A host-inducible cytochrome P-450 from a host-specific caterpillar: Molecular cloning and evolution

(insect P-450 monooxygenase cDNA/xanthotoxin)

MICHAEL B. COHEN*[†], MARY A. SCHULER[‡], AND MAY R. BERENBAUM*

Departments of *Entomology and [‡]Plant Biology, University of Illinois, 505 South Goodwin Avenue, Urbana, IL 61801

Communicated by I. C. Gunsalus, July 23, 1992

ABSTRACT Cytochrome P-450 monooxygenases (P-450s) play a critical role in the detoxification of natural and synthetic toxins in a wide range of organisms. We have isolated and sequenced cDNA clones encoding a P-450, CYP6B1, from larvae of Papilio polyxenes (Lepidoptera: Papilionidae), the black swallowtail butterfly. This P-450, cloned from a herbivorous insect, is highly inducible by xanthotoxin, a secondary metabolite abundant in the host plants of this specialized herbivore. On Northern blots, mRNAs crossreactive with CYP6B1 were detected in three Papilio species that, like the black swallowtail, have high levels of xanthotoxin-metabolic P-450 activity and encounter xanthotoxin or related compounds in their host plants; in contrast, no crossreactive mRNAs were detectable in three papilionid species that never encounter xanthotoxin in their host plants and lack detectable xanthotoxin-metabolic activity. These results provide evidence that new P-450s can arise as herbivores colonize different host plants and support the hypothesis that interactions between herbivores and their toxin-producing host plants have contributed to the diversification of the P-450 superfamily.

Cytochrome P-450 monooxygenases (P-450s) function in the oxidation of a wide variety of xenobiotic and endogenous substrates (1) and are among the most important enzymes used by herbivores in detoxifying plant secondary metabolites (2). Selective pressure by plant secondary metabolites is thought to be one factor that has led to diversification of the cytochrome P-450 gene superfamily (1, 3, 4), which exhibits great intraspecies and interspecies variability, but there is, as yet, little direct evidence for this hypothesis. Insect herbivores that feed on a narrow range of plants sharing a common secondary chemistry encounter continual selection by a restricted array of secondary compounds and thus represent ideal organisms for investigating the mechanisms by which plant toxins drive P-450 gene evolution.

Larvae of the black swallowtail, Papilio polyxenes (Lepidoptera: Papilionidae), feed on only two plant families, the Apiaceae and Rutaceae (5). These plants produce a diversity and an abundance of furanocoumarins, secondary metabolites that occur only rarely in other families (6). One such furanocoumarin, xanthotoxin (8-methoxypsoralen), is highly toxic to generalist insect herbivores (7-9) yet is tolerated at high levels by specialist herbivores that selectively feed on furanocoumarin-containing plants. This tolerance in at least two species, the black swallowtail (10, 11) and the parsnip webworm Depressaria pastinacella (Lepidoptera: Oecophoridae) (12), is due to the ability of larvae to detoxify xanthotoxin rapidly by midgut cytochrome P-450 activities. In P. polyxenes, this P-450 activity appears to be autoregulated in that xanthotoxin induces the P-450 activity responsible for its own metabolism 7-fold over the endogenous activity present in larvae (13) and is associated with the appearance of a protein of ≈ 55 kDa in midgut microsomes (14).

The molecular cloning of cDNAs encoding this xanthotoxin-inducible protein has allowed us to confirm its identity as a newly discovered P-450, designated CYP6B1. To determine the origin of xanthotoxin-inducible P-450s in the evolution of the subfamily Papilioninae with respect to colonization of furanocoumarin-producing plants, we examined six additional species within this subfamily for their constitutive and xanthotoxin-induced P-450-mediated metabolism of xanthotoxin and screened Northern blots of midgut poly(A)⁺ RNA for crossreactivity with CYP6B1. Of the additional swallowtails examined, Papilio brevicauda and Papilio cresphontes are specialists on furanocoumarin-producing plants in the Apiaceae and Rutaceae, respectively (5); Papilio glaucus is a broadly polyphagous species that only occasionally encounters furanocoumarins in a few rutaceous hosts (15); Papilio troilus, Battus philenor, and Eurytides marcellus are specialists on families that do not produce furanocoumarins, the Lauraceae, Aristolochiaceae, and Annonaceae, respectively (5). Poly(A)⁺ RNA from D. pastinacella, which feeds exclusively on two genera of the Apiaceae high in furanceoumarins (16) but is only distantly related to P. polyxenes, was also screened. These experiments were designed to analyze the evolution of P-450 genes with respect to the speciation and host shifts that have occurred in a closely related group of herbivores and to compare P-450 genes in distantly related herbivores specialized to feed on the same plant species. Our results suggest that CYP6B1 is an adaptation enabling the black swallowtail to feed on furanocoumarin-producing plants and thus that additional P-450s can arise as herbivores colonize new hosts.§

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Insects. The collection locality of adult swallowtails used to establish, and host plants used to maintain, laboratory colonies were P. polyxenes, Port Hope, Ontario, Canada and Champaign County, Illinois, Petroselinum crispum; P. cresphontes, Broward County, Florida, Citrus jambhiri; P. brevicauda, Shippegan, New Brunswick, Canada, Ligusticum scotium; P. glaucus, Champaign County, Illinois, Prunus serotina; P. troilus, Vermilion County, Illinois, Sassafras albidum; B. philenor, Parke County, Indiana, Aristolochia durior; E. marcellus, Crittenden County, Arkansas, Asimina triloba. A D. pastinacella colony was established from larvae collected in Champaign County, Illinois; larvae were reared on an artificial diet (17).

The publication costs of this article were defrayed in part by page charge payment. This article must therefore be hereby marked "*advertisement*" in accordance with 18 U.S.C. §1734 solely to indicate this fact.

[†]Present address: Department of Entomology, 410 Forbes Building, University of Arizona, Tucson, AZ 85721.

[§]The sequences reported in this paper have been deposited in the GenBank data base [accession nos. M80828 (*CYP6B1v1*, internal *Xho* I site present) and M83117 (*CYP6B1v2*, internal *Xho* I site absent)].

cDNA Cloning. Xanthotoxin-induced midgut microsomes were isolated and subjected to SDS/PAGE as described (14). Gels were stained with Coomassie blue and the \approx 55-kDa xanthotoxin-inducible protein was excised with a razor and electroeluted from the gel slices. The eluate was precipitated overnight in 9 vol of acetone/1 mM HCl. A protein sample of \approx 100 pmol was submitted to the Biotechnology Center at the University of Illinois at Urbana–Champaign for N-terminal sequencing. A second sample of \approx 260 pmol was submitted to the Yale University Protein and Nucleic Acid Chemistry Facility for tryptic digestion and sequencing of an internal fragment.

Fully degenerate primers were designed to portions of the N-terminal and internal amino acid sequences. $Poly(A)^+$ RNA was isolated from the midguts of xanthotoxin-induced fifth instar larvae by use of the FastTrack kit (Invitrogen, San Diego) and reverse transcribed with the internal primer. The resulting cDNAs were amplified by PCR using the N-terminal and internal primers as described (18).

A cDNA library was constructed with the Librarian II kit (Invitrogen) and poly(A)⁺ RNA isolated from the midguts of xanthotoxin-induced *P. polyxenes* larvae. (All larvae used for library construction were from a laboratory colony established with adults collected in Port Hope, Ontario.) The library was screened at high stringency (50% formamide; 42°C) using a ³²P-labeled 1.2-kilobase (kb) product of the reverse transcription/PCR procedure described above. Positive clones with inserts of ≈1.6 kb were characterized by restriction analysis and DNA sequencing using T7 and SP6 vector primers and internal primers of 17–18 bases. Both strands of the *CYP6B1* cDNA clones were completely sequenced.

Assays of Xanthotoxin Metabolism. Final instar larvae were reared for 2-3 days on host plants treated with either acetone (control) or an acetone solution of xanthotoxin at 0.2% (*P. cresphontes, P. polyxenes, P. brevicauda, P. glaucus*) or 0.1% (*P. troilus, B. philenor, E. marcellus*) of foliage (fresh weight); the lower concentration was used for those species that grew poorly on the 0.2% diet. Midgut microsomes were isolated as described (14) but were resuspended in 0.1 M sodium phosphate, pH 7.8/20% (vol/vol) glycerol/1 mM EDTA/0.1 mM dithiothreitol/5 μ g of leupeptin per ml/0.5 mM phenylmethylsulfonyl fluoride to improve storage at -80°C.

Two independent microsomal samples from each species were assayed in triplicate for xanthotoxin metabolism. Onemilliliter reaction mixtures contained 0.1 M sodium phosphate (pH 7.8), 0.3 mM NADP, 3.0 mM glucose 6-phosphate, 0.5 unit of glucose-6-phosphate dehydrogenase, 10 μ g of xanthotoxin, and 0.05–0.2 mg of microsomes. Reaction mixtures were incubated for 30 min at 30°C, stopped with 200 μ l of 2M HCl, and extracted with 2 ml of ethyl acetate. Unmetabolized xanthotoxin was quantified by normal-phase HPLC with a solvent system containing 90% cyclohexane, 6% isopropyl ether, 4% amyl alcohol.

Northern Blotting. Poly(A)⁺ RNA was isolated, by use of the FastTrack kit, from the midguts of larvae reared as described. One microgram of poly(A)⁺ RNA was loaded per lane and electrophoresed in a 1% agarose-formaldehyde gel (19). RNA was blotted onto a nylon membrane and sequentially probed with the insert of clone *CYP6B1v1* at both high (40% formamide; 42°C) and low (30% formamide; 25°C) stringency, and with a 0.8-kb fragment of a *Drosophila melanogaster* actin clone (20) at high stringency. Hybridizations were conducted at the specified temperature for 12–16 h in 30% or 40% formamide/0.12 M Na₂HPO₄, pH 7.2/0.25 M NaCl/7% SDS. The membrane was washed once at room temperature for 15 min in 2× standard saline citrate (SSC)/ 0.1% SDS, and once for 15 min in 0.5× SSC/0.1% SDS. Under these conditions, RNA sequences sharing ≈94% (high stringency) and 69% (low stringency) identity with the probe should be detectable (21).

RESULTS

cDNA Cloning and Characterization. To clone the P-450 responsible for xanthotoxin metabolism in P. polyxenes, the 55-kDa midgut microsomal protein induced by xanthotoxin was purified and N-terminal and internal tryptic fragment sequences were determined by microsequencing. The cDNA encoding this xanthotoxin-inducible P-450 was cloned by reverse transcription/PCR amplification of poly(A)⁺ RNA isolated from xanthotoxin-induced midgut tissue with an internal primer encoding seven amino acids of the internal tryptic fragment and an N-terminal primer encoding six amino acids of the N-terminal fragment (Fig. 1). The major 1.2-kb PCR product generated from this process was subcloned, partially sequenced, and used to probe a xanthotoxininduced midgut cDNA library. Restriction analysis of the longest clones indicated that two subclasses of cDNA, distinguished by the presence or absence of Xho I and HindIII sites, hybridized at high stringency with the 1.2-kb PCR product.

Sequence analysis of full-length clones from each subclass indicated that the coding regions of representative clones, CYP6B1v1 (Fig. 1) and CYP6B1v2, are 98.2% identical in amino acid sequence. Both cDNAs encode proteins of ≈ 57 kDa containing the sequence FXXGXXXCXG in the hemebinding region near the C terminus (Fig. 1), which is highly conserved among P-450 proteins (22). Not unexpectedly, the clones contain the N-terminal and internal amino acid sequences obtained from the xanthotoxin-inducible protein, with the exception of tryptophan at position 400, which was misidentified in protein microsequencing as methionine. This extreme level of amino acid identity and genomic DNA analysis (T. Harrison, M.B.C., M.R.B., and M.A.S., unpublished data) indicate that these clones encode alleles of a single locus. On Northern blots (Fig. 2), the CYP6B1v1 cDNA crossreacts with 1.6-kb mRNAs that are highly induced in black swallowtail larvae fed on xanthotoxin-treated parsley, Petroselinum crispum, or on untreated parsnip, Pastinaca sativa, a black swallowtail host plant containing high levels of xanthotoxin and other furanocoumarins (23).

Full-length amino acid sequence comparisons indicate that CYP6B1 is 32% identical to CYP6A1, a phenobarbitalinducible P-450 from the housefly (24), and 29-32% identical to members of the CYP3 family.

Xanthotoxin Metabolism and Occurrence of CYP6B1 in Other Lepidoptera. To gain insight into the evolutionary origin of CYP6B1, we surveyed species closely related to P. polyxenes for xanthotoxin-metabolic activity and mRNA crossreactivity with CYP6B1. In addition to P. polyxenes, xanthotoxin-metabolic P-450 activities occur in three species that consistently or occasionally encounter furanocoumarins in their host plants: P. brevicauda, P. cresphontes, and P. glaucus (Table 1). No xanthotoxin metabolism was detectable in the remaining three swallowtails—P. troilus, B. philenor, and E. marcellus—which never feed on furanocoumarinproducing plants in nature.

High-stringency Northern blot analysis (Fig. 2A) revealed crossreactivity of CYP6B1v1 only with xanthotoxininducible mRNAs in P. brevicauda, the closest relative of P. polyxenes examined (Fig. 3) and a species that also feeds on furanocoumarin-containing Apiaceae. Low-stringency Northern blots demonstrated crossreactivity with CYP6B1related mRNAs in two other species—P. cresphontes, a specialist on furanocoumarin-containing Rutaceae, and P. glaucus, a generalist that encounters furanocoumarincontaining plants occasionally. No closely related mRNAs were detected in the three other papilionid species examined.

1	GTAGTGACCGCGTTCAACATGTTGTATCTTTTAGCTCTTGTTACGGTTTTGGCAGGCCTTTTA <u>CATTACTACTTTACCAG</u> GACTTTTAATTACTGGAAGAAAAGAA
1	<u>MLYLLALVTVLAGLLHYYFTRTFNY</u> W K K R N V A G
118	CCCARACCAGTACCATTCTTTGGCARCTTARARAGATTCCGTCCTCAGACGGARACCTCAGGTAATGGTCTACRARAGATATTTACCACGAATTTCCCCAATGARARAGTTGTCGCAATTTAC
34	P K P V P F F G N L K D S V L R R K P Q V M V Y K S I Y D E F P N E K V V G I Y
238	AGAATGACAACACCATCTGTGTGTGTGATGTGGTGATTTGGACATAATCAAGGCATGTGCTCATCAAAGACTTCGAATCATTTGCCGACAGAGGAGTCGAATTCAGTCTCGATGGTCTCGGAGGC
74	R M T T P S V L L R D L D I I K H V L I K D F E S F A D R G V E F S L D G L G A
358	ARCATTTTCCACGCAGATGGCGACCGGTGGAGATCCTTAAGGAATCGTTTCACTCCTCTTCACCTCCGGAAAGCTCAAGTCCCATGCTGCCCTTGATGTCGCCAAGTCGGCGACAGGTTT
114	N I F H'A D G D R W R S L R N R F T P L F T S G K L K S M L P L M S Q V G D R F
478	ATAAACAGCATTGATGAAGTAAGTCAAACCAACCGGGAACAGTCAATTCAATAATCTAGTTCAGAAATTCACAATGACTAATATCGCCCGGTGTTCTGATCGGTCTCAAACTGGATGAAGGA
154	INSIDEVSQTQPEQSIHNLVQKFTMTNIAACVFGLNLDEG
598	ATGTTAAAAACTTTGGAAGACCTAGATAAGCATATATTCACTGTAAATTACAGCGCTGAGCTCGATATGATGTACCCGGGTATATTGAAAAAACTTAACGGTTCTCTCTC
194	M L K T L E D L D K H I F T V N Y S A E L D M M Y P G I L K K L N G S L F P K V
718	GTTAGTAAATTTTTTGACAATCTAACAAAAAACGTACTCGAAATGAGAAAAGGAACGCCATCATATCAAAAGGATATGATCGACCTAAATCAAAGGAAATAAGGAAAAGAAAACAACTTGAC
234	V S K F F D N L T K N V L E M R K G T P S Y Q K D M I D L I Q E L R E K K T L E
838	TIGTCGAGAAAACACGAGAACGAGGATGTGAAAGCC <u>TCGAG</u> CTCACCGACGGGGGGACTCTCTGCACAGATGTTCATATTCTACATGGCTGGC
274	L S R K H E N E D V K A L E L T D G V I S A Q M F I F Y M A G Y E T S A T T M T
958	TACCTGTTCTACGAACTAGCGAAGAATCCTGATATACAAGATAAACTTATTGCTGAAATAGACGAAGTTCTTTCCCGTCATGATGGCAATAAACCTACGAATGTTTGAGCGAAATGAC
314	Y L F Y E L A K N P D I Q D K L I A E I D E V L S R H D G N I T Y E C L S E M T
1078	TATTTGAGTAAGGTGTTTGATGAGACATTAAGGAAATATCCCGTCGCAGACTTCACGCAGCGCAACGCTAAAACTGACTACGTGTTCCCCGGTACCGACATCACTAACAAAGGACAB
354	Y L S K V F D E T L R K Y P V A D F T Q R N A K T D Y V F P G T D I T I K K G Q
1198	ACGATCATTGTATCCACGTG <u>GGCATTCAGAACGACCC</u> AAAATACTATCCTAATCCAGAAAAATTTGACCCCGAACGTTTTAATCCGGAAAATGTAAAAGACAGAC
394	TIIVSTW <u>GIONDP</u> KYYPNPEKFDPERFNPENVKDRHPCAY
1318	CTACCATTTAGTGCAGGTCCTAGAAACTGCCTAGGTATGCGGTTTGCTAAGTGGCAGTCTGAAGTTTGCATCATGAAGGTACTATCGAAATACCGTGTGGAGCCCTCAATGAAGTCCTCT
434	l P F S A G P R N C, L G M R F A K W Q S E V C I M K V L S K Y R V E P S M K S S
1438	GGTCCATTTAAATTTGATCCTATGCGTCTCTTTGCTCTCCCTAAAGGAGGCATTTATGTAAACCTTGTCCGCAGATAAGCTTTTTTGTATTATGTATG
474	GPFKFDPMRLFALPKGGIYVNLVRR*
1558	талаталаттаттататтссяттсалаталалаталсаттталсятатсассалалалалалалал

FIG. 1. Sequence of CYP6B1v1. Amino acid sequences obtained from the xanthotoxin-inducible protein are underlined; fully degenerate primers were designed to the corresponding double-underlined nucleotide sequences. Amino acid positions highly conserved among P-450s are boxed. The internal Xho I site, absent in CYP6B1v2, is double underlined.

As in *P. polyxenes* and *P. brevicauda*, the *CYP6B1*-related mRNAs in *P. glaucus* were also xanthotoxin induced, while the inducibility of those in *P. cresphontes* is unclear because the control RNA was overloaded (Fig. 2C).

Crossreactive mRNAs of ≈ 1.6 kb or larger are faintly visible in the remaining three swallowtails and in *D. pasti*-



FIG. 2. Northern blot analysis of $poly(A)^+$ RNA isolated from midguts of control and xanthotoxin-induced caterpillars. PP, P. polyxenes; PB, P. brevicauda; PC, P. cresphontes; PG, P. glaucus; PT, P. troilus; BP, B. philenor; EM, E. marcellus; DP, D. pastinacella. Final instar larvae were reared for 2-3 days on parsnip (p), control (c), or xanthotoxin-supplemented (x) (0.2% of fresh weight, P. polyxenes, P. brevicauda, P. cresphontes, P. glaucus, and D. pastinacella; 0.1% of fresh weight, P. troilus, B. philenor, and E. marcellus) diets. One microgram of poly(A)⁺ RNA was loaded per lane, electrophoresed in a 1% agarose-formaldehyde gel, and transferred to a nylon membrane. (A) Membrane probed with ³²P-labeled insert of CYP6B1v1 at high stringency (40% formamide; 42°C). (B) Membrane probed at low stringency (30% formamide; 25°C). (C) *nacella* (Fig. 2*B*). These weakly crossreactive mRNAs do not appear to be induced in the xanthotoxin-treated samples and, as yet, their identity is unclear. mRNAs of ≈ 1.3 kb are also visible in most lanes of swallowtail RNA (Fig. 2*B*) but are unlikely to encode P-450s. The smallest known eukaryotic P-450 is ≈ 480 amino acids long (3) and the minimal size of an mRNA encoding such a protein, excluding 3' and 5' nontranslated regions, would be 1.4 kb.

DISCUSSION

Although cDNA sequences of >150 P-450s have been reported (27), CYP6BI is the first from a specialized herbivore and the first from a herbivorous insect. The data that we have collected to date suggest that CYP6BI evolved as an adaptation for detoxification of xanthotoxin and possibly other furanocoumarins as an ancestor of the black swallowtail colonized furanocoumarin-producing plants and, thus, provide support for the hypothesis that plant secondary com-

Table 1. Xanthotoxin metabolism by midgut microsomes isolated from seven species of swallowtail caterpillars

Species	Xanthotoxin metabolized, nmol per min per mg of protein	
	Control diet	Xanthotoxin diet
P. cresphontes	3.44 ± 3.34	6.55 ± 0.49
P. polyxenes	1.26 ± 0.04	5.74 ± 1.74*
P. brevicauda	0.99 ± 0.37	$4.29 \pm 0.11^*$
P. glaucus	0.48 ± 0.43	$2.83 \pm 0.47^*$
P. troilus	†	†
B. philenor	†	t
E. marcellus	†	†

Results are expressed as means \pm SD (n = 2).

*Xanthotoxin treatment significantly greater than control at $P \leq 0.05$; one-tailed t test.

[†]Metabolism <0.20 nmol per min per mg of protein.



FIG. 3. Phylogenetic relationships of tribes of the subfamily Papilioninae (25) and the sections of the genus *Papilio* (26).

pounds have influenced the diversification of the cytochrome P-450 gene superfamily.

Levels of CYP6B1 mRNAs (Fig. 2) and P-450-mediated metabolism of xanthotoxin (27) are higher in black swallowtail larvae reared on parsnip, a black swallowtail host high in xanthotoxin and other furanocoumarins (23), than in larvae reared on parsley, a host with lower levels of these compounds (6). CYP6B1 mRNAs (Fig. 2) and protein (14) and P-450-mediated metabolism of xanthotoxin (13) are also induced when larvae ingest parsley treated topically with additional xanthotoxin, suggesting that this compound is at least partly responsible for CYP6B1 induction when larvae feed on parsnip. Expression of CYP6B1 in baculovirus-transformed Tn5 cells to evaluate its substrate specificity indicates that the CYP6B1 cDNA encodes the ability to metabolize xanthotoxin (R. Ma, M.B.C., M.R.B., and M.A.S., unpublished data).

Additional information on the evolution of CYP6B1 with regard to the colonization of furanocoumarin-producing plants was gained by examining species related to P. polyxenes for the occurrence of this gene. On Northern blots, mRNAs closely related to CYP6B1 were detected in the related species, P. brevicauda, that has a high level of xanthotoxin-metabolic P-450 activity and consistently feeds on furanocoumarinproducing plants. P-450 mRNAs related to CYP6B1 also exist in two other swallowtail species that feed on furanocoumarinproducing plants, P. cresphontes and P. glaucus. In P. brevicauda and P. glaucus, both the crossreactive mRNAs and P-450-mediated metabolism of xanthotoxin were inducible, while levels of mRNA and metabolic activity in *P. cresphontes* were constitutively high. P. brevicauda and P. cresphontes are restricted to plants in the furanocoumarin-producing families Apiaceae and Rutaceae, respectively, while the larvae of P. glaucus are highly polyphagous and are able to survive on at least two rutaceous species (15). In P. troilus and B. philenor, species that do not feed on furanocoumarin-producing plants, xanthotoxin metabolism was low and not inducible (Table 1), and crossreaction of midgut mRNAs with CYP6B1 was weak. E. marcellus, which also does not feed on furanocoumarincontaining plants, appears to have little CYP6B1 crossreactive mRNA, although this sample may be underrepresented by this Northern blot analysis.

P. polyxenes and *P. brevicauda* are part of the *Papilio* machaon species complex, a clearly monophyletic group of about eight species (28). All members of this species complex feed primarily on Apiaceae, and *CYP6B1* may have arisen as the ancestral member of the *P. machaon* complex colonized plants in this family. Their high degree of identity indicates that xanthotoxin-inducible P-450s from *P. polyxenes* and *P. brevicauda* are almost certainly orthologous—i.e., "correspond[ing] to the ancestral gene which existed before the evolutionary divergence of the two species" (29)—and *CYP6B1* is likely to occur in all members of the *P. machaon* complex.

By similar reasoning, the crossreactive 1.6-kb mRNAs in P. cresphontes and P. glaucus probably also encode more divergent orthologues of CYP6B1. Rutaceae-feeding is widely distributed within the genus Papilio (5) and it is possible that P. polyxenes, P. brevicauda, P. cresphontes, and P. glaucus shared a common Rutaceae-feeding ancestor in which CYP6B1 arose in response to the presence of xanthotoxin or other furanocoumarins in host foliage. It has also been argued (30) that Rutaceae-feeding arose independently in the three sections of Papilio (II, III, and IV) in which these species are placed. If so, the crossreactive P-450s in these species may be descended from a common ancestral P-450 predisposed toward xanthotoxin metabolism because of its original specificity against structurally related compounds. This shared ancestral P-450 probably arose after P. polyxenes, P. brevicauda, P. cresphontes, and P. glaucus diverged from B. philenor and E. marcellus; it may have been secondarily lost from P. troilus.

The results in Fig. 2 must be interpreted cautiously, however, for at least two reasons. The first is the confounding effect of phylogenetic distance. The mRNAs from P. cresphontes may crossreact more strongly with CYP6B1 than do mRNAs from B. philenor, for example, simply because of the more recent divergence of P. polyxenes and P. cresphontes, rather than because these two species feed on furanocoumarin-producing plants, while B. philenor does not. The second reason for caution is the large and complex nature of the cytochrome P-450 gene superfamily. P-450s similar in function may differ greatly in overall sequence, while by contrast a single amino acid difference between two P-450s may result in great differences in substrate specificity (31). Molecular cloning of the crossreactive cDNAs from P. cresphontes and P. glaucus, followed by sequencing and analysis of their substrate specificity, will clarify the relationship of these P-450s to CYP6B1 and, we hope, ultimately add to our understanding of the interaction between P-450 evolution and colonization of new host plants. The search for and characterization of cytosolic receptors for furanocoumarins or other plant secondary compounds are also of great interest because of the role played by these proteins in the induction of some P-450 genes (22).

The evolution of P-450s specialized to metabolize host plant compounds also has implications for improved control of herbivorous insect pests. If selective inhibitors (32) for P-450s such as CYP6B1 can be developed, then oligophagous insects like P. polyxenes could be rendered susceptible to toxins already present in their hosts, possibly without effects on nontarget organisms. Such inhibitors would be of enhanced value if they were effective against several pests of a given plant species. We are consequently interested in characterizing xanthotoxin-metabolizing P-450s from D. pastinacella, an oligophagous species that shares with P. polyxenes wild parsnip as a host plant but that is only a distantly related member of the same order, Lepidoptera. There is weak crossreactivity between CYP6B1 and mRNAs of ≈ 1.6 kb from D. pastinacella, although these do not appear to be xanthotoxin induced (Fig. 2B). The overall sequence similarity between CYP6B1 and xanthotoxin-metabolizing P-450s from D. pastinacella will probably be low, but analysis of these P-450s and possible xanthotoxin receptors may reveal shared features that may serve as targets for common inhibitors.

We thank Drs. J. Willis, H. Robertson, B. Kemper, and M. Snyder for advice and comments, and E. MacLeod for collecting specimens of *P. brevicauda*. This research was supported by a Biotechnology Research and Development Corporation grant to M.R.B. and M.A.S., and by National Science Foundation Grants BSR 88-18205 to M.R.B. and A. Zangerl and DCB 87-16239 to M.A.S.

- Nebert, D. W. & Gonzalez, F. J. (1987) Annu. Rev. Biochem. 56, 945–993.
- Ahmad, S., Brattsten, L. B., Mullin, C. A. & Yu, S. J. (1986) in *Molecular Aspects of Insect-Plant Interactions*, eds. Brattsten, L. B. & Ahmad, S. (Plenum, New York), pp. 73-151.
- 3. Nelson, D. R. & Strobel, H. W. (1987) Mol. Biol. Evol. 4, 572-593.
- 4. Gonzalez, F. J. & Nebert, D. W. (1990) Trends Genet. 6, 182-186.
- Scriber, J. M. (1984) Tokurana (Acta Rhopalocerologica) 6/7, 1-50.
- 6. Murray, R. D. M., Mendez, J. & Brown, S. A. (1982) The Natural Coumarins (Wiley, New York).
- Yajima, T., Kato, N, & Munakata, K. (1977) Agric. Biol. Chem. 41, 1263-1268.
- 8. Berenbaum, M. (1978) Science 201, 532-534.
- Berenbaum, M. & Neal, J. J. (1985) J. Chem. Ecol. 11, 1349– 1358.
- Ivie, G. W., Bull, D. L., Beier, R. C., Pryor, N. W. & Oertli, E. H. (1983) Science 221, 374–376.
- 11. Bull, D. L., Ivie, G. W., Beier, R. C. & Pryor, N. W. (1986) J. Chem. Ecol. 12, 885–892.
- 12. Nitao, J. K. (1989) Ecology 70, 629-635.
- Cohen, M. B., Berenbaum, M. R. & Schuler, M. A. (1989) J. Chem. Ecol. 15, 2347–2355.
- Cohen, M. B., Berenbaum, M. R. & Schuler, M. A. (1990) Insect Biochem. 20, 777-783.
- Scriber, J. M., Lederhouse, R. C. & Hagen, R. H. (1991) in *Plant-Animal Interactions: Evolutionary Ecology in Tropical and Temperate Regions*, eds. Price, P. W., Lewinsohn, T. M., Fernandes, G. W. & Benson, W. W. (Wiley, New York), pp. 341-373.
- 16. Tietz, H. M. (1972) An Index to the Described Life Histories, Early Stages and Hosts of the Macrolepidoptera of the Con-

tinental United States and Canada (Allyn Entomological Museum, Sarasota, FL).

- Nitao, J. K. & Berenbaum, M. R. (1988) Ann. Entomol. Soc. Am. 81, 485-487.
- Lee, C. C. & Caskey, C. T. (1990) in PCR Protocols: A Guide to Methods and Applications, eds. Gelfand, M. A., Sainsky, J. J. & Thomas, J. W. (Academic, New York), pp. 46-53.
- Sambrook, J., Fritsch, E. F. & Maniatis, T. (1989) Molecular Cloning: A Laboratory Manual (Cold Spring Harbor Lab., Cold Spring Harbor, NY), 2nd Ed. pp. 7.43-7.45.
- Fyrberg, E. A., Kindle, K. L., Davidson, N. & Sodja, A. (1980) Cell 19, 365-378.
- Sambrook, J., Fritsch, E. F. & Maniatis, T. (1989) Molecular Cloning: A Laboratory Manual (Cold Spring Harbor Lab., Cold Spring Harbor, NY), 2nd Ed. p. 9.51.
- 22. Gonzalez, F. J. (1989) Pharmacol. Rev. 40, 243-288.
- 23. Zangerl, A. R. (1990) Ecology 71, 1926-1932.
- Feyereisen, R., Koener, J. F., Farnsworth, D. E. & Nebert, D. W. (1989) Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA 86, 1465-1469.
- 25. Miller, J. S. (1987) Bull. Am. Mus. Nat. Hist. 186, 365-512.
- 26. Munroe, E. (1961) Can. Entomol. Suppl. 17, 1-51.
- 27. Hissong, M. A. (1991) M.S. thesis (University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign).
- 28. Sperling, F. A. H. (1987) Quaestiones Entomologicae 23, 198-315.
- Nebert, D. W., Nelson, D. R., Coon, M. J., Estabrook, R. W., Feyereisen, R., Fujii-Kuriyama, Y., Gonzalez, F. J., Guengerich, F. P., Gunsalus, I. C., Johnson, E. F., Loper, J. C., Sato, R., Waterman, M. R. & Waxman, D. J. (1991) DNA Cell Biol. 10, 1-14.
- 30. Miller, J. S. (1987) Cladistics 3, 105-120.
- Johnson, E. F., Kronbach, T. & Hsu, M.-H. (1992) FASEB J. 6, 700-710.
- Ortiz de Montellano, P. R. & Reich, N. O. (1986) in Cytochrome P-450: Structure, Mechanism, and Biochemistry, ed. Ortiz de Montellano, P. R. (Plenum, New York), pp. 273-314.

¹⁰⁹²⁴ Biochemistry: Cohen et al.