The mapping of the immunoglobulin genes to the precise bands involved in these translocations opens the way for further experimental tests.

ILAN R. KIRSCH

Laboratory of Molecular Genetics, National Institute of Child Health and Human Development, Bethesda, Maryland 20205

CYNTHIA C. MORTON Department of Human Genetics, Medical College of Virginia, Virginia Commonwealth University, Richmond, Virginia 23298

KENNETH NAKAHARA

Laboratory of Pathology, National Cancer Institute, Bethesda, Maryland 20205

PHILIP LEDER

Laboratory of Molecular Genetics, National Institute of Child Health and Human Development, Bethesda, and Department of Genetics, Harvard Medical School, Boston, Massachusetts 02115

References and Notes

- E. Max, J. Seidman, P. Leder, Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U.S.A. 76, 3450 (1979); H. Sakano, K. Huppi, G. Heinich, S. Tonegawa, Nature (London) 280, 288 (1979); J. Seidman, E. Max, P. Leder, ibid., p. 370; P. Early, H. Huang, M. Davis, K. Calame, L. Hood, Cell 19, 981 (1980); H. Sakano, R. Maki, Y. Kurosawa, W. Roeder, S. Tongarum, Netroc (Vardan) 296 (576 (1980)) Tonegawa, Nature (London) 286, 676 (1980).
 For a review of information pertaining to these
- 3.
- S. Ionegawa, Nature (London) 286, 676 (1960).
 For a review of information pertaining to these translocations see J. Rowley, Science, in press.
 S. Ohno, M. Babonits, F. Wiener, J. Spira, G. Klein, M. Potter, Cell 19, 1001 (1979).
 G. Klein, Nature (London) 294, 313 (1981).
 C. Croce et al., Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U.S.A. 76, 3416 (1979); J. Erikson, J. Martinis, C. Croce, Nature (London) 294, 173 (1981); O. McBride, P. Hieter, G. Hollis, D. Swan, M. Otey, P. Leder, J. Exp. Med., in press; S. Malcolm, P. Barton, D. Bentley, M. Ferguson-Smith, C. Murphy, T. Rabbitts, Human Gene Mapping Conference VI, 1981 (National Foundation-March of Dimes, New York, in press); J. Gall and M. L. Pardue, Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U.S.A. 63, 378 (1969); D. Gerhard, E. Kawasaki, F. Bancroft, P. Szabo, ibid. 78, 3755 (1981); S. Malcolm, P. Barton, C. Murphy, M. Ferguson-Smith, Ann. Hum, Genet. 45, 135 (1981).
 M. Marper and G. Saunders, Chromosoma 83, 61 (1990); D. Sunders, Chromosoma 83, 61 (1990); Sunders, Chromasoma 83,
- 6. 7.
- M. Harper and G. Saunders, Chromosoma 83, 431 (1981). S. Lawrie and J. Godsen, Hum. Genet. 53, 371 8.
- I. R. Kirsch, unpublished data
- I. R. Kirsch, unpublished data. The y4 subclone including pBR322 vector was ³H-labeled by nick-translation with ³H-labeled deoxyadenosine triphosphate (dATP) (46.2 Ci/ mmole), ³H-labeled deoxycytidine triphosphate, (dCTP) (54.1 Ci/mmole), and ³H-labeled deox-ythymidine triphosphate (dTTP) (94 Ci/mmole) (New England Nuclear) in the presence of ex-cess deoxympanosine triphosphate (dCTP). The 10. cess deoxyguanosine triphosphate (dGTP). The probe was separated from unreacted ³H-labeled probe was separated from unreacted ³H-labeled deoxynucleotides by elution through a 12-ml Sephadex G-50 column (Pharmacia). The specif-ic activity of the probe was $1 \times 10^{\circ}$ cpm/µg. Human peripheral blood (10 drops per flask in 10 ml of RPMI 1640 media, 20 percent fetal calf serum, glutamine, penicillin, streptomycin, and neomycin) was incubated in the presence of 0.2 ml of phytohemagglutinin (Difco) for 62 to 76 hours at 37°C (5 percent CO₂). Two hours before harvest, Colcemid (0.08 µg/ml) was added. The cells were harvested, treated with hypotonic 0.075M KCl, washed, fixed with methanol-ace-tic acid (3:1), and dropped from a height of 18 to 66 inches onto clean cold wet slides. The slides 36 inches onto clean cold wet slides. The slides were dried in air and used for in situ hybridization within 2 weeks. The hybridization was like

that described in (7) up to the chromosome banding. The slides were first treated with boiled ribonuclease (Sigma; 100 μ g/ml) in 2 × SSC (0.3M MaCl, 0.03M disodium citrate, pH 7.0) and incubated at 37°C for 1 hour, rinsed 2 → SbC (0.5m) (tach) 0.5m value of the first of the f placed on the slides and the slides were includat-ed (12 to 18 hours at 37° C) in a sealed box with a humid environment, then rinsed three times in 50 percent formamide 2 × SSC, pH 7.0 at 39° to 40° C, and dehydrated in ethanol. Some of the slides were first stained in guinacrine dihydro-chloride (Sigma O250) (&) all slides were dried in chloride (Sigma Q250) (8); all slides were dried in air, covered with Kodak NTB2 nuclear track all, covered with Kotak K1B2 herea thack emulsion, and incubated in light-tight containers with desiccant at 4°C for 10 to 21 days. The slides were developed in Kodak D19 developer (1:1 with H_2O) at 15°C for 4 minutes, rinsed in twice-distilled water, treated with Kodak fixer for 5 minutes, soaked in twice-distilled water for 5 minutes, solated in twice distinct water for 5 minutes, and air-dried. The dried slides were stained with quinacrine mustard (Sigma Q-2000) at a concentration of 0.005 percent in MacII-vaine's buffer (0.1M citric acid, 0.2M Na₂HPO₄, pH 5.4) for 20 minutes, rinsed ten times twice in MacIIvaine's buffer, and soaked an additional 10 instruction of the drief of th minutes in MacIlvaine's buffer in a light-tight container. The slides were analyzed on Leitz Ortholux II microscopes equipped with incident light fluorescence capacity and $63 \times$ oil immersion fluorescent lenses with the use of the broad range blue fluorescence or with K 510 barrier range blue fluorescence or with K 510 barrier
filters. Grain distribution was recorded with reference to a Yunis karyogram [J. Yunis, Hum. Pathol. 12, 494 (1981)] of human G- or Q-banded chromosomes at the 400-band stage.
11. J. Ravetch, U. Siebenlist, S. Korsmeyer, T. Waldmann, P. Leder, Cell 27, 583 (1981).
12. A. Shimizu, N. Takahashi, Y. Yamawaki-Ka-

taoka, T. Honjo, Nature (London) 289, 149 (1981); Y. Nishida et al., Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U.S.A. 78, 1581 (1981).

- U.S.A. 78, 1581 (1981).
 D. Cox, personal communication.
 J. Rowley, Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U.S.A. 74, 5729 (1977); A. Bernheim, R. Berger, G. Lenoir, Cancer Genet. Cytogenet. 3, 307 (1981).
 J. Rowley, Annu. Rev. Genet. 14, 17 (1980); in Genes, Chromosomes and Neoplasia, F. Arrighi, P. Rao, E. Stubblefield, Eds. (Raven, New York, 1981).
- righi, P. Rao, E. Stubblefield, Eds. (Raven, New York, 1981).
 L. Zech, U. Haglund, K. Nilsson, G. Klein, Int. J. Cancer 17, 47 (1976); B. Kaiser-McCaw, A. Epstein, H. Kaplan, F. Hecht, *ibid.* 19, 482 (1977); E. Douglass, I. Magrath, E. Lee, J. Whang-Peng, Blood 55, 148 (1980).
 W. Hayward, B. Neel, S. Astrin, Nature (Lon-don) 290, 475 (1981).
 D. Levitt and M. Cooper. Cell 19, 617 (1980). 16.
- 17.
- M. Haywat, D. Kett, S. Kstin, Nature (Lon-don) 290, 475 (1981).
 D. Levitt and M. Cooper, Cell 19, 617 (1980); P. Hieter, S. Korsmeyer, T. Waldmann, P. Leder, Nature (London) 290, 368 (1981); E. Siden, P. Alt, L. Shunefeld, V. Sato, D. Baltimore, Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U.S.A. 78, 1823 (1981); S. Korsmeyer, P. Hieter, J. Ravetch, D. Poplack, T. Waldmann, P. Leder, *ibid.*, p. 7096.
 M. Davis et al., Nature (London) 283, 733 (1980); T. Kataoka, T. Kawakami, N. Takahasi, T. Honjo, Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U.S.A. 77, 919 (1980); R. Maki, A. Trannecker, H. Sakano, W. Roeder, S. Tonegawa, *ibid.*, p. 2138; J. Ravetch, I. Kirsch, P. Leder, *ibid.*, p. 6734.
 I. Kirsch, J. Ravetch, S.-P. Kwan, E. Max, R. Ney, P. Leder, Nature (London) 293, 585 (1981).
 T. Maniatis et al., Cell 15, 687 (1978).

- 21. 22.
- (1967).
 T. Maniatis et al., Cell 15, 687 (1978).
 B. Hohn and K. Murray, Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U.S.A. 74, 3259 (1977).
- D. Rimm, D. Horness, J. Kucira, F. Blattner, Gene 12, 301 (1980).
 W. D. Benton and R. W. Davis, Science 196, 180 (1977).
- 26.
- 27.
- 180 (1977).
 N. Obata et al., Gene 9, 87 (1980).
 A. Maxam and W. Gilbert, Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U.S.A. 74, 560 (1977).
 J. Pink, S. Buttery, G. DeVries, C. Milstein, Biochem. J. 117, 33 (1970).
 We thank M. Harper for advice and teaching, R. Robinson and J. Battey for helpful mathematical discussions, G. Stetten and S. Latt for sharing Ochanding techniques, and T. Broderick for the 28. Q-banding techniques, and T. Broderick for the preparation of this manuscript.

9 December 1981; revised 5 February 1982

Role of Vitamin B₁₂ in Methyl Transfer for Methane Biosynthesis by Methanosarcina barkeri

Abstract. When Methanosarcina barkeri is grown on methanol as the sole carbon source, a B_{12} -containing protein is synthesized by this organism. This B_{12} protein contains bound aquocobalamin, and when this cofactor is reduced and methylated with $[{}^{14}C]$ methyl iodide, the resultant $[{}^{14}C]$ methyl B_{12} protein is extremely active in the biosynthesis of 14 C-labeled methane. These findings indicate that a B_{12} dependent system is operative in the biological formation of methane in addition to other systems that are B_{12} -independent.

Methanosarcina barkeri is one of the most metabolically diverse methane producers. In addition to producing methane from hydrogen and carbon dioxide, this organism will grow heterotrophically on methanol, methylamine, or acetate as the carbon source (1). The methanol metabolic pathway is

$$4CH_3OH \rightarrow 3CH_4 \uparrow + CO_2 \uparrow + 2 H_2O$$

In 1968, Blaylock (2) showed that a B_{12} containing protein was an essential component in the formation of methane from methanol. This B_{12} protein, which was partially purified from extracts of methanol-grown Methanosarcina barkeri, was

shown to have a molecular weight of approximately 200,000; in the presence of crude extracts, it was methylated by the growth substrate methanol (2). The B₁₂ chromophore was characteristic of bound aquocobalamin, with a maximum absorption at 352 nm.

We purified the B_{12} protein from cell extracts of methanol-grown Methanosarcina barkeri by elution from DEAE-52 cellulose with 0.25M sodium chloride, followed by chromatography on a second DEAE-52 cellulose column with 1Mtris buffer (pH 7.2) as the eluting salt. After concentration by pressure dialysis, the protein was purified to homogeneity



Fig. 1. (A) Ultraviolet-visible spectra of (----) native B_{12} protein, (----) reduced B_{12} protein [cobalt(II)], and (\cdots) methyl B_{12} protein. (B) Ultraviolet-visible spectra of (----) native aquofactor III, (----) cyano-factor III, and (\cdots) methyl-factor III.

on Sephadex G-150. With the use of several protein standards, the molecular weight of this B₁₂ protein was established at approximately 200,000. Electrophoresis on sodium dodecyl sulfatepolyacrylamide gels caused the protein to dissociate into dimers (molecular weight, approximately 84,000) and monomers (molecular weight, approximately 44,000). Therefore, this B_{12} protein is similar in structure to the B₁₂-containing transmethylase that participates in the synthesis of acetic acid from methylcobalamin and pyruvate in Clostridium thermoaceticum (3). The chromophore is characteristic of bound aquocobalamin and can be reduced with mercaptoeth-



anol or coenzyme M (ethanethiolsulfonic acid) to give a bound cobalt(II) enzyme (B_{12r} protein). The B_{12} protein can also be reduced with sodium borohydride and methylated with methyl iodide to give quantitative formation of a methyl B_{12} protein. One unusual property of the aquocobalamin-protein complex is the failure of charged ions, such as CN^- , to displace the water molecule in the sixth coordination site in 24 hours. This suggests that the water molecule is bound in an inaccessible hydrophobic environment in the protein.

When the B_{12} cofactor is removed from the protein by denaturation with ethanol, the water molecule in the sixth coordination site is rapidly displaced with CN⁻ to give a characteristic cyanocobalamin complex (Fig. 1B). The free coenzyme was reduced and methylated with methyl iodide, and a ¹H nuclear magnetic resonance (NMR) spectrum of this methyl corrinoid was recorded on a 300-MHz NMR spectrophotometer (Bruker). Four resonances were resolved in the aromatic region of the spectrum instead of the three protons found when 5,6-dimethylbenzimidazole is the axial base at the fifth coordination site. This suggests that the benzimidazole base is probably (5-OH)benzimidazole (factor III). When the methyl B_{12} protein was photolyzed under anaerobic conditions, a stable, low-spin cobalt(II) complex was resolved by electron paramagnetic resonance spectroscopy at 77 K. Triplets were observed from the nitrogen-hyperfine interactions of the coordinate benzimidazole base, an indication that the nucleotide base is coordinated to the cobalt when the coenzyme binds to the protein.

A [14C]methyl B12 protein was prepared by reacting [14C]methyl iodide (53 μ Ci/mmole) with reduced B₁₂ protein. The reaction rate for the formation of ¹⁴C-labeled methane from this $[^{14}C]$ methyl B₁₂ protein is at least two orders of magnitude faster than that determined for the nonenzymatic reaction between methylcobalamin and coenzyme M (4) (Fig. 2). Rate constants were determined for methane formation from the methyl B_{12} protein (k = 370 $M^{-1} \sec^{-1}$), for free methylcobalamin ($k = 10.6 M^{-1} \text{ sec}^{-1}$), and for the reaction between methylcobalamin and coenzyme M ($k = 1.1 \times$ $10^{-2} M^{-1} \text{ sec}^{-1}$) at pH 7.2 at 37°C.

In view of this large kinetic effect, it appears that the B_{12} protein functions as a methyltransferase leading to methane synthesis in methanol-grown *Methanosarcina barkeri*.

Frick *et al.* (4) reported the nonenzymatic transfer of a methyl group from methylcobalamin to coenzyme M. For this reaction to proceed, catalytic amounts of aquocobalamin were required to produce an active coenzyme M radical intermediate. The reaction rate was zero-order in aquocobalamin, showing the catalytic role of this molecule as an acceptor of a single electron from coenzyme M. The products of the reaction were shown to be B_{12r} [cobalt(II) B_{12}] and methyl coenzyme M. Shapiro



Fig. 2. Formation of ¹⁴C-labeled methane from ¹⁴C-labeled methyl B₁₂ protein. The reaction mixture contained 5 mg of [¹⁴C]methyl B₁₂ protein (1617 cpm/mg), 1.5 ml of crude extracts from methanol-grown *Methanosarcina barkeri* (16.2 mg/ml), and 10 μ mole of adenosine triphosphate in 0.1*M* KH₂PO₄ buffer at *p*H 7.2. The mixture was incubated at 37°C under H₂, and the reaction was stopped with the addition of 0.2 ml of 12 percent trichloroacetic acid. Duplicate reactions were performed at 2, 10, and 20 minutes. Methane was analyzed as described in (7).

and Wolfe (5) showed that $[^{14}C]$ methyl coenzyme M is formed from [¹⁴C]methanol, indicating a common methyl transfer route. A comparative study of the mechanisms of the nonenzymatic reaction and that of this B_{12} enzyme can now be formulated (scheme 1). This reaction mechanism explains how methyl coenzyme M is synthesized. Each of the proposed intermediates in the catalytic cycle occurs at the slower rate of the nonenzymatic reaction (4). During the last 10 years of research on the mechanism of methane biosynthesis, a role for a B_{12} cofactor has been sought, without much success. This research shows that a B12-dependent methyltransferase is important in the biosynthesis of methane by Methanosarcing barkeri, although no similar B₁₂ protein can be found in extracts of Methanobacterium thermoautotrophicum (6). Our results indicate that B_{12} -dependent pathways are operative in the biological formation of methane in addition to other pathways that are B₁₂independent.

J. M. WOOD

Department of Biochemistry, Gray Freshwater Biological Institute, University of Minnesota, Navarre 55392 ISABEL MOURA

J. J. G. MOURA

M. H. SANTOS

A. V. XAVIER

Departmento de Biologia e Bioengenharia, Universidade Nova de Lisboa, Centro de Quimica Estrutural, Complexo Interdisciplinar, 1000 Lisboa, Portugal

J. LEGALL

Department of Biochemistry University of Georgia, Athens 30602 M. SCANDELLARI Laboratoire de Chimie Bacterienne,

Centre National de la Recherche Scientifique 13274 Marseille, Cedex 2 France

References and Notes

- 1. P. J. Weimer and J. G. Zeikus, Arch. Microbiol 119, 49 (1978).
 B. A. Blaylock, Arch. Biochem. Biophys. 124,
- 314 (1968). 3. H. G. Wood, Vitamin B₁₂, B. Zagalak and W. Friederich, Eds. (de Gruyter, Berlin, 1979), pp.
- 527-536.
 4. T. Frick, M. D. Francia, J. M. Wood, *Biochim. Biophys. Acta* 428, 808 (1976).
 5. S. Shapiro and R. S. Wolfe, *J. Bacteriol.* 141, 728 (1980).
- D. V. Dervartanian, J. LeGall, L. E. Mortensen, H. D. Peck, unpublished data.
 J. M. Wood, A. M. Allam, W. J. Brill, R. S. Wolfe, J. Biol. Chem. 240, 4564 (1965).
- woire, J. Biol. Chem. 240, 4564 (1965).
 8. Supported by PHS grants AM 12599 and GM 25879, by the Calouste Gulbenkian Foundation and JNICT, Portugal, and by the PIRDES (Centre National de la Recherche Scientifique), France. The growth of methane bacteria was supported by DOE grant DE-AS-09-80-ER 10499.

1 October 1981

Interaction of Brain Synaptic Vesicles Induced by Endogenous Ca²⁺-Dependent Phospholipase A₂

Abstract. Endogenous phospholipase A2 activity of brain synaptic vesicles was Ca^{2+} -dependent and was increased by prostaglandin $F_{2\alpha}$, calmodulin, adenosine 3',5'-monophosphate, and adenosine triphosphate, whereas the activity was inhibited by prostaglandin E_2 in the absence or presence of calmodulin. Light-scattering measurements demonstrated that stimulation of the enzyme's activity correlated with the induction of vesicle-vesicle aggregation. The effects of these compounds on endogenous synaptic vesicle phospholipase A_2 activity may imply a common end point of their purported neuromodulatory actions, and indicate that synaptic vesicle phospholipase A_2 may play a central role in presynaptic neurotransmission.

According to the vesicle hypothesis (1), an influx of Ca^{2+} into the presynaptic axon terminal leads to exocytosis of neurotransmitter from synaptic vesicles into the synaptic cleft. The mechanism of this Ca²⁺-induced event is unresolved. Calcium is postulated to mediate this process directly by cross-bridging membranes (2), neutralizing membranal surface charges (3), or inducing membrane phase transitions (4). Other hypotheses of Ca²⁺-mediated exocytosis invoke activation of brain actomyosin (5) or membrane protein phosphorylation (6).

In this study we assayed purified synaptic vesicles from bovine brain (6, 7) for phospholipase A_2 (PLA₂) (E.C. 3.1.1.4) activity using [2-14C]arachidonyl phosphatidylcholine as substrate (8). When synaptic vesicles were incubated with 2.8 nmole of substrate in the presence of 1 mM EGTA and increasing concentrations of CaCL₂ $(10^{-7}M \text{ to } 10^{-1}M)$ at pH 9, PLA₂ activity increased with increasing

Table 1. Effects of various conditions on the V_{max} of synaptic vesicle PLA₂. Reaction mixtures were incubated at 37°C for 60 minutes with 100 µg of synaptic vesicle protein in increasing substrate concentrations (0.2 to 4.0 nmole), brought to a final volume of 200 µl with tris buffer, pH 9.0, in the presence of 2 mM CaCl₂.

Conditions and concentration	V _{max} (nmole/ mg-hour)	Percent- age change*
Cyclic AMP	3.0	50 (+)
(1 mM)		
ATP (1 mm)	1.0	50 (-)
Cyclic AMP	6.0	200(+)
(1 mM) plus		. ,
ATP $(1 \text{ m}M)$		
Calmodulin	9.0	350 (+)
(1 µmole)		. ,
PGE_2 (4.0 nmole)	0.6	70 (-)
PGE_2 (4.0 nmole)	1.0	50 (-)
plus calmodulin		
(1 µmole)		
$PGF_{2\alpha}$ (4.0 nmole)	16.0	700 (+)

*Plus signs indicate stimulation and minus signs indicate inhibition.

Ca²⁺ concentration reaching maximum activity at 10 μM CaCl₂. In the presence of EGTA, the amount of arachidonic acid released was 0.07 ± 0.009 nmole/ mg-hour. Calcium (2 mM) increased the activity approximately sixfold, the amount of arachidonic acid released reaching 0.40 ± 0.13 nmole/mg-hour.

When synaptic vesicles were incubated at 37°C with increasing substrate concentrations (0.2 to 4.0 nmole) in the presence of 2 mM CaCl₂, pH 9.0, for 60 minutes (9), analysis of the substrate concentration curve by transformation into a Lineweaver-Burk plot revealed the Michaelis constant (K_m) to be 60 μM and the maximum velocity (V_{max}) , 2.0 nmole/mg-hour. Further experiments were performed under the same conditions in the presence of a variety of compounds known to be present in neurons and to modulate neurotransmission (Table 1). In no case was there a significant effect on the K_m . Calmodulin, a multifunctional Ca²⁺-binding protein (10) reported to stimulate the release of neurotransmitter (6), caused about a fivefold increase in the enyzme's V_{max} . Prostaglandin $F_{2\alpha}$ (PGF_{2 α}), which is synthesized in the brain (11) and stimulates autonomic neurotransmission (12),caused an eightfold increase in PLA₂ activity. Prostaglandin E₂ (PGE₂), which is synthesized in the brain (11), inhibits autonomic neurotransmission (12) and acts as a sedative (13), not only inhibited PLA_2 activity in the presence of Ca^{2+} alone, but also inhibited the calmodulin stimulating effect.

Individually, adenosine triphosphate (ATP) inhibited by 50 percent and adenosine 3',5'-monophosphate (cyclic AMP), a nucleotide reported to stimulate PLA₂ activity (14), activated by 50 percent the synaptic vesicle PLA₂. However, cyclic AMP in conjunction with ATP activated PLA₂ by 200 percent. The difference in individual versus combined effects of these compounds on PLA₂ activity led us to speculate that the mechanism of the