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- Peaks of reptile density occur at 1.0, 4.8, 7.0, and 30.5 cm above the base of unit b of cycle CB1-2, but even in these thin zones reptile skeletons are found through several "varves," a possible indication that these fluctuations represent changes in the density of locally living rep-tile populations.
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- 29. Jurassic is about 35 million years. Similar to *D. exile* (Brauns) Nathorst, but each 30
- Similar to *D. exile* (Brauns) Nationst, but each arm of the rachis possesses about 25 pinnae. A single ovuliferous scale comparable to plate 4, figure 1 of K. Mägdefrau, *Geol. Bl. Nordost Bayern* 13, 95 (1963). 31.

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- Associated foliage and possible seed cones Associated seeds and foliage; seeds differ from *D. gormanii* Ash in that they have numerous veins in lanceolate lamina; *Equisetosporites* pol-len, possibly produced by this type of plant, is occasionally found in Camian strata of the Newark supergroup [see S. R. Ash, *Palaeontology* 15, 598 (1972)].
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20 January 1978

# A Search for Ultra-Narrowband Signals of

## **Extraterrestrial Origin**

Abstract. Nearly 200 nearby stars similar to the sun were observed at the 21-centimeter neutral hydrogen wavelength (in the heliocentric frame) with a bandwidth of 1 kilohertz and a resolution of 0.015 hertz, using the Arecibo 305-meter antenna. At this resolution the effects of terrestrial interference are so slight that the detection limit of  $4 \times 10^{-27}$  watt per square meter was set by receiver noise alone. No evidence of artificial signals was found.

A search for extraterrestrial intelligence (SETI) has been carried out at the National Astronomy and Ionosphere Center (NAIC) at Arecibo, Puerto Rico, based on a particular set of assumptions about the probable nature of signals that might be received. Although these ideas are not new (1, 2), the survey itself was several orders of magnitude more sensitive than any SETI activity previously reported (3).

Briefly stated, this is the assumed scenario.

1) A narrowband acquisition beacon is transmitted near the neutral hydrogen frequency (21 cm, 1420 MHz); extremely narrow bandwidths would provide the simplest means of achieving a high signal-to-noise ratio, as well as suggesting the presence of artificial signals. The logic for this choice of frequency, originally put forth by Cocconi and Morrison (4), still seems strong, in spite of subsequent arguments: hydrogen is the simplest and

most abundant atom in the universe, its hyperfine transition results in a single line, which constitutes the most abundant photon in the universe, and that line falls near the frequency of minimum background noise.

2) The beacon is directed at individual "interesting" targets, rather than being transmitted omnidirectionally; the presumption is that a superior knowledge of the processes of stellar and planetary evolution and of the evolution of life allows the transmitting civilization to reduce its list of targets to a relatively small number. This assumption is required for the last step, which follows.

3) The beacon is transmitted at a frequency such that it arrives in our solar system at the laboratory hydrogen-line frequency, thus simplifying our search; the presumption is that a superior technology has given the transmitting civilization accurate observational values of the radial velocity of our sun. [Continued

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Fig. 1. Computer-controlled data acquisition system for narrowband SETI. Earth ephemeris data are used to synthesize local oscillator (LO) frequencies appropriate for reception of laboratory-frequency 21-cm radiation in the solar system rest frame.

observations could furnish them with the velocity of our solar system's center of mass (barycenter) as well. Both possibilities-laboratory frequency in the heliocentric frame or the barycentric frame-can be investigated simultaneously with modest bandwidth, since the difference amounts to  $\pm$  60 Hz, at most, at the hydrogen frequency.] Compensating for the Doppler shift due to the relative motion of the source and target suns is a natural extension of the correction that must be made for the source planet's motion in order to attain extremely narrow bandwidths; the spin and orbital motion of the earth, for instance, introduces Doppler shifts of order 10<sup>5</sup> Hz (at 1420 MHz), with diurnal and annual components.

A search strategy based on these assumptions consists simply of observing likely stars [F, G, and K main-sequence dwarfs (5); the sun is a G2 dwarf] at a terrestrial frequency corresponding to the laboratory hydrogen frequency in the heliocentric rest frame. The total bandwidth used should be sufficient to include the "barycentric frequency" (that is, the frequency at our site of a signal that would be received by an observer at the solar system's barycenter at the same frequency as emitted by neutral hydrogen in his frame).

For this search a total bandwidth of 1 kHz was used, with a resolution of 0.015 Hz (65,536 equally spaced frequency bins). The bandwidth limit was dictated by two considerations: (i) the resolution of available frequency synthesizers at Arecibo (0.01 Hz) and the stability of the rubidium-referenced oscillator (short-term  $\Delta f/f \simeq 5 \times 10^{-12}$ , where f is frequency) set a limit of 0.01 Hz, and (ii) recent calculations (6) of the ultimate limit to narrowband interstellar radio propagation—line broadening by multiple scattering from fluctuations in the ionized interstellar medium through which the initially monochromatic signal passes (also responsible for scintillation effects)—suggest that signals received from sources associated with nearby stars ( $\approx 100$  parsecs, say) will have minimum bandwidths of order  $10^{-2}$  Hz.

Spectral line observations with a frequency resolution of this order of magnitude require precise control of the receiver frequency, via real-time computer control of the local oscillator (LO) frequencies. The earth's spin alone contributes a Doppler shift at 1420 MHz that changes at the rate of 0.16 Hz/sec for a source at the zenith observed from the equator. Since a frequency resolution of 0.01 Hz requires observations of 100 seconds duration, it is clear that the local oscillator frequency must be updated several thousand times during each observation, a situation not ordinarily encountered during spectral line observations of astronomical radio sources. Curiously enough, this leads to a highly favorable rejection of narrowband signals of terrestrial origin, an interference problem that has plagued previous SETI work: with a resolution of 0.01 Hz, a fixed-frequency terrestrial signal sweeps through 1600 frequency bins in a single 100-second observation (for source and site as above); a short burst of monochromatic terrestrial interference is also over many spread bins because  $\Delta f \Delta t \approx 1$ , where  $\Delta t$  is the time interval of the burst. Only a narrowband signal that (i) persists for the duration of an observation, and (ii) drifts in frequency in precisely the same manner as the local oscillator, will appear as a narrowband signal in the final spectrum.

The observations were carried out during January to April 1978, using the 1420-MHz dual circular polarization feed, which gives an effective antenna area of  $22,000 \text{ m}^2$  (68 dB gain). The over-

all system temperature was  $\approx 80^{\circ}$ K, with parametric amplifier front ends and dual conversion (260- and 30-MHz intermediate frequencies). Band-pass crystal filters with a bandwidth of 5 kHz at 30 MHz followed the second intermediate frequency amplifier, and, after mixing with the  $\simeq$  30-MHz third LO, the sine and cosine baseband signals from the quadrature mixers were further filtered to 500 Hz with four-pole Butterworth low-pass tunable filters. The resultant signals-a quadrature pair from each of two circular polarizations-were sampled under computer control with an analog multiplexer and 12-bit analog-todigital converters. The data acquisition scheme is summarized in Fig. 1.

A single observation consisted of 64K (65,536) complex samples at 1-msec intervals from each of two polarizations. The digitized samples were written in real time onto nine-track digital magnetic tape for subsequent analysis. The data acquisition program also controlled the first and third LO's, setting the first LO frequency at the beginning of each observation so that the third LO began at 30 MHz; the third LO was then updated at 20-msec intervals during the observation by computing frequency offsets in real time from a quartic polynomial approximation to accurate earth velocity data obtained from the Lincoln Laboratory planetary ephemeris (7).

The off-line analysis program performed a 64K complex fast Fourier transform (FFT) on the digitized quadrature signals, employing a method (8) that required only 4K of array size in core and 4K complex FFT's; this was done on a Harris Slash 6 computer, making extensive use of a Floating Point Systems array processor. A 64K complex FFT and computation of power spectrum took approximately 15 seconds, much of which was occupied by peripheral storage (disk) operations.

The resultant power spectrum contained 64K equally spaced frequencies spanning 1 kHz centered on the combined LO frequency (the complex FFT operating on quadrature baseband signals separates the positive and negative baseband frequencies). The frequency resolution was 0.015 Hz per bin. The analysis program looked for large peaks in the spectrum, and displayed the power spectrum (as a raster of  $256 \times 256$  eightlevel gray scale pixels, each  $4 \times 4$  dots on a 100 dot per inch electrostatic plotter) of observations containing large peaks. The entire system was tested with a variety of signals added at intermediate frequency and radio frequency stages; in an analysis of 1 minute's data it easily

detected narrowband signals with the expected frequency variation 40 dB below noise (in a 1-kHz band), while rejecting fixed-frequency (interference-like) signals at, or even above, the level of the noise.

Observations were made on target stars taken from the Royal Greenwich Observatory (RGO) catalog, which includes all known stars within 25 parsecs (82 light years) (9); all F, G, and K stars of luminosity class V (dwarf) or of unknown luminosity class from the RGO list that are not known to be members of multiple star systems and that can be seen with the Arecibo dish ( $0^{\circ} <$ declination  $< 38^{\circ}$ ) were observed during this search. In addition, the flat-spectrum radio sources 4C05.64 and PKS0735+17 and the unusual pulsars 1913+16 (binary) and 1952+29 (extremely small rate of change of period) were observed. Altogether 185 objects were examined, 60 of them on more than one occasion, during 80 hours of telescope time. Ten 1-minute observations were made in the vicinity of each object, eight at the source position and two displaced from it by  $\pm 2$  minutes in right ascension. In no case were extrastatistical narrowband signals detected. Terrestrial interference was not a problem, even during noise-prone daytime observations, confirming the reasoning presented earlier. There were no false alarms and hence no loss of observing time as a consequence of man-made interference. It is a simple matter to calculate the sensitivity of the overall system to narrowband polarized signals. Using the known parameters of the system, one obtains a sensitivity of  $4\,\times\,10^{-27}\,\text{W/m}^2$  for a signal-to-noise ratio of 5:1 in each of the eight observations of each source; this is at least two orders of magnitude more sensitive than any previously reported SETI activity and corresponds to a total power incident on the earth's disk of less than a millionth of a microwatt. This can be expressed alternatively as the range at which this system could detect an identical antenna transmitting a 1-MW carrier, say, beamed at our sun. That distance is 370 parsecs, for a signal-to-noise ratio of 5:1 in each 1-minute observation.

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# **Decomposition of Calcium Carbonate and Organic Carbon in the Deep Oceans**

Abstract. Simple mass-balance calculations indicate that in seawater the calcium variation ( $\Delta Ca$ ) correlates with the variation in the titration alkalinity ( $\Delta TA$ ) and the variation in the total carbon dioxide ( $\Delta\Sigma CO_2$ ) or nitrate ( $\Delta NO_3$ ) according to the equations  $\Delta Ca = 0.46288 \ \Delta TA + 0.074236 \ \Delta \Sigma CO_2$  and  $\Delta Ca = 0.5 \ \Delta TA +$ 0.53125  $\Delta NO_3$ . The estimated values for  $\Delta Ca$  from these equations, which agree with the values obtained from direct measurements, have been used to estimate the ratio of the in situ inorganic to organic carbon fluxes in the oceans. The precise vertical distribution of this ratio is shown for the first time.

The processes related to the abyssal dissolution of CaCO3 and organic C provide a direct mechanism for the renewal of elements in the sea. They are also responsible for changing, or in fact maintaining in the steady state, the pH and buffer capacity of the oceans, and are of fundamental interest in chemical, biological, and geochemical oceanography (1). Values for CaCO<sub>3</sub> fluxes have been obtained from measurements of dissolved Ca in seawater (2). The analysis of dissolved Ca, in the presence of Mg and Sr, to a precision of  $\pm$  0.1 percent, is one of the classic problems in the analytical chemistry of seawater. Furthermore, the high concentration of dissolved Ca in seawater (10.3 mmole/kg for normal seawater at a salinity of 35 per mil) relative to the small changes due to CaCO3 dissolution ( $\Delta Ca < 0.1$  mmole/kg) makes the evaluation of Ca fluxes extremely difficult. Nonetheless, several recent papers have reported such analyses [see (2-4)].

The dissolution of CaCO<sub>3</sub> alone increases the Ca concentration and titration alkalinity (TA) in a fixed ratio of 0.5. Several investigators (2, 4) have therefore tried to linearly correlate observed Ca concentrations with TA; their success has been limited. The ratio is not exactly equal to 0.5 because the decomposition of organic material also changes TA but not Ca. Consequently, the ratio of Ca to

TA is not a constant and one should not expect to find a linear correlation between Ca and TA. I examine here some recent chemical data on seawater in an attempt to correlate the Ca variation  $(\Delta Ca)$  with the variation in titration alkalinity ( $\Delta TA$ ) and in total CO<sub>2</sub> ( $\Delta \Sigma CO_2$ ) or nitrate ( $\Delta NO_3$ ), and to estimate  $\Delta Ca$ from the available chemical data.

In seawater, CaCO<sub>3</sub> decomposes to form

$$CaCO_3 = Ca^{2+} + CO_3^{2-}$$
 (1)

The increases in Ca, TA, and  $\Sigma CO_2$  are 1 mole, 2 equivalents, and 1 mole, respectively, for the dissolution of 1 mole of CaCO<sub>3</sub>. The decomposition of 106 moles of organic C yields 106 moles of CO<sub>2</sub>, 16 moles of HNO<sub>3</sub>, and 1 mole of H<sub>3</sub>PO<sub>4</sub> according to the Redfield-Ketchum-Richards model (5):

$$(CH_2O)_{106}(NH_3)_{16}H_3PO_4 + 138 O_2 =$$
  
106 CO<sub>2</sub> + 16 HNO<sub>3</sub> +  
H<sub>3</sub>PO<sub>4</sub> + 122 H<sub>2</sub>O (2)

In seawater, CO<sub>2</sub>, HNO<sub>3</sub>, and H<sub>3</sub>PO<sub>4</sub> produced in situ react with  $CO_3^{2-}(1, 6)$ to form, respectively, HCO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>, NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>, and HPO42-, and Eq. 2 becomes

$$(CH_{2}O)_{106}(NH_{3})_{16}H_{3}PO_{4} + 138 O_{2} + 124 CO_{3}^{2-} = 16 NO_{3}^{-} + HPO_{4}^{2-} + 230 HCO_{3}^{-} + 16 H_{2}O$$
(3)  
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