



REPORTS

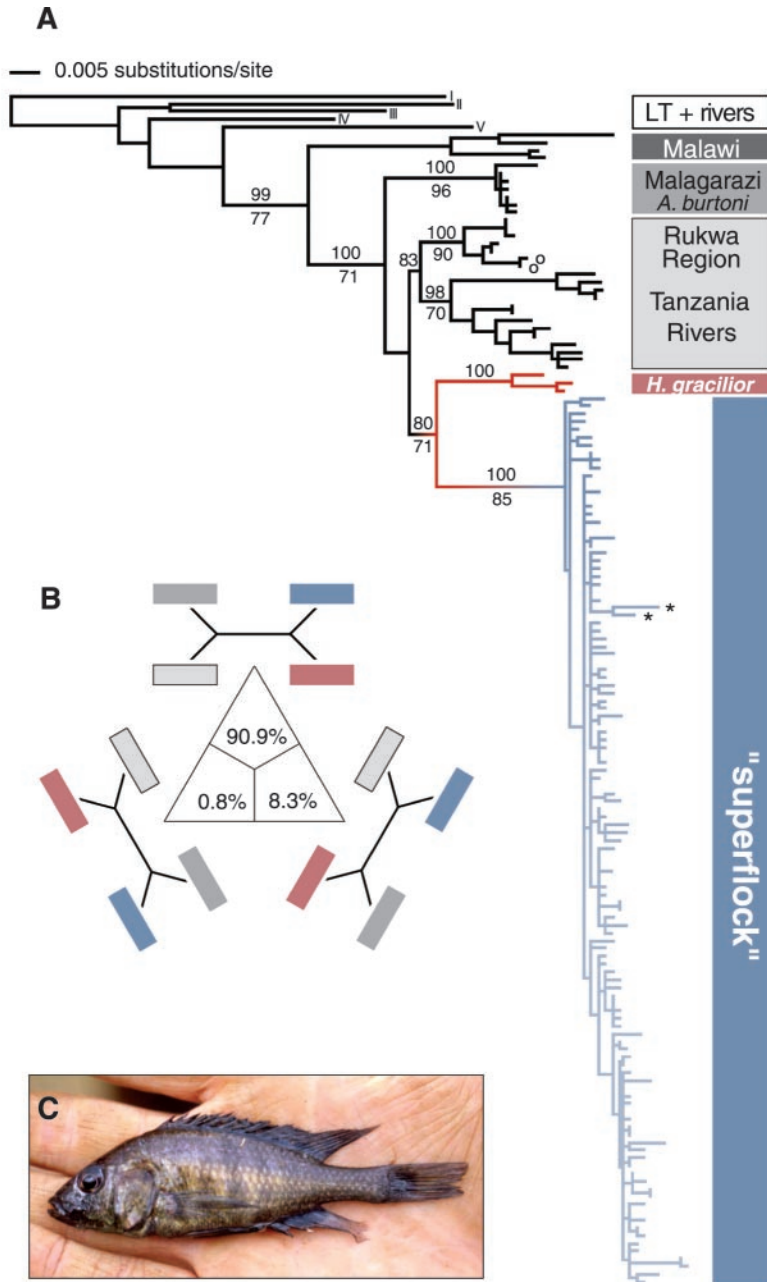
2). These three specimens have been identified as *Haplochromis gracilior* (Fig. 2C), an endemic LK species that is clearly phylogenetically distinct from the superflock haplochromines (by 30 to 42 mutations), and also occupies a pivotal position because it does not belong to the superflock, but appears to be its most recent sister species.

Our haplotype network approach (19, 20)—permitting a fine-grained reconstruction of the evolutionary histories of these young lacustrine faunas—shows that the cichlids from LK are crucial for the evolutionary history of the LV superflock. The haplotypes of *H. gracilior* have a state “A” in the diagnostic site 630 (Fig. 3C) and are therefore connected to the network through the central Rift Valley haplotype (25 in Fig. 3C). The haplotype network demonstrates the extensive sampling, because almost all possible haplotypes are represented (Fig. 3C). Four additional observations support the crucial role of LK haplochromines in the evolution of all the haplochromines of eastern Africa: (i) the haplotypes of fishes from other lakes are connected by, and therefore derived from, LK haplotypes; (ii) the LK fish are relatively more diverse, although LK currently contains only 15 species as compared to more than 500 in LV; we detected 41 haplotypes in the faunas from both lakes; (iii) even excluding *H. gracilior*, LK haplotypes show an average pairwise distance of 0.6% as compared to 0.5% for LV; (iv) a central haplotype (25 in Fig. 3C) is found in some species from all large lakes, but more than 50% of the fishes with this haplotype are LK endemics.

The haplotype network also captures the colonization events between LK and the other lakes. First, Lakes Edward, George, and Albert must have been seeded by at least four lineages (starting from haplotypes 25 and 56), and second, the sequence of haplotypes derived from these two central haplotypes suggests that the colonization of the Rift Valley cichlids may have occurred in a stepwise manner, starting from LK, through the Edward-George region, and lastly to Lake Albert (Figs. 3C and 4). It is also apparent that at least two lineages that are derived from haplotype 56 (considered to be ancestral by the network tree approach) seeded LV, thus making the LV species flock diphyletic. The few mutations that separate the Victoria and Kivu haplotypes, and the distribution of the central Rift Valley haplotype 25 over a large range of the sampling area (Fig. 3, A and C), indicate that faunal connections must have existed between these waterbodies until recently. This agrees with the geological evidence for the recent cessation of connections between Lakes Kivu and Edward (16, 17). In addition, there is geological evidence that supports a recent connection between LV and LK (21). Such a connection has been traced

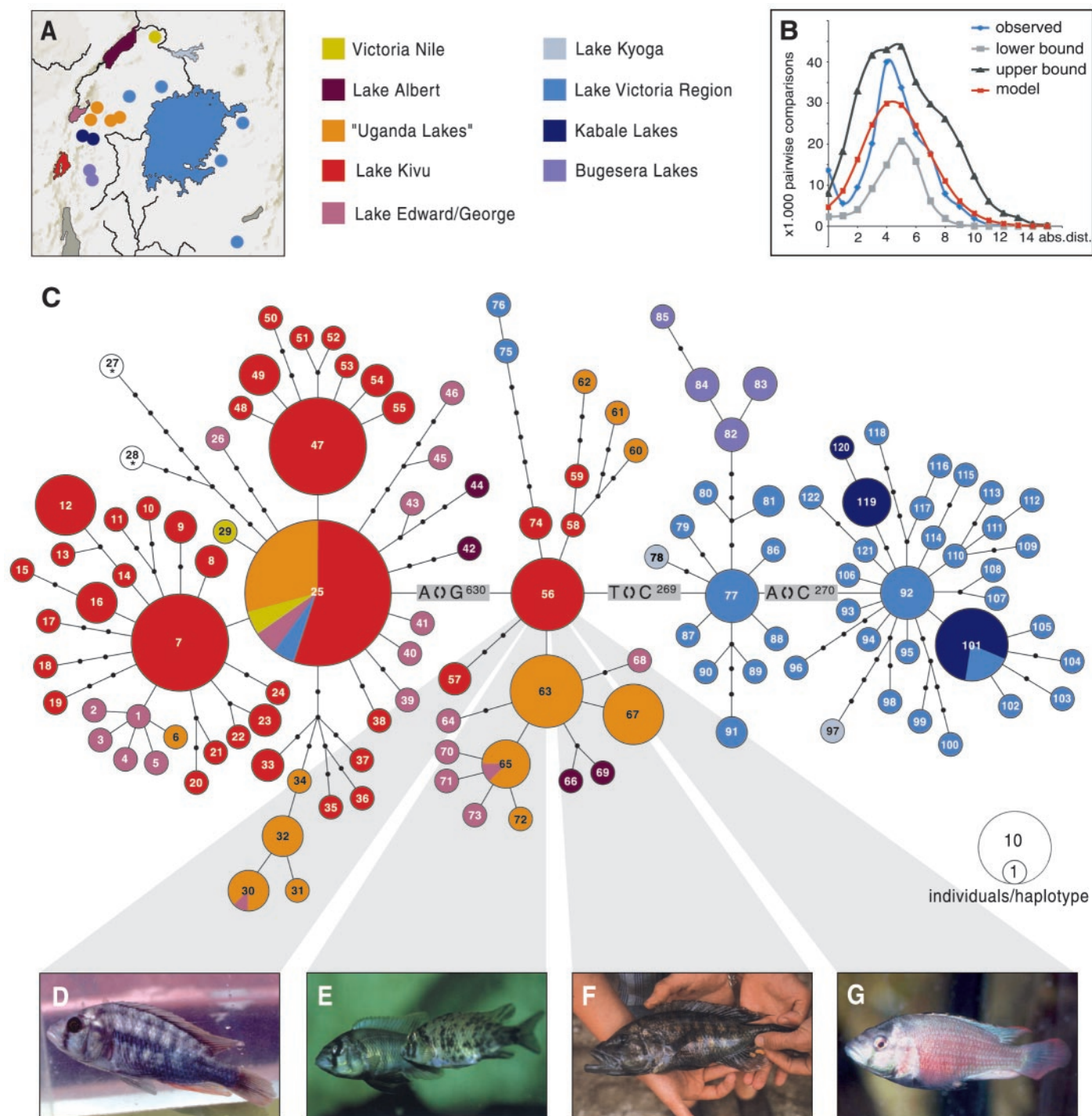
between the Kibuye and Bugesera areas that probably encompassed what is currently the upper Kagera River basin (Fig. 1). Indeed,

seismic patterns and field observations indicate that the western Kivu border-fault segment has served as a master fault for crustal



**Fig. 2. (A)** Maximum likelihood analyses [general time-reversible model with gamma correction (GTR+G+I)], based on 161 sequences, support the monophyly of the *Haplochromis* superflock and suggest that the Kivu-endemic *H. gracilior* is its sister species. Numbers above the branches represent values from Bayesian inference obtained with the MrBayes program (32); numbers below represent quartet puzzling values obtained with PAUP\* (33). This analysis combines sequence data from East African riverine and lacustrine haplochromines (7) (table S1); cichlids from Lake Malawi (*Pseudotropheus* sp. *msobo*, *Labeotropheus trewavasae*, *Lethrinops auritus*, and *Cyrtocara moorii*) (34); and other relevant taxa such as the nonendemic *Astatoreochromis alluaudi* (IV, LV region), *Serranochromis* sp. (III, Lake Mweru), *Thoracochromis brauschi* (II, Congo Basin), and *Petrochromis orthognathus* (V, Lake Tanganyika). LT, Lake Tanganyika; *A. burtoni*, *Astatotilapia burtoni*. The tree was rooted with a representative cichlid lineage from Lake Tanganyika [*Limnochromis auritus* (I)] (30). Not all members of the superflock are lacustrine. Some occur in the Lake Rukwa region (marked by asterisks), whereas others of predominantly riverine clades (marked by circles) occur in Lakes Edward and George [according to (7)]. **(B)** Results of the four-cluster likelihood mapping analysis (35), represented as a triangle showing the likelihood support for three alternative topologies. The topology with *H. gracilior* as a sister group to the superflock is strongly supported. **(C)** *H. gracilior*.





**Fig. 3.** (A) Map showing colored images of the lakes discussed. (B) The results obtained using Arlequin 2.1 (36) demonstrate that the entire superflock is considerably older than 14,700 years. The major demographic extension occurred 4.2 mutations ago for the entire mitochondrial control region (3.15 mutations for the first 365 base pairs). The latter translates into 0.863% sequence divergence (24), which suggests that the maximum population expansion occurred about 98,000 to 132,700 years ago. The upper- and lower-bound curves are 2.5 and 97.5 percentile values of 5000 simulations. (C) Unrooted haplotype network of the haplochromine superflock (the specimens indicated with a blue bar in Fig. 2A). Haplotypes are colored according to the respective lakes (specimens are listed in table S1). The sizes of the haplotypes reflect the

number of specimens sharing the same haplotype (see scale in the lower right corner). Each of the 122 haplotypes is numbered (for example, haplotype 25 is the central haplotype that is found in LK and other lakes). Mutations characterizing transitions between the four central haplotypes are shown. Haplochromines from the small Uganda lakes were introduced with tilapias from Lake Edward (37). (D to G) Haplotype 56 evolved into two lineages that colonized LV. It is shared by six species that represent a large part of the ecomorphological diversity of the endemic LK flock. Four of those species are shown: (D) *H. crebridens* (epilithic algae grazer), (E) *H. paucidens* (insect eater), (F) *H. vittatus* (piscivore), and (G) *H. rubescens* (epilithic algae grazer). [Photos copyright Africa Museum Tervuren, Belgium]

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extension during the Quaternary and that an uplifting along the central part of the border-fault segment elevated a terrace of late Pleistocene lacustrine sequences to about 500 m above the present lake level (22). The breakdown of the eastern rift shoulder caused rivers in the south and in central Rwanda to drain into the proto-lake Kivu. After the eastern rift shoulder was elevated, Rwandan rivers were drained to the north, but after the Virungas volcanic event, the northward drainage of LK was interrupted and the direction of flow of many rivers was reversed, creating the modern river systems east of LK, including a series of lesser lakes in the Bugesera region and in Uganda, after which the connection between the Kagera and LV originated (23). Thus, it appears that the tectonic activities leading to the uplift of the present barrier between LK and the Kagera and Bugesera river systems may be of sufficiently recent origin to support our scenario.

A molecular clock has been calibrated for the cichlid control region (24) and was used as described in (24). It suggests that the vicariance event that split the LV and LK cichlid faunas must have occurred less than 41,500 to 30,500 years ago. This age estimate also falls within the range of the highest geological estimates for the eruption of the Virunga Volcanoes that separate LK from the northern Rift Valley lakes (17).

The pattern of genetic variation within the major LV clade differs from the pattern observed in LK and the Rift Valley lakes. There are intermediate haplotypes missing along the long branches derived from haplotypes 77 and 92, which might be the result of a massive extinction, possibly related to the most recent dessication of LV between 15,600 and 14,700 years ago (8, 9). This might be explained by the fact that LV is shallower and would therefore be much more affected by climatological changes than the other large, generally deeper, Rift Valley lakes. The most recent dessication of LV should have eradicated its entire fish fauna and genetic

diversity. The estimated timing of the demographic expansion within the entire superflock suggests that the entire superflock is considerably older than the 14,700 years since LV refilled (Fig. 3B) (8, 9). Also, the haplotypes situated at the end of these long branches derived from the central LV haplotypes 77 and 92 must belong to an older radiation, which, according to our data, occurred between 98,000 to 132,700 years ago (Fig. 3B) (19). The presence of more distinct and therefore older haplotypes (Fig. 3C) that originated long before this event strongly argues against the view that LV dried out completely. But, clearly, after refilling during the last 14,700 years, LV experienced a vast increase in the number of individuals, but not the origination of many new haplotypes.

The fast radiation of the ecomorphological diversity in LV haplochromines may be explained by their descent from lacustrine, possibly already diversified, Kivu ancestors, and by the finding that all extant LV haplochromines evolved from lineages that survived the most recent low water stand in LV. It is interesting that the "source haplotype" [haplotype 56, which links the lineages of all lakes (Fig. 3C)] is shared by six LK species that display a considerable amount of the ecomorphological diversity that is found in haplochromines (Fig. 3, D to G). In view of this, it is possible that similar morphologies of haplochromines in Lakes Victoria, Edward, George, and Kivu evolved only once (4), although the implied monophyly for the entire superflock is not supported by unambiguous morphological evidence (4, 25). Alternatively, evolutionary mechanisms, such as atavisms and the retention of ancestral genetic programs (1, 26, 27), might explain the rapid origin of morphological novelties and repeated phenotypic diversification. It is noteworthy that a genetically relatively homogeneous species flock (LV) contains a higher degree of morphological divergence and vastly higher number of species (more than 500) than the much smaller cichlid species flocks (15 species in LK, 60 in lakes Edward

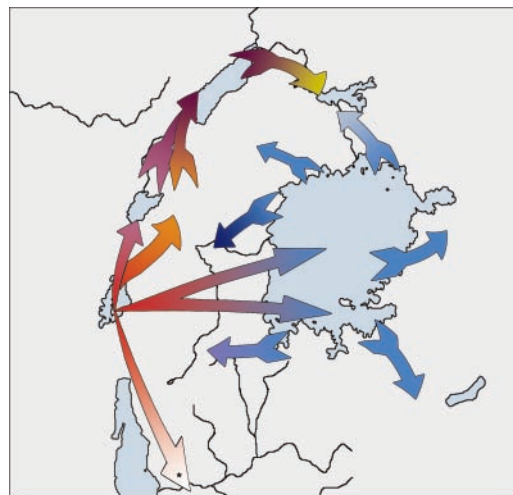
and George, and 6 in Lake Albert), some of which are genetically more diverse and hence older. The lack of correlation between the genetic divergence and therefore age on one hand, and the morphological diversification and species-richness on the other hand, has been observed before (28). Closely related lineages in different lakes will not necessarily have similar speciation rates, and it appears that the youngest and largest basin (LV) provided more opportunities that facilitated speciation.

The discovery that descendants of Kivu haplochromines have colonized LV parallels the finding that descendants of Lake Tanganyika cichlids appear to have colonized river systems (29, 30) and other lakes (5, 30). Therefore, both lakes appear to have acted as evolutionary reservoirs that, because of their greater depth and resulting increased relative stability, conserved lineages that seeded the neighboring rivers and lakes at a later time. The basal position of the LK and Lake Tanganyika haplochromines in the major radiations (LV and Lake Malawi), enhances their evolutionary significance. Based on phylogenetic criteria (31), these faunas should be given a high priority in conservation programs.

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**Fig. 4.** Scenario of proposed colonization events between the lakes investigated. The asterisk in the arrow on the bottom left side refers to two haplochromines from the Lake Rukwa region (Fig. 2A) (7).





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38. We thank the Royal Museum for Central Africa-Tervuren and the Institut National de Recherches Scientifiques-Butare for their support of the fieldwork of E.V. in Rwanda in 1984. We acknowledge J. Engelken from the University of Konstanz for lab work; L. De Vos and E. Schraml for specimens; J. Moeyersons, L. Tack, and C. Ebinger for discussions on the geological history of the region; the "Cichlid group" from the Meyer lab and L. Bernatchez for discussions; and J. Day for comments on the manuscript. This work was funded by a visiting professor fellowship from the University of Konstanz; a grant from The Belgian Federal Office for Scientific, Technical, and Cultural Affairs and support through the Ecological Genetics Research Network of the Fund for Scientific Research-Flanders to E.V.; and grants from the Deutsche Forschungsgemeinschaft, the Ministry of Science, and Art of Baden-Württemberg and the University of Konstanz to A.M. and W.S.

**Supporting Online Material**  
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 Materials and Methods  
 Table S1

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## LRP: Role in Vascular Wall Integrity and Protection from Atherosclerosis

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Vascular smooth muscle cell (SMC) proliferation and migration are important events in the development of atherosclerosis. The low-density lipoprotein receptor-related protein (LRP1) mediates suppression of SMC migration induced by platelet-derived growth factor (PDGF). Here we show that LRP1 forms a complex with the PDGF receptor (PDGFR). Inactivation of LRP1 in vascular SMCs of mice causes PDGFR overexpression and abnormal activation of PDGFR signaling, resulting in disruption of the elastic layer, SMC proliferation, aneurysm formation, and marked susceptibility to cholesterol-induced atherosclerosis. The development of these abnormalities was reduced by treatment with Gleevec, an inhibitor of PDGF signaling. Thus, LRP1 has a pivotal role in protecting vascular wall integrity and preventing atherosclerosis by controlling PDGFR activation.

Blood vessels must resist the stress of constant pounding and shear forces of flowing blood. Vascular wall integrity is necessary to prevent aneurysmal dilatation and rupture (1), and elevated plasma cholesterol levels lead to cholesterol infiltration into the wall and decrease its stability. Factors that control vascular integrity include collagen (2), elastin (3, 4), and proteases and their inhibitors (5, 6), as well as growth factors such as platelet-derived growth factor (PDGF), which causes smooth muscle cell (SMC) proliferation at sites of stress (7, 8). PDGF induces SMC migration in vitro and this activity can be blocked by binding of apolipoprotein E (ApoE) to low-density lipoprotein (LDL) receptor-related protein-1 (LRP1) (9–11). LRP1 is a multifunctional protein that binds a variety of biologically diverse ligands

(12). Tyrosine phosphorylation of LRP1 occurs in response to PDGF, requires the PDGF receptor  $\beta$  (PDGFR $\beta$ ) and the phosphatidylinositol-3 kinase and is blocked by ApoE (13, 14). Thus, a role of LRP1 may be to limit the activity of signals elicited by PDGF and possibly other growth factors. To test whether LRP1 could be involved in controlling SMC proliferation, an important step in atherosclerotic lesion development and progression, we generated tissue-specific knockout mice that lack LRP1 only in vascular SMCs.

We achieved smooth muscle-specific LRP1 (smLRP) inactivation by crossing SM22Cre transgenic mice (15) with LRP<sup>fllox</sup> animals (16). In contrast to conventional LRP knockouts (17), SM22Cre<sup>+</sup>;LRP<sup>fllox/fllox</sup> (smLRP<sup>-</sup>) mice were born alive and appeared superficially normal. To increase susceptibility to spontaneous atherosclerotic lesion development, these animals were crossed to LDL receptor knockout (LDLR<sup>-</sup>) mice to generate LDLR<sup>-</sup>;smLRP<sup>-</sup> mice. The LDLR<sup>-</sup> mouse is an excellent model for studying human atherosclerosis, because atherosclerotic lesion formation can be accelerated and experimentally controlled

over a wide range by cholesterol feeding (18).

The presence or absence of LRP1 expression in SMCs had no effect on plasma cholesterol or triglyceride levels, in mice on normal chow or an atherogenic high-cholesterol diet (fig. S1) (19). However, aortas from smLRP<sup>-</sup> mice were consistently distended and dilated (Fig. 1A). This difference increased over time and was accompanied by thickening of the aortic wall (Fig. 1A, b), pronounced atherosclerosis (Fig. 1A, c, arrows), and aneurysm formation (Fig. 1A, e). Matrix metalloproteinase activity (MMP2 and MMP9) was modestly increased in the aortas of LDLR<sup>-</sup>;smLRP<sup>-</sup> mice (fig. S1). Both proteinases are ligands for LRP, and increased MMP2 expression has been found to correlate with abdominal aneurysm formation in humans (6). In the smLRP<sup>-</sup> mice, MMP2 and MMP9 accumulation in the vessel wall may be secondary because of reduced receptor-mediated clearance, increased tissue remodeling, or both.

The increased number of cells with typical flat nuclei in aortas from smLRP<sup>-</sup> mice suggests that the aortic thickening was primarily caused by SMC proliferation (Fig. 1B). LRP immunoreactivity was virtually absent in aortas of LDLR<sup>-</sup>;smLRP<sup>-</sup> mice (Fig. 1B, d) indicating the efficiency of SMC-specific gene inactivation. Immunohistochemistry of the normal vessel wall shows that LRP1 was expressed in SMCs (Fig. 1B, c). The elastic laminae between the SMCs were grossly disrupted in the smLRP<sup>-</sup> vessel wall (Fig. 1B, f). These findings suggest a role of LRP1 in the concerted assembly and restructuring of the elastic and SMC layers. Vessel wall thickening progressed with age (Fig. 1B, g to l), resulting in almost complete occlusion of mesenteric arteries in smLRP<sup>-</sup> animals.

This increased tissue proliferation and restructuring may be the cause for the greatly increased sensitivity of smLRP<sup>-</sup> animals to cholesterol-induced atherosclerosis when compared to smLRP<sup>+</sup> controls (Fig. 1A, d to h). Preparations of LDLR<sup>-</sup>;smLRP<sup>-</sup> mouse hearts and aortas extending to the iliac bifurcation show substantial lengthening, dilatation, and thickening of the unopened vessels (Fig. 1A, d

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