

Product profile

Assays were performed on purified wild-type and Trp387Phe variant murine COX-2 protein. Protein samples (750 nM) in 190 μ l Tris-HCl buffer (100 mM, pH 8.0; 500 μ M phenol at 37 °C) were treated with 100 μ M [14 C]arachidonic acid (in 10 μ l ethanol) for either 10 min or 1 h at 25 °C. Incubations were terminated by addition of 400 μ l stop solution (80.6 μ l ether, 11.4 μ l methanol, 2.8 μ l 1 M citric acid) after 1–3 h. The organic phase was removed and dried under nitrogen. Samples were then purged with argon and stored at –20 °C. To determine the products synthesized in the test samples, 5-, 11-, 12- and 15-HETE standard elution profiles were obtained. 1.6 μ g of each standard was extracted and dried under nitrogen in the manner described above, resuspended in 500 μ l methanol and placed in eppendorf tubes in 50 μ l aliquots before purging with argon. HPLC conditions were modified from previous work³⁰; we used a 5-mm Beckman Ultrasphere ODS C₁₈ column (4.6 mm \times 25 cm) run under reverse phase conditions at 1 ml min⁻¹ with a mixture of the following buffers: buffer A, 0.1% v/v glacial acetic acid in water; buffer B, 0.1% v/v glacial acetic acid in acetonitrile. Initial conditions used were 70% A/30% B for 5 min then the gradient was changed linearly to 40% A/60% B over 30 min. After a 10-min isocratic period, the gradient was changed to 25% A/75% B in a linear manner over 15 min. This was followed by a 10-min isocratic period before changing the gradient to 100% B linearly over 10 min followed by a 5-min isocratic period. Product quantification was determined by use of an online liquid scintillation counter (IN/US Systems, β -RAM 2B) and a Varian 2050 detector at 235 nm to detect product containing a conjugated double bond.

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Correspondence and requests for materials should be addressed to R.G.K. (e-mail: ravi.g.kurumbail@m Monsanto.com). Coordinates for structures and models have been deposited in the Protein Data Bank under accession codes 1CVU, 1DCX, 1DD0 and 1DDX.

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erratum

The earliest angiosperms: evidence from mitochondrial, plastid and nuclear genomes

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The earliest angiosperms: evidence from mitochondrial, plastid and nuclear genomes

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Angiosperms have dominated the Earth's vegetation since the mid-Cretaceous (90 million years ago)¹, providing much of our food, fibre, medicine and timber, yet their origin and early evolution have remained enigmatic for over a century^{2–8}. One part of the enigma lies in the difficulty of identifying the earliest angiosperms; the other involves the uncertainty regarding the sister group of angiosperms among extant and fossil gymnosperms. Here we report a phylogenetic analysis of DNA sequences of five mitochondrial, plastid and nuclear genes (total aligned length 8,733 base pairs), from all basal angiosperm and gymnosperm lineages (105 species, 103 genera and 63 families). Our study demonstrates that *Amborella*, Nymphaeales and Illiciales-*Trimeniaceae-Austrobaileya* represent the first stage of angiosperm evolution, with *Amborella* being sister to all other angiosperms. We also show that Gnetales are related to the conifers and are not sister to the angiosperms, thus refuting the Anthophyte Hypothesis¹. These results have far-reaching implications for our understanding of diversification, adaptation, genome evolution and development of the angiosperms.

Difficulty in identifying the earliest angiosperms is the result of three problems that characterize diversification of most major clades. First, the great divergence between gymnosperms and angiosperms makes assessment of character homology difficult and thus renders the otherwise powerful outgroup-approach prob-

lematic in morphological cladistic analyses^{1,9}. Second, extinction, which is partly responsible for this divergence, has almost certainly occurred in both groups^{1,10–16}, and highlights the need of extensive taxon sampling when relying on the living diversity. Last, the fossil evidence indicates that the early angiosperms went through an explosive radiation^{1,10–16}, which to resolve requires the sampling of a large number of characters. Previous molecular analyses have had some success in resolving relationships among basal angiosperms^{17–21}; however, their results are only weakly supported, and worse, are often contradictory because of evolutionary rate heterogeneity among lineages of the particular gene used, weak phylogenetic signal in single genes, and insufficient taxon sampling. From both theoretical and empirical studies, it is becoming increasingly clear that to address such a difficult issue as basal angiosperm phylogeny, extensive sampling in both dimensions of taxa and characters (genes) is necessary^{22–24}.

We obtained sequences of five genes from all three plant genomes: mitochondrial *atp1* and *matR*, plastid *atpB* and *rbcL* and nuclear 18S rDNA. They encode products involved in energy metabolism, carbohydrate synthesis and information processing. Thus, our character sampling strategy of taking multiple genes of different functions from all three genomes is designed to reduce homoplasy generated by gene-, function- and genome-specific molecular evolutionary phenomena such as rate heterogeneity, GC content bias, RNA editing and protein structural constraints^{25,26}. To optimize the performance of phylogenetic methods in analysing complex diversification patterns in early angiosperms^{22,23}, we included 97 species, 95 genera and 55 families of basal angiosperms, essentially sampling all living families^{5,8,11,20,21}. Eight gymnosperms from eight families were used as outgroups. The DNA sequences were analysed with parsimony methods; bootstrap (BS) and jackknife (JK) analyses were conducted to measure stability of phylogenetic patterns.

The same single most parsimonious tree was found in each of 1,000 random taxon-addition replicates in the analysis (Fig. 1). *Amborella*, a shrub of the monotypic New Caledonian family Amborellaceae, is sister to all other angiosperms, which are strongly (90% BS and 92% JK) supported as a monophyletic group. The next diverging lineage corresponds to Nymphaeales, the water lilies; its sister clade of the remaining angiosperms receives 98% BS and 99% JK support. The third clade consists of two small Australasian families, *Austrobaileya* and *Trimeniaceae*, and two small eastern Asia-eastern North America disjunct families, *Illiciaceae* and *Schisandraceae* (Illiciales). All remaining angiosperms (euangiosperms) make up a strongly supported large clade (97% BS and 99% JK). The relationships among lineages within euangiosperms are resolved in the shortest tree but generally receive less than 50% BS support. All major lineages, however, are strongly supported; these agree with previous classifications^{5,8,11} and results of cladistic analyses of morphological and molecular data^{9,20,21,27}. Among gymnosperms, two gnetalean genera, *Gnetum* and *Welwitschia*, are not sister to angiosperms as suggested by the Anthophyte Hypothesis¹, but fall close to the conifers.

We observed one INDEL (insertion/deletion) in *matR* that supports the basal position of *Amborella*, Nymphaeales and Illiciales-*Trimeniaceae-Austrobaileya* (ANITA) in angiosperms: an 18-base-pair (bp) deletion in all euangiosperms but not in ANITA or gymnosperms, some of which have 6–15-bp deletions (Fig. 2). Although we cannot rule out the possibility that the sequence in the INDEL region of ANITA and gymnosperms results from independent insertions, two lines of evidence suggest that this scenario is unlikely. The sequences are found in all three ANITA lineages and all four gymnosperm lineages. Furthermore, there are identical or similar codons shared by ANITA and gymnosperms in the INDEL.

Reconstruction of deep phylogenies using DNA sequences has been plagued by problems caused by rate heterogeneity, weak phylogenetic signal in single genes, insufficient taxon sampling,

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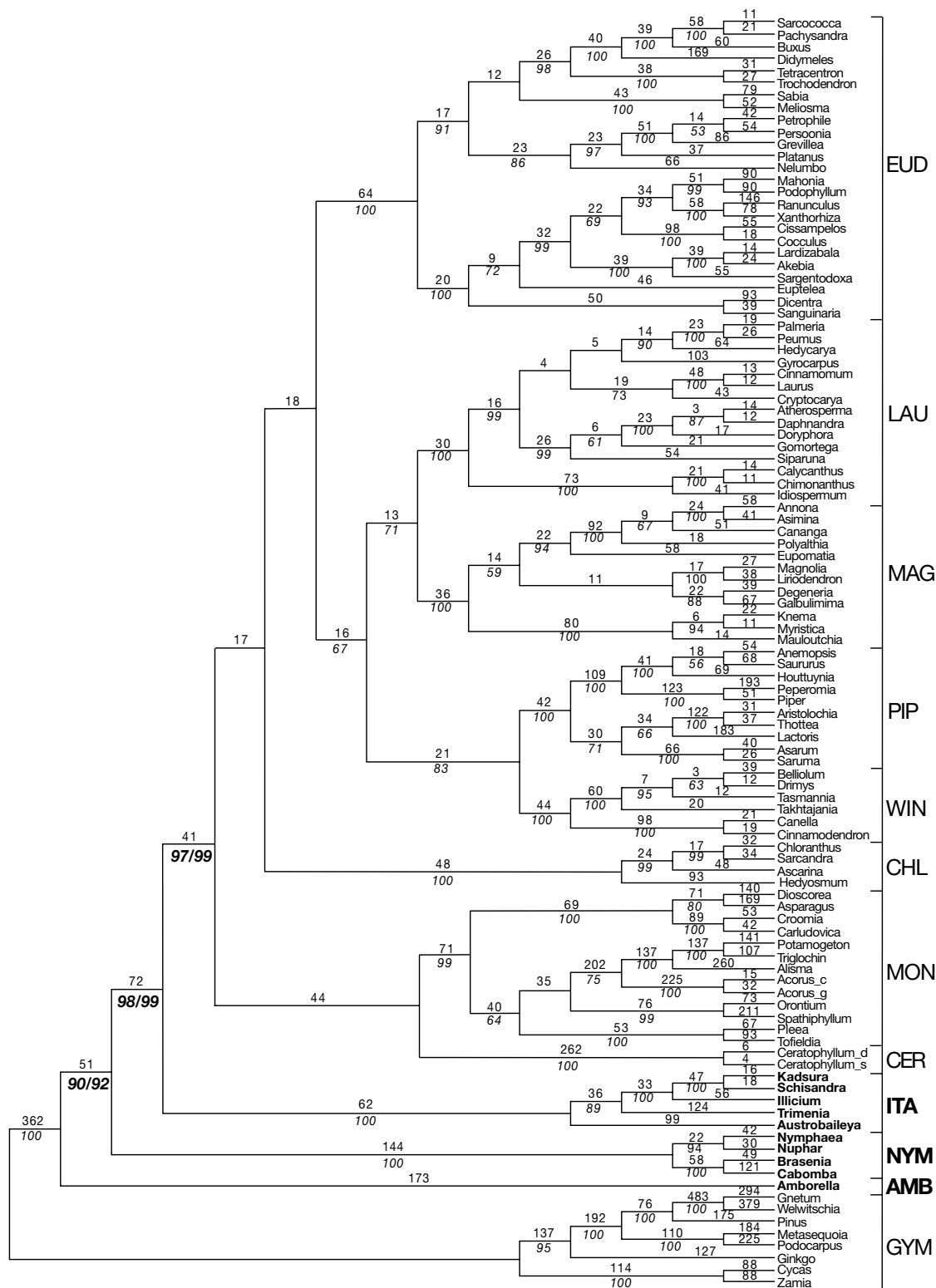


Figure 1 The single most parsimonious tree found in the five-gene DNA sequence analysis (tree length, 13,240 steps; consistency index, 0.413; retention index, 0.604). Numbers above branches are branch lengths (ACCTRAN optimization); those below in italics are bootstrap values (only those above 50% are shown; for branches related to ANITA (bold type), numbers below branches before the slash are bootstrap values and

those after are jackknife values). GYM, gymnosperms; AMB, *Amborella*; NYM, Nymphaeales; ITA, Illiciales, Trimeniaceae and *Austrobaileya*; CER, *Ceratophyllum*; MON, monocots; CHL, Chloranthaceae; WIN, Winterales; PIP, Piperales; MAG, Magnoliales; LAU, Laurales; EUD, eudicots; *Acorus_c*, *A. calamus*; *Acorus_g*, *A. gramineus*; *Ceratophyllum_d*, *C. demersum*; *Ceratophyllum_s*, *C. submersum*.

explosive radiation, extinction and protein structural constraints^{25,26}. In retrospect, our earlier studies using single genes suffered from some of these problems when *Ceratophyllum* was found to be sister to all other angiosperms^{20,21}. The same concern

could still be raised about our results presented here; however, the use of five genes with different functions from all three genomes and the sampling of almost all basal angiosperm families is likely to have reduced considerably the effect of these problems. Five lines of

Phylogenetic analyses

For the taxa analysed, all 105 species had *rbcl* sequences, and 93, 88, 98 and 101 species had *atpB*, 18S rDNA, *matR* and *atp1* sequences, respectively (missing data for critical taxa: *Kadsura*: 18S rDNA, *Trimenia*: *atp1*, *Cycas* and *Zamia*: *atpB*, and *Metasequoia* and *Podocarpus*: *matR*). Each taxon had data for at least three out of the five genes. Parsimony (equal weighting) analyses were carried out using PAUP*4.0b2 (ref. 30). To search for islands of shortest trees, a heuristic search was conducted using 1,000 random taxon-addition replicates, one tree held at each step during stepwise addition, TBR branch swapping, steepest descent option in effect. MulTrees option in effect and no upper limit of MaxTrees. Both bootstrap and jackknife (50% character deletion) analyses were conducted using 1,000 resampling replicates and the same tree search procedure as described above except with simple taxon addition. The data matrix is available as Supplementary Information at <http://www.nature.com>.

All *atp1* and *matR*, and some *atpB*, *rbcl* and 18S rDNA sequences were generated in this study, deposited in GenBank under accession numbers AF197576-AF197815; remaining sequences were from GenBank and ref. 27.

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Biodiversity of plankton by species oscillations and chaos

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Biodiversity has both fascinated and puzzled biologists¹. In aquatic ecosystems, the biodiversity puzzle is particularly troublesome, and known as the 'paradox of the plankton'². Competition theory predicts that, at equilibrium, the number of coexisting species cannot exceed the number of limiting resources^{3–6}. For phytoplankton, only a few resources are potentially limiting: nitrogen, phosphorus, silicon, iron, light, inorganic carbon, and sometimes a few trace metals or vitamins. However, in natural waters dozens of phytoplankton species coexist². Here we offer a solution to the plankton paradox. First, we show that resource competition models^{6–10} can generate oscillations and chaos when species compete for three or more resources. Second, we show that these oscillations and chaotic fluctuations in species abundances allow the coexistence of many species on a handful of resources. This model of planktonic biodiversity may be broadly applicable to the biodiversity of many ecosystems.

We consider a well-known resource competition model^{6–10} that has been tested and verified extensively using competition experiments with phytoplankton species^{8,11–16}. Consider *n* species and *k* resources. Let *N_i* denote the population abundance of species *i*, and let *R_j* denote the availability of resource *j*. The dynamics of the species depend on the availabilities of the resources. The resource availabilities, in turn, depend on the rates of resource supply and the amount of resources consumed by the phytoplankton species. This gives the following model^{6–9}:

$$\frac{dN_i}{dt} = N_i(\mu_i(R_1, \dots, R_k) - m_i) \quad i = 1, \dots, n \quad (1)$$

$$\frac{dR_j}{dt} = D(S_j - R_j) - \sum_{i=1}^n c_{ji}\mu_i(R_1, \dots, R_k)N_i \quad j = 1, \dots, k \quad (2)$$

Here $\mu_i(R_1, \dots, R_k)$ is the specific growth rate of species *i* as a function of the resource availabilities; *m_i* is the specific mortality rate of species *i*; *D* is the system's turnover rate; *S_j* is the supply concentration of resource *j*; and *c_{ji}* is the content of resource *j* in species *i*. We assume that the specific growth rates follow the Monod equation¹⁷, and are determined by the resource that is most limiting according to Liebig's 'law of the minimum'¹⁸:

$$\mu_i(R_1, \dots, R_k) = \min\left(\frac{r_i R_1}{K_{i1} + R_1}, \dots, \frac{r_i R_k}{K_{ik} + R_k}\right) \quad (3)$$

where *r_i* is the maximum specific growth rate of species *i*, *K_{ji}* is the half-saturation constant for resource *j* of species *i*, and min is the minimum function. This is a standard formulation used in numerous phytoplankton competition models^{6–10}.

When solved for equilibrium, this competition model predicts that the number of species cannot exceed the number of limiting resources. More precisely, there are *k* unknown resource availabilities in equation (1). Hence, in the generic case, the number of equilibrium solutions that satisfy equation (1) with *N_i* > 0 cannot

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