

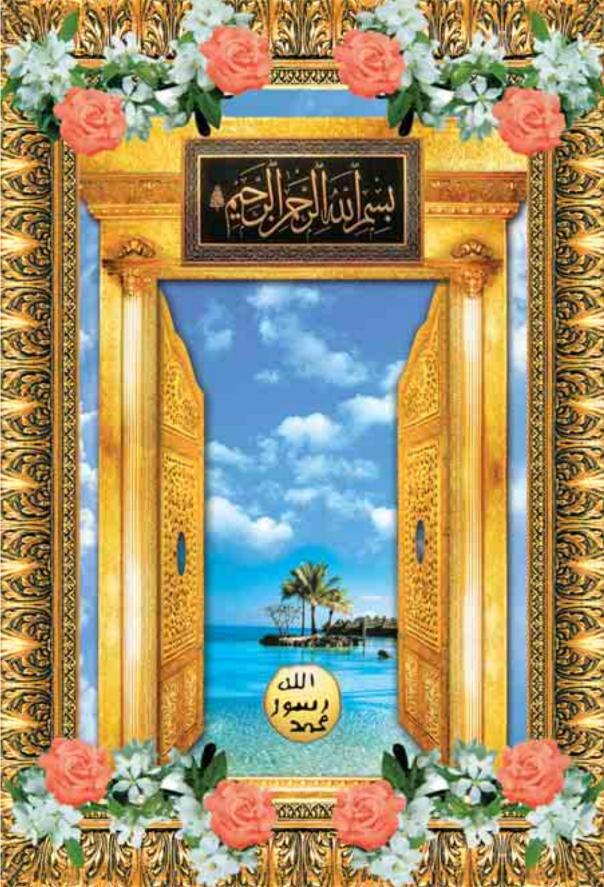
But research in the intervening 150 years has revealed a major error. Branches of science such as population genetics and comparative biology show that there is no evolutionary family tree as Darwinism maintained. On the contrary, genetic variations within any one species never exceed a specific limit. Therefore, no species evolves into any other. One after another, all examples of supposedly evolving species have all been proven to be mistaken. The theory of evolution, already discredited by such fields as biology and paleontology, is now undergoing an inevitable collapse. This book reveals the theory's hopeless position in the face of the extraordinary variety of life on Earth, and demonstrates that each of the millions of different species on our planet is yet another proof of God's sublime creation.



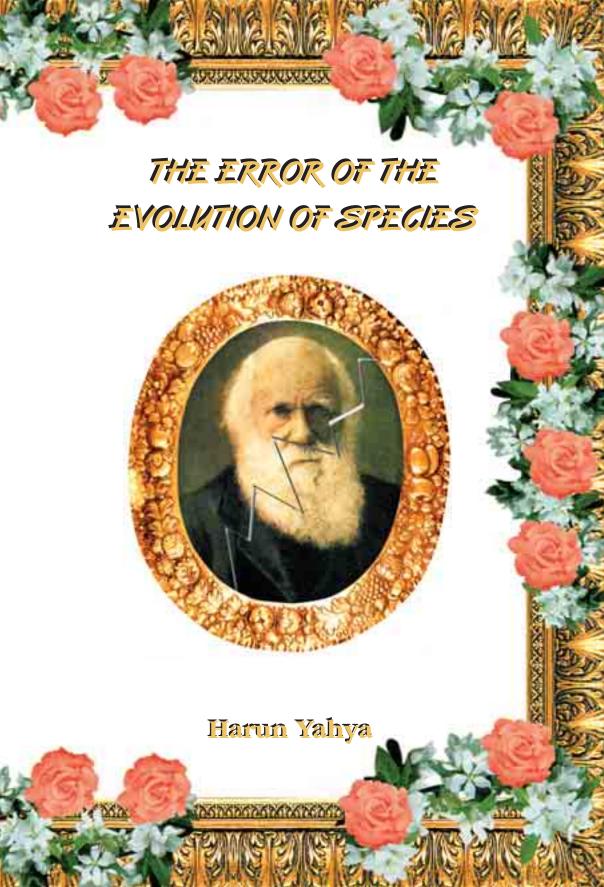
ABOUT THE AUTHOR

Adnan Oktar, who writes under the penname Harun Yahya, was born in Ankara in 1956. He studied arts at Istanbul's Mimar Sinan University, and philosophy at Istanbul University. Since the 1980s, the author has published many books on political, faithrelated and scientific issues. Greatly appreciated all around the world, these works have been instrumental in helping many to return their faith in God, and, in

many others, to gain a deeper insight into their faith. Harun Yahya's books appeal to all kinds of readers, regardless of their age, race, or nationality, for they focus on one objective: to broaden the reader's perspective by encouraging him or her to think about a number of critical issues, such as the existence of God and His unity, and to live by the values He prescribed for them.











in Allah and gaining deeper 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.

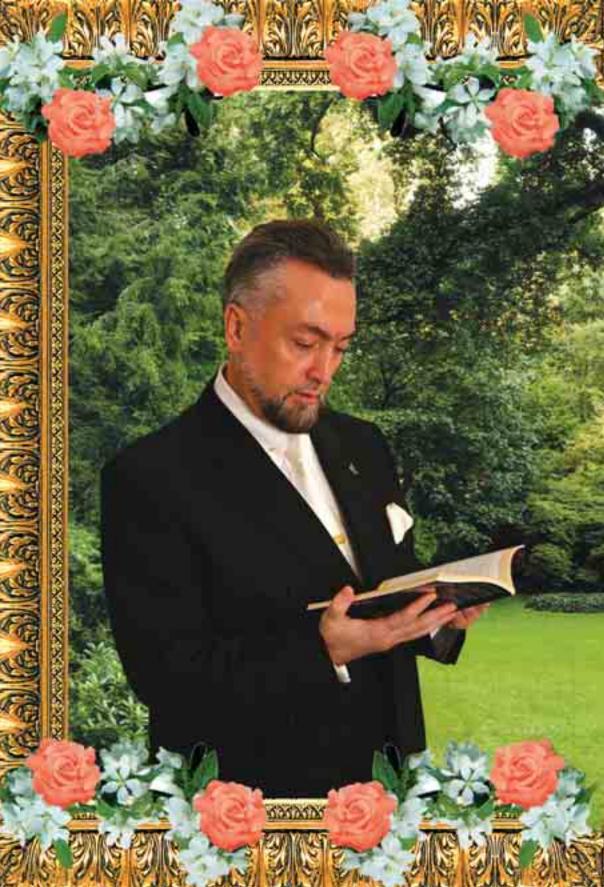
This is no doubt a result of the Qur'an's wisdom and lucidity. The author modestly intends to serve as a means in humanity's search for God's right path. No material gain is sought in the publication of these works.

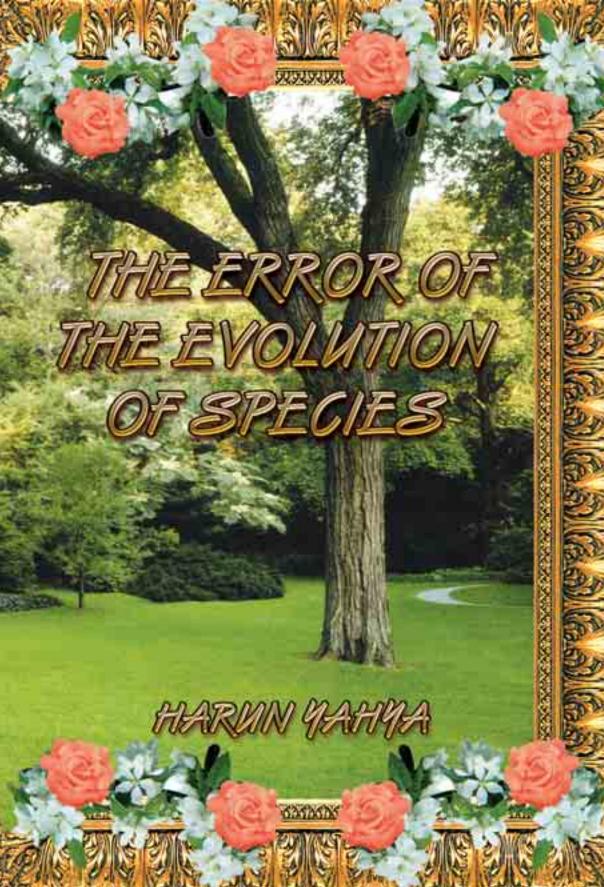
Those who encourage others to read these books, to open their minds and hearts and guide them to become more devoted servants of God, render an invaluable service.

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.

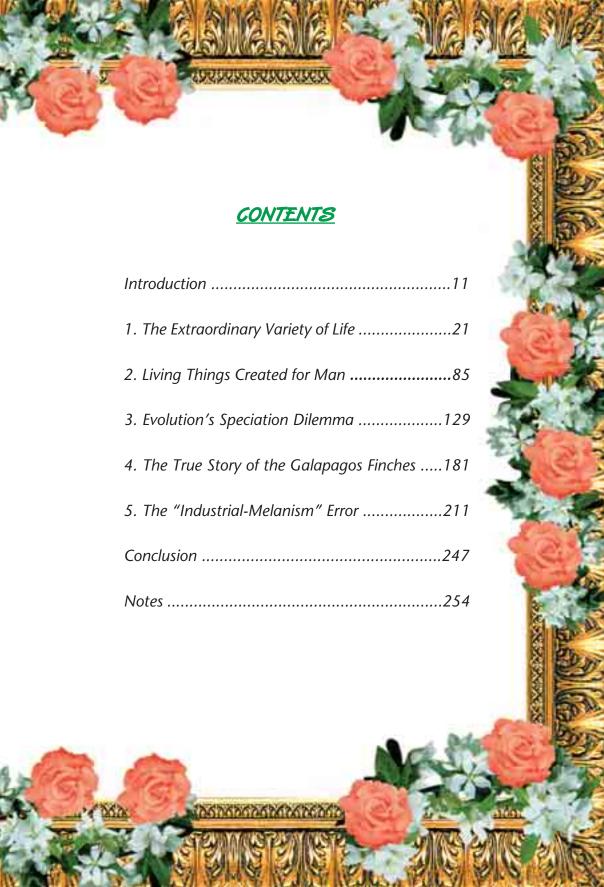
One point should be kept in mind: The main reason for the continuing cruelty, conflict, and other ordeals endured by the vast majority of people is the ideological prevalence of disbelief. This can be ended only with the ideological defeat of disbelief and by conveying the wonders of creation and Qur'anic 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.

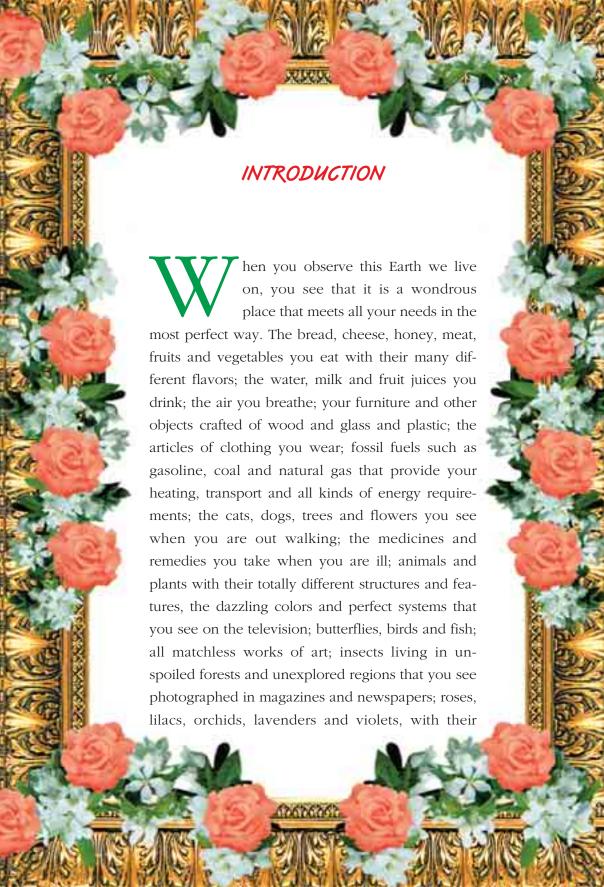












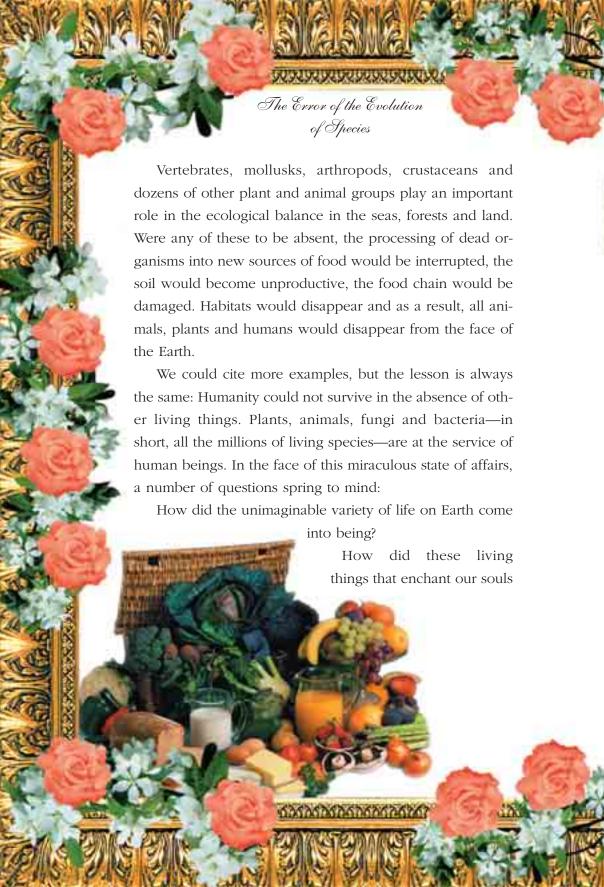


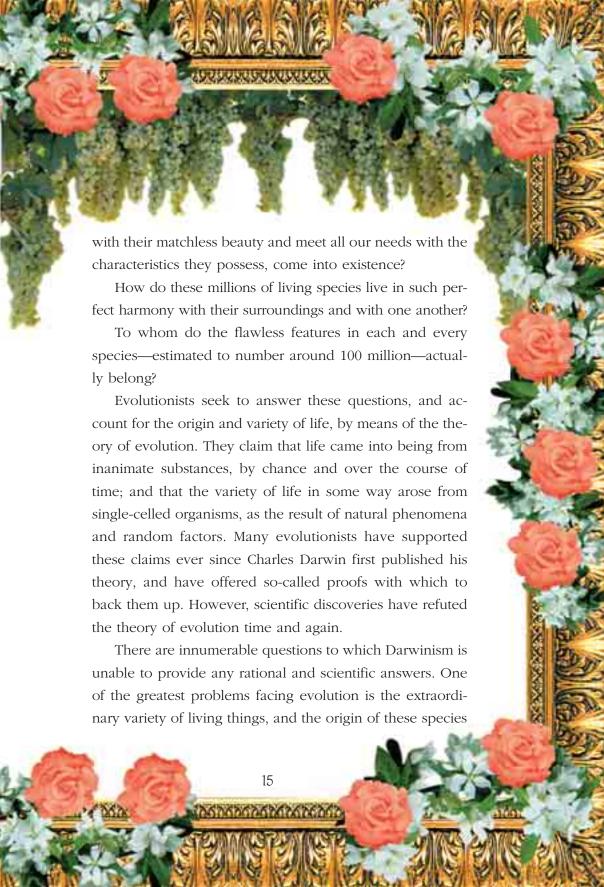


Everyone knows that our a planet contains a teeming variety of life. Yet most people may never have reflected on this astonishing state of affairs, nor considered the great importance of this variety and how it must have come into being. They may never have thought of the need to reflect on these things. Now, putting aside for a moment the perspective stemming from familiarity, try to imagine a world without all these living things you know about.

First, picture an Earth in which there are no terrestrial or marine plants, no forests, and no trees. You will soon come to an obvious conclusion: Were it not for plants that perform photosynthesis every day, the oxygen essential for life would not be replenished, and for that reason, there would be no life on Earth apart from a few bacteria.

And what would the world be like without bacteria, whose species are estimated to number between 300,000 and 1 million, most of whose scientific names are known only to experts? Yet even if we have very little knowledge about bacteria, members of a different world that we cannot see, there is still one indisputable fact: Life without them is inconceivable. Because the production of a large part of the oxygen in the atmosphere, its elemental cycles, the cleansing of the Earth and the breakdown of dead organisms into re-usable substances and many other vital processes are all due to these microscopic creatures.



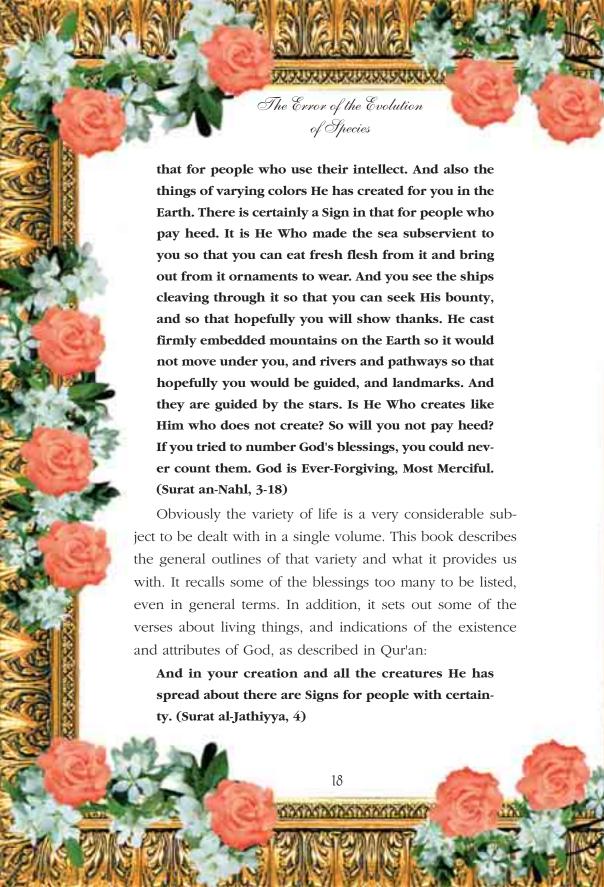


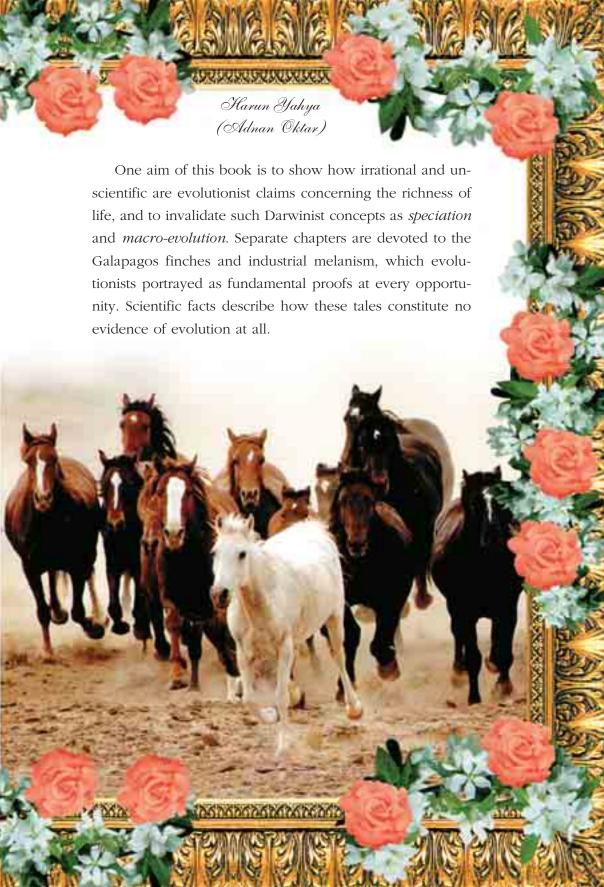




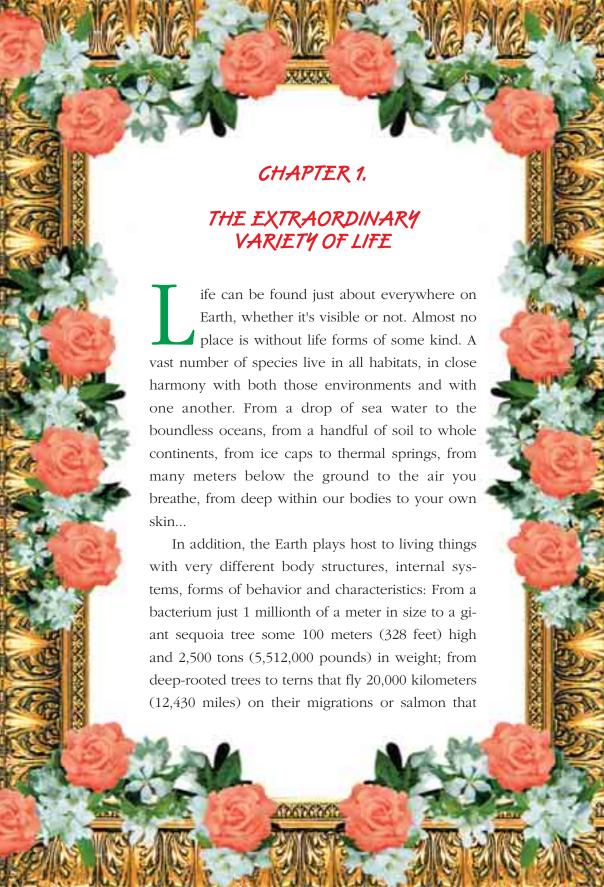
The fact that God has created all living things and placed them at the disposal of man is revealed in the Qur'an. Some verses in Surat an-Nahl refer to this:

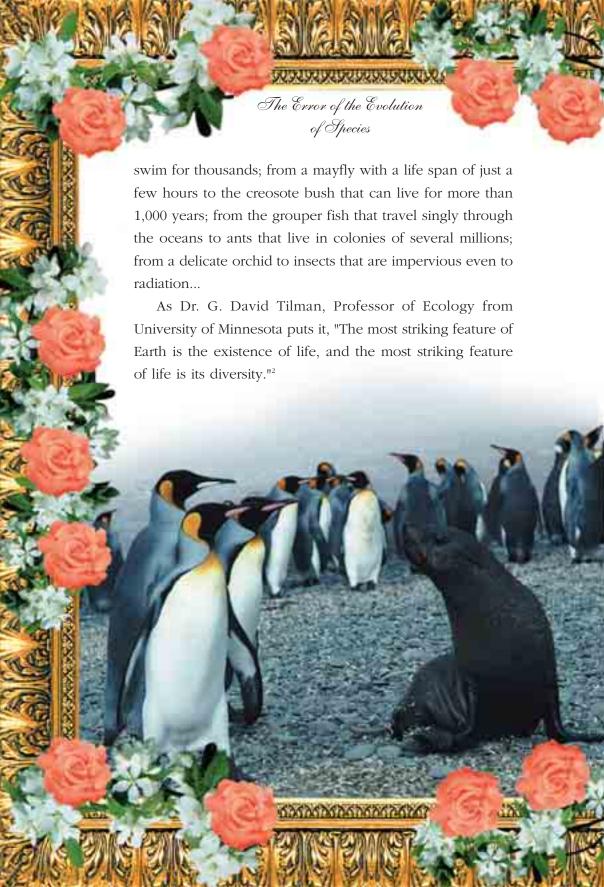
He created the heavens and the Earth with truth. He is exalted above anything they associate with Him. He created man from a drop of sperm and yet He is an open challenger! And He created livestock. There is warmth for you in them, and various uses and some you eat. And there is beauty in them for you 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. And horses, mules and donkeys both to ride and for adornment. And He creates other things you do not know. The Way should lead to God, but there are those who deviate from it. If He had wished He could have guided every one of you. 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

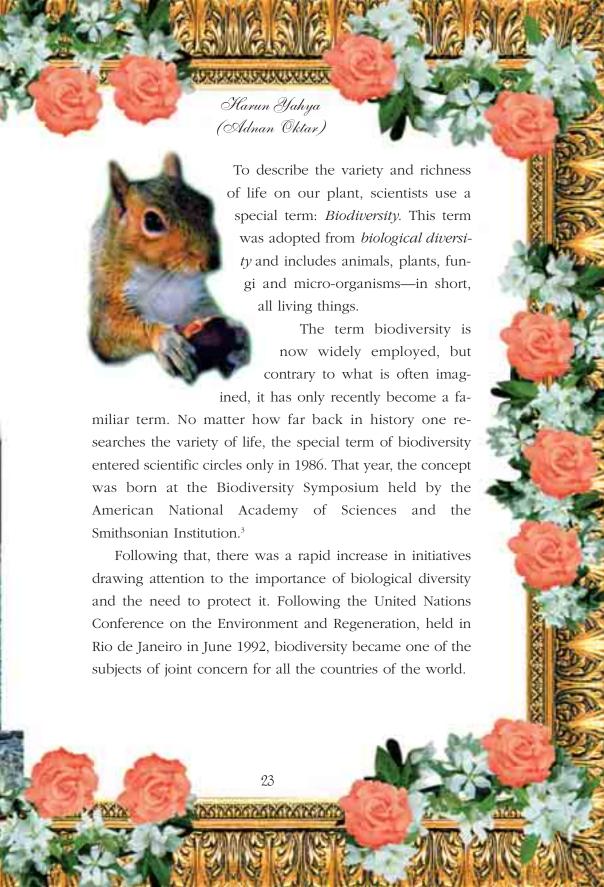


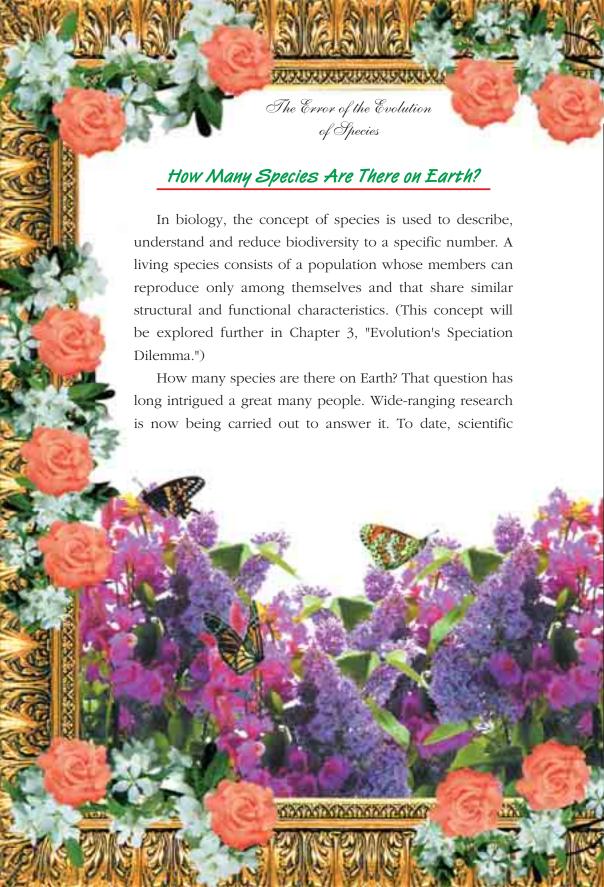


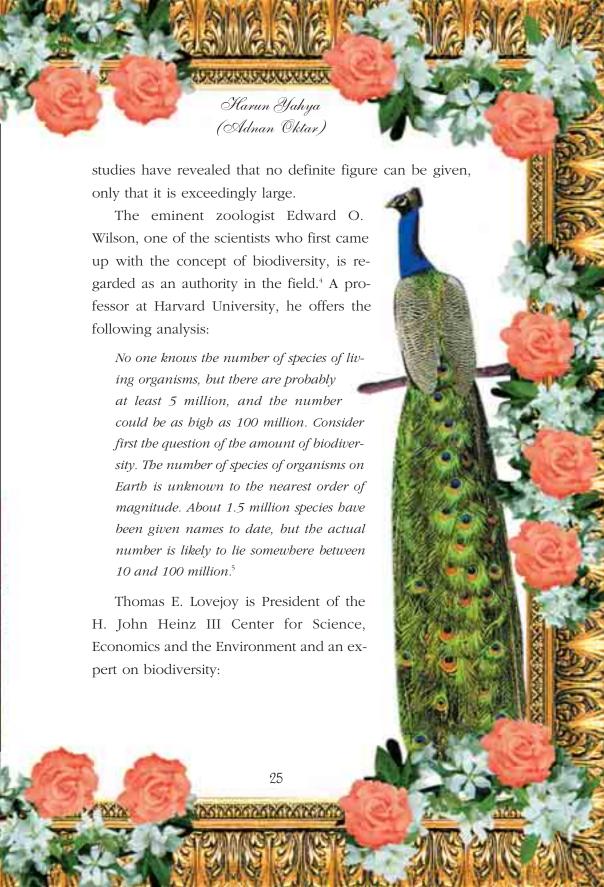


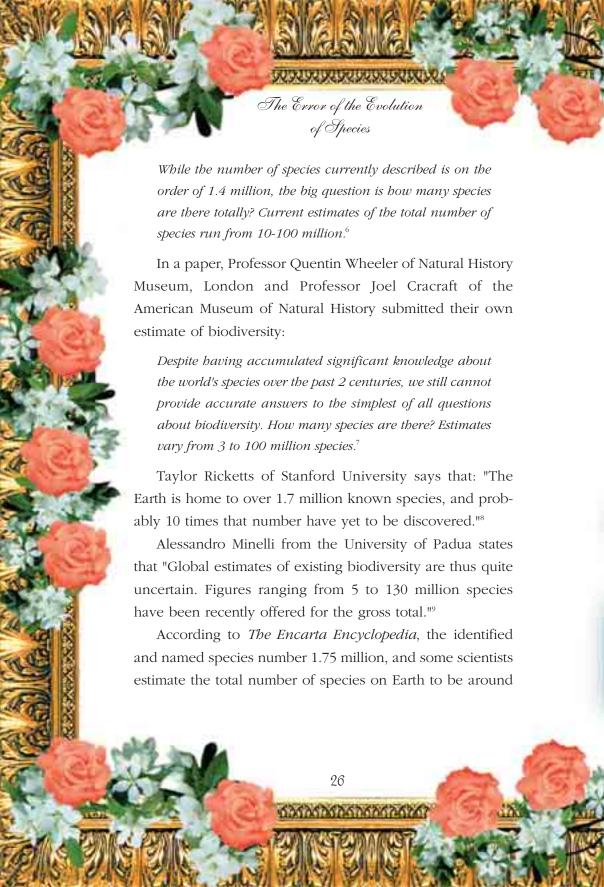


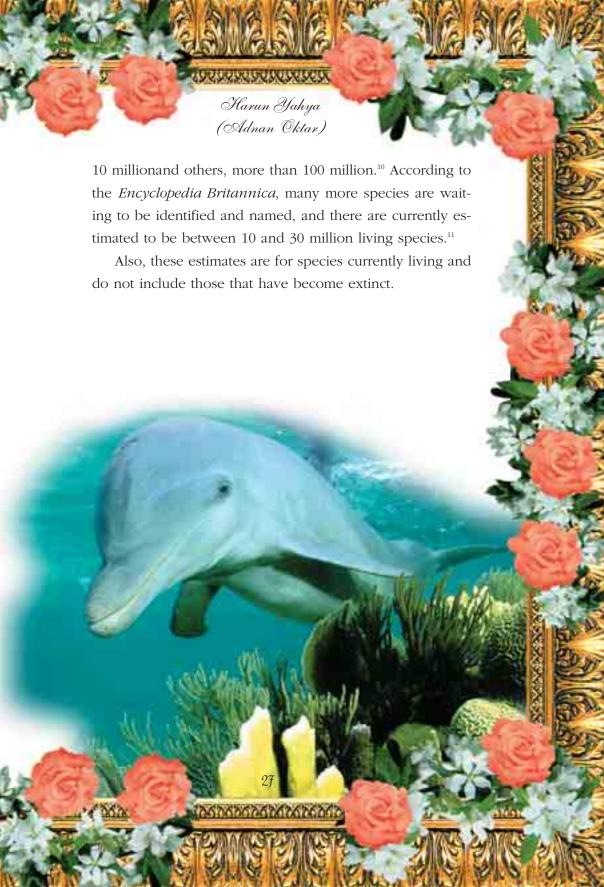


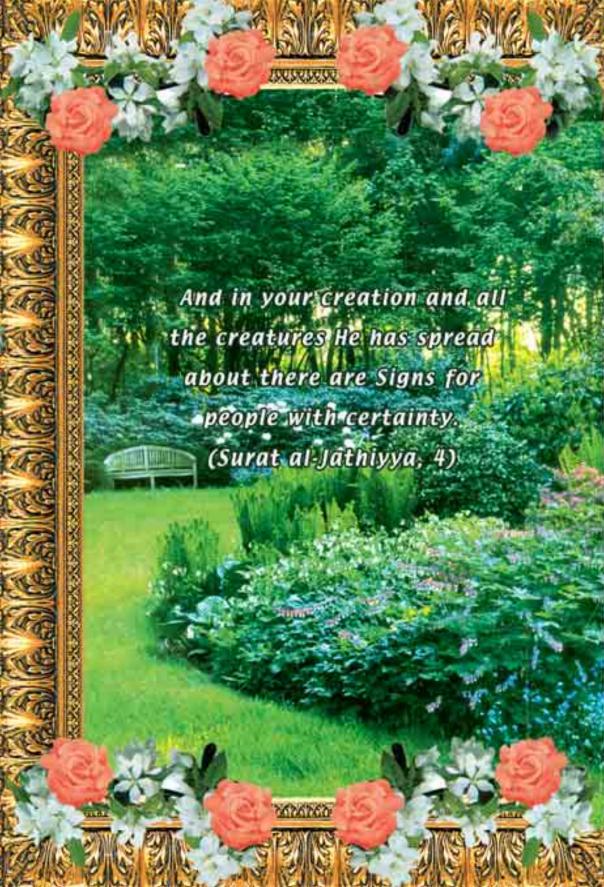














The Scale of Biodiversity

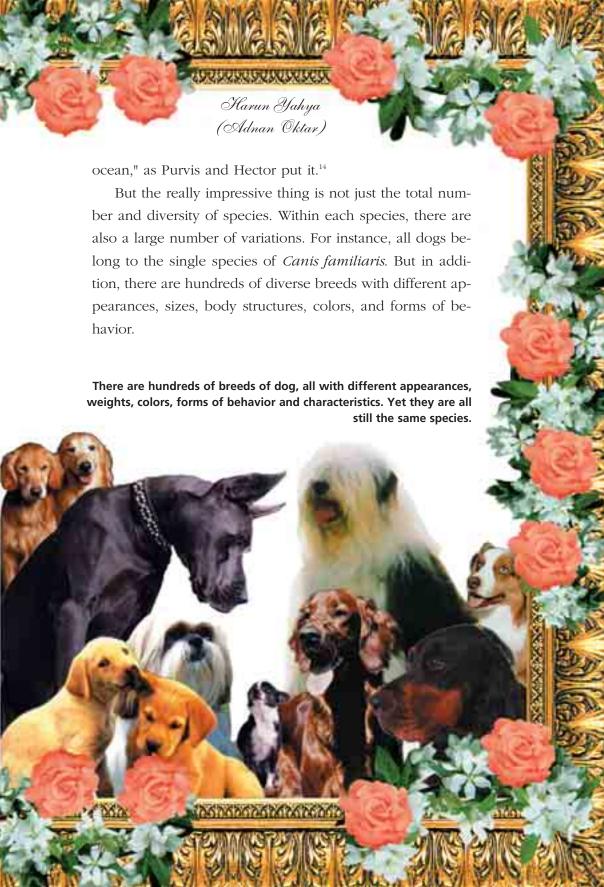
To provide an idea of the impressive richness of microorganism, fungi, plant and animal species on Earth, a few examples can be cited. According to Professor Wilson's calculation, a catalogue describing merely a million species would fill a 60-meter library shelf.¹²

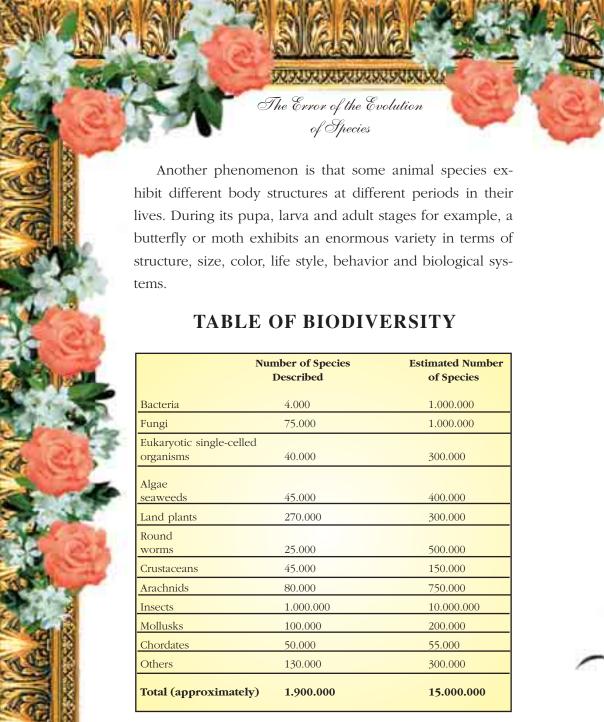
To view biodiversity from another angle, let us now include species' genetic richness in the calculation. The information controlling the body's functions, encoded in the human DNA molecule in the nucleus of every cell, would fill an encyclopedia containing a million pages. Bear in mind that Man is only one of 10 million species, and a truly extraordinary picture emerges: Were we to write down all the genetic information for all those species, there would not be enough paper in the world to do so.

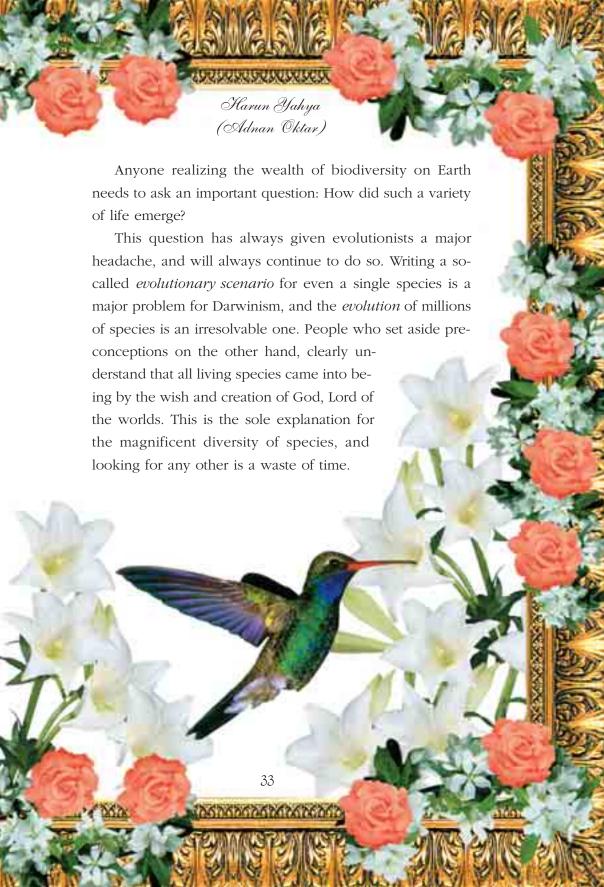
The number of single-celled eukaryotes (*Protista*), algae, bacteria, fungi, seaweeds, flowering plants, sponges, corals, insects, birds, reptiles, fish and mammals—in short, the number of the categories of all living things—is so huge that some scientists and researchers think that the target of determining and describing all species is unattainable.¹³

Two researchers from London's Imperial College, Andy Purvis and Andy Hector, published an article in *Nature* mag-













Terrestrial biodiversity is found in only 1.4% of the planet's land mass. Locales that are rich in such diversity are at the same time home to rapidly growing human societies.

No matter how much large, attractive animals like birds, reptiles and mammals attract notice, insects are actually the group with the greatest diversity. According to contemporary findings, insects represent over two-thirds of the total number of species on Earth. ¹⁵ Approximately 1 million species belonging to this group have been named and described so far. ¹⁶

As research deepens, brand- new scientific discoveries are made, and new plants, animals, insects and marine life forms are discovered every year. Every new study sheds light on one unknown aspect of the world's wealth of variety. Therefore, the numbers and proportions in the above table will change over time.

እናስና እና እና እና እና እና እና እና እና

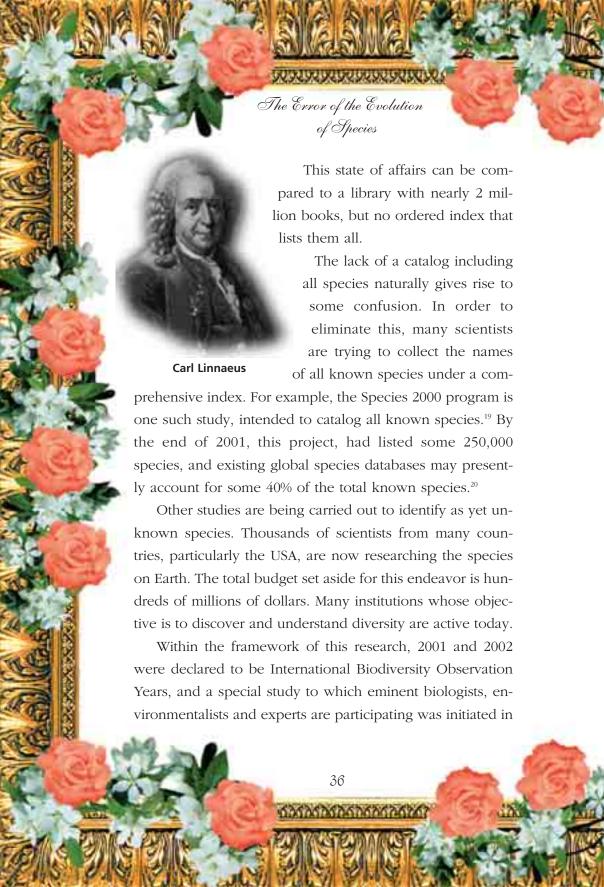


The distribution of Earth's biodiversity is not fully known. One fact observed so far is a general increase in the number of species as one descends from the poles towards the equator. Nothing more definite can be said, mainly because countless ecosystems, on both land and in the sea, are still waiting to be studied. Many regions on Earth have still not been comprehensively examined.

Places particularly rich in terms of species are known as *hot spots*, and found generally in tropical regions and islands. The organization called Conservation International has stated that while land-dwelling life forms comprise only 1.4% of life on Earth, some 25 hot spots contain roughly half of all land-dwelling species.¹⁷

Researches in the World of Science

In the 250 years since the publication of *Systema Naturae*, a book by Carl Linnaeus, who is one of the most eminent names in the history of science, some 1.75 million species have been named and described—again, only a very small part of the world's total number of species. But these species named by researchers have not yet been collected under a single scientific index. As yet, there is no list containing all the known animals, plants, fungi and microorganisms.¹⁸



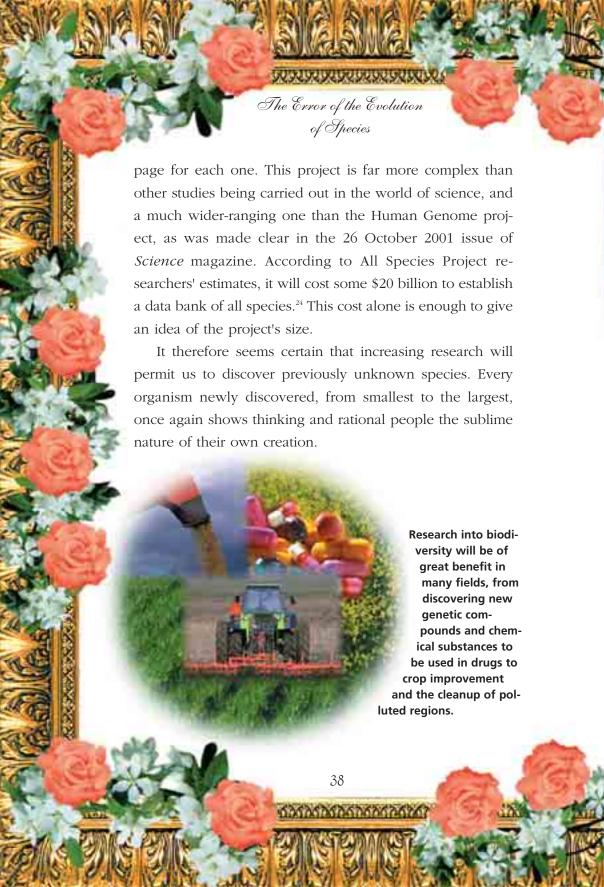


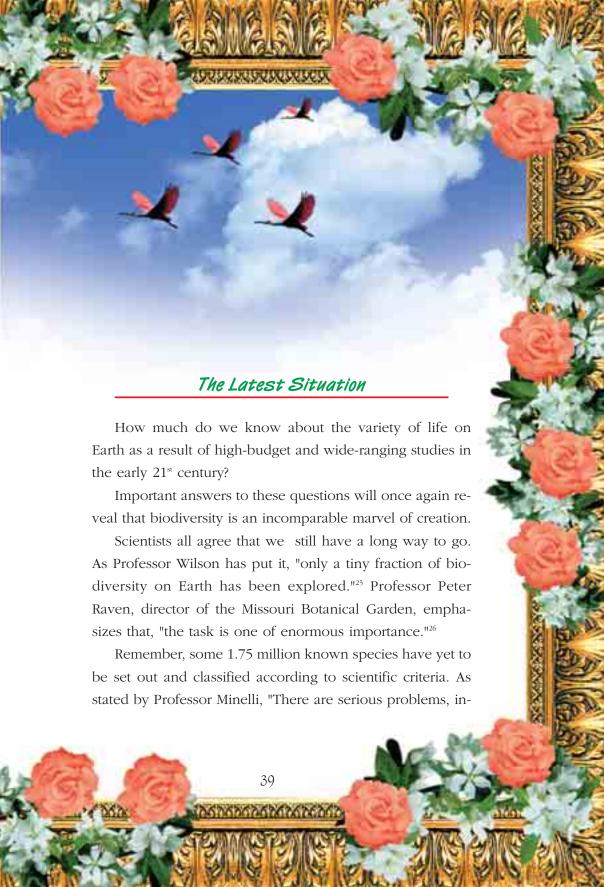
order to obtain more information about species throughout the world.²¹ This research is regarded as one of the most important developments in 21st century science. Diana Wall, a professor at Colorado State University and Director of the International Biodiversity Observation Year Management Board, summarizes the importance of this research:

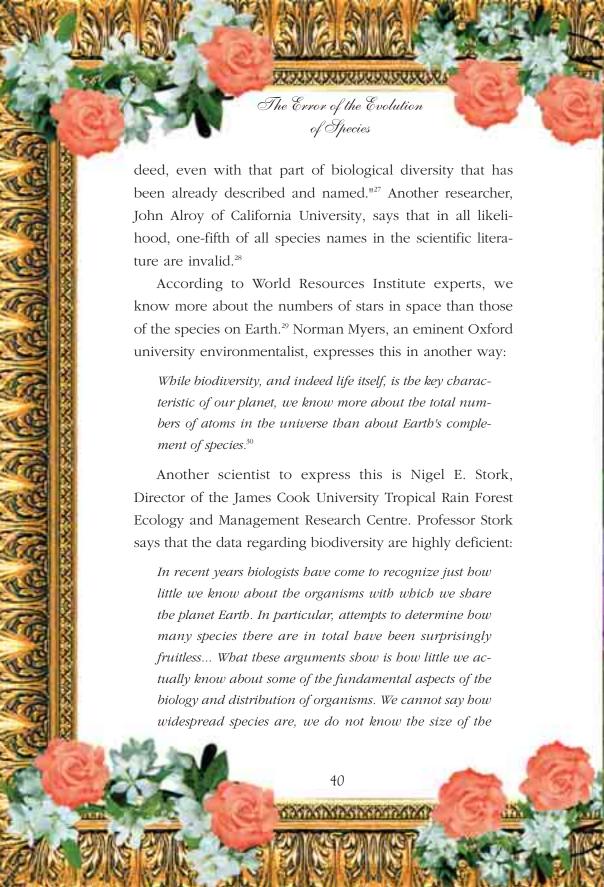
Scientists have described about 1.75 million species, but we estimate that there are over 12 million species still to be described. For 99% of species we simply don't have good information on their distribution, abundance, whether they are plentiful or endangered, or their role in providing goods and services that we get from ecosystems, such as renewal of soil fertility, decomposition of waste and purification of water...

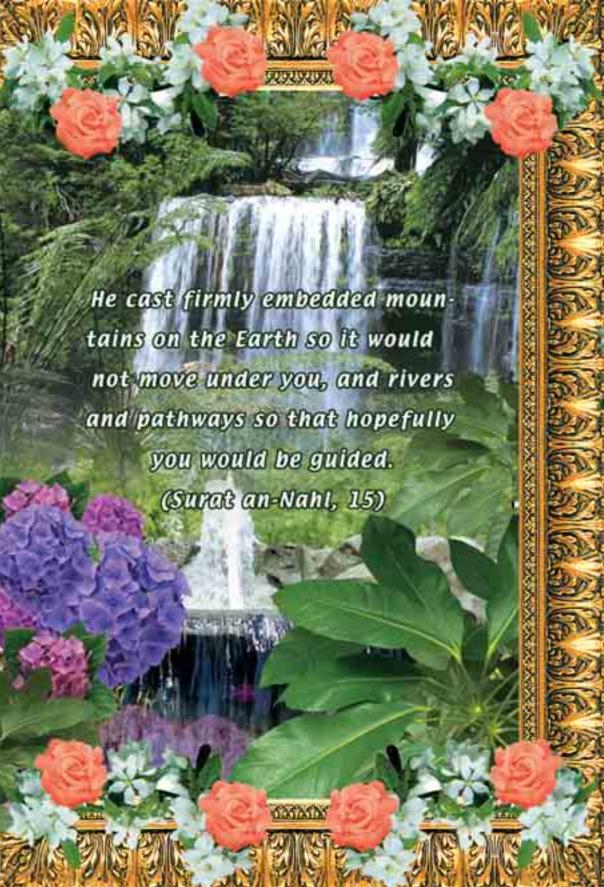
Exploring biodiversity will unlock many benefits, through discovery of new genes and chemicals that can be used for drugs, to improve crops, or to restore polluted land. Perhaps even more importantly, learning where species are, their role in maintaining healthy ecosystems, and how we can conserve them will be vital for making more informed decisions about our land, rivers and oceans.²²

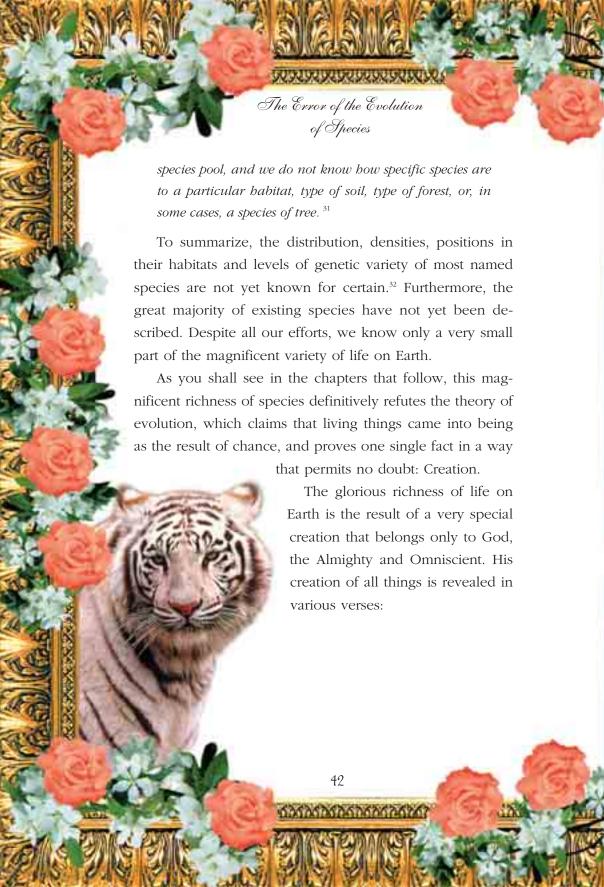
A new study initiated in this field is the All Species project.²³ Eminent biodiversity experts such as Edward Wilson and Peter Raven are involved in this project, whose aim is to name and describe all species, and to prepare an Internet

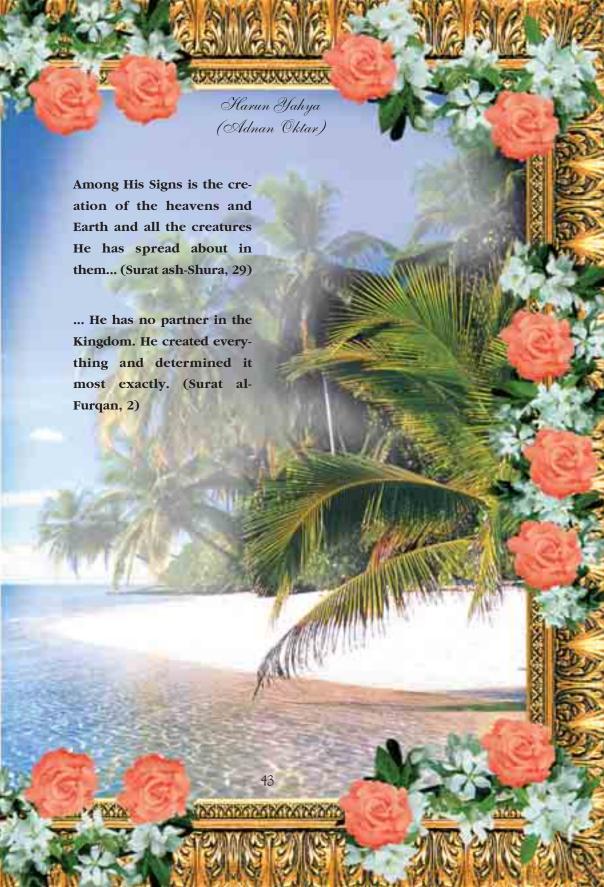




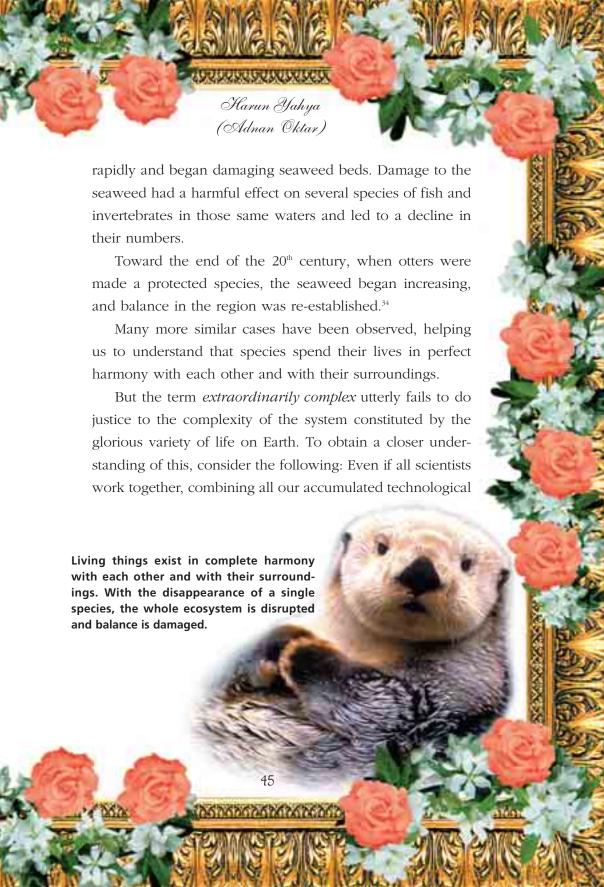


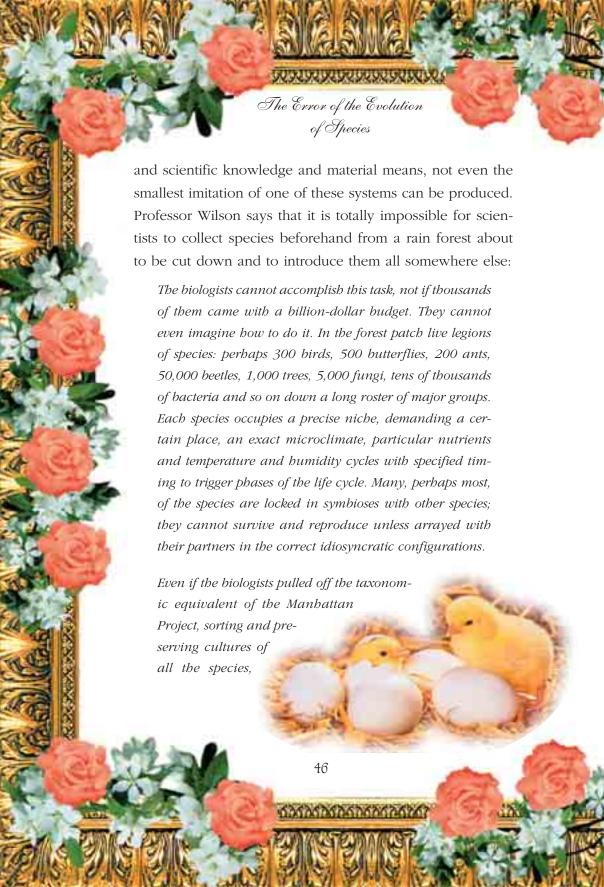














they could not then put the community back together again. It would be like unscrambling an egg with a pair of spoons. ³⁵

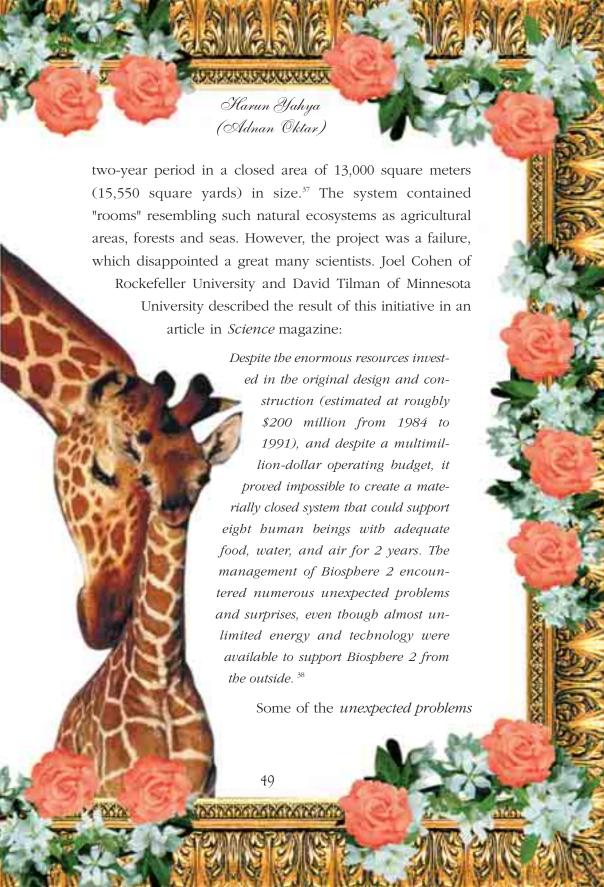
From Professor Wilson's statements, you can see that no ecosystem can ever be established using human intelligence and knowledge. Therefore, it is totally impossible for ecosystems to come into being through blind chance, as evolutionists maintain. The following statement by the well-known Professor of Botany Karl Niklas from Cornell University is significant:

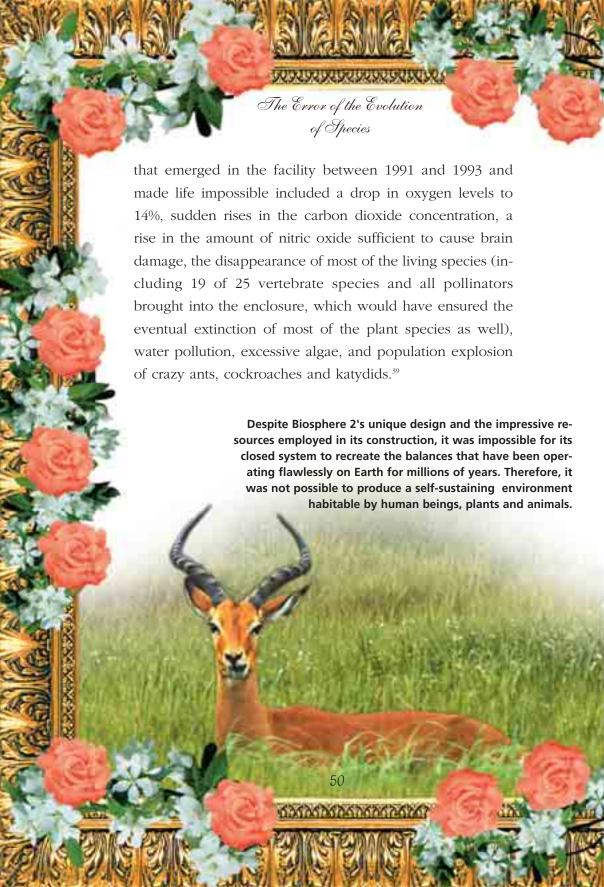
I don't think that the ecological patterns that we see surfacing in fossils and living organisms and across the continents are a consequence of chance.³⁶

Ecosystems operating in perfect harmony are no doubt manifest proofs of the fact of Creation and the existence of a sublime Creator. At the same time, the Earth's biodiversity and flawless order completely refute Darwinism, which claims that they formed as the result of blind chance and random coincidences.

Let's have a closer look at the fact of Creation in certain ecosystems with a wealth of biodiversity.









In short, despite all the efforts made, it proved impossible to produce in the closed Biosphere 2 system the balances that have been operating for millions of years on Earth, and thus it was impossible to establish an environment habitable for humans, animals and plants.

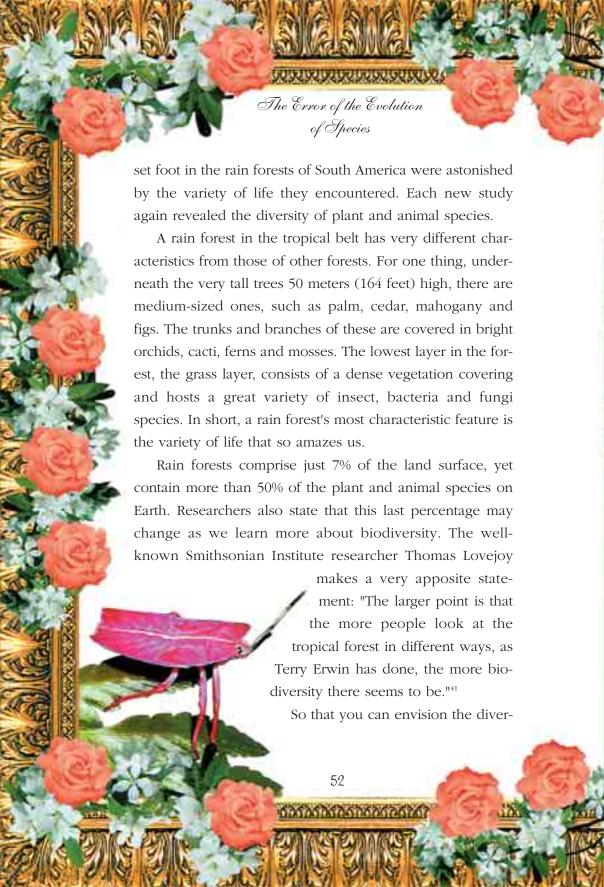
In conclusion, Professor Cohen and Professor Tilman summarized the lesson to be learned from the project:

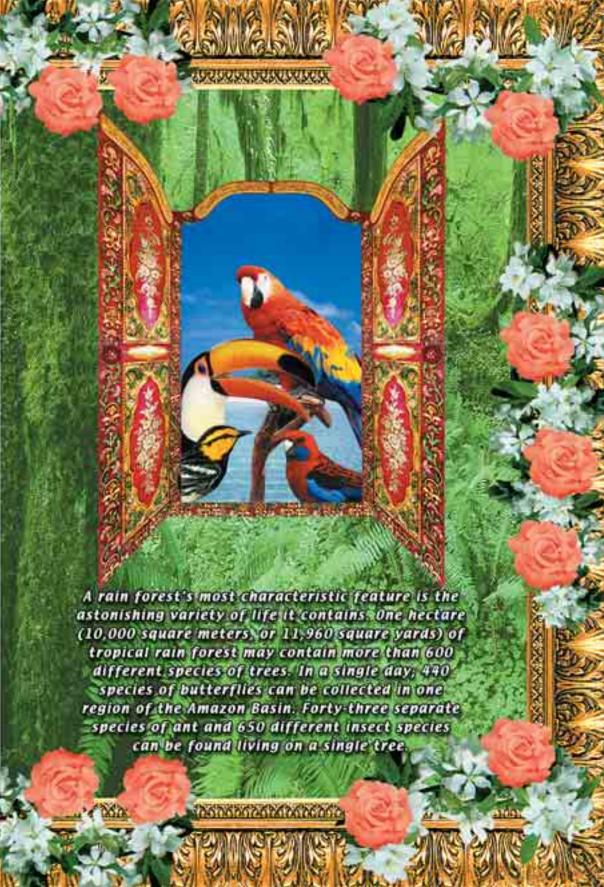
No one yet knows how to engineer systems that provide humans with the life supporting services that natural ecosystems produce for free.⁴⁰

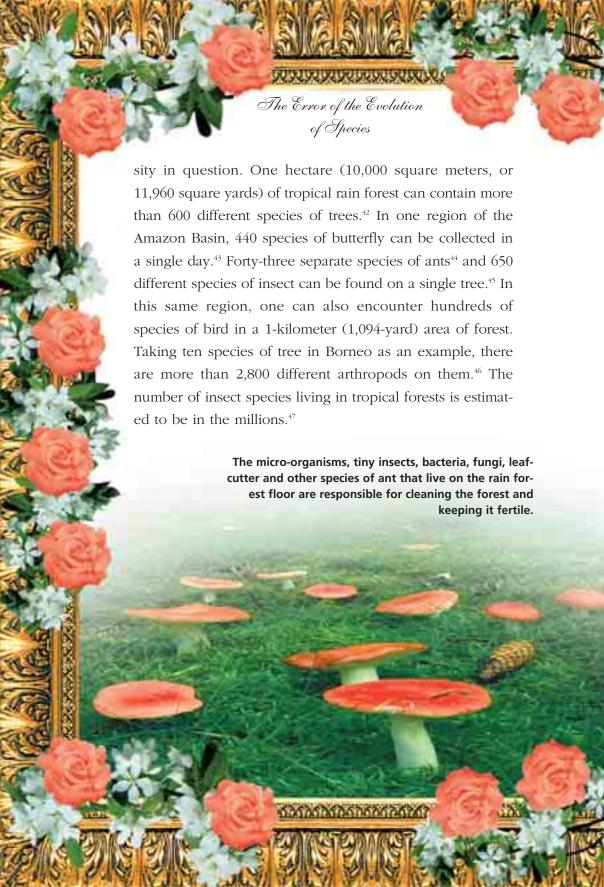
The Rain Forests

Whenever tropical rain forests are mentioned, the first things that come to mind are dazzling butterflies, unusual-looking insects, and large, broad-leaved, trees. Rain forests are found in regions close to the equator and consist of dense trees that are always green and very tall. These forests' most important feature is the extraordinary number of plant and animal species they contain. A tropical rain forest, millions of square kilometers in size, is home to a wide variety of species.

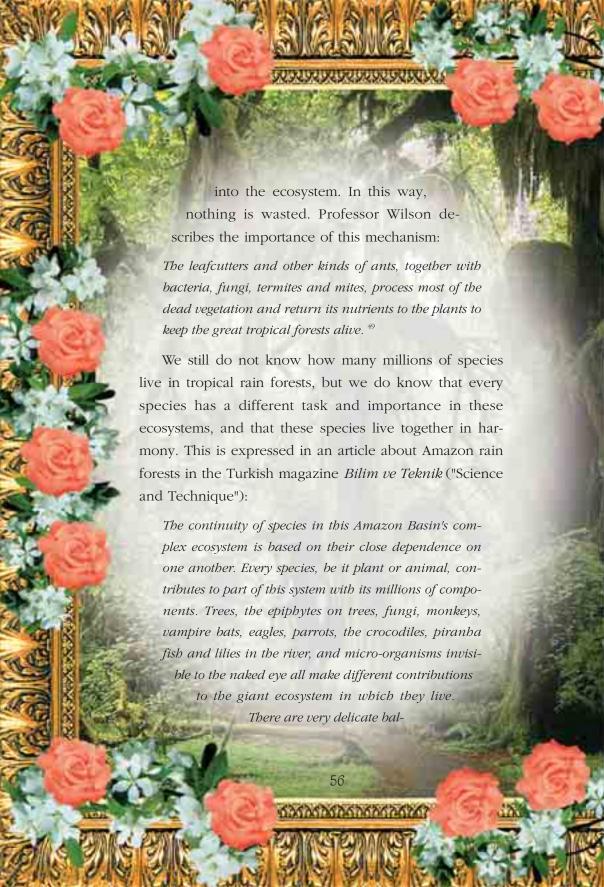
Around 250 years ago, the first European researchers to

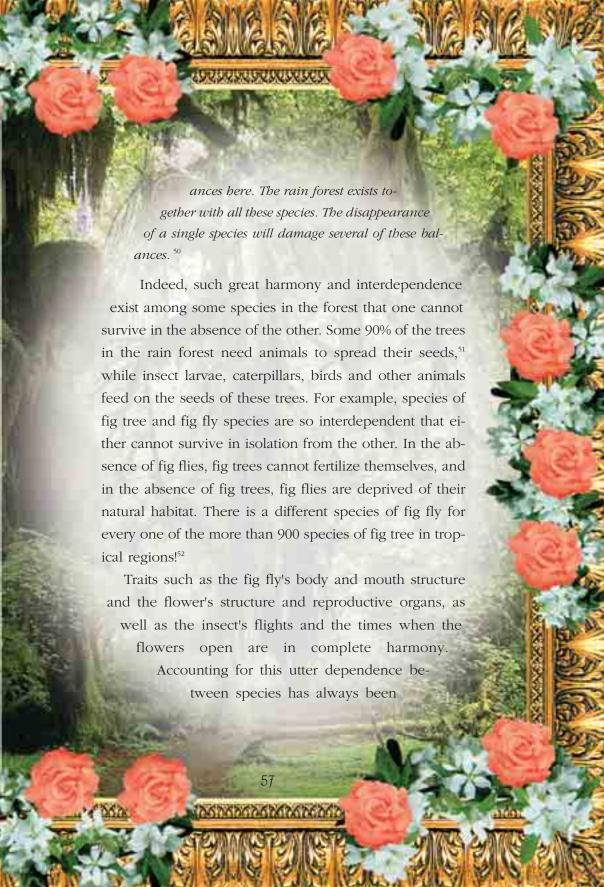














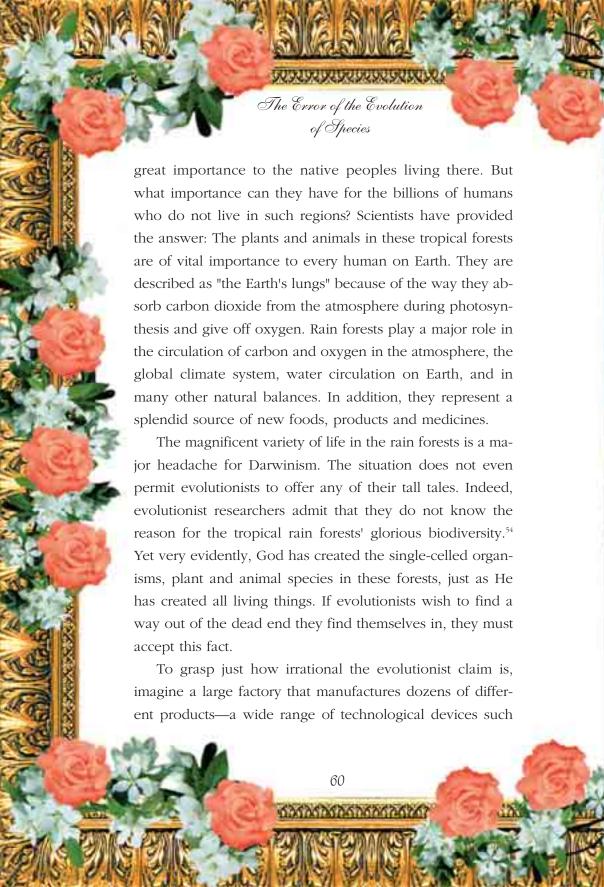


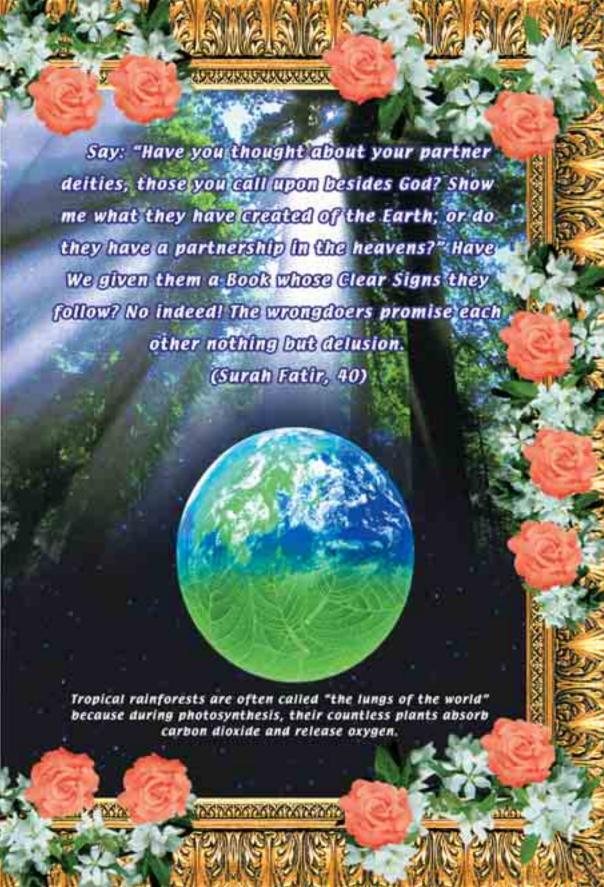
the orchid, would each have been exposed to mutations that simultaneously extended the length of their proboscis and nectary. Of course, such mutations would have had only advantageous effects on these two life forms (and beneficial mutations have never been observed). They would have to out-multiply other members of their species that had not undergone mutation, and this supposed process of natural selection would have to continue completely by chance, but without error, for millions of years.

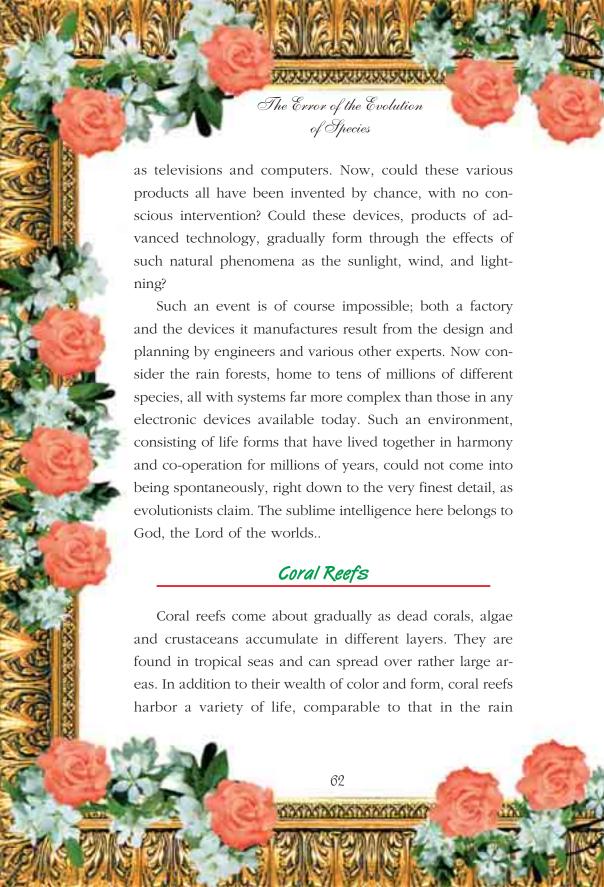
To believe that is like believing that a lock and the key that opens it each came to be independently, but in a manner totally compatible with each other. Yet clearly, reason requires us to accept that two structures completely compatible with one another are both examples of simultaneous creation. To put it another way, reason requires us to accept that the orchid and the moth were created in harmony with each other.

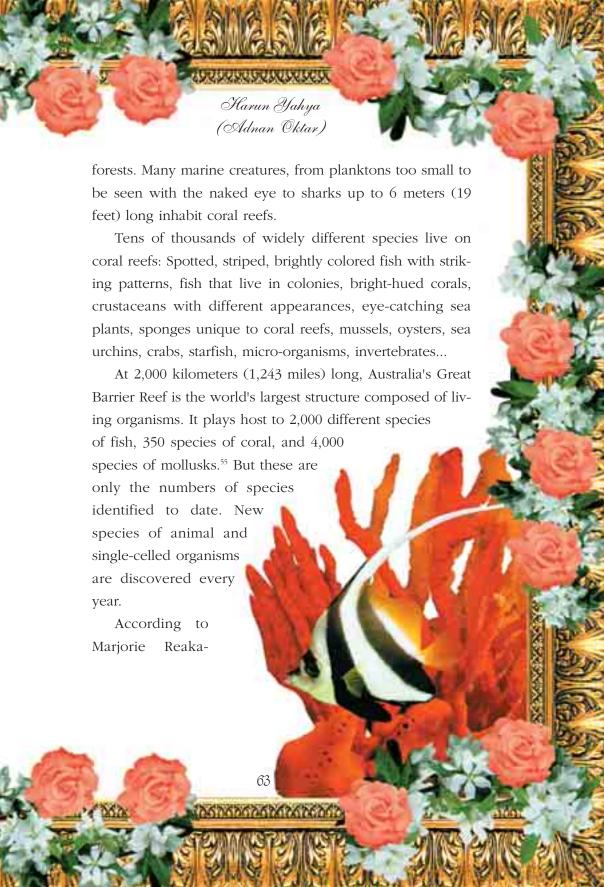
Another example of the flawless harmony among tropical life forms can be seen in those regions known as flood forests, found along the shores of the Amazon and its tributaries. When the rain is heaviest, they are flooded, and during this period, a marvelous phenomenon takes place. Fish come to eat the fruits that fall into the water and distribute the seeds of those fruits of several species of tree.

Clearly, the variety of species in the rain forests are of









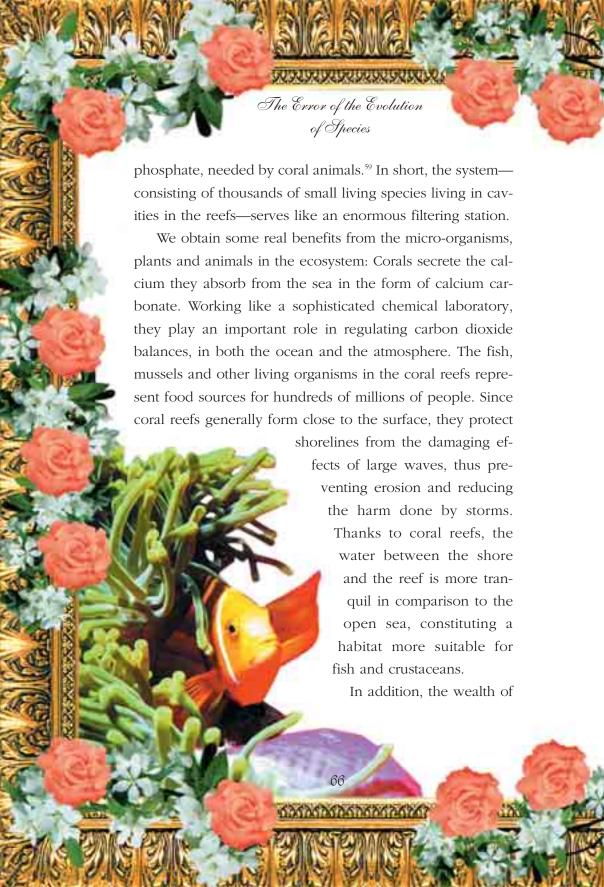




Kudla, Professor of Zoology at Maryland University, the calculated number of described species on coral reefs is 93,000, and the estimated number should be about 600,000-950,000 species.⁵⁶

In the same way as rain forests, coral reefs are full of living things created in such a way as to complement one another and meet each other's needs. For example, coral polyps live shared or symbiotic lives with single-celled algae (zooxanthellae) inside their tissues and green algae on their outer surfaces. Coral polyps take some of the nutrients produced by algae through photosynthesis. Algae, on the other hand, obtain the nutrients they need from the coral polyps. At the same time, the polyps provide a safe place for the algae to live.

Coral reefs are generally found in waters classified as being poor in terms of nutrients.⁵⁷ The question of how the reefs managed to grow in such waters has long been of great interest.⁵⁸ According to the latest research, one reason for the wealth of species on the reefs is that these animals work together in harmony and co-operation. One study published in the 18 October, 2001 edition of *Nature* magazine, revealed the importance of the species of sponges, mussels and ringworms living in the cavities in the reefs. By filtering vegetable plankton, these organisms, most of which are very small, secrete substances such as ammonia and





genetic material from the wide variety of life on coral reefs is used in medical research and in the development of new drugs. Douglas Chadwick, a biologist and writer for *National Geographic* magazine, expresses some of these benefits we enjoy from the coral reefs:

Humanity's ties to the creatures living around coral reefs may multiply as medical research taps more of the organisms at home there. Some have already yielded compounds active against inflammations, asthma, heart disease, leukemia, tumors, bacterial and fungal infections, and viruses, including HIV. Studies found that chemicals used by sea slugs and certain sponges to repel fish also work on land as insecticides. Screening the venom of tropical cone snails for pharmaceutical properties turned up a possible nonaddictive substitute for morphine. Sea whips, related to true corals, offer a potential painkillers as well, while coral skeletons themselves are being investigated as substrate for bone grafts. ⁶⁰

Each of the species living on coral reefs has been equipped with extraordinary systems and characteristics. For instance, some fish and other creatures have more color receptors than human beings, and therefore perceive colors better than we do. 61 Most coral reef fish are able to change their colors to a certain extent, and some species





match those of their surroundings. Species such as angel fish and butterfly fish possess very striking colors. Since they can easily be detected by predators, one would expect them to soon become extinct. But these fish survive despite their striking colors thanks to their own particular

Porcupine fish protect themselves by distending their stomachs like balloons and erecting the spines on their skin.

methods of defense. Evolutionists are unable to account for this state of affairs, which is the exact opposite of Darwinist expectations.

One evolutionist researcher studying this is the marine biologist Justin Marshall of Queensland University. In an article, "Why Are Reef Fish So Colorful?" in *Scientific American* magazine, Dr. Marshall describes this mystery "as tantalizing as it is beautiful." ⁶⁵

In fact, there is no mystery here at all, nor anything disappointing, only history being repeated. Darwin himself described as "trifling particulars of structure [that] often make me very uncomfortable. The sight of a feather in a peacock's





and micro-organisms have lived in harmony and order for millions of years—have come about without a superior and conscious intervention?

Of course these events are impossible. Anyone able to reason can see their illogicality. Reef creatures with their amazing characteristics demonstrate the sublimity and glory of their Creation; they reveal the infinite artistry and omniscience of God, their Creator.

Deep-Sea Creatures

While walking along the seashore, you must have noticed seaweed and various sea plants.. These and some microscopic planktons produce their own nourishment by way of photosynthesis. This represents the first step in the marine food chain. However, sunlight cannot penetrate deeper than 100 meters (328 feet) in sea water, and the deepest ocean depth is 11,000 meters (36,090 feet) beneath the surface, with an average depth of 5,000 meters (16,400 feet). There is no possibility of photosynthesis taking place there, under conditions of high pressure per square inch, a low temperature in the region of 2 to -4 degrees Celsius (35 to 39 degrees Fahrenheit), and constant darkness. The only food sources consist of waste products and organic sub-



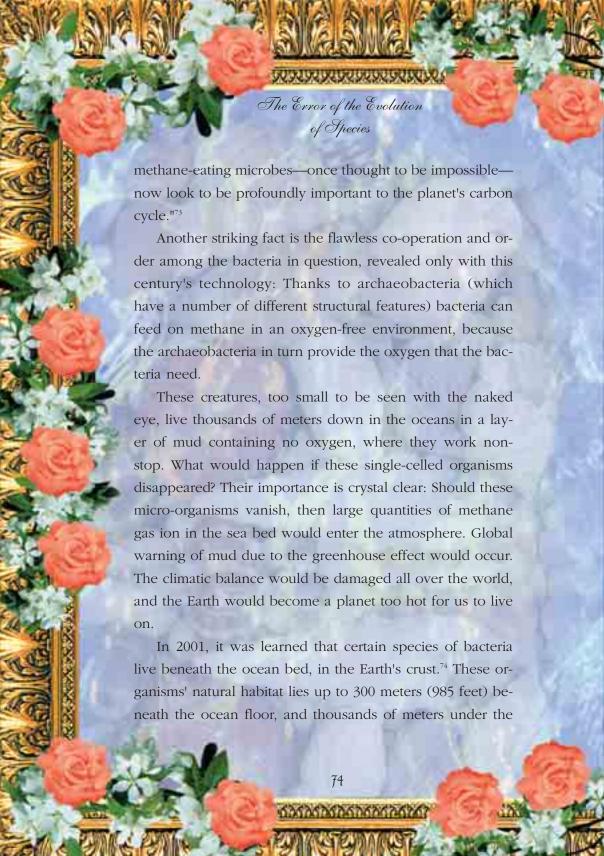


This sampling revealed that the deep-sea may, in fact, rival tropical rainforests in terms of the numbers of species present. Thus the deep sea may physically resemble a desert, but in terms of species composition, it is more like a tropical rainforest. ⁶⁸

In one study 1,500-2,500-m depth range off New Jersey and Delaware, 30 cm x 30 cm samples of sea water contained 798 species in 171 families and 14 phyla.⁶⁹ In another study performed off the coast of southern Australia, more than 800 species were determined in 10 square meters (11.96 square yards) of the sea floor.⁷⁰

Yet a large part of the oceans have still not been the subject of scientific research. Much of the bottom of the world's oceans are still unexplored and unmapped.⁷¹ Therefore, every new investigation reveals some previously unknown species.

One biological phenomenon discovered at the beginning of the 21st century was that in the ocean floor's mud layer, certain bacteria and archaeobacteria consume methane, and thus perform an activity of vital importance to our lives. It is thought that these micro-organisms consume devour 300 million tons of methane every year, about as much as humans now inject into the atmosphere with agriculture, landfills, and burning of fossil fuels.⁷² Therefore, as stated in *Science* magazine of July 20, 2001, "These

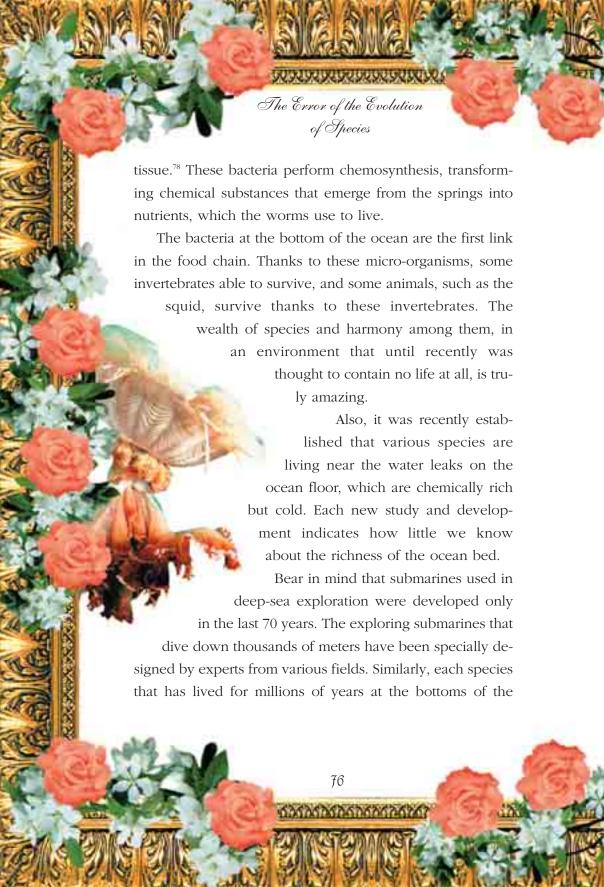


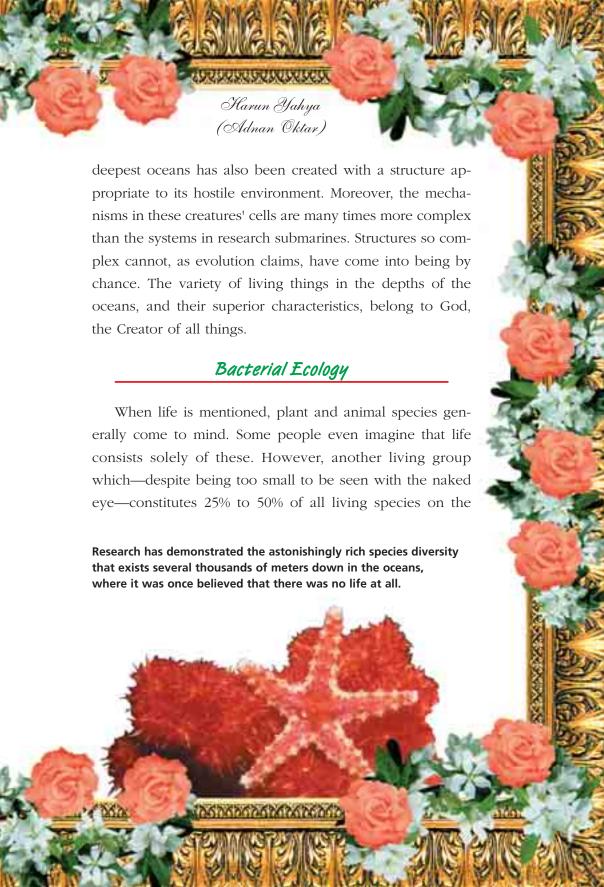


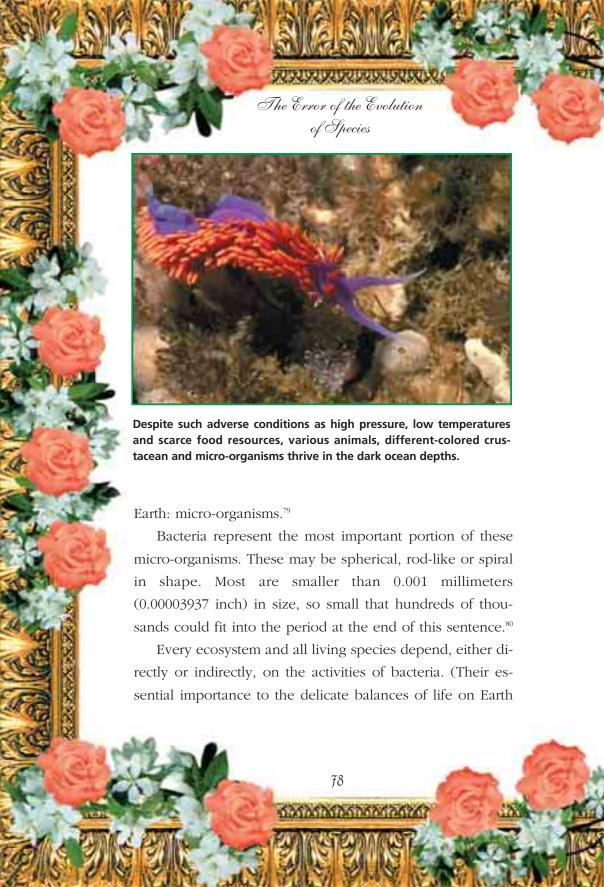
surface. The activities they carry out are equally astonishing. These bacteria feed on rocks, and in doing so, perform another task of the greatest importance to all living things, making a major contribution to the flow of elements and chemical substances in the oceans.⁷⁵ Note that these single-celled organisms do something, so important to life on Earth, that even the entire world's laboratories and scientists could not manage were they to join forces.

Another ecosystem on the ocean floor is found around hydrothermal vents,⁷⁶ where superheated water containing various minerals emerges from cracks in the Earth's crust. More than 300 unique species have so far been discovered living in close proximity around these springs, which were discovered only in the past 20 years.⁷⁷ This environment is home to large tube worms several meters in length and covered in bright red hairs, giant oysters, mussels, squid and invertebrates with all kinds of different appearances. Understandably, it has attracted great interest from researchers. In the search to answer how these creatures find food, astonishing facts have emerged.

The tube worm found in the ecosystem around these hydrothermal vents is very different from the other worms we are familiar with: It has no mouth or digestive system! It meets its nutritional needs thanks to the bacteria that live inside its tissues—a total of 285 billion bacteria per ounce of









will be described in later sections.) They can be found just about everywhere.⁸¹ Thousands of species of bacteria exist in ice caps, hydrothermal vents, environments with high levels of salinity or acid, amid chemical contaminants or pollutants, in the organs and tissues of animals and human beings, in the depths of the seas where there is little or no oxygen, and in the deep layers of the Earth.

For example, the intestines of a healthy human being are an ecosystem containing 400 different species of bacteria, organisms that play a very important role in the regular functioning of the intestines.⁸²

Bacteria are part of a group that exhibits the greatest diversity among living things. but about which the least is known. 83 Their diversity is far beyond the grasp of even 21st century technology. You could say that a gram of soil containing thousands of species of bacteria and billions of individuals resemble a rain forest at the microscopic level. In other words, an extraordinary diversity similar to a rain forest's can also be found in a handful of earth under the microscope.

To date, scientific studies aimed at determining bacteria and microbe species are very much fewer than actually needed. It is difficult to investigate these organisms for a number of reasons: Most species of bacteria cannot be





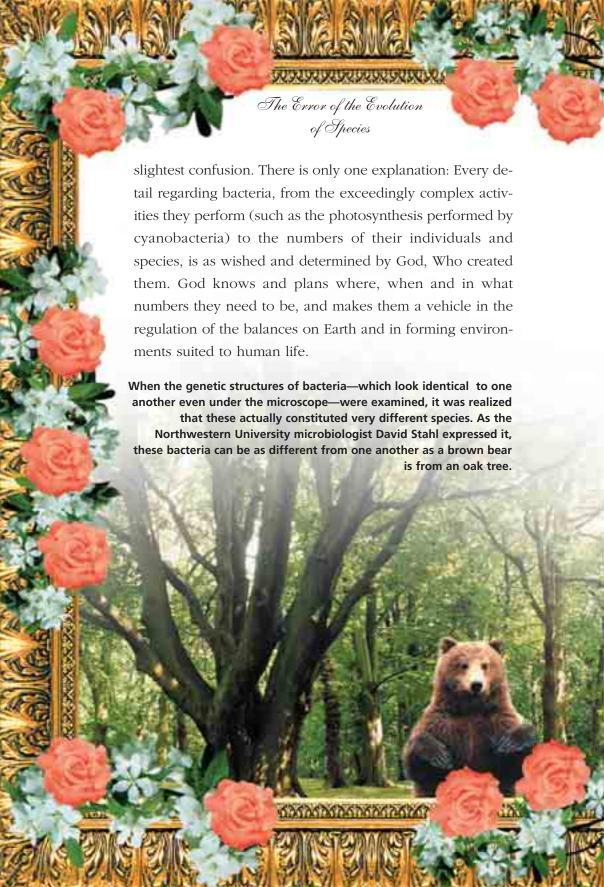
Institute, gives the following figures regarding the wealth of bacteria on Earth:

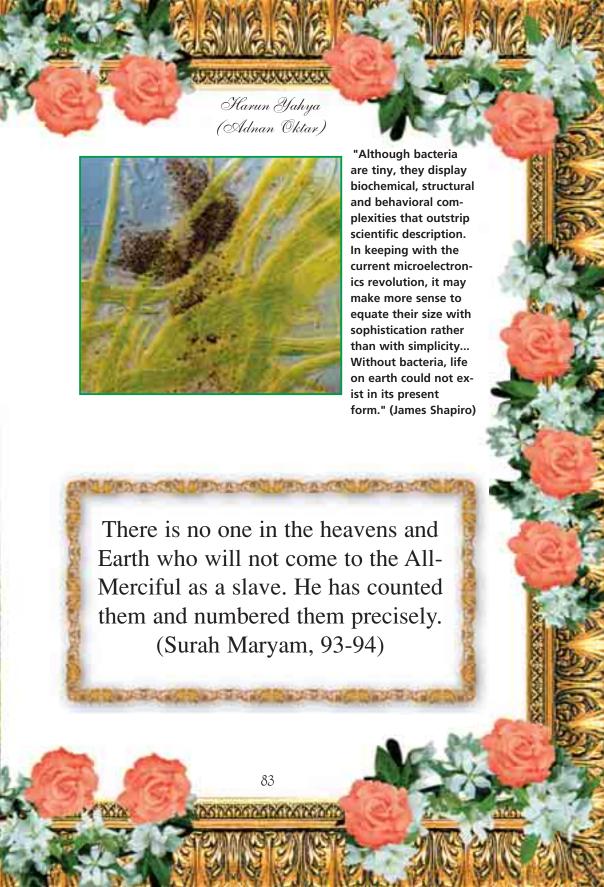
Only 3,000-4,000 species of bacteria have been described. It has been estimated that there may be as many as 300,000 species of bacteria, but more likely the number is closer to 3,000,000.86

Most of us think of bacteria as entities that merely cause disease. Yet this is not correct. Only a small fraction of bacteria species are agents of disease. From As Andrew Pollack described in an article, bacteria play an essential role in the formation and continuity of life on Earth and in maintaining balances essential to life. This fact is set out by Professor James Shapiro from the Chicago University Department of Biochemistry and Molecular Biology:

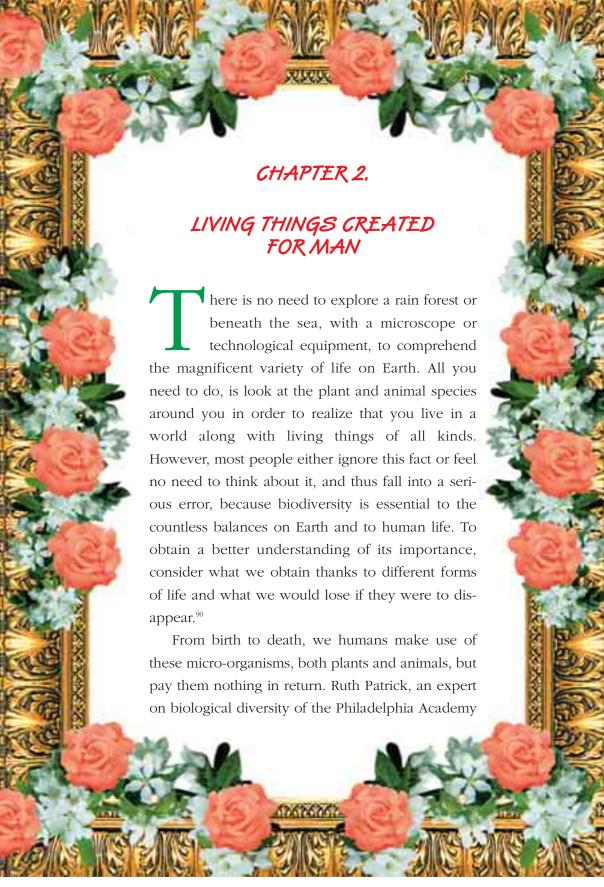
Although bacteria are tiny, they display biochemical, structural and behavioral complexities that outstrip scientific description. In keeping with the current microelectronics revolution, it may make more sense to equate their size with sophistication rather than with simplicity. . . . Without bacteria, life on earth could not exist in its present form. 89

Although they multiply very rapidly and are so small and numerous, bacteria act in such ways as to permit not the













now until the end of the world. We know that, because our very lives and our economies are dependent upon biodiversity. If biodiversity is reduced sufficiently, and we do not know the disaster point, there will no longer be any conscious beings. With them will go all value—economic and otherwise. 94

We can witness the benefits we obtain from the plant animal species around us every day. However, there are also countless living things we cannot see with the naked eye, or which we know nothing about. Professor Paul Ehrlich makes the following comment:

... the basic point is that organisms, most of which are obscure to nonbiologists, play roles in ecological systems that are essential to civilization.⁹⁵

Advances in technology have revealed a number of facts concerning the importance of the diversity on Earth. Many living things that were previously regarded as unimportant or useless provide human beings with new blessings. For example, a peculiar-looking marine worm contains chemical substances used in the treatment of sick people. Or consider the recently discovered bacteria species that promise great benefits for humanity. For example, one species of bacteria found in the Potomac River in the USA can break down the chlorofluorocarbon gasses that damage the ozone





One could tackle that question systematically by first choosing from among all the species exploited directly for food, drink, spices, fiber, timber, pharmaceuticals, and industrial products such as waxes, rubber, and oils. Even if one were highly selective, the list could amount to hundreds or even thousands of species. And that would only be a start, since one would then need to consider which species are crucial to supporting those used directly: the bacteria, fungi, and invertebrates that help make soil fertile and break down wastes and organic matter; the insects, bats, and birds that pollinate flowers; and the grasses, herbs, and trees that hold soil in place, regulate the water cycle, and supply food for animals. The clear message of this exercise is that no one knows which combinations of species—or even approximately how many—are required to sustain human life.

Rather than selecting species directly, one might try another approach: Listing the ecosystem services needed by a lunar colony and then guessing at the types and numbers of species required to perform each. Yet determining which species are critical to the functioning of a particular ecosystem service is no simple task. Let us take soil fertility as an example. Soil organisms are crucial to the chemical conversion and physical transfer of essential nutrients to higher plants. But the abundance of soil organisms is ab-



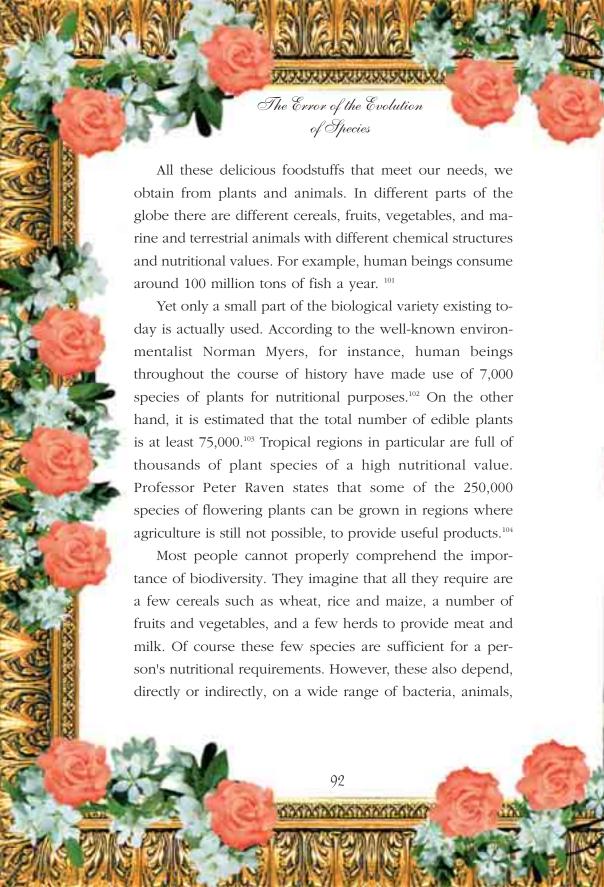


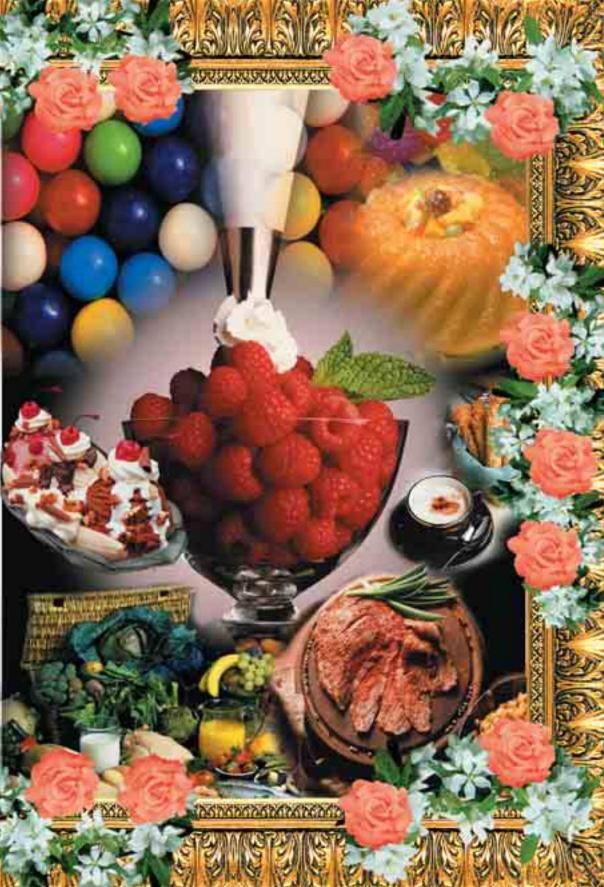
series of coincidences; they were created and placed at our service by our Lord, the infinitely bountiful.

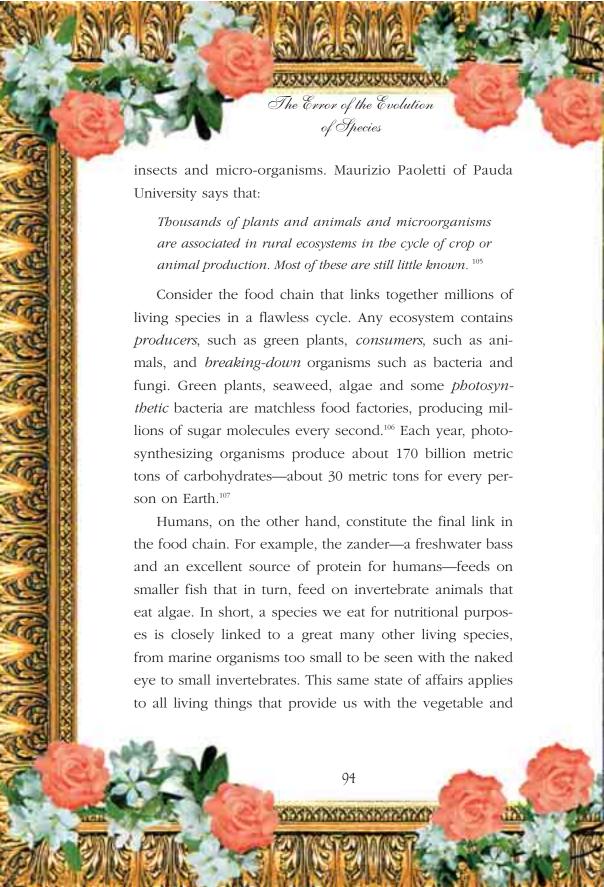
This chapter shall examine the outlines of a very small part of the blessings bestowed on us by the richness of species; and in this way, answer to some extent the question of why there exists such magnificent diversity on Earth.

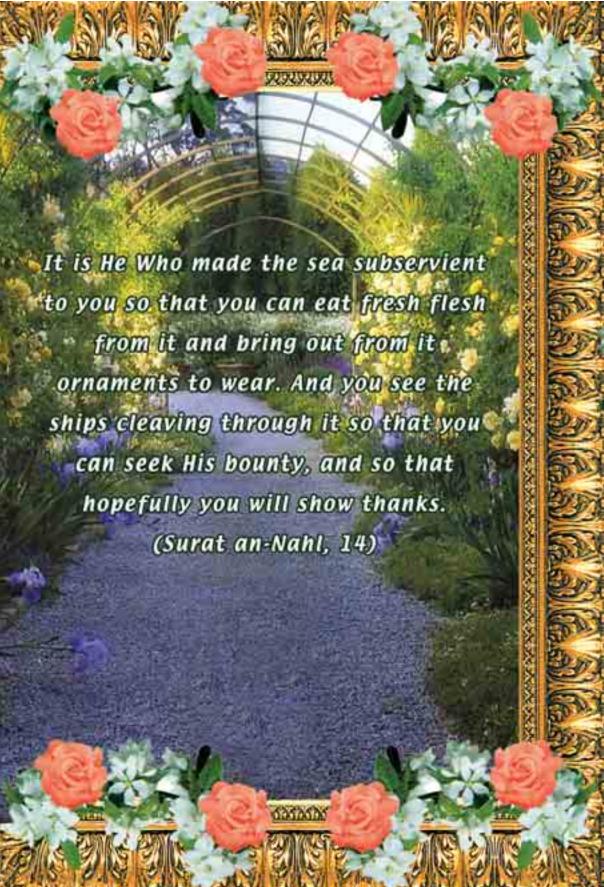
1)The Plants and Animals that are Our Food Sources

We must eat and drink to stay alive—that's how we obtain the proteins, amino acids, carbohydrates, fats, vitamins, minerals and fluids essential to the many processes taking place in our trillions of cells. The striking point here is that eating is not difficult, troublesome or inconvenient, but a function we enjoy. We derive great pleasure from the tastes of the matchless foods, drinks, fruits, vegetables, cakes, sweets and pastries that meet our daily nutritional requirements. Try to recall all the delicious foods and drinks you have tasted up to now. The fruit juices you drink to quench your thirst, the melons or watermelons you eat in the heat of summer, the lamb chops or fish cooked on a barbeque, ice cream, chocolate, pastries, rice pudding, ravioli, strawberry cake, rice, honey...











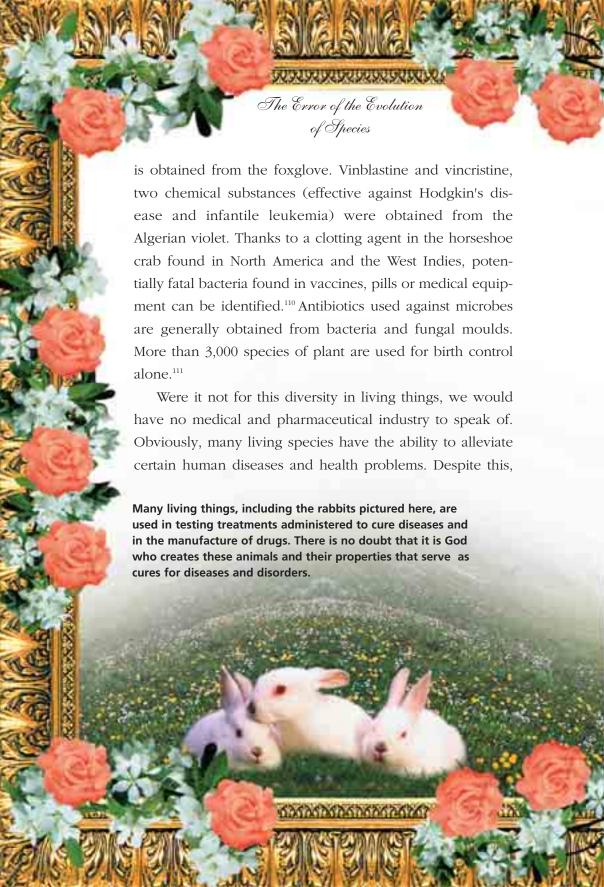


for them and some they ride and some they eat. And they have other uses for them, and milk to drink. So will they not be thankful? (Surah Ya Sin, 71-73)

2)Living Things Used in Drug Production

Thousands of micro-organisms, fungi, plant and animal species are being used in the treatment of various illnesses. Many drugs are prepared with chemical substances obtained from living things or duplications of these substances in laboratories. For example, aspirin—an analgesic painkiller familiar to just about everyone, comes from the bark of the willow tree. Quinine, used to treat malaria for the last 70 years, is found in the roots and bark of the cinchona tree. More than 20,000 species of plant are today employed for medicinal purposes. According to Professor Norman Farnsworth of Illinois University, plants represent the main source of medicines for some 3.5 to 4 billion people. 109

The use of living things, most of whose names we have never even heard of, is increasing every day in the medical and pharmaceutical industries. Taxol, used against breast and ovarian cancer, is obtained from the bark of the north American yew tree. Squalamine, which prevents the development of cancer, comes from the liver of a species of shark; digitalis, an adjunct treatment for people with heart failure,



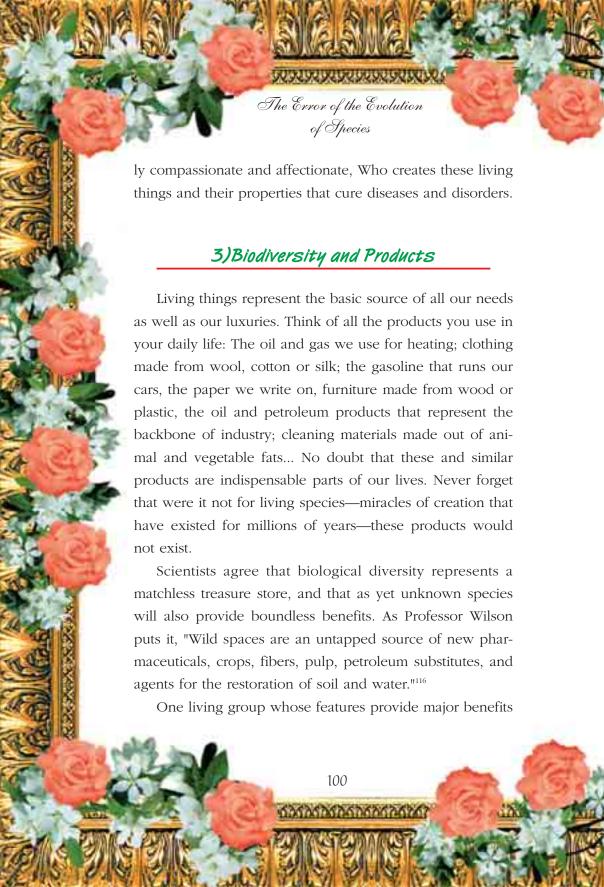


only a very small fraction of the living species in nature have been described, and of those, only an even smaller portion has been studied in detail.

For example, California University's Professor Peter Bryant states that only 1% of the plants in the tropical rain forests have been studied in terms of their medical properties. The number of plants and invertebrates that have been investigated comprehensively in terms of whether they are effective against disease is very low. Wonderful proteins, molecules and chemical compounds that can liberate human beings from many diseases would already appear to exist in living things.

In addition, bacteria, birds, monkeys, rats, cats, dogs, rabbits, pigs, insects and many other living things are used in medical research and the testing of new drugs and vaccines. For example, the fruit fly *drosophila* is a laboratory insect widely used in genetic research. The armadillo is one of the few species of animal that can be used to research leprosy.¹¹⁴ The number of animals used annually in scientific studies in the USA alone is 18 to 22 million.¹¹⁵

Never forget, it is God Who creates both disease and cure. The therapies and drugs used in the treatment of disease are simply means. Similarly, the micro-organisms, animals and plants used in the production of treatments and drugs are also just raw materials. It is our Lord, the infinite-

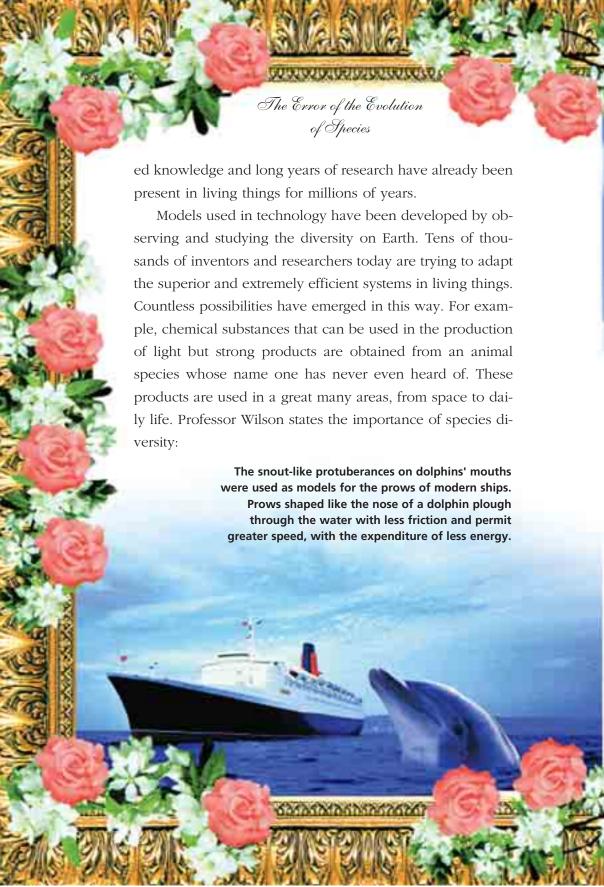


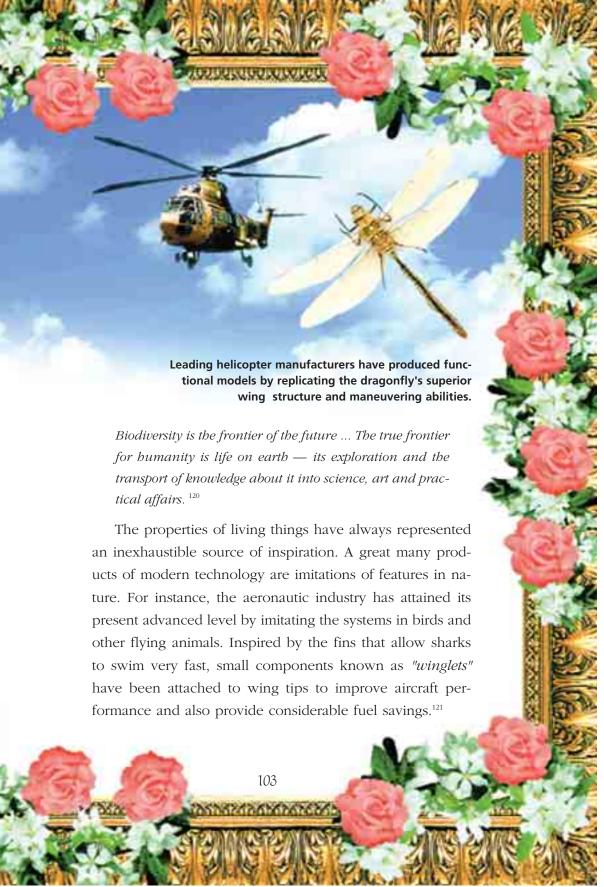


for human beings are bacteria. For example, scientific research in the field of biotechnology makes considerable use of the bacterium *Acetobacter xylinum* in the production of cellulose, and *Alcaligenes eutrophus* in the manufacture of plastic. Some cyanobacteria species can be used in the manufacture of paper and other products obtained from trees. According to the results of one study announced in 2002, a species of bacterium, *Desulfuromonas acetoxidans*, produces electricity by using sea sludge! In short, bacteria are matchless factories with the capacity to create a great variety of useful byproducts.

4)Living Models for Technology

Everywhere, from the depths of the oceans to lakes, from deserts to forests, from under the ground to the air itself, the Earth is filled with living things possessed of astonishing properties and systems. Designers, researchers and scientists learn from them: They produce new models and designs by adopting the features of certain plants and animals as their starting points. A great many designs believed to be invented with human ingenuity are actually already in existence in nature. The structures or models of technological products emerging as the result of accumulat-













ton and sugar cane harvest in the United States between 1930 and 1980, as well as a three-fold increase in tomatoes, and a four-fold increase in potatoes and maize.¹²⁷

Contrary to the distortions made by certain circles who seek to use biodiversity to further their own ideologies, it has absolutely nothing to do with the fictitious theory of evolution. Proponents of evolution try to portray the variations and genetic diversity in nature as evidence, by misleading those who have little information on the subject of biology. However, genetic diversity within a species consists of the exchange of biological information already possessed by members of that species to produce offspring with new genetic combinations. Therefore, no new genes nor any new species emerges as a result of genetic variation. Species are always the same species, because their genes are always the same. Existing genes are merely brought together in different combinations, which has nothing at all to do with any supposed process of evolution.

Genetic diversity is one of the most important links in Earth's complex ecological chain. Paul Ehrlich, Professor of Biology at Stanford University, explains:

Aside from nuclear war, there is probably no more serious environmental threat than the continued decay of the genetic variability of crops. 128



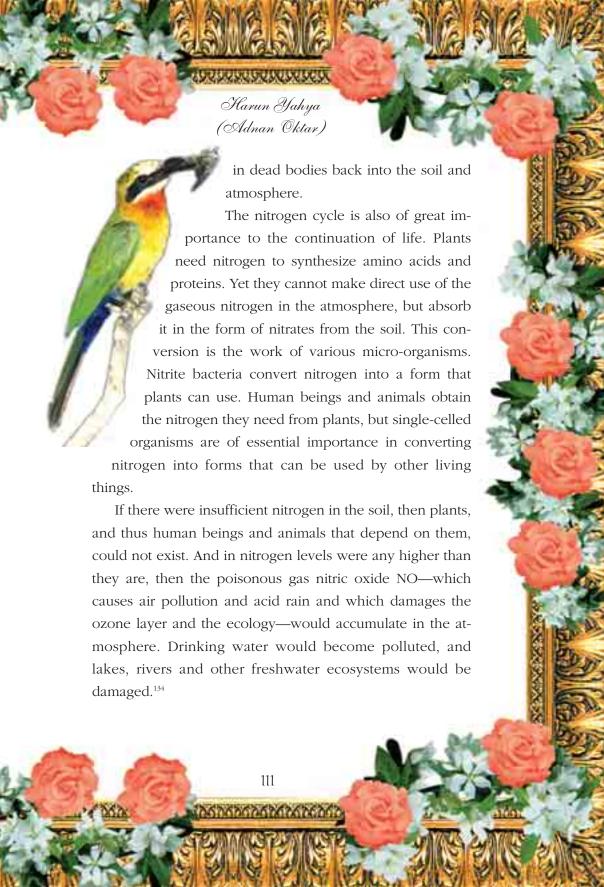


crops and reducing the need for insect pesticides.¹³¹ Bearing in mind that pesticides are damaging the balances in nature, kill useful species, and have a negative impact on human health, the importance of these helpful organisms to control harmful insect pests becomes even clearer.

For example, the European corn weevil *Pyrausta nubilalis* and the Japanese insect *Popillia japonica* are being eradicated through the use of natural predators and parasites. Wild bees that feed on the larvae of insect pests that attack fruit are released into Californian fruit farms after they have been raised for that purpose. ¹³² In conclusion, different species have different tasks in the maintenance of the balances in nature.

Whenever "insects" are mentioned, most people think of those that damage crops or human health. Yet this is a grave misconception, since it is known that most insects are beneficial. ¹³³ Insects play a major role in the food chain on land, in the fertilization of flowering plants, in the cleaning of the Earth, and many ecological balances. To put it more accurately, human life is directly or indirectly dependent upon insects.









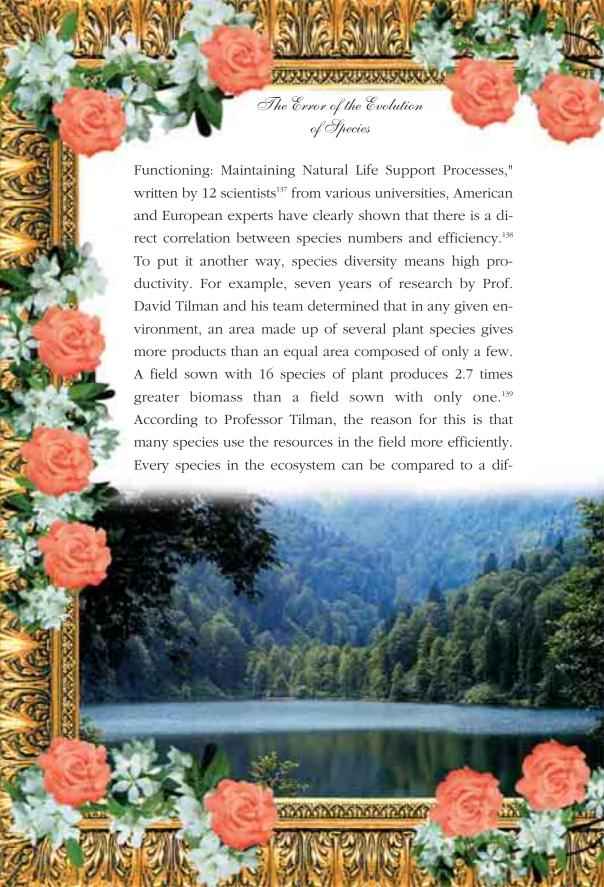
without disappearing into the ground.

In addition, living things also play important roles in the global recycling of such elements as phosphorus, sulfur and others. One point requiring emphasizing is that these cycles operate with perfect efficiency. Despite all the advanced technological means of the age we live in, only about 10% of our waste is ever recycled. Yet the recycling efforts carried out by living things for millions of years is nearly 100%. No doubt, this is one of the countless marvels of creation in the system of interconnected living things.

8)Biodiversity's Positive Impact on the Ecosystem

The activities of every ecosystem, be it a lake, or a forest or a coral reef, are largely controlled by living things. As has been mentioned throughout this book, different organisms play major roles in maintaining an environment able to sustain human life. In addition, scientific research has lately revealed that biodiversity increases the productivity of ecosystems, their efficiency and resistance. The more species in a given environment, the healthier and better-ordered is the system's functioning.

As stated in an article titled "Biodiversity and Ecosystem





ferent sphere of work in a human society. In the same way that overall well-being increases as these various different jobs increase, so an ecosystem's productivity rises as its number of species increase.¹⁴⁰

According to these research and experiments, the reason why productivity increases is the co-operation between species. 141 Yet Darwinism has no room for such joint endeavors as co-operation. According to Darwinism, nature is somewhere in which living things struggle to the death, and in which the weak are eliminated. But observations have once again refuted the theory of evolution.

Another fact, recent research reveals is that the diversity of species increases the resistance of an ecosystem. Biodiversity is literally an insurance mechanism against the negative impact of drought, insect pests, disease and climate changes. Lecosystems with biodiversity are less vulnerable and less affected by adverse circumstances. In addition, biodiversity influences ecosystems, so that following negative conditions an ecosystem re-assumes its former state much faster. In Africa, for example, parts of the Serengeti plains that are rich in species, return to their former state faster after animals have been grazing on them.



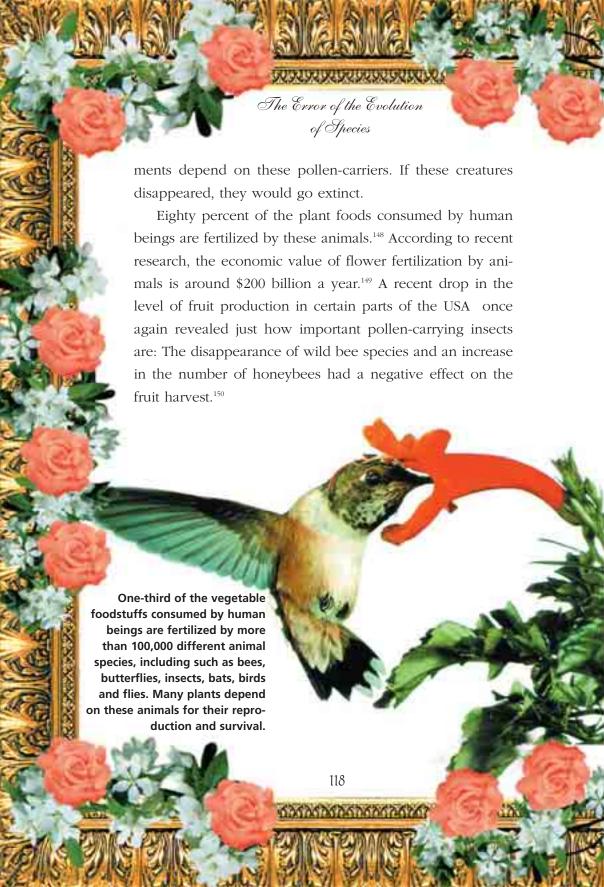


ganisms also play a vital role in regulating gasses in the atmosphere and the temperature on Earth. For example, if the level of carbon dioxide in the atmosphere were not regulated by plants, then the Earth's temperature would rise and the ice caps would melt. As a result, some regions would be flooded, and others would become into deserts, endangering thousands of species.

Fertilization of Plants:

One of the ecosystem services is the fertilization of plants and flowers. Some 220,000 species of flowering plant need animals for successful fertilization. More than 100,000 different species take part in this process, including bees, butterflies, flies, birds and even bats,147 which carry pollen from flowers' male organs to female ovaries. Many species of plants in forests, meadows, agricultural lands, orchards and other environ-

Butterflies help to fertilize plants by carrying pollen from flowers' male organs (stamens) to their female organs (pistils).

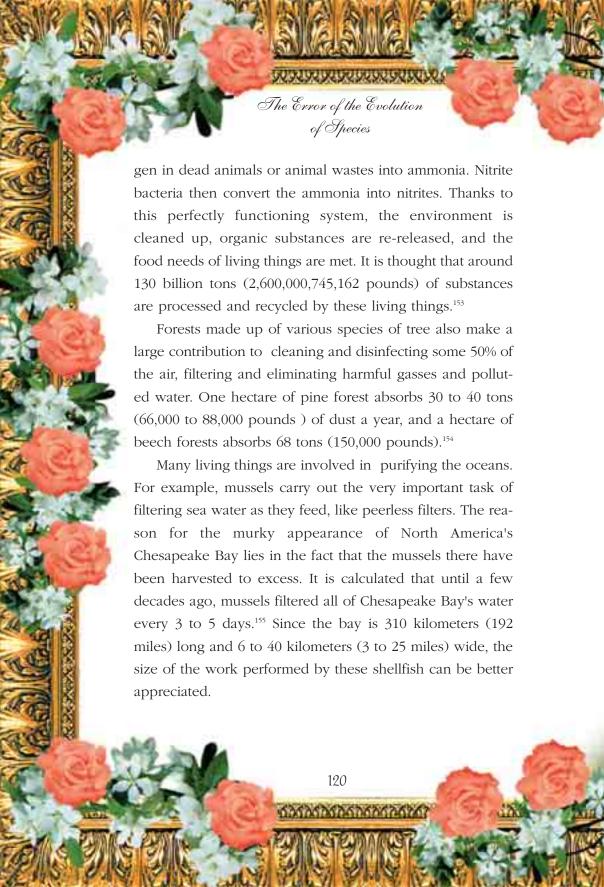


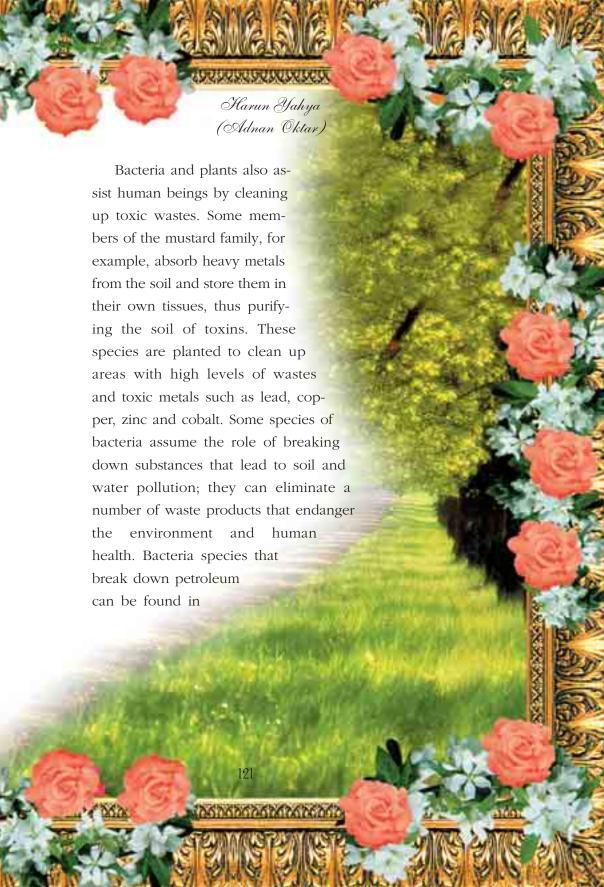


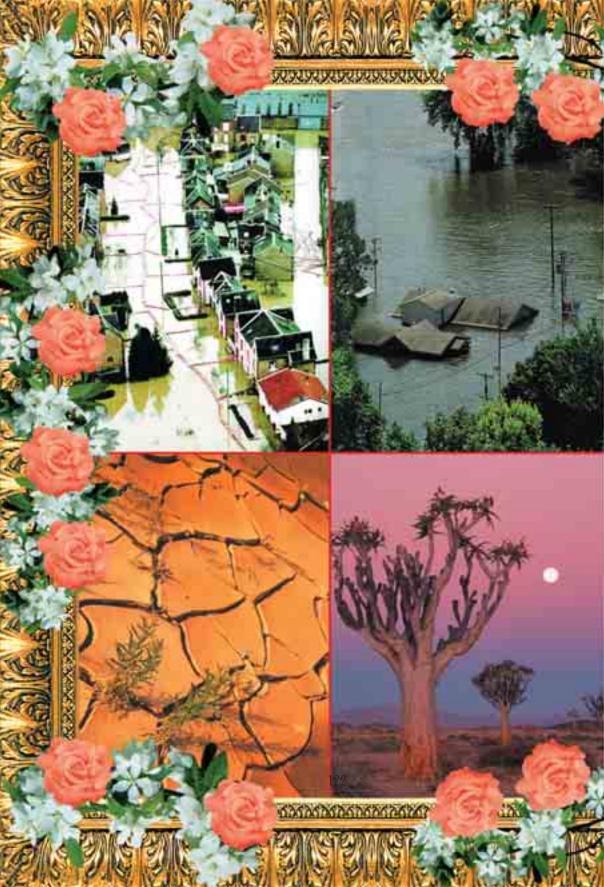
In addition, thousands of animal species also contribute to tree reproduction and the growth of forests by distributing tree seeds. For instance, *Pinus albicaulis*, a whitebarked species of pine tree) reproduces with the help of a bird named *Nucifraga columbiana*. The seeds of this pine tree lie within a tightly closed cone; the bird propagates new *P. albicaulis* trees by opening the cone, extracting the seeds and burying them.¹⁵¹ In his book *Made for Each Other: A Symbiosis of Birds and Pines*, Professor of Forestry Ronald Lanner of Utah State University describes the vital role played by birds in the germination of pines.¹⁵²

Cleaning Services: What state would your home quickly turn into, if your rubbish were not collected? The same applies to the Earth. If leaves falling from trees, dead animals and plants, rubbish and industrial wastes accumulated, the Earth would become uninhabitable. This is forestalled, however, by the work of ants, termites, mites, fungi, insects, invertebrates and to a large extent, bacteria. Millions of species break down and convert dead organisms and organic wastes into minerals and components that provide foodstuffs for still other organisms. Just like assembly workers in a factory, various bacteria species work in co-operation.

For example, saprophytic bacteria first convert the nitro-







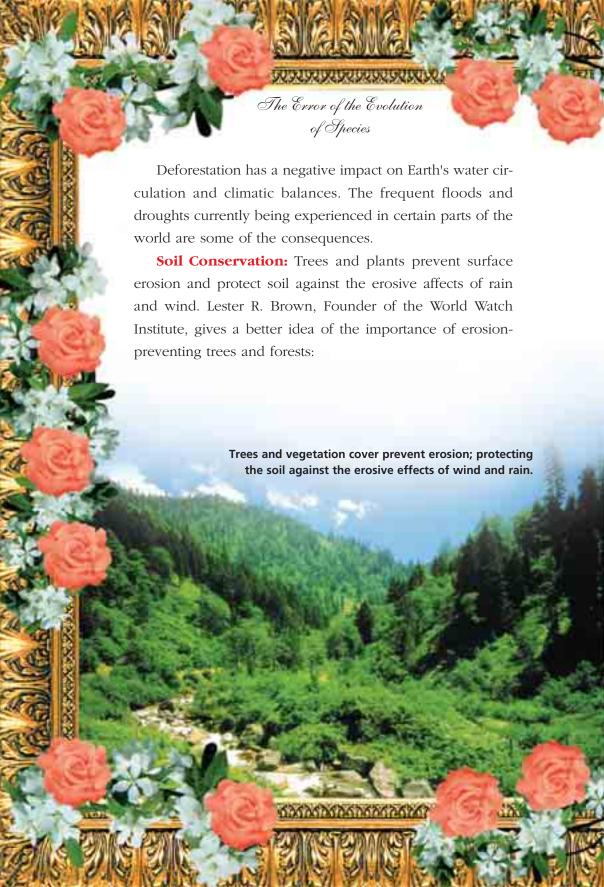


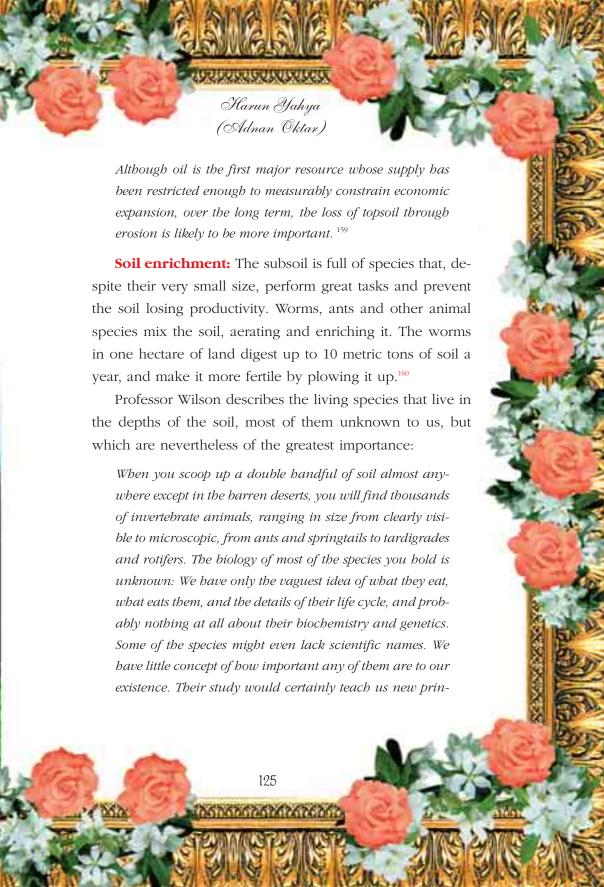
just about all types of soil.¹⁵⁶ In the wake of an oil spill in Alaska in 1989, micro-organisms were used to help clean up the coast..

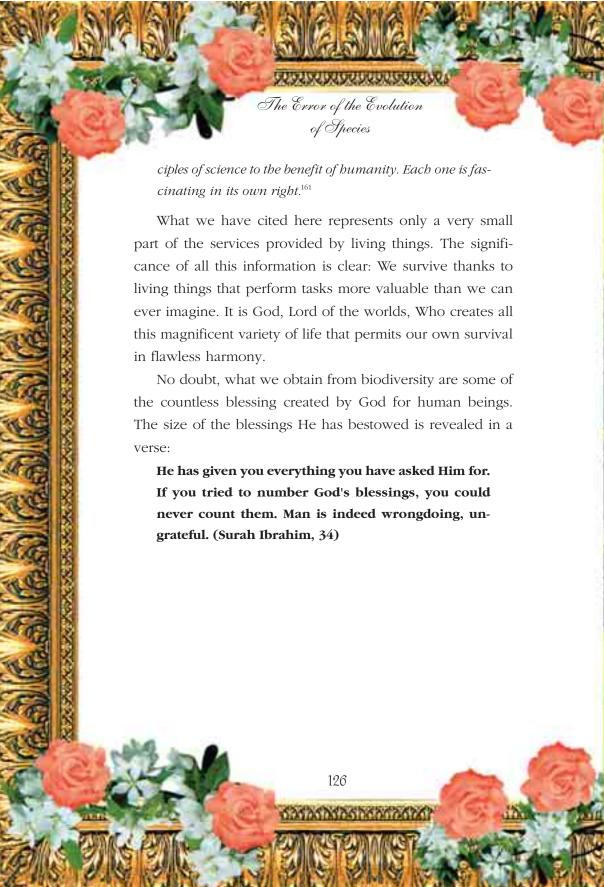
The following case will help clarify the economic implications of the sea, land and atmosphere constantly being cleaned by living things. When the quality of water in New York City recently dropped, officials had two alternatives: One was a water-purification plant costing \$6 to 8 billion. The other was the natural improvement of the reservoir carrying water to the city and of the water itself, to cost \$1 to 1.5 billion. In the light of these findings, the New York authorities decided to improve the reservoir, because their study showed that this would save \$6 billion over 10 years.¹⁵⁷

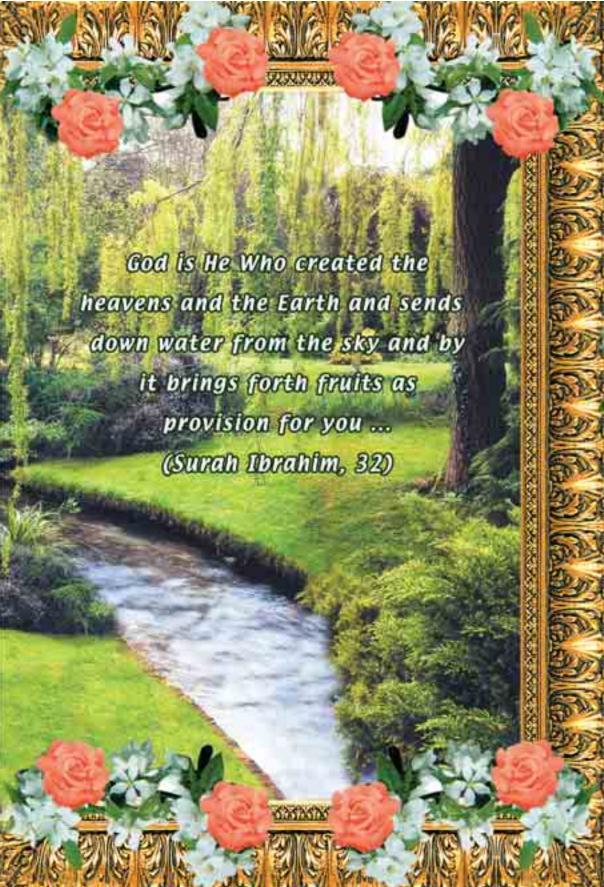
Climate Regulation: Trees, plants and forests play a part in balancing the Earth's climate structure. Forests stabilize the humidity level in the air; in summer, they reduce the temperature by 5 to 8.5 degrees Centigrade (41 to 47 degrees Fahrenheit), and in winter they raise it by 1.6 to 2 degrees (34.7 to 35.6 degrees Fahrenheit), thus moderating heat and cold.¹⁵⁸

Trees, plants and forests play a role in the maintenance of planet Earth with its balanced climatic structure. The frequent floods and droughts in various parts of the world are a result of the destruction of forests.

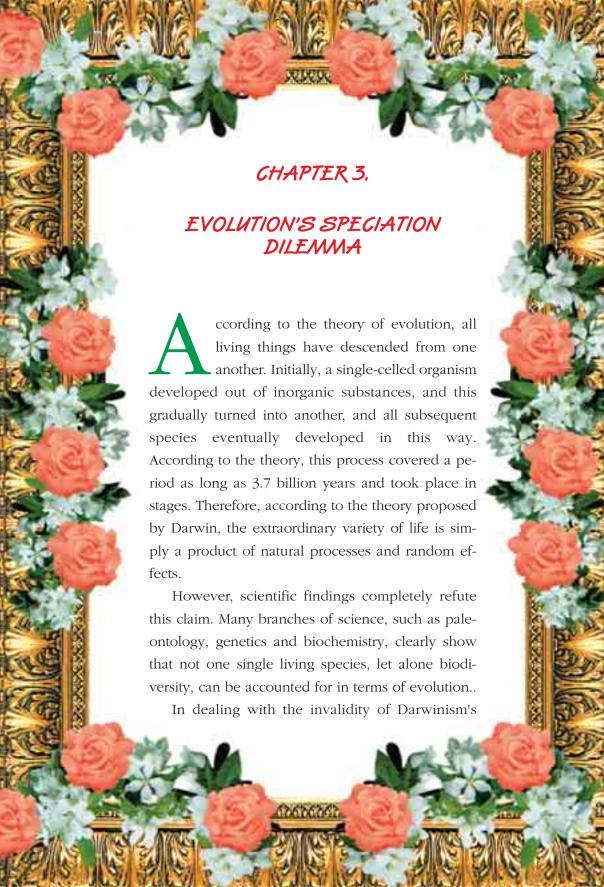


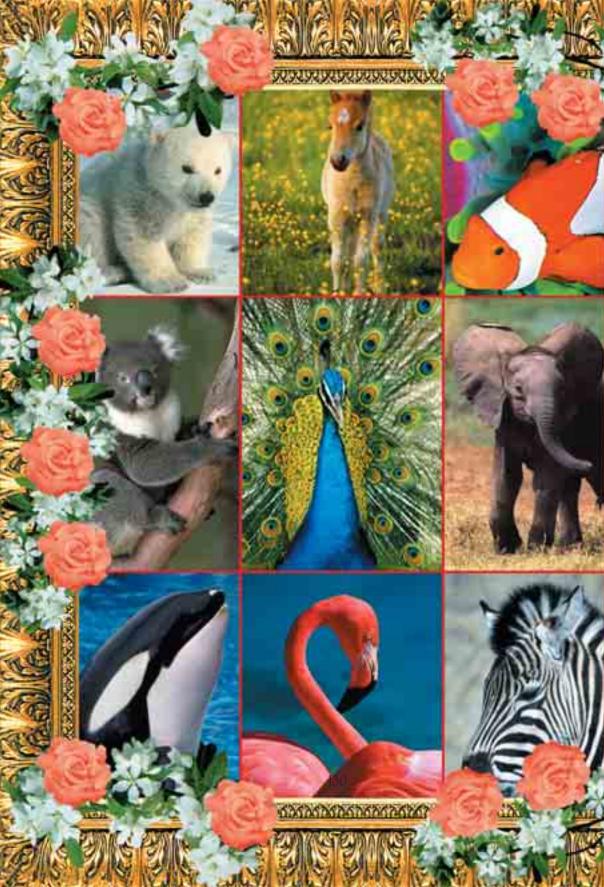














claims regarding speciation, let us first provide some general information about biological classification.

Classification of Living Creatures

Try writing down the names of all the animals, plants and micro-organisms you have ever encountered or heard of. No matter how long your list, it will represent only a very small fraction of the living species on Earth. Suppose that others from different countries have also prepared such a list. A more comprehensive list may emerge when these are all combined together. But this time, the list will become confused because of some of the same life forms will be referred to by different names, or different ones by the same name.

To overcome these difficulties, biologists give every plant and animal a scientific name, such that all organisms are described according to a binomial classification system. The first word is generally Latin—a practice left over from the days when Latin was an international language. For example, the dogs you see every day are Latin-named *Canis familiaris*, and cats are *Felis catus*.

The animal kingdom contains more than a million described species, making it the largest of the kingdoms.



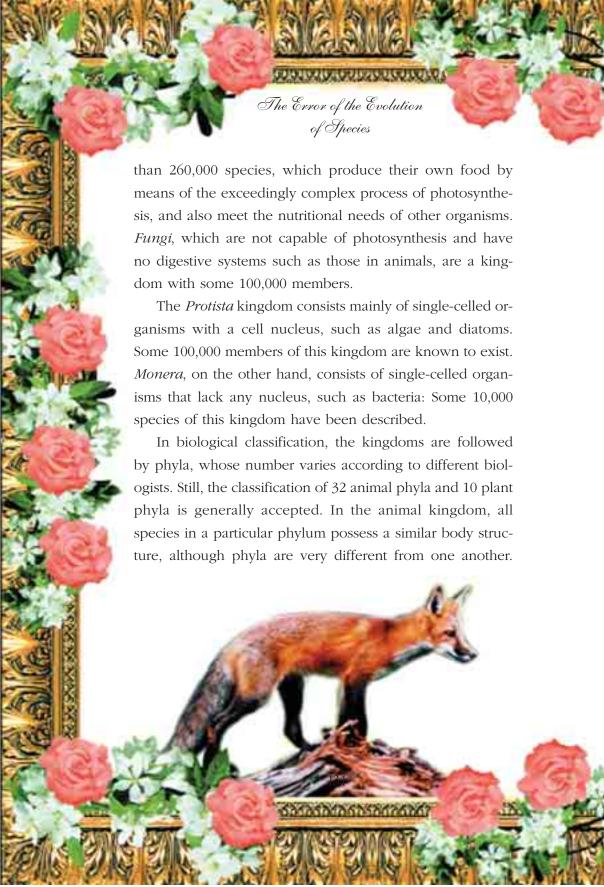


Every living thing occupies its own particular position in all of the above seven groups. (There are also sub-categories within this hierarchical classification.) For example, the tree we commonly refer to as the white pine is a member of the plant kingdom and of the phylum *Tracheophyta*. It is also a member of the class *Pteropsida*, the order *Coniferales*, the family *Pinaceae*, the genus *Pinus* and the species strobus.

The scientific name of the wolf, a carnivorous canine, is *Canis lupus*; it is also a member of the phylum of mammals, the order Carnivora, the family *Canidae* and the genus *Canis*.¹⁶³

In this classification system, the largest unit is kingdom. Until the 20th century, most biologists divided the world of living things in two—either plants or animals. In the last century, however, progress in the fields of microbiology and biochemistry in particular revealed that this simple division didn't go far enough. Today, a five-kingdom classification is generally agreed upon. In addition to plants and animals, the fungi, protista and monera are also regarded as separate kingdoms.

The *animal kingdom*, containing more than 1 million described species, is the largest, made up of multi-celled organisms that digest food, generally move, and have complex systems and organs. The *plant kingdom* contains more





For example, the phylum that includes sponges is completely different from the phylum *Chordata*, which includes vertebrates—fish, mammals, birds and reptiles. The insects we are familiar with are of the phylum *Arthropoda*, the largest phylum in the animal kingdom, which also includes marine crustaceans.

Living things belonging to a particular class share many more common features than do mem-

bers of a phylum. For example, birds, reptiles and mammals are all members of the phylum *Chordata*, but belong to different classes. Birds, which have wings and also feathers—a structure not to be found in any other animal group—are members of the class Aves. Reptiles, members of the class

Reptilia, lay eggs, are cold-blooded and covered in scales. Mammals are members of the class *Mammalia*, and give birth to and suckle their young, are warm-blooded and generally covered in fur.

In biological classification, a class is divided into orders. The mammals with which we are familiar consist of 23 different classes. Those that feed on insects, like the mole and hedgehog, are members of the class *Insectovira*. Rodents





known as taxonomists. They divide into species those populations that mate only among themselves in nature, which give rise to viable offspring, and which resemble one another in terms of structural and functional properties. They determine the classification, such as the specific genus to which a species belongs, and which genera belong to which families.

Classifications by different taxonomists are basically similar, but still exhibit important differences. For example, five species may be grouped under one, two or three different genera. That is why scientists often differ and disagree regarding the classification of different living things.¹⁶⁴

The Founders of Taxonomy

The classifications outlined above are vital in terms of scientific research and study. Some, however, imagine that classification is a part of the theory of evolution. The reason for this is evolutionist propaganda. Modern taxonomists are largely evolutionist biologists; and as a result, taxonomy and evolution are generally referred to in the same breath. Yet this is a grave error.

The foundations of taxonomy were laid before Darwin's theory of evolution was put forward. In addition, the





species their scientific names (such as *Homo sapiens* for human beings). The year 1753, the year when the 10th edition of his book *Systema Naturae* was published, is regarded as the start of the science of taxonomy. To

Linnaeus named and classified plant and animal specimens collected by himself and his students from all over the world, paying close attention to their structural similarities and differences. The system he developed is still in use, largely unaltered, today. So successful is his system in the description and classification of living things that he has become one of the most eminent figures in the history of science.

Linnaeus believed that God created living things and that species do not change. He summed up his research in these words: "There are as many species as the Infinite Being produced diverse forms in the beginning." According to him, classification revealed the Divine Order of God's creation. The interrelated hierarchy in living things was a sign of creation in God's flawless order and harmony, and not of evolution, as Darwin later believed. In his books, Linnaeus frequently stated that the magnificent plan he observed in the natural world could have come into being only through God's creation.





Classification Is Proof of Creation

But the division of living things into hierarchical groups means something entirely different to evolutionists, who claim that biological classification is evidence for evolution. The Turkish biologist Ali Demirsoy, for example, makes this claim:

The characteristic of living things is that they are arranged according to a specific hierarchy in such a way as to form species, genera, families, orders, classes and kingdoms. Hierarchical arrangement is one of the most evident proofs of evolution. Were plants and animals not related among themselves, this hierarchical order could not have come about, and many groups would have developed in forms dissimilar to one another.¹⁷³

Darwin and his followers attempted to use the work of such scientists as Ray and Linnaeus by distorting it. They portrayed similar structures among living things, and the classifications based on them, as evidence that living things

The hierarchical classification of motor vehicles does not suggest that they came into being spontaneously or by chance. On the contrary, it demonstrates that they were produced consciously by human beings according to specific blueprints. Living things on Earth can also be classified, because they came into being through the creation of Omniscient God, not as the result of unconscious coincidences.





were descended from a common ancestor.

In fact, however, a scientific explanation for similar structures among living things had been made before Darwinism came to dominate the scientific world. Natural scientists such as Carl Linnaeus and John Ray regarded the matter of similar characteristics among living things as an example of common creation. In other words, organs were similar not because they had evolved from a common ancestor, but because they had been created individually to serve a specific purpose. Modern scientific discoveries have confirmed this. 174

Clearly, the classification of living things cannot be used as evidence in favor of evolution. For exam-

> ple, in his book Evolution: A Theory in Crisis, Professor Michael Denton examined this claim in the light of the scientific data and concluded that the hierarchical structure was no proof of evolution. 175

The fact is that in clutching at classifications, evolutionists are making a serious mistake. Products of artificial design—such as automobiles, furniture and



Michael Denton

Individual species of fruits and vegetables have genetic variations within themselves that give them different tastes, nutritional values and characteristics.



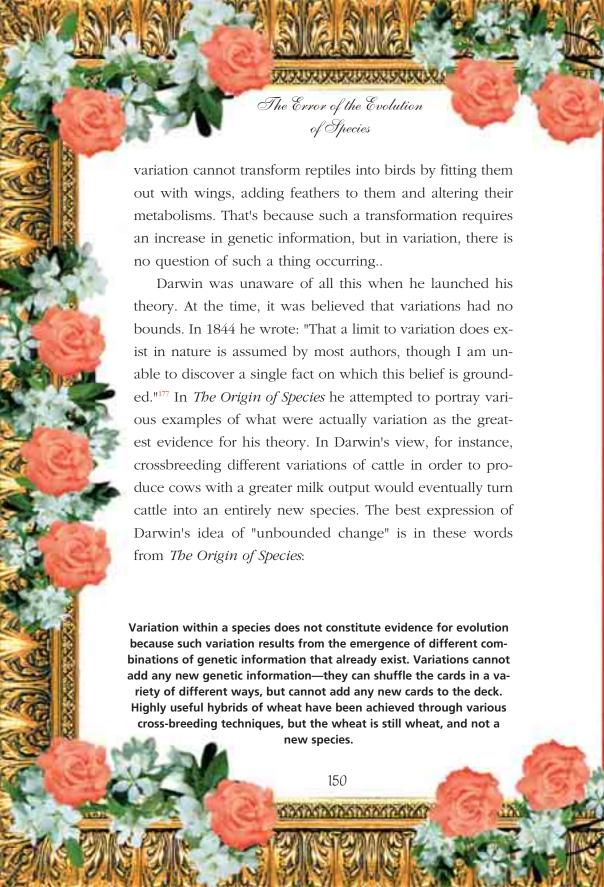


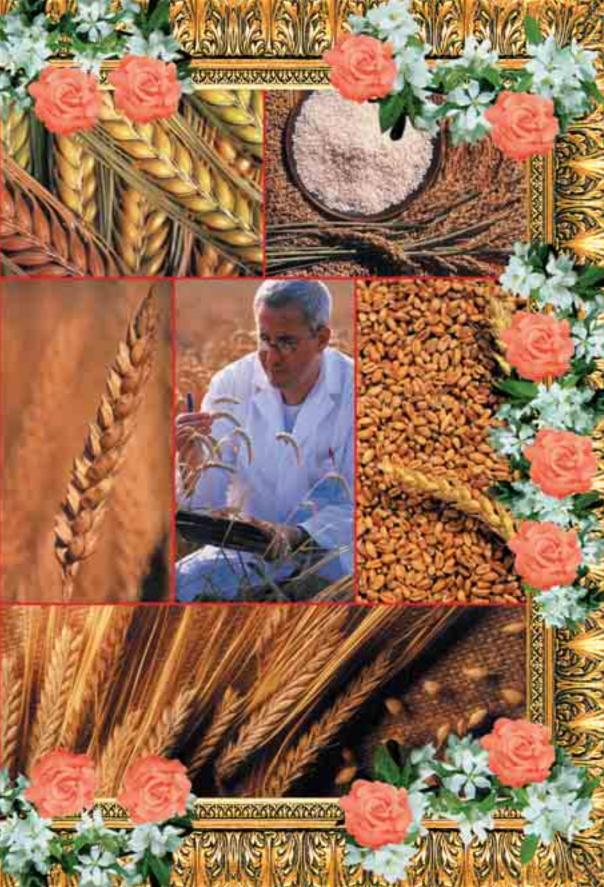




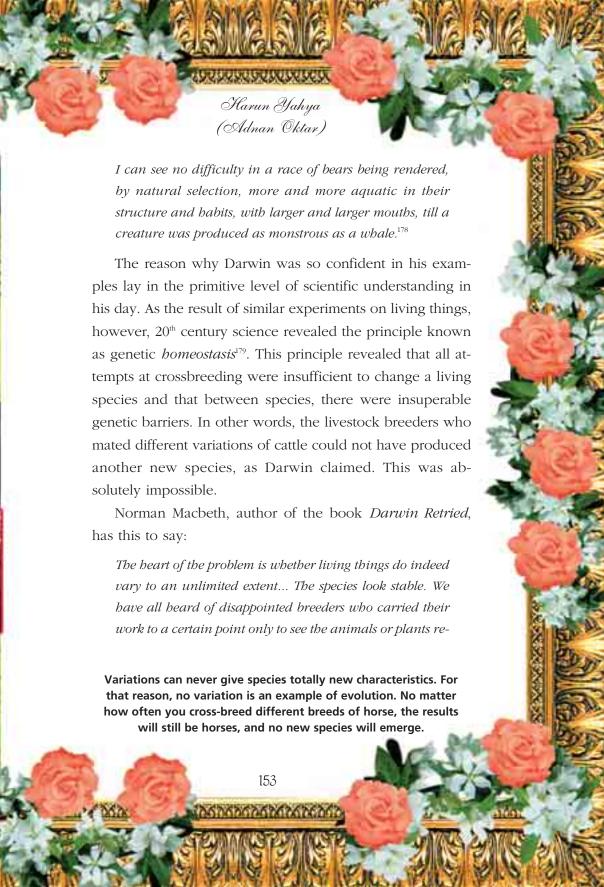
















Batten summarizes:

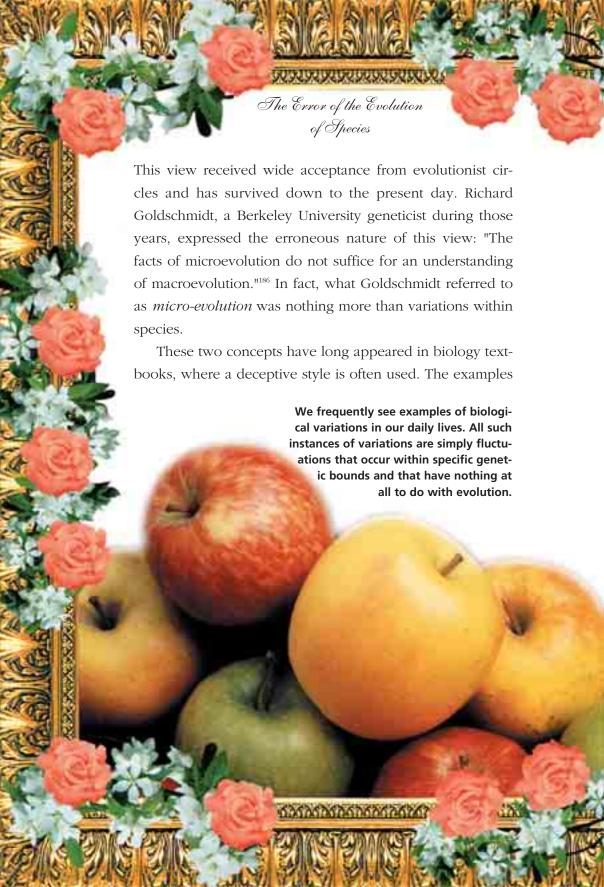
... variation within a kind, such as through breeding or adaptation, is not evolution. All the biological genetic "evidence" for evolution is actually variation within a kind, not evolution at all. ¹⁸³

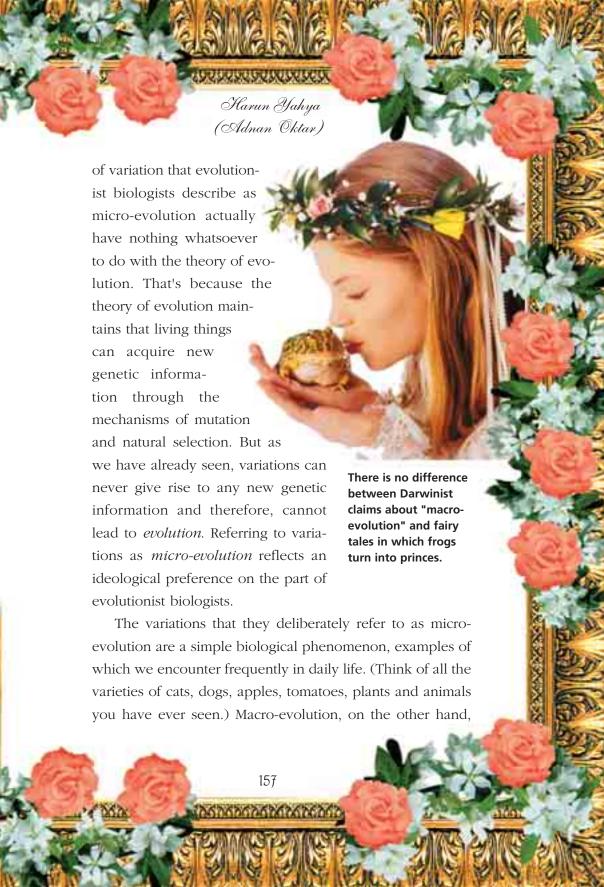
The Micro- and Macro-Evolution Errors

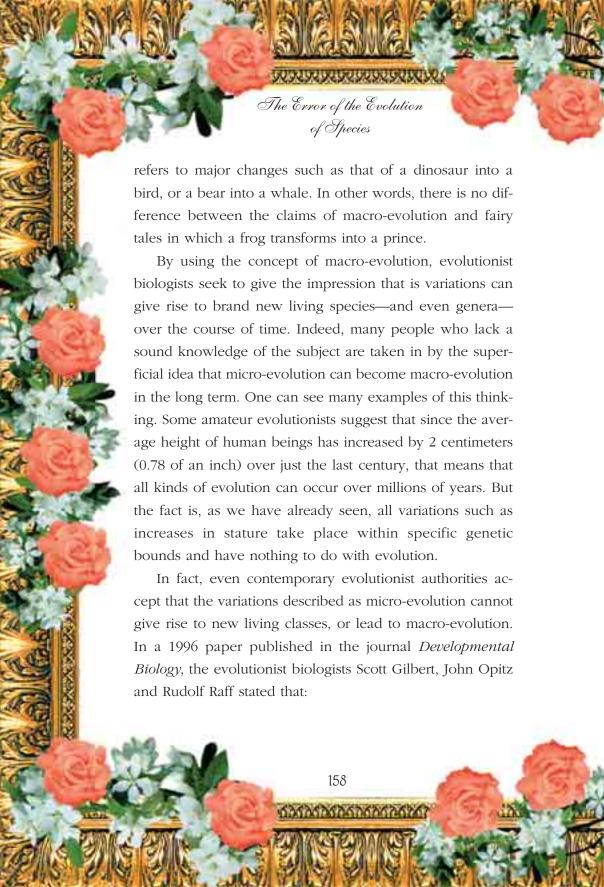
As you see, the science of genetics has revealed that the variations that Darwin imagined accounted for the origin of species in fact bear no such significance.

Therefore, evolutionist biologists have been forced to distinguish between variation within species and the formation of new species, and to advance two separate concepts regarding them. They gave the name *micro-evolution* to variation within species, and defined the formation of entirely new species as *macro-evolution*.

The concept of macro-evolution was first used in 1927 by the Russian biologist Juri'i Filipchenko. 184 The idea that micro-evolution could be used as evidence for macro-evolution was proposed by a student of Filipchenko's, Theodosius Dobzhansky, in the 1930s. In his book *Genetics and The Origin of Species*, one of the basic texts of Darwinism, Dobzhansky suggested that the mechanisms of micro- and macro-evolution were the one and the same. 185









The Modern Synthesis is a remarkable achievement. However, starting in the 1970s, many biologists began questioning its adequacy in explaining evolution. Genetics might be adequate for explaining microevolution, but microevolutionary changes in gene frequency were not seen as able to turn a reptile into a mammal or to convert a fish into an amphibian. Microevolution looks at adaptations that concern only the survival of the fittest, not the arrival of the fittest. As Goodwin (1995) points out, "the origin of species—Darwin's problem—remains unsolved."

That the variations known as micro-evolution cannot account for the claim of macro-evolution, and cannot explain the origin of species, is also admitted by other evolutionist biologists. The well-known evolutionist paleontologist Roger Lewin set out his conclusion at a four-day symposium attended by 150 evolutionists at the Chicago Museum of Natural History in November 1980:

The central question of the Chicago conference was whether the mechanisms underlying microevolution can be extrapolated to explain the phenomena of macroevolution ... The answer can be given as a clear, No. 188

The evolutionist biologists Fagerstrom, Schuster and Szathmary stated the same thing in an article published in *Science* magazine in 1996:

Major transitions in evolution—such as the origin of life,





"[T]he term 'macroevolution' serves more to hide our ignorance than symbolize our understanding." 193

Consider the subjects depicted by evolutionists as concrete and observed instances of Darwinism, which they put forward at every opportunity as fundamental proofs of evolution. The Galapagos finches, the Industrial Revolution moths, bacterial resistance to antibiotics, and insects' resistance to DDT immediately come to mind, but it is absolutely misleading to portray these as evidence of evolution. These cases are cases of variations, or micro-evolution, that present no evidence for evolution. The Galapagos finches and the Industrial Revolution moths will be discussed later in this book, where we make it clear that these life forms constitute no evidence for the theory of evolution. (For biological resistance to poisons, see *Darwinism Refuted* by Harun Yahya, New Delhi: Goodword Books, 2002.)

The Speciation Deception

Evolutionists maintain that the first single-celled organism emerged billions of years ago from inorganic substances, and that the glorious diversity of life on Earth, emerged over the course of hundreds of millions of years. Note that according to the Darwinist claim, millions of





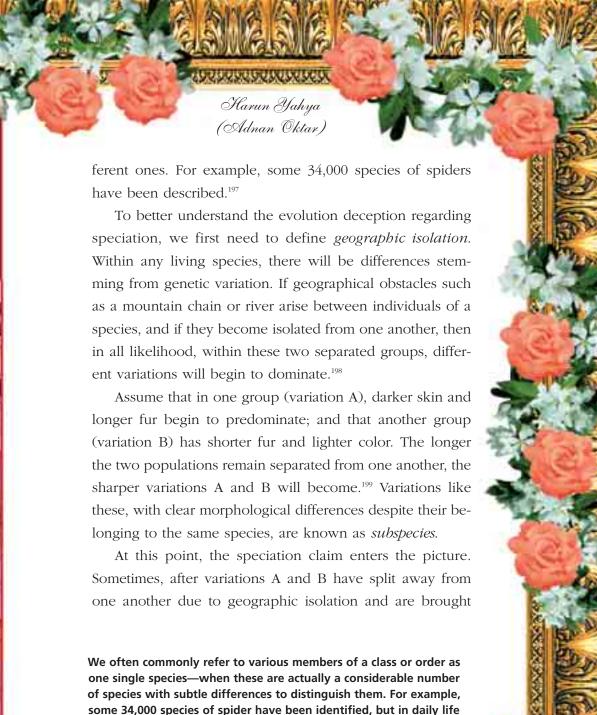
cepts are best for different purposes; and just as it is inadvisable to use a carving chisel to cut a mortise, problems arise when one species concept is used when it is inappropriate. Confusion and controversy have often resulted because different people working with different groups of organisms mean different things by "species."

Ali Demirsoy, one of Turkey's most prominent exponents of Darwinism, expresses the truth of the matter this way:

The question of by what bounds the species, the basic unit in the classification of plants and animals, should be separated from other species—in other words, "Species Definition"— is one of the most difficult for biology to answer. It appears impossible in the present state of our knowledge to give a definition of the species that applies to all plant and animal groups.¹⁹⁶

Mention the word species, and most people will think of *life forms* such as dogs, horses, spiders, dolphins, wheat or apples. However, biologists define the concept of species in a rather different way. In modern-day biology, a living species in the most general sense consists of a population of individuals able to mate and reproduce with one another. This definition divides life forms that we generally speak of as if they were one single species into a number of dif-









son for their division is not that either one has acquired any new genetic data. Neither variation has acquired any proteins or new enzymes, much less a new organ. There is no development here. On the contrary, instead of a previous population that contains different, possibly recessive, pieces of genetic information (using our example, a population with both long and short fur, and dark and light coloration), there are now two populations that is each relatively impoverished in terms of genetic data.

Therefore, nothing about speciation provides any support for the theory of evolution. Because it claims that all living species developed by chance, from the simple to the more complex, therefore, in order for the theory of evolution to be taken seriously, it needs to demonstrate mechanisms that can *increase* genetic information. The bifurcation of an existing species because of a loss of genetic variation, obviously, a different phenomenon entirely.

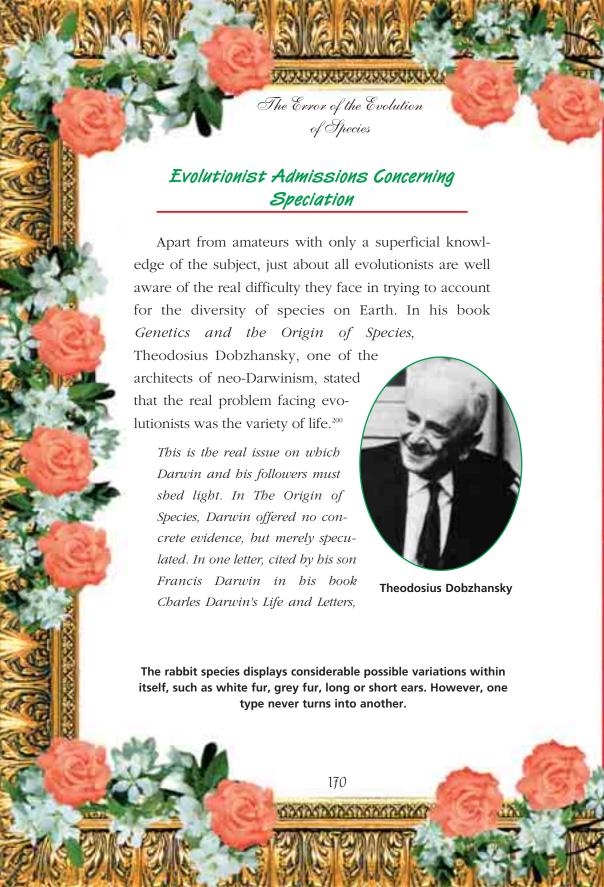
Evolutionists actually admit this lack of relevance. For that reason, evolutionists describe examples of variations within a species, and speciation by division into two populations (as you saw in the previous section) as *microevolution*—in the sense of variation within a species that already exists. However, the use of the word "evolution" in the term is deliberately misleading, because no evolutionary process is happening at all. The situation consists



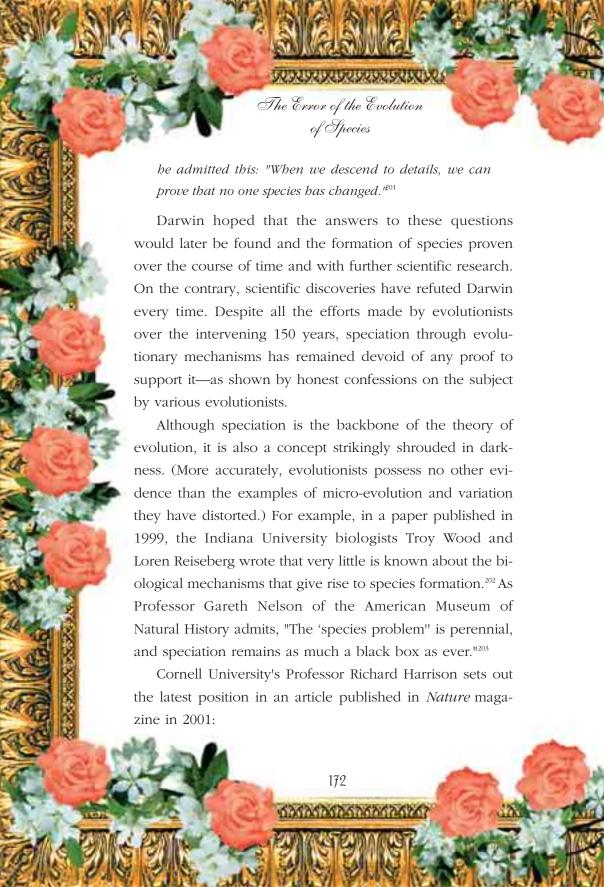


or seek to make use of it to convince others of the truth of their theory. All the so-called *proofs* of evolution proposed by Charles Darwin in *The Origin of Species* are of that kind, as are the examples put forward by later evolutionists. In their examples, they seek to use as evidence for their theory the genetic variety that they describe as *micro-evolution* but which actually has nothing at all to do with what they describe as *macro-evolution*.

Despite all this discussion of micro- and macro-evolution and speciation, living things appeared on Earth as types with their own different structures (as is confirmed by the fossil record). Different variations and subspecies may appear within them, thanks to the richness of their gene pools. For example, there are rabbits that exhibit variations such as white fur, grey fur, longer or shorter ears, and these variations become more pronounced in a given environment, depending on which natural conditions support them most appropriately. But species never turn into other species. There is no natural mechanism that can effect this, that can design new types and develop the new organs, systems and body plans they require. Every species has been created with its own unique structures. And since God has created every one of them with a potential for variety, a wide but finite variation often emerges within each type.









Natural communities harbor an enormous variety of species ... But what of the origin of diversity? Much less has been written about how new species arise—although the process of speciation is central to evolutionary biology.²⁰⁴

It is not at all surprising, actually, that so very little has been written, because scientific discoveries have revealed that one species cannot turn into another and that change takes place only within species, and within specific bounds. Not a single example of speciation through evolutionary mechanisms has been observed. In an article published in the 18 January, 2001, edition of *Nature*, the evolutionist biologists Darren Irwin, Staffan Bensch and Trevor Price admit as much: "The evolutionary divergence of a single species into two has never been directly observed in nature."

Professor of Anthropology Jeffrey Schwartz, from Pittsburgh University, emphasizes the same fact in his book, *Sudden Origins: Fossils, Genes, and the Emergence of Species*:

... Nevertheless, it was and still is the case that, with the exception of Dobzhansky's claim about a new species of fruit fly, the formation of a new species, by any mechanism, has never been observed. ²⁰⁶

Faced with these facts, some evolutionists propose an al-

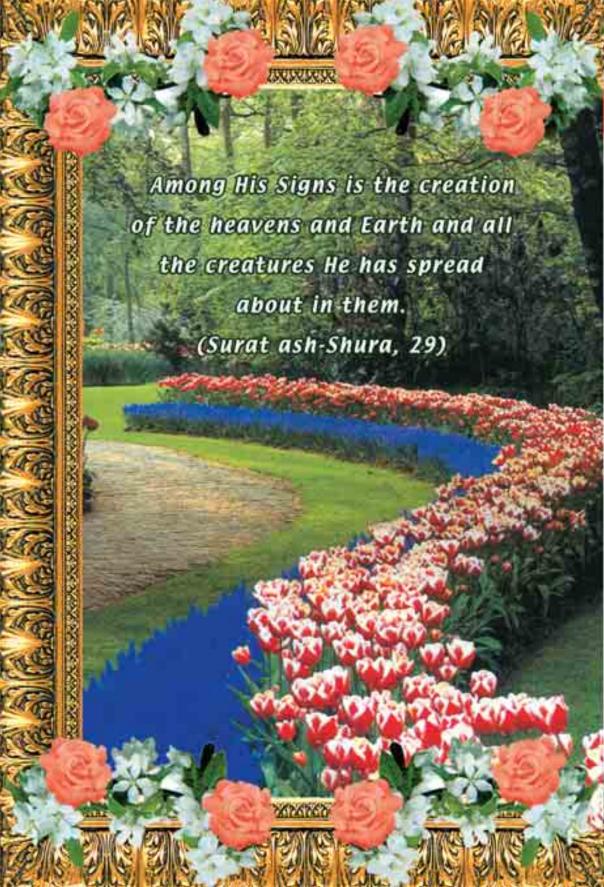




Fruit flies have been reared and constantly subjected to mutations for some 70 years, but no speciation has ever been encountered. No evolutionary change has taken place,



Fruit flies have been bred and subjected to mutations for some 70 years. But no evolutionary change has ever taken place. No case of speciation has been encountered, and fruit flies have remained as simply fruit flies.



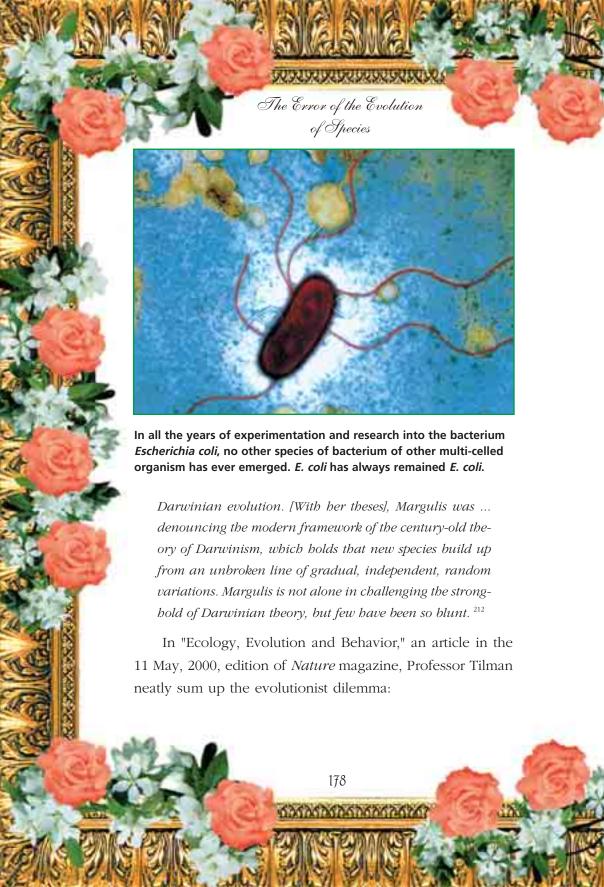


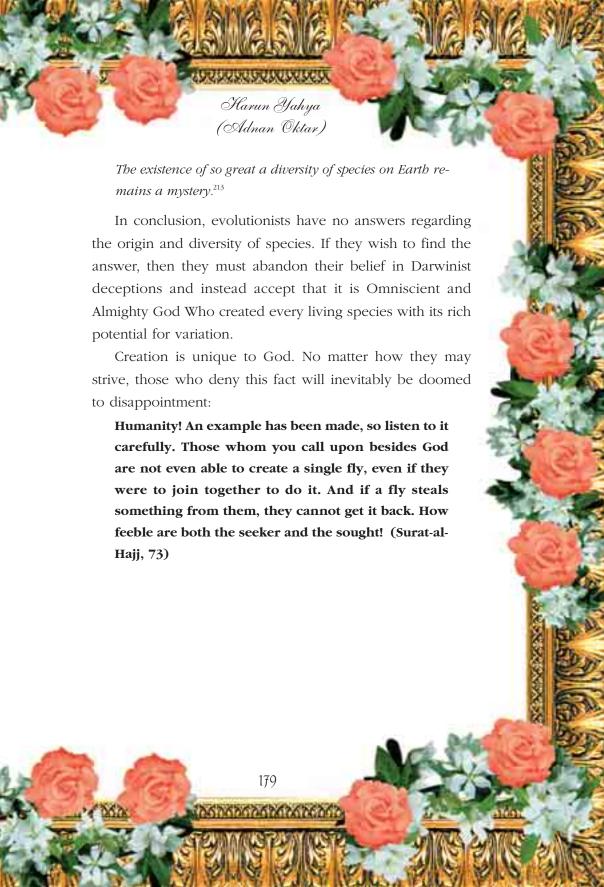
and fruit flies have always remained fruit flies.²⁰⁹ Similarly, no new species or multi-celled organism has emerged from the experiments and research conducted for many years on the single-celled bacterium *Escherichia coli*, which has always remained *E coli*.²¹⁰

The fossil record itself also definitively rejects the concept of speciation. In the fossil record, there is no trace of the countless intermediate forms that should, according to Darwinism, have once existed.²¹¹

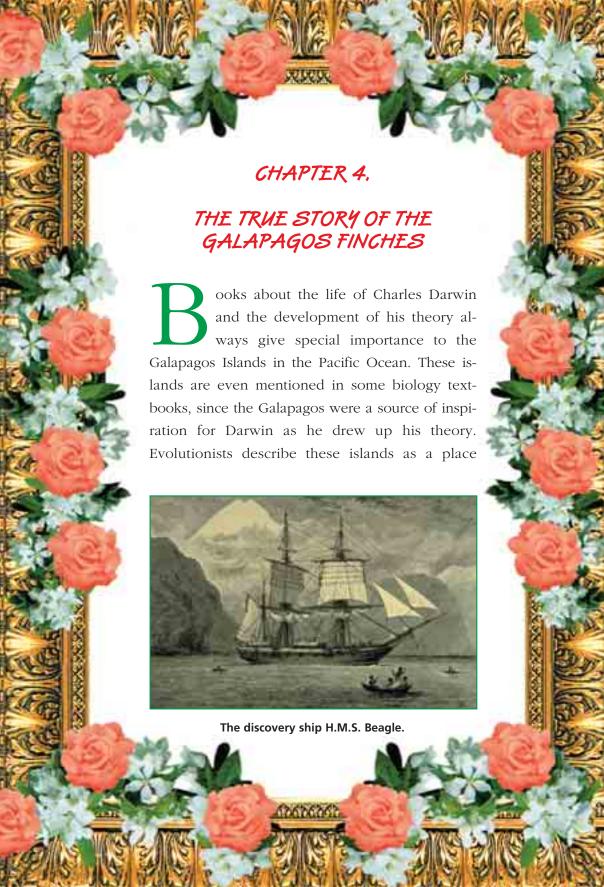
The origin of species, the emergence of new species and the diversity of life cannot be explained in terms of natural processes and random factors, as the theory of evolution maintains. Moreover, recent findings show that Darwinism is an unscientific and unrealistic theory, and a great many scientists today are aware of this. However, very few biologists express such views openly, out of a fear of being excluded from the scientific world. One of these is Professor Lynn Margulis of Massachusetts University, whose views on this subject were included in Kevin Kelly's book *Out of Control: The New Biology of Machines:*

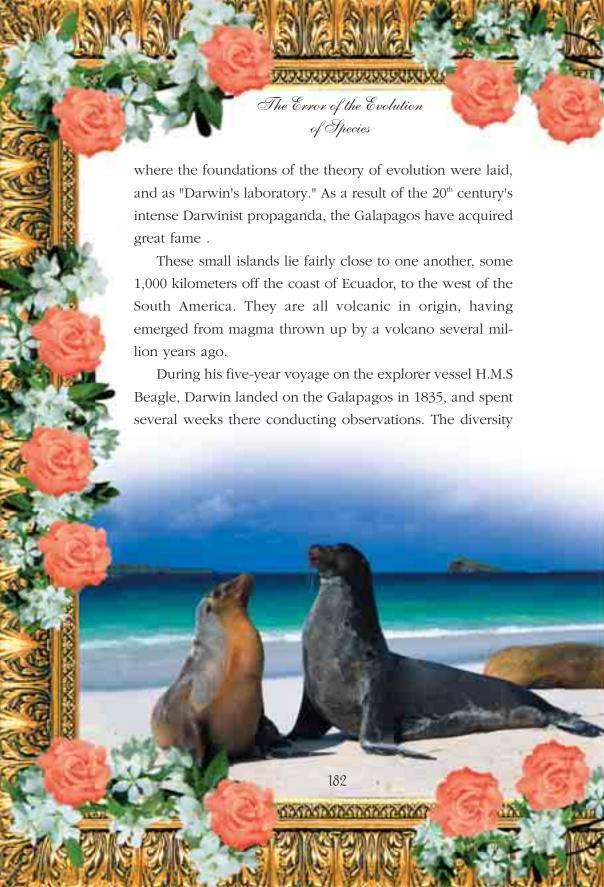
"It is totally wrong. It's wrong like infectious medicine was wrong before Pasteur. It's wrong like phrenology is wrong. Every major tenet of it is wrong," said the outspoken biologist Lynn Margulis about her latest target: the dogma of



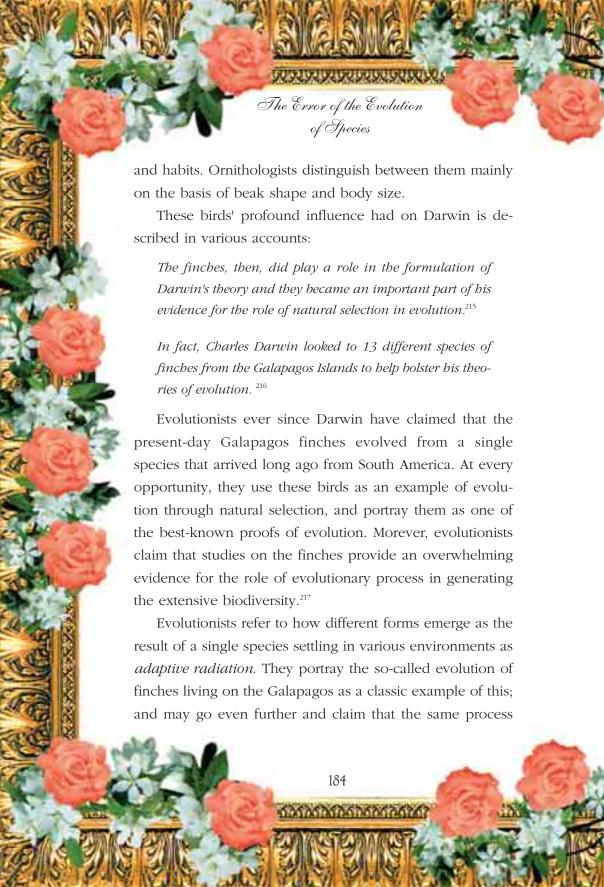














can be observed today.

Professor Ali Demirsoy, who devotes considerable space to the theory of evolution in his books, describes the Galapagos finches as a good example of adaptive radiation:

Adaptive radiation can be seen on a small scale in the finches living in the Galapagos Islands . . . Some of these birds are ground-feeders, eating cereals and seeds, others live in the trees, feeding on insects, while others still live in certain cacti, feeding on their seeds. But these birds, which all share the same origin, display a striking level of adaptive radiation in terms of their beak size and shape.²¹⁸

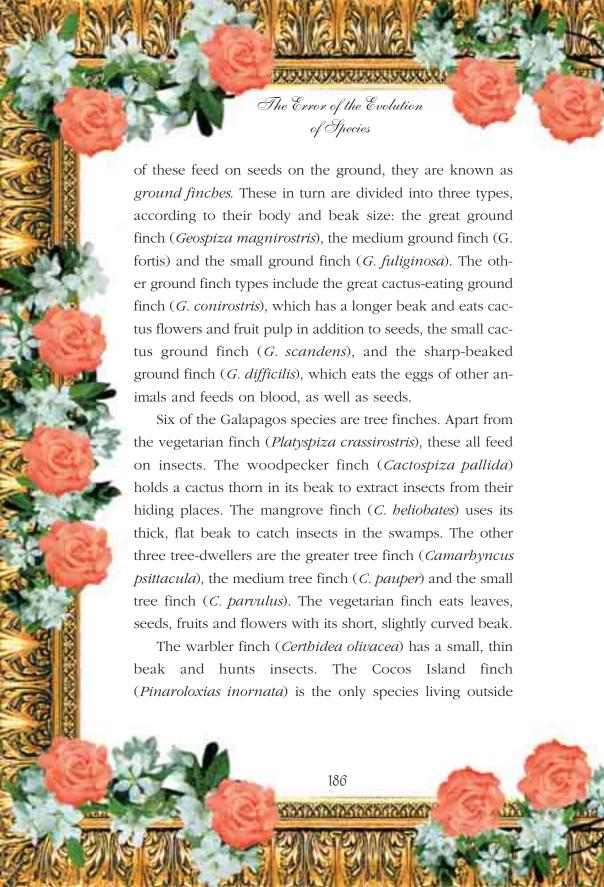
According to Hau and Wikelski, Darwin's finches are "are a textbook example of adaptive radiation" and "one of the most convincing evidences for 'evolution in action'. ²¹⁹

This chapter shall examine Darwin's and his followers' errors regarding these finches, and show how these birds reveal no evidence for the theory of evolution.

First, we can briefly touch on the classification of these birds in the scientific literature.

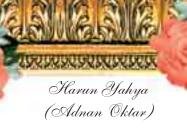
The Classification of the Galapagos Finches

In terms of anatomy, behavior and ecology, the Galapagos finches are divided into 14 species. Because six









The Emergence of the "Darwin's Finches" Myth

In fact, it's rather surprising that finches living on the Galapagos Islands should have been given Darwin's name, because he was not the first one to discover them. Actually, they had been known for a long time before. Captain James Colnett, for example, had referred to them back in 1798. ²²⁰ Furthermore, contrary to what most people imagine, while Darwin was on the Galapagos Islands, his observation of the finches was rather superficial. His travel notes contain only one reference to the finches, and that he never mentions them at all in *The Origins of Species*. ²²¹

In fact, Darwin attached importance to the finches only long after his voyage. While he was actually on the Islands, he did not find them worthy of much interest, collecting specimens of only nine of the 13 species. And he described only six of these as finches, describing the others as other species of bird. In short, he was unable to fully distinguish the finch species, and also failed to establish a connection between beak shape and feeding habits. He did not even note which bird species was particular to which island. As stated by Michaela Hau and Martin Wikelski of University of Illinois "Due to this oversight during his visit of the Galapagos archipelago, Darwin did not recognize the po-





tale of Darwin's finches known to everyone; their so-called evolution has since been studied more than the other bird families.²²⁷

Research After Darwin

As early as the late 19th century, a flood of visitors began arriving at the Galapagos Islands. The visitors and researchers, most of them American, collected thousands of bird specimens. For example, the California Academy of Sciences alone added more than 8,000 birds (including Darwin's finches), to its collection in 1905-1906. Galapagos finches soon found their way into many museum collections—not without an objective, of course. The aim was to complete the work that Darwin had left half-finished and to rescue evolution from its predicament by finding valid evidence.

There was another important reason for the last century's evolutionary research into the Galapagos finches. In *The Origin of Species*, Darwin had written that a new species' emergence by way of natural selection was a very slow process, for which reason it could not be observed, but only deduced. This was not acceptable by the standards of developing science. Neo-Darwinists embarked on a search for



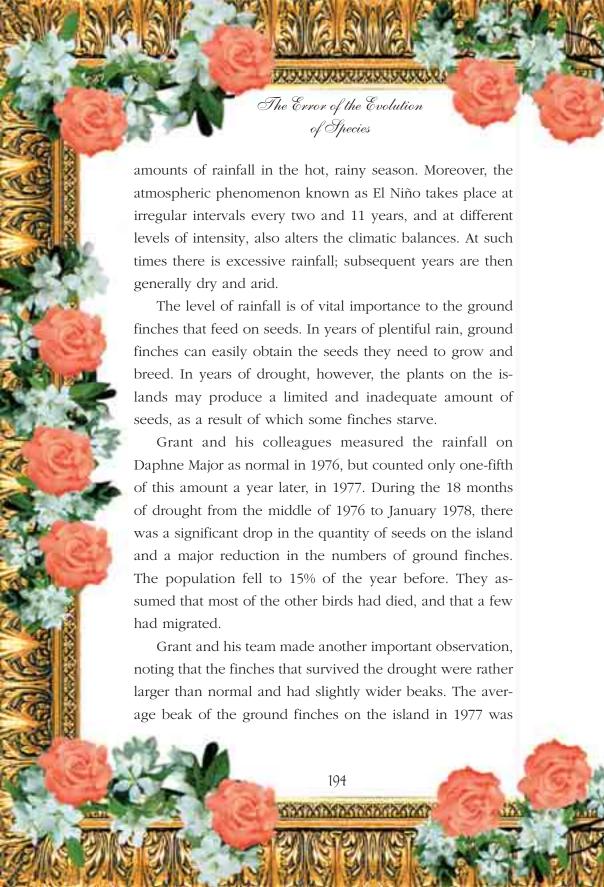


ground finch. They recorded the measurements of the beaks, wings and bodies of the birds they caught with the help of nets, and after attaching a special band to each one they set them free again. By 1977 they had marked the majority of the birds on the island, and almost all of them by 1980.

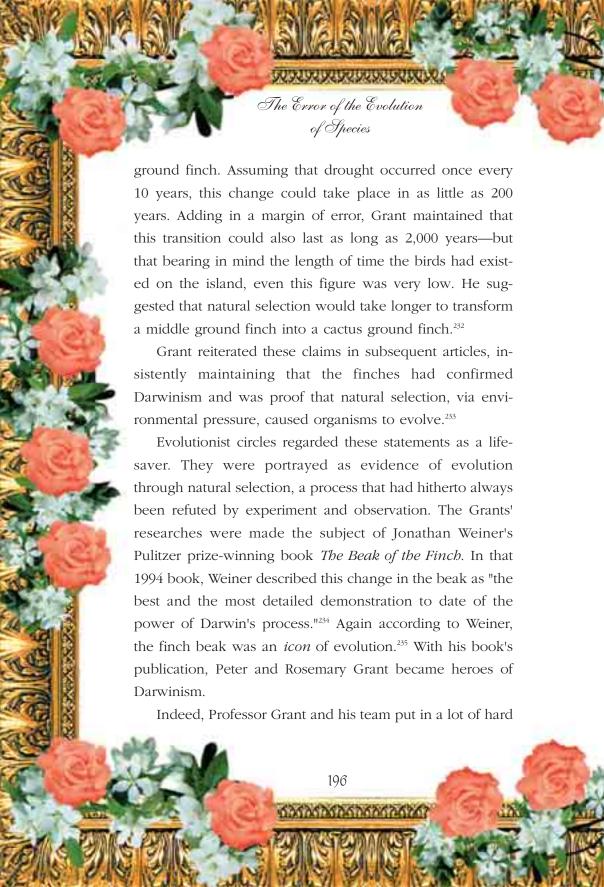
In this way they regularly monitored some 20,000 finches from generation to generation. The absence of human beings and predators on this island made the finches so tame as to be effectively domesticated. This made their work very much easier. In addition, Professor Grant and his wife regularly measured the amount of rain falling on the island.

Most research regarding Galapagos finches was carried out in the birds' natural habitat. Peter and Rosemary Grant and their assistants observed the birds under various climatic conditions and sought to identify the effects that alleged evolution had on them. Note that all the researchers involved in these studies believed that all living things are the result of evolution and had set to confirm, through their observations, this belief to which they were so devoted.

As for the climatic conditions on the Galapagos, there is usually a hot and rainy season between January and May, with the other months being cooler and drier. In addition, there may be wide variations between the initial and total









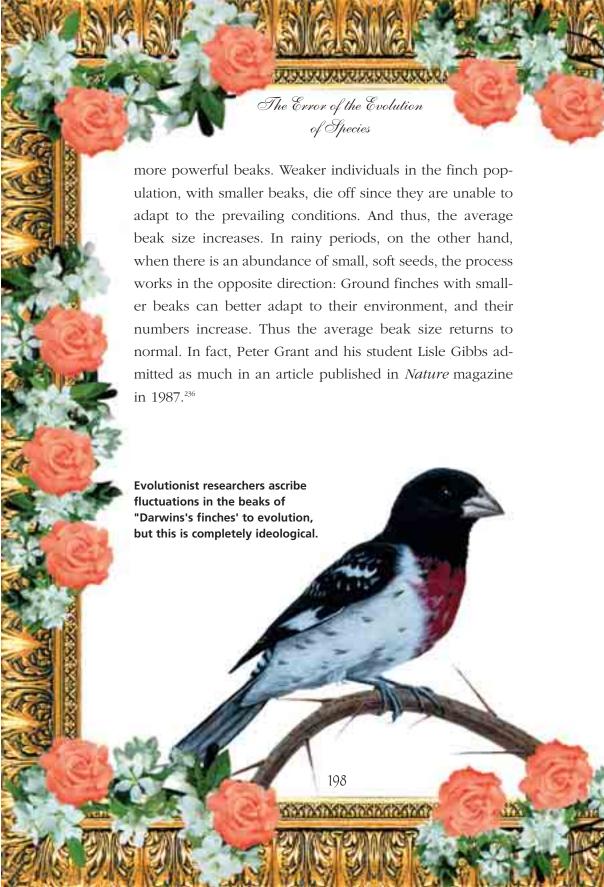
work and field research on the Galapagos, but failed to display the same care and attention in analyzing their results. They fell into a grave error because they set about evaluating their findings, not according to objective scientific logic, but in the light of their evolutionist preconceptions.

The Beak-Change Error

Every few years, as already mentioned, El Niño affects the western regions of North and South America in particular, and at such times, high levels of rain fall on the Galapagos, leading to increased plant growth and an abundance of seeds. Ground finches are therefore easily able to find the food they need, and their numbers accordingly increase after such rainy periods.

Grant and his colleagues witnessed a similar situation in 1982-83. With the rains, seeds became plentiful, and the average beak size of ground finches returned to the pre-1977 drought levels. This greatly surprised the observers, who were expecting a continuing "evolution" in beak size.

The change in Galapagos finches' average beak size actually has a different explanation: In years of drought when seeds are scarce, birds with beak a slightly larger than normal can open the remaining hard, large seeds with their





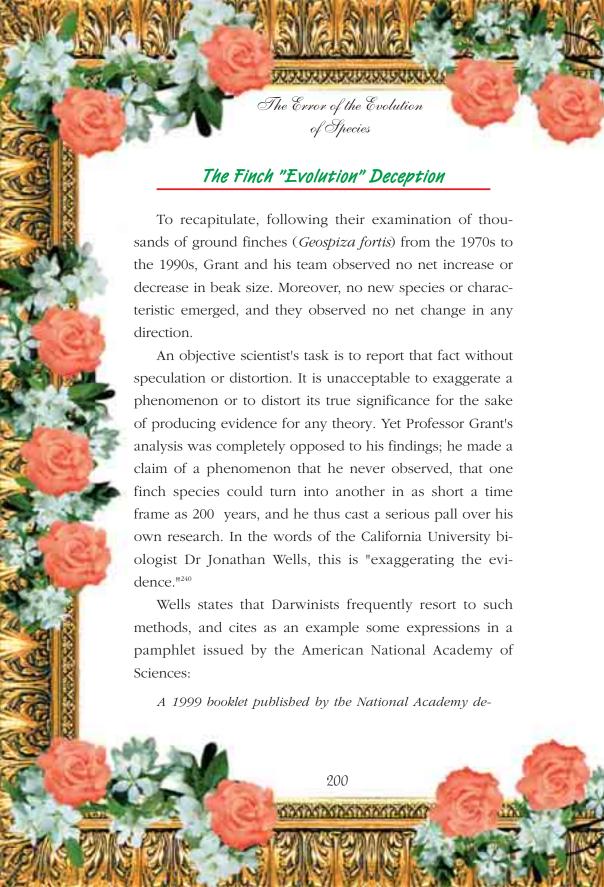
In short, facts clearly reveal no such thing as evolutionary change. Average beak size may fluctuate according to the rainfall, sometimes increasing or decreasing around a fixed level, but there is no question of a net change.

Aware of this, Peter Grant said that, "the population, subjected to natural selection, is oscillating back and forth."²³⁷ Some evolutionist researchers say that natural selection works in two mutually opposed directions.²³⁸

No matter how much a clock pendulum may swing back and forth, it never records any net progress. That will still apply if you operate a pendulum perfectly for millions of years.

Danny Faulkner, a professor of Astronomy and Physics at South Carolina University, states that the finch beaks' fluctuations cannot represent evidence of evolution: "And so if you have supposed microevolution one direction and then later it reverts right back to where it started from, that's not evolution, it can't be."²³⁹

The average size of the Galapagos finches' beaks increases or decreases according to food resources, but the way that evolutionist researchers imagine they have found evidence for evolution in fluctuations in the finches' beak is completely ideologically based.



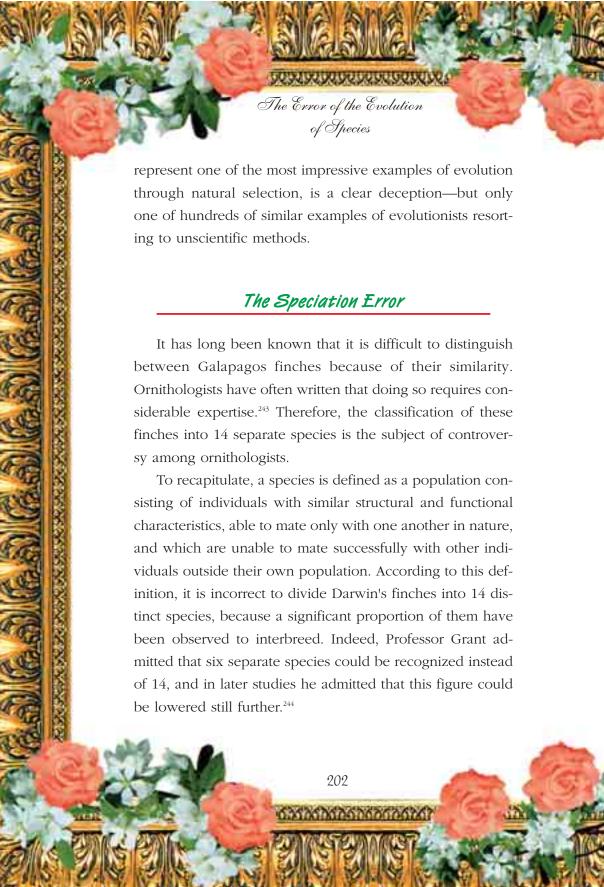


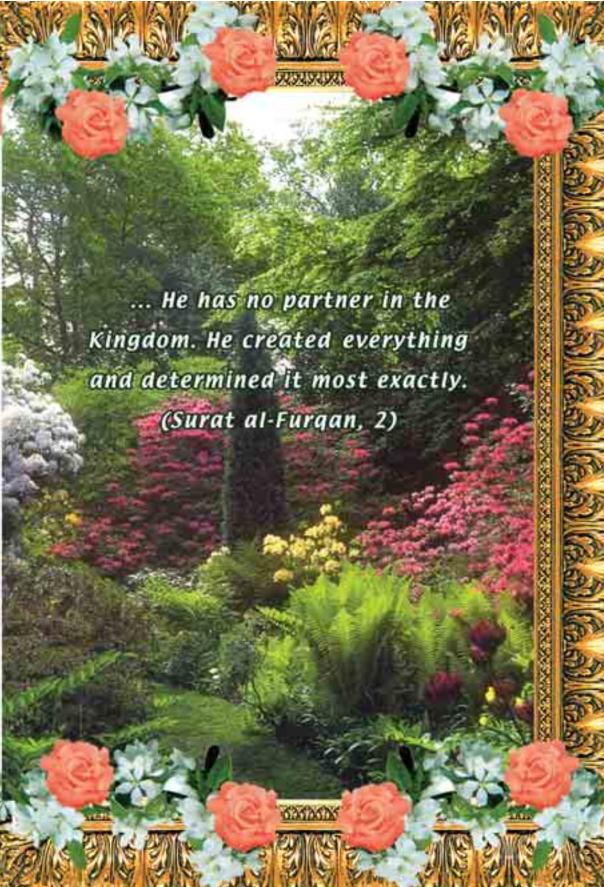
scribes Darwin's finches as "a particularly compelling example" of the origin of species. The booklet goes on to explain how the Grants and their colleagues showed "that a single year of drought on the islands can drive evolutionary changes in the finches," and that "if droughts occur about once every 10 years on the islands, a new species of finch might arise in only about 200 years."

That's it. Rather than confuse the reader by mentioning that selection was reversed after the drought, producing no long-term evolutionary change, the booklet simply omits this awkward fact. Like a stock promoter who claims a stock might double in value in twenty years because it increased 5 percent in 1998, but doesn't mention that it decreased 5 percent in 1999, the booklet misleads the public by concealing a crucial part of the evidence. ²⁴¹

It is astonishing that the respected and trustworthy American National Academy of Sciences should employ such a deception to look for evidence for natural selection and evolution in finches' beaks. Berkeley University's Professor Phillip Johnson said so in an article in the *Wall Street Journal:* "When our leading scientists have to resort to the sort of distortion that would land a stock promoter in jail, you know they are in trouble."

In sum, the story of the Galapagos finches, claimed to









tant. Observations carried out 20 years later in the 1980s showed that the birds' beak structures were different from how they'd been initially.²⁴⁹ This study is just one example showing broad diversity in finches as a whole. Dr. Lee Spetner, the Israeli physicist and author of the book *Not by Chance!*, states that what can be observed here is not evolution, but the potential for variation that already existed in those first 100 birds transported to the island.²⁵⁰

As described earlier, variation is no evidence of evolution, because it consists only of the emergence of various different combinations of existing genetic information and adds no new characteristics. The natural selection of variations belonging to a species is the phenomenon that evolutionist biologists refer to as micro-evolution. Since this cannot bring about a species change or produce new genetic information, it provides no evidence for the theory of evolution.

New variations might appear if different combinations of Galapagos finches mated for millions of years or were subjected to different climatic environments. But no matter what happened, they would still remain finches.

In short, absolutely nothing about the variations in the Galapagos finches, regarded as "proof of evolution" by Darwin and his followers, constitutes evidence for the theory of evolution. There are insuperable genetic barriers be-

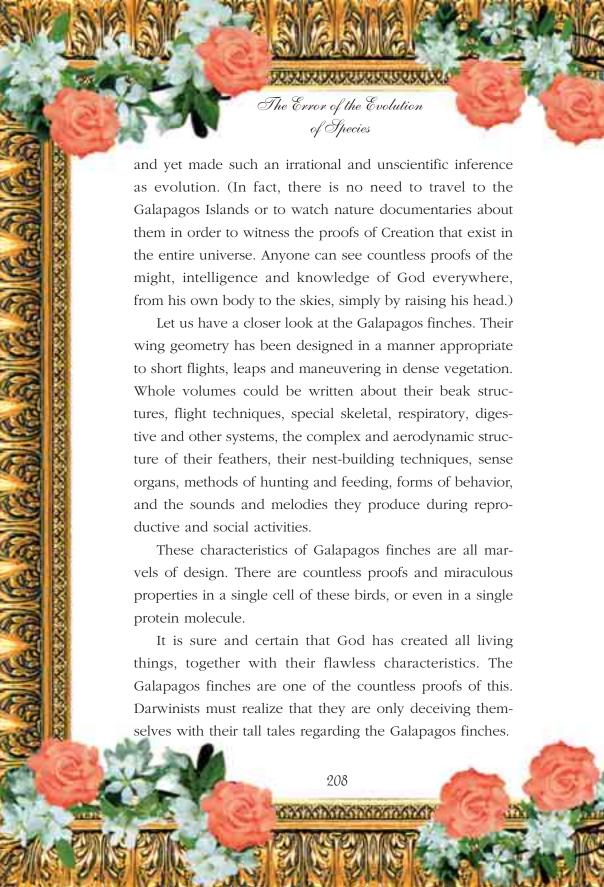


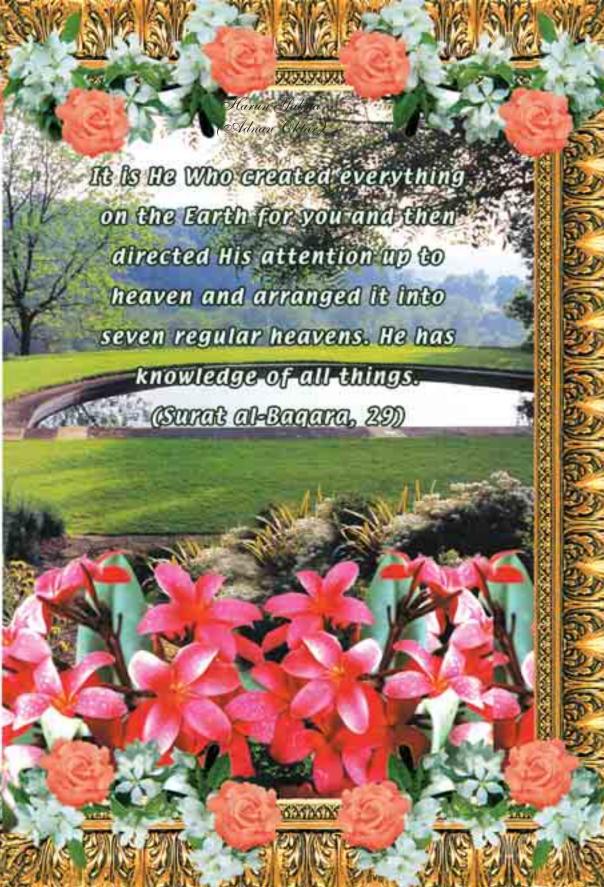


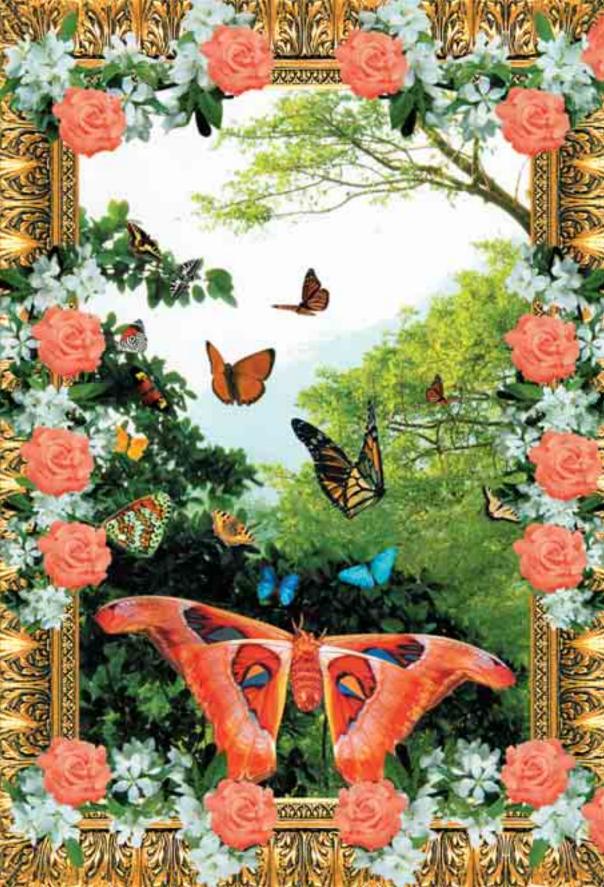
The Implications of the Galapagos Islands

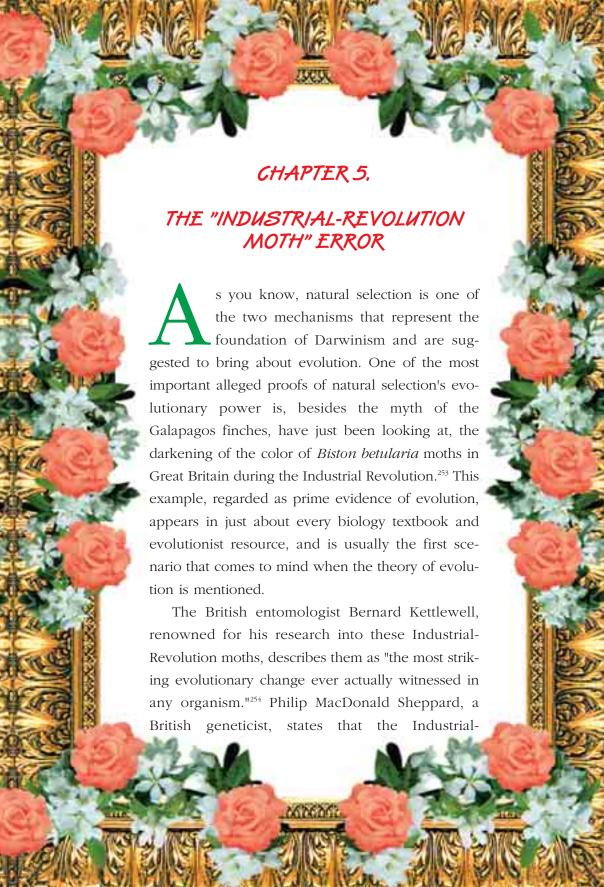
Louis Agassiz. the well-known Harvard University zoologist, visited the Galapagos in 1872 and stated that he saw no fight for survival among the living things there, but that they lived lives administered by a beneficent Creator.²⁵¹ Indeed, the tame animals on the Galapagos Islands refute Darwinists, who claim that nature consists of a struggle for survival. Professor Agassiz, one of the most famous biologists of his time, has explained the invalidity of evolution and defended the idea that Creation was the origin of life.²⁵²

Anyone who sets aside prejudices and preconceptions in looking at the Galapagos will immediately agree with Agassiz's observations. These small areas of land in the middle of the ocean, a thousand kilometers from the mainland, contain plants and animals of a richness, variety and beauty not to be seen anywhere else on Earth: verdant tropical plants and trees, brightly colored, dazzling birds, a whole range of living things, with flawless designs and matchless beauty ... Anyone with normal understanding will be amazed at these species' vivacity and variety, and will conclude that a magnificent Creation is on display. That is the natural conclusion; what one might expect. The surprising thing, however, is how Darwin and his followers saw all this













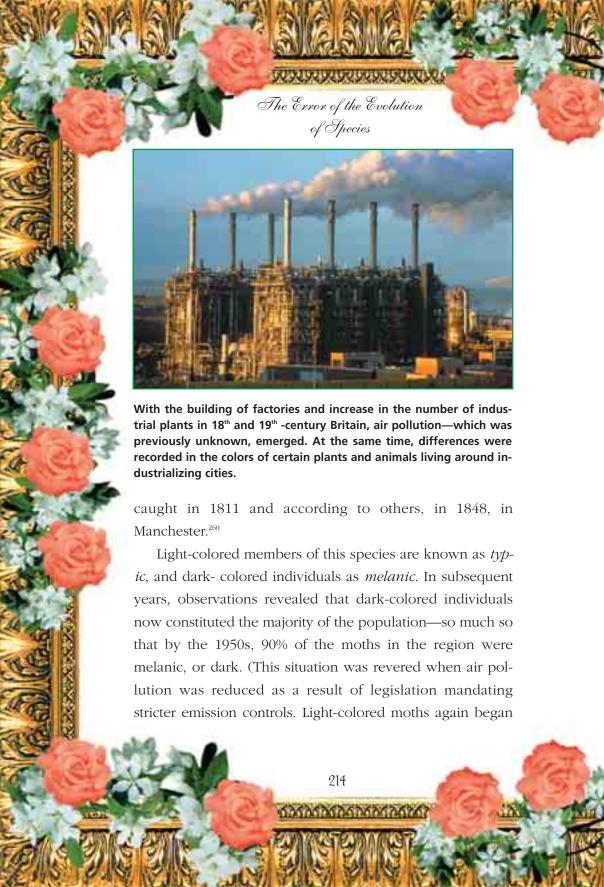
ulation soon came to consist of dark-colored moths." 258

First, let's consider the evolutionist claims regarding a classical instance of natural selection and perhaps the best-known story of evolutionary biology.²⁵⁹

The Story Emerges

The Industrial Revolution, which began in the 18th-19th centuries in Great Britain, was a major turning point in the history of mankind. With the building of factories and growth in industrial plants, the hitherto unknown problem of air pollution emerged. Heavy pollution afflicted such main industrial centers as Manchester, Liverpool and Birmingham. At the same time, color changes were recorded in various plants and animals around these cities.

A change in color was striking in the moth species *Biston betularia*, a member of the family *Geometridae* (engineer moths) of the class *Lepidoptera* (butterflies and moths). Prior to the Industrial Revolution, this species generally consisted of light-grey individuals with darker spots. (For that reason, they are known as "peppered moths.") In the 1850s, dark-colored individuals were in the minority. According to some researchers, the first dark form was



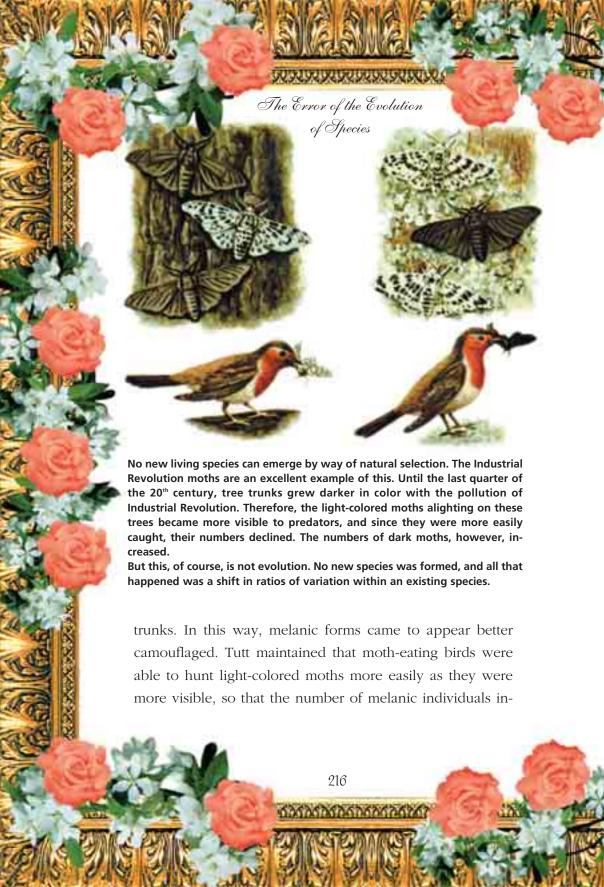


to represent the majority, as they had before the Industrial Revolution.)

The phenomenon of a population composed of light-colored individuals gradually assuming a dark color is known as industrial *melanism*. Some 100 examples of this, mainly of nocturnal moths, have been reported in the scientific literature. The protein melanin leads moths to assume a darker shade: Therefore, a darker moth produces more melanin than a lighter-colored one. ²⁶²

But clearly, the 19th century statistics regarding melanism in moths are deficient and flawed, when compared to modern scientific standards. One of the two scientists who spent years researching this subject, Bruce Grant from William and Mary University, express this fact: "During the last century and the early part of this one few people kept records about morph frequencies, so our picture of the rise and spread of melanism is sketchy."

The British biologist James William Tutt first examined this color change in his book *British Moths*. ²⁶⁴ According to Tutt, typic butterflies on light-colored lichens in unpolluted forest areas were less visible; therefore, they were spared being hunted by birds. (Lichens are a symbiotic plant community consisting of algae and fungi.) In the wake of the Industrial Revolution, lichens died out because of pollution caused by soot and acid rain and revealed darkened tree



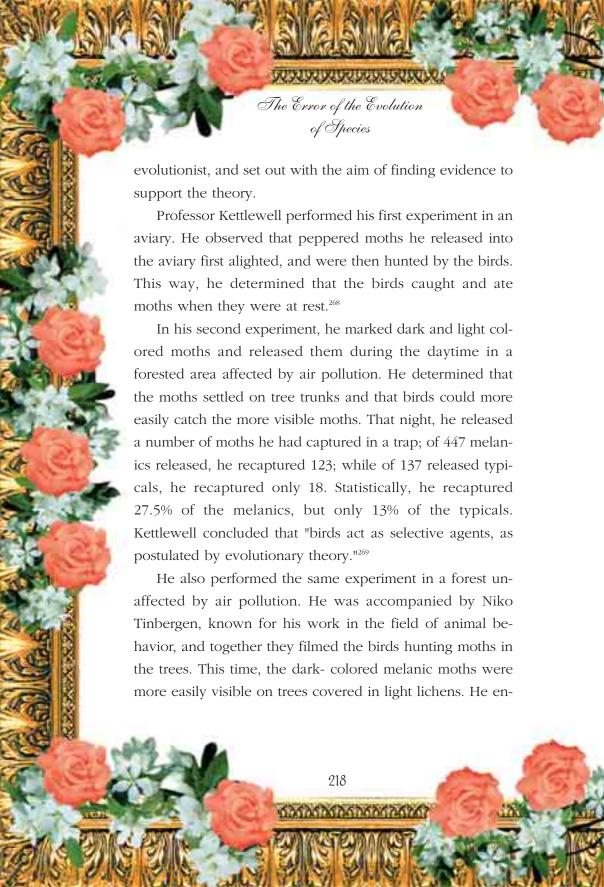


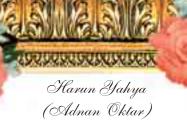
creased. To put it another way, he attempted to account for the phenomenon in question through evolution caused by natural selection stemming from environmental conditions—in this case, birds.

J.W. Tutt's claim may appear reasonable at first sight, but it received little acceptance at the time. There was no evidence that these moths—which flew by night and rested on trees by day—were actually hunted by birds. This led to entomologists and ornithologists looking askance at his theory.²⁶⁵

Then in the 1920s, the British biologist J. W. Heslop Harrison developed a different theory: that melanism in animals stemmed directly from chemical substances in the air. Harrison reported that melanism could be produced in several other moth species if their larvae were fed on leaves contaminated with metallic salts. Harrison's claim was evaluated as a challenge to Darwinism. However, with the birth of neo-Darwinism in the 1940s, it lost esteem and the idea gained ground that melanism in moths was the result of natural selection..

The British entomologist Bernard Kettlewell, of Oxford University, was a researcher whose name became equated with the Industrial-Revolution moths after his research on the subject in the 1950s. Kettlewell carried out a number of experiments and field studies that placed the subject firmly on the scientific agenda. As one might expect, he was an





countered the exact opposite results to those in the forest area with high pollution, recapturing 12.5% of the typicals compared to 6.3% of the melanics. ²⁷⁰

Kettlewell thought these statistics were adequate to confirm the thesis, and announced the results of his research with enormous excitement.

Evolutionist circles lost no time in backing Kettlewell's research. *Scientific American* magazine broadcasted the study in an article titled "Darwin's Missing Evidence." Such was the importance ascribed to the subject that it soon became one of the fundamental examples in evolutionist literature.

The Industrial-Revolution moths are still touted as the No. 1 piece of evidence for Darwinism, despite the passage of the intervening half century. Several evolutionists after Kettlewell repeated the experiment (for example, Clarke and Sheppard in 1966,²⁷²; Bishop in 1972,²⁷³ Lees and Creed in 1975,²⁷⁴ Bishop and Cook in 1975,²⁷⁵ Steward in 1977,²⁷⁶ and Murray and his team in 1980²⁷⁷),

However, this whole tale is invalid. Together with the errors of the research results mentioned above, the Industrial Revolution moths gained nothing at all for the theory of evolution.

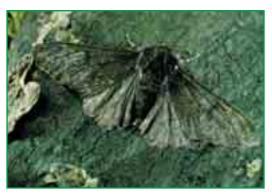




predation are responsible for maintaining the high melanic frequencies. 280

The zoologist R. C. Steward, who had studied melanism in moths, determined that although melanic moths were well camouflaged in South Wales, they constituted only 20% of the population. Steward collected data from 165 separate areas of Britain, concluding that north of 52 degrees latitude, sulfur dioxide (a chemical cause of air pollution), was directly linked to melanism; but that south of 52 degrees latitude, other factors apart from air pollution might be having an effect. He described Kettlewell's error by saying, "it may not be possible to generalize from the results for one area, to explain geographic variation over the rest of Britain."

As more research was carried out, data opposing Kettlewell's theory accumulated. The idea that birds led to natural selection by hunting moths proved to be a false as-



Intense research in Britain and America has shown that the distribution of melanic (dark) moths in polluted and unpolluted regions is quite different from what was expected—and predicted. It thus became clear that Kettlewell's research did not reflect the true facts.





ed as being surprising.²⁸⁵ This was confirmed by other studies carried out by American biologists in the same period.²⁸⁶ Furthermore, Kettlewell had accepted that there was a drop in melanism in moths, before lichens returned with the elimination of air pollution in the 1970s.²⁸⁷

Had Kettlewell's and evolutionists' claims been true, lichens would resumed their place on trees as air pollution was eradicated, after which light-colored moths would again come to constitute the majority. First, in other words, it was essential for moths to have places to rest on and hide in. However, it was definitively demonstrated that this was not the case. For example, Professor Bruce Grant and his colleagues showed that the ratio of light-colored moths exceeded 93% in a region with a very sparse lichen covering. They made an important comment: "We suggest that the role of lichens has been inappropriately emphasized in chronicles about the evolution of melanism in peppered moths."

Theodore Sargent from Massachusetts University and his team stated that the level of melanic moths had recently dropped in North America, and that this was perplexing in the light of the classical scenario.²⁹⁰

In short, the presence or absence of lichens has no effect on moths. Kettlewell's thinking that lichens were a part of the supposed evolutionary process was a product of another error, as you'll soon see.





revealed this. Mikkola, a zoologist, observed that the moths rarely landed on tree trunks and normally rested beneath thin, more or less horizontal branches.²⁹² Nocturnal moths released under a very limited light selected their resting places very quickly, and in an irregular manner. In short, Kettlewell made a grave error in assuming that *Biston betularia* moths rested (or slept) on tree trunks.

Researchers investigating these moths' behavior in their natural habitat confirmed Mikkola's findings. In a 25-year study, Sir Cyril Clarke and his colleagues stated that they only found one peppered moth on a tree trunk. 293 Two researchers well known for their studies in this field, Rory Howlett and Michael Majerus from Cambridge University, stated that they had come up with similar results: "... it seems certain that most B. betularia rest where they are hidden ... [and] that exposed areas of tree trunks are not an important resting site for any form of B. betularia."294 Dr. Majerus of the Cambridge University Genetics Department collected their findings in a book, Melanism: Evolution in Action. He noted that despite some 40 years of intense research on this subject, he had encountered only two Biston betularia moths on tree trunks and stated that this represented the most serious problem facing Kettlewell's thesis.²⁹⁵ Professor Jerry Coyne of Chicago University, himself an evolutionist, admitted that this fact by itself was sufficient to in-





The photographs in question originated with various researchers who carried out experiments on the moths in the last half century, and were determined to have been used taken using either one of two different fraudulent techniques.

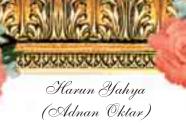
One was to stick dead moths to a tree trunk with pins or glue (the method preferred by many researchers after Kettlewell). Photographs of the affixed moths were later duly used in books, with no explanation given, as if these insects were photographed alive, in their natural environment. Documentaries and television programs have also employed this same method in. ²⁹⁹

A second and different technique exploits the fact that *B. betularia* moths have only limited ability to move in the daytime. The insects in a rather somnolent state, have been placed on tree trunks by hand. Since they remained immobile, they were easy to photograph. As stated by the Massachusetts University biologist Theodore Sargent, many photographs have been obtained in this way and used in textbooks.³⁰⁰

This practice "is not science, but myth-making,"³⁰¹ in the words of Dr. Jonathan Wells, from the California University Department of Molecular Cell Biology.

This practice cannot, of course, be regarded as in any way excusable. For the last 20 years, it has been known that





Admissions by an Evolutionist Scientist

We have so far examined certain errors and mistakes in Kettlewell's experiments, to which Darwinists have pinned so many of their hopes: According to intensive research in Britain and America, the distribution of melanic moths in clean and polluted regions is very different from what's expected. Contrary to expectations, there is no correlation between lichens and melanism. *B. betularia* moths do not rest on tree trunks. Another element that invalidates the experiment is the ignoring the fact that these animals are nocturnal.

These and other errors have been brought out by various researchers in scientific books and papers in recent years. Michael Majerus' book, *Melanism: Evolution in Action*, published in 1998, is one of these. Professor Jerry Coyne, of Chicago University's Department of Ecology and Evolution, introduced the book in question in an article published in *Nature* magazine on 5 November, 1998, and stressed its importance:

From time to time, evolutionists re-examine a classic experimental study and find, to their horror, that it is flawed or downright wrong ... Until now, however, the prize horse in our stable of examples has been the evolution of "indus-





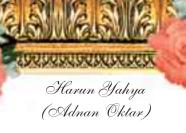
tific thinking is to share the shame and disappointment felt by Coyne, to evaluate hollow Darwinist theses objectively and honestly, and to forthwith rid himself of evolutionist dogma.

Kettlewell's Tale Should be Removed from the Scientific Literature

Besides committing a number of errors, Bernard Kettlewell also ignored one very important factor. It is not only the species *B. betularia* in which melanic forms have spread in the wake of environmental pollution. An increase in dark-colored individuals had been observed in other insect species. Some 100 cases of melanism had been identified in various life forms.³⁰⁴ For example, dark-colored form had increased in the two-spotted ladybird, Adalia bipunctata, while light-colored individuals declined in numbers.

The colors in the two-spotted ladybird, approximately 3.5to 5.5 millimeters (0.1378 to 0.1969 of an inch) in size, exhibit variation.³⁰⁵ But birds do not hunt these insects because they find their taste unattractive.s In other words, there is no question of dark-colored individuals not being eaten by birds simply because they are better camouflaged. Since melanic ladybirds absorb solar energy and environ-





not prove in any acceptable way, according to the current scientific standard, the process he maintains to have experimentally demonstrated." They concluded that, "The evidence Darwin lacked, Kettlewell lacked as well." ³⁰⁹ In short, the evidence that Darwin couldn't supply is still lacked by contemporary evolutionists.

The views of the Japanese biologist Atuhiro Sibatani on this subject represent a definitive judgment for evolutionists: "... the story of industrial melanism must be shelved, at least for the time being, as a paradigm of neo-Darwinian evolution ..." ³¹⁰ According to Sibatani, excessive devotion to neo-Darwinist theory led to other factors being left completely out of the equation. In addition, it led to regarding weak evidence—for melanism being dependent on natural selection—more favorably than it actually should have been. But this is not surprising in the least, because Darwinists have always resorted to all kinds of methods to advance the theory of evolution's acceptance.

The story of the Industrial- Revolution moths is just another one of the countless hollow evolutionary proofs produced for the sake of validating the theory.

Professor Jerry Coyne says that it should be removed from the scientific literature, and describes the lessons to be learned from it:

First, for the time being we must discard Biston as a well-





Kettlewell's classic story in detail, and still portrays it as an illustration of natural selection, even though its erroneous nature has been proved and documented.³¹⁴ According to Paul M. Brakefield, "The peppered moth, *Biston betularia*, is rightly regarded as a striking example of adaptive change through natural selection and as one of the foundation stones for the modern synthesis of evolutionary theory" ³¹⁵ and became a striking example of rapid evolutionary change.³¹⁶

In the book titled *The Illustrated Origin of Species*, Richard Leakey wrote:

The peppered moth is a striking example of evolution in action... but, sadly for Darwin, no one knew it at the time. This is just the evidence he needed to show the effectiveness of natural selection.^{th17}

These and similar statements reflect the dreams of bigoted supporters of Darwinism, but are of no scientific worth. Modern science makes clear that the story in question lacks any foundation and that there is no such thing as evolutionary change.

One evolutionist book written for the purpose of supporting evolution says;

Consider the well-known example of industrial melanism in the British peppered moth, Biston betularia. Few high





Belief in Evolutionary Change in Moths

The concept of natural selection lies at the very root of Darwinism, a claim emphasized even in the title of the book in which Charles Darwin set out his theory: *The Origin of Species by Means of Natural Selection*. Ever Since Darwin, evolutionists' greatest endeavors have been aimed at proving his claim.

The linguist Steven Pinker, one of Darwinism's foremost spokesmen, expresses the importance that natural selection holds for evolutionists: "Because there are no alternatives, we would almost have to accept natural selection as the explanation of life on this planet even if there were no evidence for it." ³²⁰

In his book *How Does the Mind Work?* Pinker's first example of evolution by way of natural selection is the story of melanism in the moths. As you have already seen, however, this is a tale of no scientific value at all. But in the absence of any evidence as to its veracity, evolutionists assume that evolution is true, as Pinker does, and seek to adapt everything else to this thesis. That being the case, a story such as that of the Industrial Revolution moths, which clearly conflicts with scientific facts, is still credited out of devotion to Darwinism.





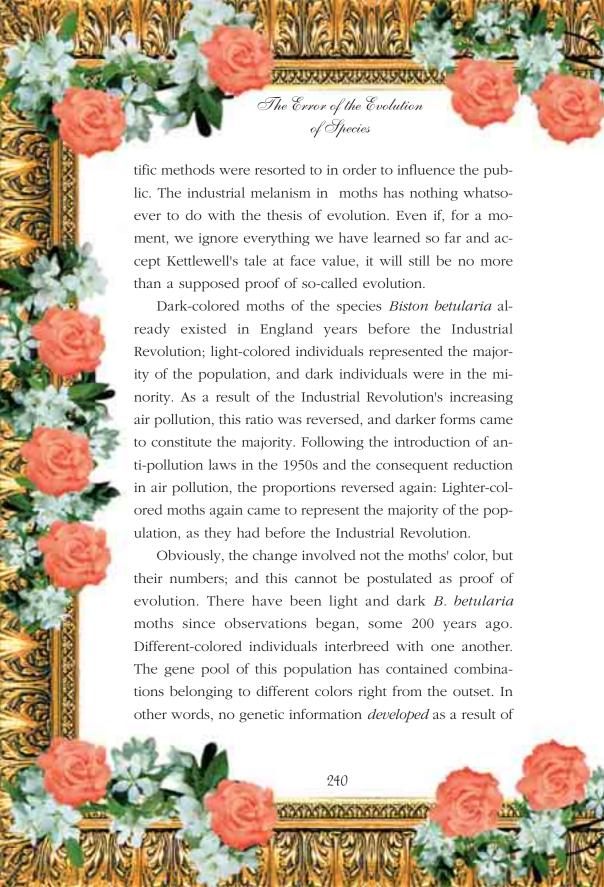
"Darwin's missing evidence"— industrial melanism in peppered moths is no better than alchemy. 322

In the Middle Ages, alchemists mixed copper with various other substances and believed that copper could be turned into gold through the method of trial and error. Science, however, has clearly revealed that no matter how many experiments they perform, alchemists will never succeed and that their hope is merely a dream. Evolutionists who seek to account for the origin of species in terms of mutations and natural selection are facing exactly the same defeat as the alchemists. Scientific discoveries are shattering Darwinists' hopes and demonstrating the invalidity of their evidence.

Contrary to evolutionist assumptions, these mechanisms have no properties that can cause one species to change into another. The Industrial-Revolution moth, a tale that is cited as an example of evolution through natural selection at every available opportunity, is one of evolutionists' unforgettable errors.

Moths Have Always Remained Moths

So far, you have seen how this tale was mythologized in order to produce evidence for evolution, and how unscien-





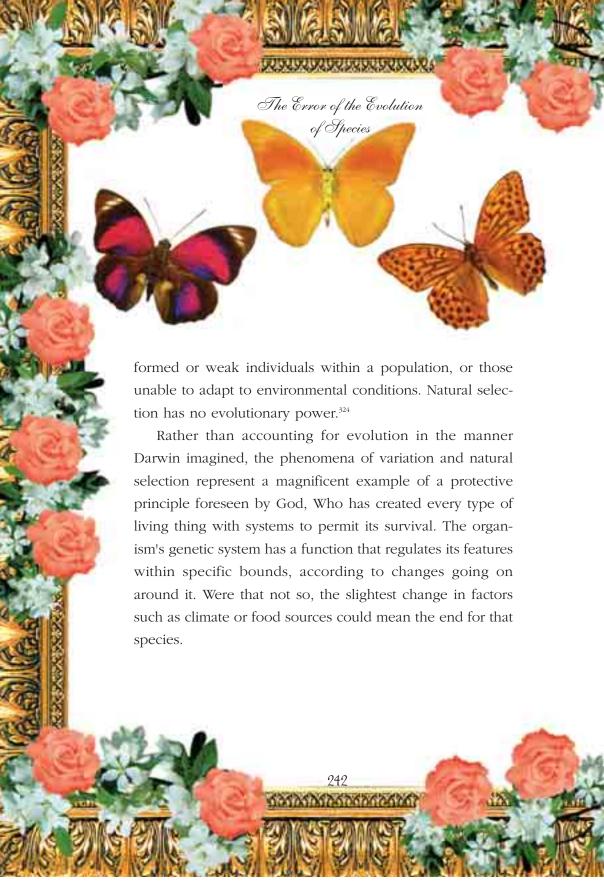
the Industrial Revolution, and no new genes emerged. The *Biston betularia* moth has remained the same species, and there is no question of it turning into any other.

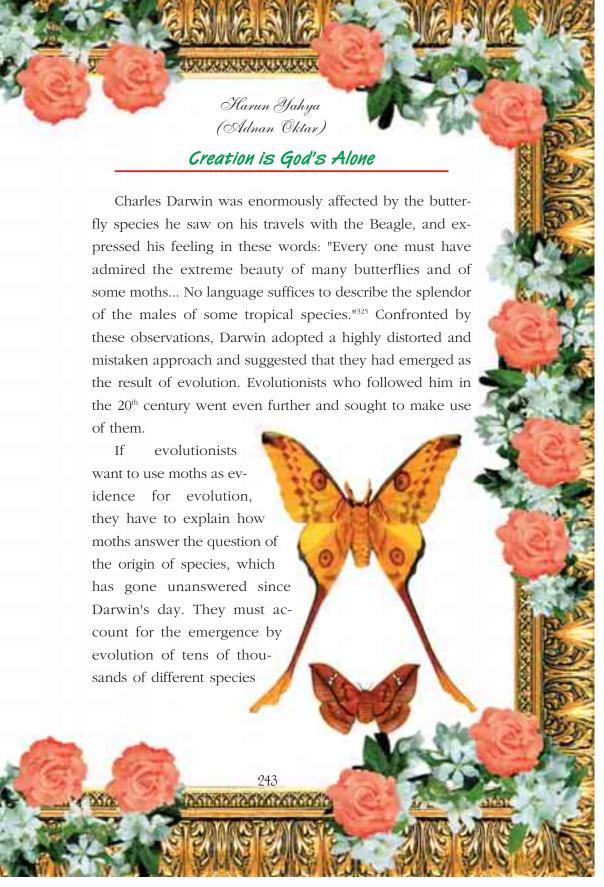
Clearly, nothing in this phenomenon can be described as an instance of evolution. In any case, some adherents of Darwinism do accept this truth. Harrison Matthews, the well known British biologist and evolutionist, says in his foreword to the 1971 edition of Darwin's *The Origin of Species*:

The [peppered moth] experiments beautifully demonstrate natural selection—or survival of the fittest—in action, but they do not show evolution in progress; for however the populations may alter in their content of light, intermediate or dark forms, all the moths remain, from beginning to end, Biston betularia.³²³

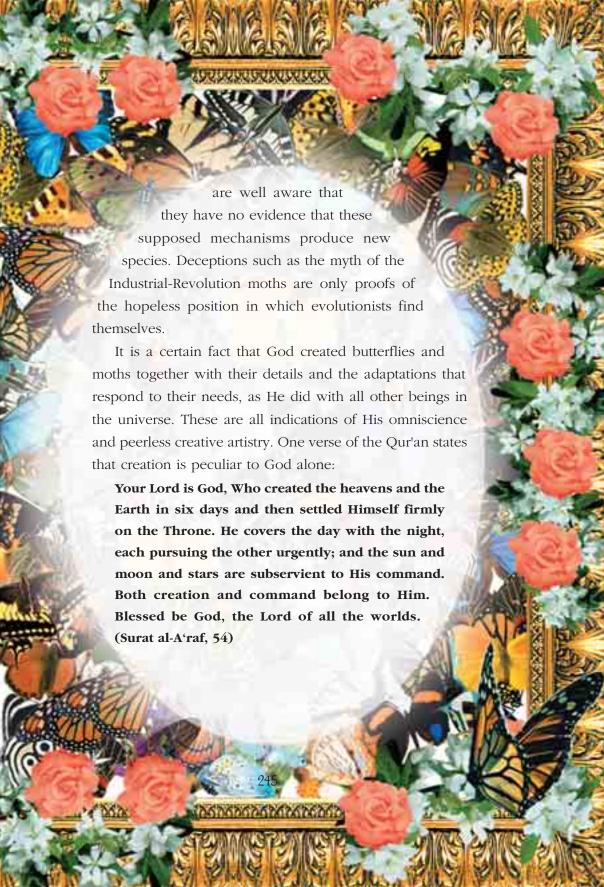
In short, the different colors of this species are examples of genetic variation. Changing environmental conditions did not create new genetic information and new characteristics in the moths. Light-colored moths were indeed better adapted to clean environments and darker ones to environments with heavier pollution, but this constitutes no scientific evidence of natural selection.

Therefore, even if the moths' melanism were proved to be linked to natural selection in some way, this would still change nothing. All natural selection can do is weed out de-















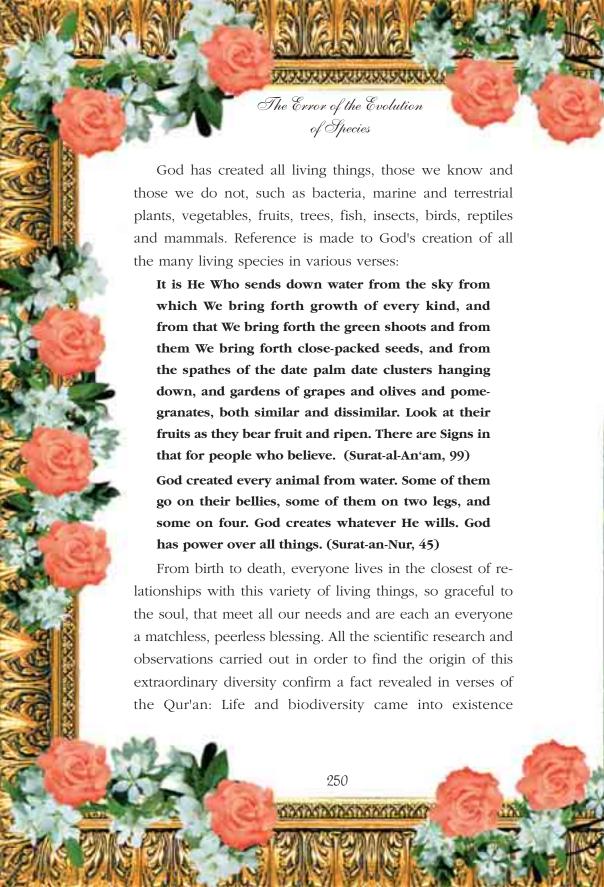


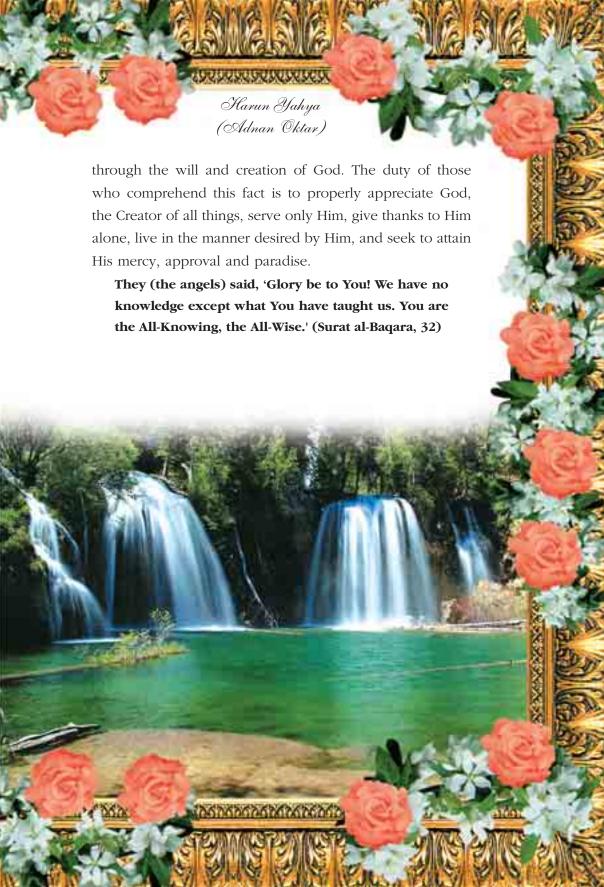
such hollow concept as evolution.

Life and biological diversity are the product of a flaw-less design and sublime creation. This, in turn, proves the existence of an Almighty and Omniscient Creator. That Creator is God, Lord of the Earth and sky and all that lies in between. All forms of life, from micro-organisms that can only be seen with the help of microscopes to giant trees, reveal the existence and oneness of God. In the same way that every picture points to its own artist, living species point towards God, their Creator. Every living thing we encounter throughout our lives carries messages regarding the infinite might, knowledge and artistry of our Lord. This fact is expressed in a number of verses:

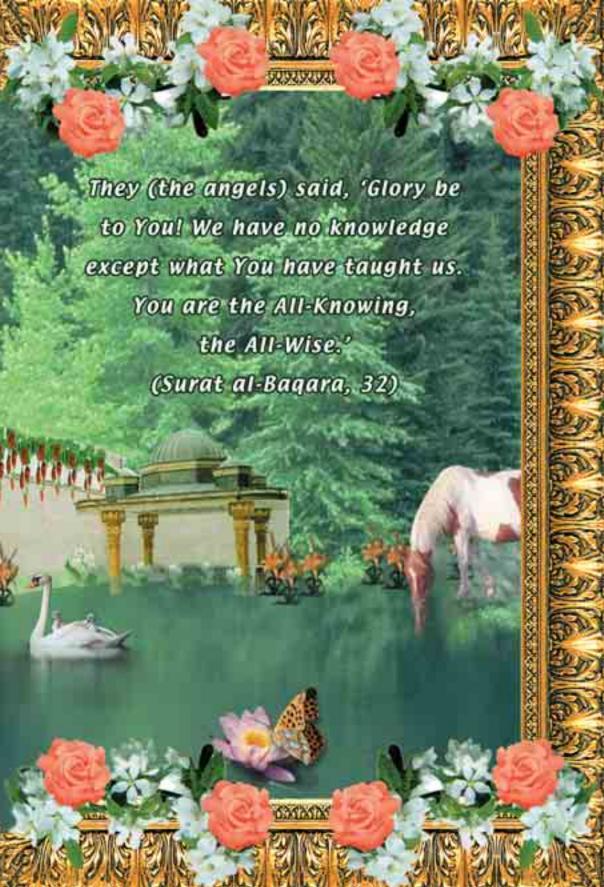
Among His Signs is the creation of the heavens and Earth and all the creatures He has spread about in them. (Surat-ash-Shura, 29)

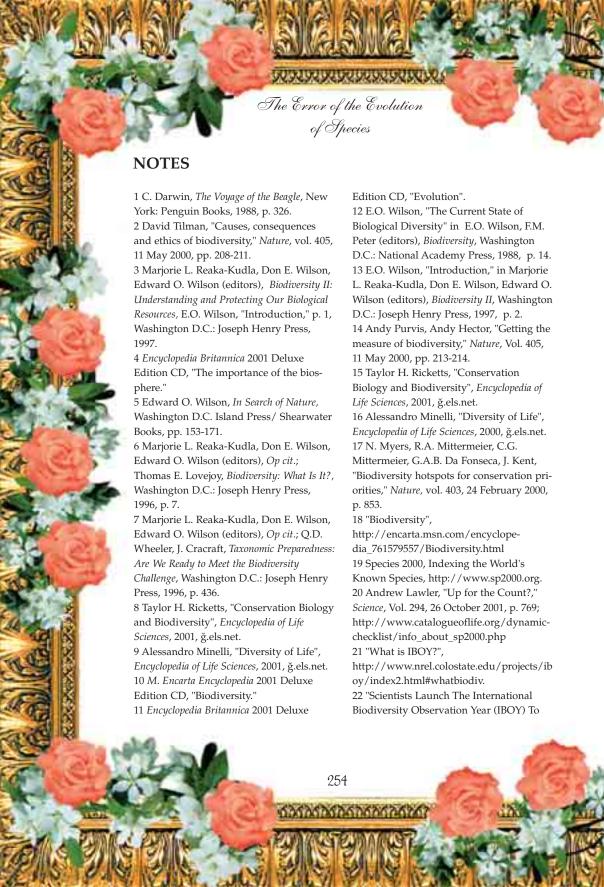
In the creation of the heavens and Earth, and the alternation of the night and day, and the ships which sail the seas to people's benefit, and the water which God sends down from the sky—by which He brings the Earth to life when it was dead and scatters about in it creatures of every kind—and the varying direction of the winds, and the clouds subservient between heaven and Earth, there are Signs for people who use their intellect. (Surat-al-Baqara, 164)













Raise Awareness Of Biodiversity", *Science Daily Magazine*, 2001, http://www.sciencedaily.com/releases/2001/01/010103072716.htm
23 All Species Foundation, http://www.all-species.org/
24 Andrew Lawler, "Up for the Count?", *Science*, Vol. 294, 26 October 2001, p. 769.
25 E.O. Wilson, "Introduction", p. 2, Marjorie L. Reaka-Kudla, Don E. Wilson, Edward O. Wilson (editors), *Biodiversity II*, Joseph Henry Press, Washington D.C., 1997.

26 Peter H. Raven, "Our Diminishing Tropical Forests," p. 120, E.O. Wilson, F.M. Peter (editors), Biodiversity, Washington D.C.: National Academy Press, 1988. 27 Alessandro Minelli, "Diversity of Life", Encyclopedia of Life Sciences, 2000, ğ.els.net 28 Skeletons In The Closet: One Fifth of Species Names May Be Invalid", Science Daily Magazine, 14/11/2001, http://wwwsciencedaily.com/releases/2001/11/011114071056.htm. 29 How Many Species Are There?", World Resources Institute, 2001, http://biodiv.wri.org/pubs_content_text.c fm?ContentID=535 30 Norman Myers, "The Rich Diversity of Biodiversity Issues," in Marjorie L. Reaka-Kudla, Don E. Wilson, Edward O. Wilson (editors), Biodiversity II, Washington D.C. Joseph Henry Press, 1997, p. 125. 31 Nigel E. Stork, "Measuring Global Biodiversity and Its Decline," in Marjorie L. Reaka-Kudla, Don E. Wilson, Edward

O. Wilson (editors), Biodiversity II,

Washington D.C.,: Joseph Henry Press

1997, pp. 41, 61.

32 Ayşe Turak, "Doğaya Sıcak Bakmak," Bilim ve Teknik ("Science and Technique"), December 2000, p. 63 33 National Geographic, http://news.na-tionalgeographic.com/news/2000/12/120 1_russianlake.html, December 1, 2000.

http://library.thinkquest.org/25014/what/decline.impact.html

35 Edward O. Wilson, *In Search of Nature*, pp. 197-198.

36 John Whitfield, "All Creatures Great and Small," *Nature*, Vol. 413, 27 September 2001, p. 344.

37 "Biosphere 2 Center," Columbia University, 2002, http://www.bio2.edu/ 38 Joel E. Cohen, David Tilman, "Biosphere 2 and Biodiversity—The Lessons So Far", *Science*, Vol. 274, No. 5290, 15 November 1996, p. 1150-1151.

39 G.C. Daily, S. Alexander, P.R. Ehrlich, L. Goulder, J. Lubchenco, P.A. Matson, H.A. Mooney, S. Postel, S.H. Schneider, D. Tilman, and G.M. Woodwell, "Ecosystem Services: Benefits Supplied to Human Societies by Natural Ecosystems," 2002, http://www.esa.org/science/Issues/TextI ssues/issue2.php.

40 Joel E. Cohen, David Tilman, *Op.cit.*, p. 1151.

41 Thomas E. Lovejoy, "Biodiversity: What Is It?," in Marjorie L. Reaka-Kudla, Don E. Wilson, Edward O. Wilson (editors), *Biodiversity II*, Joseph Henry Press, Washington D.C., 1997, p. 8, 42 *M. Encarta Encyclopedia* 2001 Deluxe Edition CD, "Rain Forest."





Rule the World," BBC News Online, 28 September 2001,

http://news.bbc.co.uk/hi/english/sci/tec h/newsid 1569000/1569264.stm 75 "Researchers Find Glass-Eating Microbes at the Rock Bottom of the Food Chain," Scripps Institution of Oceanography, 2001, http://www.spaceref.com/news/viewpr.html?pid=6137 76 Francesco Canganella, "Hydrothermal Vent Communities," Encyclopedia of Life

86 R.R. Colwell, "Microbial Biodiversity and Biotechnology,", Biodiversity II, p. 282. 87 M. Encarta Encyclopedia, 2001 Deluxe Edition CD, "Bacteria."

88 Andrew Pollack, "A New Kind of Genomics, With an Eye on Ecosystems," The New York Times, October 21, 2003. 89 James A. Shapiro, "Bacteria as Multicellular Organisms," Scientific American, June 1988, p. 82.

90 For detailed information, see Yvonne





114 M. Encarta Encyclopedia 2001 Deluxe Edition CD, "Leprosy." 115 Ibid., "Animal Experimentation."

116 Edward O. Wilson, In Search of Nature, p. 174.

117 Zuhal Özer, "Yeryüzünün Başarılı Kimyacıları Bakteriler" ("Bacteria: Successful Chemists of the Earth"), Bilim ve Teknik, January 1997, p. 66. 118 David Whitehouse, "Bacteria to make

wood products," BBC News Online, 2 November 2001,

http://news.bbc.co.uk/hi/english/sci/tec h/newsid_1630000/1630158.stm 119 Elizabeth Pennisi, "Microbes Use Mud to Make Electricity," Science, Vol. 295, No.

125 Bryan Norton, "Commodity, Amenity, and Morality," in E.O. Wilson, F.M. Peter (editors), Biodiversity, Washington, D.C:. National Academy Press, 1988, p. 203. 126 Peter J. Bryant, "Values of Biodiversity," 2001, http://www.dbc.uci.edu/~sustain/bio65/ lec11/b65lec11.htm 127 "Agriculture and Genetic Diversity," World Resources Institute, 2001, http://pubs.wri.org/pubs_content_text.cf m?ContentID=574

128 Frontier Natural Products, "Heirloom

Corn and the Future of the World," 2002,

erbal%20Genetic%20Diversity%20fron-

http://www.alternativehealthtalk.com/H





Edition CD, 'Community Ecology:
Biodiversity and the Stability of
Communities."
145 "The Value of Biodiversity," Science
and Development Network
146 Mikail İza, *Bitkilerin Yaşamımızdaki*Yeri, http://www.egitim.com/genclik/0453/0453.bitkiler.asp

Yeri, http://www.egitim.com/genclik/0453/0453.bitkiler.asp 147 G.P. Nabhan, S.L. Buchmann, "Services provided by Pollinators," in G. Daily (editor), Nature's Services: Societal Dependence on Natural Ecosystems, Washington, D.C.: Island Press, 1997, p.

148 S.L. Buchmann, G.P. Nabhan, *The Forgotten Pollinators*, Washington, D.C: Island Press, 1996.

149 Taylor H. Ricketts, "Conservation Biology and Biodiversity," *Encyclopedia of Life Sciences*, 2001, ğ.els.net.

150 M. Encarta Encyclopedia 2001, Deluxe Edition CD, "Pollination."

151 G.C. Daily, S. Alexander, P.R. Ehrlich, L. Goulder, J. Lubchenco, P.A. Matson, H.A. Mooney, S. Postel, S.H. Schneider, D. Tilman, G.M. Woodwell, "Ecosystem Services: Benefits Supplied to Human Societies by Natural Ecosystems," 2002, http://www.esa.org/science/Issues/FileEnglish/issue2.pdf

152 Ronald M. Lanner, *Made for Each Other: A Symbiosis of Birds and Pines*, New York: Oxford University Press, 1996. 153 G.C. Daily, S. Alexander, P.R. Ehrlich, L. Goulder, J. Lubchenco, P.A. Matson, H.A. Mooney, S. Postel, S.H. Schneider, D. Tilman, G.M. Woodwell, "Ecosystem Services: Benefits Supplied to Human Societies by Natural Ecosystems," 2002, http://esa.sdsc.edu/daily.htm; P. Vitousek, P. Ehrlich, A. Ehrlich, P. Matson, "Human appropriation of the products of photosynthesis," *BioScience*, vol. 36, 1986, pp. 368-373.

154 Banu Binbaşaran, "Ormanı Geri Getirmek" ("To Bring Back the Forest"), *Bilim ve Teknik*, July 2001, p. 86. 155 Peter J. Bryant, "Values of

155 Peter J. Bryant, "Values of Biodiversity," 2001,

http://darwin.bio.uci.edu/~sustain/bio6 5/lec07/b65lec07.htm

156 M. Encarta Encyclopedia 2001, Deluxe Edition CD, "Bioremediation."

157 Taylor H. Ricketts, "Conservation Biology and Biodiversity", *Encyclopedia of Life Sciences*, 2001, ğ.els.net.

158 Banu Binbaşaran, "Ormanı Geri Getirmek" *Bilim ve Teknik*, July 2001, p. 86. 159 Lester Brown, "The State of the World in 1985," Strategies For Cultural Change (IC#9)_Spring 1985, Page 12_Copyright (c)1985, 1997 by Context Institute, http://www.context.org/ICLIB/IC09/Bro wn.htm

160 K. Lee, Earthworms: Their Ecology and Relationships with Soils and Land Use, New York: Academic Press, , 1985.

161 Edward O. Wilson, In Search of Nature, pp. 144-145.

162 M. Encarta Encyclopedia 2001 Deluxe Edition CD, "Classification."

163 Encyclopedia Britannica 2001 Deluxe Edition CD, "Taxonomy, Ranks."

164 Daniel Otte, "Species and Speciation: An Overview," *Encyclopedia of Life Sciences*,





University Press, 1940, p. 8. 187 Scott Gilbert, John Opitz, Rudolf Raff, "Resynthesizing Evolutionary and Developmental Biology," *Developmental Biology* 173, Article No. 0032, 1996, p. 361. 188 R. Lewin, "Evolutionary Theory Under Fire," *Science*, vol. 210, 21 November 1980, p. 883.

189 T. Fagerstrom, P. Jagers, P. Schuster, E. Szathmary, "Biologists put on mathematical glasses," *Science*, vol. 274, 20 December 1996, pp. 2039-2040.

190 Sean B. Carroll, "The Big Picture," *Nature*, Vol. 409, 8 February 2001, p. 669; Paul R. Ehrlich, *Human Natures*, Washington, D.C.: Shearwater Books, 2000, p. 46.

191 D.H. Erwin, "Macroevolution is more than repeated rounds of microevolution," *Evolution & Development*, Vol. 2, 2000, pp. 78-84.

192 J.W. Valentine, D.H. Erwin,
"Interpreting Great Developmental
Experiments: The Fossil Record," in , R.A.
Raff, E.C. Raff (editors), *Development as an Evolutionary Process*, New York: Alan R.
Liss, Inc., 1987, p. 95.

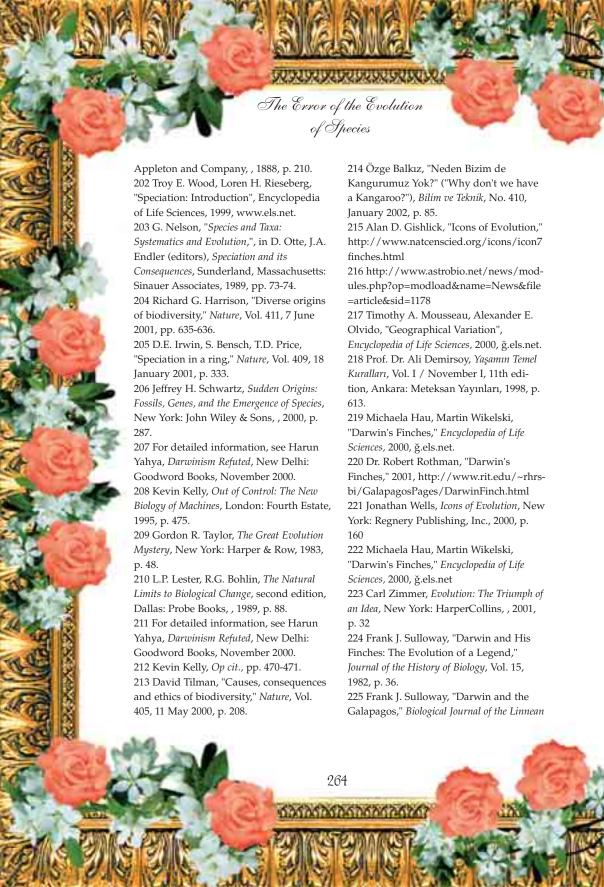
193 C.R. Woese, "Macroevolution in the microscopic world", C. Patterson (editor), *Molecules and Morphology in Evolution*, Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1987, p. 177

194 Troy E. Wood, Loren H. Rieseberg, "Speciation: Introduction", *Encyclopedia of Life Sciences*, 1999, ğ.els.net 195 J.A. Endler, "Conceptual and Other

Problems in Speciation,", in D. Otte, J.A. Endler (editors), *Speciation and Its*

Consequences, Sunderland, Massachusetts: Sinauer Associates,, 1989, p. 625. 196 Prof. Dr. Ali Demirsoy, Yaşamın Temel Kuralları, Vol. I / November I, 11th ed., Ankara: Meteksan Yayınları, , 1998, p. 624. 197 M. Encarta Encyclopedia 2001 Deluxe Edition CD, "Spider (arthropod)." 198 Timothy A. Mousseau, Alexander E. Olvido, "Geographical Variation," Encyclopedia of Life Sciences, 2000, ğ.els.net. 199 The same also applies to human beings. The different races on Earth have different characteristics due to their geographic isolation. Dark skin came to predominate in one race and since these people lived in the same region and reproduced among themselves, a black-skinned race came into being. The same applies to oriental races. The differences in question (skin color, eye color and shape, height, hair color, etc.) were present in the genetic information of the first human beings, but some of these characteristics gradually came to predominate in human populations in different regions of the world, and different races emerged accordingly. Were it not for geographic isolation, if all the races on Earth had intermarried for centuries, then everyone would be a "crossbreed," there would be no blacks, whites or orientals. All human beings would be an "average" of these features. 200 Theodosius Dobzhansky, "Genetics and the Origin of Species", American Midland Naturalist, Vol. 18, No. 6 (Nov., 1937), preface. 201 Francis Darwin, The Life and Letters of

Charles Darwin, Vol. II, New York: D.









melanic forms in the moth Biston betularia and estimates of the selective values of these in an industrial environment," Proceedings of the Royal Society of London B 165, 1966, pp. 424-439.

273 J.A. Bishop, "An experimental study of the cline of industrial melanism in Biston betularia (L.) (Lepidoptera) between urban Liverpool and rural North Wales," Journal of Animal Ecology, Vol. 41, 1972, pp. 209-243.

274 D.R. Lees, E.R. Creed, "Industrial melanism in Biston betularia: the role of selective predation," Journal of Animal Ecology, Vol. 44, 1975, pp. 67-83. 275 J.A. Bishop, L.M. Cook, "Moths, melanism and clean air," Scientific American, Vol. 232, 1975, pp. 90-99. 276 R.C. Steward, "Melanism and selective predation in three species of moths," Journal of Animal Ecology, Vol. 46, 1977, pp. 483-496.

277 N.D. Murray, J.A. Bishop, M.R. MacNair, "Melanism and predation by birds in the moths Biston betularia and Phigalia pilosauria," Proceedings of the Royal Society of London B 210, 1980, pp. 277-283.

278 J.A. Bishop, L.M. Cook, "Industrial melanism and the urban environment," Advances in Ecological Research, Vol. 11, 1980, pp. 373-404; G.S. Mani, "Theoretical models of melanism in Biston betularia," Biological Journal of the Linnean Society, Vol. 39, 1990, pp. 355-371.

279 J.A. Bishop, "An experimental study of the cline of industrial melanism in Biston betularia (L.) (Lepidoptera) between urban Liverpool and rural North Wales," Journal of Animal Ecology, Vol. 41, 1972, p. 240.

280 D.R. Lees, E.R. Creed, "Industrial melanism in Biston betularia: the role of selective predation," Journal of Animal Ecology, Vol. 44, 1975, pp. 75-76. 281 R.C. Steward, "Melanism and selective predation in three species of moths," Journal of Animal Ecology, Vol. 46, 1977, pp. 483-496; R.C. Steward, "Industrial and non-industrial melanism in the peppered moth, Biston betularia," Ecological Entomology, Vol. 2, 1977, pp. 231-243. 282 R.C. Steward, "Industrial and non-industrial melanism in the peppered moth, Biston betularia," Ecological Entomology, Vvol. 2, 1977, pp. 239, 242. 283 R.J. Berry, "Industrial melanism and

peppered moths (Biston betularia)," Biological Journal of the Linnean Society 39, p. 312.

284 B.S. Grant, A.D. Cook, C.A. Clarke, and D.F. Owen, "Geographic and temporal variation in the incidence of melanism in peppered moth populations in America and Britain." Heredity, Vol. 89, No. 5. pp. 465-471

285 D.R. Lees, E.R. Creed, and L.G. Duckett. "Atmospheric pollution and industrial melanism." Heredity 30, 1973. pp. 227-232.

286 T.D.Sargent, "Melanism in moths of central Massachusetts (Noctuidae, Geometridae)," Journal of the Lepidopterists' Society, 28: 1974, pp. 145-152. 287 Bernard Kettlewell, The Evolution of

Melanism, Oxford: Clarendon Press, 1973





London: Chapman and Hall, 1975; P.M. Brakefield, "Polymorphic Muellerian mimicry and interactions with thermal melanism in ladybirds and a soldier beetle: a hypothesis," *Biological Journal of the Linnean Society*, Vol. 26, 1985, pp. 243-267. 307 Prof. Dr. Ali Demirsoy, *Op. cit.*, p. 236. 308 T.D. Sargent, C.D. Millar, and D.M. Lambert, "The 'classical' explanation of industrial melanism: assessing the evidence," *Evolutionary Biology*, Vol. 30, 1998, p. 318.

309 Giuseppe Sermonti, Paola Catastini, "On industrial melanism: Kettlewell's missing evidence," *Rivista di Biologia* 77 (1984): 35-52.

310 Atuhiro Sibatani, "Industrial Melanism Revisited," *Rivista di Biologia* 92, 1999, p. 546.

311 Jerry A. Coyne, "Not black and white," *Loc cit.*, pp. 35-36.

312 K.R. Miller, J. Levine, *Biology*, 5th edition, Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice Hall, 2000, pp. 297-298.

313 Jonathan Wells, "Second Thoughts about Peppered Moths,"

http://www.arn.org/docs/wells/jw_pepmoth.htm

314 Encyclopedia Britannica 2001, Deluxe Edition CD, "Heredity: Natural selection in operation."

315 Paul M. Brakefield,. "Receding black moths," *Trends in Ecology and Evolution*, Vol. 13, No. 9, 1998, p. 376.

316 Malcolm R. Forster, "Evolutionary Theory"

http://philosophy.wisc.edu/forster/220/notes_4.html.

317 Richard Leakey, *The Illustrated Origin of Species*, London: Faber and Faber, 1979. p. 30.

318 M. Archer, *The Reality of Organic Evolution*, , in D.R. Selkirk & F.J. Burrows, eds., *Confronting Creationism: Defending Darwin*, Kensington, NSW, Australia: New South Wales University Press,, 1988, pp. 30-31.

319 Jeremy Cherfas, "Exploding the Myth of the Melanic Moth," *New Scientist*, 25 December 1986, p. 25.

320 Steven Pinker, *How the Mind Works*, London: Penguin:, 1998, p. 162. 321 Jonathan Wells, "Significance of the Peppered Moth Argument," Access

http://ğ.arn.org/docs/wells/jw_significancepm.htm

Research Network, 2000,

322 Jonathan Wells, *Icons of Evolution*, New York: Regnery Publishing, Inc., 2000, p. 155.; John Endler, *Natural Selection in the Wild*, Princeton, NJ: Princeton University Press, 1986, p. 164.

323 L. Harrison Matthews, "Introduction" to *Charles Darwin's Origin of Species* (1971 edition) London: J.M. Dent & Sons, , p. xi. 324 For detailed information, see Harun Yahya, *Darwinism Refuted*, New Delhi: Goodword Books, November 2000. 325 Charles Darwin, *The Descent of Man*,

Chapter 11: "Insects," http://www.literature.org/authors/darwin-charles/the-descent-of-man/chapter-11.html.

326 *Encarta Encyclopedia* 2001, Deluxe Edition CD, "Butterflies and Moths."