

## Intron Dynamics and the Evolution of Integrin $\beta$ -Subunit Genes: Maintenance of an Ancestral Gene Structure in the Coral, *Acropora millepora*

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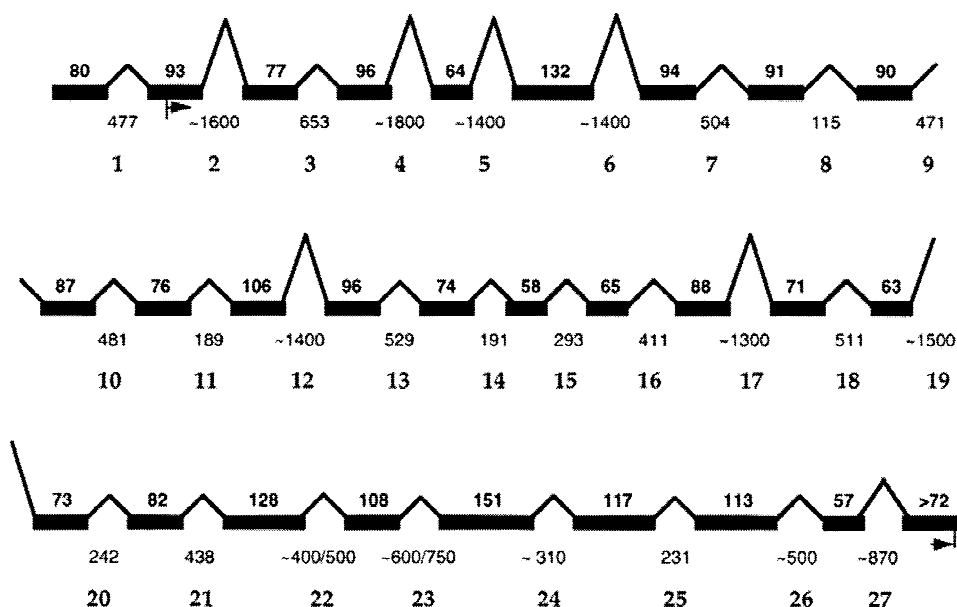
**Abstract.** We have determined the genomic structure of an integrin  $\beta$ -subunit gene from the coral, *Acropora millepora*. The coding region of the gene contains 26 introns, spaced relatively uniformly, and this is significantly more than have been found in any integrin  $\beta$ -subunit genes from higher animals. Twenty-five of the 26 coral introns are also found in a  $\beta$ -subunit gene from at least one other phylum, indicating that the coral introns are ancestral. While there are some suggestions of intron gain or sliding, the predominant theme seen in the homologues from higher animals is extensive intron loss. The coral baseline allows one to infer that a number of introns found in only one phylum of higher animals result from frequent intron loss, as opposed to the seemingly more parsimonious alternative of isolated intron gain. The patterns of intron loss confirm results from protein sequences that most of the vertebrate genes, with the exception of  $\beta 4$ , belong to one of two  $\beta$  subunit families. The similarity of the patterns within each of the  $\beta 1,2,7$  and  $\beta 3,5,6,8$  groups indicates that these gene structures have been very stable since early vertebrate evolution. Intron loss has been more extensive in the invertebrate genes, and obvious patterns have yet to emerge in this more limited data set.

**Key words:** Intron evolution — Integrin evolution — Vertebrate genome.

### Introduction

Integrins are a large family of cell surface receptors and serve as the primary molecules by which metazoan cells interact with extracellular matrix (Hynes 1992). A functional integrin is composed of an  $\alpha$ - $\beta$  heterodimer, and both  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  subunits are large (approximately 100 kDa or more) transmembrane proteins. Integrin genes have been identified in all types of metazoans, including sponges and cnidarians (Pancer et al. 1997; Brower et al. 1997; Wimmer et al. 1999), but they have not been found in any fungi or plants, including the completed genomes of *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* and *Arabidopsis thaliana* (Mewes et al. 1997; Arabidopsis Genome Initiative 2000). Integrin  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  subunits are nonhomologous to one another, but for each subunit type the overall structural properties of the proteins appear to be highly conserved. Indicative of this structural conservation, most  $\beta$  subunits contain 56 extracellular cysteines, proposed to form a set of conserved disulfide bonds. One likely reason for the overall high degree of conserved structure is that the  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  subunits appear to interact along their entire lengths and undergo concerted allosteric changes when the heterodimer switches between active and inactive conformations (Humphries 1996).

We set out to examine the genomic organization of an integrin  $\beta$ -subunit gene, corresponding to cDNAs previously isolated from the coral, *Acropora millepora* (Brower et al., 1997). We found an unexpectedly large number of introns in the cnidarian gene and compared the locations of these to  $\beta$ -subunit genes from *Caenorhabditis elegans*, *Drosophila melanogaster*, and humans. Integrin  $\beta$  subunits seem to be well suited to this



**Fig. 1.** Genome organization of the *A. millepora*  $\beta$ Cn1 integrin gene. Introns are numbered 1–27, and the sizes of the introns and exons are indicated. *Arrows* indicate the positions of the initiating AUG and the stop codon. Introns 22 and 23 were polymorphic in size in our sample.

type of analysis, since they are large and structurally well conserved, containing residues throughout that permit one to make sequence homology assignments with confidence. The results lead to the conclusion that the coral introns represent an ancestral genomic structure and provide novel insights into the evolution of genomic organization in animals.

## Methods

*Acropora millepora* genomic DNA was a kind gift of Julian Catmull and David Miller and was extracted from embryos collected near Magnetic Island, Queensland, Australia. Using the *A. millepora* integrin  $\beta$ -subunit cDNA sequence [Genbank accession number AF005356 (Brower et al. 1997)], PCR primers were generated from multiple sites and fragments were amplified using Pfu Turbo DNA polymerase (Stratagene) from the genomic template. Amplified fragments were sequenced directly at the LMSE DNA sequencing facility of the University of Arizona, and the splice sites of all introns within the cDNA sequence were identified. Locations in the cDNA sequence of the last nucleotide of each exon (where 1 is the start of the initiating AUG) are as follows: exon 1, nucleotide – 30; 2, 64, 3, 41; 4, 237; 5, 301; 6, 433; 7, 521; 8, 612; 9, 702; 10, 789; 11, 867; 12, 963; 13, 1059; 14, 1133; 15, 1191; 16, 1256; 17, 1344; 18, 1415; 19, 1478; 20, 1552; 21, 1633; 22, 1761; 23, 1869; 24, 2020; 25, 2137; 26, 2250; and 27, 2307.

Sequences of other genes for comparisons were from work in our lab and the *C. elegans* and *Drosophila* genomic sequencing projects for the invertebrate genes (*C. elegans* Sequencing Consortium 1998; Adams et al. 2000). Human gene structures were from Weitzman et al. (1991) ( $\beta$ 2), Lanza et al. (1990) ( $\beta$ 3), Iacovacci et al. (1997) ( $\beta$ 4), and Jiang et al. (1992) ( $\beta$ 7), from sequences deposited in Genbank by the International Human Genome Sequencing Consortium (2001) (primarily  $\beta$ 1,  $\beta$ 5, and  $\beta$ 8, although parts of the previously published sequences were checked as well), and from the Celera.com web site for  $\beta$ 6 (Venter et al. 2001). To identify splice sites, Blast searches were run using both protein and cDNA sequences against the appropriate genome sequences. (Genbank accession numbers for cDNA sequences:

$\beta$ 1, NM 002211;  $\beta$ 2, NM 000211;  $\beta$ 3, NM 000212;  $\beta$ 4, X52186;  $\beta$ 5, J05633;  $\beta$ 6, NM 000888;  $\beta$ 7, NM 000889;  $\beta$ 8, NM 002214;  $\beta$ PS, J03251;  $\beta$ neu, L13305; and  $\beta$ pat-3, U19744.) Multiple sequence alignments were done using ClustalW (Baylor College of Medicine web site), with subsequent adjustments by hand, keying on the homologous cysteines.

## Results

Using sequence from an *A. millepora* cDNA as a guide, we generated primers from which we PCR-amplified sections of the corresponding gene from *A. millepora* genomic DNA. We then directly sequenced the amplified DNA to determine the locations of all introns. In all, 27 introns were identified within the boundaries of the cDNA sequence, one 5' to the initiating methionine and 26 within the coding sequence (Fig. 1).

The *A. millepora*  $\beta$ -subunit gene is broken up into relatively small exons, ranging in size from 57 to 151 nucleotides. The intron sizes range from 115 base pairs (bp) to almost 2 kilobases (kb). (The sizes of some introns were not determined by complete sequencing but are estimated from gels.) Not surprisingly, intron sequences display more polymorphism than the exon sequences, and two introns from our sample show significant polymorphism in size. The sequences surrounding the splice sites match well with the consensus frequencies seen for vertebrate mRNAs (Padgett et al. 1986).

Genomic structures have been determined for the single *C. elegans*, two *Drosophila*, and eight human integrin  $\beta$  genes (see Methods). By way of background, the nematode and fly each contain only one typical integrin  $\beta$ -subunit gene (Hynes and Zhao 2000). The *Drosophila*

$\beta\nu$  is a highly divergent protein with a restricted expression that suggests a specialized function (Yee and Hynes 1993), and there are no obvious orthologues to  $\beta\nu$  known from other animals.

Figure 2 shows the assembled intron locations, and comparisons of the different genes are summarized in Table 1. Although many of the genes, including the coral, have an intron in the 5' untranslated sequence, we did not include this since there is no corresponding protein sequence from which to make independent inferences of positional homology. Even though absolute sequences are not always well conserved in parts of integrin  $\beta$  subunits, the positions of the 56 cysteines present in most of the proteins allow structural homologies to be assigned with good resolution for most of the sequence.

Of the 26 coding region coral introns, 24 have at least one cognate in a higher animal. Additionally, we find that the position of one of the two "unique" coral introns, number 10, is precisely conserved in the sponge, *Ophlitaspongia tenuis* (S. Miller and D.B., unpublished). This suggests that the coral  $\beta$ -subunit gene structure is ancestral (see Discussion), and we describe the results based on this interpretation. We also assume that intron positions can move slightly during evolution. Although there is some disagreement regarding the scope of such intron sliding (e.g., De Souza et al. 1998; Rzhetsky et al. 1997; Stoltzfus et al. 1997; Roy et al. 1999), for most of the analyses this seems much more parsimonious than positing multiple intron losses and gains to explain relatively minor shifts in position. Many of the slight deviations in position, especially those in the highly divergent human  $\beta 4$  and fly  $\beta\nu$  genes, are likely to result from uncertainties in the multiple sequence alignment. Introns that may represent genuine additions to the ancestral coral positions are the human sets near coral introns 6, 7, 18, and 23. (For easy reference, all noncoral intron positions are indicated relative to the coral positions, numbered in Fig. 2.) Since each of these coral introns is matched with a cognate in the human  $\beta 4$  gene, we infer that the coral introns are ancestral.

For the vertebrate introns, the distributions clearly sort into three sets, comprised of the divergent  $\beta 4$  and the related  $\beta 1,2,7$  and  $\beta 3,5,6,8$  groups. For the latter two groups, most intron sites are conserved for all seven genes, except for introns 6, 7, 18, and 24, where the patterns segregate the vertebrate genes into the two groups.

Two of the vertebrate genes,  $\beta 4$  and  $\beta 8$ , have cytoplasmic domains that are generally considered to be non-homologous to the other  $\beta$  subunits. However, each gene has a cytoplasmic intron that aligns with other  $\beta$ -gene introns, as determined by the distance from the transmembrane domain. The first cytoplasmic intron of  $\beta 4$  aligns precisely with a coral intron, even though all

amino acid sequence homology disappears following the conserved tryptophan–lysine doublet at the membrane interface. Additionally, the cytoplasmic intron of  $\beta 8$  aligns reasonably well with the other vertebrate cytoplasmic introns.

Compared to the vertebrates the fly and worm genes have many fewer introns. All of these invertebrate introns line up well with coral cognates. There are no clear cladistic relationships between these invertebrate intron positions. In particular, the *Drosophila*  $\beta\nu$  is not obviously more similar to the fly  $\beta PS$  than to the nematode  $\beta pat-3$  or to any of the vertebrate genes.

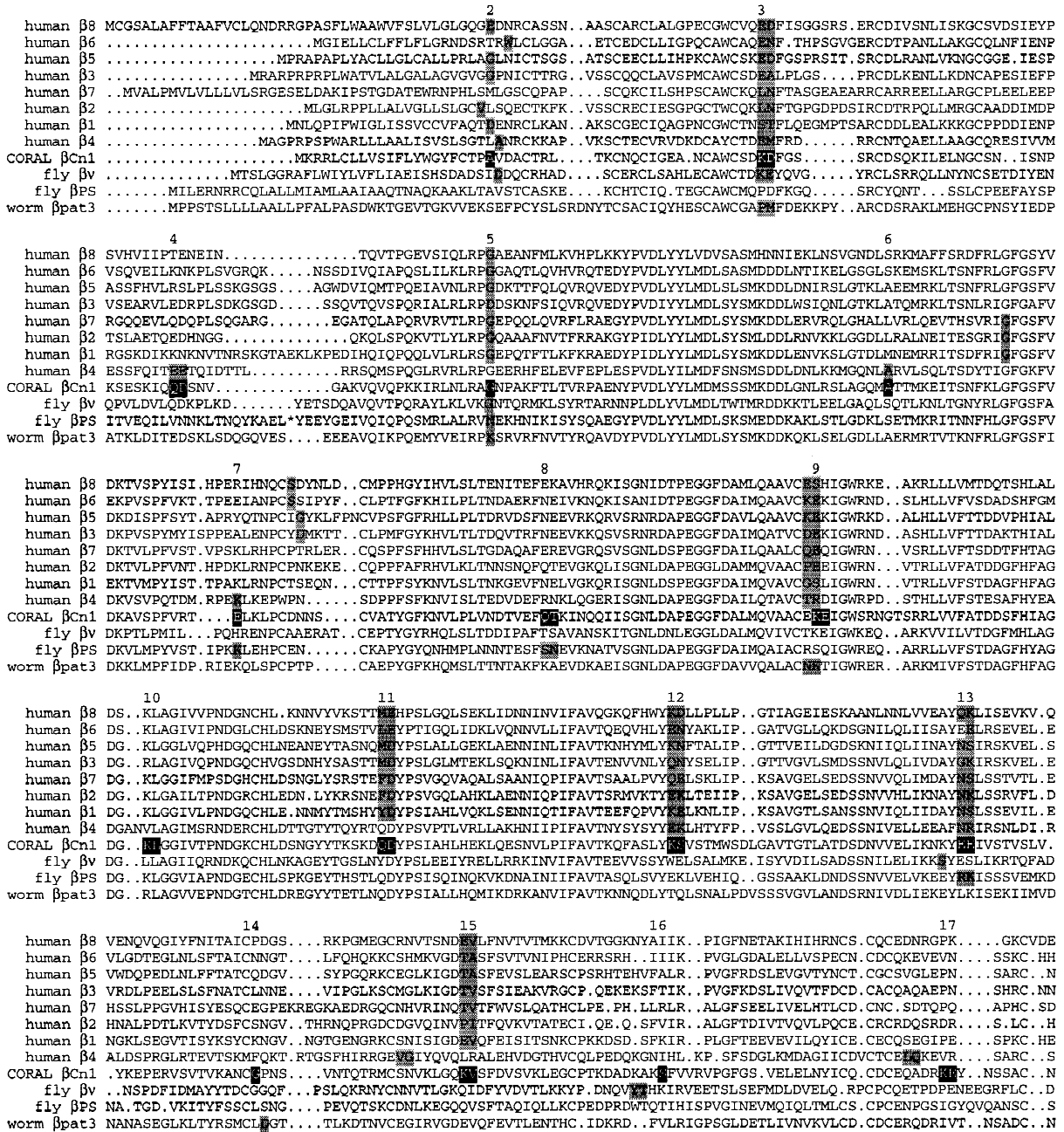
## Discussion

### *The Coral Genomic Structure Is Ancestral*

The relatively large number of introns found in the *Acropora* integrin  $\beta$ -subunit gene raised the possibility that intron accumulation may be a derived state of this gene. However, comparisons with other integrin  $\beta$ -subunit genes reveals that the coral pattern is ancestral and that loss in the more advanced phyla has been extensive and variable. (It should be noted that the term "ancestral" here refers to the metazoan lineage only; since integrins appear to be specific to animals, our data do not address issues related to more distant events.)

Only one of the coral introns has not been found in any of the other animals examined. Since at least nine of the coral introns (and possibly more, depending on how one interprets some potential cases of intron sliding), have been retained in only one of the other  $\beta$  genes, it seems reasonable statistically that loss of all of the non-coral cognates could be expected in some cases. Also, the coral gene is characterized by fairly short exons, and if the unique coral intron was deleted the resulting exon would be the longest in the sequence. These considerations suggest that the unique coral intron represents a site at which the cognates have been lost from all of the other animals, as opposed to a site at which the coral lineage gained an intron after its divergence from other metazoans.

Less clear is whether any ancestral  $\beta$ -subunit introns have been lost from *A. millepora*. Although some exons could be bisected to yield exon pairs that would be within the minimum size range present in the rest of the gene (50–60 bp), there are no corresponding introns in the other phyla to indicate the presence of primal introns at these sites. The best case for an intron unique to non-coral species, which might therefore indicate a site of coral loss, is the  $\beta 1,2,7$  intron between coral intron 6 and coral intron 7. However, it should be noted that if the exon bounded by coral intron 6 and coral intron 7 was divided in the middle at one time in an *Acropora* ancestor, the resulting exons would be the shortest in the gene.



**Fig. 2.** Positions of introns in integrin  $\beta$ -subunit genes. Intron positions are indicated by shading; coral introns are in the darker boxes between the human and the invertebrate sequences and are numbered (intron 1 is in the untranslated 5' leader). Boxes with two residues denote splice sites that fall at the codon boundary. For nucleotide positions of the coral splice sites, see Methods.

We cannot say why the coral integrin  $\beta$  gene should retain the ancient intron so effectively. Previously determined cnidarian gene structures, including those of noncoral cnidarians, do not suggest any trend toward intron richness relative to animals such as vertebrate (Bosch et al. 1989; Fisher and Bode 1989; Aerne et al. 1993; Lopez et al. 1994; Gendeh et al. 1997; Sun et al. 1997; Vibede et al. 1998; Erber et al. 1999; Spafford et al. 1999; Tom et al. 1999; Miller et al. 2000). Indeed, several of these studies indicate that cnidarians can have reduced numbers of introns relative to higher animals. For example, Erber et al. (1999) examined gene struc-

tures of another structurally related protein family, the nuclear lamins. In this work, as with other vertebrate genes, and the nematode and fly had reduced numbers of introns in divergent genes. However, the cnidarian (*Hydra attenuata*) was missing the majority of the introns seen in the higher animals, retaining just three at the 3' end of the gene.

One of the more interesting studies in this regard is that of Spafford et al. (1999), who compared intron positions in a sodium channel gene from a hydrozoan jellyfish with those from vertebrates and flies. Like the

18 19 20 21

human β8 TFLDLSKCFQC...DENKCHFDEDFSSSES...CKSHK...DQPVCSGRGVCVCGKCSCHKIKLGLK...VYGYKCEKDDFSCPYPYHHGNLCA...HGEC

human β6 GNGSFQCGVCACHPGHMGRPCBEGEDMLSTDS...C.KEA...PDHPSCSGRGDCYCGQCICHLSPYGN...IYGPYQCCDNFSCVRHKLGLLGG...NGDC

human β5 GSGTYVVCGLCECSPGYLGRTRCECQDGENQSVYQNL...C.REA...EGKPLCSGRGDCSCNQSCFSEFEFGK...IYGPFCEDNFSCARNKGVLC...HGEC

human β3 GNGTFECGVCRCGPGWLGSQCCESEEDYRPSQDE...C.SPR...GQPVCSQRGCECLCGQCVCVHSSDFGK...ITGYKCECDDFSCVRYKGMCS...HGQC

human β7 QGGHLQCGVCSAPGRLGRLECECSVAELSSPDLSE...CRAPN...GTGPLCSGRGHCDCGRCSCSQS...SGHLCECDDASCERHGILCG...FGR

human β2 GGGFLCEGICCDTGYIGNCECCTQGRSSQELSE...CRKDN...NSIICSGGLGDCVCGQCCLCHTSVDPVGLIYGYQYCECDDINCERYNGQVCGG...RGLC

human β1 GNGTFECGACVNEGRVGRHCECSTDEVNEMDAY...CRKEN...SSEICSNNGECVCGQCVCRCRDMNTNEIYSGKFCEDNFNCDRNSGLICG...NGVC

human β4 FNGDFVCGQCVCSECSGQTCNCSTGSLSDIQ...CLREG...EDKPCSGRGECCGHCVCVYGEGRY...EGQFCBYDNFQCPRTSGLFLMD...RGR

CORAL βCn1 KLGALTCGLCACNECFKFKCQCDTPFCKTEQDK...CKFSN...STDEPLCSGRGECACGECVCR...EQQR...FYGKLCENCFDSCPEYEGNLCC...AERGVC

fly βv YKGYLYCGMCECDEGWTGTYNCPDPTATNVTSEALLQKCRQPFSDKSTSELVCSNHGDCDCGTCLCDFGYT...GPFCECRE...LDCDE...KLADC

fly βPS GHGTSMCGICNCDSDSYFNKCECSATDLTSKFAINDTS...CRADS...TSTTDCSGRGHCVGACBCHKRPNPIEIIISGKHCEDNFSCERNRNLQCSGPDHGTC

worm βpat3 G.GDMVCGVCRCKGGNVGKYCECNRPMGSTAALNEK...CKFTN...ESAICBGRGVNCNCRGECNPRANPEQISGEFCECDDNFNCPHRDRKICAE...HGEC

22 23

human β8 EAGRCQCFSGWEGDRQC...CPSAA.AQHCVNS.KGQVCSG...RGTCV...CGRCECTDP...RSIGRFCEHC.PTCY.TACKEN...NCMQLHPHNLQAIL

human β6 DCGECVCRSGWTEGYCN...CTTST...DSCVSE.DGVLCSE...RGDCV...CGKCVCTNP...GASGPTCERC.PTCG.DPNCNSKNSCIECHLSAAG.QA.G

human β5 HCGECKCHAGYIGDNCN...CSTDI...STCRGR.DGQCISE...RGHCL...CGQCCTEP...GAPGEMCEK.PTCP.DACSTKRDCEVCLLHSGKPD.N

human β3 SCGDLCDSDWTTGYCN...CTTST...DTCMSS.NGLLCSG...RGKCE...CGSCVCIQP...GSGYDTECK.PTCP.DACTFKKCECCKKFDREPYMTE

human β7 QCGVCHCHANRTGRACE...CSGDM...DSCISP.BGGLCSG...RGRCK...CNRQCCLD...GYGALCQCP.GGCK.PTCERHDCAECEGAFRTGPLA..

human β2 FCGKCRCHPFGESSAQ...CERTT...EGCLNP.RRVECSG...RGRCR...CNVCEC.HS...GYQLPLCQEC.PGCP.SPGKYSACECLKFEKQPF..

human β1 KCRVCECNPNYTGASCD...CSLDT...STCEAS.NGQICNG...RGICE...CGVCKCTDP...KFGQCTCEMC.QTCL.GVCAEHECEVQCRAFNGEK..

human β4 SMGQCVCEPWTGSPCD...CPLSN...ATCIDS.NGQICNG...RGHCE...CGRCHCQOS...LYTDTICENINYSHPGLCEDLRSVCVQCAWGTGK..G

CORAL βCn1 RCRKQCKDKYHGADACQKNTFFPPETICKDQAK...MCGGADRGRCKVDSVNCYKQCNKE...FDGTYCENC...CENGMCITRNVDCALCSTFQKSLK..

fly βv FCGQCVCKYGWSGKCN...CDGDT...DACVGP.TGEICSE...RGTCQ...CEECQCEEP...YLGKFCID.PEKDNKLCFLYEPVCTLIEQKQGMG..

fly βPS ECGRCKKPGWTSNGC...CQESN...DTCMPFGGGEICSG...HGTC...CGVCKCTVNDQG.RFSGRHCEK.PTCS.GRQELKDCVQCMYKTELKNG

worm βpat3 NCGKICAPGWTGRACE...CFIST...DSCLSA.NGKICNG...KGECI...CGRRCFSDPDGNRYSGAKCEIC.PTCP.TKCEYKNCVMCQWQTGPL.NE

24 25

human β8 DQCKTS...CA...LMEQHYVDQTS...CFSSPSYLRIFFIIFIVTFLIGLLKVLIIQV

human β6 EECVDK...CKLAGA...TISEE...FSKDGSVSCSLQGEN...ECLITFLIT.DNEGKTIHSINE.KKCPKPNIPMIMLGVSLATLIGVLLCIWKLL

human β5 QTCHSL...CRDEVI...TWVDT...KDDQEAFLCFYKTA...DCVMMFTYVE.LPSGKSNLTVLRE.PKCGNTPNAMITILLAVVGSILLVGLALLAIWKLL

human β3 NTCNRY...CRDEIE...SVKEL...DTGKDAVNCTYKNE...DCVVRFOYYE.DSSGKSLVVEE.PKCPKGPDIIVLVLVSMGAILLIGLAALLIWKLL

human β7 TNCSTA...CAHTNV...TLALAPILDDGWCKERTLDN...Q.LFFFLVEDDARGTVVL.RVRPQ.EKGADHTQ...AIVLGCVGGIVAVVGLGLVAYRLS

human β2 KNCNSAA...CPGLQL...SNNPVKGRCTKERDSE...GCWVAVTLQQDGMDRYLIYVDES.RECVAGPNIAAIVGTVAGIVLIGLALLIWKLL

human β1 DTCQTE...CSYFNITKVESRDKLPQVPQDPVSHCKE.KDQV...DCWFYPTYVSVNGNNEVM.VHVVEN.PKCPPTGPDIIPIVAGVAGIVLIGLALLIWKLL

human β4 RTCEE...CNFFVK...MVDLKR...EEVVVRCFRDEDD...DCTYSYTMEGDAGPNNSTLVHKKKCP.PGSFWMILLPLLLLPLLLIWKLLIWKLL

CORAL βCn1 .ECKQSKC.CEENVL...EVQIVDDIKKKT...EGLYRCEGIDQD...GCTYFTTTEADSKNFVLVQKDK...SCPTTEAPVLPVILVGGVGLLFLGLLIIIVIKGL

fly βv .VCENLTEICSSLLDR...QETYFYNFVHLEDPDQDQCLVRLVNHKGIQCSFFAYQVI.DHSNFLTQA...VDC.EPPDYVALVGYISAFLLIIGLIIIFILWY

fly βPS DDCARF...CTQFVP...VGVKEVEIDETKDEQMKF.FDED...DCKFMFKYSEQGEHLVYAQEN...KCPAKVMLGIVMGVIAAIVLVLGAILLWKLL

worm βpat3 TACDQ...CEPKVI...PVEELP...LNETTPCQVFPAD...DCTFYLYYYDEATDNATVVRKH.KDCPPVPVLAIVLGVIAIVLIGLIIIIWKLL

26 27

human β8 ILQWNSNKKISSSDYRVSASK...KLILOSVCTRAVYRREKPEEIKMDISKLNHETFRCNF

human β6 VSFHDRKEVAKFAERSKAKWQ...TINPLYRGSTTFKINVTYKREKQVDLSTDC

human β5 VTIHDRREFAKFQSESRARYE...SNPLYRKPISTHTVDFTFNFKNSYNGTVD

human β3 ITIHDRKEFAKFEERARAKWD...SNPLYKEATSTFTNITYRGT

human β7 VEIYDRREYSRFEKEQQQLNWK...SNPLYKSAITTTINPRQEADSPTL

human β2 IHLSDLREYRRFEKEKLSQWNND...NPLFKSATTVMNPKFAES

human β1 MIHDRREFAKFEKEMNAKWD...SNPIYKSAVTTVMNPKYEGK

human β4 ACCKCLALLPCCNRR...HMVGPKEHYMLRENLMASDHLDTPL.RSGNMLKGRDVRVWVVTNMQRPGF + hundreds more

CORAL βCn1 FTM...RIEYQKFERERMHSKWT...KNPLYQAATTFENPTYAGGRQ

fly βv IRAKDAREYAKFEEDQKNS...VRQENPIYRDPVGRYEVPKALSVKYDENPFAS

fly βPS ITIHDRREFARFEKERMNKAWD...ENPIYKQATSTFKNPMYAGK

worm βpat3 TVLHDRSEYATFNNERLMAKWD...ENPIYKQATTTFKNPMYAGKAN

Fig. 2. Continued.

Table 1. Intron positions shared by integrin β-subunit genes<sup>a</sup>

	Total	βCn1	β4	β1,2,7	β3,5,8	βPS	βv
Coral βCn1	26						
Human β4	17	17					
Human β1,2,7	14	11	8				
Human β3,5,8	14	12	9	12			
Fly βPS	5	5	2	3	3		
Fly βv	5	5	3	4	4	2	
Worm βpat-3	7	7	3	4	5	2	2

<sup>a</sup> The table includes only introns in the coding region. It does not include possible vertebrate cognates near coral introns 6, 7, 18, and 23. It does include the β4 intron near coral intron 15, as this apparent misalignment is likely to result from problems with the multiple sequence alignment, due to β4 nonhomology in this region. No β4 introns after position 26 are included, since the extensive cytoplasmic domain of this gene is nonhomologous to that of other integrins.

integrin β subunit, these genes have a highly conserved overall structure, in this case consisting of four repeats of six transmembrane domains. They found that 17 intron positions were conserved between the jellyfish and two

vertebrate genes, including all 11 present in regions encoding the conserved domains within the membrane. Thus, although the cnidarian was not conspicuously intron rich, there appears to have been very little loss or gain in any of the animals examined for the most conserved structural domains of the proteins.

Anthozoans (such as corals) occupy a basal position in the phylum Cnidaria (Schuchert 1993; Bridge et al. 1995), and it will be interesting to see if corals generally retain ancestral genomic structures more faithfully than other cnidarians or if the integrin gene is unusual in this respect. From the relatively few *Acropora* or other coral genes that have been characterized previously for genomic structure, there has been no indication of unusual intron richness (Tom et al. 1999; Miller et al. 2000).

#### Metazoan Intron Loss Has Been Extensive

There is an ongoing debate as to whether the evolution of gene structures is characterized primarily by intron loss

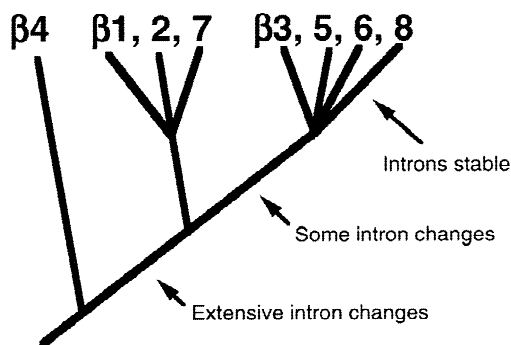
or intron gain, with the complication that introns can occasionally move or “slide” to some degree (DeSouza et al. 1998; Rzhetsky et al. 1997; Stoltzfus et al. 1997; Roy et al. 1999; Gilbert 1987; Palmer and Logsdon 1991; Stoltzfus et al. 1994). Tests of these ideas are limited by the fact that all genes, including those of primitive organisms, have been evolving for many millions of years since the divergence of the major phylogenetic groups, and the ancestral gene structure can be difficult to infer. Because of this, investigators often are forced to rely on statistical analyses of relatively small data sets, and it is not unheard of for different studies to reach dissimilar conclusions from similar data (e.g., Dibb and Newman 1989; Nyberg and Cronhjort 1992).

The remarkable correspondence of almost all of the introns in the intron-rich coral integrin  $\beta$ -subunit gene with one or more introns in a homologue from a higher animal allows one to view the coral gene as an ancestral “baseline.” Although suggestions of intron gain and sliding are evident in Fig. 2, it is clear that evolution of the gene structure in the higher animal homologues is characterized predominantly by the loss of ancestral introns. It is particularly noteworthy that without the coral baseline sequence, at least 15 of the *C. elegans*, *Drosophila*, or human introns would be restricted to a single phylum, and based on simple parsimony arguments these would likely be considered as evidence for sporadic intron gain, as opposed to extensive intron loss. In metazoans at least, intron loss may have been much more extensive than previously suspected, and this must be taken into account when making estimations of parsimony.

#### *The Vertebrate Introns Have Been Stable Since the Early Gene Duplications*

An early origin for the gene duplications that created the  $\beta_{1,2,7}$  and  $\beta_{3,5,6,8}$  groups is indicated by the fact that members of both groups have been identified in an amphibian (Ransom et al. 1993). Within the human  $\beta_{1,2,7}$  and  $\beta_{3,5,6,8}$  groups, there are 26 locations in which all three or four members of a group are found, and only two locations in which one member of a group is absent. In one of these two sites (intron 24), there is an extensive gap in the protein sequence for  $\beta_8$ , and the intron has disappeared along with the coding sequence. So, discounting this deletion, there is only one case of a single intron loss within a group, intron 2 of  $\beta_7$ . Even this intron is in the N-terminal unconserved domain (including the signal sequence), and so it is possible that the intron was not lost precisely, but disappeared along with a replacement of the coding sequence due to a larger rearrangement affecting the gene.

The above observations indicate that most of the intron loss in the human  $\beta$ -subunit genes occurred relatively early in the evolution of the phylum and that these genes have been very stable with respect to intron loss



**Fig. 3.** Groups of vertebrate integrin  $\beta$  subunits. The extent of intron remodeling decreases with time and is essentially zero in the most recent branches, which are hundreds of millions of years old.

for hundreds of millions of years. It will be very interesting to see if this is a general property of human and other vertebrate genomes. A similar conclusion cannot be drawn for the invertebrate genes; to address this question, one would like to have genomic structures for a large sample of integrin  $\beta$  genes from one phylum.

#### *Integrin $\beta$ -Gene Evolution*

The  $\beta_{1,2,7}$  and  $\beta_{3,5,6,8}$  genes group together based on protein sequence (Brower et al. 1997; Hughes 1992; Burke 1999; Hughes 2001), as well as intron pattern. However, the  $\beta_4$  protein sequence does not fit neatly into either the  $\beta_{1,2,7}$  or the  $\beta_{3,5,6,8}$  group. The  $\beta_4$  sequence is also difficult to interpret from an evolutionary standpoint since this protein is functionally unique, being the only vertebrate  $\beta$  subunit that contributes to an integrin that associates with intermediate filaments (Van der Neut et al. 1996; Rezniczek et al. 1998). Thus, the divergent protein sequence could reflect an unusual rate or direction of selection.

The  $\beta_4$  intron pattern indicates conclusively that this gene diverged early, before the separation of the other vertebrate groups. (Fig. 3) Indeed, the pattern and sequence of  $\beta_4$  are so unusual that it raises the question of whether this gene diverged before the establishment of a precursor vertebrate lineage (see also Hughes 2001). There is no  $\beta_4$  orthologue in *Drosophila* or *C. elegans*, but we cannot rule out the possibility that an ancestral  $\beta_4$  gene was lost from these lineages. This is especially true since, although *C. elegans* does express intermediate filament genes (Dodemont et al. 1994), the *Drosophila* genome appears to be missing such genes completely (Goldstein and Gunawardena 2000).

The invertebrate  $\beta$  genes display no clear pattern of intron loss that would shed light on their cladistic relationships. In particular, the fly  $\beta_{PS}$  and  $\beta_{\nu}$  do not show any similarities that might allow one to determine if the  $\beta_{\nu}$  gene, which so far is unique to flies, was initially established in the arthropod lineage. This may suggest a deeper derivation for  $\beta_{\nu}$ , but it also is possible that the

patterns are less clear because of a generally high rate of intron loss in the ecdysozoa.

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