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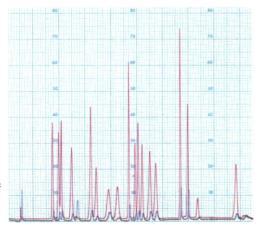
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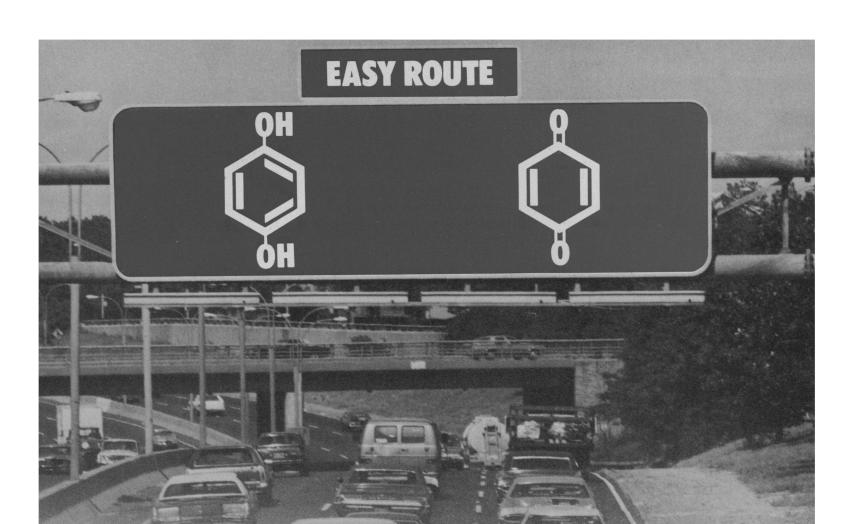
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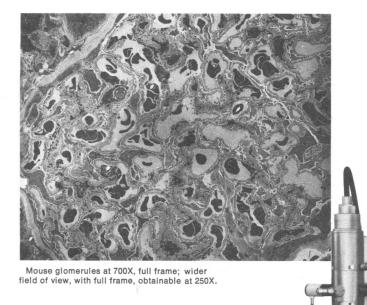
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COVER

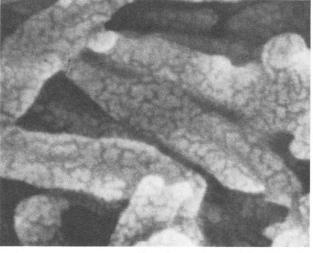
The Lookout by Frederick Remington, 1887. [From the Hogg Brothers Collection, courtesy of Museum of Fine Arts, Houston, Texas] See page 862, AAAS Annual Meeting, 3-8 January 1979.

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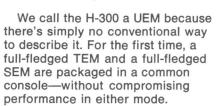
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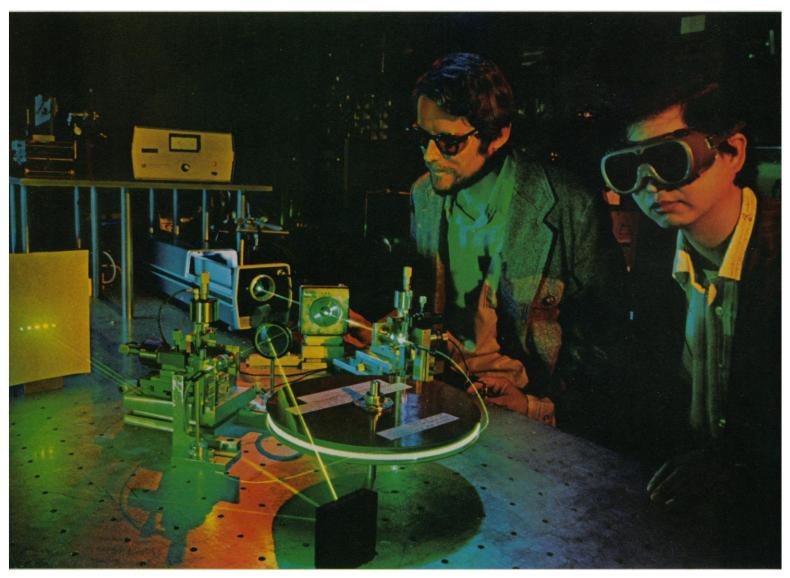
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Bell Labs scientists Roger Stolen and Chinlon Lin work with a fiber Raman laser, one of a new class of light sources that use optical fibers—up to a kilometer long—to produce tunable laser light. At left, the laser's output—which contains multiple Raman-shifted wavelengths—is taken off a beam splitter and dispersed by an external grating to show the broad range of wavelengths that can be tuned.

808 SCIENCE, VOL. 202

Bell Labs has developed some of the world's most transparent glass fibers to *carry* light for communications. We've also devised a way to make these highly transparent glass fibers *generate* light. In fact, they are the basis for a new class of tunable light sources called fiber Raman lasers. They're among the latest, and by far the longest, of many lasers invented at Bell Labs, beginning in 1957 with the conception of the laser itself.

Since the new fiber lasers work best at wavelengths at which they are most transparent, we can make them very long. The longest active lasing medium ever built, in fact, was a fiber Raman laser over a kilometer in length. Studying the ways light and glass interact over such distances is part of our research in lightwave communications.

In these new light sources, a glass fiber with high transparency and an extremely thin light-guiding region, or core, is excited by a pump laser. The pump light, interacting with the glass, amplifies light at different wavelengths through a phenomenon known as stimulated Raman scattering. This light is fed back into the fiber by a reflecting mirror. If gain exceeds loss, the repetitively amplified light builds up and "lasing" occurs.

Fiber Raman lasers have conversion efficiencies of about 50%, operate in pulsed and continuous wave modes, and are easily tunable over a broad wavelength range in the visible and near infrared regions of the spectrum.

We've used these lasers to measure the properties of fibers and devices for optical communications; and studies of the lasers themselves have revealed a wealth of information on frequency conversion, optical gain, and other phenomena. Such knowledge could lead to a new class of optoelectronic devices made from fibers, and better fibers for communications.

Looking back

These long lasers come from a long line of Bell Labs firsts:

1957: The basic principles of the laser, conceived by Charles Townes, a Bell Labs consultant, and Bell Labs scientist Arthur Schawlow. (They later received the basic laser patent.)

1960: A laser capable of emitting a continuous beam of coherent light—using helium-neon gas; followed in 1962 by the basic visible light helium-neon laser. (More than 200,000 such lasers are now in use worldwide.) Also, a proposal for a semiconductor laser involving injection across a p-n junction to generate coherent light emitted parallel to the junction.

1961: The continuous wave solid-state laser (neodymium-doped calcium tungstate).

1964: The carbon dioxide laser (highest continuous wave power output system known to date); the neodymium-doped yttrium aluminum garnet laser; the continuously operating argon ion laser; the tunable optical parametric oscillator; and the synchronous mode-locking technique, a basic means for generating short and ultrashort pulses.

1967: The continuous wave helium-cadmium laser (utilizing the Penning ionization effect for high efficiency); such lasers are now used in high-speed graphics, biological and medical applications.

1969: The magnetically tunable spinflip Raman infrared laser, used in highresolution spectroscopy, and in pollution detection in both the atmosphere and the stratosphere.

1970: Semiconductor heterostructure lasers capable of continuous operation at room temperature.

1971: The distributed feedback laser, a mirror-free laser structure compatible with integrated optics.

1973: The tunable, continuous wave color-center laser.

1974: Optical pulses less than a trillionth of a second long.

1977: Long-life semiconductor lasers for communications. (Such lasers have performed reliably in the Bell System's lightwave communications installation in Chicago.)

Looking ahead

Today, besides our work with tunable fiber Raman lasers, we're using other lasers to unlock new regions of the spectrum in the near infrared (including tunable light sources for communications), the infrared, and the ultraviolet.

We're also looking to extend the tuning range of the free electron laser into the far infrared region—where no convenient sources of tunable radiation exist.

We're working on integrated optics—combinations of lightwave functions on a single chip.

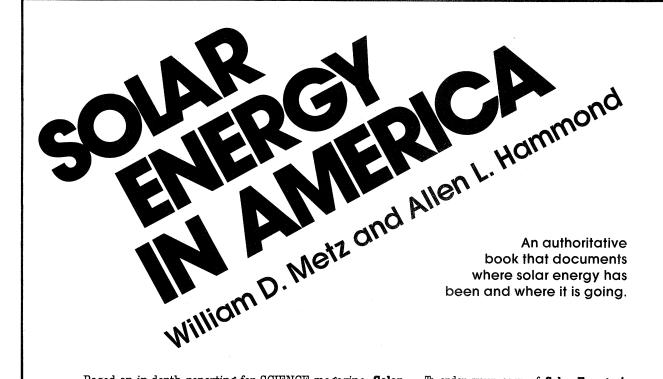
Lasers are helping us understand ultrafast chemical and biological phenomena, such as the initial events in the process of human vision. By shedding new light on chemical reactions, atmospheric impurities, and microscopic defects in solids, lasers are helping us explore materials and processes useful for tomorrow's communications.

Also under investigation is the use of intense laser irradiation in the fabrication of semiconductor devices. The laser light can be used to heat selective areas of the semiconductor and anneal out defects or produce epitaxial crystalline growth. Laser annealing coupled with ion implantation may provide a unique tool for semiconductor processing.

We've played an important part in the discovery and development of the laser—an invention making dramatic improvements in the way our nation lives, works and communicates.



From Science: Service



Based on in-depth reporting for SCIENCE magazine, Solar Energy in America is a thorough assessment of our progress in tapping the ultimate energy source—the sun. While no single energy source may meet all future demands, solar energy seems to have the greatest potential. It is technically feasible, environmentally attractive, and rapidly becoming commercially sound. Solar Energy in America details the diverse technologies that depend upon the sun as their energy source, evaluates the potential and the problems of each, and alerts the reader to both the short-term and long-range prospects. The authors find that the field of solar energy is undergoing an unparalleled technical revival, and that there is no reason why many solar technologies cannot begin to be used at once. Solar **Energy in America**—the latest edition of the expanding SCIENCE Report series* — will be a useful publication for solar energy enthusiasts as well as skeptics, for college students as well as policy analysts. It is a AAAS book for everyone who wants a broad and thorough perspective on solar energy today.

Solar Energy In America; by William D. Metz and Allen L. Hammond. 1978, xvi + 218 pages, index. Retail price: \$18.50 (casebound), \$8.50 (paperbound).

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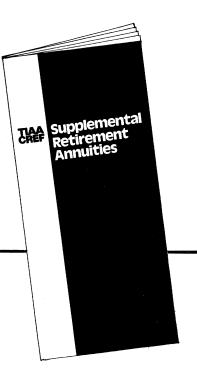
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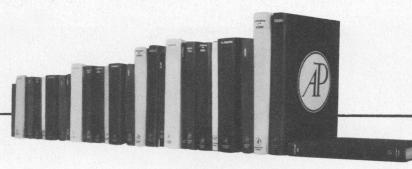
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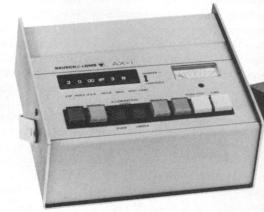
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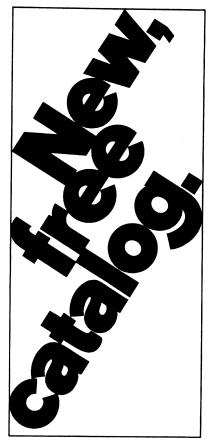


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LETTERS

Guayule Development

I share the concerns expressed by some of those interviewed for William J. Broad's article on guayule commercialization (News and Comment, 27 Oct., p. 410). Had I been asked to respond to these concerns, I would have mentioned plans for a vigorous oversight and a quick transfer to the private sector as soon as needed basic feasibility and process improvement research has been done. I would also have pointed out that the funding of this program at \$30 million over 4 years is \$20 million less than the congressional budget office estimate of funding necessary to carry out the original commercialization research program.

On another point mentioned in the article, the only activity taking place in my district that may be eligible for funding is plant research, and this is subject to a competitive grant process that is, thankfully, removed from political manipulation.

GEORGE E. BROWN, JR. U.S. House of Representatives, Washington, D.C. 20515

Nuclear Power Economics

A. D. Rossin and T. A. Rieck, in their article "Economics of nuclear power" (18 Aug., p. 582), have shown that nuclear power plants installed by the Commonwealth Edison Company in the early 1970's are producing electricity at lower cost than contemporaneous fossil-fuel plants. This conclusion may be of interest to the customers of Commonwealth Edison, but it should be accorded little weight in the national debate over the merits of building additional power reactors.

The relative costs of Commonwealth Edison's existing nuclear and coal-fired plants are grossly unrepresentative of the costs of future U.S. plants for the following reasons.

1) Commonwealth Edison's six major nuclear units were completed in the years 1970 through 1974, and thus predate the cost escalation that has befallen nuclear plants starting in the middle 1970's. Indeed, four units (Dresden units 2 and 3 and Quad Cities units 1 and 2) were "turnkey" units subsidized by General Electric to stimulate the reactor market. Rossin and Rieck state in their table 1 that the average cost of the six units was only \$200 per kilowatt of ca-

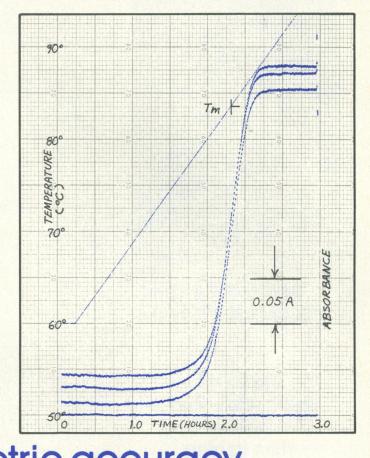
pacity. Yet nuclear plants completed in the United States during 1975 through 1977 had an average cost of roughly \$500 per kilowatt (*I*, table 1), indicating a 150 percent cost increase in only a 4-year period (87 percent in constant dollars). This exceeds the escalation in coal capital costs, the addition of scrubbers notwithstanding.

- 2) Commonwealth Edison frequently operates its coal units at reduced levels when electric demand is low, in deference to nuclear units with lower running costs. This inflates the per-kilowatt-hour fixed charges for coal units presented by Rossin and Rieck. Future coal units of other utilities are less likely to "load follow" to such an extent because of lower reserve margins, lesser percentages of nuclear capacity, and efforts to better manage loads presently under way or planned. Moreover, Commonwealth Edison's coal units are out of service more frequently than comparable units of other utilities (2), further inflating their fixed charges per kilowatt-hour.
- 3) Because of the several-year lead time in nuclear fuel procurement, Rossin and Rieck's fuel cost data capture little of the recent increases in the costs of uranium ore and enrichment, while reflecting nearly all of the increase in coal prices which followed the 1973-74 oil embargo.

In short, Rossin and Rieck's article is but one of many attempts to premise future energy policy on historical data that bear little relation to economic reality at the margin of selection of energy technology. A more realistic appraisal of the economics of nuclear power would have emphasized that the low capital costs once enjoyed by the nuclear industry are unavailable to new plants, largely because of the proliferation of expensive safety measures necessary to correct deficiencies revealed by operating units. Such an analysis would have acknowledged that the average cost of nuclear plants completed in 1974-77 was 73 percent greater than that of coal plants in the same period (1, p. 1) (Rossin and Rieck project future nuclear capital costs to be only 8 percent higher than those of coal, even though scrubbers add only 15 to 20 percent to coal costs while cost-increasing regulatory requirements are continuing to be added for nuclear plants).

Projection of either a 40 percent capital cost differential or a 10 percentage point capacity factor differential, both of which appear conservative based on recent data (3), eliminates the cost advantage projected for future nuclear plants

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by Rossin and Rieck, in nearly all regions. Projection of *both* differentials puts nuclear at a decided disadvantage vis-à-vis coal.

CHARLES KOMANOFF Komanoff Energy Associates, 475 Park Avenue South, New York 10016

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- ______, Power Plant Performance, (Council on Economic Priorities, New York, 1976), pp. 88 and 98
- 3. _____, Nuclear Plant Performance Update 2 (Komanoff Energy Associates, New York, June 1978) chap 6

Rossin and Rieck have done an excellent job presenting the economics of nuclear power.

Now if they would explain to utility customers just why those utilities which have concentrated on nuclear power command higher rates compared to those whose power is derived mainly from coal.

GEORGE A. HUHN Waterloo and Beaumont Roads, Devon, Pennsylvania 19333

The economics discussion in our article was clearly divided into two distinct parts: actual historical costs and the best estimated future investment and energy costs for nuclear or coal plants that might be ordered today.

In previous articles (1) we have criticized Komanoff's use of historical data. Commonwealth Edison's actual experience is useful; it tells us how regulations and costs are changing, as well as that capacity factors for coal and nuclear units are not likely to be vastly different.

Responding to Komanoff's points:

1) It is no secret that costs on the Dresden and Quad Cities "turnkey" (fixed-price) projects exceeded their price, and therefore the manufacturer paid a portion of the cost. Perhaps Commonwealth Edison's management in the 1960's (before we joined the company) deserves plaudits because the result has been substantial savings to our customers.

We compared the cost of our large units by correcting for inflation as if they all had been built in the same year. The result *increases* the nuclear cost *advantage* by an additional 1 mill per kilowatthour (2). In addition, the data we gave in the article (investment per kilowatt in table 1 and annual carrying charges in table 2) allows the reader to test the sensitivity of current energy costs to whatever price he or she wishes to hypothesize for the turnkey contracts.

2) Commonwealth Edison reduces the power output of its large coal units occasionally when the load is lighter. We have attempted to calculate the effect on coal unit capacity factors, but it is complex because the output of these units is controlled to the second by the load dispatcher's computer to minimize system generation costs. Obviously, we regulate the coal units because they are more costly to run than the nuclear units. Our figure 1 showed clearly that, even with much higher capacity factors, our coal units can hardly match the nuclear units. As we pointed out, our objective is economical electric power from a system, not high capacity factors per se. Actually, any future coal units Commonwealth Edison purchases will be designed for cycling service.

The extent to which certain coal units were out of service in past years reflects operating problems related to weather and the use of equipment to handle and burn coal. For our future plant cost estimates we assumed equal capacity factors for coal and for nuclear units.

3) Komanoff adds emphasis to an inherent advantage of nuclear power. Because mining and fabrication take a year and the fuel spends 3 to 7 years in the core, nuclear fuel cost increases take several years to flow through to the customer. Escalation in coal costs hits the consumer within weeks. Thus nuclear has an inherent advantage during a period of inflation. However, our assumptions for future fuel costs do not use this advantage for nuclear because our tables 7 and 8 on fuel costs are in constant 1977 dollars.

As to his last point, Komanoff is right: it would take a 40 percent increase in nuclear capital cost relative to coal (highly unlikely with scrubbers) or a net change of 10 percentage points in capacity factor difference in favor of coal (which is more likely to go the other way) to bring projected costs of coal power down to be equal with nuclear in our region of the country!

Huhn asks about electricity rates. We explained in our article why our customers pay less than they would be paying had Commonwealth Edison built coalburning units instead of nuclear. (In 1977 this added cost would have been \$200 million—10 to 15 percent of each customer's bill.) This is the real question Huhn should ask: What rates would nuclear utilities have to charge had they not built their nuclear plants?

The report (3) Huhn may be referring to misleads the reader by considering only those rate increases granted formally by state utility commissions and omitting

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the portion of the rates resulting from the fuel adjustment clause. This portion reflects fossil fuel cost increases and forms a significant part of the rates in most states.

Of real importance is the price the ratepayers actually had to pay for electric service. Over the 5-year period from 1972 through 1977, electric rates rose dramatically. The primary driving force was the sudden increase in oil prices. Increases in coal and uranium prices followed. (Those few utilities that could meet their entire needs from existing hydroelectric power stations were protected from these increases.) The average annual price increase to the electric utility consumer (per kilowatt-hour used) over this 5-year period is shown below **(4)**.

Nuclear (%)	Average annual increase to rate payer (%)		
>50	8.9		
>33	10.5		
>25	12.2		
>15	12.4		
All utilities	12.6		

At rate hearings, consumers tell us that what they are most concerned about is the price they actually pay for their electricity.

> A. DAVID ROSSIN TERRANCE A. RIECK

Commonwealth Edison Company, Post Office Box 767 Chicago, Illinois 60690

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3. "Nuclear power boosts electric bills, study shows" (news release) (Critical Mass Energy Project and Environmental Energy Project, Washington, D.C., 30 June 1978); "Nuclear power and utility rate increases" (Critical

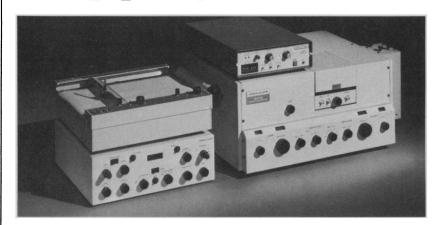
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F. T. Stetson (Infowire, Atomic Industrial Forum, Washington, D.C., 6 July 1978); "Comments on the report of the Critical Mass Energy Project and Environmental Action Foundation entitled 'Nuclear power and utility rate increases'," (Edison Electric Institute, New York, 8 July 1978).

The Free-Electron Laser

I would like to comment on the article "Seeing with a new light: Synchrotron radiation" by R. E. Watson and M. L. Perlman (24 Mar., p. 1295). Although it provided an excellent review of synchrotron radiation, there was a point of

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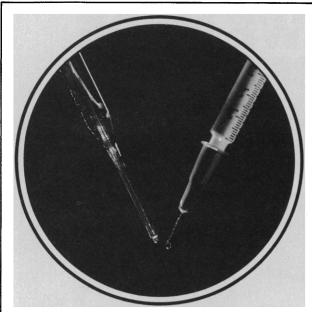
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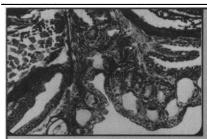
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misinformation. Watson and Perlman stated: "There has been an attempt at Stanford University to induce laser action in such a device . . . " [a helical magnet]. I wish to point out that, contrary to the implication of the article, the "attempt" was successful. The freeelectron laser has been run successfully both as a laser amplifier (1) and as a laser oscillator (2, 3). Perhaps the most noteworthy result of the experiment was the power output, which exceeded the spontaneous synchrotron radiation by a factor of 108 when the laser was run above threshold. We note that these results were reported in the reference (2) to the free-electron laser cited by Watson and Perlman.

JOHN M. J. MADEY

Department of Physics, Stanford University. Stanford, California 94305

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 Sci. Am. 236, 63 (June 1977).

Curve-Fitting

The rather fanciful curve-fitting of Roubik (Reports, 15 Sept., p. 1030, Fig. 1) has prompted me to propose an alternative interpretation of his data (see below).

ROBERT M. HAZEN

Geophysical Laboratory, Carnegie Institution of Washington, Washington, D.C. 20018

I applaud Hazen's skepticism about the validity of the fitted curve. The curve is a broken line. Conventionally, this means that it is not a statistically significant predictor of the exact value of the yvariable as a function of the x-variable, as stated in my reference 7. The utility of this graph is certainly not to be found in the expected wide values it generates, but rather in the biological information it contains.

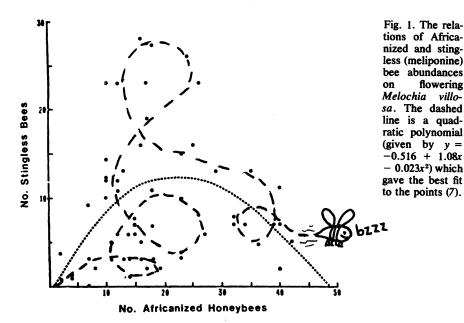
The statistical facts on which my conclusions rest are given as the results of the analyses of variance of forager numbers in patches of flowers in my experiments. Supplemental information is provided in the graph of bee abundances on Melochia villosa. This is useful because it (i) shows the numbers of bees actually counted; (ii) gives the reader a picture of forager dynamics on this flowering plant; (iii) contrasts with the straight lines, fitted by using the same computer program, to bee abundances where analysis of variance did not reveal the effect of competition; and (iv) provides a fitted curve that shows the general trend in the scatter of points.

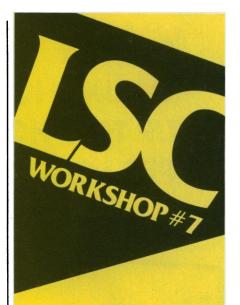
My intention was to present the facts in a straightforward manner, not to give a mathematical formula to predict the densities of bees in this patch of flowers. When confronted with an array of points with a line drawn through it, I too am thoughtful about the significance of that line. Graphical analysis is a heuristic tool. And, judging from the alternative interpretation of my data given by Hazen, it is often most reasonably performed with the aid of a computer.

DAVID W. ROUBIK

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Department of Entomology, University of Kansas, Lawrence 66045





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There are six multi-volume models to choose from: $10/20/25\,\mu$ l, $20/25/50\,\mu$ l, $50/75/100\,\mu$ l, $100/200/250\,\mu$ l, $100/200/250\,\mu$ l, $100/200/250\,\mu$ l, $100/200/250\,\mu$ l, $100/200/250\,\mu$ l, $100/200/250\,\mu$ l. Each fits the hand perfectly; a finger rest at the top provides positive support during use and prevents rolling off the workbench

when laid down.
As on all new System 4700 pipettes, filling, pipetting and tip ejection are controlled by depressing a single button through a series of distinct, positive stops, without changing the grip position.

Multi-volume pipettes are part of the new Eppendorf Pipetting

System, fully described in an informative brochure. For your copy, write: Eppendorf Division, Brinkmann Instruments, Cantiague Road, Westbury, N.Y. 11590. In Canada: 50 Galaxy Boulevard, Rexdale (Toronto), Ont.

A single button does it all... sample pick-up, pipetting, tip ejection and volume adjustment.



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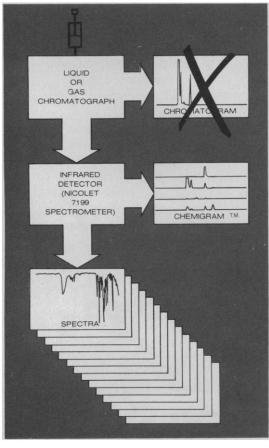
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For more details refer to Coffey, P., Mattson, D. & Wright, J., "A Programmable GC/FT-IR System," American Laboratory, May 1978 (in publication).

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Your Annual Meeting

In its 130-year history, the AAAS has had 144 national meetings, usually annually, although some war years were missed and in other years both winter and summer meetings were held. The forthcoming Annual Meeting in Houston (3 to 8 January 1979) will be our 145th National Meeting.

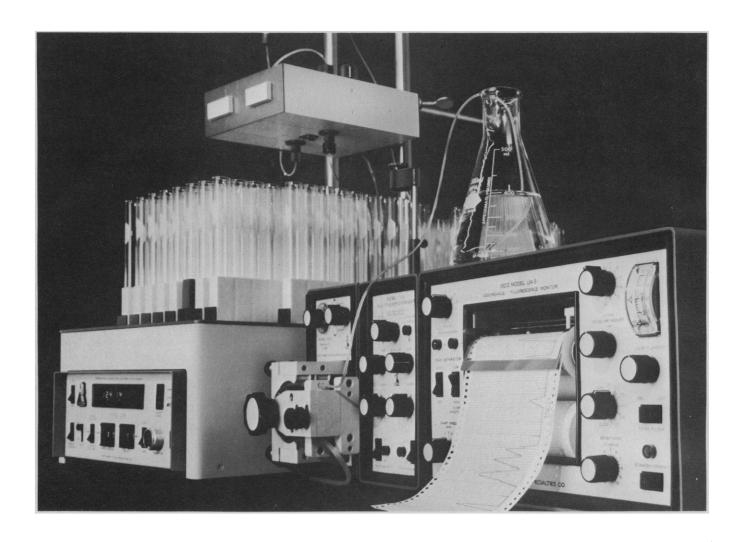
During our formative years (the first 50 or so), as the various specialties of science were just beginning to be recognized, our national meetings provided the principal forum for the interchange of information among all U.S. scientists. As these various specialties matured and formed their separate associations, both here and abroad, our national meeting went through an extended transition until, just after our own centennial (in 1948), a new policy was adopted. It was decided that the AAAS would hold meetings "at which one branch of science is interpreted to the other branches of science, meetings at which are stressed the interrelations between the branches of science, meetings at which the unifying theme would be central problems whose treatment requires the attack of several disciplines.'

The Houston meeting, "Science and Technology: Resources for Our Future," follows this paradigm and addresses such a central problem. The world now stands at a crossroads, all of the fledgling disciplines of a century ago have grown into "big science," and the mostly rural and agrarian cultures in which they began have become the modern urbanized-industrial nations of today. These are the nations whose growth and development consumed prodigious amounts of the world's depletable resources and whose further momentum appears to require an even greater consumption; these are the nations whose peoples have been freed from a marginal existence, sparking equal hopes among the billions of their less fortunate brethren; and these are the nations whose leaders grope for a path to bridge the gap between the reality of a world's declining material resources and the hopes of a world of rising human expectations. The future of these nations, and of the world society of which they are as yet only the smaller part, depends in considerable measure on whether the needed resources can be found.

At such a crossroads, the intellectual resources of the big sciences we have nurtured must not be overlooked, and that is the central problem we address in Houston. These are unique resources that are depleted through neglect rather than use, and they are the resources that, with prudent management, can help chart the path between the hope and the reality. In nine public lectures and 138 symposia, the Annual Meeting will deal with many of these resources and the successes and failures in their application. The full program of the meeting (see page 865) is rich and extensive and deserves your careful attention. However, some of its substance can be conveyed by focusing on a few symposia in the "general interest" category.

In "Frontiers of the Natural Sciences" and "Frontiers of the Social Sciences," nine eminent scientists-from mathematics, physics, chemistry, astronomy, biology, geology, anthropology, psychology, and sociology-will examine, concisely and without jargon, the outer limits of knowledge as it now exists in their respective disciplines. In other symposia in this category, scholars will address the questions of whether there are, in fact, physical or social limitations to usable knowledge; what the role of industry is in promoting scientific innovation (and application); what the space program has achieved in this tenth year since the lunar landing; and what the economic, esthetic, and technological problems of macroengineering projects are likely to be. As a group, these symposia represent a "microcosm" of the meeting—dealing with the extent of our scientific knowledge, its possible limits, and the problems found or anticipated in its application. Yet throughout runs the thread of the interrelations among and the needed interpretations between the branches of science in addressing our central problems.

As concerned citizens and scientists, it behooves us all to lend our voices to the discussions in Houston this January. It is your Annual National Meeting.—ARTHUR HERSCHMAN



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