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## Present Knowledge of the Metabolic Role of Vitamin B<sub>12</sub> and Related Compounds, with Particular Reference to the Role of Cobalt in Ruminant Metabolism

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The chemistry of vitamin B<sub>12</sub>, its determination by microbiological assay, its relation to anaemia and its nutritional significance as part of the animal protein factor were discussed at a Nutrition Society symposium last January (Smith, 1952; Ford, 1952; Ungley, 1952; Girdwood, 1952; Cuthbertson, 1952; Coates, 1952). This paper presents some of the evidence now available concerning the ways in which vitamin B<sub>12</sub> functions in metabolic processes in higher animals and in micro-organisms. The topics discussed have been restricted to those in which vitamin B<sub>12</sub> has a well authenticated role. The later sections include a discussion of the occurrence of cobalt-containing compounds related to vitamin B<sub>12</sub> but not members of the cobalamin series, and their possible function in the growth and metabolism of the microbial flora of the gut.

Deficiency of vitamin B<sub>12</sub> in man, caused either by impaired absorption or by a dietary deficiency, results in megaloblastic anaemia. In other animals deficiency of this vitamin retards growth, but does not, necessarily, cause an anaemia. Most bacteria are able to cover by synthesis their requirements of vitamin B<sub>12</sub>, but under certain conditions some lactobacilli, mutants of *Bacterium coli* and the protozoa, *Euglena gracilis* and some chryomonads, require the vitamin for growth.

Studies with rats and chicks, and with micro-organisms, have suggested that vitamin B<sub>12</sub> may be required as a coenzyme for a number of synthetic processes.

#### *The metabolic role of vitamin B<sub>12</sub> in animals*

##### *Vitamin B<sub>12</sub> and one-carbon fragments*

Vitamin B<sub>12</sub> and pteroylglutamic acid are closely associated in haematopoiesis (Ungley, 1952; Girdwood, 1952). They are similarly associated in many metabolic processes, particularly so in the intermediary metabolism of one-carbon fragments, for there is much circumstantial evidence that pteroylglutamic acid, in its 'biologically active' form, folinic acid, acts as a carrier of formyl groups. Vitamin B<sub>12</sub> appears to be concerned with both the synthesis and the transfer of methyl groups.

*Formation of methyl groups.* Evidence is available, much of it from studies with <sup>14</sup>C, that the rat is able to synthesize the labile methyl groups of methionine and choline from formate and formaldehyde (Sakami & Welch, 1950; du Vigneaud, Verly, Wilson, Rachele, Ressler & Kinney, 1951; Siekevitz & Greenberg, 1950), from methanol (du Vigneaud & Verly, 1950; Arnstein, 1951), from glycine and serine (Weissbach, Elwyn & Sprinson, 1950; Jonsson & Mosher, 1950; Arnstein, 1951), and from acetone (Sakami, 1950). Though all these substrates allow the formation of methyl groups when pteroylglutamic acid and vitamin B<sub>12</sub> are available, little is known of the importance of any particular intermediate as a source of methyl groups during normal metabolism, and such conversions may be so slow in certain species as to be nutritionally ineffective (cf. Jukes & Stokstad, 1951a). Studies with rats show that the utilization of the  $\alpha$ -carbon atom of glycine for the synthesis of both moieties of choline is reduced in vitamin B<sub>12</sub> deficiency, but that the utilization of the  $\beta$ -carbon of serine is unaffected (Arnstein & Neuberger, 1951, 1952; Stekol, Weiss & Weiss, 1952). Arnstein & Neuberger (1951, 1952) found that less than one methyl group/molecule of choline formed was derived from glycine, and concluded that the  $\alpha$ -carbon of glycine is not converted directly to a one-carbon precursor of methyl groups. They suggested that, since vitamin B<sub>12</sub> is not concerned with the formation of choline from serine, it may be involved in the conversion of glycine to a form suitable for the acceptance of formate in a serine synthesis.

Such a mechanism can also explain the toxicity of glycine to chicks receiving a vitamin B<sub>12</sub>-deficient diet (Menge & Combs, 1950; Hsu & Combs, 1952; Machlin, Lankenau, Denton & Bird, 1952), as this toxicity is overcome by vitamin B<sub>12</sub>.

*Transmethylation.* The existence of a transmethylation process within animal tissues was first postulated by du Vigneaud, Chandler, Moyer & Keppel (1939)

to explain the findings that under certain conditions homocysteine could not replace methionine in the diets of growing rats unless choline was supplied to provide the methyl groups.

Several groups of workers have demonstrated that in rats and chicks vitamin B<sub>12</sub> spares methyl groups, or, alternatively, that the requirement for vitamin B<sub>12</sub> is reduced by ample supplies of choline (cf. Coates, 1952; Jukes & Stokstad, 1951*a*). However, neither choline nor methionine can completely replace vitamin B<sub>12</sub> in the diet of chicks depleted of it (Jukes & Stokstad, 1951*b*).

An interesting, indirect method of assessing the amount of methionine formed by transmethylation has been used by Liener & Schultze (1952). Working from the hypothesis that the methyl groups, required for the methylation of nicotinamide to N-methylnicotinamide and of guanidoacetic acid to creatine, are derived directly from methionine (Borsook & Dubnoff, 1947), they used the excretion of N-methylnicotinamide and creatinine as measures of the synthesis of methionine by rats receiving diets free from labile methyl groups and supplemented with combinations of homocystine, choline, betaine, formate and vitamin B<sub>12</sub>. They found that only when the basal ration was supplemented with homocystine in the presence of choline, betaine or vitamin B<sub>12</sub>, were growth and excretion of N-methylnicotinamide similar to those observed when the diet was supplemented with methionine. Formate was not an effective methyl donor to homocystine in the absence of vitamin B<sub>12</sub>, though when the vitamin was present methylation did occur, and a substantial excretion of N-methylnicotinamide took place. The methylation of guanidoacetic acid proved to be an unsatisfactory measure of methionine formation, since both choline and betaine could act as direct methyl donors.

These experiments demonstrate a role for vitamin B<sub>12</sub> both in transmethylation from choline or betaine to homocystine and in the synthesis of the methyl group from formate (cf. p. 107).

The precise role of vitamin B<sub>12</sub> in transmethylation has not been elucidated. It may facilitate the utilization of methyl groups by catalysing the reduction of homocystine to homocysteine (Dubnoff, 1950). This concept is supported by the observation that the blood of vitamin B<sub>12</sub>-deficient rats contains less thiol groups than that of litter-mates receiving vitamin B<sub>12</sub> (Ling & Chow, 1951).

#### *Vitamin B<sub>12</sub> and protein metabolism*

The role of vitamin B<sub>12</sub> in protein metabolism is at present ill defined, but a relationship probably exists.

Several groups of workers have shown that a deficiency of vitamin B<sub>12</sub> causes the accumulation of non-protein nitrogen in the blood (McGinnis, Hsu & Graham, 1948; Zucker & Zucker, 1948). Such experiments suggest that the vitamin may aid protein synthesis in the tissues.

Henry & Kon (1951) found that the biological value of casein, and hence the assimilation of nitrogen, were significantly lower in rats deprived of vitamin B<sub>12</sub> than in rats receiving it. This does not necessarily prove a specific relationship

with protein metabolism in general, for it is possible that only the connexion between the vitamin and methionine formation was involved.

A protein-sparing action for vitamin B<sub>12</sub> has been proposed from studies of the effect of thyroxine in vitamin B<sub>12</sub> deficiency. The addition of thyroid or iodinated casein to diets containing a high proportion of vegetable protein has been used for several years to hasten the development of vitamin B<sub>12</sub> deficiency in rats. Vitamin B<sub>12</sub> probably acts by raising food consumption since it does not lower the basal metabolic rate (Meites & Shay, 1951). Rupp, Paschkis & Cantarow (1951) found that when the food intake was kept constant by forced feeding, vitamin B<sub>12</sub> did not prevent loss of body-weight, but the loss of nitrogen caused by the katabolic action of thyroxine was reduced, indicating a sparing of protein at the expense of other body constituents.

In considering the possible connexion between vitamin B<sub>12</sub> and such metabolic processes as the utilization of protein it is well to remember that the absence of any essential food factor, by interfering with the normal metabolic chain, may lead to a less efficient utilization of nutrients (cf. Kon, 1931).

#### *Role of vitamin B<sub>12</sub> in nucleic-acid synthesis in animals*

Vitamin B<sub>12</sub> is associated with the synthesis of deoxyribosides in lactobacilli (p. 110). There is some evidence that the vitamin may be concerned in the metabolism of thymine and in the synthesis of its derivatives in man and the pig, since haematopoietic responses have been reported with large oral doses of thymine (cf. Girdwood, 1952), and Hausmann (1951) found that two patients suffering from pernicious anaemia responded to thymidine.

Besides suggesting that vitamin B<sub>12</sub> may be involved in deoxyriboside synthesis in animals (see also Rose & Schweigert, 1952), these findings indicate that deoxyribosides may be important for haematopoiesis.

#### *Vitamin B<sub>12</sub> in bacterial metabolism*

##### *Coliform organisms*

*General.* Davis & Mingioli (1950) have isolated a number of mutants of *Bact. coli* that required vitamin B<sub>12</sub>. All such mutants also responded to methionine, and, conversely, mutants requiring methionine were found to respond to vitamin B<sub>12</sub>. Homocysteine could not replace methionine, even when methylating agents such as choline and betaine were present, and the authors suggested that in these mutants the synthesis of methionine was blocked at the methylation of homocysteine.

Dubnoff (1952) reinvestigated the replacement value of homocysteine for a *Bact. coli* mutant and showed that under anaerobic conditions this compound can support growth, but optimal growth was not obtained unless a trace of vitamin B<sub>12</sub> was also present. Under aerobic conditions homocysteine added to the medium was oxidized to homocystine, which did not support growth of the mutant. Dubnoff

suggests that vitamin B<sub>12</sub> may have a dual role in methionine synthesis in *Bact. coli* mutants. Firstly, in maintaining homocysteine in the reduced condition and, secondly, in the synthesis of the methyl group required for its methylation.

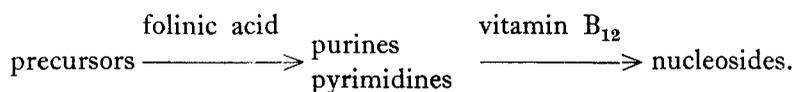
*Vitamin B<sub>12</sub> and p-aminobenzoic acid.* A relationship between these vitamins has only been demonstrated with coliform organisms. Studies with wild types of *Bact. coli* inhibited by sulphonamide (Shive, 1950; Davis & Mingioli, 1950) and with mutants of *Bact. coli* requiring *p*-aminobenzoic acid (Lampen, Jones & Roepke, 1949; Lampen, 1950; Davis, 1951) have given broadly similar results. Vitamin B<sub>12</sub> or methionine reduced the requirements of *Bact. coli* mutants for *p*-aminobenzoic acid. In harmony with this finding, sulphonamides inhibited primarily methionine formation, and the minimum inhibitory concentration was greatly increased in the presence of vitamin B<sub>12</sub> or methionine. This relationship was non-competitive. Davis (1951) interpreted these results as suggesting that either *p*-aminobenzoic acid is used in the synthesis of vitamin B<sub>12</sub>, a view that he has since modified (Davis, 1952), or that *p*-aminobenzoic acid has a catalytic function in vitamin B<sub>12</sub> synthesis.

Possibly a more attractive hypothesis, and one that fits the facts equally well, is that vitamin B<sub>12</sub> catalyses the conversion of *p*-aminobenzoic acid to a coenzyme (Eakin, 1950).

### *Lactobacilli*

Under specified conditions a number of lactobacilli (*Lactobacillus bifidus*, *Lb. lactis*, *Lb. leichmannii*) require vitamin B<sub>12</sub> for growth. Hoffmann, Stokstad, Franklin & Jukes (1948) showed that thymidine could replace vitamin B<sub>12</sub> for *Lb. leichmannii*, and it is now recognized that several deoxyribosides can replace vitamin B<sub>12</sub> in the nutrition of these organisms. However, thymine cannot replace thymidine, and thymidine itself is not a substitute for vitamin B<sub>12</sub> unless other purine bases are present in the medium (cf. Downing, Rose & Schweigert, 1952).

Vitamin B<sub>12</sub> is closely connected with pteroylglutamic acid in the synthesis of nucleosides by microbes and by higher animals, according to the following scheme:



The fact that other deoxyribosides can replace thymidine is believed to indicate that in the presence of other purines growth occurs as a result of the transfer of deoxyribosides from one pyrimidine or purine to another (MacNutt, 1950). No satisfactory mechanism for such changes has been elaborated.

### *Euglena gracilis and Chrysoomonads*

When growing on simple media these organisms need neither methionine nor deoxyribosides. The function of vitamin B<sub>12</sub> in the growth of these organisms is not yet known.

*Vitamin B<sub>12</sub>-like compounds*

During the past 2 years several compounds possessing vitamin B<sub>12</sub> activity for micro-organisms have been isolated. These compounds are related to, but are not members of, the cobalamin series. Wijmenga (1951) isolated from pig faeces a crystalline substance he named vitamin B<sub>12m</sub>. Ford & Porter (1952) showed that the faeces of ruminating calves contained vitamin B<sub>12</sub>-like factors, A, B and C, in addition to vitamin B<sub>12</sub> itself; Pffnner, Calkins, Peterson, Bird, McGlohon & Stipek (1951) obtained pseudovitamins B<sub>12</sub> and B<sub>12b</sub> from a rumen anaerobe, and Lewis, Tappan & Elvehjem (1952) reported that rat faeces contained a substance they called vitamin B<sub>12f</sub>.

Through the generosity of Dr. Wijmenga and Dr. Pffnner we have been able to examine their compounds and compare them with those isolated at Shinfield. The results of these findings have been published (Holdsworth, 1953; Ford, 1953; Ford, Holdsworth, Kon & Porter, 1953). Briefly, we have shown by ionophoresis at pH 2.5, and differential microbiological tests, that none of the compounds isolated and considered as being pure were in fact pure, but that each of them contained one or more of the others as impurities. Thus vitamin B<sub>12m</sub> and factor A contain the same major component (factor A), but also vitamin B<sub>12</sub> and pseudovitamin B<sub>12</sub>. Pseudovitamins B<sub>12</sub> and B<sub>12b</sub> contain the same major component (pseudovitamin B<sub>12</sub>) but also some factor A, and pseudovitamin B<sub>12b</sub> contains in addition a small amount of material that is almost inactive microbiologically. It is clear from the microbiological and ionophoretic findings that factors A (vitamin B<sub>12m</sub>) and pseudovitamin B<sub>12</sub> are different substances.

We now consider in the light of these and other findings (Ford *et al.* 1953) that the vitamin B<sub>12</sub> activity of extracts of gut contents and faeces, prepared in the presence of cyanide, is contributed in varying proportions by the following five substances: factors A (vitamin B<sub>12m</sub>), B and C, pseudovitamin B<sub>12</sub>, and vitamin B<sub>12</sub> itself (cyanocobalamin).

These compounds do not appear in body tissues so far examined to any appreciable extent, though small amounts of each have been isolated from Wijmenga's factor WR, prepared from beef liver.

*Metabolic role of vitamin B<sub>12</sub>-active compounds other than vitamin B<sub>12</sub>**Bacteria*

*Bact. coli.* Factors A, B, and C and pseudovitamin B<sub>12</sub> all promote growth of *Bact. coli* (cf. Ford, 1953), the general order of activity being similar to that of vitamin B<sub>12</sub>.

As they are active for *Bact. coli*, it is reasonable to suppose that the compounds are capable of replacing vitamin B<sub>12</sub> in the synthesis of methionine, and though we know that they differ in certain respects from vitamin B<sub>12</sub> in molecular structure (e.g. pseudovitamin B<sub>12</sub> contains adenylic acid in place of the benzimidazole

nucleotide (Dion, Calkins & Pffiffer, 1952) they are similar in that they all contain the cyano-group and can form cyanide adducts. It is tempting to use this evidence to support the suggestion by Dubnoff (1951) that a cyanolysis step is involved in methionine synthesis.

*Lactobacilli*. Factor A and pseudovitamin B<sub>12</sub> are differently active for *Lb. leichmannii*, though both rather less so than vitamin B<sub>12</sub>. Factor B is inactive and factor C only slightly active (Ford, 1953; Ford & Porter, 1952).

It is apparent, therefore, that factor A and pseudovitamin B<sub>12</sub> can replace vitamin B<sub>12</sub> in those reactions concerned with deoxyriboside formation, whereas factor C can do so to a limited extent, and factor B not at all.

### *Animals*

Preliminary tests on factor A and vitamin B<sub>12m</sub> suggested that those compounds had some biological activity for chicks and for man (Coates, Harrison, Ford, Kon & Porter, 1952; Wijmenga, 1951). As we now know that the materials used were slightly impure, particularly in that they contained some vitamin B<sub>12</sub>, we are doubtful of the validity of these earlier tests, and they are being repeated. It is perhaps significant that the chick test showed an activity for factor A about one-twentieth of that of vitamin B<sub>12</sub>, and that factor A, on ionophoretic separation, yielded 5% of vitamin B<sub>12</sub>.

### *Cobalt in ruminant nutrition*

Deficiency of cobalt leads to a wasting disease in ruminants, recognized and described in various areas in many parts of the world (Marston, 1935, Underwood & Filmer, 1935). Marston (1952) has recently published an extensive review on the role of cobalt in nutrition, and it is unnecessary here to recapitulate the earlier work, the significant finding of which was that cobalt was effective only by mouth, suggesting that its site of function was the rumen. It will suffice to say that when vitamin B<sub>12</sub> was isolated and found to contain cobalt it occurred to a number of workers to examine its effect on cobalt-deficient ruminants.

Earlier experiments with cobalt-deficient sheep given vitamin B<sub>12</sub> by mouth or parenterally yielded negative results. The amounts given were of the same order as those used in the treatment of pernicious anaemia in man.

Later, doses twenty times greater (300 µg vitamin B<sub>12</sub>/sheep/week) were immediately effective (cf. Marston & Lee, 1952).

It is quite clear from these studies that vitamin B<sub>12</sub> cures the signs of cobalt deficiency in ruminants, but it is not yet proved that it is the only cobalt-containing compound that is of importance in the ruminant.

During normal feeding, when the diet contains a reasonable supply of cobalt, rumen contents and faeces contain up to 10 µg vitamin B<sub>12</sub> activity/g dry matter, as measured by *Bact. coli* assay; of this quantity only about 1 µg/g is vitamin B<sub>12</sub>. Factor A supplies about 6 µg/g and pseudovitamin B<sub>12</sub> and factors B and C the remainder (cf. Ford *et al.* 1952). In cobalt deficiency the vitamin B<sub>12</sub> activity

of rumen contents naturally falls very greatly (to about 0.5-1.0 µg/g, as measured by *Bact. coli* assay, but is still the major contributing component (Porter, unpublished results)\*. These findings conflict with those of Dawbarn, Hine & Hughes (1952), who by differential assays with *Bact. coli* and *Lb. leichmannii* found in faeces from cobalt-deficient sheep a decreased ratio of *coli* : *leichmannii* activity, a result that would suggest that more vitamin B<sub>12</sub> and less of other factors was present.

Be it as it may, the normal rumen contains large amounts of factors other than vitamin B<sub>12</sub>, and it is reasonable to suppose, as we have already suggested (Ford *et al.* 1952), that these other factors may be necessary for normal microbial function in the rumen, whereas vitamin B<sub>12</sub> is clearly essential for the normal metabolism of the animal itself. The relatively massive doses of vitamin B<sub>12</sub> required to cure cobalt deficiency in ruminants may be needed either because the tissues of the animal have an exceptionally great demand for the vitamin, or because some of the dose must find its way to the rumen before the condition is cured. Vitamin B<sub>12</sub> could probably reach the rumen from the blood stream either through the saliva or by passage through the rumen wall.

Once in the rumen, vitamin B<sub>12</sub> can be used by the micro-organisms either as vitamin B<sub>12</sub> or by conversion to one of the other vitamin B<sub>12</sub>-active compounds. Gall & Huhtanen (1951) have shown that the rumen flora is changed in cobalt deficiency, and it is clearly possible that a lack of cobalt prevents the synthesis of cobalt-containing compounds necessary to sustain certain organisms.

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## Recent Studies on Vitamin K

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The term vitamin K designates a group of methylnaphthoquinone derivatives that prevent a haemorrhagic state due to defective clotting of the blood. Vitamin K<sub>1</sub> from green leaves, phyloquinone, is 2-methyl-3-phytyl-1:4-naphthoquinone. Vitamin K<sub>2</sub> from bacteria has a difarnesyl residue instead of the phytyl side chain.

The artificially produced 2-methyl-1:4-naphthoquinone (menaphthone, menadione) and certain of the water-soluble esters of its hydroquinone are commonly used instead of the more expensive naturally occurring vitamin K<sub>1</sub> and K<sub>2</sub>. The list of related compounds with more or less pronounced vitamin K activity is comprehensive.