THE TRANSITIONAL FORM DILEMMA

HARUN YAHYA

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To the Reader

A special chapter is assigned to the collapse of the theory of evolution because this theory constitutes the basis of all anti-spiritual philosophies. Since Darwinism rejects the fact of creation – and therefore, God's existence – over the last 140 years it has caused many people to abandon their faith or fall into doubt. It is therefore an imperative service, a very important duty to show everyone that this theory is a deception. Since some readers may find the chance to read only one of our books, we think it appropriate to devote a chapter to summarize this subject.

All the author's books explain faith-related issues in light of Qur'anic verses, and invite readers to learn God's words and to live by them. All the subjects concerning God's verses are explained so as to leave no doubt or room for questions in the reader's mind. The books' sincere, plain, and fluent style ensures that everyone of every age and from every social group can easily understand them. Thanks to their effective, lucid narrative, they can be read at one sitting. Even those who rigorously reject spirituality are influenced by the facts these books document and cannot refute the truthfulness of their contents.

This and all the other books by the author can be read individually, or discussed in a group. Readers eager to profit from the books will find discussion very useful, letting them relate their reflections and experiences to one another.

In addition, it will be a great service to Islam to contribute to the publication and reading of these books, written solely for the pleasure of God. The author's books are all extremely convincing. For this reason, to communicate true religion to others, one of the most effective methods is encouraging them to read these books.

We hope the reader will look through the reviews of his other books at the back of this book. His rich source material on faith-related issues is very useful, and a pleasure to read.

In these books, unlike some other books, you will not find the author's personal views, explanations based on dubious sources, styles that are unobservant of the respect and reverence due to sacred subjects, nor hopeless, pessimistic arguments that create doubts in the mind and deviations in the heart.

About the Author

Now writing under the pen-name of HARUN YAHYA, he was born in Ankara in 1956. Having completed his primary and secondary education in Ankara, he studied arts at Istanbul's Mimar Sinan University and philosophy at Istanbul University. Since the 1980s, he has published many books on political, scientific, and faith-related issues. Harun Yahya is well-known as the author of important works disclosing the imposture of evolutionists, their invalid claims, and the dark liaisons between Darwinism and such bloody ideologies as fascism and communism.

Harun Yahya's works, translated into 57 different languages, constitute a collection for a total of more than 45,000 pages with 30,000 illustrations.

His pen-name is a composite of the names Harun (Aaron) and Yahya (John), in memory of the two esteemed prophets who fought against their peoples' lack of faith. The Prophet's (may God bless him and grant him peace) seal on his books' covers is symbolic and is linked to their contents. It represents the Qur'an (the Final Scripture) and Prophet Muhammad (may God bless him and grant him peace), last of the prophets. Under the guidance of the Qur'an and the Sunnah (teachings of the Prophet), the author makes it his purpose to disprove each fundamental tenet of irreligious ideologies and to have the "last word," so as to completely silence the objections raised against religion. He uses the seal of the final Prophet (may God bless him and grant him peace), who attained ultimate wisdom and moral perfection, as a sign of his intention to offer the last word.

All of Harun Yahya's works share one single goal: to convey the Qur'an's message, encourage readers to consider basic faith-related issues such as God's existence and unity and the Hereafter; and to expose irreligious systems' feeble foundations and perverted ideologies.

Harun Yahya enjoys a wide readership in many countries, from India to America, England to Indonesia, Poland to Bosnia, Spain to Brazil, Malaysia to Italy, France to Bulgaria and Russia. Some of his books are available in English, French, German, Spanish, Italian, Portuguese, Urdu, Arabic, Albanian, Chinese, Swahili, Hausa, Dhivehi (spoken in Mauritius), Russian, Serbo-Croat (Bosnian), Polish, Malay, Uygur Turkish, Indonesian, Bengali, Danish and Swedish.

Greatly appreciated all around the world, these works have been instrumental in many people recovering faith in God and gaining de-

eper insights into their faith. His books' wisdom and sincerity, together with a distinct style that's easy to understand, directly affect anyone who reads them. Those who seriously consider these books, can no longer advocate atheism or any other perverted ideology or materialistic philosophy, since these books are characterized by rapid effectiveness, definite results, and irrefutability. Even if they continue to do so, it will be only a sentimental insistence, since these books refute such ideologies from their very foundations. All contemporary movements of denial are now ideologically defeated, thanks to the books written by Harun Yahya.

This is no doubt a result of the Qur'an's wisdom and lucidity. The author modestly intends to serve as a means in humanity's search for God's right path. No material gain is sought in the publication of these works.

Those who encourage others to read these books, to open their minds and hearts and guide them to become more devoted servants of God, render an invaluable service.

Meanwhile, it would only be a waste of time and energy to propagate other books that create confusion in people's minds, lead them into ideological chaos, and that clearly have no strong and precise effects in removing the doubts in people's hearts, as also verified from previous experience. It is impossible for books devised to emphasize the author's literary power rather than the noble goal of saving people from loss of faith, to have such a great effect. Those who doubt this can readily see that the sole aim of Harun Yahya's books is to overcome disbelief and to disseminate the Qur'an's moral values. The success and impact of this service are manifested in the readers' conviction.

One point should be kept in mind: The main reason for the continuing cruelty, conflict, and other ordeals endured by the vast majority of people is the ideological prevalence of disbelief. This can be ended only with the ideological defeat of disbelief and by conveying the wonders of creation and Qur'anic morality so that people can live by it. Considering the state of the world today, leading into a downward spiral of violence, corruption and conflict, clearly this service must be provided speedily and effectively, or it may be too late.

In this effort, the books of Harun Yahya assume a leading role. By the will of God, these books will be a means through which people in the twenty-first century will attain the peace, justice, and happiness promised in the Qur'an.

INTRODUCTION

The idea of evolution, which materialists ever since Ancient Greece have employed to account for the origin of life, entered the world of science in the 19th century with Charles Darwin's book *On the Origin of Species*. Those who supported the materialist philosophy, which underwent an enormous rise during the 19th century, adopted the theory of evolution as an answer to the question of how life came into being, but did not question the theory's scientific foundations.

Apart from making inferences from a number of biological observations, Darwin's book did not offer any scientific proofs for his theory, leaving the question of evidence for later. In particular, he suggested that the fossils that he expected would support his theory would be discovered eventually.

The theory of evolution, fervently embraced despite its scientific weakness by those who denied the fact of Creation, shortly came to dominate the scientific world. From scientific magazines to school textbooks, the theory of evolution was portrayed as scientifically proven and the only valid explanation of the origin of life. Scientists who pointed out the errors and illogicalities of the theory were either silenced by threats to their academic careers or else accused of being dogmatic or anti-scientific. The proponents of materialist ideologies imposed the theory of evolution on entire systems of education and popular culture for 150 years, despite possessing no evidence for it, and employing only methods of propaganda.

From the second half of the 20th century onward, however, the privileged position that the theory of evolution had enjoyed among the scientific community became increasingly problematic. Observations and experiments in a wide range of scientific disciplines, from paleontology to biology and from anatomy to genetics, began to produce findings that argued against the theory. In the face of these new scientific findings, evolutionists suddenly found themselves and their theory on the defensive. By the beginning of the 21st century, the theory of evolution had become the subject of wide debates the world over. To a large extent, it had lost its former prestige and in many quarters was expected to collapse at any time soon. Between the lines, world-renowned scientific magazines such as *Nature, New Scientist, Science* and *Scientific American* began publishing frequent doubts about the theory of evolution.

What, then, were these findings which led to the sudden undermining of the theory of evolution? These can be grouped under three main categories:

- 1. Increasingly, biologists have discovered that living organisms consist of exceedingly complex structures. It has been shown that proteins, DNA and the cell, all possess irreducible complexity and cannot have come into being by chance, as the theory of evolution originally maintained. That impossibility has also been calculated mathematically.
- 2. It has now been accepted that natural selection and mutation, long proposed as the mechanisms of evolution, have no power to cause living species to evolve. Natural selection may weed out weak or sickly individuals, but brings no new genetic information to living organisms, and mutations merely damage existing genetic information.
- 3. The transitional forms that evolutionists expected to find in the fossil record— and which might be regarded as proof that species evolved from one another—have not been found. Fossils emerge suddenly and with all their particular features fully present, and the fossil record demonstrates that no species experienced any process of gradual change leading to its eventual disappearance.

This book deals with the third of these scientific developments which have undermined the theory of evolution—the fossil record.

Before moving forward, we need to stress that the absence of transitional forms from the fossil record is by itself sufficient to undermine the whole theory of evolution. Charles Darwin, the founder of the theory, actually admitted the truth of this! After inquiring into the absence of such forms, he wrote that "this, perhaps is the most obvious and gravest objection which can be urged against my theory." 1

And today, one of the main objections to Darwin's theory of evolution indeed, concerns the fossil record. Even among evolutionists, there is a serious dispute over how to interpret the fossil record. Fossils, one important source of scientific evidence regarding natural history, clearly refute the theory of evolution and show that life on Earth appeared suddenly, with no evolutionary process behind it—in other words that life forms were created.

TRANSITIONAL FORMS THAT NEVER EXISTED

If a process of evolution had really taken place on Earth, and had all living species actually descended from a single common ancestor, then some clear evidence of this would be discovered in the fossil record. The well-known French zoologist Pierre Grassé says this:

Naturalists must remember that the process of evolution is revealed only through fossil forms... only paleontology can provide them with the evidence of evolution and reveal its course or mechanisms.2

In order to see why this should be so, we need a brief look at the theory of evolution's fundamental claim: that all living things are descended from one another. A living organism, which previously came into existence in a random manner, gradually turned into another, with all ensuing species coming into being—or evolving—that same way. According to this unscientific claim, all plants, animals, fungi and bacteria came into being in the same manner. The 100 or so different animal phyla (comprising such basic categories as mollusks, arthropods, worms and sponges) all descended from one single common ancestor. Again according to the theory, such invertebrates as these gradually, in the course of time and the pressure of natural selection, turned into fish, which turned into amphibians, which turned into reptiles. Some reptiles turned into birds, and others into mammals.

Evolutionary theory maintains that this transition took place gradually over hundreds of billions of years. That being the case, then countless numbers of *transitional forms* should have emerged and left some trace of their existence during the course of that immeasurably long period.

Half-fish, half-amphibian creatures, which still bore piscine characteristics despite having acquired four legs and lungs, should have lived in the past. Alternatively, reptile-birds that retained some reptilian features but had also acquired some avian ones must also have come into being. Since these species were part of a transitional process, they must also have been flawed, or even deformed. For instance, a transitional reptile's front legs should have resembled bird's wings a little more with every passing generation. But over the course of hundreds of generations, this creature will have neither completely

functional front legs, nor completely functional wings—in other words it will exist in a flawed, handicapped form. These theoretical creatures which evolutionists believe to have lived in the past are known as transitional forms.

If creatures of that type really had existed in the distant past, then they must have been numbered in the millions, even in the billions, and their fossil remains should be excavated all over the world. Darwin accepted the logic of that, and himself stated why there should be a large number of transitional forms:

By the theory of natural selection all living species have been connected with the parent-species of each genus, by differences not greater than we see between the natural and domestic varieties of the same species at the present day; and these parent-species, now generally extinct, have in their turn been similarly connected with more ancient forms; and so on backwards, always converging to the common ancestor of each great class. 3

What Darwin is referring to is that no matter how little difference there may be among living species today—between a pedigreed German shepherd dog and a wolf, for example—, the difference among the ancestors and the descendants which are claimed to have followed one another, needs to be equally small.

For that reason, had evolution really taken place as stated by Darwin, then it would progress in very minute, gradual changes. Effective change in a living thing subjected to mutation would have to be very small. Millions of minute tiny changes would need to combine over millions of years for legs to turn into functional wings, gills into lungs able to breathe air, or fins into feet able to run on land. Yet such a process would have to give rise to millions of transitional forms. Darwin drew the following conclusion in the wake of his statement:

So that the number of intermediate and transitional links, between all living and extinct species, must have been inconceivably great.4

Darwin also expressed the same point in other parts of his book:

If my theory be true, numberless intermediate varieties, linking most closely all the species of the same group together, must assuredly have existed . . . Consequently evidence of their former existence could be found only amongst fossil remains, which are preserved, as we shall in a future chapter attempt to show, in an extremely imperfect and intermittent record.5

However, Darwin was well aware that no fossils of such transitional links had ever been discovered. This he regarded as a major stumbling block for his theory. Therefore, in the chapter "Difficulties of the Theory" in On The Origin of Species, he wrote the following::

But just in proportion as this process of extermination has acted on an enormous scale, so must the number of intermediate varieties, which have formerly existed on the earth, be truly enormous. Why then is not every geological formation and every stratum full of such transitional forms? Geology assuredly does not reveal any such finely graduated organic chain; and this, perhaps, is the most obvious and gravest objection which can be urged against my theory.6

In the face of this major dilemma, the only explanation Darwin put forward was the insufficiency of the fossil record of his time. He maintained that the missing transitional forms would inevitably appear once the fossil record was complete and was examined in detail.

However, fossil research of the last 150 years has revealed that the expectations of Darwin—and the evolutionists who followed him—were actually empty ones. Not a single fossil of any transitional form has ever been found. To date, there are around 100 million fossils, preserved in thousands of museums and collections. All of these are the remains of full-developed species with their own unique features, separated from all other species by definite, fixed characteristics. Fossils of half-fish, half-amphibians; half-dinosaur, half-birds, and halfape, half-humans so confidently and definitely predicted by evolutionists, have never been encountered.

Despite being an evolutionist, Steven. M. Stanley of John Hopkins University admits as such:

The known fossil record is not, and never has been in accord with gradualism. . . Few modern paleontologist seem to have recognized that in the past century, as the biological historian William Coleman has recently written, 'The majority of paleontologists felt their evidence simply contradicted Darwin's stress on minute, slow and cumulative changes leading to species transformation.' In the next chapter, I will describe not only what the fossils have to say, but why their story has been suppressed.7

Curators in the Department of Anthropology of the American Museum of Natural History in New York City, Ian Tattersall and Niles Eldredge describe how the fossil record contradicts the theory of evolution:

The record jumps, and all the evidence shows that the record is real: the gaps we see reflect real events in life's history—not the artifact of a poor fossil record.8

As these evolutionist scientists state, the true history of life can be seen in the fossil record, but there are no transitional forms within that history.

Other scientists also admit the absence of transitional forms. Rudolf A. Raff, Director of the Indiana Molecular Biology Institute, and Thomas C. Kaufmann, Researcher at Indiana University, write:

The lack of ancestral or intermediate forms between fossil species is not a bizarre peculiarity of early metazoan history. Gaps are general and prevalent throughout the fossil record.9

There are even preserved fossils of bacteria that lived billions of years ago. Nevertheless, it is striking that not a single fossil of any imaginary transitional form has ever been found. Fossils exist of a great many species, from bacteria to ants and from birds to flower-bearing plants. Even fossils of extinct species have been preserved so well that we are able to appreciate the kinds of structures possessed by these once-abundant species, which we have never seen alive. The absence of even a single transitional form within such rich fossil sources demonstrates not the insufficiency of the fossil record, but the invalidity of the theory of evolution.

WHAT FORMS SHOULD TRANSITIONAL SPECIES TAKE?

The following chapters will be examining those still-living species that, evolutionists claim, represent transitional links and demonstrating that these are not transitional links at all, but rather unique, perfect and flawless living things possessed of all the features of a distinct species. First, however, it will be useful to consider what any such transitional links should be like—according to the predictions of the theory of evolution.

Recall how, according to the theory, any transitional link comes into being. External factors such as radiation and chemical effects cause changes in the living thing's DNA. The result is mutations that lead to various physical, anatomical changes in that living organism. According to the theory of evolution, when a species is repeatedly

subjected to mutations over the course of many generations, it may transform itself into another species altogether. Again—according to the theory—natural selection selects the most useful of such mutations, combines them and thus gradually creates an entirely new biological structure. That is a brief summary of the theory of evolution's claim regarding the origin of species.

In reality, however, mutations occur at random and generally have detrimental effects on the living organism in which they occur. When they are not actually destructive, they have no beneficial effect at all. Not a single situation in which mutations do any good has yet been identified. For that reason, it is impossible for mutations to benefit a living species and improve its chances of breeding and passing along its altered genes. In particular, it is impossible for mutations to transform a different living species with new features in incremental stages, starting from the very simplest, without damaging that living thing's overall structure or the flawlessness of its functions, and without making its viability considerably more difficult.

Since mutations are random and unintentional, they cannot construct in a series of moves a lung to help a fish move from the sea to the land. Neither can they, either immediately or in gradual stages, turn that creature's fins into legs to bear its weight on land or let it walk comfortably without lurching. As a result of mutations, oddly shaped, deformed structures will emerge—somewhere between gills and lungs, fins and legs, scales and feathers, feet and wings, a four-legged posture and an upright one, crippled and with a great many abnormalities..

Moreover, evolutionists hypothesize that this process will last for millions of years. Therefore, the number of such deformed transitional individuals will be much greater than the number of *completed* species, and such in-between fossils should be those most frequently encountered. According to evolutionists' claims, every species we see today, and right down to the finest detail, every structure within those species, from eye sockets to ankles, from the tiny bones which constitute the fingers to the shape of the skull, from the shape of the rib cage to the number of vertebra—all came about gradually as the result of random mutations. This means that every organ, limb, and component of the species was also formed in stages until the final form of that species emerged at last.

Consider the skull, for example. All the creatures today and all those that once lived in the past possess flawless, smooth, symmetrical skulls with no deformations at all. According to the claims of evolutionists, however, skulls must have gone through a great many tentative stages until the first flawless one emerged. Skulls would have to assume a large number of asymmetrical forms before taking on a symmetrical appearance. Until they did assume a symmetrical appearance, billions of imperfect forms would have been preserved—for example, a preponderance toward the right, the jaw pointing more right or left, the nose being nearer the mouth, one ear being further back on the skull than the other, one eye socket being higher and more to the left etc. Alternatively, a number of useless and unnecessary bones should appear on such skulls, only to vanish a few generations later, since they serve no purpose. Yet no such skulls appear in the fossil record. They are all perfect and symmetrical, just like present-day skulls. The spaces between apertures for such organs as the eyes, ears and nose are also symmetrical and regular.

As can be seen in the illustrations, all known skulls are fully formed and regular, displaying no transitional characteristics. No matter which species they belong to, all have perfect structures, with no appearance of being half-formed or incomplete. These skulls did not come into existence by chance mutations or retain features of any transition from one species to another, just like those of present-day living things. If the theory of evolution were true, then there should be fossils with the kinds of lopsided, shapeless and deformed skulls shown on the preceding page. Yet there is no trace of such fossils in any strata, anywhere in the world. This definitively disproves the theory of evolution's claims.

For a clearer idea of how many odd structures and peculiar transitional forms the fossil record should contain, we need to focus on the evolutionist concept of coincidence. According to the theory, transitional forms come into existence quite unconsciously, entirely by chance. For instance, a random mutation affects the genetic structure of a creature, and a number of changes take place in its body structure. However, this mutation does not alter the living thing's genetic structure entirely. For instance, while its hind legs are affected, its skull may remain the same. Whichever genes the mutation may impact on, there will be a change only in the structure or organs controlled by those particular genes. This is a piecemeal fantasy that can never actually come about.

As we know, all the features possessed by living things are concealed inside their DNA, which is analogous to an enclyclopedic data bank consisting of billions of units, or letters. Random mutations which

affect those letters cannot make that information more useful because these mutations are devoid of conscious intent. For that reason, mutations will always corrupt data, not improve it.

Mutations that arise unconsciously cannot form a new, flawless structure. They always give rise to deformed, lopsided and deficient ones. Human hands, according to the theory of evolution, are the work of random mutations—which actually cannot give rise to hands that are aesthetically pleasing, functional, able to sculpt statues, grasp, and feel.

Until they reach the most ideal level (something which mutations can never actually do), they must construct a sequence of deformed hands, arms, feet and legs. For instance, every finger needs to go through millions of phases before attaining its present length. According to evolutionists' claims, every generation will attempt a large number of trial sequences to produce fingers from wrists until they are finally arranged in the correct order.

If you randomly flung Scrabble tiles with letters on them onto the board, you cannot expect them to line up in a regular order and create meaningful words, much less sentences. Neither can you expect random mutations to form hands of fingers, arm or leg bones, in any regular, functional and aesthetic order.

For instance, the bones in your foot have been specially designed to let you walk in the most ideal, least tiring manner, and to keep to a minimum perception of your body's weight. The arch of your foot supports those bones against the weight of your body. For that reason, soles with "fallen arches" have difficulty in walking. If we accept the evolutionist claims as correct, foot bones would have to go through an infinite number of phases before reaching this ideal state. But in fact, fully formed and flawless feet always appear in the fossil record, and never mid-phase ones.

According to evolutionists' claims, malformed phases of a backbone should also be encountered in the fossil record. The human backbone consists of 33 small, round bones known as *vertebra*, set one above the other, and is of vital importance to any vertebrate, not just human beings. The backbone bears all the weight of the upper part of the human body. The spine's curved S shape permits equal load distribution. With every step you take while walking, a counter-force is set up from the ground because of your body's weight. Thanks to the shock absorbers possessed by the backbone and its force-distributing curved shape, this force does no damage to your body. Were it not for

these shock absorbers and S shape, then the force set up would be transferred directly to your skull, and the top of the backbone would wear away the base of the skull and enter the brain. All the vertebrae of the backbones of creatures portrayed as man's alleged ancestors are exceedingly regular. The oldest known vertebrates, fish from the Cambrian Period, and all the fish and land vertebrates which appeared after them possess regular spinal structures, unique to their body's shape. There are no transitional forms between any of them.

Again according to the theory of evolution, chance must have produced hundreds of thousands of transitional forms until arriving at these perfectly formed vertebrae. Until the curved S shape was reached in humans, for instance, there must have been a great many transitional forms, until the point was reached when the backbone would not impact the skull bone. The 33 components of the human backbone could not have come into being suddenly, but would be built stage by stage over thousands of generations. This incremental development, of course, would leave behind at least some traces in the fossil record, and very early fossils with two vertebrae, five vertebrae and twelve vertebrae would be found. However, what actually appears in the record is vertebrates with the most suitable structures and features for the body shape in question. In terms of form and structure, none is deformed, defective, or incomplete. On the contrary, they are perfect. No transitional backbones of the type seen in the pictures below have been encountered anywhere in the fossil record.

All species, living or extinct in the fossil record, are present fully formed and in the most perfect states. The species that evolutionists propose as transitional forms exhibit none of the features of such evolving anatomies. They have no missing or intermediate-stage organs or structures. There are no half-formed or missing features in their skulls, backbones, hands or feet. All living things exist in their most perfect states.

There are no fossilized forerunners to dragonflies, owls, fish or squirrels, for instance, in the Earth's strata. There are no strange fossils vaguely reminiscent of a dragonfly, slightly resembling an owl, or that also bear partial features belonging to other, later species. All these facts demonstrate that the theory of evolution's claim of *living things that developed in stages* over millions of years is a complete fantasy. Despite all the studies and quests for proof by evolutionists over roughly

the last century and a half, not a single piece of evidence to back up their claims has ever been found.

THE CAMBRIAN EXPLOSION: A PALEONTOLOGICAL REFUTATION OF DARWINISM

Darwin suggested that living things are descended from a single common ancestor and gradually became differentiated from one another. If that is really the case, then at the very beginning, very simple—and similar—living things should have emerged. Again according to the same claim, the way that species gradually grew apart and distinct from one another, and the increase in their complexity, should have taken place over a very long period of time.

In short, according to Darwinism, any chart of evolution should resemble a tree, springing from a single root but later dividing up into separate, increasingly distant branches. Indeed, that hypothesis is insistently emphasized in Darwinist sources, and the image of the tree of life is frequently employed. According to this tree of life metaphor, all phyla—the basic classificatory units that categorize living things according to their bodily plans—should also have emerged gradually.

According to Darwinism, smaller and simpler species should have appeared first and given rise to a phylum over the course of time. Other phyla should very gradually, by a process of minute changes, eventually emerge. According to this hypothesis, there must have been a gradual increase in the number of animal phyla.

However, the fossil record conclusively demonstrates that these assumptions are incorrect. Contrary to evolutionist claims, members of the animal kingdom have been very different from one another and very complex ever since they first appeared. All the phyla known today—and others, as well—appeared on Earth at the same time, during the geological era now known as the Cambrian Period.

This period, when all presently known animal phyla emerged, is a geological era that lasted about 65 million years and took place between 570 and 505 million years ago. Yet the period in which just about all the known phyla appeared is a much smaller interval within the Cambrian Period itself, and is calculated to have lasted no more than 10 million years. In geological terms, that is a very brief time indeed!

The sudden emergence of life, in all its variety and with all its different bodily structures within such a short space of time, runs completely contrary to Darwinism's expectations. The way that a number of the phyla that emerged during the Cambrian subsequently became extinct, along with the failure of any new phyla to emerge, reinforces this contradiction. Life did not increasingly broaden and assume greater variety, as evolutionists would have us believe. Rather, it began in many different forms and increasingly narrowed down.

One of the world's most prominent critics of Darwinism, Professor Philip Johnson of University of California, describes these events as being in clear contradiction of Darwinism:

Darwinian theory predicts a "cone of increasing diversity," as the first living organism, or first animal species, gradually and continually diversifies to create the various levels of the taxonomic order. The animal fossil record more resembles such a cone turned upside down, with the phyla present at the start and thereafter decreasing.10

As Johnson points out, far from phyla emerging in stages, all of them came into being suddenly, and some even became extinct during the periods which followed. In the earlier Precambrian Period, there were only three phyla, all consisting of single-celled and simple multicelled life forms. In the Cambrian Period, on the other hand, 60 to 100 different animal phyla suddenly emerged. A number of these became extinct in the period which followed, with only a few of these phyla surviving down to the present day.

Science journalist Roger Lewin refers to this extraordinary situation, which completely cuts the ground from under the feet of all of Darwinism's regarding the history of life:

Described recently as "the most important evolutionary event during the entire history of the Metazoa," the Cambrian explosion established virtually all the major animal body forms—Bauplane or phyla—that would exist thereafter, including many that were "weeded out" and became extinct. Compared with the 30 or so extant phyla, some people estimate that the Cambrian explosion may have generated as many as 100.11

Professor emeritus of integrative biology James W. Valentine, the paleontologists Stanley Awramik, Philip W. Signor, and Peter Sadler make this comment about the Cambrian explosion:

Taxa recognized as orders during the [Precambrian-Cambrian] transition chiefly appear without connection to an ancestral clade via a fossil intermediate. This situation is in fact true of most invertebrate orders during the remaining Phanerozoic as well. There are no chains of

taxa leading gradually from an ancestral condition to the new ordinal body type.12

Darwin was aware of the rich variety of life that suddenly emerged in the Cambrian. Even if not so clearly as it is today, the extraordinary situation in the Cambrian Period was already realized, and Darwin recognized this as a major difficulty confronting his theory. As he wrote in On the Origin of Species:

There is another difficulty, which is much more serious. I allude to the manner in which species belonging to several of the main divisions of the animal kingdom suddenly appear in the lowest known [Cambrianage] fossiliferous rocks.13

Darwin regarded the Precambrian Period as the only way of accounting—from the evolution point of view—for the living things that suddenly emerged immediately thereafter, during the Cambrian. If there had been a large number of very different and complex living groups in the Precambrian, then he would claim that these were the ancestors of the living species in the Cambrian. Darwin said,

Consequently, if my theory be true, it is indisputable that before the lowest Silurian stratum was deposited, long periods elapsed, as long as, or probably far longer than, the whole interval from the Silurian age to the present day; and that during these vast, yet quite unknown, periods of time, the world swarmed with living creatures.14

In the face of the possibility that no trace of a living thing was found in the Precambrian, he proposed that the fossil record was insufficient, and that the extreme heat and pressure of the overlying strata had destroyed the oldest fossils.15

Relying on inadequate studies, Darwin set out excuses like this in his *On the Origin of Species*. In our time, however, the fossil record and geological strata have been sufficiently studied, and fossil beds older than the Cambrian have been found and examined. The present state of knowledge about the Precambrian is much more reliable than what was possessed by Darwin.

Paleontologists have discovered Cambrian rocks with rich, well-preserved fossil beds in Wales, Canada, Greenland and China. Rather than resolving Darwin's dilemma, the relatively large quantities of Cambrian and Precambrian fossils have added entirely new ones. To such an extent, in fact, that the majority of paleontologists, even including prominent evolutionists, are convinced that the major animal groups emerged during the early part of the Cambrian Period, and evidently had no predecessors.

This phenomenon began to be referred to, even in evolutionist publications, as "The Cambrian Explosion" and "The Biological Big Bang."

Attempts to Salvage Darwinism in the Face of the Cambrian Explosion

Despite Darwin's knowledge that fossils of "new" species appeared suddenly during the Cambrian Period, the full importance and scope of the matter was not realized until 1980. However, when by the paleontologists Harry B. Whittington, Derek Briggs and Simon Conway Morris re-examined fossils found in the Burgess Shale in Canada's British Columbia, the Cambrian explosion came to light. The 1980s also saw the discovery of two new fossil regions resembling the Burgess Shale: Sirius Passet in Northern Greenland and Chengjiang in Southern China. Fossils of utterly different living things that first emerged during the Cambrian period were found in both these regions. The Chengjiang fossils were the oldest and best-preserved of these, and also contain the first vertebrates.

In its February 1999 edition, the well-known scientific publication *Trends in Genetics* (TIG) discussed the Burgess Shale fossil discoveries and accepted that they could not possibly be explained in terms of the theory of evolution:

It might seem odd that fossils from one small locality, no matter how exciting, should lie at the center of a fierce debate about such broad issues in evolutionary biology. The reason is that animals burst into the fossil record in astonishing profusion during the Cambrian, seemingly from nowhere. Increasingly precise radiometric dating and new fossil discoveries have only sharpened the suddenness and scope of this biological revolution. The magnitude of this change in Earth's biota demands an explanation. Although many hypotheses have been proposed, the general consensus is that none is wholly convincing.16

These ideas, none of which "is wholly convincing," are those of evolutionist paleontologists, who offer forced explanations to defend the theory of evolution in the face of the Cambrian explosion. However, they are unable to have these alibis accepted, even by one another.

Evolutionist justification that the fossil

record is insufficient and fragmentary

The first excuse for the Cambrian explosion that evolutionists put forward is the claim that the fossil record is insufficient. Because of their great age, most fossils of living things from the Precambrian have not survived, they suggest—for which reason the "surviving" remains give the impression that living things emerged suddenly.

The fact is, however, that the fossil record is *not* deficient, as evolutionists would have us believe. Today, many strata belonging to the later part of the Precambrian and the Cambrian have been unearthed. Paleontologists have become convinced that if the ancestors of Cambrian living things had existed during the Precambrian, we would have found them by now. According to paleontologists James W. Valentine of California Universty and Douglas Erwin, of the Smithsonian Institute, the fossil record from the Cambrian period is as complete as more recent fossil strata, which also display similar features and time gaps.

Despite that, however, Valentine and Erwin arrive at the following conclusion, stating that their ancestors or transitional forms are unknown. "Explosion is real; it is too big to be masked by flaws in the fossil record."17

In an article in February 2000, the British geologists M. J. Benton, M. A. Wills and R. Hitchin wrote that "the older fossil records are adequate to recount important events in the history of life," 18 thus announcing that there could be no question of using the insufficiency of the fossil record as an excuse.

Evolutionist justification that small and soft-bodied creatures left no fossils behind them—

Another excuse evolutionists employ with regard to the Cambrian explosion—that small and soft-bodied creatures left no fossils behind them—is similarly invalid. According to this reasoning, the ancestors of animal phyla are not found in the Precambrian because they were very tiny and had no hard structures, and so left no fossils behind them. Yet this is not actually the case: There are numerous fossils of soft-bodied organisms. Nearly all of the fossils in the Ediacara Hills in Australia, for example, consist of soft-bodied creatures. In his 1998 book The Crucible of Creation, Simon Conway Morris writes that "First, in the Ediacaran organisms there is no evidence for any skeletal hard parts . . . Ediacaran fossils look as if they were effectively softbodied."19 The same applies to some fossils from the Cambrian Period. For instance, there are a number of fossils of soft-bodied living things in Burgess Shale. According to Conway Morris, "these remarkable fossils reveal not only their outlines but sometimes even internal organs such as the intestine or muscles."20

To make it clear that fossilization is not that difficult a process, recall that fossil bacteria have even been found: Micro-fossils of bacteria have been discovered in sedimentary rock layers more than 3 billion years old!

In short, the evolutionary ancestors of the life forms that emerged in the Cambrian Explosion have not been found in the Precambrian Period, but not because those life forms were soft-bodied.

In conclusion, evolutionists are unable to find any excuse for the Cambrian Explosion. This sudden appearance of life on Earth proves that the theory of evolution is wrong.

The Cambrian Explosion Is a Proof of God's Creation

The more one examines the Cambrian Explosion, the clearer becomes that grave dilemma that it represents for the theory of evolution. Recent discoveries show that almost all phyla, the basic categories of animal life, emerged suddenly during the Cambrian Period. One article, published in *Science* magazine in 2001, states, "The beginning of the Cambrian period, some 545 million years ago, saw the sudden appearance in the fossil record of almost all the main types of animals (phyla) that still dominate the biota today."21

The same article also explains that for such complex and very different life forms to be explained in terms of the theory of evolution, fossil beds from earlier periods revealing a very rich and gradual development need to be found. But such a thing is out of the question: "This differential evolution and dispersal, too, must have required a previous history of the group for which there is no fossil record."22

The scenario revealed by Cambrian Period fossils refutes the assumptions of the theory of evolution on the one hand, while on the other, constituting important evidence that living things came into being by means of conscious Creation. The evolutionist biologist Douglas Futuyama expounds on this fact:

Organisms either appeared on the earth fully developed or they did not. If they did not they must have developed from preexisting species by some process of modification. If they did appear in fully formed state, they must have been created by some omnipotent intelligence.23

As you have seen, the fossil record shows that living things did not follow a progression from the primitive to the more developed, as the theory of evolution would have us believe. Rather, living things emerged suddenly and in the most perfect state. This, in turn, constitutes proof that life came into being not by random natural processes, but by conscious Creation. Jeffrey S. Levinton, a professor of ecology and evolution from New York State University, accepts as much in an article he wrote for Scientific American magazine titled "The Big Bang of Animal Evolution." As he says, "Therefore, something special and very mysterious—some highly creative 'force'—existed then."24

THE SUDDEN APPEARANCE OF MAJOR ANIMAL GROUPS

Evolutionists claim that fish evolved from such invertebrate sea creatures as pikaia; amphibians and modern-day fish from some ancestral fish; reptiles from amphibians, birds and mammals from separate groups of reptiles—and finally that human beings and present-day apes evolved from a common ancestor.

In order to demonstrate the scientific veracity of these claims, they need to be able to show fossils of transitional creatures that represent a clear turning point in the development of these species. As already made clear, however, there is not the slightest trace of these imaginary creatures. For that reason, evolutionists persist in their biased interpretations of some fossils, suggesting that these represent transitional forms. Yet these *obligatory transitional links* are the subject of much controversy, even among evolutionists themselves. Not one so-called transitional link has ever been unconditionally accepted, because these are not actually transitional links at all. However, since evolutionists are obliged to come up with some such progression, they interpret some of the fossils they have found as intermediate forms.

Gareth Nelson of the American Museum of Natural History has this to say about evolutionists' arbitrary selection of evolutionary ancestors:

We've got to have some ancestors. We'll pick those. Why? "Because we know they have to be there, and these are the best candidates." That's by and large the way it has worked. I am not exaggerating.25

This chapter will be examining the scientific evidence for how living things emerged on Earth independently and did not, as evolutionists claim, evolve from one another.

The True Origin of Fish

According to evolutionist claims, invertebrates were the ancestors of the first vertebrate fish. Yet how did these creatures—with only a hard shell in some cases, and no bones or spinal column—turn into vertebrates? This is a question evolutionists are unable to answer, and for which they can find no evidence. That is because the living things in

question would have to have undergone such enormous changes that while their shells were becoming vestigial on the outside, skeletons were forming on the inside. In order for such a huge transformation to take place, there would have to be an enormous number of intermediate forms between the two groups. The fact is, however, that there exists not a single fossil that evolutionists can present as a transitional form between invertebrates and vertebrates.

The theory of evolution assumes that first chordates such as pikaia gradually turned into fish. This claim was frequently repeated by evolutionists in the 1990s. Stephen Jay Gould, one of the most prominent contemporary exponents of Darwinism, declared pikaia to be "the ancestor of us all." His claim rested on the assumption that vertebrates did not exist during the Cambrian Period. The portrayal of pikaia, the oldest known chordate—in other words, an animal with a central nervous system, which emerged during the Cambrian Period—as the ancestor of the fishes identified during later periods, appeared entirely compatible with the fossil record.

A discovery made in China in 1999, however, undermined this evolutionist thesis concerning the Cambrian Period, proving that there were indeed fish living at the same time as *pikaia*, the supposed ancestor of all fish.

Paleontologists excavating in the Yunnan region found 530-million-year-old fossil fish. In his report, "Waking up to the Dawn of Vertebrates", the well-known paleontologist Richard Monastersky made the following statement regarding these two separate fish species, Haikouichthys ercaicunensis and Myllokunmingia fengjiaoa:

Paleontologists have long regarded vertebrates as latecomers who straggled into evolutionary history after much of the initial sound and fury had fizzled. Chinese paleontologists, however, have discovered fossils of two fish that push the origin of vertebrates back to the riotous biological bash when almost all other animal groups emerged in the geologic record. Preserved in 530-million-year-old rocks from Yunnan province, the paper clip-size impressions record the earliest known fish, which predate the next-oldest vertebrates by at least 30 million years.26

With this realization that vertebrates already existed in the Cambrian Period, the theory of evolution's "tree of life" metaphor lost all credibility. All the basic categories of life, vertebrates included, emerged during the same geological period, so evidently that there can be no question of "evolution" from some common ancestor.

The fact that fish appeared at exactly the same time as all other complex groups shows that they did not evolve from any other species, but were created. Indeed, after the Cambrian Period, all the different categories of fish appear suddenly in the fossil record, with no ancestors behind them.

From Fish to Amphibians

According to evolutionists, the ancestor of land-dwelling life forms was some species of fish. They suggest that this imaginary creature, whose remains they have so far been unable to unearth, was forced to live in shallow, muddy water because of drought. For this reason, its descendants' fins evolved into feet and their gills into lungs. They developed kidneys to remove their bodily wastes, and their skin acquired features preventing it from losing moisture—and that the first amphibian was the result.

Unless a fish underwent *all* these changes and more, it would be unable to live on land, and would die within a few minutes at most.

Evolutionists nominate three different fish species as the ancestors of amphibians. One of these is the famous "living fossil," the coelacanth. Due to the thickness of its fins and certain of its bony structures, this species was for years portrayed as the ancestor of amphibians. In 1938, however, when a living specimen was caught in the Indian Ocean, it was realized that all the speculations that evolutionists had been engaging in was incorrect. Some 200 other living coelacanths were caught in the years that followed. When these were studied, it was clear that this species' soft tissues has no resemblance to amphibians', that they were not about to emerge onto land and that they swam in very deep waters, not shallow ones. (For further details, see the chapter on "False Transitional Forms.")

Since the coelacanth is now "extinct" as an the ancestor of amphibians, the great majority of evolutionists today propose a replacement: a group of fish from the Rhipidistia family. The fins of these fish contain bones and tissue as thick as those in the Coelacanth. Due to these different structures, evolutionists claim that legs first began to appear in this species. In fact, however, these structures bear no similarity to the front or hind legs of land-dwelling creatures. Moreover, just as with the coelacanth, these creatures' fins are loosely bound to their skeletal muscles, but not connected to the backbone in

such a way as to support their bodies' weight. In other words, these fishes' fins display no features resembling the legs of land-dwelling animals. Furthermore, the oldest known fossil amphibians have a pelvis and shoulders that are broad and powerful—features entirely absent in fish. No vestigial traces of a transition to such dynamic structures have been found in the so-called ancestors proposed by evolutionists.

For the role of amphibian ancestor, evolutionists' third candidates are lungfish (from the Dipnoi family). These species can breathe air on the surface as well as through their gills. However, the lung structure they possess has no similarities at all to the lungs of land-dwelling creatures.

These fishes' skeletal structure is also very different to that of amphibians. For instance, there is no trace of legs in the fishes' fin structure. Not only the backbone is very different, but so is the structure of the internal organs. These animals would need to undergo enormous changes in order to evolve into amphibians. As the pelvic bone formed, for instance, the gills would have to be replaced with lungs, and the ears and eyes would have to become capable of functioning in dry air.

No matter what species of fish evolutionists choose to regard as the so-called ancestor of amphibians, the number of changes necessary for a fish to develop into an amphibian is enormous. For that reason, there would have to be an outlandish number of transitional links between the two: strange half-finned/half-footed, half-gilled/half-lunged, half-kidneyed creatures must have existed, and would have had to number in the millions. However, not one of them has ever been encountered in the 100 million or so fossils from all over the world. There are complete fish, and there are complete amphibians in the fossil record, but no such transitional forms. This is a fact that refutes the theory of evolution, and is accepted even by evolutionists.

For example, Professor Robert Wesson of the Massachusetts Institute of Technology, describes how amphibians appear suddenly in the fossil record and how there is no evidence of any transition to them from fish:

The stages by which a fish gave rise to an amphibian are unknown. There are resemblances between the first amphibians and certain (rhipidistian) fish with bony fins, but the earliest land animals appear with four good limbs, shoulder and pelvic girdles, ribs, and distinct heads. . . . In a few million years, 320 million years ago, a dozen

orders of amphibians suddenly appear in the record, none apparently ancestral to any other.27

As Wesson makes clear, land-dwellers appear suddenly in the fossil record, with four healthy feet, shoulders, a ribcage and all the other features peculiar to them. No fossil has been found which can be claimed as these animals' evolutionary ancestor, as is also stated by professor of Biology Keith Stewart Thomson emeritus Professor of Natural History at the University of Oxford:

While we still do not have any really intermediate fossil forms between fishes and tetrapods, we are free to argue vociferously about the identity of the group of fishes that must be the tetrapod ancestor. 28

From Amphibians to Reptiles

According to the Darwinist claim, reptiles such as crocodiles, lizards and snakes evolved from amphibians. But amphibians and reptiles possess very different properties in a wide range of respects.

One of the most distinctive differences between the two is their egg structures. Since amphibians lay their eggs in water, their eggs possess a structure necessary for development there. The eggs have a permeable, transparent membrane and a jelly-like structure. However, the structure of reptile eggs has been created to be suited to a dry terrestrial environment. The leathery shell of a reptile's egg, also known as the *amniotic egg*, allows the passage of air, but not of water. In this way, the liquid needed by the developing embryo is preserved until the hatchling emerges from its egg.

If amphibians were to lay eggs on land they would shortly desiccate, and the embryos inside would die. This is a difficulty that cannot be explained by the theory of evolution, which maintains that reptiles evolved gradually from amphibians. If life on land is to continue, then the amphibian's egg must turn into an amniotic one within a single generation. No one can explain how this can be accomplished by natural selection and mutation, the two proposed mechanisms of evolution.

On the other hand, the fossil record strips the origin of reptiles of any evolutionary explanations. In an article titled "Problems of the Origins of Reptiles," the well-known evolutionist paleontologist Robert L. Carroll accepts the truth of this: Unfortunately, not a single specimen of an appropriate reptilian ancestor is known prior to the appearance of true reptiles. The absence of such ancestral forms leaves many problems of the amphibian-reptilian transition unanswered.29

Carroll, regarded as an authority on vertebrate paleontology, is forced to accept that "The early amniotes are sufficiently distinct from all Paleozoic amphibians that their specific ancestry has not been established." 30 The same thing is admitted by Stephen Jay Gould, who wrote, "No fossil amphibian seems clearly ancestral to the lineage of fully terrestrial vertebrates (reptiles, birds, and mammals)." 31

The most important animal to be suggested so far as a reptilian ancestor is the amphibian species *Seymouria*. However, fossil reptiles have been discovered that were alive 30 million years before *Seymouria*'s first appearance on Earth, showing that this could not have been a transitional form. The oldest *Seymouria* fossils date back to the Sub-Permian Period, 280 million years ago. However, the two oldest known reptile species, *Hylonomus* and *Paleothrys*, were found in Sub-Pennsylvanian strata, which dates back to between 330 and 315 million years ago.32 It is therefore of course impossible for the ancestor of reptiles to have appear many millions of years after reptiles themselves.

In short, scientific findings show that reptiles did not appear on Earth as the result of a gradual development, as the theory of evolution maintains, but that they emerged suddenly—with no ancestors behind them.

The True Origin of Marine Reptiles

Marine reptiles are yet another group for whose origins evolutionists cannot account. In our time, sea turtles and sea snakes are members of this group. The most important extinct marine reptile is the Ichthyosaurus, which evolutionists suggest evolved from land-dwelling reptiles. But they are unable to explain how this might have taken place, however, and cannot provide any corroborating evidence from the fossil record.

Ichthyosaurs possessed the complex and unique features of species that live in oceans and deep water. Yet evolutionists maintain

that some land-dwelling reptile adapted to life in deep, open waters as the result of chance.

This is an impossible scenario. A. S. Romer, an expert on the natural history of vertebrates, states that a very long period of time would be necessary for the features peculiar to the Ichthyosaur to have emerged—for which reason the origin of these creatures must go back a very long way. He then accepts that no known Permian Period reptile could possibly be regarded as these creatures' ancestor.33 This observation, made by Romer in the 1960s, is still valid today.

An article called "Rulers of the Jurassic Seas," published in a special supplement to *Scientific American* magazine in April 2003, stated that Ichthyosaurs were suited not only to life on the coasts, but also to the ocean depths—for which reason they would have to undergo extreme adaptations in order to cross from the land to the sea, losing a great many terrestrial features and acquiring new ones for life in water.34 This, however, would require a very long time before the final animal actually emerged, via a tremendous number of transitional forms. Yet in the fossil record, there is no trace of such transitional forms that might be regarded as the ancestors of the Ichthyosaurs. Those fossils to date discovered are either of land-dwelling reptiles or marine ones.

It will be useful to compare certain features of Ichthyosaurs and land-dwelling reptiles to demonstrate how impossible it is for the latter to have evolved into the former:

- One of the main features which distinguish Ichthyosaurs from land-dwellers is the formers' wide, flat flipper -like feet they used for swimming. Such flat feet do not appear in land-dwellers. Unlike the thin bones in many reptiles' front feet, the bones in Ichthyosaurs' front feet are short and wide.
- Moreover, the bones in their feet are all similar. In most four-footed animals, it is easy to distinguish the wrist bones from the palm bones. Of even greater importance, there is no flesh between the Ichthyosaur bones. They are squeezed very closely together, providing a hard, resistant surface. The fact that all its bones are contained within a single structure of tissue increases the firmness of the reptile's feet. Interestingly, the same structure exists in present-day whales, dolphins, seals and turtles. Palette feet also increase their hydrodynamic efficiency, since their very shape reduces water resistance. If the toes were separated, this could not happen. The question of how Ichthyosaurs' feet—or for that matter, the feet of sea turtles and

marine mammals—came into being by evolution is an unanswered one. There is no evidence whatsoever of a transition to such a structure, from either fish fins or from the feet of land-dwelling reptiles.

• Even *Scientific American* accepts that there was no gradual, progressive transition to a flipper of this kind, and goes on to say:

Indeed, analyses of ichthyosaur limbs reveal a complex evolutionary process in which digits were lost, added and divided.35

As we have seen, the alleged evolution of Ichthyosaurs' palette feet shows no constant development of the type that evolutionists expect. Like all evolutionist publications, however, Scientific American ignores this fact and with classic demagoguery, makes the following statement so that its readers too should ignore the truth:

Needless to say, evolution does not always follow a continuous, directional path from one trait to another.36

When evolutionists fail to find their expectations confirmed, they attempt to save the theory by making statements of that sort. The fact is, though, that findings from the fossil record clearly show that no evolution ever occured.

- Another difference between reptiles and Ichthyosaurs is the number of vertebrae in the front part of their spines. There are only up to 20 vertebrae in the front of reptile spines, but up to 40 in the Ichthyosaur. In other words, during the so-called evolutionary process, the mutations that supposedly affected these creatures must have given them an extra 20 vertebrae, in addition to all other changes. Again, as you might expect, there are no fossil traces of reptiles that demonstrate a transitional number of vertebrae (creatures with 25, 30 or 35 vertebrae, for instance).
- Animals that hunt in the open sea can only find very limited amounts of prey. They need to swim in a very productive, energy-efficient manner. A tail-like fin is ideal for such swimming. The animal waves its fin like a stern oar to increase its mobility. Ichthyosaurs possessed just such a fin. Yet there is no fossil trace of any biological structure that could represent a forerunner of such a fin.

As we have seen, Ichthyosaurs possess exceedingly complex features specially created to let them live in deep ocean waters. To enjoy those specifications, a land-dweller must undergo many beneficial mutations. Yet random chance cannot change *every* feature of a living creature in a planned manner and compatible with its specific environment. Random coincidences cannot change a land-dwelling creature's toes, its vertebrae, the structure of its eyes and the

way it swims, nor the kind of designs necessary to enable it to live in deep water.

Coincidence lacks the intelligence and intention to do this. Indeed, the fossil record demonstrates that these reptiles came into being not through phased coincidences, but in a single moment, with all their complex and particular structures.

In their book *Evolution of the Vertebrates*, Colbert and Morales say this about these creatures' origin:

The Ichthyosaurs, in many respects the most highly specialized of the marine reptiles, appeared in early Triassic times. Their advent into the geologic history of the reptiles was sudden and dramatic; there **are no clues in pre-Triassic sediments as to the possible ancestors** of the Ichthyosaurs . . . The basic problem of Ichthyosaur relationships is that no conclusive evidence can be found for linking these reptiles with any other reptilian order.37

The vertebrate paleontologist Chris McGowan describes how Ichthyosaurs appear suddenly in the fossil record, with no evolutionary ancestors preceding them:

I suggested that ichthyosaurs had just dropped out of the sky. The embarrassing fact is that we have not yet found the ancestor of the Ichthyosaurs. This has not prevented paleontologist from speculating, though, and most reptilian groups, at one time or another have been proposed as possible ichthyosaur ancestors.38

As McGowan—an evolutionist—courageously admits, the lack of evidence represents no obstacle to evolutionists producing fictitious ancestors for marine reptiles. Even so, evolutionist speculation is insufficient to conceal the manifest truth that, like all other creatures, marine reptiles were created. For that reason, no fossils belonging to their ancestors are to be found anywhere in the fossil record.

The True Origin of Mammals

According to the theory of evolution, some reptiles evolved into birds and others into mammals. But there are distinct and considerable differences between mammals and reptiles. Reptiles are cold-blooded, reproduce by laying leathery-shelled eggs, and their bodies are covered in scales. All reptiles have seven bones in their lower jaws, but only one bone in their ears.

Mammals, on the other hand, are warm-blooded, give birth to their young, and have milk glands and fur. They have a single lower jawbone and three bones in their ears, known to anatomists as the hammer, anvil and stirrup. If mammals, with their exceedingly complex and interconnected systems and structures, really did evolve from reptiles as the result of mutations, then in the fossil record there should be a large number of species reflecting that transition. We would expect to find remains of creatures possessing semi-developed milk glands, with scales mutating into fur, some legs further extended and others still short like a reptile's, and similar half-formed, incomplete features. Yet not a single fossil of that type has ever been found. If creatures meeting that description had ever existed, their fossil remains would have survived.

In addition, evolutionists suggest that the numerous kinds of mammals, from horses to human beings and from squirrels to elephants, all evolved from reptiles. They also claim that the emergence of mammals lasted some 100 million years. In order for such a large number of species to have made their appearance over in such a long period of time, then they should have left millions of transitional- form fossils. Yet not one of these expected transitional forms has ever been encountered in the fossil record. Evolutionists merely point to a group of fossils belonging to the group Therapsida, which are known as "mammal-like reptiles" as examples of transitional forms. But as you'll see in the chapter on "False Transitional Forms," their claims are invalid.

These *mammal-like reptiles* indicated as having been the ancestors of mammals are all extinct. And these creatures too emerge suddenly in the fossil record, and disappear just as suddenly.

Their being extinct gives evolutionists the opportunity to speculate about them however they wish, as they used to do with the coelacanth. But, looking at constructing resemblances between species on the basis of only a few bones is not a reliable method. Some evolutionists err in thinking that animals with similar skeletons also possess similar soft tissues. Michael Denton makes the following comment on this error by evolutionists:

Further, there is always the possibility that groups, such as the mammal-like reptiles which have left no living representative, might have possessed features in their soft biology completely different from any known reptile or mammal which would eliminate them completely as potential mammalian ancestors, just as the discovery of the living

coelacanth revealed features in its soft anatomy which were unexpected and cast doubt on the ancestral status of its rhipidistian relatives.39

After studying the skulls brains of so-called mammal-like reptiles, scientists concluded that these creatures did not possess mammalian features, but entirely resembled reptiles. Mammals are distinguished from all reptiles (including mammal-like reptiles) by the size of their brains:

Similar considerations cloud the status of other intermediate groups such as the mammal-like reptiles, a group of extinct reptiles in which the morphology of the skull and jaw was very close to the mammalian condition. The possibility that the mammal-like reptiles were completely reptilian in terms of their anatomy and physiology cannot be excluded. The only evidence we have regarding their soft biology is their cranial endocasts, and these suggest that, as far as their central nervous systems were concerned, they were entirely reptilian. Jerison, who has probably had more experience studying the cranial endocasts of fossil species than any other authority in the field, comments on the mammal-like reptile brains: ". . . these animals had brains of typical lower vertebrate size. . ." Since their endocasts were all very near the volume of the expected brain sizes and since the endocasts present maximum limits on their brain sizes, the mammallike reptiles could not have had brains that approached a mammalian size. . . . The mammal-like reptiles, in short, were reptilian and not mammalian with respect to the evolution of their brains. . . . The earliest mammal for which there is reasonable evidence, Triconodon of the upper Jurassic period, was apparently already at or near the level of living "primitive" mammals such as the insectivores or the Virginia opossum.40

Actually, mammal-like reptiles were described as such merely on the basis of similarities in the jaw joints. The fact is, however, that one single feature is not sufficient to allow such a definition.41

Studies on these creatures have concluded that they have nothing in common with mammals. In 1973, for example, Morganucodon was described by Dr. K. A. Kermack and other researchers from the University of London as Cynodont, a so-called transitional form with advance reptile features. A number of Morganucodon fragments were found in both Wales and China, showing that the same "evolutionary" stages had been undergone at more or less the same time, in two completely different parts of the world, divided from one another by

thousands of miles—which is impossible. The researchers stated that from the point of view of their jawbones, Morganucodon and the earlier discovered Kuehneotherium, were both fully reptilian.42

Another problem regarding these creatures, claimed to constitute transitional forms between reptiles and mammals, has to do with timing. These mammal-like reptiles emerge not at the end of the great Age of Reptiles, but at its beginning. This, according to the imaginary evolutionary tree, means that they appeared 100 million years too early.

In his evolutionist article "The Reptiles that Became Mammals," published in *New Scientist* magazine, Tom Kemp admits that mammal-like reptiles appear suddenly in the fossil record:

As is now well known, most fossil species appear instantaneously in the fossil record persist for some millions of years virtually unchanged, only to disappear abruptly.43

All of this shows that the assumption that reptiles evolved into mammals has no scientific basis. The dilemma which forced the evolutionist paleontologist Roger Lewin to admit, "The transition to the first mammal . . . is still an enigma" still applies.44

On the other hand, the origin of the classes of mammals is also shrouded in darkness as regards the theory of evolution. As the evolutionist zoologist Eric Lombard writes in *Evolution* magazine:

Those searching for specific information useful in constructing phylogenies of mammalian taxa will be disappointed.45

As with all other groups, the origin of mammals is in not the least compatible with the theory of evolution.

The True Origin of Marine Mammals

Just like land-dwelling mammals, whales and dolphins give birth, suckle their young, breathe through their lungs and are warm-blooded. The origin of this group known as sea mammals is one of the most difficult for evolutionists to explain. In most of their sources, they suggest that sea mammals' ancestors lived on land and over a long period of time, evolved, in such a way as to adapt to life in a marine environment. According to this view, marine mammals—whose alleged ancestors, fish, are assumed to have undergone a transition from sea to the land—returned to the water as the result of further so-called

evolutionary pressures. The fact is however, no paleontological evidence supports this theory, which also flies in the face of logic.

The theory of evolution's claim regarding the origin of whales rests on a fossil sequence, in which a series of species are arranged in an imaginary sequence and then proposed as transitional forms of whales' evolution.

According to evolutionists, the geological sequence followed by these creatures is as follows: *Pakicetus* (50 million years ago) > *Ambulocetus* (49 million years ago) > *Rodhocetus* (46.5 million years ago) > *Procetus* (45 million years ago) > *Kutchicetus* (43 to 46 million years ago) > *Dorudon* (37 million years ago) > *Basilosaurus* (37 million years ago) > and finally, *Aetiocetus* (24 to 26 million years ago).

But there are a number of deceptive aspects to this scheme. The most fundamental of these—the first two creatures in the plan, *Pakicetus* and *Ambulocetus*—were both, according to evolutionists, "walking whales." Yet to describe these two land-dwelling mammals as *whales* is an illusory, even comic claim to make.

First, consider Pakicetus inachus.

Fossils of this extinct mammal first entered the equation in 1983. The discoverers of the fossil, Philip D. Gingerich and his colleagues, had no hesitation in declaring it to represent a "primitive whale," though they had found only its skull.

But in fact, this fossil has absolutely nothing to connect it to whales. Its four-legged skeleton resembles that of present-day wolves. The fossil was discovered in a stratum containing iron oxide ore as well as fossils of such land-dwellers as snails, tortoises and crocodiles. In other words, it was part of the land, not of a one-time sea bed.

This four-legged land-dweller was declared to be a "primitive whale" merely for certain details in its teeth and ear bones! The fact is, though, these features are no evidence on which to build a relationship between *Pakicetus* and today's whales. Even evolutionists admit that positing such theoretical relationships among living things, by taking anatomical similarities as a starting point, are usually exceedingly inaccurate. If the platypus—a billed, egg-laying mammal living in Australia—and ducks were both extinct, then evolutionists, employing the same logic and taking these species' similar bills and eggs as their starting point, would declare the two to be related. Yet the platypus is a mammal, and ducks are birds, and the theory of evolution can establish no relationship between them. Similarly, *Pakicetus inachus*, which

evolutionists declare to be a primitive whale, is a unique species with its own particular anatomical features. Even Carroll, a foremost authority on vertebrate paleontology, states that the Mesonychid family, in which *Pakicetus* should be included, "was the combination of these changes." 46 Even prominent evolutionists such as Gould accept that such "mosaic creatures" cannot be regarded as transitional forms.

In an article titled "The Overselling of Whale Evolution," the creationist writer Ashby L. Camp explains the invalidity of the claim that the Archaeocetae (whose Latin name means "archaic whales")— part of the class Mesonychid, of which land mammals such as *Pakicetus* are members—are in fact whales:

The reason [why] evolutionists are confident that mesonychids gave rise to archaeocetes, despite the inability to identify any species in the actual lineage, is that known mesonychids and archaeocetes have some similarities. These similarities, however, are not sufficient to make the case for ancestry, especially in light of the vast differences. The subjective nature of such comparisons is evident from the fact so many groups of mammals and even reptiles have been suggested as ancestral to whales.47

In the whales' imaginary evolutionary tree, the second extinct creature after Pakicetus is Ambulocetus [Latin for "walking whale'] natans. This fossil, first announced in an article in Science magazine in 1994, was a land-dweller which evolutionists, using the same technique of forcing the facts, seek to turn into a whale.

The truth, again, is that there is no evidence that either *Pakicetus* or *Ambulocetus* has any relationship to whales. But after these two species, the evolutionary diagram moves on to sea mammals and lists extinct whale species of Archaeoceti such as *Protocetus* and *Rodhocetus*. These creatures are indeed extinct sea-dwelling mammals. Yet there are enormous anatomical differences between them and *Pakicetus* and *Ambulocetus*. Their fossil remains clearly show that these are not transitional forms linking the species together in any series:

Ambulocetus is a four-legged land-dweller. Its backbone ends at the pelvis, to which are connected powerful leg bones. This is the typical anatomy of a land mammal. Whales, however, have no pelvis, and the backbone continues uninterrupted down to the tail. Basilosaurus, believed to have lived up to 10 million years after Ambulocetus, possess the exact same anatomy. In other words, it is a typical whale. No transitional form exists between Ambulocetus, a typical land-dweller, and Basilosaurus, a typical whale.

There are small bones, independent of the verterbrae, in the lower spines of both *Basilosaurus* and sperm whales. Evolutionists claim that these are "shrunken legs". In fact though, these bones assisted the adoption of the mating position in *Basilosaurus* and support the reproductive organs in today's sperm whales.48 To describe parts of the skeleton that serve an important function as "vestigial" is simply an evolutionist preconception.

In conclusion, the fact remains that marine mammals emerged with all their particular features, with no transitional form between them and land-dwelling mammals. There is no evolutionary chain here at all. Robert Carroll admits as much, albeit reluctantly and using evolutionist terminology: "It is not possible to identify a sequence of mesonychids leading directly to whales." 49 Despite being an evolutionist, the Russian scientist G. A. Mchedlidze—a well-known expert on the subject of whales—does not agree with *Pakicetus, Ambulocetus natans* and similar four-legged creatures being described as possible whale ancestors. Rather, he identifies them as a completely isolated group.50

In short, the evolutionists' scenario—of sea mammals evolving from land-dwellers—is incorrect. Their remaining claim, of evolution amongst sea mammals themselves, also faces a terrible dilemma. Via scientific classification, they attempt to build a family relationship between extinct marine mammals known as Archaeoceti and living whales and dolphins.

Yet experts on the subject think rather differently. The evolutionist paleontologist Barbara J. Stahl writes:

The serpentine form of the body and the peculiar serrated cheek teeth make it plain that these archaeocetes could not possibly have been ancestral to any of the modern whales.51

The evolutionist explanation for the origin of marine mammals is also in a grave predicament presented by findings by molecular biology. The classic evolutionist scenario hypothesizes that the two main whale groups—toothed whales (Odontoceti) and baleen whales (Mysticeti)—evolved from some common ancestor. Michel C. Milinkovitch of the University of Brussels has opposed this view, emphasizing that this assumption is based on anatomical similarity, but invalidated by molecular findings:

While the monophyly of cetaceans is widely accepted, the origin of and evolutionary relationships among the major groups of cetaceans is more problematic since morphological and molecular analyses reach very different conclusions. Indeed, based on the conventional interpretation of the morphological and behavioral data set, the echolocating toothed whales (about 67 species) and the filter-feeding baleen whales (10 species) are considered as two distinct monophyletic groups. . . . On the other hand, phylogenetic analyses of DNA and amino acid sequences contradict this long-accepted taxonomic subdivision. One group of toothed whales, the sperm whales, appears to be more closely related to the morphologically highly divergent baleen whales than to other odontocetes.52

In short, marine mammals contradict every evolutionist scheme into which they are sought to be included.

The Impossibility of any Transition from Land to Sea

As Nature magazine science writer Henry Gee expresses it:

The intervals of time that separate the fossils are so huge that we cannot say anything definite about their possible connection through ancestry and descent.53

There is a generational difference of millions of years separating the fossils claimed to represent the ancestors of marine mammals. Even despite documentary records, it is very difficult to establish the identity of any human's great-great- great-grandmother, and this sometimes cannot be established at all. For that reason, the claim that fossils representing "transitional forms" are in a relationship of direct linear descent can be only an assumption.

Also, it is wrong to try to construct a direct line of decent, based on only a few similarities among species. The striking resemblances between different organisms today were also noticed before Darwin's time, but were regarded as the product of common design. To suggest that such similarities represent evidence of evolution is not a scientific deduction.

Furthermore, evolutionists need to explain how living species that they claim represent transitional forms could have turned into creatures ideally adapted to the water—and by what mechanisms this came about.

It is not enough merely to claim, "Front legs turned into fins, rear legs disappeared, so did body fur, and fat turned into blubber." Not a single piece of evidence from present-day creatures can show how front legs could have transformed into fins or how a land-dweller could

have adapted perfectly to life in the water, totally changing its body shape and internal bone structure .

No mechanism in nature could carry out the changes that evolutionists maintain took place.

Keeping in mind the infinite adaptations any land-dweller needs to live its life in the sea one can see that even *impossible* fails to describe such a transition. The absence of just one of these adaptations, claimed to have taken place in the imaginary evolutionary process, will make it impossible for the creature to survive.

The True Origin of Birds

Evolutionists have various scenarios regarding the so-called evolution of birds, though they have no scientific evidence for any of them. According to the most popular one, birds evolved from carnivorous dinosaurs known as Theropods. The ornithologist Storrs L. Olson of the Smithsonian Institution Museum of Natural History refers to this claim, which evolutionists are unable to support with any evidence, as "one of the grander scientific hoaxes of our age."54

Olson criticizes those who suggest that birds evolved from dinosaurs, although he himself cannot offer an alternative evolutionary explanation for birds' origin.

In order for a land-dweller to acquire the ability to fly, it would need to undergo a huge number of anatomical and physiological changes. The theory of evolution is unable to explain how these changes might have come about, nor is it able to offer any evidence from the fossil record that such changes took place at all. Therefore, the "birds are feathered dinosaurs" theory is rejected by a number of biologists and paleontologists who nevertheless support the theory of evolution. For example, Alan Feduccia of the University of North Carolina and Larry Dean Martin of the University of Kansas, two of the world's most prominent ornithologists, don't believe that birds can have evolved from any known dinosaur group. Feduccia in particular, despite believing in evolution, emphasizes the differences between dinosaurs and birds and produces evidence to show that these are very considerable—for which reason birds could not possibly have evolved from earlier dinosaurs.

To demonstrate why it is that the theory of evolution is a terrible predicament when it comes to the origin of birds, recall some of the differences between birds and reptiles:

- 1) A bird's lung possesses an entirely different structure from all other land-dwelling vertebrates, reptiles included. In the bird lungs, unlike in land vertebrates, air travels in just one direction, allowing birds to constantly take in oxygen and expel carbon dioxide. It is impossible for this structure, unique to birds, to have evolved from the land-vertebrate lung, because any transitional reptile-bird would be unable to breathe at all.55
- 2) In 1992, a comparative study by Alan Feduccia and Julie Nowicki of bird and reptile embryos demonstrated enormous differences between the foot structures of the two groups and that it is impossible to establish any evolutionary link between them.56
- 3) Recent comparisons of the skulls of the two groups reached the same conclusion. As a result of a 1999 study, Andrzej Elzanowski concluded that "the differences resulted from a phylogenetic reduction rather than individual variation." 57
- 4) Teeth are one of the factors distinguishing birds from reptiles. It is known that in the past some birds did have teeth in their beaks. This was for long portrayed as evidence of evolution, although it was subsequently realized that bird teeth are quite unique. Feduccia writes on the subject:

Perhaps the most impressive difference between theropods and birds concerns the structure of teeth and the nature of their implantation. . . It is astounding that more attention has not been given to the dramatic differences between bird and theropod teeth (Table 1), especially when one considers that the basis of mammal paleontology involves largely tooth morphology. . . . To be brief, bird teeth (as seen in Archaeopteryx, Hesperornis, Parahesperornis, Ichthyornis, Cathayornis, and all toothed Mesozoic birds) are remarkably similar and are unlike those of theropods . . . There is essentially no shared, derived relationship of any aspect of tooth morphology between birds and theropods, including tooth form, implantation, or replacement.58

5) Birds are warm-blooded, and reptiles cold-blooded. This indicates two completely different metabolisms, and random mutations could not possibly have performed any transition between the two by. (The thesis that dinosaurs were actually warm- blooded was put forward in order to resolve this. Yet a great deal of evidence disproves that thesis, which itself rests on no evidence.)59

- 6) Reptiles have scales, and birds feathers—two totally different structures. It is impossible for feathers to have evolved from scales.
- 7) Reptiles have heavy, thick, solid bones. Birds' bones, on the other hand, are thinner and hollow. Their lighter bones make it possible for birds to fly with ease.

These are just a few of the differences between the two verterbrates. A reptile would have to undergo countless mutations in order to acquire bird characteristics. Just for a reptile's front legs to develop into wings, for example, it would have to undergo a great many gradual changes. Every mutation affecting the genetic data for the foreleg must make certain minute changes; and with every change, the leg must acquire slightly more wing characteristics. For instance, for feathers to appear on the legs, they must develop gradually: First the stem must emerge, for example, followed by the other components. Toes must disappear a little more with every succeeding generation, and the foot must increasingly come to resemble a wing. And at least some of these very slow, gradual changes must also be observed in the fossil record. The same applies to the creatures' lungs, changes in the structure of the teeth, and other features.

But mutations lack the ability to perform such wide-ranging, gradual changes. As pointed out earlier, mutations are nearly always harmful. Since they also come about in a random manner, they lack any planning and organization—and of course the conscious intent to transform one organ into another, gradually and accurately at every stage. (For more detailed information, see Harun Yahya, *Darwinism Refuted*, New Delhi: Goodword Books, November 2002)

Had evolution actually occurred between reptiles and birds, then we should have millions of transitional fossils as evidence. To date, however, not a single half-bird/half-reptile fossil has ever been found. Those that have been discovered belong to either extinct birds or reptiles. The dino-bird stories we so frequently run across in the media are nothing more than sleight of hand, as you shall be seeing in some detail. None of these is the missing link in the so-called evolution of birds.

The Error of Believing Flying Reptiles to be the Ancestors of Birds

Some people, who find the theory of evolution credible only because of their one-sided and second-hand knowledge of it, believe that extinct flying reptiles like pterodactyls are the ancestors of birds. The fact is, flying reptiles have absolutely no connection with birds, and no evolutionist authority maintains that birds evolved from these highly-specialized reptiles.

These flying reptiles are an extinct group known as pterosaurs, whose origin is a major dilemma for the theory of evolution. Like so many other species in the fossil record, they emerge suddenly with all their unique features fully formed. Carroll, one of the world's foremost authorities on vertebrate paleontology, makes the following confession, in spite of his own evolutionist credentials: " . . . all the Triassic pterosaurs were highly specialized for flight. . . They provide little evidence of their specific ancestry and no evidence of earlier stages in the origin of flight."60

The wing structure of flying reptiles is particularly fascinating: There are four fingers on the pterosaur's wing, just as there are on the front legs of other reptiles. The fourth "little" finger is some 20 times longer than the others, however, and the wing stretches out beneath it. If flying reptiles had evolved from land-dwelling reptiles, then this fourth finger must have grown very gradually, and in stages. Yet not only is there no evidence of this in the fossil record, but neither can any such growth be explained in terms of the natural selection-mutation mechanisms, because the transitional-form stages would make the hand non-functional, without allowing the creature to fly.

It is a grave error to ascribe an evolutionary relationship between birds and flying reptiles, if only because of their very different wing structures. In the same way that it would be ignorant to claim an evolutionary relationship among flies (insects, bats (mammals) and starlings (birds) on the premise that they all have wings, it is equally erroneous to posit such a relationship between flying reptiles and birds.

Feathered Dinosaur Tales

For the last decade, dinosaurs with feathers or "dino-birds" have been one of the most prominent propaganda vehicles in the Darwinist media. Headlines about imaginary dino-birds have followed hot on one another's heels, and reconstructions and self-confident statements by "experts" have been employed to convince people that half-bird halfreptile creatures once roamed the Earth. But there is not a shred of evidence for this.

Alan Feduccia, of the University of North Carolina Biology Department, is one of the world's most eminent authorities on the origin of birds, whose name will appear on any list of the world's five most eminent ornithologists. Dr. Feduccia believes in the theory of evolution, and that birds themselves evolved. But what distinguishes him from the "dino-bird" supporters and certain fanatical evolutionists is that he admits the theory of evolution's uncertainty on this subject and attaches no credence to the dino-bird scenario, which rests on no foundations at all.

The Auk magazine is published by The American Ornithologists' Union and represents a floor for the most technical ornithological debates. In its October 2002 edition, Dr. Feduccia's article "Birds Are Dinosaurs: Simple Answer to a Complex Problem," provides some important information. He describes in detail how the theory that birds evolved from dinosaurs, advanced by John Ostrom in the 1970s and which has been fiercely defended ever since, lacks any scientific evidence—and why such an evolution is impossible.

Dr. Feduccia is not alone in this. The evolutionist Peter Dodson, a professor of anatomy from University of Pennsylvania, also states that he looks with suspicion on the claim that birds evolved from theropod dinosaurs.61

Feduccia describes an important fact about the "dino-birds" discovered in China: Even if apparently primitive feathers are found on the fossilized reptiles which are portrayed as feathered dinosaurs, it is by no means certain that they are *bird* feathers. On the contrary, there is considerable evidence that these fossil traces, known as "dino-fuzz," have nothing to do with bird feathers. As Feduccia writes:

The so-called "hairy devil" pterosaur Sordes (Upper Jurassic lake deposits of Kazakhstan) is preserved in similar lacustrine deposits and preserves structures remarkably similar, if not identical, to dino-fuzz (Wellnhofer 1991). Yet, the finest-grained lithographic limestone, the **Archaeopteryx**- bearing Solnhofen beds, do not preserve dino-fuzz on the small coelurosaur **Compsognathus**, a very close ally of the early Cretaceous Chinese **Sinosauropteryx**, which exhibits a halo of that material.62

Following that analysis, Feduccia avers that some paleontologists are behaving in a prejudiced manner in this view:

. . . shared by many paleontologists: birds are dinosaurs; therefore, any filamentous material preserved in dromaeosaurs must represent protofeathers.63

According to Feduccia, one of the facts invalidating this preconception is traces of dino-fuzz that can have no possible connection with bird feathers:

Most important, "dino-fuzz" is now being discovered in a number of taxa, some unpublished, but particularly in a Chinese pterosaur (Wang **et al**. 2002) and a therizinosaur, which has teeth like those of prosauropods. Most surprisingly, skin fibers very closely resembling dino-fuzz have been discovered in a Jurassic ichthyosaur and described in detail (Lingham-Soliar 1999, 2001). Some of those branched fibers are exceptionally close in morphology to the so-called branched protofeathers ("Prum Protofeathers") described by Xu et al."64

Feduccia recalls that in the past, certain structures were found next to fossils and were originally thought to belong to these fossils—but were later identified as inorganic substances:

One is reminded of the famous fernlike markings on the Solnhofen fossils known as dendrites. Despite their plantlike outlines, these features are now known to be inorganic structures caused by a solution of manganese from within the beds that re-precipitated as oxides along cracks or along [the] bones of fossils.65

Therefore, even if feathered dinosaurs did exist at one time, this still constitutes no evidence that birds evolved from dinosaurs. The "feathers" claimed to have been present on the dinosaurs in question bear no resemblance to birds' feathers, with their own unique structure, design, and biochemistry. There is definitely no structure resembling bird feathers on these reptiles. According to Professor Alan H. Brush, of the University of Connecticut: " . . . in development, morphogenesis, gene structure, protein shape and sequence, and filament formation and structure, feathers are different."66

Moreover, since bird feathers are so exceedingly complex, there should be many transitional forms demonstrating the evolution of such a structure. Yet no such transitional form exists. *Nature* magazine admits this fact:

Feathers are complex structures. Their abrupt appearance in the bird fossil record has been difficult to explain, mainly because no intermediate structures are preserved in the related theropod taxa.67

Therefore, even if a feathered dinosaur were found, it could never be regarded as evidence that birds evolved from dinosaurs, because bird feathers are unique structures, and no evidence suggests that they evolved from anything else.

Also noteworthy is that all the fossils presented as "feathered dinosaurs" were found in China. Why have they all been unearthed in China, and nowhere else in the world? Chinese fossil beds are capable of preserving not just uncertain structures such as dino-fuzz, but bird feathers as well. Feduccia also questions this:

One must explain also why all theropods and other dinosaurs discovered in other deposits where integument is preserved exhibit no dino-fuzz, but true reptilian skin, devoid of any featherlike material, and why typically Chinese dromaeosaurs preserving dino-fuzz do not normally preserve feathers, when a hardened rachis, if present, would be more easily preserved.68

So what are all these so-called "feathered dinosaurs" found in China? What is the true identity of these creatures portrayed as transitional forms between reptiles and birds?

Feduccia explains that some of the animals portrayed as "feathered dinosaurs" are extinct reptiles displaying dino-fuzz, and that others are real birds:

There are clearly two different taphonomic phenomena in the early Cretaceous lacustrine deposits of the Yixian and Jiufotang formations of China, one preserving dino-fuzz filaments, as in the first discovered, so-called "feathered dinosaur" **Sinosauropteryx** (a compsognathid), and one preserving actual avian feathers, as in the feathered dinosaurs that were featured on the cover of Nature, but which turned out to be secondarily flightless birds.69

In other words, all the fossils presented to the world as feathered dinosaurs or dino-birds belong to either various flightless birds, like today's ostriches, or else to reptiles possessing the organic material known as dino-fuzz, which has nothing to do with true bird feathers. Not a single fossil represents any transitional form between birds and reptiles.

The Question of Age and the Cladistic Error

In all the evolutionist publications which encourage the dino-bird concept, one important fact is insistently ignored, or even concealed: The ages of the fossils deceptively put forward as dino-birds or

feathered dinosaurs go back no further than 130 million years. Yet a true bird, *Archaeopteryx*, is at least 20 million years older than the creatures evolutionists try to describe as "semi-birds." *Archaeopteryx* is known as the world's oldest true bird, with perfect flight muscles, flight feathers and an authentic bird skeleton, which soared through the skies 150 million years ago. That being so, it is nonsensical to portray creatures which lived long after *Archaeopteryx* as the ancestors of birds.

However, evolutionists have found a way to defend that nonsensicality: the so-called *cladistic* method. This term refers to a new method of interpreting fossils, which has been heard frequently in the world of paleontology over the last 20 to 30 years. Proponents of the cladistic method recommend simply ignoring the age of fossils and propose only comparing the characteristic features of fossils we already possess—and constructing evolutionary trees in the light of the similarities that emerge as a result of those comparisons.

On one evolutionist website, those who support that view explain why it is logical(!) to regard the *Velociraptor*, a much younger dinosaur than *Archaeopteryx*, as its ancestor:

Now we may ask, "How can Velociraptor be ancestral to Archaeopteryx if it came after it?" . . . because of the many gaps in the fossil record, fossils don't always show up "on time." For example, a recently discovered partial fossil from the Late Cretaceous of Madagascar, Rahonavis, seems to be a cross between birds and something like Velociraptor, but appears 60 mys too late. No-one, however, says its late appearance is evidence against its being a missing link, it may just have lasted a long time [without becoming extinct]. Such examples are called "Ghost Lineages"; we assume these animals existed earlier when we have probable ancient ancestors for them a long way back, and perhaps possible descendants back then too.70

This account is an excellent summary of the cladistic method, revealing what a grave distortion it really is. Evolutionists openly distort results from the fossil record, according to the requirements of their own theories. There can be no meaning in a distortion that assumes that with a 70-million-year-old fossil species actually lived 170 million years ago, and then constructing a family relationship upon that.

Peter Dodson, a professor of anatomy from Pennsylvania University, states that the appearance of so-called dino-birds after the

presence of the first true birds represents a serious problem, and that the solution offered by the cladistic method is a forced one:

I continue to find it problematic that the most birdlike maniraptoran theropods are found 25 to 75 million years after the origin of birds? Ghost lineages are frankly a contrived solution, a deus ex machina required by the cladistic method. Of course, it is admitted that late Cretaceous maniraptorans are not the actual ancestors of birds, only "sister taxa." Are we being asked to believe that a group of highly derived, rapidly evolving maniraptorans in the Jurassic gave rise to birds, as manifested by Archaeopteryx, and then this highly progressive lineage went into a state of evolutionary stasis and persisted unchanged in essential characters for millions of years?71

The cladistic method is actually a veiled admission of the theory of evolution's defeat in the face of the fossil record. To summarize:

- 1) Darwin proposed that once the fossil record was examined in detail, transitional forms would be found to fill the gaps between all the known species. That was his expectation.
- 2) However, the best efforts of paleontology over the last 150 years have revealed no transitional forms, nor any trace of such creatures. This is a huge upset for his theory.
- 3) In the same way that no transitional forms have been found, the ages of the creatures which can be announced to be one another's ancestors solely on the basis of similarities are also contradictory. A creature that appears to be more primitive, according to evolutionists, emerges after one that appears more mature.

This final point forced evolutionists to develop the inconsistent cladistic method. With cladistics, Darwinism clearly demonstrates that it is not a theory based on scientific findings, but rather a dogma that distorts the scientific facts and changes them in accordance with its own assumptions.

The Origin of Birds' Feathers

Evolutionists maintain that feathers—a feature unique to birds, and an exceedingly complex structure— evolved from reptilian scales. Like the other distinctive features of birds, however, there exist no transitional forms in the fossil record to show how feathers evolved in a gradual process. The fossil record has preserved reptiles' scales, birds' feathers, and even mammals' fur and skin, but no creature has ever

been found with part-scale and part-feather structures to prove there was an ongoing, gradual transition to fully-formed feathers.

Some evolutionists maintain that since birds have fragile, hollow bones, they have not left well-preserved fossils behind them. That is most definitely not so case. Birds and their feathers leave behind excellent fossils, especially in regions formerly occupied by ancient lakes, internal bays and shallow seas. As a result, bird fossils are frequently discovered.

In the same way that half-feather-half-scale, or half-skin-half-feather structures have never been found in the fossil record, neither have any with fewer feathers than present-day specimens.72 In an article in *American Zoology* magazine, Larry Dean Martin, and Stephen. A. Czerkas, director of the Blanding Dinosaur Museum, write, "The oldest known feathers . . . are already modern in form and microscopic detail." 73

For example, *Archaeopteryx* is the oldest known bird. Despite having a unique structure different from that of present-day birds, it still has feathers totally resembling those on present-day birds.74

Analysis of *Archaeopteryx*'s feathers, perfectly preserved from 150 million years ago, concluded that their every detail was exactly the same as present-day bird feathers.75 As far back as 1910, the famous ornithologist and writer on natural history W. P. Pycraft stated that an *Archaeopteryx* feather was in no respect different to the most developed known present-day feather.76

The rich fossils obtained since then have done nothing to alter his judgment. Besides, we have a lot more information about the skin of the dinosaurs. According to the conclusion reached from an analyses of them, "The skin of a wide variety of dinosaurs is now known and is unlikely to represent a predecessor to a feather-bearing integument."

Evolutionists' claim regarding the way in which bird feathers evolved produced mutually contradictory theories.78 Old textbooks on the subject of evolution refer to imaginary transitional-form bird feathers and suggest that they would soon be found in the fossil record. Yet none of these expected transitional forms have been unearthed so far. Nonetheless, evolutionists still continue to claim that bird feathers evolved from reptiles' scales. According to these claims, the scales gradually grew longer, grew fronds and slowly assumed a form capable of bearing the bird in such a way as to enable flight.79 However, this is

no more than imaginative speculation, on and devoid of any scientific proof.

Actually, since there are so many major differences between bird feathers and reptile scales, there ought to be a great many transitional forms between them. Yet no such fossils appear in the fossil record.80

Bird Feathers in Amber

One of the oldest known bird feathers was found in amber dating back to the Cretaceous Period (144 to 165 million years ago, at the end of the Mesozoic Period). The feather stem and fibers were perfectly preserved, and it was even established which species of bird the feather belonged to. Despite this discovery of a feather dating back 165 million years, there is still no evidence in the fossil record of feathers' alleged evolution. As one Columbia University biologist put it, " . . . we lack completely fossils of all intermediate stages between reptilian scales and the most primitive feather." 81 A great many bird fossils have been found in the fossil record, all with perfect feathers. For that reason, the origin of feathers represents a major question mark for Darwinists.82

The True Origin of Man

The origin of mankind is one of the most problematic issues for evolutionists. The human skeleton's upright posture, the use of our hands, our brain, skull and many more physiological and anatomical features, as well as our human intellect and consciousness—all are very different from those of any other living thing.

Evolutionists claim that we humans evolved from an imaginary common ancestor that we share with the apes. But they have yet to explain how the changes necessary for this came about, simply with random mutations, much less show evidence in the fossil record of the stage-by-stage development of every human feature. Actually, they possess not a single fossil to demonstrate the so-called evolution of Man.

The biologist and mathematician Marcel-Paul Schutzenberger summarizes some of the difficulties facing the theory of evolution with regard to the origin of humans:

Gradualists and saltationists alike are completely incapable of giving a convincing explanation of the quasi-simultaneous emergence

of a number of biological systems that distinguish human beings from the higher primates: bipedalism, with the concomitant modification of the pelvis, and, without a doubt, the cerebellum, a much more dexterous hand, with fingerprints conferring an especially fine tactile sense; the modifications of the pharynx which permits phonation; the modification of the central nervous system, notably at the level of the temporal lobes, permitting the specific recognition of speech. From the point of view of embryogenesis, these anatomical systems are completely different from one another. Each modification constitutes a gift. . . It is astonishing that these gifts should have developed simultaneously. Some biologists speak of a predisposition of the genome. Can anyone actually recover the predisposition, supposing that it actually existed? Was it present in the first of the fish? The reality is that we are confronted with total conceptual bankruptcy. 83

To conceal their hopeless position regarding the alleged evolution of Man, and also to console themselves, evolutionists set out fossils from various extinct species of apes and human races, in an imaginary order. None of these remains reveals a progression from ape-like creatures to Man. Evolutionists try to give the theory of evolution an alleged scientific appearance and credibility with imaginative models and drawings and biased interpretations of selected fossils.

Henry Gee, editor of *Nature*, stated in an article in the July 12, 2001, issue that the hominid (human-like) fossils that evolutionists claim to represent the ancestors of modern man, do not follow a progression from the primitive to the more advanced—and that on the contrary, these fossils appear suddenly in the record. The article also explains that transitional forms, awaited for 150 years as proof of the theory of evolution, do not exist, and that different species all emerged suddenly. He uses the following analogy: "Discoveries of fossil hominids are like buses: nothing for a while, then three come along at once." 84

In his book *In Search of Deep Time*, Gee states that the so-called plan of human evolution (below) gives no information about forebear-descendant relationships; that there is no missing link; and that human beings are not observed to have followed a gradual development. He also states that the living species in the plan emerged in completely different places.85

Gee again emphasizes the lack of evidence for the so-called evolution of mankind:

Fossil evidence of human evolutionary history is fragmentary and open to various interpretations. Fossil evidence of chimpanzee evolution is absent altogether. 86

He is not alone in making admissions of this kind. In an article in Nature, Professor Bernard Wood of George Washington University writes, that the evolutionary origins of Man are shrouded in darkness:

It is remarkable that the taxonomy and phylogenetic relationships of the earliest known representatives of our own genus, Homo, remain obscure. Advances in techniques for absolute dating and reassessments of the fossils themselves have rendered untenable a simple unilineal model of human evolution, in which Homo habilis succeeded the australopithecines and then evolved via H. erectus into H. sapiens—but no clear alternative consensus has yet emerged. 87

Richard C. Lewontin, professor at Harvard University's Museum of Comparative Zoology, admits that there is no evidence of so-called human evolution in the fossil record:

When we consider the remote past, before the origin of the actual species. Homo sapiens, we are faced with a fragmentary and disconnected fossil record. Despite the excited and optimistic claims that have been made by some paleontologists, no fossil hominid species can be established as our direct ancestor. . . . The earliest forms that are recognized as being hominid are the famous fossils, associated with primitive stone tools, that were found by Mary and Louis Leakey in the Olduvai Gorge and elsewhere in Africa. These fossil hominids lived more than 1.5 million years ago and had brains half the size of ours. They were certainly not members of our own species, and we have no idea whether they were even in our direct ancestral line or only in a parallel line of descent resembling our direct ancestor. 88

Michael D. Lemonick, the Associate Editor of Time magazine, and a devout evolutionist, describes the despair of his fellows on the subject of human evolution in an article titled "How Man Began":

Yet despite more than a century of digging, the fossil record remains maddeningly sparse. With so few clues, even a single bone that doesn't fit into the picture can upset everything. Virtually every major discovery has put deep cracks in the conventional wisdom and forced scientists to concoct new theories, amid furious debate. 89

Significantly, although evolutionists are aware that they have no evidence for evolution at all, still they feel compelled to defend their theory. This goes to show just how fanatical evolutionists are with

regard to their theory, and how they can act in violation of both science and reason.

Evolutionists' Imaginary Ancestors

The idea of human evolution, bereft of any evidence to support it, begins the human family tree with a species of ape known as *Australopithecus*. It's claimed that *Australopithecus* gradually came to adopt an upright posture. Its brain grew larger and after undergoing a number of stages, evolved into modern man, *Homo sapiens*. Yet the fossil record again fails to back up this scenario. Despite all the claims about transitional forms, an unbreachable barrier remains between human and ape fossils. Moreover, it has also emerged that species formerly depicted as one another's ancestors actually lived during the same periods.

Australopithecus

Evolutionists refer to mankind's alleged first ancestors as Australopithecus, meaning "the southern ape." Although there are various species of Australopithecus, only A. afarensis is actually regarded as a direct ancestor of human beings. (This is the species represented by "Lucy," discovered in 1974 and announced to the world as proof of evolution.) However, detailed analyses of Australopithecus fossils have revealed that these actually represent an extinct ape species of ape.

It is thought that the Australopithecines first appeared in Africa some 4 million years ago, and survived until about 1 million years ago. All of these extinct apes resembled present-day monkeys. Their brain volumes are equivalent to or smaller than present-day chimpanzees. They have nodules on the bones of their hands and feet to assist in tree-climbing—again just like modern apes; and their feet are prehensile, to assist in tree-climbing. They are short, about 130 centimeters (51 inches) at most and just like modern apes, male Australopithecines are larger than the females. Many other features—such as hundreds of details in their skulls, eyes close to each other, sharp incisors, the structure of their jaws, long arms and short legs—all show that they are little different from apes living today.

The evolutionist claim is that although Australopithecines possess a completely simian anatomy, they walked upright—unlike modern apes.

In fact, however, many studies on *Australopithecus* have concluded that the species did not walk upright, and was not bipedal:

- 1. The world famous anatomist Lord Zuckerman, despite favoring the theory of evolution, concluded that the Australopithecines were merely a species of ape and very definitely did not walk upright.90
- 2. Charles E. Oxnard, well known for his research on this subject, and his team concluded that *Australopithecus's* skeletal structure resembled that of present-day orangutans.91
- 3. In 1994, Fred Spoor of London's Global University and his team carried out a wide-ranging study on the *Australopithecus* skeleton to arrive at a definitive conclusion. The study was performed on an organ in the ear known as the cochlea which determines the body's position relative to the ground. Spoor reached the conclusion that *Australopithecus did not walk in the same manner as human beings.* 92
- 4. In 2000, Brian. G. Richmond and David. S. Strait discussed the bones in the *Australopithecus* forearm in a study published in *Nature*

magazine. Comparative anatomical studies showed that this species had the same forearm anatomy as present-day quadripedal apes.93

Indeed, years before the famous evolutionist Richard Leakey said that the Australopithecine manner of walking resembled that of monkeys:

The Rudolf Australopithecines, in fact, may have been close to the "knuckle-walker" condition, not unlike the extant African apes 94

Christine Berg, instructor at Washington University School of Medicine, concluded in a 1994 article in the Journal of Human Evolution that the walk and posture of Australopithecus were very different from those of human beings:

The present results lead to the conclusion that the bipedalism of the Australopithecus must have differed from that of Homo. Not only did Australopithecus have less ability to maintain hip and knee extension during the walk, but also probably moved the pelvis and lower limb differently. It seems that the australopithecine walk differed significantly from that of humans, involving a sort of waddling gait, with large rotary movements of the pelvis and shoulders around the vertebral column. Such a walk, likely required a greater energetic cost than does human bipedalism.95

Professor Peter Andrews, of the London Natural History Museum Paleontology Department, states that Australopithecines exhibit more ape-like features and that their foot structure is suited to living in the trees. In his article in Nature magazine, Professor Andrews says:

Developmental patterns were also more ape-like than human. Whether they were phylogenetically hominines or not, it seems to me that ecologically they may still be considered as apes.96

Professor Charles E. Oxnard also accepts that Australopithecines cannot represent a transitional form and are not human-like, but rather constitute a unique group:

In each case although initial studies suggest that the fossils are similar to humans, or at the worst intermediate between humans and African apes, study of the complete fossils clearly differ more from both humans and African apes, than do these two living groups from each other. The australopithecines are unique. 97

That Australopithecus cannot be regarded as an ancestor of man is also accepted by the well-known French magazine Science et Vie and other similar publications. The magazine took the subject as the cover story of its May 1999 edition, which dealt with Lucy, regarded as the most important fossil specimen of the species Australopithecus

afarensis. Under the headline "Adieu Lucy" ("Farewell, Lucy"), the article stated that the Australopithecus apes were not the ancestors of humans and needed to be removed from the human evolutionary tree.98

One final discovery revealing the invalidity of the thesis that *Australopithecus* walked on two legs was encountered in the Bwindi jungle in Uganda. The University of Liverpool researcher Robin Crompton discovered that chimpanzees here walk on two legs. In a report in the newspaper *The Scotsman* under the caption "Chimps on Two Legs Run Through Darwin's Theory," Crompton comments that: "This is contrary to the accepted idea that we evolved from chimpanzees which were knuckle-walking—or walking around on all fours."99

As you see, there's no reason to regard *Australopithecus* as the ancestor of Man. Creatures belonging to this species are merely an extinct species of ape.

Homo habilis

That the skeleton and skull of Australopithecus are virtually identical to those of chimpanzees, and the sound evidence disproving the theory that they walked upright left evolutionist paleontologists in a rather difficult position, because in their imaginary scheme, Australopithecus was followed by Homo erectus. As its Latin name suggests, Homo erectus is of the human genus, and its skeleton is completely upright, with a skull volume up to twice as large as that of Australopithecus. Even according to the theory of evolution, it is impossible for there to be any direct transition from a chimpanzee-like ape species such as Australopithecus to H. erectus with its skeletal structure indistinguishable from that of modern humans.

Links, or in other words transitional forms, are therefore necessary. The concept of *H. habilis* was born of that necessity.

The classification of *H. habilis* was first suggested in the 1960s by the Leakey family of fossil hunters. According to the Leakeys, this new species possessed the ability to walk upright, a relatively large brain volume, and the ability to use stone and wooden implements—and might therefore be an ancestor of Man.

In the mid-1980s, however, newly discovered fossils belonging to the same species altered this view entirely. Based on these fossils, researchers such as Bernard Wood and Loring Brace said that the classification *Australopithecus habilis*, meaning "tool-using South African ape," should be employed instead of *H. habilis*, which means "tool-using human." This was because *H. habilis* shared a great many features with the apes of the *Australopithecus genus*. Just like an *Australopithecus*, it possessed a long-armed, short-legged and ape-like skeletal structure. Its hands and feet were suited to climbing. Its jaw structure completely resembled those of present-day apes. Its brain volume of 630 cubic centimeters was another indication that this was an ape species. In short, *H. habilis*, depicted by some as a transitional form, was actually an extinct species of ape—like all other Australopithecines.

Research in subsequent years revealed that *H. habilis* was in fact a creature no different from *Australopithecus*. The fossil skeleton and skull referred to as OH62, discovered by Tim White in 1984, showed that like modern apes, this species had a small brain volume, long arms useful for climbing, and short legs.

Detailed analyses by the American anthropologist Holly Smith in 1994 again showed that *H. habilis* was actually an ape, not a human being. After her analysis of the teeth of the species *Australopithecus*, *H. habilis*, *H. erectus* and *H. neandertalensis*, Smith said the following:

Restricting analysis of fossils to specimens satisfying these criteria, patterns of dental development of gracile australopithecines and Homo habilis remain classified with African apes. Those of Homo erectus and Neanderthals are classified with humans.100

That same year, Fred Spoor, Bernard Wood and Frans Zonneveld arrived at the same conclusion by a very different method, based on comparative analyses of the semi-spherical canals in the inner ear of apes and human beings that serve to establish balance. Spoor, Wood and Zonneveld summarized how the first fossils to exhibit human morphology belong to the Homo erectus group, but that Australopithecus—and Paranthropus, known as A. robustus—exhibit classic ape characteristics:

Among the fossil hominids the earliest species to demonstrate the modern human morphology is Homo erectus. In contrast, the semicircular canal dimensions in crania from southern Africa attributed to Australopithecus and Paranthropus resemble those of the extant great apes 101

In their study of the H. habilis fossil Stw 53, Spoor, Wood and Zonneveld found, surprisingly, that "Stw 53 displayed less two-legged behaviour than Australopithecines." This meant that the H. habilis specimen resembled an ape far more than did Australopithecus. These

researchers therefore concluded that Stw 53 represents an unlikely intermediate between the morphologies seen in the Australopithecines and H. erectus. 102

In a 1999 article published in *Science*, Wood and Collard repeated the conclusion arrived at:

We present a revised definition, based on verifiable criteria, for Homo and conclude that two species, Homo habilis and Homo rudolfensis, do not belong in the genus. 103

As a result of their own research, some scientists such as S. Hartwig-Scherer and R. D. Martin stated that H. habilis exhibited far more ape-like features than Australopithecus:

Based on the length of the femur in relation to the length of the humerus (humerofemoral index), the emerging picture is that H. habilis has humerofemoral proportions similar to living African apes...104

Ian Tattersall, in a paper titled "The Many Faces of Homo habilis," makes this comment:

It is increasingly clear that Homo habilis has become a wastebasket taxon, little more than a convenient recipient for a motley assortment of hominid fossils. 105

To summarize the outcome of all these findings, two important conclusions may be set out:

- (1) The fossils known as Homo habilis are actually part of the class Australopithecus, not of the class Homo.
- (2) Both H. and Australopithecus walked bent over and had the skeletons of monkeys. They have nothing to do with human beings, and are not transitional forms in the so-called human evolutionary tree.

Homo erectus

Homo erectus means "erect-walking man." Evolutionists have had to distinguish these humans from earlier ones with the appellation erect. That is because all the H. erectus fossils obtained are upright, unlike Australopithecus or H. habilis: There is no difference between the modern human skeleton and that of H. erectus.

One of the major grounds for evolutionists declaring *H. erectus* as "primitive" is its small brain volume (900 to 1,100 cubic centimeters) compared to the average for man living today, its narrow forehead and thick eyebrows. However, many people alive in the world today have the same average skull dimension as *H. erectus* (pygmies, for instance). And various modern races also have narrow foreheads and protruding eyeridges (native Australians, or Aborigines, for example).

It is an established fact that differences in skull volume constitute no difference in terms of intelligence and ability. Intelligence does not vary according to brain size, but according to its internal organization.106

The fossils that introduced *H. erectus* to the world were those of Peking Man and Java Man, both discovered in Asia. Over time, however, it was realized that these two remains were not reliable. Peking Man consisted only of plaster models, the original having been lost. All that remained of Java Man was a piece of skull and a pelvic bone found several dozen meters away: There was no indication that these had belonged to the same creature. For that reason the *H. erectus* fossils discovered in Africa gained increasing importance.

Examination of the Turkana Boy, the best-known of these *H. erectus* fossils discovered in Africa, revealed that there was no difference between *H. erectus* and present-day Man.

Even the evolutionist paleontologist Richard Leakey stated that the difference between *H. erectus* and present-day Man goes no further than racial difference:

One would also see differences: in the shape of the skull, in the degree of protrusion of the face, the robustness of the brows and so on. These differences are probably no more pronounced than we see today between the separate geographical races of modern humans. Such biological variation arises when populations are geographically separated from each other for significant lengths of time.107

Professor William Laughlin of University of Connecticut spent years performing anatomical research on the Inuit (formerly known as Eskimos) and the people of the Aleutian Islands, and saw that these people bore a surprising resemblance to H. erectus. Laughlin concluded that all these "species" were in reality different races of H. sapiens—or present-day Man:

When we consider the vast differences that exist between remote groups such as Eskimos and Bushmen, who are known to belong within the single species of Homo sapiens, it seems justifiable to conclude that Sinanthropus belongs within this same diverse species.108

Increasingly, scientific magazines are referring to H. erectus as being an artificial classification, and to the fossils included within the category H. erectus as insufficiently different from H. sapiens to be considered a separate species. American Scientist summarizes the debate on the issue and the outcome of a conference held in 2000:

. . . most of the participants at the Senckenberg conference got drawn into a flaming debate over the taxonomic status of Homo erectus, started by Milford Wolpoff of the University of Michigan, Alan Thorne of the University of Canberra and their colleagues. They argued forcefully that Homo erectus had no validity as a species and should be eliminated altogether. All members of the genus Homo, from about 2 million years ago to the present, were one highly variable, widely spread species, Homo sapiens, with no natural breaks or subdivisions. The subject of the conference, Homo erectus, didn't exist. 109

Scientists who support this thesis reached the conclusion that H. erectus is not a different species, but a race within Homo sapiens.

There is a huge gulf between *H. erectus*, a human race, and the apes that precede it in the "human evolution" scenario (Australopithecus, H. habilis and H. rudolfensis). To put it another way, the first humans identified in the fossil record appeared suddenly and simultaneously, with no evolutionary process.

Homo sapiens archaic, Homo heilderbergensis and Cro-Magnon

In the imaginary evolutionary tree, H. sapiens archaic represents the stage before modern day Man. In fact, there is little to say about this subspecies from the point of view of evolution, since they are distinguished from modern day Man by only very minor differences. Indeed, some researchers point to the native people of Australia, saying that representatives of this race (H. sapiens archaic) are still alive today. Like that race, native Australians have thick bones behind the eyebrows, an undershot jaw and a slightly smaller brain volume. Furthermore, a number of very serious findings show that in the very recent past, these people also lived in some villages in Hungary and Italy.

The class called *Homo heilderbergensis* in evolutionist literature is actually the same thing as *H. sapiens archaic*. The reason for this use of two different names to describe the same human race is differences of opinion amongst evolutionists. All the fossils classed under *H. heilderbergensis* show that people closely resembling modern Europeans, anatomically speaking, lived in England and Spain 500,000 and even 780,000 years ago.

Cro-Magnon man is estimated to have lived up to some 30,000 years ago. This race possessed a dome-shaped head and a broad forehead. Their skull volume of 1600 cubic centimeters is greater than

the modern day average. There are large eyebrow protrusions in the skull and at the back, a bony protrusion typical of Neanderthal Man and *H. erectus*.

Cro-Magnons are regarded as a European race, yet the structure and volume of their skulls more closely resemble those of certain races living today in Africa and tropical climates. Based on this similarity, Cro-Magnon man is believed to be an ancient race originating in Africa. A number of other paleoanthropological findings show that the Cro-Magnon man and Neanderthal races interbred, forming the rootstock of some modern day races.

In conclusion, these people are neither "primitive species" nor transitional forms, but different races of humans who lived in the past and either fused and were assimilated with other races, or else became extinct.

Human beings are always human beings in the fossil record, and apes are always apes,

As we have shown so far, information obtained from the fossil record shows that the human "evolution" scenario has no scientific foundations. What is found in the fossil record is fossil remains of either human beings, or else of apes. There is no trace of the transitional forms hoped for by evolutionists. Indeed, no mechanism exists in nature that might bring about such an evolution. The theory of evolution is unable even to explain how a single protein molecule could have arisen by chance, and it is definitely out of the question for it to account for the evolution, as a result of chance mutations, of human beings, with their complex bodies, ability to think, rejoice, decide, comprehend, take pleasure from art and beauty, compose music, write books, and all their other characteristics.

In short, there is no evidence that human beings came into existence through evolution. Such a gradual change is in any case impossible. The fact that evolutionists are unwilling to accept that fact alters nothing. The Creator of Man is not blind chance, but Almighty God, the Great and Mighty, Lord of the Worlds.

False Transitional Forms

Despite this lack of transitional-form fossils, which are so important for the theory of evolution, books, magazines and some textbooks still make references to "transitional forms." Many of these—

Archaeopteryx or Lucy—for instance, have become emblems for the theory of evolution. One sometimes encounters headlines in newspapers and magazines to the effect that "The Missing Link has been Found." Such reports claim that some newly discovered fossil represents the transitional form that evolutionists have been seeking all these years. That being so, then what are these transitional fossils?

As this chapter will show, most of the so-called transitional forms are in reality nothing of the sort. They are all fossils of unique and fully developed species, having no ancestral relationship with any other species. Using biased interpretations and fraudulent methods, however, evolutionists depict these as transitional forms. But as you shall see, all these so-called transitional forms are the subject of debate among evolutionists themselves. Indeed, even some evolutionists who don't hesitate to face facts declare that these are not transitional forms at all!

The Coelacanth

Belonging to the class Osteichthyes, this is a large species of fish some 150 centimeters (59 inches) long and covered in thick scale resembling armor plating. Its first fossil remains are found in strata from the Devonian Period, 408 to 360 million years old. Until 1938, many evolutionist ichthyologists assumed that this creature had walked along the sea bed, using its two pairs of giant fins, and that it represented a transitional form between sea and land animals. To support these claims, evolutionists pointed to the bony structures in the fins of the coelacanth fossils in their possession.

A development in that year, however, totally undermined these claims. A living coelacanth was caught in the sea of Madagascar! Moreover, studies on this species, thought to have disappeared at least 70 million years ago, showed that it had undergone *no changes at all for 400 million years*.

In its April 2003 issue, *Focus* magazine described the astonishment this caused:

Even the discovery of a living dinosaur would have been less surprising. Because fossils show that the coelacanth existed 150-200 million years before the appearance of the dinosaurs. The creature put forward by many scientists as the ancestor of land-dwelling vertebrates, believed to have disappeared at least 70 million years ago, had been found 110

Subsequent years saw the capture of another 200 or so living coelacanths (Latimera chalumnae). It was realized that these fish, which had remained completely unaltered, lived at depths of 150 to 600 meters (.093 to .372 of a mile) and possessed a perfect body design. In 1987, Professor Hans Fricke of the Max Planck Institute descended in the mini-sub Geo to a depth of 200 meters (.124 of a mile) near the Comoro islands to the east of Africa and observed these fish in their natural environment. He saw that their bony fins had no function equivalent to the extensions in tetrapods (four-legged land animals) that allow them to walk on land.

Focus magazine described the result of his study:

The flexible fins had no similar functions to those in four-footed land vertebrates. These allowed the creature to swim head-down and in all directions, even backwards. 111

The coelacanth, showing no trace of any changes over 400 million years, left evolutionists in a difficult position. Also bearing in mind the continental drift that's occurred over that 400-million-year period, evolutionists appear to be in a terrible predicament. Focus writes:

According to the scientific facts, all the continents were joined together some 250 million years ago. This enormous area of land was surrounded by a single giant ocean. Around 125 million years ago, the Indian Ocean opened up as the result of continents changing places. The volcanic caves in the Indian Ocean, which form a large part of the coelacanth's natural habitat, came about under the influence of this movement of continents. An important truth emerges in the light of all these facts. These animals, which have been in existence for some 400 million years, have remained unchanged despite the many changes in their natural environment!112

The fact that the coelacanth remained unchanged for 400 million years clearly contradicts the thesis that new species came into being through evolution and are constantly undergoing an evolutionary process.

Moreover, the coelacanth reveals a deep gulf between land and sea creatures, which the theory of evolution links together with an imaginary transition. As Professor Keith P. Thomson writes in his book, *The Story of the Coelacanth:*

For example, the first coelacanth certainly had the same rostral organ, intracranial joint, paired fins, vertebral column, hollow notochord, and reduced teeth . . . as a whole has not evolved much

since the Devonian, but it also tells us that there is a big gap in the record: We are missing the sequence of even older ancestral fossil.113

The Coelacanth's Complex Structure Refutes Evolution

In addition to the fact that the coelacanth appeared suddenly with no evolutionary ancestor behind it and underwent no changes over millions of years, the fish's complex body structure also faces evolutionists with a difficult predicament. Professor Michael Bruton, director of the world- famous JLB Smith Institute in South Africa, describes the coelacanth as a very complex creature:

Birth is one of the complex features of these creatures. **Coelacanths** give birth to their young. The orange-sized eggs hatch inside the fish. Furthermore, there is evidence that they are nourished by an organ resembling the placenta in the mother's body. In addition to providing oxygen and nutrients from the mother to the young, the placenta is a complex structure which also disposes of waste products. Fossil embryos from the Carboniferous Period (360-290 million years ago) show that this complex system existed before the appearance of mammals.114

In addition, the discovery that coelacanths are sensitive to electromagnetic fields around them indicates the existence of a complex sensory system. Looking at the arrangement of the nerves that connect the fish's rostal organ to the brain, scientists agree that it serves to detect electromagnetic fields. Taken together with the other complex structures, that this organ is found in even the oldest coelacanth fossils poses a problem that evolutionists cannot resolve. Focus magazine expresses this in the following terms:

According to fossils, fish emerged some 470 million years ago. The coelacanth emerged 60 million years after that. It is astonishing that this creature, which would be expected to possess very primitive features, actually has a most complex structure.115

These are real lethal blows to the theory of evolution: The presence of the placenta-like organ and the complex structure for perceiving electromagnetic currents—in such perfect form, in such ancient periods—clearly reveals that there was no evolutionary process from the simple to the complex in this fish's natural history, as the theory of evolution would have us believe.

Another Blow to Evolution Theory from the Coelacanth: Blood Characteristics

In 1966, one coelacanth was frozen immediately after being caught. Scientists who studied the fish's blood were astonished to find the coelacanth had blood like a shark's!

All bony fish apart from the coelacanth meet their need for water by drinking sea water and expelling the excess salt from their bodies. The system in the coelacanth's body, however, is like that of the shark, a member of the cartilaginous fish family (Chondrichthyes). The shark converts the ammonia released as a result of protein breakdown into urea, and maintains levels of urea in its blood that would be lethal to human beings. It regulates the levels of these substances according to the salinity of the surrounding water. And since the blood reaches an isotonic level with sea water—when the osmotic pressures of the water inside and outside are equalized, and they achieve the same density—there is no loss of water from shark tissues to the outside.

It was also revealed that the coelacanth's liver possess the necessary enzymes to create urea. In other words, this fish possesses unique blood characteristics not found in any other species in its class and which appeared in sharks only tens of millions of years later.

According to *Focus*, Professor Keith S. Thomson described the discovery of the coelacanth's shark-like blood as "an evolutionary problem." The magazine then stated further that, based on molecular analyses, that no evolutionary link could be established between sharks, of the cartilaginous fish class, and coelacanths, members of the bony fish class. No evolutionary account can explain the similarity between the two species. Even molecular analyses—to which evolutionists generally resort in accounting for similarities—serve no purpose here. The only possible explanation is that these animals were created, by God.

Seymouria

Some evolutionists refer to this species of amphibian as "the ancestor of reptiles." But with the discovery that reptiles were around 30 million before that species first appeared on Earth, it emerged that *Seymouria* is no transitional form. The oldest *Seymouria* fossils date back to the Lower Permian Period—280 million years ago. Yet the oldest

known reptile species, *Hylonomus* and *Palaeothyris*, were found in Lower Pennsylvanian strata, which date back 330 to 315 million years ago.116 It is of course impossible for the ancestor of reptiles to have lived long after them.

Therapsida

Therapsids are a species that evolutionists portray as a transitional form between reptiles and mammals—an invalid claim, which we can briefly review.

Fossils belonging to the order Therapsida do not confirm evolutionists' claims. First of all, Therapsids do not appear in the fossil record in the chronological order Darwinism expects. In order for evolutionists' claims to be true, Therapsida fossils should trace a line from the fully reptilian jaw to the fully mammalian one. Yet no such progression can be seen in the fossil record.

In his book *Darwin on Trial*, the well-known critic of Darwinism, Philip Johnson makes the following comment:

An artificial line of descent [between reptiles and mammals] can be constructed, but only by arbitrarily mixing specimens from different subgroups, and by arranging them out of their actual chronological sequence.117

The only feature common to both Therapsids and mammals are their ear and jaw bones. Considering the differences between the reptile and mammalian reproductive systems and other organs, the question of how reptiles might have evolved into mammals is a long way from being answered. The further one investigates, the more complicated the situation becomes. How could mammals—a group including such different species as primates, horses, bats, whales, polar bears, squirrels and ruminants—have evolved from reptiles by means of mutations and natural selection? This question goes unanswered.

Archaeopteryx

Archaeopteryx, which lived some 150 million years ago, is the species animal most often put forward by evolutionists as evidence for evolution. A great many of them suggest that Archaeopteryx is an extinct transitional form, exhibiting both reptile and bird characteristics. However, such modern evolutionist authorities as Alan Feduccia discount this claim as false.

The latest studies on fossils of *Archaeopteryx* have revealed that this was no transitional form, but a species of bird, with a few features slightly different from those of birds living today.

Herewith, some evolutionist claims regarding *Archaeopteryx* as a transitional form, and answers to them:

1. The subsequently discovered breastbone: Until recently, *Archaeopteryx* was portrayed as having no sternum or breastbone, which lack was put forward as most important evidence that it was unable to fly. (The breastbone lies under the rib cage and is where the muscles essential for flight are attached. All modern-day bird, flying or flightless, and even bats, which belongs to a family very different from birds, have breastbones.)

The seventh *Archaeopteryx* fossil discovered in 1992 proved, however, that this argument was false. That fossil did in fact possess the breastbone which up until then, evolutionists had discounted.118

This discovery removed the fundamental basis of the claims that *Archaeopteryx* was a semi-bird, and flightless.

2. The structure of its feathers: One of the most important pieces of evidence that *Archaeopteryx* was able to fly is the bird's feather structure. Its asymmetrical feather structure, identical to that of modern-day birds, shows that it was capable of perfect flight. As stated by the well-known paleontologist Carl O. Dunbar, "because of its feathers [*Archæopteryx* is] distinctly to be classed as a bird."119

The paleontologist Robert Carroll offers this explanation on the subject:

The geometry of the flight feathers of Archæopteryx is identical with that of modern flying birds, whereas nonflying birds have symmetrical feathers. The way in which the feathers are arranged on the wing also falls within the range of modern birds . . . According to Van Tyne and Berger, the relative size and shape of the wing of Archæopteryx are similar to that of birds that move through restricted openings in vegetation, such as gallinaceous birds, doves, woodcocks, woodpeckers, and most passerine birds. . . . The flight feathers have been in stasis for at least 150 million years. 120

3. The claws on its wings and the teeth in its beak: Evolutionists formerly considered the fact that Archaeopteryx had claws on its wings and teeth in its mouth as one of the major proofs that it

was a transitional form. Yet these features do not demonstrate any relationship between this animal and reptiles. Two modern-day species of bird, Touraco corythaix and Opisthocomus hoazin, also have claws that help them to cling onto branches. These animals are fully-fledged birds, with no reptilian features. The argument that Archaeopteryx must be a transitional form because it had claws is therefore invalid.

Neither do the teeth in *Archaeopteryx's* mouth make it a transitional form. Evolutionists are wrong to suggest that these teeth are a reptilian characteristic. Some modern-day reptiles have teeth, but others do not. More importantly, species of toothed birds are not limited to *Archaeopteryx*. Though they are no longer alive today, when we look at the fossil record—at the same period as *Archaeopteryx*, afterward, or even at very recent history—we find a separate bird group that we may refer to as toothed birds.

More important is that the tooth structure of *Archaeopteryx* and other birds is very different from that of dinosaurs, these birds' so-called ancestors. According to measurements by such well-known ornithologists as L. D. Martin, J. D. Stewart and K. N. Whetstone, *Archaeopteryx* and other birds' teeth are flat-topped and broad-rooted. On the other hand, the teeth of the Theropod dinosaurs, claimed to have been the ancestors of birds, are irregularly topped and narrow-rooted.121 The same researchers also compared the wrist bones of *Archaeopteryx* and its alleged Theropod ancestors, revealing that there was no similarity between them.122

Similarities between this creature and dinosaurs suggested by John Ostrom, one of the most eminent authorities to claim that *Archaeopteryx* evolved from dinosaurs, were revealed by such anatomists as S. Tarsitano, M. K. Hecht and A. D. Walker to be false interpretations.123

- **4. Archaeopteryx's ear structure:** A. D. Walker studied the ear structure of *Archaeopteryx* and stated that it was the same as that in present-day birds.124
- **5.** Archaeopteryx's wings: J. Richard Hinchcliffe of the University of Wales Biological Sciences Department used modern isotopic techniques in his study of embryos and established that the three dinosaur digits on the forelimbs are I-II-III, whereas bird wing digits are II-III-IV. This is a major difficulty for the proponents of the so-

called *Archaeopteryx-dinosaur* link.125 Hinchcliffe's research and observations were carried in the famous magazine *Science* in 1977:

Doubts about homology between theropod and bird digits remind us of some of the other problems in the "dinosaur-origin" hypothesis. These include the following: (i) The much smaller theropod forelimb (relative to body size) in comparison with the Archaeopteryx wing. Such small limbs are not convincing as proto-wings for a ground-up origin of flight in the relatively heavy dinosaurs. (ii) The rarity in theropods of the semilunate wrist bone, known in only four species (including Deinonychus). Most theropods have relatively large numbers of wrist elements, difficult to homologize with those of Archaeopteryx. (iii) The temporal paradox that most theropod dinosaurs and in particular the birdlike dromaeosaurs are all very much later in the fossil record than Archaeopteryx.126

6. Incompatible timing: The incompatible timing identified by Hinchcliffe is one of the most lethal blows dealt to evolutionists' claims regarding Archaeopteryx. In his book Icons of Evolution, published in 2000, the American biologist Jonathan Wells emphasizes how Archaeopteryx was made into an icon for the theory of evolution, even though the evidence showed that it was not a primitive ancestor of birds at all. One of the indications of this, according to Wells, is that the Theropod dinosaurs suggested as the ancestors of Archaeopteryx are actually younger than it:

But two-legged reptiles that ran along the ground, and had other features one might expect in an ancestor of Archaeopteryx, appear later. 127

This all goes to show that Archaeopteryx is not a transitional form, but merely belongs to a separate classification, which may be described as toothed birds. Building a relationship between this animal and theropods is exceedingly inconsistent. In an article called "Demise of the 'Birds are Dinosaurs' Theory," the American biologist Richard L. Deem had this to say about the idea of the so-called bird-dinosaur evolution and Archaeopteryx:

The results of the recent studies show that the hands of the theropod dinosaurs are derived from digits I, II, and III, whereas the wings of birds, although they look alike in terms of structure, are derived from digits II, III, and IV . . . There are other problems with the "birds are dinosaurs" theory. The theropod forelimb is much smaller (relative to body size) than that of Archaeopteryx. The small "proto-

wing" of the theropod is not very convincing, especially considering the rather hefty weight of these dinosaurs. The vast majority of the theropods lack the semilunate wrist bone, and have a large number of other wrist elements which have no homology to the bones of Archaeopteryx. In addition, in almost all theropods, nerve V1 exits the braincase out the side, along with several other nerves, whereas in birds, it exits out the front of the braincase, through its own hole There is also the minor problem that the vast majority of the theropods appeared after the appearance of Archaeopteryx. 128

7. Other ancient bird fossils: Some recently discovered fossils reveal other aspects of the invalidity of the evolutionist scenario with regard to Archaeopteryx.

In 1995, two research paleontologists from the Vertebrate Paleontology Institute in China, Lianhai Hou and Zhonghe Zhou, discovered a new bird fossil they named *Confuciusornis*. This bird, 140 million years old, more or less the same age as the 150- million-year-old *Archaeopteryx*, had no teeth, and its beak and feathers exhibited the same features as modern birds. On the wings of this bird—with its skeletal structure the same as those of birds of today— were claws like those of *Archaeopteryx*. The structures known as pygostyles, which support the tail feathers, could also be seen.129

In short, this creature, more or less the same age as *Archaeopteryx*, regarded by evolutionists as the oldest ancestor of all birds and as a semi-reptile, bore a close resemblance to modern-day birds. This conflicts with the evolutionist thesis that *Archaeopteryx* is the primitive ancestor of all birds.

Another fossil, found in China in November 1996, confused matters even more. The existence of this 130 million-year-old bird, known as *Liaoningornis*, was announced by L. Hou, L. D. Martin and Alan Feduccia in a paper in *Science* magazine.

Liaoningornis possessed a breastbone to which the flight muscles cling in modern birds. It was also identical to them in almost all other respects. The only difference was that it had teeth in its mouth. This demonstrated that toothed birds did not possess the primitive structure claimed by evolutionists. 130

Another fossil which tore down evolutionists' claims concerning Archaeopteryx was Eoalulavis. Some 25 to 30 million years younger than Archaeopteryx, at 120 million years of age, Eoalulavis had the same wing structure as some flying birds today. This proved that

creatures identical in many respects to modern birds were flying in the skies 120 million years ago.131

In 2002, Ricardo N. Melchor, Silvina de Valais and Jorge F. Genise announced in *Nature* magazine that they had found footprints belonging to birds which had lived 55 million years before *Archaeopteryx*:

The known history of birds starts in the Late Jurassic epoch (around 150 Myr ago) with the record of Archaeopteryx. Here we describe well-preserved and abundant footprints with clearly avian characters from a Late Triassic redbed sequence of Argentina at least 55 Myr before the first known skeletal record of birds.132

It was thus definitively demonstrated that Archaeopteryx and other archaic birds did not constitute transitional forms. The fossils did not indicate that different bird species had evolved from one another. On the contrary, they proved that modern birds and certain Archaeopteryx-like species lived together. Some of these birds, such as Confuciusornis and Archaeopteryx, went extinct, and only a limited number came down to the present day.

Jeholornis

One bird fossil, found in China and given the name *Jeholornis*, had a long tail. This led some evolutionists to portray it as evidence that birds had evolved from dinosaurs. The fact is, however, that many species in nature may share similar features with another species, and not even evolutionists can build an ancestral links among most of them.

The octopus's eye, for instance, bears a close resemblance to the human eye. Yet not even evolutionists suggest that there is any evolutionary link between the two. Like birds or bats, flies also have wings, yet it is impossible, even for evolutionists, to propose an evolutionary link among them. For that reason, the fact that there are certain similarities between dinosaurs and birds cannot be used as evidence that the former are the ancestors of the latter.

Professor Alan Feduccia, an ornithologist who has for years opposed the theory that birds evolved from dinosaurs and has revealed the errors in that thesis, offers the following analysis, despite being an evolutionist himself:

If one views a chicken skeleton and a dinosaur skeleton through binoculars they appear similar, but close and detailed examination reveals many difference. Theropod dinosaurs, for example, had curved, serrated teeth, but the earliest birds had straight, unserrated peg-like teeth. They also had a different method of tooth implantation and replacement.133

In addition, mosaic creatures are known to contain features of different groups. Even prominent evolutionist authorities such as Stephen Jay Gould accept that these are not evidence for the theory of evolution.134

The Australian platypus, for instance, has mammalian, reptilian and avian features at the same time. Yet evolutionists are unable to offer an explanation of this animal in terms of their theory. The fact that a bird has a long tail is no proof that it evolved from dinosaurs. The creatures the theory of evolution needs to find as proofs are genuine transitional forms, not mosaics. Transitional forms should have organs which are deficient, missing, half-formed or not fully functional. By contrast, all the organs of mosaic creatures are fully formed and flawless.

Jeholornis, for instance, is a complete, powerful flying bird. Furthermore, this fossil was identified as being 100 million years old. Some 50 million years before this bird, there were other flying specimens, such as *Archaeopteryx*. To maintain that birds' half-dinosaur, half-bird ancestors lived 50 million years after them is not, of course, logical.

Microraptor gui

In January 2003, a 130-million-year-old fossil called *Microraptor gui* was announced to the world. It was suggested that this fossil belonged to a four-winged dinosaur which glided from tree to tree, and that this discovery confirmed that birds had evolved from dinosaurs. However, scientists soon announced that the new species did not constitute evidence to support this claim.

For example, "Lord of the Wings," an article by Christopher P. Sloan that appeared in the May 2003 edition of *National Geographic* magazine, stated that *Microraptor gui* continued to puzzle evolutionists and that many scientists took the view that this creature was flightless. Sloan writes:

But the Chinese team that studied M. gui, led by Xu Xing and Zhou Zhonghe of the Institute of Vertebrate Paleontology and Paleoanthropology, doesn't think this animal ran or flapped well enough to take off. Its leg feathers would've tripped it up like a hurdler in a ball gown.

Instead, the ample feathers could have formed an airfoil or parachute similar to those of flying squirrels and other tree-dwelling gliders, the scientists say. 135

Other scientists also object to the thesis that this creature began to fly while gliding from tree to tree: They do not regard it as reasonable for these creatures to waste energy by beating their wings when there was an easier alternative. Other researchers also maintain that Microraptor gui's feet feathers were unsuited to flight, even by gliding.

In short, the dino-bird theory is a dogma kept alive by means of propaganda and preconception. As we have seen in the example of *Microraptor gui*, speculation along those lines has eventually been disproved and condemned to abandonment.

Sinovenator changii is not the Ancestor of Birds

Evolutionists suggest that the 130 million year old dinosaur fossil *Sinovenator changii*, discovered in China, is the ancestor of birds. Yet the oldest known bird, *Archaeopteryx*, lived 150 million years ago; in other words it is 20 million years older than the fossil in question. That being so, it's impossible for *Sinovenator changii* to be the ancestor of birds, because it lived at the same time as birds which have the same features as modern-day birds, and even 20 million years after them.

Although no feathers were found in *Sinovenator changii's* fossil, some evolutionists assume that it was probably feathered. As a basis for that assumption, they point to the fact that other dinosaur fossils are feathered in the same region where this fossil was found.

Despite no feathers being found on the fossil, assuming that it was actually feathered and concluding from this that dinosaurs are definitely the ancestors of birds is of course not scientific. Moreover, even the feathers on dinosaur fossils previously found in the Yixian Region are debatable. Many scientists agree that the structures seen in these fossils are not feathers.

None of the possible feathered dinosaurs is a certainty. Even if some feather-like structures are found in fossils of these creatures, it has not been established that these really were feathers. As we saw in preceding pages, authorities such as Feduccia maintain that these are collagen fibers—and that it's a grave error to regard them as feathers.136

The Myth of Equine Evolution

In the field of the origin of mammals, the myth of equine evolution has for long been the foundation of Darwinists' arguments. This is all a myth, however, based on imagination rather than scientific facts.

Until recently, dramatizations of the evolution of the horse headed the evidence for the theory of evolution. Today, however, many evolutionists openly admit the invalidity of the equine evolution scenario. A four-day meeting at the Chicago Museum of Natural History in November 1980, attended by 15 evolutionists, considered the problems of the theory of gradual evolution. One speaker, Boyce Rensberger, described how the portrayal of the horse's evolution had no scientific foundations:

The popularly told example of horse evolution, suggesting a gradual sequence of changes from four-toed fox-sized creatures living nearly 50 million years ago to today's much larger one-toed horse, has long been known to be wrong. Instead of gradual changes, fossils of each intermediate species appear fully distinct, persist unchanged, and then become extinct. Transitional forms are unknown.137

In expressing this important problem in such an honest manner, Rensberger was saying that the gravest dilemma facing the whole theory in the fossil record was that of transitional forms.

The well-known evolutionist paleontologist Niles Eldredge of New York's American National History Museum, says the following about this scenario:

I admit that an awful lot of that [imaginary story] has gotten into the textbooks as though it were true. For instance, the most famous example still on exhibit downstairs [in the American Museum] is the exhibit on horse evolution prepared perhaps 50 years ago. That has been presented as literal truth in textbook after textbook. Now I think that is lamentable.138

So, what is the foundation of the equine evolution hypothesis? The exhibits consisted of setting out, from small to large, of fossils belonging to different species that lived in India, South America, North America and Europe at very different times, arranged in the light of the power of evolutionists' imaginations. Various researchers have proposed more than 20 charts of the evolution of the horse—which, by the way, are totally different from one other. There is no agreement among evolutionists concerning these very different family trees. The

only common feature in these classifications is the belief that a dog-like creature Eohippus or "dawn horse" (Hyracotherium), which lived in the Eocene period some 55 million years ago, was the first ancestor of the horse. However, Eohippus, which became extinct millions of years ago, is almost identical to the mammal known as the hyrax, which lives today in Africa and has no connection to horses at all.139

The invalidity of the claim of equine evolution is being seen more clearly every day with the discovery of new fossils. Fossils of horse breeds alive today (*Equus nevadensis* and *Equus occidentalis*) have been found in the same strata as *Eohippus*.140 This shows that the modern-day horse was alive at the same time as its alleged ancestor, and proves that the process of equine evolution never happened.

In his book *The Great Evolution Mystery*, which considers subjects which Darwinism is unable to explain, the evolutionist writer Gordon R. Taylor describes the essence of the horse-series myth:

But perhaps the most serious weakness of Darwinism is the failure of paleontologists to find convincing phylogenies or sequences of organisms demonstrating major evolutionary change. . . . The horse is often cited as the only fully worked-out example. But the fact is that the line from Eohippus to Equus is very erratic. It is alleged to show a continual increase in size, but the truth is that some variants were smaller than Eohippus, not larger. Specimens from different sources can be brought together in a convincing-looking sequence, but there is no evidence that they were actually ranged in this order in time.141

All this reveals that the plans of equine evolution, one of the soundest pieces of evidence for the theory of evolution, are imaginary and possessed of no validity whatsoever. Like other species, horses came into being with no evolutionary ancestors behind them.

Ramapithecus

Ramapithecus is regarded as one of the worst errors of the theory of evolution. This name was given to fossil remains found in India in 1932, which were claimed to represent the first step in the separation of human beings and apes, some 14 million years ago. Evolutionists used it as iron-clad evidence over the 50 years from its first discovery in 1932, until it was realized to be completely erroneous in 1982.

In the May 1977 edition of *Scientific American*, the American evolutionist Dr. Elwyn Simons wrote the following about *Ramapithecus:* "This extinct primate is the earliest hominid or distinctively man-like, member of man's family tree. The finding of many new specimens of it

has clarified its place in human evolution." He then added, with even greater confidence, "pathway can now be traced with little fear of contradiction from generalized hominids—to the genus Homo."142

The importance of *Ramapithecus* in human evolution was realized with an article Simons wrote for *Time* magazine in November 1977, in which he stated: "*Ramapithecus* is ideally structured to be an ancestor of hominids. If he isn't, we don't have anything else that is."143

An article by Dr. Robert B. Eckhardt, published in *Scientific American* in 1972, considered the conclusions from 24 different measurements of *Ramapithecus* teeth and those of *Dryopithecus* (an extinct species of gorilla). Dr. Eckhardt compared these measurements to ones he had previously taken from chimpanzees. According to these comparisons, the difference between the teeth of living chimpanzees was greater than that between *Ramapithecus* and *Dryopithecus*. Eckhardt summed up his conclusions:

Ramapithecus was once considered to be partially man-like, but is now known to be fully ape-like.144

Like Eckhardt, Richard Leakey had his doubts about Ramapithecus. According to Leakey, it was far too early to come to any definite decision about Ramapithecus, which consisted of a few jawbones. Leakey summarized his thoughts in these words: "The case for Ramapithecus as a hominid is not substantial, and the fragmentary material leaves many questions open." 145

Unlike the *U* shape in monkeys, the structure of the human jaw is parabolic (more V-shaped), in such a way as to permit speech, and this had been known for a long time. It was thought that *Ramapithecus* possessed a parabolic jaw like that of humans.

But the reconstructions made by Elwyn Simons in 1961, based on a piece of the *Ramapithecus* lower jaw and code-numbered YPM 13799, showed a totally parabolic structure in all teeth except for the incisors. That reconstruction was accepted by a number of authors and used in various studies. In 1969, however, Genet and Varcin showed that using the exact same fragments, different reconstructions could also be made with a U shape just like that in monkeys.. Furthermore, many living species of monkey possess the same characteristics as *Ramapithecus*. One baboon (Theropithecus galada) living at high elevations in Ethiopia is short, with a deep face and shorter incisors than other monkeys, just like *Ramapithecus* and the *Australopithcines*.

However, a 1982 article in *Science* magazine called "Humans Lose an Early Ancestor" declared that this new transitional form was erroneous and nothing more than an extinct orangutan:

A group of creatures once thought to be our oldest ancestors may have just been firmly bumped out of the human family tree, according to Harvard University paleontologist David Pilbeam. Many paleontologists have maintained that ramamorphs are our oldest known ancestors, evolving after we split away from the African apes. But these conclusions were drawn from little more than a few jaw bones and some teeth. The heavy jaw and thickly enameled teeth resemble those of early human ancestors," says Pilbeam, but in more significant aspects, such as the shape of its palate, the closely set eye sockets that are higher than they are broad, and the shape of the jaw joint, it looks more like an orangutan ancestor. 146

The Turkana Boy

The best-known of the *Homo erectus* fossils found in Africa is the so-called "Turkana Boy" discovered near lake Turkana in Kenya. The fossil is that of a 12-year-old child who, it is estimated, would have grown to a full height of 1.83 meters. The fossil's erect skeletal structure is identical to that of modern-day humans. The American paleontologist Alan Walker says that he doubts "the average pathologist could tell the difference between the fossil skeleton and that of a modern human". Walker says that he laughed when he saw the skull, because "it looked so much like a Neanderthal." 147 *Homo erectus* is, therefore, a modern human race.

The conclusion reached by scientists who support the above thesis can be summarized as follows: *H. erectus* is not a different species from *H. sapiens*, but a race within our species. There is a huge gulf between *H. erectus*, a human race, and the apes that precede it in the "human evolution" scenario: *Australopithecus*, *H. habilis* and *H. rudolfensis*). In other words, the first human fossils to appear in the fossil record emerge suddenly and at the same time, with no evolutionary process.

Lucy

This is the name of the famous fossil discovered in 1974 by the American anthropologist Donald Johanson. Many evolutionists have claimed that Lucy is a transitional form between man and his so-called ape-like ancestors. Subsequent studies, however, revealed that Lucy was merely an extinct species of ape.

Lucy represents a species belonging to the genus *Australopithecus*—an ape genus referred to earlier which has been revealed to have nothing to do with human evolution. This particular species (*Australopithecus afarensis*) has a brain the same size as that of chimpanzees, and its ribs and jawbone are exactly the same as those of present-day chimpanzees. Its arms and legs show that the creature walked in the same way as a chimpanzee. Even its pelvis resembles that of chimpanzees.148

Again, though evolutionists point to the ape-like features of creatures belonging to the *Australopithecus* group, of which Lucy is a part, they maintain that it had a human-like posture and gait. Yet research has shown that this is not the case. The Harvard anthropologist William Howells writes that Lucy's gait was not a transition towards that of human beings:

There is general agreement that Lucy's gait is not properly understood, and that it was not something simply transitional to ours.149

University of California professor of anthropology Adrienne Zihlman states that Lucy's fossil remains match up remarkably well with the bones of a pygmy chimp.150

In an article in *New Scientist*, Dr. Jeremy Cherfas says the following about Lucy's skull:

Lucy, alike Australopithecus afarensis, had a skull very like a chimpanzee's, and a brain to match.151

The French magazine Science et Vie gave Lucy a cover story in its May 1999 edition. The article titled "Adieu Lucy" ("Farewell to Lucy") wrote that apes of the Australopithecus genus needed to be removed from the human family tree. In this article, based on the finding of a new Australopithecus fossil, St W573, the following statements appeared:

A new theory states that the genus Australopithecus is not the root of the human race. . . . The results arrived at by the only woman authorized to examine St W573 are different from the normal theories regarding mankind's ancestors This destroys the hominid family tree. Large primates, considered the ancestors of man, have been removed

from the equation of this family tree. . . . Australopithecus and Homo (human) species do not appear on the same branch. Man's direct ancestors are still waiting to be discovered. 152

Another article by Tim Friend in USA Today made the following comment about Lucy (Australopithecus afarensis), who is portrayed as a direct ancestor of Man:

Lucy's scientific name is Australopithecus afarensis. She looked very similar to a modern bonobo chimpanzee, with a small brain, a protruding face and large molar teeth. But Lucy has been losing favor over the past 10 years as the direct ancestor of the genus Homo. Lucy has ape-like features not found in supposed descendants. 153

The article also devotes some space to the views of Smithsonian Museum of Natural History's "Origin of Man" program head Richard Potts, according to which Potts and a great many other evolutionists now accept the need for Lucy to be removed from the human family tree.154

KNM-ER 1470 (Homo rudolfensis)

Richard Leakey described the skull which he identified as KNM-ER 1470 and estimated to be 2.8 million years old, as the greatest discovery in the history of anthropology. It prompted an enormous reaction. According to Leakey, this creature had a small skull volume like that of *Australopithecus*, but a human-like face, and was the missing link between *Australopithecus* and Man. Shortly after, however, it was realized that the "human-like" face of the KNM-ER 1470 skull, used as the cover story in scientific magazines, was actually the result —maybe even deliberate—of errors in putting together the parts of the skull. Professor Tim Bromage, who works on the anatomy of the human face, summarizes this fact with the help of computer simulations he produced in 1992:

When it [KNM-ER 1470] was first reconstructed, the face was fitted to the cranium in an almost vertical position, much like the flat faces of modern humans. But recent studies of anatomical relationships show that in life, the face must have jutted out considerably, creating an apelike aspect, rather like the faces of Australopithecus. 155

The paleontologist J. E. Cronin says this on the subject:

KNM-ER 1470, like other early Homo specimens, shows many morphological characteristics in common with gracile australopithecines that are not shared with later specimens of the genus Homo.156

C. Loring Brace of University of Michigan reached the following conclusion regarding the skull following analyses he performed on its jaw and tooth structure: "from the size of the palate and the expansion of the area allotted to molar roots, it would appear that ER 1470 retained a fully Australopithecus-sized face and dentition." 157

Alan Walker, a John Hopkins University professor of anthropology who has studied KNM-ER 1470 at least as much as Leakey, maintains that this creature should not be included with such human species as *Homo erectus* or *H. rudolfensis*, but rather in the *Australopithecus* genus.158

In short, classifications such as *H. habilis* or *H. rudolfensis*, which are sought to be portrayed as a transitional form between *Australopithecus* and *H. erectus*, are purely imaginary. As most researchers now accept, these creatures are all members of the *Australopithecus* genus. All their anatomical features indicate that these creatures were all species of ape.

This fact was made even clearer by the evolutionary anthropologists Bernard Wood and Mark Collard in their study published in *Science* magazine in 1999. They declared that *Homo habilis* and *H. rudolfensis* (the skull 1470 species) categories were imaginary, and that the fossils included in these categories needed to be studied within the genus *Australopithecus*:

More recently, fossil species have been assigned to Homo on the basis of absolute brain size, inferences about language ability and hand function, and retrodictions about their ability to fashion stone tools. With only a few exceptions (1, 2), the definition and use of the genus within human evolution, and the demarcation of Homo, have been treated as if they are unproblematic. But are the criteria set out above appropriate and workable, and is this a proper use of the genus category? (3-5). We provide an overview of the genus category and show that recent data, fresh interpretations of the existing evidence, and the limitations of the paleoanthropological record invalidate existing criteria for attributing taxa to Homo. . . . Regardless of any formal definitions, in practice fossil hominin species are assigned to Homo on the basis of one or more out of four criteria. . . . It is now evident, however, that none of these criteria is satisfactory. The Cerebral Rubicon is problematic because absolute cranial capacity is of questionable biological significance. Likewise, there is compelling evidence that language function cannot be reliably inferred from the

gross appearance of the brain, and that the language-related parts of the brain are not as well localized as earlier studies had implied.

In other words, with the hypodigms of H. habilis and H. rudolfensis assigned to it, the genus Homo is not a good genus. Thus, H. habilis and H. rudolfensis (or Homo habilis sensu lato for those who do not subscribe to the taxonomic subdivision of "early Homo") should be removed from Homo. The obvious taxonomic alternative, which is to transfer one or both of the taxa to one of the existing early hominin genera, is not without problems, but we recommend that, for the time being, both H. habilis and H. rudolfensis should be transferred to the genus Australopithecus.159

The conclusion arrived at by Wood and Collard confirms what we have been saying: There are no primitive human ancestors in history. The creatures purported to be so are actually apes which should be included under Australopithecus. The fossil record shows that these extinct species of ape have no evolutionary relationship to Homo, the human species that appear suddenly in that record.

Sahelanthropus tchadensis

One of the most recent discoveries to overturn the theory of evolution's claims regarding the origin of man is a fossil found in the central African country of Chad in the summer of 2002.

This fossil, named Sahelanthropus tchadensis, set the cat among the pigeons in evolutionist circles. In its report announcing the discovery of the fossil, the world famous magazine Nature admitted that, "New-found skull could sink our current ideas about human evolution." 160

Daniel Lieberman of Harvard University said that this new discovery "will have the impact of a small nuclear bomb." 161

The reason for this is that according to the criteria currently adopted by evolutionists, despite the fossil being 7 million years old, it possessed a more human-like structure than apes of the *Australopithecus* genus which are 5 million years old and claimed to be man's oldest ancestor. This showed that the evolutionary relationships constructed among all these extinct species of ape on exceedingly subjective and preconceived grounds of similarity to man, were entirely fictitious.

In "Oldest Member of Human Family Found," an article in the July 11, 2002, edition of *Nature* magazine, John Whitfield confirmed this

view by using a quotation from George Washington University evolutionist paleontologist Bernard Wood:

With regard to the newly discovered fossil, the comments of Henry Gee, editor of Nature magazine and a prominent palaeoanthropologist, were of great importance. In an article published in The Guardian newspaper, he touched on the debate on the fossil:

Whatever the outcome, the skull shows, once and for all, that **the old idea of a "missing link" is bunk. . . .** But it should now be quite plain that the very idea of the missing link, always shaky, is now completely untenable.163

Orrorin tugenensis

Discovered in 2000 and described as "the Millennium Man," Orrorin tugenensis is a species based on twelve small fossils. The French researchers who discovered the fossil, Martin Pickford (Collège de France) and Brigitte Senut (National Museum of Natural History, Paris) claimed that this species walked on two legs. Yet this view has not received wide acceptance among evolutionists. Most evolutionists think that this species could not have walked in a bipedal manner. Professor Leslie Aiello of the University of London thinks that the claim that the species was in fact bipedal is not based on sound foundations, and even that the species might be the ancestor of apes, not of human beings.164

Under these circumstances, evolutionists, who hoped to regard the fossil as human-like, had to throw the Lucy fossil—on whose behalf they had engaged in so much propaganda—into the trash bin. That was because the researchers who discovered *Orrorin tugenensis* suggested that in morphological terms, this species was closer to the genus *Homo* than to the *Australopithecines*, in other words, that it was closer than *Australopithecus afarensis*, to which Lucy belongs, and *A. amanensis*. The researchers maintain that evolution cannot have worked backwards and recommend that the genus *Australopithecus* be removed from the family tree.165

In conclusion, *Orrorin tugenensis* assumed its place in the literature as another fossil that merely confused the evolutionists' family tree and placed them in another terrible dilemma.

The New Java Fossil, Sm4

A fossil consisting of the calvarium (upper skull) and established as dating back to the Pleistocene Period (1.8 million to 10.000 years BCE)) was found in the region of Sangbungman in Indonesia. Evolutionist researchers maintained that this skull, with a brain volume of 1006 cubic centimeters, was a transitional form from man's alleged primitive ancestors to modern human beings. The fossil, known as Sm4 for short, was claimed to be an evolutionary transitional form between *H. erectus* specimens (Sangiran and Ngangdong) previously discovered in Java. It was also suggested that one important feature of the Sm4 fossil was that its brainstem region was livelier than those of the other Java specimens, resembling *Homo sapiens* in this regard. However, these evolutionist claims were based on preconceptions.

Evolutionists describe the *H. erectus* fossils as primitive human beings, and portray them as so-called transitional forms in their imaginary family tree. The fact is, however, as the preceding chapters show, there is evidence that *H. erectus* was alive at the same time as humans, *Homo sapiens*.

Furthermore, it is also estimated that the skull, calculated to have a volume of 1006 cubic centimeters, in all likelihood belonged to a young or middle-aged male. Bearing in mind that the largest ape skull is no larger than 650 cubic centimeters, this means it definitely belongs to a human. The eyebrow ridges are of very reasonable dimensions for any present-day human. To such an extent, in fact, that if that fossil being were alive today and walked through a crowded area in modern-day clothes, nobody would pay him any attention.

Despite being an evolutionist himself, Kenneth Mowbray, an American Museum of Natural History palaeoanthropologist who studied the fossil, opposes the classification of Sm4 as a transitional form, stating that the differences observed in the Indonesian fossil skull stem from natural variety seen in any species. Mowbray says this in his interpretation on *National Geographic*'s website:

If you look at modern human populations, you see people with skulls that are short and round, and skulls that are long and narrow; these are normal variances within any population.166

In short, evolutionist speculation regarding the Sm4 fossil is based on no scientific evidence. Sm4 is the fossil of a human being, and not a transitional form.

Ardipithecus ramidus kaddaba

In 2001, Haile Selassie, an anthropologist at the University of California, claimed that the fossil he had discovered in Ethiopia was the first ancestor of man. Given the name *Ardipithecus ramidus kaddaba*, it supposedly represented a half-human half-ape creature that evolutionists had been hoping to find for the last 150 years. This discovery, announced in the July 12, 2001 edition of *Nature* and the July 13, 2001 edition of *Science*, also appeared in such magazines as *Time*.167

However, there were several inconsistencies in the reports concerning the fossil, and even evolutionists accept that it will be a matter for debate whether this creature will be regarded as a transitional form in the so-called evolution of mankind. For instance, in an article called "Return to the Planet of the Apes," Henry Gee, senior editor at *Nature* magazine in which the results of the research were published, stated that such a description based on these remains was debatable:

The designation of A. r. kadabba as a subspecies will be controversial...168

Nevertheless, the fossil was still described as a primitive form of human being, in a manner totally based on evolutionist prejudices, and was regarded as suitable for filing in an apparent gap in the evolutionary family tree.

In his criticism, Henry Gee explains why these evolutionist interpretations do not reflect the facts. He states that, looking at these bones, there were several possibilities as to these creatures' life style and behavior, , but that no account could be fully scientifically satisfactory:

I doubt that the status of these creatures can be resolved to general satisfaction.169

In short, these facts clearly reveal that the alleged evolutionary relationship between man and ape is unfounded .

To examine the inconsistencies displayed by evolutionist scientists with regard to this fossil:

1. The bones were found kilometers (miles) away from one another

and on different dates:

The fossil consists of seven bone fragments and four teeth. Pointing to a single toe fragment, *Time* magazine claimed that the creature "walked upright."170 On the final page of the 8-page article, however, it's stated that this toe was found 16 kilometers (10 miles) away from the other bones. When the original report in *Nature* is examined, it is revealed that "To date, 11 hominid specimens have been recovered at five localities since the first (a partial mandible) was recovered from Alayla in 1997."171 The toe fragment was discovered in 1999, and is 0.6 million years younger than the other bones found. In other words, all the bones found do not belong to the same creature, nor even to creatures which lived in the same period!

Interpreting bones collected in such a way, commenting about the features of a living thing, and attempting to locate this creature somewhere in human evolution is nothing more than propaganda, and has nothing whatsoever to do with science.

2. The fossil's tooth structure conflicts with the imaginary tree of human evolution:

Morphologically speaking, *A. r. kaddaba* is regarded as part of the *Ardipithecus* group, since it bears certain similarities to *Ardipithecus* ramidus which Tim White found in 1992. However, the fossil's tooth structure is inconsistent with that grouping, because the fossil is 1.5 million years older than the one discovered in 1992. As stated in *Time*, however, the 4.4 million-year-old teeth of ramidus have more ape-like features than the 5.8 million-year-old kaddaba teeth. In other words, the younger fossil's teeth are more ape-like than those of the older one. But according to the evolution theory, the ape-like structures should disappear as time goes by. This fact, reported by evolutionists as insignificant, is actually important in revealing that the imaginary apeman chronology is full of inconsistencies.

Donald Johanson, a professor of anthropology and director of the Institute of the Human origins at Arizona State University, refers to the preconceived classification being made:

. . . when you put 5.5 million-year-old fossils together with 4.4 million-year-old ones as members of the same species, you're not taking into consideration that these could be twigs on a tree. Everything's been forced into a straight line 172

3. This creature is an extinct species of chimpanzee

Some evolutionists regard *Ardipithecus* as a link in the chain between human beings and apes. Henry Gee, however, says that this fossil resembles a chimpanzee much more than it does a human.

In an article published in the July 13, 2001 edition of *Science*, Bernard Wood makes the following comment:

It is a mistake to feel that one has to squeeze this [fossil] into the category of human or chimp ancestor173.

Time magazine cites these words by Wood,

This might be the first example of a creature it's not possible to label as hominid ancestor or chimp ancestor. But that doesn't make it the last common ancestor of both. I think it's going to be very hard to pin the tail on that donkey.174

Evolutionists seek to portray extinct species of ape as parts of a chain between human beings and apes. These creatures, described with the appendix of -pithecus, which means "tailless ape" in Latin, are actually extinct tailless species of ape and constitute no evidence for human evolution. The fossils described as the ancestors of human

beings are in fact extinct chimpanzees. Lucy, for instance, the best-known -pithecus (Australopithecus afarensis), has a brain the same size as that of a chimp, and identical ribs and jawbone to those of chimpanzees, while her legs and arms show that she walked like chimpanzees. Even her pelvis is that of chimpanzees. 175

John Mastropaolo, regarded as one of the world's most eminent authorities on fossil science, studied the toes for himself, comparing *kadabba*'s toes with those of humans, chimpanzees and baboons. Mastropaolo compared anatomical criteria from a mathematical perspective and arrived at very different conclusions. The toe did not resemble chimpanzee or baboon toes, and the resemblance between it and human toes was insufficient. His conclusions were announced on August 27, 2002, at a conference in San Diego held by the American Physiological Society. The final part of the article said that its identification as a bipedal evolutionary ancestor was purely speculative:

Accordingly, the objective ancestry analyses for fossil bones assert that the conclusions of Haile-Salassie and Robinson were farfetched speculations. **1**76

In conclusion, as stated in Nature, the Ardipithecus ramidus kadabba fossil resembles a chimpanzee and has nothing to do with the origins of mankind.

Kenyanthropus platyops

The fossil *Kenyanthropus platyops*, discovered in 2001 and known as "flat-faced man," was proclaimed by its finders, Meave Leakey and her team, to be the ancestor of man. The fact is, however, that this 3.5-million-year-old fossil skull totally overturned the so-called family tree depicting human evolution, so beloved of evolutionists, and further complicated the inconsistencies.

This fossil, which even the world's most prominent evolutionists are unable to fit into their imaginary scheme, has more advanced features, according to evolutionist criteria, than certain species of chimpanzees (such as Lucy) that lived after it. Therefore, that fossil with its very different characteristics totally overturned evolutionists' assumptions, since they were at a loss where to place it.

Looking at all the fossils so far discovered and discussed here, we can see clearly that there is no evolutionary scheme with apes evolving from a common ancestor and turning, stage by stage, into man. On the contrary, the plan is in complete chaos.

A diagram published on the BBC website in a report concerning this fossil emphasized that chaos. From the diagram, titled "Complex Hominid Tree",177 it could be seen that it showed no ordered development and that on the contrary, the fossil discoveries possessed entirely unconnected features.

Underneath the diagram appeared this comment:

Scientists are struggling to sort the relationships between their diverse collection of hominids. 178

Daniel E. Lieberman Professor of Biological Anthropology at Harvard University, made the following comments regarding Kenyanthropus platyops in an article in Nature magazine:

The evolutionary history of humans is complex and unresolved. It now looks set to be thrown into further confusion by the discovery of another species and genus, dated to 3.5 million years ago. . . . The nature of Kenyanthropus platyops raises all kinds of questions, about human evolution in general and the behaviour of this species in particular. Why, for example, does it have the unusual combination of small cheek teeth and a big flat face with an anteriorly positioned arch of the cheekbone? All other known hominin species with big faces and similarly positioned cheek bones have big teeth. I suspect the chief role of K. platyops in the next few years will be to act as a sort of party spoiler, highlighting the confusion that confronts research into evolutionary relationships among hominins.179

The BBC report appeared under the captions "Flat-faced man is puzzle," "Confusing picture," "Scientific challenge" and said,

The discovery by Meave Leakey, of the National Museums of Kenya, and colleagues threatens to blur still further the already murky picture of man's evolution.180

Dr. Fred Spoor, the famous evolutionist from University College, London, commented of the fossil, "It raises a lot of questions." 181

In short, the theory of evolution is in a terrible dilemma, as can be seen from these statements and confessions. In the field of paleontology in particular, every new discovery presents the theory with a new contradiction. Evolutionists, who set out an imaginary table for so-called human evolution, place fossils belonging to various extinct species of monkey and human races and try to make them compatible with their schemas.

Yet no fossil is actually compatible, since human beings did not evolve from a common ancestor with apes. Throughout history, human beings have always been human beings, and monkeys have always been monkeys. For that reason, the theory of evolution will find itself in yet another quandary with every new scientific discovery.

The Dmanisi Skulls

In 2002, three fossil skulls were discovered in the Dmanisi region of Georgia, near the capital, Tbilisi. Some evolutionists sought to depict these skulls as transitional forms between human beings and their alleged ancestors, while many others were obliged to admit that these skulls overthrew a number of evolutionist claims. One was Daniel E. Lieberman from Harvard University, who said that the skull would totally undermine some peoples' ideas that the first human beings migrated from Africa.182

The following comments about the three fossil skulls appeared in *Science* magazine:

Taken together, the three Dmanisi skulls suggest that our ancestors left Africa earlier, and at an earlier stage of evolution, than had long been assumed. But where exactly do the Dmanisi remains fit on the hominid family tree—and do they represent one or more species? Those questions are sparking much debate...183

Evolutionists could not decide how to classify these skulls, and each one put forward a different idea. Science devoted space to these views:

. . . the team classifies the new skull, like the other two, as Homo erectus. . . . In fact, some features of the diminutive new skull also resemble H. habilis. . . . Indeed, says Rightmire, if the researchers had found these bones first, they might have called the fossils H. habilis.184

In other words, according to Rightman, the reason for this fossil being classified as Homo erectus was the fact that other fossils found in the same region were also classified as H. erectus. These statements all make it clear that the fossils are described totally in accord with evolutionists' wishes, preconceptions and expectations.

On the other hand, Ian Tattersall of the American Museum of Natural History classified the fossils neither as *H. erectus* nor as *H. habilis*:

This specimen underlines the need for a thorough going reappraisal of the diversity of early . . . Homo 185

National Geographic magazine announced the new fossil under the caption "Skull Fossil Challenges Out-of-Africa Theory." This article contained the views of David Lordkipanidze, who performed the research in question in Georgia and discovered the fossils:

The variation among the hominids recovered at Dmanisi makes it difficult to say exactly who these people were, said Lordkipanidze. He suggests that the variation may force scientists to rethink the definition of "Homo." 186

Reid Ferring, a member of the same team and at the same time an archaeologist at University of North Texas, has this to say:

The Dmanisi fossils show much more variation than we would have expected from any group of humans at that time. 187

These were not the only evolutionists to offer different interpretations of these fossils. Eric Delson of The City University of New York, Alan Walker of Pennsylvania State University and Milford H. Wolpoff of University of Michigan have also offered totally incompatible views regarding them.

Since the theory of evolution has no scientific foundations and is kept alive by means of fictitious scenarios and propaganda techniques, it is equally impossible to find any fossil that might support it. Darwinists have written an imaginary natural history and have sought to fit fossils into that. Yet the exact opposite actually happened, with each new fossil discovery placing the theory into an ever deeper quandary.

The Fossil Forgery Known as Piltdown Man

In 1912, Charles Dawson—a well-known doctor and at the same time an amateur paleontologist—claimed to have discovered a jawbone and a skull fragment in a hollow near Piltdown in England. Although the jawbone resembled that of a monkey, the teeth and skull resembled those of human beings. These specimens were given the name "Piltdown Man," an age of 500,000 years was calculated for them, and they were exhibited in various museums as definitive proof of so-called human evolution. For some 40 years, a great many articles were written about them, and comments and drawings made. More than 500 academics from various universities in the world wrote doctoral thesis on the subject of Piltdown Man.188 The well-known American palaeo-anthropologist H. F. Osborn made the following comment on a visit to

the British Museum in 1935: "... Nature is full of paradoxes ... a discovery of transcendent importance to the prehistory of man." 189

In 1949, however, Kenneth Oakley of the British Museum Paleontology Department requested that a fluorine test, a new method of determining age, be performed on certain old fossils. The Piltdown Man fossil was duly subjected to the test, and the conclusion was most surprising, showing that Piltdown Man's jawbone contained no fluorine. This meant that the jawbone had been under the earth for no more than a few years. The skull, which contained a low level of fluorine, was only a few thousand years old.

Subsequent chronological investigations based on the fluorine method revealed that the skull was indeed only a few thousand years old. It was also realized that the teeth in the jawbone had been artificially abraded, and that the primitive tools found beside the fossil had been carved with steel implements. The forgery was confirmed by Weiner's detailed analyses in 1953. The skull was human and 500 years old, and the jawbone belonged to a recently dead orangutan!

The teeth had been specially added and ordered later in order to give the impression they belonged to a human being, and the joints had been filed. Then all the parts had been stained with potassium-dichromate to age them—stains that disappeared when the bones were dipped in acid. Le Gros Clark, one of the team who uncovered the forgery, was unable to conceal his astonishment: "The evidences of artificial abrasion immediately sprang to the eye. Indeed so obvious did they seem it may well be asked—how was it that they had escaped notice before?"190 At this, Piltdown Man, which had been on display for nearly 40 years, was hurriedly removed from the British Museum.

The "Nebraska Man" Scandal

In 1922 Henry Fairfield Osborn, director of the American Museum of Natural History, announced that a fossil molar from the Pliocene Period had been discovered near Snake Valley in Western Nebraska. This tooth, it was claimed, bore features common to both humans and apes. Before long, in-depth scientific debates on the subject had begun. Some people interpreted this tooth as *Pithecanthropus erectus*, and others regarded it as being closer to man. This fossil, which gave rise to considerable debate, was given the name of Nebraska Man. A scientific name for it was also produced: *Hesperopithecus haroldcooki*.

Many authorities supported Osborn. Based on this single tooth, pictures of Nebraska Man's skull and reconstructions of his body were drawn. This in fact went even further, with depictions being produced of Nebraska Man, his wife and children, in their natural environment.

All these fantasies were spun from a single tooth. Evolutionist circles so adopted this fictitious man that when one researcher, William Bryan, opposed such definitive verdicts being given on the basis of just one tooth, the heavens fell down on top of him.

In 1927, however, other parts of the skeleton were found. According to these, the original tooth actually belonged neither to an ape nor to a human being, but to a species of extinct wild American pig, *Prsothennops*. William Gregory captioned his article in which he announced the error, "Hesperopithecus: Apparently Not an Ape, Nor a Man."191 In conclusion, all the pictures of Hesperopithecus haroldcooki and his family were swiftly withdrawn from the literature.

The Fake Dino-Bird Archaeoraptor

Unable to find what they sought in *Archaeopteryx*, the proponents of the theory of evolution pinned their hopes on certain other fossils in the 1990s. A string of "dino-bird fossil" claims began appearing in the media in those years. It was shortly realized, however, that all these claims were the work of misinterpretation, and even of fraud.

The first example of these dino-bird claims came with the story of the fossil feathered dinosaur found in China, which appeared in 1996 to great media attention. A fossil reptile given the name *Sinosauropteryx* had been found, although some evolutionist paleontologists who examined the fossil suggested that it actually had bird feathers, unlike all known reptiles. Studies performed the following year, however, revealed that the fossil possessed no feature resembling bird feathers.

An article called "Plucking the Feathered Dinosaur" in *Science* magazine stated that the structures perceived as feathers by evolutionist paleontologists actually had nothing to do with feathers at all:

Exactly 1 year ago, paleontologists were abuzz about photos of a so-called "feathered dinosaur," which were passed around the halls at the annual meeting of the Society of Vertebrate Paleontology. The Sinosauropteryx specimen from the Yixian Formation in China made the front page of The New York Times, and was viewed by some as

confirming the dinosaurian origins of birds. But at this year's vertebrate paleontology meeting in Chicago late last month, the verdict was a bit different: The structures are not modern feathers, say the roughly half-dozen Western paleontologists who have seen the specimens. . . . Larry Martin of Kansas University, Lawrence, thinks the structures are frayed collagenous fibers beneath the skin 192

An even greater dino-bird storm erupted in 1998. In its July edition of that year, National Geographic magazine stated that the idea that birds had evolved from dinosaurs finally rested on sound scientific foundations. The article devoted considerable space to the fossil found in China, maintaining that it possessed both avian and reptilian characteristics. The writer, Christopher P. Sloan, was so convinced by the interpretation of the fossil that he wrote, "We can now say that birds are theropods just as confidently as we say that humans are mammals."193 This species, said to have lived 125 million years ago, was given a scientific name: Archaeoraptor lioaningensis.

However, this fossil was actually a forgery, consisting of five different fossils expertly put together. One group of researchers, including three paleontologists, confirmed the forgery with the help of computer tomography a year later. The dino-bird was in fact the work of a Chinese evolutionist. Chinese amateurs had assembled their dinobird together from 88 bones and teeth, using adhesive and plaster. The front part of the *Archaeoraptor* consisted of a bird fossil, and its tail and hindquarters contained bones from four different species.

The interesting thing about this was the way *National Geographic* unhesitatingly published such a simple forgery, and suggested, based on this, that the scenario of bird evolution had now been proven. Dr. Storrs Olson of the Smithsonian Institution Museum of National History, said that he had warned *National Geographic* beforehand that this fossil was a forgery, but that the magazine's management had totally ignored this. According to Olson, "*National Geographic* has reached an all-time low for engaging in sensationalistic, unsubstantiated, tabloid journalism."194

In the following letter to Peter Raven, a *National Geographic* employee, Olson described in some detail the behind-the-scenes goings-on in the magazine's dino-bird storm:

Prior to the publication of the article "Dinosaurs Take Wing" in the July 1998 National Geographic, Lou Mazzatenta, the photographer for Sloan's article, invited me to the National Geographic Society to review his photographs of Chinese fossils and to comment on the slant being

given to the story. At that time, I tried to interject the fact that strongly supported alternative viewpoints existed to what National Geographic intended to present, but it eventually became clear to me that National Geographic was not interested in anything other than the prevailing dogma that birds evolved from dinosaurs.

Sloan's article takes the prejudice to an entirely new level and consists in large part of unverifiable or undocumented information that "makes" the news rather than reporting it. His bald statement that "we can now say that birds are theropods just as confidently as we say that humans are mammals" is not even suggested as reflecting the views of a particular scientist or group of scientists, so that it figures as little more than editorial propagandizing. This melodramatic assertion had already been disproven by recent studies of embryology and comparative morphology, which, of course, are never mentioned.

More importantly, however, none of the structures illustrated in Sloan's article that are claimed to be feathers have actually been proven to be feathers. Saying that they are is little more than wishful thinking that has been presented as fact. The statement on page 103 that "hollow, hairlike structures characterize protofeathers" is nonsense considering that protofeathers exist only as a theoretical construct, so that the internal structure of one is even more hypothetical.

The hype about feathered dinosaurs in the exhibit currently on display at the National Geographic Society is even worse, and makes the spurious claim that there is strong evidence that a wide variety of carnivorous dinosaurs had feathers. A model of the undisputed dinosaur Deinonychus and illustrations of baby tyrannosaurs are shown clad in feathers, all of which is simply imaginary and has no place outside of science fiction.

Sincerely,

Storrs L. Olson

Curator of Birds

National Museum of Natural History

Smithsonian Institution 195

This fossil forgery indicates two important facts: First, people seeking evidence for the theory of evolution can easily be taken in by forgeries.

Second, certain scientific magazines, which have assumed the mission of imposing the theory of evolution on readers, completely disregard the possibility that discoveries that they think they can use

on behalf of the theory of evolution may be wrongly or otherwise interpreted, and thus use them for propaganda purposes. In other words, they behave dogmatically, not scientifically, and can easily make logical concessions to defend the theory of evolution in which they believe so strongly.

Another important aspect is that there is no evidence that birds evolved from dinosaurs. Since no evidence can be found, forgeries are made, or else the existing evidence is distorted and misinterpreted. In fact, there is no evidence that birds could have evolved from a different living class. On the contrary, all the evidence shows that birds appeared suddenly on earth with all their individual bodily characteristics.

Stasis in the Fossil Record

One of the clearest features of the fossil record is that living things have undergone no observed changes during the geological periods. However a living species first appears in the fossil record, so it maintains exactly the same structure until it disappears—or over tens of millions, or even hundreds of millions of years until it reaches the present day, experiencing no changes in the meantime. This is clear proof that living things never undergo any evolution.

One of the first people to announce this truth is the American paleontologist and natural historian, Stephen Jay Gould, one of the 20th century's best-known evolutionist authorities. In 1970 Gould wrote the following about two most distinguishing features of the fossil record:

The history of most fossil species include two features particularly inconsistent with gradualism:

- 1) Stasis most species exhibit no directional change during their tenure on earth. They appear in the fossil record looking much the same as when they disappear; morphological change is usually limited and directionless;
- **2) Sudden appearance** in any local area, a species does not arise gradually by the steady transformation of its ancestors; it appears all at once and "fully formed." 196

In the years that followed, Gould admitted that he accepted the stasis observed in the fossil record. In a paper in Natural History magazine in 1993, he wrote:

The stasis, or nonchange, of most fossil species during their lengthy geological lifespans was tacitly acknowledged by all paleontologists, but almost never studied explicitly because prevailing theory treated stasis as uninteresting nonevidence for nonevolution. Evolution was defined as gradual transformation in extended fossil sequences, and the overwhelming prevalence of stasis became an embarrassing feature of the fossil record, best left ignored as a manifestation of nothing (that is, nonevolution).197

In their book The Myths of Evolution, Ian Tattersall and Miles Eldredge, both well-known paleontologists, described how the stasis in the fossil record conflicted with the assumptions of Darwinism:

Paleontologists just were not seeing the expected changes in their fossils as they pursued them up through the rock record . . . That individual kinds of fossils remain recognizably the same throughout the

length of their occurrence in the fossil record had been known to paleontologists long before Darwin published his Origin. Darwin himself, . . . prophesied that future generations of paleontologists would fill in these gaps by diligent search . . . One hundred and twenty years of paleontological research later, it has become abundantly clear that the fossil record will not confirm this part of Darwin's predictions. Nor is the problem a miserably poor record. The fossil record simply shows that this prediction is wrong.

The observation that species are amazingly conservative and static entities throughout long periods of time has all the qualities of the emperor's new clothes; everyone knew it but preferred to ignore it. Paleontologists, faced with a recalcitrant record obstinately refusing to yield Darwin's predicted pattern, simply looked the other way.198

There are countless examples of this stability. For instance, the Bighorn Basin in Wyoming contains 5-million-year-old fossil beds going back to the first periods of mammals. The fossil record here is so rich that paleontologists expected to find transitional forms in the fossils there that would demonstrate the evolutionary process. Yet their hopes were all in vain. It was realized that the species they suggested had evolved from one another in fact all appeared in the same periods. It was seen that "The known fossil record is not, and never has been, in accord with gradualism." 199

Furthermore, species remained stable, with no changes, over the millions of years until they disappeared from the record.

According to the claims of the theory of evolution, however, in order for species to be able to evolve from one another, they need to be in a constant state of change. For example, in order for a rodent to turn into a bat or a whale, it must exhibit minute, gradual changes over very long periods of time. In order for a rodent to acquire new characteristics, these gradual changes have to take place over an exceedingly long time frame. Over this period of time, there should be many transitional forms that should leave millions of fossils behind them. Yet there is no trace of living things with transitional form features in the fossil record. The fossil rodents discovered are all creatures with full and distinguishing features, just like bats and whales, and are found fully formed.

Niles Eldredge and Ian Tattersall admit the absence of transitional forms in the fossil record—and although it is well known to evolutionist paleontologists, but that they just ignore it:

Darwin himself . . . prophesied that future generations of paleontologists would fill in these gaps by diligent search. . . . One hundred and twenty years of paleontological research later, it has become abundantly clear that the fossil record will not confirm this part of Darwin's predictions. Nor is the problem a miserably poor record. The fossil record simply shows that this prediction is wrong. 200

The fossil record can be seen to refute the theory of evolution in every regard. A separate, noteworthy point that Eldredge makes is how studies that show that species do not change in the fossil record, but rather remain entirely stable, are not published and are described as "unsuccessful." Evolutionists are highly experienced at hiding away evidences against the theory of evolution, not just with regard to fossils but in other relevant branches of science, and at misleading society with biased interpretations. This method, a familiar one among evolutionists, can be seen between the lines of Eldredge's words.

Despite being an evolutionist publication, *Focus* magazine in its April 2003 edition, which dealt with the coelacanth, referred to species like that fish, which have remained unchanged over millions of years:

The discovery that a creature as large as the Cœlacanth had lived for so many years outside the knowledge of the scientific world led to its attracting a great deal of interest. Yet there are a very large number of organisms which, like the Cœlacanth, are identical to fossils remaining from millions of years ago. For example, the Neopilina, a species of crustacean, has remained unchanged for 500 million years, the scorpion for 430 million years, the Limulus, a marine creature with armour and a sword-like tail, for 225 million years, and the Tuatara, a species of reptile living in New Zealand, for 230 million years. Many arthropods, crocodiles, turtles and many species of plant are other components of this growing list.201

Focus openly admits the blow dealt by these fossils to the theory of evolution:

Looked at from the evolutionary perspective, the probability of organisms such as these undergoing mutation is much higher than that of others. Because every new generation means the copying of DNA. Bearing in mind the number of times the copying process takes place over millions of years, a very interesting picture emerges. In theory, various elements of pressure such as changing environmental conditions, hostile species and competition between species should lead to natural selection, the selection of species advantaged by mutation, and for these species to undergo greater change over such a

long period of time. YET THE FACTS ARE OTHERWISE. Let us consider cockroaches, for example. These reproduce very quickly and have short life spans, yet they have remained the same for approximately 250 million years. Archaeobacteria are an even more striking example. These emerged 3.5 billion years ago, when the Earth was still very hot, and are still alive today in the boiling waters in Yellowstone National Park.202

The fact that living fossils such as the coelacanth have remained unchanged between the day they first appeared and the present is compatible not with evolution—which mandates constant change—but with the fact of creation, which reveals that species are individually created and have come down unchanged to our own time. Living fossils are all proofs of creation. God has created all the millions of living species in a miraculous manner.

CONCLUSION

Millions of years ago, just as is the case today, there lived millions of different species. Over hundreds of millions of years, the Earth has been teeming with living things, from trilobites—with their complex eye structures, which adorned the sea bed 550 million years ago—to starfish, from present-day fish to sweet-smelling flowers, lions, rabbits, brightly colored birds, horses, squirrels, dolphins, butterflies and dragonflies, from sparrows to lambs, from ants to human beings. Some of these became extinct, and others survived down to our present day.

As you have seen throughout this book, all these creatures appeared suddenly on Earth and underwent no subsequent changes. As can be seen from the fossils that constitute our source of information on the living things which have existed throughout history, living things possessing fully formed features have always lived on Earth. Their feet, hands, wings, skins, feathers, lungs, skulls, backbones, and skeletons are all complete, unique and in the ideal form. No half-formed organ or limb in a transitional stage is ever found in any fossil.

Even before that, another miracle took place. There being no life on Earth it suddenly became filled with a living community of the very greatest variety. Life came suddenly to a planet consisting of stone, earth and water.

All these things reveal two very important truths: The theory of evolution, which maintains that living things are descended from a common ancestor by means of random changes, is not true. The history of life definitively and clearly refutes the theory of evolution. The second fact is that there is a Mighty Creator, possessed of a matchless creative artistry, an incomparable Intelligence, infinite Knowledge, and a Power which makes life suited to the Earth and Who creates very different living things from nothing.

That Creator is Almighty God, Lord of the Worlds, Who has sent messengers and prophets to mankind throughout history, and called people to the truth with the Torah, the Psalms, the Bible and finally the Our'an.

No matter how much materialists strive to do so, they cannot conceal the fact that God created all living things. God is the Creator of the universe, the stars, the galaxies, the seas, rivers, all living things, human beings, and, no matter how much they deny it, materialists. Some of the verses of the Qur'an that refer to God's art of creation read as follows:

He created man from a drop of sperm and yet he is an open challenger! And He created livestock. There is warmth for you in them, and various uses and some you eat.

And there is beauty in them [livestock] for you in the evening when you bring them home and in the morning when you drive them out to graze.

They carry your loads to lands you would never reach except with great difficulty. Your Lord is All-Gentle, Most Merciful. (Surat an-Nahl; 4-7)

It is He Who sends down water from the sky. From it you drink and from it come the shrubs among which you graze your herds.

And by it He makes crops grow for you and olives and dates and grapes and fruit of every kind. There is certainly a Sign in that for people who reflect.

He has made night and day subservient to you, and the sun and moon and stars, all subject to His command. There are certainly Signs in that for people who use their intellect.

And also the things of varying colors He has created for you in the Earth. There is certainly a Sign in that for people who pay heed.

It is He Who made the sea subservient to you so that you can eat fresh flesh from it and bring out from it ornaments to wear. And you see the ships cleaving through it so that you can seek His bounty, and so that hopefully you will show thanks.

He cast firmly embedded mountains on the earth so it would not move under you, and rivers and pathways so that hopefully you would be guided and landmarks. And they are guided by the stars.

Is He Who creates like him who does not create? So will you not pay heed? (Surat an-Nahl; 10-17)

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The idea of evolution, which materialists ever since Ancient Greece have employed

to account for the origin of life, entered the world of science in the 19th century with Charles Darwin's book On the Origin of Species. Those who supported the materialist philosophy, which underwent an enormous rise during the 19th century, adopted the theory of evolution as an answer to the question of how life came into being, but did not question the theory's scientific foundations. The proponents of materialist ideologies imposed the theory of evolution on entire systems of education and popular culture for 150 years, despite possessing no evidence for it, and employing only methods of propaganda.

From the second half of the 20th century onward, however, the privileged position that the theory of evolution had enjoyed among the scientific community became increasingly problematic. Observations and experiments in a wide range of scientific disciplines, from paleontology to biology and from anatomy to genetics, began to produce findings that argued against the theory. In the face of these new scientific findings, evolutionists suddenly found themselves and their theory on the defensive.

One of the main objections to Darwin's theory of evolution indeed, concerns the fossil record. The transitional forms that evolutionists expected to find in the fossil record— and which might be regarded as proof that species evolved from one another—have not been found. Fossils emerge suddenly and with all their particular features fully present, and the fossil record demonstrates that no species experienced any process of gradual change leading to its eventual disappearance.

The absence of transitional forms from the fossil record is by itself sufficient to undermine the whole theory of evolution. Charles Darwin, the founder of the theory, actually admitted the truth of this! After inquiring into the absence of such forms, he wrote that "this, perhaps is the most obvious and gravest objection which

can be urged against my theory."

And today, even among evolutionists, there is a serious dispute over how to interpret the fossil record. Fossils, one

important source of scientific evidence regarding natural history, clearly refute the theory of evolution and show that life on Earth appeared suddenly, with no evolutionary process behind it—in other words that life forms were created.