

Analysis of the Reticulon Gene Family Demonstrates the Absence of the Neurite Growth Inhibitor Nogo-A in Fish

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Reticulons (RTNs) are a family of evolutionary conserved proteins with four RTN paralogs (RTN1, RTN2, RTN3, and RTN4) present in land vertebrates. While the exact functions of RTN1 to RTN3 are unknown, mammalian RTN4 A/Nogo A was shown to inhibit the regeneration of severed axons in the mammalian central nervous system (CNS). This inhibitory function is exerted via two distinct regions, one within the Nogo A specific N terminus and the other in the conserved reticulon homology domain (RHD). In contrast to mammals, fish are capable of CNS axon regeneration. We performed detailed analyses of the fish *rtn* gene family to determine whether this regeneration ability correlates with the absence of the neurite growth inhibitory protein Nogo A. A total of 7 *rtn* genes were identified in zebrafish, 6 in pufferfish, and 30 in eight additional fish species. Phylogenetic and syntenic relationships indicate that the identified fish *rtn* genes are orthologs of mammalian RTN1, RTN2, RTN3, and RTN4 and that several paralogous fish genes (e.g., *rtn4* and *rtn6*) resulted from genome duplication events early in actinopterygian evolution. Accordingly, sequences homologous to the conserved RTN4/Nogo RHD are present in two fish genes, *rtn4* and *rtn6*. However, sequences comparable to the first ~1,000 amino acids of mammalian Nogo A including a major neurite growth inhibitory region are absent in zebrafish. This result is in accordance with functional data showing that axon growth inhibitory molecules are less prominent in fish oligodendrocytes and CNS myelin compared to mammals.

Introduction

In the mammalian central nervous system (CNS), regeneration of severed fiber tracts is impaired by inhibitory proteins associated with CNS myelin (Filbin 2003; Schwab 2004). Nogo-A is one of the CNS myelin components that interferes with axon regrowth in the rat and mouse CNS and provokes growth cone collapse in vitro (Chen et al. 2000; GrandPré et al. 2000; Prinjha et al. 2000; Oertle et al. 2003c). Nogo/RTN4 is the fourth member of the reticulon (RTN) gene family that codes for proteins with a highly conserved carboxy-terminal reticulon homology domain (RHD; Pfam PF02453) and a variable amino-terminus. The RHD is 150–201 amino acids (aa) in length and is characterized by two large (>30 aa) hydrophobic stretches that are responsible for the association of RTN proteins to membranes (van de Velde et al. 1994; Oertle, Merkler, and Schwab 2003). In mammals, four RTN family members are known. RTN1 (formerly neuroendocrine specific protein NSP1), RTN2, and RTN3 are enriched in membranes of the endoplasmic reticulum (van de Velde et al. 1994), but their exact functions have not been elucidated so far. RTN4/Nogo gives rise to a number of different isoforms (Nogo-A, -B, and -C as main transcripts) both through alternative splicing and alternative promoter usage (Chen et al. 2000; Oertle et al. 2003a), and the largest isoform, Nogo-A/RTN4-A, is a potent neurite outgrowth inhibitor (Chen et al. 2000; GrandPré et al. 2000; Prinjha et al. 2000). In vitro assays with recombinant peptides allowed to map the inhibitory function to two different regions of the Nogo-A protein (Oertle et al. 2003c). One domain provoking growth cone

collapse is encoded by a stretch of the Nogo-A specific exon (NiG- Δ 20; aa 544–725 of rat Nogo-A; Oertle et al. 2003c), and antibodies against this region promote in vivo CNS regeneration in rats (Schwab 2004). The second region that induces growth cone collapse is the 66-aa loop between the two C-terminal hydrophobic domains of the RHD (Nogo-66). Nogo-66 is identical in all Nogo/RTN4 isoforms and signals through an interaction with the glycosylphosphatidylinositol-linked Nogo-66 receptor (NgR) (Fournier, GrandPré, and Strittmatter 2001; GrandPré, Li, and Strittmatter 2002).

In contrast to mammals, lesioned axons readily regenerate in the fish CNS (Gaze 1970; Stuermer 1988a, 1988b). Success of CNS axon regeneration correlates with the growth-permissive substrate properties of goldfish CNS myelin in in vitro assays (Bastmeyer et al. 1991; Wanner et al. 1995). In fact, growth cones of fish retinal axons cross fish CNS myelin but collapse when contacting mammalian CNS myelin (Bastmeyer et al. 1991). This implies that fish axons recognize neurite growth inhibitors associated with mammalian CNS myelin but that fish CNS myelin is devoid of such inhibitors (Bastmeyer et al. 1991; Wanner et al. 1995). In this context, it is an intriguing question whether Nogo-A might be the molecule causing growth cone collapse of fish axons upon contact of mammalian CNS myelin and whether Nogo-A is absent from fish myelin. Here, we show that growth of fish axons in vitro is indeed blocked by a rat Nogo-A specific peptide. To determine whether fish possess an *rtn4/nogo* ortholog, we cloned *rtn* family members. Given the high conservation in the RHD of the *rtn* gene family and the proposed fish-specific genome duplication (Taylor et al. 2003), we analyzed phylogenetic and syntenic relationships within the entire *rtn* family and unequivocally confirmed the presence of *rtn4* orthologs in fish. However, comparison of the exon composition of all fish *rtn* genes with the respective human orthologs

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Key words: *Danio rerio*, reticulon, Nogo, RTN4, gene duplication, conserved synteny.

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and dissection of sequence homologies within their N-termini argue for fundamental differences in the evolution of *rtn1*, *rtn3* and *rtn4*: the specific N-termini of fish and mammalian *rtn1*, *rtn2*, and *rtn3*, respectively, evolved from a common ancestor, whereas the *rtn4* N-termini must have been acquired independently. Fish RTN4 isoforms have short N-termini without any homology to mammalian Nogo-A, -B, or -C. Finally, the presence of exons homologous to the N-terminal region of mammalian Nogo-A in zebrafish was excluded by aligning the relevant genomic regions of zebrafish and human *rtn4*. Consequently, our results show that sequences related to the neurite growth inhibitory region of mammalian Nogo-A are absent in fish.

Materials and Methods

Axon Outgrowth Assay Using Goldfish Retinal Explants

Purified recombinant rat NiG- Δ 20 peptide (aa 544–725 of rat Nogo-A; 3 mg/ml; Oertle et al. 2003c) was incubated as a sandwich between polylysine-coated 18 × 18-mm coverslips at 4°C overnight. The next day, coverslips were washed three times with cold modified Leibowitz medium L15 (GIBCO). Goldfish retinae were prepared 10 days after conditioning optic nerve lesion as described (Vielmetter and Stuermer 1989) and chopped into 200 × 200- μ m pieces. About 50 miniexplants were plated on each NiG- Δ 20 coated coverslip and incubated with F12 medium (Invitrogen, Karlsruhe, Germany) at 23°C (Wanner et al. 1995). As controls, coverslips were coated with a non-inhibitory rat Nogo-A peptide (NiG- Δ 36; aa 260–415 of rat Nogo-A; 3 mg/ml; Oertle et al. 2003c), with a control protein (base pairs 1650–1748 of SC1, a member of the immunoglobulin superfamily, cloned into pTrcHis [Invitrogen] and purified on Ni²⁺-NTA columns [Qiagen, Hilden, Germany] similar to NiG- Δ 20), or with the buffer used for protein purification. After 20 h, the amount of explants with growing axons were counted using a phase contrast microscope (Axiovert Zeiss, Jena, Germany). A total of 1,087 miniexplants in 20 different cultures were evaluated using three independent protein purifications of the NiG- Δ 20 peptide of rat Nogo-A, whereas for the SC-1 protein (3 different protein purifications) 669 miniexplants in 18 different cultures were analyzed. Significance of axon growth differences was calculated using Student's *t*-test.

Nomenclature of Fish *rtn* Transcripts

Zebrafish and fugu transcripts were named according to the nomenclature guidelines for RTN genes (Oertle et al. 2003b). In brief, *rtn* serves as a gene symbol for chordate RTNs. Paralogous *rtn* sequences are arbitrarily numbered. To distinguish *rtn* genes of various species, a prefix according to the identification code proposed by SWISS-PROT is used (e.g., (FUGRU)*rtn4*). Alternative transcripts generated by alternative promoter usage receive different letters (e.g., (FUGRU)*rtn4*-1, (FUGRU)*rtn4*-n), while alternatively spliced transcripts derived from a single promoter have the same letter but are distinguished by consecutive numbering (e.g., (FUGRU)*rtn4*-11, (FUGRU)*rtn4*-12).

Cloning and Sequence Analysis of Zebrafish and Fugu *rtn* Genes

Zebrafish and fugu *rtn* genes and transcripts were uncovered by a combination of library screening and database searches for fish expressed sequence tags (ESTs) and mRNAs with known human RTN protein sequences, reverse transcriptase polymerase chain reaction (RT-PCR), and rapid amplification of cDNA ends (RACE) (supplementary table 1A). To isolate zebrafish *rtn* cDNAs, two rounds of library screening were performed at the RZPD (Deutsches Ressourcenzentrum für Genomforschung GmbH, Heidelberg, Germany). The RZPD first screened high-density filters of an adult zebrafish retina library and of a late somitogenesis library using ³³P-labeled base pairs 2–490 of (DANRE)*rtn4*-n. In a subsequent approach, the same libraries plus an adult brain library were probed with ³³P-labeled base pairs 1739–2422 of (DANRE)*rtn1*-a1 and base pairs 1624–3157 of (DANRE)*rtn6*-a1. Obtained clones are listed in supplementary table 1A.

In addition, zebrafish and fugu cDNA and genomic sequences were obtained using Blast algorithms (Altschul et al. 1997) at the National Center for Biotechnology Information (NCBI) (www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/BLAST/), Ensembl (www.ensembl.org/Danio_erio/blastview and www.ensembl.org/Fugu_rubripes/blastview), and the DOE Joint Genome Institute (aluminum.jgi-psf.org/prod/bin/runBlast.pl?db=fugu6) Web pages. Exon-intron structures were examined by comparing genomic sequences against cDNA sequences, respecting the GT-AG rule of splice donor and acceptor sites. For fugu *rtn* genes, without any ESTs or cDNA information available, exon sequences were deduced from the genomic sequences by comparison with the zebrafish cDNAs. In total, we uncovered 13 different zebrafish and fugu *rtn* genes with 37 mRNA variants. The sequences surrounding the putative start methionines of most fish *rtn* transcripts comply with the consensus motif for translation initiation (gccAccATGG) at least at one of the two most important positions (a G following the ATG and a purine at position –3; Kozak 1996). In addition, an upstream stop codon in most sequences ensures that the identified start methionines correspond to the respective N-terminus of the protein (supplementary table 1A). The predicted proteins have a more or less conserved dilysine endoplasmic reticulum membrane retention motif at their C-terminus, and the N-termini of the long splice forms (-a and -l variants) are remarkably acidic (supplementary table 1A).

We used the exon-intron information and the deduced cDNA sequences to amplify zebrafish *rtn* splice variants from various adult tissues (see RT-PCR) and fugu *rtn* transcripts from liver and brain cDNA with specific primers (supplementary tables 1A and 1B). Sequences were completed by performing 5'- and 3'-RACE, respectively. In brief, we extracted mRNA from a pool of 48-h postfertilization zebrafish embryos (FastTrack™ 2.0 kit; Invitrogen) and used 0.9 μ g per reaction as template for the synthesis of either first-strand 5'-Ready cDNA using 5'-CDS and SMART II (switching mechanism at 5' end of RNA transcript) oligonucleotides or 3'-Ready cDNA using 3'-CDS primer, according to the manufacturer's instructions

(SMART RACE cDNA Amplification Kit; BD Biosciences, Erembodegem, Belgium). All polymerase chain reaction (PCR) fragments were directly subcloned into the pCRII cloning vector (Invitrogen), and plasmid DNA was prepared using the QIAprep[®] 8 Miniprep Kit (Qiagen). Both DNA strands were sequenced using the Abi Prism[®] Big-Dye[™] Terminator Cycle Sequencing Kit (Applied Biosystems, Foster City, Calif.) and analyzed on an Abi Prism 3100 Genetic Analyzer. Single sequences were assembled using SeqMan[™]II of the DnaStar software package (GATC Biotech, Konstanz, Germany). Specific information for the cloning strategy of each gene are available upon request. Sequences were deposited in GenBank and accession numbers are listed in supplementary table 1D.

Sequence Alignments and Phylogenetic Analyses

GenBank accession numbers of sequences used for the different alignments are listed in supplementary table 1D. A total of 46 partial or complete RTN mRNAs were uncovered by database searches in addition to the ones already described (Roebroek et al. 1993, 1996, 1998; Kools et al. 1994; Baka et al. 1996; Stubbs et al. 1996; Ninkina, Baka, and Buchman 1997; Geisler et al. 1998; Nagase et al. 1998; Moreira, Jaworski, and Rodriguez 1999; Morris et al. 1999; GrandPré et al. 2000; Prinjha et al. 2000; Yang et al. 2000; Hamada et al. 2002; Zhang, Harrison, and Gerstein 2002; Oertle et al. 2003a; Klinger et al. 2004a). The single *RTN* gene of the urochordate *Ciona intestinalis* was used as an out-group.

Nucleotide sequences of the RHDs were translated using BioEdit (Hall 1999) and aligned as aa using ClustalW (Thompson, Higgins, and Gibson 1994). The alignment was edited by hand and then converted back into nucleotides to produce a codon alignment that was 642 nucleotides long. Due to length variations in the *RTN2* genes, all other sequences contain a C-terminal gap of up to 60 nucleotides. Eighteen of the 86 sequences used for the analyses were incomplete either at the N- or C-terminus producing alignment gaps of different length. Phylogenies of RTN sequences were reconstructed using neighbor-joining (NJ) methods with MEGA version 2.1 (Kumar et al. 2001) and pairwise deletion of the aforementioned gaps. Support for nodes in the NJ tree was assessed using 1,000 bootstrap reiterations (Felsenstein 1985). The RHD alignment (ALIGN 000759) and similarly constructed alignments of the various *rtn* N-termini (ALIGN 000753, ALIGN 000754, ALIGN 000755, ALIGN 000756, ALIGN 000757, ALIGN 000758) were deposited at EMBL-ALIGN (http://www.ebi.ac.uk/embl/Submission/align_top.html).

Molecular evolutionary analyses were conducted using MEGA version 2.1 (Kumar et al. 2001). In brief, sequences of the RHDs were aligned at the aa level by the ClustalW program and gaps were pairwise deleted. Numbers of nonsynonymous substitutions (aa altering) per nonsynonymous site (d_N) and synonymous substitutions (silent) per synonymous site were estimated (Nei and Gojobori 1986) for each fish paralog in separate comparisons to the respective human RTN sequence (supplementary table 1E).

Radiation Hybrid Mapping and Synteny Analysis

A conserved synteny is defined by two or more genes located on the same chromosome in fish and their orthologs located on a single chromosome in humans (Barbazuk et al. 2000). Therefore, zebrafish *rtns* were mapped on the LN54 radiation hybrid panel using standard conditions (Hukriede et al. 1999) and the respective Web interface (<http://mgchd1.nichd.nih.gov:8000/zfrh/beta.cgi>). Because no unequivocal result was obtained for *rtn5* and *rtn6* on this panel, these *rtns* were mapped on the Goodfellow T51 radiation hybrid panel (Research Genetics, Inc., Huntsville, Ala.) by instant mapping at <http://134.174.23.167/zonrhmapper/instantMapping.htm>.

For synteny analysis (Woods et al. 2000), other zebrafish genes and ESTs already mapped on the LN54 and T51 radiation hybrid panels (<http://zfin.org/cgi-bin/mapper/select.cgi>) were assigned to putative human orthologs by BlastX searches (Altschul et al. 1997) against the NCBI human nonredundant (nr) protein sequence database (<http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/blast/blast.cgi>). For EST clones that have been sequenced at the 5' and 3' ends, both sequences were used for BlastX searches. If the results of these searches had expected scores (*E* values) of ≤ -5 , the putative orthologs were further tested with reciprocal searches against the zebrafish subset of nr sequences and dbESTs. A human ortholog was confirmed if the original zebrafish gene or EST (or a gene or EST that showed highly significant overlap with the original sequence) was in the top 15 matches of the reciprocal search by TBLastN. Fugu synteny data were retrieved with MartView (http://www.ensembl.org/Fugu_rubripes/martview) for all scaffolds, on which other genes could be predicted in the vicinity of the fugu *rtns*.

Percent Identity Plots of RTN4

The zebrafish clone BX324134 from nucleotides 1 to 112,195 (linkage group [LG]6), covering the entire (DANRE)*rtm4* gene, as well as the orthologous genomic sequences of the mitochondrial translation initiation factor 2 (*MTIF2*) and *RPS27A*, was aligned against 1 Mb (nucleotides 33,841,399–34,841,398) of the corresponding human region on chromosome 2p16 from the genomic contig NT 022184.13/Hs2 22340 using the minus-strand sequence. In addition, both sequences were aligned against 400 kb (nucleotides 26,300,000–26,700,000) of the orthologous mouse sequence on chromosome (Chr.) 11 from the genomic contig NT 039515.2/Mm11 39555 32 as previously described in Oertle et al. (2003a). Using a newly generated exon mask for the human genes *MTIF2*, *RPS27A*, *FLJ31438*, and *RTN4* and a mask for repetitive sequences using the RepeatMasker software (<http://repeatmasker.org>), the percent identity plots (PIPs) were generated using MultiPipMaker (<http://bio.cse.psu.edu/cgi-bin/multipipmaker>) and the dot plot was generated using Advanced PipMaker (<http://bio.cse.psu.edu/cgi-bin/pipmaker?advanced>) according to the published method (Schwartz et al. 2000). The output was modified as in Oertle et al. (2003a). The same procedure was adopted using the mVista Software (<http://genome.lbl.gov/vista.index.shtml>) according

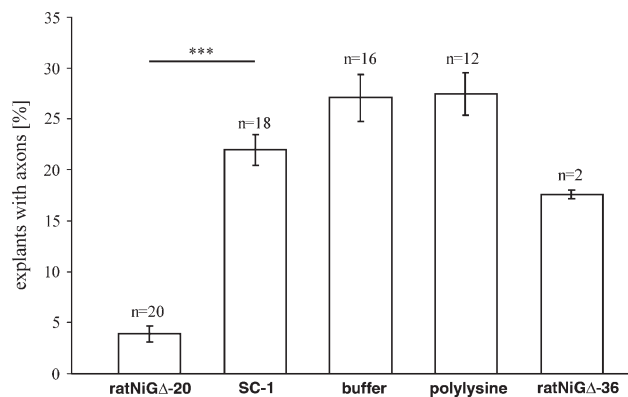


FIG. 1. Axon outgrowth assay. Percentage of goldfish retinal mini explants with axons grown after 20 h in culture. Axon growth on rat control protein SC 1, elution buffer, and polylysine treated coverslips was robust and about six times higher than that on the NiG Δ 20 peptide of rat Nogo A. Moreover, a similar result was obtained in a separate experiment using NiG Δ 36 of rat Nogo A as control peptide. Bars in each column represent standard error, and asterisks indicate significant difference ($P < 0.001$) by Student's t test.

to the published methodology (Mayor et al. 2000) with comparable results to the plots generated by PipMaker.

Reverse Transcriptase Polymerase Chain Reaction

A total of 100 zebrafish embryos (approximately 100 mg) for each stage or 50 mg of various adult tissues were used for the preparation of total RNA with the RNeasy Mini Prep Kit (Qiagen) following manufacturer's instructions. Muscle tissue was additionally subjected to proteinase K digestion (200 μ g per 30 mg tissue). First-strand cDNA was synthesized under standard conditions with the Superscript First-Strand Synthesis System (Invitrogen) using oligo(dT)₁₂₋₁₈ primer. Zero transcriptions (without Superscript II in the reaction) were performed in parallel to control for genomic DNA contaminations in subsequent PCRs. Amount and quality of the different cDNA samples were evaluated comparing the expression level of the housekeeping gene actin. Informations on primer sequences and PCR conditions are listed in supplementary tables 1B and 1C.

Results

Growth Inhibition of Fish Axons by Rat Nogo-A

Goldfish retinal axons are able to regenerate and grow over isolated fish oligodendrocytes in vitro. In contrast, growth of fish axons is inhibited by rat oligodendrocytes (Bastmeyer et al. 1991; Wanner et al. 1995). To determine whether this inhibition might be mediated by Nogo-A protein, we evaluated growth of fish axons on the most inhibitory fragment of rat Nogo-A (NiG- Δ 20; aa 544-725; Oertle et al. 2003c). Number of retinal explants with axons on recombinantly expressed Nogo-A peptide (NiG- Δ 20) was compared to growth on noninhibitory Nogo-A peptide (NiG- Δ 36; aa 260-415; Oertle et al. 2003c), unrelated control protein (SC-1), purification buffer, and polylysine (fig. 1). After 20 h in culture, explants with axons on Nogo-A NiG- Δ 20 coated coverslips were

rare (4%), as opposed to 18% explants with axons on NiG- Δ 36 peptide, 22% on control protein (SC-1), 27% on buffer, and 27.5% on polylysine-coated coverslips. This growth inhibition on purified Nogo-A NiG- Δ 20 peptide is comparable to that seen on rat CNS myelin (Wanner et al. 1995) and convincingly demonstrated a strong influence of rat Nogo-A on the growth of goldfish retinal axons. An intriguing question now is whether the capacity of fish to regenerate lesioned axons correlates with the absence of Nogo-A.

Identification of Fish *rtn*s and Their Phylogenetic Relationships

To determine whether or not true *rtn4* orthologs exist in fish, we classified newly identified fish *rtn*s by phylogenetic analysis of the vertebrate *RTN* gene family. Characterization of all fish *rtn* family members avoided conceivable misidentification due to high conservation of the RHD and ensured the detection of paralogous *rtn* genes resulting from the proposed fish-specific genome duplication. We physically cloned seven *rtn* family members from zebrafish (*Danio rerio*) and five from pufferfish (*Takifugu rubripes*) by library screening, RT-PCR, and RACE (supplementary table 1A). Database searches uncovered a sixth *rtn* gene within the fugu genome and 46 new partial or complete vertebrate *RTN* mRNAs (supplementary table 1D) compared to the ones already described (Oertle et al. 2003b). We produced an unambiguous alignment of all 86 vertebrate *RTN* sequences, representing the conserved RHD (ALIGN 000759). Phylogenetic reconstruction produced a tree comprising distinct, well-supported *RTN*1, *RTN*2, *RTN*3, and *RTN*4 clades (fig. 2). Each clade included human, mouse, rat, and several other tetrapod sequences; at least one zebrafish and one fugu sequence; and a variable number of other fish species, indicating that gene duplication events producing *RTN*1, *RTN*2, *RTN*3, and *RTN*4 occurred before the divergence of ray-finned fish (actinopterygians) and tetrapods (sarcopterygians). The assignment of four distinct *RTN* clades was supported by the identification of aa residues unique to one subfamily of *rtn* genes (supplementary fig. 1). The *RTN*1 and *RTN*2 subfamilies are each defined by two unique and derived (not ancestral) aa substitutions. *RTN*3 proteins have one diagnostic and derived residue, whereas no diagnostic residues could be identified for the *RTN*4 subfamily (supplementary fig. 1).

All clades except *RTN*3 contained two zebrafish genes and the *RTN*2 and *RTN*3 clades included two fugu genes (fig. 2). Consequently, the zebrafish and fugu genes were named (DANRE)*rtn1 rtn4* and (FUGRU)*rtn1 rtn4*, respectively, and additional fish genes were consecutively numbered according to the nomenclature guidelines for *RTN* genes (Oertle et al. 2003b), i.e., (DANRE)*rtn5, rtn6, and rtn8*, and (FUGRU)*rtn7 and rtn8*. Fish sequences within one clade did not cluster according to species but subdivided into two subclades, each containing one of the duplicated zebrafish and/or fugu genes (fig. 2). The relationships in the resulting subclades are similar, e.g., the zebrafish genes are closely related to carp ((CYPCA)*rtn1, 3, 4, 5, 6*) and goldfish ((CARAU)*rtn3, 4*) and fugu



genes are closely related to medaka ((ORYLA)*rtn2*, *3*, *4*, *8*). This topology is consistent with the hypothesis that the duplicates of *rtn1*–*rtn4* were produced before the ancestors of zebrafish and fugu diverged. The relationships between the 13 trout and salmon sequences included in this study argue for an additional Salmonidae-specific genome duplication.

To examine whether one of the two zebrafish or fugu paralogs ((DANRE)*rtn1/5*, *rtn2/8*, *rtn4/6* and (FUGRU)*rtn2/8*, *rtn3/7*) evolved faster and is therefore more distantly related to the respective human RTN, we calculated the rates of synonymous (silent) and nonsynonymous (aa altering) nucleotide substitutions (d_S and d_N ; Nei and Gojobori 1986). All zebrafish and fugu *rtns* accumulated similar numbers of silent nucleotide changes, but aa-altering substitutions were retained to a different extent (supplementary table 1E). In particular, twice as many changes were fixed in zebrafish *rtn6* compared to *rtn4*, indicating that the *rtn6* duplicate has evolved faster and is therefore more distantly related to human RTN4.

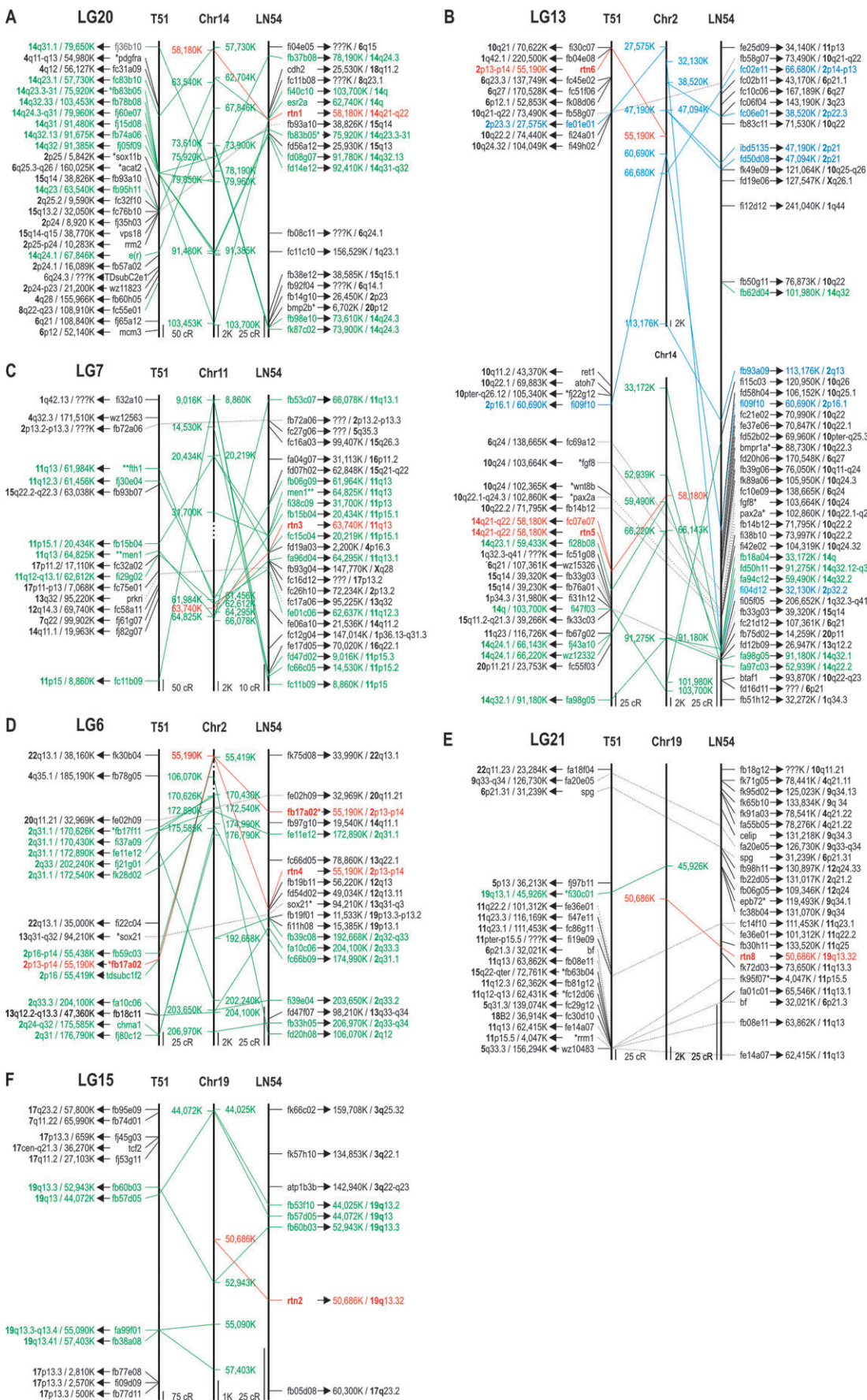
Taken together, our phylogenetic analysis served to assign the identified fish genes to the correct RTN subfamily and provided evidence for the existence of orthologous *rtn4* genes in fish. In addition, we found duplications for all mammalian RTN tetralogs in zebrafish (*rtn1/5*, *rtn2/8*, *rtn4/6*) and/or in fugu (*rtn2/8*, *rtn3/7*), resulting in two paralogous genes in the respective species.

Conserved Synteny of Fish and Human *rtns*

To unequivocally confirm the identity of the fish *rtn* genes by a second nonbioinformatical method, syntenic relationships were analyzed. Zebrafish *rtn1*, *rtn2*, *rtn3*, *rtn4*, and *rtn8* were mapped on LG20, LG15, LG7, LG6, and LG21, respectively. Both *rtn5* and *rtn6* lie on LG13. The chromosomal positions of the mapped zebrafish *rtn* genes were then compared to the locations of human RTNs (fig. 3, supplementary table 1F K).

(DANRE)*rtn1* together with 15 additional ESTs and the genes *e(r)* and *esr2a* on LG20 and (DANRE)*rtn5* with 10 ESTs on LG13 both extend existing synteny within the same region (14q22–14q33) of human Chr. 14 (fig. 3A and B; Woods et al. 2000). This indicates that zebrafish *rtn1* and *rtn5* result from a fish-specific duplication of this

Fig. 2. Evolutionary relationships among vertebrate RTN genes. Phylogenetic relationships of vertebrate RTN sequences as determined by NJ method with 1,000 bootstrap reiterations based on a 642 bp long alignment of the RHDs (ALIGN 000759). *Ciona intestinalis* was used as an out group. Nodes that reflect genome duplication early during fish evolution and nodes that reflect the salmonid genome duplication are highlighted with filled and open boxes, respectively. Zebrafish and fugu sequences are written in bold and italics, respectively. Sequences that did not comprise the full RHD received the suffix “w.” The scale represents 5% nucleotide sequence divergence. Abbreviations: BOVIN, *Bos taurus*; CANFA, *Canis familiaris*; CARAU, *Carassius auratus*; CHICK, *Gallus gallus*; CIOIN, *Ciona intestinalis*; CYPCA, *Cyprinus carpio*; DANRE, *Danio rerio*; FUGRU, *Takifugu rubripes*; GASAC, *Gasterosteus aculeatus*; ICTPU, *Ictalurus punctatus*; HUMAN, *Homo sapiens*; MACMU, *Macaca mulatta*; MACFA, *Macaca fascicularis*; MOUSE, *Mus musculus*; ONCMY, *Oncorhynchus mykiss*; ORYLA, *Oryzias latipes*; PANTR, *Pan troglodytes*; PAROL, *Paralichthys olivaceus*; PIG, *Sus scrofa*; RAT, *Rattus norvegicus*; SHEEP, *Ovis aries*; SALSA, *Salmo salar*; XENLA, *Xenopus laevis*; XENTR, *Silurana tropicalis*.



segment and are therefore both orthologous to human RTN1. (DANRE)*rtn2* together with five ESTs (fig. 3F) and (DANRE)*rtn8* together with EST fi30c01 (fig. 3E) both define the so far unrecognized small syntenic groups with the region around RTN2 on human Chr. 19. Mapping of (DANRE)*rtn3*, 12 additional ESTs, and the 2 genes *fh1* and *men1* confirmed the large syntenic region between zebrafish LG7 and human Chr. 11 (fig. 3C; Yoder and Litman 2000). (DANRE)*rtn4* belongs to a known syntenic group on zebrafish LG6 and human Chr. 2 (Woods et al. 2000; fig. 3D), supported by 15 additional ESTs and the gene *chma1*. (DANRE)*rtn6* and eight other ESTs on LG13 are also syntenic to human Chr. 2 (fig. 3B), providing additional evidence that (DANRE)*rtn6* resulted from a fish-specific duplication and is therefore a second ortholog of human RTN4.

The six fugu *rtn* genes were identified within the genomic sequences of scaffolds 188 (*rtn1*), 257 (*rtn2*), 346 (*rtn3*), 2616 (*rtn4*), 2117 (*rtn8*), 3887 (*rtn7*), all scaffolds Ensembl release 19.2.1, and 6658 (*rtn7*, NCBI). Predicted genes in the vicinity of the fugu *rtns* were compared with the chromosomal localization of their respective mammalian ortholog. Again conserved syntenies were revealed for genes near *rtn1* and human Chr. 14, for *rtn2* and human Chr. 19, and for *rtn3* and human Chr. 11 (supplementary table 1L).

Summarizing, the comparative mapping results in both species support the phylogenetic classification of fish *rtns* into four RTN subfamilies (RTN1, RTN2, RTN3, and RTN4) and the fish-specific duplications leading to *rtn5*, *rtn8*, *rtn7*, and *rtn6*. Both methods emphasize that two zebrafish orthologs of human RTN4 have been identified.

Nonhomogeneous Evolution of *rtn* Genes

Having ascertained the presence of orthologous *rtn4* genes in fish (based on the conserved RHD), we determined the genomic organization and the N-terminal sequences of all fish *rtn* genes in comparison to the respective human orthologs to analyze the evolution of the variable N-termini and to examine whether domains homologous to the growth inhibitory regions in the N-terminus of mammalian Nogo-A (i.e., NiG- Δ 20) are present in fish.

Zebrafish *rtn1* and *rtn5* are formed by at least 10 exons that can give rise to several isoforms (*rtn1*-a, *rtn1*-c and *rtn5*-a, *rtn5*-c, respectively) by alternative promoter usage (fig. 4A). For *rtn1*-a and *rtn5*-a, two splice forms each were detected, either with (-a1) or without (-a2) exons II + III. Cryptic splicing generated additional *rtn5*-a1 variants (supplementary fig. 2C). In the fugu genome, the one

rtn1 ortholog comprises nine exons coding for the -a isoform (fig. 4A).

Rtn2 is the most divergent of the RTN tetralogs with a longer RHD due to nucleotide insertions in the last exon. We found two paralogs each in zebrafish and fugu (*rtn2* and *rtn8*). Based on sequence analyses, one could speculate that the insertions present in mammalian RTN2 (36 or 39 bp) and fish *rtn2/8* (33 66 bp) occurred independently (ALIGN 000759). All identified fish *rtn2* and *rtn8* genes are built by at least seven exons, and the resulting transcripts (zebrafish and fugu *rtn2*-c and *rtn8*-c) bear only a short specific N-terminus of four aa in both species (fig. 4B, ALIGN 000755).

The eight exons of (DANRE)*rtn3* can give rise to two different splice variants (fig. 4C), encompassing either all exons (*rtn3*-a2) or lacking exon II (*rtn3*-a1). In fugu, only the *rtn3*-a1 transcript was found (fig. 4C). The sequence of the second paralog, (FUGRU)*rtn7*, was deduced from genomic scaffolds because no transcripts could be found in databases or amplified from liver and brain cDNA. Therefore, we cannot exclude the possibility that it represents a nontranscribed pseudogene. Interestingly, (FUGRU)*rtn7* is the only vertebrate RTN identified so far, in which the first exon of the RHD is subdivided by an extra intron (fig. 4C).

Rtn4 is formed by at least nine exons in zebrafish and eight exons in fugu. In zebrafish, three different mRNAs (*rtn4*-l, -m, and -n) are generated by alternative promoter usage, each consisting of one specific exon and the RHD with six exons (fig. 4D). From fugu cDNA, only the -l and -n transcripts were isolated. Fugu *rtn4*-l differs by the presence of two additive small exons (fig. 4D), leading to three splice variants (*rtn4*-11, -12, and -13). The second zebrafish *rtn4* ortholog, (DANRE)*rtn6*, comprises nine exons, and three alternative splice forms (*rtn6*-a1, -a2, and -a3) are produced by inclusion or exclusion of exon II or exon III (fig. 4D). Several other zebrafish *rtn4* and *rtn6* mRNA variants spliced at cryptic donor and acceptor sites were detected by RT-PCR (supplementary fig. 2A and B).

These extensive analyses of the genomic organization revealed that all identified zebrafish and fugu *rtn* genes share the same exon-intron structure in the C-terminal RHD (fig. 4, supplementary table 2), which is also conserved in mammals and reflects the high degree of sequence similarity in this region (ALIGN 0007591). The RHDs are each encoded by six exons of identical sizes (208, 139, 70, 47, 59, and 40/43/49 bp), except for *rtn2* orthologs which have a longer last exon and for (FUGRU)*rtn7* which has an additional intron in the first RHD exon. Intron phases between the RHD-encoding exons show a consistent pattern

FIG. 3. Analyses of zebrafish and human syntenic relationships. Map locations of ESTs and genes in the radiation hybrid panels T51 and LN54 were obtained from zebrafish information network (ZFIN). The relative chromosomal locations of the human orthologs were deduced from data in LocusLink. Markers that are syntenic to *rtn1*, *rtn3*, *rtn4*, and *rtn5* (red) are shown in green. ESTs supporting a synteny of *rtn6* and human Chr. 2 are shown in blue. Markers present on more than one zebrafish panel are connected by dotted lines. (A) Conserved synteny of zebrafish LG20 and human Chr. 14 defined by (DANRE)*rtn1* (red). (B) Conserved synteny of zebrafish LG13 and human Chr. 14 defined by (DANRE)*rtn5* (red) and conserved synteny of zebrafish LG13 and human Chr. 2 defined by (DANRE)*rtn6* (red). (C) Conserved synteny of zebrafish LG7 and human Chr. 11 defined by (DANRE)*rtn3* (red). (D) Conserved synteny of zebrafish LG6 and human Chr. 2 defined by (DANRE)*rtn4* (red). (E) Conserved synteny of zebrafish LG21 and human Chr. 19 defined by (DANRE)*rtn8* (red). (F) Conserved synteny of zebrafish LG15 and human Chr. 19 defined by (DANRE)*rtn2* (red). Abbreviations: cR, centiray; K, kilobasepairs; *, EST and genes have been published by (Woods et al. 2000); **, EST and genes have been published by Yoder and Litman (2000).

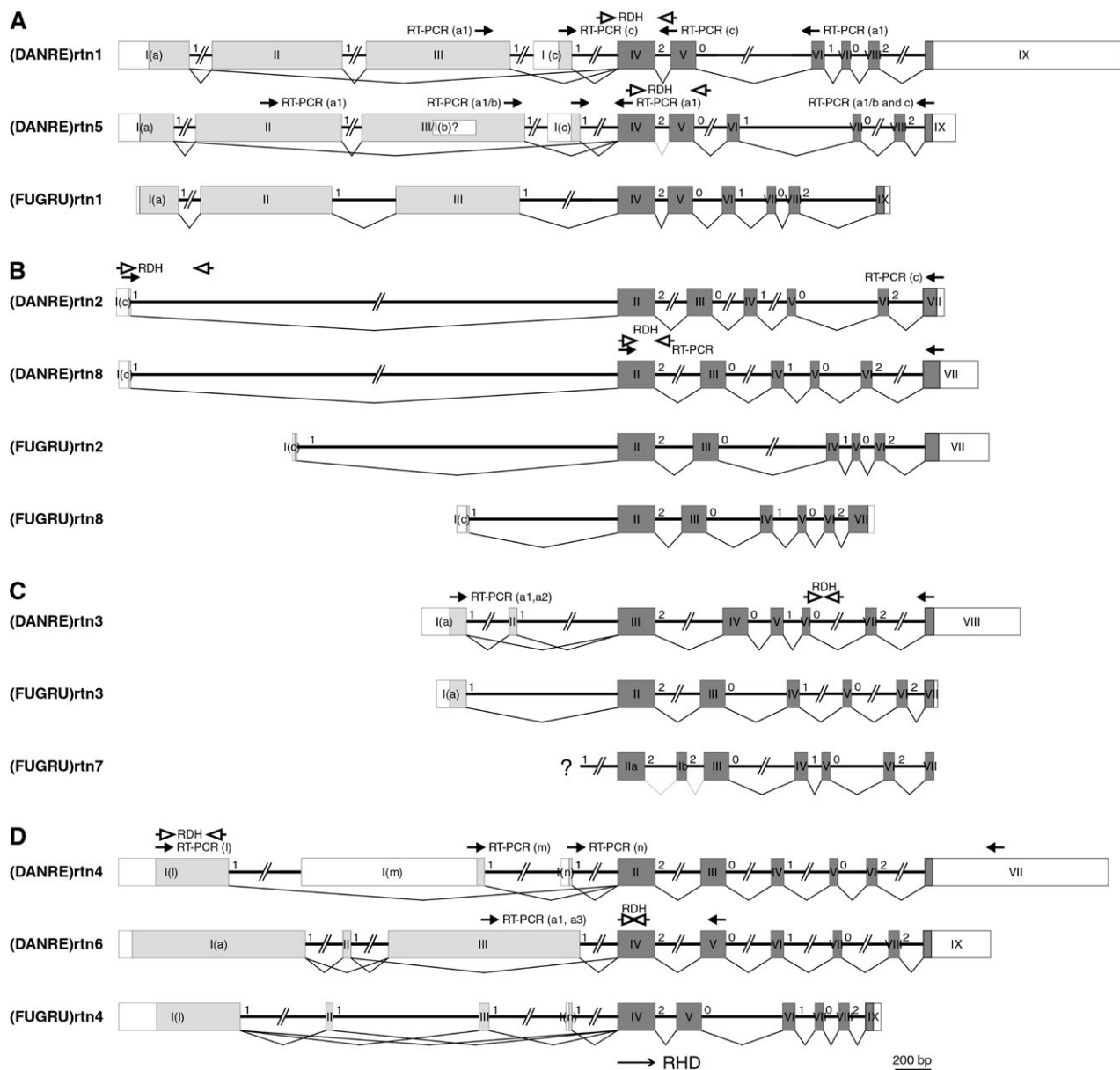


FIG. 4. Analysis of zebrafish and pufferfish *rtn* genes. Exon-intron arrangements are schematically shown. Exons are drawn as roman numbered boxes. The coding regions for paralog specific amino termini are shaded light gray and exons of the RHDs are shaded dark gray. UTRs are depicted as open boxes. Intron phases are specified with arabic numerals. Localizations of primers used for analyses of the zebrafish genes/transcripts are indicated by closed (RT-PCR) and open (radiation hybrid mapping) arrows, respectively. (A) Exon-intron arrangements of (DANRE)rtn1, (DANRE)rtn5, and (FUGRU)rtn1 genes in comparison to (Human)RTN1. (B) Exon-intron arrangements of (DANRE)rtn8, (FUGRU)rtn2, and (FUGRU)rtn8 genes in comparison to (Human)RTN2. Human exons 1A, 2, 3, 4, and 5 (Oertle et al. 2003b) have been omitted from this scheme for simplicity. (C) Exon-intron arrangements of (DANRE)rtn3, (FUGRU)rtn3, and (FUGRU)rtn7 genes in comparison to (Human)RTN3. For fugu (FUGRU)rtn7, the specific N-terminal exon could not be identified within the genomic sequences (marked with ?). (D) Exon-intron arrangements of (DANRE)rtn4, (DANRE)rtn6, and (FUGRU)rtn4 genes in comparison to (Human)RTN4. Human exons 1D, 1E, 1F, and 1G (Oertle et al. 2003b) have been omitted for simplicity.

of 2-0-1-0-2, while the amino-terminal exons are all symmetrical 1-1 exons (fig. 4, supplementary table 2).

In contrast, the N-terminal sequences of *rtn1*–*rtn8* are less conserved compared to the RHD and show no homology between the tetralogs (*rtn1/5* to *rtn2/8* to *rtn3/7* to *rtn4/6*). However, the fish N-termini of *rtn1/5*-a, *rtn1/5*-c, *rtn2/8*-c, *rtn3/7*-a1, and *rtn3/7*-a2 are each orthologous to their mammalian counterparts. First of all, the exon-intron arrangements for the aforementioned transcripts are comparable to those of the respective mammalian isoforms

(fig. 4A C; Oertle et al. 2003b). For example, both N-termini of (DANRE)rtn1-a1 and (Human)RTN1-A consist of three exons each, with similar size. The same holds true for *rtn3*-a2, in which particularly exon 2 is conserved (fig. 4C, ALIGN 000756). Secondly, although the N-terminal sequences have diverged between different species, at least stretches of conserved aa can be identified, demonstrating a common predecessor of these N-termini (ALIGN 000753, ALIGN 000754, ALIGN 000755, ALIGN 000756).

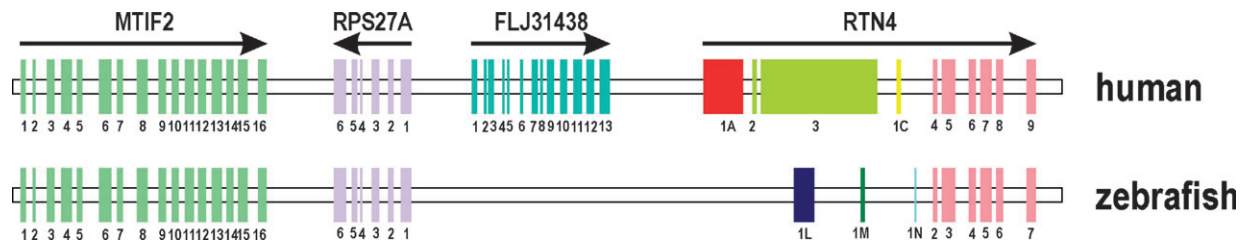


FIG. 5. Schematic comparison of the human and zebrafish *rtn4* gene locus. Scheme of the pairwise comparison between the human zebrafish RTN4 gene locus based on an ungapped alignment from the *MTIF2* gene to *RTN4* (supplementary fig. 3). Human *RTN4* exons are numbered according to Oertle et al. (2003a). Note that the *MTIF2* gene and the exons coding for the conserved C terminal RHD (exons 4–9) are conserved in human and the orthologous fish locus. In contrast, no homology of the human *RTN4* exons 1A, 2, and 3 could be identified in zebrafish, unequivocally proving the absence of sequences orthologous to the N termini of mammalian *RTN4* isoforms in zebrafish.

Interestingly, the N-termini of mammalian *RTN4* and fish *rtn4/6* show no indication for a common ancestor. Stretches of conserved aa could neither be identified between the two fish paralogs (*rtn4*, *rtn6*) nor be identified between either of the fish duplicates (*rtn4/6*) and mammalian *RTN4* (ALIGN 000757, ALIGN 000758). Moreover, the exon-intron arrangement of the fish *rtn4* gene markedly differs from mammalian *RTN4*. Three alternative N-termini (-l, -m, -n) are generated by the use of three different promoters and are each encoded by a single specific exon, whereas the N-termini of mammalian *RTN4* (-A, -B, -C, -D, -E, -F, -G) are represented by one to three exons (fig. 4D; Oertle et al. 2003a).

Taken together, the N-terminal parts of the *rtns* show higher divergence compared to the RHD, demonstrating nonhomogeneous evolution of the *RTN* family genes. Although not all *rtn* splice forms present in mammals were found in fish, detailed genomic and sequence analyses indicate that the specific N-termini of fish and mammalian *rtn1/5*, *rtn2/8*, and *rtn3/7*, respectively, evolved from a common ancestor. In contrast, the *rtn4/6* N-termini are completely different and must have been acquired independently. Stretches of aa comparable to the mammalian neurite growth inhibitory region NiG- Δ 20 were neither found in the three alternative N-termini of zebrafish *rtn4* (-l, -m, and -n) nor found in *rtn6*-a1.

Absence of Exons Homologous to Mammalian Nogo-A

To unequivocally exclude the presence of exons homologous to the N-terminal region of mammalian Nogo-A in zebrafish, we compared the genomic region of (DANRE)*rtn4* against the orthologous human and mouse genomic regions using an ungapped alignment of zebrafish versus mammalian genomic sequences ranging from the nearest common gene lying 5' to *RTN4* on the same coding strand to the six exons encoding the RHD (fig. 5, supplementary fig. 3). We identified *MTIF2* (Bonner, Wiley, and Farwell 1998) as the nearest gene lying 5' to *rtn4* on the same coding strand in zebrafish, mouse, and human. The two human genes *FLJ31438* and *RPS27A* are in fact located closer to *rtn4*, but an orthologous *FLJ31438* gene is not present in zebrafish, and *RPS27A* is encoded by the complementary strand. As shown in the PIP (supplementary fig. 3A and B), the coding exons of the *MTIF2* gene and the six exons of the *rtn4* RHD are well conserved in both mammals and zebrafish. However, within the genomic

region 5' of the RHD, no stretches homologous to the N-terminal exons of mammalian Nogo-A (human *RTN4* exons 1A, 2, 3, and 1C–G) could be identified in zebrafish (fig. 5, supplementary fig. 3). Consequently, the ungapped alignment from the *MTIF2* gene to *RTN4* unequivocally proved the absence of exons homologous to any known human isoforms in zebrafish.

In addition, Blast searches with the sequence encoding the N-terminal region of human Nogo-A did not reveal any significant homology (>20% identity) to any other (non-*rtn*) zebrafish gene (data not shown). Thus, the neurite outgrowth inhibitory region in the N-terminus of Nogo-A (NiG- Δ 20; Oertle et al. 2003c) is not present in zebrafish.

RT-PCR Analyses of Zebrafish *rtn* Expression

The finding that *rtn4* transcripts with functions similar to mammalian Nogo-A are absent in zebrafish would be substantiated by the verification of dissimilar expression patterns of fish *rtn4*-l, -m, and -n in comparison to mammalian *RTN4*-A/Nogo-A. In addition, transcription of the other fish *rtn* mRNAs during zebrafish development and in different adult tissues was analyzed (fig. 6A–L) not only to characterize each *rtn* splice form but also to compare the expression of recently duplicated gene paralogs (e.g., *rtn4*–*rtn6*) and to obtain information about potential sub-functionalizations. The observed temporal expression patterns of the *rtns* can be assigned to three distinct groups. In zebrafish embryos and larvae (fig. 6, right panel), many *rtn* cDNAs are ubiquitously expressed without temporal variations (*rtn1*-a1, *rtn5*-b, *rtn5*-c, *rtn3*-a1, *rtn4*-l, and *rtn4*-n). Four transcripts show no (*rtn5*-a1, *rtn2*-c) or less (*rtn4*-m, *rtn6*-a1) expression at early developmental stages, whereas quite dynamic patterns are observed for *rtn1*-c and *rtn8*. All transcripts that are omnipresent during zebrafish development are also ubiquitously expressed in various adult tissues (*rtn1*-a1, *rtn5*-b, *rtn5*-c, *rtn3*-a1, and *rtn4*-l) with the exception that *rtn1*-a1 and *rtn5*-c are hardly detectable in gills (fig. 6, left panel). *Rtn4*-n and *rtn6*-a1 transcripts were found in all tissues analyzed, but to a varying degree. Six of the analyzed zebrafish *rtn* transcripts show rather tissue-specific expression (*rtn1*-c, *rtn5*-a1, *rtn2*-c, *rtn8*, *rtn3*-a2, and *rtn4*-m).

Overall, the extensive RT-PCR analyses revealed differences in the spatial and/or temporal expression patterns of corresponding paralogous transcripts (*rtn1*-a1/5-a1; *rtn1*-c/5-c). For example, onset of *rtn5*-a1 transcription is

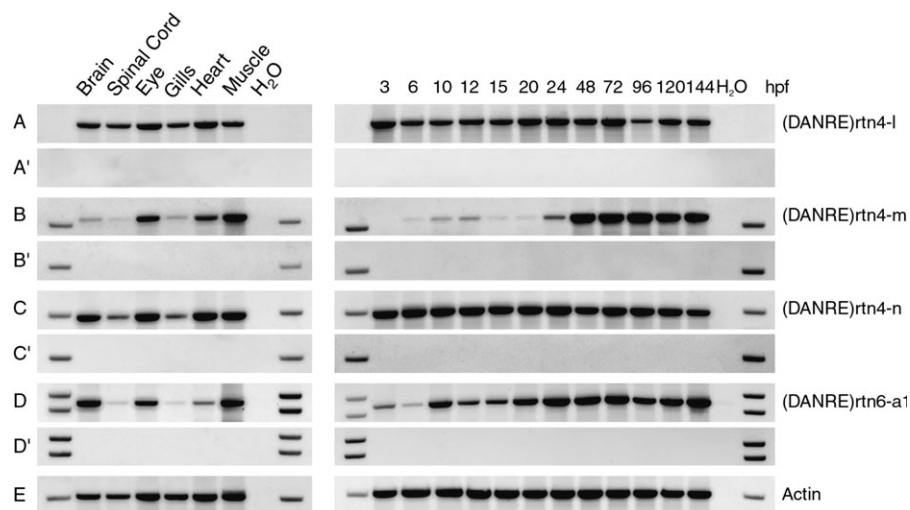


FIG. 6. RT-PCR analyses of zebrafish *rtn* mRNA expression. Expression of zebrafish *rtn* mRNAs was examined by RT-PCR (A–L). A reverse transcriptase negative control (without Superscript II enzyme) was performed with each primer pair (A'–L'). RT-PCR with actin specific primers (Actin) served as a positive control and to ensure that equal amounts of cDNA template were put into each reaction (M). During development (3–144 hpf, right panel), *rtn1 a1*, *rtn5 b*, *rtn5 c*, *rtn3 a1*, *rtn4 l*, and *rtn4 n* are ubiquitously expressed (A, I, J, D, E, and G, respectively). *Rtn5 a1*, *rtn2 c*, *rtn4 m*, and *rtn6 a1* show less expression at early developmental stages (H, C, F, and K, respectively). *Rtn1 c* expression is quite dynamic with repeatedly low mRNA levels at 3 and 15 hpf (B). The level of *rtn8 c* mRNA is significantly decreased between 6 and 20 hpf (L). Note that the *rtn8* RT-PCR detects the RHD and is not specific for a single isoform, but only *rtn8 c* is known so far. In the adult tissues analyzed (left panel), *rtn1 a1*, *rtn5 b*, *rtn5 c*, *rtn3 a1*, *rtn4 l*, *rtn4 n*, and *rtn6 a1* are omnipresent, but some show varying expression levels (A, I, J, D, E, G, and K, respectively). *Rtn1 c*, *rtn5 a1*, *rtn2 c*, *rtn8*, *rtn3 a2*, and *rtn4 m* are rather tissue specifically expressed (B, H, C, L, D, and F, respectively). Note that *rtn5* RT-PCRs with a sense primer located either in exon II or at the 3' end of exon III (fig. 1A) give totally different patterns (H, I). We therefore propose the existence of a third alternative promoter giving rise to a transcript that we call *rtn5 b* (fig. 1A). Abbreviations: hpf, hours postfertilization; H₂O, no template control.

delayed with respect to *rtn1-a1*, meaning that only *rtn1-a1* is present at early developmental stages. High-level *rtn5-c* in contrast to low *rtn1-c* expression in muscle and heart reveals tissue-specific discrimination. Because the structure of the paralogous *rtn4* and *rtn6* genes differ for the N-terminal exons (three alternative promoters for *rtn4* compared to one promoter but alternative splicing of three exons for *rtn6*; fig. 4D), the resulting transcripts are not orthologous and therefore not directly comparable. Nevertheless, the expression patterns of *rtn4-l*, *-m*, or *-n* are not similar to *rtn6-a1*. These divergences in the expression of duplicated genes indicate a potential subfunctionalization. We therefore conclude that none of the gene copies is redundant and that, in particular, the paralogous *rtn4* and *rtn6* proteins exert different functions in fish. Moreover, none of the patterns of the four fish *rtn4*-homologous transcripts (*rtn4-l*, *-m*, *-n* and *rtn6-a1*) fits to the expression of the axon growth inhibitory mammalian RTN4-A/Nogo-A in neurons and oligodendrocytes (Oertle and Schwab 2003), although both mammalian and fish *rtn4* isoforms are expressed widely and early in development. This provides additional evidence that the identified fish *rtn4* transcripts do not exert neurite growth inhibitory functions similar to mammalian Nogo-A.

Discussion

The *rtn* gene family member Nogo-A/RTN4-A has been widely described as a potent inhibitor of axon regeneration in mammals (Chen et al. 2000; GrandPré et al. 2000; Prinjha et al. 2000; Brittis and Flanagan 2001). In the fish CNS, however, lesioned axons readily regenerate, and fish CNS myelin has been proven to be

a permissive substrate for the growth of axons (Bastmeyer et al. 1991; Wanner et al. 1995). Interestingly, fish axons are nevertheless repelled by rat oligodendrocytes *in vitro*. Here, we showed that growth inhibition of fish retinal axons is mediated by the inhibitory activity of the Nogo-A specific peptide NiG-Δ20. Together with earlier findings (Bastmeyer et al. 1991; Wanner et al. 1995), this result led to the speculation that Nogo-A may not be present in the fish CNS.

Because *rtn4/nogo* is a member of a large gene family with the highly conserved C-terminal RHD (Oertle et al. 2003b), phylogenetic analyses of all vertebrate *rtn* members coupled with gene mapping and synteny data were necessary for the correct assignment of a true fish *rtn4* ortholog. We therefore cloned seven zebrafish and five pufferfish *rtn* genes and uncovered 30 additional *rtn* genes in eight different fish species by database searches. Our phylogenetic analyses based on the conserved RHD indicate that the four subgroups of the vertebrate RTN family (RTN1–4) arose by duplication events before the divergence of tetrapods (sarcoptrygians) and ray-finned fish (actinopterygians) and that we identified at least one zebrafish and fugu ortholog for each subgroup. The presence of additional genes for each of the tetralogs *rtn1–4* either in zebrafish and/or pufferfish that can also be seen in other fish species (e.g., carp *rtn1/5* and carp *rtn4/6*) is consistent with the prediction of the fish-specific genome duplication hypothesis (Amores et al. 1998; Taylor et al. 2003). The phylogenetic relationships of the *rtn* genes identified in Salmonidae, however, cannot solely be explained by this 2R hypothesis. An additional genome duplication leading to possibly 16 different *rtn* genes (fig. 7) has to be proposed in this fish subgroup

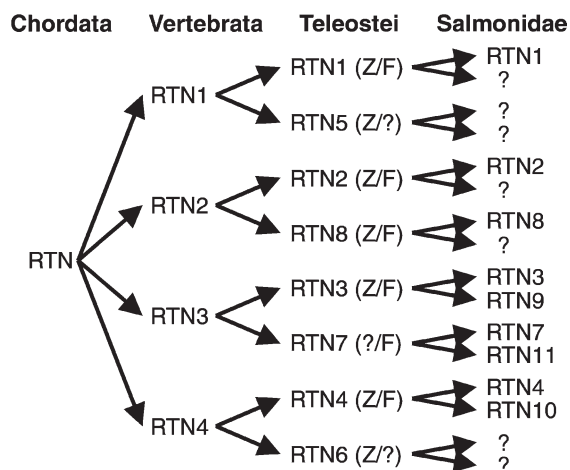


FIG. 7. Schematic overview of duplicated fish *rtn* genes. A single *rtn* gene is present in the urochordate *Ciona intestinalis*. The divergence of the *rtn* family in fish was produced by separate duplication events in the ancestors of vertebrates and early in actinopterygian evolution, leading to *rtn1* to *rtn8* in teleostei. For Salmonidae, an additional genome duplication has to be postulated. Abbreviations: Z, the respective *rtn* gene has been identified in zebrafish; F, the respective *rtn* gene has been identified in fugu; ?, the respective *rtn* gene has yet to be identified or has specifically been lost.

(Brunelli, Robison, and Thorgaard 2001; Rise et al. 2004). Assuming the validity of the genome duplications early in actinopterygian evolution and in Salmonidae, it has to be postulated that several zebrafish, fugu, and salmon *rtn* genes have yet to be discovered or specific gene losses have occurred (fig. 7). The differences in gene expression of duplicated *rtn* genes and in some cases the rapid sequence divergence of duplicated genes potentially generating alternative functional properties (e.g., relatively low sequence homology of *rtn4* and *rtn6*) could explain why highly related paralogs were maintained in the fish genomes instead of rapidly mutating to pseudogenes (Meyer and Schartl 1999).

The identity of the zebrafish *rtn* orthologs was confirmed by radiation hybrid mapping and synteny analyses. All seven zebrafish *rtn* genes are positioned within syntenic gene clusters, i.e., genes in the vicinity of a given *rtn* are the same on the zebrafish and the respective human chromosomes. Similar results were obtained for three of the six fugu genes. Moreover, our phylogenetic result of duplication of *rtn1* 4 in fish is substantiated by the synteny data that zebrafish paralogs map to regions syntenic with the same human chromosome, e.g., zebrafish *rtn1* and *rtn5* both with human Chr. 14. Although *rtn5* and *rtn6* both map to the same zebrafish chromosome (LG13), it is unlikely that these genes are the result of a tandem duplication. The distance between *rtn5* and *rtn6* is rather large, and each gene is located in a region that is syntenic to a different human chromosome (Chr. 14 and Chr. 2, respectively). Taken together, our detailed phylogenetic and synteny analyses clearly demonstrate that a true fish ortholog of the mammalian *rtn4/nogo* gene exists and that the fish gene has been duplicated, leading to the two paralogs *rtn4* and *rtn6*. Due to the increased accumulation of aa-altering substitutions, *rtn6* is yet more distantly related to human RTN4.

To obtain indications whether the fish orthologs would exert a similar axon growth inhibitory function as the mammalian Nogo-A protein, we dissected the N-termini of fish *rtn4* and *rtn6* for the presence of homologous aa stretches that have been shown to exert the inhibitory function of mammalian Nogo-A (i.e., NiG- Δ 20) and compared their evolution with the evolution of the *rtn1* 3 N-termini. The N-termini of all *rtn* genes are far more divergent than their RHDs; still for *rtn1*/5, *rtn2*/8, and *rtn3*/7, the genomic structures of the fish and the respective mammalian genes are comparable and stretches of conserved aa are detectable within these N-termini. Consequently, the N-termini of fish and mammalian *rtn1* 3 isoforms are orthologous and derived from a common ancestor. These findings are comparable with the nonhomogenous evolution of different parts of the annexin proteins, which has also led to evolutionary conserved C-termini and highly variable N-termini. The annexin N-termini show recognizable homology only in functionally important domains, e.g., phosphorylation sites (Farber et al. 2003). The various alternative fish and mammalian *rtn4*/6 N-termini, in contrast to *rtn1* 3, have conserved neither genomic organizations nor stretches of similar aa, which argues against a common ancestor of fish and mammalian *rtn4*/6 N-termini. Moreover, examination of the genomic region upstream of the zebrafish *rtn4* gene proves the absence of exons homologous to the mammalian RTN4-A/B specific exons 1A, 2, and 3 (Oertle et al. 2003a). Thus, the N-termini of fish and mammalian *rtn4* have a different evolutionary origin, and the neurite outgrowth inhibitory region NiG- Δ 20 of mammalian Nogo-A (rat aa 544–575) is not present in zebrafish. This result correlates with the acquisition of Nogo-A specific sequences and the concurrent loss of the ability for axon regeneration during the transition from fish to land vertebrates (Stuermer et al. 1992). In comparison, myelin-associated glycoprotein and oligodendrocyte myelin glycoprotein, two other molecules identified as mammalian CNS inhibitors, are present in zebrafish (Lehmann et al. 2004; data not shown). This suggests that the absence of Nogo-A is causally related to successful axonal regeneration in fish. On the other hand, yet unidentified functions not related to axonal growth inhibition are expected for fish *rtn4*. Owing to the fact that orthologous N-termini for mammalian Nogo-A have been identified in amphibian and avian organisms (Oertle et al. 2003b; Klinger et al. 2004a), future studies will have to concentrate on the evolutionary origin of this region in organisms linking the transition between fish and amphibians.

The sequence of the second potential growth inhibitory domain, Nogo-66, which is located in the C-terminal RHD of all RTN4/Nogo isoforms, is present in fish, and the conservation throughout the whole RHD is rather high. No changes in key residues or differing domains within either the tetrapods or the fish *rtn4*/6 RHD could be identified that could explain the growth inhibitory function of Nogo-66 on one side (tetrapods) and the lack of inhibition on the other (fish). Still, several results and considerations argue against an inhibitory influence of fish Nogo-66. The widespread expression of all zebrafish *rtn4*/6 transcripts including a variety of nonneuronal tissues rather contradicts an axon growth inhibitory function. Because *rtn4* transcripts are also

present in goldfish oligodendrocytes (M. Klinger, unpublished data) and fish express the corresponding receptor NgR (Klinger et al. 2004b), a functional receptor-ligand interaction is conceivable. In contrast to mammals (Fournier, GrandPré, and Strittmatter 2001; GrandPré, Li, and Strittmatter 2002), however, this interaction obviously does not lead to the inhibition of axon growth in fish because fish axons grow over isolated fish oligodendrocytes in vitro (Bastmeyer et al. 1991; Stuermer et al. 1992) and readily regenerate in vivo (Stuermer et al. 1992). Therefore, if Nogo-66 interacts with NgR in fish, this interaction is coupled to an intracellular signaling cascade different from that in mammals. Alternatively, the homologous fish Nogo-66 region might not be exposed to the extracellular surface of fish oligodendrocytes and therefore not be accessible for an interaction with NgR. Future studies will show if a molecular interaction between fish Nogo-66 and NgR mediates any inhibitory activity or serves totally different purposes. This could shed light on the physiological importance of Nogo-66 as an inhibitor of axonal regeneration also in mammals.

In summary, evolution of the fish *rtn4/6* genes has combined exons encoding the RHD with exons entirely different from mammalian and amphibian Nogo-A, -B, and -C encoding exons. Sequences related to the Nogo-A major inhibitory domain NiG-Δ20 are absent from fish. While this is congruent with the growth permissiveness of fish CNS myelin, the question why fish axons respond to mammalian Nogo-A remains to be addressed in future studies.

Supplementary Material

The following supplementary materials are available at *Molecular Biology and Evolution* online (<http://www.mbe.oxfordjournals.org/>):

SUPPLEMENTARY FIG. 1. Diagnostic residues for vertebrate RTN subfamilies. The nine residues conserved (monomorphic) in all vertebrates RTN1 RTN4 sequences and *Ciona* RTN are shaded in gray and marked by an arrow above the alignment. Residues unique to one RTN subfamily (RTN1, 2, 3, or 4) are highlighted in red. Residues within each RTN1 RTN4 subfamily that are unique to either land vertebrate or fish proteins are highlighted in blue. All residues conserved with the respective *Ciona* residue (ancestral) are represented by dots. Sequences that did not comprise the full RHD received the suffix “w.” The 66-aa loop between the two transmembrane regions of the RHD is denoted above the alignment (Nogo-66). Abbreviations: BOVIN, *Bos taurus*; CANFA, *Canis familiaris*; CARAU, *Carassius auratus*; CHICK, *Gallus gallus*; CIOIN, *Ciona intestinalis*; CYPCA, *Cyprinus carpio*; DANRE, *Danio rerio*; FUGRU, *Takifugu rubripes*; GASAC, *Gasterosteus aculeatus*; ICTPU, *Ictalurus punctatus*; HUMAN, *Homo sapiens*; MACMU, *Macaca mulatta*; MACFA, *Macaca fascicularis*; MOUSE, *Mus musculus*; ONCMY, *Oncorhynchus mykiss*; ORYLA, *Oryzias latipes*; PANTR, *Pan troglodytes*; PAROL, *Paralichthys olivaceus*; PIG, *Sus scrofa*; RAT, *Rattus norvegicus*; SHEEP, *Ovis aries*; SALSA, *Salmo salar*; XENLA, *Xenopus laevis*; XENTR, *Silurana tropicalis*.

SUPPLEMENTARY FIG. 2. Cryptic splice variants of (DANRE)*rtn4*, *rtn5*, and *rtn6*. Schematic drawing of mRNA variants that result from internal splicing at cryptic donor and acceptor sites. (A) Two minor *rtn4-1* spliceforms due to internal splicing of the first exon were amplified from cDNA. The start codon of these transcripts would shift to a new position. (B) Internal splicing in exons II and III of *rtn6-a1* leads to either internal, in-frame deletions or premature stops (*). (C) Internal splicing in exons II, III, and IV of *rtn5-a1*.

SUPPLEMENTARY FIG. 3. PIP of the human, mouse, and zebrafish *rtn4* gene locus. Graphical representation of pairwise comparisons between the human-mouse (mouse) and human-zebrafish (danre) *MTIF2* to *rtn4* gene locus using a PIP in which the percent identity (from 50% to 100%) in each gap-free aligning segment is plotted using the coordinates of the human sequence. The entire alignment is represented by three consecutive parts (A, B, and C). The human RTN4 exons (C) are numbered according to Oertle et al. (2003a), while the exons of human *MTIF2* (A), *RPS27A* (A), and *FLJ31438* (A, B) have been consecutively numbered from 5' to 3'. The *MTIF2* gene region is shown in green, *RPS27A* (encoded on the reverse strand) in purple, *FLJ31438* in blue, and *RTN4* (C) in red. Exons are marked in darker color. Coding exons are shown as black boxes above the alignment, while untranslated exonic regions are depicted as gray boxes. Almost all coding exons of *MTIF2* and *RPS27A* are strongly conserved in human, mouse, and zebrafish (A). The *FLJ31438* gene (A, B), however, is present in human and mouse but absent in zebrafish, suggesting that this gene has been acquired at a later evolutionary stage in vertebrate phylogeny. Almost the entire genomic region between *RPS27A* and exon 4 of *RTN4* shows no or very low homologies in zebrafish (A, C). Note that while the N-terminal exons 1A, 2, and 3 are strongly conserved in the murine orthologous region, no homology could be identified in zebrafish. In contrast, the exons coding for the conserved C-terminal RHD (exons 4–9) are also conserved in the fish orthologous locus. The ungapped alignment from the *MTIF2* gene to *RTN4* is unequivocally proving the absence of sequences orthologous to the N-termini of mammalian RTN4 isoforms in zebrafish. For the analysis and explanation of the interspersed repetitive elements please refer to the PIP in Oertle et al. (2003a).

Supplementary Table 1A: Overview of cloned zebrafish and fugu *rtns*.

Supplementary Table 1B: Primer used for RT-PCR and radiation hybrid mapping.

Supplementary Table 1C: RT-PCR conditions.

Supplementary Table 1D: GenBank accession numbers of vertebrate *rtn* genes.

Supplementary Table 1E: Rates of nonsynonymous substitutions per nonsynonymous site (d_N) and rates of synonymous substitutions per synonymous site (d_S) calculated for the RHD.

Supplementary Table 1F–K: Mapping data for the analyses of conserved syntenies between zebrafish and human, with respect to *rtns*.

Supplementary Table 1L: Mapping data for the analyses of conserved syntenies between fugu and human, with respect to *rtns*.

Supplementary Table 2: Exon and intron sizes of zebrafish and fugu rtns.

Sequence alignments deposited at EMBL-ALIGN (http://www.ebi.ac.uk/embl/Submission/align_top.html):

ALIGN 000759: BioEdit alignment of RHD sequences,
ALIGN 000753: BioEdit alignment of rtn1-a/5-a N-termini,
ALIGN 000754: BioEdit alignment of rtn1-c/5-c N-termini,
ALIGN 000755: BioEdit alignment of rtn2-c/8-c N-termini,
ALIGN 000756: BioEdit alignment of rtn3-a/7-a N-termini,
ALIGN 000757: BioEdit alignment of mammalian rtn4-a and fish rtn4-l/6-a N-termini,
ALIGN 000758: BioEdit alignment of mammalian rtn4-c and fish rtn4-n N-termini.

Acknowledgments

This work was supported by grants of the Deutsche Forschungsgemeinschaft (DFG) and of the Fonds der Chemischen Industrie to C.A.O.S. M.K. was supported by the Stiftung der Deutschen Wirtschaft für Qualifizierung und Kooperation e.V. and H.-M.P. by the DFG (DFG PO807/1-1). We thank M.-A. Cahill for technical assistance, C. Haenisch for her help in the RT-PCR analysis, A. Y. Loos for fish care, and J. S. Taylor for critical reading of the manuscript.

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Claudia Kappen, Associate Editor