Mathematical Modeling of Evolution
Solved and Open Problems

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Emerging Modeling Methodologies in Medicine and Biology

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Web-Page for further information:

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

1. Darwin, Mendel, and evolutionary optimization
2. Evolution as an exercise in chemical kinetics
3. Genotype – phenoytype mappings in biopolymers
4. Neutrality in evolution
5. Extending the notion of structure
6. Simulation of molecular evolution
7. Some origins of complexity in biology

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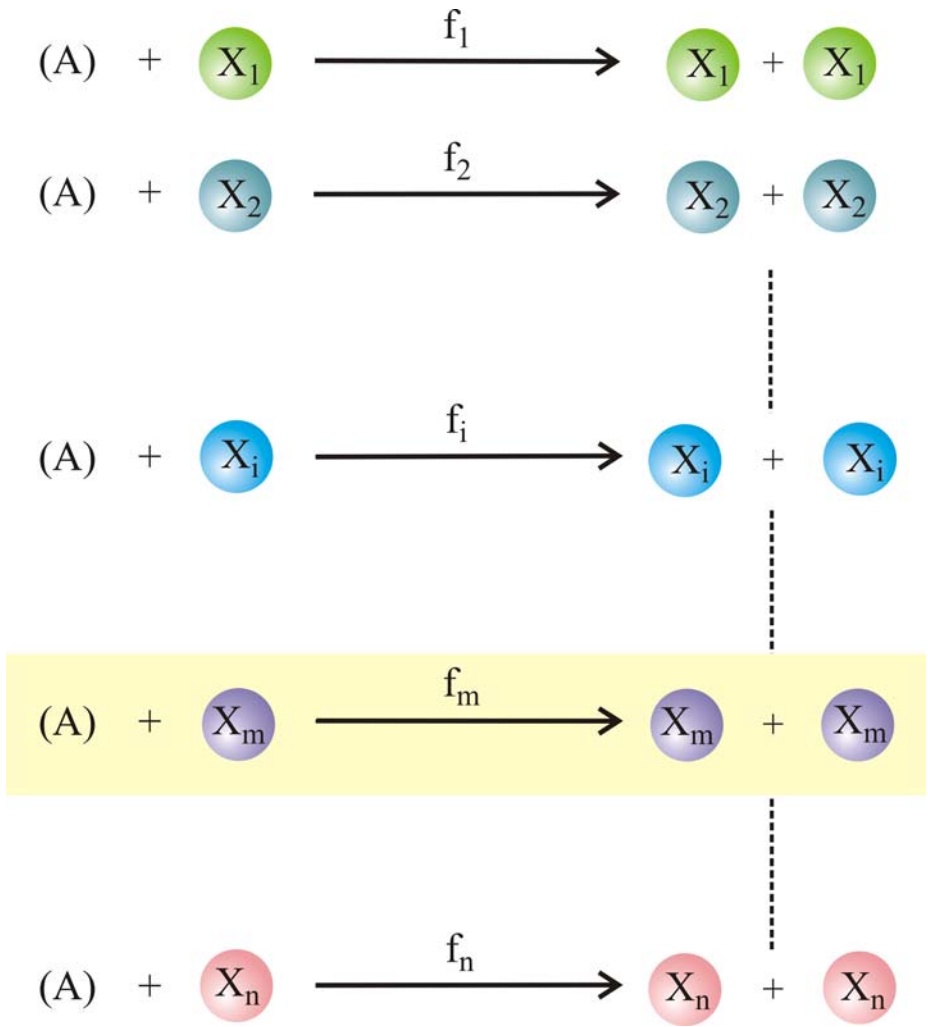
Three necessary conditions for Darwinian evolution are:

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

Biologists distinguish the **genotype** – the genetic information – and the **phenotype** – the organisms and all its properties. The **genotype** is unfolded in development and yields the **phenotype**.

Variation operates on the **genotype** – through mutation and recombination – whereas the **phenotype** is the target of **selection**. Without human intervention **natural selection** is based on the number of fertile progeny in forthcoming generations that is called **fitness**.

Question: Is Darwinian evolution optimizing fitness?



$$x_j(t) = N_j(t) \Big/ \sum_{i=1}^{n} N_i(t)$$

$$f_m = \max\{f_j;\ j=1,2,\ldots,n\}$$

$$x_m(t) \to 1 \quad for \quad t \to \infty$$

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

Selection equation: $[X_i] = x_i \geq 0\ ,\ f_i \geq 0$

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

mean fitness or dilution flux, ϕ(t), is a **non-decreasing function** of time,

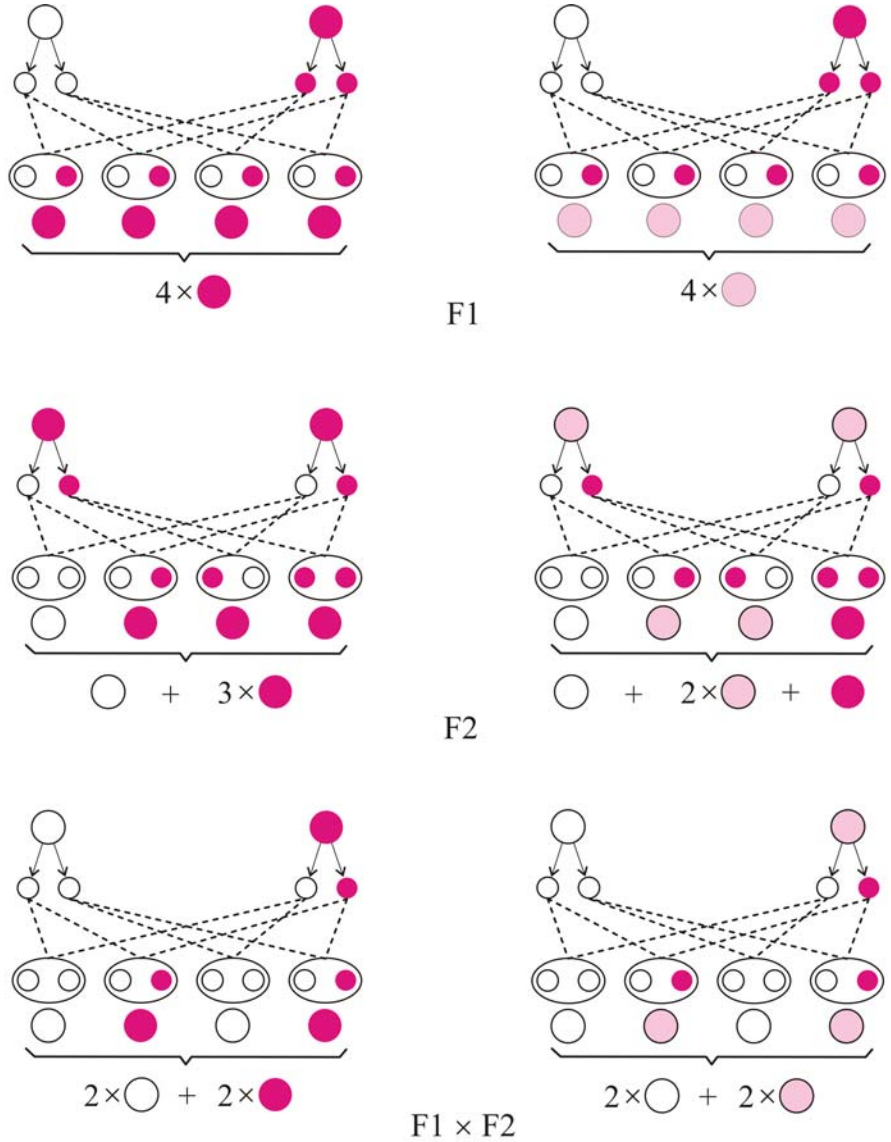
$$\frac{d\phi}{dt} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} f_i \frac{dx_i}{dt} = \overline{f^2} - \left(\bar{f}\right)^2 = \mathrm{var}\{f\} \geq 0$$

solutions are obtained by integrating factor transformation

$$x_i(t) = \frac{x_i(0)\cdot \exp\left(f_i t\right)}{\sum_{j=1}^{n} x_j(0)\cdot \exp\left(f_j t\right)}; \quad i = 1,2,\cdots,n$$

The mean reproduction rate or mean fitness, ϕ(t), is optimized in populations.

Gregor Mendel, 1822-1884



Mendel's rules of inheritance:

white and red colors of flowers

dominant/recessive pair of alleles

intermediate pair of alleles

Ronald Fisher, 1890-1962,

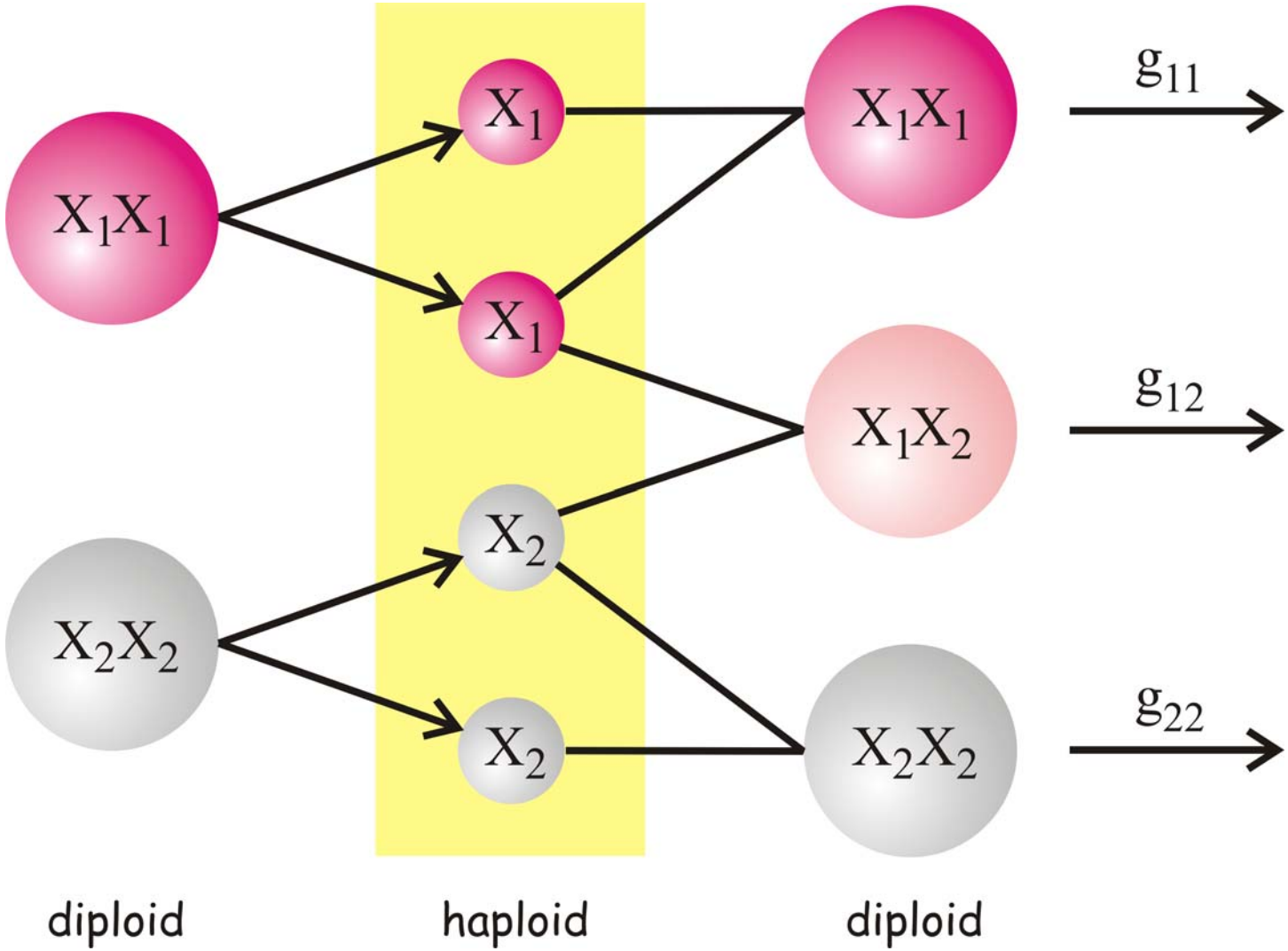
mathematician, statistician, and founder of population genetics.

Ronald Aylmer Fisher and the other scholars of population genetics, John Burdon Sanderson Haldane, and Sewall Wright, reconciled the theory of natural selection with Mendelian genetics.

Ronald A Fisher, The genetical theory of natural selection (1930).

Sewall Wright, Evolution in Mendelian populations, (1931).

JBS Haldane, The causes of evolution (1932).



Sexual reproduction and recombination

Fisher's selection equation: $[X_i] = x_i \geq 0\ ,\ g_{ij} \geq 0\ ,\ g_{ij} = g_{ji}$

$$\frac{dx_i}{dt} = x_i\left(\sum_{j=1}^{n} g_{ij}\, x_j - \phi\right) = x_i\left(\bar{f}_i - \phi\right); \quad i = 1,2,\cdots,n$$

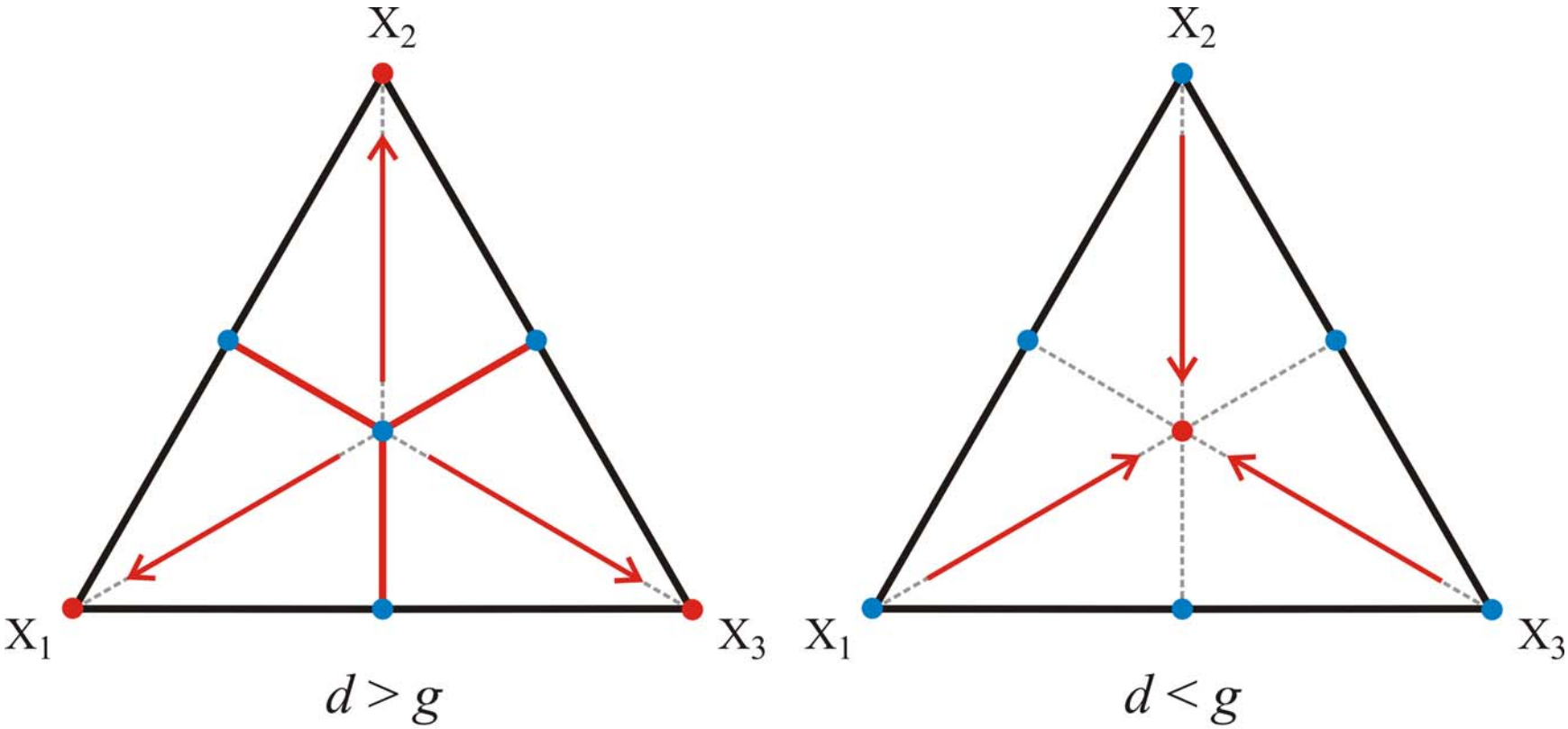
$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i = 1; \quad \bar{f}_i = \sum_{j=1}^{n} g_{ij}\, x_j; \quad \phi = \sum_{i=1,\, j=1}^{n,n} g_{ij}\, x_j\, x_i = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \bar{f}_i\, x_i = \bar{f}$$

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

$$\frac{d\phi}{dt} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \bar{f}_i \frac{dx_i}{dt} = \overline{f^2} - \left(\bar{f}\right)^2 = \mathrm{var}\left\{\bar{f}_i\right\} \geq 0$$

Fisher's fundamental theorem of natural selection

is valid for independent genes (single locus model) and autosomal symmetry, $g_{ij} = g_{ji}$.



$g_{11} = g_{22} = g_{33} = d$ and $g_{12} = g_{21} = g_{13} = g_{31} = g_{23} = g_{32} = g$

The symmetric three-allele case

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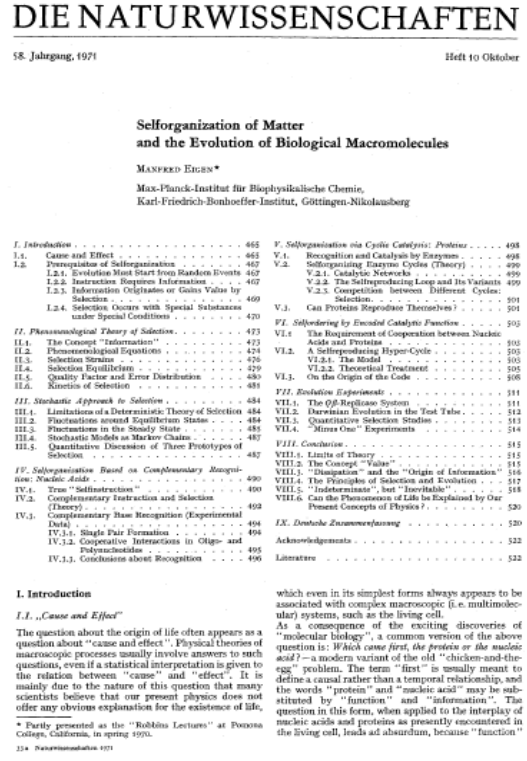

DIE NATURWISSENSCHAFTEN

58. Jahrgang, 1971 — Heft 10 Oktober

Selforganization of Matter and the Evolution of Biological Macromolecules

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* Partly presented as the "Robbins Lectures" at Pomona College, California, in spring 1970.

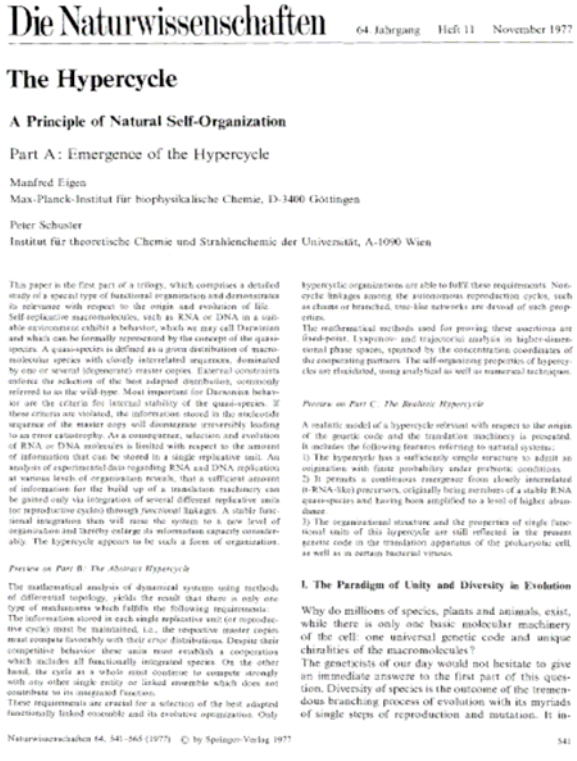
1. Introduction

1.1. „Cause and Effect"

The question about the origin of life often appears as a question about "cause and effect". Physical theories of macroscopic processes usually involve answers to such questions, even if a statistical interpretation is given to the relation between "cause" and "effect". It is mainly due to the nature of this question that many scientists believe that our present physics does not offer any obvious explanation for the existence of life, which even in its simplest forms always appears to be associated with complex macroscopic (i.e. multimolecular) systems, such as the living cell.

As a consequence of the exciting discoveries of "molecular biology", a common version of the above question is: *Which came first, the protein or the nucleic acid?* – a modern variant of the old "chicken-and-the-egg" problem. The term "first" is usually meant to define a causal rather than a temporal relationship, and the words "protein" and "nucleic acid" may be substituted by "function" and "information". The question in this form, when applied to the interplay of nucleic acids and proteins as presently encountered in the living cell, leads ad absurdum, because "function"

1971



Die Naturwissenschaften 64. Jahrgang Heft 11 November 1977

The Hypercycle

A Principle of Natural Self-Organization

Part A: Emergence of the Hypercycle

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Institut für theoretische Chemie und Strahlenchemie der Universität, A-1090 Wien

This paper is the first part of a trilogy, which comprises a detailed study of a special type of functional organization and demonstrates its relevance with respect to the origin and evolution of life. Self-replicative macromolecules, such as RNA or DNA in a suitable environment exhibit a behavior, which we may call Darwinian and which can be formally represented by the concept of the quasi-species. A quasi-species is defined as a given distribution of macromolecular species with closely interrelated sequences, dominated by one or several (degenerate) master copies. External constraints enforce the selection of the best adapted distribution, commonly referred to as the wild-type. Most important for Darwinian behavior are the criteria for internal stability of the quasi-species. If these criteria are violated, the information stored in the nucleotide sequence of the master copy will deteriorate irreversibly leading to an error catastrophy. As a consequence, selection and evolution of RNA or DNA molecules is limited with respect to the amount of information that can be stored in a single replicative unit. An analysis of experimental data regarding RNA and DNA replication at various levels of organization reveals, that a sufficient amount of information for the build up of a translation machinery can be gained only via integration of several different replicative units (or reproductive cycles) through functional linkages. A stable functional integration then will raise the system to a new level of organization and thereby enlarge its information capacity considerably. The hypercycle appears to be such a form of organization.

Preview on Part B: The Abstract Hypercycle

The mathematical analysis of dynamical systems using methods of differential topology, yields the result that there is only one type of mechanisms which fulfills the following requirements: The information stored in each single replicative unit (or reproductive cycle) must be maintained, i.e., the respective master copies must compete favorably with their error distributions. Despite their competitive behavior these units must establish a cooperation which includes all functionally integrated species. On the other hand, the cycle as a whole must continue to compete strongly with any other single entity or linked ensemble which does not contribute to its integrated function.
These requirements are crucial for a selection of the best adapted functionally linked ensemble and its evolutive optimization. Only hypercyclic organizations are able to fulfil these requirements. Non-cycle linkages among the autonomous reproduction cycles, such as chains or branched, tree-like networks are devoid of such properties.
The mathematical methods used for proving these assertions are fixed-point, Lyapunov- and trajectorial analysis in higher-dimensional phase spaces, spanned by the concentration coordinates of the cooperating partners. The self-organizing properties of hypercycles are elucidated, using analytical as well as numerical techniques.

Preview on Part C: The Realistic Hypercycle

A realistic model of a hypercycle relevant with respect to the origin of the genetic code and the translation machinery is presented. It includes the following features referring to natural systems:
1) The hypercycle has a sufficiently simple structure to admit an origination with finite probability under prebiotic conditions.
2) It permits a continuous emergence from closely interrelated (t-RNA-like) precursors, originally being members of a stable RNA quasi-species and having been amplified to a level of higher abundance.
3) The organizational structure and the properties of single functional units of this hypercycle are still reflected in the present genetic code in the translation apparatus of the prokaryotic cell, as well as in certain bacterial viruses.

I. The Paradigm of Unity and Diversity in Evolution

Why do millions of species, plants and animals, exist, while there is only one basic molecular machinery of the cell: one universal genetic code and unique chiralities of the macromolecules?
The geneticists of our day would not hesitate to give an immediate answere to the first part of this question. Diversity of species is the outcome of the tremendous branching process of evolution with its myriads of single steps of reproduction and mutation. It in-

1977

Molecular Quasi-Species†

Manfred Eigen,* John McCaskill,
Max Planck Institut für biophysikalische Chemie, Am Fassberg, D 3400 Göttingen-Nikolausberg, BRD
and Peter Schuster*
Institut für theoretische Chemie und Strahlenchemie, der Universität Wien, Währinger Strasse 17, A-1090 Wien, Austria (Received: June 9, 1988)

The molecular quasi-species model describes the physicochemical organization of monomers into an ensemble of heteropolymers with combinatorial complexity by ongoing template polymerization. Polynucleotides belong to the simplest class of such molecules. The quasi-species itself represents the stationary distribution of macromolecular sequences maintained by chemical reactions effecting error-prone replication and by transport processes. It is obtained deterministically, by mass-action kinetics, as the dominant eigenvalue of a *value* matrix, **W**, which is derived directly from chemical rate coefficients, but it also exhibits stochastic features, being composed to a significant fraction of unique individual macromolecular sequences. The quasi-species model demonstrates how macromolecular information originates through specific nonequilibrium autocatalytic reactions and thus forms a bridge between reaction kinetics and molecular evolution. Selection and evolutionary optimization appear as new features in physical chemistry. Concentration bias in the production of mutants is a new concept in population genetics, relevant to frequently mutating populations, which is shown to greatly enhance the optimization properties. The present theory relates to asexually replicating ensembles, but this restriction is not essential. A sharp transition is exhibited between a drifting population of essentially random macromolecular sequences and a localized population of close relatives. This transition at a threshold error rate was found to depend on sequence lengths, distributions of selective values, and population sizes. It has been determined generically for complex landscapes and for special cases, and, it was shown to persist generically in the presence of nearly neutral mutants. Replication dynamics has much in common with the equilibrium statistics of complex spin systems: the error threshold is equivalent to a magnetic order-disorder transition. A rational function of the replication accuracy plays the role of temperature. Experimental data obtained from test-tube evolution of polynucleotides and from studies of natural virus populations support the quasi-species model. The error threshold seems to set a limit to the genome lengths of several classes of RNA viruses. In addition, the results are relevant even in eucaryotes where they contribute to the exon-intron debate.

1. Molecular Selection

Our knowledge of physical and chemical systems is, in a final analysis, based on models derived from repeatable experiments. While none of the classic and rather besieged list of properties rounded up to support the intuition of a distinction between the living and nonliving—metabolism, self-reproduction, irritability, and adaptability, for example—intrinsically limit the application of the scientific method, a determining role by unique or *individual* entities comes into conflict with the requirement of repeatability. Combinatorial variety, such as that in heteropolymers based on even very small numbers of different bases, even just two, readily provides numbers of different entities so enormous that neither consecutive nor parallel physical realization is possible. The physical chemistry of finite systems of such macromolecules must deal with both known regularities and the advent of unique copolymeric sequences. Normally this would present no difficulty in a statistical mechanical analysis of typical behavior, where rare events play no significant role, but with autocatalytic polymerization processes even unique single molecules may be amplified to determine the fate of the entire system. Potentially creative, self-organizing around unique events, the dynamics of this simplest living chemical system is invested with regularities that both allow and limit efficient adaptation. The quasi-species model is a study of these regularities.

The fundamental regularity in living organisms that has invited explanation is adaptation. Why are organisms so well fitted to their environments? At a more chemical level, why are enzymes optimal catalysts? Darwin's theory of natural selection has provided biologists with a framework for the answer to this question. The present model is constructed along Darwinian lines but in terms of specific macromolecules, chemical reactions, and physical processes that make the notion of survival of the fittest precise. Not only does the model give an understanding of the physical limitations of adaptation, but also it provides new insight into the role of chance in the process. For an understanding of the structure of this minimal chemical model it is first necessary to recall the conceptual basis of Darwin's theory.

Darwin recognized that new inheritable adaptive properties were not induced by the environment but arose independently in the production of offspring. Lasting adaptive changes in a population could only come about by natural selection of the heritable traits or *genotype* based on the full characteristics or *phenotype* relevant for producing offspring. A process of chance, i.e., uncorrelated with the developed phenotype, controls changes in the genotype from one generation to the next and generates the diversity necessary for selection. Three factors have probably prevented chemists from gaining a clear insight into these phenomena in the past, despite the discovery of the polymeric nature of the genotype (DNA): the complexity of a minimum replication phenotype, the problem of dealing with a huge number of variants, and the nonequilibrium nature of these ongoing processes.

The formulation of a tractable chemical model based on Darwin's principle may be understood in several steps:

1. The major constituents of the system have to be inherently self-reproductive. Only two classes of molecules are presently

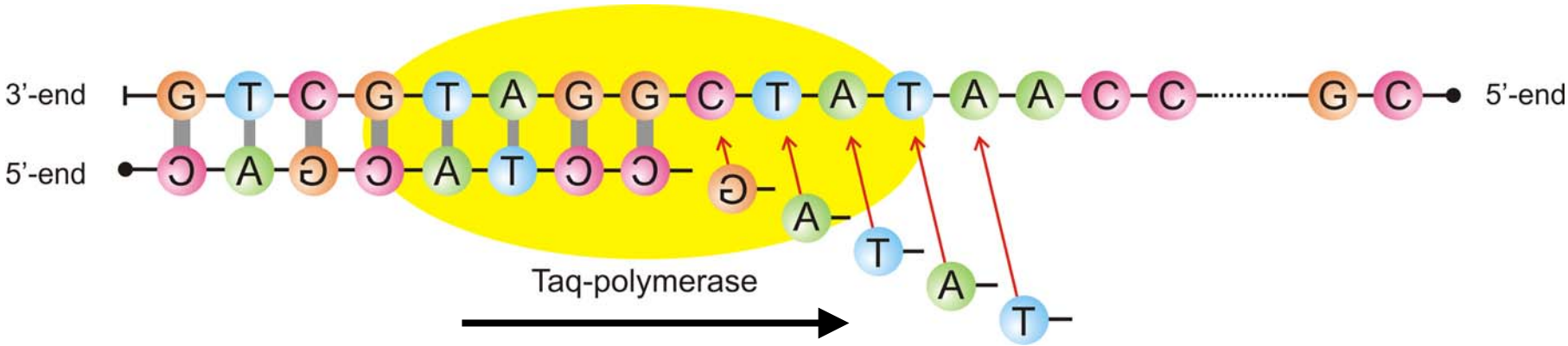
† This is an abridged account of the quasi-species theory that has been submitted in comprehensive form to *Advances in Chemical Physics*.[1]

(1) Eigen, M.; McCaskill, J. S.; Schuster, P. *Adv. Chem. Phys.*, in press.

0022-3654/88/2092-6881$01.50/0

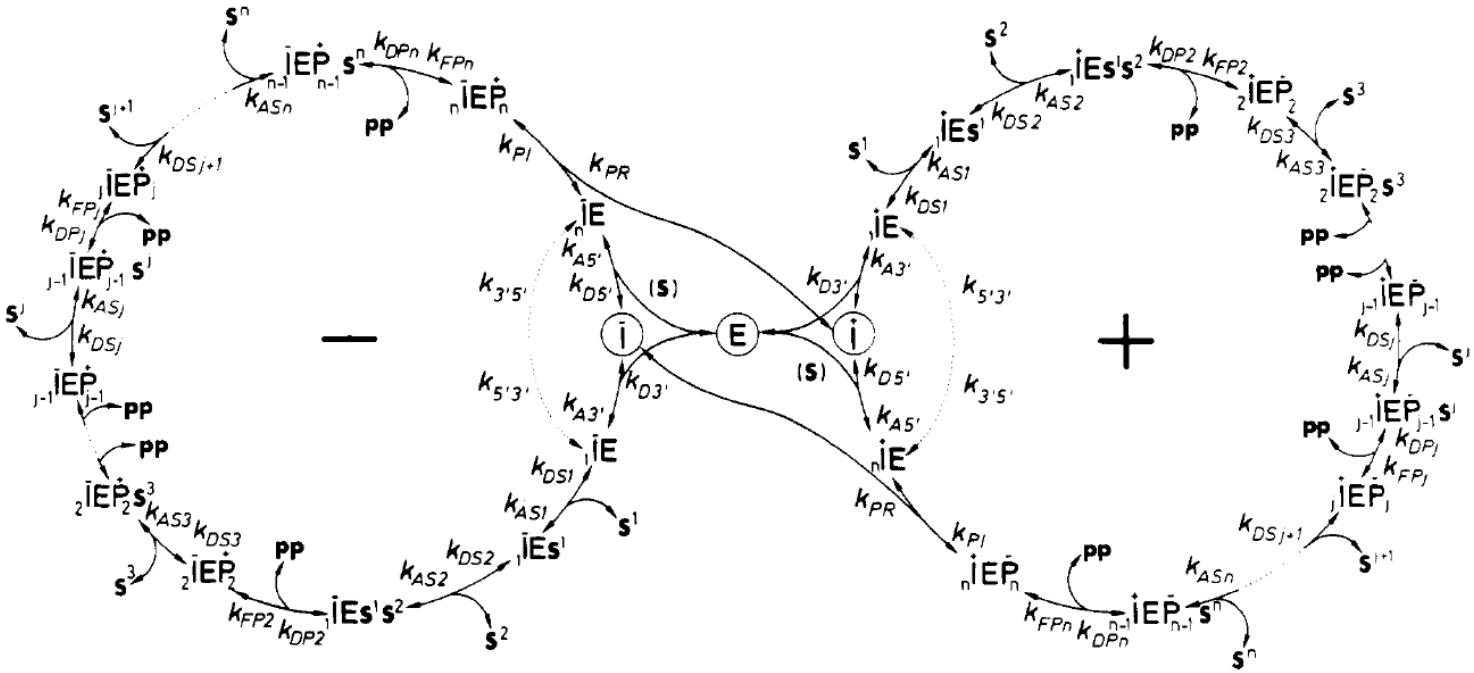
1988

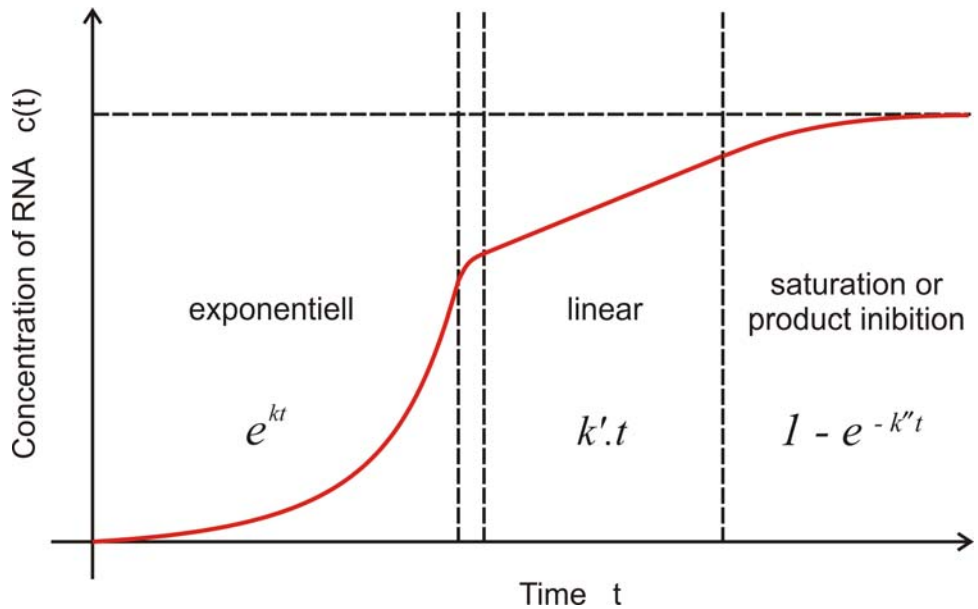
Chemical kinetics of molecular evolution



Accuracy of replication: $Q = q_1 \cdot q_2 \cdot q_3 \cdot \ldots \cdot q_n$

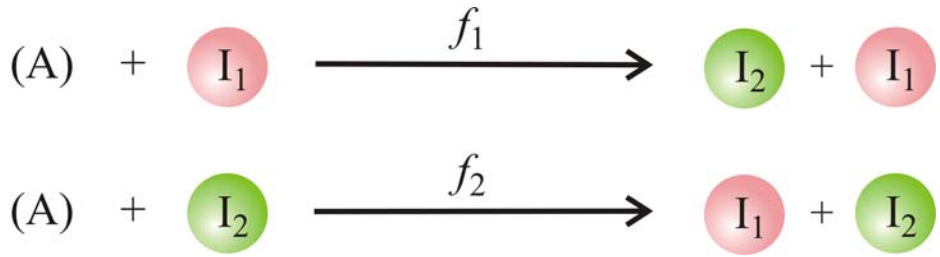
Template induced nucleic acid synthesis proceeds from 5'-end to 3'-end





Kinetics of RNA replication

C.K. Biebricher, M. Eigen, W.C. Gardiner, Jr.
Biochemistry **22**:2544-2559, 1983



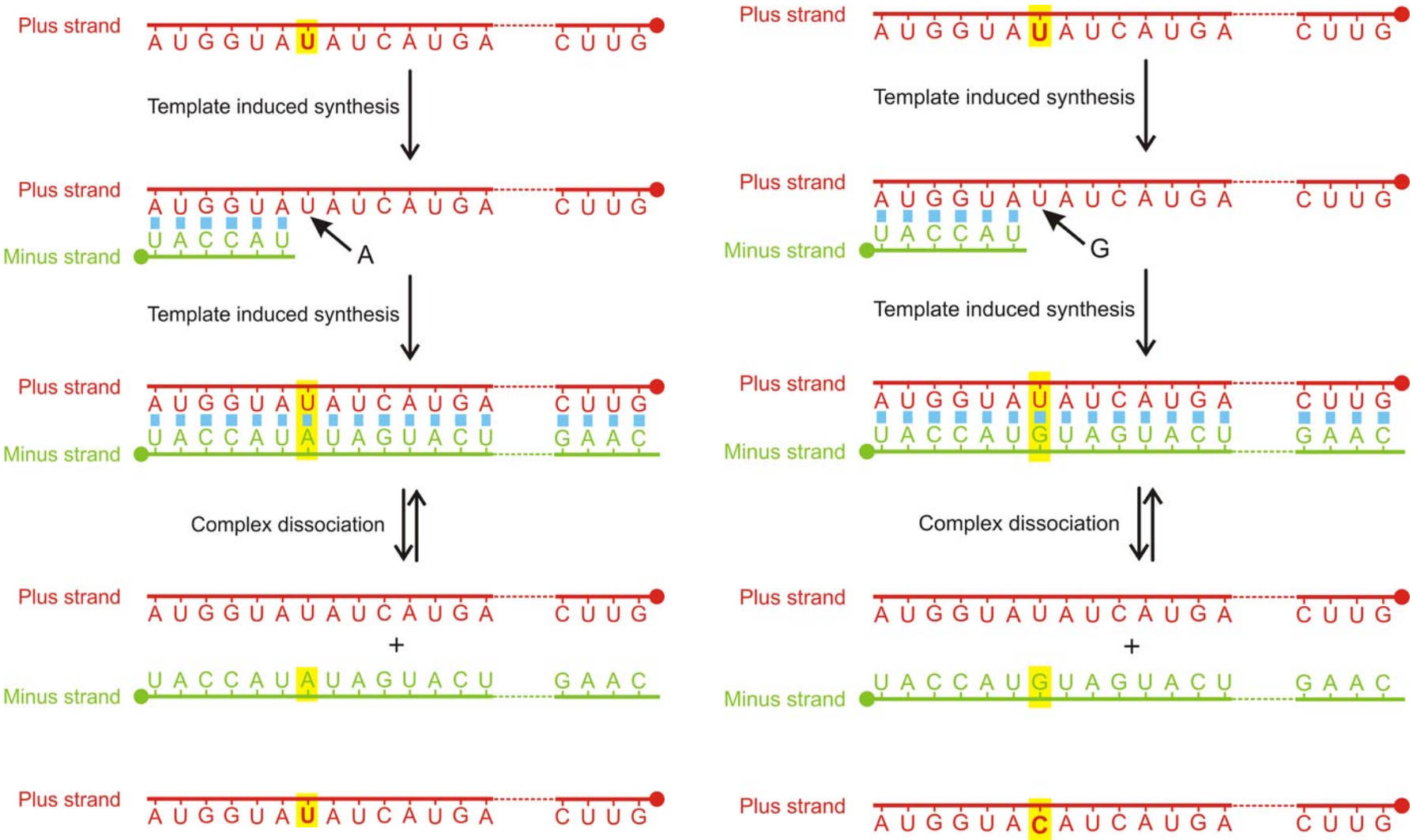
$$\frac{dx_1}{dt} = f_2\, x_2 \quad \text{and} \quad \frac{dx_2}{dt} = f_1\, x_1$$

$$x_1 = \sqrt{f_2}\;\xi_1\,, \quad x_2 = \sqrt{f_1}\;\xi_2\,, \quad \zeta = \xi_1 + \xi_2\,, \quad \eta = \xi_1 - \xi_2\,, \quad f = \sqrt{f_1 f_2}$$

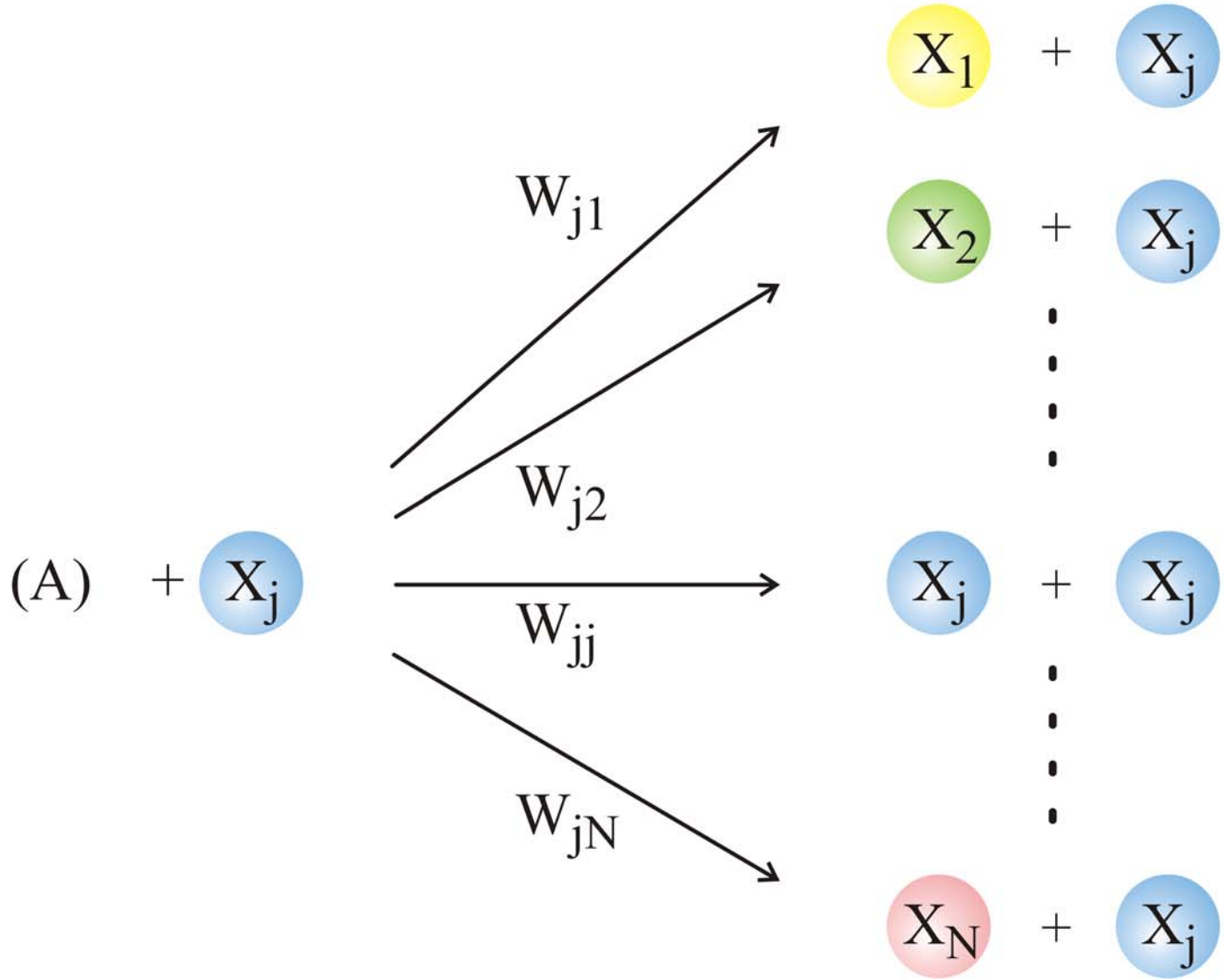
$$\eta(t) = \eta(0)\, e^{-ft}$$

$$\zeta(t) = \zeta(0)\, e^{ft}$$

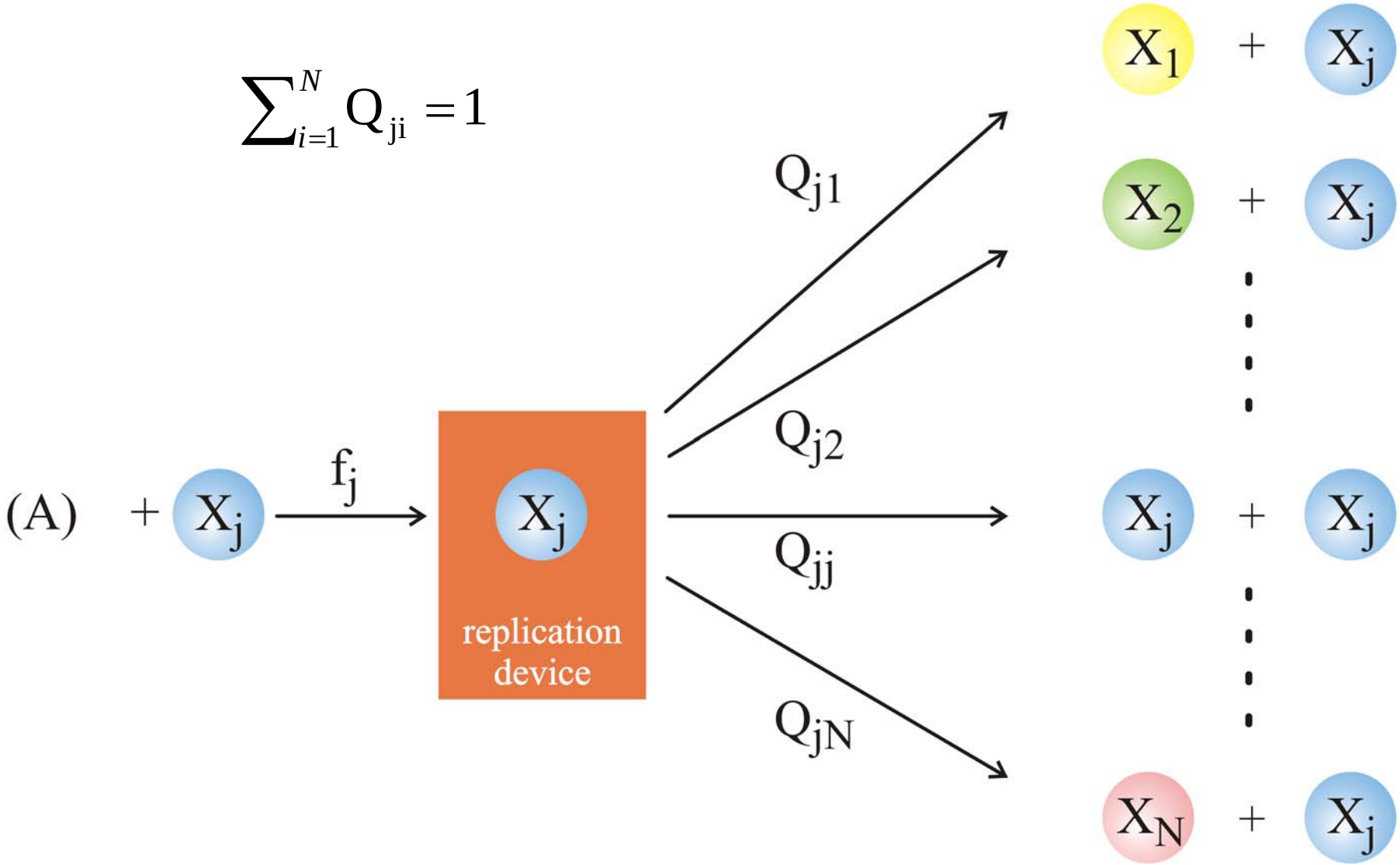
Complementary replication as the simplest molecular mechanism of reproduction



Replication and mutation are parallel chemical reactions.

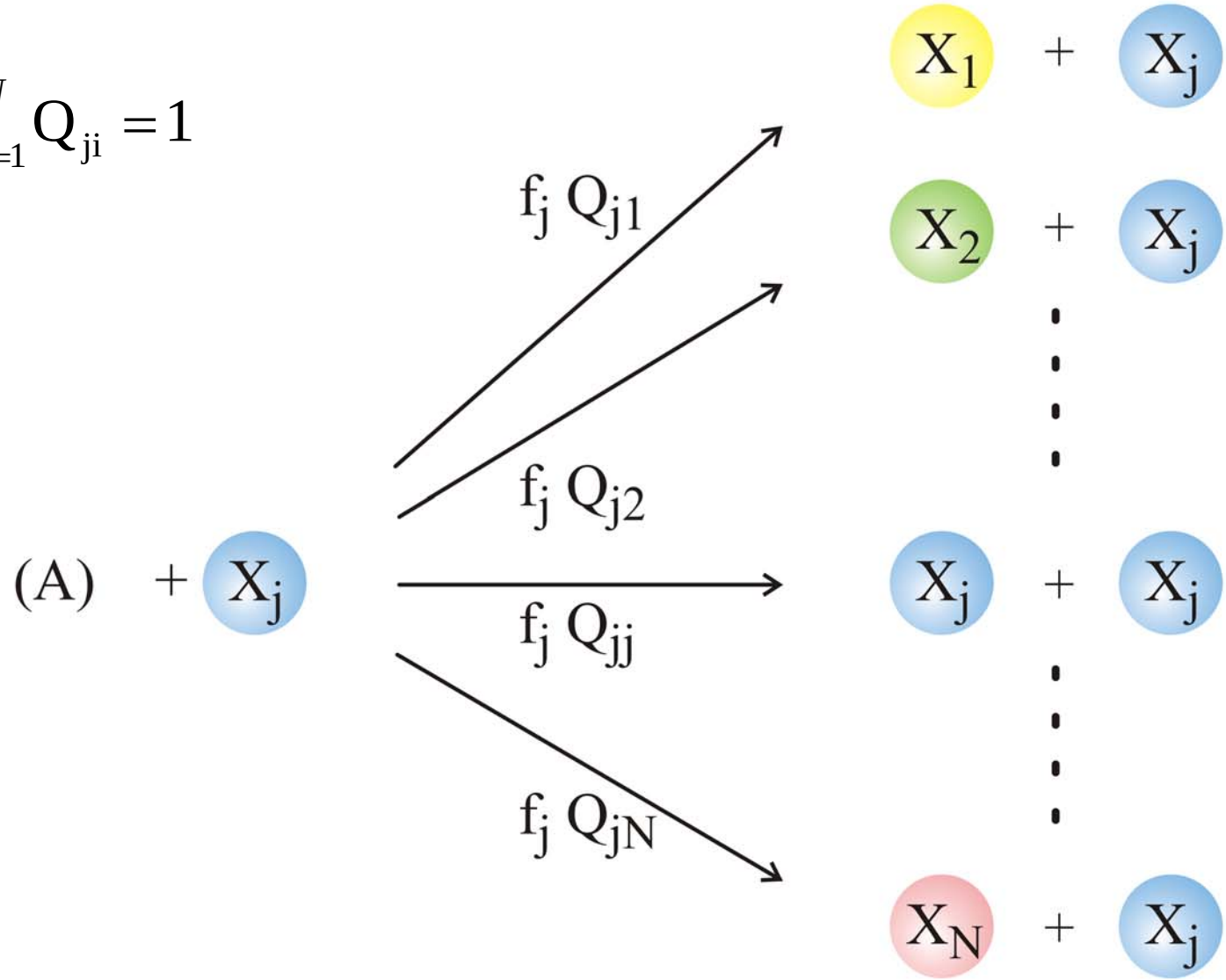


Chemical kinetics of replication and mutation as parallel reactions



Chemical kinetics of replication and mutation as parallel reactions

$$\sum_{i=1}^{N} Q_{ji} = 1$$



Chemical kinetics of replication and mutation as parallel reactions

Decomposition of matrix W

$$\mathrm{W} = \begin{pmatrix} w_{11} & w_{12} & \dots & w_{1n} \\ w_{21} & w_{22} & \dots & w_{2n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ w_{n1} & w_{n2} & \dots & w_{nn} \end{pmatrix} = \mathrm{Q} \cdot \mathrm{F} \quad \text{with}$$

$$\mathrm{Q} = \begin{pmatrix} Q_{11} & Q_{12} & \dots & Q_{1n} \\ Q_{21} & Q_{22} & \dots & Q_{2n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ Q_{n1} & Q_{n2} & \dots & Q_{nn} \end{pmatrix} \quad \text{and} \quad \mathrm{F} = \begin{pmatrix} f_1 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & f_2 & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & \dots & f_n \end{pmatrix}$$

Factorization of the value matrix W separates mutation and fitness effects.

Mutation-selection equation: $[\mathrm{I}_i] = x_i \geq 0,\ f_i \geq 0,\ Q_{ij} \geq 0$

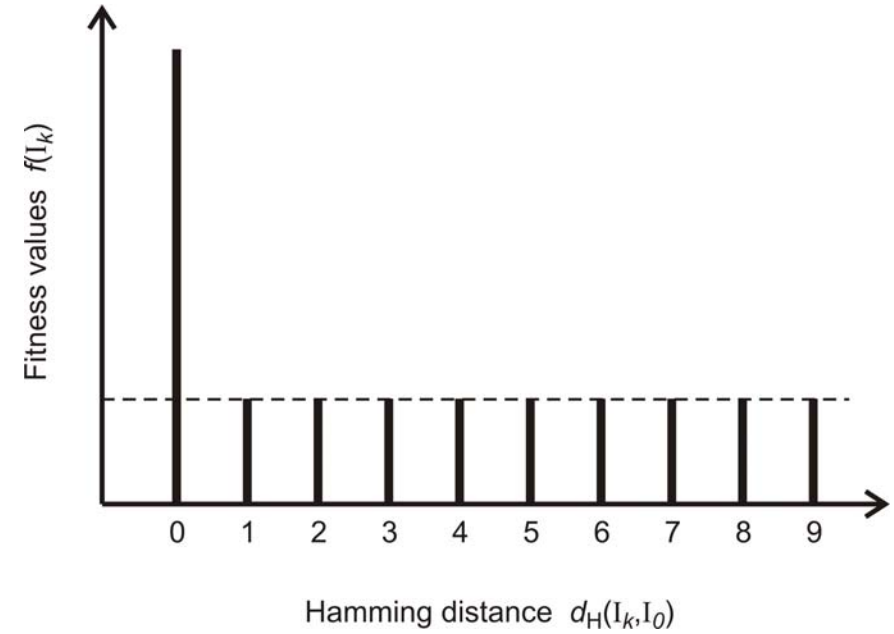
$$\frac{dx_i}{dt} = \sum_{j=1}^{n} Q_{ij}\ f_j\ x_j - x_i\,\phi, \quad i = 1,2,\cdots,n; \quad \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i = 1; \quad \phi = \sum_{j=1}^{n} f_j\, x_j = \overline{f}$$

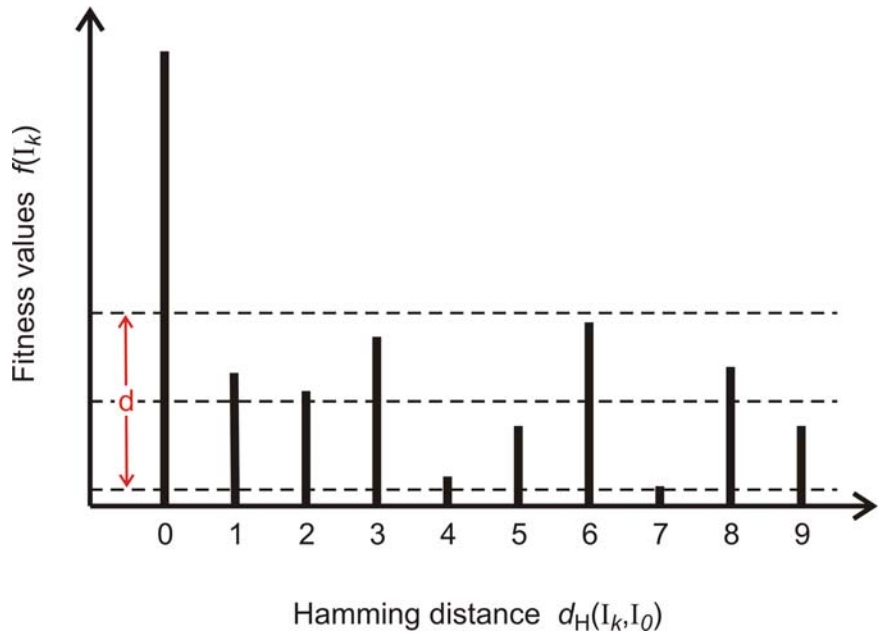
solutions are obtained after integrating factor transformation by means of an eigenvalue problem

$$x_i(t) = \frac{\sum_{k=0}^{n-1} \ell_{ik} \cdot c_k(0) \cdot \exp(\lambda_k t)}{\sum_{j=1}^{n} \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} \ell_{jk} \cdot c_k(0) \cdot \exp(\lambda_k t)}; \quad i = 1,2,\cdots,n; \quad c_k(0) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} h_{ki}\ x_i(0)$$

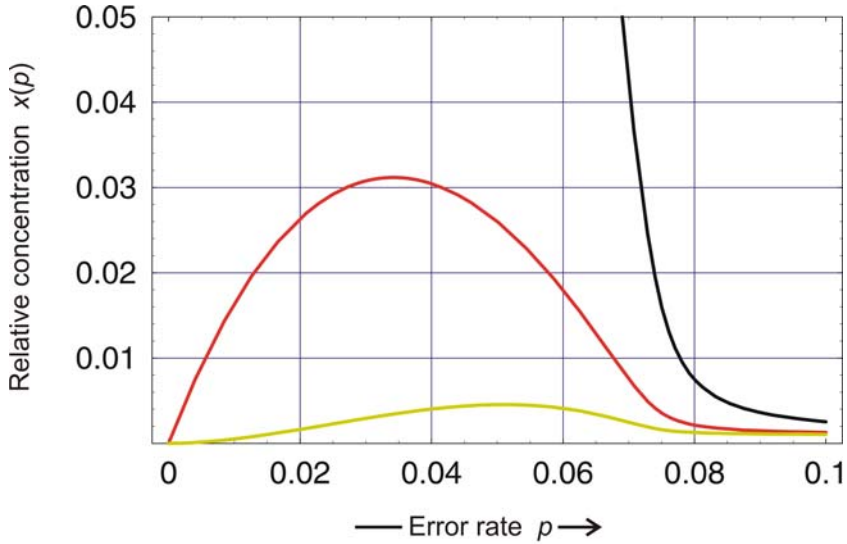
$$W \div \left\{ f_i Q_{ij};\ i,\ j = 1,2,\cdots,n \right\};\ L = \left\{ \ell_{ij};\ i,\ j = 1,2,\cdots,n \right\};\ L^{-1} = H = \left\{ h_{ij};\ i,\ j = 1,2,\cdots,n \right\}$$

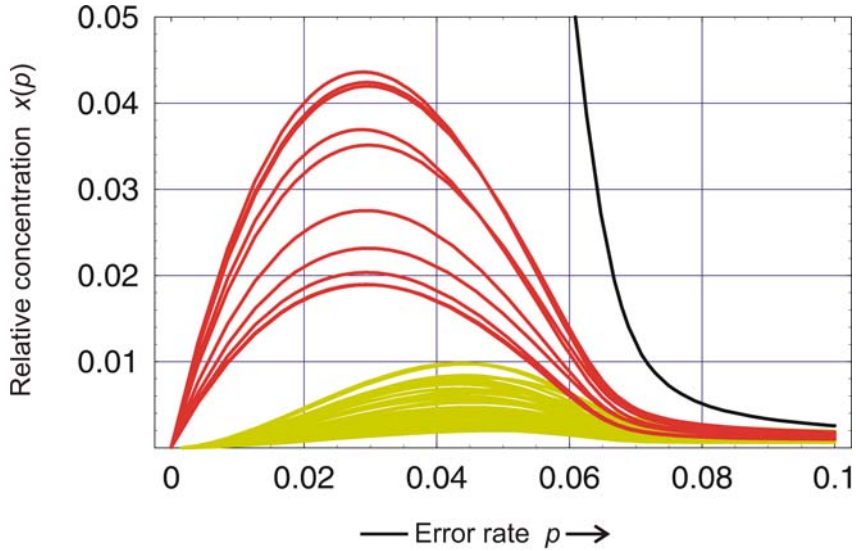
$$L^{-1} \cdot W \cdot L \quad = \quad \Lambda \quad = \quad \left\{ \lambda_k;\ k = 0,1,\cdots,n-1 \right\}$$



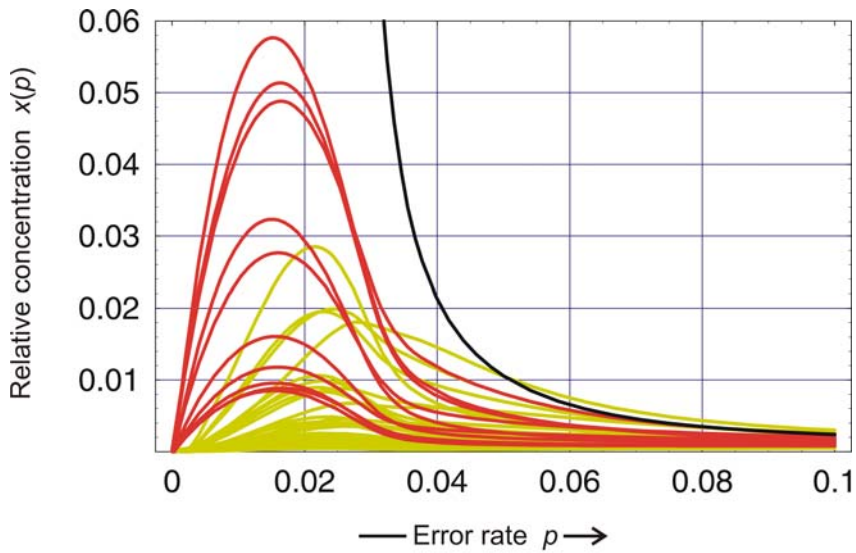


Fitness landscapes showing error thresholds



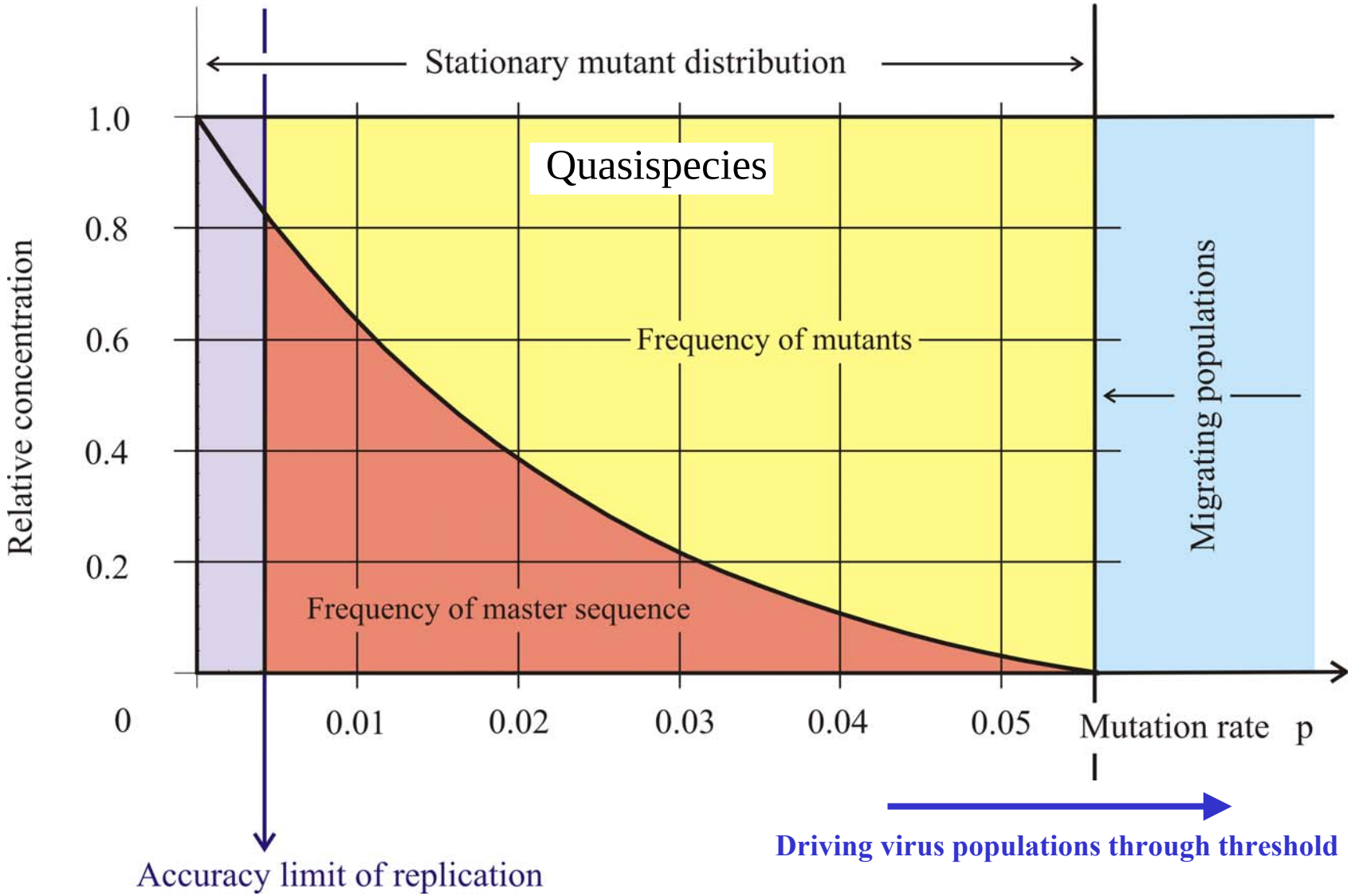


$$Q_{ij} \cong (1-p)^{n-d_{ij}^{H}} \; p^{d_{ij}^{H}} \; ; \; p = 1-q$$



Error threshold: Individual sequences

n = 10, σ = 2 and d = 0, 1.0, 1.85



The error threshold in replication

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Virus Research 107 (2005) 115–116
Virus Research
www.elsevier.com/locate/virusres

Preface

Antiviral strategy on the horizon

Error catastrophe had its conceptual origins in the middle of the XXth century, when the consequences of mutations on enzymes involved in protein synthesis, as a theory of aging. In those times biological processes were generally perceived differently from today. Infectious diseases were regarded as a fleeting nuisance which would be eliminated through the use of antibiotics and antiviral agents. Microbial variation, although known in some cases, was not thought to be a significant problem for disease control. Variation in differentiated organisms was seen as resulting essentially from exchanges of genetic material associated with sexual reproduction. The problem was to unveil the mechanisms of inheritance, expression of genetic information and metabolism. Few saw that genetic change is occurring at present in all organisms, and still fewer recognized Darwinian principles as essential to the biology of pathogenic viruses and cells. Population geneticists rarely used bacteria or viruses as experimental systems to define concepts in biological evolution. The extent of genetic polymorphism among individuals of the same biological species came as a surprise when the first results on comparison of electrophoretic mobility of enzymes were obtained. With the advent of in vitro DNA recombination, and rapid nucleic acid sequencing techniques, molecular analyses of genomes reinforced the conclusion of extreme inter-individual genetic variation within the same species. Now, due largely to spectacular progress in comparative genomics, we see cellular DNAs, both prokaryotic and eukaryotic, as highly dynamic. Most cellular processes, including such essential information-bearing and transferring events as genome replication, transcription and translation, are increasingly perceived as inherently inaccurate. Viruses, and in particular RNA viruses, are among the most extreme examples of exploitation of replication inaccuracy for survival.

Error catastrophe, or the loss of meaningful genetic information through excess genetic variation, was formulated in quantitative terms as a consequence of quasispecies theory, which was first developed to explain self-organization and adaptability of primitive replicons in early stages of life. Recently, a conceptual extension of error catastrophe that could be defined as "induced genetic deterioration" has emerged as a possible antiviral strategy. This is the topic of the current special issue of ***Virus Research***.

Few would nowadays doubt that one of the major obstacles for the control of viral disease is short-term adaptability of viral pathogens. Adaptability of viruses follows the same Darwinian principles that have shaped biological evolution over eons, that is, repeated rounds of reproduction with genetic variation, competition and selection, often perturbed by random events such as statistical fluctuations in population size. However, with viruses the consequences of the operation of these very same Darwinian principles are felt within very short times. Short-term evolution (within hours and days) can be also observed with some cellular pathogens, with subsets of normal cells, and cancer cells. The nature of RNA viral pathogens begs for alternative antiviral strategies, and forcing the virus to cross the critical error threshold for maintenance of genetic information is one of them.

The contributions to this volume have been chosen to reflect different lines of evidence (both theoretical and experimental) on which antiviral designs based on genetic deterioration inflicted upon viruses are being constructed. Theoretical studies have explored the copying fidelity conditions that must be fulfilled by any information-bearing replication system for the essential genetic information to be transmitted to progeny. Closely related to the theoretical developments have been numerous experimental studies on quasispecies dynamics and their multiple biological manifestations. The latter can be summarized by saying that RNA viruses, by virtue of existing as mutant spectra rather than defined genetic entities, remarkably expand their potential to overcome selective pressures intended to limit their replication. Indeed, the use of antiviral inhibitors in clinical practice and the design of vaccines for a number of major RNA virus-associated diseases, are currently presided by a sense of uncertainty. Another line of growing research is the enzymology of copying fidelity by viral replicases, aimed at understanding the molecular basis of mutagenic activities. Error catastrophe as a potential new antiviral strategy received an important impulse by the observation that ribavirin (a licensed antiviral nucleoside analogue) may be exerting, in some systems, its antiviral activity through enhanced mutagenesis. This has encouraged investigations on new mutagenic base analogues, some of them used in anticancer chemotherapy. Some chapters summarize these important biochemical studies on cell entry pathways and metabolism of mutagenic agents, that may find new applications as antiviral agents.

This volume intends to be basically a progress report, an introduction to a new avenue of research, and a realistic appraisal of the many issues that remain to be investigated. In this respect, I can envisage (not without many uncertainties) at least three lines of needed research: (i) One on further understanding of quasispecies dynamics in infected individuals to learn more on how to apply combinations of virus-specific mutagens and inhibitors in an effective way, finding synergistic combinations and avoiding antagonistic ones as well as severe clinical side effects. (ii) Another on a deeper understanding of the metabolism of mutagenic agents, in particular base and nucleoside analogues. This includes identification of the transporters that carry them into cells, an understanding of their metabolic processing, intracellular stability and alterations of nucleotide pools, among other issues. (iii) Still another line of needed research is the development of new mutagenic agents specific for viruses, showing no (or limited) toxicity for cells. Some advances may come from links with anticancer research, but others should result from the designs of new molecules, based on the structures of viral polymerases. I really hope that the reader finds this issue not only to be an interesting and useful review of the current situation in the field, but also a stimulating exposure to the major problems to be faced.

The idea to prepare this special issue came as a kind invitation of Ulrich Desselberger, former Editor of ***Virus Research***, and then taken enthusiastically by Luis Enjuanes, recently appointed as Editor of ***Virus Research***. I take this opportunity to thank Ulrich, Luis and the Editor-in-Chief of ***Virus Research***, Brian Mahy, for their continued interest and support to the research on virus evolution over the years.

My thanks go also to the 19 authors who despite their busy schedules have taken time to prepare excellent manuscripts, to Elsevier staff for their prompt responses to my requests, and, last but not least, to Ms. Lucía Horrillo from Centro de Biología Molecular "Severo Ochoa" for her patient dealing with the correspondence with authors and the final organization of the issue.

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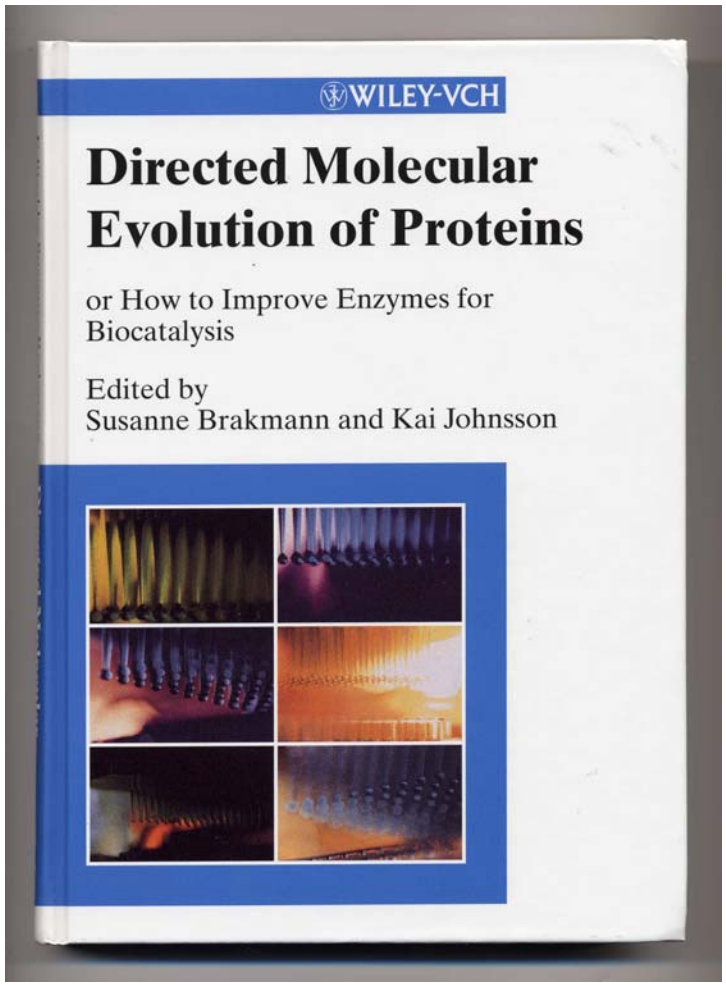
Charles Darwin, 1809-1882

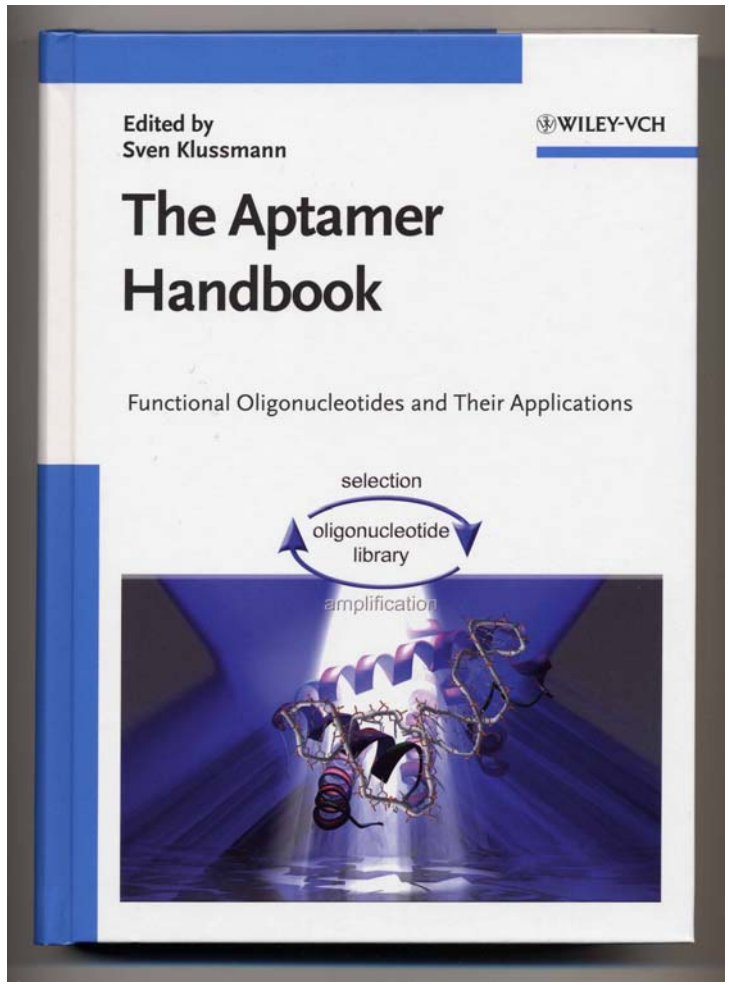
Three necessary conditions for Darwinian evolution are:

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

All three conditions are fulfilled not only by cellular organisms but also by **nucleic acid molecules** – **DNA** or **RNA** – **in** suitable **cell-free experimental assays**:

Darwinian evolution in the test tube





Application of molecular evolution to problems in biotechnology

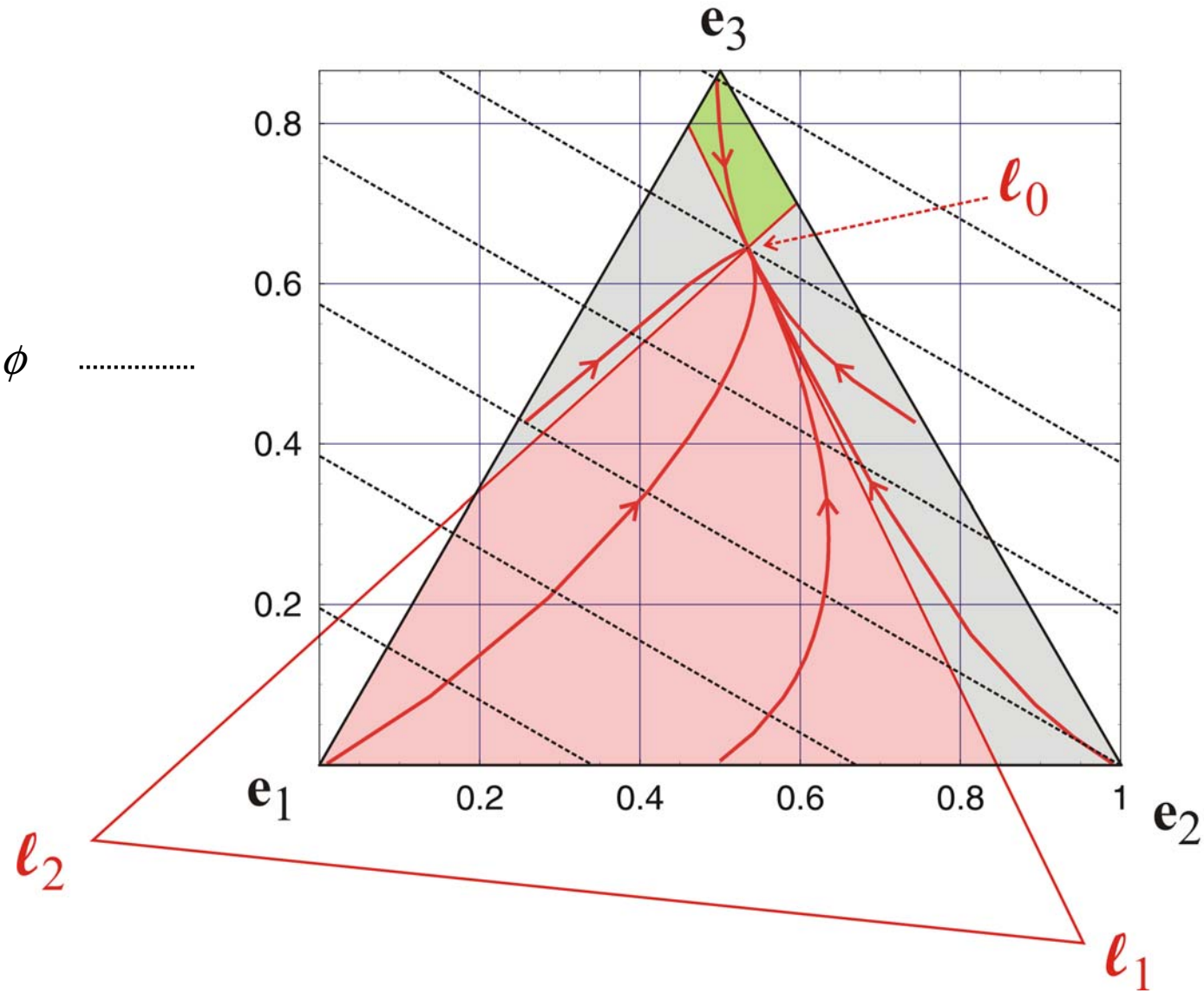
Artificial evolution in biotechnology and pharmacology

G.F. Joyce. 2004. Directed evolution of nucleic acid enzymes. *Annu.Rev.Biochem*. **73**:791-836.

C. Jäckel, P. Kast, and D. Hilvert. 2008. Protein design by directed evolution. *Annu.Rev.Biophys*. **37**:153-173.

S.J. Wrenn and P.B. Harbury. 2007. Chemical evolution as a tool for molecular discovery. *Annu.Rev.Biochem*. **76**:331-349.

constant level sets of ϕ .....

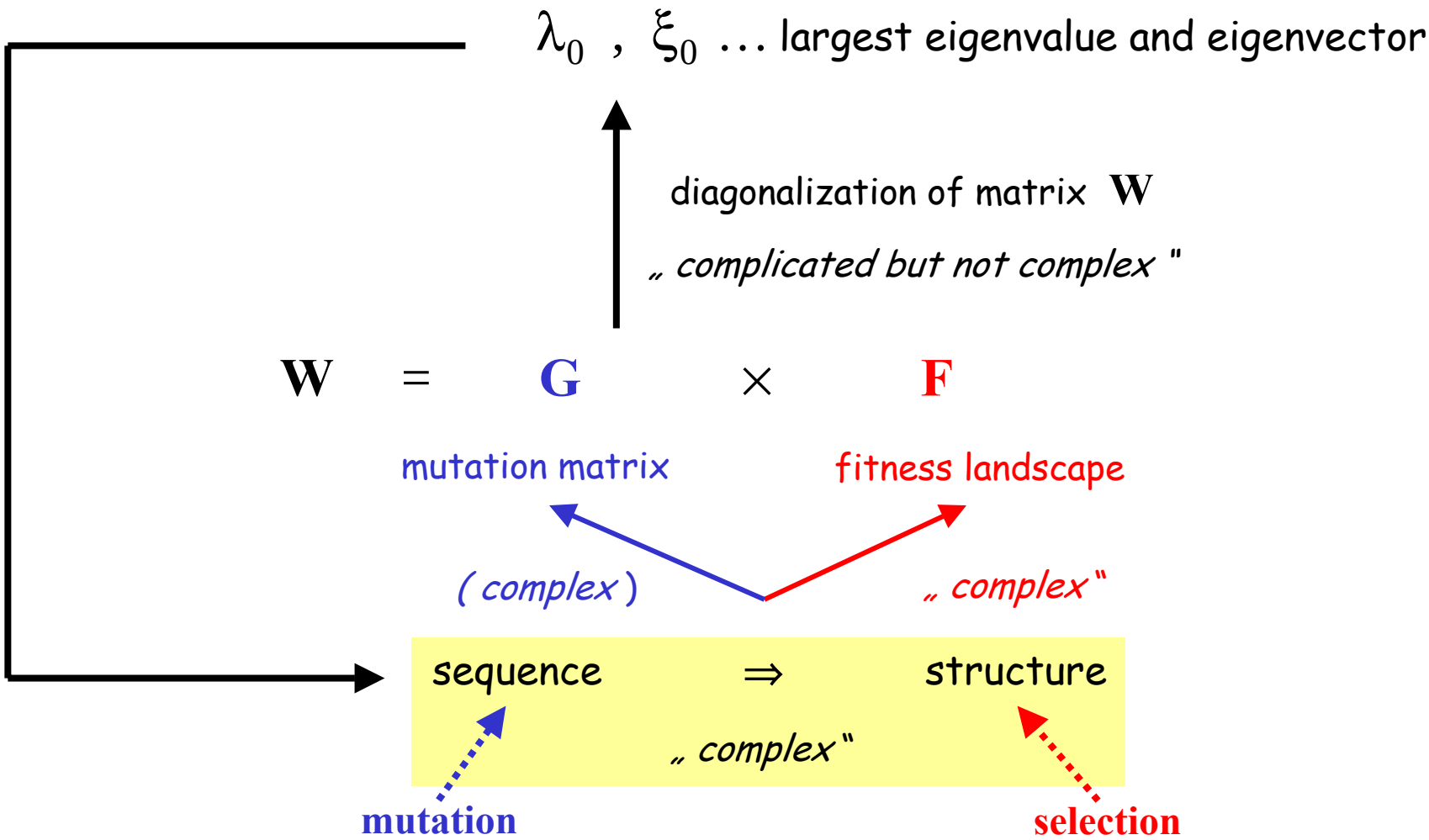


Selection of quasispecies with $f_1 = 1.9$, $f_2 = 2.0$, $f_3 = 2.1$, and $p = 0.01$, parametric plot on S_3

Phenomenon	Optimization of fitness	Unique selection outcome
Selection	**yes**	**yes**
Recombination and selection Independent genes	**yes**	**no**
Recombination and selection Interacting genes	**no**	**no**
Mutation and selection	**no**	**yes**

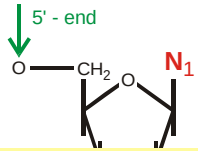
The Darwinian mechanism of variation and selection is a very powerful **optimization heuristic**.

The Darwinian mechanism and optimization of fitness

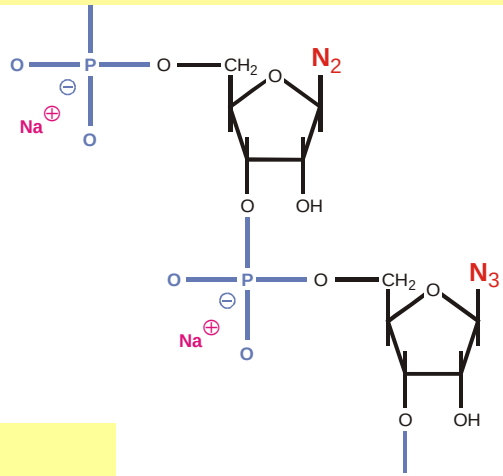


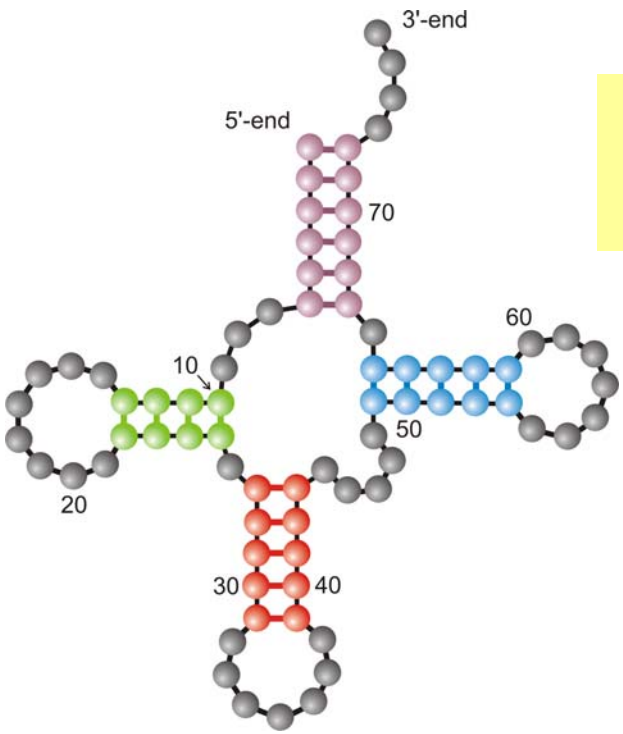
Complexity in molecular evolution

1. Darwin, Mendel, and evolutionary optimization
2. Evolution as an exercise in chemical kinetics
3. **Genotype – phenoytype mappings in biopolymers**
4. Neutrality in evolution
5. Extending the notion of structure
6. Simulation of molecular evolution
7. Some origins of complexity in biology



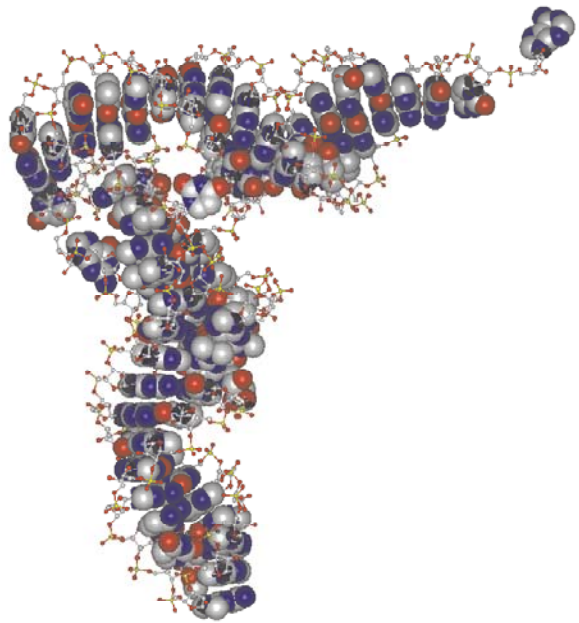
5'-end GCGGAUUUAGCUCAGUUGGGAGAGCGCCAGACUGAAGAUCUGGAGGUCCUGUGUUCGAUCCACAGAAUUCGCACCA 3'-end

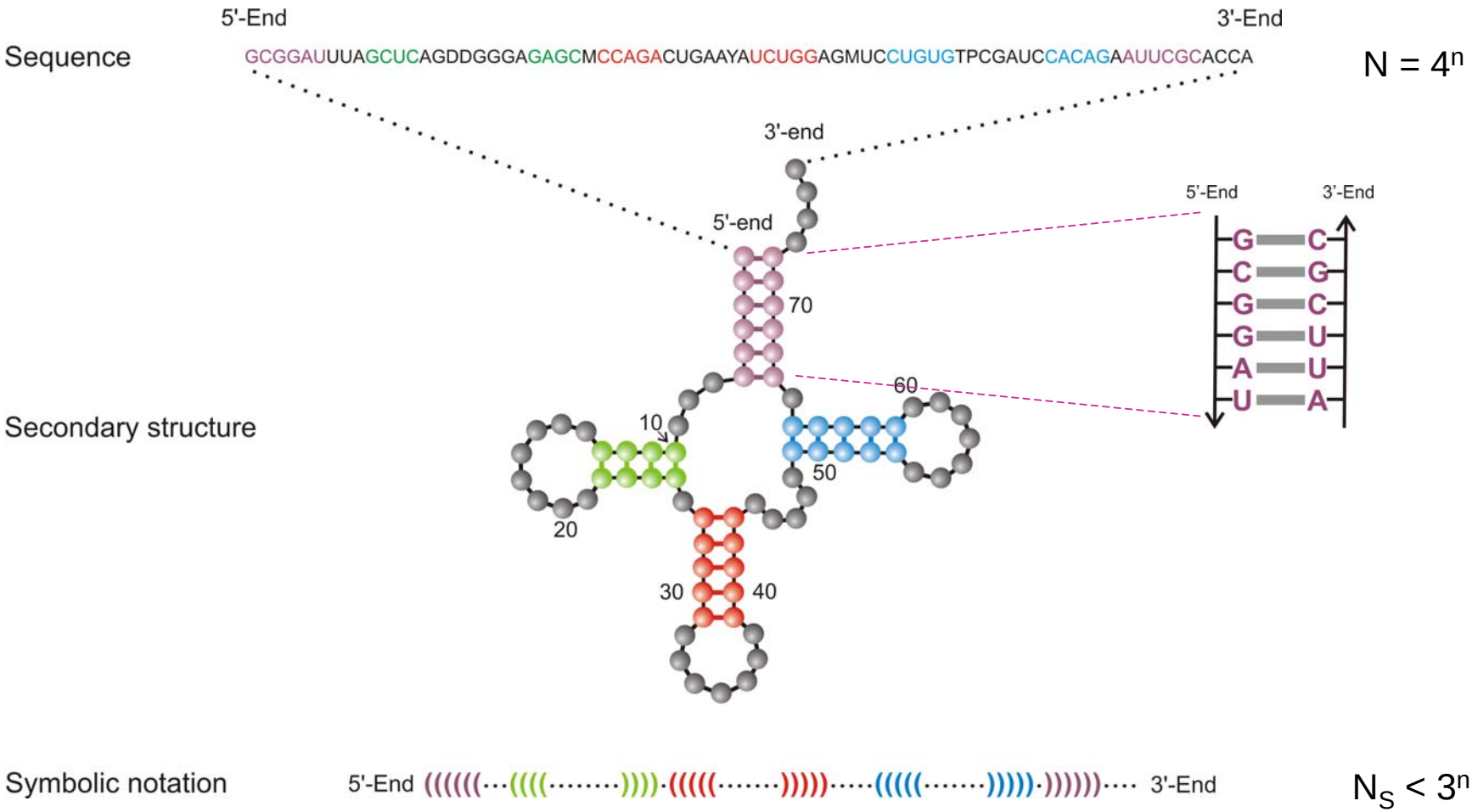




RNA structure

The molecular phenotype





Criterion: Minimum free energy (mfe)

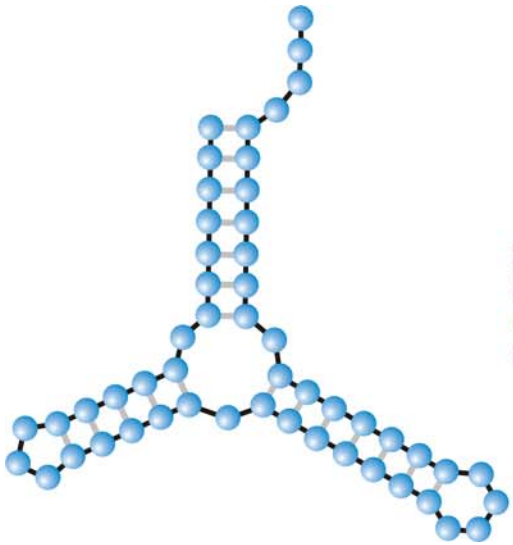
Rules: _ (_) _ ∈ {**AU**,**CG**,**GC**,**GU**,**UA**,**UG**}

A symbolic notation of RNA secondary structure that is equivalent to the conventional graphs

Monatshefte für Chemie 125, 167–188 (1994)

Monatshefte für Chemie
Chemical Monthly

Printed in Austria



1st
2nd
3rd trial
4th
5th

Inverse folding

UUUAGCCAGCGCGAGUCGUGCGGACGGGGUUAUCUCUGUCGGGCUAGGGCGC

GUGAGCGCGGGGCACAGUUUCUCAAGGAUGUAAGUUUUUGCCGUUUAUCUGG

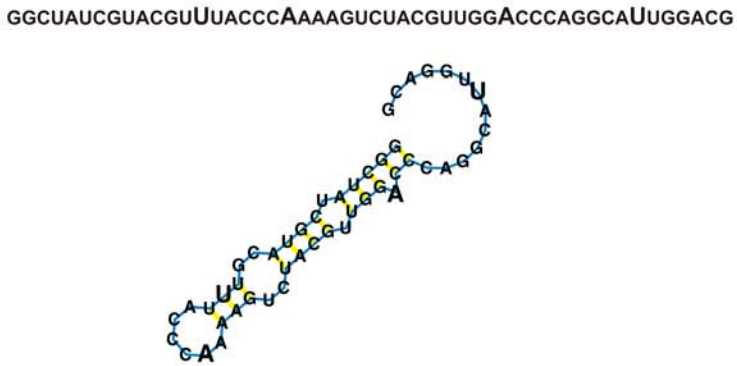
UUAGCGAGAGAGGAGGCUUCUAGACCCAGCUCUCUGGGUCGUUGCUGAUGCG

CAUUGGUGCUAAUGAUAUUAGGGCUGUAUUCCUGUAUAGCGAUCAGUGUCCG

GUAGGCCCUCUUGACAUAAGAUUUUUCCAAUGGUGGGAGAUGGCCAUUGCAG

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

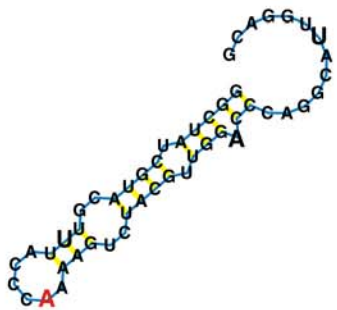
The inverse folding algorithm searches for sequences that form a given RNA structure.



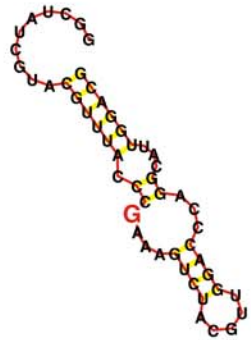
One error neighborhood – Surrounding of an RNA molecule of chain length n=50 in sequence and shape space

GGCUAUCGUACGUUUACCCGAAAGUCUACGUUGGACCCAGGCAUUGGACG

GGCUAUCGUACGUUUACCCAAAAGUCUACGUUGGACCCAGGCAUUGGACG

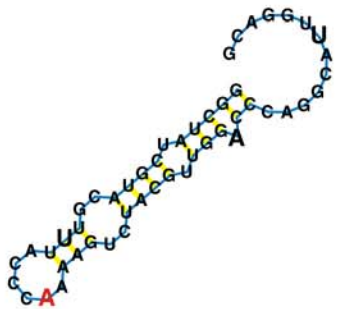


One error neighborhood – Surrounding of an RNA molecule of chain length n=50 in sequence and shape space

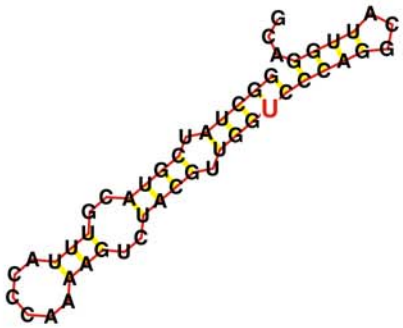


GGCUAUCGUACGUUUACCCGAAAGUCUACGUUGGACCCAGGCAUUGGACG

GGCUAUCGUACGUUUACCCAAAAGUCUACGUUGGACCCAGGCAUUGGACG



One error neighborhood – Surrounding of an RNA molecule of chain length n=50 in sequence and shape space



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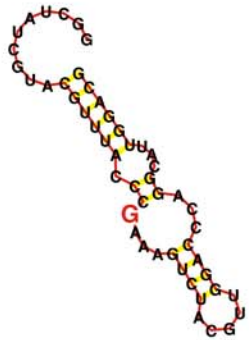

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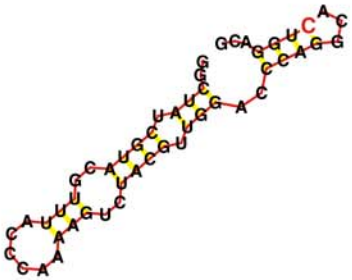

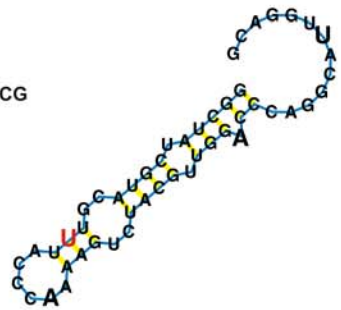

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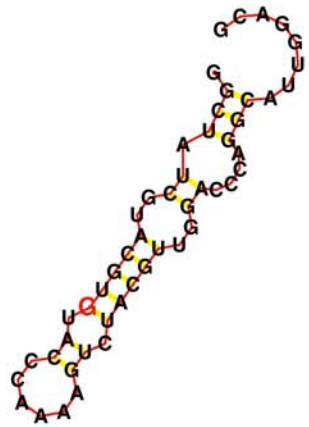

GGCUAUCGUACGUUUACCCAAAAGUCUACGUUGGACCCAGGCAUUGGACG

One error neighborhood – Surrounding of an RNA molecule of chain length n=50 in sequence and shape space

GGCUAUCGUA**U**GUUUACCCAAAAGUCUACGUUGGACCCAGGCAUUGGACG
GGCUAUCGUACGUUUACCCAAAAGUCUACGUUGGACCCAGGCAUU**A**GACG
GGCUAUCGUACGUUUAC**U**CAAAAGUCUACGUUGGACCCAGGCAUUGGACG
GGCUAUCGUACG**C**UUACCCAAAAGUCUACGUUGGACCCAGGCAUUGGACG
GGC**C**AUCGUACGUUUACCCAAAAGUCUACGUUGGACCCAGGCAUUGGACG
GGCUAUCGUACGUUUACCCAAAAGUCUACGUUGGACCCAGGCAUUGGACG
GGCUAUCGUACGU**G**UACCCAAAAGUCUACGUUGGACCCAGGCAUUGGACG
GGCUA**A**CGUACGUUUACCCAAAAGUCUACGUUGGACCCAGGCAUUGGACG
GGCUAUCGUACGUUUACCCAAAAGUCUACGUUGGACCC**U**GGCAUUGGACG
GGCUAUCGUACGUUUACCCAAAAGUCUACGUUGGACCCAGGCA**C**UGGACG
GGCUAUCGUACGUUUACCCAAAAGUCUACGUUGG**U**CCCAGGCAUUGGACG
GGCUA**G**CGUACGUUUACCCAAAAGUCUACGUUGGACCCAGGCAUUGGACG
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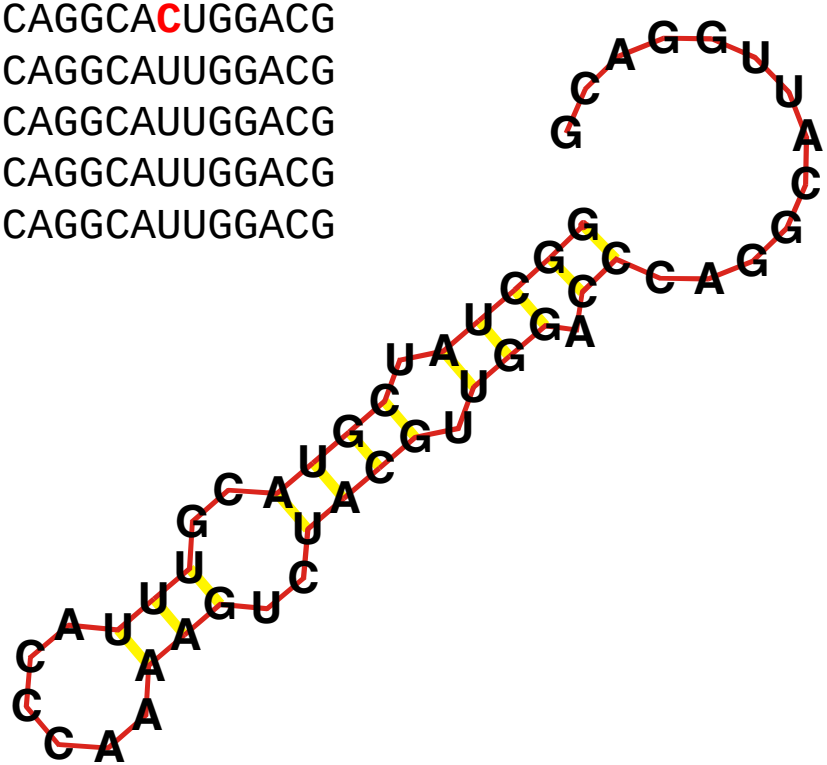
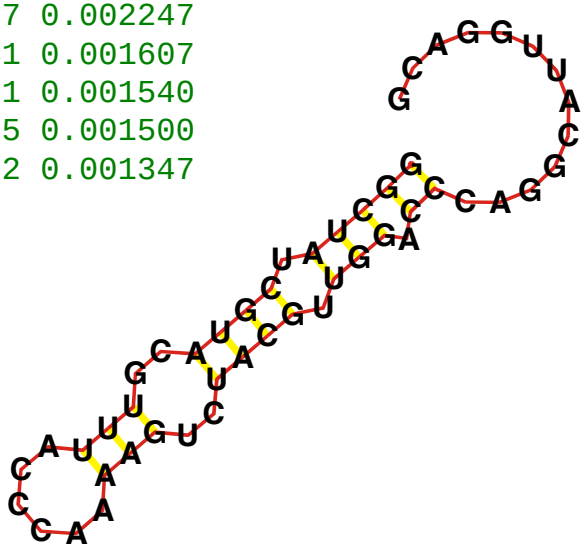
GGCUAUCGUACGUUUACCCAAAAG**C**CUACGUUGGACCCAGGCAUUGGACG



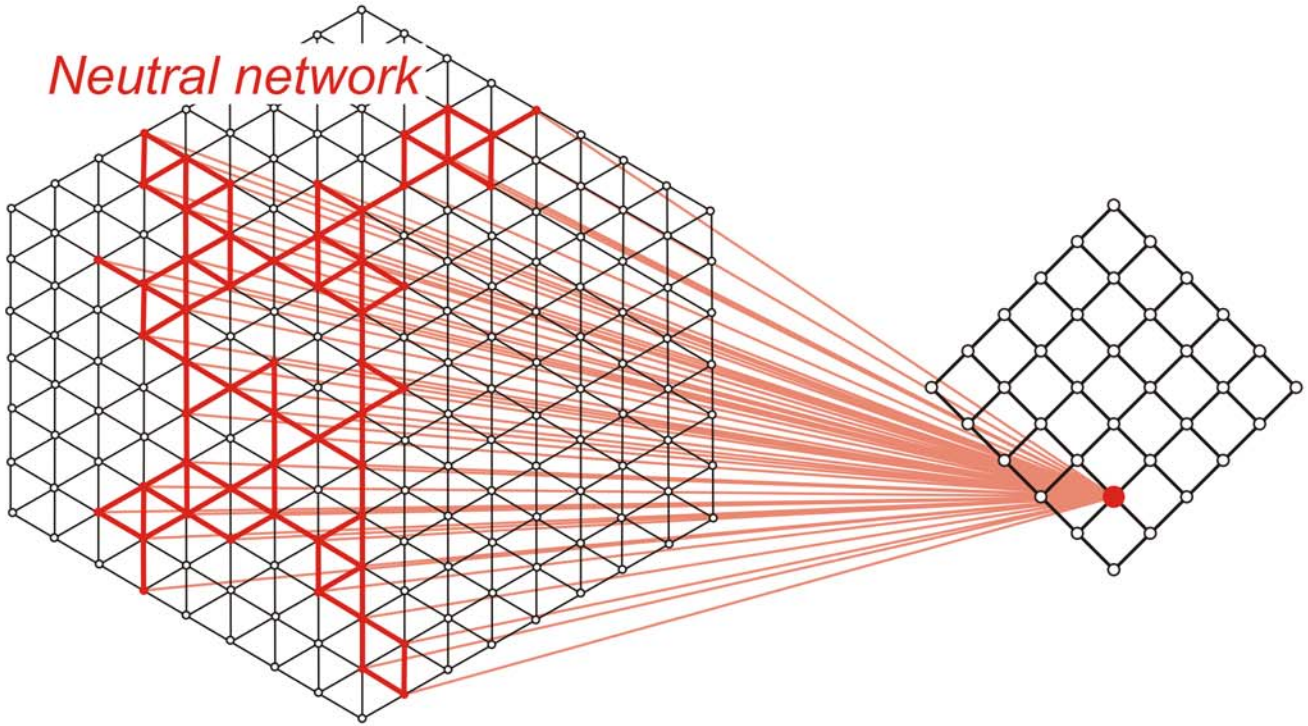
One error neighborhood – Surrounding of an RNA molecule of chain length n=50 in sequence and shape space

	Number	Mean Value	Variance	Std.Dev.
Total Hamming Distance:	150000	11.647973	23.140715	4.810480
Nonzero Hamming Distance:	99875	16.949991	30.757651	5.545958
Degree of Neutrality:	50125	**0.334167**	0.006961	**0.083434**
Number of Structures:	**1000**	**52.31**	85.30	**9.24**

1	(((((.((((..(((......)))..)))).))).))....	**50125**	**0.334167**
2	..(((.((((..(((......)))..)))).)))....	**2856**	**0.019040**
3	((((((((((..(((......)))..)))))))).))....	**2799**	**0.018660**
4	(((((.((((..((((....))))..)))).))).))....	**2417**	**0.016113**
5	(((((.((((.((((......)))).)))).))).))....	**2265**	**0.015100**
6	(((((.(((((.(((......))).)))))).))).))....	**2233**	**0.014887**
7	(((((..(((..(((......)))..)))..))).))....	1442	0.009613
8	(((((.((((..((........)))..)))).))).))....	1081	0.007207
9	((((..((((..(((......)))..)))).))..)).))....	1025	0.006833
10	(((((.((((..(((......)))..)))).))))))....	1003	0.006687
11	.((((.((((..(((......)))..)))).))))....	963	0.006420
12	(((((.(((...(((......)))...))).))).))....	860	0.005733
13	(((((.((((..(((......)))..)))).)).)))....	800	0.005333
14	(((((.((((...(......)...)))).))).))....	548	0.003653
15	(((((.((((..............)))).))).))....	362	0.002413
16	((.((.((((..(((......)))..)))).)).))....	337	0.002247
17	(.(((.((((..(((......)))..)))).))).))....	241	0.001607
18	(((((.(((((((((......))))))))).))).))....	231	0.001540
19	((((..((((..(((......)))..))))...)))))....	225	0.001500
20	((....((((..(((......)))..))))....))....	202	0.001347



Shadow – Surrounding of an RNA structure in shape space:
AUGC alphabet, chain length n=50



Sequence space

Structure space

many genotypes ⇒ one phenotype

Space of genotypes: $\mathcal{I} = \{I_1, I_2, I_3, I_4, \ldots, I_N\}$; Hamming metric

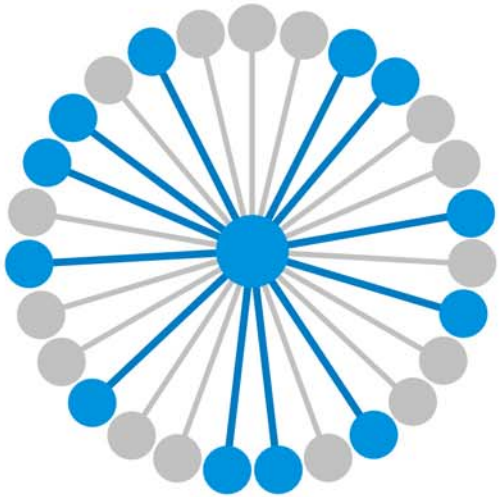
Space of phenotypes: $S = \{S_1, S_2, S_3, S_4, \ldots, S_M\}$; metric (not required)

$$N >> M$$

$$\psi(I_j) = S_k$$

$$\mathbf{G}_k = \psi^{-1}(S_k) \cup \{ I_j \mid \psi(I_j) = S_k \}$$

A mapping ψ and its inversion



$$G_k = \psi^{-1}(S_k) \doteq \{ I_j \mid \psi(I_j) = S_k \}$$

$$\bar{\lambda}_k = \frac{\sum_{j \in |G_k|} \lambda_j(k)}{|G_k|}$$

$\lambda_j = 12 / 27 = 0.444$

Alphabet size κ :

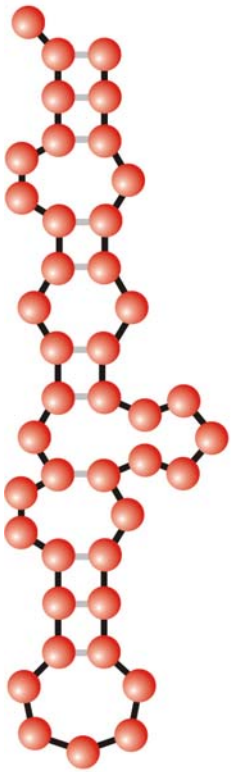
κ	λ_{cr}	
2	0.5	**AU,GC,DU**
3	0.423	**AUG , UGC**
4	0.370	**AUGC**

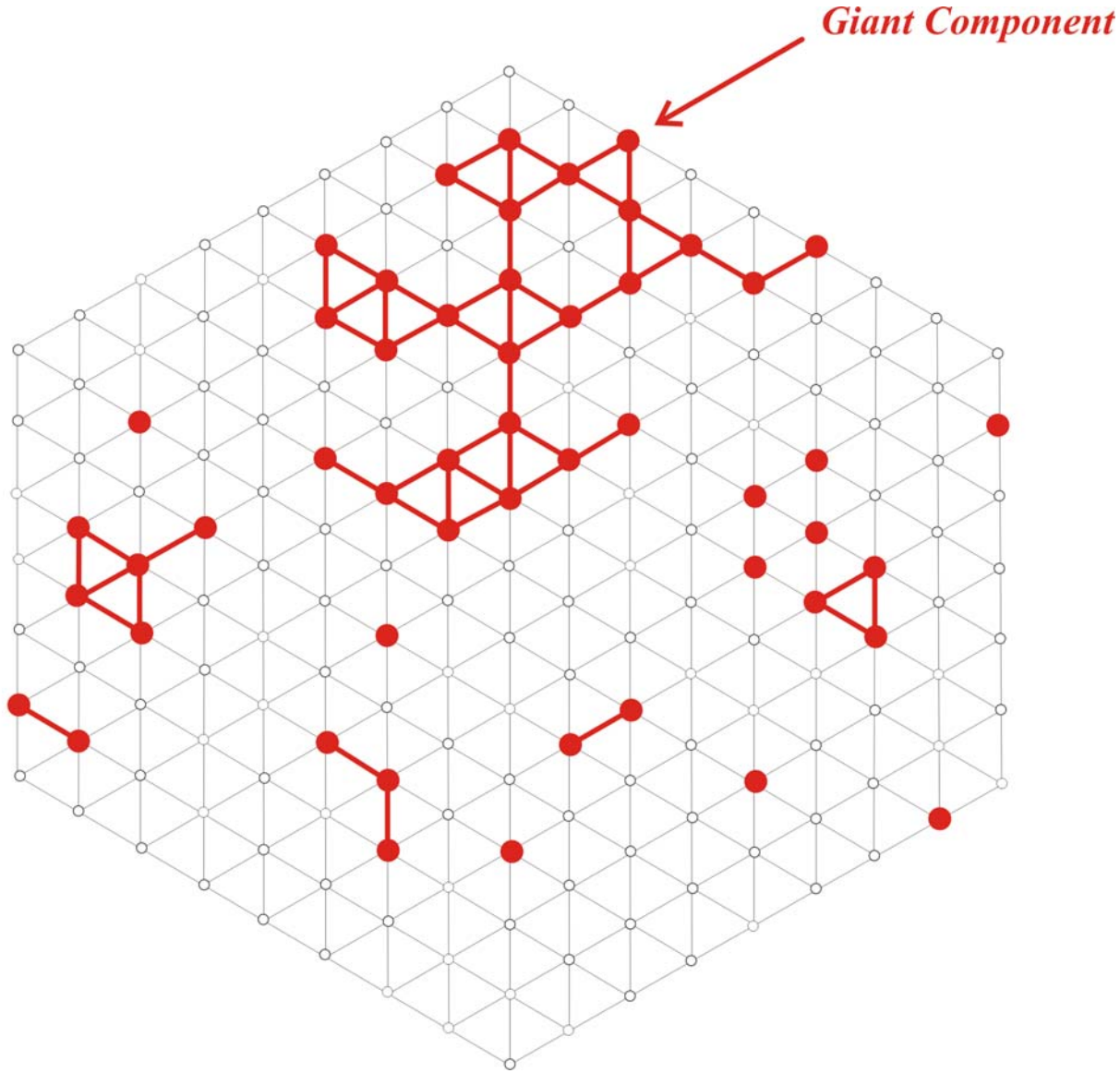
$\bar{\lambda}_k > \lambda_{cr}$ .... network G_k is connected

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

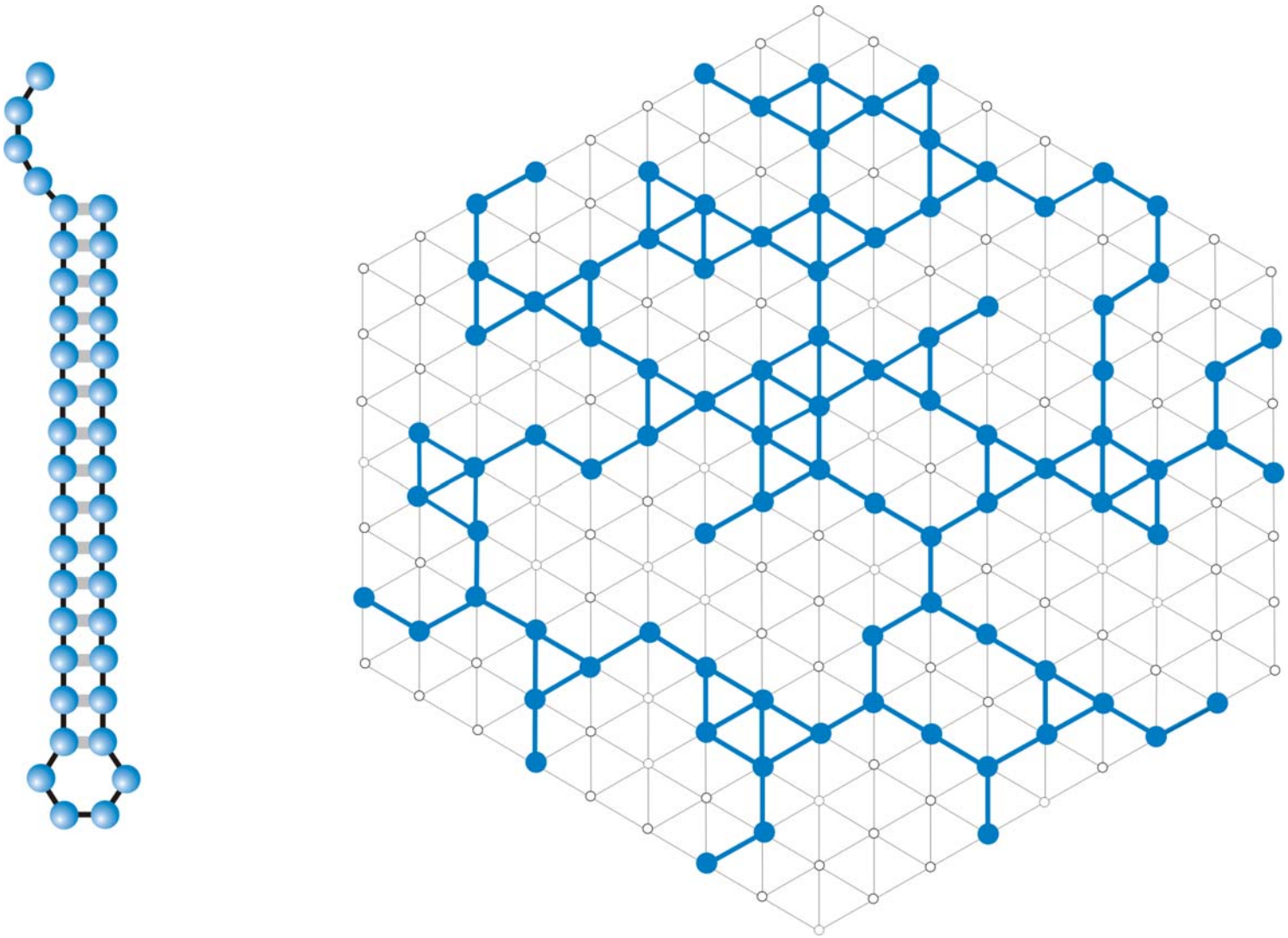
Connectivity threshold: $\lambda_{cr} = 1 - \kappa^{-1/(\kappa-1)}$

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: $\lambda > \lambda_{cr}$

Evolution of aptamers with a new specificity and new secondary structures from an ATP aptamer

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ABSTRACT

Small changes in target specificity can sometimes be achieved, without changing aptamer structure, through mutation of a few bases. Larger changes in target geometry or chemistry may require more radical changes in an aptamer. In the latter case, it is unknown whether structural and functional solutions can still be found in the region of sequence space close to the original aptamer. To investigate these questions, we designed an in vitro selection experiment aimed at evolving specificity of an ATP aptamer. The ATP aptamer makes contacts with both the nucleobase and the sugar. We used an affinity matrix in which GTP was immobilized through the sugar, thus requiring extensive changes in or loss of sugar contact, as well as changes in recognition of the nucleobase. After just five rounds of selection, the pool was dominated by new aptamers falling into three major classes, each with secondary structures distinct from that of the ATP aptamer. The average sequence identity between the original aptamer and new aptamers is 76%. Most of the mutations appear to play roles either in disrupting the original secondary structure or in forming the new secondary structure or the new recognition loops. Our results show that there are novel structures that recognize a significantly different ligand in the region of sequence space close to the ATP aptamer. These examples of the emergence of novel functions and structures from an RNA molecule with a defined specificity and fold provide a new perspective on the evolutionary flexibility and adaptability of RNA.

Keywords: Aptamer; specificity; fold; selection; RNA evolution

RNA **9**:1456-1463, 2003

Evidence for neutral networks and shape space covering

Evidence for neutral networks and intersection of aptamer functions

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Evolutionary Landscapes for the Acquisition of New Ligand Recognition by RNA Aptamers

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Abstract. The evolution of ligand specificity underlies many important problems in biology, from the appearance of drug resistant pathogens to the re-engineering of substrate specificity in enzymes. In studying biomolecules, however, the contributions of macromolecular sequence to binding specificity can be obscured by other selection pressures critical to bioactivity. Evolution of ligand specificity *in vitro*—unconstrained by confounding biological factors—is addressed here using variants of three flavin-binding RNA aptamers. Mutagenized pools based on the three aptamers were combined and allowed to compete during *in vitro* selection for GMP-binding activity. The sequences of the resulting selection isolates were diverse, even though most were derived from the same flavin-binding parent. Individual GMP aptamers differed from the parental flavin aptamers by 7 to 26 mutations (20 to 57% overall change). Acquisition of GMP recognition coincided with the loss of FAD (flavin-adenine dinucleotide) recognition in all isolates, despite the absence of a counter-selection to remove FAD-binding RNAs. To examine more precisely the proximity of these two activities within a defined sequence space, the complete set of all intermediate sequences between an FAD-binding aptamer and a GMP-binding aptamer were synthesized and assayed for activity. For this set of sequences, we observe a portion of a neutral network for FAD-binding function separated from GMP-binding function by a distance of three mutations. Furthermore, enzymatic probing of these aptamers revealed gross structural remodeling of the RNA coincident with the switch in ligand recognition. The capacity for neutral drift along an FAD-binding network in such close approach to RNAs with GMP-binding activity illustrates the degree of phenotypic buffering available to a set of closely related RNA sequences—defined as the set's functional tolerance for point mutations—and supports neutral evolutionary theory by demonstrating the facility with which a new phenotype becomes accessible as that buffering threshold is crossed.

Key words: Aptamers — RNA structure — Phenotypic buffering — Fitness landscapes — Neutral evolutionary theory — Flavin — GMP

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Introduction

RNA aptamers targeting small molecules serve as useful model systems for the study of the evolution and biophysics of macromolecular binding interactions. Because of their small sizes, the structures of several such complexes have been determined to atomic resolution by NMR spectrometry or X-ray crystallography (reviewed by Herman and Patel 2000). Moreover, aptamers can be subjected to mutational and evolutionary pressures for which survival is based entirely on ligand binding, without the complicating effects of simultaneous selection pressures for bioactivity, thus allowing the relative contributions of each activity to be evaluated separately.

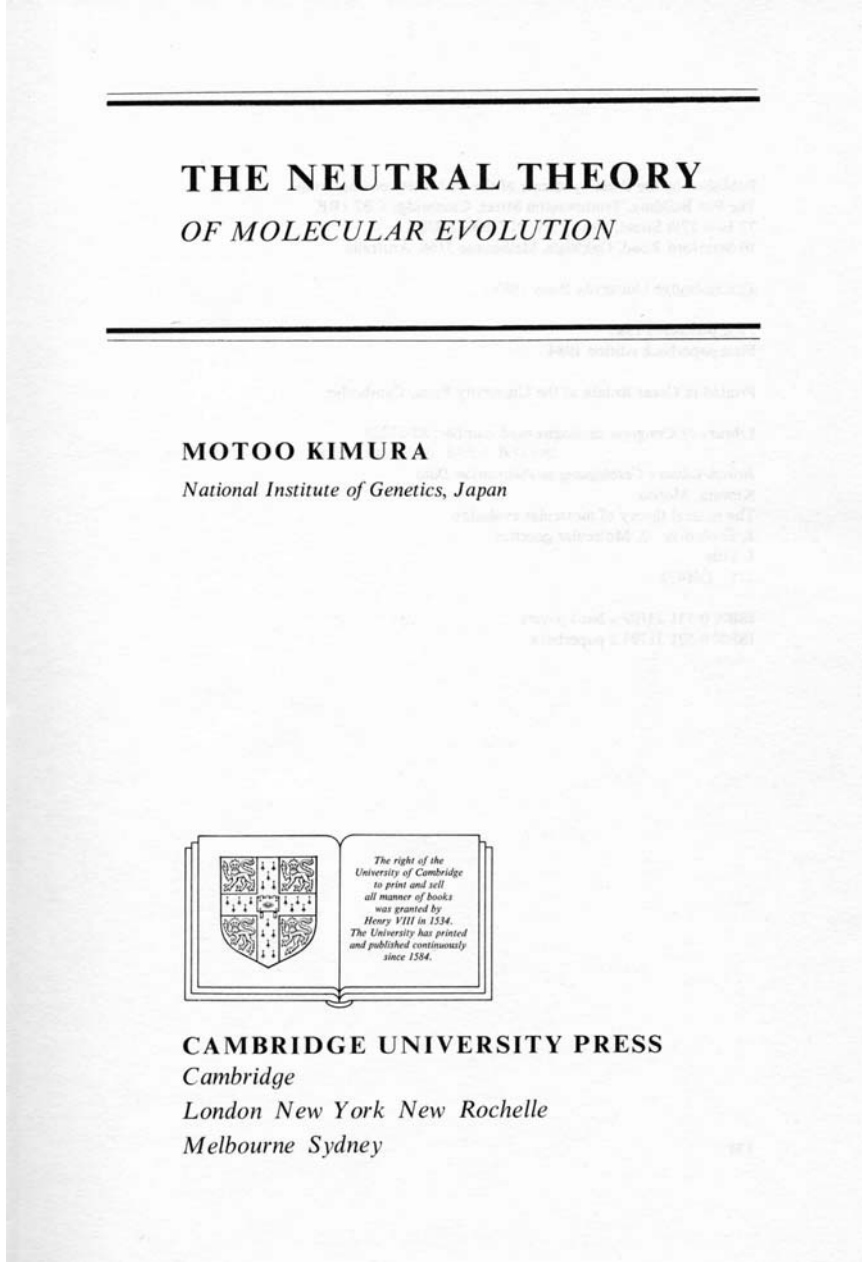
1. Darwin, Mendel, and evolutionary optimization
2. Evolution as an exercise in chemical kinetics
3. Genotype – phenoytype mappings in biopolymers
4. **Neutrality in evolution**
5. Extending the notion of structure
6. Simulation of molecular evolution
7. Some origins of complexity in biology

MOTOO KIMURA

Motoo Kimuras population genetics of neutral evolution.

Evolutionary rate at the molecular level. *Nature* **217**: 624-626, 1955.

The Neutral Theory of Molecular Evolution. Cambridge University Press. Cambridge, UK, 1983.



THE NEUTRAL THEORY

OF MOLECULAR EVOLUTION

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Cambridge

London New York New Rochelle

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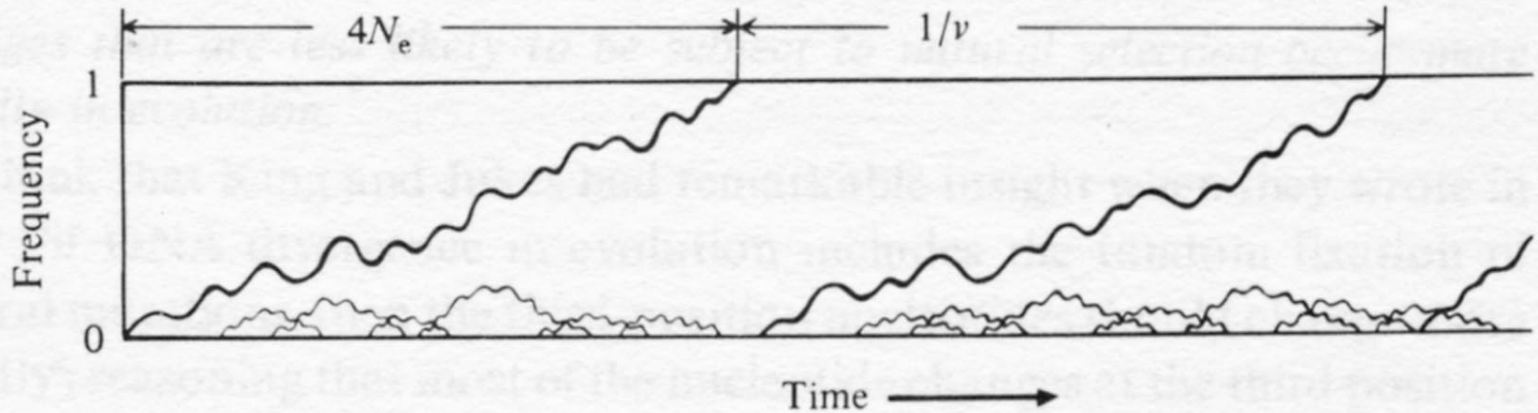
Fig. 3.1. Behavior of mutant genes following their appearance in a finite population. Courses of change in the frequencies of mutants destined to fixation are depicted by thick paths. N_e stands for the effective population size and v is the mutation rate.



The average time of replacement of a dominant genotype in a population is the reciprocal mutation rate, 1/ν, and therefore independent of population size.

Is the Kimura scenario correct for frequent mutations?

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STATIONARY MUTANT DISTRIBUTIONS AND EVOLUTIONARY OPTIMIZATION

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Molecular evolution is modelled by erroneous replication of binary sequences. We show how the selection of two species of equal or almost equal selective value is influenced by its nearest neighbours in sequence space. In the case of perfect neutrality and sufficiently small error rates we find that the Hamming distance between the species determines selection. As the error rate increases the fitness parameters of neighbouring species become more and more important. In the case of almost neutral sequences we observe a critical replication accuracy at which a drastic change in the "quasispecies", in the stationary mutant distribution occurs. Thus, in frequently mutating populations fitness turns out to be an ensemble property rather than an attribute of the individual.

In addition we investigate the time dependence of the mean excess production as a function of initial conditions. Although it is optimized under most conditions, cases can be found which are characterized by decrease or non-monotonous change in mean excess productions.

1. Introduction. Recent data from populations of RNA viruses provided direct evidence for vast sequence heterogeneity (Domingo *et al.*, 1987). The origin of this diversity is not yet completely known. It may be caused by the low replication accuracy of the polymerizing enzyme, commonly a virus specific, RNA dependent RNA synthetase, or it may be the result of a high degree of selective neutrality of polynucleotide sequences. Eventually, both factors contribute to the heterogeneity observed. Indeed, mutations occur much more frequently than previously assumed in microbiology. They are by no means rare events and hence, neither the methods of conventional population genetics (Ewens, 1979) nor the neutral theory (Kimura, 1983) can be applied to these virus populations. Selectively neutral variants may be close with respect to Hamming distance and then the commonly made assumption that the mutation backflow from the mutants to the wilde type is negligible does not apply.

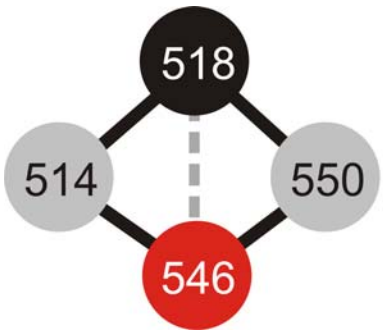
A kinetic theory of polynucleotide evolution which was developed during the past 15 years (Eigen, 1971; 1985; Eigen and Schuster, 1979; Eigen *et al.*, 1987; Schuster, 1986); Schuster and Sigmund, 1985) treats correct replication and mutation as parallel reactions within one and the same reaction network

Neutral network

$\lambda = 0.01,\ s = 367$

$\mathbf{d_H = 1}$

$$\lim_{p\to 0} x_1(p) = x_2(p) = 0.5$$



Neutral network

$\lambda = 0.01,\ s = 877$

$\mathbf{d_H = 2}$

$$\lim_{p\to 0} x_1(p) = a$$

$$\lim_{p\to 0} x_2(p) = 1-a$$

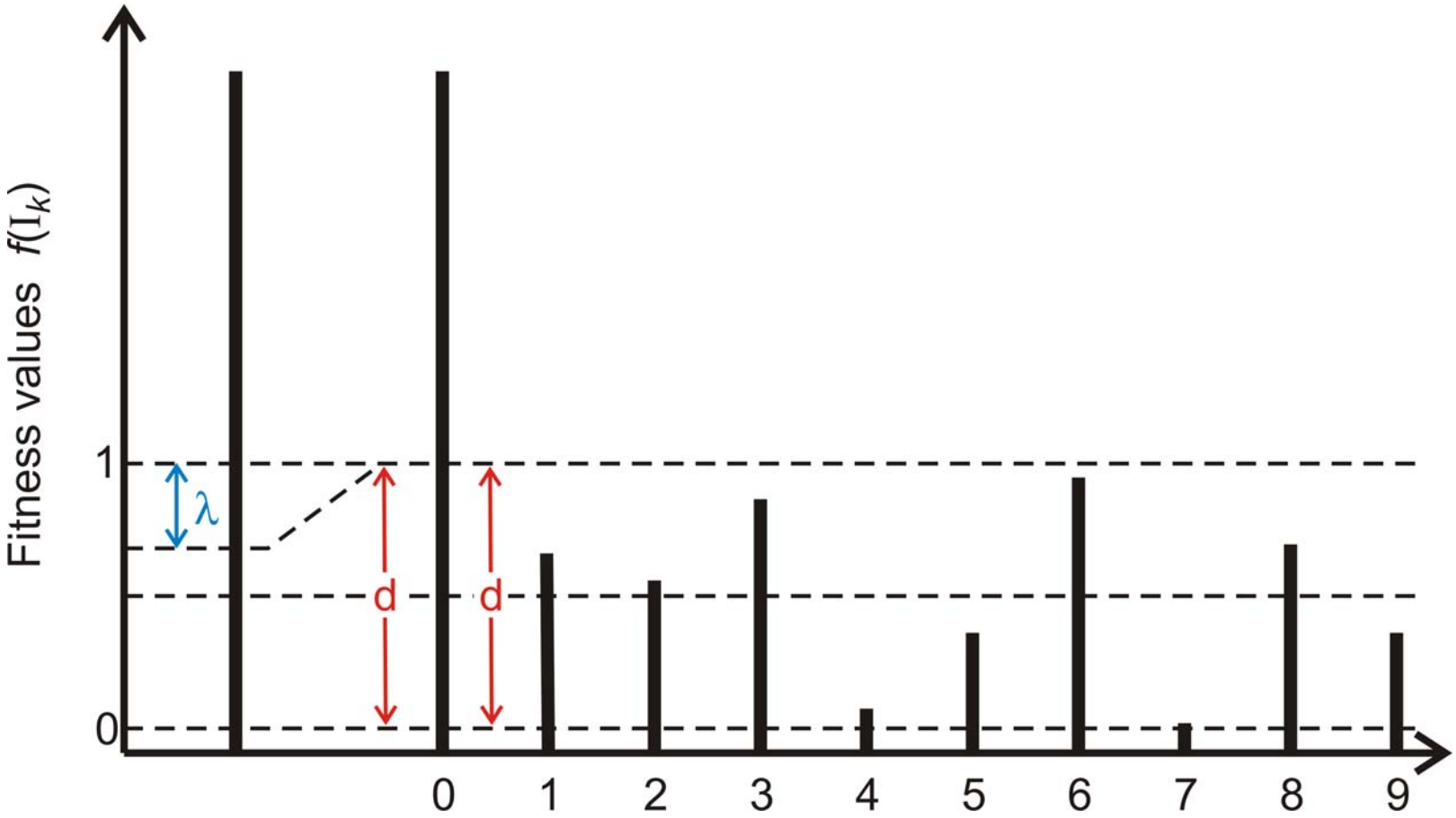
$\mathbf{d_H \geq 3}$

$$\lim_{p\to 0} x_1(p) = 1, \lim_{p\to 0} x_2(p) = 0 \text{ or}$$

$$\lim_{p\to 0} x_1(p) = 0, \lim_{p\to 0} x_2(p) = 1$$

Pairs of genotypes in neutral replication networks

Random fixation in the sense of Motoo Kimura


Fitness values $f(I_k)$
1
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λ
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d
0
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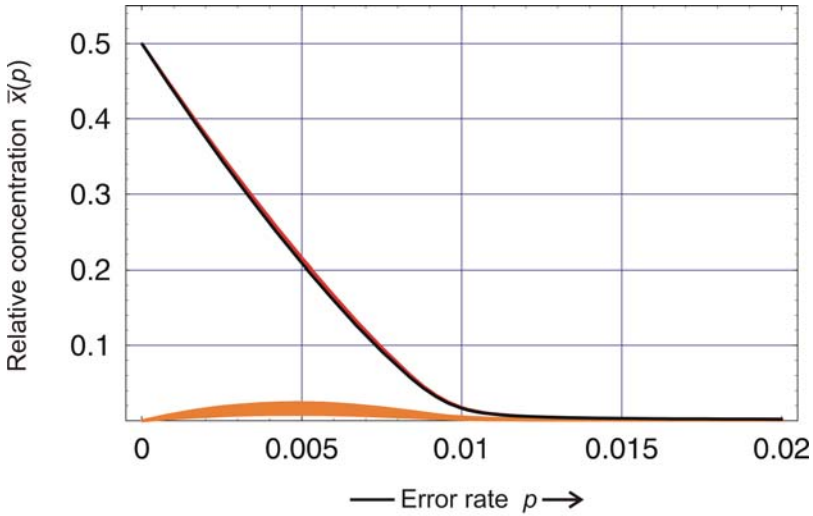
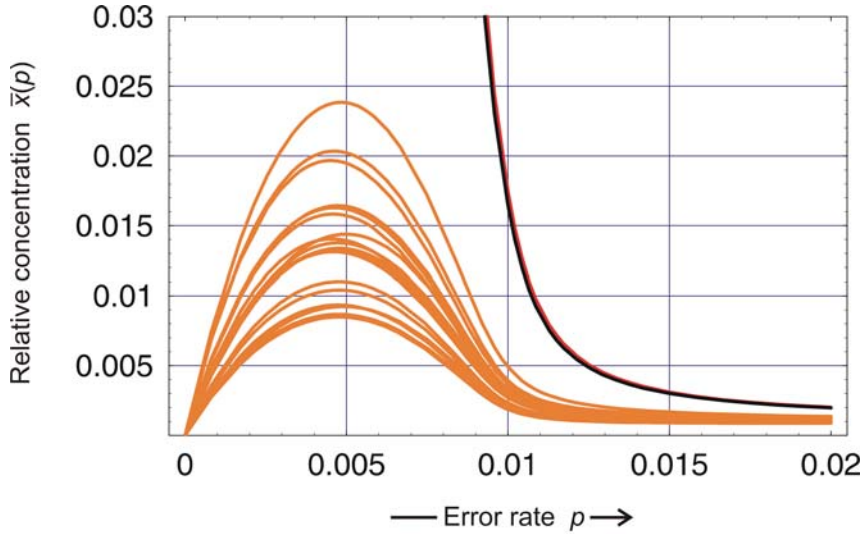
5
6
7
8
9

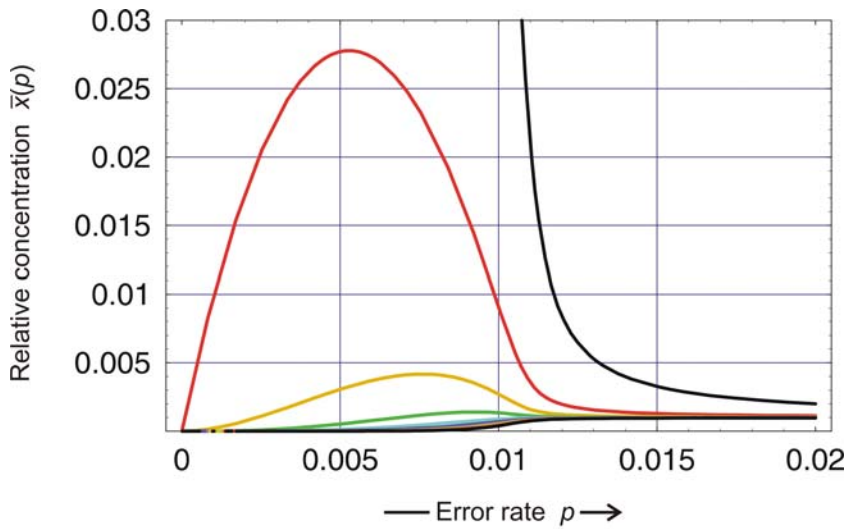




Neutral network

$\lambda = 0.01,\ s = 367$

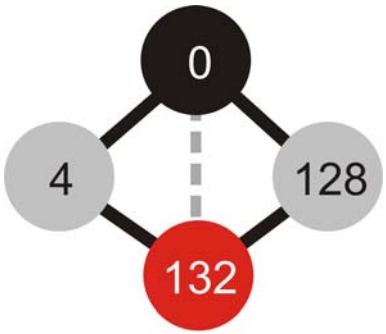
for comparison: $\lambda = 0$, $\sigma = 1.1$, d = 0



Neutral network: Individual sequences

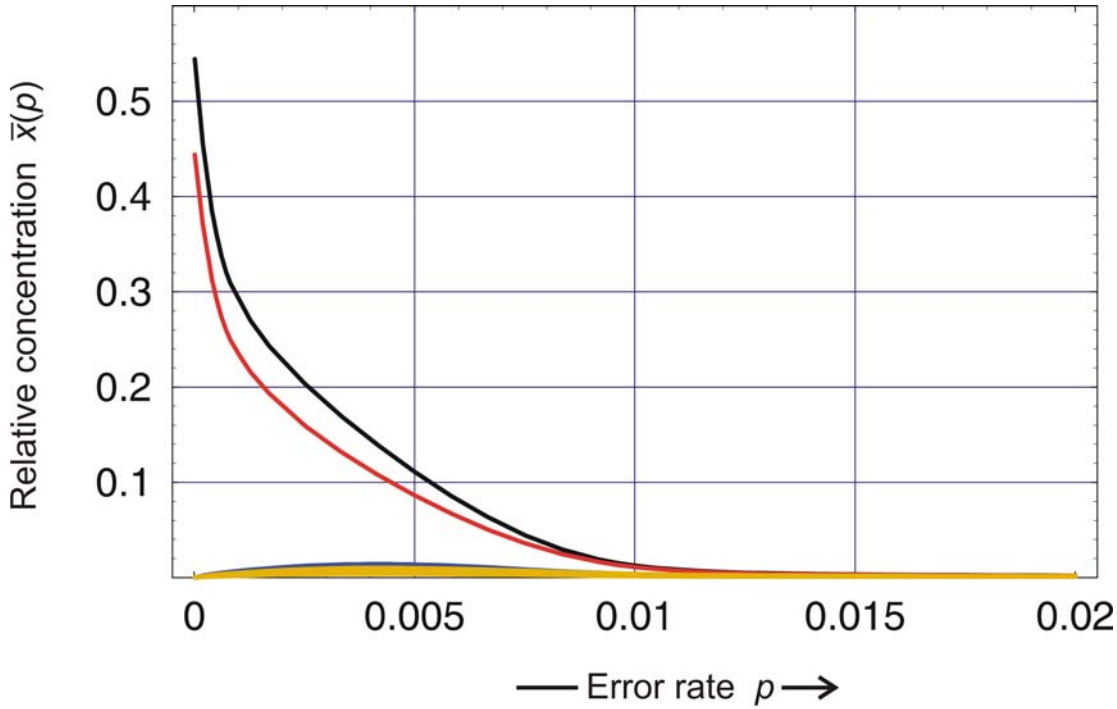
n = 10, $\sigma = 1.1$, d = 1.0

Consensus sequence of a quasispecies of two strongly coupled sequences of Hamming distance $d_H(X_{i,},X_j) = 1$.



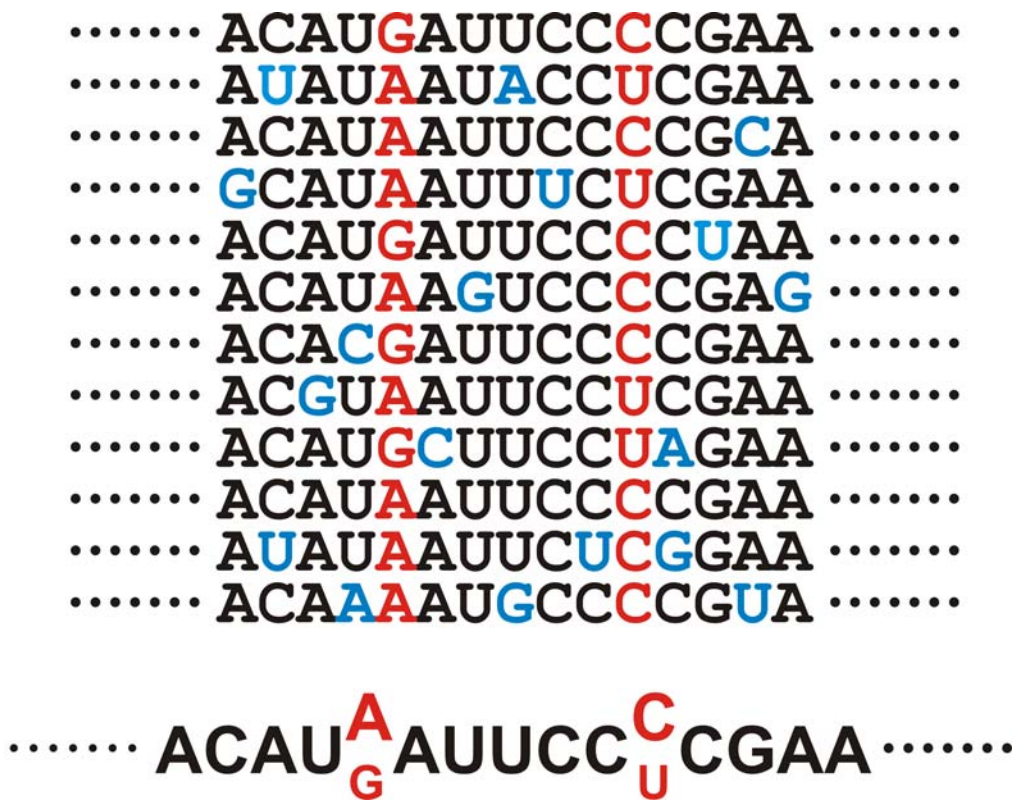
Neutral network

$\lambda = 0.01,\ s = 877$

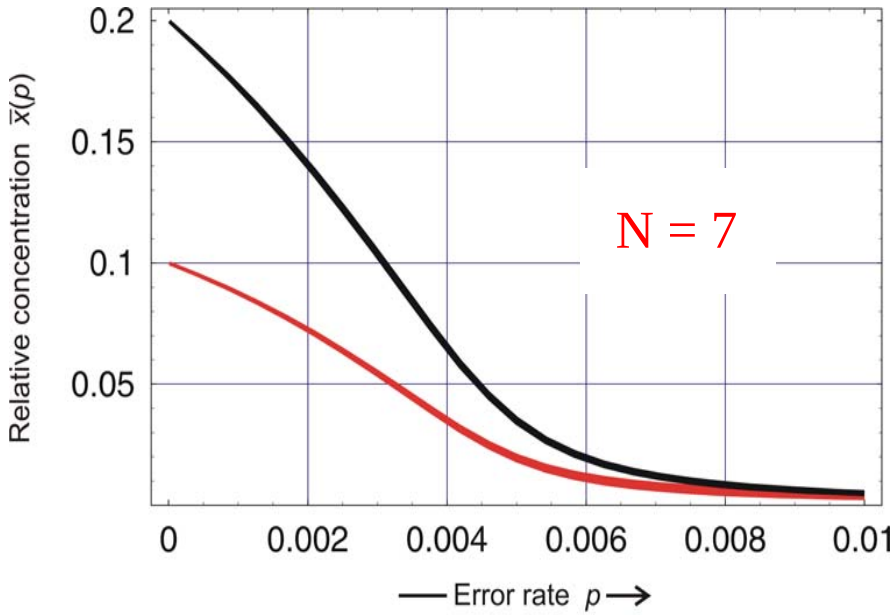


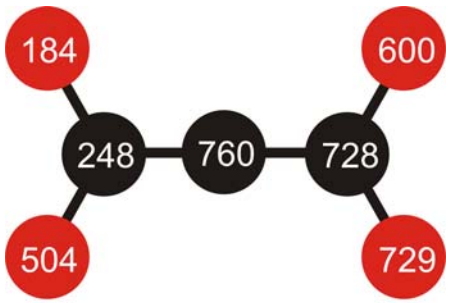
Neutral network: Individual sequences

n = 10, σ = 1.1, d = 1.0



Consensus sequence of a quasispecies of two strongly coupled sequences of Hamming distance $d_H(X_{i,},X_j) = 2$.





Neutral network

$\lambda = 0.10,\ s = 229$

Selection-mutation matrix W

$$W = \begin{pmatrix} f & O(\varepsilon^2) & \varepsilon & O(\varepsilon^2) & O(\varepsilon^2) & O(\varepsilon^2) & O(\varepsilon^2) \\ O(\varepsilon^2) & f & \varepsilon & O(\varepsilon^2) & O(\varepsilon^2) & O(\varepsilon^2) & O(\varepsilon^2) \\ \varepsilon & \varepsilon & f & \varepsilon & O(\varepsilon^2) & O(\varepsilon^2) & O(\varepsilon^2) \\ O(\varepsilon^2) & O(\varepsilon^2) & \varepsilon & f & \varepsilon & O(\varepsilon^2) & O(\varepsilon^2) \\ O(\varepsilon^2) & O(\varepsilon^2) & O(\varepsilon^2) & \varepsilon & f & \varepsilon & \varepsilon \\ O(\varepsilon^2) & O(\varepsilon^2) & O(\varepsilon^2) & O(\varepsilon^2) & \varepsilon & f & O(\varepsilon^2) \\ O(\varepsilon^2) & O(\varepsilon^2) & O(\varepsilon^2) & O(\varepsilon^2) & \varepsilon & O(\varepsilon^2) & f \end{pmatrix}$$

Adjacency matrix A

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

Eigenvalues of W and A

$$\begin{aligned} \lambda_0 &= f + 2\varepsilon\,, & \lambda_0 &= 2\,, \\ \lambda_1 &= f + \sqrt{2}\varepsilon\,, & \lambda_1 &= \sqrt{2}\,, \\ \lambda_{2,3,4} &= f\,, & \lambda_{2,3,4} &= 0\,, \\ \lambda_5 &= f - \sqrt{2}\varepsilon\,, & \lambda_5 &= -\sqrt{2}\,, \\ \lambda_6 &= f - 2\varepsilon\,, & \lambda_6 &= -2\,. \end{aligned}$$

Largest eigenvector of W and A

$$\xi_0 = (0.1, 0.1, 0.2, 0.2, 0.2, 0.1, 0.1)\,.$$

Computation of sequences in the core of a neutral network

1. Darwin, Mendel, and evolutionary optimization
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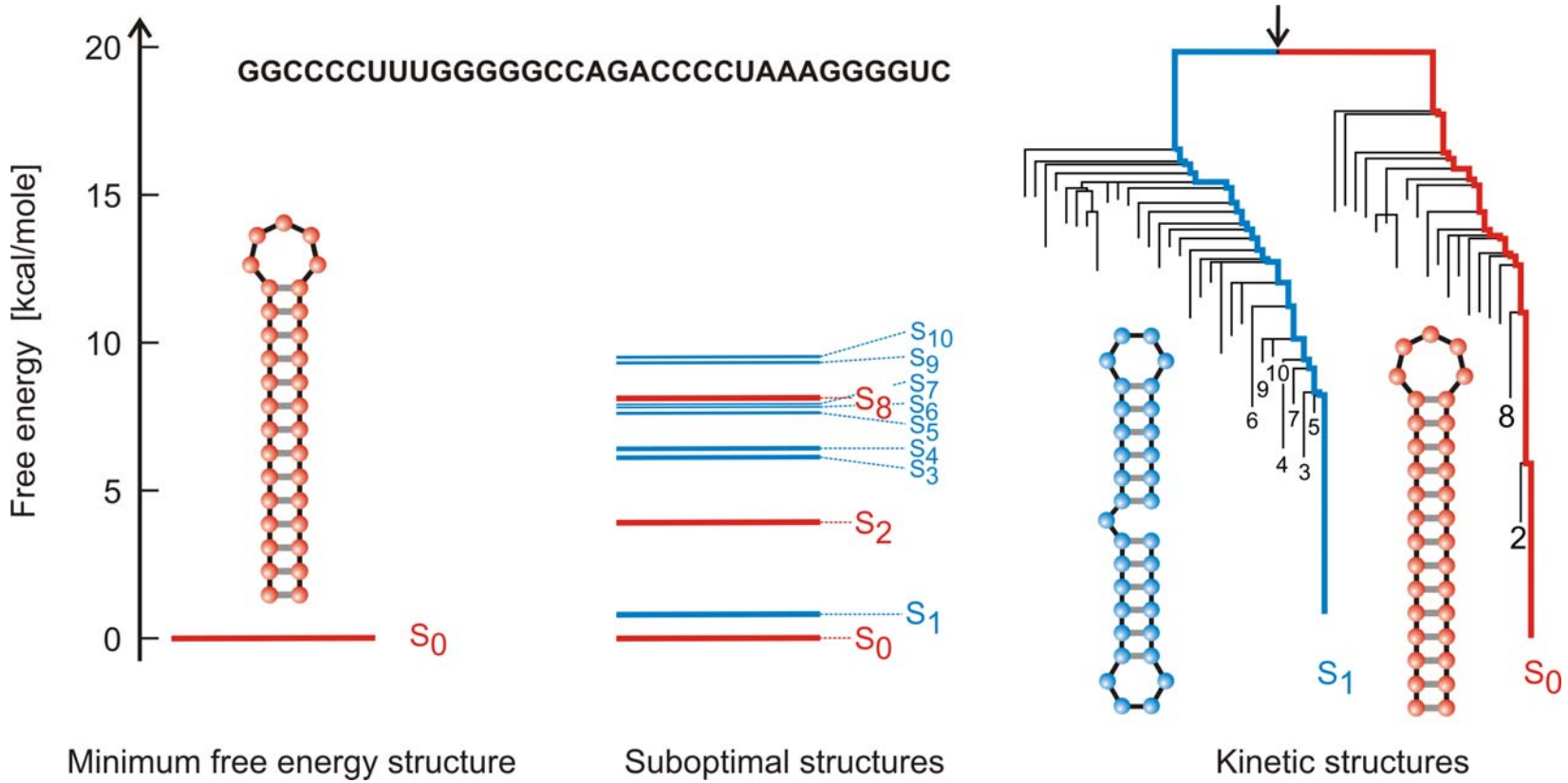
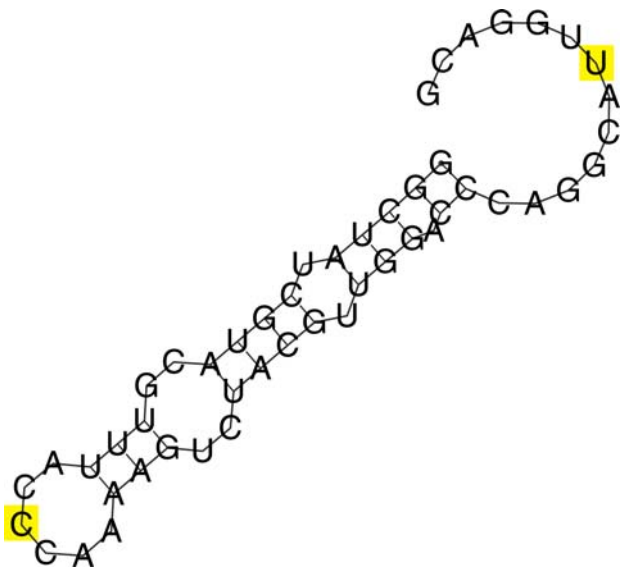


Extension of the notion of structure



GGCUAUCGUACGUUUAC**C**CAAAAGUCUACGUUGGACCCAGGCA**U**UGGACG

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..........((((((.((....((((.....))))...)).)).))))))  -6.70
..........((((((.((....((((...)))))...)).)).))))))  -6.60
..(((.((((..(((......)))..)))).))).((((...)))).....  -6.10
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GGCUAUCGUACGUUUAC**A**CAAAAGUCUACGUUGGACCCAGGCA**U**UGGACG

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(((((.((((..(((......)))..)))).))).)).............  -7.30
.(((.((..((((..(((......)))..)))).))....))).......  -6.50
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(((((.((((..((........)).)))).))).)).............  -6.00
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GGCUAUCGUACGUUUAC**C**CAAAAGUCUACGUUGGACCCAGGCA**A**UGGACG

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(((((.((((..(((......)))..)))).))).)).............  -7.30
..(((.((((..(((......)))..)))).))).((((.....)))).  -7.20
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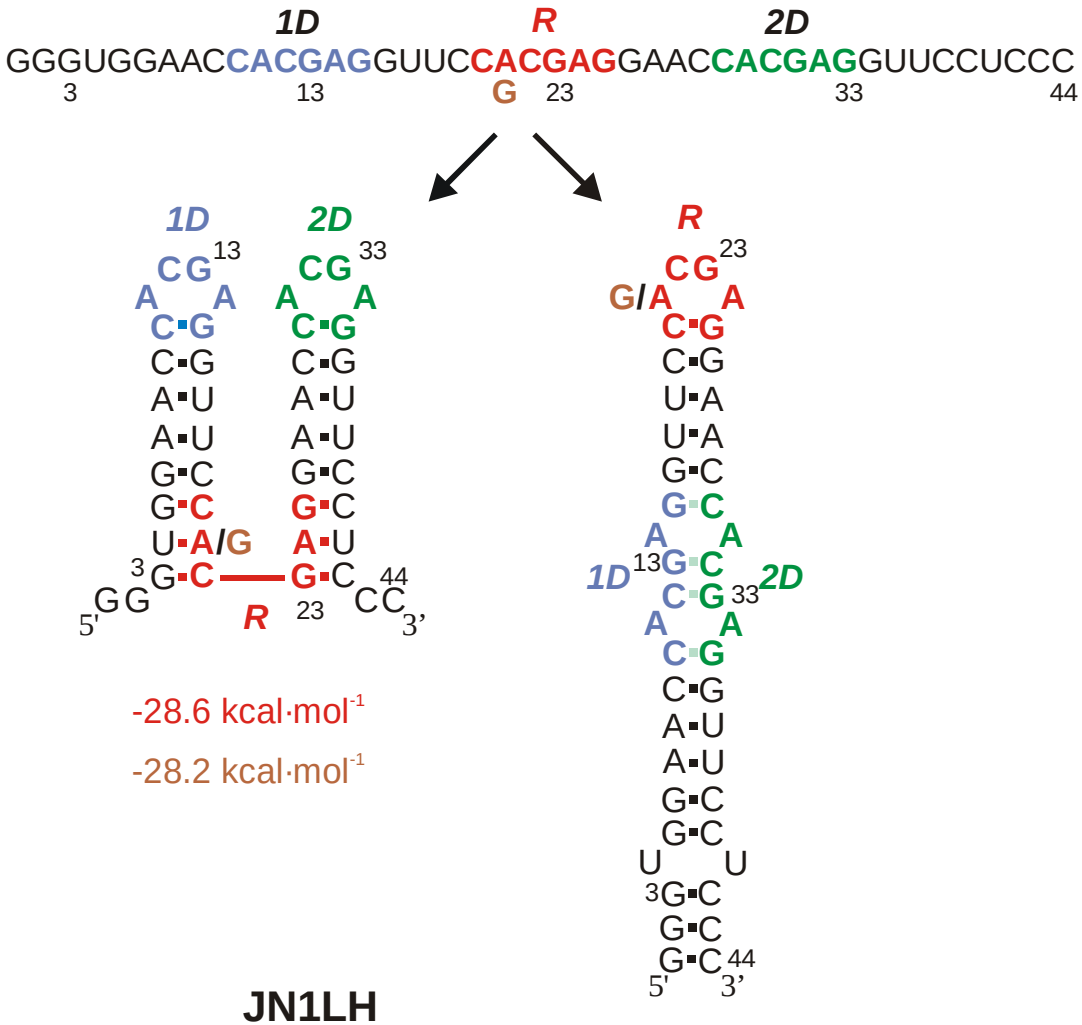
An RNA switch



JN1LH

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

Structural parameters affecting the kinetic competition of RNA hairpin formation. *Nucleic Acids Res.* **34**:3568-3576, 2006.

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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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 mM NaCl. Bound proteins were eluted three times in 50 μl of 50 mM tris-HCl (pH 8.5), 50 mM reduced glutathione, 150 mM NaCl, and 0.1% Triton X-100 for 15 min at 4°C with intermittent mixing, and elutes were pooled. Proteins were precipitated by MeOH/CH_3Cl and separated by SDS–polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis (PAGE) followed by immunoblotting using p115 mAb 13F12.
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69. We thank G. Waters for p115 cDNA and p115 mAbs; G. Warren for p97 and p47 antibodies; R. Scheller for rbet1, membrin, and sec22 cDNAs; H. Plutner for excellent technical assistance; and P. Tan for help during the initial phase of this work. Supported by NIH grants GM 33301 and GM42336 and National Cancer Institute grant CA58689 (W.E.B.), a NIH National Research Service Award (B.D.M.), and a Wellcome Trust International Traveling Fellowship (B.B.A.).

20 March 2000; accepted 22 May 2000

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 self-splicing 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 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 ribozyme (*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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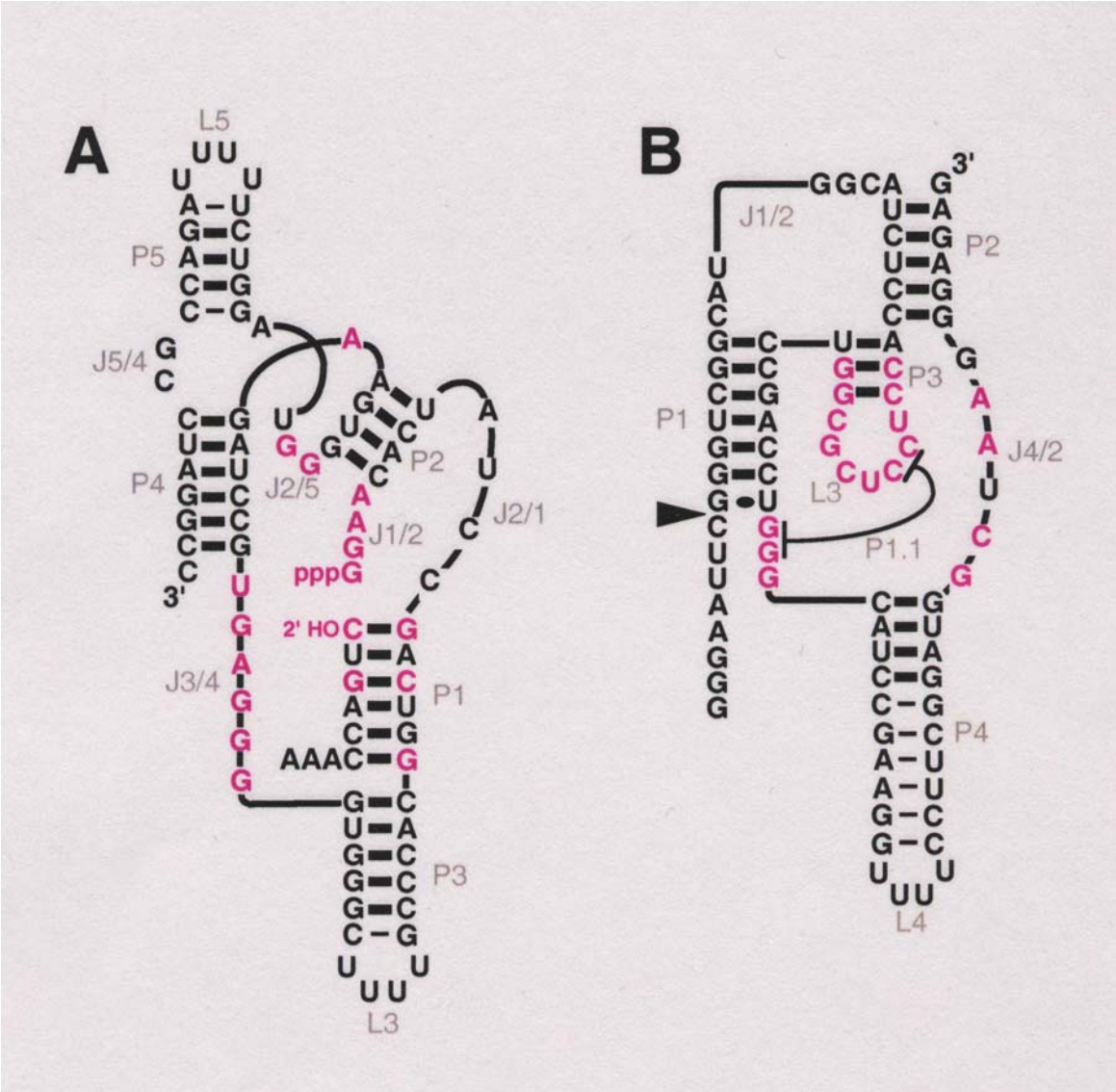
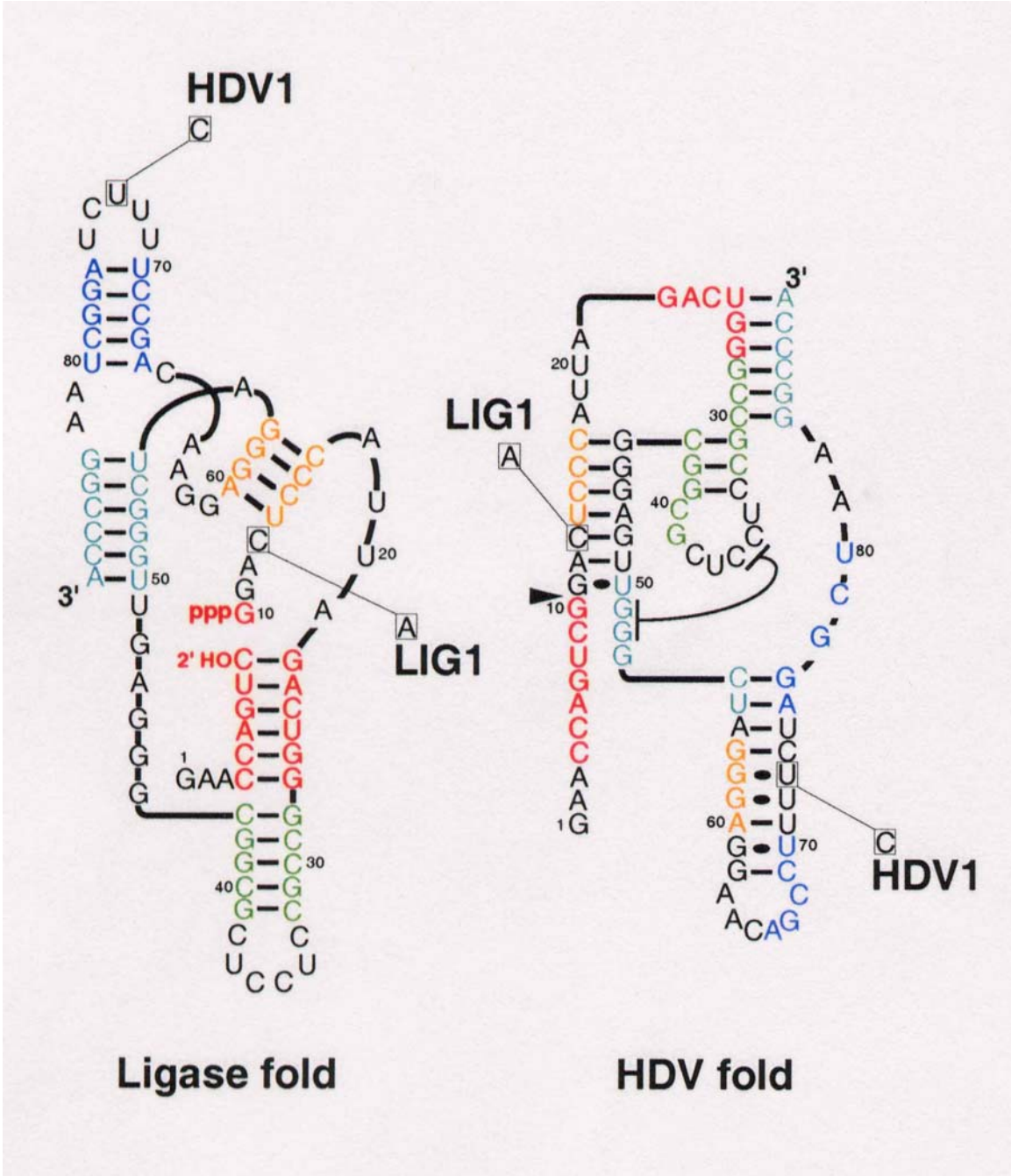
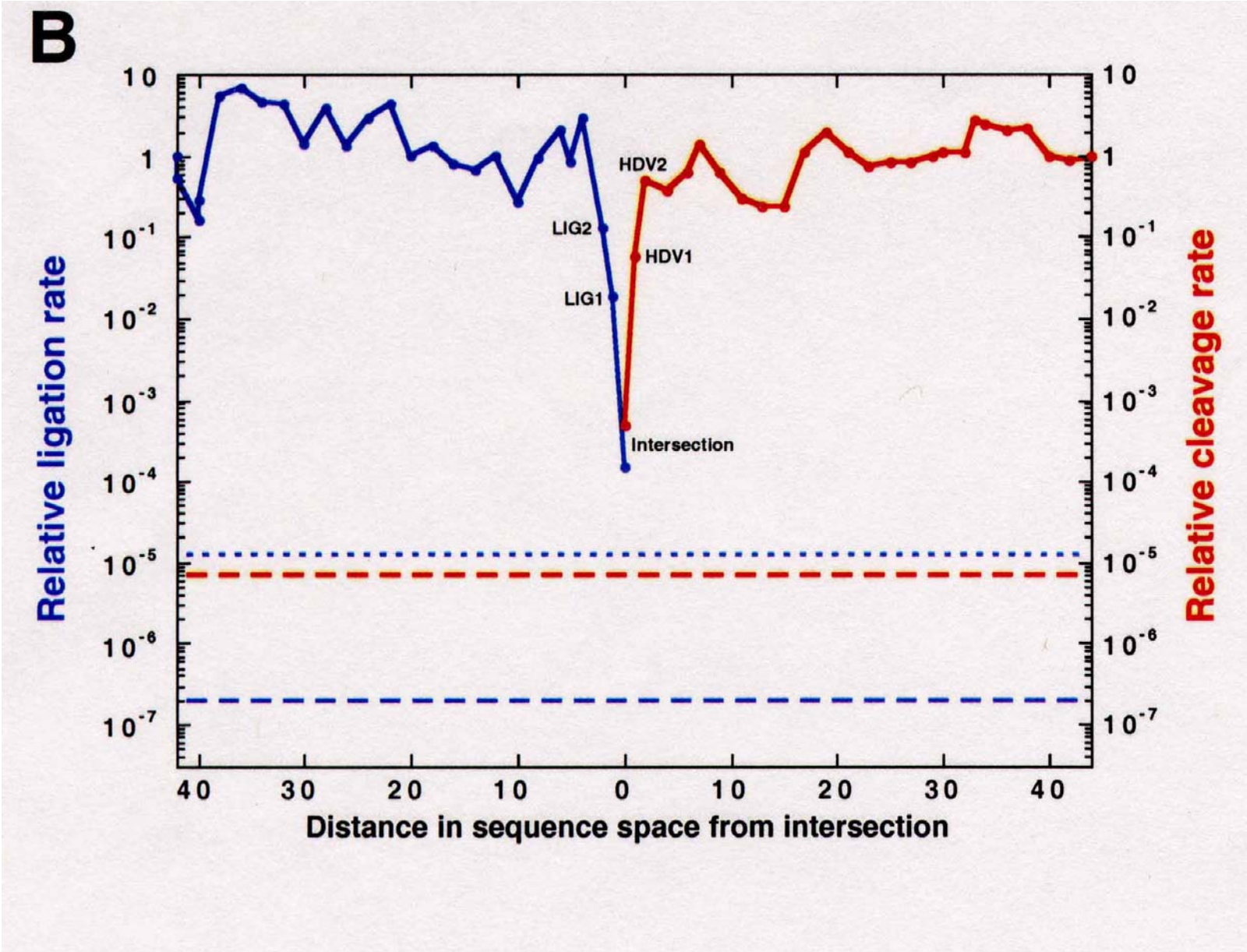


Two ribozymes of chain lengths n = 88 nucleotides: An artificial ligase (**A**) and a natural cleavage ribozyme of hepatitis-δ-virus (**B**)

The sequence at the ***intersection***:

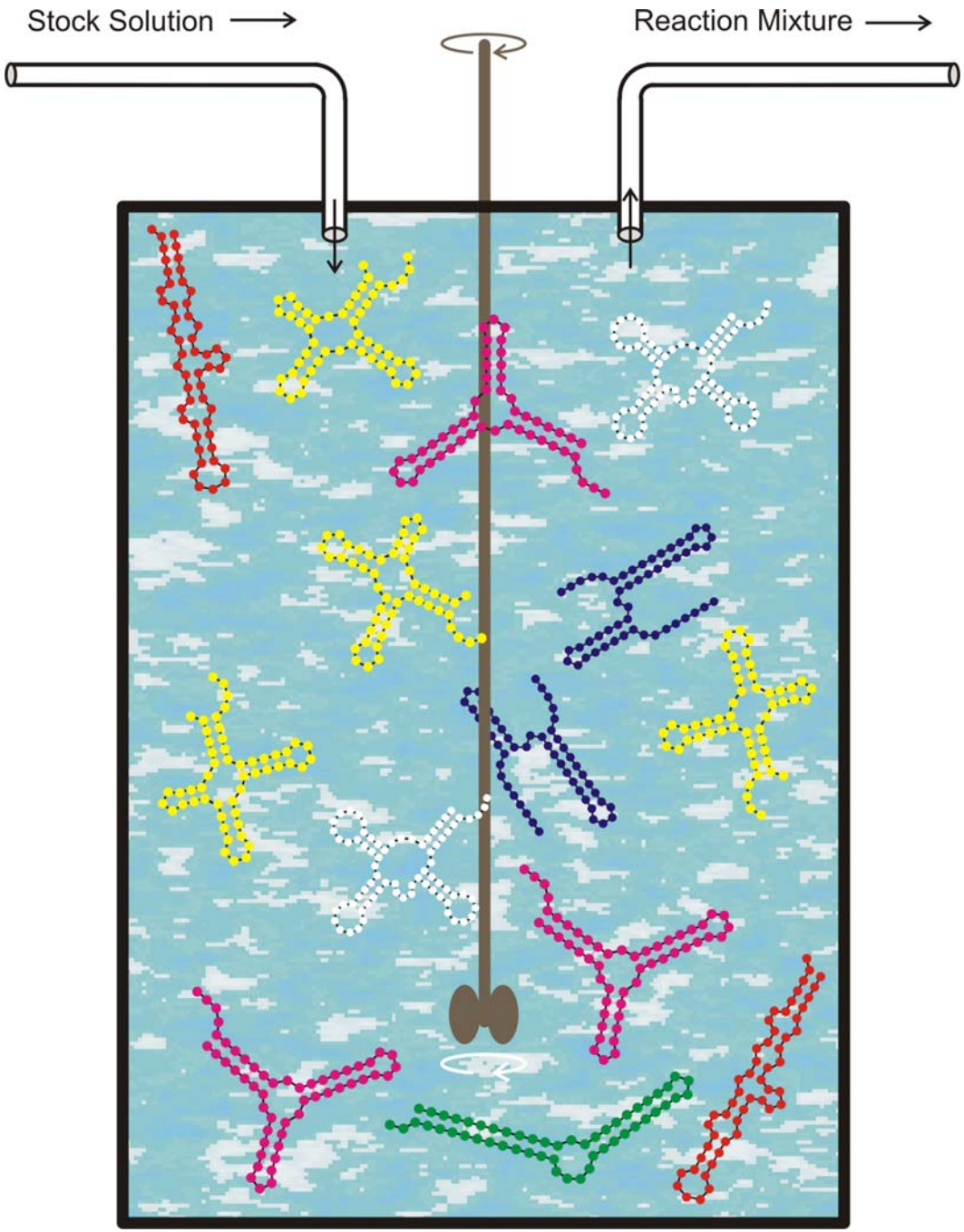
An RNA molecules which is 88 nucleotides long and can form both structures





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

1. Darwin, Mendel, and evolutionary optimization
2. Evolution as an exercise in chemical kinetics
3. Genotype – phenoytype mappings in biopolymers
4. Neutrality in evolution
5. Extending the notion of structure
6. **Simulation of molecular evolution**
7. Some origins of complexity in biology



Computer simulation using Gillespie's algorithm:

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 × replication

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

Evolution *in silico*

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

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 Taq DNA polymerase with each primer at 0.4 μM; 200 μM each dATP, dTTP, dGTP, and dCTP; and PCR buffer [10 mM tris-HCl (pH 8.3), 50 mM KCl_2,1.5 mM $MgCl_2$] 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 I, and separated in a 2% agarose gel.

32. A nonsense mutation may affect mRNA stability and result in degradation of the transcript [L. Maquat, *Am. J. Hum. Genet.* **59**, 279 (1996)].
33. Data not shown; a dot blot with poly (A)$^+$ RNA from 50 human tissues (The Human RNA 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 phenotype such as short stature. Moreover, a few SMS patients have sensorineural hearing loss, possibly because of a point mutation in *MYO15* in trans to the SMS 17p11.2 deletion.
35. R. A. Fridell, data not shown.
36. K. B. Avraham *et al.*, *Nature Genet.* **11**, 369 (1995); X-Z. Liu *et al.*, *ibid.* **17**, 268 (1997); F. Gibson *et al.*, *Nature* **374**, 62 (1995); D. Weil *et al.*, *ibid.*, p. 60.
37. RNA was extracted from cochlea (membranous labyrinths) 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 Laboratories) 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. PCR products were visualized by ethidium bromide staining after fractionation in a 1% agarose gel. A 688-bp PCR 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. Gupta, E. Sorbello, R. Torkzadeh, C. Varner, M. Walker, G. Bouffard, and S. Beckstrom-Sternberg (National Institutes of Health Intramural Sequencing 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

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.

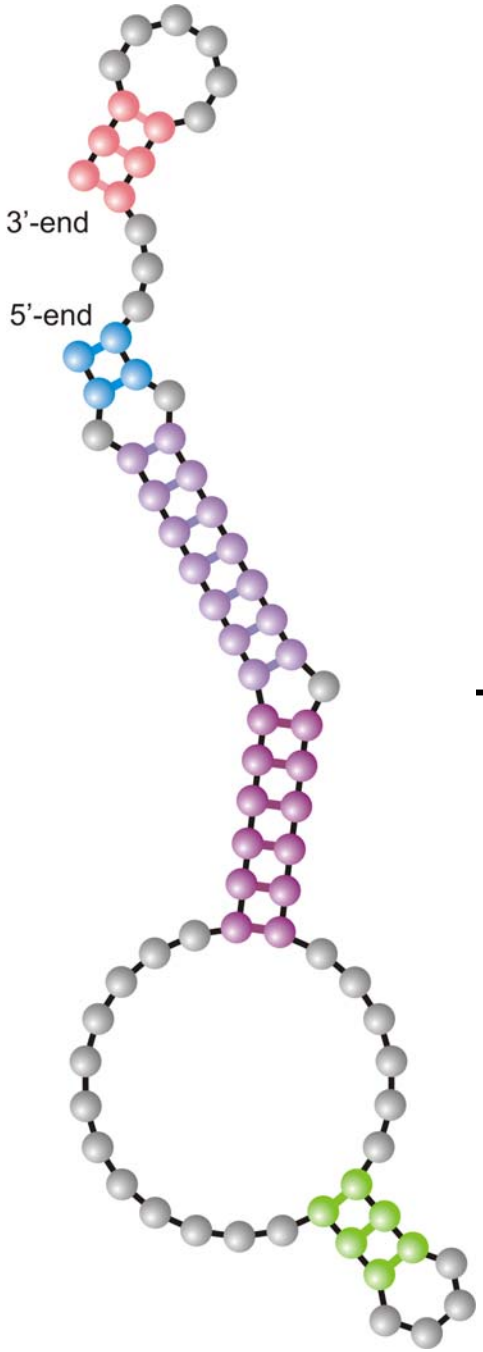
We focus on the narrow domain of RNA secondary structure, which is currently the simplest computationally tractable, yet realistic phenotype (*2*). This choice enables the definition and exploration of concepts that may prove useful in a wider context. RNA secondary structures represent a coarse level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

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 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.

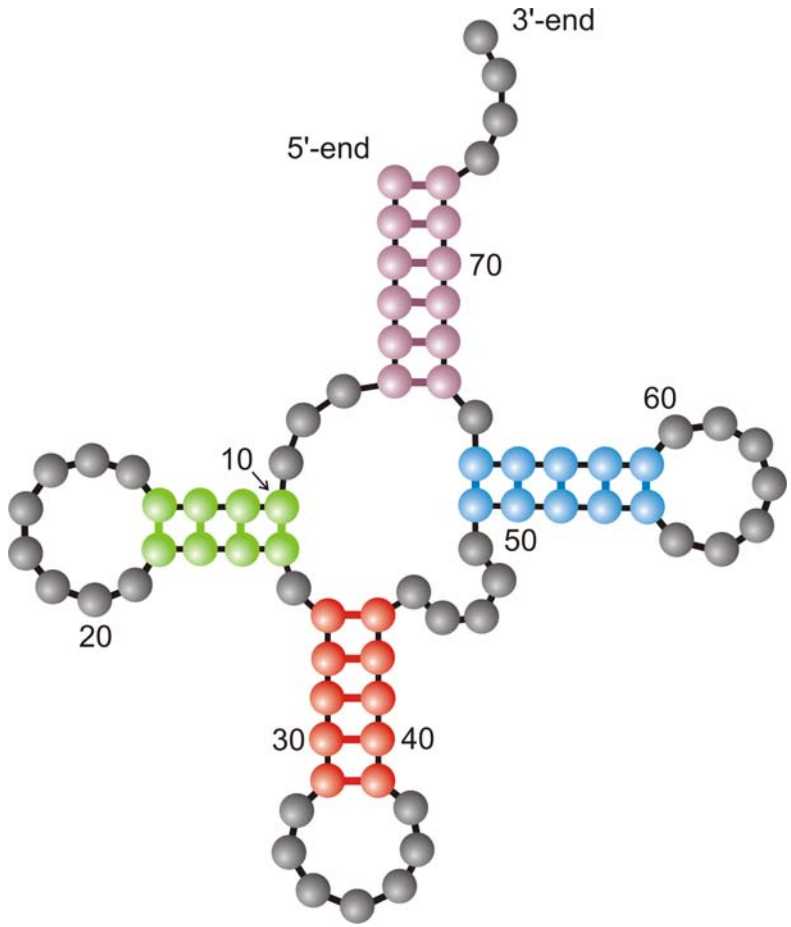
An instance representing in its qualitative features all the simulations we performed is shown in Fig. 1A. Starting with identical sequences folding into a random shape, the simulation was stopped when the population became dominated by the target, here a canonical tRNA shape. The black curve traces 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 because, in contrast to sequences, there are

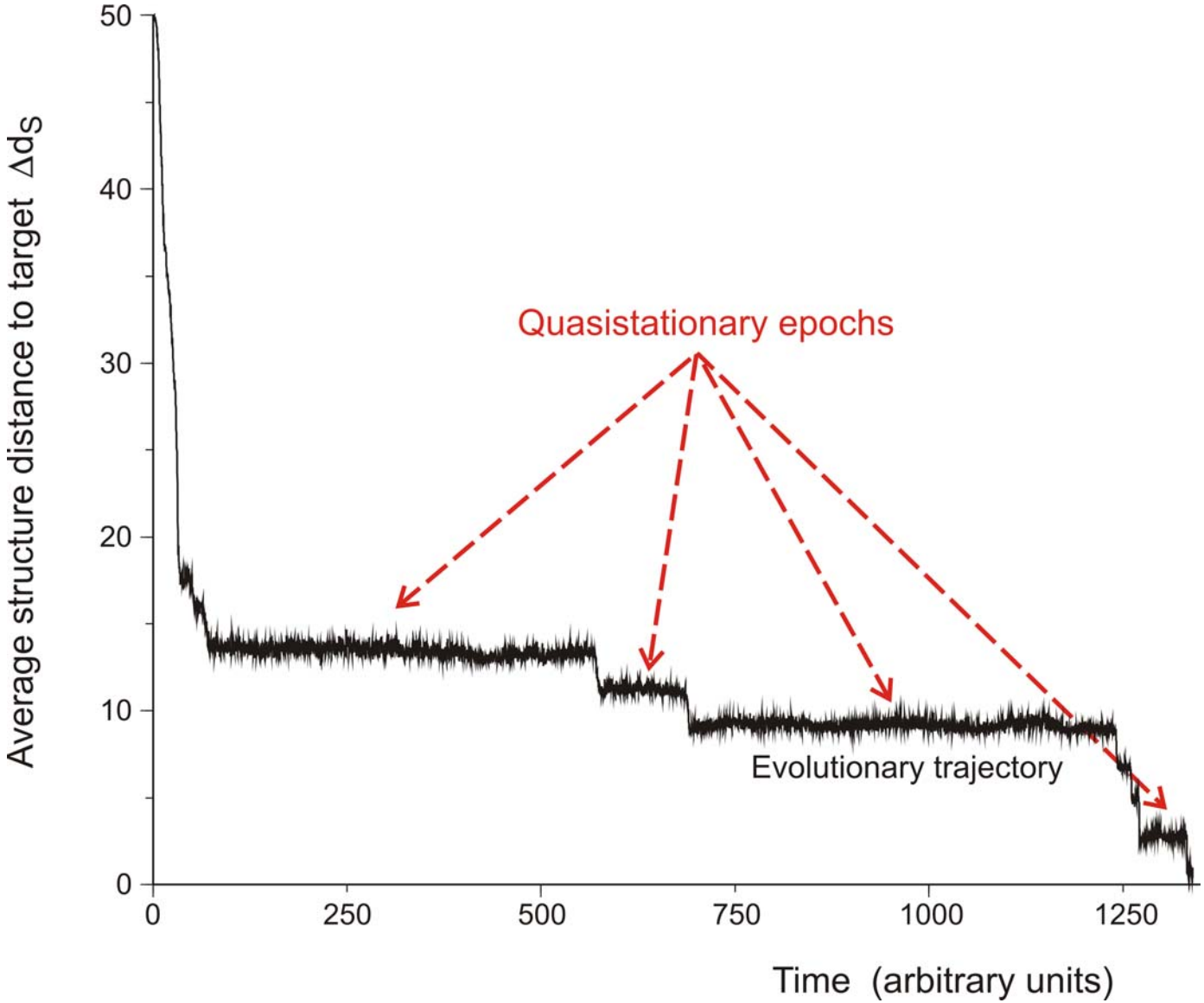
Institut für Theoretische Chemie, Universität Wien, Währingerstrasse 17, A-1090 Wien, Austria, Santa Fe Institute, 1399 Hyde Park Road, Santa Fe, NM 87501, USA, and International Institute for Applied Systems Analysis (IIASA), A-2361 Laxenburg, Austria.



Structure of randomly chosen initial sequence

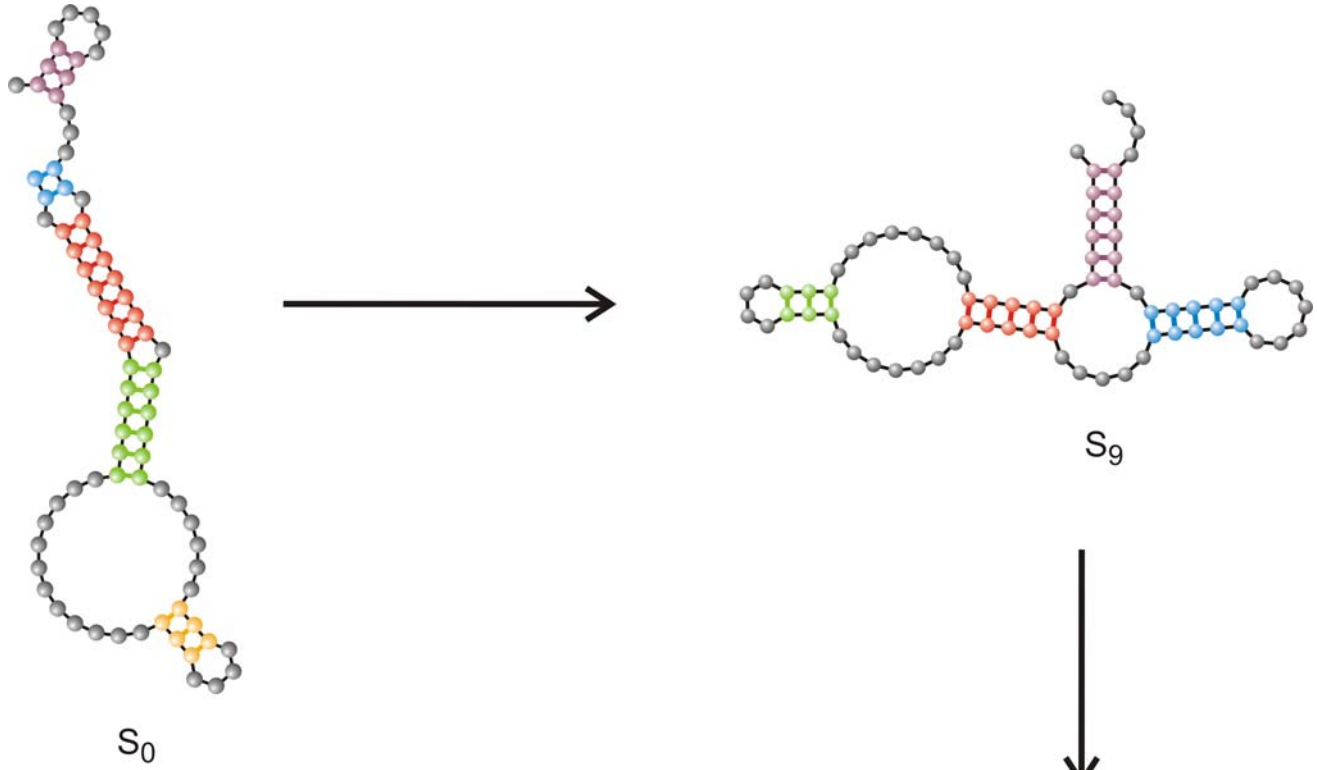


Phenylalanyl-tRNA as target structure

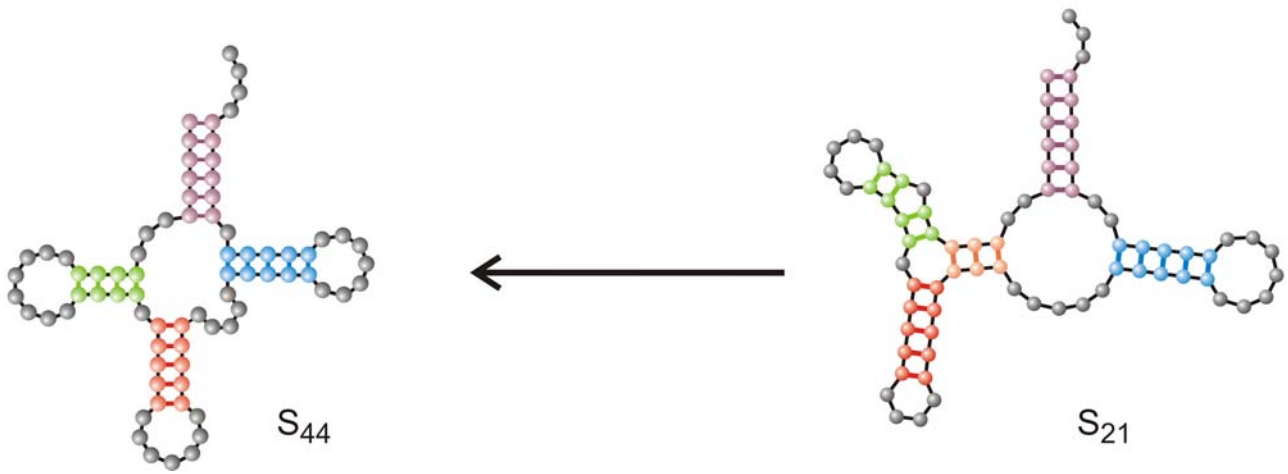


In silico optimization in the flow reactor: Evolutionary Trajectory

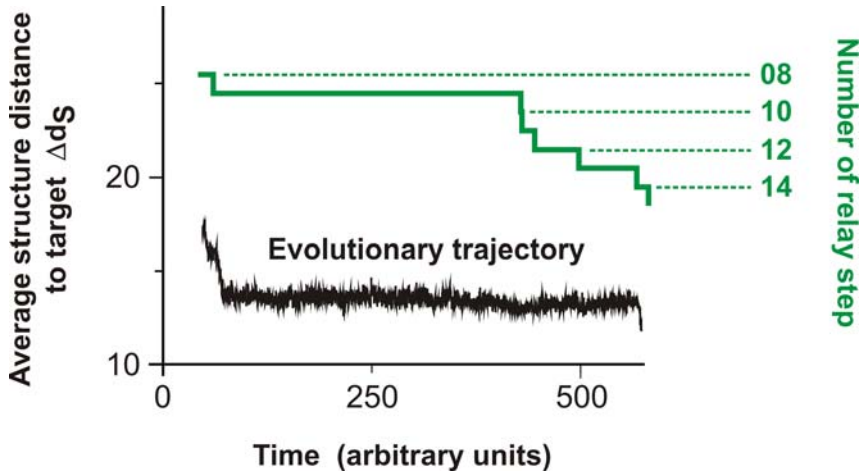
Randomly chosen
initial structure



Phenylalanyl-tRNA
as target structure



28 neutral point mutations during a long quasi-stationary epoch

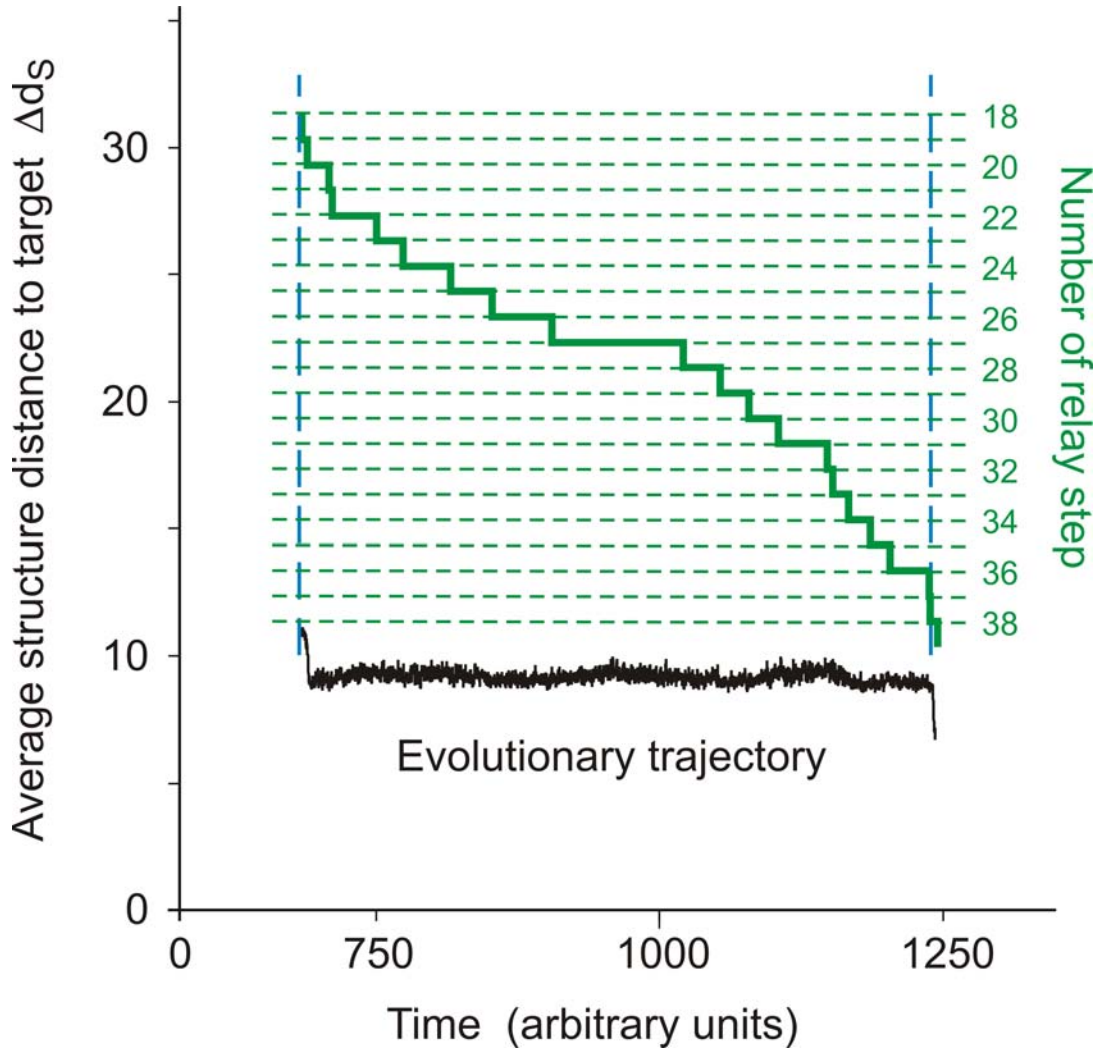


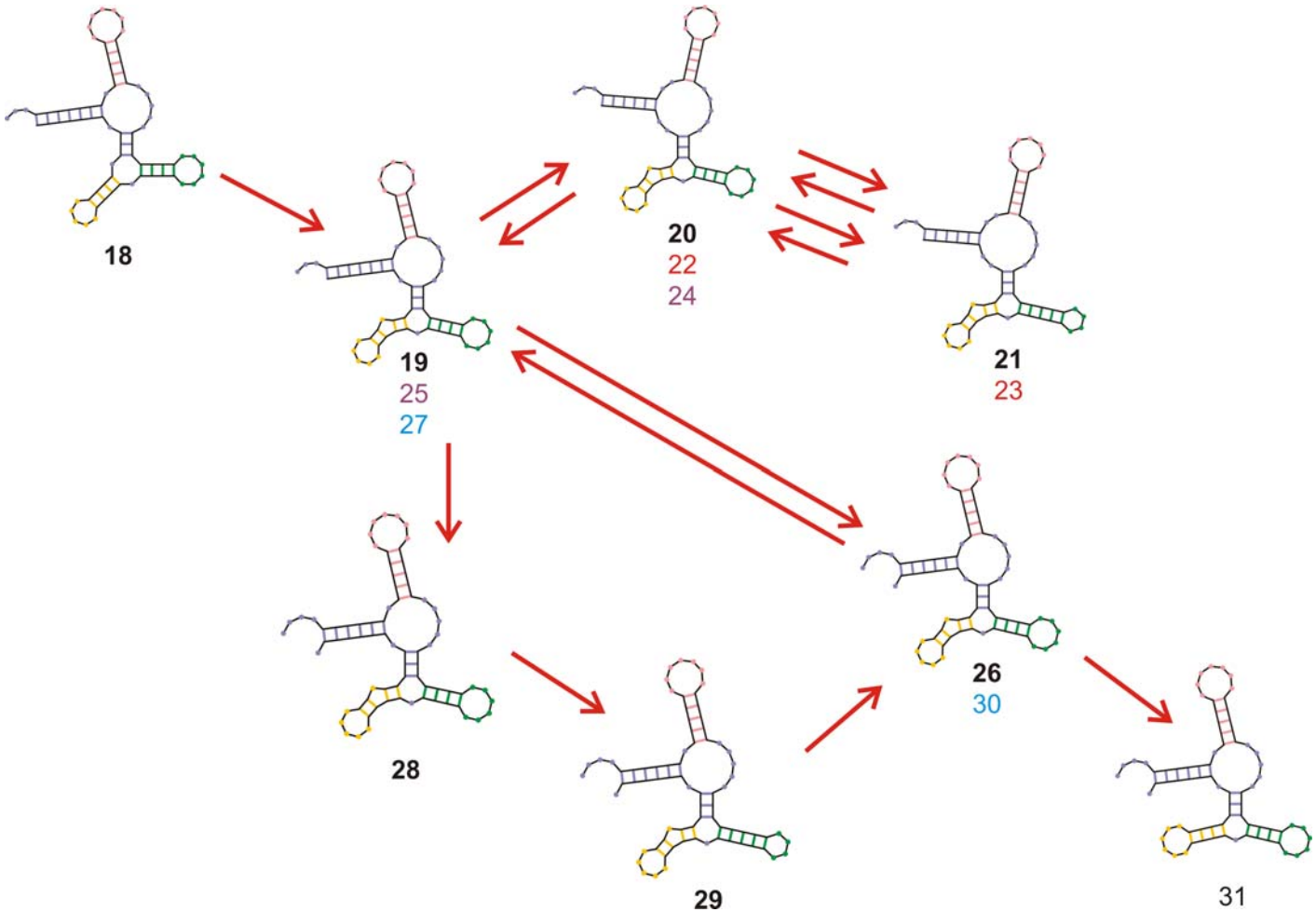

```
entry   GGUAUGGGCGUUGAAUAGUAGGGUUUAAACCAAUCGGCCAACGAUCUCGUGUGCGCAUUUCAUAUCCCGUACAGAA
8       .((((((((((((.........(((....)))).......)))))).....((((.......))))))))))....
exit    GGUAUGGGCGUUGAAUAAUAGGGUUUAAACCAAUCGGCCAACGAUCUCGUGUGCGCAUUUCAUAUCCCAUACAGAA
entry   GGUAUGGGCGUUGAAUAAUAGGGUUUAAACCAAUCGGCCAACGAUCUCGUGUGCGCAUUUCAUAUACCAUACAGAA
9       .((((((.(((((.........(((....)))).......)))))).....((((.......))))).))))))....
exit    UGGAUGGACGUUGAAUAACAAGGUAUCGACCAAACAACCAACGAGUAAGUGUGUACGCCCCACACACCGUCCCAAG
entry   UGGAUGGACGUUGAAUAACAAGGUAUCGACCAAACAACCAACGAGUAAGUGUGUACGCCCCACACAGCGUCCCAAG
10      .(((((..(((((.........(((....)))).......)))))).....((((.......))))).))))))....
exit    UGGAUGGACGUUGAAUAACAAGGUAUCGACCAAACAACCAACGAGUAAGUGUGUACGCCCCACACAGCGUCCCAAG
```

Transition inducing point mutations change the molecular structure

Neutral point mutations leave the molecular structure unchanged

Neutral genotype evolution during phenotypic stasis


Average structure distance to target Δd_S
30
20
10
0
0
750
1000
1250
Time (arbitrary units)
Evolutionary trajectory
18
20
22
24
26
28
30
32
34
36
38
Number of relay step


18
19
25
27
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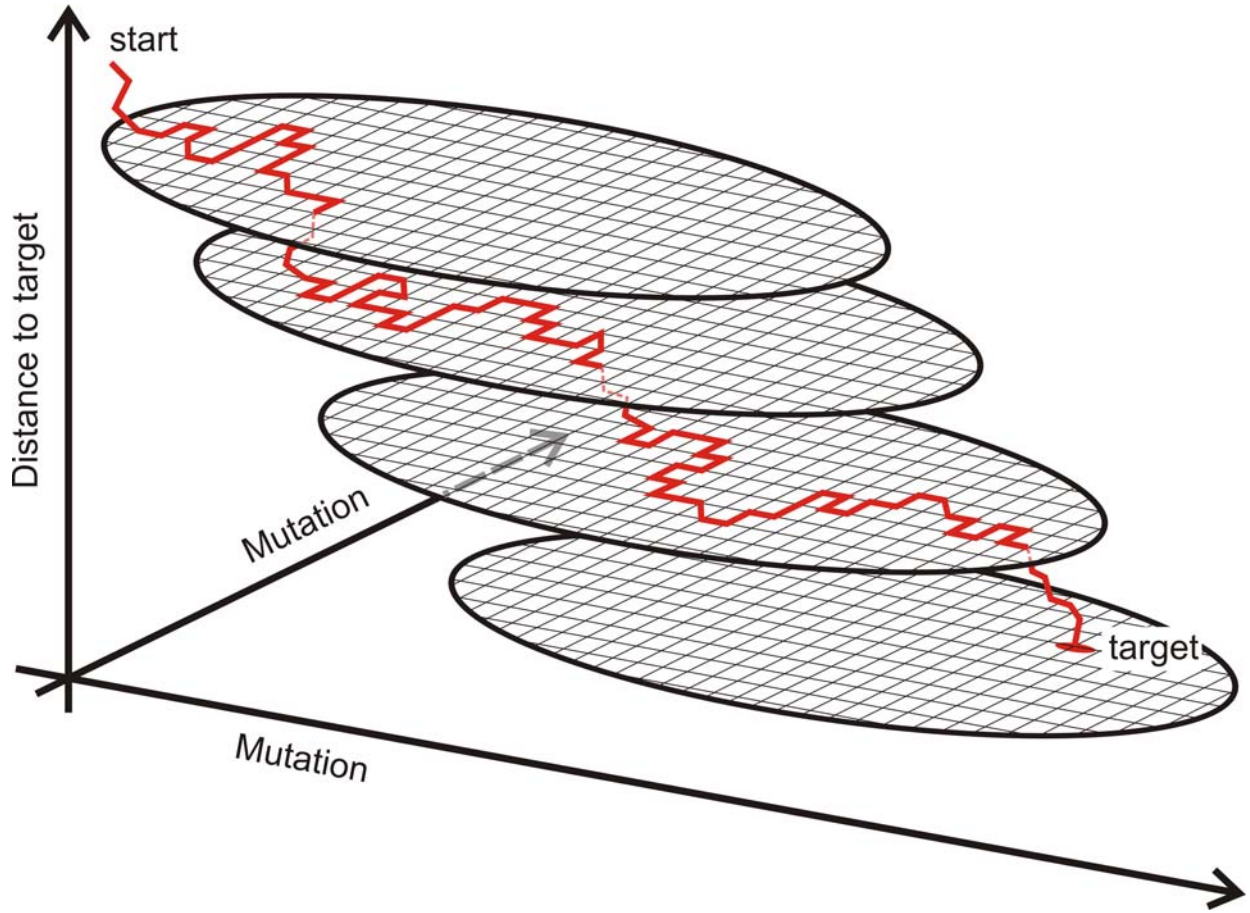


A sketch of optimization on neutral networks

Table 8. Statistics of the optimization trajectories. The table shows the results of sampled evolutionary trajectories leading from a random initial structure, S_I, to the structure of $tRNA^{phe}$, S_T, as the target[a]. Simulations were performed with an algorithm introduced by Gillespie [55–57]. The time unit is here undefined. A mutation rate of $p = 0.001$ per site and replication were used. The mean and standard deviation were calculated under the assumption of a log-normal distribution that fits well the data of the simulations.

Alphabet	Population size, N	Number of runs, n_R	Real time from start to target		Number of replications [10^7]	
			Mean value	σ	Mean value	σ
AUGC	1 000	120	900	+1380 −542	1.2	+3.1 −0.9
	2 000	120	530	+880 −330	1.4	+3.6 −1.0
	3 000	1199	400	+670 −250	1.6	+4.4 −1.2
	10 000	120	190	+230 −100	2.3	+5.3 −1.6
	30 000	63	110	+97 −52	3.6	+6.7 −2.3
	100 000	18	62	+50 −28	–	–
GC	1 000	46	5160	+15700 −3890	–	–
	3 000	278	1910	+5180 −1460	7.4	+35.8 −6.1
	10 000	40	560	+1620 −420	–	–

[a] The structures S_I and S_T were used in the optimization:

S_I: ((.((((((((((((.....((((....)))).....))))))).)))))))..))...(((.....)))

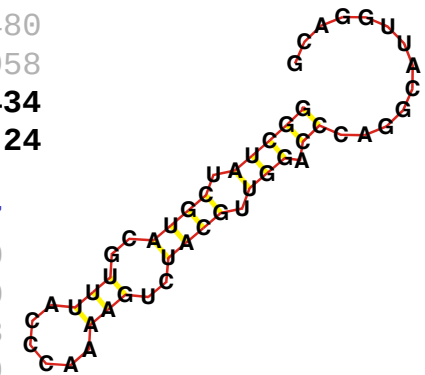
S_T: ((((((...((((........)))).((((.......)))))).....((((.......)))))).))))))....

Is the degree of neutrality in **GC** space much lower than in **AUGC** space ?

Statistics of RNA structure optimization: P. Schuster, Rep.Prog.Phys. 69:1419-1477, 2006

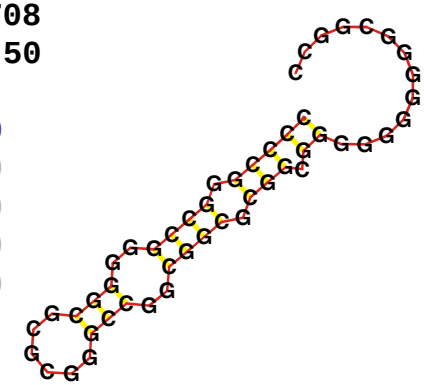
	Number	Mean Value	Variance	Std.Dev.
Total Hamming Distance:	150000	11.647973	23.140715	4.810480
Nonzero Hamming Distance:	99875	16.949991	30.757651	5.545958
Degree of Neutrality:	50125	**0.334167**	0.006961	**0.083434**
Number of Structures:	**1000**	**52.31**	85.30	**9.24**

1	(((((.((((..(((......))))..)))))..))).))..............	50125	0.334167
2	..(((.((((..(((......))))..)))))..))).))..............	2856	0.019040
3	((((((((((..(((......))))..)))))))).)).))..............	2799	0.018660
4	(((((.((((..((((....))))..)))))..))).)).))..............	2417	0.016113
5	(((((.((((.((((......))))..)))))..))).)).))..............	2265	0.015100
6	(((((.(((((.(((......))))..)))))..))).)).))..............	2233	0.014887



	Number	Mean Value	Variance	Std.Dev.
Total Hamming Distance:	50000	13.673580	10.795762	3.285691
Nonzero Hamming Distance:	45738	14.872054	10.821236	3.289565
Degree of Neutrality:	4262	**0.085240**	0.001824	**0.042708**
Number of Structures:	**1000**	**36.24**	6.27	**2.50**

1	(((((.((((..(((......))))..)))))..))).))..............	4262	0.085240
2	((((((((((..(((......))))..)))))))).)).))..............	1940	0.038800
3	(((((.(((((.(((......))))..)))))..))).)).))..............	1791	0.035820
4	(((((.((((.((((......))))..)))))..))).)).))..............	1752	0.035040
5	(((((.((((..((((....))))..)))))..))).)).))..............	1423	0.028460



Shadow – Surrounding of an RNA structure in shape space – **AUGC** and **GC** alphabet

1. Darwin, Mendel, and evolutionary optimization
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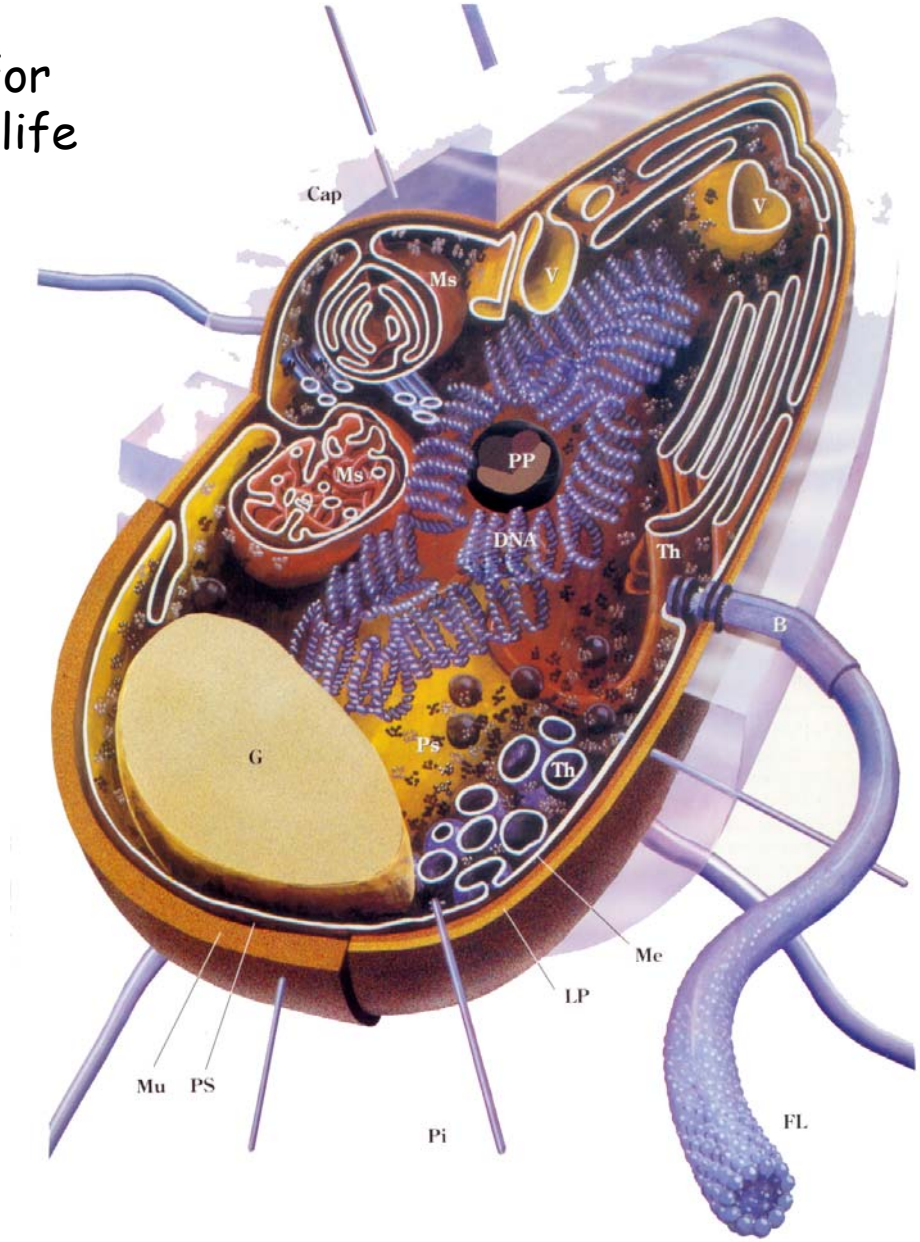
7. **Some origins of complexity in biology**

The bacterial cell as an example for the simplest form of autonomous life

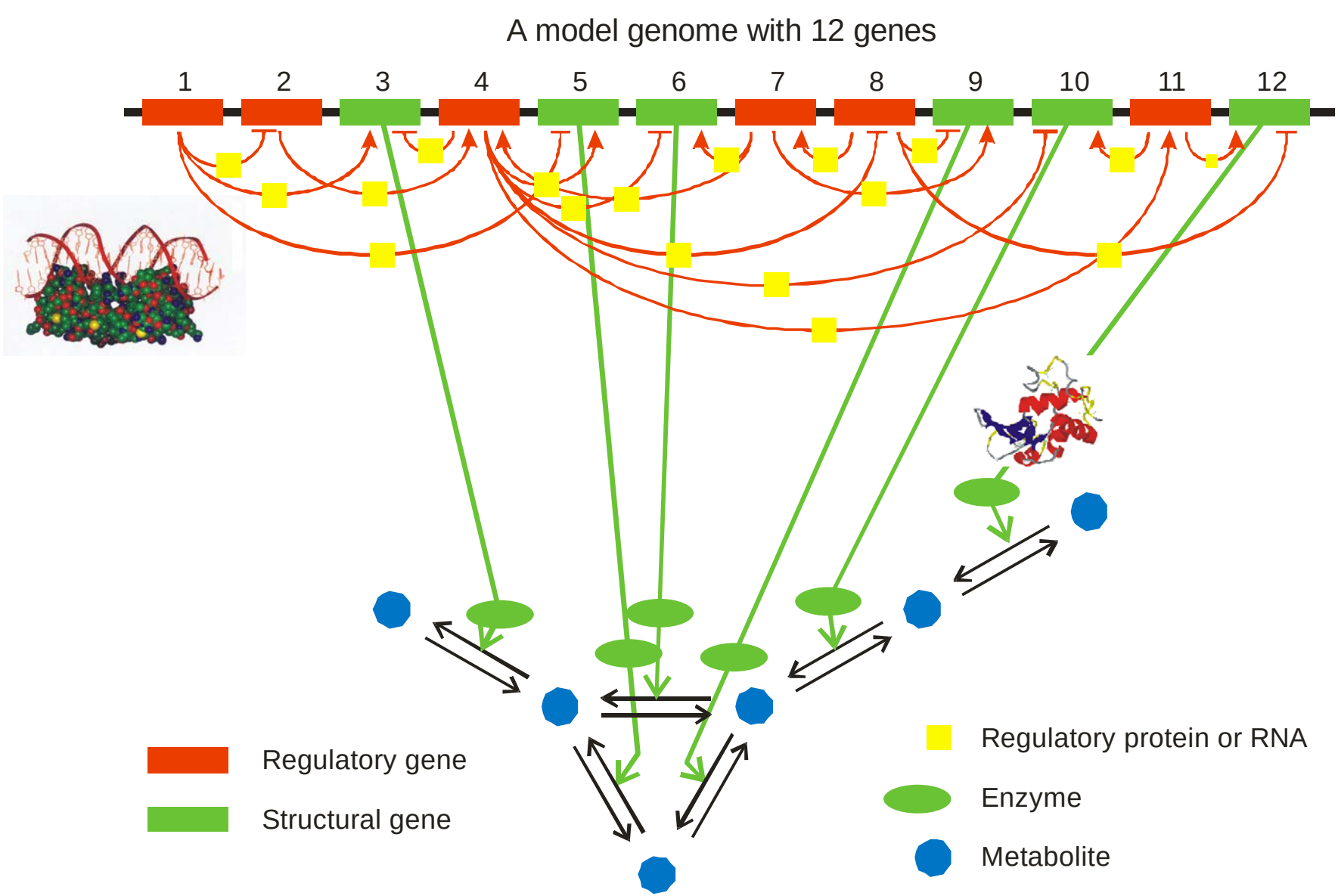
Escherichia coli genome:

4 million nucleotides

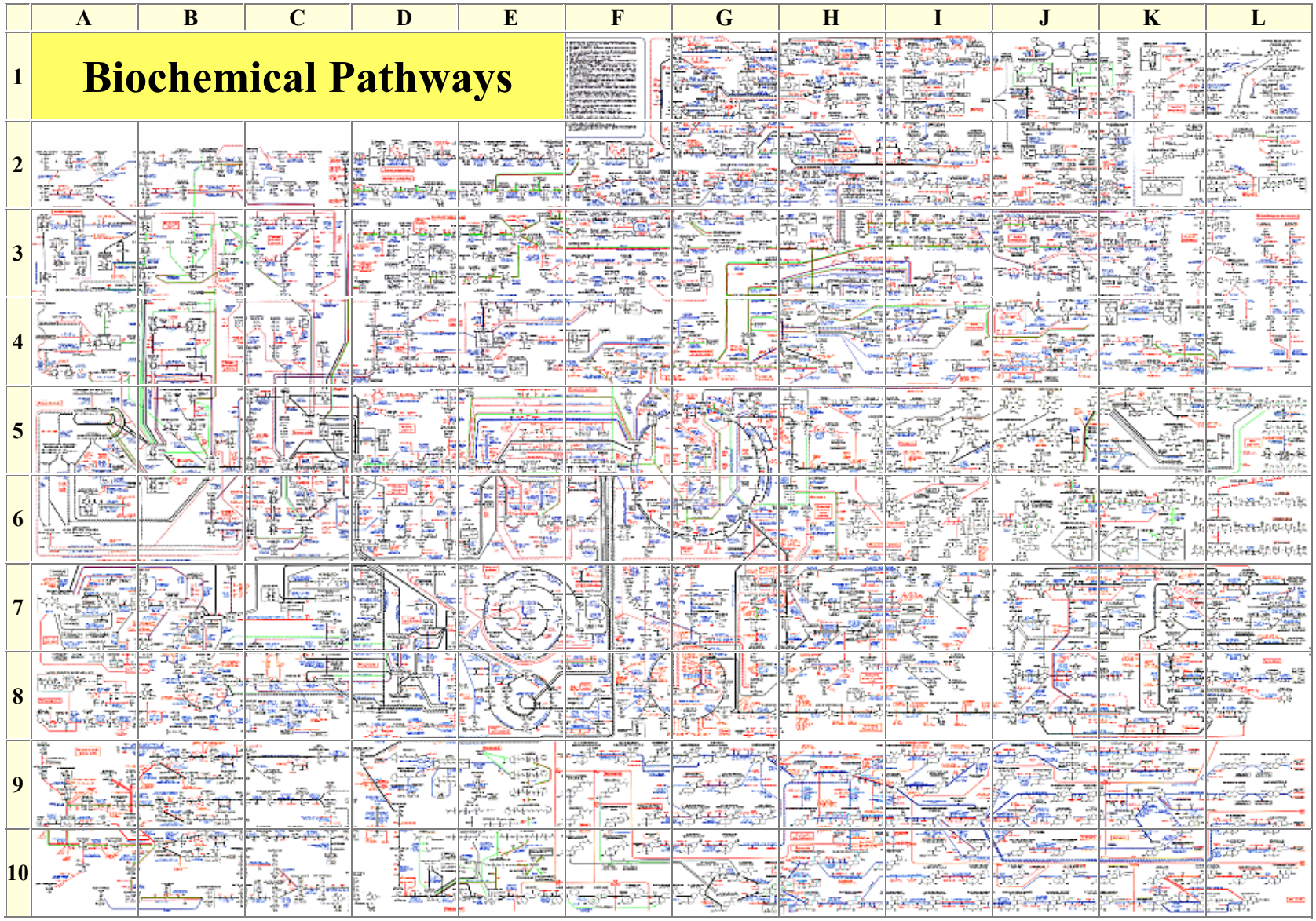
4460 genes



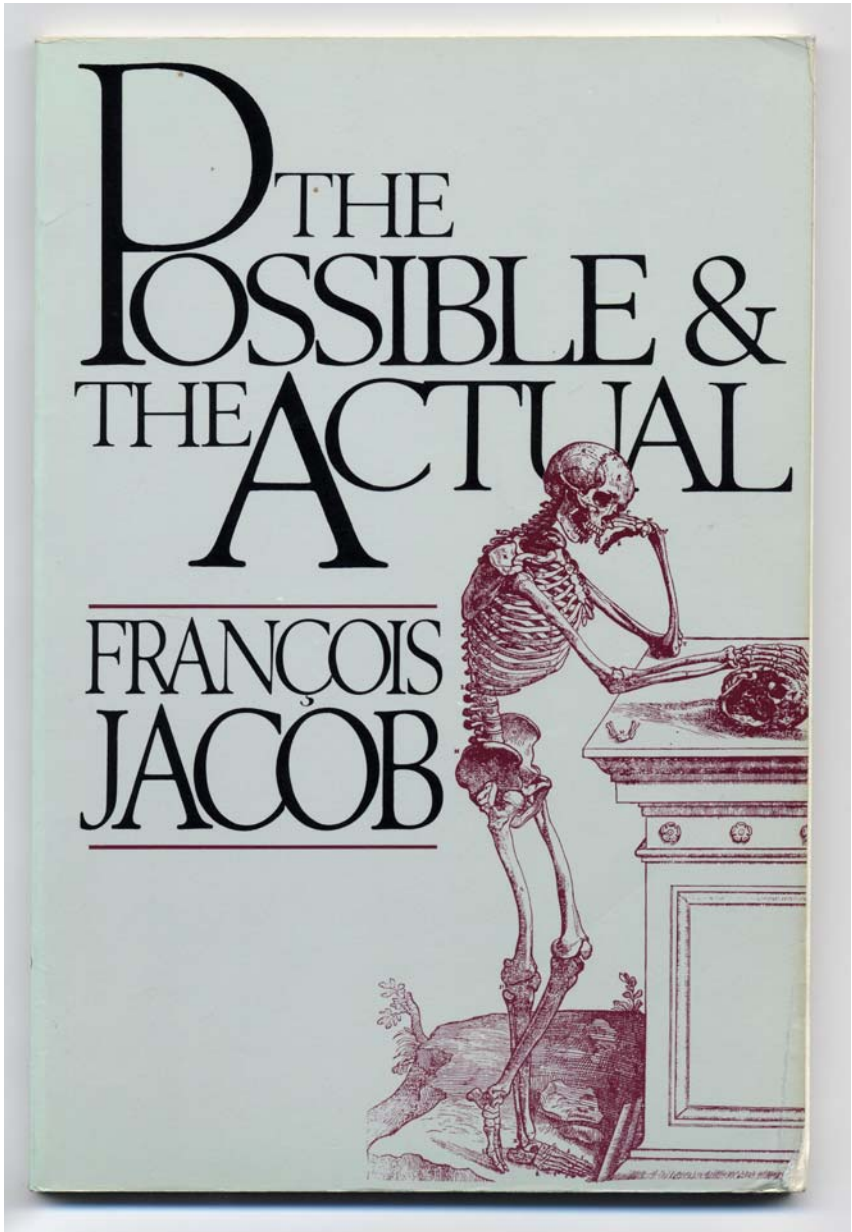
The structure of the bacterium *Escherichia coli*



Sketch of a genetic and metabolic network



The reaction network of cellular metabolism published by Boehringer-Ingelheim.



Evolution does not design with the eyes of an engineer, evolution works like a tinkerer.

François Jacob. *The Possible and the Actual*. Pantheon Books, New York, 1982, and

Evolutionary tinkering. *Science* **196** (1977), 1161-1166.

The evolution of 'bricolage'

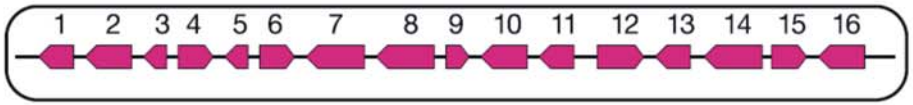
DENIS DUBOULE (denis.duboule@zoo.unige.ch)

ADAM S. WILKINS (edoffice@bioessays.demon.co.uk)

The past ten years of developmental genetics have revealed that most of our genes are shared by other species throughout the animal kingdom. Consequently, animal diversity might largely rely on the differential use of the same components, either at the individual level through divergent functional recruitment, or at a more integrated level, through their participation in various genetic networks. Here, we argue that this inevitably leads to an increase in the interdependency between functions that, in turn, influences the degree to which novel variations can be tolerated. In this 'transitionist' scheme, evolution is neither inherently gradualist nor punctuated but, instead, progresses from one extreme to the other, together with the increased complexity of organisms.

D. Duboule, A.S. Wilkins. 1998.
The evolution of ‚bricolage'.
Trends in Genetics **14**:54-59.

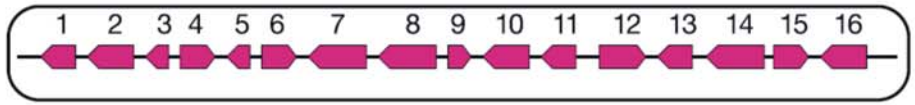
Common ancestor



A model for the genome duplication in yeast 100 million years ago

Manolis Kellis, Bruce W. Birren, and Eric S. Lander. Proof and evolutionary analysis of ancient genome duplication in the yeast *Saccharomyces cerevisiae*. *Nature* **428**: 617-624, 2004

Common ancestor



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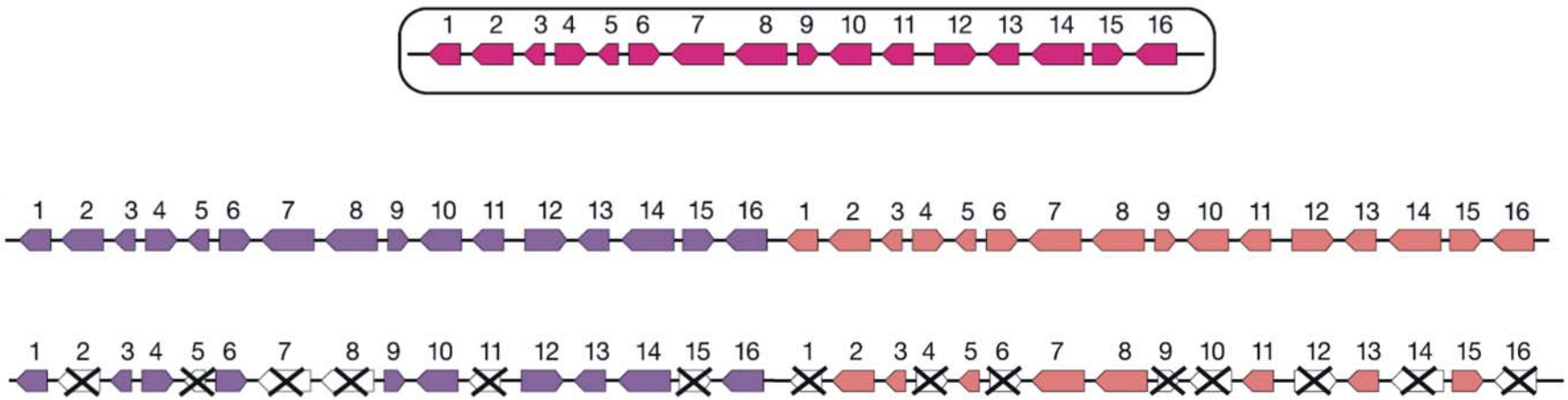

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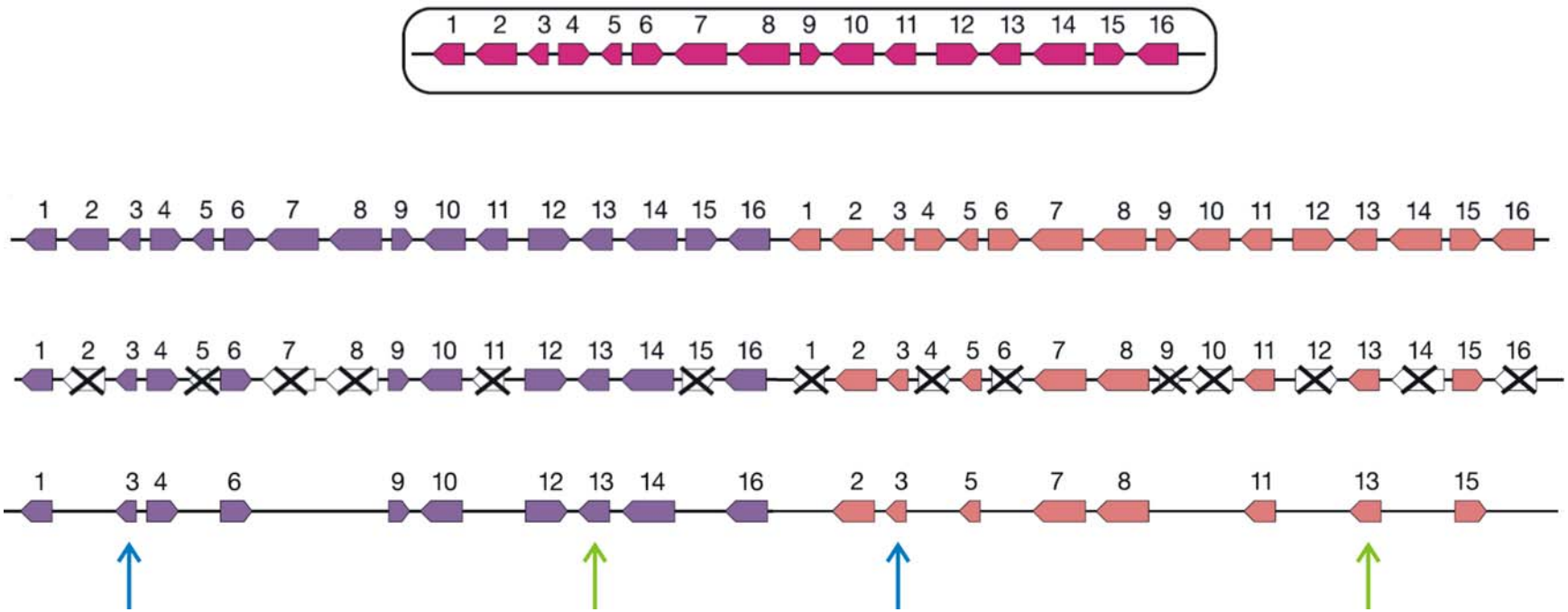

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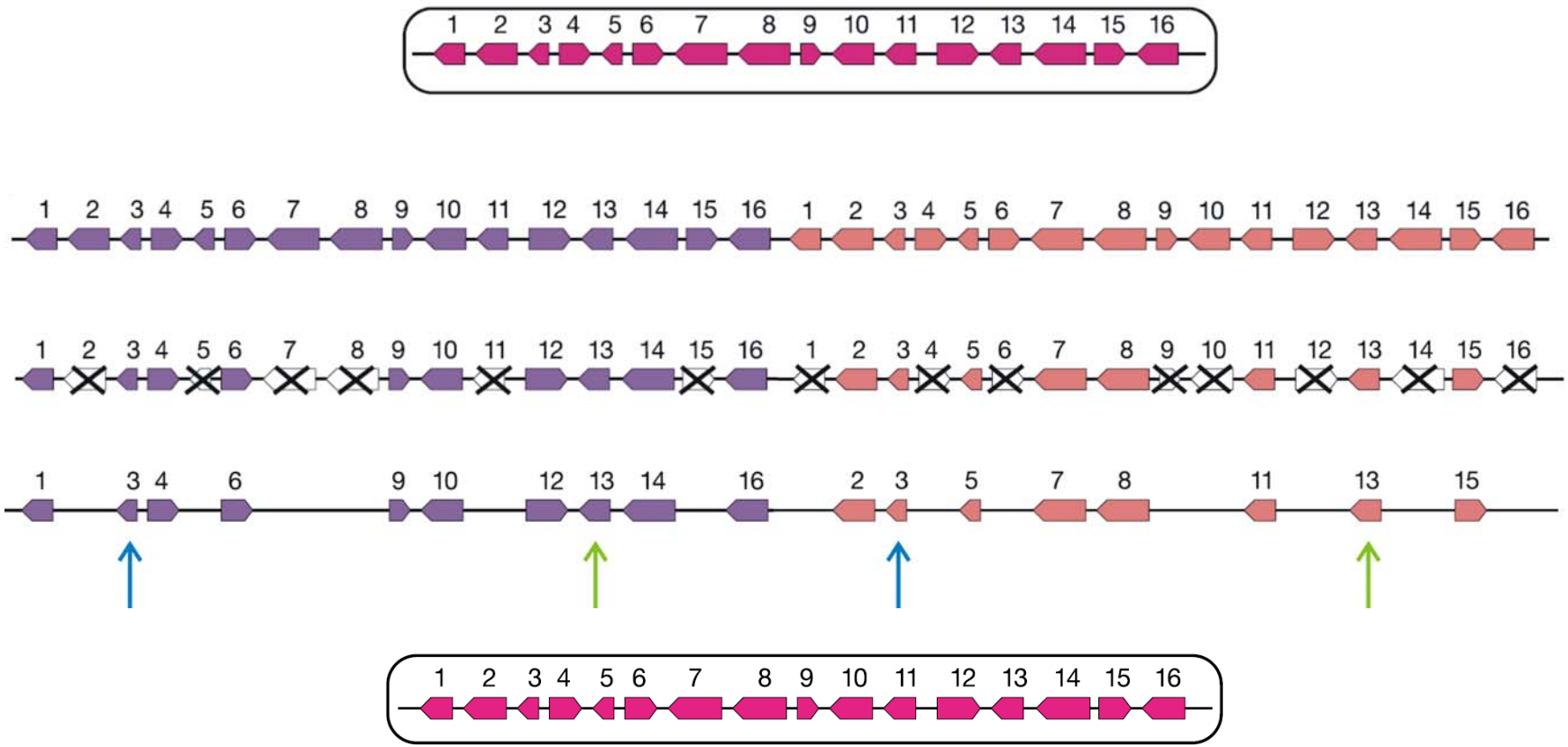
Common ancestor



Kluyveromyces waltii

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The difficulty to define the notion of „gene".

Helen Pearson,
Nature **441**: 399-401, 2006

WHAT IS A GENE?

The idea of genes as beads on a DNA string is fast fading. Protein-coding sequences have no clear beginning or end and RNA is a key part of the information package, reports **Helen Pearson**.

'Gene' is not a typical four-letter word. It is not offensive. It is never bleeped out of TV shows. And where the meaning of most four-letter words is all too clear, that of gene is not. The more expert scientists become in molecular genetics, the less easy it is to be sure about what, if anything, a gene actually is.

Rick Young, a geneticist at the Whitehead Institute in Cambridge, Massachusetts, says that when he first started teaching as a young professor two decades ago, it took him about two hours to teach fresh-faced undergraduates what a gene was and the nuts and bolts of how it worked. Today, he and his colleagues need three months of lectures to convey the concept of the gene, and that's not because the students are any less bright. "It takes a whole semester to teach this stuff to talented graduates," Young says. "It used to be we could give a one-off definition and now it's much more complicated."

In classical genetics, a gene was an abstract concept — a unit of inheritance that ferried a characteristic from parent to child. As biochemistry came into its own, those characteristics were associated with enzymes or proteins, one for each gene. And with the advent of molecular biology, genes became real, physical things — sequences of DNA which when converted into strands of so-called messenger RNA could be used as the basis for building their associated protein piece by piece. The great coiled DNA molecules of the chromosomes were seen as long strings on which gene sequences sat like discrete beads.

This picture is still the working model for many scientists. But those at the forefront of genetic research see it as increasingly old-fashioned — a crude approximation that, at best, hides fascinating new complexities and, at worst, blinds its users to useful new paths of enquiry.

Information, it seems, is parceled out along chromosomes in a much more complex way than was originally supposed. RNA molecules are not just passive conduits through which the gene's message flows into the world but active regulators of cellular processes. In some cases, RNA may even pass information across generations — normally the sole preserve of DNA.

An eye-opening study last year raised the possibility that plants sometimes rewrite their DNA on the basis of RNA messages inherited from generations past[1]. A study on page 469 of this issue suggests that a comparable phenomenon might occur in mice, and by implication in other mammals[2]. If this type of phenomenon is indeed widespread, it "would have huge implications," says evolutionary geneticist Laurence Hurst at the University of Bath, UK.

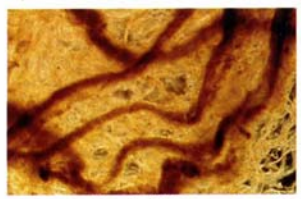
"All of that information seriously challenges our conventional definition of a gene," says molecular biologist Bing Ren at the University of California, San Diego. And the information challenge is about to get even tougher. Later this year, a glut of data will be released from the international Encyclopedia of DNA Elements (ENCODE) project. The pilot phase of ENCODE involves scrutinizing roughly 1% of the human genome in unprecedented detail; the aim is to find all the sequences that serve a useful purpose and explain what that purpose is. "When we started the ENCODE project I had a different view of what a gene was," says contributing researcher Roderic Guigo at the Center for Genomic Regulation in Barcelona. "The degree of complexity we've seen was not anticipated."

"We've come to the realization that the genome is full of overlapping transcripts."
— Phillip Kapranov

Under fire

The first of the complexities to challenge molecular biology's paradigm of a single DNA sequence encoding a single protein was alternative splicing, discovered in viruses in 1977 (see 'Hard to track', overleaf). Most of the DNA sequences describing proteins in humans have a modular arrangement in which exons, which carry the instructions for making proteins, are interspersed with non-coding introns. In alternative splicing, the cell snips out introns and sews together the exons in various different orders, creating messages that can code for different proteins. Over the years geneticists have also documented overlapping genes, genes within genes and countless other weird arrangements (see 'Muddling over genes', overleaf).

Alternative splicing, however, did not in itself require a drastic reappraisal of the notion of a gene; it just showed that some DNA sequences could describe more than one protein. Today's assault on the gene concept is more far reaching, fuelled largely by studies that show the previously unimagined scope of RNA.



Spools of DNA (above) still harbour surprises, with one protein-coding gene often overlapping the next.

P. PLAILLY/SPL

The one gene, one protein idea is coming under particular assault from researchers who are comprehensively extracting and analysing the RNA messages, or transcripts, manufactured by genomes, including the human and mouse genome. Researchers led by Thomas Gingeras at the company Affymetrix in Santa Clara, California, for example, recently studied all the transcripts from ten chromosomes across eight human cell lines and worked out precisely where on the chromosomes each of the transcripts came from[3].

The picture these studies paint is one of mind-boggling complexity. Instead of discrete genes dutifully mass-producing identical RNA transcripts, a teeming mass of transcription converts many segments of the genome into multiple RNA ribbons of differing lengths. These ribbons can be generated from both strands of DNA, rather than from just one as was conventionally thought. Some of these transcripts come from regions of DNA previously identified as holding protein-coding genes. But many do not. "It's somewhat revolutionary," says Gingeras's colleague Phillip Kapranov. "We've come to the realization that the genome is full of overlapping transcripts."

Other studies, one by Guigo's team[4], and one by geneticist Rotem Sorek[5], now at Tel Aviv University, Israel, and his colleagues, have hinted at the reasons behind the mass of transcription. The two teams investigated occasional reports that transcription can start at a DNA sequence associated with one protein and run straight through into the gene for a completely different protein, producing a fused transcript. By delving into databases of human RNA transcripts, Guigo's team estimate that 4–5% of the DNA in regions conventionally recognized as genes is transcribed in this way. Producing fused transcripts could be one way for a cell to generate a greater variety of proteins from a limited number of exons, the researchers say.

Many scientists are now starting to think that the descriptions of proteins encoded in DNA know no borders — that each sequence reaches into the next and beyond. This idea will be one of the central points to emerge from the ENCODE project when its results are published later this year.

Kapranov and others say that they have documented many examples of transcripts in which protein-coding exons from one part of the genome combine with exons from another

ENCODE stands for
ENCyclopedia Of DNA Elements.

ENCODE Project Consortium.
Identification and analysis of functional elements in 1% of the human genome by the ENCODE pilot project.
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