
**Exploring the *rns* gene landscape in ophiostomatoid fungi and related
taxa: Molecular characterization of mobile genetic elements and
biochemical characterization of intron-encoded homing endonucleases.**

By

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ABSTRACT

The mitochondrial small-subunit ribosomal RNA (mt. SSU rRNA = *rns*) gene appears to be a reservoir for a number of group I and II introns along with the intron-encoded proteins (IEPs) such as homing endonucleases (HEases) and reverse transcriptases. The key objective for this thesis was to examine the *rns* gene among different groups of ophiostomatoid fungi for the presence of introns and IEPs. Overall the distribution of the introns does not appear to follow evolutionary lineages suggesting the possibility of rare horizontal gains and frequent losses. Some of the novel findings of this work were the discovery of a twintron complex inserted at position S1247 within the *rns* gene, here a group IIA1 intron invaded the ORF embedded within a group IC2 intron. Another new element was discovered within strains of *Ophiostoma minus* where a group II introns has inserted at the *rns* position S379; the mS379 intron represents the first mitochondrial group II intron that has an RT-ORF encoded outside Domain IV and it is the first intron reported to at position S379.

The *rns* gene of *O. minus* WIN(M)371 was found to be interrupted with a group IC2 intron at position mS569 and a group IIB1 intron at position mS952 and they both encode double motif LAGLIDADG HEases referred as I-OmiI and I-OmiII respectively. These IEPs were examined in more detail to evaluate if these proteins represent functional HEases. To express I-OmiI and I-OmiII in *Escherichia. coli*, a codon-optimized versions of I-OmiI and I-OmiII sequences were synthesized based on

differences between the fungal mitochondrial and bacterial genetic code. The optimized I-OmiI and I-OmiII sequences were cloned in the pET200/D TOPO expression vector system and transformed into *E. coli* BL21 (DE3). These two proteins were biochemically characterized and the results showed that: both I-OmiI and I-OmiII are functional HEases. Detailed data for I-OmiII showed that this endonuclease cleaves the target site two nucleotides upstream of the intron insertion site generating 4 nucleotide 3'overhangs.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

BLAST: Basic Local Alignment Search Tool

coll: colony type gene

cp: chloroplast

CTAB: Cetyl Trimethyl Ammonium Bromide

cu: *cerato-ulmi* gene

DED: Dutch Elm Disease

EBS: Exon Binding Site

EF-1 α : Elongation Factor 1 alpha

ENase: Endonuclease

EtBr: Ethidium Bromide

ETS: External Transcribed Spacer

HEase: Homing Endonuclease

HEG: Homing Endonuclease Gene

IBS: Intron Binding Site

IEP: Intron-Encoded Protein

IGS: Internal Guide Sequence

IPTG: Isopropyl β -D-1-thiogalactopyranoside

IS: Insertion Site

ITS: Internal Transcribed Spacer

LB: Luria Bertani

LHEase: LAGLIDADG Homing Endonuclease

LSU: Large Subunit

LSU rRNA: Large Subunit ribosomal RNA

MEA: Malt Extract Agar

MPB: Mountain Pine Beetles

mRNA: messenger RNA

mt: mitochondrial

mtDNA: mitochondrial DNA

NCBI: National Center for Biotechnology Information

NHEJ: Non-Homologous End Joining

nt: nucleotide

ORF: Open Reading Frame

PCR: Polymerase Chain Reaction

PYG: Peptone Yeast extract Glucose

REase: Restriction Endonuclease

RFLP: Restriction Fragment Length Polymorphisms

***rnl*: mitochondrial large subunit ribosomal RNA gene**

RNP: Ribonucleoprotein

***rns*: mitochondrial small subunit ribosomal RNA gene**

rRNA: ribosomal RNA

RT: Reverse Transcriptase

RT-PCR: Reverse Transcription Polymerase Chain Reaction

SDS: Sodium Dodecyl Sulphate

SOC: Super Optimal broth with Catabolite repression

SSU: Small Subunit

SSU rRNA: Small Subunit ribosomal RNA

TBE: Tris-Borate EDTA

TE buffer: Tris-EDTA buffer

TPRT: Target DNA-Primed Reverse Transcription

tRNA: transfer RNA

UV: Ultra Violet

YE: Yeast Extract

2X-YT: 2X Yeast extract Tryptone

GENERAL INTRODUCTION

Fungi are one of the most important groups of organisms on this planet. Fungi are involved in beneficial processes as they act: as decomposers and thus recycling the dead materials into reusable forms; as symbionts in mycorrhizal and lichen associations; as sources of medical and chemical materials like antibiotics and organic acids as well as biocontrol agents that control insect pests and other plant pathogens. Some fungi are used in food production (yeasts) and certain fungi are edible (mushrooms, morels and truffles). Many fungi (*Saccharomyces cerevisiae*, *Neurospora crassa* and *Podospora anserina*) have been used extensively as model systems to understand the principles of genetics. On the other hand, fungi can cause harmful effects; a number of fungi are considered pathogenic and cause diseases to humans, animals and plants and fungi play an important role in food spoilage.

Ophiostomatoid fungi are ascomycetous fungi, and some members of this group are aggressive pathogens and cause diseases of economically important trees like Dutch Elm Diseases (DED) that has devastated many urban forests. The causative agents of DED are *O. ulmi* (Buism.) Nannf., and subspecies of *O. novo-ulmi* Brasier. Historically there have been two epidemics of DED, the first caused by *O. ulmi* and the current pandemic of this disease that is caused by *O. novo-ulmi*. The ophiostomatoid fungi also contain members (like *O. minus*) that cause a blue-staining in the wood of infected trees. Taxonomically this group of fungi is quite complex and several genera are currently designated to as ophiostomatoid fungi (see Hausner et al., 2003; Zipfel et al., 2006). Typically these fungi produce short-lived asci causing the release of the ascospores

(meiotic spores) from the perithecia and the ascospores “ooze” or are pushed out through the ostiole of usually long necked perithecia. This essentially causes sticky spore masses (droplets) to accumulate at the tip of the perithecial neck and these spores are vectored by insects such as bark beetles. Overall this group of fungi has been poorly studied with regards to their mitochondrial genomes.

Mitochondrial genomes are highly variable in size (16 – 250 kb; Palmer, 1990; Boore, 1999). The size of fungal mitochondrial DNA (mtDNA) varies greatly (19 – 175 kb; Hausner, 2003) due to intergenic spacers and the presence of self-splicing group I and II introns as well as intron encoded proteins (IEPs) (Michel and Ferat, 1995; Hausner, 2012). Self-splicing introns are autocatalytic genetic elements that can catalyze their removal from the primary RNA transcripts to allow for efficient gene expression. These self-splicing introns can be differentiated by their splicing mechanisms and secondary and tertiary RNA structures into group I and group II introns (Michel and Westhof, 1990; Michel and Ferat, 1995; Bonen and Vogel, 2001; Federova and Zingler, 2007). Both types of introns are considered ribozymes (Saldanah et al., 1993; Belfort et al., 2002); however splicing is assisted by intron and host genome encoded maturases/splicing factors (Hausner, 2003 & 2012). Self-splicing introns are widespread in the organellar genomes of plant, fungi and algae as well as bacterial genomes (Lambowitz and Zimmerly, 2004 & 2011; Hausner, 2003 & 2012). Overall very little is known about the types of introns that are present within the mtDNA or nuclear rDNA of ophiostomatoid fungi. These introns might be potential taxonomic markers or could be agents that cause genetic instabilities, as recently observed for an *rns* group II intron in *Cryphonectria*

parasitica (Baidyaroy et al., 2011). Therefore, cataloging the types of introns present among these fungi might be a valuable resource in future studies.

HEases are encoded by Homing Endonuclease Genes (HEG) which are embedded within group I introns, group II introns and archael introns, as well as inteins (Stoddard, 2006). Homing endonucleases can be classified into four major distinct families based on conserved amino acid motifs: LAGLIDADG, H-N-H, His-Cys Box, and GIY-YIG (Belfort et al., 2002; Kowalski and Derbyshire, 2002; Stoddard, 2006). Recently additional HEases have been discovered: PD-(D/E)XK (Zhao et al., 2007); vsr endonucleases (Dassa et al., 2009); Holliday junction resolvase-like (Zeng et al., 2009) and the EDxHD family (Taylor et al., 2011). The LAGLIDADG and GIY-YIG families of HEases are most frequently encountered among fungal mitochondrial group I introns (Stoddard, 2006). Typically, group II introns usually encode multifunctional proteins known as reverse transcriptases (RTs). Some group II introns have been noted to encode H-N-H-type HEases or in a few instances LAGLIDADG-type HEases (LHEases) (Michel and Ferat, 1995; Toor and Zimmerly, 2002; Mullineux et al., 2010).

Fungal mitochondrial genomes can be considered a natural reservoir for mobile elements (group I and group II) as well as IEPs (HEases and RTs). Studying the fungal mtDNA will improve our understanding of the evolutionary dynamics of these mobile elements and the potential impact these elements have had on the evolution of the fungal mtDNA (Dujon, 1989; Charter et al., 1996; Belcour et al., 1997; Salvo et al., 1998; Hamari et al., 1999; Gobbi et al., 2003). Group I and II introns have been associated with

mtDNA instabilities such as generating plasmid-like elements that are found in senescent and/or hypovirulent strains in an assortment of filamentous fungi such as *Podospira anserina* (Osiewacz and Esser, 1984; Michel and Cummings, 1985; Cummings et al., 1986; Dujon and Belcour, 1989; Cummings et al., 1990), *Ophiostoma novo-ulmi* (Abu-Amero et al., 1995; Sethuraman et al., 2008) and *Cryphonectria parasitica* (Monteiro-Vitorello et al., 2009; Baidyaroy et al., 2011).

Although mtDNA mobile elements, such as the self-splicing introns and their encoded proteins, are of interest as model systems for understanding how mobile elements can shape genomes and how mobile elements are essentially neutral elements to avoid extinction, these elements are also of interest due to their applications in biotechnology. Ribozymes and DNA cutting enzymes have many potential applications in molecular biology; therefore bioprospecting for functional native HEases within the fungal mtDNA can be fruitful work to characterize rare cutting HEases that can be used to manipulate genomes in medical and agricultural systems.

CHAPTER 1:
LITERATURE REVIEW

1.1. Ophiostomatoid fungi:

Ophiostomatoid fungi are a group of ascomycetous fungi (Sordariomycetes, Ophiostomatales, Ophiostomataceae) that often can be characterized by possessing long-necked perithecia that contain scattered evanescent (short-lived) asci. Historically these fungi were assigned into two genera: *Ophiostoma* and *Ceratocystis* (Upadhyay, 1981; reviewed in Hausner et al., 1993a). Recently additional genera have been recognized to accommodate this very diverse group of fungi (Zipfel et al., 2006). The asci are short lived and the ascospores are pushed out of the perithecial neck in the form of slimy spore droplets. These fungi produce asexual spores in either an enteroblastic (*Ophiostoma*) or holoblastic (*Ceratocystis*) fashion, again in many instances slimy masses of spores are produced at the tip of sometimes long stalked conidiophores. Overall both mitotic and meiotic spores are produced in a manner that facilitates spore dispersal by insects. The genus *Ophiostoma* contains both plant pathogens such as DED causative agents (*Ophiostoma ulmi*) and blue stain fungi like *Ophiostoma piliferum* and *Ophiostoma minus*. The majority of the ophiostomatoid fungi (including species of the following genera: *Ophiostoma*, *Grosmannia*, *Ceratocystiopsis* and *Ceratocystis*) are transmitted with the help of bark beetles (Coleoptera: Scolytidae) and this association between the fungus and the beetle is important for both partners in establishing diseases and in generating “blue-staining” of timber (Wingfield et al., 1993; Kirisits, 2004). Several phylogenetic studies based on rDNA sequence analysis showed that the two “classical”

genera of ophiostomatoid fungi, *Ophiostoma* and *Ceratocystis*, have polyphyletic origins with species of *Ophiostoma sensu lato*. They are assigned to the Ophiostomales, and species of *Ceratocystis* show affinities within the Order of the Microascales (Hausner et al., 1993a; Spatafora and Blackwell, 1994), and generally it was found that genera belonging to the ophiostomatoid fungi share morphological characteristics that are due to convergent evolution (Zipfel et al., 2006). The concept of *Ophiostoma* has also been revised and species that used to be accommodated within *Ophiostoma sensu lato* are now placed into *Grosmannia*, *Ceratocystiopsis*, and a more narrowly defined concept of *Ophiostoma* (see Zipfel et al., 2006). Features used to segregate fungi into these genera are the type of conidial (asexual) structures produced and the shape of the ascospores.

1.2. Dutch elm disease and blue-stain fungi:

Some ophiostomatoid fungi are aggressive pathogens of economically important tree species like conifers, elm and oak, while some others are causative agents of blue (sap) stain for conifers and hardwood trees (Upadhyay, 1993; Wingfield et al., 1993). Dutch elm disease is a fungal disease that affects all common forms of elm species but it has its most serious effects on *Ulmus americana*, i.e. the American Elm. The causative agents of DED are several species of ascomycetous microfungi and these are fungi transmitted with the help of bark beetles. Three DED causing species are now recognized: *Ophiostoma ulmi*, which afflicted Europe and North America during the first half of the 20th century; the second species is the more virulent species *Ophiostoma novo-ulmi*, which was first described in Europe and North America in the 1940s and has devastated elms in both areas since the late 1960s; and the third species *Ophiostoma himal-ulmi*, a species endemic to the western Himalayas. These fungi infect the sap wood

of the tree and eventually they block the conductive tissue of the elm tree, thus preventing the flow of nutrients and water, thereby killing the tree. The disease, depending on environmental conditions, can destroy a tree in as little as 3 weeks or it can take as long as 3 years (Brasier, 1979; Hintz et al., 1993; Brasier and Kirk, 2001).

Blue-stain is a discoloration observed in the wood of infected trees (i.e. pine and elm) caused by a variety of fungi, such as the ophiostomatoid fungi including species of *Ophiostoma*, *Ceratocystis*, *Pesotum* and *Leptographium* (the latter two are anamorphic states of some *Ophiostoma* species; Kirisits, 2004). Blue-stain fungi are pioneer organisms that can metabolize the simple carbohydrate compounds, fatty acids, triglycerides and other chemical compositors found in xylem vessels of the sap wood (Harrington et al., 1998; Jacobs and Wingfield, 2001). These stains are also referred to as sap stains, because the fungi affect sapwood regions of trees where food and oxygen are readily available. Blue-stain can greatly reduce the value of the wood. Millions of dollars are lost every year due to blue staining of the wood and timber products. The cause of the stain is due to the production of melanin granules within the fungal hyphal cell walls (Zink and Fengel, 1989 & 1990). Some blue-stain fungi are relatively pathogenic and they can kill mature host trees in the absence of their bark beetle vectors; other blue-stain fungi appear to work with their insect partner on causing disease symptoms. Some blue-stain-fungi are associated with Mountain Pine Beetles (MPBs) and when these beetles attack their primary host trees the beetle release pheromones to attract other beetles to colonize this tree (Gara et al., 1984). The sharp mouthparts of the adult MPB are ideally suited for boring through the bark to make long, vertical galleries where the eggs are laid.

The spores of blue-stain fungi are carried in these mouth parts as well as on the insect's body. Blue-stain fungal spores clog up the water-conducting vessels (xylem) of the tree; in addition, the insect larvae disrupt the phloem layer. By disrupting both the xylem and phloem of pine trees, the MPB larvae and their accompanying blue-stain fungi make a deadly combination (Christiansen, 1985; Malloch and Blackwell, 1993).

O. minus is an economically important species because it is a serious agent of blue-stain of pine trees. *O. minus sensu lato* probably represents a species complex (Gorton et al., 2004) characterized by perithecia with relatively short necks; this fungus is commonly associated with the southern pine beetle *Dendroctonus frontalis* in North America, whilst in Europe it is frequently associated with the beetle vector *Tomicus piniperda* (Klepzing, 1998).

1.3. Fungal mitochondrial genome:

Mitochondrial DNA (mtDNA) is the DNA located in mitochondria of eukaryotes which contains essential protein coding genes for oxidative phosphorylation as well as components needed for translation such as transfer RNA (tRNA) and ribosomal RNA (rRNA) genes. Comparative sequence analysis showed that nuclear and mtDNA in eukaryotes are thought to have different evolutionary origins and based on the endosymbiotic theory (first introduced by Mereschkowsky in 1905 and later developed and popularized by Margulis in 1970). Certain eukaryotic organelles might have been derived from free living bacteria that were taken inside a protoeukaryotic cell as endosymbionts. In general, it has been accepted that mitochondria developed from an

alpha-proteobacteria endosymbiont (reviewed in Emelyanov, 2001; Gray et al., 2001; Hausner, 2012).

Generally, we can classify the mitochondrial genes into four main groups as follows, (1) 11 genes encoding the subunits of the respiratory chain [*cox1*, *cox2* and *cox3*: encoding subunits of the cytochrome oxidase; *nad1*, *nad2*, *nad3*, *nad4*, *nad4L*, *nad4* and *nad6* encoding subunits of the NADH dehydrogenase and *cyb* encoding cytochrome b], (2) 3 genes encoding subunits of the ATP synthase [*atp6*, *atp8* and *atp9*], (3) 2 rRNA genes; the small subunit ribosomal RNA [mt SSU rRNA also known as *rns*] gene and the mitochondrial large subunit ribosomal RNA [mt LSU rRNA also known as *rnl*] gene. A complete set of tRNA genes are also present; however in some cases only few a tRNA genes are encoded within the mtDNA and the remainder of tRNA are encoded within the nuclear genome and tRNAs have to be imported into the mitochondria (Forget et al., 2002).

There is great variation in the sizes of mtDNA among eukaryotes; the average size of animal mtDNA is approximately 16 kb (Boore, 1999), whereas the plant mtDNA ranges upwards to 200 kb to 250 kb (Palmer, 1990). The fungal mtDNA size varies greatly in fungi from 19 kb in *Schizosaccharomyces pombe* to 175 kb in *Agaricus bisporus* (Hausner, 2003). The size variation in fungal mtDNA is mainly due to intergenic spacers and the presence or absence of elements like introns and intron encoded protein genes (Clark-Walker, 1992; Hausner, 2003 & 2012). Several fungal mitochondrial genome sequences have been completed and can easily be accessed at the

fungal mitochondrial genome project (GMGP: <http://www.bch.umontreal.ca/People/lang/FMGP/seqprojects.html>; Paquin et al., 1997). Recently, about 177000 new mitochondrial sequences were organized in the organellar genome database (GOBASE: <http://gobase.bcm.umontreal.ca/>; O'Brien, et al., 2009).

At least four distinct classes of introns have been identified based on structural and splicing characteristics: spliceosomal introns, archaeal tRNA, group I and group II introns (Haugen et al., 2004; Lang et al., 2007). Spliceosomal introns are found in nuclear protein coding genes and are removed with the help of a ribonucleoprotein spliceosome (Newman, 1994). Based on structural and functional similarities between Group II introns and spliceosomal introns, group II introns are thought to be the ancestor of spliceosomal introns (Madhani and Guthrie, 1992; Shukla and Padgett, 2002; Keating et al., 2010). Archaeal introns are found in the tRNA genes of members within the euryarchaeota as well as in the tRNA and rRNA genes of species belonging to the crenarchaeota (Lykke-Andersen et al., 1997). Archaeal introns are highly variable in sequence with few conserved nucleotides that form a bulge-helix-bulge motif at the intron exon junctions (Thompson et al., 1990; Kjems and Garrett, 1991). Some archaeal introns have been noted to encode LHEases (Dalgaard and Garrett, 1992). Archaeal introns are removed from their primary transcripts by means of RNA endonucleases (Lykke-Andersen et al., 1997; Haugen et al., 2004). With regards to organellar genomes so called group I and group II introns are more relevant and these elements are therefore discussed in more detail in the following sections.

1.4. Mobile introns:

Group I and group II introns are commonly referred to as mobile introns as they can move from an intron containing allele to a cognate allele that lacks the intron. The mobility mechanisms are usually site specific, thus the term “homing”, and mobility is mediated by proteins encoded within these introns. Intron homing is different from intron transposition, a term that is applied when an intron inserts itself at a different site; this is also referred to as ectopic integration. Group I and II introns can be distinguished from each other by their sequences, secondary and tertiary RNA structures, and splicing mechanisms. These introns are potential ribozymes catalyzing their own removal from the precursor RNA transcripts. Mobile introns essentially contain two functional components, the autocatalytic self-splicing intron RNA and an intron encoded protein (IEP), such as HEases or in group II introns a complex multifunctional RT-like protein.

Mobile introns have been noted in Eubacteria and their phages and within the Archaea. In Eubacteria group II introns frequently are encountered within other mobile elements such as conjugative transposons. With the exception of nuclear rDNA group I introns in some protozoans and fungi, group I and II introns in eukaryotes tend to be restricted to organellar genomes, although these introns are rare among the metazoan (Haugen et al., 2005). Mobile introns contribute towards genomic variability and they may influence the expression of the genes that host them.

1.5. Group I introns:

1.5.1. Distribution:

Group I introns are widespread RNAs found in a wide variety of organisms and are abundant in bacteria and eukaryotes as well as bacteriophages but so far none have been found in the archaea. Group I introns are found in both nuclear and organellar genomes of the eukaryotes; they are particularly abundant in fungal and algal organellar DNAs especially in the small subunit ribosomal RNA (SSU rRNA) gene, large subunit ribosomal RNA (LSU) gene, cytochrome oxidase subunit I gene, and within the transfer RNA (tRNA) genes of the chloroplast genomes. On the other hand, group I introns when found in nuclear genomes, are found only in rRNA genes. Group I introns are not found in animals abundantly, but recently they have been recorded in the mitochondrial genome of the sea anemone *Metridium senile* and the soft coral *Acropora tenuis* (reviewed in Belfort et al., 2002; Hausner 2003; Gissi et al., 2008).

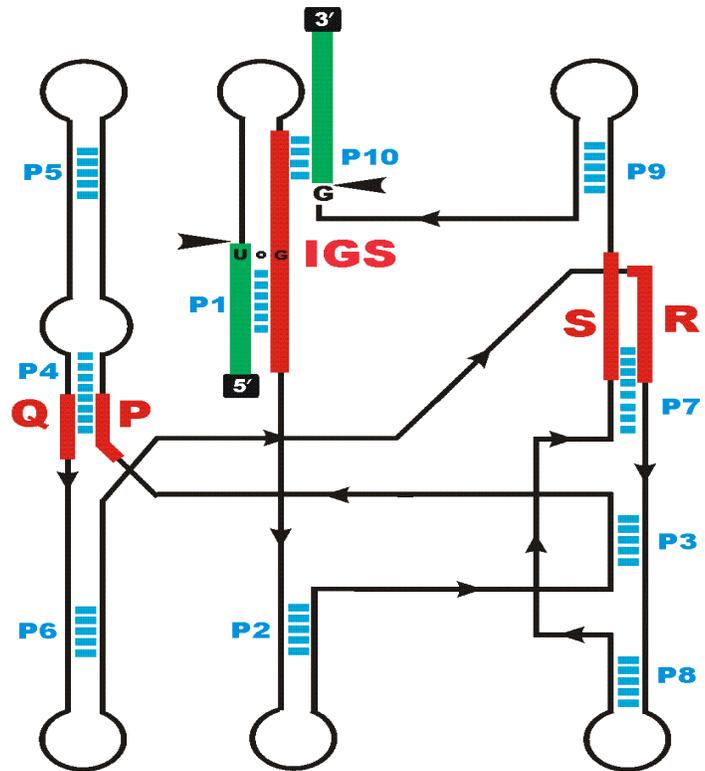
1.5.2. Structure:

Group I introns are highly variable at the primary sequence level; however they do have conserved secondary and tertiary structures and by comparative sequence analysis, it has been revealed that some of them do share short conserved sequences named P, Q, R, and S. These sequence elements had been defined within group I Introns and they do participate in forming helical regions, such that P is paired with Q and R is paired with S (Michel et al., 1982; Burke et al., 1987). Some features of the secondary structure of group I introns have been confirmed experimentally (Michel and Westhof, 1990; Woodson, 2005; Stahley and Strobel, 2005). The secondary structure of group I

introns consists of paired (P) elements designated P1 – P10 (Figure 1.1) with P1 and P10 containing the 5' and 3' splice sites, respectively. P2 is absent in some group I introns. The active core structure of the group I ribozyme is assembled by two helical domains P4/P6 (P4, P5 & P6), which is considered the scaffolding domain; and P3/P9 (P3, P7, P8 & P9) form the catalytic domain, which harbors the binding site for the exogenous guanosine (GTP) cofactor during the initiation of the intron splicing event. When open reading frames (ORFs) are present they are usually inserted in one of several loops that protrude from the core secondary structure, although there are examples where ORF sequences are part of the intron core sequences (Michel et al., 1982; Belfort et al., 2002; Rudski and Hausner, 2012). The ORF sequence may also extend and become part of the intron core structure and the ORF can also be fused in-frame to the upstream exon and is therefore most likely is translated as a fusion protein (Shub et al., 1988; Sethuraman et al., 2008). Based on secondary structure characteristics, nucleotide sequences within the conserved core regions, and peculiarities within the secondary structure group I introns have been classified into five categories, named class IA to IE and each class is subdivided into many subclasses (i.e. IA1, IA2 and IA3) (Saldanha et al., 1993; Suh et al., 1999; Zhou et al., 2008).

Figure 1.1. Secondary structure model of a group I intron. Intron sequences are represented by black lines, exon sequences are represented by green boxes. The ten pairing regions (P1-P10), the Internal Guide Sequence (IGS) region and the conserved sequence elements P, Q, R & S are indicated. The solid black arrowheads indicate the intron-exon junctions (5' and 3' splicing sites). This figure was generated based on the information obtained from Burke et al., (1987) and Saldanha et al., (1993).

Figure 1.1.



1.5.3. Splicing:

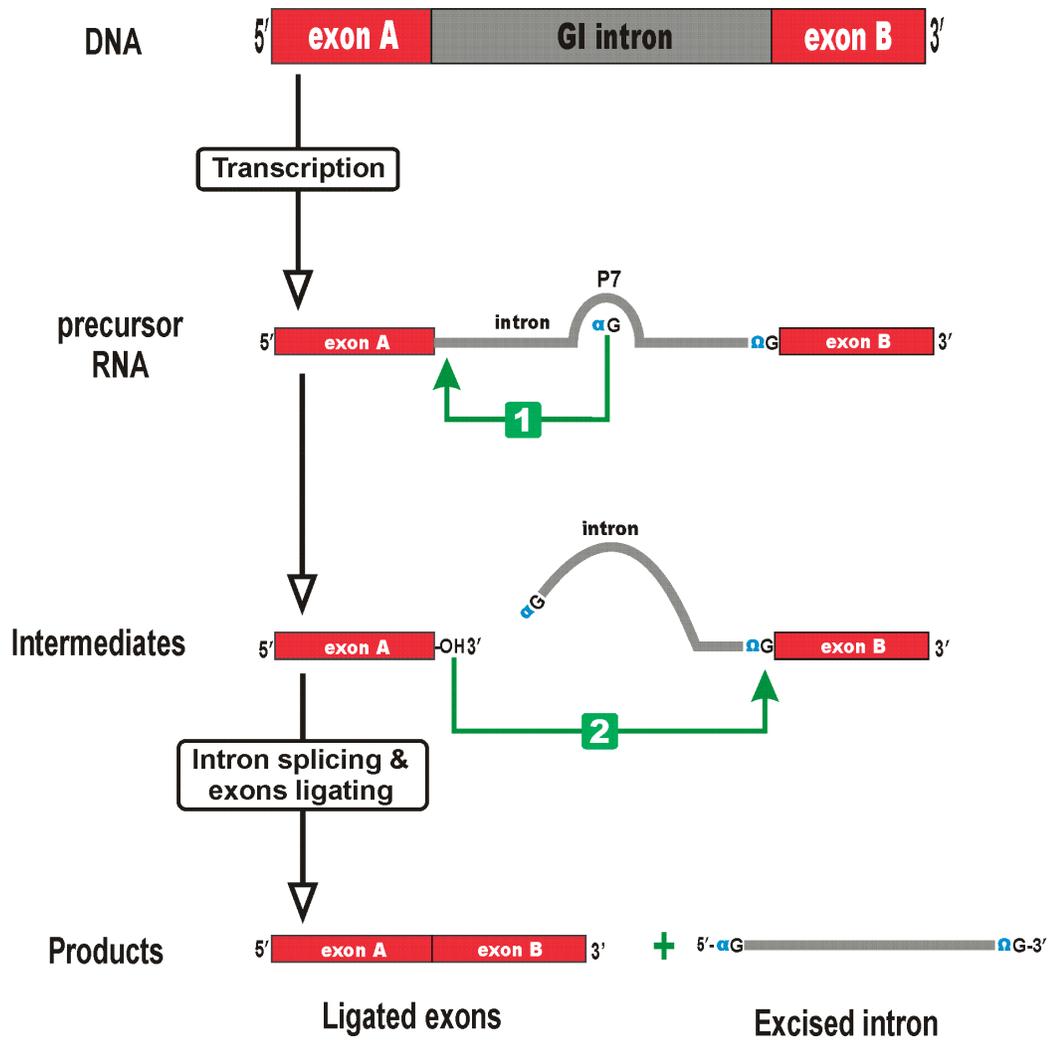
The introns are removed from the precursor RNA by an autocatalytic RNA splicing event that is mediated by the intron's RNA tertiary structure and proteins (maturases); the latter are intron and/or nuclear encoded. The reliance of group I introns on host factors for splicing further demonstrates that there is selection pressure on the group I intron, its encoded ORF and the host genome for the intron to splice accurately and quickly. In group I introns, base-pairing interactions between the 5' end of the intron and flanking exon regions define the location of the 5' and 3' splice sites. Splicing of the group I intron RNA is by a transesterification steps with an external guanosine (α G) as an initiating nucleophile; this eventually results in a linear, excised intron RNA. The α G docks onto an active G-binding site located in the P7 pairing region and with the GTPs 3'-OH group aligned to attack the 5' splice site (see Figure 1.2). The α G then attached to the 5' of the intron by 3'-5' phosphodiester bond. This is followed by conformational changes allowing the upstream exon's terminal 3' guanosine (Ω G) to swap with the α G and occupy the G-binding site to organize the second transesterification reaction (Michel et al., 1989). The 3' OH of the upstream exon attacks the 3' splice site leading to the ligation of upstream and downstream exons and the release of the intron (Saldanha et al., 1993; Cech, 1990; Cech et al., 1994). Group I intron splicing needs Mg^{2+} to stabilize RNA secondary and tertiary structure and to activate the nucleophilic attack by the 3'-OH group (Stahley and Strobel, 2005). The internal guide sequence (IGS), which is a short sequence near the 5'-end of group I intron sequence that pairs with sequences of the upstream exon to form P1 is an important sequence that can determine the 5' splice site. The 3' splice site is determined by paring of a short sequence of the downstream exon

with a portion of the IGS forming the P10 and the interactions between P9.0 and the catalytic core P3/P8 (see Figure 1.2; Cech, 1990; Michel et al., 1990).

Recently, crystal structures of several group I introns have been resolved: *Azoarcus* sp. BH72 pre-tRNA^{Leu} intron-exon complexes (Adams et al., 2004a & 2004b; Stahley and Strobel, 2005), *Tetrahymena* pre-rRNA apo enzyme (Guo et al., 2004), and the bacteriophage Twort pre-mRNA ribozyme-product complex (Golden et al., 2005). The crystal structures of these introns support the involvement of a two-metal-ion mechanism of group I intron splicing, which show similarities to the RNA-catalyzed splicing by metal-ion catalysis of the exon ligation step as seen in group II introns and in the spliceosome mediated mechanism (Stahley and Strobel, 2005).

Figure 1.2. Schematic representation of group I intron splicing. The splicing process consists of two transesterification reactions; the first reaction is initiated by exogenous guanosine (α G) which attacks the 5' splice site. In the second transesterification reaction, the 3'-OH of the 5' exon attacks the 3' splice site and as a result the intron is spliced in a linear configuration and the exons are ligated. This figure was generated based on the information obtained from Saldanha et al. (1993), Cech (1990) and Cech et al. (1992).

Figure 1.2.



1.5.4. Mobility:

Homing is the transfer of an intervening sequence (intron or intein) to a homologous allele that lacks the intervening sequence leading to gene conversion and the dominant transmission and inheritance of the mobile element (Dujon, 1989; Dujon et al., 1989; Belfort and Perlman, 1995); sometimes referred to as “super Mendelian inheritance” (Dujon, 1989). This process was firstly described in the *S. cerevisiae* group I intron HEase named omega (ω) or I-SceI according to the present nomenclature (Dujon, 1980). Group I intron mobility is catalyzed by the intron encoded HEases (Figure 1.3.). The HEases are usually cis-acting, and have specific target sites, with some allowance for sequence variation in their homing sites (target cleavage site). This ensures propagation against the forces of evolutionary drift which might modify the homing site within its host genome. Intron homing is initiated by the HEase introducing a double-strand break (DSB), or nick, in alleles that lack the intron. The homing process is completed by host DSB-repair pathways that use the intron/HEG-containing allele as a template to repair the DSB. The repair results in the nonreciprocal transfer of the intron/HEG composite element into the intron-minus allele, and is usually associated with co-conversion of markers flanking the intron insertion site (Saldanha et al., 1993).

Group I introns may also transpose into new sites (ectopic integration) involving RNA intermediates by reverse splicing (Figure 1.4. [a]). Reverse splicing allows a free group I intron RNA to insert into a homologous or heterologous RNA; this mode of mobility requires complementary base pairing between the intron and the exon RNA sequences. This mechanism requires the additional steps of reverse transcription of the

RNA and the integration of the cDNA into the genome by a recombination step that replaces the “intron-less copy” with the intron-plus cDNA. As reverse splicing requires less homology (4-6 nucleotides) this mechanism allows introns to spread more easily into heterologous sites (i.e. ectopic integration; Roman and Woodson 1995; Birgisdottir and Johansen, 2005). The best evidence for reverse splicing has been documented for rDNA introns where orthologous introns have been noted to be inserted in two different locations within rDNA genes (Bhattacharya et al., 2005).

Figure 1.3. Group I intron homing pathway: The black strands represent sequences of the donor allele, gray strands represent sequences of the recipient allele, red lines symbolize the intron sequence, straight and wavy lines represent DNA and RNA sequences respectively. The green pac-man symbol represent the intron-encoded endonuclease which recognizes and cleaves the target site (yellow boxes) generating 4 nt 3' overhangs, these can be chewed back by exonucleases to further stimulate the double strand break recombination DNA repair pathway, which would transfer a copy of the intron to the cleaved recipient molecule during the DSB repair process.

Figure 1.3.

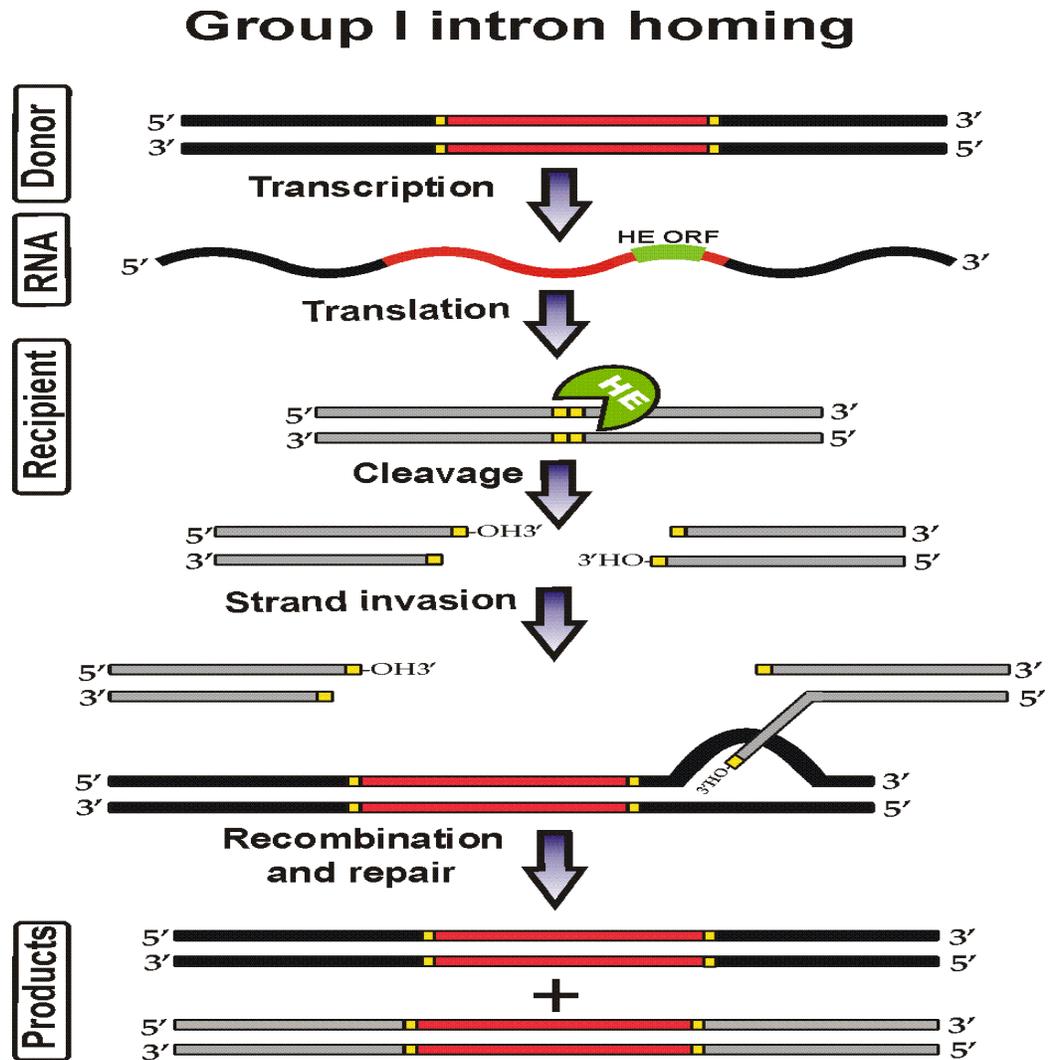


Figure 1.4. Reverse splicing of group I [**a**] and group II [**b**] intron RNAs (red lines) into RNA substrates (grey and black wavy lines). Target site recognition requires the interaction of the internal guide sequence (IGS) of the group I intron RNA with the recipient RNA or the exon binding sequence (EBS) of the group II intron RNA with the intron binding sequence (IBS) in the recipient RNA molecule. Reverse splicing requires a reverse transcription step to generate cDNA followed by homologous recombination that integrates the intron containing cDNA into the genome. [**c**] Group II intron RNA can also reverse splice into single-stranded DNA (black solid lines) as found at the DNA replication fork and again a reverse transcriptase step is required for cDNA synthesis but there is no need for endonuclease (En) activity of homologous recombination for integration of the intron to be completed (black and purple). Reverse transcription is primed by the nascent leading strand of the DNA replication fork (black dashed lines). These mechanisms have a lower homology requirement for target site recognition and therefore can promote the retrotransposition of introns into new locations within the genome.

1.6. Group II introns:

Group II introns are retroelements that are thought to be the ancestors of the spliceosomal introns and retrotransposons in eukaryotes (Copertino and Hallick, 1993; Lambowitz and Zimmerly, 2004 & 2011). Group II introns in general have conserved secondary structures at the RNA level, that can be visualized as six stem-loop domains (DI to DVI) emerging from a central wheel. The RT ORFs tend to be embedded within domain IV but in a few instances they have been observed in domain II (Simon et al., 2008; Hafez and Hausner, 2011a). Mobile group II introns typically encode a multifunctional protein, which contains a segment homologous to reverse transcriptase (RT), domain X, which has been implicated in maturase activity and the En domain which contains a potential zinc finger which has endonuclease activity. However, the En domain is absent in some fungal group II introns (Lambowitz and Zimmerly, 2004 & 2011).

1.6.1. Distribution:

Group II introns are found in bacteria and organellar genomes of various eukaryotes within plants, fungi and protists (Belfort et al., 2002; Ferat and Michel, 1993; Michel et al., 1989; Lambowitz and Zimmerly, 2011) and recently a group II intron was identified in animals for the first time inside the mitochondrial *coxI* gene of the bilaterian worm *Nephtys* sp. (Vallès et al., 2008). The latter is unexpected as animal mitochondrial genomes are small and very compact compared to those of plants, fungi and protists. Group II introns are rare in archaea and thought to be acquired from eubacteria by horizontal transfer (Dai and Zimmerly, 2003). In fungi, group II introns are found in

mitochondrial rRNA genes (Toro and Zimmerly, 2002; Hafez and Hausner, 2011a) and mitochondrial protein coding genes (Shnyreva, 1995). Unlike group I introns, group II introns have not been found in the nuclear genome of eukaryotes (Lambowitz and Zimmerly, 2011).

1.6.2. Structure:

Group II introns have a characteristic conserved RNA secondary structure consisting of six stem loop domains (DI – DVI) radiating from a central wheel (see Figure 1.5. [a] & [b]: Michel and Ferat, 1995; Qin and Pyle, 1998; Pyle and Lambowitz, 2006; Pyle, 2010; Lambowitz and Zimmerly, 2004 & 2011). The six domains interact to form a conserved tertiary structure that bring the distant 5' and 3' exon/intron junctions into a close proximity in the intron's active site along with the branch-point nucleotide residue and divalent ions to activate the appropriate bonds for catalysis (Lambowitz and Zimmerly, 2011). Domain I is the largest intronic domain and it is subdivided into several smaller stem-loop subdomains (Ia, Ib, Ic1, Ic2, ... etc.). Domain I is transcribed first and thus folds firstly and acts as a scaffold for the folding of the subsequent domains; as well Domain I forms several tertiary interactions with the other domains to stabilize the intron structure and thus promote catalysis (Qin and Pyle, 1998; Fedorova and Zingler, 2007). Domain I plays an important role in recognizing both 5' and 3' exon sequences during intron splicing and mobility; DI contains the exon-binding sequences EBS1 and EBS2 which are involved in the recognition of 5' splicing site by base-pairing with the intron-binding sites IBS1 and IBS2 (complementary sequences to EBS1 and EBS2) in the 5' exon of both group IIA and IIB introns (Michel et al., 1989; Pyle, 2010). The 3' splice

site recognition in group IIA introns (Figure 1.5. [a]) is defined by base-pairing between the 1-3 nucleotides immediately upstream to the EBS1 sequence referred as delta (δ) and the first nucleotide in the 3' exon (δ'); however, in group IIB introns (Figure 1.5. [b]) the 3' splice site is defined by the first nucleotide in the 3' exon (IBS3) and a nucleotide named EBS3 in an internal loop in DI (Costa et al., 2000).

Domain II contributes towards group II intron self-splicing by essential tertiary interactions: the $\theta - \theta'$ and $\eta - \eta'$ contacts with DI and DVI respectively (Costa et al., 1997; Pyle, 2010). The $\theta - \theta'$ is a tertiary interaction between the basal stem of DII and the highly conserved terminal loop of DIC1 which stabilize the ribozyme core of the group II introns. The second tertiary interaction that involves DII is the $\eta - \eta'$ contact which is a structurally conserved interaction among group IIA and IIB introns. In group IIA introns, the $\eta - \eta'$ tertiary interaction is between a tetraloop located in DII and a receptor in DVI, which is in contrast to group IIB introns where the location of the tetraloop and the receptor are reversed (Costa et al., 1997). It has been proposed that the $\eta - \eta'$ contact is an essential tertiary interaction during the conformational switch that occurs between the two steps of splicing (Chanfreau and Jacquire, 1996). It is possible for DII to serve as an insertion site for additional elements without interfering with the function of the ribozyme core because once DII is locked into position through the $\theta - \theta'$ and $\eta - \eta'$ interactions the DII terminal loop projects away from the intron ribozyme core (Toor et al., 2010; Pyle, 2010).

Figure 1.5. Secondary structure models of group IIA [a] and IIB [b] introns. Intron sequences are in solid black lines, ORF sequences are in black dashed lines and exon sequences are in gray boxes. The positions of EBS1, EBS2 and EBS3/ δ are noted. The positions of IBS1, IBS2 and IBS3/ δ in the 5' and 3' exons are in blue, red and green boxes respectively. Tertiary interactions are indicated by dashed lines and Greek letters (α , β , γ , δ , ϵ , ζ , η , θ , κ , λ , and μ). The six major structural domains are indicated by Roman numbers (I, II, III, IV, V and VI). The solid black arrowheads indicate the intron-exon junctions (5' and 3' splicing sites). The asterisk shows the bulged adenosine nucleotide in domain VI (the branch point). Typically in group II introns ORFs are present within domain V but the RT ORF is encoded within DII in the Omi472-mS379 intron, while a LAGLIDADG ORF is encoded within DIII in the Omi371-mS952 intron (see Chapter 4; Hafez and Hausner, 2011a).

Figure 1.5. [a]

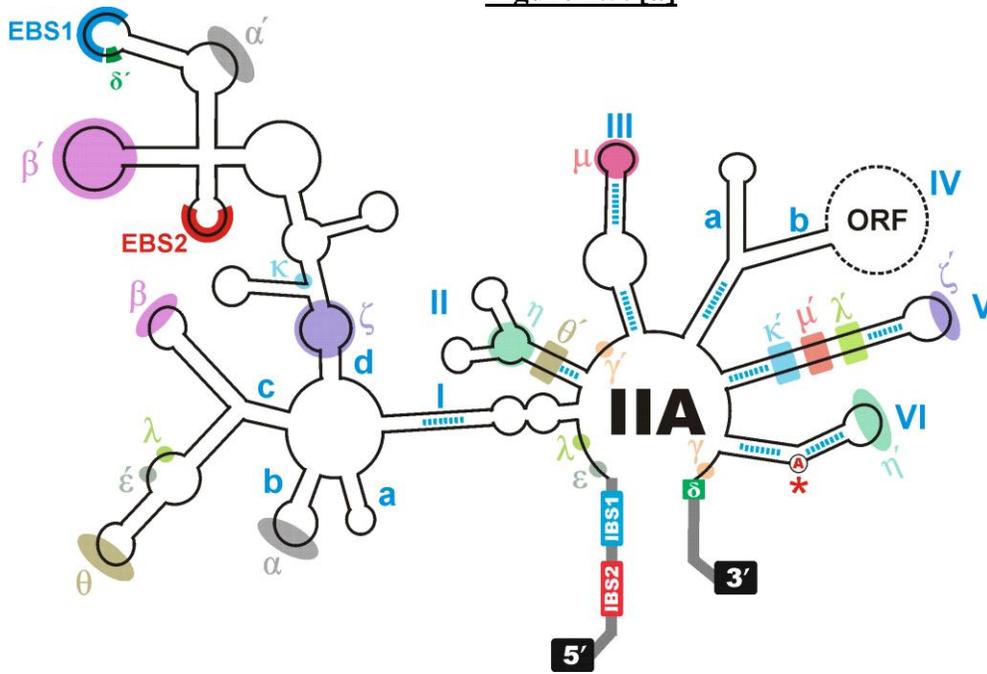
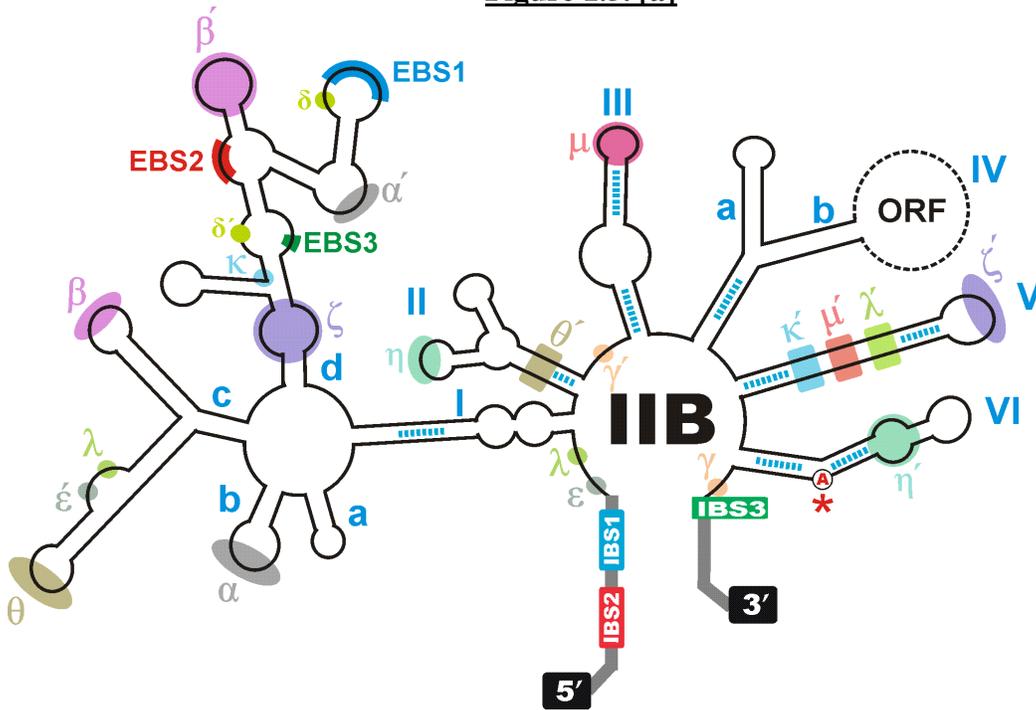


Figure 1.5. [a]



Domain III forms an important interaction ($\mu - \mu'$) with DV (Fedorova and Pyle, 2008), and also contains a highly phylogenetically conserved internal loop that plays a major role as a catalytic effector that stimulates the catalytic activity of group II introns (Fedorova and Pyle, 2008). The basal stem of DIII can easily project away from the ribozyme core and thus this domain can carry additional insertions, as seen in some members of the group IIB1 family that encode LAGLIDADG ORFs from a terminal loop within DIII (Toor and Zimmerly, 2002; Mullineux et al., 2010; Hafez and Hausner, 2011a).

Domain IV is an ideal location for encoding ORFs because this domain is projected away from the intron core as a result of its stacking upon DIII. Domain IV also contains a high affinity binding site for the IEP at subdomain DIVa (Wank et al., 1999). Domain V is the most conserved domain in group II introns and it can form several important interactions with DI ($\zeta - \zeta'$, $\kappa - \kappa'$ and $\lambda - \lambda'$). Domain V is considered the most important component of a group II introns catalytic activity and along with DI; they are considered the minimal catalytic core requirements of group II introns (Lehmann et al., 2003; Lambowitz and Zimmerly, 2004; Pyle and Lambowitz, 2006; Toor et al., 2009). Domain VI contains the branch-point nucleotide residue (usually bulged A with a 2'-OH group), which is involved in the intron self-splicing reaction by promoting a transesterification reaction that eventually leads to the introns excision in a branched (lariat) form, stabilized with a 2'-5' phosphodiester bond (van der Veen et al., 1986; Vogel and Borner, 2002).

1.6.3. Splicing:

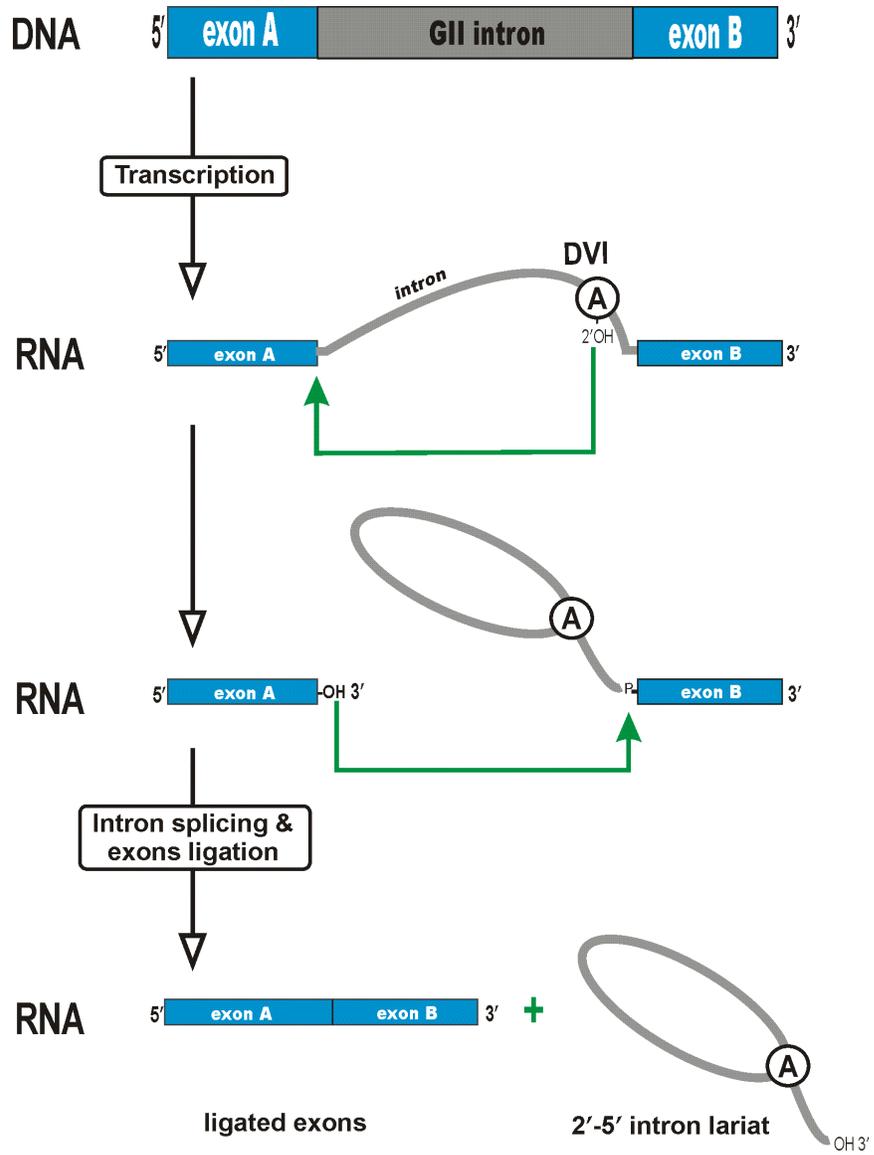
Intron-catalyzed splicing proceeds by two transesterification reactions and leads to the excision of the intron as a branched, or lariat, molecule with a characteristic 2'-5' phosphodiester bond; this is referred to as the branched pathway. There is another pathway by which group II introns are released from precursor transcripts; this pathway involves a hydrolysis step and here the introns are released in linear forms (Michel et al., 1989). In the so-called branched pathway (Figure 1.6.) during the first reaction, the 2'-OH group of a bulged adenosine residue located in DVI attacks the 5' splice site forming a lariat intermediate with a 2'-5' phosphodiester bond. In the second transesterification reaction, the 3'-OH group of the 5' exon attacks the 3' splice site leads to exon ligation and the release of the intron as a lariat molecule (Michel and Ferat, 1995; Daniels et al., 1996). The splicing process may also be initiated by 5' splice site hydrolysis and in this case the intron released is in a linear form (Michel et al., 1989; Fedorova and Zingler, 2007).

1.6.4. Mobility:

Both splicing and mobility of group II introns require the catalytic activity of the intron RNA, the intron-encoded protein, and possibly host factors. During expression of the host gene, the intronic ORF is translated and a ribonucleoprotein (RNP) particle is formed between the intron lariat and the intron-encoded protein (Figure 1.7.). The RNP recognizes a target homing site, typically an intron-less cognate allele, and the first cut is made by the 3' end (i.e a 3'-OH) of the intron RNA. This initiates a reverse splicing reaction whereby the intron RNA is inserted into the sense strand of the DNA.

Figure 1.6. The branching pathway of group II introns splicing. A bulged adenosine nucleotide located at the intron's DVI (circled A) attacks the 5' splice site and then the 3'-OH group of the released 5' exon attacks the 3' splice site. As a result the exons are ligated and the intron is spliced out as a branched (lariat) molecule with a 2'-5' phosphodiester bond stabilizing the lariat configuration. The figure was generated based on the information obtained from Saldanha et al. (1993), Michel and Ferat (1995), Costa et al. (2000) and Lambowitz and Zimmerly (2001 & 2011).

Figure 1.6.



The En domain cleaves the antisense DNA strand, generating a free 3'-OH that serves as a primer for the reverse transcription. Eventually, the host DNA repair machinery will remove the RNA and fill in any gaps. This process of “retrohoming” is mediated by a process termed target DNA-primed reverse transcription (reviewed in Lambowitz and Zimmerly, 2004 & 2011). Group II intron RNAs have been shown to retrotranspose by reverse splicing into RNA molecules (Figure 1.4. [b]), a mechanism that requires less specificity at the target site and thus allows for retro-transposition of introns to new sites within the genome (Cousineau et al., 1998; Eickbush, 1999). Group II introns can also reverse splice into single-stranded DNA (at the replication fork; Figure 1.4. [c]), facilitating their dispersal into new sites and transmission to the next generation (Zhong and Lambowitz, 2003).

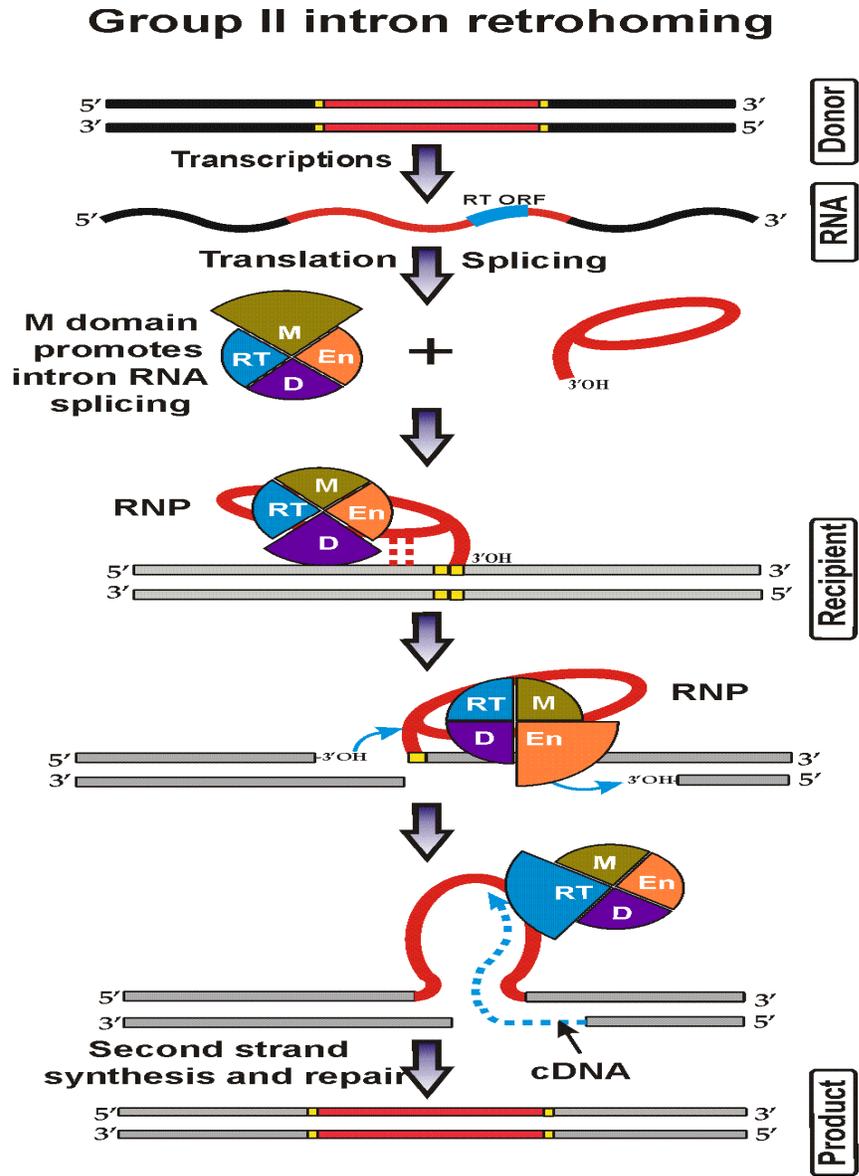
1.6.5. Evolution:

Based on structural (sequences of the key regions) and functional (identical splicing pathway) similarities between Group II introns and spliceosomal introns have made group II introns candidates for the ancestors of spliceosomal introns (Madhani and Guthrie 1992; Shukla and Padgett 2002; Keating et al., 2010). Group II introns are also thought to be the ancestor of non-**L**ong **T**erminal **R**epeats retrotransposons (non-LTR-retrotransposons) due to the similarities of their RT sequences (Xiong and Eickbush, 1990; Blocker et al., 2005) and the Target Primed Reverse Transcription (TPRT) mechanism for reverse transcription of the intron RNA template (Luan et al., 1993; Zimmerly et al., 1995a). There is also a potential connection between group II intron RTs and telomerases (Nakamura and Cech, 1998).

Figure 1.7. Group II intron retrohoming pathway: The black strands represent sequence of the donor allele, gray strands represent sequence of the recipient allele, red lines symbolize the intron sequence, straight and wavy lines representing DNA and RNA respectively and the green pac-man symbol represent the intron-encoded endonuclease which recognize and cleaves the target site (yellow boxes). The intron-encoded protein is a multi-domain protein represented by a circle with four quarters; the dashed blue line represents the cDNA. The pathway shown is for a bacterial group II intron and there are some variations among the different group II intron types.

(dsDNA = double-stranded DNA; RNP = ribonucleoprotein; RT = reverse transcriptase activity; M = maturase activity; En = endonuclease activity; D, DNA binding domain).

Figure 1.7.



Group II introns are common in eubacteria and eukaryotic organelles but are rare in archaea. This phylogenetic distribution suggests that they evolved in bacteria and were transmitted to eukaryotic cells via endosymbiotic bacteria that gave rise to chloroplasts and mitochondria (Cavalier-Smith, 1991; Palmer and Logsdon, 1991; Ferat and Michel, 1993; Zimmerly et al., 2001). Toor et al. (2001) suggested the retroelement ancestor hypothesis as a model for the evolution of group II introns in which group II introns originated as retroelements in bacteria and the intron RNA was developed through coevolution with the IEP rather than as an independent catalytic RNAs that eventually was invaded by an ORF (i.e. the IEP was associated with the intron RNA prior to the divergence of different group II intron lineages. The retroelement ancestor hypothesis is supported by the presence of several ORF-less group II introns that contain ORF remnants (Toor et al., 2001; Dai and Zimmerly, 2003) suggesting ORF-less group II introns have been derived from those that had ORFs. This is in contrast to group I introns where ORFs can move independently from their ribozyme partners (reviewed in Hausner, 2012).

Group III introns are self-splicing RNA elements that appear to be degenerated group II introns; i.e. derived from group II introns, as they only contains DI and DVI with the conventional bulged adenosine residue, while DII to DIV are often absent (Montandon and Stutz, 1983; Christopher and Hallick, 1989). Group III introns are found in the chloroplast genome of some euglenoid protists and they are usually associated with genes involved in transcription and translation. They are typically much shorter than group I and group II introns, ranging from 95 to 110 nucleotides (Hallick et

al., 1993). The splicing of group III introns is by two transesterification reactions where the first nucleophilic attack to the 5' splice site is initiated by the bulged adenosine nucleotide in DVI and the intron is released in a lariat form (Copertino et al., 1994). Group III introns have been reported in the *psbC* gene of *Euglena gracilis* as nested introns (twintrons) that self-splice sequentially (Copertino et al., 1994).

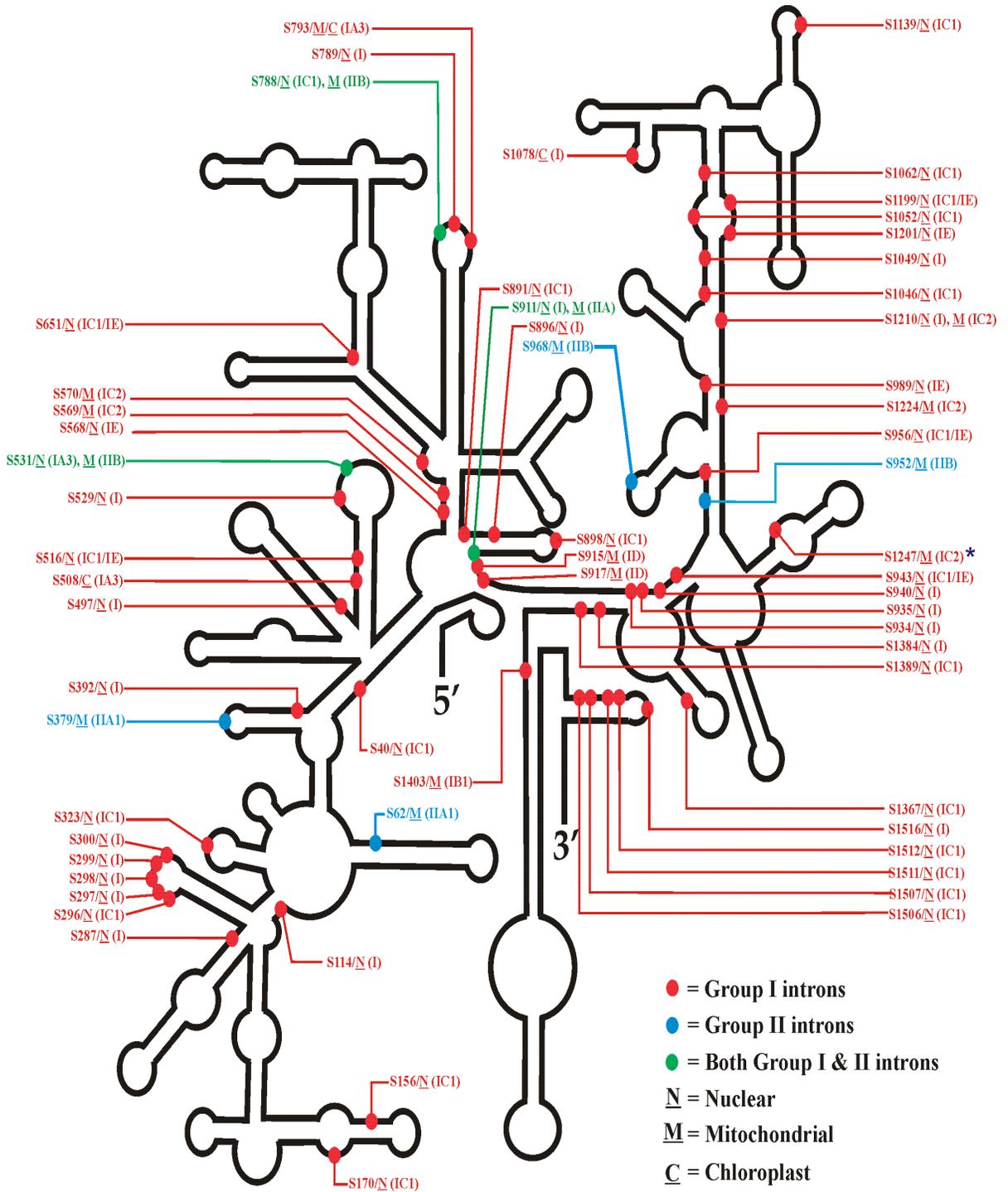
1.7. Distribution of group I and II introns in rRNA genes:

The distribution of introns in rRNA genes (SSU rRNA and LSU rRNA) is not totally random; insertion sites appear to be found within conserved sequences usually near the tRNA and mRNA binding sites which span the interface between the small and the large subunits of the ribosome, suggesting a link between intron evolution and rRNA function (Noller et al., 1981; Gerbi et al., 1982; Turmel et al., 1993; Johansen et al., 1996; Jackson et al., 2002). The relationship between intron splicing efficiency and the intron insertion position within the pre-rRNA has been studied and the results showed that, the splicing efficiency depends on the interaction between the intron and the surrounding (exon) rRNA sequences and this result may explain the preference of introns to be inserted in certain regions of rRNA (Rocheleau and Woodson, 1995). It should be noted that the small subunit RNA gene is referred to as the SSU rRNA gene or 16S / 18S RNA gene when referring to the nuclear version of this gene whereas recently *rns* has been used to refer to the mitochondrial version of the small subunit RNA gene. Based on the available information at the comparative RNA website (<http://www.rna.ccbb.utexas.edu/>) and the literature review, the SSU rRNA gene (including the mitochondrial and chloroplast counterparts) was found to be invaded at 59 different positions by group I and

group II introns (see Figure 1.8.), and during this thesis we characterized a novel twintron at position S1247 in the *rns* gene of *Chaetomium thermophilum* (accession number JN007486), in which a group IIA1 intron was found to be inserted within the ORF of a group IC2 intron. See Chapter 6 for a detailed analysis of the group I and II intron insertions within the mtDNA *rns* gene of the fungi.

Figure 1.8. Distribution of Group I and group II introns in the SSU rRNA sequence. The secondary structure model of SSU rRNA is represented by black thick lines. Group I (red circles) and group II (blue circles) intron insertion positions are numbered according to the *E. coli* SSU rRNA sequence. Some positions can be occupied by both group I and group II introns (green circles). The Cellular/organellar location of each intron is underlined (N = Nuclear; M = Mitochondrial; C = Chloroplast) and intron classes are given in brackets. The position S1247 was found to be invaded by group IC2 introns in some species and in some others it was found to be invaded by a twintron in which group IIA1 introns inserted in the ORF of a group IC2 intron. This figure was generated based on the information obtained from the comparative RNA website and Jackson et al., (2002) as well as results generated from this thesis.

Figure 1.8.



1.8. Homing endonucleases:

Homing endonucleases are rare cutting enzymes encoded by homing endonuclease genes (HEGs) that are embedded within self-splicing group I, group II and archaeal introns or inteins which self-splice at protein level (protein introns) and HEGs can also be free standing ORFs between individual genes. Homing endonucleases are double-stranded DNases that target large recognition sites (14-40 bp; Stoddard, 2006). The HEGs, due to the nature of how they move, are located in the middle of their own recognition sequences and therefore alleles bearing the HEGs (HEG⁺) are protected from being cleaved, and only HEG⁻ alleles are suitable substrate for HEase cleavage. The presence of a cleaved allele induces the homologous recombination based DSB repair process whereby the cleaved HEG⁻ allele is repaired by using the HEG⁺ allele as the template to repair the DSB. The recombination process leads to copying the HEG across the HEG⁻ allele and as a result the HEG⁻ allele is converted into a HEG⁺ allele. This process is called homing (Dujon, 1989; Lambowitz and Belfort, 1993; Belfort and Perlman, 1995; Chevalier and Stoddard, 2001).

The recognition sites of HEases are extremely rare, with none or only one of these sites present in a typical mammalian sized genome, and the recognition site is long enough to occur randomly only with a very low probability, approximately once every 7×10^{10} bp (Jasin, 1996). Homing endonucleases must display sufficient target site specificity to avoid the cleavage of essential host genes; at the same time these proteins can tolerate some sequence polymorphism in the wild-type target site in order to promote lateral transfer between closely related host species. The long recognition site of HEases

prevent nonspecific binding and cleavage within their host genome (Belfort et al., 1995; Belfort and Roberts, 1997). In addition low expression levels (i.e. tight gene regulation) for the HEase and the localization of these elements in specific compartments within the cell (mitochondria, chloroplast and nucleus) keep them cutting too frequently. By being sequestered into organelles, HEases are prevented from potentially damages the host's nuclear DNA (Jurica and Stoddard, 1999).

1.8.1. Nomenclature:

The nomenclature rules for naming HEases resembles those for the restriction enzymes. A three-letter designation contains the first letter of the host genus name followed by the first two letters of the species name followed by a Roman numeral that indicates the order in which the enzyme has been characterized to distinguish multiple enzymes from a single organism. To indicate if the endonuclease is intron encoded or intein encoded, the prefixes I- or PI- are added to the enzyme name, respectively. Another prefix, F-, was proposed for freestanding HEases. Thus, I-SceI and PI-SceI represent the first discovered intron-encoded and intein-encoded endonucleases from *S. cerevisiae* respectively (Belfort and Roberts, 1997; Roberts et al., 2003). Hybrid HEases are preceded by the prefix H-, followed by the authors' designation, for example the first synthetic HEase H-DreI was synthesized from the intron-encoded I-DmoI and I-CreI endonucleases from *Desulfurococcus mobilis* and *Chlamydomonas reinhardtii* respectively (Chevalier et al., 2002). Homing endonucleases that have been characterized biochemically are listed within REBASE (<http://www.neb.com/rebase>) along with restriction enzymes and methyltransferases. REBASE provides information about which

enzymes are available and which DNA sequence they recognize (Roberts and Macelis, 1997).

1.8.2. Families of homing endonucleases:

Homing endonucleases can be classified into four major distinct families; their naming is based on conserved amino acid motifs: the LAGLIDADG, H-N-H, His-Cys Box, and GIY-YIG families of HEases (Belfort et al., 2002; Kowalski and Derbyshire, 2002; Stoddard, 2006). Recently additional HEase-like proteins/families have been discovered (Table 1.1; Figure 1.9.), the PD-(D/E)XK HEases are found in cyanobacterial tRNA group I introns (Zhao et al., 2007), the Vsr (very-short patch repair) endonucleases (a predicted family of HEases) were found in phages based on environmental metagenomic data (Dassa et al., 2009), and the Holliday junction resolvase-like HEases have been identified in phages (Zeng et al., 2009). An additional HEase family has recently been designated as the EDxHD family based on detailed characterization of a group I intron ORF found within the *recA* gene of the *Bacillus thuringiensis* 0305φ8-36 bacteriophage (Taylor et al., 2011); this family appears to be related to the Vsr endonucleases (Dassa et al., 2009; Taylor et al., 2011). These families differ greatly structurally (in their conserved active site motif) and functionally (catalytic mechanisms) as well as their biological and genomic ranges. Homing endonucleases are widespread and are found in a wide range of organisms from all biological kingdoms, including bacteriophages, archaeobacteria, eubacteria, fungi, algae and plants (see Figure 1.9; Belfort and Roberts, 1997; Jurica and Stoddard, 1999).

Table 1.1. Examples for the major homing endonuclease families.

Table 1.1.

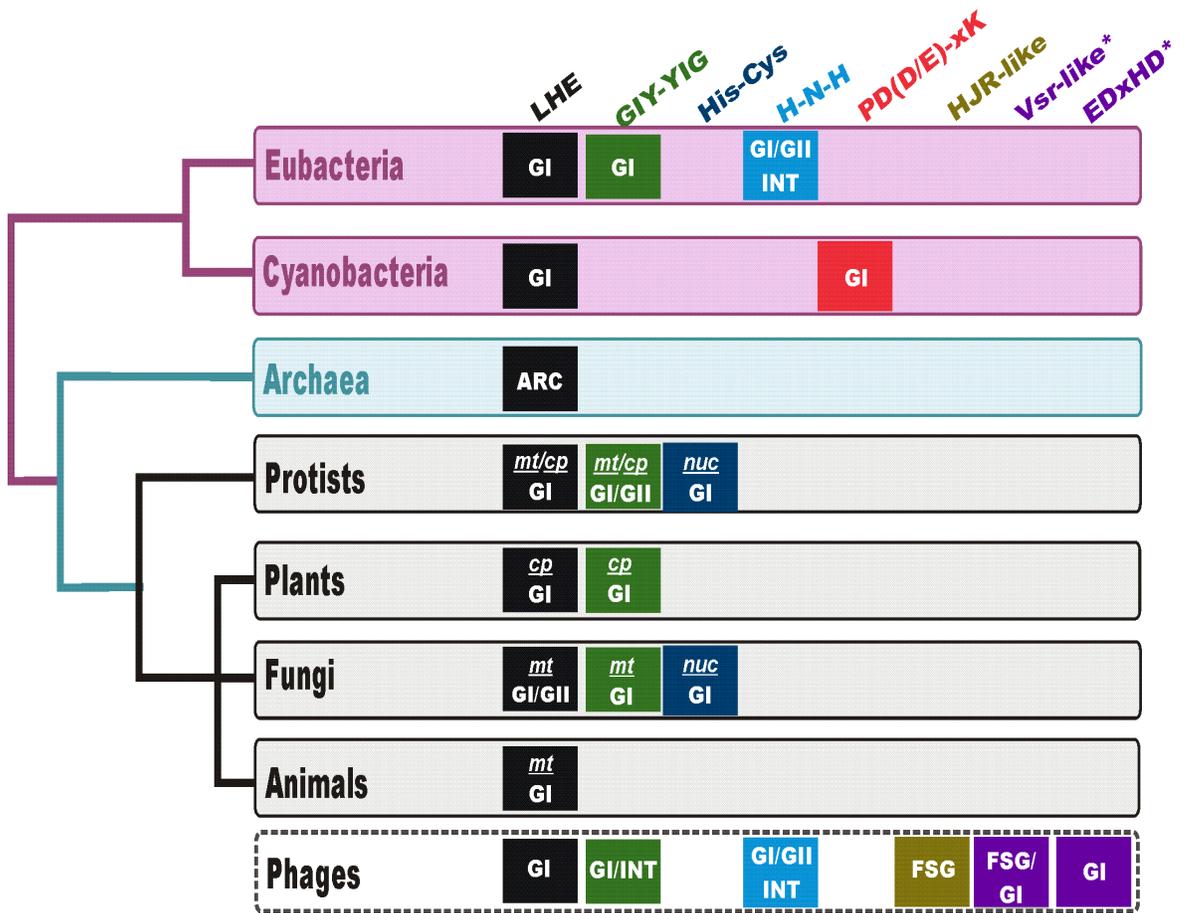
Family	Biological domain	Subcellular location	Genomic niche	Cleavage pattern	Example(s)
LAGLIDADG	Archaea Eukarya	Mitochondria Chloroplasts	Group I introns Group II introns Archaeal introns Intein	Ds* 4 nts 3' overhang	I-CreI ⁽¹⁾ I-AniI ⁽²⁾ I-DmoI ⁽³⁾ PI-PfuI ⁽⁴⁾ I-SceI ⁽⁵⁾
His-Cys box	Protists	Nuclear (rRNA genes)	Nuclear rDNA group I introns	Ds 4 nts 3' overhang	I-PpoI ⁽⁶⁾
GIY-YIG	Bacteria Eukarya Phage	Mitochondria chloroplast	Free standing or Group I introns	Ds 2 nts 3' overhang	F-TevI ⁽⁷⁾ I-TevI ⁽⁸⁾
H-N-H	Bacteria Eukarya Phage	mitochondria Phage	Free standing or Group I introns	Nicking	I-HmuI ⁽⁹⁾ I-SceV ⁽¹⁰⁾
PD(D/E)-xK	Cyanobacteria	Bacteria	Group I introns	Ds 2 nts 5' overhang	I-Ssp6803I ⁽¹¹⁾
HJ Resolvase-like	Phage	Phage	Free standing	Ds 4 nts 3' overhangs	F-CphI ⁽¹²⁾
Vsr-like	Metagenomic (suspected to be of phage origin)	Phage	Free standing Group I introns or inteins	Unknown	Putative ⁽¹³⁾
EDxHD	Phage	Phage	Group I introns	Ds 2 nts 5' overhang	I-Bth0305I ⁽¹⁴⁾

* Ds = double-stranded cut;

¹Jurica et al., 1998; ²Polduc et al., 2003; ³Dalgaard et al., 1994; ⁴Ichihyanagi et al., 2000; ⁵Moure et al., 2003; ⁶Flick et al., 1998; ⁷Sharma et al., 1992; ⁸Bell-Pedersen et al., 1991; ⁹Shen et al., 2004; ¹⁰Liang et al., 1996; ¹¹Zhao et al., 2007; ¹²Zeng et al., 2009; ¹³Dassa et al., 2009; ¹⁴Taylor et al., 2011.

Figure 1.9. Distribution of the HEase families among the different biological domains. A phylogenetic tree (modified from the rRNA universal tree of life; Woese et al., 1990) shows the biological host range of each HEase family. The genomic range of each HEase family is also indicated inside colored boxes (n = nuclear; c = chloroplast; m = mitochondrial; FSG = Free Standing Gene; ARC = archaeal; GI = group I introns; GII = group II introns; INT = Inteins). With regards to the H-N-H family, proteins with H-N-H domains such a group II intron encoded RTs or DNA binding proteins (see text) were excluded. With regards to the metazoans self-splicing introns are rare and confined to early branching metazoans (reviewed in Hausner, 2012). * The Vsr-like (putative) and EDxHD families may represent a single family of HEases.

Figure 1.9.



1.8.2.1. LAGLIDADG HEases (LHEases):

The LAGLIDADG motif proteins represent the first identified and biochemically characterized HEG-encoded endonuclease family (Dujon, 1980; Jacquier and Dujon, 1985). This large protein family with more than 200 members has been variously termed ‘DOD’, ‘dodecapeptide’, ‘decapeptide’ and ‘dodecamer’ based on the 10-residue conserved motif (Dujon, 1989; Belfort and Roberts, 1997; Chevalier and Stoddard, 2001). Members of this family have either one or two copies of the conserved LAGLIDADG motif. LHEases that contain a single copy of this motif, such as I-CreI, act as homodimers and recognize palindromic or nearly palindromic DNA target sites (Chevalier et al., 2001). However, enzymes that have two copies of this motif in a single polypeptide chain, such as I-AniI, are monomers and recognize asymmetric DNA target sites (Boldouc et al., 2003). It was previously thought that double motif LHEases evolved via a duplication event of a single motif LHEases. This was supported by a recent study by Haugen and Bhattacharya (2004) which showed that a single motif LHEases that inserted into a preexisting group I intron in the *rnl* gene between positions L1917 and L1951 evolved into double motif LHEases and then in combination with its group I intron host spread into sites first within the *rnl* gene and subsequently invaded new sites in the *rns* genes as well as protein coding genes. It has also been shown that double motif LHEases, in combination with a group I intron that invaded protein coding genes transferred back to introns in the rRNA genes. One lineage of LHEases moved independently from its original ribozyme partner and transferred into an ORF-less preexisting group II intron to form a new family of group II introns encoding LHEases instead of the RT-like ORFs that are usually encoded by group II introns (Toor and

Zimmerly, 2002; Mullineux et al., 2010; Hafez and Hausner, 2011a). Overall this family of HEases has a very dynamic evolutionary history, which is reflected by its wide host distribution (Figure 1.9) and the many genomic niches invaded by these elements (Gimble, 2000).

The structures of several LHEases bound to their DNA targets have been elucidated (for more details: see Stoddard, 2006) and these models provide a clear picture about substrate recognition, binding and cleavage of these enzymes on their DNA targets. The structural studies indicates that LHEases consists of a core fold of mixed α/β topology ($\alpha\beta\beta\alpha\beta\beta\alpha$) and the overall shape of this domain is half-cylindrical, in which the underside forms a groove due to the presence of four antiparallel β -sheets. The latter present a large number of exposed basic and polar residues allowing for DNA contact and binding.

LHEases use a flexible strategy to recognize their target sites and tolerate a number of individual polymorphisms at the target site without significant loss of the enzyme's binding affinity. Structural studies of several LHEases bound to their DNA targets showed that LHEases recognize the target site by four antiparallel β -strands in each domain providing direct and water-mediated contacts between the enzyme and the major groove of each DNA half-site (Silva et al., 1999; Ichiyanagi et al., 2000; Chevalier et al., 2002; Bolduc et al., 2003; Chevalier et al., 2003; Moure et al., 2003; Takeuchi et al., 2011). The LHEases usually make contacts to approximately 70% of all the possible hydrogen-bond donors and acceptors of the base pairs in the major groove and about 30%

of the backbone phosphate groups across the enzyme's target site (Jurica et al., 1998; Chevalier et al., 2002; Chevalier et al., 2003).

The cleavage mechanism of I-CreI (Chevalier et al., 2003) has been well studied and many of the kinetics and catalysis mechanisms of this enzyme appear to apply to other LHEases. The I-CreI is highly dependent on divalent cations for activity in which three bound divalent metal ions are coordinated by a pair of overlapping active sites with one metal ion being shared in both cleavage reactions. In contrast, the structure of the monomeric (i.e. double motif LAGLIDADG motif) HEase enzyme I-AniI when bound to its DNA target showed that only two bound metal ions were present (Moure et al., 2002). Generally, there are two different cleavage mechanisms proposed for LHEases: the sequential and concerted cleavage mechanisms: in the former, the HEase makes an incision in one strand followed by nicking in the second strand (Moure et al., 2002), while in the latter, both strands are simultaneously cleaved (Saves et al., 2002).

1.8.2.2. GIY-YIG HEases:

The GIY-YIG proteins represent the second most numerous HEase family, and they were identified for the first time in group I introns of filamentous fungi and within the T4 bacteriophages. Members of this endonuclease family are characterized by the presence of the conserved GIY-(X10-11)-YIG amino acid motif (Michel and Dujon, 1986; Cummings et al., 1989; Kowalski et al., 1999). GIY-YIG endonucleases have been described from group I introns within mitochondrial genomes of yeasts (Tian et al., 1991) and filamentous fungi (Saguez et al., 2000), algal mitochondrial genomes (Kroymann and Zetsche, 1997) and in algal chloroplast genomes (Paquin et al., 1995) as well as bacteriophage genomes (I-TevI, I-TevII; Bell-Pedersen et al., 1990). However members of this HEase family have also been found in intergenic regions (F-TevI and F-TevII; Sharma et al., 1992) and recently one example has been noted to be encoded within a group II intron of the protozoan *Amoebidium parasiticum* (Li et al., 2011). These proteins promote the mobility of group I introns in a manner similar to that described for LAGLIDADG type HEases.

Biochemical experiments on the I-TevI HEase (the most extensively studied GIY-YIG HEase) indicate that these endonucleases act as monomers recognizing long homing sites (37 bp). The cleavage site is found to be many nucleotides away from the intron insertion site and this endonuclease generates 2 nucleotide 3' overhangs (Derbyshire et al., 1997). I-TevI is used as a model for GIY-YIG HEases; proteolysis and footprinting experiments have shown that I-TevI is a bipartite enzyme consisting of an N-terminal endonuclease domain and C-terminal DNA-binding domain separated by a long

flexible linker segment that functions as a molecular ruler to position the catalytic endonuclease domain at the correct distance onto the DNA substrate away from the DNA-binding domain (Derbyshire et al., 1997; Dean et al., 2002). The structure of I-TevI HEase was determined by X-ray crystallography; however the C-terminal DNA-binding domain and the N-terminal catalytic domain were analyzed separately (Van Roey et al., 2001 & 2002). The GIY-YIG nuclease motif is not unique to HEases, as the domain is associated with a variety of DNA binding enzymes/complexes that require endonuclease activity including DNA repair proteins, proteins encoded by retrotransposable elements (Pyatkov et al., 2004), and restriction endonucleases (Kaminska et al., 2008; Mak et al., 2010).

1.8.2.3. H-N-H HEases:

The H-N-H proteins or H-N-H domains have been found to be encoded within freestanding ORFs and ORFs associated with group I and group II introns and H-N-H motifs are found in the endonuclease domains of some inteins (Dalgaard et al., 1997; Chevalier and Stoddard 2001, Chevalier et al., 2005). Typically mobile group II introns encode complex proteins with several different functional domains associated with different activities; the so-called En domain is required for cleaving one strand at a potential intron insertion site (Lambowitz and Zimmerly, 2004 & 2011). The En domain contains sequence motifs characteristic of the H-N-H endonuclease family. Biochemical and structural analysis suggests that the H-N-H proteins belong to a group of enzymes whose active sites involve a conserved $\beta\beta\alpha$ -Me structural motif (reviewed in Keeble et al., 2005) a feature shared with His-Cys Box endonucleases. The H-N-H endonucleases

appear to be related to plasmid-encoded endonucleases referred as colicin DNases found in *E. coli* (Chevalier and Stoddard, 2001; Zimmerly et al., 2001).

1.8.2.4. His-Cys HEases:

His-Cys box HEases have been noted to be encoded by nuclear rDNA group I introns of several fungi and protists (Haugen et al., 2004; Galburt and Jurica, 2005). The best known examples are the I-PpoI from the myxomycete *Physarum polycephalum* (Muscarella et al., 1990) and I-DirI from *Didymium iridis* (Johansen et al., 1997). Recent studies show that the His-Cys box and H-N-H endonucleases share similar DNA-binding motifs and active sites suggesting they share a common ancestor and thus should be assigned into a single “superfamily” of HEases (Galburt and Jurica, 2005).

1.9. Homing endonucleases and restriction endonucleases:

Both HEases and restriction endonucleases (REases) are sequence-specific deoxyribonucleases generating site-specific double-strand breaks (DSB) at their DNA target sites. Although HEases and REases are functionally similar, they are phylogenetically and structurally differ. Members of REase families have been found only as free standing genes in bacteria, archaea and certain phages and act as a defense mechanism against invading viruses/phages (Krüger and Bickle, 1983; Wilson, 1988). On the other hand, HEases are widely distributed and are found in all biological domains (bacteria, archaea and eukarya) and they are frequently embedded within mobile elements such as the self-splicing group I, group II and archaeal introns or inteins and they can also be found as a free standing open reading frames (ORFs) between individual genes. HEGs

offer their host introns the ability to be mobile, whereas introns provide their accompanying HEG a position within the genome that does not impart toxicity or a phenotype to the host genome. HEases can also be expressed in different cell compartments within the eukaryotic cell such as nuclei (as inteins or as components of rDNA introns), or the mitochondria and chloroplasts (Lambowitz and Belfort, 1993; Muller et al., 1993).

Based on their recognition sequence, subunit composition, cleavage position, and cofactor requirements, REases, can be divided into three major groups: Type I, II and III enzymes (Williams, 2003) whereas HEases based on conserved amino acid sequence motifs can be classified into eight families: LAGLIDADG, GIY-YIG, H-N-H, His-Cys box, PD-(D/E)XK, Vsr-like, Holliday junction resolvase-like and EDxHD (Stoddard, 2006 & 2011). The major difference between HEases and REases is the length of DNA target site; HEases recognize very long asymmetric target site ranging from 14 to 44 bp (Stoddard, 2006), whereas REases recognize relatively short target sites between 4 to 8 bp and many of them are palindromic in nature (Gowher and Jeltsch, 2001). Although HEases and REases do share a common function (cleaving double-stranded DNA), they appear to have evolved independently (Belfort and Roberts, 1997); HEGs represent selfish elements that colonize genomes and the REases represent a DNA defense strategy against foreign DNAs. However, it should be stated that some intron-encoded proteins have been co-opted to perform essential functions within host genomes such as acting as intron splicing factors, recombinases, and nuclease domains in DNA repair enzyme (reviewed in Hausner, 2012).

1.10. Applications of Homing endonucleases:

Homing endonucleases recognize large DNA binding sites (14 to 44 bps; Silva et al., 2011) which are extremely rare within a genome, thus typically only one (or none) such HEase DNA target sites exist within a mammalian-sized genome. However, unlike restriction endonucleases, these enzymes can tolerate some sequence degeneracy within their recognition site. These two unique characters (high specificity and tolerance of target site degeneracy) facilitate using HEases as a potential tools in different *in vitro*, *in vivo* or *ex vivo* applications, such genomic engineering in a variety of different genetic systems allowing for gene therapy, genome modifications, and pest control.

The use of HEases in therapeutic or genome editing applications (Figure 1.10. [a]), is mainly based on their capacity to generate a site-specific DSB, which triggers the cell to repair the DNA damage by pathways either involving homologous recombination (HR) or nonhomologous end joining (NHEJ) (Johnson and Jasin, 2001; Mladenov and Iliakis, 2011; Symington and Gautier, 2011). The DSB HR is a highly conserved mechanism that is used by many organisms to repair DNA breaks, so this DNA repair machinery is being exploited to incorporate DNA sequence modifications such as the repair of a defective gene by cutting the defective allele in the presence of a repair template that provides the corrected allele. In the past decade two different approaches have been pursued to induce highly site-specific DNA DSB: zinc finger nucleases (ZFNs; Wright et al., 2006; Klug, 2010) and HEases (Gimble 2007; Stoddard et al., 2008; Maracaida et al., 2010).

Editing the human genome can be done with viral-vector mediated transfer of genes but many of these can lead to insertional mutations (Davé et al., 2009). Therefore strategies for genome editing to correct disease-causing alleles have been developed that are more site specific. ZFNs (Urnov et al., 2005; Durai et al., 2005 ; Klug, 2010) are artificial restriction enzymes that have been generated by combining a zinc finger (ZF) binding (DNA-binding/reognition) domain to a DNA-cleavage domain (Cathomen and Joung, 2008; Sander et al., 2007). The zinc-finger domain can be engineered to target specific sequences. Thus genome editing can be achieved by the ZFN inducing a site-specific DSB at a programmed target site within the genome, inducing homology-directed repair using a corresponding gene segment present on a gene-targeting vector that serves as a template for DSB repair and therefore promotes gene replacement (Santiago et al., 2008). The ZF module is relatively small compared to other site-specific DNA binding domains; however ZFN sequence specificity optimization is quite involved to avoid toxic cleavage events at ectopic sites. Also there is a risk that the communication between the ZF and the endonuclease domains is not always precise leading to cleavage at ectopic sites (Uronov et al., 2005; Szczepek et al., 2007; Pattanayak et al., 2011). Nevertheless the recent success in using ZFNs in modifying the HIV CCR5 coreceptor surface protein in the T lymphocytes of AIDS patients is an impressive accomplishment (Perez et al., 2008). This and other recent successes in gene repair do demonstrate the potential of site-specific endonucleases such as ZFNs and meganucleases such as HEases in genome editing applications (Silva et al., 2011). An alternative to engineered ZFNs are HEases; there is a large natural reservoir of HEases within organellar genomes of many eukaryotes, and within the genomes of bacteria, Archaea and phages (see Figure 1.9;

Barzel et al., 2011; Li et al., 2011; Takeuchi et al., 2011; Hausner, 2012). Natural HEases, genetically modified HEases and synthetic HEases have been optimized and designed or redesigned for targeting specific sequences such as for human monogenic diseases (Stoddard, 2011).

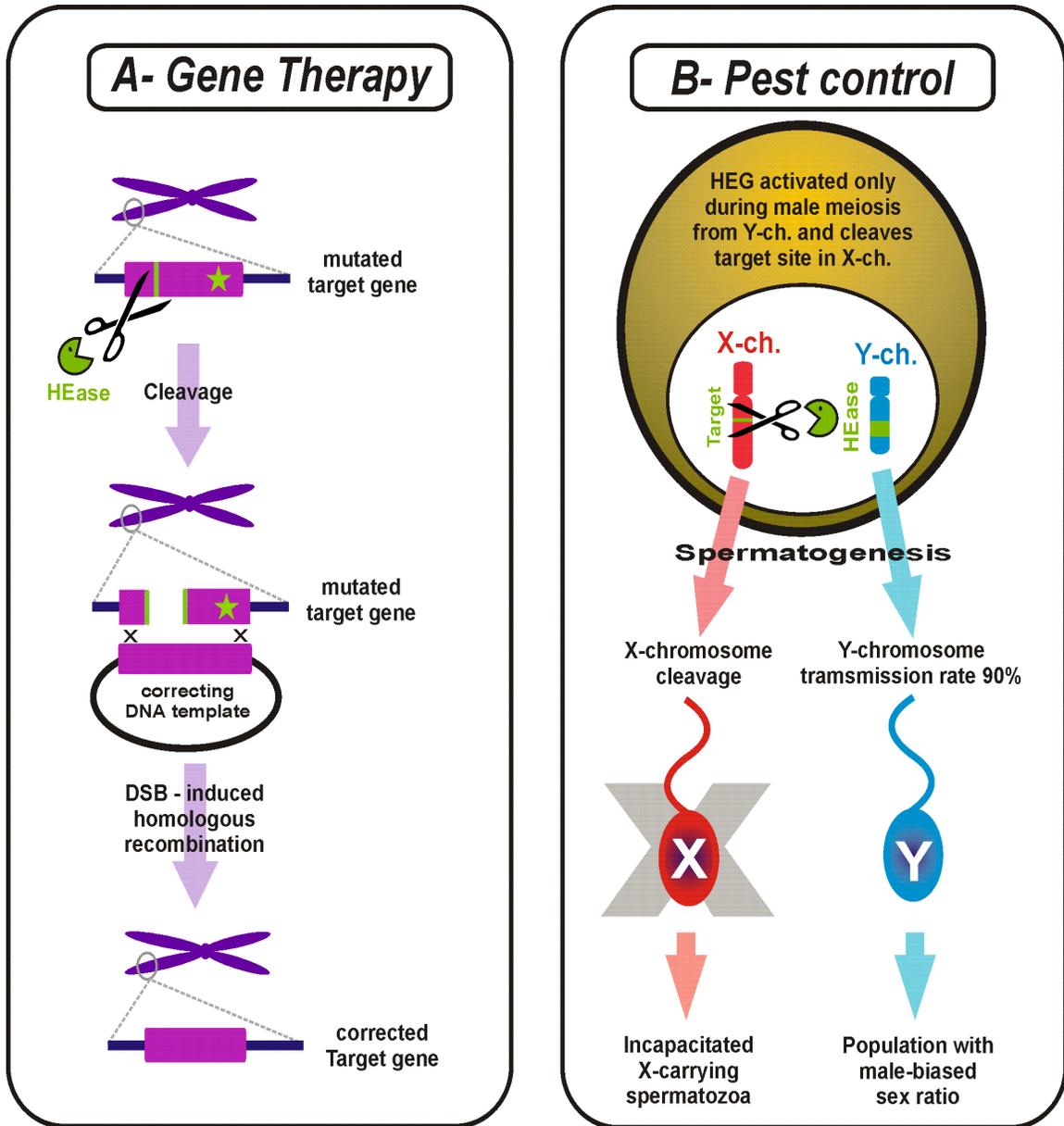
Naturally occurring LHEases are the most frequently encountered HEases (Takeuchi et al., 2011) and they tend to generate double-stranded breaks that can be either repaired as stated previously by HR, depending on mechanisms requiring a template to repair the damage, or by NHEJ (Non-Homologous End Joining) a method that can directly repair the break by rejoining the free DNA ends. However, the latter repair mechanism can result in loss of sequence information at the repair junction (Aubert et al., 2011), and in some cases promote chromosome translocation (Jeggo, 1998; Iliakis et al., 2004; Symington and Gautier, 2011). For gene targeting and precise gene replacement (repair) conditions have to be created that favour HR depending mechanisms to ensure no loss of genetic information occurs at the DSB (Muñoz et al., 2011). Some engineered variants of LHEases (Niu et al., 2008; McConell Smith et al., 2009; Chan et al., 2011) and some native members of the H-N-H family of HEases cut only a single strand of the DNA substrate and yet can still promote intron homing (Landthaler et al., 2006). Such site specific nicking HEases are viewed as promising candidates for promoting HR repair scenarios during HEase induced gene targeting and gene replacement experiments, as DSB which can generate genomic instabilities can be avoided when only one strand of the target site is disrupted (Davis and Maizels, 2011).

Although the HR based DNA repair promotes accurate gene replacements in some instances, where HEases are used to target specific sequences to induce mutations, the NHEJ mechanism is actually favored. For example recently an engineered variant of I-AniI (Y2 I-AniI) was used to successfully target and disrupt an integrated lentivirus within immortalized human cell lines by having the HEase target a sequence within the viral DNA. The DSB introduced by the HEase introduced small deletions and insertions surrounding the cleavage site during the NHEJ based repair process (Aubert et al., 2011). The long term objective of this project is to develop methods to selectively disrupt integrated HIV proviruses within latently infected cells, but this approach can also be envisioned as a genetic tool to generate mutations in eukaryotic cell lines.

Homing endonucleases hold great promise for generating a variety of genetic tools that allow for site-directed mutagenesis in a variety of organisms (Flannagan et al., 2008; Siegl et al., 2010; Wang et al., 2012). For example a system referred to as “*Delitto perfetto*” is a genetic method for *in vivo* site-directed mutagenesis in *S. cerevisiae* where the I-SceI LHEase is used to generate a DSB at the appropriate target site and thus induce the DSB repair process which increases the frequency of targeted HR by 4,000 fold compared to experiments where DSB were not generated (Storici and Resnick, 2003).

Figure 1.10. Two areas of applications for HEases. [a] Gene replacement (gene therapy): mutated genes can be corrected if it is cleaved (scissor symbol) with a HEase (pac-man symbol) in the presence of a correcting DNA “exogenous donor”. The mutated gene is repaired via DSB-induced HR using the correcting DNA as template; [b] pest control: HEases can be used to affect pest population. A HEG with a meiosis-specific promoter can be located on the Y chromosome and when expressed during gametogenesis the HEase cleaves a target site in the X chromosome leading to incapacitation of the X-carrying spermatozoa and therefore this will generate a male-biased population (Deredec et al., 2011)

Figure 1.10.



Meganucleases are continuously engineered for targeted genome engineering with some applications relating to human gene therapy (Silva et al., 2006; Smith et al., 2006; Paques and Duchateau, 2007; Pingoud and Silva, 2007; Ashworth et al., 2010; Muñoz et al., 2012; Pessach and Notarangelo, 2011). For example derivatives of I-CreI HEases have been generated to target human genes involved in monogenic diseases (Arnold et al., 2006 & 2011). The human gene *XPC* (encoding Xeroderma Pigmentosum complementation group C) has been successfully targeted and cleaved with an engineered derivative of I-CreI with no obvious signs of genotoxicity (Arnold et al., 2006; Prieto et al., 2012). The human *RAG1* gene has been targeted by an altered I-CreI enzyme to correct mutations that give rise to severe combined immunodeficiency (SCID) phenotypes and the HR induced repair was able to induce high levels of gene correction with minimal toxicity (Grizot et al., 2009).

In addition to gene therapy, HEases have been proposed to manipulate the composition of natural populations of pests (Figure 1.10. [b]) such as invasive species, pathogens, or vectors of pathogens by decreasing population fitness and thus driving down population densities (Burt, 2003; Burt and Trivers, 2006; Henzell et al., 2008; Chan et al., 2011). The goal is to incorporate a HEG within the genome of a target species and the HEase could be programmed to target genes involved in sex determination, fertility, or key genes in the vectors of a particular pest, i.e. genes required for efficient pathogen transmission (Deredec et al., 2008 & 2011; Windbichler et al., 2008). In Australia the development of genetic tools is underway to control destructive invasive species such as

carp and cane toads by developing “daughterless” progeny with the aid of genetic constructs that include HEGs (Saunders et al., 2010).

Recently *Drosophila* and *Anopheles gambiae* have been investigated as model systems for developing approaches to develop populations with male sex ratio biases (Chan et al., 2011; Windbichler et al., 2008). For examples HEGs are applied as a potential solution for effective malaria control by targeting mosquito (*A. gambiae*) populations that vector the parasite. HEases are considered promising tools to transfer genetic modifications from engineered laboratory mosquitoes to wild-type population, due to their ability to propagate within the genome. As they are inherited in a non-Mendelian way, populations could be affected within fewer than 20 generations by a HEase-based gene drive mechanism (Windbichler et al., 2011).

Windbichler et al. (2007) demonstrated that in *A. gambiae* the HEase I-PpoI can cut a genomic rDNA site located on the X chromosome. This strategy could eliminate X-carrying spermatozoa and favour a severe male-biased sex ratio (Windbichler et al., 2007). The HEG introduced in a genome would be under the control of a meiosis-specific promoter to allow for the normal development of the heterozygous zygotes and during meiosis the HEG could be expressed and the HEase could disrupt its target site by cleavage activity in a certain fraction of gametes and resulting homozygous zygotes will die (Windbichler et al., 2008).

The application of re-engineered natural HEases in plant biotechnology is also gaining interest for developing transformation vector systems, plant genome editing, and for targeted mutagenesis (Yang et al., 2009; Gao et al., 2010; Vainstein et al., 2011; Zeevi et al., 2012). Finally natural and engineered HEases can also be used as reagents for molecular biology, similar to type II restriction enzymes. Commercially available HEases are used for linearizing large insert type cloning vectors (i.e., BACS) that have been engineered to include a specific HEase target site allowing recombinant clones to be linearized. Also rare cutting HEases are used in genomics to generate large DNA fragments suitable for pulse field electrophoretic studies (Gimble, 2005; Marcaida et al., 2010; Siegl, 2010).

1.10.1. Engineering homing endonucleases:

Sequence-specific endonucleases such as type II restriction enzymes played an important role in the rapid progress of molecular biology and biotechnology. One possible drawback in today's era of genomics is that type II restriction enzymes cut frequently, as they recognize small target sequences (4 - 8 bp), whereas HEases recognize relatively long sequence (14 - 44 bp) making them suitable for genomics and genetically modifying organisms. However, so far most applications are based on a limited number (I-CreI, I-AniI, I-SceI and I-OnuI) of well characterized HEases (Takeuchi et al., 2011; Prieto et al., 2012); therefore there is a need to bioprospect and characterize more native HEases or modify existing HEases or engineer HEases so that a wider choice of target sites can be substrate to HEases. A variety of techniques have been explored to generate

HEases and to modify recognition site specificity of HEases such as domain shuffling or applying genetic screens and selection (Arnould et al., 2011; Ashworth et al., 2010).

Domain shuffling is one of the most important strategies to alter HEase specificity, and it has been demonstrated that new active chimeric HEases can be created by fusing domains from unrelated HEases. This mixing/matching of HEase parts can result in endonucleases that recognize chimeric DNA target sites (Chevalier et al., 2002; Steuer et al., 2004). The E-DreI (now named H-DreI; Roberts et al., 2003) is a highly active artificial enzyme created by fusing domains from two different LHEases: I-DmoI and I-CreI; and H-DreI recognizes a hybrid substrate derived from each original parent donors (Chevalier et al., 2002; Epinat et al., 2003). Thus, individual domains appear to be highly modular and are responsible for recognition of individual DNA target half-sites and these modules can be shuffled and recombined to alter the DNA-binding specificity.

Another kind of chimeric endonuclease is made by combining a HEase DNA-binding module with the cleaving module of a restriction enzyme. For example it was shown that a mutated version of the LHEase I-SceI HEase, which can still bind to DNA but cannot cleave DNA when fused with the non-specific catalytic domain of the class IIS restriction enzyme FokI with the aid of a polypeptide linker, resulted in a hybrid chimeric endonuclease that cleaves double-stranded DNA at a defined site outside the original target site (Lippow et al., 2009). Another site-specific endonuclease was engineered by fusing the specific catalytic domain of the class IIP restriction enzyme

PvuII with the DNA-binding domain of the catalytically inactive variant I-SceI (Fonfara et al., 2012).

Typically for HEases to be characterized and potentially reprogramed one needs to first establish their native target sites followed by studying the structure of the protein by obtaining crystals where the enzyme was co-crystalized with its natural substrate (Kowalski and Derbyshire, 2002; Takeuchi et al., 2011). The latter, upon detailed analysis, allows for the determination of a detailed contact map which shows which amino acid moieties are actually in physical contact with the DNA target sequence. This allows for the generation of a series of mutations whereby amino acid substitutions are introduced along the DNA binding and cleavage domains of the HEase. This is followed by experiments to examine the new binding and cutting specificity of the mutated form of the HEase (Gao et al., 2010; Takeuchi et al., 2011). The recent study by Takeuchi et al., (2011) is a nice demonstration how native HEases from fungal mitochondrial genomes (Sethuraman et al., 2009a) can be re-engineered to target a variety of human genes associated with diseases. These methods are mainly based on: selection of high affinity DNA binding activity (Gimble et al., 2003) and selection for DNA cleavage activity (Seligman et al., 2002; Chen and Zhao, 2005; Doyon et al., 2006).

Controlling the cleavage activity of HEases is an extremely important feature in order to optimize these elements as tools for gene replacements. Inserting “switches” that allow the HEase to be reversibly turned on and off would increase the sensitivity of the HEase to cellular conditions and reduce potential toxic effects on the cell when

endonuclease activity is not desirable. Posey and Gimble (2002) showed that the yeast PI-SceI HEase can be turned on and off, *in vitro*, by using a successive cycles of reducing and oxidizing (redox) treatments. Two cysteine residues were introduced into flexible DNA binding loops to yield intramolecular disulfide bonds that lock the PI-SceI into a nonproductive conformation under oxidizing conditions and the enzyme activity was decreased more than 30-fold compared to the wild-type PI-SceI. In the reduced state, the loops undergo a conformational change that allows the protein to contact the DNA target site and to cleave the substrate sequence. The cleavage activity of the enzyme under reducing conditions was noted to be similar or slightly lower to that of the wild-type PI-SceI. The major drawback of the redox switch is that this system is currently limited to *in vitro* applications.

1.10.2. Future prospects:

Bioprospecting for native HEGs and the future development of engineered highly site specific HEases will make this unique group of rare cutting enzymes the molecular scissors that can be used in many applications such as characterizing genomes, or for manipulating genomes for medical, agricultural and biotechnological applications. Optimization of gene replacement strategies has to involve a better understanding of selecting appropriate cells or increasing the probability of generating genetic events where DSB are repaired by HR based mechanisms in order to avoid the introduction of genomic instabilities. *In vivo* switches may be developed that can activate and deactivate these enzymes by small molecules (ligands) or external stimuli without affecting the cellular metabolism of the cell. In most HEases the DNA-binding domains are not

distinct from the cleavage domain this makes engineering these enzymes more difficult but these enzymes may have greater selectivity for the intended target site than the engineered ZFNs or TAL (Transcription Activator-Like) effector (E) nucleases (Vainstein et al., 2011; Schleifman et al., 2008; Silanskas et al., 2012). TALE nucleases are artificial endonucleases that are the result of the fusion of a DNA binding domain (that can be redesigned) obtained from transcription activator-like proteins excreted by *Xanthomonas* bacteria to a non-specific DNA cleavage domain from the FokI endonuclease (Christian et al., 2010). These enzymes can be engineered to generate DSB at specific locations within the genome; thus similarly to HEases they can be used to edit genomes (Bogdanove and Voytas, 2011).

With the large number of yet to be discovered natural HEases there is a tremendous resource available within the organellar genomes that can be explored for finding new HEases. The characterization of these native HEases will reveal their target sites and this allows for scanning for the presence of their target sites in economically important organisms (genes) and for reprogramming native HEases to recognize new target sites such as genes involved in human monogenic diseases.

1.11. Research objectives:

1.11.1. Screening for the presence of introns and IEPs in the *rns* gene of ophiostomatoid fungi:

The *rns* gene can be considered a natural reservoir of introns and IEPs, so the objectives of this project were:

- (1) PCR-based screening of the *rns* gene of several groups of ophiostomatoid fungi including strains of *O. ulmi*, *O. novo-ulmi*, and *O. minus* using universal primer pairs (mtsr-1/mtsr-2 and rns-F/rns-R) that bind at highly conserved sequences at the 5' and 3' termini of the *rns* gene;
- (2) Selecting representative *rns* genes to be sequenced based on the amplicon size and their phylogenetic position;
- (3) Identify and characterize potential insertions (introns and IEPs) that interrupt the *rns* gene by comparative sequence analysis;
- (4) Attempt to resolve the evolutionary dynamics between the host gene, the introns and their IEPs;
- (5) Evaluating the possibility of using introns as molecular markers to distinguish between different species within the Dutch Elm Disease causing species complex;
- (6) and finally to provide an overview of the various types of elements that can insert within the nuclear SSU rDNA and the mtDNA *rns* gene among the ophiostomatoid fungi. The latter should prove to be useful in annotating the *rns* gene for fungi in future studies. The data are also valuable to those who are interested in prospecting for native HEases or ribozymes for potential applications in biotechnology.

1.11.2. The biochemical characterization of homing endonucleases encoded within group I and II introns:

Based on the information generated in the first project, two LHEases encoded within group I and group II introns were subjected to a detailed biochemical analysis. The *rns* gene of *O. minus* strain WIN(M)371 was found to be interrupted by two introns at positions S569 and S952; the former is a group IC2 intron while the latter is a group IIB1 intron and they both encode double motif LHEases. The objective of this project is to overexpress these two HEases (named I-OmiI and I-OmiII) in *E. coli* and purify them in order to test their endonuclease activity and if these IEPs are active LHEases and to map the cleavage sites of these enzymes. Essentially these are the first steps in assessing if these HEases could have applications in biotechnology.

CHAPTER: 2
GENERAL MATERIALS AND METHODS

2.1. Fungal strains and growth conditions:

For routine culturing the strains were maintained in Petri plates containing 2% Malt Extract Agar (MEA; Difco, Michigan, USA) supplemented with 1 g^l⁻¹ yeast extract (YE; Difco) and 20 g^l⁻¹ bacteriological agar (Fisher Scientific, location). From these cultures, agar plugs were cut containing fungal growths, which were used to inoculate 250 ml conical flasks containing 50 ml peptone yeast-extract agar (PYG) liquid medium (1 g^l⁻¹ peptone, 1 g^l⁻¹ yeast extract and 3 g^l⁻¹ glucose). Liquid cultures were incubated at 20 °C for 7 days to generate biomass for DNA and/or RNA extractions.

2.2 DNA extraction:

Fungal genomic DNA was extracted as previously described (Kim et al., 1990; Hausner et al., 1992). Fungal mycelia were harvested by filtering the cultures through a Whatman # 1 filter paper; mycelia were disrupted by vortexing in 3 ml of extraction buffer [1 M Tris-Cl (pH 8.0), 0.5 M Na₂EDTA·2H₂O (pH 8.0), 5 M NaCl, 10 % (w/v), cetyltrimethyl ammonium bromide (CTAB, Sigma)] and 3 ml of glass beads (Fisher Scientific), and the lysate was then incubated at 50 - 60 °C for a minimum of 2 hours in 3 ml of extraction buffer and 660 µl of 20 % (w/v) sodium dodecyl sulphate (SDS). Cell debris, denatured proteins, lipids, etc. were extracted in 6 ml chloroform and pelleted by centrifugation at 2000 rpm for 20 minutes at room temperature. The top aqueous layer was removed and the DNA was precipitated first with the addition of 2.5 volumes of ice-cold 95 % ethanol.

The tube was then stored for at least 3 hours (or overnight) at -20 °C and the DNA was pelleted by centrifugation (3000 rpm for 30 minutes) and the DNA pellet was washed with 1 ml of 70 % ethanol. The dried pellet was resuspended in 300 µl of 1X Tris-EDTA (TE) buffer [10 mM Tris-Cl (pH 7.6) and 1 mM Na₂EDTA·2H₂O (pH 8.0)].

2.3. PCR amplification:

The nuclear internal transcribed spacers (ITS1, 5.8S and ITS2) were amplified by the polymerase chain reaction (PCR) using the Invitrogen enhancer system (Invitrogen, Burlington, Canada) at the 1.5X rate containing the following ingredients (µl/reaction): 10X Taq DNA polymerase buffer (Stratagene, Agilent Technologies, La Jolla, USA) (5); 2.5 mM dNTP (4); 50 mM MgSO₄ (1.5); 40 pmol each of forward and reverse primers (0.5+0.5); 10X PCR enhancer solution (7.5); Taq DNA polymerase (0.25), H₂O (29.75); and genomic DNA (~10 to 100 ng) template (1). The oligonucleotide primer pairs SSU-Z/LSU-4 and SS-3/LS-2 (Alpha DNA, Montréal, Canada; see Figure 2.1.[a] and Table 2.1.) were used for amplification of the ITS region (Hausner et al., 1993b; Hausner and Wang, 2005; Mullineux and Hausner, 2009). The PCR conditions were as follows: initial denaturation at 95 °C for 2 minutes followed by 30 cycles of denaturation (95 °C for 1 min), annealing (52 °C for 1.5 min) and extension (70 °C for 1 minute) plus a final extension step at 70 °C for 10 minutes.

Figure 2.1. A schematic overview of [a] the internal transcribed spacer region (ITS1 & ITS2); [b] the translation elongation factor 1 alpha gene and [c] the mitochondrial *rns* gene, showing the initial primers used to amplify each region/gene. Figures are not drawn to scale.

Figure 2.1.

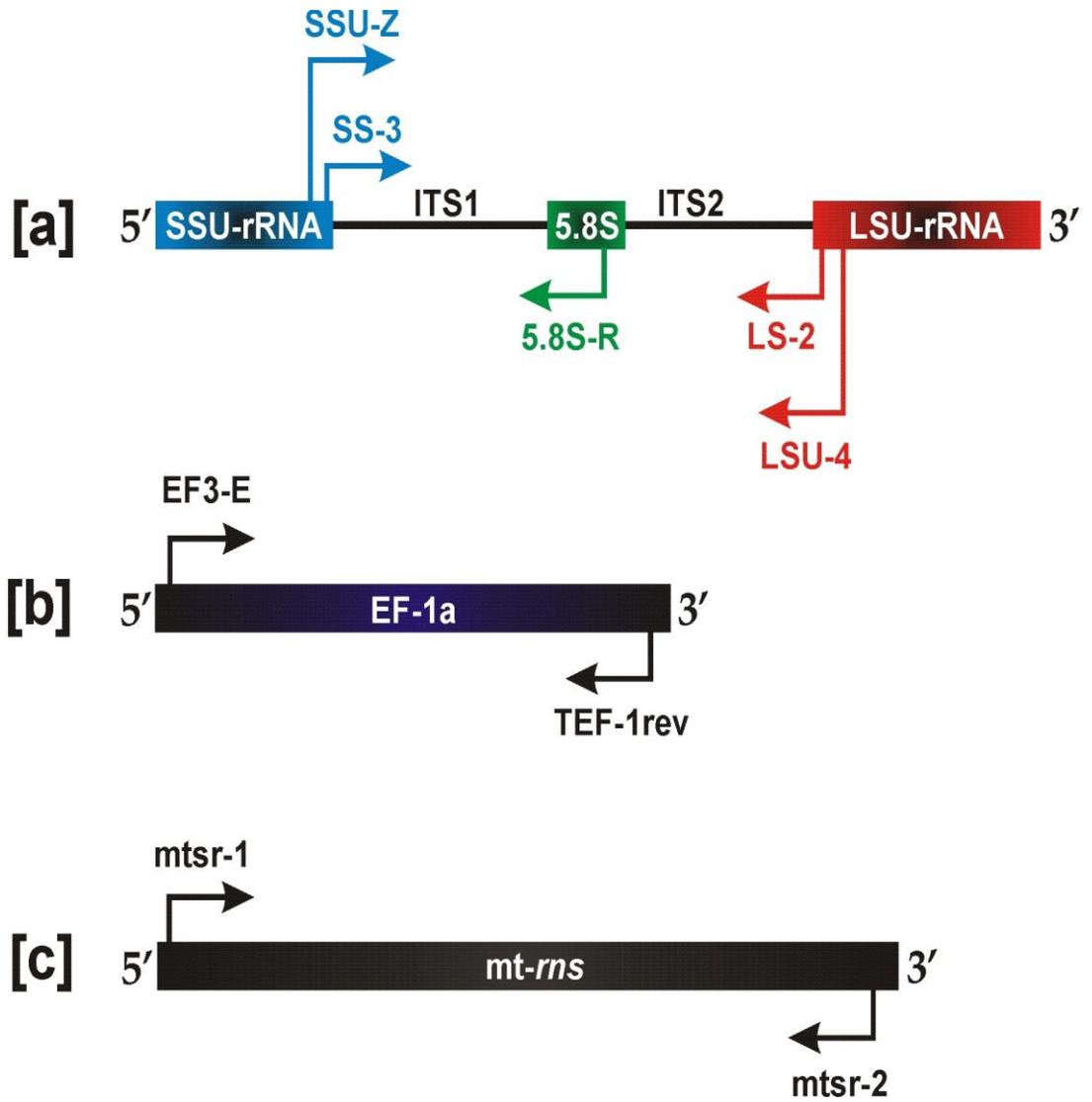


Table 2.1. A list of the initial primers used to amplify the ITS, EF-1alpha and *rns* genes.

Table 2.1.

Forward primer		Reverse primer	
Primer name	Sequence (5' → 3')	Primer name	Sequence (5' → 3')
SS-3	GTCGTAACAAGGTCTCCG	LS-2	GATATGCTTAAGTCAGCG
SSU-Z	ATAACAGGTCTGTGATG	LSU-4	TTGTGCGCTATCGGTCTC
EF3-E	GTCGTYATCGGCCACGTCGA	5.8S-R	GACGCTCGGACAGGCATGCC
mtsr-1	AGTGGTGTACAGGTGAG	TEF-1rev.	GCCATCCTTGGAGATACCAGC
		mtsr-2	CGAGTGGTTAGTACCAATCC

The nuclear translation elongation factor gene 1 alpha (EF-1 α) was amplified with primers EF3-E and TEF-1rev (Lim et al., 2004); the primer binding sites are shown in Figure 2.1[b] and primer sequence are described in Table 2.1. Amplifications were carried out in a reaction mix containing the following ingredients (μ l/reaction): 10X Taq DNA polymerase buffer (Stratagene) (5); 50 mM MgCl₂ (0.5); 2.5 mM dNTP (4); 40 pmol each forward and reverse primer (0.5 + 0.5); H₂O (38.25); genomic DNA template (1); and Taq DNA polymerase (0.25). The EF-1 α amplification was carried out using the following PCR conditions: initial denaturation at 94 °C for 2 minutes, followed by 25 cycles of denaturation (94 °C for 30 sec), annealing (56 °C for 30 sec) and extension (70 °C for 80 sec); followed by a final extension step at 70 °C for 5 minutes. The concentration of dGTP and dCTP as well as the annealing temperature were optimized as required.

The mitochondrial *rns* gene was amplified as previously described in Mullineux et al. (2010) with the primer mtsr-1 and mtsr-2 (see Figure 2.1[c] and Table 2.1) using standard DNA amplification protocols utilizing the Invitrogen PCR system (Invitrogen). Amplifications were carried out in a reaction mix containing the following ingredients (μ l/reaction): 10X Taq DNA polymerase buffer (Stratagene) (5); 50 mM MgCl₂ (0.5); 2.5 mM dNTP (4); 40 pmol each forward and reverse primer (0.5 + 0.5); H₂O (38.25); genomic DNA template (1); and Taq DNA polymerase (0.25). The PCR conditions for the mtsr-1 and mtsr-2 primers were as follows: an initial denaturation at 93 °C for 1 minute followed by 25 cycles of denaturation (93 °C for 1 minute), annealing (55 °C for 1

minute) and extension (70 °C for 5 minutes) followed by a final extension step at 70 °C for 10 minutes. The annealing temperature was optimized as required.

In some instances (to optimize the PCR amplification of *rns* gene) the Invitrogen PCR system was replaced with the OneTaq Hot Start DNA Polymerase (New England Biolabs, Pickering, ON, Canada). For the latter system amplifications were carried out in a reaction mix containing the following ingredients (μl/reaction): 5X OneTaq DNA polymerase standard reaction buffer (10 μl); 10 mM dNTPs (1μ); 40 pmol each forward and reverse primer (1 μl +1 μl); H₂O (35.75 μl); genomic DNA template (1 μl); and Taq DNA polymerase (0.25 μl). The PCR conditions for the *mtsr-1* and *mtsr-2* primers were as follows: an initial denaturation at 94 °C for 30 seconds followed by 30 cycles of denaturation (94 °C for 30 seconds), annealing (55 °C for 1 minute) and extension (68 °C for 1 minute/kb) followed by a final extension step at 68 °C for 5 minutes.

Oligonucleotides primers utilized for both PCR amplification and DNA sequencing of the nuclear SSU rDNA gene were characterized in Hausner et al. (1993a), Hausner and Reid (2004), Gibb and Hausner (2005) and Hafez et al. (2012). The primers SSU-J and SSU-T were initially used to screen our collection for the potential of nuclear SSU rDNA insertions. For some strains the sequences were extended across the ITS regions to examine group I introns located near the 3' end of the SSU rDNA gene; here the SSU-Z and LSU-4 primers (described in Hausner and Wang, 2005) were utilized to obtain the appropriate regions. PCR conditions for the primers above are described in Hausner and Reid (2004) and Hausner and Wang (2005).

All PCR amplicons were analyzed by gel electrophoresis through 1% agarose gel in Tris-Borate EDTA (TBE) buffer (89 mM Tris-borate, 10 mM EDTA, pH 8.0). The DNA fragments were sized using the 1-kb plus ladder (Invitrogen), and nucleic acids were visualized by staining in 1X TBE buffer supplemented with 0.5 µg/ml ethidium bromide (EtBr) and exposing the stained gels with Ultra violet (UV) light.

2.4. PCR products purification:

PCR products were purified using the Wizard[®] SV Gel and PCR Clean-Up System (Promega, Madison, USA), the solution containing the PCR product was mixed with an equal volume of binding solution. In the case of purifying the PCR product from an agarose gel, the gel slice that contained the band of interest was dissolved in membrane binding solution (10 µl/10 mg) and vortexed, then incubated at 50 -65 °C until the gel slice was completely dissolved. The membrane binding solution that contained the PCR product was then loaded onto a mini-column and incubated for 1 minute at room temperature, and then the tube was centrifuged at 13000 rpm for 1 minute. The mini-column was washed with 700 µl of membrane wash solution and then centrifuged as above. The sample bound within the mini-column was washed a second time with 500 µl of membrane wash solution and centrifuged as above for 5 minutes. The purified PCR product was eluted from the mini-column in 50 µl of nuclease-free H₂O and stored at -20 °C for DNA sequencing.

2.5. Cloning of PCR products and purification of plasmid DNA:

The PCR products were cloned into *E. coli* (DH5 α) using the TOPO TA Cloning[®] kit (Invitrogen) to improve sequencing efficiency. Four μ L of the purified amplicon was mixed with 1 μ l of the pCR[®]4-TOPO[®] vector and 1 μ l salt solution (1.2 mM NaCl; 0.06 mM MgCl₂) and the entire reaction mix was transformed with One Shot[®] MAX Efficiency[®] DH5 α Chemically Competent *E. coli* according to the recommended procedure in the TOPO-TA Cloning[®] Kit for Sequencing (Invitrogen). The transformed *E. coli* cells were incubated on ice for 30 minutes and then heat shocked at 42 °C for 30 – 60 seconds; thereafter 250 μ l Super Optimal broth with Catabolite repression (SOC) medium was added and then incubated at 37 °C for 1 hour. The culture was then inoculated onto Luria Bertani (LB) agar supplemented with ampicillin (60 μ g/ml) and X-GAL dissolved in dimethyl formamide (40 mg/ml). Putative transformants were identified using blue-white selection and were screened by PCR as described above except that the positive clones (*E. coli* colonies that contain the insert of interest) were used as a source of DNA template for sequencing. Plasmid DNA was harvested from 3 ml of overnight liquid (LB) cultures and purified using the Wizard[®] Plus Minipreps DNA purification system (Promega) and eluted in a final volume of 50 μ l of nuclease-free water and stored at -20 °C for DNA sequencing.

2.6. DNA sequencing:

The double-stranded DNA fragments were sequenced using the BigDye[®] Terminator v3.1 Cycle Sequencing Kit (Applied Biosystems, Foster City, CA, USA) following the manufacturer's instructions. The sequencing products were denatured and

resolved on a 3130 genetic analyzer (Applied Biosystems). Initially vector based primers as supplied by the TOPO cloning kit: M13 Forward, M13 Reverse, T7 (forward), and T3 (reverse) were used to obtain sequences; thereafter primers were designed as needed to complete all sequences in both directions (see Table 2.1 and Appendix 9.3. for primer list).

2.7 Sequence and phylogenetic analysis:

Individual sequences were compiled and assembled manually into contigs using the GeneDoc program v2.5.010 (Nicholas et al., 1997) and nucleotide sequence alignments were done with the Clustal-X program (Thompson et al., 1997); the Clustal-X program was also used to convert data sets into the PHYLIP file format needed for phylogenetic analysis. The ORF finder program (<http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/gorf/gorf.html>; Genetic code setting for molds #4) was used to search for potential ORFs within the *mt-rns* introns.

The online resource Basic Local Alignment Search Tool (BLAST: <http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/BLAST/>; Altschul et al., 1990) was used to retrieve nucleotide sequences (BLASTn) and amino acid sequences (BLASTp) from GenBank (National Center for Biotechnology Information) which shared similarities to the *mt-rns* and the intron encoded ORFs, respectively. The amino acid sequence data sets were aligned with the online multiple sequence alignment program PRALINE (Simossis & Hirenga 2005; <http://www.ibi.vu.nl/programs/pralinetm/>). The resulting alignments were examined and adjusted with the GeneDoc program.

Phylogenetic estimates were generated for all alignments by the programs contained within the PHYLIP package (Felsenstein, 2006) and the MrBayes program v3.1 (Ronquist and Huelsenbeck, 2003; Ronquist, 2004). In PHYLIP (Felsenstein, 2006), phylogenetic trees were obtained by analyzing the nucleotide and amino acids alignments with the DNAPARS and PROTPARS programs, respectively, both in combination with bootstrap analysis (1000 replicates, SEQBOOT) and CONSENSE to obtain the majority rule consensus trees. Phylogenetic estimates were also generated within PHYLIP using the NEIHGBOR program using distance matrices generated by DNADIST (K84 setting) and PROTDIST (setting: Dayhoff PAM250 substitution matrix; Dayhoff et al., 1978) for nucleotide and amino acid alignments, respectively.

The MrBayes program was used for Bayesian analysis and the parameters for amino acid alignments were as follows: mixed models and gamma distribution with 4 gamma rate parameters. The Bayesian inference of phylogenies was initiated from a random starting tree and four chains were run simultaneously for 1 000 000 generations; trees were sampled every 100 generations. The first 25 % of trees generated were discarded ("burn-in") and the remaining trees were used to compute the posterior probability values. For nucleotide sequence alignments the GTR model with gamma distribution was applied and as above; four chains were run simultaneously for 1 000 000 generations with sample frequency of 100 and a "burn-in" corresponding to the first 25% of sampled trees.

Phylogenetic trees were drawn with the TreeView program (Page, 1996) using PHYLIP tree outfiles or MrBayes 50% majority rule tree files, and annotated with Corel Draw™ (Corel Corporation, Ottawa, Canada).

2.8. Intron nomenclature and secondary structure modeling:

For naming introns we followed the nomenclature proposed by Johansen and Haugen (2001), and intron insertion sites are based on corresponding nucleotide positions within the *E. coli* SSU-rRNA sequence (accession number AB035922). So for example based on this system the mt-*rns* intron name: O.mi472-mS379 is based on O.mi to indicate *O. minus* and the 472 is the strain number; the mS stands for the mitochondrial SSSU-rRNA gene and 379 refers to the insertion site with respect to the *E. coli* SSU-rRNA sequence.

The secondary structures of the mt-*rns* introns were predicted following the conventions for group I introns (Burke et al., 1987; Michel and Westhof, 1990; Li and Zhang, 2005) and group II introns (Michel and Ferat, 1995; Toor et al., 2001). The online program *mfold* (<http://www.bioinfo.rpi.edu/applications/mfold/old/rna/form1.cgi>; Zuker, 2003) and the web server RNA weasel (<http://megasun.bch.umontreal.ca/RNAweasel/>; Gautheret and Lambert, 2001; Lang et al., 2007) were used to identify some of the key stem-loop structural elements within the introns. The final secondary structures were drawn with CorelDraw™.

2.9. RNA extraction and Reverse Transcription-PCR (RT-PCR):

For RNA extraction, cultures were grown in 125 ml conical flasks containing 50 ml PYG liquid medium for up to 7 days at 20 °C. Fungal biomass was collected by vacuum filtration using Whatman # 1 filter paper and the wet mycelium was flash-frozen in liquid nitrogen and ground to a fine powder using a precooled mortar and pestle. The RNA was extracted using the RNeasy[®] mini kit (QIAGEN, Mississauga, ON, Canada) following to the manufacturer's procedures. In addition to the DNase step within RNeasy[®] mini kit procedure the TURBO[™] DNase kit (Ambion, Austin, TX, USA) was also applied according to the manufacturer's protocol to ensure the removal of all DNA from the final RNA preparation. The TURBO[™] DNase was inactivated by heating at 75 °C for 10 min. The ThermoScript[™] RT-PCR system (Invitrogen) was used to synthesize cDNA using approximately 100 ng of template RNA. First strand synthesis was carried out with 40 pmol of primer mtsr-2 and subsequent PCR amplification was carried out with primers mtsr-1 and mtsr-2 both at 40 pmol per reaction using the same PCR conditions described before to amplify the *rns* gene (section 2.3.). The PCR products generated by the RT-PCR reactions were sequenced as described previously.

2.10. Ancestral state reconstruction:

Estimation of the ancestral character state for the presence or absence of the mitochondrial group II intron (S379) or the nuclear group I introns (S943, S989 and S1199) among *Ophiostoma* and *Ceratocystiopsis* species were done with the MESQUITE program version 2.73 (Maddison and Maddison, 2010). A 50% majority rule consensus trees for the mitochondrial and nuclear SSU rRNA exon sequences were generated by the

MrBayes program and these trees were used as a base for reconstruction of the ancestral states. The evolutionary history of each character was traced over the 50% majority rule Bayesian tree using Maximum-Parsimony and Maximum-Likelihood ancestral state framework available in MESQUITE version 2.73. The Markov k-state 1 parameter model, which gives equal probability (or rate) for changes between any two character states, was used. In the analysis, each taxon was scored (1) or (0) for presence or absence of the intron respectively.

2.11. Over expression and Purification of I-OmiII:

2.11.1. Construction of the expression plasmid:

To express the I-OmiII in *E. coli*, a codon-optimized version of the I-OmiII sequence was synthesized commercially (Bio S & T, Montreal, QC, Canada) based on differences between the fungal mitochondrial and bacterial genetic code. The optimized I-OmiII ORF sequence was cloned into pBlueScript SK+ (insert site SmaI). The I-OmiII ORF was then amplified from the pBlueScript vector with the primers I-OmiII-F (forward; included the CACC sequence needed for the topoisomerase cloning step that follows) and I-OmiII-R (reverse) using the Platinum Taq DNA Polymerase High Fidelity kit (Invitrogen). The amplified I-OmiII ORF was then moved into the 6xHis-Tag N-terminus pET200/D-TOPO[®] vector supplied in the Champion[™] pET Directional TOPO[®] expression kit (Invitrogen) following the manufacturer's recommendations to generate the pET200/D/I-OmiII construct (Figure 2.2). To enable the directional cloning of the PCR-amplified ORF, the I-OmiII-F primer was designed with a CACC 5' tail. The pET200/D/I-OmiII construct was subsequently transformed into the *E. coli* BL21 (DE3)

cell line (Invitrogen). The transformants were then analyzed by colony PCR and by treating isolated plasmid DNAs with restriction enzymes to identify potential positive clones (*E. coli*-pET200/D/I-OmiII). The construct was sequenced with the vector-specific primers T7-F and T7-R to confirm that the ORF was in frame with the N-terminal fusion 6xHis-Tag.

2.11.2. Overexpression of I-OmiII:

To express the I-OmiII protein in *E. coli*, 10 ml LB media supplemented with 100 µg/ml kanamycin and 0.25% w/v glucose was inoculated with 100 µl of *E. coli*-pET200/D/I-OmiII and incubated overnight (ON) at 37 °C. Five ml from the ON culture was inoculated into 1L of 2X-YT medium (tryptone 16 g l⁻¹, yeast extract 10 g l⁻¹ and NaCl 5 g l⁻¹), and supplemented with 100 µg/ml of kanamycin and with 0.25% w/v glucose. The medium pH was adjusted to 7.0 with 5M NaOH. The culture was grown at 37 °C and induced when the OD_{600 nm} reached ~ 0.6 – 0.8 with 0.4 mM isopropyl β-D-1-thiogalactopyranoside (IPTG). The induced culture was shifted to 20 °C and incubated for 18 hours. Cells were harvested by centrifugation at 5000 rpm for 10 minutes and the pellet was frozen at -80 °C for at least 1 hour (see Figure 2.3.).

Figure 2.2. Construction of I-OmiI expression plasmid: The optimized I-OmiII ORF was amplified from the pBluescript plasmid with the primers I-OmiII-F and I-OmiII-R. The I-OmiII-F primer was designed with CACC 5' tail to enable the directional cloning of the I-OmiII ORF into the pET200/D/TOPO plasmid and thus generating the expression plasmid pET200/D/I-OmiII.

Figure 2.2.

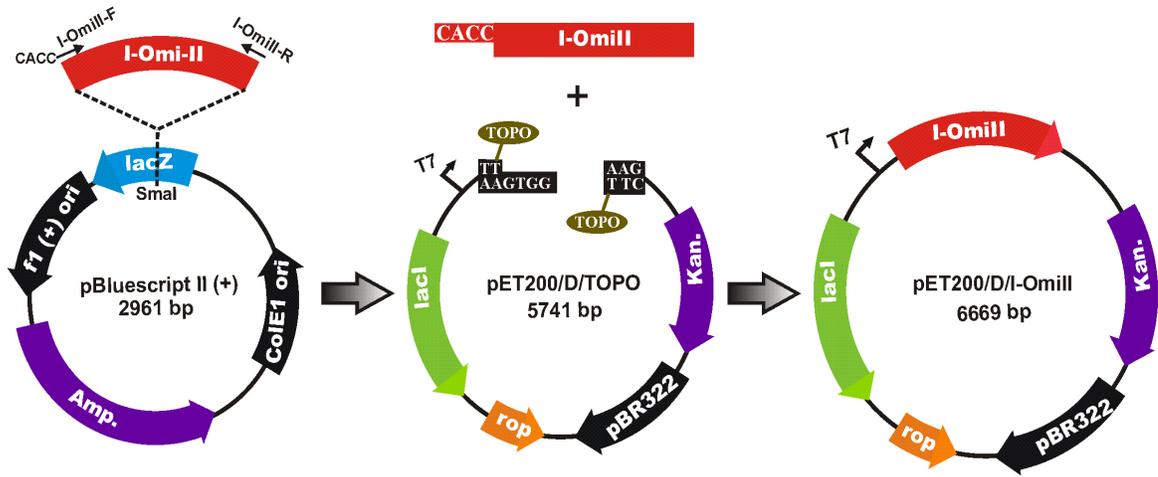
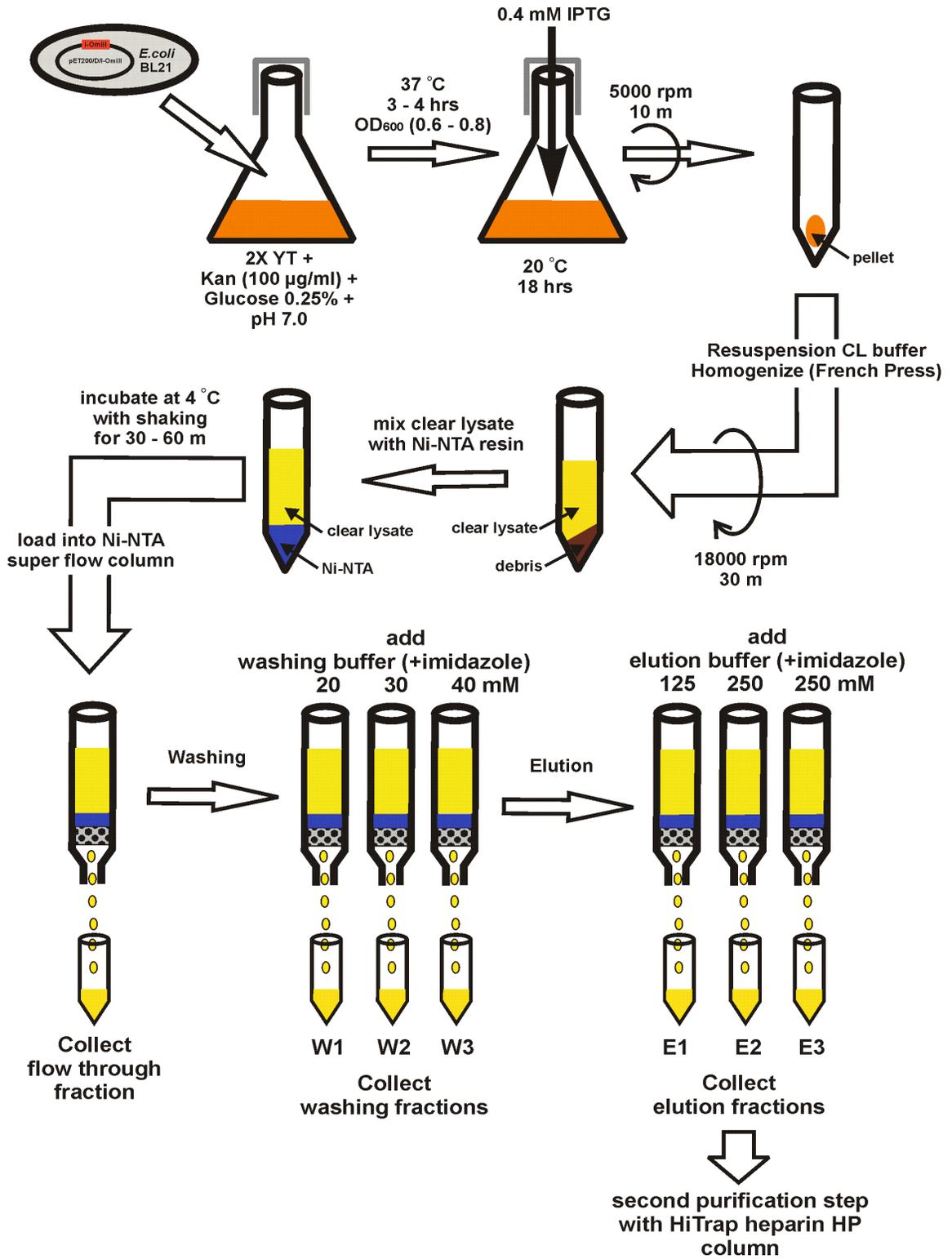


Figure 2.3. Overexpression and purification of the I-OmiII protein.

Figure 2.3.



2.11.3. Purification of I-OmiII:

The I-OmiII protein was harvested by thawing the frozen pellet and resuspending the cell in (10 ml / 1 g wet weight) cell lysis (CL) buffer [40 mM HEPES (pH 7.5), 800 mM NaCl, 10 % (w/v) glycerol, 6 mM β -mercaptoethanol, and 250 μ l / 1 g wet weight protease inhibitor cocktail (Sigma)]. Cells were homogenized using the French press two times and the lysate was centrifuged at 18000 rpm for 30 minutes at 4 °C to pellet the cell debris. The clear cell lysate (about 30 ml) was added to 3 ml of Ni-NTA resin (Qiagen) and incubated at 4 °C with shaking for 30 to 60 minutes.

The sample-Ni-NTA mixture was loaded onto a Ni-NTA super flow column (Qiagen) and the following series of washing steps were carried out; wash 1: 30 ml of washing buffer (WB) [40 mM HEPES (pH 7.5), 800 mM NaCl, 10 % (w/v) glycerol, 6 mM β -mercaptoethanol] supplemented with 20 mM of imidazole; wash 2: 30 ml of WB buffer with 30 mM of imidazole; and wash 3: 30 ml of WB buffer with 40 mM of imidazole. The protein was eluted in Elution buffers (EB) containing 40 mM HEPES, 800 mM NaCl, 20 % (w/v) glycerol, and either 125 mM or 250 mM imidazole (pH adjusted to 8 with NaOH). The sample was collected in 1 fraction (1 ml) with 125 mM imidazole and then in 2 fractions with 250 mM imidazole (1 ml each). Excess imidazole was removed by dialysis in buffer D1 (40 mM HEPES (pH 7.5), 200 mM NaCl, and 3 mM β -mercaptoethanol) using a slide-a-lyzer dialysis cassette with a 7 kDa molecular weight cut-off (Millipore, Billerica, USA) according to the manufacturer's suggested protocol.

A second purification step was carried out using a HiTrapTM heparin HP column (GE Healthcare Europe). The sample was washed with one column volume of wash buffer over a range of 200 mM to 1.5 M NaCl. In each wash fraction the NaCl concentration was increased by 100 mM; NaCl was adjusted by mixing the appropriate volumes of buffer D1 and buffer D2 (40 mM HEPES (pH 7.5), 1.5 M NaCl, and 3 mM β -mercaptoethanol). The fractions recovered with 400, 500 and 600 mM NaCl were combined and the sample was then concentrated using Amicon Ultracel centrifugal filters with 3000 Molecular Weight Cut Off (Millipore, Billerica, USA), following the manufacturer's guidelines. The sample was diluted to a final volume of 9 ml in a storage buffer [40 mM HEPES (pH 7.5), 400 mM NaCl, 1 mM DTT, and 30 % (w/v) glycerol], and centrifuged at 4000x g at 4 °C until the sample was concentrated in a final volume of 500 μ l.

2.12. *In vitro* Endonuclease assay for I-OmiII:

Two plasmids, pCR4/1574 and pCR-4/371 were constructed to test the *in vitro* cleavage activity of I-OmiII. The *mt-rns* gene was amplified from *O. minus* strains WIN(M)1574 and WIN(M)371 with the primer pair mtsr-1 and mtsr-2. The resulting PCR products were cloned into the pCR-4 TOPO vector to generate the pCR4/1574 and pCR-4/371 substrate plasmids respectively. The pCR4/1574 construct contained the intact recognition site of I-OmiII (i.e. no intron at S952), while the pCR-4/371 construct served as a negative control as this *rns* gene has the I-OmiII target site interrupted with the mS952 intron. The plasmids were transformed into *E. coli* DH5 α and the plasmids were purified with the Wizard Plus Minipreps DNA purification kit (Promega).

The cleavage reaction mix contained: 15 μ l substrate plasmid (25 μ g/ml), 5 μ l Invitrogen Buffer React #3 (100 mM NaCl, 50 mM Tris–Cl, pH 7.9 and 10 mM MgCl₂) supplemented with 1 mM DTT, 5 μ l I-OmiII (53 μ g/ml) and 25 μ l H₂O. Cleavage reactions were incubated at 37 °C and 10 μ l aliquots were taken at 0, 30 and 60 minutes and the reactions were stopped with the addition of 2 μ l of 200 mM EDTA (pH 8.0) and 1 μ l of proteinase K (1 mg/ml) to each 10 μ l aliquot, with subsequent incubation for 30 min at 37°C.

The pCR4/1574 plasmid was linearized with *Nco*I (Invitrogen) under conditions recommended by the manufacturer and the linearized plasmid was purified with the Wizard[®] SV Gel and PCR Clean-Up system (Promega, Madison, USA). The linearized plasmid was used as substrate in the endonuclease assays to evaluate I-OmiII cleavage activity. The cleavage reaction mix contained: 15 μ l linearized pCR4/1574 plasmid (18 μ g/ml), 5 μ l Invitrogen Buffer React #3 supplemented with 1 mM DTT, 5 μ l I-OmiII (53 μ g/ml) and 25 μ l H₂O. Cleavage reactions were incubated at 37 °C and 10 μ l aliquots were taken as described above at 0, 30 and 60 minutes. The reactions were stopped with the addition of 2 μ l of 200 mM EDTA (pH 8.0) and 1 μ l of proteinase K (1 mg/ml) to each 10 μ l aliquot, with subsequent incubation for 30 min at 37°C.

2.13. Determination of the optimum temperature for I-OmiII:

To test the effect of temperature on I-OmiII cleavage activity, the pCR4/1574 plasmid, which contains the I-OmiII recognition site, was linearized with *Nco*I. The cleavage assay performed in a 10 μ l reaction mixture containing 1 μ l linearized

pCR4/1574 (25 µg/ml), 1 µl Invitrogen Buffer React 3 supplemented with 1 mM DTT, 1 µl I-OmiII (53 µg/ml) and 7 µl H₂O. The cleavage reactions were incubated at a temperature range from 10 to 90 °C in 10 degree intervals for 2 hours. The reactions were terminated as above with the addition of 2 µl of 200 mM EDTA (pH 8.0) and 1 µl of proteinase K (1 mg/mL).

2. 14. I-OmiII cleavage site mapping:

The pCR4/1574 plasmid was digested with I-OmiII, as described above, and the now linearized plasmid was resolved on a 1 % agarose gel and the band was recovered from the gel with the Wizard[®] SV Gel and PCR Clean-Up system (Promega). The linearized plasmid was treated with T4 DNA polymerase (Invitrogen), under conditions that generate blunted ends, in a reaction mixture consisting of the following reagents: 40 µl linearized plasmid (25 µg/ml), 2 µl T4 DNA polymerase (5u/µl), 20 µl 5X T4 DNA polymerase buffer, 20 µl dNTP mixture (0.5 mM) and the total volume was adjusted to 100 µl with sterile distilled water. The reaction mixture was incubated at room temperature (~24 °C) for 20 minutes and then placed on ice for 5 minutes. The reaction was then terminated by heating at 70 °C for 10 minutes. The DNA was purified with the Wizard[®] SV Gel and PCR Clean-Up system (Promega) and about 0.25 µg of linearized plasmid DNA (in 20 µl) was treated with 2 µl of T4 DNA Ligase (1U/µl) in the presence of 10 µl 5X Ligase buffer in a total volume of 40 µl. The ligation reaction was then incubated at room temperature for 2 hours to generate the plasmid pCR4/1574-T4. The ligation reaction was diluted 5-fold and 10 µl of this dilution was used to transform *E. coli* (DH5α) using the TOPO TA Cloning[®] kit (Invitrogen). The pCR4/1574-T4 plasmid

was purified from transformed overnight cultures with the Wizard Plus Minipreps DNA purification kit (Promega) and sequenced using the BigDye[®] Terminator v3.1 Cycle Sequencing Kit (Applied Biosystems) following the manufacturer's instructions. The sequencing products were denatured and resolved on a 3130 genetic analyzer (Applied Biosystems). The chromatogram was compared with the sequencing reaction for pCR4/1574 using the same primers for both types of constructs. Nucleotides missing in the pCR4/1574-T4 sequence when compared to the original pCR4/1574 derived sequence define the nucleotides removed by T4 DNA polymerase due to the presence of 3' overhangs in the I-OmiII digested pCR4/1574.

2.15. Overexpression and purification of I-OmiI :

Please see Appendix 9.2. for the overexpression, purification and endonucleases assays for the I-OmiI protein.

CHAPTER: 3

CHARACTERIZATION OF THE O.ul-mS952 INTRON: A POTENTIAL MOLECULAR MARKER TO DISTINGUISH BETWEEN *Ophiostoma ulmi* AND *Ophiostoma novo-ulmi* subspecies *americana*.*

3.1. ABSTRACT:

The full length *rns* gene has been characterized for *Ophiostoma novo-ulmi* subspecies *americana*. The gene was also characterized for *Ophiostoma ulmi* and a group II intron was noted in the *rns* gene of *O. ulmi*. The insertion in the *rns* gene is at position S952 and it is a group IIB1 intron that encodes a double motif LHEase from an ORF located within a loop of domain III. Secondary structure models for the *rns* RNA of *O. novo-ulmi* subsp. *americana* and *O. ulmi* were generated to place the intron within the context of the ribosomal RNA. The *in vivo* splicing of the O.ul-mS952 group II intron was confirmed with RT-PCR. A survey of 182 strains of DED causing agents showed that the mS952 intron was absent in what is considered to be the more aggressive species *O. novo-ulmi* but present in strains of the less aggressive *O. ulmi*. This observation suggests that the O.ul-mS952 intron can be used as a PCR-based molecular marker to discriminate between *O. ulmi* and *O. novo-ulmi* subsp. *americana*.

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3.2. INTRODUCTION:

Dutch Elm Disease (DED) is a fungal disease that has devastated many urban forests that contain *Ulmus americanus* L. (American elm) and related species. The causative agents of DED are *Ophiostoma ulmi* (Buism.) Nannf., and subspecies of *Ophiostoma novo-ulmi* Brasier. These fungi are filamentous ascomycetous microfungi belonging to the Order Ophiostomatales, Family Ophiostomataceae. These fungi are transmitted with the help of bark beetles (Family Curculionidae, Subfamily Scolytinae). DED is a vascular wilt diseases caused by the DED fungi blocking the conductive tissue of the elm tree, thus preventing the flow of nutrients and water, thereby killing the tree. Historically there have been two epidemics of DED, the first caused by *O. ulmi* and the current pandemic of this disease is caused by *O. novo-ulmi* (Brasier, 1979). *Ophiostoma novo-ulmi* based on morphological, physiological and molecular (in both nuclear and mitochondrial genomes) differences, has been segregated into *O. novo-ulmi* subsp. *novo-ulmi* (also known as the Eurasian race, EAN) and *O. novo-ulmi* subsp. *americana* (also known as the North American race, NAN) (Brasier and Kirk, 2001; Hintz et al., 1993; Konrad et al., 2002).

Several methods have been proposed to differentiate among isolates of these three biological forms (*O. ulmi*, *O. novo-ulmi* subsp. *novo-ulmi* and subsp. *americana*) such as colony morphology (Gibbs and Brasier, 1973), pathogenicity (Brasier, 1977), optimal growth temperature (Brasier et al., 1981), soluble protein patterns (Jeng et al., 1988; Jeng and Brasier, 1994), and fertility/genetic barriers (Gibbs and Brasier 1973; Brasier, 1977

& 1979; Brasier and Kirk, 2001). Differentiating among the various DED causing agents by the above-mentioned criteria is time consuming. Due to advances in molecular biology techniques, large numbers of highly informative DNA markers have been developed for the detection of genetic polymorphism that allows for species and/or strain designations (Hintz et al., 1989).

So far several molecular markers have been developed for recognizing the DED causing agents, such as PCR based markers based on the nuclear *cerato-ulmi* (*cu*) and the colony type (*col1*) genes (Konrad et al., 2002); however to differentiate between the two subspecies of *O. novo-ulmi* the PCR products have to be digested with restriction enzymes. Random amplified polymorphic DNA (RAPD) represents another PCR based technique that has been used to differentiate strains of *O. ulmi* and subspecies of *O. novo-ulmi* (Hoegger et al., 1996). Restriction fragment length polymorphism (RFLP) of nuclear and mitochondrial DNAs has also been applied in analyzing populations of *O. novo-ulmi* and related taxa (Bates et al., 1993; Hintz et al., 1991).

Previously it has been shown that the size of the mtDNA might be useful for differentiating among subspecies of *O. novo-ulmi*. In general sizes of the mtDNAs for isolates of *O. novo-ulmi* subsp. *novo-ulmi* were shown to be significantly larger than those for isolates of the more aggressive *O. novo-ulmi* subsp. *americana* (Hintz et al., 1991; Bates et al., 1993; Charter et al., 1996). In general it is thought that size variation among mtDNAs is due the sizes of intergenic spacers and introns and intron encoded open reading frames (reviewed in Hausner, 2003; Gibb and Hausner, 2005).

Mitochondrial introns usually belong to either the group I or group II category of self-splicing introns and they tend to encode proteins that can assist in intron mobility or intron splicing or in some cases the encoded protein can serve both functions (Belfort, 2003).

The objective of this study was to characterize an intron located within the mtDNA *rns* gene and to evaluate if this intron (referred to as O.ul-mS952) could be used as a molecular marker that allows for the differentiation between strains of *O. ulmi* and *O. novo-ulmi* subsp. *americana*. A PCR-based method is presented that allows for the detection of the presence or absence of the O.ul-mS952 intron using a combination of exon-specific and intron-specific primers.

3. 3. METHODS OVERVIEW:

The fungal strains used in this study, their sources and geographical origins are listed in Table 9.2. The nucleic acids were extracted as described previously in chapter 2. The *rns* gene was amplified via PCR from 182 strains of *Ophiostoma* with the primers mtsr-1 and mtsr-2 (see appendix 9.3. for a complete list of the primers used to amplify and sequence the *rns* gene of *O. ulmi* and *O. novo-ulmi*) utilizing the Invitrogen PCR system. The 182 strains analyzed include *O. ulmi* (11 strains), *O. novo-ulmi* subsp. *novo-ulmi* (1 strain) and *O. novo-ulmi* subsp. *americana* (170 strains) collected from different geographic regions (Canada, USA, England, Netherlands and Iran). Species designations were based on morphological and molecular data (Gibb and Hausner, 2005; Sethuraman

et al., 2008). A detailed PCR analysis for the presence of the *O.ul-mS952* intron was performed on whole cell DNAs (i.e. nuclear plus mtDNA) from *O. ulmi* strain DAOM 171046 and *O. novo-ulmi* subsp. *americana* strain DED 02-10 using combinations of exon-specific primers (mtsr-1, mS952-F and mtsr-2) and an intron-specific primer (mS952DV-R). The primers RNS-F and RNS-R were designed based on sequences that flank the *rns* gene and these were used to amplify the complete sequence of the *rns* gene for *O. ulmi* DAOM 171046 and *O. novo-ulmi* subsp. *americana* DED 02-10. The RNS-F and RNS-R primer set allowed for the sequence characterization of the entire *rns* gene.

Ophiostoma ulmi DAOM 171046, *O. novo-ulmi* subsp. *americana* DED 02-10 and *O. novo-ulmi* subsp. *novo-ulmi* IMI 343.101 were selected for sequence characterization. The *rns* derived PCR products were converted into sequencing templates by purifying them with the Wizard[®] SV Gel and PCR Clean-Up system (Promega). The double-stranded DNA fragments were sequenced using the BigDye[®] Terminator v3.1 Cycle Sequencing Kit (Applied Biosystems) following the manufacturer's instructions. The sequencing products were denatured and resolved on a 3130 genetic analyzer (Applied Biosystems) as previously described in chapter 2.

The secondary structures for the complete small subunit RNA for *O. ulmi* (DAOM 171046) and *O. novo-ulmi* subsp. *americana* (DED 02-10) were generated by comparative sequence analysis with the SSU rRNA secondary structures of *E. coli* and *Aspergillus nidulans* (GenBank accession J01393). The final secondary structures for the intron and the *rns* rRNA were drawn with CorelDraw[™].

Table 3.1. A List of strains of DED fungi used in the current study and their isolation area.

Table 3.1.

No.	Strain Number	Species	Location
1	DAOM 171044	<i>Ophiostoma ulmi</i>	Sault St.Marie, Ontario, Canada
2	DAOM 171045	<i>O. ulmi</i>	Mal-Hal, Quebec, Canada
3	DAOM 171046	<i>O. ulmi</i>	Westmount, Quebec, Canada
4	DAOM 171048	<i>O. ulmi</i>	Clear Lake, Iowa, USA
5	DAOM 171051	<i>O. ulmi</i>	Tennessee, USA
6	DAOM 171061	<i>O. ulmi</i>	Devon, England
7	DAOM 171063	<i>O. ulmi</i>	Denbighshire, England
8	DAOM 171064	<i>O. ulmi</i>	Thame, Oxfordshire, England
9	DAOM 171068	<i>O. ulmi</i>	Bennekom, Netherlands
10	DAOM 171069	<i>O. ulmi</i>	Amsterdam, Netherlands
11	DAOM 171071	<i>O. ulmi</i>	Baarn, Netherlands
12	IMI 343.101	<i>O. novo-ulmi</i> subsp. <i>novo-ulmi</i>	Zabok, Front Croatia.
13	DED 02-1	<i>O. novo-ulmi</i> subsp. <i>americana</i>	Manitou, Manitoba, Canada
14	DED 02-3	<i>O. novo-ulmi</i> subsp. <i>americana</i>	Manitou, Manitoba, Canada,
15	DED 02-7	<i>O. novo-ulmi</i> subsp. <i>americana</i>	Manitou, Manitoba, Canada
16	DED 02-8	<i>O. novo-ulmi</i> subsp. <i>americana</i>	Carman, Manitoba, Canada
17	DED 02-9	<i>O. novo-ulmi</i> subsp. <i>americana</i>	Steinbach, Manitoba, Canada
18	DED 02-10	<i>O. novo-ulmi</i> subsp. <i>americana</i>	Gimli, Manitoba, Canada
19	DED 02-11	<i>O. novo-ulmi</i> subsp. <i>americana</i>	Carman, Manitoba, Canada
20	DED 02-12	<i>O. novo-ulmi</i> subsp. <i>americana</i>	Selkirk, Manitoba, Canada
21	DED 02-13	<i>O. novo-ulmi</i> subsp. <i>americana</i>	S Carman, Manitoba, Canada
22	DED 02-14	<i>O. novo-ulmi</i> subsp. <i>americana</i>	Steinbach, Manitoba, Canada
23	DED 02-15	<i>O. novo-ulmi</i> subsp. <i>americana</i>	Morden, Manitoba, Canada
24	DED 02-17	<i>O. novo-ulmi</i> subsp. <i>americana</i>	Carman, Manitoba, Canada
25	DED 02-18	<i>O. novo-ulmi</i> subsp. <i>americana</i>	Arborg, Manitoba, Canada
26	DED 02-19	<i>O. novo-ulmi</i> subsp. <i>americana</i>	Gimli, Manitoba, Canada
27	DED 02-20	<i>O. novo-ulmi</i> subsp. <i>americana</i>	Trehern, Manitoba, Canada
28	DED 02-21	<i>O. novo-ulmi</i> subsp. <i>americana</i>	Morden, Manitoba, Canada
29	DED 02-22	<i>O. novo-ulmi</i> subsp. <i>americana</i>	Trehern, Manitoba, Canada
30	DED 02-23	<i>O. novo-ulmi</i> subsp. <i>americana</i>	Morden, Manitoba, Canada
31	DED 02-24	<i>O. novo-ulmi</i> subsp. <i>americana</i>	Morden Research Centre, Manitoba, Canada
32	DED 02-26	<i>O. novo-ulmi</i> subsp. <i>americana</i>	Carman, Manitoba, Canada
33	DED 02-27	<i>O. novo-ulmi</i> subsp. <i>americana</i>	Altona, Manitoba, Canada
34	DED 02-28	<i>O. novo-ulmi</i> subsp. <i>americana</i>	Steinbach, Manitoba, Canada
35	DED 02-29	<i>O. novo-ulmi</i> subsp. <i>americana</i>	Carman, Manitoba, Canada
36	DED 02-32	<i>O. novo-ulmi</i> subsp. <i>americana</i>	Morden, Manitoba, Canada
37	DED 02-33	<i>O. novo-ulmi</i> subsp. <i>americana</i>	Trehern, Manitoba, Canada
38	DED 02-34	<i>O. novo-ulmi</i> subsp. <i>americana</i>	Steinbach, Manitoba, Canada
39	DED 02-35	<i>O. novo-ulmi</i> subsp. <i>americana</i>	Steinbach, Manitoba, Canada
40	DED 02-36	<i>O. novo-ulmi</i> subsp. <i>americana</i>	Trehern, Manitoba, Canada
41	DED 02-37	<i>O. novo-ulmi</i> subsp. <i>americana</i>	Teulon, Manitoba, Canada

Table 3.1. CONTINUED

42	DED 02-38	<i>O. novo-ulmi</i> subsp. <i>americana</i>	Arborg, Manitoba, Canada
43	DED 02-40	<i>O. novo-ulmi</i> subsp. <i>americana</i>	Carman, Manitoba, Canada
44	DED 02-41	<i>O. novo-ulmi</i> subsp. <i>americana</i>	Gimli, Manitoba, Canada
45	DED 02-42	<i>O. novo-ulmi</i> subsp. <i>americana</i>	Teulon, Manitoba, Canada
46	DED 02-43	<i>O. novo-ulmi</i> subsp. <i>americana</i>	Morris, Manitoba, Canada
47	DED 02-45	<i>O. novo-ulmi</i> subsp. <i>americana</i>	Altona, Manitoba, Canada
48	DED 02-46	<i>O. novo-ulmi</i> subsp. <i>americana</i>	Stonewall, Manitoba, Canada
49	DED 02-47	<i>O. novo-ulmi</i> subsp. <i>americana</i>	Morden, Manitoba, Canada
50	DED 02-48	<i>O. novo-ulmi</i> subsp. <i>americana</i>	Steinbach, Manitoba, Canada
51	DED 02-50	<i>O. novo-ulmi</i> subsp. <i>americana</i>	Shil Kirk, Manitoba, Canada
52	DED 02-51	<i>O. novo-ulmi</i> subsp. <i>americana</i>	Altona, Manitoba, Canada
53	DED 02-52	<i>O. novo-ulmi</i> subsp. <i>americana</i>	PLAP, Manitoba, Canada
54	DED 02-53	<i>O. novo-ulmi</i> subsp. <i>americana</i>	Stonewall, Manitoba, Canada
55	DED 02-54	<i>O. novo-ulmi</i> subsp. <i>americana</i>	Portage la Prairie, Manitoba, Canada
56	DED 02-56	<i>O. novo-ulmi</i> subsp. <i>americana</i>	Stonewall, Manitoba, Canada
57	DED 02-57	<i>O. novo-ulmi</i> subsp. <i>americana</i>	Portage la Prairie, Manitoba, Canada
58	DED 02-61	<i>O. novo-ulmi</i> subsp. <i>americana</i>	St. Celements, Manitoba, Canada
59	DED 02-62	<i>O. novo-ulmi</i> subsp. <i>americana</i>	Gretna, Manitoba, Canada
60	DED 02-63	<i>O. novo-ulmi</i> subsp. <i>americana</i>	Gretna, Manitoba, Canada
61	DED 02-64	<i>O. novo-ulmi</i> subsp. <i>americana</i>	Mountain Avenue, Manitoba, Canada
62	DED 02-66	<i>O. novo-ulmi</i> subsp. <i>americana</i>	Winkler, Manitoba, Canada
63	DED 02-69	<i>O. novo-ulmi</i> subsp. <i>americana</i>	Winkler, Manitoba, Canada
64	DED 02-71	<i>O. novo-ulmi</i> subsp. <i>americana</i>	La Prairie Island, Manitoba, Canada
65	DED 02-72	<i>O. novo-ulmi</i> subsp. <i>americana</i>	Winkler, Manitoba, Canada
66	DED 02-73	<i>O. novo-ulmi</i> subsp. <i>americana</i>	Winkler, Manitoba, Canada
67	DED 03-86	<i>O. novo-ulmi</i> subsp. <i>americana</i>	PTH 305, Manitoba, Canada
68	DED 03-87	<i>O. novo-ulmi</i> subsp. <i>americana</i>	PTH 305, Manitoba, Canada
69	DED 03-88	<i>O. novo-ulmi</i> subsp. <i>americana</i>	Cartwright, Manitoba, Canada
70	DED 03-89	<i>O. novo-ulmi</i> subsp. <i>americana</i>	La Riviere, Manitoba, Canada
71	DED 03-90	<i>O. novo-ulmi</i> subsp. <i>americana</i>	Snowflake, Manitoba, Canada
72	DED 03-91	<i>O. novo-ulmi</i> subsp. <i>americana</i>	Baldur, Manitoba, Canada
73	DED 03-93	<i>O. novo-ulmi</i> subsp. <i>americana</i>	Altamont, Manitoba, Canada
74	DED 03-94	<i>O. novo-ulmi</i> subsp. <i>americana</i>	Manitoba, Canada
75	DED 03-95	<i>O. novo-ulmi</i> subsp. <i>americana</i>	Wawansa, Manitoba, Canada
76	DED 03-96	<i>O. novo-ulmi</i> subsp. <i>americana</i>	Baldur, Manitoba, Canada
77	DED 03-97	<i>O. novo-ulmi</i> subsp. <i>americana</i>	Snowflake, Manitoba, Canada
78	DED 03-98	<i>O. novo-ulmi</i> subsp. <i>americana</i>	La Rivierie, Manitoba, Canada
79	DED 03-99	<i>O. novo-ulmi</i> subsp. <i>americana</i>	Miami, Manitoba, Canada
80	DED 03-100	<i>O. novo-ulmi</i> subsp. <i>americana</i>	Plum Coulee, Manitoba, Canada
81	DED 03-101	<i>O. novo-ulmi</i> subsp. <i>americana</i>	Cartwright, Manitoba, Canada
82	DED 03-102	<i>O. novo-ulmi</i> subsp. <i>americana</i>	Swan lake, Manitoba, Canada
83	DED 03-103	<i>O. novo-ulmi</i> subsp. <i>americana</i>	Crystal City, Manitoba, Canada
84	DED 03-104	<i>O. novo-ulmi</i> subsp. <i>americana</i>	Crystal City, Manitoba, Canada
85	DED 03-105	<i>O. novo-ulmi</i> subsp. <i>americana</i>	Roland, Manitoba, Canada

Table 3.1. CONTINUED

86	DED 03-106	<i>O. novo-ulmi</i> subsp. <i>americana</i>	Swan Lake, Manitoba, Canada
87	DED 03-107	<i>O. novo-ulmi</i> subsp. <i>americana</i>	Holland, Manitoba, Canada
88	DED 03-108	<i>O. novo-ulmi</i> subsp. <i>americana</i>	Holland, Manitoba, Canada
89	DED 03-109	<i>O. novo-ulmi</i> subsp. <i>americana</i>	Lowe Farm, Manitoba, Canada
90	DED 03-110	<i>O. novo-ulmi</i> subsp. <i>americana</i>	Plum Coulee, Manitoba, Canada
91	DED 03-111	<i>O. novo-ulmi</i> subsp. <i>americana</i>	Altamont, Manitoba, Canada
92	DED 03-112	<i>O. novo-ulmi</i> subsp. <i>americana</i>	Reinland Highway, Manitoba, Canada
93	DED 03-113	<i>O. novo-ulmi</i> subsp. <i>americana</i>	Miami, Manitoba, Canada
94	DED 03-114	<i>O. novo-ulmi</i> subsp. <i>americana</i>	Lowe Farm, Manitoba, Canada
95	DED 03-115	<i>O. novo-ulmi</i> subsp. <i>americana</i>	Roland, Manitoba, Canada
96	DED 03-116	<i>O. novo-ulmi</i> subsp. <i>americana</i>	Wawansa, Manitoba, Canada
97	DED 03-117	<i>O. novo-ulmi</i> subsp. <i>americana</i>	St.Claude, Manitoba, Canada
98	DED 03-118	<i>O. novo-ulmi</i> subsp. <i>americana</i>	Taymouth, York Co, New Brunswick, Canada
99	DED 03-119	<i>O. novo-ulmi</i> subsp. <i>americana</i>	Kentville, Kings Co., Nova Scotia, Canada
100	DED 03-120	<i>O. novo-ulmi</i> subsp. <i>americana</i>	Salmon River, Nova Scotia, Canada
101	DED 04-21	<i>O. novo-ulmi</i> subsp. <i>americana</i>	Moose Jaw, Saskatchewan, Canada
102	DED 04-76	<i>O. novo-ulmi</i> subsp. <i>americana</i>	Fort Qu'Appelle, Saskatchewan, Canada
103	DED 04-81	<i>O. novo-ulmi</i> subsp. <i>americana</i>	Gainsborough, Saskatchewan, Canada
104	DED 04-82	<i>O. novo-ulmi</i> subsp. <i>americana</i>	Regina, Saskatchewan, Canada
105	DED 04-95	<i>O. novo-ulmi</i> subsp. <i>americana</i>	Estevan, Saskatchewan, Canada
106	DED 04-102	<i>O. novo-ulmi</i> subsp. <i>americana</i>	Katepwa, Saskatchewan, Canada
107	DED 04-128	<i>O. novo-ulmi</i> subsp. <i>americana</i>	Regina Beach, Saskatchewan, Canada
108	DED 04-137	<i>O. novo-ulmi</i> subsp. <i>americana</i>	Pasqua Lake, Saskatchewan, Canada
109	DED 04-138	<i>O. novo-ulmi</i> subsp. <i>americana</i>	Sun Valley, Saskatchewan, Canada
110	DED 04-141	<i>O. novo-ulmi</i> subsp. <i>americana</i>	Indian Head, Saskatchewan, Canada
111	DED 04-150	<i>O. novo-ulmi</i> subsp. <i>americana</i>	Codette, Saskatchewan, Canada
112	DED 04-154	<i>O. novo-ulmi</i> subsp. <i>americana</i>	Tisdale, Saskatchewan, Canada
113	DED 04-167	<i>O. novo-ulmi</i> subsp. <i>americana</i>	Alida, Saskatchewan, Canada
114	DED 04-202	<i>O. novo-ulmi</i> subsp. <i>americana</i>	Buffalo Pound Lake, Saskatchewan, Canada
115	DED 04-257	<i>O. novo-ulmi</i> subsp. <i>americana</i>	Moosomin, Saskatchewan, Canada
116	DED 04-258	<i>O. novo-ulmi</i> subsp. <i>americana</i>	Carnduff, Saskatchewan, Canada
117	DED 04-298	<i>O. novo-ulmi</i> subsp. <i>americana</i>	Traux, Saskatchewan, Canada
118	DED 04-337	<i>O. novo-ulmi</i> subsp. <i>americana</i>	Buffalo, Saskatchewan, Canada
119	DED 05-1	<i>O. novo-ulmi</i> subsp. <i>americana</i>	Cavan, Manitoba, Canada
120	DED 05-2	<i>O. novo-ulmi</i> subsp. <i>americana</i>	The Pas, Manitoba, Canada
121	DED 05-3	<i>O. novo-ulmi</i> subsp. <i>americana</i>	The Pas, Manitoba, Canada
122	DED 05-4	<i>O. novo-ulmi</i> subsp. <i>americana</i>	The Pas, Manitoba, Canada
123	DED 05-5	<i>O. novo-ulmi</i> subsp. <i>americana</i>	Red Deer River, Manitoba, Canada
124	DED 05-6	<i>O. novo-ulmi</i> subsp. <i>americana</i>	Armit River, Manitoba, Canada
125	DED 05-9	<i>O. novo-ulmi</i> subsp. <i>americana</i>	Riverton, Manitoba, Canada
126	DED 05-10	<i>O. novo-ulmi</i> subsp. <i>americana</i>	Teulon, Manitoba, Canada
127	DED 05-11	<i>O. novo-ulmi</i> subsp. <i>americana</i>	Gimli Park, Manitoba, Canada
128	DED 05-13	<i>O. novo-ulmi</i> subsp. <i>americana</i>	Arborg, Manitoba, Canada

Table 3.1. CONTINUED

129	DED 05-14	<i>O. novo-ulmi</i> subsp. <i>americana</i>	Minnedosa, Manitoba, Canada
130	DED 05-15	<i>O. novo-ulmi</i> subsp. <i>americana</i>	Gladstone, Manitoba, Canada
131	DED 05-16	<i>O. novo-ulmi</i> subsp. <i>americana</i>	Dauphin, Manitoba, Canada
132	DED 05-17	<i>O. novo-ulmi</i> subsp. <i>americana</i>	St. Rose, Manitoba, Canada
133	DED 05-18	<i>O. novo-ulmi</i> subsp. <i>americana</i>	Birtle, Manitoba, Canada
134	DED 05-19	<i>O. novo-ulmi</i> subsp. <i>americana</i>	Rivers, Manitoba, Canada
135	DED 05-20	<i>O. novo-ulmi</i> subsp. <i>americana</i>	Rivers, Manitoba, Canada
136	DED 05-21	<i>O. novo-ulmi</i> subsp. <i>americana</i>	Neepawa, Manitoba, Canada
137	DED 05-60	<i>O. novo-ulmi</i> subsp. <i>americana</i>	Carduff, Saskatchewan, Canada
138	DED 05-61	<i>O. novo-ulmi</i> subsp. <i>americana</i>	Carduff, Saskatchewan, Canada
139	DED 05-62	<i>O. novo-ulmi</i> subsp. <i>americana</i>	Carduff, Saskatchewan, Canada
140	DED 05-63	<i>O. novo-ulmi</i> subsp. <i>americana</i>	Carduff, Saskatchewan, Canada
141	DED 05-64	<i>O. novo-ulmi</i> subsp. <i>americana</i>	Carduff, Saskatchewan, Canada
142	DED 05-85	<i>O. novo-ulmi</i> subsp. <i>americana</i>	Wawata, Saskatchewan, Canada
143	DED 05-153	<i>O. novo-ulmi</i> subsp. <i>americana</i>	Avonlea, Saskatchewan, Canada
144	DED 05-164	<i>O. novo-ulmi</i> subsp. <i>americana</i>	Tisdale, Saskatchewan, Canada
145	DED 05-165	<i>O. novo-ulmi</i> subsp. <i>americana</i>	Tisdale, Saskatchewan, Canada
146	DED 05-195	<i>O. novo-ulmi</i> subsp. <i>americana</i>	Nipawin, Saskatchewan, Canada
147	DED 05-216	<i>O. novo-ulmi</i> subsp. <i>americana</i>	Garrick, Saskatchewan, Canada
148	DED 06-1	<i>O. novo-ulmi</i> subsp. <i>americana</i>	Winnipeg, Manitoba, Canada
149	DED 06-2	<i>O. novo-ulmi</i> subsp. <i>americana</i>	Winnipeg, Manitoba, Canada
150	DED 06-3	<i>O. novo-ulmi</i> subsp. <i>americana</i>	Winnipeg, Manitoba, Canada
151	DED 06-4	<i>O. novo-ulmi</i> subsp. <i>americana</i>	Thunderbay, Ontario, Canada
152	DED 06-5	<i>O. novo-ulmi</i> subsp. <i>americana</i>	Thunderbay, Ontario, Canada
153	DED 06-6	<i>O. novo-ulmi</i> subsp. <i>americana</i>	Thunderbay, Ontario, Canada
154	DED 06-7	<i>O. novo-ulmi</i> subsp. <i>americana</i>	Thunderbay, Ontario, Canada
155	DED 06-8	<i>O. novo-ulmi</i> subsp. <i>americana</i>	Thunderbay, Ontario, Canada
156	DED 06-9	<i>O. novo-ulmi</i> subsp. <i>americana</i>	Thunderbay, Ontario, Canada
157	DED 06-10	<i>O. novo-ulmi</i> subsp. <i>americana</i>	Thunderbay, Ontario, Canada
158	DED 06-11	<i>O. novo-ulmi</i> subsp. <i>americana</i>	Thunderbay, Ontario, Canada
159	DAOM 171033	<i>O. novo-ulmi</i> subsp. <i>americana</i>	Toronto, Ontario, Canada
160	DAOM 171034	<i>O. novo-ulmi</i> subsp. <i>americana</i>	Toronto, Ontario, Canada
161	DAOM 171035	<i>O. novo-ulmi</i> subsp. <i>americana</i>	Toronto, Ontario, Canada
162	DAOM 171036	<i>O. novo-ulmi</i> subsp. <i>americana</i>	Toronto, Ontario, Canada
163	DAOM 171037	<i>O. novo-ulmi</i> subsp. <i>americana</i>	Toronto, Ontario, Canada
164	DAOM 171038	<i>O. novo-ulmi</i> subsp. <i>americana</i>	Toronto, Ontario, Canada
165	DAOM 171039	<i>O. novo-ulmi</i> subsp. <i>americana</i>	Toronto, Ontario, Canada
166	DAOM 171040	<i>O. novo-ulmi</i> subsp. <i>americana</i>	Sault St.Marie, Ontario, Canada
167	DAOM 171041	<i>O. novo-ulmi</i> subsp. <i>americana</i>	Sault St.Marie, Ontario, Canada
168	DAOM 171042	<i>O. novo-ulmi</i> subsp. <i>americana</i>	Sault St.Marie, Ontario, Canada
169	DAOM 171047	<i>O. novo-ulmi</i> subsp. <i>americana</i>	Ames, Iowa, USA
170	DAOM 171049	<i>O. novo-ulmi</i> subsp. <i>americana</i>	Iowa County, Iowa, USA
171	DAOM 171053	<i>O. novo-ulmi</i> subsp. <i>americana</i>	Ames, Iowa, USA

Table 3.1. CONTINUED

172	DAOM 171054	<i>O. novo-ulmi subsp. americana</i>	North Hampton, Massachusetts, USA
173	DAOM 171056	<i>O. novo-ulmi subsp. americana</i>	Blackburg, Virginia, USA
174	DAOM 171058	<i>O. novo-ulmi subsp. americana</i>	Tewkesbury, Gloucester, England
175	DAOM 171059	<i>O. novo-ulmi subsp. americana</i>	Herfordshire, England
176	DAOM 171060	<i>O. novo-ulmi subsp. americana</i>	Basildon, Essex, England
177	DAOM 171066	<i>O. novo-ulmi subsp. americana</i>	Astra near Caspian Sea, Iran
178	DAOM 171067	<i>O. novo-ulmi subsp. americana</i>	Astra near Caspian Sea, Iran
179	DAOM 171070	<i>O. novo-ulmi subsp. americana</i>	Sloten, Friesland, Netherlands
180	DAOM 177178	<i>O. novo-ulmi subsp. americana</i>	Sault St. Marie, Ontario, Canada
181	DAOM 177179	<i>O. novo-ulmi subsp. americana</i>	Madison, Wisconsin, USA
182	DAOM 194898	<i>O. novo-ulmi subsp. americana</i>	Saskatoon, Saskatchewan, Canada

DAOM, Plant Research Institute, Department of Agriculture, Mycology, Ottawa, Canada.

IMI, International Mycological Institute, Egham, UK.

DED, isolation number for Dutch Elm Disease strains, culture inoculated as part of **WIM(M)**, University of Manitoba, Winnipeg, MB, Canada (courtesy of J. Reid).

3.4. RESULTS:

3.4.1. The *rns* gene of *O. ulmi* and *O. novo-ulmi* subspecies *americana*:

Figure 3.1.[a] represents a schematic overview of the *rns* gene, including the various primer binding sites that were developed for amplifying the gene and the mS952 intron. For screening the 182 strains of DED fungi (see Table 3.1.), the *rns* gene was amplified using the primer mtsr-1 and mtsr-2 (for complete list of the primers used in this study see Appendix 9.3.) and the PCR products ranged in size between 1.2 kb and 3.0 kb (Figure 3.1.[b]). A 1.2-kb PCR product is expected when no insertions are present within this gene; however a 3.0 kb PCR product is indicative of insertions (introns). The *O. ulmi* strain DAOM 171046 yielded a 3079 bp PCR fragment (GenBank accession HQ292075), while the *O. novo-ulmi* subsp. *americana* DED 02-10 (GenBank accession HQ292074) yielded a 1213 bp PCR amplicon (Figure 3.1.[b]). The *O. novo-ulmi* subsp. *novo-ulmi* (GenBank accession # JF837329) also yielded a 1212 bp PCR amplicon. Note sizes of the PCR products were determined by sequence analysis of representative strains.

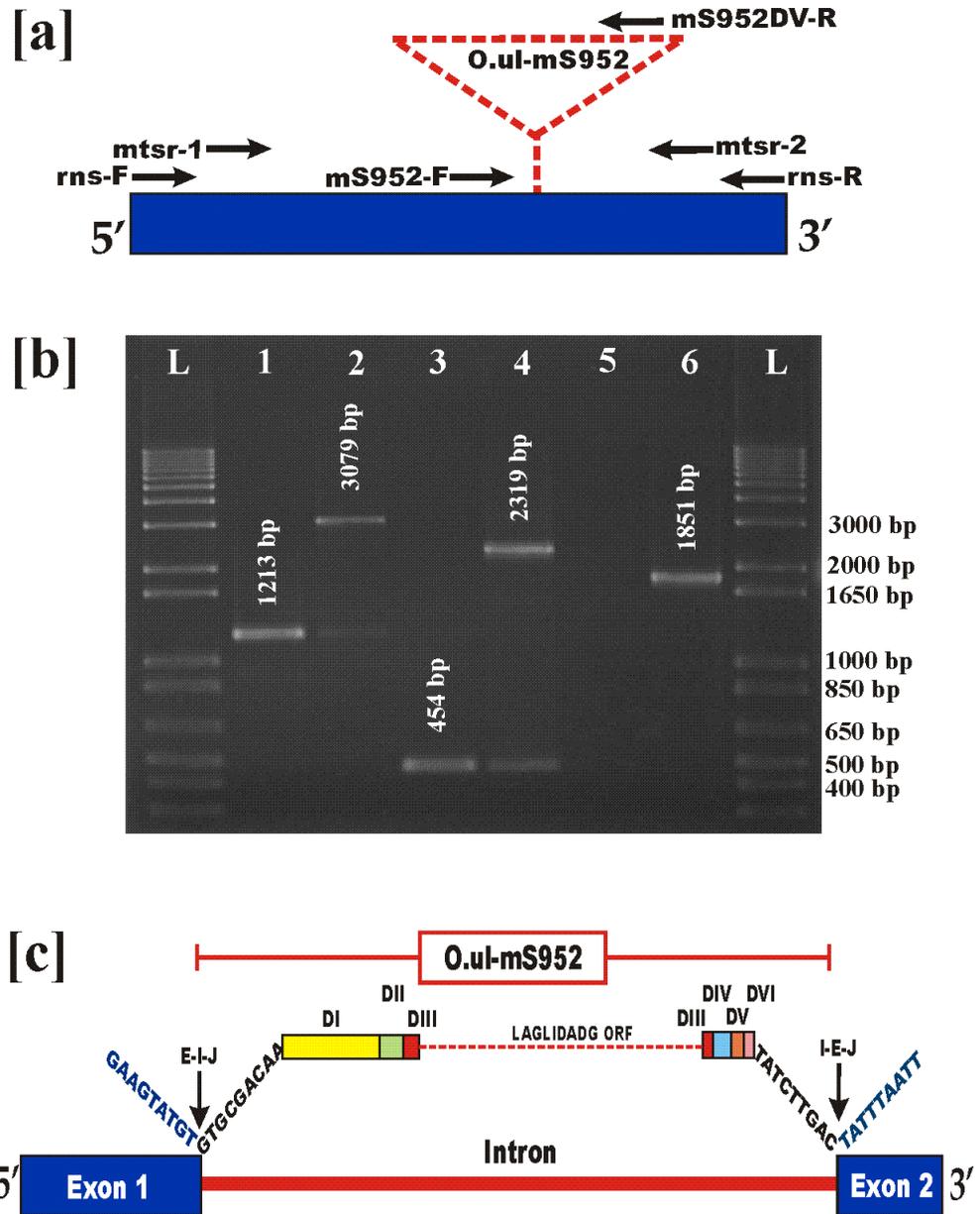
Using internal exon-specific primers (mS952-F and mtsr-2) flanking the O.ul-mS952 intron for *O. ulmi* and *O. novo-ulmi* subsp. *americana* generated 2319 and 454 bp fragments respectively. These results confirmed the mtsr-1/mtsr-2 PCR survey results, which were that the O.ul-mS952 intron is present in all *O. ulmi* strains and is absent in all *O. novo-ulmi* strains screened with mtsr-1 and mtsr-2 primers. A combination of an exon-specific primer (mS952-F) and an intron-specific primer (mS952DV-R) generated a 1851 bp PCR fragment for *O. ulmi* strains, while no amplicons were generated for *O. novo-*

ulmi strains (Figure 3.1.[b]). Based on comparing *rns* sequences that lacked insertions with those that do, an intron was found to be inserted at the position mS952 with respect to the SSU-rRNA gene of *E. coli*. The intron-exon junctions were first determined by comparative sequence analysis of *O. ulmi* and *O. novo-ulmi* mtsr-1 and mtsr-2 *rns* gene sequences (Figure 3.1.[c]).

Using internal exon-specific primers (mS952-F and mtsr-2) flanking the O.ul-mS952 intron for *O. ulmi* and *O. novo-ulmi* subsp. *americana* generated 2319 and 454 bp fragments respectively. These results confirmed the mtsr-1/mtsr-2 PCR survey results which were that the O.ul-mS952 intron is present in all *O. ulmi* strains and is absent in all *O. novo-ulmi* strains. A combination of exon-specific primer (mS952-F) and intron-specific primer (mS952DV-R) generate a 1851 bp PCR fragment for *O. ulmi* strains, while no amplicons were generated for *O. novo-ulmi* strain (Figure 3.1.[b]).

Figure 3.1. [a] A schematic representation of the *rns* gene of *O. ulmi* and *O. novo-ulmi* showing the binding sites and directions of the primers used in this study; the dotted triangle represent the position of the O.ul.mS952 intron. **[b]** PCR amplicons of the *rns* gene from *O. novo-ulmi* subsp. *americana* and *O. ulmi* (lane 1 and 2 respectively) using the primer pair mtsr-1 and mtsr-2. The presence of O.ul-mS952 intron was checked using exon-specific primers flanking the intron insertion position, mS952-F and mtsr-2, which generate a 454 bp PCR fragment in the case of *O. novo-ulmi* subsp. *americana* (lane 3) and a 2319 bp PCR fragment for *O. ulmi* (lane 4). There appears to be evidence that there is mtDNA heterogeneity within *O. ulmi* as two bands were observed, including the expected 2.3 kb fragment for the intron containing *rns* allele. There is also evidence for the presence of an intron-less alleles revealed by the generation of the 454 bp PCR product (lane 4). The absence (lane 5) and the presence (lane 6) of the O.ul-mS952 intron in *O. novo-ulmi* subsp. *americana* and *O. ulmi* respectively were confirmed using the exon-specific primer mS952-F combined with the intron-specific primer mS952DV-R. Sizes of the PCR products are indicated (sizes based on sequence determination). The L lane contains the resolved 1 kb plus ladder DNA fragments (Invitrogen). **[c]** A schematic overview of the *rns* gene of *O. ulmi* showing the O.ul-mS952 group II intron which consisting of six domains (DI to DVI). The dotted line in DIII represents the LHEase ORF. The upstream and downstream exon/intron junction (E-I-J) and the intron-exon junction (I-E-J) sequences respectively are indicated.

Figure 3.1



3.4.2. O.ul171046-mS952 intron:

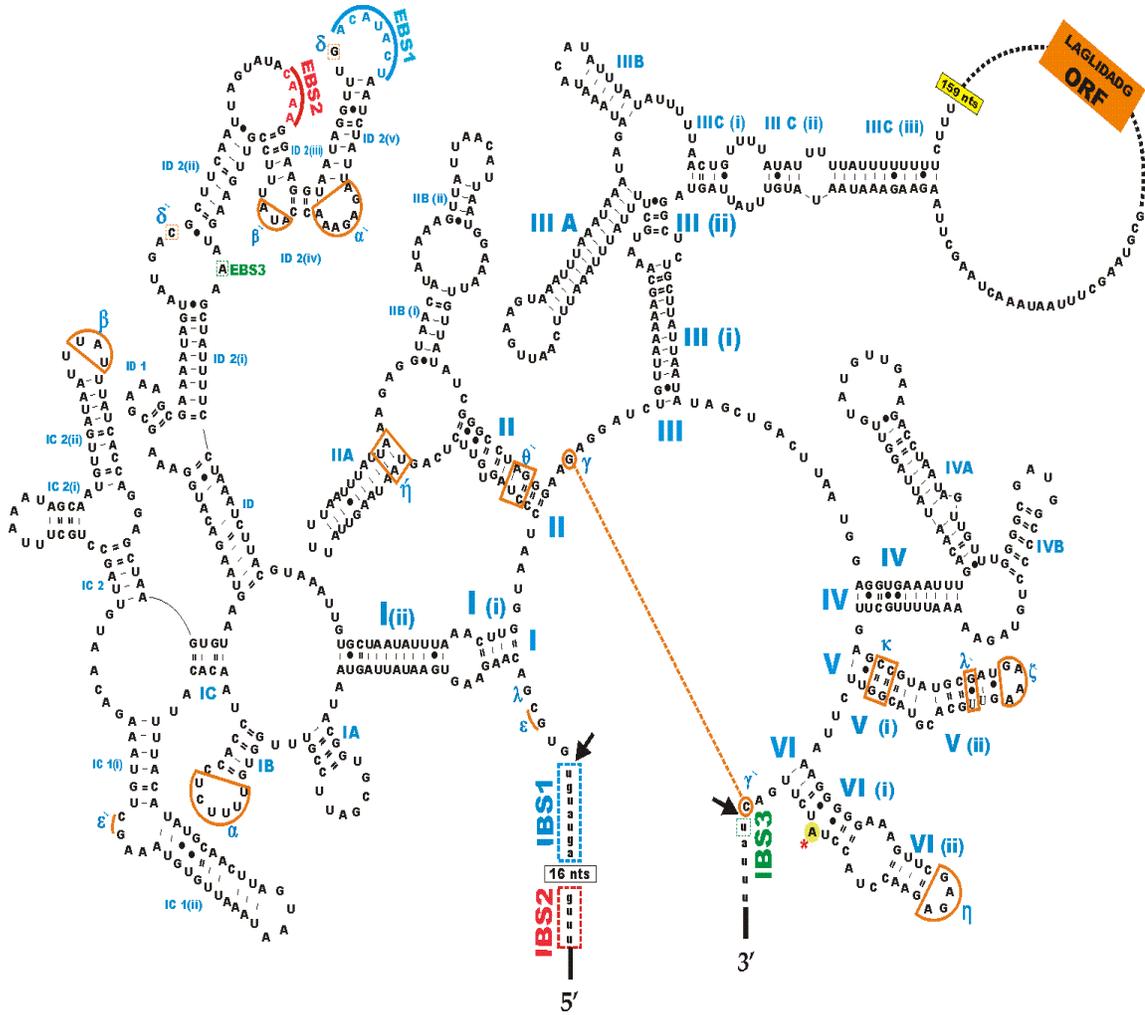
Group II introns have conserved secondary structures at the RNA level, that can be visualized as six stem-loop domains (domains I to VI) emerging from a central wheel (Michel and Ferat, 1995). The O.ul-mS952 intron is a typical group II intron (Figure 3.2.) containing the characteristic features of class B1: such as the exon binding sites (EBS1, EBS2 & EBS3) which are complementary to the intron binding sites (IBS1, IBS2 & IBS3) in the upstream and the downstream exons flanking the intron insertion site; the internal loop of DIC_i (ϵ^-), the internal loop within DII, the linkers between domains I to VI and the absence of insertions in the 3' strand of DI_i and DI_{ii} (Michel and Ferat, 1995; Toor et al., 2001). LAGLIDADG ORF rather than the RT-ORFs, that typically are associated with group II introns, is found to be encoded within O.ul171046-mS952 intron. Folding the intron RNA indicates that the location of the LAGLIDADG ORF is within domain III (Figure 3.2.).

3.4.3. Mitochondrial *rns* RNA secondary structure model:

Figure 3.3. provides a secondary structure model for the 16S rRNA consisting of four well-defined domains denoted I, II, III & IV (Noller and Woese, 1981; Kochel and Kuntzel, 1981). The O.ul-mS952 intron insertion site was characterized within this secondary structure model and the intron is located in a stem region at the lower half of domain III of the 16S rRNA molecule.

Figure 3.2. The secondary structure of the O.ul171046-mS952 group II B1 intron RNA. Intron sequences are in upper-case letters and exon sequences are in lower-case letters. The positions of EBS1, EBS2 and EBS3 are noted. The positions of IBS1, IBS2 and IBS3 in the 5' and 3' exons are boxed with dotted lines. Tertiary interactions are indicated by dashed lines and Greek letters (ϵ , λ , α , β , θ , κ , ζ , and γ). The six major structural domains are indicated by Roman numbers (I, II, III, IV, V and VI). The solid black arrowheads indicate the intron-exon junctions (5' and 3' splicing sites). The asterisk shows the bulged adenosine nucleotide in domain VI (the branch point). The LAGLIDADG ORF is encoded within DIII.

Figure 3.2.



3.4.4. *In vivo* splicing of the O.ul-mS952 intron:

Total RNA was isolated from the *O. ulmi* strain DAOM 171046 and analyzed by RT-PCR, as a means of determining the *in vivo* splicing activity of the O.ul-mS952 intron (Figure 3.4.). Genomic DNA of *O. ulmi* DAOM 171046 was used as a control for RT-PCR experiments. The DNA amplification of the *rns* gene from the genomic DNA was carried out using the mtsr-1 and mtsr-2 primers. PCR yielded a product of 3081 bp representing the *rns* exon sequence (1211 bp) as well as the O.ul-mS952 intron sequence (1868 bp). The mtsr-1/mtsr-2 amplification using cDNA as a template resulted in a 1211 bp fragment; the latter is expected if the O.ul-mS952 has been spliced out. Sequence analysis of the cDNA confirmed that the intron was indeed spliced out; the sequence data also confirmed the predicted exon/intron junction sequences previously based on comparative sequence analysis (Figure 3.1.).

Figure 3.3. A secondary structure model for the *rns* RNA of *O. novo-ulmi* subsp. *americana* showing the four structural domains (I to IV). The circled nucleotides indicates the differences between *O. novo-ulmi* subsp. *americana* and the *O. ulmi rns* RNA. The O.ul-mS952 intron insertion site is also indicated and it is located in a stem region in domain III.

Figure 3.3.

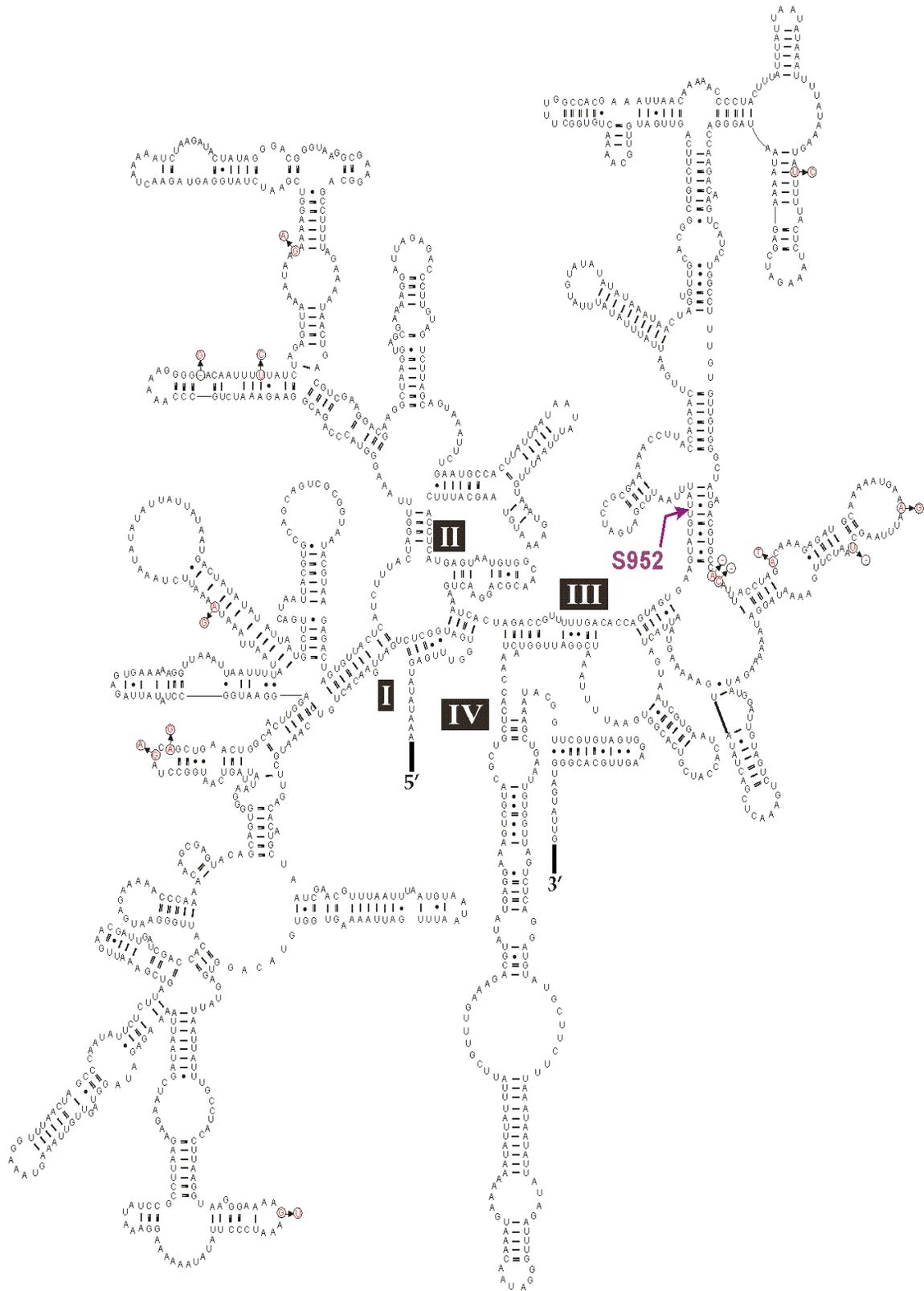
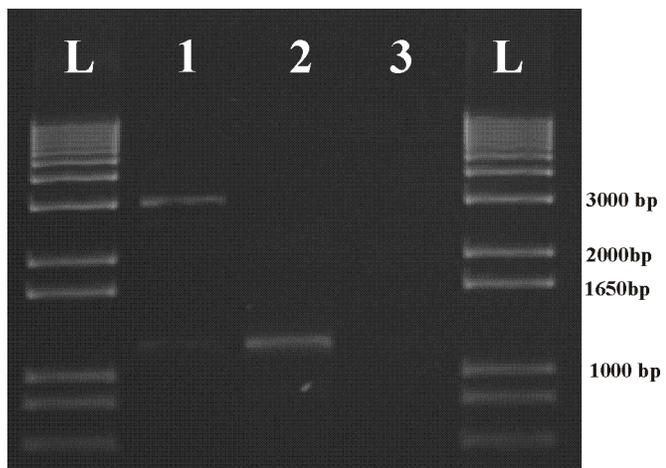


Figure 3.4. RT-PCR analysis of the *rns* transcript for demonstrating the *in vivo* splicing of the O.ul171046-mS952 intron. The *rns* transcripts for the *O. ulmi* DAOM171046 was analyzed by RT-PCR. The standard PCR reaction using genomic DNA as a template is shown in lane 1 and it generated a 3.0 kb fragment. The amplicon length for the cDNA was 1.2 kb (lane 2) indicating that the O.ul-mS952 intron was splicing out. The negative controls for RT-PCR (standard PCR using DNA free whole cell RNA as a template without the RT step) assay yielded no bands (lane 3) showing that the RNA was free of any DNA. The lane marked “L” contains the 1 kb plus ladder (Invitrogen).

Figure 3.4.



3.4.5. The mS952 intron ORF family:

Phylogenetic analysis of mS952 intron ORF sequences showed that the *O. ulmi* mS952 intron ORF sequence is related to sequences found in species that belong to the related asexual genus *Leptographium* (Figure 3.5.). Using the most distantly related sequence from *Cryphonectria parasitica* as the outgroup showed that the *O. ulmi* sequence is positioned at the basal node from which all the *Leptographium* mS952 ORF sequences can be derived. This is expected as *Ophiostoma* is a genus that is closely related to *Grosmannia* (a sexual genus that is defined by forming asexual reproductive structures that can be assigned to *Leptographium*) (Zipfel et al., 2006). Based on the currently available sequences there is no strong evidence for horizontal movement of the mS952 intron within the ophiostomatoid fungi.

3.5. DISCUSSION:

3.5.1. The mS952 intron distinguishes between *O. ulmi* and *O. novo-ulmi* subsp. *americana*:

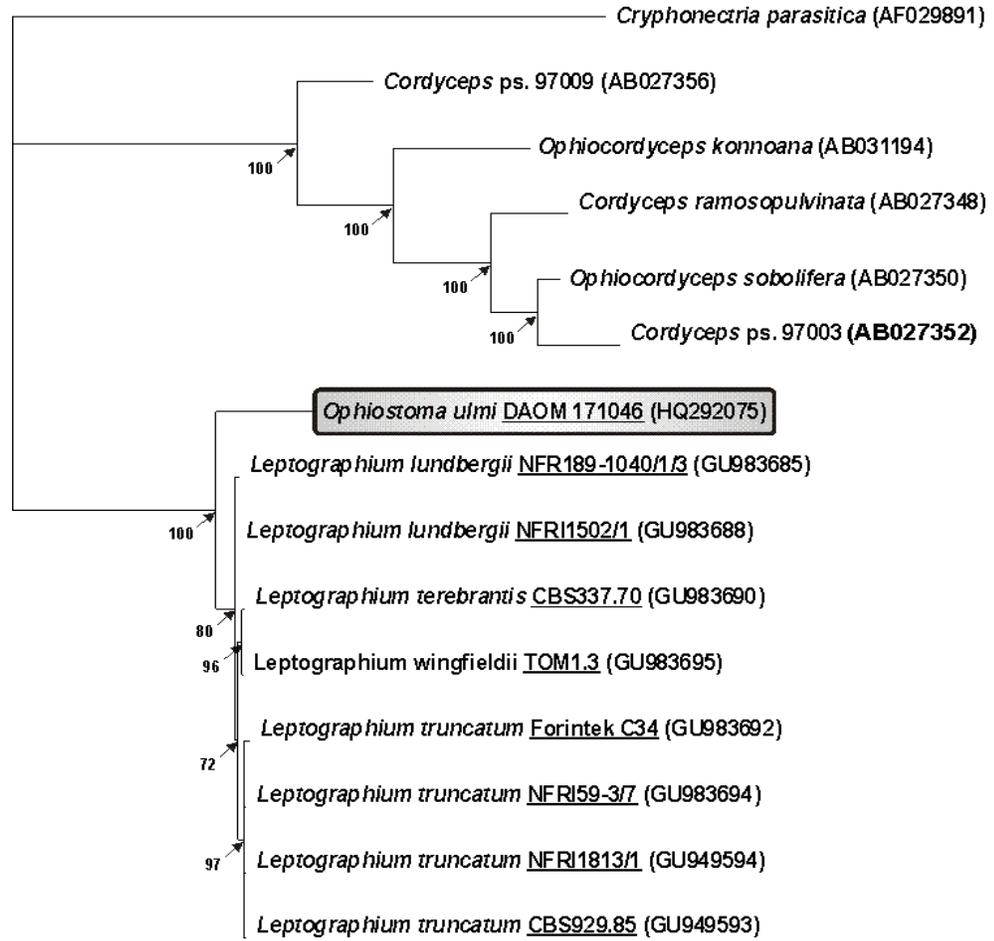
Ophiostoma ulmi is viewed as the first recognized DED causing agent that was introduced into North America in the late 1930s (reviewed in Brasier, 2000). More recently in North America *O. ulmi* appears to have been replaced by *O. novo-ulmi* subsp. *americana*, but in Europe and Asia all three forms of the DED causing agents can still be found (Brasier and Buck, 2001). Although these fungi are viewed as distinct taxa they seem to be able to mate under certain conditions and hybrids have been recovered from various locations in Europe; the latter is of concern as hybridization between these

species/subspecies might be one mechanism whereby more virulent forms of DED causing agents can arise (Konrad et al., 2002; Brasier, 2000). Indeed it is proposed that *O. novo-ulmi* itself might be a product of a hybridization event between *O. ulmi* and another closely related *Ophiostoma* species (Brasier, 1991).

Insertions or deletions of introns within the mtDNA genes are probably the major source of DNA-based polymorphisms between *O. ulmi* and the *O. novo-ulmi* subspecies (Charter et al., 1996; Gibb and Hausner, 2005). Due to sequence conservation of the mtDNA genes, PCR based primers can be readily designed to allow for surveying genes for the presence of optional introns. The goal of this work was to characterize an *rns* intron and to evaluate if this intron is stable enough to be a potential marker that could be useful for distinguishing among the causal agents of DED. Although we assayed for the presence or absence of introns using a PCR approach (see Figure 3.1.); we have to admit that a “minus” result does not unambiguously identify taxa that lack introns. Each mitochondrion can contain many copies of the mt chromosome. PCR preferentially amplifies smaller DNA fragments thus if there is heterogeneity among the mtDNAs rare intron-plus alleles could be missed. Therefore we utilized one primer combination (mS952-F and mS952DV-R) where the forward primer is exon based and the reverse primer is intron based. This combination should capture instances where an intron containing *rns* gene was missed as its PCR derived product might be outcompeted by intron-less *rns* PCR derived product as the shorter fragments could be amplified preferentially when using exon-based primers.

Figure 3.5. Phylogenetic tree showing the phylogenetic position of the *O. ulmi* mS952 group II intron ORF nucleotide sequence within the mS952 intron ORF family. The tree includes sequences from *Leptographium* and *Cordyceps* spp., and the tree is rooted with the *C. parasitica* mS952 intron ORF sequence. The tree topology is based on Bayesian analysis and the numbers at the nodes represent the % posterior probability values as obtained from a 50% majority rule Bayesian consensus tree. The branch lengths are based on Bayesian analysis and are proportional to the number of substitutions per site. Strain numbers are underlined, and the GenBank sequence accession numbers are listed in brackets.

Figure 3.5.



There appears to be evidence that there is mtDNA heterogeneity within individual strains of *O. ulmi* as two bands were observed when exon based primers were used (Figure 3.1.[b]); however we did not observe evidence for additional bands within *O. novo-ulmi* subsp. *americana*. In addition the primer combination: mS952-F and mS952DV-R failed to detect any evidence for the presence of introns within *O. novo-ulmi* subsp. *americana*. Based on the data, the mS952 intron is found in *O. ulmi* but not in *O. novo-ulmi* subsp. *americana*.

The absence of the intron in all *O. novo-ulmi* subsp. *americana* strains suggests that this intron could be a useful marker in distinguishing these two economically important species. In areas where both species still exist, a molecular marker might be an alternative to cultural methodologies for distinguishing these two species. Due to the potential for the various DED agents to hybridize, a monitoring strategy for the presence of *O. ulmi* might be valuable in risk assessment for predicting future pandemics of DED. In experimental approaches where these fungi are maintained in the same laboratory or where hybrids might have to be generated or identified, molecular markers might be very valuable in facilitating the analysis of inter-species crosses or heterokaryon formation.

In a previous study on the mtDNA large ribosomal subunit gene (*rnl*) gene (Sethuraman et al., 2008), we noted that there was evidence that the *rnl*-U7 group I intron (mL1699) could potentially be transferred between *O. novo-ulmi* subsp. *americana* and *O. ulmi*. This demonstrates that group I introns like group II introns are mobile elements that can readily cross species barriers, in particular between closely related species such

as members of the *O. ulmi* species complex. However, we failed to detect any mS952 introns within *O. novo-ulmi* subsp. *americana* suggesting that this intron so far failed to be transferred between the two species in the specimens examined. It is known that for efficient splicing both group I and II introns usually required host genome encoded splicing factors/maturases, and one could speculate that the mS952 intron requires a factor for efficient splicing that is not available within the *O. novo-ulmi* subsp. *americana* genetic background. In order for a potentially mobile element to move horizontally to a new species it has to find a compatible genomic environment that allows the element to be non-toxic to the new host. Splicing deficiency could be costly to the host. For example, in a recent study on a mtDNA *rns* group II intron in *Cryphonectria parasitica* (Chestnut blight fungus) splicing deficiency was linked to growth abnormalities and hypovirulence (Baidyaroy et al., 2011).

3.5.2. The *rns* RNA secondary structure model and the O.ul-mS952 intron:

Sequence characterization has shown that the *O. ulmi rns* intron is a group II intron that encodes a LAGLIDADG type ORF in domain III. Similar introns have been previously described and they are novel as typically group II introns encode RT ORFs not HEases (Toor and Zimmerly, 2002; Monteiro-Vitorello et al., 2009; Mullineux et al., 2010). The RT-PCR results confirm that this element is an intron and that it is spliced *in vivo*.

We modeled the *rns* RNA secondary structure to evaluate the potential functional constraints on the intron insertion on the rRNA. In general group I or II introns occur at a

particular position within the rRNA due to vertical inheritance of the allele containing an intron, homing or transposition (ectopic integration) in an intron-less allele/site, or due to horizontal transfer of the intron into a specific conserved target site (Jackson et al., 2002). Usually mobile introns insert into alleles that lack the intron by mechanisms that are site specific. Therefore, introns evolved strategies that optimize their dispersal, such as targeting highly conserved sequences present in every member of a population or even in other species. The distribution of introns in rRNA genes is not totally random; insertion sites appear to be found within conserved sequences usually near the tRNA and mRNA binding sites which span the interface between the small and the large subunits of the ribosome, suggesting a link between intron evolution and rRNA function (Gerbi et al., 1982). Generally, domain III is located at the “head” of the small (30S) subunit of the ribosome to which ribosomal proteins such as S2, S3, S7, S9, S10, S13, S14 and S19 can bind (Moore et al., 1986). The *O.ul-mS952* intron is inserted in the 5' end of the lower half of the 16S rRNA domain III region which represents the interaction area with ribosomal protein S7 (Dragon and Brakier-Gingras, 1993; Robert et al., 2000). Ribosomal protein S7 plays an important role in ribosome function as this protein is responsible for initiating the assembly of the 30S subunit. S7 is also one of the major ribosomal proteins to cross-link with tRNA molecules during the decoding process (Hosaka, 1997).

The presence of intron RNA in the mature rRNA could affect the ribosome assembly by altering the secondary structure or by blocking the tertiary or quaternary contacts and ribosomal protein interactions (Woodson and Cech, 1991). Unspliced or

slowly splicing introns would prevent or interfere with ribosome subunit assembly and the formation of ribosomes which are deficient or not competent with regards to translational activity (Nikolcheva and Woodson, 1997). So given the location of the mS952 intron in domain III of the SSU any splicing deficiency could be detrimental or in some way affect the virulence of the strain.

CHAPTER: 4

THE HIGHLY VARIABLE MITOCHONDRIAL SMALL-SUBUNIT

RIBOSOMAL RNA GENE OF *Ophiostoma minus*.*

4.1. ABSTRACT:

Mitochondrial genomes in the true fungi are highly variable both in size and organization. Most of this size variation is due to the presence of introns and IEPs. The objectives for this work were to examine the *rns* gene of strains of *Ophiostoma minus* for the presence of introns and to characterize such introns and their encoded ORFs. DNA sequence analysis showed that among different strains of *O. minus* various *rns* gene exon/intron configurations can be observed. Based on comparative sequence analysis and RNA secondary structure modeling, group I introns with LAGLIDADG ORFs were uncovered at positions mS569 and mS1224 and group II introns were present at positions mS379 and mS952. The mS379 group II intron encoded a fragmented RT-like ORF and the mS952 group II intron encoded a LAGLIDADG-type ORF. Examples of intron ORF degeneration due to frame shift mutations were observed. The mS379 group II intron is the first mitochondrial group II intron identified to have an ORF inserted within domain II; typically RT-like ORFs are inserted in domain IV. The evolutionary dynamics of the intron encoded ORFs have also been examined.

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4.2. INTRODUCTION:

Group I and group II introns are potentially self-splicing introns that are frequently encountered within fungal mitochondrial DNA (mtDNA) genomes and these introns can be differentiated by their splicing mechanisms and secondary and tertiary RNA structures (Michel and Westhof, 1990; Michel and Ferat, 1995; Bonen and Vogel, 2001; Federova and Zingler, 2007). Both types of introns are considered ribozymes (Saldanah et al., 1993; Belfort et al., 2002); however splicing is assisted by intron and host genome encoded maturases/splicing factors (reviewed in Hausner, 2003). Maturases are thought to stabilize the correct tertiary structure of the intron RNA to allow for the proper catalytic domains to be in contact with each other (Matsuura, et al., 2001; Noah and Lambowitz, 2003). Examples of host splicing co-factors are DEAD-box proteins and aminoacyl-tRNA synthetases (Halls et al., 2007; Bifano and Caprara, 2008; Paukstelis et al., 2008). The group I intron encoded maturases are derived from intron encoded HEases or maturase activity can be part of some bi-functional intron encoded HEases (Chatterjee et al., 2003; Belfort, 2003). Typically group II introns encode multifunctional RT-like proteins that contain a maturase domain (Lambowitz and Zimmerly, 2004).

Group I and group II introns are considered mobile introns as they encode proteins that facilitate mobility of these elements from an intron containing allele to a cognate allele lacking introns by a process referred to as homing for group I introns (Dujon, 1989) or retrohoming for group II introns (Zimmerly et al., 1995a & 1995b; Eickbush, 1999). In some instances the mobile introns insert into new positions by transposition events

usually mediated by the intron encoded proteins or by reverse splicing of the intron RNAs (Woodson and Cech, 1989).

Homing endonucleases are encoded by homing endonuclease genes (HEG) which are embedded within group I introns, group II introns and archael introns, as well as inteins (Stoddard 2006). Homing endonucleases are named based on conserved amino acid motifs. The LAGLIDADG and GIY-YIG families of HEases are most frequently encountered among fungal mitochondrial group I introns (Stoddard, 2006). Group II introns have been noted to encode H-N-H type HEases or in a few instances LAGLIDADG-type HEases (Michel and Ferat, 1995; Toor and Zimmerly, 2002; Mullineux et al., 2010). Homing endonuclease genes themselves can be mobile elements, moving independently from their ribozyme partners (Mota and Collins, 1988; Sellem and Belcour, 1997). Self-splicing introns and HEGs share a mutualistic relationship, where the intron provides a neutral location for the HEG thus minimizing its effect on the host genome and the HEG provides a means of mobility and dispersal for the intron (Goddard and Burt, 1999; Lambowitz et al., 1999; Belfort et al., 2002; Schäfer, 2003; Stoddard, 2006).

Homing endonuclease genes and introns are quite invasive and contribute towards the size of fungal mtDNA genomes, mtDNA polymorphisms, and they promote mtDNA rearrangements (Dujon, 1989; Charter et al. 1996; Belcour et al., 1997; Salvo et al., 1998; Hamari et al., 1999; Gobbi et al., 2003). Also group I and II introns have been associated with mtDNA instabilities such as generating plasmid-like elements that are found in

senescent and/or hypovirulent strains in an assortment of filamentous fungi such as *Podospora anserina* (Osiewacz and Esser, 1984; Michel and Cummings, 1985; Cummings et al., 1986; Dujon and Belcour, 1989; Cummings et al., 1990), *Ophiostoma novo-ulmi* (Abu-Amero et al., 1995; Sethuraman et al., 2008) and *Cryphonectria parasitica* (Monteiro-Vitorello et al., 2009; Baidyaroy et al., 2011).

In this paper we present a detailed description of *Ophiostoma minus* (Hedgcock) Sydow et P. Sydow *rns* (mtSSU rRNA) gene and the introns associated with this gene. Species of *Ophiostoma* are of interest as this genus includes many insect-vectored forest pathogens and so-called blue-stain fungi (Harrington, 1993; Kirisits, 2004; Hausner et al., 2005). These fungi cause economic losses by staining timber and making it less desirable for high-end usage or for export, even facing trade embargoes. *O. minus* is a well known agent of blue-stain (Gorton and Webber, 2000) and has been demonstrated to be a pathogen of pine (Masuya et al., 2003; Gorton et al., 2004; BenJamaa et al. 2007). There is also increased interest in mtDNA encoded ribozymes and HEases for biotechnology and human therapeutic applications (Lambowitz and Zimmerly, 2004; Stoddard, 2006; Marcaida et al., 2010). Overall our objectives for this work were as follows: (1) document the distribution of the *rns* introns in strains of *O. minus*, (2) examine, among selected strains, evidence for intron ORF degeneration and (3) characterize the introns and their ORFs by comparative sequence analysis. Ultimately this work is part of a long term effort to characterize and understand the composition and evolution of the mitochondrial genomes within the ophiostomatoid fungi (Gibb and Hausner, 2005; Sethuraman et al., 2008, 2009a & 2009b).

4.3. RESULTS:

Methods relevant to Chapter 4 are presented in Chapter 2 (Materials and Methods).

4.3.1. The *rns* introns in strains of *O. minus*:

Amplification of a segment of the *rns* gene from 21 strains of *O. minus* using the mtsr-1 and mtsr-2 primer generated PCR products ranging in size from 1.2 kb to 7.0 kb (Figure 4.1. & Table 4.1.). A 1.2 kb fragment is expected when no insertions are present, so the 3.0, 4.0, 4.4, 5.4 and 7.0 kb amplicons indicate the presence of introns. Representatives of the various amplicon size classes [WIN(M)1574, WIN(M)873, WIN(M)494, WIN(M)371, WIN(M)472, and WIN(M)515] were selected for detailed DNA sequence analysis (See Appendix 9.3. for a complete primers list used to sequence the *O. minus rns* gene and Appendix 9.4. for GenBank accession numbers). Based on comparing *rns* sequences that lacked introns with those that contain introns, four intron insertion sites could be identified: mS379, mS569, mS952 and mS1224 (Table 4.2., Figure 4.2. [a] & [b]). Introns were named according to the nomenclature for group I introns inserted in the ribosomal RNA genes (Johansen and Haugen, 2001). Intron insertion site in *O. minus rns* gene and the corresponding insertion site in *E. coli* SSU rRNA gene were also indicated. The letters and numbers used in the nomenclature were underlined (see Table 4.2.).

The mS379 intron characterized in strains WIN(M)472, WIN(M)494 and WIN(M)515 is a class A group II intron, based on the presence of the conserved domain V (D V) sequence. The intron encodes a putative RT-like protein that has been fragmented into two segments by frame shift mutations (Figure 4.2. [a]). The mS569

intron found in strains WIN(M)371 and WIN(M)472 is a class C2 group I intron and it encodes a LHEase-like sequence (Table 4.2.). The third intron at position mS952 as characterized in strains WIN(M)371, WIN(M)515 and WIN(M)873 is a typical class B group II intron and it encodes a LAGLIDADG HE-like sequence.

Figure 4 1. PCR amplicons from different strains of *O. minus* using the mtsr-1 and mtsr-2 primers that target the *rms* gene (see Table 4.1. for list of strains corresponding to lane numbering). Sizes of representative PCR products are indicated. The L lane contains the resolved 1 kb plus (Invitrogen) ladder. See Table 4.1. for strain names.

Figure 4.1.

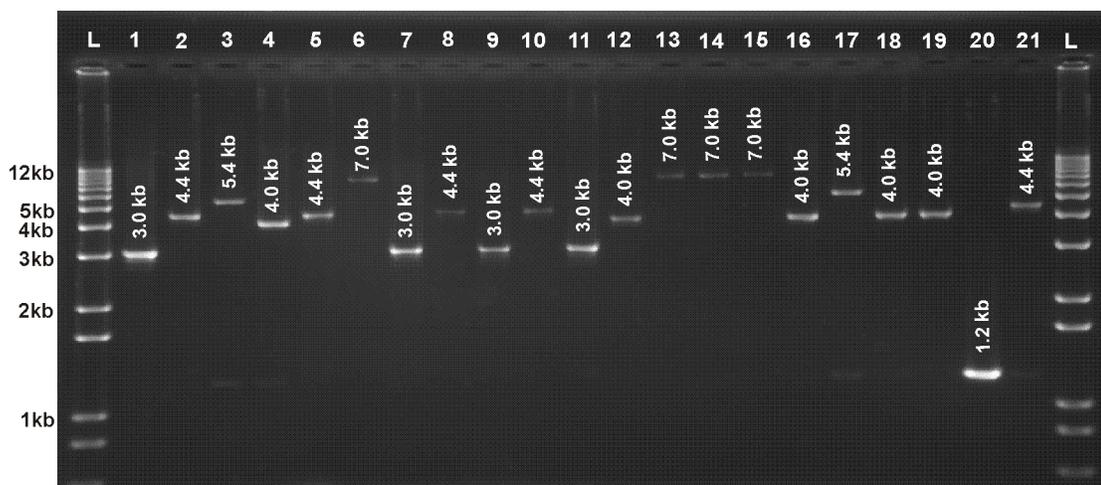


Table 4.1. List of *O. minus* strains used in the present study, location of collection and the corresponding *rms* gene length of each strain.

Table 4.1.

S	Species	Strain No.	Location	<i>rns</i> Length (kb)
1	<i>O. minus</i>	WIN(M)292	Sandilands, Forest Reserve, Manitoba, Canada	3.0
2	<i>O. minus</i>	WIN(M)371	Forest Besrve, Manitoba,Canada	4.4
3	<i>O. minus</i>	WIN(M)472	Taylor lake, Alberta, Canada	5.4
4	<i>O. minus</i>	WIN(M)494 / C-248 (NFRC)	Edmonton, Alberta, Canada	4.0
5	<i>O. minus</i>	WIN(M)495 / C-262 (NFRC)	Edmonton, Alberta, Canada	4.4
6	<i>O. minus</i>	WIN(M)515 / CBS 404.77	California. USA	7.0
7	<i>O. minus</i>	WIN(M)861 / DAOM 29251	Toronto, Ontario, Canada	3.0
8	<i>O. minus</i>	WIN(M)871 / DAOM 29251	Sanchlando, Manitoba, Canada	4.4
9	<i>O. minus</i>	WIN(M)873	Edmonton, Alberta, Canada	3.0
10	<i>O. minus</i>	WIN(M)874 / C-874 (NFRC)	Edmonton, Alberta, Canada	4.4
11	<i>O. minus</i>	WIN(M)875 / C-845 (NFRC)	Edmonton, Alberta, Canada	3.0
12	<i>O. minus</i>	WIN(M)876 / C-342 (NFRC)	Edmonton, Alberta, Canada	4.0
13	<i>O. minus</i>	WIN(M)888 / ATCC 15321	Wyoming, Michigan, USA	7.0
14	<i>O. minus</i>	WIN(M)888A / ATCC 15321	Wyoming, Michigan, USA	7.0
15	<i>O. minus</i>	WIN(M)889 / ATCC 22388	California. USA	7.0
16	<i>O. minus</i>	WIN(M)890 / ATCC 11065	Washington, UAS	4.0
17	<i>O. minus</i>	WIN(M)1213	Bracebridge, Ontario, Canada	5.4
18	<i>O. minus</i>	WIN(M)1275	Barrie, Ontario, Canada	4.0
19	<i>O. minus</i>	WIN(M)1573	Lakehead, Ontario, Canada	4.0
20	<i>O. minus</i>	WIN(M)1574	Lakehead, Ontario, Canada	1.2
21	<i>O. minus</i>	WIN(M)1575	Lakehead, Ontario, Canada	4.4

WIN(M) = University of Manitoba culture collection (Winnipeg, MB, Canada).

ATCC= American Type Culture Collection (Manassas, VA).

CBS= Central Bureau voos Schimmelcultures (Utrecht, The Netherland).

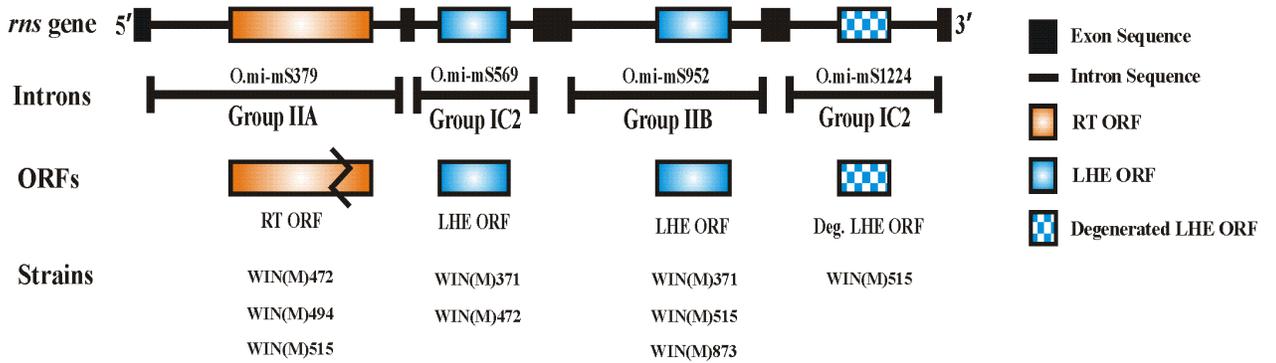
NFRC= Northern Forestry Research Center (Edmonton, AB, Canada).

DAOM= Plant Research Institute, Department of Agriculture, Mycology, Ottawa, Canada.

Figure 4.2. [a] A schematic overview of the *O. minus rns* gene showing the two intron types (group I and II) and the intron encoded ORFs (RTs and LHEases). The introns are located at positions mS379, mS569, mS952 and mS1224 with reference to the *E. coli* SSU rRNA sequence. The RT ORF is fragmented into two segments by frame shift mutations. Examples of strains are listed for which the complete mtsr-1/2 PCR product sequences were obtained. **[b]** Sequences that define the exon/intron junctions for the group I (O.mi-mS569 and O.mi-mS1224) and group II introns (O.mi-mS379 and O.mi-mS952). For the group II introns the IBS1, IBS2, IBS3 and δ^- sequences are indicated.

Figure 4.2.

[a]



[b]

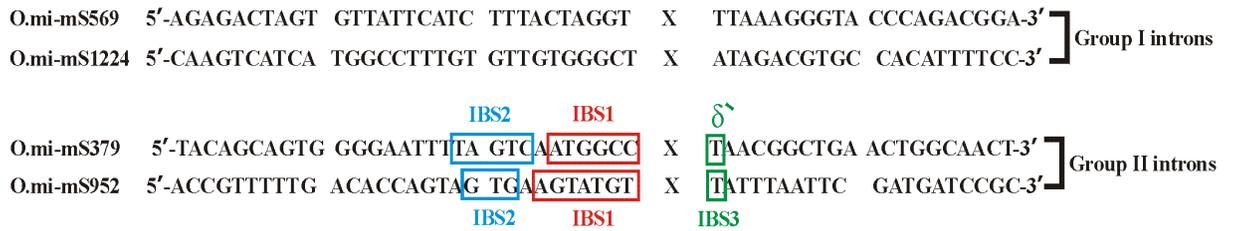


Table 4.2. Ribosomal RNA group I and II introns nomenclature.

Table 4.2.

Intron name	Host species	Strain #	Host gene	Insertion site (in <i>O. minus</i>)	Insertion site (in <i>E. coli</i>)
O.mi472-mS379	<i>O. minus</i>	WIN(M) 472	mt-SSU-rRNA	284-285	379-380
O.mi494-mS379	<i>O. minus</i>	WIN(M) 494	mt-SSU-rRNA	284-285	379-380
O.mi515-mS379	<i>O. minus</i>	WIN(M) 515	mt-SSU-rRNA	284-285	379-380
O.mi371-mS569	<i>O. minus</i>	WIN(M) 371	mt-SSU-rRNA	434-435	569-570
O.mi472-mS569	<i>O. minus</i>	WIN(M) 472	mt-SSU-rRNA	433-434	569-570
O.mi371-mS952	<i>O. minus</i>	WIN(M) 371	mt-SSU-rRNA	777-778	952-953
O.mi515-mS952	<i>O. minus</i>	WIN(M) 515	mt-SSU-rRNA	778-779	952-953
O.mi873-mS952	<i>O. minus</i>	WIN(M) 873	mt-SSU-rRNA	777-778	952-953
O.mi515-mS1224	<i>O. minus</i>	WIN(M) 515	mt-SSU-rRNA	1028-1029	1224-1225

The fourth intron inserted at position mS1224 in strain WIN(M)515, is a class C2 group I intron, and contains a highly degenerated/fragmented LAGLIDADG ORF due to frame shift mutations and the presence of premature stop codons.

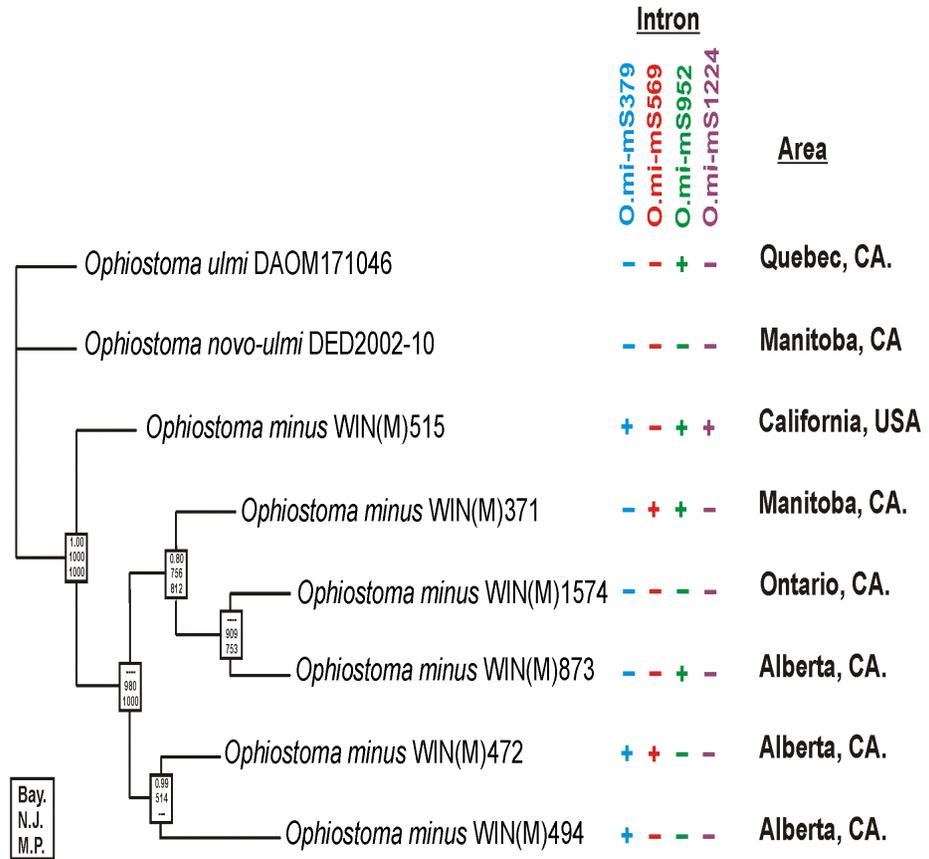
An *O. minus* species tree was generated by combining the *rns*, ITS, and partial EF-1 α nucleotide sequences for those strains that were selected for more detailed analysis of the *rns* gene (Figure 4.3.). The species tree was compared to the distribution of the various introns uncovered in this study and there was no obvious connection between relatedness among the various strains and their intron composition. The strain with the most introns WIN(M)515 appears to be the most divergent member among the tested *O. minus* strains (See appendix 9.3 for complete list of GenBank accession numbers of the *rns*, ITS, and partial EF-1 α nucleotide sequences used in this phylogenetic analysis)

4.3.2. Group I introns:

The group I introns found in the *O. minus rns* gene belong to class C2 due to the presence of P5a and P5b in the P5 pairing region and the absence of a P2 region (Comparative RNA Web Site (CRW), <http://www.rna.ccbb.utexas.edu>, Cannone et al., 2002). The P, Q, R and S sequences (Michel and Westhof, 1990) could be identified but P2 is absent (Figure 4.4. [a] & [b]). The start codon of the LAGLIDADG ORF is located at the stem of P5b, while the stop codon is found within the loop of P9.1 region. The mS1224 intron is longer (1394 bp) than the mS569 introns (1323 bp), and the P9 region of the mS1224 intron is a more complex fold and contains a highly fragmented LAGLIDADG type ORF (Figure 4.5.).

Figure 4.3. The phylogenetic tree showing the relatedness among various *O. minus* strains based on a combined *rns*, ITS and EF-1 α nucleotide sequence data set. The tree topology is based on NJ analysis. The *O. ulmi* and *O. novo-ulmi* subspecies *americana* sequences data served as the outgroup. The upper number represents the posterior probabilities (PP) values obtained by generating a Bayesian 50% majority rule consensus tree. The middle number is the bootstrap (BS) support based on NJ analysis, while the last number represents the BS values based on Parsimony analysis. Nodes that received less than 50% support (BS or PP) were collapsed. The branch lengths as shown are based on NJ analysis and are proportional to the number of substitutions per site. Distribution of *rns* introns and geographic origin of strains are shown on the right.

Figure 4.3.



* See appendix 9.4 for complete list of GenBank accession numbers of the *ms*, ITS, and partial EF-1 α nucleotide sequences used in this phylogenetic analysis.

Figure 4.4. Secondary structure of [a] O.mi472-mS569 and [b] O.mi371-mS569 group I (class C2) introns found in the *O. minus* strain WIN(M)472) and WIN(M)371 *rns* gene respectively. Intron sequences are in upper-case letters and exon sequences are in lower-case letters. The ten pairing regions (P1-P10) are indicated and the P10 region is boxed. The solid black arrowheads indicate the intron-exon junctions (5' and 3' splicing sites). The LAGLIDADG ORF has a putative start codon within the P5b region and the ORF extends into P9.1 loop.

Figure 4.4. [a]

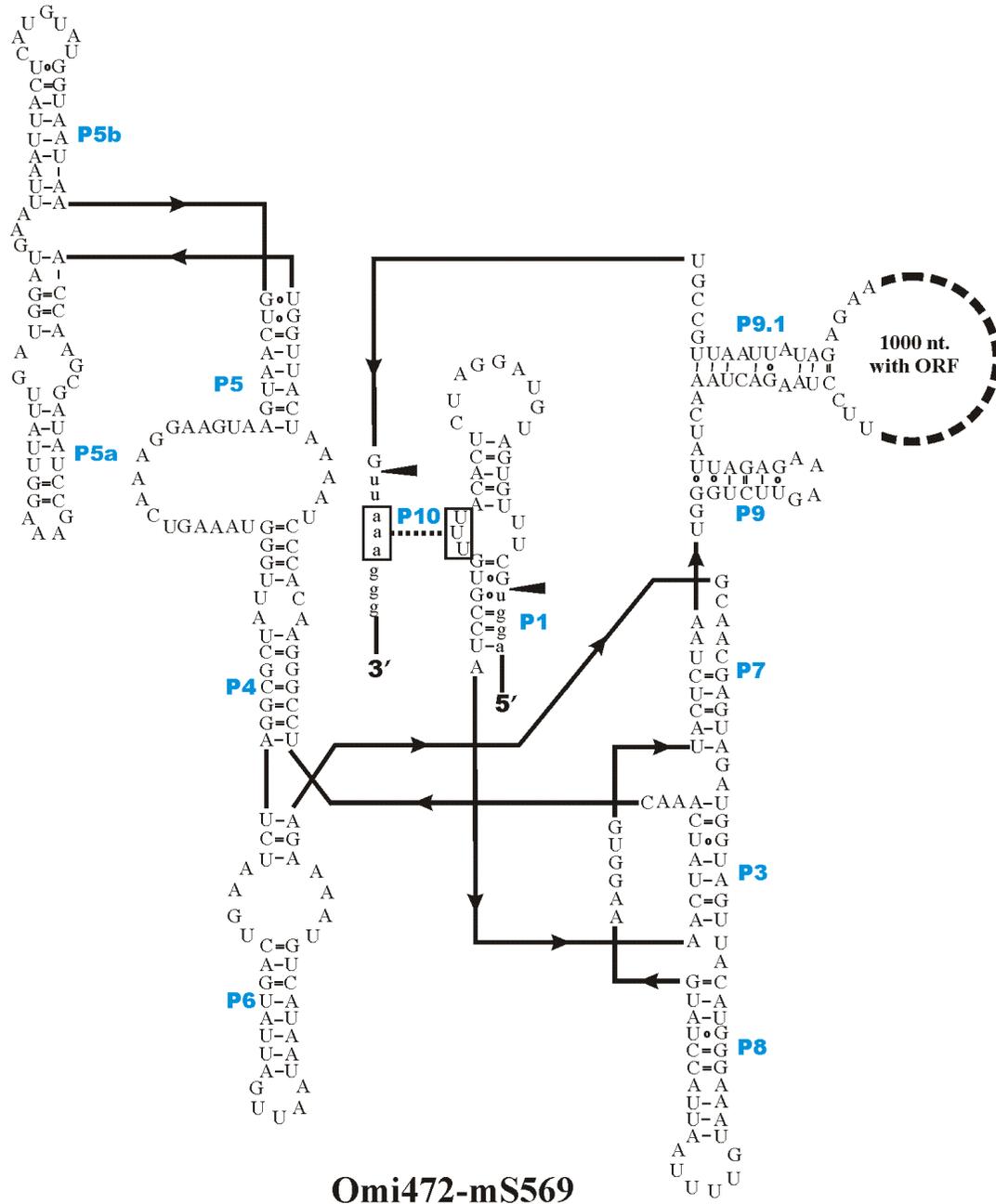


Figure 4.4. [b]

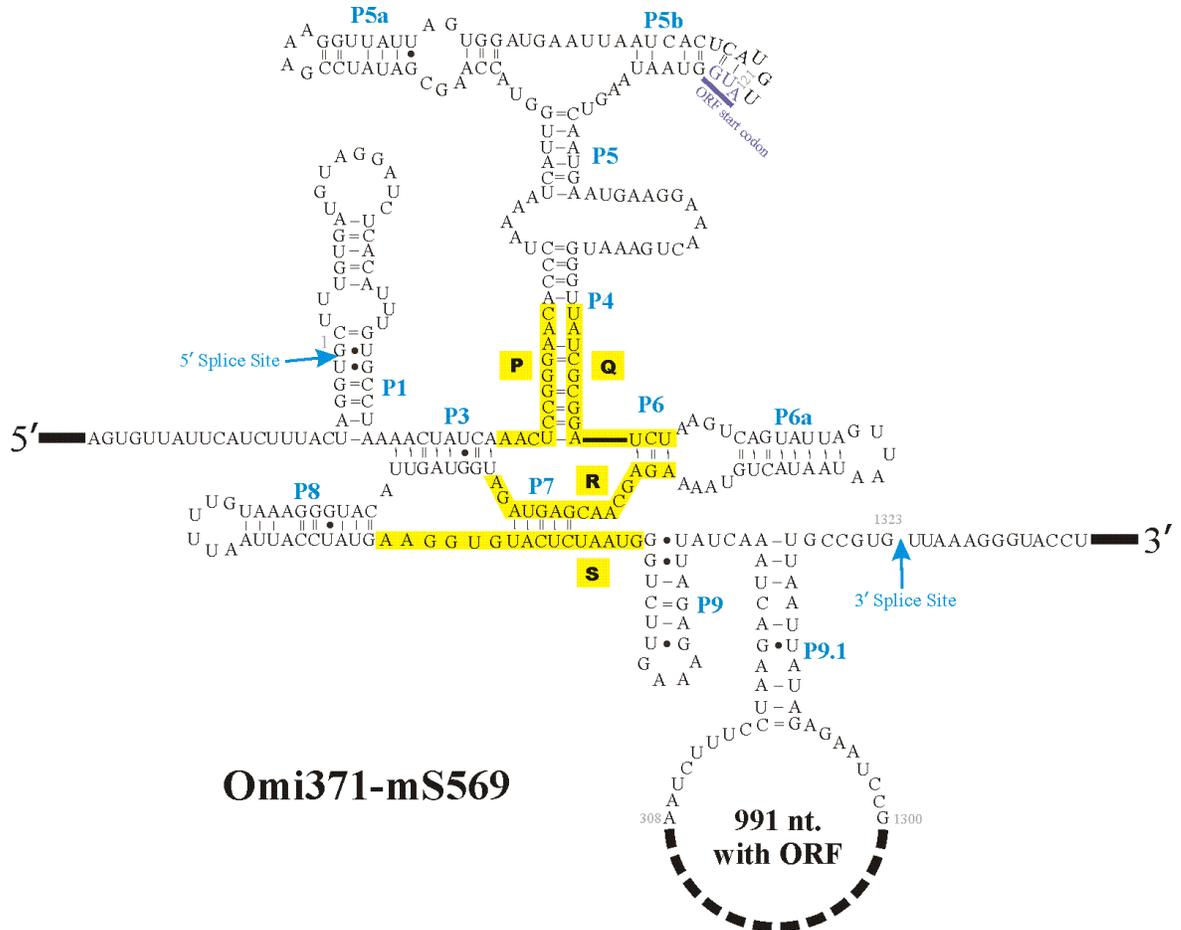


Figure 4.5. Secondary structure of O.mi515-mS1224 group IC2 intron found in the *O. minus* strain WIN(M)515 *rns* gene. Intron sequences are in upper-case letters and exon sequences are in lower-case letters. The ten pairing regions (P1-P10) are indicated and the P10 region is boxed. The solid black arrowheads indicate the intron-exon junctions (5' and 3' splicing sites). The LAGLIDADG ORF is highly degenerated.

4.3.3. Group II introns:

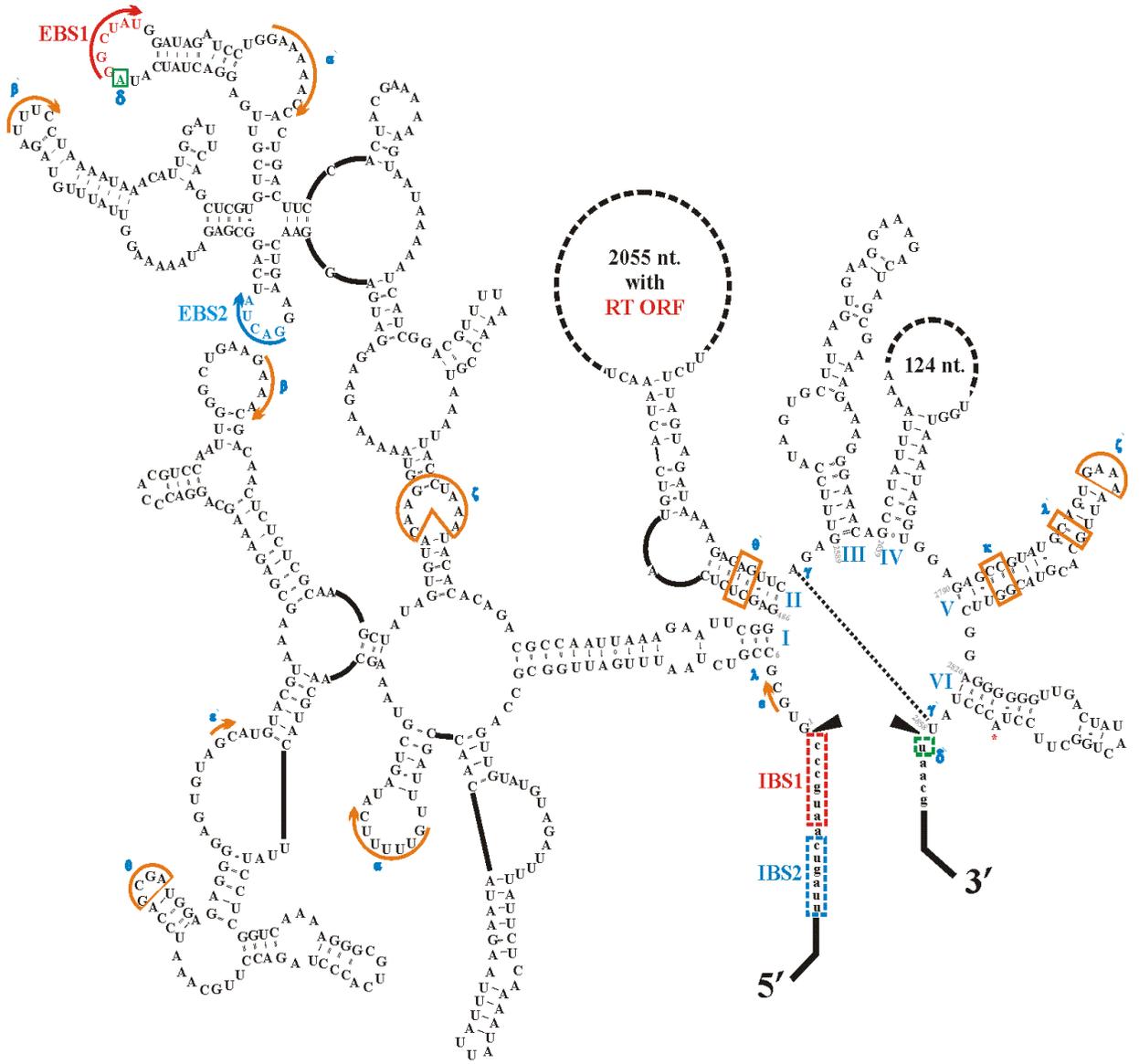
Both introns at mS379 (Figure 4.6.) and mS952 (Figure 4.7.) are typical group II introns containing the characteristic features of class A and class B respectively, such as the exon binding sites (EBS1, EBS2 & EBS3/ δ), which are complementary to the intron binding sites (IBS1, IBS2 & IBS3/ δ) in the upstream and the downstream exons flanking the intron insertion site, the internal loop of DIC_i (ϵ), the internal loop of DII, the linkers between domains I to VI and the absence of insertions in the 3' strand of DI_i and DI_{ii} (Michel and Ferat, 1995; Toor et al., 2001). What distinguishes this group II intron from others are the type and position of the encoded ORF; group II introns usually encode an RT-like ORF in the loop of domain IV. The mS379 intron encodes a RT-like ORF in the loop of domain II (Figure 4.6 [a], [b] & [c]), while the mS952 intron encodes a potential LHEase within the loop of domain III (Figure 4.7 [a], [b] & [c]).

4.3.4. *In vivo* splicing of the *rns* introns:

To confirm the predicted exon/intron junctions derived by comparative sequence analysis, RT-PCR analysis was applied to RNA from strains WIN(M)371, WIN(M)472, WIN(M)494 and WIN(M)888 (Figure 4.8.). We were not able to extract RNA from strain WIN(M)515 so we substituted it with strain WIN(M) 888, a strain that has the same *rns* gene configuration as WIN(M)515. The *rns* genes from these strains contain representatives of all introns encountered during this study: WIN(M) 371 contains mS569 and mS952, WIN(M) 472 contains m379 and mS569, WIN(M) 494 contains mS379, and WIN(M) 888 contains mS379, mS952 and mS1224 (Figure 4.2. and Table 4.2.).

Figure 4.6. Secondary structures of the O.mi472-mS379 [a]; O.mi494-mS379 [b] and O.mi515-mS952 [c] group IIA1 intron RNAs. Intron sequences are in upper-case letters and exon sequences are in lower-case letters. The positions of EBS1, EBS2 and δ are noted. The positions of IBS1, IBS2 and δ' in the 5' and 3' exons are boxed with dotted lines. Tertiary interactions are indicated by dashed lines and Greek letters (ε , λ , α , β , θ , κ , ζ , and γ). The six major structural domains are indicated by Roman numbers (I, II, III, IV, V and VI). The solid black arrowheads indicate the intron-exon junctions (5' and 3' splicing sites). The asterisk shows the bulged adenosine nucleotide in domain VI (the branch point). The RT ORF is encoded within DII.

Figure 4.6. [a]



Omi472-mS379

Figure 4.6. [b]

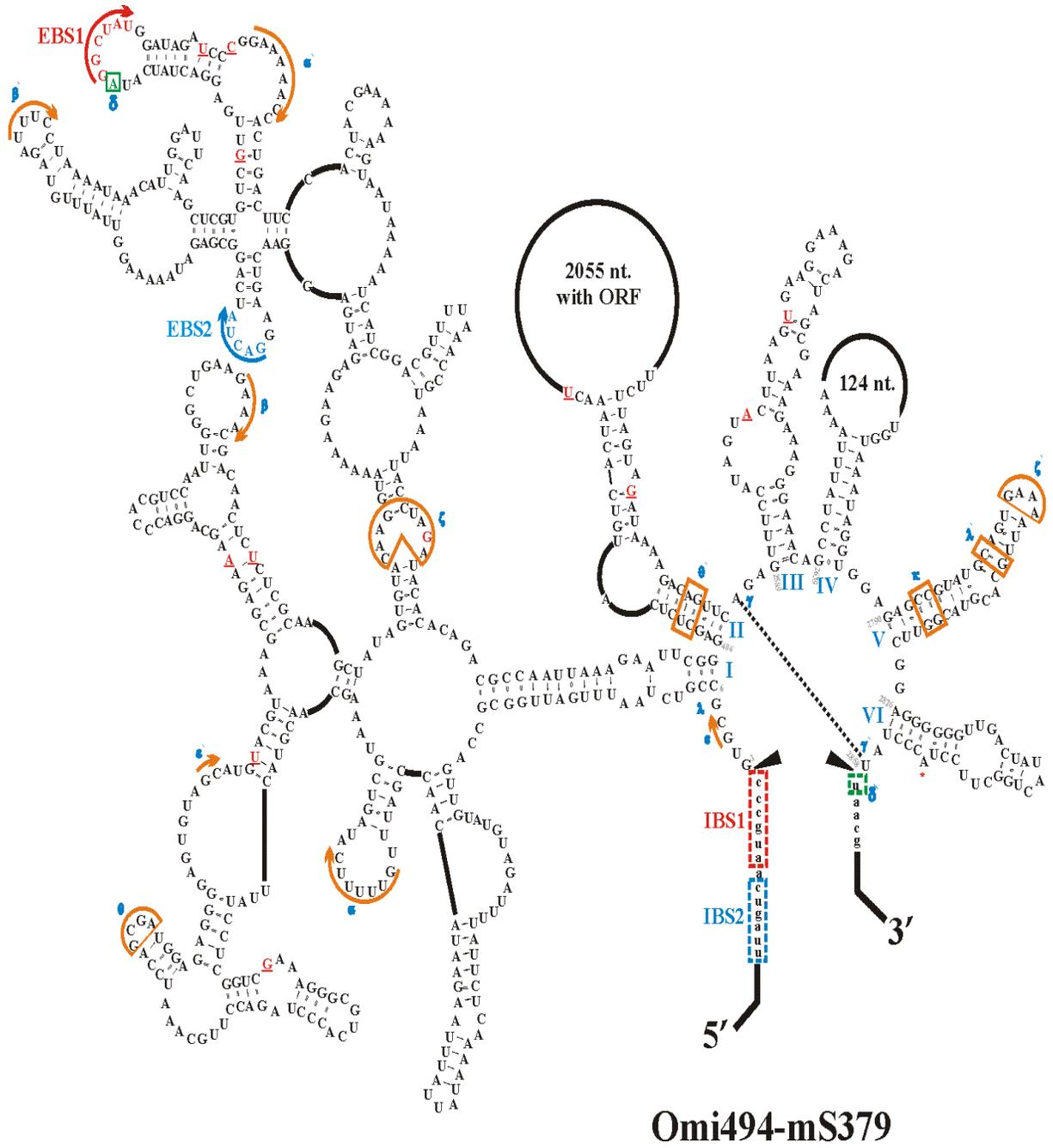


Figure 4.6. [c]

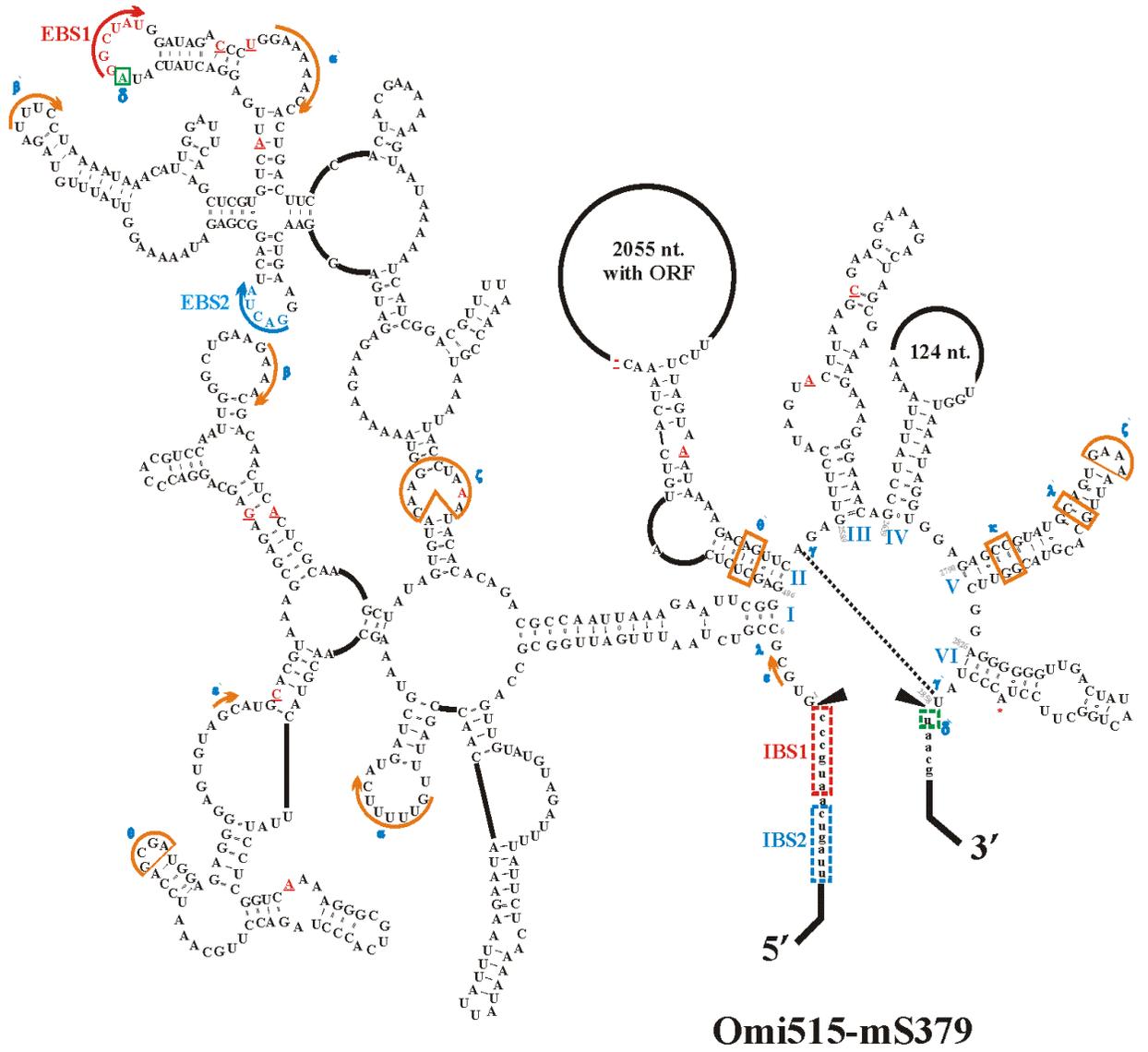


Figure 4.7. Secondary structures of the O.mi371-mS952 **[a]**; O.mi873-mS952 **[b]** and O.mi515-mS952 **[c]** group IIB1 intron RNAs. Intron sequences are in upper-case letters and exon sequences are in lower-case letters. The positions of EBS1, EBS2 and EBS3 are noted. The positions of IBS1, IBS2 and IBS3 in the 5' and 3' exons are boxed with dotted lines. Tertiary interactions are indicated by dashed lines and Greek letters (ϵ , λ , α , β , θ , κ , ζ , and γ). The six major structural domains are indicated by Roman numbers (I, II, III, IV, V and VI). The solid black arrowheads indicate the intron-exon junctions (5' and 3' splicing sites). The asterisk shows the bulged adenosine nucleotide in domain VI (the branch point). The LAGLIDADG ORF is encoded within DIII.

Figure 4.7. [a]

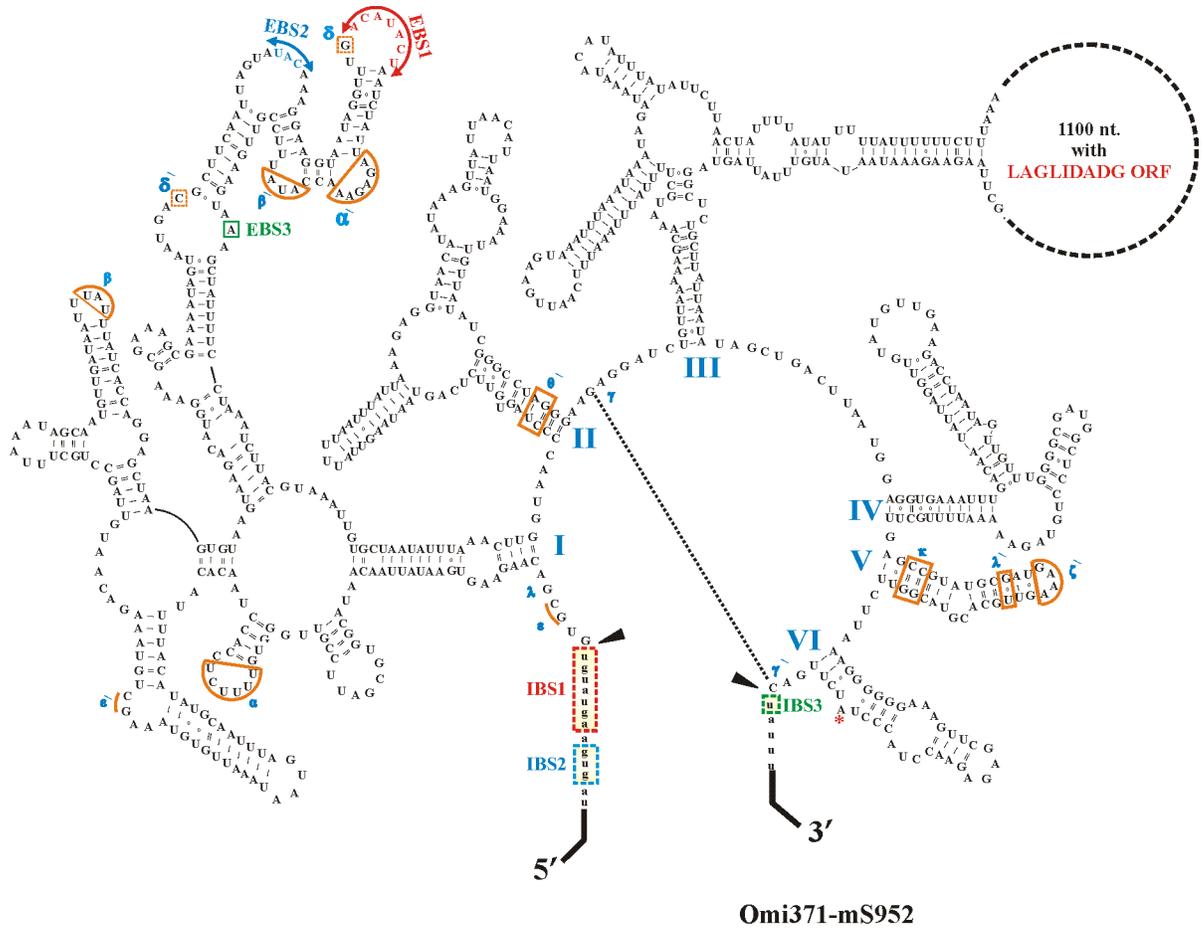


Figure 4.7. [b]

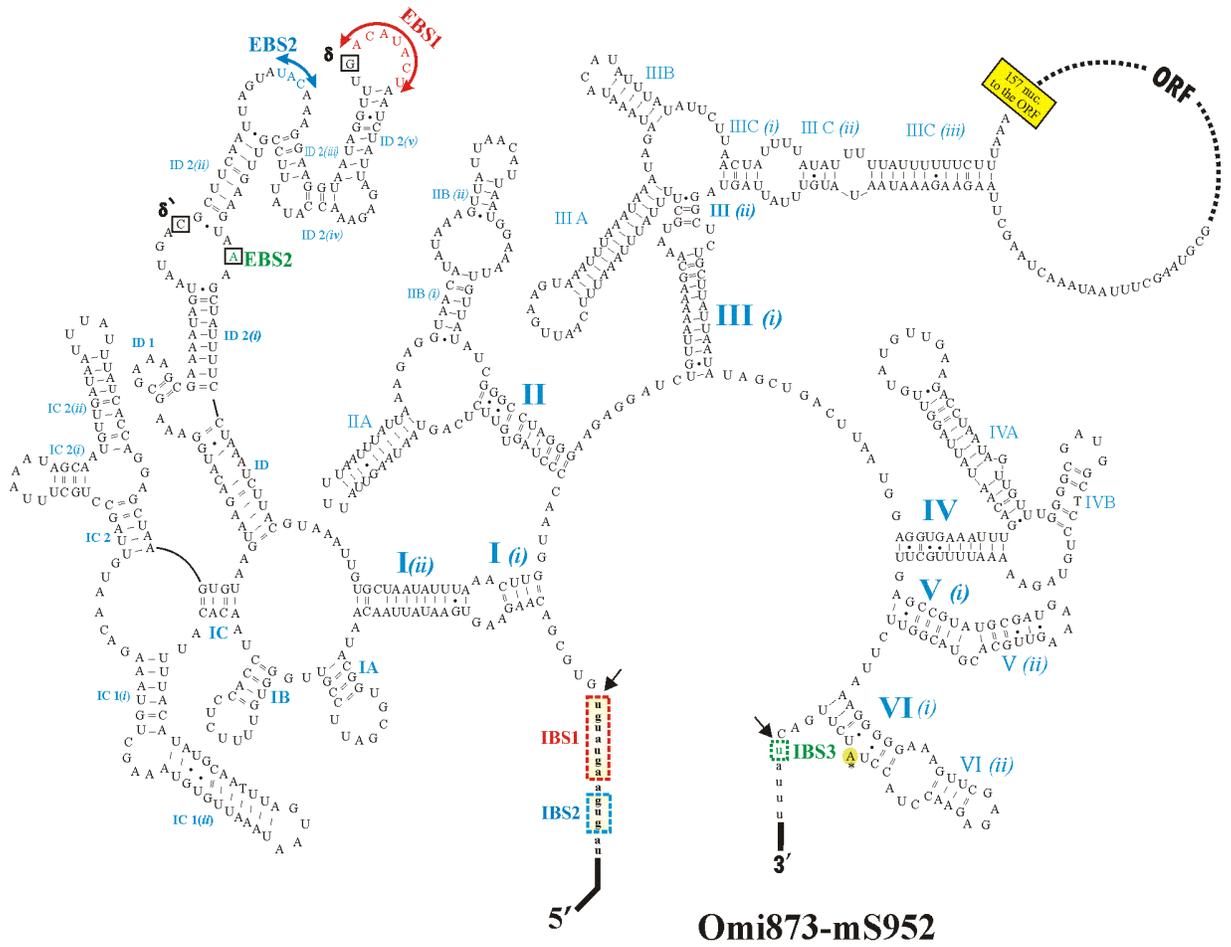
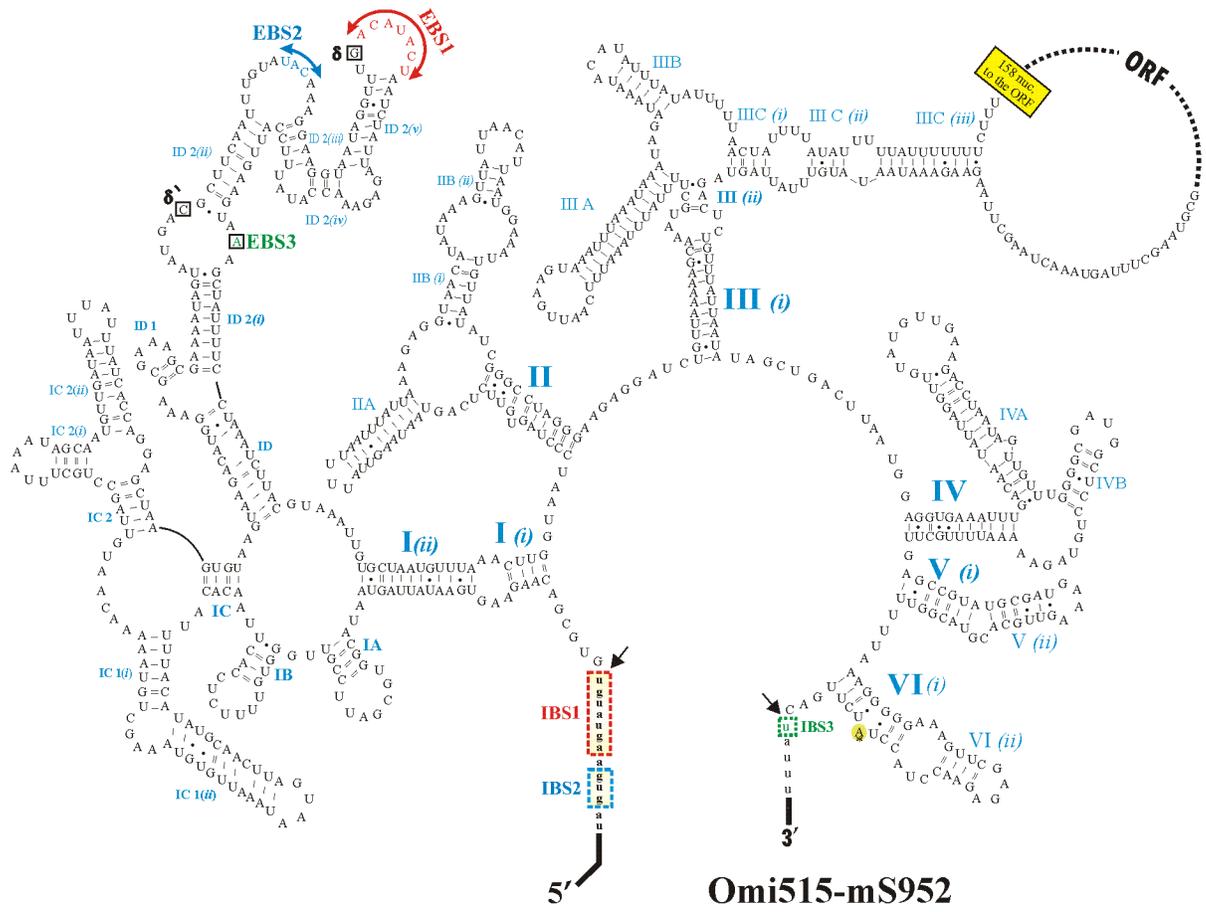


Figure 4.7. [c]



Sequence analysis of the cDNA confirmed that the predicted introns were all spliced out and are thus missing from the mature rRNA and the sequence data confirmed the predicted exon/intron junction sequences (Figure 4.2. [b]).

4.3.5. Phylogenetic analysis of the LAGLIDADG ORFs:

Double motif LHEases were found within the *O. minus* mS569, mS952, and mS1224 introns. A LHEase-like 370 amino acid ORFs is encoded within the mS569 group I intron and a 306 amino acid LHEase-like ORF is located in the mS952 group II intron. The mS952 and mS1224 intron ORFs from strain WIN(M)515 were found to be highly degenerated/fragmented due to numerous mutations. These ORFs were omitted from the phylogenetic analysis (Figure 4.9.) as unambiguous reconstruction of the putative intact (or near intact) amino acid sequence was not possible. Related sequences to the *rns* intron encoded ORFs were extracted from GenBank with BLASTp. In total 43 double motif LAGLIDADG ORF amino acid sequences were compiled, aligned and subjected to phylogenetic analysis in order to determine the possible origins of the *O. minus rns* intron ORFs (Figure 4.9.).

The *O. minus* mS952 ORF belongs to a family of double motif LAGLIDADG ORFs that appear to share a common ancestor with LAGLIDADG ORFs that are encoded by group I introns located within protein coding genes and rRNA genes (node 1, Figure 4.9.). The tree topology shows that group I encoded ORFs branch basal to the mS952 encoded ORF, which suggests that the LAGLIDADG ORF most likely transferred from a group I intron to the *rns* mS952 group II intron (node 2, Figure 4.9.).

Figure 4.8. RT-PCR analysis for demonstrating *in vivo* splicing of *O. minus* introns and determining the intron/exon junctions. The *rns* transcripts for the following strains were analyzed by RT-PCR: WIN(M)371, 472, 494 and 888 (lanes 2, 5, 8 and 11 respectively). The standard PCR reactions using genomic DNA as templates are shown in lanes 1, 4, 7 and 10 for strains WIN(M)371, 472, 494 and 888 respectively. The PCR products from the genomic DNA controls generated 4.4, 5.4, 4.0 and 7.0 kb bands (lanes 1,4,7 and 11 respectively) as expected from previous data (see Figure 4.1. and Table 4.1.). The amplicon lengths for all cDNAs were 1.2 kb indicating that the introns were all spliced out. The negative controls for all RT-PCR (standard PCR using DNA free whole cell RNA as a template) assays yielded no bands (lanes 3, 6, 9 and 12) showing that the RNA was free of any DNA. The lane marked “L” contains the 1 kb plus ladder (Invitrogen).

Figure 4.8.

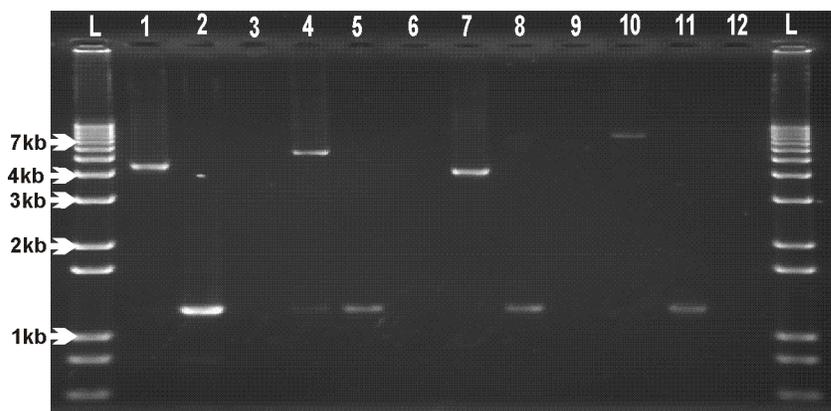
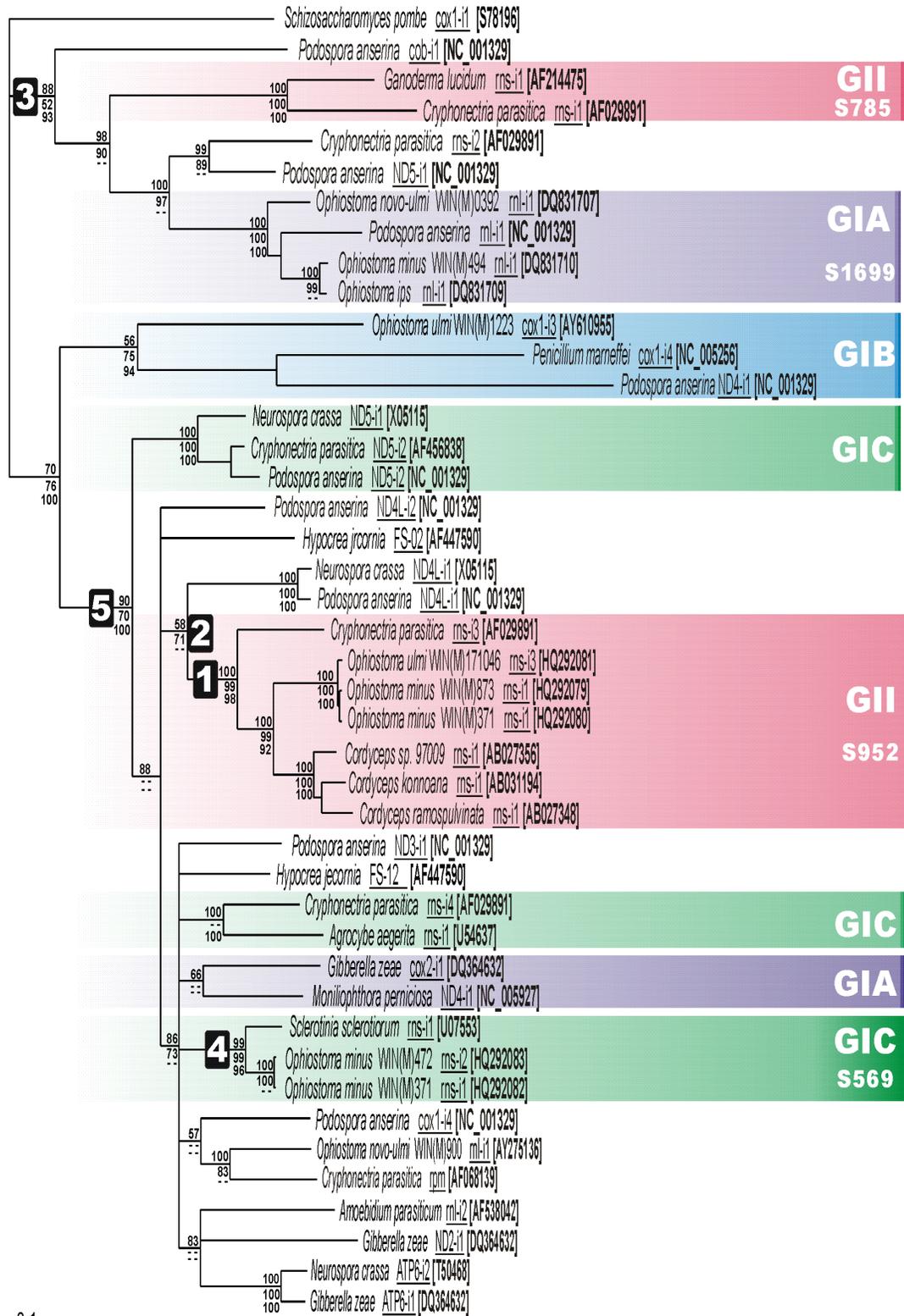


Figure 4.9. Phylogenetic tree of the LAGLIDADG HEG-like elements related to the *O. minus rns* group I and group II intron-encoded ORFs. The tree topology is based on Bayesian analysis and the numbers at the nodes represent the following: top number is the PP value as obtained from a 50% majority Bayesian consensus tree, the middle number is the bootstrap (BS) support based on NJ analysis, and the last number represents the BS support based on Parsimony analysis. Nodes that received less than 50% support (BS or PP) reduced to polychotomies. The branch lengths are based on Bayesian analysis and are proportional to the number of substitutions per site. Host gene and intron number are underlined. Sequence accession numbers are listed in brackets.

Figure 4.9.



0.1

There are other lineages of LAGLIDADG ORFs that appear to have invaded group II introns, see node 3 (Figure 4.9.). The latter appear to be unrelated to any of the *O. minus rns* intron ORFs. The *O. minus* mS569 intron ORFs appear to be related to another intron ORF inserted at the same position in the *rns* gene of *Sclerotinia sclerotiorum* (node 4, Figure 4.9.). Overall based on the limited number of sequences available, the ORF sequences evolved according to their respective insertion sites. Overall the *O. minus* intron ORFs are part of a large clade (node 5, Figure 4.9.) that includes free-standing ORFs and group I intron ORFs inserted in protein coding genes (*nad2*, *nad3*, *nad4*, *nad4l*, *nad5*, *cox1*, *cox2* and *atp6*) as well as rRNA genes (*rns* and *rnl*).

4.3.6. Characterization of mS379 intron encoded RT ORFs:

The O.mi494-mS379 ORF is degenerated and thus the ORF finder program identified two separate putative ORFs, encoding the RT domain (412 amino acids) and the maturase domain (152 amino acids) respectively. However, a contiguous 616 amino acid RT-ORF can be generated by correcting for a frame shift mutation (removal of a T insertion) at the nucleotide position 1900 (accession HQ292070); the mutation caused the introduction of a premature stop codon (TAA). Similarly mS379 ORFs were degenerated in all strains studied. The degenerated ORF encoded by the O.mi472-mS379 intron could be regenerated into a 616 amino acid sequence by correcting the frame shift mutation as in the O.mi494-mS379 ORF plus a deletion mutation (A) at position 1708 and a substitution mutation at the position 1711 [G → A] (accession HQ292072). However, the RT-like ORF from O.mi515-mS379 was highly degenerated and could not be regenerated into a complete continuous ORF; instead only a fragmented 447 amino

acid sequence could be assembled that like those described previously, showed similarities a group II intron encoded RT-like ORFs

4.3.7. Phylogenetic analysis of group II intron encoded RT proteins:

In order to determine the evolutionary position of the *O. minus* mS379 ORFs among other group II intron encoded ORFs a data set was compiled by extracting related sequences from GenBank with a BLASTp search using the O.mi472-mS379 ORF amino acid sequence as a query (Figure 4.10.). The phylogenetic analysis of the aligned amino acid sequence data set composed of 63 sequences was restricted to segments that could be unambiguously aligned such as the RT domains (RT-0 to RT-7) and the X-maturase domains (Figure 4.11.) (Lambowitz and Zimmerly, 2004).

The data set contained 34 mitochondrial, six chloroplast and 23 bacterial group II intron related RT-like ORF sequences. The alignment consists of 571 amino acid positions. The non-Long Terminal Repeat element (non-LTR) from *Drosophila melanogaster* was used as an outgroup because this class of retroelements is mechanistically and phylogenetically linked to mobile group II introns (Eickbush, 1999). Phylogenetic trees generated from the RT sequence alignment placed the group II RT sequences into several groupings. The following clades were observed: the plant matR ORFs (node 1, Figure 4.10.), the euglenoid RT ORFs (node 2, Figure 4.10.), six bacterial subclasses (A, B, C, D, E and F; node 3, Figure 4.10.), and the mitochondrial RT ORFs (node 4, Figure 4.10.) (Martínez-Abarca and Toro, 2000; Zimmerly et al., 2001; Simon et al., 2008 & 2009).

Figure 4.10. A phylogenetic tree showing the relatedness among a set of group II intron RT ORFs. The tree topology is based on Bayesian analysis. The tree was rooted with non-LTR RT from *Drosophila melanogaster* (accession number: X51967.). Numbers at the nodes represented the following: upper number represents the PP values obtained from Bayesian 50% majority consensus tree, middle number the bootstrap support based on NJ analysis, and the last number is the BS support obtained from Parsimony analysis. Nodes that received less than 50% support (BS or PP) were collapsed into polychotomies. The major categories of RT ORF such as matR, euglenoid, mitochondrial and bacterial are indicated. Host gene and intron number are underlined. Sequence accession numbers are listed in brackets.

Figure 4.10.

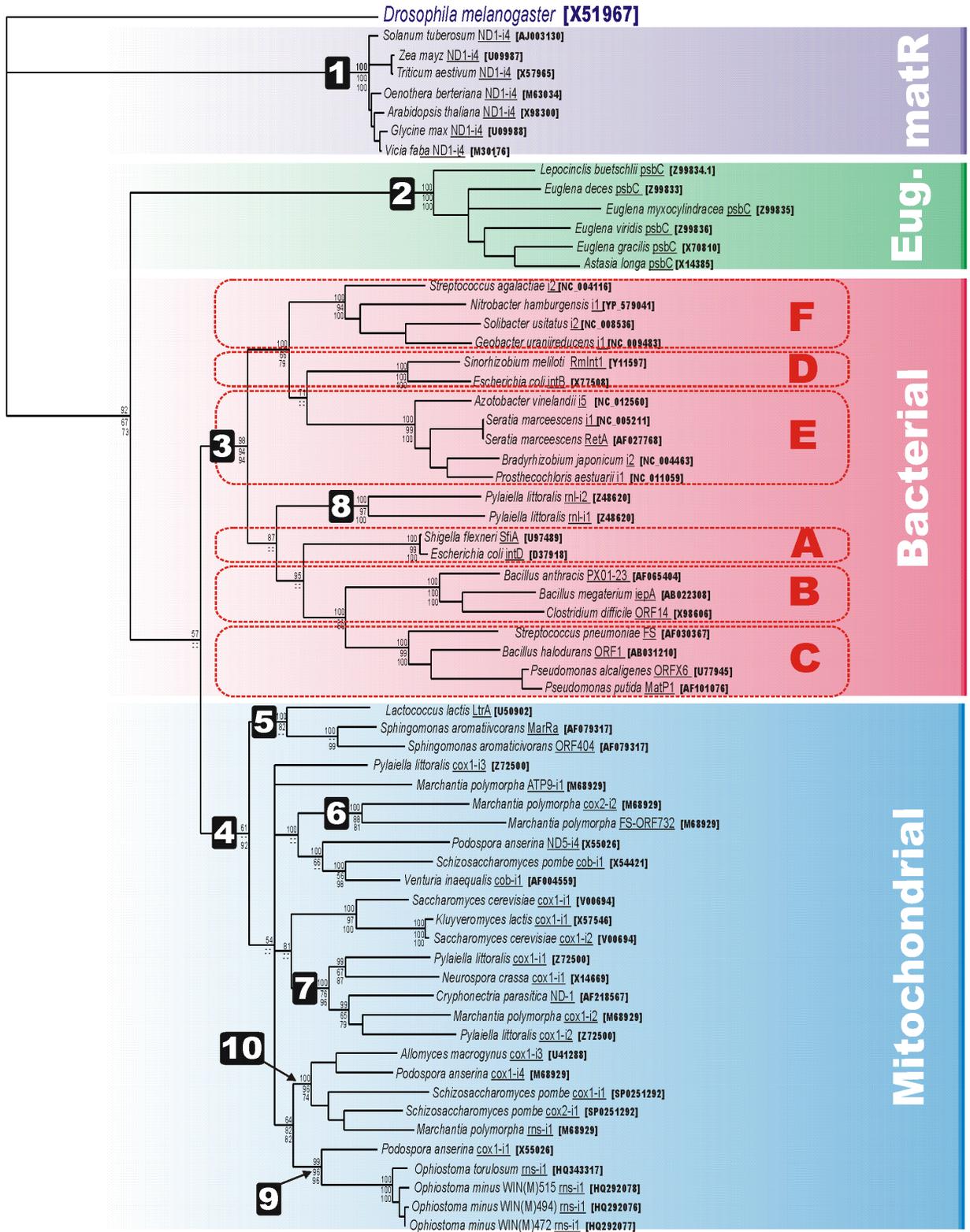


Figure 4.11. Alignment of the RT ORF amino acid sequences of the *O. minus* (strains WIN(M) 515, 494 and 472) and the consensus sequences of the mitochondrial group II type RT ORFs (as given in Zimmerly et al., 2001). Conserved RT domains (RT-0 to RT-7, X and Zn) are indicated above the alignment.

We noted examples of possible horizontal transfer of RT ORFs between unrelated groups of organisms. For example among fungal mitochondrial group II intron ORFs one finds interspersed ORFs from bacterial (node 5, Figure 4.10.), liverwort (node 6, Figure 4.10.) and brown algal sources. For example the *cox1-i1* and *cox1-i2* RT ORFs from the *Pyaiella littoralis* (a brown algae, stramenopiles) group with the *Neurospora crassa* *cox1-i1* and *Marchantia polymorpha* *cox1-i2* RT ORFs respectively (node 7, Figure 4.10.). Also the *Pyaiella littoralis* *rnl-i1* and *rnl-i2* RT ORFs grouped within the bacterial domain of the RT ORF tree (node 8, Figure 4.10.). The heterogeneous distribution of closely related RT ORFs in different taxonomically unrelated groups is indicative of horizontal transfers.

The O.mi-mS379 ORFs formed a sister group with the P.an.cox1-i1 RT (node 9, Figure 4.10.) and the node support values are 96 and 99 % for bootstrap support and posterior probability respectively, and this cluster shares a common node with a set of group II intron ORFs mostly inserted within the *cox1* gene (*Allomyces macrogynus* *cox1-i3*, *Podospora anserina* *cox1-i4*, *Schizosaccharomyces pombe* *cox1-i1* and *cox1-i2*) or the *Marchantia polymorpha* *rns* gene (*rns-i1*) (node 10, Figure 4.10.).

4.4. DISCUSSION:

4.4.1. *Ophiostoma minus* *rns* gene has two IC2 Group I intron insertion sites:

The secondary structure of group I introns consist of base-pairing elements designated as P1 to P9. Another conserved structure is P10 which forms by base pairing

the 3' exon sequence with IGS contained in P1 loop. The P2 element is not found in all group IC introns. There are also a set of conserved internal sequence elements found in some group I introns (P, Q, R and S) where the P element pairs with the Q sequence and the R sequence pairs with the S element (Burke et al., 1987; Cech, 1988). During this study we found two possible insertion sites for IC2 group I introns among the examined strains of *O. minus*. So far only a few *rms* introns have been characterized within the fungi; the mS569 intron has only been described from *Sclerotinia sclerotiorum* and an undescribed species of *Cordyceps*; whereas there is only a single report for a mS1224 IC2 type intron in *Cordyceps sobolifera* (Group I intron sequence and structure database, Zhou et al., 2008). More examples of these types of introns have to be described in order to evaluate their origins.

4.4.2. Group II intron:

The position of the matR members (plant mtDNA ND1-i4) and the euglenoid RT ORFs within the group II RT ORF family was not resolved in our analysis; previous reports suggest that matR sequences are derivatives of mitochondrial group II RT-like sequences (Zimmerly et al., 2001; Hausner et al., 2006). The chloroplast euglenoid lineage of RT ORFs includes a set of highly divergent sequences typically associated with group III (degenerated group II introns) introns present within the *psbC* gene, and because of their high divergence they usually generate unstable tree topologies (i.e. poor node support; see Zimmerly et al., 2001). The data set does however confirm the recent findings of Toro et al. (2002) and Simon et al. (2008 & 2009) with regards to the existence of the bacterial subclasses E and F respectively. As expected for group II intron

ORFs, encoded within a potentially mobile element, there are numerous examples of horizontal transfer within and between the different groups of organisms (Zimmerly et al., 2001).

The O.mi-mS379 RT ORFs formed a sister group with the P.an.cox1-i1 RT suggesting the transfer of a group II intron from a protein coding gene into an rRNA gene. Typically mobile introns invaded cognate intronless alleles; however group II intron RNAs have been shown to retrotranspose by reverse splicing into RNA molecules (Bonen and Vogel, 2001), a mechanism that requires less specificity at the target site and thus allows for retrotransposition of introns to new sites within the genome (Lambowitz and Zimmerly, 2010). The *Marchantia polymorpha* (M.po.) *rms-i1* RT ORF failed to group closely with the O. mi-mS379 ORFs; however the M.po-*rms-i1* is inserted between positions S474/S475 (based on the *E. coli* reference sequence). Thus this group II intron represents a different lineage than the S379 introns.

4.4.3. Group II introns with RT-ORF embedded within domain II:

Group II introns have conserved secondary structures at the RNA level, that can be visualized as six stem-loop domains (DI to DVI) emerging from a central wheel (Michel and Ferat, 1995). When RT-like ORFs are present they typically are embedded within DIV. However in some bacterial group II introns, RT type ORFs have been observed in DII (Simon et al., 2008) and some LAGLIDADG type ORFs are inserted in DIII or DIV (Toor and Zimmerly, 2002). Some group II intron encoded proteins extend upstream and are fused to the upstream exon; this results in the generation of a fusion protein upon

translation which probably is resolved by proteolysis (Michel and Ferat, 1995). Here we report the first example of a mitochondrial group II intron that has the entire ORF embedded within domain II.

Initially, attempts were made to fold mS379 in a mode that would position the ORF into DIV, but that approach prevented recovering structures that contained the characteristic secondary and tertiary interactions expected for group II introns. By moving the ORF into DII a secondary structure could be generated that allowed for the recognition of the majority of secondary (DI to DVI) and tertiary (ϵ , λ , α , β , θ , κ , ζ , and γ) interactions expected for group II introns. It is quite possible that DII can carry additional insertions like the RT-ORF because once DII is locked into position by the tertiary interactions (θ - θ ; see Figure 4.6.) and a series of contacts with the S-turn in DIII, the loop of DII (that contains the ORF) projects away from the ribozyme core (Pyle, 2010).

One can only speculate on how the ORF shifted into the DII position; maybe the ancestral version of this intron was encoded within a protein coding gene and the RT-ORF extended from DIV upstream and was fused to the 5' flanking exon. A configuration seen in the yeast *cox1* group II intron ORFs (Lambowitz and Zimmerly, 2004) suggested that, overtime, sequences downstream of the ORF position changed and could substitute for DIII thus allowing the ORF to “slide” into the DII position. Alternative sequences could fold into a DIV configuration, and DV, the most conservative component of the group II ribozyme, remained the same. As group II introns appear to coevolve with their encoded RT ORFs (Toor et al., 2001) the above “ORF

sliding” model is a possibility as the group II RT phylogeny shows that the O.mi-mS379 ORFs are related to the *Podospora anserina coxIi1* group II intron ORF, an RT ORF that is fused to the upstream exon as seen in the yeast *coxI* introns (Mohr et al., 1993; Lambowitz and Belfort, 1993).

An alternative explanation might be a scenario whereby a group II intron inserted into domain II of an ORF less group II intron thus generating a “twintron” like composite element, but over time the internal intron lost most of its ribozyme coding components leaving only the ORF sequence. Twintrons composed of group III introns, essentially degenerated group II introns (reviewed in Robart and Zimmerly, 2005), and group II with group III introns have been described (Drager and Hallick, 1993) and examples of twintrons have also been reported from cryptomonad algae such as *Rhodomonas salina* (= *Pyrenomonas salina*) where the internal intron lost its splicing capacity, essentially merging with the outer intron forming “one” splicing unit (Khan and Archibald, 2008). This illustrates the potential of generating new intron variants by introns invading other introns and this might also be an explanation for the generation of group II introns with repositioned RT-ORFs.

4.4.4. LAGLIDADG type ORFs in group I and group II introns:

Group II introns that have LAGLIDADG type ORFs such as the mS952 intron have been described from several fungal taxa (Toor and Zimmerly, 2002; Monteiro-Vitorello et al., 2009; Mullineux et al., 2010) suggesting that these introns are wide spread. HEGs are quite invasive and can invade sites that are neutral, thus avoiding toxicity to the host

genome. Therefore, self-splicing introns are ideal targets for invasion by HEGs. Most likely the mS952 intron arose by the HEG originated from a group I intron source invading an ORFless group II intron. Recently Mullineux et al. (2010) demonstrated that in a *Leptographium* species the mS952 group II intron encoded HEG expresses a functional HE that cleaves the *rms* gene two nucleotides upstream of the mS952 position in an intronless allele, thus potentially facilitating the mobility of its host intron by a mechanism that is similar to that for group I introns.

During this study we also encountered group I encoded LAGLIDADG type ORFs that had degenerated (mS1224) due the accumulation of mutations that introduced frame shifts and premature stop codons. This is expected as many HEGs are viewed as neutral elements that are not subject to selection; thus they can accumulate non-adaptive mutations that eventually will lead to their complete loss from the genome (Goddard and Burt, 1999). Thus in order for HEGs to persist they have to continuously invade new sites either via vertical or horizontal transfers or gain new functions that might make them an essential component of the genome (Gogarten and Hilario, 2006).

4.4.5. Evolutionary dynamics of LHEase and RT ORFs:

Based on recent studies (Haugen and Bhattacharya, 2004) it is thought that single motif LHEases that inserted into a preexisting group I intron in the *rnl* gene between positions L1917 and L1951 evolved into double motif LHEases and then in combination with their group I intron host spread into sites first within the *rnl* gene and subsequently invaded new sites in the *rms* gene as well as protein coding genes (see Figure 4.12.). The

mS569 ORF belongs to a clade of intron ORFs that are encoded in introns located in rDNA and protein coding genes a distribution predicted by Haugen and Bhattacharya (2004) model for the dispersal of rDNA introns into other rDNA sites and protein coding loci.

Figure 4.12. Evolutionary model for the spread of LAGLIDADG ORFs. A schematic diagram that summarizes findings by Haugen and Bhattacharya (2004) suggesting that *rnl* single motif LAGLIDADG ORFs represent the oldest intron ORFs and after the evolution of double motif LAGLIDADG ORF via a gene duplication and fusion event (red thin arrow); the introns spread into other rDNA sites and into protein coding genes (black thin arrows). Our phylogenetic data (Figure 4.9.) would suggest that the *O. minus* group I introns represent a reinvasion of rDNA by group I introns originating within protein coding genes. The mS952 group II intron ORF appears to be an example of a “host switch” where a group I intron encoded double motif LAGLIDADG ORF moved from a group I intron into a group II introns in the *rns* and *rnl* genes (thick blue arrows).

Figure 4.12.

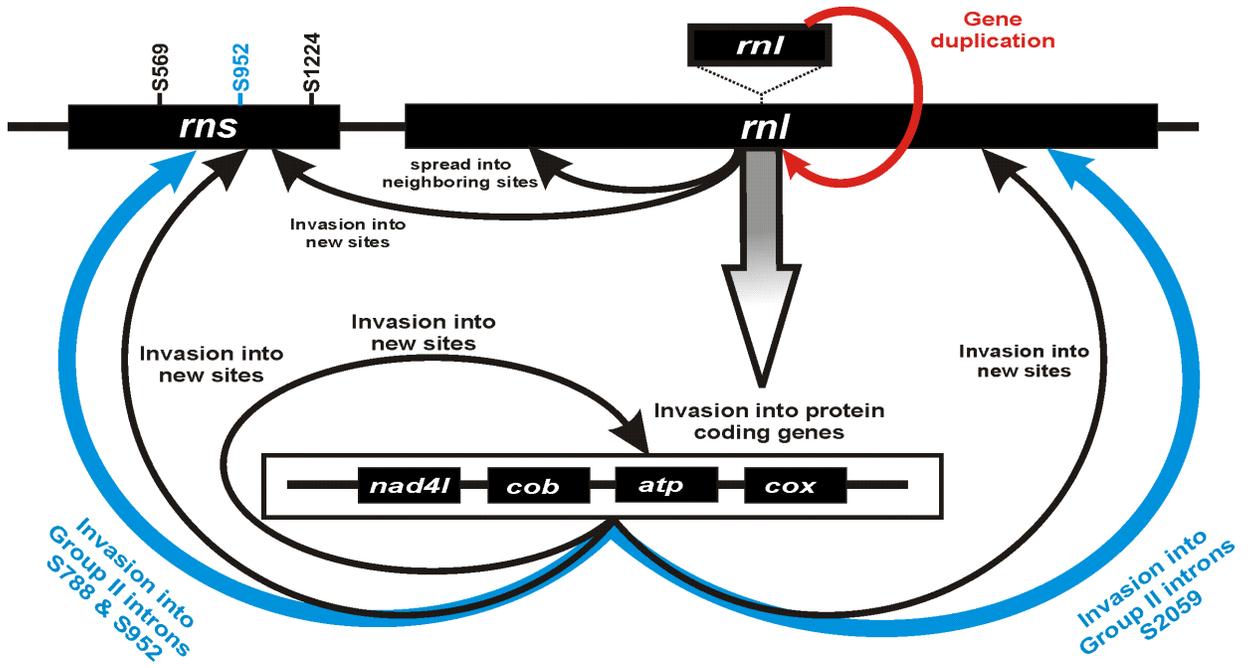


Figure 4.13. Evolutionary model for the spread of RT ORFs. The spread of Group II RT ORFs and changes within the structure of the RT ORFs. Models include recent findings by Zimmerly et al. (2001) and Simon et al. 2009. Figure 4.13. adapted from Zimmerly et al. (2001). The RT component of the group II intron ORF can be divided into 8 subdomains (0-7) which is followed by the X and Zn (also referred to as En) domains. The reverse transcriptase activity is characterized by the YADD amino acid sequence motif contained within subdomain 5. The X (also referred to as M) domain provides maturase activity and the En (or Zn domain) provides endonuclease activity; there is a D domain (not shown) located between the X and Zn domains in some bacterial group II introns and it is associated with DNA binding (Lambowitz and Zimmerly, 2004 & 2010). The aspect of this model that applies to this work is the dynamics of the fungal mtDNA group II intron ORFs, as shown in the phylogeny in Figure 4.10. These introns horizontally transfer (H.T. = blue arrows) among fungi, between brown algae and fungi and potentially from fungi to bacteria. In euglenoid chloroplasts and mitochondria of higher plants the intron-ORF unit appear to have lost mobility and transfers vertically (V.T. = orange arrows). The *O. minus* mS379 group II intron ORF, however, appears to be degenerating due to the presence of frame shift mutations suggesting it lost its mobility.

Figure 4.13.

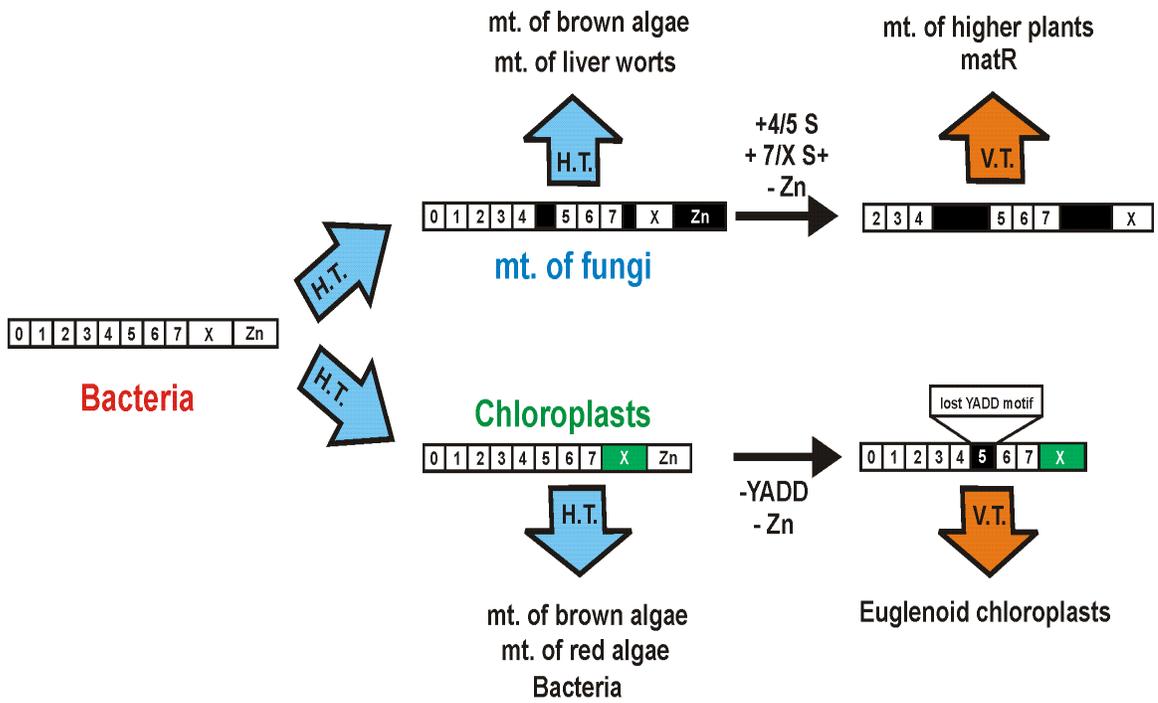
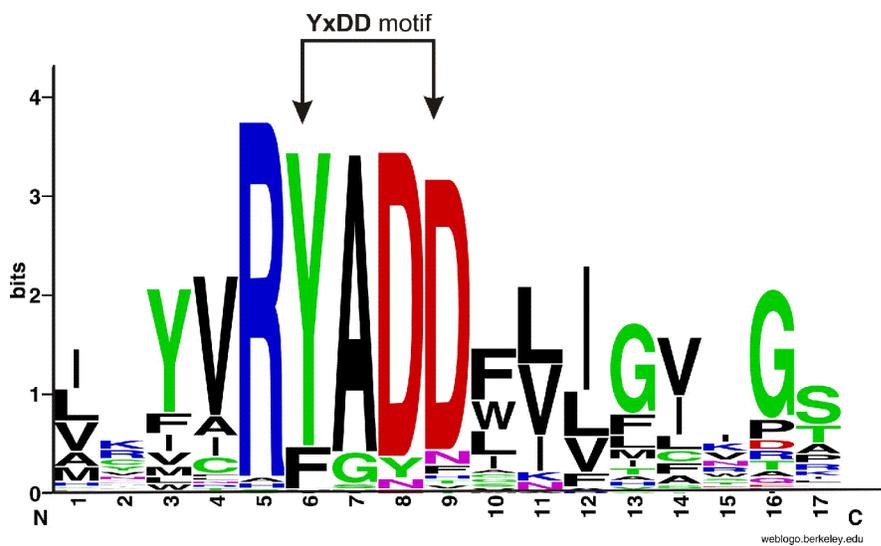


Figure 4.14. Amino acid sequence logo of the reverse transcriptase subdomain 5 (RT-5). The alignment analyzed consisted of 64 RT ORFs originating from mitochondrial, chloroplast and bacterial sources. The logo identifies the YxDD conserved motif which was replaced by the FxDD motif in some mitochondrial RT ORFs and lost in the euglenoid RT ORFs. The logo was generated by the online program WebLogo version 2.8.2. (Crooks et al., 2004).

Figure 4.14.



Thus, the double motif LHEases in combination with a group I intron invaded protein coding genes and also transferred back to rRNA genes such as we observed for the mS569 or mS1224 introns and their ORFs. Based on those previous studies and our observations we also suggest that one lineage of LHEases moved independently from its original ribozyme partner (most likely a group I intron) and transferred into DIII of an ORF-less preexisting group II introns located at positions S788 and S952 (Figure 4.12.).

Based on more exhaustive studies by Zimmerly et al. (2001) and Simon et al. (2009) it appears that group II RT ORFs probably originated in bacteria and extensively transferred horizontally (see Figure 4.13.). The group II introns and their RT ORFs were probably introduced to eukaryotes via the endosymbionts that gave rise to mitochondria and chloroplast. The chloroplast RT ORFs appear to spread horizontally but in the euglenoid chloroplast the RT-ORF YADD amino acid motif (see Figure 4.14.), and the Zn domains were lost and thus the intron-ORF unit appear to have lost mobility and transfers vertically (Zimmerly et al., 2001; Simon et al., 2009). It has been noted in previous reports that within the mitochondrial lineage the ORFs also underwent changes (Zimmerly et al. 2001; Figure 4.13.) and evidence for both vertical and horizontal transmission has been presented in this and other studies (Zimmerly et al., 2001; Lambowitz and Zimmerly, 2004) showing that these elements, like other mobile elements, persist by continuously invading new sites. For example the O.mi-mS379 intron was probably derived from a group II intron that most likely retrotransposed from the *cox1* gene into the *rns* gene. However, the current ORF configuration in the O.mi-

mS379 intron suggests degeneration and most likely this element has lost its mobility and is therefore vertically transferred.

4.5. CONCLUSIONS:

Overall this study demonstrated that the *rns* gene in *O. minus* has been invaded by group I and group II introns, thus generating DNA polymorphisms. The mtDNA variations caused by putative mobile introns might not be stable enough to be useful in species identification, but these polymorphisms could be useful in distinguishing *O. minus* strains from one other in combination with other nuclear or mitochondrial markers. This study indicates that the *rns* gene within a species (or among closely related species) can be highly variable and that group I and group II introns and their encoded ORFs contribute towards the variability and complexity of the mitochondrial genomes among the ophiostomatoid fungi. The study also shows *O. minus* strains might be good candidates for bioprospecting for potentially active HEases and ribozymes that have applications in biotechnology (Hausner, 2003; Gimble, 2005; Lambowitz et al., 2005; Marcaida et al., 2010; Lambowitz and Zimmerly, 2010).

CHAPTER: 5

The mS379 INTRON: A NOVEL GROUP IIA1 INTRON INTERRUPTS THE MITOCHONDRIAL *rns* GENE OF SOME SPECIES OF *Ophiostoma*.

5.1. ABSTRACT:

During a survey of mitochondrial *rns* genes for ophiostomatoid fungi, a novel group II intron was found at position S379. Secondary structure modeling of the intron sequences indicates that it is a group IIA1 with an eroded RT-like ORF. The mS379 intron is novel as it represents the first mitochondrial group II intron that has an RT-ORF encoded outside Domain IV and it is the first intron reported at position S379. Based on the limited distribution of the mS379 intron among species of *Ophiostoma* and other fungi and signs of ORF degeneration or loss, it is suggested that this intron might represent a “snap shot” of a mobile intron that is in the process of elimination.

5.2. INTRODUCTION:

Fungal mitochondrial genomes are highly variable in size and this is in part due to the presence of self-splicing group I and group II introns (Michel and Ferat, 1995; Hausner, 2012). Group II introns represent one category of autocatalytic introns that are widespread in the organellar genomes of plants, fungi and algae as well as bacterial genomes (Lambowitz and Zimmerly, 2004 & 2011). Group II introns are essentially large ribozymes that can catalyze their removal from the primary transcripts to allow for efficient gene expression (Lehmann and Schmidt, 2003), although many group II introns require intron-encoded (maturases) and/or host genome-encoded protein factors to facilitate the splicing process (Ostheimer et al., 2003; Hausner, 2012). Group II introns potentially influence important aspects of organellar gene expression (Bonen and Vogel, 2001; Hausner et al., 2006; Petersen et al., 2011; Hausner, 2012); also group II introns have been associated with mitochondrial genome instabilities in fungi such as senescence in *Podospora anserina* (Dujon, 1989; Griffiths, 1992) and mitochondrial induced hypovirulence in *Cryphonectria parasitica* (Baidyaroy et al., 2011).

During a recent study (Chapter 4) we noted that in strains of *Ophiostoma minus* (Hedgc.) Syd. & P. Syd. the mtDNA *rns* gene appears to be a reservoir for group I and group II introns (Hafez and Hausner, 2011a). In particular we noted a novel group II intron, referred to as mS379 based on its *rns* insertion site with respect to the *E. coli* SSU rRNA gene. Here we examine additional examples of the mS379 intron from *Ophiostoma torulosum* (Butin & G. Zimm.) G. Hausner, J. Reid & Klassen and *Ophiostoma hyalothecium* (R.W. Davidson) G. Hausner, J. Reid & Klassen. Many species of

Ophiostoma are blue-stain fungi that can discolor timber and thus reduce its economic value. So far very little information is available on their mitochondrial genomes and their intron complements. The mS379 intron represents a new intron/ORF arrangement for organellar group II introns and therefore warrants more detailed characterization.

Group II introns show limited conservation at the DNA sequence level but they are defined by highly conserved secondary structures; at the RNA level they can be visualized as six double-helical domains (Domains I to Domain VI, i.e. DI to DVI) radiating from a central wheel (Michel and Ferat, 1995). Based on features of their secondary structures, group II introns can be assigned to three subgroups: IIA, IIB and the bacterial classes IIC/IIIE. Based on variants within the IIA and IIB structures several subdivisions have been designated such as IIA1, IIA2, IIB1 and IIB2 (Michel et al., 1989; Michel and Ferat, 1995; Michel et al., 2007 & 2009; Toor et al., 2001; Lambowitz and Zimmerly, 2011).

Domain I (DI) is the largest group II intron domain and it is essential for self-splicing activity as it is involved in exon recognition and in other tertiary interactions. Domain I is transcribed and folded first, thus forming the basic scaffold for the assembly of catalytic and ORF-containing domains that follow the DI sequence (Qin and Pyle, 1998; Pyle et al., 2007; Steiner et al., 2008). Domain II (DII) forms two essential tertiary contacts with DI (θ - θ') and DVI (η - η'); DII contains a conserved internal loop structure that is important in stimulating the catalytic activity of group II introns (Fedorova and Pyle, 2008). Less is known about the function of DIII (Fedorova and Zingler, 2007;

Federova et al., 2010) but this domain can house ORFs such as LHEase ORFs (Toor and Zimmerly, 2002; Mullineux et al., 2010).

Domain IV usually projects away from the intron's catalytic center and contains primary binding sites for maturases and/or other intron splicing factors that promote splicing reactions (Wank et al., 1999). Domain IV can encode ORFs that contribute to intron mobility and splicing (Lambowitz and Zimmerly, 2004). Typically group II IEPs are multifunctional proteins containing the following domains: (1) reverse transcriptase (RT), (2) maturase (X), (3) DNA binding (D) and the (4) endonuclease (En) domain. The IEP binds to the intron RNA to stabilize the catalytically active structure. Domain V is the most conserved domain; and DVI contains the bulged adenosine nucleotide with the 2' OH group that initiates the splicing reaction and this adenine is the branch point that allows for the 5'-2' linkage that stabilizes the intron lariat upon its release (Michel and Ferat, 1995; Lehmann and Schmidt, 2003; Pyle and Lambowitz, 2006; Michel et al., 2009). Although RT-like ORFs, if present, are typically encoded within a loop in domain IV (Lambowitz and Zimmerly, 2011) there are a few instances where RT-like ORFs have been observed in domain II or domain III of some bacterial group IIE1 introns (Simon et al., 2008).

In this study we examine in detail the S379 group II intron that encodes an RT-like ORF within DII. These RT-like ORFs demonstrates a cycle of degeneration typically observed within group I intron encoded ORFs (Goddard and Burt, 1999) except that we

could not find examples for ORF rejuvenation via reinvasion of the intron into intronless alleles.

5.3. METHODS OVERVIEW:

Two species of *Ophiostoma* were examined in this study and they were *Ophiostoma hyalothecium* [ATCC 28825 (from the American Type Culture Collection; Manassas, VA, USA); WIN(M)848 (from the University of Manitoba culture collection; Winnipeg, MB, Canada); geographic origin: Wyoming, USA] and *Ophiostoma torulosum* [CBS770.71 (from the Central Bureau voos Schimmelcultures; Utrecht, The Netherlands); WIN(M)860; geographic origin: Hanover-Münden, Germany]. Methods for DNA extraction and PCR amplification of the *rns* gene (with primers mtsr-1 and mtsr-2) were previously described in Hafez and Hausner (2011a). The mS379 intron was amplified from different strains with the primer pair mtsr-1 and S379-R that flanking the intron (see Appendix 9.3. for complete primers list).

The PCR amplicons were purified with the Wizard[®] SV Gel and PCR Clean-Up system and cloned into *E. coli* (DH5 α) using the TOPO TA Cloning[®] kit (Invitrogen) to improve sequencing efficiency. The FindModel program was used to evaluate the nucleotide sequence alignments, the GTR model with gamma distribution was identified as the best model. The MrBayes program was used for Bayesian analysis of the *rns* data. The 50% majority rule tree generated by MrBayes program based on the aligned *rns* data set was used as a base for reconstruction of the ancestral states. Estimation of the

ancestral character state for the presence or absence of the mS379 intron among *Ophiostoma* species was done with the MESQUITE program version 2.73. Secondary structure models of the S379 intron and DII were developed using *mfold* program (Zuker 2003). Finally, the *in vivo* splicing of mS379 intron was determined by RT-PCR as described in Chapter 2.

5.4. RESULTS:

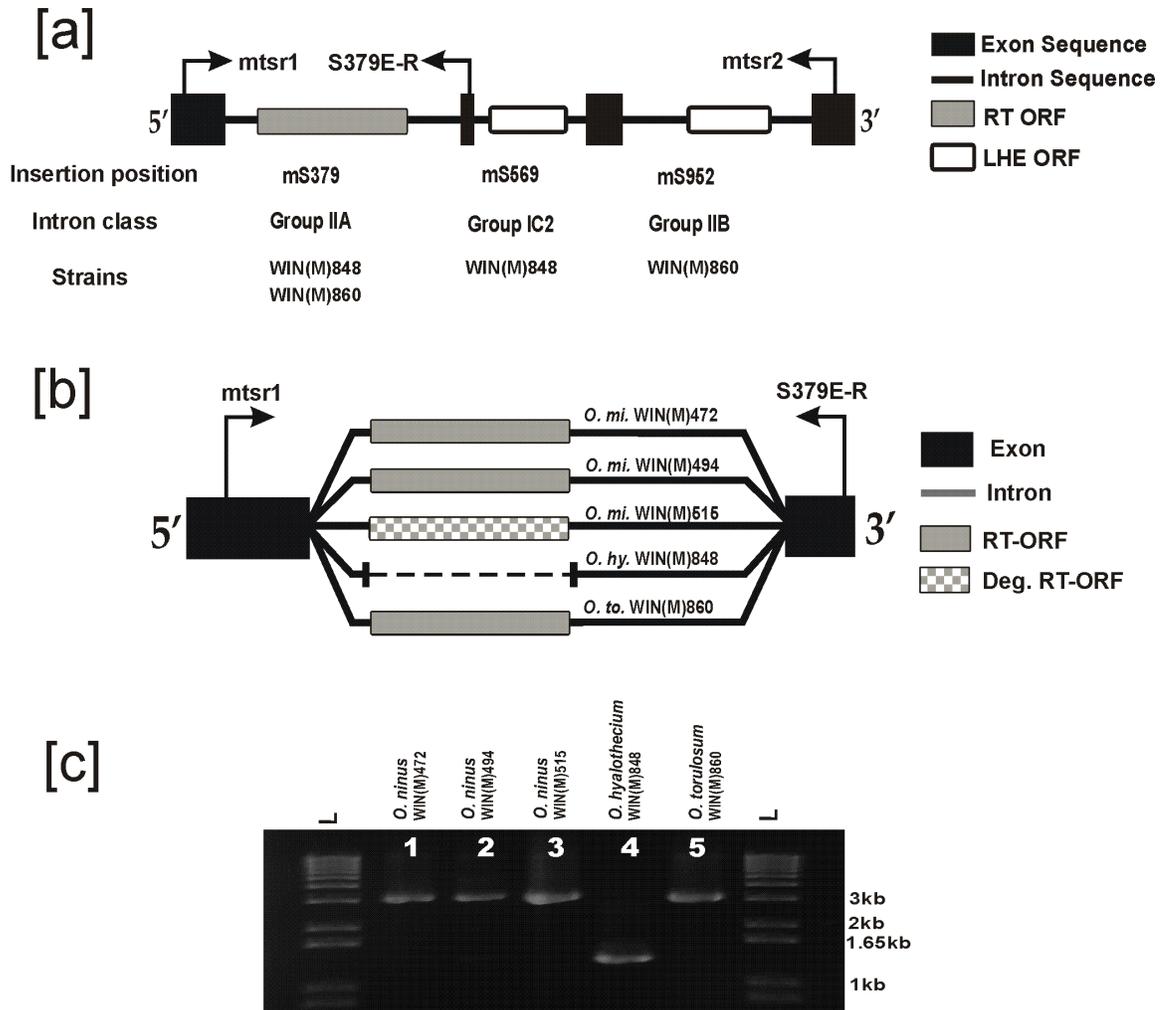
5.4.1. The *rns* gene and the mS379 intron in *O. hyalotheicum* and *O. torulosum*:

For naming introns we followed the nomenclature proposed by Johansen and Haugen (2001), and intron insertion sites are based on corresponding nucleotide positions within the *E. coli* SSU rRNA sequence (accession number AB035922). DNA sequence analysis showed that the sizes of mtsr-1/mtsr-2 PCR products for *O. hyalotheicum* and *O. torulosum* were 3416 bp and 5597 bp respectively. The mitochondrial *rns* genes of the two species examined (Figure 5.1. [a]) were interrupted with introns at the following positions: S379 and S569 for *O. hyalotheicum* (GenBank accession: JN871711) and S379 and S952 for *O. torulosum* (GenBank accession: HQ343317). The mS569 intron is a group I intron that belongs to the IC2 subgroup and it encodes a potential LHEase ORF. In contrast the mS379 and mS952 introns are group II introns with mS379 encoding a potential reverse transcriptase-like (RT) ORF and mS952 encoding a double motif LAGLIDADG type HE ORF. The mS569 and mS952 introns have been characterized in detail previously (Monteiro-Vitorello et al., 2009; Mullineux et al., 2010 & 2011; Hafez and Hausner, 2011a); however the mS379 intron was noted previously in three strains of *Ophiostoma minus* (Figure 5.1. [b]) [WIM(M)472 = UAMH9775, University of Alberta

Microfungus Collection & Herbarium (Edmonton, AB, Canada); WIM(M)494 = UAMH5035; WIM(M)515 = CBS 404.77; Hafez and Hausner, 2011a).

Figure 5.1. [a] A schematic overview of the *rns* genes of *O. hyalothecium* and *O. torulosum* showing the relative position of primer binding sites and the various intron types (group I and II) and intron encoded ORFs (RTs and LHEases). The introns are inserted at positions S379, S569 and S952 with reference to the *E. coli* SSU rRNA sequence. [b] A schematic overview of the mS379 intron and flanking *rns* exons showing the relative positions of the primers binding sites and the RT-ORF status (present = gray box, degenerated = gray and white box or absent = dashed line) of the different strains that have the mS379 intron. [c] PCR amplicons of the mS379 intron from different strains using the mtsr-1 and S379E-R primers. The band length varied from 1.3 kb (RT-ORF absent; lane 4) to 3.2 kb (RT-ORF present; lanes 1, 2, 3 & 5). The amplicons were resolved in a 1% agarose gel and the gel was stained with ethidium bromide. The L lanes contain the 1 kb plus ladder.

Figure 5.1.



The mS379 intron is a group II intron (class A1) and is the only *rns* group II intron so far identified among *Ophiostoma* species that encodes an RT-like ORF; in addition the ORF position within domain II of this intron RNA is unique. The intron was previously found in three *O. minus* strains and is now also reported from *O. hyalothecium* WIN(M)848 and *O. torulosum* WIN(M)860 (Figure 5.1. [a] & [b]). However the mS379 intron in *O. hyalothecium* is 978 bp long compared to 2858 bps in *O. torulosu*; the size variation is due to the complete lack of an ORF within the *O. hyalothecium* mS379 intron (Figure 5.1. [b]). The absence or presence of introns and intron encoded ORFs contribute towards mtDNA polymorphism among the ophiostomatoid fungi. The mS379 intron is a group II intron based on the presence of the conserved domain V (DV) sequence. The A-type designation is based on secondary structural features (Michel and Ferat, 1995; Toor et al., 2001) identified within mS379 intron RNA fold (Figure 5.2.).

5.4.2. RT-ORF:

Based on the program ORF finder segments of an RT-like ORF were detected within the *O. torulosum* mS379 intron; however the ORF sequence appears to be degenerating. Adjustments were needed to correct certain mutations in order to generate a 614 amino acid ORF that contains all the components expected for a mtDNA group II intron-encoded protein with RT and maturase activity (Lambowitz and Zimmerly, 2004). The ORF was reconstructed as follows, first a frame shift mutation was corrected by removing a T insertion at nucleotide position 2257 (accession number HQ343317), plus two substitution mutations were corrected [G → C] and [A → T] at positions 2274 and 2304 respectively.

Figure 5.2. Secondary structure of the mS379 group II (class A1) intron RNA for *O. hyalothecium* WIN(M)848. Intron sequences are in upper-case letters and exon sequences are in lower-case letters. The positions of the exon binding sites EBS1, EBS2 and δ are noted. The positions of the intron binding sites IBS1, IBS2 and δ^- in the 5' and 3' exons are boxed. Tertiary interactions are indicated by Greek letters (ϵ , λ , α , β , θ , η , κ , ζ , and γ). The six major structural domains are indicated by Roman numbers (I, II, III, IV, V and VI). The solid black arrowheads indicate the intron-exon junctions (5' and 3' splicing sites). The asterisk shows the bulged adenosine nucleotide (the branch point) in domain VI. Group IIA-type features are boxed with green-dashed lines. The circled nucleotides indicates the differences between *O. hyalothecium* WIN(M)848 and *O. minus* WIN(M)494 mS379 intron sequences, while differences between their respective DIa are shown in a boxed insert. Detailed secondary structures of domain II in both ORF-less (WIN(M)848 and ORF-containing WIN(M)494 introns are given in Figure 5.3.

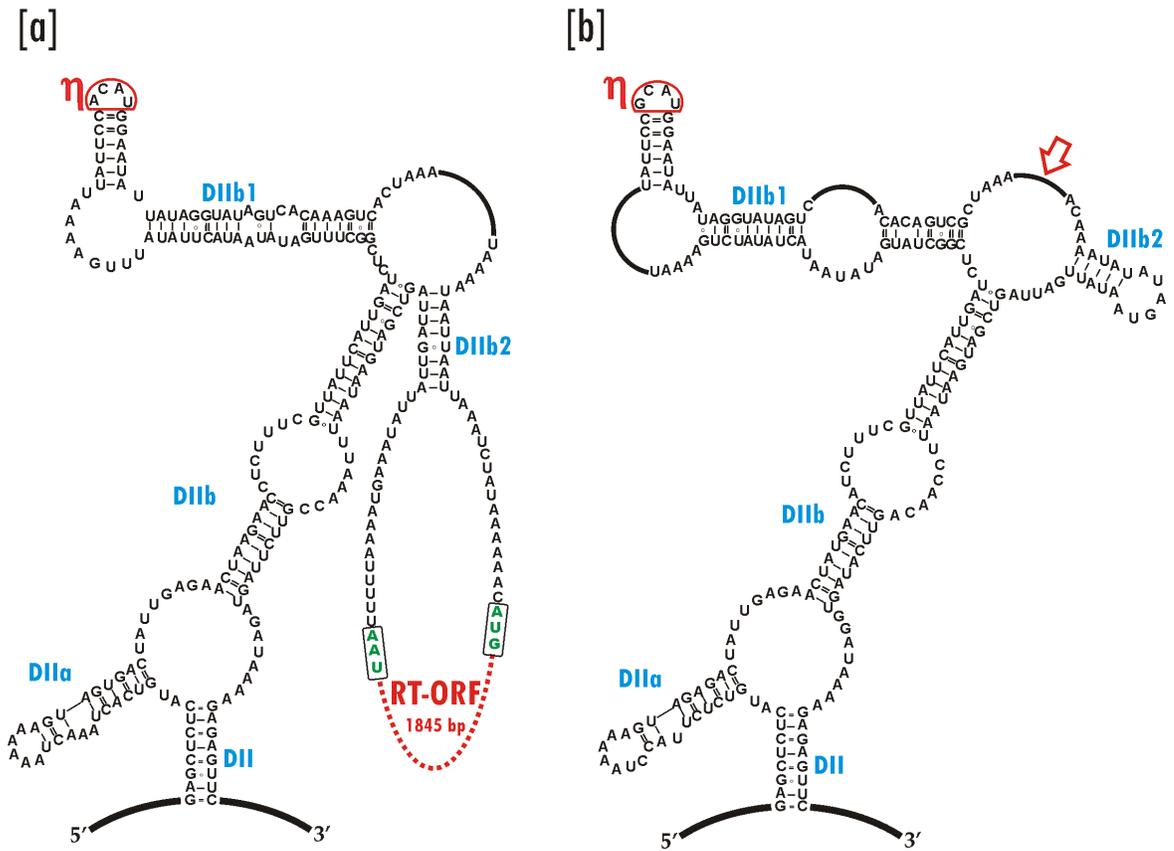
For the mS379 intron of *O. hyalothecium* ORF finder failed to detect an ORF or any ORF fragments. Sequence alignments of this sequence against those of *O. torulosum* and previously described mS379 sequences from *O. minus* also failed to detect any ORF remnants such as possible start or stop codons.

5.4.3. Domain II:

Domain II was examined in more detail (Figure 5.3.) as this domain encodes the RT-like ORFs in previously described versions of the mS379 intron (Hafez and Hausner, 2011a) and *O. torulosum*. Two tertiary interactions were identified within the mS379 intron's DII ($\theta - \theta'$ and $\eta - \eta'$) and these are involved in group II intron self-splicing event. The $\theta - \theta'$ is a tertiary interaction between the basal stem of DII and the terminal loop of DIIc1(ii)b (Figure 5.2.). The $\eta - \eta'$ is another tertiary interaction between DII and DVI where the tetraloop is located in DII (DIIb1) and the receptor is located in DVI (Figure 5.2. and 5.3.). The RT-ORFs found in the *O. minus* (Figure 5.3. [a]) and *O. torulosum* mS379 introns are inserted in the DIIb2 loop, while in the case of the ORF-less *O. hyalothecium* mS379 intron the terminal loop of DIIb2 is a relatively small loop (Figure 5.3. [b]). ORF containing versions of the mS379 intron such as that of *O. minus* and *O. torulosum* contain a bit of extra upstream and downstream sequences flanking the ORF when it was compared with the ORF-less version in *O. hyalothecium* (Figure 5.3.).

Figure 5.3. Detailed predicted secondary structures for domain II of the *O. minus* (WIN(M)494) [a] and the *O. hyalothecium* (WIN(M)848) [b] mS379 introns. The RT-ORF is inserted in the loop of DIIb2 in the *O. minus* (WIN(M)494) mS379 intron, while the DIIb2 loop of the *O. hyalothecium* version of this intron does not contain any ORF sequences and the arrow indicates the ORF insertion site with respect to the *O. minus* (WIN(M)494) mS379 intron. In the latter the start and stop codons of the RT-ORF are indicated in boxes.

Figure 5.3.



5.4.4. In vivo splicing of the mS379 introns:

In order to confirm the predicted exon/intron junctions derived by comparative sequence analysis, RT-PCR analysis was applied to RNA extracted from *O. hyalotheicum* WIN(M)848 (Figure 5.4.); *O. minus* WIN(M)494 RNA was included in this analysis as a control and as a representative of an ORF containing version of this intron. Amplifying the *rns* gene from *O. minus* WIN(M)494 and *O. hyalotheicum* WIN(M)848 with the primer pair mtsr-1/mtsr-2 using genomic DNA templates generated

4.0 and 3.4 kb PCR fragments respectively. Using the same primers with cDNA as starting material generated a 1.2 kb bands (Figure 5.4.) for both tested species. This confirmed that the predicted introns were all spliced out and sequence analysis of the RT-PCR derived amplicons confirmed the predicted exon/intron junction sequences (Figure 5.1.). The RT-PCR results also showed that both ORF-containing (*O. minus*) and ORF-less (*O. hyalotheicum*) versions of these group II introns were spliced out.

5.4.5. Reconstruction of ancestral character states for the mS379 intron:

The Maximum Likelihood model suggest that there is a high probability that the mS379 intron was present in a common ancestor (Figure 5.5., node 1) for the following three clades: the *ulmi/novo-ulmi/piliferum* clade (Figure 5.5., node 7), the *minus/torulorum* clade (Figure 5.5., node 5), and the *hyalotheicum/ossiformis* clade (Figure 5.5., node 3). This would support an argument for one initial invasion event followed by vertical inheritance of this intron among the tested members of *Ophiostoma*. The absence of this intron would therefore be best explained by the loss of the intron instead of several independent invasion events.

Figure 5.4. RT-PCR analysis for demonstrating *in vivo* splicing of mS379 intron and determining the intron/exon junctions. The *rns* transcripts for the following strains were analyzed by RT-PCR: *O. minus* WIN(M)494 and *O. hyalothecium* WIN(M)848 (lanes 3 and 6 respectively). Standard PCR reactions using genomic DNA as templates are shown in lanes 2 and 5 for strains WIN(M)494 and WIN(M)848 respectively. The PCR products from the genomic DNA controls generated 4.0 and 3.4 kb bands (lanes 2 and 5 respectively) as expected from previous data (see Figure 5.1.). The amplicon lengths for all cDNAs were 1.2 kb (lanes 3 and 6) indicating that all introns were all splicing out. The negative controls for all RT-PCR (standard PCR using DNA free whole cell RNA as a template) assays yielded no bands (lanes 4 and 7) showing that the RNA was free of any DNA. Lanes 1 and 8 contains the 1 kb plus ladder (Invitrogen).

Figure 5.4.

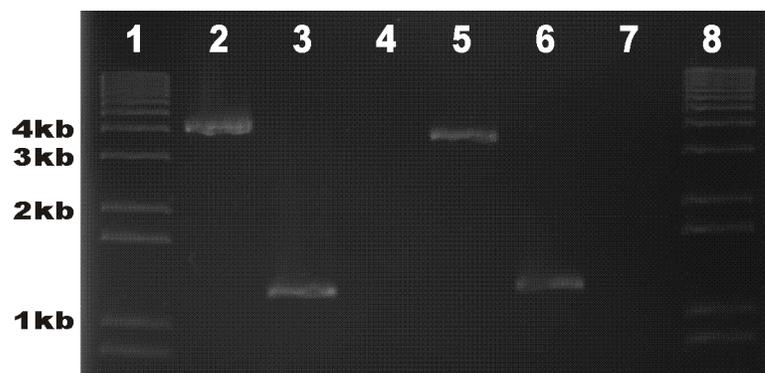
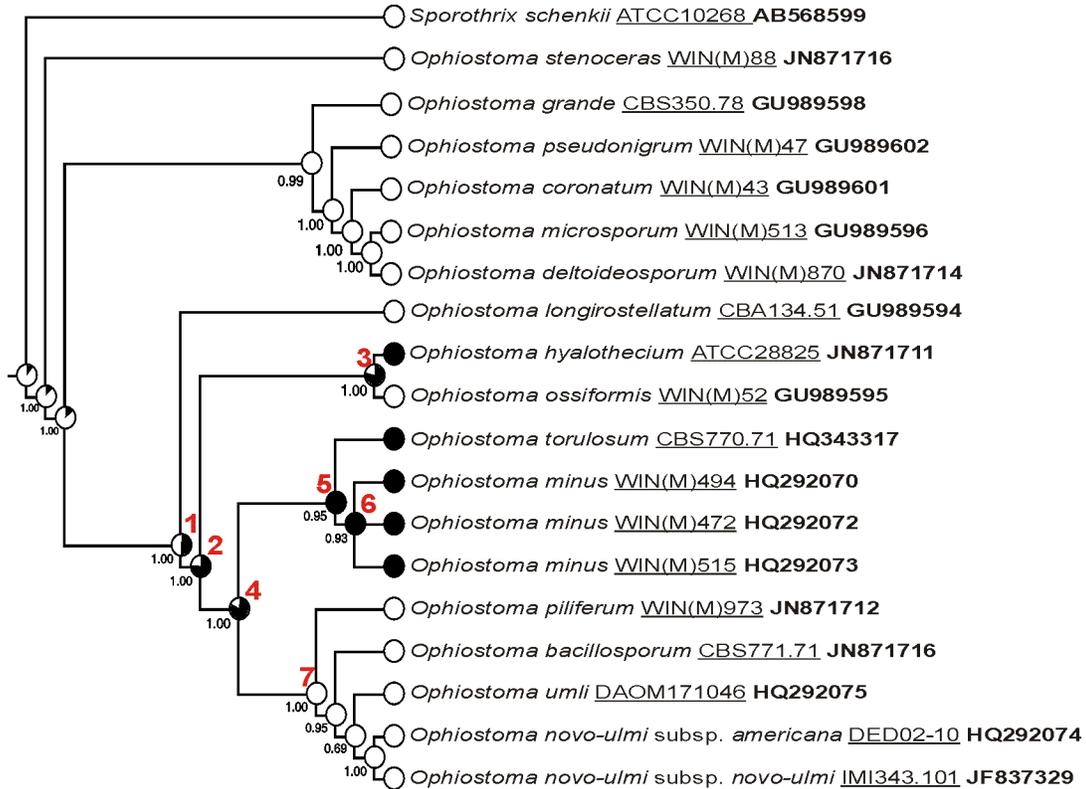


Figure 5.5 . Ancestral state reconstruction for the mS379 intron. The character state was traced along the Bayesian majority-rule consensus tree based on *Ophiostoma rns* nucleotide sequences. The numbers at the nodes indicate the Posterior Probability (PP) values obtained from a 50% majority consensus tree generated by the MrBayes program. The ancestral states for the presence or absence of mS379 intron were reconstructed by Mesquite version 2.74 using Maximum Likelihood criteria. Some of the key nodes are numbered (1 to 7) and the proportional likelihood values calculated by Mesquite are indicated. Character states are: absence of mS379 intron = 0, indicated by white circles; presence mS379 intron = 1, indicated by black circles. The slices in the circular pie charts indicate relative support for different ancestor states (present = black; absent = white). Strain numbers (underlined) and GenBank accession numbers (**bold**) are listed next to species names.

Figure 5.5.



Character: mS379 i
 Marginal prob. recon. with model Mk1 (est.) [rate 4.68679714 [est.]] -log L.: 9.79956912 (Opt.: width 1.0)
 Reporting likelihoods as Proportional Likelihoods;
 Threshold when decisions made: 2.0 Calc. by Maximum likelihood reconstruct (Generic categorical) (id# 1061)
 □ 0
 ■ 1

Proportional likelihood values

Node #	0 = absent	1 = present
1	0.49562823	0.50437177
2	0.24065593	0.75934407
3	0.21453726	0.78546274
4	0.17867199	0.82132801
5	0.00710581	0.99289419
6	0.00000405	0.99999595

5.5. DISCUSSION:

Here we characterize the mS379 intron in *O. torulosum* WIN(M)860 and *O. hyalothecium* WIN(M)848; previously this intron was reported from three *O. minus* strains WIN(M)472, WIN(M)494 and WIN(M)515 (Hafez and Hausner, 2011a). What makes this intron unique is that the RT-ORF is located in DII as usually RT-like ORFs in organellar group II introns are located in DIV. In addition, based on the previous publications (Jackson et al., 2002) and the comparative RNA website (<http://www.rna.cccb.utexas.edu/>), this is the first record for an intron to be inserted at position S379. The *O. hyalothecium* version of this intron is unique because of its complete lack of an ORF. Otherwise the *O. torulosum* intron is similar to those observed in *O. minus* where the ORFs are present but shows evidence of erosion due to the presence of mutations that introduce frameshifts and premature stop codons.

5.5.1. Domain II:

Domain II contributes towards group II intron self-splicing by essential tertiary interactions the $\theta - \theta'$ and $\eta - \eta'$ contacts with DI and DVI respectively (Costa et al., 1997; Pyle, 2010). The $\theta - \theta'$ is a tertiary interaction between the basal stem of DII and the highly conserved terminal loop of DIC1, which stabilizes the ribozyme core of the group II introns (Figure 5.2.). The second tertiary interaction that involves DII is the $\eta - \eta'$ contact, which is a structurally conserved among group IIA and IIB introns. In group IIA introns (such mS379 intron), the $\eta - \eta'$ tertiary interaction is between a tetraloop located in DII (the terminal loop of DIIa in mS379 intron) and a receptor in DVI, which is in contrast to group IIB introns where the location of the tetraloop and the receptor are

reversed (Costa et al., 1997). It has been proposed that the $\eta - \acute{\eta}$ contact is an essential tertiary interaction during the conformational switch that occurs between the two steps of splicing (Chanfreau and Jacquire, 1996). It is possible for DII to serve as an insertion site for additional elements without interfering with the function of the ribozyme core because once DII is locked into position through the $\theta - \acute{\theta}$ and $\eta - \acute{\eta}$ interactions the DII terminal loop can easily project away from the intron ribozyme core (Toor et al., 2010; Pyle, 2010).

As stated previously expanding DII to accommodate ORFs has so far only been observed in bacterial group IIE1 introns (Simon et al., 2008) and here ORF start codons were located in DII or DIII. The mS379 intron represents the first organellar group II intron that encodes a complete RT-ORF within the DIIb2 loop of DII. The RT-PCR results demonstrate that the intron is indeed spliced and that both the RT-ORF containing and the ORF-less versions of the mS379 intron appear to be spliced out *in vivo*. The position of the ORF within domain II is unusual and two scenarios have been previously proposed (Hafez and Hausner, 2011a), first the domain II ORF is due to “ORF sliding” of a domain IV encoded ORF into domain II (Figure 5.6. [a]) or by a twintron-like ancestor whereby an ORF containing group II intron ectopically integrated within the domain II of a possible ORF-less group II intron (Figure 5.6. [b]).

5.5.2. The mS379 intron is in the process of elimination:

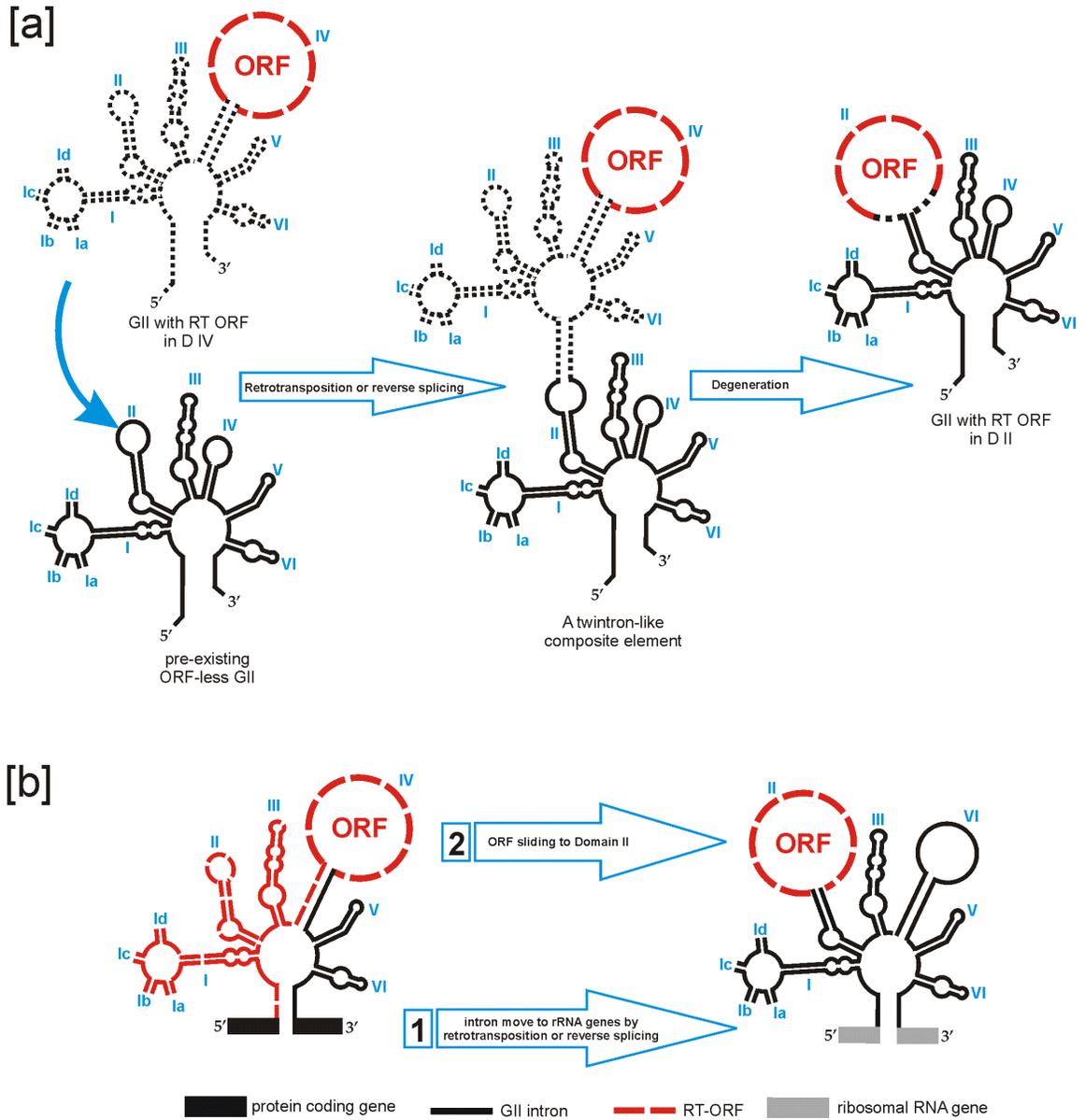
The maximum-likelihood method for tracing the origin of the mS379 intron among *Ophiostoma* species suggests that the intron was inserted once within an ancestor

that gave rise to the various clades (see Figure 5.5., node 1) but the intron was lost in some lineages. This would suggest a pattern of vertical transmission with frequent loss of the intron among the examined *Ophiostoma* species. The origin of the RT-ORF is however difficult to trace as we only found one member that lacked the ORF and other examples contain ORFs that show signs of erosion and are probably non-functional due to the presence of frameshift mutations (Figure 5.6.).

Toor et al. (2001) presented a survey of group II introns including ORF-less versions and suggested that ORF-less introns evolved from ORF containing version as group II intron structures appear to co-evolve with their RT-like encoded proteins. Also many “ORF-less” introns still harbor small but detectable remnants of ORFs such as the start or stop codons (Toor et al., 2001; Simon et al., 2008).

Figure 5.6. Proposed evolutionary models for explaining the presence of RT-ORFs within Domain II of the mS379 intron. **[a]** A group II intron (dotted line) encoding an RT-ORF (dashed line) within Domain IV could have either reverse spliced or retrotransposed (ectopic integration) into domain II of a pre-existing ORF-less group II intron (solid black line) thus generating a twintron-like composite element but over time the internal intron lost most of its ribozyme coding components leaving only the RT-ORF sequence within domain II. **[b]** The ancestral version of the mS379 intron was encoded within a protein coding gene (black box) and the RT-OTF (dashed red line) extended from domain IV upstream and was fused with to the upstream exon. This in frame fusion of intron ORFs with the upstream exons has been observed in several group II introns encoded within the *cox1* gene in a variety of fungi (Paquin and Lang 1996; Lambowitz and Zimmerly 2004); this arrangements allows the intron ORF to be translated along with the upstream exon. Once the intron invaded (either by retrotransposition or reverse splicing) a ribosomal gene the RT-ORF had to acquire its own regulatory sequences that allow for its translation and therefore the ORF shifted into DII as gradually sequences downstream of the ORF position changed and could substitute for DIII thus allowing the ORF to “slide” into the DII position. Alternative sequences could fold into a DIV configuration and DV, the most conservative component of the group II ribozyme, remained the same.

Figure 5.6.



As many of these elements are potentially neutral the lack of natural selection leads to the accumulation of mutations within the ORF and eventually can lead to the complete elimination of the ORF. However, the loss of efficient splicing could lead to a detrimental phenotype for the host genome; therefore features of the secondary structure are conserved and trans-acting factors are probably available that compensate for the lack of intron-encoded maturases (reviewed in Hausner et al., 2012). In this study we describe an ORF-less group II intron in *O. hyolothecium* with no evidence of residual sequences of an ORF (see Figure 5.3.) and versions of the same intron with ORFs in various states of “decay” (Figure 5.1.). One would assume that for mobility the ancestor of this intron would have contained a functional RT-like ORF which provided all the features needed for retrohoming into cognate alleles that lack the intron or for retrotransposition into ectopic (new) sites. NCBI database searches (blastn or blastp) with the mS379 intron sequence or ORF amino acid sequence or the *rns* nucleotide sequence revealed no additional examples for this intron or *rns* genes that contained a group II intron at this position. This suggests that this intron might be rare, even in recent studies on *rns* genes among ophiostomatoid fungi we have only encountered this intron in three different species (Figure 5.1. [b] & [c]) among approximately 50 species examined so far (Mullineux et al., 2011; Hafez and Hausner, 2011a; unpublished data). The *rns* gene may represent a reservoir for various types of mobile introns (Hafez and Hausner, 2011a) with the *rns* gene being both the recipient and the donor of introns. The mS379 probably represents a recent addition to the *rns* “intron landscape” but appears to be in the process of elimination a trend that has also been recently noted for various introns located within the fungal mitochondrial *cox1* gene (Férandon et al., 2010a & 2010b).

CHAPTER: 6

THE mtDNA RNS LANDSCAPE IN ASCOMYCETES FUNGI: A NATURAL RESERVOIR FOR INTRONS, TWINTRONS AND HOMING ENDONUCLEASES.

6.1. ABSTRACT:

Comparative sequence analysis of the mitochondrial *rns* gene among species of *Ophiostoma*, *Grosmannia*, *Ceratocystiopsis* and related taxa provides an overview of the types of introns that have invaded this gene. The *rns* gene appears to be a reservoir for a number of group I and group II introns along with intron associated open reading frames such as HEases and reverse transcriptases. This study uncovered a novel twintron complex where a group IIA1 intron invaded the open reading frame embedded within a group IC2 intron. Overall the distribution of the introns does not appear to follow evolutionary lineages suggesting the possibility of horizontal gains and frequent losses. The work tries to provide an overview of the various types of introns that can invade the *rns* gene and thus be a resource for those who try to annotate fungal mitochondrial genomes.

6.2. INTRODUCTION:

The gene coding for the mitochondrial small subunit ribosomal RNA (*rns*) is a highly conserved essential gene that like its nuclear, Eubacterial and Archaeal counterparts has been exploited as an evolutionary chronometer for rDNA based phylogenetic analysis. In 1988 it was reported that all ascomycete *rns* genes are continuous (i.e. no introns; Wolf and Del Giudice, 1988); however since that time a variety of introns have been noted to be inserted within fungal mtDNA *rns* genes (Haugen and Bhattacharya, 2004; Haugen et al., 2004; Lang et al., 2007; Hafez and Hausner, 2011a). The initial focus of this study was to examine the *rns* intron landscape for species of *Ophiostoma*, *Grosmannia* and *Ceratocystiopsis*. These genera contain plant pathogens and blue-stain fungi; the latter can discolor timber and thus reduce its economic value (Wingfield et al., 1993) and so far very little information is available on their mitochondrial genomes and their intron complements. We expanded the study to examine the types of introns inserted within the *rns* gene in other members of the Ascomycetous fungi.

The mitochondrial genomes of fungi contain two types of introns, group I and group II introns. Group I and group II introns are self-splicing elements and therefore they minimize their impact to the genes that host them. Many group I introns contain open reading frames (ORFs) that either promote their mobility and/or assist in their splicing activity such as HEases and/or maturases (Belfort et al., 2002). HEases are enzymes that can initiate intron mobility by introducing double-stranded breaks (DSBs) at specific target sites, which activates the cellular DSB-repair pathway (Belfort et al.,

2002). Maturase proteins assist the intron with folding the intron RNA into a splicing competent ribozyme (Caprara and Waring, 2005). Intron-encoded maturases are derived from HEases and there are instances of bifunctional HEases that have maturase and site specific endonuclease activities (reviewed in Belfort, 2003). There are two families of HEases commonly encountered among fungal mtDNAs; they are named according to conserved amino acids motifs, the LAGLIDADG and GIY-YIG proteins (Stoddard, 2006 & 2011). Homing endonuclease genes (HEGs) have also been shown to be mobile elements that can move independently from their ribozyme counterparts (Mota and Collins, 1988). Mobile introns and HEGs are of interest as they have applications in biotechnology as rare cutting site specific endonucleases (Takeuchi et al., 2011; Stoddard, 2011; Hausner, 2012).

Group II introns typically encode reverse transcriptase-like (RT) ORFs, which in contrast to group I intron ORFs, appear to be co-evolve with their ribozyme counterpart (Toor et al. 2001). This is in part driven by the dependence of the group II introns on intron-encoded maturases that can bind to the various structural variants of group II RNA transcripts, plus the inability of the reverse transcriptase ORF to move on its own (Toor et al., 2001). Group II introns are mobile elements; however they move by a mechanism that involves an RNA intermediate and requires the RT to form a ribonucleoprotein particle (RNP) with the spliced intron lariat to form a “site-specific endonuclease” that will allow the element to retrohome into cognate alleles that lack the intron (Lambowitz and Zimmerly, 2004 & 2011). Some group II introns encode LAGLIDADG type HEGs and it appears that these HEGs have the potential to mobilize their group II intron host by

a mechanism invoked to explain HEase facilitated homing of group I intron into alleles that lack the intron (Mullineux et al., 2010).

HEGs and introns are potential invasive elements and therefore contribute towards the size of fungal mtDNA genomes, mtDNA polymorphisms, and they can promote mtDNA rearrangements (Dujon, 1989; Charter et al., 1996; Belcour et al., 1997; Salvo et al., 1998; Gobbi et al., 2003). Also some of these elements have been associated with mtDNA instabilities in a variety of fungi (Osiewacz and Esser, 1984; Michel and Cummings, 1985; Cummings et al., 1986; Dujon and Belcour, 1989; Cummings et al., 1990; Abu-Amero et al., 1995). Group II introns have been associated with mitochondrial genome instabilities leading to processes such as senescence in *Podospora anserina* (Dujon, 1989; Griffiths, 1992) and mitochondrial induced hypovirulence in *Cryphonectria parasitica* (Baidyaroy et al., 2011).

This study was designed to provide an overview of the various types of elements that can insert within the *rns* gene and this should prove to be useful in annotating the *rns* gene for fungi in future studies. The data are also valuable to those who are interested in prospecting for native HEases or ribozymes for potential applications in biotechnology (Long et al., 2003; Bagheri and Kashani-Sabet, 2004; Takeuchi et al., 2011).

6.3. RESULTS:

Methods relevant to Chapter 6 are presented in Chapter 2 (Materials and Methods).

6.3.1. The *rns* gene landscape:

Amplifying the mtDNA *rns* gene from different species and strains of ophiostomatoid fungi using the primers mtsr-1 and mtsr-2 generated short (1.2 kb) and long (>1.2 kb) PCR products (see Chapter 2, section 2.3, for PCR amplification protocols of the *rns* gene). These length variations were attributed to the absence or presence of insertions (i.e. introns) within the *rns* gene; sequences were obtained for these PCR products as described in Chapter 2. BLAST was used to retrieve nucleotide sequences (BLASTn) from NCBI data bases belonging to ascomycetous fungi and by comparative sequence analysis of ascomycete *rns* genes eleven positions were noted that have insertions. The insertion sites (positions) were identified based on sequence comparison with the *E. coli* SSU rRNA gene and the insertion sites were as follows: S62, S379, S531, S569, S788, S915, S917, S952, S1210, S1224 and S1247 (Figure 6.1.).

Group I and group II introns were found and examples for both intron types were observed that either had an ORF sequence embedded or not. The introns were categorized based on sequence and structural information and comparison with previously published reports (Nikoh and Fukatsu, 2000; Marinoni and Lachance, 2004; Monteiro-Vitorello et al., 2009; Baidyaroy et al., 2011; Hafez and Hausner, 2011a & 2011b) and the web server RNA weasel program (Lang et al., 2007) was used to confirm the intron designations. Group I introns were recorded at the following positions (in brackets are intron type

designations): S569 (IC2), S915 (ID), S917 (ID), S1210 (IC2), S1224 (IC2), and S1247 (IC2) while group II introns were recorded in the following positions: S62 (IIA1), S379 (IIA1), S531 (IIB1), S788 (IIB1) and S952 (IIB1).

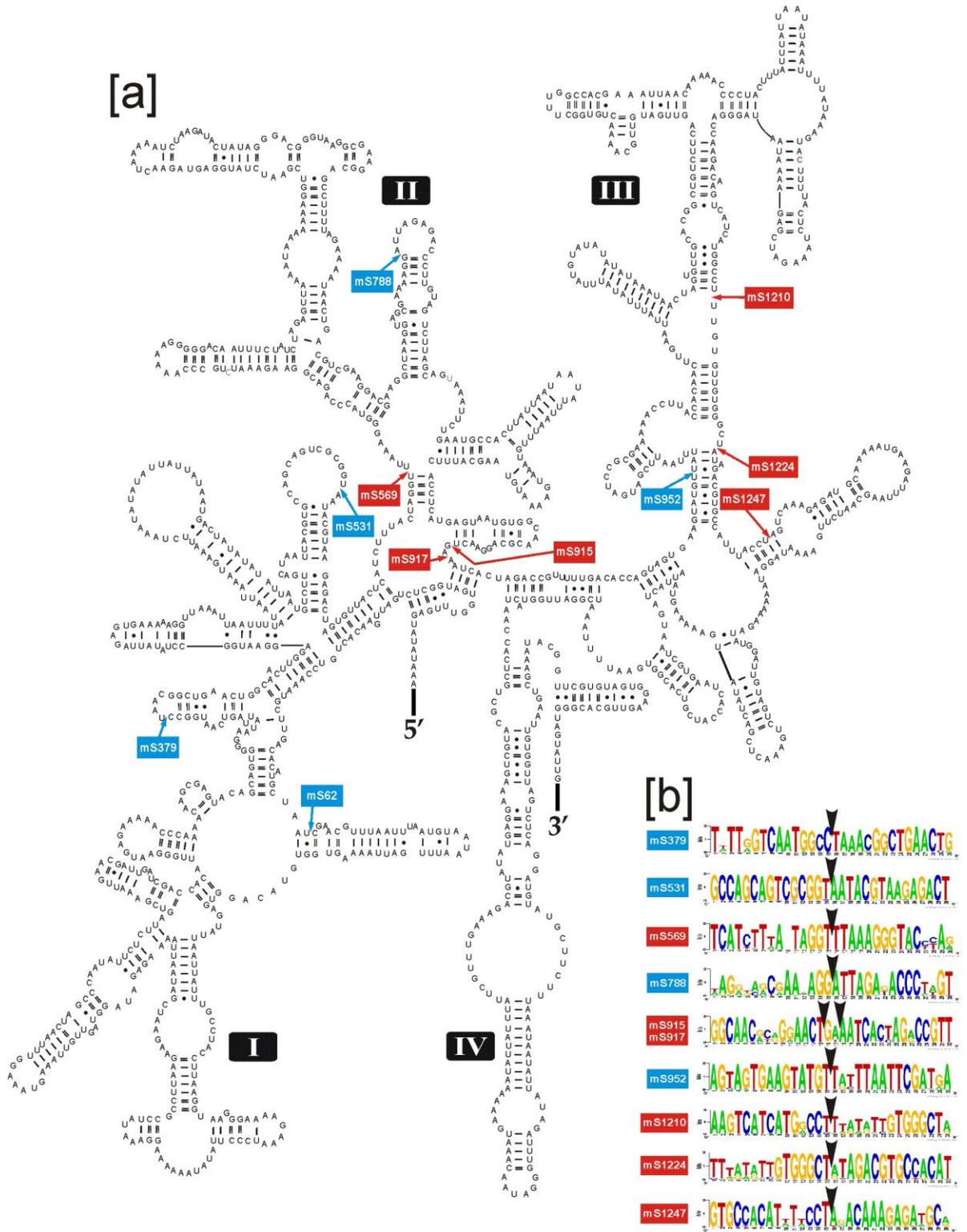
A unique twintron was found at position S1247 (group IIA1 intron inserted in a group IC2 intron) in *Chaetomium thermophilum* (Table 6.1). During the NCBI data search we also examined partial *rns* sequences (not included in the *rns* phylogeny) for insertions and we included noteworthy insertions found in algae and protists (Figure 6.1.).

Figure 6.1. Schematic diagram depicting the *rns* introns landscape (gray line) for the ascomycetous fungi and some selected eukaryotes. The insertions of twelve introns including a possible twintron are shown and the intron insertion sites, intron class [group I (GI) or group II (GII)] and type of intron encoded proteins (RT = reverse transcriptase ORF, LAGLIDADG or GIY-YIG HE ORFs) are indicated. Representative sequences with their GenBank accession numbers are boxed for each intron.

A secondary structure model for the complete mitochondrial small subunit RNA for *O. novo-ulmi* subsp. *americana* DED 2002-10 (Figure 6.2. [a]) was generated in order to place the intron insertions within the context of the *rns* rRNA secondary structure. The *rns* rRNA is composed of four well-defined domains denoted I, II, III & IV (Noller and Woese, 1981; Köchel and Kuntzel, 1981; Hafez and Hausner, 2011b). The intron insertion sites were characterized within this secondary structure model and DNA sequence logos (Figure 6.2. [b]) were generated to assess the level of sequence conservation in the mt *rns* exon sequences flanking the intron insertion sites. The sequence logos were based on 30 nucleotides with 15 nucleotides flanking upstream and downstream of the intron insertion sites. In general the DNA sequence logos showed that intron insertion sites correspond to highly conserved *rns* sequences. Based on the *rns* secondary structure (Figure 6.2. [a]) we noted that the following group I introns are inserted within unpaired regions (such as loops) S569, S915, S917, S1210, and S1224. Only S1247 is inserted within a stem segment within the *rns* RNA structure. Group II introns appear to be inserted into unpaired regions (S379, S531, and S788) and stem segments (S62 and S952), with one group II intron inserted within the ORF of the S1247 group I intron. With regards to the *rns* secondary structure, intron insertions occurred in domains I through III, but no insertions were recorded for the *rns* domain IV.

Figure 6.2. [a] Nucleotide sequence and secondary structure model for the *O. novo-ulmi* subsp. *americana* mitochondrial *rns* RNA (mt. SSU rRNA) (GenBank accession number HQ292074) showing the four structural domains indicated by Roman numbers (I to IV). Watson-Crick base pairing is indicated by dashes (A - U) and double dashes (G = C), while wobble base pairing is indicated by circles (G ° U). Group I and group II intron insertion positions relative to the *E. coli* SSU rRNA sequence are indicated by red and blue arrows respectively. **[b]** Nucleotide sequence logos are shown for the exon sequences that flank the intron insertion positions (15 upstream and 15 downstream nucleotides). The black arrowhead indicates the insertion position of each intron. The sequence logos were generated from 61 intronless SSU rRNA sequences by the online program WebLogo version 2.8.2. (Crooks et al., 2004)

Figure 6.2.



6.3.2. Phylogenetic analysis based on *rns* sequences:

The *rns* sequences from ophiostomatoid fungi and related ascomycetous fungal taxa were subjected to phylogenetic analysis. For this analysis partial *rns* sequences were excluded. The *rns* sequence of *S. cerevisiae* was selected as the outgroup for this analysis. Figure 6.3. shows the 50% majority rule Bayesian consensus tree for 61 taxa (sequences) based on an unambiguously aligned data set that covered 1644 nucleotide positions. The *rns* phylogeny provided moderate to strong support (see Figure 6.3.) for the monophyly of the following orders: Ophiostomatales, Sardariales, Hypocreales and Eurotiales. Within the Ophiostomatales the *rns* phylogeny appears to resolve three clades composed of species that can be assigned to the following genera: *Grosmannia*, *Ceratocystiopsis* and *Ophiostoma*. However, there are “orphans” such as *O. microsporum*, *O. deltoideosporum*, *O. coronatum*, *C. pseudonigra*, *O. grande* and *O. stenoceras* along with *Sporothrix schenckii*. The latter five species do share an internal node from which eventually a core group of *Ophiostoma* species can be derived (see node 5 in Figure 6.3.). *Ophiostoma microsporum* groups next to the node (node 6 in Figure 6.3) that supports the monophyly of species belonging to the genus *Ceratocystiopsis*, and *O. deltoideosporum* is placed on a single branch that is part of a trichotomy that includes species that can be assigned to *Grosmannia* (see node 7; Figure 6.3.) and *Ceratocystiopsis*. Albeit, the node support for this trichotomy is poor. *Ophiostoma microsporum* and *O. deltoideosporum* are ophiostomatoid species that based on classical criteria and recent recommendations would have been expected to belong to the genus *Ophiostoma sensu* (Zipfel et al., 2006). *Ophiostoma longisporum* grouped next to the node that supports the monophyly of the tested strains representing *Ceratocystiopsis*; also

the node supporting the monophyly of members of *Ceratocystiopsis* inclusive of *O. longisporum* received strong support (> 95% for both ML and Bayesian analysis). The generic status of *O. longisporum* has not yet been fully resolved (reviewed in Hafez et al., 2012).

A NCBI data search and the *rns* phylogeny were used to contrast the distribution of the various types of introns inserted within the *rns* gene among various members of the Ascomycota (Table 6.1., Figure 6.1. and Figure 6.3.). In general it can be stated that there is no obvious connection between species relatedness and intron distribution. For example mS1224 was found in three distantly related phylogenetic lineages, two members of the Hypocreales, one strain of *Ophiostoma minus* and in *Leptosphaeria maculans* (Pleosporales). Similarly the mS569 intron was noted in *Cordyceps* sp. 97003 and among three members of the *Ophiostoma* clade. Within the Ophiostomatales mS379, mS788 and mS952 are the most frequently encountered introns (Table 6.1.). Only the mS379 group II intron is unique to the ophiostomatoid fungi compared to the currently available ascomycete *rns* sequences. This group II intron was noted to either lack an ORF or have a degenerated ORF suggesting that this intron might be in the process of being eliminated from the *rns* gene. Forty-three *rns* sequences were analyzed for species that belong to the Ophiostomatales of those 30 had no insertions and 13 contained one or up to three introns. The most frequently encountered intron was mS952, a group II intron that encodes a LAGLIDADG ORF. The mS952 intron was also observed within *rns* sequences among species belonging to the Pleosporales, Hypocreales, and Diporthales.

Among the sequences examined the *rms* gene of *Cryphonectria parasitica* contained the largest number of introns (6 introns) if one considers the KFC9 strain of *C. parasitica*, a hypovirulent variant of the Chestnut blight fungus (Baidyaroy et al., 2011). The KFC9 strain contains an additional ORF-less group II intron at position mS62, an intron that appears to be unique to this strain and appears to be implicated in inducing hypovirulence (Baidyaroy et al., 2000 & 2011). This would suggest that this intron imparts a phenotype and thus it might be under selection and this would limit its spread within or among different species.

Previously Monteiro-Vitorello et al. (2009) reported four introns for the *rms* gene of the EP155 strain of *C. parasitica*: mS788, mS915, mS952 and mS1210. The mS915 intron was reexamined (Michel F., personal communications) and it was noted that the original annotation was incorrect. The original mS915 intron annotation missed the fact that actually two ID intron cores are present. The first ID intron encodes a double motif LAGLIDADG type ORF and the second ID intron lacks an ORF and is separated from the upstream ID intron by two nucleotides. So with the recognition of the mS917 intron the *rms* gene of standard reference strain of *C. parasitica* EP155 would contain a total of five introns.

Figure 6.3. Phylogenetic tree based on the aligned *rns* data set for some ascomycetous fungi. The tree topology is based on Bayesian analysis, solid circles, squares and triangles represent Posterior Probability (PP) supportive values (95-100%), (85-94%) and (50-84%) respectively as obtained from a 50% majority Bayesian consensus tree. Open circles, squares and triangles represent bootstrap (BS) support values (95-100%), (85-94%) and (50-84%) respectively, based on ML analysis. The branch lengths are based on Bayesian analysis and are proportional to the number of substitutions per site. Strain numbers (underlined) and GenBank accession numbers (in square brackets) are listed next to species names. The tree is rooted with *rns* (SSU rRNA) sequences from the yeast fungi *S. cerevisiae* (GenBank accession AJ011856) and *Candida glabrata* (GenBank accession AJ511533). The presence of introns in the *rns* gene (mtDNA SSU rRNA) are denoted by colored (+) symbols.

Figure 6.3.

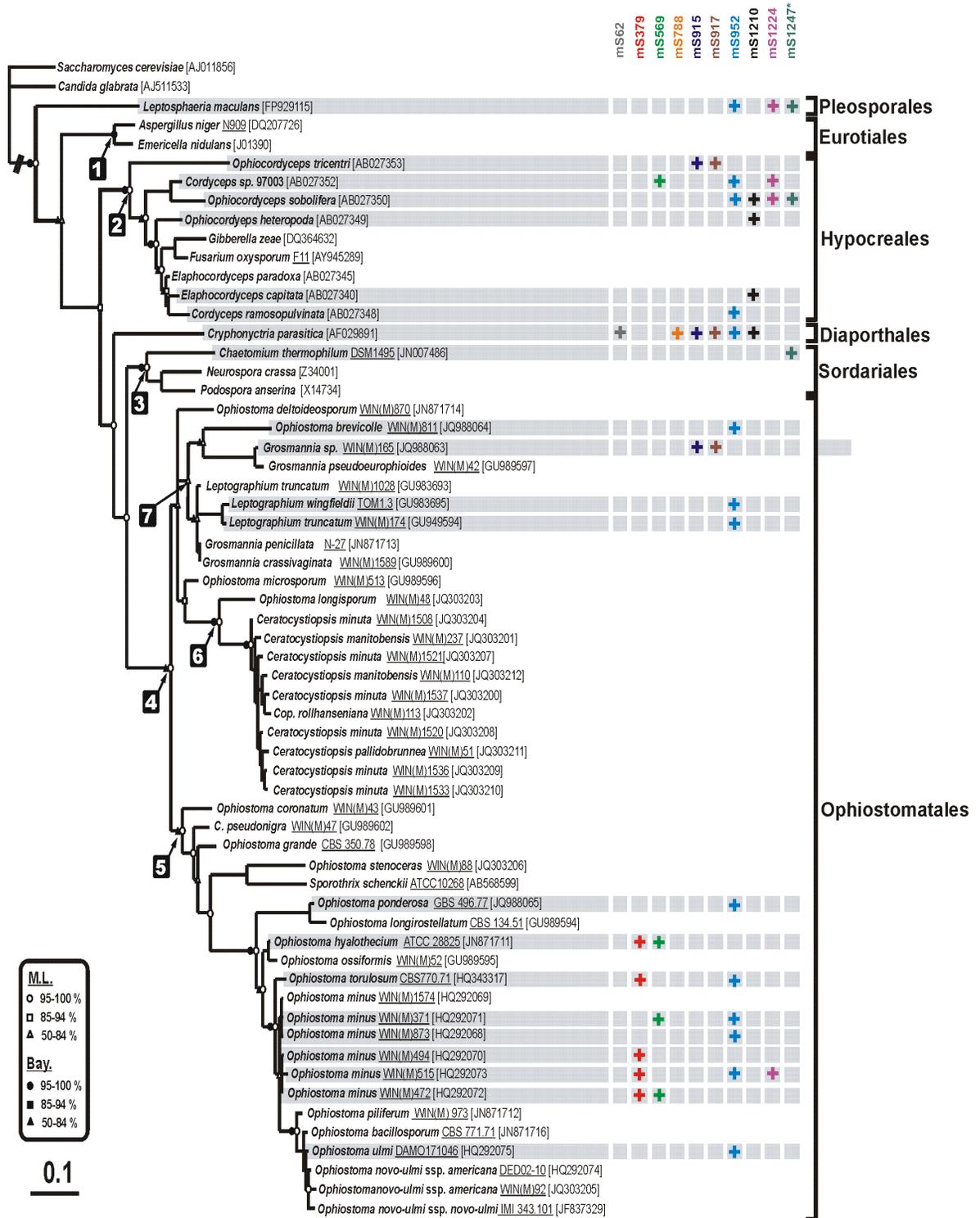


Table 6.1. List of species and strains for mtDNA *rns* sequences along with the sequence GenBank accession numbers.

Table 6.1.

Organism	Strain/Isolate	Order	NCBI Accession #	Intron insertions sites													
				S62	S379	S531	S569	S788	S915	S997	S999	S999	S1120	S1122	S1124		
<i>Agrocybe aegerita</i> (V. Brig.) Singer	SM47	Agaricales	U54637													X	
<i>Aleurodiscus botryosus</i> Burt	NA	Russulales	FR7739					X									
<i>Amoebidium parasiticum</i> Cienkowski	JAP-7-2	Amoebidiales	AF538044					X									
<i>Ascocalyx abietina</i> (Lagerb.) Schläpf.-Bernh.	JA72-0001	Helotiales	AF284856				X										
<i>Aspergillus niger</i> Tiegh.	N909	Eurotiales	DQ207726														
<i>Candida glabrata</i> (H.W. Anderson) S.A. Mey. & Yarrow	ATCC 2001	Saccharomycetales	AJ511533														
<i>Candida ipomoeae</i> Lachance, C.A. Rosa, Starmer & J.M. Bowles	UWO(PS)91-672.1	Saccharomycetales	AY393889			X											
<i>Ceratocystiopsis manitobensis</i> (J. Reid, Eyjólfssdóttir & G. Hausner) Zipfel, Z.W. de Beer & M.J. Wingf.	UAMH9813 WIN(M) 237	Ophiostomatales	JQ303201														
<i>Ceratocystiopsis minuta</i> (Siemaszko) H.P. Upadhyay & W.B. Kendr.	CBS145.59 WIN(M) 1508	Ophiostomatales	JQ303204														
<i>C. minuta</i>	RJ 5095 WIN(M)1533	Ophiostomatales	JQ303210														
<i>C. minuta</i>	CBS 116796 WIN(M) 1536	Ophiostomatales	JQ303209														
<i>C. minuta</i>	CBS 116763 WIN(M) 1537	Ophiostomatales	JQ303200														
<i>Ceratocystiopsis pallidobrunnea</i> (Olchow. & J. Reid) H. P. Upadhyay	WIN(M) 51	Ophiostomatales	JQ303211														
<i>Ceratocystiopsis rollhanseni</i> (J. Reid, Eyjólfssdóttir & Georg Hausner) Zipfel, Z.W. de Beer & M.J. Wingf.	UAMH 9797 WIN(M) 110	Ophiostomatales	JQ303212														
<i>C. rollhanseni</i>	UAHM 9774 WIN(M) 113	Ophiostomatales	JQ303202														
<i>Ceratocystiopsis sp.</i>	MPB1 WIN(M) 1520	Ophiostomatales	JQ303208														
<i>Ceratocystiopsis sp.</i>	MPB2 WIN(M)1521	Ophiostomatales	JQ303207														

Table 6.1. CONTINUED

<i>Ophiostoma hyalothecium</i> (R.W. Davidson) Georg Hausner, J. Reid & Klassen	ATCC 28825	Ophiostomatales	JN871711		X	X														
<i>Ophiostoma longirostellatum</i> (B.K. Bakshi) Arx & E. Müll.	CBS 134.51	Ophiostomatales	GU989594																	
<i>Ophiostoma longisporum</i> (Olchow. & J. Reid) Georg Hausner, J. Reid & Klassen	WIN(M) 48	Ophiostomatales	JQ303203																	
<i>Ophiostoma microsporium</i> (R.W. Davidson) Arx	CBS 412.77 WIN(M) 513	Ophiostomatales	GU989596																	
<i>Ophiostoma minus</i> (Hedgc.) Syd. & P. Syd.	WIN(M) 1574	Ophiostomatales	HQ292069																	
<i>O. minus</i>	WIN(M) 873	Ophiostomatales	HQ292068										X							
<i>O. minus</i>	C-248 (NFRC) WIN(M) 494	Ophiostomatales	HQ292070		X															
<i>O. minus</i>	UAMH 9805 WIN(M) 371	Ophiostomatales	HQ292071			X						X								
<i>O. minus</i>	WIN(M) 472	Ophiostomatales	HQ292072		X	X														
<i>O. minus</i>	CBS 404.77 WIN(M) 515	Ophiostomatales	HQ292073		X							X							X	
<i>Ophiostoma novoulmi</i> ssp. <i>americana</i> Brasier	DED 2002-10	Ophiostomatales	HQ292074																	
<i>Ophiostoma novoulmi</i> ssp. <i>americana</i>	DED 2002-92	Ophiostomatales	JQ303205																	
<i>Ophiostoma novoulmi</i> ssp. <i>novoulmi</i> Brasier	IMI 343.101	Ophiostomatales	JF837329																	
<i>Ophiostoma piliferum</i> (Fries) Sydow and Sydow	UAMH 9561 WIN(M) 973	Ophiostomatales	JN871712																	
<i>Ophiostoma ponderosae</i> (T.E. Hinds & R.W. Davidson) Georg Hausner, J. Reid & Klassen	CBS 496.77	Ophiostomatales	JQ9883065										X							
<i>Ophiostoma pseudonigrum</i> (Olchow. & J. Reid) Georg Hausner & J. Reid	WIN(M) 47	Ophiostomatales	GU989602																	
<i>Ophiostoma torulosum</i> Butin & G. Zimm.) Georg Hausner, J. Reid & Klassen	CBS 770.71	Ophiostomatales	HQ343317		X								X							
<i>Ophiostoma ulmi</i> (Buisman) Nannf.	DAOM 171046	Ophiostomatales	HQ292075										X							
<i>Podospora anserina</i> (Rabenh.) Niessl	NA	Sordariales	X14734																	
<i>Pycnoporellus fulgens</i> (Fries) Donk	NA	Polyporales	FR773979								X									

Table 6.1. CONTINUED

<i>Saccharomyces cerevisiae</i> Meyen ex E.C. Hansen	FY1679	Saccharomycetales	AJ011856																
<i>Scenedesmus obliquus</i> (Turpin) Kützing	KS3-2	Sphaeropleales	NC_002254																X
<i>Sclerotinia sclerotiorum</i> (Lib.) de Bary	NA	Helotiales	U07553				X												
<i>Sporothrix schenckii</i> Hektoen & C.F. Perkins	ATCC 10268	Ophiostomatales	AB568599																
<i>Trametes cingulata</i> Berk.	ATCC 26747	Polyporales	GU723273					X											
<i>Usnea antarctica</i> Du Rietz	AFTOL-ID 813	Lecanorales	DQ990920					X											

* The presence of introns is represented by (X) symbol.

NA = data not available

UAMH = University of Alberta Microfungus Collection & Herbarium, Devonian Botanic Garden, Edmonton, AB, Canada, T6G 2E1;

RJ = R. Jankowiak collection (University of Agriculture in Cracow, Cracow, Poland)

MPB = Mountain Pine Beetle collection, /Department of Forestry, University of British Columbia, Canada;/

NFRI = Norwegian Forest Research Institute, AS, Norway; B-23 is an older designation used in NFRI for the NFRI 6-15 strain

WIN(M) = WIN(M) = University of Manitoba (Winnipeg) Collection

CBS = Centraal Bureau voor Schimmelcultures, Utrecht, The Netherlands

ATCC = American Type Culture Collection, P.O. Box 1549, Manassas, VA 20108, USA.

6.3.3. Notes on the *rns* insertions:

mS62:

The mS62 intron is an ORF-less group IIA1 intron, as stated above it so far has only been observed in a hypovirulent strain of *C. parasitica* (KFC9). This intron, CpamS62 (also known as InC9) is associated with splicing deficiency and has been linked to growth abnormalities and a cytoplasmically transmissible form of hypovirulence (Baidyaroy et al., 2011).

mS371:

The S379 position in some member of *Ophiostoma* was found to be invaded with a group IIA1 intron with an eroded reverse transcriptase-like open reading frame. The mS379 intron is unique because it has an open reading frame encoded within DII (Hafez and Hausner, 2011a). An ORF-less version of the mS379 intron was discovered in the closely related species *O. hyalothecium* (GenBank accession number JN871711; see Chapter 5 of this thesis for more detailed analysis of this intron).

mS531:

The mS531 insertion is a 626 bp ORF-less group IIB1 intron (Li et al., 2011) which so far has only been recorded in the *rns* gene of the yeast fungus *Candida ipomoeae* and related taxa (Table 6.1.; Marinoni and Lachance, 2004; Li et al., 2011).

mS569:

The mS569 intron is a group IC2 intron that encodes a double motif LHEase (for secondary structure models of mS569, see Chapter 4 & Hafez and Hausner, 2011a). The mS569 intron was recorded (sizes given in brackets) in several strains of *O. minus* and *O. hyalothecium* (1327 bp), *Cordyceps* sp. 97003 (1323 bp), *A. abietina* (1395 bp), *F. poae* (1100 bp), *S. sclerotiorum* (1380 bp) and *C. kanzashiana* (1336 bp).

mS788:

The mS788 is a group IIB1 intron that has been found in two distantly related ascomycetes fungi: *C. parasitica* (Monteiro-Vitorello et al., 2009) and the lichen fungus *Umbilicaria antarctica* (Miadlikowska et al., 2006), the former (2182 bp) encodes a double motif LHEase while the later (1076 bp) is an ORF-less group II intron. Several ORF-less and ORF-containing examples of this intron were also found in some basidiomycetous fungi (Li et al., 2011). Another group IIB1 intron was also found at this position in the protozoan *Amoebidium parasiticum* (Lang et al., 2002) but this intron (1344 bp) encodes a GIY-YIG HEase. The latter is a nice demonstration of how HEGs can mobilize into various genomic niches such as group I intron or in this case a group II intron.

mS915/mS917:

This combination of group ID type introns has so far been identified in three unrelated species. As stated previously these introns were misinterpreted in the *C. parasitica rms* sequence as one intron. The presence of two ID core sequences that can form two individual introns is shown in Figure 6.4. [a]. The mS915 intron (Figure 6.4. [b]) encodes a double motif LHEase while the mS917 intron is an ORF-less ID intron (Figure 6.4. [c]).

Additional examples of this intron pair are the mS915/mS917 insertions in *O. tricentri* and a *Grosmannia* sp. strain [WIN(M)165]. However, in the latter species the RNA weasel program only detected one group ID intron core. But based on comparative sequence analysis among these three species and their mS915/mS917 sequences clearly shows that: *O. tricentri* contains two group ID introns exactly like *C. parasitica* although the mS917 intron is slightly degenerated in *O. tricentri*, while in *Grosmannia* sp. strain WIN(M)165 the mS917 intron is highly degenerated; i.e. has deviated from the expected consensus sequences referred to as the P, Q, R, S elements, which could not be identified. The *rms* sequence alignment that included all sequences studies in Figure 6.3. predicts that the two introns are separated by a very short two nucleotide exon (5'-GA-3').

Figure 6.4. The mS915 and mS917 group ID introns. **[a]** A schematic representation of the *C. parasitica* mitochondrial *rns* (SSU rRNA) gene showing the mS915 and mS917 group ID introns which are separated by a two-nucleotide exon (5'-GA-3'). The mS915 intron encodes a double motif LHEase ORF. Panel **[b]** and **[c]** show the secondary structures for the mS915 and mS917 group ID introns respectively. Intron sequences are in upper-case letters and exon sequences are in lower-case letters. The ten pairing regions (P1-P10) are indicated. The solid red arrowheads indicate the intron-exon junctions (putative 5' and 3' splicing sites). Designation of intron types is based on the conventions for group I introns (Burke et al., 1987; Michel and Westhof, 1990; Suh et al., 1999; Li and Zhang, 2005) and the web server RNA weasel.

mS952:

The mS952 is a group IIB1 intron that encodes a putative double motif LHEase rather than the expected group II intron RT-ORF. This intron has been well characterized and appears to be quite common in the mitochondrial *rns* gene of ascomycetous and basidiomycetous fungi (Toor and Zimmerly, 2002; Mullineux et al., 2010 & 2011; Hafez and Hausner, 2011a). It has been shown in one instance that this intron contains an ORF in Domain III that encodes a functional homing endonuclease that could facilitate the movement of this group II intron in a DNA based manner typical for the mobility of group I introns (Mullineux et al., 2010).

mS1210:

The mS1210 is a group IC2 intron that encodes a double motif LHEase. The mS1210 intron was reported previously in *C. parasitica* (1335 bp) (Monteiro- Vitorello et al., 2009), and can also be detected in four species within the order Hypocreales: *E. capitata* (1309 bp), *E. jezoensis* (1331 bp), *O. heteropoda* (1335 bp) and *O. sobolifera* (1312 bp), (Nikoh and Fukatsu, 2000).

mS1224:

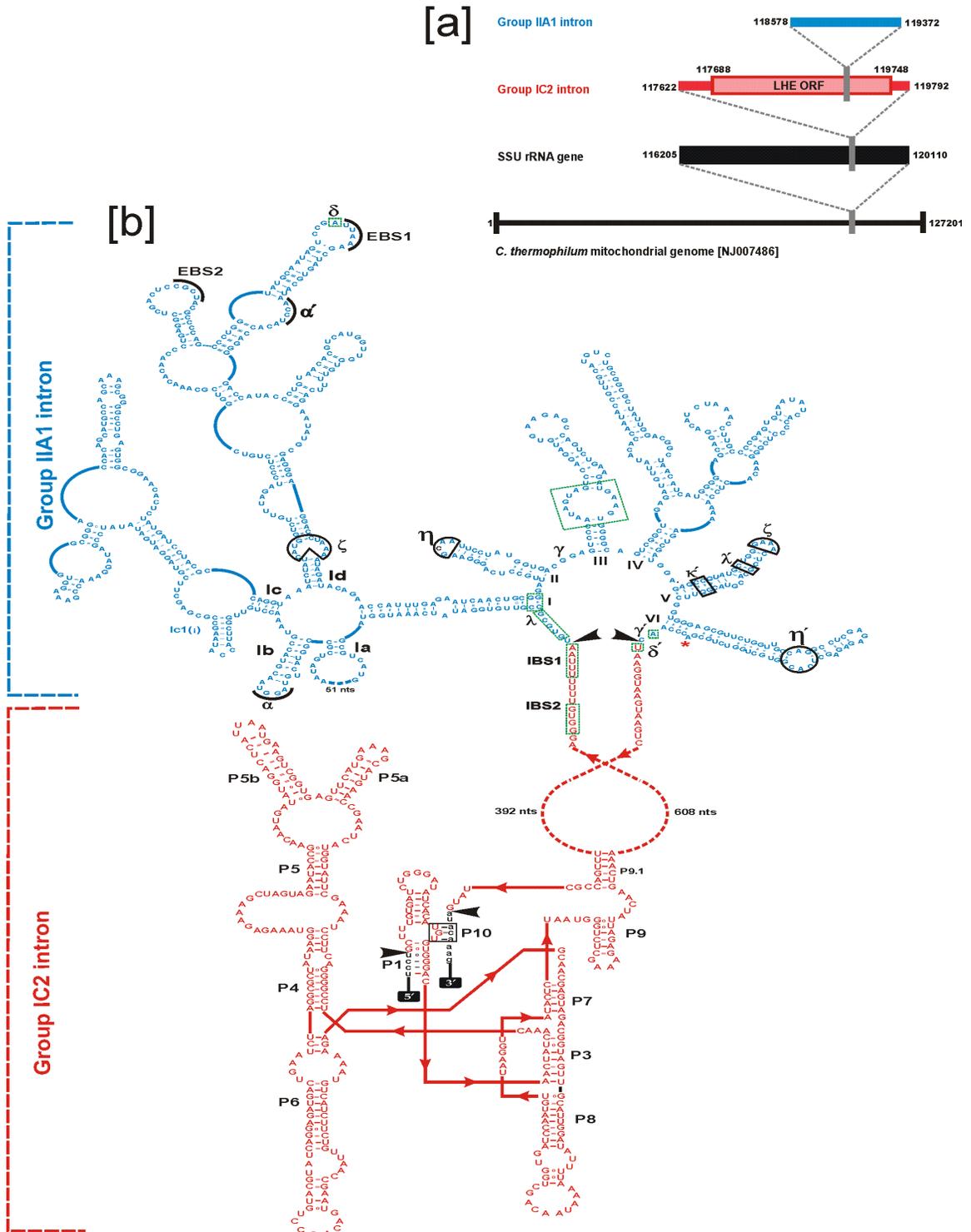
The mS1224 is a group IC2 intron which encodes a double motif LHEase. This intron was found in four ascomycetous fungi: *Leptosphaeria maculans* (1399 bp), *Cordyceps* sp. strain 97003 (1351 bp), *Ophiostoma minus* WIN(M)515 (1394 bp) and *Ophiocordyceps sobolifera* (1343 bp). It also found in the SSU rRNA gene of the basidiomycetous fungus *Agrocybe aegerita* (Gonzalez et al., 1997).

mS1247:

The mS1247 position can be occupied by a group IC2 intron, which encodes a double motif LHEase. This intron was found in two ascomycetous fungi: *Ophiocordyceps sobolifera* (1371 bp) and *Leptosphaeria maculans* (1426 bp). Another example of the mS1247 insertion was found in *Chaetomium thermophilum* DSM 1495, but here a group II intron (795 bp) was found to have invaded the double motif LHEase ORF encoded within the group I intron (1376 bp). This gives rise to a unique twintron element (2171 bp) (Figure 6.5.), where an ORF-less group II intron has inserted within a group IC2 intron ORF located within a big loop in the group I intron's P9.1 region. Another example of this twintron was found in *C. thermophilum* UAMH 2024. The insertion of the group II intron fragments the group I intron resident ORF, but it is worth noting that removal of the group II intron would reconstitute the LAGLIDADG ORF into a continuous reading frame. The IBS1 and IBS2 sequences contact elements for the EBS1 and EBS2 sequences required for forming an active splicing complex are located within the LAGLIDADG sequence upstream of the intron insertion site. This intron arrangement could be a new composite mobile element composed of a host group I intron and a tenant group II intron with both being mobilized by the resident introns encoded protein. Clearly this requires experimental investigation.

Figure 6.5. The mS1247 twintron. **[a]** A schematic representation of the *C. thermophilum* mitochondrial genome contig (black solid line) showing the *rns* (SSU rRNA) gene (black box) which is interrupted by a group IC2 intron (red line) that encodes a double motif LHEase ORF (pink box). The group IC2 intron is also interrupted by an ORF less group IIA1 intron (blue line) to form a unique twintron element. **[b]** A detailed secondary structure model of the mS1247 twintron, the group IC2 intron is labeled as indicated in Figure 6.4. For the group IIA1 intron, the positions of EBS1, EBS2 and δ are noted. The positions of the IBS1, IBS2 and δ^- in the 5' and 3' "exons" (found in the group IC2 ORF sequence) are boxed with dotted lines. Tertiary interactions are indicated by dashed lines and Greek letters (α , β , γ , ϵ , ζ , η , κ , and λ). The six major structural domains are indicated by Roman numbers (I, II, III, IV, V and VI). The solid black arrowheads indicate the intron-"exon" junctions (5' and 3' splicing sites). The asterisk shows the bulged adenosine nucleotide in domain VI (the branch point).

Figure 6.5.



6.4. DISCUSSION:

6.4.1. Taxonomic implications:

In this study we examined the *rns* sequence for species that can be assigned to the following genera of the Ophiostomatales: *Ceratocystiopsis* H.P. Upadhyay & W.B. Kendr., *Grosmannia* Goid. and *Ophiostoma* Syd. & P. Syd. These genera include economically important tree pathogens and blue-stain fungi (see Wingfield et al., 1993; Hausner and Reid, 2004; Hausner et al., 2005). Members of these genera lack forcible ascospore discharge, have deliquescent asci and form sticky ascospore droplets at the apex of their perithecial necks. These fungi in many instances also tend to produce their slimy/sticky conidia on long-stalked conidiophores. Species assigned to *Ceratocystiopsis* resemble species of *Ophiostoma* except they tend to have small dark perithecia with short perithecial necks and falcate, sheathed ascospores (Upadhyay, 1981; Zipfel et al., 2006; Plattner et al., 2009) and a lower tolerance to cycloheximide than *Ophiostoma* species (Harrington, 1981; Hausner et al., 1993a & 1993c).

Species of *Grosmannia* can be distinguished from members of *Ophiostoma* and *Ceratocystiopsis* by the presence of a conidial state that can be assigned to the genus *Leptographium* Lagerb. & Melin. Zipfel et al. (2006), based on partial LSU rDNA and β -tubulin sequences, provided some justification to recognize the above three genera. Hafez et al. (2012), using the nuclear SSU rDNA gene, showed that Zipfel's proposal has merit but that some species cannot easily be accommodated within either of these three genera. The mtDNA *rns* gene analysis shows that three clades can be readily identified that

would correspond to the circumscription of the three genera discussed above but again some species do not readily align within the three currently recognized genera. For example species that are based on morphological criteria are to be assigned to *Ophiostoma*, *O. microsporum* and *O. deltoideosporum* failed to group within the *Ophiostoma* clade and species such as *O. coronatum*, *C. pseudonigra*, *O. grande*, and *O. stenoceras* although allied to *Ophiostoma* only group with the *Ophiostoma* clade on branches with deeper nodes with poor to moderate bootstrap support (Figure 6.3.). These data suggest that the current taxonomic arrangement defines paraphyletic genera and in the future new genera might have to be proposed to assign species that currently do not fit. However, one species that is still assigned to *Ophiostoma*, *O. longisporum*, based on the *rns* phylogeny should be transferred to *Ceratocystiopsis*.

Previously Plattner et al. (2009) suggested that *O. longisporum* species should be excluded but based on nuclear SSU rDNA data (Hafez et al., 2012) and the *rns* phylogeny presented here this species is best accommodated within *Ceratocystiopsis*. This is also in agreement with morphological criteria as *O. longisporum* has elongated falcate-like sheathed ascospores and micronematous conidiophores (Upadhyay, 1981), features typical for members of *Ceratocystiopsis*. The distribution of insertions within the *rns* genes as previously noted did not follow the evolutionary lineages of the species that contain them so no taxonomic conclusions could be reached based on intron distribution.

6.4.2. Novel introns and intron combinations:

6.4.2.1. mS915 and mS917 introns are separated by a two nucleotide exon:

The *rns* gene of *C. parasitica* has been previously investigated by Monteiro-Vitorello and co-workers (2009) and they suggested that there is one group I intron (Cpa-mS915) inserted at position mS915. However, further analysis of the Cpa-mS915 sequence with the RNA weasel program indicated the presence of two group ID introns instead of one. Sequence analysis of *rns* gene alignment indicates that these two introns are separated by a two nucleotide exon. This would be the shortest exon reported so far in the literature. Previously mtDNA short exons have been reported within the *coxI* gene that is estimated to be three nucleotides long (Cummings et al., 1989; Férandon et al., 2010a). The presence of this short exon (5'-GA-3') separating the mS915 and mS917 introns was confirmed by RT-PCR and sequence analysis of the cDNA product. Such a short exon raises some interesting questions, such as how do these introns splice? As group I intron splicing involves flanking "exon sequences" one has to assume that the two introns (915 and 917) splice sequentially. One has to assume that the mS915 intron, which encodes a double motif LHEase (that could act as a maturase) splices first. The mS915 intron during splicing uses part of the mS917 intron sequence to form the P10 pairing region which defines the 3' splice site. Once the mS915 intron has been removed the mS917 intron can use the now available upstream "exon" sequence for forming the P1 helix and the internal guide sequence necessary to define the 5' splice site. Exon-intron junctions of these two introns need further investigation by studying the RNA splicing *in vitro* allowing for the recovery of splicing intermediates for these two introns. What is also worth noting is that these two introns so far have always been reported as a

pair, so it is possible that the mS915 intron encoded protein mobilizes both of these introns as a “composite” type element and further that the IEP acts as a maturase for both of these introns. Clearly these speculations require experimental investigation.

6.4.2.2. The mS1247 insertion is a novel twintron complex:

Twintrons are introns within introns and are spliced by sequential splicing reactions in which the internal intron(s) splice first to reconstitute the external intron. The term twintron (**Twin intron**) was coined for the first time by Copertino and Hallick (1991) when they noted a twintron within the chloroplast *psbF* gene of *Euglena gracilis*. The *psbF* twintron is a group II intron inserted into another group II intron. The majority of these twintrons have been characterized within the *Euglena* chloroplast genome but these elements have also been found in cryptomonad algae (*Pyrenomonas salina*; Maier et al., 1995), and group I based twintrons (group I inserted within a group I intron) have been described in *Didymium iridis* (Einvik et al., 1998). Since the discovery of the *psbF* twintron, several categories of twintron have been characterized. A twintron can be simple (external intron interrupted by 1 internal intron), or complex (external intron interrupted by multiple internal introns). Typically, the internal and external introns comprising a twintron element are from the same category; group I internal to group I (Einvik et al., 1998), group II internal to group II (Copertino and Hallick, 1991; Copertino et al., 1993), and group III internal to group III (Copertino et al., 1992 & 1993). Mixed twintrons (consisting of introns belonging to different categories) were characterized from the *Euglena gracilis rps3* gene in which an internal group II intron is found to interrupt an external group III intron (Copertino et al., 1991 & 1993). In

Rhodomonas salina (= *Pyrenomonas salina*) twintrons (nested group II/group III introns) were identified where the internal intron lost its splicing capacity, essentially merging with the outer intron forming “one” splicing unit (Khan and Archibald 2008). This illustrates the potential of generating new intron variants by introns invading other introns. To our knowledge, the mS1247 twintron represents the first mixed twintron consisting of group II intron as an internal intron and a group I intron as an external intron and also it represent the first mitochondrial twintron.

The most parsimonious explanation of twintron formation is the insertion of one or more introns into another intron by ectopic integration (Copertino and Hallick, 1991; Copertino et al., 1991), so for the mS1247 intron an ancestral mobile group II intron (that assumes it encoded a functional RT ORF) inserted within the group I intron. However the internal group II intron eventually lost its ORF. The formation of the mS1247 twintron could be also be explained by the possible transposition of a group II intron into the mS1247 group I intron via reverse splicing. The internal group II intron in the mS1247 twintron contains exon-binding sites (EBSs) complementary to their respective intron-binding sites (IBSs) which are located in the external group I intron ORF. These base-pairing interactions are required for splicing, reverse splicing and for inserting into DNA target sites during intron homing. Thus one can envision a process were reverse splicing of a group II intron into an intact *rns* precursor transcript was followed by reverse transcription of the invaded transcript and the cDNA via homologous recombination replaced the original *rns* gene that lacked the group II intron. The end result was the permanent insertion of the group II intron within the group I intron at mS1247. Scenarios

of reverse splicing and retrotransposition or cDNAs recombining with the original mtDNA loci resulting in intron-loss or gain have been suggested to occur in the mitochondria or repetitive loci such as the nuclear rDNA (Lambowitz, 1989; Eickbush, 1999).

6.4.3. The *rns* intron landscape:

During the current study, twelve insertions have been characterized within the *rns* gene of ascomycetous fungi and some eukaryotes (Figure 6.1.); for this reason the *rns* gene appears to be a natural reservoir for introns (ribozymes) and IEPs (HEases) that over time moved into other loci (see Haugen and Bhattacharya 2004). The mitochondrial genome is highly variable due to the presence of introns and IEPs and the current study provides an updated overview of the introns and twintrons that can interrupt the *rns* gene. From a practical point of view this survey also suggests that the *rns* gene might be a good target for bioprospecting for ribozymes and endonucleases that can be biochemically characterized and used in several biotechnological applications (Hausner, 2003; Gimble, 2005; Lambowitz et al., 2005; Marcaida et al., 2010; Lambowitz and Zimmerly, 2011; Hafez and Hausner, 2011a).

The sequence logos for intron insertion sites confirmed that group I and II introns insert in highly conserved regions; this is probably in part due to the fact that IEP (such as HEases) and the group II EBS require large recognition sites thus favouring conserved regions within the rDNA as targets. It has also been noted that introns at the same insertion site are more closely related to each other than to introns inserted at different

positions; this confirms the idea that composite mobile elements, due to the specificities of their IEPs are predisposed to invade primarily one target site.

It has been suggested that rRNA sequences might “attract” introns and their ORFs due to their conserved nature and “universality”. This provides mobile elements opportunity to move horizontally to avoid extinction by saturation of all insertion sites too quickly and thus being eroded by the accumulation of neutral mutations. These elements are subjected to drift as they are not expected to be subject to selection (Goddard and Burt, 1999). However it has been noted by Jackson et al. (2002) that there are possible constraints as to where introns insert or not. For example, very few intron positions correspond with sites which interact with ribosomal proteins; instead insertion sites tend to be in close proximity to tRNA binding sites (Jackson et al., 2002). Also possible insertion sites are constrained by the folding of the flanking rRNA exon regions as group I and II introns require the formation of a precise structure that involves some flanking exon sequences and these have to be available and not be competed away by rRNA folding. Conversely rRNA sequences are not to interact with certain intron sequences and thereby interfere with the proper folding of the intron RNAs.

6.4.4. Spotty distribution of group I and II introns in the *rns* gene:

The species tree (Figure 6.3.) was compared to the distribution of the various introns uncovered in this study and there was no obvious connection between relatedness among the various species/strains and their intron composition. Overall these introns have a spotty distribution, which can be explained by intron gains by vertical and/or

horizontal transfers followed by rapid intron loss (Figure 6.3.). The mobility of group I and II introns (homing and retrohoming respectively) to homologous sequences is initiated by the IEP. Group I and II introns can also move to new (ectopic) sites via reverse splicing which requires less homology (4 – 6 nucleotides). The reverse splicing step is then followed by reverse transcription to generate cDNA followed by homologous recombination that integrates the intron-containing cDNA into the genome. As reverse splicing requires less homology, this mechanism allows introns to spread more easily into heterologous sites. One possible scenario that could explain the precise loss of an intron is when an intron-containing host gene transcript after being processed (i.e. the intron was removed from the pre-mRNA) undergoes reverse transcription followed by a recombination event that replaces the genomic intron-containing version of the gene with the intron-minus cDNA (Roman and Woodson, 1995; Birgisdottir and Johansen, 2005; Hafez et al., 2012).

6.4.5. Unusual group II introns in the *rns* gene:

6.4.5.1. Group II introns encoding HEases: The intron ORF host switches:

Typically group II introns encode RT-like ORFs, but recently a new subfamily of group II introns was found to encode LAGLIDADG ORFs typical of group I introns. LAGLIDADG ORFs are wide spread elements that can be inserted in group I introns, archaeal introns and inteins. Several examples of this new intron-ORF combination have been reported from the mtDNA *rns* gene (mS952 and mS788) and LSU rRNA (mL2059) genes (Toor and Zimmerly, 2002). Based on the secondary structure models, so far all the LAGLIDADG-encoding introns are group IIB1 introns and the LAGLIDADG ORF is

inserted in the loop of domain III (mS952), or domain IV (mS788 and mL2059) which is the insertion site of most RT-like ORFs of group II introns (Michel and Ferat, 1995; Toor and Zimmerly, 2002; Mullineux et al., 2010; Hafez and Hausner, 2011a & 2011b).

The origins of group II intron LAGLIDADG ORFs are uncertain. The closest relatives of these ORFs are fungal group I intron encoded LAGLIDADG ORFs suggesting that these ORFs invaded group II introns within the fungal mitochondria (Toor and Zimmerly, 2002). In a phylogenetic analysis of 43 fungal double motif LAGLIDADG ORFs, a group I-encoded LAGLIDADG ORF (interrupts the mitochondrial ND5 gene) branched basal to the mS952 group II- encoded LAGLIDADG ORFs, which suggested that group II introns' LAGLIDADG ORFs most likely originated from mtDNA group I intron ORFs (see Chapter 4; Hafez and Hausner, 2011a). The LAGLIDADG encoding group II intron ORFs appear to be an example of a “host switch” where a group I intron-encoded LAGLIDADG ORF moved from group I intron into a group II intron. Two mS952 group II intron encoded LAGLIDADG ORFs (I-LtrII; Mullineux et al., 2010 and I-OmiII; Chapter 7 & Hafez and Hausner, 2011c) were biochemically characterized and are found to be active and functional HEases. They both recognize and cleave the target site 2 nucleotides upstream of the mS952 position in the intron-minus allele generating 4 nucleotide 3' overhangs and thus the HEases could facilitate the mobility of this intron by a homing mechanism similar to that for group I introns. Another example of an unusual group IIB1 intron that encodes a GIY-YIG ORF was found in *Amoebidium parasiticum* at position mS788 (Li et al., 2011). Overall these observations confirm that HEGs are mobile elements that can move independently of

their ribozyme counterparts; however they tend to invade niches that are “neutral” such as self-splicing introns or inteins.

6.4.5.2. Group II introns with novel RT-ORF location:

Another unusual group II intron is found at position mS379. What makes this intron unique is that the RT-ORF is located in DII as usually RT-like ORFs in organellar group II introns are located in DIV. This intron was the only group II intron in the *rns* gene of the fungi examined in this study that encoded an RT-ORF and this is considered to be unique as this intron represents the first organellar group II intron that has an RT-ORF encoded outside domain IV. The mS379 intron was characterized in *Ophiostoma torulosum* WIN(M)860 and *Ophiostoma hyalothecium* WIN(M)848, and previously this intron was reported from three *O. minus* strains WIN(M)472, WIN(M)494 and WIN(M)515 (see Chapter 4 and Chapter 5; Hafez and Hausner 2011a & 2011b). The *O. hyalothecium* version of this intron is unique because of its complete lack of an ORF. Otherwise the *O. torulosum* intron is similar to those observed in *O. minus* where the ORFs show evidence of erosion due to the presence of mutations that introduce frameshifts and premature stop codons. In general all versions of this intron had degenerated RT ORFs, or in one example a complete loss of the ORF, suggesting that this intron might be in the process of being eliminated (see Chapter 5 for more discussion on this matter) from the *rns* gene as it most likely has lost its mobility-promoting IEP.

6.4.6. Mutualism between mobile introns and host genes:

Group I and II introns are sometimes described as molecular parasites that can interrupt genes within the nuclear rDNA (for group I introns) and organellar genomes in all domains of life. They are self-splicing elements (ribozymes) that are spliced at the RNA level during the transcript maturation process and thereby the introns do not disrupt their host genes. Group I and II introns can also promote their own mobility within and between genomes by encoding ORFs (HEases or RTs) and therefore these elements can be considered selfish elements with their primary purpose being to increase their copy number by invading empty target sites. In general mobile introns and their IEPs are considered neutral elements that impart no phenotype on the host organism, but recently it has been shown that some HEases can affect the expression of their host gene and potentially influence cellular metabolism (Edgell et al., 2011). The so called “social networking” between mobile introns, their ORFs and their host genes can be clearly illustrated by the synergistic co-evolution between the following three “parties”: 1. the bacteriophage thymidylate synthase (TS) as a host gene, 2. the *td* group I intron as the self-splicing component, and 3. the intron-encoded I-TevI HEase as the agent that can mobilize the intron (Gibb and Edgell, 2010; reviewed in Stoddard and Belfort, 2010). It has been shown that the efficient splicing of the *td* intron requires delayed translation of the I-TevI due to the extension of I-TevI ORF into the intron’s catalytic core and therefore the translation of the I-TevI prior to intron splicing will affect the timing of the *td* intron splicing and therefore reduces the host TS synthesis (Gibb and Edgell, 2010). An example of the intron ORF overlapping with the group I intron core was found during this study within the O.mi-mS569 group IC2 intron in *O. minus* (Chapter 4; Hafez and

Hausner, 2011a) where the predicted LAGLIDADG ORF (370 amino acid residues) is located in the loop of P9.1 region and extends downstream into the intron catalytic core with the start codon located in P5b region (see Table 1 and “Edgell et al. 2011” for more examples of ORFs overlap with core sequences of group I introns). So the interactions between the introns, their ORFs and the host gene in which they are embedded might be for more complex than was previously appreciated.

Proper intron splicing is a critical and required step for mRNA maturation and the production of functional host gene products. Any deficiency in intron splicing will contribute to the disruption of the production of the host genes final product. It has been shown that splicing deficiency of the Cpa-mS62 group IIA1 intron disrupts the maturation of the *rns* transcript and also appears to decrease the pathogenicity of certain *Cryphonectria parasitica* (Chestnut blight) strains (Baidyaroy et al., 2011). The term hypovirulence is used in describing strains of fungal pathogens wthat have reduced virulence and thus these strains do not damage the infected trees. Hypovirulence can be induced by the presence of certain mycoviruses or genetic mutations (Bertrand, 2000). Hypovirulent strains could be used as biocontrol agents as these strains could convert virulent strains to hypovirulence after anastomosis (hyphal fusion) whereby agent(s) that cause/induce hypovirulence can be transferred (Bertrand, 2000). In nature hypovirulence might be an adaptive trait as it prevents an aggressive pathogen to become extinct by eliminating its host species.

CHAPTER 7:
BIOCHEMICAL CHARACTERIZATION OF THE INTRON-
ENCODED I-OmiI AND I-OmiII LHEases FROM THE BLUE-STAIN
FUNGUS *Ophiostoma minus*.

7.1. ABSTRACT:

The mitochondrial small subunit ribosomal RNA (*rns*) gene of the ascomycetous fungus *Ophiostoma minus* was found to be invaded with several group I and group II introns. In the *O. minus* WIN(M)371 *rns* gene, group IC2 and group IIB1 introns are inserted at positions mS569 and mS952 respectively. The mS569 intron encodes a double motif LHEase (I-OmiI) from an ORF located partially within the P9.1 region and extending downstream into the P5b region where the start codon is located. The mS952 intron also encodes a double motif LHEase (I-OmiII) from an ORF embedded within domain III of the group II intron. Codon-optimized versions of these ORFs, I-OmiI and I-OmiII, sequences were synthesized based on differences between the fungal mitochondrial and bacterial genetic code. The optimized ORFs were cloned into expression vectors and transformed into *E. coli* BL21 star (DE3) for protein expression. Characterization of the protein showed that: I-OmiII is a functional HEase that cleaves the target site two nucleotides upstream (sense strand) of the intron insertion site, generating 4 nucleotide 3' overhangs. The endonuclease activity of I-OmiII was tested using a variety of possible substrates and the optimum temperature of I-OmiII was also estimated. The *in vitro* cleavage assays of I-OmiI indicate that this enzyme is an active

HEase but the pET expression system and the Ni-NTA purification method might not be suitable to express and purify the enzyme in a soluble form in sufficient concentration to allow for complete biochemical characterization.

7.2. INTRODUCTION:

HEases are encoded by HEGs which are embedded within group I introns, group II introns and archaeal introns, as well as inteins. HEases are named based on conserved amino acid motifs. The LAGLIDADG and GIY-YIG families of HEases are most frequently encountered among fungal mitochondrial group I introns (Stoddard, 2006). Enzymes possessing the LAGLIDADG motif cleave DNA generating four-base 3'-OH overhangs at their DNA target sites. The DNA recognition sequences are generally asymmetrical and long (14-40 bp; Stoddard, 2006; Belfort & Roberts, 1997). Double motif LHEases act as monomers, and possess a pair of structurally similar nuclease domains on a single peptide chain, and are therefore not constrained to symmetric DNA targets (Agaard et al., 1997; Dalgaard et al., 1997; Lucas et al. 2001) like their single motif LHEase ancestors (Haugen and Bhattacharya 2004). HEases usually target cognate alleles that lack HEGs or introns. HEases have specific target sites, but with some allowance for sequence variation in their recognition sites. This potentially allows for the propagation of HEases against the forces of evolutionary drift which might modify the homing site within its host gene.

HEases require long DNA recognition sites and therefore cut infrequently within a genome; this makes them useful for DNA engineering and genomics. HEases can be engineered to cleave at desired locations and therefore HEases can become site specific tools that can be used to target specific genes for gene replacement (Stoddard, 2011). Strategies are also being developed that would allow for therapeutic applications of HEases that target genes associated with human diseases (Barzel et al., 2011). Recently the value of native HEases has been demonstrated by Takeuchi et al. (2011) on work based on HEGs inserted within the mtDNA *rps3* gene; these HEGs were first characterized in ophiostomatoid fungi such as *Ophiostoma novo-ulmi* subspecies *americana* and *Letographium truncatum* (Gibb and Hausner, 2006; Sethuraman et al., 2009a & 2009b). In the current study we examine potential HEases encoded within *rns* introns in the blue-stain fungus *Ophiostoma minus*. This species is an economically important agent of blue-stain (sap-stain) to various pine species (Gorton and Webber, 2000) and this fungus has been demonstrated to be a pathogen of pine (Masuya et al., 2003; Gorton et al., 2004; BenJamaa et al., 2007). Blue-stain is a discoloration in the wood of infected trees or timber and this stain can greatly reduce the value of the wood (Zink and Fengel 1990).

Our goals in the current study were to characterize recently discovered HEG-like sequences within the *rns* gene of *O. minus* (Chapter 4 & Hafez and Hausner, 2011a). The HEGs were noted in introns ms569 and mS952 and the corresponding proteins are named I-OmiI and I-OmiII respectively. This work involved the over expression of the intron

encoded proteins and its purification, and to examine the potential endonuclease activity of these enzymes. In addition we mapped the HEase cleavage sites.

7.3. METHODS OVERVIEW:

Codon optimized versions of I-OmiI and I-OmiII were cloned into pET200/D-TOPO expression vector and cloned into *E. coli* BL21 (DE3) and IPTG used to induce the expression of both proteins. The 6xHis-tagged I-OmiI and I-OmiII proteins were purified and the endonuclease activity for each enzyme was tested *in vitro* and finally the cleavage site of I-OmiII was mapped. For detailed methodology see Chapter 2 (for I-OmiI and I-OmiII), and Appendix 9.2. (for preliminary work on the overexpression and purification of I-OmiI).

7.4. RESULTS:

7.4.1. *O. minus* rns and the O.mi-mS569 and mS952 introns:

The *rns* gene of *O. minus* WIN(M)371 (accession number HQ292071) was amplified and sequenced previously (see Chapter 4), and the gene was found to be interrupted by group I and group II introns at positions mS569 and mS952 respectively (Figure 7.1.). The mS569 and mS952 introns encode double motif LHEases (I-OmiI and I-OmiII respectively), the former encodes a 370-amino acid protein (accession number HQ 292082), while the later encodes a 306-amino acid protein (accession number HQ292080). The RT-PCR analysis was applied to study the splicing of *O. minus* WIN(M)371 mS569 and mS952 introns *in vivo* and the results showed that both introns can spliced out from the pre-RNA (Figure 7.2.).

Figure 7.1. A schematic overview of the *O. minus* WIN(M)371 *rns* gene showing the various intron types. The introns are located at positions S569 and S952 with reference to the *E. coli* SSU rRNA sequence. The O.mi-mS569 is a group IC2 intron, while the O.mi-S952 intron is a group IIB1 intron and they both encode I-OmiI and I-OmiII double motif LHEases respectively.

Figure 7.1.

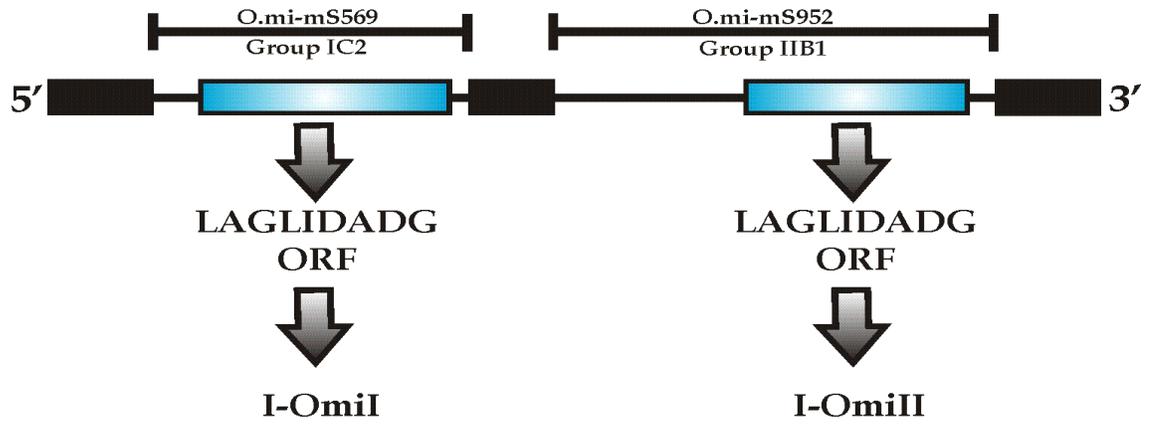
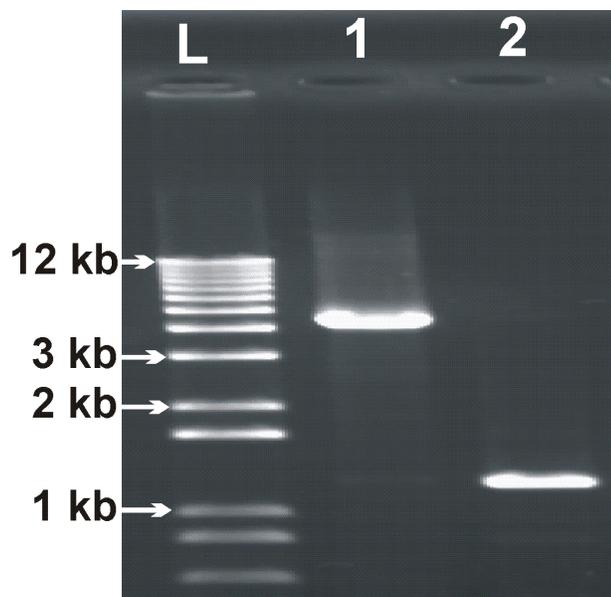


Figure 7.2. RT-PCR analysis for demonstrating the *in vivo* splicing of the O.mi-mS569 and O.mi-mS952 introns. The *rns* transcripts for the *O. minus* WIN(M)371 were analyzed by RT-PCR. The standard PCR reaction using genomic DNA as a template is shown in lane 1 and it generated a 4.4-kb fragment. The amplicon length for the cDNA was 1.2 kb (lane 2) indicating that both O.mi-mS569 and O.mi-mS952 introns were spliced out. The lane marked “L” contains the 1 kb plus ladder (Invitrogen).

Figure 7.2.



7.4.2. Expression and purification of I-OmiI:

I-OmiI was over expressed in *E. coli* BL21 and the results showed that, I-OmiI was only found in the insoluble fraction; this may be due to misfolding and aggregation of the protein. Several methods have been applied to increase the solubility of I-OmiI, such as slowing down the growth of *E. coli* to allow for the proper folding of the enzyme or preventing the expressed proteins from aggregating together, or by treating the cell lysate with DNase in the presence of high salt concentration in order to dissociate the protein from the DNA. Overall it was determined that using sarkosyl (0.5-2 % w/v) was the most efficient method for solubilizing the protein from inclusion bodies (Figure 7.3. & Figure 9.2.5.; see Appendix 9.2. for more details on the various approaches utilized to improve the expression and purification of this protein from *E. coli*).

7.4.3. *In vitro* cleavage assay of I-OmiI:

Briefly it can be stated that the endonuclease activity of I-OmiI partially solubilized from inclusion bodies was tested against the substrate plasmid pCR4/1574 (i.e. contains I-OmiI target site). The *in vitro* cleavage assay results (Figure 7.4.) showed that I-OmiI appears to be an active HEase that recognized a site in the pCR4/1574 substrate plasmid and therefore generated a linearized molecule with a length of 5.2 kb. Another experiment to test the endonuclease activity of I-OmiI against the substrate plasmid pCR4/1574 was carried out using the 60% fraction of the ammonium sulphate crude cell lysate, which contained the over expressed I-OmiI protein (see Figure 9.2.6., Appendix 9.2.), and the results again showed that I-OmiI potentially is an active HEase.

Figure 7.3. Purification of I-Omi-I solubilized from inclusion bodies with sarkosyl (0.5:2 % w/v). The SDS-PAGE (10%) gel shows the results of the I-OmiI purification by Ni-NTA resin (Qiagen). Lanes are indicated as follows: S1 = supernatant without sarkosyl; S2 = supernatant with 0.5% sarkosyl; M = protein marker (BioRad); FT = Flow through; E = elution fractions (E1 and E2, 125 mM imidazole; E3 and E4, 250 mM imidazole). I-OmiI was eluted from S2 fraction. The red arrow indicates the 43 kDa I-Omi-I protein (the expected size of I-Omi-I is 40 kDa, but the size increases due to the N-terminal fusion tag).

Figure 7.3.

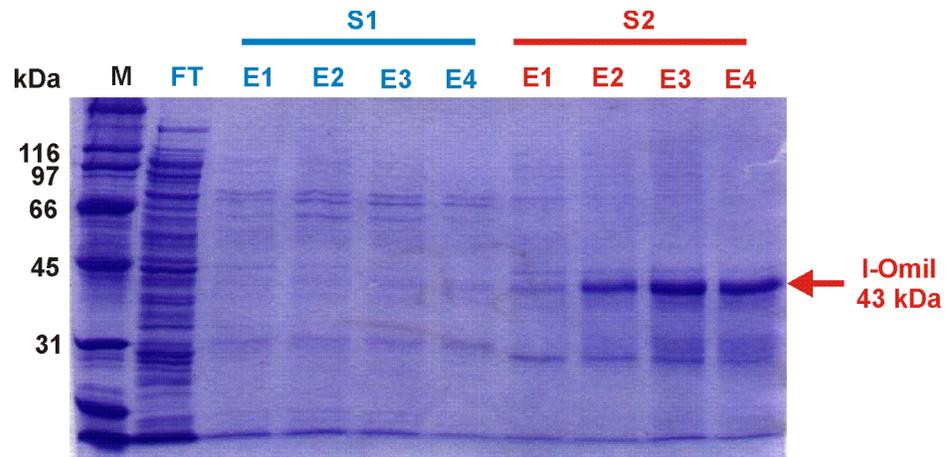
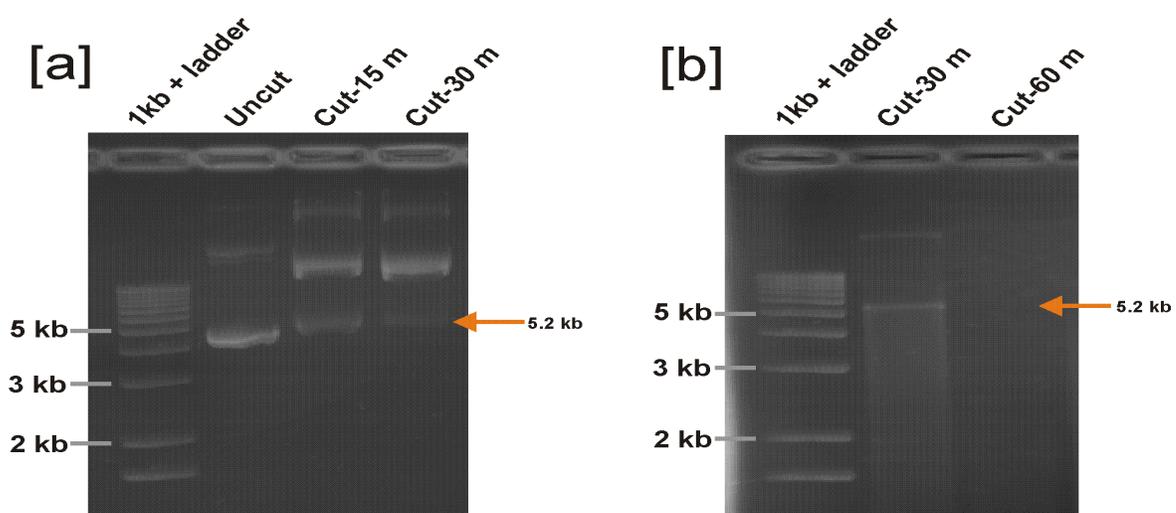


Figure 7.4. *In vitro* endonuclease assay for I-OmiI. The enzyme was incubated with [a] high template concentration (25ng/μl) for 15 and 30 minutes and [b] low template concentration (5ng/μl) for 30 and 60 minutes.

Figure 7.4.



7.4.4. Expression and purification of I-OmiII:

After the induction period cells were harvested and lysed to prepare the clear lysate, which was used to purify the I-OmiII protein with the Ni-NTA resin. Purification of I-OmiII was then monitored by SDS-PAGE (Figure 7.5.). The clear lysate fraction displayed several bands and a major protein of 37 kDa was detected. The expected molecular weight of I-OmiII is 34 kDa, and due to the presence of the N-terminal fusion tag the size of I-OmiII has increased to 37 kDa. The 37 kDa band dominates the elution fractions (Figure 7.5. [a]), but in order to remove the non-specific bands, a second purification step was carried out using a HiTrap heparin HP column (GE Healthcare Europe). The applied sample was eluted with NaCl starting at 200 mM up to 900 mM NaCl in 100 mM intervals. The I-OmiII protein was eluted in the 400, 500 and 600 mM NaCl fractions (Figure 7.5. [b]). These three fractions were combined and concentrated with the Amicon[®] Ultra centrifugal filter (Millipore Corporation, Billerica, MA, USA).

7.4.5. *In vitro* cleavage assay I-OmiII:

I-OmiII endonuclease activity was tested *in vitro* by incubating I-OmiII with circular (Figure 7.6. [a]) and linearized versions of the substrate plasmid (Figure 7.6. [b]). The endonuclease activity of I-OmiII was tested at three time points (0, 30 and 60 min), and the results showed that I-OmiII completely cleaves and linearized the substrate plasmid (pCR4/1574) after 60 min, I-OmiII also cleaved the substrate plasmid linearized with *NcoI* enzyme into two fragments (2194 and 2973 bp).

Figure 7.5. Purification of I-OmiII. **[a]** SDS-PAGE (10%) gel of I-OmiII purification by Ni-NTA resin (Qiagen). Lanes are indicated as follows: M = marker; CL = clear lysate; FT = flow through; W wash, and E = elution. I-OmiII was washed with a narrow range of imidazole (20, 30 and 40 mM) and eluted in three fractions E1 (125 mM imidazole), E2 and E3 (250 mM imidazole). The red arrow marked the 37 kDa I-OmiII protein (the expected size of I-OmiII is 34 kDa, but the size increase due to the N-terminal fusion tag). **[b]** 10% SDS-PAGE gel for the second purification step of I-OmiII. The elution fractions (E1-E3) from the first purification step were combined and applied to a HiTrap heparin HP column (GE Healthcare) and then washed with one column volume wash buffer over a range of 200 mM to 900 mM NaCl as indicated by the red left-facing triangle. The I-OmiII eluted in three fractions (400, 500 and 600 mM NaCl).

Figure 7.5.

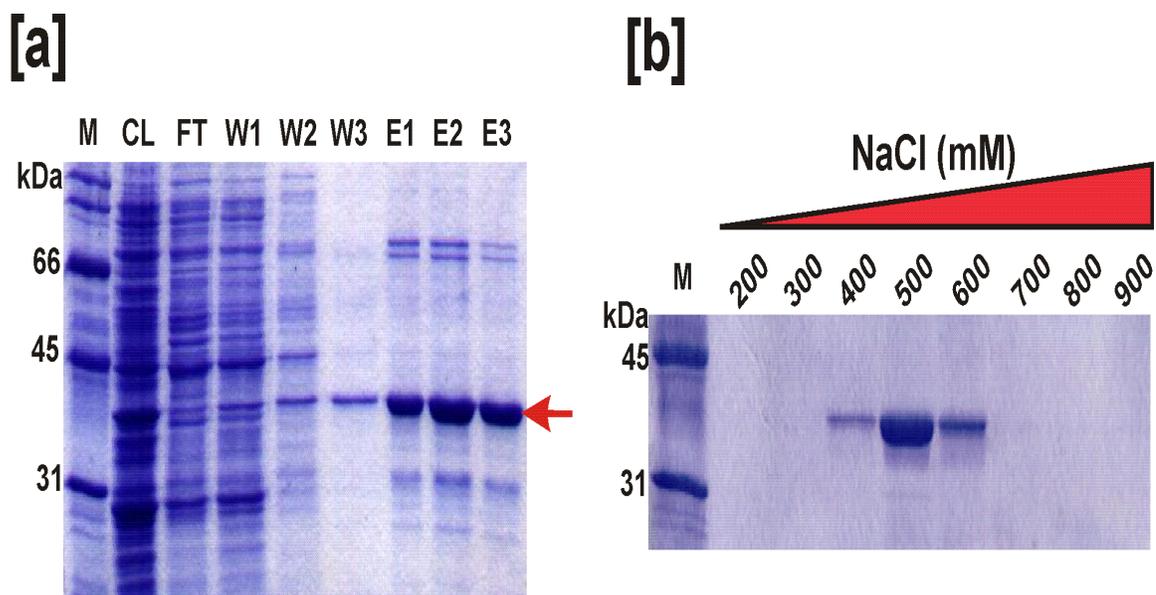
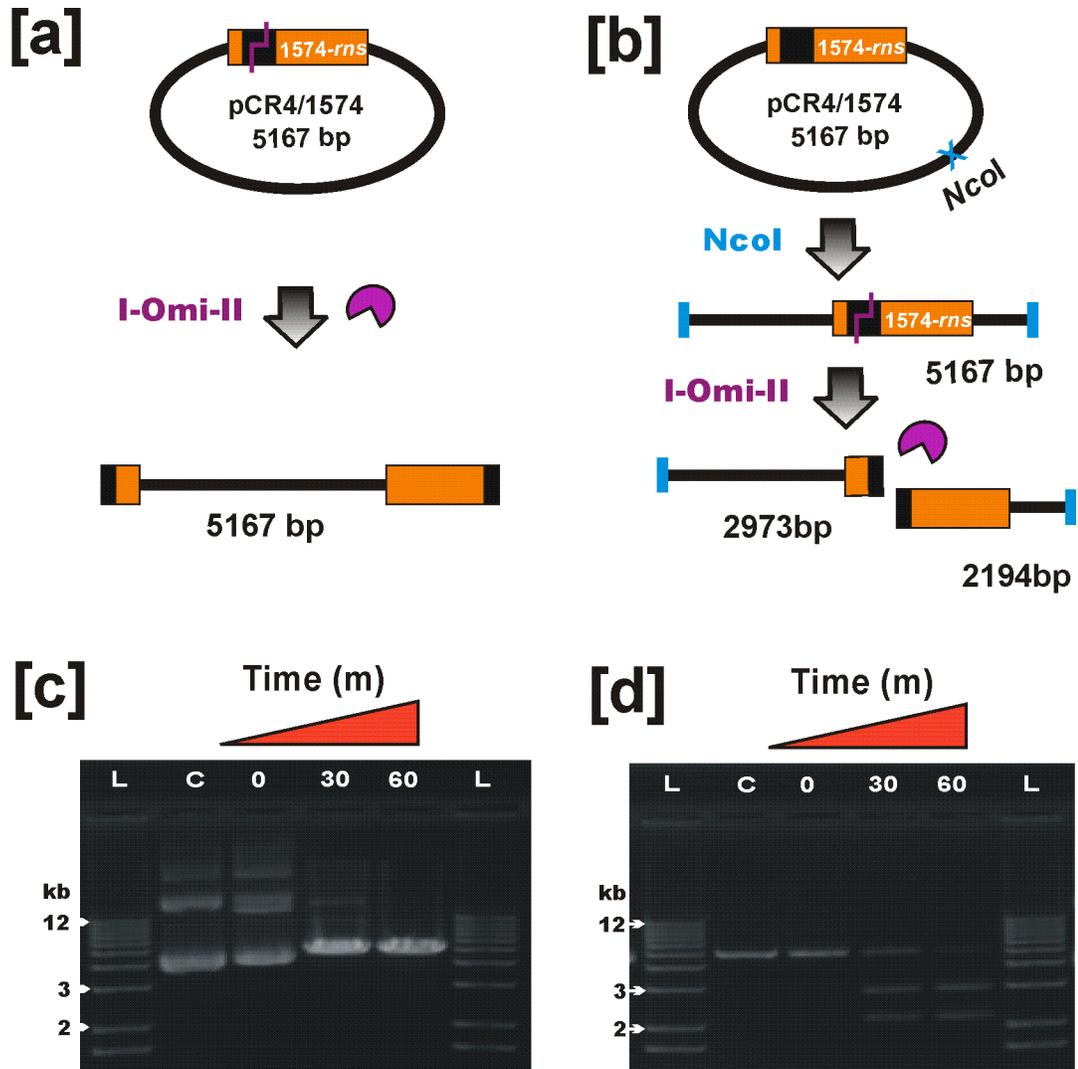


Figure 7.6. *In vitro* cleavage assay with I-OmiII. Schematic representation [a] and gel image [c] for the ability of I-OmiII (purple pac-man symbol) to cleave/linearize the pCR4/1574 plasmid, which contains the mt-*rns* gene (orange box) with the recognition site of I-OmiII (black box). The circular pCR4/1574 plasmid incubated with I-OmiII for 0, 30 and 60 minutes. I-OmiII completely linearized the plasmid after 1 hour generating a 5167 bp fragment. Schematic representation [b] and gel image [d] for the ability of I-OmiII to cleave the pCR4/1574 plasmid that was previously linearized with *Nco*I. The linearized plasmid was also incubated with I-OmiII for 0, 30 and 60 minutes and the protein cleaved the template into two fragments (2194 and 2973 bp).

Figure 7.6.



The endonuclease activity of I-OmiII was also tested in comparison with the *NcoI* REase, the pCR4/1574 was incubated with I-OmiII and *NcoI* (separately) and the results indicated that I-OmiII completely cleaved the substrate plasmid as efficiently as *NcoI* (Figure 7.7.; lanes 3 and 4 respectively). In contrast, no cleavage was observed when I-OmiII was incubated with the pCR4/371 plasmid (linearized with *NcoI*); this plasmid is a negative control as the I-OmiII recognition site is interrupted with the mS952 intron (Figure 7.8.).

7.4.6. I-OmiII Cleavage site mapping:

Usually, LHEases cleave the target site generating 4 nucleotide 3' overhangs. The ability of T4 DNA polymerase to catalyze the repair of 5' overhangs and the hydrolysis of 3' overhangs can be used to determine the cleavage patterns produced by endonucleases. Sequencing of the religated I-OmiII cleaved, T4 DNA polymerase treated pCR4/1574 plasmid showed that 4 nucleotides had been removed, GTAT (sense strand); these four nucleotides therefore represent the 3' 4 nt overhangs generated by the I-OmiII endonuclease. With regards to the sense strand this HEase cleaves 2 nucleotides upstream of the mS952 intron insertion site (Figure 7.9.).

7.4.7. Optimum temperature for I-OmiII endonuclease activity:

The ability of I-OmiII to cleave the linearized substrate plasmid (pCR4/574) was tested at different temperatures (from 10 °C to 90 °C). I-OmiII is active and cleaves the recognition site in a wide temperature range (from 10 °C to 50 °C), and the highest activity was recorded when incubating the enzyme at 40 °C (Figure 7.10.).

Figure 7.7. Comparison between the endonuclease activity of the LHEase I-OmiII and the REase *NcoI*. The pCR4/1574 plasmid which contains the recognition site of both I-OmiII (black box), and *NcoI* (blue X) was incubated with *NcoI* and/or I-OmiII for 60 minutes at 37 °C. Lanes 1 and 6 contain the 1 kb plus ladder; lane 2 contains undigested pCR4/1574; lane 3 contains pCR4/1574 digested with *NcoI* REase; lane 4 contains pCR4/1574 digested with I-OmiII; lane 5 contains pCR4/1574 digested with both *NcoI* and I-OmiII.

Figure 7.7.

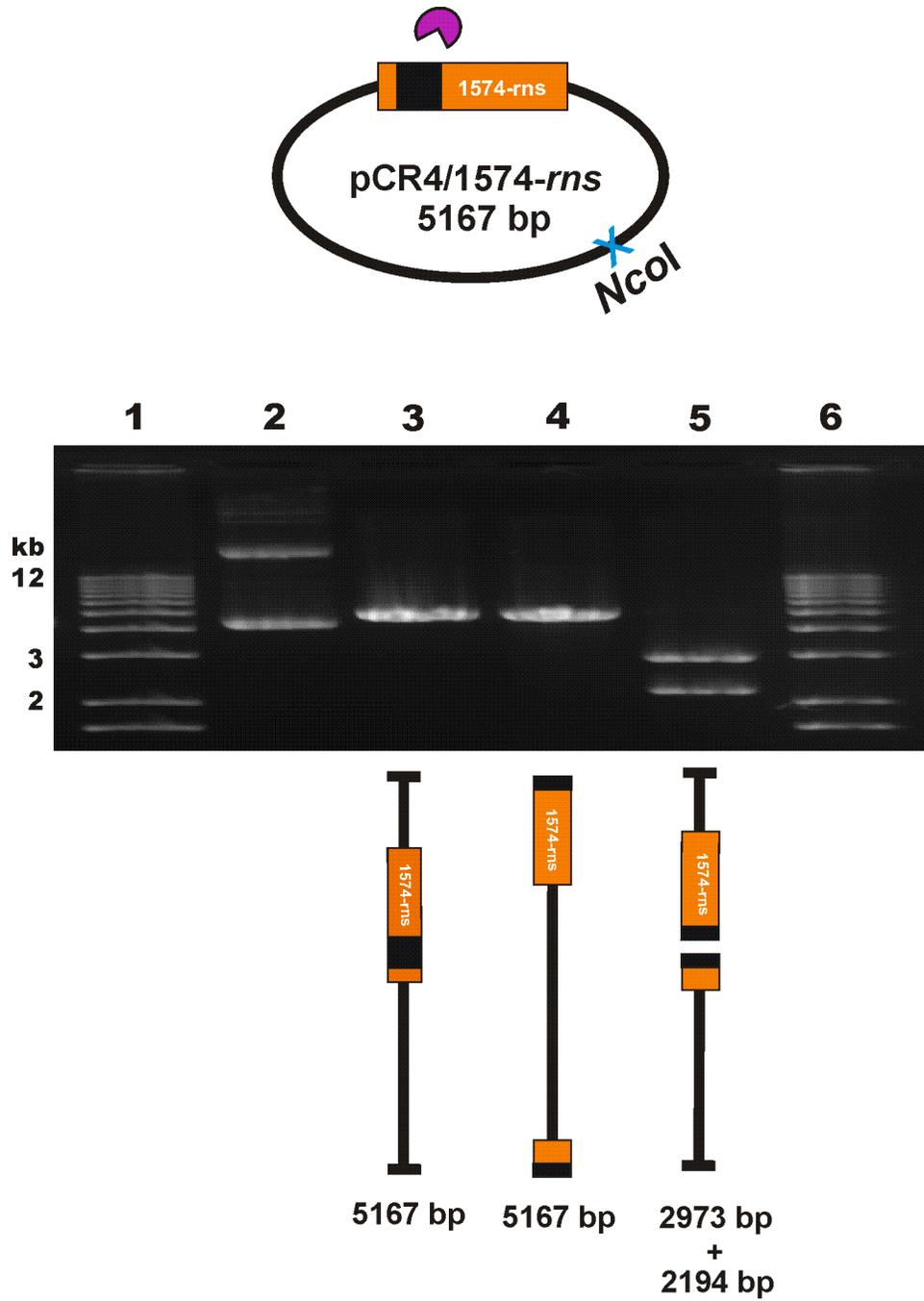
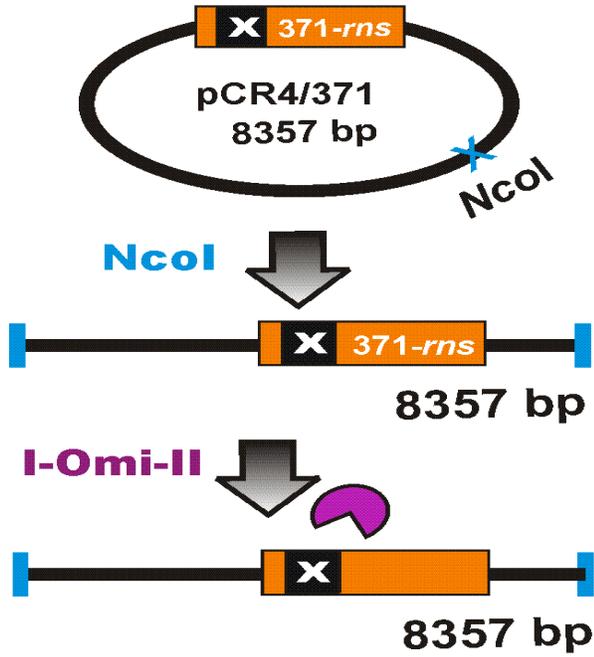


Figure 7.8. A schematic representation [a] and gel image [b] of the *in vitro* cleavage assay with I-OmiII. The plasmid pCR4/371 contains the *rns* gene amplified from *O. minus* WIN(M)371 (orange bar). The I-OmiII recognition site is interrupted with mS952 intron (black box with x mark). The pCR4/371 was initially linearized with *Nco*I to generate a 8357 bp fragment (lane C) and then incubated with I-OmiII (purple pac-man symbol) for 0, 30 and 60 m (lanes 0, 30 & 60 respectively). I-OmiII failed to cleave the linearized plasmid because the enzyme's recognition site is interrupted by the mS952 intron.

Figure 7.8.

[a]



[b]

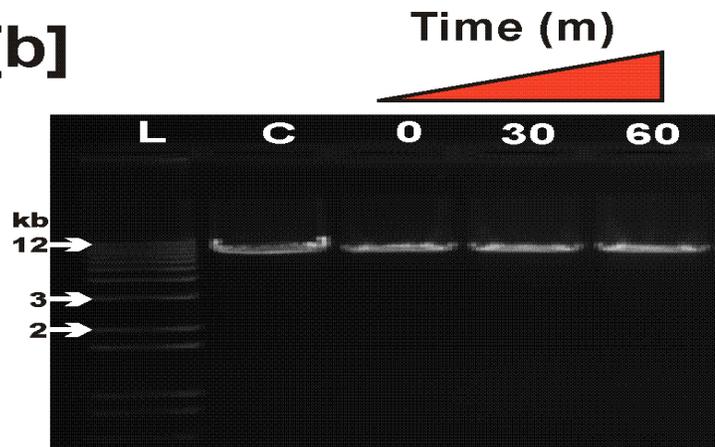


Figure 7.9. [a] Cleavage site mapping of I-OmiII by DNA sequencing of the pCR4/1574 and pCR4/1574-T4 plasmids. The pCR4/1574-T4 plasmid was obtained from pCR4/1574 which was cleaved with I-OmiII (purple pac-man symbol) generating 4 nucleotide 3' overhangs and then blunt ended with T4 DNA polymerase. **[b]** Schematic representation of the *rns* sequence that flanks the mS952 intron insertion site (I.S.; represented by blue double head arrow). The cleavage site of I-OmiII (C.S.; represented by dashed line) is found to be 2 and 6 nucleotides upstream of the intron insertion site for the sense and antisense strands respectively.

Figure 7.9.

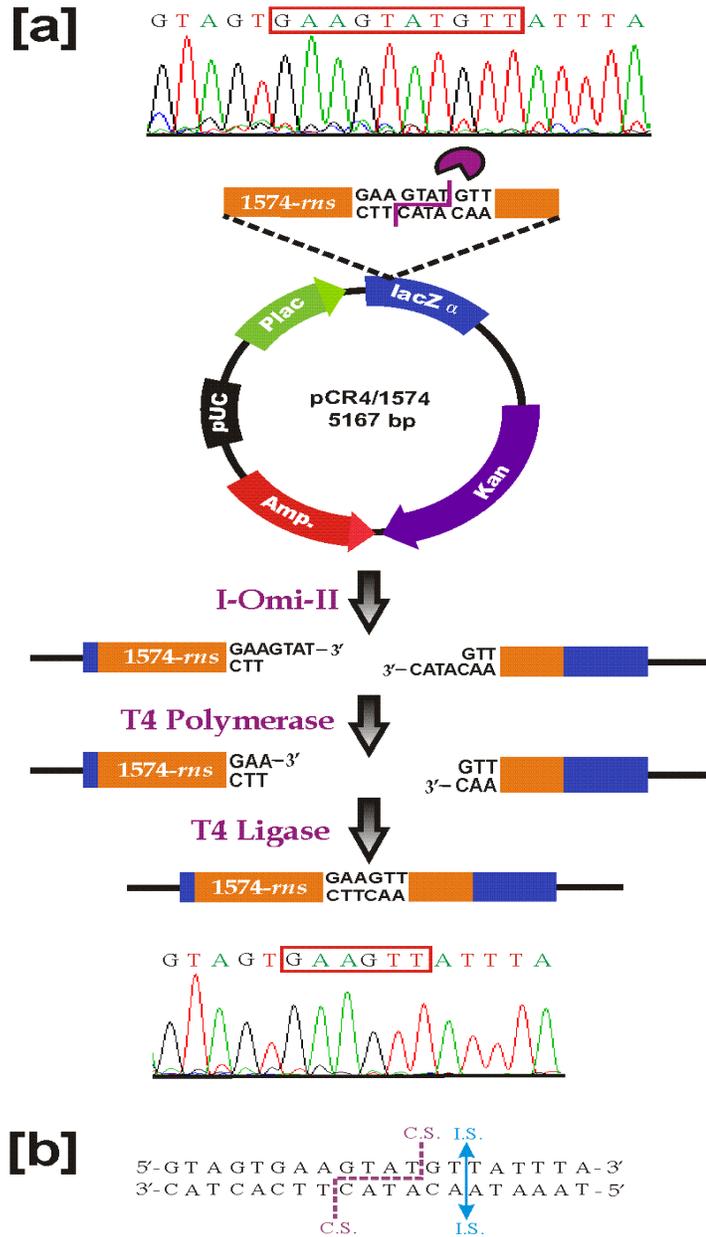
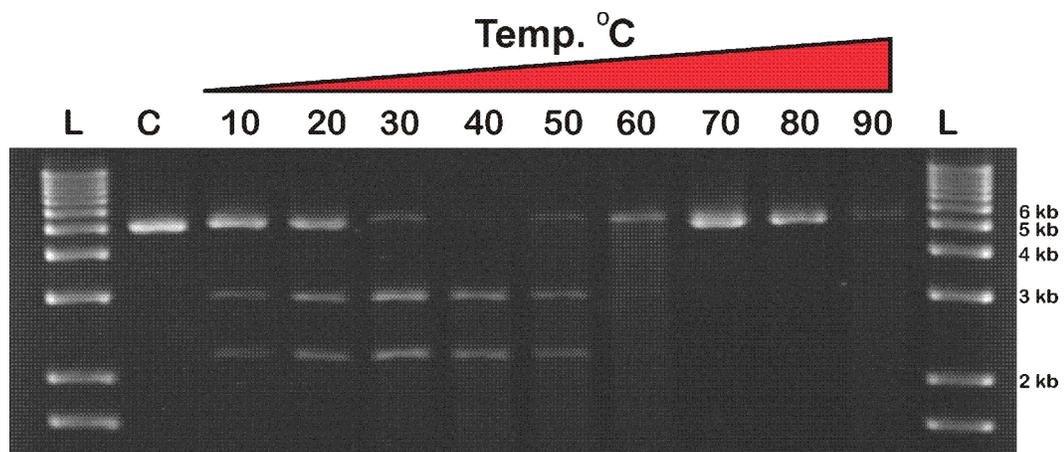


Figure 7.10. Effect of temperature on I-OmiII endonuclease activity. The C (= control) lane contains the linearized substrate plasmid (pCR4/1574) without being treated with I-OmiII, while the L lanes contain 1 kb plus DNA ladder (Invitrogen).

Figure 7.10.



7.5. DISCUSSION:

The *rns* gene of *O. minus* WIN(M)371 was found to be interrupted by two introns, the mS569 group IC2 intron and the mS952 group IIB1 intron and they both encode double motif LHEases. The study demonstrated that the blue-stain fungi are a reservoir for native HEGs that appear to be active and thus could be used in various biotechnological applications.

7.5.1. Comments on I-OmiI HEase:

Preliminary work on the overexpression and purification of I-OmiI (see Appendix 9.2.) indicate that this enzyme could be an active HEase, but the pET expression system and the Ni-NTA purification method might not be suitable to express and purify the enzyme in a soluble form in sufficient concentration to allow for complete biochemical characterization. During this study it was repeatedly noticed that the I-OmiI did not “stick” to the Ni NTA column, suggesting that the 6xHis-Tag on the protein was not effective. This could be the result of misfolding of the N-terminal segment of the protein and thus the 6xHis-Tag is not accessible or available for binding to any ligand. Using a C-terminal 6xHis-Tag I-OmiI protein also did not solve this problem, as the C-terminus 6xHis-Tag enzyme also did not bind to the Ni-NTA resin exactly like the N-terminus 6xHis-tagged protein. In order to overcome this problem, other expression systems might have to be explored. For example the pMAL protein fusion and purification system (New England BioLabs) might be an alternative system; there are claims that it is more suitable for proteins that are difficult to purify due to solubility issues or an ineffective His-Tag.

7.5.2. Comments on I-OmiII HEase:

This study showed that the mS952 IEP is an active endonuclease that cleaves 2 nt upstream of the intron insertion site in a cognate allele that lacks the intron. This is the second example of an mS952 group II intron encoding an active LAGLIDADG type HEase. Previously it was demonstrated that in the mitotic species (asexual) *Leptographium truncatum* the mS952 group II intron encodes an active LAGLIDADG type HEase that did not appear to act as a maturase for the intron, but was capable of providing a means for mobility for this composite mobile element (Mullineux et al., 2010). This study now demonstrates that the mS952 intron in a sexual species also encodes an active HEase; this is important as for future work involving genetic manipulations and demonstrating mobility of this intron in crosses in a host species with a meiotic life cycle is absolutely essential. *Ophiostoma minus* might therefore become a suitable model system for studying group II introns that gained group I intron ORFs (Toor and Zimmerly, 2002; Mullineux et al., 2010). Goddard and Burt (1999) suggested a life cycle of HEGs consisting of 3 stages: horizontal transmission and fixation, followed by degeneration and eventually a precise loss. So in more detail the cycle starts with a HEG invading a site possibly within a self-splicing intron leading to the formation of a mobile intron/HEG composite element which spreads within a population by the help of the HEase activity of the HEG.

Eventually the HEase facilitates the invasion of all possible homing/target sites, at this point the HEG is no longer under selection pressure and starts to accumulate mutations and thus it will degenerate. In general mobile introns are viewed as neutral

elements in order to avoid damaging the host genome; however that means that natural selection will not act on this element and thus there is no selection for fitness. The degeneration stage facilitates the removal of the HEG and the intron from the genome. This event actually regenerates a possible homing site that will allow the homing cycle to be repeated. So, the presence of an active HEG (i.e. encoding an active protein) could be viewed as an indicator for a more recent DNA transfer event and thus one can speculate that the mS952 group II intron might still be in the invasion part of the HEG life cycle and maybe this group II introns has adapted towards a DNA-based mobility mechanism by acquiring a HEase ORF. Li et al. (2011) studied mitochondrial group IIB1 introns with unusual 5' terminal nucleotides insertions (1-33 nts inserted between the 5' exon and the consensus sequence, GUGYG, in the intron's 5' end), and the conclusion of this study was that these introns are adapted to DNA based mobility by encoding LHEase from within their DIII or DIV component of the group II introns.

7.5.3. The role of I-OmiII in mS952 intron mobility:

Mapping the cleavage site of I-OmiII indicated that the enzyme recognizes and cleaves the intron-less version of the *O. minus rns* gene 2 nucleotides upstream to the mS952 intron insertion site, as observed for similar LHEases (I-LtrII: Mullineux et al., 2010). This observation might reflect an expected role of I-OmiII protein in the mobility of its hosting intron (mS952), and the relationship between the mS952 group II intron and I-OmiII HEase could be a mutually beneficial relationship. The mS952 intron (as a self-splicing element) provides a neutral insertion site for the I-OmiII HEG, which would avoid disrupting the host gene; at the same time, I-OmiII initiates the mobility of mS952

intron (along with the I-OmiII ORF). More often, HEGs are associated with group I introns and inteins and due to the broad distribution of HEGs among unrelated elements it has been proposed that HEGs and their hosts (introns or inteins) have evolved independently (Dalgaard et al., 2009). So most likely I-OmiII invaded a group II intron, maybe by transferring from a group I intron to an ORF-less group II intron.

7.5.4. I-OmiI and I-OmiII as genome editing tools:

As described in Chapter 1, HEases can be engineered to target certain genes in human (gene therapy; Marcaida et al., 2010), plants (genome editing and targeted mutagenesis; Gao et al., 2010) or insects (pest control; Windbichler et al., 2011). However, enzyme engineering is a lengthy process and is expensive. Another draw back of engineered/manufactured HEases is the possibility of off-target effects which are very difficult to predict for synthetic HEases (Szczeppek et al., 2007). On the other hand, with naturally occurring (native) HEases, the off-target effects (which could be toxic) may be more predictable (Barzel et al., 2011). Tapping the natural reservoir of native HEases could be an easier alternative to engineered HEases (Barzel et al., 2011; Takeuchi et al., 2011), but these HEases should be studied in more detail, including co-crystallizing these proteins with their native substrates. These experiments may show exactly how the proteins bind to their target sites and which amino acids might be involved in target site specificity. This may also provide a “blue print” for understanding the protein scaffold for DNA binding specificity and cleavage activity and may provide insight into what amino acids could be changed to retarget the HEase. Also data bases are currently being assembled that show HEases and their target sites and these can be screened against

sequences representing genes of interest that contain segments that are identical or highly similar to HEase target sites (i.e. can these HEases eventually be used in their native form or modified form to be used in biotechnology such as controlling pests or in gene replacement type experiments).

Both I-OmiI and I-OmiII could be powerful tools for targeting human genes involved in monogenic diseases. So as stated above using currently available data bases for endonucleases (Roberts et al. 2010) or NCBI databases using the I-OmiI and I-OmiII target sequences as queries, one can start to formulate strategies for targeting sequences in pathogenic organisms, vectors of pathogens or sequences in human genes involved in diseases. Essentially the next task is to scan for sequences that are identical or highly similar to the target sites for both I-OmiI and I-OmiII (see appendix 9.8. for more details about these sequence similarities). Also future efforts should include structural analysis of these proteins when bound to the native substrate; the crystal structure of I-OmiI and I-OmiII would provide a contact map showing the exact amino acid/DNA sequence interactions providing valuable information on strategies that could be used to modify the binding and cleavage activities of these DNA cutting enzymes.

CHAPTER: 8
GENERAL CONCLUSION

The *rns* genes of several groups of ophiostomatoid fungi have been examined, sequenced, and annotated in order to assess if these genes are a natural reservoir of mobile introns and intron-encoded proteins. In part, this work may also contribute towards a better understanding of the evolution of fungal mtDNAs. This study also provides useful information about the evolutionary dynamics of mobile introns and intron encoded-proteins, especially LHEases (Haugen and Bhattacharya, 2004). An overview of the various types of introns (group I and II) and intron-encoded proteins (HEases and RTs) that can invade the *rns* gene was generated and these observations may be a resource for those who try to annotate fungal mitochondrial genomes. This work also demonstrated that the *rns* gene is a good target for bioprospecting for potentially active HEases and ribozymes that have applications in biotechnology (Hausner, 2003; Gimble, 2005; Lambowitz et al., 2005; Marcaida et al., 2010; Lambowitz and Zimmerly, 2010).

8.1. Major findings of this thesis:

8.1.1. Characterization of a molecular marker to distinguish between *O. ulmi* and *O. novo-ulmi* subsp. *americana*:

In areas where both *O. ulmi* and *O. novo-ulmi* still exist, a molecular marker might be an alternative to cultural methodologies for distinguishing these two species. Due to the potential for the various DED agents to hybridize, monitoring for the presence of *O. ulmi* might be valuable in risk assessment for predicting future pandemics of DED.

In this study, we evaluated if the O.ul-mS952 intron could be used as a molecular marker that allows for the differentiation between strains of *O. ulmi* and *O. novo-ulmi* subsp. *americana*. The mS952 intron was absent in what is considered to be the more aggressive species, *Ophiostoma novo-ulmi*, but present in strains representing the less aggressive *Ophiostoma ulmi*. This study did not show any evidence for the introgression of the O.ul-mS952 intron into the tested *O. novo-ulmi* subsp. *americana* populations. Previously, Sethuraman et al. (2008) presented some evidence that some introns in the mtDNA *rnl* gene can move between these two species. So possibly there is a factor missing that prevents the mS952 intron from establishing itself within the mtDNA of *O. novo-ulmi* subsp. *americana*. In the future a series of forced crosses between these two species including strains with and without the mS952 intron should be initiated to investigate if this intron can cross the species barrier.

8.1.2. Characterization of novel introns and twintrons:

Comparative sequence analysis of the *rns* gene among different species of ophiostomatoid fungi and related taxa provided an overview of the intron landscape for this gene among species of *Ophiostoma* and quite possible other ascomycetes fungi. The *rns* gene appears to be a reservoir for a number of group I and II introns along with intron associated ORFs such as HEases and RTs. Some of the novel findings of this work including the discovery of a twintron complex inserted at position S1247 within the *rns* gene, here a group IIA1 intron invaded the open reading frame embedded within a group IC2 intron. Another new element was discovered within strains of *Ophiostoma minus*, where a group II introns has inserted at the *rns* position S379; the mS379 intron

represents the first mitochondrial group II intron that has an RT-ORF encoded outside Domain IV and it is the first intron reported at position S379. In general the *rns* gene appears to be the target for many mobile elements; this could be due to the conservative nature of rDNA sequences, which avoids the loss of target sites due to drift. Mobile elements such as group I and II introns need target sites that are conserved within species and among species to allow for horizontal transfers. The latter is key to the long term survival of mobile introns and their encoded HEGs.

8.1.3. Biochemical characterization of two novel LHEases: I-OmiI and I-OmiII:

The *rns* gene in strain WIN(M)371 was found to be interrupted with a group IC2 intron at position mS569 and a group IIB1 intron at position mS952 and they both encoded double motif LHEases referred as I-OmiI and I-OmiII respectively. These potential HEases were biochemically characterized and the results showed that both I-OmiI and I-OmiII are functional HEases. Detailed data for I-OmiII showed that this endonuclease cleaves the target site two nucleotides upstream (sense strand) of the intron insertion site generating 4 nucleotide 3' overhangs. These findings confirm the original premise that the *rns* gene might be a good source of active HEases. The work also demonstrates that the *rns* genes and their introns and HEGs form a dynamic segment of the mtDNAs; with still active HEases being present in this gene it makes it possible for these introns to be mobile and invade *rns* genes that lack these introns and HEGs.

During the current study we noticed that the distribution of introns in the *rns* gene is not totally random and the introns appear to select insertion sites within highly conserved sequences. It has been previously reported that introns tend to insert near the tRNA and mRNA binding sites, suggesting a link between intron evolution and rRNA function (Jackson et al., 2002). Mobile introns and associated HEGs are also considered neutral elements that do not impart toxicity or a selectable phenotype to the host genome as HEGs offer their hosting introns the ability to be mobile, and the self-splicing mobile introns provide a neutral insertion site within the host genome. On the other hand, an intron splicing deficiency would be costly to the host; for example splicing deficiency of a mtDNA *rns* group II intron in *C. parasitica* was linked to growth abnormalities and hypovirulence (Baidyaroy et al., 2011). Examples of intron ORF degeneration due to frame shift mutations and the presence of premature stop codons were also observed during this study in a variety of introns suggesting that indeed some introns might be in the process of being eliminated from the *rns* gene. The example of the ms1247 twintron also illustrates the “co-operative” evolution of these elements towards one another whereby the insertion of the group II intron probably does not interfere with the expression of the host intron's ORF. Also, examples where intron ORF sequences overlap with intron core sequences is suggestive of complex co-evolution as the maintenance of the ORF is now under constraint to maintain also the ribozyme component of this composite element.

8.2. Future prospects:

8.2.1. *In vitro* intron splicing for mS915 and mS917 introns:

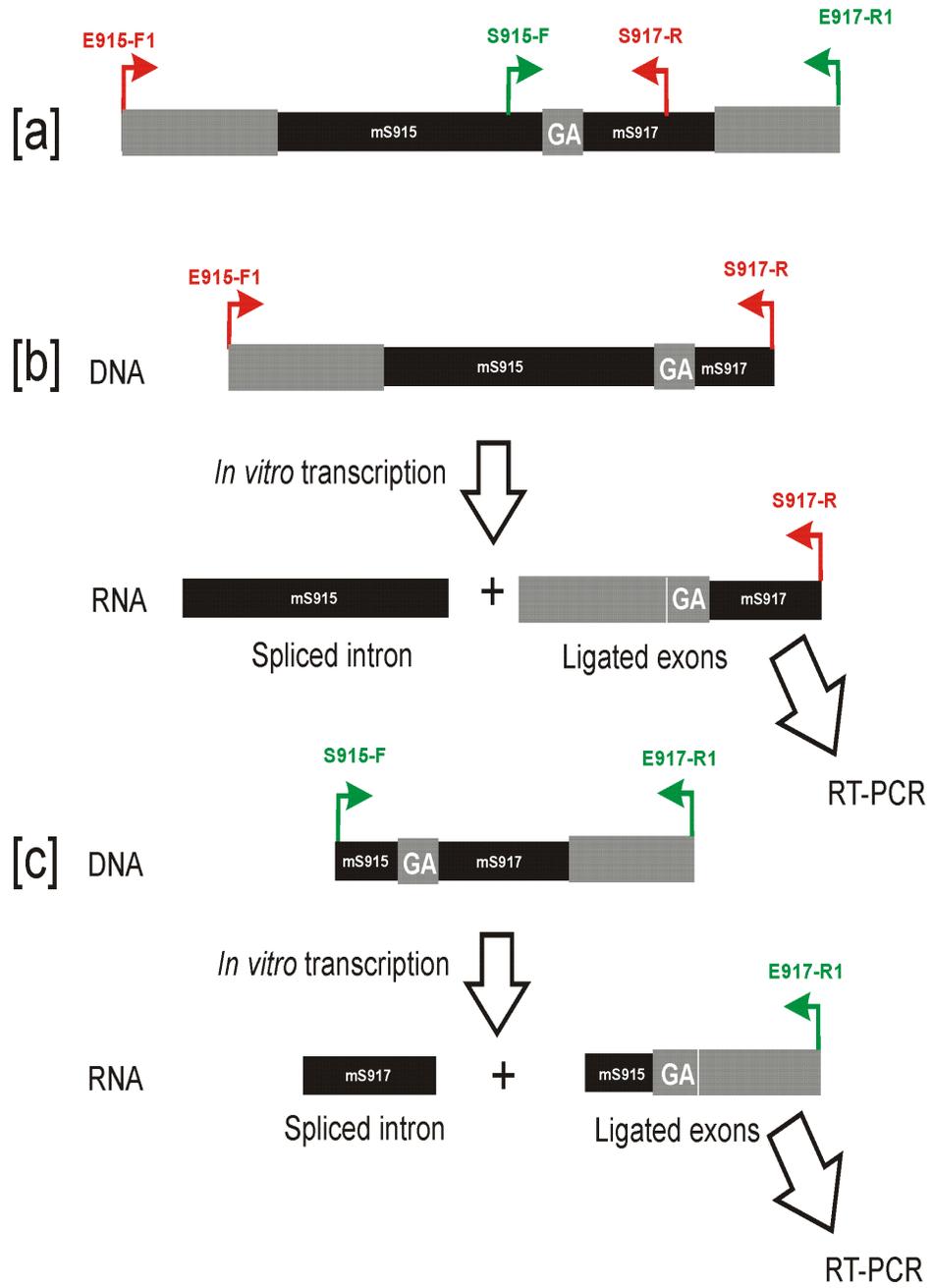
In Chapter 6, two group ID introns (mS915 and mS917) have been identified in the *rns* gene of *Cryphonectria parasitica*. Comparative sequence analysis of the *rns* gene derived from different ascomycetous fungi indicated that these two introns are separated by a very short two nucleotide exon (5'-GA-3'). This would be the shortest exon reported so far in the literature. Previously mtDNA short exons have been reported within the *coxI* genes that are estimated to be three nucleotides long (Cummings et al. 1989; Férandon et al. 2010a). The RT-PCR results for the *C. parasitica rns* gene only confirmed the presence of a two-nucleotide exon but it did not resolve the exact exon-intron junctions for the mS915 and mS917 introns. Currently the exon-intron junctions have been resolved based on secondary structure predictions for the mS915 and mS917 introns (see Figure 6.4., Chapter 6). To physically determine the exon-intron junctions one needs to investigate the actual splicing intermediates.

Studying intron splicing *in vitro* will help to pin point the 5'-GA-3' exon and to identify the exon-intron junctions more accurately. The problem is that there are several GA nucleotide pairs in this regions of the *rns* gene; therefore a method is needed that can discriminate which GA is maintained as an exon. Assuming that the mS915 intron splices first (as it encodes a double motif LHEase and the intron needs the GA exon to form the P10 helix) a transcript intermediate should exist with only the mS917 intron. To study the mS915 and mS917 intron splicing *in vitro*, each intron could be analyzed separately this requires that constructs are made for each intron region that includes about

400 upstream and 400 downstream nucleotides (see Figure 8.1.). The segments can be amplified by PCR and then cloned into suitable plasmids featuring a T7 RNA polymerase promoter. *In vitro* transcription of each PCR fragment could be performed by T7 RNA polymerase followed by splicing reactions that can be resolved by denaturing PAGE. In addition cDNAs can be synthesized for the transcripts by RT-PCR. Finally the cDNA products can be analyzed by sequencing to confirm the exon-intron junctions for each intron (Salman et al., 2012).

Figure 8.1. A schematic representation of a segment of the *C. parasitica rns* gene [a], to show the priming sites of the two primer pairs E915-F1/S-917-R and S915-F/E917-R, that were designed to amplify the mS915 [b] and mS917 [c] introns respectively along with upstream and down stream flanking sequences (see Appendix 9.3. for primer sequences).

Figure 8.1.



8.2.2. Characterize the mS1247 twintron:

A novel twintron element was discovered in the *rns* gene of the ascomycetous fungus *C. thermophilum* strain DSM 1495 (see Chapter 6 for more details). This twintron is inserted at position mS1247 and this element consists of an ORF-less group IIA that interrupts the double motif LAGLIDADG ORF of a group IC2 intron. The mS1247 twintron represents the first described mixed twintron consisting of a group II intron as an internal intron and a group I intron as an external intron and it also represents the first mitochondrial twintron. A secondary structure model for this twintron element was predicted (see Figure 6.5., Chapter 6) and the internal group II intron in the mS1247 twintron contains exon-binding sites (EBSs) complementary to their respective intron-binding sites (IBSs), which are located in the external group I intron ORF.

To confirm the predicted secondary structure model for this twintron, the splicing of the internal and external introns should be further investigated by studying the *in vivo* and *in vitro* splicing of the mS1247 twintron components (see section 2.8, Chapter 2 for *in vivo* splicing detailed methods and section 8.2.1., Chapter 8 for proposed *in vitro* experiment). The *C. thermophilum* mS1247 group IC2 intron component also encodes a putative double motif LHEase (I-CthI-P; the name based on Belfort and Roberts, 1997; P for putative). This HEase could be expressed in *E. coli* and purified to test its endonuclease activity experimentally starting with the same methods that were followed for both I-OmiI and I-OmiII (see Chapter 2 for detailed methodology). This HEase could be involved in providing the twintron with a mechanism for mobility.

8.2.3. *In vivo* cleavage assay of I-OmiI and I-OmiII:

In vitro cleavage assay of any HEases requires the purification of this HEase enzyme in a pure form, but some HEases are very difficult to express and purify as they tend to aggregate within inclusion bodies when expressed in *E. coli*. Also some HEases have been reported to induce cell lysis, which also limits the yields of active protein (Jurica and Stoddard, 1999). For the above mentioned reasons, studying the endonuclease activity *in vivo* (i.e. in *E. coli* cell) could be an alternative to confirm the endonuclease activity of I-OmiI. The latter HEase has proven to be problematic during this study and still needs further characterization.

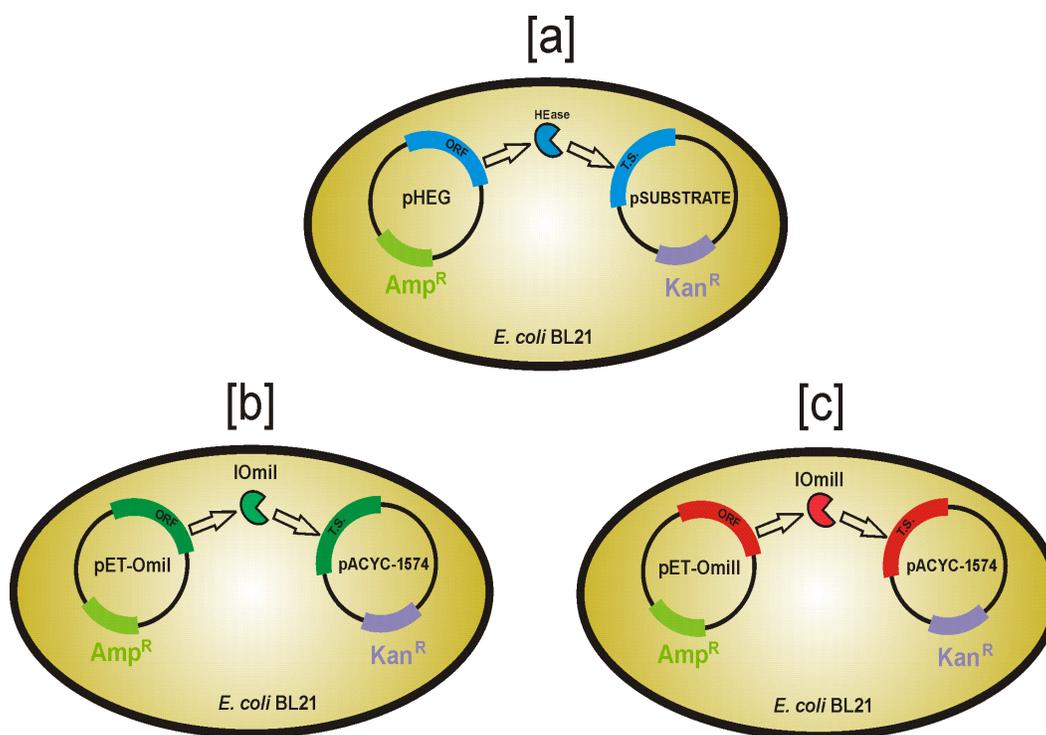
Seligman et al. (1997) presented an *in vivo* selection system that links the survival of *E. coli* cells with HEase-mediated DNA cleavage activity and sequence specificity. In this system, *E. coli* cells are co-transformed with two plasmids, one plasmid contains the HEase ORF (pHEG) and the other plasmid contains the target site of the tested enzyme (pSUBSTRATE) and this substrate plasmid also contains an antibiotic resistant gene (Kan^R). If the HEase is produced in an active form then binding to and cleavage of the target site can be tested as the loss of the Kan^R marker inhibits the ability of *E. coli* cells to grow on kanamycin-containing medium.

In order to test the *in vivo* endonuclease activity of both I-OmiI and I-OmiII, the substrate plasmid pACYC/1574 has already been constructed, which contains the target sites of both I-OmiI and I-OmiII. *E. coli* BL21 cells have been co-transformed with this substrate plasmid and with either one of the HEase expressing plasmids: pET200-OmiI or

pET200-OmiII (contains I-OmiI and I-OmiII ORFs respectively) (Figure 8.2.; see Appendix 9.7. for more information about these bacterial clones). The conditions to optimize the *in vivo* endonuclease assay for these two enzymes are obviously a priority for future efforts.

Figure 8.2. [a] A schematic representation of an *in vivo* endonuclease assay system showing the *E. coli* BL21 cells that are co-transformed with the HEG plasmid (pHEG) which contains the tested HEase ORF (ORF), and the substrate plasmid (pSUBSTRATE) which contains the target site of the tested HEase (T.S.). The two plasmids contain two different antibiotic resistance genes like ampicillin (Amp^R) and kanamycin (Kan^R). [b] and [c] represent the *in vivo* endonuclease assay systems for both I-OmiI and I-OmiII respectively.

Figure 8.2.



8.2.4. X-Ray crystallography of I-OmiII with its native substrate DNA:

Finally to capitalize on the potential of I-OmiII with regards to biotechnology applications the actual DNA binding and cleavage sites need to be fully characterized. This can be resolved by obtaining a crystal structure of I-OmiII HEase when bound to its native target site. Resolving the crystal structure of I-OmiII would represent the first group II-encoded HEase to be characterized in such detail. This work would provide important information about the minimal recognition site of I-OmiII and it would show which amino acid positions are in physical contact with the target DNA, i.e. a contact map. Data from the crystal structure of I-OmiII would also facilitate the engineering of this enzyme to potentially recognize other sequences, as the contact map would identify which amino acids could be targeted for mutagenesis in order to change the target site specificity of the HEase.

CHAPTER 9:
APPENDICES

APPENDIX: 9.1.

IDENTIFICATION OF GROUP I INTRONS WITHIN THE

NUCLEAR SSU rRNA GENE IN SPECIES OF *Ceratocystiopsis* AND

RELATED TAXA. *

9.1.1. ABSTRACT:

During a recent phylogenetic study, group I introns were noted that interrupt the nuclear SSU rDNA gene in species of *Ceratocystiopsis*. Group I introns were found to be inserted at the following rDNA positions: S943, S989, and S1199. The introns have been characterized and phylogenetic analysis of the host gene and the corresponding intron data suggest that for S943 vertical transfer and frequent loss appear to be the most parsimonious explanation for the distribution of nuclear SSU rDNA introns among species of *Ceratocystiopsis*. The SSU rDNA data do suggest that a recent proposal of segregating the genus *Ophiostoma sensu lato* into *Ophiostoma sensu stricto*, *Grosmannia*, and *Ceratocystiopsis* has some merit but may need further amendments, as the SSU rDNA suggests that *Ophiostoma s. str.* may now represent a paraphyletic grouping.

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9.1.2. INTRODUCTION:

Group I introns are self-splicing elements that occur in bacteria, bacteriophages and in the organelles of fungi, plants, protists, and early branching metazoans (sea anemones, sponges and soft corals) (Belfort et al., 2002; Hausner, 2003; Gissi et al., 2008). Group I introns are also found in nuclear ribosomal genes (rDNA) in a wide variety of fungi, algae and protists with lichen fungi being the richest source for group I introns (de Wachter, 1992; Hibbett, 1996; Bhattacharya et al., 1996; Bhattacharya et al., 2002; Lickey et al., 2003; Haugen et al., 2005; Gutiérrez et al., 2007; Feau et al., 2007; Hoshina & Imamura, 2009).

Insertions within the nuclear rDNA usually occur at highly conserved sequences and they are relatively common among the fungi and have been reported from several rDNA positions (Gargas et al., 1995; Cannone et al., 2002); in addition spliceosomal introns have also been discovered in the rDNA of ascomycetes (Bhattacharya et al., 2000). Among the intron rich members of the lichen fungi examples of vertical transmission and horizontal spread of introns have been documented; introns also appear to move to new rDNA sites by reverse splicing into novel rRNA sites (Dujon, 1989; Woodson & Cech, 1989; Grube et al., 1999; Bhattacharya et al., 2000; Martin et al., 2003; Bhattacharya et al., 2005; Haugen et al., 2005). In addition rDNA introns can have a sporadic distribution among phylogenetically closely related fungi suggesting that introns can be gained and lost relatively rapidly (Nikoh & Fukatsu, 2001; Haugen et al., 2005).

Group I introns show minimal primary sequence conservation, but they do have conserved secondary and tertiary structures and these elements are autocatalytic by catalyzing their own excision from an RNA molecule; they can therefore be viewed as ribozymes. Almost all group I introns contain pairing regions referred to as P1 to P10, along with sequence segments that connect these helical regions. The P4-P6 and P3-P9 paired helical domains make up the catalytic core components and the P1 and P10 helices are the substrate domain (includes the internal guide sequence) wherein the 5' and 3' splice sites are juxtaposed to each other (Cech et al., 1994; Woodson, 2005; Lindstrom & Pistolic, 2005). The P3-P7-P9 helix contains the GTP binding pocket; here the 3'OH of an exogenous GTP initiates the splicing reaction that involves two transesterification reactions resulting in the splicing of the exons and the release of the intron RNA (Raghavan & Minnick, 2009). Based on secondary structure characteristics, group I introns were classified initially into two subdivisions: IA and IB (Michel et al., 1982; Cech et al., 1994). However, based on both nucleotide sequences within the conserved core regions and variations within the secondary structure, group I intron classification has been further refined. Currently at least five classes are recognized (IA to IE), and these can be subdivided further e.g., IA1, IC3 etc. (Michel & Westhof, 1990; Suh et al., 1999; Li & Zhang, 2005). Over 20 000 group I introns have been identified in a variety of organisms, and the secondary structures of some group I introns and a list of rDNA intron insertions sites have been compiled in the Comparative RNA Web Site (R. Gutell; <http://www.rna.ccbb.utexas.edu/>, Cannone et al., 2002) and the Group I intron sequence and structure database (Zhou et al., 2008).

Nuclear group I introns usually lack potential open reading frames (ORFs). However, some group I introns belonging to the IC1 and IE subgroups have been noted in some fungi to encode HEases belonging to the His-Cys HEase family (Haugen et al., 2004). Nuclear rDNA group I introns range in size from 250 to 600 nucleotides (nts), although there are examples that exceed 1000 nts (Haugen et al., 2004). There are also highly compact group I introns at 62 to 78 nts and these introns appear to be IC1 introns that only maintained the P1, P7 and P10 paired regions; however they still have self-splicing capacity (Harris & Rogers, 2008).

During a recent study to investigate phylogenetic relationships among selected ophiostomatoid-like fungi, the SSU rDNA gene sequences were examined for members of the fungal genera *Ceratocystiopsis* H.P. Upadhyay & W.B. Kendr., *Grosmannia* Goid. and *Ophiostoma* Syd. & P. Syd. Among these fungi are many economically important tree pathogens and blue-stain fungi (see Wingfield et al., 1993; Hausner & Reid, 2004; Hausner et al., 2005). Members of these genera lack forcible ascospore discharge, have deliquescent asci and form sticky ascospore droplets at the apex of their perithecial necks. These fungi also tend to produce their slimy/sticky conidia on long-stalked conidiophores. Many of these morphological features are adaptations for arthropod dispersal, and therefore these characters are under strong selection pressure for optimizing dispersal and competition for insect vectors and substrates (Harrington, 1993; Farrell et al., 2001; Six and Wingfield, 2011). Species assigned to *Ceratocystiopsis* in many ways resemble species of *Ophiostoma* except they tend to have small dark perithecia with short perithecial necks and falcate, sheathed ascospores (Upadhyay, 1981;

Zipfel et al., 2006; Plattner et al., 2009) and a lower tolerance to cycloheximide than *Ophiostoma* species (Harrington 1981; Hausner et al., 1993a & 1993c). Species of *Grosmannia* can be distinguished from members of *Ophiostoma* and *Ceratocystiopsis* by the presence of a conidial state that can be assigned to the genus *Leptographium* Lagerb. & Melin. This SSU rDNA based study allowed as to investigate the evolutionary dynamics of nuclear SSU rDNA group I introns within the SSU rDNA gene of the ophiostomatoid fungi. So far no introns have been reported for this group of fungi thus this study is the first report on the occurrence and distribution of introns within this economically important group of fungi.

The objective of this study is to examine the group I intron variability in the nuclear SSU rDNA gene in species of *Ophiostoma*, *Grosmannia* and *Ceratocystiopsis* and related taxa. This study will try to assess the stability of the introns found within this group of organisms and examine the evolutionary biology of the encountered group I introns and potentially provide insights into the mechanisms that are involved in their diversification and persistence within the SSU rDNA gene.

9.1.3. METHODS OVERVIEW

The nuclear SSU rRNA gene was amplified from different *Ceratocystiopsis* strains and related taxa (See Table 9.1.1. for complete list of species and strains). Methods for DNA extraction and PCR amplification of the nuclear SSU rRNA gene (with primers SSU-J and SSU-T) were previously described in Chapter 2 and in Hafez et al., (2012).

Table 9.1.1. List of species/strains and the nuclear SSU rRNA sequence GenBank accession numbers.

Table 9.1.1.

Species	Strain	Introns					Accession Number
		S516 IE	S943 ICI	S989 IE	S1199 IE	I512 ?	
<i>Ceratocystiopsis sp.</i>	WIN(M)1520 ^a = MPB 1 ^b						HQ634836
<i>Ceratocystiopsis sp.</i>	WIN(M)1521 = MPB 2						HQ634837
<i>Ceratocystiopsis sp.</i>	WIN(M)1522 = MPB 3						HQ634838
<i>Ceratocystiopsis brevicomi</i> Hsiau & T.C. Harr	WIN(M)1452 = CBS 333.97 ^c						HQ202311
<i>Ceratocystiopsis collifera</i> Marm. & Butin	WIN(M)908 = CBS 129.89						HQ634832
<i>Ceratocystiopsis concentrica</i> (Olchow & J. Reid) H.P. Upadhyay	WIN(M)53 = JR71-21 ^d		X				HQ634849
<i>Ceratocystiopsis manitobensis</i> (J. Reid & Georg Hausner) Zipfel, Z.W. de Beer & M.J. Wingf.	WIN(M)237 = UAMH 9813 ^e		X				HQ634850
<i>Ceratocystiopsis minima</i> (Olchow. & J. Reid) H.P. Upadhyay	WIN(M)1501		X				HQ202312
<i>Ceratocystiopsis minima</i>	WIN(M)1462 = CBS 182.86		X				HQ634851
<i>Ceratocystiopsis minima</i>	WIN(M)61 = JR69-37		X				HQ634852
<i>Ceratocystiopsis minima</i>	WIN(M)85 = JR71-03		X				HQ634856
<i>Ceratocystiopsis minuta</i> (Siemaszko) H.P. Upadhyay & W.B. Kendr.	WIN(M)1453 = CBS 441.94		X				HQ634853
<i>Ceratocystiopsis minuta</i>	WIN(M)1533 = RJ 5095 ^f						HQ634826
<i>Ceratocystiopsis minuta</i>	WIN(M)1532; RJ705 = UAMH 11218						HQ634827
<i>Ceratocystiopsis minuta</i>	WIN(M)1535 = RJ191						HQ634828
<i>Ceratocystiopsis minuta</i>	WIN(M)1534 = RJ689						HQ634829
<i>Ceratocystiopsis minuta</i>	WIN(M)1537 = CBS 116963		X		X		HQ634854
<i>Ceratocystiopsis minuta</i>	WIN(M)1536 = CBS 116796						HQ634830
<i>Ceratocystiopsis minuta</i>	WIN(M)1523 = CBS 117042		X				HQ634857
<i>Ceratocystiopsis minuta-bicolor</i> (R.W. Davidson) H.P. Upadhyay	WIN(M)480 = JR87-6		X				HQ634848
<i>Ceratocystiopsis pallidobrunnea</i> (Olchowicki & J. Reid) H.P. Upadhyay	WIN(M)51 = JR69-14		X	X	X		HQ634842
<i>Ceratocystiopsis parva</i> (Olchow. & J. Reid) Zipfel, Z.W. de Beer & M.J. Wingf.	WIN(M)59 = JR71-21		X				HQ595735
<i>Ceratocystiopsis raniculosus</i> J.R. Bridges & T.J. Perry	WIN(M)919						HQ634840
<i>Ceratocystiopsis rollhanseniana</i> (J. Reid, Eyj_olfsd_ottir & Georg Hausner) Zipfel, Z.W. de Beer & M.J. Wingf.	WIN(M)113		X		X		HQ595736
<i>Ceratocystiopsis rollhanseniana</i>	WIN(M)110 = UAMH 9797						HQ634834
<i>Ceratocystiopsis. crassivaginata</i>	WIN(M)1458 = CBS 512.83						HQ595740
<i>Exophiala calicioides</i> (Fr.) G. Okada & Seifert	WIN(M)717 = JR87-16		X				HQ202314
<i>Graphium pseudormiticum</i> M. Mouton & M.J. Wingf.	WIN(M)1569 = DAOM 234026 ^g				X		HQ634858
<i>Graphium pseudormiticum</i>	WIN(M)1571 = DAOM 234028				X		HQ634859
<i>Graphium pseudormiticum</i>	WIN(M)1570 = DAOM 234027				X		HQ634860
<i>Graphium sp. (novo sp.)</i>	WIN(M)1490 = JR 87-3d						HQ202315
<i>Grosmannia crassivaginata</i> (H.D. Griffen) Zipfel, Z.W. de Beer & M.J. Wingf.	WIN(M)918 = UAMH 7004						HQ634833
<i>Grosmannia crassivaginata</i>	WIN(M)184						HQ634835
<i>Grosmannia davidsonii</i> (Olchow. & J. Reid) Zipfel, Z.W. de Beer & M.J. Wingf.	WIN(M)60 = JR71-30						HQ595732
<i>Grosmannia davidsonii</i>	WIN(M)1495 = MCC 871 ^h						HQ634815
<i>Grosmannia davidsonii</i>	WIN(M)1494 = MCC 870						HQ634816

Table 9.1.1. CONTINUED

<i>Grossmannia davidsonii</i>	WIN(M)1132							HQ634819
<i>Grossmannia penicillata</i> (Grossmann) Goid.	WIN(M)27 = NOR60-21 ⁱ							HQ634822
<i>Grossmannia piceaperda</i> (Rumbold) Goid.	WIN(M)980 = UAMH 9788				X			HQ595733
<i>Leptographium sp.</i>	WIN(M)984			X				HQ595734
<i>Leptographium sp.</i>	WIN(M)1429							HQ595737
<i>Meria laricis</i> Vuill.	WIN(M)1525 = CBS 298.52							HQ634817
<i>Meria laricis</i>	WIN(M)1526 = CBS 283.59		X				X	HQ634844
<i>Meria laricis</i>	WIN(M)1527 = CBS 281.59		X				X	HQ634845
<i>Meria laricis</i>	WIN(M)1528 = CBS 282.59							HQ634818
<i>Ophiostoma brevicolle</i> (R.W. Davidson) de Hoog & R.J. Scheff.	WIN(M)811 = CBS 150.78							HQ634823
<i>Ophiostoma crenulatum</i> (Olchow. & J. Reid) Georg Hausner & J. Reid	WIN(M)58 = JR 70-17					X		HQ634855
<i>Ophiostoma longisporum</i> (Olchow. & J. Reid) Georg Hausner, J. Reid & Klassen	WIN(M)48							HQ634831
<i>Ophiostoma minus</i> (Hedgc.) Syd. & P. Syd.	WIN(M)861 = DAOM 29251							HQ634820
<i>Ophiostoma minus</i>	WIN(M)871 = JR 23Rp3-367TA							HQ634821
<i>Ophiostoma retusum</i> (R.W. Davidson & T.E. Hinds) Georg Hausner, J. Reid & Klassen	ATCC 22324 ^j							HQ634841
<i>Ophiostoma sp.</i>	WIN(M)1391							HQ634824
<i>Pesotum fragrans</i> (Math.-Křařarik) G. Okada & Seifert	WIN(M)1396 = JR87-4H					X		HQ634846
<i>Pesotum sp.</i>	WIN(M)1426 = JR87-4C					X		HQ634847
<i>Pesotum sp.</i>	WIN(M)1394 = JR87-10C							HQ634839
<i>Sarcotrichila macrospore</i> Ziller & A. Funk	WIN(M)1538 = CBS 274.74	X	X	X	X			HQ634843

^a WIN(M) = University of Manitoba (Winnipeg) Collection.

^b MPB = Mountain Pine Beetle collection, Department of Forestry, University of British Columbia, Canada.

^c CBS = Centraal Bureau voor Schimmelcultures, Utrecht, The Netherlands.

^d JR = J. Reid collection (in WIN(M) see above).

^e UAMH = University of Alberta Microfungus Collection & Herbarium, Devonian Botanic Garden, Edmonton, AB, Canada T6G 2E1.

^f RJ = R. Jankowiak collection (University of Agriculture in Cracow, Cracow, Poland).

^g DAOM = Plant Research Institute, Department of Agriculture, Mycology, Ottawa, Canada.

^h MCC = Culture collection of H. Masuya, Forestry and Forest Products Research Institute, Ibaraki, Japan.

ⁱ NOR = NFRI, Norwegian Forest Research Institute, AS, Norway.

^j ATCC = American Type Culture Collection, P.O. Box 1549, Manassas, VA 20108, USA.

The PCR products were purified with the Wizard SV Gel and PCR clean-up system (Promega, 2800 Woods Hollow Road, Madison, WI 53711) in order to obtain DNAs suitable for DNA sequence analysis. The PCR products were sequenced using the cycle-sequencing protocols performed according to the manufacturer's recommendations (Applied Biosystems, 850 Lincoln Centre Drive, Foster City, CA 94404). Automated fluorescent DNA sequence analysis was performed using an ABI Prism 310 Genetic Analyzer (University of Calgary Core DNA service, Faculty of Medicine, University of Calgary, 3350 Hospital Drive NW, Calgary, AB, Canada T2N 4N1). Initially the original forward and reverse primers utilized for the PCR reactions were used to start the sequences for the PCR products; from there primers were designed as needed to sequence both strands of the PCR amplicons.

For phylogenetic analysis, nucleotide sequences were initially aligned with Clustal X program and the alignments were refined manually with the aid of the GeneDoc program. Phylogenetic estimates were generated using parsimony, likelihood-based and Bayesian approaches, by using components contained within the PHYLIP package, PHYML online web server, and the MrBayes program v3.1 respectively. The models applied for Likelihood approaches were based on evaluating the nucleotide sequence alignments with the FindModel program. The program MESQUITE version 2.73 was used estimate the ancestral character states for the presence and absence of the S943, S989 and S1199 introns. Secondary structure models were developed using the web server RNAweasel and the online program *mfold* program. Finally, the *in vivo* splicing of mS379 intron was determined by RT-PCR as described in Chapter 2.

9.1.4. RESULTS:

9.1.4.1. SSU rDNA introns:

Although we assayed for the presence or absence of introns using a PCR approach (see Figure 9.1.1.) we have to admit that a “minus” result does not unambiguously identify taxa that lack introns. PCR potentially amplifies smaller DNA fragments; thus, if there is heterogeneity within the rDNA tandem repeats rare intron-plus alleles could be missed (Simon et al., 2005a, 2005b). So we are reporting the intron distribution for the “dominant” version of the SSU rDNA gene for the taxa examined during this study.

Among the ophiostomatoid fungi studied we noted three nuclear SSU rDNA group I introns (Figure 9.1.1.) inserted at positions 943, 989 and 1199 (Figure 9.1.2. [a] & [b]). Based on structural features the S943 intron (Figure 9.1.3. b) is an IC1 type and the S989 and S1199 introns (Figure 9.1.3. [c] & [d] respectively) can be categorized as IE type group I introns. Among the ophiostomatoid fungi, the SSU rDNA gene of *Cop. pallidobrunnea* WIN(M)51 had all three introns present. The same three introns were also found in the very distantly related species *Sarcotrochila macrospora* Ziller & A. Funk, belonging to the Helotiales. The S943 intron was the most frequently encountered intron, 13 times among our tested 25 *Ceratocystiopsis* strains, this compares to one instance of the S989 intron [in *Cop. Pallidobrunnea*] and three examples of the S1199 intron [*Cop. pallidobrunnea*, *Cop. minuta* (WIN(M)1537), and *Cop. rollhanseniana* (WIN(M)113)].

Figure 9.1.1. Phylogenetic tree based on the nuclear SSU rDNA data set for *Ceratocystiopsis* and related ascomycetous taxa. The tree topology is based on Bayesian analysis, solid circles, squares and triangles represents Posterior Probability (PP) supportive values (90-100%), (80-89%) and (70-79%) respectively as obtained from a 50% majority Bayesian consensus tree. Open circles, squares and triangles represent bootstrap (BS) support (90-100%), (80-89%) and (70-79%) respectively based on ML analysis. Nodes supported with BS \geq 86 % based on Parsimony analysis are marked with asterisks. Nodes that received less than 70% support (BS or PP) were collapsed. The branch lengths are based on Bayesian analysis and are proportional to the number of substitutions per site. Strain numbers (underlined) and GenBank accession numbers are listed next to species names. The tree is rooted with SSU rRNA sequences from the Basidiomycetous fungi *Fomes fomentarius* (L.) Fr. and *Phlebia radiata* Fr.

Figure 9.1.1.

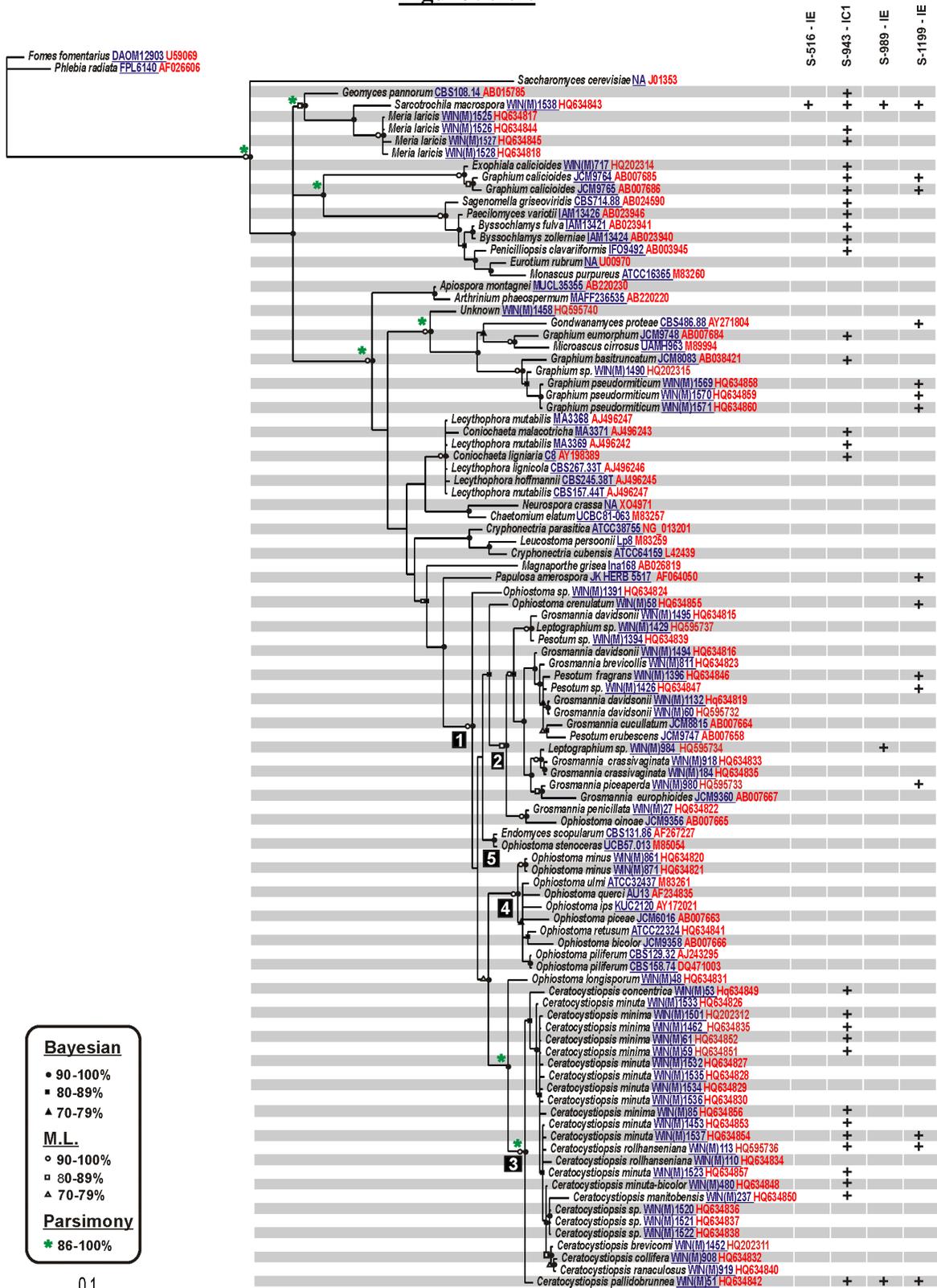
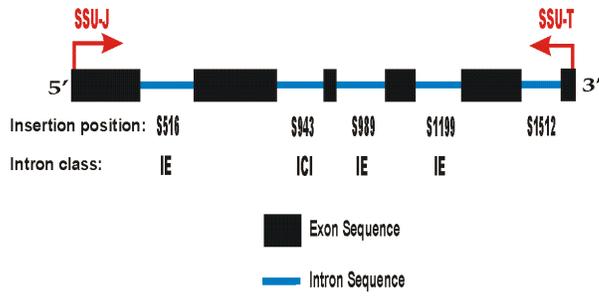


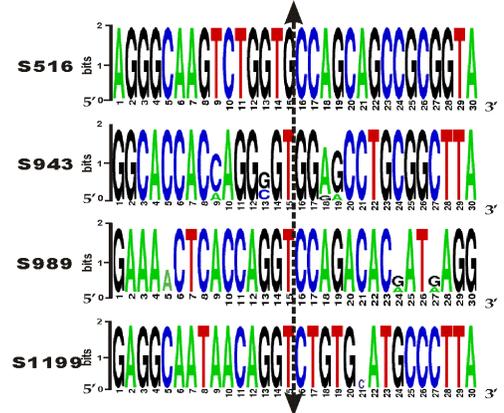
Figure 9.1.2. [A] A schematic representation of the nuclear SSU rDNA showing the initial primers (SSU-J and SSU-T) used to amplify the gene and the various types of group I introns found during this study. The introns are located at positions S516, S943, S989 and S1199 with reference to the *E. coli* SSU rDNA sequence. **[B]** Nucleotide sequence logos are shown for the exon sequences that flank the intron insertion sites (15 upstream and 15 downstream nucleotides). The double headed arrow indicates the insertion position for the following introns: S516, S943, S989 and S1199. The logos were generated by the online program WebLogo version 2.8.2 (Cooks et al., 2004; <http://weblogo.berkeley.edu/logo.cgi>).

Figure 9.1.2.

[a]



[b]

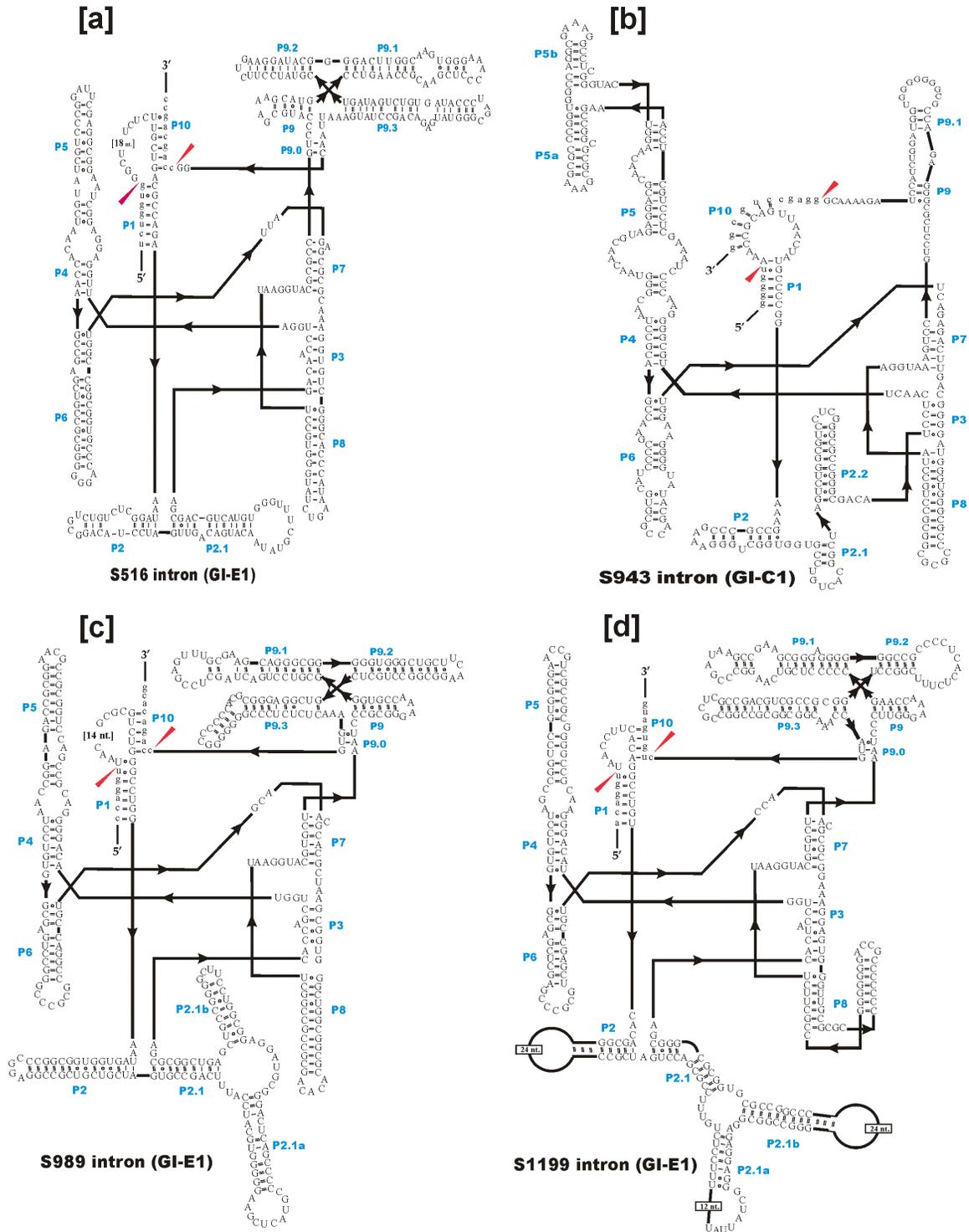


RT-PCR was performed on *Cop. pallidobrunnea* rRNA (Figure 9.1.4.), as this offered an opportunity to examine representatives for all three introns with regards to their ability to splice *in vivo* and to define the intron/exon junctions. The latter confirmed the intron/exon junctions as defined by comparing SSU rDNA sequences that lacked introns with those that have them (Figure 9.1.2. [b]; Figure 9.1.4.).

The S943 intron has been described from a wide variety of fungi (Gargas et al., 1995; Perotto et al., 2000; Feau et al., 2007). Additional examples of the S943 intron were noted among members of the Eurotiomycetes, two members of the Microascales, and three strains belonging to the Coniochaetales (Sordariomycetes); however, none were noted among the tested members of *Grosmannia* and *Ophiostoma*. The S989 intron was only encountered three times during this study with examples in *Cop. pallidobrunnea*, *Leptographium* sp. WIN(M)984 (*Grosmannia* clade) and *S. macrospora*. The S1199 intron also has a spotty distribution but it was observed in three *Ceratocystiopsis* species, three members of the *Grosmannia* clade, in *Ophiostoma crenulatum*, in *Papulosa amerospora*, three members of the Micoascales, two members of the Chaetothyriales (Eurotiomycetes) and this intron is also present in *S. macrospora*. Finally the S516 group IE (Figure 9.1.3. [a]) and S1512 introns were only encountered within *S. macrospore* and two strains of *Meria laricis* respectively. The S1512 intron did not appear to follow any of the conventional group I intron folds so we could not assign it to any category of group I intron. Typically group I introns inserted into the S1512 position belong to the IC1 category (<http://www.rna.cccb.utexas.edu/>). The S1512 intron had been previously noted by Gutiérrez et al. (2007) in members of the lichen family Parmeliaceae.

Figure 9.1.3. Secondary structures for the following group I introns: [a] S516, [b] S943, [c] S989 and [d] S1199. Intron sequences are in upper-case letters and exon sequences are in lower-case letters. The ten pairing regions (P1-P10) are indicated. The solid red arrowheads indicate the intron-exon junctions (putative 5' and 3' splicing sites). Designation of intron types is based on previous reports by Michel & Westhof (1990) and Suh et al. (1999).

Figure 9.1.3.

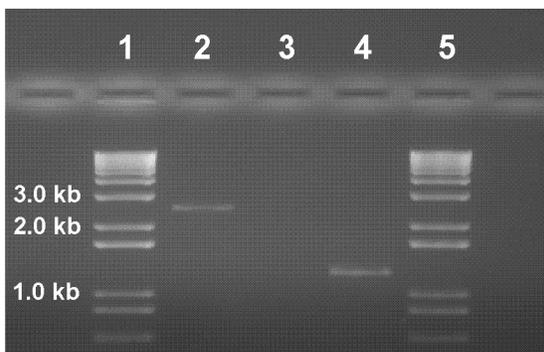


9.1.4.2. Intron vs. host gene phylogenies:

We focused on the evolutionary dynamics of the S943 and S1199 group I introns, as several examples were found in the SSU rDNA in some members of the ophiostomatoid fungi. The other introns were only noted in a few instances, thus, not providing enough of a data set to warrant further analysis. Phylogenetic trees for the host SSU rDNA sequences when mirrored with the phylogeny based on the S943 intron data set (Figure 9.1.5. [a] & [b] respectively) had similar topologies. For the S943 intron we focussed on those found within *Ceratocystiopsis* species, as we could not generate unambiguous alignments for the intron core sequences when non-ophiostomatoid sequences were included. The S943 intron has an extremely wide distribution (Nikoh & Fukatsu 2001; Haugen et al. 2005) and that would suggest that it is an ancient intron. The presence of the S943 intron in the basal branching member of *Ceratocystiopsis* (*Cop. pallidobrunnea*) combined with the SSU rDNA tree being similar to the S943 intron tree suggest that this intron most likely is vertically transferred among species of *Ceratocystiopsis* and the random distribution noted (Figure 9.1.1.) is most likely due to frequent loss.

Figure 9.1.4. RT-PCR analysis of the SSU rDNA for *Cop. pallidobrunnea* WIN(M)51 to demonstrate *in vivo* splicing of the S943, S989 and S1199 introns and to confirm the exon/intron junctions. Lanes 1 and 5 contains the 1 kb plus DNA ladder (Invitrogen), lane 2 represents a standard PCR reaction using primers SSU-U and SSU-T with whole DNA as a template, while lane 4 contains amplicons derived from the RT generated cDNA template. The negative control in lane 3 (standard PCR using whole cell RNA as a template) yielded no bands confirming that the RNA samples was DNA-free. The genomic DNA generated a 2.7 kb PCR fragment indicating the presence of the S943, S989 and S1199 introns, while the cDNA template generated a 1.2 kb PCR fragment indicating that all introns were spliced out.

Figure 9.1.4.



The S1199 intron is widely distributed among the ascomycetes fungi (Gibb & Hausner 2003) and we noted several examples of this intron among the sequences examined (Figure 9.1.1.). When the host gene tree was mirrored with the intron-based tree (Figure 9.1.5. [c] & [d] respectively) the topologies were essentially similar, failing to support strong arguments for horizontal movement of this intron among the taxa examined in this study. Ancestral state analysis (Figure 9.1.6.) appears to confirm the results for the S943 intron; however it fails to support the notion that presence of S1199 can be explained by vertical transmission and frequent loss.

9.1.4.3. SSU rDNA phylogenetic analysis:

The phylogenetic analysis showed some well-supported clades with regards to fungi that are commonly referred to as ophiostomatoid fungi (i.e. members of *Ophiostoma*, *Ceratocystiopsis*, and *Grosmannia*) (Figure 9.1.1., node 1). Species that can be assigned to *Grosmannia* based on the presence of a *Leptographium* anamorph and *Leptographium* species can be included within one clade (Figure 9.1.1. node 2), although this grouping also includes *Pesotum* sp. (WIN(M) 1426 and 1394), *Pesotum erubescens* (Math.-Käärik) G. Okada and *Pesotum fragrans* (Math.-Käärik) M. Morelet. Species that can be assigned to *Ceratocystiopsis* (Figure 9.1.1.; node 3) formed a monophyletic group that received strong node support. The SSU rDNA sequence of *Ophiostoma longisporum* was placed outside of the node that joins all *Ceratocystiopsis* species. Another well-supported clade (Figure 9.1.1., node 4), referred to from now on as the “*Ophiostoma* group”, includes representatives of *Ophiostoma minus*, *Ophiostoma ips*, (Rumbold)

Nannf., *Ophiostoma piliferum* (Fr.) Syd. & P. Syd., *Ophiostoma retusum*, *Ophiostoma bicolor* R.W. Davidson & D.E. Wells.

The SSU rDNA sequences of *Ophiostoma stenoceras* (Robak) Melin & Nannf. and *O. crenulatum* and an undescribed species of *Ophiostoma* (WIN(M)1391; Reid and Hausner unpublished data) do not appear to have a close link to the “*Ophiostoma* group” (Figure 9.1.1.). A strain of *Endomyces scopularum* Helfer, a yeast-like fungus, appears to be monophyletic with *O. stenoceras* (Figure 9.1.1., node 5); however, it should be noted that *E. scopularum* should be viewed as a *Sporothrix* sp. (see Suh et al. 2001).

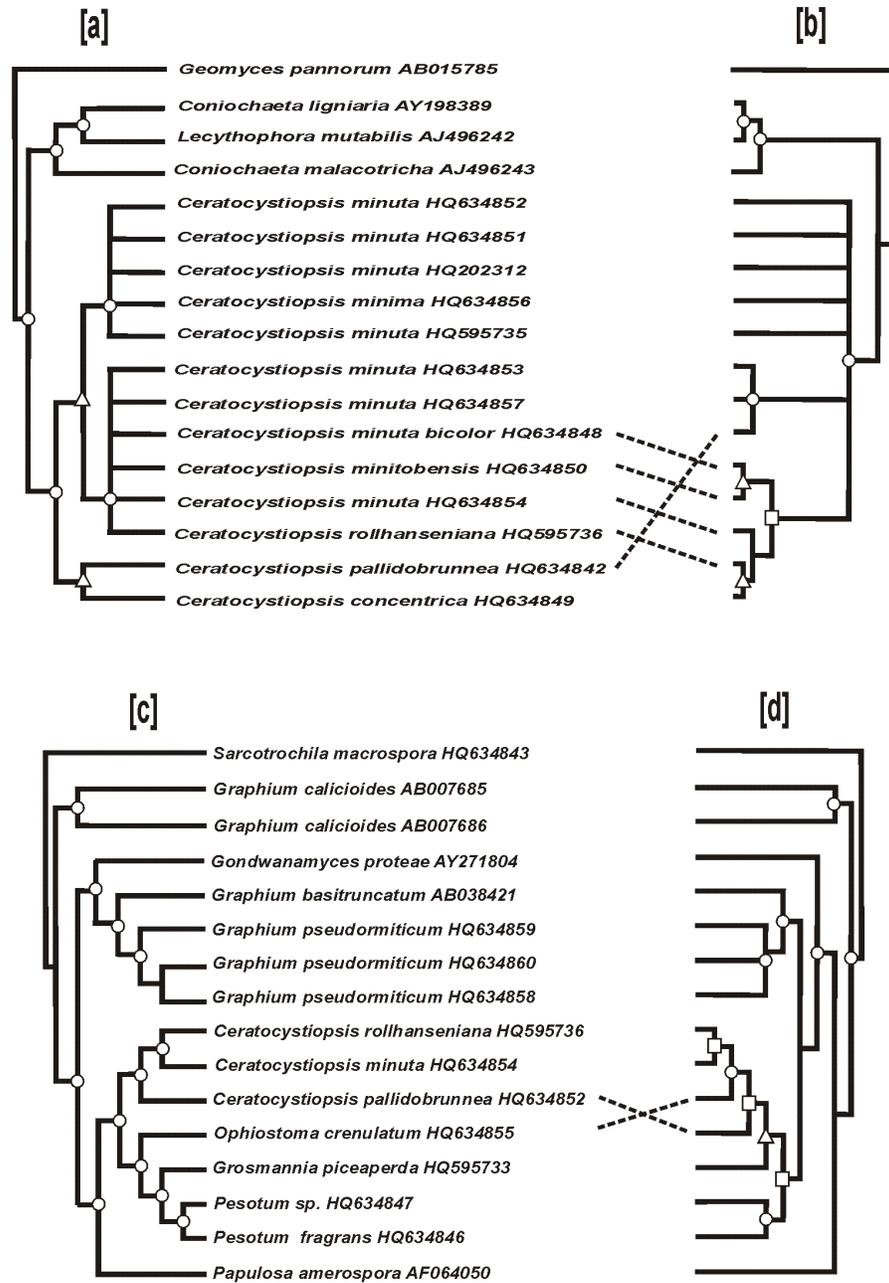
9.1.5. DISCUSSION:

9.1.5.1. SSU rDNA Intron distribution among the ophiostomatoid fungi:

As less is known about the occurrence of rDNA group I introns in non-lichenized fungi we focussed on the ophiostomatoid fungi, and based on the taxon sampling represented in this study, we can conclude that species of *Ceratocystiopsis* appear to have more group I introns within their SSU rDNA gene compared to species of *Ophiostoma* and *Grosmannia*.

Figure 9.1.5. Phylogenetic relationships between group I introns and their corresponding host SSU rDNAs. [a] SSU rDNA based phylogeny versus the S943 group I intron phylogeny [b]; based on the P1 to P8 conserved stem sequences of the S943 intron. [c] SSU rDNA phylogeny compared to the S1199 group I intron phylogeny [d]; the intron alignment consists of the P1 to P8 conserved stem sequences. For the group I intron alignments the P9 stem sequences were excluded because they could not be aligned unambiguously. The tree topology [a,b,c & d] is based on the Majority rule consensus tree generated by Parsimony analysis (DNAPARS), open circles, squares and triangles represents nodes received bootstrap (BS) and/or Posterior probability (PP) values (95-100%), (80-94%) and (50-79%) respectively as obtained from a 50% consensus tree. GenBank accession numbers for the SSU rDNA sequences are listed along with the species name.

Figure 9.1.5.

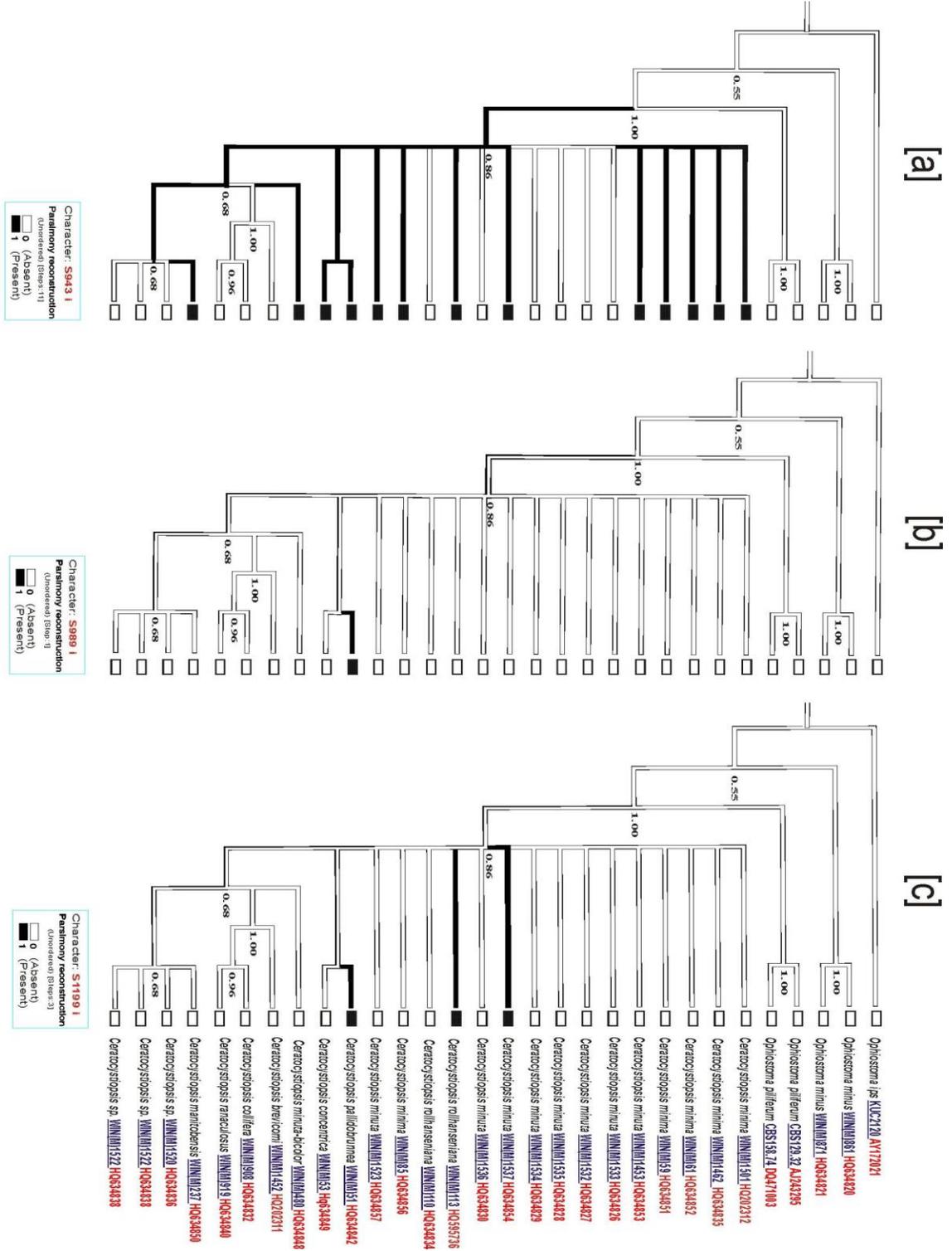


Nodes received at least one BS and/or PP value ranges between:

- 95%-100%
- 80%-94%
- △ 50%-79%

Figure 9.1.6. Ancestral state reconstruction for the S943, S989 and S1199 introns. Majority-rule senescence Bayesian tree of different *Ceratocystiopsis* strains based on the SSU rDNA nucleotide sequence. The numbers at the nodes indicate the Posterior Probability (PP) values obtained from 50% majority consensus tree generated by Mr Bayes. The ancestral states of the [a] S943 [b] S989 and [c] S1199 introns were reconstructed by Mesquite version 2.74 using Parsimony ancestral states. Character states: 0 = absent (white lines and squares); 1 = present (black lines and squares).

Figure 9.1.6.



In general the introns are not stable markers that could be used in taxonomic applications; for example, among 8 strains identified as *Cop. minuta* three strains [WIN(M)1453, 1537, 1523] had the S943 introns but 5 strains lacked introns (WIN(M) 1532, 1533, 1534, 1535, 1536) and one strain of *Cop. minuta* (Win(M) 1537), in addition to the S943 intron, had the S1199 intron. However, as mentioned previously *Cop. minuta* could represent a species complex. All *Cop. minima* strains had the S943 intron but one strain of *Cop. rollhanseni* (WIN(M)113) had both the S943 and S1199 introns whereas the second strain of this species WIN(110) had no introns.

The presence of multiple introns (S943, S989, S1199) within *Cop. pallidobrunnea* is of interest as: (1) it is the only examined member of the *Ceratocystiopsis* clade that has three introns including the S989 intron; and (2) it appears to be a basal member of the genus *Ceratocystiopsis* (this paper Figure 9.1.1. and Plattner et al., 2009). In this study the only other fungus allied with the ophiostomatoid fungi that has the S989 intron is a strain of *Leptographium* (WIN(M) 984). This rather spotty distribution of some group I introns does raise questions with regards to lateral transfers but at this stage we need to examine more members with *Grosmannia* to get a better understanding of the evolutionary dynamics of this particular group I intron.

For both comparisons between the SSU rDNA tree and S943 or S1199 trees the topologies between the host tree and the intron trees were somewhat discrepant (Figure 9.1.5.). Considering how closely related species of *Ceratocystiopsis* are (see Plattner et al. 2009) and the weak statistical support obtained for many nodes within the intron trees

we feel the discrepancies noted were more likely the result of the limited resolution within the intron sequence phylogenetic analysis than evidence for lateral transfer of group I introns among species of *Ceratocystiopsis*. However, we cannot rule out the possibility of these introns moving laterally among members of this genus. Using the S943 and S1199 introns as discrete characters in ancestral state analysis provides support that S943 is an ancestral character for the members of the *Ceratocystiopsis* clade, however for the S1199 intron this analysis failed to provide any support for the hypothesis that this intron is ancestral to this group. The latter therefore suggests that the S1199 intron could have been gained independently by members of this genus.

Overall, our data appear to be similar to what have been observed in some other systems (Nikoh & Fukatsu 2001; Bhattacharya et al. 2002), which is that the evolutionary history of group I introns within the SSU rDNA gene among ophiostomatoid fungi is driven by rare gains (such as lateral transfers) followed by rapid loss(es) in descendant lineages, thus resulting in what appears to be sporadic intron distributions (Figure 9.1.1.). However, it appears that for some introns (S1199) frequent gain cannot be excluded as a possibility of the spotty distribution of some introns.

The distribution of nuclear group I introns can be the result of a variety of processes such as intron gain by horizontal and/or vertical transmission and intron loss due to precise excision. Reverse splicing allows a free group I intron RNA to insert into a homologous or heterologous RNA; this mode of mobility requires complementary base pairing between the intron and the exon RNA sequences. This model of transposition

would explain how group I introns, as encountered in this study, that lack intron-encoded proteins can persist in populations. This mechanism requires the additional steps of reverse transcription of the RNA and the integration of the cDNA into the rDNA locus by a recombination step that replaces the intron-less copy with the intron-plus cDNA. Although reverse splicing has not yet been demonstrated in genetic crosses, circumstantial evidence would suggest that nuclear rDNA group I introns can move by this mechanism (Bhattacharya et al. 2002 & 2005). As reverse splicing requires less homology (4-6 nucleotides), this mechanism allows introns to spread more easily into heterologous sites, although in this study we did not see any examples of ectopic integration.

A possible scenario for precise intron loss can be envisioned by the reverse transcription of a processed (i.e. spliced) version of the SSU rRNA followed by a recombination event whereby the intron-minus cDNA replaces the intron-plus genomic version of the SSU rDNA. This mechanism could remove introns from one rDNA unit, but the subsequent mechanism(s) whereby the now rDNA-intron-minus unit replaces the other intron hosting rDNA units within the repetitive rDNA gene family are unknown. One would assume that genetic processes that drive concerted evolution would be involved in this transition.

9.1.5.2. Group I introns in nuclear rDNA:

Ribosomal RNA genes are under functional constraints and thus are expected to evolve slowly, ideal for ribozyme elements that need to maintain their core sequences to maintain auto-splicing abilities or potentially face extinction, as they might become toxic to the host gene (Goddard et al. 2006; Lynch et al. 2006; Hausner, 2012). Also repetitive DNA is ideal for mobile introns as intron-minus and intron-plus alleles could exist within the same space; thus rDNA offers the presence of multiple targets for group I introns to invade.

In fungi, like most eukaryotes, ribosomal RNA genes are organized in tandem repeats with copy numbers for the repeats varying from 45 (*Aspergillus nidulans*) to 180 (*Saccharomyces paradoxus*) in taxa examined so far (Ganley & Kobayashi, 2007). A recent study showed that among members of the Saccharomycetaceae, *Aspergillus nidulans* and *Cryptococcus neoformans* rDNA repeats showed remarkably low levels of sequence variation, strongly suggesting that concerted evolution operates within this repetitive gene family, leading to rapid homogenization among its individual repeats (Ganley & Kobayashi, 2007). Homogenization in part is thought to be accomplished by a continual turnover of repeat copies by unequal recombination (reviewed in Elder & Turner 1995; Liao, 1999; Eickbush & Eickbush, 2007). The spread or loss of rDNA introns within the rDNA tandem repeats may be accelerated because of concerted evolution. An intron may gain a foothold within rDNA not because it has a highly efficient way to rapidly invade all available sites but because by chance one rDNA copy

that gained an intron eventually becomes the dominant version. Conversely, an intron might be lost as an intron-less version over time replaces rDNA repeats with introns.

The presence of nuclear rDNA group I introns raises some interesting questions as to why they are found in fungi, protozoans and algae but so far have not been noted in plant and metazoan nuclear rDNA. Fungi are organisms that represent an “open system” (no true cell walls separating cells) with limited separation between somatic and germ line tissue; thus, there are few barriers separating somatic compartments from those involved in generating meiotic or mitotic spores. Such a system may allow for transmitting mobile genetic agents by transient hyphal contacts or via intermediates such as viruses or genetic transfer systems similar to those within *Agrobacterium tumefaciens* (Andersson, 2009). Also as discussed previously concerted evolution may be a mechanism that allows introns to spread through the rDNA repeats. One can also speculate that rDNA tolerates group I introns, as rDNA is transcribed by RNA polymerase I, which must be tolerant to transcribing structural RNAs (such as rRNAs). Finally, in fungi repeat-induced point mutations (RIP) are a mechanism that guards against mobile elements spreading within the genome; however, RIP does not appear to operate in the nucleolus (specifically the nuclear organizer regions; reviewed in Hane & Oliver 2010). The rDNA tandem repeats are therefore not affected by this mechanism and mobile elements such as group I introns have a refuge within this genomic niche. In other regions of the genome RIP mutates duplicated DNA sequences during sexual reproduction, potentially inactivating copies of repeated sequences and thus limiting the spread of mobile elements (Selker, 2002; Diguistini et al. 2011). All the above factors

probably contribute towards the evolutionary dynamics of nuclear rDNA group I introns within the fungi.

9.1.5.3. SSU rDNA and taxonomic implications for *Ophiostoma sensu lato*:

The taxonomy of the Ophiostomatales and the family Ophiostomataceae is very complex (Hausner & Reid 2004; Zipfel et al. 2006) and historically has been subject of vigorous debates (Upadhyay 1981; Hausner et al. 1993a & 1993b; Spatafora & Blackwell 1994). Recently Zipfel et al. (2006), based on partial LSU rDNA and β -tubulin sequences, provided some justification to subdivide the genus *Ophiostoma* by resurrecting the genus *Grosmannia* for “*Ophiostoma* species” with *Leptographium* anamorphs and for maintaining the genus *Ceratocystiopsis* for ophiostomatoid species with short perithecial necks and falcate ascospores. What now remains in *Ophiostoma sensu lato* [Zipfel et al. (2006)] could broadly be defined as members of the “ips” and “pilifera” spore groups, as defined by Olchowecki and Reid (1974).

Our study showed that some *Pesotum* species are allied with members of *Grosmannia*. Okada et al. (2000), based on SSU rDNA data, placed *P. fragrans* next to *Ophiostoma penicillatum* (Grosman) Siemaszko (now *Grosmannia penicillata* (Grosman) Goid.). Zipfel et al. (2006) showed that *Grosmannia galeiformis* (B.K. Bakshi) Zipfel, Z.W. de Beer & M.J. Wingf., a species with both synnematus and mononematous anamorphs (i.e. *Pesotum*-like and *Leptographium*-like conidial states), belongs to the *Grosmannia* clade, so in the future more species with *Pesotum* conidial states might be assigned to this genus. Previous studies that included SSU rDNA

sequences representing different *Raffaelea* Arx & Hennebert emend. T.C. Harr. species (Gebhardt et al. 2005; Kolařík & Hulcr 2008; Harrington et al. 2010) suggests, that these asexual species are also phylogenetically linked to species of *Grosmannia*.

Ceratocystiopsis, a genus that includes species with falcate ascospores, short perithecial necks and, if present, anamorphs assignable to *Hyalorhinocladiella*, formed a monophyletic clade. It has to be stated that the taxonomy of *Cop. minuta*, the type species for *Ceratocystiopsis*, is rather complex and, as currently circumscribed, probably includes several cryptic species (Plattner et al. 2009). To help resolve this situations strain WIN(M) 1532 [= UAMH 11218, = R. Jankowiak 705] was grown and dried on wood chips and has then been designated as the epitype (Reid and Hausner, 2010). *Ophiostoma longisporum*, based on ITS, partial β -tubulin and LSU rDNA sequences, was excluded from *Ceratocystiopsis* by Plattner et al. (2009) but in that study this species did group basally to other members of this genus. This study, albeit based on SSU rDNA sequences only, again confirms a basal position for *O. longisporum* next to the *Ceratocystiopsis* clade.

The SSU rDNA data suggest that there is a problem with *Ophiostoma sensu* Zipfel et al. (2006). Although our analysis shows strains centred around *O. ips* and *Ophiostoma piceae* (Münch) Syd. & P. Syd., including *O. minus* and *O. piliferum* (referred to as the *Ophiostoma* group), form a monophyletic grouping but several *Ophiostoma* species failed to group with the three currently accepted genera that comprise what used to be *Ophiostoma sensu lato*. Kolařík & Hulcr (2008) also showed in

their SSU rDNA analysis that *O. stenoceras* groups apart from both *Grosmannia* species and *Ophiostoma* species, forming a monophyletic group with *Sporothrix schenckii* Hektoen & C.F. Perkins and *E. scopularum*. The SSU rDNA data does suggest that the proposal by Zipfel et al. (2006) has some merit but it also shows that the status of *Ophiostoma* s.s. may need more consideration and additional genera may have to be proposed to accommodate those species not allied to the ips/pilifera/piceae group.

APPENDIX: 9.2.

PRELIMINARY WORK ON THE EXPRESSION AND PURIFICATION OF

I-OmiI

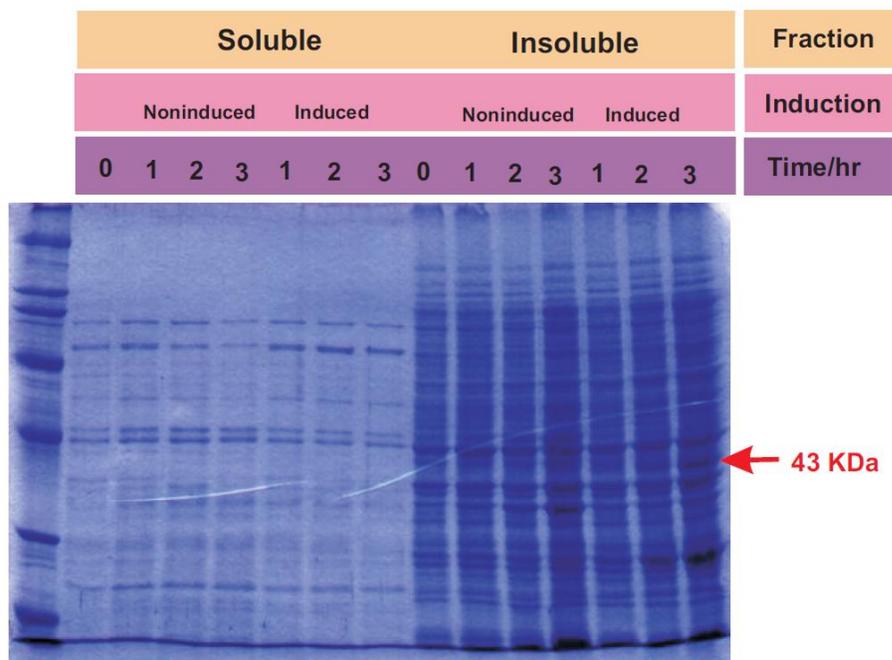
9.2.1. Construction of the expression plasmid:

A codon-optimized version of the I-OmiI sequence was synthesized commercially (Bio S & T, Montreal, QC, Canada) based on differences between the fungal mitochondrial and bacterial genetic code. The I-OmiI ORF was then amplified from the pBlueScript vector with primers I-OmiI-F (forward; included the CACC sequence needed for the topoisomerase cloning step that follows) and I-OmiI-R (reverse) using the Platinum Taq *DNA* Polymerase High Fidelity kit (Invitrogen). The amplified I-OmiI ORF was then moved into the 6xHis-Tag N-terminus pET200/D-TOPO[®] vector supplied in the Champion[™] pET Directional TOPO[®] expression kit (Invitrogen) following the manufacturer's recommendations to generate the pET200/D/I-OmiI construct. The pET200/D/I-OmiI construct was subsequently transformed into the *E. coli* BL21 (DE3) cell line (Invitrogen). The transformants were then analyzed by colony PCR and by treating isolated plasmid DNAs with restriction enzymes to identify potential recombinant clones (*E. coli*-pET200/D/I-OmiI). One potential construct was sequenced with the vector-specific primers T7-F and T7-R to confirm that the ORF was in frame with the N-terminal fusion tag.

9.2.2. Overexpression of I-OmiI:

Initially, attempts were made to over express I-OmiI using the same expression conditions as were applied for I-OmiII (see section 2.10.2., Chapter 2). The *E. coli*-pET200/D/I-OmiI cells had been induced with 0.3 mM IPTG and were grown at 28 °C for 1, 2 and 3 hours. Both, the soluble and insoluble protein fractions were analyzed by SDS-PAGE (see Figure 9.2.1.). The results showed that, I-OmiI was only found in the insoluble fraction; this may be due to miss folding and aggregation of the protein.

Figure. 9.2.1. Overexpression of I-OmiI at 28 °C and 0.3 mM IPTG.

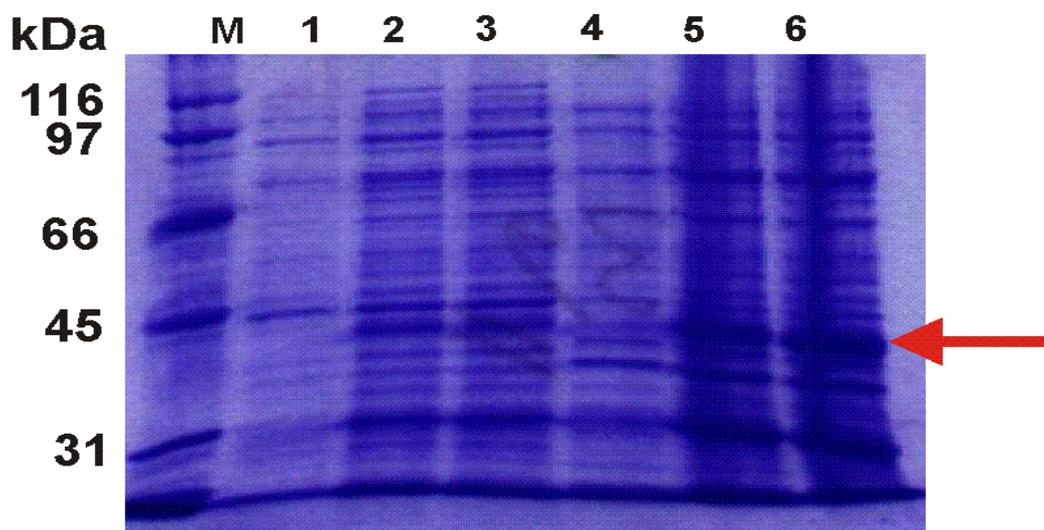


9.2.3. Increasing the solubility of I-OmiI:

In order to increase the solubility of the I-OmiI protein during the protein expression process and thus facilitate its purification thereafter, we tried the following conditions:

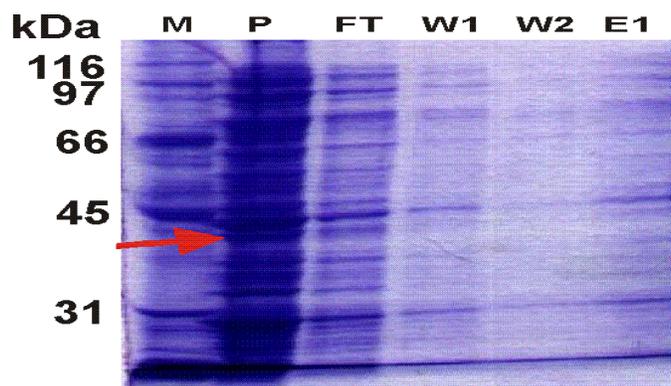
1. Slow down the growth of *E. coli*: According to the literature to allow for correct protein folding of eukaryotic protein when expressed in bacterial cells and to avoid precipitating of this protein in inclusion bodies, the growth conditions should be slowed down along with slowing down the expression of the foreign protein (Singh et al., 2009). Therefore, conditions were adjusted to slow down growth during the expression of I-OmiI by decreasing the incubation temperature (18 – 15 °C) and decreasing the IPTG concentration to 0.2 mM (see Figure 9.2.2.). The clear lysate (soluble fraction) was applied to a Ni-NTA column to purify I-OmiI and the results showed that I-OmiI was lost in the flow through fraction and it did not bind to the Ni-NTA resin.

Figure 9.2.2. SDS-PAGE for soluble (1-3) and insoluble (4-6) *E. coli* protein fractions after 15 hour incubation at 15 °C (2 & 5) and 18 °C (3 & 6). IPTG used at a final concentration of 0.2 mM to induce the protein expression. Lanes 1 & 4 contain the soluble and insoluble protein fractions respectively at zero induction time. The red arrow indicates the 43 kDa I-OmiI protein.



2. Treating the cell lysate with DNase: Like other DNA-binding enzymes, one would expect that I-OmiI could bind to DNA when cells are disrupted. To release the protein from DNA, the DNA can be removed by DNase in the presence of high salt concentration in order to dissociate the protein from the DNA. So DNase was applied during the early stage of protein purification in order to remove the contaminating DNA (Kang et al., 2007). TURBO DNase was added to the cell lysate during the sonication step and after that, 1/10 of sample volume of 5M NaCl was added to bring the salt concentration to 0.5M NaCl in the homogenate. Cell debris was spun down and the clear lysate was applied to a Ni-NTA column to purify I-OmiI (see Figure 9.2.3.). SDS-PAGE results showed that the I-OmiI protein was still found in the pellet (i.e. not soluble) and only a small amount of the enzyme was moved into the clear lysate, but the soluble fraction of this protein was lost with the flow through and thus no protein actually stuck to the Ni-NTA resin.

Figure 9.2.3. SDS-PAGE for I-OmiI purification after treating the cell lysate with TURBO DNase. M = Marker; P = Pellet; FT = Flow Through; W = Washing Fraction, E = Elution Fraction.



3. Changing the position of the His-Tag: Previous results showed that I-OmiI did not “stick” to the Ni-NTA column, suggesting that the His-Tag on the protein was not effective. This could be the result of misfolding of the N-terminal segment of the protein and thus the His-Tag is not accessible or available for binding to any ligand. A version of the I-OmiI ORF was amplified from the pBlueScript SK+/I-OmiI plasmid with the primers I-OmiI-F and I-OmiI-Rhis (see appendix 9.3. for primer sequence). The reverse primer I-OmiI-Rhis was designed to add a C-terminal 6X His-Tag to the I-OmiI protein. The PCR-amplified I-OmiI ORF was inserted into the expression vector pET200/D-TOPO[®] to generate the expression construct pET200/D/I-OmiI-C, which was transformed to *E. coli* BL21 for expression using methods as described previously for I-OmiII (see section 2.10, Chapter 2 for more details). The SDS-PAGE gel for I-OmiI expression indicates that adding a C-terminal 6xHis-Tag to the protein did not increase the solubility of I-OmiI and also did not affect the protein binding to Ni-NTA resin during the purification as the protein washed off in the flow through.

4. Solubilizing I-OmiI from inclusion bodies: Many recombinant eukaryotic proteins can aggregate and/or be packaged into inclusion bodies when expressed in bacterial cells (Przybycien et al., 1994). Analyzing the soluble and insoluble protein fractions after expressing I-OmiI in *E. coli* indicates that the enzyme is insoluble (and maybe packaged into inclusion bodies). Sarkosyl was used to purify natively folded I-OmiI from inclusion bodies following the protocol below (Tao et al., 2010):

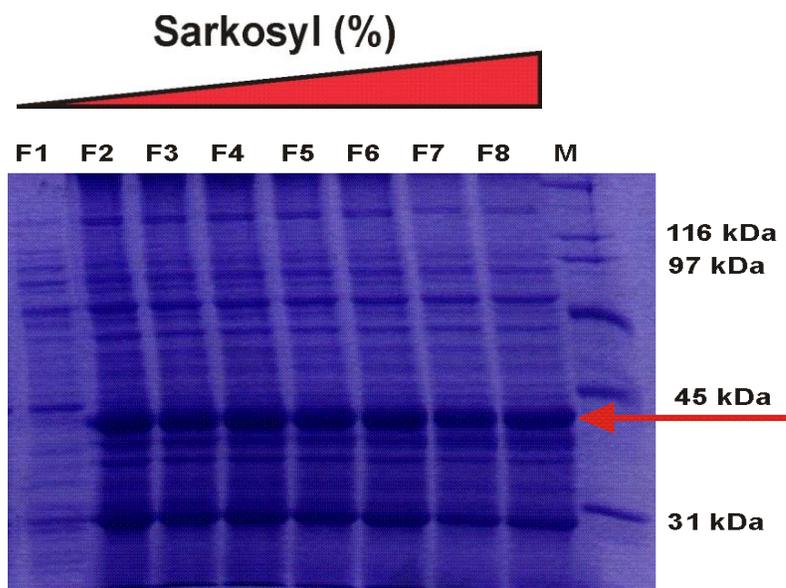
1. Thaw bacterial pellet from a ~250 ml O/N culture at room temperature for 10 minutes.
2. Resuspend the bacterial pellet (P1) in 6 ml cell lysis buffer E (see appendix 9.5.3. for buffer composition) plus protease inhibitors. To each 6 ml of buffer E add 36.5 μ l of 1M DTT and add 40 μ l of 50 mg/ml lysozyme.
3. Sonicate the cell suspension with 10 short burst of 10 sec followed by intervals of 30 sec for cooling.
4. Centrifuge at 8500 rpm for 40 minutes (4 °C).
5. Analyse the supernatant (S1) by SDS-PAGE (Fraction 1: F1).
6. Resuspend the pellet (P2) in 7 ml buffer E supplemented with different concentrations of sarkosyl (0.5% to 2%).
7. Centrifuge at 10000 rpm for 30 minutes (4 °C).
8. Analyse the supernatant (S2) by collecting fractions (F2 to F8) for each sarkosyl concentration used (F = 3 μ l sample + 12 μ l H₂O + 5 μ l of 2X sample buffer) from the supernatant in order to evaluate if the induced protein has remained soluble or been sequestered into inclusion bodies.

9. Run a 10% SDS-PAGE (see Figure 9.2.4 for schematic representation of the methodology and Figure 9.2.5. for SDS-PAGE).

The SDS-PAGE results (Figure 9.2.5) showed that sarkosyl can solubilize I-OmiI from inclusion bodies (cell debris/pellet) and there was no significant difference between the different sarkosyl concentrations used.

In order to purify I-OmiI, the F1 (supernatant 1 with no sarkosyl) and F2 fraction (supernatant 2 with the lowest sarkosyl concentration, 0.5%) were applied to a Ni-NTA column and the SDS-PAGE results (see Figure 7.3., Chapter 7) showed that I-OmiI was eluted in four fractions (E1 & E2: 125 mM imidazole; E3 & E4: 250 mM imidazole); these four fractions were then pooled together and dialyzed to remove the excess imidazole. However, the protein was partially precipitated inside the dialysis cassette when the sarkosyl concentration decreased. The dialyzed fraction was then centrifuged to remove the precipitated protein and the supernatant was concentrated with Amicon Ultra filtration tubes.

Figure 9.2.5. SDS-PAGE showing the results of solubilizing I-OmiI from inclusion bodies with sarkosyl (0.5:2%).



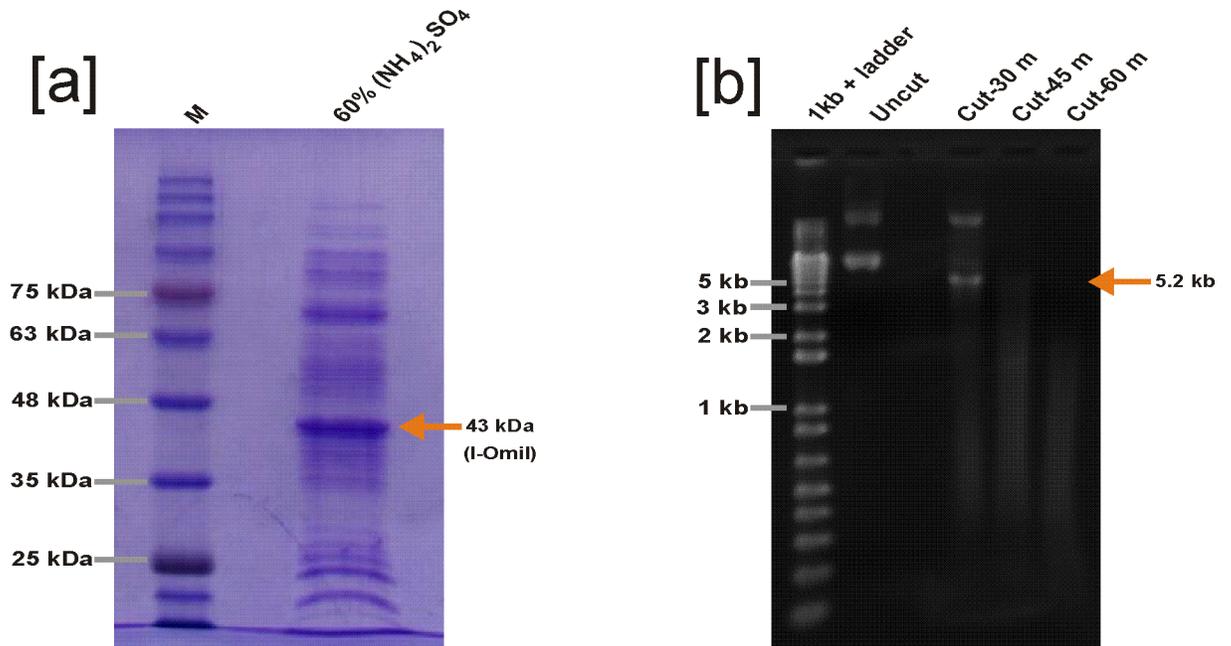
9.2.4. Preliminary endonuclease assays with crude I-OmiI preparations:

The endonuclease activity of partially purified I-OmiI was tested against the substrate plasmid pCR4/1574 (i.e. contains I-OmiI target site). The cleavage reaction mix contained: 4 μL of substrate plasmid (0.5 – 0.1 μg), 5 μl Invitrogen Buffer React #3 (100 mM NaCl, 50 mM Tris–Cl, pH 7.9 and 10 mM MgCl_2) supplemented with 1 mM DTT, 4 μL the crude I-OmiI preparation and 7 μl H_2O . Cleavage reactions were incubated at 37 $^\circ\text{C}$ for 30 and 60 minutes and the reactions were stopped with the addition of 2 μl of 200 mM EDTA (pH 8.0) and 1 μl of proteinase K (1 mg/mL) to each 10 μl aliquots, followed by an incubation period for 30 min at 37 $^\circ\text{C}$. The gel electrophoresis results (Figure 7.4., Chapter 7) showed that I-OmiI appears to be an active HEase that recognized the target site in the pCR4/1574 substrate plasmid and therefore generated a linearized molecule with a length of 5.2 kb.

The *in vitro* endonuclease assay of I-OmiI solubilized from inclusion bodies by sarkosyl indicates that this enzyme is an active HEase. To confirm the endonuclease activity of I-OmiI, the crude lysate of *E. coli* cells transformed with the pET200/D/I-OmiI plasmid, was used to assay for endonuclease activity such as cleaving the pCR4/1574 plasmid. The cleavage reaction mix contained: 2 μL of substrate plasmid (about 300 ng), 5 μl of Invitrogen Buffer React #3 (100 mM NaCl, 50 mM Tris–Cl, pH 7.9 and 10 mM MgCl_2) supplemented with 1 mM DTT, 1 μL crude cell lysate (60% cut of the ammonium sulphate; see Figure 9.2.6.[a]) and 12 μl H_2O . Cleavage reactions were incubated at 37 $^\circ\text{C}$ for 30, 45 and 60 minutes and the reactions were stopped with the addition of 2 μl of 200 mM EDTA (pH 8.0) and 1 μl of proteinase K (1 mg/mL) to each

10 μ l aliquots, followed by incubation periods of 30, 45 & 60 min at 37°C. The gel electrophoresis results (Figure 9.2.6 [b]) showed that I-OmiI appears to cleave the substrate plasmid.

Figure 9.2.6. [a] SDS-PAGE gel of the 60% cut of the $(\text{NH}_4)_2\text{SO}_4$ fraction to the crude lysate. I-OmiI (43 kDa) is the most dominant protein in this fraction. M = BLUeye prestained protein ladder (GeneDireX), [b] Endonuclease assay for I-OmiI activity within the crude cell lysate.



APPENDIX: 9.3.

COMPLETE LIST OF THE PRIMERS USED IN THIS STUDY.

Primer name	Gene/Region	Direction	Sequence (5' → 3')
mtsr-1	<i>rns</i>	Forward	AGTGGTGTACAGGTGAG
M13 -F	<i>rns</i>	Forward	GTAAAACGACGGCCAG
Rns-gp2F1	<i>rns</i>	Forward	GAGTAACGTGGCAACACGGAAACTG
Rns-gp2F2	<i>rns</i>	Forward	CGTGGCAACACGGAAATCAC
rns-F	<i>rns</i>	Forward	GAGTTTGGTGTATGGCTCTGATTGAACACTG
rns-ulmi-F3	<i>rns</i>	Forward	CAGGGATTAGAGACCCCTGTAGTCTTAG
rns-ulmi-F4	<i>rns</i>	Forward	CTTTAAAGCGCTACCGTCTTGATTC
rnsulmi-F5	<i>rns</i>	Forward	GCCCCAGGGCGAAAGGAAAATTAGTTA
rns-ulmi-F6	<i>rns</i>	Forward	GTGGTTTATAGTAGACGCAGAAGGAAG
T7-F	<i>rns</i>	Forward	ATTAACCCTCACTAAAGGGA
371-F3	<i>rns</i>	Forward	CCTAAAACATCAAACCTCCGGGAACACCC
371-F4	<i>rns</i>	Forward	GAAATGGGTTATCGCGGAT
371-F5	<i>rns</i>	Forward	GGTGTAGGTAAAATCCATAGCTCTGGG
371-F6	<i>rns</i>	Forward	GAGCATTTAAATCAAGACGGTTTG
472-F2	<i>rns</i>	Forward	CCAACCTGACTTCCACTAC
472-F3	<i>rns</i>	Forward	GACGCCAATTAAGAATTTCGGG
472-F4	<i>rns</i>	Forward	GGAATAAGCTCTCCTAGAGATAGG
472-F5	<i>rns</i>	Forward	CTCAGAGTTATCACATGGATTCC
472-F7	<i>rns</i>	Forward	CAAACCTCTAGAACAGAAAGAGCC
472-F8	<i>rns</i>	Forward	CCATATATAAGAAACCCGGTATACC
494-F3	<i>rns</i>	Forward	CCCGGAAAAACCAACTGACTTCCAC
494-F4	<i>rns</i>	Forward	CTCTCCTAGAGATAGGATAATAC
494F5	<i>rns</i>	Forward	CTTCTTTGACAATATAGACCATAAC
494F6	<i>rns</i>	Forward	GAACCTAGTACTCCACTGCTTAGATG
515-F2	<i>rns</i>	Forward	GGATTCAAGCTCGTGTCAATTGAGG
515-F3	<i>rns</i>	Forward	CCTAAATACACACAGACGCC
515-F4	<i>rns</i>	Forward	GGAATCAGCTCTCCTAGAGATAGG
515-F5	<i>rns</i>	Forward	GACATTAAAGGCTTCTTTGACAATATAG
515-F6	<i>rns</i>	Forward	CGAAGTCTACAATCCCTAATCCAGAC
515-F8	<i>rns</i>	Forward	CCATAACCAAATTTATCGCTCTGCC
515-F9	<i>rns</i>	Forward	GGGAGGAGGTTAACAACAAATGAGG
515-F10	<i>rns</i>	Forward	GAGTACATGGAGGTAAGCATACTGGG
515-F11	<i>rns</i>	Forward	GCGAAGGAAGACTAGCGAAAGGAAGGG
mtsr-2	<i>rns</i>	Reverse	CGAGTGGTTAGTACCAATCC
M13-R	<i>rns</i>	Reverse	CAGGAAACAGCTATGAC
Rns-gp2-R1	<i>rns</i>	Reverse	CATTAACCTGGAAACAGCCGTGCAAC
rns-R	<i>rns</i>	Reverse	CCACTACACGAACCGTATTTTCGAC
rns-ulmi-R3	<i>rns</i>	Reverse	ACGTGCAACTTTCATCGCATACGGCTC
rns-ulmi-R4	<i>rns</i>	Reverse	CTCTTTTTTTTAAACTTTCAGATAAACC
T3	<i>rns</i>	Reverse	TAATACGACTCACTATAGGG
371-R3	<i>rns</i>	Reverse	CCTTTCGCCCAGGGGACTAAGGTAG
371-R4	<i>rns</i>	Reverse	GATCCTCTTCCCTAGGCCCG
371-R5	<i>rns</i>	Reverse	CACATACTTCACTACTGGTGTC
472-R2	<i>rns</i>	Reverse	CTAAGACTACAAGGGTCTCTAATCC
472-R3	<i>rns</i>	Reverse	CTCCTCCATAGATTCGACC

APPENDIX: 9.2. CONTINUED

472-R4	<i>rms</i>	Reverse	GGTAGCCTGTATTGGATTTACTAG
472-R5	<i>rms</i>	Reverse	GGGATATTAACAGCGAAGTCTG
472-R6	<i>rms</i>	Reverse	CTGATTTGATAATCTCTTTCAAGACCC
494-R2	<i>rms</i>	Reverse	GTTGCCACATTACTCATGAGGTGAAATG
494-R3	<i>rms</i>	Reverse	GCCTTCGTCTTCGACGTCGG
494-R4	<i>rms</i>	Reverse	GGCTGTTTCCCTTTCTTTTCGCTAG
494-R5	<i>rms</i>	Reverse	CTGTTTAAATTATTCATCGACTAATC
515-R3	<i>rms</i>	Reverse	GATCTTTCTCTAATATGTAAACAAG
515-R4	<i>rms</i>	Reverse	GATAAAAGAACCTTCCGCGTCAG
515-R5	<i>rms</i>	Reverse	CTGTATTTACTTCAGCGACCTTTCTC
515-R6	<i>rms</i>	Reverse	GTAGGGGTTTTTGTTAATTACATGG
515-R8	<i>rms</i>	Reverse	CTAACTTCTACTCTACCAC
515-R9	<i>rms</i>	Reverse	CTTAAATACCAACTGTACAGCTTTACC
515-R10	<i>rms</i>	Reverse	CTTCCTTCTGCATCTACTAAACCAC
515-R11	<i>rms</i>	Reverse	CCTTTCGCCAGAGGAC
SSU-Z	ITS	Forward	ATAACAGGTCTGTGATG
SS-3	ITS	Forward	GTCGTAACAAGGTCTCCG
LSU-4	ITS	Reverse	TTGTGCGCTATCGGTCTC
LS-2	ITS	Reverse	GATATGCTTAAGTCAGCG
5.8S-R	ITS	Reverse	GACGCTCGGACAGGCATGCC
EF3E	EF-1 α	Forward	GTCGYATCGGCCACGTCGA
TEF-1rev	EF-1 α	Reverse	GCCATCCTTGGAGATACCAGC
Ms952-F	952 intron	Forward	TTTGACACCAGTAGTGAAGTATG
Ms952DV-R	952 intron	Reverse	AACCGTACGTGCAACTTTCATCGCATACGGC
S379-R	379 intron	Reverse	CCGCGACTGCTGGCACGTAATTAGTC
SSU-J	SSU-Rrna	Forward	CTGGTTGATCCTGCCAGTAG
SSU-T	SSU-Rrna	Reverse	ACGGAACCTTGTTACGACT
T7-F	I-OmiI/II	Forward	TAATACGACTCACTATAGGG
T7-R	I-OmiI/II	Reverse	TAGTTATTGCTCAGCGGTGG
I-OmiI-F	I-OmiI	Forward	CACCATGGTGATTAGCCAATGGATG
I-OmiI-R	I-OmiI	Reverse	TCATTAGAATTCGCGACCGCGG
I-OmiI-R2	I-OmiI	Reverse	CAACCTTCGCCATCAATGAAACC
I-OmiII-F	I-OmiII	Forward	CACCATGCAGTCTCTGAAAATAAC
I-OmiII-R	I-OmiII	Reverse	TCATTAGATGCGGTTGGTGTTT
I-OmiII-R2	I-OmiII	Reverse	GATCAGGTCGATAACCATGCAAAAACAGG
I-OmiI-Rhis	I-OmiI	Reverse	TCATTAATGATGATGATGATGATGGAATTC GCGACCGCGTTTCAT

APPENDIX: 9.4.

GENEBANK ACCESSION NUMBERS OF ALL GENES/REGIONS

SEQUENCED DURING THIS STUDY.

Accession #	Gene/region	Species	Strain
HQ292068	<i>rns</i>	<i>O. minus</i>	WIN(M) 873
HQ292069	<i>rns</i>	<i>O. minus</i>	WIN(M) 1574
HQ292070	<i>rns</i>	<i>O. minus</i>	WIN(M) 494
HQ292071	<i>rns</i>	<i>O. minus</i>	WIN(M) 371
HQ292072	<i>rns</i>	<i>O. minus</i>	WIN(M) 472
HQ292073	<i>rns</i>	<i>O. minus</i>	WIN(M) 515
HQ292074	<i>rns</i>	<i>O. novo-ulmi</i> subsp <i>americana</i>	DED 2002-10
HQ292075	<i>rns</i>	<i>O. ulmi</i>	DAOM 171046
HQ292076	RT	<i>O. minus</i>	WIN(M) 494
HQ292077	RT	<i>O. minus</i>	WIN(M) 472
HQ292078	RT	<i>O. minus</i>	WIN(M) 515
HQ292079	LHEase	<i>O. minus</i>	WIN(M) 873
HQ292080	LHEase	<i>O. minus</i>	WIN(M) 371
HQ292081	LHEase	<i>O. ulmi</i>	DAOM 171046
HQ292082	LHEase	<i>O. minus</i>	WIN(M) 371
HQ292083	LHEase	<i>O. minus</i>	WIN(M) 472
HQ292084	ITS	<i>O. novo-ulmi</i> subsp <i>americana</i>	DED 2002-10
HQ292085	ITS	<i>O. ulmi</i>	DAOM 171046
HQ292086	ITS	<i>O. minus</i>	WIN(M) 1574
HQ292087	ITS	<i>O. minus</i>	WIN(M) 873
HQ292088	ITS	<i>O. minus</i>	WIN(M) 494
HQ292089	ITS	<i>O. minus</i>	WIN(M) 371
HQ292090	ITS	<i>O. minus</i>	WIN(M) 472
HQ292091	ITS	<i>O. minus</i>	WIN(M) 515
HQ292092	EF-1alpha	<i>O. novo-ulm</i> subsp <i>americana i</i>	DED 2002-10
HQ292093	EF-1alpha	<i>O. ulmi</i>	DAOM 171046
HQ292094	EF-1alpha	<i>O. minus</i>	WIN(M) 1574
HQ292095	EF-1alpha	<i>O. minus</i>	WIN(M) 873
HQ292096	EF-1alpha	<i>O. minus</i>	WIN(M) 494
HQ292097	EF-1alpha	<i>O. minus</i>	WIN(M) 371
HQ292098	EF-1alpha	<i>O. minus</i>	WIN(M) 472
HQ292099	EF-1alpha	<i>O. minus</i>	WIN(M) 515
HQ634815	SSU rRNA	<i>Grosmannia davidsonii</i>	WIN(M)1495

APPENDIX: 9.4. CONTINUED

HQ634816	SSU rRNA	<i>Grosmannia davidsonii</i>	WIN(M)1494
HQ634817	SSU rRNA	<i>Meria laricis</i>	WIN(M)1525
HQ634818	SSU rRNA	<i>Meria laricis</i>	WIN(M)1528
HQ634819	SSU rRNA	<i>Grosmannia davidsonii</i>	WIN(M)1132
HQ634820	SSU rRNA	<i>Ophiostoma minus</i>	WIN(M)861
HQ634821	SSU rRNA	<i>Ophiostoma minus</i>	WIN(M)871
HQ634822	SSU rRNA	<i>Grosmannia penicillata</i>	WIN(M)27
HQ634823	SSU rRNA	<i>Ophiostoma brevicolle</i>	WIN(M)811
HQ634824	SSU rRNA	<i>Ophiostoma sp.</i>	WIN(M)1391
HQ634825	SSU rRNA	<i>Ophiostoma sp.</i>	WIN(M)1392
HQ634826	SSU rRNA	<i>Ceratocystiopsis minuta</i>	WIN(M)1533
HQ634827	SSU rRNA	<i>Ceratocystiopsis minuta</i>	WIN(M)1532
HQ634828	SSU rRNA	<i>Ceratocystiopsis minuta</i>	WIN(M)1535
HQ634829	SSU rRNA	<i>Ceratocystiopsis minuta</i>	WIN(M)1534
HQ634830	SSU rRNA	<i>Ceratocystiopsis minuta</i>	WIN(M)1536
HQ634831	SSU rRNA	<i>Ophiostoma longisporum</i>	WIN(M)48
HQ634832	SSU rRNA	<i>Ceratocystiopsis collifera</i>	WIN(M)908
HQ634833	SSU rRNA	<i>Grosmannia crassivaginata</i>	WIN(M)918
HQ634834	SSU rRNA	<i>Ceratocystiopsis rollhanseniana</i>	WIN(M)110
HQ634835	SSU rRNA	<i>Graphium sp.</i>	WIN(M)1589
HQ634836	SSU rRNA	<i>Ceratocystiopsis sp.</i>	WIN(M)1520
HQ634837	SSU rRNA	<i>Ceratocystiopsis sp.</i>	WIN(M)1521
HQ634838	SSU rRNA	<i>Ceratocystiopsis sp.</i>	WIN(M)1522
HQ634839	SSU rRNA	<i>Pesotum sp.</i>	WIN(M)1394
HQ634840	SSU rRNA	<i>Ceratocystiopsis ranaculosus</i>	WIN(M)919
HQ634841	SSU rRNA	<i>Ophiostoma retusum</i>	ATCC 22324
HQ634842	SSU rRNA	<i>Ceratocystiopsis pallidobrunnea</i>	WIN(M)51
HQ634843	SSU rRNA	<i>Sarcotrochila macrospora</i>	WIN(M)1538
HQ634844	SSU rRNA	<i>Meria laricis</i>	WIN(M)1526
HQ634845	SSU rRNA	<i>Meria laricis</i>	WIN(M)1527
HQ634846	SSU rRNA	<i>Pesotum fragrans</i>	WIN(M)1396
HQ634847	SSU rRNA	<i>Pesotum sp.</i>	WIN(M)1426
HQ634848	SSU rRNA	<i>Ceratocystiopsis minuta-bicolor</i>	WIN(M)480
HQ634849	SSU rRNA	<i>Ceratocystiopsis concentrica</i>	WIN(M)53
HQ634850	SSU rRNA	<i>Ceratocystiopsis manitobensis</i>	WIN(M)237
HQ634851	SSU rRNA	<i>Ceratocystiopsis minima</i>	WIN(M)1462
HQ634852	SSU rRNA	<i>Ceratocystiopsis minima</i>	WIN(M)61
HQ634853	SSU rRNA	<i>Ceratocystiopsis minuta</i>	WIN(M)1453
HQ634854	SSU rRNA	<i>Ceratocystiopsis minuta</i>	WIN(M)1537
HQ634855	SSU rRNA	<i>Ophiostoma crenulatum</i>	WIN(M)58

APPENDIX: 9.4. CONTINUED

HQ634856	SSU rRNA	<i>Ceratocystiopsis minimum</i>	WIN(M)85
HQ634857	SSU rRNA	<i>Ceratocystiopsis minuta</i>	WIN(M)1523
HQ634858	SSU rRNA	<i>Graphium pseudormiticum</i>	WIN(M)1569
HQ634859	SSU rRNA	<i>Graphium pseudormiticum</i>	WIN(M)1571
HQ634860	SSU rRNA	<i>Graphium pseudormiticum</i>	WIN(M)1570
JF837329	<i>rns</i>	<i>O. novo-ulmi</i> subsp <i>novo-ulmi</i>	IMI 343.101
JN871711	<i>rns</i>	<i>O. hyalothecium</i>	ATCC 28825
JN871712	<i>rns</i>	<i>O. piliferum</i>	WIN(M)973
JN871713	<i>rns</i>	<i>G. penicillata</i>	N-27
JN871714	<i>rns</i>	<i>O. deltoideosporum</i>	WIN(M)870
JN871715	<i>rns</i>	<i>O. bacillosporum</i>	CBS 771.71
JN871716	<i>rns</i>	<i>O. stenoceras</i>	WIN(M)88
JQ303200	<i>rns</i>	<i>Ceratocystiopsis minuta</i>	WIN(M)1537
JQ303201	<i>rns</i>	<i>Ceratocystiopsis manitobensis</i>	WIN(M) 237
JQ303202	<i>rns</i>	<i>Ceratocystiopsis rollhanseniana</i>	WIN(M)113
JQ303203	<i>rns</i>	<i>Ophiostoma longisporum</i>	WIN(M)48
JQ303204	<i>rns</i>	<i>Ceratocystiopsis minuta</i>	WIN(M)1508
JQ303205	<i>rns</i>	<i>O. novo-ulmi</i> ssp. <i>americana</i>	DED 2002-92
JQ303206	<i>rns</i>	<i>Ophiostoma albidum</i>	WIN(M)88
JQ303207	<i>rns</i>	<i>Ceratocystiopsis</i> sp.	WIN(M)1521
JQ303208	<i>rns</i>	<i>Ceratocystiopsis</i> sp.	WIN(M)1520
JQ303209	<i>rns</i>	<i>Ceratocystiopsis minuta</i>	WIN(M)1536
JQ303210	<i>rns</i>	<i>Ceratocystiopsis minuta</i>	WIN(M)1533
JQ303211	<i>rns</i>	<i>Ceratocystiopsis pallidobrunnea</i>	WIN(M)51
JQ303212	<i>rns</i>	<i>Ceratocystiopsis rollhanseniana</i>	WIN(M)110
JQ988063	<i>rns</i>	<i>Grosmannia</i> sp	WIN(M)165
JQ988064	<i>rns</i>	<i>Ophiostoma brevicolle</i>	WIN(M)811
JQ988065	<i>rns</i>	<i>Ophiostoma stenoceras</i>	CBS 496.77
JX139037	<i>rns</i>	<i>Chaetomium thermophilum</i>	UAMH 2024
JX139038	<i>cDNA-rns</i>	<i>Chaetomium thermophilum</i>	UAMH 2024

APPENDIX: 9.5.

OPTIMIZED DNA AND AMINO ACID SEQUENCES OF

I-OMII AND I-OMIII

9.5.1. Optimized DNA sequence of I-OmiI:

5'-
caccATGGTGATTAGCCAATGGATGAAGGAAACCGAAATGGGCTACCGTGGCTCTAAAAGCGT
CCTGGTTAATAACACTGTCAAGGAACAGCGTGTGGACGGTTCTTATATGGGCAACTGTTTCCG
TCTGCCTATGCTGCGCTGCACGCTGATGGGTCTGGAACGCGATTATCAGATTCGCATCCTGTCC
AAAGGTCTGTACAAAAAGAATGCAAGTTCTACTCTACTCTGAACAACAACATTAATCCGTGG
TTCCTGACCGGTTTCATTGATGGCGAAGGTTGCTTCAAATCAGCCTGACCAAAGTGAACCGT
GCAATCGGCTGGCGTGTACAGCTGTTCTTCCAGATCAACCTGCACGAAAAAGATCGTGCCTG
CTGGAATCCATCAAAAACTATCTGGGCGTTGGTAAAATCCATAGCTCTGGCAAAAAATATCCTG
CAGTACCGTATTCAGACTTTCGACGAGTTCATCATCATCCGCCACATGGAAAAATACCCA
CTGATCTCCAGAAACGTGCAGATTTTCGAGCTGTTTAAGAAAGCGTACGACCTGGTTATGAAG
AACGAACATCTGAACCAAGACGGTCTGCTGAAAATCGTAAGCCTGAAAGCCTCCCTGAACCT
GGGCTGTCTGATGATCTGAAACTGGCATTTCGAAACGTGATCCCGGCTACCCGCTTCACCGA
CTTTGCCGTCAACATCCCGGACCCGACGAGTGGCTGGCGGGCTTCGCGTCCGCTGAAGGTTGTTT
TATGGTGGGTATCAAAAAATCTTCCAAAAGCAACACGGGTTATCAGGTTTACGTTATCTTTAT
CATTACCCAGCACATTCGTGATGAGCTGCTGATGAAAGGTATTCTGGACTACCTGGACTGTGG
TCGTCTGGCTCGTAAGCGTGACGTATATGAATACCAGGTTTCCAAGTTTAGCGATGTAGTTGA
CAAAATTCTGGGTTTCTTCGATAAATACCCGATCCTGGGCGAAAAAGCGAAAGACCTGCTGGA
TTTCTGCATTGTGTCTGCTCTGATGAAATCTAAAGACCACCTGACCGAGGTTGGTGTGCAAA
AATCCGTAAGATCAAAGAGGGCATGAACCGCGGTGCGGAATTc~~aatga~~
-3'

9.5.2. Amino acid sequence of I-OmiI based on the optimized DNA sequence:

MVISQWMKETEMGYRGSKSVLVNNTVKEQRVDGSYMGNCFRPLMLRCTLMGL
ERDYQIRILSKGLYKKECKFYSTLNNNINPWFLTGFIDGEGCFKISLTKVNRAIGW
RVQLFFQINLHEKDRALESIKNYLGVGKIHSSGKNILQYRIQTFDEFTIIIRHMEK
YPLISQKRADFELFKAYDLVMKNEHLNQGDLKIVSLKASLNLGLSDDLKLAFL
PNVIPATRFTDFAVNIPDPQWLAGFASAEGCFMVGKSSKSNTGYQVYVIFIITQ
HIRDELLMKGILDYLDGRLARKRDVYEQVSKFSDVVDKILGFFDKYPILGEKA
KDLLDFCIVSALMKSKDHLTEVGVAKIRKIKEGMNRGREF

9.5.3. Optimized DNA sequence of I-OmiII:

5' –
caccATGCAGTCTCTGAAAAATAACATTGAATACCTGAATTGGTATATTTGCGGCCTGGTCGAT
GCGGAGGGTTCTTTCGGCGTTAACGTTGTAAACACGCGACCAACAAAACCTGGCTACGCAGTC
CTGACCTACTTCGAGATCGCTATGAACTCCAAGGACAAACAGCTGCTGGAGCTGATTAAGAA
AACCTTCGACCTGGAGTGCAATATCTACCACAATCCGAGCGATGATACCCTGAAATTCAAAGT
GTCCAACATCGAACAGATCGAAAACAAAATTATCCCGTTCTTCAAAAAGTATACGCTGTTCTC
TCAGAAGTCCGGCGACTTTATCCTGTTTTGCATGGTTATCGACCTGATCAAAAACAAAGAACA
CCTGACCCTGGACGGTCTGATCAAGATTCTGAACATCAAAGCGGCGATGAACCTGGGTCTGAG
CGAAAACCTGAAGAAAGAATTCTCCCTGTCTTCTAAGGGCGTACTGAAACGTCCTGCACCGGA
TCTGTCTAACCTGAACAAACGTTGGCTGGCTGGTTTTATTGAAGGTGAGGCATGTTTCTTCGTT
TCCATCTACAACCTCTCCAAAAAGCAAACCTGGGTAAAGCTGTACAACCTGGTTTTTCAAATCACT
CAGCATATCAAAGACAAGATCCTGATTGAATCTGTAGTGGAACCTGCTGAACTGTGGTTCGTGTG
GAAGTGCGCAAATCTAACGAAGCCTGCGATTTACGGTTACCAGCATTAAAGAAATCGAAAA
ATACATTATTCGTATTTTAAACGAGTACCCGCTGATCGGTCAGAACTGTATAACTACGAAGA
TTTTAACTGATCTTTAACATGATGAAAACCTAAAGACCACCTGACTGAAGACGGCCTGAGCAA
AATCATCGAAATCCGTAACAAAATGAACACCAACCGCATctaatga
- 3'

9.5.4. Amino acid sequence of I-OmiII based on the optimized DNA sequence:

MQSLKNNIEYLNWYICGLVDAEGSFGVNVVKHATNKTGYAVLTYFEIAMNSKD
KQLELIKKTDFDLECNINYHNPSDDTLKFKVSNIEQIENKIIPFFKKYTLFSQKSGDFI
LFCMVIDLIKNKEHLTLDGLIKILNIKAAMNLGLSENLKKEFSLSSKGVVKRPAPD
LSNLNKRWLAGFIEGEACFFVSIYNSPKSKLGKAVQLVFKITQHIKDKILIESVVEL
LNCGRVEVRKSNEACDFTVTSIKEIEKYIIPYFNEYPLIGQKLYNYEDFKLIFNMKT
KDHLTEDGLSKIIEIRNKMNTNRI

APPENDIX: 9.6.

MEDIA AND BUFFERS COMPOSITION

9.6.1. Media for bacterial and fungal growth:

Luria Bertani (LB) medium:

(Recipe for 1 liter)

10g Bacteriological peptone

5g Yeast extract

5g NaCl

H₂O to 1L

Super optimal broth with Catabolite repression (SOC) medium:

(Recipe for 1 liter)

20g Bacteriological tryptone

5g Yeast extract

0.584g NaCl

0.186g KCl

2.408g MgSO₄

3.603g Glucose

H₂O to 1L

Malt-extract agar (MEA) medium:

(Recipe for 1 liter)

20g Malt extract

1g yeast extract

20g agar

H₂O to 1L

Peptone/Yeast-extract/Glucose (PYG) medium:

(Recipe for 1 liter)

1g peptone

1g Yeast extract

3g Glucose

H₂O to 1L

2x Yeast-extract Tryptone (2x YT) medium:

(Recipe for 1 liter)

16g Tryptone

10g Yeast extract

5g NaCl

Adjust pH to 7.0 with 5N NaOH

H₂O to 1L

Terrific Broth (TB) medium:

(Recipe for 1 liter)

12g Tryptone

24g Yeast extract

4ml Glycerol

100 ml (0.17M KH_2PO_4 / 0.72M K_2HPO_4 solution)

H_2O to 1L

9.6.2. DNA buffers:

DNA extraction buffer:

(Recipe for 100 ml)

11 ml 1M Tris (pH 8.0)

11 ml 0.5M EDTA (pH 8.0)

30.8ml NaCl 5M

11ml 10% CTAB

H_2O to 100ml

Tris-Borate EDTA (TBE) buffer:

89 mM Tris-borate

10 mM EDTA, pH 8.0

Tris-EDTA (TE) buffer:

10 mM Tris (pH 8.0)

1 mM EDTA

9.6.3. Cell lysis buffers:

Lysis Buffer A

50 mM potassium phosphate, pH 7.8

400 mM NaCl

100 mM KCl

10% glycerol

0.5% Triton X-100

10 mM imidazole

Lysis Buffer B

500 mM HEPES

100 mM NaCl

Lysis Buffer C

40 mM HEPES (pH 7.5)

800 mM NaCl

10% glycerol

Lysis Buffer D

50 mM Tris

100 mM NaCl

5% Glycerol

1 mM MgCl₂

5 mM DTT

Lysis Buffer E

40mM HEPES (pH 7.5)

800mM NaCl

10% glycerol

6mM BME

Protease inhibitor cocktail

9.6.4. Protein purification buffers:

Buffer NWB5 (Wash buffer for native conditions)

40 mM HEPES

800 mM NaCl

10% Glycerol

6 mM BME

5 mM Imidazole

Buffer NWB10 (Wash buffer for native conditions)

40 mM HEPES

800 mM NaCl

10% Glycerol

6 mM BME

10 mM Imidazole

Buffer NWB20 (Wash buffer for native conditions)

40 mM HEPES

800 mM NaCl

10% Glycerol

6 mM BME

20 mM Imidazole

Buffer NWB30 (Wash buffer for native conditions)

40 mM HEPES
800 mM NaCl
10% Glycerol
6 mM BME
30 mM Imidazole

Elution Buffer NEB125/250Mm

40 mM HEPES
800 mM NaCl
20% glycerol
125/250 mM imidazole

9.6.5. Protein dialysis buffers:

Dialysis Buffer A

40 mM Hepes (pH 7.5)
200 mM NaCl
3 mM b-Mercapto-ethanol

Buffer B

40 mM Hepes (pH7.5)
1.5 M NaCl
3 mM b-Mercapto-ethanol

9.5.6. Protein storage buffer

40 mM Hepes (pH 7.5)
400 mM NaCl
0.5 mM DTT
10% (w/v) glycerol

9.6.7. SDS –PAGE gel formulations:

Running (Resolving) Gel:

	7.5%		10%		12.5%		15.0%	
	1 gel	2 gels						
dH ₂ O (ml)	1.75	3.5	1.6	3.2	1.25	2.5	0.9	1.8
Acry.:Bis-acry., 30:0.8 % (ml)	1.0	2.0	1.33	2.67	1.66	3.33	2.0	4.0
1.5 M Tris-Cl, pH 8.8. (ml)	1.0	2.0	1.0	2.0	1.0	2.0	1.0	2.0
10% SDS (μl)	40	80	40	80	40	80	40	80
10% APS (μl)	40	80	40	80	40	80	40	80
TEMED (μl)	4	8	4	8	4	8	4	8
Total Volume (ml)	4	8	4	8	4	8	4	8

Stacking (Loading) Gel:

	4%		6%	
	1 gel	2 gels	1 gel	2 gels
dH ₂ O (ml)	1.5	3.0	1.3	2.6
Acry.:Bis-acry., 30:0.8 % (ml)	0.33	0.67	0.5	1.0
0.5 M Tris-Cl, pH 6.8 (ml)	0.62	1.25	0.62	1.25
10% SDS (μl)	25	50	25	50
10% APS (μl)	25	50	25	50
TEMED (μl)	2.5	5	2.5	5
Total Volume (ml)	2.5	5	2.5	5

APPENDIX: 9.7.
LIST OF THE BACTERIAL CLONES PREPARED DURING THIS STUDY.

Code	Cell line	Plasmid/construct	Antibiotic marker
MH-1	<i>E. coli</i> DH5α	pCR4-371	Ampicillin (Amp.)
MH-2	<i>E. coli</i> DH5α	pCR4/1574	Amp.
MH-3	<i>E. coli</i> DH5α	pBSK-OmiI	Amp.
MH-4	<i>E. coli</i> DH5α	pBSK-OmiII	Amp.
MH-5	<i>E. coli</i> DH5α	pET200-OmiI	Kanamycin (Kan.)
MH-6	<i>E. coli</i> DH5α	pET200-OmiII	Kan.
MH-7	<i>E. coli</i> DH5α	pRK-415	Tetracyclin (Tc)
MH-8	<i>E. coli</i> DH5α	pCR4/1574*	Amp.
	* 1-Cleaved with I-OmiII, 2- Treated with T4 polymerase, 3- Ligated with T4 ligase.		
MH-9	<i>E. coli</i> PM191	pACYC184	Chloramphenicol (Cp)
MH-10	<i>E. coli</i> BL21 (DE3)	pET200-OmiI	Kan.
MH-11	<i>E. coli</i> BL21 (DE3)	pET200-OmiII	Kan.
MH-12	<i>E. coli</i> BL21 (DE3)	pET200-OmiI	Kan.
MH-13	<i>E. coli</i> BL21 (DE3)	pET200-lacZ	Kan.
MH-14	<i>E. coli</i> BL21 (DE3)	pET200-OmiII + pACYC184	Kan. + Cp
MH-15	<i>E. coli</i> BL21 (DE3)	pET200-OmiII + pACYC1574	Kan. + Cp
MH-16	<i>E. coli</i> Top10	pET200-OmiI	Kan.
MH-17	<i>E. coli</i> Top10	pET200-OmiII	Kan.
MH-18	<i>E. coli</i> DH5α	pRK-371	Amp.
MH-19	<i>E. coli</i> DH5α	pRK-1574	Tc
MH-20	<i>E. coli</i> DH5α	pACYC1574	Cp
MH-21	<i>E. coli</i> BL21 (DE3)	pET200-OmiII + pRK-415	kan. + Tc
MH-22	<i>E. coli</i> BL21 (DE3)	pET200-OmiI + pACYC-184	Kan. + Cp
MH-23	<i>E. coli</i> BL21 (DE3)	pET200-OmiI + pACYC-1574	Kan. + Cp
MH-24	<i>E. coli</i> BL21 (DE3)	pET200-OmiII + pACYC184	Kan. + Cp
MH-25	<i>E. coli</i> BL21 (DE3)	pET200-OmiII + pACYC1574	Kan. + Cp

APPENDIX: 9.8.
HUMAN SEQUENCES THAT ARE HIGHLY SIMILAR TO
I-OmiI AND I-OmiII TARGET SITES.

9.8.1. Human sequences that are highly similar to the I-OmiI target site.

> [ref|NT_008470.19|](#) **D** Homo sapiens chromosome 9 genomic contig, GRCh37.p5 Primary Assembly
Length=62237592

Sort alignments for this subject sequence by:
E value Score Percent identity
Query start position Subject start position

Features in this part of subject sequence:
[syntaxin-17](#)

Score = 36.2 bits (18), Expect = 0.31
Identities = 18/18 (100%), Gaps = 0/18 (0%)
Strand=Plus/Minus

```
Query 1          ATCTTTACTAGGTTTAAA 18
                |||
Sbjct 31876718   ATCTTTACTAGGTTTAAA 31876701
```

> [ref|NW_001839236.2|](#) **D** Homo sapiens chromosome 9 genomic contig, alternate assembly
HuRef SCAF_1103279188289, whole genome shotgun sequence
Length=20013418

Sort alignments for this subject sequence by:
E value Score Percent identity
Query start position Subject start position

Features in this part of subject sequence:
[syntaxin-17](#)

Score = 36.2 bits (18), Expect = 0.31
Identities = 18/18 (100%), Gaps = 0/18 (0%)
Strand=Plus/Plus

```
Query 1          ATCTTTACTAGGTTTAAA 18
                |||
Sbjct 17068527   ATCTTTACTAGGTTTAAA 17068544
```

> [ref|NT_011295.11|](#) **D** Homo sapiens chromosome 19 genomic contig, GRCh37.p5 Primary
Assembly
Length=15894584

Sort alignments for this subject sequence by:
E value Score Percent identity
Query start position Subject start position

Features flanking this part of subject sequence:
[106713 bp at 5' side: zinc finger protein 98](#)
[124447 bp at 3' side: zinc finger protein 492](#)

Score = 34.2 bits (17), Expect = 1.2
Identities = 17/17 (100%), Gaps = 0/17 (0%)
Strand=Plus/Minus

```
Query 5          TTACTAGGTTTAAAGGG 21
                |||
Sbjct 13974557   TTACTAGGTTTAAAGGG 13974541
```

> [ref|NT_113891.2|](#) **D** Homo sapiens chromosome 6 genomic contig, GRCh37.p5 alternate
locus group ALT_REF_LOCI_2
Length=4795371

Features flanking this part of subject sequence:
[61622 bp at 5' side: POU domain, class 5, transcription factor 1 isoform 2](#)
[39984 bp at 3' side: class I histocompatibility antigen, Gogo-C*0203 alpha cha...](#)

Score = 34.2 bits (17), Expect = 1.2
Identities = 17/17 (100%), Gaps = 0/17 (0%)
Strand=Plus/Plus

```
Query 6          TACTAGGTTTAAAGGGT 22
                |||
Sbjct 2710104    TACTAGGTTTAAAGGGT 2710120
```

> [ref|NT_008470.19|](#) **D** Homo sapiens chromosome 9 genomic contig, GRCh37.p5 Primary Assembly
Length=62237592

Sort alignments for this subject sequence by:
E value [Score](#) [Percent identity](#)
[Query start position](#) [Subject start position](#)

Features in this part of subject sequence:
[syntaxin-17](#)

Score = 36.2 bits (18), Expect = 0.31
Identities = 18/18 (100%), Gaps = 0/18 (0%)
Strand=Plus/Minus

```
Query 1      ATCTTTACTAGGTTTAAA 18
             |||
Sbjct 31876718 ATCTTTACTAGGTTTAAA 31876701
```

> [ref|NW_001839236.2|](#) **D** Homo sapiens chromosome 9 genomic contig, alternate assembly
HuRef SCAF_1103279188289, whole genome shotgun sequence
Length=20013418

Sort alignments for this subject sequence by:
E value [Score](#) [Percent identity](#)
[Query start position](#) [Subject start position](#)

Features in this part of subject sequence:
[syntaxin-17](#)

Score = 36.2 bits (18), Expect = 0.31
Identities = 18/18 (100%), Gaps = 0/18 (0%)
Strand=Plus/Plus

```
Query 1      ATCTTTACTAGGTTTAAA 18
             |||
Sbjct 17068527 ATCTTTACTAGGTTTAAA 17068544
```

> [ref|NT_011295.11|](#) **D** Homo sapiens chromosome 19 genomic contig, GRCh37.p5 Primary
Assembly
Length=15894584

Sort alignments for this subject sequence by:
E value [Score](#) [Percent identity](#)
[Query start position](#) [Subject start position](#)

Features flanking this part of subject sequence:
[106713 bp at 5' side: zinc finger protein 98](#)
[124447 bp at 3' side: zinc finger protein 492](#)

Score = 34.2 bits (17), Expect = 1.2
Identities = 17/17 (100%), Gaps = 0/17 (0%)
Strand=Plus/Minus

```
Query 5      TTACTAGGTTTAAAGGG 21
             |||
Sbjct 13974557 TTACTAGGTTTAAAGGG 13974541
```

> [ref|NT_113891.2|](#) **D** Homo sapiens chromosome 6 genomic contig, GRCh37.p5 alternate
locus group ALT_REF_LOCI_2
Length=4795371

Features flanking this part of subject sequence:
[61622 bp at 5' side: POU domain, class 5, transcription factor 1 isoform 2](#)
[39984 bp at 3' side: class I histocompatibility antigen, Gogo-C*0203 alpha cha...](#)

Score = 34.2 bits (17), Expect = 1.2
Identities = 17/17 (100%), Gaps = 0/17 (0%)
Strand=Plus/Plus

```
Query 6      TACTAGGTTTAAAGGGT 22
             |||
Sbjct 2710104 TACTAGGTTTAAAGGGT 2710120
```

9.8.2. Human sequences that are highly similar to the I-OmiII target site.

> [ref|NT_009952.14|](#) **D** Homo sapiens chromosome 13 genomic contig, GRCh37.p5 Primary Assembly
Length=25443670

Sort alignments for this subject sequence by:
E value [Score](#) [Percent identity](#)
[Query start position](#) [Subject start position](#)

Features flanking this part of subject sequence:
[113969 bp at 5' side: ras-related protein Rap-2a precursor](#)
[391353 bp at 3' side: importin-5](#)

Score = 36.2 bits (18), Expect = 0.31
Identities = 18/18 (100%), Gaps = 0/18 (0%)
Strand=Plus/Minus

```
Query 4      AGTGAAGTATGTTATTTA 21
             |||
Sbjct 11320358 AGTGAAGTATGTTATTTA 11320341
```

> [ref|NT_011109.16|](#) **D** Homo sapiens chromosome 19 genomic contig, GRCh37.p5 Primary Assembly
Length=31387201

Sort alignments for this subject sequence by:
E value [Score](#) [Percent identity](#)
[Query start position](#) [Subject start position](#)

Features flanking this part of subject sequence:
[556203 bp at 5' side: hypothetical protein LOC100507527](#)
[203574 bp at 3' side: zinc finger protein 507](#)

Score = 32.2 bits (16), Expect = 4.9
Identities = 16/16 (100%), Gaps = 0/16 (0%)
Strand=Plus/Minus

```
Query 7      GAAGTATGTTATTTAA 22
             |||
Sbjct 4908381  GAAGTATGTTATTTAA 4908366
```

> [ref|NT_008705.16|](#) **D** Homo sapiens chromosome 10 genomic contig, GRCh37.p5 Primary Assembly
Length=39094935

Sort alignments for this subject sequence by:
E value [Score](#) [Percent identity](#)
[Query start position](#) [Subject start position](#)

Features flanking this part of subject sequence:
[102359 bp at 5' side: coiled-coil domain-containing protein 3 precursor](#)
[5179 bp at 3' side: optineurin](#)

Score = 32.2 bits (16), Expect = 4.9
Identities = 16/16 (100%), Gaps = 0/16 (0%)
Strand=Plus/Minus

```
Query 5      GTGAAGTATGTTATTT 20
             |||
Sbjct 13085944 GTGAAGTATGTTATTT 13085929
```

> [ref|NT_022139.13|](#) **D** Homo sapiens chromosome 2 genomic contig, GRCh37.p5 Primary Assembly
Length=1439476

Sort alignments for this subject sequence by:
E value [Score](#) [Percent identity](#)
[Query start position](#) [Subject start position](#)

Features flanking this part of subject sequence:
[706156 bp at 5' side: doublecortin domain-containing protein 2C](#)

Score = 32.2 bits (16), Expect = 4.9
Identities = 16/16 (100%), Gaps = 0/16 (0%)
Strand=Plus/Plus

```
Query 4      AGTGAAGTATGTTATT 19
             |||
Sbjct 945287  AGTGAAGTATGTTATT 945302
```

> [ref|NT_011520.12](#) D Homo sapiens chromosome 22 genomic contig, GRCh37.p5 Primary Assembly
Length=29755346

Sort alignments for this subject sequence by:
E value [Score](#) [Percent identity](#)
[Query start position](#) [Subject start position](#)

Features flanking this part of subject sequence:
[36257 bp at 5' side: piwi-like protein 3](#)
[7554 bp at 3' side: small G protein signaling modulator 1 isoform 1](#)

Score = 34.2 bits (17), Expect = 1.2
Identities = 17/17 (100%), Gaps = 0/17 (0%)
Strand=Plus/Minus

```
Query 4      AGTGAAGTATGTTATT 20
             |||
Sbjct 4585308 AGTGAAGTATGTTATT 4585292
```

> [ref|NT_007933.15](#) D Homo sapiens chromosome 7 genomic contig, GRCh37.p5 Primary Assembly
Length=77412220

Sort alignments for this subject sequence by:
E value [Score](#) [Percent identity](#)
[Query start position](#) [Subject start position](#)

Features in this part of subject sequence:
[hypothetical protein LOC79974 isoform 1](#)
[hypothetical protein LOC79974 isoform 2](#)

Score = 34.2 bits (17), Expect = 1.2
Identities = 17/17 (100%), Gaps = 0/17 (0%)
Strand=Plus/Minus

```
Query 6      TGAAGTATGTTATTAA 22
             |||
Sbjct 58804282 TGAAGTATGTTATTAA 58804266
```

> [ref|NT_167187.1](#) D Homo sapiens chromosome 8 genomic contig, GRCh37.p5 Primary Assembly
Length=31697033

Sort alignments for this subject sequence by:
E value [Score](#) [Percent identity](#)
[Query start position](#) [Subject start position](#)

Features flanking this part of subject sequence:
[246069 bp at 5' side: LON peptidase N-terminal domain and RING finger protein 1](#)
[4699 bp at 3' side: hypothetical protein LOC57604 isoform 1](#)

Score = 32.2 bits (16), Expect = 4.9
Identities = 16/16 (100%), Gaps = 0/16 (0%)
Strand=Plus/Minus

```
Query 3      TAGTGAAGTATGTTAT 18
             |||
Sbjct 717159   TAGTGAAGTATGTTAT 717144
```

> [ref|NW_001842360.1](#) D Homo sapiens chromosome X genomic contig, alternate assembly
HuRef SCAF_1103279188416, whole genome shotgun sequence
Length=28651338

Sort alignments for this subject sequence by:
E value [Score](#) [Percent identity](#)
[Query start position](#) [Subject start position](#)

Features flanking this part of subject sequence:
[988148 bp at 5' side: melanoma-associated antigen B5](#)
[541559 bp at 3' side: DBP1- and CUL4-associated factor 8-like protein 2](#)

Score = 32.2 bits (16), Expect = 4.9
Identities = 16/16 (100%), Gaps = 0/16 (0%)
Strand=Plus/Plus

```
Query 7      GAAGTATGTTATTAA 22
             |||
Sbjct 18753906 GAAGTATGTTATTAA 18753921
```

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