

Using Gene-History and Expression Analyses to Assess the Involvement of *LGI* Genes in Human Disorders

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Mutations in the leucine-rich, glioma-inactivated 1 gene, *LGII*, cause autosomal-dominant lateral temporal lobe epilepsy via unknown mechanisms. *LGII* belongs to a subfamily of leucine-rich repeat genes comprising four members (*LGII–LGIV*) in mammals. In this study, both comparative developmental as well as molecular evolutionary methods were applied to investigate the evolution of the *LGI* gene family and, subsequently, of the functional importance of its different gene members. Our phylogenetic studies suggest that *LGI* genes evolved early in the vertebrate lineage. Genetic and expression analyses of all five zebrafish *lgi* genes revealed duplications of *lgi1* and *lgi2*, each resulting in two paralogous gene copies with mostly nonoverlapping expression patterns. Furthermore, all vertebrate *LGII* orthologs experience high levels of purifying selection that argue for an essential role of this gene in neural development or function. The approach of combining expression and selection data used here exemplarily demonstrates that in poorly characterized gene families a framework of evolutionary and expression analyses can identify those genes that are functionally most important and are therefore prime candidates for human disorders.

Introduction

The final annotation of the human genome has identified many new gene families. When one member of a gene family is identified to be related to a human disease, other members of the gene family are often considered as candidate genes for similar disorders. However, the evaluation of each single gene is often both costly and time consuming. The progress in different genome databases offers the possibility to identify orthologs of human genes in a number of other organisms and to study the evolution of these genes.

The zebrafish is increasingly used to model human development and disease (Zon 1999; Dooley and Zon 2000). The physiological functions and expression patterns of many orthologous genes between zebrafish and humans have been conserved to various degrees such that mutants and knockdowns of the zebrafish orthologs of human disease genes have established models for a wide spectrum of human phenotypes (Zon and Peterson 2005).

A number of mutations in the human *LGII* gene have been shown to cause autosomal-dominant lateral temporal lobe epilepsy (ADLTE), a rare idiopathic epilepsy (Gu, Brodtkorb, and Steinlein 2002; Kalachikov et al. 2002; Morante-Redolat et al. 2002). Idiopathic epilepsies are those in which a symptomatic background is neither detected nor suspected, but a genetic etiology is likely or proven. Most idiopathic epilepsies are caused by ion channel mutations, implicating an etiology based on imbalances in synaptic transmission or neuronal excitability (Steinlein 2004). Surprisingly, *LGII* does not appear to encode an ion channel (Kalachikov et al. 2002), thus the disease mechanisms of the *LGII* mutations remain unknown and may open a new aspect of epilepsy pathogenesis. Additionally,

LGII is considered as a possible new member of the emerging subfamily of tumor suppressor genes referred to as “metastasis suppressors” (Kunapuli et al. 2004): a number of glioma cell lines and malignant brain tumors show a strong reduction of *LGII* expression (Chernova, Somerville, and Cowell 1998; Krex et al. 2002; Besleaga et al. 2003), while, conversely, forced expression of *LGII* in glioma cells lacking endogenous *LGII* expression inhibits their proliferation and invasiveness (Kunapuli et al. 2004).

Previously we cloned three additional members of the human *LGI* gene family, *LGII–4* (Gu et al. 2002). The human *LGI* proteins share 65%–75% sequence identity with each other, and all contain 4.5 leucine-rich repeats (LRR) in the N-terminal part and seven epitempin (EPTP) repeats in the C-terminal part. LRRs have been suggested to participate in protein-protein interactions (Kajava 1998; Kobe and Kajava 2001). The EPTP repeats were identified in only two other genes, including *MASS1/VLGR1*, which is mutated in a mouse model for epilepsy (Skradski et al. 2001; Gibert et al. 2005). The genomic localizations of human *LGII–4* overlap with candidate regions for several other epilepsy syndromes and malignancies, *LGII–4* therefore being considered as candidate genes for these disorders.

Several studies on the evolutionary pressures acting on disease-related genes have equivocally suggested that purifying selection is indicative of essential (disease-related) genes (e.g., Yang, Gu, and Li 2003). Using the leucine-rich, glioma-inactivated (*LGI*) gene family as a model, we tested the usefulness of an integrated framework of evolutionary and expression analyses to make a prediction of which *LGI* gene members are most likely related to human disorders and which should therefore be given preference in candidate gene evaluation. We screened sequence databases of different organisms for previously undiscovered *LGI* orthologs and analyzed the expression of all five *lgi* genes in zebrafish embryos and adult brains. Moreover, we compared the expression patterns and genomic localizations to study the evolutionary history and determined the force and type of natural selection acting on the *LGI* gene family.

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Key words: *LGII*, zebrafish, epilepsy, phylogeny, expression pattern, purifying selection.

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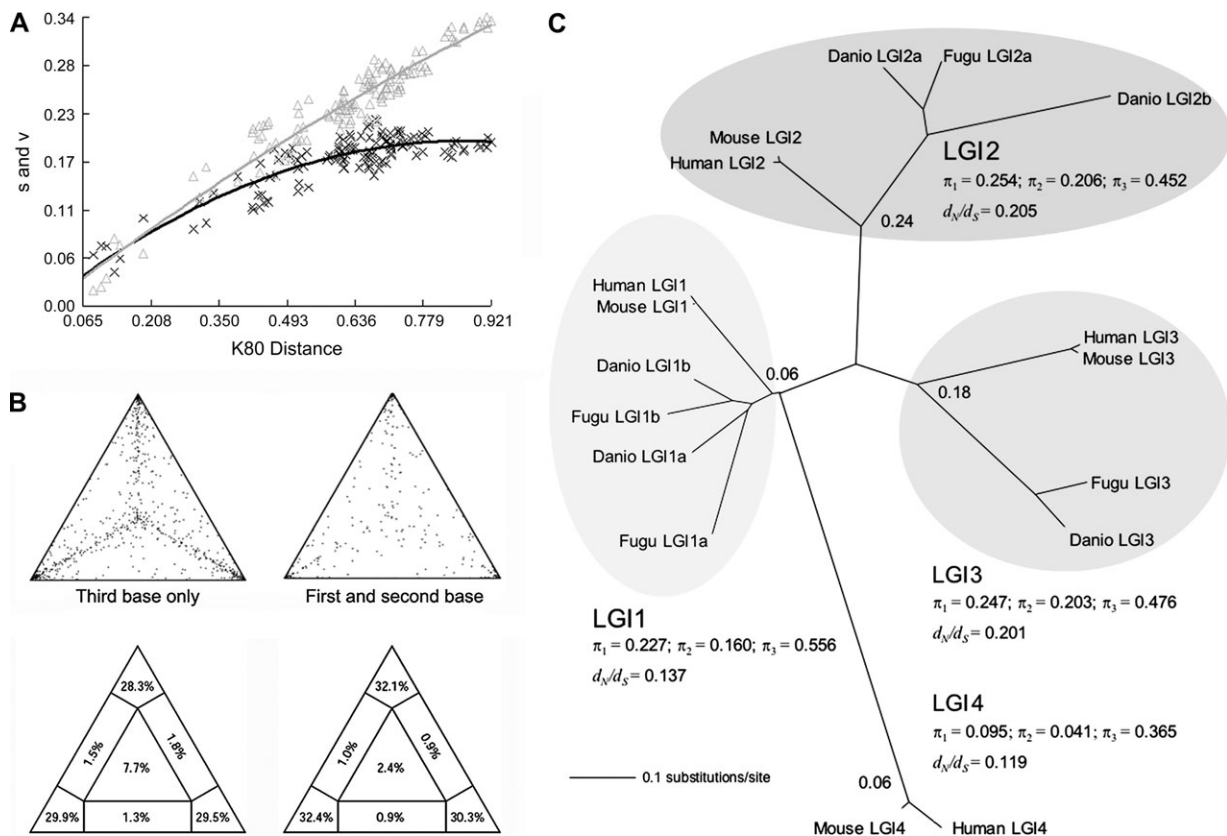


FIG. 1.—Phylogenetic relationships of amniote and fish *LGI* genes. (A) Transition (black crosses) and transversion (gray triangles) versus divergence plots for the *LGI* data set. The estimated number of transitions and transversions for each pairwise comparison is plotted against the genetic distance calculated with the K80 distance. A clear transition saturation appears for genetic distances greater than 0.5. (B) Likelihood mapping analysis for the *LGI* data set. The occupancy in the seven areas of attraction is indicated. (C) Unrooted phylogeny of the *LGI* subfamilies. Branch lengths are drawn in proportion to the expected number of nucleotide substitutions per codon. ML estimates of the branches were obtained using a partition of the data set into four entities, which assumes an independent ω ratio (d_N/d_S) for each *LGI* subfamily. Estimates of the ω ratios under that model are shown for each *LGI* subfamily. Standard proportions of nonsynonymous substitutions per nonsynonymous site (d_N) and synonymous substitutions per synonymous sites (d_S) between homologous *LGI* copies (four families) are indicated (Kumar method, MEGA) as nucleotide diversity in all three codon positions.

Materials and Methods

Fish Stocks, Sequence Data and Phylogenetic Analyses, Mapping and Syntenic Analyses

The data are available in the Supplementary Materials and Methods section.

In Situ Hybridization and Photography

Whole-mount in situ hybridization of zebrafish embryos were performed as previously described (Begemann et al. 2002). To prevent melanization in larvae older than 30 hours post fertilization (hpf), embryos were exposed to 0.2 mM 1-phenyl-2-thiourea. Embryos were mounted in 70% glycerol and examined with a Zeiss Axiophot microscope. Images were processed using Zeiss Axiovision and Adobe Photoshop software.

Results

Identification of Nonhuman *LGI* Genes and Cloning of Zebrafish Orthologs

To search for orthologs of the human *LGI* genes in other species, we performed Blast searches in different species

whose genomes are fully or partially available. Whereas orthologs were identified in chimpanzee (*Pan troglodytes*), chicken (*Gallus gallus*), zebrafish (*Danio rerio*), and puffer fish (*Takifugu rubripes*, *Tetraodon nigroviridis*) genomes, no *LGI* orthologs could be identified from the invertebrate genomes of nematode (*Caenorhabditis elegans*), the fruitfly (*Drosophila melanogaster*), and the ascidian *Ciona intestinalis* (Table S1, Supplementary Material online). With the exception of the puffer fish genes, all putative *LGI* homologs were also identified in expressed sequence tag (EST) databases and hence can be considered to be transcribed in vivo.

Phylogeny of the *LGI* Gene Family

Based on the alignments of all retrieved genes, we constructed a phylogeny of the *LGI* gene family (fig. 1). In the absence of *LGI* sequence data from suitable non-vertebrate out-groups and due to the lack of related vertebrate genes with considerable sequence similarity, the tree is unrooted. Tree topologies for nucleotides in first and second codon positions and amino acids are identical and allow an unambiguous assignment of orthologous relationships between fish and mammalian genes. The tree

Table 1
Identified Homologs of Human *LGI* Genes

Gene	Closest Flanking Marker	Chromosome (RH panel)	Ensembl Map Position (Zv4-scaffold Number)
<i>lgi1a</i>	3.67 cR from Z5643	Chr. 13 (LN54)	N/A (NA16905, NA9673)
<i>lgi1b</i>	3 cR from Z6920	Chr. 12 (T51)	Chr. 12 (1018)
<i>lgi2a</i>	Not very strong mapping	N/A	Chr. 9 (825)
<i>lgi2b</i>	20.70 cR from Z23059	Chr. 1 (LN54)	Chr. 2 ^a (124.14)
<i>lgi3</i>	Not very strong mapping	N/A	Chr. 8 (756)

^a Zv4_scaffold124.14 is wrongly placed on chromosome 2, as the BAC ends of this region align with clones mapped in ctg85 in chromosome 1 (M. Caccamo, Wellcome Trust Sanger Institute); Abbreviations: N/A, not available; BAC, bacterial artificial chromosome; and Chr., chromosome.

topology suggests that the vertebrate genes *LGII* and *LG14* originate from one common precursor gene and *LG12* and *LG13* from another one. Moreover, in zebrafish and both puffer fish, there are two paralogous *lgi* genes (*lgi1a* and *lgi1b*) that evidently originated after the split of the lineages leading to teleosts and mammals. Similarly, there are two paralogous *lgi2* genes (*lgi2a* and *lgi2b*) in zebrafish, and the tree indicates that *lgi2b* was lost in the puffer fish. We also identified a single teleost ortholog of *lgi3*, whereas orthologs of *LG14* were not present in the almost finished zebrafish and puffer fish genomes or in fish EST databases.

Syntenic Relationships Between Zebrafish and Human *LGI* Genes

All five zebrafish *lgi* genes map to different chromosomes, suggesting that none of them arose by tandem duplication (table 1). Based upon the mapped genes surrounding both zebrafish and human *lgi* genes, we determined whether the human and fish *LGI* loci exhibit conserved synteny (fig. 2). The zebrafish *lgi1a* and *lgi1b* genes map to chromosomes 13 and 12, respectively, which have been shown to share other paralogous gene pairs, including the annexins *anxa11a/b* (Farber et al. 2003) and paired box genes *pax2a/b* (Woods et al. 2000). The human ortholog of these genes maps to 10q23–24, and we found conserved synteny between zebrafish *lgi1b* and human

LGII at the level of local gene order. Within a region of approximately 160 kb both *lgi1b* and *LGII* are flanked by genes for *phosphodiesterase 6C* (*PDE6C*) and *retinol binding protein 4* (*RBP4*). The putative orthologs of several genes like the *early growth response gene 2* (*EGR2*) or the *fibroblast growth factor gene 8* (*FGF8*) flanking human *LGII* more distally were found at greater distances from *lgi1b* and *lgi1a*, respectively. The lack of supercontigs containing *lgi1a* presently precludes a local synteny analysis of flanking genes. Taken together, the phylogeny and syntenic relationships of the *LGII* orthologs strongly suggest that zebrafish *lgi1a* and *lgi1b* are paralogs that arose during duplication events involving larger chromosomal regions.

Zebrafish *lgi2a* and *lgi2b* map to chromosomes 9 and 1, respectively, which also harbor paralogous genes of *engrailed* (*eng1a*, *eng1b*) and *distal-less homeobox* (*dlx2a*, *dlx2b*) (Taylor et al. 2003). Moreover, we identified several genes close to *LG12* on human chromosome 4 with putative orthologs on zebrafish chromosome 1 (fig. 2), including *superoxide dismutase 3* (*SOD3*) and *cholecystokinin type A receptor* (*CCK-AR*). Together with the phylogenetic topology of the gene tree (fig. 1C), these data establish that *lgi2a/b* are paralogs.

Finally, human and zebrafish *LG13* genes map to human and zebrafish chromosomes 8, together with orthologs of four other genes (fig. 2). Among them is the *SRC-like-adaptor* gene (*SLA*), which has a putative ortholog (*sla*), that is located within 60 kb of *lgi3*. We were unable

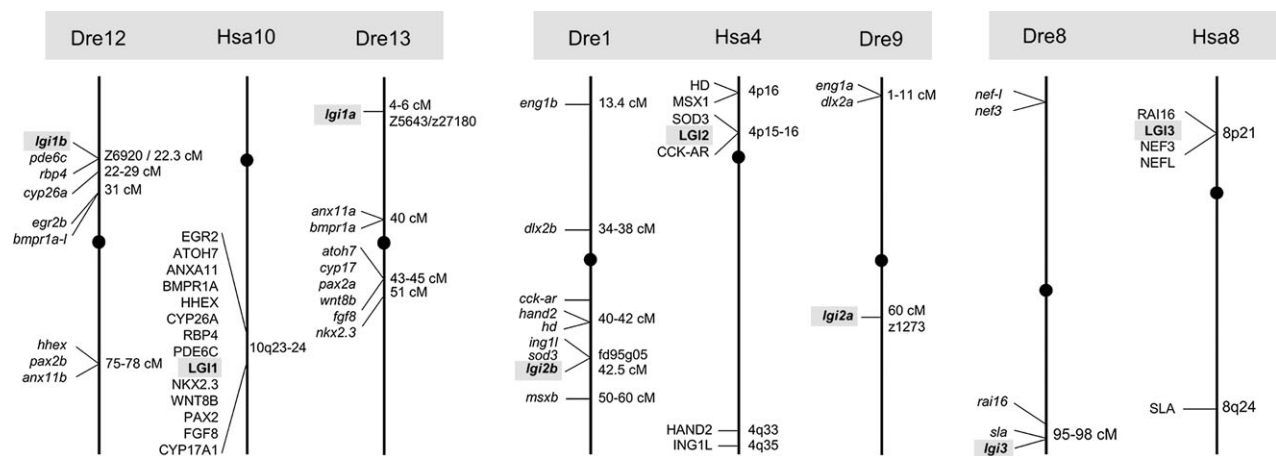


FIG. 2.—Syntenic relationships between human and zebrafish *lgi* genes. Genetic mapping of zebrafish *lgi* genes places *lgi1* paralogs on chromosomes 12 and 13. Orthologs of several other genes on these chromosomes are found close to human *LGII* on chromosome 10. *lgi2* paralogs map to zebrafish chromosomes 1 and 9; syntenic relationships are limited to *lgi2b* and *LG12* and neighboring genes on human chromosome 4. Orthologs of *lgi3* map to zebrafish and human chromosomes 8, together with further orthologous gene pairs.

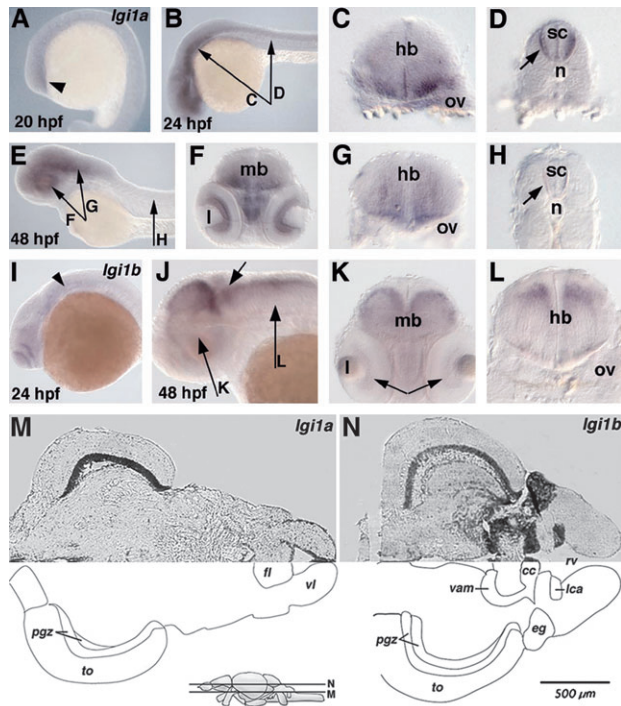


FIG. 3.—Expression of *lgi1* paralogs. Whole-mount in situ hybridization of *lgi1a* (A–H, M) and *lgi1b* (I–L, N). (A) *lgi1a* expression at 20 hpf in ventral forebrain (arrowhead). (B–D) Expression at 24 hpf in the developing eyes, in ventral midbrain and hindbrain, and in the peripheral spinal cord (arrow). (E–H) Expression at 48 hpf in the retinal ganglion cell layer of the eye, the midbrain, and ventral hindbrain; spinal cord expression remains visible (arrow). (I) *lgi1b* expression at 24 hpf in presumptive telencephalic and diencephalic bands and in paraxial cranial mesenchyme (arrowhead). (J) Expression at 48 hpf in the optic tectum, cerebellum, and cells descending from the lower rhombic lip (short arrow; long arrows indicate sections in K and L). (K, L) Transverse sections reveal expression in the dorsal midbrain, in the retinal ganglion cell layer, and in the dorsal hindbrain, underlying the rhombic lip. (M, N) In situ PCR expression analysis in adult brain. (M) *lgi1a* expression in the pgz of the optic tectum and in facial (fl) and vagal (vl) lobes, lining the rhombencephalic ventricle (rv). (N) *lgi1b* expression in the pgz and in the cerebellum (horizontal sections of dorsal mesencephalic and cerebellar regions; following the studies of Wullmann, Rupp, and Reichert [1996]); control sections hybridized to sense probe were unstained. Arrows in (B) and (E) indicate levels of cross sections. Other abbreviations: cc, corpus cerebelli; eg, eminentia granularis; fb, forebrain; hb, hindbrain; l, lens; lca, lobus caudalis cerebelli; mb, midbrain; n, notochord; ov, otic vesicle; sc, spinal cord; to, tectum opticum; vam, medial division of valvula cerebelli. (A, B, E, I, J) lateral views, (C, D, F–H, K, L) transverse sections.

to find syntenic clusters surrounding the *LG13* loci within a range of up to 1 Mb. This suggests that the gene orders on these chromosomes have been extensively rearranged since the split between mammals and teleosts.

Zebrafish *lgi* Gene Expression Patterns During Development and in Adult Brain

We examined the embryonic expression patterns of all zebrafish *lgi* genes by whole-mount in situ hybridization. Expression of *lgi1a* is first evident in the ventral diencephalon and at 24 hpf strong expression is observed in the developing eyes, in the ventral midbrain and hindbrain, and in the peripheral spinal cord (fig. 3A–D). By 48 hpf *lgi1a* is strongly expressed in the retinal ganglion cell layer, the

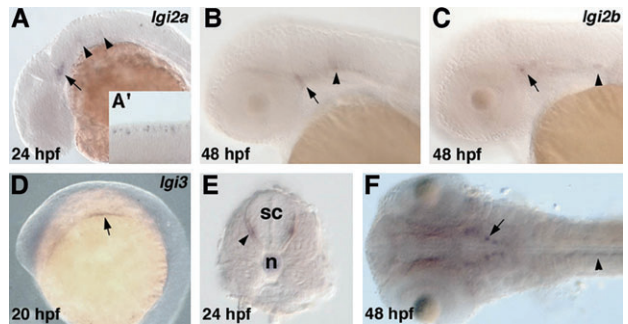


FIG. 4.—Expression of *lgi2* and *lgi3* genes. Whole-mount in situ hybridization of *lgi2a* (A, B), *lgi2b* (C), and *lgi3* (D–F). (A) *lgi2a* expression at 24 hpf in the trigeminal ganglia (arrow), in a few cells abutting the otic vesicles (arrowheads), and in dorsal spinal cord neurons (A'); (B) expression at 48 hpf in the trigeminal ganglia (arrow) and in a patch of cells anterior to the otic vesicle (arrowhead); (C) *lgi2b* expression at 48 hpf in the trigeminal ganglia (arrow) and in cells of unknown identity at the level of anterior-most somites (arrowhead); (D, E) *lgi3* expression at 20 hpf in head mesoderm and at 24 hpf in the peripheral spinal cord (E, arrowhead); and (F) Expression at 48 hpf in the ventral hindbrain (arrow) and in the peripheral spinal cord (arrowhead). Lateral views, except (E) transverse section, (F) dorsal view. Abbreviations: n, notochord and sc, spinal cord.

diencephalon, and along the ventral aspect of the hindbrain (fig. 3E–H). Notably, all *lgi1a* expression domains are in neural tissues. *lgi1b* is expressed at 24 hpf in presumptive telencephalic and diencephalic bands and cranial paraxial mesenchyme. At 48 hpf, *lgi1b* transcripts are detected in the optic tectum, the cerebellum, and in the zone of migrating neurons that originated in the rhombic lip. Expression is further observed in the dorsal thalamus and in the retinal ganglion cell layers (fig. 3J–L). Overall, *lgi1a* expression is predominant in ventral parts of the mid- and hindbrain, while *lgi1b* is more dorsally restricted in this region. In situ polymerase chain reactions (PCRs) on adult transversal brain sections (fig. 3M and N) show that *lgi1a* and *lgi1b* are expressed in the outer layer of the periventricular gray zone (pgz) of the optic tectum, an area rich in tectal neurons. *lgi1b*, in addition, is strongly expressed in the cerebellum. Both genes colocalize with nuclear areas of ganglion cells. At this level of resolution we could not detect expression in adult brain glial cells. In contrast, expression of both *lgi2* paralogs is generally restricted to a few cells of putative ectodermal origin during embryogenesis. Both genes are expressed in trigeminal ganglion cells and in a few cells in the posterior head (fig. 4A–C). More prominently, *lgi2a* is transiently detectable in dorsal spinal cord neurons. Finally, *lgi3* is expressed in cranial mesodermal cells and in a few cells on each side of the otic vesicle (fig. 4D and not shown). *lgi3* appears to be coexpressed with *lgi1a* in the peripheral spinal cord in 1- and 2-day-old embryos and is detected in a reiterated symmetrical pattern of cells in the ventral hindbrain (fig. 4E and F).

Different Types of Selection Among Family Lineages of *LG1* Genes

To test for possible differences in evolution rates after the duplication events or during the course of subfunctionalisation, we first tested for the possibility that the data set has already lost phylogenetic information due to

accumulation of mutations and the resulting saturation. Plotting of transition and transversion rates as a function of genetic distances suggested that transitions have reached saturation (fig. 1A).

We therefore applied additional statistics in order to measure substitution saturation at first, second, and third codon positions separately using the Xia index (Xia et al. 2003). This index allows us to judge whether a set of aligned sequences is useful in phylogenetics or not. The index of substitution saturation is defined as $I_{SS} = H/H_{FSS}$. When I_{SS} approaches 1, the sequences experienced severe substitution saturation. However, this is only useful in theory because phylogenetic reconstructions will fail to recover the true tree long before the full substitution saturation is reached. Therefore, another parameter $I_{SS,C}$ has to be computed at which the sequences will begin to fail to recover the true phylogeny. Once $I_{SS,C}$ is known for a set of data, we can infer the I_{SS} value from the sequences and compare it to $I_{SS,C}$. If I_{SS} is not smaller than $I_{SS,C}$, we can conclude that saturation will interfere with phylogenetic analyses. For the third codon position of the *LGI* coding sequences, the observed I_{SS} value of 0.913 is significantly larger than the $I_{SS,C}$ value of 0.723 (95% confidence interval, $0.844 < I_{SS} < 0.981$). Thus, $I_{SS} > I_{SS,C}$ and the third bases are of limited value for phylogenetic reconstruction. In contrast, first and second codon positions showed an I_{SS} value of 0.770 that is significantly larger than the I_{SS} value of 0.582, which confirmed that there is little saturation at these sites, indicating that reliable phylogenetic signal is contained in the first two codon positions. Also, maximum likelihood (ML) mapping confirmed that there is a sufficient amount of phylogenetic information, with 87.7% fully resolved quartets at third base and 94.8% fully resolved quartets at first and second bases (fig. 1B).

We next estimated the likelihood of the data under a unique ω ratio among all lineages. The log-likelihood under this model was $l_0 = -20,508.56$, with parameter estimates $k = 1.50$ and $\omega = 0.121$ (Table S2, Supplementary Material online). This ω ratio was an average over all sites and lineages. In a second step we tested if more complex models (with different selection pressure) among the *LGI* orthologs versus the other groups of *LGI* orthologs are more likely (see Supplementary Materials and Methods). This was in fact the case and the likelihood value under the H_1 model was $l_1 = -20,449.06$. Comparison of the $2\Delta l = 2(l_1 - l_0) = 2 \times 59.5 = 119$ with the $\chi^2_{1\%} = 6.63$ suggests rejection of the one ratio model. The partitioning of the selection pressure into four categories, one for each *LGI* gene (fig. 1C), was the model which best fit the data (Table S2, Supplementary Material online). Estimates of the ω ratios (Table S2, Supplementary Material online) determined that the selection pressure differs among the four *LGI* genes. *LGII* and *LG14* are under very strong negative selection, whereas the *LG12* and *LG13* genes, although being under purifying selection, seem to be under more relaxed selection pressure.

Variation in Selective Pressure Across Codon Sites

Parameter estimates and log-likelihood values under models of variable ω among sites are presented in Table S3

(Supplementary Material online). Model M0 poorly fits the data when compared to model M3. The latter model involves four more parameters than M0, and the likelihood ratio test (LRT) statistic $2\Delta l = 1,061.66$ is much greater than the critical $\chi^2_{1\%} = 13.28$ with $df = 4$. The results suggest variation in selective pressure among amino acid sites. Moreover, all three models that allow for the presence of sites under selection, i.e., M2 (selection), M3 (discrete), and M8 (β and ω) better fit the data than alternative models that do not allow for selection (Table S3, Supplementary Material online). A striking feature under the “selection” models is that all sites seem to be under purifying selection, and no single site under positive selection was detected. Posterior probabilities for site classes calculated under M3 (discrete) are plotted in Figure S1 (Supplementary Material online). Six out of 10 amino acids mutated in human ADLTE exhibit high selection pressure, an observation which is in agreement with the role these mutations are assumed to play in the pathogenesis of this rare epilepsy.

ML estimation suggests that the three site classes are in proportions $P_0 = 0.334$, $P_1 = 0.479$, and $P_2 = 0.188$, with the ratios $\omega_0 = 0.016$, $\omega_1 = 0.129$, and $\omega_2 = 0.399$, respectively. (Table S3, Supplementary Material online). Those proportions correspond to the prior probabilities that any site belongs to each of the three classes. For example, the posterior probabilities for site 5 (L) are 0.000, 0.006, and 0.994, and this site is therefore under purifying selection, though belonging to the lower constraint class. The probabilities for site 42 (C) are 0.990, 0.001, and 0.000, showing that this position is extremely constrained and under very strong purifying selection ($\omega = 0.016$). The results obtained from models M2 (selection) and M8 (β and ω) were similar (data not presented). The only clear pattern obtained from the posterior probabilities for site classes with different selection pressures for amino acid sites along the *LGI* sequences is a 40-aa-long stretch under moderate negative selection at the N-termini. The rest of the molecule seems to be more constrained (Fig. S1, Supplementary Material online).

Discussion

Evolution of the *LGI* Gene Family

Our analyses demonstrate that orthologs of the *LGI* gene family are absent from invertebrate genomes, as far as their sequences are currently available, and therefore suggest that the *LGI* gene family originated in the evolutionary lineage leading to the vertebrates. Our finding that all zebrafish *lgi* genes are predominantly expressed in tissues of neural origin suggests that this gene family may have been involved in the evolution of the vertebrate brain. Phylogenetic relationships and topology of the four mammalian *LGI* family members (fig. 1C) indicate an origin of the gene family through two rounds of gene or genome duplications. In this scenario, each of the two gene pairs *LGII/LG14* and *LG12/LG13* had one ancestral precursor gene. These two ancestral genes themselves may have arisen from a common “proto-*LGI*” gene. The fact that mammalian genomes have evolved by a diversity of duplication events, which probably included two complete genome duplications early during vertebrate evolution (Lynch and Conery

2000; Wang and Gu 2000; Wolfe 2001; Samonte and Eichler 2002; Jaillon et al. 2004), supports this interpretation of *LGI* gene family evolution. Irrespective of the mechanism, we predict that a single *LGI* homolog is present at the root of the vertebrate lineage, the ortholog of which may await identification in urochordates or cephalochordates (e.g., *Amphioxus*).

In actinopterygians (ray-finned fish), which have undergone an additional genome duplication (Amores et al. 1998; Taylor et al. 2003; Jaillon et al. 2004; Postlethwait et al. 2004; Vandepoele et al. 2004), two pairs of paralogous *lgi1a/b* and *lgi2a/b* genes are found. We were able to establish the orthologous relationships between the four mammalian and five zebrafish *LGI* genes, which suggest duplications of *LGII* and *LG12* genes. The loss of one copy of *lgi3* has to be postulated if the duplication of *LGI* genes is indeed due to the additional genome duplication in actinopterygians. The branch lengths of the fish *lgi2* genes are larger than those of mammals, which we interpret as a sign of accelerated rates of evolution within this subfamily, and particularly for *lgi2b*. Because this gene has been lost in the lineage leading to the puffer fish, it might have been functionally redundant after the duplication event. Its persistence in zebrafish thus suggests that *Lgi2b* may have acquired a novel function in zebrafish.

LG14 appears to be absent from zebrafish and puffer fish. The most probable scenario is that *LG14* was lost in the lineage leading to the ray-finned fish. In the human and mouse genomes, *LG14* is flanked by two *FXYD* domain containing ion transport regulator genes, *FXYD1* and *FXYD3*, at the 5' and 3' ends, respectively. Interestingly, the putative zebrafish ortholog of *FXYD1* (*fi25c12*) maps to chromosome 15 (Zv4_scaffold1327.1), while the fish ortholog of *FXYD3* is present on chromosome 16. Thus the absence of *LG14* orthologs in the zebrafish and puffer fish may be explained by a high degree of genome rearrangements entailing degeneration or deletion of the *LG14* locus since the split of the ray-finned and lobe-finned fish lineages. Alternatively, *LG14* may have originated from a duplication of *LGII* in the lineage leading to the sarcopterygians (lobe-finned fish) and also the mammals. Unfortunately, it is not possible to date duplication events within the *LGI* family because third codon positions have reached saturation and remaining codon positions are under selection pressure.

Expression of Duplicated Zebrafish *LGI* Genes Suggests Subfunctionalization

The knowledge of embryonic gene expression patterns can shed light on the developmental processes linked to *LGI* gene activity. The two zebrafish *LGII* orthologs are expressed in partly complementary patterns. For example, *lgi1a* and *lgi1b* are expressed in nonoverlapping domains in ventral and dorsal parts of the fore-, mid-, and hindbrain, respectively (fig. 3). This finding suggests partitioning of the original regulatory elements, followed by subsequent degenerative changes in both duplicates. This model of subfunctionalisation after duplication is known as the Duplication-Degeneration-Complementation model (Force et al. 1999), in which the combined expression patterns of the paralogous genes reconstitute the expression pattern of the original. The *lgi1* paralogs

also share common sites of gene expression, indicating that they may act in a redundant fashion in these areas. Similar to the situation in the mouse brain (Kalachikov et al. 2002) zebrafish *lgi1* gene expression in the adult brain is associated with dense packings of neurons (fig. 3*O* and *P*), while evidence for glial expression could not be found.

Expression of the remaining mammalian *LGI* genes had so far only been studied by semiquantitative PCR methods in adult mice (Nagase, Kikuno, and Ohara 2001; Gu et al. 2002; Runkel, Michels, and Franz 2003). Zebrafish *lgi2a* and *lgi2b* transcripts are restricted to a few cells only with coexpression being restricted to the trigeminal ganglia. Moreover, they are predominantly, if not exclusively, expressed in neural tissues. *lgi3* appears to be coexpressed with *lgi1a* in the spinal cord and is expressed in the ventral hindbrain, although in a different pattern than *lgi1a*. Remarkably, *lgi3* is expressed in the developing heart and is thus the only zebrafish *LGI* homolog clearly expressed outside of neural tissues.

Without current knowledge of mutant phenotypes, the precise function of *LGI* genes in the embryo remains uncertain. It is interesting to note that *LGI* genes, particularly *LGII*, are predominantly expressed in neural tissue. The LRRs present in *LGI* proteins have highest similarity to those found in the Slit protein family, which is involved in growth cone and neuronal guidance, and in Trk, a protein family thought to bind nerve growth factors and neurotrophins (reviewed in Kalachikov et al. 2002). Based upon the strong expression of *lgi1b* in cells underneath, and possibly derived from the rhombic lip, *lgi1b* is likely to play a role in neuronal cells migrating out of the proliferative zone in the lower rhombic lip toward their final location in the ventroanterior hindbrain (Koster and Fraser 2001).

Enhanced Purifying Selection in the *LGII* Gene Family

Wilson, Carlson, and White (1977) pioneered the idea that proteins with essential functions evolve more slowly, possibly due to stronger purifying selection. By comparing two genomes, several studies have indeed found either weak (Yang, Gu, and Li 2003) or strong (Hirsh and Fraser 2001, 2003; Jordan et al. 2002; Castillo-Davis and Hartl 2003; Wall et al. 2005; Zhang and He 2005) correlation between essential (disease-related) genes and rate of evolution. However, purifying selection is not unequivocally accepted by some as the reason for this correlation (Hurst and Smith 1999), and a few studies have identified other parameters that play either additional or more important roles in protein evolution, including overall gene expression rate and number of paralogs (Pal, Papp, and Hurst 2003; Yang, Gu, and Li 2003; Rocha and Danchin 2004). A recent paper that uses more sophisticated analytical methods concludes that "the correlation between gene dispensability and evolutionary rate, although low, is highly significant" (Zhang and He 2005). In particular, Thomas et al. (2003) have shown that cancer-related genes experience significantly stronger purifying selection than other disease genes and nondisease genes, as indicated by K_A/K_S values over the entire sequence of orthologous proteins. However, it is possible that such a comparably unrefined method to calculate evolutionary pressure results in

an underestimate of disease genes under purifying selection. More sophisticated models, in which functional subdomains of proteins or even single amino acids are scanned rather than the entire protein, may reveal purifying selection that may be masked by a majority of neutral mutations in less important domains.

We therefore tested vertebrate *LGI* genes from mammals and teleosts for signs of natural positive or negative selection in coding regions at the level of individual amino acids. Interestingly, *LGII* and *LGI4* orthologs show evidence for strong negative natural selection (purifying selection), while the remaining groups of *LGI* orthologs exhibited rather moderate signs of negative selection pressure (see ω values, fig. 1C). Purifying selection is the form of natural selection that acts to eliminate selectively deleterious replacement mutations. In this sense, it might counteract mutations that have deleterious effects on protein function. Using the PAML software (Yang 1997) we assigned three classes of selection pressure within the *LGI* proteins, including two classes of highly conserved and constrained residues and one class of more relaxed residues (Fig. S1, Supplementary Material online). By performing a chi-square test, using the Statistica software, we found that ADLTE mutations predominantly occurred in the most constrained sites rather than being randomly dispersed within the protein ($\chi^2_2 = 6.083$; $P < 0.05$).

Expression and selection data demonstrate that *LGII* and its orthologs differ from *LGI2* and *LGI3*. Unfortunately, a clear statement for *LGI4* is not possible, as the gene is absent in fish and no embryonic expression data are available to date in any other model organism. We have shown that gene expression between paralogous zebrafish *lgi* genes differs quite remarkably, which is in agreement with observations from a large number of duplicated genes (e.g., Huminiecki and Wolfe 2004; Rastogi and Liberles 2005). In contrast, when truly orthologous genes are compared between species, their expression patterns can show a considerable degree of conservation.

The expression of *LGI* genes in mammalian embryos has not yet been examined. To address the point if *lgi* expression patterns are conserved between zebrafish and mouse, we have compared *lgi* expression between the adult zebrafish and mouse brains (Kalachikov et al. 2002) and at this level of resolution do find clear similarities in *lgi* expression between both species. The high expression of the *lgi* genes in zebrafish CNS and high levels of purifying selection among the *LGII* genes in vertebrates argue for an essential role of this gene in developmental or physiological processes of the brain. Our data therefore show that mutations in *LGII* have a high a priori probability to be pathogenetic, a prediction which has already proven to be true. The neuronal expression of the remaining *LGI* genes is mostly restricted to a few cells, and, although under purifying selection, they are less constrained than *LGII* genes. However, because the expression patterns for mammalian *LGI2* and *LGI3* are not known and strong purifying selection was not detected for these genes, our results are of only limited value to predict or reject an involvement of these genes in diseases.

More generally, we propose that the approach outlined in this paper will be useful in selecting those genes from

a larger gene family for further functional characterization that can be expected to be indispensable. In an initial simple procedure, orthologous genes from different organismal groups would be identified and assayed for evolutionary pressures using the PAML software. An estimated ω ratio close to zero will be indicative of essential genes so that subsequent expression analyses can be targeted toward such disease candidates.

Supplementary Material

The Supplementary Data File which contains Supplementary Materials and Methods section, Supplementary Figure S1, Supplementary Tables S1–S5, and Supplementary References is available at *Molecular Biology and Evolution* online (<http://www.mbe.oxfordjournals.org/>).

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