

parallel replacements of glutamine by glutamate in the langur and cattle lineages, though the data were also consistent with two parallel replacements of glutamate by glutamine in the rat and baboon lineages. It could, of course, be argued that it is more parsimonious to take glutamine rather than glutamate as ancestral, because then glutamine in the rat can become glutamate in the ancestor of horse and cattle lysozymes, which requires only one base change to give glycine in the horse and none to retain glutamate in cattle. But this implies that the appearance of glutamate in the ancestor of the horse and cattle was not an adaptation to foregut fermentation, and makes it difficult to argue simultaneously that it was adaptive in the langur. In any case, the worse-than-random performance of methods based on the genetic code in cases where they can be checked<sup>4</sup> suggests that it is safer simply to count amino-acid differences.

At first glance, the six sequences appear to contain abundant data that led to the initial observation that an unexpected tree showing the langur and cattle as close relatives required as few substitutions as the biologically reasonable tree. In reality, however, this result was derived from data at very few loci. Of 130 loci altogether, 47 show no variation and are not used by any method of tree construction. A further 63 show variations of the kind where any amino acid other than the main one occurs once only. Such variations contribute to tree-construction methods such as UPGMA<sup>5</sup> that are based on the table of differences, but not to minimum-length ('parsimony') methods if no assumptions are made about the likely evolutionary route from one amino acid to another<sup>6</sup>. Only 20 lead to variations in the lengths of the possible trees linking the 6 sequences, and 7 of these (loci 23, 37, 41, 88, 90, 117 and 119) do not discriminate between the two trees of particular interest. Even considering only those loci that are ignored by the minimum-length approach, UPGMA generates a tree that relates the langur and baboon sequences closely to one another, less closely to the human sequence, and more distantly to the others.

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STEWART *ET AL.* REPLY — We do not agree with Cornish-Bowden's statistical criticism. Our lysozyme sequences<sup>1</sup> were not sampled at random as he assumes. Rather, we chose representatives from two lineages that convergently lost an old function while acquiring the same set of new functions. We also required that the times when the new functions arose be recent enough to avoid the problem of multiple hits at the same amino-acid site, yet old enough to let a significant number

of amino-acid replacements accumulate. The lineages leading to langur and cow stomach lysozymes meet these requirements and they were the first functionally convergent pair to be analysed explicitly with the approach we described<sup>1</sup>. Thus, there are no empirical grounds for regarding this set of lysozyme sequences as the tail of a distribution based on numerous other protein sets, each containing a pair of functionally convergent sequences that exhibit no convergence in primary sequence. For these reasons, we continue to consider stomach lysozymes to provide the most plausible case available for convergent evolution of protein primary structures in response to known new selection pressures impinging at known times; nevertheless, we admit that the case is not yet conclusive.

Cornish-Bowden raises two other points that reflect his unwillingness to adopt methods of analysing evolutionary history and his preference of distance methods. This reticence may stem in part from his attempt to analyse variation at position 50 in six mammalian lysozymes; if his analysis had included the other lysozymes of known sequence, as ours did<sup>1</sup>, it would have been clear that convergence is the simplest explanation for the uniquely shared residues at this position. His preference for UPGMA is misguided because this method does not generate evolutionary trees; it is a purely phenetic method, which merely summarizes the distances between the sequences<sup>5</sup>. The parsimony method we used represents a genealogical analysis that takes account of the nature and locations of the sequence differences and of variation in evolutionary rates among lineages. It is only through parsimony analysis that parallel and convergent events can be distinguished from divergent ones. If investigators were to follow Cornish-Bowden's recommendation "simply to count amino-acid differences" thus precluding genealogical analysis, their ability to study the evolutionary process would be severely limited.

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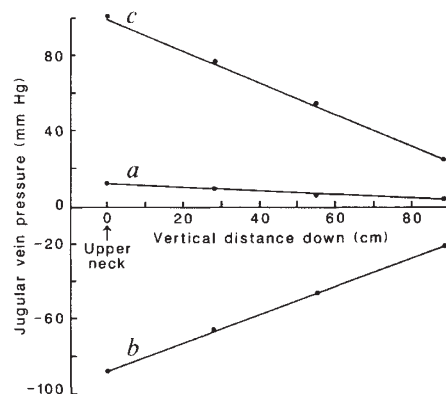
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## Haemodynamics of the jugular vein in the giraffe

SIR—Controversy continues over the haemodynamics of the circulation to and from the head of the giraffe. The recent study by Hargens *et al.*<sup>1</sup> provides new information explaining the absence of oedema in the legs of the ambulant giraffe. But in sedated, standing giraffes the pressure gradient down the jugular vein is about one-tenth of, and in the opposite direction to, that expected for a standing column of blood. Hargens *et al.* suggest that compartmentalization of the blood in the vein is involved. This seems unlikely as the valves in the vein open towards the heart.

There is a more plausible explanation. The intravascular pressure at any point in the vascular system is the sum of two distinct pressures: (1) viscous flow pres-



Plot of pressure components in the jugular vein of the standing, sedated giraffe based on data from ref. 1. Note the increase in the gravitational component of pressure down the vein (*b*) and the decrease in pressure due to viscous resistance to flow (*c*). The actual pressure existing in the vein, line *a*, is equal to the sum of viscous flow and gravitational pressures. Because the drop in viscous flow pressure is greater than the rise of gravitational pressure, the actual pressure gradient down the vein shows a slight decrease.

sure; and (2) gravitational (hydrostatic) pressure. This distinction is important in haemodynamics and is often not sufficiently appreciated. Hargens *et al.*<sup>1</sup> measured the pressure down the jugular vein in three standing, sedated giraffes using the Millar Mikrotip transducer, which registers the pressure existing at the tip of the catheter. These pressures are shown in line *a* in the figure, which shows a fall from upper neck (+13 mm Hg) to lower neck (+4 mm Hg). Next, the gravitational pressure of the blood is plotted on the basis of the vertical distance in the jugular vein taken from the figure of these investigators (line *b*). Because the right atrial pressure is about zero (atmospheric), the gravitational pressure above the level of the heart is negative and increases from the head down.

From these two pressures one can