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LETTERS	R & D Expenditures in the United States: M. M. Shahin; Velikovskianism: F. T. Lowrey; L. M. Greenberg	1334
EDITORIAL	Scientists and World Needs	1341
ARTICLES	Toxic Gases from Fires: J. B. Terrill, R. R. Montgomery, C. F. Reinhardt	1343
	Neuronal Generation of the Leech Swimming Movement: G. S. Stent et al	1348
	Cognitive Development and Social Policy: A. Firkowska et al	1357
NEWS AND COMMENT	Cancer and the Mind: How Are They Connected?	1363
	Briefing: U.S. Semiconductor Lead Threatened, Officials Say; White House to Study Industrial Innovation; Colorado Professor Fired over False Accounts	1364
	The Plight of the "Deinstitutionalized" Mental Patient	1366
	Senate Passes Back Gene Splice Cup	1368
	IRS Questions Tax Status of Six Science, Engineering Groups	1369
RESEARCH NEWS	Flexible PVF_2 Film: An Exceptional Polymer for Transducers	1371
BOOK REVIEWS	Modes of Speciation, <i>reviewed by H. Lewis</i> ; Social Comparison Processes, <i>B. Latané</i> ; Topics in Interstellar Matter, <i>E. J. Wampler</i> ; Studies in the Archeological History of the Deh Luran Plain, <i>H. Weiss</i> ; Books Received	1375
REPORTS	Regional Differences in the Phase Velocity and the Quality Factor Q of Mantle Rayleigh Waves: I. Nakanishi	1379
	Immunofluorescent Detection of Nuclear Double-Stranded RNA in situ in Vero and Mosquito Cells: B. D. Stollar, R. Koo, V. Stollar	1381

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Evidence of Paleozoic Chromosomes from Lycopod Microgametophytes; S. D. Brack-Hanes and J. C. Vaughn	1383
Pattern Formation by Cultured Human Epidermal Cells: Development of Curved Ridges Resembling Dermatoglyphs: H. Green and J. Thomas	1385
Preparation of Sarcolemmal Membrane from Myocardial Tissue Culture Monolayer by High-Velocity Gas Dissection: G. A. Langer, J. S. Frank, K. D. Philipson .	1388
Identification of a C-Glucuronide of Δ^6 -Tetrahydrocannabinol as a Mouse Liver Conjugate in vivo: S. Levy, B. Yagen, R. Mechoulam	1391
Isolated Retinas Synthesize Visual Pigments from Retinol Congeners Delivered by Liposomes: S. Yoshikami and G. N. Nöll	1393
Blood-Brain Neutral Amino Acid Transport Activity Is Increased After Portacaval Anastomosis: J. H. James, J. Escourrou, J. E. Fischer	1395
Chloroquine Resistance Produced in vitro in an African Strain of Human Malaria: <i>P. Nguyen-Dinh</i> and <i>W. Trager</i>	1397
Quantitation of Hindered Rotations of Diphenylhexatriene in Lipid Bilayers by Differential Polarized Phase Fluorometry: J. R. Lakowicz and F. G. Prendergast	1399
Comparison of Rhapidosomes and Asbestos Microfibrils: W. G. Hutchinson, R. I. Harker, M. M. Allen	1401
Chemosensory Grazing by Marine Calanoid Copepods (Arthropoda: Crustacea): S. A. Poulet and P. Marsot.	1403
Copulatory Vocalizations of Chacma Baboons (<i>Papio ursinus</i>), Gibbons (<i>Hylobates hoolock</i>), and Humans: W. J. Hamilton, III and P. C. Arrowood	1405
Commissural Transmission: Maturational Changes in Humans: A. Salamy	1409
Lateralization of Norepinephrine in Human Thalamus: A. Oke et al	1411
Medial Preoptic Lesions and Male Sexual Behavior: Age and Environmental Interactions: D. G. Twiggs, H. B. Popolow, A. A. Gerall	1414
Technical Comments: Palmitoleic Acid in Erythrocytes from Carriers of Duchenne Muscular Dystrophy: G. A. Rao, K. Siler, E. C. Larkin; J. L. Howland and D. J. McAllister; Axon-Sparing Brain Lesioning Technique: B. Merker; E. L. Simson and R. M. Gold.	1416

PRODUCTS AND MATERIALS

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COVER

Body wave of a swimming leech, as seen in sequence (top to bottom) of successive movie frames taken at 35millisecond intervals. The right-to-left horizontal displacement depicts the true forward progress of the animal. See page 1348. [W. H. Kristan, Jr., C. A. Ort, and G. S. Stent, University of California, Berkeley]

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LETTERS

R & D Expenditures in the United States

Recently published data (l) bear witness to the continuing erosion of support for science and technology in this country. The general trends of the data show two specific problems that deserve a high degree of attention by responsible authorities. These relate to (i) the total expenditure for research and development (R & D) in the nation as a whole and (ii) the expenditure for basic research in industry.

Although the debate regarding the appropriate level of R & D expenditure has continued over the years, with various factions advocating different economic indicators as a basis, no one has raised the issue that the level should perhaps depend upon equivalent activities in other developed nations with which we trade. Perhaps this is due to the continuing change in the value of U.S. currency with respect to that of other countries, as well as to the variation in direct and overhead costs per researcher, which makes such comparisons difficult.





Fig. 1. Scientists and engineers engaged in R & D per 10,000 population by country, 1965-75.





To overcome this confusion and to obtain a more meaningful comparison, I suggest we use the data on the total number of scientists and engineers engaged in R & D activities in the various countries (1, pp. 7 and 86). If we assume equivalent brainpower, dedication, and facilities, these data yield some interesting observations (Fig. 1). Perhaps the most striking comparison can be made between the United States and Japan, where the data show, respectively, 25 and 22 scientists and engineers per 10,000 of the general population for 1974. More recent data show the numbers to be 25 and 24, respectively, for 1975, with the number for Japan still rising. Since the population of Japan is about half that of the United States, it follows that, in absolute terms, the United States has twice as many people involved in R & D as does Japan, a preliminarily comforting thought.

Unfortunately, if we then look at the historical record of areas where the government portion of R & D expenditures has been used, we realize that, whereas the U.S. government spends approximately 64 percent of its R & D outlay on defense and space-related work, the Japanese government spends only 8 percent of its outlay (1, p, 9). These figures are approximate, but nevertheless they present a telling story about the magnitude of Japan's R & D effort. In terms of actual manpower in work not related to defense or space, Japan in 1975 had three scientists and engineers working in R & D for every four in the United States. While it is possible to cite a few past fallouts from space- and defense-related research in the United States, we should not overlook the fact that Japan has built a powerful R & D force aimed directly at commercial markets. The potential consequences of this strength in terms of overall economic returns for Japan, both now and in the immediate future, are apparent and need not be reemphasized.

The second problem relates to the level of basic research expenditures in industry. Here, the data (I, pp. 69 and 225)show a continuous drop since 1967 to the extent that, in 1976, the value of all basic research in industry, in constant dollars, remains approximately the same as that in 1960 (Fig. 2). The universities, fortunately, have fared much better, holding their level to approximately the same value as that in the 1967 peak year, or almost three times that in industry. The decline of basic research in industry has, unfortunately, come about through elimination of this type of work in many of



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the small and medium-sized companies, where the absence of such skills now makes their interaction with universities more difficult. This may, therefore, exclude these companies from participation in joint university-industry research programs of the type that the National Science Foundation is attempting to promote (2). Although this trend is the direct result of judgments made by the managements of these industries (and perhaps reflects the view that more short-term than long-term investment is desirable at this time), the long-term impact of this change in policy is extremely detrimental to the country as a whole. The companies that will be able to participate in this program are those which need this assistance least, as they already have a reasonable internal component of basic research. Most of these companies will, in fact, shy away from the program because of its extra administrative burden. The result can be a generally unfavorable response to the program.

To counteract this unfortunate trend, it may be necessary for Congress to provide certain tax incentives to industry to promote basic research. With a basic research core reestablished in many of the companies that have now abandoned it, the hope for a more successful promotion of joint university-industry research programs through the National Science Foundation grants may come closer to reality.

MICHAEL M. SHAHIN

Webster Research Center, Xerox Corporation,

Rochester, New York 14644

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Velikovskianism

One of Anthony F. Aveni's concluding statements in his review (20 Jan., p. 288) of Scientists Confront Velikovsky (1), a collection of papers from a 1974 AAAS symposium, is: "As far as Velikovskianism is concerned it is dead and buried. The final nail has been driven." Nothing could be further from the truth.

In its November 1977 issue, which appeared about the same time as Scientists Confront Velikovsky, KRONOS, an interdisciplinary journal devoted to the investigation of Velikovsky's theories, presented a very effective answer to the criticism in the book. That issue, which has been published as a book under the title Velikovsky and Establishment Science (KRONOS Press, Glassboro State College, Glassboro, N.J.; vi, 144 pp., illus., \$9.95; also available in paperback version at \$5), contains Velikovsky's AAAS address "My challenge to conventional views in science," rebuttals by Velikovsky to the arguments of four of his critics at the AAAS meeting, a special answer by Velikovsky to ten points raised by Carl Sagan, and rebuttals by six Velikovsky supporters to criticism contained in Scientists Confront Velikovsky. These articles show that the present-day critics of Velikovsky have not learned anything from the mistakes of those of the 1950 era, some of whom were shown not to have read the work they were criticizing.

I was not fortunate enough to attend the AAAS Velikovsky symposium. However, I did purchase the five cassette tapes prepared by the AAAS covering the morning and evening sessions of the symposium. After listening to them numerous times, including Velikovsky's rebuttals from the floor, I concluded that Velikovsky had the better of all arguments.

It is my personal opinion that anyone considering criticizing Velikovsky's work would do well first to read all his books carefully. Then he or she should read all the pro-Velikovsky writings such as those contained in Pensée, KRONOS, and SIS Review. I think it is probable that, having done so, a critic who is honest with himself or herself would be changed from anti-Velikovsky to pro-Velikovsky.

F. THOMAS LOWREY

2230 Clairmont Drive, Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania 15241

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... In paragraph two of his review, Aveni misrepresents the time scale and disarranges the sequence of Velikovsky's cosmological scenario. According to Worlds in Collision, Venus was not ejected from Jupiter 2500 years ago as Aveni states; 2500 years ago would have been 166 years after the last cosmic catastrophe (-687) proposed by Velikovsky. . .

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Scientists and World Needs

Scientists have a long tradition of international cooperation. Initially their interaction was based on admiration for scientific contributions. With time the intensity and scope of interaction have increased. Air travel and the telephone have multiplied the opportunities for meaningful contacts, mutual respect, and friendships. In consequence scientists have tended to be unusually internationally minded.

Until the last decade cooperation among scientists was focused strongly on fostering science. But now substantial emphasis is being directed toward important world problems. In seeking to be helpful in meeting human needs elsewhere, scientists have discovered that the practical problems are complex and difficult; quick solutions are enormously costly. The world's scientists possess a substantial fraction of relevant intellectual capacity; they have very little control of funds.

Under such circumstances, it would be easy to become frustrated. But this has not happened; rather the tempo of organized efforts has increased, stimulated in part by the forthcoming United Nations Conference on Science and Technology for Development. But activities by scientists will go on long after the meeting at Vienna in August 1979.

An important focus of the continuing efforts will be the International Scientific Unions. One example of activities involves the International Union of Pure and Applied Chemistry (IUPAC). Its activities are carried out by 1500 experts from 43 member countries who cover the spectrum of chemistry-related sciences and technologies. For most of its 59 years of existence the Union devoted its efforts to the regulation of atomic weights, chemical nomenclature and symbolization, analytical procedures, and standard methods of assay.

But IUPAC has recognized that though such activities are useful they are not enough, and it has created a mechanism designed to aid in identifying and solving problems of chemistry having direct impact on human needs. The effort bears the title Chemical Research Applied to World Needs (CHEMRAWN). IUPAC's initial enterprise under CHEMRAWN is a first World Conference on Future Sources of Organic Raw Materials. This major conference will discuss alternatives to petroleum as future sources of chemicals and chemical feedstocks. The conference, to be held in Toronto from 10 through 13 July 1978, will be attended by world leaders from government, industry, and academia. They will seek to define those factors that will determine the sources of organic raw materials at the end of this century.

Another example of effort by the scientific unions is an activity spearheaded by the umbrella organization for all of them—the International Council of Scientific Unions (ICSU). Through ICSU initiative, a number of nongovernmental organizations including those of engineers and social scientists will host a symposium in Singapore during late January 1979 that will involve participants from many countries. Objectives of the meeting include identification of substantive inputs into the U.N. Conference on Science and Technology for Development. Of more lasting consequence is exploration of institutional and other innovations which would enlarge the opportunities for scientists and engineers to participate in future years in the improvement of the human condition. One of the important objectives of the symposium is to illuminate the basic conditions necessary for the assimilation of science and technology into developing countries in a manner which significantly contributes to the development process. The symposium will explore such questions as "How can a systematic approach be made country by country to selection of technology relevant to it?" Such an approach is required because the various nations differ greatly in educational levels, technological know-how, internal markets, natural resources, financial strengths, managerial talents, and political climates.

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Newly offered instrumentation, apparatus, and laboratory materials of interest to researchers in all disciplines in academic, industrial, and government organizations are featured in this space. Emphasis is given to purpose, chief characteristics, and availability of products and materials. Endorsement by *Science* or AAAS is not implied. Additional information may be obtained from the manufacturers or suppliers named by circling the appropriate number on the Readers' Service Card (on pages 1326A and 1422G) and placing it in the mailbox. Postage is free. —RICHARD G. SOMMER subpopulations for sorting, differential counting, and frequency distribution. The helium-neon laser measures scatter and an argon laser measures fluorescence. The detectors measure pulse height, pulse area, and pulse width. Correlation of these measurements yields morphologic information from the output of the four detectors. Ortho Instruments. Circle 709.

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Thin Layer Chromatography describes plates with a spotting guide and metric Rf scale to eliminate overlays and templates. Analtech. Circle 715.

High Performance Liquid Chromatograph is devoted to the series 2000 modular unit for analysis and certain preparative applications. Instrumentation Specialties (ISCO). Circle 716.

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Column Air Bath Oven features the LC-100 module for any liquid chromatograph. Perkin-Elmer. Circle 718.

Spectrophotometer describes the model 380 for research measurement of linear absorbance, concentration or transmittance. Turner Associates. Circle 719.

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R. Hart, A. Krezlewicz and D. Madden, "Use of a New Fluorescent Immunoassay System for Detection of Cytomegalovirus and Herpes Antibodies" (Paper delivered at the AAI Meeting, Atlanta, GA, June 1978).
D. D'Arcangelis and R. Deibel, "Experience with a Quantitative Assay of Rubella Antibody by a Single-Serum-Dilution Indirect Immunofluorescence (IF) Test" (Paper delivered at the ASM Meeting, Las Vegas, NV, May 1978).

P. Stiffler and L. Yang, "Comparison of FIAX[™] system with Immunofluorescent Antibody (IFA) Technique for Detection of Anti-Nuclear Antibodies in Human Serum" (Paper delivered at the ASM Meeting, Las Vegas, NV, May 1978).

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SCIENCE, VOL. 200