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6    **Molecular mechanisms of extensive mitochondrial gene rearrangement in**

7                              **plethodontid salamanders**

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9                Rachel Lockridge Mueller[1,2,4,5] and Jeffrey L. Boore[2,3]

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11
12
13
14    [1] Museum of Vertebrate Zoology
15    3101 Valley Life Sciences Bldg.
16    University of California
17    Berkeley, CA 94720-3160
18
19    [2] Evolutionary Genomics Department
20    DOE Joint Genome Institute and Lawrence Berkeley National Laboratory
21    2800 Mitchell Dr.
22    Walnut Creek, CA 94598
23
24    [3] Department of Integrative Biology
25    3060 Valley Life Sciences Bldg.
26    University of California
27    Berkeley, CA 94720-3160
28
29    [4]Current address:
30    Department of Organismal Biology and Anatomy
31    University of Chicago
32    1027 E. 57th St
33    Chicago, IL 60637
34

37

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41    [5]To whom correspondence should be addressed:

42

43    Rachel Lockridge Mueller
44    Department of Organismal Biology and Anatomy
45    University of Chicago
46    1027 E. 57th St
47    Chicago, IL 60637
48    Email: rmueller@uchicago.edu
49    Phone: (773) 834-8422

**Abstract**

Extensive gene rearrangement is reported in the mitochondrial genomes of lungless
salamanders (Plethodontidae). In each genome with a novel gene order, there is evidence
that the rearrangement was mediated by duplication of part of the mitochondrial genome,
including the presence of both pseudogenes and additional, presumably functional, copies
of duplicated genes. All rearrangement-mediating duplications include either the origin of
light strand replication and the nearby tRNA genes or the regions flanking the origin of
heavy strand replication. The latter regions comprise *nad6, trnE, cob, trnT,* an intergenic
spacer between *trnT* and *trnP* and, in some genomes, *trnP,* the control region, *trnF*, *rrnS*,
*trnV*, *rrnL*, *trnL1*, and *nad1*. In some cases, two copies of duplicated genes, presumptive
regulatory regions, and/or sequences with no assignable function have been retained in
the genome following the initial duplication; in other genomes, only one of the duplicated
copies has been retained. Both tandem and non-tandem duplications are present in these
genomes, suggesting different duplication mechanisms. In some of these mtDNAs, up to
25% of the total length is composed of tandem duplications of non-coding sequence that
includes putative regulatory regions and/or pseudogenes of tRNAs and protein-coding
genes along with otherwise unassignable sequences. These data indicate that imprecise
initiation and termination of replication, slipped-strand mispairing, and intra-molecular
recombination may all have played a role in generating repeats during the evolutionary
history of plethodontid mitochondrial genomes.

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## Introduction

In contrast to the conclusions drawn from early and limited sampling, animal mitochondrial genomes possess unexpected diversity both in gene order and in the presence, extent, and distribution of non-coding sequence (Inoue et al. 2003; Boore, Medina and Rosenberg 2004; Miller et al. 2004; Yokobori et al. 2004). Groups of organisms with highly differing gene orders are appropriate model systems for studying the factors that effect mitochondrial gene rearrangement (Dowton and Campbell 2001). Such groups have been identified among invertebrates (Yamazaki et al. 1997; Dowton and Austin 1999; Shao et al. 2001), and testable hypotheses for the causes of frequent gene rearrangement have been generated; for example, highly-rearranged parasitic wasp mitochondrial genomes may result from oxidative stress imposed by the host immune response (Dowton and Campbell 2001). Within the largest salamander family, Plethodontidae, six of the 22 mitochondrial genomes examined have rearrangements of independent phylogenetic origin, and 12 of these 22, plus one from the family Rhyacotritonidae, have tandem repeats in non-coding sequences. This high instance of gene rearrangement makes plethodontid salamanders an excellent model system for examining the mechanisms of such vertebrate mitochondrial genome instability.

In the most commonly invoked model of mitochondrial gene rearrangement, a region of the genome is duplicated and the supernumerary genes, no longer maintained by selection, are eliminated; the original gene arrangement is either restored or altered, depending on the pattern of gene loss (Moritz, Dowling and Brown 1987; Boore 2000). Genomic evidence for this model of rearrangement includes: (1) repeated motifs, which can cause duplication via slipped-strand mispairing; (2) stem-loop structures, which can

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93  cause duplication via intra-molecular recombination (Stanton et al. 1994; Moore,

94  Gudikote and Van Tuyle 1998); and (3) pseudogenes, which may be ancestral

95  duplications in the process of being eliminated (Arndt and Smith 1998; Macey et al.

96  1998). This mechanism cannot explain gene inversions, which have also been reported

97  (Smith et al. 1989; Boore 1999; Dowton et al. 2003; Miller et al. 2004). In each of the six

98  rearranged genomes reported here, evidence of at least one historical duplication event

99  has been retained. Plethodontid rearrangements involve regions of the genome that are

100 independently rearranged or duplicated in other vertebrate taxa (Moritz and Brown 1986;

101 Desjardins and Morais 1990; Moritz 1991; Pääbo et al. 1991; Quinn and Mindell 1996).

102 The molecular mechanisms of gene rearrangement at work in plethodontids may

103 therefore be the same mechanisms acting across vertebrates.

104        Organismal, cellular, and genomic level properties may be linked to

105 mitochondrial genome instability, both in these salamanders and more generally. In this

106 paper, we (1) describe mitochondrial genome rearrangements and expansions of non-

107 coding DNA in plethodontid and related salamanders, (2) infer possible molecular

108 mechanisms by which these rearrangements and expansions originated, and (3) outline

109 possible explanations for the extensive mitochondrial genome instability in this clade.

**Materials and Methods**

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111    Twenty-four complete mitochondrial genomes of plethodontid and related

112    salamanders were sequenced, assembled, and annotated as described elsewhere (Mueller

113    et al. 2004) (GenBank accession numbers AY728212–AY728235). Annotated genomes

114    were examined for novel gene orders and the presence of unassignable sequences.

115    Putative pseudogene sequences in each rearranged genome were identified by position

116    and aligned with the corresponding functional gene sequences using ClustalW (gap

117    parameters set to default: open=10, extend=5) and manual adjustment. Two other non-

118    coding regions of the genome were also examined: the control region (CR hereafter), and

119    an intergenic spacer between *trnT* and *trnP* (IGS hereafter) present in diverse salamander

120    clades that may be a remnant of at least one older duplication (McKnight and Shaffer

121    1997; Zardoya et al. 2003; Zhang et al. 2003a; Zhang et al. 2003b). Because these regions

122    are highly variable with only a few, or no, short conserved sequences (Shadel and

123    Clayton 1997), we defined these two regions by their genome position. All non-coding

124    regions were tested for the presence of tandem repeat elements and for shared repeats

125    among the different regions by the construction of Pustell DNA-DNA matrices using

126    MacVector (window size=30, minimum % score=80, hash=6) (Accelrys). The genome

127    sequence of *Hydromantes italicus* is incomplete (*trnT,* the IGS, *trnP,* the CR, and *trnF*

128    are missing) and therefore was not examined for repeats. Finally, each genome was tested

129    for possible heteroplasmy in the numbers of repeated regions by examining the sequences

130    of individual clones for their ability to produce assemblies with identical end sequences

131    but different numbers of repeats from the primary assembly.

132 **Results and Discussion**

133 Duplications have mediated most rearrangements

134      Six of 22 plethodontid genomes have novel gene orders and arrangements of non-

135 coding sequences that are consistent with the duplication-random loss model of gene

136 rearrangement (Boore 2000). In this model, a portion of the genome containing at least

137 two genes is duplicated. One of the two copies of each duplicated gene eventually loses

138 function, becomes a pseudogene, and is excised from the genome by mutational

139 processes because it is not maintained by selection. Which gene copy is ultimately lost is

140 determined by the first loss-of-function mutation, with some patterns restoring the

141 original order, and others leading to rearrangement. In this study, two such

142 rearrangements include the origin of light strand replication ($O_L$), two include the IGS,

143 and two include both the origin of heavy strand replication ($O_H$, contained within the CR)

144 and the IGS. In some cases, there are evident pseudogenes that signal historical

145 duplications. In others, these pseudogenes have decayed beyond ~60% identity to the

146 functional copy and are inferred based solely on their genome position. In all cases, the

147 exact boundaries of the duplicated fragments have likely been obscured by deletion, and

148 the extent of the original duplication may therefore be underestimated. The phylogenetic

149 positions of the taxa with these rearranged genomes indicate separate rearrangement

150 events, with the possible exception of one rearrangement shared by *Aneides*

151 *flavipunctatus* and *Aneides hardii*, although the genome of *A. hardii* also appears to have

152 undergone a second duplication-mediated rearrangement (fig. 1). For each rearranged

153 mitochondrial genome, we infer the minimum set of contiguous genes that, when

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154    duplicated, create an intermediate sequence from which gene losses could have

155    established the observed gene arrangement.

156

157    Rearrangements including the $O_L$

158        *Batrachoseps attenuatus* — The hypothesized duplicated region in this species'

159    mtDNA includes a small fragment of *trnW* and all of *trnA*, *trnN*, $O_L$, *trnC*, and *trnY* (~300

160    bp total) (fig. 2). For the purposes of these analyses, $O_L$ refers to the entire non-coding

161    region normally found between *trnN* and *trnC* that has the potential to form a large stem-

162    loop structure known to function as an origin of replication in some systems. We refer to

163    a copy of $O_L$ by pseudogene annotation if it is greatly deficient in potential for forming

164    this structure relative to the other copy, although no experimental data is available to

165    infer which, if either, actually functions as an origin of replication. Deletions in the

166    pseudogenes have reduced their sizes to the following lengths and percentages of original

167    length: partial $\psi$*trnW* + $\psi$*trnA*, 77 bp (the percentage of original length cannot be

168    determined, because the amount of *trnW* included in the initial duplication is unknown);

169    $\psi$*trnN*, 65 bp (93%); $\psi O_L$, 8 bp (27%); $\psi$*trnC*, 56 bp (86%); and $\psi$*trnY,* 28 bp (amount of

170    *trnY* duplicated is unknown).

171        *Hydromantes brunus* — The hypothesized duplicated region in this species'

172    mtDNA is slightly larger than in *B. attenuatus*, encompassing the end of *nad2* and all of

173    *trnW* in addition to *trnA*, *trnN*, $O_L$, *trnC*, and *trnY* (~525 bp) (fig. 3). Deletions in the

174    pseudogenes have reduced their sizes to the following lengths and percentages of original

175    length: partial $\psi$*nad2*, ~127 bp (amount of *nad2* duplicated is unknown); $\psi$*trnW*, ~60 bp

176    (88%); $\psi$*trnA*, 55 bp (81%); $\psi$*trnN*, 65 bp (94%); $\psi O_L$, 27 bp (73%); $\psi$*trnC*, 57 bp

177   (86%); and ψ*trnY*, 39bp (58%). Although the initial duplications of *B. attenuatus* and *H.*

178   *brunus* involved similar regions of the genome, different copies of the redundant genes

179   were subsequently lost; this is consistent with random loss, in which the copy of the gene

180   that sustains the first disabling mutation continues to decay.

181

182   Rearrangements including the CR and/or the IGS

183       *Stereochilus marginatus* — The hypothesized duplication in this species' mtDNA

184   includes *nad6*, *trnE, cob, trnT,* and the IGS for a total of 1,790 bp plus the unknown

185   length of the IGS (fig. 4). Deletions in the pseudogenes have reduced their sizes to the

186   following lengths and percentages of original lengths: ψ*nad6,* 186 bp (36%); ψ*trnE*, 66

187   bp (98.5%); and ψ*cob*, 42 bp (3.7%). ψ*trnT*, if it still exists, cannot be identified. Two

188   different sets of repeats exist in the two regions of the genome inferred to be copies of the

189   IGS.

190       *Plethodon elongatus —* This species' mitochondrial genome has a gene order and

191   pattern of non-coding sequence consistent with two separate duplications. The initial

192   hypothesized duplication spans the region of the genome including *nad6*, *trnE*, *cob*, *trnT*,

193   the IGS*, trnP*, and the CR for a total of 2,811 bp plus the unknown pre-duplication length

194   of the IGS (fig. 5). Different copies of the redundant genes subsequently decayed to

195   pseudogenes in *P. elongatus* than decayed in *S. marginatus.* Deletions in the inferred

196   redundant genes have reduced their sizes to the following lengths and percentages of

197   original lengths: ψ*nad6* + ψ*trnE* + ψ*cob*, 47 bp (2.7%); ψ*trnP*, length unknown because

198   the boundary between the IGS and ψ*trnP* is unassignable; and ψ*trnT* + IGS, 107 bp

199   (original length of the IGS is unknown). Notably, two 959-bp, 97% identical copies of

200   the putative CR are retained in the genome, indicating that the two may be undergoing

201   concerted evolution as has been reported for several other taxa (Arndt and Smith 1998;

202   Kumazawa et al. 1998; Lee et al. 2001; Inoue et al. 2003).

203        Following this initial rearrangement by duplication-random loss, we hypothesize

204   that a second duplication gave rise to two copies of the region including the last 57 bp of

205   *nad5*, *ψnad6* + *ψtrnE* + *ψcob*, *trnT*, the IGS, *ψtrnP*, and the first 761 bp of one CR

206   (1,150 bp total). These two copies are not adjacent to one another; rather, they are

207   separated by 3,054 bp. The two copies are >99% identical in sequence, implying either

208   (1) very recent duplication, or (2) concerted evolution, which is also operating to

209   maintain the sequence identity of the two full-length CRs.

210        *Aneides flavipunctatus* — The hypothesized duplication in this species' mtDNA

211   includes *nad6*, *trnE, cob, trnT,* the IGS, and *trnP* for a total of 1,860 bp plus the unknown

212   length of the IGS (fig. 6). The same copies of the redundant genes subsequently decayed

213   to pseudogenes in *A. flavipunctatus* as decayed in *S. marginatus.* Deletions in *ψnad6* and

214   *ψtrnE* have completely excised them from the genome. *ψcob* and *ψtrnT,* if they still

215   exist, cannot be identified. As seen in the *S. marginatus* genome, two different sets of

216   repeats exist in the two regions of the genome inferred to contain copies of the IGS.

217        *Aneides hardii* — This mitochondrial genome has a gene order and pattern of

218   non-coding sequence consistent with two separate tandem duplications (fig. 7). The

219   initial hypothesized duplication includes a near-identical region of the genome duplicated

220   in *A. flavipunctatus* (from *nad6* through the IGS), suggesting that this duplication may be

221   a synapomorphy of the *Aneides* clade; however, unlike in *A. flavipunctatus,* no evidence

222   remains that *trnP* was duplicated in *A. hardii*. The absence of an identifiable *ψtrnP* in this

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223    duplicated region of the *A. hardii* genome suggests that (1) the *ψtrnP* identified in *A.*

224    *flavipunctatus* is false, (2) *ψtrnP* has been excised or completely degraded from *A.*

225    *hardii*, or (3) a different duplication-mediated rearrangement occurred independently in

226    each lineage. The second hypothesized duplication in *A. hardii* includes *nad6* – the IGS,

227    plus a second IGS, *trnP,* the CR, *trnF*, *rrnS*, *trnV*, *rrnL*, *trnL1*, and *nad1* for a total of

228    6,227 bp and the unknown lengths of the two IGS regions. The copies of *nad6* and *trnE*

229    involved in the second round of duplication must have been functional at the time of re-

230    duplication, based on the current position of functional copies in the genome. The *ψnad6*

231    and *ψtrnE* between *nad5*and *cob*, which were not involved in the second round of

232    duplication, have been reduced to 11 bp (2%).

233        The two large, duplicated fragments resulting from the second hypothesized

234    round of duplication (Copy I and Copy II; see Fig. 7) share high levels of sequence

235    similarity over much of their length, although *ψnad6*, much of *ψrrnS*, and all of *ψtrnV*

236    and *ψrrnL* have been excised from the genome and *ψnad1* has accumulated multiple stop

237    codons. In contrast, two very similar, presumably functional copies of *trnP, trnF, trnL1,*

238    the CR, and possibly *trnE* have been retained in this genome. There are several possible

239    explanations for this pattern. Consistent with the duplication-random loss model, this

240    duplication event may be sufficiently recent that mutations have not yet disrupted *trnP,*

241    *trnF, trnL1,* the CR, or *trnE.* Alternatively, these copies may have been maintained by

242    selection, or may have had their mutations corrected by gene conversion (Eberhard,

243    Wright and Bermingham 2001). Selection to retain duplicate copies of these genes and

244    the CR may act either on the production of their gene products or their ability to form

245    secondary structures necessary for message processing (Kumazawa et al. 1998), or on

246  regulatory function, respectively. However, the presence of tandem repeats highly

247  conserved between Copy I and Copy II is difficult to explain by selection in the absence

248  of a clear function assignable to these sequences. Rather, it suggests either a recent

249  duplication event or a purely mechanistic cause of concerted evolution between portions

250  of these two fragments (Moritz and Brown 1987).

251

252  Possible mechanisms yielding tandem duplications

253      Several mechanisms may produce duplications in a circular molecule:

254  recombination, slipped-strand mispairing, errors in synchronizing the points of initiation

255  and termination of replication, or some combination of these processes (Macey et al.

256  1997a; Macey et al. 1997b; Boore and Brown 1998; Boore 2000; Dowton and Campbell

257  2001). At least two such mechanisms are plausible explanations for the patterns observed

258  in the order of genes and non-coding DNA in most plethodontid rearrangements. In the

259  genomes of *H. brunus*, *B. attenuatus*, and *A. hardii* (second duplication), the replication

260  origin is in the center of the duplicated region, indicating that both initiation and

261  termination of replication occurred at alternative sites; alternate initiation or termination

262  alone would duplicate only the region of the genome upstream or downstream,

263  respectively, of the replication origin. A presumably functional $O_L$ with viable potential

264  secondary structure (Pääbo et al. 1991; Macey, Schulte and Larson 2000) exists in both

265  *H. brunus* and *B. attenuatus*. This suggests that light-strand replication initiation has not

266  been completely transferred to alternate structures in these genomes and that alternate

267  initiation may be causally linked to imprecise termination. In the genomes of *S.*

268  *marginatus*, *A. flavipunctatus*, and *A. hardii* (first duplication), no evidence remains that

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269     a replication origin was involved in the duplication. The patterns in these genomes are

270     still consistent with initiation and termination of replication at alternate sites, but both

271     sites are located downstream of the $O_H$. The IGS, which is the putative alternative

272     initiation site for *S. marginatus* and *A. hardii*, may be an ancient duplicated CR based on

273     its position in the genome (McKnight and Shaffer 1997) and thus may retain limited

274     initiation capability. Imprecise termination alone is also a plausible duplication

275     mechanism for *S. marginatus*, *A. flavipunctatus*, and *A. hardii* based on the proximity of

276     these duplicated regions to the CR and the possible erosion of the ends of the duplicated

277     region. The first duplication in the *P. elongatus* genome is bounded by the CR; depending

278     on the location of the $O_H$ within the CR, imprecise termination alone, or imprecise

279     termination with initiation at an alternate site, are possible duplication mechanisms. We

280     cannot eliminate the alternative possibility that either intra-molecular recombination or

281     slipped-strand mispairing caused any of these duplications, nor can we rule them out as

282     mechanisms for excision of redundant genes following these duplications (Holt, Dunbar

283     and Jacobs 1997; Lunt and Hyman 1997; Kajander et al. 2000; Tang et al. 2000a; Miller

284     et al. 2004).

285

286     Possible mechanisms for yielding non-tandem duplications

287        The second duplication event in *Plethodon elongatus* produced non-tandem repeat

288     fragments separated from one another by 3,054 bp, which nonetheless have 99.5%

289     sequence identity. This pattern cannot be easily explained by slipped-strand mispairing,

290     errors in initiation or termination of replication, or any combination of these processes.

291     However, this pattern is consistent with the action of intra-molecular recombination. One

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292     copy of the region comprising the putative IGS, *ψtrnP,* and one of the two CRs may have

293     been excised from one genome, forming a separate mini-circle that was then re-integrated

294     into another genome between the second CR and *trnF*. Such intra-molecular

295     recombination has been reported in the mitochondrial genomes of both healthy and

296     diseased tissue in several taxa (Holt, Dunbar and Jacobs 1997; Lunt and Hyman 1997;

297     Kajander et al. 2000; Tang et al. 2000a; Miller et al. 2004; Yokobori et al. 2004). In

298     addition to this non-tandem repeat in *P. elongatus*, the pattern of widely separated repeat

299     units in *S. marginatus* is consistent with the action of intra-molecular recombination.

300     However, the pattern in *S. marginatus* is also consistent with retention of these widely-

301     separated repeat units since the original duplication event, coupled with slower

302     accumulation of mutations in the repeat units relative to the remainder of the duplication

303     fragment.

304

305     Tandem repeats in the control region and IGS that do not effect gene rearrangement

306         Only four of the 24 genomes analyzed for this study contain a duplication-

307     mediated rearrangement involving the CR or nearby regions of the genome. Thirteen of

308     the remaining 20 genomes contain tandem-repeats of non-coding sequence in the CR

309     and/or the IGS, as reported in other taxa (Wallis 1987; Delarbre et al. 2001). These

310     results are summarized in Table 1. The length, number, and sequence of the repeat units

311     vary within and among genomes, although in two cases, the same repeats are present in

312     both the IGS and the CR. In the case of non-tandem repeats, intra-molecular

313     recombination is a more plausible generation mechanism. In the case of tandem repeats,

314     we cannot discriminate between slipped-strand mispairing and intra-molecular

315 recombination. The tandem repeats in the *Rhyacotriton variegatus* genome are unusual

316 and are discussed in more detail below.

317     In the *R. variegatus* genome, the 5,527-bp IGS contains six copies of an ~880-bp

318 tandem repeat. The first ~820 bp of this repeat are a *ψcob*, and the last 62 bp are an

319 additional copy of *trnT*. *ψcob* is missing the first 260 bp of the gene, but each of the six

320 copies is >80% identical to the corresponding portion of the functional copy, not

321 including ~20 bp of deletions. All copies of the pseudogene contain numerous stop

322 codons when translated in all three reading frames. The copies of *trnT* are ~90% identical

323 to the inferred original copy but, in contrast to *ψcob*, all but one may remain functional;

324 their secondary structures appear viable. Following the sixth complete repeat unit, there

325 are 247 bp which appear unrelated to the repeat sequence. In contrast, there are no repeats

326 in the 755-bp CR, nor do the CR and IGS regions share any common sequence.

327     Heteroplasmy has been reported in some individuals whose mitochondrial

328 genomes contain tandem repeats (Densmore, Wright and Brown 1985; Wallis 1987;

329 Townsend and Rand 2004). Similarly, patterns in the assembly of individual clone

330 sequences into contigs may suggest heteroplasmy in seven plethodontid genome

331 sequences: *E. bislineata*, "Bolitoglossa sp. nov.," *B. wrightorum*, *H. scutatum*, *P.*

332 *petraeus*, *E. eschscholtzii*, and *Aneides flavipunctatus.* However, we note that PCR-based

333 evidence for presence or absence of heteroplasmy is imperfect. A non-heteroplasmic

334 sequence may indicate that multiple mitochondrial genome haplotypes are absent or that,

335 although present, the additional copy or copies were not amplified by PCR. Furthermore,

336 products that appear heteroplasmic may be generated by strand switching during PCR,

337 analogous to slipped-strand mispairing. Finally, heteroplasmy is predicted in genomes

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338    with high numbers of tandem repeats, and the assembly of sequences of individual clones

339    into one contig may prove problematic for such genomes even in the absence of

340    heteroplasmy.

341

342    Possible explanations for extensive gene rearrangement in plethodontids

343         A high incidence of rearranged mitochondrial genomes may result from any or

344    some combination of four factors: (1) a high rate of mitochondrial genome partial

345    duplication; (2) a low rate of duplication excision; (3) a low mitochondrial genome

346    effective population size, particularly a bottleneck in the number of mitochondrial

347    genomes transmitted to offspring via maternal oocytes; and (4) selection for, or absence

348    of selection against, rearranged/expanded mitochondrial genomes at either the cell or

349    population level. No data addressing any of these four factors are currently available for

350    plethodontids. However, studies of selection on mitochondrial genomes containing

351    duplications have been carried out in other systems. Here, we briefly discuss their

352    possible relevance to the high levels of plethodontid mitochondrial instability. We note,

353    however, that inferences drawn from such studies should be considered as hypotheses

354    directing further research, and that studies explicitly measuring all four of these factors in

355    plethodontids and other clades with high levels of mitochondrial genome rearrangement

356    are required to draw any firm conclusions.

357         The fixation of structurally altered mitochondrial genomes in a population

358    depends in part on whether they are selectively advantageous, neutral, or disadvantageous

359    to the organism. Unlike deletions, large duplications of portions of the mitochondrial

360    genome are generally not pathogenic in humans (Tang et al. 2000b; DiMauro and Schon

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361    2003), suggesting that there may not be strong organism-level selection against the

362    duplications in plethodontid mitochondrial genomes. However, a link between compact

363    mitochondrial genomes and metabolic efficiency has been proposed (Selosse, Albert and

364    Godelle 2001), and high levels of mitochondrial duplications such as those seen in

365    plethodontids lead to measurable reduction in respiratory chain efficiency in human cell

366    lines (Holt, Dunbar and Jacobs 1997). Salamanders have extremely low aerobic

367    metabolic requirements compared to other ectotherms (Feder 1976). Organism-level

368    selection against the reduction in aerobic efficiency that may result from a mitochondrial

369    duplication is therefore unlikely to be as strong in plethodontids as in other, more highly

370    aerobic tetrapods. Low energetic costs are also broadly correlated with the accumulation

371    of non-coding DNA in the nuclear genome (Gregory 2003). If relatively weak organism-

372    level selection against mitochondrial duplications is contributing to their high incidence

373    in plethodontids, we would predict (1) high mitochondrial genome instability in other

374    organisms with similarly low aerobic metabolic requirements, and (2) small fitness

375    differences between plethodontids with and without mitochondrial duplications relative

376    to differences between other, more highly aerobic animals with and without

377    mitochondrial duplications.

378

379    Phylogenetic applications

380        The analyses presented in this study describe major genome-level mitochondrial

381    mutations for one representative individual from each included lineage. Therefore, they

382    cannot address the extent to which these rearrangements characterize populations,

383    species, or more inclusive phylogenetic groups, with the possible exception of the two

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384     *Aneides* (Moritz and Brown 1987). *Aneides flavipunctatus* and *A. hardii* may share a

385     synapomorphic rearrangement, although high levels of such rearrangements within

386     plethodontids necessitate further sampling from this clade to eliminate the possibility of

387     homoplasy. Additional sampling within all rearranged lineages and their close relatives

388     will enable dating of the appearance and persistence of individual rearrangements,

389     thereby addressing the rate at which pseudogenes decay and/or are excised from the

390     genome. Similarly, it will allow dating of the appearance and persistence of tandem

391     duplications within and around the CR and IGS. Finally, it will enable more accurate

392     identification of the ends of duplicated fragments, allowing characterization of secondary

393     structures, repeats, or other genomic sequences that may facilitate duplication both in

394     plethodontids and more generally. In addition to providing further insight into the

395     evolutionary history of vertebrate mitochondrial genomes, this understanding of

396     molecular- and population-level dynamics of mitochondrial genome instability is critical

397     for evaluating the strength of using mitochondrial genome rearrangements as a genome-

398     level character for phylogenetic analysis (Sankoff et al. 1992; Macey, Schulte and Larson

399     2000).

## Acknowledgements

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551

552 **Table 1**

553 **Repeat elements in the intergenic spacer (IGS) between *trnT* and *trnP* and the**

554 **control region (CR) between *trnP* and *trnF* in thirteen species' genomes.**

555

| Taxon | IGS Length (bp) | IGS Repeat Motifs, # x Length (bp) | CR Length (bp) | CR Motifs, # and Length (bp) | Sequence in Common Between IGS and CR? |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| *Gyrinophilus porphyriticus* | 666 | 2 x 86, 9 x 7 | 766 | None | No |
| *Eurycea bislineata* | 1,113 | 3 x 60 | 729 | None | No |
| *Nototriton abscondens* | > 1,198[a] | 27 x 12 | 1,173 | 22 x 10 | No |
| "Bolitoglossa sp. nov." | 11 | None | 6,373 | 12 x 325, 6 x 200 | No |
| "Thorius sp. nov." | 262 | None | 3,539 | 3-36 x ~10[b] | No |
| *Batrachoseps attenuatus* | 652 | 21 x 6-9 | 1,336 | None | No |
| *Batrachoseps wrightorum* | 183 | None | 4,297 | 13 x 225 | No |
| *Hemidactylium* | 1,211 | 8 x 26, 21 x | 930 | 16 x 11 | No |

27

| | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| *scutatum* | | 15 | | | |
| *Plethodon cinereus* | 798 | 1 x 798[c] | 3,694 | 2 x 1,250 | Yes[d] |
| *Plethodon petraeus* | 754 | none | 3,251 | 6 x 54, 9 x 200 | No |
| *Desmognathus fuscus* | 564 | 2 x 77, 8 x 9, 6 x 10 | 735 | None | No |
| *Ensatina eschscholtzii* | 1,119 | 1 x 525[e], 2 x 71 | 5,004 | 3 x 1,500 | Yes[d] |
| *Rhyacotriton variegatus* | 5,527 | 6 x 880[f] | 755 | None | No |

[a] The IGS is incompletely sequenced in *N. abscondens*.

[b] "Thorius sp. nov." CR contains ≥ 14 different short (9-11) repeat units repeated between three and 36 times.

[c] In the *P. cinereus* genome, the entire 798-bp IGS is repeated 1.85 times within the CR.

[d] In the mtDNAs of *P. cinereus* and *E. eschscholtzii*, the IGS and CR contain similar (~80-90% identical) sequences.

[e] In the *E. eschscholtzii* mtDNA, 525 bp of the IGS is repeated five times within the CR-- once in each 1,500-bp CR repeat unit and two additional times. Each 1,500-bp CR repeat unit also contains a *ψtrnP* that is 91% identical to the functional copy but has a one-bp deletion in the anticodon.

[f] The IGS repeat unit in the *R. variegatus* genome is comprised of a partial *ψcob* and additional *trnT* and is described further in the text.

569 **Figure Legends**

570

571 FIG. 1.—Phylogenetic relationships among plethodontid salamanders and two outgroups

572 from other families as indicated (from Mueller et al. 2004). Asterisks indicate lineages

573 that have experienced a duplication-mediated rearrangement. *Aneides hardii* and *Aneides*

574 *flavipunctatus* may share one synapomorphic rearrangement; however, *A. hardii*

575 underwent a second duplication-mediated rearrangement not present in *A. flavipunctatus.*

576 Numbers to the right of species names are mitochondrial genome sizes. The sequences of

577 two species' genomes, *N. abscondens* and *H. italicus*, are incomplete.

578

579 FIG. 2.—Mitochondrial gene rearrangements in *Batrachoseps attenuatus*. $O_L$ = origin of

580 light strand replication. Single letters refer to tRNA genes for the corresponding amino

581 acid. Shaded boxes represent recognizable pseudogenes and question marks indicate

582 stretches of sequence that cannot be assigned based on sequence similarity. Lengths of

583 genes and pseudogenes are not to scale. *(A)* Current gene order. *(B)* Hypothesized

584 duplication-random loss model for deriving this gene order. *ψtrnN* retains 60% identity to

585 the functional copy overall, not including two deletions (1 and 3 bp) in the pseudogene;

586 the last 39 bp retain 74% to the functional copy. The remaining pseudogenes have

587 decayed beyond recognition.

588

589 FIG. 3.— Mitochondrial gene rearrangements in *Hydromantes brunus*. Designations are

590 as in Figure 2. *(A)* Current gene order. *(B)* Hypothesized duplication-random loss model

591 for deriving this gene order. *ψtrnW* retains 69% identity to the functional copy, not

29

592 including two deletions (3 and 5 bp) in the pseudogene. *ψtrnA* retains 56% identity to the

593 functional copy overall, not including two deletions (3 and 5 bp) in the pseudogene; the

594 last 44 bp retain 66% identity. *ψtrnN* retains 82% identity to the functional copy, not

595 including one 5-bp deletion in the pseudogene. ψO$_L$ retains 70% identity to the functional

596 copy overall, not including 10 bp missing from its end; the first 18 bp retain 94% identity.

597 *ψtrnC* retains 87% identity to the functional copy, not including three deletions (2, 1, and

598 2 bp) in the pseudogene. *ψtrnY* and *ψnad2* have decayed beyond recognition.

599

600 FIG. 4.— Mitochondrial gene rearrangements in *Stereochilus marginatus*. Designations

601 are as in Figure 2 except that IGS = intergenic spacer between *trnT* and *trnP* and CR =

602 control region. *(A)* Current gene order. *(B)* Hypothesized duplication-random loss model

603 for deriving this gene order. *ψnad6* retains 52% identity to the inferred corresponding

604 186-bp portion of the functional copy, not including two insertions (2 and 1 bp) in the

605 pseudogene; base pairs 55-132 retain 74% identity. *ψtrnE* retains 85% identity to the

606 functional copy, not including one 1-bp deletion in the pseudogene. The 42-bp *ψcob*

607 retains 79% identity to the first 44 bp of the functional copy, not including one 2-bp

608 deletion in the pseudogene. The first putative copy of the IGS, between *trnT* and *nad6*, is

609 1,982 bp in length and contains three complete, and one partial, >95% identical tandem

610 repeats of 437 bp each. The sequence between *ψcob* and *trnP* contains five >99%

611 identical copies of a different 110-bp tandem repeat sequence and a sixth 87% identical

612 copy. Notably, following an intervening 102-bp stretch of non-repetitive sequence, there

613 is a complete copy of the 437-bp repeat unit found in the putative IGS between *trnT* and

30

614 *nad6*. This repeat unit is ~85% identical to copies in the other putative IGS, despite being

615 separated from them by 1,630 bp. No recognizable *ψtrnT* remains.

616

617 FIG. 5.— Mitochondrial gene rearrangements in *Plethodon elongatus*. Designations are as

618 in Figure 4. *(A)* Current gene order. *(B)* Two hypothesized duplication events mediating

619 rearrangement in the *P. elongatus* mitochondrial genome. The first duplication resulted in

620 tandem repeats of the region spanning from *nad6* to the CR. *ψtrnP* retains 61% identity

621 to the functional copy overall, not including two insertions (3 bp each) in the pseudogene;

622 the last 44 bp retain 70% identity. *ψnad6, ψtrnE, ψcob,* and *ψtrnT* have all decayed

623 beyond recognition. In contrast, the two copies of the CR are 97% identical. Later, a

624 duplicate copy of the fragment comprising the end of *nad5, ψnad6*, *ψtrnE*, *ψcob*, *trnT,*

625 the IGS, *ψtrnP*, and a portion of the CR was inserted between the second CR and *trnF*,

626 likely by intra-molecular recombination. The two copies of this fragment are 99%

627 identical.

628

629 FIG. 6.— Mitochondrial gene rearrangements in *Aneides flavipunctatus.* Designations are

630 as in Figure 4. *(A)* Current gene order. *(B)* Hypothesized duplication-random loss model

631 for deriving this gene order. *ψnad6* and *ψtrnE* have been excised from the genome. The

632 region between *trnT* and *nad6*, which comprises a putative IGS and *ψtrnP*, is 3,050 bp in

633 length and contains seven complete, and one partial, >96% identical 388-bp tandem

634 repeats. Each tandem repeat contains a 72-bp *ψtrnP* with 54% overall sequence identity

635 to *trnP*, not including two insertions in the pseudogene (2 and 1 bp); the last 51 bp are

636 63% identical to the functional *trnP*. The region between *trnE* and *trnP* contains ten

31

637 >92% identical copies of a 66-bp tandem repeat, a 357-bp stretch of variable numbers of

638 short repeats (5-10 bp), and 71 bp of non-repetitive sequence. No recognizable *ψcob* or

639 *ψtrnT* exist. The two repetitive regions of the genome resemble neither one another nor

640 the CR.

641

642 FIG. 7.— Mitochondrial gene rearrangements in *Aneides hardii.* Designations are as in

643 Figure 4. *(A)* Current gene order. *(B)* Two hypothesized duplication events in the history

644 of the *A. hardii* mitochondrial genome. The first duplication comprised the region

645 spanning from *nad6* to the IGS; this duplication may be a synapomorphy shared by *A.*

646 *hardii* and *A. flavipunctatus*. The second duplication comprised the region spanning from

647 IGS to *nad1*. The putative IGS (IGSa) that bounds the two copies of this duplication

648 fragment (Copy I and Copy II) contains varying numbers of a 343-bp tandem repeat.

649 Copy I has one complete and one partial tandem repeat units, and Copy II has four

650 complete >95% identical tandem repeat units and one partial tandem repeat unit.

651 Adjacent to these IGSa sequences, Copy II contains a functional *nad6*, whereas Copy I

652 possesses neither a functional *nad6* nor a recognizable *ψnad6*. The two copies of *trnE,*

653 adjacent to *nad6* (Copy II) and IGSa (Copy I), are 97% identical to one another excluding

654 a 3-bp deletion in the D-stem of Copy II. *ψcob, ψtrnT,* and an additional IGS (IGSb), if

655 retained in the genome, should be found in each fragment between *trnE* and *trnP*. There

656 is no recognizable *ψcob* or *ψtrnT* in this region in either fragment, nor is there any

657 sequence similarity with the 343-bp repeat unit found in IGSa. Rather, this region of each

658 fragment contains 67-bp tandem repeats, followed by ~300 bp of non-repetitive

659 sequence. Copy I has six complete tandem repeats; Copy II has four complete repeats and

660    a partial fifth. Not including this indel, the two copies of this region are 96% identical.

661    Both Copy I and Copy II contain *trnP*, CR, and *trnF*; the two copies of this region are

662    96% identical overall, and both copies of both tRNAs have viable secondary structures.

663    Adjacent to *trnF,* Copy I has a complete *rrnS, trnV, rrnL,* and *trnL1*. In contrast, Copy II

664    contains 111 bp that are 86% identical to the first 111 bp of functional *rrnS*, followed by

665    a *trnL1* that is 97% identical to the *trnL1* in Copy I; both *trnL1s* have viable secondary

666    structure. Adjacent to *trnL1*, Copy I has a 672-bp *ψnad1* that is 92% identical to the first

667    672 bp of the functional copy but contains multiple stop codons; Copy II contains the

668    functional *nad1*.