

Noncanonical role of Hox14 revealed by its expression patterns in lamprey and shark

Shigehiro Kuraku^{*†‡}, Yoko Takio^{*}, Koji Tamura[§], Hideaki Aono[¶], Axel Meyer[†], and Shigeru Kuratani^{*}

^{*}Laboratory for Evolutionary Morphology, RIKEN Center for Developmental Biology, 2-2-3 Minatogima-minami, Chuo-ku, Kobe 650-0047, Japan; [†]Lehrstuhl für Zoologie und Evolutionsbiologie, Department of Biology, University of Konstanz, Universitätsstrasse 10, D-78457 Konstanz, Germany; [§]Department of Developmental Biology and Neurosciences, Graduate School of Life Sciences, Tohoku University, Aobayama Aoba-ku, Sendai 980-8578, Japan; and [¶]National Research Institute of Fisheries Science, 6-31-1 Nagai, Yokosuka, Kanagawa 238-0316, Japan

Edited by Masatoshi Nei, Pennsylvania State University, University Park, PA, and approved March 11, 2008 (received for review November 19, 2007)

Hox genes are arranged in uninterrupted clusters in vertebrate genomes, and the nested patterns of their expression define spatial identities in multiple embryonic tissues. The ancestral Hox cluster of vertebrates has long been thought to consist of, maximally, 13 Hox genes. However, recently, Hox14 genes were discovered in three chordate lineages, the coelacanth, cartilaginous fishes, and amphioxus, but their expression patterns have not yet been analyzed. We isolated Hox14 cDNAs from the Japanese lamprey and cloudy catshark. These genes were not expressed in the central nervous systems, somites, or fin buds/folds but were expressed in a restricted cell population surrounding the hindgut. The lack of Hox14 expression in most of the embryonic axial elements, where nested Hox expressions define spatial identities, suggests a decoupling of Hox14 genes' regulation from the ancestral regulatory mechanism. The relaxation of preexisting constraint for collinear expression may have permitted the secondary losses of this Hox member in the tetrapod and teleost lineages.

Hox-code | secondary gene loss | posterior Hox

The collinear expression of clustered *Hox* genes and their role in specifying regional identities along the anteroposterior embryonic axis in various metazoans are two of the most important discoveries in the field of evolutionary developmental biology (1, 2). All vertebrates surveyed so far have multiple *Hox* clusters (3), in which *Hox* genes located closer to the 3' end are expressed more anteriorly and earlier than those closer to the 5' end. This spatially as well as temporally collinear expression pattern of *Hox* genes (Hox-code; ref. 3) is found in the CNS, pharyngeal arches, digestive tract, and limb buds of the gnathostome (jawed vertebrate) embryos (4–6).

The ancestral vertebrate *Hox* gene cluster was thought to consist of 13 paralogous groups (Hox1–13) (7). This is consistent with the absence of any more paralogous group in mammals, birds, and teleosts. However, an additional gene, designated as Hox14, was found in the amphioxus genome between the Hox13 and *even-skipped* ortholog (*Evx*) (8). Recently, Hox14 genes were also found in an equivalent genomic location in the HoxA cluster of the coelacanth and in the HoxD cluster of the horn shark and the elephant fish (9, 10). These findings suggested that the ancestral *Hox* gene cluster of gnathostomes may have consisted of 14 *Hox* genes, not 13 as previously thought. Possession of Hox14 genes on different clusters between the coelacanth and the chondrichthyans (cartilaginous fishes) indicates that their origin antedates the cluster duplications (9, 11). All of the Hox14 genes reported so far have a unique intron in the homeodomain (8, 9), whereas all of the other vertebrate *Hox* genes do not have any intron in the homeodomain. Therefore, the sharing of this intron and the genomic location (between Hox13 and *Evx*), which are usually regarded as conservative traits, suggested that all of the known Hox14 genes originated from a common ancestral gene. It is still controversial, however, whether the gnathostome Hox14 and the amphioxus Hox14 are orthologous or not (9, 11, 12), because molecular phylogeny of Hox13/14 genes suggested independent origins of Hox14 in the amphioxus

and gnathostomes (Fig. 1A) (9). This dispute makes an impact on a controversy over the deuterostome phylogeny. A recent large-scale molecular phylogenetic study suggested that not the cephalochordates, but the urochordates, which seem to possess no Hox14 (13, 14), are the sister group of vertebrates (15). Based on this phylogeny and a single origin of Hox14, we must assume an additional loss of Hox14 gene in the urochordate lineage (Fig. 1C). Otherwise, the traditional phylogenetic hypothesis, which combines cephalochordates with vertebrates (16), could be supported under the assumption of a single origin of Hox14 (Fig. 1B). To fill the gap between existing data, additional analyses in early vertebrates, such as cyclostomes (lampreys and hagfishes), could aid in the understanding on the origin of Hox14.

To date, there is no report on expression patterns of Hox14 genes. It is already known that posterior *Hox* genes (*Abdominal-B* group; Hox9–13) are coordinately expressed in the limb buds to establish the anteroposterior regional identities (5). This is also observed in the fin buds of chondrichthyans (17), suggesting that the Hox-code in the paired appendages, and that in the CNS and somites, was established before the divergence between chondrichthyans and osteichthyans (the rest of gnathostomes). In the lamprey, which lacks paired fins, Hox9 and Hox10 genes were shown to be expressed in the mesenchyme of dorsal fin fold (18). This is thought to be a portion of ancestral Hox-code before its deployment into the patterning of paired fins. Here, we selected a lamprey and a cartilaginous fish as targets of our study to examine whether Hox14 genes play these roles as posterior *Hox* genes, and to explore an evolutionary background that permitted the losses of Hox14 in multiple vertebrate lineages.

Results

Identification of Hox13 and Hox14 Genes in Lamprey. To sample ancient member of vertebrate Hox14, we conducted a cDNA survey in a posterior half of the Japanese lamprey (*Lethenteron japonicum*) embryos at stage 28 (see *Materials and Methods*) and identified a Hox14 gene, *LjHox14 α* . Its deduced amino acid sequence shows a high similarity with those of gnathostome Hox14 genes (Fig. 2A). We also identified two additional lamprey genes, *LjHox13 α* and *LjHox13 β* , which are similar to gnathostome Hox13 genes (Fig. 2A). An additional intron in the homeodomain is found not only in the *LjHox14 α* gene but also

Author contributions: S. Kuraku and Y.T. contributed equally to this work; S. Kuraku and S. Kuratani designed research; S. Kuraku and Y.T. performed research; K.T. and H.A. contributed new reagents/analytic tools; S. Kuraku and Y.T. analyzed data; and S. Kuraku, A.M., and S. Kuratani wrote the paper.

The authors declare no conflict of interest.

This article is a PNAS Direct Submission.

Data deposition: The sequences reported in this paper have been deposited in the GenBank database (accession nos. AB293596–AB293599).

[†]To whom correspondence should be sent at the [†] address. E-mail: shigehiro.kuraku@uni-konstanz.de.

This article contains supporting information online at www.pnas.org/cgi/content/full/0710947105/DCSupplemental.

© 2008 by The National Academy of Sciences of the USA

Table 1. Results of maximum-likelihood analysis for inferring the phylogenetic relationships between Hox13/14 genes

Rank	Tree topology	$\Delta\ln L$	SE	$\Delta\ln L/SE$	P		
					AU	KH	SH
1	(A13,(C13,(B13,D13)),(v14,(Amphi13,Amphi14)))	ML	—	—	0.97	0.62	0.99
2	(C13,(A13,(B13,D13)),(v14,(Amphi13,Amphi14)))	ML	—	—	0.75	0.29	0.98
3	((v14,(Amphi13,Amphi14)),(D13,B13),(A13,C13))	ML	—	—	0.76	0.38	0.98
4	((v14,(Amphi13,Amphi14)),(D13,C13),(B13,A13))	1.43	2.12	0.68	0.30	0.24	0.83
5	(C13,(D13,(A13,B13)),(v14,(Amphi13,Amphi14)))	1.43	2.12	0.68	0.30	0.24	0.83
6	(D13,(C13,(B13,A13)),(v14,(Amphi13,Amphi14)))	1.43	2.12	0.68	0.30	0.24	0.83
7	(B13,(A13,(C13,D13)),(v14,(Amphi13,Amphi14)))	1.43	2.12	0.68	0.30	0.24	0.83
8	(C13,(B13,(A13,D13)),(v14,(Amphi13,Amphi14)))	1.43	2.12	0.68	0.30	0.24	0.83
9	(D13,(A13,(C13,B13)),(v14,(Amphi13,Amphi14)))	1.43	2.12	0.68	0.30	0.24	0.83
10	(B13,(C13,(A13,D13)),(v14,(Amphi13,Amphi14)))	1.43	2.12	0.68	0.30	0.24	0.83
11	((v14,(Amphi13,Amphi14)),(D13,A13),(B13,C13))	1.43	2.12	0.68	0.30	0.24	0.83
12	(A13,(B13,(C13,D13)),(v14,(Amphi13,Amphi14)))	1.37	2.02	0.68	0.31	0.23	0.84
13	(A13,(D13,(C13,B13)),(v14,(Amphi13,Amphi14)))	1.37	2.02	0.68	0.31	0.23	0.84
14	(B13,(D13,(C13,A13)),(v14,(Amphi13,Amphi14)))	0.13	0.14	0.91	0.96	0.19	0.96
15	(D13,(B13,(C13,A13)),(v14,(Amphi13,Amphi14)))	0.13	0.14	0.91	0.96	0.19	0.96
16	(A13,(C13,(B13,D13)),(Amphi14,(Amphi13,v14)))	2.84	2.75	1.03	0.28	0.16	0.63
17	(A13,(C13,(B13,D13)),(Amphi13,(v14,Amphi14)))	2.84	2.75	1.03	0.28	0.16	0.63
18	(C13,(A13,(B13,D13)),(Amphi13,(v14,Amphi14)))	2.84	2.75	1.03	0.28	0.16	0.63
19	(C13,(A13,(B13,D13)),(Amphi14,(Amphi13,v14)))	2.84	2.75	1.03	0.28	0.16	0.63
20	((Amphi14,(v14,Amphi13)),(D13,B13),(C13,A13))	2.84	2.75	1.03	0.28	0.16	0.63
21	((Amphi13,(v14,Amphi14)),(D13,B13),(A13,C13))	2.84	2.75	1.03	0.28	0.16	0.63
22	(B13,(D13,(C13,A13)),(Amphi13,(v14,Amphi14)))	2.85	2.74	1.04	0.30	0.15	0.62
23	(D13,(B13,(C13,A13)),(Amphi13,(v14,Amphi14)))	2.85	2.74	1.04	0.30	0.15	0.62
24	(D13,(B13,(C13,A13)),(Amphi14,(Amphi13,v14)))	2.85	2.74	1.04	0.30	0.15	0.62
25	(B13,(D13,(C13,A13)),(Amphi14,(Amphi13,v14)))	2.85	2.74	1.04	0.30	0.15	0.62

Abbreviations: A13, HoxA13; B13, HoxB13; C13, HoxC13; D13, HoxD13; v14, vertebrate Hox14; Amphi13, Amphiox13; Amphi14, Amphiox14; $\Delta\ln L$, difference of log-likelihood in the ML analysis deviated from the ML tree. SE, standard error of log-likelihood; AU, approximate unbiased test; KH, Kishino–Hasegawa test; SH, Shimodaira–Hasegawa test. Similar results were obtained even in the analysis containing Hox13 genes of tunicates and also Hox9–12 genes (as outgroups).

the fin buds, but was only detected in a small cell population ventral to the hindgut at the late pharyngula stage (Fig. 3A–C and Fig. S2). In the lamprey, *LjHox14 α* transcripts were detected in a small cell population surrounding the hindgut (Fig. 3D and G), which was later expanded into a larger cell population (Fig. 3J and M). Expression of *LjHox13 α* and *LjHox13 β* was also detected in a similar region surrounding the hindgut (Fig. 3H, I, N, and O), with additional signals in the tailbud for *LjHox13 α* (Fig. 3N), and in the cloaca for *LjHox13 β* as well (Fig. 3I and O). None of these three lamprey genes was expressed in the mesenchyme of the dorsal fin fold (Fig. 3D–O). Notably, our analysis at embryonic stages did not identify signals of Hox14 expression in the CNS, somites, and fin buds/folds, where the Hox-code is expected to function (Fig. 3B–D, G, J, M).

Discussion

Previously, two cDNA fragments of possible Hox13 genes have been reported for two lamprey species (19, 20), but their extremely short sequences did not permit a rigorous phylogenetic analysis that would have categorized them as Hox13 genes. In addition, no Hox12 genes had been reported for lampreys so far (18–23). Therefore, we report here phylogenetic evidence for Hox12 or more posterior Hox genes in lampreys. Molecular phylogenetic trees based on the alignable portion of the Hox genes (the homeodomain of 60 aa in length) do not provide sufficient resolution that would permit an unambiguous assignment of particular Hox genes to clusters (A–C or D), as reported for many of other lamprey Hox genes (18–23). We were able, however, to identify these newly isolated genes as members of the vertebrate Hox13 and Hox14 paralogous groups (Fig. 2B).

The presence of additional intron in the homeodomain in the newly identified *LjHox13 β* points out that this feature is not an unambiguously specific hallmark of Hox14 genes. Moreover, our phylogenetic analysis suggested that the amphioxus and vertebrate Hox14 genes are not orthologous, but have arisen independently through tandem gene duplications of Hox13 genes (Fig. 1A). This result, based on a short alignment, should be treated with caution. It is not necessarily likely, however, that the result of our phylogenetic analysis, which already uses maximal length of conserved homeodomain and also includes major chordate taxa (Fig. 2B), would be challenged with higher confidence in the future.

Previously, we reported expression of Hox9–11 genes in the lamprey tailbud (18). The tailbud-associated expression of *LjHox13 α* was more restricted posteriorly, indicating the sharing of upstream regulation by some of Hox9–13 genes (18) (Fig. 3N). Expression patterns of Hox13/14 genes in these early vertebrates also provide an insight into how the posterior Hox genes have established their roles in multiple embryonic tissues (Fig. 4). First, in the lamprey, the Hox13 genes, and the Hox14 gene, were not expressed in the medial fin fold (Fig. 3H, I, N, O). This indicates that the deployment of posterior Hox genes in the fin-patterning developmental program had not been completed yet at the divergence between the cyclostome and gnathostome lineages, or that the lamprey might possess other Hox13 genes that would be expressed in the fin fold. More importantly, in the lamprey and catshark, Hox14 genes were not expressed in the embryonic CNS nor somites, but in the hindgut-surrounding cells (Fig. 3C, G, M). It has been already reported that Hox genes are expressed in the gut, and their nested expression patterns has been interpreted as “endodermal” Hox-code (6). Especially, in mouse and chicken, Hox9–13 genes are expressed at around

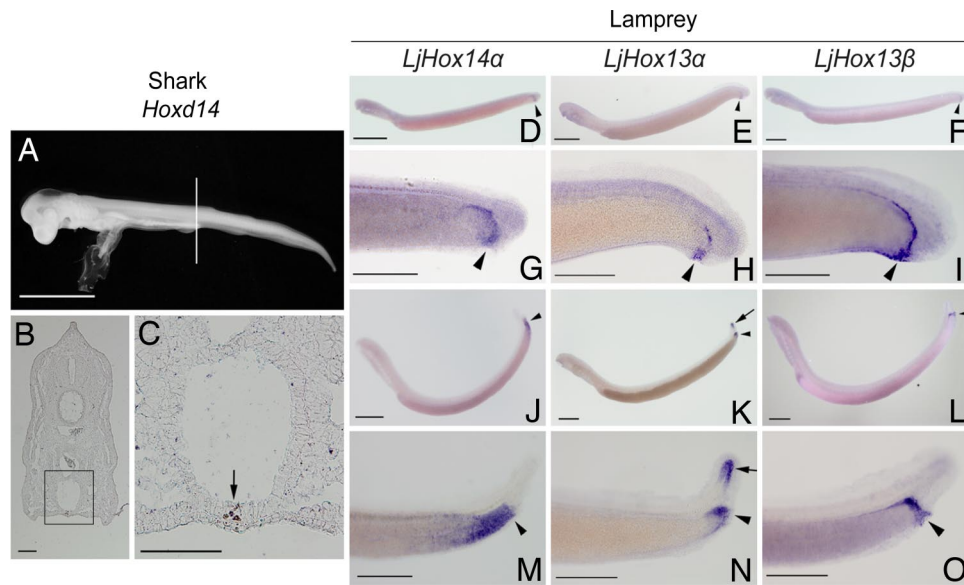


Fig. 3. Expression patterns of Hox13 and Hox14 genes in shark and lamprey. (A) An embryo of *S. torazame* at stage 27. (B) A transverse section stained with a *Hoxd14* riboprobe with *in situ* hybridization at the level of a bar in A. (C) A magnified view of a region shown in B. Cells expressing *Hoxd14* are indicated with an arrow. (D–F) Whole-mount lamprey (*L. japonicum*) embryos at stage 26 stained with *LjHox14α*, *LjHox13α*, and *LjHox13β* riboprobes, respectively. (G–I) Magnification of the posterior regions of D–F, respectively. (J–L) Whole-mount *L. japonicum* embryos at stage 28 stained with *LjHox14α*, *LjHox13α*, and *LjHox13β* riboprobes, respectively. (M–O) Magnification of the posterior regions of J–L, respectively. Arrowheads indicate the location of the cloaca. Arrows indicate the expression signals in the tail bud. (Scale bars: A, 5 mm; B and C, 0.1 mm; D–F and J–L, 0.5 mm; G–I and M–O, 0.25 mm.)

cecal/cloacal regions or more posterior regions of the hindgut (24, 25). Recent observations in chondrichthyans underline that the hindgut-associated expression of posterior *Hox* genes was gained before the divergence between the chondrichthyans and the osteichthyans (26). In the sea urchin embryo, one of the orthologs of posterior *Hox* genes (*Sphox11/13b*) is expressed in the hindgut (27), suggesting that the gut-associated expression of posterior *Hox* genes could have already been established at the root of deuterostomes. Therefore, it is reasonable to assume that the hindgut-associated expression of Hox14 genes is directly derived from Hox13, its ancestral copy, and that this expression domain has become restricted into a small cell population secondarily in the chondrichthyan lineage.

We conclude that the paralogous group Hox14, previously found in coelacanth and cartilaginous fishes, had been already established through the tandem duplication before the era of the last common ancestor of all extant vertebrates, including cyclostomes. The lack of Hox14 expression in the embryonic CNS, somites, nor the fin folds/buds suggests that they might have been decoupled from the ancestral Hox-code functioning in these

embryonic structures, whereas their hindgut-associated expression, which is probably derived from Hox13 genes, has been maintained (Fig. 4). Clearly, the absence of Hox14 genes in genomes of tetrapods and teleosts indicates their secondarily losses in these lineages (Fig. 4). These secondary gene losses might have been permissible because of the less functional constraint, as is manifested by the decoupling of Hox14 genes partially from the canonical Hox-code.

Materials and Methods

Animals. Embryonic stagings of *S. torazame* and *L. japonicum* were based on Ballard *et al.* (28) and Tahara (29), respectively. Total RNA of *S. torazame* was extracted from a whole embryo at stage 12. Total RNA of *L. japonicum* was extracted from a posterior half of an embryo at stage 28.

cDNA Cloning and Sequencing. Total RNAs were reverse transcribed into cDNA by using Thermo-X reverse transcriptase (Invitrogen). These cDNAs were used as templates for PCR amplification with the GC-rich PCR System (Roche). The sense degenerate primers 5'-CC GAR MGN CAR GTN AAR ATH TGG TT-3' and 5'-GG ATC TGG TTY CAR AAY CAR MGN CA-3' were designed based on amino acid residues in the homeobox shared by vertebrate Hox14 genes, namely, TERQVKIWF and KIWFQNRQ, respectively. These primers were used for primary and nested amplification of the stretch spanning from the end of the homeodomain to the 3'-end using adaptor primers, as in 3'-RACE (30): *LjHox13α* and *LjHox13β* were obtained in the primary amplification, whereas *LjHox14α* were obtained in the nested one. PCR was conducted as described in ref. 31. Lengths of PCR products were confirmed with 2100 Bioanalyzer (Agilent). Amplified cDNA fragments were purified by using MinElute (Qiagen) and cloned into a pCRII-TOPO vector (Invitrogen). More than three independent clones per gene were sequenced by using a 3130 Genetic Analyzer (Applied Biosystems). Upstream nucleotide sequences of isolated lamprey cDNAs were amplified and sequenced by 5'-RACE. The partial catshark cDNA (Fig. S1) was isolated by the nested PCR amplification as described above. Nucleotide and deduced amino acid sequences determined in this study were deposited in the GenBank with accession nos. AB293596–AB293599. Presence and position of introns were analyzed with genomic PCR by using gene-specific primers.

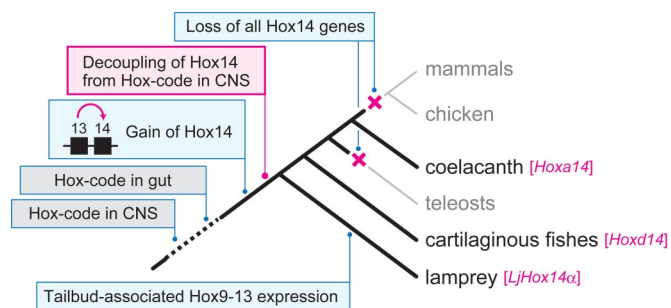


Fig. 4. A hypothesized evolutionary scenario of repertoires and roles of Hox14. Possession of Hox14 genes is indicated with the gene names beside the names of animal groups. The timings of possible losses of all Hox14 members are indicated with an “X.”

Molecular Phylogenetic Analysis. Amino acid sequences of posterior *Hox* genes were retrieved from the public databases. An optimal multiple alignment of these amino acid sequences and those obtained in this study was constructed

by using the alignment editor XCED, in which the MAFFT program is implemented (32), with manual inspection. The molecular phylogenetic trees were inferred by using the regions that were unambiguously aligned with no gaps. The neighbor-joining tree reconstruction (33) was processed by using XCED.

To calculate the support values for the molecular phylogenetic tree shown in Fig. 2B, we used MrBayes 3.1 (34) and Tree-Puzzle [quartet-puzzling mode (35)]. To investigate the phylogenetic relationship between *AmphiHox14* and vertebrate *Hox14* (Table 1), the ML tree was inferred by using Tree-Puzzle (35), assuming JTT+I+I₄ model (shape parameter $\alpha = 0.47$) (36). In this ML analysis, we performed an exhaustive search of the ML tree in the "user-defined trees" mode of all 945 possible topologies consisting of seven OTUs, namely, *HoxA13*, *HoxB13*, *HoxC13*, *HoxD13*, vertebrate *Hox14*, *AmphiHox13*, and *AmphiHox14*. Phylogenetic relationships within each taxon were constrained as follows: [(human, *Xenopus*), horn shark] for *HoxA13*; [(human, chicken), coelacanth] for *HoxB13*; [(human, *Xenopus*), coelacanth] for *HoxC13*; [(human, *Xenopus*), horn shark] for *HoxD13*; [(*LmHoxa14* (*CmHoxd14*, *HfHoxd14*), *LjHox14a*) for vertebrate *Hox14*. *LjHox13 α* and *LjHox13 β* were excluded from this analysis, because precise phylogenetic positions of these genes are unknown. Likelihood ratio tests were performed by using CONSEL (37).

Survey of Hox13/14 Genes in *P. marinus* Genomic Sequences. In addition to performing RT-PCR, we surveyed Hox13/14 genes in the sea lamprey (*P. marinus*), whose whole genome sequencing project is now underway (Washington University Genome Sequencing Center; <http://genome.wustl.edu/>

genome.cgi?GENOME=Petryomyzon%20marinus), using the Ensembl *Pre!* Interface (http://pre.ensembl.org/Petryomyzon_marinus/index.html) and shotgun genomic sequences downloaded from the Ensembl Trace server (ftp://ftp.ensembl.org/pub/traces/petryomyzon_marinus/fasta/).

In Situ Hybridization. Whole-mount *in situ* hybridization was performed as described in ref. 38. *In situ* hybridization with sections was also performed following the previous description (39). In detection of expression signals of catshark *Hoxd14*, we performed whole-mount staining by using *S. torazame* embryos at stages 12–27. For each of *LjHox14 α* , *LjHox13 α* , and *LjHox13 β* , riboprobes were prepared by using cDNA templates containing two different stretches (results are shown only for *in situ* hybridization using more downstream riboprobes): nucleotide position 1–312 and position 296 to the end for *LjHox14 α* (AB293599); position 1–550 and position 757–1,221 for *LjHox13 α* (AB293597); position 1–966 and position 855 to the end for *LjHox13 β* (AB293598). For catshark *Hoxd14* (AB293596), a whole sequenced stretch was used as a template for riboprobe synthesis. Negative control experiments were done by using sense-strand riboprobes, in which we detected no equivalent signals to those detected in this study (data not available).

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS. We thank R. Kusakabe (Kobe, Japan) for embryos of the Japanese lamprey and G. Yamada for discussion. This project was supported by Grants-in-Aid from the Ministry of Education, Science and Culture of Japan.

- Duboule D (1994) Temporal colinearity and the phylotypic progression: A basis for the stability of a vertebrate Bauplan and the evolution of morphologies through heterochrony. *Dev Suppl* 5:135–142.
- Slack JM, Holland PW, Graham CF (1993) The zootype and the phylotypic stage. *Nature* 361:490–492.
- Kuraku S, Meyer A (2008) The evolution and maintenance of *Hox* gene clusters in vertebrates and the teleost-specific genome duplication. *Int J Dev Biol*, in press.
- Hunt P, et al. (1991) The branchial *Hox* code and its implications for gene regulation, patterning of the nervous system and head evolution. *Dev Suppl* 2:63–77.
- Dolle P, Izpisua-Belmonte JC, Falkenstein H, Renucci A, Duboule D (1989) Coordinate expression of the murine *Hox-5* complex homoeobox-containing genes during limb pattern formation. *Nature* 342:767–772.
- Grapin-Botton A, Melton DA (2000) Endoderm development: From patterning to organogenesis. *Trends Genet* 16:124–130.
- Amores A, et al. (1998) Zebrafish *hox* clusters and vertebrate genome evolution. *Science* 282:1711–1714.
- Ferrier DE, Minguillon C, Holland PW, Garcia-Fernandez J (2000) The amphioxus *Hox* cluster: Deuterostome posterior flexibility and *Hox14*. *Evol Dev* 2:284–293.
- Powers TP, Amemiya CT (2004) Evidence for a *Hox14* paralog group in vertebrates. *Curr Biol* 14:R183–R184.
- Venkatesh B, et al. (2007) Survey sequencing and comparative analysis of the elephant shark (*Callorhynchus milii*) genome. *PLoS Biol* 5:e101.
- Ferrier DE (2004) *Hox* genes: Did the vertebrate ancestor have a *Hox14*? *Curr Biol* 14:R210–R211.
- Garcia-Fernandez J (2005) *Hox*, *ParaHox*, *ProtoHox*: Facts and guesses. *Heredity* 94:145–152.
- Ikuta T, Yoshida N, Satoh N, Saiga H (2004) *Ciona* intestinalis *Hox* gene cluster: Its dispersed structure and residual colinear expression in development. *Proc Natl Acad Sci USA* 101:15118–15123.
- Seo HC, et al. (2004) *Hox* cluster disintegration with persistent anteroposterior order of expression in *Oikopleura dioica*. *Nature* 431:67–71.
- Delsuc F, Brinkmann H, Chourrout D, Philippe H (2006) Tunicates and not cephalochordates are the closest living relatives of vertebrates. *Nature* 439:965–968.
- Bourlat SJ, et al. (2006) Deuterostome phylogeny reveals monophyletic chordates and the new phylum Xenoturbellida. *Nature* 444:85–88.
- Freitas R, Zhang G, Cohn MJ (2006) Evidence that mechanisms of fin development evolved in the midline of early vertebrates. *Nature* 442:1033–1037.
- Takio Y, et al. (2007) *Hox* gene expression patterns in *Lethenteron japonicum* embryos—Insights into the evolution of the vertebrate *Hox* code. *Dev Biol* 308:606–620.
- Force A, Amores A, Postlethwait JH (2002) *Hox* cluster organization in the jawless vertebrate *Petryomyzon marinus*. *J Exp Zool* 294:30–46.
- Sharman AC, Holland PW (1998) Estimation of *Hox* gene cluster number in lampreys. *Int J Dev Biol* 42:617–620.
- Irvine SQ, et al. (2002) Genomic analysis of *Hox* clusters in the sea lamprey *Petryomyzon marinus*. *J Exp Zool* 294:47–62.
- Pendleton JW, Nagai BK, Murtha MT, Ruddle FH (1993) Expansion of the *Hox* gene family and the evolution of chordates. *Proc Natl Acad Sci USA* 90:6300–6304.
- Takio Y, et al. (2004) Evolutionary biology: Lamprey *Hox* genes and the evolution of jaws. *Nature*, 10.1038/nature02616.
- Roberts DJ, Smith DM, Goff DJ, Tabin CJ (1998) Epithelial-mesenchymal signaling during the regionalization of the chick gut. *Development* 125:2791–2801.
- Yokouchi Y, Sakiyama J, Kuroiwa A (1995) Coordinated expression of *Abd-B* subfamily genes of the *HoxA* cluster in the developing digestive tract of chick embryo. *Dev Biol* 169:76–89.
- Theodosiou NA, Hall DA, Jowdry AL (2007) Comparison of acid mucin goblet cell distribution and *Hox13* expression patterns in the developing vertebrate digestive tract. *J Exp Zool B Mol Dev Evol* 308:442–453.
- Arenas-Mena C, Cameron RA, Davidson EH (2006) Hindgut specification and cell-adhesion functions of *Sphx11/13b* in the endoderm of the sea urchin embryo. *Dev Growth Differ* 48:463–472.
- Ballard WW, Mellinger J, Lechenault H (1993) A series of normal stages for development of *Scyliorhinus canicula*, the lesser spotted dogfish (Chondrichthyes: Scyliorhinidae). *J Exp Zool* 267:318–336.
- Tahara Y (1988) Nomal staging of development in the lamprey, *Lampetra reissneri* (Dybowski). *Zoolog Sci* 5:109–118.
- Frohman MA, Dush MK, Martin GR (1988) Rapid production of full-length cDNAs from rare transcripts: Amplification using a single gene-specific oligonucleotide primer. *Proc Natl Acad Sci USA* 85:8998–9002.
- Kuraku S, et al. (2006) cDNA-based gene mapping and GC3 profiling in soft-shelled turtle suggest chromosome size-dependent GC-bias shared by sauropsids. *Chromosome Res* 14:187–202.
- Katoh K, Kuma K, Toh H, Miyata T (2005) MAFFT version 5: Improvement in accuracy of multiple sequence alignment. *Nucleic Acids Res* 33:511–518.
- Saitou N, Nei M (1987) The neighbor-joining method: A new method for reconstructing phylogenetic trees. *Mol Biol Evol* 4:406–425.
- Ronquist F, Huelsenbeck JP (2003) MrBayes 3: Bayesian phylogenetic inference under mixed models. *Bioinformatics* 19:1572–1574.
- Schmidt HA, Strimmer K, Vingron M, von Haeseler A (2002) TREE-PUZZLE: Maximum likelihood phylogenetic analysis using quartets and parallel computing. *Bioinformatics* 18:502–504.
- Yang Z (1994) Maximum likelihood phylogenetic estimation from DNA sequences with variable rates over sites: Approximate methods. *J Mol Evol* 39:306–314.
- Shimodaira H, Hasegawa M (2001) CONSEL: For assessing the confidence of phylogenetic tree selection. *Bioinformatics* 17:1246–1247.
- Murakami Y, et al. (2001) Identification and expression of the lamprey *Pax6* gene: Evolutionary origin of the segmented brain of vertebrates. *Development* 128:3521–3531.
- Kuraku S, Usuda R, Kuratani S (2005) Comprehensive survey of carapacial ridge-specific genes in turtle implies co-option of some regulatory genes in carapace evolution. *Evol Dev* 7:3–17.