Algorithms in Biology

Molecular Organization und Evolution

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Algorithmen des Lebens

Lentos Kunstmuseum, Linz, 30.05.2006

Web-Page for further information:

http://www.tbi.univie.ac.at/~pks

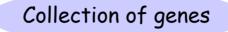
Algorithm = A rule of procedure for solving a (mathematical) problem in a finite number of steps that frequently involves repetition of an operation.

> Webster's New Encyclopedic Dictionary, Black Dog & Levinthal Publishers Inc., New York 1995.

Nothing in biology makes sense except in the light of evolution.

Theodosius Dobzhansky, 1973.

Genotype, Genome



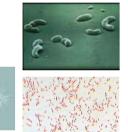
Unfolding of the genotype











Developmental program Highly specific environmental conditions

Phenotype

Evolution explains the origin of species and their interactions





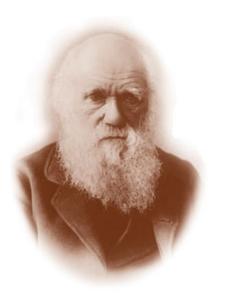












Three necessary conditions for Darwinian evolution are:

- 1. Multiplication,
- 2. Variation, and
- 3. Selection.

Variation through mutation and recombination operates on the genotype whereas the phenotype is the target of selection.

One important property of the Darwinian scenario is that variations in the form of mutations or recombination events occur uncorrelated with their effects on the selection process.

All conditions can be fulfilled not only by cellular organisms but also by nucleic acid molecules in suitable cell-free experimental assays.

The holism versus reductionism debate

The holistic approach

Macroscopic biologists aim at a top-down approach to describe the phenomena observed in biology.



The reductionists' program

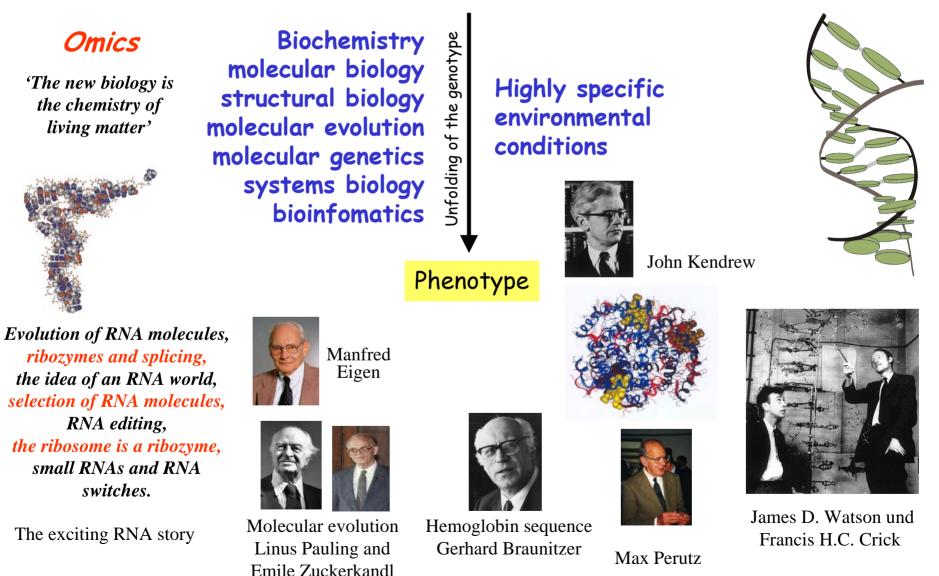
Molecular biologists perform a bottom-up approach to interpret biological phenomena by the methods of chemistry and physics. What should be the attitude of a biologist working on whole organisms to molecular biology? It is, I think, foolish to argue that we (the macroscopic biologists) are discovering things that disprove molecular biology. It would be more sensible to say to molecular biologists that there are phenomena that they will one day have to interpret in their terms.

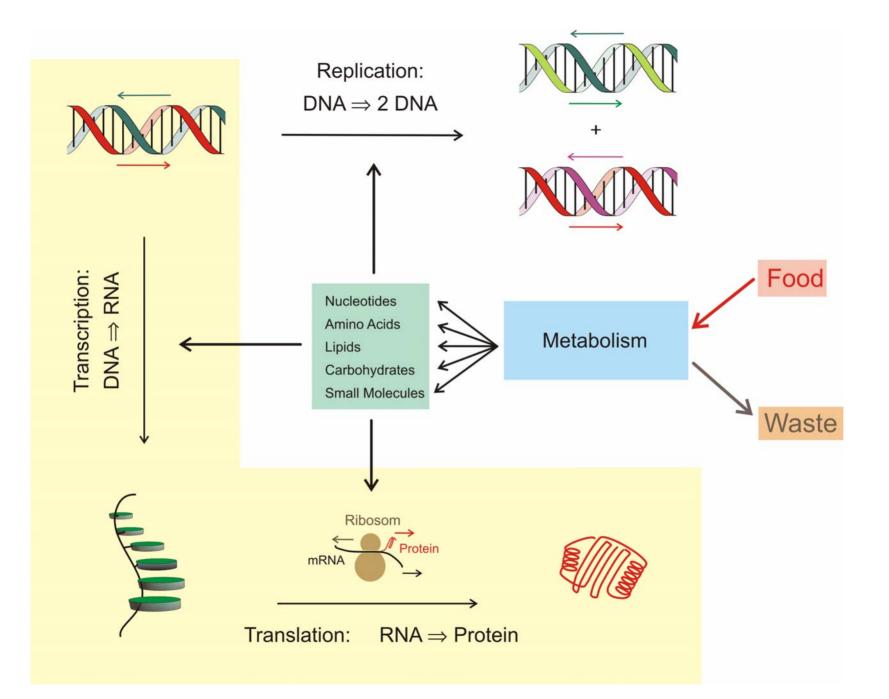
> John Maynard Smith, The problems of biology. Oxford University Press, 1986.

Genotype, Genome

Genetic information

GCGGATTTAGCTCAGTTGGGAGAGCGCCAGACTGAAGATCTGGAGGTCCTGTGTTCGATCCACAGAATTCGCACCA

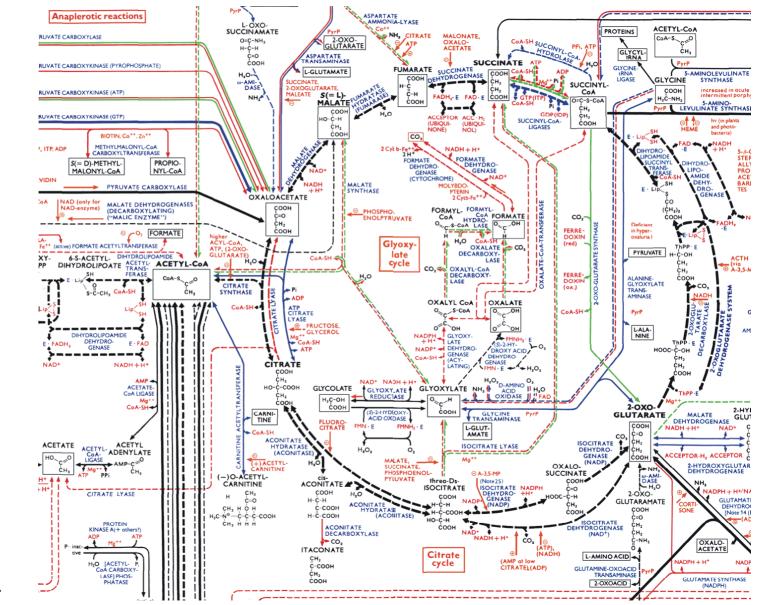




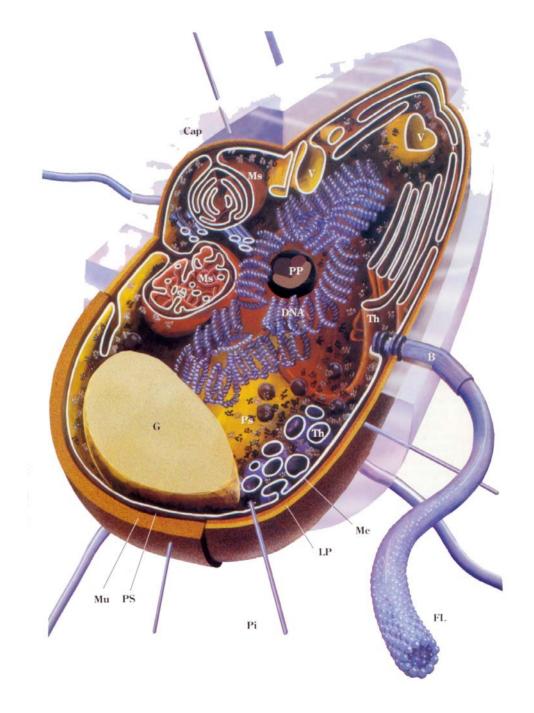
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	Number of Genes	4 000		
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Man:	Length of the Genome Number of Cell Types	3×10 ⁹ Nucleotides 200		
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The reaction network of cellular metabolism published by Boehringer-Ingelheim.



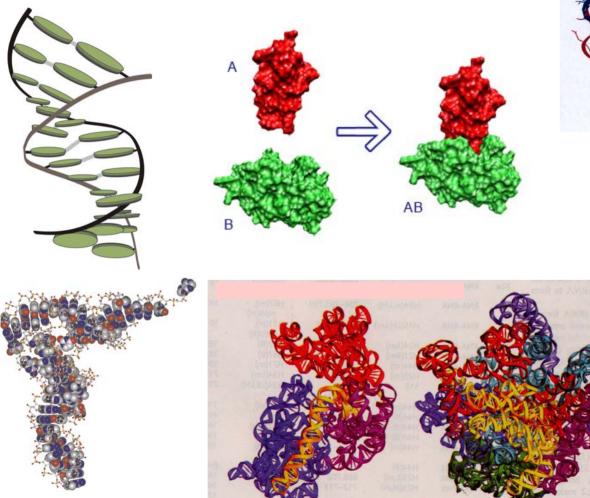
The citric acid or Krebs cycle (enlarged from previous slide).

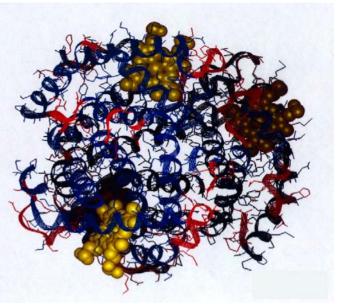


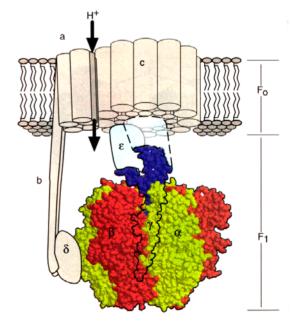
The spatial structure of the bacterium *Escherichia coli*

Structural biology

Proteins, nucleic acids, supramolecular complexes, molecular machines

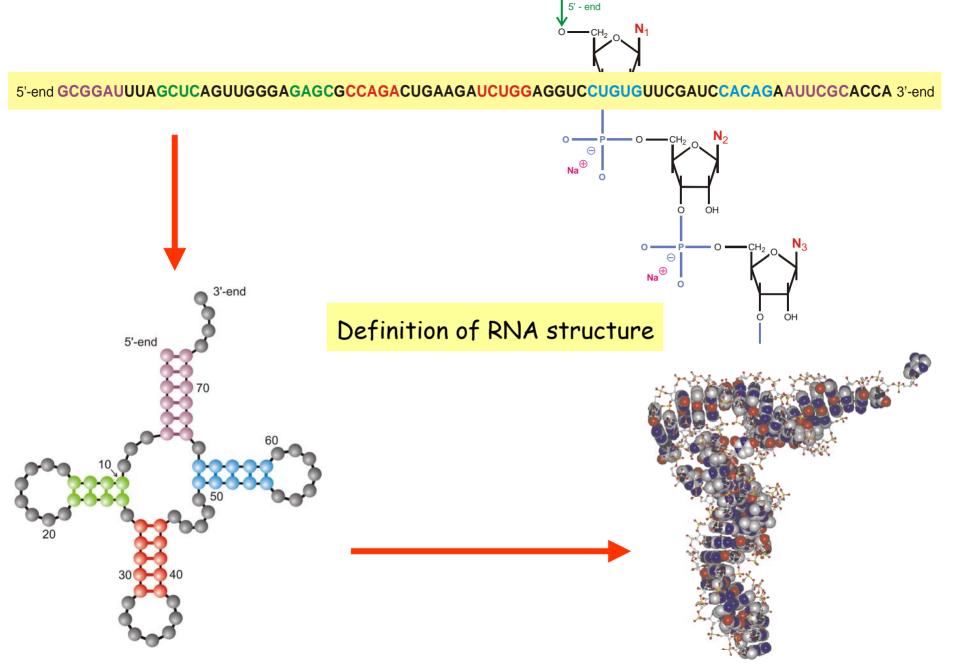






Three-dimensional structure of the complex between the regulatory protein **cro-repressor** and the binding site on λ -phage **B-DNA**





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Fast Folding and Comparison of RNA Secondary Structures

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Summary. Computer codes for computation and comparison of RNA secondary structures, the Vienna RNA package, are presented, that are based on dynamic programming algorithms and aim at predictions of structures with minimum free energies as well as at computations of the equilibrium partition functions and base pairing probabilities.

An efficient heuristic for the inverse folding problem of RNA is introduced. In addition we present compact and efficient programs for the comparison of RNA secondary structures based on tree editing and alignment.

All computer codes are written in ANSI C. They include implementations of modified algorithms on parallel computers with distributed memory. Performance analysis carried out on an Intel Hypercube shows that parallel computing becomes gradually more and more efficient the longer the sequences are.

Keywords. Inverse folding; parallel computing; public domain software; RNA folding; RNA secondary structures; tree editing.

Schnelle Faltung und Vergleich von Sekundärstrukturen von RNA

Zusammenfassung. Die im Vienna RNA package enthaltenen Computer Programme für die Berechnung und den Vergleich von RNA Sekundärstrukturen werden präsentiet. Ihren Kern bilden Algorithmen zur Vorhersage von Strukturen minimaler Energie sowie zur Berechnung von Zustandssumme und Basenpaarungswahrscheinlichkeiten mittels dynamischer Programmierung.

Ein effizienter heuristischer Algorithmus für das inverse Faltungsproblem wird vorgestellt. Darüberhinaus präsentieren wir kompakte und effiziente Programme zum Vergleich von RNA Sekundärstrukturen durch Baum-Editierung und Alignierung.

Alle Programme sind in ANSI C geschrieben, darunter auch eine Implementation des Faltungsalgorithmus für Parallelrechner mit verteiltem Speicher. Wie Tests auf einem Intel Hypercube zeigen, wird das Parallelrechnen umso effizienter je länger die Sequenzen sind.

1. Introduction

Recent interest in RNA structures and functions was caused by their catalytic capacities [1,2] as well as by the success of selection methods in producing RNA

The Vienna RNA package

RNA sequence GUAUCGAAAUACGUAGCGUAUGGGGAUGCUGGACGGUCCCAUCGGUACUCCA



Structural biology, spectroscopy of biomolecules, understanding molecular function

Biophysical chemistry: thermodynamics and kinetics **Empirical parameters RNA structure** of minimal free energy

Sequence, structure, and design

RNA sequence GUAUCGAAAUACGUAGCGUAUGGGGAUGCUGGACGGUCCCAUCGGUACUCCA

RNA folding:

Structural biology, spectroscopy of biomolecules, understanding molecular function Iterative determination of a sequence for the given secondary structure

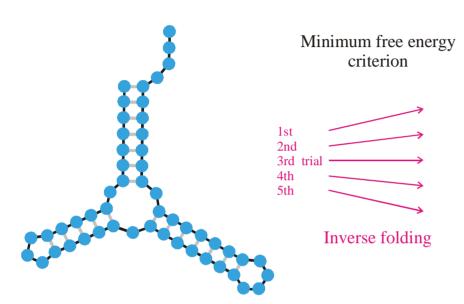
> Inverse Folding Algorithm

Inverse folding of RNA:

Biotechnology, design of biomolecules with predefined structures and functions

RNA structure of minimal free energy

Sequence, structure, and design



UUUAGCCAGCGCGAGUCGUGCGGACGGGGUUAUCUCUGUCGGGCUAGGGCGC GUGAGCGCGGGGCACAGUUUCUCAAGGAUGUAAGUUUUUGCCGUUUAUCUGG UUAGCGAGAGAGGAGGCUUCUAGACCCAGCUCUCUGGGUCGUUGCUGAUGCG CAUUGGUGCUAAUGAUAUUAGGGCUGUAUUCCUGUAUAGCGAUCAGUGUCCG GUAGGCCCUCUUGACAUAAGAUUUUUCCAAUGGUGGGAGAUGGCCAUUGCAG

The **inverse folding algorithm** searches for sequences that form a given RNA secondary structure under the minimum free energy criterion.

From sequences to shapes and back: a case study in RNA secondary structures

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 ³ Santa Fe Institute, Santa Fe, U.S.A.

SUMMARY

RNA folding is viewed here as a map assigning secondary structures to sequences. At fixed chain length the number of sequences far exceeds the number of structures. Frequencies of structures are highly nonuniform and follow a generalized form of Zipf's law: we find relatively few common and many rare ones. By using an algorithm for inverse folding, we show that sequences sharing the same structure are distributed randomly over sequence space. All common structures can be accessed from an arbitrary sequence by a number of mutations much smaller than the chain length. The sequence space is percolated by extensive neutral networks connecting nearest neighbours folding into identical structures. Implications for evolutionary adaptation and for applied molecular evolution are evident: finding a particular structure by mutation and selection is much simpler than expected and, even if catalytic activity should turn out to be sparse in the space of RNA structures, it can hardly be missed by evolutionary processes.

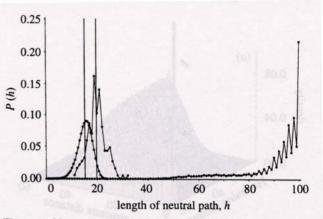
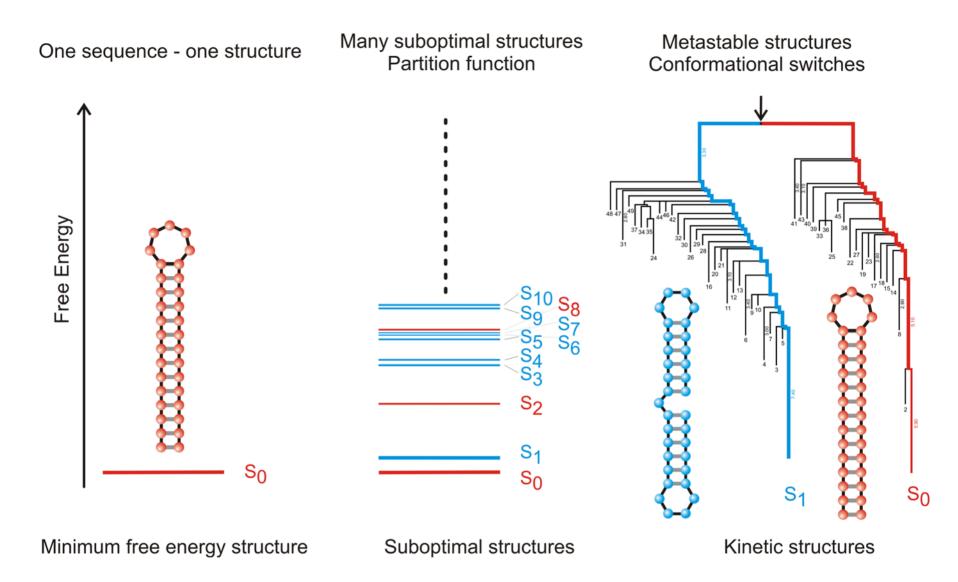


Figure 4. Neutral paths. A neutral path is defined by a series of nearest neighbour sequences that fold into identical structures. Two classes of nearest neighbours are admitted: neighbours of Hamming distance 1, which are obtained by single base exchanges in unpaired stretches of the structure. and neighbours of Hamming distance 2, resulting from base pair exchanges in stacks. Two probability densities of Hamming distances are shown that were obtained by searching for neutral paths in sequence space: (i) an upper bound for the closest approach of trial and target sequences (open circles) obtained as endpoints of neutral paths approaching the target from a random trial sequence (185 targets and 100 trials for each were used); (ii) a lower bound for the closest approach of trial and target sequences (open diamonds) derived from secondary structure statistics (Fontana et al. 1993a; see this paper, §4); and (iii) longest distances between the reference and the endpoints of monotonously diverging neutral paths (filled circles) (500 reference sequences were used).

Proc. R. Soc. Lond. B (1994) 255, 279–284 Printed in Great Britain 279

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Reference for postulation and *in silico* verification of *neutral networks*



RNA secondary structures derived from a single sequence



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S0092-8240(96)00089-4

GENERIC PROPERTIES OF COMBINATORY MAPS: NEUTRAL NETWORKS OF RNA SECONDARY STRUCTURES¹

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Random graph theory is used to model and analyse the relationships between sequences and secondary structures of RNA molecules, which are understood as mappings from sequence space into shape space. These maps are non-invertible since there are always many orders of magnitude more sequences than structures. Sequences folding into identical structures form neutral networks. A neutral network is embedded in the set of sequences that are compatible with the given structure. Networks are modeled as graphs and constructed by random choice of vertices from the space of compatible sequences. The theory characterizes neutral networks by the mean fraction of neutral neighbors (λ). The networks are connected and percolate sequence space if the fraction of neutral nearest neighbors exceeds a threshold value $(\lambda > \lambda^*)$. Below threshold $(\lambda < \lambda^*)$, the networks are partitioned into a largest "giant" component and several smaller components. Structures are classified as "common" or "rare" according to the sizes of their pre-images, i.e. according to the fractions of sequences folding into them. The neutral networks of any pair of two different common structures almost touch each other, and, as expressed by the conjecture of shape space covering sequences folding into almost all common structures, can be found in a small ball of an arbitrary location in sequence space. The results from random graph theory are compared to data obtained by folding large samples of RNA sequences. Differences are explained in terms of specific features of RNA molecular structures. © 1997 Society for Mathematical Biology

THEOREM 5. INTERSECTION-THEOREM. Let s and s' be arbitrary secondary structures and C[s], C[s'] their corresponding compatible sequences. Then,

$C[s] \cap C[s'] \neq \emptyset.$

Proof. Suppose that the alphabet admits only the complementary base pair [XY] and we ask for a sequence x compatible to both s and s'. Then $j(s, s') \cong D_m$ operates on the set of all positions $\{x_1, \ldots, x_n\}$. Since we have the operation of a dihedral group, the orbits are either cycles or chains and the cycles have even order. A constraint for the sequence compatible to both structures appears only in the cycles where the choice of bases is not independent. It remains to be shown that there is a valid choice of bases for each cycle, which is obvious since these have even order. Therefore, it suffices to choose an alternating sequence of the pairing partners X and Y. Thus, there are at least two different choices for the first base in the orbit.

Remark. A generalization of the statement of theorem 5 to three different structures is false.

Reference for the definition of the intersection and the proof of the **intersection theorem**

A ribozyme switch

E.A.Schultes, D.B.Bartel, Science **289** (2000), 448-452

minus the background levels observed in the HSP in the control (Sar1-GDP-containing) incubation that prevents COPII vesicle formation. In the microsome control, the level of p115-SNARE associations was less than 0.1%.

- C. M. Carr, E. Grote, M. Munson, F. M. Hughson, P. J. Novick, J. Cell Biol. 146, 333 (1999).
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50. GST-SNARE proteins were expressed in bacteria and purified on glutathione-Sepharose beads using standard methods. Immobilized GST-SNARE protein (0.5 μM) was incubated with rat liver cytosol (20 mg) or purified recombinant p115 (0.5 μM) in 1 ml of NS buffer containing 1% BSA for 2 hours at 4°C with rotation. Beads were briefly spun (3000 rpm for 10.s) and sequentially washed three times with NS buffer and three times with NS buffer supplemented with 150 ml NaCL Bound proteins were eluted three times in 50 μJ of 50 ml tris-HCl (pH 8.5), 50 ml reduced glutathione. 150 ml NaCL, and 0.1% Tirtion 0.1% Tirtion M NaCL.

REPORTS

X-100 for 15 min at 4°C with intermittent mixing, and elutes were pooled. Proteins were precipitated by MeOH/CH₃Cl and separated by SDS-polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis (PAGE) followed by immunoblotting using p115 mAb 13F12.

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- Mol. Biol. Cell 10, 1873 (1999). 61. C. G. Burd, M. Peterson, C. R. Cowles, S. D. Emr, Mol.
- Biol. Cell 8, 1089 (1997).

One Sequence, Two Ribozymes: Implications for the Emergence of New Ribozyme Folds

Erik A. Schultes and David P. Bartel*

We describe a single RNA sequence that can assume either of two ribozyme folds and catalyze the two respective reactions. The two ribozyme folds share no evolutionary history and are completely different, with no base pairs (and probably no hydrogen bonds) in common. Minor variants of this sequence are highly active for one or the other reaction, and can be accessed from prototype ribozymes through a series of neutral mutations. Thus, in the course of evolution, new RNA folds could arise from preexisting folds, without the need to carry inactive intermediate sequences. This raises the possibility that biological RNAs having no structural or functional similarity might share a common ancestry. Furthermore, functional and structural divergence might, in some cases, precede rather than follow gene duplication.

Related protein or RNA sequences with the same folded conformation can often perform very different biochemical functions, indicating that new biochemical functions can arise from preexisting folds. But what evolutionary mechanisms give rise to sequences with new macromolecular folds? When considering the origin of new folds, it is useful to picture, among all sequence possibilities, the distribution of sequences with a particular fold and function. This distribution can range very far in sequence space (1). For example, only seven nucleotides are strictly conserved among the group I selfsplicing introns, yet secondary (and presumably tertiary) structure within the core of the ribozyme is preserved (2). Because these disparate isolates have the same fold and function, it is thought that they descended from a common ancestor through a series of mutational variants that were each functional. Hence, sequence heterogeneity among divergent isolates implies the existence of paths through sequence space that have allowed neutral drift from the ancestral sequence to each isolate. The set of all possible neutral paths composes a "neutral network," connecting in sequence space those widely dispersed sequences sharing a particular fold and activity, such that any sequence on the network can potentially access very distant sequences by neutral mutations (3–5).

Theoretical analyses using algorithms for predicting RNA secondary structure have suggested that different neutral networks are interwoven and can approach each other very closely (3, 5–8). Of particular interest is whether ribozyme neutral networks approach each other so closely that they intersect. If so, a single sequence would be capable of folding into two different conformations, would M. R. Peterson, C. G. Burd, S. D. Emr, Curr. Biol. 9, 159 (1999).

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come Trust International Traveling Fellowship

20 March 2000; accepted 22 May 2000

(B.B.A.).

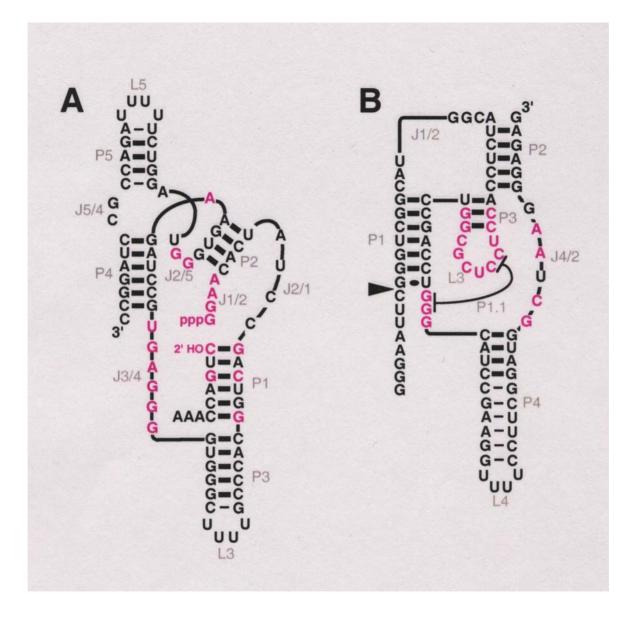
have two different catalytic activities, and could access by neutral drift every sequence on both networks. With intersecting networks, RNAs with novel structures and activities could arise from previously existing ribozymes, without the need to carry nonfunctional sequences as evolutionary intermediates. Here, we explore the proximity of neutral networks experimentally, at the level of RNA function. We describe a close apposition of the neutral networks for the hepatitis delta virus (HDV) self-cleaving ribozyme and the class III self-ligating ribozyme.

In choosing the two ribozymes for this investigation, an important criterion was that they share no evolutionary history that might confound the evolutionary interpretations of our results. Choosing at least one artificial ribozyme ensured independent evolutionary histories. The class III ligase is a synthetic ribozyme isolated previously from a pool of random RNA sequences (9). It joins an oligonucleotide substrate to its 5' terminus. The prototype ligase sequence (Fig. 1A) is a shortened version of the most active class III variant isolated after 10 cycles of in vitro selection and evolution. This minimal construct retains the activity of the full-length isolate (10). The HDV ribozyme carries out the site-specific self-cleavage reactions needed during the life cycle of HDV, a satellite virus of hepatitis B with a circular, single-stranded RNA genome (11). The prototype HDV construct for our study (Fig. 1B) is a shortened version of the antigenomic HDV ribozvme (12), which undergoes self-cleavage at a rate similar to that reported for other antigenomic constructs (13, 14).

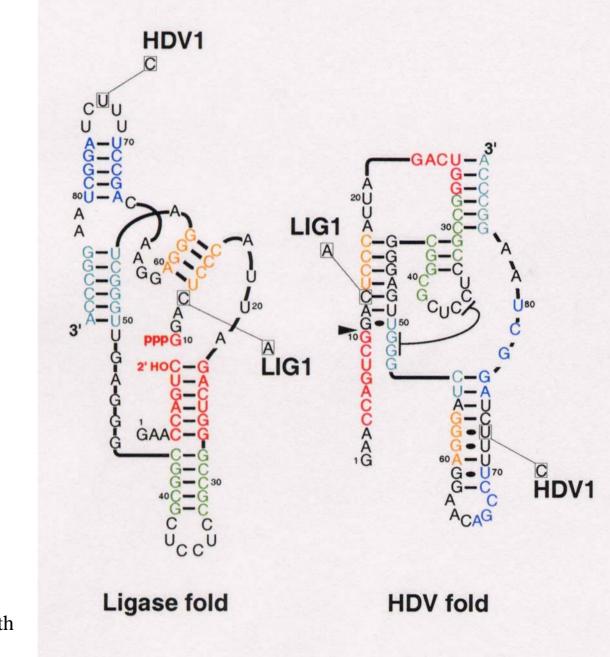
The prototype class III and HDV ribozymes have no more than the 25% sequence identity expected by chance and no fortuitous structural similarities that might favor an intersection of their two neutral networks. Nevertheless, sequences can be designed that simultaneously satisfy the base-pairing requirements

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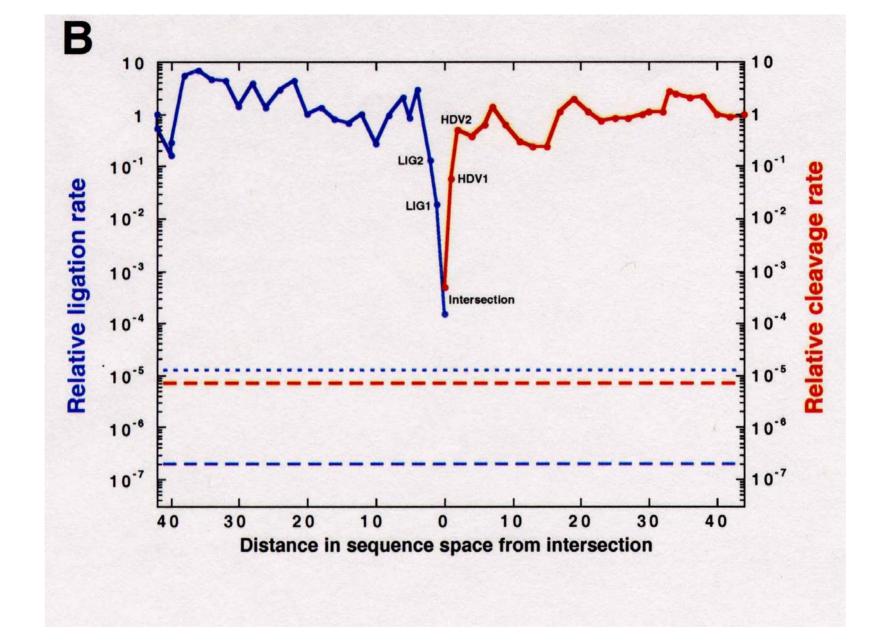


Two ribozymes of chain lengths n = 88 nucleotides: An artificial ligase (A) and a natural cleavage ribozyme of hepatitis- δ -virus (B)



The sequence at the *intersection*:

An RNA molecules which is 88 nucleotides long and can form both structures



Two neutral walks through sequence space with conservation of structure and catalytic activity

	Generation time	Selection and adaptation 10 000 generations	Genetic drift in small populations 10 ⁶ generations	Genetic drift in large populations 10 ⁷ generations
RNA molecules	10 sec	27.8 h = 1.16 d	115.7 d	3.17 a
	1 min	6.94 d	1.90 a	19.01 a
Bacteria	20 min	138.9 d	38.03 a	380 a
	10 h	11.40 a	1 140 a	11 408 a
Multicelluar organisms	10 d	274 a	27 380 a	273 800 a
	20 a	200 000 a	2×10^7 a	2×10^8 a

Time scales of evolutionary change

Evolution of RNA molecules based on $Q\beta$ phage

D.R.Mills, R.L.Peterson, S.Spiegelman, *An extracellular Darwinian experiment with a self-duplicating nucleic acid molecule*. Proc.Natl.Acad.Sci.USA **58** (1967), 217-224

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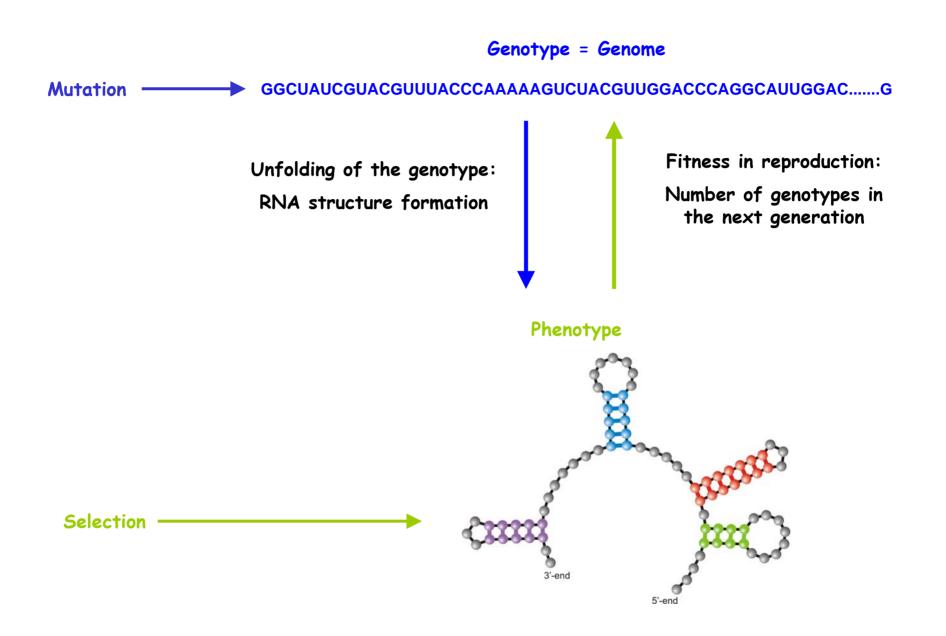
C.K.Biebricher, *Darwinian selection of self-replicating RNA molecules*. Evolutionary Biology **16** (1983), 1-52

G.Bauer, H.Otten, J.S.McCaskill, *Travelling waves of* in vitro evolving RNA. *Proc.Natl.Acad.Sci.USA* **86** (1989), 7937-7941

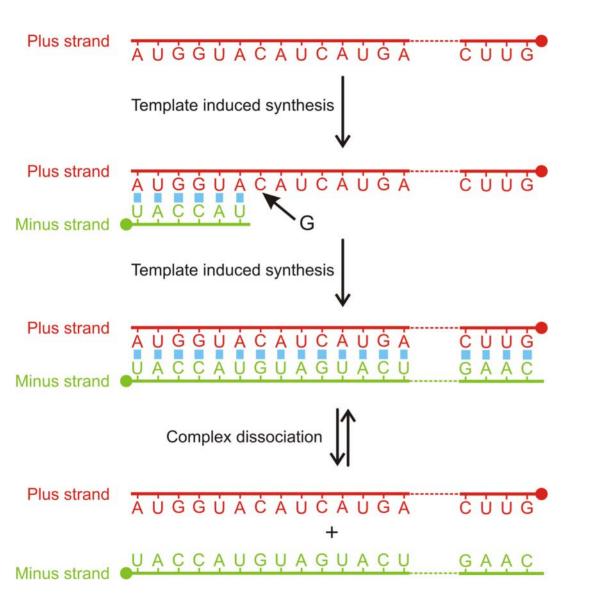
C.K.Biebricher, W.C.Gardiner, *Molecular evolution of RNA* in vitro. Biophysical Chemistry **66** (1997), 179-192

G.Strunk, T.Ederhof, *Machines for automated evolution experiments* in vitro based on the serial transfer concept. Biophysical Chemistry 66 (1997), 193-202

F.Öhlenschlager, M.Eigen, 30 years later – A new approach to Sol Spiegelman's and Leslie Orgel's in vitro evolutionary studies. Orig.Life Evol.Biosph. 27 (1997), 437-457



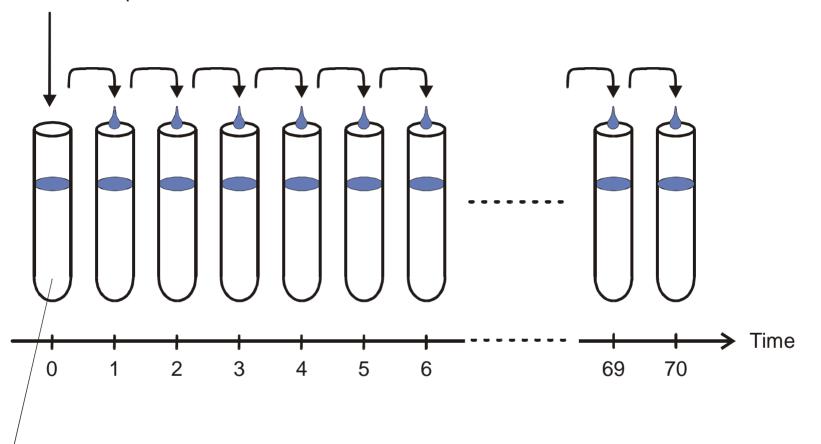
Evolution of phenotypes: RNA structures and replication rate constants



Complementary replication is the simplest copying mechanism of RNA. Complementarity is determined by Watson-Crick base pairs:

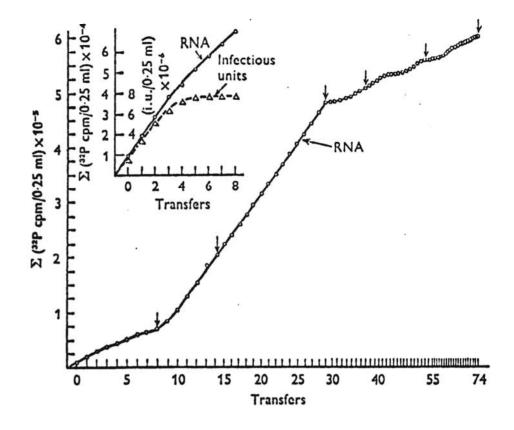
G≡C and A=U

RNA sample



Stock solution: Qβ RNA-replicase, ATP, CTP, GTP and UTP, buffer

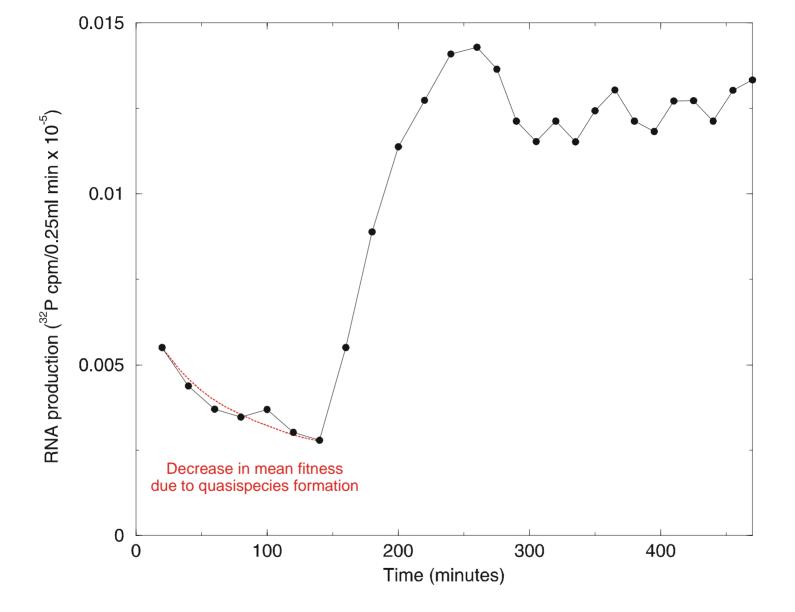
The serial transfer technique applied to RNA evolution in vitro



Reproduction of the original figure of the serial transfer experiment with $Q\beta$ RNA

D.R.Mills, R,L,Peterson, S.Spiegelman, An extracellular Darwinian experiment with a self-duplicating nucleic acid molecule. Proc.Natl.Acad.Sci.USA 58 (1967), 217-224

Fig. 9. Serial transfer experiment. Each 0.25 ml standard reaction mixture contained 40 μ g of Q β replicase and ³³P-UTP. The first reaction (0 transfer) was initiated by the addition of 0.2 μ g ts-1 (temperature-sensitive RNA) and incubated at 35 °C for 20 min, whereupon 0.02 ml was drawn for counting and 0.02 ml was used to prime the second reaction (first transfer), and so on. After the first 13 reactions, the incubation periods were reduced to 15 min (transfers 14-29). Transfers 30-38 were incubated for 10 min. Transfers 39-52 were incubated for 7 min, and transfers 53-74 were incubated for 5 min. The arrows above certain transfers (0, 8, 14, 29, 37, 53, and 73) indicate where 0.001-0.1 ml of product was removed and used to prime reactions for sedimentation analysis on sucrose. The inset examines both infectious and total RNA. The results show that biologically competent RNA ceases to appear after the 4th transfer (Mills *et al.* 1967).



The increase in RNA production rate during a serial transfer experiment

random individuals. The primer pair used for genomic DNA amplification is 5'-TCTCCCTGGATTCT-CATTTA-3' (forward) and 5'-TCTTTGTCTTCTGT TCCACC-3' (reverse). Reactions were performed in 25 µl using 1 unit of Tag DNA polymerase with each primer at 0.4 µM; 200 µM each dATP, dTTP, dGTP, and dCTP; and PCR buffer [10 mM tris-HCI (pH 8.3) 50 mM KCl₂,1.5 mM MgCl₂] in a cycle condition of 94°C for 1 min and then 35 cycles of 94°C for 30 s. 55°C for 30 s, and 72°C for 30 s followed by 72°C for 6 min. PCR products were purified (Qiagen), digested with Xmn L and senarated in a 2% agarose gel.

- 32. A nonsense mutation may affect mRNA stability and result in degradation of the transcript [L. Maguat, Am. J. Hum. Genet. 59, 279 (1996)]
- 33. Data not shown: a dot blot with poly (A)+ RNA from 50 human tissues (The Human BNA Master Blot. 7770-1, Clontech Laboratories) was hybridized with a probe from exons 29 to 47 of MYO15 using the same condition as Northern blot analysis (13).
- 34. Smith-Magenis syndrome (SMS) is due to deletions of 17p11.2 of various sizes, the smallest of which includes MYO15 and perhaps 20 other genes ((6): K-S Chen, L. Potocki, J. R. Lupski, MRDD Res. Rev. 2 122 (1996)] MYO15 expression is easily detected in the pituitary gland (data not shown). Haploinsufficiency for MYO15 may explain a portion of the SMS

Continuity in Evolution: On the Nature of Transitions

Walter Fontana and Peter Schuster

To distinguish continuous from discontinuous evolutionary change, a relation of nearness between phenotypes is needed. Such a relation is based on the probability of one phenotype being accessible from another through changes in the genotype. This nearness relation is exemplified by calculating the shape neighborhood of a transfer RNA secondary structure and provides a characterization of discontinuous shape transformations in RNA. The simulation of replicating and mutating RNA populations under selection shows that sudden adaptive progress coincides mostly, but not always, with discontinuous shape transformations. The nature of these transformations illuminates the key role of neutral genetic drift in their realization.

A much-debated issue in evolutionary biology concerns the extent to which the history of life has proceeded gradually or has been punctuated by discontinuous transitions at the level of phenotypes (1). Our goal is to make the notion of a discontinuous transition more precise and to understand how it arises in a model of evolutionary adaptation.

We focus on the narrow domain of RNA secondary structure, which is currently the simplest computationally tractable, yet realistic phenotype (2). This choice enables the definition and exploration of concepts that may prove useful in a wider context. RNA secondary structures represent a coarse level of analysis compared with the three-dimensional structure at atomic resolution. Yet, secondary structures are empir-

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ically well defined and obtain their biophysical and biochemical importance from being a scaffold for the tertiary structure. For the sake of brevity, we shall refer to secondary structures as "shapes." RNA combines in a single molecule both genotype (replicatable sequence) and phenotype (selectable shape), making it ideally suited for in vitro evolution experiments (3, 4).

phenotype such as short stature. Moreover, a few

SMS natients have sensorineural hearing loss, pos-

sibly because of a point mutation in MYO15 in trans

X-7 Liu et al ihid 17 268 (1997): E Gibson et al

vrinths) obtained from human fetuses at 18 to 22

weeks of development in accordance with guidelines

established by the Human Research Committee at

the Brigham and Women's Hospital. Only samples

without evidence of degradation were pooled for

poly (A)* selection over oligo(dT) columns. First-

strand cDNA was prepared using an Advantage RT-

for-PCR kit (Clontech Laboratories). A portion of the

first-strand cDNA (4%) was amplified by PCR with

Advantage cDNA polymerase mix (Clontech Labora-

tories) using human MYO15-specific oligonucleotide

primers (forward, 5'-GCATGACCTGCCGGCTAAT

GGG-3': reverse, 5'-CTCACGGCTTCTGCATGGT-

GCTCGGCTGGC-3'). Cycling conditions were 40 s

at 94°C; 40 s at 66°C (3 cycles), 60°C (5 cycles), and

55°C (29 cycles); and 45 s at 68°C. PCB products

were visualized by ethidium bromide staining after

fractionation in a 1% agarose gel. A 688-bp PCR

Nature 374, 62 (1995): D. Weil et al. ibid. p. 60.

37. RNA was extracted from cochlea (membranous lab

36. K. B. Avraham et al., Nature Genet. 11, 369 (1995);

to the SMS 17n11.2 deletion.

35. R. A. Fridell, data not shown

To generate evolutionary histories, we used a stochastic continuous time model of an RNA population replicating and mutating in a capacity-constrained flow reactor under selection (5, 6). In the laboratory, a goal might be to find an RNA aptamer binding specifically to a molecule (4). Although in the experiment the evolutionary end product was unknown, we thought of its shape as being specified implicitly by the imposed selection criterion. Because our intent is to study evolutionary histories rather than end products, we defined a target shape in advance and assumed the replication rate of a sequence to be a function of because, in contrast to sequences, there are

product is expected from amplification of the human MYO15 cDNA. Amplification of human genomic DNA with this primer pair would result in a 2903-bp fragment

38. We are grateful to the people of Bengkala, Bali, and the two families from India. We thank J. R. Lupski and K.-S. Chen for providing the human chromosome 17 cosmid library. For technical and computational assistance, we thank N. Dietrich, M. Fergusson A Guota E Sorbello R Torkzadeh C Varner. M. Walker, G. Bouffard, and S. Beckstrom-Sternberg (National Institutes of Health Intramural Se quencing Center). We thank J. T. Hinnant, I. N. Arhya, and S. Winata for assistance in Bali, and T. Barber, S. Sullivan, E. Green, D. Drayna, and J. Battey for helpful comments on this manuscript. Supported by the National Institute on Deafness and Other Communication Disorders (NIDCD) (Z01 DC 00035-01 and Z01 DC 00038-01 to T.B.F. and E.R.W. and R01 DC 03402 to C.C.M.), the National Institute of Child Health and Human Development (R01 HD30428 to S.A.C.) and a National Science Foundation Graduate Research Fellowship to F.J.P. This paper is dedicated to J. B. Snow Jr. on his retirement as the Director of the NIDCD.

9 March 1998; accepted 17 April 1998

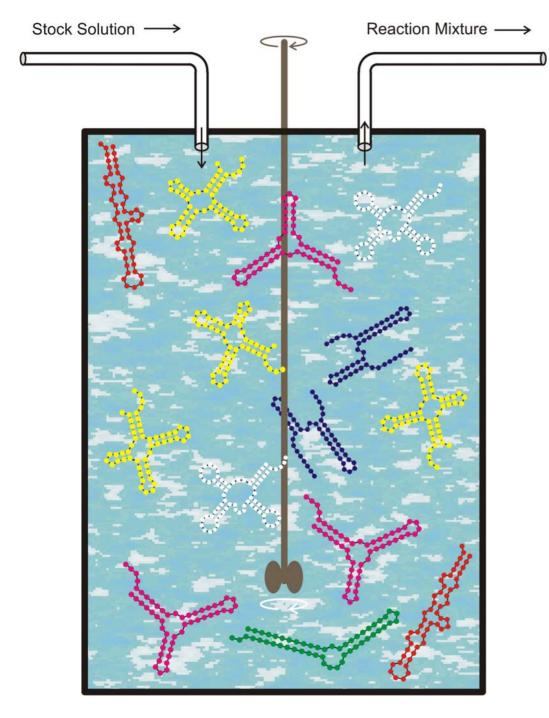
the similarity between its shape and the target. An actual situation may involve more than one best shape, but this does not affect our conclusions.

An instance representing in its qualitative features all the simulations we performed is shown in Fig. 1A. Starting with identical sequences folding into a random shape, the simulation was stopped when the population became dominated by the target, here a canonical tRNA shape. The black curve traces the average distance to the target (inversely related to fitness) in the population against time. Aside from a short initial phase, the entire history is dominated by steps, that is, flat periods of no apparent adaptive progress, interrupted by sudden approaches toward the target structure (7). However, the dominant shapes in the population not only change at these marked events but undergo several fitness-neutral transformations during the periods of no apparent progress. Although discontinuities in the fitness trace are evident, it is entirely unclear when and on the basis of what the series of successive phenotypes itself can be called continuous or discontinuous.

A set of entities is organized into a (topological) space by assigning to each entity a system of neighborhoods. In the present case, there are two kinds of entities: sequences and shapes, which are related by a thermodynamic folding procedure. The set of possible sequences (of fixed length) is naturally organized into a space because point mutations induce a canonical neighborhood. The neighborhood of a sequence consists of all its one-error mutants. The problem is how to organize the set of possible shapes into a space. The issue arises

Evolution *in silico*

W. Fontana, P. Schuster, Science 280 (1998), 1451-1455



Replication rate constant:

$$f_{k} = \gamma / [\alpha + \Delta d_{S}^{(k)}]$$
$$\Delta d_{S}^{(k)} = d_{H}(S_{k}, S_{\tau})$$

Selection constraint:

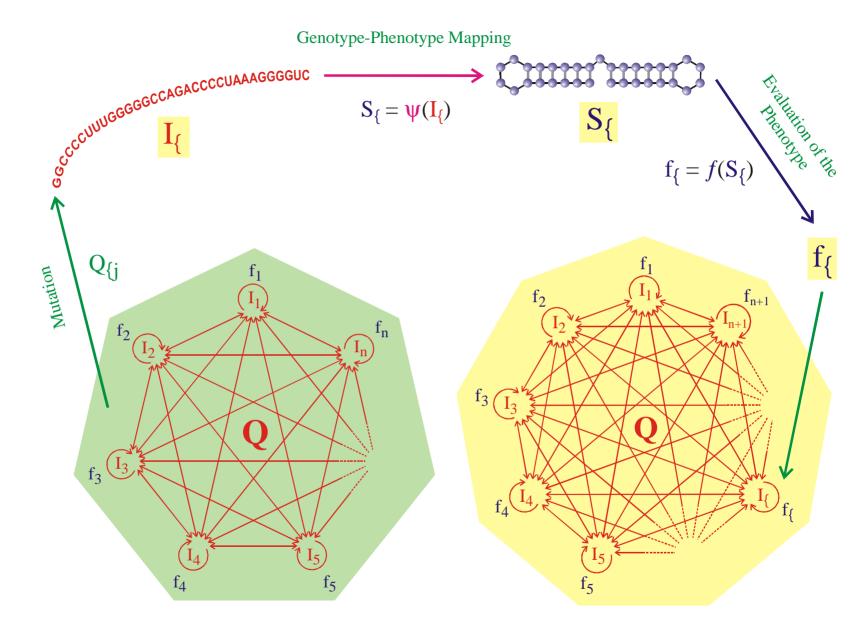
Population size, N = # RNA molecules, is controlled by the flow

$$N(t) \approx \overline{N} \pm \sqrt{\overline{N}}$$

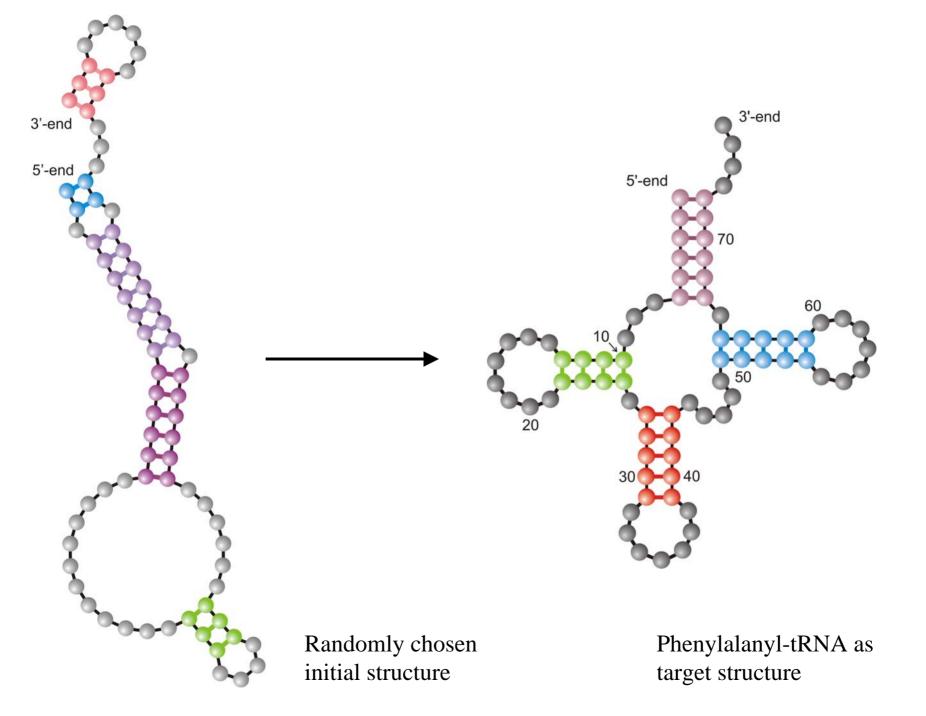
Mutation rate:

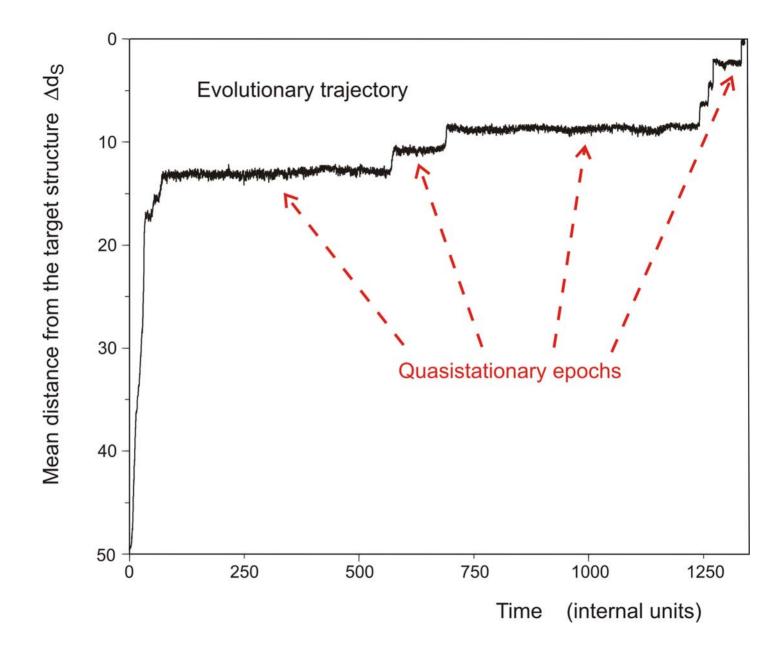
 $p = 0.001 / site \times replication$

The flowreactor as a device for **studies** of evolution *in vitro* and *in silico*



Evolutionary dynamics including molecular phenotypes





In silico optimization in the flow reactor: Evolutionary Trajectory

Evolutionary design of RNA molecules

D.B.Bartel, J.W.Szostak, **In vitro** *selection of RNA molecules that bind specific ligands*. Nature **346** (1990), 818-822

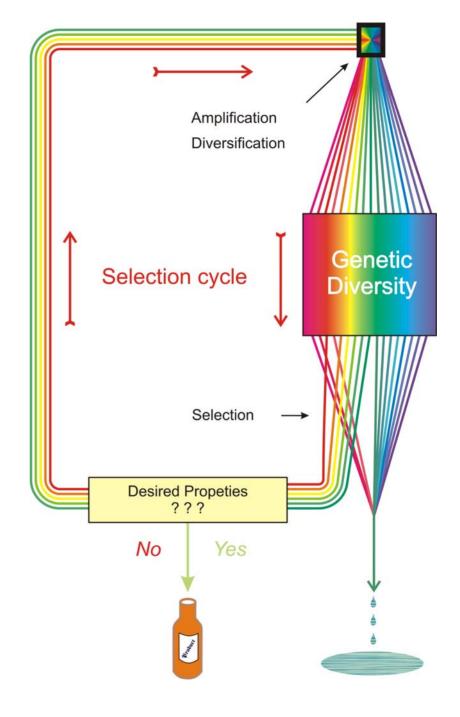
C.Tuerk, L.Gold, **SELEX** - Systematic evolution of ligands by exponential enrichment: RNA ligands to bacteriophage T4 DNA polymerase. Science 249 (1990), 505-510

D.P.Bartel, J.W.Szostak, *Isolation of new ribozymes from a large pool of random sequences*. Science **261** (1993), 1411-1418

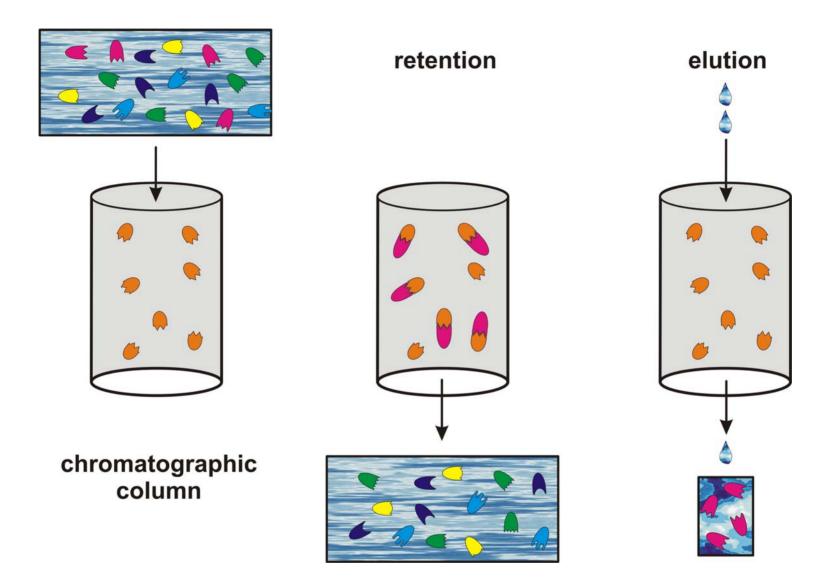
R.D.Jenison, S.C.Gill, A.Pardi, B.Poliski, *High-resolution molecular discrimination by RNA*. Science **263** (1994), 1425-1429

Y. Wang, R.R.Rando, *Specific binding of aminoglycoside antibiotics to RNA*. Chemistry & Biology **2** (1995), 281-290

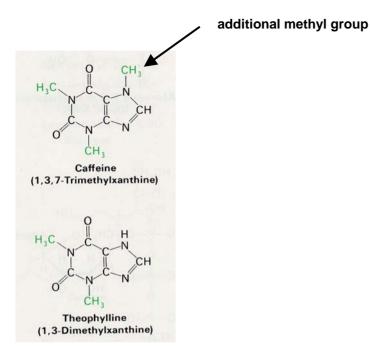
Jiang, A. K. Suri, R. Fiala, D. J. Patel, *Saccharide-RNA recognition in an aminoglycoside antibiotic-RNA aptamer complex*. Chemistry & Biology **4** (1997), 35-50



Evolutionary design by selection

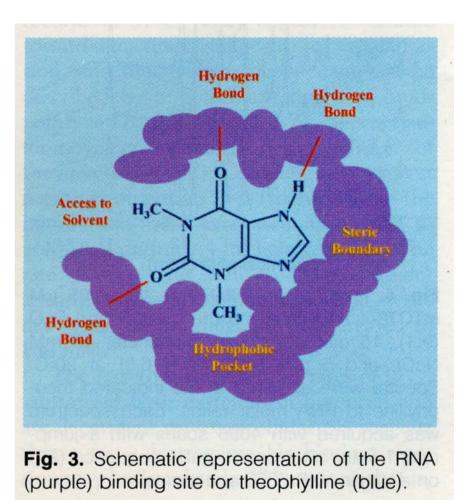


A SELEX experiment optimizing binding affinities

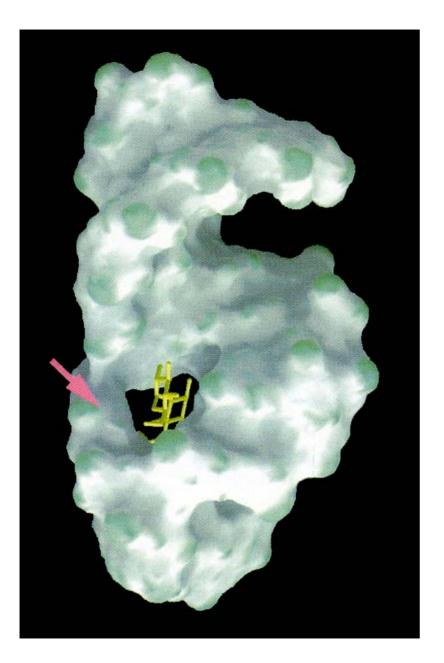


Dissociation constants and specificity of theophylline, caffeine, and related derivatives of uric acid for binding to a discriminating aptamer TCT8-4 **Table 1.** Competition binding analysis with TCT8-4 RNA. The chemical structures are shown for a series of derivatives used in competitive binding experiments with TCT8-4 RNA (Fig. 2) (20). The right column represents the affinity of the competitor relative to theophylline, $K_d(c)/K_d(t)$, where $K_d(c)$ is the individual competitor dissociation constant and $K_d(t)$ is the competitive dissociation constant of theophylline. Certain data (denoted by >) are minimum values that were limited by the solubility of the competitor. Each experiment was carried out in duplicate. The average error is shown.

Compound	Structure	<i>K</i> _d (c) (μM)	$K_{\rm d}({\rm c})/K_{\rm d}({\rm t})$
Theophylline		0.32 ± 0.13	1
CP-theophylline		0.93 ± 0.20	2.9
Xanthine	HN L H	8.5 ± 0.40	27
1-Methylxanthine		9.0 ± 0.30	28
3-Methylxanthine		2.0 ± 0.7	6.3
7-Methylxanthine		> 500	>1500
3,7-Dimethylxanthine		> 500	> 1500
1,3-Dimethyluric acid		> 1000	>3100
Hypoxanthine	HN TN	49 ± 10	153
Caffeine		3500 ± 1500	10,900



Schematic drawing of the aptamer binding site for the theophylline molecule

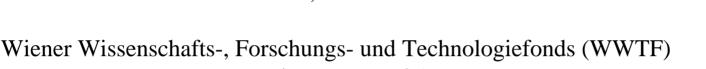


The three-dimensional structure of the tobramycin aptamer complex

L. Jiang, A. K. Suri, R. Fiala, D. J. Patel, Chemistry & Biology **4**:35-50 (1997)

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