Comparison of cytochrome P450 (CYP) genes from the mouse and human genomes, including nomenclature recommendations for genes, pseudogenes and alternative-splice variants

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**Objectives** Completion of both the mouse and human genome sequences in the private and public sectors has prompted comparison between the two species at multiple levels. This review summarizes the cytochrome P450 (CYP) gene superfamily. For the first time, we have the ability to compare complete sets of CYP genes from two mammals. Use of the mouse as a model mammal, and as a surrogate for human biology, assumes reasonable similarity between the two. It is therefore of interest to catalog the genetic similarities and differences, and to clarify the limits of extrapolation from mouse to human.

**Methods** Data-mining methods have been used to find all the mouse and human CYP sequences; this includes 102 putatively functional genes and 88 pseudogenes in the mouse, and 57 putatively functional genes and 58 pseudogenes in the human. Comparison is made between all these genes, especially the seven main CYP gene clusters.

**Results and conclusions** The seven CYP clusters are greatly expanded in the mouse with 72 functional genes versus only 27 in the human, while many pseudogenes are present; presumably this phenomenon will be seen in many other gene superfamily clusters. Complete identification of all pseudogene sequences is likely to be clinically important, because some of these highly similar exons can interfere with PCR-based genotyping assays. A naming procedure for each of four categories of CYP pseudogenes is proposed, and we encourage various gene nomenclature committees to consider seriously the adoption and application of this pseudogene nomenclature system. *Pharmacogenetics* 14:1–18 © 2004 Lippincott Williams & Wilkins

**Keywords:** cytochrome P450, nomenclature, pseudogenes, mouse, human

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**Introduction**

The mammalian cytochrome P450 (CYP) superfamily encodes enzymes involved in: the metabolism of pharmaceuticals, foreign chemicals and pollutants; arachidonic acid metabolism and cicosanoid biosynthesis; cholesterol, sterol and bile acid biosynthesis; steroid synthesis and catabolism; vitamin D\textsubscript{3} synthesis and catabolism; retinoic acid hydroxylation; biogenic amine and neuroamine metabolism; and orphan CYPs of unknown function [1]. What once had been described as predominantly a ‘hepatic drug detoxication system’ is now known to include a myriad of enzymatic reactions involved in critically important life processes. Consequently, mutations in a number of CYP genes are responsible for inborn errors of metabolism and contribute to several important clinically relevant diseases.

April 2003 brought the 50th anniversary of Watson and Crick’s famous paper; the Human Genome Project (HGP) was declared complete, and a new assembly (build 33) of the genome was released. This assembly has 545 contigs, meaning that there are only about 500 gaps remaining. NCBI also released a new mouse genome assembly in February 2003 (build 30), with 37 998 contigs. Although the mouse genome is not as complete, the state of the mouse Cyp genes is very nearly finalized, with only a few unresolved regions. Therefore, a comprehensive comparison of the CYP genes between the two mammalian genomes is now possible for the first time. This review provides a detailed analysis of the CYP genes and pseudogenes in mouse and human, going beyond the brief treatment in the initial Mouse Genome Sequencing Consortium

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report [2]. Herein we have assigned names to all putatively functional *CYP* genes and pseudogenes, in the continuing effort to provide a complete annotation of the *CYP* gene superfamily [3]. In this review, we also propose a standardized nomenclature system for naming the four types of pseudogenes; this nomenclature is not officially sanctioned by any nomenclature body, but we hope our views will contribute to the discussions of pseudogene nomenclature that are now evolving within these groups.

Before complete genomes were available, gene nomenclature was simpler because detailed information about gene position on the chromosome did not affect the gene names. In the past, names were assigned based only on sequence similarity and evolutionary divergence [4,5]. Now there are several types of nomenclature issues that have arisen due to positional information. Genes often occur in clusters, with several related genes, pseudogenes and detritus exons aligned in tandem. Genes in subfamilies are sometimes clustered with genes of other subfamilies. Now that the clusters are known in detail, there is some value to naming all these *CYP* sequences in the order in which they appear in each cluster. With the mouse and human genomes, this is not really possible, because most *CYP* genes have previously been named from cDNAs, thereby resulting in the gene names within a cluster being out of sequence. It is possible to name the remaining genes and pseudogenes in other species, however, in order of their location; this positional naming has been done, for example, with most of the 105 mosquito (*Anopheles gambiae*) *CYP* genes [6]. For a compilation of the numbers of *CYP* genes in all eukaryotic genomes sequenced to date, see Table 1.

### Methods

A data-mining strategy was devised to find all *CYP*-related sequences in the mouse and human genomes. This method used representative mouse and human *CYP* sequences to search each entire genome, as described in Nelson (2002) [7]. One *CYP* sequence from each of the 18 mammalian *CYP* gene families was used to perform BLAST searches against the NCBI genome assemblies for mouse and human. In cases where there were several distant subfamilies in a family, additional searches were performed so as not to miss any *CYP*-related sequences. These extra searches included members of the *CYP2D*, *CYP4F*, *CYP4V*, *CYP11B*, *CYP26B*, *CYP26C*, *CYP27B* and *CYP27C* subfamilies. Each BLAST 'hit' was searched against a collection of all known mouse or human *CYP* sequences in the blast server at http://132.192.64.52/p450.html. Any new sequences were added to the database file on this server, and the search was continued.

Gene clusters were mined in a more systematic way. Because some genes are very similar to other members in a cluster, care must be taken not to confuse nearly identical sequences (e.g. *CYP4A11* and *CYP4A22* genes show 94% identity). The DNA sequence from each gene cluster was retrieved from the Map Viewer at NCBI in 100 000-bp fragments. For example, the 31 Mb contig NT_011109.13 from human chromosome 19, was partially downloaded as five segments, covering the sequence from 3.4 Mb to 3.9 Mb; these were then placed in the Do-It-Yourself WU-Blast server at http://www.proweb.org/proweb/Tools/WU-blast.html and searched with each of the nine exons of a *CYP2* family gene. This method, which required 45 searches to cover the area, identified all *CYP* fragments, including pseudogene fragments (109 exons, in this case). These were then assembled, without being confused with nearly identical fragments from other related genes, in an order that correctly reconstructs the physical map of this region [8]. Searches of the mouse *Cyp2c* and *Cyp2j* subfamilies were also conducted, using the Celera Discovery System (assembly R26, D. Zeldin, unpublished data). Because some regions of both genomes are not completely sequenced, there are a few areas that might require slight revisions in the future, such as the mouse *Cyp3a* cluster and the human *CYP4X–CYP4Z* region.

Established rules for *CYP* gene nomenclature have been followed for all new mouse and human intact *CYP* genes that were discovered. Based on natural clusters of sequences on phylogenetic trees, values of 40% and 55% amino acid identity were chosen as cutoffs for membership in *CYP* families and subfamilies respectively [4,5]. The original rule of 40% identity or higher for membership in a *CYP* gene family is still a useful guideline; other considerations about how sequences are clustered on phylogenetic trees, however, have allowed this cut-off to fall well below 40% for some families, especially the *CYP4* family, as discussed.

### Table 1 Numbers of putatively functional full-length *CYP* genes in whole eukaryotic genomes

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Species</th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Date</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><em>Homo sapiens</em> (human)</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>Apr. 2003</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Mus musculus</em> (mouse)</td>
<td>102</td>
<td>Feb. 2003</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Canis familiaris</em> (dog)</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>Sep. 2003</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Takifugu rubripes</em> (pufferfish)</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>Aug. 2002 v.3.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Caenorhabditis elegans</em> (nematode)</td>
<td>74</td>
<td>Dec. 1998</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Drosophila melanogaster</em> (fruit fly)</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>Mar. 2000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Anopheles gambiae</em> (mosquito)</td>
<td>105</td>
<td>Oct. 2002</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Ciona intestinalis</em> (sea squirt)</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>Dec. 2002</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Ciona savignyi</em> (sea squirt)</td>
<td>97</td>
<td>Apr. 2003</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Dictyostelium discoideum</em> (slime mold)</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>Apr. 2003</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Arabidopsis thaliana</em> (thale cress)</td>
<td>249</td>
<td>Dec. 2000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Oryza sativa</em> (rice)</td>
<td>323</td>
<td>Apr. 2002</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Neurospora crassa</em> (fungus)</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>Apr. 2003</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Saccharomyces cerevisiae</em> (baker’s yeast)</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>Oct. 1996</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Schizosaccharomyces pombe</em> (fission yeast)</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>Feb. 2002</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*aIncludes partials that are expected to be functional (e.g. *CYP1A1* in *Takifugu rubripes*).

*bDates are for major genome publications or most recent genome assembly or data release.
below. In this review, we propose a new method for the naming of pseudogenes and alternative transcripts, based in part on their alignment along a chromosome. This method will be used in the CYP database. It is our hope that this nomenclature system will be influential among other nomenclature committees, and be applied to other gene families.

Above the level of family names, a higher-order category for CYP genes has been in use for several years; clusters of related CYP families are called clans [9,10]. There are nine named clans in vertebrates: the CYP clan, the CYP19 clan, the CYP20 clan, the CYP26 clan, the CYP4X1 clan and the mitochondrial clan. Single sequences that do not cluster with other sequences in a reproducible way (e.g., CYP29A1, CYP46A1) are not yet placed in a named clan. This may be revised in the future, as it is desirable to place all CYP genes in a named clan. A phylogenetic tree showing clans for vertebrate (human and pufferfish (Takifugu rubripes)) CYP genes has been recently published [11].

A composite phylogenetic tree of the CYP superfamily genes in mouse and human (Fig. 1) was generated from an alignment, initially constructed using CLUSTAL W, and edited manually. The PHYLIP package was used to make a distance matrix from the alignment with PROTDIST, and a tree was computed with NEIGHBOR, set for unweighted-pair-group method of averaging. The tree was then drawn with NJ PLOT and edited in Adobe Illustrator 9.0.

It should be emphasized which genome build numbers were used for this comparison. The genome assemblies are based on freezes in the sequence data that have been used in the assembly process. The most recent assembly of the human genome is build 33 (April 10, 2003, with 545 contigs). This build represents the data that can be seen in the genome Map Viewer. The most recent assembly of the mouse genome is build 30 (Jan. 27, 2003, with 37,998 contigs). New builds often change the nucleotide numbering of gene locations in the assembly contigs; this may or may not result in any improvements in the sequences of the CYP genes.

The contigs illustrated in this report (Figs 2, 3, 4 and 5) originate from mouse build 30, and human builds 30 and 33. Even build 33 of human is not yet complete, meaning that there are still some gaps involving CYP genes. This is true for the CYP4ABXZ cluster in humans, affecting the CYP4X1 and CYP4Z1 genes. We had assembled the human CYP4X1 gene, based originally on mRNA from the orthologous rat CYP4X1 gene. The complete CYP4Z1 mRNA sequence (GenBank AY262056) from human was deposited in Genbank on April 9, 2003. The human CYP4X1 mRNA sequence (BC028102) was deposited on April 22, 2003, making it the last human CYP transcript or gene to be completely sequenced. The mouse genome is less complete than the human genome, as can be seen in the mouse Cyp2ah10S cluster, the Cyp2c cluster, and the Cyp3a cluster. Some revision of the mouse Cyp sequences may occur in these regions in the future.

**Importance of detecting pseudogenes**

The absolute number of genes in the human genome, and mammalian genomes in general, has been debated extensively. Most recently, the number has been closing in on about 40,000 [12]. Though conservative estimates place it as low as 25,622 genes [13]. These genes will be annotated within the mouse and human genomes, and chromosomal location and intron–exon structures identified. The exon sequences only cover about 1.4% of the genome length [14]. The intergenic portions of the genome are largely without annotation, except to indicate the presence of numerous LINEs, SINEs, Alu sequences, and other repeats. Scattered within this mix are pseudogenes – genes that have suffered a defeat and are now fading away, or smaller fragments of gene sequences that have separated from their parent loci but never represented a functional gene.

Estimates predict about 20,000 pseudogenes in the human genome [15]. For example, the human genome appears to have more than 2000 ribosomal protein pseudogenes [16]. Since pseudogenes are not conserved by natural selection, they have a finite lifespan that is short, compared with that of their parent genes. Pseudogenes must be continuously generated; otherwise, we would not see them at all. Comparison of the human and chimpanzee genomes, which diverged at least 6 million years ago (MYA) [17], or the mouse and rat genomes, which diverged about 20 MYA [18], will soon give us better estimates as to how rapidly pseudogenes lose detectable similarity to a parent gene.

**CYP genes are polymorphic, and variations can be relevant to drug metabolism and disease susceptibility** [1,19]. Clinical diagnostic tests based on genotyping human CYP polymorphisms by PCR methods must take into account all the related genes, detritus exons, and pseudogenes, so that specific primer pairs can be synthesized. Lack of knowledge about highly similar pseudogenes and detritus exons can interfere with an accurate PCR-based clinical genotype assay. The difficulty of genotyping in the CYP2D6 locus is an excellent example of such a problem [20]. Similar arguments will undoubtedly also apply to CYP genes in other species, as well as to many non-CYP genes.

Pseudogenes provide rapid molecular clocks in nuclear DNA, as they are not conserved. These clocks can be
Unweighted pair-group method of averaging tree of 102 mouse and 57 human CYP sequences, plus three human pseudogene sequences (CYP2G2P, CYP2T2P, CYP4F23P) and mouse Cyp2ac1-ps. The sequence alignment is posted at (http://drnelson.utmem.edu/mouse.human.aln2.html). The 34 orthologous pairs (discussed in text) are shaded grey. Clans, hierarchical clusters of related CYP gene families, are identified. Per nomenclature rules, human CYP gene names are in all capital letters, whereas mouse Cyp gene names are in lower-case, except for the first letter.
The CYP2ABFGST and CYP2C gene clusters in human and mouse. Each filled circle represents an exon or a part of an exon. Open circles denote extra internal exons. In (A), the contig has been drawn in reverse orientation, to allow direct comparison to the mouse cluster in (B). The mouse Cyp2c44 gene is 4.1 Mb downstream of the main mouse Cyp2c cluster. Some pseudogenes have been labeled with letters. In accordance with the nomenclature system described in the text: in (B), z = Cyp2s1-ie4b, y = Cyp2b13-de1b2b7b, x = Cyp2b9-de9b, w = Cyp2a4-de7b, v = Cyp2b19-de7b8b9b, u = Cyp2a22-de1b2b, t = Cyp2a21-ps, s = Cyp2a12-de1b, b = Cyp2a12-ps, and Cyp2b26-ps is not found on NT_039410.1, but other evidence supports its location here (Wang et al. [35]). In (C), z = CYP2C9-de1b, y = CYP2C9-de2c3c, x = CYP2C8-de6b. In (D), z = Cyp2c65-de9b, y = Cyp2c39-ie6b, x = Cyp2c71-de1b. In this and the following figures, these pseudogenes are designated with single lower-case letters to avoid clutter in the diagram. The reverse alphabet was used to avoid possible confusion with CYP names. Mouse chromosome bands (7A3, 19C3) are taken from comparing the NCBI build 30 Map View genes_seq map to the ideogram map; these bands do not always agree with the MGI map location.
useful in understanding the dynamics of genome evolution on short time-scales. Comparison of pseudogenes from closely related genomes, such as those of the mouse and rat, may reveal more about mechanisms of evolution than comparisons of the much more slowly diverging functional genes. It is also likely that, over evolutionary time, pseudogenes will contain more single-nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs), insertions and deletions than functional genes.

Pseudogenes are usually not functional, although an unusual exception was recently reported [21]. Pseudogenes, however, can play an important role in gene conversion and recombination events with a nearby
The CYP4ABXZ gene cluster in human, the Cyp4abx gene cluster in mouse, and the CYP4F gene cluster in human and mouse. In (A), the human CYP4ABXZ cluster is incomplete, with a single fragment of AC026935.2 bridging the CYP4X1 and CYP4Z1 genes. Because the CYP4X1 and CYP4Z1 genes do not occur on a single genomic sequence, they are joined by an internal line to indicate this. z \(=\) CYP4A-se1[12], y \(=\) CYP4A-se2[1], x \(=\) CYP4A-se3[12], w \(=\) CYP4A-se4[2]. (B) The Cyp4abx locus in mouse, because mouse does not have a Cyp4z gene. The region from fragment x to Cyp4a30-ps is a duplicate of the region from fragment w to Cyp4a30b; this results in two copies of the Cyp4a12 gene called Cyp4a12a and Cyp4a12b. In (B), z \(=\) Cyp4a29-de12b, y \(=\) Cyp4a29-de5b6b7b9b, x \(=\) Cyp4a12a-de8b, w \(=\) Cyp4a12b-de2b5b, v \(=\) Cyp4b1-de2b4b, u \(=\) Cyp4b1-de10c11c12c. In (C), z \(=\) CYP4F2-de12b. In (D), z \(=\) CYP4F2-de12b, y \(=\) CYP4F2-de7b8b, x \(=\) CYP4F2-de7b8b.
Fig. 5

(A) CYP2D cluster in human

(B) Cyp2d cluster in mouse

(C) CYP2J cluster in human

(D) Cyp2j cluster in mouse

The Cyp2d and Cyp2j gene clusters in mouse and human. In (A), the deleted part of the human genome assembly has been restored as described in the text. In (B), z = Cyp2d9-de1d6d7d, y = Cyp2d9-de1c5c6c7c, x = Cyp2d9-de1b2b, w = Cyp2d12-de5c6c7c, v = Cyp2d12-de1b5b6b7b, u = Cyp2d34-de1b2b7b8b, t = Cyp2d40-de7b9b8b. In (C), the only human CYP2J is shown. In (D), z = Cyp2j13-de8b, y = Cyp2j7-de9d, x = Cyp2j7-de9c, w = Cyp2j7-de9b, v = Cyp2j8-de9c, u = Cyp2j8-de9b, t = Cyp2j8-de6b, s = Cyp2j6-de6b, r = Cyp2j5-de9b, q = Cyp2j5-de2b.
functional gene. Pseudogenes also provide points of reference in the genome, and their quantity and quality can suggest how actively a particular subfamily or gene cluster has been evolving. Pseudogenes might also testify to the dynamic nature of functional genes and genomes, which seem to be constantly throwing off pseudogenes like sparks sputtering from a fuse.

Why annotate and name all pseudogenes?

Pseudogenes pose a challenge for annotation and nomenclature, but they are too abundant to be ignored. The glyceraldehyde 3-phosphate dehydrogenase gene (GAPDH), for example, exists as a single functional gene in the human, mouse, rat and chicken [22]. In the mouse and rat, however, there are more than 400 retroviral-processed GAPDH pseudogenes [23,24]. Pseudogenes therefore need identification tags as much as or more than, any single functional gene. Fortunately, the CYP superfamily does not have as large a pseudogene faction as GAPDH (only 88 mouse and 58 human CYP pseudogenes), but a systematic nomenclature system still needs to be established for their proper identification. Such a system could be applied generally to other gene families. Users of the UCSC genome browsers for mouse or human have probably noticed the lines denoting GenScan predictions of genes. The output from GenScan is an automated attempt to find genes in the genome [25], and this program tries very hard to make a gene out of anything that looks like a gene, even if it is a pseudogene. The resulting constructs contain exons, with frameshifts and/or stop-codons, which are either truncated or missed by the program; new best-guess N- and C-terminal sequences are also added in order to provide plausible start-codons and final exons, respectively. These GenScan predictions are used to make estimates of the number of genes in a genome. Correct annotation of all pseudogenes in the genome would eliminate spurious predictions of this type from being counted as true genes.

Some pseudogenes are very nearly intact, for example, human CYP2G2P. This gene has all its intron-exon boundaries preserved and contains only two stop-codons in the coding sequence – one in exon 1, and one in exon 3. If the gene were to have polymorphisms at both of these sites, then functional alleles of CYP2G2P may exist. Mouse Cyp2g1 [26] and rabbit CYP2G1 [27] are functional genes. Another example is human CYP2D7AP, which has only one frameshift in exon 1 and one aberrant GT donor splice site at the exon 2—intron 2 boundary. Because the CYP2D6 gene is highly polymorphic, with more than 70 allelic variants [19], it is possible that gene conversion or alternative splicing might occur in the similar CYP2D7AP pseudogene, resulting in a functional gene.

In the combined mouse and human CYP gene families, there are 146 pseudogenes and 159 putative functional genes, indicating that the number of pseudogenes is almost equal to the number of actual genes. One study has suggested there exist about 20,000 pseudogenes in the human genome [15], and although this group’s website identifies about 12,000 pseudogenes [28], they have annotated only one of the 58 human CYP pseudogenes (CYP51P1). We suspect that their global approach is not based on a careful search for all members of a gene family, and therefore the prediction of 20,000 pseudogenes is very likely to be an undercount.

Proposed nomenclature system for pseudogenes

The data in Figs 2, 3, 4 and 5 show that there are many CYP pseudogenes in mouse and human. At present, the precise definition of ‘pseudogene’ is still under discussion by nomenclature committees. Our observations suggest that there are at least four categories of pseudogenes: (a) full-length, or nearly full-length, pseudogenes; (b) solo exons, or small groups of exons, away from a gene cluster; (c) escaped exons near a parent gene or gene cluster – which we propose to call detritus exons – representing fragments caused by the common processes of gene disintegration and partial gene duplication; and (d) internal exons, duplicated intact exons, or partial exons found inside genes. We propose a systematic nomenclature system, based on extensions of the usual CYP gene name, and designed to distinguish between these four types of pseudogenes. This system does not identify the pseudogenes as ‘processed’ or ‘non-processed.’ The mouse and human pseudogenes are listed using this new system, within the mouse and human sections of the Cytochrome P450 Homepage [3].

Full-length, or nearly full-length, pseudogenes

Previously, only one designation was given for all pseudogenes; this designation includes a ‘P’ in most species (in mouse, ‘-ps’ [29]) appended to the name – as in human CYP2T2P or mouse Cyp2t2-ps. If two or more pseudogenes related to a given parent gene were characterized, then they were given additional numbers, as in CYP51P1, CYP51P2 and CYP51P3. This designation will be kept for the full-length, or nearly full-length, pseudogenes. These ‘almost complete’ pseudogenes may be chromosomally secluded from other members of their family or subfamily, as free-standing pseudogenes (e.g. the three human CYP51 processed pseudogenes located on three different chromosomes), or they may be found within their gene cluster (e.g. the mouse Cyp2d cluster, Fig. 5B). CYP pseudogenes are predominantly duplicated genes rather than retrotransposed genes.

Solo exons

Solo-exon pseudogenes will have the extension ‘-sen[x1:x2:x3]’, in which ‘-se’ denotes ‘solo exon,’ and ‘n’
represents a unique chronological number (1, 2, 3, etc.) to specify multiple pseudogenes from the same parent gene or gene subfamily. The "\(x_1, x_2, x_3, \ldots\)" values in brackets refer to which exon(s) has(have) been duplicated (e.g. exon 2, exon 7, etc.) in the pseudogene. For example, there are 13 similar human CYP4F pseudogenes scattered about the genome, whose old nomenclature included: CYP4F25P, CYP4F26P, CYP4F27P, CYP4F29P, CYP4F32P, CYP4F33P, CYP4F34P and CYP4F35P. These small pseudogenes represent solo exons, are very similar to one another, and probably arose by duplication of a single exon-6,7,8 fragment. In this new pseudogene nomenclature system, these will be named CYP4F-se1[6:8], CYP4F-se2[6], CYP4F-se3[6:7:8], CYP4F-se4[6:7:8], CYP4F-se5[6:8], CYP4F-se6[6], CYP4F-se7[6:7:8], CYP4F-se8[6:7:8], CYP4F-se9[6:7:8], CYP4F-se10[6:7:8], CYP4F-se11[6:7:8], CYP4F-se12[6:8] and CYP4F-se13[6:8], respectively. Because the species is not included in the name, numbering will be sequential across species.

Solo exons, by definition, do not occur inside gene clusters, unless they are well separated from neighboring genes. There may exist a continuum from full-length pseudogene to solo exons. A transition in the nomenclature between solo exons and longer, free-standing pseudogenes is required. An arbitrary breakpoint of four exons is recommended. If a pseudogene has more than four exons present, it makes sense to name it as a free-standing pseudogene; otherwise, the name becomes too long and cumbersome. If three or four exons are present, and the pseudogene is inside a gene cluster, it may be given an autonomous pseudogene name (e.g. human CYP2C58P), or it could be treated as a detritus exon pseudogene.

Solo exons are rare in the mouse genome; the only exception is that two Cyp2c pseudogenes are found on other chromosomes away from the Cyp2c gene cluster (see below). All other mouse Cyp pseudogenes remain close to the cluster of origin.

**Detritus exons**

Detritus exons will have the extension "-dex\(j_1j_2\ldots j_i\)", where 'de' denotes detritus exon, '\(x_1, x_2, x_3\)\ldots' represents the number(s) of the exon that has(have) been duplicated, and 'j' refers to a lower-case letter (b, c, d, etc.) to designate the unique pseudogene. The letter 'a' is reserved for the parent-gene normal exons; these letters are necessary because there may be two or more pseudogenes associated with one parent gene. For example, the mouse Cyp2j gene cluster (Fig. 5D) contains: Cyp2j7-de9b, Cyp2j7-de9c, Cyp2j7-de9d. These represent the three exon-9 pseudogene fragments downstream of the Cyp2j7 functional gene. Cyp2j7-de9b is so named, because it is the closest detritus exon to the Cyp2j7 gene. The curious case of the human CYP3A7 gene – which has 13 exons (Fig. 3A) – is also instructive. Here, three detritus exons – CYP3A7-de1b, CYP3A7-de2b and CYP3A7-de13c – are downstream of the human CYP3A7 gene. Transcripts have been found that include both CYP3A7-de2b and CYP3A7-de13c in an out-of-frame fusion to the end of the normal CYP3A7 mRNA [30]. In this case, not only are these detritus exons, but they are also used to make a non-CYP-related sequence extension of the CYP3A7 mRNA, such that they become the 14th and 15th exons in an alternative transcript.

**Internal, duplicated-intact, or partial exons**

Internal exons will carry the extension '-\(iex\)j', in which 'i' denotes internal exons, '\(x_1, x_2\)\ldots' refers to the number of the exon(s) that has(have) been duplicated, and 'j' represents a lower-case letter (b, c, d, etc.) to distinguish the extra exons from the parent exon, always called 'a.' Internal exons are rare in CYP genes, but may be more common in other gene superfamilies. Two CYP examples include human CYP3A4-\(i\)e1b, a partial duplication of exon 1 of the CYP3A4 gene, and mouse Cyp2c39-\(i\)e6b, an intact duplication of exon 6 of the Cyp2c39 gene. In the latter case, it is possible that this exon might be used for alternative splicing of the mouse Cyp2c39 gene.

**Unidentified or unaffiliated pseudogenes**

Some pseudogenes have decayed to the point where their subfamily relationship is no longer detectable. There are several nomenclature options in this case. The pseudogene could be given a new subfamily name; this seems undesirable, however, because it will be counted as a new subfamily, even when no functional sequence exists in that subfamily. Another option is to give the pseudogene a name that denotes the family only, as in CYP2P1; this option runs into problems with the naming system already in place, where CYP2P2 is a legitimate gene subfamily of its own (in fish). To avoid this, the 'un' suffix (for unassigned) could be used, such as human 'CYP2-un1' or mouse 'Cyp2-un1,' meaning pseudogene 1 of the human CYP2 or mouse Cyp2 family (not assigned to a specific subfamily). There are no examples of these in the mouse or human P450s, though CYP1A8P is close. The 'un' suffix would only be used for pseudogenes, and not for full-length functional genes.

If a pseudogene is so decayed that it cannot be reliably assigned to any specific family (for example, equally identical to two families), the name human 'CYP-un1' or mouse 'Cyp-un1' can be used to indicate 'a CYP pseudogene 1 that is not assigned to any specific family.' Because of the potential number of pseudogenes of this type across various phyla, we suggest that it might be beneficial to include the species in the name (e.g. Cyp-un1mouse for mouse, CYP-un1human.
for human, CYP-un1anoga for Anopheles gambiae, CYP-un1takru for Takifugu rubripes, etc.; except for mouse, human, rat, pig, rabbit, bovine and horse, usually by using the first three letters of the genus, plus the first two letters of the species, those five letters will cover unequivocally all species on this planet (http://www.expasy.org/cgi-bin/specielist). The shorter ‘Hsa’ for Homo sapiens is sometimes used, but does not distinguish this species from Halobacterium salinarium, Hypsugo savii or Herpesvirus saimiri).

Alternative splicing and suggested nomenclature of transcripts

The presence of internal exons raises the additional problem of how to name alternative-splice variants. In the simplest case, such as mouse Cyp2c39 described above, the name for the transcript needs to include the exon used when there is an alternative option. Assuming that the CYP2C39 mRNA can exist in two alternative forms, we suggest the corresponding transcript names Cyp2c39_v6a and Cyp2c39_v6b, since all exons other than exon 6 are the same.

The _v symbol for alternative transcripts is in keeping with the Guidelines for Human Gene Nomenclature (2002) [31]. The _v symbol is not to be confused with existing CYP nomenclature using v without an underscore to indicate alleles or sequence variants – as in CYP74B4_v1 and CYP74B4_v2. In humans, the allele nomenclature has adopted the * symbol for alleles (see the human CYP alleles nomenclature website http://www.imm.ki.se/CYPalleles/).

Alternative-splice variants that are more complex could be specified by including all of the optional exons in the name. This can become difficult and long, however, as shown in the case of the previously named CYP3A5P1 (Genbank L26985) and CYP3A5P2 (X90579). These both encode non-functional transcripts of the human CYP3A5 gene; they had initially been named as distinct pseudogenes, assuming separate loci [32], but this was shown not to be the case. These two transcripts are derived by alternative splicing from the CYP3A5 gene in a rather complex fashion. If the normal transcript is derived by alternative splicing from the CYP3A5P1 the name. This can become difficult and long, however, to specify by including all of the optional exons in the name. The _v symbol for alternative transcripts is in keeping with the Guidelines for Human Gene Nomenclature (2002) [31]. The _v symbol is not to be confused with existing CYP nomenclature using v without an underscore to indicate alleles or sequence variants – as in CYP74B4_v1 and CYP74B4_v2. In humans, the allele nomenclature has adopted the * symbol for alleles (see the human CYP alleles nomenclature website http://www.imm.ki.se/CYPalleles/).

CYP3A5P2 is the same as CYP3A5P1, except that it is missing the cryptic exon 15n. Clearly there are benefits to using the shorthand names, although the short names imply that these transcripts come from a pseudogene, when in this case they do not. The solution is to treat the normal transcript as CYP3A5_v1 and rename the CYP3A5P1 transcript as CYP3A5_v2 and the CYP3A5P2 transcript as CYP3A5_v3, as shorthand for the long descriptive names. The long descriptive names could be kept on a website or database for reference, whereas the shorthand names could be used in publications. We hope that this extremely complex relationship – between a gene and several reasonably abundant transcripts that lead to a non-functional protein – is rare.

There also needs to be conventional nomenclature when an alternative exon 1 exists. The first exon 1 may be far upstream of the gene, and it may be used infrequently or not at all (see CYP3A5 and CYP3A7). If the CYP3A5 and CYP3A7 exons are named 1a and 1b in order on the chromosome, then the most-often-used exon would be exon 1b. In the case of first exons, we suggest that it may be better to name the alternative exon 1 that is closer to exon 2 as ‘exon 1a,’ and the more distant alternative exon 1 as ‘exon 1b.’ In the case of CYP3A5 and CYP3A7, there are two upstream exons, named 1 and 2; these have been named as detritus exons CYP3A5-de1b2b and CYP3A7-de1b2b (Fig. 3A). A transcript using these exons would be named ‘CYP3A7_v1b2b mRNA’.

Human CYP19A1 is another case of alternative first exons [33], but this gene is far more complex. The human CYP19A1 gene spans more than 130 kb, with the coding region in exons 2–10 spanning about 30 kb, and perhaps as many as six non-coding first exons that determine tissue-specific expression. The expressed gene product (aromatase) is the same in all tissues. Again, we propose the alternative exon 1 closest to exon 2 be called ‘1a,’ and the sixth alternative exon 1 upstream would be called ‘1f.’

Comparison of CYP genes from mouse and human

Figure 1 shows a phylogenetic tree containing 163 CYP sequences (102 full-length putatively functional mouse Cyp genes, plus 57 full-length putatively functional human CYP genes). We have also included three human pseudogenes: CYP4F23P is very nearly intact, whereas CYP2G2P and CYP2T2P are orthologs of the mouse Cyp2g1 and Cyp2t4 functional genes. The mouse Cyp2c1-ps pseudogene is an ortholog of the functional rat CYP2C1 gene. A direct comparison in list form of all functional mouse and human CYP genes is given in Table 2. This tree clearly shows that, compared with human, the mouse has undergone significant expansion of Cyp genes in seven clusters: the Cyp2ahfgst cluster,
the Cyp2c cluster, the Cyp2d cluster, the Cyp2j cluster, the Cyp3a cluster, the Cyp4aba cluster, and the Cyp4f cluster. Note in Fig. 1 that all the CYP gene clusters occur at about the same depth on the tree; this might indicate a common time for beginning the expansion in all the clusters.

The initial analysis of the mouse genome noted some gene families are expanded in the mouse [2]. Even though 80% of mouse and human genes have a 1:1 orthologous relationship, there are 147 gene clusters found in mouse with four or more related genes; these represent recent gene duplications in the mouse. The olfactory receptor family is expanded about three-fold in the mouse, and includes 47 of these 147 gene clusters. Many other gene clusters are related to reproduction and immunity.

It is important to discuss the time-scale of CYP evolution in mammals. The mouse-human split is estimated to have occurred 75 MYA [2]. Thus, the mouse and human have had about 75 MY to accumulate differences in their genomes. Mouse and rat diverged approximately 20 MYA [18], whereas human and chimpanzee diverged at least 6 MYA. Seventy-five million years is sufficient time for major changes in gene-cluster size and organization, but not enough time for new CYP families to evolve. When the human and Takifugu rubripes genomes are compared [11], for example, only one CYP family differs between mammal and fish; CYP39A1 is found in mammals but not in fish or other non-mammalian vertebrates. CYP39A1 appears to be specific for mammals and has presumably evolved since the mammal-bird divergence about 310 MYA.

Subfamilies have changed somewhat in mouse and human, with the loss of four subfamilies in humans relative to mouse or rat: CYP2G, CYP2T, CYP2AB and CYP2AC are present only as pseudogenes in the human. Perhaps the products of these genes carry out functions

<table>
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<td>Cyp2r5</td>
<td>CYP4X1</td>
<td>a</td>
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Subfamilies absent in mouse.
Subfamilies in mouse with only pseudogene orthologs in human.

CYP2A1P and Cyp2ac1-ps are recently discovered pseudogenes in human and mouse, respectively, but a functional gene in rat. The gene names are listed numerically and alphabetically by subfamilies, and pairing does not necessarily denote orthologous genes, e.g. it is not known whether human CYP2A6 is the ortholog of mouse Cyp2a4. Genes having the identical combination of numbers and letters are orthologs between the two species (see text).
in rodents that are no longer needed in the human. On the other hand, orthologs of the human CYP2C7C1 and CYP4Z1 genes are absent in mice.

CYP2C7C1 is found in humans, fish, birds and frogs, whereas the mouse (and probably the rat) appears to have lost Cyp2c7c1, due to a chromosomal rearrangement in the precise region between the Bin1 and Ercc3 genes. We speculate that the CYP2C7C1 gene in the ancestral rodent was broken and lost during this event. In Takifugu rubripes, the CYP2C7C1 gene is on the minus strand of scaffold 106, from nucleotides 31,916–36,680. In fish, the nearest gene, 2624 bp away, is ERCC3, at 39,305–43,553 on the minus strand. The ERCC3 gene is also found in humans, 39 kb away from CYP2C7C1. Therefore, the CYP2C7C-ERCC3 linkage is very old, at least 420 MY. The next human gene in the ERCC3–CYP2C7C series is BIN1. In mouse, chromosome 1 is syntenic to human chromosome 2 at the ERCC3 locus, but Bin1 is on mouse chromosome 18, indicating that a chromosome break has occurred in this region.

CYP4Z1 has been seen only in humans so far, suggesting that this may be a new subfamily in humans, rather than a loss of Cyp4z1 in mouse or rat. It will be interesting to see if CYP4Z1 is present as a functional gene in a non-human primate – chimpanzee – when this genome draft assembly is released in late 2003.

The CYP2ABFGST cluster

The mammalian CYP2ABFGST cluster is the only example so far, in the CYP gene superfamily, in which there is intermingling of members from six subfamilies in the same chromosomal region. Even after 75 MY, there is some detectable similarity of order in the CYP2ABFGST clusters of mouse and human (Fig. 2A, B). The clusters both begin with CYP2S1 orthologs and end with CYP2T orthologs, although the latter has become a pseudogene in humans. CYP2T2P. The gene order is similar between the mouse and human clusters on the CYP2T end, with CYP2G, CYP2A and CYP2F loci in a series in both genomes, though the mouse has more Cyp2a genes. In the human, the region from CYP2G1P to CYP2T2P appears to have duplicated in mirror symmetry, inside the CYP2S1-end of the cluster [34]. Between these two symmetric segments of the human cluster, a single CYP2A gene appears to have been split (into CYP2A18PN and CYP2A18PC, reflecting the N- and C-termini of the protein, respectively) by insertion of CYP2B6 and CYP2B7P1. The mouse cluster has neither this mirror symmetry nor a split Cyp2a pseudogene. Between the Cyp2s1 and Cyp2g1 genes, there has been a considerable expansion of Cyp2b genes in the mouse but not in the human [8,35].

The close proximity of so many related genes has given rise to some gene recombinations. The CYP2A7 cDNA U2029 does not match the CYP2A7 genomic sequence at exon 8. The U2029 exon 8 sequence matches instead CYP2A18PC, suggesting a possible conversion event between these two genes. The CYP2A6*12 allele is a hybrid of exons 1–2 from CYP2A7 and exons 3–9 of CYP2A6 [36]. Another 2A6/2A7 hybrid is described by Fernandez-Salgueiro et al. [37]. This gene has exons 3, 6 and 8 derived from the CYP2A7 gene, probably by gene conversion, while the remainder matches CYP2A6. The potential for recombining genes is enhanced many times in the large mouse clusters of very similar genes such as the Cyp2e, Cyp2d and Cyp2j clusters. Alternative splicing adds another layer on top of this complexity. A CYP2A7 transcript is known that extends 10 bp into intron 1 and is deleted for exon 2 (NM_030589, CYP2A7_v1axΔ2a).

The CYP2C cluster

The CYP2C cluster in humans is small, with only four genes, whereas in mouse it has expanded to 15 genes (Figs. 3G & 3D). The human CYP2C genes have a strong potential to recombine, due to many L1 LINE repetitive DNA sequences, which are located principally in intron 5. CYP2C9 and CYP2C19 share L1PA7, L1M4, L1MB5 and L1PA16 repeats in this intron. CYP2C18 and CYP2C19 share L1PA5 repeats. CYP2C8 and CYP2C19 share an L1P repeat, although the two genes are on opposite strands. Recombination at these repeat sites could produce novel human CYP2C transcripts containing hybrid sequences that correspond to exons 1–5 from one gene and exons 6–9 from the other; other types of recombination or gene conversion are also possible.

The mouse Cyp2c cluster on chromosome 19 (Fig. 2D) is a prime example of the expansion that has taken place in some Cyp subfamilies in this species. Nearly all the duplications have occurred inside the cluster, except for Cyp2c44, which is about 4 Mb downstream. There are also two solo exon-9 Cyp2c pseudogenes on chromosomes 14 and 16. Note that the Cyp2c44 gene is the most distant branch on the Cyp2c cluster (Fig. 1). Cyp2c70, which is also outside the main group of Cyp2c genes in the tree (Fig. 1), is found on the edge of the main cluster (Fig. 2D). These outer locations seem to be more resistant to recombination events (see the CYP4F cluster below). It should be possible to estimate the rapidity of change in this mouse cluster, by comparison with the rat genome that will soon be available.

In Fig. 1, the Cyp2c cluster joins with Cyp2e, and this group then joins with the Cyp2abfgst sequences. These clusters do not have orthologous clusters in fish. The most similar sequences in fish are the Fugu CYP2Y1 and CYP2Y2 and the trout CYP2M1. Since there is a CYP2C45 gene in chicken, evolution of the CYP2C subfamily must have occurred before the bird-mammal
divergence, about 310 MYA. A CYP2S expressed-sequence tag (EST, BM491346) is also found in chicken, meaning that by 310 MYA the CYP2C cluster was apparently distinct from the CYP2ABFGST cluster. These two clusters, now quite expanded in mammals, probably arose from a single CYP2Y-like gene present in the tetrapod ancestor. Because there is more diversity in the CYP2ABFGST cluster, it is probably older than the CYP2C cluster.

The CYP2D cluster

The Cyp2d cluster is greatly expanded in the mouse (Fig. 5B), having nine full-length putatively functional genes, compared with only one in humans (CYP2D6). Human CYP2D6 allelic variants include one (*5 allele) in which the gene is deleted and another (*1X13 allele) in which 13 copies of the duplicated functional gene are located in tandem. CYP2D6 encodes a drug-metabolizing enzyme that has more than seventy drugs as substrates [38]; patients who lack CYP2D6 are subject to adverse drug reactions, whereas patients with multiple copies of CYP2D6 commonly exhibit therapeutic failure due to overly-rapid drug metabolism [39]. The recent demonstration that CYP2D6 endogenous substrate activities include 5-methoxyindolethylamine O-demethylase [40] and serotonin formation [41] causes us to query whether non-primate CYP2D enzymes would carry out similar endogenous functions.

The copy of chromosome 22 sequenced by The Human Genome Project has a deletion allele of CYP2D6; this has been named the CYP2D6*5 allele, with an allelic frequency of about 0.04 in Caucasian populations [19]. Figure 5A attempts to restore the deleted sequence to NT_011520.9 by adding portions of two sequences (X58467.1 covering the end of CYP2D7AP, and M33388.1 covering the CYP2D6 gene). These two sequences are joined at an EcoRI site at the end of X58467 and at the beginning of M33388. The break in the genome assembly is shown as occurring at nucleotide 21828652. This is the site of an extra G base in CYP2D7AP that is not seen in CYP2D6. The assembly resumes at the equivalent position in the CYP2D6 gene. Therefore, an estimated 12142 bp have been deleted. About 2400 bp of the 3′ sequences are 99% identical between CYP2D7AP and CYP2D6, allowing an unequal crossover event to have deleted the CYP2D6 gene [42].

It is not clear why the mouse has expanded the Cyp2d cluster from one to nine genes during the past 75 MY. Nor is it clear why the Cyp2c and Cyp2j clusters have been expanded in mouse, as compared with that in human. However, because CYP2D6 is noted for its exogenous drug metabolism capabilities, it is more likely that most – if not all – of the duplicated Cyp2d genes are acting on foreign substrates such as plant and dietary components, rather than on new endogenous substrates. The biochemical pathways involving steroids, sterols, fatty acids, bile acids, biogenic amines and other CYP substrates [1] are unlikely to have changed during the past 75 MY, because these pathways seem important for signaling needs in mammals. In rodents, however, there might have occurred additional selective pressure from the diet, or from pheromone production, to increase the P450 repertoire. Perhaps the tissue- or cell type-specific location of Cyp2d gene expression in the mouse will hold clues to the functions of some of these genes.

The CYP2J cluster

The mouse Cyp2j cluster (Fig. 5D) has eight genes, compared with the single CYP2J2 gene in human [43–46]. This cluster has the unusual property that all the genes and pseudogene fragments are oriented in the same direction, which is not the case for the other six CYP gene clusters. Also, there are no mouse Cyp2j pseudogenes outside the cluster. These data suggest a fairly recent amplification, with insufficient time for inversions to randomize the gene order. The proteins made from these mouse genes have similar substrate preferences, but the product profiles and the cell and tissue distribution are unique for each isoform; similar results have been found with the Cyp2c gene cluster (D. Zeldin, unpublished data).

The CYP2I and CYP2D clusters are phylogenetically close (Fig. 1). This is also true when fish sequences are included in the analysis [11]; in fish, however, there are no CYP2I or CYP2D orthologs. CYP2I and CYP2D probably had a single common ancestor in fish. Other loci derived from this ancestral gene probably include the members of the CYP2K, CYP2N, CYP2P, CYP2V, and CYP2Z subfamilies. Interestingly, CYP2N and CYP2P subfamily enzymes in fish have tissue distributions, substrate specificities and product profiles similar to Cyp2j enzymes in mammals [47,48].

The CYP3A cluster

The Cyp3a cluster in mouse has only twice as many P450 genes as in human (Fig. 3). This region on mouse chromosome 5 is not completely assembled; consequently, the Cyp3a44 gene is not included in Fig. 3, although it is likely to be adjacent to Cyp3a11, based on data from the incomplete HTGS sequence AC1119090.3. The human CYP3A genes all have potential alternative first and second exons, allowing for possible alternative transcripts. As mentioned above, alternative transcripts for the CYP3A7 gene have been reported [30] that extend the C-terminus with out-of-frame fusions to a downstream exon 2 and exon 13 (x and z in Fig. 3A).

There are no orthologous CYP3A pairs between mouse
and human, suggesting that their common ancestor had a single CYP3A gene that has been expanding independently during the last 75 MY. *Takifugu rubripes* has a CYP3B sequence not seen in mammals, which may be a relic of the whole-genome duplication that was postulated to have taken place in ray-finned fish after they diverged from the tetrapod ancestor [11,49,50].

### The CYP4ABXZ cluster

This cluster is the only one, other than the CYP2ABFGST cluster, that contains a mixture of loci from distinct subfamilies. The CYP4B and CYP4X genes have orthologs between mouse and human (Fig. 1), and therefore they must have existed as separate subfamilies more than 75 MYA. This gene cluster contains recent gene duplications – as shown in Fig. 1 by the very short branch-lengths between human CYP4A11 and CYP4A22, between mouse Cyp4a12a and Cyp4a12b (found inside a 100-kb tandem duplication; see Fig. 4B), and between the adjacent triplet of Cyp4a10, Cyp4a31 and Cyp4a32 in the mouse cluster.

The CYP4Z1 putatively functional gene and its pseudogene are seen only in humans. We can say this with certainty because the mouse Cyp4abs cluster has been completely sequenced. The CYP4Z1 gene is presumably an innovation in the line leading to humans.

The fact that the human has only two CYP4A genes, and that these have duplicated only recently, suggests that the ancestor of mouse and human had a single CYP4A gene. There is one CYP4T gene in fish, which is the likely ancestor of the CYP4ABX and CYP4Z genes in mammals. The transition from the CYP4T lineage to the CYP4ABXZ cluster will be better understood when frog and chicken CYP4 clusters are sequenced.

The human CYP4ABXZ cluster is not completely assembled (Fig. 4A). In the mouse Cyp4abs cluster, note that Cyp4b1 and Cyp4x1 are on the outside (Fig. 4B). In human, CYP4B1 is outside, whereas CYP4X1 is inside the cluster (Fig. 4A); this may indicate that the human CYP4ABXZ cluster in build 33 is not assembled correctly and that the last three genes need to be inverted. Such an inversion would create a more perfect symmetry in the whole cluster and would place CYP4X1 in a syntenic position, compared with Cyp4x1 in mouse.

### The CYP4F cluster and the CYP4 clan

Mice have nine CYP4F genes and humans have six; in both species, these genes are in a coherent physical cluster with a few pseudogenes. In the human, an additional 13 CYP4F pseudogenes (most of them copies of exons 6,7,8) have migrated to many locations close to six centromeres in the genome, perhaps reflecting a special mechanism for their dispersal.

The CYP4F cluster is unusual in that there is one clear orthologous pair of genes, human CYP4F22 and mouse Cyp4f39, with all other CYP4F genes being in a neighboring cluster on the tree (Fig. 1). Aside from this one pair, the human CYP4F sequences cluster together (except pseudogene CYP4F23), as do the mouse Cyp4f genes. One interpretation of these data is that a single ancestor existed for all these genes, with independent duplications in the two species. *Takifugu rubripes* has a single CYP4F28 gene, supporting this hypothesis. The CYP4F22 and Cyp4f39 genes may have the same function as CYP4F28 in fish, with new functions having evolved for the other mammalian CYP4F genes. The CYP4F cluster and the 4ABXZ cluster (Fig. 1) are joined rather deeply by the two CYP4V genes, which are clear orthologs in the mouse and human. A single CYP4V is also found in *Takifugu rubripes*, along with one CYP4F and one CYP4T gene; these three genes predate the ray-finned fish divergence from the tetrapod ancestor, i.e. about 420 MYA.

The depth of the CYP4V branch in Fig. 1 plus its distinct intron–exon structure, indicate that the CYP4V subfamily should have been given family status, resulting in 19 CYP families in mammals rather than the current 18. This is an anomaly of the nomenclature system, caused by keeping insect sequences, such as cockroach CYP4C1, inside the CYP4 family. This lack of stringency in the rules for a family boundary, and a reluctance to create new families have led to ‘family creep,’ stretching the definition of a CYP family beyond the original 40% cut-off. This warping occurred before the creation of CYP ‘clans’, higher-order clusters of related families [3]. If the clan nomenclature had been proposed earlier, then the CYP4 family might have been limited to vertebrates. Instead, the CYP4 family has grown to be one of the largest P450 families, so that the CYP4 family is almost synonymous with the CYP4 clan.

### Gene conversion events can erase history in gene clusters

The tree in Fig. 1 is shaded along some branches, to indicate pairs of orthologs between mouse and human. The ortholog assignment in Fig. 1 is based on sequence relatedness and not function. Note that the CYP11B1 and CYP11B2 branch does not contain any shaded pairs. In this case, the CYP11B1 gene of each species is more similar to the paralogous CYP11B2 gene of the same species than to the orthologous gene of the other species. These sequences have been double-checked to make sure that no mislabeling has occurred, and the functions (and names) have been assigned correctly to these sequences. These genes are adjacent on both the mouse (9.4 kb apart) and human (32 kb apart) chromosomes. This greater similarity between paralogs than between orthologs can be explained by gene conversion.

*Comparison of 102 mouse and 57 human CYP genes Nelson et al. 15*

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acting on these closely linked genes. Exchanges between the paralogs have homogenized the sequences, so that they are more similar than their true orthologs, (as defined by function). In fact, glucocorticoid-remediable aldosteronism and hypertension is a clinical disease manifested by a chimeric fusion gene formed between the normal human CYP11B1 and CYP11B2 genes [1,51].

Gene conversion has also been noted at the human CYP2D locus [42] and between the human CYP2A6 and CYP2A7 genes [37,52,53]. At the CYP11B locus, there are only two genes, so the possibilities for recombination and gene conversion are limited. If one considers the mouse Cyp2d cluster, with 13 full-length and 12 partial sequences that could undergo recombination or conversion events, it is not surprising that assignment of orthologs is not usually possible between genes in mouse and human clusters. The one exception from a multilocus subfamily appears to be mouse Cyp4f39 and human CYP4F22, as mentioned above. Cyp4f39 is on the end of the mouse Cyp4f gene cluster (Fig. 4D) and CYP4F22 is on the end of the human CYP4F cluster (Fig. 4C). Somehow, these two genes have escaped gene conversion and remain as unequivocal orthologs. Perhaps these two genes might have a unique structure/function relationship that will not tolerate conversion events, or their chromosomal positions on the ends of the clusters might protect them.

**Duplication signatures visible in some clusters**

The mouse Cyp4a cluster has had a recent duplication of about 100 000 bp; this region duplicated the Cyp4a12 and Cyp4a30 genes, which are now named Cyp4a12a, Cyp4a12b, Cyp4a30b and Cyp4a30a-ps (the latter became non-functional after the duplication; Fig. 4B). This region also includes two pseudogene fragments, Cyp4a12a-de5b and Cyp4a12b-de2b5b, which are 100% identical to each other in exon 5 (Fig. 4B). The human CYP2ABFGST cluster exhibits mirror symmetry, indicating an inverse duplication [8]. The pseudogene CYP2A18P was at the center of this symmetric cluster (Fig. 2A), until it was split in intron 5 by insertion of the CYP2B6 and CYP2B7P genes. This mirror inversion in human does not exist in mouse; instead, there has been a multilocus tandem duplication [35].

**CYP genes outside the seven gene clusters**

Mouse and human each have 30 CYP genes that lie outside the seven gene clusters. (For maps of all human P450 gene locations see the ideograms at http://drnelson.utmem.edu/hum.html) Surprisingly, 28 and 27 of these 30 mouse and human sequences, respectively, have clear orthologs between the two species (27 of these are shown in Fig. 1). The two mouse Cyp genes not shown as having orthologs on the tree are Cyp11b2 and Cyp11b1, but as discussed above, this is an artifact of gene conversion, since they do in fact have functional orthologs, CYP11B1 and CYP11B2. Besides CYP11B1 and CYP11B2, the only non-clustered human CYP gene without an ortholog is CYP27Ci, due to gene loss during the restructuring of chromosomes in mice and rats, as described above. There is one more CYP gene with an ortholog in the mouse than in humans (28 vs. 27) because mouse Cyp2a8b1 has only a pseudogene ortholog in humans, and this human pseudogene was not included in the tree.

Inside the seven clusters, there are only seven clearly orthologous pairs: Cyp2f1/CYP2F2, Cyp2g1/CYP2G2P, Cyp2s1/CYP2S1, Cyp2r4/CYP2T2P, Cyp4b1/CYP4B1, Cyp4f39/CYP4F22, and Cyp4s1/CYP4X1. Interestingly, of these seven, five are located at one end of a gene cluster. Except for the CYP4F orthologous pair, these genes are all the sole members of their respective subfamilies. The fact that these genes have been conserved more than other non-orthologous members of the clusters suggests functional constraints. The sharp dichotomy between orthologous pairs and non-orthologous genes in clusters might be related to substrate specificity: the orthologous genes are predicted to be highly specific for endogenous substrates, whereas the non-orthologous genes are more likely to act on foreign substrates.

Similar to the CYP4 family, the CYP2 family has undergone ‘family creep.’ Cyp2ab1, CYP2W1, CYP2U1, Cyp2ac1-ps and CYP2R1 are all deep branches in this family (Fig. 1), meaning that these genes are evolutionarily older, or they have mutated more rapidly, than the rest of the CYP2 genes. Should these all be CYP2 family members? CYP2 genes typically have nine exons, and the intron–exon boundaries are preserved in location and phase; Cyp2ab1 and CYP2W1 have this same intron–exon structure. Cyp2ac1-ps is a pseudogene in mouse and human (CYP2AC1P), but functional in rat, also with the typical 9-exon structure.

On the other hand, CYP2U1 and CYP2R1 have five exons each – not the usual nine. Both CYP2U1 and CYP2R1 have introns that are equivalent to introns 2, 6 and 8 of all other CYP2 genes and therefore must have shared a common ancestral gene that had been partially processed to remove introns 1, 3, 4, 5, and 7, and was then reinserted into the genome. Since then, both CYP2U1 and CYP2R1 have independently acquired one more intron. The CYP2U1 intron 3 has a unique GC donor–splice-site boundary in both mouse and human, which is supported by ESTs from both species [BX554123, BX498753]. Both genes have Takifugu rubripes orthologs, and are thus more than 400 MY old. The Takifugu rubripes CYP2U1 and CYP2R1 introns are in the same places for both genes, so the loss of introns...
occurred before tetrapods diverged from ray-finned fish. Although CYP2U1 and CYP2R1 have a different intron–exon structure from other CYP2 genes, they fall within the CYP2 cluster on phylogenetic trees, and they clearly are derived from the CYP2 family. Based on these considerations, it seems best to keep them in the CYP2 family.

Conclusions
Nearly complete sets of CYP gene sequences now exist for mouse, human, Anopheles gambiae, Drosophila melanogaster, Caenorhabditis elegans, Takifugu rubripes, Ciona intestinalis, Arabidopsis thaliana, Oryza sativa (rice), and several fungi. The raw data are available, or will soon be available, to trace the history of this enzyme family in animals back to our urbilaterian ancestor. Presumably, the more ancient the CYP gene, the more fundamental will be its role. The flip side of the coin will be to understand the present-day collection of CYP genes, especially in mammals. This includes determining the functions of the orphan CYP enzymes not yet assigned a biochemical role. Having access to mouse, zebrafish, Drosophila, C. elegans, and even tunicates as experimental models will greatly aid in this process. For example, morpholino antisense experiments in zebrafish may offer the best model system in which to establish the developmental and tissue-specific roles of some CYP genes, since the developing tissues in transparent embryos of this vertebrate can be observed directly. Gene knockouts and knock-ins, and ‘humanization’ of mice by introducing whole clusters of human CYP genes into a mouse line, will create experimental models that can be manipulated in ways that are not possible in humans.

This review defines the similarities and differences between the complete CYP gene sets in mouse and human. This information will be critical in designing experiments and interpreting P450 data from mice, and in extrapolating the results to humans. The 36 orthologous pairs of CYP genes (including CYP11B1 and CYP11B2 as functional orthologs) will all be suitable genes for study in mice, with direct relevance to human biology; presumably, these genes carry out similar or identical functions in both species. The genes in the seven gene clusters described herein, however, pose serious problems in interpretation, when extrapolating from the mouse to human. Interesting phenotypes have been observed for knockouts of mouse Cyp genes in gene clusters; for example, disruption of Cyp4a12a causes male-specific hypertension in the mouse (http://bret.mc.vanderbilt.edu/vpsd/cfm_files/view_facname.cfm?KeyNo=179). Even so, the lack of a one-to-one orthologous relationship between the two CYP4A clusters makes extrapolation difficult. One cannot predict with confidence the phenotype of a defect in human CYP4A11, based on the mouse results. The more radical approach of humanizing the mouse, by replacing the mouse gene clusters with complete human clusters, would at least partially eliminate this problem.

The proposed nomenclature system for pseudogenes addresses an area that is of significance for genome annotation in all species. Within the mammalian CYP gene superfamily, pseudogenes are about as abundant as functional genes. We anticipate that this is probably true for mammalian genomes in general, leading to an estimate of perhaps 35,000 to 40,000 pseudogenes in the human genome. Proper annotation of pseudogenes in databases and on genome browsers would greatly aid in the interpretation of BLAST searches, which often show pseudogenes incorrectly assembled as functional genes. We encourage various nomenclature committees to consider the nomenclature system proposed here. The present system of recognizing only one type of pseudogene seems inadequate, based on our experience. We anticipate that a more detailed nomenclature for additional genome features will need to be invented. Although the nomenclature presented here for pseudogenes is not official, we hope it might contribute to further discussions among nomenclature committees, and we look forward to the complete annotation of the mouse and human genomes.

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References