Differential evolution of the *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* DUP240 paralogs and implication of recombination in phylogeny

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ABSTRACT

Multigene families are observed in all genomes sequenced so far and are the reflection of key evolutionary mechanisms. The *DUP240* family, identified in *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* strain S288C, is composed of 10 paralogs: seven are organized as two tandem repeats and three are solo ORFs. To investigate the evolution of the three solo paralogs, YAR023c, YCR007c and YHL044w, we performed a comparative analysis between 15 *S.cerevisiae* strains. These three ORFs are present in all strains and the conservation of synteny indicates that they are not frequently involved in chromosomal reshaping, in contrast to the *DUP240* ORFs organized in tandem repeats. Our analysis of nucleotide and amino acid variations indicates that YAR023c and YHL044w fix mutations more easily than YCR007c, although they all belong to the same multigene family. This comparative analysis was also conducted with five arbitrarily chosen Ascomycetes-specific genes and five arbitrarily chosen common genes (genes that have a homolog in at least one non-Ascomycetes organism). Ascomycetes-specific genes appear to be diverging faster than common genes in the *S.cerevisiae* species, a situation that was previously described between different yeast species. Our results point to the strong contribution, during DNA sequence evolution, of allelic recombination besides nucleotide substitution.

INTRODUCTION

The longstanding view of Ohno (1) that gene duplication is one of the driving forces of evolution is frequently cited in numerous papers about genome structure, organization and evolution (2–6). Gene duplication has long been occasionally observed by classical genetics (7,8) and biochemical approaches (9,10). However, the systematic sequencing of genomes reveals that gene duplication is indeed a widespread feature of eukaryotic and prokaryotic species. The percentage of genes present in two or more copies per strain is generally reported as high: 29% for *Haemophilus influenzae* (11), 30% for *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* (12) and up to 67% for the grass *Arabidopsis thaliana* (13), to cite a few examples.

In the eukaryotic kingdom, the origin of duplicated gene copies is mostly described by three mechanisms that can act independently, successively or in combination: (i) whole genome duplication (14,15), (ii) reiterative segmental duplication (16–18), or (iii) single gene unit duplication (19). The classical mechanisms of chromosomal rearrangements such as deletions, translocations, inversions and gene fusions can break the synteny observed between duplicated chromosomes or chromosomal fragments. Consequently, knowing the genomic organization in one species is not sufficient to make conclusions about the general mechanisms involved in generating genome redundancy. On the other hand, comparative genomic studies of phylogenetically related species can be deeply informative. Thus, a study of a homogenous group of hemiascomycete yeasts (‘Génolevures’: 20) clarified the precise number of genes in the sequenced strain S288C of the *S.cerevisiae* species (21). It further allowed the distinction of two gene sets: (i) Ascomycetes-specific genes which are as yet only observed in genomes of species from this phylum; and (ii) common genes that have a homolog in at least one non-Ascomycete organism (prokaryote and/or eukaryote). This inter-species analysis also revealed that Ascomycetes-specific genes appear to be diverging faster than common genes (22). Multigene families are found in both gene sets, those belonging to the common gene set being more often functionally characterized (22). Members of the numerous Ascomycetes-specific multigene families, the most likely participants in the speciation processes, are less often characterized and need to be analyzed in more detail.

Gene families can comprise up to 20 members in the *S.cerevisiae* strain S288C (21). With few exceptions, such as the *PAU* and *OSBP* families (23,24), the large families identified by sequencing programs remain uninvestigated. One
of them, the DUP240 gene family, specific to the *Saccharomyces sensu stricto* group (25) and comprising 10 members in the S288C strain, was subject to a first round of functional analysis to gain insight into the role of the proteins that they encode (25). The specific chromosomal organization of the DUP240 ORFs is of particular interest since ORFs YAR027w, YAR028w, YAR029w, YAR031w and YAR033w are arranged as tandem repeats on chromosome I and ORFs YGL051w and YGL053w are tandemly repeated on chromosome VII. This unusual gene organization suggests that these loci could be more frequently involved in large genomic rearrangements than other parts of the yeast genome. A previous analysis of these tandem loci in 15 strains of different biological and geographical origins revealed the remarkable extent of the polymorphisms at these loci (V. Leh-Louis, B. Wirth, S. Potier, J.-L. Souciet and L. Despons, manuscript submitted for publication). In particular, they are characterized by the presence of new DUP240 paralogs and specific DNA motifs that may be the target of recombination events.

In the present work, we address the fate and evolutionary divergence of the three remaining *DUP240* ORFs, or solo ORFs, YAR023c, YCR007c and YHL044w, in *S. cerevisiae*. Using sequencing and mapping approaches on the 15 strains mentioned above, we show that synteny is conserved in all cases and that solo DUP240 ORFs do not display any polymorphisms in their organization, in contrast to the results observed previously with the tandem repeats. We also observe that the three *DUP240* paralogs are not subject to the same degree of nucleotide replacement and that some of them are diverging faster than average compared with other genes. This conclusion has been proposed on the basis of a comparative analysis performed with common and Ascomycetes-specific genes. Finally, we discuss the impact of diploidy and allelic homologous recombination on the observed nucleotide variability for the different gene sets that were analyzed.

### MATERIALS AND METHODS

#### Strains and media

The *S. cerevisiae* strains used in this study are listed in Table 1. They are homothallic, with the exception of the laboratory strains S288C and Σ1278b, which are heterothallic and haploid. Cells were grown at 30°C on YPD medium (1% yeast extract, 2% bactopeptone, 2% dextrose and 2% agar). Sporulation of diploids required overnight growth on YPD at 30°C prior to transfer onto sporulation plates (1% potassium acetate and 2% agar). Sporulation of diploids required overnight growth on YPD at 30°C prior to transfer onto sporulation plates (1% potassium acetate and 2% agar).

#### Molecular biology methods

Yeast genomic DNA was purified according to Hoffman and Winston (26). Primer sequences used for PCR amplification and sequencing were chosen on the basis of the published genomic sequence of S288C (27). DNA fragments smaller than 4 kb in size were obtained by PCR amplification using Taq DNA polymerase from Q-BIOgene. Amplification of longer fragments was achieved with the Expand Long Template PCR system (Roche). PCR conditions were those described by the manufacturers. PCR products were purified through MicroSpin™ S-400 HR columns (Amersham Pharmacia Biotech) and sequenced on one strand. The sequencing chemistry used was AmpliTaq FS DNA polymerase and BIGDYETM TM terminators (version 1). Sequence reactions were analyzed with an Applied Biosystems 373XL sequencer. When heterozygous sites were identified for diploid strains, the nucleotide sequences of both alleles were determined from genomic DNA of haploid cells obtained after sporulation, with the exception of strain CLIB410 for which no spores were obtained under our growth conditions. Sequence data have been deposited with the EMBL/GenBank Data Libraries under accession nos AJ585532–AJ585755.
Sequence analysis

Nucleic acid sequences were aligned using the PILEUP (gap penalty = 5.00; gap extension penalty = 0.30) available in UWGCG package version 8.1 (28). The proportion of synonymous substitutions per potential synonymous sites (ds) and the proportion of non-synonymous substitutions per potential non-synonymous sites (dn) were calculated by the method of Nei and Gojobori (29) using the Synonymous Non-Synonymous Analysis Program (SNAP) available at http://hiv-web.lanl.gov/content/hiv-db/SNAP/WEBSNAP/SNAP.html. Sequence alignments used as input were performed with haplotypes to take into account identified heterozygous substitutions. Two ambiguous sequence positions remained for each allele of YHL044w in the case of CLIB410. Sequence alignments were also performed with diplotypes for phylogenetic analysis. The output format MSF was translated to PHYLIP format by the CLUSTAL X (1.8) program (30). Phylogenetic analyses were performed using the PHYLIP phylogeny inference package version 3.573 (31). Distance matrices were determined with Kimura 2-parameter and the Dnadist program. Unrooted phylogenetic trees were constructed using the neighbor-joining method and the Neighbor program. The final output file was generated by TreeViewPPC (1.6.6), and the stability of the individual branches was assessed using the bootstrap method (32). The multiple sequence alignment in NEXUS format generated for each gene was used as input for SplitsTree 2.4 (33), a network analysis program appropriate for describing homoplasies that may arise from recombination events. The stability of the network was tested by bootstrap analysis.

RESULTS

Chromosomal localization and conservation of synteny for YAR023c, YCR007c and YHL044w

We adopted a systematic PCR mapping approach to determine if the three paralogs YAR023c, YCR007c and YHL044w of the DUP240 multigene family are present in the 14 tested strains (Table 1) with the same neighboring genes as seen in the S288C reference strain. The primers used corresponded to coding or non-coding sequences specifying the ORFs flanking DUP240 loci and to determine the synteny in all S.cerevisiae strains studied (the diagram is not drawn to scale). (B) Result of PCR amplification of the YHL044w locus using primers shown in (A). PCR fragments were separated by agarose electrophoresis and detected by ethidium bromide staining. The size of the PCR product obtained for S288C, used as reference, is indicated.

![Figure 1](https://example.com/figure1.png)
duplication of 76 and 46 nt, respectively, exists between YHL044w and ECM34 (Fig. 1B, lanes 9 and 10). Strain K1 was subject to further experiments to explain the lack of amplification for the YHL044w locus. It was shown by PCR mapping and Southern analysis that YHL044w is still present in the K1 strain. However, if this ORF is still linked to YHL045w on chromosome VIII, the ECM34 gene is now located on chromosome XII (data not shown). In conclusion, ORFs YAR023c, YCR007c and YHL044w identified in the S288C strain are present in the 14 other strains studied and the gene synteny of DUP240 paralogs with flanking pairs of genes is systematically recovered with the exception of the YHL044w locus for strain K1.

Identification of nucleotide variation in the coding sequence of solo DUP240 ORFs

The coding sequences of YAR023c, YCR007c and YHL044w of the 14 strains were compared with the corresponding sequences of the S288C strain. No deletion, insertion or nonsense substitutions were detected for YAR023c and YCR007c. Two events leading to changes in the length of the coding sequence were observed in YHL044w, one in strain TL229 and one in strain CLIB410. A single nucleotide deletion at position 224 in the peptide sequence of YHL044w in strain TL229 induces a frameshift that leads to a C-terminal extension of 20 extra amino acids (Fig. 2A). This deletion was identified on both chromosomes VIII of the diploid strain TL229. In strain CLIB410, a heterozygous situation is found, with a nonsense codon at position 98 in YHL044w on one of the two chromosomes VIII (Fig. 2A). All other observed mutations in YHL044w correspond to single nucleotide replacements. Therefore, nucleotide changes in the coding sequences of ORFs YAR023c, YCR007c and YHL044w are mainly nucleotide substitutions, whereas changes in flanking intergenic regions are frequently sequence deletion or duplication.

Differential evolution between YAR023c, YCR007c and YHL044w

Our first goal was to assess whether the frequency and nature of observed nucleotide replacements were comparable among the three paralogs YAR023c, YCR007c and YHL044w. Secondly, we analyzed the corresponding values with regard to what could be expected for genes belonging to the Ascomycetes-specific gene class (22), since the DUP240 ORFs have not so far been identified in genomes of other classes of fungi and are probably restricted to the Saccharomyces sensu stricto group (25). Nucleotide divergence among S.cerevisiae strains is still poorly documented and could be subject to considerable variation depending on the origin and history of a given strain. We therefore decided to determine, for these 15 strains, the nucleotide polymorphism in the coding sequences of genes belonging to the common and to the Ascomycetes-specific gene sets. Five Ascomycetes-specific genes and five common genes were selected arbitrarily and submitted to sequencing after PCR amplification. The 10 genes sequenced in the 14 strains, and in strain S288C as a control, are listed in Table 2. Criteria used for selecting these genes were: (i) each of them is present in only one copy in the S288C genome; (ii) they share a coding
therefore seem more stringent than for PEA2, being homozygous). Evolutionary constraints for them being non-synonymous substitutions (15 positions, 14 of the Nei and Gojobori method). Strikingly, the values of ds/dn for potential substitution sites were not taken into account as in the Ascomycetes-specific gene set. Sequence alignment revealed seven variable positions, and amino acid levels, as illustrated by the dn values for these two gene sets do not seem to reflect the species of the hemiascomycetous class (22). Furthermore, the ds/dn ratio between synonymous substitutions per potential synonymous sites and non-synonymous substitutions per potential non-synonymous sites (ds/dn) using the method described by Nei and Gojobori (29). As shown in Table 3, none of the ds/dn values obtained for the selected genes and for the DUP240 paralogs was smaller than 1, indicating that they are subject to negative selection for mutation. The smallest ds/dn values were obtained for DUP240 paralogs YAR023c and YHL044w, suggesting that they could evolve more rapidly than other genes, including those belonging to the Ascomycetes-specific gene set. In contrast, the value of ds/dn for YCR007c was twice that obtained for YAR023c and YHL044w and comparable to that of reference genes (common and Ascomycetes-specific genes). Thus, the three solo DUP240 ORFs seem to evolve with different evolutionary constraints even though they are part of the same multigene family. For YAR023c and YHL044w, and in contrast to what was previously demonstrated for different species of the hemiascomycetous class (22), the ds/dn values for these two gene sets do not seem to reflect the results from sequence alignments observed at the nucleotide and amino acid levels, as illustrated by SEC53 and PEA2 genes. SEC53 is an essential conserved gene belonging to the common gene set. Sequence alignment revealed seven variable sites for 765 nt, only two of them being heterozygous and non-synonymous. In contrast, there are 32 variable positions for the Ascomycetes-specific gene PEA2 (1263 nt), half of them being non-synonymous substitutions (15 positions, 14 of them homozygous). Evolutionary constraints for SEC53 therefore seem more stringent than for PEA2 (although potential substitution sites were not taken into account as in the Nei and Gojobori method). Strikingly, the values of ds/dn indicate the opposite trend. This discrepancy is probably due to the fact that very few mutations affect the sequences of the investigated genes. Indeed, the nucleotide variability is analyzed at the intra-species level and we observe that the percentage of nucleotide identity between two strains is always higher than 98%. Therefore, we focused on the variable nucleotide positions (VP) to analyze our highly similar sequences. The VP value corresponds to the sum of all positions in the sequence where there is a nucleotide substitution in one or both alleles of a gene for at least one of the 15 yeast strains (14 studied strains and strain S288C). Deletions or insertions were not considered. The indicated value is normalized for a theoretical gene size of 100 nt and was obtained by (number of mutated positions × 100) / size of the gene), allowing a direct comparison of all studied genes irrespective of their size.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Classification</th>
<th>ORF</th>
<th>Gene</th>
<th>Size (bp)</th>
<th>Biological processa</th>
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<tr>
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<tr>
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<td></td>
<td>YHL044w&lt;sup&gt;b&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
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<td>708</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Ascomycetes specific</td>
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<td>CWP1</td>
<td>735</td>
<td>Cell wall organization and biogenesis</td>
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<td></td>
<td>VBR040w</td>
<td>FIG1</td>
<td>897</td>
<td>Mating</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>YEL009c</td>
<td>GCN4</td>
<td>846</td>
<td>Amino acid biosynthesis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>YER149c</td>
<td>PEA2</td>
<td>1263</td>
<td>Cytoskeleton organization during mating</td>
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<td></td>
<td>YFL026w</td>
<td>STE2</td>
<td>1296</td>
<td>Pheromone response</td>
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<td>YFL045c</td>
<td>SEC53</td>
<td>765</td>
<td>Phosphomannomutase, essential gene</td>
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<td></td>
<td>YOR202w</td>
<td>HIS3</td>
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<td>Histidine biosynthesis</td>
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<td>YDR392w</td>
<td>SPT3</td>
<td>1014</td>
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<td>YDR007w</td>
<td>TRP1</td>
<td>675</td>
<td>Tryptophan biosynthesis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>YKL216w</td>
<td>URA1</td>
<td>945</td>
<td>Pyrimidine base biosynthesis</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<sup>a</sup>From Saccharomyces Genome Database.

<sup>b</sup>Belongs to the DUP240 multigene family.

<p>| Table 3. Fixed mutations and effects on protein sequence |
|-----------------|------|-----------------|</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ORF/gene</th>
<th>ds/dn&lt;sup&gt;a&lt;/sup&gt;</th>
<th>Variable positions (%)&lt;sup&gt;b&lt;/sup&gt;</th>
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<tr>
<td>DUP240 multigene family</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>YAR023c</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>YCR007c</td>
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<td>1.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>YHL044w</td>
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<tr>
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<tr>
<td>CWP1</td>
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<tr>
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<tr>
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<td>TRP1</td>
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<td>0.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>URA1</td>
<td>28.0</td>
<td>1.7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<sup>a</sup>Ratio between synonymous substitutions per potential synonymous sites and non-synonymous substitutions per potential non-synonymous sites calculated using the SNAP program (http://hiv-web.lanl.gov/content/hiv-db/SNAP/WEBSNAP/SNAP.html).

<sup>b</sup>Correspond to the sum of all positions in the sequence where there is a nucleotide substitution in one or both alleles of a gene for at least one of the 15 yeast strains (14 studied strains and strain S288C). Deletions or insertions were not considered. The indicated value is normalized for a theoretical gene size of 100 nt and was obtained by (number of mutated positions × 100) / size of the gene), allowing a direct comparison of all studied genes irrespective of their size.
encountered in our analysis). As an example, all variable positions identified in YHL044w are shown in Figure 2A. Analysis of obtained VP values (Table 3) confirms that ORFs YAR023c and YHL044w fix mutations more easily than other genes since their VP values (3.0 and 3.5, respectively) are twice those of common genes and higher than that of Ascomycetes-specific genes. Furthermore, this analysis allows us to distinguish Ascomycetes-specific genes from common genes.

Implication of different evolutionary constraints and recombination events for phylogenetic relationships

We have demonstrated that the three gene sets, common, Ascomycetes-specific and DUP240, are subject to different pressures for nucleotide replacement. Therefore, it is interesting to evaluate the impact of this factor on phylogenetic analyses of these data. To this end, all coding sequences of genes that belong to the same set were fused to generate a unique sequence per strain. Genes were fused following an arbitrary but identical order for all the strains. Subsequent sequence comparisons were performed using PILEUP, CLUSTAL X and PHYLIP. The same approach was also used for the DUP240 set since the number of nucleotide replacements observed for YCR007c and the two other DUP240 paralogs (YAR023c and YHL044w) shows clear differences. In this case, identical dendrograms were obtained using a reconstruction either with YAR023c, YCR007c and YHL044w, or with YAR023c and YHL044w only (data not shown). Therefore, differences in nucleotide replacements within the DUP240 family have only minor effects on the determination of phylogenetic relationships among the S.cerevisiae strains that were investigated. On the other hand, the three gene-class specific dendrograms all differ (Fig. 3). Indeed, comparison between dendrograms obtained for the DUP240 ORFs (Fig. 3A) and the common gene set (Fig. 3B) shows that strains CLIB382 and CLIB388 are closely related to each other in the phylogeny established for common genes, whereas they appear to have a different ancestor in the DUP240 dendrogram (Fig. 3). This type of inconsistency is also observed for YIIc12 and YIIc17 strains. Nevertheless, phylogenetic relationships between strains are otherwise identical in both trees. We note in particular the close relationships between CLIB410, CLIB413 and CLIB219, between the two laboratory strains S288C and Σ1278b and between R12, R13, K1 and CLIB95, which presumably reflect common origins (Table 1). Indeed, R12, R13 and CLIB95 have been isolated from grapes or wine from eastern France, and CLIB410 and CLIB413 from fermented rice. Some inconsistencies are also observed in the case of the dendrogram generated for Ascomycetes-specific genes (Fig. 3C). For example, the two strains CLIB410 and CLIB413 are closer to the strain Σ1278b than to CLIB219 (Fig. 3A and B). In conclusion, comparative analysis of dendrograms generated per class of genes indicates that the phylogenetic relationships between strains can be influenced by differential selective pressure.

However, in our analysis we cannot exclude that the inconsistencies observed between trees are not due to another phenomena, combined or not with substitution events. Notably, most of the yeast strains tested are diploid, which constitutes a propitious situation for allelic homologous recombination events. The effect of recombination would be to generate discrepancies between strictly bifurcating evolutionary trees (34,35) since establishing relationships between strains requires networks of sequences (represented by a polygon) as described in Figure 4. To determine if recombination events are likely to have taken place in the studied genes, the sequence alignments obtained for each gene were subject to a SplitsTree decomposition, a method which depicts all the shortest pathways linking sequences, including those that produce an interconnected network (33). As shown in Figure 4 for YHL044w (A), URA1 (B) and PEA2 (C), some relationships between strains are indeed best described by polygons, suggesting that recombination events between different alleles could explain part of the observed nucleotide variation. Similar results were obtained for YAR023c and FIG1 (data not shown). URA1, YAR023c, YHL044w, PEA2 and FIG1 are located on chromosomes XI, I, VIII, V and II, respectively, and belong either to the common genes, the Ascomycetes-specific genes or the DUP240 ORFs. Thus, recombination events appear to be independent of the chromosomal position and affect all three gene sets.

Two strains, YIIc12 and YIIc17, exhibit an unusual level of heterozygosity at the variable positions identified. Numerous heterozygous positions have been found for six genes in YIIc12 (YHL044w, TRP1, PEA2, SPT3, FIG1 and GCN4) and five genes in YIIc17 (YHL044w, TRP1, HIS3, FIG1 and GCN4), located on different chromosomes and belonging to all three classes. In the case of YHL044w in strains YIIc12 and YIIc17, nine of the 15 variable positions identified are in a heterozygous state (Fig. 2A and B). The sequence of each allele was therefore determined after induction of sporulation of diploids. For both strains, tetrad analysis indicated that one allele is strictly identical to the one present in R13, the second being very similar to the one of CLIB388 with only two non-equivalent positions (Fig. 2B). More generally, whenever heterozygous positions were detected, the sequence determined for each allele was identical or very close to the one present in a homoyzogous state in another strain studied. The probability of generating such a situation of homoplasy by independent mutations is very low. They are likely the result of mating of two haploid cells that display different allele combinations. Again, the more adequate way for describing the phylogenetic relationships among the S.cerevisiae tested strains is the network diagram. Taken together, our phylogenetic analyses clearly demonstrate that nucleotide variability arises from two distinct mechanisms involved in genome dynamics and evolution: single nucleotide substitution, and mating and subsequent allelic recombination events.

DISCUSSION

Systematic sequencing of genomes has revealed the importance of gene duplication among the eukaryotic kingdom (3,36). Gene amplification generating paralogous gene copies appears to be one of the driving forces for genome evolution and for enhancement of functional diversity. The homogeneous group of Hemiascomycetes yeast species, with their compact genomes, constitutes a good model for deciphering, by comparative genomics, the molecular mechanisms underlying duplication events (20). The availability of a large variety of well characterized strains of species belonging to
this group also offers the opportunity to estimate the intra-species evolution of genomes. In the present study, we addressed the intra-species variability of genes and more specifically the evolution of duplicated copies by a comparative analysis of solo DUP240 ORFs in 15 *S. cerevisiae* strains.

Our investigation shows that the three DUP240 paralogs YAR023c, YCR007c and YHL044w are present in all strains tested. With only one exception (strain K1), the solo copies of the DUP240 family were identified at the same loci as those described in the reference strain S288C and are flanked by the same neighboring genes identical in directions of transcription. Conservation of synteny indicates that the corresponding loci are not frequently involved in chromosomal reshaping events. These results contrast with the previous analysis performed with the DUP240 tandem repeats and conducted with the same 15 *S. cerevisiae* strains (V. Leh-Louis, B. Wirth, S. Potier, J.-L. Souciet and L. Despons, manuscript submitted for publication). This latter study clearly showed that the number of paralogs per strain is subject to important variations, with the appearance of new paralogs and the

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**Figure 3.** Phylogenetic relationships between strains obtained for solo DUP240 ORFs (A), the common gene set (B) and the Ascomycetes-specific gene set (C), using the PHYLIP phylogeny inference package. Phylogenetic reconstructions (unrooted trees) were performed with diplotype except for three strains: S288C and Σ1278b that are haploid and TL229 in the case of the Ascomycetes-specific gene set, where sequences of both alleles were used due to a 15 nt insertion in one allele of the CWP1 gene. This does not affect phylogenetic relationships between strains since TL229 all1 and all2 are linked together. Bootstrap values for 100 replicates are indicated.
Figure 4. Examples of SplitsTree decomposition, obtained for YHL044w (A), URA1 (B) and PEA2 (C) that belong to the DUP240, common and Ascomycetes-specific gene sets, respectively. All networks generated have a fit of 100 (34). Bootstrap values for 100 replicates are indicated. In each case, polygon(s) are obtained suggesting that some of the nucleotide variations are not only due to point mutations but also to recombination events. For instance, in the case of URA1 (B), a, b, c and d, each located at one apex of the polygon, represent the gene sequence of the ancestor strains. Parallel edges of the polygon indicate homoplasies, i.e. identical mutations present in different genomes. Thus, the same two nucleotide substitutions separate a from b and d from c. Similarly, one identical mutation differentiates a from d and b from c. Therefore, three point mutations separate a from c. If we suppose that c stems from a, three paths are possible to generate c: a → b → c or a → d → c, both involving three substitution events, or a → b and a → d followed by a recombination event between b and d. This latter situation seems the most parsimonious solution, even if it cannot be excluded that the resulting identical mutations arise from independent substitution events in the different genomes.
absence of others. Therefore, the **DUP240** family undergoes expansion and contraction of the number of paralogous genes within the *S.cerevisiae* species. This situation also holds true at the inter-species level since preliminary BLAST searches against recently available genome sequences of *Saccharomyces sensu stricto* failed to allow us to identify all **DUP240** orthologs.

Systematic sequencing of the coding sequences of five common genes and five Ascomycetes-specific genes represents a first attempt to compare the nucleotide variability between these two gene sets in the *S.cerevisiae* species. Taking into account the number of variable positions, the Ascomycetes-specific genes show divergence faster than the common genes. Therefore, the situation at the intra-species level reflects that observed previously between different species of yeast (22). Using these data for common and Ascomycetes-specific gene sets, it is now possible to appreciate the level of nucleotide replacement for genes belonging to a defined multigene family within the *S.cerevisiae* group. For instance, the number of variable positions for YCR007c is similar to that of common genes, while values obtained for YAR023c and YHL044w are superior to all others. This discrepancy between the three paralogs has also been demonstrated by an analysis at the protein level (ds/dn) and confirms that different evolutionary constraints are operative. These results illustrate one aspect of the gene catalog enhancement. In some cases, gene amplification and sequence conservation in both copies are linked to regulation of the level of protein required, as observed for some ribosomal proteins in various organisms (39). In other cases, selection pressure maintains the same structure and function for duplicated copies, but may allow specialization, such as modulation of transcription level, subcellular localization or substrate specificity (40,41).

Finally, sequence divergence of one of the duplicated copies may allow the emergence of new functions. This last possibility probably applies to solo **DUP240** ORFs since they are subject to different selection pressures. This situation seems at first paradoxical because it indicates that genes belonging to the same family could be subject to different evolution pressures, but is in accordance with the experimental results obtained for the **DUP240** ORF products. Poirey et al. (25) demonstrated that, depending on the paralog, **DUP240** gene products could have different cellular localizations and different types of protein–protein interactions, suggesting that they have different functions. As the **DUP240** ORFs are as yet only found in the *Saccharomyces sensu stricto* group, their associated functions are probably species (or group) specific and may be linked to the speciation process applied to this group (42,43).

Finally, we underscore the important role of allelic homologous recombination in addition to that of nucleotide substitution, in the process of DNA sequence evolution. *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* has a diploid life style in nature, unlike numerous other yeast species and the vast majority of fungi. Analysis of nucleotide replacements at this diploid level reveals that heterozygosity is frequently found at various loci, a genome feature rarely observed with laboratory strains since they are very often homozygous. The trace of possible allelic recombination has been observed for at least five of the tested loci, irrespective of the gene set they belong to. In this situation, the phylogenetic history of the corresponding ORFs in the *S.cerevisiae* species, is more adequately represented by a network than by a bifurcating tree. The impact of recombination events on nucleotide variability has already been reported for viruses (44,45) as well as for eukaryotic cells using the CMH gene complex (46).

In conclusion, this study provides evidence that paralogs of a multigene family can show different evolutionary pathways. If ectopic non-homologous and homologous recombinations have a great impact on the birth-and-death of tandemly repeated **DUP240** ORFs (V. Leh-Louis, B. Wirth, S. Potier, J.-L. Souciet and L. Desponts, manuscript submitted for publication), here we observed another aspect of the enhancement of protein diversity through the effect of allelic recombinations. Our results provide new insights into the evolution of duplicated copies for ORFs that are present in a limited group of species. Such ORFs are probably involved in some aspects of the speciation mechanism in the *Saccharomyces sensu stricto* group.

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