

Does the VP1 Gene of Foot-and-Mouth Disease Virus Behave as a Molecular Clock?

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Summary. We have carried out a phylogenetic study of the evolution of the VP1 gene sequence from different serological types and subtypes of foot-and-mouth disease virus (FMDV). The maximum-likelihood method developed by Hasegawa and co-workers (Hasegawa et al. 1985) for the estimation of evolutionary parameters and branching dates has been used to decide between alternative models of evolution: constant versus variable rates. The results obtained indicate that a constant rate model, i.e., a molecular clock, seems to be the most plausible one. However, additional information suggests the possibility that the appearance of serotype CS has been accompanied by an episode of rapid evolution (Villaverde et al. 1991). We discuss the possibility that this evolution of RNA viruses was due to episodic positive Darwinian selection, which would have helped the new variant to escape the immunogenic pressure from the hosts.

Key words: Food-and-mouth disease virus — Serotypes — Molecular clock — Periodic selection — Maximum-likelihood method

Introduction

The absence of proofreading in the RNA replicase (Domingo and Holland 1988) causes the evolution of RNA viral genes to be much faster than that of nuclear genes of eukaryotic organisms. This makes RNA viruses interesting materials for the study of molecular evolution. The latter has been studied

during the last decade under two different antagonistic views, neutral and positive Darwinian evolution. As mentioned by Gojobori et al. (1990), viral genes are particularly well suited to examine the molecular clock hypothesis and, consequently, the most widely accepted theoretical justification of it, i.e., the neutral theory. Under this theory, an exact molecular evolutionary clock would be expected if the mutation rates for neutral alleles per gene of a given molecule were exactly equal for all organisms at all times. So, selection is viewed as a disturbing factor of the previous process, because the alteration of the selective constraints on each molecule could change the observed fixation rate of mutants.

The selectionist theory claims a relevant role for positive Darwinian evolution at the molecular level (Fitch et al. 1991 and references therein), especially in the case of molecular evolution of some RNA viral genes (Dopazo et al. 1988; Eigen and Biebricher 1988). The evolution of a gene subject to positive selection would not show clocklike behavior, as the different selection intensities would be reflected in different speeds of fixation of mutations along the branches of the corresponding phylogenetic tree. As stated by Fitch et al. (1991), the neutral theory is an important contribution to the understanding of evolution at the molecular level, but it is time now to turn our attention to finding out under what circumstances positive selection is acting.

Several methods have been proposed for comparing evolution rates in an evolutionary tree (reviewed by Gillespie 1986). However, most of the methods described in that paper allow only for the testing of a “global” clock for the whole phylogeny or the singling out of a deviating branch. Hasegawa and his coworkers (Hasegawa et al. 1985; Kishino

and Hasegawa 1990) have developed a maximum-likelihood method that allows not only the direction of different rates along branches but also the dating of splits when rates vary. As this method is based on an explicit evolutionary model, it is advantageous over other statistical methods that merely compare final trees (Felsenstein 1981, 1984; Kimura 1983).

In the present paper we have tried to combine the statistical analysis of molecular evolutionary rates in the phylogeny of the VP1 gene of foot-and-mouth disease virus (FMDV) with relevant biological phenomena in the evolutionary history of this virus, such as the appearance of new serological types and subtypes.

FMDV is an aphthovirus of the Picornaviridae family (Palmenberg 1988). Its genome consists of a single-stranded RNA molecule that acts as an mRNA in vivo and in vitro, and it is translated to give a polyprotein that is proteolytically processed to yield the mature structural and nonstructural viral proteins.

One of the apparent consequences of genetic variability of FMDV is its antigenic diversity. The many isolates of FMDV analyzed to date have been classified into seven serological types (A, C, O, SAT-1, SAT-2, SAT-3, and Asia 1) and many subtypes. Although the molecular bases for type and subtype classification of FMDV are not clear, at least some of the relevant immunogenic properties of the virus can be assigned to capsid protein VP1 (see Domingo et al. 1990 for a recent review).

In the present work we check the constancy of evolutionary rates in different branches corresponding to the phylogenetic tree of the VP1 protein gene of five FMDV isolates, representing three different serotypes and two subtypes of one of them. We are specially interested in answering the following null hypothesis: is the appearance of a new type or subtype accompanied by a change in its evolutionary rate?

Methods

We have used the maximum likelihood approach developed by Hasegawa et al. (1985). The convention of classifying nucleotide substitutions into two categories, transitions (U to C and A to G) and transversions (U or C to A or G) is followed, with the transition rate exceeding the transversion rate in most cases. It is assumed that each site evolves according to a Markov process in which a nucleotide x is replaced by another nucleotide y in an infinitely short interval of time, dt , with probability given by

$$P_{xy}(dt) = \begin{cases} \alpha\pi_y dt & \text{for transition} \\ \beta\pi_y dt & \text{for transversion} \end{cases} \quad (1)$$

where π_y is the proportion of nucleotide y in the sequences. The parameters α and β can vary between different lineages. It is assumed that all the nucleotide sites evolve independently and

are homogeneously variable with substitution probability given by Eq. (1). The expectations of the numbers of transversion and transition type differences between two sequences i and j with r nucleotides are denoted by $\overline{V}_{ij}(t)$ and $\overline{S}_{ij}(t)$, respectively. If i and j diverged t time units ago and α and β do not differ between the two lineages, they can be derived under this model as follows

$$\overline{V}_{ij}(t) = 2fr\pi_Y\pi_R[1 - \exp(-2\beta t)] \quad (2)$$

$$\begin{aligned} \overline{S}_{ij}(t) = & 2fr\{(\pi_T\pi_C + \pi_A\pi_G) + (\pi_T\pi_C\pi_R\pi_Y + \pi_A\pi_G\pi_Y\pi_R) \\ & \cdot \exp(-2\beta t) - (\pi_T\pi_C\pi_Y) \exp[-2t(\alpha\pi_Y + \beta\pi_R)] \\ & - (\pi_G\pi_A/\pi_R) \exp[-2t(\alpha\pi_R + \beta\pi_Y)]\} \end{aligned} \quad (3)$$

where f is the probability that a given site is variable and $\pi_Y = \pi_T + \pi_C$ and $\pi_R = \pi_A + \pi_G$.

When the evolutionary rates differ among different lineages, $\overline{V}_{ij}(t)$ and $\overline{S}_{ij}(t)$ can be given by a similar formulae. Consider an evolutionary tree, where i and j diverged t time units ago, and evolution proceeded at first with transition and transversion rates α_1 and β_1 along the two lineages. However, along the line leading to i , the rates changed to α_2 and β_2 , t_1 time units ago and again changed to α_3 and β_3 at t_2 ($t > t_1 > t_2$). In this case, $2\alpha t$ and $2\beta t$ in Eq. (2) and (3) are replaced by $(2t - t_1)\alpha_1 + (t_1 - t_2)\alpha_2 + t_2\alpha_3$ and $(2t - t_1)\beta_1 + (t_1 - t_2)\beta_2 + t_2\beta_3$, respectively. A rooted tree with n contemporary sequences [i.e., operational taxonomic units (OTUs)] has $n - 1$ branching points. Fixing a date as calibration point, there are $n - 2$ remaining branching points, the dates of which (t_i) are unknown parameters. The unknown parameters α_i , β_i , and t_i are estimated from the data by a maximum-likelihood method (Hasegawa et al. 1985).

The vector of parameters $\theta = [t_k (k \neq c), f, \alpha, \beta]^T$ (superscript T denotes transposed vector) that minimizes the weighted sum of squares between the observed and the expected, under the previously described model, transition and transversion differences among sequences can be estimated by a generalized least-squares method as developed in Hasegawa et al. (1985) and Kishino and Hasegawa (1990).

The generalized least-squares method uses Newton's algorithm for finding the convergent values of the components of vector θ . It is necessary to provide a good initial estimate of θ components (α_k , β_k , and t_k). These estimates were obtained by trial and error from a plot of transition versus transversion as it will be illustrated below.

Based on the information theory, Akaike (1974) derived a criterion for the comparison of nonnested models, which is very useful when comparing different tree topologies or evolutionary models with varying rates. The AIC (Akaike information criterion) statistic for a given model is defined as

$$\begin{aligned} \text{AIC} = & - 2(\text{estimated log-likelihood}) \\ & + 2(\text{number of free parameters}) \end{aligned} \quad (6)$$

and it provides the basis for model selection. The better the fit of the model to the data, the lower is the first term. On the other hand, the more complex the model, the higher is the second term. The model with minimum AIC is considered to be the most appropriate model (Akaike 1974; Hasegawa et al. 1990; Kishino and Hasegawa 1990). Using this criterion, it can be determined whether or not additional parameters should be introduced in a given model.

As the five sequences were not isolated at the same time, and given the high evolutionary rate for RNA viruses, it is necessary to correct the estimated parameters α and β . The correction performed was $\theta' = \theta t / (t - \delta t)$ where t is the time of divergence between two sequences estimated by this method and δt is the difference between the corresponding isolation dates. The same correction can be applied to the global evolutionary rate, μ , being $\mu = 2[(\pi_T\pi_C + \pi_A\pi_G)\alpha + \pi_R\pi_Y\beta]$.

CS14	ACTACGGCCA	COGTTGAATC	TGCTGACCCC	GTCACCACTA	CCGTTTGAAA	CTACGGAGGA
CS18		A	T	C		
C3P	C	TT	TG	G	C	G
OIsr	A	TAG	G	GGG	A	C
SAT-3						
CS14	GAGACTCAGG	TCCAAAGTCG	CCACCACACC	GACGTTGCCT	TCGTTCTTGA	CCGGTTTGTG
CS18		A	A	AA		
C3P	A	A	AA		GA	A
OIsr	A	G	T	C	A	A
SAT-3						
CS14	AAGGTCACAG	TGTCGGACAA	CCAACACACA	CTCGACGTGA	TGCAGGCACA	CAGAGATAAT
CS18		CAT	GT	T	C	G
C3P	G	C	CAAAA	C	AA	TTA
OIsr	C	C	GGCA	AAGTCA	G	GAGCAGA
SAT-3						
CS14	ATCGTGGGCG	CGCTTCTTCG	CGCGCCACAG	TACTACTTTT	CTGATTTGGA	AATAGCAGTG
CS18		T	A	C	C	A
C3P	C	G	A	A	C	C
OIsr	C	G	A	AA	CTCCG	TT
SAT-3						
CS14	ACCCACACTG	GGAAAGTCAC	ATGGGTGCC	AACGGTCAOC	AGTTCTGCAA	ACAACACAAC
CS18		AA	GAG	A	C	C
C3P	AA	GAG	A	C	C	C
OIsr	TTGGG	C	C	TG	CGGG	C
SAT-3						
CS14	AACCCCACTG	CCTACCATAA	GGGCCCGGTG	ACTCGACTGG	CTCTCCCATTA	CACCGCGCCA
CS18		T				
C3P	A	A	AT	C	A	C
OIsr	AGT	TTC	TCA	A	AT	C
SAT-3						
CS14	CACCGCGTGT	TGGCTACGGC	GTACACTGGT	ACTAAGACTA	CACCGCCAGT	GCATTGGCAC
CS18		T				
C3P	T	C	A	C	A	G
OIsr	TG	T	A	T	T	T
SAT-3						
CS14	GACGAGCATG	CGCCGACATC	GTTCACACTT	GGGCAGTTAA	GGCGAAACAA	ACTGAGTTGC
CS18		G	G	C		
C3P	G	A	C			
OIsr	A	GTT	C	AA	C	GGA
SAT-3						
CS14	TCGTGCGCAT	GAAGCGTGCT	GAACCTTATT	GTCCAGCGCG	ATTCTTCGGA	TTCAGCCAGG
CS18		T				
C3P	TTAC	G	A	G	C	ACA
OIsr	A	TAT	C			
SAT-3						
CS14	TAGACACAAG	CAACCGCTCG	TCGCACCTGT	AAAGCAACTG	CTG	
CS18		C	T			
C3P	C		A	AAAA	T	G
OIsr	C	GT	AC	A	G	AA
SAT-3						

Fig. 1. Partial alignment (excluding gaps) for the VP1 sequences of the following strains: CS14 (isolated in December 1979; serotype C), CS18 (February 1980; serotype C), C3P (November 1978; serotype C), OIsr (April 1981; serotype O), and SAT-3 (January 1965; serotype SAT-3). Only those positions used for the present analyses have been included.

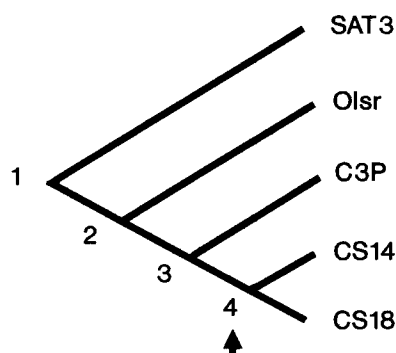


Fig. 2. Unrooted maximum-likelihood tree obtained for the five sequences. The arrow indicates the branching point taken as a reference, fixed time.

Results

Five VP1 sequences have been used in this study. The strains, serotypes, and the corresponding isolation dates along with their alignment are shown in Fig. 1. The alignment was performed by means of the hierarchical clustering algorithm (Higgins and Sharp 1988, 1989). Gaps are not considered in the Markov process (Hasegawa et al. 1985), and con-

Table 1. Transition (below diagonal) and transversion (above diagonal) hemimatrices for the five sequences

	CS14	CS18	C3P	OIsr	SAT-3
CS14	—	0	13	106	140
CS18	8	—	13	106	140
C3P	61	63	—	109	143
OIsr	89	93	80	—	136
SAT-3	119	125	123	124	—

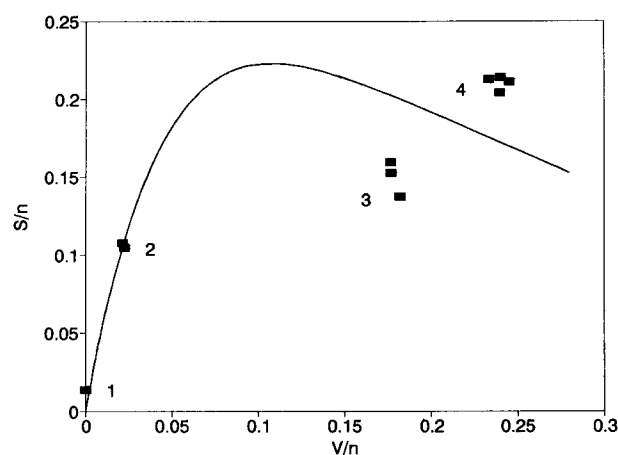


Fig. 3. Relationship between the number of transitions (S/n) and transversions (V/n) per nucleotide site for the five sequences used in the analysis. The numbering of groups corresponds to that of nodes in Fig. 2.

sequently all the positions that involved a gap in at least one sequence were discarded for the analyses.

The maximum-likelihood method (Felsenstein 1981) was used to infer the phylogenetic tree (Fig. 2). The topologies obtained under the molecular clock assumption (using program DNAMLK in package PHYLIP version 3.4) and without this assumption (using DNAML in the same package) are the same; hence, the molecular clock assumption was tested by means of the log-likelihood ratio test proposed by Felsenstein. No significant departure from the molecular clock was obtained ($\chi^2 = 2.28$ with 3 df).

The observed number of transitions and transversions between each pair of sequences is shown in Table 1. From these data, we estimated the initial values for parameters α , β , and t_k . The estimation is performed by trial and error using the expressions for \bar{S}_{ij} and \bar{V}_{ij} to fit the observed data (Fig. 3). It is unfortunate that Newton's method, used in the iterative estimation of the parameter's vector θ , does not converge unless good initial estimates are given. It is also important to realize that this method allows finding local optima, but not global optima, for the parameters, and therefore different initial estimates may lead to radically different outcomes. We have tried to cover as wide a range for α and β initial estimates as possible.

Four different evolutionary models have been tested. We are interested in testing the null hypothesis that the appearance of a new serotype corresponds to a peak shift in the adaptive landscape of the virus, and that this shift is accompanied by a sudden increase in the evolutionary rate, thus allowing the fast establishment of a new serological type. The assumption of a molecular clock leads to the first model, with constant rates along all the branches. The second, third, and fourth models correspond to the different steps in this hypothesis: the appearance of a new serological type or subtype can be accompanied by a change in the evolutionary rate. So, model 2 corresponds to a set of parameters (α_1, β_1) along the branches 1-SAT-3 and 1-2, and another set (α_2, β_2) for the remaining branches. The acceptance of this model would imply that SAT-3 would have evolved at a different rate than the other sequences. Model 3 reflects the idea that each serotype (SAT, O, and C) evolved with different rates.

Finally, in model 4 the possibility that subtype C3P evolved at different rates than subtype CS is tested.

The calibration date was taken as the estimated divergence point between CS14 and CS18. These are the most closely related pair of sequences, and to obtain good estimates of α and β it is necessary

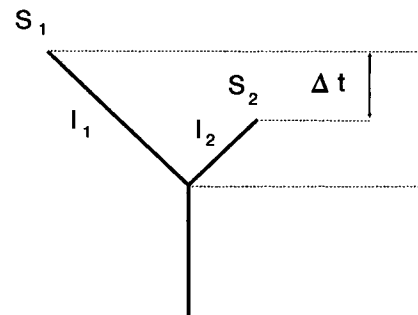


Fig. 4. Correction of estimated rates for branches corresponding to different isolation time for two OTUs.

Table 2. Branching dates (years* 10⁻²) and evolutionary rates estimated from VP1 sequences

Parameter	Model			
	Molecular clock	Two rates	Three rates	Four rates
Rates in branches				
1-SAT-3	$\alpha_1\beta_1$	$\alpha_2\beta_2$	$\alpha_2\beta_2$	$\alpha_2\beta_2$
1-2	$\alpha_1\beta_1$	$\alpha_2\beta_2$	$\alpha_2\beta_2$	$\alpha_2\beta_2$
2-OIsr	$\alpha_1\beta_1$	$\alpha_1\beta_1$	$\alpha_3\beta_3$	$\alpha_3\beta_3$
2-3	$\alpha_1\beta_1$	$\alpha_1\beta_1$	$\alpha_3\beta_3$	$\alpha_3\beta_3$
3-C3P	$\alpha_1\beta_1$	$\alpha_1\beta_1$	$\alpha_1\beta_1$	$\alpha_4\beta_4$
3-4	$\alpha_1\beta_1$	$\alpha_1\beta_1$	$\alpha_1\beta_1$	$\alpha_4\beta_4$
4-CS14	$\alpha_1\beta_1$	$\alpha_1\beta_1$	$\alpha_1\beta_1$	$\alpha_1\beta_1$
4-CS18	$\alpha_1\beta_1$	$\alpha_1\beta_2$	$\alpha_1\beta_1$	$\alpha_1\beta_1$
Branching dates				
t_1	0.6789 ± 0.2881	0.7692 ± 0.1216	0.8968 ± 0.0606	0.7319 ± 0.0604
t_2	0.4067 ± 0.1796	0.4224 ± 0.2132	0.4636 ± 0.1326	0.2788 ± 0.0531
t_3	0.0312 ± 0.0117	0.0301 ± 0.0120	0.0313 ± 0.0073	0.0112 ± 0.0009
t_4	0.0025	0.0025	0.0025	0.0025
Rates				
α_1	15.3452 ± 6.4042	15.9276 ± 7.0398	15.7779 ± 3.9099	19.4394 ± 6.3378
α_2	—	45.3319 ± 5.6005	9.4322 ± 4.1826	58.9858 ± 5.7161
α_3	—	—	24.8302 ± 8.9043	37.0904 ± 6.6165
α_4	—	—	—	43.9139 ± 5.0866
β_1	1.0750 ± 0.4175	1.0130 ± 0.4479	1.0347 ± 0.2407	0.0000 ± 1.0668
β_2	—	0.8923 ± 0.0840	0.5646 ± 0.2760	0.8134 ± 0.0791
β_3	—	—	0.7681 ± 0.3386	1.4850 ± 0.2849
β_4	—	—	—	2.8501 ± 0.8039
μ_1	4.2756 ± 1.7688	4.3865 ± 1.9388	4.3612 ± 1.0734	4.7354 ± 2.0773
μ_2	—	5.7148 ± 1.8955	1.7009 ± 0.9547	12.4533 ± 3.1015
μ_3	—	—	8.2037 ± 4.2435	3.8276 ± 1.7011
μ_4	—	—	—	0.4259 ± 0.0931
SSR	53.008	117.324	255.463	302.445
df	15	35	63	99
P	<0.00001	<0.00001	<0.00001	<0.00001
σ	1.6584	1.6713	1.8836	1.6582
AIC(2)	98.5557	105.6396	99.7504	113.6911

α and β values are shown as obtained from the least-squares method, whereas μ values have been corrected to account for the differences in isolation dates. The proportion of variable sites (f) is assumed to be constant and equal to 0.5935

Table 3. Synonymous (below diagonal) and nonsynonymous (above) evolutionary rates (expected number of changes per nucleotide position) for VP1 sequences

	CS14	CS18	C3P	OIsr	SAT-3
CS14	—	0.0046 (0.0032)	0.0987 (0.0164)	0.2988 (0.0310)	0.5420 (0.0504)
CS18	0.0436 (0.0181)	—	0.0987 (0.0164)	0.3062 (0.0316)	0.5532 (0.0515)
CP3	0.2869 (0.0532)	0.3069 (0.0559)	—	0.2887 (0.0302)	0.5957 (0.0555)
OIsr	1.1355 (0.1805)	1.1883 (0.1937)	1.0397 (0.1574)	—	0.5507 (0.0500)
SAT-3	1.3082 (0.2209)	1.4603 (0.2716)	1.2111 (0.2015)	1.2742 (0.2292)	—

Standard errors are shown in parentheses below the corresponding mean value

to compare sequences for which transitions and transversions increase linearly with time (Hasegawa et al. 1985). This branching date was estimated as follows. From the branching point, two lineages, S_1 and S_2 , have accumulated l_1 and l_2 differences in the respective branches (Fig. 4). If both branches had the same length, i.e., had accumulated the same number of differences, k , the global rate, would equal $2l/t$, but if $l_1 \neq l_2$ and the isolation times are different by δt units, then $k_1 = l_1/t$ and $k_2 = l_2/(t - \delta t)$. Solving for t leads to $t = l_1 \delta t / (l_1 - nl_2)$, where $n = k_1/k_2$. If $k_1 = k_2$ (molecular clock), then $n = 1$.

The smallest AIC value (see Table 2) was obtained for the molecular clock model. In this model, as in the other models tested, independence of evolution in neighbor sites cannot be assumed and AIC(2) values are the ones to be compared (P values are around 10^{-20} , except for model one, with $P \approx 10^{-5}$). As a consequence, standard error estimates for parameters in Table 2 must be multiplied by the σ value corresponding to their model (Kishino and Hasegawa 1990). Under the constant rate assumed in the molecular clock model, the estimated branching dates for the four nodes in Fig. 2, correspond to 60, 40, 4.3, and 1.8 years, for nodes 1, 2, 3, and 4, respectively, before the isolation date of the most recent isolate (OIsr, April 1981).

The other models show larger values for AIC(2), and under Akaike's criterion such models must be discarded and constancy of evolutionary rates must be assumed. However, AIC for model 3 is very close to that of model 1, which could imply that discrimination between these two models is not easy. There is no pattern when global evolutionary rates are compared among models with increasing number of parameters. μ_1 remains roughly constant (Table 2), but μ_2 decreases and then increases from model 2 to model 3 and from this to model 4. This makes

it impossible to assign a relative speed to each branch, thus undermining the original hypothesis.

Once constancy of evolutionary rates has been demonstrated, it is possible to calculate the corresponding rates for synonymous and nonsynonymous positions. These values, computed according to the method of Li et al. (1985), are shown in Table 3. As expected according to the neutral theory, rates for synonymous substitutions are always higher than for nonsynonymous substitutions.

Discussion

The observed clock behavior of these sequences can be interpreted in two ways. First, we can disregard the null hypothesis (see above) and accept that the appearance of a new serotype is not accompanied by an increase in the evolutionary rates, hence the constancy of evolutionary rates observed in the lineages of three different serotypes. Second, the null hypothesis could be accepted if the change in evolutionary rates was merely a sudden burst of change, during a very short period of time, followed by a new deceleration when the new serotype becomes the dominant one in the new environment. We must take into account that RNA viruses have extremely small generation times and very high replication rates. Consequently, this second interpretation could only be tested using a quite different set of data, such as differences from one cell culture passage to another or such like. The time scale involved cannot be months but weeks or even days.

The three rates model shows an AIC value very close to that of the constant rate model. It would be tempting to accept this model as the best one, as it gives clear support to the null hypothesis. If that were the case, the appearance of a new serotype would be accompanied by a change in the evolutionary rate, especially in the transversion rate. It is interesting to note that the change in evolutionary rate does not imply necessarily an acceleration of it. In the three rates model, the branch that leads to serotype OIsr, after split number 2 in Fig. 2, shows a lower rate than the branches leading to serotype SAT-3 and to serotype C, after split number 3. This variation could be due to a change in the selection pressure on the molecule, by means of changes in the conformation of the epitope recognized by antibodies from the hosts.

Gillespie (1984) has developed a model where selection acts episodically. In other words, in some periods positive Darwinian selection might be present, and in others, mutations might accumulate according to a pattern of neutral evolution. Episodic selection or some type of periodic selection (Maruyama and Birky 1991) could have an important

role in the evolution of RNA viruses, irrespective of our capacity to detect it. Fitch et al. (1991) have been able to provide evidence of the presence of periodic positive Darwinian selection in the evolution of structural viral proteins of influenza A virus. Once the new and advantageous serological type appears, it spreads in the population until fixation, the fixation speed depending on how effective the new driver mutation is. The effect on the phylogeny will be different substitution rates, but once different driver mutations are fixed in their respective populations, the pattern of mutant accumulation will be neutral. Taking into account this model for the evolution of viruses, the phylogenetic reconstruction, depending on the history of new driver mutations, the fitness of the corresponding genotypes as well as the relative duration of selective versus neutral periods, will be more or less well explained in terms of the molecular clock. The detection of such a selection pattern in the phylogenetic reconstruction would depend on the magnitude of the change in the intensity of selection, on how long it takes the new variant to become predominant in the population, and on the time elapsed from the appearance of the new variant to the isolation date of the sequences used for the phylogenetic reconstruction. Hence the usefulness of viral genes to put into evidence this kind of phenomena is apparent, as their evolutionary processes occur in very short intervals of time.

The molecular clock model has to be adopted because it shows the lowest AIC. Villaverde et al. (1991) also found molecular clock behavior in their analysis of the C₁ serotype of this same viral species. Assuming rate constancy, it is possible to date the splitting episodes that gave rise to new serotype and subtypes. These estimates show that serotypes OIsr and C are quite recent, both having appeared along this century. Using these estimated branching dates and the isolation dates given in Fig. 1, it is possible to compute the average rate per site per year of synonymous and nonsynonymous substitutions. The estimated values are 0.0353 (± 0.0138) and 0.0085 (± 0.0022) substitutions per site per year for synonymous and nonsynonymous changes, respectively. The ratio of synonymous to nonsynonymous rates is 4.153, similar to the average value of 5.0 detected by Li et al. (1985) for mammalian genes. It is also evident that this viral gene evolves much faster than eukaryotic ones, by a factor of 10^6 , and this observation does not deserve further comment. It is remarkable, however, that for both synonymous and nonsynonymous substitutions between C subtypes rates are higher than between them and the other, older serotypes as well as within these (7.118 and 4.153 times, respectively). Although not statistically significant, this is also observed in the three rates

model (Table 2). Again, this can be taken as an indication of a recent episode of positive selection not yet completely hidden by ulterior neutral evolution.

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