the seemingly abrupt appearance in the early Early Cretaceous (Neocomian) of sustained powered flight and endothermic physiology in the first habitually arboreal birds.

5) Reassessment of early avian phylogeny and ecology. The advanced flight apparatus and opposable hallux in Sinornis and the Spanish bird (6) suggest that sustained powered flight and perching capability are primitive for Ornithurae and can no longer be used to unite Ichthyornithiformes and Neornithes to the exclusion of Hesperornithiformes (18). These synapomorphies must have been reduced or lost during the evolution of diving habits in Hesperornithiformes. The interrelationships among Late Cretaceous birds are correspondingly less secure, although several additional features maintain a close relationship between Ichthyornithiformes and Neornithes (Fig. 5). Nearly all Mesozoic birds known from reasonably complete remains have been discovered in quiet near-shore marine or marginal lagoon sediments, and this taphonomic bias has colored our view of early avian evolution. The discovery of Sinornis in freshwater lake deposits highlights the important, yet largely unknown, role that inland wooded habitats must have played in the early evolution of birds.

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Competition, Cooperation, and Mutation: Improving a Synthetic Replicator by Light Irradiation

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Replication and mutation are necessary elements of evolution, and some properties of self-replicating molecules (replicators) can be explored with synthetic structures. Selection and evolution at the molecular level require systems capable of competition and inheritable change. These phenomena have now been observed with synthetic molecules. Two such molecules were prepared having sufficient structural similarity that they catalyzed each other's formation as well as their own. One of the replicators bears a photochemically active function that is cleaved on irradiation. The resulting species is more effective at replication than the original and rapidly takes over the system's resources.

ELF-REPLICATING MOLECULES CAN be synthesized by covalent linkage of two complementary subunits to give a self-complementary structure (1). Complementarity in this context refers to sizes, shapes, and the weak intermolecular forces involved in molecular recognition between the two subunits. Behavior such as autocatalysis and sigmoidal product growth can be expressed by these synthetic replicators as well as by nucleic acid derivatives (2-5). For the system to evolve, replicators are expected to make "mistakes," or respond to environmental stresses that favor new and more (or less) competitive species (6). Accordingly, we have synthesized structures capable of cooperation and mutation and report here their properties.

Coupling of the imide ester 1 (Eq. 1) with amines bearing adenine nuclei 2 in $CHCl_3$ yields the respective amides 3 (7). The self-complementarity of these products leads to their extensive dimerization through hydrogen bonding to 4 and is the key to their replicative behavior (1).

All three products are replicators: They catalyze their own formation. Specifically, adding 20% of a product to its respective reaction mixture enhances the initial coupling rate by 60% for 3a and by ~30% for 3b and 3c (Figs. 1 and 2). The autocatalysis results from the template effects that gather the two reacting components on the product surface as suggested in Eq. 2. The unsubstituted 3a can replicate both through Hoogsteen base pairing as shown in 5 and through Watson-Crick pairing as shown in 6. The urethane-protected 3b and 3c are disadvantaged in this respect; the nitrogen substituent hinders base pairing in the Wat-

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Fig. 1. Product 3b appearance as a function of time for the reaction of 2b + 1 at 50 mM each in CHCl₃: (a) no additive; (b) 20% 3c added; (c) 20% 3b added; and (d) 20% 3a added.



Fig. 2. Product 3c appearance as a function of time for the reaction of 2c + 1 at 50 mM each in CHCl₃: (a) no additive; (b) 20% 3b added; (c) 20% 3c added; and (d) 20% 3a added.



Fig. 3. Product appearance as a function of time for the reaction of 2a + 2b + 2c + 1 (42 mM each) in CHCl₃: (a) **3a**; (b) **3b**; and (c) **3c**.



Equations 1 and 2.

son-Crick modes (8) and limits it largely to the Hoogsteen modes shown in 5.

The products do make mistakes: They catalyze the formation of the other replicators. For example, the presence of 20% 3b during the coupling of 1 with 2c increases the rate of appearance of 3c by 18% and the presence of 20% 3c during the coupling of 1 with 2b increases the rate of appearance of 3b by 10%. The cooperative and reciprocal behavior is understandable because the structural similarity of 3b and 3c is high; the NO2 versus H difference between the two molecules is at a site remote from their recognition surfaces. In chemical terms, the structures show low selectivity. As a result, the heterogeneous (mixed) termolecular species 5 or 6 ($\mathbf{R_1} \neq \mathbf{R_2}$, Eq. 2) and product dimers 4 ($\mathbf{R}_1 \neq \mathbf{R}_2$, Eq. 1) are as likely to form as the homogeneous ones $(\mathbf{R_1} = \mathbf{R_2})$.

The nitrated derivatives are irreversibly



Equation 3 and structures 8 and 9.

mutated by light. Compounds 2c and 3c bear photolabile blocking groups (9) that can be removed by irradiation at 350 nm (Eq. 3). For example, in CDCl₃ a solution of 3c in a cuvette irradiated for 30 min

(Rayonet reactor) is cleanly converted to 3a; likewise 2c can be converted to 2a (10). The resulting deblocked system is a more efficient replicator: Direct competition of the three amines 2a, 2b, and 2c for a limited quantity of the ester 1 results in rapid formation of the efficient replicator 3a as the dominant product (Fig. 3).

The superiority of 3a as a replicator is due to its ability to base pair in both senses (5 and 6, $\mathbf{R_1} = \mathbf{R_2} = \mathbf{H}$) or even a combination of the two. In addition, rapid initial reaction of 2a with the ester 1 can take place through the Watson-Crick base pair 8 where any stacking interactions (11) position the reacting functions near each other. In contrast, initial reaction of 2b or 2c occurs through 9 where the functions are farther apart. Despite its efficiency, the mutant 3a is not selfish; it provides effective catalysis for the formation of its competitors, 3b and 3c. The presence of 20% 3a enhances the coupling rates of either of these more than twofold (Figs. 1 and 2).

In the present case adenine-imide base pairing in CHCl₃ provides the molecular recognition that leads to self-replication. Other weak intermolecular forces between other host-guest pairs in other solvents could also be used. For example, the solvophobic forces involved in cyclophane-arene complexation in water (12) could give rise to a synthetic replicator by way of a covalent linkage between host and guest. The variety of suitable recognition vehicles is vast. Replicating molecules are at the boundary of chemistry with biology, and such synthetic structures can be used to further model evolution at the molecular level.

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Gating of the Cardiac Ca²⁺ Release Channel: The Role of Na⁺ Current and Na⁺-Ca²⁺ Exchange

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In cardiac myocytes, calcium influx through the calcium channel is the primary pathway for triggering calcium release. Recently it has been suggested that the calcium-induced calcium release mechanism can also be activated indirectly by the sodium current, which elevates the sodium concentration under the cell membrane, thereby favoring the entry of "trigger" calcium via the sodium-calcium exchanger. To test this hypothesis, sodium current was suppressed by reducing the external sodium concentration or applying tetrodotoxin. At potentials positive to -30 millivolts, calcium release was unaffected. A small calcium release at more negative potentials could be attributed to partial activation of calcium channels, because it was unaltered by replacement of sodium with lithium and was blocked by cadmium. Thus, sodium influx or its accumulation does not initiate calcium release. In addition, sodiumcalcium exchange-related calcium release at potentials positive to +80 millivolts has slower kinetics than calcium channel-induced release. Therefore, only the calcium channel gates the fast release of calcium from the sarcoplasmic reticulum in the range of the action potential.

N MAMMALIAN CARDIAC MYOCYTES, the release of Ca²⁺ from the sarcoplasmic reticulum (SR) is controlled by Ca^{2+} influx through the Ca^{2+} channel (1-3) by Ca^{2+} -induced Ca^{2+} release (4). This mechanism is specific to Ca²⁺ because Ca²⁺ can be released by rapid elevation of Ca^{2+} in skinned (4) or intact cardiac myocytes (5),

and neither Na⁺ nor Ba²⁺ can substitute for Ca^{2+} in the release process when they are the charge carrier through the Ca²⁺ channel (2). As an extension of this scheme, it has been reported that the Na⁺ current can also trigger Ca²⁺ release (6) through subsarcolemmal accumulation of Na⁺ in quantities sufficient to reverse the Na⁺-Ca²⁺ exchanger and allow Ca²⁺ to enter the cell and trigger Ca^{2+} release (6, 7). This could provide a theoretical basis for a beat-to-beat regulation of Ca²⁺ release and contraction by the Na⁺ current via the Na⁺-Ca²⁺ exchanger. In this report, we examine the role of the Na⁺ channel and Na⁺ accumulation in the subsarcolemmal space in Ca^{2+} release.

Rat ventricular myocytes were enzymatically isolated (8) and whole-cell voltageclamped (9). Intracellular fura-2 (120 to 200 µM) was used to monitor the intracellular Ca²⁺ activity. Fura-2 was excited at 335 and 410 nm, and intracellular Ca²⁺ activity was determined from the ratio of the two fluorescence intensities, measured at 520 nm (3). The external solution bathing the experimental cell was exchanged rapidly (20 to 100 ms) for short periods (usually 1 to 5 s) with a concentration-clamp system, allowing minimal steady-state alteration of the cytosolic Na⁺ and Ca²⁺ concentrations.

To examine the role of the Na⁺ current (I_{Na}) in the release of Ca²⁺, we suppressed or abolished I_{Na} by rapidly reducing extracellular Na⁺ from 142 to 10 mM (for about 2 s) repeatedly at different potentials and analyzed the voltage dependence of intracellular Ca²⁺ transients in myocytes with an intracellular Na⁺ concentration of 10 mM (Fig. 1). We chose 10 mM external Na⁺ to set the equilibrium potential of Na^+ (E_{Na}) at about 0 mV during the experimental run. In a control solution (142 mM Na⁺), depolarization of the myocyte from -80 to 0 mVactivated both the Na⁺ and Ca²⁺ currents and a maximal Ca²⁺ release. Reduction of the Na⁺ concentration to 10 mM 0.5 to 1 s before the depolarization of the cell to 0 mV $(E_{Na} \text{ in test solution})$ completely suppressed I_{Na} but had no effect on the rate or magnitude of Ca²⁺ release (Fig. 1, A and C). On the other hand, the smaller Ca²⁺ release in the control solution, triggered by depolarization of the myocyte to -50 mV, was abolished by the reduction of the Na⁺ concentration to 10 mM (Fig. 1, A and C).

The effects of rapid reduction of Na⁺ were also examined at other membrane potentials, ranging from -50 to +60 mV (Fig. 1, B and D). Despite considerable suppression of the Na⁺ current, there was no significant difference in Ca²⁺ transients in high- and low-concentration Na⁺ solutions except at potentials between -50 and -30 mV, suggesting a very limited range of potential for the Na⁺ current-induced effect. The results were highly reproducible (n = 7 cells) with only minor variations in the degree of suppression of the inward current

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