in the '97–'98 El Niño were unusually large, Kessler notes, enhanced by various forces, such as surges of cold air from the north. The cold surges fueled a pair of cyclones straddling the equator, which in turn funneled westerly winds between them, according to meteorologists Lisan Yu of the Woods Hole Oceanographic Institution in Massachusetts and Michele Rienecker of NASA's Goddard Space Flight Center in Greenbelt, Maryland.

Many of Kessler's colleagues cautiously endorse the notion that the MJO fine-tunes El Niño's strength. Meteorologist and longtime El Niño watcher Vernon Kousky of

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NOAA's Climate Prediction Center in Camp Springs, Maryland, agrees that the MJO "may very well be a feature that helps determine the character of a particular El Niño." And modeler Mark Cane of Columbia University's Lamont-Doherty Earth Observatory in Palisades, New York, thinks Kessler "makes a good case for the MJO being an amplifier." Still, at this point it's not clear just how big an effect the MJO exerts on El Niño, cautions modeler David Battisti of the University of Washington. "At some level these things matter," he says. "The question is, how large an impact do they have?" He thinks Kessler and Kleeman's simulation of how much MJO's cooling effect amplifies an El Niño may have been unduly sensitive.

But if the interaction of the MJO and El Niño is real, it "adds some level of unpredictability" to forecasting, says Kessler. "Nobody claims to predict the MJO," he notes, "and most [models] have a poor rendition of it. You may be able to predict an El Niño next year, but it will be much harder to predict its amplitude." Researchers may find out whether the MJO throws a wrench into the forecasts when they test their skills during the next El Niño, due no earlier than next year.

-RICHARD A. KERR

SCIENTIFIC PRIZES

Nobel Foundation Seeks Looser Financial Reins

Long hamstrung by the stipulations of Nobel's will, the world's most famous prize fund wants the freedom to beef up its awards

STOCKHOLM—The Nobel Foundation generates a flood of publicity in October, when it announces the winners of the world's most prestigious science prizes, and it usually operates for the rest of the year well out of the limelight. Not so this year. In April, Sweden's newspapers carried warnings that the foundation was facing economic hardship. "Direct returns [from the Nobel Foundation's assets] do not cover the prize money any longer," reported *Dagens Industri*, a Swedish financial newspaper, under the headline "Nobel—a case for the government."

This sudden concern over the financial wellbeing of the foundation, which bankrolls five of the Nobel awards (excluding economics), was prompted by a request from the fund's managers for the Swedish government to relax the rules regulating its investment policies. The publicity sent foundation officials scrambling to reassure the public that the foundation is not in any peril. "As for our ability to finance our current expenditures, there is no problem whatsoever," says Michael Sohlman, executive director of the foundation. The proposed changes, says Sohlman, would simply do away with outdated restrictions and give fund managers more flexibility to invest in equities rather than fixed-interest bonds. The aim, says Sohlman, is not to stave off erosion of the foundation's finances, but to improve the prospects for increasing the prize money in future years.

Nevertheless, the very idea of changing the rules governing the high-profile award fund has caused some alarm and highlighted the Nobel Foundation's almost iconic status in Sweden. "The Nobel Foundation is the



Where there's a will. Alfred Nobel (*above*) and Nobel Foundation director Michael Sohlman.

most well-known fund in the world, and I suppose the application for permission to change its statutes signals their ambition to keep a high revenue profile," says Henning Isoz, a financial

expert who drafted Sweden's current fund legislation and now works for the consulting firm Ernst & Young. The discussion has also focused a spotlight on the foundation's financial management and on the bizarre circumstances surrounding the creation of the fund. These involved spiriting Nobel's fortune from Paris to Scotland and overcoming the resistance of patriotic Swedes to giving any of the awards to foreigners.

Alfred Nobel, millionaire businessman and inventor of dynamite, signed his final will at the Swedish-Norwegian Club in Paris on 27 November 1895 and died a year later in San Remo, Italy, on 10 December 1896. The part of the will relating to the prize is not much longer than a page. It states that: "The whole of my remaining realizable estate shall be dealt with in the following way: the capital, invested in safe securities by my executors, shall constitute a fund, the interest on which shall be annually distributed in the form of Prizes to those who, during the preceding year, shall have conferred the greatest benefit on mankind." However, fulfilling Nobel's wish became a long and acrimonious process that lasted until 1900 when the Nobel Foundation was established.

The will attracted attention across the globe and caused great controversy in Sweden and Norway, which were united at that time. Some of Nobel's relatives contested it, and some of the bodies designated by Nobel to

> award the prizes (the Royal Swedish Academy of Sciences for chemistry and physics, the Karolinska Institute for physiology or medicine, and the Swedish Academy for literature) were reluctant to assume the task. However, the Storting, Norway's parliament, which the will called on to appoint the peace prize committee, took on the job without hesitation. But in Sweden Nobel's insistence on an international prize drew severe criticism. King Oscar II declared that the money should remain in the No-

bel family, or at least not be spent on a dubious "Peace Prize." Hjalmar Branting, a famous social-democratic leader and himself later a Nobel peace laureate, expressed his disgust with a capitalist easing his bad conscience by giving away money.

Political acceptance wasn't the only problem. According to the will, all of Nobel's shareholdings in companies around the world had to be liquidated. This required some nimble—and risky—footwork on the part of Ragnar Sohlman (Michael Sohlman's grandfather), a 26-year-old assistant to Nobel. Sohlman gathered all of Nobel's shareholdings, cash, and other financial assets quickly and in great secrecy so that he could avoid French taxes and instead have the will executed under Swedish law. On one occasion, in Paris in 1897, he rushed all over the city in an open horse-drawn cab with a load-

ed pistol in each pocket collecting together the Nobel fortune. The Rothschilds bank of Paris, the only institution capable of safely handling such a big fortune, transferred everything for sale to Scotland.

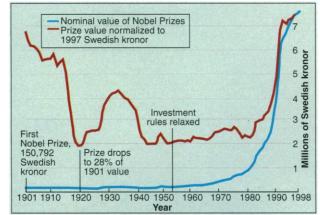
The sale netted 31.5 million Swedish kronor (\$3.7 million), and the Nobel Foundation was created. Nobel stipulated that the foundation's money should be invested in "safe securities," which was interpreted at that time as meaning gilt-edged government bonds. But when gov-

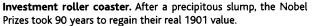
ernments began to abandon the gold standard in the 1920s, bonds could not keep up with inflation and the value of the foundation's assets began to erode. Taxes were also nibbling away at the prize money. Sweden's Parliament exempted the foundation from income tax in 1946, but by this time it was the biggest taxpayer in Stockholm. By the mid-1950s, only one-third of the original value of Nobel's legacy remained.

The foundation's fortunes began to turn around in the early 1950s, after skilled financiers joined the foundation board. By this time, the idea of "safe securities" had widened and in 1953 the foundation was given permission to invest some money in equities and real estate to compensate for inflation. These restrictions continued to be loosened, so that today the foundation is required to keep only 30% of its assets in fixedinterest bonds. Geographical limitations have also been relaxed, so now only 13% of the foundation's investments are located in Sweden, with 18% elsewhere in Europe, 22% in the United States, 3% in Japan, and 1% in emerging markets. The remaining 43% are spread between real estate holdings (6%) and fixed-interest investments (37%). Over the past 5 years, the average yearly return on the foundation's stock portfolio was 12.5%, with a high of 25.3% in 1998.

By 1998, the foundation's invested capital had grown to \$372 million, from which it spent a modest \$11.8 million. The 1998 Nobel laureates were each awarded \$894,000, bringing the total for the five prizes—in physics, chemistry, physiology or medicine, literature, and peace—to \$4.5 million. The prize-awarding institutions spent \$3.8 million assessing candidates. The remaining annual expenditure supports the Nobel symposia, administration, and the prize-giving ceremonies in December.

Despite the apparent health of the foundation's finances, Sohlman and his colleagues are looking for ways to increase the value of





the prizes. The very first Nobel Prizes, awarded in 1901, were for 150,800 kronor, the equivalent of about 15 to 20 years of a professor's salary. "It was not until 1991 that we managed to reach the same real value for the prize as in 1901," says Sohlman. "Our ambition is to gradually reduce the ratio between total expenditures and market value of capital. This will make it possible to give priority to future growth in the awards."

To do that, the foundation has proposed that it should be freed from the requirement to invest at least 30% of its assets in bonds. It also wants to be able to spend realized capital gains on property and stock and bond investments for annual expenditures. At present, it is only allowed to spend direct returns. "The question of using realized capital gains has arisen recently because revenues from the foundation's investments have not matched the rapid growth in the value of their capital on the stock market," says Bertil Kallner, chief lawyer for the Swedish National Judicial Board for Public Lands and Funds, which oversees the Nobel Foundation.

Whether it will win this freedom, and future Nobel laureates can continue to look forward to more lucrative prizes, now lies in the hands of the National Judicial Board. A decision is expected before the end of this year. But, as Sohlman points out, money isn't everything: "Of course the money is of importance for the prize. But what really counts is the extensive work done evaluating the candidates and creating the worldwide intellectual network which most probably would not be there without the prize."

-JOANNA ROSE AND ANNIKA NILSSON Rose and Nilsson are writers in Stockholm.

CLIMATE

A Wobbly Start for the Sahara

Could a tiny change in the angle of Earth's orbital axis trigger a cascade of events that turned an ancient Eden into the Sahara desert? Yes, says a report in the 15 July issue of *Geophysical Research Letters*.

Studies of fossilized pollen have shown that grasses and shrubbery covered what is now the Sahara until some unknown environmental catastrophe dried up all the water, leaving nothing but sand. The exact timing is uncertain, but one interpretation of the pollen data suggests that a relatively mild arid episode between 6000 and 7000 years ago was followed by a severe 400-year drought starting 4000 years ago. Such a disaster might have driven entire civilizations out of the desert, leading them to found new societies on the banks of the Nile, the Tigris, and the Euphrates rivers. But the cause of the postulated droughts remained a mystery.

Now, climatologist Martin Claussen and co-workers at the Potsdam Institute for Climate Impact Research in Germany are proposing that Earth's changing tilt triggered the rapid drying of the Sahara. Like a spinning top slowly wobbling on its tip, Earth's tilt has decreased from 24.14 degrees to 23.45 degrees in the last 9000 years, resulting in cooler summers in the Northern Hemisphere. When Claussen introduced cooler Northern summers into a computer simulation of Earth's atmosphere, oceans, and vegetation, the monsoon storms that provide water to the Sahara grew weaker, killing off some of the native plants. The initial reduction in vegetation further reduced rainfall, says Claussen, starting a vicious cycle of desertification that began to accelerate about 4000 years ago. Less than 400 years later, Claussen's team found, the drought caused by the vegetationfeedback mechanism could have wiped out almost all plant life in the desert.

"This is a very exciting result," says climatologist John Kutzbach of the University of Wisconsin, Madison. It is the first time anyone has demonstrated that a change in Earth's tilt can cause a sudden vegetative feedback, he says. "It opens up a whole new class of research problems involving the biosphere," such as predicting feedback effects in global warming. -MARK SINCELL Mark Sincell is a free-lance writer in Tucson, Arizona.