

Fungal Origin by Horizontal Transfer of a Plant Mitochondrial Group I Intron in the Chimeric *CoxI* Gene of *Peperomia*

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Received: 2 September 1994 / Accepted: 28 April 1995

Abstract. We present phylogenetic evidence that a group I intron in an angiosperm mitochondrial gene arose recently by horizontal transfer from a fungal donor species. A 1,716-bp fragment of the mitochondrial coxI gene from the angiosperm Peperomia polybotrya was amplified via the polymerase chain reaction and sequenced. Comparison to other coxI genes revealed a 966bp group I intron, which, based on homology with the related yeast coxl intron aI4, potentially encodes a 279amino-acid site-specific DNA endonuclease. This intron, which is believed to function as a ribozyme during its own splicing, is not present in any of 19 coxI genes examined from other diverse vascular plant species. Phylogenetic analysis of intron origin was carried out using three different tree-generating algorithms, and on a variety of nucleotide and amino acid data sets from the intron and its flanking exon sequences. These analyses show that the Peperomia coxI gene intron and exon sequences are of fundamentally different evolutionary origin. The Peperomia intron is more closely related to several fungal mitochondrial introns, two of which are located at identical positions in *coxI*, than to identically located coxI introns from the land plant Marchantia and the green alga Prototheca. Conversely, the exon sequence of this gene is, as expected, most closely related to other angiosperm coxI genes. These results, together with evidence suggestive of co-conversion of exonic markers immediately flanking the intron insertion site, lead us to conclude that the Peperomia coxI intron probably arose by horizontal transfer from a fungal donor, using the double-strand-break repair pathway. The donor species may have been one of the symbiotic mycorrhizal fungi that live in close obligate association with most plants.

Key words: Plant mitochondria — *CoxI* gene — Group I intron — Intronic ORF — Horizontal gene transfer — Evolutionary origin — VA mycorrhiza

Introduction

Group I and group II introns (reviewed by Lambowitz and Belfort 1993) are ribozymes which function in the catalysis of their own excision/splicing. These two intron classes differ in secondary structure, in mechanism of splicing, and in the proteins they encode. Group I introns are the most phylogenetically widespread class of introns; they are found in nuclear rRNA genes of many diverse eukaryotes, in the genomes of a few eubacteria and their phage, and, most abundantly, in certain organellar genomes. Most chloroplast group I introns have been found in the green algal genus Chlamydomonas (e.g., Turmel et al. 1993a,b), although one notably ancient group I intron is broadly present in tRNA-Leu genes among plant and algal chloroplasts and their cyanobacterial ancestors (Kuhsel et al. 1990; Xu et al. 1990). Among mitochondria, group I introns are most numerous in fungi (Clark-Walker 1992) and in the nonvascular plant Marchantia (Oda et al. 1992); a few are reported in certain green algae (Wolff et al. 1993; Turmel et al. 1993a).

Cytochrome c oxidase catalyzes the transfer of electrons from cytochrome c to oxygen during the final step of the respiratory chain (reviewed by Capaldi et al. 1983). In most eukaryotes, subunits I-III of this complex are encoded by the corresponding mitochondrial genes coxI-coxIII, while the remaining subunits are nuclearencoded (reviewed by Gray 1992). The coxI gene is by far the most intron-rich organellar gene known, containing a grand total of 30 different introns (mostly group I) among all organisms examined thus far. As a consequence, a highly disproportionate share of the total set of introns present in many mitochondrial genomes resides in coxI, including nearly half in the fungi Podospora anserina (16 of 33 introns; Cummings et al. 1989, 1990) and Allomyces macrogynus (12 of 26 introns; Paquin and Lang 1993), over a quarter in Marchantia polymorpha (9 of 32 introns; Oda et al. 1992; Ohta et al. 1993; Ohyama et al. 1993), and two-thirds in Schizosaccharomyces pombe (4 of 6 introns; Lang 1993). It has been argued that at least five (four group I and one group II) of the nine introns in Marchantia coxI were inherited by vertical transmission from a common ancestor shared by "plants" (i.e., land plants and green algae) and fungi, based in part on the observation that these introns are located at identical positions in certain plant and fungal coxI genes, and in part on analysis of their sequence relationships (Ohta et al. 1993; Ohyama et al. 1993; Wolff et al. 1993).

All of the 23 introns reported thus far in mitochondria of vascular plants belong to group II (reviewed by Schuster and Brennicke 1994), and no introns of any type have been reported in *coxI* genes of any vascular plant. During a survey of *coxI* genes in vascular plants (Sper-Whitis and Vaughn, unpublished), we were therefore surprised to find an intron within *coxI* of the angiosperm *Peperomia polybotrya*. Here we show that this is the first example of a group I intron found in any vascular plant mitochondrial genome. Two independent lines of evidence are presented, based on intron distributional and also phylogenetic analysis, to support the conclusion that this intron arose via horizontal transfer, most likely from a fungal source.

Materials and Methods

Preparation of Total Genomic DNA. Total cell DNA was isolated from fresh leaves of Peperomia polybotrya using a cetyltrimethylammonium bromide procedure (Doyle and Doyle 1987), which included 30-min digestion with 50 µg/ml pancreatic RNase A. The DNA was further purified on CsCl step-gradients made in 10 mM Tris-HCl, pH 8.0 (1.72 g CsCl/ml—bottom, 1.50 g/ml—middle), onto which DNA in 1.0 M CsCl was layered, followed by ultracentrifugation in a Beckman 75-Ti rotor at 36,000 rpm for 12 h at 25°C. DNA, which banded at or slightly below the 1.72 g/ml interface, was both localized and quantitated following tube fractionation by Hoechst 33258 fluorescence in a microspectrofluorometer (Hoefer Scientific).

plant mitochondrial coxI gene sequences available from the GenBank/ EMBL data base and utilized for design of oligonucleotide primers. Both amino acid and nucleotide sequence conservation were considered, and primers located as close to the ends of the coxI gene as possible were sought. The upstream primer had the (noncoding) sequence 5'-(TTATTATCACTTCCGGTACT)-3', while the downstream primer had the (coding) sequence 5'-(AGCATCTGGATAATCTGG)-3'. This primer combination would be expected to result in amplification of about 45% of the coxI gene. DNA fragment amplification was done via the polymerase chain reaction (PCR) with Tag DNA polymerase using the following parameters: 30 cycles of 1-min denaturation at 94°C, 1-min annealing at 47°C, and 2-min extension at 72°C. The Peperomia PCR fragment was cloned into the pCRII plasmid vector (Invitrogen) and transformed into competent INVaF' E. coli cells. Recombinant plasmids were isolated from single colonies using standard techniques (Sambrook et al. 1989).

DNA Sequencing and Sequence Analysis. The cloned 1,716-bp coxI gene fragment was largely sequenced on both strands via the dideoxy chain termination method (Sanger et al. 1977), using a number of different primers. Sequence manipulations and searches of the Gen-Bank/EMBL data base were carried out using the GCG software package from Genetics Computer Group, University of Wisconsin (1991), version 7.

Sources of Gene Sequences. GenBank accession numbers for the following plant coxI gene sequences included in our analyses are: Beta vulgaris, X57693; Marchantia polymorpha, M68929; Glycine max, M16884; Oenothera berteriana, X05465; Oryza sativa, X15990; Peperomia polybotrya, X87336; Pisum sativum, X14409; Prototheca wickerhamii, X68721; Raphanus sativus, X57692; Sorghum bicolor, M14453; Thuja plicata, X64833; Triticum aestivum, Y00417; Zea mays, X02660. Fungal coxI accession numbers are: Aspergillus nidulans, X00790; Kluyveromyces lactis, X57546; Neurospora crassa, X14669; Podospora anserina, X55026; Saccharomyces cerevisiae, J01481; Schizosaccharomyces pombe, X00886. Accession number for the S. cerevisiae cob gene is V00686. In addition, unpublished coxI gene sequences (Sper-Whitis and Vaughn, manuscript in preparation) from the following plants were utilized in this study: Arabidopsis thaliana; Cabomba sp.; Ephedra equisetifolia; Ginkgo biloba; Isoetes flaccida; Lycopodium digitatum; Nephrolepis exaltata; Psilotum nudum; Zamia sp. Finally, the coxI gene sequence from the mycorrhizal fungus Gigaspora rosea is from Adams and Vaughn (unpublished).

Phylogenetic Analyses of CoxI Gene Sequences. Sequences were aligned by computer and refined by eye with reference to RNA secondary structure elements, or to chemical characteristics of amino acids when relevant, and were used to construct six data sets consisting of (1) exon nucleotide sequences; (2) exon amino acid sequences; (3) entireintron nucleotide sequences; (4) conserved group I intron core nucleotide sequences; (5) intronic open reading frame (ORF) nucleotide sequences; and (6) intronic ORF amino acid sequences. For the exon data sets, only the 702-bp region covered by the *Peperomia* PCR fragment described earlier, exclusive of terminal primers, was used for analysis, and only edited versions of the plant sequences were utilized (Hiesel et al. 1994).

Parsimony analyses were run on Macintosh Quadra 800 and 950 computers using PAUP v.3.1 (Swofford 1993). A branch-and-bound algorithm (Hendy and Penny 1982) was initially used to find the shortest tree for each data set. This was followed by 100 simple heuristic searches on randomized bootstrap data sets (Felsenstein 1985) to determine internal support for the clades found in the most parsimonious trees. Branch lengths were calculated under a model of accelerated transformation (ACCTRAN).

Maximum likelihood analyses were performed using fastDNAml v.1.0.6 (Olsen et al. 1994) running on a Sun SparcServer 1000 with six processors. This computer is approximately two orders of magnitude

faster than a Macintosh Quadra for such analyses. One hundred bootstrap data sets were generated and analyzed using the script fastD-NAml_boot with a transition/transversion ratio of T = 2.0. In order to improve the chances of attaining the optimal tree for each replicate, sequences were added up to eight times in random order until two matching topologies were reached, and global swapping was allowed over the default number of branches. Consensus trees were generated from the resulting sets of trees with the PHYLIP tool CONSENSE.

Neighbor-Joining analyses were performed using version 3.5c of the software package PHYLIP (Felsenstein 1993), recompiled for use on PowerPC microprocessors by Don Gilbert at Indiana University, and run on a Macintosh Quadra 800 with a PowerMacintosh Upgrade Card from Apple Computer Corp. One hundred randomized bootstrap data sets were generated by invoking the PHYLIP tool SEQBOOT. Distance matrices were calculated by DNADIST (with the Kimura twoparameter model) for nucleotide sequence sets or PROTDIST (using PAM matrices) for amino acid sequence sets, and NEIGHBOR was used for tree construction. The trees output from NEIGHBOR was condensed into one consensus tree with CONSENSE.

Results

The Peperomia CoxI Gene Contains a Group I Intron and Intron-ORF

During a survey of plant mitochondrial coxI gene evolution and RNA editing, we (Sper-Whitis and Vaughn, unpublished) used primers near the ends of the gene to PCR amplify about half of the *coxI* gene from a variety of vascular plants. All plants yielded products of the size expected for an uninterrupted, intron-lacking gene except for the angiosperm Peperomia polybotrya, whose approximately 1,750-bp product was much larger than expected. Complete sequencing of this product revealed the presence of a single large intron of 966-bp located at precisely the same position as well-characterized group I introns in coxI genes of Saccharomyces cerevisiae (intron "aI4"; Bonitz et al. 1980), the fungus Podospora anserina (intron "aI9"; Cummings et al. 1989), the liverwort Marchantia polymorpha (intron "aI7"; Ohta et al. 1993), and the green alga Prototheca wickerhamii (intron "aI3"; Wolff et al. 1993). A search of the Gen-Bank/EMBL data base revealed that the most closely related sequences to the Peperomia intron are two related group I introns from *Saccharomyces*, introns aI4 and bI4. (The latter is in the cob mitochondrial gene; Nobrega and Tzagoloff 1980.)

Figure 1 shows that the *Peperomia* and al4 introns are readily alignable over essentially their entire lengths; excluding gaps they are 58% identical in sequence (553 nucleotide identities over 951 positions). Furthermore, secondary structure analysis reveals that the *Peperomia* intron can be folded into a canonical group I intron secondary structure, one which is virtually superimposable on the al4 structure (Fig. 2). We therefore conclude that the *Peperomia coxI* interruption is indeed a group I intron and that the yeast and *Peperomia* introns belong to the same subgroup IB1 (Michel and Westhof 1990). The validity of the structure derived for the *Peperomia* intron is based on the powerful comparative approach (Fox and Woese 1975), in which the existence and extent of suspected helices are proven by the demonstration of numerous examples of compensatory base changes in the stems (Noller et al. 1981). We also conclude that the *Peperomia coxI* PCR product is derived from mitochondrial DNA, as the exon portions contain C at ten positions at which the mitochondrial *coxI* transcripts undergo $C \rightarrow U$ RNA editing (Sper-Whitis and Vaughn, unpublished), whereas nuclear genes derived from plant mitochondria have edited T's at such positions (Nugent and Palmer 1991; Covello and Gray 1992; Grohmann et al. 1992).

The *Peperomia* intron contains one long ORF of 840 nucleotides, beginning with an ATG codon located 81 nucleotides from the intron's 5'-terminus. Unlike the homologous ORF located in the yeast aI4 intron (Bonitz et al. 1980), the Peperomia intronic ORF is not in-frame with its 5'-flanking exon. Nevertheless, the two ORFs are 59% identical in nucleotide sequence over the 834 positions in the region of overlap beginning with codon ATG in Peperomia (Fig. 1). Excluding gaps, the two inferred proteins share 52% identity across the 229-residue region of overlap between Peperomia codons #48 and 276 (Fig. 3). The yeast aI4 intronic ORF has been shown to encode a site-specific DNA endonuclease, named I-SceII (Delahodde et al. 1989). The recognition sequence for the putative *Peperomia* endonuclease is predicted to be identical to that of yeast I-SceII, because the coxI gene nucleotide sequence surrounding the intron insertion site in the two species is virtually identical across some 20 nucleotides. We have named this potential new DNA endonuclease I-PepoI to distinguish it from the enzyme I-PpoI encoded by a nuclear rRNA gene group I intron in Physarum polycephalum (Muscarella et al. 1990).

The Peperomia Group I Intron Originated by Horizontal Transfer

Two lines of evidence support the hypothesis that the Peperomia coxI intron arose by horizontal transfer, rather than by vertical transmission through the plant lineage. First, parsimony considerations of intron presence/absence in vascular plants favor the notion that the intron was recently introduced into the Peperomia lineage. The 19 other vascular plants for which coxI sequences have been determined all lack an intron at this, or any other, position (Fig. 4). A hypothesis of strictly vertical evolution would require loss of the intron from all vascular plant lines except for the one leading to Peperomia. Based on current sampling and phylogenetic concepts (Donoghue 1994), this would require a minimum of at least six and more likely ten independent losses, one each from the ten groups of vascular plants shown in Fig. 4 other than the Piperales itself. A hypothesis of horizontal evolution, however, would postulate only a single event.

566

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PEP		583
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Fig. 1. Alignment of introns located at identical positions in *coxI* genes of *Peperomia* (PEP) and *S. cerevisiae* (aI4). Nucleotides within intron ORFs are in *capital letters*, while non-ORF nucleotides are in *lowercase letters*. Flanking exon sequences are indicated by *wavy lines*. Sequence elements that form intramolecularly paired stem regions (P1/P1', P2/P2', etc.) of the intron secondary structure (Fig. 2) are *boxed*.

Second, formal phylogenetic analysis, carried out using three different tree-building methods (parsimony, maximum likelihood, and neighbor-joining), shows that the intron and exon sequences of *Peperomia coxI* have *Numbering* of nucleotides begins with the start codon AUG in *Peperomia* and the corresponding nucleotide in intron al4. Gaps inserted to improve alignment are shown by *dots*. The *Peperomia* ORF contains 840 nucleotides, while the corresponding al4 sequence contains 864 nucleotides. The *Peperomia* sequence has been assigned GenBank accession number X87336.

fundamentally different phylogenetic histories. Phylogenetic analyses of 702 nucleotides of *coxI* exonic sequences produced a tree (Fig. 5B) that agrees extraordinarily well (i.e., in all topological respects and with



Fig. 2. Predicted secondary structures of *coxI* introns located at identical positions in *Peperomia* (A) and *S. cerevisiae* (B). Stems (P) and loops (L) are *numbered* according to the standard scheme for group I introns (Burke et al. 1987). Exonic boundary sequences are *boxed*. *Insets* show P1 and P10 interactions believed to help align the flanking exons for splicing.

virtually all bootstrap values quite high for all three methods) with current views of relationships among the six fungi (Bruns et al. 1992; Wilmotte et al. 1993) and nine plants (Donoghue 1994) examined. Of paramount

importance, the *Peperomia coxI* coding region is indisputably of plant origin, clustering with other land plant sequences with 100% bootstrap support and specifically with other seed plant (*Raphanus* through *Thuja*) se-



Fig. 3. Predicted amino acid sequences encoded by *coxI* gene intronic ORFs in *Peperomia* (PEP) and *S. cerevisiae* (aI4). The *numbering* of amino acid residues begins with the first methionine in the *Peperomia* sequence and the corresponding residue in the yeast sequence. The latter residue is 15 amino acids downstream of the putative initiator methionine of the yeast polypeptide. Gaps inserted to improve the alignment are shown by *dashes*. Assignment of codons is based on the universal code, except for the yeast mitochondrial CTN and TGA codons, which respectively specify threonine instead of leucine (Li and Tzagoloff 1979) and tryptophan instead of termination (reviewed by Clark-Walker 1992).

quences, again with 100% bootstrap support. That the *Peperomia* coding region is of the expected phylogenetic affinity dispels the possibility that the fungal-like intron in this species is merely an artifact of fungal DNA contamination of the *Peperomia* DNA used for PCR amplification. The poor resolution among the *Peperomia* and other angiosperm *coxI* sequences is not unexpected, both because relationships among the major lineages of angiosperms are still poorly understood (Donoghue 1994) and because of the limited number of changes among the angiosperm sequences.

The intron phylogenetic analyses included those introns that showed the highest similarity with the related coxI introns from Peperomia and Marchantia in Blast searches and which also contain a (related) endonuclease ORF, regardless of the intron's genic position. CoxI intron aI2a from Schizosaccharomyces pombe (Trinkl and Wolf 1986) is inserted at the same position as the Peperomia intron, but was excluded because it lacks an ORF. Phylogenetic analysis of the entire intron nucleotide sequence resolved the nine plant and fungal group I introns into three major groups, each with moderateto-high bootstrap support with all three methods (Fig. 5A). One clade consists of two introns that occupy a second location (Fig. 5A) in coxI genes of Aspergillus and Schizosaccharomyces and which themselves are related by a relatively recent lateral transfer event (Lang 1984). The second group contains *coxI* introns, located at

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VASCULAR PLANTS

Fig. 4. Alignment of *coxI* exonic sequences from plants and fungi that flank the *Peperomia* group I intron insertion site. Codons are *numbered* relative to the wheat sequence (Bonen et al. 1987). Only nucleotides differing from those in wheat are shown. *Boxed* nucleotides in *Zamia* undergo C-to-U RNA editing (Sper-Whitis and Vaughn, unpublished). Sequences appear in approximate order of organismal relatedness (Bruns et al. 1992; Wilmotte et al. 1993; Donoghue 1994). *Arrows* mark the position of the group I intron in those *coxI* genes which contain it. Sources of sequences are given in Materials and Methods.

the same position as in *Peperomia*, from two "plants": the nonvascular plant *Marchantia* and the green alga *Prototheca*. The third clade contains the third plant intron—the *Peperomia coxI* intron—and four fungal mito-chondrial introns.

The clear-cut conflict between the position of Peperomia in the coxI exon and intron trees (Fig. 5B) is strong evidence for a chimeric origin of this gene. The Peperomia coxI exons are clearly of land plant origin, whereas the intron is, almost equally clearly, not. This latter point is evident in three ways. First, the exclusion of the Peperomia intron from a plant-specific clade (i.e., Marchantia plus Prototheca) is strongly supported by bootstrap analysis (82-94%). Second, a parsimony analysis in which the Peperomia and Marchantia introns were constrained to be monophyletic (i.e., as expected for vertical transmission of the intron) produced a shortest tree that was fully 39 steps longer than the shortest tree in the unconstrained analysis of Fig. 5A. Third, the Marchantia and Prototheca introns were strongly united, to the exclusion of the Peperomia intron, in all phylogenetic analyses (carried out using all three methods) performed on



Fig. 5. Phylogenetic trees of mitochondrial coxl intron (A) and exon (B) sequences. The relative order of the related introns included in these analyses is shown at upper right (the three coxI introns are at nucleotide positions 720, 731, and 807 according to the Saccharomyces coordinate system; the cob intron is at position 760). Tree A shows the single shortest tree (of 2,313 steps) constructed from a parsimony analysis of the 956 variable positions in the entire-intron nucleotide data set, while **B** shows the most parsimonious tree (of 889 steps) for the 535 variable positions in the exon nucleotide data set. In both trees, bootstrap values from parsimony analysis are shown above branches, with maximum likelihood bootstrap values in the middle and neighborjoining values at bottom. Branches with less than 50% bootstrap support in parsimony analysis are shown collapsed. The intron tree is rooted on the Aspergillus and Schizosaccharomyces introns, while the exon tree is rooted according to the traditional plant/fungal split. In B, a skeletal version of the intron tree is contrasted with the exon tree to emphasize the extent to which the two trees are congruent. Note that while the Peperomia coxI intron is most closely related to fungal introns, its exon sequence is most closely related to other angiosperm sequences.

two subsets of the entire-intron data set—namely, the group I intron core sequences and the intronic ORF sequences (the latter analyzed using both amino acid and nucleotide sequences; data not shown).

While we can firmly conclude that the *Peperomia coxI* intron is not of vertical, land plant origin, the evidence for a specifically fungal origin of this intron is somewhat less strong. This greater uncertainty is largely a reflection of the overall moderate level of bootstrap support (varying from 58% to 90%, depending on the method used) for the grouping of this intron with four fungal introns (Fig. 5A). However, additional evidence for a fungal origin comes from consideration of amino

Table 1. Percent amino acid identity among related intronic ORFs^a

	Рр aI1	Мр aI7	Pw aI3	Sc aI4	Sc bI4	Pa aI9	Pa aI10
P. polybotrya (Pp)							
intron aI1	_	19%	26%	52%	47%	41%	38%
M. Polymorpha (Mp)							
intron aI7			35%	24%	26%	26%	24%
P. wickerhamii (Pw)							
intron aI3				30%	33%	36%	30%
S. cerevisiae (Sc)							
intron aI4					64%	46%	40%
S. cerevisiae (Sc)							
intron bI4					-	45%	40%
P. anserina (Pa)							
intron aI9							51%

^a Number of amino acids included in pairwise comparisons ranges from 217 to 229

acid sequence relationships of the relevant intron ORFs (Table 1). The *Peperomia* ORF is consistently higher in amino acid identity (38–51%) to the four fungal intron ORFs than it is to either the *Prototheca* (26%) or *Marchantia* (19%) ORFs, or the latter two are to the fungal sequences (24–36%).

Discussion

We have discovered the first group I intron in a vascular plant mitochondrial genome and the first intron of any type in a vascular plant *coxI* gene. Two separate lines of evidence, intron presence/absence and phylogenetic analysis of intron sequences, both indicate a horizontal origin of the *Peperomia coxI* intron. The phylogenetic analyses also point to a specifically fungal origin of this intron, while the intron distribution data are neutral on this question. Conversely, the distribution data suggest a fairly recent origin of this intron within a *Peperomia*specific lineage of flowering plants, at most 150 million years ago and possibly much more recently, while the phylogenetic analyses are essentially silent on the timing of intron transfer.

The *Peperomia* transfer adds to the growing body of reports of horizontal transfer of genetic information between distantly related species (reviewed in Smith et al. 1992; Kidwell 1993; Lambowitz and Belfort 1993). Such lateral transfers involve a variety of sequences, including introns, transposons, and housekeeping genes and occur on both evolutionary and developmental time scales (e.g., *Agrobacterium* plasmid transformation of the plant nucleus during bacterial infections, leading to crown-gall or hairy-root tumors; Zambryski et al. 1989).

Of greatest relevance to our study are the various claims made for lateral transfer of introns between disparate species. One of the most clear-cut cases involves the two identically positioned coxI group I introns that

form the outgroup clade in Fig. 5A. Horizontal transfer of this intron between recent ancestors of Aspergillus and Schizosaccharomyces has been invoked because the inferred amino acid sequences encoded by the two intronic ORFs are much more similar in sequence than are the proteins encoded by the two host *coxI* genes themselves (Lang 1984; Waring et al. 1984). A similar comparison of levels of exon and intron conservation has led to the proposal of recent horizontal transfer of a group II intron in coxI genes of Saccharomyces and Kluyveromyces (Hardy and Clark-Walker 1991). A unique case, of interorganellar transfer, has been proposed for a group I intron present at the same position in the 26S-like rRNA genes of the Chlamydomonas reinhardtii chloroplast and the Acanthamoeba castellanii mitochondrion (Lonergan and Gray 1994). A group I intron may also have been exchanged between fungal mitochondria and phage T4 (Michel and Dujon 1986), while phage group I introns in general show evidence of being mobile genetic elements (Belfort 1990; Lambowitz and Belfort 1993).

The Peperomia case stands out from these intron transfers in two respects. First, this is the only strong evidence for the horizontal acquisition of an intron by a vascular plant organellar genome; the numerous other introns in these genomes are notably uniform in distribution and vertical in descent (Palmer 1991; Nugent and Palmer 1993; Wolfe and Palmer, unpublished), and thus contrast vividly with the mobile group I and II introns of fungal mitochondrial and phage genomes. Second, we regard this as one of the strongest cases made for longdistance lateral transfer of an organellar intron. This is in part because the evidence that the Peperomia coxI intron is not of land plant origin seems so clear, and in part because ours is, perhaps, the first case where formal phylogenetic analysis has been applied to exon and intron sequences of the same gene, here showing convincingly that these sequences have traveled fundamentally different evolutionary pathways. The phylogenetic analysis also highlights two previously inferred (Bonitz et al. 1980; Cummings et al. 1990) intragenomic, intraspecific lateral transfers of this same coxl intron (Fig. 5A), i.e., its duplicative transpositions from a Peperomia-like position to either a secondary coxI location (in Podospora) or to a different gene (cob in Saccharomyces). Combining these three interkingdom or intragenomic transfers with the above-mentioned Aspergillus/Schizosaccharomyces transfer (Lang 1984; Waring et al. 1984) and the ancient intragenomic duplication implied at the base of Fig. 5A, it is clear that this coxI intron has indeed been very promiscuous during its evolution.

The *Peperomia* intron transfer warrants at least three different sorts of further study. First, by determining the intron's distribution within the *Peperomia* lineage (Piperales), it should be possible to estimate when this intron was acquired. This study will be greatly facilitated by the extraordinarily low mutation rate in plant mitochondrial

genomes (Wolfe et al. 1987), which should make tracking the intron by Southern hybridization or PCR analysis extremely easy and reliable, and by the low incidence of intron loss in these genomes (Nugent and Palmer 1993), which should reduce the chance that subsequent loss of the intron will obscure the timing of its origin.

Second, sequencing of the exonic boundaries of the intron from taxa that phylogenetically circumscribe the time of its acquisition may shed light on the mechanism of intron transfer. Current thinking is that group I introns transpose using the double-strand-break repair pathway (Szostak et al. 1983; Clyman and Belfort 1992; Lambowitz and Belfort 1993), in which the site-specific DNA endonuclease encoded by an intronic ORF of a donor genome makes a staggered, double-strand break within an intronless target site. The break is then enlarged exonucleolytically, followed by recombination of donor and host sequences within the exonic regions flanking the intron, and finally gap-repair using the donor exonic sequences as templates. As a consequence, coconversion of markers surrounding the site of endonuclease cleavage is observed-i.e., the exonic sequences immediately flanking the newly inserted intron are derived from the donor sequence and can differ from those in the host (Bell-Pedersen et al. 1989).

Inspection of plant and fungal coxI exon sequences that flank the *Peperomia* intron insertion site hints at the possibility of a co-conversion event in the specific history of this Peperomia gene. That is, the Peperomia coxI sequence is notably divergent, at three of 21 positions flanking the intron site, compared to the absolute identity in this region of 15 of the 21 known land plant sequences (Fig. 4). Furthermore, the Peperomia sequence matches the Saccharomyces sequence at these three divergent positions (Fig. 4), consistent with a fungal origin of both the Peperomia intron (Fig. 5A, Table 1) and, by coconversion, its flanking exonic sequences. However, these three changes may be fortuitous, independent changes. The five other variable plant sequences also have multiple changes; other fungi differ from Saccha*romyces* at these three positions (all of which are silent); and the alga Prototheca shares two of the three changes with Peperomia. To properly test the co-conversion hypothesis, one would need to sequence exonic boundary sequences from throughout the Peperomia lineage that has the intron and from related taxa lacking the intron. A 1:1 correspondence between intron presence and C/T/A at these three positions would be strong evidence for co-conversion.

Finally, since the *Peperomia* transfer may well be quite recent, there is a good chance that one can identify the specific, putatively fungal donor lineage by sequencing *coxI* genes and introns from a broad range of additional fungi. One possible source of the *Peperomia coxI* intron is within the symbiotic, obligate inter- and intracellular vesicular mycorrhizal (VAM) fungi known to grow in close association with root cells in nearly all plant species (reviewed by Bonfante-Fasolo 1984). We are currently exploring this interesting hypothesis.

Acknowledgments. We thank C.A. Makaroff and K.G. Wilson for valuable discussions and P.A. Schultz for sharing her VAM spore DNA isolation procedure prior to its publication. We also thank K.L. Adams for sharing his *Ephedra* and *Gigaspora coxI* gene sequences prior to their publication. J.F. Keegan provided *P. polybotrya* specimens from the Miami University greenhouses. This work was supported by funds provided to J.C.V. from a Howard Hughes Biomedical Research Grant to Miami University, by Howard Hughes Summer Research Internship awards to M.T.M. and G.L.S.-W., by a Sigma Xi grant to G.L.S.-W., by an NSF postdoctoral fellowship to P.K., and by NIH grant GM-35087 to J.D.P.

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