strands was then placed with an RNA molecule of interest. The RNA formed a duplex with the area on one of the strands that would normally make the RNA. The material was then placed under an electron microscope. The RNA-DNA duplex was supposed to look thicker compared to the rest of the DNA strands. But the contrast was often too poor to see the duplex.

Then Wu and Davidson hit upon a particular protein that they thought could improve the contrast. It is called the gene 32 protein and is made by a virus known as T4 bacteriophage. The protein is normally used by the virus to help it replicate in bacteria. In Wu and Davidson's view, however, the crucial thing was that the protein had the property of binding only to single-stranded DNA, not to DNA-RNA duplex regions. And when it bound to DNA, it completely covered it.

"We say the protein is selective, which means it only goes to the single-stranded region," Davidson explained to SCIENCE NEWS. "It is cooperative, which means that one protein sits right next to the following one. It's like a row of cars parked along the curb bumper to bumper. In other words, you get a complete block of gene 32 proteins sticking consecutively along all parts of the DNA which are single-stranded."

This is how their improved technique works: An RNA molecule is duplexed to a DNA strand as before. Then the material containing the RNA-DNA duplex is mixed with gene 32 proteins. (The technique calls for as little as one hundred-millionth of a gram of DNA and a little more of the proteins.) The proteins stick to all parts of the DNA except where the DNA is duplexed to the RNA. The material is placed under the electron microscope. Those areas that now look thick are the single strands of DNA coated with proteins. The thin area is the RNA-DNA duplex.

Wu and Davidson have used this technique to visualize those areas of viral DNA that make several different RNA molecules known as 16S, 23S and 5S ribosomal RNA and a transfer RNA known as Glu_2. They have found that the thick and thin areas can be easily visualized. What's more, they were able to estimate the number of nucleotides present in each visualized gene, because the number of nucleotides can be worked out according to how long each gene is. For instance, the 16S gene contains 1,500 nucleotides, the 23S gene 3,000 and the tiny Glu_2 gene only 80.

One of the attractive aspects of the technique, Davidson points out, is that it can be used to map not only viral and bacterial genes, but mammalian genes, as long as RNA molecules from mammals have been purified. Aside from telling molecular biologists how different mammalian genes are arranged relative to each other, it should also shed new light on which genes are expressed during mammalian development and differentation and in cancer cells. □

Love among the monkeys

Harry F. Harlow, the father of the surrogate mother, is well known for his more than 40 years of research on primate development. His innovative use of terry cloth-covered wire monkeys as surrogate mothers helped explain the importance of contact comfort and warmth in mother-infant relationships. It had been thought that mother's milk was the prime factor in the mother-infant bond. Last month, Harlow was in New York to be honored with a $25,000 award from the Kittay Scientific Foundation (SN: 6/14/75, p. 383). He used the occasion to discuss some of his research and to describe another type of research mother—the monkey monster mother.

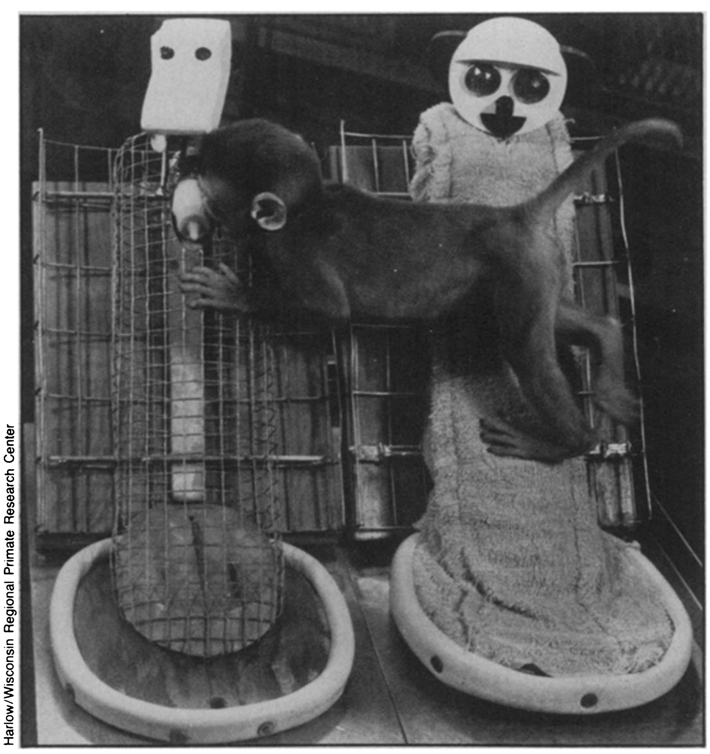
Primate emotional development, especially love and aggression, has long been a subject of investigation for Harlow and his colleagues at the Wisconsin Regional Primate Research Center. Their work has shown that external aggression, aggression directed toward others, develops relatively late in primates. In macaque monkeys, for instance, full-blown aggression is not displayed until the fourth year in males and later in females. This is equivalent to the midteens in humans.

In contrast, various types of love (mother love, peer love and the beginnings of heterosexual love) develop early in life and have a chance to become well established before aggression comes into play. "It is fortunate," says Harlow, "that aggression is a late-maturing mechanism. Were it otherwise there would never have been even one primate society. At an early age all the infants would have destroyed each other and societies without infants become societies without adults."

Experiments with monkeys isolated from birth show just how important it is to experience love and to learn loving ways before aggression develops. Infant rhesus monkeys were raised in total isolation for six months of the first year of life and for six months in partial isolation where they could see and hear other monkeys but not be with them. At the age of three, these animals were compared with mother-raised and peer-raised monkeys in their reactions to strange monkeys. The isolates threatened, pulled, bit and tore violently at the hair and flesh of the strangers to a significantly greater degree than did the others. In these isolates, explains Harlow, no ties of affection had had a chance to be formed prior to the opportunity for aggressive behaviors to emerge, and normal positive age-mate play had not been present to soften the sadistic sorties.

Outgroup aggression, or violence against strangers, is not too hard to imagine. The most dramatic expression of agonistic behavior in both monkeys and humans is aggression against their own children. This too can be created in the laboratory. Mother love can be almost perpetually prevented by withholding mother love from the mother-to-be, even if she isn't to be a mother for many years. Harlow and his co-workers illustrated the battered child syndrome with motherless mothers who proved to be monsters as mothers.

The motherless mothers were animals that had never had the chance to express love to a mother nor to exchange affection in play with age-mates. After giving birth,



Young monkeys cling to the warmth and comfort of a cloth-covered surrogate mother, only leaving for the nourishment provided by a wire surrogate. Later studies showed that motherless monkeys become monster mothers.

Harlow/Wisconsin Regional Primate Research Center they showed two basic behaviors. One was to totally ignore the infants. The other pattern, says Harlow, was grim and ghastly. When an infant attempted to make physical contact with its mother, she would literally scrape it from her body and abuse it by various sadistic devices. The mother would push the baby's face against the floor and rub it back and forth. Not infrequently, the mother would encircle the infant's head with her jaws, and in one case an infant's skull was crushed in this manner.

In most instances, the researchers were able to stop the sadism, but some mothers were so violent and vicious that a few infants were lost because the researchers had not anticipated the severity of the events in the reproduction of the battered child syndrome.

The motherless mothers, says Harlow, gave more to science than their offspring. They not only opened doors of understanding of the battered child syndrome but also provided two fringe benefits. First was confirmation of the power and persistence of infant love for the mother. If the infants were among those favored and fortunate enough to be just ignored by their mothers, or if they had survived the battering, they persisted in their intense efforts to make and maintain contact with the mother whether or not she scraped them away or engaged in maternal mayhem. The amount of punishment or banishment the infants would accept was a measure of their motivation.

The second bonus from the babies was that after they had continuously forced their mothers into accepting protracted contact, some of the contact comfort, softness and warmth seemed to rub off on the mothers. Furthermore, after the maternal contact had been achieved for a period of time, there tended to be a gradual but progressive maternal rehabilitation with partial or total submission to the infantile affection. The few mothers who succumbed were impressively more normal in the treatment of subsequent infants of their own. This finding has implications for therapies with humans.

"Research has shown," concludes Harlow, "that developmental timing and sequencing of the loves and of aggression are of vast significance in preventing or ameliorating aggression. When the development is out of normal sequence, aggression is uncontrolled and extremely difficult to alter or eliminate. New therapeutic techniques are making rehabilitation more of a reality, but the ideal solution is to prevent antisocial aggression through anticipation." □

Quark theory: A prediction confirmed

Particle physicists invented the quark-parton theory of the structure of the class of particles called hadrons because it gave a relatively simple way of accounting for certain patterns among their important properties. But the test of a theory is not how well it explains what is already known but whether the unknown things it predicts can be found. The famous experiment at the SPEAR storage ring of the Stanford Linear Accelerator Center, operated by a consortium from SLAC and from the Lawrence Berkeley Laboratory, has now confirmed one of the significant predictions of the quark-parton theory.

The matter involved is one of the effects that happens when energetic electrons and positrons going in opposite directions collide with each other. Since this is a collision of matter and antimatter, the first thing that happens is an annihilation reaction that produces a virtual photon, a particle of light that has the property of being matter, antimatter and energy at the same time. The virtual photon then turns itself into other particles, depending on the amount of energy it has. These particles can often be hadrons.

The original electron and positron approach each other with equal and opposite momentum and so stop each other cold. The virtual photon, in strict principle, just sits there motionless. But the dynamics involved in producing hadrons from the virtual photon endow the hadrons with a certain momentum, and according to theory this should be directed transverse to the direction of the electron and positron beams. In short, the theory predicts jets of hadrons coming off in opposite directions from such an annihilation reaction. The experimental apparatus is a complicated array of detectors surrounding the point of impact that record particles coming off in all directions.

These jets have been found in the experiment, according to a report in the Dec. 15 PHYSICAL REVIEW LETTERS signed by Gail G. Hanson and 33 others. The theory requires fairly high energy for the jets to occur, and in fact, they appeared when the total energy of the electron and positron beams was 6.2 and 7.4 billion electron-volts. A rival model of the interaction predicts a more or less spherical distribution of off-coming particles, and this tends to fit the data at lower energies as well as the jet model, but the jet model is definitely a better fit at higher energies, the experimenters conclude.

Intermediate in the production of hadrons from the virtual photon is the decay of the photon into a quark-parton pair, which then produces the off-coming hadrons. The measured characteristics of the jets of hadrons allow a determination of their spin characteristics, and from that the spin characteristics of the partons themselves. The deduction supports those who say the partons must have one-half unit of spin rather than those who say zero spin. □

Coloring crystals with light

Certain kinds of defects in the crystal lattices of alkali halide compounds can produce what are called color centers. These are locations that strongly absorb light passing through the crystal and give it a characteristic color. They are called F centers (from the German word *Farbe*), and they give each crystal a characteristic color ranging from yellow for lithium chloride to blue for cesium chloride.

According to a standard textbook, F centers are locations where an electron takes the place of a halogen ion in the crystal structure. They have been produced by illuminating the crystals with ultraviolet light or X-rays. Often the F center and the associated coloration of the crystal are transient. Now, in the Dec. 15 PHYSICAL REVIEW LETTERS three physicists from the Bell Telephone Laboratories in Holmdel, N.J., report a method for producing essentially permanent F centers. The experiment sheds light on the physics of the formation of F centers and, at the same time, produces essentially permanently colored crystals, which can have practical uses.

The experimenters, L.F. Mollenauer, G.C. Bjorklund and W.J. Tomlinson, began with potassium chloride crystals that contained a certain concentration of what are called U centers. (A U center is another kind of crystal defect, a negative hydrogen ion—a proton with two electrons attached, trapped at a vacancy where a negative halogen ion should be.) The technique is to transform U centers into F centers by making them absorb two photons of a particular wavelength of light.

The light wavelength is 266 nanometers and is the fourth harmonic of an yttrium-aluminum-garnet laser system. It fell on the crystal from one side. From another direction, monochromatic light at 586 nanometers was passed through the crystal. The amount of this light that was absorbed was the criterion for the production of F centers in the crystal. As the power of the 266-nanometer beam was raised, absorption of the 586-nanometer beam also rose.

The model that the three experimenters propose to explain what happens goes as follows: The crystal lattice absorbs two photons of 286-nanometer light, and this absorption generates an electron-hole pair. (A hole is a place where an electron should be but isn't. It has the effect of a positive charge, can move through the crystal and sometimes forms a bound pair with an electron.) Eventually the pair recombines; that is, the electron falls into the hole, producing a net neutrality. The recombination releases energy.

Recombination can occur at a U center, an F center or directly in the lattice. When