

Totipotet at
Gen. Bot.
37:38-46
Jan 1950.

Ford & McCoy
and 2880 A
some at Wisc on penic

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✓
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Bact 108

Heredity:

2 concepts

1. likeness of offspring to parents.
2. This constancy is incomplete.

There must be some influence within bacteria which determines their behavior. - give rise to intrinsic differences between cultures.

Useful because of short life of each generation can be watched over thousands of generations.

The material responsible for heredity does not have complete control. - genotype - the intrinsic character of cell which is responsible for behavior and which is transmitted to offspring.

phenotype - present behavior under specific conditions of experiment. - i.e. its present appearance under set conditions.

eg *S. marcescens* pigment produced only at low T. but colourless cells will again produce pigment if returned to lower T.

This \therefore does not affect potentiality of cell i.e. the genotype of cycle from egg to adult animal.

Retains ~~its~~ intrinsic potentialities under conditions where they don't show.

Can control ^{very} environment of bacterial cells much than those of higher animals.

Genes regulate activities of cells under conditions that prevail. \therefore Genotype less distinct from phenotype in higher animals.

In higher organisms, the genotype is used for formula which describes genetic content of cells.

In high organisms different genetic types may give rise to similar appearance - "phenotype".

What is basis of genotype.
Theory: - the whole cell is responsible. - parent organs determine nature of daughter organs. - theory of holocellular determination. - doesn't work well with cycles of different phenotypes.
- eq would have to say that whole flagellum is not necessary as there may be flagellate or non-flagellate phenotypes. ∴ there must be certain units which perpetuate genotype - i.e. genes.

genes: that part of cell which has as a function the property of the propagation of the cell throughout a culture.

Cannot separate identity of individual genes without use of genetic variation.

genetic variation must be distinguished from physiological

The change which appears to be incited by a specific environment must persist through a long period of absence of the inciting conditions if it is genetic variation.

S → R variation is genetic because change will persist. produce different colonies under same conditions.

monomorphism doctrine that there is no genetic variation - attacked S-R as genetic, but due to impurity. - There are variations however - necessary for evolution

LiCl. increases number of S → R mutations.

Colorless mutants of *S. Lys* ^{at 25°C} ~~the~~ *marcescens* occur sporadically in a similar manner.

If sporadic variation is rare.

Additional Refs.

Lee & Cou

Refs. - Luria in 4, 11, 19, 20, 13 (1949)
Newcombe & Hawriko. J. bact., 57: 565-572.
Streptomycin & E. coli.

If sporadic mutation in pure it is impossible to find them without selective technique which might actually be causing mutation.
eg if in 10^{19} S. typhi sensitive bacteria there are 100 phage res. these could only be found by adding phage and killing sensitive. But maybe phage has caused production of resistant. it doesn't matter if mutation occur before or after application of selective agent.
To settle this Newcombe. if variant is produced at time of addition of agent there will not be any clones of variants at time of application as there are no descendants of mutants.

sporadic
directed
If applied phage to plate on which cells have grown. if sporadic mutation there will be clones of resistant.

would give 4 colonies spread or unspread

If directed each resistant colony will have started from a single cell at the same time. If they were clones and the plate is respread you will get more colonies than if not respread. resspreading single mutant cells would have no effect on number of colonies.

It is the former.

Resspreading done just prior to adding phage. Not absolute proof as spreading might increase mutation but very probable.

Also does not show that phage does not produce some of the mutations. but there is no evidence for this.

Unspread gives number of mutations.
spread gives number of mutants.

Seminar Mon & Thur 3:30. 2007

Assumptions for L + D method.

- (a) every cell divides at regular intervals (actually not very regular. - "uniform synchronous growth".
- (b) mutation occurs at time of division one daughter starting out as a mutant.
- (c) every descendant of a mutant is a mutant. reversion is at too low a rate to be significant.
- (d) constant probability of mutation per division.
- (e) immediate expression of resistance to phage in new mutant. - this is the chief weakness of theory

a mutant can arise by mutation or by subsequent growth of mutants. \therefore mutant cells must be equal to or more than the number of mutations.

Descendants of one in n generations are 2^{n-1} .
Because of increase in numbers most mutations occur in later generations. but the earlier ~~mutated~~ mutations contribute an equal number of mutants because of their more descendants. Each generation contributes the same number of mutants to final culture.

L + D tried to detd bacterial mutation rate, but got very inconsistent results.

values 3 - 125. but most at 18. can't take average of these as the odd high one would throw it out.

This variability is to be expected of sporadic mutation not of directed mutation.

Couldn't get value for mutation rate until Lea & Coulson mathematical treatment was developed.

This however is not good proof of sporadic mutation as the different numbers might be due to difference in ~~environment~~ environment between cultures.

This test is more applicable to different mutations than Newcombes.

"No such thing as an average mutation rate."

Mutations for several mutants occur 10^{-6} - 10^{-9} but this is just the convenient range to study. higher ones are not found. lower rates would be regarded as physiological change.

sometimes mutants have disadvantage then tends towards an equilibrium.

see Shapiro & Bunting in CSHQB. II
mention some 10^{-3} & 10^{-2} - selective methods
not needed \therefore must be sporadic.

Null tube method. data dilution at which
half the tubes have a mutant in them. \therefore a medium
in which only mutant grow - gives value for
number of mutants present.

Phage resistance

notation B/1 strain B of *E. coli* which is resistant
to T₁ phage.

Sometimes resistance to T₁ also accompanies
resistance to others eg T₅ = B/1,5
phage immediately after bar is the one to which
bacterium is exposed.

All those resistant to T₅ are resistant to T₁ not
vice versa.

B/1, t = B/1 which is tryptophanless.

B/r = radiation resistant mutant of B.

see Within refin article. (1947)

Genetics, 32, 221-228 "Genetics of resistance to radiation"

May alternately use V₁ resistant to T₁. V₁⁵ sensitive
gives a designation for alternative mutant.

Demerec & Jano (1945) - Genetics 30, 119-

"Bacteriophage resistance mutants in *E. coli*."

Above got resistant mutants to each of the phages
then tested them for cross resistances.

B/1 B/1 + B/1,5

B/2 rare.

B/3 B/3,4. B/3,4,7.

B/4 " "

B/5 B/1,5

B/6 B/6

B/7 B/3,4,7.

\therefore at least six different mutants.
then delin whether these are due to mutations in

parts of genotype - got all rate
measured $B/6 \rightarrow B/6/11$.

got same rate as for $B \rightarrow B/1$

also rates of $B/1 \rightarrow B/6/6$ same as $B \rightarrow B/6$.

Supports idea that independent elements of the genotype are responsible for the two characters because you can get subsequent mutations at same rate.

Actually rate measurements are not accurate.

These independent elements will be called genes.

They did find some $B/1,6$ to infrequently to be completely independent.

maybe it is different from $B/1/6$ - may involve other factors C as well.

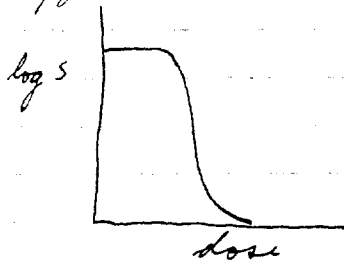
2 different genotypes may give the same phenotype.

These mutations are all all or nothing phenomena.

Physiological basis is that cells of B absorb the phage not the resistant ones.

Others are not all or none - depend on concentration of disinfectant etc. May be several genetic factors. see. Demerec H. (1945) PNAS 31 16-24

Even in the absence of genetic variation the response of a genotype will vary in contact with different dose.



even for a homogeneous genotype. their progeny behave as did original culture.

in case of penicillin it affects only actively growing cells others are persistors. some colonies formed on brilliant green though progeny are no different.

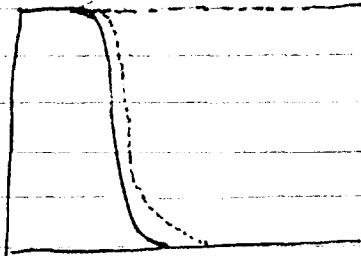
Possible proposition - study the chem of these steps.

This stepwise change is not common outside antibiotics.

May find "leaky" mutants. mutations don't completely block a synthesis - eg. not completely histidine requiring.

May be that for full resistance it is necessary to have cooperation of several genes.

In streptomycin *E. coli* frequently shows complete one step resistance. also a very small step may appear.



Some streptomycin resistant cells require ~~small~~ streptomycin for growth. If plated on streptomycin free media you only get sensitive cells.

	-S	+S
Streptomycin sensitive	+	-
resistant	+	+
dependant	-	+

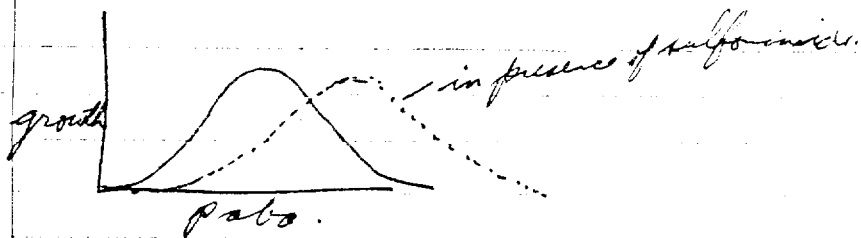
He suggests that in dependant the residual inhibition by streptomycin keeps cell in balance. Otherwise the changes due to mutation upset the cell.

Not likely that it is actually under its protoplasm.

Another case in Neurospora. - PABA inhibited in some functions ~~some~~ by sulfanilamide. some mutants resistant to sulfanilamide are dependant on it. However it does not replace it. resistance to sulfanilamide by this is inhibited by PABA. mutants wild Neurospora can synthesize PABA. but some are PABA dependant.

cross PABA⁻ with sfd⁻ → PABA⁻ sfd⁻. found it needed some, not too much PABA.

[Zolner (1948) PNAS 24: 32-36



self dependant makes enough paba to inhibit itself when not inhibited by sulfo.

No derivative supply indep dependant without inhibiting strep dependence.

Can use these dependant bact as test for presence of streptomycin.

resistant & dependant mutations occurs at approx equal rate. but until streptomycin is added the dependant cells do not multiply. there are fewer mutants dependant. This gives indirect evidence of spontaneity. Same number or approx different in both.

Wednesday 9 August.

Frank et al 1948 J Bact 35, ¹³⁹ ~~145~~
Lill & Rodwell ibid 55, 161

properties of penicillin resistant stuff.

Phenogenetics. Possible variations - properties of genetic variants.

Penicillin resistant mutants are ^{said} not grossly different from wild in ^{Demerec's work} ~~Steffensen's work~~.

Shore workers found variant to be gram-, rods, pleomorphic, no longer required amino acids, grows more slowly, strict aerobic, ~~moderate degree~~ of resistance to pyrazinamide and glutoxin, minor degree of resistance to streptomycin. Produces penicillins. Cannot ~~ferment~~ ferment several sugars. Cannot grow in presence of salt. Does not reduce NO_3^- .

These changes appeared progressively. It is possible to get reversion.

He explains discrepancy of results by

1 Complete physiological independence of distinct genetic changes.

2 the metabolic inter organization of all functions

Kolinska & Gale did not carry out a series of platings. They inoculated a series of tubes with increasing penicillin conc. took from higher conc showing growth. This picked up a large number of mutations which have only small effect and would not appear in Demereis method. This method gives a great number of small mutations. This gives continuous selection - selects non specific effects of mutations that increase growth in any manner.

By selection of organisms with some of these other properties you find they grow better in penicillin.

One function of $pabA$ is in synthesis of methionine. At least adding methionine reduces need for PABA. However sfo^+ need methionine. Other conc. EN resistant yeast has no cytochrome F but has sensitive enzymes of glycolysis. Explanation unknown.

Other associated changes.

ng B/1, t - requires tryptophane.
[Wollman 1947. Ann Inst Pasteur 73, 1082]

Organism cannot use indole as substitute for trypt. Usually it will couple with serine. This reaction is one probably blocked. Indole does inhibit absorption of phage. Its accumulation is difficult responsible for effect.

Cannot find back mutation, which does not need to be t independent. but some can get along on indole - from this a second step can lead to t independent resistant mutant.

Experimental Modification of Mutation Rates.

Not much different from higher organisms.

Overbach: Biol. Rev.

* Demerec + Faltarjet - CSHS QD XI 1946

Radiation effect CSH IX 1941

Watkin CSH XII (1947) - Chemical of bacteria.

J. Cellular & Comp. Physiol. Vol 35 suppl. 1 June 1950

Radiation biology: - exp paper by Muller.

See - Ref 5: somewhat biased.

Ref 7: Lederberg

Early found more mutations at high T. \therefore concluded they involved a local chemical change. ^{stippled} If it were possible to deliver energy in highly localized packages mutation rates would increase. Found X-rays did it: - First in *Drosophila*.

D & L investigated B \rightarrow B/1 mutations - this includes several different mutations. B/1, B/1, t
B/1, B.

Easy to count the number of mutants.

Could increase number of ~~some~~ survivors significantly.

All agents which produce mutations also kill many cells. can detect effect only when dose is large enough to kill many.

Assume there is no differential survival of mutants previously present.

Assay a prep for previous mutants. Suppose one mutant in 10^7

If the killing is indiscriminate and kills 99%. Starting with 10^9 cells would have only one resistant left.

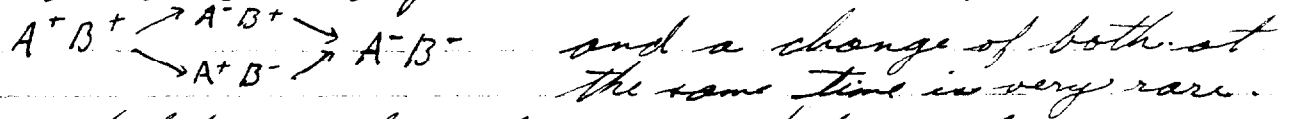
If there is no mutational effect but a selective effect then there might be 100 resistant left in 10^7 cells.

Would give the same result if no selection but 100 fold induction of mutations.

Watkin
Structure 22 p. 22

Criteria for Separating Genes.

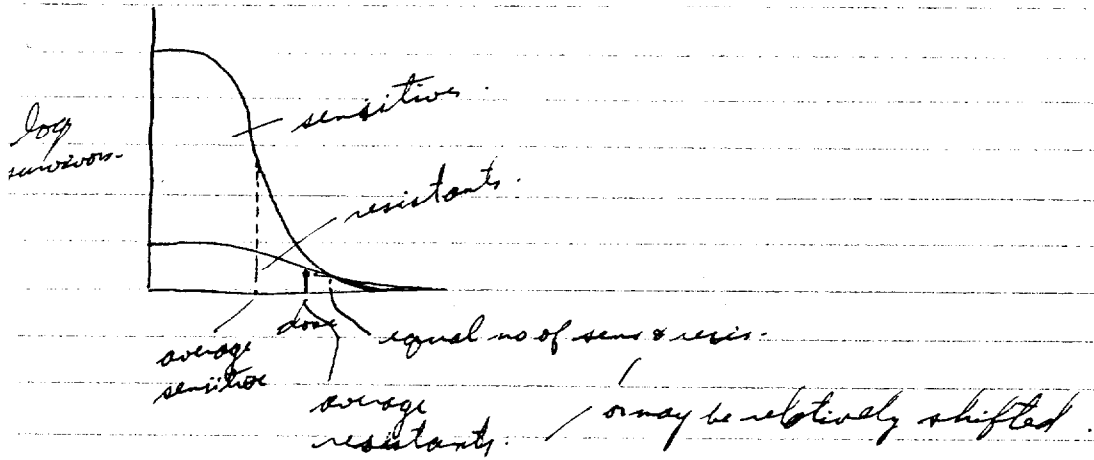
1. Qualitative independance in variation.



2. Quantitative independance in mutation rates.

$A^+ \rightarrow A^-$ rate is the same regardless of state of B.

But hard to maintain homogeneous genotype.
 ∴ in cultures usually get some resistant cells - can be selected by growing in penicillin.
 To get rid of most of sensitive, have to kill some resistant.



∴ always difficult to get true count of the resistant.

over all curve simply has a longer tail - not much difference.

There may be several different kind of resistant cells.

Has to be sufficient differential in the survivorship to compensate for difference in concentration.

Survivors of first resistant strain in high dose may show a further shift.

Generally the families of curves from first order resistant are separate from second order.

Demerec took this for 5 steps to get complete resistance.

Probably represent changes in more than one distinct factors.

In this it seems there are 5 factors of approximately equal effect. This keeps each family of curves together.

can't be sure unless there are actually more mutants afterward in spite of killing.

This is different from induction of Penicillin resistance by penicillin if that occurs because the mutations induced are not specific here. There are a great number of different mutations produced by M mustard.

Can check this by:

(a) getting cultures with no mutants present to start with.

(b) sometimes can adjust the dose to get an absolute increase in mutants present - must use rather small dose of agent - survival should be e^{-1} (about $\frac{1}{3}$ surviving.)

This has been found in neurospora under 26 rads, u.v., mustard for inositolless mutants to ^{ins +}

Difficulty in verification of assay methods - check it by not giving dose to blank.

There are mutants 13/r resistant to mustard & radiation. But this mutation cannot express itself during course of experiment - they don't affect this work. This makes even ~~some~~ relative increases probably valid.

Check for selective survival of mutants by det'n ratio before & after treatment in ~~mixed~~ mixed culture. Adding mutant culture to wild in come to outweigh mutants generated.

It's still possible that in this higher concentration the effect would be different.

Radiation.

-rays very penetrating - react with electrons of about 2nd shell $sp.$ - expels electron - primary ionization - this at high velocity can knock on other peripheral electrons. Density of ionization is greatest near end of track.

Can assume that energy of rays going through bacteria are undiminished.

Ultra violet - energy corresponds more to chemical bonds than intra atomic bonds - may cause rupture of bond in a molecule. There are characteristic absorption spectra of different chemical entities.

2600 \AA peak in nucleic acid due to purines & pyrimines

Not penetrating \therefore cannot use a thick suspension. You can either shake the dish to get even exposure - assume all energy absorbed \therefore total dose divided among total cells - water absorbs negligibly.

Or use thin suspension. Express results in terms of incident energy.

May calibrate dose by bactericidal effect.

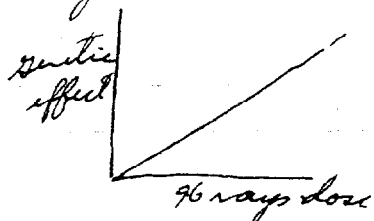
Can detect structures which absorb by taking uv. photographs. Sometimes nothing apparent sometimes



These granules are DNA. RNA distributed. Under some cultural conditions there is much RNA which covers everything.

Hit theory. (Treff theory).

The genetic effects could be understood in terms of a local hit. A quantum absorption leading to effect on genetic material. No intermediates.



seemed to be independent of Temp. Effect proportional to number of roentgens.

Roentgens = a certain number of ion pairs / cc of material

Over a wide range of X-ray wavelengths there was still a proportionality between dose & effects.

Assumed therefore that these secondary electrons were directly responsible for the effect.

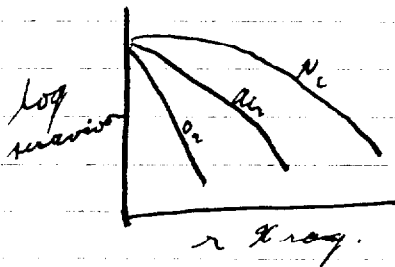
Two kinds of effect - lethal & mutation.

However.

Hauffman, Hollender & Swanson independently showed genetic & lethal effects can be effected - cells sensitized by infrared.

Infrared has almost no chemical effect by itself, but they increase effects of other rays 50% - 100%. Some of this effect is just in improving chances of recombination of fragments.

Giles & Riley - Effects of a given dose of X-radiation are very much influenced by atmosphere. O_2 has much greater effect than others.



Only the atmosphere at the time of radiation had any effect.

It might be that all effects are mediated by chemically active molecules in neighborhood of genetic material.

Peroxide radicals may be the immediate agent, instead of peroxide molecules. If it is radical it would have to be formed near point of effect as it is unstable.

There is still some effect in completely anaerobic conditions.

Ultra Violet.

No good data on kinetics. Just preliminary of Den & Zalay in C.S.H.

Was difficult to get u.v. to testes of flies for work with them - even ^{fly} eggs & pollen absorb heavily.

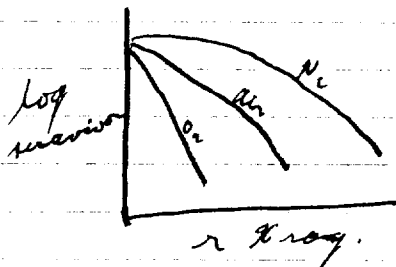
Therefore mostly confined to microorganisms.

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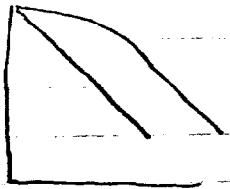
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In bacteria
2 kinds of curves \log_5



Interpret that with threshold value or requiring more than one hit.

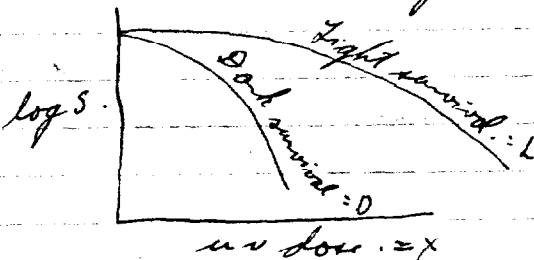
[Norman & Atwood - PNAS 1950 March - kinetics & math of killing curves.

If there is on the average one hit per organism
e.g. organisms will have no hits - is about 37%
If 5 hits, number of survivors - $(\frac{1}{e})^5$

Photoactivation

Helmreich

Found variation in viable counts after treatment according to amount of light received.



The effect of increased light reaches a maximum.
irradiate - u.v.
illuminate visible.

May be that illumination prevents inactivated cells from progressing to death.

Novick & Hillard suggest illumination destroys toxic material produced by u.v.

Photoactivation must be done fairly soon.
up to 2 hrs in refrigeration.

Suggest that the toxic substance can be converted into irreversibly toxic substance - i.e. react with cell - or in light revert to its original form.

dose reduction principle.

$$D(x) = L(x)$$

curve
D vs x

ie curves are same ~~etc~~
except in one x has greater effect.

This is not always the case.

Dalbecco in J. Bact May 1950 - tested effects of different λ for reactivation: the very short visible are most effective. Suggested very complex mechanism.

It takes 10-15 min of sunlight to saturate with effect.

Phage inactivation by uv. is st. h. - It can be reactivated after days by light if illuminated just after absorption on bact. illumination & absorption must be at same time. May be because phage absorbs light poorly. Even when only one phage per cell.

Photoreaction in yeasts, fungi, actinomycetes as well.

Mutational effects are reversed as are lethal. (Hass F.L. et al. Am. Natur. 84 261 (1950). ^{brief review.}

Other Evidence for indirect effect of Ultra Violet.

1947 Stone Wyss & Hass PNAS 33, 59

Found irradiated medium had effect on inducing mutations resistant to penicillin. Difficulty in penicillin conc has big effect on number that can survive in it. results very sensitive to penicillin stability.

Adding H₂O₂ to broth has same effect as uv. addition of large amounts of catalase protects from both uv & H₂O₂. H₂O₂ no effect direct on bugs.

Dickey F.H. et al PNAS 35 581 (1949).

Treatment of neurospora spores with organic peroxides not H₂O₂ produced mutations.

Used adiminicler neurospora, ~~not~~ studied reversions.

Wayner thinks pure H₂O₂ is active in producing mutants in neurospora. Lederberg agrees.

There is no report that ~~that~~ ^{peroxide} treated bacteria can be reactivated.

Different groups used diff wave lengths. may explain some discrepancies.

May be H₂O₂ effect is only the non photoreactivable effect.

Radiation effects. killed most with uv or γ rays.
Demere + Fotalet found an increase in number of phage resistant colonies after growth. Meant that some mutants appeared after a period of growth up to 13 generations needed to get full effect of irradiation. Beyond 13 spontaneous mutations obscure and further small numbers.

zero point mutations - those that appear immediately after irradiation.

end point - those after 13 generations.
ratio of zero to end point 1:100-1000.

Most appear after 2-3 generations.

Explanation

- ① A true delay in effects of radiation: mutation process delayed.
- ② May be phenotypic lag.
- ③ Genetic complication, up segregation.

First is least likely.

It is actually hard to understand how you could get any zero point or immediate loss of receptors. Would expect ② - May actually be no zero point. May be some bact are not killed till they have had time for a few generations and to show the new phenotype. dead bact may absorb phage and hold it long enough to protect some cells. In this work there was little excess of phage. phage can grow on killed cells.

③. The genetic model assumed may be over simplified. ie that there is just one unit involved in control of this factor. but there are several nuclei like bodies in bacteria.

88 88 if one has mutated the new form ^{might} ~~would~~ be recessive to sensitivity. Would not show till separated by fission. If four nuclei ^{genomes} ~~units~~ it would take 2 divisions & then phenotypic lag. This does not explain lag up to 13 generations unless ^{some} ~~many~~ cells remain inhibited in growth for a long period. If some ~~of~~ mutated cells are amongst those inhibited there will be mutants appearing latter.

To check this if true you will get two types of cells from one parent. Separate clones from each

irradiated cells and see if they are pure or mixed
do it by streaking culture across streak of
phage. ~~Concomitant~~ sensitive will show break in
streak. Newcomb got 2 mutant clones which
were pure. but these may have by chance come from bacteria
with one nucleus. Or the other genome may have been
killed by a ~~total~~ lethal mutation.

Can use EMB lactose agar. fermenters give black
colonies. nonfermenters give pink. - mixed give variegated
He finds half the mutants occur in mixed clones.

① - May be that unstable intermediate forms
of genes occur. - sometimes get different mutant
forms of the same gene - some stable some unstable.
from the unstable form one might get some wild type
progeny. That the mutation itself may be delayed
is hard to investigate.

Davis:- Studied Trp - \rightarrow Trt.

He got occasional mutant without any thing
but many more if he added just a little tryptophan.
This would indicate some growth needed to allow
showing of mutant not time. May need growth
to produce missing enzyme. (Can't break down some tissue
to yield this he thinks)

Suppl #1 Vol 35 J. Cell. Comp. Physiol.

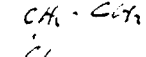
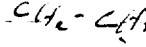
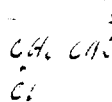
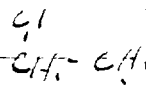
Suppl to Vol 22 Publ. Zool. Sta Naples. Q/LIN 28
mutagenic agents. - English summaries.

Chemical Mutagens.

First definite report by Averbach on mustard ^{gas} but
it was secret during war.

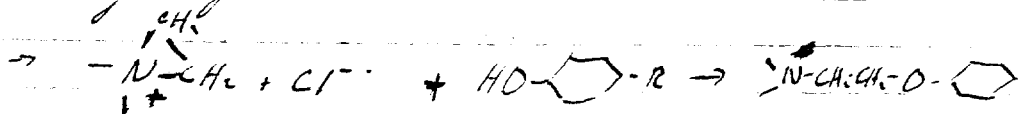
mustard oil (different compd) was next. - $\text{CH}_2 = \text{CH} \cdot \text{S} \cdot \text{CN}$
allyl iso thiocyanate.

mustard gas



Nitrogen mustard

Think it forms a cyclic compd. in H₂O & acts as an alkylating agent.



will react with carbonyl, phenol, indol, amin Hydrogens.

Most effective vesicants have two side arms. may cause cross links. However one arm mustards do have mutagenic effects.

N mustards are solid, inactive in acid - much easier to use.

Other compounds have not been studied so widely eg peroxides, formaldehyde.

formaldehyde has two OH groups (hydrated) able to react with active H's of bakelite.

diagonmethane in Hereditas. by W. K. Kline by Rappaport. in neurospora.

acetic anhydride, acetyl chloride, ethylene oxide

He thinks any alkylating agent does it.

Carcinogens. Hydrocarbon derivations can cause tumors

Radiation can cause cancer as well as mutation but might be due to non specific irritation.

Action of chemical carcinogens may be indirect through a derivative - hard to study.

Might be specificity of action.

Mustards do produce cancers if sufficient dose without death.

Leukemia can be treated with mustards as it especially attacks rapidly growing cells. fear possibility of mutant descendants

Phenol. Dissert out ovaries and slip them in phenol then replant them. but no definite known effects in bacteria.

up good example. complicated by clumping effects. Tains RNA.

No fusaric acid, acriflavin, Pyronine D. by Watkins. but methyl green which stains DNA does not.

NaCl claimed but believed selective.

Interclonal variation.

A. One clone may modify or suppress growth of another clone. Antibiotics - not genetic.

{ Gratia & Fredericq. Antagonism in cultures of enteric bacteria. Suppl. to #4 Rev. Belge path & med. exp. V 19, 1948

colicins - antibiotics against one species of bac produced by another - not phages. - there are mutants to resistance to colicins. - there are about 12 distinct colicins. There is cross resistance between some colicins and some phages. Coating bac with antigens protects ~~from~~ from colicins. Often filtrates of killer strains show know effect.

Phage - may be considered an always fatal external parasite. - at least the lytic phages are always fatal. but there are others which do not cause death of all cells attacked - in these virus and cell can grow together - lysogenic phages. - phages transmitted intracellularly during fission. Salmonella and Staph are particularly often contaminated with phage. May be that every salmonella culture from natural sources is contaminated by at least one phage. This amounts to something similar to a change in genotype or a carrier state.

{ Williams-Smith. J Hygiene 46 82-89 (1948)

On some Staph the resistance to phage is dictated by phages already present not mutations. A ~~mixed~~ mixed culture ~~is~~ each resistant to a different virus will become resistance to both by cross infection. Some cells are lysed but those that survive are predominantly doubly resistance. Terms this infectious transmission.

Pneumococcal Pneumococcal transformations.

Mucoid with capsule → smooth → Rough.
or R or Extreme R.

Occasionally you get unstable S form which will revert back to the M type from which it came.

Some strains however have completely lost this property.

Griffith found that S strains that did not revert would give mucoid types when grown with killed M vaccines. Did it in vivo only.

Main diff from phage is in chemical simplicity. MW of this about 500,000.

Davis:

Syntrophism - feeding of one strain of bacteria by another growing near it.

Trying to get penicillin resist. mutants but found that they would not grow in the presence of high conc. of wild type or killed wild cells. (by irradiation). Took $10^{4.5}$ - 10^7 cells of wild type / cc to have effect.

Could be 'syntrophism'.

5 True delayed mutation ² segregation from normal nuclei

4 Phenomic lag. ³ segregation from lethal nuclei.

Did get mutants if the irradiated culture was grown a while first. These mutants were not masked by adding culture irradiated but not grown. Therefore it could not be syntrophism exerted by not non-mutated cells.

He seems to take phenomic lag - i.e. takes time for new genotype to express new phenotype.

He doesn't think it is segregation because he gets pure colonies of mutants growing immediately after irradiation ~~then~~ or limiting enrichment.

This does not rule out the segregation from lethals and may still be a considerable number where normal has overgrown mutant.

This idea of hapt required to allow establishment of new phenotype.

Figures it may be same effect as effect of large inoculum. Fed accumulation of substance in media. But growth of other cells nearby doesn't help.

This rules out segregation from lethal mutation.

He says these may not be in protein equal as higher animals or they have no size limit. they may not have full hapt in cells.

(eg coli. hapt) some good one for some word 2-3 survivors mutants in 10^5 without irradi. If irradiated to give 10% survivors get twice as many mutants and even more if grown in hapt.

Infective transmission again.

Sometimes bacterial virus causes very little damage even on first infection - eg Blue White found virus attacking Rough vibrio cholerae.

Can be found

- 1 secretes virus which can be detected on lysosensitive indicator strain
- 2 Resistant to lyso-genic viruses and to related strains after infection.

Staff infected with virus (C) behave exactly like mutant to resistance to virus B. There is a little lysis during infection with C - the only distinguishing factor. Virus C would appear like a transforming factor except for the small amount of lysis.

Maybe viruses are wild ^{epitomic} genes or genes ^{some} viruses.

H (killer factor) in paramecium was thought to be a plasmagene. It could be passed only by copulation. it kills other nearby cells.

But pappa can now be seen as granules and other paramecia can now be infected by one mass of killer cells.

Henry Taylor
mutation of transforming
principle

plasmagene.
cytogene.
virus.
transforming principle.
viroid
genoid
plavid

} not distinguishable
infectious hereditary agents
transmission independent of genes
show some effect on phenotype.
regularly transmitted to offspring

Some bacteria are almost similar. in eukaryotes they are necessary to infect and cannot grow alone.

B- M+T+L- would require 2 spontaneous mutations

Uses extra characters to study. - eg phage resistance factors - . Can see if these are exchanged along with ones we are selecting for. - get four kinds with D+M+T+L+ two of which are parents.

are $V_1^P Lac^-$, $V_1^S Lac^+$. These are unselected markers. Look for changes in those cells that are selected for possible recombinants.

Also used streptomycin^R and azide^R as character for selection for recombinants. - select for $S^R Az^R$ and look for other recombinants. this may include some spontaneous mutation which will have markers of the host parents. - in practice out of 100 isolation 93 were recombinants. 6 resembled Az^S parent. most of these will be simple mutations. one could have been by mutation of $S^S \rightarrow S^R$.

All the possible recombinations occur but not with equal frequencies. - Malt+ & $\%yl^+$ stay together most of the ~~time~~ time - ie if you combine Malt+ & $\%ylose^-$ + Malt- $\%yl^+$ the recombinants are mostly Malt+, $\%yl^+$ or Malt- $\%yl^-$ - Evidence for linear arrangement of genes. This however does not seem to hold for all markers. None behaves independently.

Since you select for certain factors you may find that some other factors very near will be recombined in all cells selected.

Check it with opposite markers in parents.

In selecting for M+ you usually get ~~some~~ recombinants with some S character as occurs on the M+ parent regardless of whether it is S^R or S^S . Therefore it does not depend on difference of mobility between S^R & S^S .

The fact that the entire genome is involved and that units can go in blocks one must assume if infectious particles are the method the particles must carry whole genome. ie would be gametes these may be round cells or specialized ~~the~~ structure. There has never been any example of infection with nutritional characters.

If there are three types of cells in culture the

recombinants will have character of only two parent.
Recombination are too rare to find double
successive recombinations. therefore infective
units cannot be in small parts of genome.

Davis separated two strains on opposite sides
of sintered glass filter and washed fluid back
and forth. Small particles would have swished
back and forth. No prototrophs were found
∴ particles must be several times larger than phage.

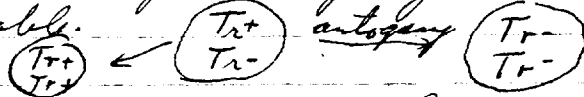
In many microorganisms there are + & - mating types
but there doesn't seem to be any diff here.

About one recombinant in a million. But this is one a few
thousand collisions by Brownian Movement.

If *E. coli* were diploid it would be necessary to
have two mutations, where new form is ~~the~~ recessive.

In some bacteria it is hard to get mutants, there
might be diploid.

It may be that by 'autogamy' one allele would take
over not probable.



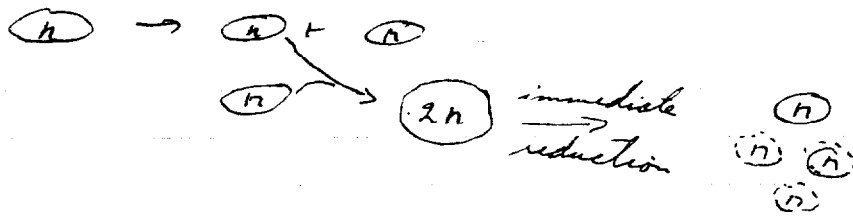
However if you cross $A^- B^+ lac^-$ and select prototrophs
 $A^+ B^- lac^+$
each colony may be lac^- , or lac^+ but will be pure one
or the other.

If they were diploid on fusion you would expect
one genome to exchange. Then all diploids 1st generation
recombinants would be heterozygous but you never
get a recessive showing up in lac^+ . If diploid
you would get mixed colonies. There is not even time
probably for a split before plating.

Probable system - common to algae etc - "haplobiontic"
Vegetative cells are haploid and can reproduce
by fission all haploid.

During fusion a diploid is formed but this does
not persist for any length of time. Usually resection
sives 4 cells but we don't know if more than one survives

209D Hilgard
3PM



Only evidence for more than one cell formed from diploid is very rare mixed colony.

Frequency of prototroph formation is nearly that of zygote formation.

No evidence has been found for sexuality in *E. coli*.

Yeasts - some mostly haploid some mostly diploid. The strain mostly diploid can be maintained haploid, as it is heterophthalic, when you have a pure strain of one sex.

E. coli can be obtained diploid. - If you get mixed prototrophs in one colony it is probably from diploid. - This is from diploid that does not segregate immediately. This can be found by lactose negative thrown off if it is unstable. If stable it would not show so easily. This was once found - gives variegated colonies. Most cells from this give pure colonies but some give variegated. This could arise from extreme instability. But in this if it was found that the pure descendant colonies were not all prototrophic. It is not a case of two nuclei as these would not recombine and would give only two kinds of descendants.

but all possible recombinants?

Phenomenon is repeated if you use descendants of this colony in subsequent crosses. If crossed with another colony 10-15% of progeny or prototrophs formed are variegated.

Similar effects have been noted in yeast.

There are several different forms of *lac*. lac^- & lac^+ are very closely linked very seldom cross. Can pick crossover as lac^+ when parents are lac^- lac^+ and lac^+ lac^- . The resulting lac^+ may be diploid or crossover. They occur about one in a thousand and about half are diploid.

On this colony has culture of diploid lac^+ outer part

in 10^6 . These occur too instead of 10^5 with those that have the Φ factor - i.e. mutants that form more mutants.

There are complications.

Viral Recombinations.

2 groups Luria & Dulbecco.
Hershey & Rotman-Sussman.

Luria gave us T_2 you got more plaques if mixed with bacteria in high conc. than if phage is added. It is interpreted this as the presence of particles no longer able to multiply singly.

Suspension more active if multiplicity of infection is high.

Assume phage composed of many genetic units each of which is essential to action. If two particles each with a different unit inactivated attack one bacterium the comb. they fall apart into units and a complete set is present.

Confirmed by kinetics. - Compute the fraction of bacteria doubly infected or more, fraction of phage with or inactivated units - compare to number of active plaques.

There is no inactive phage released - not just a crossing over

Hershey got similar evidence with visible markers

Aug 28

Different members of T_2, T_4, T_6 series can recombine each other as above. - Indicates that they are closely related.

More than two particles can participate. This is different from bacteria. - 8-10 units may be reorganized to give one ϕ viable.

This is evidence either for disintegration of units in viral particles or very many recombination. More likely the former & this is evidence for the disintegration of units of multiplication.

Ladenberg.
Methods of preparing mutants.
Methods of Medical Research vol. 3

These multiple recombinations done with heavily irradiated particles with several genes knocked out.

There is no decrease in efficiency of reactivation though one would expect it if it were several successive recombinations.



eg no pair of these could alone form an active particle.

Hershey.

A much more direct method.

Recombination between visible markers. The number of possible markers is rather small - only characters having to do with nature of plaque & lysis.

One such marker is *m* which gives a very small plaque. - another is *h* which can lyse a normally resistant bacterium. *r* - rapid lysis - lysis not inhibited by other phage outside particle as in wild *r+* type. - another mutant is heat resistant, another *does not* requires tryptophan for adsorption, serological mutants are another possibility.

Can get recombination from *h+r+* and *h+r* pairs got *hr* and *h+r+* progeny as well. He found the *h* factors closely linked to certain *r* factors there are ~~several~~ different *r* mutants. Can cross *r₁+r₂* with *r₁*, *r₂* and get wild type and *r₁r₂+*. I identify the latter because it gives no wild type when crossed with single *r* mutant.

20-25 *r* mutants have been found. - Never yet found and recurrences in *r₁* from different sources. By probability this means there are a total of at least 200 possible *r* mutants, which seems very unlikely.

Most of the yields contained only parental types. there were many more *hr* crossovers than *h+r* as would be expected from ordinary type of crossover.

This may mean that breakdown on reproduction into groups of characters not into individual characters. The difference in *hr* or *h+r* numbers

done by isolating phage released from single bacteria

may be due to lack of survival of h'r⁺

Sturtevant

or zipper theory - growth of new units proceeds linearly along a chromosome chain. The partially synthesized chromosome may then move over to another pattern. This would allow one recombination type and not the other. Would allow synthesis of h genes on pattern r or another. - Similar to Hollings theory of crossovers. - No evidence. This does account for linearity and for hanging together of certain units.

Yields of recombinants in T₁ have been very small but number of markers is much less.

On crosses between T₁ & T₄ etc the recombination so much more in blocks than with one species.

Burnett's Recombination has been found with influenza virus - using neurotropic marker - ability to grow in mole brain - and also serological markers - not yet published.

Virus Mutation - Lucia No 25.

Host range phage mutants. - showed they were not just induced.

Can also study mutants in single bacterial cells - gives evidence on method of reproduction.

But Poisson instead of clonal distribution. - not by binary fission.

Beadle & Cummins
No 24

Neurospora crassa.

- fungus produces ascospore covered with fine lines.
- an ascospore has two identical nuclei - which are entirely equivalent. - to activate spore you have to heat to 60° which also kills all vegetative cells. - simplifies matters. Can grow at 4 mm an hour. Aerial mycelia become pinched off into small round cells - conidia. - they can reproduce no genetic change. - microconidia also but less frequent. - come out singly from a special structure. - smaller spores. - these contain only one nucleus - macro have several.

In hyphae the septae are perforated and nuclei can pass through.

If two hyphae of different genetic types come together they will fuse and nuclei mix. - heterocaryons.

You may find mutant nuclei present with others in hyphae. This may sort out on sporulation and look like mutation - Dual phenomenon.

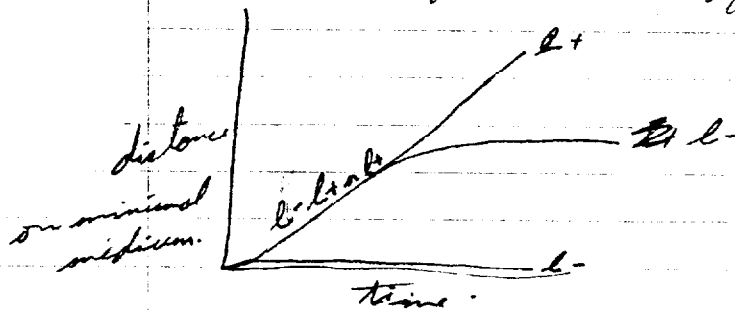
Coenocyt - any structure with multiple nuclei. A heterocaryon between two different biochemical mutants has positive properties of both.

Can use this to find out whether mutations for requirement of A are at same step or not.

Can put two mutants together on medium and only the heterocaryons will grow. if mutations are for different points.

A heterocaryon with $l^- + l^+$ on medium with ^{leucine} leucine will result in repression of l^+ mutant.

Can compare rate of growth of different mutants.



This would seem to be a disadvantageous type of evolution.

In most biochemical mutants both nuclei of heterocaryon get along together the one unable to synthesize something living of that produced by the other.

One factor heterosis.

strains $psb^+ spo^-$ (requiring sulfonamide).
 $psb^- spo^-$ (mutant of above unable to synthesize psb).

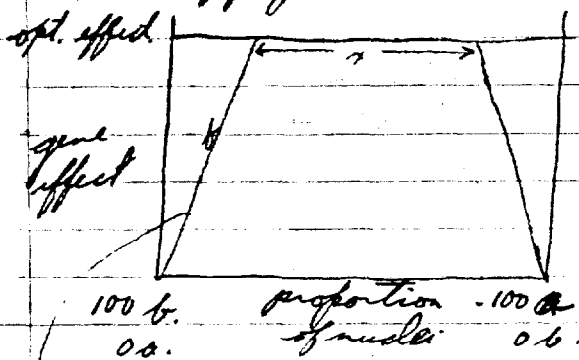
A heterocaryon of the two above grow without either added. The concentrations of the two nuclei will ~~of~~ adjust themselves to produce optimal amount of psb . Mechanism of adjustment of nuclear ratios not well understood may be simple selection of nuclear t.i. with 1:1 + 1:1.

Aug 29
 Viruses 1950
 Collect Book store
 8-50

Alternatively there might be some controlling mechanism. - may be by localization of effect close to nucleus. i.e. if inositol is less if inositol synthesizing nuclei exert most effect locally then they will grow better than the inositol - but he doesn't like the idea.

In a heterocaryon $A^- B^+$
 $A^+ B^-$

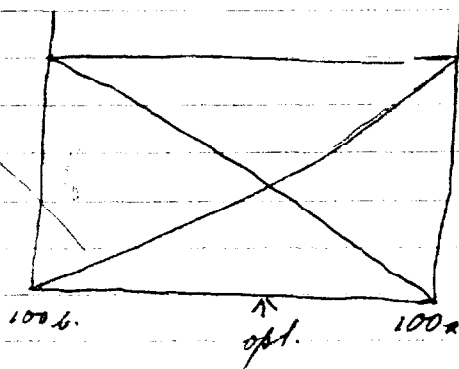
If both factors are very efficient - say 10% of A^+ or B^+ can supply the rest.



in range x of nuclear composition you get optimum \therefore there will be considerable fluctuation of ratios.

If factors are inefficient.

actual curves are not known.



A single optimum point but much less than that of wild type. Ratio will be stabilized.

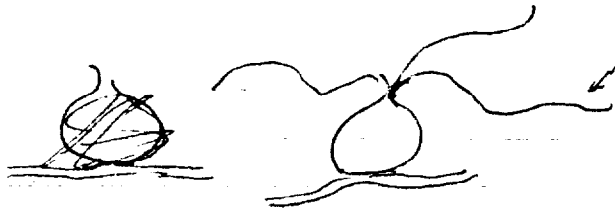
Can conclude that factors are sufficient if best growth of heterocaryon is less than wild type.

Heterocaryons from hetero.

- 1 By cutting off small tips in which all nuclei are one type.
- 2 By conidia esp microconidia. - can get ratios from these.
- 3 By sexual stage.

Sexual part of life cycle.

- zygote only between the two opposite mating types. - either type can form protoplasma.



if these trichogynes contact any part of vegetative part of other type it ~~becomes~~

becomes fertilized. \rightarrow 4 diploid ascus initial cells. ^{one of} these undergoes meiosis \rightarrow four ~~haploid~~ haploid cells. These by mitosis \rightarrow 8 ascospores. They appear arranged linearly in ascus. When mature nucleus divides again \rightarrow 2 nuclei in each spore.

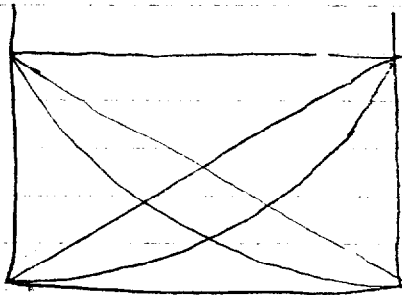
- Even if from heterocaryon the proto-perithecia are usually genetically pure.

May be used in analyzing heterocaryons. - not used as much now as microconidia.

sorbose in medium. induces compact colony growth - can do plate tests with it present. Tergitol 7 has same effect - called "paramorphogenic".

Aug 30

quite efficiency



Heterocaryon effect common in ~~any~~ biochemical mutants. When there are different degrees of dominance. If wild type is ~~dominant~~ completely dominant its biochemical effect will be apparent in heterocaryon.

Neurospora tetrasperma - has four spores in ascus. each of which has four nuclei - single spore cultures can produce fruiting bodies - crassa cannot must have 2 sexes. - tetraspora is not homothallic but ascospores usually have both + & - in spores. - that is they are regularly heterocaryotic for mating type.

Can get homocaryons from microconidia.

Occasionally find five instead of 4 spores - 2 of which are small. These dwarf spores are usually homocaryotic.

possible mechanism of spore inter



Each spore starts from two different nuclei

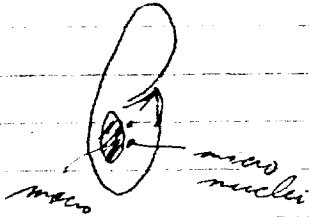
- each nucleus divides again

Dodge Proc Am Phil Soc 94: 38 (1950)

You can get hybrids + tetrasomy between
crassa and tetraspora.

Paramecia by Sonnenborn.

Paramecium aurelia.



The micro nuclei are each diploid
but equivalent to each other.

In fission macro nucleus divide by what appears
to be meiosis + mitosis.

Micro divide by mitosis $\rightarrow 4$

Any part of a macro nucleus cut out by
surgery can maintain its function.

Removal of micro nuclei from cell does not affect
its vegetative growth + reproduction.
in all that is needed is a piece of the macro
nucleus.

In conjugation -

Must be two mating types - ~~+~~ attachment but
not fusion.

Macro nucleus degenerates. - each micro under
goes meiotic segregation each $\rightarrow 4$ haploid.

7 of these degenerate. - remainder divides into 2.

one of these is exchanged for one from other cell.

Now both ~~of~~ cells have identical nuclear constitution
and they fuse to give one diploid nucleus.

This $\rightarrow 4$ diploid. - two of these give rise to macro
nuclei.

Micro nuclei divide $\rightarrow 4$. Then fission to give
normal vegetative cells. - There seem to be some
differences between ~~the~~ the macro nucleus may
cause differences in descendants. - still not understood

Also no exchange of ~~the~~ cytoplasm. \therefore
The two parents may still have differences
though nuclei are identical.

factors there may be some cytoplasmic exchange.
Can sometimes keep old macronucleus and then phenotype is like the old.

Sometimes in autogamy the whole process is carried through by one cell but without exchange - this gives rise to a homozygous cell. May bring out a recessive mating type from a heterozygous parent.

clone the ~~pro~~ descendant of one of the fusing parents.

karyonide - half a clone - the two half halves differ according to the differences of the macronuclei of δ 's.

If autogamy occurs in a karyonide there will be differences brought out.

Aug 31

Any differences between two exconjugants must be due to inheritance through cytoplasm. Difficulty is that so far relatively few genetically determined characters are known.

The killer factor - paramycin is determined in part by the cytoplasm. - Must have necessary gene as well. If you cross homozygous killer & non killer parents both exconjugants will be heterozygous but only if ~~the~~ cytoplasmic factor is present will it be a killer.

In autogamy half will become homozygous killers half will lose killer gene completely and cytoplasmic factor disappears.

If some kappa is passed in prolonged conjugation it takes several generations for sufficient to appear to have effect. If the paramoecium are grown rapidly some become non killers. If through autogamy fission is held ~~trif~~ those with nuclear factors will become killers ~~etc~~ quickly.

kappa may be destroyed by X rays, heat treatment. X rays knock out micronucleus so animals die when macro is lost in autogamy or conjugation but it can still multiply by fission.

Antigenic types are also extranuclear.

If animal is put with corresponding antigen it will change to another type. This is too common for selection

Kappa
can be stained
& seen - DNA

but is inheritable. Theory Type A also has some B C etc antigens in antisera A is absorbed then the other components grow out & become dominant.

He doesn't consider this specific mutation since nucleus is not involved.

Sonnenborn now postulates initial product of gene may go in several paths - final product of one path stimulates production of intermediates on its path. This instead of cytoplasmic genes. But no evidence for it.

Yeast.

Normal vegetative phase is diploid.

On some media these ~~do~~ will sporulate. 4 spores in an ascus - each is haploid. Sometimes these germinate & fuse in ascus. but it is possible to get haploid cultures.

Usually two haploid cells fuse quite quickly.

~~Cells of one ascus are of one mating type.~~

It is possible to get heteroplastic strains of yeast.

You may have mutations from one type to another.

In cerevisiae the inheritance of mutations is regular Mendelian type.

Harder to work with because spores are so small.

If you get hybrid of cerevisiae with carlsbergensis you get very irregular behavior - all spores in one ascus may be of one type. Some therefore, discard the regular theory here - he doesn't - just aberrant behavior.

Saccharomyces spizizenii Me - able to ferment melibiose. me - not able.
after adaptation

from a heterozygous parent you would expect two of each in one ascus

If the parent diploid was actively fermenting melibiose there would be some of the enzyme present. Perhaps this would keep replacing itself without gene if melibiose was continuously present. They found this so in a number of cases. On removing melibiose those without gene should lose ability to ferment.

(M2)	(M1)	(M2)	(M2)	(M2)	+
(M2)	(M1)	glucose	(M2)	Melibiose	+
(M2)	(M1)		(M2)		-
(M2)	(M1)		(M2)		-

This was taken as evidence for cytoplasmic inheritance in yeast.

However it was found that the ~~number~~ number unable to readapt, varied with time on glucose ~~glucose~~ depended on lack of (certain nutrients). In medium with If you did grow in presence of glucose you got an irregular number of those able to ferment. All in a mess at present.

Ephrussi found studied small colony formation in presence of acriflavin - many large colony cells become small colony - continued in absence of acriflavin. May be specific induction of mutation.

Small colonies have no cytoplasmic ~~colony~~.

similar to mitochondria granules necessary for aerobic respiration.

Evidence but not proof for cytoplasmic system.

Might mean that mitochondria of higher animals may also be self-perpetuating.

This about completes the course. Tomorrow is just recitation.

Microbial genetics.

Questions.

a. Distinguish between genotype and phenotype

hereditary
intrinsic
permanent

outward appearance
transient.

b. What is a mutation?

c. Distinguish (i) sporadic mutation.

(ii) specific induction of mutation.

(iii) non-specific " " "

and give (hypothetical) examples.

(d). What is the argument for the sporadic nature of phage-resistance mutation as given by:

1 Newcombe (Nature 1948)

2 Furia & Delbruck.

3 Ournet. (quoted in
and in lecture)

(e) Distinguish "mutation" and "mutant".

(f) Why is the number of mutants per culture a poor estimate of sporadic mutation rates? Mention a method of which avoids this difficulty.

because it is hard to get accurate values

(g) In what units are sporadic mutation rates expressed.

mutations/cell/division.
second.
billion cycles

use median instead of mean.
or use null test method.