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Evolutionary Conservation of Repetitive Sequence Expression in Sea Urchin Egg RNA's

Abstract. Cloned repetitive DNA sequences were used to determine the number of homologous RNA transcripts in the eggs of two sea urchin species, Strongylocentrotus purpuratus and S. franciscanus. The eggs of these species contain different amounts of RNA, and their genomes contain different numbers of copies of the cloned repeats. The specific pattern of repetitive sequence representation in the two egg RNA's is nonetheless quantitatively similar. The evolutionary conservation of this pattern suggests the functional importance of repeat sequence expression.

The sea urchin genome contains 10⁵ to 10⁶ repetitive sequence elements belonging to several thousand nonhomologous families. These repeat families are represented in nuclear RNA's and in egg RNA in a manner specific to the state of differentiation (1, 2). The individual repetitive sequence fragments were isolated by S1 nuclease digestion of partially renatured DNA from Strongylocentrotus purpuratus, and cloned by the addition of chemically synthesized restriction enzyme recognition sequences (3). The cloned fragments were labeled and strand-separated, and were used as probes to detect RNA's homologous to individual repeat families. The results can be summarized as follows: (i) All of nine cloned repeat sequences studied are represented in nuclear RNA's and egg RNA, and at least 80 percent of the various repeat families in the genome are represented in egg RNA. This is in marked contrast to single copy sequences, of which only a minor fraction are found in nuclear or egg RNA's. (ii) Each repeat sequence family is represented to a particular extent in each RNA. The sequence concentrations of transcripts complementary to particular cloned repeats may differ more than 100fold in a given RNA, and different families are highly represented in each RNA investigated. Thus the levels of representation are a function of the state of differentiation. (iii) Both strands of each cloned repeat are represented in all the RNA's studied. The complementary repeat transcripts in general reside on different RNA molecules, and probably derive from asymmetric transcription of separate multiple genomic copies oriented oppositely (4). A number of repeat elements of each sequence family are probably utilized in transcription. Recent studies (5) have shown that many of the single copy maternal messenger



Fig. 1. Comparison of repeat sequence concentrations in the RNA of Sf and Sp eggs. Data are from S. purpuratus (abscissa) and S. franciscanus (ordinate) of Table 1. The solid line with slope 1 is the equivalence curve that would represent equal transcript concentrations in the eggs of the two species.

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RNA transcripts stored in the egg are linked covalently with short repetitive sequence elements, and most of the repeat transcripts are associated with this interspersed RNA fraction.

We now report experiments demonstrating that the specific pattern of repeat sequence representation in egg RNA has been quantitatively conserved since the divergence of two sea urchin species. The lineages leading to these species, S. purpuratus (Sp) and S. franciscanus (Sf), apparently separated 15 to 20 million years ago (6). They are of particular interest since their genomes contain clearly different numbers of copies of many repeat sequences (7). An issue addressed in the following experiments is whether the pattern of repeat sequence expression reflects these large evolutionary changes in repetitive sequence family size, or is independent of them.

In Table 1 are listed the results of measurements made with six cloned repeat fragments. The two strands of each cloned repeat were separated and reacted individually with Sp and Sf egg RNA's. The fraction of the total egg RNA complementary to each probe sequence was calculated from either kinetic or titration measurements (legend to Table 1) [see (1), the source of much of the Sp data listed]. In order to estimate the number of specific RNA transcripts, the mass of RNA per egg was multiplied by the specific fraction of the RNA hybridizing with the cloned probe. This calculation is of interest because the diameter of the Sf egg is about 120 μ m compared to 80 μ m for Sp, and thus the Sf egg is three times larger in volume. Measurements by the phloroglucinol method (8) show that the mass of RNA per average Sf egg is 8.3 ng compared to about 3 ng for the $Sp \, egg \, (9)$. Thus the concentration of total RNA (most of which is ribosomal RNA) in the eggs of the two species is almost the same. In Table 1 the number of transcripts complementary to each cloned probe per egg is given for Spand Sf, respectively; these values have been normalized for the egg RNA content of each species to give the number of specific transcripts per nanogram of total RNA. Measurement of transcript prevalence by kinetic or titration analysis is accurate only to within a factor of about 2.

The conclusions (1) for Sp egg RNA hold as well for Sf egg RNA (Table 1). Apart from clone CSp2096, which in several ways is atypical (10), the specific representation of the individual clones differs in Sf egg RNA by factors as large as 50. Both strands of all but one cloned repeat are also represented in Sf egg RNA, just as in Sp egg RNA. The exception is CSp2096, the representation of which is highly asymmetric in the eggs of both species (10).

The major result is that the pattern of representation of the six cloned probes in egg RNA in essentially similar in the two species (Table 1). The data on transcripts per oocyte show that the sequences highly represented in Sp egg RNA are also highly represented in Sf egg RNA. The number of specific transcripts per unit of RNA mass were normalized for the egg RNA content of the species. With one exception two (CSp2109A) the number of transcripts per unit of RNA mass is the same within a factor of 2 in Sp and Sf eggs, while the size of the genomic repeat sequence families represented by this set of clones differs as much as ninefold. In the case of the CSp2109A sequence, the Sf egg has three to four times more homologous transcripts per nanogram of egg RNA, but the Sp genome has 20 times the number of homologous repeats as the Sf genome. When one DNA strand is more highly represented in RNA, this transcriptional asymmetry is retained in the eggs of both species. This is clear in the case of CSp2096, and is probably also evident for the CSp2108 sequence. The degree of proportionality in the numbers of specific transcripts per egg for the two



Fig. 2. Hybridization of S. purpuratus repetitive ³H-labeled DNA with excess S. franciscanus and S. purpuratus egg RNA. (A) Hybridization of total S. purpuratus repetitive ³H-labeled DNA tracer with Sp and Sf egg RNA. The S. purpuratus DNA was labeled in vivo to a specific activity of 1.1×10^6 cpm/ μ g. The ³H-labeled DNA was denatured, reassociated to a $C_0 t$ of 40, treated with S1 nuclease, and chromatographed on Sepharose CL-2B. Included material of mode size 300 nucleotides was hybridized with a 106-fold mass excess of S. purpuratus egg RNA (\bullet) and S. franciscanus egg RNA (O) at 55°C in 0.4M phosphate (Na⁺) buffer. The fraction of ³H-labeled DNA in RNA-DNA hybrids was assayed by binding to hydroxyapatite at 50°C in 0.12M phosphate (Na⁺) buffer and elution at 99°C. The tracer was that described by Costantini et al. (1). The data were pooled and fit with the assumption of two kinetic components (solid line). The line shown is a least squares solution based on two kinetic components. This analysis suggests that 38.6 percent of the 3H-labeled DNA repeat tracer hybridizes with a second-order rate constant of $1.79 \times 10^{-3} M^{-1}$ sec⁻¹ and 38.5 percent hvbridizes with a second-order rate constant of $5.64 \times 10^{-5} M^{-1}$ sec⁻¹. (B) Hybridization of

highly expressed S. purpuratus repetitive ³H-labeled DNA with Sp and Sf egg RNA. The Sp repetitive ³H-labeled DNA tracer used in (A) was fractionated to select for those repeat sequences whose transcripts are most abundant by preparative reassociation with Sp egg RNA. This tracer was twice reassociated to RNA C_0t 500 with a 3 × 10⁴-fold excess of Sp egg RNA as described (I). The ³Hlabeled DNA which bound to hydroxyapatite after the two RNA excess hybridizations constituted 19 percent of the repetitive tracer. The average sequence concentration of the RNA's represented in this tracer was 10⁵ copies per egg. This selected ³H-labeled DNA fraction was hybridized with a 10⁶-fold excess of Sp (\odot) and Sf (\bigcirc) egg RNA, and the kinetics of the reaction was determined. Hybridizations and assay conditions were as in (A). On the basis of a single second-order kinetic component, the second-order rate constants were 7.9 × 10³M⁻¹ sec⁻¹ and 3.5 × 10³M⁻¹ sec⁻¹, respectively. The solid line shown is the least squares solution of the Sp hybridization points.

Table 1. Abundance of transcripts complementary to six cloned repetitive sequences in oocyte RNA's of S. purpuratus and S. franciscanus.

Clone	Strand*	Length† (NT)	Genomic‡ frequency S. pur- puratus	Transcripts per oocyte§		Transcripts per nanogram of RNA		Genomic fre- quency ratio
				S. purpuratus	S. franciscanus¶	S. purpuratus**	S. franciscanus**	S. purpuratus/ S. franciscanus††
CSp2007	U	1,100	400	7,000	N.D. 8 300	2,100 2,100	N.D. 1.000	9
CSp2108	Ŭ L	204	20‡‡	97,000 59,000	420,000	29,000 18.000	50,000 37.000	0.7
CSp2109A	Ũ	180	900	2,500 2,800	20,000	800 800	2,400 3,500	20
CSp2109B	Ũ L	111	200	83,000 73.000	140,000 240.000	25,000 22,000	17,000 29,000	4
CSp2137	Ū L	226	530	19,000 16,000	68,000 50,000	5,800 4,800	8,200 6,000	3
CSp2096	U L	203	80	2,400,000 Low§§	6,000,000 Low§§	720,000 Low§§	720,000 Low§§	2.5

*The two complementary strands of each cloned repeat were designated "upper" (U) and "lower" (L) according to their electrophoretic mobility on neutral polyacrylamide gels (2). The length of each cloned repetitive element except CSp2007 is known from DNA sequence analysis (1). The length of CSp2007 was estimated from electrophoretic mobility of the duplex fragment (12). # Haploid genomic repetition frequency was estimated from the kinetics of reassociation of each cloned repeat with an excess of *S. purpuratus* DNA (12). The limit of detection of RNA transcripts is dependent on the specific activity of the cloned repeat DNA probe. The ³³P-labeled DNA probes used in this study were routinely labeled to about 10° cpm/µg, which allows detection of about 100 transcripts per nanogram of egg RNA. ||The number of RNA transcripts complementary to a cloned DNA sequence was determined by comparing the rate of hybridization of single copy ³H-labeled DNA with excess oocyte RNA (13). The kinetics of the RNA-driven hybridization swith the cloned repeats are approximately second order since both complementary strands are present in the RNA. Titration measurements were carried out by reacting increasing amounts of oocyte RNA with a constant quantity of labeled, strand-separated DNA tracer. Data analysis was as described (1, 2). The values presented under *S. purpuratus* are averages of previous determinations shown for the CSp2109 upper strand. These three measurements were obtained by the kinetic method. The rate constants (M^{-1} sec⁻¹) were 2.5 × 10⁻³ for the CSp2109 upper strand. These three measurements were obtained by the titration method. The second-order rate constants (M^{-1} sec⁻¹) were: CSp2109 L, 1.0^{-4} ; CSp2109 L, $2. \times 10^{-3}$; CSp2109 L, $2. \times 10^{-3}$; CSp2137 U, 1.1×10^{-3} ; CSp2137 U, 9.8×10^{-4} ; CSp2109 L, $2. \times 10^{-1}$; or (CSp2109 A U, 5.3×10^{-4} ; CSp2109 L, 7.0×10^{-3} ; CSp2137 U, 1.1×10^{-3} ; CSp2137 U, 9.8×10^{-4} ; CSp2109 L, $2. \times 10^{-1}$; and for CSp213

species is shown in Fig. 1, where the quantitative similarity in the pattern of repeat sequence expression in the two egg RNA's extends over the full range of transcript sequence concentrations.

The results in Table 1 and Fig. 1 derive from only six cloned repeat sequences and could be nonrepresentative. We attempted to generalize these results by using repetitive DNA tracers prepared from whole sheared Sp DNA. As a control, in Fig. 2A the reactions of such a tracer with Sp and Sf egg RNA's are shown. The kinetics of these reactions are almost indistinguishable, and it follows that the overall distribution of repeat transcript sequence concentrations in the two egg RNA's is similar. The generalization that those repeat families highly represented in Sp egg RNA are also highly represented in Sf egg RNA is tested in Fig. 2B. A subfraction of the genomic repeat tracer enriched for the sequences prevalent in Sp egg RNA was reacted with both egg RNA's. The experiment shows that the repeat sequences prevalent in Sp egg RNA are represented in about the same concentrations in Sf egg RNA. We conclude that the quantitative similarity in the patterns of repeat sequence representation is general in Sp and Sf egg RNA's.

The distribution of repeat sequence concentrations in egg RNA is almost certainly physiologically significant. This distribution is highly sequence specific, and different distributions have been found in other RNA's that have been studied. Specific processes of repetitive sequence transcription and RNA accumulation must operate during oogenesis. Our results show that these processes have been adjusted during evolution so as to preserve the repeat transcript sequence concentrations despite significant changes in genomic repeat family sizes and in egg volume and total RNA content. Conceivably all the repeat sequences belonging to expressed families are transcribed in both genomes, but the turnover and transcription rates have altered so as to compensate for the changes in repeat family size. The following argument suggests an alternative view. The particular pattern of repeat sequence representation present in the eggs of both of these species probably existed in their common ancestor as well. Therefore only a subset of the repeats of some repetitive families may be transcribed during oogenesis, since in the cases where the Sp families are larger than the Sf families this is not reflected in higher Sp transcript sequence concentrations. Possibly only repetitive sequence elements of given families which are

present in the genomes of both species are expressed. The general implication would be that although multiple homologous repeats are utilized in transcription, these may often represent a subset of the whole genomic sequence family.

Our results emphasize the functional importance of repetitive sequence transcription. The particular pattern of repeat sequence representation in mature eggs is quantitatively conserved between two sea urchin congeners, although the size of the various repeat families in their genomes differs significantly. The repeat sequences themselves have diverged less than single copy sequences during the evolution of this genus (7). Conservation of repeat sequence expression suggests that the mechanism restraining change in the primary sequences is evolutionary selection, based on important but unknown functions of the repetitive RNA transcripts.

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in the RNA [M. J. Smith, B. R. Hough, M. E. Chamberlin, E. H. Davidson, J. Mol. Biol. 85, 103 (1974); (5)]. However, single copy sequences are always asymmetrically represented in sea urchin RNA's according to studies with both cloned and total DNA tracers [Z. Lev etal., Dev. Biol., in press; B. R. Hough, M. J. Smith, R. J. Britten, E. H. Davidson, Cell 5, 291 (5)]. Therefore, to account for the presence of complementary copies of each repeat sequence, it is necessary to postulate the tran-scription of multiple repeat elements. The hy-brid duplexes formed when cloned repeats are reacted with RNA exhibit heterogeneous thermal stabilities, suggesting that transcription oc-curs from at least several members of the repeat family (R. H. Scheller, D. M. Anderson, R. J. Britten, E. H. Davidson, unpublished observa-

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- 10. some highly expressed structural gene or could be related in sequence to such a gene. However, the representation of both complements, and the short length of most of the repeat sequence ele-ments found in egg RNA, argue strongly against the possibility that the repeat transcripts in gen-eral code for proteins (I). Furthermore, six out of eight repetitive sequence fragments that have been sequenced (II) display translation termination signals in all three reading frames of both strands. CSp2096 is exceptional in this regard. In this fragment two reading frames of the strand represented in RNA lack termination codons, though the other strand is translationally blocked in all three frames.
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Simian Virus 40 Crystals

Abstract. Small (10 to 150 micrometers) cubic crystals of simian virus 40 have been grown by ammonium sulfate precipitation. Electron micrographs of thin sections from these crystals reveal ordered arrays of virus particles.

During the past few years a number of crystalline RNA plant viruses have been studied by x-ray diffraction analysis; high-resolution images of tomato bushy stunt virus (1) and of southern bean mosaic virus (2) have become available. Polyoma became the first animal virus subjected to serious crystallographic investigation (3, 4). I now report the crystallization of simian virus 40 (SV40).

In the wild, SV40 causes inapparent infections in certain primates. In the laboratory it can cause tumors in immature animals, and can transform cells in culture. It serves as an important probe in studies of transformation, gene regulation and expression, and DNA replication (5). This virus is also of considerable structural interest. It is a nonenveloped particle whose capsid is built on a T = 7d icosahedral surface lattice (6, 7). Its 420 subunits are clustered into 12 pentamers and 60 hexamers, giving a total of 72 morphological units or capsomeres in the coat (7). The particle diameter has been estimated, from electron microscopy (8), as 41 nm and, from x-ray solution scattering (9), as 48 nm. The molecular size is 17.6 million daltons (8). SV40 is known to code for three coat proteins (VP1, VP2, and VP3). Hexamers contain almost exclusively VP1,