Characterization of globin genes in Atlantic cod

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A Dissertation submitted in partial satisfaction of the requirements for the MS degree in population genetics

Advisor: Professor Einar Árnason



Department of Biology
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by

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declare t	hat this dissertation is based on my own observatio	ns, that it is written by mys
and tha	at it has not previously been submitted in part or in	whole for a higher degree.
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University of Iceland February 2007

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Abstract

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MS in population genetics

University of Iceland

Professor Einar Árnason, Chair

An understanding of biology of a wild species able to support a major fishery of great magnitude like the Atlantic cod *Gadus morhua* is important from both fisheries management as well as from a purely biological standpoint. The hemoglobin HbI locus shows effects of natural selection and adaptation to environmental conditions. Globin gene regions have been characterized in some fish species. All of them show linked α and β loci located on the same chromosome. I report here a characterization of linked β and α globin genes in Atlantic cod with proximal regulatory elements. The genes are oriented tail to head in a 5' to 3' direction. The orientation of globin genes in Atlantic cod thus differs from orientation in other fish species described so far. Applying a PCR based strategy for genomic exploration, I show that there are ten clusters of linked β/α globin genes in the genome of Atlantic cod which likely represent different β/α gene sets or different alleles at some loci. The results are based on cloned and sequenced contigs of approximately 3000 base pairs long fragment of the linked β/α gene sets. The different gene sets differ from each other by a number of nucleotides in linkage disequilibrium including non-synonymous differences.

Professor Einar Árnason Chair, Committee in charge

Útdráttur

Greining glóbin gena í þorski

eftir

Katrínu Halldórsdóttur MS í Stofnerfðafræði

Háskóli Íslands

Prófessor Einar Árnason, formaður

Skilningur á líffræði villtrar tegundar sem er undirstaða fiskveiða af þeirri stærðargráðu eins og þorskur, *Gadus morhua*, gerir, er mjög mikilvægur bæði fyrir stjórn fiskveiða sem og frá líffræðilegu sjónarhorni. Hemóglóbin lókusinn HbI sýnir áhrif náttúrulegs vals og aðlögun að umhverfisaðstæðum. Glóbin gena setum hefur verið lýst í nokkrum fiskategundum. Í þeim öllum eru α og β glóbin setin tengd saman á litningi. Ég lýsi hér samtengdum β og α glóbin genasetum í þorski ásamt nálægum stjórnröðum. Genin eru í sömu stefnu á litningnum, með β genið 5'. Afstaða genanna hvors til annars er í 5' til 3' stefnu ("tail to head" eða "rófa í haus"). Stefna β/α glóbin gena hvors til annars í þorski er því frábrugðin stefnu þeirra í þeim fisktegundum þar sem þessu hefur verið lýst. Með því að nota tækni grundvallaða á PCR til að rannsaka erfðamengi þorsksins sýni ég fram á að það eru að minnsta kosti tíu genasett af tengdum β/α glóbin genum í genamengi þorsks sem eru annaðhvort aðgreind gen eða breytilegar samsætur. Niðurstöðurnar grundvallast á um það bil 3000 basapara svæði tengdra β og α genasetta sem voru klónuð og raðgreind. Mismunur ólíkra genasetta felst í fjölda kirna í tengslaójafnvægi þar á meðal óþöglar breytingar.

Professor Einar Árnason Formaður umsjónarnefndar

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Introduction

Total catch of Atlantic cod *Gadus morhua* by Icelandic vessels was 199.420 tonnes in the year 2006 according to Statistics Iceland (ANONYMOUS, 2006). The world catch of Atlantic cod 2004 (latest update, ANONYMOUS, 2006) was 899.568 tonnes. The Icelandic fishing vessels thus catch around 25% of Atlantic cod world catch. It is a remarkable fact that a wild species is able to support a major fishery of this magnitude. An understanding of biology of the species is thus important for both Icelandic and world commercial fisheries and their management. Similarly, there must be several biological characteristics which enable Atlantic cod to have such high productivity. Thus, it is also important to understand the biology of cod from a purely biological standpoint.

Atlantic cod is a benthic gadoid species living at variable depths from a few meters to depths of 600 meters or more in the sea. In the West Atlantic cod has a distribution north of Cape Hatteras, North Carolina, and around both west and east coasts of Greenland. In the eastern Atlantic it is found from the Bay of Biscay north to the Arctic Ocean, including the North Sea, areas around Faroe Islands and Iceland and along the Norwegian coast to the Barents Sea (WIKIPEDIA, 2007).

For decades a debate has been going on about population structure of Atlantic cod populations. Allozyme research, using the HbI locus of hemoglobin, indicated heterogeneity of cod populations in the North Atlantic (MORK *et al.*, 1985). FRYDENBERG *et al.* (1965) showed an apparent cline in allele frequency along the Norwegian coast (Figure 1). Clines are often indicative of natural selection which would limit use of the locus for studies on population structure. However, a locus showing clear selective effects is of interest for studies of adaptation to various environmental conditions.

JAMIESON and JÓNSSON (1971) described considerable HbI variation in Icelandic waters (Figure 2). They observed large differences among localities and large differences among temporally spaced samples from the same or neighboring localities. They interpreted the allelic distribution as a "moving mosaic of genetic isolates" such that different units of stock

were present off the southwest coast of Iceland and at the main spawning area of Atlantic cod in Iceland (Figure 2). This conclusion was drawn from Wahlund effects found in the samples. Wahlund effect (WAHLUND, 1928) is when heterozygote deficiency is observed among samples relative to expectation according to Hardy-Weinberg equilibrium. It is noteworthy that in many of their samples there is heterozygote excess as well (JAMIESON and JÓNSSON, 1971). Thus, the pattern may also be indicative of natural selection rather than isolated stocks.

The view that there are genetically distinct cod populations in the Atlantic ocean is, still maintained (e.g. JÓNSDÓTTIR *et al.*, 1999). Mitochondrial DNA sequence variation has been used for genetic studies of populations of Atlantic cod (ÁRNASON and PÁLSSON, 1996; ÁRNASON *et al.*, 1998; ÁRNASON, 2004). This research does not support the idea of reproductively isolated subpopulations of Atlantic cod in Iceland.

The aim of this study is to characterize at the DNA level the HbI locus so intensively used for analysis of Atlantic cod population structure which, however, also shows strong signs of natural selection. The locus is apparently under strong selective forces according to research showing different reaction norms among the three genotypes. KARPOV and NOVIKOV (1980) and BRIX *et al.* (1998) showed that oxygen affinity of hemoglobin is higher for HbI-2/2 homozygotes at low temperatures ($<10^{\circ}$ C) and for HbI-1/1 cod, for some blood pH levels, at high temperatures ($>14^{\circ}$ C). Heterozygotes are generally found to have oxygen affinity values which are intermediate between the two homozygotes. PETERSEN and STEFFENSEN (2003) experimentally determined a behavioral response and temperature preference of juvenile Atlantic cod with different hemoglobin types under normoxia and mild hypoxia. They found that HbI-2/2 cod preferred $8.2\pm1.5^{\circ}$ C while HbI-1/1 cod preferred $15.4\pm1.1^{\circ}$ C. They further showed that under hypoxia (35% oxygen saturation) HbI-1/1 cod preferred a lower temperature of $9.8\pm1.8^{\circ}$ C.

Furthermore, a number of other studies have shown significant differences among the HbI hemoglobin genotypes in various other features including competitive feeding strategies (SALVANES and HART, 2000), haematocrit (MORK and SUNDNES, 1984), and differential growth (JORDAN *et al.*, 2006). All are important in the physiology of cod and are related to components of Darwinian fitness.

Atlantic cod like many other wild fish species encounters various environmental challenges through its lifespan from larvae to adult. Adaptation of the species to its heterogeneous environment is of special interest. Atlantic cod is one of the most fecund vertebrate known and supports commercial fisheries of several nations. The environment poses several problems or challenges for cod related to oxygen use. For example, how to keep neutral buoyancy when

it moves up and down in the water column and how to keep its vision in the dark at great depths in the ocean. The problem of buoyancy is met by O2 secretion mechanism to inflate the swimbladder. The underlying physiology of O2 secretion involves pH-sensitive Root effect (ROOT, 1931) hemoglobins which under low pH decrease O2 binding. The Root effect thus differs from the normal Bohr effect in that acidification unloads O2 from Root hemoglobins even at O₂ tensions above atmospheric levels (BERENBRINK et al., 2005). The rete mirable associates with the gas gland of the swim bladder, it has a counter current arrangement of capillaries which maintains a diffusion gradient throughout the length of the diffusion surface. This makes it possible for Root effect hemoglobin to deliver oxygen into an organ containing a high partial pressure of oxygen, the swim bladder and avascular retina of the fish eye, to meet the high oxygen demand. Normal Bohr effect hemoglobin are also important in various aspects in the physiology of cod. Together, these are examples of some of the challenges in oxygen use which are met by the use of various hemoglobins. The amino acid composition of the hemoglobin proteins responsible for these functions differs in the eel Anguilla anguilla (FAGO et al., 1995, 1997), and in the Atlantic salmon (MCMORROW et al., 1997), inwhich the proteins are grouped according to their migration towards anode and cathode as anodal or cathodal proteins. Non-Bohr effect hemoglobins are thought to be more cathodal than Bohreffect hemoglobin (MCMORROW et al., 1997).

Hemoglobin, the oxygen carrier of the blood, is a tetramer of two α and two β chains. The genes have the same internal structure, conserved in evolution of different organisms, which is three exons interrupted with two introns (DICKERSON and GEIS, 1983). The α and β families of hemoglobin genes are found on separate chromosomes in mammals and birds. The β globin domain in humans consists of five functional genes and one pseudogene $(\epsilon, \gamma^G, \gamma^A, \psi - \beta, \delta, \beta)$ located on chromosome 11. The α globin domain in humans consists of three functional genes and two pseudogenes $(\zeta, \psi - \zeta, \psi - \alpha, \alpha_2, \alpha_1)$ located on chromosome 16 (KARLSSON and NIENHUIS, 1985). The genes are arranged in the order of their expression during development. The β cluster in mice has the structural genes in tandem including three embryonic genes and two genes expressed in fetus and adult animals. In chicken, however, the adult β genes are flanked by the embryonic genes (SJAKSTE and SJAKSTE, 2002; HARDISON, 1998). This demonstrates variations on the theme of arrangement and order of expression in development. In the African clawed frog (Xenopus laevis) the genes are linked on the same chromosome with three α genes followed by three β genes. Direction of transcription is 5' to 3' and embryonic genes are located 5' to adult animal genes (HOSBACH et al., 1983). In fish the α and β genes are linked together on the same chromosome. However, the orientation of the genes is variable. In the Zebrafish *Danio rerio* a pair of linked α and β genes are found for embryonic genes and adult genes respectively, both on the same chromosome. The direction of transcription is tail to tail (5'-3') and (5'-5') in the embryonic pair but head to head (3'-5') and (5'-3') in the adult globin pair (BROWNLIE *et al.*, 2003). Similarly, the globin genes in Pufferfish *Fugu rubripes* are closely linked and directed in opposite transcriptional orientations (GILLEMANS *et al.*, 2003). Globin genes in Atlantic Salmon *Salmo salar* are linked pairs of tail to tail oriented α and β genes.

Multiple haemoglobins and multiple globin genes are quite common in fish. In Atlantic salmon, 17 electrophoretically distinct haemoglobin proteins have been described (MCMORROW *et al.*, 1997). In rainbow trout nine larval haemoglobins have been characterized (IUCHI, 1973). Brownlie *et al.* (2003) characterizing of embryonic globin genes in Zebrafish in which they describe three embryonic α genes and three embryonic β genes and furthermore state that it likely represents an underestimate. However, developmental regulation of their expression is not known as in higher vertebrates. The genetic polymorphism found in haemoglobin is likely related to various environmental condition. These environmental challenges are likely met at the genetic level by various structural elements, control elements or both.

SICK (1965) described a system consisting of two major zones of hemoglobin, HbI and HbII, using the technique of agar gel electrophoresis in Smithies buffer. The HbI zone shows variation interpreted genetically as a polymorphism with a pair of co-dominant alleles giving rise to HbI-1/1, HbI-2/2 homozygotes and HbI-1/2 heterozygotes. On the molecular level this appeared to be a simple single-locus two-allele polymorphism. By applying a more sensitive technique of iso-electric focusing to hemoglobin isoforms (BRIX et al., 2004; FYHN et al., 1994) patterns of at least five major zones and several minor zones of hemoglobins are found. Rare hemoglobin patterns are known from the beginning of studies on hemoglobin variation. FRYDENBERG et al. (1965) described several rare hemoglobin patterns ranging in frequency from 0.5% to 2% in the Barents Sea and 2.5% in Newfoundland and Iceland and even much higher or about 10% in English and Scottish cod (WILKINS, 1971; MANWELL and BAKER, 1970). It is not known which of the multiple hemoglobin isoforms in Atlantic cod, mentioned above, are the Root effect hemoglobins, which are normal Bohr effect hemoglobin, or which are important for various developmental stages. Based on the comparative knowledge, however, we expect that the variety of hemoglobins in Atlantic cod also are due to various structural and control elements in the genome.

Gene duplication can occur via tandem duplication, common in mammals, and by

polyploidy which is common in bony fish (SHIMELD, 1999). The contribution of gene duplication in evolution is providing new genetic material suitable for adaptive evolution and differentiation of function (LYNCH, 2002). The origin of globin gene families in vertebrates is considered to be a duplication event of an ancient gene about 500–570 million years ago, followed by divergent evolution of the α and β globin gene domains in mammals and birds (HARDISON, 1998; SJAKSTE and SJAKSTE, 2002). These loci are still linked in fish and the linked genes apparently have duplicated, perhaps via tetraploidization or by duplication of the α/β linked genes.

This thesis is a first step towards describing and understanding the structure and function of hemoglobin genes and their products in the biology of Atlantic cod. The thesis is in three parts. The first part is this introduction. The second part is a manuscript about the structure of a gene region. We first characterized a locus of linked β and α genes with proximal control regions (HALLDÓRSDÓTTIR and ÁRNASON, 2007a). It is a starting point to understand at the DNA level the organization of globin genes in Atlantic cod. We approach the subject with a PCR based technique in our genomic exploration. We show in this part (HALLDÓRSDÓTTIR and ÁRNASON, 2007a) a new organization of globin genes in fish which illustrate the importance of exploring non-model organism. The third part of the thesis is a manuscript which takes a genomic perspective. This part of this thesis (HALLDÓRSDÓTTIR and ÁRNASON, 2007b) is an endeavour to explore the number of linked β and α gene sets in the Atlantic cod genome. It takes on the problematic task to explore globin genes in the complete genome of an non-model organism. Many model organism have their genome fully sequenced, making exploration of their genome achievable. However, many organisms, like the Atlantic cod, have biological features which are not found in any model organism. Therefore, it is a challenge to find a way to explore genome of an non-model organism of interest. To investigate this we used a PCR based stragegy to explore how many linked β and α gene sets could potentially be found in the genome of Atlantic cod (HALLDÓRSDÓTTIR and ÁRNASON, 2007b).

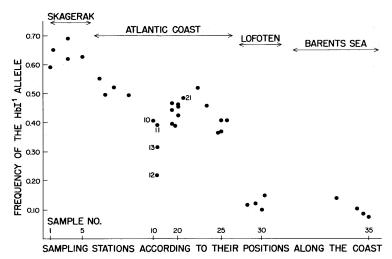


Fig. 2. The Hbl¹ gene frequency along the Norwegian coast. The sampling stations are spaced on the abscissa in accordance with their mutual distances along the coast, starting at left with the stations in Oslofjord and finishing at right with the stations in the Barents Sea.

Figure 1: HbI allele frequency along the Norwegian coast. Figure 2 in FRYDENBERG *et al.* (1965).

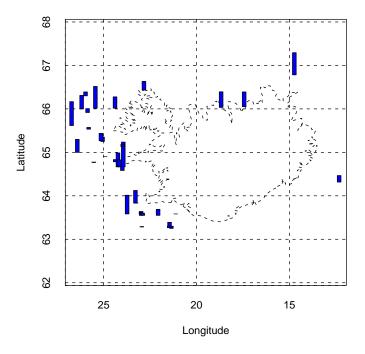


Figure 2: HbI allele frequencies in JAMIESON and JÓNSSON (1971) study on a map of Iceland. Height of bars represents relative frequency. Longitude locations are plotted with jitter to separate bars of temporally spaced samples from the same or neighboring localities.

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Tail to Head Orientation of Atlantic Cod β and α Globin Genes (Manuscript 1)

Tail to Head Orientation of Atlantic Cod β and α Globin Genes

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Abstract

Hemoglobin is the oxygen carrier in vertebrates, delivering oxygen to tissues from respiratory organs. Globin gene regions have been characterized in some fish species and all of them show linked α and β loci located on the same chromosome. We report a characterization of linked β and α globin genes in Atlantic cod, pulled out of the Atlantic cod genome with a PCR research strategy and screening of a genomic λ library. The genes are oriented tail to head in a 5' to 3' direction. The orientation of globin genes in Atlantic cod thus differs from orientation in other fish species described so far. They both contain three exons and two introns, the common vertebrate pattern. Four tandem repeats are found in a 1500 base pairs intergenic region. A putative single exon gene is predicted in this region which consists primarily of atg tandem repeats. The three genes all have a CCAAT box promoter. 5' to β exon 1 there is a TTTAAA box, 5' to the gene in intergenic region a TTTAA box, and 5' to α exon 1 a TATA box. Conserved sequence blocks (up to 89 base pair identity) are found in both the 5' β and 5' α regions which probably are control sequences for transcription.

Keywords: Hemoglobin, β/α globin genes, regulatory elements, Atlantic cod

Introduction

Vertebrate hemoglobin is a heterotetramer of two α globin and two β globin polypeptides. It is an oxygen carrier, delivering oxygen to tissues and facilitating unloading of carbon dioxide at the respiratory organs. Hemoglobins are found in all groups of organisms and the diverse hemoglobins appear to be encoded by orthologous genes i.e., genes descended from an ancient, common ancestral gene (HARDISON 1998). In mammals and other higher vertebrates globin genes are arranged in distinct clusters, the α -like and the β -like clusters, located on different chromosomes (KARLSSON and NIENHUIS 1985). The arrangements of the genes in the domains are the same as the order of expression. Proximal regulatory elements play a vital role in this regulation, for example the CCAAT box in regulation of human fetal γ globin in the β cluster (FANG *et al.* 2004).

Globin gene regions have been characterized in some fish species, e.g. Atlantic Salmon (*Salmo salar*, WAGNER *et al.* 1994), Pufferfish (*Fugu rubripes*, GILLEMANS *et al.* 2003), and in both embryonic and adult Zebrafish (*Danio rerio*, BROWNLIE *et al.* 2003; CHAN *et al.* 1997). In these fish the α and β loci are linked and located on the same chromosome. The linkage of the α and β genes in fish species supports the hypothesis of a duplication event of an ancient gene about 500–570 million years ago, followed by divergent evolution of the α and β globin gene domains in mammals and birds (HARDISON 1998; SJAKSTE and SJAKSTE 2002). In most species studied transcription proceeds in the same direction, 5' to 3' orientation for globin genes in a given locus. In adult zebrafish (CHAN *et al.* 1997) and in pufferfish (GILLEMANS *et al.*

2003) the direction of transcription of α/β genes is in 3' to 5', 5' to 3' configuration (head to head). In salmon (WAGNER *et al.* 1994) the genes are oriented 5' to 3', 3' to 5' (tail to tail orientation).

The most obvious contribution of gene duplication in evolution is providing new genetic material for selection to act upon, the result of which can be new gene functions (ZHANG 2003) to meet varying physiological demands of the organism. Gene duplication contributes to species divergence and origins of species-specific features (ZHANG 2003).

All genes are part of regulatory networks (SHIMELD 1999). For duplicated copies of a gene to be fixed and maintained in a population their functions often diverge to some extent. The determining factors for a gene to find a new function, even without changing the protein (for cell type-specific genes), are, among other things, changes in promoter and enhancer sequences (SHIMELD 1999). A mutation in promoter boxes can lead to severe disease such as β -thalassemia in humans (AGARWALL *et al.* 2006) as well as to novel functions. Therefore, when characterizing genes it is important to determine the control regions and promoters of the genes, especially for genes in multi gene families.

In order to understand and explain structure and function of hemoglobin proteins and their genes in Atlantic cod, *Gadus morhua*, a first step is to characterize the molecular components. In particular to characterize the location and orientation of α and β genes as well as potential control regions regulating transcription. We report here, as a first step towards such a goal, a study revealing a set of linked β and α genes with a previously unknown putative gene in their intergenic region as well as proximal promoter sequences of the genes.

Materials and Methods

DNA Isolation Both blood and muscle tissue samples of individuals already genotyped by protein isoelectric focusing as HbI-1/1 (or SS), HbI-2/2 (or FF) and HbI-1/2 (or FS) (SICK 1965) were obtained from Jarle Mork, University of Throndheim. We extracted DNA with a Chelex/proteinase K extraction method (KARI 2006). Tissue samples of approximately 1.5 mm³ were digested in 250 μ l of Chelex digestion solution (5% W/V Chelex 100 Resin (BioRad 142–1253), $0.1\mu g/\mu l$ proteinase K, 0.2% SDS, 0.01 M Tris pH 8, 0.5 mM EDTA pH 8 in 100 ml) at 65°C in a thermomixer at 950 rpm for one and a half hour. The mixture was spun at 3000 rpm for 5 minutes in a tabletop centrifuge, heated to 95°C for 5 minutes and spun at 3000 rpm for 5 minutes. The supernatant was drawn off and diluted 1:19 and used directly as template for PCR (INGIMARSDÓTTIR 2006).

PCR To start the project, we designed oligonucleotide primers for the PCR amplification based on Gen-Bank sequences (accession numbers for *G. morhua* mRNA for haemoglobin β chain and α chain, 2154747 and 2597904, respectively) submitted by Tipping and Birley. A pair of primers were designed for the α gene (GmHBAL26 and GmHBAR553) and for the β gene (GmHBBL29 and GmHBBR532; Table 1). Using a set of bioinformatics tools and based on the fact that Atlantic salmon α and β globin genes are linked tail to tail (WAGNER *et al.* 1994) we designed a PCR strategy for finding similar features in Atlantic cod. We tested amplification on genomic DNA with a forward and reverse β globin primer and a forward and reverse α globin primer. We successfully amplified a large fragment using a forward β and a reverse α primer.

To improve specificity of amplification, we made the primers longer or 40 base pairs, GmHBBL29_long, which was extended to amino acid seven in exon 1 of β gene and GmHBAR553_long which was extended in the 3' untranslated region of the α gene. The PCR was carried out with an initial denaturation step at 94°C for 2 minutes, followed by 10 cycles of denaturation step at 94°C for 20 seconds, an annealing step at 72°C for 30 seconds and an extension step at 68°C for 10 minutes, followed by 25 cycles of a denaturation step at 94°C for 20 seconds, an annealing step at 68°C for 30 seconds and an extension step at 68°C for 10 minutes which was increased by 10 seconds every cycle. A final extension step was at 68°C for 10 minutes. PCR amplifications were performed in 25 μ l reactions, using Long PCR Enzyme Mix containing a mixture of Taq and proofreading pfu polymerases (Fermentas K0181), in 1× Long PCR Buffer with 1.5 mM MgCl₂, 0.2 mM of dNTPs, 50 pmol/ μ l of each primer and 1.5 U Long PCR Enzyme. A 3 μ l of 1:19 diluted Chelex extracted DNA was used as template without quantification.

Table 1: PCR primers. A set of primers used to amplify β gene (BL/BR in name) and α gene (AR/AL in name).

Oligonucleotide
5'-CCAACAACACATCAGCAACC-3'
5′-TTGTGTAGTCAAGAAAATCTGCAA-3′
5′-GAAAGCAACTATCTGAACGTCAA-3′
5′-ACCATTGAAACGGACCACAT-3′
5'-CCAACAACACATCAGCAACCATGGTTGAGTGGACAGATAGTGAGC-3'
5'-ACCATTGAAACGGACCACATGCATCAATGATGGCGGGAGTCTTCA-3'

Cloning After amplification we electrophorized the PCR products from individual SS104.1 in 0.7% TAE agarose gel and purified the fragments with Ultra Agarose Spin Kit (ABgene). We cloned gel fragments into the PCR[®]4-TOPO vector using the TOPO TA Cloning[®] Kit for Sequencing (Invitrogen K4530-20). We plated transformed cells on kanamycin LB plates and picked and cultured positive clones overnight in liquid LB media with kanamycin. Plasmid DNA purification was done with QIA prep[®] Spin MiniPrep Kit (Qiagen). The plasmid DNA was digested with EcoRI restriction endonuclease (Fermentas) and electrophorized in 1% TAE agarose gel to confirm cloning. Plasmids with about 3000 base pairs long inserts were sequenced with a set of ten sequencing primers (Table 2).

Table 2: Walking primers for the 3000 base pair linked β and α gene set. Primers are listed in sequential order of the walk and with direction.

Name		Oligonucleotide		Direction
M13Forwardlong	5'-	CGTTGTAAAACGACGGCCAG	-3'	Forward
GmHBSeq06	5'-	CTGAAGAACATGGACGACATCAA	-3'	Forward
GmHBBLseq01	5'-	TCTTCCTCCCTCACAT	-3'	Forward
GmHBSeq05	5'-	GTCAACATCGTCCAAACAACG	-3'	Forward
GmHBBLseq02	5'-	GCCCGTTAATTTCAGTGCTT	-3'	Forward
GmHBARseq02	5'-	GGGTCAGACCAATCAATAGGC	-3'	Reverse
GmHBSeq04	5'-	GTCTTTACCTTACGTTGTCCTT	-3'	Forward
GmHBARseq01	5'-	TATATGGTGGCACACGAAGC	-3'	Reverse
GmHBSeq03	5'-	CTGAACGTCAACATGAGTCTCT	-3'	Forward
M13Reverselong	5'-	CACACAGGAAACAGCTATGAC	-3'	Reverse

Screening of λ genomic library and subcloning To further isolate other globin genes from Atlantic cod, and in particular to search for a 5' region of β genes, we screened a genomic library constructed in the phage λ vector GEM-11 by Scan Biotec using standard procedures (SAMBROOK *et al.* 1989). The library was kindly presented by Professor Lars Pilström's laboratory in Uppsala University Sweden.

The probability of having any given DNA sequence in the library can be calculated from the equation $N = \ln(1-p)/\ln(1-f)$ where p = desired probability, f = fractional proportion of the genome in a single recombinant and N = necessary number of recombinants. To achieve 99% probability of having a given DNA sequence represented in a library of on average fragment size of 12 kb from the Atlantic cod genome $(1.0 \times 10^9 \text{ bp})$ requires $N = \ln(1-0.99)/\ln(1-(1.2 \times 10^4)/(1.0 \times 10^9) = 3.8 \times 10^5$ recombinants (SAMBROOK *et al.* 1989). We doubled this number and plated out 7.5×10^5 pfu in *E.coli* strain K802. Phage plaques were transferred to nylon filters (Hybond-N nylon membrane, Amersham Biosciences) and the DNA was crosslinked by UV exposure of 70.000 microjoules/cm² (UV crosslinker, Amersham Biotech). The filters were prehybridised at 65°C in $5\times$ SSC (Saline Sodium Citrate). Hybridisation was performed overnight at 65°C followed by stringency washes ($2\times$ SSC and 0.1% SDS; $1\times$ SSC and 0.1% SDS; $0.1\times$ SSC and 0.1% SDS). We made probes by pooling PCR amplifications of coding sequences of amplified β and α genes, radioactively labeled with *redi*prime TM II random prime labelling system (Amersham Biosciences) using Redivue 32 P-dCTP 370 MBg/ml (Amersham Biosciences).

We picked positively hybridizing clones, replated and reprobed them. This procedure was repeated until all clones were positive. Positive clones were amplified in a liquid culture of E.coli strain K802. DNA was isolated with QIAGEN® Lambda Kit (Qiagen). We used SalI, BamHI and EcoRI endonuclease enzymes (Fermentas) to digest the DNA from phage clones to map fragments. We also plugged several restriction fragments from a 1% TAE agarose gel and subcloned into the pUC19 vector. The subcloned DNA from clone $\lambda 1.6$ BamHIClone21 was sequenced using two vector primers: M13F-long 5′–CGTTGTAAAACGACGGCCAG-3′ and revseq-48 5′–AGCGGATAACAATTTCACACAGGA-3′. From the sequence obtained we made two primers for walking: seq01L 5′–GTTTTGCAGGCCCATACATT-3′ and seq02L 5′–ATTCACAAGAAGGGCTGCAC-3′. Together these primers yielded high quality sequences of the λ subclones reported in this paper.

Sequencing and data analysis The sequencing was performed in 10 μ l reactions, using 0.16 pmole/ μ l primer, 1μ l BigDye TRR (Applied Biosystems) and 1μ l plasmid DNA. The sequencing conditions were an initial denaturation step at 96°C for 10 seconds, followed by 26 cycles of a denaturing step at 96°C for 10 seconds, an annealing step at 50°C for 15 seconds and an elongation step at 60°C for 4 minutes, followed by final extension at 10°C for 7 minutes. To get rid of unincorporated dye-terminator nucleotides the DNA was ethanol precipitated with glycogen carrier. Finally, the sequencing reaction products were run on an ABI3100 automated capillary sequencer (Applied Biosystems).

For analysis of sequence data we used the Phred/Phrap/Consed software (EWING *et al.* 1998; EWING and GREEN 1998; GORDON *et al.* 1998). The software reads the trace files from the DNA sequencer, calls

bases, assigns a quality value to each base, and assembles reads into contigs (Quality value = $-\log_{10}(Pe)$, Pe is probability of error). Primer walking was applied to sequence the SS104.1 plasmid using ten primers (Table 2). Each base in the contigs of the assembly of sequenced data from SS104.1 had quality values higher than 40 or 99.99% accuracy of base call and most were higher than 60 (or 99.999% accuracy; Figure 1). Quality values of each base pair of subclone $\lambda 1.6BamHIclone21$ were greater than 60 (data not shown).

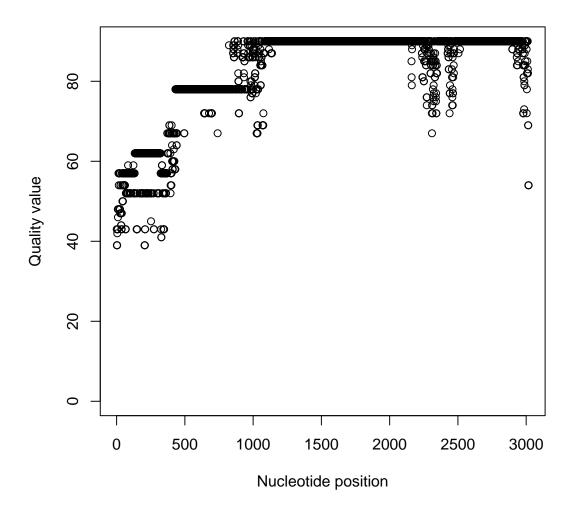


Figure 1: Basecalling quality values on nucleotide position of clone SS104.1 sequences from the Phred/Phrap/Consed software. Quality value $= -\log(Pe)$ where Pe is probability of erroneous base call.

Gene prediction For prediction of coding sequences of the contigs we used The New GENSCAN Web Server at MIT software (BURGE and KARLIN 1997, http://genes.mit.edu/GENSCAN.html). Information from GENSCAN prediction was used for various data analysis, using R (R DEVELOPMENT CORE TEAM 2006), the ape package (PARADIS *et al.* 2005) in particular. We also used the FGENES and FGENESH programs from Softberry (http://sunl.softberry.com) for gene prediction to compare with and augment GENSCAN prediction.

For further evaluation and authentication of the predicted genes we ran the contigs through nucleotide-nucleotide BLAST (blastn) (ALTSCHUL *et al.* 1990, http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/BLAST/) frequently limited by entry query of *G. morhua* mRNA for haemoglobin β -chain, β introns 1 and 2, α -chain and α introns 1 and 2 (accession numbers: 2154747, 2154750, 2154752, 2597904, 2154749, 2154751 respectively). For coding sequences we ran the Genscan predicted coding sequences through Translated query vs. protein database (blastx) (GISH and STATES 1993, http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/BLAST/). We aligned the clones isolated from the genomic λ library and the clones derived from PCR amplification of genomic DNA with Align two sequences bl2seq (ZHANG *et al.* 2000, http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/BLAST/).

For further analysing the structure of sequence data we used the EMBOSS program et andem (RICE et al. 2000) which looks for tandem repeats in a nucleotide sequence. The program calculates a concensus for the repeat region and gives a score for how many matches there are to the consensus minus the number of mismatches.

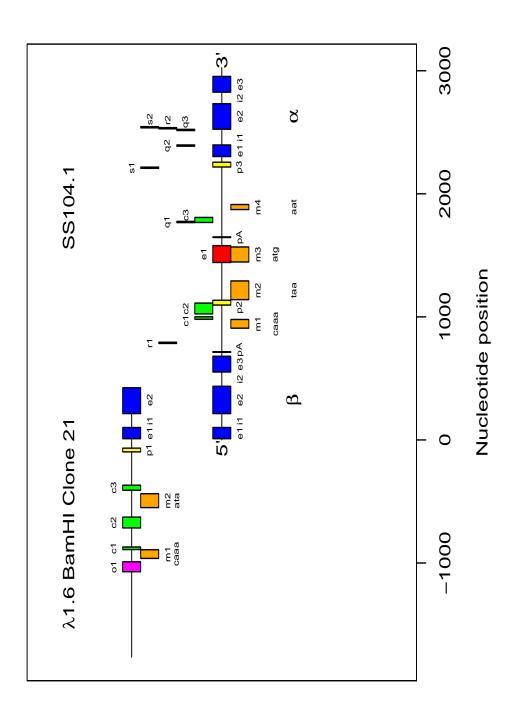
Results

A clone from PCR amplification In order to pull out a β/α gene set from the Atlantic cod genome a PCR research strategy was designed based on knowledge about fish globin genes (WAGNER *et al.* 1994; BROWNLIE *et al.* 2003; CHAN *et al.* 1997). In several fish, globin genes are located in tandem on the same chromosome, frequently in opposite direction. Forward and reverse primers that successfully amplified β genes and the α genes separately were combined in pairs in a set of PCR reactions. The PCR frequently yielded smears which implied unspecific amplification. By making longer primers and increasing elongation step in the PCR (of 10 minutes) and by use of LongPCR enzyme we managed to get a clear amplification of about 3000 base pairs long fragment. After cloning and sequencing clone SS104.1 a blastn analysis (ALTSCHUL *et al.* 1990) revealed that the fragment contained a pair of genes. A β globin locus with three exons and two introns was at the 5' end followed by about 1500 basepair intergenic region and finally an α globin locus with three exons and two introns at the 3' end of the fragment (Figure 2). The intergenic region had four different tandem repeats or microsatellite repeat loci, one tetrameric (caaa) and three trimeric loci (agt, aat, taa) (m1 to m4 orange boxes in Figure 2). The number of tandem repeats found with the etandem program are listed in Table 3. The etandem program finds and reports imperfect repeats and the identity ranged from 61 to 93% (Table 3).

Table 3: Predicted tandem repeats by the etandem program. Start and end position, size, count and consensus repeat unit are given. Score is based on number of matches and mismatches to consensus and identity refers to percentage identity of bases to a perfect consensus repeat.

	Start	End	Score	Size	Count	Identity	Consensus
1	908	979	26	4	18	71	caaa
2	1140	1292	30	3	51	61	taa
3	1872	1913	31	3	14	91	aat
4	1446	1568	102	3	41	93	atg

A β globin gene The β gene sequence observed in SS104.1 had three exons and two introns (gene number 1 in Table 4). It was oriented 5'-3', at the 5' end of the 3000 base pairs fragment and 5' to the α gene (Figure 2). GENSCAN found a poly-A signal 32 basepairs downstream of the predicted gene, aataaa (pA and black stripe 3' to β exon3 in Figure 2). The Genscan predictions had a probability of 1 for all β exons (Table 4). Alignments with unpublished sequences in GenBank, (*G. morhua* mRNA for haemoglobin β -chain, β intron 1 and intron 2: accession numbers 2154747, 2154750, 2154752, respectively deposited by



boxes). Regions of conserved or nearly conserved sequences in β / α intergenic region of Clone SS104.1 and in 5' region of β gene in λ 1.6 Figure 2: A schematic of a 5/-3 tail to head $\beta-\alpha$ gene set in Atlantic cod. PCR clone SS104.1 is a TOPO-TA cloned 3000 base pair PCR fragment of genomic DNA from individual SS104. A 1.6 BamHI Clone 21 is a subclone from a larger clone pulled out of an Atlantic cod genomic λ library. Zero represents SS104 β gene initiation codon. Three exons in β and α like genes (e blue boxes) and introns (i thin lines between boxes) as predicted by GENSCAN. A single-exon gene in intergenic (e1 red box). Promoters for single-exon gene in intergenic region and for α gene predicted by GENSCAN and promoter predicted for β gene by FGENES and FGENESH (p yellow boxes). Polyadenylation signals 3' to β and single-exon gene (pA thin black bars). Tandem repeats (microsatellites) of both clones predicted by etandem (m orange BamHI Clone 21 (c green boxes). Part of an unrelated gene (o magenta box). Locations of short fragments (about 10–12 base pairs) at α exon 1, intron 1 and exon 2 junctions showing identity to fragments in intergenic region (q, r and s at three top levels in SS104.1 part of drawing). See text for further explanation and discussion.

Tipping and Birley) showed large differences in intron1. The sequences differed by a 39 base pair fragment at the beginning of intron 1. In a separate experiment a PCR product from amplification of only the β gene, which also was TOPO-TA cloned and sequenced, showed similarities to two different fragments of intron 1. Thus we have observed two different β intron 1. They both differed from the GenBank intron (accession number: 2154750) by the same 39 base pairs long fragment at the beginning of intron 1. In addition our second intron 1 differed from the first by 30 base pairs at another position at which our first intron sequence was identical to that of Tipping and Birley. Thus, this 30 base pairs fragment is unique to each of the three intron 1 sequences known so far. In several other experiments (HALLDÓRSDÓTTIR and ÁRNASON 2007) no PCR products of linked β and α gene sets showed the intron 1 deposited in GenBank by Tipping and Birley. Our intron 2 sequence was identical to that deposited by Tipping and Birley (accession number 2154752) except for two base substitutions, that is base number 476 in SS104.1 C-T and base number 478 in SS104.1 C-G.

Further dissimilarities were also found between the sequence of our clone and the GenBank sequence mRNA (accession number 2154747). In exon 1 a base substitution changed amino acid number 12, T–N. In exon 2 one silent substitution occured at nucleotide position 362, G–C. Large differences were found in exon 3, where many base substitutions gave rise to amino acid differences between our sequence and the sequence deposited by Tipping and Birley. Amino acids number 8 (V–G), 15 (G–V), 21 (E–D), 25 (A–G), 30 (L–R), 32 (V–F) and 40 (Q–E) in exon 3 differed between our sequence and Tipping and Birley. In addition five silent substitutions were found as well in exon 3.

Table 4: Genscan output for sequence SS104.1. Predicted genes and their exons.

	Gn.Ex ^a	Type ^b	Sc	$Begin^{\mathrm{d}}$	Ende	Lenf	Frg	${\rm Ph^h}$	I.Aci	Do.T ^j	$CodRg^k$	P^{l}	Tscr ^m
1	1.01	Init	+	10	101	92	0	2	101	46	153	1	12.36
2	1.02	Intr	+	214	436	223	1	1	116	63	567	1	55.13
3	1.03	Term	+	552	680	129	2	0	72	43	244	1	16.48
4	1.04	PlyA	+	712	717	6							1.05
5	2	Prom	+	1096	1135	40							-6.36
6	2.01	Sngl	+	1442	1579	138	1	0	19	42	521	0.55	34.20
7	2.02	PlyA	+	1645	1650	6							1.05
8	3	Prom	+	2218	2257	40							-1.96
9	3.01	Init	+	2303	2397	95	1	2	90	80	87	0.56	7.95
10	3.02	Intr	+	2525	2732	208	2	1	102	102	279	0.89	29.78
11	3.03	Term	+	2826	2954	129	2	0	86	49	178	0.89	11.88

^a Gn.Ex: gene number, exon number (for reference)

An α globin like gene The α gene had three exons and two introns (gene number 3 in Table 4). It is oriented 5'-3', at the 3' end of the 3000 base pair fragment and 3' to the β locus (Figure 2). GENSCAN predicted a promoter of 40 base pairs with a TATA box (GCCACTATAAATACATCTGCTCTTGTTTG-GTTGAGCATCA) 5' to the α gene (p3 yellow box in Figure 2). Furthermore, 29 base pairs 5' to this pro-

b Type: Init = Initial exon (ATG to 5' splice site) Intr = Internal exon (3' splice site to 5' splice site) Term = Terminal exon (3' splice site to stop codon) Sngl = Single-exon gene (ATG to stop) Prom = Promoter (TATA box / initation site) PlyA = poly-A signal (consensus: AATAAA)

^c S: DNA strand (+ = input strand; - = opposite strand)

^d Begin: beginning of exon or signal (numbered on input strand)

^e End: end point of exon or signal (numbered on input strand)

f Len: length of exon or signal (bp)

g Fr: reading frame (a forward strand codon ending at x has frame x mod 3)

^h Ph: net phase of exon (exon length modulo 3)

ⁱ I/Ac: initiation signal or 3' splice site score (tenth bit units)

^j Do/T: 5' splice site or termination signal score (tenth bit units)

^k CodRg: coding region score (tenth bit units)

¹ P: probability of exon (sum over all parses containing exon)

^m Tscr: exon score (depends on length, I/Ac, Do/T and CodRg scores)

moter we found a CCAAT box. The cloned fragment ended right after the 3' end of the α coding sequence and there was no evidence for a polyA signal 3' to the α gene. Alignments with unpublished sequences in GenBank, (*G. morhua* mRNA for haemoglobin α -chain, intron 1 and intron 2; accession numbers 2597904, 2154749, 2154751, respectively) revealed an overlap of 10 basepairs between the end of intron 1 and start of exon 2 and base 2510 in SS104.1 was T instead of C in 2154749. Intron 2 differed from 2154751 by eight base pairs at the start and one indel difference was observed compared to 2154751. Exon 1 was identical to α in 2597904. A substitution in exon 2 of SS104.1 causes an amino acid change (I-C). Exon 3 was identical to exon 3 in 2597904. The Genscan predictions had a probability of 56% for exon 1 and 89% for exon 2 and exon 3 of the predicted α gene (Table 4).

Three eleven base pairs long coding regions from the α gene found similarities to the intergenic region (q, r and s thin lines in three top levels in SS104.1 part of Figure 2). The fragment at first level in Figure 2 (q) was the amino acid sequence ALSR (GCTCTGTCCAG). It was found at the end of α exon 1 and at nucleotide positions 1766–1776 in the intergenic region. With one substitution, this same fragment was found at the end of α intron 1 (GCTCTCTCCAG). At the second level the fragment (r in Figure 2) was the amino acid sequence VAV (GGTGGCTGTGT) which was found in direct continuation of the q fragment at the beginning of exon 2 (amino acids numbers 2–4 of that exon). This was also found 3' to β gene at nucleotide positions 789–794. At the third level (s in Figure 2) partly overlapping and in continuation of fragment r, this fragment codes for the amino acid sequence VYPQ (TGTACCCCCAG) which was found in exon 2 (amino acid numbers 4–7). This fragment was also found 5' to the α gene at nucleotide positions 2207–2217. Thus different parts of the 30 base pair region at the boundary of intron 1 and exon 2 find similarities with various parts of the intergenic region.

Clone BamHI21 from a λ genomic library The β locus coding region started soon after the 5' end of the cloned PCR fragment and thus there was no information available on control regions located 5' to the β locus. To study this a 13 kb λ clone giving positive hybridization signals with the β/α probe was isolated from an Atlantic cod genomic library. A *Bam*HI digested fragments was subcloned into pUC19 and sequenced. The clone λ 1.6BamHIClone21 contained a 5' region of a β gene.

The λ clone contained exon 2 (where a *Bam*HI restriction site exists), intron 1 and exon 1 of a β gene and continued for 1700 base pairs upstream of the β gene (λ 1.6BamHIClone21 in Figure 2). The Genscan predictions had a probability of 99% and 97% respectively for these β exons (data not shown). GENSCAN did not predict a promoter for the β gene in this region. However, FGENESH and FGENES both predicted a TTTAAA box 5' to the β gene (TSS 1 in Table 5).

Table 5: FGENESH gene prediction output for concatenated sequence SS104.1 and λ 1.6BamHIClone21. The 5' end of λ 1.6BamHIClone21 defines start of concatenated sequence. TSS - Position of transcription start (TATA-box position and score)

	Feature	Start	End	Score	Ol	ORF	
1	TSS	1667		-7.94			
2	CDSf	1747	1838	14	1747	1836	90
3	CDSi	1951	2173	44.10	1952	2173	222
4	CDS1	2289	2417	18.20	2289	2417	129
5	PolA	2449		1.25			
6	TSS	2839		-10.14			
7	CDSo	3179	3316	15.37	3179	3316	138
8	PolA	3382		1.25			
9	TSS	3959		-4.84			
10	CDSf	4040	4134	13.59	4040	4132	93
11	CDSi	4262	4469	29.20	4263	4469	207
12	CDS1	4563	4691	22.12	4563	4691	129

When $\lambda 1.6$ BamHIClone21 was aligned with SS104.1 (our PCR derived clone) three regions were found to be conserved, (c green boxes in Figure 2). The λ nucleotide position (n.p.): 874–895/SS104.1 n.p.: 980–1001 with identities = 22/22 (100%); the λ n.p.: 1050–1138/SS104.1 n.p.: 1024–1112 with identities = 89/89 (100%) and λ n.p.: 1356–1397/SS104.1 n.p.: 1767–1808 with identities = 36/42 (85%) (c1, c2 and c3, respectively, in Figure 2). The caaa and ata tandem repeats (m1 and m2 in Figure 2) also were found in the 5' β region and they as well as the conserved sequence blocks occured in the same relative positions in the 5' β region as in the intergenic region.

The c2 largest conserved box partly coincided with the promoter predicted for the single-exon gene (TAATTCCAATAAAAATGTACAATTTAGCCCGTTAATTTCA). The first seventeen basepairs of the promoter sequence were identical to the end of the c2 box. The overlap region included the CCAAT box, a known type of promoter in vertebrate globin genes (HARDISON 1998; XIANGDONG *et al.* 2004). The promoter for the β locus was, therefore, classified as a CCAAT promoter with TTTAAA box. A blast of the c2 sequence on to the Zebrafish and Pufferfish genomes found no similarities. The conserved sequence blocks found though some similarities, up to 20 base pair similarity, to sequences on several chromosomes in the human genome.

The GENSCAN prediction of the concatenated sequences changed relative to the predictions obtained for the SS104.1 sequence alone. GENSCAN did not predict a promoter for the β gene, however, something in the concatenated sequence caused the program to predict a single four-exon protein instead of the intergenic

single-exon protein and three-exon α protein predicted for SS104.1. FGENES did predict a TTTAAA box promoter for the β gene. This program, however, predicted the whole region to consist of one gene with five exons. The probability that a correct exon is predicted depends on global as well as local sequence properties. The probability values for exons in the α locus were much lower than for the β locus and something in the 5' region caused the programs to change prediction of exons in the region 3' to β .

Interestingly, a partial sequence of an unrelated gene is found only 924 bp upstream from where the β gene starts (Figure 2).

Discussion

A set of linked β and α globin like genes in Atlantic cod In this report we describe the isolation and characterization of linked β and α globin genes from Atlantic cod. The genes are oriented tail to head in a 5' to 3' direction. The genes both contain the conserved pattern of globin genes, three exons and two introns each (DICKERSON and GEIS 1983). In addition, a putative single exon gene is predicted in the intergenic region.

A distinct arrangement of globin genes characterizes vertebrates in general. In humans (and other mammals) β and α globin clusters are located on different chromosomes. The β cluster includes five functional genes and one pseudogene. Their arrangement on the chromosome frequently correspond to their order of expression in development, all of them in a 5' to 3' direction of transcription. The β cluster in mice has the structural genes in tandem including three embryonic genes and two genes expressed in fetus and adult animals. In chicken, however, the adult β genes are flanked by the embryonic genes (SJAKSTE and SJAKSTE 2002; HARDISON 1998). This demonstrates variations on the theme of arrangement and order of expression in development.

In the African frog (*Xenopus laevis*) the genes are linked on the same chromosome with three α genes followed by three β genes. Direction of transcription is 5' to 3' and embryonic genes are located 5' to adult animal genes (HOSBACH *et al.* 1983). However, the arrangement of these genes in fish is different. In the Zebrafish pairs of linked α and β genes are found for embryonic genes and adult genes respectively, both on the same chromosome. The direction of transcription is tail to tail (5'-3', 3'-5') in the embryonic pair but head to head (3'-5', 5'-3') in the adult globin pair (BROWNLIE *et al.* 2003). Similarly, the globin genes in Pufferfish are closely linked and directed in opposite transcriptional orientations (GILLEMANS *et al.* 2003). Globin genes in Salmon are linked pairs of tail to tail oriented α and β genes. Two types of pairs have been reported, both with the same direction of transcription (WAGNER *et al.* 1994).

The orientation of globin genes in Atlantic cod described here differs from arrangements found in the other model and semi-model fish species described. The tail to head orientation is similar to that of higher vertebrates. Our findings further support the hypothesis (HARDISON 1998) about hemoglobins being encoded by orthologous gene which have gained new role through duplication events and subsequent specialization.

Putative gene in intergenic region GENSCAN predicts a single exon gene in the region between the β and α genes. The exon mainly consist of asparctic acids (D). The gene has its own promoter, initiation and termination codons and a polyA signal and is thus a putative functional gene. No similarities are found to

any known protein in GenBank. The question remains whether this is a functional protein and whether it has something to do with expression or other functions of the globin genes or proteins. LI *et al.* (2004) in their study state that simple sequence repeats (SSR) in protein coding regions or variations of SSR in 5'-UTRs can regulate gene expression (LI *et al.* 2004). The atg microsatellite tandem repeats in the intergenic region could also be of that kind. Further experiments (e.g. 5' or 3' RACE) have to be done to find out if the gene that GENSCAN predict is translated to protein or not.

Proximal regulatory regions of the genes Different functions of hemoglobins in all kingdoms of organisms illustrate the acquisition of new roles by a pre-existing structural gene. Temporal and environmental regulation of expression is usually controlled by promoters and enhancers (HARDISON 1998; DICKERSON and GEIS 1983)

In humans a distal locus-control-region (LCR) is located 16 kb upstream of the β cluster (SJAKSTE and SJAKSTE 2002). An interaction between DNase I Hypersensitive Sites (HSS) of the LCR and a promoter of a globin gene is believed to switch on expression (SJAKSTE and SJAKSTE 2002). The role of proximal regulatory regions in regulation of transcription in a gene system like the globin clusters is of great importance. GILLEMANS *et al.* (2003) searched for remote haemoglobin regulatory elements in Pufferfish and argued that they are not present for the linked α/β globin gene locus in that specie. Therefore, in this case, promoters proximal to the genes regulate transcription.

In our study, a short regulatory region, a CCAAT promoter, is located 5' to the first exon of all of the three genes reported. This is a conserved motif in all vertebrate globin gene promoters (HARDISON 1998). It can be bound by the CP1 a complex (HARDISON 1998). The CP1 binds more strongly to the CCAAT box in the α globin gene promoter than in the β globin gene promoter (COHEN *et al.* 1986; HARDISON 1998).

Each gene has an associated TATA box which nevertheless differs among the genes. The β gene has a TTTAAA box, the gene in the intergene region has a TTTAA box and the α gene has a TATA box. All of them are known as conserved sequences for the TATA Binding Protein (TBP) in initiation of transcription.

To sum up, the proximal regulatory elements for linked β and α globin genes in Atlantic cod are CCAAT with TATA box promoters. This corresponds to the pattern found in other fish, however, the orientation of the genes in Atlantic cod differs from that of the model species.

Conserved sequence blocks in 5' region of β and α genes The conserved sequences found 3' to the β gene to the 5' start of the α gene in the SS104.1 clone and in the 5' region of the β gene of the λ 1.6BamHI21 clone are likely control elements of some kind. These elements and two of the microsatellites occur in the same relative order in both regions (Figure 2).

What role the conserved sequences and the conservation of the relative order of these various elements play is not known. Indication of simple sequence repeats (SSR) within coding genes and their untranslated regions participating in regulation of gene expression are known (LI *et al.* 2004). Variable copy number of the tandem repeats linked to specific genes are also thought to be in relation to an immediate response to environmental challenges (LI *et al.* 2004).

However, the 5' to 3' order of expression of globin genes by arrangement in development in human (DICKERSON and GEIS 1983) might also give a clue. The conserved structure may be related to a joint expression of linked adjoining β and α genes in Atlantic cod. CHAN *et al.* (1997) showed that these genes in Zebrafish are coordinately expressed. The 89 base pair long sequence, (c2 in Figure 2) contains the CCAAT box, which is a conserved motif in globin promoters (FILIPE *et al.* 1999). Therefore these conserved sequences (c1,c2,c3 in Figure 2) located 5' to both β and α gene, up to 89 base pair of similarity (c2 in Figure 2), might serve as binding sites for some transcriptional activators or complexes. This hypothesis remains to be tested.

A 5' control region of a β gene To characterize regulation of a gene it is important to examine its flanking regions, the 5' region in particular. The position of an unrelated gene about 1000 base pairs upstream of the β gene indicates that we may have cloned the most 5' region of a cluster like the one found in Pufferfish (GILLEMANS *et al.* 2003). Alternatively, our β/α gene set may be one of a number of such gene sets which have large genetic regions between them as is the case in Zebrafish (BROWNLIE *et al.* 2003). In the Zebrafish such regions may contain other genes. Both these model species and Atlantic cod as well, are members of evolutionary lineages which are considered to have undergone a genomic duplication via tetraploidization after the divergence of ray-finned and lobe-finned fishes (HOEGG *et al.* 2004). However, independent gene or chromosome duplications are significantly more frequent in each lineage of euteleosts than in mammals, or are lost less frequently (ROBINSON-RECHAVI *et al.* 2001). Thus, information about gene duplication obtained in one fish lineage cannot be extended systematically to another (ROBINSON-RECHAVI *et al.* 2001). The Atlantic cod lineage may thus be showing a third pattern of globin genes arrangement among fish.

If, as is likely, the Atlantic cod genome contains several copies of α and β globin genes there is a possibility that the β gene in the $\lambda 1.6$ BamHI21 clone is not the same locus as that in the SS104.1 PCR derived clone. Although the c3 conserved block differs between the 5' and 3' region the β coding regions of the clones are 100% identical. Thus we may have found the correct 5' region for this particular β/α gene set (HALLDÓRSDÓTTIR and ÁRNASON 2007). However, a final verification awaits further characterization of genomic regions.

The hemoglobin system is very important for the adaptation of Atlantic cod to its environment. Knowledge of the structure of α and β globin gene both coding, intergenic and control regions, is of fundamental importance in understanding and explaining regulation of transcription of different hemoglobins in Atlantic cod. This study is a first step towards such an understanding in Atlantic cod, a non-model organism of great biological interest.

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Multiple Linked β and α Globin Genes in Atlantic Cod: a PCR Based Strategy of Genomic Exploration (Manuscript 2)

Multiple Linked β and α Globin Genes in Atlantic Cod: a PCR Based Strategy of Genomic Exploration

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Running title: Multiple β and α Globin Genes in Cod

Contents

Abstract

Atlantic cod, *Gadus morhua*, lives in a variety of environments where oxygen transport is of great importance for individual fitness. Allozyme variation in Atlantic cod hemoglobins shows various signs of natural selection. We report here a genomic exploration of globin genes in this non-model organism. We apply a PCR based strategy with a strict criterion of phylogenetically informative sites to estimate the number of linked β and α globin genes. We estimate PCR error rate by PCR of cloned DNA and recloning and by analysis of singleton variable sites. Based on the error rate we exclude variable sites so that the remaining variation meet successively stricter criteria of doubleton and triplet variable site. Applying these criteria we show that there are ten clusters of linked β/α globin genes in the genome of Atlantic cod. Six variable amino acid changes in both genes were found to be in linkage disequilibrium with silent nucleotide substitutions, two in the β gene and four in the α gene. A phylogenetic tree, based on our strictly phylogenetically informative sites among 57 clones from 19 individuals, is split into two major branches by the second amino acid change in the β gene. This change is supported by extensive linkage disequilibrium between the amino acid change and numerous other phylogenetically informative nucleotide sites. We discuss that the different gene sets observed in the genome of Atlantic cod may represent different loci encoding different globins and may also represent allelic variation at some loci.

Keywords: Hemoglobin variability, PCR errors, β/α globin genes, genomic exploration, linkage disequilibrium

Introduction

For decades allozyme variation in Atlantic cod, (*Gadus morhua*), hemoglobin has been used for inference about population structure. SICK (1965) described a system consisting of two major zones of hemoglobin, HbI and HbII, using the technique of agar gel electrophoresis in Smithies buffer. The HbI zone shows variation interpreted genetically as a polymorphism with a pair of co-dominant alleles giving rise to HbI-1/1, HbI-2/2 homozygotes and HbI-1/2 heterozygotes. On the molecular level this appeared to be a simple single-locus two-allele polymorphism. By applying the more sensitive technique of iso-electric focusing to hemoglobin isoforms (BRIX *et al.* 2004; FYHN *et al.* 1994) patterns of at least five major zones of hemoglobins are found with several minor zones as well. Rare hemoglobin patterns have been detected from the beginning of hemoglobin studies. FRYDENBERG *et al.* (1965) described several rare hemoglobin patterns ranging in frequency from 0.5% to 2% in the Barents Sea and 2.5% in Newfoundland and Iceland

and even much higher or about 10% in English and Scottish cod (FRYDENBERG *et al.* 1965). These rare patterns have been interpreted (MANWELL and BAKER 1970) to arise due to variation in a polypeptide chain, which is thought to be common to both the HbI (major) and HbII (minor) zones of FRYDENBERG *et al.* (1965).

KARPOV and NOVIKOV (1980) studied reaction norms of hemoglobin genotypes in relation to temperature in Atlantic cod. KARPOV and NOVIKOV (1980) and BRIX *et al.* (1998) showed that oxygen affinity of hemoglobin is higher for HbI-2/2 homozygotes at low temperatures ($< 10^{\circ}$ C) and for HbI-1/1 cod, for some blood pH levels, at high temperatures ($> 14^{\circ}$ C). Heterozygotes are generally found to have oxygen affinity values intermediate between the two homozygotes. Extending these observations PETERSEN and STEFFENSEN (2003) experimentally determined a behavioral response and temperature preference of juvenile Atlantic cod with different hemoglobin types under normoxia and mild hypoxia. They found that, when given a choice, HbI-2/2 cod preferred $8.2 \pm 1.5^{\circ}$ C while HbI-1/1 cod preferred $15.4 \pm 1.1^{\circ}$ C. They further showed that under hypoxia (35% oxygen saturation) HbI-1/1 cod preferred a lower temperature of $9.8 \pm 1.8^{\circ}$ C. Thus genetic variation of hemoglobin in Atlantic cod shows complex reaction norms (Gupta and Lewontin 1982) to various environmental factors.

For fish, organisms which live in water, individual fitness depends on interactions of genes and various environmental factor. For example, the capacity of maintaining neutral buoyancy of the body at different depths in the water can be a problem. This problem is solved with a swim bladder and is controlled with special type of hemoglobins. Root effect (ROOT 1931) hemoglobins can deliver oxygen to an organ containing a high partial pressure of oxygen. Root effect hemoglobins deliver oxygen into the swim bladder (BERENBRINK *et al.* 2005). Vision in fish having an avascular retina is another problem, in particular vision under low light conditions such as at great depths, and the retina of fish eye has high demand for oxygen (PELSTER and DECKER 2004). In Atlantic salmon, 17 electrophoretically distinct haemoglobin proteins have been characterized, grouped according to their migration towards anode and cathode as anodal or cathodal proteins. Expression of cathodal proteins increases with growth. Non-Bohr hemoglobin is one of the cathodal proteins, a hemoglobin for which pH does not affect O₂ affinity. Such multiple haemoglobin in fish are quite common (MCMORROW *et al.* 1997). However, the developmental regulation of their expression is not known as in higher vertebrates (MCMORROW *et al.* 1997).

It is not known which of the multiple hemoglobin isoforms in Atlantic cod, mentioned above, are the Root effect hemoglobins, which are normal Bohr effect hemoglobin, or which are important at various developmental stages. The various different environmental conditions which an Atlantic cod experiences in its lifespan from larvae to adult is likely met with a variety of hemoglobins. The genetic polymorphism found in the hemoglobin also is clearly related to various environmental condition. These environmental challenges are likely met at the genetic level by various structural elements, control elements or both. Clearly, understanding how expression of different isoforms is regulated is of great importance from physiological and ecological perspectives.

Model organisms are an extensively studied set of species of great importance for understanding of various topics in biology. Many important methods derive from studies of model organisms and for many model organisms complete genomic sequence is known. However, many organism have biological features which are not found in any model organism which, however, are of great interest. For example the heterogenous environment which Atlantic cod live in and its high variance in offspring number, likely due to selective forces (ÁRNASON 2004), makes it an interesting organism for studying fitness and natural selection. The allozyme research on hemoglobin in Atlantic cod (e.g. FRYDENBERG *et al.* 1965; PETERSEN and STEFFENSEN 2003; SICK 1965) give a strong indication of natural selection at work at this hemoglobin locus. Therefore, we thought it of interest to study such a system in Atlantic cod applying a genomic perspective.

In our previous study (HALLDÓRSDÓTTIR and ÁRNASON 2007) we report characterization of a set of linked β and α globin genes in cod. The genes are oriented tail to head (5'to 3') with a putative single exon gene in intergenic region of about 1500 base pairs. In this study we report our results from a PCR based strategy for genomic exploration estimating the number of β and α linked globin gene sets in Atlantic cod.

Materials and Methods

Molecular work All molecular work, PCR, sequencing and cloning conditions and methods have been described in HALLDÓRSDÓTTIR and ÁRNASON (2007). Briefly we PCR amplified approximately 3000 base pairs fragments using genomic DNA as template, TOPO-TA cloned the fragments, sequenced the clones with a set of primers giving overlapping sequencing and base called and assembled sequences into contigs using the Phred/Phrap/Consed software (EWING and GREEN 1998; EWING *et al.* 1998; GORDON *et al.* 1998).

Source of genomic DNA Samples from individuals, already genotyped by iso-electric focussing technique, were obtained from Professor Jarle Mork at the University of Throndheim. The HbI hemoglobin shows variation considered to be a polymorphism with a pair of co-dominant alleles (SICK 1965). The homozygous genotypes HbI–1/1 and HbI–2/2 and a heterozygote genotype HbI–1/2 were named after their relative movements in agar gel electropheresis: SS (slow slow), FF (fast fast) and FS (fast slow) respectively.

A PCR based strategy of genomic exploration Approximately a 3000 base pairs PCR product was amplified using conserved primers of a linked β and α gene set (HALLDÓRSDÓTTIR and ÁRNASON 2007) from a number of individuals already genotyped for the HbI (Table 1). PCR products were cloned into a pCR®4-TOPO vector (Invitrogen). Several clones were derived from three individuals (twelve from an FF, eleven from an SS, and twelve from an FS individual). In addition 2–4 clones were derived from a few individuals and a single clone was derived from each of several other individuals (Table 1). We fully sequenced clones from seven FF individuals, six SS individuals and six FS individuals, total 57 clones from nineteen individuals (Table 1).

Potential PCR and cloning errors There was a potential for two kinds of errors occuring in the PCR and cloning employed in this study. First, although we used a pfu proof-reading polymerase, there nevertheless exists a possibility for the polymerase to insert incorrect nucleotides in the molecules which were later cloned and sequenced. Second, the PCR elongation step may be terminated prematurely generating a molecule which might prime another template in the next PCR round. This would lead to chimeric molecules. To analyse the variation found among different clones of the same or different individuals, the possibility of errors made in PCR must be considered. To evaluate and estimate the first kind of error rate in PCR and cloning procedure we took DNA from a clone and used as a template in a new PCR. We then

cloned the PCR products and sequenced a single clone (Figure 1). PCR conditions were the same between original and repeat except for the source of DNA. We did this for seven clones and thus had seven pairs of sequences from original and repeat clones. The differences between the original and repeat sequences of each pair are due to errors in PCR and cloning. We also calculated the PCR error rate from singletons found among clones. To study the second kind of error we inspected the sequences generated to look for signs of chimeric molecules as reported in results.

A strict criterion for phylogenetically informative sites To evaluate the polymorphism seen among clones of each individual as well as among individuals strict criteria were used. To be considered a phylogenetically (parsimony) informative site each nucleotide or an amino acid that varied from the rest had to appear at least in two individuals thus being derived from at least two seperate PCR and cloning events. A variable site with three or more different base pairs was also taken as phylogenetically informative site (nucleotide position 2585 in Table 3 for example). A variant observed in two or more clones of the same individual was not regarded as phylogenetically informative. Phylogenetically informative sites were acquired using MEGA (KUMAR *et al.* 2004) and the results edited to conform to our strict criteria before being submitted to further analysis. In addition even stricter criteria were used for variant having to appear in three or more individuals thus being derived from three or more PCR reactions.

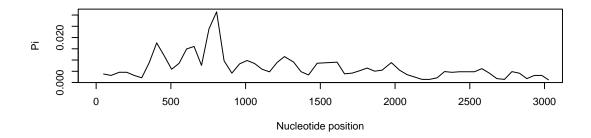
Data analysis Sequence data of PCR and cloned β/α gene sets were analysed with the Phred/Phrap/Consed software (EWING and GREEN 1998; EWING *et al.* 1998; GORDON *et al.* 1998) which calls bases, calculates quality values and assembles reads into contigs. We used CLUSTALW (THOMPSON *et al.* 1994) under nedit for alignments of both nucleotides and amino acids. We blasted the sequences using blastn for nucleotides and blastx for coding sequences to look for similarities (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/BLAST/). Sequences used for comparison were for *G. morhua* (accession numbers: 2154747, 2154749, 2154750, 2154751, 2154752, 2597904), deposited in GenBank by Tipping and Birley and protein sequences in VERDE *et al.* (2006).

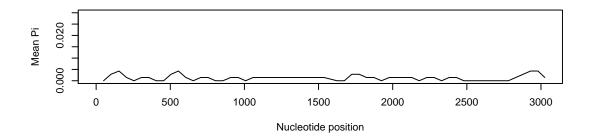
GENSCAN (BURGE and KARLIN 1997) was used to predict exons and introns (see HALLDÓRSDÓTTIR and ÁRNASON 2007) for details. The DNAPARS, DNAML and DNADIST and NEIGHBOR programs from the PHYLIP package were used to make parsimony, maximum likelihood and distance trees (FELSENSTEIN 2002). Variation in tandem repeat copy number among genotypes evaluated with etandem (RICE *et al.* 2000) was tested with an ANOVA. Nucleotide diversity (Π) and number of segregating sites (S) were es-

DnaSP (Rozas *et al.* 2003). This was done for all 57 original clones. This was also done for each pair of the seven pairs of original and repeat clones made for evaluation of PCR error rate. The average of the seven pairs was compared with the values of the original clones. Linkage disequilibrium (Lewontin and Kojima 1960) among sites, or the non-random association between variants at different variable sites, was estimated with Fisher's exact test using DnaSP (Rozas *et al.* 2003). Bonferroni adjustment for multiple test (Rice 1995) was applied.

Table 1: Names and numbers of 19 genotyped individuals and their clones.

FF Individual			Cle	ones		
FF127	FF127.1	FF127.2	FF127.3	FF127.4	FF127.5	FF127.7
	FF127.8	FF127.9	FF127.10	FF127.11	FF127.12	FF127.13
FF4	FF4.1	FF4.2	FF4b.1	FF4b.2		
FF10	FF10.1					
FF16	FF16.1					
FF20	FF20.1					
FF23	FF23.1					
FF24	FF24.1					
SS Individual			Cle	ones		
SS103	SS103.1	SS103.3	SS103.4	SS103.5	SS103.6	SS103.7
	SS103.8	SS103.10	SS103.11	SS103.12	SS103.13	
SS51	SS51.1					
SS104	SS104.1					
SS129	SS129.1					
SS130	SS130.1					
SS131	SS131.1					
FS Individual			Cle	ones		
FS113	FS113.1	FS113.2	FS113.3	FS113.4	FS113.5	FS113.6
	FS113.7	FS113.9	FS113.10	FS113.11	FS113.12	FS113.13
FS14	FS14.1					
FS36	FS36.1	FS36.2				
FS43	FS43.1	FS43.2				
FS54	FS54.1	FS54.2				
FS82	FS82.1					





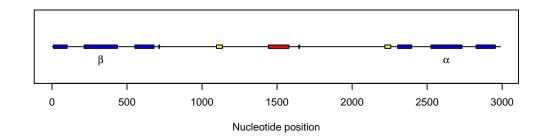
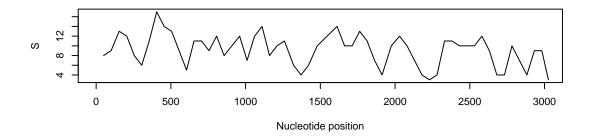
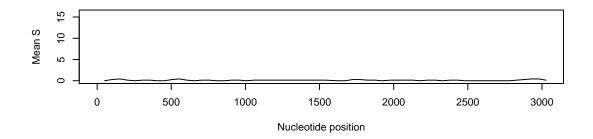


Figure 1: Nucleotide diversity on nucleotide position. (a) Nucleotide diversity Π estimated in a sliding window of 100 nucleotides with a 50 nucleotides step size over the 3000 base pairs linked β and α seqment among all clones. (b) Mean Π between original and repeat clone over the seven pairs of original and repeats in the study of errors generated during PCR and cloning. Estimated in a sliding window the same as in a. (c) A schematic of predicted exons, introns and intergenic region of the 3000 base pairs fragment (HALLDÓRSDÓTTIR and ÁRNASON 2007).





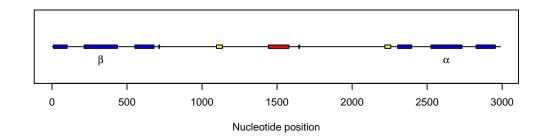


Figure 2: Segregating sites (S) on nucleotide position. (a) S was estimated in a sliding window of 100 nucleotides with a 50 nucleotides step size for all nucleotides of a 3000 base pairs linked β and α fragment among all clones. (b) S was estimated for the same fragment between pairs of original and repeat clone in the study of PCR errors. The diagram shows mean S over the seven pairs. (c) A schematic of predicted exons, introns and intergenic regions of the 3000 base pairs fragment (HALLDÓRSDÓTTIR and ÁRNASON 2007).

Results

Estimates of PCR errors Nucleotide diversity, Π , is contingent on frequency of different nucleotides at a position whereas the parameter segregating site, S, is not. Nucleotide diversity Π estimated in a sliding window was an order of magnitude higher among the original clones than between original and repeat clones of the pairs of the PCR error study (Figure 1). Peaks of nucleotide diversity seen among the original clones were not seen between the original and repeat pairs (Figure 1). In particular nucleotide diversity peaked at nucleotide positions 400–800 in exons 2 and 3 and 3'untranslated region of the β gene (Figure 1).

The diversity seen between the original and repeat pairs was roughly equal over the 3071 base pairs. This was an estimate of PCR errors (Figure 1). Segregeting sites did not show peaks but were more even over the 3071 base pair fragment than Π . Between segregating sites of original clone and mean difference among the seven pairs and repeat were an order of magnitude differences (Figure 2). To further evaluate that our data represented variation and not PCR errors the exact error rate was calculated. There were altogether 25 variables among all seven original and repeat pairs or on average 3.57 variable sites in the 3071 base pairs. Thus $3.57/3071 = 1.2 \times 10^{-3}$ was the PCR error rate per base pair in the 3071 base pairs long fragment. The probability of two such events to happen in two independent PCR from two individuals was $1.2 \times 10^{-3} \times 1.2 \times 10^{-3} = 1.44 \times 10^{-6}$. Thus a predicted number of variable sites because of same PCR errors in two individuals were 0.004 sites out of 3071. The probability of the same error to occur in three individuals was 1.728×10^{-9} and the predicted number of sites with the same error in 3071 was 5.1×10^{-6} . If the PCR error rate was ten times higher the probability of two independent events was 1.4×10^{-4} or 0.4 base pair in 3029 base pairs. The probability for the same PCR error to happen in three independent PCR from three individual was 1.728×10^{-06} or 0.005 wrong base pairs.

Another way to estimate the PCR error rate was to look at the observed variation among all the clones. The alignment of of all 57 clones was 3071 base pairs. A total of 399 segregating sites were found. Of these 133 resulted from length variation of microsatellites among individuals. Of the 266 remaining sites, 210 were singletons found in a single clone or in clones from a single individual, 56 were doubletons found in two or more individuals (Table 3) and of these 36 were triplets found among three or more individuals (Table 4, Figure 4). Assuming that singletons represent errors the PCR error rate was 210/2938 (3071 – 133 variable sites because of microsatellite length variation) or 7.1×10^{-2} single base pair PCR substitution error. Therefore, $7.1 \times 10^{-2} \times 7.1 \times 10^{-2} = 5.1 \times 10^{-3}$ was the probability of the same PCR error in two independent PCR reactions, or an expectation of 15 doubleton base pair substitutions in the 2938 nucleotide

sites. The probability for three independent PCR errors was 3.7×10^{-4} or an expectation of one triplet base substitution of the 2938 nucleotide sites. The PCR error rate was 60 times higher by this method compaired to the method of comparing original and repeat pairs.

Table 2: Frequency of variable sites among singletons, doubletons and triplets.

	,	Transi	itions				Т	ransv	ersio	ns		
Variable site	g:a	a:g	c:t	t:c	c:a	a:c	t:a	a:t	t:g	c:g	g:c	g:t
Singleton	15	75	24	71	4	6	3	7	5			
Doubleton	6	11	11	9	5	2	3	4		2	2	1
Triplets	4	8	7	1	4	2	2	4	1	2	1	

Singletons refers to variable sites found in a single or single individual thus representing a single PCR. Doubletons refers to variable sites found in two or more individuals, thus representing two separate PCR. Triplets refers to variable sites found among three or more individuals thus representing three PCR reactions.

Transitions/transversions ratio in singletons were 185/25 or 12% transversions. Transitions/transversions ratio in singletons/doubletons were 185/25, 37/19 respectively (Table 2). The difference was highly significant ($X^2 = 13.98, df = 1, p = 1.8 \times 10^{-4}$). Transitions/transversions ratio in singletons/triplets were 185/25, 20/16 respectively (Table 2). Again, the difference was highly significant ($X^2 = 21.14, df = 1, p = 4.26 \times 10^{-6}$).

Chimeric sequences (mimicking in vitro recombination) could also have occured during DNA amplification. Chimeras are PCR artifacts resulting from a prematurely terminated PCR product when it reanneals to a different template DNA and is elongated to completion based on this second parental sequence (Gonzalez *et al.* 2005). We inspected the data to look for features indicating this. Two instances had the possibility of being of this kind. In Figure 3 the FF127.12 in Cluster 2 and the SS103.11 in Cluster 5 shared the amino acid R instead of K (labelled * in Figure 3). Similarily the FF127.4 in Cluster 2 and FS43.2 in Cluster 5 had the amino acid P in common instead of L (labelled ** in Figure 3). An inspection of nucleotide sites in Table 3, we see that in order to account for the data in terms of chimeric sequences, a break off or premature termination must have happend after the nucleotide number 2297 for FF127.4/FS43.2 (** in Figure 3) and at position 1620 or higher for FF127.12/SS103.11 (* in Figure 3). We found no other obvious signs of possible chimeric sequences in our data.

Table 3: Doubleton phylogenetically informative sites of an approximately 3 kilobase β/α globin gene region among 57 cloned contigs from genomic DNA of Atlantic cod. FF, FS, and SS refer to HbI genotypes; numbers after genotype refer to individual; number after dot refer to a clone from that individual. Phylogenetically informative sites are defined by a strict criterion of independence of being found in clones from two or more separate individuals, thus derived from two separate PCR and cloning events. e and i in boxhead refer to exon and intron and number below for exon or intron number. Capital letters refer to amino acid variation and s to silent sites, - to intron variation. Site numbers are read vertically, the first one is number 47, indicated starting at 5'end. Cluster refers to cluster in Figure 3

		Segregating site			
	β gene	Intergenic region	α gene		
	eeeeeiieeee3		eeiieeiiie		
	122222233331		1111222223		
	TsssssssEsu		sTYKL		
		111111111111111111	111222222222222		
	2333445566667777	7778899011122234555556677	7990022345568888		
	41679224501270677	790337404826637001550225	5371149773850117		
Clone	77681099249267812	388165934433833891023000	07205576365 10133		
		Cluster 1			
FF127.1	cgcctcaacctcggccc	actagcgttatggatccaagagt	taaagcaacaa a t t g t		
FF4b.1		c			
		Cluster 2			
FF127.2	.act	aa			
FF127.7	. a c t	a			

Table 3: Continuation

	Segregating site					
	β	Intergenic region	α			
	eeeeeeiieeee3		eeiieeiiie			
	122222233331		1111222223			
	TsssssssEsu		sTYKL			
		111111111111111111	1122222222222			
	233344556666777	7778899011122234555556677	7990022345568888			
	4167922450127067	7790337404826637001550225	5371149773850117			
Clone	77681099249267812	2388165934433833891023000	07205576365 10133			
FF16.1	.act	aa				
FF127.10	.act	aa				
FF127.13	.act	aa	g			
FF127.3	.act	a				
FF127.12	.act	aa	g			
FF127.4	.act	a	c			
FF127.8	.act	aa				
		Cluster 3				
SS131.1	.act	ta				
FF10.1	.act	tac.				
FS113.10	.act	taa				
FF23.1	.act	taa				
SS130.1	.act	taa				
		Cluster 3a				
SS51.1	aac.c.t	ta				
		Cluster 4				
FS54.1	.ac.c.t	tc.ca	ca.			
FS54.2	.ac.c.t	tc.ca	ga.			

Table 3: Continuation

		Segregating site	
	β	Intergenic region	α
	eeeeeeiieeee3		eeiieeiiie
	122222233331		1111222223
	TsssssssEsu		sTYKL
		111111111111111111	1122222222222
	2333445566667777	7778899011122234555556677	7990022345568888
	41679224501270677	7790337404826637001550225	5371149773850117
Clone	77681099249267812	2388165934433833891023000	07205576365 10133
SS103.3	.ac.cgt	.tc.c.a	a.
		Cluster 5	
FF4.1	.ac.c.t	.tccaa.aa	
FF4b.2	.ac.cgt	.tccaa.aa	t
FF4.2	.ac.c.t	.tccaa.aa	
SS103.1	.ac.c.t	.tccaa.aa	
SS103.13	.ac.c.t	.tccaaa	g
FS43.2	.ac.c.t	.tccaa.aa	gc
SS103.4	.a.tc.c.t	.tccaaa	
SS103.6	.ac.c.t	.tccaaa	
SS103.5	.ac.c.t	.tccaaa	
SS103.8	.ac.c.t	.tccaaa	
SS103.11	.ac.c.t	.tccaaa	g
SS103.12	.ac.c.t	.tccaaa	gc
SS103.7	.ac.c.t	.tccaaa	
		Cluster 6	
FF20.1	aac.c.t	.tcca	g
FF24.1	.ac.c.t	.tccag	g

Table 3: Continuation

		Segregating site	
	β	Intergenic region	α
	eeeeeeiieeee3		eeiieeiiie
	122222233331		1111222223
	TsssssssEsu		sTYKL
		11111111111111111	11122222222222
	233344556666777	7777889901112223455555667	7990022345568888
	4167922450127067	7779033740482663700155022	53711497738 50117
Clone	7768109924926781	238816593443383389102300	07205576365 10133
FS14.1	.ac.c	tcca	.gg
		Cluster 7	
SS129.1	aac.c.ttgg.ttg	gtttccatt.	caa
FS43.1	aat.c.c.ttgg.ttg	gtttccatt.	caa
		Cluster 8	
FF127.5	.at.c.c.ttggtg	gtttcg.at	tag
FF127.11	.at.c.c.ttggtg	gtttcg.at	tag
SS103.10	.at.ctc.ttggtg	gtttcg.at	tag
FF127.9	.at.c.c.ttggtg	gtttcg.at	tag t
FS113.6	.at.c.c.ttggtg	gtttcg.at	tag
		Cluster 9	
FS113.1	.at.c.c.ttgga.tg	gtttag.aca.tg	c
FS113.7	.at.c.c.ttgga.tg	gtttag.aca.tg	c
FS113.2	.at.c.c.ttgga.tg	gtttag.aca.tg	c
FS113.4	.at.c.c.ttgga.tg	gtttag.aca.tg	c
FS113.11	.at.ctc.ttgga.tg	gtttag.aca.tg	c
FS113.9	.at.c.c.ttgga.tg	gtttag.aca.tg	c
FS113.13	.at.c.c.ttgga.tg	gtttag.aca.tg	c
FS113.12	.at.c.c.ttgga.tg	gtttag.aca.tg	c

Table 3: Continuation

		Segregating site	
	β	Intergenic region	α
	eeeeeeiieeee3		eeiieeiiie
	122222233331		1111222223
	TsssssssEsu		sTYKL
		111111111111111111	1122222222222
	2333445566667777	778899011122234555556677	990022345568888
	41679224501270677	790337404826637001550225	371149773850117
Clone	77681099249267812	388165934433833891023000	7205576365 10133
FS113.3	.at.c.c.ttgga.tgt	ttag.aca.tg	.c
FS113.5	.at.c.c.ttgga.tgt	ttag.aca.tg.g	.c
		Cluster 10	
SS104.1	.at.c.c.ttgga.tgt	ttagaaca.t.atg	.c.a
FS82.1	.at.c.c.ttgga.tgt	ttag.aca.t.atg	.c
FS36.1	.attc.c.ttgga.tgt	ttagaaca.t.atg	.c.a
FS36.2	.at.c.c.ttgga.tgt	ttagaaca.t.atg	.c

Table 4: Triplet phylogenetically informative sites of an approximately 3 kilobase β/α globin gene region among 57 cloned contigs from genomic DNA of Atlantic cod. FF, FS, and SS refer to HbI genotypes; numbers after genotype refer to individual; numbers after dot refer to a clone from that individual. Phylogenetically informative sites are defined by a strict criterion of independence of being found in clones from three separate individuals, thus derived from three separate PCR and cloning events. Numbers in boxhead refer to nucleotide position in the 3 kilobase contigs. Nucleotide positions are read vertically, thus first site is number 47. Site numbers indicated starte at 5'end.

	Segregating site								
	11111111111111222222								
	34566667777788901223455555699003455								
	462501276777903748263700155037117738								
Clone	769249268123881594383389102372056365								
FF127.1	CCACCTCGCCCACTACGATGATCCAAGAAAAGACAA								
FF4b.1									
FF127.2	T								
FF127.7	T								
FF16.1	T								
FF127.10	T								
FF127.13	T								
FF127.3	T								
FF127.12	T								
FF127.4	T								
FF127.8	T								
SS131.1	TT								

Table 4: Continuation

	Segregating site
	1111111111111222222
	34566667777788901223455555699003455
	462501276777903748263700155037117738
Clone	769249268123881594383389102372056365
FF10.1	T T
FS113.10	$\dots T \dots T \dots \dots T \dots \dots$
FF23.1	$\ldots T \ldots \ldots T \ldots \ldots T$
SS130.1	$\dots T \dots T \dots \dots T \dots \dots$
SS51.1	A.CTT
FS54.1	CT T C
FS54.2	$\dots CT \dots \dots T \dots C \dots \dots \dots \dots G \dots$
FF4.1	CT T C . CA . A A
FF4b.2	CT T C . CA . A A T
FF4.2	CT T C . CA . A A
SS103.1	CT T C . CA . A A
SS103.13	CT T C . CA A
FS43.2	CT T C . CA . A A
SS103.4	CT T C . CA A
SS103.6	CT T C . CA A
SS103.5	CT T C . CA A
SS103.8	CT T C . CA A
SS103.11	CT T C . CA A
SS103.12	$\dots CT \dots \dots T \dots C \dots CA \dots \dots A - \dots \dots G$
FF20.1	$A \cdot CT \cdot \dots \cdot T \cdot \dots \cdot C \cdot C \cdot \dots \cdot \dots \cdot G \cdot \dots \cdot \dots$
FF24.1	$\dots CT \dots \dots T \dots C \dots C \dots \dots G \dots G \dots \dots$
FS14.1	$\ldots C \ldots \ldots T \ldots C \ldots C \ldots \ldots \ldots G \ldots \ldots G$
SS103.7	CT T C . CA A

Table 4: Continuation

	Segregating site
	1111111111111222222
	34566667777788901223455555699003455
	462501276777903748263700155037117738
Clone	769249268123881594383389102372056365
SS103.3	CT T C
FF127.5	. TCTTGG . TGTTT CG T T AG .
FF127.11	. TCTTGG . TGTTT CG T T AG .
SS103.10	. TCTTGG . TGTTT CG T T AG .
FF127.9	. TCTTGG . TGTTT CG T T AGT
FS113.6	. TCTTGG . TGTTT CG T T AG .
SS129.1	A.CTTGG.TGTTTCT
FS43.1	ATCTTGG . TGTTT C T
SS104.1	. TCTTGGATGTTTAGAC T . AT G . C . A
FS82.1	. TCTTGGATGTTTAGAC T . AT G . C
FS36.1	. TCTTGGATGTTTAGAC T . AT G . C . A
FS36.2	. TCTTGGATGTTTAGAC T . AT G . C
FS113.1	. TCTTGGATGTTTAGAC T G . C
FS113.7	. TCTTGGATGTTTAGAC T G . C
FS113.2	. TCTTGGATGTTTAGAC T G . C
FS113.4	. TCTTGGATGTTTAGAC T G . C
FS113.11	. TCTTGGATGTTTAGAC T G . C
FS113.9	. TCTTGGATGTTTAGAC T G . C
FS113.13	. TCTTGGATGTTTAGAC T G . C
FS113.12	. TCTTGGATGTTTAGAC T G . C
FS113.3	. TCTTGGATGTTTAGAC T G . C
FS113.5	. TCTTGGATGTTTAGAC T G . G . C

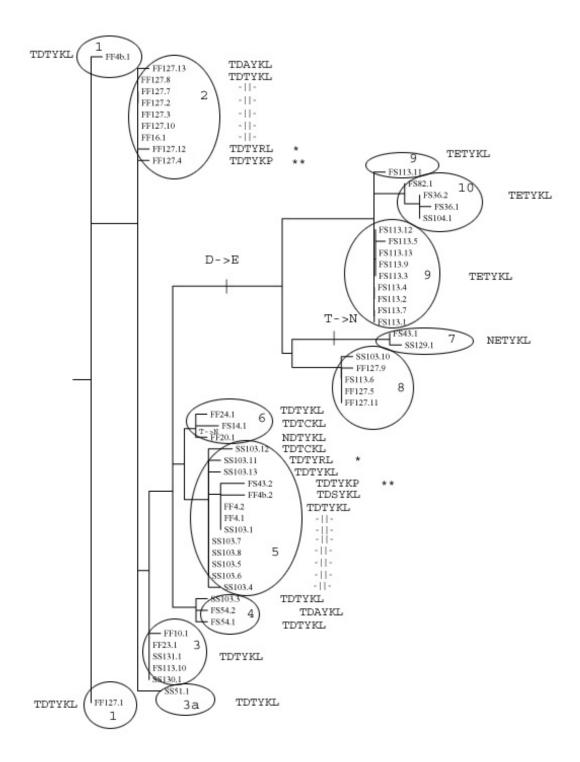


Figure 3: Clusters of clones (circles and ellipsis) on a maximum likelihood tree of doubleton strictly phylogenetically informative sites among 57 clones of a 3000 base pairs β/α gene set in Atlantic cod. Boxes enclose variable amino acids. The first two variable amino acids are in β gene; last four are in α gene. * and ** indicate the same amino acids in two clusters (see Table 3). -||- indicates identity with above sequence.

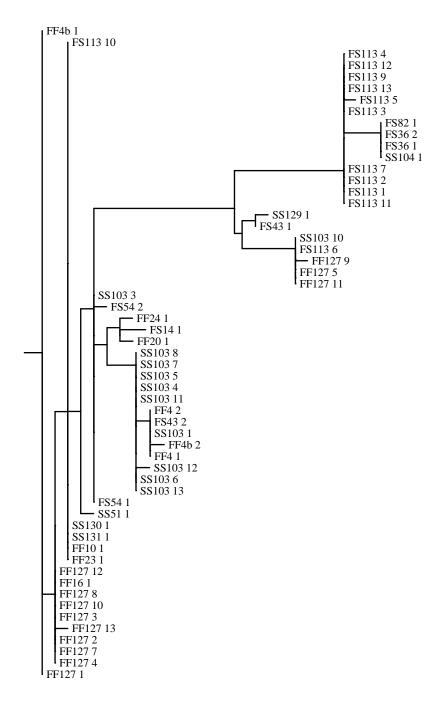


Figure 4: A maximum likelihood tree of triplet strictly phylogenetically informative sites among 57 clones of a 3000 base pairs β/α gene set in Atlantic cod. Phylogenetically informative sites are defined by independence of being found in clones from three separate individuals, thus derived from three separate PCR and cloning events (Table 4).

Genotypes and tandem repeat Microsatellite tandem repeats were found in the intergenic region and also 5'to β gene (HALLDÓRSDÓTTIR and ÁRNASON 2007). The atg repeats showed some variation in number among the genotypes (Table 5). A hierarchical analysis of variance showed that difference among individuals were highly significant (data not shown). However, the difference in copy number among genotypes although suggestive were not significant, perhaps because of the high variation among individuals (Table 6).

Table 5: Mean numbers of atg repeats among HbI genotypes.

Genotype	FF	FS	SS
atg.	32.5	34.6	28.5

Table 6: Hierarchical analysis of variance of the count of at g microsatellite tandem repeats.

atg tandem repeat	Df	SS	MS	F	P
Among genotypes	2	336.10	168.05	3.45	0.055
Among individuals within genotypes	17	827.55	48.68	11.09	8.8e-10
Among clones within individuals	37	162.49	4.39		

The clones from the three multiclone individuals (FF127, SS103 and FS113 (Table 1)) appeared in three clusters each in Figure 3. Clones from all individuals were in cluster 8, most of the FF127 clones were in cluster 2, most of the FS113 clones were in cluster 9 and most of the SS103 clones were in cluster 5.

Table 7: Distribution of clones from multiclone individuals into clusters in Figure 3.

Individual	Clusters		
FF127	2	1	8
SS103	5	4	8
FS113	9	3	8

Phylogenetically informative sites Our PCR based strategy was to cast the net widely within three individuals in the hope of finding different gene sets within an individual. By then casting the net in different individuals we hoped to find gene sets matching the different gene sets found within the three individuals. A total of 57 clones from 19 individuals (Table 1) were fully sequenced for about 3000 base pairs fragments giving reliable sequence with high quality scores (HALLDÓRSDÓTTIR and ÁRNASON 2007). We

used MEGA to find segregating sites and found, according to our strict criteria, phylogenetically informative sites. There were 56 phylogenetically informative doubleton sites in this sense, 13 at the β locus and 10 at the α locus. The remaining phylogenetically informative sites were in the intergenic region. As can be seen in Table 3, one informative site was found in exon 1 of the β gene, five in exon 2, two in intron 2 and four in exon 3. In the α gene two informative sites were found in exon 1, two in intron 1, two in exon 2, three in intron 2 and one in exon 3.

Amino acid variation To analyse the polymorphism found in the coding sequences we did a comparable comparison among amino acid variants of predicted proteins. Tables 8 and 9 show the variable amino acids found between β and α proteins in 55 clones. Two clones, FF127.1 and FF4b.1, were left out of this comparison because their predicted proteins were clearly different. They are discussed separately below. In addition we compaired our protein sequences to those of Tipping and Birley and VERDE *et al.* (2006). Based on our strict criteria for phylogenetically informative sites, variable amino acids were not regarded informative unless found in at least two clones from separate individuals.

Of the 147 amino acids predicted in the β coding region, 41 amino acid residues were variable among the clones. However, based on our strict criterion of phylogenetically informative sites only two of them were informative in this sense. Of the 41 amino acids which were variable (Table 8), nine were sequence specific for β globin 2 of VERDE *et al.* (2006). We also found five silent variable sites in exon 2 and three in exon 3. Two phylogentically informative sites were found in intron 1. One phylogenetically informative site was found in the 3'untranslated sequence of the predicted mRNA sequence (Table 3).

Of the 143 amino acid in the α coding region, 23 amino acid residues were variable (Table 9). Using our strict doubleton criterion, four of them were phylogenetically informative. Amino acid number 10 in exon 1, amino acid number 37 and 59 in exon 2, and amino acid number 102 in exon 3 (Table 3). One silent change was found in exon 1 as well. Similarly, there were two phylogenetically informative sites in intron 1 and three in intron 2 (Table 3).

Table 8: Variable amino acid sites in predicted β globins among 55 clones from Atlantic cod genomic DNA PCR amplification. Also included for reference is a sequence deposited in GenBank by Tipping and Birley and sequence 2 presented by VERDE *et al.* (2006). They were excluded from analysis.

	Amino acid position
	11111111111111
	111111222334455567888999001122233334444
	70134582452458367761481356343803601570457
FF20.1	SAINSINEIGCIGNELCKLDNELHGKNFVKGFDAWLVSRQH
Birley	
SS51.1	$\ldots \ldots S \ldots \ldots F \ldots$
FF127.11	TDE
FS113.5	$\ldots T \ldots \ldots V \ldots \ldots G \ldots D \ldots \ldots E \ldots \ldots$
FS113.4	T
SS103.10	T
FS113.1	T
FS113.7	$\ldots T \ldots V \ldots G \ldots \ldots D \ldots \ldots E \ldots \ldots$
FS113.12	T
FS36.1	T
FS113.2	$\ldots T \ldots G \ldots \ldots P \ldots D \ldots \ldots E \ldots \ldots$
FS113.6	$\ldots T \ldots \ldots E \ldots \ldots$
FS113.3	T
SS104.1	$\ldots T \ldots \ldots E \ldots \ldots$
FS36.2	T
FS113.11	$\ldots T.TE.\ldotsRD.\ldotsE.\ldotsG.$
FF127.5	VT
FF127.9	TDLE

Table 8: Continuation

	Amino acid position
	1111111111111
	1111112223344555678889999001122233334444
	70134582452458367761481356343803601570457
FS82.1	TBDE
FS113.13	TD.SE
FS113.9	$\ldots T \ldots \ldots E \ldots \ldots P$
SS103.13	T
SS103.1	$\ldots T \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots D \ldots \ldots$
SS103.12	$\ldots T \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots D \ldots \ldots$
FF127.13	$\ldots T \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots D \ldots \ldots$
FF127.12	$\ldots T \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots D \ldots \ldots$
FF127.3	$\ldots T \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots D \ldots \ldots$
SS131.1	$\ldots T \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots D \ldots \ldots$
SS130.1	$\ldots T \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots D \ldots \ldots$
FS113.10	$\ldots T \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots D \ldots \ldots$
FF127.8	$\ldots T \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots D \ldots \ldots$
FF127.7	$\ldots T \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots D \ldots \ldots$
SS103.8	$\ldots T \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots D \ldots \ldots$
SS103.7	$\ldots T \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots D \ldots \ldots$
SS103.6	$\ldots T \ldots \ldots \ldots D \ldots \ldots$
SS103.5	$\ldots T \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots D \ldots \ldots$
SS103.4	$\ldots T \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots D \ldots \ldots$
FF127.10	$\ldots T \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots D \ldots \ldots$
FF10.1	$\ldots T \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots D \ldots \ldots$
FF23.1	$\ldots T \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots D \ldots \ldots$
FF16.1	$\ldots T \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots D \ldots \ldots$
FF4.2	T

Table 8: Continuation

	Amino acid position	
	111111111111111	
	1111112223344555678889999001122233334444	
	70134582452458367761481356343803601570457	
FF4.1	T	
FS14.1	T	
FF127.2	TSD	
SS103.3	T	
FF4b.2	TDRDR	
SS103.11	T	
FF127.4	T	
FS43.2	TEDE	
FS54.1	T	
FS54.2	T	
FF24.1	NT	
FS43.1		
SS129.1		
Verde2	ETD.TV	

Table 9: Variable amino acid sites in predicted α globins among 55 clones from Atlantic cod genomic DNA PCR amplification. Also included is a sequence deposited in GenBank by Tipping and Birley and sequence 2 presented by VERDE *et al.* (2006)

	Amino acid position
	11111111
	1223344456899000122233
	40690704894759026413545
FF127.10	STGALYTFKKIEVNFLCILVVLA
FF127.11	
SS103.4	A P
FS113.4	T
SS51.1	I P
FF23.1	
FF127.4	
FF127.7	$\ldots \ldots S \ldots \ldots P \ldots$
SS129.1	$T\ldots\ldots P\ldots.$
SS130.1	VP
FF127.12	P
SS103.11	R P
FF16.1	$\ldots \ldots R \cdot P \cdot \ldots$
FF127.2	R
FF127.5	
FS14.1	P
SS103.12	P
FF127.9	F
FF20.1	P
FF4.2	P

Table 9: Continuation

	Amino acid position	
	11111111	
	1223344456899000122233	
	40690704894759026413545	
FS36.1		
Birley		
Verde2		
SS103.13		
FF127.13	. A	
FS54.2	. A	
FF4b.2	. S	
FF127.1		
SS103.10		
FS82.1		
FS54.1		
FS43.1		
FS36.2		
FS113.9		
FS113.7		
FS113.6		
FS113.5		
FS113.3		
FS113.2		
FS113.1		
FS113.13		
FS113.12		
FS113.11		
FS113.10		

Table 9: Continuation

	Amino acid position
	111111111
	1223344456899000122233
	40690704894759026413545
FF127.8	
FF10.1	
SS103.3	
SS103.1	
FF4.1	
FF24.1	
FF127.3	
SS104.1	
SS103.8	
SS103.7	
SS131.1	P
SS103.5	P
SS103.6	

Variable gene prediction Most of the cloned contigs analysed showed the same pattern of gene structure in GENSCAN prediction. They showed a linked β and α gene and a putative single exon gene in the intergenic region. Both globin genes were comprised of three exons. Promoters with CCAAT and TATA boxes were found for all three genes (information about β gene promoters HALLDÓRSDÓTTIR and ÁRNASON 2007). The structure of the region is extensively described in HALLDÓRSDÓTTIR and ÁRNASON (2007). In this study we analysed clones from several individuals and some variation from this main pattern was found which.

The FF4b.1 clone had a single base pair deletion in exon 2 in the α gene which caused a shift in reading frame in amino acid number 79. The translation continued to amino acid number 93 where out of frame a stop codon was found. GENSCAN predicted an α gene with two exons instead of three, an initial one and terminal one. The initial exon was similar to exons of most clones, however, the terminal exon was 24 base pairs shorter than the internal exon in α genes of other clones. Furthermore, exon 2 in the β gene of this clone was 10 amino acids shorter than exon 2 found in other clones. This clone was excluded from comparison of amino acid differences in the α gene (Table 9) because of these differences.

Clone FF127.1 also had the same kind of short exon 2 in the β gene. However GENSCAN predicted a normal α gene. At the end of intron 1 in the β gene of these two clones a substitution was observed such that an -AG becomes -GG. An AG is a normal acceptor site for splicing. Another AG is found 30 base pairs further downstream after 10 amino acids of exon 2. Apparently the GENSCAN software takes this AG as terminating intron 2 and thus predicts a 10 amino acid indel in the protein.

The gene in the intergenic region predicted in both FF127.1 and FF4b.1 had the usual 38 amino acids, most commonly predicted for this gene. Both clones, however, FF127.1 and FF4b.1, were excluded from finding amino acid differences in the β gene (Table 8) because of the large deletion predicted. There are the clones which define cluster 1 (Figure 3).

The β gene of the FS54.1 clone was not different from that predicted in the other clones. The single exon gene in the intergenic region, however, had a 27 base pairs longer exon than the common pattern. The exon was composed of atg tandem repeats which was translated to D (asparctic acid). The difference in exon size was due to nine more repeats in this clone compaired to the other clones. Furthermore GENSCAN predicted an α gene with only two exons. It had no predicted internal exon. Instead, GENSCAN took what was commonly defined as internal exon 2, joined with a translation of intron 2 and the commonly defined terminal exon 3 as one long terminal exon. Thus, GENSCAN predicted a 174 amino acid α globin for clone

FS54.1. This clone defines cluster 3a in Figure 3.

Clone FF20.1 was more similar to the sequence deposited in GenBank by Tipping and Birley (accession number 2154747, 2154750, 2154752) than the rest of the clones. They both had an insert in intron 1, an –AATG– at base pairs 36–39. Similarly base pairs number 3 and 10 in intron 1 also were similar and thus distinguished FF20.1 from our other clones. No other clones were similar with Tipping and Birley intron 1 for the first 39 base pairs. It is also seen in Table 8 that clone FF20.1 and the Tipping/Birley sequence were identical in exon 1. The variation observed in FF20.1 thus also conforms to our strict criterion because the Tipping and Birley sequence is independent of ours.

In the GENSCAN prediction for clones FS43.2, FF127.9, SS103.5, 6, 7, 12, 13 (clusters 5 and 8 in Table 3 and Figure 3) the single exon in the intergenic region was joined to the α gene, predicting a hybrid protein of 173 amino acids. The promoter for the gene in the intergenic region was predicted as the promoter of this gene. The promoter sequence for the α gene was not detected by GENSCAN although the sequence was found in the clones. The asparctic acid coding sequence was predicted as the initial exon. Following that the normal first and second exons were added as internal exons followed by the terminal exon thus predicting a four exon α gene. There were fewer than usual tandem repeats in these clones but there were also amino acid differences at the beginning and at the end of the sequence between these clones and the most common pattern (Table 10).

Table 10: Two different coding sequences for the gene in the intergenic region.

MNDDCNEGDDDADDDDDDDDDDDDDNSTCSFSLESNYLNVN	The predicted intergenic exon in clones in which this exon forms the initial exon of the α
MNDDCNDGDDDADDDDDDDDDDDDDDDDDDDDDDDDDDDDD	gene. The most commonly predicted exon in intergenic region among clones.

In clones FF4b.2, FF4.1, 2, SS103.1, 4 in cluster 5 in Table 3 and Figure 3 GENSCAN did not predict a gene in the intergenic region. The promoter sequence, however, had a one base pair substitution relative to the common promoter sequence. The contigs of sequence data from these clones were of same length as the rest and the atg microsatellite were found as well. There were no obvious sequence changes in these clones which would account for this prediction.

Phylogenetic trees and clusters We made phylogenetic trees using our strictly phylogenetically informative sites of all 57 clones (Table 3, Figure 3, 6, 7 and 8). The trees were a maximum likelihood tree made with DNAML (Figure 6), a parsimony tree made with DNAPARS (Figure 7) and a neighbour joining tree of genetic distances made with DNADIST and NEIGHBOUR (Figure 8). The topologies of the trees were almost identical.

Inspection of the trees revealed distinct clusters. The clones could be clustered into ten clusters when maximum split up was done (Figure 3 and Table 3). Clusters one to six all had an Asparctic acid, D, as the second variable amino acid variable in the β gene. 1) The first group to separate from the rest consisted of clones FF4b.1 and FF127.1. By GENSCAN prediction these clones had a short exon 1 in the β gene and in addition FF4b.1 had a deletion in the α exon 2 that would cause a premature termination of translation. 2) The next group to separate consisted primarily of FF clones from two individuals, FF127 and FF16 (Table 3). 3a) The SS51.1 clone grouped separately, located between clusters 2 and 3, although more related to cluster 3 than cluster 2 (Table 3). 3) The next cluster contained five individuals of all genotypes, two FF, two SS and one FS. 4) A group of two individuals, both clones of FS54 and one clone of SS103, grouped together. 5) The next was mostly made of clones from individual SS103 from which a subgroup of an FF individual and an FS individual branched off. 6) Two FF and one FS individual separated from the SS103 goup. As seen in Figure 3 clusters seven to ten all contained E as the second amino acid difference in the β gene (Table 3). 7) Clones FS43.1 and SS129.1 clustered together. In this group the first amino acid in the β gene changed from T to N. A homoplasy was found for this amino acid change in the tree because this was also found in clone FF20.1 in cluster 6. It had a D rather than E as the second β chain amino acid and thus it is more parsimonious to consider the $T \leftrightarrow N$ as a homoplasy instead of $E \leftrightarrow D$ (Table 3). 8) Three clones of FF127, one SS and one FS clone constituted this cluster. 9) This cluster contained only clones from individual FS113. 10) Two clones of FS36 another FS and a SS individual clustered together (Table 3 and Figure 3).

In Figure 3 the sequence of amino acid variation (TETYKL a common pattern) were given for each clone in a cluster. A major variation split the tree into two major branches. The β chain change from D to E was supported with many silent variable sites which were in linkage disequilibrium with the amino acid change and several other sites (Figure 5 and Table 3). Similarly, linkage disequilibrium between sites supported most clusters (Figure 5 and Table 3).

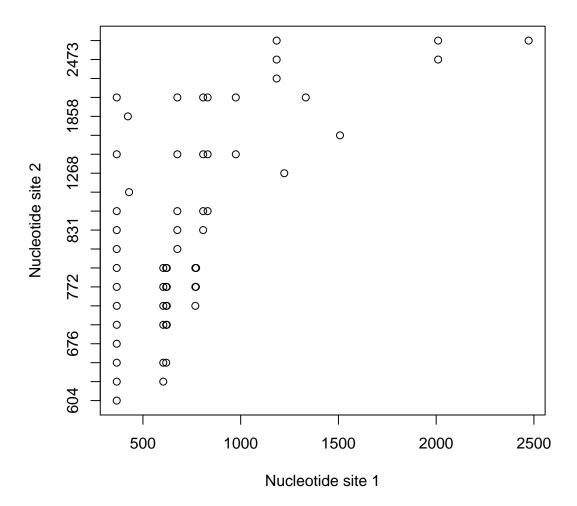


Figure 5: Linkage disequilibrium between pairs of sites in the 3000 base pairs β/α gene region in Atlantic cod. Points represent significant linkage disequilibrium, D, between pairs of sites by Fisher's exact test and applying Bonferroni adjustment for multiple tests. Excluded from the calculations were all but one identical sequence of multiple clones from an individual within a cluster (Figure 3).

The polymorphism found in coding region among amino acid residues were considerably higher at the β locus than at the α locus (Table 3). This was consistent with the pattern seen in Figure 1. The peaks of nucleotide diversity were higher at the β locus than the α locus. The nucleotide diversity peaked at the end of β exon 3 close to the location of the D to E change (Figures 1 and 3). There was also considerable linkage

disequilibrium among sites in this region of the fragment (Figure 5). The non–synonymous polymorphism found in the α gene was less frequent than in the β gene (Figure 1). The amino acid changes in the α gene were dispersed over the tree (Figure 3).

The mean number of atg tandem repeats were significantly different among the clusters (Table 11). Seven of the 56 strictly phylogenetically informative sites (Table 3), were at this microsatellite locus. These sites are part of the data used to make the trees and clusters. Therefore the degrees of freedom in the ANOVA we made were overestimated to some extent because of partial correlation of parts with whole. However, correcting for this is not likely to reverse this determinant and highly significant results.

Table 11: Analysis of variance of atg microsatellite tandem repeat number among clusters.

atg tandem repeat	Df	SS	MS	F	\overline{P}
Cluster	9	1187.1	131.90	44.6	0
Clones with in cluster	47	139.1	3.0		

Table 12: Mean number of atg microsatellites repeats among clusters.

Cluster	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Mean number	34.0	33.7	34.2	39.3	24.9	33.6	30.0	31.0	34.7	39.8

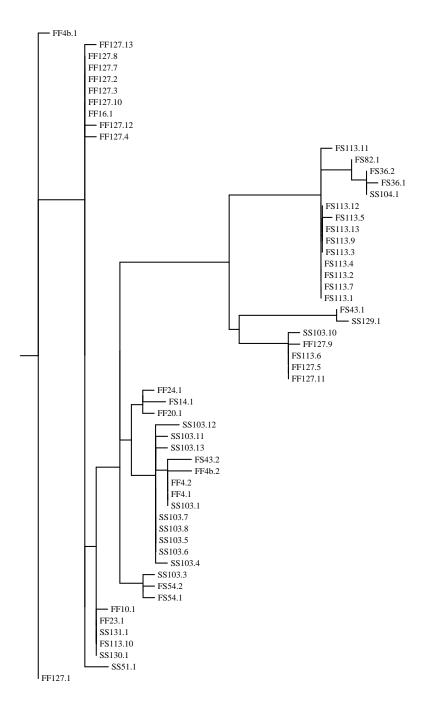


Figure 6: Maximum likelihood tree of doubleton strictly phylogenetically informative sites among 57 clones of a 3000 base pairs β/α gene set in Atlantic cod.

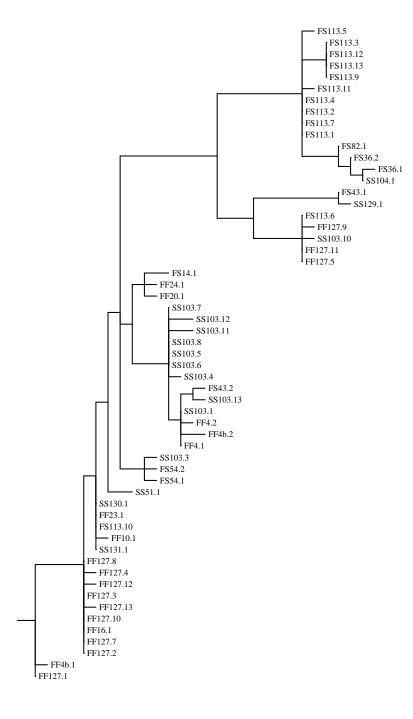


Figure 7: Most parsimonious tree of doubleton strictly phylogenetically informative sites among 57 clones of a 3000 base pairs β/α gene set in Atlantic cod.

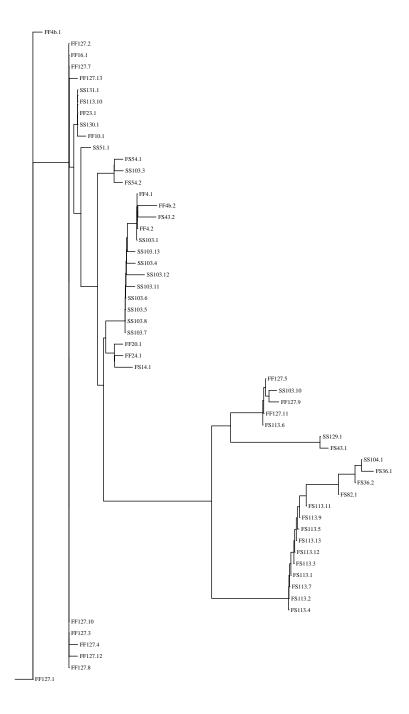


Figure 8: Neighbour joining tree of genetic distance of doubleton strictly phylogenetically informative sites among 57 clones of a 3000 base pairs β/α gene set in Atlantic cod.

Discussion

In this study we show multiple putative globin gene sets in Atlantic cod, a non-model organism. By our PCR based strategy of genomic exploration we found ten clusters of linked β and α globin like genes. The diversity of clusters observed is considered to represent multiple β and α gene sets as well as allelic variation of some of the loci of the gene sets loci.

PCR errors To evaluate the authenticity of the variation defining the ten clusters we estimated potential PCR errors in order to exclude results due to technical artifacts. We used two methods to estimate PCR errors. First, the particular conditions in the PCR reactions with elongation step of ten minutes and using long primers (HALLDÓRSDÓTTIR and ÁRNASON 2007), might facilitate polymerase errors. Our first error estimate was based on clonded DNA as a template in a new PCR and subsequent cloning. All conditions are the same the only difference is the DNA template. The cloned DNA is presumably cleaner than the genomic DNA and contains little or no extraneous DNA sequence which could include PCR errors. This method estimates the minimum PCR error rate and is a measure of errors occuring in the PCR reactions and cloning procedures. The error rate according to this method is 1.2×10^{-3} per base pair. PUSCH and BACHMANN (2004) showed that ancient DNA may induce mutations in a PCR on a human DNA. Based on this we hypothesize that the extract of genomic DNA isolation may include some materials from the chelex isolation and precipitation procedures and various extraneous DNA sequences which can make the polymerase more error prone. On the assumption that all singleton variable sites among the original clones represent PCR errors, the error rate is 7.1×10^{-2} or 60 times higher than from our estimate of original and repeat pairs. However, this probably is an overestimate because this high an error rate would alter the sequence beyond recognition. Using this rate, thus erring on the conservative side, the predicted number of errors occurring in two separate PCR reactions from two individuals is 15. By this argument 15 of the 56 doubleton variable sites found in two or more individuals (Table 3) would be considered PCR errors. Taking an even stricter stand by considering triplet variable sites found among three or more individuals thus having occured in three or more independent PCR reactions the variable sites are reduced to 36. According to this maximal error rate there should be one triplet error found in three independent PCR reactions (Table 4). Furthermore, according to BRACHO et al. (1998), studying Taq polymerase induced errors in RNA virus diversity, the ratio of transition/transversion nucleotide substitutions because of Taq polymerase PCR errors is 83/19 or 18,6%. This ratio among singleton sites is 185/25 or 12% (Table 2) in our data, a non-significant difference

 $(X^2 = 1.19df = 1p = 0.28)$. However, the transition/transversion ratio is clearly different among our doubleton and triplet sites (Table 2). It is likely that they are different because of purifying natural selection. PCR errors, on the other hand, have not been subjected to selection. This difference justifies our assumption of considering singletons as errors. Therefore, we consider it likely that our doubleton and triplet variable sites represent authentic naturally occurring variation to a large extent. A network tree based on our strict criteria of independence of variable sites being found in two (Figure 3) and three (Figure 4) individuals have the same topology of ten clusters. Therefore, we regard the ten clusters being defined by authentic variable sites. Although the possibility of PCR errors always remains, we consider it minimal among doubletons and triplets.

Potential allelic variation One aim of our research was to explain at the DNA level the protein allelic variation at the HbI locus. The individuals used in the study were previously genotyped according to allozyme variation at locus HbI, as homozygous SS and FF and heterozygous FS. We analysed twelve and eleven clones from three individuals (Table 1). Most of the clones of any one of these three individuals cluster together in one cluster in Figure 3. However, clones from each individual are also found in two other clusters. Thus, they all show more clones than there are alleles at a single locus. The three individuals with multiple clones have their representative clones in cluster 8. The tree, based on our strictly phylogenetically informative sites, is split into two major brances with the amino acid change $D \leftrightarrow E$ in the β gene. Our method of using repeated clones from an individual for genomic exploration is a pseudoreplication statistically. To some extent this may influence, the analysis of the variation found in the tree in Figure 3 and in Table 3 that two of the multi-clone individuals contain D as the second variable amino acid of the β gene. Because of the multiple clones from the same individual the change may be over represented. If we consider this major split up in the tree as representing allelic variation at a single locus it would imply that we have found an ancient balanced polymorphism because the extensive linkage disequilibrium observed shows that many sites are involved (Table 5). The various clusters observed may possibly be a sign of allelic variation at some loci. However, it is unlikely that this split, or other clusters, represents the HbI polymorphism (SICK 1965; FRYDENBERG et al. 1965) because most of the FS individuals cluster together and have amino acid E instead of D as the second variable amino acid of the β gene. The FS heterozygote individuals should cluster either with the FF or the SS homozygotes if the D↔E split represents the two allelic model of HbI (SICK 1965). Furthermore, individual clones are found in clusters in both halfs of the tree. Even though the anova of the atg repeat number differences among genotypes is not significant, the p-value is 0.055 (Table 6) and

is as such suggestive of some correlation of a DNA variation with the HbI allozyme genotypes. However, this would not be structural variation. More extensive sampling is required to make more solid statement about statistical significance in this respect. On the other hand the result from the anova we made regarding clusters (Table 11) instead suggest that the various clusters represent different gene sets or allelic variation at a locus other than the HbI. Clones from the three multi-clone individuals each appear in three clusters (Table 7). Therefore, because each individual can only have two alleles of one gene, we cannot explain the variation as a allelic variation at a single locus. On the assumption that cluster 8, in which the three individuals have their representative clone, is a separate gene set the remaining six clusters could represent alleles of another β/α gene set. If it is the same homologous gene set among the three individuals they would represent three different heterozygotes for one gene set: FF127: cluster1/cluster2; SS103: cluster5/cluster4; FS113: cluster9/cluster3 (Table 7). Under this assumption this particular gene set has at least six allels. Some other combinations of allelic variation are possible as well. For example, on the assumption that cluster 8 represents allelic variation of a gene set common to the three individuals in heterozygous condition with one of the other clusters of each individual there would be four alleles and up to four different gene sets. Whichever way one counts. The results likely represent both allelic variation of at least one locus as well as several β/α gene sets.

Number of gene sets in an individual The more individuals we analyzed the more new clusters appear. To start with we analyzed multiple clones from three individuals and later added single clones from many individuals. Clusters 6, 7 and 10 do not contain any of the original clones. They contain clones from both homozygous and heterozygous individuals. Clusters 3 and 8 have all genotypes, representing loci clearly independent of HbI genotype (Figure 3 and Table 3). This raises the question of how many linked β and α globin gene sets there are in the genome of Atlantic cod?

Repeated clones from the same individual were found in three clusters (Figure 3). Based on this evidence we argue that there could be three sets of linked β and α globin genes in an individual. The appearance of new clusters with analysis of more individuals give reasons to argue that the numbers may be higher or the clusters indicate multiallel loci. Under this argument one may look at the clusters as discrete gene sets which presumably are found in every individual with some of them having multiple alleles.

The sequences deposited in GenBank by Tipping and Birley differ from our sequences, especially in intron 1 and exon 3 of the β gene. However, FF20.1 finds similarities whith intron 1 and the amino acid sequence for exon 1 in the β gene is identical to the Tipping and Birley β exon 1 (Table 3 and Table 8).

The dissimilarities in the remaining amino acid sequences are so extensive that, if authentic, the Tipping and Birley sequence likely represents another β locus. Our FF20.1 clone might be a recombinant with this gene. At least FF20.1 conforms to our strict criterion of phylogenetically informative sites because the Tipping and Birley sequence is fully independent from ours.

Comparison was also done with the β globin amino acid sequences from VERDE et al. (2006) who report two β globins, β_1 and β_2 . The β_2 sequence resembles our sequences more than the β_1 which is very different. The β_2 amino acid sequence is aligned with our data in Table 8. A phenetic tree in VERDE et al. (2006) shows distances between these genes where β_2 and an additional β chain (which is based on the β mRNA from Tipping and Birley) are closely linked in the tree with β_1 being more distantly related. VERDE et al. (2006) infer from this that β_1 and β_2 are two separate β globin loci and that the additional chain/Tipping and Birley chain is as well a separate locus. Our gene sets are more closely related to β_1 and Tipping and Birley than to the β_2 from VERDE et al. (2006). With this additional information the number of β genes in the Atlantic cod genome might be as high as 13. Similarly BROWNLIE et al. (2003) characterizing of embryonic globin genes in zebrafish in which they describe three embryonic α genes and three embryonic β genes and furthermore state that it likely represents an underestimate. Our data, in contrast to Tipping and Birley and VERDE et al. (2006), consist of contigs of linked β and α genes. In the zebrafish an α/β embryonic globin locus is linked to an α/β adult globin locus on the same chromosome with a 9 kilobase intergenic region (BROWNLIE et al. 2003). CHAN et al. (1997) show that the linked α and β genes are coordinately expressed. From this we can deduce that the α/β gen sets in Atlantic cod possibly encode different embryonic or adult or both α/β gene set loci.

Large gene families and large number of duplicated genes, often located on different chromosomes are known in fish (Hoegg *et al.* 2004). There is still a question if the linked β and α globin genes in Atlantic cod are located in tandem on the same chromosome like in the Zebrafish (Brownlie *et al.* 2003), located on separate chromosome like in the Salmon (Wagner *et al.* 1994), or both. The sequences from Verde *et al.* (2006) and Tipping and Birley may well represent other loci of linked β and α genes. For example, the β_1 and α_1 of Verde *et al.* (2006) which differ from our sequences by over 40% may represent a completely different set of β and α globin loci. They are at least very different from our genes and as no potential recombinants were evident between our sequences and theirs. Therefore our genes and theirs are not likely to represent allelic variation. They may even represent an ancient globin gene homology.

Known globin gene families (KARLSSON and NIENHUIS 1985; SJAKSTE and SJAKSTE 2002) consist of

genes expressed at different developmental stages. From these facts we may argue that some of our loci may contain embryonic or larval globin genes. However, blast analysis shows partial homology of our sequences to both embryonic and adult forms in different taxa. There is thus no clear indication for our genes that they represent embryonic or adult forms.

Pseudogenes are a consequence of gene duplication in genomic DNA. Duplicated genes can take on new adaptive functions, like in gene families such as the globin gene family, or become neutralized to pseudogenes or non-functional genes. A failure of transcription or translation is the main reason for this lack of function (MIGHELL *et al.* 2000). In the human β globin domain there is one pseudogene (HARRIS *et al.* 1984, the $\psi\beta1$ gene) and two in the α globin domain (DICKERSON and GEIS 1983). One of our clones potentially contains a pseudogene. The FF4b.1 clone has a deletion in the α gene which causes a shift in reading frame leading to insertion of incorrect amino acids and eventually a translation stop and with a GENSCAN gene prediction of a two exon protein and a single intron gene without a polyA signal.

Putative gene in intergenic region GENSCAN predicts a single exon gene in the region between the β and α genes. The exon mainly consist of asparctic acids (D). The gene has its own promoter, initiation and termination codons and a polyA signal and is thus a putative functional gene. No similarities are found to any known protein in GenBank. The question is whether this is a functional protein and whether it has something to do with expression or other functions of the globin genes or proteins? The length of this exon varies among the clones and the GENSCAN gene prediction changes according to the length of this single-exon in the intergenic region. In primates, the β globin locus contains five genes which are arranged in the same order in which they are expressed during development. It has been suggested that distance from the locus control region (LCR) controls the order of expression of these genes (JOHNSON *et al.* 2006). Based on this suggestion, some regulation of expression of the globin genes could be related to this sequence of at g tandem repeats in the intergenic region which form the main part of the single exon gene. Other research has also indicated that simple sequence repeat expansions and/or contractions can regulate gene expression and thus should be subjected to strong selective pressures (LI *et al.* 2004). However, in our case the repeated sequence has a promoter and a polyA signal and is thus a putative functional gene.

The LCR element in human α globin gene domain is located in an intron of another gene that is transcribed in the orientation opposite to that of the globin genes, the -14 gene in humans. Also in the chicken a gene is located in the α globin gene domain which is transcribed in opposite direction to the globin genes. The clusters of α globin and proximal genes are part of an area in which genes are tightly packed (SJAKSTE

et al. 2000).

Variation within gene set A duplication of an ancient gene explains the generation of gene families from a single ancestral gene. The presence of duplicate genes is sometimes beneficial simply because additional amounts of protein or RNA products are provided which are important for a specific function. This applies mainly to genes the products of which are in high demand. Strong purifying selection against mutations which modify gene function can prevent such duplicated genes having the same function from diverging. Similarly gene conversion can prevent divergence of such genes. Paralogous genes will have similar sequences after gene conversion. Thus genes serving a single function in high demand are preserved. Synonymous nucleotide differences among duplicated genes can be an indication of purifying selection. Synonymous differences are more or less immune to selection and are not removed by purifying selection (ZHANG 2003). Other duplicate genes may be subject to diversifying selection and acquire new and different roles. Highly variable and even fluctuating environment of fish such as Atlantic cod may create a high and varied demand for oxygen. In this context we can interpret our results of numerous divergent gene sets as a possible response to such demands. Both Bohr and Root effect (ROOT 1931) hemoglobins are known in fish (BERENBRINK et al. 2005) and presumably the genes responsible are encoded at different loci (MCMORROW et al. 1997). Silent substitutions are much more common than non-silent among our clones (Table 3). Interestingly the variation is considerably higher at the β locus than at the α locus (Table 3, 8, 9). This is an indication of greater conservation among α genes then the β genes. Either the function of α globin chain is more conserved for some reason by purifying selection or by gene conversion.

Our strict criterion that every substitution has to occur in two or three individuals to be considered a phylogenetically informative site is a conservative perspective. It was made in response to potential PCR errors. Some of the polymorphism in Table 8, and 9, which we thus regarded as potential PCR errors may, therefore, nevertheless be real. Figure 1 (panel 2 vs. panel 1) and our calculation of PCR error rate shows how little of the variation observed is clearly because of error in PCR. Thus, we conclude that there are several β/α gene sets in Atlantic cod. Presumably they encode different kinds of hemoglobins, adult, embryonic, both Bohr and Root effect hemoglobins, which the organism uses and requires for its successful development and functioning in a heterogeneous environment.

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