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# Complex gene families in pine genomes

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**The genome structures of extant species suggest that conifer and angiosperm genomes have evolved by different mechanisms. For example, in the evolution of the pine genome, the amplification and dispersal of genes to form complex families appears to have been especially prominent. An analysis of the structure and organization of pine gene families is critical for understanding the organization and evolution of pine genomes, and may help explain adaptation.**

Conifer genomes are remarkable for their large size. For example, haploid pine nuclei contain between 21 and 31 pg DNA<sup>1</sup>. Reassociation kinetic analysis has demonstrated the presence of repeated sequences whose copy numbers vary over a broad range<sup>2</sup>. Among the repeated sequences of pine are very high copy number sequences found in the genomes of other plants<sup>3</sup>. These include ribosomal genes<sup>4</sup> and noncoding intergenic DNA regions such as microsatellites<sup>5</sup> and retrotransposons<sup>6</sup>.

In addition to highly repeated DNA sequences, conifer genomes also contain multiple copies of sequences that hybridize to cDNA probes in Southern (DNA) hybridizations. When results for anonymous pine cDNA sequences<sup>7</sup> are compared with those for angiosperm cDNA sequences<sup>8–11</sup>, there

is evidence that amplification of gene sequences has been more active during pine genome evolution, creating numerous complex families (Table 1). Similar results are seen for a wide range of conifer genomes<sup>12</sup>.

In general, the degree of observable gene family complexity correlates with plant genome size (Table 1). The smallest and simplest genomes, which have the least repetitive DNA, include *Arabidopsis*<sup>13</sup>, rice<sup>14</sup> and tomato<sup>14</sup>. These are all angiosperms in which most proteins are encoded by simple gene families<sup>8,9,13</sup>; larger angiosperm genomes show a higher percentage of complex gene families. However, even when compared with relatively complex genomes such as that of maize<sup>11</sup>, pine genomes appear to have fewer simple gene families and more multifamily families (Table 1).



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There are two possible explanations for the Southern hybridization patterns observed for anonymous pine cDNAs. Gene families may have evolved that are composed of many members whose sequences have diverged. Alternatively, individual genes may have evolved to be large, and these contain either many introns or introns of a large size. The structure of the few conifer genes that have been characterized suggests that it is not size alone that is responsible for these complex Southern patterns. For example, an alcohol dehydrogenase gene characterized from loblolly pine (*Pinus taeda*)

Table 1. Southern hybridization patterns using anonymous cDNAs

Species	Genome size (pg haploid <sup>-1</sup> )	Low complexity (percentage with 1-3 bands)	Medium complexity (percentage with 4-10 bands)	High complexity (percentage with >10 bands)	Refs
Rice	0.45 <sup>a</sup>	66	17	17	8
Tomato	1.0 <sup>a</sup>	78	18	Not reported	9
Lettuce	2.7 <sup>a</sup>	66	34	Not reported	10
Maize	2.6 <sup>a</sup>	50	50	Not reported	11
Loblolly pine ( <i>Pinus taeda</i> )	22.0 <sup>b</sup>	27	45	28	7

<sup>a</sup>Data from Ref. 14. <sup>b</sup>Data from Ref. 1.

has nine introns, each <500 bp in size, and all are in conserved locations relative to their maize counterparts<sup>15</sup>. The independent segregation of multiple loci from many complex gene families in pine mapping populations<sup>7</sup> further supports the idea of multilocus gene families as opposed to individual large loci.

Further evidence that gene family complexity is more prominent in pines than angiosperms comes from an analysis of specific pine gene families whose putative biochemical functions have been identified (Table 2). Identification is through cDNA sequencing and sequence comparisons to public databases (<http://www.cbc.med.umn.edu>). Although some gene families are similarly complex for both angiosperms and conifers, many examples exist of genes with few copies in angiosperms<sup>16-22</sup>, but many copies in pines (Table 2).

### Mechanisms of gene amplification

Gene amplification events appear to have been frequent throughout pine evolution, and some events appear to

have occurred in recent geological time. Southern hybridizations of loblolly pine cDNAs to a variety of pine genomic DNA sequences, including the closely related species slash pine (*P. elliotii*)<sup>12</sup>, revealed five out of 30 sequence families that are more complex in the pine species other than loblolly pine (Table 3). The amplification and dispersal of gene family members might be expected to result in a significant loss of gene order between species if such mechanisms were ongoing and random as species evolved.

Evidence of stable gene order over time comes from recent mapping studies comparing loblolly pine and Monterey pine (*P. radiata*)<sup>23</sup>. Thus, the mechanisms proposed to explain the generation of complex gene families in pine must reconcile the dispersed nature of these gene families with the apparent paradox that the order of genes along pine chromosomes may be well conserved.

The comparative mapping studies of Devy *et al.*<sup>23</sup> emphasized the very similar Southern banding patterns of pine

genes, and this emphasis improved confidence that genomic locations of orthologs (the same locus in two species), and not paralogs (genes duplicated in the same species), were being compared from each pine species. However, because genes with conserved Southern patterns have highly conserved DNA sequences, it is unclear whether this conservation of gene order holds true for all genes. Southern patterns with anonymous cDNAs have revealed that many pine gene sequences are not so highly conserved<sup>12</sup>, and it is possible that genes whose sequences have diverged more may also show more divergent gene order.

The question as to whether the amplification of pine gene sequences results in functional genes or pseudogenes (or both) is also unresolved. Mechanisms that might generate complex gene families with functional members include duplications of whole genomes (polyploidy), duplications of whole chromosomes (aneuploidy), duplications of large chromosome segments or duplications of

Table 2. Highly complex pine gene families with simple angiosperm counterparts

Pine gene family identified by partial cDNA sequence	Pine Southern pattern	Angiosperm species	Angiosperm family complexity	Refs
Chaperonin 60 beta <sup>a</sup>	>10 bands <sup>b</sup>	<i>Arabidopsis</i>	Low copy number	16
Thiolase <sup>a</sup>	>10 bands <sup>b</sup>	Cucumber	Single copy	17
Elongation factor 1 $\alpha$ <sup>a</sup>	>10 bands <sup>b</sup>	Tomato	Single copy	18
Acid phosphatase <sup>a</sup>	>10 bands <sup>b</sup>	Tomato	Single copy	19
Actin-depolymerizing factor <sup>a</sup>	>10 bands <sup>b</sup>	Rape	Low copy number	20
Heat shock polypeptide HSP90 <sup>a</sup>	>10 bands <sup>b</sup>	Madagascar periwinkle ( <i>Catharanthus roseus</i> )	Single copy	21
Alcohol dehydrogenase <sup>c</sup>	>10 bands <sup>c</sup>	Maize	Two loci	22

<sup>a</sup>Data from <http://www.cbc.med.umn.edu>. <sup>b</sup>Data from Ref. 7. <sup>c</sup>Data from Ref. 30.

**Table 3. Gene family complexity differences revealed in pines using loblolly pine (*Pinus taeda*) cDNAs as probes**

Putative function or cDNA clone number	Family complexity observed in loblolly pine with loblolly pine cDNA	Family complexity observed in other pines with loblolly pine cDNA
Clone 0147 <sup>a</sup>	2–3 bands <sup>b</sup>	4–10 bands (slash pine) <sup>c</sup>
Protein kinase <sup>a</sup>	1 band <sup>b</sup>	4–10 bands (slash pine) <sup>c</sup>
Membrane protein <sup>a</sup>	4–10 bands <sup>b</sup>	>10 bands [Scots pine ( <i>Pinus sylvestris</i> )] <sup>c</sup>
Peroxidase <sup>a</sup>	4–10 bands <sup>b</sup>	>10 bands [sugar pine ( <i>Pinus lambertiana</i> )] <sup>c</sup>
Glutamine synthetase <sup>a</sup>	2–3 bands <sup>b</sup>	4–10 bands [western white pine ( <i>Pinus monticola</i> )] <sup>c</sup>

<sup>a</sup>Data from <http://www.cbc.med.umn.edu>. <sup>b</sup>Data from Ref. 7. <sup>c</sup>Data re-evaluated from Ref. 12.

small chromosome regions containing complete genes. The dispersal of genes generated by such duplications would require random crossover events, and the degree of dispersal of family members would depend upon the time at which such duplications occurred.

The duplication of whole genomes has played an important role in the evolution of angiosperm genomes, and thus in the generation of gene families in such species<sup>3</sup>. For example, maize is an ancient tetraploid, and wheat is hexaploid. Polyploidy also appears to have played an important role in the evolution of at least one group of 'primitive' vascular plants, the ferns, which have high chromosome numbers<sup>24</sup>. In contrast, pine gene families are unlikely to have arisen by duplication of either whole genomes or individual chromosomes. There is no cytogenetic evidence that pine genomes are polyploid<sup>25</sup>, and all extant pine species, of which there are more than 100, are diploid, with a diploid chromosome number of 24. Mapping data<sup>7</sup> have revealed no evidence for large duplicated linkage groups suggestive of polyploidy or aneuploidy.

The duplication of functional genes has played an important role in the generation of gene families in all higher organisms<sup>26</sup>. Duplicated genes evolve new regulatory sequences, and these provide new patterns of gene expression in different tissues at different developmental stages or in response to different environmental signals. Related but distinct protein functions are also thought to evolve from the shuffling of coding regions

from duplicated genes<sup>27</sup>. Thus, functional gene duplications have the potential strongly to influence the direction of evolution and adaptation.

The pine alcohol dehydrogenase gene family is an example of a complex pine gene family that has more functional gene family members than its angiosperm counterparts. In jack pine (*P. banksiana*), at least seven linked functional alcohol dehydrogenase loci have been identified by polymerase chain reaction amplification of mRNA from the haploid nutritive seed tissue, the megagametophyte<sup>28</sup>. The clustering of seven loci into two linked groups may reflect the occurrence of duplications at varying times during pine evolution that have not yet had time to disperse throughout the genome by random crossover events. Southern hybridizations with alcohol dehydrogenase cDNA probes reveal many more than seven bands (Table 2), and the possibility remains that some of the Southern bands result from pseudogenes.

In contrast to the duplication of genomes, chromosomes, chromosome segments or complete genes, retrotranscription of RNA molecules via reverse transcriptase provides a mechanism for generating nonfunctional gene family members that can be integrated into sites that are not linked to the original gene. There is evidence for the existence of such retropseudogenes in Norway spruce (*Picea abies*)<sup>29</sup>. Do some of the many Southern bands seen for pine alcohol dehydrogenase reflect dispersed nonfunctional copies? Will highly complex pine gene families turn

out to have both functional and pseudogene members? Because of the high copy number of retrotransposons in the genomes of extant pine species, it is tempting to invoke the mechanism of reverse transcription in the generation of complex pine gene families.

### Evolutionary significance of complex gene families

The prevalence of complex gene families in the genomes of extant pine species suggests that the evolution of conifer and angiosperm genomes has proceeded along different paths, and this raises intriguing questions. Do long-lived and slowly growing species such as pine simply tolerate the presence of gene sequence families along with highly repetitive noncoding intergenic DNA, or do such sequences have adaptive value? Before answering this question, it will be necessary to determine whether pine gene amplifications create functional or nonfunctional copies. Also, are there multiple mechanisms, some of which generate functional gene copies and others that produce nonfunctional copies? How frequently have gene amplifications occurred? If, as genetic maps suggest, dispersed gene families are a central feature of pine genome structure and evolution, how has dispersal ensued, and how have gene order and chromosome stability been maintained as new copies arise and disperse across the genome? The answers to such questions may provide interesting insights into the evolution of pine genomes and may also have implications for plant adaptation.

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