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# Letters

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Investigators, institutions, or sponsors of meetings should write to me for information concerning submission of material. Manuscripts offered for publication as a National Cancer Institute monograph should conform to the instructions to authors appearing on the inside back cover of the Journal of the National Cancer Institute.

MICHAEL B. SHIMKIN National Institutes of Health, Bethesda, Maryland

#### **Progeny Yields in Drosophila**

In a recent report by W. C. Levengood and M. P. Shinkle [Science 132, 34 (1960)] regarding environmental factors influencing progeny yields in Drosophila it is stated that "atmospheric pressure effects on progeny yields . . . appear not to have been previously reported." Although com-paratively little work has been done, there have been some publications applicable to the subject. For example, Stephen and Bird [Can. Entomologist 81, 132 (1949)] studied some effects of different pressure levels on oviposition in the cabbage worm, Pieris rapae. Moreover, in reviews by Uvarov [Trans. Entomol. Soc. London 79, 1 (1931)] and Wellington [Can. J. Research 24, 51 (1946)] reference is made to Pictet's studies on pressure effects on emergence of Pieris adults. Although Levengood and Shinkle seem to have been concerned principally with numbers of progeny in their experiments, the observations by Pictet and by Stephen and Bird are directly applicable to experiments concerning progeny yields. Stephen and Bird found increased oviposition in insects exposed to relatively low pressures (900

to 930 mbar) as compared with that at higher pressures. Pictet reported that pressure changes might contribute to the success or failure of *Pieris* to emerge from the pupa. Parental oviposition and subsequent emergence from the pupal stage each may influence the final number of adult progeny. Incidentally, the results of Stephen and Bird (increased oviposition at lower pressures) do not support the data of Levengood and Shinkle (decreased number of progeny from matings during lower pressure).

Levengood and Shinkle also report results of rearings of *Drosophila* in an electrical "field." They found a lack of correlation between numbers of progeny and pressure level during mating, under the influence of the field. However, they do not give the amount of variability in the progeny data-a statistic which would aid in interpretation of these data, particularly since so much stress is placed upon this negative effect. The field presumably was developed through and around the culture medium. It would also have been helpful, therefore, if some indication of the dielectric capacity of the culture medium were given, since the dielectric capacity is inversely related to the field strength within the medium.

The authors appear not to have been too sure of the difference between an electrical field and an amount of electricity. For example, they state that the "electrostatic field strength was estimated to be  $7 \times 10^2$  coul." But a coulomb expresses quantity of electricity, quite distinct from field strength per se. The latter should be expressed in terms of force (newtons) or electric intensity (newtons per coulomb) [J. A. Chalmers, Atmospheric Electricity (Pergamon, New York, 1957)]. As Chalmers stated, many authors refer to the electrical field of the atmosphere in terms of the potential gradient (volts per meter); the difference between the latter unit and electric intensity (E)is merely one of sign.

I am not clear on the meaning of the last two paragraphs of the report of Levengood and Shinkle. For example, in the sentence, "The electric field appears to provide a certain amount of protection and reduces the variations found outside the field"variations in what? And in the sentence "Flies in the electric field are, in a sense, protected or shielded from external fluctuations," what external force is fluctuating? Are the authors referring in these two sentences to the natural, atmospheric electrical field? If they are, it seems to me that the field (potential gradient) within the laboratory building would not be important any-

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appendixes. The decay-rate calculator is a circular-disk type that provides information on remaining activity when halflife and original activity are inserted. The handbook and the calculator are both available free of charge in small quantities. (Atomic Energy of Canada Ltd., Dept. Sci12, Commercial Products Div., P.O. Box 93, Ottawa, Can.)

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■ FREQUENCY MEASUREMENT to 220 Mcy/sec is provided by model 1290 extender for use with the manufacturer's model 1039 solid-state counter timer. The combination can be utilized for measurement of frequency, period, time, ratio, and phase. (Systron-Donner Corp., Dept. Sci6, 950 Galindo St., Concord, Calif.)

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JOSHUA STERN National Bureau of Standards, Washington, D.C.

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way, due to the Faraday effect of the building. If the authors found that there was a field within the building, there would still be a Faraday effect applicable to the culture medium within the bottles.

In experiments to study progeny yields one should also consider the factors which affect behavior and oviposition of the parents, in addition to those factors which might act on larval development. In this regard, one of the "unknown factors" Levengood and Shinkle associated with barometric pressure changes might be air ions. Airion densities are known to change with different kinds of weather, and I have found that positive air ions can influence the activity of adult blowflies.

DONALD K. EDWARDS Forest Biology Laboratory, Canada Department of Agriculture, Victoria

We would first like to comment on Edward's question concerning variability in progeny yields from cultures subjected to the influence of the electric field. The 16 cultures in the elec-



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CINCINNATI 13, OHIO HOUSTON 11, TEXAS OAKLAND 1. CAL 6622 Supply Row 5321 East 8th Street LOS ANGELES 32, CAL. PHILADELPHIA 48, PA. 3237 So. Garfield Ave. Jackson & Swanson Sts. SALES OFFICES • Atlanta 5, Ga. • Baton Rouge 6, La. • Buffalo 2, N.Y. • Hastings-On-Hudson 6, N.Y. • Pittsburgh 22, Pa. tric field disclosed a mean deviation of 32.3 percent, whereas the controlgroup data showed a mean deviation of 52.4 percent. Also, the average progeny yield of flies grown in the electric field was 35.4 percent higher than the average for the control groups. When we made the statement that the electric field appears to provide a certain amount of protection we were, of course, referring to this decrease in variation and increase in progeny yield from cultures within the electric field. These figures were not included initially, due to the inevitable discrepancy between the al-

lotted space and the amount of information one wants to provide.

We feel that the outer envelope of glass (the culture bottle) is the most important factor in reducing the field strength. The dielectric constant of glass varies between 5 and 10, and in our calculations we used a value of 8 to be on the high side. The magnitude of the electrostatic field approximated from the physical dimensions is  $7 \times 10^{-9}$  coul; the exponent was inadvertently changed from -9 to 2 when the manuscript was initially compiled. If Edwards prefers that the field be expressed



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in terms of electrostatic field intensity, then it is again necessary to make approximations because of shape factors. The general field intensity in which the bottles were placed was about  $2.5 \times 10^5$ v/m. The directional field may be of sufficient strength to produce ionic drift toward the electrodes and decrease the density of air ions within the bottles. The effects of ions with known specific charges on physiological processes have been previously reported by Krueger *et al.* [*Proc. Soc. Exptl. Biol. Med.* **102**, 355 (1959)].

Ionizing radiation produced by cosmic rays is known to affect the electric and geomagnetic fields surrounding the earth. These fluctuating electric-field effects at high altitudes are believed to influence the production of less energetic ions at the earth's surface. The ionization at lower altitudes is also affected by barometric pressure, and the increase in ionization with decreasing pressure is an absorption effect. It is conceivable that this increase in ionization with decreasing barometric pressure could account for the pronounced decrease in the progeny yields from control cultures. It is these air-ion effects which we feel are significant in causing the variations, and not a Faraday effect as suggested by Edwards.

In reviewing the literature, no reference could be found pertaining to the effects on Drosophila melanogaster of varying barometric pressure. Pictet (1904-21) makes no reference to D. melanogaster but mentions only emergence of adult insects from pupal tissues. He mentions that the majority of adults emerge on the fall of the barometer; this could be explained possibly by brittle pupal cases, the result of greater evaporation of liquids at the lower pressure. This has nothing to do with matings in Drosophila. Also, Parman has stated that adult insects seem to emerge during periods of high pressure [D. C. Parman, J. Econ. Entomol. 13, 339 (1920)]; thus, the effect of pressure on emergence appears to be in question.

As Edwards stated, Stephen and Bird observed an increase in oviposition in *Pieris rapae* at low pressures; however, an aspirator was used to produce the variations in pressure. This creation of artificial pressure variations would not correlate with changes such as airion variations occurring with natural fluctuations in atmospheric pressure. Also, these experimenters consider only one stage in the life cycle of the insect, whereas our experiments are based on complete life cycles of a number of generations of *D. melanogaster*.

> W. C. Levengood W. P. Shinkle

Ball Brothers Research Corporation, Muncie, Indiana

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