

Report to International Lead Zinc Research Organization on
Project No. IH-94

STUDY OF THE BIOLOGICAL BASIS FOR LEAD INTOXICATION

August 1, 1969 to July 1, 1971

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Register, Report, and Note

3. Interpretation

Our previous summary for 1961-1962 reported on a number of preliminary "screening" investigations undertaken in order to discern suitable systems for exploring in detail the systems of interest. It had in the past, at that time, no particular two major systems appeared to be of particular interest. One of the systems of interest was a system of interest, and the other was a system of interest. These systems of interest were of interest to the system of interest, and the other was a system of interest.

1. *Journal of the American Medical Association*, 1997; 277: 1033-1036.

1. The first part of the report, "Introduction", discusses the importance of the study and the objectives of the research. It also provides a brief overview of the methodology used in the study.

Journal of Management Education 36(7) 809–824
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While these investigations have been our principal concern, we have also continued to explore other likely systems for intercepting the signals and messages of radio communication. These include the use of the following methods:

- 1. The use of the radio receiver to intercept signals and messages.
- 2. The use of the radio receiver to intercept signals and messages.
- 3. The use of the radio receiver to intercept signals and messages.
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- 6. The use of the radio receiver to intercept signals and messages.
- 7. The use of the radio receiver to intercept signals and messages.
- 8. The use of the radio receiver to intercept signals and messages.
- 9. The use of the radio receiver to intercept signals and messages.
- 10. The use of the radio receiver to intercept signals and messages.

10. The following is a list of the names of the persons who have been appointed to the various positions in the organization of the American Society of International Law:

1. The first step in the process of the investigation is the identification of the problem. This is done by the investigator who is responsible for the study. The investigator must first identify the problem and then determine the scope of the study. The next step is to design the study. This involves determining the methods to be used and the data to be collected. The third step is to collect the data. This is done by the investigator who is responsible for the study. The fourth step is to analyze the data. This is done by the investigator who is responsible for the study. The fifth step is to interpret the results. This is done by the investigator who is responsible for the study. The sixth step is to write the report. This is done by the investigator who is responsible for the study. The seventh step is to present the results. This is done by the investigator who is responsible for the study. The eighth step is to discuss the results. This is done by the investigator who is responsible for the study. The ninth step is to conclude the study. This is done by the investigator who is responsible for the study. The tenth step is to publish the results. This is done by the investigator who is responsible for the study.

from the kidneys of animals small enough in size to be convenient for experimental manipulation. Clearly, this would be an important consideration in view of anticipated investigations requiring dietary control, administration of precise quantities of various heavy metals, collection of excrement, etc. To this end, we first attempted to ascertain if it would be possible to isolate a protein having the characteristics of metallothionein from rabbit kidneys.

Homogenates of kidneys obtained from adult rabbits were chromatographed on columns of Sephadex G-50 (fine) in 0.02 M Tris-0.005 M Cl buffer, pH 8.6. The fractionation was followed by the absorbancy at both 210 and 280 m μ (metallothionein containing essentially no aromatic amino acid residues does not absorb, as do most proteins, at 280 m μ) and the radioactivity of each fraction was determined by means of atomic absorption spectroscopy. The results are shown in Figure 1. A shoulder of 259 m μ absorbing material is evident in the trailing edge of the major protein peak and coincides with a sharp cadmium peak. This pattern on Sephadex chromatography is precisely as would be anticipated for a small molecular weight protein such as metallothionein and coincides with the known behavior of this protein when isolated from other animal sources.

For further purification, the fractions containing fractions of the protein were rechromatographed on columns of DEAE-cellulose.

columns (Figure 2) with a gradient composed of 0.02 M Tris, 0.02 M NaCl to 0.1 M Tris-0.03 M Cl, pH 8.0. This procedure enabled us to confirm the chromatographic identity of this material with that of metallothionein from other sources. Preliminary experiments suggested that it might be feasible to similarly isolate metalliclothionein from lead-poisoned animals and ascertain if lead were bound to this protein *in vivo*.

III. Metallothionein can bind intracellular lead

In order to determine whether or not going from 10^{-10} to 10^{-11} M lead would cause a significant change in the distribution of ^{210}Pb in the body, we performed a series of experiments in which the amount of lead administered was reduced by a factor of 10. The results of these experiments are shown in Figure 3. The distribution of ^{210}Pb in the body was determined by measuring the activity of the lead in the various organs. The results show that the distribution of ^{210}Pb in the body was not significantly altered by the reduction in the amount of lead administered. This suggests that the binding of lead to metallothionein is not saturated at the 10^{-10} M level and that the binding of lead to metallothionein is not the only mechanism by which lead is bound in the body. The results also suggest that the binding of lead to metallothionein is not the only mechanism by which lead is bound in the body.

while the liver tissue is currently being preserved for isolation of RNA in an effort to explore the possibility of interaction of lead with RNA in vivo (vide infra).

The results of the isolation of metallothionein from kidneys of control animals correspond to those shown in Figures 1 and 2, confirming the results of our preliminary experiments. The cadmium and zinc contents of the two principal peaks resolved by IFAE chromatography (Figure 2) are shown in Table 1. The chromatographic results are characteristic of metallothionein from other species as observed in our laboratory, but the limited amount of material available after completion of the fractionation rendered precise metal analysis difficult.

Kidneys obtained from the lead-intoxicated rabbits were analyzed by the same methods. The results of the Sephadex and DEAE chromatography are shown in Figures 3 and 4 respectively. Metal analyses of the fractions resolved on IFAE are listed in Table 2. Notably, lead is found in direct association with the cadmium and zinc containing peaks both on Sephadex and DEAE chromatography. The lead concentration of lead present in the kidneys of the lead-intoxicated rabbits is shown in Table 3. The results of the lead analysis of the kidneys of the lead-intoxicated rabbits are shown in Table 3. The results of the lead analysis of the kidneys of the lead-intoxicated rabbits are shown in Table 3.

The distinct association of λ_{250} absorbing material, cadmium, and lead strongly suggested (Figure 3) that lead, like cadmium, is bound to metallothionein in rabbit kidneys. The results from MEAF chromatography are in accord with this conclusion (Figure 4) since the major quantity of lead-containing material is distributed in the fractions through which the two metallothionein peaks emerge from the column. Unfortunately, the rather large salt concentration in this area, coupled with the small amounts of material available at this stage of the isolation procedure, precluded accurate quantitative determinations of the metal contents and, hence, the results in Table II cannot be considered to be final. Thus, it was not possible to establish, as hoped, the precise effect on the metal content of metallothionein of lead introduction in the rabbit, largely due to the small size of the kidneys yielding insufficient amounts of material for characterization. There can be little doubt, however, of the association of lead with metallothionein in this material, and the experiment suggests that the rabbit will be a highly suitable experimental animal for (in vivo) studies of displacement by lead of "bound" metals bound to metallothionein and similar proteins. In the future, more extensive isolation experiments involving the use of metallothionein might be expected to reveal the relative affinities of various metals for metallothionein and, thus, the extent of metals. We intend to further pursue such studies during the coming year.

IV. Lead Intoxication in the Equine(Pony)

In order to obtain the desired quantitative estimates of the interrelationship of the various heavy metals with metallothionein in states of lead intoxication, as well as to have suitable quantities of material available for amino acid analysis, peptide mapping, and further characterization of lead metallothionein, we have recently carried out a chronic poisoning experiment in a larger animal---a pony. We were able to purchase this animal approximately five months ago, and in the intervening period, with the aid of the Harvard Veterinary Service, have administered to the animal slowly increasing quantities of lead acetate, by the oral route, up to a final total dose of 12 grams daily. Intravenous or intramuscular administration was precluded owing to the ready formation of thromboses and abscesses. Hence, initially, this material was given by stomach tube. It was subsequently found that, if thirsty, the pony would drink the material mixed with a quart of ordinary water, the taste apparently not being too unpleasant. Since no specific information on lead intoxication in this species was available, the doses had to be worked empirically. While the absorption of lead from the intestinal tract of this species is probably quite small, the large doses administered eventually enabled significant intoxication to be obtained. We had excellent success with our goal to poison the animal slowly, and induce anoxia, but at no time to render him critically ill.

poisoning was monitored by means of bi-monthly measurements of the lead concentration in whole blood, which were maintained in the range of approximately 80 to 160 μ g/l. and hematocrits, which ultimately fell to nearly half the normal values. During the final month of the experiment, the animal exhibited signs of lethargy and significant weight loss, although paralysis, convulsions, or signs of gastrointestinal dysfunction were never observed.

The animal was sacrificed on July 11, and samples of all major organs and tissues obtained at post-mortem examination were quickly frozen and are being preserved for future study. Additionally, we are carrying out the isolation procedure for metallothionein in the kidney tissue and this should enable us to obtain quantitative information concerning the interaction of lead with the protein and the relative displacements of other metals upon binding lead.

During the coming year we also plan to attempt a similar isolation for metallothionein from liver since the protein has been reported to be present in this tissue as well as kidney. The liver of the animal will also be used for isolation of metallothionein and we have these procedures in progress. We are also planning to carry out a study of the effect of lead on the synthesis of metallothionein in the kidney and perhaps to determine the effect of lead on the synthesis of metallothionein in the liver. This will be done by measuring the concentration of metallothionein in the kidney and liver of control animals and of animals treated with lead. The results of these studies will be reported in the near future.

whether or not lead might replace the native metal of certain metalloenzymes known to be present in liver tissue, e.g., liver alcohol dehydrogenase, a zinc containing enzyme. Preliminary evidence suggests that it may be possible to carry out such a displacement of zinc by lead in vitro and the availability of suitable quantities of tissue from the lead poisoned animal permits us to search for the in vivo counterpart.

Prostatic tissue is known to contain very high concentrations of zinc although the precise functional role of the metal in this organ is uncertain. Prostatic tissue also has a high affinity for calcium and is a site of injury in calcium intoxication in animals. We were able to secure the prostate from the lead intoxicated pony, and the concentrations of lead in this tissue will be ascertained and the possible displacement of normal zinc stores. Much of the analytical work of this nature to be undertaken during this next year will benefit from the availability of suitable spectrographic methods developed in this laboratory, permitting the simultaneous determination in biologic materials of a large number of elements quantitatively. It is proposed to conduct further studies in this species if this pilot experiment will prove it to have the desired characteristics as is hoped.

V. Effect of Lead on Growth and Metabolism of Rhodospirillum rubrum

We have indicated previously that the facultative anaerobe,

whether or not lead might replace the native metal of certain metalloenzymes known to be present in liver tissue, e.g., liver alcohol dehydrogenase, a zinc containing enzyme. Preliminary evidence suggests that it may be possible to carry out such a displacement of zinc by lead in vitro and the availability of suitable quantities of tissue from the lead poisoned animal permits us to search for the in vivo counterpart.

Prostatic tissue is known to contain very high concentrations of zinc although the precise functional role of the metal in this organ is uncertain. Prostatic tissue also has a high affinity for lead and is a site of injury in calcium intoxication in rats. We were able to secure the prostate from the lead intoxicated pig, and the concentrations of lead in this tissue will be ascertained and the possible displacement of normal zinc stores. Much of the analytical work of this nature to be undertaken during this next year will benefit from the availability of suitable spectrographic methods developed in this laboratory permitting the simultaneous determination in biologic materials of a large number of elements quantitatively. It is proposed to conduct further studies in this species if this pilot experiment will prove it to have the desired characteristics as is hoped.

V. Effect of Lead on Growth and Metabolism of *Phaenocarpa* *sp.*

We have indicated previously that the facultative anaerobe,

carbon sources and thiamine, nicotinic acid, and biotin provided as cofactors. Tungsten lamps were used as a source of both heat and light, and temperature during growth is maintained at approximately 30°. When several grams of organisms are required, growth is carried out in 2 liter Erlenmeyer flasks, while for screening procedures and other nutritional experiments it was found to be convenient to grow duplicate cultures of the organisms in 25 ml test tubes. Broths were inoculated from agar slants made up of the same media plus "wifco" protease peptone 2.5%. Growth was monitored by measurement of the optical density at both 430 and 490 mμ, the former reflecting the turbidity while the latter served as a guide to pigment production.

Typical growth curves obtained under these conditions are shown in Figure 2. The lag phase varied from 3 to 12 hours depending on the site of the inoculum, the rapid growth phase required 10 to 24 hours, and the cultures entered the stationary phase at 45 to 72 hours. Figure 3 also depicts the growth curves at two differing concentrations of iron. It indicates that at higher concentrations of iron, the culture follows the stationary phase more rapidly than at lower concentrations. It was found that iron 125 ppm was the optimum concentration for growth, and that above this concentration the growth rate decreased.

The growth of the organism on various carbon sources is shown in Figure 4. The organism is able to utilize a wide variety of carbon sources, and the growth rate is generally

occurs in the presence of 1 mg per liter each of thiamine and nicotinic acid and 10 µg per liter of biotin. Under the conditions employed for the present experiments an absolute requirement for each of these cofactors was confirmed although we obtained somewhat differing results for the optimal concentration for each of the cofactors. The growth of the organisms as a function of variation in cofactor concentration is shown in Figure 11. These results were obtained at an iron concentration of 10 µM/liter. However, the optimal cofactor concentration is somewhat dependent upon available iron (Figure 11); notably, growth at the highest cofactor concentrations is greater when iron in the media is increased to 100 µM/liter. These experiments provide a basis for the interpretation of the lead inhibition data presented in this paper.

Effect of Thiamine on Lead Inhibition of *Chlorella* Growth

The growth of *Chlorella* at three different concentrations of lead in the presence of thiamine concentrations ranging from 0.1 to 10 mg/liter is shown in Figure 12. The growth of *Chlorella* is inhibited by lead in the absence of thiamine, but the addition of thiamine to the media at concentrations of 0.1 mg/liter or greater results in a marked increase in growth. The growth of *Chlorella* is also increased by the addition of thiamine to the media at concentrations of 0.1 mg/liter or greater in the presence of lead.

b. Effect of Nicotinic Acid on Lead Inhibition of

Phodopanderonyx sphenoides

In a fashion identical to that employed for thiazine, the effect of nicotinic acid on the lead-induced inhibition of Pns. sphenoides was assessed as is shown in Fig. 14 and 15. No clear relationship is observed between the concentrations of nicotinic acid and the inhibition induced by lead. It would seem evident that lead also does not act by interfering directly by competing with this cofactor. The variable growth of the organism as a function of concentration of both nicotinic acid and iron was noted in Figure 11.

c. Effect of Biotin on Lead Inhibition of Phodopanderonyx

sphenoides

In a series of experiments similar to those described above, the possible relationships of biotin to the lead inhibition of Pns. sphenoides was examined. The results are presented in Figures 16 and 17. Concentrations of biotin ranging from 0.1 to 100 μ g/ml. had little or no effect on the lead-induced inhibition of growth. At a concentration of 100 μ g/ml. of biotin, a concentration of 100 μ g/ml. of lead was found to result in some inhibition of growth. The addition of lead at a further potentiality of the lead-induced inhibition of growth was synergistic inhibition was observed at low concentrations of lead.

but was overcome when iron concentrations were optimal. It seems not unlikely that high concentrations of biotin act to effectively remove iron from availability for metabolism and, thereby, both limit growth and potentiate the lead-induced inhibition.

This relationship was also further examined at still higher biotin concentrations (1000 micrograms per liter) and at iron concentrations from 0 to 10⁵ micrograms per liter (Figures 18 and 19). While there is some variation in the experimental data, it is clear again that the inhibition by biotin is more pronounced at lower iron concentrations. Thus, at the same figures, the inhibitory effects of high concentrations of biotin are enhanced in the presence of lead inhibition at high iron concentrations. Notably, with these very large excesses of cofactors and iron, lead inhibition is almost completely reversed. This effect is not due to the high concentration of cofactors alone, as is shown in Figures 20 and 21. Here, where no iron is added to the growth media, increasing cofactor concentrations up to 100 times normal either has no effect or, further enhances the inhibition induced by lead. While it appears that sufficient biotin concentrations may overcome the lead inhibition, the low growth rates under these conditions make the significance of this particular result highly doubtful.

High concentrations of the cofactors, thiamine, riboflavin, and biotin, were also tested at an intermediate iron

concentration, e.g., 10 micromoles/l (Figures 22 and 23). At this iron concentration, total growth is of course considerably improved over that at "no added iron"; while high concentrations of nicotinic acid are still inhibiting, they are less so than when iron is absent from the growth media.

Finally, the effects of cofactors on the lead-induced inhibition of *E. coli* were also studied in several multi-variable experiments, an example of which is shown in Figures 24 and 25. Again, the inhibition by lead was found to be relatively independent of cofactor concentration in the growth medium.

In summing up this series of experiments, it has been possible to show conclusively that the inhibition in growth

of *E. coli* by lead is not due to a direct toxic effect of lead ions on the cells, but is due to an indirect effect, possibly due to interference with an essential trace element.

Therefore, it is most desirable to explore the other iron requirements for growth of *E. coli* in order to ascertain if lead might act by interfering with an essential trace element. These experiments have led to observed the of particular interest in the following:

1. The effect of lead on the growth of *E. coli* in the presence of

2. The effect of lead on the growth of *E. coli* in the presence of

systems, this metal is known to activate a host of enzymatic reactions involving transferases, hydrolases, lyases, isomerases, and ligases, and manganese has already been shown to be an essential element in the biotin dependent pyruvate carboxylase of chicken and turkey and likely serves analogous roles in other metalloenzymes. Manganese has also been found to be firmly associated with ribonucleic acid isolated from diverse sources and, in RNA, the metal may serve as an important determinant of structure and it may also function in protein synthesis. Manganese ions have also been postulated to play a role in oxidative phosphorylation, metabolism of fatty acids, and in cholesterol synthesis. The effect of this metal on the growth of *Escherichia coli* was tested since it has been observed that under certain conditions manganese might alter growth rate. (1) (2) (3) (4) (5) (6) (7) (8) (9) (10) (11) (12) (13) (14) (15) (16) (17) (18) (19) (20) (21) (22) (23) (24) (25) (26) (27) (28) (29) (30) (31) (32) (33) (34) (35) (36) (37) (38) (39) (40) (41) (42) (43) (44) (45) (46) (47) (48) (49) (50) (51) (52) (53) (54) (55) (56) (57) (58) (59) (60) (61) (62) (63) (64) (65) (66) (67) (68) (69) (70) (71) (72) (73) (74) (75) (76) (77) (78) (79) (80) (81) (82) (83) (84) (85) (86) (87) (88) (89) (90) (91) (92) (93) (94) (95) (96) (97) (98) (99) (100)

The effect of manganese on the growth and the lead-induced inhibition of *Escherichia coli* in the presence of iron, or in the presence of 10 milliliters iron, is shown in Figures 16 and 17. In the control, without added manganese, lead significantly decreases growth either in the presence or absence of added iron, as noted before. Manganese partially inhibits growth of both iron-deficient and iron-sufficient cells. There appears to be no effect of manganese on the inhibition exerted by lead on the growth of iron-deficient cells, but the effect of manganese on the growth of iron-sufficient cells is more pronounced in the presence of lead than in the absence of lead.

pressure constant at 500, 540, and 580 mm (Jones and O'Brien, 1950; J. Biol. Chem. 190, 1955).

Under many of the experimental conditions employed for these experiments, lead caused a reduction in porphyrin synthesis resulting in the appearance of coproporphyrin III in the culture medium. In the absence of iron, lead does not appear to alter this phenomenon. However, in the presence of added iron, lead acts to enhance the effect of iron. The mechanism for these observations was then explored with the goal of identifying the site of action of lead on porphyrin synthesis within the cell.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The effect of lead on the synthesis of heme was studied in the presence of various concentrations of iron. As shown in Figure 1, lead caused a dose-dependent inhibition of heme synthesis in the presence of iron. The concentration of lead which caused 50% inhibition of heme synthesis was approximately 10⁻⁵ M. The effect of lead on heme synthesis was also studied in the presence of various concentrations of iron. As shown in Figure 2, lead caused a dose-dependent inhibition of heme synthesis in the presence of iron. The concentration of lead which caused 50% inhibition of heme synthesis was approximately 10⁻⁵ M. The effect of lead on heme synthesis was also studied in the presence of various concentrations of iron. As shown in Figure 3, lead caused a dose-dependent inhibition of heme synthesis in the presence of iron. The concentration of lead which caused 50% inhibition of heme synthesis was approximately 10⁻⁵ M.

could lead to accumulation of coproporphyrin III. On the other hand, manganese and lead might act to stimulate the production of precursors involved in steps prior to the synthesis of coproporphyrinogen and increase these precursors and coproporphyrin III beyond the capacity for further metabolism. A similar phenomenon could be observed if the metals acted to block the synthesis of a metabolite which ordinarily served as a precursor of early steps during the reaction. For example, it is known that heme acts as a feedback inhibitor for the first step in tetrapyrrole synthesis, the conversion of succinyl-CoA to delta-aminolevulinic acid.

We have extended this investigation by determining the effect of manganese and lead on total growth and on the synthesis of products of the synthesized scheme, particularly coproporphyrin III. There is the existence of a linear relationship between the amount of the products of the synthesis and the concentration of the metals. This relationship is shown in Figure 1.

The results of the interaction of growth of the bacteria and the synthesis of coproporphyrin III are shown in Figure 2.

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The results of the interaction of growth of the bacteria and the synthesis of coproporphyrin III are shown in Figure 4.

when variable pigment production might be expected to influence the absorbancy measurements. Determination of the dry weight of cells per unit volume of cultures provides such an index of total growth but is quite time-consuming. It was found possible to obtain extremely convenient estimates, however, by measurement of the packed cell volume after centrifugation of the cultures in Wintrobe tubes, quite analogous to the procedure employed for determination of blood hematocrits. The correlation of packed cell volumes, determined by this means, with the weight of cells after heating to dryness at 104° is shown in Figure 31. On this basis, each millimeter of packed cell volume (PCV) corresponds to 1.074 mg of salt-free dried cells. Subsequent measurements were referred to this index of growth for purposes of normalizing the data.

C. Effect of Combinations of Manganese and Lead on Growth of *Rhodospirillum rubrum*

The effect of manganese concentrations on the growth of *R. rubrum* at three different concentrations of iron is shown in Figure 32. At all concentrations of iron, the addition of as little as 0.1 mg of manganese leads to a significant stimulation of growth. Higher concentrations of manganese, up to 10 mg, which is not in the presence of iron but in the presence of sufficient iron to support growth, result in a further stimulation of growth.

arrangement of growth. These observations suggest, in fact, that it is manganese which is the growth-limiting factor for Str. subuloides in the presence of sufficient iron, while it is iron which becomes limiting in the presence of adequate manganese. Such a relationship has not, to our knowledge, been defined previously. While it remains to be determined if any other metal will substitute for manganese, to date we have found that copper, nickel, and zinc are not effective in this respect. The inhibition of growth by lead metal is apparently the same in all of the strains of *Str. subuloides* tested.

1. Effect of Temperature on Rate of Diffusion

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dependent site.

The effect of lead in these circumstances is shown in Figure 34. Conditions are as in Figure 33 other than the presence of 1×10^{-4} M Pb acetate. In general, it is apparent that lower concentrations of manganese are required to induce coproporphyrin III production if lead is present. Thus, in cultures grown in the presence of $10 \mu\text{M}$ of iron and 10 mg/l of manganese, coproporphyrin III production is minimal. However, if lead is present in this same culture, coproporphyrin production is increased nearly four times. Thus, lead and manganese exert coincident effects in inducing the heme biosynthetic pathway.

2. Effect of Manganese on Bacteriochlorophyll

The effect of manganese on production of bacteriochlorophyll at low, intermediate and high concentrations of iron is shown in Figure 35. Bacteriochlorophyll was determined in acetone extracts of centrifuged cells (Cohen-Blaustein, Nitro, and Staller, *J. Cell. Comp. Physiol.*, **49**, 1957). Despite the marked stimulation of growth induced by manganese (Figure 32) this resulted in a striking decrease in production of bacteriochlorophyll. Concentrations as low as 0.1 mg/l of manganese decreased bacteriochlorophyll production to 10% of that observed in the absence of manganese. Further increases in manganese concentration resulted in a proportionate reduction of bacteriochlorophyll production.

notably, the effect of iron in this regard appears rather minimal. Cultures grown in the presence of lead display an identical interference with bacteriochlorophyll production when manganese is added. Thus, it is suggested on the basis of these experiments that the increased excretion of coproporphyrin III into the media of *Por. spheroides*, when grown in the presence of manganese, can be attributed to a block by this element in the synthetic pathway between protoporphyrinogen and bacteriochlorophyll.

F. Effect of Manganese on Heme Production

The effect of manganese on heme production was determined under the same experimental conditions as those employed for growth of *Por. spheroides* in the presence of various concentrations. Total heme was measured spectrophotometrically by adding the difference in absorption of the oxidized and reduced forms of the alkaline pyridine methochromogens of whole cell extracts of the microorganism (Strobel and Fawcett, 1963; Fawcett, 1965). It was found that maximal activities of total heme were obtained with 10⁻⁵ M manganese in the media. This concentration was used for the other experiments, due to the fact that higher concentrations were inhibitory. Therefore, in order to better understand the interrelationship of the various elements, the effect of manganese on heme production was determined both in the presence and absence of lead.

of manganese and lead, and at two different iron concentrations. The results are shown in Table IV.

Either in the presence or absence of added iron, or added iron plus lead, total heme in the cultures was about .8 to .95 percent of cell volume. In the cultures without added iron, however, addition of manganese decreased total heme present by nearly 50%. Lead did not further enhance this inhibition in heme synthesis. Addition of iron alone had no effect on heme synthesis. However, addition of lead decreased total heme by more than 1/3. Thus, these results are in keeping with the observations on coproporphyrin production when iron is present, lead and manganese act synergistically. In the absence of iron, manganese alone is sufficient to exert a full effect.

Large amounts of these elements may also exert a direct effect on heme synthesis. Lead appears to interfere with tetrapyrrole synthesis in a manner which inhibits production of both heme and uroporphyrin. The report that lead leads to accumulation in the growth medium of coproporphyrin (1) is reminiscent of figure 10 which shows that lead inhibits the conversion of coproporphyrin to heme. However, the conversion of coproporphyrin to heme requires, or is dependent on, the presence of iron. A postulated inhibition of the conversion of coproporphyrin to heme, in the presence of iron, is in agreement with the observation that lead inhibits heme synthesis in the presence of iron.

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protein and enzymes is considerably smaller than for many other metals, e.g., Ag^+ , Hg^{2+} , or Cd^{2+} . Thus, lead is a relatively weak inhibitor of enzymes possessing a single thiol as the active site(sulfhydryl enzymes). Concentrations of lead required to inhibit such enzymes in vitro are usually of the order of 10^{-4} - $10^{-5}M$ and, therefore, far exceed the concentrations present in tissues and body fluids of lead-intoxicated animals. On this basis, it might be thought unlikely that lead would inhibit such enzymes in vivo.

Significantly, the ability of lead to bind to such systems is drastically altered when the metal forms a chelate structure. The mode of interaction with a metal ion is largely a function of the size of the chelate. Well-established relationships of chelate stability constants, K_{ch} , to the binding constant, K_b , of metal complexes with an octahedral chelating agent in aqueous solution, where K_b is the binding constant of the metal ion to the chelate, are given by the number of ligand groups bound to the metal ion, n , and the degree of dissociation, α , of the chelate. For example, for a bidentate chelate, $K_b = K_{ch} / (1 - \alpha)$. For a tridentate chelate, $K_b = K_{ch} / (1 - \alpha)^2$. For a tetradentate chelate, $K_b = K_{ch} / (1 - \alpha)^3$. For a pentadentate chelate, $K_b = K_{ch} / (1 - \alpha)^4$. For a hexadentate chelate, $K_b = K_{ch} / (1 - \alpha)^5$. For a heptadentate chelate, $K_b = K_{ch} / (1 - \alpha)^6$. For an octadentate chelate, $K_b = K_{ch} / (1 - \alpha)^7$. For a nonadentate chelate, $K_b = K_{ch} / (1 - \alpha)^8$. For a decadentate chelate, $K_b = K_{ch} / (1 - \alpha)^9$. For an undecadentate chelate, $K_b = K_{ch} / (1 - \alpha)^{10}$. For a dodecadentate chelate, $K_b = K_{ch} / (1 - \alpha)^{11}$. For a tridecadentate chelate, $K_b = K_{ch} / (1 - \alpha)^{12}$. For a tetradecadentate chelate, $K_b = K_{ch} / (1 - \alpha)^{13}$. For a pentadecadentate chelate, $K_b = K_{ch} / (1 - \alpha)^{14}$. For a hexadecadentate chelate, $K_b = K_{ch} / (1 - \alpha)^{15}$. For a heptadecadentate chelate, $K_b = K_{ch} / (1 - \alpha)^{16}$. For an octadecadentate chelate, $K_b = K_{ch} / (1 - \alpha)^{17}$. For a nonadecadentate chelate, $K_b = K_{ch} / (1 - \alpha)^{18}$. For a eiccadentate chelate, $K_b = K_{ch} / (1 - \alpha)^{19}$. For a triacontadentate chelate, $K_b = K_{ch} / (1 - \alpha)^{20}$. For a tetracontadentate chelate, $K_b = K_{ch} / (1 - \alpha)^{21}$. For a pentacontadentate chelate, $K_b = K_{ch} / (1 - \alpha)^{22}$. For a hexacontadentate chelate, $K_b = K_{ch} / (1 - \alpha)^{23}$. For a heptacontadentate chelate, $K_b = K_{ch} / (1 - \alpha)^{24}$. For an octacontadentate chelate, $K_b = K_{ch} / (1 - \alpha)^{25}$. For a nonacontadentate chelate, $K_b = K_{ch} / (1 - \alpha)^{26}$. For a triacontadentate chelate, $K_b = K_{ch} / (1 - \alpha)^{27}$. For a tetracontadentate chelate, $K_b = K_{ch} / (1 - \alpha)^{28}$. For a pentacontadentate chelate, $K_b = K_{ch} / (1 - \alpha)^{29}$. For a hexacontadentate chelate, $K_b = K_{ch} / (1 - \alpha)^{30}$. For a heptacontadentate chelate, $K_b = K_{ch} / (1 - \alpha)^{31}$. For an octacontadentate chelate, $K_b = K_{ch} / (1 - \alpha)^{32}$. For a nonacontadentate chelate, $K_b = K_{ch} / (1 - \alpha)^{33}$. For a triacontadentate chelate, $K_b = K_{ch} / (1 - \alpha)^{34}$. For a tetracontadentate chelate, $K_b = K_{ch} / (1 - \alpha)^{35}$. For a pentacontadentate chelate, $K_b = K_{ch} / (1 - \alpha)^{36}$. For a hexacontadentate chelate, $K_b = K_{ch} / (1 - \alpha)^{37}$. For a heptacontadentate chelate, $K_b = K_{ch} / (1 - \alpha)^{38}$. For an octacontadentate chelate, $K_b = K_{ch} / (1 - \alpha)^{39}$. For a nonacontadentate chelate, $K_b = K_{ch} / (1 - \alpha)^{40}$. For a triacontadentate chelate, $K_b = K_{ch} / (1 - \alpha)^{41}$. For a tetracontadentate chelate, $K_b = K_{ch} / (1 - \alpha)^{42}$. For a pentacontadentate chelate, $K_b = K_{ch} / (1 - \alpha)^{43}$. For a hexacontadentate chelate, $K_b = K_{ch} / (1 - \alpha)^{44}$. For a heptacontadentate chelate, $K_b = K_{ch} / (1 - \alpha)^{45}$. For an octacontadentate chelate, $K_b = K_{ch} / (1 - \alpha)^{46}$. For a nonacontadentate chelate, $K_b = K_{ch} / (1 - \alpha)^{47}$. For a triacontadentate chelate, $K_b = K_{ch} / (1 - \alpha)^{48}$. For a tetracontadentate chelate, $K_b = K_{ch} / (1 - \alpha)^{49}$. For a pentacontadentate chelate, $K_b = K_{ch} / (1 - \alpha)^{50}$. For a hexacontadentate chelate, $K_b = K_{ch} / (1 - \alpha)^{51}$. For a heptacontadentate chelate, $K_b = K_{ch} / (1 - \alpha)^{52}$. For an octacontadentate chelate, $K_b = K_{ch} / (1 - \alpha)^{53}$. For a nonacontadentate chelate, $K_b = K_{ch} / (1 - \alpha)^{54}$. For a triacontadentate chelate, $K_b = K_{ch} / (1 - \alpha)^{55}$. For a tetracontadentate chelate, $K_b = K_{ch} / (1 - \alpha)^{56}$. For a pentacontadentate chelate, $K_b = K_{ch} / (1 - \alpha)^{57}$. For a hexacontadentate chelate, $K_b = K_{ch} / (1 - \alpha)^{58}$. For a heptacontadentate chelate, $K_b = K_{ch} / (1 - \alpha)^{59}$. For an octacontadentate chelate, $K_b = K_{ch} / (1 - \alpha)^{60}$. For a nonacontadentate chelate, $K_b = K_{ch} / (1 - \alpha)^{61}$. For a triacontadentate chelate, $K_b = K_{ch} / (1 - \alpha)^{62}$. For a tetracontadentate chelate, $K_b = K_{ch} / (1 - \alpha)^{63}$. For a pentacontadentate chelate, $K_b = K_{ch} / (1 - \alpha)^{64}$. For a hexacontadentate chelate, $K_b = K_{ch} / (1 - \alpha)^{65}$. For a heptacontadentate chelate, $K_b = K_{ch} / (1 - \alpha)^{66}$. For an octacontadentate chelate, $K_b = K_{ch} / (1 - \alpha)^{67}$. For a nonacontadentate chelate, $K_b = K_{ch} / (1 - \alpha)^{68}$. For a triacontadentate chelate, $K_b = K_{ch} / (1 - \alpha)^{69}$. For a tetracontadentate chelate, $K_b = K_{ch} / (1 - \alpha)^{70}$. For a pentacontadentate chelate, $K_b = K_{ch} / (1 - \alpha)^{71}$. For a hexacontadentate chelate, $K_b = K_{ch} / (1 - \alpha)^{72}$. For a heptacontadentate chelate, $K_b = K_{ch} / (1 - \alpha)^{73}$. For an octacontadentate chelate, $K_b = K_{ch} / (1 - \alpha)^{74}$. For a nonacontadentate chelate, $K_b = K_{ch} / (1 - \alpha)^{75}$. For a triacontadentate chelate, $K_b = K_{ch} / (1 - \alpha)^{76}$. For a tetracontadentate chelate, $K_b = K_{ch} / (1 - \alpha)^{77}$. For a pentacontadentate chelate, $K_b = K_{ch} / (1 - \alpha)^{78}$. For a hexacontadentate chelate, $K_b = K_{ch} / (1 - \alpha)^{79}$. For a heptacontadentate chelate, $K_b = K_{ch} / (1 - \alpha)^{80}$. For an octacontadentate chelate, $K_b = K_{ch} / (1 - \alpha)^{81}$. For a nonacontadentate chelate, $K_b = K_{ch} / (1 - \alpha)^{82}$. For a triacontadentate chelate, $K_b = K_{ch} / (1 - \alpha)^{83}$. For a tetracontadentate chelate, $K_b = K_{ch} / (1 - \alpha)^{84}$. For a pentacontadentate chelate, $K_b = K_{ch} / (1 - \alpha)^{85}$. For a hexacontadentate chelate, $K_b = K_{ch} / (1 - \alpha)^{86}$. For a heptacontadentate chelate, $K_b = K_{ch} / (1 - \alpha)^{87}$. For an octacontadentate chelate, $K_b = K_{ch} / (1 - \alpha)^{88}$. For a nonacontadentate chelate, $K_b = K_{ch} / (1 - \alpha)^{89}$. For a triacontadentate chelate, $K_b = K_{ch} / (1 - \alpha)^{90}$. For a tetracontadentate chelate, $K_b = K_{ch} / (1 - \alpha)^{91}$. For a pentacontadentate chelate, $K_b = K_{ch} / (1 - \alpha)^{92}$. For a hexacontadentate chelate, $K_b = K_{ch} / (1 - \alpha)^{93}$. For a heptacontadentate chelate, $K_b = K_{ch} / (1 - \alpha)^{94}$. For an octacontadentate chelate, $K_b = K_{ch} / (1 - \alpha)^{95}$. For a nonacontadentate chelate, $K_b = K_{ch} / (1 - \alpha)^{96}$. For a triacontadentate chelate, $K_b = K_{ch} / (1 - \alpha)^{97}$. For a tetracontadentate chelate, $K_b = K_{ch} / (1 - \alpha)^{98}$. For a pentacontadentate chelate, $K_b = K_{ch} / (1 - \alpha)^{99}$. For a hexacontadentate chelate, $K_b = K_{ch} / (1 - \alpha)^{100}$.

From such considerations it could be predicted that the two corresponding pairs that are third group at their catalytic site, in proper spacing, should also be much more sensitive to inhibition by lead than ordinary odd/evenpairs.

The α -hydroxyacid is a radiative E1D dependent
 reaction, at least which is part of the primary decomposition
 and is irreversible. The α -hydroxyacid is a radiative E1D dependent

at the same time, since it is thought to be rather difficult to reduce the amount of the dithiol group of the enzyme, the dithiol group of the enzyme is thought to be oxidized by lipole acid to the disulfide form and, consequently, reduced by IPHL. Hence, interaction of the dithiol group with a metal, such as lead, should interfere with the catalytic cycle and abolish enzymatic activity. To test this hypothesis we have examined the interaction of lead with this enzyme and the effect of lead on the reduction of lipole acid.

[illegible]

is observed, indicated by the loss of 50% of the initial activity in the presence of $6.1 \times 10^{-6} M Pb^{2+}$ (solid line). The inhibition appears to be time-dependent, becoming more linear after the course of the assay. Thus when the rates of oxidation of DPH are measured 4 minutes after initiation of the reaction (broken line) the point of 50% of inhibition is shifted towards a Pb^{2+} concentration of $5 \times 10^{-6} M$. From this and related observations, it appears that DPH does not reach equilibrium within the period of these particular observations. It is very likely that the new equilibrium of

the system is reached after a longer period of time. The results obtained in the present work are in good agreement with those reported by other workers. The inhibition of DPH oxidation by Pb^{2+} has been reported by several authors. The results obtained in the present work are in good agreement with those reported by other workers. The inhibition of DPH oxidation by Pb^{2+} has been reported by several authors. The results obtained in the present work are in good agreement with those reported by other workers.

is added after $\text{DPN}(\text{DPN}^+)$ and lipate, only 20% inhibition was observed at the same concentration of lead producing 50% inhibition when the order of addition of reactants was reversed. Consequently, the inhibition curve is shifted toward higher lead concentrations, denoting an apparent "lower affinity" of lead for the enzyme. Thus, these results demonstrate partial protection by substrates and coenzymes against inactivation of the enzyme by lead.

The effect of coenzymes and substrates on the reversibility of the lead inhibition by EDTA provides additional evidence that, indeed, lead binds at the active site of lipase. As reported above, the inhibition of lipase by lead is reversible and is completely reversed by the addition of EDTA. However, when the enzyme is added after the substrate and coenzyme, the inhibition is not completely reversed. This is due to the fact that the enzyme is partially inactivated by lead before the addition of the substrate and coenzyme. When the enzyme is added after the substrate and coenzyme, the inhibition is not completely reversed. This is due to the fact that the enzyme is partially inactivated by lead before the addition of the substrate and coenzyme. When the enzyme is added after the substrate and coenzyme, the inhibition is not completely reversed. This is due to the fact that the enzyme is partially inactivated by lead before the addition of the substrate and coenzyme.

Significantly, a very analogous inhibition is also observed with cadmium, long known as a potent inhibitor of liponate dehydrogenase. Owing to its greater affinity for this ligand, cadmium is an even stronger inhibitor than lead. As in the case of lead, inhibition by cadmium is not reversed when NEDTA is added after the inactive Cd-liponate dehydrogenase has formed a complex with coenzyme and substrate (table 1).

A direct comparison of the complexes of lead and cadmium with liponate coenzyme shows that characteristic absorption spectra are consistent with binding to sulfur and nitrogen donor atoms. The lead complex shows a strong band near 220 mμ and a weak band near 240 mμ, while the cadmium complex shows a strong band near 220 mμ and a weak band near 240 mμ.

When the complexes of lead and cadmium with liponate coenzyme are compared with the complexes of lead and cadmium with other ligands, it is found that the lead complex with liponate coenzyme is more stable than the lead complex with other ligands. This is also true for the cadmium complex. The stability of the complexes is also related to the nature of the ligand. The more complex the ligand, the more stable the complex.

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renders the absorption spectrum of bound FAD more similar to that of free FAD, suggesting that it interferes with the strong association of FAD with the protein. This is consistent with the suggestion that FAD interacts with the dithiol group during certain steps of catalysis (Warner, *The Enzymes*, Vol. 7, p. 174).

The physico-chemical properties of liponamide dehydrogenase and its interaction with lead will be further explored during the coming year, and we intend to investigate the possibility that this enzyme also is sensitive to inhibition by lead in *vivo*. These studies serve as a guide for the examination of other, analogous metabolic systems which are suspected to have similar interactions.

Table I

METAL CONTENT OF METALLOTHIONEIN FROM NORMAL RABBIT KIDNEYS

DEAE Chromatography	Cadmium <u>μg/mg protein</u>	Zinc <u>μg/mg protein</u>
Peak I	230	560
Peak II	590	1360

Reference: BRL 213-16

Table II

METAL CONTENT OF METALLOTHIONEIN FROM LEAD-POISONED RABBIT KIDNEYS

<u>DEAE Chromatography</u>	<u>Cadmium</u> ug/g protein	<u>Zinc</u> ug/g protein	<u>Lead</u> ug/g protein
Peak I	88	206	1005
Peak II	375	1703	151

reference S.L. 173-36

Table III

MEDIUM FOR CULTURE OF RHODOPSEUDOMONAS SPHEROIDES

Sodium-L-glutamate monohydrate	3.8 g
DL-malic acid	2.7 g
KH_2PO_4	500.0 mg
K_2HPO_4	500.0 mg
$(\text{NH}_4)_2\text{HPO}_4$	800.0 mg
$\text{MgSO}_4 \cdot 7\text{H}_2\text{O}$	200.0 mg
CaCl_2	40.0 mg
Nicotinic acid	1.0 mg
Thiamine-HCl	1.0 mg
Biotin	10.0 μg

Distilled water to 1 liter

ph is adjusted to 6.9 with 1 N NaOH before
autoclaving for 10 minutes at 10 lbs/sq in.

Reference: Lascelles, Blochen. J. 62, 78, 1956.

Table IV

EFFECT OF MANGANESE ON IRON DEFICIENCY IN *Eleusine indica* GENECODES

Iron mg/100g	Manganese mg/100g	Leaf 1 x 10 ⁻⁴ M	Total Hb g/PCV
0	0	0	0.77
0	0	•	0.84
0	1	0	0.18
0	1	•	0.16
1	0	0	0.14
1	0	•	0.15
1	1	0	0.09
1	1	•	0.63

LIA 12265

Table V

REACTIVATION OF LEAD AND CADMIUM COMPLEXES OF
LIPOAMIDE DEHYDROGENASE (LAD) WITH EDTA

Reference: SRL (269-263; 269-275)

EDTA, M	Order of Addition of EDTA	ACTIVITY % ¹		
		LAD(control)	Pb-LAD ²	Cd-LAD ³
--	--	93	3	3
3.4×10^{-5}	after coenzymes and substrate	100	2	3
5.4×10^{-5}	before coenzymes and substrate	100	100	94

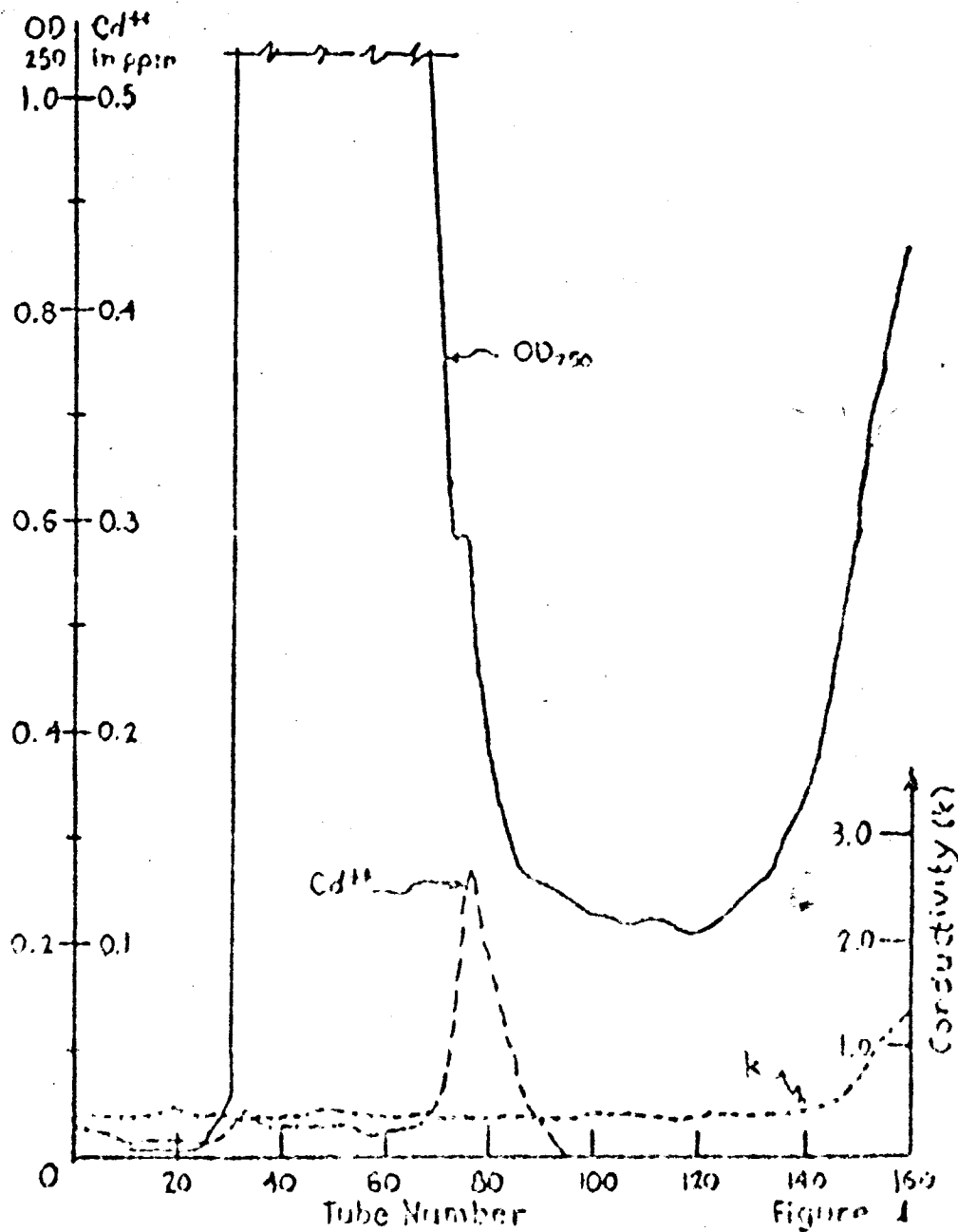
1. Assay: LAD or LAD-metal complex, 1.05×10^{-6} M; LHM, 1.1×10^{-4} M; IPMB, 1.1×10^{-4} M; Lipate, 5.1×10^{-4} M; TRIS-Cl, 0.1M, pH 7; Na₂EDTA as indicated.

2. Pb-LAD prepared by incubating 10^{-6} M LAD with 2×10^{-4} M Pb²⁺ in 0.5 M Tris-chloride, pH 7.

3. Cd-LAD prepared by incubating 10^{-6} M LAD with 2×10^{-4} M Cd²⁺ in 0.5M Tris-chloride, pH 7.

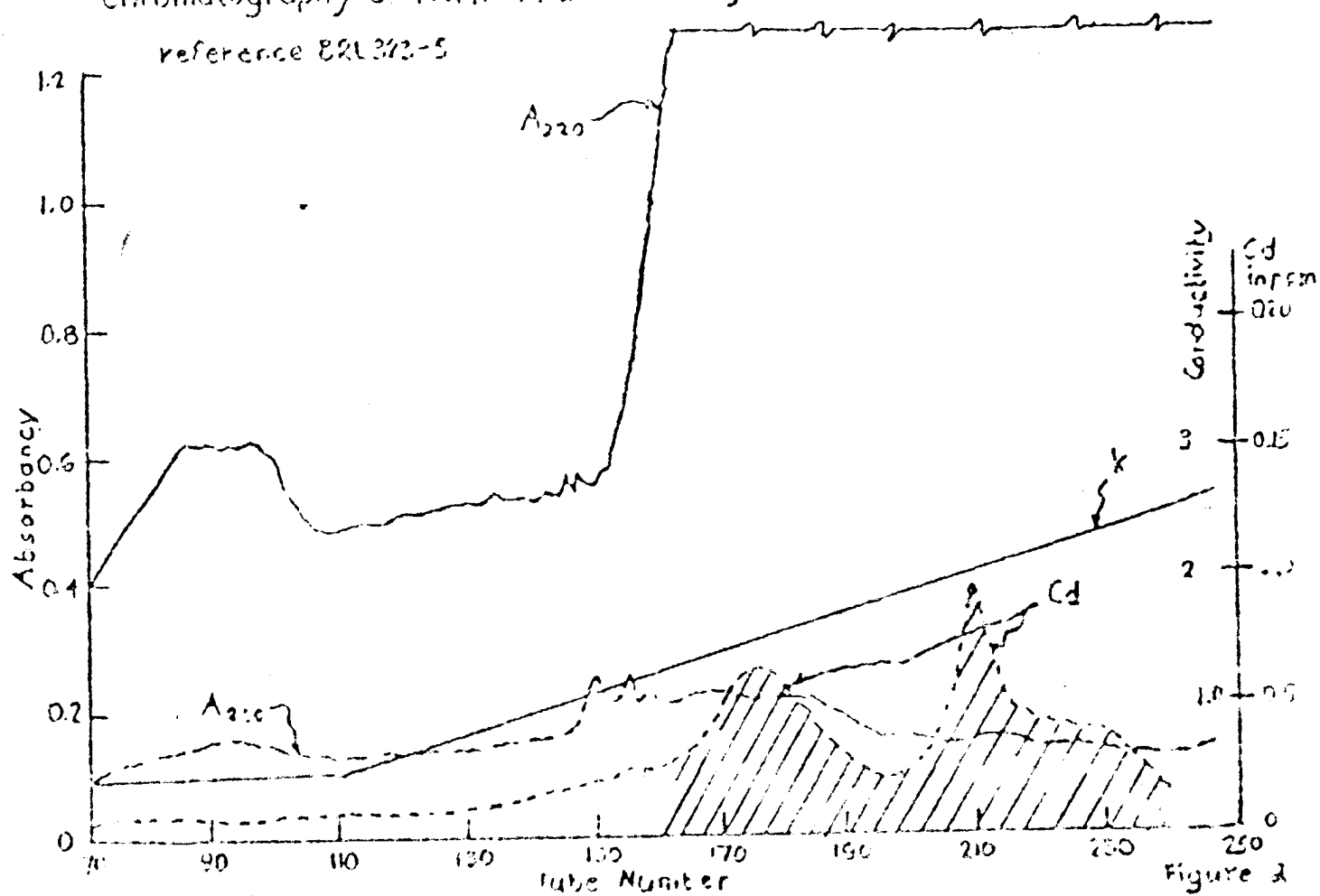
Sephadex Chromatography - Abnormal Rabbit Kidney:

reference BRL 323-4



Chromatography of Normal Rabbit Kidney DEAE Column.

reference BRL 373-5



Sephadex Chromatography

Lead Poisoned Rabbit Kidneys

reference BRL-323-4

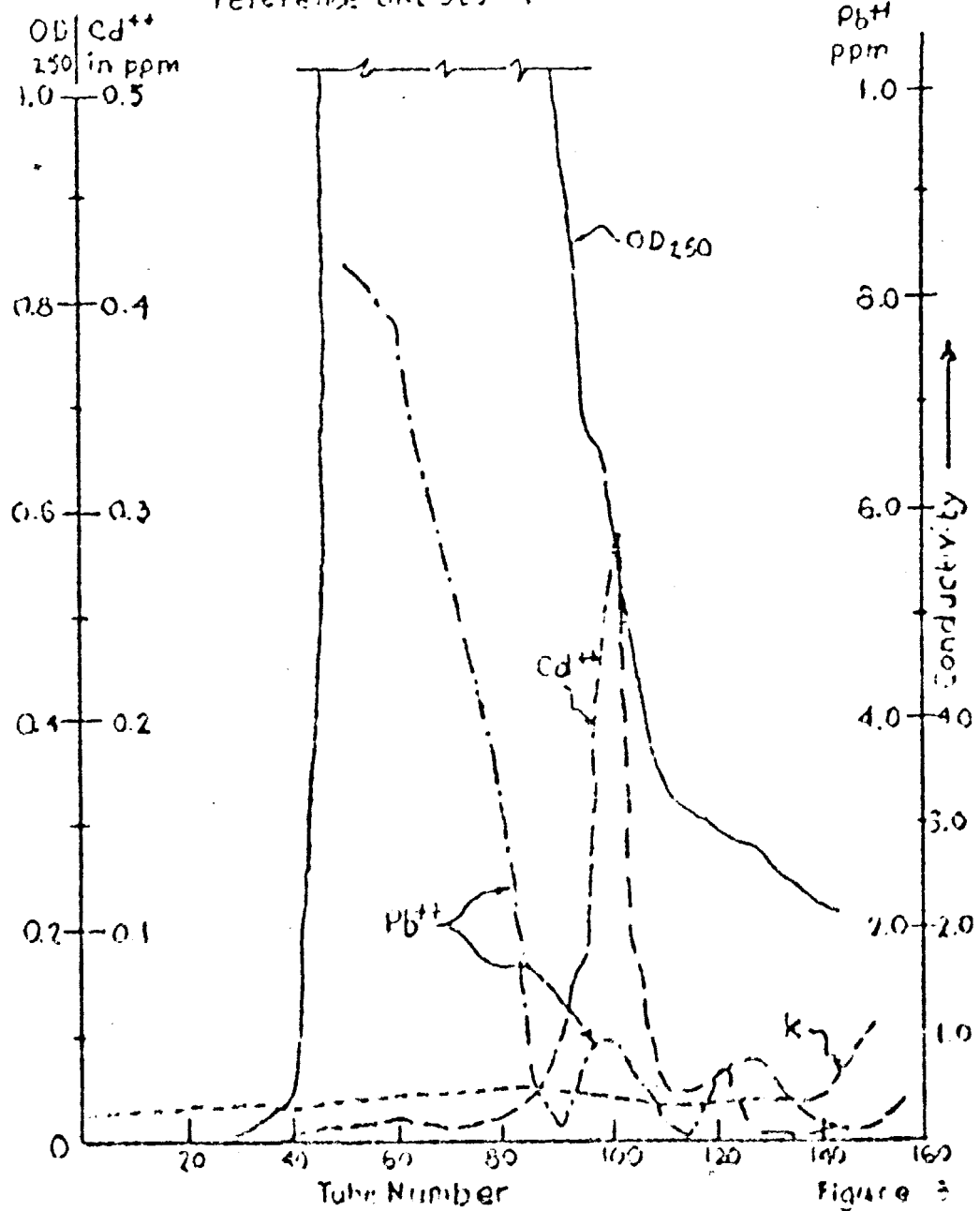
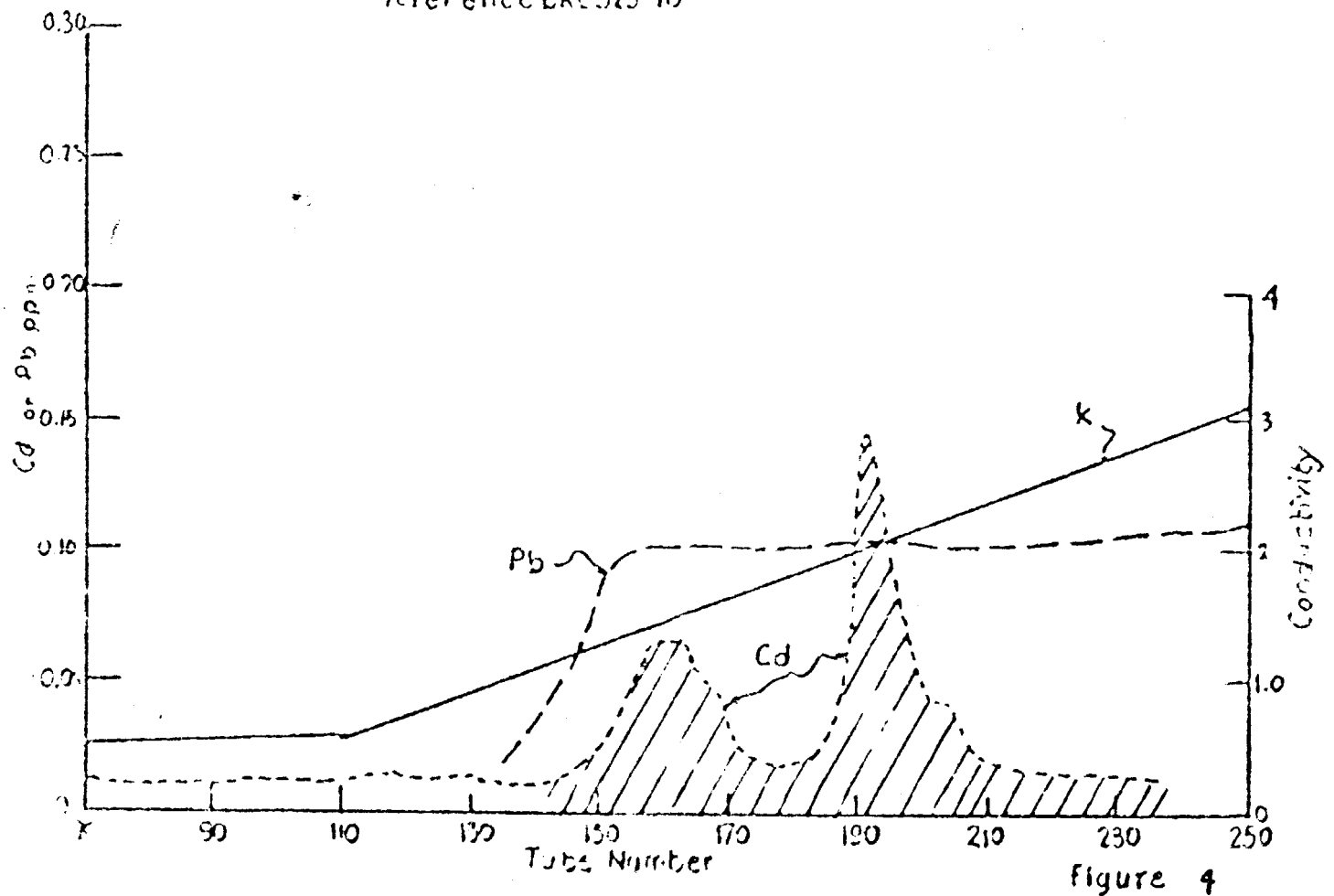


Figure 3

Chromatography of Kidneys from Lead Poisoned Rats - DEAE Column
reference BRL 323-10



GROWTH CURVES FOR *Rps sphaeroides* (standard conditions)
reference BRL-323-24

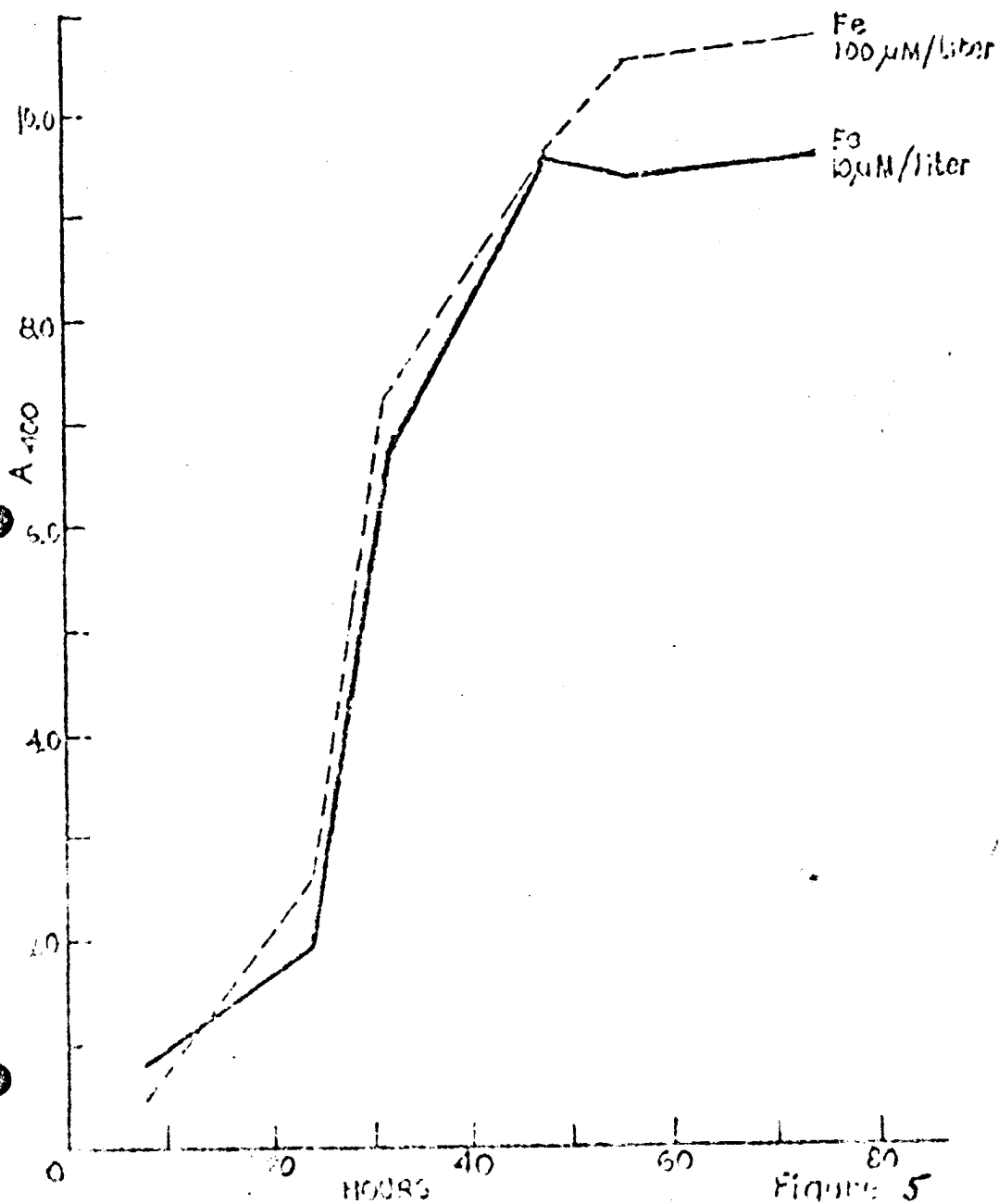


Figure 5

EFFECT OF IRON ON GROWTH OF Rps spheroides

reference BRL 323-34

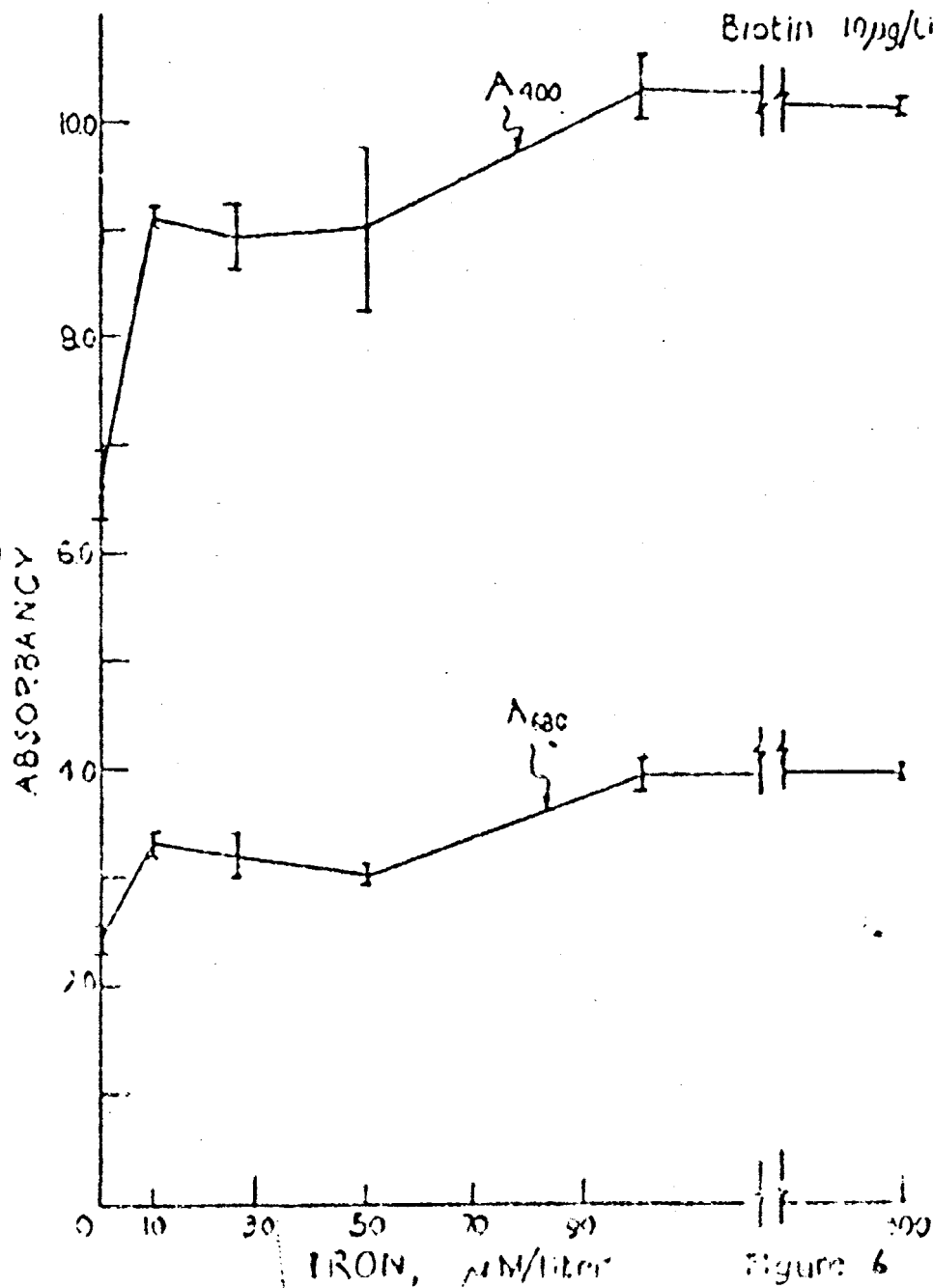
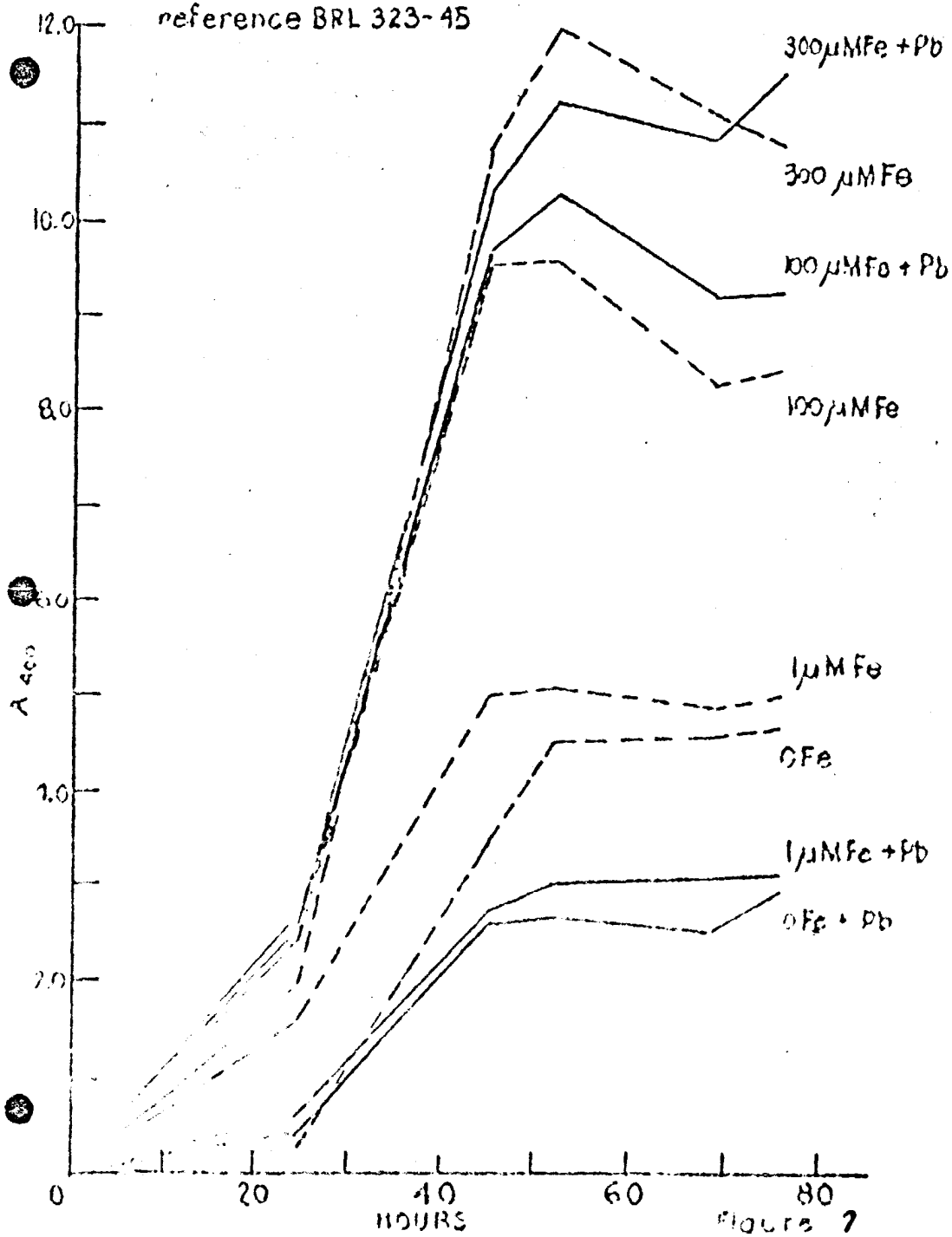
Thiamin } 1mg/Liter
Nicotinic Acid }
Biotin 10 μ g/Liter

Figure 6

GROWTH CURVES FOR *Rps* spheroides (effect of Δ IRON + LEAD
reference BRL 323-45



GROWTH OF *Rps* SPHEROIDESEffect of Iron Concentration in Presence and
Absence of 1×10^{-4} M Lead Acetate

reference BRL-342-40B

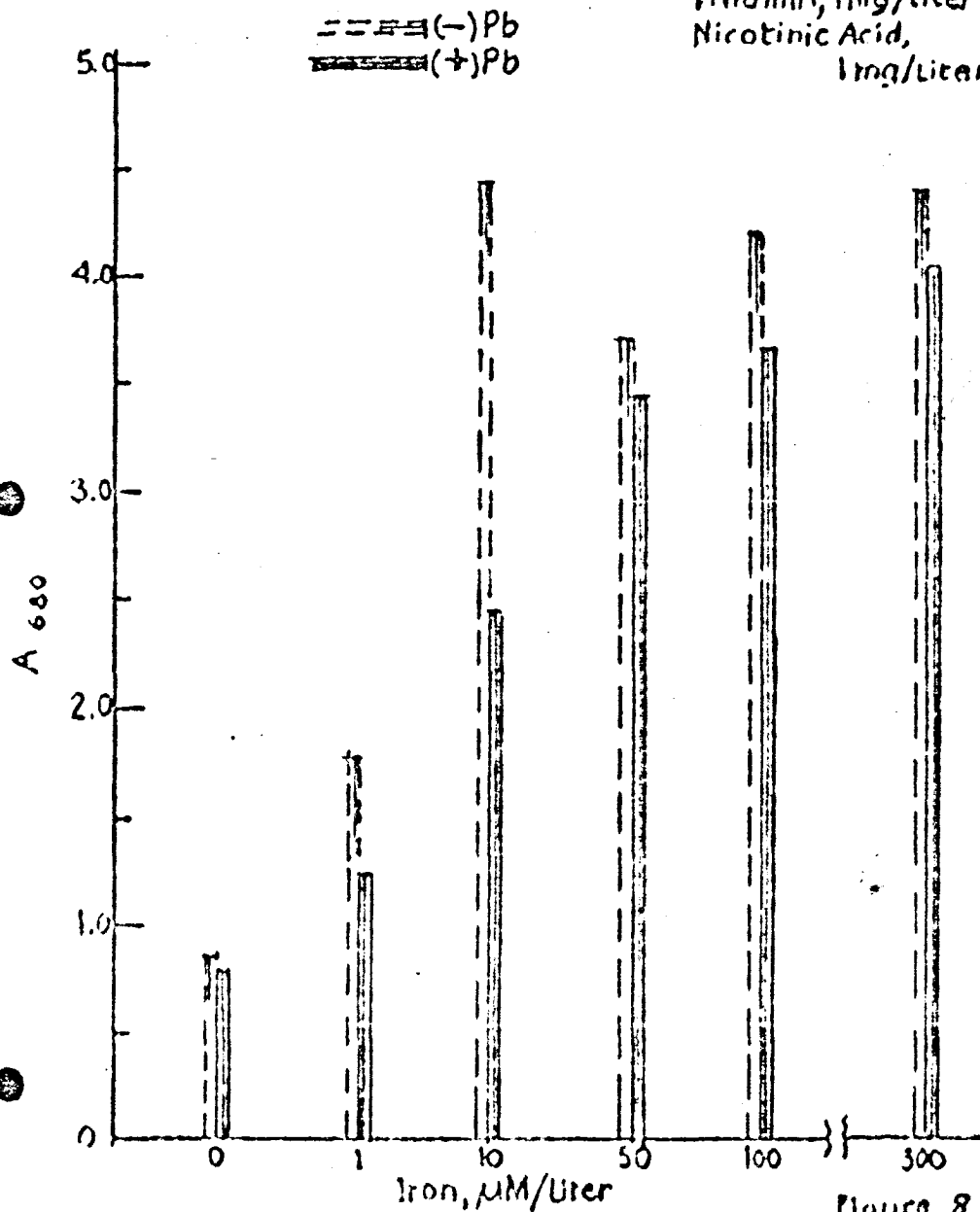
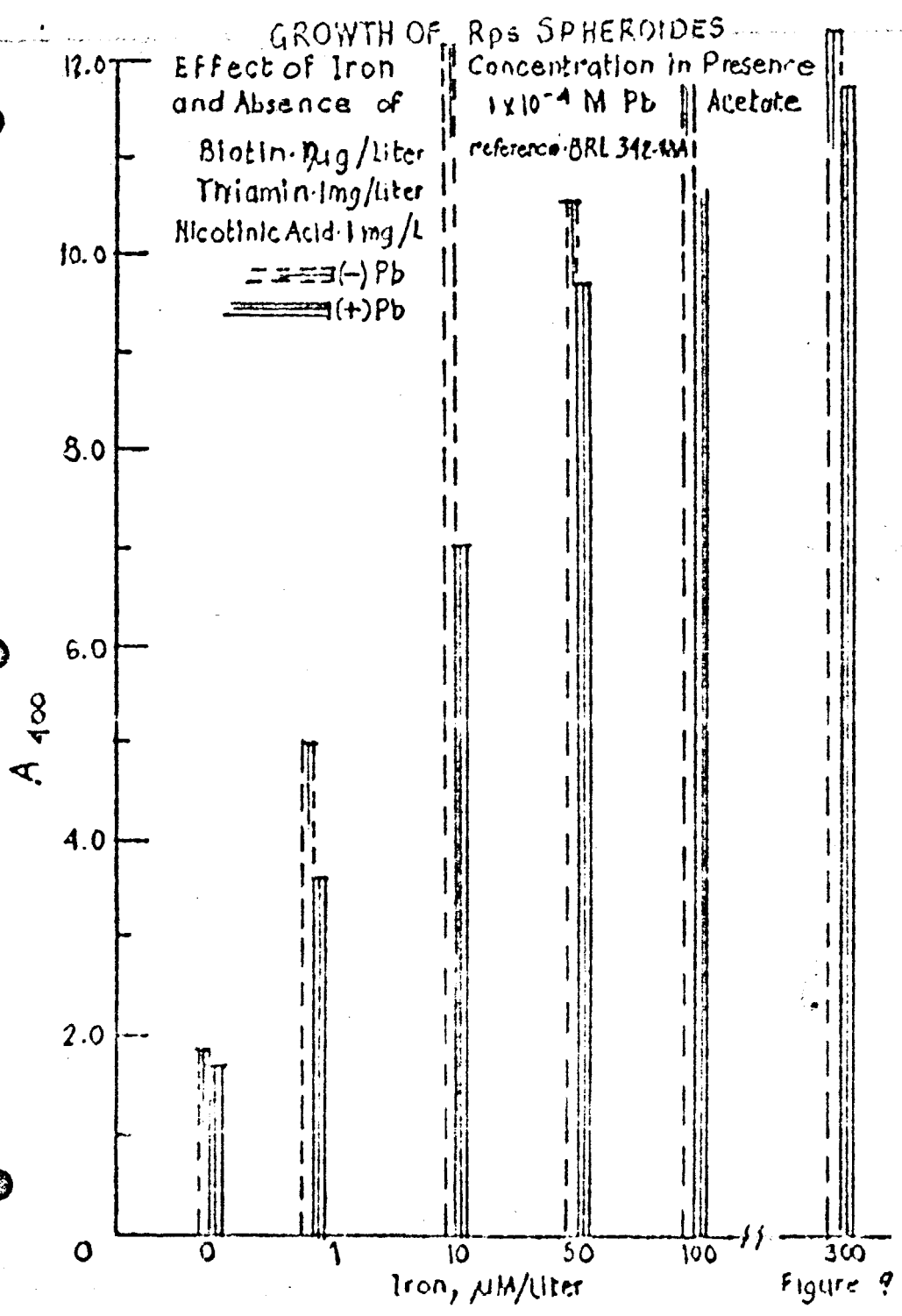
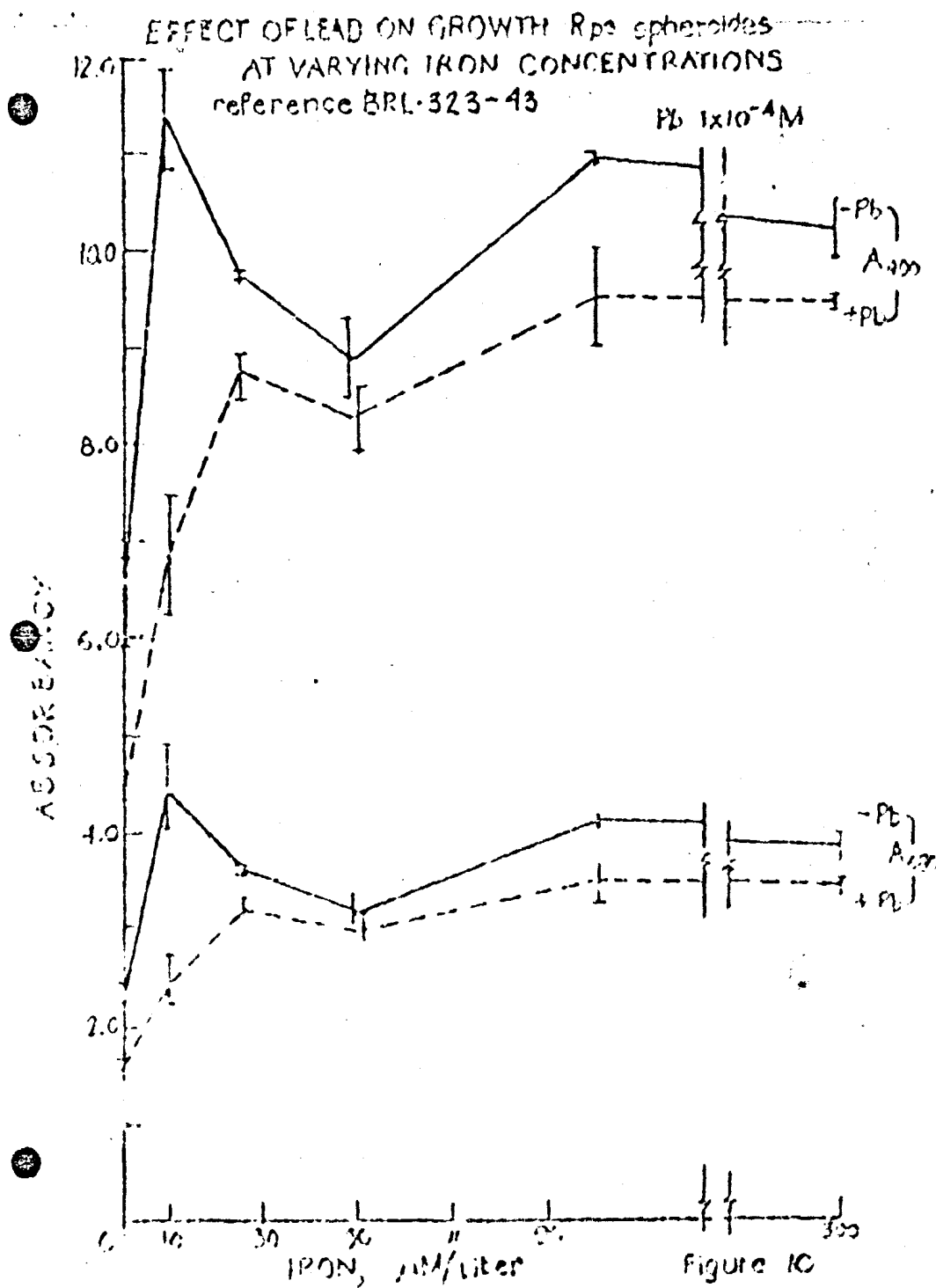
Biotin, $\mu\text{g/liter}$
Thiamin, 1mg/liter
Nicotinic Acid,
 1mg/liter 

Figure 8





GROWTH OF Rps SPHEROIDES
Effect of Cofactors on Growth
reference BRL-323-34 CDE

Fe = 10 μ M/Liter

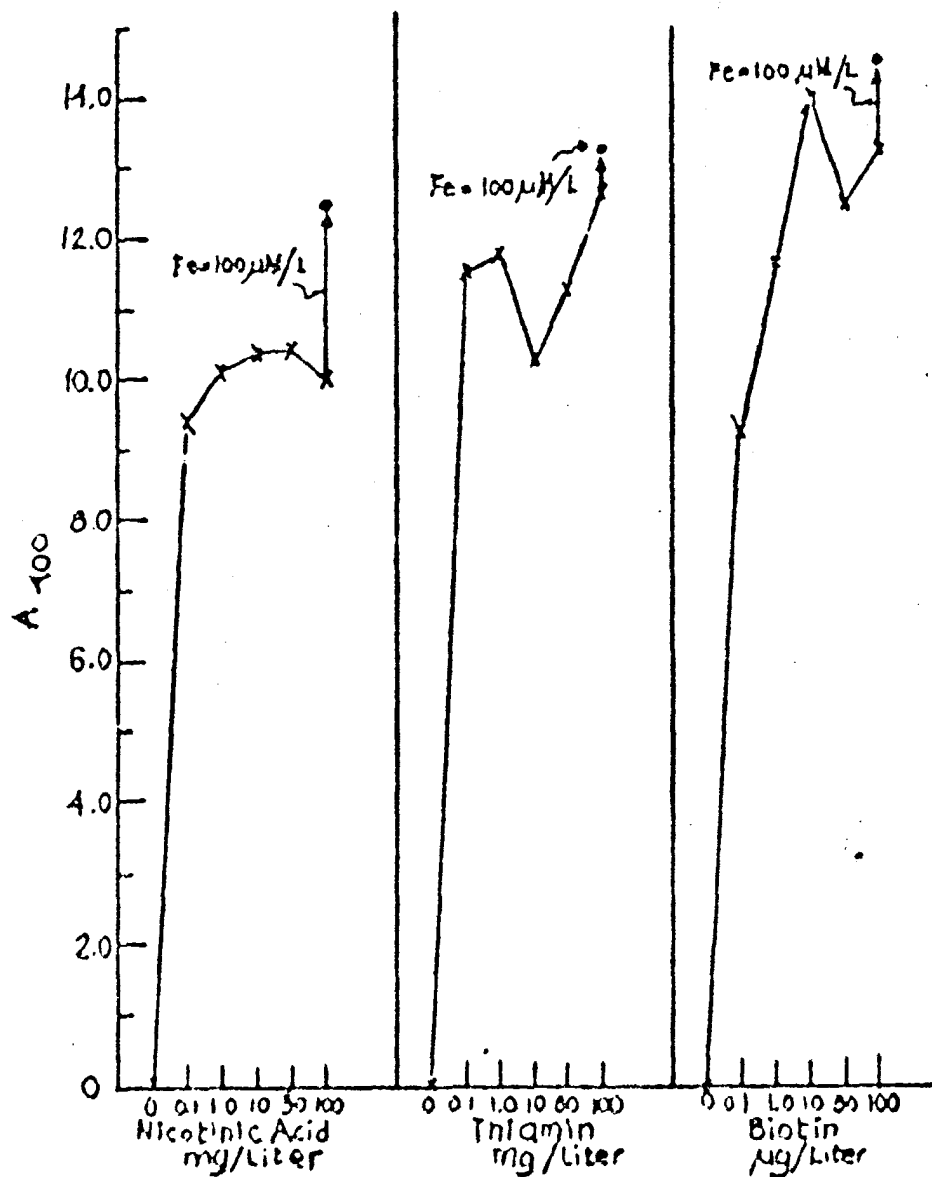
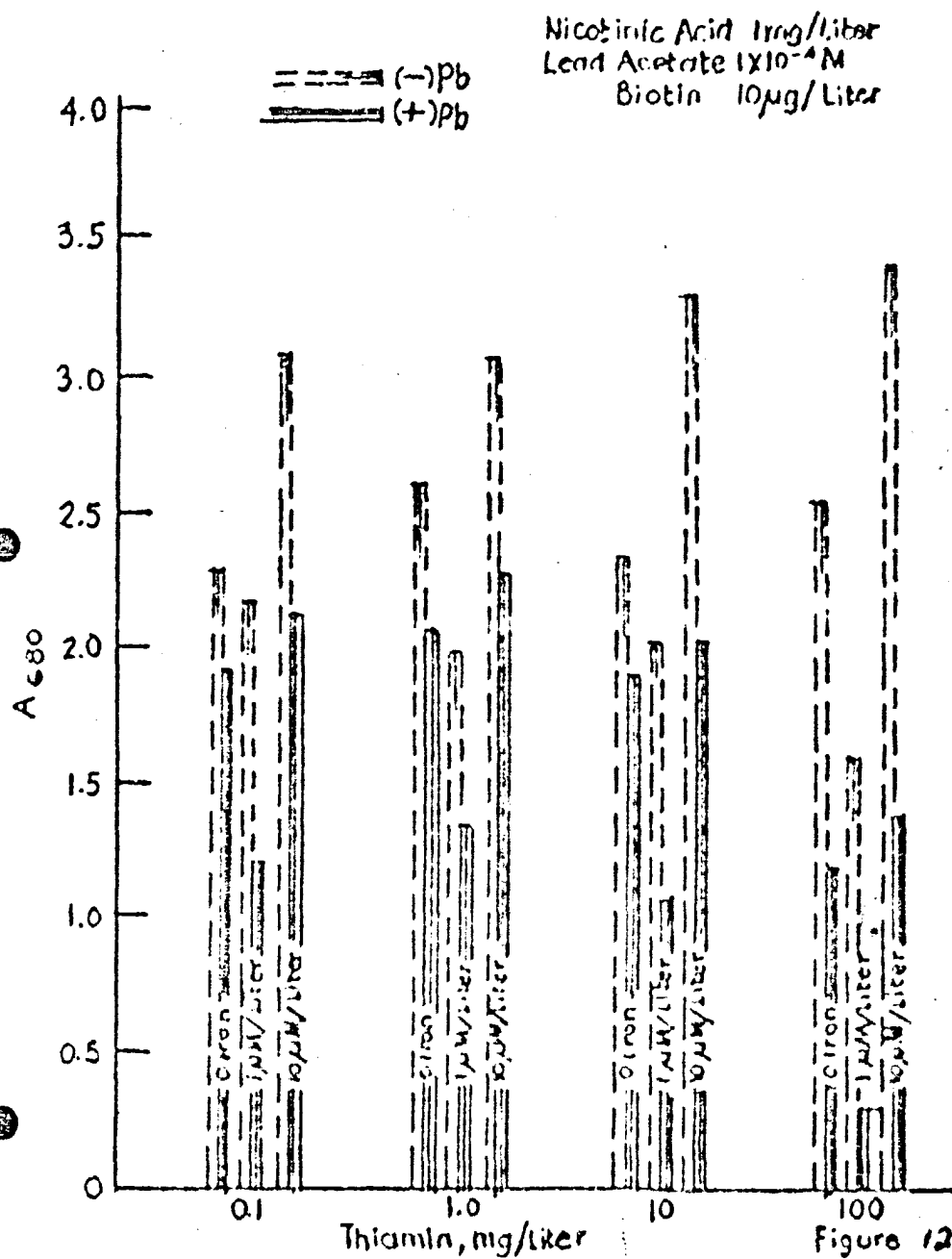


Figure 11

GROWTH OF Rps SPHEROIDES

Effect of Δ Iron vs. Δ Thiamin in Presence and Absence of Lead
reference GRL 323-40 D.F.



GROWTH OF Rps SPHEROICES

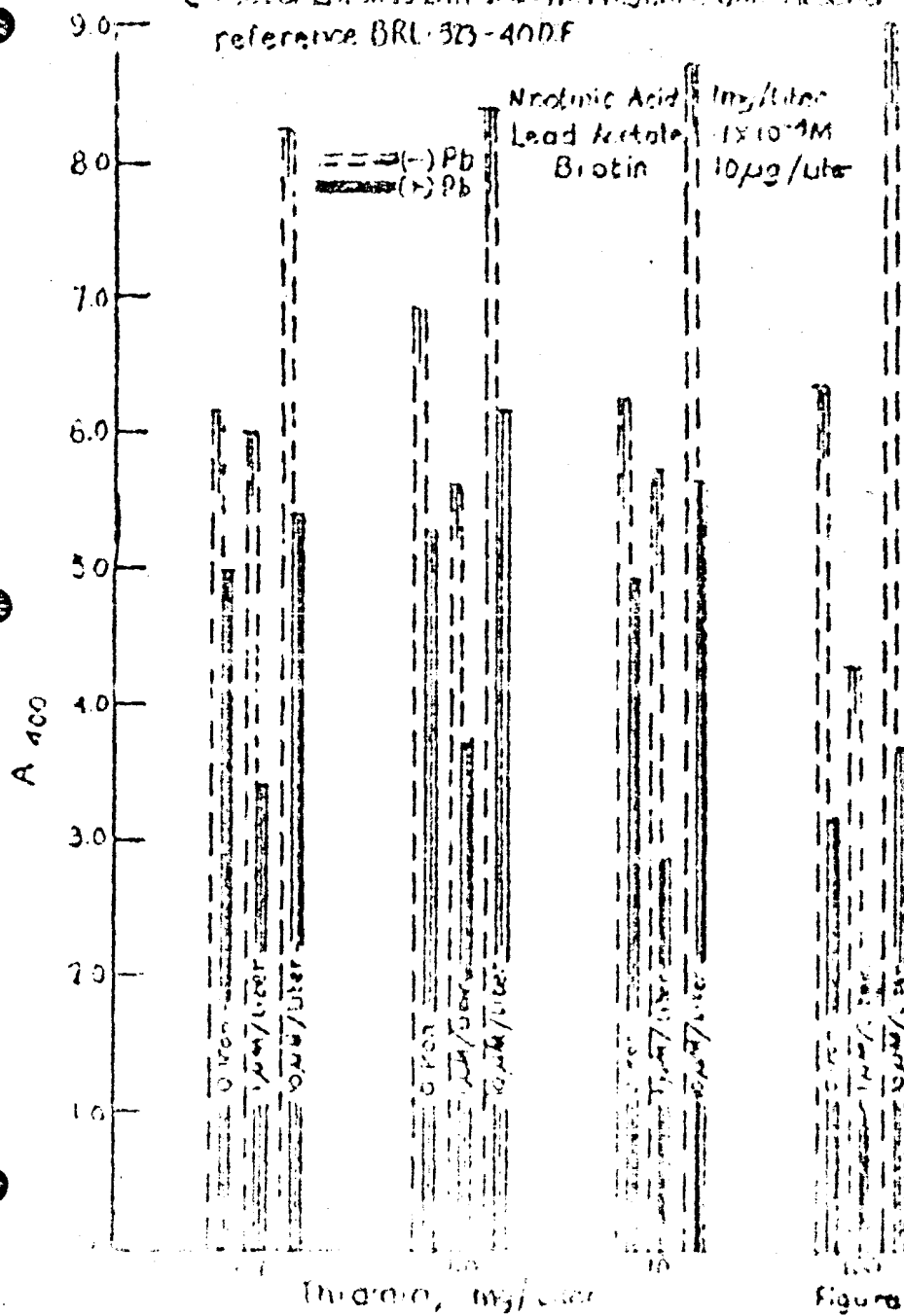
Effect of Dietary Amino Acids in Presence and Absence of Lead
reference BRL 323-400F

Figure 13

GROWTH OF Rps SPHTROIDES

Effect of Δ Iron vs. Δ Nicotinic Acid in presence and absence of Lead

reference - BRL-323-90 A.C.

Thiamin = 1mg/liter

Pb = 1×10^{-4} M

Biotin = 10 μ g/Liter

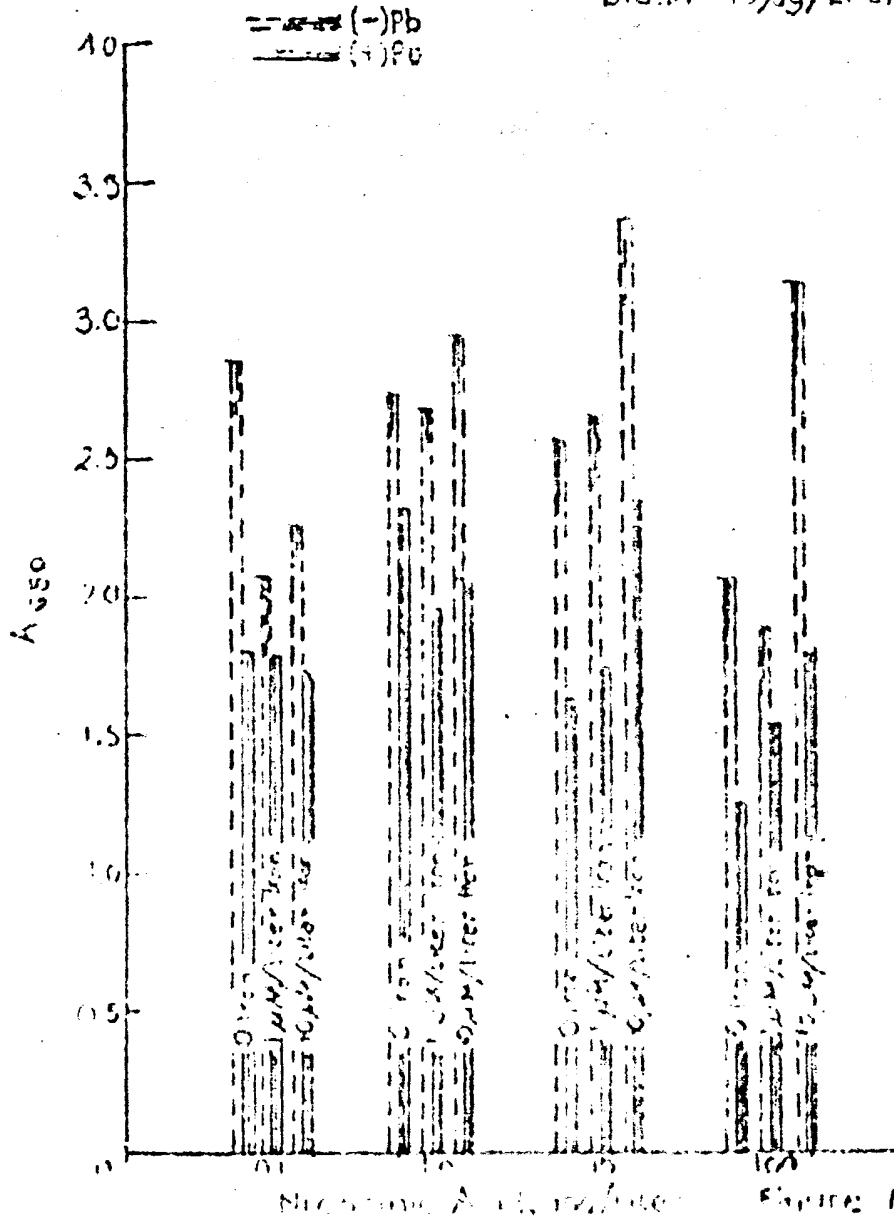
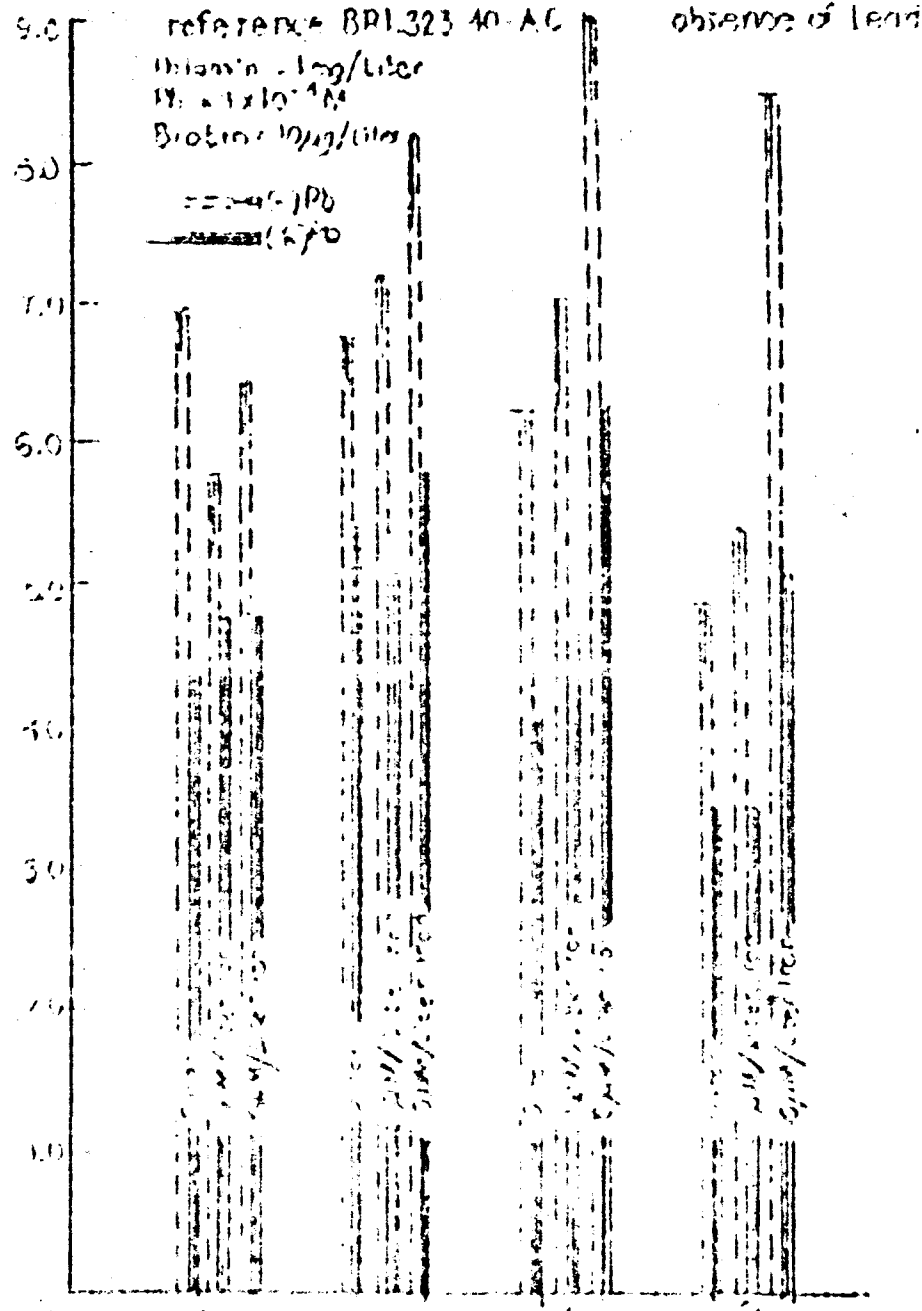


Figure 14

2,4-D WITH OTHER STERILIZERS

Effect of Δ Iron vs Δ Nicotinic Acid in presence and



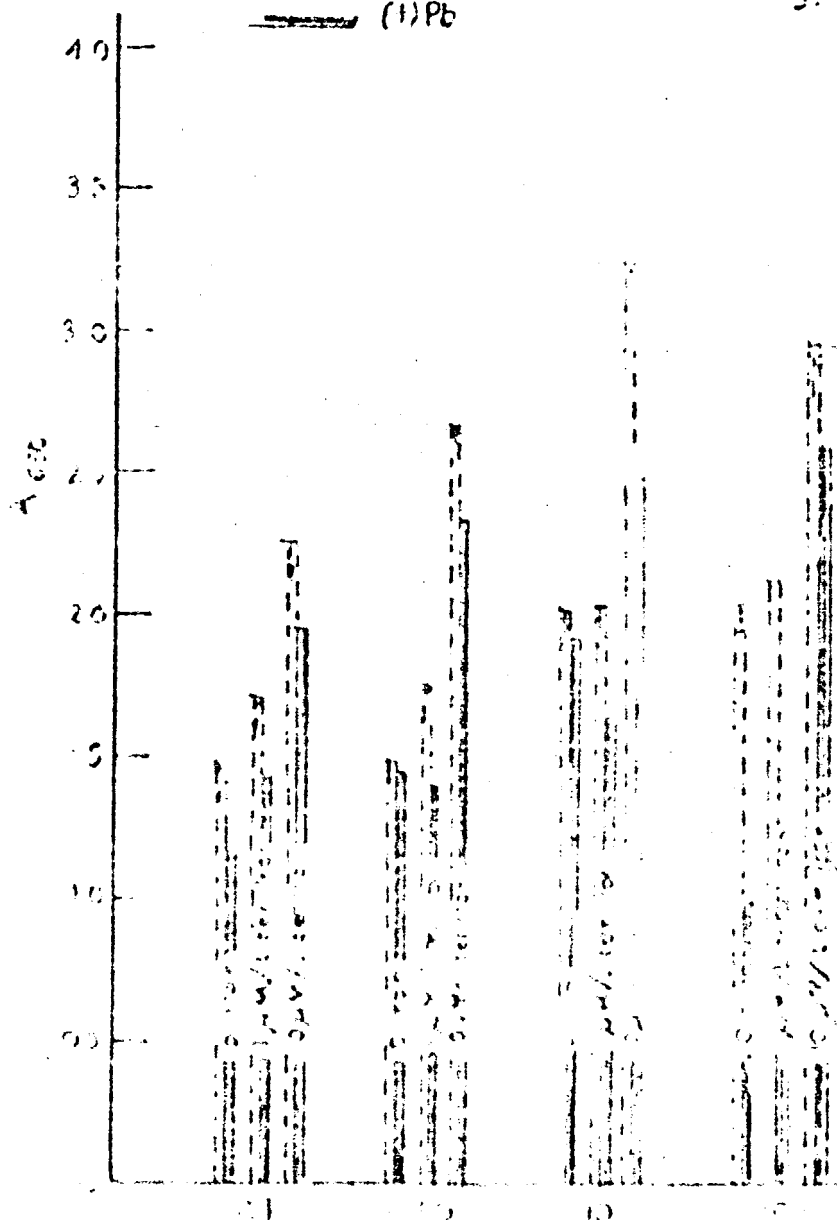
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GROWTH OF Rps SPHEROIDES

Effect of Δ biotin in presence and absence of Lead
 reference BRL 323-45 G 1

Lead Acetate $1 \times 10^{-4} M$
 Nicotinic acid $1 mg/liter$
 Thiamin $1 mg/liter$

==== Δ Pb
 _____ (+) Pb



GROWTH OF Rps SPHEROIDES

Effect of Δ Iron vs Δ Biotin in presence and absence of Lead

reference BRL 323-40-62

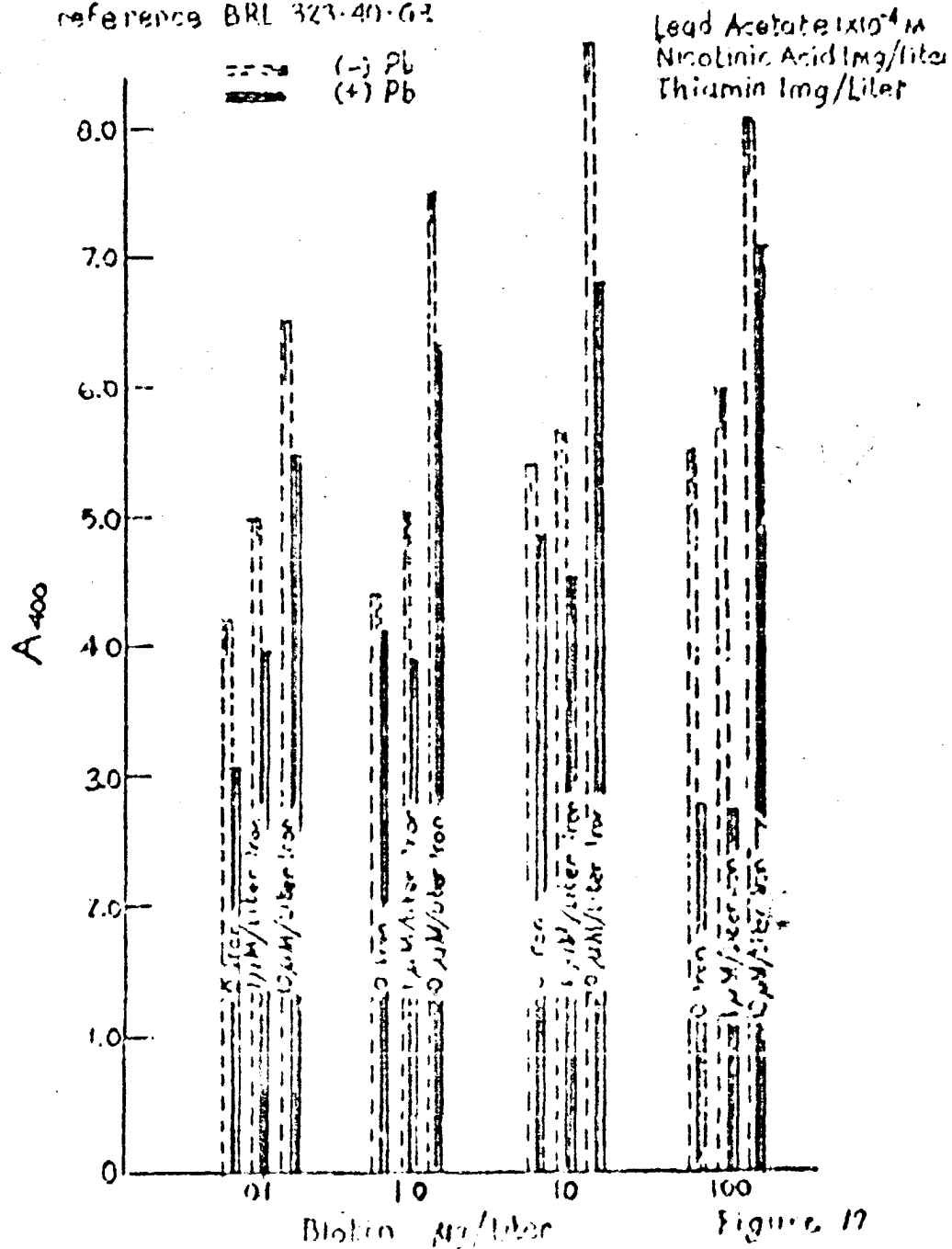
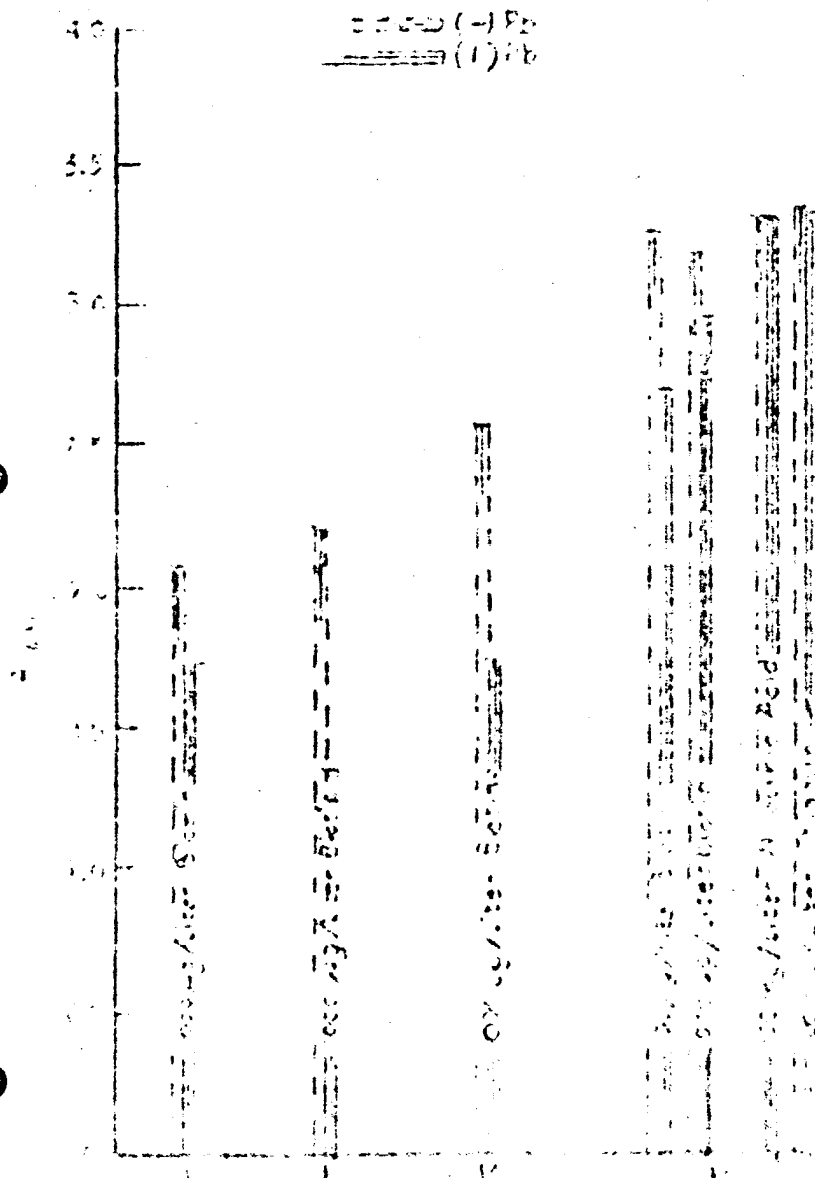


Figure 17

GROWTH OF R_p : SPHEROIDESEffect of ΔT and vs. Co-factors in presence and absence of Lead
reference PKL 373-44Lead Acetate $\times 10^{-4} M$ 

GROWTH OF Rps SPHEROIDES

Effect of Iron vs. Cofactors in
presence and absence of Lead

reference - BRL-323-41

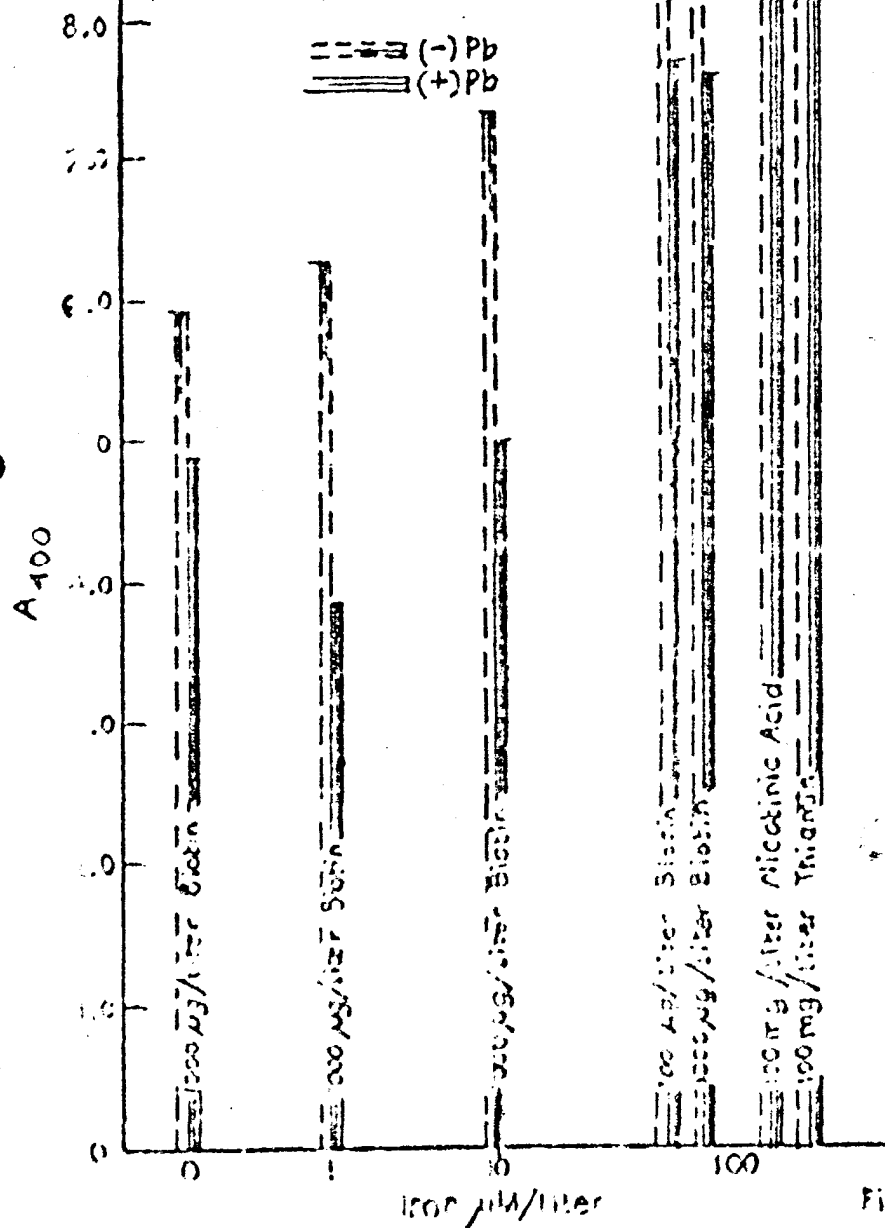
Lead Acetate = $1 \times 10^{-4} M$ 

Figure 19

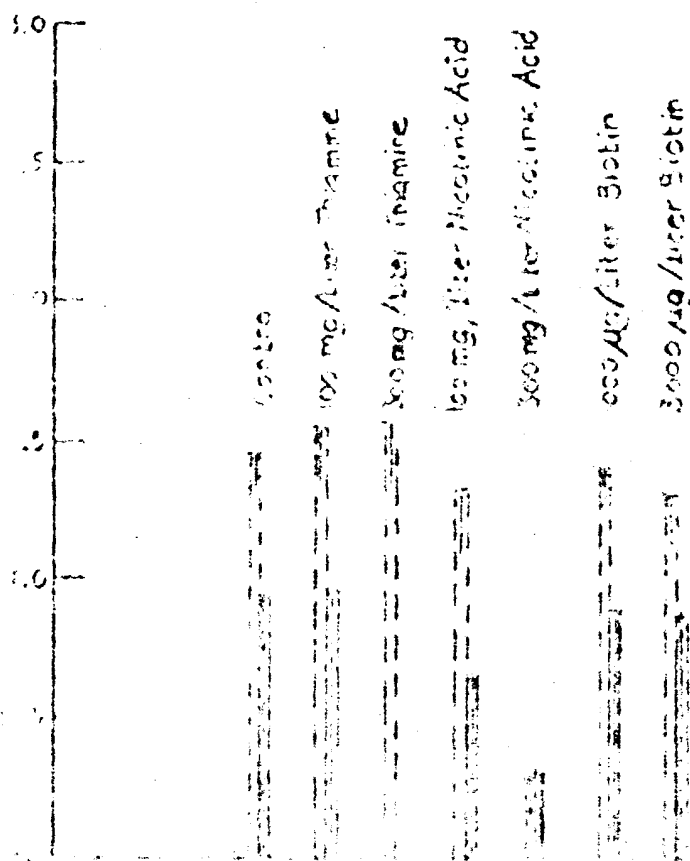
GROWTH OF Rps SPHEROIDES

Effect of high concentrations of cofactors - No Iron

reference BKL 342-51

----- (-) Pb

----- (+) Pb



GROWTH OF Rps SPHEROIDES

Effect of High Concentrations of Defactors - No Iron

reference Bld 347-51

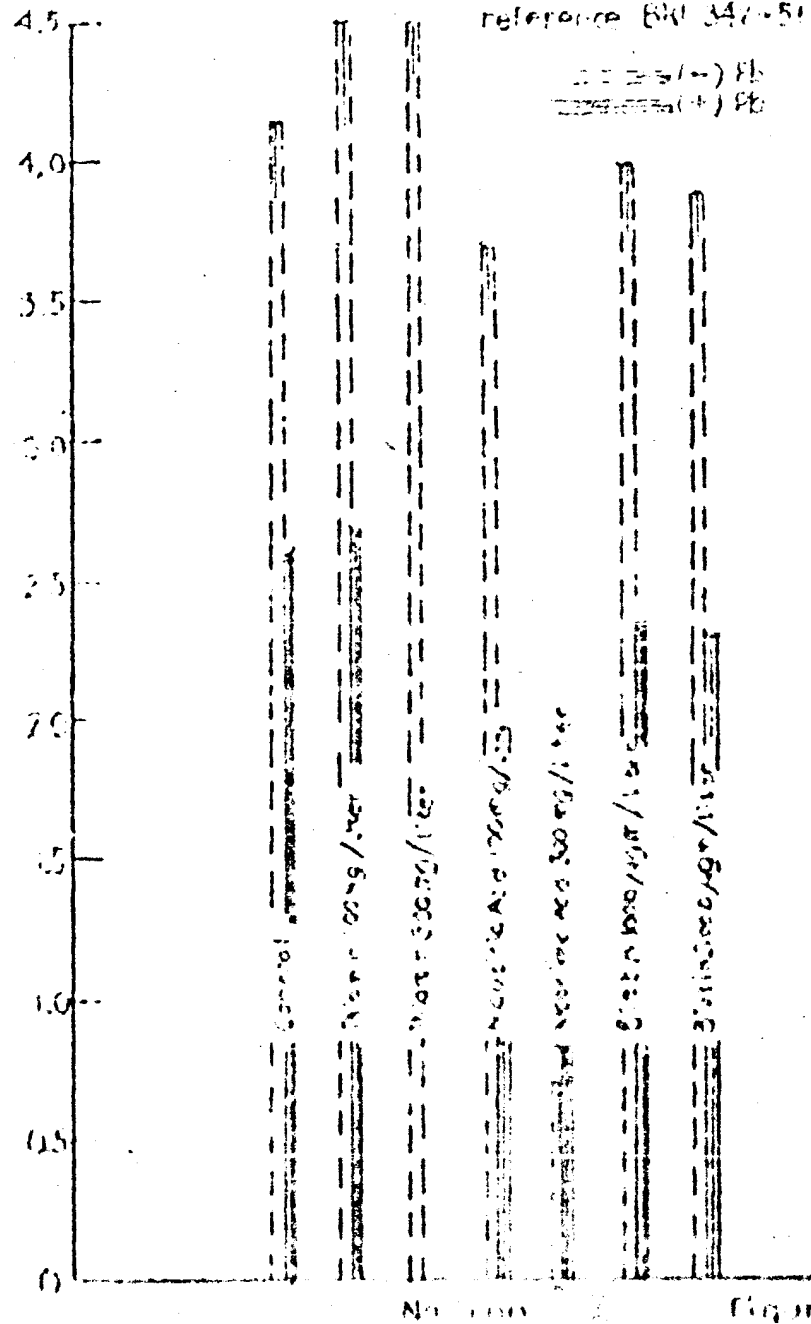


Figure 2)

GROWTH OF Rps SPHEROIDS

Effect of High Concentration Cofactors + Iron
reference BRL-342-54

Iron, 10 μ M/Liter

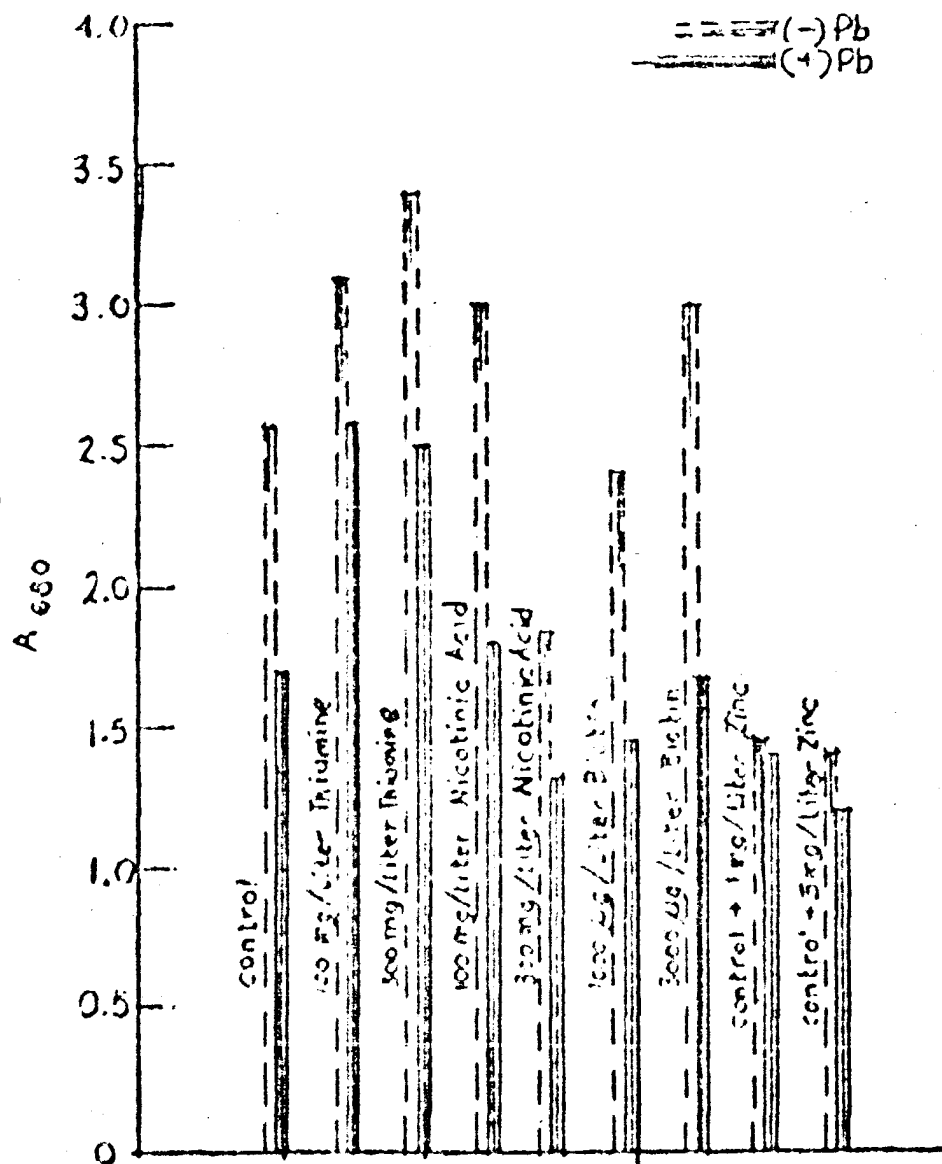


Figure 22

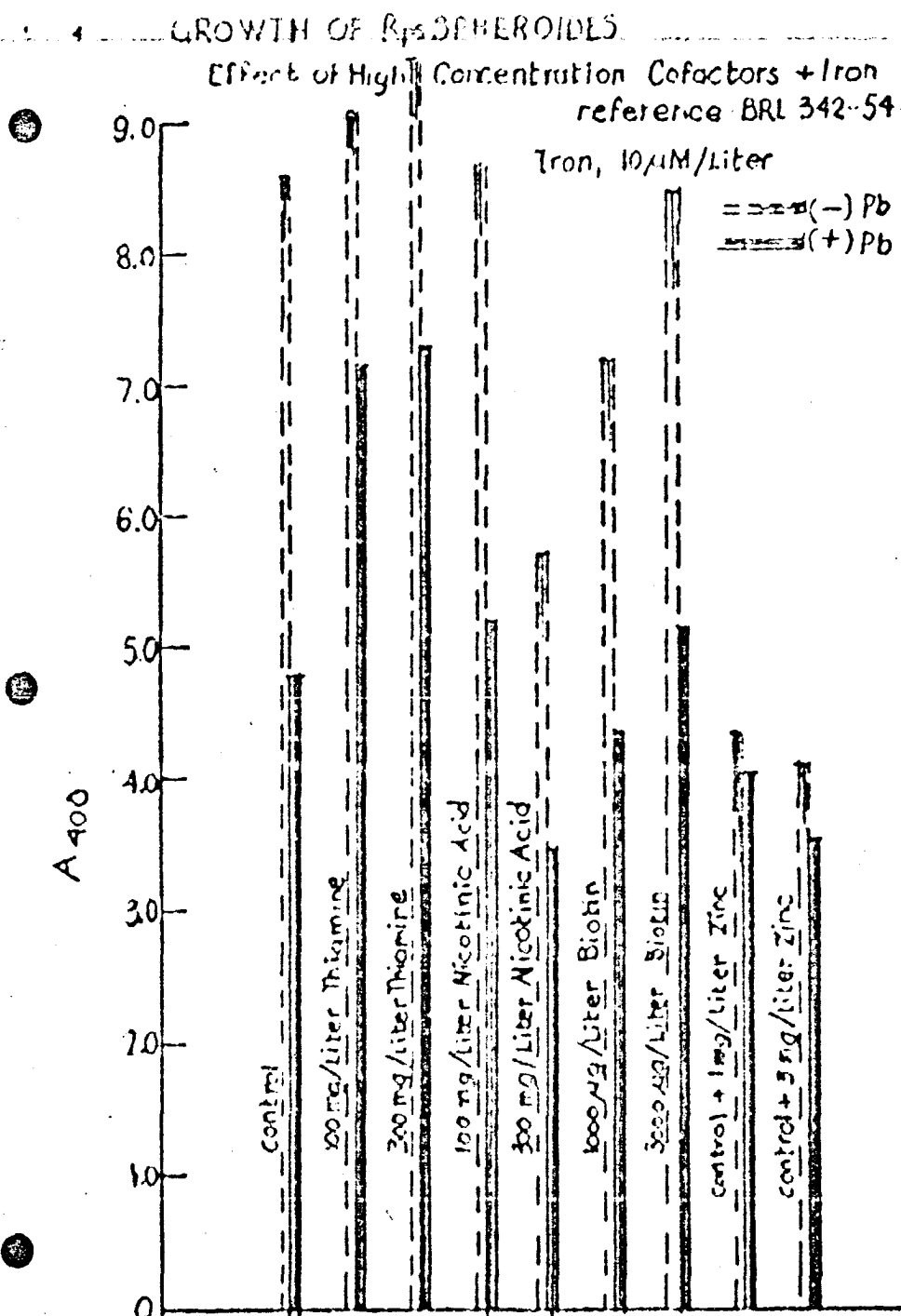
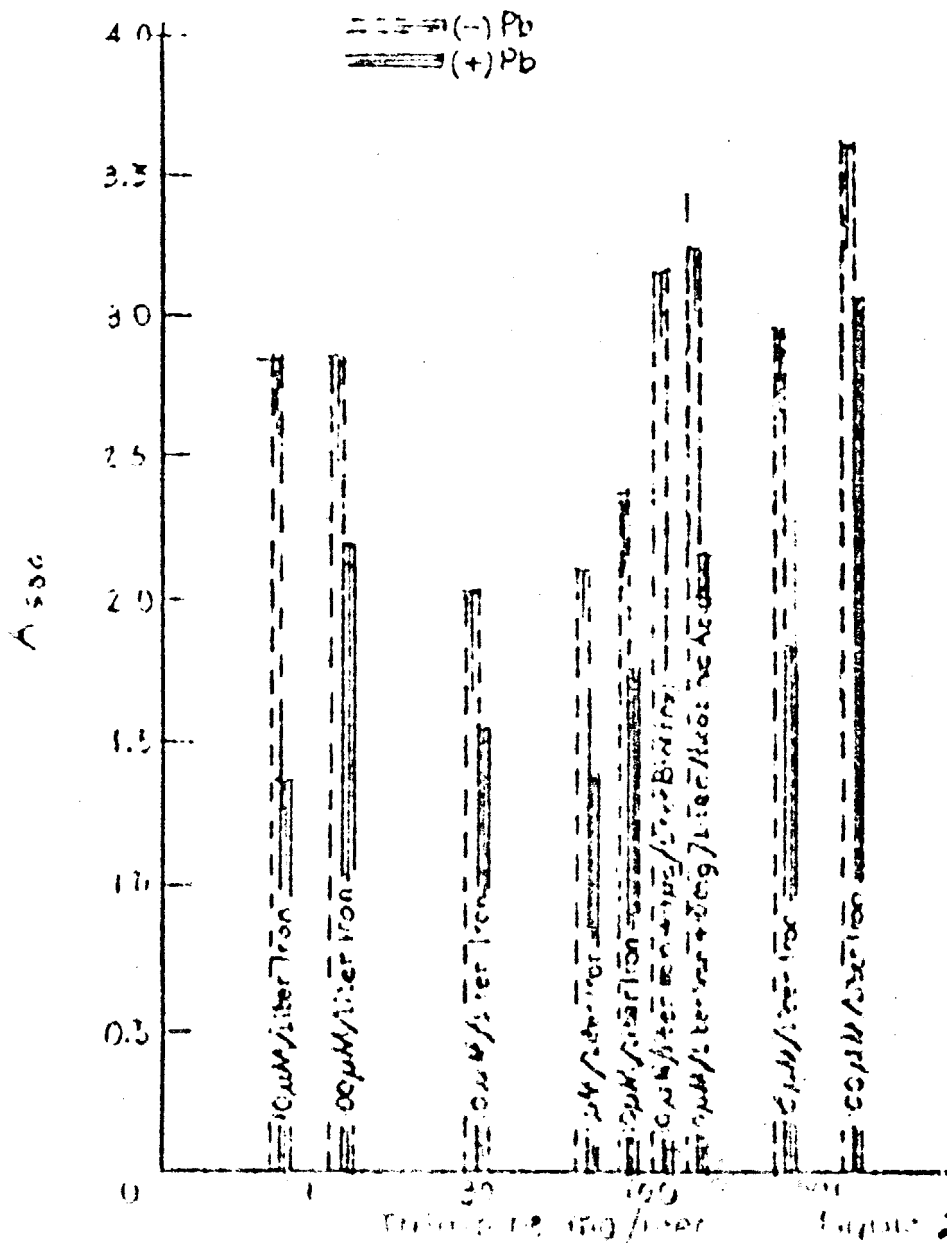


Figure 23

GROWTH OF Rps SPHEROIDES

Effect of Thiamin on Lead Inhibition: Growth 48-49 hours
reference BRL 323-42Pb Acetate $\times 10^{-4}$ M

GROWTH OF Rps SPHEROIDS

Effect of Thiourea on Lead Inhibition

$\text{Pb Acetate} = 1 \times 10^{-4} \text{ M}$
 reference: BRL 323-42
 --- (-) Pb
 --- (+) Pb

A 490

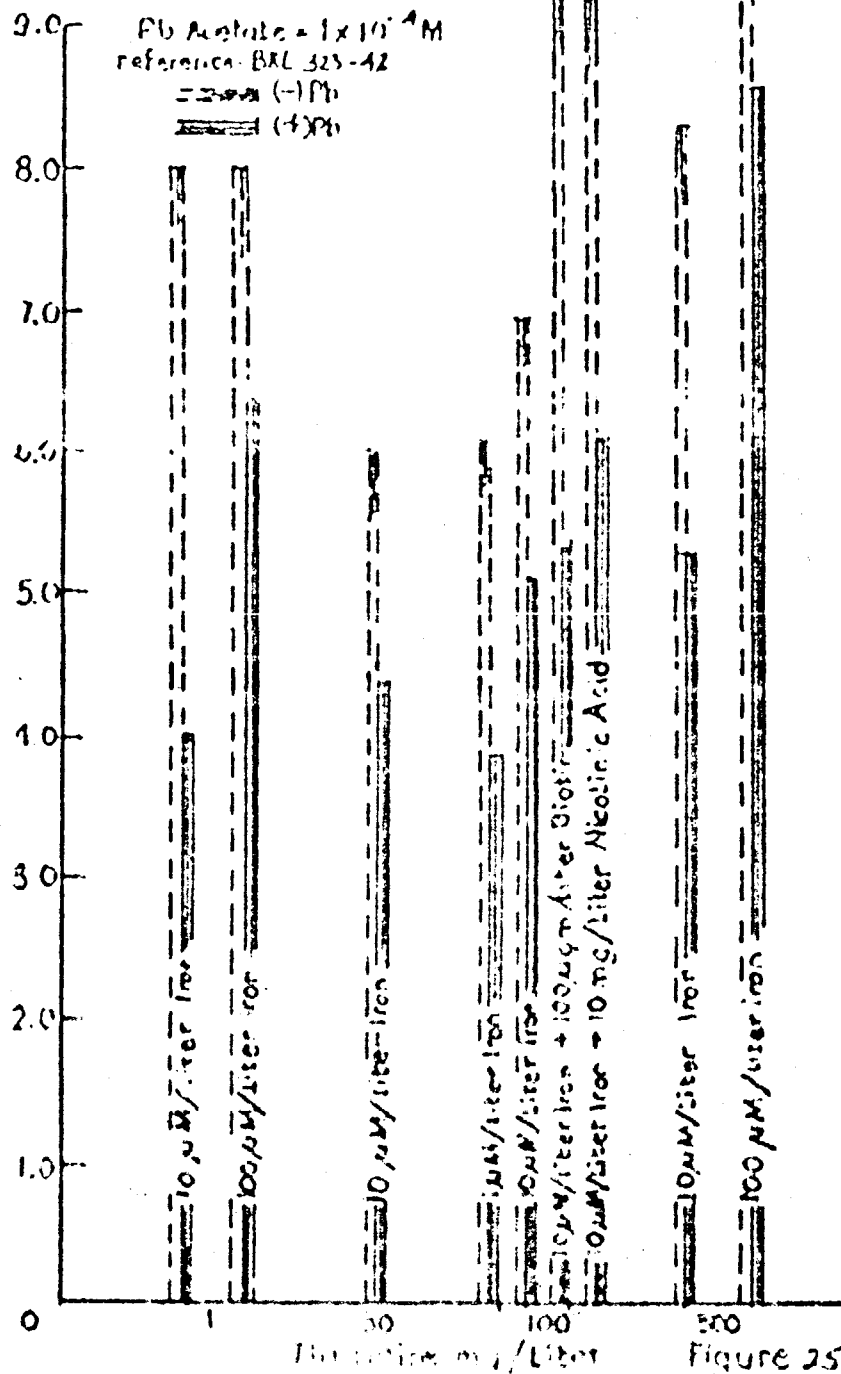


Figure 25

GROWTH OF *Rp* SPHEROIDES
Effect of Manganese
reference BRU-342-60

--- (-) Pb
--- (+) Pb

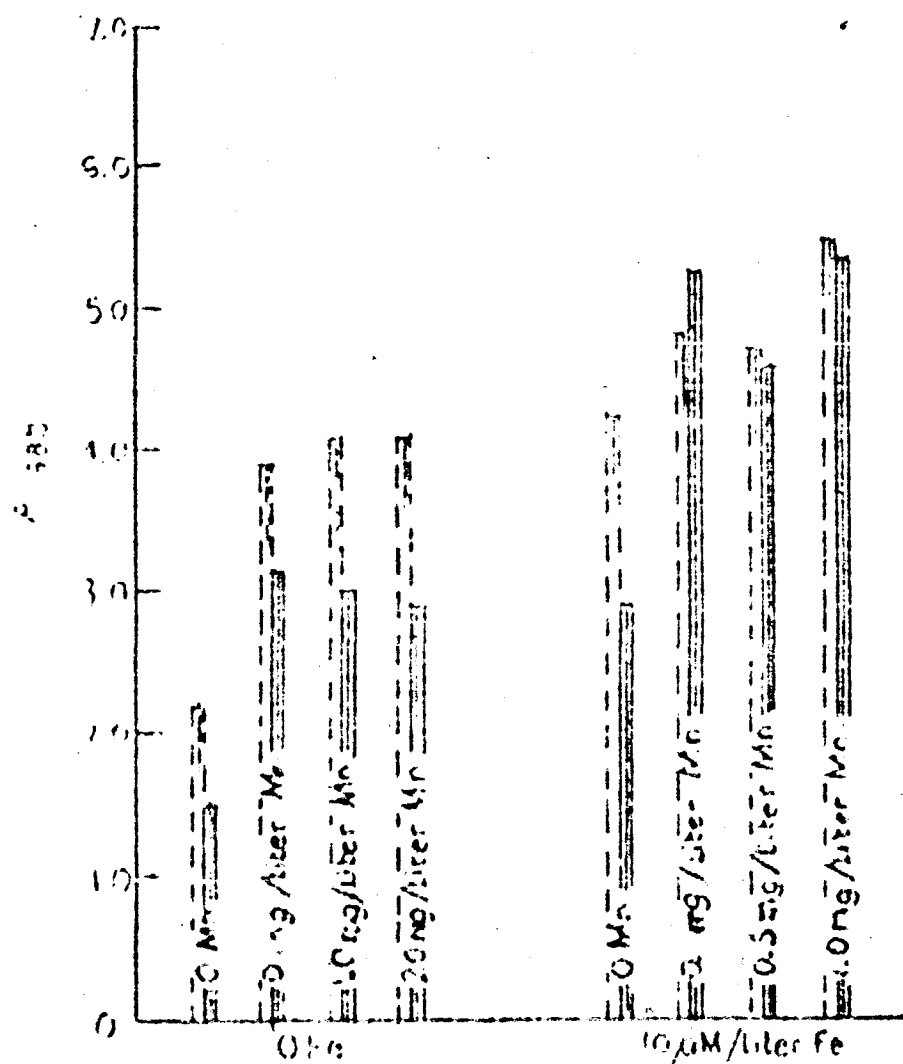


Figure 26

GROWTH OF *Rps SPHEROIDES*
 Effect of Manganese
 reference SRL 342-60

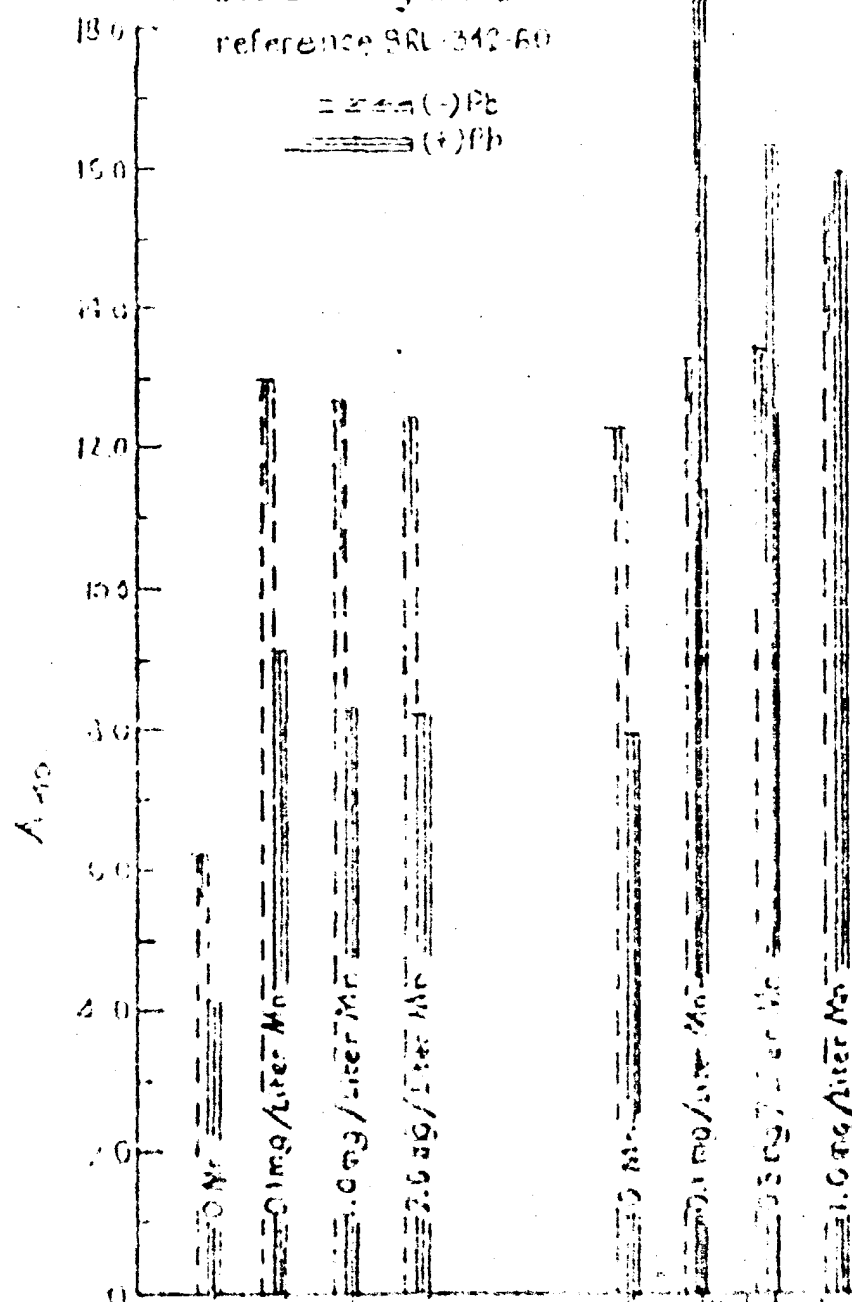


Figure 27

GROWTH OF RIESMEROIDES

Effect of Mn^{++}

reference BRL 942-53

--- (-) Pb
 --- (+) Pb

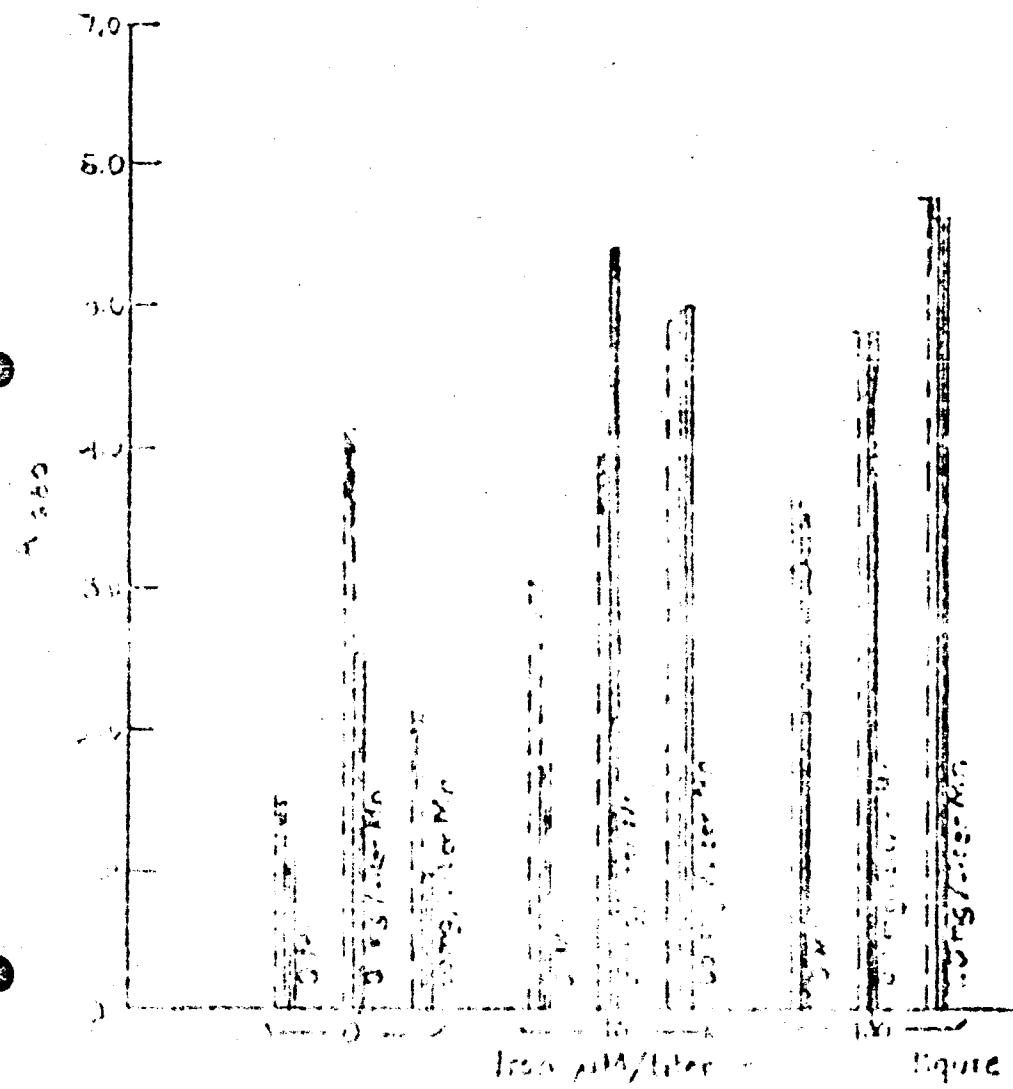


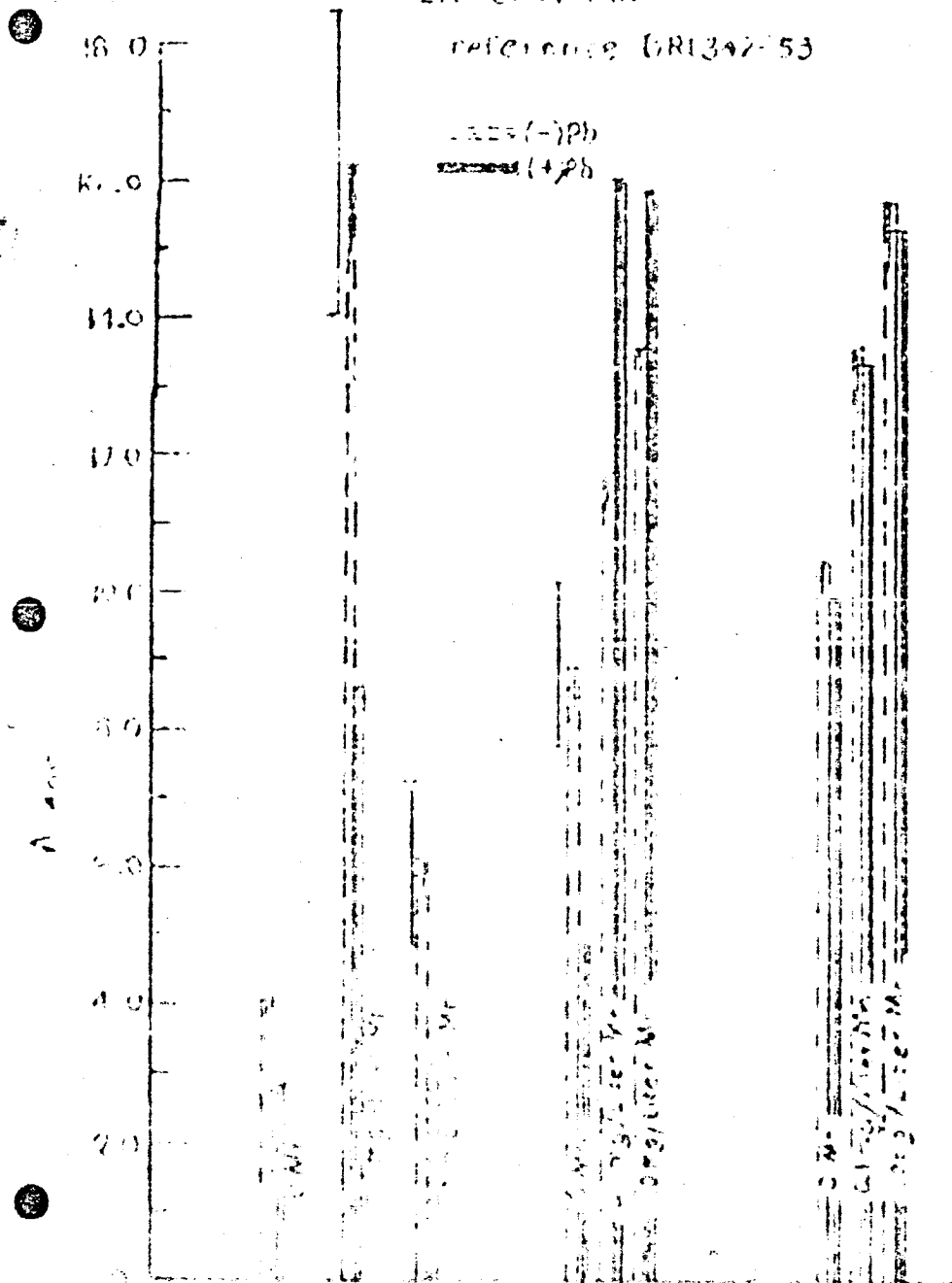
Figure 28

Effect of Mn^{2+}

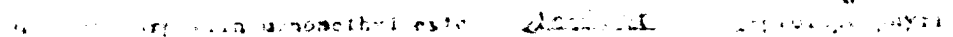
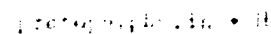
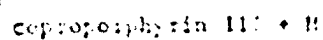
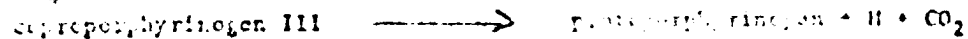
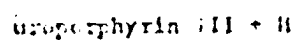
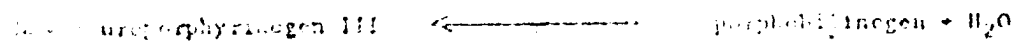
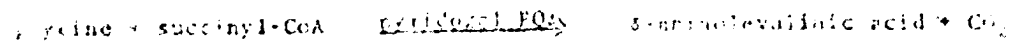
reference BR1342-53

--- (-) Pb

--- (+) Pb



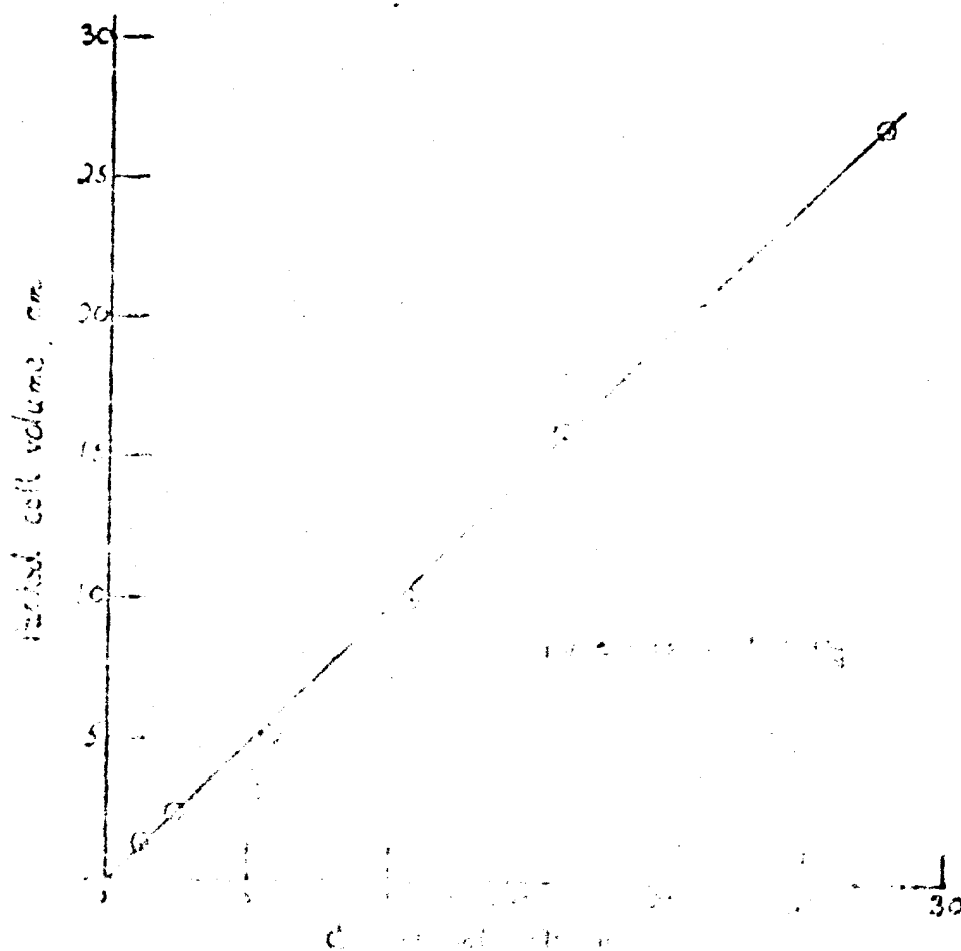
Tetrapyrrole Synthesis: -- Porphobilinogen



GROWTH of Rps. SPHEROIDES

correlation of packed cell volume and
dry weight of cells (10^4)

Reference: BRL 342-81



EFFECT OF Mn^{2+} ON GROWTH OF *Rps. SPHEROIDES*

Reference: BRL 342-75-76

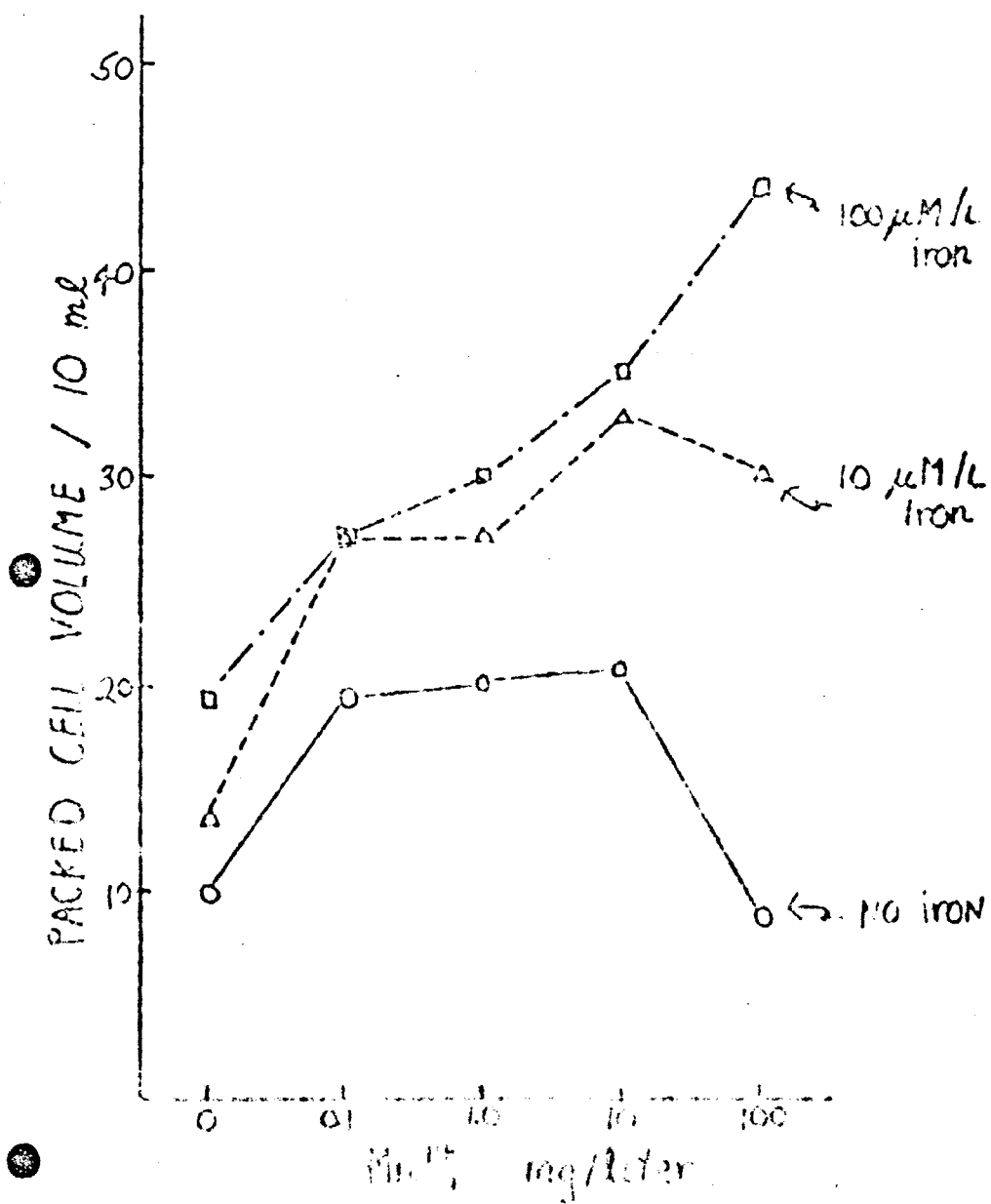
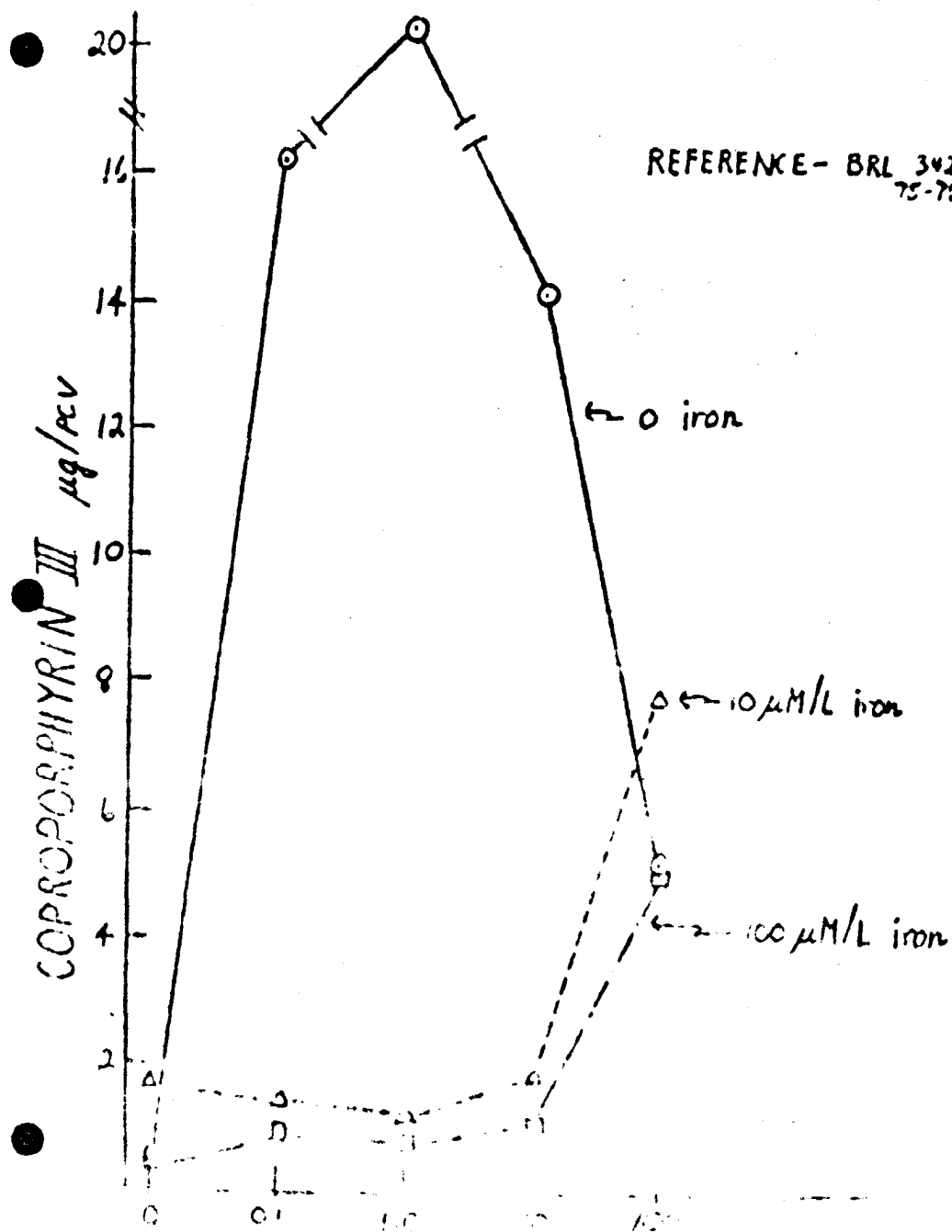


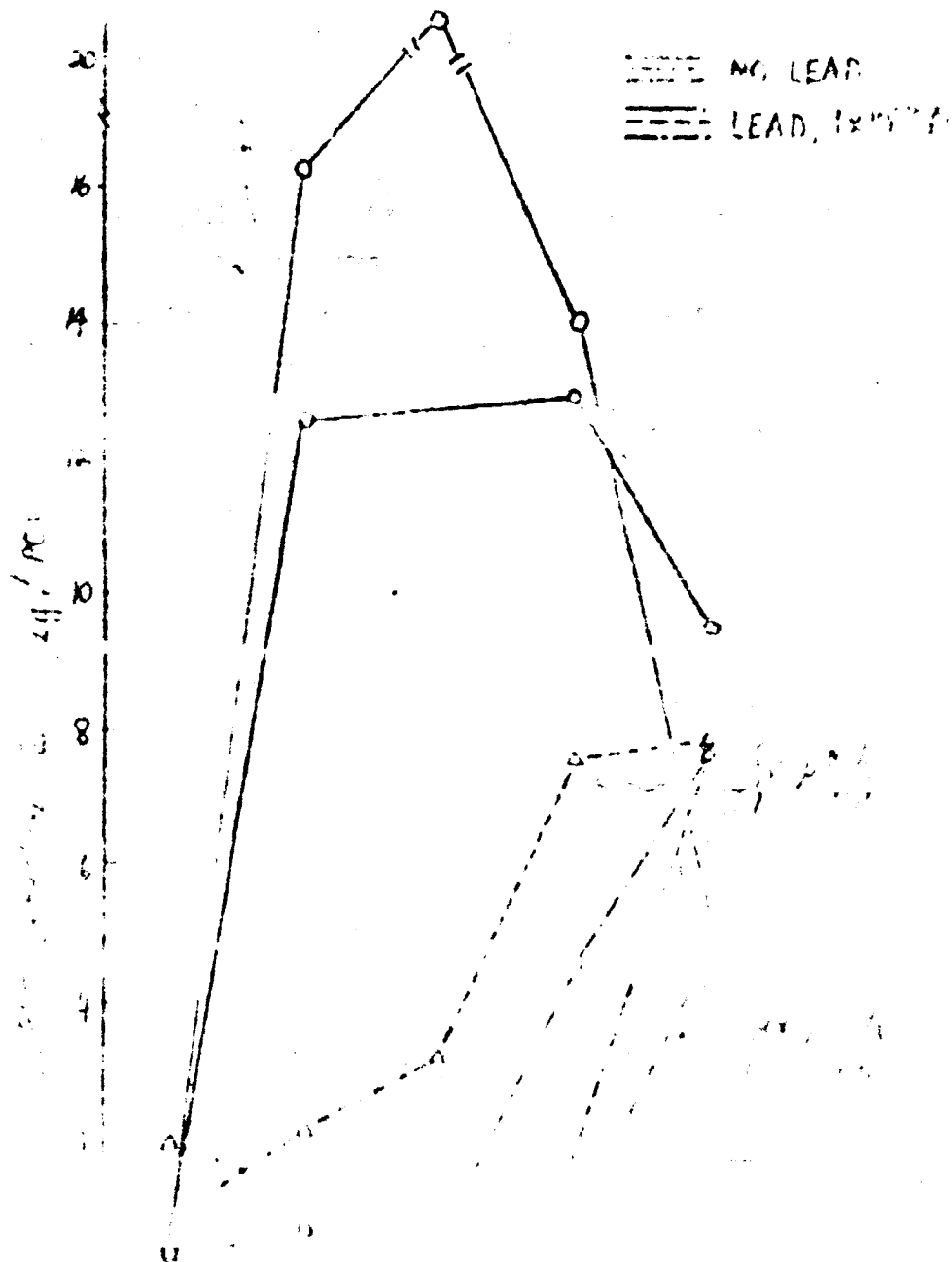
Figure 32

COPROPORPHYRIN III EXCRETION - HYPOFERROIDES

EFFECT OF Fe^{2+} at VARYING CONCENTRATIONS OF IRON

ALL INFORMATION CONTAINED HEREIN IS UNCLASSIFIED
DATE 08-27-2009 BY 60322 UCBAW/SJS

REF ID: A62044



Bacteriochlorophyll Content of Rps Spheroides

Effect of Δ Mn⁺⁺ at varying concentrations of Iron

Reference: BRL 342-75
342-76

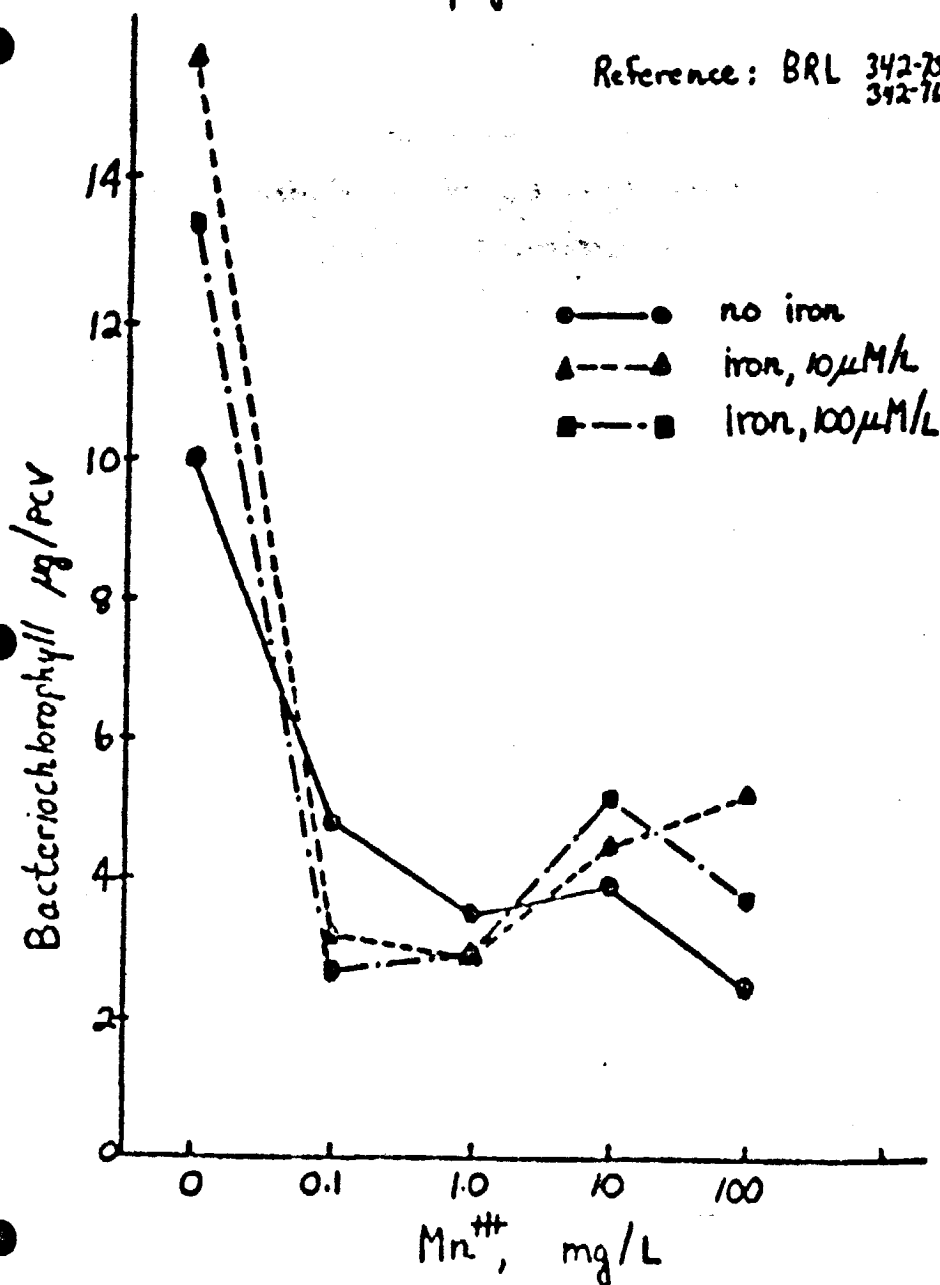


Figure 35

INHIBITION OF LIPOAMIDE DEHYDROGENASE BY LEAD (269 - 275)

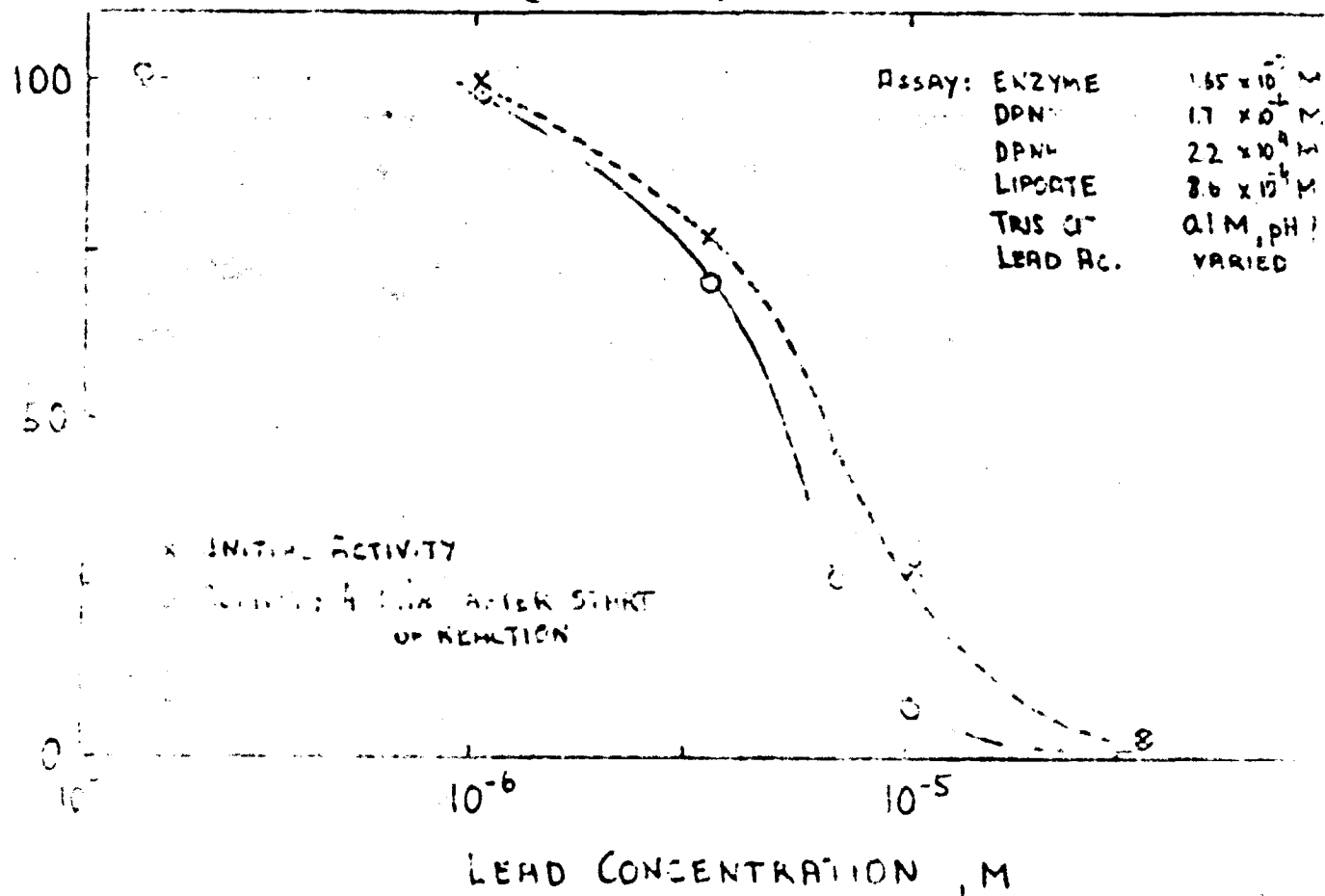


Figure 2

PARTIAL PROTECTION OF LIPONAMIDE DEHYDROGENASE BY
SUBSTRATE AND COENZYMES AGAINST INHIBITION BY LEAD
(269-275)

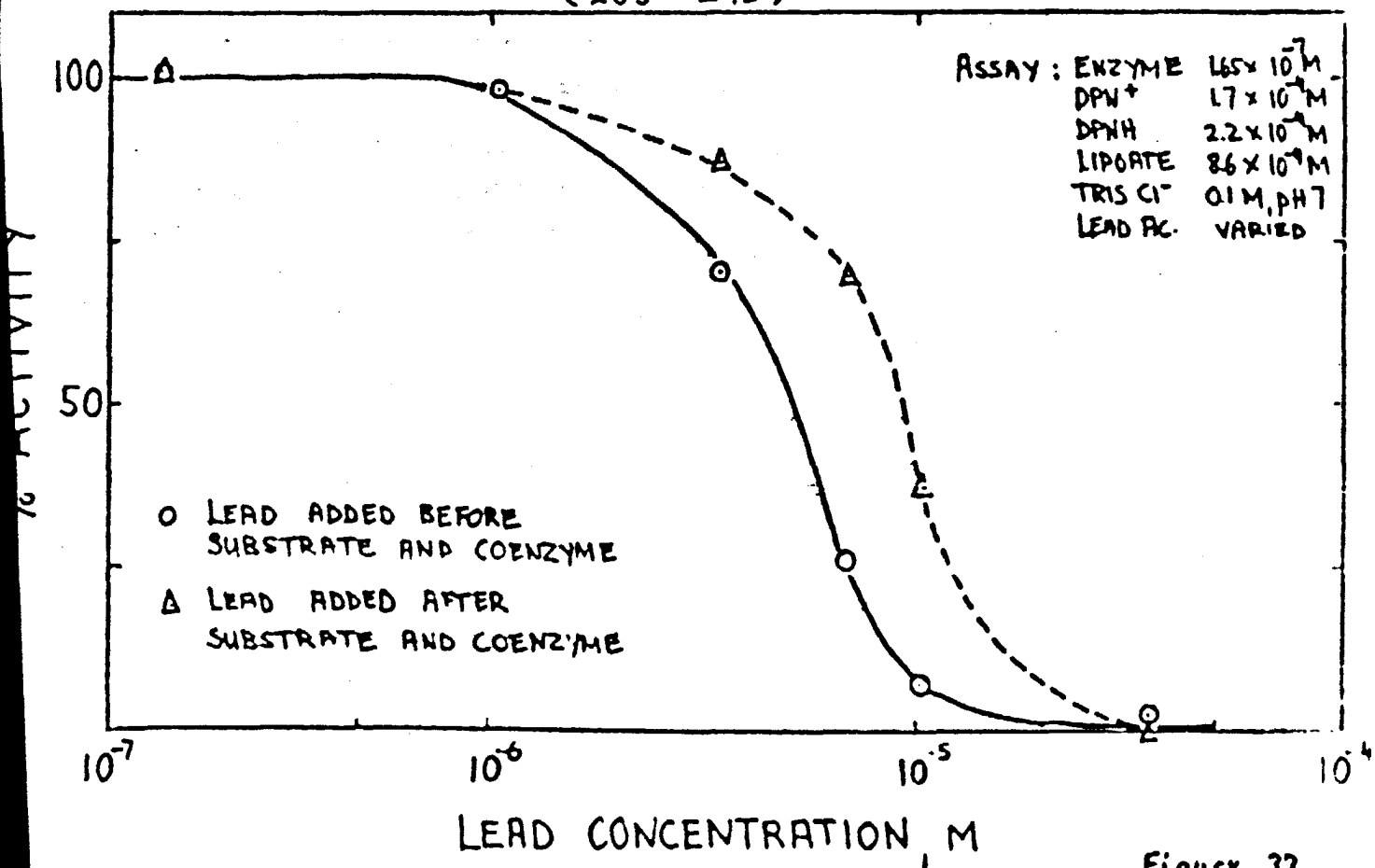


Figure 37

DIFFERENCE SPECTRA OF COMPLEXES OF LIPOAMIDE
DEHYDROGENASE WITH LEAD AND CADMIUM (263-254)

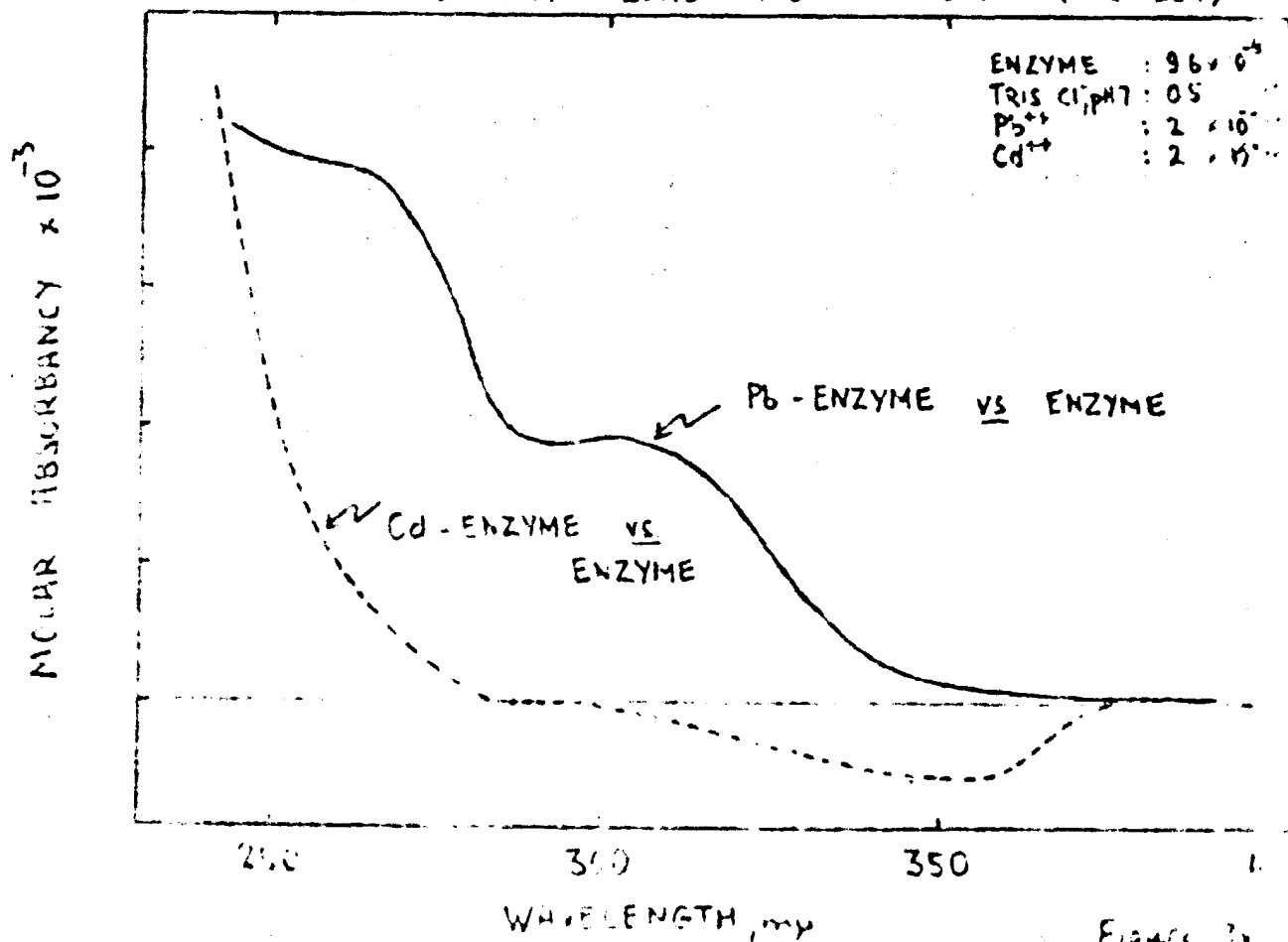


Figure 2b