An Evolutionary Tree for Invertebrate Globin Sequences

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Summary. A phylogenetic tree was constructed from 245 globin amino acid sequences. Of the six plant globins, five represented the Leguminosae and one the Ulmaceae. Among the invertebrate sequences, 7 represented the phylum Annelida, 13 represented Insecta and Crustacea of the phylum Arthropoda, and 6 represented the phylum Mollusca. Of the vertebrate globins, 4 represented the Agnatha and 209 represented the Gnathostomata. A common alignment was achieved for the 245 **sequences** using the parsimony principle, and a matrix of minimum mutational distances was constructed. The most parsimonious phylogenetic tree, i.e., the one having the lowest number of nucleotide substitutions that cause amino acid replacements, was obtained employing clustering and branch-swapping algorithms. Based on the available fossil record, the earliest split in the ancestral metazoan lineage was placed at 680 million years before present (Myr BP), the origin of vertebrates was placed at 510 Myr BP, and the separation of the Chondrichthyes and the Osteichthyes was placed at 425 Myr BP. Local "molecular clock" calculations were used to date the branch points on the descending branches of the various lineages within the plant and invertebrate portions of the tree. The tree divided the 245 **sequences** into five distinct clades that corresponded exactly to the five groups plants, annelids, arthropods, molluscs, and vertebrates. Furthermore, the maximum parsimony tree, in contrast to the unweighted pair group and distance Wagner trees, was consistent with the available fossil record and supported the hypotheses that the primitive hemoglobin of metazoans was monomeric and that the multisubunit extracellular hemoglobins found among the Annelida and the Arthropoda represent independently derived states.

Key words: Globin -- Invertebrate -- Phylogenetic tree $-$ Maximum parsimony

Introduction

Compared to the wealth of structural information available for vertebrate globin chains, relatively little is known about the structure of invertebrate globin chains. Although globins are found uniformly and with few variations in quaternary structure throughout all vertebrate lineages, they are only sporadically found among and within the invertebrate phyla, where they exhibit great variety in their quaternary structures. The invertebrate intracellular hemoglobins are generally monomeric, dimeric, and tetrameric, although higher polymeric forms can also be found (Mangum 1976; Terwilliger 1980). The invertebrate extracellular hemoglobins display a broader variation in molecular size, ranging from monomeric molecules comparable in size to myoglobin chains to highly aggregated molecules that can be up to a hundred times larger than vertebrate hemoglobin. They can be classified into four groups based on their quaternary structure (Vinogradov 1985): (1) single-domain, single-subunit molecules

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consisting of a single polypeptide chain of ca. 16 kd and containing one heme group (a well-studied example of this group is the multiple hemoglobins of the dipteran *Chironomus);* (2) two-domain, multisubunit hemoglobins, ranging in size from 250 to 800 kd and consisting of 30–40-kd chains, each containing two heme-binding domains [these molecules are found predominantly in carapaced branchiopod crustaceans such as *Caenestheria* and *Daphnia* (Daniel 1983)]; (3) multidomain, multisubunit hemoglobins consisting of two or more long polypeptide chains each containing 8-20 linearly connected heme-binding domains [such molecules are found in carapaceless branchiopod crustaceans such as the brine shrimp *Artemia* (Moens 1982) and in some bivalve and gastropod molluscs (Terwilliger and Terwilliger 1985)]; (4) single-domain, multisubunit hemoglobins consisting of aggregates of several small subunits, some of which are disulfidebonded and not all of which contain heme. These molecules, sometimes called erythrocruorins, possess a highly characteristic two-tiered hexagonal shape in electron micrographs (Vinogradov et al. 1980, 1982). The annelid chlorocruorins, which differ only in having a slightly altered heme group, must be considered part of this group.

The amino acid sequences of many invertebrate globin chains are known: among the intracellular hemoglobins, the monomeric hemoglobin of the polychaete annelid *Glycera dibranchiata* (Imamura et al. 1972), the dimeric hemoglobins of the bivalve mollusc *Anadara broughtonii* (Furuta and Kajita 1983), the two chains of the tetrameric hemoglobin *of Anadara trapezia* (Como and Thompson 1980; Gilbert and Thompson 1985), one dimeric globin of *Anadara trapezia* (Fisher et al. 1984), and the dimeric globin of *Scapharca inaequivalvis* (Petruzelli et al. 1985). Among the extracellular hemoglobins, the published amino acid sequences of the following globin chains are known: all 12 globins of *Chironomus thummi thummi* (Buse et al. 1979), one of the heme-binding domains (E_1) of *Artemia salina* (Moens et al. 1986), four chains of the polychaete *Tylorrhynchus heterochaetus* (Suzuki et al. 1982, 1985a,b; Suzuki and Gotoh 1986), and two chains of the oligochaete *Lumbricus terrestris* (Garlick and Riggs 1982; Shishikura et al. 1987). In addition, the primary structures of the monomeric myoglobins of the molluscs *Aplysia limacina, Aplysia kurodai,* and *Aplysiajuliana* (Tentori et al. 1973; Suzuki et al. 1981; Takagi et al. 1984) and *Dolabella auricularia* (Suzuki 1986) and of the dimeric myoglobins of the gastropods *Busycon canaliculatum* (Bonner and Laursen 1977) and *Cerithidea rhizophorarum* (Takagi et al. 1983) are known.

The plant globins, the leghemoglobins, form a separate group of monomeric globins whose mode

of evolution appears to resemble thal of their animal counterparts (Brown et al. 1984). The finding that leghemoglobins are not confined solely to the Legurninosae but are also present in the Ulmaceae (Landsmann et al. 1986) raises the possibility that globin genes occur as widely in plants as in animals.

In the present communication we compare **the** invertebrate globin sequences to each other, to plant globins, and to vertebrate globin sequences. We have constructed a tentative evolutionary tree for known invertebrate globins and plant globins, and relate it to the phylogenetic tree for vertebrate globins (Goodman et al. 1975, 1984, 1987a,b; Goodman 1981).

Methods and Materials

Altogether, 245 globin amino acid sequences were employed in this study. Of these sequences, 6 were from angiosperm plants (5 representing the Leguminosae and 1 representing the Ulmaceae), 26 were from invertebrates, and 213 were from vertebrates. Among the invertebrate sequences, 7 represented the classes Polychaeta and *01igochaeta* of the phylum Annelida, 13 represented the Insecta and the Crustacea of the phylum Arthropoda, and 6 represented three groups of the phylum Mollusca: subclasses Opisthobranchia and Prosobranchia of the class Gastropoda and the class Bivalvia. Among the vertebrate globins, 4 represented the Agnatha (Cyclostomata) and 209 represented the Gnathostomata, the latter being a selection of the more than 400 amino acid sequences known for myoglobins and the hemoglobins of the jawed vertebrates.

Most of these globin sequences have been previously catalogued and aligned against one another (Goodman 1981; Goodman et al. 1983, 1987a). In the present study, previous alignments were reexamined and extended to include the amino acid sequences from the dimeric and tetrameric clam hemoglobins, from a domain of the extracellular multidomain hemoglobin of the arthropod *Artemia.* from monomeric globins of the extracellular multisubunit hemoglobins of the annelids *Tylorrhynchus* and *Lumbricus,* and from the monomeric globin of the plant *Parasponia.* The principle of maximizing sequence matches or minimizing sequence differences, i.e., the parsimony principle, was followed in aligning the sequences. We first determined a series of pairwise alignments using the algorithm of Needleman and Wunsch (1970). The pairwise alignment scores, determined by computer, then served as a guide for aligning all 245 sequences against one another. This common alignment was achieved heuristically. It entailed evaluating by the maximum parsimony approach different genealogical (phylogenetic) arrangements and placing gaps that maximized sequence similarities that could be attributed to common ancestry while minimizing convergences.

The approach was iterative. After a tentative common alignment was achieved for all 245 sequences, a matrix of minimum mutation distances was constructed according to Jukes (1963) and Fitch and Margoliash (1967). Using this distance matrix, an unweighted pair-group tree of the 245 sequences was constructed by the clustering algorithm of Sokal and Michener (1958), and a distance Wagner tree constructed by the algorithm of Farris (1972). These two trees served as starting points in the search by branchswapping algorithms (Goodman et al. 1979, 1984; Goodman 1981) for the most parsimonious tree, i.e., the tree of lowest NR length $(NR = Nucleotide$ substitutions that cause amino acid Replacements). After the search had revealed the lowest NR

	10	20	30	40	50
					$\overline{1}$
Parasponia Lhb		SSSEVNKV FTEEQEALVVKAWA	VMKKNSAELGLOFFLKIF		
Lupin Lhb		GVLTDVOVALVKSSFE	EFNANIPKNTHRFFTLVL		
Vicia Lhb		G FTEKOEALVNSSSQ	LFKONPSNYSVLFYTIIL		
Phaseolus Lhb		GAFTEKQEALVNSSWE	AFKGNIPOYSVVFYTSIL		
Glycine C2 Lhb		GAFTEKOEALVSSSFE	AFKTNIPOYSVVFYTSIL		
Glycine Lhb		VAFTEKODALVSSSFE	AFKANIPQYSVVFYTSIL		
Tyl Hb IIB			DDCCSAADR HEVLDNWKGIWSAEFTGRRVAIGQAIFQELFALDPN		
Tyl Hb IIC			DTCCSIEDR REVOALWRSIWSAEDTGRRTLIGRLLFEELFEIDGA		
Lumbricus HbI		ECLVTEG LKVKLOWASAFGHAHQ		RVAFGLELWKGILREHPE	
Lumbricus HbII	KKOCGVLEG LKVKSEWGRAYGSGHD			REAFSQAIWRATFAOVPE	
Tyl Hb IIA	SSDHCGPLOR LKVKQQWAKAYGVGHE			RVELGIALWKSMFAQDND	
Tyl Hb I		TDCGILOR IKVKOOWAQVYSVGES		RTDFAIDVFNNFFRTNPD	
Glycera Hb			G LSAAQRQVIAATWKDI AGNDNGAGVGKDCLIKHL		
Artemia Hb		ERVDPITG LSGLEKNAILDTWG	KVRGNL	QEVGKATFGKLF	
CTT Hb IA		GP SGDQIAAAKASWN	TVKNNQ	VDILYAVF	
CTT Hb I		GP SGDQIAAAKASWN	TVKNNO	VDILYAVF	
CTT Hb III alpha		VATPAMP SMTDAQVAAVKGDWE	KIKGSG	VEILYFFL	
CTT Hb III		LSADQISTVOASFD	KVKGDP	VGILYAVF	
CTT Hb IV		LTADQISTVQSSFA	GVKGDA	VGILYAVF	
CTT Hb X		DPEWHTLDAHEVEQVQATWK	AVSHDE	VEILYTVF	
CTT Hb IX		DPVSSDEANAIRASWA	GVKHNE	VDILAAVF	
CTT Hb VIIA		APLSADQASLVKSTWA	OVRNSE	VEILAAVF	
CTT Hb II beta		APLSADEASLVRGSWA	OVKHSE	VDILYYIF	
CTT Hb VIIB		SPLTADEASLVOSSWK	AVSHNE	VDILAAVF	
CTT Hb VI		AVLTTEQADLVKKTWS	TVKFNE	VDILYAVF	
CTT Hb VIII		AVTPMSADQLALFKSSWN	TVKHNE	VDILYAVF	
Anadara b. Hb	PSVQGAAAQ LTADVKKDLRDSWKV		IGSDKKGNGVALMTTLF		
Anadara t. Hb	VADAVAKVC GSEAIKGNLRRSWGVL		MSADIEATGLTYLANLF		
Busycon Mb			G LDGAQKTALKESWKVLGADGPTMMKNGSLLFGLLF		
Cerithidea Mb			S LQPASKSALASSWKTLAKDAATIQNNGATLFSLLF		
Aplysia k. Mb		S LSAAEADLVGKSWA	PVYANKDADGANFLLSLF		
Aplysia 1. Mb		S LSAAEADLAGKSWA	PVFANKNANGADFLVALF		
Myxine Hb	PITDHGQPPTLSEGDKKAIRESWP		QIYKNFEQNSLAVLLEFL		
Lampetra Hb	PIVDSGSVAPLSAAEKTKIRSAWA		PVYSNYETSGVDILVKFF		
Homo Mb		G LSDGEWOLVLNVWG	KVEADIPGHGOEVLIRLF		
Homo Hb beta		VHLTPEEKSAVTALWG	KV.	NVDEVGGEALGRLL	
Homo Hb alpha		V LSPADKTNVKAAWG	KVGAHAGEYGAEALERMF		

Fig. 1. The alignment of the 6 plant, 26 invertebrate, and 5 of the 213 vertebrate globin amino acid sequences used in the construction of the phylogenetic tree

length trees, the alignment for the 245 sequences was reevaluated and realignments tested by the maximum parsimony method. That is, realignments that further lowered NR length on resuming the search for the most parsimonious tree were retained. In this iterative heuristic search procedure, alternative phylogenetic hypotheses on the relationships of the sequences served as bases for trying out possible realignments, the effect of each of which on NR length was then recorded.

The minimum number of NR needed to account for the branching arrangement of the sequences, the maximum parsimony score, was determined by two programs, MPALMX and MPAFEP, which use an algorithm that takes into account the genetic code. These procedures allow subtrees to be fixed: the set of codons corresponding to the parsimony solution for the ancestor of each subtree is computed and is used as a terminal taxon. The program MPALMX computes the scores of all possible trees with eight terminal taxa and the program MPAFEP iteratively tries to lower the score of an input tree by branch swapping.

Ancestral codons and branch lengths were calculated by the program TPAB, which determines these sequences and lengths by the parsimony method. Ambiguities in parsimony assignments of codons, different ancestral codons each giving the same NR score, were resolved by choosing codons that would minimize the sum of the distances on the tree for every pair of terminal taxa. The distance between terminal taxa on the tree is the sum of lengths of the branches connecting the two taxa. Numbers of nucleotide replacements on each link were corrected for superimposed mutations by the program TAVA. This algorithm propagates mutational information from pairs of nodes more populated by intervening links to those less populated (Moore 1977; Baha et al. 1981)

All of these programs were run on a Cray-2 supercomputer

at the University of Minnesota. Time on this computer was obtained through the NSF supercomputer access program. These four programs (MPALMX, MPAFEP, TPAB, and TAVA) are written in FORTRAN and are available from the authors.

Results and Discussion

Figure 1 shows the alignment of the plant and invertebrate globin sequences with five of the vertebrate globin sequences used in the construction of our phylogenetic tree. A notable feature is that the sequence of the monomeric globin of *Glycera* and the six sequences of the extracellular, multisubunit annelid hemoglobins share three unique gaps (at alignment positions $61, 69-75$, and $102-104$). Similarly, all arthropod sequences, domain E₁ of the multidomain Artemia hemoglobin, and the 12 Chi*ronomus* sequences share a unique gap at positions $35 - 38$.

Table 1 shows the matrix of minimum mutational distances in selected pairwise comparisons taken from the full set of pairwise comparisons among the 245 globin amino acid sequences. Each pairwise comparison value is presented as the minimum mutational difference (MMD) over the number of amino acid residue positions compared (the

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Lupin $v_{\texttt{icia}}$ $\overline{28}$

n-alignment or numbers of sequence positions in which amino acid residues occur in both sequences). The selected comparisons involve all the sequences shown in Fig. 1. These comparisons reveal that the globin sequences from plants, Glycera, Arthropoda, Mollusca, agnathans, and gnathostomes are significantly related to one another. Also the sequences of the extracellular, multisubunit hemoglobins of Tylorrhynchus and Lumbricus are related to one another at high significance levels and at a lower, but still quite significant, level to the *Glycera* monomeric sequence. These judgments can be made easily by looking up each MMD value in Table 1, for that n-alignment, the critical values listed in table 3 of the paper by Moore and Goodman (1977); for the comparisons that we claim show significant homology, the observed MMD values are sufficiently small as to reject by this alignment statistic of Moore and Goodman (1977) the null hypothesis of no common ancestry. The Tylorrhynchus I sequence appears to be the most conserved of the annelid extracellular hemoglobin sequences in that its MMD values with nonannelid hemoglobin sequences consistently indicate significant homology. The Tylor*rhynchus* IIA, IIB, and IIC and the Lumbricus I and If sequences all tend to yield MMD values with nonannelid sequences that do not reject the null

hypothesis of no common ancestry; however, their MMD values with *Aplysia* myoglobin sequences do reject the null hypothesis of no common ancestry, i.e., are indicative of significant sequence homology.

Just as the sequences from annelid extracellular, multisubunit hemoglobins show lower MMD values with the Glycera sequence than with any of the nonannelid sequences, the domain E_1 sequence from the extracellular, multisubunit hemoglobin of Artemia shows lower MMD values with Chironomus hemoglobin sequences than with any of the nonarthropod sequences. As judged by MMD values, the monomeric *Chironomus* hemoglobins CTT I and CTT Ia have the most conserved arthropod hemoglobin sequences. Similarly, the MMD values in Table 1 indicate that the most conserved mollusc globin sequences are those of the monomeric myoglobins of *Aplysia*. Of the mollusc globin sequences, those from the dimeric myoglobins of Busycon and Cerithidea and from the tetrameric hemoglobin of Anadara have higher MMD values than have the Aply*sia* monomeric sequences when compared to nonmollusc globins.

Figure 2 shows all the plant and invertebrate lineages and 5 of the 213 vertebrate lineages from the phylogenetic tree constructed for the 245 globin sequences on the basis of the maximum parsimony

Fig. 1. Continued.

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Fig. 1. Continued.

method. In a previous study (Goodman et al. 1987a) involving 218 globin sequences, 212 of the present 213 vertebrate globins had been employed, but only 6 nonvertebrate globins (an *Aplysia* sequence, the Glycera sequence, and 4 of the Chironomus sequences) served as outgroups of the vertebrate sequences. In this previous study as in earlier ones (Goodman et al. 1974, 1975; Goodman 1981), the gnathostome (jawed vertebrate) α - and β -hemoglobin branches, after grouping, were closest to the gnathostome myoglobin branch and next closest to the agnathan globin branch. In the present study, it proved slightly more parsimonious to group the agnathan globin branch first either with the gnathostome myoglobin branch or, as shown in Fig. 2, with the gnathostome hemoglobin branch. Otherwise the phylogenetic arrangements found for the more than 200 vertebrate globins were very similar in the present and previous studies. Thus, the previous study (Goodman et al. 1987a) may be consulted for details on the branching patterns within the vertebrate region of the globin tree. A finding that should be noted is that the most parsimonious branching arrangement for the plant and invertebrate regions of the globin tree, namely the one shown in Fig. 2, was not altered by placing the gnathostome myoglobin

branch first either with the gnathostome hemoglobin branch, or alternatively, with the agnathan globin branch. Also, in the search for the most parsimonious globin tree we could choose either of the following two alternatives without altering the branching arrangements shown in Fig. 2. We could impose the constraint that species relationships found among eutherian mammals parallel each other in the myoglobin and α - and β -hemoglobin regions of the tree, as we did for the search that gave the results used in Fig. 2, or we could allow differing patterns of eutherian relationships to be depicted by the three types of globins when this lowered NR length, as we did on examining several hundred thousand alternative trees.

The genealogical trees found by these heuristic maximum parsimony search procedures divided the 245 eukaryotic globins into five major phylogenetic clades. Starting with the branch most distant from vertebrates and proceeding toward the vertebrates, all 6 plant globins group in the first clade, all 7 annelid globins in the second, all 13 arthropod globins in the third, all 6 mollusc globins in the fourth. and all 213 vertebrate globins in the fifth. This correspondence between the groups formed by the globin sequences and the groups expected from tradi-

Fig. 1. Continued.

tional phylogenetic evidence on eukaryotic taxa is, in our opinion, a significant finding that speaks well for the validity of the maximum parsimony method in reconstructing phylogeny. The two trees, the unweighted pair group tree and the distance Wagner tree, produced from the MMD matrix by the distance clustering algorithm did not show such correspondence. Although the two trees agreed with the maximum parsimony trees in monophyletically grouping the plant globins together, all extracellular annelid globins together, all *Chironomus* **globins together, the two** *Anadara* **globins together, the opisthobranch** *(Aplysia)* **globins together, the prosobranch** *(Busycon* **and** *Cerithidea)* **globins together, and all vertebrate globins together, they did not agree in other respects. They failed to group the opisthobranch and prosobranch clades together and then join this gastropod branch to the bivalve mollusc branch as did the maximum parsimony trees. Nor did the unweighted and distance Wagner trees depict a monophyletic Annelida and a monophyletic Arthropoda as the maximum parsimony trees did. The unweighted and distance Wagner trees had lengths of 6960 NR and 6873 NR, respectively, whereas the maximum parsimony tree found under the constraint that the same pattern of eutherian relation-** ships be depicted by myoglobin and by α - and β **hemoglobin sequences had a length of 6843 NR. Without this constraint, i.e., when the three types ofglobin sequences were allowed to depict differing patterns of eutherian relationships as long as the branch swaps lowered NR length, the maximum parsimony tree had a length of 6777 NR. Although this tree showed more internal inconsistencies between the three globin regions than the constrained maximum parsimony tree 6843 NR long, it showed far fewer inconsistencies than the unweighted and the distance Wagner trees. Moreover, within the vertebrates as well as among the invertebrates, both the 6777-NR tree and the constrained maximum parsimony 6843-NR tree, agreed with the traditional phylogenetic evidence on the taxa represented by globin sequences much more so than the unweighted and distance Wagner trees.**

The phylogenetic hypotheses that we tested by the initial trees submitted to the branch-swapping algorithms were not limited to relationships suggested by the traditional evidence on plant and metazoan phylogeny, but also included hypotheses suggested by structural and functional features of the globins. For example, the sequence from the extracellular multisubunit hemoglobin of *Artemia*

	$\boldsymbol{2}$	$\mathbf{3}$	$\overline{\mathbf{4}}$	5	$\boldsymbol{6}$	$\boldsymbol{7}$	8	9	$10\,$	11	12 	13	14	15	16	17	$18\,$
1 Parasp	110 147	99 141	106 142	104 139	106 140	187 136	194 137	175 133	180 136	180 135	162 127	158 140	174 138	160 138	159 138	179 146	158 132
2 Lupin	-	91 143	93 145	86 141	84 142	160 128	180 129	171 126	167 128	174 127	158 119	161 139	163 128	157 137	156 137	162 138	151 130
3 Vicia			60 141	58 138	62 140	170 126	168 126	169 126	171 127	174 127	149 119	151 136	153 122	150 134	149 134	151 131	150 128
4 Phaseol				30 141	34 142	169 126	171 126	167 124	162 126	171 125	149 117	158 136	155 124	142 136	141 136	149 134	151 129
5 Glyc C ₂					15 140	165 123	167 123	162 122	162 124	169 123	142 115	147 133	155 121	139 133	138 133	151 131	149 126
6 Glyc						160 123	165 123	162 123	163 124	173 124	145 116	149 133	156 122	147 134	146 134	151 131	146 127
7 Ty IIB							109 148	139 140	141 144	144 143	154 136	177 136	166 122	164 123	163 123	166 127	163 117
8 Tyl IIC								135 140	155 144	140 143	138 136	177 137	178 123	162 123	163 123	167 128	157 117
9 Lumb I									108 141	118 141	119 133	166 134	163 118	168 122	168 122	163 125	160 116
10 Lumb II										123 145	133 136	167 136	166 122	167 124	166 124	172 127	162 118
11 Tyl IIA											113 136	162 135	159 121	167 123	166 123	170 126	157 117
12 Tyl I												150 127	159 113	160 115	160 115	164 119	146 110
13 Glycera													141 121	133 131	133 131	155 130	141 125
14 Artemia E1														131 129	130 129	168 135	140 123
15 CTT IA															\mathbf{I} 143	137 138	97 134
16 CTT I																136 138	96 134
17 CTT III a																	118 131
18 CTT III																	
19 CTT IV																	
20 CTT X																	
21 CTT IX																	
22 CTT VIIA																	
23 CTT IIb																	
24 CTT VIIB																	
25 CTT VI																	
26 CTT VIII																	
27 Anadara b.																	

Table 1. Matrix of minimum mutational distance values for selected pairwise comparisons of the globin sequences used in the present study

Table 1. Continued

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Table 1. Continued

The number of residue positions compared in each case is given underneath each MMD

was joined to the annelid extracellular multisubunit hemoglobin branch, while the monomeric *Glycera* sequence was joined to the monomeric-dimeric *Chironomus* branch and then the two resulting branches, *Artemia-annelid* and *Glycera-Chironomus,* were joined together. The length of this arrangement was 20 NR more than the length of the arrangement shown in Fig. 2, i.e., the program MPAFE after several branch swaps returned the tree to the branching pattern in Fig. 2 and in the process lowered the tree length by 20 NR.

Two globin phylogenetic trees were constructed recently by Feng et al. (1985) incorporating only *Lumbricus* chain II and *Tylorrhynchus* chain I data. They provide similar branching orders for the various globins except for the two annelid sequences relative to the kidney bean leghemoglobin. In the tree based on the empirical log-odds matrix the leghemoglobin diverges at the same time as the divergence of the annelid branch and the line leading to the vertebrates. In the other tree based on a unitary matrix program whereby only identities are scored, the leghemoglobin line diverges at a more distal point, in agreement with the tree derived by Goodman et al. (1974) by the maximum parsimony method.

The geologic time scale shown on the right side of Fig. 2 is taken from Harland et al. (1982). Paleontological views concerning the ancestral separation of the species from which the globins came were used to place branch points on this geological time scale. Despite the antiquity of the Earth [ca. 4550 million years before present (Myr BP)], the fossil record indicates that metazoans only became abundant during the Ediacarian period of the late Precambrian, which lasted from 670 Myr BP to 550 Myr BP and in the early Cambrian (Cloud and Glassner 1982). The initial metazoan radiation spanned a period of approximately 150 Myr (ca. 680-530 Myr) and is best known from the relatively abrupt appearance of hard parts near the base of the Cambrian (ca. 570 Myr) (Morris 1985). Thus, the earliest split in the ancestral metazoan lineage is placed arbitrarily in our globin tree at 680 Myr BP. The origin of vertebrates and the divergence of agnathans from gnathostomes is usually placed near the Cambrian-Ordovician boundary, i.e., at ca. 510 Myr BP (Romer 1966; Lovtrup 1977). Thus we place the separation of the agnathan globin lineage from the stem to the gnathostome α - and β -hemoglobin lineages at 510 Myr BP. In addition, the separation of Chondrichthyes (sharks) from Osteichthyes (bony fishes), which paleontological evidence places at ca. 425 Myr BP, served to define the time zone within which the divergence between the gnathostome α and β -hemoglobin lineages could be placed. By extrapolation from the NR values of the two internodal links, the date for the α/β divergence node was found to be about 455 Myr BP. Similarly, within the plant and invertebrate regions of the globin tree local "molecular clock" calculations were used to date branch points shown in Fig. 2.

The branching pattern found for leghemoglobins and shown in Fig. 2 agrees with the view of botanists on the phylogenetic relationships of the species from which these plant globins were obtained. The divergence of Leguminosae and Ulmaceae (which contains *Parasponia)* is thought to have occurred in the middle Cretaceous, about 80-100 Myr BP (J. J. Doyle and K. Nixon, personal communication). The four genera of the Leguminosae, represented in Fig. 2 by *Lupinus, Vicia, Phaseolus,* and *Glycine,* all belong to the subfamily Papilionideae. The divergence of *Lupinus* first from the other genera agrees with fossil evidence for its earliest existence during the Eocene about 40 Myr BP; the divergence of *Vicia* (broad bean) next, then *Phaseolus* (kidney bean), and finally *Glycine* (soybean) in the legume portion of the globin tree is also in accordance with current views on legume systematics (Polhill 1981).

The annelid portion of the globin tree shown in Fig. 2 is mainly composed of paralogous lineages. The extracellular globins IIB and IIC of the polychaete *Tylorrhynchus* are closely related. This result is in agreement with the recent finding, based on the amino acid sequence determinations of the N-terminal portions (20-25 residues) of the four *Tylorrhynchus* chains and the corresponding four *Lumbricus* chains, that the eight globin chains fall into two groups: group A, consisting *of Lumbricus* chains I and II and *Tylorrhynchus* chains I and IIA, shares the invariant Lys-12 and Lys-14 and group B, consisting of *Lumbricus* chains III and IV and *Tylorrhynchus* chains IIB and IIC, shares the invariant Cys-4, Ser-6, and Asp-9 (Gotoh et al. 1987). The

maximum parsimony results, however, indicate that the invariant Lys-12 and Lys-14 *of Lumbricus* chains I and II and *Tylorrhynchus* chains I and IIA are primitive retentions in these extracellular globins rather than shared derived characters. On the other hand, the sequences that fall into group B probably do constitute a monophyletic clade as judged by the close grouping of *Tylorrhynchus* chains IIB and IIC in the maximum parsimony tree in Fig. 2. The fossil record for the annelids is very incomplete, particularly for the oligochaetes. Probably all that can be said is that the known geologic range of the annelids is Proterozoic to recent (Tasch 1980).

The complementary DNA-derived amino acid sequence of one of the chains of the intracellular, tetrameric hemoglobin of the echiuran *Urechis caupo* has been determined recently (Garey and Riggs 1986). It shows maximum homology (ca. 20%) with the intracellular, monomeric globin of the polychaete *Glycera,* in agreement with the accepted relationship between the Echiura (a minor protostome phylum) and the annelids (Mettam 1985). Although this sequence was not included in the construction of the phylogenetic tree reported here, it probably should be placed close to *Glycera.* Interestingly, the nucleotide sequences of the 5S rRNA from an oligochaete, *Enchytraeus albidus,* two polychaetes, *Perinereis brevicirris* and *Sabellastarte japonica,* and of an echiuran, *Urechis unicinctus,* suggested that the latter was closer to the oligochaete than to the polychaetes and also closer to the oligochaete than were all three annelids to each other (Specht et al. 1986).

and descendant codon sequences as determined by the maximum parsimony program TPAB and then corrected for superimposed mutations by the program TAVA (see
Methods and Materials). The geological time scale given on the right Fig. 2. The plant and invertebrate lineages and 5 of the 213 vertebrate lineages from the phylogenetic tree of globin amino acid sequences. The branching arrangement for this tree was found using parsimony programs MPALMX and MPAFP. The numbers shown on the lines of descent represent the nucleotide replacements between the ancestral

The primitive hemoglobin of metazoans was probably monomeric. If so, the multisubunit hemoglobins represent independently derived states in Annelida and Arthropoda. Lending support to this hypothesis, the ancestral sequence that the parsimony method found for annelid globins diverges much less from the monomeric globin of *Glycera* than from any extracellular annelid globins (see Fig. 2). Similarly, the ancestral sequence found for the arthropod globins diverges less from some of the monomeric globins of *Chironomus* than from the multisubunit hemoglobin *of Artemia.*

The portion of the tree representing the relationships among the 12 globins of *Chironomus* is essentially identical to the tree presented earlier (Goodman et al. 1983), in which the 6 globins with a tendency to dimerize group separately from the 5 that are monomeric in solution. CTT X, which exists both as monomer and dimer, occupies an intermediate position between the two groups. The relationship between the insect globins, which are single-chain, single-domain globins, and one of the domains of the multidomain, multisubunit hemoglobin of the branchiopod crustacean *Artemia* is very distant, as could be expected. Although the fossil record of the crustaceans extends from the late Cambrian to Recent, the fossil record of the Branchi-Opoda starts with the Late Devonian (Schram, 1982). The first insects are observed in the middle of Early Devonian, about 390 Myr BP.

Among the intracellular mollusc hemoglobins, in addition to the sequences representing the Bivalvia Used in the present study, namely the dimeric globin of *Anadara broughtonii* (Furuta and Kajita 1983) and the alpha chain of the tetrameric hemoglobin *Of Anadara trapezia* (Como and Thompson 1980), the sequences of the beta chain of A *nadara trapezia* (Gilbert and Thompson 1985) and of its dimeric globin IIB (Fisher et al. 1984) and of the dimeric globin of *Scapharca inaequivalvis* (Petruzelli et al. 1985) have become available since the start of this study. All three dimeric globins share a 90% identity, and hence should be grouped closely together. In contrast, the dimeric globins have only 45% identity with the two chains of tetrameric hemoglobin *Of Anadara trapezia.* As already noted, in the maximum parsimony globin tree shown in Fig. 2, the clam hemoglobin branch joins the gastropod myoglobin branch and this branch, in turn, divides into the dimeric prosobranch sequences *of Busycon* and *Cerithidea* and the monomeric opisthobranch sequences *of Aplysia.* The fact that among the gastropod myoglobins, the monomeric sequence diverges less from the ancestral state than the dimeric sequence (see link lengths in Fig. 2) further supports the hypothesis that the primitive globins in meta-Zoans were probably monomeric. The sequence of the myoglobin of the opisthobranch *Dolabella auricularia* has been determined recently (Suzuki 1986); since this gastropod mollusc belongs to the family Aplysiidae, it is not surprising that its sequence shows a very strong similarity ranging from 72 to 77%, with the two *Aplysia* sequences used in this study and the recent *Aplysia juliana* sequence. The earliest fossil record for a bivalve is from the Late Cambrian, about 540-570 Myr BP (Pojeta et al. 1973). Although the fossil record of the prosobranch gastropods is from the Late Cambrian to Recent, the opisthobranch gastropods occur in the Devonian to Recent (Cox 1960).

The crystal structures of the intracellular monomeric hemoglobin of *Glycera dibranchiata* (Padlan and Love 1974), the leghemoglobin *of Lupinus* (Vainshtein 1981), the extracellular monomeric hemoglobin of *Chironomus thummi thummi* (CTT III) (Steigemann and Weber 1979), the myoglobin *ofAplysia limacina* (Bolognesi et al. 1985), and the intracellular dimeric and tetrameric hemoglobins of the arcid clam *Scapharca inaequivalvis* (Royer et al. 19 85) have been determined. The structures all have the usual eight helices (A through H) arranged in the typical "globin fold" (Perutz 1979). The clam molecules appear to have an additional alpha helix at the N terminus and a subunit arrangement that is different from that of the vertebrates: although in the latter the E and F helices are external while the G and H helices are largely internal, in the clam tetramer it is the E and F helices that are largely internal while the G and H helices are external. Comparison of sequences of hemoglobins and myoglobins from many species has led to the conclusion that the split of the genes for the alpha and beta chains occurred after the emergence of the vertebrates (Goodman et al. 1975). Since both the alpha and beta chains are essential for the allosteric cooperativity in vertebrate hemoglobins (Benesch and Benesch 1974), it appears that the development of cooperativity in the clam hemoglobins was evolutionarily independent of that which occurred in vertebrate hemoglobins.

It is evident that many more globin sequences are necessary before any detailed phylogenetic tree can be constructed for the three major groups of invertebrates represented in the present study.

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