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Author for correspondence:

David R. Nelson e-mail: dnelson@uthsc.edu

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The cytochrome P450 genesis locus: the origin and evolution of animal cytochrome P450s

David R. Nelson¹, Jared V. Goldstone² and John J. Stegeman²

¹Department of Microbiology, Immunology and Biochemistry, University of Tennessee Health Science Center, 858 Madison Avenue Suite G01, Memphis, TN 38163, USA

 2 Department of Biology, Woods Hole Oceanographic Institution, Woods Hole, MA 02543, USA

The neighbourhoods of cytochrome P450 (CYP) genes in deuterostome genomes, as well as those of the cnidarians Nematostella vectensis and Acropora digitifera and the placozoan Trichoplax adhaerens were examined to find clues concerning the evolution of CYP genes in animals. CYP genes created by the 2R whole genome duplications in chordates have been identified. Both microsynteny and macrosynteny were used to identify genes that coexisted near CYP genes in the animal ancestor. We show that all 11 CYP clans began in a common gene environment. The evidence implies the existence of a single locus, which we term the 'cytochrome P450 genesis locus', where one progenitor CYP gene duplicated to create a tandem set of genes that were precursors of the 11 animal CYP clans: CYP Clans 2, 3, 4, 7, 19, 20, 26, 46, 51, 74 and mitochondrial. These early CYP genes existed side by side before the origin of cnidarians, possibly with a few additional genes interspersed. The Hox gene cluster, WNT genes, an NK gene cluster and at least one ARF gene were close neighbours to this original CYP locus. According to this evolutionary scenario, the CYP74 clan originated from animals and not from land plants nor from a common ancestor of plants and animals. The CYP7 and CYP19 families that are chordate-specific belong to CYP clans that seem to have originated in the CYP genesis locus as well, even though this requires many gene losses to explain their current distribution. The approach to uncovering the CYP genesis locus overcomes confounding effects because of gene conversion, sequence divergence, gene birth and death, and opens the way to understanding the biodiversity of CYP genes, families and subfamilies, which in animals has been obscured by more than 600 Myr of evolution.

1. Introduction

(a) *CYP* clans, problems in understanding animal *CYP* evolution, and a way forward

The cytochrome P450s (*CYPs*) constitute one of the most diverse eukaryotic gene families, with a dizzying complexity within and between species. *CYP* enzymes use molecular oxygen to modify substrate structure, critical in a huge number of physiological, ecological and toxicological processes. Generally, anerobes and some microaerophiles, such as the parasites *Plasmodium* or *Giardia*, lack *CYP* genes [1], but in aerobic organisms *CYP* numbers range from two genes in *Schizosaccharomyces pombe* to as many as 400 genes in some plants such as potato [2] or grapevine, cottonwood, soybean and rice [3]. Currently, in animals, the range is 35 CYP genes in the sponge *Amphimedon queenslandica* to approximately 235 in the cephalochordate *Branchiostoma floridae* (lancelet or amphioxus). *CYP* genes are classified into clans, families and subfamilies based on phylogenetics as well as sequence identity [4]. Orthologues, co-orthologues and paralogues of *CYP* genes are often difficult to properly classify as sequences can differ substantially between species, because of indels and gene conversion [5–7]. Likewise, the numbers of genes in a given

subfamily often differ even between closely related species, for example, differences in the mouse, rat and human *CYP2D* and *CYP2J* clusters, because of differences in deletion or expansion (or 'blooms') in the number of genes ([8,9] see also [10]). This has confounded discerning relationships and especially the path of *CYP* gene evolution in animals. We address these issues in this study.

Animal CYPs display a molecular phylogeny with 11 distinct clades, each containing one or more CYP gene families. In the late 1990s, reviews of metazoan CYP gene evolution [11,12] introduced the concept of clans to describe these deep branching clusters, although at that time no animal genome sequence had been completed, and several animal CYP families (and clans) were not yet known. By 2003, there were 18 CYP families known in vertebrates, although CYP39 was not yet identified in fish [13]. CYP16 in the CYP26 Clan was the last vertebrate family recognized (D. Nelson 2010, unpublished data). The 11th clan, CYP Clan 74, originally known only from land plants, was first observed in animals as an expressed sequence tag (EST) from lancelet.¹ Lee *et al*. [14] reported the first crystal structure of a plant CYP74, and identified animal CYP74 Clan members in the cephalochordate B. floridae, the sea anemone Nematostella vectensis, the coral Acropora millepora and the placazoan Trichoplax adhaerens [14]. This discovery was the crowning touch that led to the 11 animal CYP clans currently known. A list of the 196 animal CYP families and their clan membership can be found in the electronic supplementary material, table S1.

One of the key objectives concerning animal CYP evolution is to understand the origin of these 11 clans. Did the ancestor of all animals have one or more than one CYP gene? How did the 11 clans evolve from the earliest CYP(s)? Comparison of the amino acid sequences does not answer these questions because the branches between the clans are so deep. Only CYP Clans 3 and 4 appear to be sisters, while the relationships among the other nine clans have been elusive. The problem is similar to defining the relationships among the eukaryotic megagroups, unikonts, bikonts and excavates² [17]. Tree-building methods are currently not able to resolve the deepest branches with high confidence [15]. Yoshida et al. [18] showed that eukaryotic CYP51 (sterol 14a demethylase) was probably orthologous to prokaryotic CYP51, and therefore a strong candidate for the original eukaryotic CYP. An alternative view is that bacterial CYP51 resulted from a lateral transfer from plants [19]. This would place the first origin of CYP51 in early eukarvotes, with a subsequent divergence into a cycloartenol branch and a lanosterol branch. This idea is in conflict with Cavalier-Smith [20], who views actinobacteria as the probable precursors of the neomuran ancestor of eukaryotes in part because CYP51 is found in actinobacteria. The idea that plant, animal and fungal lineages all evolved separate CYP collections de novo apparently from a CYP51 was explicitly stated by Nelson [11]. This idea is independent of an actinobacterial or early eukaryotic origin for CYP51.

Although the idea that *CYP51* was the starting point has been around for some time, there has not been any consideration of the pathway(s) from *CYP51* to the contemporary *CYP* clans, families and subfamilies. The accumulation of highquality animal genome assemblies offers a new approach to *CYP* origins based on synteny. Gene neighbourhoods and gene structure can give additional evolutionary information not contained in coding sequence alone [21–23]. This is illustrated in several studies of genes in specific *CYP* families [24]. In this study, we examine *CYP* genes in their syntenic context, to discern the path by which the existing clans, including their families and subfamilies, can be linked to the original locus.

(b) The 2R hypothesis and its implications for *CYP* evolution

The concept of whole genome duplication (WGD) during animal evolution is an essential background for considering *CYP* gene evolution [25]. Several gene families provide evidence for two rounds (2R) of WGD in chordates, the most famous example being the clustered Hox genes. Each round of WGD results in the formation of duplicate genes, known as ohnologues [25,26]. Many ohnologues are lost as a tetraploid genome reduces the number of genes back down close to the original diploid number, while some are retained and acquire different functions (subfunctionalization of the original pre-duplicated gene, or neofunctionalization [25,27,28]).

Analysis of the *Ciona* genome confirmed the 2R hypothesis [29], as did the recent sequencing of the amphioxus (lancelet) genome [23]. Each region in the lancelet genome typically can be mapped in mammalian genomes to four paralogons, large paralogous regions originally derived from duplicated chromosomes ostensibly created in the two rounds of WGD. The ancestral karyotype has been reconstructed with 17 chordate linkage groups (CLGs). The human genome contains 135 segments that map 90 per cent of the genome onto these CLGs [23]. In addition to the 2R WGD, a third round (3R) has occurred in the vertebrate line leading to ray-finned (actinopterygian) fishes including zebrafish and medaka [30,31], but not lobe-finned (sarcopterygian) fishes such as the coelacanth [30].

Evolutionarily, the 2R events have been bracketed in time between the divergence of tunicates from vertebrates and the origin of the gnathostomes (jawed vertebrates). Recent analyses argue that both 2R events preceded the cyclostome-gnathostome split [32,33] (figure 1). Absolute geological dates for the 2R events are not known owing to insufficient fossil evidence. Fossils of chordates (Haikouella lanceolata), hemichordates (Yunnanozoon lividum) and vertebrates (Myllokunmingia fengjiaoa and Haikouichthys ercaicunensis, now considered a single species) are found in the Chengjiang biota, dated to 525 Ma [37,38]. Therefore, the oldest divergence among deuterostomes (Xenambulacraria³ versus chordates) is older than 525 Ma. The vertebrate in this collection is thought to post-date the origin of the hagfish [37]. If the placement of the 2R events in figure 1 is correct, then the 2R duplications would have to be older than 525 Ma. A firm younger boundary for 2R is the minimum date for the split between the actinopterygians (ray-finned fish) and the sarcopterygians (lobe-finned fish and tetrapods), which was no later than 419 Ma [39]. This date probably should move back to the divergence of sharks from the bony fishes, but sharks do not leave good fossils. The oldest putative shark scales are from the Ordovician Harding Sandstone (approx. 450 Ma [40]). Therefore, the 2R events are at least 450 Ma old and are probably older than 525 Ma. Molecular sequence analysis places the origin of deuterostomes earlier than the fossil evidence, perhaps as much as 643-845 Ma. These estimates require some assumptions about rates of change and choices of calibration points so they are not as firm as fossil dates



Figure 1. Metazoan phylogeny showing the 2R and 3R WGD events and total number of *CYP* coding genes in each genome. This phylogeny is based on the best current knowledge of metazoan evolution [34]. Gene counts were determined based on protein predictions from the respective genome projects (see §2). Phylogenetic divisions are based on currently accepted consensus; where no consensus exists a polytomy is displayed. 525 Ma is the minimum age for vertebrates based on the vertebrate fossils in the Chengjiang biota. Other estimated divergence times are from Edgecombe *et al.* [36].

[41,42]. This time frame corresponds to the snowball Earth hypothesis that may have triggered key events in animal evolution [43,44].

It is now possible to determine which genes in vertebrate genomes that are mapped to the CLGs arose by WGD from a common ancestor in the original non-duplicated genome. After each tetraploidization, approximately half of new genes are randomly lost to restore a diploid condition [23], meaning that both copies have been retained for relatively few of the duplicated genes. However, a few *CYP* genes that were duplicated diverged to create new *CYP* families and subfamilies. Duplicated genes arising from WGD events are called ohnologues in recognition of Ohno [25–27], who articulated this concept. Large chromosomal segments that contain ohnologues are called paralogons [45]. Vertebrate genomes appear to be composed of four paralogons for each ancestral segment that is preserved from the last common ancestor before 2R.

Deuterostomes and protostomes together form Bilateria, one of the major extant lineages of animals (Bilateria, Cnidaria, Ctenophora, Placozoa and Porifera), although Porifera is possibly paraphyletic [46]. The relative order of animal radiation (phylogenetic topology and rooting) is still a matter of scientific dispute, hindered in part by incomplete sampling, but also complicated by a mixture of short and long branch lengths in the extant lineages [36,47]. There is currently no consensus as to which of the extant basal metazoan lineages (Porifera, Ctenophora or Placozoa) is the earliest diverging metazoan [34,36,48]. The recent results from the *Mnemiopsis leidyi* genome support an early divergence of Porifera and Ctenophora before the remaining groups (Placozoa, Cnidaria and Bilateria, together called Parahoxozoa; [46]). Continuing genome sequencing from the critical species will probably resolve the question in the near future. However, the current understanding is sufficient for the analysis here.

(c) Use of synteny to track the origins of CYP clans

Orthologous regions of vertebrate genomes often retain the same gene order over long segments. A block of a few genes in the same order is called microsynteny, and shared microsynteny in different species assures a common genomic ancestral gene order is responsible [22,49–51]. In WGD events and segmental duplications, the gene order in both of the duplicate regions initially is identical to the parent sequence. After duplication, many paralogue pairs may lose one copy. When both are retained, over time the syntenic relationships may change as genes move when chromosomes undergo various rearrangements. This makes detection of the duplication difficult. However, the signal is much easier to detect when a duplicated genome is compared with an

unduplicated genome, such as that of the lancelet. Up to four paralogous segments from the 2R WGD events map back to one original locus, and the original gene neighbourhood is revealed. Invertebrate genomes such as Trichoplax, sea urchin, sponge and Nematostella are also unduplicated when compared with vertebrate genomes, so comparison of vertebrate genome regions with these unduplicated genomes can help one to reveal the original gene neighbourhoods for genes of interest. (Note, however, that few insect genes follow the 4:1 rule [52,53]). A recent study on microsynteny in metazoans did identify 795 groups of genes conserved across multiple animal taxa, so the occurrence of these groups is perhaps more common than previously thought [51]. Identification of syntenic relationships can be used to infer evolutionary history of the genes. It is this synteny approach that we apply to analysis of the evolutionary paths of the animal CYP genes, with the goal of defining the gene content of the original loci for each CYP clan. As we argue below, these separate loci can be traced to one original CYP locus.

2. Material and methods

The UCSC browser [54-56] was used to BLAT search [57] for CYP genes and their neighbours in animal genomes including most of the deuterostome genomes on the browser. Special emphasis was given to human, chicken (Gallus gallus), anole (Anolis carolinensis), frog (Xenopus tropicalis), medaka (Oryzias latipes), lancelet (B. floridae), tunicate (Ciona intestinalis) and sea urchin (Strongylocentrotus purpuratus). In addition, the JGI genome browsers were used for Trichoplax adhaerens [58] and N. vectensis [59], and the OIST browser for the coral Acropora digitifera [60]. Labelled screenshots of many of the results are provided as electronic supplemental material (figures S1-S37). The genomes used in the analysis of the Bilateria are from deuterostomes; the protostome genomes have very little conserved synteny remaining so they are not useful in this analysis. Data from the ctenophore comb jelly (or sea walnut, Mnemiopsis leidyi) genome were provided by A. Baxevanis and C. Schnitzler.

The analysis by Putnam *et al.* [23] was invaluable for identifying the human paralogons of *CYP* containing genes or their neighbours. Their supplemental figures S19 and S20 and table S14 were crucial for finding paralogous regions derived from the ancestral CLGs. Nucleotide coordinates from the UCSC Genome Browser were obtained for each human *CYP*. The segment ID was looked up in table S14 of Putnam, following which figures S19 or S20 were used to find the CLG that matched that segment ID and the other paralogons that matched that CLG [23].

We considered genes on the same chromosome/scaffold with less than five intervening genes to be syntenous, an observation in line with the findings of Irimia *et al.* [51] that three to 10 intervening genes produced a false discovery rate (less than 0.0002 per gene pair) similar to the less than or equal to four gene distance that they used [51].

Phylogenetic analyses were conducted on datasets consisting of previously published *CYP* gene sets [61–65], those genomes identified above, and additional complete *CYP* gene complements from numerous different genomes obtained from JGI (*Helobdella robusta, Capitella teleta, Lottia gigantea*) and other genome projects (*Amphimedon queenslandica, M. ledyii*). *CYP* sequences were predicted using a combination of hidden Markov model (HMM) searches using HMMer (v. 2.3.2 and v. 3.0b3 [66–68]). Sequences were aligned using MUSCLE (v. 3.8) [69] and masked using custom-written Perl scripts based on the alignment quality scores. Maximum-likelihood phylogenies were constructed using RAxML (v. 7.2.6) [70–73] and presented using FIGTREE (v. 1.3.1). Multiple inferences of the ML tree resulted in the same overall topology, although the short branches (tips) are not stable to multiple ML inferences. This type of dataset is not robust to the bootstrap assumptions; it has characters compatible with, but not informative for a node, large numbers of taxa and potential co-evolving sites [74].

3. Results

(a) Distribution and phylogeny of metazoan CYPs

The numbers of *CYPs* observed in metazoan genomes ranges widely, from 35 (*A. queenslandica*) to 236^4 (*B. floridae*; figure 1). Insect genomes separately display a similar range of *CYP* numbers (approx. 40–170; R. Feyereisen 2012, personal communication). There is no obvious correlation of relative divergence time with the total number of *CYPs*, or of *CYP* families, in a particular genome. Indeed, the size of a gene family undergoing birth–death evolution, as is the case for the *CYP* superfamily ([75,76] see also [10]), does not appear to be related to divergence time. Instead, gene family size and distribution appear to be describable by a power-law function (see [10] and references therein). Further work will be necessary to characterize these distributions.

Phylogenetic analyses of large collections of metazoan *CYPs* support the previous designation of the clan structure (figure 2), and further demonstrate the existence of large 'blooms' of *CYP* families and subfamilies [75]. Certain genomes contain large numbers of *CYPs* in distinct families and subfamilies that are closely related phylogenetically, appearing as 'blooms' of related *CYP* genes (figure 2). These *CYP* genes are often the product of tandem duplication and are thus located in close proximity to one another in the genome. Detailed analyses of these regions for several genomes have been previously published (e.g. *Mus musculus* and *Homo sapiens* [9], *S. purpuratus* [61] and *Danio rerio* [63]).

The clan structure in figure 2 is robust to different alignments and protein sequence sets. However, the relative position of specific smaller clans and individual families is sensitive to alignment and does not display high bootstrap values (not shown). Hence, determining the evolutionary origin of *CYP* clans requires additional information, supplied by the analysis of conserved micro- and macrosynteny.

(b) Ohnologue CYPs

Table 1 lists the *CYP* gene families arising from the two WGD in the vertebrate line (with human as example), and those appearing in fish following the teleost-specific 3R WGD event [30]. These genes were identified from the location of *CYP* genes on the human–cephalochordate paralogons that were defined by Putnam *et al.* [23]. Duplicated genes resulting from these WGD events are in the same clan, and usually within the same family. Therefore, the 2R and 3R events are too recent to account for the origin of animal *CYP* clans. As detailed below, the *CYP* clans predate the origin of CYP and the two the transmitted of the origin of the teleost.

(c) Gene neighbours and CYP clans

CYP genes in the 19 vertebrate CYP families were mapped back to their paralogous regions in lancelet using the



Figure 2. Maximum-likelihood phylogeny of *CYP* protein sequences. Branches represent individual sequences, and are coloured according to species or lineage (e.g. Insecta, Vertebrata). The tree is rooted with *CYP51*, and all *CYP51* genes in various genomes cluster at or near the root. Large highlighted blocks indicate the major clans—Clan 2 (pink), Clan 3 (blue), Clan 4 (green) and Mito Clan (yellow). While the clan ordering is robust to different alignments, the relative position of specific subclans and individual families is sensitive to alignment and does not display high bootstrap values (not shown).

original gene	duplicated gene	event
CYP1A	CYP1D	2R
CYP2D precursor	CYP2K/CYP2W	2R
СҮР7А	CYP8B	2R
CYP11A	СҮР11С	2R
CYP26B	CYP26A/C	2R
CYP27B	CYP27A/C	2R
CYP4F precursor	CYP4T/CYP4ABXZ	2R
CYP17A1	CYP17A2	2R
CYP7A1	CYP7D1	3R
CYP19A1	CYP19A2	3R

Table 1. Whole genome duplicated CYPs.

human-paralogon map of Putnam *et al.* [23]. Often, these paralogons do not contain any *CYP* sequences, but they can be used to identify genes that were in the neighbourhood of an ancestral *CYP*. Over several 100 Myr, a human (or other vertebrate) *CYP* may not have a recognizable orthologue in a phylogenetically distant genome such as *Trichoplax* or *Nematostella*, as the sequences may have diverged too far to be classified even to the same *CYP* family. This is not necessarily true for genes closely linked to a *CYP* gene, as they may include highly conserved sequences serving essential functions. Thus, some genes may have highly conserved and clearly recognizable 1:1 orthologues, from human to *Trichoplax.* If a gene linked to a *CYP* gene in human matches strongly to a single gene in a distant genome, and that gene also is in the vicinity of a *CYP* gene, then one may conclude that those two *CYP* genes shared the same ancestral neighbourhood. This is the argument from macrosynteny. If the two *CYP* genes also happen to be in the same *CYP* clan, one may conclude that those *CYP* genes probably share a common ancestor. The probability increases when more than one homologous gene maps to the same region as a *CYP* gene. The synteny mapping approach did reveal unexpected linkages between many *CYP* clans as described in detail in the following sections.

Figure 3 shows an example of synteny analysis. The gene *ZDHHC12* is found in all 10 species included in that figure. In the cnidarians *N. vectensis* and *A. digitifera,* the *ZDHHC12* gene is adjacent to Clan 74 CYPs. In the placazoan *T. adhaerens ZDHHC12* is one gene from a mito Clan *CYP* and eight genes from four Clan 74 *CYP* genes (see the electronic supplementary material, figure S10). The gene pair *CRAT DOLPP1* is adjacent to *ZDHHC12* in *Acropora* and a similar gene association is found in lancelet, chicken and human. These associations suggest that this syntenic region has been conserved over more than 600 Myr of evolution.

Other genes in the same neighbourhood provide indirect linkages to other genomic segments. Thus, in *Trichoplax* and in lancelet,⁵ *RPL28* is adjacent to *FAM20B*. *FAM20B* is 1.2 Mb from a mito Clan *CYP* in lancelet, and is adjacent to the *HOOK1/CYP2J/CYP2N/CYP2P* locus in the fish medaka (figure 3). The genes *JUN/JUNB* and *HOOK1/2* are tied to this same region in all vertebrates examined to date. These genes are close to another *CYP* Clan 74 member



Figure 3. Synteny mapping with emphasis on *ZDHHC12, CRAT* and *DOLPP1* and their neighbours. These three genes maintain syntenic relationships from *Acropora* to human. *CYP* Clan 74, mito Clan and Clan 2 P450s are linked to these genes and/or their neighbours. Connecting lines are colour-coded by species and they indicate a neighbour relationship, though not all genes are shown.

(*CYP440A2*) and a *CYP2J*-like gene in lancelet. *JUN/JUNB* and *HOOK1/2* are also close to *CYP2J2* in human and *CYP11B2* (a mito Clan gene) in opossum. *Nematostella* has *CRSP8* and *BAT2* in this region. These genes also appear in human and chicken. We conclude that these syntenic genes in different species, from mammals to coral, define an ancestral genomic region. This single figure shows three *CYP* clans (Clans 2, 74 and mito) that we predict were present in this ancestral animal locus.

(d) Extreme age of animal CYP clans

The 11 animal *CYP* clans (Clans 2, 3, 4, 7, 19, 20, 26, 46, 51, 74 and mitochondrial or mito) are shown in figure 4. Not all animals have all 11. Thus, the Ecdysozoa (insects, crustaceans, nematodes) only have Clans 2, 3, 4 and mito. However, other protostomes may have additional clans; thus, four

more clans (7, 20, 26 and 51) appear in molluscs and annelids. Clan 74 was originally described as a land plant CYP clan, but now has been found in cnidarians, Trichoplax and lancelet. This raises the question of Clan 74 origin. CYP74 sequences exist in both land plants and some animals, but not in green algae or fungi⁶. In fact, as discussed below, CYP74 is likely to have originated in marine animals and only later transferred horizontally to land plants. The CYP7 and CYP19 (aromatase) families are chordate-specific, but they are extremely sequence divergent from other CYP clans, which suggests that they are either rapidly evolving or that they may be much older than the chordate line. Gene duplication within chordates would be unlikely to produce new clans, as suggested in the discussion of ohnologues above. CYP39 is considered part of Clan 7, and CYP39-like sequences are known from Trichoplax, sponges and Monosiga brevicollis (a choanoflagellate). (CYP Clan 7 genes are



Figure 4. Distribution of *CYP* clans in animals and fungi. Presence of a clan is indicated by a closed circle. Absence is indicated by an open circle. The asterisk denotes a probable lateral gene transfer from animals to the filamentous fungi. Some clan losses are evident, particularly in insects and Crustacea (Ecdysozoa), which are known to lack *CYP51* and thus require dietary cholesterol. Note also that *CYP* Clan 19 does not appear until cephalochordates.

observed in some filamentous fungi (electronic supplementary material, figure S23), but the limited distribution may indicate a lateral transfer.) Trichoplax, which is thought to have diverged between cnidarians and bilaterians, has eight clans (it is missing Clans 19, 20 and 46). Clan 46 is found in Nematostella and Clan 20 is found in Nematostella and sponges, which are thought to predate Trichoplax. Therefore, 10 of 11 CYP clans were in existence at least by the time of cnidarian origins. The 2R events, which were discussed above, failed to create any new CYP clans, so the clans are older than the 2R duplications. Because two cnidarians are described in the Chengjiang biota including Xianguangia sinica, a primitive sea anemone [38], the CYP clans are presumably older than 525 Ma. Once again, molecular evidence places the origin of Cnidaria much earlier than the Chengjiang biota [41,42].

These facts argue for a relatively rapid origin of the animal *CYP* clans followed by a much slower divergence within the clans.

The following sections present evidence for the linkage of the *CYP* clans to each other in a common neighbourhood near the *Hox* genes before the advent of sponges (Clans 51, 3, 4, 7, 20, 26, mito) or cnidarians (Clans 2, 46, 74). *CYP19* does not appear until chordates, but linkage evidence suggests that it was part of the original locus. These sections detail the paths connecting the *CYP* clans (via families and subfamilies).

(e) The CYP4V and CYP2C connection

Attempts to trace the origins of *CYP* genes backward in time by mapping the locations of neighbouring genes turned up some unexpected connections between the *CYP4s* (Clan 4) and *CYP2s* (Clan 2). The *CYP4V2* orthologue in medaka (*O. latipes*) lies next to *TLR3*, *SORBS2* and *PDLIM3*. In human, a similar syntenic region contains *CYP4V2*, *FAM149A*, *TLR3*, *SORBS2* and *PDLIM3* (figure 5, lines H, I). There are three *SORBS* genes in human and each is adjacent to a *PDLIM* gene. *SORBS1* and *SORBS3* are on paralogons as defined in Putnam *et al.* [23]. SORBS2 is not mapped to a CLG in that paper but it is presumably on a third human paralogon. The human CYP2C gene cluster is next to ACSM6, PDLIM1 and SORBS1 (figure 5, line J). A similar gene arrangement is seen in chicken and lizard (figure 5, lines K, L), though in the lizard the contig ends at HELLS, just before where a CYP2C gene would be expected. Nematostella has a SORBS1- and PDLIM7-like gene pair on scaffold_597 illustrating an ancient association between SORBS and PDLIM genes, but the scaffold is too small to see whether there might be an adjacent CYP gene. Zebrafish have PDLIM1, PDLIM3A and PDLIM3B. PDLIM3A is next to TLR3 and CYP4V2, similar to the medaka. Zebrafish PDLIM1 is 11 genes from ATOH7 and 20 genes (400 kb) from CHUK. Line L in figure 5 shows that in the lizard CHUK is two genes from the SORBS1 PDLIM1 pair, and line M shows that CHUK is 380 kb from the HoxB gene cluster in medaka, and 3.5 Mb from CYP26A1. The close proximity of these CYP genes to PDLIMx and SORBSx indicates the ancestors of CYP4V and CYP2C were close neighbours. The possibility that CYP2C is an ohnologue of CYP4V can be ruled out because the CYP Clans 2 and 4 are older than the duplication of the SORBS1 PDLIM1 gene pair, which probably occurred during the 2R WGD events. This implies that CYP4V and a CYP2C precursor were neighbours before the SORBS1 PDLIM1 gene pair duplicated. Following duplication, one of the CYP genes was lost from each of the descendant regions, separating CYP2C from CYP4V. We will discuss the linkage of these genes with CYP26A1 later.

(f) CYP2D and CYP2K/CYP2W are ohnologues whose ancestor was near the CYP Clan 3 ancestor in early animals

The gene neighbourhoods around CYP2D6 and CYP2W1 in human and some CYP2K genes in fish are descended from a common ancestral region duplicated in a 2R WGD event. Figure 6 shows a map of some of the genes in this region, with ohnologues in the two human regions *a* and *c* connected

A chicken	(CYP2W1 region) SDK1 (CYP3As) FOXK1	[non-Hox chr14 4.0 Mb]
B human	(CYP2W1 region) TWIST1 HDAC9	[HoxA chr7 27.4 Mb] HIBADH JAZF1
C medaka	PDK2	[HoxA chr11 10.5 Mb] HIBADH JAZF1
D chicken	YP51A1 PDK4 HDAC9 TWIST1 HNRNPA2B1	[HoxA chr2 32.5 Mb] HIBADH JAZF1
E medaka	TWIST1 HDAC9 HIBADH	[HoxA chr16 13.1 Mb] PDE11A1 ARNT CYP11B KCNJ4 CYTH2 BAIAP2 CNOT3 UBE2S
F lancelet	GARS LSSCYP51 PNPO	[non-Hox chrUn 524.9 Mb] ATOH7 METTL6 TWIST1
G human	WNT3 PNPO	[HoxB chr17 44.0 Mb] PDK2
H human		[non-Hox chr4 187 Mb] CYP4V2]TLR3 SORBS2 PDLIM3
I medaka		[non-Hox chr1 24.63 Mb] CYP4V2 TLR3 SORBS2 PDLIM3
J human		[non-Hox chr10 97.0 Mb] SORBS1 PDLIM1 (CYP2C cluster) HELLS
K chicken		[non-Hox chr6 17.5 Mb] SORBS1 PDLIM1 HELLS ZP4CYP2C45
L lizard	[nor	n-Hox scaf_439 750 kb] CHUK COG3 SORBS1 PDLIM1 HELLS (contig ends)
M medaka	WNT3 PDK1 PNPO	[HoxB chr19 17.5 Mb] CHUK CASKIN1 METTL9 KDELR2 FOXK1 HEATR1 KCNJ4 ARF1 LFNG EXOC6 CYP26A1
N lancelet		[non-Hox chrUn 76.475 Mb]TGFB1 SSTR2 TGFB3 TTLL5 LYPLAL1 EML1 LRRC9CYP19EXOC6
O human		[non-Hox chr14 99.3 Mb] AK7 VRK1 SETD3 HHIPL1 CYP46A1 EML1
P zebrafish		[non-Hox chr17 18.0 Mb] SETD3 VRK1 DICER1 KIF11 CYP26C1 (12 Mb) EML1
Q medaka	TOM1 JUNB HOOK2 RAD23A CASKIN1	[HoxB chr8 24.3 Mb]
R medaka	WNT1 ARF1	[HoxC chr7 12.8 Mb] HNRNPA3 SPATA2 SLC9A8 B4GALT5
S human		[non-Hox chr20 47.5 Mb] SLC9A8 B4GALT5CYP8A1/PTGISKCNB1
T human		[HoxC chr12 52.7 Mb] HNRNPA1 PDE1B PIP4K2C MARCH9CYP27B1
U medaka	PDK1	[HoxD chr21 24.6 Mb] HNRNPA3 PDE11A PRKRA DOCK9 COG3
V human		[HoxD chr2 176.8 Mb] HNRNPA3 PDE11A PRKRA
W chicken		[HoxD chr7 17.4 Mb] HNRNPA3 PDE11A PDE1BCYP20A1
X chicken		[HoxD chr7 25.3 Mb] EAF2 IQCB1 MKI67IP CLASP1 UBP1 BIN1CYP27C1 MARCH9
Y lancelet	KCNB1 ERCC6 KCNJ4 SOX10 UBE2S LFNG SLC26A11 HIBADH TTLL12 WHRN	[Hox chrUn 711 Mb] FAIM SAP18 MKI67IP MDH1BCYP442A2 (CYP74 clan)UBP1/TFCP2
Z lancelet	CASKIN1 TOM1 FOXRED2 GNA12 ADSL	[Non-Hox chrlin 28.2 Mb]

Figure 5. All 11 *CYP* clans can be linked directly or indirectly to *Hox* gene clusters. P450 genes are boxed. Hox genes are aligned down the centre with chr and Mb locations given. Non-Hox regions are labelled as non-Hox. Orthologues and ohnologues are aligned as much as possible to highlight sytenic relationships as seen with *EXOC6* in lines M and N. Not all genes in the region are shown because of space limitations.

by lines. Figure 7 shows the paralogons for this region, with connections between ohnologues (electronic supplementary material, figures S1 and S2 show the expanded gene neighbourhoods depicted in abbreviated form in figures 6*a*,*c* and 7; electronic supplementary material, figures S3 and S4 show these regions in mouse and rat, respectively). These genes will be central to defining the original *CYP2* gene neighbourhood in very early animals. Many of these genes appear also in figure 5. The chicken *CYP2W1* region is abbreviated in figure 5 as line A and the human *CYP2W1* region is part of line B.

The *CYP2W1* region is closely associated with the original *CYP3A* gene location. The evolution of *CYP3* genes in 16 vertebrates has been studied by Qiu *et al.* [77]. Note that in chicken the *CYP3A* genes lie between *SDK1* and *FOXK1*. This is the condition seen in opossum, platypus, chicken and lizard. This location is called *CYP3HR1* in Qiu *et al.* [77]. The original *CYP3A* gene moved in human to a new location called *CYP3HR2*, but it left behind traces as two small pseudogenes between *SDK1* and *FOXK1*. *SDK1* is still next to intact *CYP3* genes in horse, but not in human, rhesus, cow, mouse, rat, guinea pig or dog, although like human, the dog has *CYP3* pseudogenes in this location.

Acropora digitifera (reef-building coral) has a *CYP* Clan 3 gene next to *NPTXR*, a gene in human only two genes from UNC84B. UNC84B is also in a CYP3 paralogon (figure 6*c* and 7, chr 22). This result argues for some preservation of synteny in this region going back to the time of the common ancestor of bilaterians and cnidarians.

The zebrafish *CYP3C1* gene is next to *WIP12 FOXK1* and this gene is syntenic with the land animal *CYP3A* gene cluster

at *CYP3HR1* (see the electronic supplementary material, figure S5). The zebrafish *CYP3A65* gene has moved to a new location, so even though *CYP3C1* is syntenic with tetrapod *CYP3As*, it has diverged in sequence enough so that it has lost identity as a *CYP3A*. Lancelet retains *CYP3A*- and *CYP2D*-like genes as neighbours with only one gene separating them (see the electronic supplementary material, figure S6). This intervening gene is plant-like, resembling 4-coumarate coenzyme A ligase (4*CL*) and it is not found in vertebrates. However, *COG3* is six genes from the Clan 3 gene in lancelet. *COG3* is found between *CHUK* and *SORBS1 PDLIM1* in the lizard (figure 5, line L).

The sea anemone has 19 Clan 3 members. One, in particular,⁷ is useful for this analysis because it is adjacent to a small cluster of at least three Clan 2 genes.⁸ Trichoplax has 39 Clan 3 members. One 450 kb region has 22 Clan 3 CYPs in several blocks and four adjacent 4CL genes (scaffold_5:880272-1300000), showing that an association between CYP Clan 3 and 4CL has been preserved from Trichoplax to lancelet. The four 4CL genes are bracketed by three CYPs before and nine CYPs after. The last CYP in this large cluster is a Clan 4 member, 15 genes away from the CYP Clan 3 genes. There is a 4CL gene in Nematostella⁹, but it is on the edge of the scaffold and adjacent genes downstream are not in view. The data presented here unite members of the Clans 2, 3 and 4 into a single locus in very early animals. Even today, in animals such as chicken, lancelet and Nematostella, Clan 2 and Clan 3 members are still close neighbours. Direct linkages between CYP genes from different clans near one another on the same chromosome are summarized in figure 8.



(a)

(g) Other CYP Clan 4 members

The oldest CYP4 genes in chordates seem to be in the subfamilies CYP4V and CYP4F. A detailed evolutionary study of Clan 4 genes from 28 species has been conducted, noting a major bifurcation of CYP4 subfamilies into CYP4V and related sequences (figure 1, node F, [35]), and all other vertebrate CYP4 subfamilies CYP4A, B, F, T, X and Z [35]. Synteny involving the CYP4V subfamily was discussed above. Here, we give attention to CYP4A, B, F, T, X and Z. The study of Kirischian and Wilson [35] splits this set into CYP4F (node D) and CYP4A, B, T, X and Z (node G). The CYP4F cluster on human chr 19 is on a paralogon with the CYP4ABXZ cluster. Therefore, the CYP4ABXZ and CYP4F gene clusters are possible descendents of ohnologues that were created in the 2R WGDs from a CYP4 gene in the chordate ancestor. This would explain the bifurcation into node G (CYP4A, B, T, X, Z) and node D (CYP4F) in fig. 1 of Kirischian and Wilson [35]. The Kirischian and Wilson study described difficulty in determining the relationships between the CYP4T and CYP4B subfamilies and suggested additional studies would be needed. Examination of the macrosynteny surrounding the CYP4T genes of fish and X. tropicalis supports a syntenic relationship with the mammalian CYP4ABXZ locus, although this is hard to demonstrate conclusively because of much expansion and chromosomal rearrangement in tetrapods. The genes near the fish CYP4T genes are very spread out in human. A comparison of the fugu CYP4T5 genomic region (300 kb) with the human genome shows that every gene in the fugu region matches to a human gene on chr 1, though the human segment is 21.4 Mb (see the electronic supplementary material, figure S36). The size difference of these regions is partly because of the genome size difference, as the fugu genome is 365 Mb, whereas the human genome is 10 times larger, at about 3 Gb [78]. The genes in lancelet surrounding a CYP4T homologue (KIF2A CYP4T PTCH1 MKNK1) also match the human region but in a much narrower 2.4 Mb window. This is consistent with CYP4T being in node G in fig. 1 of Kirischian and Wilson [35] and being an ohnologue derived from a CYP4F ancestor.

The only *CYP4F*-like gene in *Nematostella* is adjacent to *CHD7*. In lancelet, the *CHD7* gene is 375 kb (four genes) from a small *CYP2* gene cluster, whereas in chicken, lizard and human *CHD7* is near *CYP7A1* (as shown for human in the electronic supplementary material, figure S22). The lancelet genome has Clan 2 genes that are less than 100 kb (i.e. two genes *SOX5*, *BCAT1*) away from Clan 4 genes (see the electronic supplementary material, figure S7). These neighbour relationships with *CHD7* link Clan 4 with Clan 2 and Clan 7 ancestors in early animals.

The ctenophore *M. leidyi* (comb jelly or sea walnut) has two Clan 4 genes adjacent to one another on AGCP01004322.1. *Mnemiopsis* is a very early branching animal, probably diverging before cnidarians, so it may provide valuable clues to the early neighbours of Clan 4. A *Mnemiopsis* gene most like *CRIP2* is only 3.5 kb upstream of the *CYP* Clan 4 genes. In medaka, *CRIP2* is seven genes from *DICER1* and 11–12 genes from *AK7* and *VRK1*. These genes have tight linkages to members of *CYP* Clans 26 and 46 (figure 9). These observations link Clan 4

9



Figure 7. Human paralogons covering the CYP2D6 and CYP2W1 regions, including two CYP3 pseudogenes (arrows mark P450s). Probable ohnologues are connected by lines. The regions shown are boxed in red in the ideograms.



Figure 8. Direct linkage between different *CYP* clans including *Hox* clusters (A-D). Each bar indicates a neighbour relationship between the clan members listed on the top of the figure, in the species listed on the left.



Figure 9. Synteny mapping of CYP16 family members showing linkages to CYP26 family members, the CYP Clan 46 and the CYP Clan 2 via IDE and DICER1 and to the CYP7 and mito Clans via HEXB. P450 genes are in shaded boxes. CYP16B1 has a direct linkage to CYP20 in lancelet.

to Clans 2, 7, 26 and 46. Section 3*h* links *CYP* Clan 4 to *CYP* Clan 74.

(h) FAM20, PDRX and CYP Clan 74

The synteny relationships depicted in figures 3, 5 and 6, and electronic supplementary material, figures S8-S15 support a neighbourhood in the past that included members of Clans 2, 3, 4, 7, mito, 51 and Clan 74. In figure 6, the CYP2W1 region begins with FAM20 C in human and chickens and it includes CYP3 genes/pseudogenes. FAM20 paralogues are significant markers for synteny analysis. A FAM20B-like gene is next to two Clan 74 members in Nematostella (CYP443C1 and CYP443D1; figure 3 and electronic supplementary material, figure S8). Note that whirlin (WHRN) is four genes from those Clan 74 members (figure 3) and in lancelet WHRN/ DFNB31 appears 1 Mb (approx. nine genes) from a Hox cluster that is 300 kb (four genes) from CYP442A2, another Clan 74 member (figure 5, line Y). FAM20B in medaka is next to JUN and PRDX6 on the left and 220 kb from HOOK1 and five CYP2 family genes on the right (figure 3 and electronic supplementary material, figure S9). Trichoplax has four Clan 74 genes in tandem (CYP441A1, CYP441B1P, CYP441C1 and CYP441D1) and they are four genes away from a PRDX6-like gene and seven genes away from a mitochondrial clan CYP (figure 3 and electronic supplementary material, figure S10). The gene CRSP8/MED27 in Nematostella also is adjacent to FAM20B. CRSP8/MED27 and WHRN are only five genes apart on medaka chr 9, so these genes have been associated since cnidarians. In human, JUN is adjacent to FGGY HOOK1 and CYP2J2. In the lancelet, JUN is next to the Clan 74 gene CYP440A2 on the left and a CYP2J-like gene on the right (figure 3 and electronic supplementary material, figure S11). The gene ATOH7 is also seen in this region and in figure 5, line F near CYP51. A FAM20C-like

gene in lancelet is about 14 genes from a *PRDX1*-like gene and 9–10 genes from *AK3* and *RAD23A* (see the electronic supplementary material, figure S12). *RAD23A* is nine genes from *HOOK2 JUNB PRDX2* in human (see the electronic supplementary material, figure S13), which is on a paralogon of the *HOOK1 CYP2J2* region. Thus, the *FAM20* and *PDRX* paralogues link many *CYP* clans through indirect linkages.

These observations also support a close association between Clan 74 *CYPs* and *CYP2W/K/D* and *CYP2J*-like genes (Clan 2) in early animals. A Clan 4 gene and the Clan 74 member *CYP440A6* are adjacent in lancelet (see the electronic supplementary material, figure S14). *CYP2, CYP4* and *CYP440A8* (Clan 74) are found in a 500 kb window in lancelet (electronic supplementary material, figure S15). A single Clan 2 founder gene is inferred, which duplicated and diverged to give rise to the multiple *CYP2* loci in vertebrates and other animals. The mitochondrial clan *CYPs* seen in *Trichoplax* and in lancelet (figure 3) draw the mito Clan into this unique ancestral region, which we name the 'cytochrome P450 genesis locus'.

(i) Mitochondrial clan CYPs

The mitochondrial *CYP* clan in vertebrates includes the *CYP11*, *CYP24* and *CYP27* families. Additional mito *CYP* families are found in invertebrates, including *CYP12* and *CYP49* in insects. The mito Clan appears as a monophyletic group descended from one common ancestor in the animals, as no other eukaryotic organisms have mitochondrial *CYPs*. Mito Clan genes are nuclear-encoded, and contain mitochondrial-targeting sequences and not hydrophobic N-terminal anchor domains. The original founder mitochondrial *CYP* probably acquired a mitochondrial-targeting sequence early in the history of animals. Of note, however, is that in some species, a few *CYPs* of more recent origin have bimodal

endoplasmic reticulum and mitochondrial targeting, including CYP1A [79,80] and CYP2E1 [79,81].

Vertebrate CYP11A and CYP11B/11C are ohonologues that duplicated during 2R (table 1). These genes are on parlogons defined by the CLK2 and CLK3 genes. CLK2 is adjacent to the CYP11C1 gene in fish (fugu, zebrafish, medaka, stickleback and coelacanth; see electronic supplementary material, table S2), whereas CLK3 is between CYP11A1 and the CYP1A1-CYP1A2 pair in tetrapods. CYP11B1 evolved from CYP11C1 of fish as shown by the indirect linkage to BAI1: stickleback has two CLK2 genes, CLK2b adjacent to CYP11C1 and CLK2a adjacent to BAI1, while BAI1 is eight genes from CYP11B1 in humans (see electronic supplementary material, table S2). Additional evidence for tetrapod CYP11B being orthologous to fish CYP11C1 comes from the genes DGAT1 and SCAMP3. DGAT1 is adjacent to CYP11B1 in turtle and frog, and two genes from SCAMP3 in fugu, linking SCAMP3 to CYP11B. In tetrapods, SCAMP3 is next to CLK2, and, as shown earlier, CLK2 is adjacent to CYP11C1 in fish.

The *CYP11*-related gene seen in modern lancelet (39% identical to catfish *CYP11A1*) is approximately eight genes from *TNPO2*. The opossum has a gene block *TNPO2 ASNA1 HOOK2 JUNB PRDX2 RANSEH2A ATP6VOD1 CYP11B1* that exhibits shared synteny with a similar gene set in lancelet. Therefore, the lancelet ancestor had a *CYP11*-like gene that is orthologous to vertebrate ohnologues *CYP11A* and *CYP11C/CYP11B*. The new synteny evidence thus counters the argument of Markov & Laudet [82] that *CYP11* is strictly vertebrate, though the enzymatic activity of this lancelet P450 is not yet known and it may not have side-chain cleavage activity.

The evolution of *CYP11* is of critical importance because it is an essential enzyme in the steroidogenesis pathway. Baker [83] discussed the evolution of steroids and their nuclear receptors. *CYP11* sequences are rare prior to the emergence of teleost fish, although a fragment of *CYP11A* is known from little skate (WGS AESE012655227.1 *Leucoraja erinacea*). Searches for *CYP11* in lamprey or hagfish have so far failed to find a candidate. Therefore, the lancelet *CYP11* sequence is a key sequence and its function needs to be determined.

Linking various other CYPs to each of these CYP11 paralogues ultimately links lancelet *CYP* Clans 11, 2, 4, 7 and 74 together. Thus, *CYP11A1* is only seven genes from *CYP1A1* and *CYP1A2* (in Clan 2) on human chr 15 and on chicken chr 10. In medaka, *CYP11A1* is only three genes from *HEXB* (see the electronic supplementary material, figure S16); *HEXB* is adjacent to two *CYP7* genes in the lancelet, linking *CYP7* to *CYP11*. In opossum, a *CYP11B* orthologue is three genes from the *PDRX2 JUNB HOOK2* locus (figure 3 and electronic supplementary material, figure S17) that is a paralogon of the *JUN HOOK1 CYP2J* locus (based on data in Putnam *et al.* [23]).

A *CYP11*-like gene in the lancelet is four genes away from a Clan 4 member (electronic supplementary material, figure S18). *CYP4T1* in zebrafish is adjacent to *ARNT* on chr 16. In medaka, *ARNT* is three genes from *CYP11B* (figure 5, line E, chr 16). The *Nematostella* mito Clan member XM_001640379 is two genes from a *SLIT1*-like gene. *SLIT1* is adjacent to the Clan 74 member *CYP440A1v1* in lancelet (see the electronic supplementary material, figure S19). These close neighbours link *CYP11* to the *CYP* genesis locus as well as to genes in the lancelet Clans 4, 7 and 74. *CYP27* shows an indirect linkage to CYP20 via the gene PDE1B. CYP20 is six genes from PDE1B in chicken and PDE1B is 3.2 Mb from CYP27B1 in human (figure 5, lines T and W). The CYP51 section below also links CYP27 to CYP51.

(j) *CYP51*

CYP51 (lanosterol 14 α -demethylase; Clan 51) is adjacent to lanosterol synthase (LSS) in the lancet genome. These enzymes function sequentially in the steroid biosynthetic pathway and thus CYP51 and LSS constitute a functional gene pair. This arrangement is also evident in Trichoplax, which has two CYP51 genes flanking LSS (scaffold 3: 300-323 kb), and also in sponge (contig 13514, 61-65 kb). By using this apparently ancestral link of CYP51 to LSS, we can link other CYP genes through adjacent orthologues and paralogues. Even though CYP51 and LSS are not linked in vertebrates, the association of a CYP gene with LSS ties that gene back to the P450 genesis locus that contained both CYP51 and LSS. For example, CYP27A is 85 kb (seven intervening genes) from LSS in medaka (see the electronic supplementary material, figure S20). CYP27A is the only CYP in a 10 Mb window centred on LSS. This region also contains a *Hox* cluster (see $\S3k$).

Additional genes linked to LSS or CYP51 provide evidence for their membership in the P450 genesis locus. In sea urchin, LSS is four genes from ZDHHC12, a gene that is adjacent to two Clan 74 genes in Nematostella (figure 3 and electronic supplementary material, figure S8) and Trichoplax (figure 3 and electronic supplementary material, figure S10). A ZDHHC12-like gene is adjacent to RPL28, FAM20B in lancelet (see figure 4 and §3h). METTL6 is two genes from CYP51 in the lancelet. In Ciona, METTL6 is two genes from B4GALT4, and B4GALT5 is adjacent to PTGIS/CYP8A1 in human, opossum, lizard and platypus. The gene ATOH7 is found in lancelet two genes from CYP51. In medaka, the genes EIF3L, ATOH7, PKD2, PDLIM1 and PRDX3 are found in an approximately 30 gene 763 kb window. EIF3L is seen in figure 6c in the CYP2D6 region. Lines F and G in figure 5 have ATOH7 and PKD2 near CYP51 and the HoxB cluster. PDLIM1/3 is seen in lines H to L, figure 5, near CYP4V and CYP2C genes. PRDX genes were discussed earlier in relation to Clans 74 and 2. The chicken has a direct linkage of CYP51 with the HoxA cluster (figure 5, line D, chr 2). The presence of HDAC9 and TWIST1 in chicken also links the CYP51 gene to the HoxA cluster in medaka (figure 5, line E), which has a direct linkage to CYP11B. TWIST1 is one gene away from ATOH7 and three genes from CYP51 in the lancelet (figure 5, line F). These facts support a close neighbourhood of CYP51 with Clans 2, 3, 4, 7, mito and 74 in an early animal ancestor. The presence of PDE11A1 (figure 5, lines E and W) further links CYP20 to this neighbourhood.

(k) Clan 7 (*CYP7*, *CYP8*, *CYP39*) and *Hox* genes near the ancient *CYP* locus

CYP7 occurs twice in lancelet between a *HEXB* pair and *VPS24 GOT1* (electronic supplementary material, figure S21). The two *CYP7* genes are on opposite strands and both are incompletely known because of gaps in the genome sequence to date. As mentioned earlier, *CYP11A1* in medaka is only three genes from a *HEXB* gene (see the

electronic supplementary material, figure S16). The gene sequence *SLIT1 PRDX3* ... *GOT1 VPS24* is found at another location in the lancelet. Note that *SLIT1* and *PDRX1* were associated with a *CYP* Clan 74 member (electronic supplementary material, figure S19), and many *PDRX* genes are linked to *CYP* Clan 2 genes.

Three *CYP7* sequences are present in *C. intestinalis. CYP7c* is adjacent to *PIP4K2C*, as is *CYP7B1* in zebrafish. In human, *PIP4K2C* is nine genes from *CYP27B1* (figure 5, line T, chr 12). The *PIP5K2C* gene is only three genes from *CYP27B1* in medaka. In opossum, a *PIP4K2C* homologue is next to *ARMC3. ARMC1* is next to *CYP7B1* in human, chicken, frog and fugu. Thus, *CYP7* is linked to *CYP27*.

Further linkages bring in the Hox genes. In chicken, PIP4K2C is approximately 300 kb from a Hox gene cluster on chr 27. A Clan 74 gene in lancelet (CYP442A2) is only four genes (300 kb) from the single Hox gene cluster (figure 5, line Y). PNPO is seven genes from the HoxB gene cluster in human and the WNT3, WNT9B pair is another 18 genes from PNPO (figure 5, line G, chr 17). WNT3, PDK1 and PNPO are near the HoxB cluster in medaka with five genes between PNPO and HoxB5 (figure 5, line M). PNPO is adjacent to CYP51 in the lancelet (figure 5, line F). WNT1 and ARF1 are near the HoxC cluster in medaka (figure 4, line R). (An association between WNT genes and Hox clusters was noted previously by Putnam et al. [23].) Medaka has a HoxA gene cluster on chr 16, 260 kb (11 genes) from TWIST1 (figure 5, line E). LSS, CYP51, PNPO, ATOH7, METTL6 and TWIST1 are all adjacent in the lancelet (figure 5, line F). Another Hox cluster in medaka (chr 19 17.5 Mb) is flanked by WNT3, PKD2, PNPO on the one side and the genes CHUK, CASKIN1, METTL9, KDELR2 and FOXK1 on the other side (figure 5, line M). This last set of genes is found in the paralogons with the CYP2W1/CYP2D6 and CYP3A in some vertebrates (figure 6c). In human and chicken, CHD7 is six and seven genes from CYP7A1 (see the electronic supplementary material, figure S22). CHD7 is adjacent to Nematostella XM_001639310, a Clan 4 CYP sequence. In lancelet, CHD7 is 375 kb from a CYP2 gene cluster. Additional evidence for Clan 2 linkage to Clan 7 includes VPS24 being adjacent to CYP7 in lancelet. In chicken, VPS24 is adjacent to KDM3A/JMJD1A and about seven genes from EIF2AK3. EIF2AK3 is adjacent to the Clan 7 member CYP7.b in Ciona (electronic supplementary material, figure S24). EIF2AK1 is in the CYP2W1 paralogon (figure 6a), providing an indirect linkage of Clans 2 and 7. These observations link Clan 7 to CYP2W/CYP2D, CYP3, CYP4, CYP27, CYP51, CYP74 and the *Hox* gene clusters.

The region surrounding human *CYP7B1* on chr 8 is on a paralogon with the *PDE7B*, *MYB and EYA4* genes on chr 6 from 133.5 to 136.5 Mb. The human paralogon has the ohnologues *EYA1* and *PDE7A* found near *CYP7B1* (see the electronic supplementary material, figure S22). In *Trichoplax*. *MYB* is next to the *trox-2* (*Gsx*) gene, the only *Hox/ParaHox*-type gene in *Trichoplax* and proposed as a possible ancestral *ProtoHox* gene [84]. The linkage provides another tie between Clan 7 and the *Hox* genes.

The reconstructed CLG include all the *Hox* gene clusters in CLG16 [23]. *CYP* genes near these clusters would have been duplicated with the clusters during the 2R WGD events. Human *CYP27B1* is 4 Mb from the *HoxC* cluster and *CYP27A1* and *CYP27C1* are on the q arm of chr 2 with the *HoxD* cluster, although the *CYP27A* and *C* genes and *HoxD* are spread out over 92 Mb. Human *CYP51A1* is on chr 7 with the *HoxA* cluster, but they are on opposite sides of the centromere. No human *CYPs* remain near *HoxB*, though a *FOXK1* homologue is 1.1 Mb from the *HoxB* cluster on chr 19 in medaka and *CYP26A1* is 4 Mb from that same *HoxB* cluster (figure 5, line M). *CYP3* genes are adjacent to *FOXK1* in chicken. These facts are consistent with *CYP27B* being an ohnologue with the *CYP27A/C* pair ancestor. The lancelet *Hox* gene cluster has these genes near it: *KCNB1 KCNJ4 SOX10 UBE25 LFNG SLC26A11 HIBADH TTLL12 WHRN*, with other genes intermingled (figure 5, line Y). Most of these genes are found in figure 5, in the *CYP2W/ CYP2D* paralogons. *KCNB1* is next to *CYP8A1* in human and HIBADH is seen near the *HoxA* clusters in human medaka and chicken (figure 5, lines B–E).

The CYP8 family genes appear to have originated between lancelet and jawless fishes. No CYP8 genes were found in the lancelet genome, but at least three intron-containing CYP8B-like genes are present in lamprey (Petromyzon marinus). Interestingly, there are no CYP8A-like genes in lamprey, yet bony fish genomes have clearly recognizable CYP8A genes, with introns in the same locations as the introns in the CYP8Blike genes in lamprey.¹⁰ CYP8B genes in fish have no introns, suggesting retrotransposition of ancestral CYP8A mRNA into early fish genomes. The CYP8B genes of fish are more like the CYP8 genes in lamprey than they are like the CYP8A genes in fish. These data suggest that the original CYP8 gene was CYP8B-like. The retrotransposed gene with no introns retains this character, whereas the intron-containing gene diverged to form the CYP8A ancestor. Thus, CYP8A was derived from a CYP8B-like precursor. The CYP8A gene is near five genes that have clear paralogues near the CYP7A and CYP7B genes in human (see the electronic supplementary material, figure S22). These paralogues are not found near the *CYP8B* gene, consistent with a retrotransposition event.

Lampreys make petromyzonol and the pheromone petromyzonol 24-sulphate that guides lamprey migration back to their spawning grounds [85]. Petromyzonol 24-sulphate (7alpha, 12alpha, 24-trihydroxy-5alpha-cholan-3-one 24sulphate) is hydroxylated on the 7, 12 and 24 positions. CYP8B1 hydroxylates the CYP12 position in bile acid synthesis. Therefore, the earliest lamprey CYP8 probably made this pheromone. CYP8A is prostagandin I2 synthase (PTGIS). PGI2 or prostacyclin appears to be a novel biochemical made only after lampreys split from Euteleostomes (bony vertebrates). It is probable that CYP8 arose from CYP7A by WGD duplication and divergence. Dehal & Boore [29] suggested that regions containing CYP7A and CYP8A were on paralogons or chromosome pieces quadruplicated in the 2R WGD process leading to vertebrates (see the electronic supplementary material, figure S22). This would be a logical way of explaining the origin of CYP8 genes between lancelet and lampreys.

CYP39 is found in the sponge *A. queenslandica*, indicating that the *CYP39* family is very old. *Monosiga brevicollis* (a single-celled choanoflagellate) also has a *CYP39*-like gene. If it is correct that *CYP39* belongs in Clan 7, then Clan 7 also is very old and probably was present in the *CYP* genesis locus very early in the history of animals. *CYP39A1* is 3 Mb (18 genes) from *CYP2AC1P* in human. *CYP39A1* is only seven genes from the *CYP2AC* gene cluster in lizard (flanked by *MUT* and *RHAG*). *MUT* is only eight genes from *CYP46A1* in medaka.

CYP7 is found only in chordates and it may have diverged from a *CYP39* precursor. There are, however, *CYP7*-like genes in fungi (see the electronic supplementary material, figure S23), which raises a question of the origin of the fungal *CYP7*-like genes. Is this a case of convergent evolution or lateral transfer, or is Clan 7 older than Opisthokonta (fungi + animals)? The evidence for *CYP7* being linked to the *CYP* genesis locus argues for Clan 7 originating with animals and not before. We suggest, therefore, that the fungal Clan 7 genes are probably derived from a lateral transfer from animals to fungi, and specifically to some filamentous fungi.

If *CYP7* diverged from *CYP39* by segmental duplication only in the chordate lineage, then the gene neighbours of *CYP7* should be more like the gene neighbours of *CYP39*. As mentioned earlier, *CYP7* genes are adjacent to *HEXB* and *PIP4K2C*, which associate themselves with *CYP11* and *CYP27* sequences (both mito Clan members). There is no evidence linking the *CYP7* and *CYP39* neighbourhoods. This would argue against *CYP7* deriving from *CYP39* during chordate evolution. An older origin for *CYP7* would require many gene losses to produce the current picture.

The *CYP39A* region in lancelet includes the genes *OSCP1/ c1orf102*, *CYP39A*, *NUDC*. In human, the *OSCP1* gene maps to a region on chr 1 that is a paralogon of the *CYP7A1*, *CYP7B1*, *CYP11B1*, *CYP11B2* region of human chr 8. The paralogon relationship shows that *CYP7*, *CYP11* and *CYP39* genes were present in a single region in the common ancestor before the 2R WGD event. However, the *CYP39* gene is in a different location in human. It should be borne in mind that lancelet has three *CYP7* genes. The ancestor certainly had both *CYP7* and *CYP39* genes, indicating that *CYP7* is not the product of the 2R WGD.

The OSCP1 homologue on medaka chr 16 is about 700 kb from a CYP4T12/CYP4T13P gene/pseudogene pair. The only OSCP1 homologue detected in Nematostella is three genes from a CYP3-like gene pair, which would be in Clan 3. This links CYP39 to CYP Clan 3 and CYP Clan 4 in the animal ancestor. Both CYP39 and CYP7 seem to be very old. Both map back to a similar CYP-rich neighbourhood. CYP7 does not appear to be significantly newer than CYP39. This suggests that there was a loss of CYP7 in sponges, cnidarians, protostomes and ambulacrarians (hemichordates + echinoderms). This may change as more genome data become available. The possibility exists that CYP7 and CYP39 are in separate clans, and if so, this would make 12 animal CYP clans.

(I) The *CYP* Clan 26 and the use of retinoids in development

The *CYP26* enzymes hydroxylate retinoic acid and thereby inactivate retinoid signalling, creating sharp retinoid boundaries crucial in the developing hindbrain [86], spinal cord [87] and retina [88]. The *CYP* Clan 26, which includes *CYP16s*, is quite old in animals. *CYP16s* are found in *Trichoplax* and cnidarian genomes and even among sponge ESTs (EC374157, *Oscarella carmela*). The *CYP16* gene has been lost in mammals and is absent from the zebrafish genome, but found in other fish and many invertebrates (D. Nelson 2010, unpublished data).

Figure 9 shows synteny around the *CYP26* and *CYP16* genes. The *Trichoplax CYP16* gene is six genes from *HEXB* and is the only Clan 26 member in *Trichoplax*. As noted earlier, *HEXB* is adjacent to *CYP7* genes in the lancelet and

only three genes away from CYP11A1 in medaka (figure 9). Gene order around CYP16 in Trichoplax includes the SLC26A11 orthologue, in the order SLC26A11 CYP16 DCLRE1A ADD2 HEXB. In human, ADD2 is 1.5 Mb from CYP26B1. In lancelet, CYP16B is two genes from DCLRE1A. In lancelet, CYP16B also is 585 kb (10 genes) away from CYP20. The lancelet TIMP1/2 orthologue lies between CYP20 and DCLRE1A, and it is found in the paralogons in figure 7 between CYTH1 and CARD14 on chr 17. TIMP3 is on chr 22 in figure 7. The best hit to the SLC26A11 gene in lancelet is four genes from a CYP2U-like gene in Clan 2. This lancelet region is similar to the single Hox cluster in lancelet and it contains GNA12, ADSL, LFNG, UBE2S and SOX10 (figure 5, lines Y and Z), which is similar to the CYP2W1 and CYP2D6 regions in vertebrates (figure 6c). Furthermore, CYP26A1 is only about 13 genes from the CYP2C cluster in human (approx. 1.6 Mb). Examination of zebrafish chr 17 and zebra finch chr 5 reveals CYP26C1 and CYP46A1 are at opposite ends of a conserved block of genes. The linkages in figure 9 cover sequences in CYP Clans 2, 4, 7, 20, 26, 46 and mito. These associations place CYP26 with other CYP genes discussed earlier, in the CYP genesis locus.

(m) CYP Clan 46

Synteny in the neighbourhood around *CYP46* is summarized in figure 10. *CYP46* is four genes from *SETD3* in human, chicken, anole lizard and frog. *SETD3* is only nine genes from *CYP26C1* in medaka, two to four genes from *AK7* and *VRK1* in chicken and six to eight genes distant from *AK7 VRK1* in human. As mentioned earlier, a *CYP7* gene is adjacent to *AK7* in lancelet. *VRK1* is only two genes from *SETD3* in zebrafish.

In medaka, the CYP46A1 gene is eight genes away from MUT. MUT is adjacent to the very large CYP2AC subfamily gene cluster in X. tropicalis. MUT is also next to CYP2AC1P in human and in some other vertebrates. In Nematostella, there are two CYP46-related genes. They are separated by an ORC5L homologue. The best hit for ORC5L in M. leidyi (a ctenophore) is 800 bp from a CYP Clan 46 gene. ORCL5 is 4.4 Mb from the CYP3A cluster in human. MRPL1 is adjacent to one of the CYP46 genes in Nematostella. MRPL1 is four genes from ZDHHC12 in Tetraodon nigroviridis (freshwater puffer), and figure 3 shows that ZDHHC12 has many linkages to the 2, 74 and mito Clans. In medaka, CYP11A1 is only 16 kb away from HEXB and ARIH1. HEXB is adjacent to two CYP7 sequences in lancelet, and ARIH1 is next to a CYP Clan 2 member in the coral Acropora. A CYP46 pseudogene, CYP46A-se1[12:13:14], is only six genes from the CYP4ABXZ locus on human chr 1. In sea urchin, the sequences GLEAN3_02660 and 15568 are two adjacent CYP Clan 46 sequences. They are also next to a CYP Clan 2 gene, GLEAN3_02658, on scaffold 59540 (see the electronic supplementary material, figure S25). These associations link CYP Clan 46 with the 2, 4, 7, 26, 74 and mito Clans.

(n) ARF gene linkages to CYPs

ARF-like GTPases apparently shared a close association with *CYPs* in the animal ancestor. *ARF* and *ARL* genes are ancient eukaryotic 21 kDa GTPases [89,90]. *ARL* genes do not appear to have a syntenous link to *CYPs*. By contrast, there is a frequent association of *CYP* genes and their neighbours with *ARF* genes. Animals have three classes of *ARF* genes (I, II



Figure 10. Synteny mapping of the CYP46 clan to CYP7 and CYP26 clans via AK7, to ZDHHC12 via MRPL1 (see figure 2 for ZDHHC12 linkages), to CYP2 and mito clans via STOML1. CYP46 is connected by direct linkages to CYP Clans 2 and 4.

and III). Phylogenies of ARF proteins predict that the first animals had two *ARFs*, one class I + II and one class III (also known as *ARF6*) that gave rise to all animal *ARFs* [91]. The *ARF* class (I + II) genes have 12 associations with *CYP* genes or their close neighbours. These *ARF–CYP* linkages are described below.

A CYP Clan 46 gene (gw.166.6.1 [Nemve1:11772]) in Nematostella is found only 3.5 kb from an ARF1 homologue. Another ARF1-like sequence in the lancelet is found next to HHIPL1. Human HHIPL1 is adjacent to CYP46A1. This permutation suggests that all three genes were neighbours in a common ancestor. Another ARF1-like gene is only four genes from CYP51 in Trichoplax. An ARF4-related gene in lancelet is adjacent to a Clan 2 member (see the electronic supplementary material, figure S26). In sea urchin, an ARF2-related gene is only two genes away from HOOK1 (see the electronic supplementary material, figure S27); HOOK1 is adjacent to the CYP2J locus in all vertebrates (exemplified in zebrafish [63]). Furthermore, a Clan 3 member is only three genes distant from an ARF1 homologue in the lancelet (electronic supplementary material, figure S28).

ARF1 in medaka is 420 kb from *CYP26A1* (figure 5, line M). An *ARF4*-like gene in medaka is six genes (176 kb) from *CYP8B1*. An *ARF1*-like gene in medaka is 333 kb from the *HoxC* cluster (figure 5, line R). Finally, an *ARF* homologue in lancelet is found adjacent to the cluster containing *CYP7s* described earlier (*PDE1B HEXB CYP7 CYP7 VSP24 GOT1;* electronic supplementary material, figure S21). *PDE1B* is six genes (270 kb) from *CYP20* in chicken, whereas *PDE11A* is 2 Mb distant (figure 5, line W). These associations link *ARF* genes to Clans 2, 3, 7, mito, 20, 26 and 46, and to the *Hox* clusters.

The *ARF6* connections with *CYP* genes are less abundant. Because class I + II *ARFs* and class III *ARFs* (*ARF6*) are both found in fungi, it seems that only one of these *ARF* classes could logically be associated with the P450 genesis locus. *Ciona* has an *ARF6* homologue three genes from a *CYP* Clan 2 member (electronic supplementary material, figure S30). The ARF6 orthologue in lancelet (97% identical to human ARF6) is adjacent to PDE11A1, which as stated above is close to CYP20 in chicken. In medaka, PDE11A1 is 3 Mb from CYP11B (figure 5, lines W and E). Trichoplax has an ARF6-like gene that is 11 genes (320 kb) from a Clan 4 member. An indirect linkage in Rhesus macaque has ARF6 next to a PDLIM1 pseudogene (electronic supplementary material, figure S31). As described earlier, PDLIM1 is near the CYP2C genes, whereas PDLIM3 is near CYP4V2 orthologues (figure 5, lines H-L). A similar PDLIM pseudogene is found in the same place in human. Because this is a pseudogene, and it does not appear to be on a paralogon of PDLM1 or PDLIM2 regions, the linkage to ARF6 could be accidental. Another example of a spurious link between ARF6 and CYP genes is found near the CYP3 cluster in human. Thus, CYP3 is adjacent to a zinc finger protein ZNF498 in many eutherian mammals but not in marsupials, or in other vertebrates. Humans have an ARF6 pseudogene between CYP3A5 and ZNF498. Although this is a very tight association between ARF6 and CYP3 genes, the pseudogene is found only in great apes: human, chimp and orangutan, not in mouse, rat, dog, cow or horse. This had to be a recent insertion, so it is not relevant to early CYP neighbourhoods. Furthermore, the CYP3A cluster in human has moved from its original location close to the CYP2W1 gene as described earlier. Thus, in some rare cases, linkages of ARF6 genes with CYP genes appear to be chance occurrences, but this does not diminish the strength of most ARF-CYP linkages as evolutionarily conserved.

(o) *CYP19*

The origin of *CYP19* (aromatase) remains a mystery, as *CYP19* sequences are distinct from other *CYP* clans and offer no clues to the parent origin. Aromatase synthesizes

oestrogen from testosterone via a three-step demethylation [92]. This process is at the end of a long steroid pathway initiated with the *CYP51*-mediated synthesis of cholesterol that also includes *CYP11A1* for side-chain cleavage and *CYP17* for 17/20 lyase and hydroxylase activities [93].

A gene duplication to create CYP19 would have had to precede lancelet, which has CYP19. This would be earlier than the 2R WGDs, although, some sequence relatedness would be expected between CYP19 and its parent clan if the duplication were early in chordate evolution. It seems unlikely that a duplication within deuterostomes or even bilaterians would create a new CYP clan, because the 2R WGDs (more than 525 Ma) failed to create even a new family (except apparently CYP8). Therefore, it is plausible that CYP19 was an original member of the CYP genesis locus and it was lost in many lineages just like Clan 7. A mechanism to explain multiple *CYP* clan losses may require that the lost genes were adjacent in a tight cluster. For example, insects, crustaceans and C. elegans, in the Ecdysozoa, all lack the same seven CYP clans. Possibly, these genes were adjacent and lost together in a block, a difficult hypothesis to test.

The lancelet has three different CYP19 sequences in two different subfamilies (CYP19B1, CYP19C1 and CYP19C2), the subfamilies are 41 per cent identical to each other and both are approximately 40 per cent identical to human CYP19A1. Mizuta & Kubokawa [94] cloned a CYP19C3 orthologue from ovaries of the related species Branchiostoma belcheri, but the gene was not heterologously expressed and assayed. Radioimmunoassay of ovarian steroids did show oestradiol was being synthesized, but which of the CYP19 genes was responsible is not known. Comparing the CYP19 location in vertebrates and the lancelet shows that they are different, suggesting that CYP19 has moved to a new location in vertebrates, which would not be relevant to connecting CYP19 to the CYP genesis locus. This possibility was a concern of Castro et al. [95] who examined the synteny around the CYP19 genes in vertebrates, but they did not have the lancelet synteny data. The lancelet has kept the original location of CYP19, and the genes surrounding it are informative.

The lancelet region in the electronic supplementary material, figure S32 contains *CYP19B1v1* with an adjacent pseudogene, in a region that also has two *TGFB*-like genes. The orthologue of one gene (*TGFB1*) is found four genes from the *CYP2ABFGST* cluster in human. The lancelet region also has *TTLL5* that is adjacent to *TGFB3* in human. *TGFB3* is not near a *CYP*, but it is on a paralogon to the *CYP2ABFGST* cluster. *TGFB2* in human is also on a third paralogon to the *CYP2ABFGST* cluster. *TGFB2* in lancelet is next to *CYP4T1*.

The lancelet *CYP19B1v1* gene is adjacent to a *NOP14* gene, and to *EXOC6* on the other side. In medaka, there is only one gene similar to *NOP14*, located four genes from *RAD23B*. In *Ciona*, *EXOC6* is about 300 kb from a *RAD23*-like gene on chr 8. A *RAD23*-like gene occurs in the *CYP* genesis locus often near *PRDX* genes (see §3*h*). In human, the *NOP14* region on chr 4p is a paralogon of the *CYP26B*-containing segment on human chr 2 and the *CYP26A* and *CYP26C* segment on human chr 10. *EXOC6* is also adjacent to the *CYP26C1–CYP26A1* gene pair in human, chicken, lizard and frog. *CYP26C1* has moved to a new location. The presence of genes in line M that are also found in the

CYP2W1/CYP3A paralogon ties *CYP26* and *CYP19* to the *CYP2* and *CYP3* Clans. After the 2R WGD events, *CYP26B* was duplicated to form a new *CYP26A/C* precursor (table 1). The gene *EXOC6* was also duplicated next to it and is now *EXOC6B*. In zebrafish, *EXOC6B* is adjacent to *CYP26B* (chr 7 approx. 16.23 Mb; though only the N-terminal of the gene is present in the UCSC browser danRer5 assembly). *EXOC6B* is adjacent to *CYP26B1* in frog, chicken and human. These synteny relationships are indicators that *CYP19* and *CYP26* were close neighbours in the past.

Ciona intestinalis has *EXOC6* adjacent to *COG3* on chr 8. *COG3* in lizard is next to the *SORBS1 PDLIM1 HELLS* trio (figure 5, line L). These genes are adjacent to *CYP2C* in human and chicken (figure 5, lines J, K), but the lizard contig ends here. *COG3* matches a gene in lancelet that is six genes from a *CYP* cluster containing *CYP3* and *CYP2* sequences (see the electronic supplementary material, figure S6). Further, synteny evidence links *CYP19* in lancelet to *CYP2U1* in human (see the electronic supplementary material, figure S37). The *CYP2U1* gene on human chr 1 is flanked by *PAPSS1* on one side and *HADHSC* and *LEF1* on the other side. These same three genes flank the *CYP19C* genes in lancelet (see the electronic supplementary material, figure S37). These observations link *CYP19* to the *CYP* Clans 2 and 3.

Additional support is given by the gene *LCT*, which is adjacent to *NOP14* in the lancelet. In medaka, this gene is situated between *FAIM* on one side and *HDAC9 TWIST1* on the other side (see the electronic supplementary material, figure S33, chr 21). *FAIM* is found in figure 5, line Y next to the lancelet *Hox* cluster. *HDAC9 and TWIST1* are seen in figure 5, lines B and D–F near *CYP51*, the *HoxA* cluster in chicken and medaka and the *CYP11B* gene in medaka. These genes are part of the *CYP2W1* paralogon on human chr 7.

The gene *EML1* is another neighbour of the *CYP19B1v1* gene in lancelet (see the electronic supplementary material, figure S32). *EML1* is adjacent to *CYP46* in human. There is one other location for the *CYP19B1v2* gene in lancelet. However, the *CYP19B1v1* and *v2* genes are 99 per cent identical and probably represent alleles in the genome assembly. Both have tail-to-tail *NOP14* neighbours. Other neighbouring genes differ, but there are gaps in the assembly so some genes may be missing. *CYP19B1v2* has *NOP14* on one side and *ABCC4/CFTR* on the other side. *ABCC4/CFTR* is one gene from *WNT2* in human. The related gene *ABCC3* is also found in the *CYP2W1* paralogon of chicken. These observations have placed the *CYP19* ancestor into the same region as precursors of the 2, 3, 4, 26, 46, 51 and mito Clans.

(p) *CYP20*

The genes flanking *CYP20* in lancelet are *RPL27*, *AAAS* and *SLC11A2* (see the electronic supplementary material, figure S34). *AAAS* is 800 kb from the *HoxC* cluster in *X. tropicalis* and 700 kb from the chr 12 *HoxC* cluster in human. *CYP27B1* is on the opposite side of this *HoxC* cluster in human (figure 5, line T). The *SLC11A2* gene is 900 kb from *CYP27B1* on medaka chr 5, but it is only five genes (250 kb) from *CYP27B1* in *X. tropicalis*. Opossum has *SLC11A1* on chr 7 380 kb from *CYP27A1*. In human, *SLC11A1* is on chr 2q in the same chromosomal region as *CYP27A* (385 kb away) and *CYP20* (15.1 Mb away). It appears

that *CYP27*, *CYP20* and *SLC11A* were duplicated during the 2R WGD, and *CYP27B* became linked to *SLC11A2*, as seen in medaka and *X. tropicalis*, while *CYP27A* is linked to *SLC11A1*. Apparently, *CYP20* moved away from the original site and lost the duplicate copy near *CYP27B*. *RPL27* is two genes from *RPL3* in zebrafish and it is four genes from a *RAC* paralogue. Both *RPL3* and *RAC2* are found in the paralogon containing *CYP2D6* (figure 7, chr 22). The human chr 7 paralogon includes *RAC1*, *CYP2W1* and the original vertebrate *CYP3* locus (figure 7). *PDE1A* is 300 kb from *CYP20* in chicken. *PDE1C* is 870 kb from *CYP8A1* in stickleback, and *PDE1B* is 3.3 Mb from *CYP27B1* in human. The *PDE1A,B,C* genes in human are on paralogons containing the *Hox D, C* and *A* clusters, respectively [23].

More ancient neighbours are found in Nematostella. There are two adjacent CYP20s in Nematostella. The best match to the right-hand-side neighbour (fgenesh1_pm. scaffold_58000009 [Nemve1:229175]) is MCM9 in lancelet. Surprisingly, this is adjacent to a CYP2 gene cluster with nine members (see the electronic supplementary material, figure S35). The gene on the other side of CYP20 in Nematostella matches with RAB18. RAB18 is 370 kb from a four gene CYP20 cluster in lancelet (see the electronic supplementary material, figure S34). RAB18 is two genes from ABI1 in medaka, and ABI2 is adjacent to CYP20 in human, and in opossum, lizard, frog and medaka. The medaka RAB18 is approximately 700 kb from PDRX6 and FGGY. FGGY is two genes from CYP2J2 in human. ABI was duplicated in the 2R WGD events and CYP20 followed ABI2. This shows that RAB18 to ABI1/2 tracks the CYP20 trajectory from Nematostella to human. RAB18 is close to ARMC4 in medaka, chicken, opossum and human. In Ciona, ARMC4 is only 90 kb from a pair of CYP4 genes on chr 9. CYP20 is 1.6 Mb from DICER1 in medaka. DICER1 is three genes from CYP26C1 in zebrafish (figure 9). CYP20 is 685 kb from CHD7 in fugu. CHD7 has links to CYP7 in vertebrates (electronic supplementary material, figure S22) and to Clan 2 genes in lancelet. Through these interactions, the CYP20 gene is also associated with the 2, 3, 4, 7, 26 and mito Clan neighbourhoods.

4. Discussion

The current abundance of animal genomes and the concept of CYP clans, inferred from deep branching in molecular phylogenies [4,96], have made it possible to trace linkages among the CYP families and clans, through analysis of syntenic relationships. The nature of relationships among the CYP clans has been difficult to determine from phylogenetic trees, except for Clans 3 and 4, which consistently cluster together, suggesting that they shared a common ancestor. CYP Clan 3 and Clan 4 members are present in cnidarians and even in sponges (figure 4), thus the divergence of these two clans occurred very early in animal evolution. In fact, figure 4 shows all the clans except Clan 19 have sequence evidence indicating that they were present at least by the origin of cnidarians. In most cases, however, the percent identity of sequences in different clans is in the low 20 per cent range, and thus comparison of the CYP sequences alone does not permit further insights into evolutionary relationships.

The examination of synteny allows new relationships to be detected based on shared neighbours. Applying this approach to members of all 11 *CYP* clans uncovered heretofore unknown linkages among *CYP* clans. Some clans have more detectable linkages than others, but in the end all 11 clans can be tied to each other through shared linkages. As an illustration, *CYP20* is not linked to *CYP7*, but it is linked to *CYP27* in the mito Clan. *CYP11* in the mito Clan is linked to *CYP7*, so *CYP7* is linked indirectly to *CYP20*. Our analysis indicates that all the *CYP* clans shared one common neighbourhood, which we call the cytochrome P450 genesis locus. This has never been hinted at before and it is a novel result of the synteny analysis.

Some of the genes in this neighbourhood that we call the CYP genesis locus are quite well known, including the Hox gene cluster and several WNT genes. The proximity of the WNT genes to the Hox genes has been noted before [23]. Other genes also occur close to the genesis locus. Thus, an ANTP megacluster consisting of Hox, ParaHox and NK genes has been proposed [97]. The sponge genome still maintains an NK gene cluster with six genes [98], but there are no Hox or ParaHox genes in this genome. Although not described in §3, further linkage of the sponge NK genes to CYPs is provided by the KIF11 gene that is adjacent to the NK5/6/7b gene in sponges (ACUQ01000781) and is also adjacent to CYP26C1 in zebrafish (figure 5, line P) and very close to CYP46 in lancelet (figure 9). Because there are CYP genes in the A. queenslandica sponge genome but no Hox genes, the CYP gene cluster appears to predate the *Hox* gene cluster that seemingly arose from an NK gene. Other sponge genomes may hold additional clues to the genesis locus gene environment.

A *CYP3* Clan member (XM_002107799.1, 39% identical to *CYP3A4* human) is 10 genes from an *NK2* gene cluster in *Trichoplax* (from 4.32 to 4.36 Mb on scaffold 1), suggesting the ancestral *CYP* gene cluster was linked to the *NK* gene cluster.

Together, the WNT, Hox, NK and CYP genes represent a developmental locus in early animals (figure 11). An NK-like homeobox domain is found approximately 14 kb from a CYP46 Clan member in the ctenophore M. leidyi. EXOC6 is 13 genes from another Trichoplax NK cluster containing NK5, NK6 and Hex. EXOC6 has been linked to CYP19 and CYP26. The forces acting to keep the NK genes, the Hox genes, and WNT genes together may also have kept this block of CYP genes from dispersing after their formation through cis duplication. Studies on fish ParaHox gene clusters support the existence of interdigitated control regions in the clusters that select against their loss [99]. Irimia et al. proposed the existence of Genomic Regulatory Blocks, with transcriptional enhancers for developmental genes being embedded in neighbouring genes, thus keeping them together [51]. Furthermore, the gene functions may interact. For example, retinoic acid regulates Hox gene expression, and CYP26 is a retinoic acid hydroxylation enzyme that controls retinoic acid concentration. Other CYP substrates/products may influence Hox, ParaHox, NK or Wnt gene expression.

Consequences of gene clustering may also involve gene losses. The loss of seven *CYP* clans in insects, crustaceans and nematodes (all ecdysozoans) may have occurred by a block deletion of the clustered *CYP* genes. Such a major loss of *CYP* genes all at once could be expected to have profound effects on ecdysozoan development. It has been known since the time of Geoffroy de St Hilaire that the arthropod dorsoventral axis is inverted compared with vertebrates, indicating a major developmental shift in this group [100–102]. Could it be related to the simultaneous loss of so many *CYP* genes?



Figure 11. The P450 genesis locus in animals.

The fact that all *CYP* clans can be traced back to this neighbourhood has other implications as well. The *CYP7*, 19 and 74 Clans appear to originate in the genesis locus and not from outside it. Otherwise, it would not be possible to find linkages to the locus. This is illustrated by vertebrate *CYP19*, which apparently moved to a new location from that seen in the lancelet. The vertebrate location of *CYP19* is unrelated to the genesis locus and cannot be traced back to it. If the *CYP19* Clan existed in the genesis locus as predicted, its function would probably not be the same as modern CYP19 aromatase enzymes. The novel aromatase biochemistry of CYP19 emerged in chordates, as is seen in the lancelet. Evidence for CYP11 and CYP19 sequences in lancelet was presented earlier, and steroid nuclear receptors are not found before the chordates [93].

An animal origin for CYP74 is surprising, since the first CYP74 genes all were found in land plants, however, CYP74s are not found in algae or fungi. The dating of early metazoan divergences is a controversial subject; for this discussion, we use dates taken from Berney & Pawlowski¹¹ [103] and from Blair [41] and Hedges et al. [42]. The earliest appearance of the CYP74 Clan is in Trichoplax, thought to have arisen between 733 and 592 Ma. This predates the appearance of land plant fossil spores at 475 Ma [104,105] by approximately 117-258 Myr. How did a CYP74 gene make the transition from marine animals to land plants? Presumably a vector would be required, such as a bacterium that could obtain the CYP74 gene from marine animals. Indeed, two CYP74-like genes have been identified in bacteria (see [14] electronic supplementary material, figure S18). These are Methylobacterium nodulans and Methylobacterium sp. 4-46, plant symbiotic bacteria involved in nitrogen fixation in legumes, ideal candidates for gene transfer to plants. Lateral gene transfer to early land plants is known to have occurred for T globins [106] and for glutamine synthase II_B [107]. Two additional examples that are involved in CYP pathways are PAL and 4CL. The first gene in the general phenylpropanoid pathway of plants, phenylalanine ammonia lyase (PAL) was acquired by a horizontal gene transfer from soil bacteria early during land colonization [108]. The gene 4-coumarate coenzyme A ligase (4CL), found next to CYP Clan 3 genes in lancelet and Trichoplax, is the third gene of the plant phenylpropanoid pathway [109], acting after CYP73A1, a CYP that encodes cinnamate 4-hydroxylase [110]. The 4CL genes were thought to be plant-specific rather like CYP74, but as mentioned above

they exist in the lancelet, *Trichoplax* and *Nematostella*, as does *CYP74* [14]. Analysis of the purple sea urchin detected two more of these 4*CL* genes [111]. A bacterial version of 4*CL* has been found in the soil bacterium *Streptomyces coelicolor* [112]. This raises the possibility that 4*CL* may have a similar history to *PAL* and *CYP74*.

CYP7 and *CYP19* are chordate-specific. *CYP7* and *CYP39* are currently placed in the same clan, but *CYP39* sequences are detected in the choanoflagellate *M. brevicollis*, sponges and *Trichoplax*, while *CYP7* is not seen until lancelet. Possibly, *CYP7* and *CYP39* should be placed in different clans; the relationship between them is fairly weak. This would allow *CYP7* to be newly evolved. However, *CYP* Clan 7 members can be linked to the genesis locus, suggesting they are in fact very old as well. A more recently derived chordate-specific *CYP* Clan 7 gene such as *CYP8* should show a strong resemblance to another Clan 7 *CYP*, and it does. This argues against a de novo appearance of *CYP* 7 only in chordates. Instead, we suggest there have been gene losses from Clan 7 in pre-chordate animals. A similar argument applies to *CYP19*.

The analysis here suggests that early appearance of CYP clans could have resulted from tandem duplication of a progenitor CYP. The time window of animal origins appears to be fairly limited, perhaps 632-863 Myr [103-114]. Thus, establishing the order in which CYP clans arose via tandem duplication of an initial CYP gene may be difficult. A Clan 4 member appears in *M. brevicollis*, though this may be the precursor of the Clans 3 and 4. A CYP39-related gene (7 Clan) is seen in *M. brevicollis*, so the Clans 4 and 7 may have been very early members in the genesis locus. Monosiga brevicollis also has several CYPs most like plant CYP710/ CYP61, CYP704, CYP711 and CYP745, gene families that we presume were lost on the way to animals. The ctenophore M. leidyi has the first known 20 and 46 Clan members. The placement of sponges and placozoans in evolution is not certain, but we assume in figure 4 that sponges were earlier (see [35]). Sponges have the first observed 26 and mito Clan members. Trichoplax has the first Clan 2 and Clan 74 members. All clans except 19 predate the origin of Cnidaria. The CYP Clan 19 has no sequence evidence until lancelet, but for reasons mentioned earlier, it must have a much older origin because of linkage with many other CYP clans in addition to its very divergent sequence. Gene loss has certainly occurred in some lineages and this may confuse the interpretation of first appearances. Additional genomes, especially from sponges, may help to more precisely clarify the origin of some CYP clans/families such as CYP2, CYP7, CYP19, CYP46 and CYP74.

Earlier attempts to discern the evolution of animal CYPs strongly suggested that all animal CYPs derived from a single CYP51 gene, based largely on the presence of a CYP51 in bacteria, plants, fungi and animals [11,18,115,116]. It has been argued that the bacterial CYP51 may have arisen from a lateral transfer from plants, but this does not alter our discussion here on animal P450s [19]. One could envision that, as a source of sterols important in cell membrane function, CYP51 could be an essential early enzyme. On the other hand, the catalytic function of extant CYP51s is sufficiently specialized that one could also argue that some other less specialized function may have characterized the progenitor CYP. Identifying a precursor to the progenitor CYP would help to determine its role and identity. Regardless of the identity of the CYP occupying the initial locus, the recognition of the CYP genesis locus as the starting point for animal *CYP* evolution opens the way for more detailed analysis of each clan to understand the origin of specific families. As more genome assemblies become available, reconstruction of ancestral genomes becomes possible as already achieved with the CLGs. The history of each *CYP* is really a vector through time that tracks gene duplications and losses, lateral transfers, WGDs and chromosomal rearrangements. Armed with more and more detailed genome histories, we will be better able to trace individual gene histories. The limiting factor becomes what time has erased, leaving no trace for us to read.

5. Definitions

The preservation of gene order on a Microsynteny: nearly 1:1 basis without large insertions, gaps or rearrangements. Macrosynteny: The retention of orthologues in large chromosomal regions at higher than statistically expected levels. These genes are not necessarily close together and they may be spread over large regions, as in electronic supplementary material, figure S36 where 10 orthologue/co-orthologue pairs are spread over a 21 Mb region. Co-orthologues: Tandemly duplicated genes that arose from a single orthologous ancestral gene. The current loci in two different species may not contain the same number of members, but each is a co-orthologue of the other species orthologous gene(s). Example: the CYP4T gene in fish and CYP4A, B, X and Z genes in human. Paralogons: Multiple regions created by whole genome duplication (WGD). The two WGD events in chordates resulted in four paralogons for each original segment in the pre-duplicated protochordate genome. Originally, these were equivalent to whole duplicated chromosomes, but over time they become smaller segments owing to chromosomal rearrangements.

Genes duplicated in a WGD event that Ohnologues: survive to the present day. Most ohnologue-duplicated genes get lost as the tetraploid genome reduces the number of genes back down close to the original diploid number. Some are retained and acquire new functions. CYP clan: A CYP clan is a clade of genes. Clans are relatively deep branchings on phylogenetic trees. There are eleven total clans of animal CYPs but only four clans in most arthropods and nematodes and five in ticks. Plants have a different set of CYP clans, except for CYP51 and CYP74 that are in common. A proposed eukaryotic taxonomic Unikonts: group defined by the presence of only one flagellum; includes opsithokonts and amoebozoas. A eukaryotic taxonomic group defined by **Bikonts**: cells with two emergent flagella; includes Archaeplastida (plants and relatives), Excavata, Rhizaria and Chromalveolata. Excavates A deep branch of eukaryotes containing (Excavata): many parasitic, often 'amitochondrial' species; includes Giardia, Trypanosoma, Euglena, Trichomonas.

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Endnotes

¹(GenBank BI386673 dated 20 May 2003). This sequence was posted to the Cytochrome P450 Homepage in 2005, though it was not recognized as a *CYP74* Clan member at that time.

²Unikonts, bikonts and excavates are three monophyletic divisions of eukaryotes determined by multi-gene tree building methods, using large concatenated sequence alignments [15]. Morphologically unikonts (animals, fungi, Amoebozoa) and bikonts (plants, alveolates, stramenopiles, Rhizaria) have one or two flagella at a specific point in their life cycle. Excavates have a characteristic ventral feeding groove on their cell surface (examples are Jakobids, *Euglena, Giardia,* trypanosomes). Cavalier–Smith argues that excavates are bikonts [16].

³Xenambulacraria = hemichordates + echinoderms + xenoturbellarids. ⁴The 236 P450 gene count for Branchiostoma (lancelet) seems high compared to other chordates. The paper of Putnam *et al.* [23] argues for a fairly strict paralogon relationship to vertebrates, so the vertebrate P450s should have an ohnolog precursor in lancelet. A large expansion is not expected. Part of the increase may be due to alleles being counted as different genes. The P450s of lancelet have not been systematically named yet so this possibility cannot be confirmed now. Another possibility is dramatic gene blooms in some clans. Note in figure 2 the very large sector in the *CYP2* clan between 08.00 and 09.00 o'clock that looks like a large gene bloom. Blooms of P450s have been discussed by Sezutsu *et al.* [10].

 5RPL28 occurs in two different genomic locations in lancelet shown in figure 3.

⁶Fungi have about 15–20 clans that are not completely defined yet. *CYP51* and *CYP7* Clan members are seen in fungi. The distribution of 7 Clan members is only found in some filamentous fungi strongly suggesting a lateral transfer from animals to fungi. Therefore, it is shown as an asterisk in figure 4. The other fungal clans are distinct from the animal clans.

⁷XM_001627680.

⁸XM_001627677, XM_001627678, XM_001627679.

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⁹(fgenesh1_pg.scaffold_275000001).

¹⁰Fugu Ensembl:ENSTRUG0000004549, zebrafish Ensembl:ENSDA RG00000060094.

¹¹Dates for early animal divergence nodes: choanoflagellates versus all other animals 863 Ma (711–1052); sponges versus ctenophores, *Trichoplax*, cnidarians and bilaterians 812 Ma (671–985); ctenophores versus *Trichoplax*, cnidarians and bilaterians 733 Ma (603–893); *Trichoplax* versus cnidarians and bilaterians 592 Ma (551–696).

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