

To :
Fax:

Prof. David Sankoff

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from : Takashi Kunisawa
Science Univ. of Tokyo

Dear David,

I hope you have time to go back
to the JMF paper.

Takashi Kunisawa

Dear Prof. Sankoff,
I am writing to you because I have some questions about your paper published in JMF. In your paper, you used the gene order comparison method to study the evolution of plastid genomes. I have a few questions regarding this method. First, how do you determine the gene order? Second, how do you calculate the number of genome rearrangements? Third, how do you compare the gene order data of different plastid genomes? I would appreciate it if you could provide me with more details about these aspects of your research. Thank you for your time and consideration.

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GENE ORDER COMPARISON FOR PHYLOGENETIC INFERENCE OF PLASTID GENOMES

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Abstract

Gene order data of plastid genomes were compiled. To specify which gene is present and which is absent, homologous genes among plastid genomes were identified at the sequence level. For each pair of plastid genomes, the number of genome rearrangements, i.e., inversions, transpositions and inverted transpositions, was computed. It was shown that the ratio of rearrangements to the number of genes compared is the suitable measure for the phylogeny of land plant plastids. We also explored the contribution of the number of genes deleted (or inserted) in the evolution of algal plastid genomes.

Introduction

Phylogenetic analysis of nucleic acid sequences traditionally compares homologous versions of a single gene in different organisms. This practice suffers from the arguable assumption that evolution of a single gene accurately represents evolution of the whole genome (Gray, 1988). As a complementary approach to resolve phylogenetic relationships, we have proposed a mathematical modeling of evolution at the genomic level (Sankoff, Leduc et al., 1992; Blanchette, Kunisawa et al., 1996). Phylogenetic distance between genomes is measured by gene order rearrangement based on the minimal set of inversions, transpositions, insertions and deletions necessary to convert the gene order in one genome to that of the other. The latter approach has been applied to a very limited case, i.e., mitochondrial genome evolution, simply because of the unavailability of complete gene-order data. In recent years, however, a number of plastid genomes are completely sequenced. These sequence data constitute another model for studying evolution due to genome rearrangement. Here we examine the validity and usefulness of the gene order analysis for the evolution of plastid genomes.

A nearly uniform number of genes (ca. 35) is found in animal mitochondrial genomes, and their phylogeny has been accounted for by the optimal number of moves, i.e., inversions, transpositions and inverted transpositions, that are responsible for the difference in gene order between genomes (Sankoff, Leduc et al., 1992). In contrast, the number of genes present in plastid genomes differs considerably; the plastid of nonphotosynthetic parasitic flowering plant *Epifagus virginiana*, in an extreme case, lack nearly 70 genes for photosynthesis and chlororespiration. In general the algal plastid genomes contain 1.5 to 2 times higher number of genes than land plant plastid genomes. We explore phylogenetic distance suitable for the evolutionary analysis of such genomes with nonuniform number of genes.

Data and Methods

Using the World Wide Web, gene order data were compiled from the existing major DNA databases GenBank/EMBL/DDJB (for DDBJ, URL: <http://www.ddbj.nig.ac.jp>). As listed in Table I, currently 11 plastid genomes are completely sequenced. We have also compiled the gene order for a cyanobacterium *Synechocystis* sp. PC6803 (Kameko, Sato et al., 1996), which was treated as an outgroup in constructing phylogenetic trees for plastids. Homologous genes were identified by the computer program FASTA (Lipman and Pearson, 1985). The minimal number of inversions, transpositions and inverted transpositions necessary to convert the gene order in one genome to that in the other was computed by the DERANGE2 program with the weight 2.05 of transpositions and inverted transpositions to inversions (Blanchette, Kumisawa et al., 1996). The PHYLIP package (Felsenstein, 1989) was also used in constructing phylogenetic trees.

Results and Discussion

Currently, complete nucleotide sequence data are available for five lineages of plastids, which show distinctive pigment compositions and ultrastructures (Table I). The first is a chlorophytic (green) lineage characterized by chlorophylls *a* and *b*, and stacked thylakoids. This lineage consists of the plastid from a green alga, *Chlorella vulgaris* (M. Sugiyama, unpublished data) and of plastids from land plants including *Oryza sativa* (Hiratuka, Shimada et al., 1989), *Zea mays* (Matier, Neckermann et al., 1995), *Nicotiana tabacum* (Shinozaki, Ohme et al., 1986), *Pinus thunbergii* (Wakasugi, Tsudsuki et al., 1994), and *Marchantia polymorpha* (Ohyama, Fukuzawa et al., 1986) (see Table I). This lineage also includes a nonphotosynthetic plastid from *Epifagus virginiana* (Wolfe, Morden et al., 1992a), in which nearly 70 genes (or ORFs) are lost in evolution (see also Table II). The second lineage is a chloroplast from *Euglena gracilis* (Hallick, Hong et

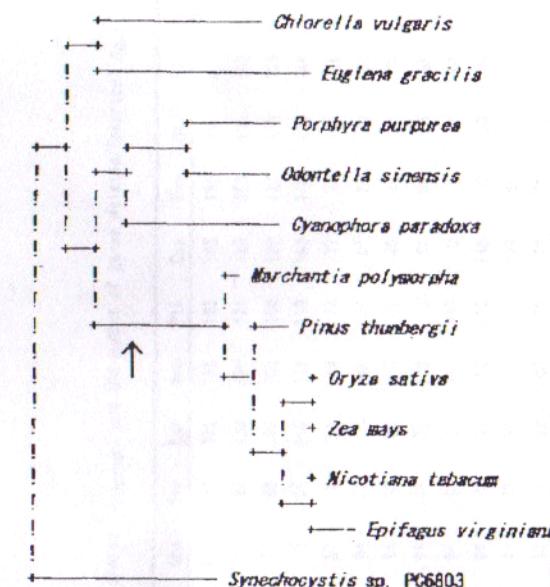


Fig. 1 Phylogenetic tree derived from the distance f_{move} between plastid genomes in Table III. The root is placed between a cyanobacterium, *Synechocystis* sp., and plastids. An arrow indicates the phylogenetic position of the *C. vulgaris*-*E. gracilis* cluster for the case where $n_{deletion}$ distance is taken into account (see text).

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Table I. Plastid genomes compared.

Genome	Accession Number ¹	Size (bp)	Genes (+CRPs) ²
Chlorophytes			
green alga			
<i>Chlorella vulgaris</i>		150,613	112
(M.Sugiura, unpublished)			
land plants			
<i>Oryza sativa</i>	X15091	134,525	157
<i>Zea mays</i>	X86563	140,387	157
<i>Nicotiana tabacum</i>	X00044	155,854	135
<i>Epifagus virginiana</i>	M81884	70,028	55
<i>Pinus thunbergii</i>	D17510	119,707	116
<i>Marchantia polymorpha</i>	X04465	121,024	124
Euglenophyte			
<i>Euglena gracilis</i>	X70810	143,170	96
Chromophyte			
<i>Odontella sinensis</i>	Z67757	117,704	160
Rhodophyte			
<i>Porphyra purpurea</i>	U38804	191,028	193
Glaucophyte			
<i>Cyanophora paradoxa</i>	U30821	135,599	177

¹GenBank/EMBL/DBJ accession number²Duplicated genes are counted twice and pseudogenes are not includedVOL. 1, NOS. 2 & 3
1997Research Communications in
Biochemistry and Cell & Molecular BiologyTable II. The number of genes shared, *nshared, and the number of genes deleted/inserted, *ndel.**

Syn	Ppu	Osi	Cpa	Gvu	Egr	Mbo	Pth	Osa	Zma	Nti	Evi
Syn	0	47	120	111	154	182	155	183	185	166	215
Ppu	198	0	39	52	98	123	120	121	150	131	162
Osi	143	157	0	77	88	92	103	108	129	127	110
Cpa	156	158	130	0	95	115	112	113	140	123	148
Gvu	102	103	92	97	0	54	49	28	77	79	60
Egr	85	88	87	84	82	0	69	72	95	93	78
Mbo	107	98	90	94	93	80	0	29	40	42	21
Pth	104	98	88	94	104	79	109	0	55	55	38
Osa	107	97	91	94	93	81	117	110	0	6	27
Zma	105	97	92	94	92	82	118	110	148	0	23
Nti	107	98	92	94	93	82	118	110	128	131	0
Evi	54	54	51	53	62	52	65	58	72	71	0

Shared is to the upper right and Del is to the lower left and Del is to the upper right. Syn, *Synechococcus sp.*; Ppu, *Porphyridium purpureum*; Osi, *Odontella sinensis*; Cpa, *Cyanophora paradoxa*; Gvu, *Chlorodesmus vulgaris*; Egr, *Euglena gracilis*; Mbo, *Microcoleus polymorpha*; Pth, *Pinus thunbergii*; Osa, *Oryza sativa*; Zma, *Zea mays*; Nti, *Nicotiana tabacum*; Evi, *Epifagus virginiana*.

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expressed by nucleic acid sequences in chloroplasts from land plants, red algae, and brown algae. These include the plastid and the nuclear genes of the chlorophyll a/b binding protein.

The phylogenetic relationships among the plastid genomes have been studied by the analysis of sequence data of various genes and their combinations. The results of these analyses have shown that the plastid genome can be divided into five lineages. The first lineage is characterized by chlorophylls *a* and *b* and by stacked thylakoids. This lineage includes the green plastids from land plants, green algae, and cyanobacteria. The second lineage is characterized by chlorophyll *a* and phycobilin, and by stacked thylakoids. This lineage includes the nongreen plastids from red algae (rhodoplasts) and from brown algae. The third lineage is characterized by chlorophylls *a* and *c* and by four envelope membranes. This lineage includes the plastid from the brown alga *Odonella sinensis* (Kowallic, Stoebe et al., 1995). The fourth lineage is characterized by chlorophyll *a* and phycobilin, and by unstacked thylakoids. This lineage includes the red alga *Porphyra purpurea* (Reith and Münchhoff, 1995), for which the plastid genome is completely sequenced. The fifth lineage is characterized by chlorophyll *a* and phycobilin, and by unstacked thylakoids. This lineage includes the cyanobacterium *Cyanophora paradoxa* (Stirewaite, Michalowski et al., 1995). The last lineage is characterized by chlorophyll *a* and phycobilin, and by unstacked thylakoids but retains a peptidoglycan wall as do cyanobacteria.

To quantitatively compare the genome structures, we first identified homologous genes between plastids on the basis of sequence data not of gene labels. The number $n_{shared}(i,j)$ of homologous genes that are found both in genome *i* and *j* is listed in the lower left of Table II. Here, we have also compiled the gene order data of a cyanobacterium *Synechocystis* sp. PCC6803 (Kaneko, Sato et al., 1996), which is believed to share an evolutionary ancestor with the plastids and is recently completely sequenced. Among a total of 3217 genes in *Synechocystis*, 246 genes have homologous counterparts in the plastid genomes. For a substantial portion (196 genes), homologous genes can be found in the red algal plastid *P. purpurea*, whereas a much smaller number of homologous genes (roughly 100) are present in the plastids from land plants. The upper right of Table II lists the number $n_{deletion}(i,j)$ of genes that are not present in either one of the genomes *i* and *j*. In the comparison between rice and maize plastids, only six genes are deleted from one of the genomes and these monocot plants form a close evolutionary relative. In the comparison between rice and tobacco plastids, however, 27 genes (mostly unidentified ORFs) are not found in either one of the genomes. This higher value would come from the monocot-dicot comparison.

Removing genes absent from the either member of the genome pair, we have

Table III. The number of recombinations, n_{move} , and its fraction f_{move} to n_{shared} .

	Syn	Ppu	Os1	Cpa	Cvu	Egr	Hmo	Pth	Os2	Zme	Nt1	Evi
Syn	0	129	83	102	69	59	67	72	68	65	60	37
Ppu	0.658	0	51	77	63	61	54	53	54	54	64	32
Os1	0.580	0.326	0	71	54	61	47	62	50	49	46	29
Cpa	0.654	0.484	0.544	0	62	53	45	59	55	55	49	34
Cvu	0.676	0.612	0.587	0.639	0	53	56	68	64	52	51	34
Egr	0.684	0.663	0.701	0.631	0.546	0	50	48	63	63	62	41
Hmo	0.626	0.551	0.522	0.479	0.462	0.625	0	9	10	11	6	10
Pth	0.692	0.592	0.591	0.628	0.554	0.620	0.083	0	12	13	7	11
Os2	0.836	0.567	0.549	0.585	0.581	0.584	0.086	0.109	0	1	7	8
Zme	0.613	0.557	0.533	0.585	0.555	0.348	0.095	0.118	0.007	0	8	8
Nt1	0.646	0.551	0.500	0.521	0.548	0.534	0.042	0.084	0.064	0.081	0	4
Evi	0.685	0.593	0.589	0.642	0.554	0.288	0.164	0.190	0.111	0.113	0.065	0

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al., 1993), which is also characterized by chlorophylls *a* and *b* but is surrounded by three membranes. This feature of three envelope membranes has been interpreted as an indication of acquisition of a eukaryotic plastid (secondary endosymbiosis). The third is a plastid from a brown alga, *Odonella sinensis* (Kowallic, Stoebe et al., 1995), which is marked by chlorophylls *a* and *c* and comprises four envelope membranes. Plastids from red algae (rhodoplasts) are the fourth lineage characterized by chlorophyll *a* and phycobilin, and by unstacked thylakoids. This lineage includes *Porphyra purpurea* (Reith and Münchhoff, 1995), for which the plastid genome is completely sequenced. The last fifth is a cyanelle from *Cyanophora paradoxa* (Stirewaite, Michalowski et al., 1995). This organelle shows chlorophyll *a* and phycobilin, and unstacked thylakoids but retains a peptidoglycan wall as do cyanobacteria.

To quantitatively compare the genome structures, we first identified homologous genes between plastids on the basis of sequence data not of gene labels. The number $n_{shared}(i,j)$ of homologous genes that are found both in genome *i* and *j* is listed in the lower left of Table II. Here, we have also compiled the gene order data of a cyanobacterium *Synechocystis* sp. PCC6803 (Kaneko, Sato et al., 1996), which is believed to share an evolutionary ancestor with the plastids and is recently completely sequenced. Among a total of 3217 genes in *Synechocystis*, 246 genes have homologous counterparts in the plastid genomes. For a substantial portion (196 genes), homologous genes can be found in the red algal plastid *P. purpurea*, whereas a much smaller number of homologous genes (roughly 100) are present in the plastids from land plants. The upper right of Table II lists the number $n_{deletion}(i,j)$ of genes that are not present in either one of the genomes *i* and *j*. In the comparison between rice and maize plastids, only six genes are deleted from one of the genomes and these monocot plants form a close evolutionary relative. In the comparison between rice and tobacco plastids, however, 27 genes (mostly unidentified ORFs) are not found in either one of the genomes. This higher value would come from the monocot-dicot comparison.

Removing genes absent from the either member of the genome pair, we have computed the optimal number n_{move} of moves (inversions, transpositions and inverted transpositions) necessary to convert the gene order in one genome into the other with the DIFANGE2 program. The value of n_{move} is listed in the upper right of Table III and the lower left indicates the fraction of n_{move} to n_{shared} , i.e., $f_{move} = n_{move} / n_{shared}$. It is clear in Table III the land plant plastids show very similar gene arrangements (at most 13 moves in the comparison between the black pine *P. thunbergii* and maize 2 *Z. mays*). In contrast, 51 to 63 moves are necessary to account for the differences between the nongreen plastids. The conversions between the nongreen and green plastids are

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explained by roughly 50 recombinations. A phylogenetic tree based on the f_{move} distance is shown in Fig. 1. Here, the tree was constructed with the neighbor-joining method and was rooted by regarding *Synechocystis* as an outgroup.

Fig. 1 demonstrates that the branching order within land plants corresponds perfectly to the accepted evolutionary knowledge, with the successively deeper branchings for the angiosperms, the conifer and the moss. The plastid genome of nonphotosynthetic flowering plant *E. virginiana* shares the most recent ancestor with the common tobacco *N. tabacum*, being consistent with the sequence-level analysis (Wolfe, Morden et al., 1992b). Thus, the phylogeny within land plants can be accounted for by the rearrangement distance f_{move} . For the phylogeny of algal plastids, the present analysis shows a close relationship between the red alga *P. purpurea* and brown alga *O. sinensis*, suggesting the possibility of second endosymbiosis for the evolutionary origin of the brown alga (Gray, 1992). In the derived tree topology, a cluster of *C. vulgaris* and *E. gracilis* first diverge and then the divergence between nongreen plastids and land plastids occurs. Our preliminary analysis at the sequence level, however, shows that the divergence between nongreen and green plastids occurs first and then land plants diverge from the green alga. This inconsistency can be removed by taking account of the deletion distance $n_{deletion}$; the arrow in Fig. 1 illustrates the evolutionary position of the *C. vulgaris* and *E. gracilis* cluster for a tentative case where the distance is defined as $f_{move} + 0.5 n_{deletion} / (n_{deletion} + n_{shared})$.

In conclusion, we have illustrated that the f_{move} distance is the suitable measure for the phylogeny of land plant plastids, but we need more empirical studies for the estimation of contribution from $n_{deletion}$ to the phylogeny of distantly related genomes.

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SEPARATION AND CHARACTERIZATION OF THE MATURED PROTEINS OF ADENOVIRUS TYPE 2 VIRION

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Abstract

Adenovirus-2 virion proteins were separated by two-dimensional polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis. One hundred and forty three protein spots were characterized by both molecular masses and isoelectric points. Proteins were analyzed for their amino-terminal sequences and twenty matured proteins were identified, including seven amino-terminal modified ones.

Introduction

Adenovirus type 2 (Ad-2) is classified to the non-oncogenic group of adenoviruses. The virion consists of an icosahedral shell, known as the capsid, and the DNA-protein core complex (Nerlont, 1984). The capsid is composed of two kinds of capsomers, hexon and penton, arranged in a 5 : 3 : 2 cubic symmetry (Nerlont, 1984). A fiber projects from each penton, and the additional several minor capsid proteins are found in close association with the hexons and pentons. The core complex contains a linear double-stranded DNA molecule with 35,937 base pairs (Roberts, O'Neill *et al.*, 1984), with two terminal proteins linked covalently to both 5'-ends (Rekosh, Russell, *et al.*, 1977), and three kinds of basic core proteins. The DNA encodes an endopeptidase that plays essential role for the virion maturation and infectivity (Webct, 1976).

Two-dimensional electrophoresis (2-DE), originally developed by O'Farrell (1975), has been introduced as one of the simplest methods of separating proteins directly from organisms. Bjellqvist, Ek *et al.* (1982) developed immobilized pH gradients (IPG)