tion is likely to destroy actin binding of Myo15, creating a loss-of-function allele. Myo 15 led to identification of the human homolog, MYO15, and to the discovery of a nonsense mutation and two missense mutations in three unrelated human families with nonsyndromic, congenital deafness, DFNB3 (9).

Mutations in three different unconventional myosins, Myol5sh2, Myo6sv, and Myo7a ${ }^{\text {sh1 }}$, cause deafness (13). Morphology and histology of severe loss-of-function alleles in the mouse suggest that each of these myosins has a unique function in the hair cells of the inner ear. Our results show that Myol5 is involved in the maintenance of actin organization in the hair cells of the organ of Corti. Loss of Myo 7 a causes disorganization of the characteristic pattern of the stereocilia early in development, whereas loss of Myo6 function causes fusion of the stereocilia and loss of the inner hair cells and support cells by 6 weeks of age (14). In contrast, the inner hair cells of sh2 mutants survive longer (15) and the abnormally short stereocilia are arranged in a nearly normal pattern on the hair cell surface. These features make shaker-2 mice a good model for examining the role of a unique unconventional myosin in the auditory system and for the exploration of mechanisms for the delivery of functional proteins to surviving mutant hair cells.

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# Association of Unconventional Myosin MYO15 Mutations with Human Nonsyndromic Deafness DFNB3 

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#### Abstract

DFNB3, a locus for nonsyndromic sensorineural recessive deafness, maps to a 3-centimorgan interval on human chromosome 17p11.2, a region that shows conserved synteny with mouse shaker-2. A human unconventional myosin gene, MYO15, was identified by combining functional and positional cloning approaches in searching for shaker-2 and DFNB3. MYO15 has at least 50 exons spanning 36 kilobases. Sequence analyses of these exons in affected individuals from three unrelated DFNB3 families revealed two missense mutations and one nonsense mutation that cosegregated with congenital recessive deafness.


NNonsyndromic recessive deafness accounts for about $80 \%$ of hereditary hearing loss (1). To date, 20 loci responsible for this form of deafness have been mapped and three have been identified (2-4). DFNB3, first identified in families from Bengkala, Bali, initially was mapped to a 12 -centimorgan ( cM ) region near the centromere of chromosome 17 (5) and subsequently was refined to a $3-\mathrm{cM}$ region of 17 p 11.2 (6). Congenital hereditary deafness in two unrelated consanguineous families from India is also linked to DFNB3 (6), indicating that the contribution of DFNB3 alleles to hereditary deafness is likely to be geographically widespread.

On the basis of conserved synteny and similar phenotypes, we proposed that the
autosomal recessive mouse mutation shak$e r-2$ was the homolog of $\operatorname{DFNB} 3(5,6)$. In the accompanying paper, we describe the bacterial artificial chromosome (BAC)-mediated transgene correction of the deafness and circling phenotype of homozygous shak-er-2 mice (7). DNA sequence analyses of this BAC revealed an unconventional myosin gene, Myol5. Myosins are a family of actin-based molecular motors that use energy from hydrolysis of adenosine triphosphate (ATP) to generate mechanical force. The classic, two-headed filament-forming myosins that provide the basis for muscle contraction are referred to as conventional myosins. Other members of the myosin superfamily, the unconventional myosins,

Fig. 1. (A) Predicted amino acid sequence of MYO15. A partial MYO15 cDNA (4757 bp) is predicted to encode 1585 amino acids with a motor domain (blue), two IQ motifs (green), and a tail region containing a MyTH4 and a talin-like domain (red). A consensus ATP binding site and two putative actin binding sites within the motor domain are indicated (red and pink, respectively). Miniexon 6 in the motor domain is also shown (red). The corresponding mouse Myo15 sequence is shown below the human sequence. Amino acid identities are indicated by dots. The three DFNB3 mutations (N890Y, I892F, and K1300X) are highlighted in yellow above the sequence, and the shaker-2 mutation (C610Y) is highlighted in yellow below the sequence. (B) Genomic structure of MYO15. Relative positions of 50 MYO15 exons in 35.9 kb of genomic DNA sequence are indicated. Intronic sequences are drawn to scale but exons are not. Solid black or red vertical lines represent exons that have been identified in cDNA clones. Dashed vertical lines represent exons that are predicted based on GENSCAN, GRAIL, and conservation between human and mouse sequences. Alternative exon 24 (red vertical line) was found in a brain cDNA clone. Exon 24 has stop codons in all three reading frames and, if included in a transcript, would result in a MYO15 isoform with a shorter tail. The three DFNB3 mutations and the domain organization of the encoded MYO15 protein are also shown.
have functions that are less well understood but in some cases are thought to mediate intracellular trafficking events (8). All myosins share a common structural organization consisting of a conserved $\mathrm{NH}_{2}$-terminal motor domain followed by a variable number of light-chain binding (IQ) motifs and a highly divergent tail. In the shaker-2 mouse, an amino acid substitution was found in a conserved residue in the motor domain of Myo15 (7). Here we report the identification of human MYO15 (9) and describe three mutations of this gene that cause hereditary deafness in three DFNB3 families (10).

To isolate MYO15, we used primers to predict exons of the mouse homolog to
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|  |  |
| :---: | :---: |
| 85 | PPHLFAVANLAFAKMLDAKQNQCIIISGESGSGKTEATKLILRYLAAMNQKREVMQQIKILEATPLLESFGNAKTVRNDNSSRF |
|  | I. . . . . . . . . . . . .v. . . . . . . . . . . . . . . .C. . . . .R.D.... . . . . . . . ${ }^{\text {A. }}$ |
| 169 | GKFVEIFLEGGVISGAITSQYLLEKSRIVFQAKNERNYHIFYELLAGLPAQLRQAFSLQEAETYYYLNQGGNCEIAGKSDADDF |
|  | ...........c................................................................................... |
| 253 | RRLLAAMEVLGFSSEDQDSIFRILASILHLGNVYFEKYETDAQEVASVVSAREIQAVAELLQISPEGLQKAITFKVTETMREKI |
|  |  |
| 337 | FTPLTVESAVDARDAIAKVLYALLFSWLITRVNALVSPRQDTLSIAILDIYGFEDLSFNSFEQLCINYANENLQYLFNKIVFQE |
|  | . . .G. . . . . . . . . . .к. . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . <br> actin binding site |
| 421 | EQEEYIREQIDWQEITFADNQPCINLISLKPYGILRILDDQCCFPQATDHTFLQKCHYHHGANPLYSKPKMPLPEFTIKHYAGK |
| 505 | VTYQVHKFLDKNHDQVRQDVLDLFVRSRTRVVAHLFSSHAPQAAPQRLGKSSSSVTRLYKAHTVAAKFQQSLLDLVEKMERCNPL |
|  | . . . . . . . . . . . . . A.t. .P. . . . . . I |
| 589 | FMRCLKPNHKKEPGLFEPDVVMAQLRYSGVLETVRIRKEGFPVRLPFQGFIDRYCCLVALKHDLPANGDMCVSVLSRLCKVMPN |
|  | .V. . . . . . . . . . . . M. . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . .v. . . . .R. . . . .LNV. .D. . . . . . . . . .t.t.d |
|  | C610Y IQ motif IQ motif |

673 MYRVGVSKLFLKEHLYQLLESMREHVLNLAALTLQRCLRGFFIKRRFRSLRHKIILLQSRARGYLARQRYQQMRRSLVKFRSLV


757 HAYVSRRRYLKELSKREVVAVGHLEVPAELAGLLQAVAGLGLAQVPQVAPVRTPRLQAEPRVTLPLDINNYPMAKFVQCHFKEP

AFGMLTVPLRTPLTQLPAEHHAEAVSIFKLILRFMGDPHLHGARENIFGKYZVQKGLAVPELRDEILAQLANQVWHNHNAHNAE S........KM...R..V......I.V....M. . . . . . . . .TQ.M.L. . . . .HQ. .VE.A. . . . . . . . . . . . .R.P.. Y.SK RGWLLLAACLSGFAPSPCFNKYLLKFVSDYGRNGFQAVCQHRLMQAMGRAQQQGSGAARTLPPTQLEWTATYEKASMALDVGCF


1009 NGDQFSCPVHSWSTGEEVAGDILRHRVFGNSWDSDEDMSTRPQPQEHMPKVLDSDGYSSHNQDESDSLGEPAVPHKGLDCYLDS .......................................................................KE.AV..I..ST.. PRE..G....

LFDPVLSYGDADLEKPTAIAYRMKGGGQPGGGSSSGTEDTPRRPPEPKPSLDASTLALQQAFIHKQAVLLAREMTLQATALQQQ

1177 PLSAALRSLPAEKPPAPEAQPTSVGTGPPAKPVLLRATPKPLAPAPLAKAPRLPIKPVAAPVLAQDQASPETTSPSPELVRYST
1267 LNSEHFPQPTQQIKNIVRQYQQPFRGGRPEALRKDGGIVFMKRPDPHEEALMILKGQMTHLAAAPGTQVSREAVALVKPVTSAP


1345 RPSMAPTSALPSRSLEPPEELTQTRLHRLINPNFYGYQDAPWKIFLRKEVFYPKDSYSHPVQLDLLFRQILHDTLSEACLRISE ..C.G..PVQ..........DPV..Q....V.....................
1429 DERLRMKALFAQNQLDTQKPLVTESVKRAVVSTARDTWEVYFSRIFPATGSVGTGVQLLAVSHVGIKLLRMVKGGQEAGGQLRV


1513 LRAYSFADILFVTMPSQNMLEFNLASEKVILFSARAHQVKTLVDDFILELKKDSDYVVAVRNFLPEDPALL


amplify human genomic DNA. Sequence analyses of four polymerase chain reaction (PCR) products showed $99 \%$ identity to Myol5 at the amino acid level (11), indicating that the isolated PCR products were derived from MYO15. When these human sequences were used as starting points, a partial MYO15 cDNA sequence of $\sim 2.3$ kilobases (kb) was identified by RACE
(rapid amplification of cDNA ends) and reverse transcription-PCR (RT-PCR) (12). To obtain additional MYO15 sequences, we isolated genomic clones from a human chromosome 17 -specific cosmid library, and the $35.9-\mathrm{kb}$ insert from one clone was completely sequenced (13) (GenBank accession number AFO51976). Coding regions were identified by means of gene structure

Fig. 2. (A) MYO15 mutations in the Bengkala kindred and two unrelated Indian families, M21 and I-1924. Portions of MYO 15 DNA sequences are shown for an individual with normal hearing (control) and for an affected individual from each of the three DFNB3 families. The position of each mutation and the corresponding normal allele is indicated by an arrow and an asterisk. (B) Cosegregation of I892F, N890Y, and K1300X point mutations of MYO15 with deafness in three Bengkala nuclear families and two Indian families (M21 and I-1924, respectively). Genomic DNA from individuals in these families was PCR amplified with primer pairs specific for normal $(N)$ or mutant $(M)$ alleles (31). Amplification products in each lane correspond to numbered individuals directly above in the pedigrees. In each family, all deaf individuals are homozygous for the mutant MYO15 allele. Their hearing parents are heterozygotes. Cosegregation of the mutant allele with deafness in the second Indian family I-1924 was demonstrated by RFLP analysis. Genomic NA was PCR amplified and digested with Xmn I. PCR products obtained from the

A


prediction programs (14), homology search (BLASTX) (15), and Pustell DNA matrix analysis (MacVector 6.0) (16), which together predicted the presence of 49 exons in this cosmid. Of these, 45 MYO 15 exons have thus far been identified in cDNA clones (12, 17). A 6-base pair (bp) exon 6 was not predicted but is present in a MYO15 cDNA clone (18). The longest MYO15 open reading frame deduced from the overlapping cDNAs is 4757 bp , which comprises 45 exons (Fig. 1A) (19).

To determine whether MYO15 maps to the DFNB3 critical region, we used a primer pair derived from MYO15 intron 15 to amplify DNA from somatic cell hybrid lines containing various deletions of chromosomal region 17 p 11.2 (6). The results demonstrated that MYO15 maps to the $3-\mathrm{cM}$ DFNB3 critical region (20).

Searches of public nucleotide and protein databases with the MYO15 cDNA sequence ( 4757 bp ) revealed no exact matches, and the highest significant matches were to actual or predicted unconventional myosins (21). In MYO15, a motor domain from codon 21 to 696 was identified by alignment against chicken skeletal muscle myosin II (GgFSK) (Fig. 1, A and B) (22). Alignments with other myosins reveal a consensus ATP binding site (GESGSGKT) (exon 5) (23) and two putative actin binding sites (exon 15 and 19) (24). Two IQ motifs adjacent to the motor domain are encoded in exon 22 (25). The tail region of MYO15 contains a myosin tail homology 4 ( MyTH 4 ) domain (26), encoded in exons 27 and 28 , similar to those present in unconventional myosins of Acanthamoeba (Myo4), Caenorhabditis elegans (Myo12/ HUM-4 and HUM-6), Bos taurus (Myo10),
and human (MYO7A) (27). A talin-like sequence was also found in the MYO15 tail region spanning exons 42 to 47 (26).

Myosins are classified on the basis of sequence divergence of their motor domains. To date, 14 classes have been defined (28). In a ClustalW alignment with the motor domains of MYO15 and other myosins, the highest amino acid identity was $42 \%$ with C. elegans HUM-6 (GenBank accession number U80848) and $41 \%$ with MYO7A (GenBank accession number U39226) (29). The extent of sequence divergence of MYO15 motor domain from

Fig. 3. Expression of MYO15. (A) Expression of MYO15 in human fetal cochlea by RT-PCR analysis. RNA from human fetal cochlea and human placenta was reverse transcribed from an oligo(dT) primer and a portion of the firststrand CDNA was PCR amplified with primers derived from MYO15 exons 21 and 27 (37). Lane 1, RT-PCR product from 10 ng of fetal cochlea poly (A) ${ }^{+}$RNA; lane 2, RT-PCR product from 20 ng of fetal cochlea poly (A) ${ }^{+}$RNA; lane 3, RT-PCR product from $1 \mu \mathrm{~g}$ of total placenta RNA; lane 4, PCR amplification of a mock reverse transcription reaction (no RNA). The primers will amplify a 688 -bp product from cDNA and a 2903 -bp product from genomic DNA. The identity of the 688 -bp RT-PCR products from fetal cochlea and placenta was confirmed by sequence analysis. The PCR was run in a $1 \%$ agarose gel with 100 -bp markers (lane M) (Gibco-BRL). (B) Northern blot analysis using a MYO15 RT-PCR product from exons 29 to 47 as a probe. Each lane contains approximately $2 \mu \mathrm{~g}$ of poly (A) + RNA from a human adult (left, lanes 1 to 8) or from fetal tissue (right, lanes 9 to 12) (MTN blots 7760-1 and 7756-1; Clontech Laboratories). Lane 1, heart; lane 2, brain; lane 3, placenta; lane 4, lung; lane 5, liver; lane 6, muscle; lane 7 , kidney; lane 8, pancreas; lane 9, brain; lane 10, lung; lane 11, liver; lane 12, kidney. The most intense hybridization signals ( 4.2 to 5.5 kb ) were observed in poly (A) ${ }^{+}$RNA from adult and fetal brains (lanes 2 and 9). The same filters were rehybridized to a $\beta$-actin control probe for assessment of equal poly $(\mathrm{A})^{+}$ RNA loading and transfer efficiency and are shown in the lower panel. Hybridization conditions are described in (13).
and 100 unrelated Caucasians (31). In the Bengkala kindred, an A-to-T transversion ( $2674 \mathrm{~A} \rightarrow \mathrm{~T}$ ) in codon 892 (exon 28) is predicted to result in an Ile-to-Phe (I892F) substitution at a conserved position within the MyTH4 domain. The mutation identified in Indian family M21 (2668 A $\rightarrow \mathrm{T}$, exon 28) also is predicted to result in a substitution within the MyTH4 domain (Asp-to-Tyr; N890Y) and is found just two codons upstream of the mutation in the Bengkala families. Although a function for a MyTH4 domain is not known, the presence of these mutations suggests a critical role of this region of MYO15 in sensory transduction within the human inner ear. In contrast to these two missense mutations, the mutation identified in the other Indian family (I-1924) is a nonsense mutation in exon 39 ( $3898 \mathrm{~A} \rightarrow \mathrm{~T}$; K1300X) and is predicted to result in either a truncated protein or no protein at all (32).

MYO15 is expressed in human fetal and adult brain as evaluated by Northern blot analysis (Fig. 3B). As shown by dot-blot analysis of poly (A)+ RNA from a variety of tissues, MYO15 is expressed in ovary, testis, kidney, and pituitary gland $(33,34)$. We also observed expression of MYO15 by RTPCR of poly $(A)^{+}$RNA from cochlea of 18- to 22-week fetuses (Fig. 3A). Sequencing of the RT-PCR product confirmed that it corresponds to MYO15.

Our data show that MYO15 may be expressed in a number of tissues in addition to the inner ear. However, there is no obvious consistent clinical abnormality other than profound deafness in affected individuals from these three DFNB3 families. A possible explanation for the absence of pleiotropy of these MYO15 mutations is the presence of functional redundancy provided by unconventional myosins expressed in other tissues. Alternatively, the region where the three DFNB3 mutations occurred may be functionally significant only in the auditory system. The isoform of MYOI5 in the inner ear identified by RT-PCR does not contain exon 24, although this exon has been observed in cDNA clones derived from other tissues (35). Exon 24 contains translation stop codons in all three reading frames. Therefore, DFNB3 missense and nonsense mutations in exons 28 and 39 are not likely to have a functional consequence for MYO15 isoforms that include exon 24.

We have identified three mutations of MYO15 in two geographically and ethnically diverse populations and are now in a position to evaluate the contribution of DFNB3 to hereditary deafness worldwide. Additionally, our findings demonstrate that MYO15 encodes an essential mechanoenzyme of the auditory system. Mutations in two other unconventional myosins, Myo6
and MYO7A, also cause hereditary deafness $(4,36)$. This implies that unconventional myosins play crucial and nonredundant roles in auditory hair cell function. The discovery of MYO15 provides another entry point toward an integrated understanding of auditory signaling pathways.

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10. Human participation was approved by the Institutional Review Boards of National Institute of Neurological Disorders and Stroke/National Institute on Deafness and Other Communicative Disorders (OH97-DC-NOO6 and OH93-DC-016), Brigham and Women's Hospital (87-02294), Udayana University, Denpasar Bali (1997-1), and the All India Institute of Medical Genetics (S-8066-01).
11. Twenty-seven primer pairs were synthesized based on the sequence of predicted mouse Myo 15 exons. Only four primer pairs from exons 11, 14, 16, and 18 amplified human genomic DNA.
12. The $5^{\prime}$ and $3^{\prime}$ RACE reactions were performed with human fetal brain and placenta Marathon-Ready cDNAs (7402-1 and 7411-1; Clontech Laboratories).
13. A human chromosome 17 cosmid arrayed library was hybridized overnight at $42^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ with $2 \times 10^{7} \mathrm{cpm}$ of $\alpha$-32P-labeled MYO15 cDNA fragment from exon 11 in Hybrisol I (Oncor). Filters were washed in 0.015 M NaCl containing 0.0015 M sodium citrate and $0.5 \%$ SDS at $55^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ for 1 hour and autoradiographed. Northern blot analysis used the same hybridization conditions as above except that final washes were done at $65^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$. Random fragments of cosmid 155 d 02 were subcloned and sequenced; 868 M13 sequence reads on $\mathrm{PE} / \mathrm{AB}$ 377s gave an average of 10 -fold coverage of this cosmid IR. K. Wilson and E. R. Mardis, Analyzing DNA, B. Birren, E. D. Green, S. Klapholz, R. M. Myers, J. Roskams, Eds. (Cold Spring Harbor Laboratory Press, Cold Spring Harbor, NY, 1997), p. 398]. Contig assembly and editing were done with the Phred/Phrap/Consed suite of programs [B. Ewing, L. Hillier, M. C. Wendl, P Green, Genome Res. 8, 175 (1998); D. Gordon et al., ibid., p. 195 (available at http://www.genome washington.edu/UWGC/)].
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16. Human cosmid and mouse BAC sequences were compared [J. Pustell and F. C. Kafatos, ibid. 12, 643 (1984)].
17. MYO15 CDNA fragments were subcloned into pGEM T-Easy (Promega) and sequenced on a PE/ABI 377 using Thermo Sequenase dye terminators (Amersham Life Science).
18. Mouse Myo15 has a predicted mini exon 6 with conserved amino acids and donor and acceptor
splice sites. We have not yet identified this mini exon in Myo 15 cDNA clones.
19. Abbreviations for amino acid residues are as follows: A, Ala; C, Cys; D, Asp; E, Glu; F, Phe; G, Gly; H, His; I, lle; K, Lys; L, Leu; M, Met; N, Asn; P, Pro; Q, Gln; R, Arg; S, Ser; T, Thr; V, Val; W, Trp; and Y, Tyr.
20. A. Wang, data not shown.
21. No MYO15 expressed sequence tags (ESTS) were identified in dbEST and TIGR databases and MYO15 clones were not present among 235,392 I.M.A.G.E. Consortium cDNAs (Genome Systems). The following are the top three $P(N)$ scores obtained by a BLASTX search of GenBank with the MYO15 CDNA sequence: MYO7A (accession number U39226), 1.3e-182; Myo7A (accession number U81453), 1.3e-177; C. elegans HUM-6 (accession number U80848), 6.2e-177.
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29. MYO1C, an unconventional myosin that maps to 17p13, was suggested as a DFNB3 candidate [F. Crozet et al., Genomics 40, 332 (1997); T. Hasson et al., ibid. 36, 431 (1996)]. There is $37 \%$ amino acid identity between MYO1C and MYO15 in the motor domain.
30. Primer pairs to each MYO15 exon were designed to amplify both the exon and 20 to 100 bp of flanking intronic sequence. Genomic DNA from affected individuals in three DFNB3 families and normal controls were used as a template for PCR amplification. Sequences of these 50 primer pairs and the PCR amplification conditions can be obtained from the authors. PCR products were gel purified (Qiagen) and sequenced with Thermo Sequenase radiolabeled terminators (Amersham Life Science).
31. Both normal allele and mutant allele specific primers (ASO) were synthesized for the Bengkala and M21 families. Normal ASO (N-ASO) are $5{ }^{\prime}$-GAACATCT-TCGGGAACTACA-3' (Bengkala) and 5'-CGG-GAGAACATCTTCGGGA-3' (M21). Mutant ASO (MASO) are the same as above except that the most $3^{\prime}$ nucleotide is $T$ instead of $A$. The antisense primer is 5'-TTGGGCTCCACTGCTGGT-3'. PCRs were done in $25 \mu$ using 1 unit of Taq DNA polymerase with each primer at $0.4 \mu \mathrm{M} ; 200 \mu \mathrm{M}$ each deoxyadenosine triphosphate (dATP), deoxythymidine triphosphate (dTTP), deoxyguanosine triphosphate (dGTP), and deoxycytidine triphosphate (dCTP); and PCR buffer [ 10 mM tris $-\mathrm{HCl}(\mathrm{pH} 9.0), 50 \mathrm{mM} \mathrm{KCl}, 1.5 \mathrm{mM}$ $\mathrm{MgCl}_{2}, 0.1 \%$ Triton X-100] in a cycle condition of $94^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ for 1 min and then 32 cycles of $94^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ for 30 s , annealing temperature $\left(53^{\circ} \mathrm{C}\right.$ for Bengkala N-ASO and M-ASO, $59^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ for M21 N-ASO and M-ASO) for 30 s , and $72^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ for 30 s followed by $72^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ for 6 min . For cosegregation analysis, genomic DNA from all available affected individuals and their family members was used for PCR amplification. PCR conditions for screening random individuals are the same as above. The mutation in family $1-1924$ removes an Xmn I site and thus restriction fragment length polymorphism (RFLP) analysis was used to screen the family and
random individuals. The primer pair used for genomic DNA amplification is $5^{\prime}$-TCTCCCTGGATTCT-CATTTA-3' (forward) and $5^{\prime}$-TCTTTGTCTTCTGT-TCCACC-3' (reverse). Reactions were performed in $25 \mu$ using 1 unit of Taq DNA polymerase with each primer at $0.4 \mu \mathrm{M} ; 200 \mu \mathrm{M}$ each dATP, dTTP, dGTP, and dCTP; and PCR buffer ( 10 mM tris- $\mathrm{HCl}(\mathrm{pH} 8.3$ ), $50 \mathrm{mM} \mathrm{KCl}_{2}, 1.5 \mathrm{mM} \mathrm{MgCl}_{2}$ ] in a cycle condition of $94^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ for 1 min and then $35^{\circ}$ cycles of $94^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ for 30 s , $55^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ for 30 s , and $72^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ for 30 s followed by $72^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ for 6 min . PCR products were purified (Qiagen), digested with Xmn I, and separated in a 2\% agarose gel.
32. A nonsense mutation may affect mRNA stability and result in degradation of the transcript [L. Maquat, Am. J. Hum. Genet. 59, 279 (1996)].
33. Data not shown; a dot blot with poly (A)+ RNA from 50 human tissues (The Human RNA Master Blot, 7770-1, Clontech Laboratories) was hybridized with a probe from exons 29 to 47 of MYO15 using the same condition as Northern blot analysis (13),
34. Smith-Magenis syndrome (SMS) is due to deletions of 17 p 11.2 of various sizes, the smallest of which includes MYO15 and perhaps 20 other genes [(6); K-S Chen, L. Potocki, J. R. Lupski, MRDD Res. Rev. 2, 122 (1996)]. MYO15 expression is easily detected in the pituitary gland (data not shown). Haploinsufficiency for MYO15 may explain a portion of the SMS
phenotype such as short stature. Moreover, a few SMS patients have sensorineural hearing loss, possibly because of a point mutation in MYO15 in trans to the SMS 17p11.2 deletion.
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37. RNA was extracted from cochlea (membranous labyrinths) obtained from human fetuses at 18 to 22 weeks of development in accordance with guidelines established by the Human Research Committee at the Brigham and Women's Hospital. Only samples without evidence of degradation were pooled for poly (A) ${ }^{+}$selection over oligo(dT) columns. Firststrand cDNA was prepared using an Advantage RT-for-PCR kit (Clontech Laboratories). A portion of the first-strand CDNA (4\%) was amplified by PCR with Advantage cDNA polymerase mix (Clontech Laboratories) using human MYO15-specific oligonucleotide primers (forward, $5^{\prime}$-GCATGACCTGCCGGCTAAT-GGG-3'; reverse, 5'-CTCACGGCTTCTGCATGGT-GCTCGGCTGGC- $3^{\prime}$ ). Cycling conditions were 40 s at $94^{\circ} \mathrm{C} ; 40$ s at $66^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ (3 cycles), $60^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ ( 5 cycles), and $55^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ ( 29 cycles); and 45 s at $68^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$. PCR products were visualized by ethidium bromide staining after fractionation in a $1 \%$ agarose gel. A 688-bp PCR
product is expected from amplification of the human MYO15 CDNA. Amplification of human genomic DNA with this primer pair would result in a 2903-bp fragment.
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## Continuity in Evolution: On the Nature of Transitions

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To distinguish continuous from discontinuous evolutionary change, a relation of nearness between phenotypes is needed. Such a relation is based on the probability of one phenotype being accessible from another through changes in the genotype. This nearness relation is exemplified by calculating the shape neighborhood of a transfer RNA secondary structure and provides a characterization of discontinuous shape transformations in RNA. The simulation of replicating and mutating RNA populations under selection shows that sudden adaptive progress coincides mostly, but not always, with discontinuous shape transformations. The nature of these transformations illuminates the key role of neutral genetic drift in their realization.

Amuch-debated issue in evolutionary biology concerns the extent to which the history of life has proceeded gradually or has been punctuated by discontinuous transitions at the level of phenotypes (1). Our goal is to make the notion of a discontinuous transition more precise and to understand how it arises in a model of evolutionary adaptation.

We focus on the narrow domain of RNA secondary structure, which is currently the simplest computationally tractable, yet realistic phenotype (2). This choice enables the definition and exploration of concepts that may prove useful in a wider context. RNA secondary structures represent a coarse level of analysis compared with the three-dimensional structure at atomic resolution. Yet, secondary structures are empir-

[^0]ically well defined and obtain their biophysical and biochemical importance from being a scaffold for the tertiary structure. For the sake of brevity; we shall refer to secondary structures as "shapes." RNA combines in a single molecule both genotype (replicatable sequence) and phenotype (selectable shape), making it ideally suited for in vitro evolution experiments $(3,4)$.

To generate evolutionary histories, we used a stochastic continuous time model of an RNA population replicating and mutating in a capacity-constrained flow reactor under selection $(5,6)$. In the laboratory, a goal might be to find an RNA aptamer binding specifically to a molecule (4). Although in the experiment the evolutionary end product was unknown, we thought of its shape as being specified implicitly by the imposed selection criterion. Because our intent is to study evolutionary histories rather than end products, we defined a target shape in advance and assumed the replication rate of a sequence to be a function of
the similarity between its shape and the target. An actual situation may involve more than one best shape, but this does not affect our conclusions.

An instance representing in its qualitative features all the simulations we performed is shown in Fig. 1A. Starting with identical sequences folding into a random shape, the simulation was stopped when the population became dominated by the target, here a canonical tRNA shape. The black curve traces the average distance to the target (inversely related to fitness) in the population against time. Aside from a short initial phase, the entire history is dominated by steps, that is, flat periods of no apparent adaptive progress, interrupted by sudden approaches toward the target structure (7). However, the dominant shapes in the population not only change at these marked events but undergo several fitness-neutral transformations during the periods of no apparent progress. Although discontinuities in the fitness trace are evident, it is entirely unclear when and on the basis of what the series of successive phenotypes itself can be called continuous or discontinuous.

A set of entities is organized into a (topological) space by assigning to each entity a system of neighborhoods. In the present case, there are two kinds of entities: sequences and shapes, which are related by a thermodynamic folding procedure. The set of possible sequences (of fixed length) is naturally organized into a space because point mutations induce a canonical neighborhood. The neighborhood of a sequence consists of all its one-error mutants. The problem is how to organize the set of possible shapes into a space. The issue arises because, in contrast to sequences, there are


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