

# Accelerated Evolution of Nervous System Genes in the Origin of *Homo sapiens*

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## Summary

Human evolution is characterized by a dramatic increase in brain size and complexity. To probe its genetic basis, we examined the evolution of genes involved in diverse aspects of nervous system biology. We found that these genes display significantly higher rates of protein evolution in primates than in rodents. Importantly, this trend is most pronounced for the subset of genes implicated in nervous system development. Moreover, within primates, the acceleration of protein evolution is most prominent in the lineage leading from ancestral primates to humans. Thus, the remarkable phenotypic evolution of the human nervous system has a salient molecular correlate, i.e., accelerated evolution of the underlying genes, particularly those linked to nervous system development. In addition to uncovering broad evolutionary trends, our study also identified many candidate genes—most of which are implicated in regulating brain size and behavior—that might have played important roles in the evolution of the human brain.

## Introduction

Greatly expanded and highly complex brains are among the most defining attributes distinguishing primates, especially humans, from other mammals (Brodmann, 1912; Jerison, 1973; Finlay and Darlington, 1995). As a result of increased brain size and complexity, behavioral repertoires became much richer in primates, culminating in highly sophisticated cultural behaviors in humans such as language, tool use, and social learning (Spuhler, 1959; Matsuzawa, 2001).

In past decades, researchers have devoted significant efforts toward understanding the evolutionary processes that gave rise to the distinct features of the human brain. Traditionally, such efforts have focused on the anatomical and physiological differences between the human brain and that of the other taxa, as well as the behavioral manifestations of these differences

(Jerison, 1973; Byrne and Whiten, 1988; Aiello and Dean, 1990; Matsuzawa, 2001). More recently, the genetic basis of brain evolution has emerged as a topic of considerable discussion. Of particular interest are questions regarding what genes underlie brain differences between humans and other species, and how changes in these genes led to specific alterations in brain biology. As yet, these important questions remain poorly explored. In this study, we probe these questions by comparative genomics studies utilizing both primates and nonprimate species.

It has long been noted that brains of various extant and extinct primates display remarkable variation in size, organization, and behavioral output (Noback and Montagna, 1970; Armstrong and Falk, 1982; Byrne and Whiten, 1988; Matsuzawa, 2001). This is particularly true for the evolutionary lineage leading from ancestral primates to humans, in which the increase in brain size and complexity was remarkably rapid and persistent throughout the lineage (Jerison, 1973; Walker et al., 1983). In contrast, for most nonprimate mammalian orders, the extent of intra-ordinal brain differences is much more limited (Brodmann, 1912; Pagel and Harvey, 1989). For example, the encephalization quotient, a rough measure of brain size scaled allometrically to body size, can differ by more than an order of magnitude between humans and nonhuman primates, but varies much less between species of any nonprimate order (Williams, 2002). Thus, the phenotype of the nervous system has apparently undergone far greater evolutionary changes in primates than most other mammals.

Extrapolating from these observations, we hypothesized that the intensified phenotypic evolution of the brain seen in primates might have a molecular correlate—that is, genes involved in nervous system biology might display more dynamic molecular evolutionary changes in primates relative to nonprimate mammals. We further surmised that within primates, the lineage leading from ancestral primates to humans might exhibit more dramatic evolutionary changes than other primate lineages, on the basis that the increase in brain size and complexity is most profound in the lineage leading to humans.

In this study, we compared the evolutionary rates of an extensive set of nervous system-related genes between primates and rodents. To obtain evolutionary rates in primates, we compared sequences between human and the Old World monkey, macaque. We note that even though much discussion of human evolution has focused on human-chimpanzee comparisons, the strong sequence similarities between these two species results in high stochastic uncertainty in the estimation of evolutionary rates. This is likely to reduce the statistical power in detecting interesting evolutionary signatures. Human-macaque comparisons, in contrast, offer much more accurate rate estimation because of the considerably greater sequence divergence. For the nonprimate mammalian order, we used rodents, with rat and mouse as the species chosen for comparison. The evolutionary time separating human and macaque (20–25 million

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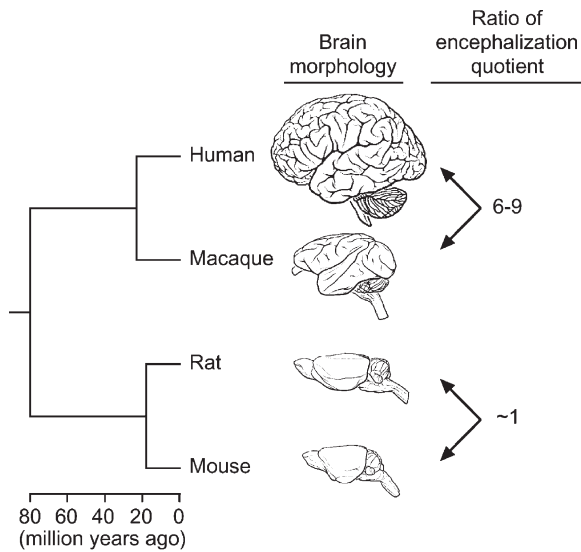


Figure 1. Phylogenetic Relationship of the Four Taxa Used in the Study

Ratios of encephalization quotient (brain size allometrically scaled to body size) between taxa are indicated following published data (Williams, 2002). Brains of different taxa are not drawn to scale of absolute size. Estimated evolutionary time separating these four taxa is depicted.

years) is grossly comparable to that separating rat and mouse (16–23 million years) (Kumar and Hedges, 1998; Springer et al., 2003). However, point mutation rates are lower in primates than in rodents (Gibbs et al., 2004), which results in the synonymous sequence divergence between human and macaque being about half that between rat and mouse. Despite the fact that human-macaque sequence divergence is less, the size and complexity of the brain differ profoundly between these two primates while remaining grossly comparable between the two rodents (Figure 1). Comparisons of these four taxa should, therefore, allow us to interpret any molecular evolutionary differences of nervous system genes between primates and rodents within the meaningful context of contrasting evolutionary outcomes in brain phenotypes between these two mammalian orders.

By comparing nervous system genes across the four aforementioned taxa, we demonstrate that the average rate of protein evolution as scaled to neutral divergence is indeed considerably faster in primates than in rodents and that this trend is most pronounced for the subset of genes implicated in nervous system development. We further show that within primates, such evolutionary acceleration is much greater in the lineage leading from ancestral primates to humans relative to lineages leading to nonhuman species. Thus, the dramatic evolution of nervous system phenotype in primates, particularly humans, is indeed correlated with salient molecular evolutionary footprints in the underlying genes.

**Results**

**Evolution of Nervous System Genes**

We used multiple criteria to compile a list of genes as broadly representative of nervous system biology as pos-

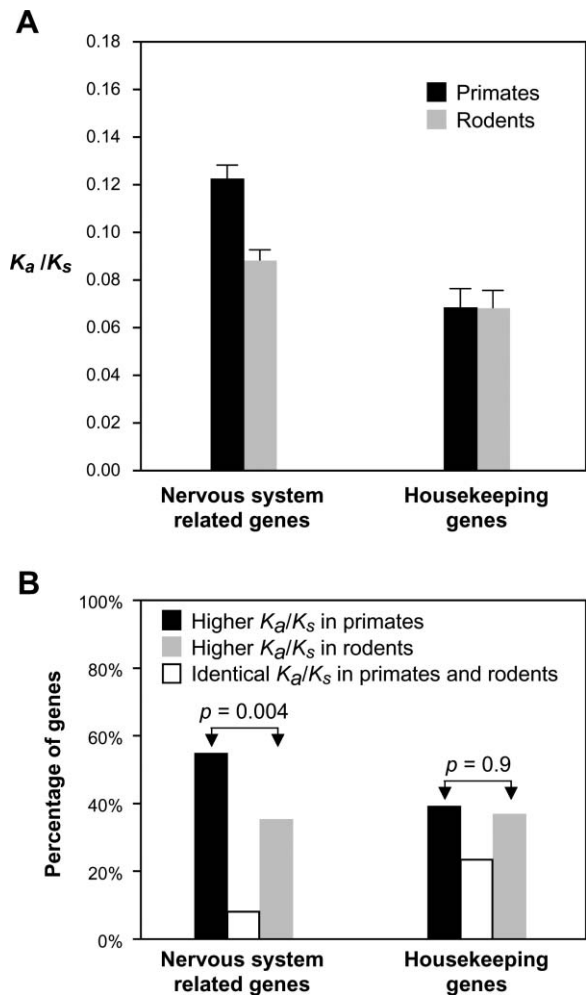


Figure 2. Evolution of Nervous System Genes and Housekeeping Genes in Primates and Rodents

(A) Evolutionary rates in primates and rodents. (B) Percentage of genes that evolved with higher  $K_a/K_s$  in one or the other mammalian order. The p values indicate the statistical significance of primate-rodent disparities.

sible. First, we performed extensive literature searches to obtain a set of genes demonstrated to play important roles in the nervous system. Second, we used databases of expressed sequence tags (ESTs) and SAGE tags (Velculescu et al., 1999) to identify a group of genes expressed exclusively or predominantly in the brain. Lastly, we included a set of genes implicated in various diseases of the nervous system, such as brain malformations, mental retardation, and neurodegeneration. Many of the genes appear to function exclusively in the nervous system whereas others may also play roles in additional tissues. In either case, the prominent involvement of these genes in the nervous system makes them good candidates for our study. By sequencing and bioinformatics, we obtained orthologous sequences for 214 such genes in all of the four taxa chosen for this study (Supplemental Table S1 at <http://www.cell.com/cgi/content/full/119/7/1027/DC1/>). We note that these genes are scattered randomly across the genome. Be-

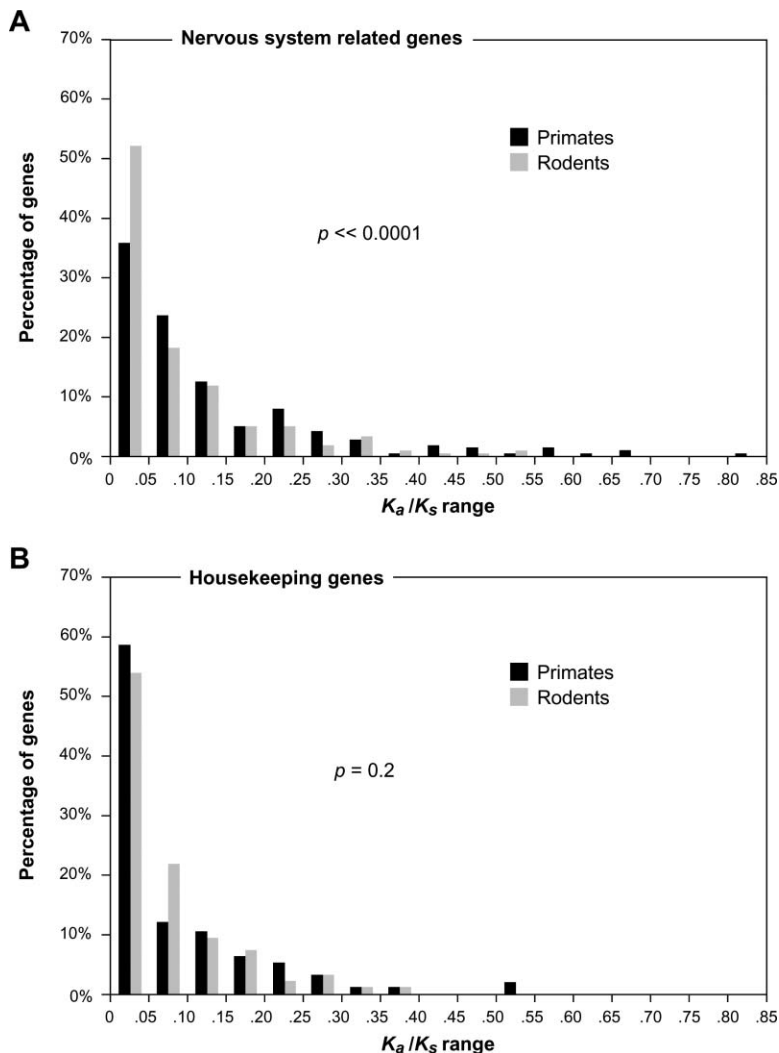


Figure 3. The  $K_a/K_s$  Distributions of Nervous System Genes and Housekeeping Genes in Primates and Rodents

(A) Nervous system-related genes.

(B) Housekeeping genes.

The p values indicate the statistical significance of primate-rodent disparities.

cause the acquisition of these genes was done without prior knowledge of their evolutionary properties, the findings discussed below are not due to selective sampling of genes with desirable evolutionary parameters.

The pace of protein evolution as scaled to neutral divergence is commonly approximated by the ratio between nonsynonymous ( $K_a$ ) and synonymous ( $K_s$ ) substitution rates (Li, 1997). To infer  $K_a/K_s$  ratios of genes in primates, we compared human and macaque orthologs. For rodent  $K_a/K_s$ , rat and mouse sequences were compared. The average  $K_s$  of these genes is  $0.065 \pm 0.028$  (mean  $\pm$  SD) for the primate comparison and  $0.158 \pm 0.063$  for the rodents, in close agreement with previous reports (Yi et al., 2002; Gibbs et al., 2004). Notably, the average  $K_a/K_s$  of these genes is substantially higher (by 37%) in primates than in rodents (Figure 2A), and the disparity is statistically highly significant ( $p << 0.0001$  by Fisher's exact test). As discussed below, additional statistical tests further corroborated the significance of this disparity. This result indicates that the average rate of protein evolution for these genes after scaling to neutral divergence is faster in primates than in rodents by a significant margin.

We next counted the number of genes that showed

higher  $K_a/K_s$  in primates than rodents, or vice versa. We found that, not surprisingly, there were substantially more genes with higher  $K_a/K_s$  in primates than the other way around (118 versus 77; Figure 2B). Such a departure from parity is statistically significant ( $p = 0.004$  by the binomial test). This observation argues that the higher average  $K_a/K_s$  in primates is contributed to by a large fraction of these nervous system genes beyond just a few outliers.

Finally, we compared the  $K_a/K_s$  distributions between primates and rodents. We found that primates have far fewer genes in the very low  $K_a/K_s$  range (i.e.,  $K_a/K_s \leq 0.05$ ) as compared to rodents, and more genes in the high  $K_a/K_s$  range (Figure 3A). Statistical tests confirmed that the primate distribution differed significantly from the rodent distribution ( $p << 0.0001$  by the Wilcoxon signed-rank test).

#### Evolution of Housekeeping Genes

The significantly higher average  $K_a/K_s$  of nervous system genes in primates is suggestive of adaptive evolution. However, this observation in itself is by no means a definitive proof of adaptive evolution because it could also arise from relaxed functional constraint. The classi-

cal (and most stringent) test of adaptive evolution requires  $K_a/K_s$  greater than 1. Yet, none of the genes sampled here have  $K_a/K_s$  greater than 1. In fact, the observation of overall low  $K_a/K_s$  is consistent with previous reports that nervous system genes tend to experience strong evolutionary constraint (Duret and Mouchiroud, 2000). Such constraint, which curbs  $K_a/K_s$  to levels substantially lower than 1, would mask the effect of adaptive evolution. We therefore sought additional evidence of adaptive evolution by examining the evolution of a set of housekeeping genes. Given that housekeeping genes perform basic cellular functions that are likely conserved across different species, they should have evolved predominantly under constraint (and experiencing little positive selection). If housekeeping genes also show higher  $K_a/K_s$  in primates, then it would cast doubt on the interpretation that the elevated  $K_a/K_s$  of nervous system genes in primates is the consequence of positive selection. We compiled a list of housekeeping genes that satisfied two stringent criteria. First, they must be involved in the most basic cellular functions such as metabolism and protein synthesis. Second, they must exhibit ubiquitous expression based on EST and SAGE databases (Velculescu et al., 1999). By sequencing and bioinformatics, we obtained orthologs for 95 such genes across the four taxa, which are scattered randomly across the genome (Supplemental Table S2 at <http://www.cell.com/cgi/content/full/119/7/1027/DC1/>). The average  $K_s$  of these genes is  $0.061 \pm 0.032$  (mean  $\pm$  SD) for the primate comparison and  $0.171 \pm 0.067$  for the rodents, which closely parallels the nervous system genes. But unlike the nervous system genes, the average  $K_a/K_s$  of the housekeeping genes in primates is very similar to—and statistically indistinguishable from—that in rodents (Figure 2A). Additionally, the fraction of genes with higher  $K_a/K_s$  in primates is comparable to that with higher  $K_a/K_s$  in rodents (37 versus 35; Figure 2B). Finally, the  $K_a/K_s$  distributions of these genes are not statistically distinct between primates and rodents (Figure 3B). This finding indicates comparable levels of selective constraint on housekeeping genes between primates and rodents. It therefore argues that the considerably higher average  $K_a/K_s$  of nervous system genes in primates is not a part of a nonspecific, genome-wide phenomenon.

#### Classification of Nervous System Genes

The above results still leave open two possible interpretations. One is stronger positive selection on nervous system genes in primates than rodents. The other is weaker functional constraint on these genes in primates. We argue that the possibility of weaker constraint seems unlikely, on the basis that the primate nervous system is far more complex (and therefore likely demanding greater precision in gene function) relative to the rodent nervous system. This consideration notwithstanding, we searched for additional evidence that might differentiate between positive selection and relaxation of constraint. To this end, we focused on two categories of genes that are particularly relevant to the understanding of nervous system evolution. One comprises genes whose functions are strongly biased toward nervous system development. The other consists of genes biased toward the routine physiological operations and maintenance of the nervous system.

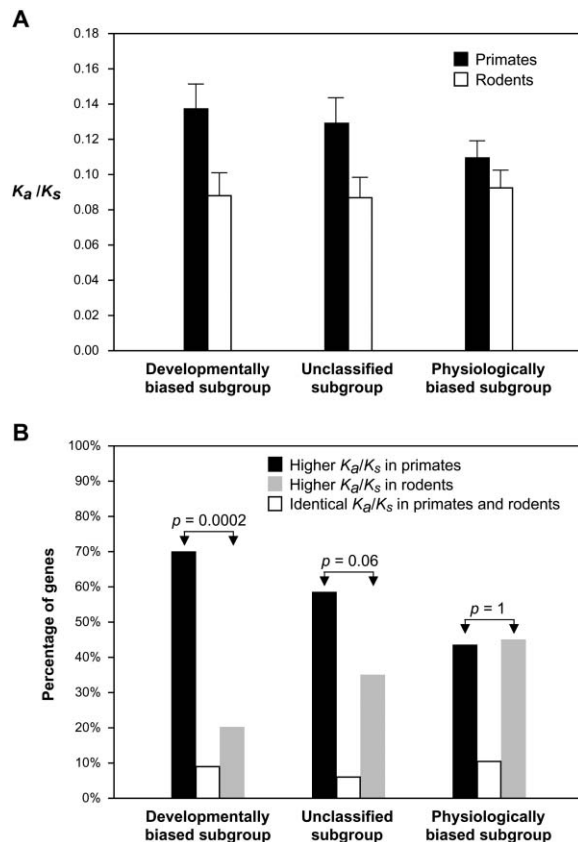


Figure 4. Evolution of Different Functional Subgroups of Nervous System Genes

(A) Evolutionary rates in primates and rodents.

(B) Percentage of genes that evolved with higher  $K_a/K_s$  in one or the other mammalian order.

The p values indicate the statistical significance of primate-rodent disparities.

The evolution of the primate brain is characterized by extensive structural modifications, which are necessarily achieved through changes in the molecular programs that underlie brain development. If the higher  $K_a/K_s$  of nervous system genes in primates is indeed the consequence of positive selection, then such selection is likely to have impinged more intensely on the developmentally biased genes. The result would be even greater primate-rodent  $K_a/K_s$  disparity (in the direction of higher primate  $K_a/K_s$ ) for the developmental genes, and perhaps less  $K_a/K_s$  disparity for the physiological genes. To test this hypothesis, we classified our nervous system genes into subgroups whose functions are biased toward either nervous system development or physiology. We took several cautionary measures to minimize the inherent uncertainty in the functional classification of genes. First, we imposed stringent definitions on both subgroups. Genes were included in the developmentally biased subgroup only if a preponderance of evidence, particularly in vivo gain- or loss-of-function studies, had demonstrated unequivocal roles of these genes in nervous system development. On the other hand, genes were placed in the physiologically biased category only if a combination of biochemical, pharmacological, and

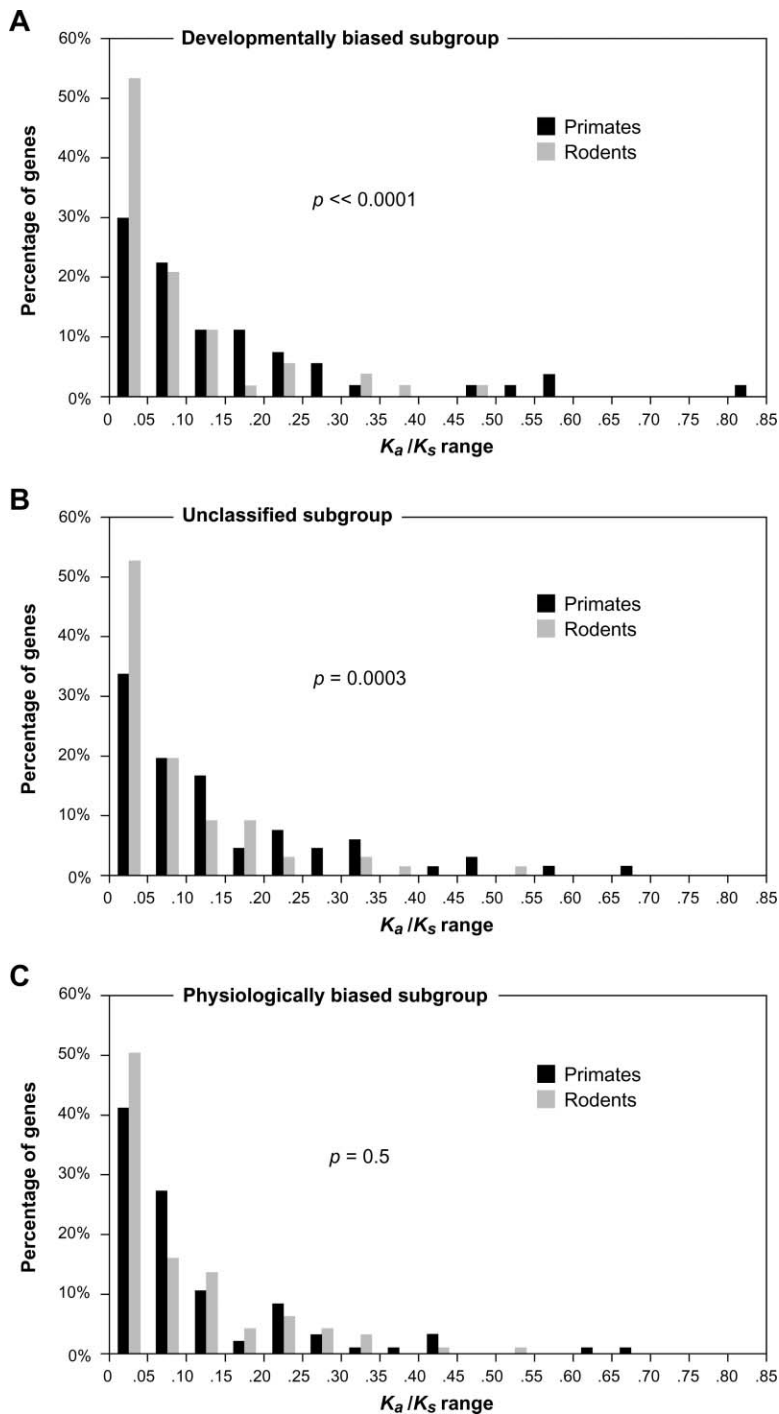


Figure 5. The  $K_a/K_s$  Distributions of Three Subgroups of Nervous System Genes in Primates and Rodents

(A) Developmentally biased subgroup.  
(B) Unclassified subgroup.  
(C) Physiologically biased subgroup.  
The p values indicate the statistical significance of primate-rodent disparities.

genetic evidence had shown that their predominant functions lie in the routine operation and maintenance of the nervous system. Second, we created an “unclassified” subgroup to encompass all the genes that could not be clearly assigned to the first two categories, either because of insufficient functional data or because they appear to be prominently involved in both neural development and physiology. Third, classification of genes was performed blind to the evolutionary properties of these genes.

The nervous system genes were partitioned into these

three subgroups without any overlap between categories. The developmentally biased subgroup contained 53 genes that included patterning signals of the developing nervous system, downstream components of such signals, transcription factors that specify neuronal phenotypes, and regulators of neural precursor proliferation, apoptosis, differentiation, migration, and morphogenesis. The physiologically biased subgroup had 95 genes, comprised predominantly of neurotransmitters, their synthesis enzymes and receptors, neurohormones, voltage-gated ion channels, synaptic vesicle compo-

nents, factors involved in synaptic vesicle release, metabolic enzymes specific to neurons or glia, and structural components of the nervous system. The unclassified subgroup contained the remaining 66 genes. Notably, the developmentally biased subgroup showed even greater  $K_a/K_s$  disparity between primates and rodents than did the entire set of nervous system genes. The average  $K_a/K_s$  of this subgroup is significantly higher (by 53%) in primates than in rodents ( $p = 0.002$  by Fisher's exact test; Figure 4A). In addition, the great majority of developmental genes exhibited higher  $K_a/K_s$  in primates whereas only a small fraction displayed higher  $K_a/K_s$  in rodents (37 versus 11), which is a significant departure from parity ( $p = 0.0002$  by the binomial test; Figure 4B). In contrast to the developmental genes, the physiologically biased subgroup exhibited much less primate-rodent  $K_a/K_s$  disparity (Figure 4A). Furthermore, the number of genes in this subgroup with higher  $K_a/K_s$  in primates is comparable to that with higher  $K_a/K_s$  in rodents (42 versus 43; Figure 4B). Indeed, the reason that the average  $K_a/K_s$  of the physiological subgroup is slightly higher in primates can be attributed to a subset of outliers with markedly higher  $K_a/K_s$  in primates than in rodents (these outliers are discussed later).

Interestingly, the unclassified subgroup shows evolutionary parameters that are intermediate between the developmental and the physiological subgroups. This is true when considering  $K_a/K_s$  values (Figure 4A) or the number of genes with higher  $K_a/K_s$  in either primates or rodents (39 versus 23; Figure 4B). We next compared  $K_a/K_s$  distributions between primates and rodents for each subgroup. For the developmental subgroup, primates showed a marked deficiency of genes in the lowest  $K_a/K_s$  range (i.e.,  $K_a/K_s \leq 0.05$ ) as compared to rodents, but a relative excess of genes in the higher  $K_a/K_s$  range (Figure 5A). In particular, the very top  $K_a/K_s$  ranges ( $K_a/K_s > 0.5$ ) contain only primate, and no rodent genes. This notable primate-rodent disparity is statistically highly significant ( $p \ll 0.0001$  by the Wilcoxon signed-rank test). In contrast,  $K_a/K_s$  distributions of the physiological genes are much more similar between primates and rodents and are not statistically distinct (Figure 5C). For the unclassified subgroup, the  $K_a/K_s$  distributions again exhibit an intermediate level of primate-rodent disparity (Figure 5B).

The higher  $K_a/K_s$  of nervous system genes in primates means that there is an overabundance of amino acid substitutions (after scaling to neutral divergence) in primates as compared to rodents. A rough estimate suggests an excess of 1–2 amino acid substitutions per nervous system gene in primates than would have occurred if the average  $K_a/K_s$  in primates was similar to (rather than significantly higher than) the average rodent  $K_a/K_s$ . The excess becomes 3–4 substitutions per gene in primates when considering only the developmental subgroup.

#### Genes with Marked Evolutionary Rate Disparities between Primates and Rodents

To identify candidate genes whose molecular evolutionary changes might bear particular relevance to brain evolution, we searched for genes with the most marked  $K_a/K_s$  disparities between primates and rodents. Using a  $p$  value of 0.05 as a cutoff, we obtained a set of 24

outlying genes with significantly higher  $K_a/K_s$  in primates than in rodents (hereon referred to as “primate-fast outliers”) (Table 1A).

As expected, the developmental subgroup has the highest proportion of outliers (9 out of 53, or 17%). The physiological subgroup contains 9 outliers among 95 genes (9%), while the unclassified subgroup has 6 outliers among 66 genes (9%). Interestingly, a preponderance of these outliers appeared to be involved in controlling brain size or behavior. Mouse knockout of *CASP3* exhibits severe overgrowth of the brain; *LHX1* knockout shows absence of brain and other anterior structures; and *NRCAM* knockout leads to reduced cerebellum size. Perhaps even more interesting are the observations that mutations in human *ASPM*, *MCPH1*, *PAFAH1B1*, and *SHH* all result in severe reductions in brain size (microcephaly). Hence, 7 of the outliers are implicated in controlling brain size. Mouse knockout of *DVL1* displays defective social behavior; *PEG3* knockout shows impaired maternal behavior; *ADCYAP1* knockout exhibits altered anxiety state; knockouts of *GD11*, *GRIN2A*, or *CSPG3* show deficits in learning or neural correlates of learning; knockouts of *CHRM5*, *DRD2*, or *OPRM1* exhibit defects in acquiring reward-mediated behavior; and mutation in *AANAT* alters circadian rhythm. Thus, 10 of the outliers are involved in regulating behavior.

It is remarkable that 17 out of the 24 primate-fast outliers are linked to the regulation of either brain size or behavior. This trend suggests that genes controlling brain size or behavior are preferential targets of positive selection during primate evolution. The functional specificity of these outliers adds additional credence to the notion that the higher  $K_a/K_s$  of nervous system genes in primates is likely the consequence of adaptive evolution.

For the developmental and unclassified subgroups, removal of the primate-fast outliers only moderately reduced the overall primate-rodent  $K_a/K_s$  disparities (data not shown). This suggests that for these two subgroups, the higher average  $K_a/K_s$  in primates is contributed to by many genes, and not just the primate-fast outliers. For the physiological subgroup, however, removal of the outlying genes actually led to higher average  $K_a/K_s$  in rodents than in primates (by nearly 10%). This hints at the possibility that, overall, physiological genes might actually be slightly more conserved in primates, except for a small subset of genes that underwent adaptive evolution (and hence exhibiting much higher  $K_a/K_s$  in primates).

Using the same statistical cutoff, we also obtained 3 rodent-fast outliers, considerably fewer than the primate-fast outliers (Table 1B). Such a dramatic disparity is consistent with the tendency of nervous system genes to have higher  $K_a/K_s$  in primates than in rodents. Among the 95 housekeeping genes, only two showed significant  $K_a/K_s$  disparities between primates and rodents, and both had higher  $K_a/K_s$  in rodents (Supplemental Table S2 online). This reinforces the notion that housekeeping genes evolved under levels of selective constraint that tended to remain steady across different mammalian lineages.

#### Comparison between Human Lineage and Macaque Lineage

Increases in brain size and complexity are evident in the evolution of many primate lineages (Jerison, 1973).

However, this increase is far more dramatic in the lineage leading to humans than in other primate lineages (Williams, 2002). If the higher average  $K_a/K_s$  of nervous system genes in primates (based on human-macaque comparison) is indeed the product of adaptive evolution, then one might expect this accelerated evolution to be more dramatic in the lineage leading from human-macaque ancestors to humans than the lineage leading to macaques. To address this possibility, we followed a phylogeny-based methodology as previously described (Messier and Stewart, 1997). Specifically, we chose squirrel monkey (*Saimiri boliviensis*), a New World monkey, as an outgroup to partition human-macaque sequence divergence into the two respective branches. (Squirrel monkey can serve as a highly reliable outgroup because it is closely related to the catarrhine clade containing human and macaque; rat and mouse are too distantly related to primates to be reliable outgroups.)

We first focused on the primate-fast outliers of the nervous system genes because they have the greatest likelihood of bearing relevance to primate brain evolution. Using squirrel monkey sequences as an outgroup, we found that they have much higher average  $K_a/K_s$  in the human lineage than the macaque lineage (Figure 6A) and that the difference is statistically significant ( $p = 0.004$  by Fisher's exact test). Additionally, at the level of individual genes, the great majority (20 out of 24) evolved faster in the human lineage, which is a significant departure from parity ( $p = 0.002$  by the binomial test).

As a control, we also examined a set of 25 nervous system genes with comparable evolutionary rates between primates and rodents and found that these genes do not show any statistically significant  $K_a/K_s$  disparities between the human and the macaque lineages (Figure 6A).

Thus, nervous system genes with higher  $K_a/K_s$  values in primates than in rodents also have a strong tendency to have higher  $K_a/K_s$  in the human branch than in the macaque branch. That the  $K_a/K_s$  of these genes is markedly and specifically elevated along the human branch—in which the increase in brain size and complexity is most dramatic—further argues that adaptive evolution rather than relaxed functional constraint is likely responsible.

#### Comparison between Human Lineage and Chimpanzee Lineage

Another important question is whether nervous system genes show different  $K_a/K_s$  between the human lineage and the chimpanzee lineage after the divergence of these two lineages. To address this question, we obtained chimpanzee sequences for both the primate-fast outliers and the control group. We then used macaque as an outgroup to partition human-chimpanzee divergence into separate human and chimpanzee branches. For the primate-fast outliers, the  $K_a/K_s$  of the human branch is considerably higher than the chimpanzee branch (Figure 6B). For the control genes, the two lineages show comparable and statistically indistinguishable  $K_a/K_s$  values (Figure 6B).

An important caveat in the above analysis is ascertainment bias. The primate-fast outliers were expected to show higher  $K_a/K_s$  in the human terminal branch (i.e.,

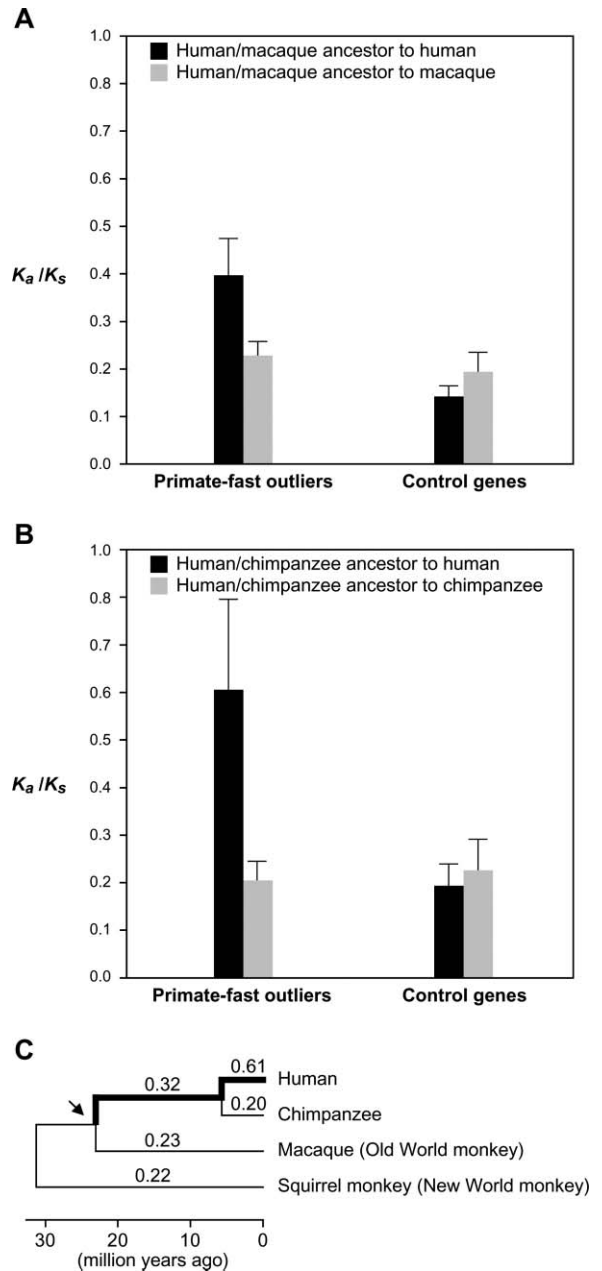


Figure 6. Evolutionary Rates of the Primate-Fast Outliers and the Control Group of Nervous System Genes in Different Primate Lineages

(A) Comparison between the lineage from human-macaque ancestor to human and the lineage to macaque.

(B) Comparison between the lineage from human-chimpanzee ancestor to human and the lineage to chimpanzee.

(C) Phylogenetic tree depicting  $K_a/K_s$  values along the primate lineage leading to humans (bolded lines) and in nonhuman primate lineages (plain lines). Note that the  $K_a/K_s$  value shown next to the squirrel monkey branch applies to the entire lineage from the catarrhine ancestor node (indicated by arrow) to squirrel monkey.

from human-chimpanzee ancestors to humans) than in the chimpanzee terminal branch, due to the fact that these genes were ascertained on the basis of elevated  $K_a/K_s$  in the human-to-macaque lineage (which subsumes the human terminal branch). We therefore performed computer simulations to evaluate the extent to

Table 1. Nervous System Genes Showing Significantly Faster Evolution in Either Primates or Rodents

Gene Class	Gene Symbol	Gene Name	Function in Nervous System	Nervous System Phenotype of Mutants	Primate		Rodent		References		
					Ka	Ks	Ka/Ks	Ka		Ks	Ka/Ks
Developmental	<i>ASPM</i>	Abnormal spindle-like microcephaly associated	A spindle-associated protein implicated in determining cerebral cortical size, presumably by regulating neural progenitor division and differentiation of the apoptosis pathway during neural precursor proliferation	Human homozygous mutations cause primary microcephaly, which is characterized by severely reduced brain size without other overt neuropathologies or dysmorphic features.	0.020	0.041	0.488	0.083	0.238	0.349	Bond et al., 2002
	<i>CASP3</i>	Caspase 3	A protease involved in the activation of the apoptosis pathway during neural precursor proliferation	Mouse homozygous mutants show marked brain ventricular zone expansion, exencephaly, and ectopic neuronal structures.	0.022	0.040	0.550	0.035	0.322	0.109	Kuida et al., 1996
	<i>DVL1</i>	Dishevelled 1	A PDZ-domain-containing protein involved in the Wnt signaling pathway	Dominant-negative mutation of <i>Dishevelled</i> in frog causes failure of neural axis formation. Mouse homozygous mutants show defects in social behavior, such as huddling, whisker trimming, and nest building, and in sensorimotor gating.	0.009	0.137	0.066	0.002	0.100	0.020	Sokol, 1996; Lijam et al., 1997
	<i>LHX1</i>	LIM homeo box 1	A transcription factor essential in organizing the anterior structures during development	Mouse homozygous mutants lack brain and other anterior head structures, but show normal development in the remaining body axis.	0.006	0.075	0.080	0.002	0.141	0.014	Shawlot et al., 1995
	<i>MCPH1</i>	Microcephalin	Implicated in the control of brain size, presumably by affecting the proliferation of neural progenitors	Human homozygous mutation leads to primary microcephaly.	0.040	0.048	0.833	0.070	0.146	0.479	Jackson et al., 2002
	<i>NRCAM</i>	Neuronal cell adhesion molecule	A cell adhesion molecule involved in developmental signaling of the nervous system	Mouse homozygous mutants show failure of cerebellar granule cells to extend neurites in vitro and reduced cerebellum size in vivo.	0.019	0.085	0.224	0.009	0.177	0.051	Sakurai et al., 2001
	<i>NTRK3</i>	Neurotrophic tyrosine kinase receptor, type 3	A tyrosine kinase receptor for neurotrophin 3	Mouse homozygous mutants fail to develop proprioceptive sensory neurons.	0.003	0.068	0.044	0.000	0.134	0.000	Klein et al., 1994
	<i>PAFAH1B1</i>	Platelet-activating factor acetylhydrolase, 1B, alpha subunit	An acetylhydrolase implicated in microtubule function during neuronal migration	Human heterozygous mutations cause severely reduced brain size (microcephaly) and lack of brain folding (lissencephaly). Mouse heterozygous mutants show impaired neuronal migration during development.	0.005	0.048	0.104	0.000	0.057	0.000	Reiner et al., 1993; Cahana et al., 2001
	<i>SHH</i>	Sonic hedgehog	A signaling molecule involved in specifying ventral structures of the central nervous system, and in driving the expansion of the developing brain	Human heterozygous mutations cause severely reduced brain size (microcephaly) and fusion of the two cerebral hemispheres (holoprosencephaly). Mouse homozygous mutants lack ventral structures of the central nervous system, and display severe underdevelopment of the brain and holoprosencephaly.	0.029	0.091	0.319	0.021	0.163	0.129	Belloni et al., 1996; Roessler et al., 1996; Chiang et al., 1996
Physiological	<i>AANAT</i>	Arylalkylamine N-acetyltransferase	An enzyme that converts serotonin to N-acetylserotonin, the penultimate step in melatonin synthesis	Mouse homozygous mutants (found naturally in many inbred lines) have altered activity levels and circadian behavior.	0.032	0.079	0.405	0.023	0.266	0.086	Roseboom et al., 1998
	<i>ADCYAP1</i>	Adenylylcyclase-activating peptide1	An adenylylcyclase-stimulating hormone secreted from hypothalamus	Mouse homozygous mutants show remarkable behavioral changes including hyperactivity, explosive jumping, increased exploratory behavior, and less anxiety.	0.074	0.113	0.655	0.034	0.191	0.178	Hashimoto et al., 2001
	<i>CHRM5</i>	Acetylcholine receptor, muscarinic, 5	A member of the muscarinic subtype of acetylcholine receptors	Mouse homozygous mutants show defective reward/withdrawal response to morphine, and failure in acetylcholine-mediated dilation of cerebral blood vessels.	0.021	0.034	0.618	0.018	0.118	0.153	Yamada et al., 2001



Table 1. Continued.

Gene Class	Gene Symbol	Gene Name	Function in Nervous System	Nervous System Phenotype of Mutants	Primate		Rodent		References		
					Ka	Ks	Ka/Ks	Ka		Ks	Ka/Ks
	<i>CHRNA2</i>	Cholinergic receptor, neuronal nicotinic, $\alpha 2$	A member of the nicotinic subtype of acetylcholine-gated ion channels	Not available.	0.036	0.124	0.290	0.016	0.339	0.047	Elliott et al., 1996
	<i>CHRNA5</i>	Cholinergic receptor, neuronal nicotinic, $\alpha 5$	A member of the nicotinic subtype of acetylcholine-gated ion channels	Not available.	0.015	0.062	0.242	0.011	0.289	0.038	Boulter et al., 1990
	<i>DRD2</i>	Dopamine receptor D2	A member of the dopamine receptor family	Mouse homozygous mutants show suppression of morphine-mediated reward behavior and slow movement resembling Parkinson disease.	0.005	0.042	0.119	0.000	0.115	0.000	Maldonado et al., 1997; Baik et al., 1995
	<i>GRIK4</i>	Glutamate receptor, ionotropic kainate, 4	A member of the kainate subtype of glutamate-gated ion channels	Not available.	0.003	0.030	0.100	0.002	0.123	0.016	Szpirer et al., 1994
	<i>GRIN2A</i>	Glutamate receptor, ionotropic NMDA, 2A	A member of the NMDA subtype of glutamate-gated ion channels	Mouse homozygous mutants show deficits in spatial learning and synaptic plasticity.	0.008	0.063	0.127	0.007	0.164	0.043	Sakimura et al., 1995
	<i>OPRM1</i>	Oxytocin receptor	A G-protein-coupled receptor for opioid ligands	Mouse homozygous mutants show defect in morphine-mediated analgesia and reward response.	0.012	0.049	0.245	0.026	0.235	0.111	Matthes et al., 1996
Unclassified	<i>CSPG3</i>	Chondroitin sulfate proteoglycan 3	A chondroitin sulfate proteoglycan implicated in neuronal adhesion and migration	Mouse homozygous mutants are overtly normal, with mild deficits in synaptic plasticity.	0.029	0.065	0.446	0.059	0.188	0.314	Zhou et al., 2001
	<i>DPPX</i>	Dipeptidyl peptidase IV related	A dipeptidyl-peptidase-like protein expressed predominantly in the brain	Not available	0.008	0.076	0.105	0.006	0.181	0.033	Wada et al., 1992
	<i>GDI1</i>	GDP dissociation inhibitor 1	A protein that inhibits RAB-mediated GDP-GTP exchange by preventing dissociation of GDP from RAB	Human mutations cause several forms of X-linked nonspecific mental retardation. Mouse homozygous mutants show impaired short-term memory and social behavior. Not available.	0.002	0.057	0.035	0.000	0.142	0.000	D'Adamo et al., 1998, 2002
	<i>LYNX1</i>	Lynx1	A neuronal membrane molecule highly expressed in the brain and linked to the modulation of neuronal nicotinic acetylcholine receptors	Not available.	0.030	0.086	0.349	0.000	0.221	0.000	Miwa et al., 1999
	<i>PEG3</i>	Paternally expressed gene 3	A maternally imprinted zinc finger protein implicated in the TNF signaling pathway	Female mutant mice show impaired nurturing behavior and reduced milk ejection due to reduced hypothalamic oxytocin neurons.	0.024	0.077	0.312	0.032	0.170	0.188	Li et al., 1999
	<i>TTR</i>	Transthyretin	A thyroid hormone carrier highly expressed in choroid plexus and constituting a major protein component of cerebrospinal fluid	Mouse homozygous mutants have reduced thyroid hormone levels but are overtly normal.	0.035	0.060	0.583	0.041	0.273	0.150	Episkopou et al., 1993
B. Genes Showing Faster Evolution in Rodents											
Developmental	<i>ASCL1</i>	Achaete-scute complex like 1	A transcription factor involved in the development of olfactory, autonomic, and enteric neurons	Mouse homozygous mutants die at birth and lack olfactory and autonomic neurons.	0.000	0.111	0.000	0.024	0.189	0.127	Guillemot et al., 1993
	<i>NEUROD2</i>	Neurogenic differentiation 2	A transcription factor involved in inducing neural precursor cells to undergo neuronal differentiation	Mouse homozygous mutants die a few weeks after birth and show reduced cerebellar granular cell layer.	0.001	0.049	0.020	0.047	0.136	0.346	Olsen et al., 2001
Physiological	<i>PPT1</i>	Palmitoyl-protein thioesterase 1	An enzyme that removes palmitate groups from lipid-modified proteins	Mouse homozygous mutations develop motor defects such as spasticity and die by 10 months of age. Human homozygous mutations cause neuronal ceroid lipofuscinosis.	0.000	0.054	0.000	0.025	0.253	0.253	Vesa et al., 1995; Gupta et al., 2001

which this ascertainment bias would result in elevated  $K_a/K_s$  in the human terminal branch. They showed that for the primate-fast outliers, ascertainment bias would indeed lead to an average  $K_a/K_s$  of the human terminal branch being higher than that of the chimpanzee branch. However, the actual  $K_a/K_s$  disparity between the human and the chimpanzee terminal branches is greater than that expected from ascertainment bias alone ( $p = 0.04$ ; see Experimental Procedures). This suggests that ascertainment bias is unlikely to fully account for—though it clearly contributes to—the observed disparity in  $K_a/K_s$  between the human and the chimpanzee terminal branches.

With sequences of the primate-fast outliers available in four primate taxa (human, chimpanzee, macaque, and squirrel monkey), we constructed a phylogenetic tree and calculated  $K_a/K_s$  for each segment of the tree (Figure 6C). Clearly, the segments that lie along the lineage leading to humans (bolded in Figure 6C) have notably higher  $K_a/K_s$  than segments that branch away from this lineage.

The above data reinforce the notion that  $K_a/K_s$  values of nervous system genes in primates are especially elevated in the lineage leading from ancestral primates to humans, and that this trend has likely continued through recent human evolution.

## Discussion

In this study, we examined the molecular evolution of an extensive set of nervous system-related genes in primates. We demonstrated that their average rate of protein evolution as scaled to neutral divergence (i.e., the  $K_a/K_s$  ratio) is significantly higher in primates than in rodents. One possible interpretation is adaptive evolution of these genes in primates, but it could also be due to relaxed functional constraint. We note, however, that brain size and complexity are much greater in primates than in rodents, which likely places stiffer demands on the functional precision of genes. It is therefore difficult to envision the relaxation of functional constraint as a major force in the evolution of the primate nervous system. This argument notwithstanding, we sought additional evidence that might bolster the case of adaptive evolution.

First, we examined a large set of housekeeping genes and noted that there is no significant primate-rodent disparity in the  $K_a/K_s$  of these genes. This argues that the primate-rodent  $K_a/K_s$  disparity seen in nervous system genes is not a nonspecific, genome-wide phenomenon.

Second, we classified our nervous system genes into functional categories. We found that the subgroup of nervous system genes with developmentally biased functions displayed much greater primate-rodent  $K_a/K_s$  disparity than the entire set of genes. In contrast, the  $K_a/K_s$  of genes that function predominantly in the routine physiological operations and maintenance of the nervous system showed much less primate-rodent disparity. The latter observation argues against reduced functional constraint on the primate nervous system per se, and together, these results are more consistent with the notion of adaptive evolution.

Third, we found that the average  $K_a/K_s$  of primate-

fast outliers (i.e., those nervous system genes exhibiting significantly higher  $K_a/K_s$  in primates than in rodents) is considerably higher in the lineage leading from human-macaque ancestors to humans than the lineage leading to macaques. Furthermore, these same genes were also found to have evolved with much higher  $K_a/K_s$  in the human terminal branch than the chimpanzee branch after human-chimpanzee divergence. This disparity was not seen in a control set of nervous system genes that evolved at comparable rates between primates and rodents.

Fourth, mutations in many nervous system genes, including those with significantly higher  $K_a/K_s$  in primates, have been shown to cause severe nervous system defects in humans (Table 1A). This obviously does not support the notion of functional relaxation in these genes during human evolution.

Fifth, there is no evidence of recent duplications involving any of the genes studied (data not shown), which rules out the possibility of increased genetic redundancy for these genes in primates.

Finally, concurrent with the present study, more detailed evolutionary analyses were performed on two genes included in this study, *ASPM* and *MCPH1*, which have since been published by us and other groups (Zhang, 2003; Evans et al., 2004b; Kouprina et al., 2004; Evans et al., 2004a; Wang and Su, 2004). These detailed analyses, motivated by the observation that these two genes are involved critically and specifically in regulating brain size during development (Bond et al., 2002; Jackson et al., 2002), indeed revealed multiple lines of evidence in support of their adaptive evolution in primates and particularly in the primate lineage leading to humans. These include (1) significantly higher  $K_a/K_s$  in primates than in nonprimate mammals in addition to rodents, (2) much higher  $K_a/K_s$  in the primate lineage leading to humans than in the other primate lineages, (3) a preponderance of evolutionary signatures supporting the presence of positive selection in the lineage leading to humans, such as  $K_a/K_s > 1$  for portions of this lineage and highly significant departure from the neutral expectation of the McDonald-Kreitman test (McDonald and Kreitman, 1991), and (4) evidence that strong positive selection tends to be focused within specific domains of these genes. Other genes not included in this study, such as *FOXP2*, *AHI1*, and *GLUD2*, have also revealed a possible link between alterations in protein sequences and phenotypic evolution of the human brain (Enard et al., 2002b; Ferland et al., 2004; Burki and Kaessmann, 2004).

Collectively, the above results argue against the possibility of relaxed functional constraint on the primate nervous system. Instead, they are more consistent with the interpretation that higher  $K_a/K_s$  of nervous system genes in primates—especially along the lineage leading to humans—is a reflection of adaptive evolution.

Indeed, as first recognized by Charles Darwin, adaptive evolution must have played a key role in driving the acquisition of greater cognitive powers in humans (Darwin, 1871). It is therefore reasonable to suppose that positive selection on genes involved in nervous system biology should have operated more intensely during the descent of humans than in species showing less dramatic cognitive evolution. However, researchers

have not been able to make a priori predictions regarding how intensified selection on the nervous system might have molded the molecular evolution of the primate genome. For example, it has remained a matter of speculation as to whether brain evolution involved a small number of key mutations in a few genes or a very large number of mutations in many genes (Carroll, 2003). It was also not known whether evolutionarily important mutations have occurred predominantly in regulatory sequences or coding regions (King and Wilson, 1975; McConkey et al., 2000; McConkey, 2002; Olson and Varki, 2003; Carroll, 2003), though preliminary data suggest that gene expression patterns of the human brain might have evolved rapidly (Enard et al., 2002a; Caceres et al., 2003; Uddin et al., 2004). Whereas our study does not address all these important questions, it does argue that the evolution of the brain in primates and particularly humans is likely contributed to by a large number of mutations in the coding regions of many underlying genes, especially genes with developmentally biased functions.

Might genes involved in tissues other than the nervous system also display accelerated evolution in primates? We argue that this is a distinct possibility given the precedent found in nervous system genes. In particular, accelerated evolution of genes might be found in tissue systems that are especially relevant to the adaptation of primates, such as the immune system, the digestive system, the reproductive system, the integumentary system, and the skeletal system.

Recent discussions surrounding the genetic origin of humans have placed a great emphasis on human-chimpanzee comparative genomics. Undoubtedly, this approach has revealed—and will continue to reveal—genetic differences that might underlie the biological distinctions between these two sister species (Chou et al., 1998, 2002; Enard et al., 2002b; Clark et al., 2003; Stedman et al., 2004). Because of the exceedingly high degree of sequence identity between human and chimpanzee genomes, however, comparative studies often lack statistical power, and in many cases would overlook genetic differences that bear biological relevance. The issue of weak statistical power in human-chimpanzee sequence comparisons has been noted before (Shi et al., 2003) and is supported by our simulation studies showing that the average stochastic variance in  $K_s$  as a fraction of the true underlying mutation rate is about twice in human-chimpanzee comparison as it is in human-macaque comparison (our unpublished data). Relative to human-chimpanzee comparisons, our approach offers two important advantages. First, the use of a more distant primate species for comparison with humans provides the much needed statistical power for determining the evolutionary significance of sequence changes. Second, the use of nonprimate mammals as “controls” allows for the identification of primate-specific evolutionary signatures. We therefore propose that our methodology is a valuable complement to human-chimpanzee comparisons in probing the genetic basis of human origins.

In summary, our study revealed the following broad themes that characterize the molecular evolution of the nervous system in primates and particularly in humans. First, genes underlying nervous system biology exhibit

higher average rate of protein evolution as scaled to neutral divergence in primates than in rodents. Second, such a trend is contributed to by a large number of genes. Third, this trend is most prominent for genes implicated in the development of the nervous system. Fourth, within primates, the evolution of these genes is especially accelerated in the lineage leading to humans. Based on these themes, we argue that accelerated protein evolution in a large cohort of nervous system genes, which is particularly pronounced for genes involved in nervous system development, represents a salient genetic correlate to the profound changes in brain size and complexity during primate evolution, especially along the lineage leading to *Homo sapiens*. Besides revealing broad evolutionary themes, our study also identified a set of genes whose molecular evolution might have contributed to the phenotypic evolution of the brain in primates. In-depth analyses of these genes might yield further insights into how changes in specific genes contribute to the emergence of primate- or human-specific traits.

#### Experimental Procedures

##### Sequence Acquisition

Standard RT-PCR protocols were employed to amplify coding sequences from the Old World monkey, crab-eating macaque (*Macaca fascicularis*), followed by sequencing of PCR product. Amplicons were designed to be 500–700 bp in length with a minimum of 50–75 bp of overlap between adjacent amplicons. Nervous system genes were amplified from cDNA combined from all major regions of the brain. Housekeeping genes were amplified from cDNA combined from the heart, lung, liver, kidney, and the pooled brain sample. Squirrel monkey (*Saimiri boliviensis*) sequences were obtained in a similar manner from brain tissue. For chimpanzee (*Pan troglodytes*), amplification was performed on genomic DNA. PCR primers to amplify nonhuman primate genes were designed based on orthologous human cDNA sequences. If a particular set of primers failed, new primers would be designed until successful primers were obtained. In rare cases of single-nucleotide polymorphisms, the derived allele was ignored because it did not represent fixed difference between species. Additional sequences, including human, chimpanzee, macaque, squirrel monkey, rat, and mouse, were obtained from public databases.

##### Inference of Ancestral Sequences

The human-macaque and the human-chimpanzee ancestral sequences were inferred using the PAMP program available in the PAML v.3.13 software package as previously described (Yang et al., 1995). Orthologous sequences from human, macaque, and squirrel monkey were used to infer the human-macaque ancestral sequences. Similarly, orthologous sequences from human, chimpanzee, and macaque were used to infer the human-chimpanzee ancestral sequences. In rare cases where there was ambiguity in inferring the ancestral nucleotide (i.e., the three taxa each had a different nucleotide at a given position), the corresponding codon was disregarded from the analysis. To obtain  $K_a/K_s$  of a terminal phylogenetic branch, inferred sequences at the ancestral node of the branch were compared with sequences at the terminal node. To obtain  $K_a/K_s$  of an internal branch, inferred sequences at one ancestral node were compared with inferred sequences at the other ancestral node.

##### Sequence Analysis and Tests of Statistical Significance

Orthologous coding sequences were aligned in frame using the Pileup and Framealign programs from the Wisconsin Package v10.2 (Accelrys Inc., San Diego, California). The Diverge program from the same package was employed to calculate evolutionary parameters by the Li method (Li, 1993), including the total numbers of nonsynonymous (A) and synonymous (S) substitutions corrected for multiple hits and transition/transversion bias, and  $K_a$  and  $K_s$ . The average

$K_a/K_s$  for a group of genes was calculated as the ratio of average  $K_a$  and average  $K_s$ . The error bar of average  $K_a/K_s$  was generated by bootstrap simulation. To evaluate the statistical significance that the evolutionary rates of a group of genes differ between two lineages, a  $2 \times 2$  contingency table was built, with the four entries being the total A and S values in either of the two lineages. Two-tailed Fisher's exact test was then applied to the table to obtain statistical significance that evolutionary rates differed between the two lineages. One-tailed Fisher's exact test was used to test the significance by which an individual gene had significantly higher  $K_a/K_s$  in one lineage versus the other. Given that this test utilizes the total numbers of nonsynonymous and synonymous changes, it is possible that a gene might have substantially higher  $K_a/K_s$  in one lineage than in the other, and yet the difference does not reach statistical significance because the total numbers of nonsynonymous and synonymous substitutions are low (as in short genes). Conversely, it is also possible that the  $K_a/K_s$  of a gene is only moderately higher in one lineage than in the other, and yet the difference is statistically significant because of the large number of substitutions involved (as in long genes). To evaluate the significance of the inequality in the number of genes with higher  $K_a/K_s$  in one lineage versus the number of genes with higher  $K_a/K_s$  in the other lineage, the two-tailed binomial test was used. To assess the significance that two sets of  $K_a/K_s$  values had distinct distributions, we used the nonparametric Wilcoxon signed-rank test, which evaluated the likelihood of the null hypothesis that two sets of paired data were drawn from the same underlying distribution (Hollander and Wolfe, 1999). We also used the nonparametric Kolmogorov-Smirnov test for the same purpose (Hollander and Wolfe, 1999), which in all cases confirmed the results of the Wilcoxon test.

#### Computer Simulations

Simulations were performed to assess the extent to which the ascertainment of the primate-fast outliers would elevate the  $K_a/K_s$  of these genes in the human terminal branch (i.e., from human-chimpanzee ancestors to humans) relative to the chimpanzee terminal branch. We considered a phylogenetic tree as depicted in Supplemental Figure S1 at <http://www.cell.com/cgi/content/full/119/7/1027/DC1>. Four lineages in this tree were germane to the analysis: human-chimpanzee ancestor to human, human-chimpanzee ancestor to chimpanzee, human-chimpanzee ancestor to macaque, and rat to mouse. The levels of neutral divergence in these four lineages were set at a ratio of 6:6:62:174. This ratio was set according to published genome-typical  $K_s$  rates, which are 0.012 between human and chimpanzee (Chen et al., 2001), 0.068 between human and macaque (Yi et al., 2002), and 0.174 between rat and mouse (Gibbs et al., 2004). For each outlier gene, we performed simulations under the null assumption that the substitution rate (either nonsynonymous or synonymous) after scaling to neutral divergence is constant across all four lineages. By this assumption, any enrichment or deficit of substitutions in a given lineage (including situations that would produce significantly higher human-macaque  $K_a/K_s$  than rat-mouse  $K_a/K_s$ ) is the result of stochastic fluctuation. As the first step of the simulation, the total numbers of nonsynonymous (A) and synonymous (S) substitutions of the gene observed for both the human-to-macaque and the rat-to-mouse lineages were summed. The resulting numbers were then scaled up by 6/242 to correct for the addition of the chimpanzee terminal branch in the phylogeny. These corrected A and S numbers were apportioned onto the four lineages based on the 6:6:62:174 ratio to obtain the number of substitutions on each lineage as expected under the null assumption of equal evolutionary rates across lineages. For an individual lineage, simulation was performed to generate the number of substitutions that followed the Poisson distribution and with a mean being the expected number of substitutions. The subset of repetitions for which the human-macaque A and S numbers match that observed for the gene was selected for further analysis. This procedure was performed for all the primate-fast outliers, which produced one aforementioned subset of simulated data per gene. One data point per subset was then randomly selected to create a simulated outlier data set. By generating 100,000 such simulated outlier data sets, we were able to obtain the probability by which a simulated outlier data set produced A/S ratio disparity between the human and the

chimpanzee terminal branches that was as great as or greater than the observed disparity.

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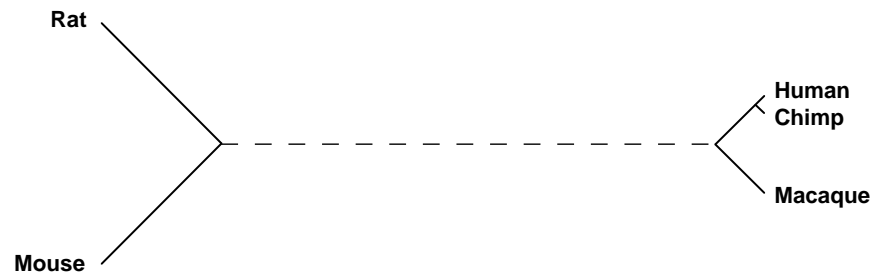
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### Supplemental Figure S1



**Supplemental Figure S1:** Phylogeny of the five taxa used in simulating the extent to which ascertainment bias in selecting primate-fast outliers would create  $K_a/K_s$  disparity between the human and the chimpanzee terminal branches. Lineages represented by solid lines are drawn to scale of genome-typical neutral sequence divergence (see Experimental Procedures for detail).





	<i>SEMA4F</i>	SEMAPHORIN 4F	SEMAPHORIN W (SEMAW); SEMAPHORIN M (SEMAM)	0.010	0.065	0.154	0.004	0.120	0.033	444	NM_004263	AB047604	NM_011350	NM_019272
	<i>SHH</i> *	SONIC HEDGEHOG		0.029	0.091	0.319	0.021	0.163	0.129	795	NM_000193	AY650323	NM_009170	NM_017221
	<i>SLC25A19</i>	SOLUTE CARRIER FAMILY 25, MEMBER 19	AMISH MICROCEPHALY, MCPHA; MITOCHONDRIAL DEOXYNUCLEOTIDE CARRIER, DNC;	0.015	0.089	0.169	0.020	0.249	0.080	963	NM_021734	AY665293	NM_026071	XM_221118
	<i>SLIT1</i>	SLIT, DROSOPHILA, HOMOLOG OF, 1	MITOCHONDRIAL UNCOUPLING PROTEIN 1, MUP1 SLI1; MULTIPLE EPIDERMAL GROWTH FACTOR-LIKE DOMAINS 4 (MEGF4)	0.008	0.080	0.100	0.012	0.179	0.067	3102	NM_003061	AY650311	NM_015748	NM_022953
	<i>TGIF</i>	TRANSFORMING GROWTH FACTOR-BETA-INDUCED FACTOR		0.013	0.082	0.159	0.023	0.200	0.115	735	NM_170695	AY650366	NM_009372	XM_237524
	<i>TWIST</i>	TWIST, DROSOPHILA, HOMOLOG OF	TRANSCRIPTION FACTOR TWIST	0.003	0.068	0.044	0.002	0.082	0.024	603	NM_000474	AY369851	NM_011658	NM_053530
	<i>ZIC5</i>	ZIC FAMILY MEMBER 5		0.007	0.036	0.194	0.006	0.113	0.027	423	NM_033132	BV208923	NM_022987	XM_341380
Physiological	<i>AANAT</i> *	ARYLALKYLAMINE N-ACETYLTRANSFERASE	SEROTONIN N-ACETYLTRANSFERASE (SNAT)	0.032	0.079	0.405	0.023	0.266	0.086	606	NM_001088	U46661	NM_009591	NM_012818
	<i>ADCYAP1</i> *	ADENYLYLCYCLASE-ACTIVATING PEPTIDE 1		0.074	0.113	0.655	0.034	0.191	0.178	483	NM_001117	AY775945	NM_009625	NM_016989
	<i>ADORA1</i>	ADENOSINE A1 RECEPTOR	RDC7	0.003	0.081	0.037	0.007	0.140	0.050	888	NM_000674	AY650342	NM_009629	NM_017155
	<i>ALDP</i>	ADRENOLEUKODYSTROPHY PROTEIN, INCLUDED	ATP-BINDING CASSETTE, SUBFAMILY D, MEMBER 1 (ABCD1); ADRENOMYELONEUROPATHY (AMN)	0.005	0.079	0.063	0.007	0.080	0.088	1206	NM_000033	AY650324	NM_007435	XM_343840
	<i>APP</i>	AMYLOID BETA A4 PRECURSOR PROTEIN	AMYLOID OF AGING AND ALZHEIMER DISEASE (AA); CEREBRAL VASCULAR AMYLOID PEPTIDE (CVAP)	0.001	0.066	0.015	0.005	0.209	0.024	2085	NM_000484	M58727	NM_007471	NM_019288
	<i>ATP1A3</i>	ATPase, Na+/K+ TRANSPORTING, ALPHA-3 POLYPEPTIDE	SODIUM-POTASSIUM-ATPase, ALPHA-3 POLYPEPTIDE	0.000	0.099	0.000	0.000	0.180	0.000	609	NM_152296	BQ807995	NM_144921	NM_012506
	<i>BCHE</i>	BUTYRYLCHOLINESTERASE	PSEUDOCHOLINESTERASE E1 (CHE1)	0.000	0.044	0.000	0.027	0.231	0.117	423	NM_000055	M62777	NM_009738	NM_022942
	<i>CADPS</i>	CALCIUM-DEPENDENT ACTIVATOR PROTEIN FOR SECRETION	CAPS	0.000	0.059	0.000	0.006	0.240	0.025	606	NM_003716	AY650343	NM_012061	NM_013219
	<i>CHRM1</i>	CHOLINERGIC RECEPTOR, MUSCARINIC, 1	ACETYLCHOLINE RECEPTOR, MUSCARINIC, 1	0.003	0.053	0.057	0.008	0.136	0.059	1380	NM_000738	AF026262	NM_007698	NM_080773
	<i>CHRM2</i>	CHOLINERGIC RECEPTOR, MUSCARINIC, 2	ACETYLCHOLINE RECEPTOR, MUSCARINIC, 2	0.004	0.058	0.069	0.015	0.224	0.067	600	NM_000739	AF512348	NM_203491	NM_031016
	<i>CHRM3</i>	CHOLINERGIC RECEPTOR, MUSCARINIC, 3	ACETYLCHOLINE RECEPTOR, MUSCARINIC, 3	0.000	0.047	0.000	0.004	0.101	0.040	363	NM_000740	AF512351	NM_033269	NM_012527
	<i>CHRM4</i>	CHOLINERGIC RECEPTOR, MUSCARINIC, 4	ACETYLCHOLINE RECEPTOR, MUSCARINIC, 4	0.000	0.040	0.000	0.000	0.083	0.000	232	NM_000741	AF148140	NM_007699	XM_345403
	<i>CHRM5</i> *	CHOLINERGIC RECEPTOR, MUSCARINIC, 5	ACETYLCHOLINE RECEPTOR, MUSCARINIC, 5	0.021	0.034	0.618	0.018	0.118	0.153	1596	NM_012125	AF026264	NM_205783	NM_017362
	<i>CHRNA2</i> *	CHOLINERGIC RECEPTOR, NEURONAL NICOTINIC, ALPHA POLYPEPTIDE 2	ACETYLCHOLINE RECEPTOR, NEURONAL NICOTINIC, ALPHA-2 SUBUNIT	0.036	0.124	0.290	0.016	0.339	0.047	279	NM_000742	AJ245971	NM_144803	NM_133420
	<i>CHRNA3</i>	CHOLINERGIC RECEPTOR, NEURONAL NICOTINIC, ALPHA POLYPEPTIDE 3	ACETYLCHOLINE RECEPTOR, NEURONAL NICOTINIC, ALPHA-3 SUBUNIT	0.006	0.068	0.088	0.028	0.231	0.121	369	NM_000743	AJ245972	NM_145129	NM_052805
	<i>CHRNA4</i>	CHOLINERGIC RECEPTOR, NEURONAL NICOTINIC, ALPHA POLYPEPTIDE 4	ACETYLCHOLINE RECEPTOR, NEURONAL NICOTINIC, ALPHA-4 SUBUNIT	0.034	0.113	0.301	0.037	0.175	0.211	558	NM_000744	AJ245973	NM_015730	NM_024354
	<i>CHRNA5</i> *	CHOLINERGIC RECEPTOR, NEURONAL NICOTINIC, ALPHA POLYPEPTIDE 5	ACETYLCHOLINE RECEPTOR, NEURONAL NICOTINIC, ALPHA-5 SUBUNIT	0.015	0.062	0.242	0.011	0.289	0.038	552	NM_000745	AJ245974	NM_176844	NM_017078
	<i>CHRNA6</i>	CHOLINERGIC RECEPTOR, NEURONAL NICOTINIC, ALPHA POLYPEPTIDE 6	ACETYLCHOLINE RECEPTOR, NEURONAL NICOTINIC, ALPHA-6 SUBUNIT	0.024	0.096	0.250	0.057	0.188	0.303	588	NM_004198	AJ245975	NM_021369	NM_057184
	<i>CHRNA7</i>	CHOLINERGIC RECEPTOR, NEURONAL NICOTINIC, ALPHA POLYPEPTIDE 7	ACETYLCHOLINE RECEPTOR, NEURONAL NICOTINIC, ALPHA-7 SUBUNIT	0.016	0.145	0.110	0.003	0.108	0.028	468	NM_000746	AF486623	NM_007390	NM_012832
	<i>CHRN2</i>	CHOLINERGIC RECEPTOR, NEURONAL NICOTINIC, BETA POLYPEPTIDE 2	ACETYLCHOLINE RECEPTOR, NEURONAL NICOTINIC, BETA-2 SUBUNIT	0.013	0.158	0.082	0.035	0.255	0.137	330	NM_000748	AJ245977	NM_009602	NM_019297
	<i>CHRN3</i>	CHOLINERGIC RECEPTOR, NEURONAL NICOTINIC, BETA POLYPEPTIDE 3	ACETYLCHOLINE RECEPTOR, NEURONAL NICOTINIC, BETA-3 SUBUNIT	0.033	0.086	0.384	0.082	0.193	0.425	231	NM_000749	AJ245978	NM_173212	NM_133597
	<i>CHRN4</i>	CHOLINERGIC RECEPTOR, NEURONAL NICOTINIC, BETA POLYPEPTIDE 4	ACETYLCHOLINE RECEPTOR, NEURONAL NICOTINIC, BETA-4 SUBUNIT	0.035	0.083	0.422	0.030	0.118	0.254	573	NM_000750	AJ245979	NM_148944	NM_052806
	<i>CLN2</i>	CEROID LIPOFUSCINOSIS, NEURONAL 2, LATE INFANTILE TYPE		0.011	0.051	0.216	0.026	0.128	0.203	1689	NM_000391	AB083308	NM_009906	NM_031357
	<i>CNR1</i>	CANNABINOID RECEPTOR 1	CB1 RECEPTOR (CB1)	0.000	0.037	0.000	0.001	0.190	0.005	1416	NM_001840	AF286025	NM_007726	NM_012784
	<i>CPLX1</i>	COMPLEXIN 1	SYNAPHIN 2	0.004	0.104	0.038	0.000	0.136	0.000	402	NM_006651	BQ807469	NM_007756	NM_022864
	<i>CRHR1</i>	CORTICOTROPIN-RELEASING HORMONE RECEPTOR 1	CORTICOTROPIN-RELEASING FACTOR RECEPTOR (CRFR1)	0.001	0.044	0.023	0.003	0.156	0.019	840	NM_004382	AB078141	NM_007762	NM_030999
	<i>DBH</i>	DOPAMINE BETA-HYDROXYLASE	DOPAMINE BETA-MONOOXYGENASE	0.025	0.117	0.214	0.068	0.233	0.292	261	NM_000787	AF070919	NM_138942	NM_013158
	<i>DNCL1</i>	DYNEIN, CYTOPLASMIC, INTERMEDIATE CHAIN 1		0.002	0.056	0.036	0.007	0.165	0.042	1692	NM_004411	AY369807	NM_010063	NM_019234
	<i>DRD1</i>	DOPAMINE RECEPTOR D1		0.001	0.082	0.012	0.009	0.253	0.036	1236	NM_000794	AF077862	NM_010076	NM_012546
	<i>DRD2</i> *	DOPAMINE RECEPTOR D2		0.005	0.042	0.119	0.000	0.115	0.000	1221	NM_000795	U13757	NM_010077	NM_012547
	<i>DRD3</i>	DOPAMINE RECEPTOR D3		0.004	0.083	0.048	0.021	0.162	0.130	660	NM_000796	AF027358	NM_007877	NM_017140
	<i>DRD4</i>	DOPAMINE RECEPTOR D4	D4DR	0.020	0.073	0.274	0.027	0.132	0.205	273	NM_000797	AF125666	NM_007878	NM_012944
	<i>ENO2</i>	ENOLASE 2	ENOLASE, GAMMA; ENOLASE, NEURON-SPECIFIC (NSE)	0.004	0.052	0.077	0.007	0.155	0.045	1251	NM_001975	AY650330	NM_013509	NM_139325
	<i>GABRA1</i>	GAMMA-AMINOBUTYRIC ACID RECEPTOR, ALPHA-1	GABA-A RECEPTOR, ALPHA-1 POLYPEPTIDE	0.000	0.049	0.000	0.000	0.032	0.000	294	NM_000806	AF512350	NM_010250	NM_183326
	<i>GABRA2</i>	GAMMA-AMINOBUTYRIC ACID RECEPTOR, ALPHA-2	GABA-A RECEPTOR, ALPHA-2 POLYPEPTIDE	0.002	0.070	0.029	0.000	0.246	0.000	630	NM_000807	CN643273	NM_008066	XM_223378
	<i>GABRA3</i>	GAMMA-AMINOBUTYRIC ACID RECEPTOR, ALPHA-3	GABA-A RECEPTOR, ALPHA-3 POLYPEPTIDE	0.000	0.080	0.000	0.000	0.083	0.000	168	NM_000808	AFY394495	NM_008067	NM_017069
	<i>GABRA4</i>	GAMMA-AMINOBUTYRIC ACID RECEPTOR, ALPHA-4	GABA-A RECEPTOR, ALPHA-4 POLYPEPTIDE	0.013	0.057	0.228	0.039	0.189	0.206	222	NM_000809	AY394496	NM_010251	NM_080587



	SYT5	SYNAPTOTAGMIN 5		0.006	0.066	0.091	0.005	0.138	0.036	732	NM_003180	AY650317	NM_016908	NM_019350
	TUBA3	TUBULIN, ALPHA, BRAIN-SPECIFIC	B-ALPHA-1; TUBULIN, ALPHA-3 (TUBA3)	0.000	0.080	0.000	0.000	0.105	0.000	1329	NM_006009	AF141923	NM_009446	XM_345263
	USP11	UBIQUITIN-SPECIFIC PROTEASE 11	UBIQUITIN CARBOXYL-TERMINAL HYDROLASE, X-LINKED (UHX1)	0.004	0.044	0.091	0.023	0.092	0.250	411	NM_004651	AY650379	NM_145628	BN000322
	VAMP2	VESICLE-ASSOCIATED MEMBRANE PROTEIN 2	SYNAPTOBREVIN 2 (SYB2)	0.003	0.045	0.067	0.000	0.082	0.000	348	NM_014232	AF240769	NM_009497	NM_012663
Unclassified	ADAM23	A DISINTEGRIN AND METALLOPROTEINASE DOMAIN 23	METALLOPROTEINASE-LIKE, DISINTEGRIN-LIKE, AND CYSTEINE-RICH PROTEIN 3 (MDC3)	0.009	0.051	0.176	0.028	0.114	0.246	462	NM_003812	AY650341	NM_011780	XM_244124
	API5	APOPTOSIS INHIBITOR 5	FIBROBLAST GROWTH FACTOR 2-INTERACTING FACTOR 2	0.000	0.015	0.000	0.003	0.176	0.017	1455	NM_006595	AY650380	XM_123850	XM_342470
	APLP1	AMYLOID BETA A4 PRECURSOR-LIKE PROTEIN 1	AMYLOID PRECURSOR-LIKE PROTEIN (APLP)	0.012	0.039	0.308	0.010	0.104	0.096	456	NM_005166	AY650326	NM_007467	NM_017211
	APTX	APRATAXIN		0.005	0.043	0.116	0.003	0.179	0.017	504	NM_017692	AB056422	NM_025545	NM_148889
	ATP1B2	ATPase, Na+/K+ TRANSPORTING, BETA-2 POLYPEPTIDE	Na,K-ATPase BETA-2 POLYPEPTIDE; ADHESION MOLECULE ON GLIA (AMOG)	0.005	0.062	0.081	0.013	0.189	0.069	786	NM_001678	AY650327	NM_013415	NM_012505
	BAI3	BRAIN-SPECIFIC ANGIOGENESIS INHIBITOR 3		0.005	0.037	0.135	0.010	0.162	0.062	663	NM_001704	AY775949	NM_175642	XM_217367
	CDH6	CADHERIN 6	K-CADHERIN	0.000	0.064	0.000	0.009	0.241	0.037	825	NM_004932	AY650358	NM_007666	NM_012927
	CDH8	CADHERIN 8		0.002	0.085	0.024	0.013	0.117	0.111	795	NM_001796	AY650345	NM_007667	NM_053393
	CHN1	CHIMERIN 1	N-CHIMERIN (CHN); CHIMERIN, ALPHA-1; GTPase-ACTIVATING PROTEIN, RHO, 2 (ARHGAP2); RHO-GTPase-ACTIVATING PROTEIN 2 (RHOGAP2)	0.000	0.031	0.000	0.004	0.204	0.020	429	NM_001822	AB049856	NM_029716	NM_032083
	CKB	CREATINE KINASE, BRAIN TYPE	CKBB	0.013	0.053	0.245	0.013	0.161	0.081	831	NM_001823	CN802981	NM_021273	NM_012529
	CLU	CLUSTERIN	APOLIPOPROTEIN J (APOJ); SULFATED GLYCOPROTEIN 2 (SGP2); COMPLEMENT-ASSOCIATED PROTEIN SP-40,40; COMPLEMENT LYSIS INHIBITOR (CLI); TESTOSTERONE-REPPRESSED PROSTATE MESSAGE 2 (TRPM2)	0.022	0.079	0.278	0.034	0.191	0.178	1251	NM_001831	AY650328	NM_001823	NM_012679
	CNTNAP1	CONTACTIN-ASSOCIATED PROTEIN 1	CONTACTIN-ASSOCIATED PROTEIN, CASPR; p190	0.004	0.095	0.042	0.010	0.128	0.078	432	NM_003632	AF480426	NM_016782	NM_032061
	CSPG3 *	CHONDROITIN SULFATE PROTEOGLYCAN 3	NEUROCAN (NCAN)	0.029	0.065	0.446	0.059	0.188	0.314	3150	NM_004386	AY650346	NM_007789	NM_031653
	CX3CR1	CHEMOKINE, CX3C MOTIF, RECEPTOR 1	G PROTEIN-COUPLED RECEPTOR 13 (GPR13); G PROTEIN-COUPLED RECEPTOR V28 (V28)	0.018	0.065	0.281	0.016	0.129	0.124	660	NM_001337	AY185884	NM_009987	NM_133534
	DLL1	DELTA-LIKE 1	DELTA, DROSOPHILA, HOMOLOG OF, 1 (DELTA1)	0.011	0.098	0.112	0.032	0.153	0.209	1347	NM_005618	AY650368	NM_007865	NM_032063
	DPPX *	DIPEPTIDYL PEPTIDASE IV-RELATED PROTEIN	DIPEPTIDYL PEPTIDASE VI (DPP6)	0.008	0.076	0.105	0.006	0.181	0.033	1851	NM_001936	AY650347	NM_010075	NM_022850
	DPYSL3	DIHYDROPYRIMIDINASE-LIKE 3	UNC-33-LIKE PHOSPHOPROTEIN (ULIP); DIHYDROPYRIMIDINASE-RELATED PROTEIN 3 (DRP3)	0.002	0.068	0.029	0.004	0.103	0.039	690	NM_001387	AY650381	NM_009468	NM_012934
	DRPLA	DENTATORUBRAL-PALLIDOLUYSIAN ATROPHY	ATROPHIN 1 (ATN1), NOD, B37	0.012	0.056	0.214	0.044	0.251	0.175	858	NM_001940	AJ133274	NM_007881	NM_017228
	ETV5	ETS VARIANT GENE 5	ETS-RELATED MOLECULE (ERM)	0.003	0.023	0.130	0.000	0.183	0.000	408	NM_004454	AY650337	NM_023794	XM_221387
	GDI1 *	GDP DISSOCIATION INHIBITOR 1	RAB GDP-DISSOCIATION INHIBITOR, ALPHA (RABGDIA);	0.002	0.057	0.035	0.000	0.142	0.000	1332	NM_001493	AB083312	NM_010273	NM_017088
	GNAZ	GUANINE NUCLEOTIDE-BINDING PROTEIN, ALPHA Z POLYPEPTIDE		0.000	0.063	0.000	0.002	0.237	0.008	666	NM_002073	AY650382	NM_010311	NM_013189
	GPM6A	GLYCOPROTEIN M6A	NEURONAL MEMBRANE GLYCOPROTEIN M6A	0.000	0.046	0.000	0.004	0.188	0.021	756	NM_005277	AB093668	NM_153581	NM_178105
	GPR24	G PROTEIN-COUPLED RECEPTOR 24	MELANIN-CONCENTRATING HORMONE RECEPTOR 1 (MCHR1); SLC1	0.006	0.075	0.080	0.008	0.191	0.042	1059	NM_005297	AF513988	NM_145132	NM_031758
	GRCA1	GENE RICH CLUSTER, A1		0.005	0.040	0.125	0.015	0.258	0.058	510	NM_014449	AY650388	NM_013533	XM_342757
	HAPIP	HUNTINGTIN-ASSOCIATED PROTEIN-INTERACTING PROTEIN	DUO	0.001	0.083	0.012	0.006	0.106	0.057	2028	NM_003947	AY650383	XM_358803	NM_032062
	HIP1R	HUNTINGTIN-INTERACTING PROTEIN 1-RELATED PROTEIN	HUNTINGTIN-INTERACTING PROTEIN 12, HIP12	0.006	0.103	0.058	0.006	0.190	0.032	1035	XM_290592	AB093666	NM_145070	XM_213777
	HPCA	HIPPOCALCIN		0.006	0.055	0.000	0.000	0.158	0.000	552	NM_002143	AY650336	NM_010471	NM_017122
	ITM2B	INTEGRAL MEMBRANE PROTEIN 2B		0.001	0.046	0.022	0.009	0.205	0.044	798	NM_021999	AB083306	NM_008410	XM_214228
	LY6H	LYMPHOCYTE ANTIGEN 6 COMPLEX, LOCUS H		0.004	0.070	0.057	0.004	0.103	0.039	354	NM_002347	AY650310	NM_011837	XM_235426
	LYNX1 *	LYNX1, MOUSE, HOMOLOG OF		0.030	0.086	0.349	0.000	0.221	0.000	348	NM_023946	AY422956	NM_011838	Genomic
	MAP1B	MICROTUBULE-ASSOCIATED PROTEIN 1B	FUTSCH, DROSOPHILA, HOMOLOG OF, FUTSCH	0.006	0.046	0.130	0.016	0.177	0.090	858	NM_005909	AY369829	NM_008634	XM_215469
	MAPK10	MITOGEN-ACTIVATED PROTEIN KINASE 10	PROTEIN KINASE, MITOGEN-ACTIVATED, 10 (PRKM10); C-JUN KINASE 3 (JNK3)	0.000	0.039	0.000	0.007	0.169	0.041	435	NM_002753	AY650363	NM_009158	NM_012806
	MAPT	MICROTUBULE-ASSOCIATED PROTEIN TAU	MTBT1	0.002	0.077	0.026	0.006	0.227	0.026	834	NM_005910	AY369831	NM_010838	NM_017212
	MOBP	MYELIN-ASSOCIATED OLIGODENDROCYTE BASIC PROTEIN		0.008	0.032	0.250	0.000	0.085	0.000	186	NM_006501	AY650315	NM_008614	NM_012720
	NCAM1	CELL ADHESION MOLECULE, NEURAL, 1	CD56	0.004	0.047	0.085	0.026	0.208	0.125	2067	NM_000615	AY650370	NM_010875	NM_031521
	NES	NESTIN		0.040	0.060	0.667	0.089	0.166	0.536	1898	NM_006617	AY650322	NM_016701	NM_012987
	NGFB	NERVE GROWTH FACTOR, BETA SUBUNIT		0.009	0.075	0.120	0.020	0.122	0.164	648	NM_002506	AF222682	NM_013609	XM_227525
	NP25	NEURONAL PROTEIN, 25-KD, RAT, HOMOLOG OF		0.000	0.085	0.000	0.003	0.097	0.031	585	NM_013259	CO725279	NM_031676	NM_019754
	NPAS3	NEURONAL PAS DOMAIN PROTEIN 3		0.004	0.040	0.100	0.004	0.118	0.034	438	NM_022123	BV166543	NM_013780	XM_234124
	OLFM1	OLFACTOMEDIN 1	NEUROBLASTOMA PROTEIN (NOE1)	0.011	0.061	0.180	0.004	0.086	0.047	1125	NM_006334	AY650384	NM_019498	NM_053573
	OPCML	OPIOID-BINDING PROTEIN/CELL ADHESION MOLECULE-LIKE	OPIOID-BINDING CELL ADHESION MOLECULE (OBCAM)	0.005	0.053	0.094	0.012	0.107	0.112	954	NM_002545	AY650354	NM_177906	NM_053848
	PBP	PHOSPHATIDYLETHANOLAMINE-BINDING PROTEIN	RAF KINASE INHIBITOR PROTEIN; RKIP HIPPOCAMPAL CHOLINERGIC NEUROSTIMULATING PEPTIDE PRECURSOR PROTEIN; HCNP PRECURSOR PROTEIN	0.009	0.037	0.243	0.036	0.289	0.125	561	NM_002567	X73137	NM_018858	NM_017236

<i>PDE1B</i>	PHOSPHODIESTERASE 1B	PDE1B1	0.009	0.065	0.138	0.006	0.099	0.061	1608	NM_000924	AB060237	NM_008800	NM_022710
<i>PEG3</i> *	PATERNALLY EXPRESSED GENE 3		0.024	0.077	0.312	0.032	0.170	0.188	3789	NM_006210	AB051112	NM_008817	XM_218226
<i>PHYHIP</i>	PHYTANOYL-CoA HYDOXYLASE INTERACTING PROTEIN	PAHX-AP	0.000	0.070	0.000	0.000	0.149	0.000	713	NM_014759	AY650335	NM_145981	XM_224336
<i>PI12</i>	PROTEASE INHIBITOR 12	SERINE PROTEASE INHIBITOR, CLADE I, MEMBER 1 (SERPIN1); NEUROSERPIN	0.021	0.042	0.500	0.066	0.212	0.311	549	NM_005025	BQ807367	NM_009250	NM_053779
<i>POU3F2</i>	POU DOMAIN, CLASS 3, TRANSCRIPTION FACTOR 2	BRN2, MOUSE, HOMOLOG OF (BRN2); OCTAMER BINDING TRANSCRIPTION FACTOR 7 (OCT7); N-OCT-3 GENE	0.003	0.029	0.103	0.000	0.056	0.000	375	NM_005604	AY650385	NM_008899	NM_031576
<i>PPP2R2B</i>	PROTEIN PHOSPHATASE 2, REGULATORY SUBUNIT B, BETA	PP2APR55-BETA; PP2AB55-BETA; PP2AB-BETA; PR55-BETA	0.000	0.035	0.000	0.002	0.103	0.019	1296	NM_004576	AB071066	NM_028392	NM_022209
<i>PRNP</i>	PRION PROTEIN	PRION-RELATED PROTEIN (PRIP); PRP	0.015	0.112	0.134	0.014	0.163	0.086	759	NM_000311	AY382293	NM_011170	NM_012631
<i>PSEN1</i>	PRESENILIN 1		0.003	0.054	0.056	0.019	0.187	0.102	1401	NM_000021	AB083326	NM_008943	NM_019163
<i>PTPRZ1</i>	PROTEIN-TYROSINE PHOSPHATASE, RECEPTOR-TYPE, ZETA-1	HPTP-ZETA (HPTPZ); RPTP-BETA (RPTPB)	0.016	0.033	0.485	0.053	0.136	0.390	3489	NM_002851	AF424845	NM_011219	NM_013080
<i>RGS4</i>	REGULATOR OF G PROTEIN SIGNALING 4		0.000	0.056	0.000	0.009	0.147	0.061	426	NM_005613	AY650340	NM_009062	NM_017214
<i>RPH3A</i>	RABPHILIN 3A		0.005	0.070	0.071	0.010	0.201	0.050	2019	NM_014954	AY650339	NM_011286	NM_133518
<i>RTN1</i>	RETICULON 1	NEUROENDOCRINE-SPECIFIC PROTEIN (NSP)	0.003	0.059	0.051	0.000	0.068	0.000	594	NM_021136	CN646452	NM_153457	NM_053865
<i>SHC3</i>	SHC-LIKE PROTEIN, NEURONAL	NSHC	0.018	0.078	0.231	0.021	0.139	0.151	645	NM_016848	AY369841	NM_009167	AB001453
<i>SIAT8B</i>	SIALYLTRANSFERASE 8B	SIALYLTRANSFERASE X (STX)	0.004	0.058	0.069	0.004	0.097	0.041	1125	NM_006011	AY742821	NM_009181	NM_057156
<i>SNCB</i>	SYNUCLEIN, BETA		0.000	0.070	0.000	0.007	0.182	0.038	393	NM_003085	AY650316	NM_033610	NM_080777
<i>SST</i>	SOMATOSTATIN	SMST	0.000	0.057	0.000	0.000	0.093	0.000	351	NM_001048	M19318	NM_009215	NM_012659
<i>STMN1</i>	STATHMIN 1	LEUKEMIA-ASSOCIATED PHOSPHOPROTEIN p18 (LAP18); METABLASTIN	0.000	0.053	0.000	0.003	0.188	0.016	378	NM_005563	AY650331	NM_019641	NM_013101
<i>STMN2</i>	STATHMIN-LIKE 2	SUPERIOR CERVICAL GANGLIA, NEURAL SPECIFIC, 10 (SCGN10)	0.003	0.011	0.273	0.003	0.237	0.013	486	NM_007029	AY650387	NM_025285	NM_053440
<i>SYNPO</i>	SYNAPTOPODIN		0.006	0.068	0.088	0.015	0.169	0.089	762	NM_007286	AY650312	XM_129030	NM_021695
<i>TM4SF2</i>	TRANSMEMBRANE 4 SUPERFAMILY, MEMBER 2	MEMBRANE COMPONENT, X CHROMOSOME, SURFACE MARKER 1 (MXS1); TRANSMEMBRANE PROTEIN A15	0.004	0.023	0.174	0.007	0.148	0.047	636	NM_004615	AB047628	NM_019634	XM_343768
<i>TMOD2</i>	TROPOMODULIN 2	N-TROPOMODULIN (NTMOD)	0.011	0.033	0.333	0.005	0.124	0.040	333	NM_014548	CO725760	NM_016711	NM_031613
<i>TTR</i> *	TRANSTHYRETIN	PREALBUMIN, THYROXINE-BINDING (TBPA); PALB;	0.035	0.060	0.583	0.041	0.273	0.150	411	NM_000371	AY012016	NM_013697	NM_012680
<i>UCHL1</i>	UBIQUITIN CARBOXYL-TERMINAL ESTERASE L1	UBIQUITIN C-TERMINAL HYDROLASE, NEURON-SPECIFIC; PGP9.5	0.005	0.066	0.076	0.012	0.194	0.062	609	NM_004181	AB056429	NM_011670	NM_017237
<i>WWP2</i>	VW DOMAIN-CONTAINING PROTEIN 2		0.000	0.055	0.000	0.000	0.170	0.000	234	NM_007014	AY775950	NM_025830	XM_214669

\* Primate-fast outlier; \*\* Rodent-fast outlier

**Supplemental Table S2. Housekeeping Genes**

Gene Symbol	Gene Name	Other Names	Primate			Rodent			LengthS compared	Accession Numbers			
			Ka	Ks	K a/Ks	Ka	Ks	K a/Ks		Human	OWM	Mouse	Rat
ACADSB	ACYL-CoA DEHYDROGENASE, SHORT/BRANCHED CHAIN		0.022	0.042	0.524	0.044	0.242	0.182	1074	NM_001609	AY742811	NM_025826	NM_013084
ACTB	ACTIN, BETA		0.005	0.104	0.048	0.000	0.094	0.000	792	NM_001101	AF209434	NM_007393	NM_031143
ADPRT	ADP-RIBOSYLTRANSFERASE	POLY(ADP-RIBOSE) POLYMERASE (PPOL); PARP1	0.015	0.115	0.130	0.023	0.252	0.091	651	NM_001618	BQ807575	NM_007415	NM_013063
ALDOA	ALDOLASE A, FRUCTOSE-BISPHOSPHATE	FRUCTOSE 1,6-BISPHOSPHATE ALDOLASE A; ALDOLASE A (ALDA); ALDOLASE 1; FRUCTOALDOLASE A	0.003	0.089	0.034	0.003	0.131	0.023	1092	NM_000034	AB066558	NM_007438	NM_012495
ALDOC	ALDOLASE C, FRUCTOSE-BISPHOSPHATE	FRUCTOALDOLASE C (ALDC)	0.001	0.079	0.013	0.008	0.151	0.053	1092	NM_005165	AB051116	XM_126120	NM_012497
AMD1	S-ADENOSYLMETHIONINE DECARBOXYLASE		0.002	0.012	0.167	0.010	0.057	0.175	498	NM_001634	BQ807702	NM_009665	NM_031011
AP2M1	ADAPTOR-RELATED PROTEIN COMPLEX 2, MU-1 SUBUNIT	CLATHRIN-ASSOCIATED/ASSEMBLY/ADAPTOR PROTEIN, MEDIUM 1 (CLAPM1); CLATHRIN ADAPTOR PROTEIN 50 (AP50)	0.000	0.029	0.000	0.000	0.132	0.000	514	NM_004068	BQ807661	NM_009679	NM_053837
APEX	APEX NUCLEASE	APURINIC ENDONUCLEASE (APE); HUMAN APURINIC ENDONUCLEASE 1 (HAP1); REDOX FACTOR 1 (REF1)	0.000	0.056	0.000	0.004	0.165	0.024	285	NM_080649	AF455796	NM_009687	NM_024148
ARF1	ADP-RIBOSYLATION FACTOR 1		0.000	0.062	0.000	0.000	0.041	0.000	516	NM_001658	AY650309	NM_007476	NM_022518
ARHB	RAS HOMOLOG GENE FAMILY, MEMBER B	APLYSIA RAS-RELATED HOMOLOG 6 (ARH6); ONCOGENE RHO H6 (RH0H6)	0.000	0.113	0.000	0.000	0.052	0.000	480	NM_004040	BQ807624	NM_007483	NM_022542
ATP1A1	ATPase, Na+/K+ TRANSPORTING, ALPHA-1 POLYPEPTIDE	SODIUM-POTASSIUM-ATPase, ALPHA-1 POLYPEPTIDE; Na,K-ATPase, ALPHA-A CATALYTIC POLYPEPTIDE	0.000	0.096	0.000	0.000	0.163	0.000	135	NM_000701	AY742812	NM_144900	NM_012504
ATP5A1	ATP SYNTHASE, H+ TRANSPORTING, MITOCHONDRIAL F1 COMPLEX, ALPHA SUBUNIT, ISOFORM 1	MITOCHONDRIAL ATP SYNTHETASE (ATPM); MITOCHONDRIAL ATP SYNTHETASE, OLIGOMYCIN-RESISTANT (OMR)	0.008	0.038	0.211	0.017	0.311	0.055	588	NM_004046	BQ807752	NM_007505	NM_023093
BCKDK	BRANCHED CHAIN ALPHA-KETOACID DEHYDROGENASE KINASE		0.010	0.071	0.141	0.027	0.160	0.169	1236	NM_005881	AB071122	NM_009739	NM_019244
CALM1	CALMODULIN 1	PHOSPHORYLASE KINASE, DELTA SUBUNIT (PHKD)	0.000	0.043	0.000	0.003	0.309	0.010	423	NM_006888	AY650306	NM_009790	NM_031969
CAPN1	CALPAIN 1	CALPAIN, LARGE POLYPEPTIDE L1	0.007	0.091	0.077	0.009	0.193	0.047	2142	NM_005186	AF284440	NM_007600	NM_019152
CAPN2	CALPAIN 2	CALPAIN, LARGE POLYPEPTIDE L2	0.005	0.081	0.062	0.011	0.176	0.063	2100	NM_001748	AF284441	NM_009794	NM_017116
CBR1	CARBONYL REDUCTASE 1		0.030	0.087	0.345	0.064	0.161	0.398	831	NM_001757	AFB059654	NM_007620	NM_019170
CHD4	CHROMODOMAIN HELICASE DNA-BINDING PROTEIN 4	Mi2-BETA	0.003	0.047	0.064	0.008	0.108	0.074	1401	NM_001273	AY650307	NM_145979	XM_232354
COG7	COMPONENT OF OLIGOMERIC GOLGI COMPLEX 7		0.009	0.059	0.153	0.011	0.150	0.073	1758	NM_153603	AB070114	XM_133861	XM_215051
DNCL1	DYNEIN, CYTOPLASMIC, LIGHT CHAIN	PROTEIN INHIBITOR OF NEURONAL NOS (PIN)	0.000	0.035	0.000	0.000	0.140	0.000	270	NM_003746	AB056397	NM_019682	NM_053319
E1BAP5	ADENOVIRUS E1B 55-KD PROTEIN-ASSOCIATED PROTEIN 5	E1B55-ASSOCIATED PROTEIN 5	0.006	0.076	0.079	0.008	0.164	0.049	876	NM_007040	AY650289	NM_144922	XM_341807
EEF1A1	EUKARYOTIC TRANSLATION ELONGATION FACTOR 1, ALPHA-1		0.000	0.046	0.000	0.002	0.191	0.010	1269	NM_001402	AY650290	XM_203909	NM_175838
EIF2S1	EUKARYOTIC TRANSLATION INITIATION FACTOR 2, SUBUNIT 1	EUKARYOTIC TRANSLATION INITIATION FACTOR 2-ALPHA	0.000	0.024	0.000	0.000	0.152	0.000	677	NM_004094	AY650291	NM_026114	NM_019356
EIF5	EUKARYOTIC TRANSLATION INITIATION FACTOR 5		0.004	0.097	0.041	0.000	0.188	0.000	402	NM_001969	BQ807923	NM_173363	NM_020075
ENO1 **	ENOLASE 1	ENOLASE, ALPHA; PHOSPHOPYRUVATE HYDRATASE (PPH)	0.000	0.058	0.000	0.019	0.163	0.117	1209	NM_001428	AB072753	NM_023119	NM_012554
G6PD	GLUCOSE-6-PHOSPHATE DEHYDROGENASE		0.003	0.099	0.030	0.012	0.100	0.120	612	NM_000402	AF208984	NM_008062	NM_017006
GAPD	GLYCERALDEHYDE-3-PHOSPHATE DEHYDROGENASE	G3PD	0.011	0.060	0.183	0.011	0.147	0.075	942	NM_002046	CN806311	NM_008084	NM_017008
GLUL	GLUTAMATE-AMMONIA LIGASE	GLUTAMINE SYNTHETASE (GLNS)	0.000	0.051	0.000	0.018	0.304	0.059	621	NM_002065	BQ807681	NM_008131	NM_017073
GOSR1	GOLGI SNAP RECEPTOR COMPLEX MEMBER 1	GOLGI SNARE, 28-KD, GS28	0.000	0.025	0.000	0.003	0.160	0.019	537	NM_004871	AY369815	NM_016810	NM_053584
GSTM4	GLUTATHIONE S-TRANSFERASE, MU-4		0.013	0.035	0.371	0.127	0.432	0.294	558	NM_000850	AF200709	NM_008184	NM_031154
HNRPAB	HETEROGENEOUS NUCLEAR RIBONUCLEOPROTEIN A/B	APOLIPOPROTEIN B mRNA EDITING ENZYME, CATALYTIC POLYPEPTIDE 1-BINDING PROTEIN 1 (ABBP1)	0.010	0.045	0.222	0.043	0.158	0.272	549	NM_004499	AB063020	NM_010448	NM_031330
HNRPC	HETEROGENEOUS NUCLEAR RIBONUCLEOPROTEIN C		0.001	0.018	0.056	0.000	0.104	0.000	792	NM_004500	AY650292	NM_016884	XM_214160
HNRPU	HETEROGENEOUS NUCLEAR RIBONUCLEOPROTEIN U	SCAFFOLD ATTACHMENT FACTOR A, SAFA	0.001	0.054	0.019	0.000	0.159	0.000	1596	NM_004501	AB049840	NM_016805	NM_057139
HPRT1	HYPOXANTHINE GUANINE PHOSPHORIBOSYLTRANSFERASE 1	HPRT; HGPRT	0.000	0.029	0.000	0.011	0.091	0.121	654	NM_000194	S43335	NM_013556	XM_343829
HSPA5	HEAT-SHOCK 70-KD PROTEIN 5	GLUCOSE-REGULATED PROTEIN, 78-KD (GRP78); IMMUNOGLOBULIN HEAVY CHAIN-BINDING PROTEIN (BIP)	0.002	0.056	0.036	0.005	0.190	0.026	1797	NM_005347	AY650293	NM_022310	NM_023952
HSPA8	HEAT-SHOCK 70-KD PROTEIN 8	HEAT-SHOCK COGNATE PROTEIN, 71-KD (HSC71); LIPOPOLYSACCHARIDE-ASSOCIATED PROTEIN 1 (LAP1)	0.000	0.088	0.000	0.001	0.145	0.007	1815	NM_006597	AB072749	NM_031165	NM_024351
IARS	ISOLEUCYL-tRNA SYNTHETASE	ILRS	0.014	0.049	0.286	0.018	0.200	0.090	711	NM_013417	AY650302	NM_172015	XM_225196
IDH3A	ISOCITRATE DEHYDROGENASE 3, ALPHA SUBUNIT	ISOCITRATE DEHYDROGENASE, NAD(+)-SPECIFIC, MITOCHONDRIAL, ALPHA SUBUNIT	0.003	0.095	0.032	0.004	0.190	0.021	1017	NM_005530	X87172	NM_029573	NM_053638
IDH3B	ISOCITRATE DEHYDROGENASE 3, BETA SUBUNIT	ISOCITRATE DEHYDROGENASE, NAD(+)-SPECIFIC, MITOCHONDRIAL, BETA SUBUNIT	0.005	0.075	0.067	0.009	0.176	0.051	1089	NM_006899	X82632	NM_130884	XM_342518

