

tides for nutrition or of templates for DNA repair), as long as most of the available DNA is from the same species and there is occasional recombination between incoming DNA and the chromosome. Indeed, if acquisition of nucleotides is the function of transformation then any DNA will serve, but the feedback between sequence abundance and receptor specificity will only occur if some of the incoming DNA recombines with the chromosome. The model has not, however, been rigorously examined, and is only one possible explanation for uptake specificity.

ROSEMARY J. REDFIELD

Program in Evolutionary Biology,
Canadian Institute for Advanced
Research and
Department of Biochemistry,
University of British Columbia,
Vancouver, British Columbia V6T 1Z3,
Canada

1. Kirkpatrick, M. & Ryan, M. J. *Nature* **350**, 33–38 (1991).
2. Goodgal, S. H. & Mitchell, M. A. *J. Bact.* **172**, 5924–5928 (1990).
3. Goodman, S. D. & Scocca, J. J. *Proc. natn. Acad. Sci. U.S.A.* **85**, 6982–6986 (1988).

SIR — Kirkpatrick and Ryan suggest¹ that there is growing support for the hypothesis that mating preferences evolve because of direct rather than indirect effects on female fitness. I believe that this conclusion is premature and stems, in part, from the way that tests have been attempted of one of the indirect effects, the Hamilton–Zuk² (or parasite) hypothesis.

Kirkpatrick and Ryan point out that many of the across-species comparative studies investigating the parasite hypothesis have found no relationship between the extremity of male display traits and the level of parasitism. They regard this as evidence that parasites are not important in the evolution of male displays. Indeed, they suggest that such comparative tests may be “the most fruitful way” to investigate the parasite hypothesis.

Previous authors^{3,4} have pointed out problems with various aspects of these tests, such as the difficulties associated with objectively measuring brightness and in obtaining holistic measures of the levels of parasitism. There seems, however, to be a more fundamental problem with the tests, stemming from the basic assumption that the parasite hypothesis predicts that the absolute level of parasitism in a species should be correlated with the extremity of the displays in that species. The crux of the parasite hypothesis is that the exaggerated male traits allow females to choose among males within their population and mate with a more resistant male. Thus, there is no reason to assume that there will be an across-species relationship between the level of parasitism and the degree of exaggeration of the trait.

Imagine, for example, a population of birds that has a very high level of parasitism but a very low variance in the level of parasitism or very low heritability in host resistance to the parasite. In this population, the parasite

hypothesis would predict the absence of exaggerated male display traits as females have very little to choose between males and, if heritability is low, nothing to gain by making a choice. Conversely, a population with low overall levels of parasitism but with high variance in parasite levels within the population and high heritability for resistance should have extreme display traits as females have much indirect fitness to gain by discriminating among males. So a more valuable across-species comparison would be to compare the extremity of the male trait with differences in the heritability and variance of resistance to parasites.

Simplified gene nomenclature

SIR — Vertebrate genes encoding several distinct voltage-gated potassium channels have recently been identified in many laboratories, but the names assigned to them

The relative importance of direct and indirect fitness effects in the evolution of exaggerated male traits can only be measured once these different factors have been more thoroughly examined in wild populations.

DAVID G. HASKELL

Section of Ecology and Systematics,
Division of Biological Sciences,
Cornell University,
Ithaca, New York 14853-2701, USA

1. Kirkpatrick, M. & Ryan, M. J. *Nature* **350**, 33–38 (1991).
2. Hamilton, W. D. & Zuk, M. *Science* **218**, 384–387 (1982).
3. Read, A. F. *Trends ecol. Evol.* **3**, 97–102 (1988).
4. Endler, J. A. & Lyles, A. M. *Trends ecol. Evol.* **4**, 246–248 (1989).

member of the *Shaker*-related subfamily 1 (1.1).

The tissue origin of these genes will not be included in the name as many of these genes can be expressed in several tissues. The species origin of a gene (such as Kv1.1) will not be included in the name, but could be described, for example, as rat Kv1.1 or

human Kv1.1. The list of genes will be updated periodically; genes published in the interim will have a ‘w’ prefix to signify ‘nomenclature being worked out’. Genes encoding channels whose voltage-dependence has not been experimentally confirmed can be indicated with an empty parenthesis, the ‘v’ to be added when functional data are available. As additional subfamilies are discovered, they will be numbered based on their date of discovery.

Other voltage-dependent potassium channel genes that are structurally distinct from the *Shaker/Shaw/Shab/Shal* proteins (for example the Isk channels) could be added to the current list of genes as a separate family (for example, Ks1.1 or Kvs1.1). The proposed nomenclature could be used for other types of K⁺ channels as well. Ligand-gated K⁺ channels could be similarly named, the particular ligand (Ca, ATP) being substituted for v.

A list of references and the affiliations of the signatories

will be provided upon request from K.G.C..

K. G. CHANDY

Department of Physiology and
Biophysics,
University of California,
Irvine, California 92717, USA

Other signatories of this letter are: J. Douglas, G. A. Gutman, L. Jan, R. Joho, L. Kaczmarek, D. McKinnon, R. A. North, S. Numa, L. Philipson, A. B. Ribera, B. Rudy, L. Salkoff, R. Swanson, D. Steiner, M. Tanouye and B. L. Tempel. (Addresses available on request from K.G.C.).

A SIMPLIFIED NOMENCLATURE FOR A FAMILY OF VERTEBRATE VOLTAGE-DEPENDENT K⁺ CHANNEL GENES

Property	Xenopus	Mouse	Rat	Human
<i>Shaker</i> -related subfamily 1:				
Kv1.1	—	MBK1	RCK1	HK1
		MK1	RBK1	
Kv1.2	XSha2	MK2	RBK2	HK4
			RCK5	
Kv1.3	—	MK3	NGK1	HPCN3
			RCK3	
Kv1.4	—	—	RGK5	
			KV3	
Kv1.5	—	—	RCK4	HK2
			RHK1	HPCN2
Kv1.6	—	—	KV1	HK1
				HPCN1
Kv1.7	—	—	KV2	HK2
			RCK2	HBK2
			RK6	
		MK6		HaK6
		MK4		
<i>Shab</i> -related subfamily 2:				
Kv2.1	—	Mshab	DRK1	—
<i>Shaw</i> -related subfamily 3:				
Kv3.1	—	NGK2	Kv4*	—
		Mshaw22		
Kv3.2	—	Mshaw12	RKShIIIA	—
			Rshaw12	
Kv3.3	—	Kv3.3	—	—
		Mshaw19		
Kv3.4	—	Kv3.4	Raw3	—
<i>Shal</i> -related subfamily 4:				
Kv4.1	—	Mshal1	—	—
Kv4.2	—	—	RK5	—

*Kv4 is an alternatively spliced version of NGK2.

are frequently confusing. We propose a simplified nomenclature for one major family of these genes, based on sequence relatedness. This family comprises at least four subfamilies that represent vertebrate homologues of the four potassium channel genes in *Drosophila* (*Shaker*, *Shab*, *Shaw* and *Shal*). In the table a name is proposed for each gene. For example, the proposed name for MBK1/RCK1/RBK1 in our nomenclature is Kv1.1; that is, a K-channel gene (K) which is voltage dependent (v), and is the first identified