	IIC	Testis	14.6	8.3	72	16	–	+	+	C-terminal extension	1
PLA ₂ -10	V	Heart, lung	13.6	8.5		12	–	–	–		1
hGX	X	Spleen, thymus, peripheral blood leukocytes, lung	13.6	5.3	71	16	+	+	–	C-terminal extension putative propeptide	16
PLA ₂ L5'	?	Teratocarcinoma cell lines	13.0	4.7	105	16	+	–	–		?
PLA ₂ L3'	?	Teratocarcinoma cell lines	13.4	5.6	104	17	+	+	–	C-terminal extension	?

^a As determined from the sequence of mature proteins. For PLA₂L5' and PLA₂L3', the protein mature sequences correspond to those shown in Fig. 3.

^b Refer to Fig. 3 for the position of disulfide bridges.

FIG. 3. Alignment of the amino acid sequence of hGX sPLA₂ with other human sPLA₂s and mouse group IIC sPLA₂. Only mature protein sequences of sPLA₂s are shown. *hGX*, human group X sPLA₂; *hGIB*, human pancreatic group IB sPLA₂ (19); *hGIIA*, human inflammatory group IIA sPLA₂ (25, 26); *hGV*, human group V sPLA₂ (36); *hPLA₂L5'*, human sPLA₂-like gene 5' (45); *hPLA₂L3'*, human sPLA₂-like gene 3' (45); *mGIIC*, mouse group IIC sPLA₂ (39). The level of identity between hGX sPLA₂ and each other sPLA₂ is indicated. The consensus sequence of active sPLA₂s was refined from that published previously (5). Cysteines that are conserved throughout all sPLA₂s are indicated in *capital letters*, while those conserved in some sPLA₂ subgroups are indicated in *lower case letters*. Note that hPLA₂L5' and hPLA₂L3' do not share some of the active site residues, indicated in the consensus sequence of catalytically active sPLA₂s, and thus may belong to catalytically inactive enzymes.



known protein sequences of mammalian sPLA₂s (Fig. 4). A first division was observed in this tree between PLA₂L3'/PLA₂L5' and other mammalian sPLA₂s, that places these two sPLA₂ domains on a branch distinct from that of other mammalian sPLA₂s. This is particularly interesting if one considers that these two branches correspond to a separation between catalytically active and inactive sPLA₂s. Indeed, it is likely that the PLA₂L3' and PLA₂L5' domains (45), if expressed separately as sPLA₂ proteins, would correspond to catalytically inactive enzymes, since these structures do not have several of the residues found in catalytically active sPLA₂s (Fig. 3). According to this tree, a second duplication event would have occurred to generate the present group I sPLA₂s and another branch from which the other mammalian sPLA₂s originate. Interestingly, hGX sPLA₂ appears to result from an ancestral duplication event occurring after the separation of group I sPLA₂s and other sPLA₂s, but before the divergence between group II and group V sPLA₂s (Fig. 4). Therefore, it is likely that sPLA₂s from groups II, V, and X have emerged from a common ancestor, while sPLA₂s from group I are more distantly related and arose before the development of these more recent groups. This dendrogram is also in accordance with the chromosomal localization of sPLA₂s (Table I). Indeed, the three closely related human sPLA₂s from group IIA, IIC, and V, which would have emerged from recent gene duplication events, map to chromosome 1, while the more distant human group I and human group X sPLA₂s map to chromosome 12 and 16, respectively. Finally, it appears from this tree that group IIC sPLA₂s are more distant from group IIA and group V sPLA₂s that would have emerged from a common ancestor (Fig. 4).

Transcription Pattern of hGX sPLA₂ and Comparison with That of Other Human sPLA₂s—The tissue expression pattern of hGX sPLA₂ was analyzed by probing several human multiple tissue Northern blots at high stringency (Fig. 5). Transcripts of 1.5 kb coding for hGX sPLA₂ were detected in adult spleen and at a lower level in adult thymus and peripheral blood leukocytes. This result could indicate a specific expression of hGX sPLA₂ in cells related to the immune system and inflammation. It is then possible that hGX sPLA₂, as with group II and group V sPLA₂s (3, 16, 27, 38, 74), may participate in the release of lipid mediators of inflammation. Whether the expression of hGX sPLA₂, as with human group II sPLA₂ (3, 16, 27, 74), is up-regulated in certain pathological conditions remains to be

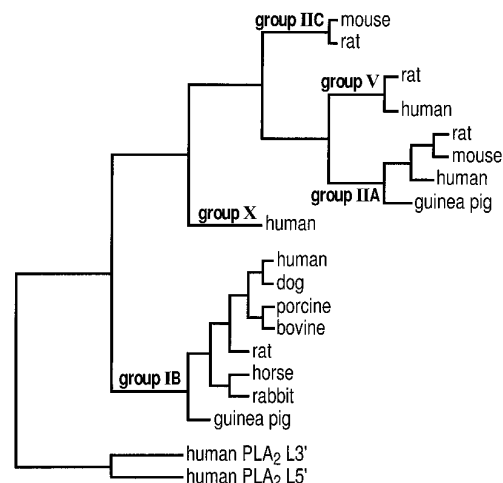


FIG. 4. Phylogenetic tree of mammalian sPLA₂s. sPLA₂s sequences were analyzed using the Genetics Computer Group (GCG) package. The phylogenetic tree was generated using successively pileup, distances, and growtree programs. sPLA₂ sequences used have been retrieved from Refs. 19 and 86–92 for group I sPLA₂s; Refs. 25, 26, and 93–95 for group IIA sPLA₂s; Ref. 39 for group IIC sPLA₂s; Refs. 36 and 37 for group V sPLA₂s; and Ref. 45 for hPLA₂L5' and hPLA₂L3'.

determined. Although the cDNA coding for hGX sPLA₂ was originally cloned from a human fetal lung library, no transcript was detected in human fetal lung, indicating that hGX sPLA₂ is not highly expressed in this fetal tissue (although the absence of expression may also be due to differences in sample preparations from different individuals). No expression was detected in other fetal tissues such as heart, liver, and brain (Fig. 5). Another low abundance 0.8-kb transcript was detected in the colon, lung, and pancreas, which could result from distinct sites of initiation or termination of transcription or from alternative splicing.

The pattern of expression of hGX sPLA₂ was then compared with those of other human sPLA₂s. In accordance with previous data (19, 55), a huge amount of human group I sPLA₂ transcript was detected in adult pancreas and at lower levels in the spleen, lung, and prostate. No detectable expression was observed in the kidney and small intestine, contrasting with previous data (18, 75). Interestingly, a 0.5-kb transcript was

also observed in the ovary as well as in fetal lung and fetal liver, while a transcript of higher size was detected in the testis (Fig. 5). Fig. 5 shows that human group II sPLA₂ is widely distributed in several human adult tissues, including heart, liver, skeletal muscle, small intestine, and prostate. As for the human pancreatic sPLA₂, human group II sPLA₂ is expressed also in fetal liver (Fig. 5). These results are in accordance with the previous detection of human group II sPLA₂ in a variety of mammalian tissues and cells, although the expression levels might be rather variable, depending on cell activation, which is known to highly modulate the expression of human group II sPLA₂ (3, 16, 27, 29, 75). For example, no human group II sPLA₂ transcripts are detected in spleen and peripheral blood leukocytes, from which human group II sPLA₂ was characterized (3, 16, 27, 76). As previously observed (36), human group V sPLA₂ is strongly expressed in adult heart and at lower levels in the lung and liver (Fig. 5). A low expression is also observed in the prostate, testis, ovary, small intestine, and colon, while no expression is detected in fetal tissues (Fig. 5). Taken together, it appears that the tissue distribution of these four human sPLA₂s is different, suggesting diverse biological functions for each of them. Besides the expression of hGX sPLA₂ in spleen, where both human group I (Fig. 5) and human group II sPLA₂s (76) are also expressed, hGX sPLA₂ is expressed in the thymus, a tissue in which other human sPLA₂s are not detected (Fig. 5). The presence of a secretory PLA₂ activity in the thymus either at adult stages or during the fetal thymic development is not well documented. Group II sPLA₂ is known to be strongly expressed in rat thymus after endotoxin shock induced by lipopolysaccharides (77), and PLA₂ activity has been detected in T lymphocytes and epithelial cells from rat thymus,

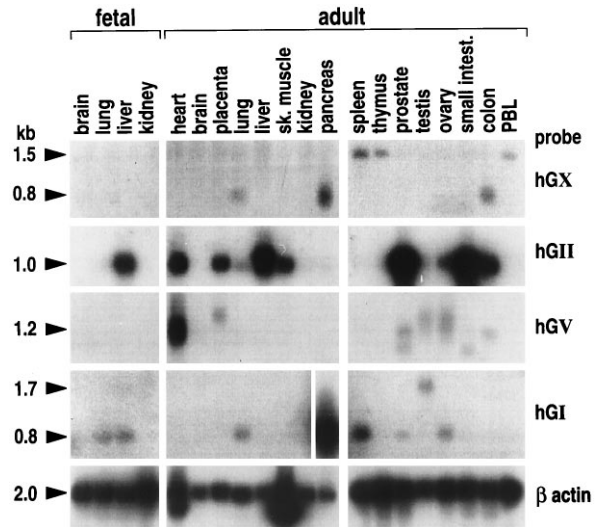


FIG. 5. Northern blot analysis of the tissue distribution of hGX sPLA₂ and of other human sPLA₂s. Fetal and adult human multiple Northern blots (2 μ g of poly(A⁺) mRNA/lane) were first hybridized at high stringency with a ³²P-labeled insert of hGX sPLA₂ (hGX probe) as described under "Experimental Procedures." *Sk. muscle*, skeletal muscle; *PBL*, peripheral blood leukocytes. The same blots were then hybridized at high stringency successively with the entire coding sequences of human group II sPLA₂ (hGII probe), human group V sPLA₂ (hGV probe), and human group I sPLA₂ (hGI probe). Filters were exposed for 7 days for each panel except for hybridization of human group I sPLA₂ to pancreas (3 h of exposure). The same blots were finally hybridized with the commercial β -actin probe (7 h of exposure).

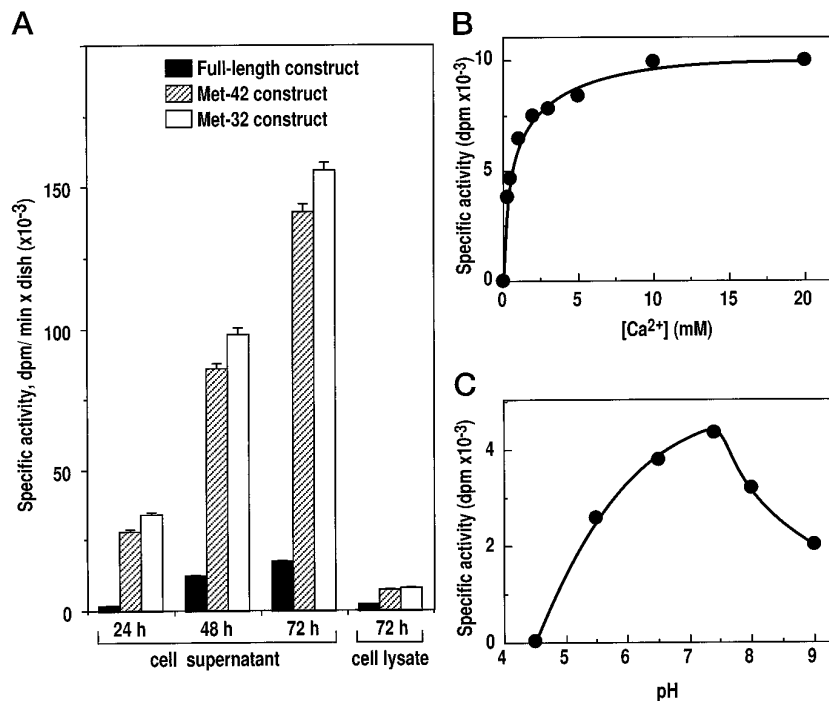


FIG. 6. Recombinant expression of the hGX sPLA₂ cDNA in eukaryotic cells. *Panel A*, hGX sPLA₂ activity measured in cell supernatants and cell lysate of COS cells transiently transfected with the full-length hGX sPLA₂ cDNA and Met-42 or Met-32 cDNA constructs (see "Experimental Procedures" for details). Cell supernatants were collected at 24, 48, and 72 h after transfection and assayed for enzymatic activity. sPLA₂ activity was also measured in cell lysates prepared at 72 h post transfection. Results are expressed as the mean value \pm S.E. of three independent transfection experiments. sPLA₂ activity was measured by hydrolysis of [³H]oleate-labeled *E. coli* membranes as described under "Experimental Procedures." Cells transfected with the parent expression vector did not show hGX sPLA₂ activity in the cell supernatant. *Panel B*, Ca²⁺ dependence of hGX sPLA₂ activity, enzymatic activity was determined by hydrolysis of [³H]oleate-labeled *E. coli* membranes as described under "Experimental Procedures" in the presence of 2 mM EDTA (0 Ca²⁺ free) or of increasing concentrations of CaCl₂. *Panel C*, pH dependence of hGX sPLA₂ activity, enzymatic activity was determined by hydrolysis of [³H]oleate-labeled *E. coli* membranes as described under "Experimental Procedures" in the presence of 25 mM sodium acetate buffer at pH range 4.5–6.5 or 25 mM Tris-HCl buffer at pH range 7.0–9.0. Characterization of hGX sPLA₂ activity (*panels B* and *C*) was performed using supernatants of cells transfected with the Met-32 construct.

TABLE II
Substrate specificity of hGX sPLA₂

hGX sPLA₂ activity was measured on phospholipid liposomes and erythrocyte ghost membranes. 200 nmol of phospholipids with various fatty acid chains were used in sPLA₂ assays as described under "Experimental Procedures." A single set of data from one of three experiments is presented.

Substrate	sn-2 fatty acid	Substrate available		Substrate hydrolyzed	
		nmol	nmol	% of release	
Phosphatidylcholine	C18:1	134.96	2.80	2.07	
	C18:2	51.44	1.71	3.32	
	C20:4	10.84	0.44	4.05	
	C22:6	2.76	0.10	3.62	
Total		200.00	5.05	2.53	
Phosphatidylethanolamine	C18:1	117.72	1.84	1.56	
	C18:2	63.16	2.06	3.26	
	C20:4	15.70	2.45	15.61	
	C22:6	3.42	0.13	3.80	
Total		200.00	6.48	3.24	
Phosphatidylserine	C18:1	143.08	0.174	0.12	
	C18:2	2.27	0.000	0.00	
	C20:4	1.77	0.003	0.17	
	C22:6	52.88	0.000	0.00	
Total		200.00	0.177	0.09	
Ghost	C18:1	81.98	0.25	0.30	
	C18:2	34.93	0.22	0.63	
	C20:4	73.34	0.33	0.45	
	C22:6	9.75	0.05	0.51	
Total		200.00	0.85	0.43	

but the molecular nature of these PLA₂s has not been identified (78, 79). The biological role of PLA₂ activity in thymus is poorly understood, although certain reports suggest a role in rat thymocyte apoptosis (80, 81). Interestingly, *p*-bromophenacyl bromide, a known inhibitor of sPLA₂s (14, 30, 82, 83), prevents apoptosis of rat thymocytes and lymphoma cells (84).

Recombinant Expression of hGX sPLA₂ and Characterization of sPLA₂ Activity—To test whether the hGX sPLA₂ cDNA really encodes a catalytically active sPLA₂, this cDNA was inserted into the expression vector pcDNA I and then transfected into eukaryotic cells. Three different constructs of hGX sPLA₂ were prepared. The first construct was generated by insertion of the full-length cDNA clone (1020 bp) into the expression vector. Two other constructs were prepared by a PCR-assisted strategy to insert into the expression vector only the cDNA sequence coding for the mature protein preceded by the pre-peptide sequence, starting either at methionine-42 (Met-42 construct) or at methionine-32 (Met-32 construct). In addition, a consensus site for initiation of translation was inserted in both of these latter constructs to increase the efficiency of expression of hGX sPLA₂ (65). The three different constructs were transfected into COS cells, and the cell supernatants were assayed for sPLA₂ activity at different times after transfection (Fig. 6). Cell supernatants from COS cells transfected with the three different constructs accumulated hGX sPLA₂ activity, whereas cells transfected with the parent vector did not show sPLA₂ activity (Fig. 6A). A sPLA₂ activity representing 6% of the total cellular activity was recovered from the cell lysate obtained 72 h after cell transfection, indicating that hGX sPLA₂ was actively secreted by COS cells (Fig. 6A). The expression level of hGX sPLA₂ activity obtained with Met-42 and Met-32 clones was about 10-fold higher relative to that observed with the full-length cDNA construct, probably due to the presence of the consensus leader sequence added in the PCR-made constructs (Fig. 6). Furthermore, the expression level of sPLA₂ activity was not significantly modified when the trans-

lation of hGX sPLA₂ started at methionine-32, suggesting that this methionine may be functional *in vivo* as an initiator site of translation. Finally, based on the presence of a propeptide sequence ending with an arginine doublet in the structure of hGX sPLA₂, it was of interest to verify whether hGX sPLA₂ could be secreted as a zymogen. For that purpose, COS cells were transfected and transferred into serum-free medium, and the resulting supernatants were treated with trypsin and then assayed for sPLA₂ activity. Treatment with trypsin (which is assumed to cleave efficiently at the propeptide arginine doublet if present) did not significantly increase the supernatant sPLA₂ activity, suggesting that most of the sPLA₂ released into the cell incubation medium was already active and thus that the cleavage of the propeptide sequence might have already occurred during the cell maturation of hGX sPLA₂. When human HEK 293 cells were used instead of COS cells for the same experiments, similar results were obtained, suggesting that hGX sPLA₂ is an active enzyme efficiently secreted by diverse eukaryotic cells (data not shown). As shown in Fig. 6, B and C, recombinant sPLA₂ required 10 mM Ca²⁺ for maximal enzymatic activity and was optimally active at physiological pH, with a rapid drop in sPLA₂ activity observed below pH 6.0 and above pH 8.0.

The substrate preference of hGX sPLA₂ was determined using as substrate artificial liposomes of natural lipids as well as erythrocyte ghost membranes. Table II indicates that hGX sPLA₂ hydrolyzes phosphatidylethanolamine slightly more efficiently than phosphatidylcholine, while phosphatidylserine is poorly hydrolyzed. This substrate preference is very similar to that known for other sPLA₂s (14, 25–27, 30). The results presented in Table II also indicate that hGX sPLA₂ hydrolyzes more efficiently phospholipids containing polyunsaturated fatty acids at the *sn*-2 position, whatever the polar head group of phospholipids. This may suggest that hGX sPLA₂ prefers lipids containing polyunsaturated fatty acids. Whether this apparent specificity is preserved for physiological substrates, such as membranes from live cells, remains to be addressed.

In conclusion, this report describes the molecular cloning and the characterization of a novel low molecular mass sPLA₂. Besides its particular structural features, which assign this sPLA₂ to a new group, the cloned enzyme is expressed in the spleen, thymus, and peripheral blood leukocytes where it may realize particular function(s). While the origin of cells that express this novel sPLA₂ is currently unknown, hGX sPLA₂ expression in the thymus, spleen, and leukocytes strongly suggests a role in relation to the immune system and/or inflammation. In that respect, it will be particularly interesting to analyze the expression of hGX sPLA₂ during fetal thymic development and upon inflammatory challenge. The hGX sPLA₂ gene has been mapped to chromosome 16, in a region that is closely associated with T cell leukemias (85). Further work is clearly needed to establish the exact physiological function(s) of this new sPLA₂ and to determine whether it has any relevance in disease states.

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