Evolutionary Relationships Among the Members of an Ancient Class of Non-LTR Retrotransposons Found in the Nematode *Caenorhabditis elegans*

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We took advantage of the massive amount of sequence information generated by the *Caenorhabditis elegans* genome project to perform a comprehensive analysis of a group of over 100 related sequences that has allowed us to describe two new *C. elegans* non-LTR retrotransposons. We named them *Sam* and *Frodo*. We also determined that several highly divergent subfamilies of both elements exist in *C. elegans*. It is likely that several master copies have been active at the same time in *C. elegans*, although only a few copies of both *Sam* and *Frodo* have characteristics that are compatible with them being active today. We discuss whether it is more appropriate under these circumstances to define only 2 elements corresponding to the most divergent groups of sequences or up to 16, considering each subfamily a different element. The *C. elegans* elements are related to other previously described non-LTR retrotransposons (*CR1*, found in different vertebrates; *SR1*, from the trematode *Schistosoma*; *Q* and *T1*, from the mosquito *Anopheles*). All of these elements, according to the analysis of their reverse transcriptases, form a monophyletic cluster that we call the "*T1/CR1* subgroup." Elements of this subgroup are thus ancient components of the genome of animal species. However, we discuss the possibility that these elements may occasionally be horizontally transmitted.

Introduction

Retrotransposons can be divided in two main classes, according to their presence or absence at both ends of the elements of long terminal repeats (LTRs). The structure of many non-LTR retrotransposons, also called LINEs, is reminiscent of that of a retrovirus (reviewed in Eickbush 1992, 1994). They often have two open reading frames (ORFs) and end in a 3' untranslated region with repetitious adenine-rich sequences. However, there is substantial structural variability among non-LTR retrotransposons. The reverse transcriptase (RT), generally found in the second ORF, is the only protein encoded by all them. It has been shown that most elements also encode an endonuclease (EN) (Martín, Olivares, and López 1996; Feng et al. 1996). In some other elements, however, no EN is apparent, and whether these elements actually encode a highly divergent EN is unknown (Feng et al. 1996). ORF2 of some elements also contains an RNAse H. Moreover, several elements totally lack ORF1 (Feng et al. 1996) (throughout the text, we will use the convention of referring to the ORF containing the RT as "ORF2," even in the absence of ORF1). Finally, unrelated sequences, produced by recombinational events, at the 5' ends of otherwise almost identical elements have also been observed (Adey et al. 1991, 1994; Hayward, Zavanelli, and Furano 1997 and references therein). How all of these structural types have arisen is still poorly understood. The current evidence, based on the comparative analysis of RTs, strong-

Abbreviations: LTR, long terminal repeat; EN, endonuclease; RNAse H, ribonuclease H; RT, reverse transcriptase.

Key words: Caenorhabditis elegans, non-LTR retrotransposon, reverse transcriptase, endonuclease, genome project, horizontal transmission

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ly suggest that all non-LTR retrotransposons have evolved from a single ancestral lineage (Xiong and Eickbush 1990; Eickbush 1994). Thus, all of these structural differences must have been acquired secondarily, in some cases very recently.

An additional source of sequence variation arises because most of the copies produced by non-LTR retrotransposons become inactivated, suffering truncations at their 5' ends. These copies then diverge randomly and rapidly (reviewed in Smit 1996; Finnegan 1997). In fact, the number of active retrotransposons per genome is very low (reviewed in Deininger et al. 1992). In the case of human LINEs, it has been recently estimated that only 30–60 copies of the 100,000 found in a genome are active (Sassaman et al. 1997).

Because non-LTR retrotransposons may have different structures, only a few copies are active, and most copies are highly divergent and inactive, it turns out that conventional methods-those based on detection by DNA hybridization and subsequent cloning and sequence comparisons—are often insufficient to obtain a clear picture of the evolutionary dynamics of these elements. Considering this situation, the global information rendered by the sequencing of complete genomes may be very useful, because it allows exhaustive comparative studies of the elements inhabiting the analyzed organism. In this work, we present the first results of such an approach for non-LTR retrotransposons of the nematode Caenorhabditis elegans. This is a particularly interesting species to study, because the sequencing project of the C. elegans genome is about 70% complete (for a review, see Blumenthal and Spieth 1996).

We previously described (Marín and Fontdevila 1996) certain sequences of the fly *Drosophila koepferae* that were closely related to those described for two *Anopheles* non-LTR retrotransposons, called *T1* and *Q* (Besansky 1990; Besansky, Bedell, and Mukabayire 1994). Several studies have established that other ele-

ments related to T1 and Q occur in vertebrates (element CR1: Stumpf et al. 1981; Chen et al. 1991; Burch, Davis, and Haas 1993; Vandergon and Reitman 1994; Ohshima et al. 1996; Haas et al. 1997; Kajikawa, Ohshima, and Okada 1997) and also in the trematode Schistosoma mansoni (element SR1, Drew and Brindley 1997). From now on, we will call this group of elements the "T1/CR1 subgroup." Recently, we observed that sequences generated in the genome project of the nematode C. elegans show substantial similarity to the elements of the T1/CR1 subgroup. We describe here these new sequences, demonstrating that they belong to two different elements that are represented multiple times in the C. elegans genome. Different subfamilies of these elements are present in the databases. Sequence comparisons suggest that the number of potentially functional ("master") copies of these two elements, which we will call Sam and Frodo (Tolkien 1954), is small. We will discuss the implications of these results with regard to the evolutionary history of these elements, the phylogenetic range of the T1/CR1 subgroup of non-LTR retrotransposons, and the possibility of horizontal transmission of some of its members.

Materials and Methods

The C. elegans sequences considered in this work were first found to be related to known transposable elements when the putative products of the T1/Q-related sequences of Drosophila koepferae (Marín and Fontdevila 1996) were compared using TBLASTN to the sequences of the nonredundant database at the National Center for Biotechnology Information (NCBI: for all of the BLAST programs, version 1.4.9MP [Altschul et al. 1990], implemented online at the NCBI page (http:// www.ncbi.nlm.nhm.gov/) was used). We found later, using the same type of analysis, that the C. elegans sequences were related to those of the Anopheles gambiae elements T1 and Q, as well as to the elements CR1 (chicken and turtle) and SR1 (RT sequence only; from Schistosoma). Only a low degree of similarity to other non-LTR retrotransposons, mainly in the RT region, was detected.

A combination of nucleotide searches with BLASTN and searches with TBLASTN and BLASTP (Altschul et al. 1990) using the sequences of the putative products encoded by the C. elegans sequences was used to establish that they can be divided into two main types, corresponding to two different elements. The same procedures were used to compare the sequences belonging to each of these elements in order to define subfamilies. Nucleotide BLASTN searches were also used to establish the lengths and structures of the different sequences found in C. elegans. ORF identification was also performed online using the ORF Finder tool at NCBI.

Once the best candidates for active elements were established (see *Results*), multiple-sequence alignments were performed for both the EN- and RT-related sequences of a number of retrotransposons using CLUS-TAL W (version 1.6; Thompson, Higgins, and Gibson 1994). The output of the program was refined by hand

after comparison with the previous TBLASTN results as well as with a database of aligned sequences of other non-LTR retrotransposons. To formally establish the phylogenetic relationship among the elements considered in this work, the program implementing the neighbor-joining method (Saitou and Nei 1987) included in CLUSTAL W was used. Those positions containing gaps in one or more sequences were excluded from such analysis. Programs RETREE and DRAWGRAM from the PHYLIP package (Felsenstein 1989, 1993) were used to draw the phylogenetic trees presented in figures 2 and 4. The bootstrapping routine also included in CLUSTAL W was used to determine the values presented in those figures. The program GeneDoc (Nicholas and Nicholas 1997) was used to highlight the similarities among the multiple-aligned sequences in figures 1 and 3.

New Members of the T1/CR1 Subgroup Are Detected in C. elegans

In Marín, Labrador, and Fontdevila (1992), we described middle repetitive DNA-containing clones obtained from the genomes of Drosophila buzzatii and Drosophila koepferae, two sibling species of the repleta group. Among the transposable-element-related sequences detected when some of those clones were sequenced (Labrador and Fontdevila 1994; Marín and Fontdevila 1995, 1996), we were able to determine that the conceptual translation of two clones defined products related to those found in non-LTR retrotransposons. In particular, a clear similarity to the *Anopheles* elements T1 and O was observed (Marín and Fontdevila 1996). Two years later, in a routine search using the D. koepferae sequences, we found that C. elegans sequences recently included in the publicly available databases also show a substantial similarity to those putative products. Further analyses (see Materials and Methods) using the whole sequences of the EN and RT of the fully characterized Anopheles elements confirmed this finding.

Preliminary searches using some of the *C. elegans* sequences showed that they were also related to the other two characterized members of the T1/CR1 subgroup, CR1 and SR1, while their relationships with other non-LTR retrotransposons were much more distant. In particular, they exhibit only a very weak relationship to the only other non-LTR retrotransposon previously studied in C. elegans, the element Rte-1 (Youngman, van Luenen, and Plasterk 1996). Deeper analyses determined that the C. elegans sequences can be classified into two groups. When their putative protein products are compared, sequences in each of these two groups show a high level of similarity, while the similarity between groups is much lower. For example, for the RT domain, around 60% of the amino acids are identical (and 75%-80% biochemically similar) when random members of the same group are compared. Among sequences of different groups, however, the similarity is about the same as that found when related, but different, non-LTR retrotransposons are compared (around 30% identity and 50% biochemical similarity). We interpreted the substantial differences between these two groups of sequences, as well as their similarities within a group, to correspond to the fact that two different non-LTR retrotransposons of the *T1/CR1* subgroup are present in the genome of *C. elegans*. We named these two elements *Sam* and *Frodo* (Tolkien 1954).

Structural Analysis of the C. elegans Sequences

To further characterize these sequences, and especially to confirm that two different elements were present, a priority was to establish whether any copy of these sequences in the databases could correspond to active transposable elements. To solve this problem, we developed a strategy based on three premises: (1) Active elements (or those sequences most similar to active elements) should behave as "master copies." Therefore, a certain number of sequences almost identical to a structurally complete copy, but with particular truncations in their 5' ends, should be found in the genome. (2) By comparison of the nucleotide sequences, it should be possible to extend the elements from zones known to correspond to their 3' ends (such as those encoding the RT, which are generally found toward the end of non-LTR retrotransposons) to upstream zones. In this way, we should be able to approximately define the 5' ends of the elements. (3) Finally, the ORFs of active elements should be free of truncations, gaps, frameshifts, and stop codons.

In order to further constrain our search for active elements, we started our analysis considering only those sequences that contain complete EN sequences. EN sequences are found upstream of RT sequences (this has been confirmed for all of the C. elegans sequences considered in this study), so they are expected to be intact only in those elements without, or with relatively small, 5' truncations. To establish that EN domains were complete, we compared the conceptual translations of the available sequences with the ENs of the other elements of the T1/CR1 subgroup, and we looked for the known conserved domains of the protein (Martín, Olivares, and López 1996; Feng et al. 1996). A total of 14 full-length EN sequences were found, 11 for the group of sequences that we defined as corresponding to the Sam element and 3 corresponding to *Frodo* elements (tables 1 and 2).

At Least Five Subfamilies of *Frodo* Coexist in the *C. elegans* Genome

When we studied the nucleotide sequences of the different EN-containing copies in detail, we discovered that sometimes even those that we had classified as belonging to the same element according to their protein sequences were highly heterogeneous at the nucleotide level. Thus, two of the *Frodo* sequences with full-length ENs, which we call *Frodo2.1* and *Frodo2.2*, are almost identical along 3,300 bp (see table 1; henceforth, we will call the sequences by a name [Sam or Frodo] that indicates the main group to which they belong; a number to indicate the subfamily; and, if more than one ENcontaining copy of a subfamily is present, a second number to indicate the particular copy). However, the other *Frodo* sequence that contains a complete EN (*Frodo1*) is only distantly related to *Frodo2.1* and *Frodo2.2*

Summary of the Most Complete Frodo Copies and Their Longest Truncated relatives

CEF58E6, CEC06A12, CEB0513, CELF54D8, CET09F5, CELF47D2, CEK07F5, CEY7A9C, CELF54C1, CEC50B8, CER13H4, CEF43C1, CEM199, CELK12C11, CELM03D4, CELK03F8, CELT21F2	CEM01E11, CELZC196, CELF08B1, CET04B2, CEXK892, CEC33D9, CEC49F5, CEC50F4, CELK07E12, CELZC487, CEC50C10, CELC23H3, CELY102E9, CELF49D11, CELF07G11	
5'-таатааатасаатасаатасаа-3'	5'-ттаааттаааттааааттааа-3'	Same as FRODO2.1
Complete? (see text)	With frameshifts	Truncated
Complete	With frameshifts	Complete
Z70755	Z48009	Z68135
CEK06A4 (>23,780-20,784)	CEAH6 (>24,687– 21,408)	CEZK1073 (<11,700– 14,936)
FRODOI	FRODO2.1	FRODO2.2
	Z70755 Complete Complete? (see 5'-TAATAAATACAATACAATACAA-3' CF (ext)	CEK06A4 Z70755 Complete Complete? (see 5'-TAATAAATACAATACAATACAA.3' CF (x23,780-20,784) 1 CEAH6 (>24,687- Z48009 With frameshifts With frameshifts 5'-TTAAATTAAATTAAA-3' CF (x21,408)

Table 2 Summary of the Most Complete Sam Copies and Their Longest Truncated Relatives

Other Clones Containing Fragments of Elements of this Subfamily	CER17, CEK11H3, CELC52E12, CELF25B4, CEC08F11, CELF38E1, CEF56H9, CED1086, CELT01B11, CF1 C1 C77	CELC12D12, CET05F1, CET05F1A, CELF47D2, CET13F3, CELT27A10, CEF09C8, CEC03D6, CER04D3, CF1 V05C3	CELMOSOS CEY7A9B, CELF30B5, CEF07C6, CELT02G5, CET19C4, CELW02D7, CF1 C31B8, CF1 R08F3	CELW03F9, CELF36A4	CEF23A7, CEC06H5, CELEGAP4, CEC50H2, CELF3GH5, CET02C1, CELC78F6, CELC09G12, CFK06G5		CELM01D7	CELC23G10, CEF28B1, CELT23E7, CELK02F3, CELF10G2, CEC35D6, CFC06C3		CEM04C7, CET02E9, CEK08G2, CEF54D5, CELF39F10, CEK03F8, CEC50B6, CELF59E11, CEC54C8, CELF54A6, CET01C1, CET07H6,	CEF58A4, CEF59A1, CEF28H7, CEF26E4, CEZK673, CEFZK488, CEZK218, CELC06E4, CEF57G4
3'-Terminal Sequence	5'-caaataaacaattattaaa-3'	5'-TTTGAATAAATATATATAT-3'	5'-TGAATGAATGATATATATATATAT-3'	5'-TAAATTATTA-3'	5'-TAAATAAATTAAA-3'	None (truncated 3' end)	Unknown	5'-TCAAGGCAATTAA-3'	Same as SAM7.1	5'-TCAAATTCAATTCAA-3'	5'-TTAAATAAATCAATCAA-3'
Reverse Transcriptase	Complete	With frameshifts	Complete	Complete	Complete	With frameshifts	Complete	Complete	With frameshifts	With frameshifts	Truncated
Endonuclease	Complete	Complete	With frameshifts	Complete	With frameshifts	With frameshifts	Complete	Complete	Complete	Complete	Complete
Accession No.	U13643	U57054	U46668	Z92972	Z81092	AF025472	Z82280/ Z82275	Z82090	Z50045/ Z66561	AF016663	Z81064
Name of Clone Containing Master Copy (position in the clone, 5'-3')	CELTO7E3 (<19,600– 22,449)	CELB0478 (>20,000– 17,169)	CELF38E9 (<18,500– 21 336)	CET19C9 (>17,262– 13.825)	CEF58D12 (>4,800–1,125)	CELZK250 (<26,200-trun-	CER05A10/ CER01G12 (<31,943- 32,011 (END)/ 1->3 364)	CEZK337 (<7,625– 10,613)	CEF38B2/ CEF08G12 (<17,400- 19,805 (END)/ 1-720)	CELF2169 (<12,000– 15,060)	CEF16B12 (<7,400– 10,100)
Name of Master C	. SAM1	. SAM2	. SAM3	. SAM4	. SAM5.1	SAM5.2	. SAM6	. SAM7.1	SAM7.2	. SAM8	. SAM9
Sub- family	I	ш		IV	: : : >		VI	νп		VIII	XI

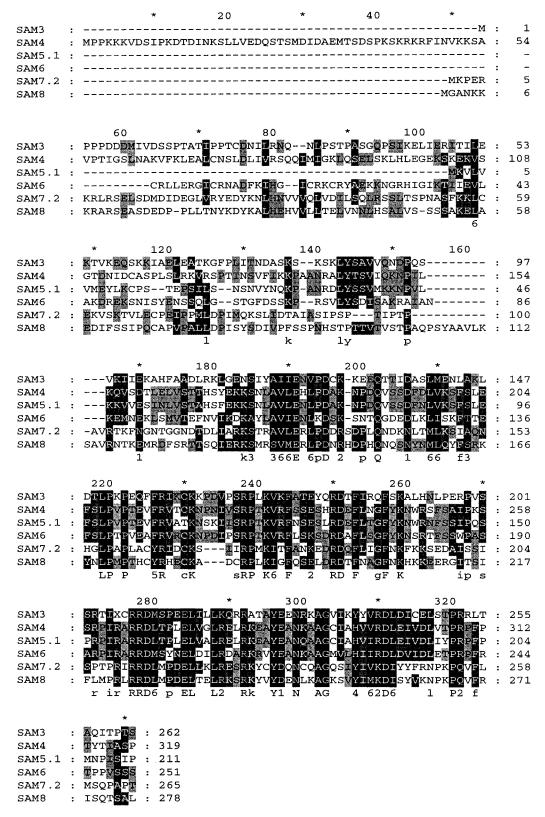


Fig. 1.—Putative ORF1 found in six *Sam* sequences. A seventh copy, *Sam9*, contains almost 60 amino acids corresponding to the C-terminal end of this putative protein (not shown), while no related sequences were found in the other *Sam* copies. The letters and numbers under the alignments summarize the most conserved positions. Numbers refer to biochemically similar amino acids according to the Blosum62 matrix (1: D, N, E; 2: E, Q, K, R; 3: S, T, A; 4: H, Y; 5: F, Y, W; 6: L, I, V, M).

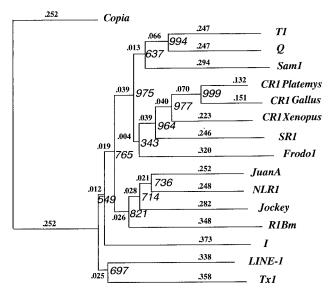


Fig. 2.—Phenogram obtained using the RT sequences of selected non-LTR retrotransposons. The branch lengths are shown above the lines in small numerals. The numbers of cases out of 1,000 in which the adjacent branch was supported in bootstrap analysis are shown in italics (see Materials and Methods).

(about 55%–60% nucleotide identity along their length). 5'-truncated versions of both Frodo1 and Frodo2.1/2.2 with very high nucleotide identities (90%-100%) to those "master" (EN-containing) copies are present in the databases (table 1). Therefore, at least two highly differentiated subfamilies of the Frodo element exist in C. elegans. Henceforth, we will follow the convention of considering those sequences with a nucleotide identity of at least 90% members of the same subfamily.

With regard to their coding sequences, of the three longest Frodo copies, Frodo2.1 is clearly an inactive copy, because its putative coding regions have several frameshifts and stop codons, while Frodo2.2 seems to be almost complete but lacks a small stretch of the Nterminal end of the RT. Only Frodo1 seems to have a structure compatible with being an active element. However, Frodo1 has a frameshift in its RT domain (at nucleotide 21901 in the clone). Interestingly, a frameshift in the same position is found in *Frodo2.2*. The fact that the two sequences that seem to be structurally closest to our expectation for an active element contain the same frameshift suggests that it might be present in active Frodo retrotransposons.

As we have already mentioned, clones Frodo2.1 and Frodo2.2 have 98% nucleotide identity along 3,300 bp. This includes 300 bp upstream of the N-terminal end of the EN. We have not been able to extend the similarity of any Frodo sequence farther upstream. This does not necessarily mean that an ORF1 is absent in Frodo. In fact, upstream of the ENs of Frodo2.2, we detected a putative ORF of 275 amino acids (96 amino acids of this putative ORF1 are also present in Frodo2.1, which thus could be a truncated copy). It is unclear, however, whether this sequence actually encodes a functional product, or even part of one. No similarity to any of the proteins found in the ORF1s of other known non-LTR

retrotransposons (including those of the T1/CR1 subgroup and the putative ORF1 of Sam, see below) has been detected. No long putative ORF1 has been detected in Frodo1.

Fortunately it has been much easier to define the 3' ends of the Frodo elements. The similarity between Frodo2.1 and Frodo2.2 finishes in a repetitious sequence, which, in Frodo2.2, is 5'-TAAATAAAT-TAAATTAAATTAAAATTAAA-3'. The similarity between these two sequences and the other truncated copies of the subfamily (summarized in table 1) commonly ends at the same sequence, although nucleotide substitutions are occasionally observed. This type of 3' repetition is also found in the other available long copy, *Frodo1*, as is easily determined by comparing that copy with its truncated variants (table 1). However, the repetitions are different for each subfamily. In the case of subfamily I, similarity among copies ends at the sequence 5'-TAATAAATACAATACAATACAA-3'. As we mentioned in the introduction, this type of repetitious, often A-rich, sequence is typical of the 3' ends of non-LTR retrotransposons, including other elements of the *T1/CR1* subgroup.

More than 30 other Frodo truncated copies are present in the databases that are not 90% identical to the three EN-containing copies and, therefore, have not been included in table 1. About three quarters of them can be grouped, following the criterion of >90% nucleotide identity, in three other subfamilies whose longest representatives are the sequences found in the clones CELR05F9 (nucleotides 11499–13784), CELK07E8 (nucleotides 24552–27068), and CEC43D7 (nucleotides 15086–16719), respectively. The rest are very small fragments, at most a few hundred base pairs long.

Caenorhabditis elegans Contains No Less than 11 Highly Divergent Subfamilies of Sam

An even more complex situation is found when Sam sequences are analyzed (table 2). Eleven sequences contain putative full-length ENs, and 10 of these copies also seem to possess a complete RT. However, like Frodo sequences, Sam sequences are quite heterogenous. Although some copies are up to 95% identical along thousands of nucleotides, others are much less related, such that even the nucleotide sequences of their RTs. probably the slowest-evolving part of the elements, are, in some comparisons, as low as 55% identical. Sequence analysis has established that, again using the criterion of 90% nucleotide identity, the 11 longest copies can be classified as belonging to 9 different subfamilies. We have found long, almost identical copies in only two cases (sufamilies V and VII; see table 2). Ten of the 11 most complete sequences have 5'-truncated versions, the one exception being Sam6, which is truncated in its 3' end. Regarding the 3' ends of the elements, it turns out that each of the Sam subfamilies, like those of Frodo, have different 3' repetitious ends (table 2). Also like *Frodo* sequences, there are over 20 other *Sam* sequences not included in any of these subfamilies; about half of them belong to two other subfamilies whose longest available copies are found in the clones CELF55A4 (nu-

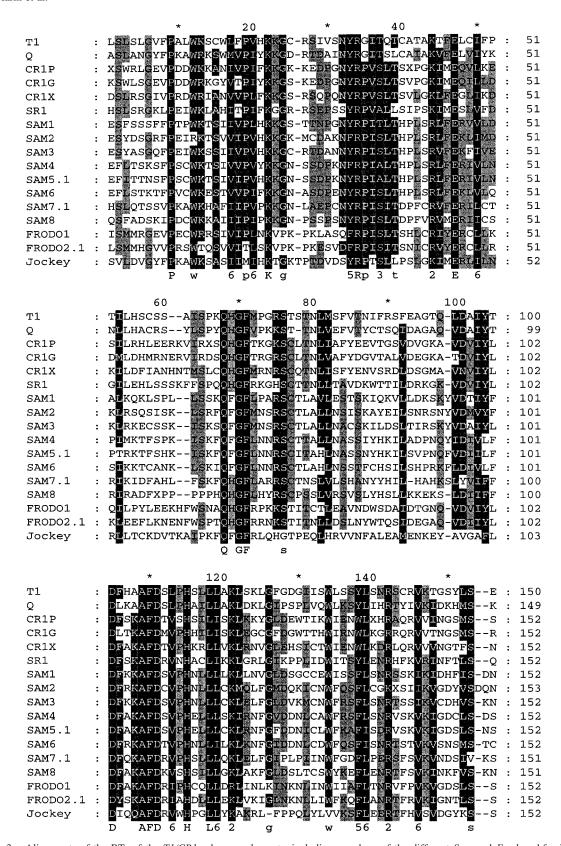


Fig. 3.—Alignments of the RTs of the T1/CR1 subgroup elements, including members of the different Sam and Frodo subfamilies, plus the more distantly related non-LTR retrotransposon Jockey. These alignments were used to build the tree in figure 4. Conventions are as in figure 1.

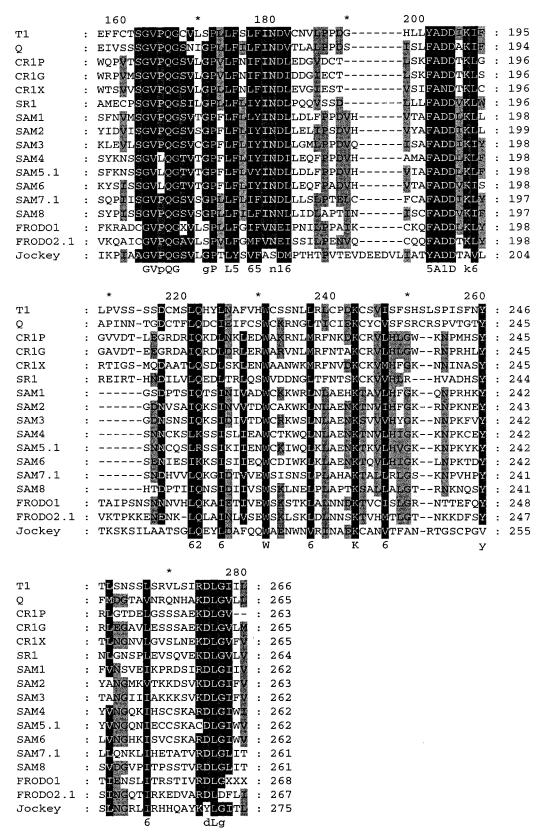


Fig. 3 (Continued)

cleotides 27061–29672) and CEF40F12 (nucleotides 26767–28355) respectively, while the rest are very short copies of uncertain classification.

To determine the lengths of the elements, we performed detailed nucleotide comparisons of the regions upstream of the EN and downstream of the RT. These comparisons established that a low level of similarity among some Sam sequences extends at least 900 bp upstream of the sequence encoding the N-terminal end of the EN. The similarity also extends 150 bp downstream of the end of the ORF2, demonstrating that the minimum size of full-length Sam elements would be about 3,800 bp. When we searched for an ORF1, we were able to determine that in several Sam sequences, the region immediately upstream of the EN may encode a protein. An ORF can be postulated in those sequences that would start about 800-900 bp upstream of the EN, i.e., very close to the point where the similarity among Sam copies ceases to be detected, and it would end immediately adjacent to where the ORF2 starts. Figure 1 shows that the putative ORF1 products of several Sam elements are related, most clearly in their C-terminal ends, while the N-termini are much more variable. None of these putative ORF1 proteins showed significant similarity to any other sequence in BLASTP or TBLASTN database searches.

Because non-LTR retrotransposons often cause direct duplications upon insertion, we analyzed whether the sequences immediately adjacent to the 3' ends of each putative master copy of Sam and Frodo are also present in regions upstream of the EN. We were able to detect such direct repeats for only three Sam copies. Around Sam5.1, six 150-bp repeats are detected, with one of them situated immediately adjacent to the 3' end of the element (nucleotides 890-1125 in CEF58D12) and the other five situated 3.7 kb away, upstream of the EN and the putative ORF1 of the element (nucleotides 4847–5670). Assuming that these repeats mark the ends of Sam5.1, it would extend from nucleotide 1126 to nucleotide 4846 in CEF58D12, thus being 3721 bp long. These types of multiple repetitions at both sides of an element are not found in any other copy of Sam or Frodo. The only two other copies with a detectable single direct repeat at both sides are Sam7.1 and Sam7.2. Sam7.1 has 10 bp-repeats in positions 7170–7179 and 10620-10629 of CEZK337, which defines a 3,439-bp element. For Sam7.2, 105-bp repeats define a 3,992-bp element that would start in the clone CEF38B2 (nucleotide 16477) and end in the adjacent clone CEF08G12 (nucleotide 720). These results suggest that Sam7.1 may be a 5'-truncated copy, and they explain the lack of a detectable ORF1 in Sam7.1, while the intimately related sequence Sam7.2 probably has a full-length ORF1 (fig. 1).

Phylogenetic Position of Sam and Frodo

Regarding the structures of these elements, a final result is that no RNAse H-related sequences were found. Therefore, only two protein domains (EN and RT) can be used for comparison with other retroelements. We aligned the putative ENs and RTs of *Frodo* and *Sam* and

those of the other elements of the *T1/CR1* subgroup (for *SR1*, however, only the RT has been described), plus the sequences of seven other non-LTR retrotransposons. These elements were chosen according to three criteria: (1) they contain EN; (2) five of them (*Jockey, R1Bm, I, LINE1*, and *Tx1*) span the whole range of non-LTR retrotransposons, according to Xiong and Eickbush (1990); (3) the last two, *Juan A* and *NLR1*, were the elements outside of the *T1/CR1* subgroup with the highest scores in comparisons with the *C. elegans* sequences. A *Xenopus laevis* sequence (accession number AF027962) that seems to contain an intact RT very similar to that of *CR1* was also included.

Figure 2 shows the phylogenetic tree for the RT sequences of these elements obtained using the neighbor-joining method (see Materials and Methods), and including the RT of the LTR-containing retrotransposon Copia as an outgroup. This tree was obtained by considering only conserved residues and eliminating those positions at which any sequence showed gaps, a strategy similar to that used by Xiong and Eickbush (1990) for their general study on RT relationships. The zones included in our analyses are 95% congruent with the conserved domains for the RT proteins defined by Xiong and Eickbush (1990), the minor differences being caused by the different sets of sequences considered. As we can see in figure 2, the elements that we have defined so far as belonging to the T1/CR1 subgroup are together, and bootstrapping results strongly support this branch. Figure 3 shows the alignment of the RTs of the T1/CR1 elements known so far, including a representative of each Sam and Frodo subfamily. We obtained similar trees using the EN sequences (not shown), but the information provided by this protein is not sufficient, according to the bootstrapping results, to obtain a wellsupported topology. In particular, there is some ambiguity regarding the deepest branches, which separate the less-related groups of elements. This difference is probably due to the fact that ENs are evolving much faster than RTs. In any case, it is worth mentioning that the elements of the T1/CR1 subgroup are also clustered together in the EN-based analyses, forming one of the best-supported branches (bootstrapping results: supported in 721 of 1,000 cases).

To establish the relationship among the C. elegans elements more precisely, we also used comparisons of their RT sequences. We used the 12 long EN-containing Sam and Frodo copies in which the RTs are not truncated to obtain the tree presented in figure 4. The relationships among the different Sam and Frodo sequences shown are well supported according to the bootstrapping results. Apart from the expected split among Frodo and Sam elements, we can also see that the Sam elements are divided into two groups that include, respectively, subfamilies I–VI and subfamilies VII and VIII. Within these groups, the RTs are, on average, 58% identical and 76% similar; between groups, however, the values drop to 41% identical and 62% similar. According to a comparison of this tree with the previous one in figure 2 and according to the bootstrapping data obtained, it can easily be seen that the precise phylogenetic positions of

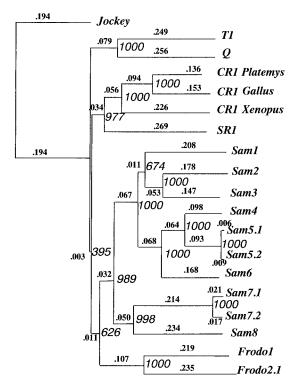


Fig. 4.—Phenogram obtained for the T1/CR1 subgroup elements using the RT alignments shown in figure 3. Branch lengths and bootstrapping results are detailed as in figure 2.

Sam and Frodo inside the T1/CR1 subgroup are ambiguous.

Discussion

In this work, we described two new non-LTR retrotransposons in C. elegans. Because no significant similarity has ever been observed in BLAST analyses, we can conclude that they are very different from Rte-1, the only non-LTR retrotransposon previously characterized in that nematode species (Youngman, van Luenen, and Plasterk 1996). These two elements, Sam and Frodo, are most closely related to a few other retroelements, forming what we call the T1/CR1 subgroup. This subgroup so far includes members of the genomes of vertebrates, insects, nematodes, and trematodes. We have shown that this subgroup can be unambiguously defined by analysis of the RT sequences of those elements: when the RTs of non-LTR retrotransposons are compared, all the elements of this subgroup are grouped together in a branch that is highly supported by bootstrap analysis (fig. 2). This result confirms the BLAST analyses, in which comparisons among all these elements systematically produce scores that are much higher than those found for other non-LTR retrotransposons, both when their ENs and when their RTs are used for query purposes.

Interestingly, the topology of the tree presented in figure 2 is identical to that found by Xiong and Eickbush (1990), although those authors considered only one element of the T1/CR1 subgroup, namely T1 itself. This topology is also identical to that obtained by other authors who studied individual T1 subgroup elements (see,

e.g., Drew and Brindley 1997; Kajikawa, Ohshima, and Okada 1997). Kajikawa, Ohshima, and Okada (1997), during a study describing the CR1 element of the turtle Platemys spixii, detected a copy of Sam (Sam3, which they called "CeCRT"). Their analysis situated Sam3 in exactly the same topological position in which Sam1 appears in figure 2, i.e., together with T1 and Q. However, the bootstrapping results show that the particular topology for the T1/CR1 subgroup presented in figure 2 is not well supported. In fact, when all of the Sam and Frodo subfamilies are included in the comparisons (fig. 4), it becomes clear that the precise phylogenetic position of the C.elegans elements with respect to the other members of the T1/CR1 subgroup is uncertain.

We determined that both Sam and Frodo encode EN and RT proteins. We also showed that Sam and Frodo sequences are highly heterogeneous, and, when the two elements are taken together, up to 16 subfamilies can be defined according to their nucleotide sequences. We found not only that the subfamilies that we studied more precisely (those with at least one copy containing EN) are substantially different in their sequences, but also that one significant structural feature, their 3'-terminal repetitious sequence, is variable. The large amount of information provided by the available Sam sequences has allowed us to conclude that it is very likely that active Sam elements have an ORF1. For Frodo, however, the available sequences do not provide enough information to determine the precise structure of the 5' end. For example, it is unclear whether Frodo has an ORF1. Although it is possible that *Frodo*, like other non-LTR retrotransposons, lacks an ORF1, this seems unlikely considering that all the best characterized elements of the T1/CR1 subgroup seem to have one (Besansky 1990; Haas et al. 1997; Kajikawa, Ohshima, and Okada 1997) and we have found that Sam also probably has one. There are two ways to explain our difficulty in finding a Frodo ORF1. First, it is possible that the sequences upstream of the EN are evolving so rapidly that it is very difficult to detect any similarities among elements in that region, especially if there are only a few quite divergent copies available. As we pointed out in the introduction, for the best analyzed non-LTR retrotransposon, LINE-1, it has been shown that different subfamilies often differ in their 5' ends. In particular, differences in ORF1 have been found in different LINE-1 subfamilies (Schichman et al. 1992; Adey et al. 1994). Alternatively, it is conceivable that all the *Frodo* copies analyzed are just truncated elements and that complete ones are not yet in the databases, or even that they do not exist in the C. elegans strain used for genome sequencing (or in the species). In any case, our rigorous structural analysis has provided a clear picture of which ones are the best candidates for active copies.

An interesting point to consider is that our definition of only two new C. elegans elements may be very conservative. The fact is that the members of some subfamilies of Sam and Frodo are very divergent at the nucleotide level. We have also shown that the 3' ends of elements of each subfamily are characterized by totally different terminal sequences. Therefore, we could have proposed the existence of several *Sam*- and *Frodo*-like elements by defining each subfamily as a different element. We preferred to define only two elements, because the structures of many of the copies found suggest that they are inactive. By structural analysis, it is impossible to precisely determine how many sequences correspond to active elements, and, thus, to define several elements would be premature.

However, the fact that there are truncated versions for each of the sequences that most closely resemble active elements demonstrates that relatively recent insertional events have occurred for each subfamily. That several Sam subfamilies were active recently, and may be still active, in the C. elegans genome is also supported by comparisons between the number of substitutions per synonymous site (K_S) and the number of substitutions per nonsynonymous site (K_A) . For example, we have found, according to Li (1993), that $K_S = 1.84$ and $K_A = 0.10$ when the RT domains of Sam4 and Sam5.1 are compared. When we compared the RT domains of Sam4 and Sam6, the values obtained were similarly biased ($K_S = 2.62$, $K_A = 0.22$). We found that these comparisons can be established only between elements of closely related subfamilies (when most sequences are compared, the number of substitutions in fourfold degenerate sites is so high that it precludes the determination of K_S and K_A). However, it is possible to determine for the RT domain of all the Sam sequences described in figure 3 that the proportion of synonymous changes is larger (ranging from 0.72 to 0.91) than the proportion of nonsynonymous changes (range 0.12– 0.44; calculations according to Nei and Gojobori 1986). This large excess of synonymous changes suggests that all these sequences have been under purifying selection (and therefore were part of active elements) recently. It is thus very likely that several highly divergent master copies of these elements are still active in C. elegans, as has been suggested for LINE-1 in several species (Kass, Berger, and Dawson 1992; Stanhope et al. 1993). It is therefore possible that the low number of potentially active elements found in our analysis is a peculiarity of the stock used for genome sequencing.

If functional studies demonstrate that elements of several subfamilies are indeed active, it would obviously be necessary to reconsider the classification presented in this work. For future studies, to avoid confusion, we suggest describing the Frodo- and Sam-related sequences with reference to the different subfamilies described in this work, and using the nomenclature that we have developed, i.e., with a name plus one or several numbers (Frodo1, Sam5.1, etc.). This will help to make clear which main lineage and which precise sequence we are under discussion. This nomenclature can be used even if we finally define several elements. The only problem regarding our convention is that Sam3, and, in general, the members of subfamily III of Sam, may be more properly called CeCRT, due to the priority of its description by Kajikawa, Ohshima, and Okada (1997). We suggest the use of "CeCRT/Sam3" for the members of this particular subfamily.

The situation discovered for Sam and Frodo is probably not exceptional. It is perfectly possible that if exhaustive searches are performed in other species, some described elements will simply correspond to highly diverged, and often inactive, copies of other elements. A possible example is the G element of Drosophila melanogaster, so far described only by inactive, highly degenerated copies that are quite similar to another element, F (Di Nocera 1988). In any case, all these complications emphasize the fact that the conventional molecular biology methods used to define and characterize retrotransposons may in some cases be providing a distorted picture of the evolutionary dynamics of these elements. For example, it is unlikely that the different subfamilies of the C. elegans elements that we characterized could be detected in standard DNA-DNA hybridization experiments unless multiple probes and very low stringency conditions are used.

In our previous study (Marín and Fontdevila 1996), we discussed whether the finding of D. koepferae sequences solely related to the Anopheles elements T1 and Q but not to other *Drosophila* non-LTR retrotransposons could be a sign of horizontal transmission between dipteran species. In the last 2 years, the situation has changed substantially, with the characterization of new elements of this subgroup. This work, together with the description of complete protein sequences for CR1 elements of vertebrates (Haas et al. 1997; Kajikawa, Ohshima, and Okada 1997), establishes that elements of the T1/CR1 subgroup are found in many organisms. Because the D. koepferae sequences do not seem closer to T1 or O than to other elements of this subgroup (data not shown), we do not consider that our previous results have to be explained by horizontal transmission; we now think that it is more likely that T1/CR1 subgroup elements are, in general, ancient components of the genome of all of these species. However, our comparative study of these elements actually gives some new support to the hypothesis that the element SR1 of the trematode Schistosoma mansoni has been horizontally transmitted, as suggested by Drew and Brindley (1997). As we can see in figures 2 and 4, elements of the T1/CR1 subgroup have been found in both nematodes and insects, organisms phylogenetically closer to vertebrates than are trematodes (reviewed in Freeman and Herron 1998). However, they are more distantly related to the vertebrate CR1 elements than to the Schistosoma SR1 element, which is a very close relative. Two simple explanations, among others, for these relationships follow: (1) The elements of the T1/CR1 subgroup described so far in dipterans and C. elegans diverged long ago from the relatives of CR1, while an element very similar to CR1 was present in vertebrates, in trematodes, and in the nematode-insect clade. This CR1 element was subsequently lost in both nematodes and insects, or in the nematode-insect ancestor. (2) The profound differences between the vertebrate CR1 elements and the T1/CR1 subgroup elements found in nematodes and insects simply reflect the time of divergence between vertebrates and the nematode-insect clade. If this is the case, any element of the T1 subgroup in Schistosoma should be even more divergent, and thus the SR1 element must have been acquired recently. Which one of these two hypotheses (or another, more complex, hypothesis that includes different rates of sequence evolution; see Capy, Anxolabéhère, and Langin 1994) is correct will be known only after a careful study of the phylogenetic range of these and other elements of the T1/CR1 sub-

In this work, we have demonstrated how the information generated by the genome projects can be advantageously used for studies on the evolution of retrotransposable elements. However, it is evident that the characterization presented in this study can be extended by more detailed comparisons of the multiple sequences of Sam and Frodo that are available in the databases. Precise studies such as those already performed for LINE-1 (in different mammalian species) and for CR1 (as in Vandergon and Reitman 1994) are possible for Sam and *Frodo.* In addition, when new sequences of this species are available, they could further contribute to an understanding of the evolutionary dynamics of these two elements. Finally, we look forward to the functional characterization of these elements, which can be greatly accelerated by using our structural data to devise strategies to screen for active elements.

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