SCIENCE 25 October 1974 Vol. 186, No. 4161

Vol. 186, No. 4161

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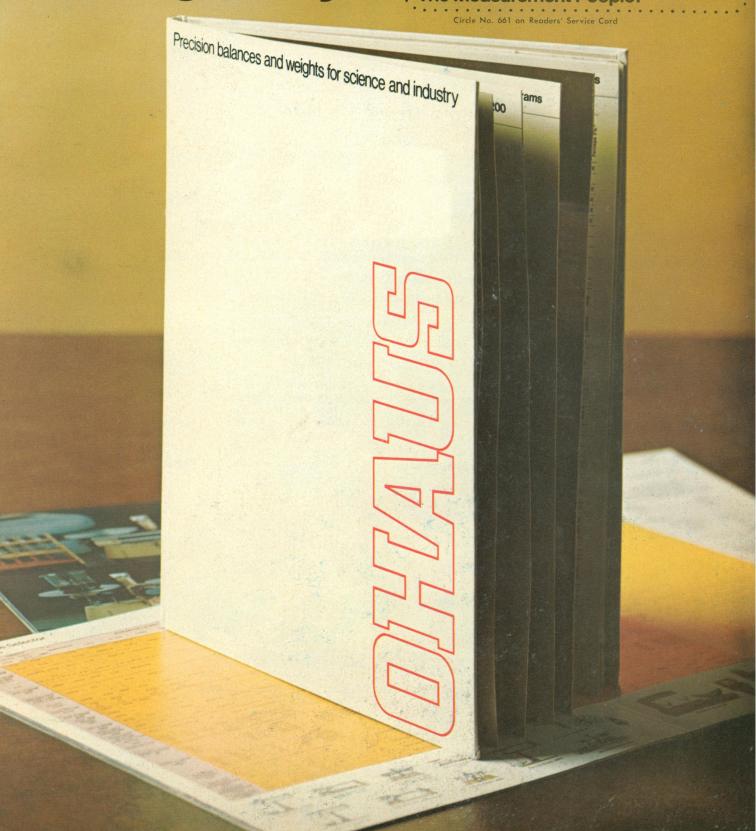
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Volume 186, No. 4161

SCIENCE

LETTERS	Presidential Science Advising: C. Kaysen and P. Kakela; Copyright Policy: F. Burkhardt; N. C. Moran; W. J. Fraser; N. L. Henry	302
EDITORIAL	Genetic Engineering: How Great Is the Danger?: B. D. Davis	30 9
ARTICLES	Molluscan Phylogeny: The Paleontological Viewpoint: B. Runnegar and J. Pojeta, Jr.	311
	Marijuana and Driving in Real-Life Situations: H. Klonoff	317
	University Research and The New Federalism: D. C. Spriestersbach, M. E. Hoppin, J. McCrone	324
EWS AND COMMENT	Manslaughter: The Charge against Edelin of Boston City Hospital	327
	Brain Drain Is Hampering Development in LDC's	329
	Sex Therapy: Making It as a Science and an Industry	330
RESEARCH NEWS	Stratospheric Pollution: Multiple Threats to Earth's Ozone	335
BOOK REVIEWS	Social Processes of Scientific Development, reviewed by A. Thackray; Metal Ions in Biological Systems and Inorganic Biochemistry, L. H. Pignolet; Theoretical Nuclear Physics, D. R. Inglis; Physics of Dense Matter, E. E. Salpeter; The World of Walther Nernst, M. J. Klein; Books Received	339
ANNUAL MEETING	Science and Human Imagination: A. Herschman; Housing and Registration Forms	344

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REPORTS	Paleomagnetic Dating of Cave Paintings in Tito Bustillo Cave, Asturias, Spain: K. M. Creer and J. S. Kopper	348
	Water Salination: A Source of Energy: R. S. Norman	350
	Asteroids: Surface Composition from Reflection Spectroscopy: T. B. McCord and M. J. Gaffey	352
	Volcanic Dust and Meteor Rates: J. A. Kennewell and C. D. Ellyett	35 5
	Synthesis of Cell Wall Microfibrils in vitro by a "Soluble" Chitin Synthetase from Mucor rouxii: J. Ruiz-Herrera and S. Bartnicki-Garcia	357
	Neuroblastoma: Drug-Induced Differentiation Increases Proportion of Cytoplasmic RNA That Contains Polyadenylic Acid: S. C. Bondy, K. N. Prasad, J. L. Purdy	359
	Deuterium Micromapping of Biological Samples by Using the $D(T,n)$ He Reaction and Plastic Track Detectors: $F. H. Geisler$ et al	361
	Singlet Excited Oxygen as a Mediator of the Antibacterial Action of Leukocytes: N. I. Krinsky	363
	Mammalian Hepatic Lectin: R. J. Stockert, A. G. Morell, I. H. Scheinberg	365
MEETINGS	Gordon Research Conferences: Winter Program, 1975: A. M. Cruickshank	367
PRODUCTS AND Materials	Organic Carbon Analyzer; Tunable Laser; Disposable Chromatograph Columns; Reagent for Trace Metal Analysis; Cortisol Radioimmunoassay; Sample Atomizer; Fun with a Microscope Kit; Petri Dish Filler; Literature	376

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GEOLOGY AND GEOGRAPHY (E)

Ferah L. Smiley
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COVER

Electron micrograph of chitin microfibrils assembled in vitro (about × 64,000). See page 357. [V. O. Sing, J. Ruiz-Herrera, and S. Bartnicki-Garcia, University of California, Riverside]



PHOTO BY MARTHA SWOPE

"Hair" we ain't. But we drew 30,000.

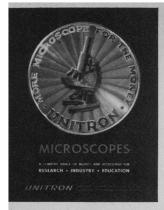
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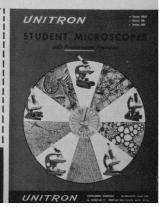


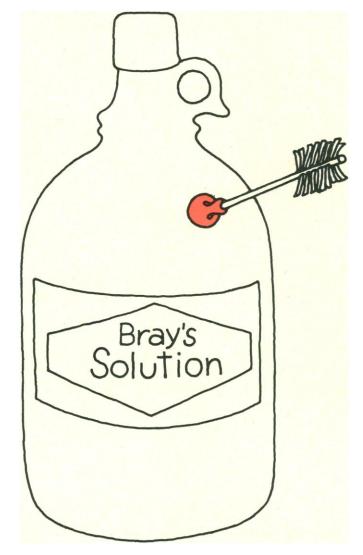


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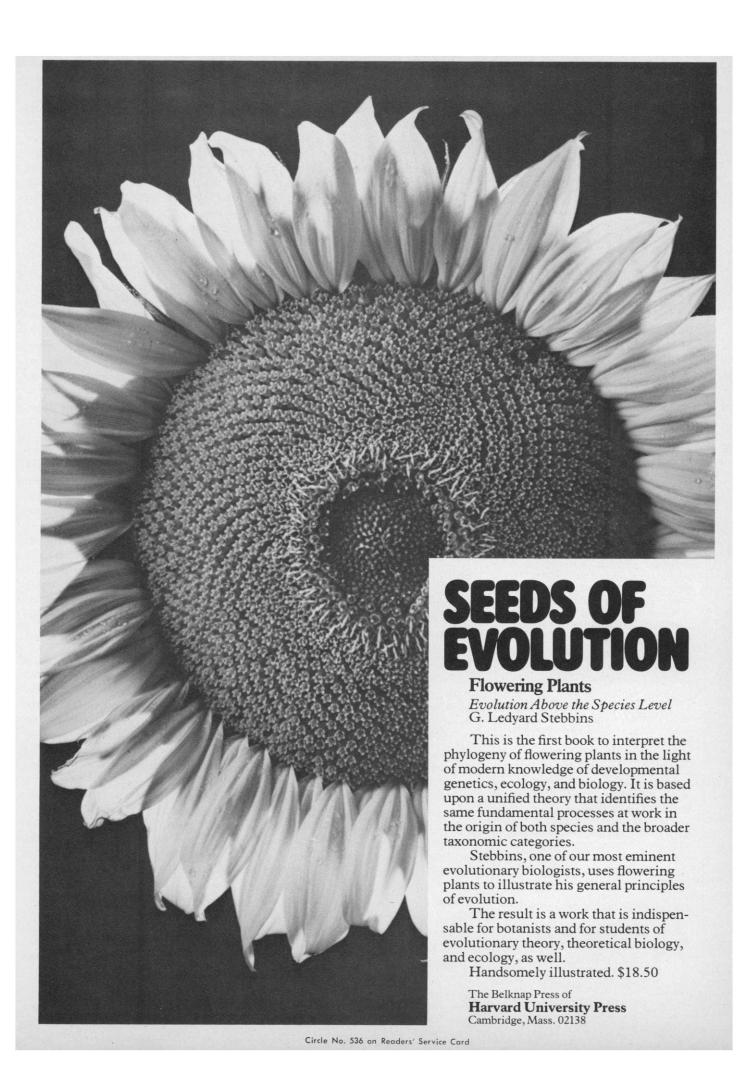
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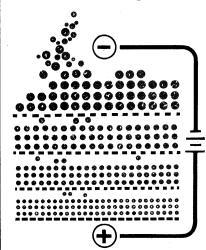
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Henry's analysis and proposals make a valuable contribution to the literature on copyright, but several points should be added, emphasized, or considered in slightly altered contexts.

First, it seems curious that most current discussions of copyright problems with photocopying and computers quickly become partial reviews of the role of libraries in copying. Frightened publishers seem to ignore the existence of coin-operated copying machines in public places other than libraries. Henry notes the influence of decreasing computational and copying costs on the increase in the rate of copying. He fails, however, to consider the potential impact of photocopiers and computers small and inexpensive enough to attract private purchasers. It would certainly be questionable public policy to prohibit copying in libraries if the only effect is to create lucrative photocopying sidelines for businesses across the street from the library or to enlarge the market for home copying devices. Focusing too narrowly on libraries diverts attention from the overriding problem economic adjustment to technological change.

Second, neither Henry nor many other nonlibrarians seem aware that libraries now routinely pay many journal publishers "institutional rates" that are much higher than regular subscription rates. Far from being parasites, libraries help subsidize low subscription rates for members of many scientific and professional associations. Any clearinghouse system which carries an administrative price tag of \$300 million would be sure to increase library costs, which must either be passed on to the patron, inhibiting copying, or absorbed by the library. Since institutional budgets in the 1970's have become less and less elastic, it seems likely that libraries that did not pass on all administrative costs would soon be forced to find some other way to reduce expenditures. Some publishers might not like the outcome of such budgetary reviews.

Third, Henry, in common with many other commentators, discusses copyright problems without any reference to the statement of purpose for copyright clearly given in the portion of Article 1, Section 8, of the Constitution, which grants the Congress patent and copyright power in order "To promote the Progress of Science and the Useful Arts." Perhaps as a result of this omission, neither Henry nor his unnamed but "informed observers" correctly an-

ticipated the U.S. Court of Claims decision (1) in favor of the U.S. government in the Williams & Wilkins case. The majority quoted the constitutional purpose and buttressed it with a quote from the 1909 Copyright Act House Committee report to the effect that copyright was not "'... primarily for the benefit of the author, but primarily for the benefit of the public' (2). In addition, the majority cited case law and quoted the Supreme Court statement that "'The copyright law, like the patent statutes, makes reward to the owner a secondary consideration'" (3).

If, as now seems likely, the Soviet Union subscribes to international copyright conventions in an effort to suppress foreign publication of the works of domestic heretics, American publishers may join librarians and the rest of the scholarly community in taking the position that the public's right to know is more important than the property rights of an irascible and repressive copyright holder.

Fourth, Henry's report that three journals are born and one dies daily will startle very few librarians. Nonprofit, scholarly journals are often the part-time responsibility of harried academics who publish numbers out of order, change names of their journals with bewildering frequency, and take the offices of the journals with them as they move from one university to another. Getting photocopying permission from a defunct journal could be even more difficult than securing a missed number.

Henry's first consideration for federal policies is given as that of assuring the availability of adequate information. Availability certainly requires that the copyright system or its successor system should not permit scholarly material to become unavailable for copying because of a repressive or a defunct copyright holder.

Henry's final proposal seems valid. Sound research is always an appropriate prelude to policy decisions. But determination of public policy also involves making value judgments. In placing the public's interest before the private right to sequester information or to make profit from it, the Constitution makes a value judgment which is still a valid basis for public policies in this area.

Walter J. Fraser Graduate School of Library Service, Rutgers University, New Brunswick, New Jersey 08903

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Williams & Wilkins Company v. The United States, No. 73-68, U.S. Court of Claims (1973).
 U.S. House of Representatives, Committee on Copyright, Report No. 222 (60th Congr., 2nd sess., 1909), p. 7 [quoted in (I), p. 12].
 Mazer v. Stein, 347 U.S. 201, 219 (1954) [quoted in (I), p. 12].

I am pleased to learn that the American Council of Learned Societies (ACLS) has modified its initial proowner position. Burkhardt stated before the House Judiciary Committee on 30 June 1964 that the ACLS could not agree with the position of the National Education Association on the copying of educational materials, which "apparently would give a full and free right for the use of photocopy by 'recognized educational institutions or organizations.' With the present development of photocopying techniques, this could work to the disadvantage of authors as well as publishers. The ACLS is in accord with the opinions of Mr. [Lee C.] Deighton . . ." (1, p. 290). Deighton was at that time the chief spokesman on copyright for the book publishing industry. Relatedly, in its Newsletter of December 1965, the ACLS stated its position as one which favored the copying of extracts for research purposes, but not of whole works without the consent of the copyright owner (2, pp. 9-12).

While the ACLS did not take a position on copyright and computerbased information storage and retrieval systems, Burkhardt stated before a House subcommittee on 5 August 1965 that "it seemed to us that a system of controls, royalty charges, and so forth could easily be set up on such a centralized electronic computer system," a remark that would appear to favor the position of copyright owners on this subject (3, p. 1550). The testimony submitted by the ACLS to the House Judiciary Committee on 5 August 1965 cited by Burkhardt refers to the period of copyright duration, not to that aspect of copyright covered in my article, which was public policies for the new information technologies.

I presume that Burkhardt is referring to the controversial amendment to Section 108(d) (1) of S. 644 proposed in 1971 by library interests. If so, then this represents a change in the ACLS position. Overall, however, I agree with Burkhardt that there "is no way to resolve these conflicting interests completely. . . .'

Moran is correct that too little attention is paid in the copyright debate to

the differing motivations of different kinds of data producers. Only recently, in fact, have copyright owners begun to recognize this distinction; the formation of the Information Industry Association in 1969 and the organization by the Copyright Committee of the Association of American Publishers of two task forces on photocopying, one for scientific and medical publishing and the other for literary works (4), attest to this growing awareness. I also agree with Moran that the growing practice of using page charges as a means of subsidizing the production of scientific information is worth greater analysis than it has received; I discuss the role of the page charge in my article, "Copyright: An adequate policy for knowledge management in technological societies?" (5).

Contrary to Fraser's contention, many persons are cognizant of the increasingly frequent propensity of journal publishers to charge high "institutional" subscription rates to libraries on the obviously avaricious theory that libraries are professionally obligated to provide as much information as possible to their patrons; indeed, the practice is noted in a report on photocopying by John Walsh (News and Comment, 29 Mar., p. 1274). Many persons also are aware of Article 1, Section 8, of the Constitution. The narrow decision (3 to 4) by the U.S. Court of Claims to overturn the recommendation of its own commissioner in the Williams & Wilkins case is by most measures an unusual one, and one that I and others did not expect. I have little doubt that the Constitution was taken into account in the decisions of both the commissioner and the Court of Claims (6) and will be relied on again when the U.S. Supreme Court reviews the case, as it has agreed to do.

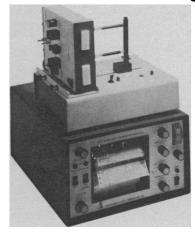
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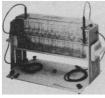
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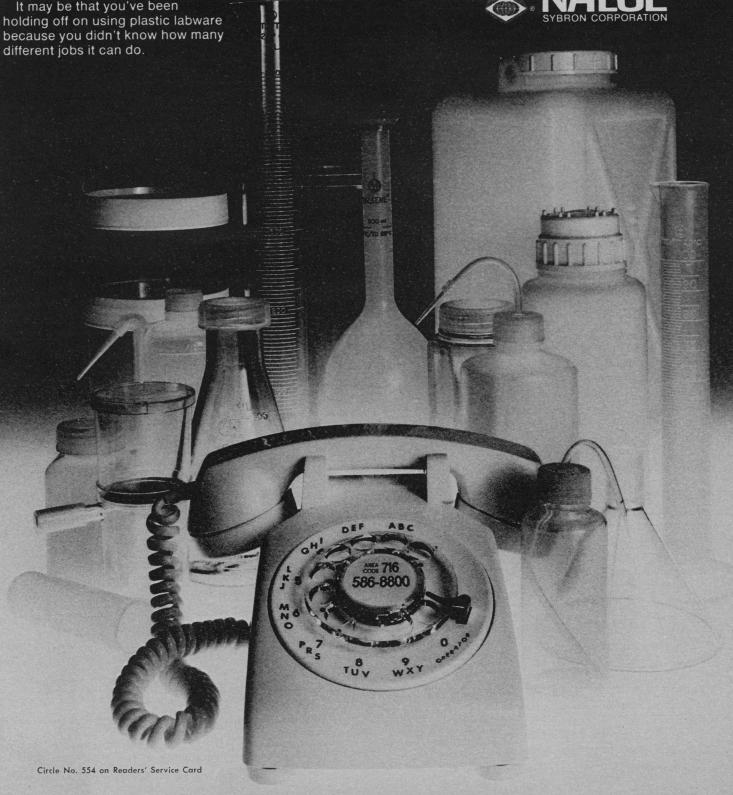
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Genetic Engineering: How Great Is the Danger?

Public concern over the potential dangers of genetic engineering in man now seems likely to be activated again, since a recent statement of a committee of the National Academy of Sciences* has brought to public attention the definite dangers of genetic engineering in bacteria.

Two major categories of genetic engineering in man may be envisaged. One, aimed at replacing defective genes, has given rise to fear that the technique would be used not only to cure disease but also to modify peoples' natures. Indeed, the prospect of parents shopping in a genetic supermarket, or of a tyrant specifying the genes in his subjects, would be harrowing. But for a realistic assessment of these dangers the distinction between single-gene traits and polygenic traits is crucial. The former depend on a single definable gene, with a recognizable qualitative effect (for example, the presence or absence of particular protein, such as sickle cell hemoglobin). In contrast, polygenic traits (for example, size and shape, strength and dexterity, intelligence and special talents, features of temperament), which are socially much more interesting, show a continuous range of variation, because they depend on the sum of the small contributions of many genes interacting with many environmental factors.

The contrast in our knowledge of these two classes of traits is enormous. The success of molecular genetics has been confined to single-gene traits. For any behavioral trait we know only that many genes are involved: we have no idea how their products contribute to the circuitry of the 10 billion cells of the developing human brain. Moreover, we cannot identify *one* gene or protein whose variation contributes to the normal range of behavior, though we would need such information for many genes before we could try to modify behavior by manipulating DNA.

This vast ignorance about polygenic traits protects us against the main possibilities of harm from gene replacements. On the other hand, the possibilities for good are enormous, with increasing recognition of single genes that influence many aspects of man's health (such as specific immune responses). Hence it would be tragic to discourage efforts to overcome the technical obstacles—and these are still large.

The other major category of gene manipulation is the production of an exact gene copy of an individual. Such cloning, already accomplished with frogs, seems likely to become feasible in mammals fairly soon, and in a world facing severe food shortages the incentive to clone prize cattle will be strong. Extension to humans would indeed have grave and novel moral implications. But the dangers are hardly terrifying. If human cloning becomes feasible, and if it is then proscribed, an occasional violation would not shake the heavens. Moreover, if a tyrant wished to develop a particular kind of population he would not need cloning but could employ selective breeding, as used in animal husbandry since neolithic times.

Genetic engineering presents quite different problems in man and in bacteria. With bacteria the moral issues are simple. With man the moral issues are novel, and the problem is a general one for society. But since we cannot predict when a particular kind of manipulation may become feasible, and since moral standards and social needs change with time, it would be presumptuous for us to try to guide future generations by our present wisdom.

It seems important for scientists to help the public to sort out these complex issues and avoid anxiety over improbable or distant developments. Such anxiety could lead to pruning of valuable major limbs on the tree of knowledge, rather than of branches with dangerous fruit.

—Bernard D. Davis, Bacterial Physiology Unit, Harvard Medical School, Boston, Massachusetts 02115

^{*} P. Berg, D. Baltimore, H. W. Boyer, S. N. Cohen, R. W. Davis, D. S. Hogness, D. Nathans, R. Roblin, J. D. Watson, S. Weissman, N. D. Zinder, Science 185, 303 (1974).

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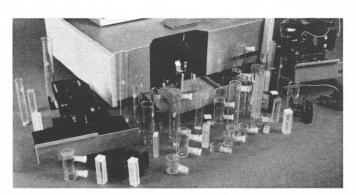
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Electron Microscopy In Pathology

by George Bridges and J. H. Martin, Baylor University Medical Center, Dallas, Texas

Introduction

Electron microscopy has become a useful diagnostic tool of the pathologist. Although its use on every specimen is impractical and, in fact, wasteful at our present level of knowledge and technical capability, the electron microscopic examination of selected surgical specimens and autopsy specimens is every bit as practical and useful as many of the "special" stains routinely employed in many pathology laboratories.

The principal developments allowing for the increased current application of electron microscopy in diagnostic pathology as we see them are: (1) the collection of specimens in a dual purpose aldehyde fixative allowing for both light and later electron microscopy on the same biopsy specimen, (2) rapid, simplified and reliable dehydration, embedding, staining and photographic techniques making

the results of electron microscopy available within twenty four hours of receiving the specimen, (3) wide-spread usage of the "adjacent" or "thick" 0.5 micron epoxy embedded and cover slipped sections for light microscopy as a selective device and bridge between conventional paraffin embedding techniques and electron microscopy and (4) the relatively recent development of excellent, reliable ultramicrotomes and high-quality, simplified electron microscopes opening the door to technologists as operators rather than highly skilled artisans.

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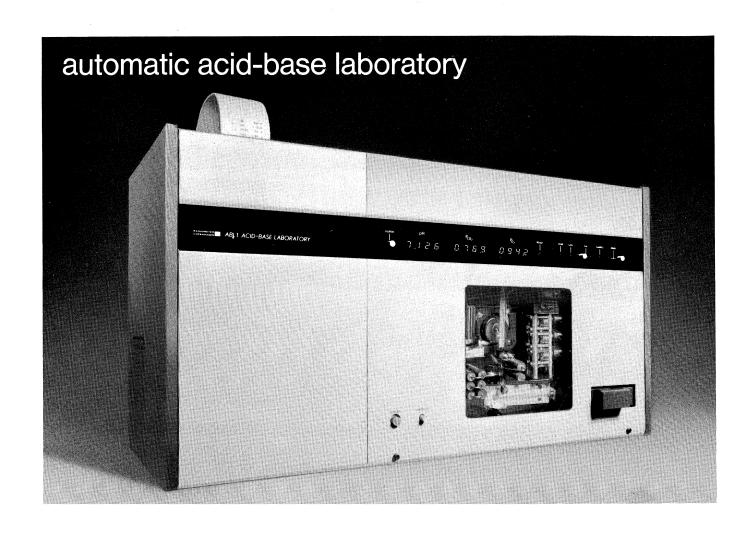
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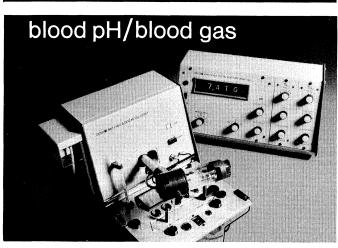
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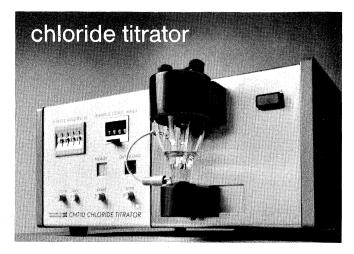
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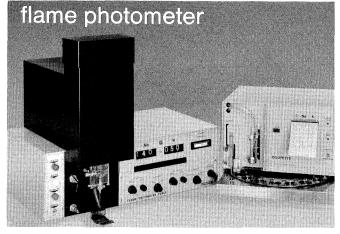
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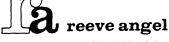
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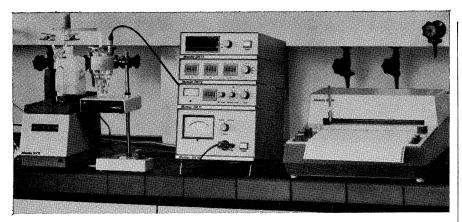
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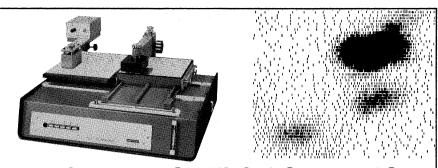
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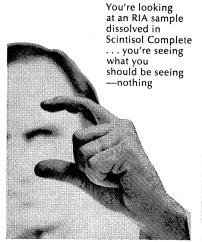


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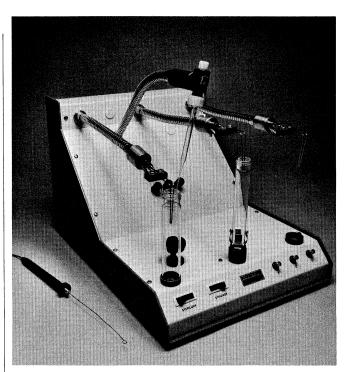
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30 January. Organic electrochemistry (A. Bard, discussion leader): F. Beck, "Cell design and engineering aspects in organic electrosynthesis"; P. Zuman, "The role of hydration in electroreduction and electrooxidation of some carbonyl compounds." (R. deLevie, discussion leader): (speaker and subject to be announced).

31 January. Nerve conduction (R. deLevie, discussion leader): C. P. Bean, "Electrical microstimulation of nerves"; A. Pilla, "Electrochemical information transfer at living cell membranes."

BOOKS RECEIVED

(Continued from page 343)

Fish Immunology. Douglas P. Anderson. Stanislas F. Snieszko and Herbert R. Axelrod, Eds. T.F.H. Publications, Neptune City, N.J., 1974. 240 pp., illus. \$9.95. Diseases of the Fishes, No. 4.

From Theoretical Physics to Biology. Proceedings of a conference, Versailles, France, June 1971. M. Marois, Ed. Karger, Basel, 1974. xvi, 468 pp., illus. \$43.

Fundamentals of Physics. David Halliday and Robert Resnick with the assistance of W. Farrell Edwards and John Merrill. Wiley, New York, 1974. xxii, 828

pp., illus. \$15.95. Reprint of the 1970 edition.

The GASP IV Simulation Language. A. Alan B. Pritsker. Wiley-Interscience, New York, 1974. xviii, 452 pp., illus. \$17.50.

Génétique des Populations Humaines. Albert Jacquard with the assistance of André Chaventré, Laurent Degos, André Langaney, and Philippe Lefèvre-Witier. Presses Universitaires de France, Paris, 1974. 220 pp., illus. Paper, 35 F. Collection Sup. Le Biologiste.

Igneous Petrology. Ian S. E. Carmichael, Francis J. Turner, and John Verhoogen. McGraw-Hill, New York, 1974. xvi, 740 pp., illus. \$22.50. McGraw-Hill International Series in the Earth and Planetary Sciences.

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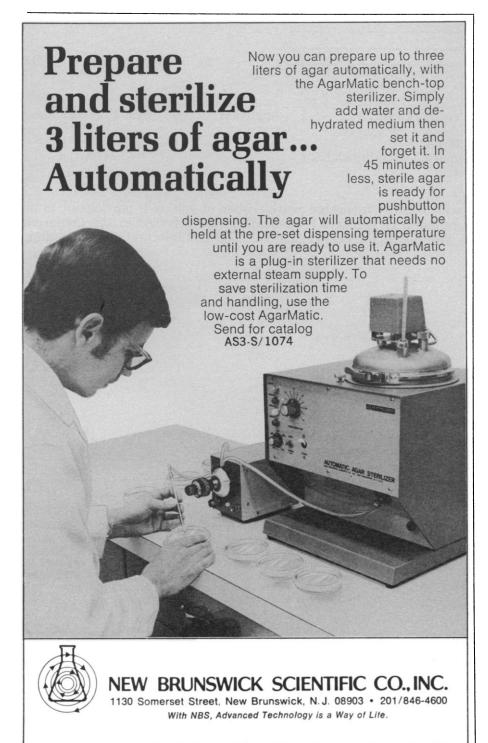
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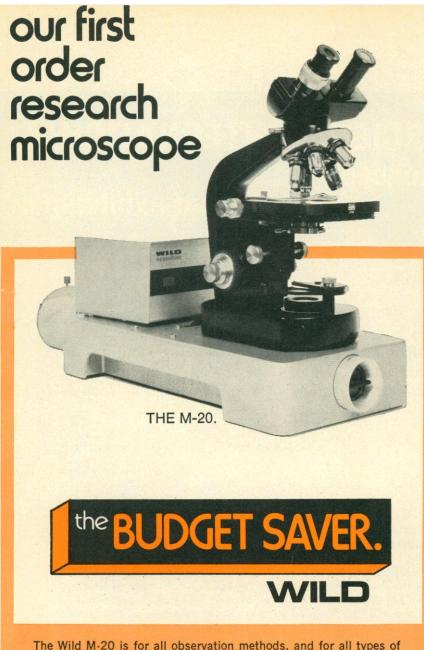
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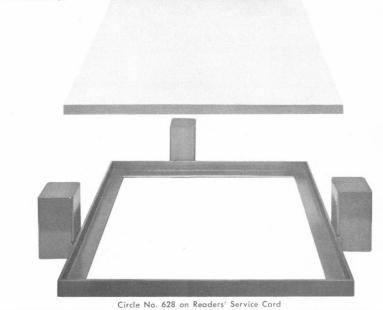
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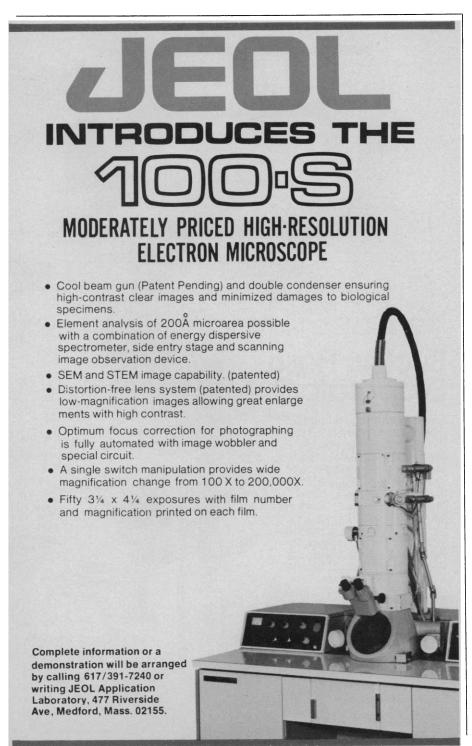
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