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Haemoglobin Gene Repertoire in Teleost and Cichlid Fishes Shaped by Gene Duplications and Genome Rearrangements

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ABSTRACT

Haemoglobin is a key molecule for oxygen transport in vertebrates. It exhibits remarkable gene diversity in teleost fishes, reflecting adaptation to various aquatic environments. In this study, we present the dynamic evolution of haemoglobin subunit genes based on a comparison of high-quality genome assemblies of 24 vertebrate species, including 17 teleosts (of which six are cichlids). Our findings indicate that teleost genomes contain a range of haemoglobin genes, from as few as five in fugu to as many as 43 in salmon, with the latter being the largest repertoire found in vertebrates. We find evidence that the teleost ancestor had at least four Hb α and three or four Hb β subunit genes, and that the current gene diversity emerged during teleost radiation, driven primarily by (tandem) gene duplications, genome compaction, and rearrangement dynamics. We provide insights into the genomic organisation of haemoglobin clusters in different teleost species. We further show that the evolution of paralogous *rhbdf1* genes flanking both teleost clusters (LA and MN) supports the hypothesis for the origin of the LA cluster by rearrangement within teleosts, rather than by the teleost specific whole-genome duplication. We specifically focus on cichlid fishes, where adaptation to low oxygen environment plays role in species diversification. Our analysis of six cichlid genomes, including *Pungu maclareni* from the Barombi Mbo crater lake, for which we sequenced a representative genome, reveals 18–32 copies of the Hb genes, and elevated rates of non-synonymous substitutions compared to other teleosts. Overall, this work facilitates a deeper understanding of how haemoglobin genes contribute to the adaptive potential of teleosts.

1 | Introduction

Haemoglobin is an oxygen-binding metalloprotein responsible for oxygen transport in vertebrates (Storz 2018). In jawed vertebrates (gnathostomes), the haemoglobin molecule has a quaternary structure and consists of four globin polypeptide chains (two Hb α and two Hb β subunits) attached to the prosthetic heme

group (Wells 1999). This tetrameric structure is considered to be of great functional importance since it provides a mechanism for cooperative oxygen-binding and allosteric regulatory control (Storz, Opazo, and Hoffmann 2013). Vertebrates have multiple haemoglobin genes and are known for a developmental switch between juvenile and adult haemoglobins, resulting in most vertebrates expressing different genes during ontogenesis (Chan

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et al. 1997). This differential expression of distinct haemoglobin isoforms helps to deal with the changing oxygen transport challenges encountered during vertebrate development (Opazo et al. 2013).

Vertebrates have diversified following two rounds of whole-genome duplications in their ancestor (Ohno 1970), and teleost fishes have undergone an additional teleost-specific genome duplication (Kuraku and Meyer 2009 and ref. therein). The evolutionary success of both vertebrates and teleosts has often been associated with these whole-genome duplications thanks to the sufficient genetic “substrate” for selection to act upon (Glasauer and Neuhauss 2014). For example, the Hox gene family (Holland et al. 1994), MHC genes (Abi-Rached et al. 2002) or parvalbumin genes (Mukherjee et al. 2021) still carry the traces of the whole-genome duplications. In general, many gene families have been shaped by the interplay between whole-genome duplications, ancestral or lineage-specific (tandem) gene duplications, and prevalent gene losses (Hughes and Friedman 2003; Rennison, Owens, and Taylor 2012; Steinke et al. 2006; Parey et al. 2022), and that includes also teleost haemoglobins (Quinn et al. 2010; Opazo et al. 2013; Storz 2016).

Haemoglobin genes (Hb) originated together with other globin genes (myoglobin, cytoglobin) after two rounds of whole-genome duplications in the vertebrate ancestor (Hoffmann, Opazo, and Storz 2012). Subsequent subfunctionalization of gas transport and oxygen storage between haemoglobin and myoglobin is sometimes seen as a key innovation of early vertebrates (Storz, Opazo, and Hoffmann 2013). The Hb subunit genes—proto-Hb α and Hb β have afterwards resulted from an ancient tandem duplication in early jawed vertebrates (Opazo et al. 2013). Haemoglobin subunit genes are found in multi-copy tandem repeats and the ancestral genomic arrangement was probably a single cluster with Hb α and Hb β subunit genes mixed, as still seen in cartilaginous fish (Marino et al. 2007).

Teleosts have haemoglobins organised in two genomic clusters (labelled as MN and LA—the names of the clusters are acronyms from the names of two flanking genes located upstream to the cluster: *lcmt1* and *aqp8* in LA, *mpg* and *nprl3* in MN). They both carry mixed Hb α and Hb β subunits, whereas in tetrapods the Hb genes have been rearranged into a separate Hb α and Hb β clusters (Hardison 2008; Patel et al. 2008). Homologues of the upstream flanking genes of the teleost MN cluster are also found upstream of the Hb α cluster in tetrapods, whereas the LA cluster seems to be specific for teleosts only (Opazo et al. 2013; Hardison 2012) and it has been suggested that the LA cluster originated from the teleost specific whole-genome duplication (Opazo et al. 2013). Teleost fishes have a greater variation and often a high number of haemoglobin genes compared to air-breathing vertebrates, which can be explained by the fact that variation in oxygen availability is generally much greater in the aquatic environment (Opazo et al. 2013).

In addition to the use of multiple Hb isoforms, haemoglobins diversify and adapt to variation in oxygen availability by sequence evolution. Several studies have shown signatures of positive selection on the amino acid sites in particular Hb gene copies. Specifically, an excess of non-synonymous substitutions in nucleotide sequence of haemoglobins is found in species from

extreme environments, such as in lagomorphs and rodents from Qinghai-Tibet plateau (Chen et al. 2016), or two cetacean species (Atlantic bottlenose dolphin and killer whale) where it was hypothesized that it could lead to an adaptation to their prolonged dives (Nery, Arroyo, and Opazo 2013). In teleosts, it has been shown that high-altitude schizothoracine fishes from Qinghai-Tibet plateau have functionally divergent haemoglobin genes with positively selected sites (Lei et al. 2021).

Some teleost families diversify more and occupy a much broader range of niches than others. Cichlid fishes represent one of the most species-rich families of vertebrates, known for their large and rapid adaptive radiations, especially in the tropical lakes of Africa (Seehausen, 2000; Kautt, Machado-Schiaffino, and Meyer 2016; Svoldal, Salzburger, and Malinsky 2021), and serve as a model group for research into adaptation and diversification (e.g., Musilova et al. 2019; Ronco et al. 2021). Based on five initial short-read genome assemblies, it has been shown that cichlids have elevated numbers of gene duplicates (Brawand et al. 2014), but the particular case of haemoglobin genes has not been investigated. Warm tropical lakes, including the lakes hosting cichlid fish radiations, tend to be permanently stratified with steep oxygen gradients. Nevertheless, deep waters with low oxygen concentrations have repeatedly been colonised by cichlids, and depth adaptation represents one of the most important axes of differentiation in multiple lakes, e.g., Lake Malawi (Malinsky et al. 2018), Lake Masoko (Malinsky et al. 2015), Lake Barombi Mbo (Green, Corbet, and Betney 1973; Musilova et al. 2019), or Lake Tanganyika (Ronco et al. 2021). It has been shown that deep-water adapted cichlid species from Barombi Mbo have highly elevated blood haemoglobin concentrations (Green, Corbet, and Betney 1973) and that six haemoglobin genes contain signs of parallel adaptation in the Lake Malawi deep-water cichlids groups *Diplotaxodon* and ‘deep-benthic’ (Hahn et al. 2017; Malinsky et al. 2018). However, a more comprehensive analysis of selection on haemoglobin genes across multiple cichlid adaptive radiations is lacking.

Haemoglobin gene clusters are highly repetitive, and a correct understanding of their evolutionary dynamics requires accurate genome assemblies. Here we reconstruct the evolution of the haemoglobin subunit genes based on high-quality long-read assemblies of 24 vertebrate species, including 17 teleosts, six of which belong to the cichlid family. Compared with previous analyses, that were based primarily on short-read genome assemblies (e.g., Opazo et al. 2013), we find much expanded Hb repertoires, driven primarily by (tandem) gene duplications. Our reconstruction of Hb cluster evolution reveals dynamics of duplication, rearrangements, and genome compaction (i.e., loss of the genomic elements including paralogous genes), and provides evidence that the teleost LA and MN clusters originated after the teleost-specific genome duplication. We used the comprehensive collection of Hb genes from all 24 genomes to conduct a search for signatures of positive selection on the sequence level, revealing a 27 Hb α and 17 Hb β genes under positive selection within the cichlid family. These findings contribute valuable insights into the dynamic evolution of the haemoglobin genes in teleosts. Additionally, they establish a foundation for future research into specific haemoglobin and oxygen transport adaptations, such as those found in cichlid species inhabiting hypoxic deep-water lakes (e.g., Barombi Mbo).

2 | Material and Methods

2.1 | Sampling and DNA Extraction

In total, we used 24 different species in this study (full list with GenBank accession number in Table 1). For one species, *Pungu maclareni*, we provide the representative genome. Live specimens of *P. maclareni* were collected in the Barombi Mbo crater lake (4°39'41" N 9°24'9" E/4.66139° N 9.40250° E) and transported to the aquarium facility at Charles University in Prague in March 2016 (collecting permit: 0000002/MINRESI/B00/C00/C10/C12). One male individual of *Pungu maclareni* was euthanized and liver and spleen tissues were dissected for the DNA extraction. To obtain high-molecular-weight (HMW) DNA, we homogenised the tissues under liquid nitrogen followed by a standard phenol-chloroform DNA extraction (e.g., McKiernan and Danielson 2017). DNA was then quantified using a Qubit fluorometer (Invitrogen) and checked for degradation by standard electrophoresis.

2.2 | Nanopore Sequencing and Assembly

Libraries for Oxford Nanopore Technologies (ONT) sequencing were prepared from a HMW DNA using a Ligation Sequencing Kit (SQK-LSK109). Libraries were sequenced on the ONT GridIONx5 platform using the R9.4.1 chemistry (Flow-Cell). Sequencing data were base-called, i.e. transmission from physical changes in the electric current signal measured by the ONT sequencing device to biologically relevant bases, using Guppy v3.2.10 in "high-quality" settings/mode (e.g., Wick, Judd, and Holt 2019).

Basic characteristics of the ONT libraries were estimated in R 3.6.0 using the NanoR library (R Core Team 2018; Bolognini et al. 2019). In summary, we acquired more than 5 million reads with an average length of over 7000bp, which in total slightly exceeded 40 Gbp (only reads >1000bp were considered; see Table 2). The genome was assembled using the Flye 2.7.1 long-read assembler (Kolmogorov et al. 2019). The primary assembly was then polished with the ONT long-reads alone using the Medaka 1.0.1 software tool (Lee et al. 2021). The assembly was further iteratively (four times) polished by Whole Genome Sequencing (WGS) Illumina reads (GenBank accession number: SRX7645636) using the Pilon software tool (Walker et al. 2014). The quality (completeness) of the assembly was assessed using BUSCO 4.0.6 (actinopterygii_odb10; see Table 3; Simão et al. 2015). The raw Nanopore reads and the resulting genome assembly sequences were deposited into NCBI GenBank repositories (accession number: PRJNA1153940, GCA_041757325.1).

2.3 | Gene Mining and Gene Annotation

We used the generated genomic data (*Pungu maclareni*) complemented by high-quality assemblies from GenBank (see Table 1 for accession numbers) for a set of selected species. Our focus was on a comparative analysis of the haemoglobin subunit genes repertoire and its genomic organisation. In total, we analysed 24 genomes, 17 of teleosts and seven of other vertebrates (see Table 1). We cover all four main teleost lineages (i.e., Elopomorpha,

Osteoglossomorpha, Otomorpha and Euteleostei) and specifically focus on cichlids. We used the following bioinformatic tools to mine for haemoglobin genes. Geneious software ver. 9.1 with High sensitivity setting (<http://www.geneious.com>, Kearsse et al. 2012) was used to capture scaffolds/chromosomes carrying Hb genes by mapping the assembled genome against the zebrafish reference composed of one Hb α (NM_131257.3) and one Hb β gene exons (BC139602.1). If an annotation was available, we extracted all haemoglobin genes from the respective genome. We subsequently manually mapped the single exons of all extracted genes against flanking regions of the identified cluster (i.e., the region between the first Hb gene in the cluster and the first upstream flanking gene, and, similarly, between the last Hb gene and the first downstream gene), and also to the intergenic regions to reveal the entire Hb gene cluster and confirmed the annotation using the Geneious software. In some cases, this approach served to improve the annotation. Furthermore, we performed AUGUSTUS ab initio gene prediction (Stanke and Morgenstern 2005) to reveal haemoglobin genes in the unannotated eel genome (*Anguilla anguilla*) with a Nanopore assembly (accession number PRJEB20018 in the European Nucleotide Archive). We inspected the *Pungu maclareni* genome and we have manually annotated the found Hb α and Hb β genes.

2.4 | Synteny Analysis

We manually inspected genomic regions that contain haemoglobin subunits genes (both MN and LA clusters) in five cichlid species with publicly available genome assembly: Nile tilapia (*Oreochromis niloticus*), Eastern happy (*Astatotilapia calliptera*) and zebra mbuna (*Maylandia zebra*), which represent African cichlids from rivers and the Lake Malawi, respectively, together with two Neotropical species, Flier cichlid (*Archocentrus centrarchus*), and Midas cichlid (*Amphilophus citrinellus*). Furthermore, we similarly identified haemoglobin clusters in *Pungu maclareni*, the newly sequenced species of the Barombi Mbo radiation, based on our manual gene annotation. Genomic sequences of haemoglobin clusters were extracted from the linkage groups including the whole sequence between flanking genes (LA cluster upstream: lcmt1—aqp8—aqp8, downstream: rhbdf1—foxj1b—ubald1; MN cluster upstream—rhbdf1—mpg—nprl3, downstream: kank2—dock6/7—elav13; Figure 1) and reoriented for further synteny comparison by the aqp8 and nprl3 genes upstream to the haemoglobin subunits in the LA and MN cluster, respectively. We subsequently used the Genome Pair Rapid Dotter tool called Gepard 1.40 (Krumtsiek, Arnold, and Rattei 2007) to create comparative dotplots of the haemoglobin clusters and identified traces of gene duplications or inversions.

2.5 | Phylogenetic Analysis of the Haemoglobin Genes and the *rhbdf1* Flanking Gene

To complement the teleost data set, we included also the haemoglobin clusters of six non-teleost fishes and tetrapods (Table 1; Figure 1). Coding sequences of the haemoglobin genes were extracted and used for the construction of a combined gene tree for both Hb α and Hb β subunits. Cytoglobins from Australian ghost shark, spotted gar and Nile tilapia were used as an outgroup. We

TABLE 1 | Table of genomes used for haemoglobin gene mining in 24 vertebrates, including 17 teleosts.

Species	English name	Assembly acc. Num	Assembly name	Hb cluster	Genomic scaffold	Chromosome	Upstream			Upstream			Number of haemoglobin genes	Downstream			Downstream
							1	2	3	1	2	3		1	2	3	
<i>Callorhynchus milii</i>	Ghost shark	GCA_018977255.1	IMCB_Cmil_1.0	NA	NW_0270474757		foxj1b	aanat2	rhbdf1	14,662,718	2	14,623,747	cygb	luc71	fam234a		
<i>Xenopus tropicalis</i>	Clawed frog	GCA_0000004195.4	UCB_Xtro_10.0	NA	NC_030685	9	fam234a	luc71	gby	40,992,113	7	40,846,078	kcid18 + rhbdf1	mpg	nprl3		
<i>Taeniopygia guttata</i>	Zebrafinch	GCA_003957565.4	bTaeGut1.4.pri	DS	NC_044211	1	unchar	o51g2	o51e2	113,747,431	4	113,791,487	foi3	off52b2	rps11		
<i>Mus musculus</i>	Mouse	GCA_0000001635.9	GRCm39	DS	NC_000073	7	olfr69	olfr68	olfr67	103,441,038	5	103,530,512	olfr66	olfr64	olfr65		
<i>Homo sapiens</i>	Human	GCA_0000001405.29	GRCh38.p14	DS	NC_000011	11	OR52A5	OR52A1	OR51V1	5,200,683	5	5,291,466	OR51B4	OR51B2	OR51B5		
<i>Pan paniscus</i>	Bonobo	GCA_000258655.2	panpan1.1	DS	NC_027879	11	OR52A1	OR5212	OR51V1	5,018,328	5	5,117,924	OR51B4	OR51B2	OR51B5		
<i>Lepisosteus oculatus</i>	Spotted gar	GCA_000242695.1	LepOcu1	MN	NC_023191	13	rhbdf1	mpg	nprl3	14,771,739	8	14,827,298	cygb	luc71	fam234a		
<i>Anguilla anguilla</i>	European eel	GCA_013347855.1	fAngAng1	LA	NC_049202.1	2	lcm1	aqp8	aqp8	51,695,718	1	51,647,385	rhbdf1	aanat2	foxj1b		
<i>Paramormyrops kingsleyae</i>	Elephant fish	GCA_002872115.1	PKINGS_0.1	LA	NW_019716143	17	rhbdf1	mpg	nprl3	11,697,720	8	11,678,314	aqp8	aqp8	arhgrapl7b		
<i>Scleropages formosus</i>	Asian arowana	GCA_900964985.2	fSciFor1.1	MN	NW_019712565	20	grid2ip	aghrapl7b	lcm1	1,317,361	6	1,422,149	rhbdf1	fkbp10	noxo1b		
<i>Clupea harengus</i>	Atlantic herring	GCA_900700415.2	Ch_v2.0.2	LA	NC_045174	23	lcm1	mpg	nprl3	4,318,013	5	4,347,095	aqp8	aqp8	aghrapl7b		
<i>Danio rerio</i>	Zebrafish	GCA_0000002035.4	GRCz11	LA	NC_007123	12	unchar	wip12b	nprl3	12,329,717	9	12,240,083	rhbdf1	foxj1b	foxj1b		
<i>Esox lucius</i>	Northern pike	GCA_011004845.1	fEsoLuc1	LA	NC_047573	5	arhgrapl7a	lcm1	aqp8	15,039,498	7	15,118,265	aqp8	aqp8	arhgrapl7b		
				MN	NC_007114	3	rhbdf1	mpg	nprl3	10,999,422	4	11,029,948	rhbdf1	foxj1b	mgrn1a		
				LA	NC_047573	5	arhgrapl7a	lcm1	aqp8	29,854,559	12	29,916,204	kank2	dock7	elav13		
				MN	NC_047579	11	rhbdf1	mpg	nprl3	20,355,138	4	20,303,433	rhbdf1	foxj1b	ubald1a		
				MN	NC_047579	11	dnmt1	EIF3g	p2ry11	55,079,750	13	55,161,626	kank2	dock6	magfa		
				MN	NC_047579	11	dnmt1	EIF3g	p2ry11	17,843,032	1	17,824,101	rhbdf1	foxj1b	ubald1		
				MN	NC_047579	11	dnmt1	EIF3g	p2ry11	46,448,666	26	46,624,438	kank2	dock7	elav13		
				MN	NC_047579	11	dnmt1	EIF3g	p2ry11	47,051,188	10	47,145,485	p2ry11	ppan	angptf6		

(Continues)

TABLE 1 | (Continued)

Species	English name	Assembly acc. Num	Assembly name	Hb cluster	Genomic scaffold	Chromosome	Upstream			Upstream			Downstream			Number of haemoglobin genes
							1	2	3	1	2	3	1	2	3	
<i>Salmo salar</i>	Atlantic salmon	GCA_905237065.2	Ssal_v3.1	LA1	NC_059469	28	lcmt1	aqp8	aqp8	15,149,397	3	15,111,249	rhbdf1	foxj1b	ubald1a	
				LA2	NC_059442	1	aghrap17b	aqp8	aqp8	89,407,904	1	89,339,065	rhb14	foxj1b	ubald1a	
				MN1	NC_059447	6	rhbdf1	mpg	npr13	37,696,574	22	37,545,604	kank2	dock6	elav13	
				MN2	NC_059444	3	rhbdf1	mpg	npr13	64,048,038	16	64,211,380	kank2	dock7	elav13	
<i>Gadus morhua</i>	Atlantic cod	GCA_902167395.1	gadMor3.0	LA	NC_044065	18	lcmt1	aqp8	aqp8	12,989,901	5	12,964,384	rhbdf1	foxj1b	ubald1a	
				MN	NC_044049	2	rhbdf1	mpg	npr13	8,596,052	4	8,586,401	kank2	dock7	elav13	
<i>Takifugu rubripes</i>	Fugu	GCA_901000725.2	ftakRub1.2	LA	NC_042285	1	grid2ip	aghrap17b	lcmt1	18,867,272	3	18,877,285	rhbdf1	foxj1b	ubald1a	
				MN	NC_042289	5	rhbdf1	mpg	npr13	4,101,781	2	4,108,121	kank2	dock7	elav13	
<i>Oryzias latipes</i>	Medaka	GCA_002234675.1	ASM223467v1	LA	NC_019877	19	aghrap17b	lcmt1	aqp8	22,442,584	3	22,454,916	rhbdf1	yeats2	unchar	
				MN	NC_019866	8	rhbdf1	mpg	npr13	8,207,525	11	8,243,375	kank2	dock7	elav13	
<i>Nothobranchius furzeri</i>	Killifish	GCA_027789165.1	Nfu_20140520	LA	NC_029660	12	aghrap17b	lcmt1	aqp8	35,832,040	2	35,824,547	ZNF146	zinc finger protein	nuf2	
				MN	NC_029653	5	rhbdf1	mpg	npr13	66,571,704	12	66,628,604	kank2	dock7	elav13	
<i>Amphilophus cichlid</i>	Midas cichlid	GCA_013435755.1	fMPI-2012	LA	contig_243	NA	lcmt1	aqp8	aqp8	5,484,908	3	5,500,504	rhbdf1	foxj1b	ubald1a	
				MN	contig_728	NA	rhbdf1	mpg	npr13	434,307	15	379,542	kank2	dock7	elav13	
<i>Archocentrus centrarchus</i>	Flier cihlid	GCA_007364275.2	fArcCen1	LA	NC_044364	19	lcmt1	aqp8	aqp8	7,822,921	3	7,848,866	rhbdf1	foxj1b	ubald1a	
				MN	NC_044353	8	rhbdf1	mpg	npr13	6,139,626	20	6,206,746	kank2	dock7	elav13	
<i>Oreochromis niloticus</i>	Nile tilapia	GCA_001858045.3	O_niloticus_UMD	LA	NC_031973	8	lcmt1	aqp8	aqp8	21,334,461	3	21,353,715	rhbdf1	foxj1b	ubald1a	
				MN	NC_031969	4	rhbdf1	mpg	npr13	24,434,332	29	24,348,606	kank2	dock7	elav13	
<i>Maylandia zebra</i>	Zebra mbuna	GCA_000238955.5	M_zebra_UMD2a	LA	NC_036787	8	lcmt1	aqp8	aqp8	17,452,769	3	17,414,339	rhbdf1	foxj1b	ubald1a	
				MN	NC_036783	4	rhbdf1	mpg	npr13	10,548,069	18	10,630,330	kank2	dock7	elav13	
<i>Astatotilapia calliptera</i>	Eastern happy	GCA_900246225.3	fAstCall1.2	LA	NC_039309	8	lcmt1	aqp8	aqp8	16,527,459	3	16,548,723	rhbdf1	foxj1b	ubald1a	
				MN	NC_039305	4	rhbdf1	mpg	npr13	6,518,619	23	6,497,049	kank2	dock7	elav13	
<i>Pungu maclearni</i>	Pungu	GCA_041757325.1	ASM4175732v1	LA	Contig_1931	NA	lcmt1	aqp8	aqp8	2,291,871	3	2,306,248	rhbdf1	foxj1b	ubald1a	
				MN	Contig_791	NA	rhbdf1	mpg	npr13	1,776,322	19	1,720,355	kank2	dock7	elav13	

Note: Table contains genomic coordinates, names of three flanking genes upstream and downstream of the haemoglobin clusters and the exact number of haemoglobin genes in each cluster.

TABLE 2 | Basic overall statistics of sequenced ONT library.

Mean length [bp]	7231.8
Median length [bp]	6173
N50 [bp]	8743
N10 [bp]	28,037
N25 [bp]	13,004
N75 [bp]	6187
Number of reads	5,571,289
Bases [Gbp]	40.291

Note: Only reads > 1000bp were included in analysis.

TABLE 3 | Results of BUSCO analysis.

Complete BUSCOs (C)	3567
Complete and single-copy BUSCOs (S)	3533
Complete and duplicated BUSCOs (D)	34
Fragmented BUSCOs (F)	7
Missing BUSCOs (M)	66
Total BUSCO groups searched	3640

also performed the additional *rhbdf1* gene analysis on the selected species with one (human, mouse, zebrafish, clawed frog) and two paralogs (eel, elephant fish, zebrafish, pike, salmon, cod, medaka, tilapia) and using the ghost shark as an outgroup. The nucleotide sequences of both data sets were aligned with MAFFT ver. 7.222 (Kato and Standley 2013). The best fitting substitution model (GTR+I+G) was selected by jModeltest2 ver. 2.1.6 (Darrriba et al. 2012). We performed Bayesian inference (for Hb genes and *rhbdf1* gene) and Maximum Likelihood (only for Hb genes) phylogenetic analysis. Phylogenetic analyses were performed on the CIPRES Science Gateway portal (Miller, Pfeiffer, and Schwartz 2010) using MrBayes ver. 3.2.6 (Ronquist et al. 2012) for 20 million generations and 12.5% burnin. We used IQ-TREE (Nguyen et al. 2014) to infer phylogenetic trees by maximum likelihood using the SH-aLRT test with substitution model selection by ModelFinder (Kalyaanamoorthy et al. 2017) and the ultrafast bootstrap approximation (Hoang et al. 2017) with 1000 replicates.

2.6 | Positive Selection Test

Codon alignments were used for the selection test using CODEML package as a part of the PAML software (Yang 2007). Hb genes that contained in-frame stop codons were removed from the analysis. We performed a codon alignment in the PAL2NAL software (Suyama, Torrents, and Bork 2006). We ran analyses separately for the Hb α and Hb β subunits to reduce computational time. We used a branch-site model with heterogeneous omega ratios among sites allowed and estimated the ratio between the non-synonymous and synonymous substitutions for background branches. We subsequently produced final trees with branches

coloured accordingly to the dN/dS ratio using the *treeio* R package (Wang et al. 2020).

3 | Results

3.1 | Haemoglobin Gene Repertoire and Cluster Synteny

We analysed haemoglobin genes in the high-quality genomes of 24 vertebrate species, one cartilaginous fish, five tetrapods, one non-teleost and 17 teleosts, of which six were cichlids (Figure 1). Our cichlid collection included both African and Neotropical cichlids, and to complement the existing cichlid data set, we sequenced the representative genome of *Pungu maclareni*, an endemic cichlid species from crater lake Barombi Mbo (Cameroon, Africa) through the Oxford Nanopore technology. The assembled genome with 2,443 scaffolds (> 1000bp) has been deposited on GenBank (acc. no.: *tba*) and has a N50 of 4,250,295 bp (and N90 = 516,595 bp) with both haemoglobin clusters recovered intact on separate scaffolds.

Our results show that teleost fishes generally have a larger haemoglobin gene repertoire compared to other vertebrates. Teleosts possess between 5 and 43 haemoglobin genes in their genome (Figure 1). The Japanese pufferfish, fugu (*Takifugu rubripes*), has the lowest number of haemoglobin genes (four Hb α subunit genes and one Hb β subunit gene; Figure 1), whereas the Atlantic salmon has the highest number of haemoglobin subunit genes found among teleosts or gnathostomes (43 Hb genes in total; 20 of Hb α and 23 of Hb β subunit) followed by the northern pike (*Esox lucius*) with 38 Hb genes (18 + 20). The Nile tilapia (*Oreochromis niloticus*), with the repertoire of 32 haemoglobin subunit genes (17 Hb α and 15 Hb β subunits) has the highest number of haemoglobin genes among cichlids.

Most of the analysed species possess two haemoglobin clusters, with the exception of the spotted gar (*Lepisosteus oculatus*) and the Australian ghostshark (*Callorhynchus milii*), which both have a single haemoglobin cluster (Figure 1). In addition, the northern pike (*Esox lucius*) and the Atlantic salmon (*Salmo salar*) with three and four haemoglobin clusters, respectively, demonstrate a variability in genomic organisation of haemoglobin genes even within a single evolutionary lineage (Figure 1). The flanking genes upstream and downstream of each cluster further help to shed light on evolution of the whole paralogs. We found that synteny of the haemoglobin clusters and flanking genes is highly conserved across major evolutionary groups of teleosts, yet with certain deviations (Figure 1).

3.2 | Evolutionary History of the Haemoglobin Subunit Genes

In total, we identified and extracted the sequences of 197 haemoglobin alpha (Hb α) subunit genes and 185 haemoglobin beta (Hb β) subunit genes from the 24 analysed species (see Table 1). We reconstructed the gene trees (Figures 2, S1 and S2) and identified two major clades confirming the Hb α and Hb β subunits in both approaches. For both Hb α and Hb β subunit genes, the phylogenetic signal revealed several

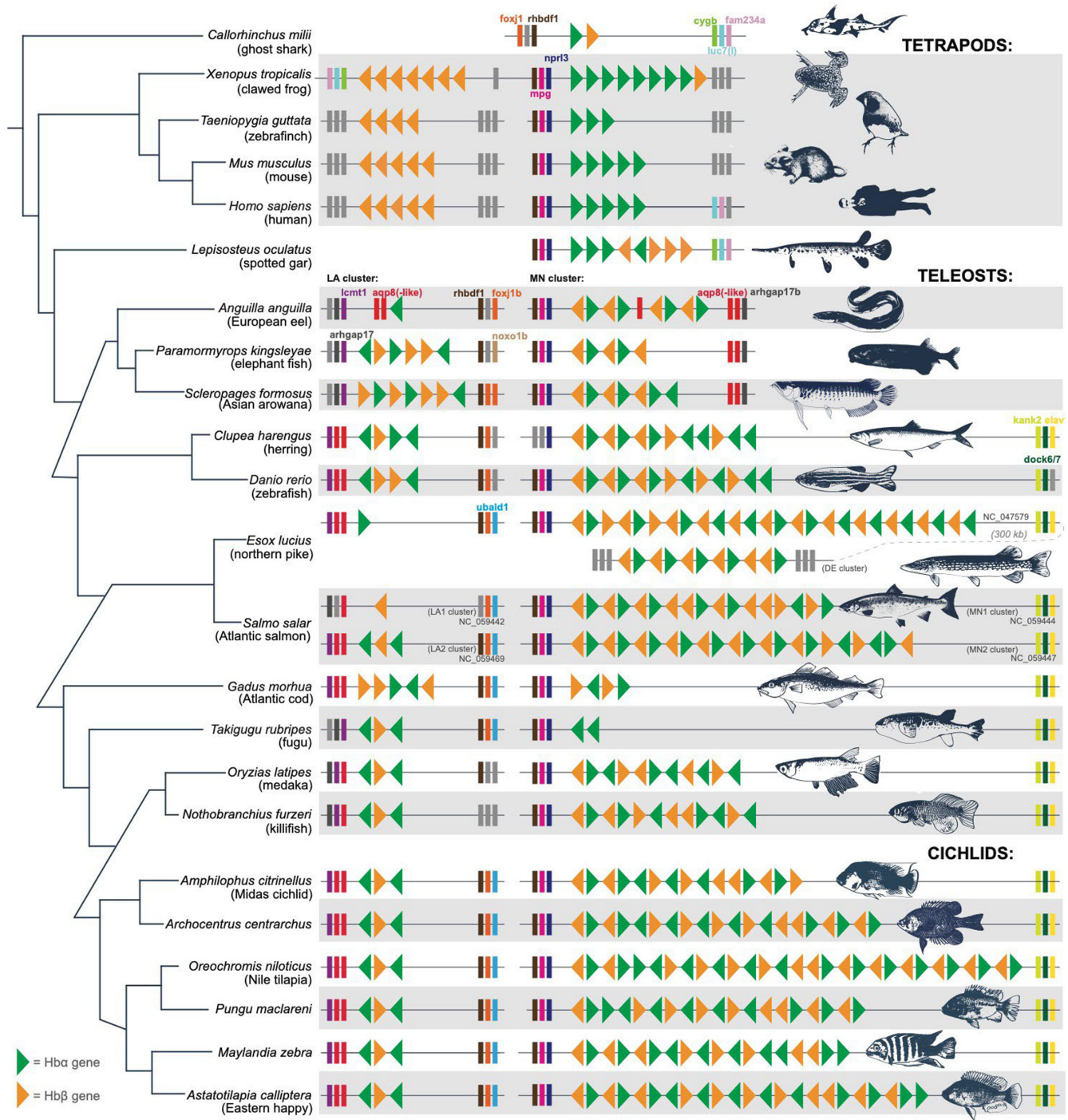


FIGURE 1 | Conserved synteny and genomic organisation of the haemoglobin clusters in major lineages of gnathostomes, teleosts and cichlids. Haemoglobin genes shown as triangles with the forward or reverse orientation, Hb α subunit genes shown in green, Hb β subunit genes shown in orange. Flanking genes shown as rectangles either having a corresponding colour code (for the genes frequent in different evolutionary groups) or in grey if unique. We present the clusters in the same orientation for comparative purposes. The MN cluster refers to a larger and more variable cluster with the mpg and npr13 upstream flanking genes, whereas the LA cluster is more conserved and named after lcmt1 and aqp-8 flanking genes. Note that in Elopomorpha (*Anguilla*) and Osteoglossomorpha (*Paramormyrops*, *Scleropages*) the MN cluster has sometimes been referred to as NA cluster due to the presence of the aquaporin (aqp8) genes. The tree topology is based on relationships after Betancur-R et al. (2017). Data for the Bonobo chimpanzee genome (acc. no. [GCA_000258655.2](https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/assembly/GCA_000258655.2)) not shown because the clusters and flanking genes are identical to human. For more details on the genomes, coordinates and accession numbers, refer to Table 1.

independent gene clades that have diversified in the teleost ancestor. Tetrapod genes correspondingly branch at the base of the tree, whereas teleost Hb α and Hb β subunits are

organised in four and three-to-four main clades each, respectively. The clades partially correspond to the genomic location either in LA or MN cluster, but not for all genes. The overall

hemoglobin alpha subunit:

hemoglobin beta subunit:

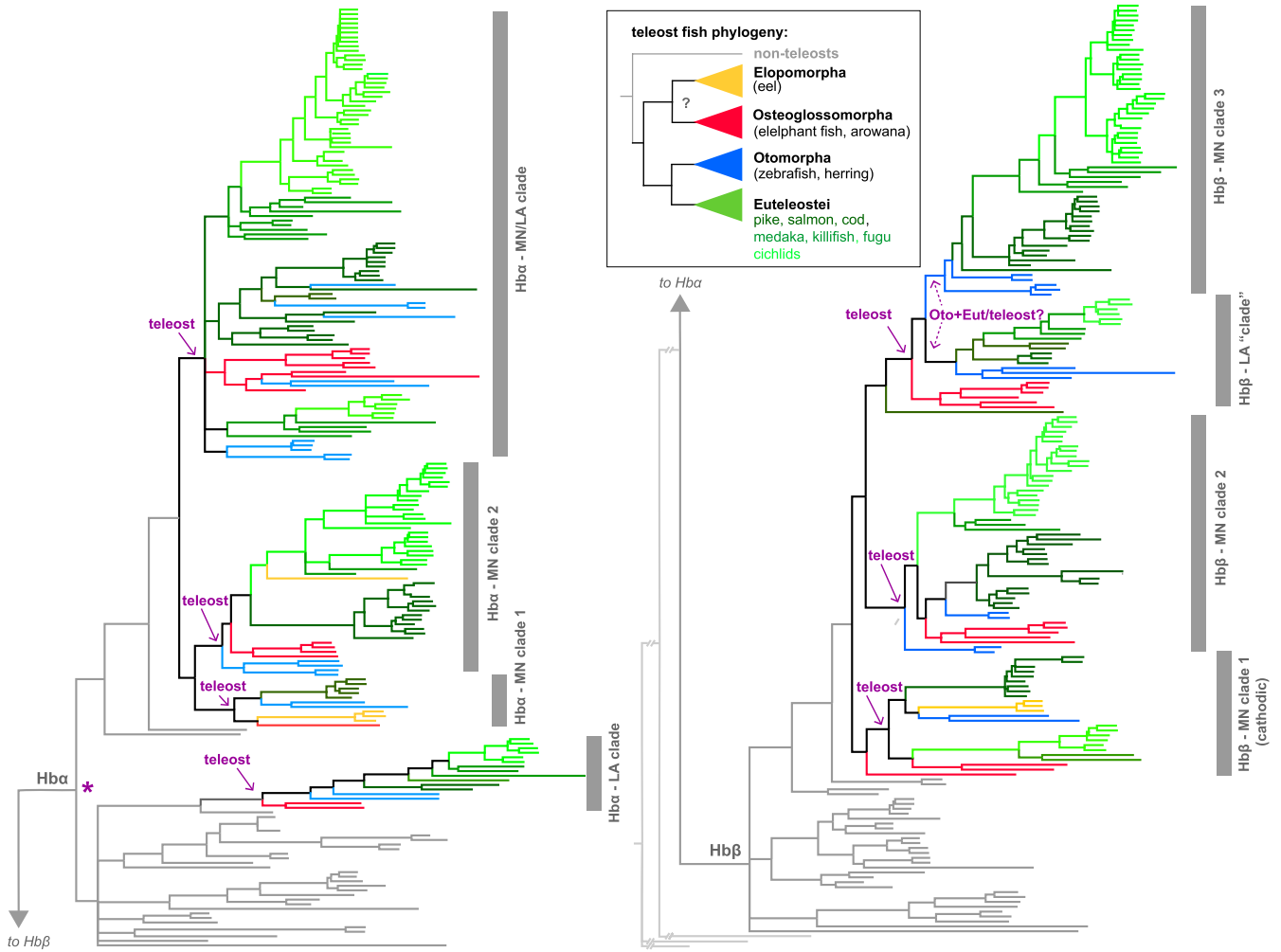


FIGURE 2 | Gene trees of the Hb α and Hb β haemoglobin subunits reconstructed by Bayesian analysis. Four main teleost lineages are highlighted by different colours (see inset for the teleost phylogeny) or black to elucidate Hb gene diversification in the teleost ancestor, as well as after the teleost radiation. Non-teleost fish and tetrapod Hb genes are coloured as grey. The tree topology suggests that the teleost ancestor had at least four Hb α genes and three (or four) Hb β genes before the teleost diversification corresponding to the recovered clades marked and labelled by purple arrow. Note that the duplication involving the LA clade Hb α genes and the rest Hb α genes possibly happened before teleost diversification (marked by a star symbol), hence teleost haemoglobins are found in two different clades of the tree. For the full-size gene trees with the copy names refer to Figures S1 and S2.

phylogenetic signal is more robust for the Hb β subunit genes, whereas less clear for the Hb α subunit gene tree, which shows some polytomy and unresolved topology within one of the clades with mixed MN/LA genes (Figures 2, S1 and S2). One of the clades within the Hb β subunits is formed predominantly by the so-called cathodic subunits, the highly conserved teleost haemoglobins whose name refers to their position on the isoelectric focusing gel. Overall, the observed phylogenetic pattern suggests a presence of at least four putative copies of Hb α subunits and three or four Hb β subunits in the ancestor of teleost fishes (Figure 2).

3.3 | Comparative Genomics of Haemoglobin Clusters in Cichlids

We focused on the genomic architecture of the haemoglobin clusters in six cichlid species. Five of the high-quality genomes

produced with the PacBio sequencing technology (*A. citrinellus*, *A. centrarchus*, *A. calliptera*, *M. zebra*, *O. niloticus*) have been complemented by one species sequenced by the Oxford Nanopore (*Pungu maclareni*; this study). All cichlid species have two haemoglobin clusters (LA and MN). The LA cluster is conserved in all cichlid species and contains 3 haemoglobin genes in the same orientation flanked with *lcmt1* + *aqp8* + *aqp8* upstream of the cluster and *rhbdf1b* + *foxj1b* + *ubald1a* in the downstream region (Figure 1). The MN cluster differs in number and orientation of the haemoglobin genes—from 15 haemoglobin subunit genes in *Amphilophus citrinellus*, 18 in *Maylandia zebra*, 19 in *Pungu maclareni*, 20 in *Archocentrus centrarchus*, 23 in *Astatotilapia calliptera* to, finally, *Oreochromis niloticus* with 29 haemoglobin genes, the species with the highest number so far identified among cichlids (Figure 1). The cichlid comparison revealed that all species carry signals of gene duplications mainly within the two gene-rich regions of the MN cluster. The overall synteny in cichlids seems to be conserved among species, yet

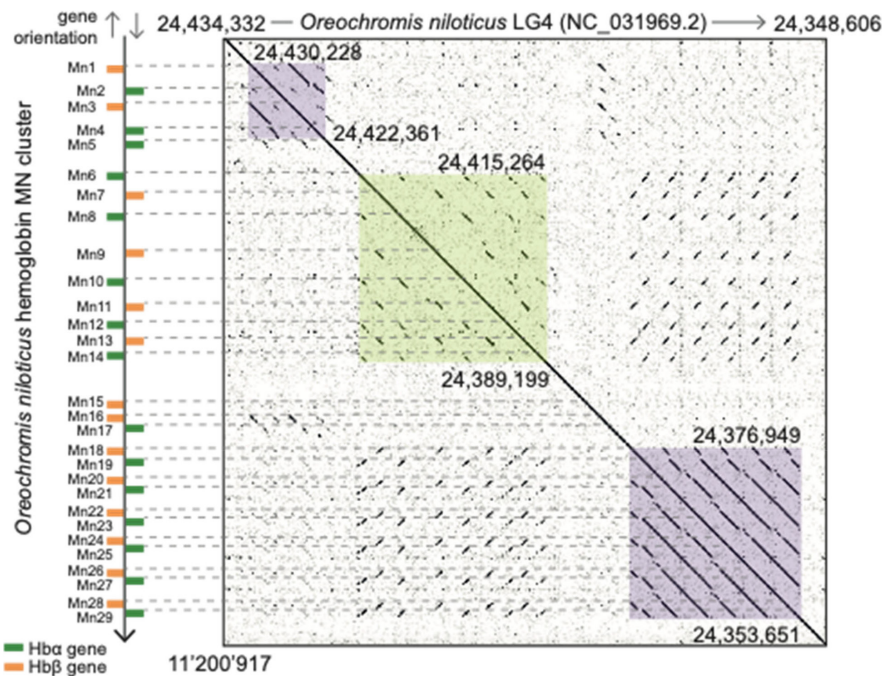


FIGURE 3 | Genome pair dotplot (Gepard) of the haemoglobin MN cluster of Nile tilapia (*Oreochromis niloticus*). The haemoglobin MN cluster (located at chromosome LG4) is plotted against itself to reveal high-similarity regions (i.e., lines formed by black dots). Synteny of the haemoglobin genes in the cluster is shown on the left. Hb α subunit genes are coloured green, whereas Hb β subunits are marked in orange. Horizontal lines represent the first (for forward orientation) or the last (for reverse) codon of each haemoglobin gene. The duplication region (positions 24,415,264–24,389,199) marked by a green rectangle is evolutionary older and is shared among African cichlids. For other species, see Figures 5 and S4. The two regions (positions 24,430,228–24,422,361 and 24,376,949–24,353,651) marked by a purple rectangle are a result of more recent duplication events (specific for tilapia or an oreochromine ancestor; Figure 4). The suggested evolutionary scenario of haemoglobin gene evolution is presented in Figure 4. Genomic coordinates for the LG4 (NCBI accession number [NC_031969.2](https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/nuccore/NC_031969.2)).

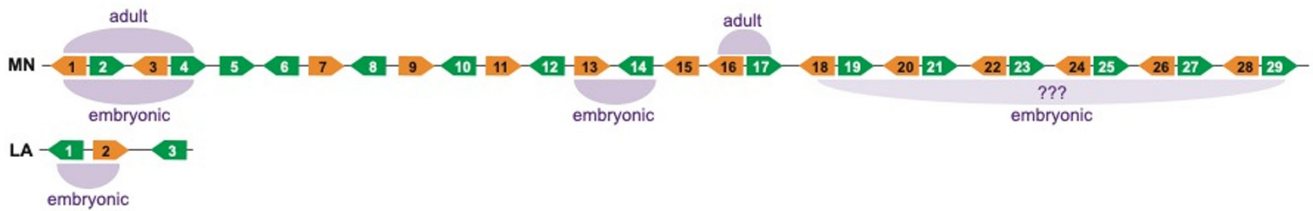
there are differences suggesting ongoing genome rearrangements, as African and Neotropical cichlids differ slightly in the composition of their clusters (Figures 5 and S4). By similarity comparison of the MN gene cluster sequence (plotted against itself), we searched for signs of the major duplications, i.e. involving multiple genes. In Nile tilapia (*O. niloticus*), there are signs of three such duplicated regions, one of an older evolutionary origin (shared with other African species), and two more recent located in the beginning (four Hb genes) and at the end of the gene cluster (12 Hb genes; Figures 3 and 4). Pungu (*P. maclareni*), the closest relative of the Nile tilapia, lacks one of the recently duplicated regions and has only two Hb α and two Hb β genes duplicated in the second region, and its genome carries just a major signal of one older duplicated region typical for African cichlids (Figure 5). In other cichlids (Figures 5 and S4), the pattern also slightly differs. Zebra mbuna (*M. zebra*) has two duplicated regions, but unlike in Nile tilapia, its major recently duplicated region is located in the beginning of the gene cluster. The Eastern happy (*A. calliptera*) has three duplicated regions, of which one is again of the older evolutionary origin, and two are more recently duplicated regions, one located in the beginning of the cluster (with the genes corresponding to the zebra mbuna and Nile tilapia), and one at the end of the gene cluster (with the duplicated genes different from Nile tilapia; based on gene trees in Figures S1 and S2). Two species of Neotropical cichlids do not show signs of the older duplication event typical for the African cichlids, instead Flier cichlid (*A. centrarchus*) rather shows signature of one recent duplication region and the Midas cichlid (*A. citrinellus*) with the lowest number of genes

does not express any signs of major duplications (Figures 5 and S4).

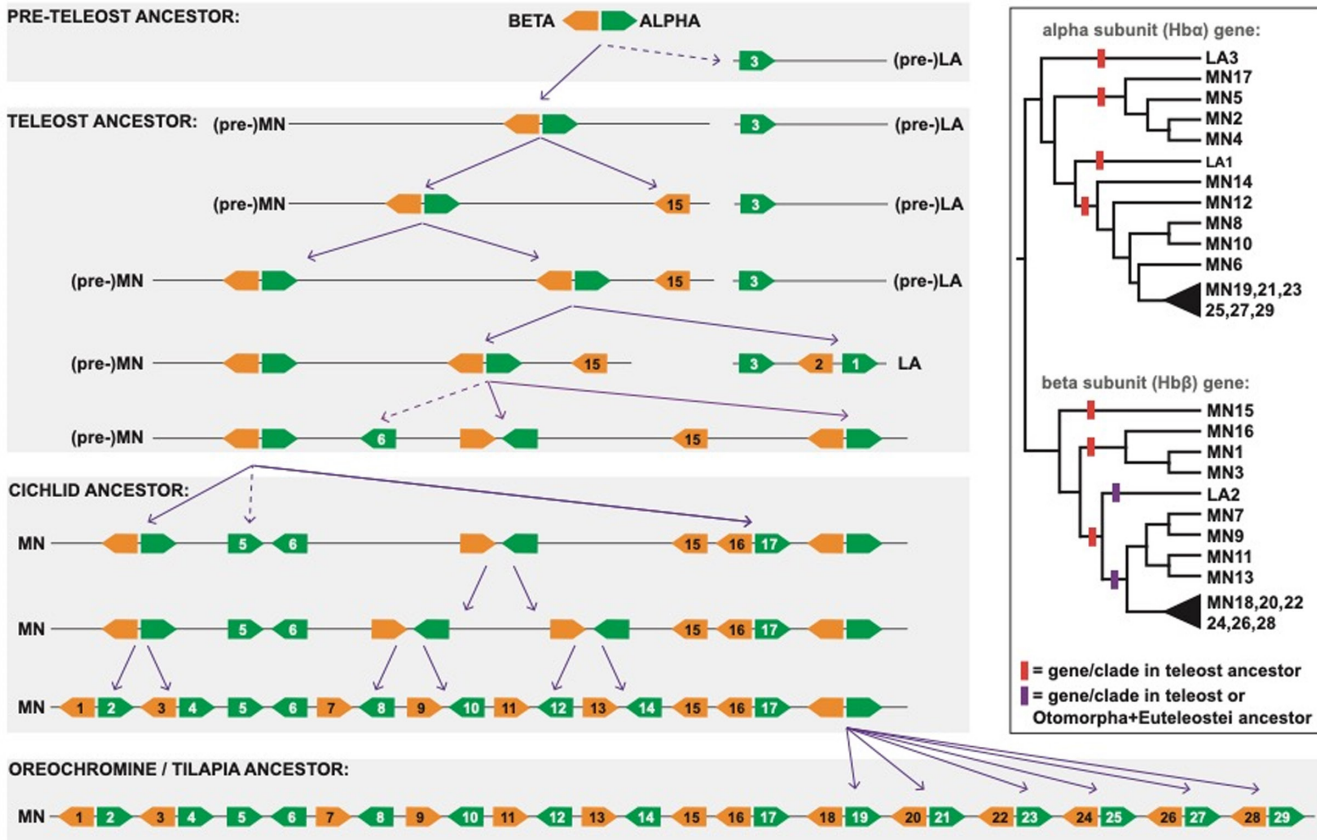
3.4 | The Haemoglobin Gene Repertoire in Nile Tilapia as a Model for Haemoglobin Evolution

The Nile tilapia (*Oreochromis niloticus*), similarly to other cichlids, has two haemoglobin clusters, the conserved LA cluster and the MN cluster, the latter of which demonstrates greater evolutionary dynamics. We used the Nile tilapia haemoglobins as a model to reconstruct more detailed evolutionary scenario (Figure 4) and with the subsequent addition of the Hb α and Hb β gene trees (Figures S1 and S2) we interpret the following sequence of events. The ancestral Hb α and Hb β subunit genes have diversified in teleosts. The evolutionarily oldest (and putatively functionally most divergent) are the cathodic Hb β (Mn15 in tilapia) and LA cluster Hb α (La3) subunit genes, which have diversified in the teleost ancestor (or even earlier in case of LA; Figures 2 and 4). Furthermore, the haemoglobin cluster underwent downstream and upstream expansion in gene numbers most likely due to the multiple tandem duplication events that happened in the teleost ancestor. Cichlids seem to further have diversified their haemoglobin gene repertoire namely in the MN cluster with many genes (also see Figures 3 and 5). Nile tilapia also carries traces of a recent gene expansion involving 12 Hb genes, as noticed by the Mn18–29 genes. Being partially shared with *Pungu maclareni* (Figures 5, S1 and S2), these multiplications most likely started in the oreochromine ancestor (i.e., of

A) hemoglobin gene clusters:



B) evolutionary scenario of the hemoglobin gene duplications:



C) Hb gene tree (tilapia):

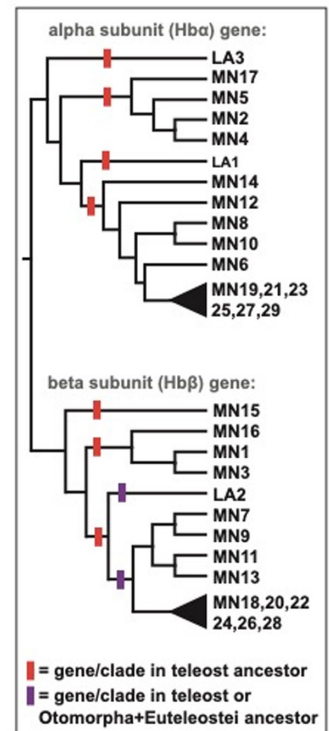


FIGURE 4 | Evolutionary scenario of the Nile tilapia (*Oreochromis niloticus*) haemoglobin gene clusters. (A) The conserved LA cluster is composed of three Hb genes, whereas the more dynamic MN cluster is composed of 29 Hb genes, the highest number among cichlids. Adult and embryonic expression highlighted based on the gills (SAMN05171417, SAMN05171418, SAMN05171419, SAMN03246846, SAMN03246849 and SAMN03246855) and embryo (SAMN00767863) transcriptomes. The ??? symbol marks recently duplicated genes previously referred to as “embryonic”; confirmation on multiple developmental stages is needed. Note that the highest expressed Hb genes in the embryo are located in the LA cluster, while the genes expressed in the adults are found in the MN cluster. (B) Evolutionary scenario showing the series of events as reconstructed and interpreted from (C) and Figures 2, S1, S2, and 3. The arrow symbol is used for gene duplications. The gene numbers mark the first appearance of the recent Hb gene after which no more subsequent duplications have occurred. The main events occurred in the pre-teleost, teleost, cichlid, or oreochromine/*Oreochromis* ancestor (timing interpreted from the topology of the gene trees in Figures S1 and S2). Note that the genes currently located at the LA cluster have an older origin (pre-teleost and teleost), whereas the genes within the MN cluster proliferated by further gene duplications. (C) The haemoglobin gene tree of the Nile tilapia extracted from the overall gene tree (i.e., Hb α and Hb β subunit gene trees in Figures 2, S1 and S2). Hb α subunit genes in green, Hb β subunit genes in orange.

both *Oreochromis* and *Pungu*) and further continued exclusively in *Oreochromis*.

3.5 | Positive Selection Test

We performed a test for positive selection on 186 and 175 full-length non-pseudogenized sequences of the Hb α and Hb β

haemoglobin subunit genes. Both Hb α and Hb β subunits share similar pattern of selective pressures acting on them and often the genes with high signatures of positive selection belong to cichlids (Figures S5 and S6). We found an excess of non-synonymous mutations in the cichlid haemoglobin subunit genes that appeared as a result of lineage-specific tandem duplications, such as the recent duplicated regions, or the typical block of evolutionary older duplicated region typical

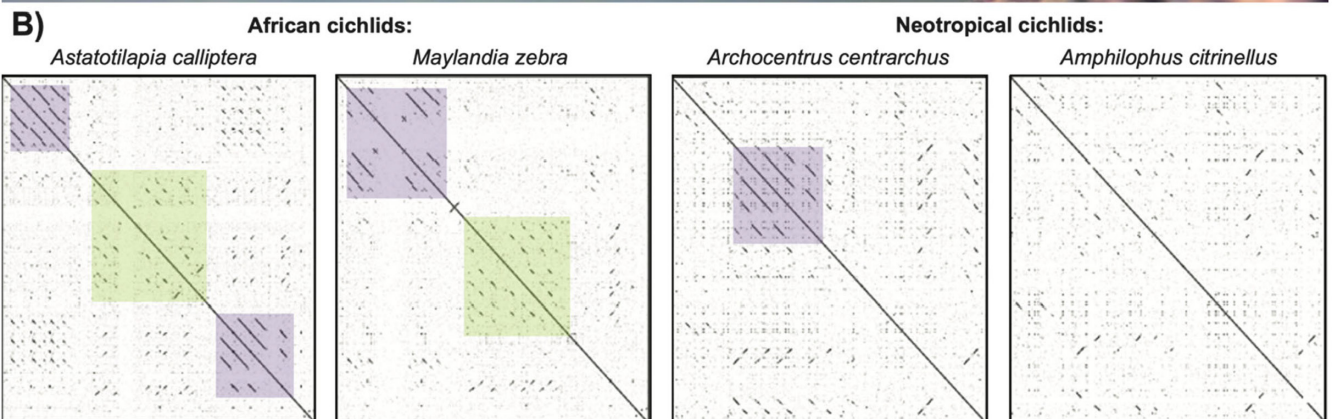
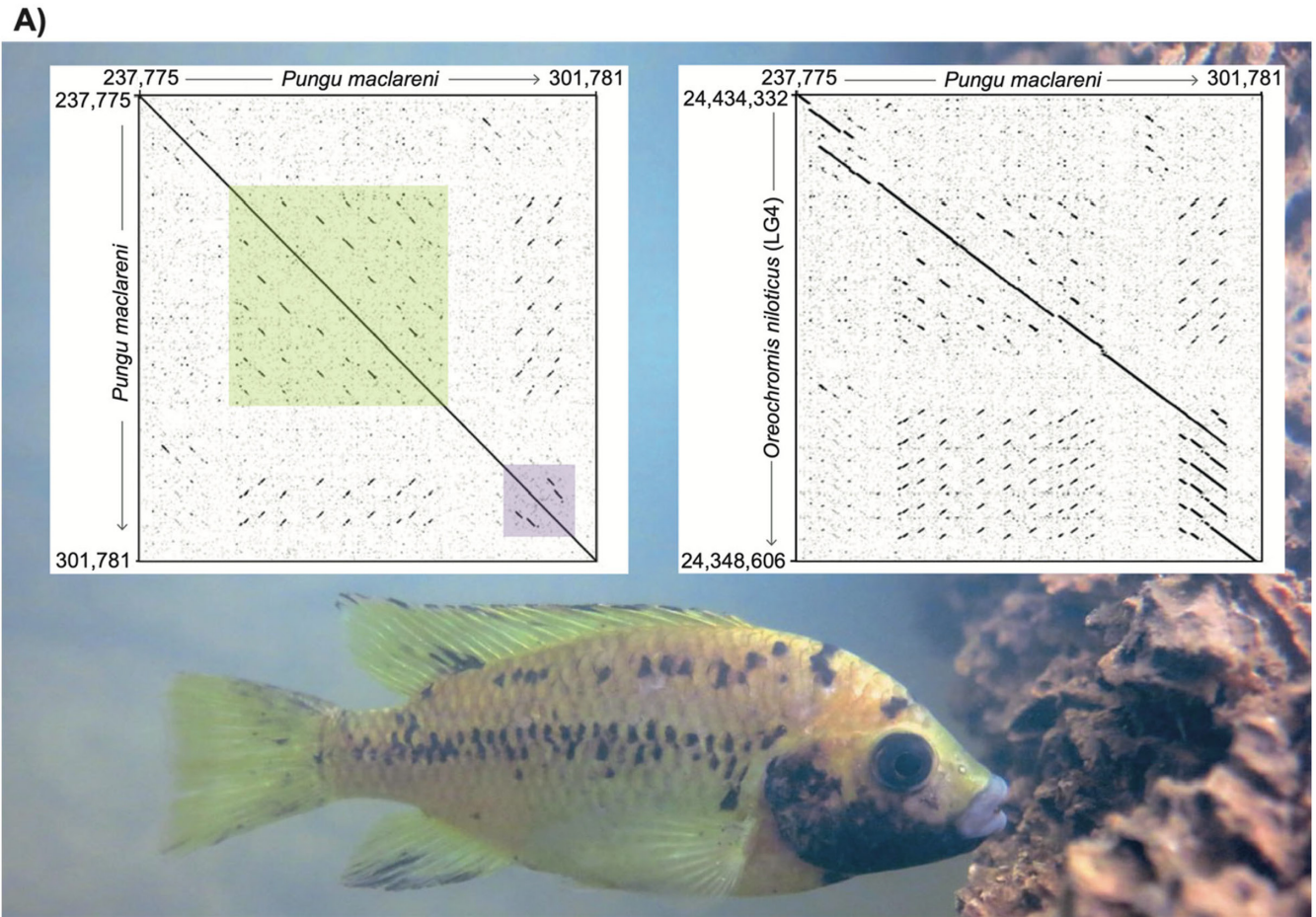


FIGURE 5 | Comparison of the cichlid haemoglobin gene MN cluster. (A) Gepar dotplots reveal similar regions of the MN cluster nucleotide sequences from pungu (*Pungu maclareni*; contig_791) plotted against itself (left) and against the MN cluster of Nile tilapia (*Oreochromis niloticus*; right). Photo of pungu (*Pungu maclareni*), the species from the Barombi Mbo crater lake sequenced within this study. (B) Gepar plots of the MN cluster of four other cichlid species in this study (each plotted against itself). Green rectangle highlights a region of the older major gene duplication event specific for African cichlids, purple squares mark regions of the recent duplications (which have independently happened in different species). See Figure 3 for the Nile tilapia gepar plot (plotted against itself), and Figure S4 for more details (such as genomic coordinates) of the gepar plots of the four cichlid species.

for African cichlids¹. This pattern can be observed for example in recently duplicated genes, such as Hb β subunits Mn1 and Mn3 together with tandemly duplicated Mn18, Mn20, Mn22, Mn24, Mn26 and Mn28 in *Oreochromis niloticus*, Mn1 Hb β +Mn2 Hb α and Mn5 Hb β +Mn6 Hb α in *Maylandia zebra*, Hb α : Mn2, Mn4, Mn6 and Hb β : Mn17, Mn19 and Mn21 in *Astatotilapia calliptera*, Hb α : Mn7, Mn11, Mn5, Mn18,

Mn19, Hb β : Mn6 and Mn8 in *Archocentrus centrarchus*, and, finally, Mn16 and Mn18 Hb β in *Pungu maclareni*. In several of these genes, the burst of positive selection was detected on the branch before their duplication (Figures S5 and S6). In some cases, similar patterns were also found in non-cichlids with expanded Hb gene repertoire, such as pike (De1 Hb α and De8 Hb α ; DE is a haemoglobin cluster specific for Northern pike

flanked by *dnmt1* and *eif3g* genes) and salmon (Mn1.10 Hb α and Mn2.13 Hb α). Signs of elevated positive selection are also found in the cathodic Hb β subunit genes of African cichlids (Figures S5 and S6).

4 | Discussion

Over evolutionary time, teleost fishes have undergone remarkable genetic changes in response to selective pressures associated with their aquatic habitats. Understanding the molecular evolution of fish haemoglobins not only elucidates the genetic basis for their functional diversity but also offers insights into interplay between genes, environment, and adaptation in the aquatic realm. In this study, we applied comparative genomics to trace the evolutionary history of haemoglobin genes across different teleost (and particularly cichlid) fish species, revealing patterns of gene duplications, losses, and genome rearrangements.

Although haemoglobins are well studied and understood from many perspectives, the molecular basis and effects of single mutations are still less known than for example for rhodopsins (Yokoyama 2008; Musilova, Salzburger, and Cortesi 2021). Major steps in evolution of haemoglobins, such as emergence of tetramers from the monomers and via dimers, has been described at the molecular level only recently (Pillai et al. 2020) by identification of the key amino acid substitutions, and this enables opportunities for subsequent research.

4.1 | Haemoglobin Gene Repertoire Organised in Clusters and the Whole-Genome Duplication(s)

Teleost fishes exhibit an overwhelming morphological, ecological and taxonomical diversity, and, similarly, we also observe diversity in the genomic organisation of the haemoglobin gene clusters. Although the ancestral vertebrate whole-genome duplications played a crucial role in the origin of haemoglobins (Hoffmann, Opazo, and Storz 2012), we report that the haemoglobin diversity has been mostly driven by gene (mostly tandem) duplications contributing possibly to the adaptive potential of haemoglobins (Storz 2016). The ancestor of jawed vertebrates most likely had a single haemoglobin gene pair, i.e., one Hb α and one Hb β subunit gene (Figure 4; Opazo et al. 2013). An organisation of Hb genes in a single cluster is also found in a non-teleost ray-finned fish (i.e., gar—*Lepisosteus oculatus*) and in cartilaginous fishes (Figure 1), whereas tetrapods and teleosts possess two clusters in their genome (most likely of independent origin since there are no similarities in the flanking genes nor the Hb gene sequence; Figure 1). The origin of the second, shorter, cluster in teleosts (labelled as LA cluster) has been previously associated with the teleost-specific whole genome duplication (TSGD) (Opazo et al. 2013). Our data does not support this hypothesis. One of the Hb α genes (sometimes also referred to as Hb α subunits D-like due to their similarity to the haemoglobin D; Ahmed, Ghatge, and Safo 2020; Figures 2 and S1) located in the LA cluster seems to have an older evolutionary origin, i.e., diversifying prior to the emergence of teleosts, [i.e., the teleost LA Hb α genes group together with one gar (non-teleost) Hb α gene, whereas other teleost Hb α s are more related to other two gar

Hb α haemoglobins (Figures 2, 4 and S1)]. On the other hand, the paralogous flanking gene *rhbdf1* is found in both LA and MN clusters in all teleost lineages, suggesting the possible origin of the cluster by the TSGD. However, to test this we have reconstructed the gene tree of the *rhbdf1* genes from our data set (Figure S3) and found that the common origin of the two *rhbdf1* paralogs is evolutionarily younger, in the Otomorpha + Euteleostei ancestor. There are clear gene clades of the LA and MN *rhbdf1* of otomorphs (e.g., zebrafish) + euteleosts (e.g., tilapia), whereas the elopomorph (eel) and osteoglossomorph (elephant fish) MN and LA copies form a separate clade (Figure S3). As a conclusion, we suggest that the evolution of the Hb genes most likely preceded their organisation into clusters, i.e., some of the existing genes (of pre-teleost origin) have been reorganised into newly emerged clusters later (post-teleost diversification). This is also supported by the grouping of teleost LA Hb α genes with one gar Hb α gene in the gene tree (Figure S1), whereas the physical location of this gene in the gar genome is within a single gene cluster together with all other haemoglobins (Figure 1). Interestingly, reorganisation of Hb genes seems to be a common feature also among tetrapods, some of which have experienced massive haemoglobin gene reorganisation into separate Hb α and Hb β clusters (Figure 1; Hardison 2012). In sharks, gars and teleosts, on the other hand, the Hb α and Hb β subunit genes are mixed in the haemoglobin clusters mainly as the Hb α —Hb β couples.

4.2 | Function of Multiple Haemoglobin Genes in Teleosts

Teleosts seem to have the highest number of haemoglobin genes among vertebrates so far, ranging from five (fugu) to 43 found in salmon (Figure 1) compared to two haemoglobins in shark, seven in zebra finch, ten in mouse and human, and 16 in clawed frog. All teleosts have at least two haemoglobin clusters, the LA and MN clusters. We found that northern pike and Atlantic salmon have an increased number of haemoglobin clusters and genes. Pike has 38 Hb genes located in three haemoglobin clusters (LA, MN and DE; the latter two on the same chromosome but in two separate regions). Salmon has 43 Hb genes in four haemoglobin clusters thanks to the *Salmoniformes*-specific whole genome duplication 12 million years ago (Koop et al. 2008). Many studies focus on function of fish haemoglobins, yet just a few of them connect genotype (haemoglobin genes) and phenotype (e.g., physiological properties), such as those focused on the cathodic haemoglobins (Fago et al. 1995) of on fishes from extreme environments (Mazzarella et al. 2006). In general, more gene copies (duplicates) do not automatically mean an enhanced function, although higher number of paralogous genes provides more substrate for selection and sub/neofunctionalization events in evolution, and, therefore, it may contribute to adaptive potential. Certain association with the environment has been found in codfishes (Gadiformes), with higher number of Hb copies in the shallow-dwelling species, whereas deep-water species have somewhat limited haemoglobin repertoire (Baalsrud et al. 2017). This is most likely because shallow-water habitats are often variable in the oxygen availability, whereas the deep-water zone is more stable. Another reason for multiple Hb gene copies is alternative gene expression during ontogeny

and the dynamics of developmental changes might be enormous. Developmental switches of haemoglobin expression are actually known from many vertebrate groups, and have most likely evolved independently (Rohlfing et al. 2016). In the Nile tilapia, for example, the highest embryonic expression involves two haemoglobin genes from the LA cluster (La1 and La2) followed by the expression of the Mn13 and Mn14 genes, whereas the adult expression sticks mainly to three Hb α (Mn2, Mn4, Mn14) and three Hb β (Mn1, Mn3, Mn13) genes from the MN cluster (Figure 4). Interestingly, the most recently duplicated genes (i.e., Mn18-Mn29) are labelled as “embryonic” in the GenBank genome annotation as well as in previous literature (Opazo et al. 2013; Baalsrud et al. 2017), albeit the embryo transcriptome (SAMN00767863) does not support this. A proper independent confirmation based on different developmental stages is still lacking for tilapia haemoglobins (Figure 4). Generally, in case of an urgent need of functional haemoglobin at the same time, the higher number of identical genes increases the efficiency of transcription and proteo-synthesis, and as such it can be beneficial to have multiple copies even if they have identical function (Kondrashov 2012). Accordingly, the embryonic and juvenile-specific haemoglobin genes have been identified in the Atlantic cod (Baalsrud et al. 2017 and references therein) and zebrafish (Brownlie et al. 2003).

Interestingly, in the species with the more complex genome, such as in salmon, some LA genes have an MN origin, bringing further evidence for common and recent rearrangements of the Hb genes between clusters (Quinn et al. 2010). Contrarily, the pufferfishes (*Tetraodontiformes*) are known for a genome compaction (Brenner et al. 1993), which also affected haemoglobin genes in the MN cluster. Fugu has the lowest number of Hb genes (5) of all known teleosts, possessing only two haemoglobin subunit genes in the MN cluster (while the LA cluster remains conserved with three genes as in most teleosts).

Our findings for Hb gene numbers are most likely not the final ranges for teleosts given that we focused only on 24 selected vertebrate species. We believe that future research including more species may reveal even higher numbers of Hb copies. It has been impossible to infer correct genomic structure of complex loci, such as haemoglobin clusters without high-quality genome sequencing with reads long enough to cover the high similarity regions (e.g., Malinsky et al. 2018). The upcoming routine application of the high-quality genome sequencing will certainly lead to future findings regarding the haemoglobin gene clusters. This may be especially relevant for the species with high numbers of Hb genes. Noteworthy, while we analysed the most recent version of the pike and salmon genomes (with 38 and 43 Hb genes respectively), there were only 29 and 33 identified genes in the previous versions of these genomes. On the other hand, we are aware of possible assembly errors and overestimation of the gene copies in the repetitive gene clusters (Ko et al. 2022). Lastly, we also note that there might be intraspecific variability among different individuals of the same species, especially in the number of identical genes (such as Hb18-29) in tilapia. Despite that, we believe our study still provides a valuable reference for future research, and general comparison of Hb gene repertoires, even though the exact numbers might vary or change in the future.

4.3 | Diversification of the Haemoglobin Genes in Teleosts

The origin of Hb α and Hb β haemoglobin subunit genes is a result of an ancient duplication event that likely happened ca 450 million years ago in the ancestor of gnathostome vertebrates (Czelusniak et al. 1982). Our phylogeny confirms this, as Hb α and Hb β subunits form two well supported clades in the gene tree (Figures 2, S1 and S2).

We found three major clades within the Hb β subunit gene tree (Figures 2 and S2) and our results are in accord with a previous fish haemoglobin gene tree (Opazo et al. 2013). Unlike the Hb α subunits, all Hb β subunit genes seem to have diversified after the teleost ancestor (Figures 2 and S2). The earliest branching genes are the cathodic haemoglobins (labelled as Hb β MN15 in tilapia) located within the MN cluster. Cathodic haemoglobin gene (β subunit) is found as a single copy gene in most of the studied species, with the exception of pike (*Esox lucius*), Atlantic cod (*Gadus morhua*) and Japanese pufferfish (*Takifugu rubripes*) where it has been lost, and in European eel and Atlantic salmon, where it has been duplicated into multiple copies (Figure S2).

The teleost ancestor is likely to have had at least four Hb α genes, whereas the signal is not that clear for Hb β . The inferred phylogenetic pattern indicates the presence of at least three putative Hb β copies in the teleost ancestor, which have emerged by gene duplications. Most likely, there was another duplication leading to four ancestral teleost Hb β genes (and lost in some lineages), or that the last duplications happened later in evolution, in the ancestor of Otomorpha+Euteleostei. Our gene trees (Figures 2 and S2) suggest the latter, whereas the reconstructed scenario and the physical location in LA versus MN clusters speaks rather for the former option. Additional analyses with more species are needed to resolve this uncertainty.

Our Hb α subunit gene tree is partially discordant with previously reported phylogenies, and the LA clade 2 (as in Opazo et al. 2013) could not be easily delineated; instead the genes are grouped within the combined MN/LA clade. Unlike most other clades within the gene tree, this clade is poorly supported, which could have been influenced by factors such as gene conversion or strong selection driving convergent evolution. Gene conversion and subsequent non-reciprocal exchange of the genetic material could in fact obscure the phylogenetic inference in paralogous genes (Archibald and Roger 2002; Ratnakumar et al. 2010; Cortesi et al. 2015) although no conversion has been recently detected by a targeted analysis in ray-finned fish haemoglobin genes (Mao et al. 2023). Strong positive selection has also been found in the mixed Hb α clade (see below) and could partially explain the poor resolution of—and within—this clade (Figures S5 and S6). These factors are, however, unlikely to compromise the overall strong phylogenetic signal, as we were generally able to recover well supported clades (with the aforementioned exception).

4.4 | Evolution of Haemoglobins in Cichlid Fishes

Cichlids are characterised by a relatively high number of haemoglobin subunit genes compared to other studied teleosts

(Figure 1), ranging from 18 haemoglobin genes in *Amphilophus citrinellus* up to 32 in *Oreochromis niloticus*. Only two teleost species (pike, salmon) have a greater haemoglobin gene repertoire (38 and 43, respectively). All studied cichlids share the same synteny of the LA cluster including haemoglobins and three flanking genes upstream and downstream of the cluster. We report variation in the gene copies solely within the MN cluster of cichlids and this is probably a result of tandem duplications. Some Hb genes from African and Neotropical cichlids form sister clades suggesting emergence of many copies prior to cichlid diversification. Substantial proportion of the gene diversity was apparently driven by lineage-specific or species-specific duplication events that happened after the split of the African and Neotropical lineages throughout cichlid evolution.

It has previously been shown that cichlids exhibit elevated numbers of duplicated genes in general (Brawand et al. 2014, Berner and Salzburger 2015), and possibly this might have contributed to their evolutionary success—resulting in large numbers of species and adaptive radiations that enabled them to conquer various ecological and trophic niches. More specifically, Victoria cichlids are known to switch between haemoglobin types to cope with hypoxia (Rutjes et al. 2007; van den Thillart et al. 2018), and signs of positive selection have been reported in four haemoglobin genes from the MN cluster in deep-water Malawi cichlid from *Diplotaxodon* genus (Malinsky et al. 2018). Since haemoglobins are putative candidates for adaptive evolution, we perform the analysis of positive selection on the haemoglobin genes. We found an excess in non-synonymous-to-synonymous mutations in some (but not all) duplicated genes of cichlid species, however the pattern is not clear. Most of the genes under positive selection result from recent duplications, might have experienced bursts of positive selection, namely the tilapia recent duplicates MN1 Hb β and MN3 Hb β subunit genes (with elevated positive selection signal). Interestingly, Nile tilapia itself is not a part of any cichlid radiation although it has the highest number of Hb genes so far. However, it is a species quite tolerant to hypoxia (Bergstedt, Pfalzgraff, and Skov 2021), hence, there may be a biological relevance or traces of positive selection speaking for episodes of recent selection.

5 | Conclusion

We apply comparative genomics to reveal a great diversity of the haemoglobin gene repertoires. Gene duplications, gene losses and genomic rearrangements have all contributed to the genomic architecture of haemoglobin subunit genes in teleost fishes. We conclude that tandem duplications played a major role in the dynamic increase of haemoglobin gene copies within the MN cluster of cichlid fishes. Furthermore, our results demonstrate that some genes within the LA cluster had a pre-teleost origin, whereas the LA cluster itself may be evolutionarily younger, speaking for genome rearrangements. Contrarily, the MN cluster underwent a very dynamic evolution—from a dramatic genome compaction in *fugu* with only two genes preserved in the MN cluster to the expansion in cichlid lineage (up to 29 genes), or furthermore, to duplication of both clusters in salmonid fishes. The teleost ancestor had at least four Hb α genes and three or four Hb β genes, and the extant diversity of the haemoglobin gene repertoires has arisen from these

ancestral copies. This study aims to serve as a valuable resource for the future research aiming to integrate observation from the wild with physiological experiments, targeted mutagenesis and in vitro protein engineering to understand the mechanisms of haemoglobin molecular evolution and their function.

Author Contributions

D.O. and Z.M. conceived the study, D.O. performed the analyses, figure drafts and revisions, writing, proofreading. Z.M. did conceptualization, figure drafts and revisions, writing, proofreading. M.Mal. helped to process genomic data, M.Mat. contributed to the detection of positive selection signatures. A.R.B.-N., A.I., D.O. and Z.M. performed and supported fieldwork. O.B. was responsible for Nanopore sequencing and Pungu maclareni genome assembly. Z.M. and D.O. together with W.S., M.Mal., M.Mat. revised the manuscript.

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Conflicts of Interest

The authors declare no conflicts of interest.

Data Availability Statement

The genomic data of the de novo sequenced *Pungu maclareni* in this study has been deposited on GenBank under the Accession number: GCA_041757325.1. The alignment of the haemoglobin genes is included as. nex format in the Data S1.

Benefit Sharing Statement

The results of this research generate a benefit from the sharing of results on public available databases as described above. A local scientist has been a valuable member of our research team and one of the co-authors. More broadly, our group is committed to international scientific partnerships, as well as institutional capacity building (we have repeatedly hosted our collaborator and his PhD student in our laboratories for research visits).

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Supporting Information

Additional supporting information can be found online in the Supporting Information section.