

Amber Suppression: a Nucleotide Change in the Anticodon of a Tyrosine Transfer RNA

by

HOWARD M. GOODMAN

JOHN ABELSON

ARTHUR LANDY

S. BRENNER

J. D. SMITH

MRC Laboratory of Molecular Biology,
Cambridge

In certain mutants a single base change alters the meaning of a messenger codon in such a way that, instead of spelling out an amino-acid, it spells out chain termination. Mutants in a quite different gene, called a suppression gene, allow the chain-terminating triplet to be read as an amino-acid. Experiments have shown that this is caused by a mutated tRNA which carries a single base change in its anticodon. This allows it to read the chain-terminating codon as if it spelt tyrosine.

IN *Escherichia coli* the amber codon UAG is one of the three "nonsense" triplets (reviewed in ref. 1) that code as signals for termination of messenger RNA translation. Strains of *E. coli*, which allow translation of UAG as an amino-acid and subsequent propagation of the polypeptide chain, result from mutation in one of several suppressor genes. There are two classes of UAG suppressors: first, ochre suppressors which permit both UAG and the related chain terminating triplet UAA to be read with low efficiency, and, second, the relatively efficient amber suppressors which are specific for UAG. It has been shown for three amber suppressors that suppression is caused by the presence of an altered tRNA in the *su*⁺ cell²⁻⁵. Although there was no doubt that the suppressor itself was a tRNA molecule, these experiments did not show how the suppressor gene acts. It could, for example, control the synthesis of a tRNA not present in *su*⁻ cells, or of an enzyme which modifies tRNA. More simply it could specify the sequence of a tRNA. We will show that the amber suppressor *su*_{III} gene is the structural gene for one of the tyrosine tRNAs of *E. coli* and that the mutation *su*_{III}⁻ to *su*_{III}⁺ results in a base change in the anticodon of this tRNA.

The nature of the mutational change is shown by comparison of the nucleotide sequences of the *su*_{III}⁺ tyrosine tRNA and the corresponding tRNA specified by the *su*_{III}⁻ allele. The *su*_{III} suppressor tRNA is a small part of the total tyrosine tRNA in the cell. The rest of the tyrosine tRNA consists of two species (I and II). To overcome this difficulty we used a technique designed greatly to increase the amount of *su*_{III} gene product in the cell by increasing the number of copies of the gene. The *su*_{III} gene, which maps very near to the attachment site of phage ϕ 80, was placed on a defective transducing ϕ 80. Infection of *E. coli* with the transducing phage resulted in a phage DNA pool containing many copies of the *su*_{III} gene. In this way, the amount/cell of the *su*_{III} gene product, *su*_{III} tyrosine tRNA, was greatly increased. This technique also allows selective isotopic labelling of the tRNA for sequence determination.

Transducing Phage ϕ 80 carrying the *su*_{III} Gene

In the experiments described here, a particular defective transducing phage ϕ 80 *dsu*_{III}⁺ (V) was used⁴. The *su*_{III}⁺ gene was isolated as a spontaneous mutant from an *su*_{III}

strain. The homologous phage, transducing the wild type allele, ϕ 80 *dsu*_{III}⁻, was derived as a recombinant from heterozygous strains lysogenic for ϕ 80 *dsu*_{III}⁺. Thus ϕ 80 *dsu*_{III}⁻ and ϕ 80 *dsu*_{III}⁺ are identical except for the single spontaneous mutation which produced the *su*_{III}⁺ allele.

Synthesis of *su*_{III} Tyrosine tRNA after Infection by ϕ 80 *dsu*_{III}

Infection of *E. coli* CA274 (*su*⁻ *lac*⁻ amber) with ϕ 80 *dsu*_{III}⁺ resulted in the appearance of suppressor activity as measured by the suppression of an amber mutation in the β galactosidase gene. This was closely paralleled by an increase in the amount of tyrosine tRNA in the cell (Fig. 1). No increase occurs in the relative proportion of any other tRNA.

Ribosome binding experiments with the tRNA synthesized after infection with ϕ 80 *dsu*_{III}⁺ showed that the *su*_{III}⁺ strains contain a tyrosine tRNA which recognizes the amber codon. The corresponding tRNA in cells infected with ϕ 80 *dsu*_{III}⁻ recognizes the normal tyrosine codons UAU and UAC⁴. Although these experiments do not prove that the suppressor gene specifies a tyrosine tRNA, this, however, is likely because ϕ 80 *dsu*_{III}⁺ does contain a structural gene for tyrosine tRNA as shown by specific hybridization of tyrosine tRNA with the DNA from this phage⁶.

Nucleotide Sequences of *su*_{III}⁺ and *su*_{III}⁻ Tyrosine tRNAs

If the *su*_{III} gene is the structural gene for a tyrosine tRNA, we expect that the mutation from the *su*_{III}⁻ to *su*_{III}⁺ allele will have produced a nucleotide change in the *su*_{III} tRNA. To test this idea we have determined the nucleotide sequence of the *su*_{III}⁺ tyrosine tRNA and compared it with that of the *su*_{III}⁻ tRNA.

The *su*_{III}⁺ tRNA labelled with phosphorus-32 was prepared as previously described⁶ or by a slightly modified procedure (see legend of Fig. 1). The selective labelling of *su*_{III} tyrosine tRNA after infection was evident from the high proportion of tRNA labelled with phosphorus-32 eluting with tyrosine tRNA during purification on the DEAE 'Sephadex' column. Pooled fractions from this region often contained about 70 per cent radiochemically pure tyrosine tRNA and were sufficiently homogeneous

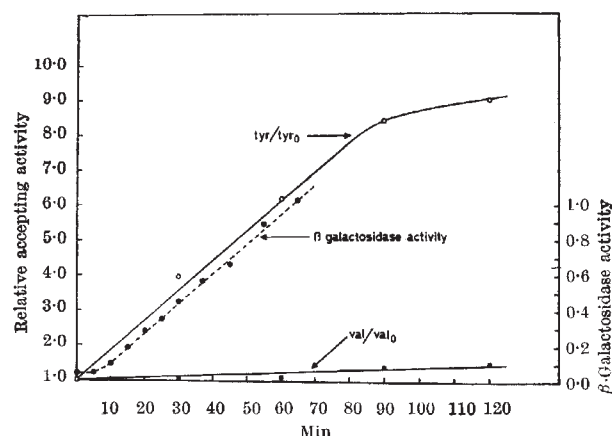


Fig. 1. Increase of tyrosine tRNA and suppressor activity in *E. coli* CA274 *su- lac-* amber following infection by $\phi 80$ *dsu*_{III}. *E. coli* CA274 was grown to 2×10^8 cells/ml. in LP medium*. The cells were collected by centrifugation and concentrated ten-fold in preconditioned LP medium. MgSO₄ was added to 0.02 M and the cell suspension was irradiated with ultraviolet light for 90 s. This dose kills 70 per cent of the cells. The culture was then infected with 30 $\phi 80$ *dsu*_{III} particles/bacterium. After adsorption for 7 min the cell suspension was diluted ten-fold in preconditioned media. Two separate experiments are shown. In one experiment, the suppression of an amber mutation in the β -galactosidase gene was measured by assaying enzyme activity at various times after dilution into the growth medium. One mM of isopropylthio-galactoside was added to induce the β -galactosidase. In the second experiment, aliquots of the infected culture were removed, tRNA was extracted, and tested for its ability to be acylated with several different amino-acids. Fifty μ g/ml. of chloramphenicol added at 25 min prevented lysis which normally occurs at 60 min after dilution. In experiments where the tRNA is labelled with ³²P, 0.05 m Ci/ml. is added 5 min after dilution of the infected cells and the culture is collected after 2 h.

for some of the nucleotide sequence work. In other cases, these fractions were further purified by either of two chemical methods which depend on the ability of the tRNA to be acylated with tyrosine^{7,8}.

The sequence of the *su*_{III} tyrosine tRNA labelled with phosphorus-32 was determined using the methods of Sanger *et al.*^{9,10}. The end-products of complete digestion with *T*₁ ribonuclease or pancreatic ribonuclease were separated on a two-dimensional electrophoretic system and their sequences determined by further enzymatic digestion. These are listed in Table 1. The combination of products from the two enzyme digests gave only two significant overlaps—GAAGGT ψ CG and CCAAAGGGAGC.

To overlap the remaining end-products, larger fragments were obtained by partial enzyme digestion and separated as described before¹¹. The sequences of these partial fragments were determined from the complete products of their digestion with *T*₁ ribonuclease and pancreatic ribonuclease. About one hundred large fragments were obtained by partial digestion with various enzymes and their sequences were determined. Fig. 2 shows a selected set of fragments from which the complete sequence was deduced. Fig. 3a shows the *su*_{III} tyrosine tRNA sequence arranged in the "clover leaf"

Table 1. END-PRODUCTS OF RIBONUCLEASE DIGESTION OF *su*_{III} TYROSINE-tRNA

<i>T</i> ₁ ribonuclease	Pancreatic ribonuclease
7 G	20 C
2 AG	8 U
UG	ψ
pGp	AoH
CCG	2 AC
CAG	GC
AA G	AU
CG _{2'} OMeG	GAC
CCAAAG	AGAC
T ψ CG	G _{2'} OMeGC
U*UCCG	AA*Ap
UCAUCG	GAGC
ACUUCG	GU
AAUCCUCCCCACCACCA-OH	GAUU
ACUCUAA*ApCUG	AAAGGGAGC
	GAAGGT
	GGGU*
	pGGU

pattern characteristic of the yeast tRNA structures. For comparison, the sequence of yeast tyrosine tRNA as determined by Madison, Everett and Kung¹² is shown in Fig. 3b. Note that in *su*_{III} tyrosine tRNA, CUA is in the position expected for the anticodon.

There is only a single nucleotide difference between the *su*_{III} and *su*_{III} tyrosine tRNAs and this is best illustrated by comparison of their *T*₁ ribonuclease digestion products. Fig. 4 compares the fingerprints of the *T*₁ ribonuclease digestion products of the two tRNAs.

Comparison of the *T*₁ products shows that oligonucleotide 17, ACUCUAA*ApCUG, in the *su*_{III} tRNA is replaced in the *su*_{III} tRNA by the two oligonucleotides ACUG and UAA*ApCUG. For the moment we will ignore the presence in the *su*_{III} fingerprint of oligonucleotide 17a (which is related to 17); its significance will be discussed later. There are no differences in any other *T*₁ ribonuclease digestion products. In the *su*_{III} tRNA the sequence corresponding to oligonucleotide 17 (*su*_{III}) must therefore be ACUGUAA*ApCUG which is split by *T*₁ ribonuclease to give ACUG and UAA*ApCUG. The sequence GUA in *su*_{III} tRNA is thus changed to CUA in the *su*_{III} tRNA. GUA is the expected anticodon for the dual recognition of the tyrosine codons UAU and UAC (ref. 13) and in fact G ψ A is found in the expected anticodon position of yeast tyrosine tRNA (Fig. 3b) which recognizes both these codons¹⁴. CUA is the anticodon expected for the unique recognition of the amber codon UAG. In the complete sequence (Fig. 3a) of *su*_{III} tRNA, CUA occupies the anticodon position. These results show that the mutational event giving rise to the *su*_{III} allele can be accounted for by a G to C change in the structural gene for a tyrosine tRNA.

G in the Anticodon is Normally Modified

In these experiments, the *su*_{III} tRNA had an unmodified G in the first position of the anticodon. Normally, however, the G in the anticodon of the *su*_{III} tyrosine tRNA is

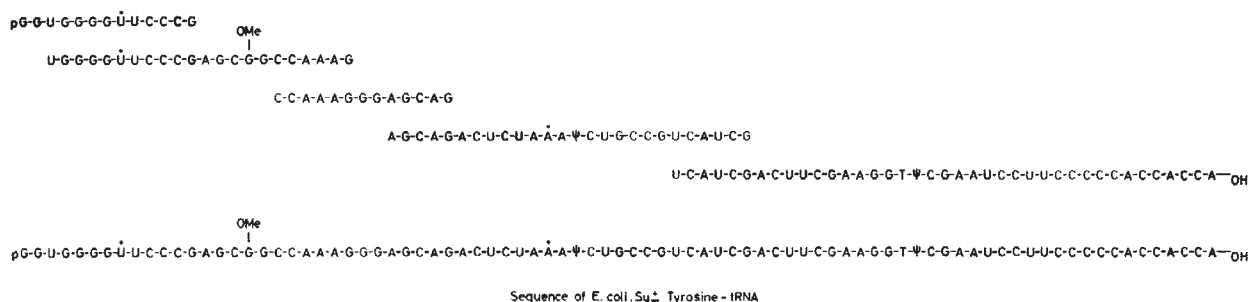


Fig. 2. Examples of overlapping oligonucleotides used to determine the sequence of *su*_{III} tyrosine tRNA. The five oligonucleotides were separated after partial *T*₁ ribonuclease digestion and their sequences determined as described in the text.

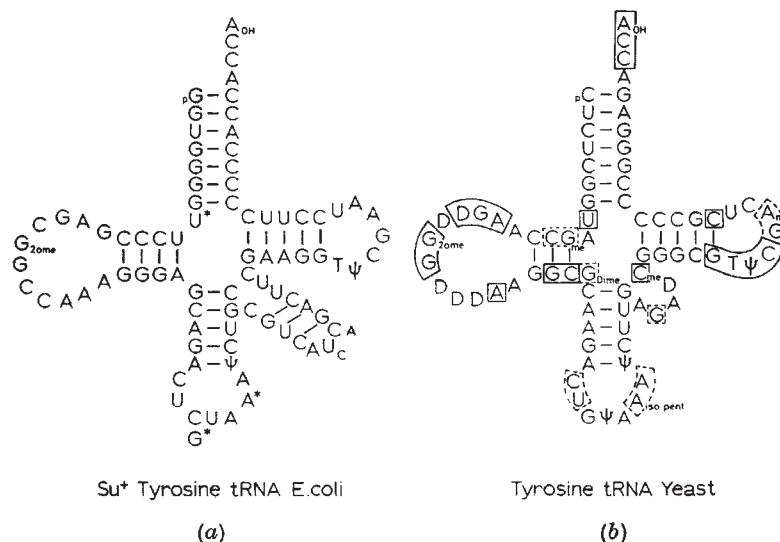


Fig. 3. Clover leaf models of *E. coli* and yeast tyrosine tRNAs. The sequence of the *su*_{III} tyrosine tRNA is shown with the differences that occur in *su*_{III} and species I and II (a). For identification of the minor bases see Fig. 4 and the text. The *su*_{III} and species I tyrosine tRNAs have identical sequences and differ from *su*_{III} in having a G* in the anticodon. Species II *tyr* tRNA has the same anticodon sequence containing G* but is different in two positions where the *T*₁ ribonuclease product UCAUCG is replaced by UCACAG. The latter oligonucleotide has been independently identified by B. P. Doctor and S. Nishimura. The sequence of the yeast tyrosine tRNA is taken from Madison *et al.*¹² (b). The sequences enclosed in solid boxes are common to all the five yeast tRNA structures so far determined (neglecting differences in modification), while those enclosed in dotted boxes are common to most of the sequences.

a modified guanine derivative (G*). In *su*_{III} tyrosine tRNA synthesized in conditions where the cells were starved before infection⁶ we have observed that A* and G_{2'OMe} remain largely unmodified. The same is true of the G residue in the anticodon. In *su*_{III} tRNA prepared from cells not starved before infection (legend to Fig. 1), the G residue in the anticodon is partly or completely modified to G*. This is not split by *T*₁ ribonuclease so that the *T*₁ ribonuclease product containing the anticodon is ACUG*UAA* Ψ CUG. The same anticodon G*UA also occurs in the two principal tyrosine tRNA components of *E. coli* (Fig. 3a, I and II), and therefore it was possible to isolate small quantities of non-radioactive G*_p to study its properties. G*_p has an ultraviolet absorption spectrum very similar to that of G_p. It differs from G_p in having an additional basic group with a pK_a between 5 and 6. Neither *T*₁ nor pancreatic ribonuclease splits the anticodon at the position of G*_p and hence in a pancreatic ribonuclease digest it is obtained as the dinucleotide G*_pU_p. From ribosome binding studies on *E. coli* tyrosine tRNAs it is clear that G* has the same codon recognition properties as G. The nature of the modification (which we suspect is on the imidazole part of the purine ring) and its biological significance remain unknown.

Heterogeneity of *su*_{III} Tyrosine tRNA

In the *su*_{III} tRNA *T*₁ ribonuclease fingerprint we noted the presence of an additional oligonucleotide 17a (Fig. 4). This has the sequence ACUG*UAA* Ψ CUG and is present in amounts varying between 20 per cent and 40 per cent of the *su*_{III} anticodon-containing *T*₁ product ACUCUAA* Ψ CUG. The sum of the two is in molar yield in the tRNA. Thus the tyrosine tRNA synthesized after infection by ϕ 80 *dsu*_{III} contains in addition to *su*_{III} tRNA a smaller proportion of a tyrosine tRNA with the *su*⁻ anticodon sequence. As will be shown later, the tyrosine tRNA in *E. coli* can be separated into two kinds of molecules. One of these, tyrosine tRNA I, has the same sequence as the *su*⁻ tRNA. The other, tyrosine tRNA II,

differs by two nucleotides. Fingerprints of the *su*_{III} tyrosine tRNA exclude the presence of tyrosine tRNA II as the source of the contaminating *su*⁻ anticodon sequence. We have considered four possible explanations for this. (i) The ϕ 80 *dsu*_{III} carries an additional tyrosine tRNA gene determining the structure of tyrosine tRNA species I. This is not supported by hybridization experiments between ϕ 80 *dsu*_{III} DNA and tyrosine tRNA, which show that the transducing phage carries a single tRNA gene⁶. (ii) The ϕ 80 *dsu*_{III} phage preparations always contain a proportion of ϕ 80 *dsu*_{III} transducing phage. Such phages could be produced by abnormal excisions occurring in the induction of the heterogenote. We have no good method of assessing the frequency of such events although the general phenomenon is known to occur¹⁵. (iii) The transcription of genes near the ϕ 80 attachment site is specifically promoted on infection by the ϕ 80 transducing phage. (iv) The presence of many copies of the structural gene for the *su*_{III} tyrosine tRNA specifically induces the expression of one class of chromosomal tyrosine tRNA genes.

At present we cannot say which of these mechanisms produces the effect we have observed. Experiments are in progress which should distinguish between them.

Tyrosine tRNAs in Uninfected *E. coli*

There are two principal tyrosine tRNAs in *E. coli* which can be separated by column chromatography on DEAE 'Sephadex'¹⁶. These are referred to as I and II in the order they elute from the column. They are present in proportions of approximately 40 per cent (I) and 60 per cent (II). We have determined the sequences of I and II from CA265 *su*_{III} uniformly labelled with phosphorus-32. The labelled tyrosine tRNAs were isolated by a combination of chromatography on DEAE 'Sephadex', and either reversed phase partition chromatography¹⁷ or chromatography on benzoylated DEAE cellulose¹⁸. The sequences were derived in the same way as for *su*_{III} tRNA. Certain overlaps of the complete *T*₁ and pancreatic digestion

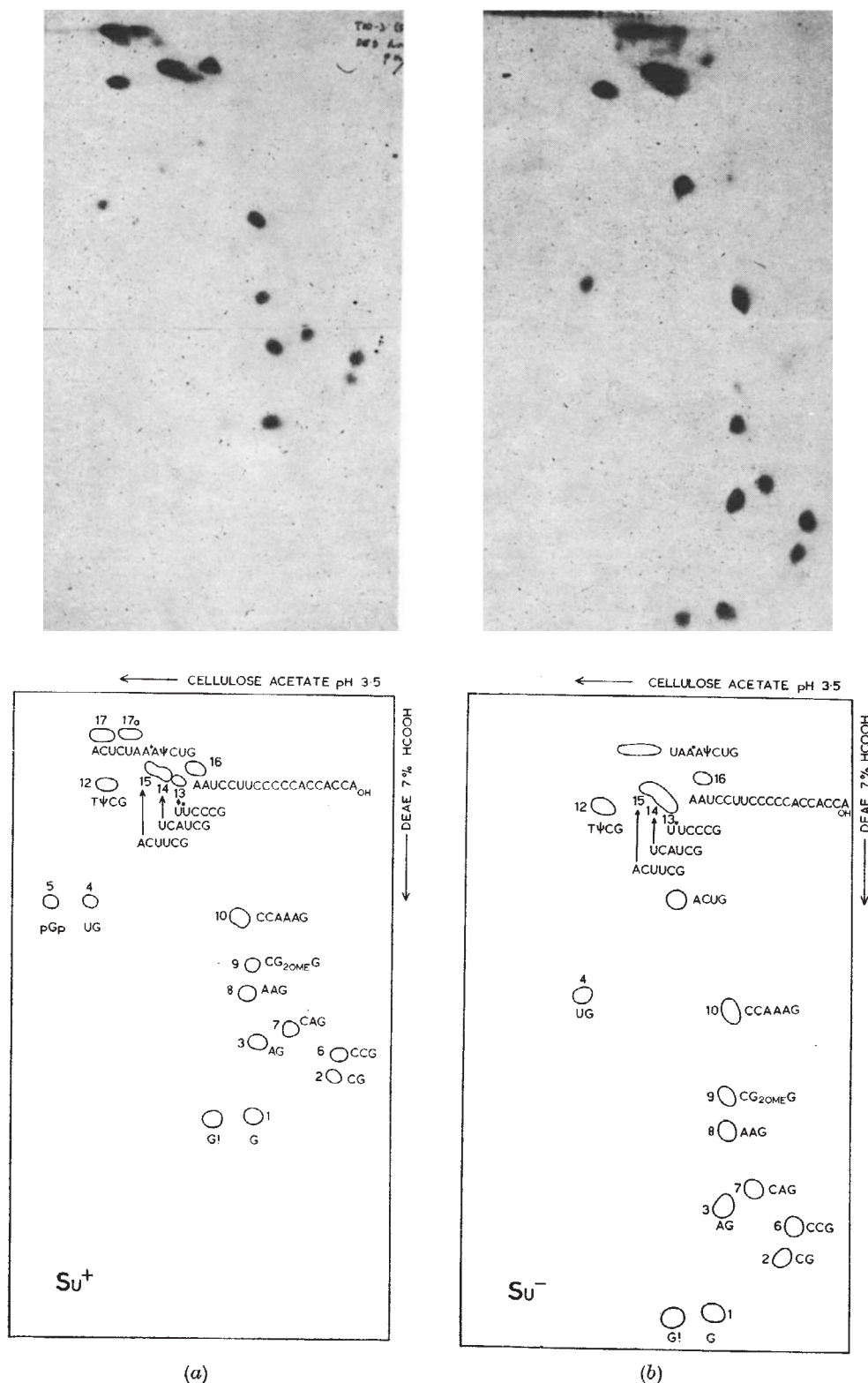


Fig. 4. Two dimensional electrophoretic separation of a ribonuclease T_1 digest of su_{II}^+ tyrosine tRNA labelled with ^{32}P . *a*, The end-products of ribonuclease T_1 digestion were separated by two dimensional electrophoresis first on cellulose acetate in pyridine-acetate buffer, pH 3.5, and then on DEAE-cellulose paper in 7 per cent formic acid (v/v). The lower diagram shows the identification of the nucleotides. The three hexanucleotides 13, 14 and 15 can be resolved after removal of their terminal 3'-phosphates with phosphomonoesterase. The appearance of CG is a consequence of incomplete 2'-O-methylation of CG_{20ME}G giving rise to CG plus G after digestion with ribonuclease T_1 . The hexanucleotide, U^{*}UCCCG, always occurs in low yield, a fact that has not yet been adequately explained. pGp streaks badly and has partially migrated off the paper, making it difficult to detect. The two spots to the right and slightly above UG are minor contaminants which disappear on further purification of the tRNA. U^{*} is a sulphur-containing nucleotide, tentatively identified as 4-thiouridylic acid. A^{*} is derived from adenylic acid and, because it can be labelled with (^{32}S) sulphate and (^{14}C)-methyl methionine, it presumably contains both sulphur and a methyl group. *b*, Two dimensional electrophoretic separation of a T_1 ribonuclease digest of su_{III}^- tyrosine tRNA labelled with ^{32}P produced after infection with $\phi 80 dsu_{III}$. In this separation spot 16 has trailed but is normally present in molar yield. The time of electrophoresis on DEAE paper was longer than in *a*.

products in the first sixteen residues have not yet been obtained, and the sequence in this region is assigned by analogy with that of the su_{III}^+ tRNA.

Both tyrosine tRNAs I and II contain the anticodon G*UA and differ only in a sequence of two nucleotides in the loop between the anticodon and T ψ CG arms (Fig. 3a). Tyrosine I has a sequence apparently identical with that of su_{III}^+ tyrosine tRNA so that in *E. coli* there are only two basic types of tyrosine tRNA sequences.

Thus it is clear that the two different sequences (I and II) must be specified by separate genes. If tyrosine tRNA I and su_{III}^+ were determined by the same gene, then we would expect that in an su_{III}^+ strain all of tyrosine tRNA I would be converted to su_{III}^+ tRNA. When tyrosine tRNA from *E. coli* CA275 su_{III}^+ is fractionated on a DEAE 'Sephadex' column, assays for su_{III}^+ tRNA show that it is located between the peaks of tyrosine tRNAs I and II (Fig. 5). This is confirmed by fingerprinting. We conclude that there is a separate gene for su_{III}^+ tRNA even though it has the same sequence as tyrosine I.

Comparison between Yeast and *E. coli* Tyrosine tRNAs

It is interesting to compare the sequences of the yeast and *E. coli* tyrosine tRNAs. The shape and hydrogen bonding pattern of the clover leaf model are common to the two organisms. As indicated on the diagram, most of the specific sequence similarities between the two tyrosine tRNAs are also shared by all the other yeast tRNA structures¹⁹⁻²², so that when these are taken into account the sequence differences between the two tyrosine tRNAs are very striking. An interesting feature is the complete absence of dihydro-uridylic acid (D) from the *E. coli* tyrosine tRNA. The greatest similarity is in the anticodon loop and the lower three base pairs of the anticodon arm, which, except for modified bases, are identical in the two tRNAs.

At this stage it is not useful to speculate which part of the structures serve as the amino-acyl synthetase recognition site. Neither yeast nor *E. coli* tyrosine tRNA can be acylated by the heterologous synthetase²³, so the two transfer RNAs may have quite different recognition sites.

Discussion

The mutation giving rise to one su_{III}^+ gene changes the anticodon of a minor tyrosine tRNA species from GUA to CUA. This change enables the tRNA to recognize the amber codon UAG instead of the tyrosine codons UAU and UAC. It seems likely that the mutations leading to the su_I^+ and su_{II}^+ amber suppressor genes have similarly affected structural genes for serine and glutamine tRNA. These tRNAs could have anticodons related to the amber anticodon by a single base change.

The ochre suppressor gene su_c maps in the same position as the su_{III}^+ gene²⁴ and also causes the insertion of tyrosine²⁵. The su_c gene may therefore be another allele of the su_{III}^+ gene. Amber suppressor genes may only arise where there are multiple genes for a particular tRNA species. In the case of tyrosine tRNA we have provided evidence that there are at least three structural genes. If there are no more than three genes our results suggest that the genes are expressed at different rates. We estimate that tyrosine tRNAs I, II and su are present in the approximate ratios 25 : 60 : 15. The need for this differential control is obscure because the three tRNAs have nearly identical sequences.

One might predict that multiple amber suppressor genes could arise corresponding to the multiple tyrosine tRNA genes. Perhaps not all of these could be obtained as the large amount of tyrosine II tRNA in the cell might make an amber suppressor mutant of this gene lethal. We have examined three independently isolated amber suppressor strains which insert tyrosine. All these map very close to the original su_{III}^+ . In addition, Garen's $su3$ (ref. 26) and Yanofsky's $suYmel$ (personal communication from G. Dennert and U. Henning) insert tyrosine and map in this region. These results suggest either that only one of the tyrosine tRNA genes can mutate to su_{III}^+ or that at least two of the genes are located close to each other.

The G to C change in the nucleotide sequence of the su tyrosine tRNA specifically changes its codon recognition but does not affect any of the other functional properties of the tRNA. This formally designates this position as part of the anticodon and also shows that at least the first position of the anticodon is not necessary for recogni-

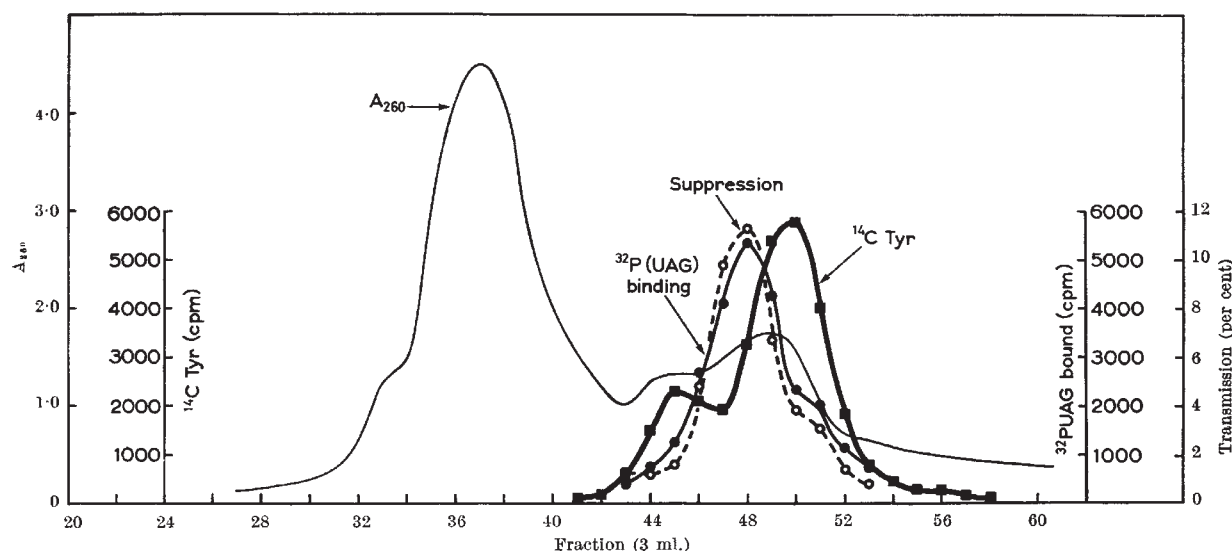


Fig. 5. Separation of the tyrosine tRNA components from *E. coli* CA275 su_{III}^+ and identification of the su_{III}^+ tyrosine tRNA. Tyrosine tRNA (from CA265 su_{III}^+) was purified approximately five-fold by chromatography on benzoylated DEAE cellulose. The figure shows the separation of this material by chromatography on a DEAE 'Sephadex' column (0.5 × 200 cm). Tyrosine tRNA elutes in two peaks, I and II (in order of elution). The suppressor tRNA was located by two methods: (i) fractions were tested for their ability to bind (32 P)pUpApG to ribosomes at 30 mM Mg²⁺ using the Nirenberg and Leder assay²⁷. (ii) Fractions were also tested for their ability to suppress *in vitro* the *su3* amber mutation of the coat protein of the phage ϕ 2. This assay was performed by Dr Harvey Lodish using a modification²⁸ of the method of Engelhardt *et al.*². The measure of suppression is the percentage of transmission, defined as the ratio of completed coat protein molecules: the total number of polypeptide chains initiated, at a concentration of 8 μ g/ml. of suppressor tRNA added.

tion of amino-acyl synthetase. To identify the function of other parts of the molecule, different mutants of this gene must be studied. These can be obtained by isolating *su⁻* revertants of the *su⁺* gene. Any mutation which gives rise to a non-functional tRNA will have the *su⁻* phenotype. Garen, Garen and Wilhelm²⁶ have isolated *su⁻* revertants of the *su_I⁺* gene. These map in five closely linked sites indicating that different parts of the *su_I⁺* gene may be mutated to give the *su⁻* phenotype.

With L. Barnett we have isolated a number of *su⁻* revertants of the *su_{III}⁺* gene. We are in the process of characterizing the structural and functional changes in the *su⁻* tyrosine tRNA caused by these mutations. This should provide insight into the structural basis for function in tRNA molecules.

We thank Dr F. Sanger, Dr G. G. Brownlee and Mr B. G. Barrell for their help. Dr S. Zadravil helped to characterize the minor nucleotides. We thank the Radiochemical Centre, Amersham, for preparing labelled tRNA and Mrs R. Fishpool, Miss E. Holgate and Mr G. Chambers for technical assistance. One of us (A. L.) was supported by US Public Health Service and American Cancer Society postdoctoral fellowships; another (J. A.) by a US Public Health Service postdoctoral fellowship; and another (H. M. G.) by the Helen Hay Whitney Foundation.

Received February 15, 1968.

¹ Weigert, M. G., Gallucci, E., Lanka, E., and Garen, A., *Cold Spring Harbor Symp. Quant. Biol.*, **31**, 145 (1966); Stretton, A. O. W., Kaplan, S., and Brenner, S., *Ibid.*, **31**, 173 (1966).

² Capecchi, M., and Gussin, G., *Science*, **149**, 417 (1965).

- ³ Engelhardt, D. L., Webster, R. E., Wilhelm, R. C., and Zinder, N. D., *Proc. US Nat. Acad. Sci.*, **54**, 1791 (1965).
- ⁴ Smith, J. D., Abelson, J. N., Clark, B. F. C., Goodman, H. M., and Brenner, S., *Cold Spring Harbor Symp. Quant. Biol.*, **31**, 479 (1966).
- ⁵ Gesteland, R. F., Salser, W., and Bolle, A., *Proc. US Nat. Acad. Sci.*, **58**, 2038 (1967).
- ⁶ Landy, A., Abelson, J., Goodman, H. M., and Smith, J. D., *J. Mol. Biol.*, **29**, 457 (1967).
- ⁷ von Portatius, H., Doty, P., and Stephenson, M. L., *J. Amer. Chem. Soc.*, **83**, 3351 (1961).
- ⁸ Katchalsky, E., Yankofsky, S., Novogradsky, A., Galenter, Y., and Littauer, U. Z., *Biochim. Biophys. Acta*, **123**, 641 (1966).
- ⁹ Sanger, F., Brownlee, G. G., and Barrell, B. G., *J. Mol. Biol.*, **13**, 373 (1965).
- ¹⁰ Brownlee, G. G., and Sanger, F., *J. Mol. Biol.*, **23**, 337 (1967).
- ¹¹ Brownlee, G. G., Sanger, F., and Barrell, B. G., *J. Mol. Biol.* (in the press).
- ¹² Madison, J. T., Everett, G. A., and Kung, H. K., *Science*, **153**, 531 (1966).
- ¹³ Crick, F. H. C., *J. Mol. Biol.*, **19**, 548 (1966).
- ¹⁴ Doctor, B. P., Loebel, J. E., and Kellogg, D. A., *Cold Spring Harbor Symp. Quant. Biol.*, **31**, 543 (1966).
- ¹⁵ Appleyard, R. K., *Genetics*, **39**, 440 (1954).
- ¹⁶ Nishimura, S., Harada, F., Narushima, U., and Seno, T., *Biochim. Biophys. Acta*, **142**, 133 (1967).
- ¹⁷ Kelmers, A. D., Novelli, G. D., and Stulberg, M. P., *J. Biol. Chem.*, **240**, 3979 (1965).
- ¹⁸ Gillam, I., Millward, S., Blew, D., von Tigerstrom, M., Wimmer, E., and Tener, G. M., *Biochemistry*, **6**, 3043 (1967).
- ¹⁹ Holley, R. W., Apgar, J., Everett, G. A., Madison, J. T., Marquisse, M., Merrill, S. H., Penswick, J. R., and Zamir, A., *Science*, **147**, 1462 (1965).
- ²⁰ Zachau, H. G., Dutting, D., and Feldman, H., *Ang. Chemie*, **5**, 122 (1966).
- ²¹ Bayer, A., Venkstern, T. V., Mirsabekov, A. D., Krutikina, A. I., Li, L., and Axelrod, V. D., *Molecular Biology (USSR)*, **1**, 754 (1967).
- ²² Raj Bhandary, U. L., Chang, S. H., Stuart, A., Faulkner, R. D., Hoskinson, R. M., and Khorana, H. G., *Proc. US Nat. Acad. Sci.*, **57**, 751 (1967).
- ²³ Doctor, B. P., and Mudd, J., *J. Biol. Chem.*, **238**, 3677 (1963).
- ²⁴ Signer, E. R., Beckwith, J. R., and Brenner, S., *J. Mol. Biol.*, **14**, 153 (1965).
- ²⁵ Weigert, M. G., Lanka, E., and Garen, A., *J. Mol. Biol.*, **23**, 401 (1967).
- ²⁶ Garen, A., Garen, S., and Wilhelm, R. C., *J. Mol. Biol.*, **14**, 167 (1965).
- ²⁷ Nirenberg, M., and Leder, P., *Science*, **145**, 1399 (1964).
- ²⁸ Lodish, H. F., Abelson, J., and Clark, B. F. C., *Abst. of Fed. Europ. Biochem. Soc., Fourth Meeting, Oslo* (1967).

Erythropoietin and the Development of Erythrocytes

During the differentiation of erythrocytes some cells develop which contain a high concentration of haemoglobin and no cytoplasmic basophilia. Erythropoietin has the effect of increasing the proportion of these cells in preparations of marrow. Two of the communications which follow discuss the effect on these cells of erythropoietin and of ageing and haemorrhage. The third communication describes a factor in the serum of a polycythaemic calf which enhances the activity of erythropoietin.

Effect of Erythropoietin *in vitro* which simulates that of a Massive Dose *in vivo*

IN smears of normal rabbit marrow a few erythroblasts can be seen which are of the same size as the haemocytoblasts, pronormoblasts and basophilic erythroblasts, with almost the same large ratio of nucleus to cytoplasm. They differ, however, in that they have no cytoplasmic basophilia. The concentration of haemoglobin seems to be greater in these than in their basophilic counterparts. The high ratio of nucleus to cytoplasm as well as the larger size distinguishes them from polychromatic and orthochromatic erythroblasts. For convenience they are referred to as line 2 cells and the typical early basophilic erythroblasts are referred to as line 1 cells.

It is well known that in the marrow of a severely anaemic animal there is, with the erythroid hyperplasia, a shift of the distribution towards the less mature erythroblasts. In such animals the number of early line 1 cells and all line 2 cells are increased. In the rabbit made

severely anaemic by injections of phenylhydrazine, the ratio of line 2:line 1 is increased several times. Early line 2 cells are seen more often in some stage of cell division than any other class of erythroblasts. Often their nuclei became pyknotic, indicating their early conversion to large non-nucleated erythroid cells—reticulocytes and erythrocytes.

There are three possibilities regarding the origin of line 2 cells: first, that they arise directly from the stem cell compartment; second, from early line 1 cells; or, third, by both routes. In the search for ways of obtaining direct evidence it was found that rabbit erythroblasts kept overnight in normal rabbit plasma at 5°–15°C seemed from their staining characteristics to be well preserved. At higher temperatures many had degenerated. When 10 u/ml. of erythropoietin was added to the plasma, there was a significant increase in the number of early line 2 cells on the following day. Without the erythropoietin there was no increase.

The following procedure was adopted to investigate the effect of erythropoietin in these conditions. Rabbit marrow erythroblasts were fractionated in a buoyant