

substance (anti-pernicious anemia factor). Assays of several liver extracts intended for parenteral use in pernicious anemia therapy have shown the presence of small amounts of folic acid, and of larger amounts of the substance(s) formed by autoclaving with acid.

SUMMARY

The occurrence in urine and in acid-autoclaved grass and liver extracts of a substance which appears to participate in the synthesis of folic acid by rat liver *in vitro* is described. A similar effect is produced by synthetic xanthopterin. The effect of these materials might be accomplished by (1) catalysis of the enzymatic synthesis of folic acid; (2) the release of folic acid not liberated by takadiastase from tissue complexes; or (3) their serving as substrate material for the enzymatic synthesis of folic acid. The data presented favor the last hypothesis and suggest that xanthopterin, or a substance derived from it, may constitute a portion of the folic acid molecule. The probable involvement of compounds related to xanthopterin in the formation of hemocytopoietic substances in several animal species is discussed.²⁰

LEMUEL D. WRIGHT
ARNOLD D. WELCH

NUTRITIONAL LABORATORIES,
DEPARTMENT OF PHARMACOLOGY,
MEDICAL-RESEARCH DIVISION,
SHARP AND DOHME, INC.,
GLENOLDEN, PA.

DISTRIBUTION AND HEREDITY OF VARIANTS OF THE RH TYPE¹

WITH the aid of anti-rhesus immune sera, Landsteiner and Wiener² divided human beings into two classes, Rh positive and Rh negative, the former comprising about 84 per cent. of white individuals in New York City. These authors³ also showed that the Rh factor is inherited as a simple mendelian dominant, independently of the blood groups and M-N types. The Rh factor has proved to be of considerable clinical importance in the etiology of intragroup hemolytic transfusion reactions^{4,5} and in the pathogenesis of erythroblastosis fetalis.^{6,7,8}

²⁰ We are indebted to Miss Helen Ryan for capable assistance; to Dr. W. R. Graham, of the Cerophyl Laboratories, for generous supplies of grass juice powder; to Dr. David Klein, of the Wilson Laboratories, for the powdered liver concentrate (1:20). Some of the data in this paper were presented before the Philadelphia Physiological Society on May 18, 1943; an abstract appears in the *Am. Jour. Med. Sci.*, 206: 128, 1943.

¹ From the Serological Laboratory of the Office of the Chief Medical Examiner of New York City. Aided by a grant from the Carnegie Foundation and the Committee on Human Heredity of the National Research Council.

² K. Landsteiner and A. S. Wiener, *Proc. Soc. Exp. Biol. and Med.*, 43: 223, 1940.

³ K. Landsteiner and A. S. Wiener, *Jour. Exp. Med.*, 74: 309, 1941.

It was early recognized that the Rh factor is antigenically and genetically complex. Thus, Wiener⁵ described an anti-Rh serum which agglutinated only about 70 per cent. of all bloods from white individuals, and pointed out that with the aid of this special anti-Rh serum the Rh type can be subdivided into two subtypes analogous to the major subgroups of A. According to the terminology suggested by Wiener and Landsteiner,⁹ Rh positive bloods reacting with the special anti-Rh serum (now designated anti-Rh₁) belong to type Rh₁, while the remainder (about one sixth of the Rh positive bloods) belong to type Rh₂. As Wiener and Landsteiner⁹ have shown, the types Rh₁, Rh₂ and negative are inherited by means of triple allelic genes *Rh₁*, *Rh₂* and *rh*, where *Rh₁* and *Rh₂* are both dominant over *rh* and *Rh₁* is dominant over *Rh₂*.

The situation is further complicated by the fact that some bloods of subtype Rh₁ (reacting with anti-Rh₁ serum) do not react with guinea-pig anti-rhesus serum, so that a fourth type is determined in that way.³ This type (designated as Rh') is rare, comprising only about 3 per cent. of all white individuals. It should be mentioned that to allow for this special type, it was originally suggested that the standard guinea-pig anti-rhesus (giving about 84 per cent. positive reactions) be designated as anti-Rh₁, and the anti-Rh serum giving 70 per cent. positive reactions as anti-Rh₂.¹⁰ This terminology has been abandoned, however, because it was found that the hypothetical agglutinogens determined in this way do not mendelize like A and B but are apparently "partial antigens" like the factors B₁, B₁₁, B_{11b} . . . of human group B blood, and the factors F_A, A₁, A of group A₁ blood.¹¹ In the present communication, only the major subtypes, Rh₁ and Rh₂, and not type Rh', will be included in the discussion.

Recently, Wiener and Sonn¹² have described a serum from a mother of an erythroblastotic infant, which contained a potent anti-Rh agglutinin reacting

⁴ A. S. Wiener and H. R. Peters, *Ann. Int. Med.*, 13: 2306, 1940.

⁵ A. S. Wiener, *Arch. Path.*, 32: 227, 1941.

⁶ P. Levine, E. M. Katzin and L. Burnham, *Jour. Am. Med. Assoc.*, 116: 825, 1941.

⁷ P. Levine, L. Burnham, E. M. Katzin and P. Vogel, *Am. Jour. Obstet. and Gynec.*, 42: 925, 1941.

⁸ L. Burnham, *Am. Jour. Obstet. and Gynec.*, 42: 389, 1941.

⁹ A. S. Wiener and K. Landsteiner, *Proc. Soc. Exp. Biol. and Med.*, 53: 167, 1943.

¹⁰ As was first shown by Levine, and confirmed by Wiener, the most common human anti-Rh sera, now designated anti-Rh', giving about 87 per cent. positive reactions, contain two agglutinins, one corresponding to the 84 per cent. sera (anti-Rh), the other to the 70 per cent. sera (anti-Rh₁).

¹¹ A. S. Wiener, "Blood Groups and Transfusion," 3rd edition, p. 254. Springfield, Ill.: C. C. Thomas, 1943.

¹² A. S. Wiener and E. B. Sonn, *Jour. Immunol.*, in press.

with only about 30 per cent. of bloods of white individuals. The agglutinin detected by this serum appears to be of clinical importance in relation to the occurrence of hemolytic reactions in certain Rh positive patients and in many cases of erythroblastosis.¹³ Wiener and Sonn¹² have shown that the agglutinin detected by the new anti-Rh serum is inherited as a simple Mendelian dominant, probably by means of a special allelic gene. Therefore, these observations may also have application in forensic medicine, not only by further increasing the identifiable types of human blood but also by substantially increasing the chances of exclusion in cases of disputed parentage. The purpose of the present communication is to present some new data on the distribution of the major variants of the Rh type, which are of significance in relation to the heredity mechanism.

The Rh reactions of a random series of 280 blood samples from white individuals in New York City are summarized in Table I. It is evident that the

TABLE I
DISTRIBUTION OF THE SUBTYPES OF RH

Type*	Rh ₁		Rh ₂		Negative		Total
	Pos.	Neg.	Pos.	Neg.	Pos.	Neg.	
Reaction with special anti-Rh serum							
Number	49	141	35	16	1	38	280
Per cent.	17.5	50.3	12.5	5.8	0.3	13.6	100.0
Number in major types		190		51		39	280
Per cent.		67.8		18.3		13.9	100.0

* Determined with the aid of human anti-Rh' and anti-Rh₂ sera.

new anti-Rh serum makes possible further subdivisions within the major subtypes Rh₁ and Rh₂ and that the incidence of positive reactions is much higher in the latter type. For this and other reasons (see below), it is proposed tentatively to designate the new agglutinin as anti-Rh₂ and the agglutinin detected by it as Rh₂. Thus, type Rh₁ is now subdivided into type Rh₁Rh₂ (positive with anti-Rh₂ serum) and type Rh₁ proper (negative with anti-Rh₂ serum), while type Rh₂ is subdivided into type Rh₂ proper (positive with anti-Rh₂ serum) and Rh (negative with anti-Rh₂ serum). In the so-called Rh-negative type, there are rare bloods agglutinated by the anti-Rh₂ serum (see Table I). It is obvious that such individuals should now be deleted from the Rh negative type, because the use of their blood for patients actively or passively sensitized to the Rh₂ agglutinin might prove dangerous.

The hypothesis that the agglutinin detected by the anti-Rh₂ serum is determined by a gene allelic to *rh* can be tested as follows:

¹³ A. S. Wiener, *Amer. Jour. Clin. Path.*, in press.

If we disregard the reactions of the anti-Rh₂ serum, the distribution of the major subtypes in our series is as follows:

$$\text{Type Rh}_1 = 67.8 \text{ per cent.} \quad (1)$$

$$\text{Type Rh}_2 = 18.3 \text{ per cent.} \quad (2)$$

$$\text{Rh negative} = 13.9 \text{ per cent.} \quad (3)$$

and the frequencies of the three corresponding genes are calculated in the usual manner:¹⁴

$$rh = \sqrt{\text{Neg.}} = \sqrt{0.139} = 37.3 \text{ per cent.} \quad (4)$$

$$Rh_2 = \sqrt{\text{Neg.} + Rh_2} - \sqrt{\text{Neg.}} = 19.5 \text{ per cent.} \quad (5)$$

$$Rh_1 = 1 - (rh + Rh_2) = 43.2 \text{ per cent.} \quad (6)$$

If, on the other hand, we only take into account the reactions of the anti-Rh₁ and anti-Rh₂ sera and disregard the anti-Rh' serum, four types are distinguished as follows:

$$\text{Type Rh}_1Rh_2 = 17.5 \text{ per cent.} \quad (7)$$

$$\text{Type Rh}_1 = 50.3 \text{ per cent.} \quad (8)$$

$$\text{Type Rh}_2 = 12.8 \text{ per cent.} \quad (9)$$

$$\text{Negative} = 19.4 \text{ per cent.} \quad (10)$$

The possibility that the agglutinogens detected by the anti-Rh₁ and anti-Rh₂ sera are independent of each other is immediately excluded because Rh₁ × Rh₂ is almost twice as great as Neg. × Rh₁Rh₂. On the other hand, the hypothesis that the agglutinogens detected by the sera anti-Rh₁ and anti-Rh₂ are determined by corresponding allelic genes *Rh*₁ and *Rh*₂ can be tested by calculating the frequencies of the hypothetical genes from the distribution of the four classes above and determining whether the sum of the frequencies equals unity (or 100 per cent.):¹⁵

$$rh^{16} = \sqrt{\text{Neg.}} = \sqrt{0.194} = 44.5 \text{ per cent.} \quad (11)$$

$$Rh_1 = \sqrt{\text{Neg.} + Rh_1} - \sqrt{\text{Neg.}} = 39.0 \text{ per cent.} \quad (12)$$

$$Rh_2 = \sqrt{\text{Neg.} + Rh_2} - \sqrt{\text{Neg.}} = 12.0 \text{ per cent.} \quad (13)$$

$$rh + Rh_1 + Rh_2 = 95.5 \text{ per cent.} \quad (14)$$

The agreement between the calculated and expected results is not entirely satisfactory, but this may be due in part to the relatively small size of the series, and perhaps more probably to difficulties with the technique of these delicate tests. The expected frequency of type Rh₁Rh₂ equals 2 × Rh₁ × Rh₂ or 9.4 per cent.; *i.e.*, much less than the observed frequency. This suggests that the problem be further investigated, concentrating particularly on bloods of this type. Of course, additional family studies will also aid in the solution of the problem.

In conclusion, it may be mentioned that the existence of variants of Rh serves to explain the puzzling observations on the differences in specificity of human

¹⁴ Cf. A. S. Wiener, "Blood Groups and Transfusion," p. 215, 1943.

¹⁵ Cf. A. S. Wiener, "Blood Groups and Transfusion," p. 186, 1943.

¹⁶ This value is greater than that given in (4) because some Rh₂ bloods are now included in the "negative" class. For the same reason, the value given by (13) is less than that given by (5).

anti-Rh sera. Thus, it is now possible to anticipate the behavior of a post-transfusion anti-Rh serum if the Rh subtype of the donor is known, while the quality of the anti-Rh agglutinins in sera from mothers of erythroblastotic babies may be predicted by tests on the blood of the husband or infant.¹⁷ On

the other hand, the uniformity in specificity of the guinea-pig antisera is most likely due to the corresponding uniformity of the Rh-like antigens in the red cells of different rhesus monkeys.

ALEXANDER S. WIENER

BROOKLYN, N. Y.

SCIENTIFIC APPARATUS AND LABORATORY METHODS

THE DEMONSTRATION OF THE PROTOZOAN PARASITE OF QUAIL MALARIA BY FLUORESCENCE MICROSCOPY

THE favorable results which have been obtained in development of diagnostic methods for detecting acid-fast bacteria by fluorescence¹ (Hagemann and others) and the results obtained by Bock and Oesterlin² in their studies of the action of anti-malarial drugs have suggested the potential value of this method for the diagnosis of malarial infections from blood smears. Subsequent work by the authors has demonstrated that the human parasite, *Plasmodium vivax*,³ and the organisms of bird malaria, *P. nucleophilum*,⁴ and *Haemoproteus* sp.⁵ (from California Valley quail) can be stained in a satisfactory manner with fluorescent dyes.

Due to the large size of the parasite and the supply of the *Haemoproteus*, the bulk of the work in these laboratories has been done with this organism.

During the course of investigation positive staining reactions were observed with six fluorochromes. These were applied from saturated aqueous solutions to smears fixed in methyl alcohol as for Giemsa staining. The staining time is from two to five minutes. Alcoholic solutions can be substituted if the smears tend to wash off the slides with the aqueous stain. The

six stains and their effectiveness in differentiating *Haemoproteus* are listed in Table 1.

Altering the pH of the staining medium with phosphate buffers showed a very slight increase in staining intensity in the alkaline region.

The apparatus necessary for fluorescence investigations of this nature is relatively simple. The principal innovation in equipment from ordinary microscopy is the use of a G.E. type H-4 high pressure mercury vapor lamp as the light source and a Corning filter No. 5840 which transmits the light between wavelengths of 310 mμ to 394 mμ. Ultraviolet light in this region is invisible but excites fluorescence in the fluorochromes.

The advantages of this technique if developed for the diagnosis of human malaria are many. The staining process is short, simple and reliable; the parasites, if present, stand out brilliantly as brightly fluorescent objects against a dark field; *Haemoproteus* of bird malaria and the *Plasmodia* of human malaria are readily discernible with dry lenses at magnifications not in excess of 200×; and the factor of eyestrain is greatly reduced.

Circumstances do not permit the full development of these techniques as applied to malarial diagnosis in this laboratory. All the results thus far obtained indicate that the method offers great possibilities in enhancing both the speed and accuracy of malarial diagnosis from blood smears. It also offers an interesting technique for the study of anti-malarial drugs (many of which are fluorescent) and their action upon the parasites.

ROBERT L. PATTON

ROBERT L. METCALF⁶

CORNELL UNIVERSITY

⁶ Now with the Tennessee Valley Authority, Wilson Dam, Alabama.

TABLE 1

Stain	Nuclear color	Parasite color	Leucocyte color	Staining intensity
Beberine sulfate	Bright yellow	Golden	Yellow	+++
*Rivanol	Yellow green	Yellow green	Bright yellow	+++
Primulin yellow	Blue	Blue	Yellow	+++
Coriphosphine O	Orange	White	Bright orange	++
Thioflavin A	Yellow	Yellow	Yellow	++
Auramine O	Yellow	Blue-white	Bright yellow	+

* 2-Ethoxy-6, 9-diamino acridine lactate.

¹⁷ A. S. Wiener, *Amer. Jour. Clin. Path.*, in press.

¹ P. K. H. Hagemann, *Munch. Med. Wschr.*, 85: 1066, 1938.

² E. Bock and M. Oesterlin, *Zbl. Bakt.*, 143: 306, 1939.

³ Furnished by Dr. Martin D. Young and Dr. Mark F. Boyd, U. S. Public Health Service and Rockefeller Foundation, respectively.

⁴ Furnished by Dr. R. D. Manwell, Syracuse University.

⁵ Furnished by Dr. C. M. Herman, Division of Fish and Game, State of California.

BOOKS RECEIVED

- BILLS, ARTHUR GILBERT. *The Psychology of Efficiency*. Illustrated. Pp. xiv + 361. Harper & Brothers. \$2.75.
- SHAPIRO, HARRY. *Applied Anatomy of the Head and Neck*. Illustrated. Pp. xiv + 189. J. B. Lippincott Co. \$5.50.
- THOMPSON, W. H. and M. L. AIKEN. *1000 Preflight Problems*. Illustrated. Pp. xiv + 160. Harper and Brothers. \$0.88, paper-bound; \$1.20, cloth-bound.