A translocated human c-myc oncogene is altered in ^a conserved coding sequence

(translocation/DNA/Burkitt lymphoma)

WILLIAM MURPHY, JACOB SARID, REBECCA TAUB^{*}, THOMAS VASICEK, JAMES BATTEY[†], GILBERT LENOIR[‡], AND PHILIP LEDER

Department of Genetics, Harvard Medical School, Boston, MA ⁰²¹¹⁵

Contributed by Philip Leder, December 4, 1985

ABSTRACT We have cloned and characterized ^a c-myc (now designated MYC) oncogene that had been translocated into the μ switch region of the immunoglobulin heavy chain locus in a Burkitt lymphoma cell line. The breakpoint of the translocation occurs within the first intron of the c-myc gene, thereby separating the untranslocated first exon from the two coding exons. Transcription from the translocated gene arises from a cryptic promoter within the first intron, which produces a 438-nucleotide untranslated ⁵' region. The amino acid sequence of the protein encoded by the c-myc gene has been substantially altered. In particular, a compensating set of frameshift mutations alters a string of 24 amino acids in a region of the protein tightly conserved in human, mouse, and chicken c-myc genes as well as in the human N-myc and L-myc oncogenes. Despite this, the mutated gene retains a reduced transforming ability in a rat embryo fibroblast focus-formation assay.

Burkitt lymphoma is a human B-cell malignancy characterized by consistent reciprocal chromosomal translocations involving chromosome segment 8q24, which joins the protooncogene c-myc (now designated MYC) and one of the chromosome segments bearing the immunoglobulin genes (1-6). These chromosomal translocations have been presumed to activate the c-myc gene by disturbing its regulated expression and several models have been proposed that suggest mechanisms by which this deregulation may be produced (7-12). None of these exclude the possibility that coding alterations may affect the transforming activity of the translocated c-myc gene, although there are several examples of translocated c-myc genes of unaltered coding capacity (10, 13).

One of the major impediments to our understanding of how this deregulation occurs and the role that c-myc plays in the process of malignant transformation is that the normal function of the gene product in the untransformed cell remains obscure. The protein encoded by the c-myc gene is known to be a DNA-binding protein that is localized within the nucleus (14-17), to be regulated with respect to cell growth (18), and to act as an intracellular mediator of the growth response of cells to growth factors (19). Because of its DNA-binding properties and its sequence homology with the adenovirus ElA protein (20), it has been proposed that the c-myc gene product may be a regulatory protein and it has recently been shown that the transcription of the *Drosophila* heat shock protein is markedly increased when DNA encoding the heat shock protein is cotransfected with a normal c- myc gene (21) .

Despite these insights, however, the mechanism by which the c-myc gene product acts to cause transformation and the relation of the structure of the protein to its various DNAbinding and putative regulatory functions remains unknown.

One approach to define the structural regions of the c-myc gene product important to its transforming potential is to identify naturally occurring mutants of the protein that alter its amino acid structure but allow it to retain its transforming capacity. We report here the cloning and characterization of a translocated c-myc oncogene from a Burkitt lymphoma cell line (Ly65) in which the breakpoint occurs within the first intron of the gene, thus removing the first untranslated exon from the coding region of the gene. The coding sequence of this translocated gene has been altered by both single amino acid substitutions and a frameshift mutation in the second exon. These extensive alterations occur in one of two regions conserved among other species and other members of the c-myc gene family. Despite these changes in the protein sequence the translocated gene retains its transforming ability, though at reduced efficiency.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Cell Lines. The Ly65 cell line was obtained from the International Agency for Research on Cancer (Lyon, France). This cell line has been shown to be Epstein-Barr virus positive and to produce cytoplasmic μ heavy chains but no detectable light chains (3). The lymphoblastoid cell line IARC 100 was obtained by immortalization of normal peripheral lymphocytes by the B95/8 strain of Epstein-Barr virus. The cell lines were grown in RPMI 1640 medium supplemented with 20% fetal calf serum.

Genomic Cloning. DNA preparation, EcoRI restriction fragment enrichment, ligation into phage Charon 4A arms, and screening of plaques were carried out as described (13).

S1 Nuclease Protection and Primer-Extension Analysis of Ly65 mRNA. Single-stranded uniformly labeled DNA probes were prepared as described (13). S1 nuclease analysis was done as described by Taub et al. (11).

Hybridization mixtures intended for reverse transcription were ethanol precipitated. Then, the dry pellets were dissolved in 19 μ l of buffer (50 mM Tris HCl, pH 8.3/6 mM $MgCl₂/40$ mM KCl/0.2 mM dATP/dCTP/dGTP/dTTP), 24 units of avian myeloblastosis virus reverse transcriptase in 1 μ l of buffer was added, and the mixture was incubated at 37 $\rm ^{o}C$ for ¹ hr. It was then ethanol precipitated, and the precipitate was washed and dried. The pellet was dissolved in 20 μ l of S1 buffer and treated with S1 nuclease as above.

DNA Sequencing. DNA sequences were determined using the phage M13 dideoxy chain-termination method of Sanger et al. (22).

The publication costs of this article were defrayed in part by page charge payment. This article must therefore be hereby marked "advertisement" in accordance with 18 U.S.C. §1734 solely to indicate this fact.

Abbreviation: bp, base pair(s).

^{*}Present address: Howard Hughes Medical Institute, Joslin Diabetes Center, ¹ Joslin Place, Boston, MA 02215.

tPresent address: National Naval Medical Center, National Cancer Institute, Bethesda, MD 20205.

tPresent address: International Agency for Research on Cancer, 150 Cours Albert-Thomas, 69372 Lyon, France.

Construction of Various Plasmids Used for Cotransfection. Plasmid pSV7neo was a gift from H. Potter. This plasmid is derived from pBR327 by replacement of the tetracyclineresistance region by a DNA fragment containing the simian virus 40 ($S\bar{V}$ 40) enhancer/early region promoter, which controls the expression of the neomycin-resistance gene (derived from Tn5), followed by a polyadenylylation region of SV40. This plasmid was further modified by removing the DNA fragment containing the neomycin-resistance gene and the polyadenylylation region and replacing it with an M13 polylinker (derived from the replicative form of mp10). The plasmids containing the various $c-myc$ genes used in the cotransfection experiment were constructed by insertion of the $Sma I/EcoRI DNA fragment containing the second and$ third c- myc exons into the polylinker region. Construction of plasmid pSV7-Humyc Apst was accomplished by removal of the Pst I/Pst I 400-base-pair (bp) region within the second exon of the c-myc gene. Religation of the plasmid after removal of the Pst I fragment restores the original reading frame of the c- myc gene. Plasmid pEJ6.6 containing the EJ-Ha-ras oncogene was a gift from R. Weinberg.

Transformation of Rat Embryo Fibroblasts and Focus-Formation Assay. Primary cultures of rat embryo fibroblasts were prepared as described (23). Cotransfection of secondary rat embryo fibroblast cultures, scoring of foci, and tumor formation in nude mice were performed according to the procedure of Land et al. (23) except that the serum concentration in the culture medium was reduced to 3% when the cells became confluent and the nude mice were not irradiated prior to injection of the transfected cells.

RESULTS

Characterization of the Translocated c -*myc* Gene from the Burkitt Lymphoma Cell Line Ly65. Cytogenetic analysis of the Ly65 cell line shows a characteristic 8;14 chromosomal translocation that brings one of the two $c\text{-}myc$ alleles into the immunoglobulin heavy chain locus. Using probes isolated from germ-line c-myc and immunoglobulin μ genes, it has

been shown by digestion of Ly65 genomic DNA that the been shown by digestion of Lyby genomic DINA that the c-myc coding region and the μ switch and μ constant regions comigrate on a single DNA fragment whereas the J_H and 5' myc regions comigrate on another fragment (data not shown). The translocation breakpoint is located in the first intron of the c-myc gene and brings the c-myc coding region into the μ switch region with the two genes in a head-to-head fashion. This head-to-head orientation of the two loci has been defined based on the known chromosomal orientation of the two genes and restriction analysis of the translocated c-myc gene and its reciprocal product. T and its reciprocal product.

Transcriptional Analysis of the Translocated c-myc Gene from Cell Line Ly65. To define the site of initiation of the translocated Ly65 c-myc mRNA and to determine whether the translocation had altered the splicing and/or polyadenvlylation sites of the mRNA, the experiments shown in Fig. 1 were performed. When DNA fragment C from the Ly65 translocated gene (Fig. $1B$) was used in an S1 nucleaseprotection experiment, the RNA initiation site, corresponding to a protected fragment length of 210 nucleotides, mapped to a position 438 nucleotides 5' of the ATG translation initiation codon located in exon 2. Approximately 90% of the total radioactivity in the fragment C probe was present in the 210-nucleotide fragment; however, approximately 10% of the label was located in a band corresponding to full-length protection of the 365-nucleotide original fragment (Fig. 1A). This suggested the possible minor use of a second start site 5' of the major promoter. Since the use of other DNA fragments immediately 5' of fragment C failed to show any measurable S1 nuclease protection, a second approach to define the RNA initiation site for the translocated allele was followed. Using the probe A DNA fragment, we carried out a primer extension experiment with the Ly65 mRNA as template and found $(Ly65$ RNA, lane A') that the DNA fragment generated in this manner is exactly the size of the protected DNA fragment B, confirming the position of the RNA start site in Ly65. No band corresponding to a larger fragment, which would be generated if a more 5' site were also used, was found even with greatly increased exposures.

FIG. 1. (a) S1 nuclease protection and primer extension analyses of the Ly65 mRNA transcript. The following probes were used in the S1 nuclease analysis: A, the 325-bp Sma I/Pst I fragment from Ly65 DNA (probe A', used in the primer extension analysis, was the same as probe A except that the probe A' single-stranded fragment was formed by Sma I digestion instead of $EcoRI$ digestion of the mp10 subclone); B, the 710-bp Sst I/Pst I fragment from $Ly65$ DNA; C, the 365-bp Sst I/Sma I fragment from Ly65 DNA; D, the 560-bp S ma I/Pvu II Pst I/Sst I fragment from Ly65 DNA. Ten micrograms of tRNA, IARC 100 RNA, or Ly65 RNA was hybridized to the probe at 56°C and S1 nuclease analysis was performed as described in Materials and Meth $ods.$ (b) Schematic diagram of c-myc exon 2. P_{Ly65} , start site of Ly65 c-myc mRNA; ∇ , site of a 60-bp deletion in Ly65 DNA. The locations of probes A-E are shown below the diagram and the sizes of the protected fragments from Ly65 c-myc mRNA are indicated. \bullet ---, Region that is primer extended in Ly65 mRNA from probe A'.

FIG. 1. (a) S1 nuclease protection and

 $(A-D)$ depicted in Fig. 1 shows that the DNA that was part of the first intron, normally spliced out during processing of the germ-line mRNA, is entirely conserved during processing does not alter the normal splicing of the coding exons. The of the Ly65 transcript and becomes part of a new 5' use of other DNA fragments covering the region 3' of the Ly65 transcript and becomes part of a new 5' use of other DNA fragments covering the region 3' of untranslated region of Ly65 c-*mvc* mRNA. This Ly65 5' fragment E (data not shown) shows that in Ly65 mRNA the untranslated region of Ly65 c-myc mRNA. This Ly65 5' untranslated region contains no AUG initiation codons. The protection pattern of fragment E shows that the usual splice

The S1 protection pattern of the other DNA segments donor site used in the germ-line joining of exons 2 and 3 is also
A-D) depicted in Fig. 1 shows that the DNA that was part used in Ly65 and that the single nucleotide cha five nucleotides 3' of the donor site in Ly65 DNA (see below) does not alter the normal splicing of the coding exons. The poly(A) addition site is identical to that used in the processing of the germ-line c-myc gene (13). Therefore, the size of the

FIG. 2. Comparison of the nucleotide and amino acid sequences of the human c-myc germ-line gene and the Ly65 translocated myc gene. The sequence region presented represents the region of the Ly65 translocated c-myc gene from the breakpoint to the end of the first coding exon (bottom line of the nucleotide sequence). The sequence of the human germ-line c-myc gene is shown above the corresponding region of the Ly65 sequence. The normal amino acid sequence of the c-myc-encoded protein is shown above the sequence of the germ-line gene, and the amino acid changes in the translocated Ly65 c-myc gene product are shown below the Ly65 gene sequence.

cytoplasmic mRNA from the translocated c-myc allele is virtually identical to that of the $c-myc$ mRNA of the germ-line transcript when the P2 promoter site is used.

Sequence of the Translocated c-myc Gene in the Ly65 Cell Line. The entire nucleotide sequence of the region of the c-myc gene from the breakpoint of the translocation to the end of the second exon is shown in Fig. 2. The breakpoint of the translocated c-myc gene occurs in the middle of the first intron [position 18 (vertical arrow) in Pig. 2] and is located ¹¹⁵⁵ nucleotides ⁵' of the ATG translation start site in the second exon of the Ly65 gene. Comparison of the nucleotide sequence of the translocated gene with that of the germ-line gene shows the presence of many structural changes extending from the breakpoint into the coding region of the second exon. In the region ⁵' of the second coding exon, there have occurred multiple point mutations and there are two major deletions (240 nucleotides and 60 nucleotides, respectively) located just ⁵' of the start of the second coding exon. The RNA initiation site is shown at position ⁹⁸⁵ and, although there is no canonical "TATA" sequence immediately ⁵' of the RNA start site, there has occurred ^a single point mutation 18 nucleotides ⁵' ofthe start site, which changes the germ-line sequence TAGGA to TATGA beginning ²⁰ nucleotides ⁵' of the initiation site.

Comparison of the nucleotide sequences of the translocated and germ-line genes and of the amino acid sequences encoded by those genes shows that all of the amino acid changes in the c-myc protein have occurred within the region bounded by the two Pst ^I sites in the middle of exon 2. Single nucleotide mutations have resulted in a group of eight single amino acid substitutions between positions 32 and 112 in the protein molecule. There has also occurred a frameshift mutation beginning at nucleotide 1890 that extends for 24 amino acid codons (positions 136 to 159) before a compensatory deletion of 10 bases returns the sequence to its original reading frame.

Also noteworthy is a single base change at position 2245 located five nucleotides ³' of the splice donor site at the end of the second exon. However, the results in Fig. ¹ show that the mutation has not changed the use of the correct splice site. The nucleotide sequence of the third exon of the translocated gene is identical to that of its germ-line counterpart and consequently no change in the c-myc protein structure in the carboxylterminal half of the molecule has occurred.

In Vitro Transforming Ability of the Translocated c-myc Gene from Ly65 Cells. Since the coding sequence of the translocated c-myc gene of Ly65 cells has been altered so substantially, it was important to confirm that the translocated allele retained its transforming potential. Land et al. (23) have shown that the c-myc oncogene, when complemented with the RAS oncogene in a cotransfection experiment, is capable of producing a change in growth properties (focus formation) of rat embryo fibroblasts and that, when these foci are injected into nude mice, they form tumors. We have used this assay system to compare the transforming ability of the germ-line c-myc gene with that of the translocated Ly65 gene. When each of the plasmid constructions is cotransfected with a plasmid containing the EJ-RAS gene into rat embryo fibroblasts the results shown in Table ¹ were obtained. The construction made from the human germ-line c-myc gene was able to produce foci in each transfection and, in turn, produce tumors in all of the nude mice that were injected with cells from the transfection. The construction containing the translocated gene sequence from Ly65 cells also showed consistent transforming ability, although, as judged by numbers of foci per $10⁶$ cells transfected or by numbers of tumors in nude mice, the efficiency of transformation was reduced. Controls consisting of each of the oncogenes transfected together with either pBR322 carrier DNA or plasmid pSV7-Neo did not produce foci or tumors. In addition, a construction made by deleting the Pst I/Pst ^I fragment from the germ-line gene (within the region in which all the amino acid substitutions found in Ly65 cells are located) completely lost its transforming ability and did not produce foci or tumors.

DISCUSSION

The human cell line Ly65 carries an 8;14 reciprocal chromosomal translocation that brings the protooncogene c-myc into the μ switch region of the immunoglobulin heavy chain locus in a head-to-head fashion. The breakpoint of the translocation occurs within the first intron of the gene, thereby separating the coding region of the c-myc gene from the untranslated first exon. This pattern of translocation is characteristic of c-myc translocations in mouse plasmacytomas (6, 24, 25) and has been shown to occur in several human Burkitt lymphoma cell lines (8, 10, 12, 26, 27). In those few human translocations characterized to date, the breakpoint occurs within a 20-bp-

ND, not determined; *, experiment not done.

Genetics: Murphy et al.

long region of c-*myc* DNA and it has been suggested that this cluster may define a discrete region in which a breakpoint can occur and still result in a functional c-myc gene (28). The breakpoint in the Ly65 cell line occurs 100 nucleotides ⁵' of this cluster but in the same general locale at the beginning of the first intron. This area is rich in switch-like pentanucleotide repeats (13) and in the tetranucleotide GAGG, which has been found by Piccoli et al. (29) in the breakpoint region in mouse plasmacytomas and by Showe et al. (27) in at least one human Burkitt cell line.

It has been reported that the quantity of c-myc mRNA present in the Ly65 cell line is 2-3 times the amount present in a lymphoblastoid control cell line and that $\approx 95\%$ of the c-myc mRNA in Ly65 cells is transcribed from the translocated allele (11). We report here that transcription of the translocated allele makes use of a new cryptic promoter in the remaining region of the first intron. The portion of the intron between this promoter and the beginning of the second exon remains intact during mRNA processing and becomes part of a new 438-nucleotide untranslated $5'$ sequence in Ly65 mRNA. The Ly65 mRNA uses the same splice sites in joining exons 2 and 3 and the same $poly(A)$ addition site as the untranslocated germ-line mRNA. The size of the mRNA transcribed from the translocated allele is, therefore, virtually identical to that of the mRNA generated by use of the P2 promoter in the germ-line gene (13).

It has been suggested that the translocation of the $c-myc$ gene into the immunoglobulin heavy chain locus may allow the mechanisms responsible for the generation of variability in the immunoglobulin locus to act on the myc gene to produce the mutations frequently seen (9, 10, 30). The translocated allele in Ly65 cells has undergone extensive alteration in structure, including multiple point mutations and deletions in the ⁵' untranslated region and extending into the coding region of the second exon. These alterations give rise to eight single amino acid changes and a large frameshift mutation that changes a string of 24 consecutive amino acids in the amino-terminal half of the myc protein. The above cluster of amino acid changes occurs in a region of the gene that is highly conserved in mouse, chicken, and human sequences (25) at both the nucleotide and the amino acid level. Also, it has been reported by Schwab et al. (31), based on a partial sequence determination of the N-myc gene, that there exist two regions of strong homology within the second exon between the N-myc and the c-myc genes. This and other regions of homology have been identified by Kohl et al. (32). In addition, similar "myc boxes" occur in the c-myc-like gene L-myc, which is amplified in certain small cell carcinomas of the lung (33). The two regions of homology shared by these genes (Fig. 2) substantially overlap the altered regions of the translocated allele in Ly65 cells, especially the second homology region. These later alterations suggest a paradox in that an evolutionarily conserved region appears to be indispensable for the biologic function of the c-myc protein and yet these mutations allow transformation, albeit at reduced efficiency. One of several ways to account for this is to assume that these conserved domains serve a biological function independent of that required for transformation-for example, a regulatory function mediating the activity of the c-myc protein. Interestingly, Ly65 is a Burkitt cell line in which the normal untranslocated c-myc allele retains a minimal level of expression (11). This observation fits well with the hypothesis advanced by Rabbitts et al. (34) that certain structural alterations of the c-myc gene may alter its postulated autoregulatory action (1, 18).

We wish to acknowledge the assistance and advice of Drs. A. Land and R. Weinberg in helping us establish the rat embryo fibroblast

assay and of Dr. F. W. Alt, who made N-myc sequence data available to us in advance of its publication. The work was supported in part by grants from the American Business Cancer Research Foundation and from E. I. Dupont deNemours Co., Inc.

- Klein, G. (1981) Nature (London) 294, 313-318.
- 2. Rowley, J. (1982) Science 216, 749–751.
3. Lenoir, G., Preud'homme, J., Bernhei
- Lenoir, G., Preud'homme, J., Bernheim, A. & Berger, R. (1982) Nature (London) 298, 474-476.
- 4. Dalla-Favera, R., Bregni, M., Erickson, J., Patterson, D., Gallo, R. C. & Croce, C. (1982) Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA 79, 7824-7827.
- 5. Taub, R., Kirsch, I., Morton, C., Lenoir, G., Swan, D., Tronick, S., Aaronson, S. & Leder, P. (1982) Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA 79, 7837-7841.
- Adams, J. M., Gerondakis, S., Webb, E., Corcoran, L. & Cory, S. (1983) Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA 80, 1982-1986.
- 7. Leder, P., Battey, J., Lenoir, G., Moulding, C., Murphy, W., Potter, H., Stewart, T. & Taub, R. (1983) Science 222, 765-770.
- 8. Nishikura, K., ar-Rushdi, A., Erickson, J., Watt, R., Rovera, G. & Croce, C. (1983) Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA 80, 4822-4826.
- 9. Saito, H., Hayday, A. C., Wiman, K., Hayward, W. S. & Tonegawa, S. (1983) Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA 80, 7476-7480. 10. Rabbitts, T. H., Forster, A., Hamlyn, P. & Baer, R. (1984)
- Nature (London) 309, 592-597. 11. Taub, R., Moulding, C., Battery, J., Murphy, W., Vasicek, T.,
- Lenoir, G. & Leder, P. (1984) Cell 36, 339-348.
- 12. Rabbitts, T. H., Hamlyn, P. H. & Baer, R. (1983) Nature (London) 306, 760-765.
- 13. Battey, J., Moulding, C., Taub, R., Murphy, W., Stewart, T., Potter, H., Lenoir, G. & Leder, P. (1983) Cell 34, 779-787.
- 14. Donner, P., Greiser-Wilke, I. & Moelling, K. (1982) Nature (London) 296, 262-266.
- 15. Persson, H. & Leder, P. (1984) Science 225, 718-721.
16. Watt. R. A., Shatzman, A. R. & Rosenberg, M. (198
- Watt, R. A., Shatzman, A. R. & Rosenberg, M. (1985) Mol. Cell. Biol. 5, 448-456.
- 17. Eisenman, R. N., Tachibana, C. Y., Abrams, H. D. & Hann, S. (1985) Mol. Cell. Biol. 5, 114-126.
- 18. Kelly, K., Cochran, B., Stiles, C. D. & Leder, P. (1983) Cell 35, 603-610.
- 19. Armelin, H. A., Armelin, M. C. S., Kelly, K., Stewart, T., Leder, P., Cochran, B. H. & Stiles, C. D. (1984) Nature (London) 310, 655-670.
- 20. Ralston, R. & Bishop, J. M. (1983) Nature (London) 306, 803-806.
- 21. Kingston, R., Baldwin, A. & Sharp, P. (1984) Nature (London) 312, 280-282.
- 22. Sanger, F., Nicklen, S. & Coulson, A. (1977) Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA 74, 5463-5469.
- 23. Land, H., Parada, L. & Weinberg, R. (1983) Nature (London) 305, 596-602.
- 24. Stanton, L. W., Watt, R. & Marcu, K. (1983) Nature (London) 303, 401-406.
- 25. Cory, S., Gerondakis, S. & Adams, J. (1983) EMBO J. 2, 697-703.
- 26. Gellmann, E. P., Psalhidopoulos, M. C., Papas, T. S. & Dalla-Favera, R. (1983) Nature (London) 306, 799-803.
- 27. Showe, L. C., Ballantine, M., Nishikura, K., Erickson, J., Kaji, H. & Croce, C. M. (1985) Mol. Cell. Biol. 5, 501-509.
- 28. Gerondakis, S., Cory, S. & Adams, J. (1984) Cell 36, 973-982.
- 29. Piccoli, S. P., Caimi, P. G. & Cole, M. D. (1984) Nature (London) 310, 327-330.
- 30. Tonegawa, S. (1983) Nature (London) 302, 575-581.
- 31. Schwab, M., Alitalo, K., Klemprauer, K. H., Varmus, H., Bishop, J. M., Gilbert, F., Brodeur, G., Goldstein, M. & Trent, J. (1983) Nature (London) 305, 245-248.
- 32. Kohl, N. E., Legouy, E., DePinHo, R. A., Nisen, P. D., Smith, R. K., Gee, C. E. & Alt, F. W. (1986) Nature (London) 319, 73-77.
- 33. Nau, M. N., Brooks, B. J., Battey, J., Sausville, E., Gazdar, A. F., Kirsch, I. R., McBride, 0. W., Bertness, V., Hollis, G. F. & Minna, J. D. (1985) Nature (London) 318, 69-73.
- 34. Rabbitts, T. H., Forster, A., Hamlyn, P. & Baer, R. (1984) Nature (London) 309, 592-597.