Principles of Evolution

How the looking glasses of physicists and biologists are different

Peter Schuster

Institut für Theoretische Chemie, Universität Wien, Austria
and
The Santa Fe Institute, Santa Fe, New Mexico, USA

Jena Life Science Forum

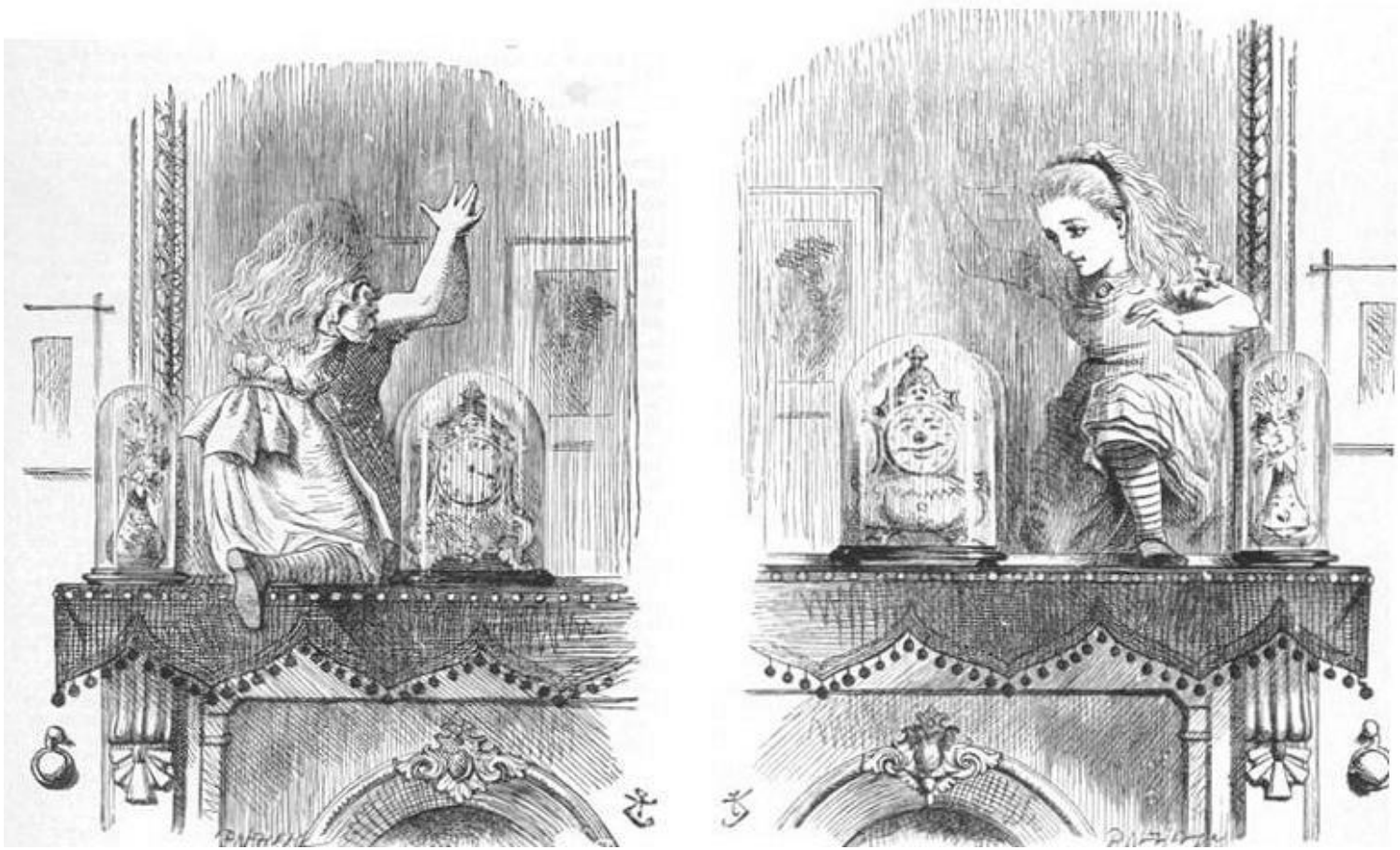
Frege Centre, Jena, 09.06.2010

Web-Page for further information:

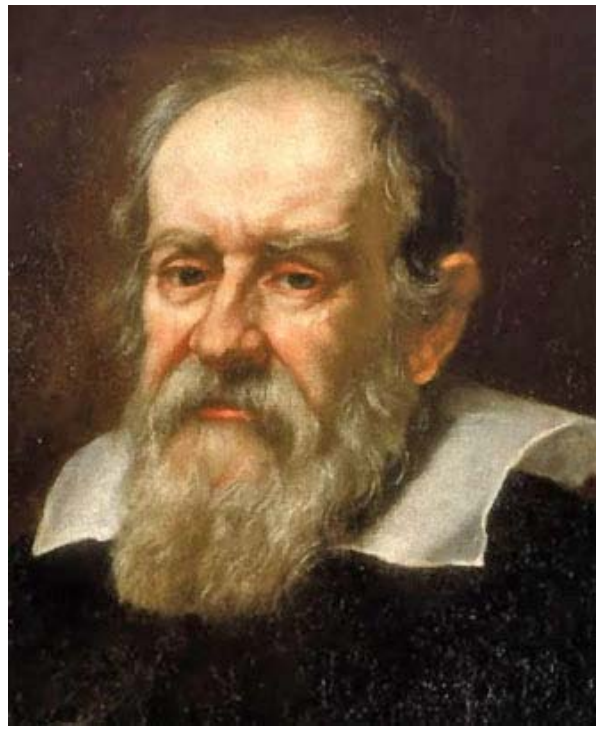
http://www.tbi.univie.ac.at/~pks

Sources of photographs: Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia
Private archives
www.naturphoto.cz: Jaroslav Malý, Jiří Bohdal
Fossil Art: Geologisches Institut, Universität Tübingen

Through the Looking-Glass and What Alice Found There.



"La Filosophia è scritta in questo grandissimo libro, que continuamente ci stà aperto innanzi à gli occhi (io dico l'universo) ma non si può intendere se prima non s'impara à intender la lingua, e conoscer i caratteri, nei quali è scritto. Egli è scritto in lingua matematica, e i caratteri son triangoli, cerchi. & altre figure Geometriche ...",



Galileo Galilei, 1564 - 1642

Galileo Galilei. 1632. ***Il Saggiatore***.
Edition Nationale, Bd.6, Florenz 1896, p.232.

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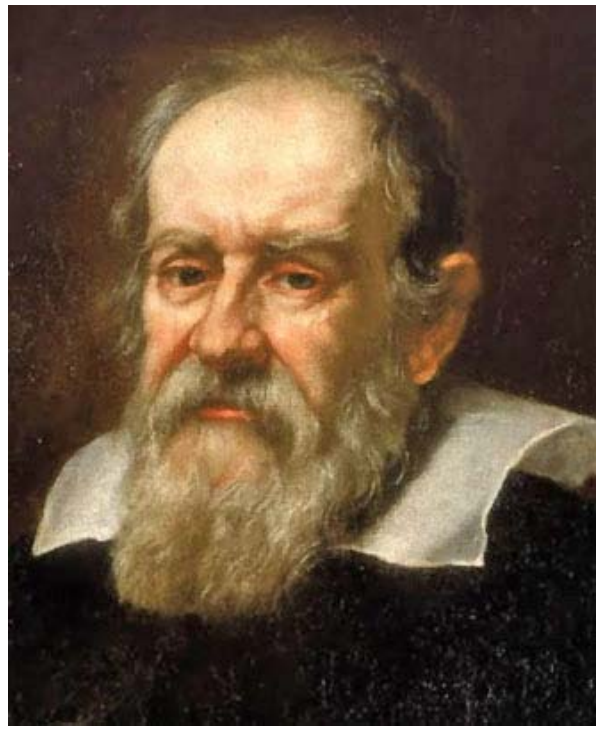
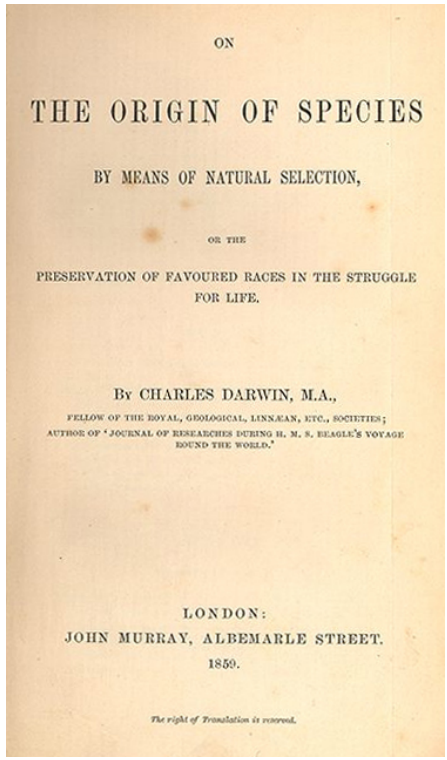
„Philosophy [science] is written in this grand book, the universe ... . It is written in the language of mathematics, and ist characters are triangles, circles and other geometric figures; …. „

Galileo Galilei. 1632. ***Il Saggiatore***.
Edition Nationale, Vol.6, Florenz 1896, p.232.



Galileo Galilei, 1564 - 1642

Charles Darwin,
1809 - 1882



ON

THE ORIGIN OF SPECIES

BY MEANS OF NATURAL SELECTION,

OR THE

PRESERVATION OF FAVOURED RACES IN THE STRUGGLE FOR LIFE.

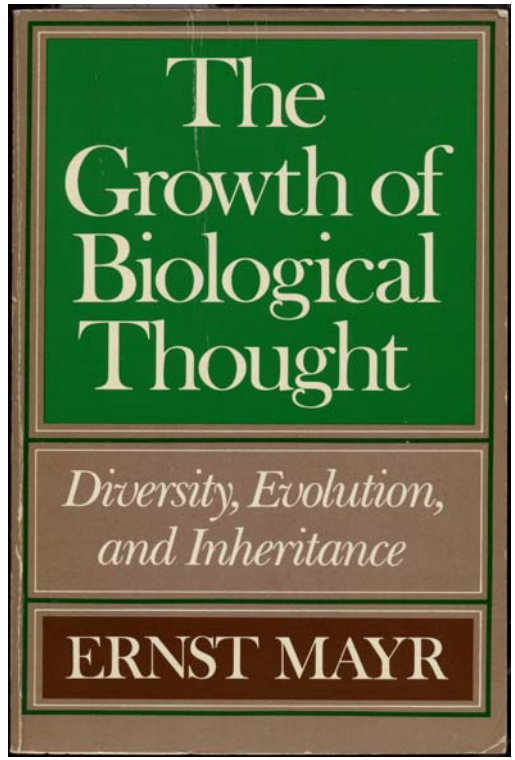
By CHARLES DARWIN, M.A.,

FELLOW OF THE ROYAL, GEOLOGICAL, LINNÆAN, ETC., SOCIETIES;
AUTHOR OF 'JOURNAL OF RESEARCHES DURING H. M. S. BEAGLE'S VOYAGE ROUND THE WORLD.'

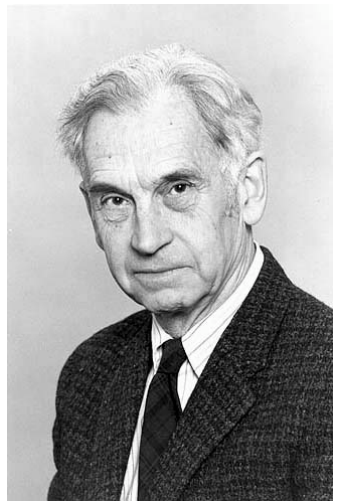
LONDON:
JOHN MURRAY, ALBEMARLE STREET.
1859.

The right of Translation is reserved.

Theory of **Natural Selection**



Synthetic Theory of Evolution



Ernst Mayr,
1904 - 2005

Seminal biological books of biology do not contain a single equation:

Two examples.

1. Patterns in nature
2. Pattern formation in chemistry and physics
3. Biological patterns
4. Natural selection and evolution of molecules
5. Chemical kinetics of molecular evolution
6. Can neutrality be useful ?
7. How complex is biology ?

1. **Patterns in nature**
2. Pattern formation in chemistry and physics
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Animal skins

Flowers

Mushrooms


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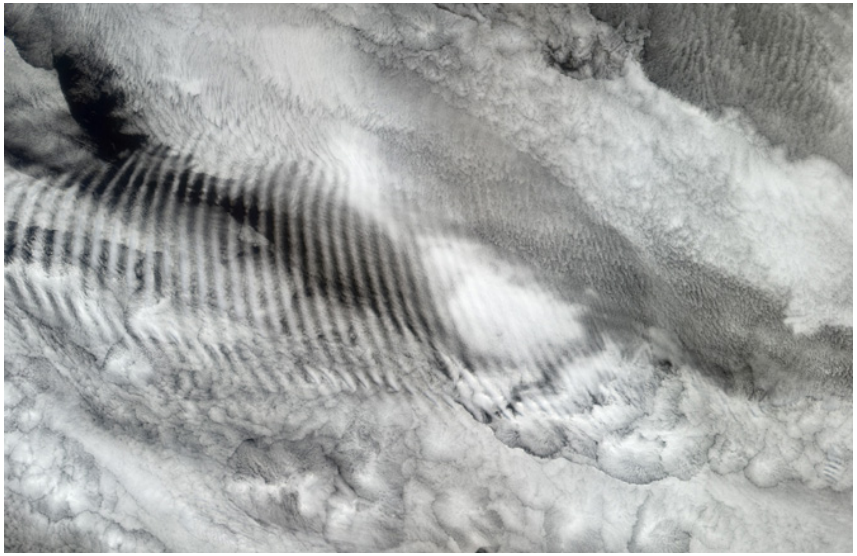
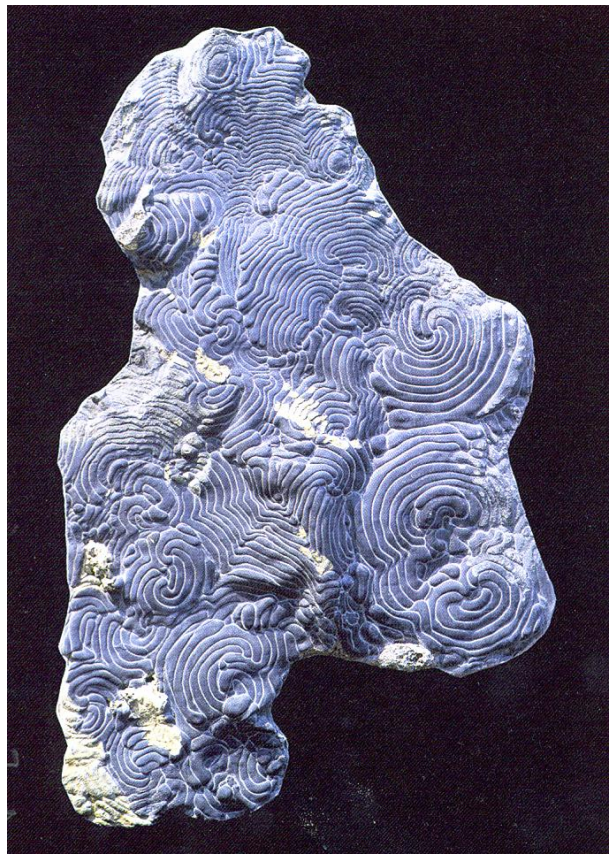


Patterns in the sky

Achats



Frozen patterns in minerals and fossils

1. Patterns in nature
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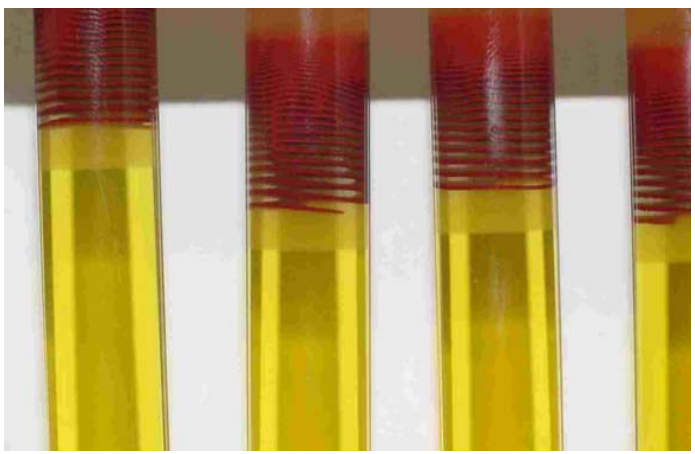
Raphael Liesegang, 1869 – 1947

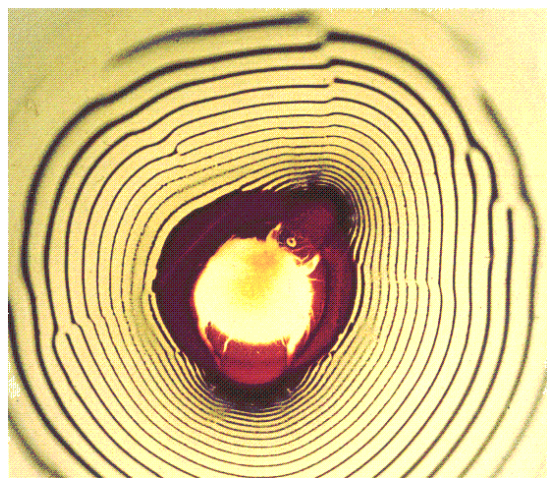
Discovered Liesegang rings in laboratory experiments

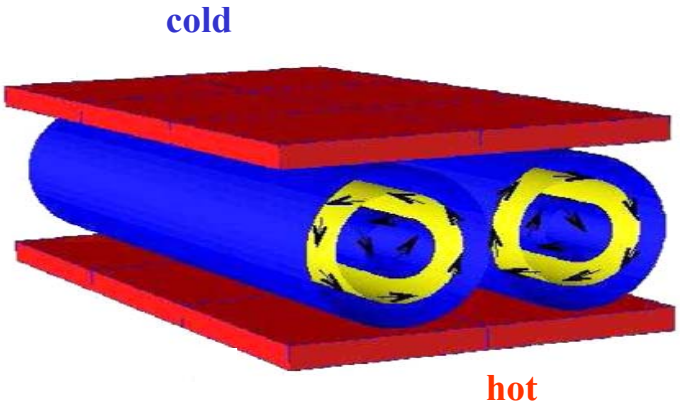
Wilhelm Ostwald, 1853 – 1932

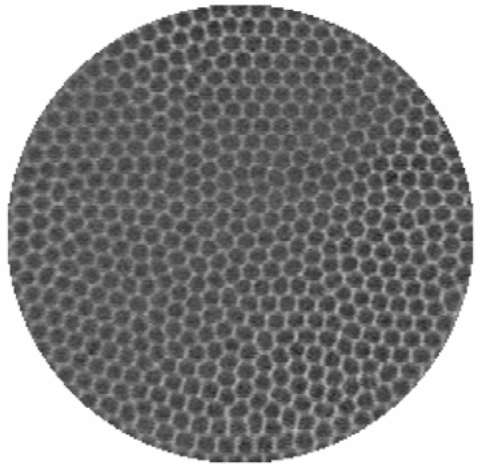
Explained Liesegang rings by means of supersaturation

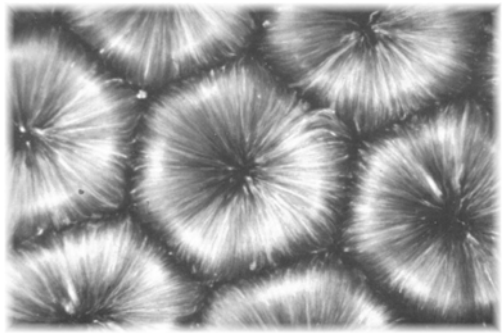


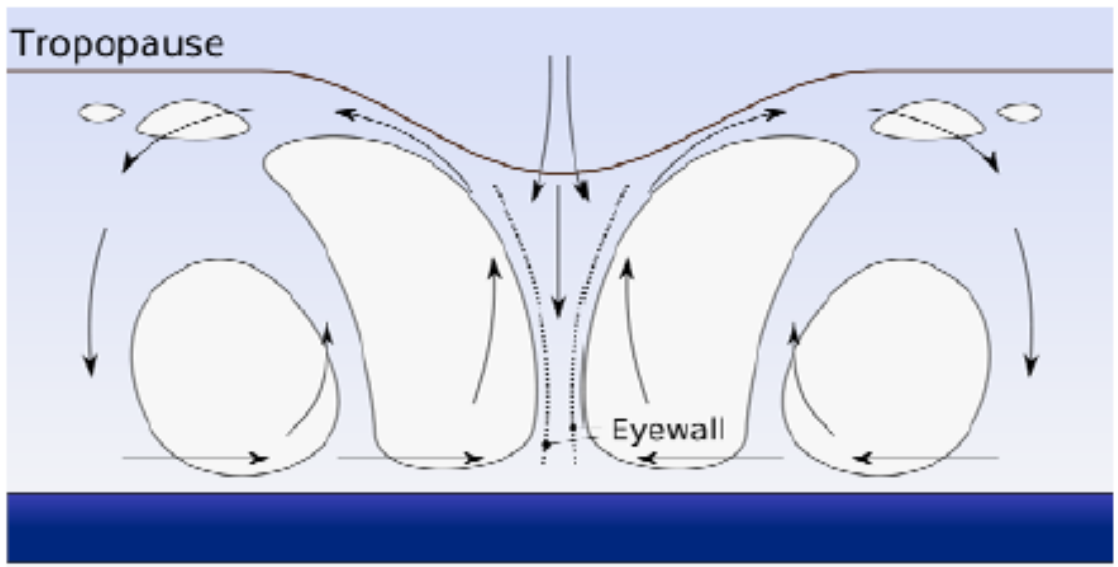
Crystallization patterns











Raleigh-Bénard convection and formation of hurricanes

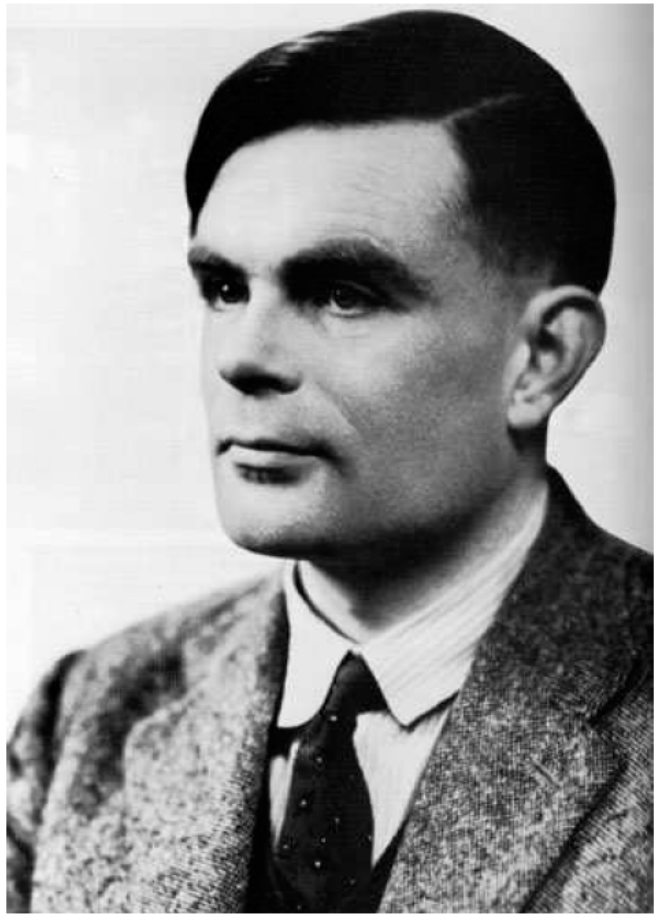
$$\frac{\partial u}{\partial t} = D_u \nabla^2 u + f(u,v)$$

$$\frac{\partial v}{\partial t} = D_v \nabla^2 v + g(u,v)$$

$$u = u(x,y,z,t) \quad \text{and} \quad v = v(x,y,z,t)$$

Change in local concentration =

= diffusion + chemical reaction

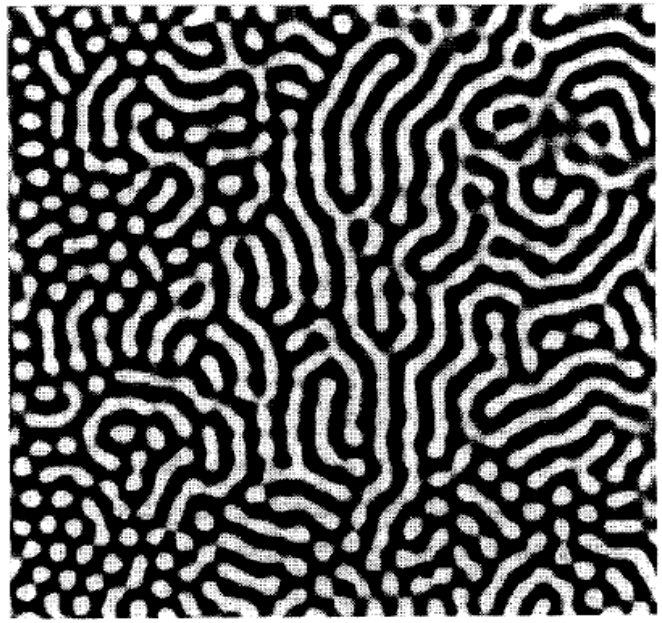


Alan M. Turing, 1912-1954

A.M. Turing. 1952. The chemical basis of morphogenesis. *Phil.Trans.Roy.Soc.*London B **237**:37-72.

Belousov-Zhabotinskii reaction 1959

target waves (upper part) and
coupled spirals (lower part)



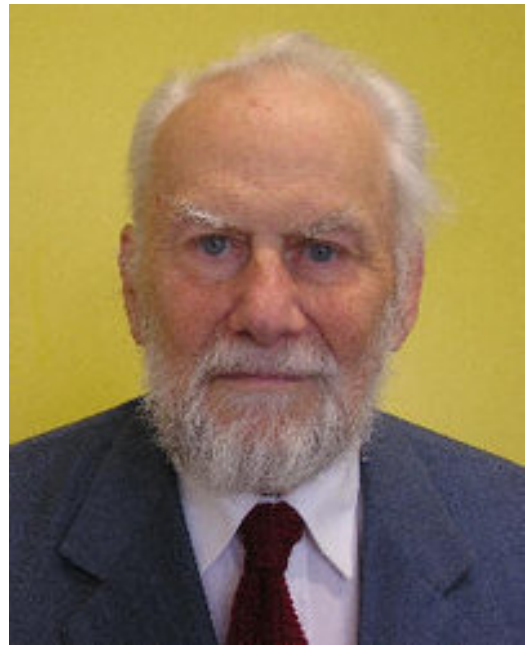
Turing pattern
Boissonade, De Kepper 1990

Space-time patterns and stationary Turing patterns in autocatalytic chemical reactions

Ilya Prigogine, 1917 - 2003

Irreversible thermodynamics
of dissipative structures

Synergetics in non-linear
dynamics



Hermann Haken, 1927 -

Theory of structure formation in non-equilibrium systems

1. Patterns in nature
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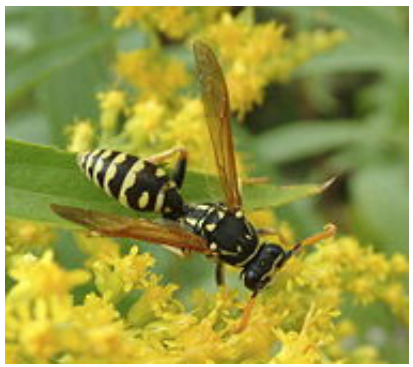
Skin patterns within an inbred strain of wild-living cats

Parents and child

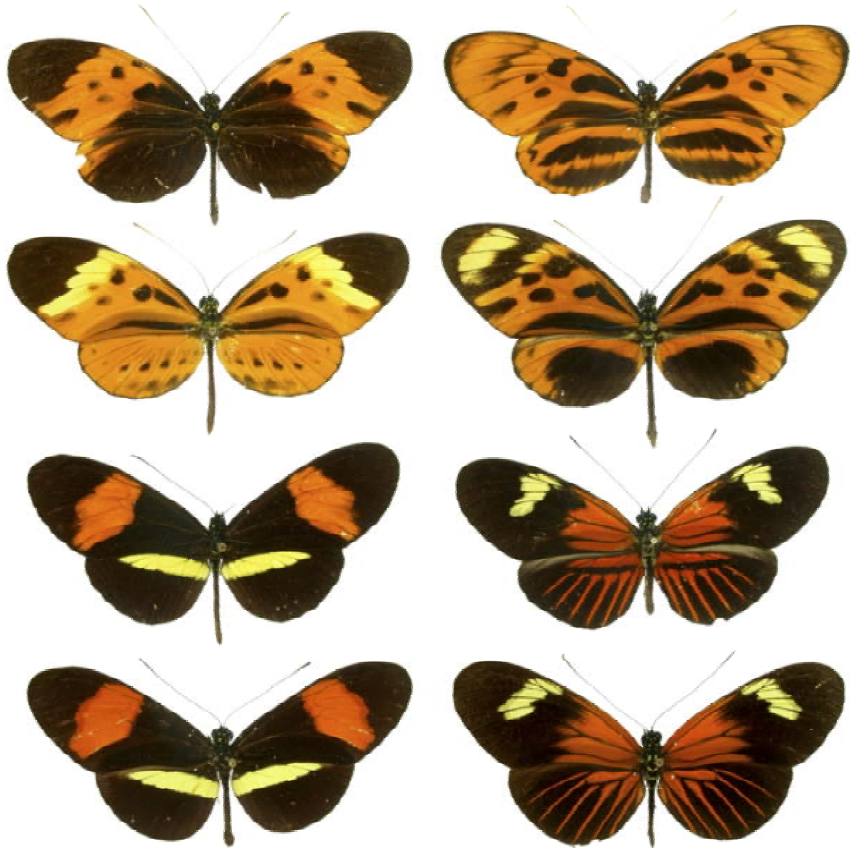
mother

presumed father

daughter



Bates' mimicry



Müller's mimicry

Different forms of mimicry observed in nature

milk snake

Bates' mimicry

false coral snake

coral snake

Emsley's or Mertens' mimicry

Different forms of mimicry observed in nature

Two features of biological patterns:

(i) High degree of reproducibiliy in detail and

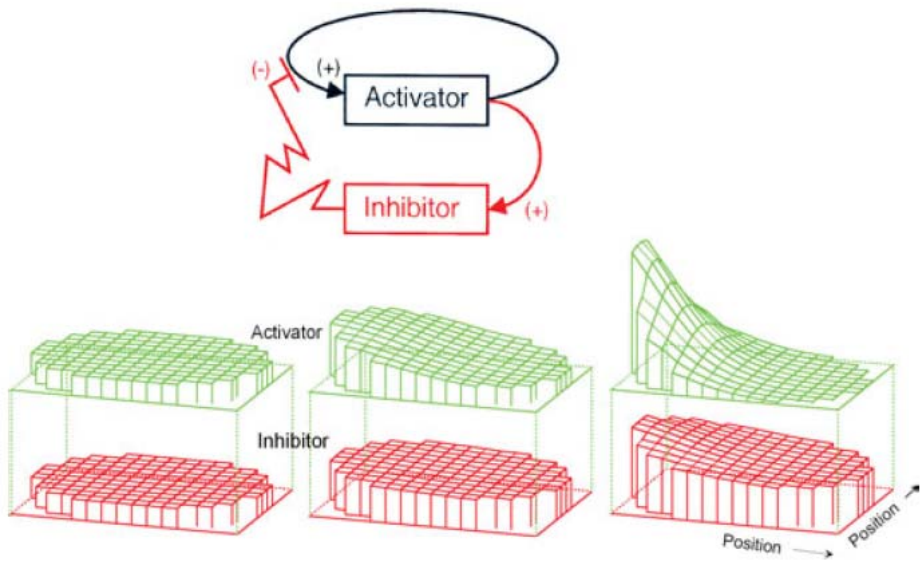
(ii) high degree of variability in evolution

yield adaptability to changes in environmental conditions.

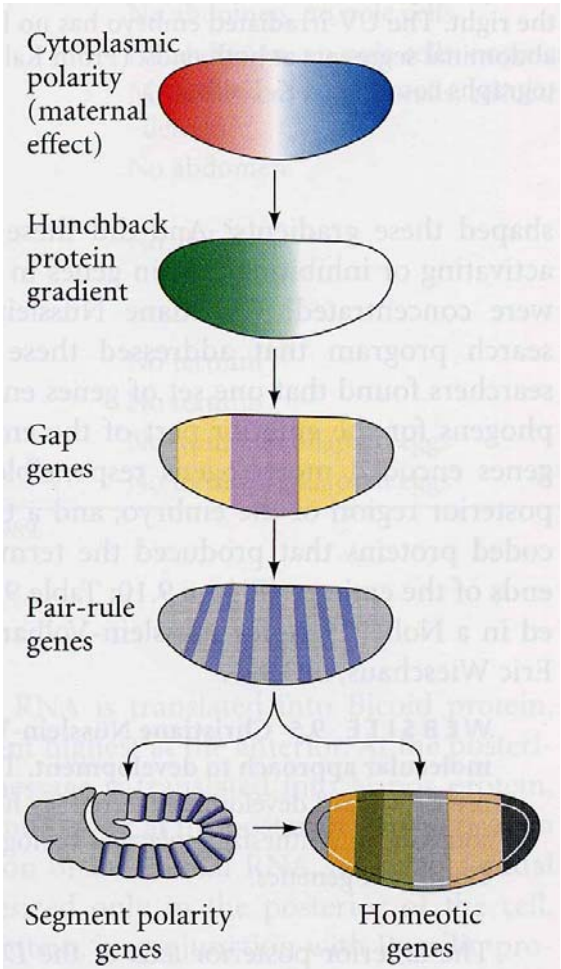
Hans Meinhardt,
1938 -

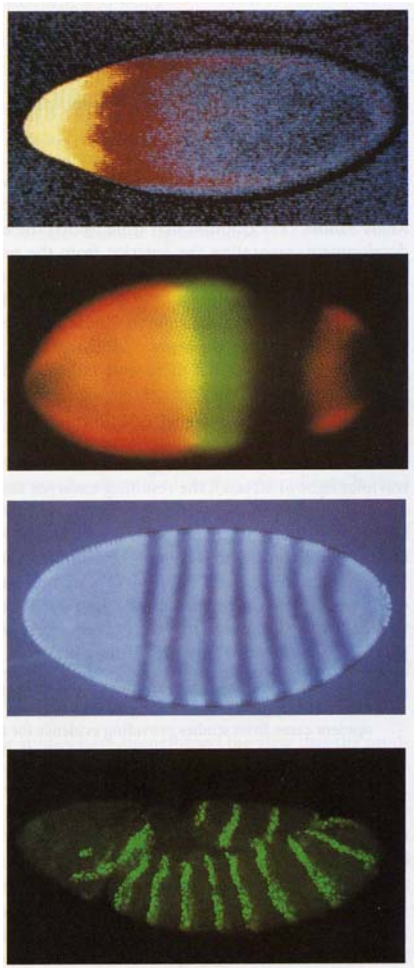
Alfred Gierer,
1929 -

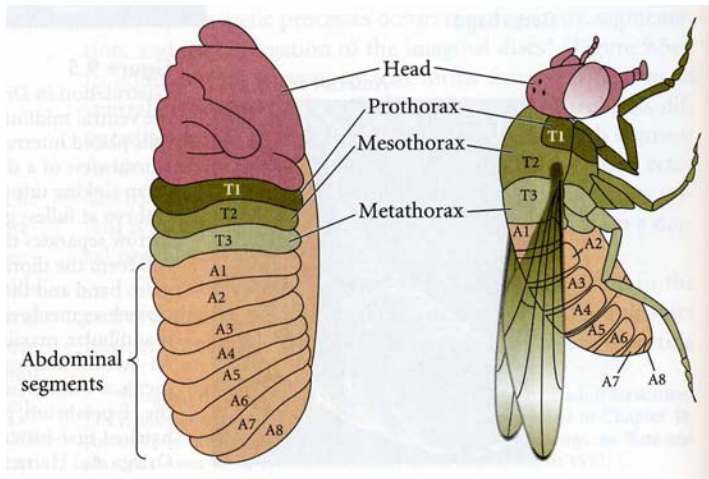
Application of the Turing model to biological pattern formation in development



James D. Murray. *Mathematical Biology*. Third edition, 2003.
II: Spatial Models and Biomedical Applications, pp.71-140.







Development of the fruit fly *drosophila melanogaster*
Genetics, experiment, and imago

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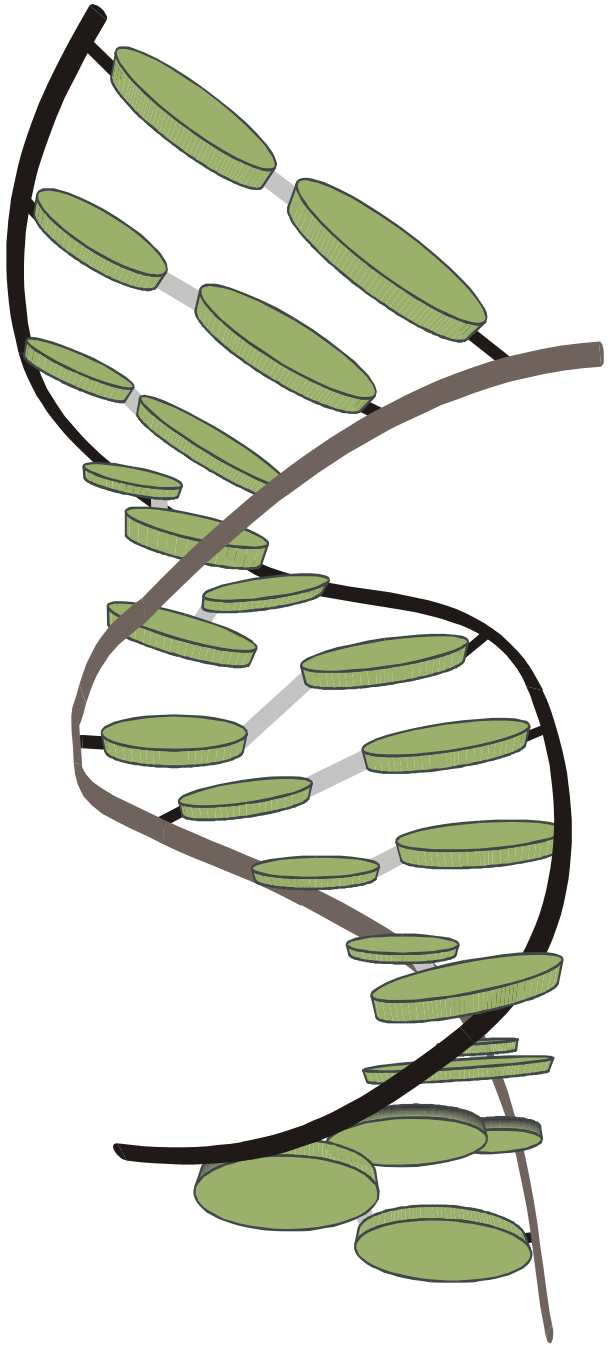
Charles Darwin, 1809-1882

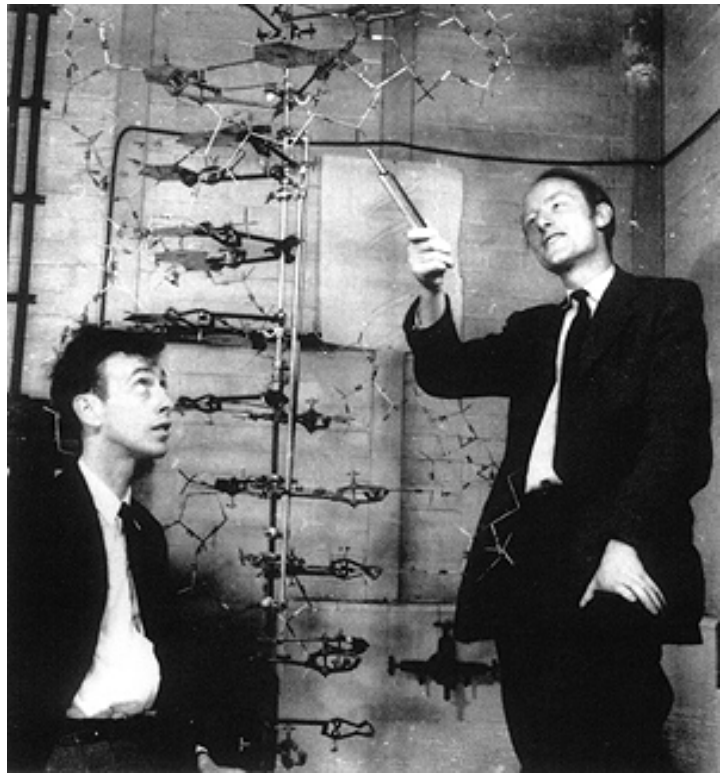
Three necessary conditions for Darwinian evolution are:

1. **Multiplication,**
2. **Variation** in fitness leading to
3. **Selection** in finite populations.

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



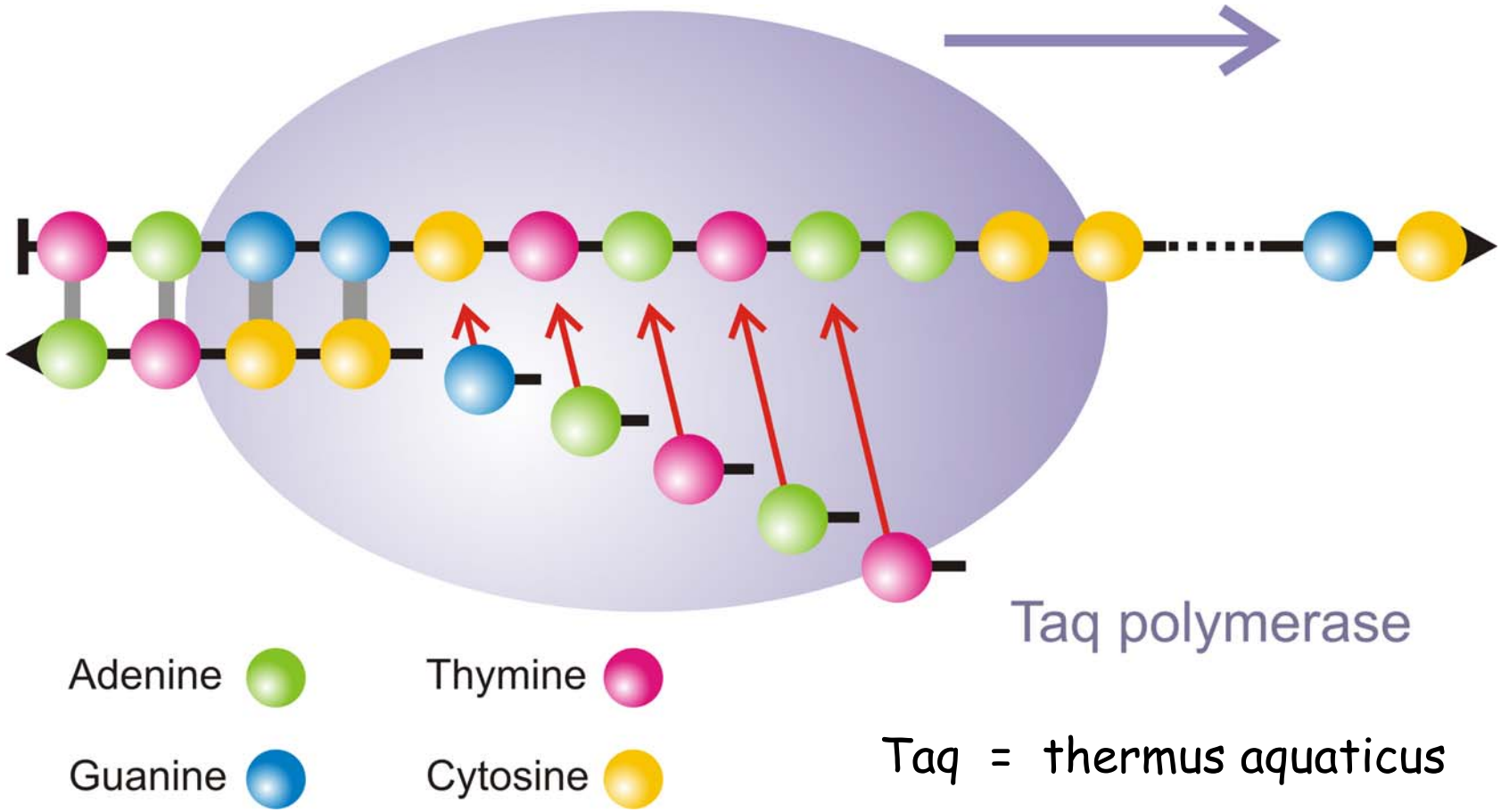


James D. Watson, 1928-, and Francis H.C. Crick, 1916-2004

Nobel prize 1962

1953 – 2003 fifty years double helix

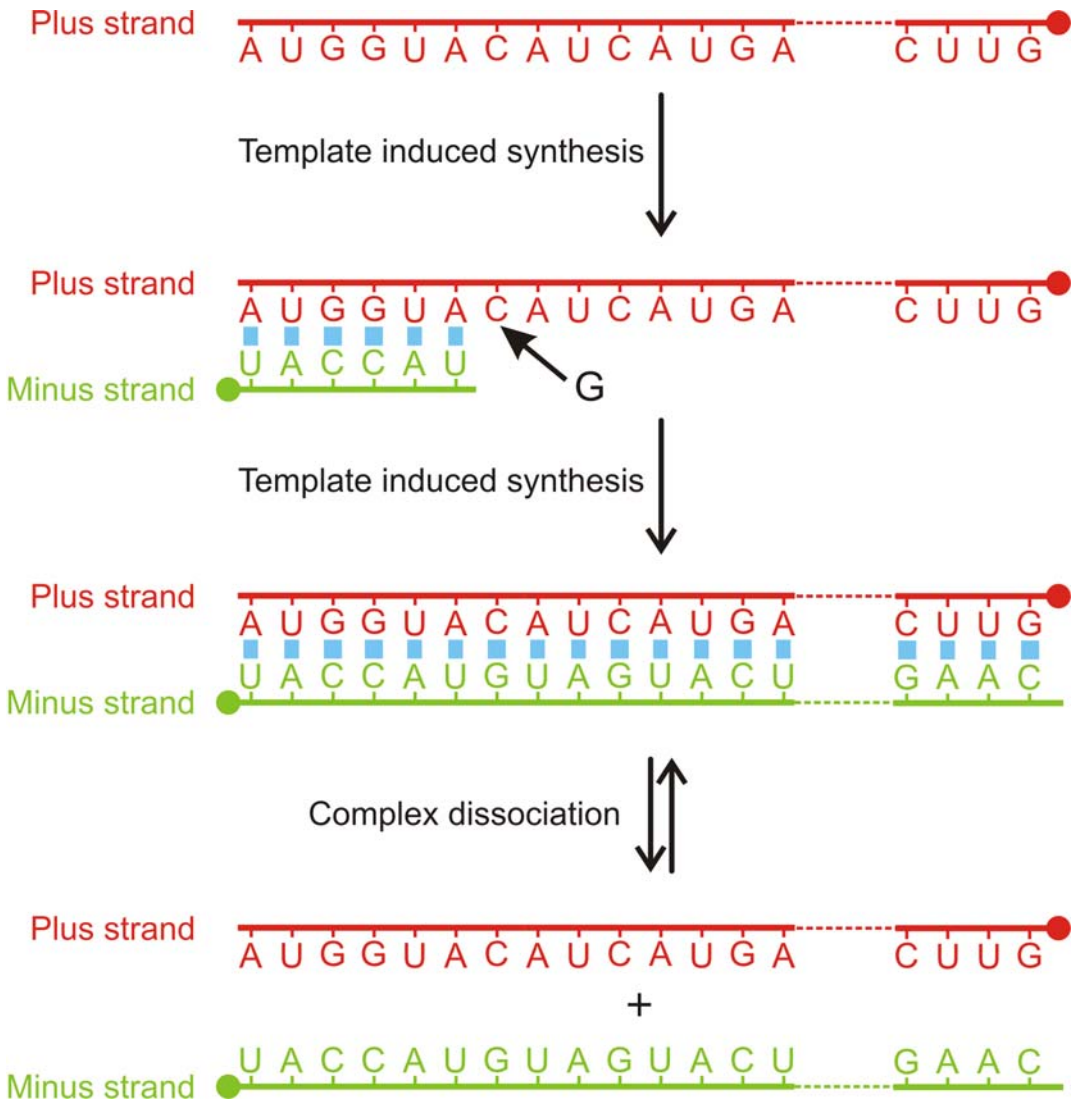
The three-dimensional structure of a short double helical stack of B-DNA



Taq = thermus aquaticus

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

The logics of DNA replication



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

G≡C and **A=U**

Evolution in the test tube:

G.F. Joyce, *Angew.Chem.Int.Ed.* **46** (2007), 6420-6436

DOI: 10.1002/anie.200701369

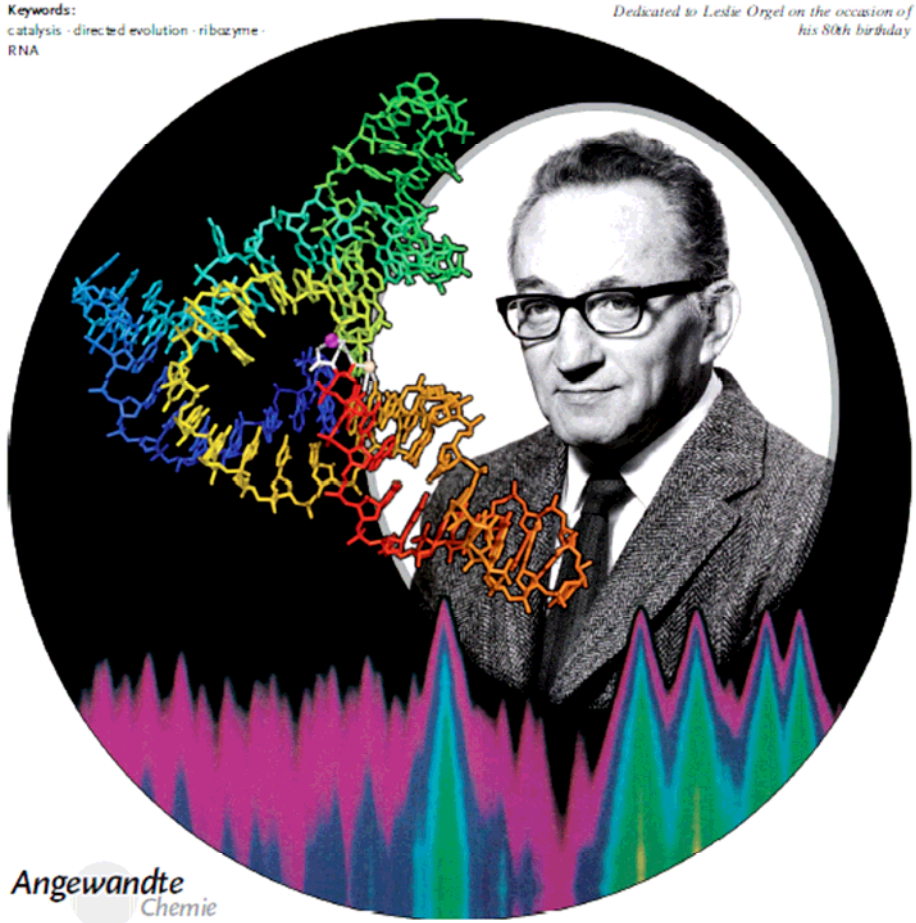
Molecular Evolution

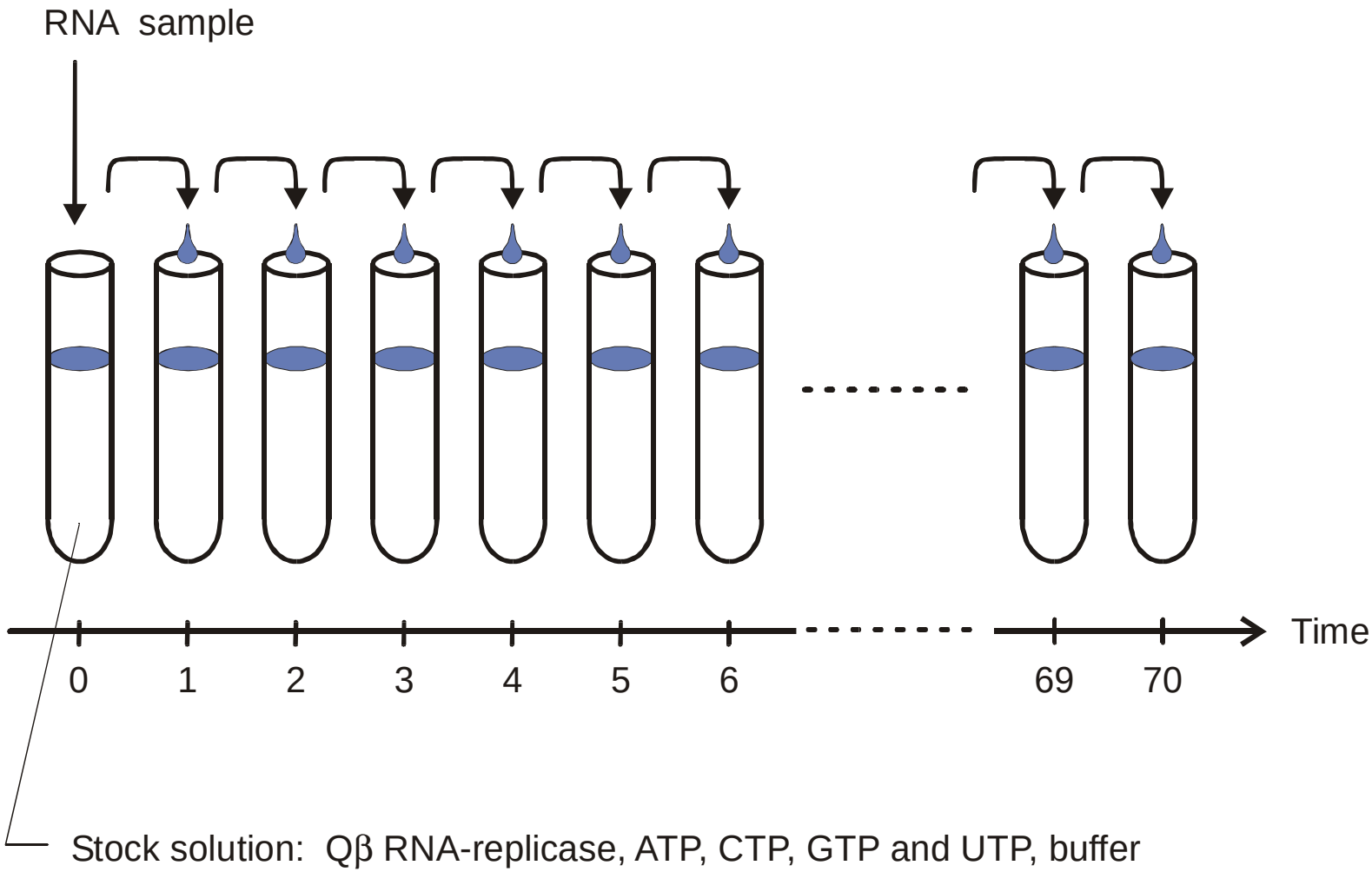
Forty Years of In Vitro Evolution**

*Gerald F. Joyce**

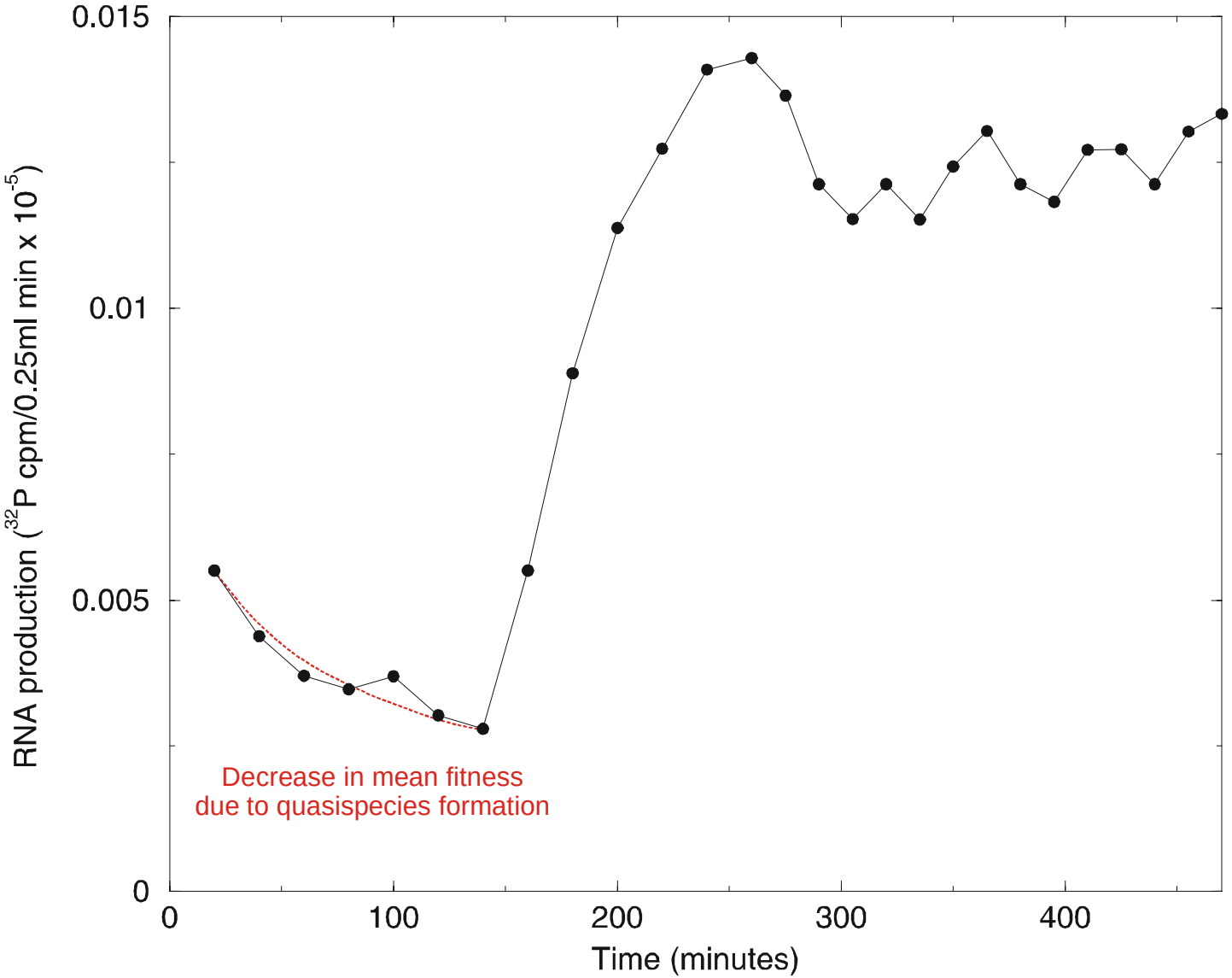
Keywords:
catalysis · directed evolution · ribozyme · RNA

Dedicated to Leslie Orgel on the occasion of his 80th birthday

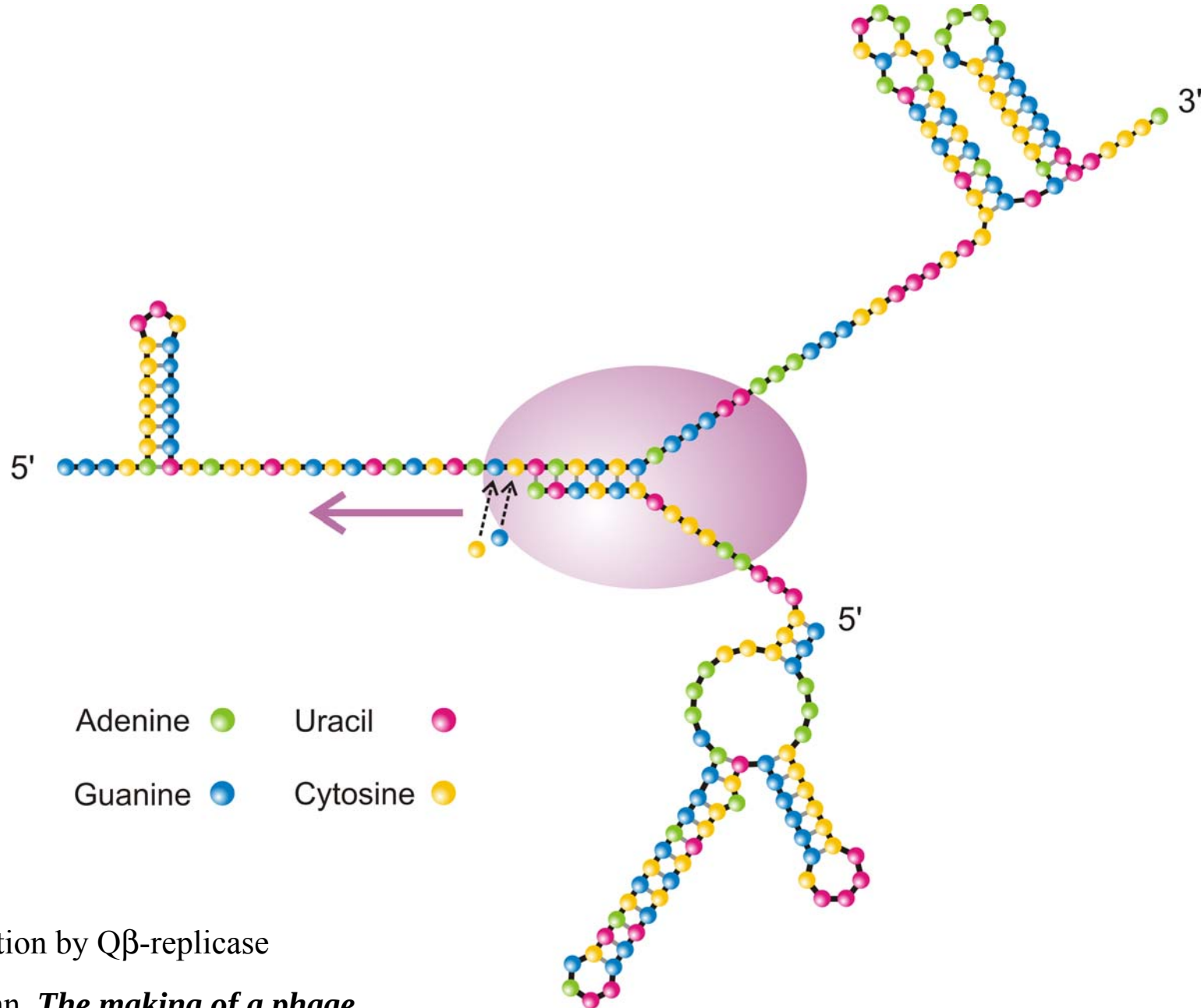




Application of serial transfer technique to evolution of RNA in the test tube



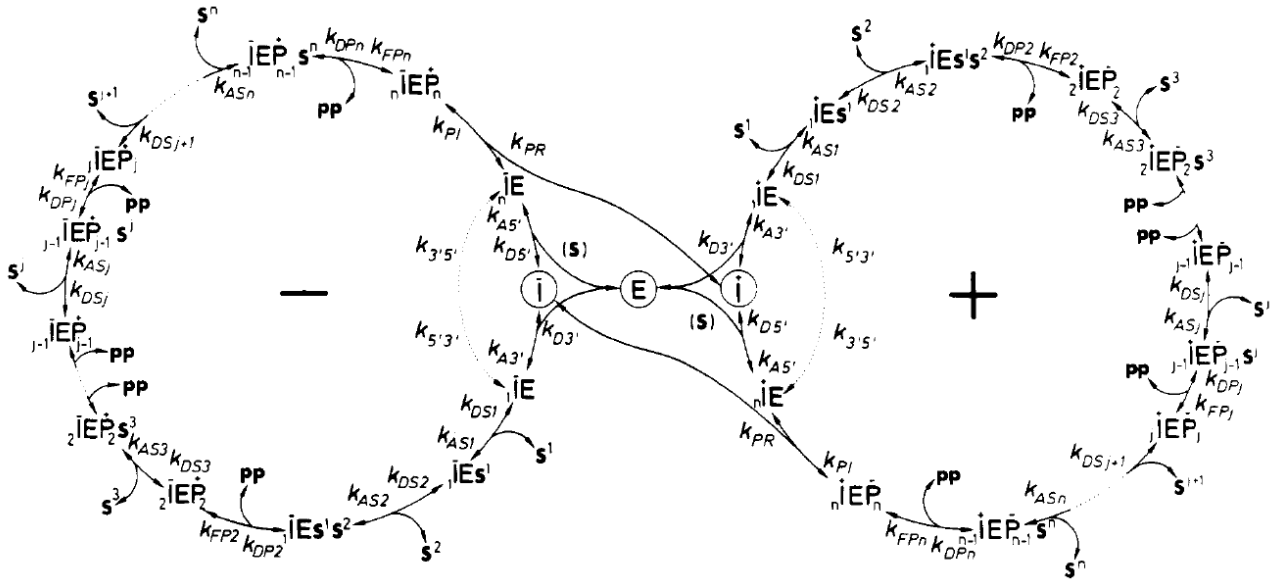
The increase in RNA production rate during a serial transfer experiment



RNA replication by Qβ-replicase

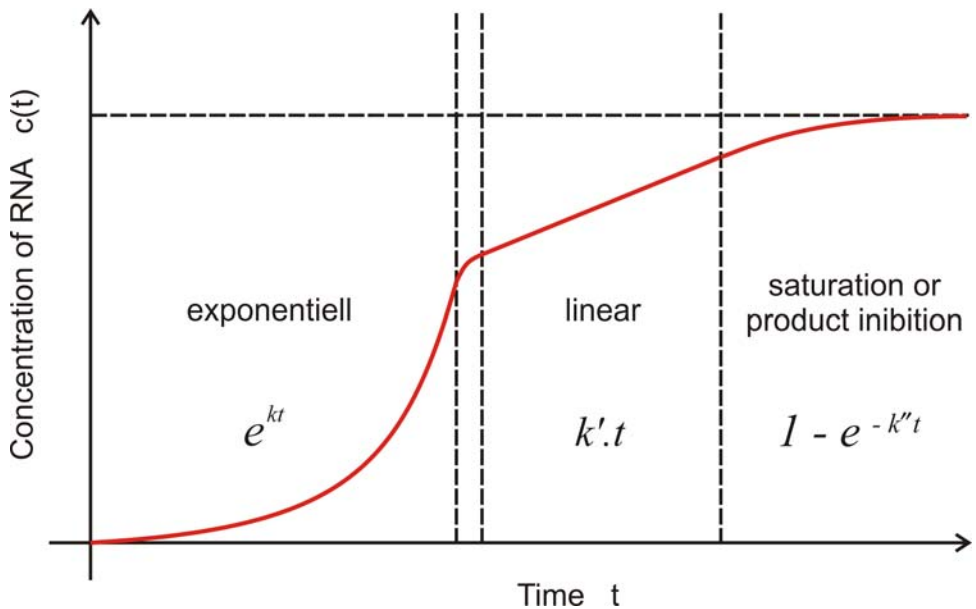
C. Weissmann, ***The making of a phage***.
FEBS Letters **40** (1974), S10-S18

Christof K. Biebricher,
1941-2009

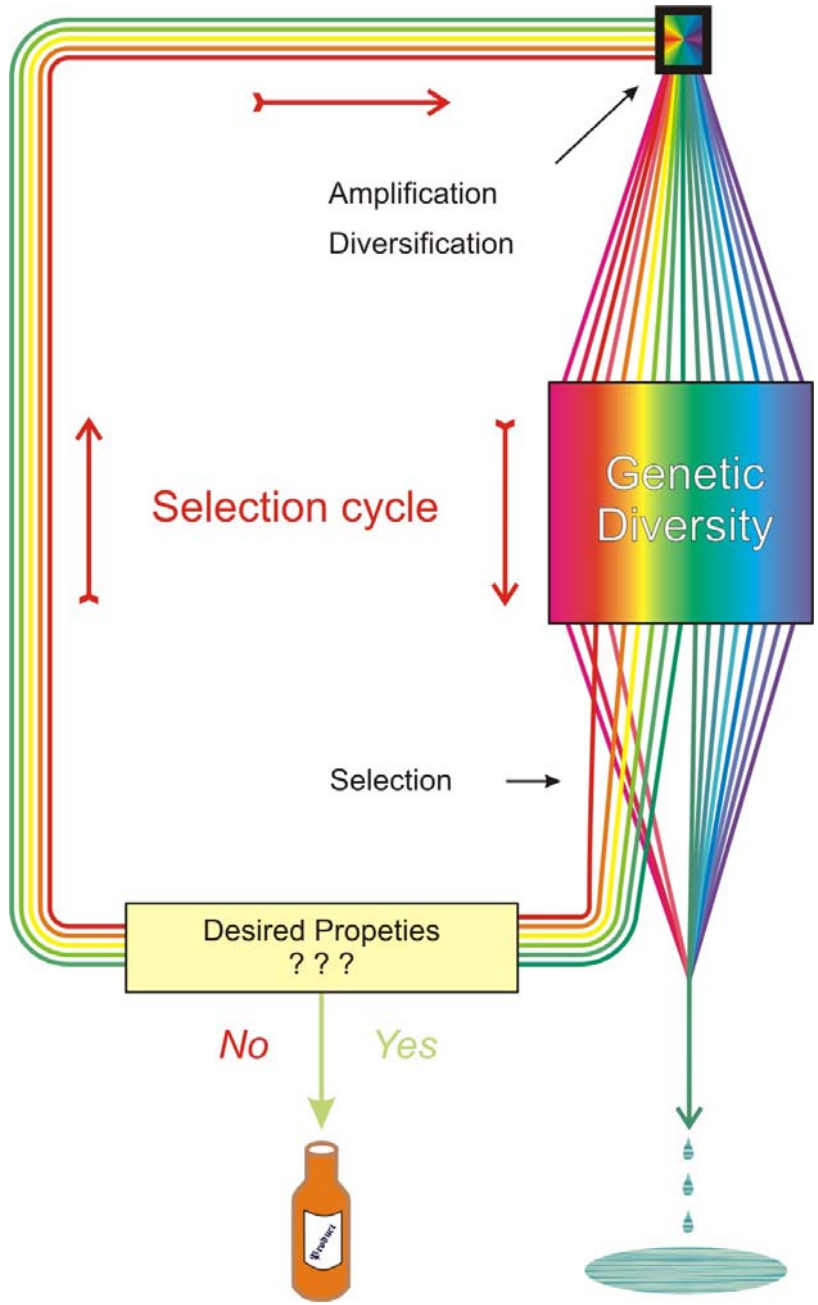


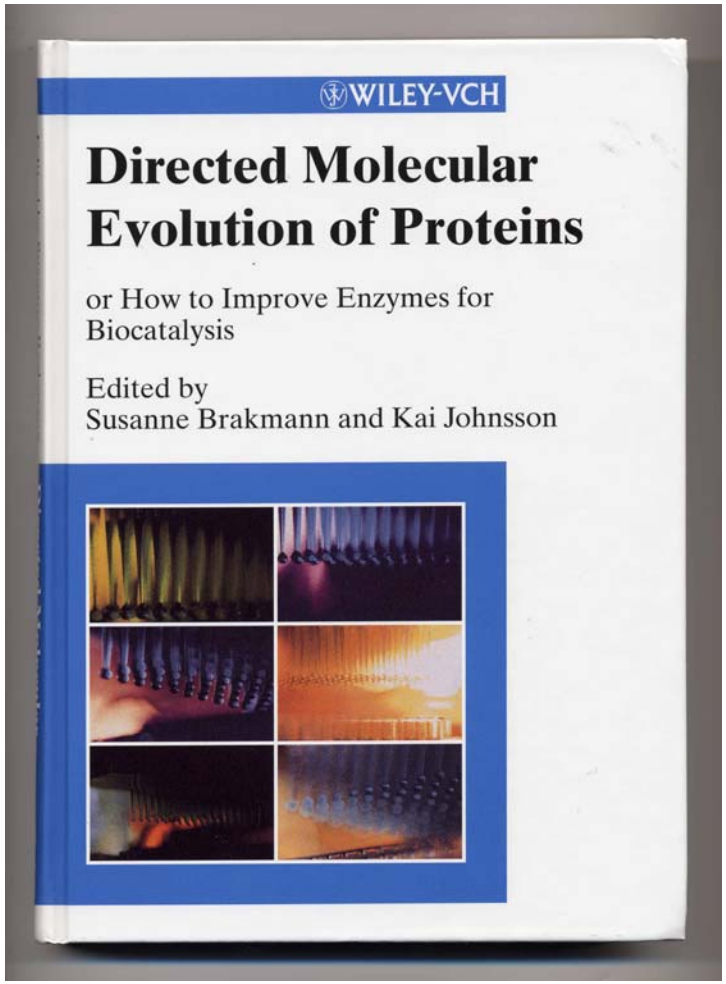
Kinetics of RNA replication

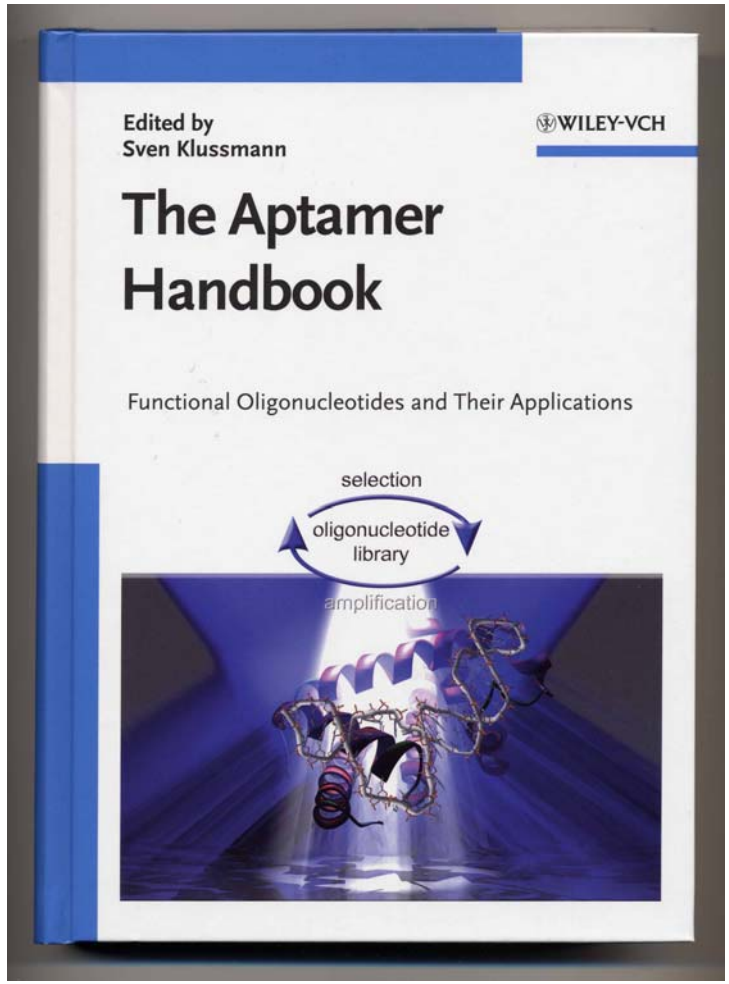
C.K. Biebricher, M. Eigen, W.C. Gardiner, Jr.
Biochemistry **22**:2544-2559, 1983



An example of ‘artificial selection’ with RNA molecules or ‘breeding’ of biomolecules







Application of molecular evolution to problems in biotechnology

1. Patterns in nature
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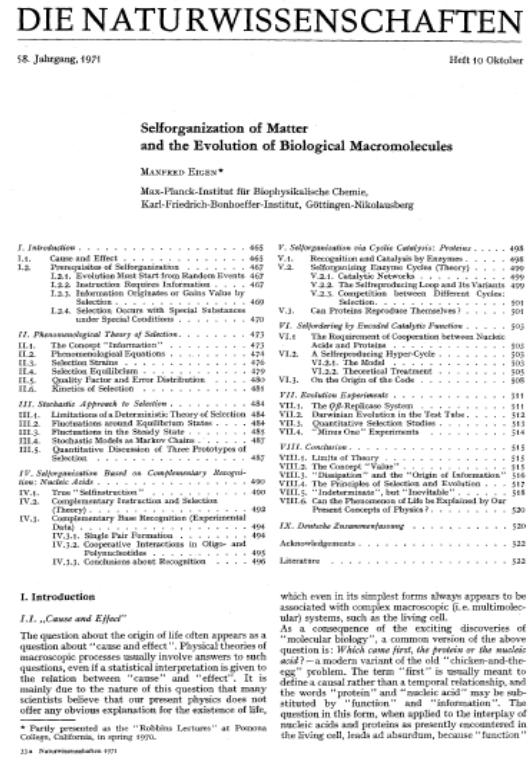
7. How complex is biology ?



DIE NATURWISSENSCHAFTEN

58. Jahrgang, 1971 — Heft 10 Oktober

Selforganization of Matter and the Evolution of Biological Macromolecules

MANFRED EIGEN*

Max-Planck-Institut für Biophysikalische Chemie, Karl-Friedrich-Bonhoeffer-Institut, Göttingen-Nikolausberg

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

I. Introduction

I.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

Manfred Eigen
Max-Planck-Institut für biophysikalische Chemie, D-3400 Göttingen

Peter Schuster
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-cyclic 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

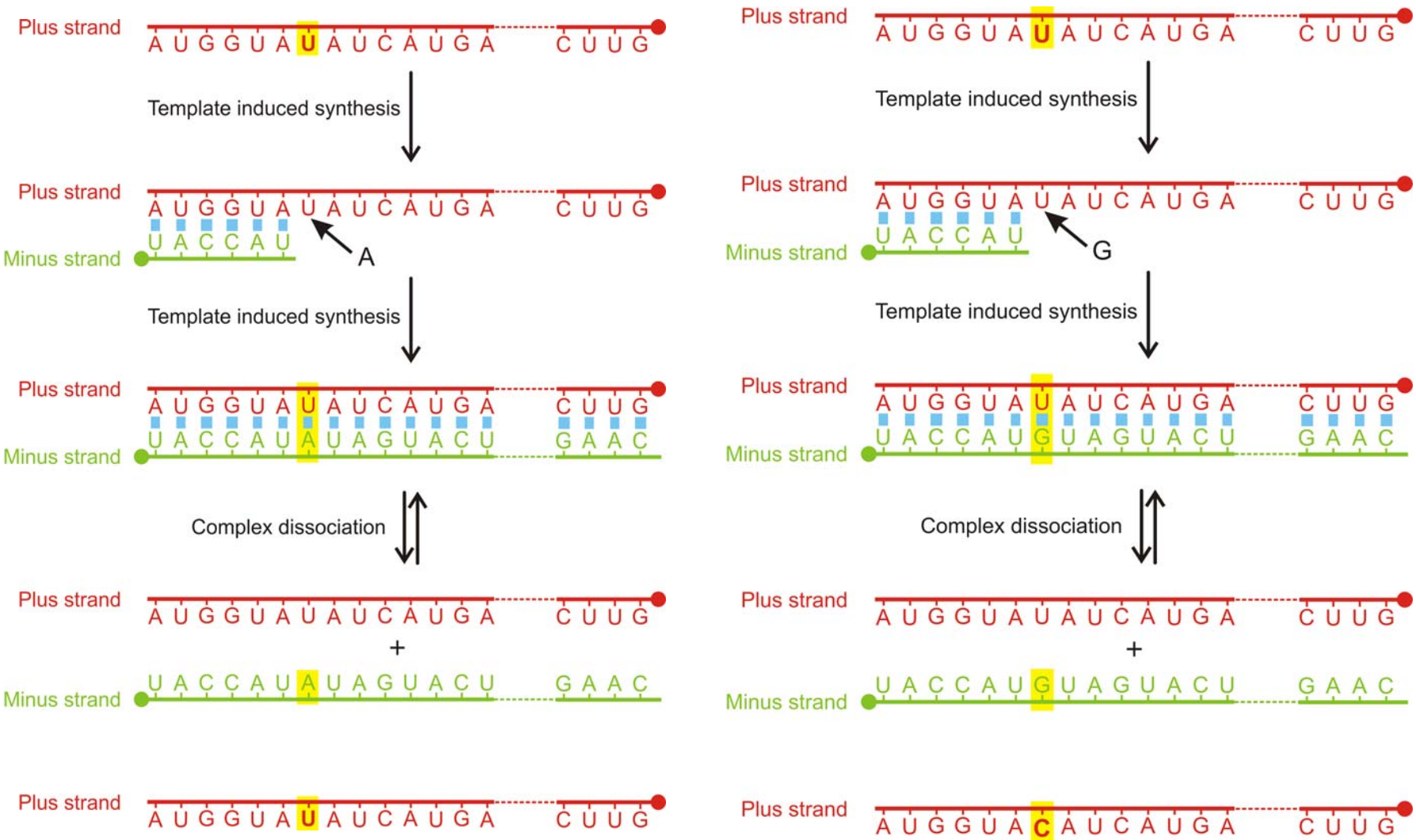
† This is an abridged account of the quasi-species theory that has been submitted in comprehensive form to *Advances in Chemical Physics*.[1]

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

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

1988

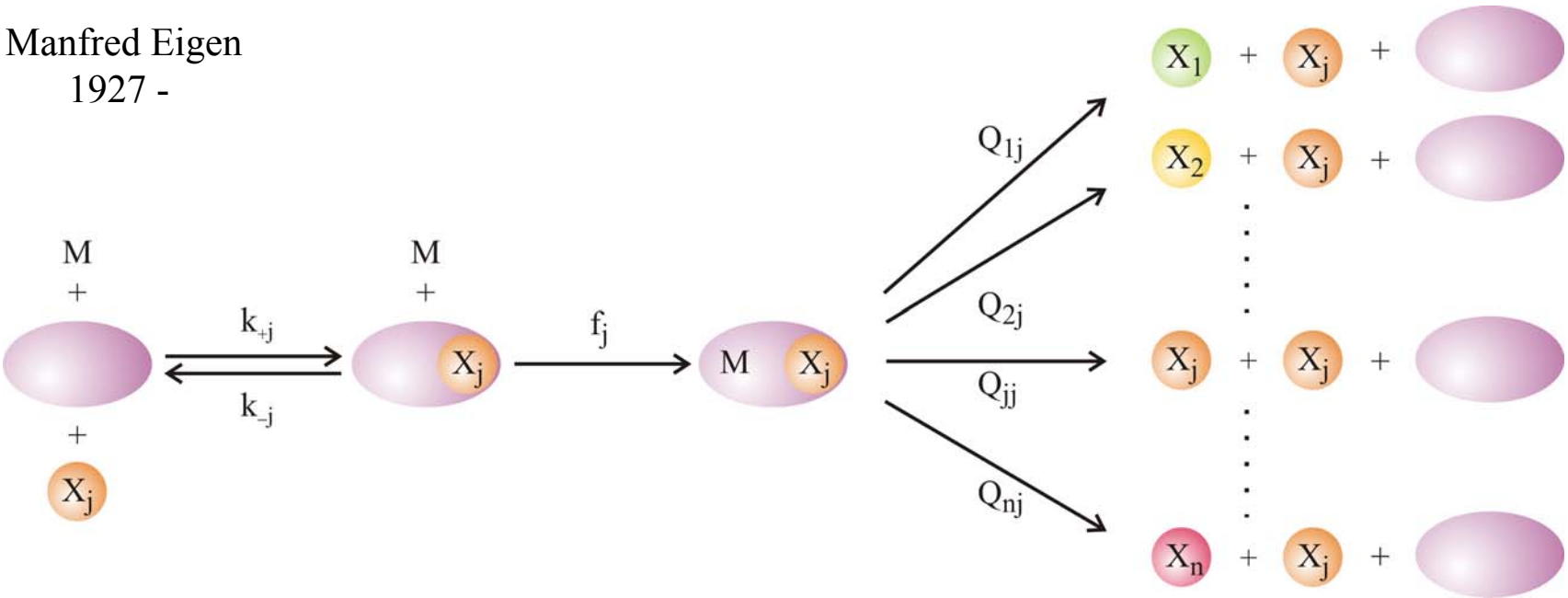
Chemical kinetics of molecular evolution



Replication and mutation are parallel chemical reactions.

Manfred Eigen
1927 -

$$\frac{dx_j}{dt} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} Q_{ji}\, f_i\, x_i - x_j \Phi\,; \quad j = 1, 2, \ldots, n$$



Mutation and (correct) replication as parallel chemical reactions

M. Eigen. 1971. *Naturwissenschaften* 58:465,
M. Eigen & P. Schuster.1977. *Naturwissenschaften* 64:541, 65:7 und 65:341

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}x_m^{(0)}}{\mathrm{dt}} = x_m^{(0)}\left(Q_{mm} f_m - \phi(t)\right) = 0 \quad \text{and} \quad \phi(t) = Q_{mm} f_m$$

The ‚no-mutational-backflow‘ or zeroth order approximation

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}x_m^{(0)}}{\mathrm{dt}} = x_m^{(0)}\left(Q_{mm} f_m - \phi(t)\right) = 0 \quad \text{and} \quad \phi(t) = Q_{mm} f_m$$

$$\bar{x}_m^{(0)} = \frac{Q_{mm} - \sigma_m^{-1}}{1 - \sigma_m^{-1}} = \frac{1}{\sigma_m - 1}\left(\sigma_m (1-p)^n - 1\right)$$

The ‚no-mutational-backflow‘ or zeroth order approximation

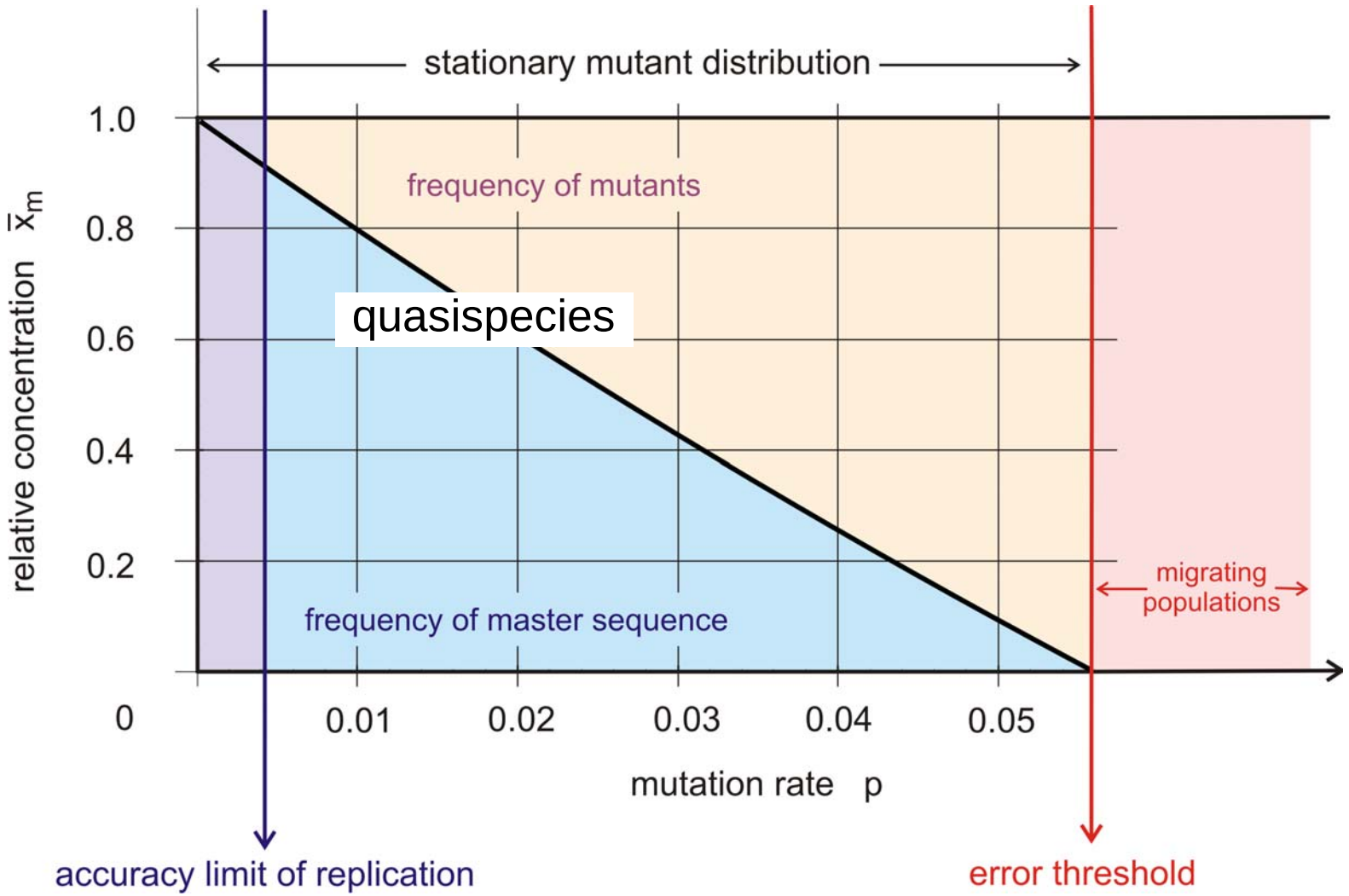
$$\frac{\mathrm{d}x_m^{(0)}}{\mathrm{dt}} = x_m^{(0)}\left(Q_{mm} f_m - \phi(t)\right) = 0 \quad \text{and} \quad \phi(t) = Q_{mm} f_m$$

$$\bar{x}_m^{(0)} = \frac{Q_{mm} - \sigma_m^{-1}}{1 - \sigma_m^{-1}} = \frac{1}{\sigma_m - 1}\left(\sigma_m (1-p)^n - 1\right)$$

$$\bar{x}_m^{(0)} = 0 \quad \Rightarrow \quad (1-p)^n = \sigma_m^{-1} \quad \text{and} \quad p_{\mathrm{cr}} \approx 1 - (\sigma_m)^{-1/n}$$

$$\sigma_m = \frac{f_m}{\bar{f}_{-m}} \quad \text{and} \quad \bar{f}_{-m} = \frac{1}{(1-x_m)} \sum_{i=1, i\neq m}^{N} x_i f_i$$

The ‚no-mutational-backflow‘ or zeroth order approximation



The error threshold in replication and mutation

Chain length and error threshold

$$Q \cdot \sigma \;=\; (1-p)^n \cdot \sigma \;\geq\; 1 \quad\Rightarrow\quad n \cdot \ln(1-p) \geq -\ln\sigma$$

p … constant : $n_{\max} \approx \dfrac{\ln\sigma}{p}$

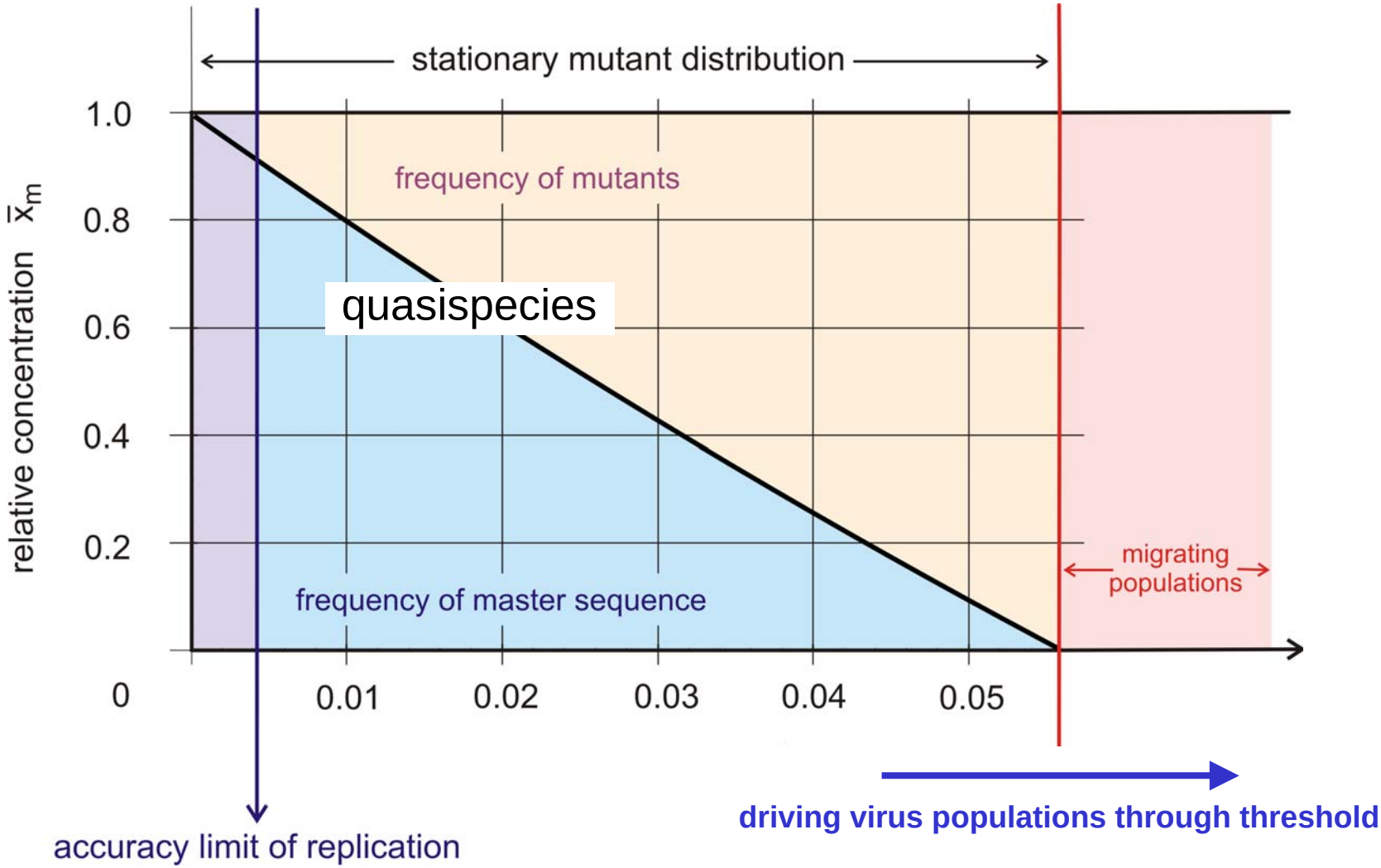
n … constant : $p_{\max} \approx \dfrac{\ln\sigma}{n}$

$Q = (1-p)^n$ … replication accuracy

p … error rate

n … chain length

$\sigma = \dfrac{f_m}{\sum_{j \neq m} f_j}$ … superiority of master sequence



The error threshold in replication and mutation

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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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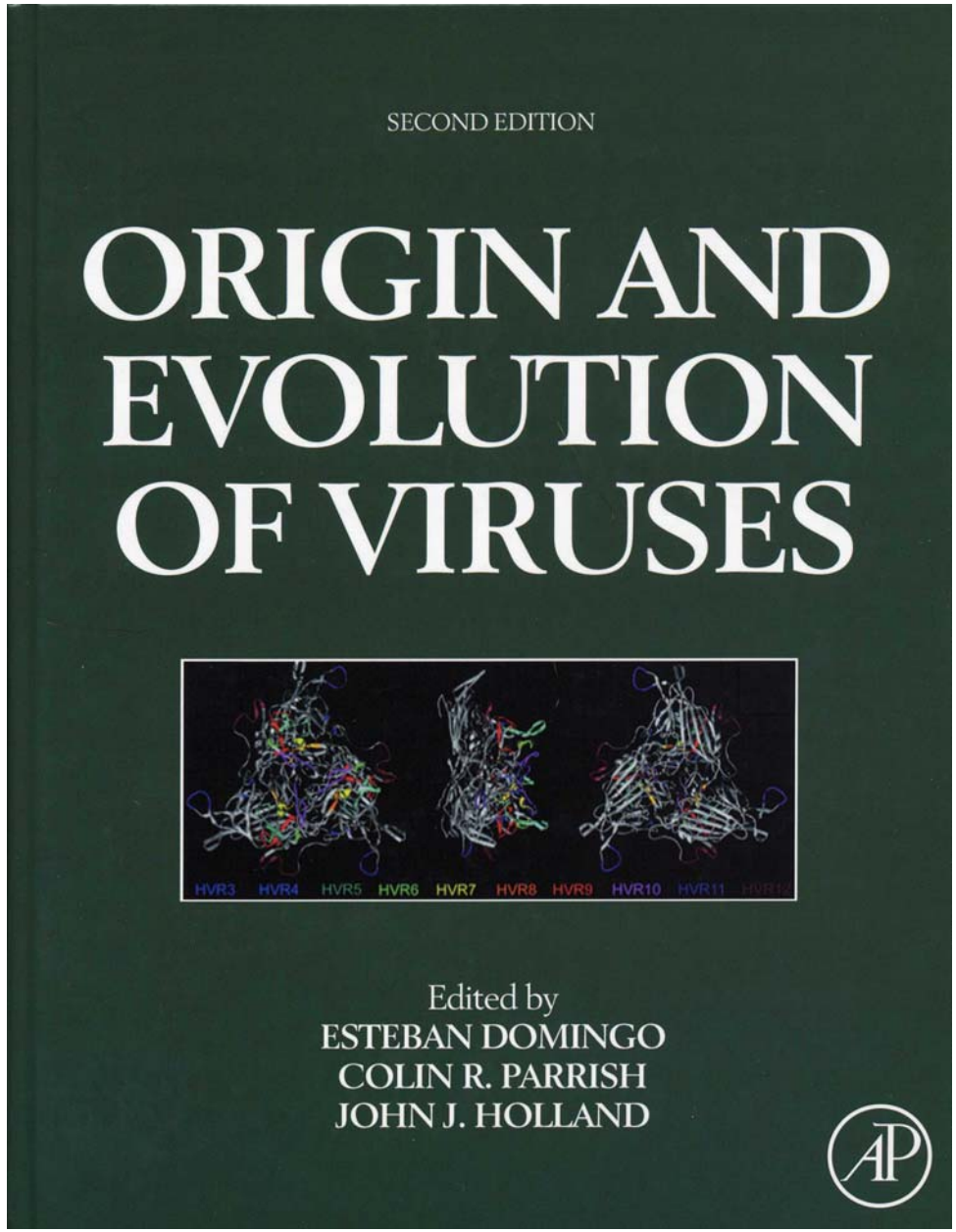
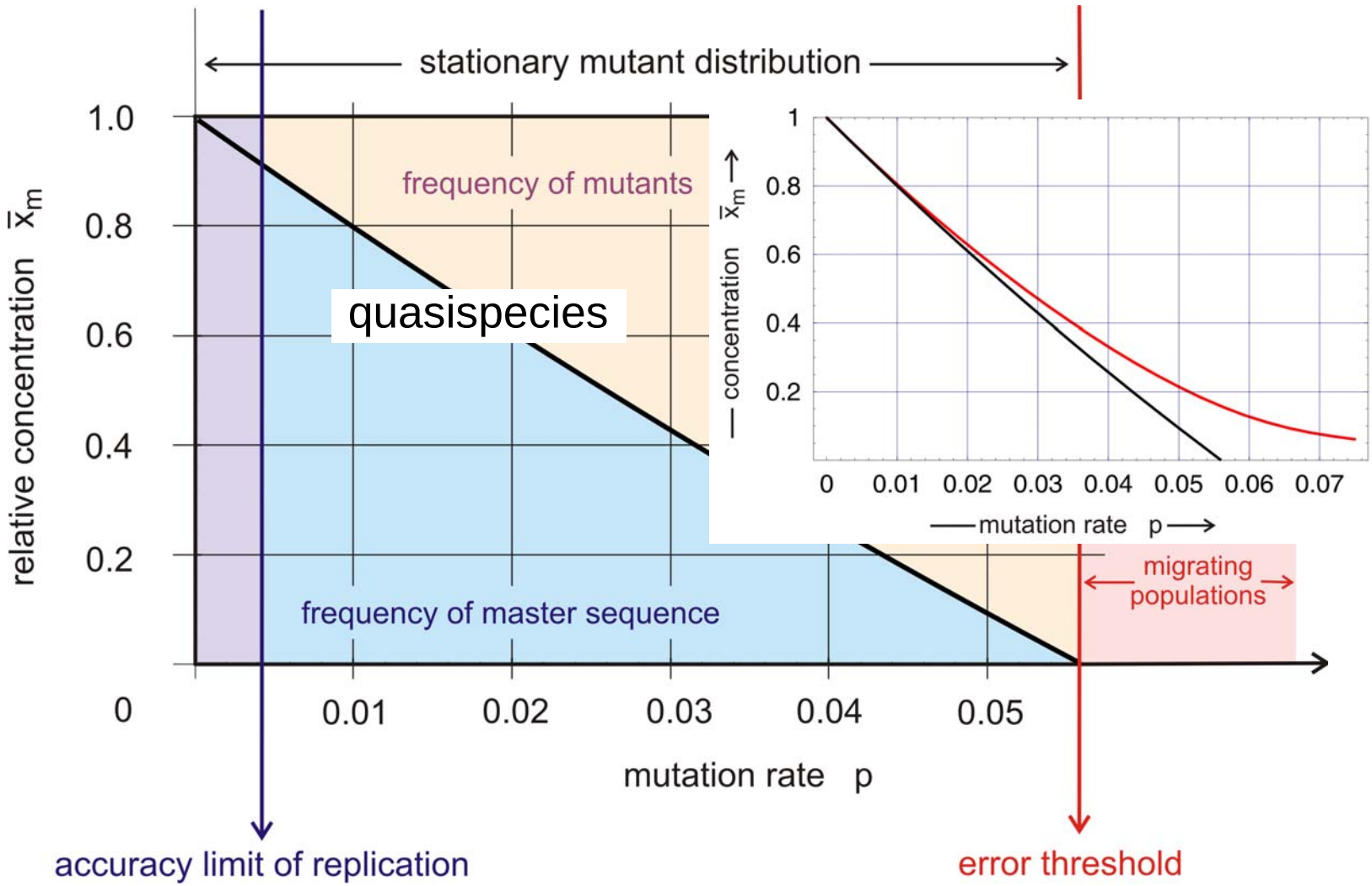
Available online 8 December 2004

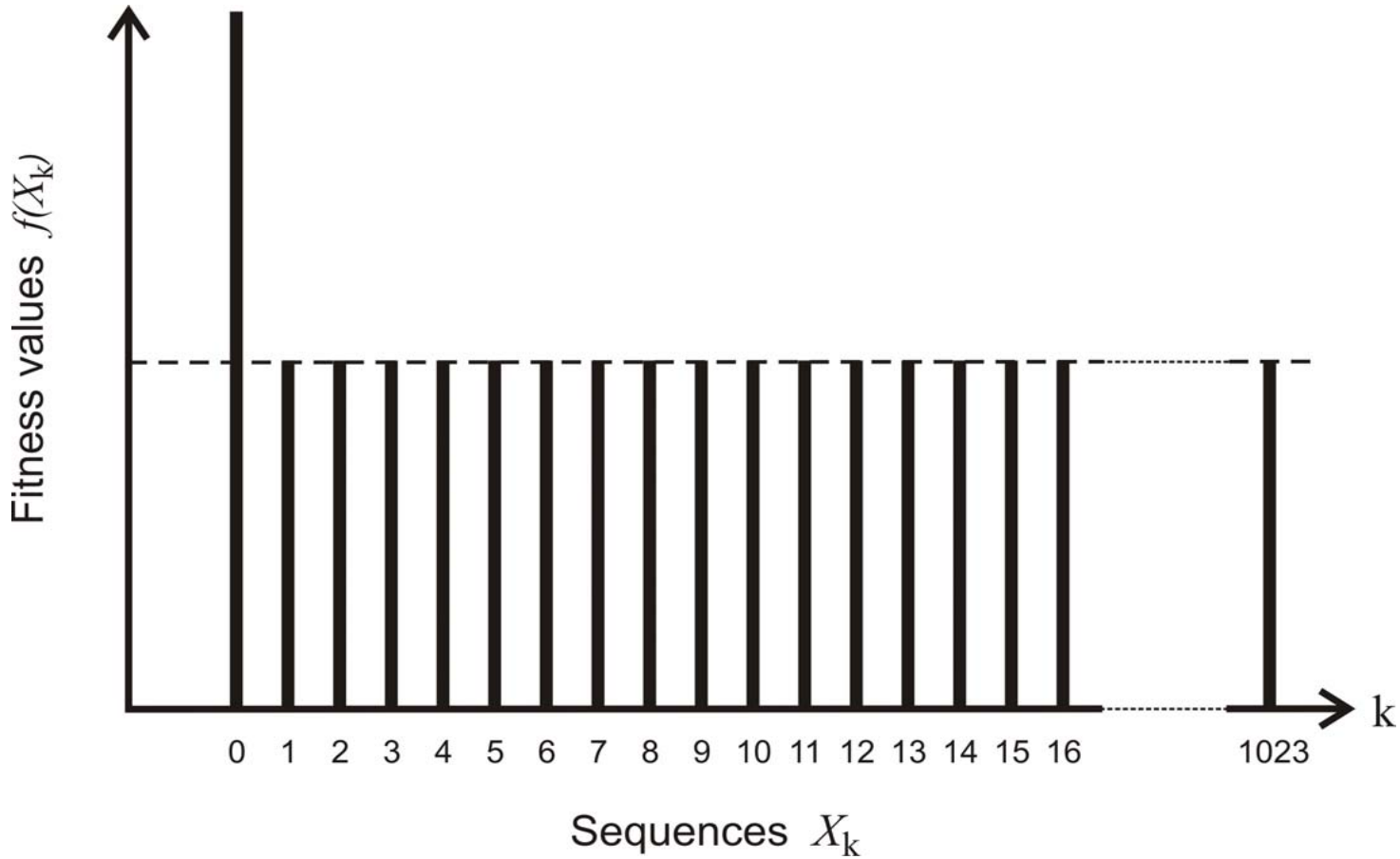
doi:10.1016/j.virusres.2004.11.001

Molecular evolution of viruses





The error threshold in replication and mutation



The single peak fitness landscape as a convenient simple model

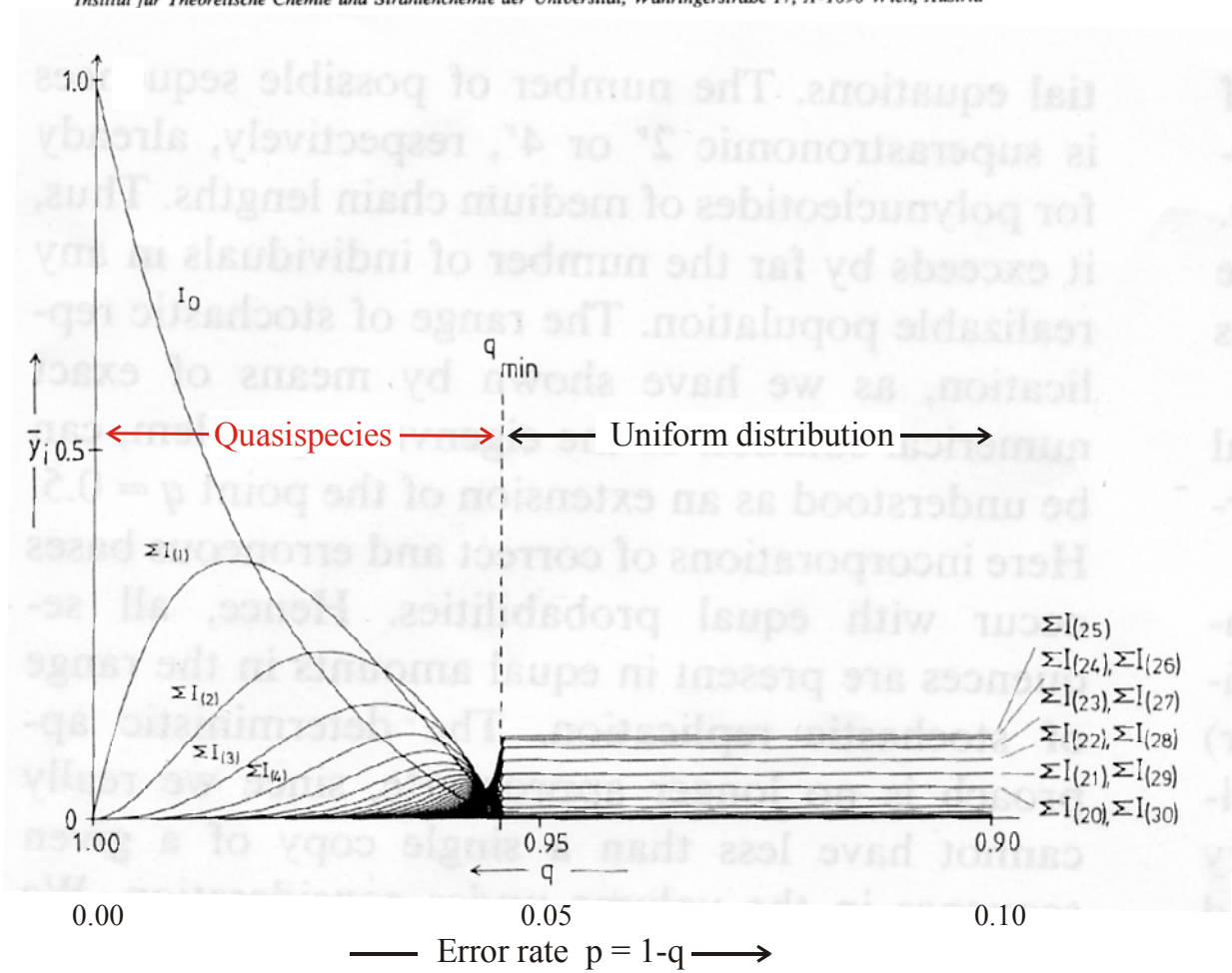
Biophysical Chemistry 16 (1982) 329–345
Elsevier Biomedical Press

SELF-REPLICATION WITH ERRORS

A MODEL FOR POLYNUCLEOTIDE REPLICATION **

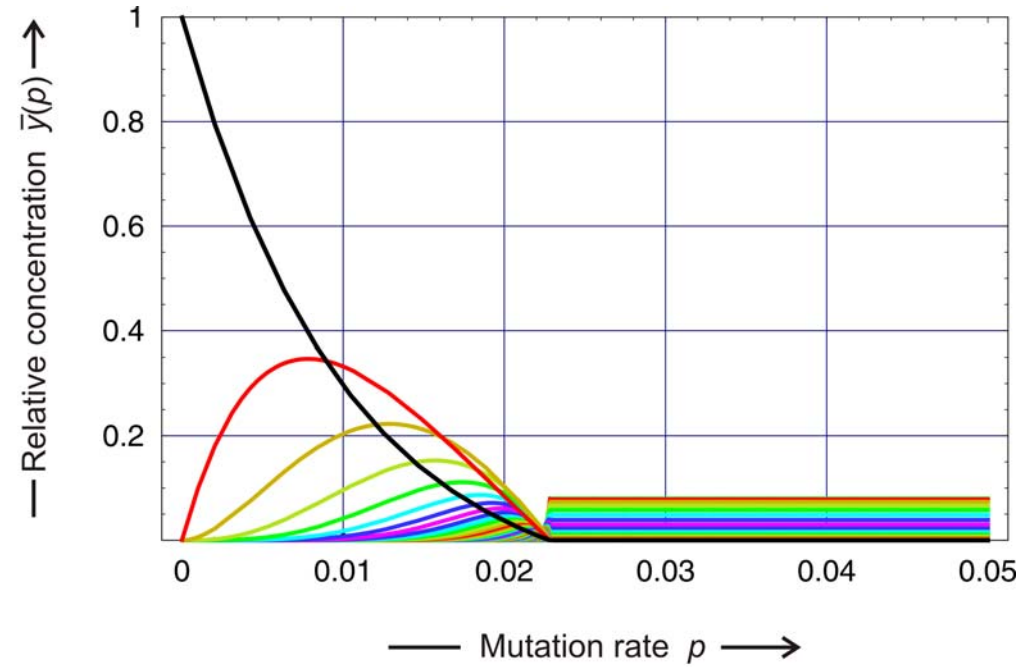
Jörg SWETINA and Peter SCHUSTER *

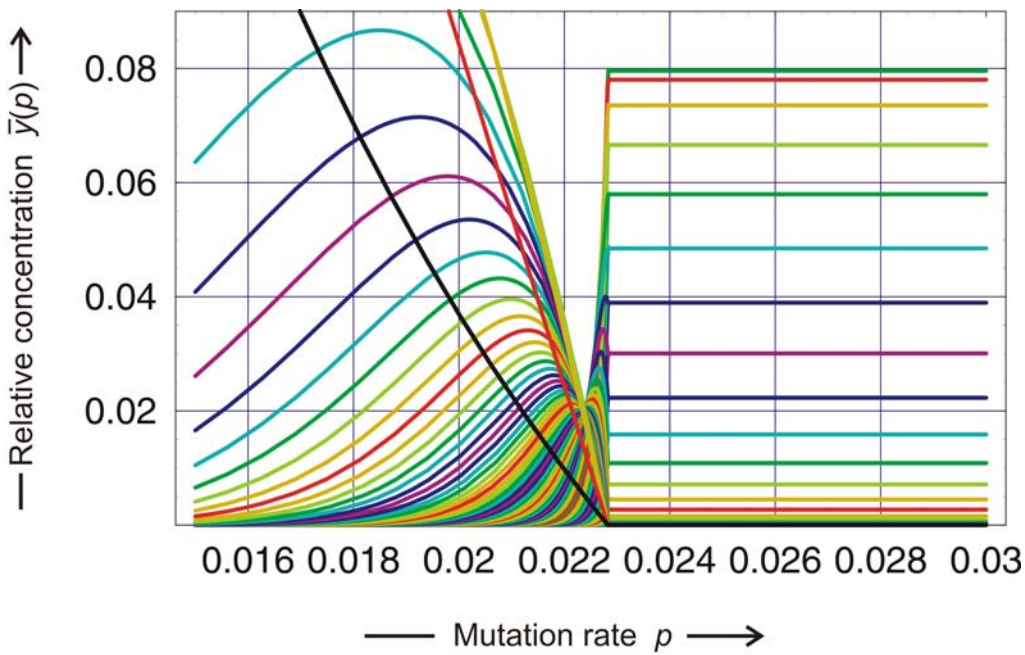
Institut für Theoretische Chemie und Strahlenchemie der Universität, Währingerstraße 17, A-1090 Wien, Austria



Stationary population or quasispecies as a function of the mutation or error rate *p*

Error threshold on the single peak landscape



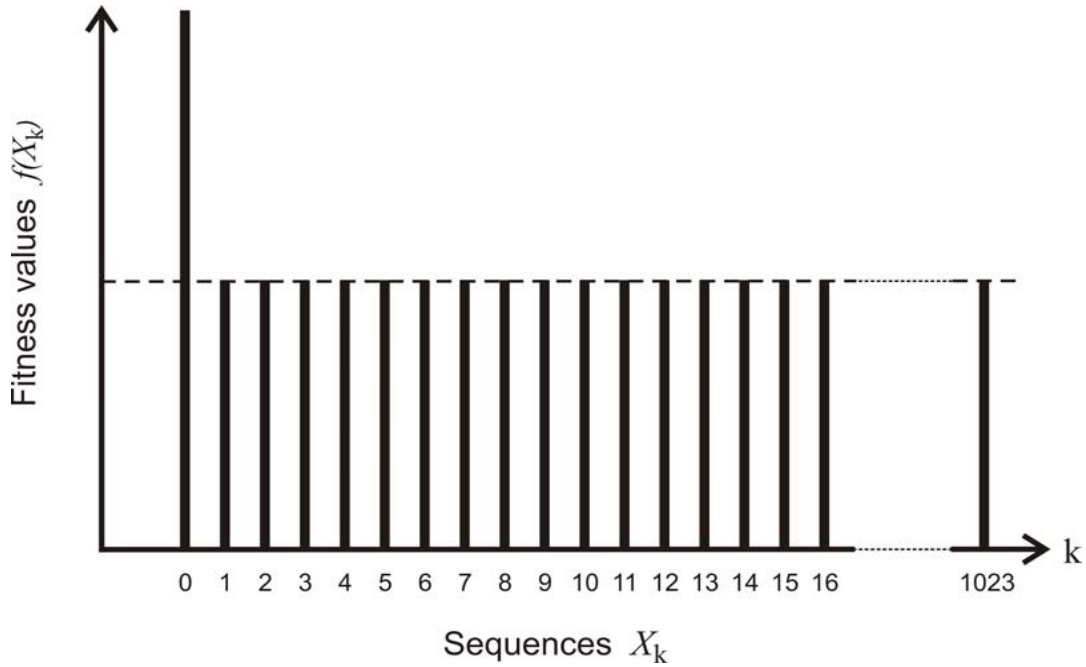


Make things as simple as possible,
but not simpler !

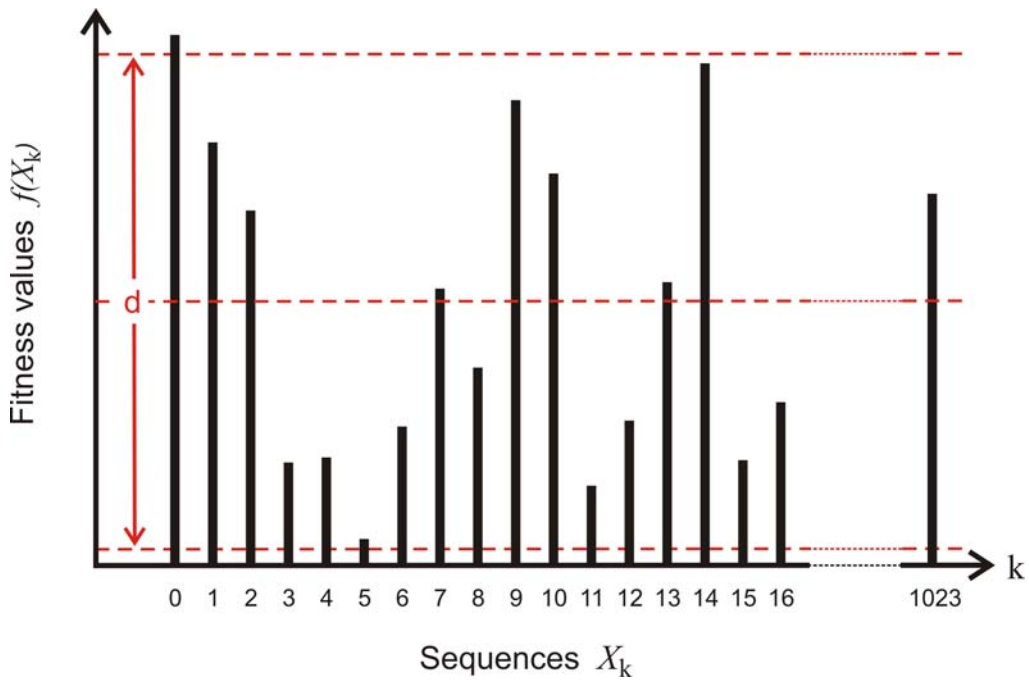
Albert Einstein

Albert Einstein‘s razor, precise refence is unknown.

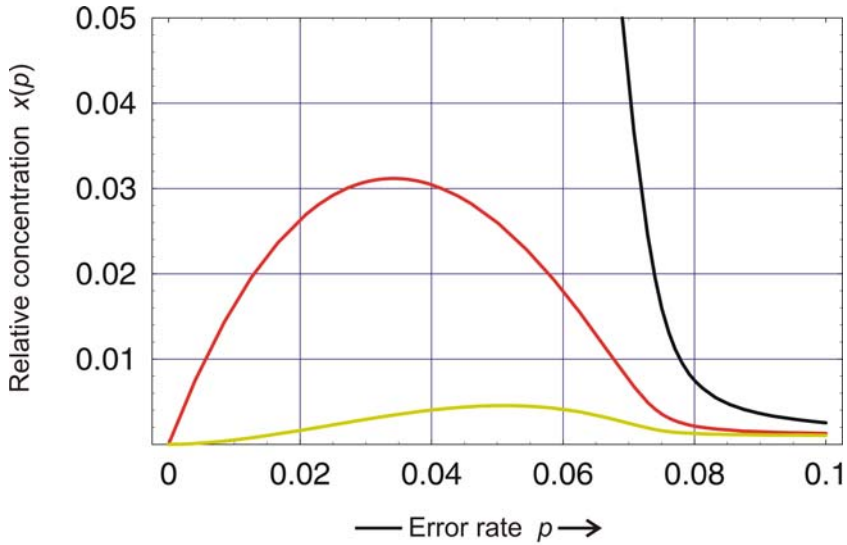
single peak landscape

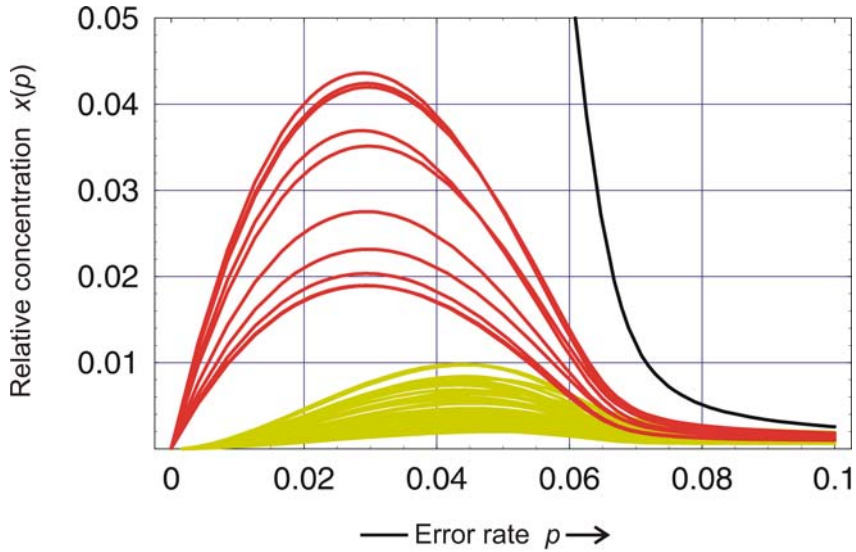


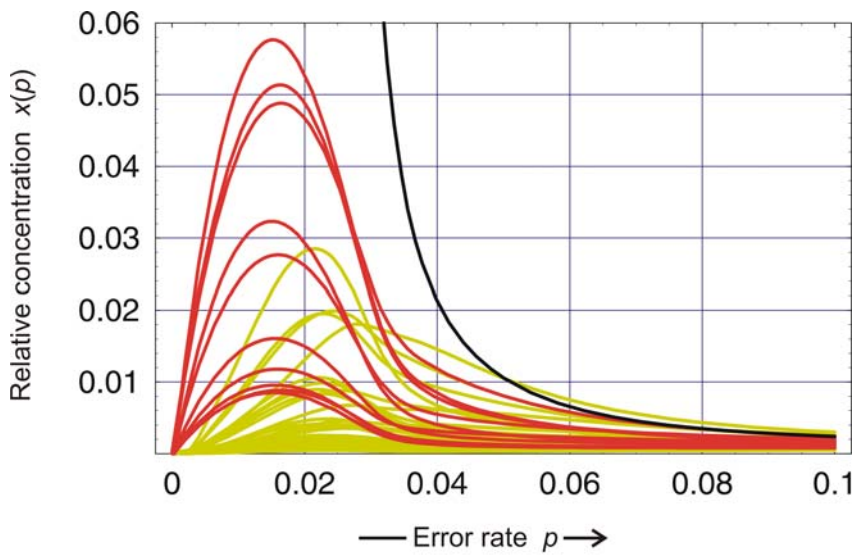
„realistic“ landscape



Rugged fitness landscapes
over individual binary sequences
with n = 10

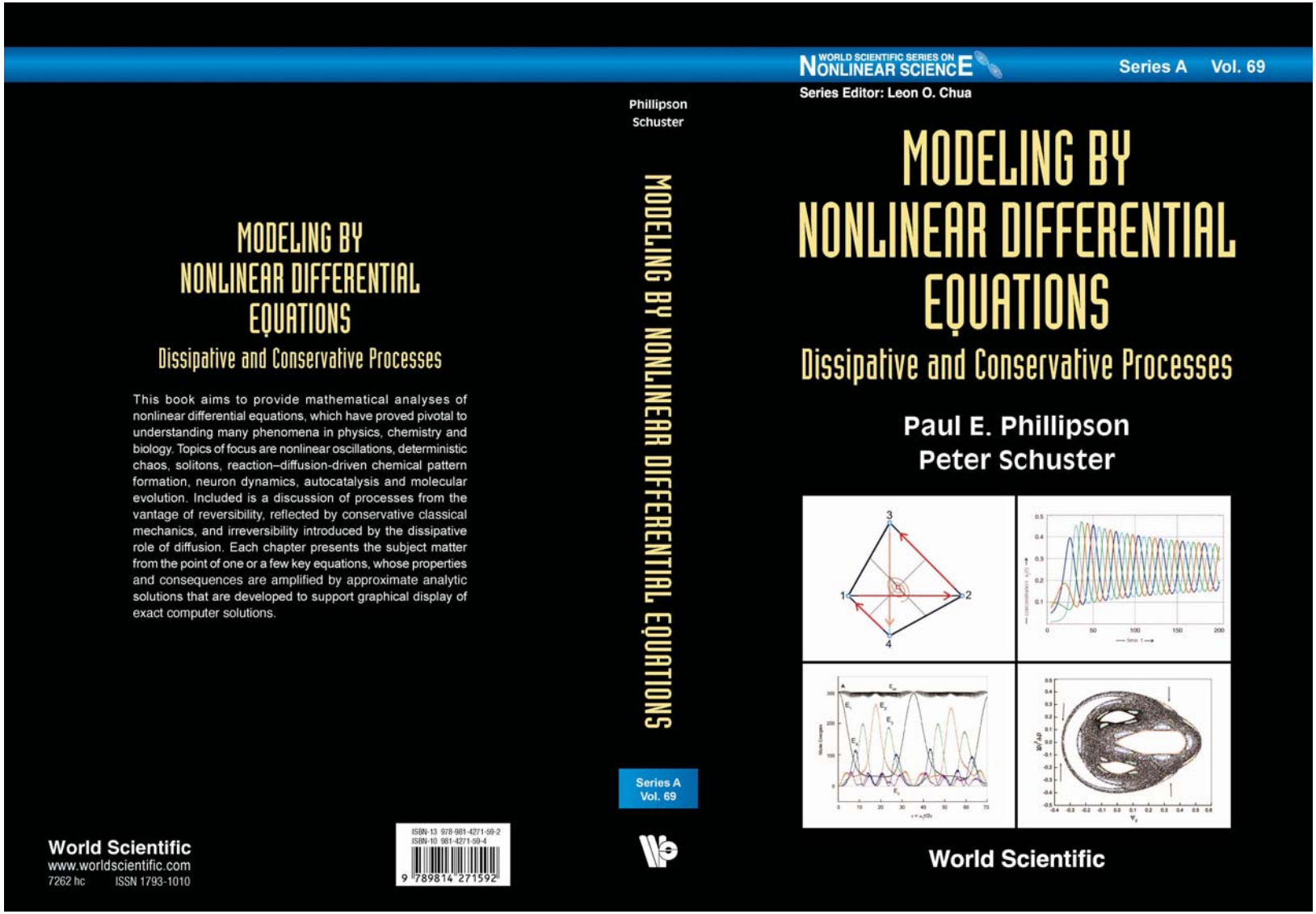






Error threshold: Individual sequences

n = 10, σ = 2, s = 491 and d = 0, 1.0, 1.875



Paul E. Phillipson, Peter Schuster. (2009) Modeling by nonlinear differential equations. Dissipative and conservative processes. World Scientific, Singapore, pp.9-60.

The error threshold can be separated into three phenomena:

1. Decrease in the concentration of the master sequence to very small values.

2. Sharp change in the stationary concentration of the quasispecies distribuiton.

3. Transition to the uniform distribution at small mutation rates.

The error threshold can be separated into three phenomena:

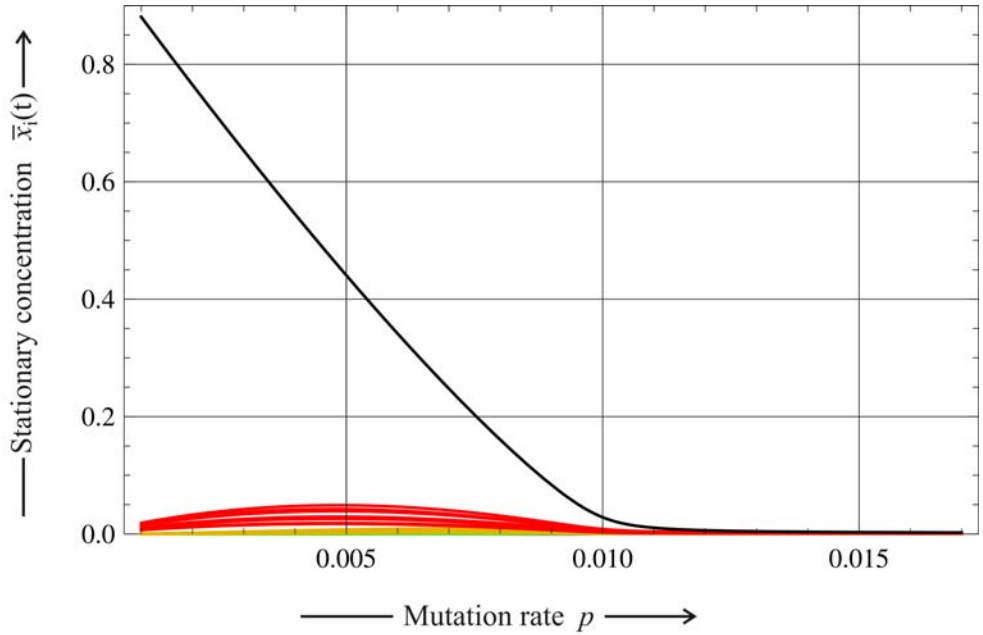
1. Decrease in the concentration of the master sequence to very small values.

2. Sharp change in the stationary concentration of the quasispecies distribuiton.

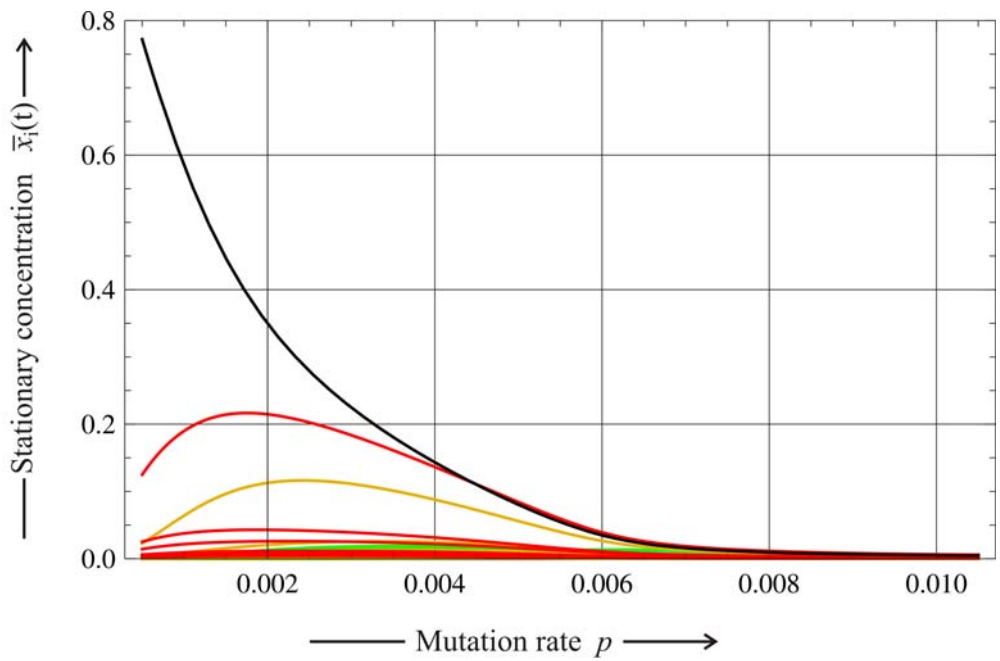
3. Transition to the uniform distribution at small mutation rates.

All three phenomena coincide for the quasispecies on the single peak fitness lanscape.

d = 0.100



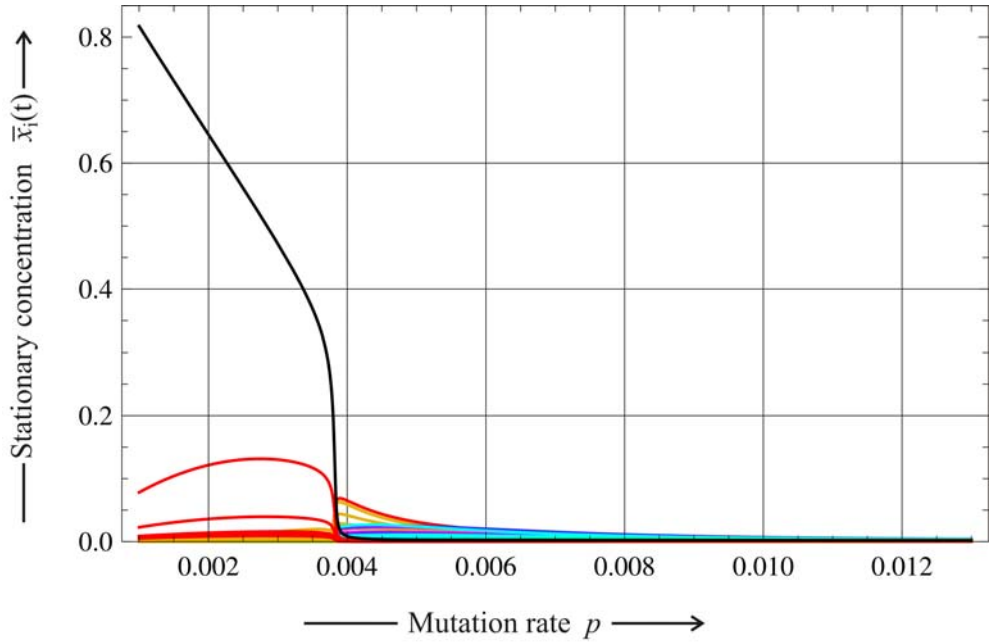
d = 0.200



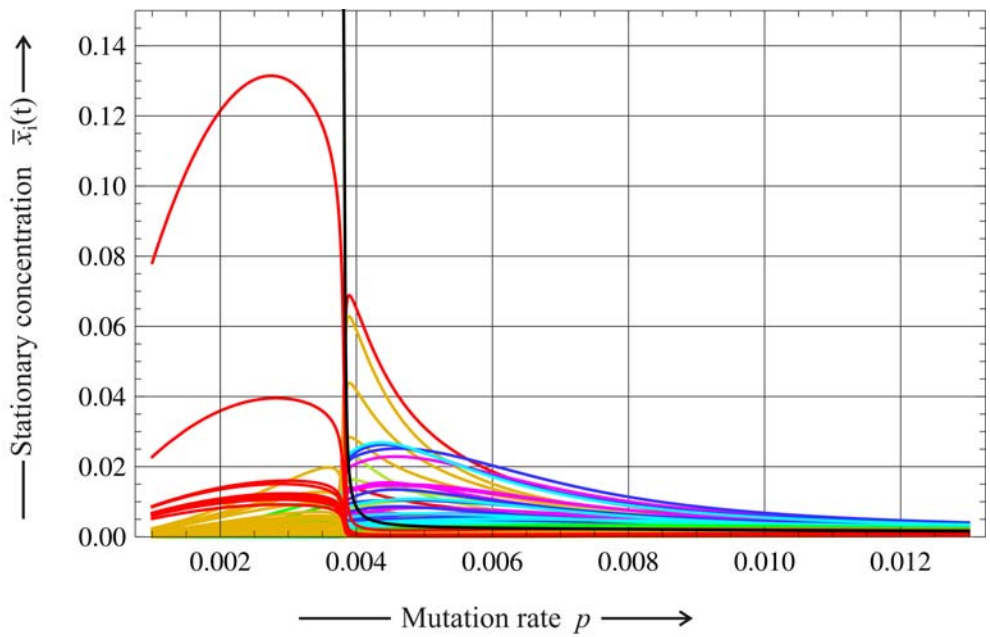
Case I: Strong quasispecies

n = 10, $f_0 = 1.1, f_n = 1.0$, s = 919

d = 0.190



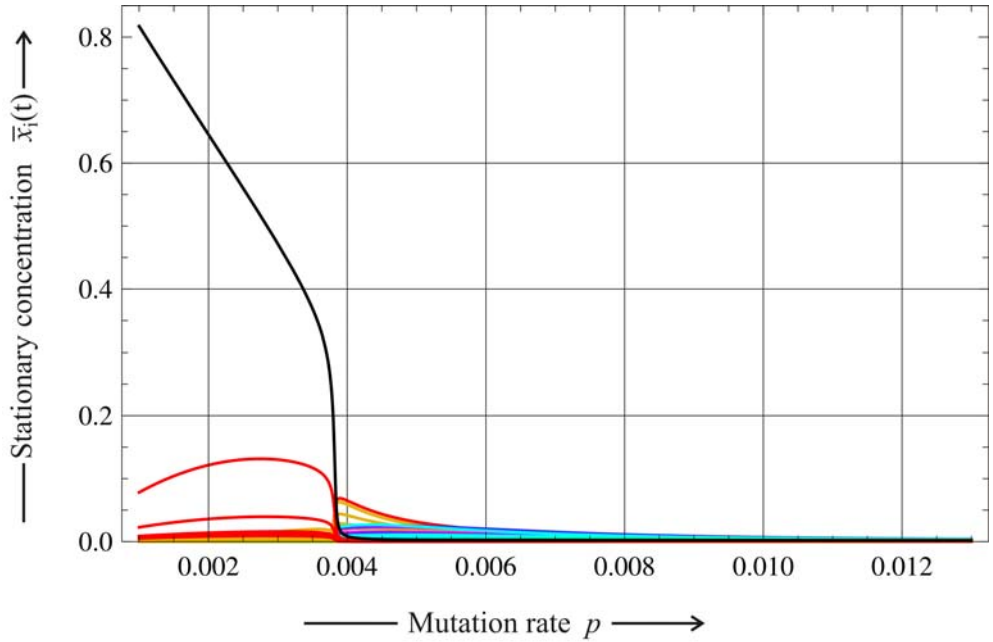
d = 0.190



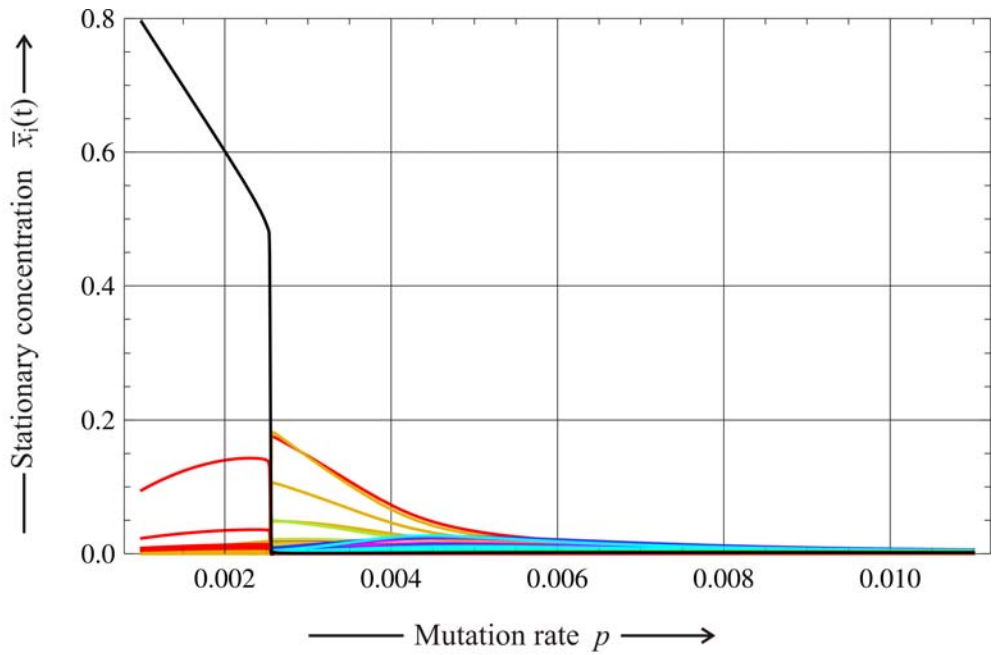
Case II: Dominant single transition

n = 10, $f_0 = 1.1, f_n = 1.0$, s = 541

d = 0.190



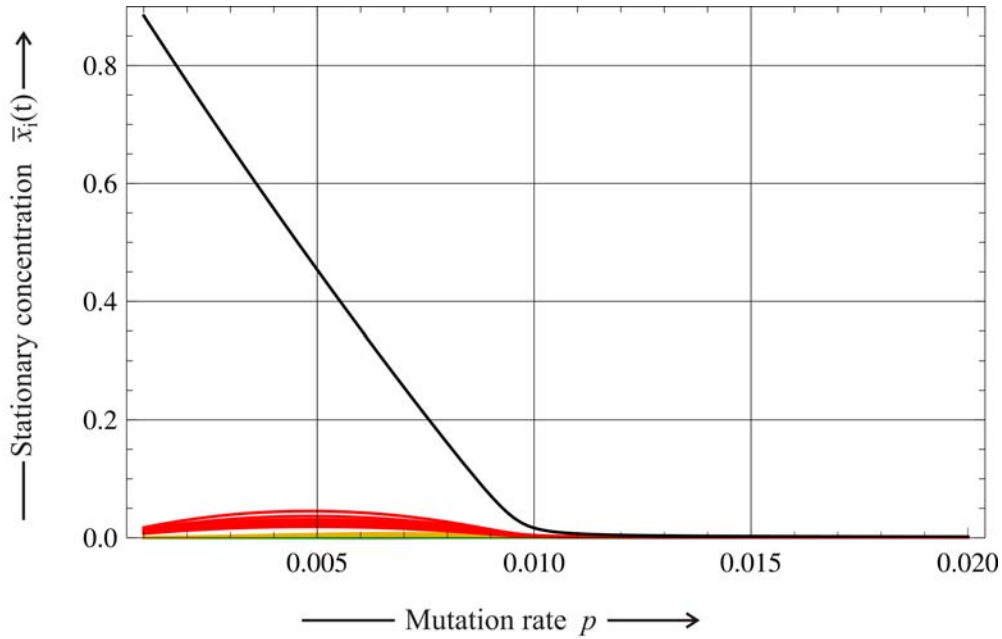
d = 0.195



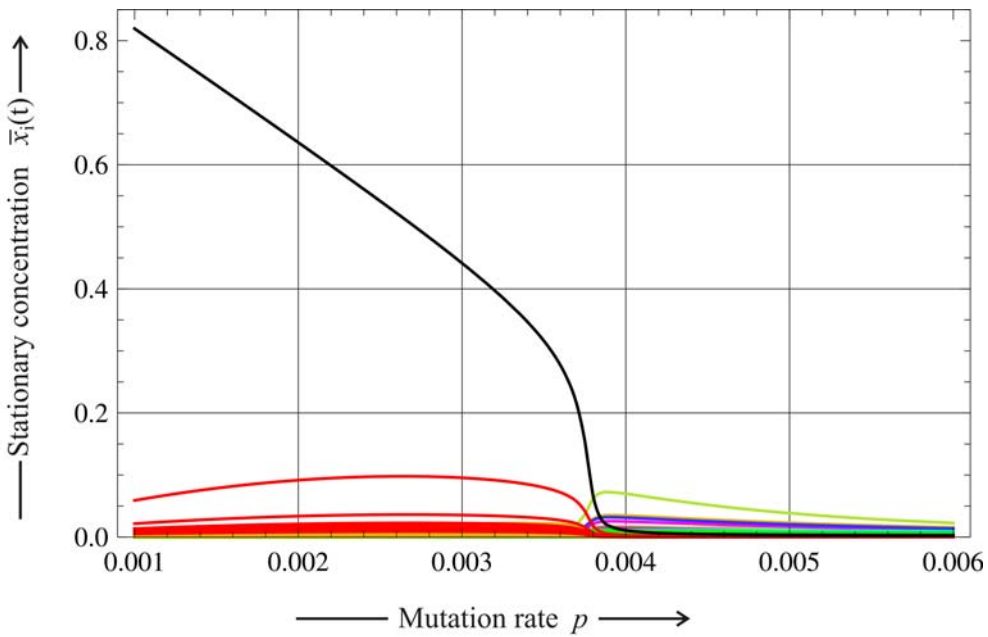
Case II: Dominant single transition

n = 10, $f_0 = 1.1, f_n = 1.0$, s = 541

d = 0.100



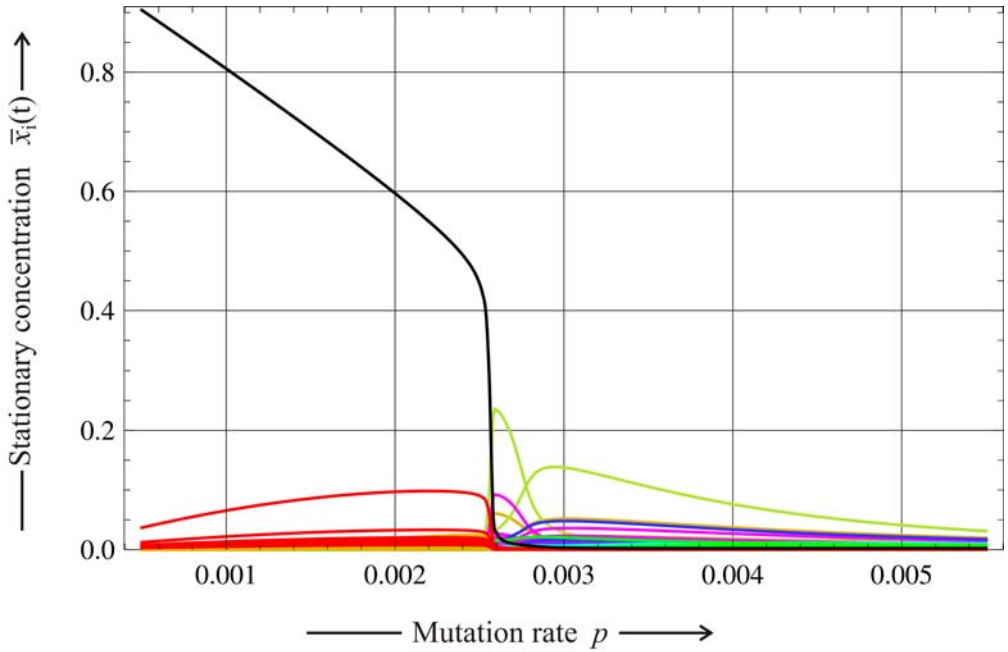
d = 0.195



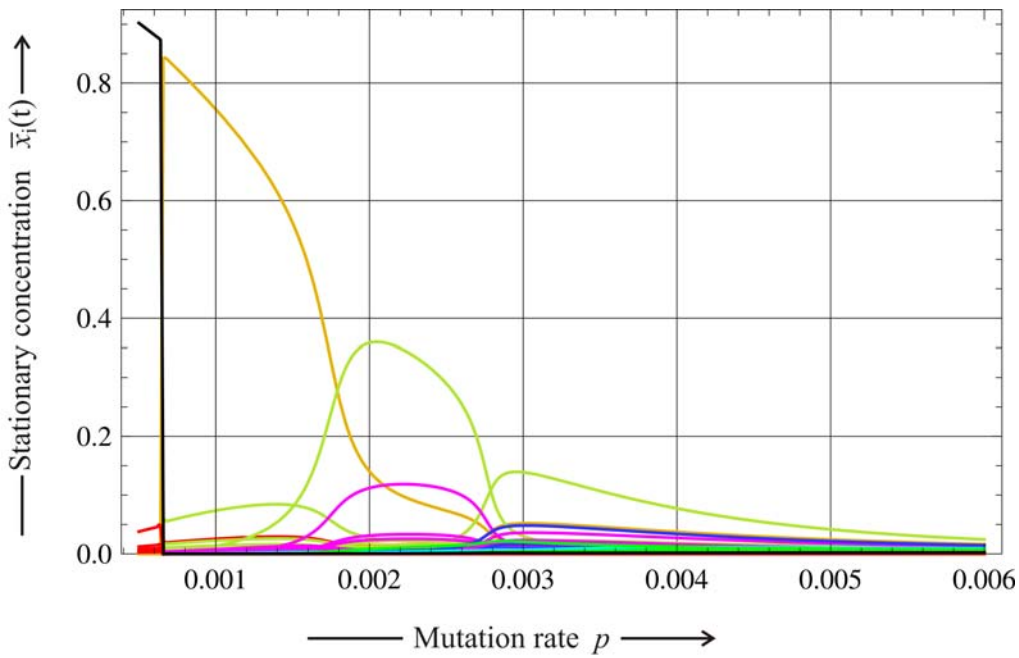
Case III: Multiple transitions

n = 10, $f_0 = 1.1, f_n = 1.0$, s = 637

d = 0.199



d = 0.200



Case III: Multiple transitions

n = 10, $f_0 = 1.1, f_n = 1.0$, s = 637

1. Patterns in nature
2. Pattern formation in chemistry and physics
3. Biological patterns
4. Natural selection and evolution of molecules
5. Chemical kinetics of molecular evolution
6. **Can neutrality be useful ?**
7. How complex is biology ?

ON

THE ORIGIN OF SPECIES

BY MEANS OF NATURAL SELECTION,

OR THE

PRESERVATION OF FAVOURED RACES IN THE STRUGGLE FOR LIFE.

By CHARLES DARWIN, M.A.,

FELLOW OF THE ROYAL, GEOLOGICAL, LINNÆAN, ETC., SOCIETIES;
AUTHOR OF 'JOURNAL OF RESEARCHES DURING H. M. S. BEAGLE'S VOYAGE ROUND THE WORLD.'

LONDON:
JOHN MURRAY, ALBEMARLE STREET.
1859.

This preservation of favourable individual differences and variations, and the destruction of those which are injurious, I have called Natural Selection, or the Survival of the Fittest. Variations neither useful nor injurious would not be affected by natural selection, and would be left either a fluctuating element, as perhaps we see in certain polymorphic species, or would ultimately become fixed, owing to the nature of the organism and the nature of the conditions.

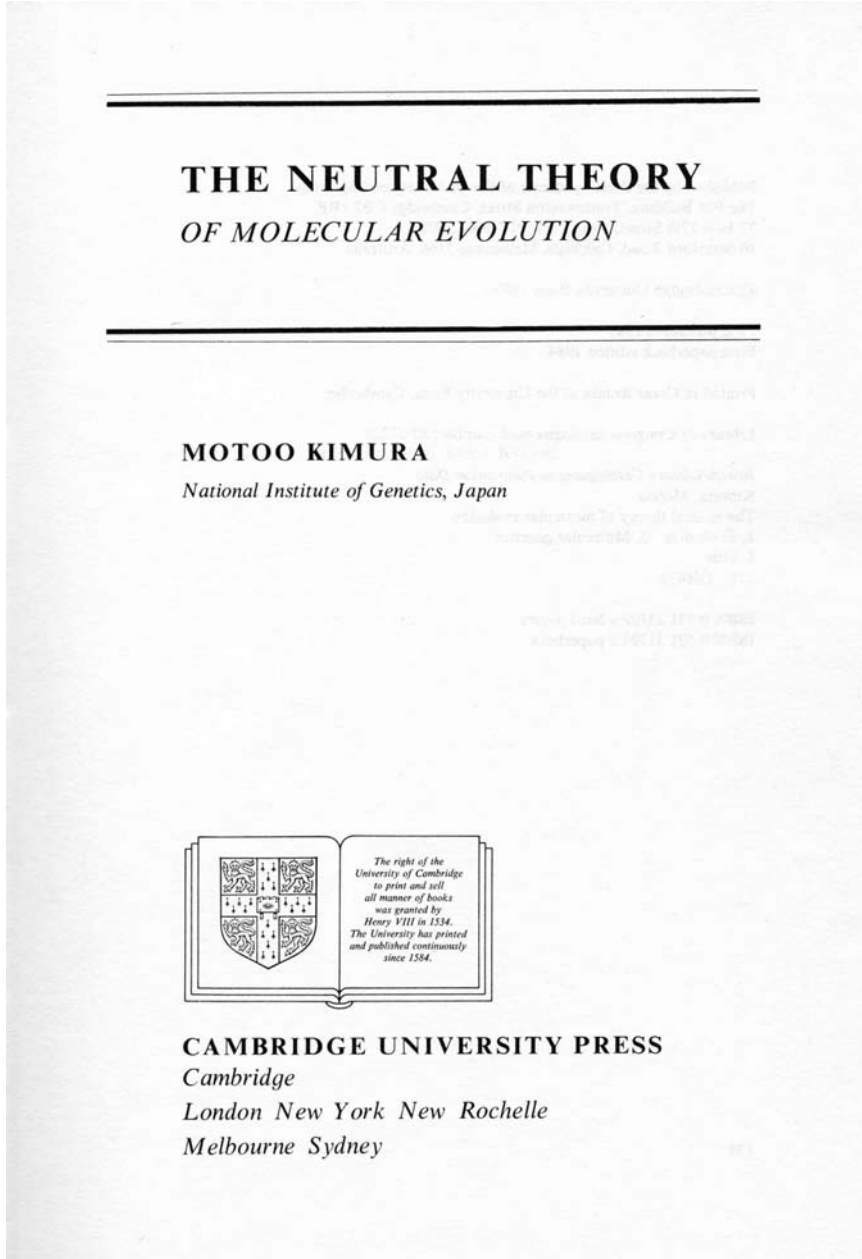
Charles Darwin. *The Origin of Species*. Sixth edition. John Murray. London: 1872

MOTOO KIMURA

Motoo Kimuras Populationsgenetik der neutralen 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

MOTOO KIMURA

National Institute of Genetics, Japan

The right of the University of Cambridge to print and sell all manner of books was granted by Henry VIII in 1534. The University has printed and published continuously since 1584.

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Cambridge

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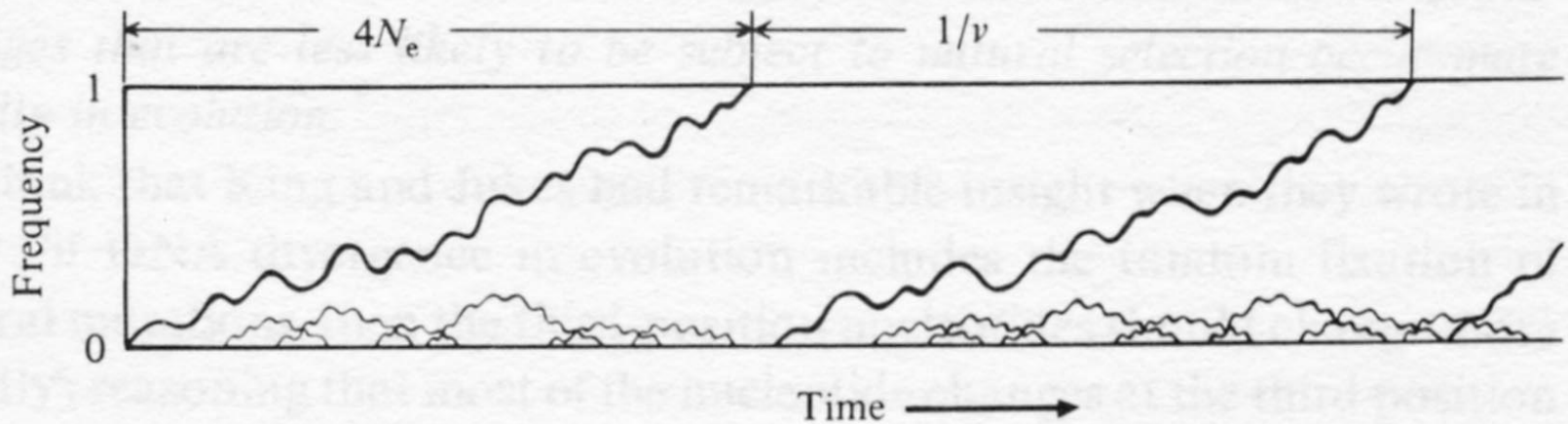
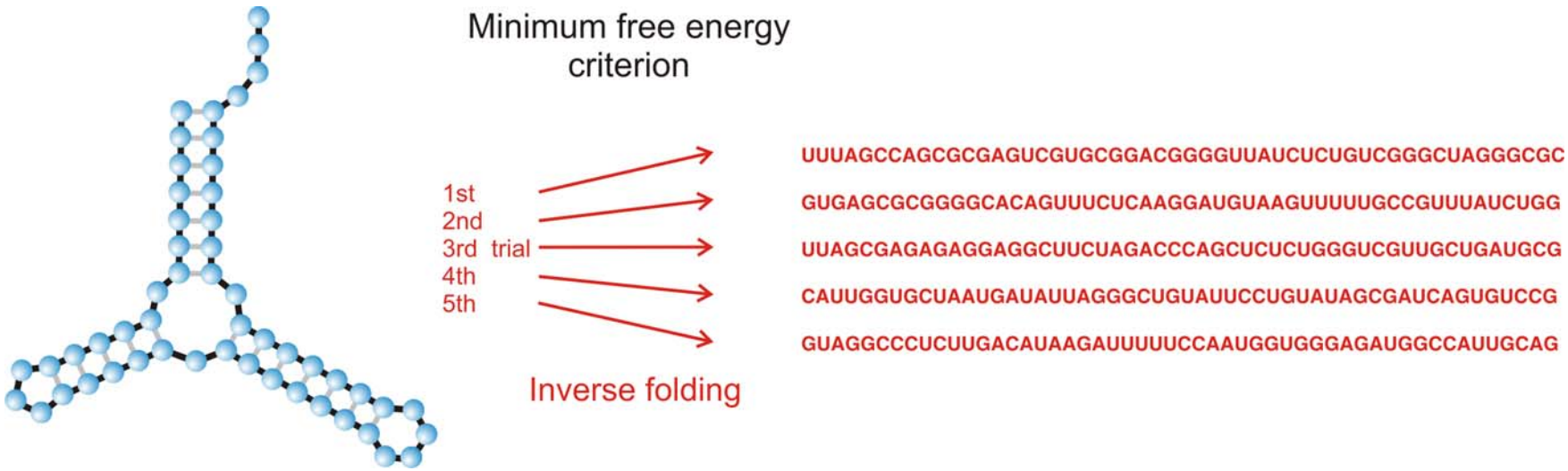
Melbourne Sydney

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.

Fixation of mutants in neutral evolution (Motoo Kimura, 1955)



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

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

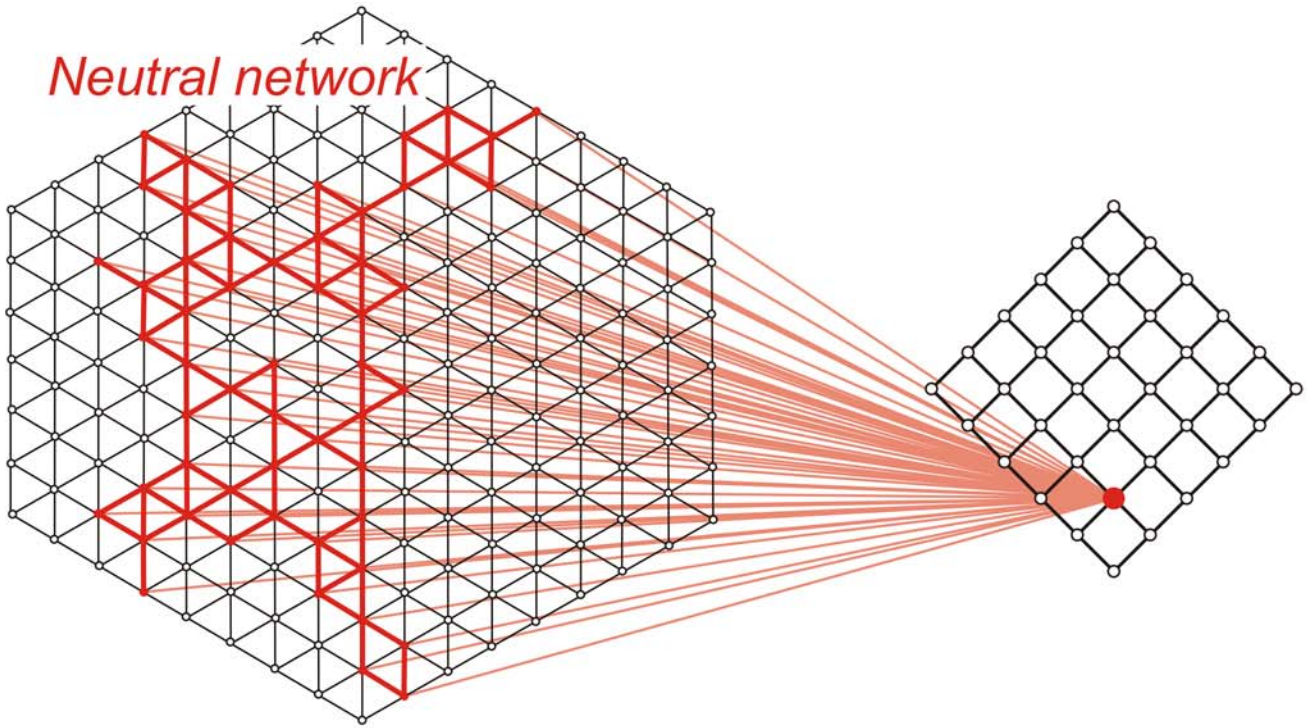
PETER SCHUSTER[1,2,3], WALTER FONTANA[3], PETER F. STADLER[2,3] AND IVO L. HOFACKER[2]

[1] *Institut für Molekulare Biotechnologie, Beutenbergstrasse 11, PF 100813, D-07708 Jena, Germany*
[2] *Institut für Theoretische Chemie, Universität Wien, Austria*
[3] *Santa Fe Institute, Santa Fe, U.S.A.*

SUMMARY

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

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



many genotypes ⇒ one phenotype

INSTITUTE OF PHYSICS PUBLISHING REPORTS ON PROGRESS IN PHYSICS

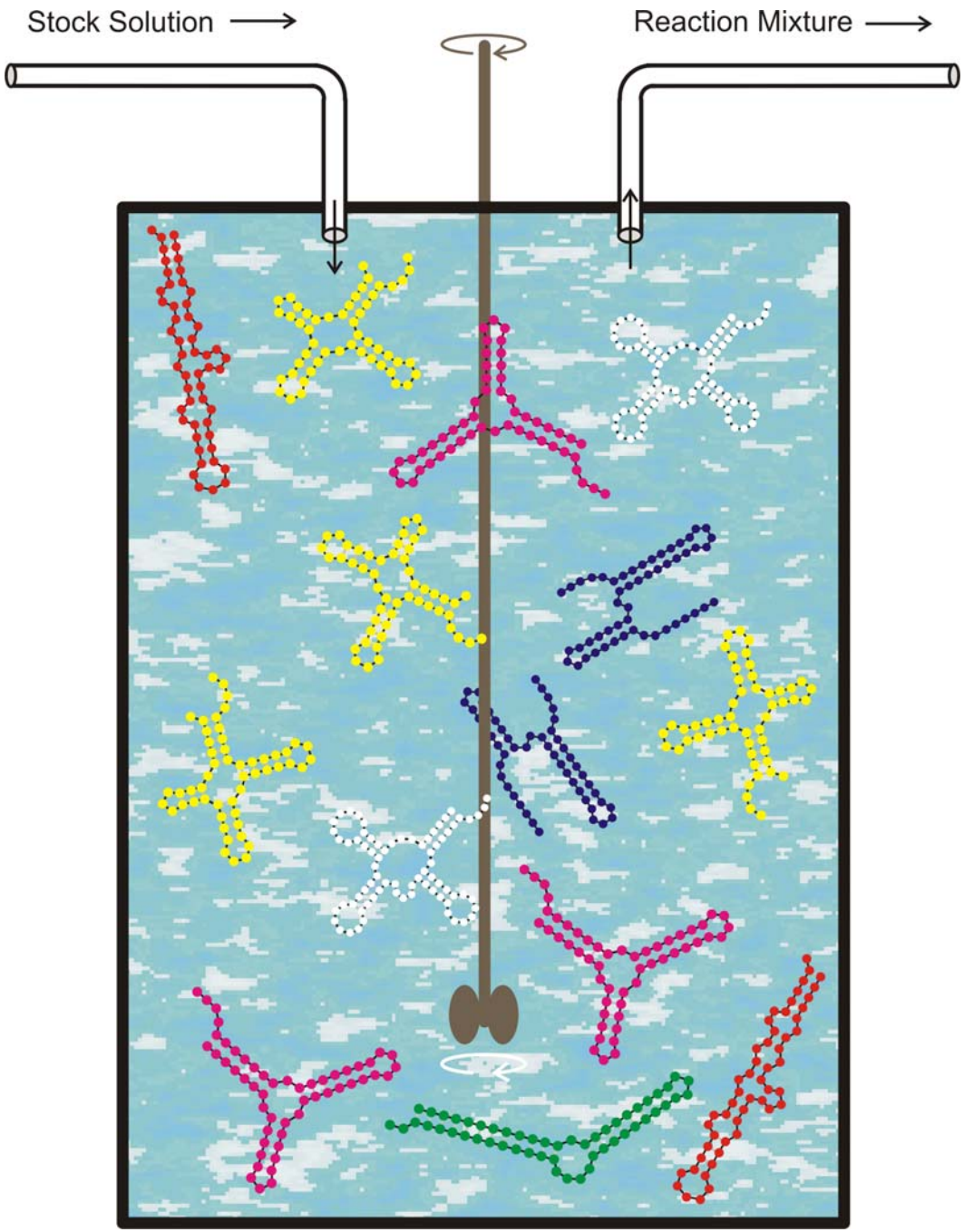
Rep. Prog. Phys. **69** (2006) 1419–1477 doi:10.1088/0034-4885/69/5/R04

Prediction of RNA secondary structures: from theory to models and real molecules

Peter Schuster[1,2]

[1]Institut für Theoretische Chemie der Universität Wien, Währingerstraße 17, A-1090 Vienna, Austria
[2]The Santa Fe Institute, 1399 Hyde Park Road, Santa Fe, NM 87501, USA

E-mail: pks@tbi.univie.ac.at



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′-TCTCCCTGGATTCTCATTTA-3′ (forward) and 5′-TCTTTGTCTTCTGTTCCACC-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′-GCATGACCTGCCGGCTAATGGG-3′; reverse, 5′-CTCACGGCTTCTGCATGGTGCTCGGCTGGC-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.

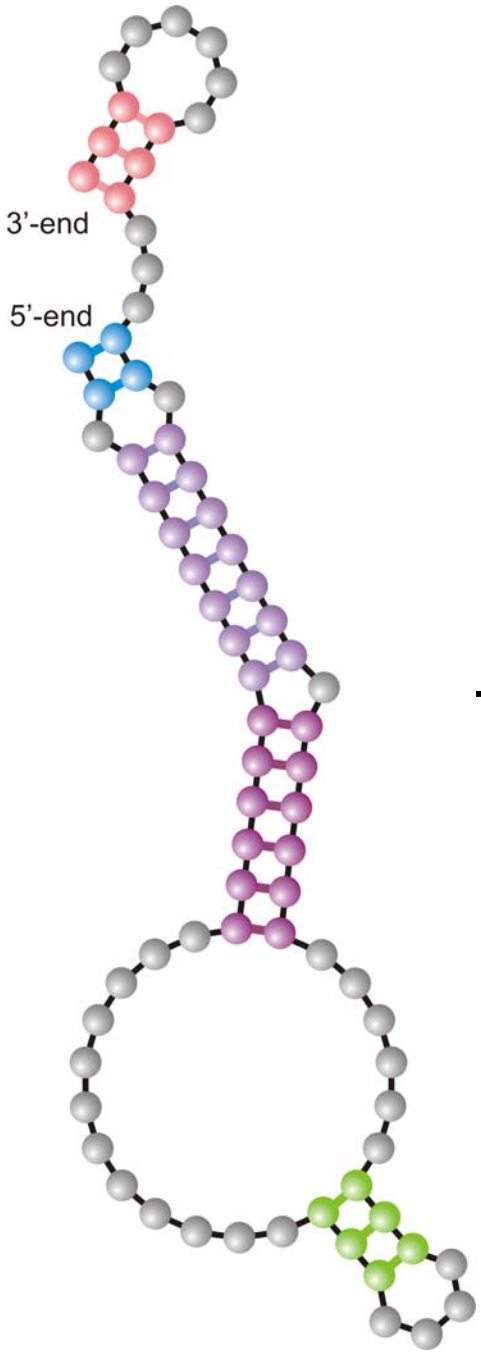
We focus on the narrow domain of RNA secondary structure, which is currently the simplest computationally tractable, yet realistic phenotype (*2*). This choice enables the definition and exploration of concepts that may prove useful in a wider context. RNA secondary structures represent a coarse level 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.

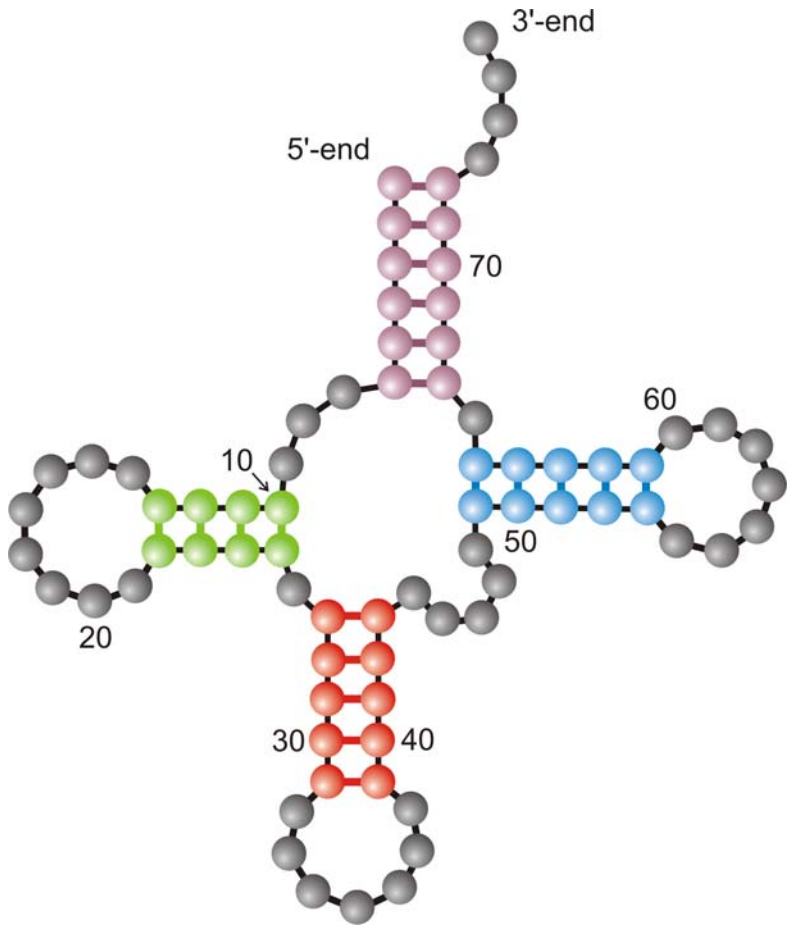
An instance representing in its qualitative features all the simulations we performed is shown in Fig. 1A. Starting with identical sequences folding into a random shape, the simulation was stopped when the population became dominated by the target, here a canonical tRNA shape. The black curve traces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

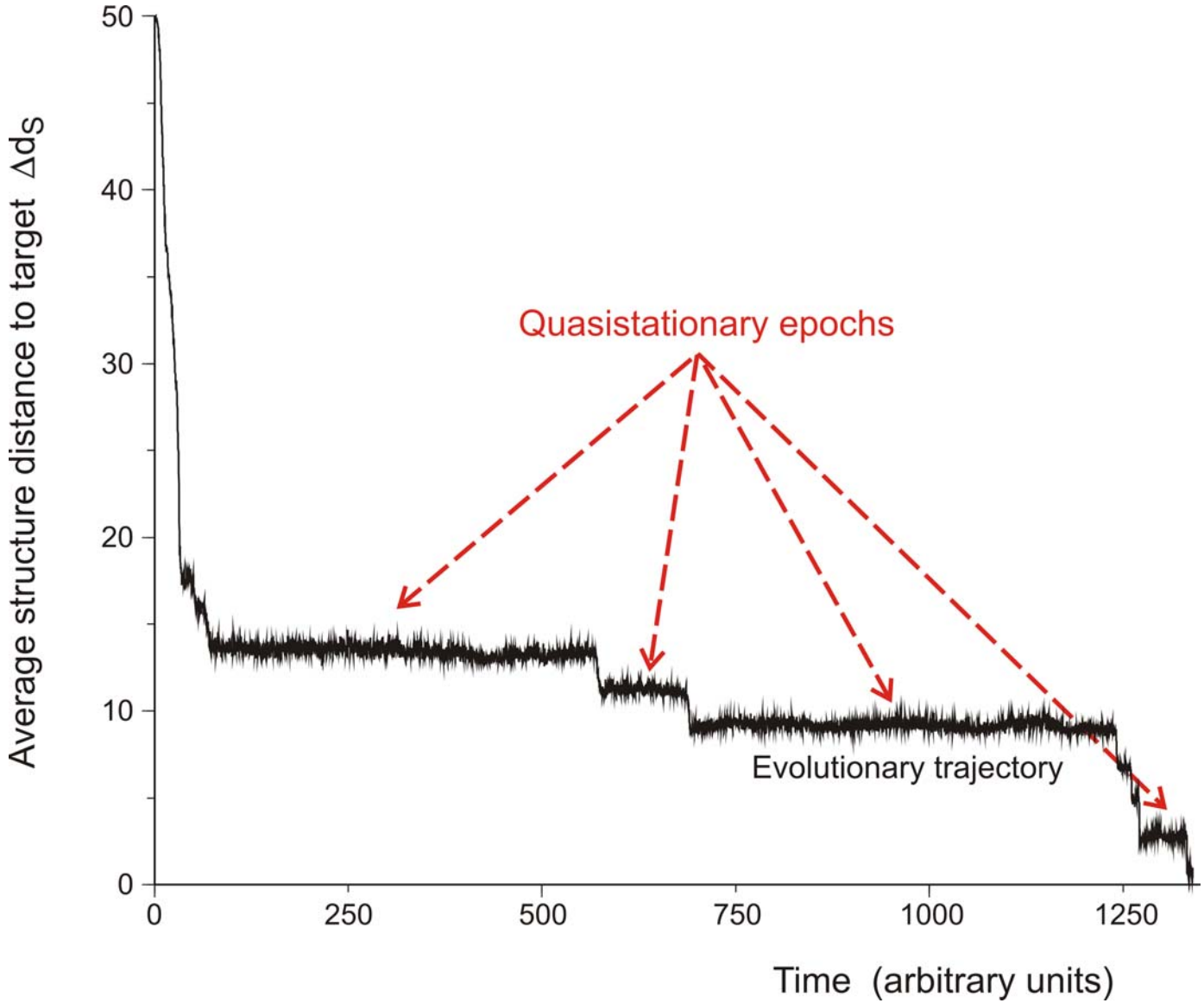
Institut für Theoretische Chemie, Universität Wien, Währingerstrasse 17, A-1090 Wien, Austria, Santa Fe Institute, 1399 Hyde Park Road, Santa Fe, NM 87501, USA, and International Institute for Applied Systems Analysis (IIASA), A-2361 Laxenburg, Austria.



Structure of randomly chosen initial sequence

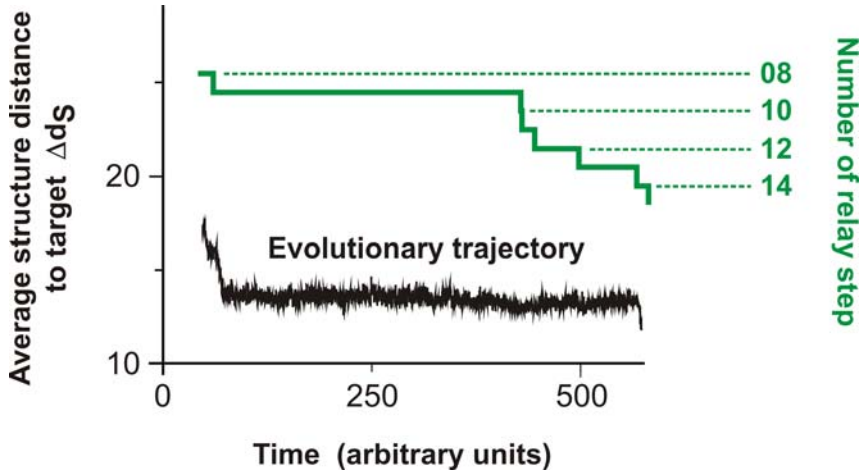


Phenylalanyl-tRNA as target structure



In silico optimization in the flow reactor: Evolutionary Trajectory

28 neutral point mutations during a long quasi-stationary epoch

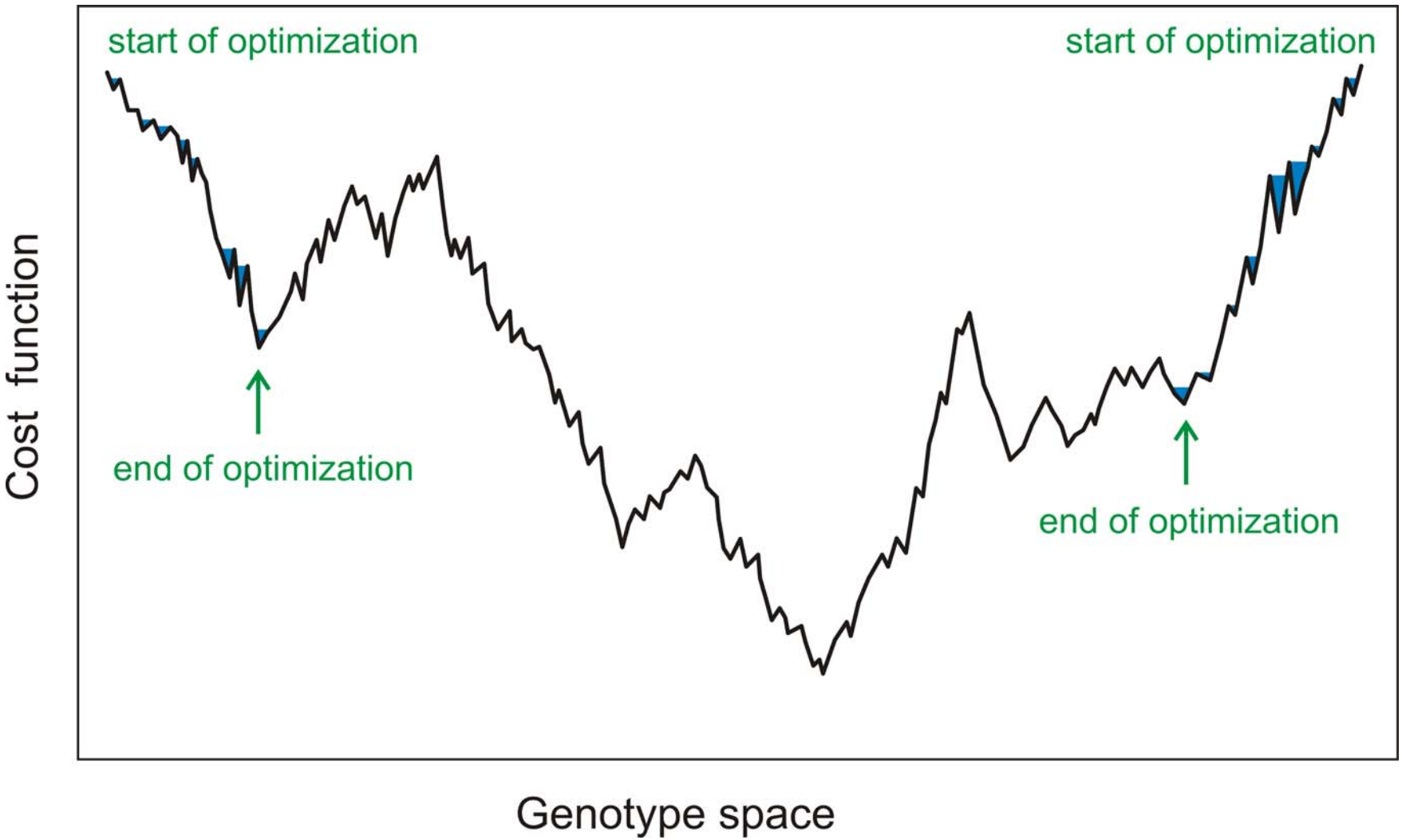


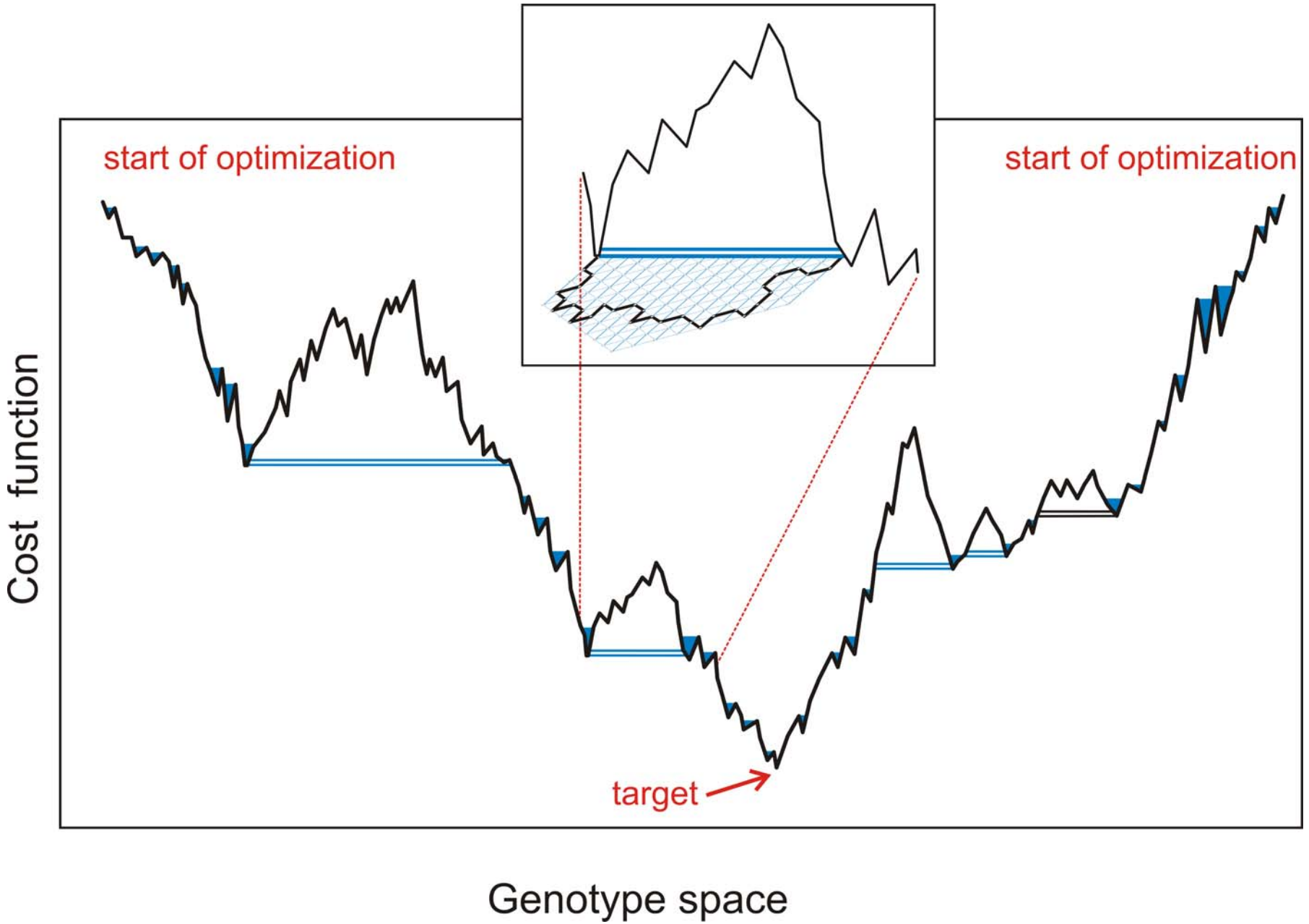

```
entry   GGUAUGGGCGUUGAAUAGUAGGGUUUAAACCAAUCGGCCAACGAUCUCGUGUGCGCAUUUCAUAUCCCGUACAGAA
8       .((((((((((((.........(((....)))).......)))))).....((((.......))))))))))....
exit    GGUAUGGGCGUUGAAUAAUAGGGUUUAAACCAAUCGGCCAACGAUCUCGUGUGCGCAUUUCAUAUCCCAUACAGAA
entry   GGUAUGGGCGUUGAAUAAUAGGGUUUAAACCAAUCGGCCAACGAUCUCGUGUGCGCAUUUCAUAUACCAUACAGAA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

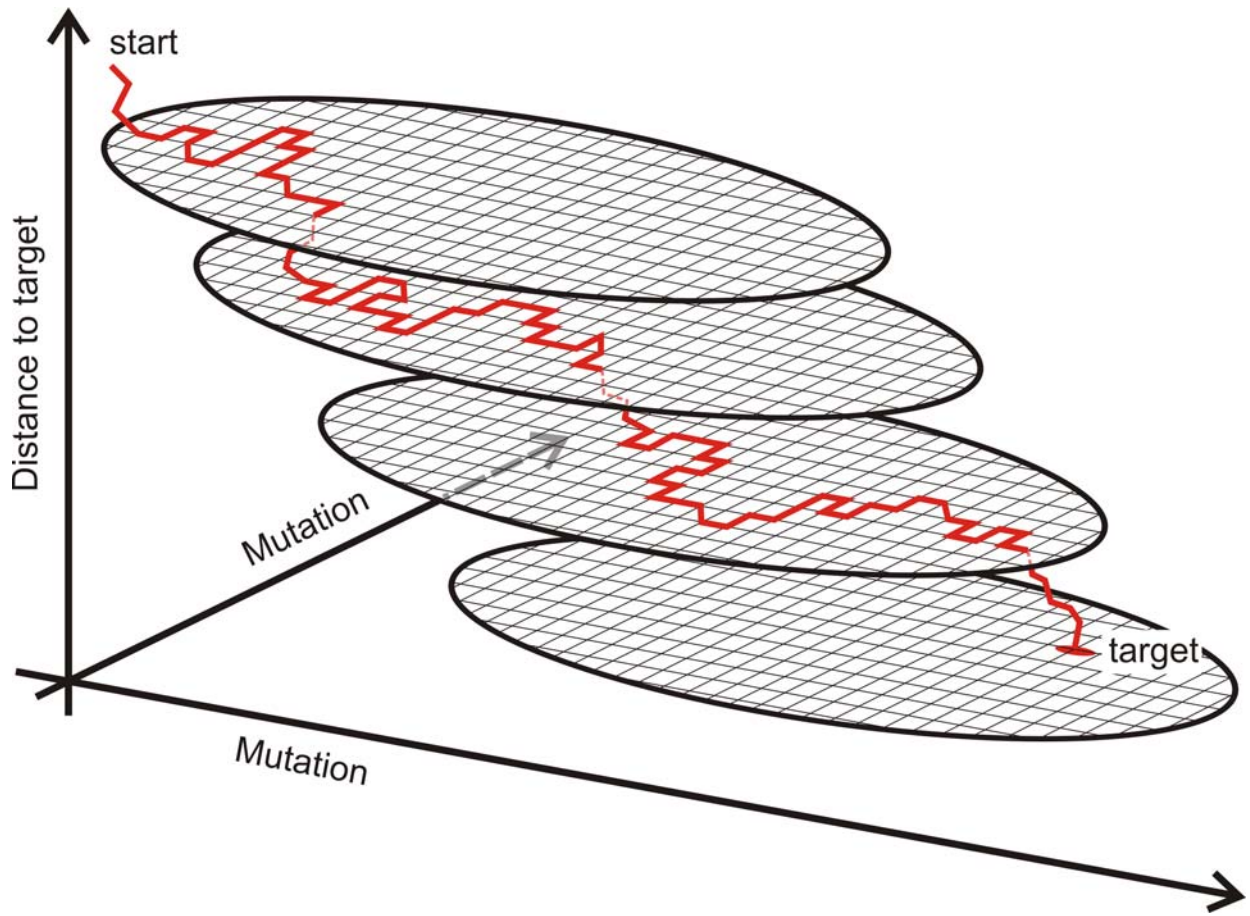
Transition inducing point mutations change the molecular structure

Neutral point mutations leave the molecular structure unchanged

Neutral genotype evolution during phenotypic stasis

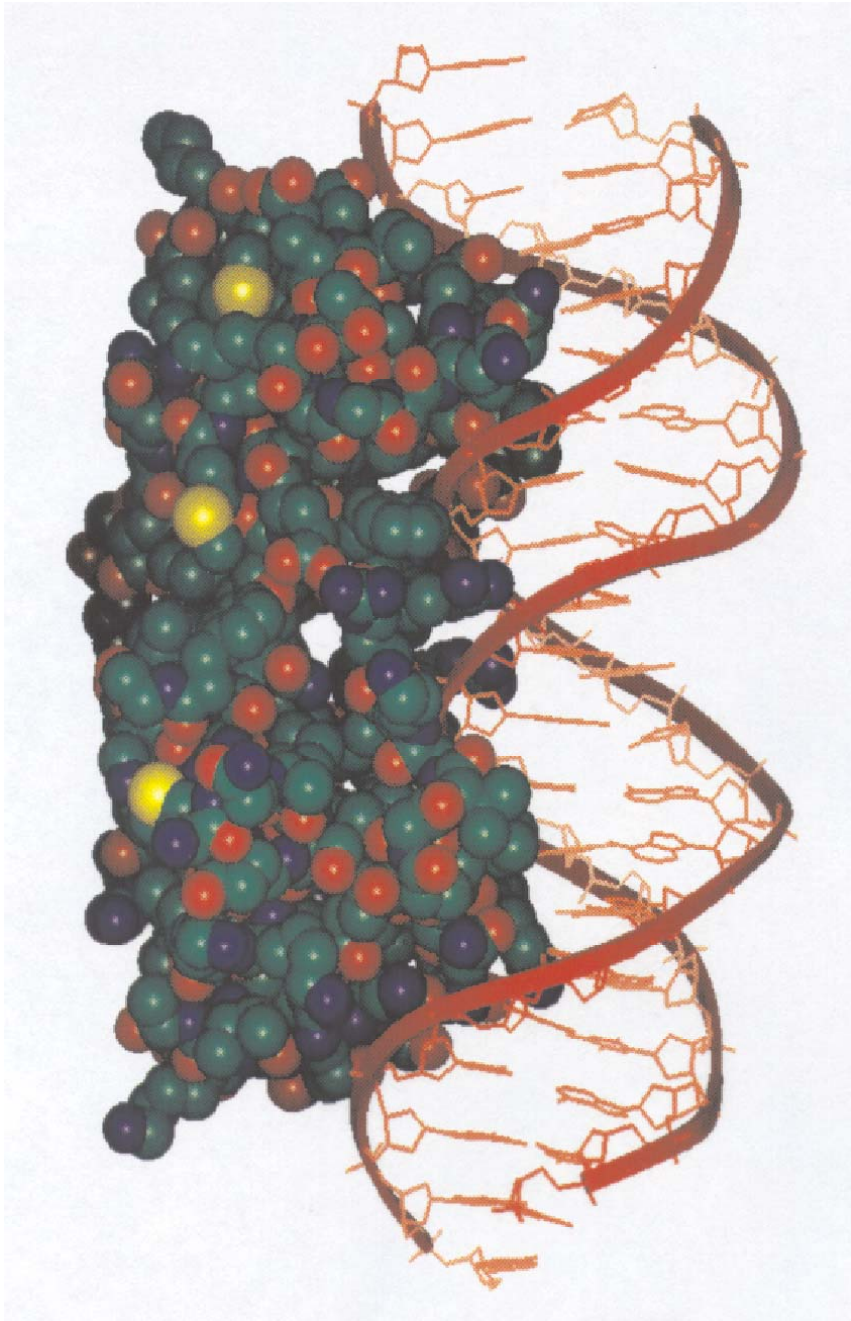

start of optimization
start of optimization
end of optimization
end of optimization
Cost function
Genotype space


start of optimization
start of optimization
target
Cost function
Genotype space

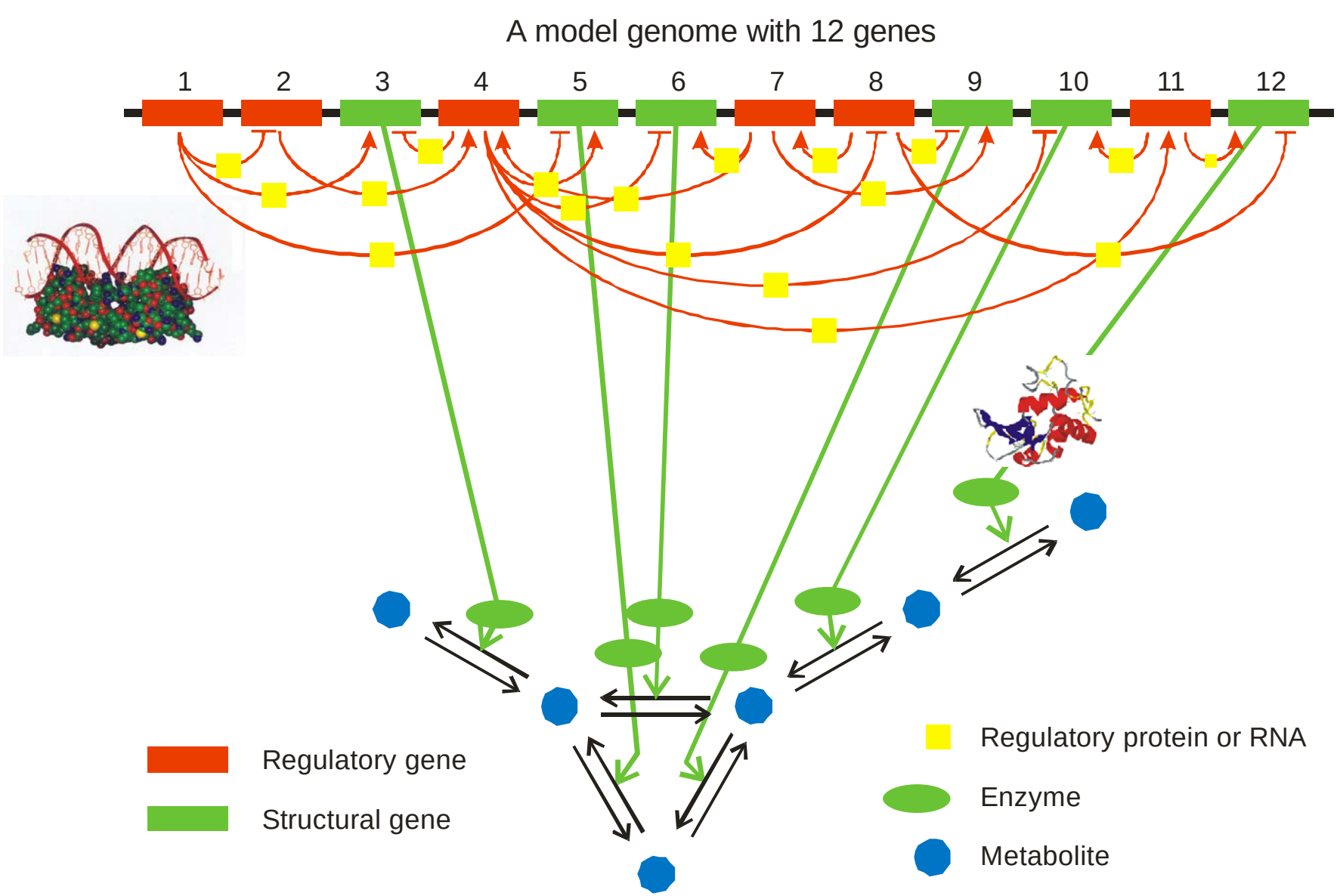


A sketch of optimization on neutral networks

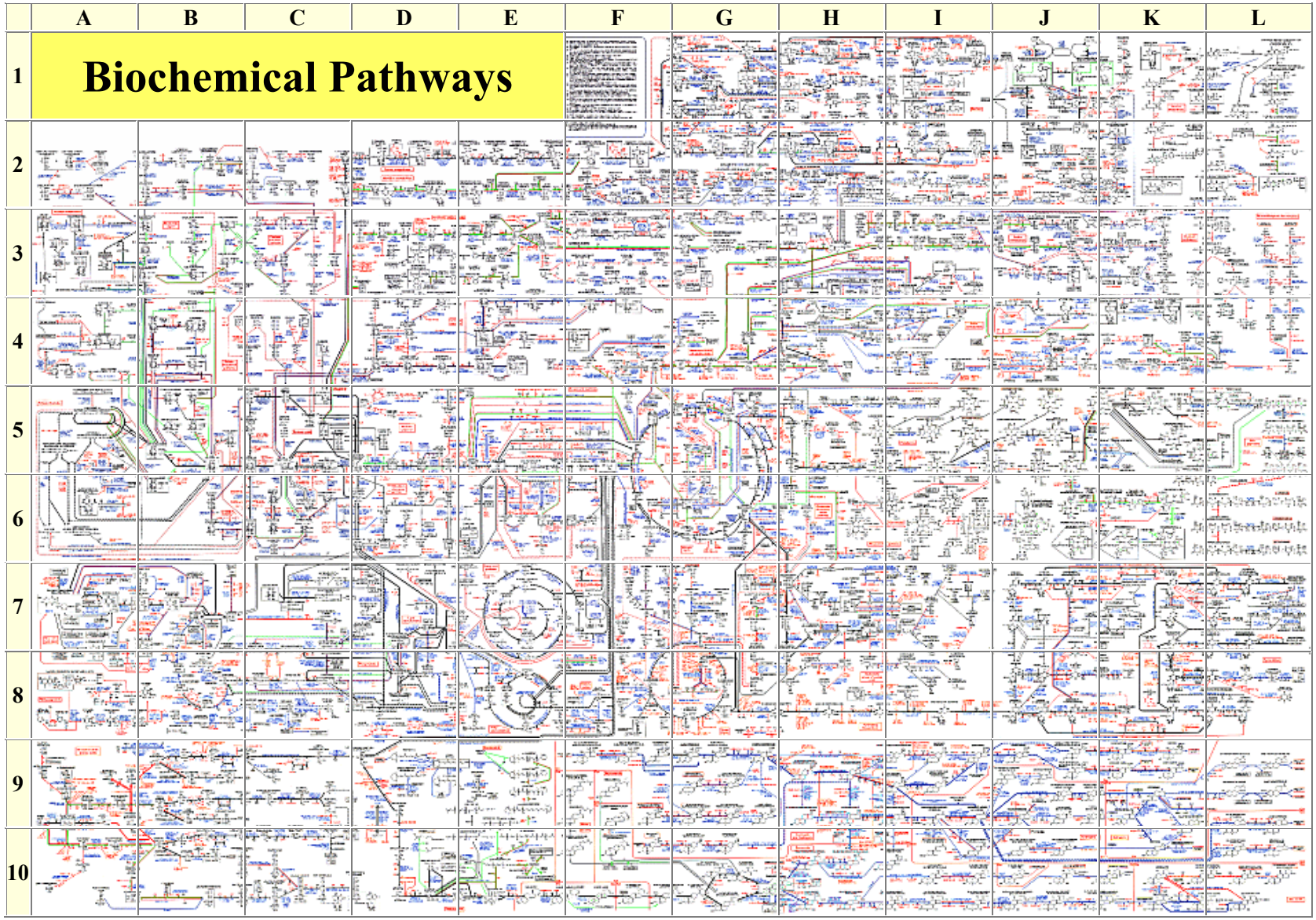
1. Patterns in nature
2. Pattern formation in chemistry and physics
3. Biological patterns
4. Natural selection and evolution of molecules
5. Chemical kinetics of molecular evolution
6. Can neutrality be useful ?
7. **How complex is biology ?**



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



Sketch of a genetic and metabolic network



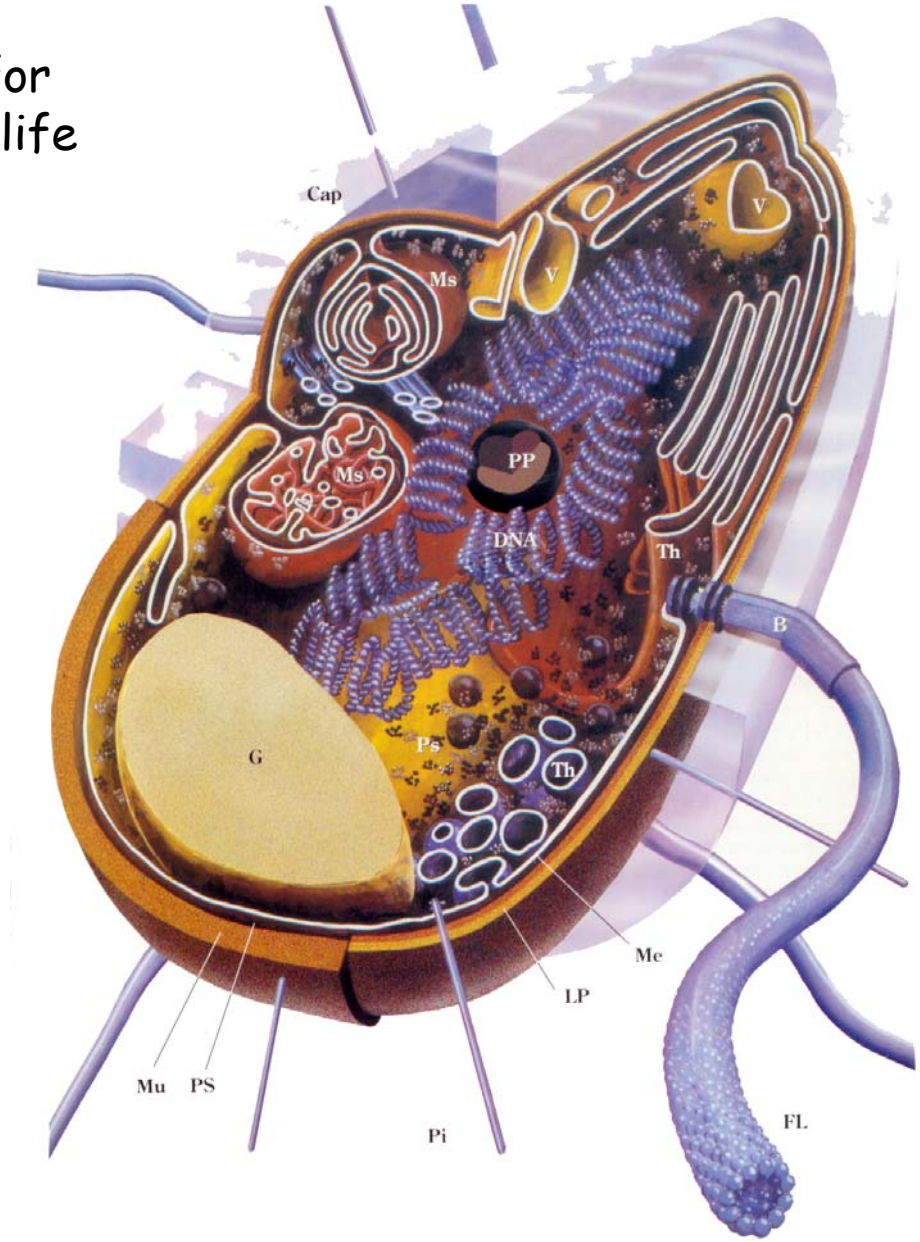
The reaction network of cellular metabolism published by Boehringer-Mannheim.

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

Escherichia coli genome:

4 million nucleotides

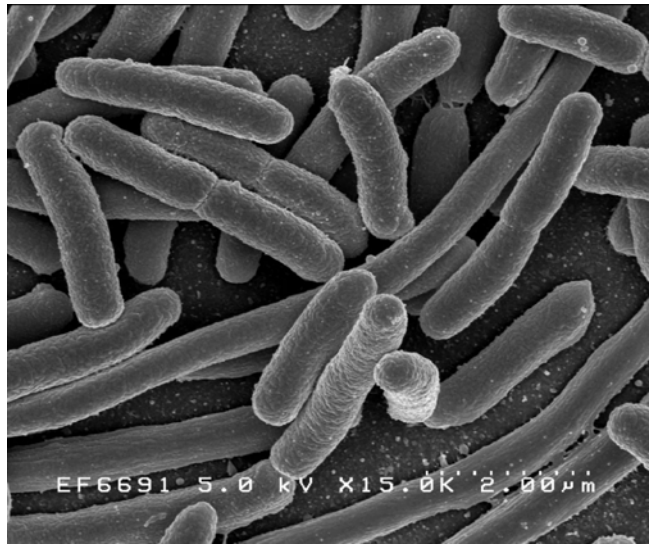
4460 genes



The structure of the bacterium *Escherichia coli*

E. coli:	Genome length	4×10^6 nucleotides
	Number of cell types	1
	Number of genes	4 460

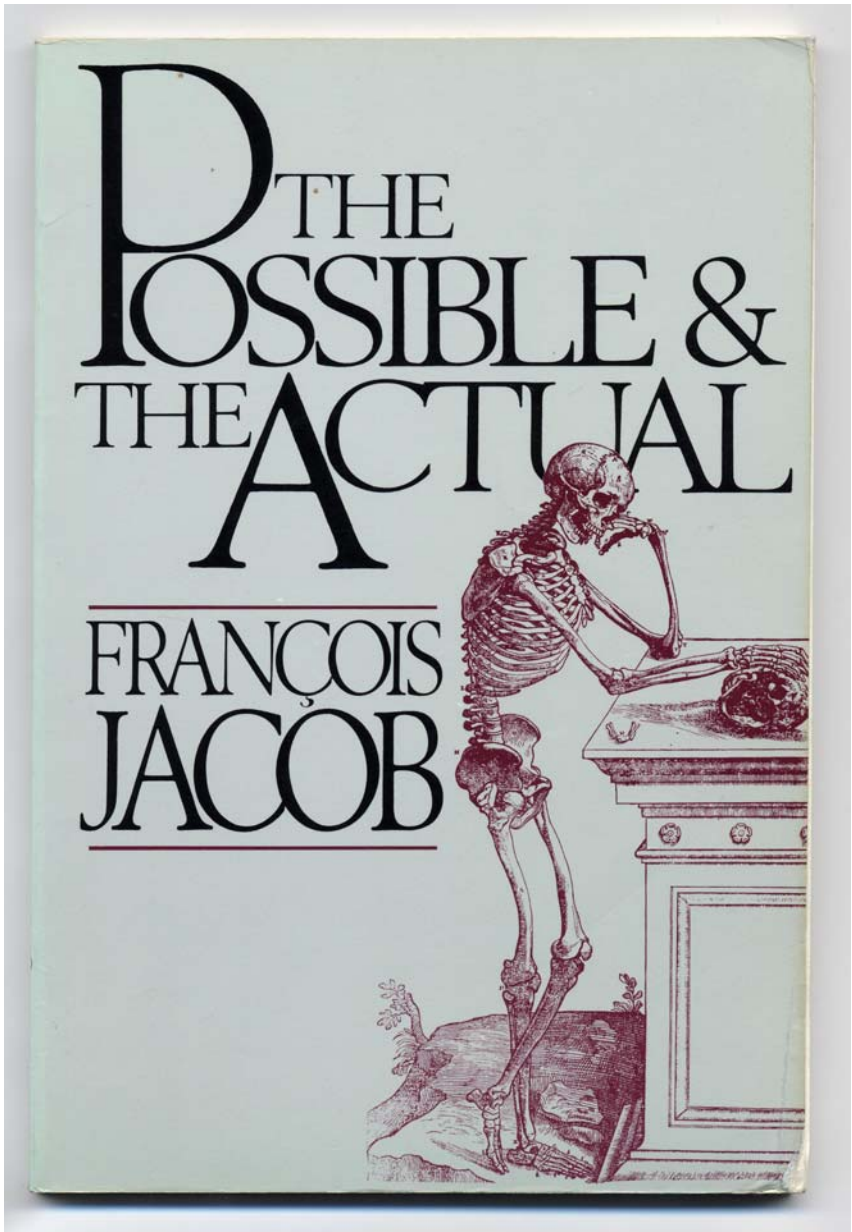
Four books, 300 pages each



Man:	Genome length	3×10^9 nucleotides
	Number of cell types	200
	Number of genes	≈ 20 000

A library of 3000 volumes,
300 pages each

Complexity in biology



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.

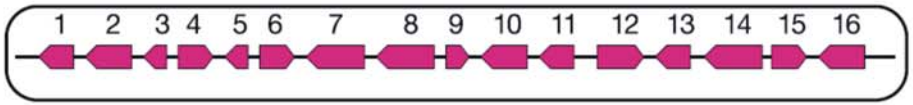
The evolution of 'bricolage'

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

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

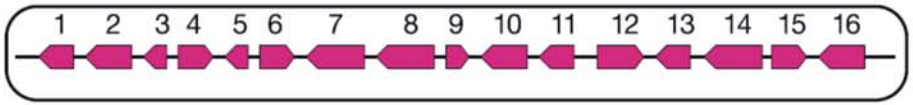
The past ten years of developmental genetics have revealed that most of our genes are shared by other species throughout the animal kingdom. Consequently, animal diversity might largely rely on the differential use of the same components, either at the individual level through divergent functional recruitment, 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.



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



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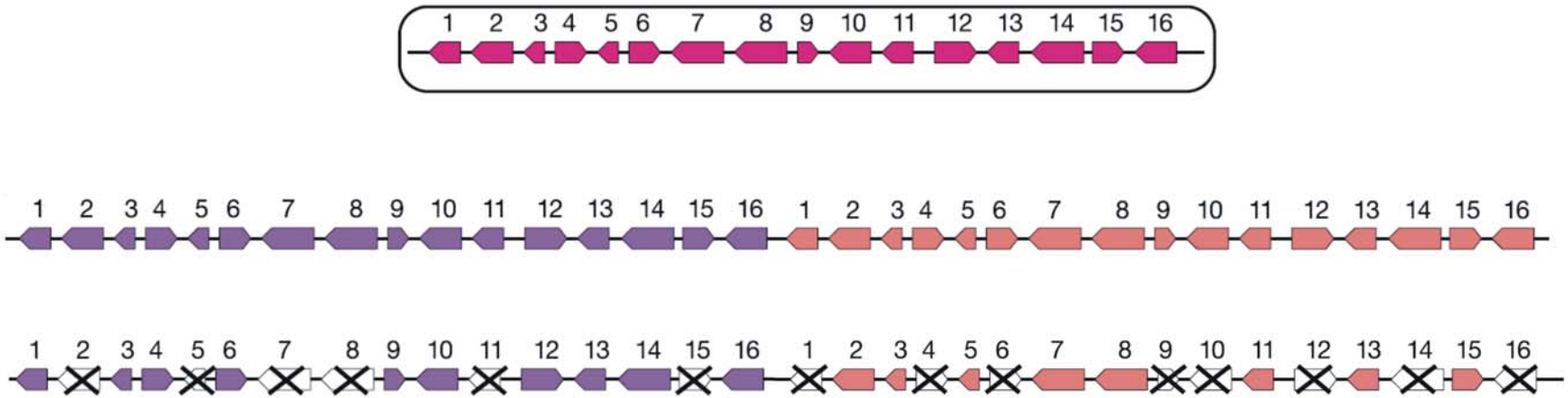

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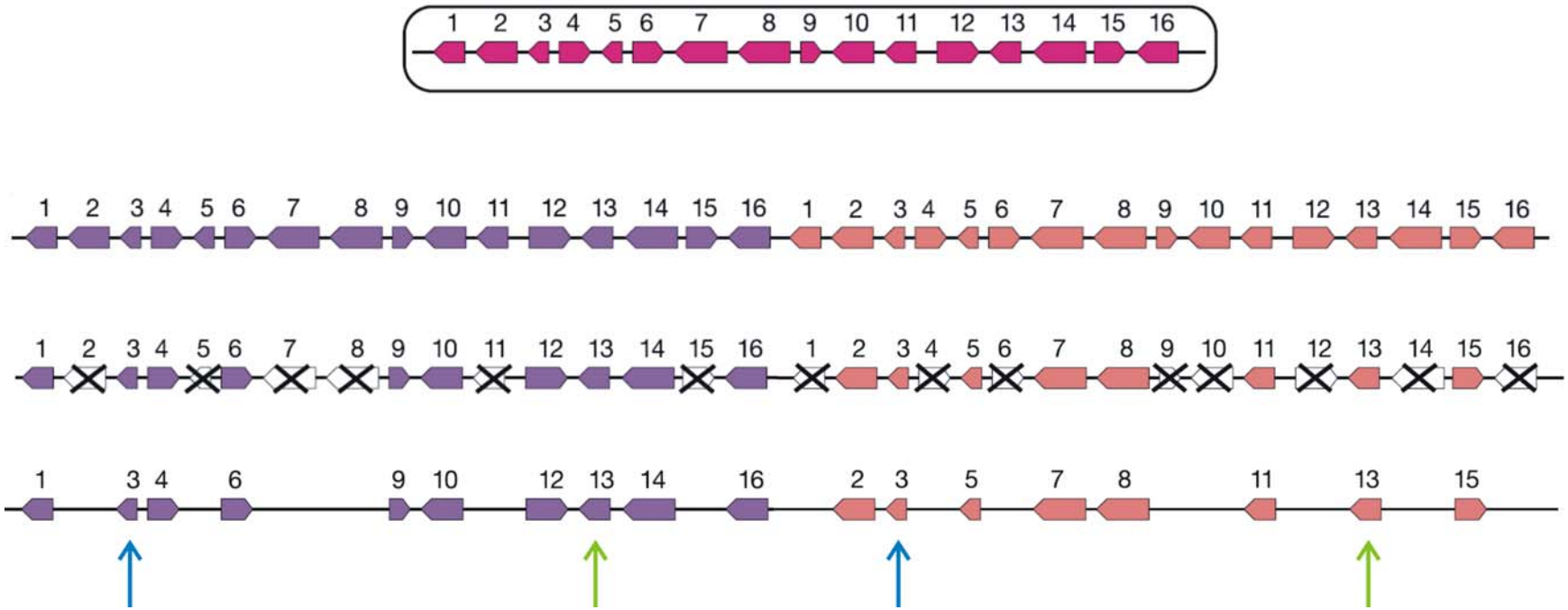


A model for the genome duplication in yeast 100 million years ago

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

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.

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

Pertea and Salzberg *Genome Biology* 2010, 11:206
http://genomebiology.com/2010/11/5/206

Genome Biology

REVIEW

Between a chicken and a grape: estimating the number of human genes

Mihaela Pertea and Steven L Salzberg*

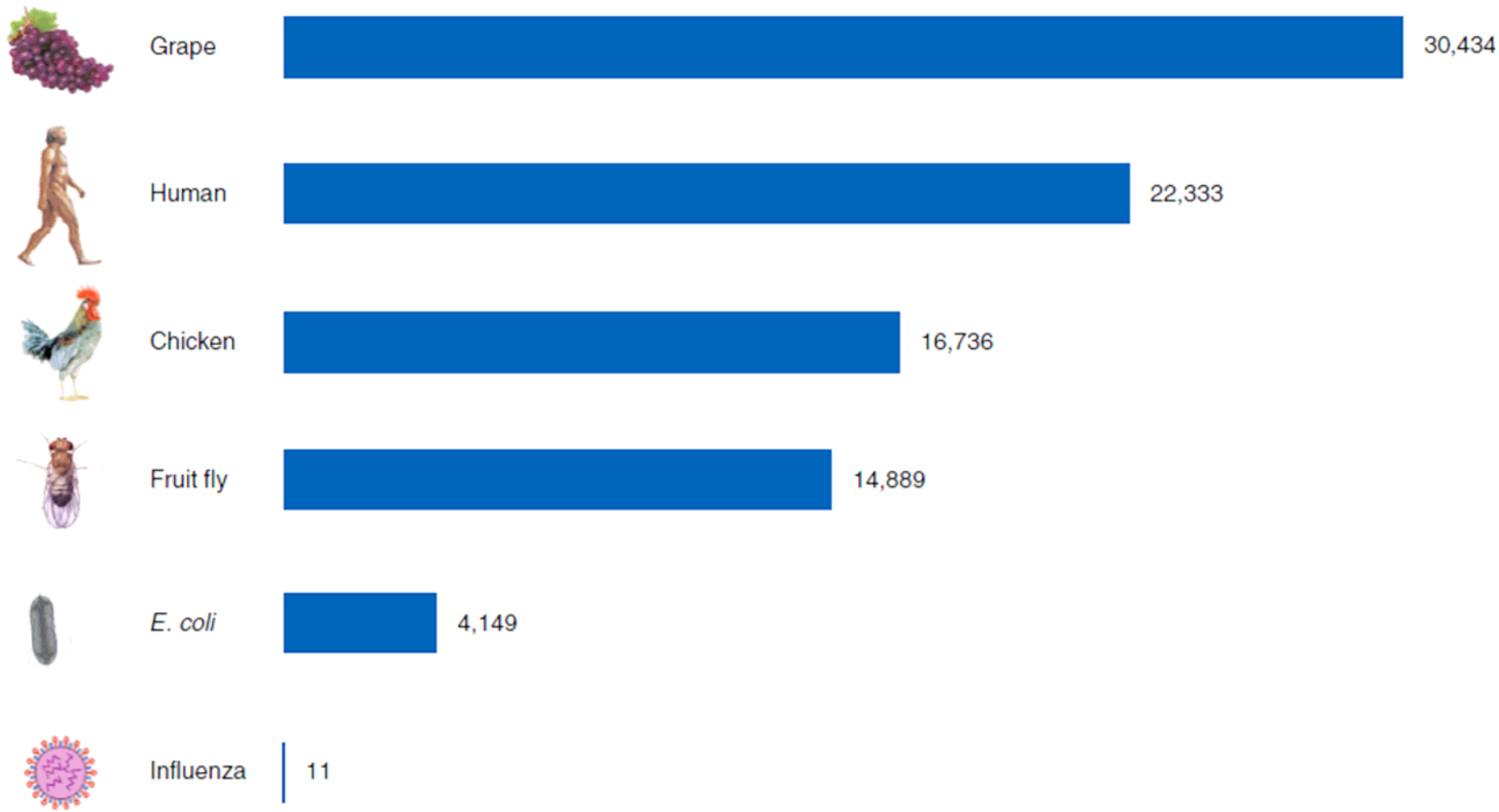
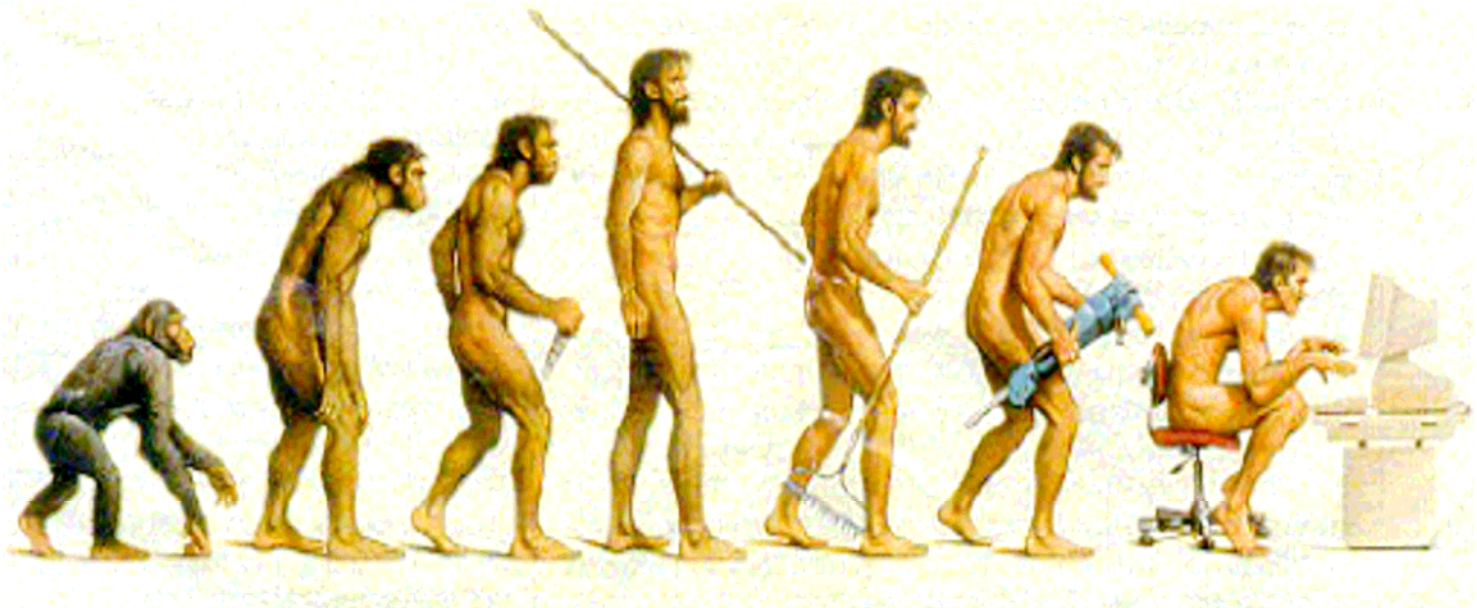


Figure 1. Gene counts in a variety of species. Viruses, the simplest living entities, have only a handful of genes but are exquisitely well adapted to their environments. Bacteria such as *Escherichia coli* have a few thousand genes, and multicellular plants and animals have two to ten times more. Beyond these simple divisions, the number of genes in a species bears little relation to its size or to intuitive measures of complexity. The chicken and grape gene counts shown here are based on draft genomes [50,51] and may be revised substantially in the future.

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.
Nature **447**:799-816, 2007



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Acknowledgement of support

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

Wiener Wissenschafts-, Forschungs- und Technologiefonds (WWTF)
Project No. Mat05

Jubiläumsfonds der Österreichischen Nationalbank
Project No. Nat-7813

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

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

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