Biomolecular Structure and Evolution

From Theory to the Design of RNA Molecules

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EXYSTENCE Course on Complexity in Real-World Systems

ISI, Torino, 13.-25.03.2006

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Genotype, Genome



Unfolding of the genotype











Developmental program Highly specific environmental conditions

Phenotype

Evolution explains the origin of species and their interactions

















Genotype, Genome

GCGGATTTAGCTCAGTTGGGAGAGCGCCAGACTGAAGATCTGGAGGTCCTGTGTTCGATCCACAGAATTCGCACCA





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.

		Selection and	Genetic drift in	Genetic drift in
	Generation time	adaptation	small populations	large populations
		10 000 generations	10 ⁶ generations	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
RNA viruses	5 min	34.72 d	9.51 a	95.13 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

- 1. Evolution experiments
- 2. Molecular evolution of RNA
- 3. Neutral networks
- 4. Evolutionary optimization of RNA structure
- 5. Kinetic structures and switching molecules

1. Evolution experiments

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Bacterial Evolution

S. F. Elena, V. S. Cooper, R. E. Lenski. *Punctuated evolution caused by selection of rare beneficial mutants*. Science **272** (1996), 1802-1804

D. Papadopoulos, D. Schneider, J. Meier-Eiss, W. Arber, R. E. Lenski, M. Blot. *Genomic evolution during a 10,000-generation experiment with bacteria*. Proc.Natl.Acad.Sci.USA **96** (1999), 3807-3812



1 year » 2400 generations

Serial transfer of Escherichia coli cultures in Petri dishes





Fig. 1. Change in average cell size (1 fl = 10^{-15} L) in a population of *E. coli* during 3000 generations of experimental evolution. Each point is the mean of 10 replicate assays (*22*). Error bars indicate 95% confidence intervals. The solid line shows the best fit of a step-function model to these data (Table 1).



Fig. 2. Correlation between average cell size and mean fitness, each measured at 100-generation intervals for 2000 generations. Fitness is expressed relative to the ancestral genotype and was obtained from competition experiments between derived and ancestral cells (6, 7). The open symbols indicate the only two samples assigned to different steps by the cell size and fitness data.

Epochal evolution of bacteria in serial transfer experiments under constant conditions

S. F. Elena, V. S. Cooper, R. E. Lenski. *Punctuated evolution caused by selection of rare beneficial mutants*. Science **272** (1996), 1802-1804



Variation of genotypes in a bacterial serial transfer experiment

D. Papadopoulos, D. Schneider, J. Meier-Eiss, W. Arber, R. E. Lenski, M. Blot. *Genomic evolution during a 10,000-generation experiment with bacteria*. Proc.Natl.Acad.Sci.USA **96** (1999), 3807-3812

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

S.Spiegelman, *An approach to the experimental analysis of precellular evolution*. Quart.Rev.Biophys. **4** (1971), 213-253

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

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

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

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



An example of 'artificial selection' with RNA molecules or 'breeding' of biomolecules



The SELEX technique for the evolutionary preparation of aptamers



tobramycin

5'-GGCACGAGGUUUAGCUACACUCGUGCC-3'



Formation of secondary structure of the tobramycin binding RNA aptamer with $K_D = 9 nM$

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



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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Complementary replication is the simplest copying mechanism of RNA.

Complementarity is determined by Watson-Crick base pairs:

G≡C and A=U



Complementary replication as the simplest molecular mechanism of reproduction

Equation for complementary replication: $[I_i] = x_i \ge 0$, $f_i > 0$; i=1,2

$$\frac{dx_1}{dt} = f_2 x_2 - x_1 \phi, \quad \frac{dx_2}{dt} = f_1 x_1 - x_2 \phi; \quad x_1 + x_2 = 1; \quad \phi = f_1 x_1 + f_2 x_2 = \overline{f}$$

Solutions are obtained by integrating factor transformation $x_{1,2}(t) = \frac{\sqrt{f_{2,1}}(\gamma_1(0) \cdot \exp(ft) + \gamma_2(0) \cdot \exp(-ft))}{(\sqrt{f_1} + \sqrt{f_2}) \gamma_1(0) \cdot \exp(ft) - (\sqrt{f_1} - \sqrt{f_2}) \gamma_2(0) \cdot \exp(-ft)}$ $\gamma_1(0) = \sqrt{f_1} x_1(0) + \sqrt{f_2} x_2(0), \gamma_2(0) = \sqrt{f_1} x_1(0) - \sqrt{f_2} x_2(0); \ f = \sqrt{f_1 f_2}$

$$x_1(t) \rightarrow \frac{\sqrt{f_2}}{\sqrt{f_1} + \sqrt{f_2}}$$
 and $x_2(t) \rightarrow \frac{\sqrt{f_1}}{\sqrt{f_1} + \sqrt{f_2}}$ as $\exp(-ft) \rightarrow 0$



$$dx_{i} / dt = f_{i} x_{i} - x_{i} \Phi = x_{i} (f_{i} - \Phi)$$

$$\Phi = \Sigma_{j} f_{j} x_{j}; \quad \Sigma_{j} x_{j} = 1; \quad i, j = 1, 2, ..., n$$

$$[I_{i}] = x_{i} \ge 0; \quad i = 1, 2, ..., n;$$

$$[A] = a = \text{constant}$$

$$f_{m} = \max \{f_{j}; j = 1, 2, ..., n\}$$

$$x_{m}(t) \rightarrow 1 \text{ for } t \rightarrow \infty$$

Reproduction of organisms or replication of molecules as the basis of selection

Selection equation: $[I_i] = x_i \ge 0$, $f_i > 0$

$$\frac{dx_i}{dt} = x_i (f_i - \phi), \quad i = 1, 2, \dots, n; \quad \sum_{i=1}^n x_i = 1; \quad \phi = \sum_{j=1}^n f_j x_j = \overline{f}$$

Mean fitness or dilution flux, $\phi(t)$, is a non-decreasing function of time,

$$\frac{d\phi}{dt} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} f_i \frac{dx_i}{dt} = \overline{f^2} - \left(\overline{f}\right)^2 = \operatorname{var}\{f\} \ge 0$$

Solutions are obtained by integrating factor transformation

$$x_{i}(t) = \frac{x_{i}(0) \cdot \exp(f_{i}t)}{\sum_{j=1}^{n} x_{j}(0) \cdot \exp(f_{j}t)}; \quad i = 1, 2, \cdots, n$$



Selection between three species with $f_1 = 1, f_2 = 2$, and $f_3 = 3$

Changes in RNA sequences originate from replication errors called **mutations**.

Mutations occur uncorrelated to their consequences in the selection process and are, therefore, commonly characterized as random elements of evolution.







The origins of changes in RNA sequences are **replication errors** called **mutations**.



$$dx_{i} / dt = \sum_{j} f_{j}Q_{ji} x_{j} - x_{i} \Phi$$

$$\Phi = \sum_{j} f_{j} x_{i}; \quad \sum_{j} x_{j} = 1; \quad \sum_{i} Q_{ij} = 1$$

$$[I_{i}] = x_{i} \ge 0; \quad i = 1, 2, ..., n;$$

$$[A] = a = constant$$

$$Q_{ij} = (1-p)^{\ell-d(i,j)} p^{d(i,j)}$$

$$p \dots Error rate per digit$$

$$\ell \dots Chain length of the polynucleotide$$

$$d(i,j) \dots Hamming distance between I_{i} and I_{j}$$

Chemical kinetics of replication and mutation as parallel reactions

Mutation-selection equation: $[I_i] = x_i \ge 0, f_i > 0, Q_{ii} \ge 0$

$$\frac{dx_i}{dt} = \sum_{j=1}^n f_j Q_{ji} x_j - x_i \phi, \quad i = 1, 2, \dots, n; \quad \sum_{i=1}^n x_i = 1; \quad \phi = \sum_{j=1}^n f_j x_j = \overline{f}$$

Solutions are obtained after integrating factor transformation by means of an eigenvalue problem

$$x_{i}(t) = \frac{\sum_{k=0}^{n-1} \ell_{ik} \cdot c_{k}(0) \cdot \exp(\lambda_{k}t)}{\sum_{j=1}^{n} \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} \ell_{jk} \cdot c_{k}(0) \cdot \exp(\lambda_{k}t)}; \quad i = 1, 2, \dots, n; \quad c_{k}(0) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} h_{ki} x_{i}(0)$$

$$W \div \{f_i Q_{ij}; i, j=1,2,\cdots,n\}; \ L = \{\ell_{ij}; i, j=1,2,\cdots,n\}; \ L^{-1} = H = \{h_{ij}; i, j=1,2,\cdots,n\}$$

$$L^{-1} \cdot W \cdot L = \Lambda = \{\lambda_k; k=0, 1, \cdots, n-1\}$$












The error threshold in replication

- 1. Evolution experiments
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A symbolic notation of RNA secondary structure that is equivalent to the conventional graphs

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



The minimum free energy structures on a discrete space of conformations

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.

Space of genotypes: $I = \{I_1, I_2, I_3, I_4, ..., I_N\}$; Hamming metric Space of phenotypes: $S = \{S_1, S_2, S_3, S_4, ..., S_M\}$; metric (not required) $N \gg M$

 $\psi(\mathbf{I}_{j}) = \mathbf{S}_{k}$ $\mathbf{G}_{k} = \psi^{-1}(\mathbf{S}_{k}) \cup \left\{ \mathbf{I}_{j} \mid \psi(\mathbf{I}_{j}) = \mathbf{S}_{k} \right\}$

A mapping ψ and its inversion

	$\mathbf{G}_{\mathbf{k}} = \boldsymbol{\psi}^{-1}(\mathbf{S}_{\mathbf{k}}) \doteq \left\{ \mathbf{I}_{j} \mid \boldsymbol{\psi}(\mathbf{I}_{j}) = \mathbf{S}_{\mathbf{k}} \right\}$ $\boldsymbol{\Sigma} \boldsymbol{\lambda} \cdot (\mathbf{k})$				
	$\overline{\lambda}_k = \frac{\sum_{j \in \mathbf{G}_k } \mathcal{H}_j(\mathbf{R})}{ \mathbf{G}_k }$				
			Alphabet	size κ:	
		к	λ_{cr}		
		2	0.5	AU,GC,DU	
$\lambda_j = 12 / 27 = 0.444$		3	0.423	AUG , UGC	
		4	0.370	AUGC	

 $\bar{\lambda}_k > \lambda_{cr} \dots$ network \mathbf{G}_k is connected

 $\bar{\lambda}_k < \lambda_{cr} \dots$ network G_k is **not** connected

Connectivity threshold: $\lambda_{cr} = 1 - \kappa^{-1/(\kappa-1)}$

Degree of neutrality of neutral networks and the connectivity threshold



A multi-component neutral network formed by a rare structure: $\lambda < \lambda_{cr}$



A connected neutral network formed by a common structure: $\lambda > \lambda_{cr}$

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

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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*

- 1. Evolution experiments
- 2. Molecular evolution of RNA
- 3. Neutral networks

4. Evolutionary optimization of RNA structure

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Computer simulation of RNA optimization

Walter Fontana and Peter Schuster, Biophysical Chemistry 26:123-147, 1987

Walter Fontana, Wolfgang Schnabl, and Peter Schuster, Phys.Rev.A 40:3301-3321, 1989

PHYSICAL REVIEW A

VOLUME 40, NUMBER 6

SEPTEMBER 15, 1989

Physical aspects of evolutionary optimization and adaptation

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A model of an objective function based on polynucleotide folding is used to investigate the dynamics of evolutionary adaptation in finite populations. Binary sequences are optimized with respect to their kinetic properties through a stochastic process involving mutation and selection. The objective function consists in a mapping from the set of all binary strings with given length into a set of two-dimensional structures. These structures then encode the kinetic properties, expressed in terms of parameters of reaction probability distributions. The objective function obtained thereby represents a realistic example of a highly "rugged landscape." Ensembles of molecular strings adapting to this landscape are studied by tracing their escape path from local optima and by applying multivariate analysis. Effects of small population numbers in the tail of the sequence distribution are discussed quantitatively. Close upper bounds to the number of distinct values produced by our objective function are given. The distribution of values is explored by means of simulated annealing and reveals a random scatter in the locations of optima in the space of all sequences. The genetic optimization protocol is applied to the "traveling salesman" problem. Biophysical Chemistry 26 (1987) 123-147 Elsevier

BPC 01133

A computer model of evolutionary optimization

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Accepted 27 February 1987

Molecular evolution; Optimization; Polyribonucleotide folding; Quasi-species; Selective value; Stochastic reaction kinetics

Molecular evolution is viewed as a typical combinatorial optimization problem. We analyse a chemical reaction model which considers RNA replication including correct copying and point mutations together with hydrolytic degradation and the dilution flux of a flow reactor. The corresponding stochastic reaction network is implemented on a computer in order to investigate some basic features of evolutionary optimization dynamics. Characteristic features of real molecular systems are mimicked by folding binary sequences into unknotted two-dimensional structures. Selective values are derived from these molecular 'phenotypes' by an evaluation procedure which assigns numerical values to different elements of the secondary structure. The fitness function obtained thereby contains nontrivial long-range interactions which are typical for real systems. The fitness landscape also reveals quite involved and bizarre local topologies which we consider also representative of polynucleotide replication in actually occurring systems. Optimization operates on an ensemble of sequences via mutation and natural selection. The strategy observed in the simulation experiments is fairly general and resembles closely a heuristic widely applied in operations research areas. Despite the relative smallness of the system - we study 2000 molecules of chain length v = 70 in a typical simulation experiment - features typical for the evolution of real populations are observed as there are error thresholds for replication, evolutionary steps and quasistationary sequence distributions. The relative importance of selectively neutral or almost neutral variants is discussed quantitatively. Four characteristic ensemble properties, entropy of the distribution, ensemble correlation, mean Hamming distance and diversity of the population, are computed and checked for their sensitivity in recording major optimization events during the simulation

1. Molecular evolution and optimization

Conventional population genetics treats mutation as an external stochastic source. Moreover, mutations are considered as very rare events. In the absence of genetic recombination populations of haploid organisms are expected to be usually homogeneous. Experimental evidence on viral and bacterial populations is available now and it contradicts these expectations. Mutations appear much more frequently than was originally assumed.

Dedicated to Professor Manfred Eigen on the occasion of his 60th birthday.

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The molecular approach considers error-free replication and mutation as parallel reactions within the same mechanism. Detailed information on the molecular mechanisms of polynucleotide replication provides direct insight into the nature of mutations and their role in evolution. Several classes of mutations are properly distinguished: point mutations, deletions and insertions. Point mutations are of special importance: they represent the most frequent mutations and are easily incorporated into theoretical models of molecular evolution. This does not mean, however, that the other classes of mutations are not important in evolution. To give an example: there is a general belief that insertions leading to gene duplication played a major role in the development of present day enzyme families.

The first theoretical model of molecular evolu-

123



Fig. 1. The reaction network. Synthesis on template I_k proceeds with the rate constant a_k and leads with frequency Q_{ik} to a new template I_i preserving the old copy. Materials A needed for polymerization are assumed to be buffered. Degradation to waste products B occurs with rate d_k and a controlled unspecific flux $\Phi(t)$ removes templates from the system.

Fig. 2. The evolution reactor. This kind of flow reactor consists of a reaction vessel which allows for temperature and pressure control. Its walls are impermeable to polynucleotides. Energyrich material is poured from the environment into the reactor. The degradation products are removed steadily. Material transport is adjusted in such a way that the concentration of monomers is constant in the reactor. A dilution flux Φ is installed in order to remove excess of polynucleotides produced by replication. Thus, the sum of the numbers of individual particles $\sum_i X_i(t) = N(t)$ may be controlled by the flux Φ . Under 'constant organization' Φ is adjusted such that $N(t) = \Theta$ is essentially constant. By this we indicate that fluctuations with standard deviation $\sigma = \sqrt{N}$ occur regularly. The regulation of Φ requires internal control, which can be achieved by logistic coupling.







Walter Fontana, Wolfgang Schnabl, and Peter Schuster, Phys.Rev.A 40:3301-3321, 1989

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



28 neutral point mutations during a long quasi-stationary epoch

GGUAUGGGCGUUGAAUAGUAGGGUUUAAACCAAUCGGCCAACGAUCUCGUGUGCGCAUUUCAUAUCCCGUACAGAA entry 8 GGUAUGGGCGUUGAAUAAUAGGGUUUAAAACCAAUCGGCCAACGAUCUCGUGUGCGCAUUUCAUAUGCCAUACAGAA exit GGUAUGGGCGUUGAAUAAUAGGGUUUAAACCAAUCGGCCAACGAUCUCGUGUGCGCAUUUCAUAUACCAUACAGAA entry 9 exit entrv 10exit

Transition inducing point mutations change the molecular structure

Neutral point mutations leave the molecular structure unchanged

Neutral genotype evolution during phenotypic stasis



Evolutionary trajectory

Spreading of the population on neutral networks

Drift of the population center in sequence space

_	
_	




























Mount Fuji

Example of a smooth landscape on Earth



Dolomites



Bryce Canyon

Examples of rugged landscapes on Earth



Fitness

Genotype Space

Evolutionary optimization in absence of neutral paths in sequence space



Fitness

Genotype Space

Evolutionary optimization including neutral paths in sequence space



Grand Canyon

Example of a landscape on Earth with 'neutral' ridges and plateaus

- 1. Evolution experiments
- 2. Molecular evolution of RNA
- 3. Neutral networks
- 4. Evolutionary optimization of RNA structure
- 5. Kinetic structures and switching molecules



RNA secondary structures derived from a single sequence

The Folding Algorithm

A sequence I specifies an energy ordered set of compatible structures ⓒ(I):

 $\mathfrak{S}(\mathbf{I}) = \{\mathbf{S}_0, \mathbf{S}_1, \dots, \mathbf{S}_m, \mathbf{O}\}\$

A trajectory $\mathfrak{T}_k(\mathbf{I})$ is a time ordered series of structures in $\mathfrak{S}(\mathbf{I})$. A folding trajectory is defined by starting with the open chain \mathbf{O} and ending with the global minimum free energy structure \mathbf{S}_0 or a metastable structure \mathbf{S}_k which represents a local energy minimum:

$$\begin{aligned} \boldsymbol{\mathfrak{T}_{0}(I)} &= \{ \mathbf{O}, \mathbf{S}(1), \dots, \mathbf{S}(t-1), \mathbf{S}(t), \\ & \mathbf{S}(t+1), \dots, \mathbf{S}_{0} \} \\ \boldsymbol{\mathfrak{T}_{k}(I)} &= \{ \mathbf{O}, \mathbf{S}(1), \dots, \mathbf{S}(t-1), \mathbf{S}(t), \\ & \mathbf{S}(t+1), \dots, \mathbf{S}_{k} \} \end{aligned}$$

$$\frac{dP_k}{dt} = \sum_{i=0}^{m+1} \left(P_{ik}(t) - P_{ki}(t) \right) = \sum_{i=0}^{m+1} k_{ik} P_i - P_k \sum_{i=0}^{m+1} k_{ki}$$

$$k = 0, 1, \dots, m+1$$

Transition probabilities $P_{ij}(t) = \operatorname{Prob}\{S_i \rightarrow S_j\}$ are defined by

$$P_{ij}(t) = P_i(t) k_{ij} = P_i(t) \exp(-\Delta G_{ij}/2RT) / \Sigma_i$$

$$P_{ji}(t) = P_{j}(t) k_{ji} = P_{j}(t) \exp(-\Delta G_{ji}/2RT) / \Sigma_{j}$$
$$\Sigma_{k} = \sum_{k=1, k \neq i}^{m+2} \exp(-\Delta G_{ki}/2RT)$$

The symmetric rule for transition rate parameters is due to Kawasaki (K. Kawasaki, *Diffusion constants near the critical point for time depen-dent Ising models*. Phys.Rev. **145**:224-230, 1966).

Formulation of kinetic RNA folding as a stochastic process

Master equation

10



Corresponds to base pair distance: $d_P(S_1, S_2)$

Base pair formation and base pair cleavage moves for nucleation and elongation of stacks



Base pair closure, opening and shift corresponds to Hamming distance: $d_{\rm H}(S_1,S_2)$

Base pair shift move of class 1: Shift inside internal loops or bulges



Search for local minima in conformation space



Definition of a ,barrier tree'

CUGCGGC	JUUGGCU	JCUAGCC
---------	---------	---------

•	•	•	•	((((•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•))))	-4.30
(((•	(((•	•	•	•)))	•)))	•	•	-3.50
(((•	•	((•	•	•))	•	•)))	•	•	-3.10
•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	(((•	•	•	•)))	-2.80
•	•	(((((•	•	•	•)))	•	•	•))	•	-2.20
•	•	•	•	(((•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•)))	-2.20
((•	•	(((•	•	•)))	•	•))	•	•	-2.00
•	•	((•	((•	•	•))	•	•	•	•))	•	-1.60
•	•	•	•	(((•	•	•	•)))	•	•	•	•	•	•	-1.60
•	•	•	•	•	(((•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•)))	•	-1.50
•	((•	(((•	•	•	•)))	•))	•	•	•	-1.40
•	•	•	•	((((•	•	(•	•	•)	•))))	-1.40
•	((•	•	((•	•	•	•))	•	•))	•	•	•	-1.00
(((•	(((•	•	•	•))	•))))	•	•	-0.90
(((•	((•	•	•	•	•	•))	•)))	•	•	-0.90
•	•	•	•	((((•	•	(•	•	•	•)))))	-0.80
•	•	•	•	•	((•	•	•	•))	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	-0.80
•	•	(•	(((•	•	•	•))))	•	•	•	•	•	-0.60
•	•	•	•	(((•	•	•	•))	•)	•	•	•	•	•	-0.60
(((•	•	(•	•	•	•	•	•)	•	•)))	•	•	-0.50
•	•	(((((•	•	•	•))	•)	•	•))	•	-0.50
•	•	(•	(((•	•	•	•)))	•)	•	•	•	•	-0.40
•	•	((•	•	•	•	•	•	•))	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	-0.30
•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	((•	•	•	•	•	•))	-0.30
•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	((•	•	•	•))	•	-0.30
(((•	(((•	•	•	•))))	•))	•	•	-0.20
•	•	•	•	(((•	(•	•	•	•	•	•	•))))	-0.20
•	•	•	•	(((•	•	((•	•	•	•)))))	-0.20
•	•	(•	•	((•	•	•	•))	•	•)	•	•	•	•	0.00
•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	0.00
•	(•	•	(((•	•	•	•)))	•	•)	•	•	•	0.10



M.T. Wolfinger, W.A. Svrcek-Seiler, C. Flamm, I.L. Hofacker, P.F. Stadler. 2004. *J.Phys.A: Math.Gen.* **37**:4731-4741.

C	U	G	C	G	G	C	U	U	U	G	G	C	U	C	U	Ά	G	C	C				
•	•	•	•	((((•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•))))	-	4	•	30
(((•	(((•	•	•	•)))	•)))	•	•	-	3	•	50
(((•	•	((•	•	•	•))	•	•)))	•		_	3	•	10
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•	((•	(((•	•	•	•)))	•))	•	•	•	-	1	• •	40
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•	•	•	•	((((•	•	(•	•	•	•)))))	-	0	. 1	30
•	•	•	•	•	((•	•	•	•))	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	-	0	. 1	30
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•	•	•	•	(((•	•	•	•))	•)	•	•	•	•	•	-	0	• (50
(((•	•	(•	•	•	•	•	•)	•	•)))	•	•	-	0	• •	50
•	•	(((((•	•	•	•))	•)	•	•))	•	-	0	• •	50
•	•	(•	(((•	•	•	•)))	•)	•	•	•	•	-	0	• '	40
•	•	((•	•	•	•	•	•	•))	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	-	0	•	30
•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	((•	•	•	•	•	•))	-	0	•	30
•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	((•	•	•	•))	•	-	0	•	30
(((•	(((•	•	•	•))))	•))	•	•	-	0	•	20
•	•	•	•	(((•	(•	•	•	•	•	•	•))))	-	0	•	20
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M.T. Wolfinger, W.A. Svrcek-Seiler, C. Flamm, I.L. Hofacker, P.F. Stadler. 2004. *J.Phys.A: Math.Gen.* **37**:4731-4741.



Arrhenius kinetics

M.T. Wolfinger, W.A. Svrcek-Seiler, C. Flamm, I.L. Hofacker, P.F. Stadler. 2004. *J.Phys.A: Math.Gen.* **37**:4731-4741.



Arrhenius kinetic

Exact solution of the master equation

M.T. Wolfinger, W.A. Svrcek-Seiler, C. Flamm, I.L. Hofacker, P.F. Stadler. 2004. *J.Phys.A: Math.Gen.* **37**:4731-4741.



Bulletin of Mathematical Biology, Vol. 59, No. 2, pp. 339-397, 1997 Elsevier Science Inc. © 1997 Society for Mathematical Biology 0092-8240/97 517.00 + 0.00

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**



J.H.A. Nagel, C. Flamm, I.L. Hofacker, K. Franke, M.H. de Smit, P. Schuster, and C.W.A. Pleij.

An RNA switch

Structural parameters affecting the kinetic competition of RNA hairpin formation, Nucleic Acids Res., in press 2005.



J1LH barrier tree

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%.

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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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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

Acknowledgement of support

Fonds zur Förderung der wissenschaftlichen Forschung (FWF) Projects No. 09942, 10578, 11065, 13093 13887, and 14898



Jubiläumsfonds der Österreichischen Nationalbank Project No. Nat-7813

European Commission: Contracts No. 98-0189, 12835 (NEST)

Austrian Genome Research Program – GEN-AU: Bioinformatics Network (BIN)

Österreichische Akademie der Wissenschaften

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