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# Embryonic Stem Cells: The Mouse Source—Vehicle for Mammalian Genetics and Beyond (Nobel Lecture)\*\*

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Professor Sir Martin Evans gained his BA in Biochemistry from Christ College, University of Cambridge in 1963. He received an MA in 1966 and a DSc in 1996. In 1969 he was awarded a PhD degree from University College, London.

After graduating from Cambridge, he decided on a career studying the genetic control of vertebrate development. His early research led him to explore the use of cultures of mouse teratocarcinoma stem cells in tissue culture systems. He was the first to maintain these cells in tissue culture under conditions where their ability to differentiate was retained indefinitely.

It was not until 1981, after his return to Cambridge, that he was able to isolate similar cells from normal mouse embryos. Subsequently he and his colleagues demonstrated that these cells, which became known as "embryonic stem cells" (ES cells), were able to be used to fully regenerate fertile breeding mice from the tissue culture cells and that these could therefore carry mutations introduced and selected or screened for in culture. This is now the basis of all the mouse knockout and targeted genetic manipulation.

These fundamental developments created new routes to experimental mammalian genetics and hence functional genomics. Since then, Professor Evans, who came to Cardiff University, School of Biosciences in 1999, has been exploiting gene knockout and gene trap





methods both for novel discovery and to create animal modes of human disease. From his laboratory came the first demonstration of gene therapy to cure the deficit in Cystic Fibrosis in the whole animal and, from a mutated mouse model, insights into the breast cancer gene BRCA2 functions.

Professor Evans has published more than 150 scientific papers. He is a Fellow of the Royal Society and a founder Fellow of the Academy of Medical Sciences. In 1993 he was awarded the Walter Cottman Fellowship and the William Bate Hardy Prizes. He was awarded the prestigious Albert Lasker Award for Basic Medical Research in the US in 2001. In 2002 he was also awarded an honorary doctorate from Mount Sinai School of Medicine in New York, regarded as one of the world's foremost centres for medical and scientific training. He was knighted in 2004 for his services to medical science, and in 2005 was awarded an honorary DSc by the University of Bath.

In October 2007 he was awarded the Nobel Prize for Medicine, the most prestigious honour in world science along with Mario Capecchi and Oliver Smithies, for a series of ground-breaking discoveries concerning embryonic stem cells and DNA recombination in mammals. In 2008 he was named Morgan Stanley Great Briton for Science and Innovation and awarded an honorary DSc by the University of Athens.

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[\*\*] Copyright The Nobel Foundation 2007. We thank the Nobel Foundation, Stockholm, for permission to print this lecture. In a developmental system there may be a complexity of environment, a progressive developmental time course and a multiplicity of cells and interacting components. Isolation of such systems into culture allows both simplification and experimental access. Tissue culture of disaggregated cells, in particular, allows for isolation and purification of cell type by cloning and detailed manipulation of culture conditions. It also gives an entrée to a genetic analysis via somatic cell genetics. It was for such reasons that in the late 1960s I sought an in vitro developmental system. Genetic knowledge for any culturable system from higher organisms was at that time sparse, but best for chick and mouse.

I had been looking for messenger RNA changes during development mainly in early *Xenopus* embryos. By the end of the 1960s, it was becoming clear to me that, for such molecular studies, not only was a larger-scale manipulable system needed, but also one with a better genetic potential. Excellent organ culture systems of the early and mid development of chick were available, but these were difficult to deconstruct into the tissue-culture level. Some genetics were available, but the chick karyotype was a problem for somatic cell genetic approaches. Mammalian embryos were, by contrast, extremely inaccessible, but in vitro culture of the early preimplantation stages had been developed.<sup>[1]</sup> Mammalian long-term tissue culture was better established, and mouse genetics were at least comparable to those of the chick. Somatic cell genetic approaches were more available.

Robin Weiss drew my attention to two important reviews of work with mouse teratocarcinomas published in 1967 which pointed the way to an opportunity to develop a tissue-culture system for studies of cellular differentiation.<sup>[2,3]</sup> Stevens reviewed his work in which he had established inbred strains of mice with a high incidence of spontaneous testicular teratocarcinomas, shown that these tumours were transplantable and demonstrated their origin from primordial germ cells in the foetal testis. He also showed that they could be experimentally induced by ectopic transplantation both of these primordial germ cells and of early embryos, that is, of sources of pluripotential cells. Prophetically, Stevens and Little in their paper of 1954<sup>[4]</sup> set the field by saying of their transplantable teratocarcinomas "Pluripotential embryonic cells appear to give rise to both rapidly differentiating cells and others which like themselves, remain undifferentiated"; this is the definition of an embryonic stem (ES) cell.

Pierce and his colleagues provided a long series of experimental studies, including demonstrating growth of cells from the tumours in tissue culture, but the single most important demonstration was that of Kleinsmith and Pierce,<sup>[5]</sup> who showed that transplantation of a single cell in vivo could result in a fully differentiating teratocarcinoma; unequivocally establishing the presence of the pluripotential tumour stem cells. These cells were named following the human nomenclature as embryonal carcinoma (EC) cells.

In May 1969, Leroy Stevens very generously sent me stocks of 129 inbred mice some carrying transplantable teratocarcinomas.<sup>(6)</sup> From tumours passaged from this stock, I was able to establish clonal tissue cultures which retained their full pluripotency, as demonstrated by their ability to differentiate as a tumour in vivo.<sup>[7]</sup> One significant feature of this isolation and cloning was that irradiated chick embryo fibroblasts were used as a feeder layer. It was noted that when the use of this irradiated feeder layer was discontinued, the cultures spontaneously generated differentiated cell types (E cells) as well as maintaining the stem cell line (C cells). Retrospectively, we can see that these E cells do indeed arise by differentiation from the stem cells and that they provide a balanced, mixed population where the pluripotency of the stem cells is maintained by the feeder effect of the associated differentiated products. At the time, however, the processes of differentiation were unclear, and it was not possible to see extensive differentiation in vitro. I published a detailed discussion of the situation in 1975<sup>[8]</sup> which shows the difficulty of interpretation just as we were beginning to see differentiation in vitro. It is also of retrospective interest that it was here where I first proposed that pluripotential embryonic cells should be able to be cultured directly from normal embryos; something which was not to be achieved for another six years; "I should like to suggest that it may be quite feasible to obtain cultures of pluripotent cells directly from the embryo now that experience has been obtained handling such cells, and that the earlier results of Cole, Edwards and Paul<sup>[9]</sup> with cultures from rabbit blastocysts should not necessarily inhibit further efforts in this direction."

During this time, moreover, studies started to indicate the very close relationship of these cultured embryonal carcinoma cells to their primordial germ cell and normal embryo counterparts.

Repeated inoculation of syngeneic mice with irradiated teratocarcinoma cell cultures results in antisera that react with the cell surface of the EC cells.<sup>[10]</sup> Unaltered teratomas are still, however, produced in these hyperimmunised mice by inoculation with live EC cells. The same specific cell-surface antigens are present upon the cells of early mouse embryos and germ cells.<sup>[11]</sup> Although originally these antigens were thought to be cell-surface proteins associated with the wild-type t-locus, this was disproved by careful genetic studies,<sup>[12]</sup> and it subsequently became apparent from studies with human monoclonal autoantibody sera that they were cell-surface carbohydrate moieties.<sup>[13-15]</sup> The branching of these carbohydrate chains differs on the ES cells and their differentiated progeny, as also seen in the development of the early mouse embryo. Studies with these and the usefully discriminatory Forssman antigen demonstrated that the EC cells had a similar cell-surface phenotype only to the pluripotential cells of the early pre- and postimplantation mouse embryo.<sup>[16, 17]</sup> In addition, high-resolution, two-dimensional electrophoretic analysis of nascent protein synthesis suggested that the EC cells were very similar to early embryo cell types, but in particular matched the 5 day ectoderm.[18]

Perhaps the most dramatic indication of the similarity of EC cells to the early embryo was their ability to become reincorporated into a mouse blastocyst and develop into a healthy mouse with tissue contributions from the EC cells. The first indications of this were published by Brinster.<sup>[19]</sup> My experiments together with Richard Gardner and his colleagues<sup>[20,21]</sup> showed

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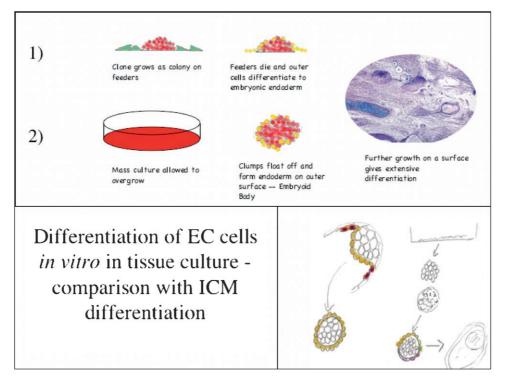


Figure 1. Comparison of differentiation of EC cells in vitro in tissue culture and ICM differentiation.

that very extensive chimaerism across most tissues of the mouse was achievable using tissue culture EC cells, but that some of these animals showed later-origin tumours of differentiated cell types. (Some EC cell stocks—apparently those which through progression in cell culture differentiated more poorly—gave rise to animals bearing early-origin undifferentiated tumours.) None of these mice was able to transmit the teratoma-origin genome through their gametes, most probably because the cells used were aneuploid. In any case, it became apparent that, for effective germline transmission, both euploidy and excellent and uncompromised cellular differentiation would be needed.

Progress in understanding the differentiation of the cells in vitro (which can be very extensive and equivalent to that seen in a teratoma) gave rise to one of the important conceptual breakthroughs-the realisation that the differentiation of the EC cells was not abnormal, disorganised, random or stochastic, but followed the normal pathways of early embryonic development (Figure 1). We noticed that, in every situation where the EC cells were allowed to differentiate, the first differentiated cells to appear were primary embryonic endoderm.<sup>[22,23b]</sup> Gail Martin and I had been investigating the relationship of the C cells and E cells in the culture and used very careful recloning of isolated single cells on feeder layers. Homogeneous cultures of the C cells (the embryonal carcinoma cells) were able to be maintained by passage on feeder layers, but when the feeders were removed, the cells clumped up and some became detached as small colonies which formed embryoid bodies.<sup>[23a]</sup> EC cell clumps in suspension formed simple embryoid bodies, and, when these were allowed to develop further, they became more complex cystic bodies in suspension or, if allowed to attach to the tissueculture surface, spread out and developed into a mixture of cells and tissues which, on section, proved equivalent in complexity and organisation to the wide diversity of tissues seen in a teratoma.<sup>[23c]</sup> Similar extensive differentiation was seen if an individual colony arising from a clone on feeders was allowed to continue to grow after the feeders died out.[22] It is clear that this differentiation is the same process as that seen when cells on the blastocoelic surface of the inner cell mass (ICM) differentiate into the primary endoderm; an isolated ICM becomes surrounded by a rind of endoderm.<sup>[24]</sup>

In about 1980, I had again been trying to isolate cells from ICMs and had generated numbers of endodermal cultures. I

devoted some time to considering why it had not proved possible to isolate cells equivalent to EC cells directly from early mouse embryos, and this is written up in a review published in 1981.<sup>[25]</sup> The main points of note are:

- 1) EC cells from culture form teratocarcinomas upon transplantation in vivo.
- 2) Teratocarcinomas containing EC cells were able to be made by ectopic transplantation of embryos from the two-cell stage through to the dissected embryonic ectoderm from embryos of 7.5 days of development.
- 3) The cell-surface phenotype and the spectrum of protein synthesis suggested that the closest match to EC cells was later than the 3.5 day ICM and earlier than the 6.5 day ecto-derm.
- 4) EC cells in culture entered into differentiation as though they were ICM cells.
- 5) EC cells could cooperate with the ICM of a blastocyst in the development of a chimaeric mouse.

I considered that there might be three classes of reason why EC cells had not been grown directly from explanted embryos or dissected embryo tissues.

 There might be only very small numbers of founder cells available and therefore success in vitro would depend upon the highest efficiency of cloning. By that time I had been slowly improving the cloning efficiency of passaged EC cells (both mouse EC cells and human teratocarcinomaderived cells) and, using this as a test for optimising the media and conditions, arrived at a mix known around the lab at the time as "Martin's Magic Medium" or MMM. The feeder layer used was also optimised by the same test. Retrospectively, an optimised medium and procedure is entirely necessary but numerous variants are possible.

- 2) The timing might be more critical than in vivo, where processes of onward development or even regression could take place more readily. Retrospectively, we now know that cultures of ES cells have been satisfactorily established from cleaving embryos through to late 4.5 day, so this was not the main problem.
- 3) It was known that the amount of differentiation of teratocarcinomas tended to diminish with tumour passage. EC cell lines diminished in their readiness to differentiate with tissue culture passage. This raised the possibility that adaptation to tumour and to tissue culture growth involved selection of cell lines which were slower to trigger differentiation, and that maybe native cells directly from the embryo would differentiate so readily that the stem cell line was immediately lost. Thus conditions most conducive to maintenance of the undifferentiated stem cell state would be needed. In addition to the media supporting the best cloning efficiency, this meant using optimised feeder cell layers and using repeated disagregation and passage so as not to allow the cells to form local concentrations. I said "embryonal carcinoma lines which differentiate in vitro are difficult to maintain in an undifferentiated state, even with the help of feeder layers. It is very likely that even these lines have already been highly selected for the ability to be maintained in tissue culture and concomitantly for less ready differentiation. Their genuine embryonic counterpart may differentiate and lose its pluripotency and rapid growth characteristics all too readily under culture conditions."[25] Retrospectively this was probably the most cogent reason. Freshly isolated ES cell lines can differentiate precipitately if not prevented.

Collaboration with Matt Kaufman brought, critically, expertise and experience with early mouse embryo manipulation. He had been exploring the developmental potential of parthenogenetic embryos, in particular haploid embryos, and had discovered that such haploid embryos could be persuaded to develop to an early postimplantation stage.<sup>[26]</sup> These embryos tend to have a reduced cell number at the blastocyst stage, and, in order to allow a compensatory increase before their implantation, Kaufman had utilised implantational delay. We therefore sought to use such delayed blastocysts as a source of haploid cells in culture. In the first place, we used diploid delayed blastocysts from strain 129 mice, and, upon explantation, I was able to see outgrowths of instantly recognisable EClike cells. These were able to be picked and maintained in passage tissue culture and had all the expected properties of the sought-after, primarily isolated pluripotent cells.[27] Most importantly, they were euploid XY cells and, with careful culture, maintained a stable karyotype. Interestingly, the XX cells from female embryos were also isolated, but had a less-stable karyotype, presumably because of the long-term chromosomal imbalance without X-inactivation.[28]

We viewed these cells as normal derivatives from the embryo and confidently expected that they would prove useful vectors to the mouse germ line. Martin, later in the year, using a different method, reported the establishment of similar cultures directly from embryos, but these did not retain a normal karyotype.<sup>[29]</sup> She provided the important nomenclature of Embryonic Stem Cells.

Together with Liz Robertson and Allan Bradley, we were soon able to show that progeny of the ES cells were able to form functional germ cells (both sperm and ova) in chimaeric mice. Interestingly, male ES cells were often able to transform the sexual differentiation of a female host blastocyst and result in a male chimaeric mouse where, as only the ES-derived cells carrying a Y chromosome were able to make sperm, 100% of the germline transmission was from the tissue-culture-derived cells.<sup>[30]</sup>

Transgenesis and mutagenesis was clearly the next step, and I chose to use retroviral vectors, which have the advantage of cleanly integrated transgenesis and that any mutation caused by this integration is clearly marked by the foreign DNA. It should be remembered that, at this time, the genetic maps were rudimentary, there was little gene and virtually no genomic sequence data. Thus clean transgene integration associated with mutation was a route to gene discovery.

Using this technique we were able to demonstrate the transmission of sequences introduced by retroviral vectors in vitro into the mouse germline<sup>[31,32]</sup> and used several methods to recover newly induced mutation of endogenous loci.

The way was now clear to an experimental genetics for mice. Transgenes could be introduced in culture, and the structure verified before introduction into the germline. New mutations could be tested both in vitro and in vivo. It was around this time that the possibilities of using homologous recombination gene targeting, which had been developed by both Oliver Smithies and Mario Capecchi to specifically alter endogenous loci, became available, and subsequently this has been the most important method for the experimental genetics. These techniques depend upon the availability of cloned sequences for the target gene, and the advances in knowledge of mammalian and, in particular, mouse genomic sequences has been pivotal. Possibly about one quarter of available loci have already been targeted, and indeed complete coverage of specifically induced mutation in the mouse is now planned.  $\ensuremath{^{[33]}}$ This is all dependent upon the technology of using mouse ES cells as a vector to the mouse germline. We have described studies on numbers of induced and specifically targeted mutations. I shall here, however, mention only some examples of our experiments using retroviral vectors and one example of gene targeting using homologous recombination.

In the first place, it would be useful to be able to select a specific mutation in culture. The most feasible candidate was Hprt, which, being X-linked, is present as only a single copy in XY cells and in which mutation is selectable because, in its absence, the cells are resistant to the otherwise lethal incorporation of 6-thoguanine. Two independent mutations were recovered from ES cell cultures superinfected with retroviral vectors and transferred to the mouse germline.<sup>[34]</sup> Retrospectively one

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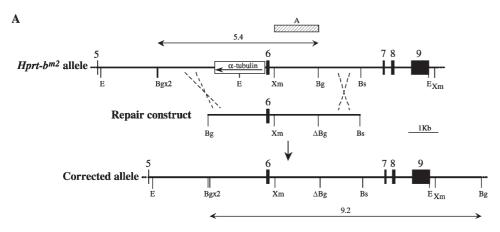
of the two turned out to be not the expected clean proviral insertion but an example of retroposition of an endogenous processed message. This is an interesting observation of an unusual event; such elements are commonly found in genomic sequences and may well be the products of retroviral reverse transcriptase. Our proof that the  $\alpha$ -tubulin-processed pseudogene was the cause of this Hprt mutation is an interesting example of the use of homologous recombination in ES cells. It is particularly clear because it is without complications of associated vector or selection elements (Figure 2).<sup>[35]</sup>

A retroviral vector insertion transmitted through the germline may be screened for phenotypic effect. The absence of homozygous offspring from a heterozygote intercross is indicative of an embryonic lethality. One such example is the insertion 413d, which identified a homozygous lethal locus (subsequently renamed nodal). Robertson and her colleagues<sup>[36,37]</sup> demonstrated that death occurred in the homozygous embryos at an early postimplantation stage but was not a cell autonomous lethality, as ES cells homozygous for the insertion could be isolated from blastocysts. Kuehn et al.<sup>[38]</sup> cloned the locus and showed that it was expressed as a secreted factor controlling axis formation in gastrulation. It is interesting to note that nodal expression may be a key controller of differentiation of ES cells.<sup>[39]</sup>

A direct physical phenotype may also be observed, for instance ref. [40] described a dominant mutation causing a craniofacial dysmorphology resulting from constitutive upregulation of Fgf3&4 in the developing skull.

Another very useful technique has been that of gene trapping<sup>[41,42]</sup> reviewed in <sup>[43]</sup> where a reporter gene is used to find retroviral vector insertion which falls within a functional locus. Numerous interesting mutations have been recovered in this way, and the complex developmental and behavioural consequences of partial inactivation of the histone H3.3a may be quoted as an example.<sup>[44]</sup> These types of approaches allow gene function discovery by phenotype, but nowadays gene-targeting technology allows any designer mutation to be introduced into the mouse germline as a direct experimental approach. In addition to simple mutation, methods have been developed which allow both spatial and temporal control of gene deletion or of function.<sup>[45]</sup> All these studies are dependant upon the combination of in vitro cell genetic manipulation and selection coupled with true in vivo observation of the physiological consequences in the context of the whole animal. This has been made possible by tissue culture of embryonic stem cells.

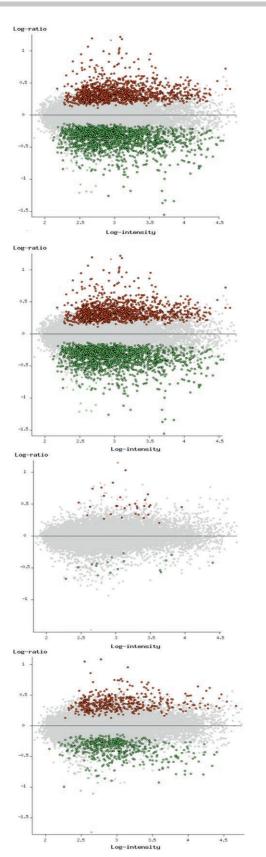
I have been interested in the relationship between embryonal carcinoma cells, normal embryo cells and embryonic stem cells for many years.<sup>[46]</sup> It was the close relationship between EC cells and early embryo pluripotential cells, as shown by both their cell-surface phenotype and by the extensive match of nascent protein synthesis patterns, that helped to lead the way to the isolation of embryonic stem cells. Together with Susan Hunter, we have been utilising an analysis of global transcriptional patterns to compare embryonic stem cells in culture with normal early mouse embryo pluripotential tissues. These studies show considerable differences between ICM from blastocysts of either 3.5 or 4.5 days of development and ES cells, but a remarkable match with ectoderm from 5.5 days of development (Figure 3). This match is all the more remarkable as we are comparing cells isolated directly from the normal, unmanipulated, in vivo embryo with ES cells from an established cell line growing in an artificial serum-containing tissue-culture medium on a plastic surface. It was always possible that mouse ES cells are effectively an artefact of culture and only become "normalised" by re-incorporation into an embryo and re-entrained into normal development by virtue of the influence from the environment of the host embryo. Alternatively, they might represent a normal stem cell population. These present studies suggest that any culture adaptations away from a normal state are minimal.



**Figure 2.** We found that the change in the Hprt-b<sup>m<sup>2</sup></sup> allele appeared to be not the expected retroviral vector insertion but an insertion of an  $\alpha$ -tubulin-processed pseudogene in inverse orientation close to, but not disrupting, the coding sequence of exon 6. In order to prove that this genomic change was responsible for the mutation, we used homologous recombination with a repair construct, which was a purified DNA fragment identical with the normal gene sequence across this interval but with a single change to remove a Bglll restriction site for diagnostic purposes. This construct efficiently targeted the mutant allele and restored function. Southern blot analysis confirmed that only change was removal of the  $\alpha$ -tubulin insert. This is a clear example of homologous recombination gene targeting without any complications of selectable markers or associated vectors. Adapted from ref. [35].

Embryonic stem cells have, therefore, delivered a major platform technology for experimental genetic manipulation which is delivering most important theoretical understanding and practical medical benefit. They are also proving greatly instrumental in delivering a second platform technology of stem-cell-based regenerative medicine. One of the original aims of the tissue culture of EC cells was to provide a tractable system for the study of cellular determination and differentiation in vitro. This was achieved, but with the mouse cells has not yet been fully exploited. With the advent of human ES cells and the possibilities of

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using them as a renewable source of tissue-specific precursors for tissue transplant therapies and regenerative medicine,<sup>[47]</sup> the importance of understanding and controlling ES cell determination and differentiation in vitro has been highlighted. It is clear that the utility of isolation, maintenance and use of pluripotential stem cells has a long and important future.

**Keywords:** embryonic stem cells · gene targeting · mutations · Nobel lecture · retroviral vectors

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**Figure 3.** ES cells in culture were compared with tissues isolated from early mouse embryos by microarray transcriptomics. c-DNA was isolated from ICMs or dissected epiblast and compared with c-DNA isolated from ES cells, amplified by two rounds T7 transcription and hybridised to slides printed with the 15k NIA c-DNA probes. Unpublished results Susan Hunter and M.E. Charts of log ratio vs. log intensity: A) 3.5 day immunosurgically isolated ICM vs. ES cells; C) 5.5 day dissected epiblast vs. ES cells; D) 6.5 day dissected primary ectoderm vs. ES cells. Global anova analysis; red spots significantly overexpressed by embryo samples, green spots significantly underexpressed by embryo samples. False discovery rate set to < 0.01. Note the exceptional match between ES cells and 5.5 day epiblast.

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