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Extinctions

THE JAWS of extinction threaten to snap shut on the California condor, foreground, a once widespread species reduced to about 30 birds by the presence of humans. Behind it looms the skull of Tyrannosaurus rex, a victim of the mass extinction that ended the Cretaceous period. A little T-rex lives on in the anatomy of modern birds, which evolved from dinosaurs some 150 million years ago.

HE WAS THE LAST of the free fliers, this ungainly bird his captors nicknamed Igor. His keepers now wince when they hear him called that. California condors are supposed to have local Indian names.

Chumash. Miwok. Pomo. For time beyond memory Indians throughout the West have regarded the condor as a god. His spirit, some say, inspired legends of the thunderbird, whose flight is responsible for the weather. Thunder is the flap of his wings, lightning the flash from his eyes. Today Igor's eyes, as he perches in his pen at the San Diego Wild Animal Park, are the eyes of extinction.

Igor, officially titled AC-9, for adult condor number nine, was the last wild survivor of his species. Amid great controversy he was trapped in April 1987 and brought to wait—and, zoo officials hope, to breed—along with a few comrades, until the world might once again be safe for condors.

Igor's flying prowess fires public opinion. Since the 1930s millions of dollars have been spent to save California condors and preserve their habitat. That power has bought the condors time—to sit, remote from human contact, in this large fenced enclosure. Other creatures have not fared as well. Since Igor's capture the dusky seaside sparrow disappeared from the planet. During that same time as many as a hundred acres a minute of the world's tropical forests, among the most richly populated habitats on earth, have been destroyed. Ecologists can only speculate about how many unnamed, unknown creatures have vanished with the trees. An estimated million species will be lost in the next 25 years—a rate of one every 15 minutes.

Many scientists contend that our planet is experiencing its greatest mass extinction in 66 million years. At that time the dinosaurs vanished, along with between 60 and 80 percent of other animal species. Some small dinosaurs, however, already had evolved into the first birds. They made it through that extinction. So Igor's eyes are also those of experience.

Igor and his fellow condors bring me back into the present. For months I have been keeping company with fossils. Trilobites. Ammonites. Triceratops. Titanotheres. All were victims of at least 12 mass extinctions, five of them immense, that our planet has endured since the fossil record of animals began about 800 million years ago.

Mass extinctions. The concept has hit science like a fireball during the 1980s. Paleontologists had long realized that occasionally large numbers of species disappeared simultaneously from the fossil record. Those disappearances often marked the close of geologic periods. Yet the causes behind those great dyings had remained obscure. The fossil record was too imprecise, too difficult to read, too pocked with missing pieces and contradictory clues.

All that is changing. Innovative geochemical techniques are coaxing subtle secrets from ancient rocks. Fossils are being reexamined. Computers are finding provocative patterns in the extinctions. In the process the rules of evolution are being rewritten. And so is the four-billion-year history of life on the planet.

The excitement began in 1978 when a team from the University of California and Lawrence Berkeley Laboratory found a large enrichment of the element iridium in a pencil-thin, 66-million-year-old layer of rock from Gubbio, Italy. This iridium-rich clay lay right at the boundary between the Cretaceous period, when there were dinosaurs,

and the Tertiary, when the position the K-T boundary

Because iridium is rare, Berkeley scientists—Walter Alvarez and his son, Michel—proposed that a comet (six miles) across. Wildly been backed up by abundant globe. Most scientists no object struck the planet.

With Alvarez I hike at the boundary clay. He digs and says, "You are holding debris

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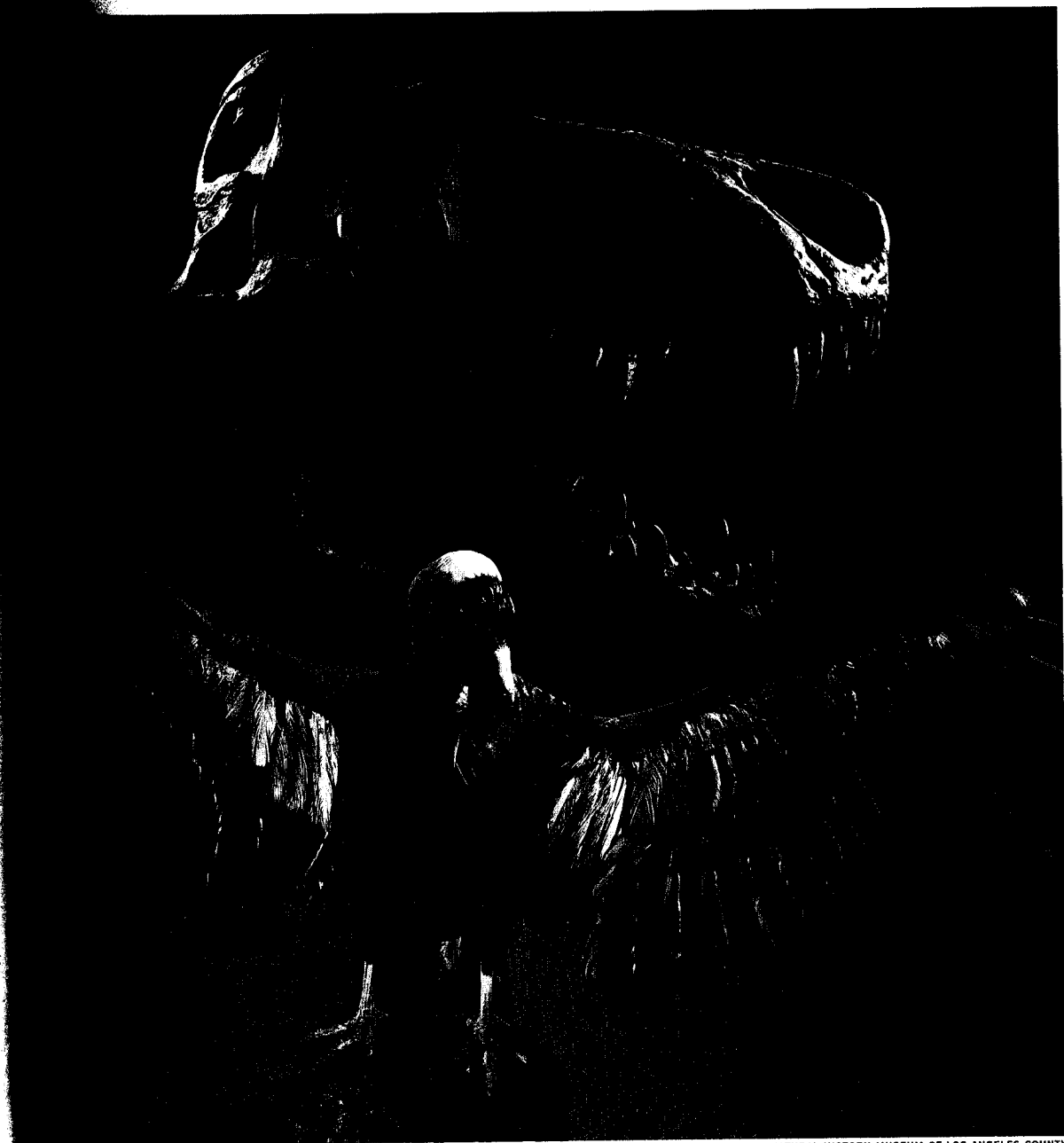
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PHOTOGRAPHED AT NATURAL HISTORY MUSEUM OF LOS ANGELES COUNTY

and the Tertiary," when there were none. (Scientists nickname this transition the K-T boundary.)

Because iridium is rare on earth but common in meteorites, the Berkeley scientists—Walter and Luis Alvarez, Frank Asaro, and Helen Michel—proposed that earth had been hit by an asteroid ten kilometers (six miles) across. Wildly controversial at first, the proposal has since been backed up by abundant and convincing evidence from around the globe. Most scientists now concur that at least one great extraterrestrial object struck the planet around the time the dinosaurs died out.

With Alvarez I hike an Italian mountain road to inspect the Gubbio boundary clay. He digs out a chunk and hands it to me.

"You are holding debris from the

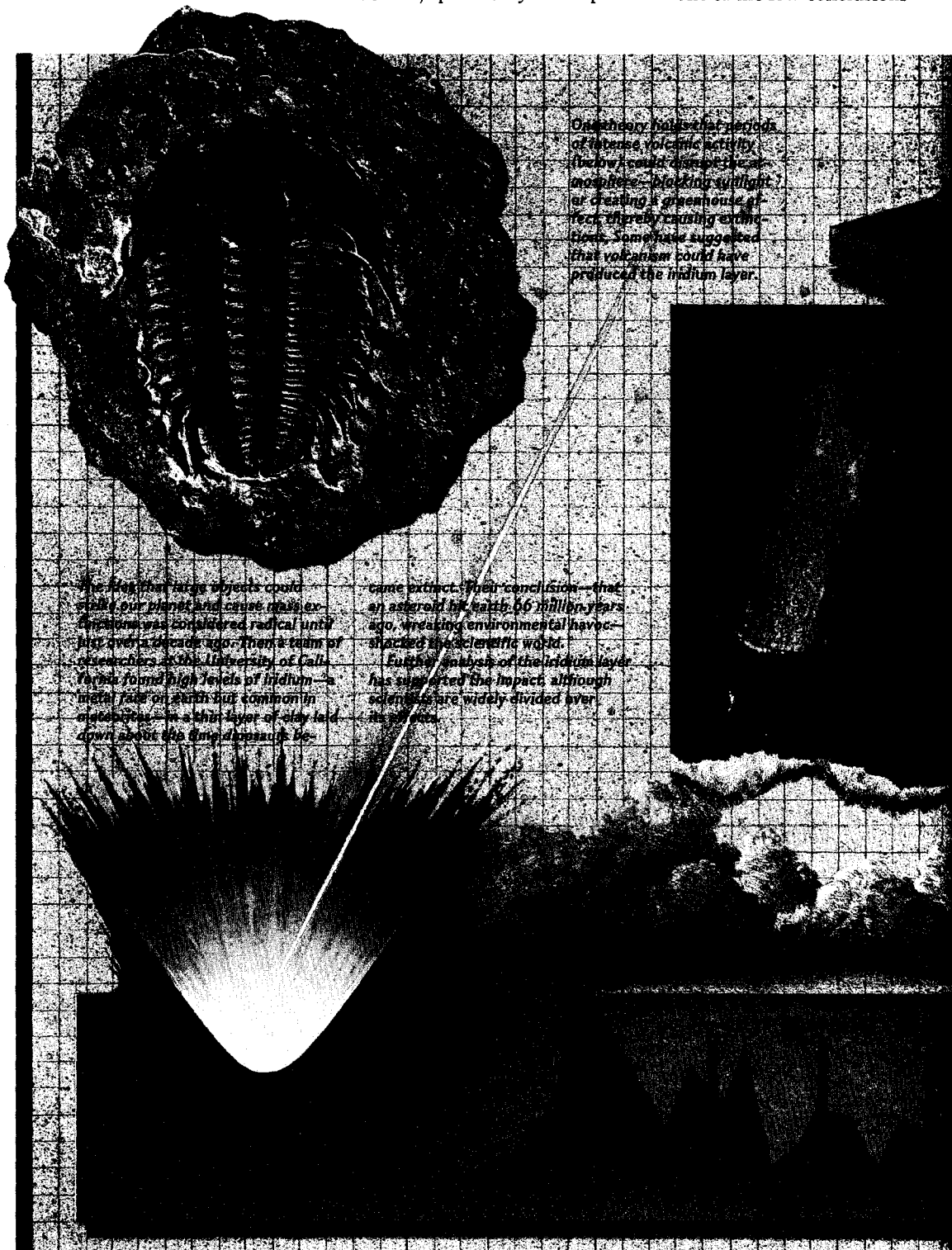
(Continued on page 672)

Mass extinction: the causes...

Through the study of fossil trilobites, below, and other creatures, scientists know that the story of life on earth has been punctuated by mass extinctions. But exactly how they occurred is a matter of unprecedented debate, sparked by the impact

theory, lower left, and argued by scientists in fields as diverse as geophysics, astronomy, and paleontology.

"These are exciting times to be looking at extinction," says NAS geologist Bevan French, stating one of the few conclusions



One theory holds that periods of intense volcanic activity (shown) could deplete the atmosphere—blacking out light—or creating a greenhouse effect, thereby causing extinctions. Some have suggested that volcanism could have produced the iridium layer.

The Mjolnir large objects could strike our planet and cause mass extinctions was considered radical until just over a decade ago. Then a team of researchers at the University of California found high levels of iridium—a metal rare on earth but common in meteorites—in a thin layer of clay laid down about 66 million years be-

came extinct. Their conclusion—that an asteroid hit earth 66 million years ago, wreaking environmental havoc—shocked the scientific world.

Further analysis of the iridium layer has supported the impact, although scientists are widely divided over its effects.

All scientists agree. At one end of the spectrum, some believe mass extinctions are triggered by cataclysmic events such as the impact of a celestial body or a period of intense volcanic activity. Others argue that the

extinction process is gradual, brought on by environmental changes wrought by rapid tectonic, oceanic, and climatic fluctuations. Many scientists say the truth lies somewhere in between, as a combination of earthly and extraterrestrial causes.



By plotting episodes of mass extinction throughout geologic time, some scientists have detected an interval of roughly 26 million years (orange vertical bars) between extinctions. This suggests a celestial timetable for extinctions—a periodic comet shower, for example, triggered by the passing of a star or other celestial events. According to these calculations, life on earth is safe for another 12 million years.

The victims and survivors

Extinction has claimed 99 percent of all species that have ever lived—many of them victims of "background" extinction, the piecemeal disappearance of species due to small-scale environmental changes. Others perished in one of earth's major mass extinctions (vertical bars) detected in the fossil record.

"During mass extinctions the

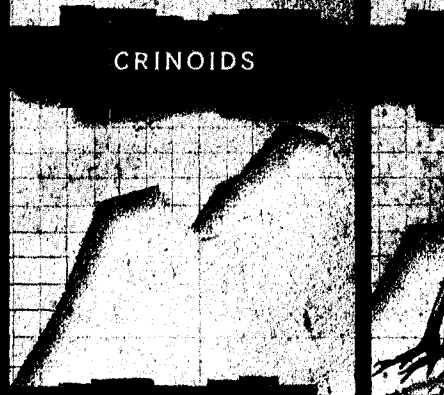
rules change," says paleontologist Jack Sepkoski of the University of Chicago. "Species that had been advantageous suddenly become a liability."

Tremendous dinosaurs, for example, helped the dinosaurs dominate for some 140 million years. But they vanished during the great Cretaceous extinction, while many smaller animals,

including mammals, survived. In general, species that are widespread rather than endemic are those that survive. The is no record of mass extinctions on land.



TRILOBITES



CRINOIDS

Horizontal color bars feature selected groups. Thickness of bar indicates the number of taxonomic families for each group. Red vertical lines denote mass extinctions.

Blue shading denotes marine family diversity. Spurred in the Precambrian, marine animals suddenly proliferate in the Cambrian seas.

Pie slices, below, represent estimated percentage of marine animal species that have survived extinctions.

CORALS

600 MILLION YEARS AGO

CAMBRIAN

500

ORDOVICIAN

400

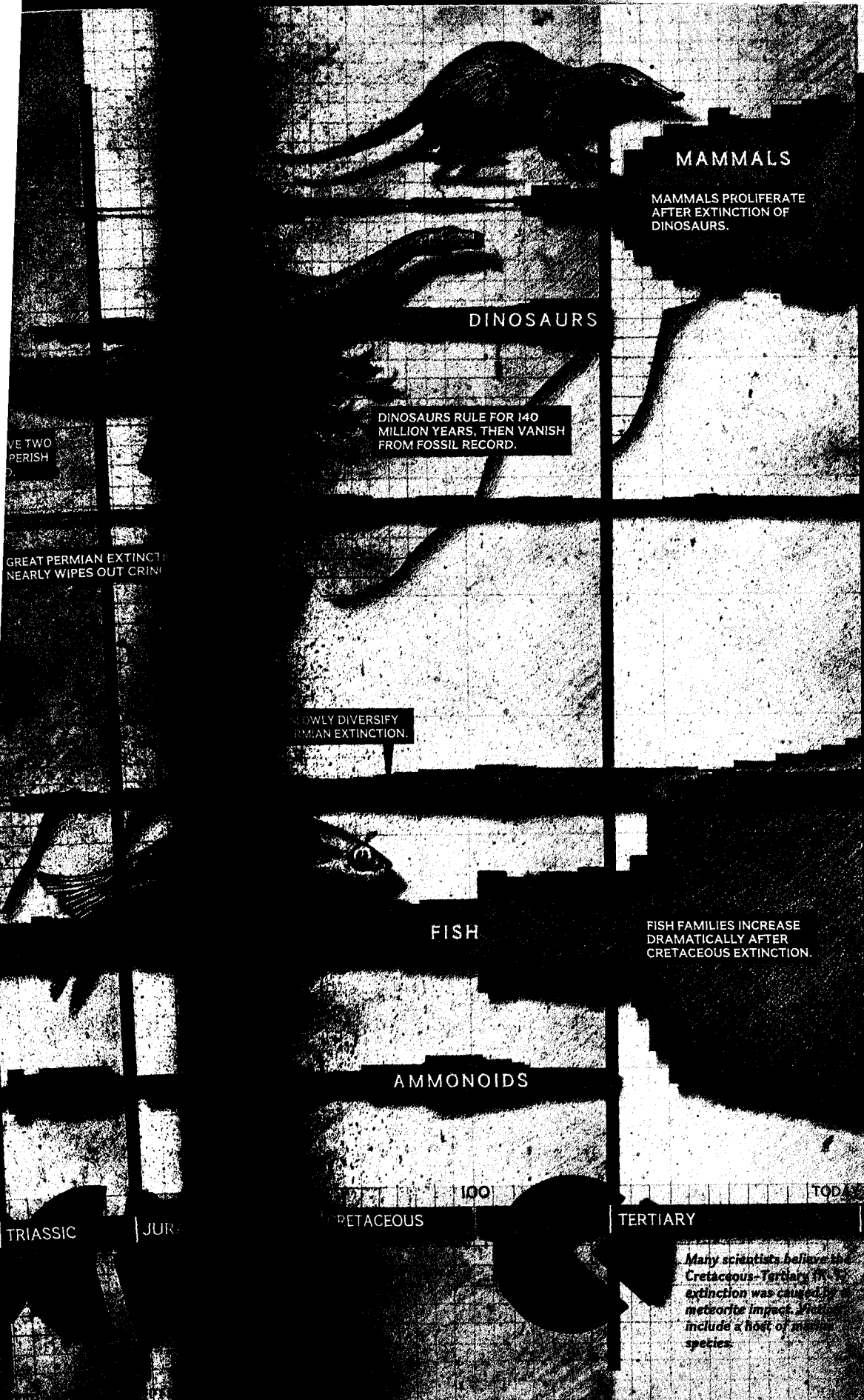
SILURIAN

DEVONIAN

Stromatolite-producing cyanobacteria dominate the world for two to three billion years, then fall prey to a new arrival: animals.

The first major mass extinction occurs during the Ordovician, triggered by a period of prolonged glaciation. Early fish survive, but marine invertebrates and plants are nearly wiped out.

PERCENT SURVIVORS



900 In scientific classifications, a family can include one or many dozens of species. Since families (shown in the graphs at left) can survive an extinction even if all but one of their species dies out, the species losses estimated in the pie charts at the bottom are actually far greater than the family data suggest.

600

500

400

300

200

100

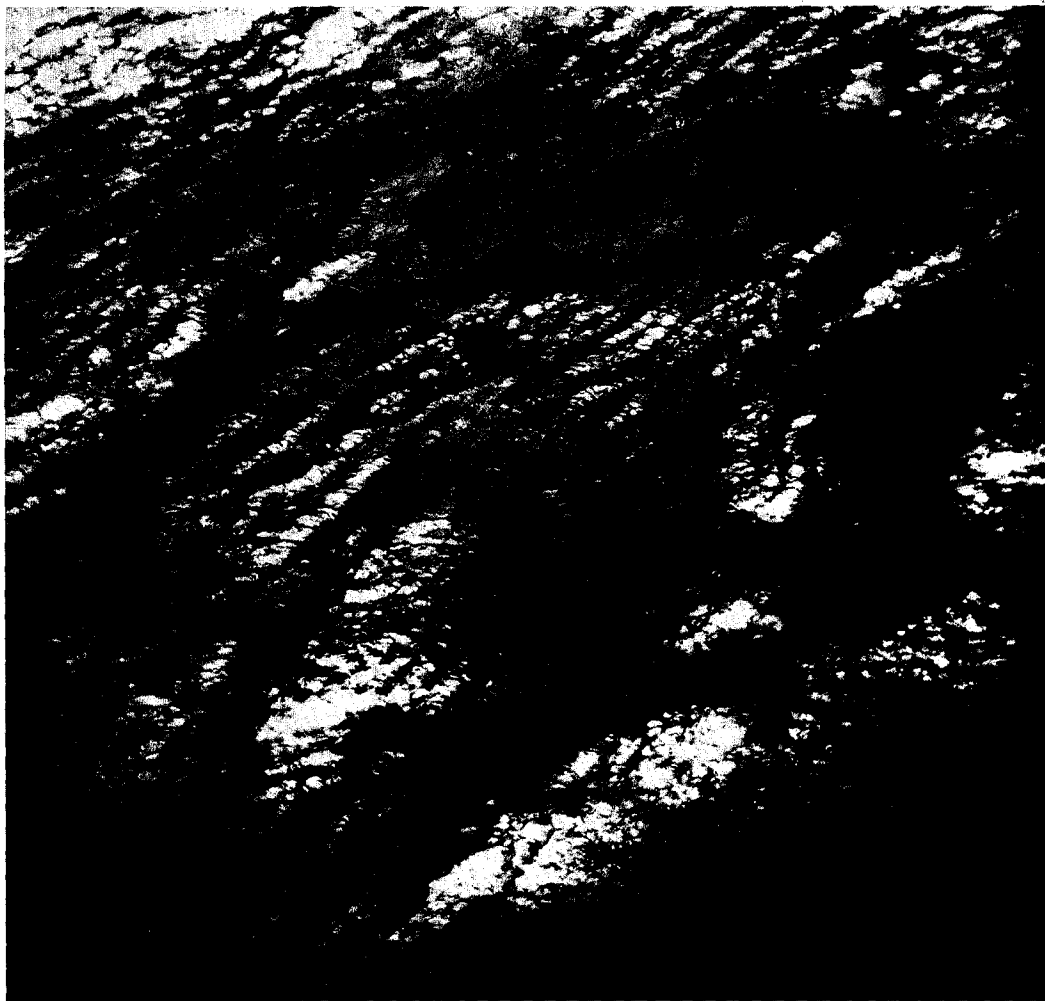
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NUMBER OF FAMILIES

Many scientists believe the Cretaceous-Tertiary (K-T) extinction was caused by meteorite impact. Victims include a host of marine species.

Some experts believe that earth is currently in the midst of a major mass extinction. It began with the megafauna wiped out by Ice Age hunters and continues today through habitat destruction and other human interventions.

A
m
B
C
fe



(Continued from page 665) impact," he says. "In the first days after earth was hit, dust blanketed the entire world. It grew pitch-dark for one to three months. If the impact was on land, it probably got bitterly cold. If it hit at sea, the water vapor could have created a greenhouse effect, making things hot. Hot nitric acid would have rained out of the atmosphere—a life-threatening rain that would have dissolved the shells of organisms."

That's not all. A surprising discovery by Wendy Wolbach, a graduate student at the University of Chicago, indicates that the world may have turned even nastier, as it did last summer at Yellowstone National Park.

A red sun shines like the eye of an angry god through the pall of billowing smoke at Old Faithful. A rush of heat. A swirl of suffocating, sooty air. Suddenly on the hillside behind the famous geyser the gates of hell burst open, and a fire storm races down the slope. A million acres on fire. The worst conflagration to strike the vast Yellowstone ecosystem in history. An awesome, terrifying orgy of flame. Yet this holocaust is insignificant compared with what Wolbach believes happened that day 66 million years ago when earth was hit. The entire world caught fire.

Even as Yellowstone burns, Wolbach shows me her evidence in her Chicago office—scanning electron microscope pictures of soot particles

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...d with the iridium layer from three widely separated sites—
... Spain, and New Zealand.

...ch's discovery stemmed from the curiosity of her research
...cosmochemist Edward Anders, about what kind of extrater-
...object had struck the planet at the K-T boundary. A meteorite
...asteroid belt? A comet? He suggested that Wolbach attempt
...carbon in the iridium layer. Carbon would have trapped cer-
...gases brought in by the impacting object. The isotopes of
...es might provide chemical signatures to identify the intruder
...ce.

...r surprise Wolbach has found an enormous enrichment of soot.
...et the amount of soot we find," she says, "as much as 90 per-
...he world's forests must have burned."

...ed the impact of a ten-kilometer body would be equivalent to
...imes the power of all the world's nuclear weapons, how could
...ad so disastrously across the globe?

...n if it hit in the ocean, the impact would have created a crater
...meters across," says Anders. "A huge plume would have
...the atmosphere aside. The fireball would have had a radius of
...housand kilometers. Winds of hundreds of kilometers an hour
...ave swept the planet for hours, drying trees like a giant hair
...Two-thousand-degree rock vapor would have spread rapidly. It
...ave condensed to white-hot grains that could have started ad-
...fires."

...dition, lightning discharges like those in a volcanic eruption
...ave ignited windswept fires on all landmasses that marched far
...an those at Yellowstone.

MUCH DOOMSDAY SCENARIOS strain our belief. And many sci-
...entists refuse to accept that such catastrophes have caused
...the great dyings.

"We don't need an impact," I have heard over and over
...from paleontologists. "We can explain mass extinctions
...with earthly causes."

...so they can. Falling sea levels. Ice ages. Collisions of conti-
...Volcanism. Climate changes. Altered ocean chemistry. The
...tial mechanisms for mass death are many.

...matter what causes them, mass extinctions do occur. They force
...perspective on the history of life.

...mass extinctions change the rules of evolution," explains David
...nski of the University of Chicago, one of the leading extinction
...ists. "When one strikes, it's not necessarily the most fit that sur-
...often it's the most fortunate."

...When their environment is disrupted, groups that had been healthy
...uddenly find themselves at a disadvantage. Other species that had
...barely hanging on squeak through and inherit the earth.

...The best example is mammals. Dinosaurs and mammals originated
...in ten million years of each other about 220 million years ago. But
...40 million years dinosaurs ruled, while mammals stayed small and
...bled around hiding out in the underbrush. Mammals all basically
...ed alike—squirrely or shrewish and no bigger than a badger—
...ill the dinosaurs disappeared. Then they took off. Within ten million
...rs there were mammals of all shapes and life-styles: whales and
...carnivores and grazers. Mammals just couldn't do anything
...resting until the dinosaurs were out of the way."

*CLUE to a killer's identity
may remain in rugged
central Quebec, where
the Manicouagan crater
was apparently blasted by
a giant meteorite some
210 million years ago.
That roughly coincides
with a mass extinction of
marine species at the end
of the Triassic period.
Sky-darkening dust from
the impact may have
played a role.*



LIVING FOSSILS, stromatolites were recently discovered by geologists of the Caribbean Marine Research Center in shallow waters of the eastern Bahamas. The mounds are composed of sticky mats of cyanobacteria (formerly known as blue-green algae) that cement sand and sediments. Appearing in rocks 3.5 billion years old.



the Carib-
amas. The
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years old,

stromatolites are the earliest known communities of life. They declined dramatically between 500 and 700 million years ago and survive today only in environments hostile to predators, such as this area swept by swift channel currents and in hypersaline waters in Western Australia, where a community was found three decades ago.

June 1989

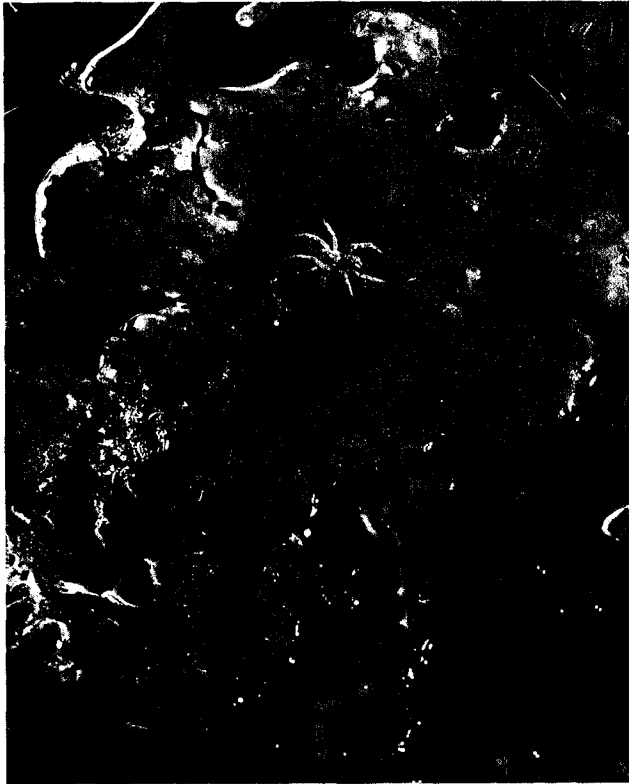
Extinctions

675

Mass extinctions thus promote new beginnings, new eras of experimentation. If earth's slate of life were not episodically wiped clean, how far might we have evolved beyond the primordial slime?

That slime surely suffered too. The first great extinction may have been a gas attack. As one microbiologist explains, "It was the worst case of pollution in earth's history."

What was this toxic waste, this obnoxious gas? Paradoxically, it was what today sustains all animal life: oxygen.



DESCENDANTS of the stromatolite builders, mats of modern cyanobacteria survive in environments too harsh for most life—such as in this 42°C (108°F) hot spring rivulet in Yellowstone National Park. No threat to the cyanobacteria, the wolf spider is a relative latecomer; his ancestors appeared about 400 million years ago.

through rocks that were formed in shallow seas between 2.5 billion and 600 million years ago.

Then stromatolite populations crashed. Like the anaerobic life they displaced, stromatolites still exist but can be found only in isolated areas. What happened?

In a word, animals. Life began to feed on itself.

THE APPEARANCE of animals heralded the adoption of a new survival strategy. Photosynthesis had enabled organisms to make their own food from carbon dioxide and water. The new strategy bypassed that step. Why make your own food? Why not eat some organism that has already done the work? Eating someone else takes energy, however. You have to graze or hunt. That requires a high-powered aerobic, or oxygen-burning, metabolism. As the advent of oxygen made grazing animals possible, it made sitting ducks of the stromatolite builders.

Animal life exploded across the planet at the start of the Cambrian period, around 570 million years ago. Perhaps oxygen levels crossed a threshold that enabled animals to make shells and experiment with increasingly complex tissue.

new eras of experientially wiped clean, primordial slime? The function may have been the worst. It was the worst. Paradoxically, it

oceans and atmosphere-free, or oxygen-free, or carbon dioxide dominated the atmosphere three billion years ago. Members of the Cambrian period had the kind of atmosphere that releases oxygen as a byproduct.

oxygen, aggressive gas. In the absence of oxygen, life is nearly impossible. So with oxygen, life could flourish in the sunlight and in the water, and in the underground or

The oceans were anoxic.

oxygen-dominated the atmosphere. Wherever seas were shallow, they built communities—mound-building organisms. The fossilized stromatolites, of cabbage-shaped red stromatolites, were thick, swirl

between 2.5 billion and

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the adoption of a new enabled organisms to land and water. The Cambrian made your own Cambrian has already done the Cambrian, however. You had aerobic, or oxygen made grazing stromatolite builders. Part of the Cambrian oxygen levels crossed the Cambrian and experiment with

for 25 million years life was unconstrained," says University of Chicago paleontologist Jack Sepkoski. "If evolution had continued at the rate we see at the Cambrian-Precambrian boundary, we'd have a Newburg from New York to London." At the time Cambrian seas filled, about 545 million years ago, life evolved nearly all the phyla, or basic body plans, that it uses today. But one body plan dominates the fossils of that great epoch: trilobites.

DHANTOMS OF TRILOBITE DAYS haunt central Utah's House Range as geologist Pete Palmer drives me to the site of the first mass extinction of animals clearly documented by the fossil record. At least three times toward the end of the Cambrian, trilobites, distant cousins of horseshoe crabs, were nearly extinguished by mysterious, perhaps global, disasters. Their bodies litter this former floor with what Palmer calls "trilobite trash"—a head here, a tail there. "Trilobites were innocuous creatures," says Palmer, who works for the Geological Society of America. "Most were somewhere between one and six inches long. They couldn't bite. They weren't vicious. Some were floaters, some swam. Mostly they were mud suckers. Their mouths faced backward. They had multiple legs that brought food to their mouth. They may have scavenged soft fleshy stuff or eaten marine algae."

Trilobites lived in a flooded world. Sea levels were high. Minneapolis would have been coastal. The rocks of Utah's House Range were part of a limestone platform offshore, like today's Bahamas.

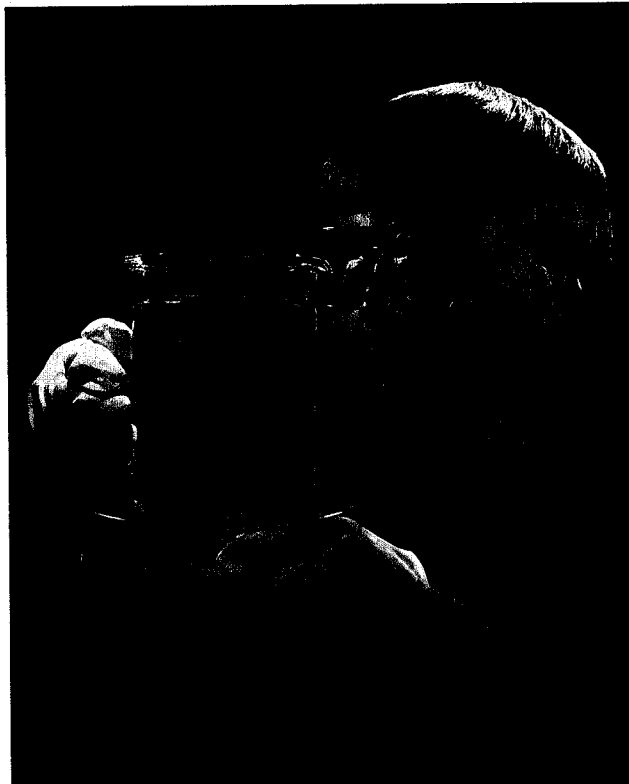
We drive dirt tracks into Little Horse Canyon, then climb up through what had been Cambrian muds to a gray limestone shelf. A line about as thick as my fingernail runs across the rock. Below the line all the trilobite trash is made up of "roundheads," Palmer's name for the roundheaded family that dominated the mud.

"This line coincides with a crisis," says Palmer. "We suddenly lose the roundheads. In the rocks just above us there's nothing but very primitive trilobites with square heads. They came in like the Mongol hordes. They had to be hiding out in some special local environment, maybe in the deeper, colder waters farther offshore. Once the world was theirs, they diversified rapidly.

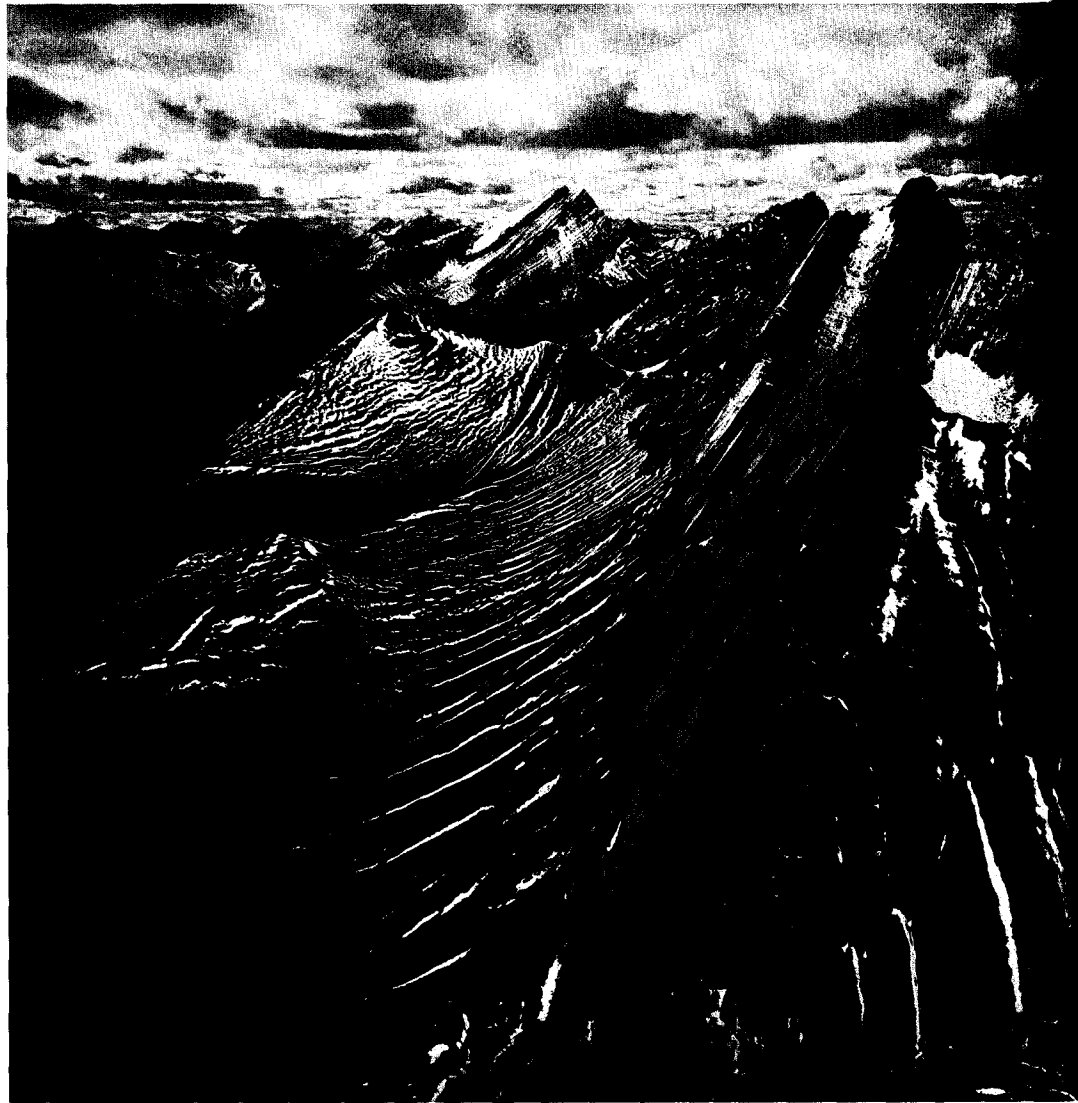
"Then one day, bang. . . ."

Palmer points to a ledge high above our heads. "Up there the same thing happens to the squareheads. Then another group of trilobites appears by the millions. At the end of the Cambrian period, their descendants too are decimated and never come back strongly."

What happened?



ILLUMINATING earth's dark ages, David Ward of Montana State University bathes cyanobacteria in ultraviolet light, causing chlorophyll to fluoresce. Its presence indicates photosynthesis, a process that literally changed the world 2.5 billion years ago. Such photosynthetic microbes released oxygen into the biosphere, allowing oxygen-based life to develop.



FORMED in the shallow sea that covered western North America 370 million years ago, limestone exposed in the Ancient Wall—a range in Canada's Jasper National Park—may hold fossilized answers to what caused a mass dying of reef-building invertebrates during the late Devonian period.

"Maybe an extraterrestrial object splashed into the ocean," says Palmer. "Perhaps, like today, the seas were strongly stratified—warm, oxygen-rich upper strata on top of cold, oxygen-poor deep water. If you threw that deep water onto these shallow shelves, you could have devastated the trilobites living there. Those organisms couldn't stand even a few weeks of that."

That scenario could explain the squarehead survival. Being primitive, they had been pushed to the cold, deep margins where no other creatures could make a living. They had adapted to just those conditions that exterminated their more advanced competitors.

AFTER THE CAMBRIAN, trilobites never bounced back. Sophisticated new predators, suggests University of Washington biologist Peter Ward, made their life-style obsolete. Nautiloids, distant relatives of today's chambered nautilus, combined massive jaws with the ability to swim swiftly across the seafloor. "As the airplane revolutionized warfare, the nautiloids created havoc for mudbound creatures," says



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nd. "The early trilobites only looked ahead. The ones that survived looked up."

Reef life—aborted early in the Cambrian—evolved anew in the Ordovician. Clams, starfish, and crinoids, lily-shaped animals that made gardens out of sea bottoms, also emerged. Then around 440 million years ago this increasingly diverse global ecosystem collapsed.

The most obvious villain in the massive Ordovician extinction was the planet's own restlessness, the inner turmoil forever moving earth's continents about. In the late Ordovician that turmoil drove a huge, ancient continent, Gondwana, over the South Pole. Immense glaciers developed, drawing their water from the oceans and chilling even the tropics. "The ice age literally drained the shallow seas," says paleontologist Peter Sheehan of the Milwaukee Public Museum.

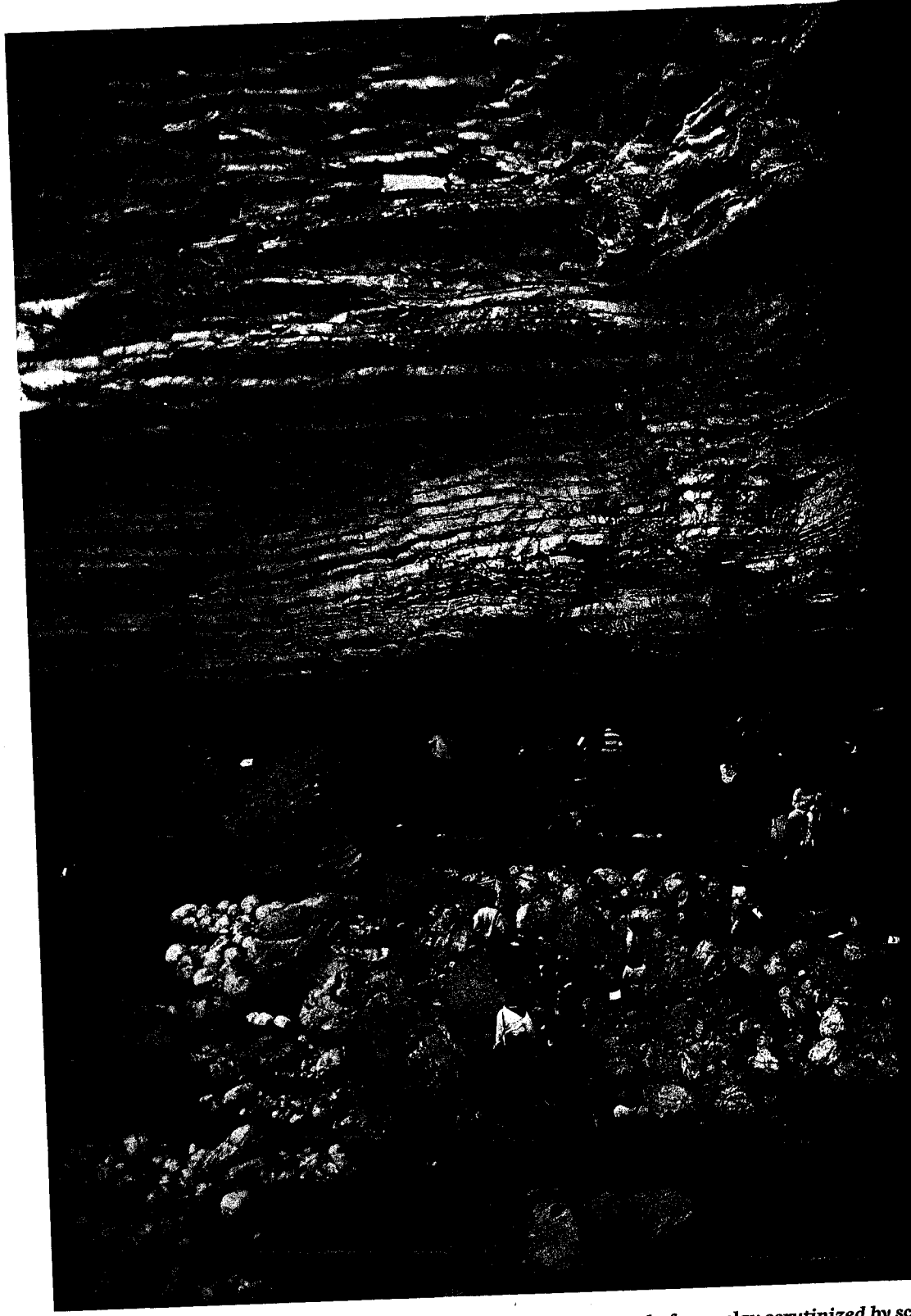
Reef life was especially hard hit during the Ordovician extinction.

"Reefs are attractive but dangerous places to live," says David Jablonski. "The web of interactions is so complicated that the entire community can crash if just a few of its members go. Reefs are always getting clobbered."

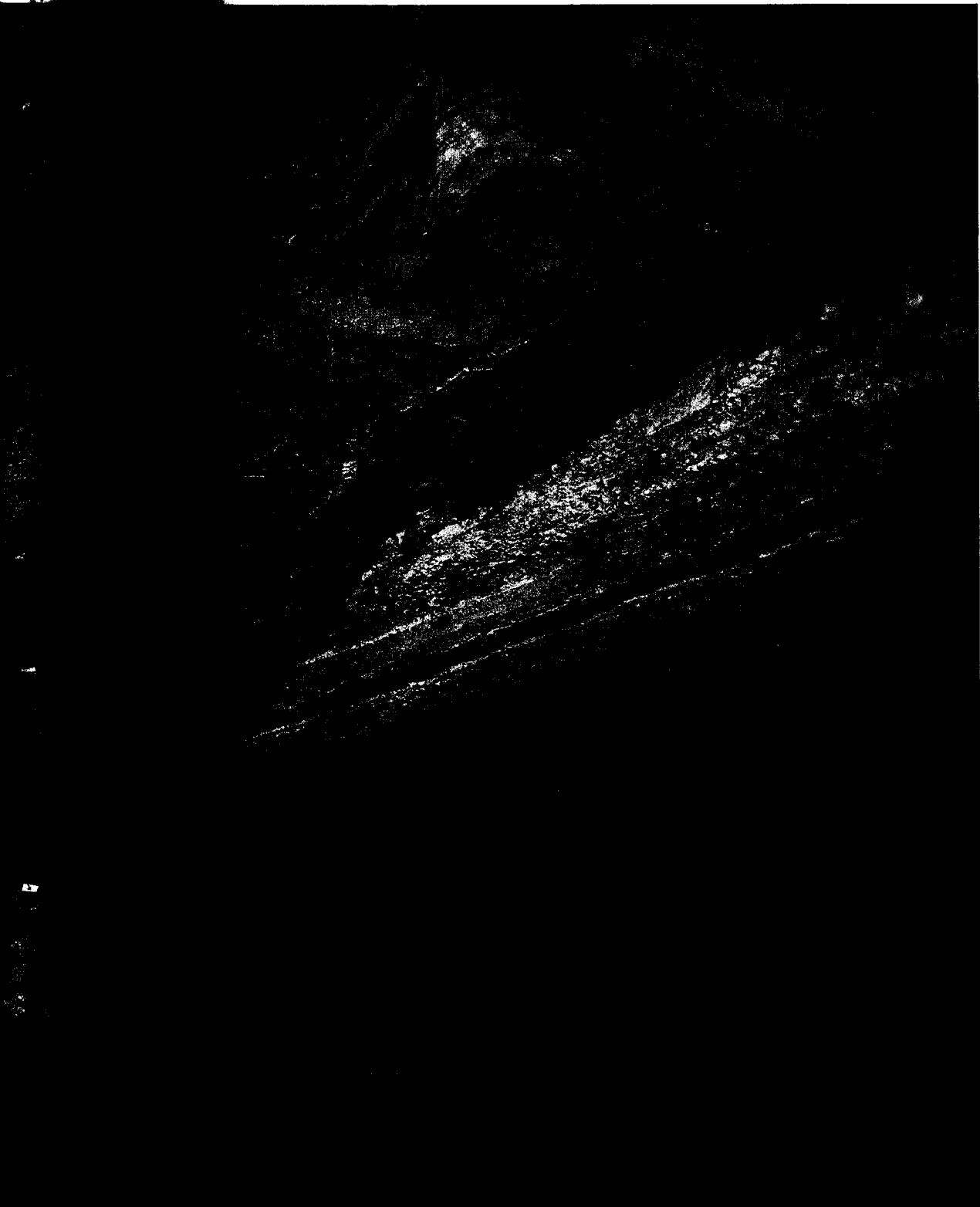
EYE TO EYE with the Devonian disaster, Helmut Geldsetzer of the Canadian Geological Survey examines fossils exposed on an outcrop near the Lyell Icefield in British Columbia. He believes a sudden flooding of shallow seas by oxygen-poor water from the deep may have killed the reef builders. The cause, he suggests, "might be an asteroid impact."

Extinctions

679



LAYERS OF CONTROVERSY surround a thin band of gray clay scrutinized by scientists on this seaside cliff in Zumaya, Spain. Found worldwide, the layer marks the boundary between the Cretaceous and Tertiary periods. Experts studying the clay see



scientists
boundary
y see clear
evidence of an impact—including high levels of iridium. Debate rages over the
connection between the impact and the death of dinosaurs. But few scientists deny
extraordinary events are recorded in that narrow layer of sediment.

catastrophists heatedly disagree, arguing that the event was ab worldwide, and occurred in the midst of a long warm spell.

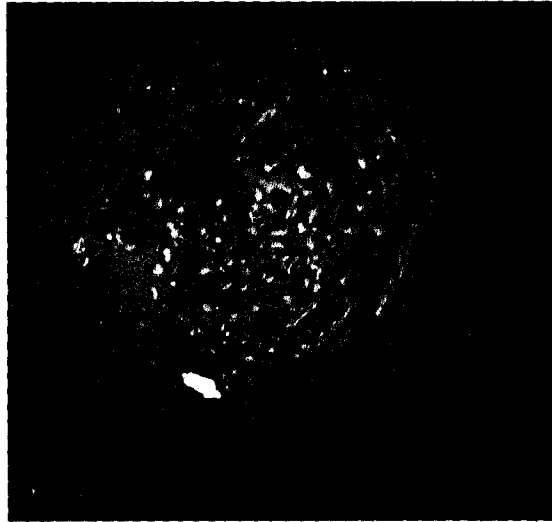
"At most we are dealing with 20,000 years—and maybe just a stormy night," says Willi Ziegler, director of the Senckenberg Museum in Frankfurt.

With Charles Sandberg of the U. S. Geological Survey, Ziegler studied fossils of abundant small eel-like animals known as conodonts. The shapes of conodonts changed often and distinctively enough

during the Devonian that scientists can date precisely with them. Particular conodont shapes in a rock indicate whether the rock formed in deep or shallow seas.

Ziegler and Sandberg's conodont analysis indicates great swings of sea level around the time of the extinction. They see shallow-sea conodonts suddenly appearing in deep-sea rocks. They argue that storms, and perhaps tsunamis, ravaged the planet, washing near-shore life out to sea. In Nevada, which was deepwater terrain, Sandberg has found hundreds of boulders of coastal rocks that were apparently ripped seaward.

"We suspect this was caused by a comet shower or increasingly closer passes by an asteroid or field of asteroids," says Sandberg. "An asteroid's gravity could raise great tides. It would increase the stress on marine life if sea levels were



STANLEY V. MARGOLIS AND ERIC F. DOEHNE

EVIDENCE of impact, this tiny spherule collected from the K-T boundary layer at Zumaya is thought to be a melted fragment of the object that struck the earth 66 million years ago. The spherule, here magnified 5,000 times, contains platinum in the high concentration present in meteorites but not normally found on earth.

30 meters, then dropped 60."

Wild thoughts? There are data from the Devonian to support the speculation. The confusion grows worse with the next extinction, which terminated the Permian period about 240 million years ago.

THE PERMIAN was easily the greatest extinction of all time. Perhaps 96 percent of all species disappeared. No one claims strong evidence for an extraterrestrial extinguisher. The best guess today is that the planet itself did the killing. The Permian extinction was the first to affect terrestrial life significantly. During previous extinctions most life was confined to the water. But by the end of the Permian, coal swamps proliferated, insects swarmed, and pig-size amphibians were roaming across earth's warm surfaces. Creatures known as mammal-like reptiles dominated the land.

Mammal-like reptiles varied enormously. Early versions resembled lizards, but reconstructions of later species make me think of a dog-faced tank with a short tail. They may have had fur, and to species their bone and teeth structure looks more mammalian than their simultaneously evolving reptilian cousins. For example, their limbs extended directly beneath their bodies, rather than to the sides, as in the case with reptiles.

Even as the mammal-like reptiles were evolving during the Permian, the forces of plate tectonics were forging the supercontinent Pangaea, joining all the planet's continents into a single colossal landmass. But in only one continent the amount of shallow offshore water—among the richest habitats on the planet—shrank drastically. Also, Pangaea encroached on both poles, probably triggering a series of crippling

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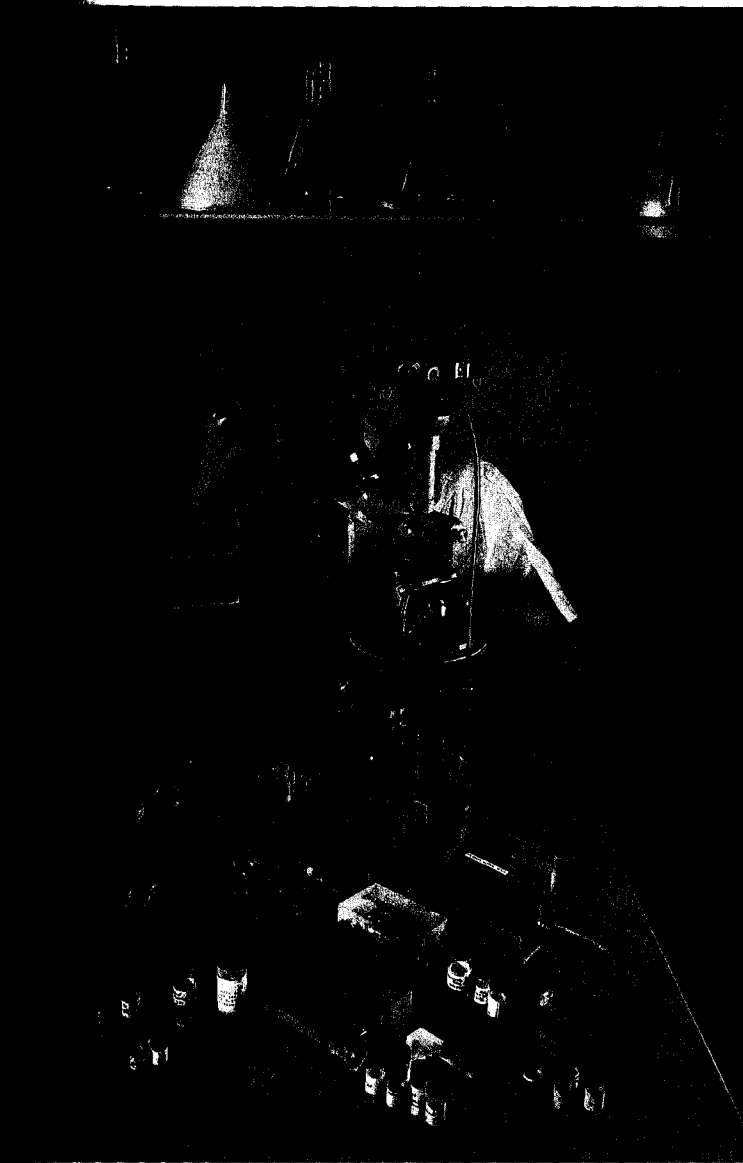
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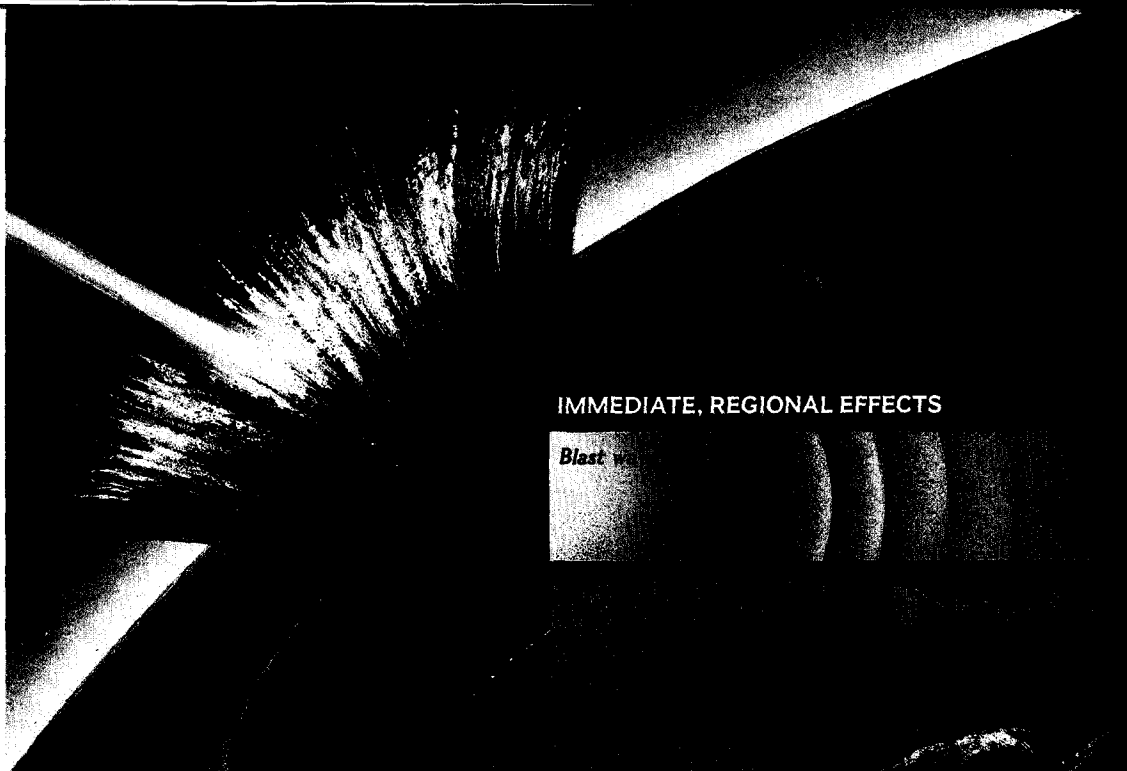
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in both hemispheres. According to paleontologist Bob Sloan of University of Minnesota, sea levels bobbed up and down by 200 meters; coastlines advanced and retreated 1,900 kilometers (1,200 miles). Even tropical seas would have been chilled. On land climate became progressively drier, the winters Siberian. The mammal-like reptiles suffered at least six distinct mass extinctions during the last eight million years of the Permian, says Sloan, indicating that the great die-offs may occur in pulses. Those pulses reflect the Permian's strong climatic swings. The die-offs illustrate paradoxically, extinctions can benefit life. "Look at what survived each pulse," says Sloan. "The survivors were always those that appear to be more warm-blooded and thus do better with cold climates. They also tended to have more complicated jaws and teeth, as well as more efficient respiratory systems." Moreover, the survivors were small, establishing a pattern for subsequent terrestrial extinctions. As Sloan says, "The surest route to



GEO-DETECTIVE Glen Izett of USGS was skeptical about the impact theory. Then his light-polarizing microscope revealed quartz grains in samples of the K-T layer (above) with the type of fractures caused by nuclear explosions or meteorite impacts. Judging from the size and abundance of "shocked" quartz grains he has found in the western U. S., Izett believes the impact occurred there.

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IMMEDIATE, REGIONAL EFFECTS

Blast

Vaporization
of water

Vaporization
of rock

Effects of an ancient cataclysm

The scenario is straight out of a science-fiction movie: Giant meteorite strikes earth, setting the planet afire. Volcanoes erupt, tsunamis crash into the continents. The sky grows dark for months, perhaps years. Unable to cope with the catastrophic changes in climate, countless species are wiped off the face of the planet.

Yet that is the apocalyptic scene scientists suggest, as evidence grows that comets or meteorites may indeed be agents of *mass destruction on earth.*

In the moments following the impact of an object ten kilometers in diameter, experts believe, a blast wave similar to that of a nuclear explosion would destroy everything within several hundred kilometers, its intense heat and winds combining to set wildfires, perhaps even a global inferno. If the impact occurred

on land, earthquakes would rock the continent for days. If at sea, huge tsunamis could destroy coastal habitats across the globe. Other immediate effects would include a horizontal "base surge" of melted and pulverized material and a plume of vaporized water and/or rock ejected into the stratosphere above the impact crater—the fine particles eventually darkening skies around the world.

Scientists are debating the

long-term effects of such an impact. Most agree that an event of strong acid rain would ensue. Some believe a global dust cloud would trigger an age of darkness and cold. Others see a sharp greenhouse effect—particularly if the object struck and vaporized limestone in the ocean basins, filling the atmosphere with massive quantities of carbon dioxide. This CO₂ layer would trap heat, raising temperatures worldwide.

GLOBAL EFFECTS
(5)



LONG-TERM, GLOBAL EFFECTS
(MONTHS TO YEARS)

OF YELLOWSTONE
ing compared to a
that raged 66 million
according to Wendy
below, of the Univer-
icago. Testing samples

of the K-T layer from around
the world, Wolbach found high
levels of soot, suggesting a glob-
al wildfire started by an impact.
Magnified on her screen is soot
found in strata similar to those

she holds from New Zealand.
The light-colored rock at bottom
is from the Cretaceous. A dark
layer marks the K-T boundary,
when 75 percent of animal
species became extinct.



PAINTING BY LLOYD K. TOWNSEND. PRIMARY CONSULTANTS: EDWARD ANDERS, ENRICO FERMI INSTITUTE, UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO; BEVAN M. FRENCH, NASA

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June 19

extinction is to be large." Big creatures need more food and had trouble finding hideouts.

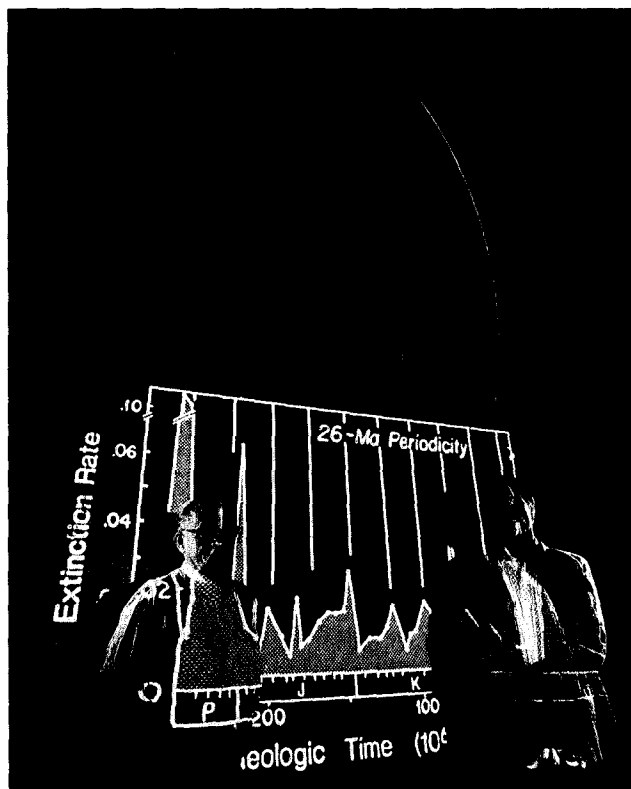
One squat creature whose ancestors made it through the end of the Permian was a tusked herbivore called *Lystrosaurus*. About as common as E. T., *Lystrosaurus* exploded across Pangaea after the Permian largely because there wasn't much left big enough to eat it.

In the ensuing Triassic period evolution soon produced not only large new mammal-like reptiles but also waves of new experiments.

Marine monsters called ichthyosaurs began to prowl the seas, crocodiles swam in swamps. Flying pterosaurs took to the air.

The first dinosaurs also appeared. Extremely fast and small, they were two-legged, probably resembling big pheasants on the run. Their upright posture freed their forelegs to be used as hands for grasping.

If not warm-blooded, most dinosaurs had evolved high metabolic rates. Some perhaps were covered with down, and later, feathers. Nevertheless, for a long time dinosaurs waited in evolution's wilderness. Although they were superior players, dinosaurs could not, by themselves, replace the mammal-like reptiles.



AT THE CLOSE of the Triassic period, about 200 million years ago, the dinosaurs have gotten a little help from the cosmos. In the wilds of central Quebec sits the Manicouagan crater, half the size of Connecticut. The only radiometric dating of remote Manicouagan puts

the impact several million years before the end of the Triassic. However, paleontologist Paul Olsen of Columbia University's Lamont-Doherty Geological Observatory suspects that the dates are wrong and that the Manicouagan impact is the fingerprint of a global mass extinction event from space.

"The fireball alone from an impact that size would have scorched everything down to New Jersey," he says. It thus could have created the kind of global havoc suspected at the K-T boundary.

Whether or not they had cosmic good fortune, the dinosaurs took charge of the land with the advent of the next period, the Jurassic. During the Jurassic's 60 million years, the great reptiles developed enormous size. The gargantuan *Brontosaurus* and related creatures roamed river plains, browsing tall conifer trees. So did the armored tractor-size *Stegosaurus*, although it might have had to stand on its hind legs to nibble the branches. It had to stay ever alert for the huge meat-eating *Allosaurus*.

These monsters vanished, along with many smaller dinosaurs and marine creatures, when a profound but mysterious crisis struck at the end of the Jurassic. A new generation of low-browsing, beaked dinosaurs emerged. What made them the evolutionary victors? Was the

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raphic, June 1989

abitat change? Why was life in the oceans also hard hit? The
mass killer left almost no clues.
saurian life rebounded vigorously during the long warm eons of
ing Cretaceous period. Then, about 90 million years ago, an-
poorly understood pulse of extinctions struck both land and sea.
odest spike of iridium has recently been reported for this mid-
ous extinction, implying impacts from space. Because other
ave not been uncovered for this boundary, the significance of
e spike is being challenged. But
ay be a more surprising suspect
nts of extinction—flowers.
ut this time blooming and fruit-
g plants, known as angiosperms,
o explode across the land. By at-
g animals to spread their pollen
ds, the angiosperms colonize
y. They also reproduce rapidly.
aversial dinosaur expert Robert
er of the University of Colorado
that the new generation of low-
ing Cretaceous dinosaurs began
g the world over to flowers. Dino-
an overgrazing threatened many
rowing plants with extinction—
ot for the angiosperms. Their
oductive superiority helped flower-
ants compete with the munching
of oblivion.

urn, this contagion of angio-
ns must have had an enormous
ct on the dinosaurs' diets. Could
linked to their mid-Cretaceous
ction?

certainly new dinosaurs evolved in
aftermath. The late Cretaceous saw
hill dinosaurs prowling the swamps and forests. On the more open
ns, especially in western North America, great herds of rhino-like
eratops and their relatives fed on the new vegetation. Back then a
a across the Dakotas would have resembled a saurian version of to-
's Serengeti Plain. The lion of that world was the infamous *Tyran-*
saurus rex.

in all, at least 30 genera of dinosaurs—perhaps a hundred species—
habited the planet during the final ten million years of the Creta-
ous. Some specialists argue that most persisted right up to the K-T
oundary. Others brandish data indicating that all but 13 genera had
erished well before the Cretaceous ended. Recent, hotly contested evi-
ence suggests nine genera of dinosaurs may have straggled on into the
ollowing Paleocene epoch. Part of the answer to this debate lies buried
the badlands of the Great Plains.

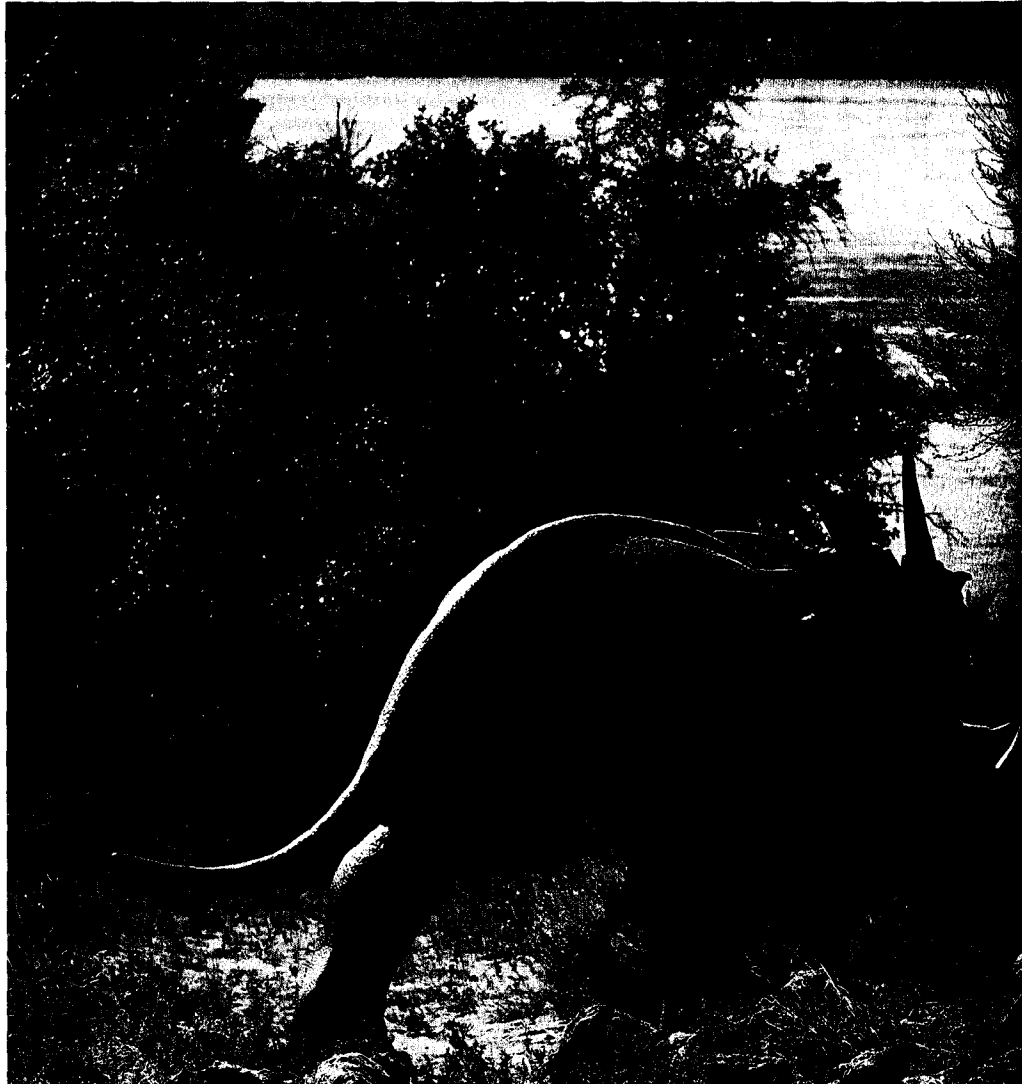
Ten thousand years ago in the badlands, runoff from the last gla-
ciers cut through the purplish gray and green soils of the Hell Creek
ormation near the North Dakota-Montana border. As those eroding
streams carved buttes out of the vast flatlands, they cut through and
exposed for future geologists the last two million years of the Creta-
ceous period. Hell Creek is the only place on earth that preserves in



FIRE OR ICE? Based on his studies of the fossil record, paleobiologist Steven Stanley of Johns Hopkins University (above) believes that global cooling explains most mass extinctions. He holds a *Spondylus*, a tropical bivalve that died out some 3 million years ago. At the other end of the spectrum, David Raup and Jack Sepkoski of the University of Chicago share the limelight with their theory that mass extinctions occur every 26 million years, perhaps as a result of periodic bombardment by comets.

detail—with iridium and an abundance of fossils—the dying of the dinosaurs.

On this July morning the bleak buttes are speckled by the colorful T-shirts of scientists and volunteers sent by the Milwaukee Public Museum. Hammering and chiseling under a blazing sun, Claudia Berghaus, Joan Mathys, and Carol Moertl extricate fragments of a *Triceratops* front leg bone. Doug Stephenson is perched high on the butte, near the K-T boundary, working on scraps of a scapula.

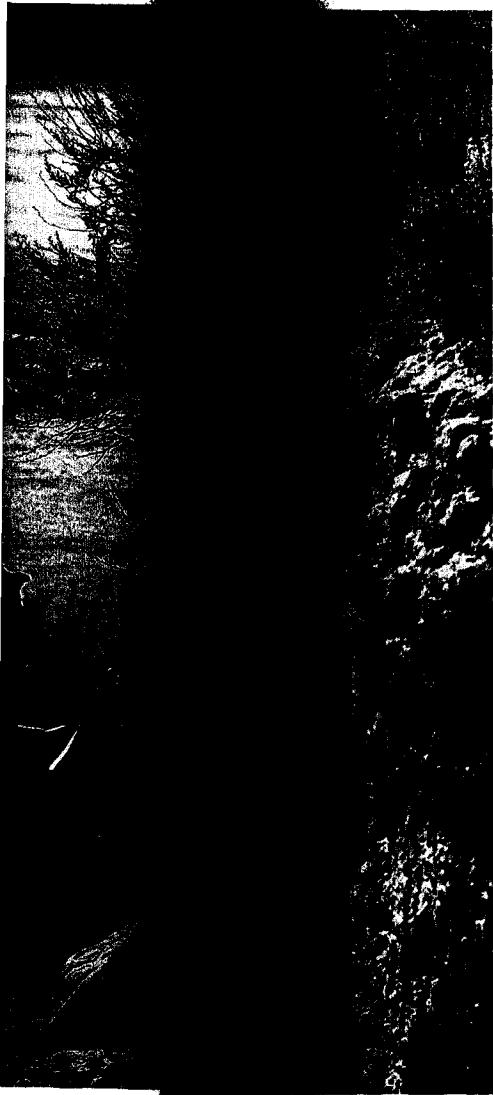


“I can’t get over it,” says Jay Warner, who is usually an engineer. “Back in Milwaukee I was worried I wouldn’t find a single bone. I found a piece of a turtle in my first five minutes, a dinosaur in ten.”

“We want to know what the pattern of diversity was,” explains the museum project’s coordinator, Peter Sheehan. “It has not been adequately shown that dinosaurs already were dying out before the impact. We’re trying to eliminate one of the two possibilities—the whimper or the bang. A gradual pattern of decline is not what you expect if an asteroid killed them.”

Sheehan contends that past estimates of dinosaur diversity are

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The better-known North American fossil sites have been mined roughly than other spots. Dale Russell of the National Museum of Canada says dinosaur diversity in North America did not significantly before the boundary. In central Asia, another fossil-rich area, it increased, while much of the world remains unexplored.

In the past, fossil hunters usually collected only museum-quality specimens. They ignored the scraps, which may be the most valid indicators of the real abundance of late Cretaceous life.

The scrap that creates the most excitement on this day is not dinosaurian, nor even reptilian.

"We've got a mammal," announces museum paleontologist Diane Gabriel, bending over her sliver of a discovery, a jawbone from a marsupial. "It was probably slightly larger than a chihuahua. That means it was a giant for its time."

MAMMALS are rare in these late Cretaceous rocks, but in the eyes of the Minnesota paleontologist Bob Sloan they are far from insignificant. Sloan believes that 200,000 years before the K-T boundary a receding sea level had created a land bridge between North America and the long-isolated Asian continent. A plague of little Asian mammals invaded North America and began eating the same flowering plants that most dinosaurs ate.

"The mammals ate much less food per animal," says Sloan. "But there were so many of them. They ate the last of the dinosaurs out of house and home." Others suggest the dinosaurs' nemesis was a climate-induced change in vegetation.

In fact, the dinosaurs and their huge flying cousins, the pterosaurs, were among the few land-based animals to go extinct at the end of the Cretaceous. Turtles, crocodiles, many lizards, and most mammals

made it through, perhaps because they did not eat much and were small enough to find refuges.

The cruelest K-T extinctions struck the seas. Most plankton, the primary food source, died out—understandable if months of darkness or global acid rain followed an impact. All large marine reptiles also vanished, as did most denizens of the seafloor. Rudists, huge coral-like clams whose shells built Cretaceous reefs, were obliterated. Ammonoids—lovely, coiled survivors of many past extinctions—died out completely.

Not all these creatures disappear from the fossil record right at the

A SPIKED COLLAR and a rhino-like horn helped Styracosaurus (left) fend off his number one enemy—Albertosaurus, a scaled down version of T-rex who stalked the late Cretaceous coastal swamps in what is now Dinosaur Provincial Park in Alberta, Canada. The Tyrrell Museum's lifelike replica is modeled on fossils found in the park.

Whatever caused the extinction at the end of the Cretaceous, this vegetarian cousin of Triceratops wasn't around to see it. Styracosaurus disappeared from the fossil record some 12 million years before the K-T boundary.

K-T boundary. Some vanish earlier in steps. Thus other scientists argue that the K-T impact was not the cause of the dyings. "Ecosystems were decaying for at least two million years before the impact," explains paleobiologist Steven Stanley of Johns Hopkins University.

Stanley, a prominent theorist, sees long-term cooling as the cause. Yet there is no obvious reason for such cooling. The next ice age came tens of millions of years away. Massive volcanic eruptions may have dropped global temperatures temporarily by injecting particles



atmosphere that blocked sunlight. Indeed, one of the greatest outpourings of lava the world has known occurred at the K-T boundary. A massive basalt flow buried the Deccan region of India. However, many volcanologists doubt that the relatively calm nature of lava eruptions would propel much debris into the upper atmosphere.

Whatever cooled the planet, Stanley contends that the impact at the boundary probably was but a final insult to an already overstressed global ecosystem.

As I was told by another paleontologist: "Things got bad, then they got worse."

Impact enthusiasts have recently come up with a way to explain the multiple stages of K-T extinctions. Earth, they argue, was hit not by one great object but rather by a shower of comets that bombarded the planet over several million years.

Erle Kauffman of the University of Colorado finds evidence for a disarray in ocean chemistry beginning two million years before the

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Those disruptions, he argues, were created when comets
seas, generating tsunamis and overturns of deep anoxic or
er like those suggested for earlier extinctions. Those oceanic
o could have created global climate crises far worse than El
experience today. The final terminating impact, says Kauff-
probably occurred on land, where it produced fire storms, soot,
ll of dust.

A major question surrounds the final impact. Where's the crater?
re not always obvious.

largest impact and the largest
in the past hundred million
urred at the same time as the
trusion of lava," observes
Michael Rampino of New
iversity. "That's quite a coin-
He and others suspect that
t struck India, thereby causing
Deccan basaltic lava flows.

pino is right, the K-T crater
e buried beneath the basalt.
sider the quiet farm town of
Iowa. It sits over the center of
ometer-wide crater that glaciers
th debris during the last ice
as today the only striking fea-
Manson is its tall grain eleva-
ologists, however, have recently
e crater below Manson at 66
years—perfect timing to make it
killer.

at scientists agree that 32 kilome-
much too small to create the
envisioned by impact enthusi-
ut some suspect Manson's crater
larger. The 32-kilometer hole
just an inner pit.

course, the impact may have
the ocean. If so, the scarred sea-
could have been buried by sedi-
or been recycled into the planet's innards by plate tectonics.

PERHAPS more controversial than the impact hypothesis itself
is the notion that such showers occur regularly. Jack Sep-
koski and David Raup of the University of Chicago have
combed a century and a half of fossil record keeping and
found a pattern. They see peaks of extinction about every
26 million years. Such regularity implies a cosmic driver to
extinctions. No known earthly mechanism keeps such good time.
Many scientists dispute Raup and Sepkoski's statistical methods;
many concur, seeking astrophysical explanations.
The most obvious source for the calamities would be the dense cloud
of comets that astronomers believe surrounds the outer solar system.
Something could periodically unsettle that cloud, flinging a battalion of
comets toward the inner planets over several million years.
Three mechanisms have been proposed. A dense, dark companion



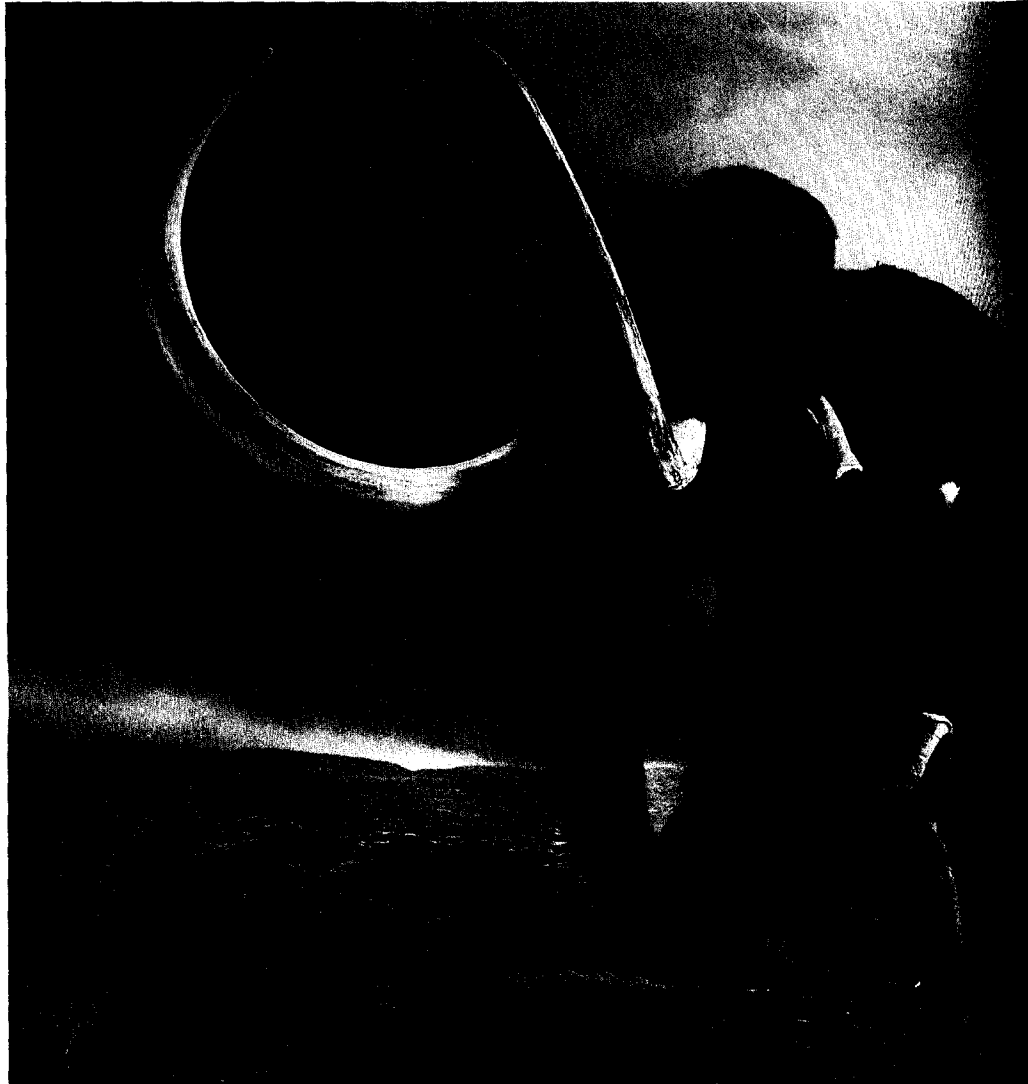
TERROR of the trilobites, *Anomalocaris* (above, at center) did not last long, but many a trilobite shows wounds attributed to the predator. It was extinct by the end of the Cambrian, whereas trilobites hung on until the Permian mass extinction. The fossil of a Jurassic fish covered with armor-like scales is removed from a West German quarry (facing page).

JONATHAN BLAIR, D. L. BRUTEN, A. JENSEN;
PHOTOGRAPHED AT PALEONTOLOGISK
MUSEUM, OSLO, NORWAY (ABOVE)

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star orbiting our sun would toss out comets as it passed through a dust cloud. So might an unknown, tenth planet. Thirdly, our solar system moves periodically up and down through the star-dense spiral arms of the Milky Way galaxy. Perhaps our comet envelope is perturbed each time we pass through that spiral arm.

Astrophysicists find dynamical problems with all three mechanisms. Many argue that the showers strike randomly, not regularly. Others see a frequency not of 26 but of about 30 million years.



Both spacings fit the next era of extinctions, which hit between 30 and 40 million years ago: Those dyings eliminated herds of rhino-like mammals and many sea creatures. Although iridium spikes correlate with some of these die-offs, gradualists argue that a well-documented churning of the seas did the killing.

Advocates of the 26-million-year period point to a mild extinction around 14 million years ago as evidence for the most recent bombardment. That places us today safely between showers. Those favoring a 30-million-year or random spacing are less sanguine.

Michael Rampino points to three large craters—Bosumtwi in Ghana

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ometers in diameter) and two in the Soviet Union, Elgytyn
eters) and Zhamanshin (13 kilometers)—that were created in
3.5 million years.

ould still be in a shower," says Rampino. "Halley's comet
part of it. We aren't out of the woods yet."

uing debris from the impact of a large celestial object 2.3 mil-
ago has recently been found strewn across some 600 kilome-
Pacific seafloor off Cape Horn.

"About 2.3 million years ago there was
an abrupt shift in climate," notes geologist
Frank Kyte, leader of the University of
California at Los Angeles team that dis-
covered evidence of the impact. "Huge
continental ice sheets developed in the
Northern Hemisphere."

Kyte notes that the climate had been de-
teriorating before this, our most recent ice
age, set in. But he speculates that the in-
jection of water vapor into the strato-
sphere could have formed a global cloud
cover that reflected heat off the top of
the atmosphere.

"No one would argue that impacts
alone cause ice ages," adds Mike Ram-
pino. "But might they push the climate
into a new state?"

WHETHER OR NOT we fit a
cosmic timetable for an
extinction, we surely are
in one today.

It began in North Amer-
ica about 11,000 years ago.
Most large mammals were wiped out.
Saber-toothed cats, mastodons, mam-
moths, huge ground sloths, short-faced
bears, and dire wolves. All perished
abruptly. What happened?

Some scientists argue that the climate
grew drier. In western North America arid
conditions dried up the food supply of
large herbivores. As the herbivores disap-
peared, so did the carnivores that preyed
on them.

The extinctions, however, were so
sudden—within five hundred to a thousand years—that many scientists
suspect an alternate—or at least assistant—villain in this extinction:
Homo sapiens. Man the hunter emerged from the Ice Age with lethal
new hunting technologies—snares, traps, and sharp-pointed weapons.
Today the impact of human technology on the biosphere worsens. It
exterminates not just the big creatures but the tiny. Man has become
an asteroid. A very big one.

It is easy to blame today's frightful extinctions on habitat destruction
in developing countries. To be sure, the crisis is acute in Brazil and
Madagascar and the Philippines, where rapidly expanding populations

*LAI*D LOW by the hand of
man, the woolly mammoth
appears to live again in a
diorama presented at the
Royal British Columbia
Museum in Victoria.
Museum technician Wally
Bishop checks the musk-ox
hair that covers this
11-foot replica, modeled
after the beast that ranged
over North America, Asia,
and Europe during the
Pleistocene. Many scien-
tists believe the mammoth,
like most of the epoch's
megafauna, was hunted
to oblivion in Europe
and Asia, then became
extinct as Ice Age hunters
invaded North America
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osumtwi in Ghana

graphic, June 1989

Extinctions

economic development can erase a forest in weeks. "Losing their inheritance," says botanist S. H. Sohmer of the Bishop Museum in Honolulu. Just back from the Philippines, local biologists bolster national awareness of the damage. Sohmer paints a dismal picture.

In a group I study, 42 percent of the species reported in the last 10 years have been collected since," he says. "The leveled forests are being replaced by an aggressive plant called cogongrass. If the logging and slash-and-burn agriculture don't stop soon, we'll wind up with an archipelago dominated by it. Conceivably this archipelago, which once was the world's richest biotas, will end up with only a handful of native species left."

But we have only to ask who buys the timber or beef and pork that the forests produce. Or who generates the acid rain that is wiping out the sugar maples or the Black Forest.

The United States can look at Hawaii, which we regard as paradise but which we do not consider the endangered island of the world. Though only 0.2 percent of the nation's land area, Hawaii contains 27 percent of the nation's birds and plants. Seventy-five percent of those U. S. species that have become extinct did so on Hawaii.

LAKAI SWAMP on the island of Oahu, a male 'o'o-'a'a sings his holy song alone.

"He is the best songster in the world," says state aviculturist Fernand. "His call is unforgettable, like the call of the old Hawaiians." At three years the mating calls have gone unheard. For he is the last of his species, the end of the line. "It is not only a species," says Fernand, "it is its entire family—all the others will be gone."

In Honolulu's Bishop Museum, children file past the celebrated yellow feather cape of King Kamehameha I. The cape was assembled from the plumage of the lost bird in the late 18th century. "It took the feathers from 80,000 birds to make this cloak," says Fernand.

Hawaiian birds were flightless. Before humans the islands were free of mammalian predators, and wings grew less useful. Thus when humans brought rats and dogs, native birds and eggs were easy targets. Goats, pigs, and cattle ravaged avian habitats. Humans destroyed the forests.

In a lava tube on the island of Maui ornithologists Storrs Olson and Helen James of the Smithsonian Institution excavate soils deposited in the past 8,000 years. A dark layer high in the soil strata



PRIZED for its plumage, the Hawaiian 'o'o-'a'a (top) was overhunted to adorn cloaks like one worn by chief Kiwalá'o (facing page). After studying the fossil record in Maui's lava tubes, Helen James of the Smithsonian Institution (above) rates predators introduced by Polynesians—pigs, dogs, and rats—as more deadly agents of extinction.



A WHO'S WHO of extinction surrounds curator Iain Bishop at England's Tring Zoological Museum. He holds the one species still living—an endangered aye-aye from Madagascar. The Carolina parakeets (above) were collected in 1870, decades before they disappeared. Experts believe that species are presently dying at the rate of 100 a day.



- 1 Giant ground sloth
- 2 Aye-aye
- 3 Quagga
- 4 Moa
- 5 Passenger pigeon
- 6 Carolina parakeet
- 7 Tasmanian wolf
- 8 Toolach wallaby
- 9 Dodo
- 10 Great auk
- 11 Male heath hen
- 12 Female heath hen
- 13 Labrador duck

contains charcoal, which has been dated as being 825 years old. "We think the charcoal correlates to the burning of the forests for agriculture," says James. "We see bird bones below the charcoal and Mesianian rat bones above. Later we get black rats and house mice announcing the arrival of the Europeans."

New diseases arrived too. An avian pox, imported in 1964 by a pheasant from Nepal, most likely brought one of Hawaii's most common birds, the 'alala, or Hawaiian crow, to the twilight of extinction.

At the Olinda Endangered Species Captive Breeding Facility on Maui nine of the last fifteen known Hawaiian crows await the next breeding season in their pens. Overnight someone has placed an offering of a canic stone wrapped in a large leaf—beneath a statue of a Hawaiian salamander god that stands on the lawn of the station.

"The offerings began when the crows were brought here in 1975," says Fern Duvall, who is in charge of the facility. "We must assume that someone is trying to help the crows reproduce."

"Actually, the Hawaiians did not think the 'alala was a bird," he continues. "It behaves in remarkable ways. It feeds with its beak like a parrot. It shrieks, growls, and moans. It makes noises more like a tiger. When the feather hunters heard it in the fog-bound forest they thought it was a spirit. If you killed an 'alala, you paid with your life."

This season's courtship is beginning. In one pen a male, named Keawe, and a female, Mana, are performing nest-building calls and displays. Their efforts are doomed: Disease has left Mana sterile. However, the mating ritual stimulates useful behaviors. Keawe's song could later fertilize other females. Mana could sit on a nest abandoned by another female.

The three other pairs of crows offer varying degrees of hope for building a captive population. Even so, the outlook for the 'alala is bleak. There is simply no safe place for them in the wild at this time.

I AM ANGRY as I rest from a hike on the slopes of the volcano Haleakala. In Hawaiian prehistory I would have been sitting in a diverse forest rather than this overgrazed scrubland dominated by prickly plants that cattle won't eat. Almost nothing, from a peacock that preened minutes earlier in my path to the cabanana butterfly that just now alighted on my arm, is native. Is this island slope, where only the rats and the pigs and the cactuses thrive, a microcosm of our future?

Other questions, fed by my fieldwork, arise. Hasn't this happened before—diversity suddenly becoming paucity—and each time did life recover to reach new heights of evolutionary creativity? In the picture is it really so terrible, what's happening today? Life will go on. No matter how bad we make things, some organisms will cope, survive, then flourish. Isn't that the lesson of mass extinctions? What's different about this one?

We are the difference. For the first time since life on earth began four billion years ago, a living organism can begin to understand what is happening to this planet. We can see that the health of species is interconnected, that if we let too many disappear, we will go too. For the first time, a living organism can consciously do something to help a mass extinction. Perhaps most important, for the first time a living creature can gaze out across the species of the earth and say: This is beautiful. I care. I will not let it go.

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