optic nerve of the goldfish. Indeed, Jacobsen and Gaze have expressed surprise that in neither the frog nor in the optic lobe of the fish are there any units with different types of function from those in the optic nerve. While the commissural fibers from which we record do behave in a manner which is apparently very similar to this one class of optic nerve unit, we can at least be sure in our experiments that we dealt with the activity of tectal cells and not with the terminals of the primary optic nerve fibers. It seems quite probable that many "off" units of the tectum come from this class of tectal cells too. Are these cells all given over then to merely spreading across the brain one kind of apparently crude visual coding which has already been carried out by the retina? Or is the similarity between the "off" units of the optic nerve and commissural or tectal "off" units coincidental and are the commissural fibers carrying, perhaps in subtle variations of frequency or in the spatial distribution of discharge between different cells, some form of higher coding involved in visual perception?

Behavioral studies that demonstrate the importance of the tectal commissure for interocular transfer indicate that intertectal exchange over this pathway is somehow involved in perceptual mechanisms related to fine pattern vision. Therefore, in spite of the apparent insensitivity of isolated commissural fibers to localized or patterned visual input under the conditions of our experiments, one cannot discount the possibility that the cells which give rise to the tectal commissure may be involved in something much more subtle than might be supposed from the simple responses to light levels described here.

R. F. MARK

T. M. DAVIDSON* Division of Biology, California Institute of Technology, Pasadena

References and Notes

- 1. R. W. Sperry and E. Clark, Physiol. Zool. 22, R. W. Sperry and E. Clark, *Physiol. Zool.* 22, 372 (1949); A. Schulte, *Z. Vergleich. Physiol.* 39, 432 (1957); R. A. McCleary, *J. Comp. Physiol. Psychol.* 53, 311 (1960); J. J. Bernstein, *Exp. Neurol.* 6, 173 (1962); D. J. Ingle, *Science* 149, 1000 (1965).
 D. J. Ingle, *Perspectives Biol. Med.* 8, 241 (1965); R. F. Mark, in preparation.
 H. O. Schwassmann and L. Kruger, *J. Comp. Neurol.* 124, 113 (1965).
 H. A. Baldwin S. Frenk L. Y. Lettwin Sci.
- 3.
- 4. H. A.
- H. A. Baldwin, S. Frenk, J. Y. Lettvin, Sci-ence 148, 1462 (1965).
- 5. J. R. Cronly-Dillon, Nature 203, 214 (1964);
 M. Jacobsen and R. Gaze, Quart. J. Exp.
- We thank R. W. Sperry for facilities used in this research and for help with the manuscript; one of us (T.M.D.) is an NSF undergraduate research participant.
- 7 February 1966

6 MAY 1966

Active Transport of 5,5-Dimethyl-2,4-Oxazolidinedione

T. C. Butler (1), commenting on our recent report (2), has suggested an explanation other than active transport for the movement of 5,5-dimethyl-2,4oxazolidinedione (DMO) across the intestinal wall. As he points out, Hogben et al. (3) have postulated that a narrow zone of fluid adjacent to the mucosal cell surface has a higher hydrogen ion concentration than the remainder of the bulk mucosal perfusing solution. Such a microlayer of fluid with a low pH would lead to a relatively high concentration of un-ionized DMO next to the mucosa and, subsequently, to augmented mucosa-to-serosa movement of DMO by means of nonionic diffusion. By this mechanism, values for the ratio of $\left[DMO\right]_{serosa}$ to $\left[DMO\right]_{mucosa}$ greater than 1 could be obtained without postulating active DMO transport.

While this is a reasonable possibility, we have evidence which strongly suggests that this is not the explanation for the net movement of DMO we reported (2). For example, it can be shown that the net movement of another weak acid, cholic acid, which has a pK_a value (6.4) nearly identical to that of DMO, is from the serosal to the mucosal solution in everted gut sacs prepared from the jejunum. The pH of the bulk serosal fluid becomes acid relative to the bulk mucosal solution during the incubation of these sacs (2, 4). Hence, cholic acid, which can cross the intestinal wall via passive nonionic diffusion (4), moves from the serosal media to the mucosal media in response to the hydrogen ion gradient which is measurable between the two bulk solutions.

Thus, it seems highly improbable that a hypothetical pH gradient adjacent to the mucosal cell surface could account for net mucosal-to-serosal movement to DMO while, at the same time, a second weak acid with a nearly identical pK_a value moves in the opposite direction, from the serosal to the mucosal solution, as would be expected from the relative pH values of the bulk perfusing solutions. In point of fact, we consider such data to support even more strongly the concept that DMO is actively transported by the small intestine of the rat, since this substance is moving not only against an electrochemical gradient but, as these data would indicate, against a pH gradient.

Furthermore, the distribution of DMO transport activity down the length

of the small bowel (2, Fig. 1) is remarkably similar to that of α -aminoisobutyric acid, which clearly is actively transported and the movement of which, theroretically, is independent of any pHgradient effect. In addition, the active transport of DMO appears to be stimulated by the presence of glucose in the perfusing media-a finding which has been described in association with the active transport of numerous other substances.

Although we recognize the difficulties of extrapolating from the small intestine to the muscle cell, it seems reasonable to question the validity of the DMO muscle pH method on the basis that this substance may be transported into or out of the cell. The apparent "close agreement" of the $HCO_{\overline{3}}$ and DMO methods for intracellular pH determination commented on by Butler cannot be used as an independent validation of the DMO method for at least two reasons: (i) There is considerable scatter in the intracellular pH values given by either method (varying from 6.85 to 7.10); and (ii) the validity of the $HCO_{\overline{3}}$ method has been seriously challenged, and this challenge has not been adequately answered (5).

> JOHN M. DIETSCHY NORMAN W. CARTER

Department of Internal Medicine, University of Texas

Southwestern Medical School, Dallas

References

- T. C. Butler, Science 151, 1564 (1966).
 J. M. Dietschy and N. W. Carter, *ibid*. 150, 1294 (1965).
- C. A. M. Hogben, D. J. Tocco, B. B. Brodie, L. S. Schanker, J. Pharmacol. Exp. Therap. 125, 275 (1959).
- M. Dietschy, H. S. Soloman, M. D. Siperstein, J. Clin. Invest., in press. E. J. Conway and P. J. Fearon, J. Physiol.
- 5. E 103, 274 (1944).

14 March 1966

A Piston Extractor for the **Hughes Press**

Simplified forms of the Hughes press (1) have been described which permit rapid and efficient breakage of microbial cells (2). Such a press consists essentially of a cylinder block in which the cells are placed and then frozen with dry ice. A piston is inserted into the cylinder, which is then mounted on a second block containing a suitable receiving vessel, and the frozen cells are forced through a small hole in the bottom of the cylinder by use of a hydraulic ram. A disadvantage of this technique is that the cylinder



Fig. 1. The piston extractor.

has small capacity (20 ml or less) and normally requires thawing before the piston can be removed. The extractor described in this note (Fig. 1) allows the piston to be readily withdrawn from the frozen cylinder. Thus the press may be used repeatedly to handle large volumes of cells or many different samples in a minimum time.

A hole was drilled in the top of the piston and a thread cut (3). The extractor was made by modifying a mechanical Arbor press. A hole was drilled through the vertical shaft of the Arbor press to pass a steel rod, which had a knurled knob at the top and was threaded at the bottom to engage the piston. The bottom of the Arbor press was machined to present a horizontal surface to the cylinder block. The piston is quickly and easily drawn from the frozen cylinder by raising the vertical shaft of the Arbor press. The total cost of the extractor was under \$70.

> N. MANDELL C. F. ROBERTS

Department of Biology, Yale University, New Haven, Connecticut

References and Notes

- 1. D. E. Hughes, Brit. J. Exp. Pathol. 32, 97 (1951).
- 2. L. Edebo, Acta Pathol. Microbiol. Scand. 52, 300 (1961); N. R. Eaton, J. Bacteriol. 83, 1359 (1962).
- The press used is one supplied by W. A. Schaerr, 356 Gold Street, Brooklyn, N.Y.
 Supported by PHS research training grant GM 397 and NSF grants G-11228 and GB 2176.
- 28 February 1966

Sky-Hook

In "Satellite elongation into a true 'sky-hook'" [Science 151, 683 (1966)], Isaacs, Vine, Bradner, and Backus begin by saying that "a satellite is in balance between centrifugal and gravitational forces. There is (for all practical purposes) only one force being exerted on a satellite, and that is the centripetal force of gravity. Obviously, if there were two equal and opposite forces acting, the body would merely continue to move in a straightline path according to Newton's first law of motion.

Secondly, a radial cable extending from the surface to whatever altitude is incapable of exerting any tangential force on a mass "climbing" up the cable, if the dynamics of the synchronous system are not to be upset. Further, the system is mechanically incapable of transferring any portion of the earth's energy of rotation into energy of revolution of a satellite. Any energy of revolution will have to be put in by rocket motor, which is precisely the way it is done at present. Consequently, the system is inefficient as well as mechanically unsound and theoretically impossible.

JAMES H. SHEA

Earth Science Curriculum Project, Box 1559, Boulder, Colorado 80302 9 March 1966

Shea is correct that in a nonrotating (inertial) reference frame the only force on the satellite is gravitational and accelerates the satellite. We chose to work in a reference frame rotating with the earth. In such a reference frame the satellite or cable is stationary when unperturbed but is acted on by a D'Alembert force, usually called the centrifugal force, as well as by gravity.

Shea's second argument stems from an aspect of the mechanism that appears to be difficult for many to recognize. It is true that no normal force can be sustained by a rotating cable that is flexible through the length from outer terminus to the center of rotation. However, the system that we presented possesses a finite rigid rotating portion. This rigid segment is the planet. Thus, crucial to our proposal is an approximately equatorial attachment of the inner terminus. By their inclusion and consideration of this segment of the system, Shea and others



Fig. 1. Configuration of cable with mass moved radially.



Fig. 2. An experiment demonstrating tangential force on a mass moving radially along the cable.

who have raised the same question, should recognize how a normal accelerating force can act upon a body that is moved up the cable. We further clarify this in Fig. 1. It is seen there that a tangential force component arises from the deflection of the cable at the rigid periphery at a finite radius, and that a normal force component from a related deflection also acts on the body to accelerate it.

The experiment diagrammed in Fig. 2, a variation of David's sling, demonstrates that a flexible cable, attached by one end to the periphery of a rotating wheel, and free at the other, is capable of imposing a tangential force on a mass that is moved radially out the cable. When the ring is released it moves radially and achieves an appropriately high tangential velocity, which is in marked excess to the peripheral velocity of the wheel. Yet this higher velocity is derived from the motion of the wheel. Although in this case the region of gravitational attraction is miniscule, the experiment nevertheless demonstrates that a singly attached flexible cable is capable of conveying tangential velocity to a body moved radially along it.

JOHN D. ISAACS

HUGH BRADNER GEORGE E. BACKUS

Scripps Institute of Oceanography, University of California, La Jolla ALLYN C. VINE

Woods Hole Oceanographic Institute,

Woods Hole, Massachusetts 26 March 1966