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ETSI Life Sciences Primer I

Evolution

Written and organized by Dr. Arri Eisen

Translated by Geshe Dadul Namgyal

Emory - Tibet Science Initiative science primers

ฬ[ุ]ํฺสั[,]ริ[,]รุ่ร[,]รุ่ร **๘ฦ**ํฦํฦํฺฬฦํ๛ฦ๎ฦํ๛ฦ

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(สีมาริกาศริาสิาพิวมีริสิริส์การมีสาสมพาฏิพาฮีมาฐิกามสราชิรา ผิวมีริรารกัรรับรายรายรายเรียงไป การกลูสาวรารารารา 1011 ติวมี เพิ่มีรำบาชีบาตบเนื้องบาติรายรา

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A joint project of the Library of Tibetan Works and Archives, Dharamsala, India and Emory University, Atlanta, Georgia.

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FOREWORD AND ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS



FOREWORD

Despite their obvious differences, science and Buddhism share several key features in common. Both are committed to empirical observation, the testing of hypotheses, avoiding blind adherence to dogma, and cultivating a spirit of openness and exploration. Most importantly, Buddhism and science share as a fundamental aim the contribution they can make to humanity's well-being. While science has developed a deep and sophisticated understanding of the material world, the Buddhist tradition has evolved a profound understanding of the inner world of the mind and emotions and ways to transform them. I have no doubt that improving collaboration, dialogue and shared research between these two traditions will help to foster a more enlightened, compassionate, and peaceful world.

I have long supported the introduction of a comprehensive science education into the curriculum of the traditional Tibetan monastic educational system. When I first heard that Emory University proposed to develop and implement such a science education program for Tibetan monks and nuns in collaboration with the Library of Tibetan Works and Archives, I thought it would take many years. When I visited Emory University in October 2007, I was genuinely surprised to be presented with the first edition of a science textbook for Tibetan monks and nuns, the result of more than a year's work by a team of dedicated scientists and translators at Emory.

By extending the opportunities for genuine dialogue between science and spirituality, and by training individuals well versed in both scientific and Buddhist traditions, the Emory-Tibet Science Initiative has the potential to be of great meaning and significance to the world at large. Once more, the creation of this primer series, presented in both Tibetan and English, is a clear tribute to the commitment and dedication of all those involved in this project. With the preparation having been done with such care, I am confident that the long-term prospects for this project are bright.

I congratulate my friend Dr. James Wagner, President of Emory University, the science faculty and translators of the Emory-Tibet Science Initiative, and everyone who has lent their support to this project for achieving so much in such a short time and offer you all my sincere thanks.

h (mp)

4 October 2010

Translation



THE DALAI LAMA

ชี้สามีรา

ਜ਼ਖ਼੶ਸ਼ਜ਼੶ਲ਼ੵਜ਼੶ਗ਼ੵ੶ਗ਼ਗ਼ਖ਼੶ਸ਼ਁ੶ਖ਼੶ਸ਼ਁ੶ਖ਼ਁ੶ਗ਼ਫ਼ਗ਼੶ਖ਼ਗ਼੶ਖ਼ੑੑਗ਼ਗ਼ਗ਼ਗ਼ਖ਼੶ਗ਼ਜ਼੶ਗ਼ਗ਼ਗ਼ਫ਼ਁ੶ਖ਼ਫ਼ਜ਼੶ਖ਼ੑਗ਼ਗ਼ਸ਼੶ਫ਼ਸ਼੶ਖ਼੶ਖ਼ਗ਼੶ਫ਼ਸ਼੶ਖ਼ੑਜ਼੶ ਜ਼ੑੑੑੑਜ਼੶ਗ਼ੵ੶ਫ਼ਫ਼੶ਖ਼ਗ਼੶ਖ਼ਖ਼੶ਖ਼ਸ਼੶ਗ਼ੵ੶ਫ਼ਫ਼੶ਖ਼ਗ਼੶ਖ਼ੑੑਗ਼੶ਗ਼ਗ਼ਫ਼੶ਖ਼ਗ਼੶ਗ਼ਫ਼੶ਖ਼ਖ਼੶ਖ਼ਗ਼੶ਫ਼ਸ਼੶ਖ਼ਖ਼ਗ਼੶ਫ਼ਸ਼੶ਖ਼ੑਜ਼੶ਗ਼ਫ਼ਜ਼੶ਖ਼ੑਜ਼੶ਗ਼ਫ਼ਜ਼੶

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Office of the President



Education is one of the most potent tools we have for ensuring a better world for ourselves and for generations to come. To be truly effective, however, education must be used responsibly and in service to others. This ideal of an education that molds character as well as intellect is the vision on which Emory University was founded, and the challenges of our time show that the need for such education is as great as ever.

This vision is one that His Holiness the Dalai Lama shares deeply, and it is the reason for the close relationship that has emerged between His Holiness and Emory over the past two decades. On October 22, 2007, it was my pleasure and privilege to welcome His Holiness to Emory to be installed as Presidential Distinguished Professor and to join our community as a most distinguished member of our faculty.

The interdisciplinary and international nature of the Emory-Tibet Science Initiative, the most recent and ambitious project of the Emory-Tibet Partnership, is an example of Emory University's commitment to courageous leadership for positive transformation in the world. This far-reaching initiative seeks to effect a quiet revolution in education. By introducing comprehensive science instruction into the Tibetan monastic curriculum, it will lay a solid foundation for integrating insights of the Tibetan tradition with modern science and modern teaching, through genuine collaboration and mutual respect. The result, we trust, will be a more robust education of both heart and mind and a better life for coming generations.

The Emory-Tibet Partnership was established at Emory in 1998 to bring together the western and Tibetan traditions of knowledge for their cross-fertilization and the discovery of new knowledge for the benefit of humanity. This primer and its three companion primers are splendid examples of what can be accomplished by the interface of these two rich traditions. We at Emory University remain deeply committed to the Emory-Tibet Science Initiative and to our collaboration with His Holiness and Tibetan institutions of higher learning.

To the monastic students who will benefit from these books, I wish you great success in your studies and future endeavors.

anos W. Wagner James W. Wagner

James W. Wagne President

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Translation

EMORY

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Àश प्रिंत ते मर्के न मर हेन न में हे शास्त शास मा भाषा करें वात शा ही कि एस मा भाषा के बीवा में की वा में की मा के में की मा क ધોઠ્ઠા ને ભ્રુઃદ્વવર્ત્ય ને અર્પોદ્ધ ને જેન મેંદ્ર પ્રચાયવે દુચાથું લેવા દુઃપક્ષુ રાગવા ને જેન વ્યવસાય છે. પ્રચાય સાથે દેવ લેન વાલક વર્ષ છે. જેને પ્રચાય માં છે પ્રચાય સાથે છે છે તે તે પ્ ५र्गेश्रामण्धेत्। गुत्र श्चे ५५८२२ मार्थ्रे म्थामहेश्रामणेम् सम्प्रश्चे २ मदे सुव्य दुरामी भीश्राणेत् ५ वडावेमा श्चेण कुत्रे खेळे दे भाइमायमा श्चेमा महेरामरा न्दित भाषा

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हेअ लेखेग करा गरुंदिना

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PROLOGUE

It is most gratifying to be able to bring out a series of core science textbooks along with reference materials for Tibetan monastics as part of the ongoing project of developing science education for Tibetan monastic communities. This undertaking, which is both unprecedented and highly challenging, took birth under the aegis of His Holiness the Dalai Lama and Emory University. To facilitate its smooth development, we have been working to produce appropriate materials and make them available in print forms. Our vision is ultimately to develop a comprehensive, five-year science curriculum appropriate for use in Tibetan monastic settings.

It is a great honor for the three of us to play a part in overseeing this project. While each of us finds great inspiration for this project and the promise its holds, the full scope of its vision lies with His Holiness the Dalai Lama. For several decades, His Holiness has had the dream of introducing science education as a crucial component of the Tibetan monastic curriculum. While this is a bold step, His Holiness sees far-reaching benefits in such an undertaking. The integration of science into Tibetan monastic study will serve as a model and a trailblazer for constructive collaborations between religious and scientific traditions. It will help to inspire a paradigm shift in modern education as we know it, by providing resources for integrating the training of both heart and intellect to create a balanced education of the whole person. Furthermore, it will create a new science literature in the Tibetan language, thereby enriching the already extensive Tibetan literary tradition and helping to preserve the endangered Tibetan culture. This project represents a significant step towards a genuine convergence of science and spirituality. This convergence, which would enable us to tap into the combined resources of knowledge of the external world and knowledge of the inner world of the mind, could prove crucial for our future survival.

We are deeply honored, grateful, and humbled by the trust and confidence His Holiness has shown in us by entrusting us with this project, so dear to his heart. We thank him for his constant guidance, vision and support at every step of the way. Furthermore, we thank all those who have made the Emory-Tibet Science Initiative possible. Our role has simply been to oversee ETSI, but its actualization is due to many others, most notably the tireless and selfless ETSI faculty, our incredible team of translators both at Emory University and at the Library of Tibetan Works and Archives, and the administrators and staff of Emory and LTWA, who have supported this ambitious undertaking in countless ways. Crucially, this project has depended upon generous financial support from Emory University and a number of key donors: the McBean Family Foundation, the Lostand Foundation, the Joni Winston Fund, the Buddhist Learning Center, and Drepung Loseling Monastery, Inc. To all these individuals and organizations, we would like to express humbly our deepest gratitude and thanks

Director, Library of Tibetan Works and Archives Dr. Preetha Ram and Geshe Lobsang Tenzin Co-Directors, Emory-Tibet Science Initiative

Geshe Lhakdor

רחוֹיחאָשישָּחיבֿרו זֿק־שֿיקטיבליאבֿרוּעריטוֹיגעקקיעבֿמן דֿקיפדישידיקידאיקריקאיקזיבאדן אוידָן אוידָן אוידָאייקייקאיקאיקאיקאיקאיקאיקאיקאינדין אוידיקישיאילאישיקטעראַראיש

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ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The Robert A. Paul Emory-Tibet Science Initiative (ETSI) owes its existence to the far-reaching vision of His Holiness the Dalai Lama, who has not only provided constant guidance and support, but who has also provided financial support by providing \$100,000 towards the program's endowment. It also owes its existence to the generous support of Dr. James W. Wagner, President of Emory University, who made available key funding through Emory's Strategic Initiative funds and his personal discretionary fund.

The Emory-Tibet Partnership (ETP) was established in 1998 in the presence of His Holiness the Dalai Lama through the collaborative vision and work of Dr. Robert Paul and Geshe Lobsang Tenzin Negi. ETSI is the most ambitious project to grow out of the Emory-Tibet Partnership, and in 2010 ETSI was renamed the Robert A. Paul Emory-Tibet Science Initiative in honor of Dr. Paul's visionary leadership and guidance. We express our heartfelt thanks to both these individuals for helping to establish the many programs of the Emory-Tibet Partnership, including ETSI.

We gratefully acknowledge Geshe Lhakdor, Director of the Library of Tibetan Works and Archives, Dharamsala, India, and Dr. Preetha Ram, Associate Dean of Science Education at Emory University, both of whose leadership has been invaluable to the establishment and development of this initiative.

The project would also not have been possible without the support of Dr. Gary Hauk, Vice President and Deputy to the President at Emory University, who has guided ETP for several years and continues to be one of ETSI's strongest supporters.

We thank also the ETSI science faculty, who have worked tirelessly to develop the science textbooks who have and traveled to India each summer to teach the science intensives, and the ETSI science translators who have given of their skills and time to contribute an entirely new scientific vocabulary to the Tibetan literary tradition and lexicon.

We also thank the hard-working staff of the Emory-Tibet Partnership, who have labored far beyond the call of duty, showing time and again that their efforts are not only work, but also an act of love.

We thank all those who have contributed the financial support needed to operate ETSI and ensure its long-term sustainability. Particularly, we are indebted to Ms. Joni Winston, Judith McBean, and Diana Rose for their long-term support to ETSI. Funding for ETSI has also come from Emory University and Emory College, including the Science and Society Program and the Neuroscience and Behavioral Biology program.

Generous support has also come from:

The McBean Family Foundation

Lostand Foundation

The Joni Winston Fund

The Buddhist Learning Center, New Jersey

Drepung Loseling Monastery, Inc., Atlanta, Georgia

We also thank the Advisory Board of the Emory-Tibet Science Initiative for their guidance and advice:

Sogyal Rinpoche, Rigpa International and the Tenzin Gyatso Institute

Dr. Gary Hauk, Vice President and Deputy to the President, Emory University

Geshe Lhakdor, Directory, Library of Tibetan Works and Archives

Mr. Terry Adamson, Senior Vice President, National Geographic

Dr. Georges Dreyfus, Williams College

Dr. Alan Wallace, President, Santa Barbara Institute Geshe Thupten Jinpa, Principal English Lanuage Translator for H.H. the Dalai Lama and President, Institute of Tibetan Classics

Lastly we thank the highly dedicated monastic students of the Emory-Tibet Science Initiative, who are not only beneficiaries, but also essential collaborators in the success of this program. May the knowledge that they gain through this program and these materials benefit them greatly, and through them, all of humankind.

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<u> </u>
লৰ্বি'ঋ্দ'।

⋧॓ਗ਼੶ੑੑੑੑੑੑୖୠਗ਼ਫ਼ੑਸ਼੶ਖ਼ੑੑੑੑੑ੶੶ਗ਼੶ਖ਼ਗ਼੶ਗ਼ ૡૼ੶ਖ਼੶ੑਲ਼੶ਗ਼ੑੑੑ੶ਗ਼੶ਫ਼ ਞੑ੶ਫ਼੶ਖ਼ਫ਼੶ਖ਼੶ਲ਼ਫ਼੶ਖ਼ਜ਼ਖ਼੶ਫ਼ ਫ਼ੑੑੑ੶ੑੑੑਫ਼ਸ਼੶ਖ਼੶੶ਗ਼ਖ਼੶ਜ਼ਖ਼੶ਫ਼ੑਖ਼ ਫ਼੶ਗ਼੶ਸ਼ਫ਼੶ਲ਼ਸ਼੶ਫ਼ਜ਼ਖ਼੶ਜ਼ਖ਼੶ਫ਼ੑਖ਼੶ਜ਼ਫ਼ੑਖ਼ਗ਼ੑੑੑਫ਼ੑਸ਼੶ਗ਼ੑੑਖ਼ਖ਼੶ਗ਼ੑੑਸ਼੶ਗ਼ੑ੶ਫ਼ਸ਼੶ਗ਼੶ਫ਼ਖ਼੶ਫ਼ਗ਼ਖ਼ੑੑ ਖ਼੶ਗ਼੶ਸ਼ਫ਼੶ਲ਼ਸ਼੶ਫ਼ਜ਼ਖ਼੶ਜ਼ਖ਼੶ਖ਼ਫ਼੶ਖ਼ਫ਼ੑੑੑੑ੶ਜ਼ਖ਼ਖ਼ਖ਼੶ਗ਼ੑੑਸ਼੶੶ਗ਼ੵ੶ਫ਼ਸ਼੶ਗ਼੶ਫ਼ਖ਼੶ਫ਼ਗ਼ਖ਼ੑੑ

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ผ้ๆ๙ๆจีฬุณ

SUPPORT AND INSPIRATION

This primer on Evolution was developed with the help of many scientist-educators from the Emory Tibet-Science Initiative and beyond. The teaching and development of this material involved Emory University Biology Department faculty members Arri Eisen, Rustom Antia, Chris Beck, and Alex Escobar. Arri Eisen wrote and organized most of this text with significant contributions from Rustom Antia and Alex Escobar, as well as Veronique Perrot. The interpreters in our classes and the translators of this text have not simply translated words, but transformed difficult concepts from one culture to another, and have taught us professors much more than we could have imagined. The main translator of this text is Geshe Dadul Namgyal. He was assisted by Tsondue Samphel and Sangye Tashi Gomar. The interpreters for our classes include Tsondue Samphel, Tenzin Sonam, Sangye Tashi Gomar, Karma Thupten, Tenzin Paldon, Nyima Gyaltsen.

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The Emory-Tibet Science Initiative Life Sciences Team Emory University 2010

क्षे सें में महुंग भग होंन महेमा महेमा मही के भाष

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दह्ते न भगवा मा स्व भगवे न भगवा मा

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*ॺऻ*ढ़ॖऺऀॺॱॺॖॺॱॸॺॱय़ॸॖऺऀॺऻॺॱॻॖॖॺॱऒ॔ॸऻ

ਗ਼ਸ਼ਗ਼੶ੑੑੑੑੑਸ਼ਗ਼੶ਖ਼ੑੑਗ਼੶ਸ਼ੑੑੑੑੑੑ

ଣସଂସଞ୍ଚୁଗ୍ ସଞ୍ଚୁଗ୍ ଦେହିଁଗ୍ 'ମଧ୍ୟ' ଶ୍ରିଁଗ୍ର 'ଡ଼ି' ଅ' ଶ୍ରୁଦ୍ୟ ଅର୍ଚ୍ଚଗ୍ 'ସରଷ' ନିମ୍ବା

สัๆ หลิ หูห หู้ ราวราสูรา หู้ รา

DARWIN'S GREAT IDEA

Charles Darwin developed his famous ideas of evolution based on decades of careful research. The core of his ideas was published in 1859 in *The Origin of Species*. The book immediately sold out and has been a bestseller ever since.

Darwin's basic idea is that the environment and organisms are in a dynamic relationship. Organisms affect their environment and their environment affects organisms. Organisms that best adapt to their environment survive to a greater extent and have more offspring and, therefore, are, in evolutionary terms, more successful. The result is that the environment 'selects' the organisms that are most successful, a process Darwin called natural selection.

Tibet is an excellent place to study many different aspects of evolution because of its dramatic environment and the history of how that environment came to be. The Tibetan plateau is the largest and highest on Earth, covering more than five million square kilometers with an average elevation of over five kilometers. The environment, including the geology and climate, vary significantly across the plateau, leading, as Darwin's theories predict, to an impressive diversity of plants and animals and many species unique to the plateau.

According to Darwin, the dynamic relationship between organisms and the environment has been ongoing since even before the Tibetan plateau formed and, in fact, ever since life began. The first organisms became the common ancestors of all organisms, including humans. The original organisms eventually evolved over millions of years into all other organisms; they are the roots of the tree of life.

This book explores concepts needed to understand Darwin's ideas of evolution: What is life? How do we determine the history of life? How does the environment affect life over short and over very long periods of time? How do organisms evolve?

YOUR TURN: THE ENVIRONMENT & ORGANISMS

What do you think? Let's do an experiment to test the following idea (or hypothesis), one that is central to Darwin's theory of evolution: the environment affects the organisms that live in it.

Divide into groups and locate three different environments outside. For example, these environments could be at different elevations (like the top and bottom of a mountain), in a dry area, in a wet area, in water, in a tree, etc. Examine the plant and animal life in these environments. Choose one animal and one plant and describe them in detail. Then discuss how its traits-like color, height, or other physical characteristics- might be affected by its environment. Make a list of particular traits and see if you can develop explanations about how each trait 'fits' its environment.

Now all the groups should get together and discuss their results. Were there similar plants or animals in different environments? How did such organisms adapt (change) differently to their particular environments? Based on your results, do you think our hypothesis, that the environment affects organisms, is supported? What further experiments would you do to follow up on your findings?

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দ্র:নর্ন্দ্রীষ্ণা

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<u> ને 'વર્ડા</u>વે'ક્રચાળલળાળી વિંદચાશી & લેવા ગા છે. શ્રેંવા ગ્રે ત્ર્યા ગ્રે શ્રેંવા ગ્રી ગ્રુંદ 'ત્રવચાય સ્થય વેં સુરા શુવા ગયા

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WHY EVOLUTION?

"Nothing in biology makes sense except in the light of evolution." Theodosius Dobzhansky, *The American Biology Teacher*, 1973

Why is **evolution** the first topic of Biology in the Emory-Tibet Science Initiative? No one says it better than Dobzhansky above.

Evolution is the underlying theme of all biology. Some go so far as to say the principles of evolution serve as a philosophical foundation for much of the sciences *and much of modern thought*.

Evolution is not only the *foundation* of biological knowledge but it is also the mortar, glue, nails, and screws that hold up the entire structure of biology. Evolution and its central tenets permeate every aspect of biology.

As noted, Charles Darwin outlined the basic theory of evolution in his monumental 1859 book, *The Origin of Species*. Alfred Russel Wallace also developed very similar ideas around the same time. Darwin was so concerned about the potential broad social implications of his work that he did not publish *The Origin of Species* until Wallace sent his ideas on evolution to Darwin, and Darwin realized in order to receive credit for these ideas he had been working on for decades, he must publish quickly. The two scientists presented their work together.

Darwin was right: his and Wallace's ideas shook and continue to shake the world. Suddenly, biology had a framework that made sense, and much of the incredible growth in biology and related sciences can be traced to Darwin's work a century and a half ago. Beyond science, the concepts in evolutionary theory were carried into nearly all walks of life: politics, religion, sociology, and psychology. Often, the ideas were (and are) misused and abused, but just as often they were (and are) used productively and shed new light and new perspectives on many walks of life.

So, it is clearly important to begin your journey through biology with the beautiful theory of evolution.

In this primer, we begin at the beginning in biological terms: what is life and what makes something alive? How did life begin? We will consider how evolution allows us to organize life based on certain patterns and then how those patterns emerge over time. How does change occur in living organisms over time? How does the **environment**, the space and time in which an organism lives, affect its survival and shape its change?

ROOM FOR THOUGHT: SOCIAL IM-PLICATIONS OF DARWIN'S IDEAS

One of the things that made him most excited (and most nervous) about his theory of evolution, was Darwin's claim about humans. From an evolutionary point of view, our species evolved no differently than any other. Not only do all humans share a common origin, but all humans are related to *all* other organisms. Of course, this runs counter to the idea in many cultures and religions that humans are distinct, different, and superior to other life forms.

Another powerful social implication of Darwin's theory is that all humans are equal and belong to the same species. It might seem ridiculous now, but much of the well-respected science at the time claimed that there were different species of humans. For instance, Louis Agassiz, a prominent Harvard researcher, said:

"There are upon earth different races of men, inhabiting different parts of its surface, which have different physical characters; and this fact... presses upon us the obligation to settle the relative rank among these races, the relative value of the characters peculiar to each, in a scientific point of view..."

Most of these now-discredited theories claimed that people who did not look like the white scientists developing these theories were 'lower' species of humans. Unfortunately, these ideas lent scientific support to racist attitudes and to treating different groups of people as slaves or worse.

र्वेग'तृ'ननम्ब'र्थेना" ठेब'नम्बन'र्थेना <u><u></u>नःळःळॅनःदद्देवःश्वेःदयेरःघरःशुरुःचेवःघदेःघक्षः</u> &ંગરે દેં મળા રેં દેવે બુાવા ગયું સંસંગરે ગર \neg રૠંગ્રેબઃ દુેઽ અભ્વઃ શુે એ જ਼ુઽ ઽઌાઽ મેં તે જવ Àद्र-मुत्र·येंद्र झूनत्रःस्र·येण्ड्र·यःदीण्या नक्षुः &ંપાલને નવા ગોષા સેવાષા સુષાન છે લ છેનું ગો જે છે. नृम्ना स्वरणधेंगाम्मेलिः र्श्वेना मलवाध्यम् ने म्बर ગ્રુપ્ટ.જ્વત્રા.છુ.ચંદ્ર, શ્રું, ચૈત્રા.જૂ. આ પ્રા. છે. આ પ્રા <u>ૣૡૢ</u>ઽ઼ૡૢઌૣૣૣઌૹ૽૽૽૾ૢ૽૱ૡ૽ૢ૱૱ૡ૽ૼૡઽૣૼ૱૱૱૱

ૡુઃધ૾ઃષાગ્નુઃજ્ઞેઃધેશ્વઃવવૃઽ્;ગ્રુઽૣ "สลิาปีานาลริลิาลิราปิาสายูณาลิาลรามาส์าสัรา ॻऻॾॖऀॻऻॺॱॻऻय़ॖऀॺॱऄॱॻऻऄॻऻॱॸय़ऀॱऄय़ऀॱय़य़ऀॱॸऀय़ॱॺ ૡૢૹૻૹૣૻ[ૢ]ૹૻ૾ૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૹ૾ઌ૿ઌૻઌૼૹૻ૽ૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૹૻૻ૱ૼૹૻ૽ૼૡૻૻઌૻ૾ૡૻ૽ૼૡૻૻ૾૽ૼૡૼૻ र्दे अते गवना सूरना तदी तदती र्देगा देगना मुन्ना ने'न्या'यी'त्रन्याचेष्यान्यः स्वरंग्वे व्यक्तेष्यः स्वरंग्वे ये विषयः स्वरंग्वे व्यक्तेष्यः स्वरंग्वे विषयः स्वरंग्वे यो विषयः स्वरंग्वे वि स्वरंगवे विषयः स्वरंगवे विषयः स्वरंगवे विषयः स्वरंगवे स्वरंगवे स्वरंगवे विषयः स्वरंगवे विषयः स्वरंगवे विषयः स्व स्वरंगवे स स्वरंगवे स स्वरंगवे स्व स्वरंगवे स् या स्वरंगवे स रेबान्मा सॅग्सॅवेधुवर्खेम्ग्वेवर्ण्यवेखन्यविश्व यव स्तुव नश्वर गते नवर रव ग्री में रेश देश ॻऻॸॖॺॱढ़ॺ॓ॸॺॱय़ॖॖ॓ॸॱॻढ़ॱढ़ॻऻॺॱढ़ॺॖॎॸॱॸ॓ॱॾॕढ़॓ॱ

र्धेगवायायानु ग्रुरदेवाधेवा พ८. २२. भुव. मु. रु वाब. राषे. वाबिट. अवाब. जब. र्वेव'विम्न श्रुं र्ळेगर्थ'ग्रुं 'वर्ष' म्यू सुगर्थ सुविम्लेव' श्रुं र्रे वेनन्न मदे सुः सूरन्य मुबद बिम दी होदे र में ज ગુવારકા અલ્યાથેવા માનના ને ગુવા સું સ્વ શે છે. रैणर्ग्राचेना हु:गर्हेगर्ग्राय दी खेना दी हेन देन [૾]ঀ૽ૺॱૹૻૻૻૻૻ[૾]ૻ૱ૹૻૻ૾ૻૻ૱ૹૻ૽૱ૻૹ૽૾ૡૻ૽ૡ૽૿ઌૻૻ૾૾ૡૻ૽ઌૻ૾૱ૻ૽ૼ૱ रुमा देवगुम्झन्षादेराण्द्रमायदेषाय्येरा वरःगबेबाग्री ले रेगबा वर्त्त थेन् रायरा मक्ष र् येश พีรา ราพกรมีราย รายารายสาย गहेरायरागी विनादहुगाय ग्रागमा उदा झु वनमा

ૹ૾ૢ૾ૺ૾૾ૹ૽ૼૼૼૼૢૡૹૻૻ૱ઽૡ૽૾ૡૼૻૻઽૡૼૡ૾૾ૡૻ૽૱ૡ૽ૼૹૻ न्दः र्ह्वे : र्क्ष्यत्रः के र्श्वे रूग गुद्दः क्रे गिले गिले गिलु दा न्दिः सुः सून्त्राने धीवा ने धान त्रथे या त ग्रुन् ग्री गों રૈ& નશ્ર નાયુષ્ય નાયુષ્ટ્રી સ્વરા શે છે છે રે ગાય ગા નાય છે છે. ๛ฃู๛ฏ๛๙๛ฃ๖ฃ๛๛๚ฦ ਡੀਟੇ-୶୲ ଈୖୖୖୡ୕୲୵୶ୢୖଈ୵୷୲ଌୡ୶୲ଡ଼ୄ୵ୄୖୢୄୗ୰୶ୄୢୄୢୄୄୢୄୄୄୄ୷ୄ୲ୡ୵୶୲୴ୖୄୖୄୄଵ୶୲ พิสานารกา ริสามาสรา มิลิเลมีาายมพาธรา क्रे] 'स्व' ग्री' रैगर्थ गवित' गुव' न म जेव' क्वे' ग्री' क्रॅब्राखुणवायान्द्रमान्द्रुकीते तर्चे नाम्बरुवाने. ॻऺऀॱॾऺऺॖॺॱॸॻॿऺॺॱॿॺॺॱॼॸॱॴॺॱॿॱॸॸॱॸड़ॱऻॖॖॖॖॾॖॸॱ

গুশশুক্টিব।

ଅକ୍ଷୟ ସାଣିସା ସି 'ୟୁଦ୍ଧା **૾્યુ**):ૹૻૼઌૡૻૻ੶ઌ૽ૢ૾ૺૺ:ૡૹૻૼ:ઌૡ૽ૺ:ૡ૽ૢ૾ૢઽ:ઽઽ:ૡ૽૾૱ૹ૽ૢ૾૽ઽ૾ઌૻૻૢૻઌૡ૽ૺ:

> สู่ๆจางมา หูรานิลา ฉริราษ์ๆเมราฉยิญราริๆเบงาฉยังริมายิรสมเนาๆรารราคราดดำเนลตาลจาสิ่าย์ๆๆ ᡏᡝᢅ᠊ᡲ᠋᠋᠋᠕᠉ᡱᢩᡆ᠋ᡎ᠋ᢅᢎᠬ᠋ᠬᠴᢦᢂ᠋᠋ᡏᡆᡭᡆ᠋᠋᠋᠋᠋᠋᠋᠋᠋᠋᠋᠋᠋ᡆ᠆᠋ᡩ᠊᠋᠋ᢂ᠋ᠼᠴᠴ᠋ᠴ᠅ᡩ᠉ᠴ᠋ᠴᢂ᠋ᢋ᠋ᢄᡷ᠙ᢋ᠋ᠧᢓᡄ᠆ᡆᡭ᠄ᡩᠬ᠁

<u>র্</u>শজা

ୄୢୄୠ୕୳୕୳୶ଽଈୖ୲ୠ୕୳୕୳ୄୄୠ୷୳ୠୄୄୠ୷୳ୠୄ

 $- \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j=1}^{n} \sum_{j=1}^{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j=1}^{n} \sum_{j=1}^{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j=1}^{n} \sum_$ નર્ગોન્ 'સ્રેગ'રુવા કેનુ ન્યા સે 'રેવા યાન્ટન્ટ' નેને પ્રસંચ વાય તે સ્વર્ગ ત્યા ગી સે સ્વર્ગ સ્વરે સ્વર્ગ સ્વર્ગ સ્વર્ગ સ્વર્ગ સ્વર્ગ સ્વર્ગ સ્વર્ગ સ્વરે સ્વર્ગ સ્વર્ગ સ્વર્ગ સ્વર્ગ સ્વરે સ્વરે સ્વરે સ્વરે સ્વર્ગ સ્વર્ગ સ્વરે સ ૡૡ૾ૺ૱ઽૢૣૢૢૢૢૢૢૡૻઌૹ૾ૢૢૢૢૢૼૼૢૻૼૹ૱ૹ૾ઌ૽ૼૻ૽ૼૻઌ૾૾ૢૢૢૢૢૻૹૣઌૻૡ૾ૢૺૡૻૻઌ૽૿ઌૻ૾ઌ૾ૻૡ૽૾ૡ૾ૺઌ૾ૻૡ૽૿૱ૻૡ૾૾ૡૡ૾૾ૡ૽૿૱૾ૡ૾૾ૡૡ૾ૡૡ૾ૡૡ૾ૡૡ૾ૡ ૡશુર શે મલ્દ બાવાય સુચયા જેવર જેવા બાવાય માલવ અને જેવા છે જેવાય છે છે જેવાય છે જેવાય છે તે છે જેવાય છે. જેવાય છે જેવાય છે. જેવાય છે જેવાય છે. જેવાય છે જેવાય છે. જેવાય છે જેવાય છે. જેવાય છે જેવાય છે જેવાય જેવાય છે જેવાય છે. જેવાય જેવાય છે જેવાય જેવાય છે જેવાય જેવાય છે જેવાય જેવા જેવા છે જેવાય છે જેવા છે જેવાય છે જેવા જેવાય છે જેવા છે જેવા જેવાય છે જેવા છે જેવાય છે જેવા છે જેવા જેવા છે જેવા જેવા છે જેવા જેવા જેવા છે જેવા જે

ᠵᡄ᠋᠋ᡏ᠋᠋᠋᠋᠆ᡵᠴ᠋ᡊ᠋᠇᠋ᢆ᠋ᢍᡆ᠋᠄ᡚ᠄ᠴ᠋᠋ᡷᢌᢛᡅᢄᢜᡎ᠉᠊*ᡜᢆᡁ᠄ᡎᢋ᠄ᡍ᠄ᡱᡎᡊᡊ᠋ᡎ᠋ᠯ᠋ᡊᢩ᠋ᠳᡄᠺᡆᡄᢂ᠆ᠺᡆ᠆ᠺᡆ᠆*ᡗᡭ᠋ᡜ᠋᠁ᢋᡏᠴ᠉ᢙᡅ ᠵ᠊᠋ᠵᡃᡈᢆᡆ᠋᠊ᠬ᠉ᡃ᠉᠂ᡆ᠋᠋ᡔ᠋ᠵ᠊ᠵ᠋ᢋ᠋ᢓ᠋᠆ᡔ᠋᠊᠄ᡈᢆᡆ᠄ᢆᡃᡚᢀ᠋᠆ᠵᡄᡃᡆᢆ᠋ᠳᠴ᠋᠋ᢌ᠉᠉ᢄ᠋ᡬ᠗᠋᠉᠄ᢞᡆ*᠄ᢙ᠄ᡱᡆᢂ᠃ᡘᠼᡆ᠄ᡆᢩᡆ᠉*ᢓ᠆ᡪᠴᠵ᠄ᠭᡆ᠄ᠭᡆ᠉ᠼ ૬નય૨:૬;અપ્વૃદ્રવ્ય વ્યવસ્ય સુચ્ચ અર્થ વે સ્ટાર્ગ વસ્ય અપ્રહે જારે જારી જારી છે. આ પ્રાંગ વ્યવસ્ય સુચાર સ २२४४२ भेषाबार्ग्से देशे पावत भाषेत्र देपाबा तथा विष्य पेक्र पीक्र पी का राज्य के का देश क प्रतिवाध के का देश क का देश के का का देश के का का देश के का का देश के का देश क का देश के का देश का देश का देश का देश के का का देश के का देश के का देश के का देश के का दे का देश के का का देश के का देश का देश क का देश का देश का देश का देश का देश का देश के का देश का देश का देश का देश का देश का देश के का द का देश का देश का देश का देश का देश के का द का देश के का देश के का देश का देश का देश का देश का देश देश के का द का देश का देश का देश का देश का देश का देश का

ਗ਼ੑਫ਼ੑੑੑੑੑੑੑੑੑ੶੶ਖ਼ਗ਼ੑੑੑੑਗ਼ੑੑੑੑਗ਼੶ਗ਼ੑੑੑੑڴ੶ਖ਼૽ૼ੶ਫ਼ੑੑੑੑੑਸ਼ਗ਼੶ਖ਼ੑੑੑੑਗ਼ੑ੶੶ਸ਼ੑਗ਼੶ਸ਼ਫ਼੶ਜ਼ਗ਼੶ਗ਼ਫ਼ੑਸ਼੶ਸ਼ੑਗ਼੶ਸ਼ੑਗ਼੶ਸ਼ਖ਼

 $\widehat{\mathfrak{R}}$ ભૂલ સ્વ સ્વાપ્ત વાય ત્યાં ત્યાં પ્રાપ્ત સાર્ટ્ય વાય ત્વરા ત્યાં ત્યાયા ત્યાયા ત્યાયાં ત્યાયા ત્યાં ત્યાયાયાત્યાય ત્યાયાયાયા ત્યાયા ત્યાયાયાયાયા ત્યાયાયાયાયા तरीमाम्यात्यति स्वर त्वरहा क्षे. य. रहा तहार ही की रहा का की तहार ही तहार ही की का का की तहार ही तहार ही तहार ह

য়৾৾ঀ৾ৼৢ৽য়৾৾ঀ৾৾য়ৼ৽য়৾৾ঀ৾ঀ৾ড়৾ঀয়য়য়ৢয়ৼয়৾৾য়ৼ৾য়

᠊᠋ᡲ᠊᠋ᠭ᠋᠊᠋ᡒ᠉᠋᠄᠗᠄ᡱ᠋᠋᠄ᢅᢋ᠆᠋ᡪᠴ᠋ᢆᡆ᠋᠉ᢍᢋ᠄ᡷᡆ᠋᠉᠋ᠬᡘᡲ᠌ᡘ᠄ᢋᡁ᠋᠂ᡔᡬᠯᢁ᠋᠄ᡔᡬᠯ᠋᠋᠉᠆ᡘᡭ᠄ᢓᡝᠴ᠋ᢍᢋ᠈ᡃᢆᡀ᠋᠄ᢂᡔ᠋᠂ᠬᡈ᠋ᠬᡃᠬ᠋᠋ᡍᢧᠴ᠄ᡃᢆᡃᢧ᠙ᠿᡁ᠋ᡆᡇᡢ᠋᠋᠆ᡪᡏᢩᠯ᠉ યતે જ્ઞુચઢ ત્યાર વેંદ વાયવા સું લગ્ય ટેંગ લત્ર ગેંગ ખેય ગર્સું ત્યારે ખત્ર તરે ગયા તરે ગયા તે ત્યાર વાય વાય વેંદ

*ૹઽ૾ૡ૽ૺૹૢ૽ૺૢઽઽૻૼૹઽ૾ઌૄઽૡૺઽઌ૽ૣૻૼૼ૱*ૡૺૹઽૡૺઽૢૹઽ૽ઌ૱૱૱૱૱૾ૺૼૡ૾ૹ૾૾૱ૻૼ૱ૡ૱૱૾૾ૡ૾૾ૹ૾૾૱ૻૼ૱ૡ૱૱૽૾ૡ૱૾૾ૡ૾૾૱૾ૡ૱ૡ૾ૻ૱ૡૹ૱ૡૼ

"तयेवारत् ग्रुरार्त्रेणायते र्वेनाञ्चन त्वयतः विषाणी र्वेणाञ्चे नर्ने शरीयायते में वागवना क्रमाणवरू खुणकानना क्षता स्वयत् का खुण्येना ग्री देवाया गवित्र:तु:त्रे:वेश्वराःशु:येत्रा"

We will look closely at matters of scale in space and time: how does evolution happen within one **species** (a set of related organisms) and how can this translate into new species and new characteristics? For example, how did humans evolve? From what species? How do very complex processes and organs, like eyes, evolve?

On this journey, as we explore the facts of biology, we will at the same time address some basic foundational questions of science: what is a theory? What is the scientific method? How do we design experiments to test theories and ideas? And we will suggest some experiments, like the one at the beginning of this book, that you can do yourself on your way to becoming a biologist and coming up with your own ideas and experiments to test those ideas.

We will point out and discover underlying principles of biology, many of which emerge from evolution. It is astonishing that Darwin and Wallace were able to develop their ideas of evolution (like any great ideas, theirs grew from the studies and ideas of many people before them, including Darwin's own grandfather, Erasmus) without much of the knowledge that has accrued in the years since *The Origin of Species* was published. Perhaps more astonishing is that all biology discovered in those 150 years (which amounts to the great majority of *all* our biological knowledge) is consistent with and supportive of the theory of evolution.

THEORIES AND TRUTH

Two theories are central to the biological question 'what is life?' These are **the cell theory** and the **theory of evolution**. So, perhaps, before we consider how to define life, we should have a clear understanding of what a **theory** means to a scientist.

In everyday English language, people use the word 'theory' interchangeably with the word 'idea'. For example, when my son tells me he thinks most people like to watch television because then they don't have to think or move much, I might say 'that's a good theory', meaning 'that's a good idea'.

In science, theory means something more. For scientists, a theory is an explanation for a set of observations or ideas that is put forward for testing. Most scientific theories outline a pattern in nature and then give an explanation for how that pattern operates or originated. Here's one example from Dobzhansky's article quoted from above. In talking about the theory (or, as he calls it, 'the **model**') of the universe that says the Earth rotates around the sun and not vice versa:

 \tilde{A} વૃંગ્રુદઃळवः रेग'वृहः" रेगुषाय्यते मुतृहः अगुषा "तेषायर्गों हेव भूगायें तिगाणें हा रेगुषाय्यते मुतृहः अगुषायं तेषाय्यत्यों हेत् भूगायें तिगाणें हा रेगुष्य यदे मुतृहः अगुषायं ते से मुत्य यदे मुतृहः यदे मुत्य यदे मुतृहः यदे मुद्दे स्थ्ये मुद्दे स्य मुद्दे स्य मुद्दे स्थ्ये मुद्दे स्य मुद्दे स्य

तृद्दः विया थायत्र द्वार्यते यो देव या व्याप्त देव देव या व्याप त्यापत्र देव या व्यापत्र देव या व्यापत्र देव देव या व्यापत्र देव या व्यापत्र देव या व्यापत्र देव देव या व्यापत्र त्यापत्र देव या व्यापत्र देव या

ॸऀॻॺॱय़य़ऀॱॻॖॖॿॖॖॸॱॶॖॻॺॱॸॸॱॻॸॆॺॱॸॕॺऻ

$$\begin{split} & u = f \cdot c \cdot \tilde{a}^{\dagger} u = \tilde{a}^{\dagger} \cdot c \cdot \tilde{a}^{\dagger} u = u \cdot d \cdot u \cdot d \cdot u = u \cdot d \cdot u$$

မိရျ

તગ્રુંત્ર:ગુંત્ર:ત્રી ક્ષે.રીંપ્

 . . scientists accept the model as an accurate representation of reality. Why? *Because it makes sense of a multitude of facts which are otherwise meaningless or extravagant* [emphasis added]. To non-specialists most of these facts are unfamiliar. Why then do we accept the "mere theory" that the earth is a sphere revolving around a spherical sun? Are we simply submitting to authority? Not quite: we know that those who took the time to study the evidence found it convincing.

This is important: for a scientific theory to hold up, to remain 'true', it must stand up to all challenges. That is, any new information or new tests of old information must be consistent with the theory. Otherwise, the theory either has to be changed to accommodate the new information or thrown out altogether. Any predictions the theory makes or implies must also be true. Predictions are testable ideas that follow from the theory. That's right: in science there is truth, but it is not absolute. The truth is only as good as the evidence for it. Evidence changes with new discoveries, the development of new technologies, and new ways of thinking. His Holiness the Dalai Lama makes a powerful statement along these lines about the nature of scientific knowledge in relation to Bud-dhism. He says in *The Universe in a Single Atom*: "If scientific analysis were conclusively to demonstrate certain claims in Buddhism to be false, then we must accept the findings of science and abandon those claims." This is a very scientific statement to make!

WHAT IS LIFE?

Now, let's consider the question: what is life? A typical list of the characteristics of a living organism include the ability to:

- reproduce;
- respond to changes in the surroundings;
- take in nutrients, convert them into energy, and produce waste;
- maintain biological balance and order within itself and with its surroundings;
- grow and develop.

Most things we consider living satisfy these criteria. Some things, like viruses, don't quite fit into either the living or non-living category. Viruses cause many of the diseases we experience; they are involved in many flus and cancers, for example. They can reproduce and respond to their environments and grow and develop in a way, but they are unable to do any of these things without help from the organisms they have infected. The organisms viruses infect, called hosts, provide the energy and much of the materials viruses need to survive. Thus, viruses are a kind of **parasite** (Figure 1).

YOUR TURN: LIVING VS. NON-LIVING

What makes something living as opposed to not-living? Come up with your own list of explanations.











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<u>वावो से लिवा र्</u>चेवा से दा ग्री द र से से जास ॻऻॺॺॱख़ॕॻॱॷॺॱढ़ऻऀॻॱॸॖॱॼॖॺॱॸय़ऀॱॻॖॖ॓ॸॱक़ॕॺॱ ने'ग्रन्दिग्र'भेन'नम् रन्द'गे'नम्बर र्सुया

ট্রিন্-শ্রি-ইন্স-র্রান্সা র্ষ্রিणञ্चব বৃদ র্ষ্রী আন্দ্রব ঝাল্মবি ন্যা

ने नगरा व वन र्तु या कवरा नावन पळ मा हो प्यव ही रे नाय मे ना भी वा (त्ये रे या १)

ગુરુવા વન દુવા જેવા બારે વાય જીવ કો બાય તે ગુેન સુય નવા મુખ્ય સ્વાપ્ય બાય સાથે મુખ્ય સાથે મુખ્ય સાથે મુખ્ય સાથ ૬૮:અ૮:લયેલા'ગ્રે૬'યલે'લુશ'ય'યુલ'ઍ૬ નેં તેંલ'ગ્રુદ'રદ'યેશ'યાલુલ'૫'લ૬ વાશ જાતે ક્રો યુલ ગ્રે'દ્દેશ'ર્યતે રચાલદેવાશ એ૬'યર' ᠙ᡏᠯ᠋ᡪ᠊᠋ᡆ᠋᠋ᡩ᠋᠋ᢋ᠋᠋ᢋ᠋᠋ᢋ᠋᠋ᡎ᠋᠋ᡱ᠋᠆ᢋᡎ᠋᠋᠋ᡇ᠋᠋ᢆᡆ᠋᠋ᢙᢅᡦ᠄ᢓᢆ᠆᠂ᡎᢂᡏ᠋᠋ᠴᡭ᠂ᢋᢩᠭ᠉ᠴ᠋᠋ᢋ᠉᠋ᠴ᠋ᢋ᠋᠋ᢋ᠋ᡎᡆᢋ᠁ᠵᠴᠮ᠉᠉᠋ᠴ᠋᠄ᡗ᠋ᢆ᠁ᡬᢋ᠋

- *ન*રુ૬- સ્થા</sup>વઽ-૬ ગ્રૂઽથાવથાવુ થાયલે રેંગેંત્ર નજ્રુરાકે જ્વેળથારે છે જે ત્યાં જે સ્થાય સ
- <u>ચઘર સ્વેંત્ર શ</u>ે સ્શુત્ર વત્ર ખાસ્ત્ર શેં ન સા
- રૈષાચ જીન સુન સુન સુવાર સુન પા

<u>ઽૡ૾ૺ</u>૽ૡ૽ૼૡૢઽૻૹૼૼૢૻૡૣ૱ૡ૽ૺૼૼૼૺૼૼૣૻઌ૾ૻૡઌ૱ઌૻૡઌ૾ૻૹ૽૿ૺ૽૽૱ૢૼૡૻ૱૱૱૱૱૱

^{क्}रिन्थ्व यार्थ्य र्रे खियायी छिन याविश्व याद्य र श

ਙੇ'ਕੇ**ਗ਼'**ੑੑਸ਼੶ਫ਼ੇ'ਲ਼ੑੑਗ਼'੩ੋ**ਸ਼**'ਸ਼ਸ਼|

२५ने के कव रेग प्रमान के रुप के प्रति या के रुप के राज ताज के राज क राज के राज राज के राज राज के राज क राज के राज राज के राज क राज के राज क राज के राज क

<u></u> नेषःवःळवःत्रेणःणैःत्रेणषःग्धेःणुखुम्भुणुषःणम्द्ध्वेणःमनेवःर्नेवःद्येत्रःदेषःषुःग्रुत्रःपत्रःदद्येभःभ्येनःग्रीःग्लवःभाग्।तुभ्भुषद् ณิสาฮิรายูตานารที่พานาทุณาธิโ ริณิาที่ารัสาสิโ ริทพานณิาทุศูราญทุพาธิเฉราดิๆเพิ่สารูราโ ริราพุกพาทุพรารูาฮัสานณิ ୄୢୄ୴୵ଽ୳ୖୖଵୣଡ଼୲ୣ୵ୖଡ଼୕୶୲ୖୖୄୖୖୖୖୄଽୄ୷୵୕୶ୄୢୄୄୠ୕୵୕ୖୖୖୖୖ୕ଌୄ୕୲ଌ୳ଵ୶୕ଡ଼ୗଵୄୖଵ୕୶୲ୖ୰ଢ଼୲ଌୗ୵୳ୖ୰୷ଵୖୠୄୖ୲ୖ୴୷ଽୖୠ୲ଡ଼୲୷ଽୄୖୠୄୠ୲୵୳ୖୡ୲୶ୠ୶୲ୡୄୖ୶ୖ୳୷୳ୖ ५८९भेवान्गुकानेःस्रराग्रीःरैणकार्यातेःगलितःसीव्यत्तेयाक्षेत्रःस्रीरागर्मेषा देश्वेवावास्रराग्रीःरैणकार्यतेःगलितःसीव्यत्तेःस्रेनः स्राण्यवान्त्रेयाः स्राण्यवान्त्रेयाः स्राण्यवान्त्रेयाः स्राण्यवान्त्रेयाः स्राण्यवान्त्रेयाः स्राण्यवान्त्रः स्राण्यवान्तः स्राण्यवान्त्रः स्राण्यवान्तः स्राण्यवेत्रेः स्राण्यवान्तः स्राण्यवान्तः स्राण्यवान्त्रेत्रे स्राण्यवान्तः स्राण्याः स्राण्यात्तः स्राण्यात्तात्तः स्राण्यात्तात्तः स्राण्यात्तः स्राण्यात्तात्तः स्राण्यात्तात्त्राण्यात्तात्त्राण्यात्तात्त्राण्यात्तात्त्राण्यात्तात्त्राण्यात्त्राण्यात्तात्त्राण्यात्त्यात्त्राण्यात्त्राण्यात्त्यात्त्राण्यात्त्यात्त्राण्यात्त्राण्यात्त्राण्यात्त्यात् र्म्तन्देग्न्भुरुन्त्गॅ्बग्यन्देग्धेवा देग्वविन्त्रर्भणवार्यत्यात्वत् व्यवस्य विषय्त्र कार्यक्र व्यवस्य के क्रिय ดิจานศิราณชิรานนี้ : ริขานาดิ : ซิขาพิสา พราชส : ริขาพานริสานาพีรา ซูรา นริสานาริ : สุมพายิรา สูขา : รู : ซูนานามิสา बेबग्यायदीयनेवग्याधेवाने। यदेवग्यावेद्दिश्चेतरुश्चमान्चेतर्ययाहमाबाग्रीकान्नेगायादेश्चेत्ररुग्यदेवग्याधेवग्यदेश्चेतर्तरा नञ्चभाष्येन्। विंप्तः गैर्भाः "मुयायार्डवाः झेप्तः यीः यद्दियाः हेवः ग्रीः यग्रम्थाः विषायदिः त्रप्तः यीः भ्रायेः त्रप्तः विषाये विषायिः यायाः विषायदिः त्रप्तः योः भ्रायेः त्रप्तः विषाये व ૾ૡૺૺ૽ૻૡ૬ૢઌૻૻઌ૽૿ૺ૾ઌ૱ૻૡૹૻૻૡૻૻૡૻઌૻૹૻૻૡૻૡ૾ૺૻઌૹૻઌ૽ૡૻૻઽૺૹૻૻ૱ૡૻૡૻૡ૾ઌૡૻૡ૽ઌૻૡૻૡૻૢૡૻૻૻઌ૾ૡૻૹૻૡૻૡૻૡૻૹૻૹ૾ૢ૽ઌૻઽૻૹ૾ૣૼૼૼૼૼૡૻૺૢૹઌૻૡૼૡૻૻ૱ ᠴ᠋ᡃ᠋᠋ᢖᢩ᠌᠉᠊᠌᠋ᡠ᠋᠋᠆᠄ᢅᠣ᠋ᠯᢂ᠋᠆᠒᠆ᡎ᠉ᡬᢋ᠋᠆ᡬ᠆ᡪ᠋᠋᠋ᡎᢄᡩᠴ᠄ᡯᡆ᠉ᢍᡆ᠄ᢜ᠋᠋᠋᠋᠋᠋ᠲ᠋᠋᠋᠋ᢆᡷ᠆ᡬᠯ᠋ᢋ᠄ᡬ᠉᠋ᠴᢣ᠋ᠧ᠋᠋ᢩᠶ᠋ᡎᢦ᠉ᡃᡜᡄ᠆ᡏᡏᠯ᠋᠉ᠴᡅᢂᢆ᠋᠊ᡆ᠋᠉ᢙ᠉ᡃᡎᢢᡄ᠉ᡅᢅᡪ᠋

ॺऀॺऄॱॺऻॖ ॸऺऀॺॱॸ॔ॸॕॺॱऒ॔ॸॱग़ॖॖॖऺॱॼॖॖॸॱॸॱॺॸॱॸ॔ॻॱऄॻऻॱग़ॱॸॕक़ॱख़क़ॱग़ॖॖऀॱय़ॻ॒॓ॴॸक़ऻॸॱॻॖॖ॓ॸॱॴ ॸऀॱक़ॱॻॵॸढ़ॆक़ॱॻॸॱक़ऀॱॸऀॱग़ॖक़ॱॻक़ॺॱ - प्रतिग्वाल् म् अगुमार्ग् कार्यत्रा में म् राज्य के से खेतर के मार्ग क मार्ग के मार्ग मार्ग के मार मार्ग के मार मार्ग के मार मार्ग के मार्ग मार्ग के मार मार्ग के मार वयावेंग्वा ने पर्यः क्षेत्रा गवन र्नेव प्रति पनेव हगाय क्षयाया रुषा खुव पश्चे म्या हे नडे विष डेन आवत नगाय रूपा पर्ने प्रधन

THE CELL AND CELL THEORY

The smallest and most basic unit of life that satisfies all the requirements of 'living' is called the **cell**. This fact arose from work that established the cell theory. The two basic tenets of the cell theory are: (1) all living things are made of cells and (2) all cells come from other cells.

Like many new ideas in biology, the cell theory grew from breakthroughs in technology—in this case the first **microscopes**. Using a microscope in 1665, Robert Hooke viewed oak bark at 30-fold magnification and saw small compartments in the cork of the bark. Hooke called the compartments (what he actually saw were plant cell walls) 'cells' because they reminded him of the cells in a monastery, the rooms monks and nuns live in (Figure 2).

Soon after Hooke discovered cells, the Dutchman Anton van Leeuwenhoek was the first, using his much more high-powered micro scopes, to observe living single-celled organisms.

Over the next 150 years, scientists did enough experiments and made enough observations to convince themselves that all organisms—from the extremely tiny bacteria to massive trees—are composed of cells. This part of the cell theory has held true to this day.

The second part of the cell theory claims that all cells arise from other cells. This part of the theory faced several alternative theories including the **theory of spontaneous generation**, which postulates that life can quickly and easily arise from non-living materials.

This is what scientists do. They develop a theory and from that theory come up with a hypothesis to test. From the hypothesis, **testable predictions** are made, predictions that can be addressed by experiments. The famous scientist Louis Pasteur came up with a test that disproved spontaneous generation.

In Pasteur's experiment that disproved spontaneous generation, he grew bacteria in media in a flask and then boiled the flask, killing everything in it (Figure 3). Nothing was able to grow from the dead bacteria once the flask was returned to normal room temperature, no life came from the non-living material. But, bacteria that Pasteur moved before boiling the flask to a protected side compartment of the flask that did not heat up, *were* able to grow when the flask was returned to normal room temperature after it was boiled. Similarly, when Pasteur broke the sealed flask in which all had been killed and



Figure 1: The Influenza virus. Viruses are parasitic in nature. They enter a cell and utilize its machinery to create new viruses. Outside of host cells, viruses exist but cannot copy themselves.



Figure 2: Hooke's observation of plant cells. Robert Hooke used a simple microscope to view compartments of bark. He called these compartments 'cells.'

দ্রমি:দীক্ষ্মা শ *ୠୄ*୩୮ୄଅୖୖ୶୲ୄୡୖ୲ଵୖୣ<mark>ୖ</mark>ୖ୕୳ୖୠୄୣୖୠୄୖୠୄ୷ୣୠ୷ୄ ^૨ૼૻૹૣઽઌ૾ૺૻૢૹૢૻઌૻ૾૽૾ૢ૾ૹૻૻૹ૽ૡૼઽૻૻ૾ૹ૽૾ઌૺૺૼૼૼઌૻૹૢઌૹૻૻઌઽૺ૾ૡ૾૾ઌૻૹૢ૽ૼઽૻઽૺૻ विषा रदी द्वा रा सु सु द " दे का रा ते क



न्देःरैष्ण १ ळॅ८'रेबब'र्झेट'र्चदे'रुव'र्झेवा <u>तृणाञ्चेव</u> वे गविव पर्ळे मः क्रे स्व ग्री रे गमां मेगा भोवा ने स्व <u>सु</u>रःविग'गै'भुब'र्येदे'व्ररःवुगब'वब'रेदे'वरार्व्रेभ'भ' छुट यते क्वें तमार्ग्या क्वेत मामर या मातन क्वें न क्वें न या रू <u>ॺ</u>ॊॱॻॺॖॺ[ॣ]ॱऴ॔ॸॱॷॱॷॖॖॸॱॺऀॱऄॖॖॱऄ॔ॱज़ॖॻॖॸॱक़ऀॱज़ॖॻॱॺॖऀॺॱढ़ॸॖऀॱॸॖॻॱ ૡૹ૾ૺૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૡૢૻૡૻૻૡૻૢઌૻૹૢ૽ૡૻૹ૽ૢ૾ૡૻ૱૱



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नम्माञ्चे। महमान्धन्यी अभ्यावयापनेव ह्वाप्यवेर्त्रुत्यये र्थेव न्यमा विमार्थ्व येथी थिन्। श्रुव माम्यार्थ्व यीः

ध्रः सुरः ची रे पाका रा दे पाकि र जीव र यो हो र यो दे र यो हो र र यो से र यो स अःसुम्गावः अःसुम्गववः श्वर्याः त्युमः ग्रीः भेनाः ॻऻढ़ॖॖॖॖॖ॑ॖग़ॷॻॺॱॻॖॖॖॖ॓ॱख़ॱय़ॸॖऀॸॱय़ॻॖॺॱॾॕॸ॔ॱॻॖॖ॓ॖॖॖॖऺॸॱय़ऄॱॻॿॎॖॖॸॱॶॖॻॺॱॻॿॎॺॱॸॻॱॾॗॱऄॕॻॺॱय़ॎॸॕॺॱख़ॖॆऀ॒ॴॱॻॖॖॺॱॲ॔ॸ॔ॱॴ॒ऀऻय़॓ऀॸ॔ॱॻॖॖॖॖॱ

᠊᠋ᡩᢎ᠋᠋ᢋᢁ᠋᠋ᠴ᠋᠋ᢁ᠋ᢅᡸ᠍᠍᠍᠊ᡓ᠆ᡪᡄ᠄ᡍᢆᢀ᠆ᠴ᠋᠋᠋ᢖᡭ᠄᠋ᡷᡄ᠄᠋᠋᠋᠋᠋ᢍ᠋᠋᠋ᢋ᠉᠋᠊᠋᠋᠋᠉᠋ᢓ᠉᠋ᠴ᠋ᢋ᠉᠋ᠴ᠋ᢓ᠋᠕᠋ᠴ᠋ᢓ᠋᠕᠋ᠴ᠋᠋ᢓᢂ᠋ᠴ᠋᠋ᠴ

ૡૢૹ[ૻ]ૡૻૡૢઌૻૻૻૡૺૡૻ૱ૹ૽૾ૼૼૼઽૻૼ૱૽ઌૺૺૼૼ૾ૻૹૻૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૡૢૻઌૻૡૢ૾ૢૢ૽ૡૡૻૡ૽ૼૡૻૻૡૻૡ૽ૡ૽ૡ૽ૡ૽ૻૡૻૻૡૻૡૢૡ૽૿ૡ૽ૻૡૻૻૡૻ૽ૡ૾ૡ૽ૡ

æु८-æु८-द्मगमी पळर-झु८-छीव पर्वारेता (द्मे रेवा १)

m Heatsનું 'ને મુંચાય' મુંચાય મુંચાય છે. આ પ્રાંગ પુરંત પ્રાંગ પ્ ᠊᠍᠊᠍ᡧ᠋᠈ᡊᢋᢩᠬ᠈᠊ᢍᢦ᠈ᡃᢆᢧ᠈᠋᠊᠌᠊ᢌᠧ᠋᠋᠋ᢋ᠈᠗ᢅᢜᡄ᠋᠊᠗ᢋ᠌ᢅᡘ᠃ᠬᢦ᠉ᢄᡏᢋ᠆ᡅᡭᡇᡢ᠊ᡲ᠋᠋ᢩᢂ᠋ᠺ᠋᠋ᢋᢄᢋ᠉ᡔ᠋ᡬᡄ᠂᠋᠋ᡱ**᠄ᠴᢁᡏ᠆᠂᠋ᢛ᠈᠇᠋ᠯ**ᠭ᠆ᡪ᠆ᠵ᠈ᠮᢅᡃᡲ᠂ सुत्तःबेबग्रेन्दः यनन्वाबग्धेन्। नेदेः क्रुः अळवः वैःनेः न्वाः यीषां विंदः यान् योवः यदेः वदः यीः युः यर्द्धवः क्रेंदेः र्श्वेनः यवषाः भवाः येवाः

୶୶ୄୢ୩୷୕୳୵୵୵ୄ୲(१) ଝ୍ରାଝ୍ର୮ମ୍ପ୍ରଟାଝ୍ରାଝ୍ର୮ମ୍ବର୍ବ ଦକାପ୍ରୁମ ଦାସରବାର୍ଧ୍ୟିଶ୍ୱା

छन्चेर परेता र्देव णवत परी वे ख खत्यी रेणका परि णुलुत अणका णहव अप्रय परि छेत् रे आ अकार खेत छुत्या લેવા બેલા સાસુદ વી રેવાય પ્લે વલુદ ભુવાય દેર જ વલે વયા બેલ વાલેય હેવા છે. જેવા સુવ સાસુદ છે. જેવા સુવ સાસુદ છે.



Figure 3: Louis Pasteur's experiment disproving spontaneous generation. Pasteur proved that organisms couldn't arise from non-living organisms.

exposed the media to the air, allowing other bacteria into the flask, bacteria grew again. Living cells came only from cells that were already living.

HOW ABOUT THE FIRST CELL?

Okay, the cell theory has held strong for nearly four centuries. But there is always that nagging question: how about the *first* cell? All cells might arise from pre-existing cells, but then how could the first cell come into being? How did the basic unit of life start?

We will probably never know for sure, but the consensus among evolutionary biologists, starting with the first one, Darwin, is that at some point, life must have started from non-life; however, this didn't happen in just a few minutes or days. To get life from non-life took millions and millions of years, on an Earth that's been here about 5 billion years, in a universe that's been here more than 10 billion years.

YOUR TURN: LIFE ARISES FROM...

Given daily human experience, the hypothesis that life could come from non-life is not too unreasonable. Can you develop a thought experiment to determine if this hypothesis is true? Think about fleas and other small bugs and organisms whose eggs you cannot see. One day, there are no bugs and then apparently, out of nothing, bugs appear everywhere. This happened to me one day in Dharamsala when I was there teaching monks and nuns.

I went to sleep in a quiet room that had nothing in it. About 30 minutes later, I opened my eyes and the room was full of hundreds of winged bugs. It seemed that the bugs had just appeared from nowhere. Nowadays, we know these bugs are termites that fly in huge numbers at certain times of the year as part of their mating ritual. They had flown through the window screen and the door, attracted to the light in my room. But it's easy to see how someone might think these bugs came, not from other bugs, but from the walls of the room or some other non-living material.

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<u> ને વાર ત્યાસ</u>ો છે. જ્યાં ત્યાં ત

<u>ڔ</u>ۥ᠇ᠴ᠊᠈᠋ᡏᡝ᠊ᡬ᠊᠋ᠴ᠋᠋᠊ᡜᢧᡃ᠍ᡜ᠋᠋ᠳᠴᡭᡆ᠂ᢒᠯ᠋ᠴ᠄ᡏᠯ᠆᠋᠋ᡎᠯᠬᠬᡜ᠄ᢋᠧ᠄ᡆ᠋ᢆᡰ᠋᠋ᡎᠿᠧ᠄ᠭᡆᢂᢋᢓᠴᡎᢂ᠋᠊ᢋᢂ᠋ᡘᡆᠮᢆ᠋ᡆ᠋ᠯᡬ᠕᠋᠔᠆᠋ᡃᠴᠵ ગુુદ ન ખેત્ર ન આ " લે શ મ ને ખેત્ર સ સ ન ગા તે ગા સ સ ન ગા તે ગા સ સ ન ગા તે ગા સ સ ન ગા તે તે ગા સ સ ન ગા તે ગા સ સ ન ગા તે ગા તે તે ગ

ਬੈਂ**ਗ**'ਕ਼ਨੇ'ਖ਼ੁ'ਖ਼ੁ੮'ਥੇ।'ਦੂ੮'ਛੱਖ'ਵੇ'ਖ਼ੵ੮'ਘੇ**ਰ**'ਰਕ।

ાયન્મ્યુવ વશ્વ બાદ્ય માલવ ના મુંદ્ર ના સંતર કે મુંદ્ર ના સુધાર ના કે તે વર સુર અર બાદ સુધા સુધાર છે ના માર કે ન

ณสายุเศสานนี้ "รุรัสานั"ยุรามสามิ รู้ไม่ เป็นสาย เป็นการเป็น



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নত্রুমানাস্ক্র

શુંન શું રેયા છે. ळें र्खे्यायामा भाषा क्रुंग्य मे र क्युं









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THE ORGANIZATION OF LIFE, THE SEARCH FOR PATTERNS

Non-living molecules eventually evolved into cells. Cells were the first and simplest living things. Single cells were then able to interact in multi-celled communities. These communities eventually evolved into **organisms**, which became more and more complicated as the cells within them evolved into specialized **tissues** and **organs**. Communities of organisms are known as **populations**, and populations of many different types of organisms within particular environments form **ecosystems**. As we already have begun to see, the environment affects individual organisms and these effects ripple through to affect whole populations of organisms, which in turn affect their environments.

This organizational hierarchy—molecules, to cells, to tissues, to organs, to organisms, to populations, to ecosystems—was developed by scientists to help us study life.

Scientists have spent a lot of time trying to make sense of the vast diversity (and similarity) among living organisms on Earth. Most of the first scientific 'experiments' were simply observations of the richness of life, a grand search for patterns. It seems almost natural for humans to search for patterns in everything. Patterns in life, in nature, in organisms, in relationships allow us to organize our lives and make predictions about what will happen next, what risk certain actions have, how we can develop and accomplish our goals.

In the Western tradition, such identification and organization of patterns in the natural world goes back more than 2000 years to Aristotle in ancient Greece, and even before that. Naturalists built schemes of **classification** that organized life into pieces that would make it easier to study and understand. Darwin and Wallace's ideas of evolution emerged from the work of such great organizers of living things in the preceding centuries.

A HISTORY OF LIFE

Over the centuries, humans have engaged in many classification exercises. **Carl Linnaeus**, a Swede, is credited with one of the most extensive organizational exercises. He also developed a consistent strategy, based on his organizational system, for naming organisms. Although Linnaeus' classification system has been greatly refined and now is little used in favor of schemas we discuss below, the basic logic of his **naming system** has not been significantly changed since its invention in the 1700's.

FAMILY TREES

YOUR TURN: GROWTH IN THE CHAI

When I was discussing spontaneous generation in class with some monks and nuns in Dharamsala, one monk said he had once made some hot tea and then put it into a thermos. He screwed the top on the thermos and then forgot about it and the tea. A few days later, he found the thermos with the tea again and opened it; it smelled really bad and was full of bacteria.

Where do you think the bacteria came from? How could you test your idea? Was this a case of spontaneous generation?

ROOM FOR THOUGHT: DARWIN

Many theories attempt to explain the evolution of the first cell. Scientists feel certain that even the evolution of the first living cell followed the basic principles that Darwin put forth in The Origin of Species. Scientists can test some predictions of these theories to see if they are at least possible. As we learn more about life on this planet and perhaps on other planets, we are developing clearer ideas of how life might have started, how that first cell got here. Thinking way beyond his time, Darwin imagined the origins of life in an 1871 letter to the scientist Joseph Hooker:

It is often said that all the conditions for the first production of a living organism are present, which could ever have been present. But if (and Oh! what a big if!) we could conceive in some warm little pond, with all sorts of ammonia and phosphoric salts, light, heat, electricity, etc., present, that a protein compound was chemically formed ready to undergo still more complex changes, at the present day such matter would be instantly devoured or absorbed, which would not have been the case before living creatures were formed.

नस्रसःमविमामी'सुला [.]श्व[.]ळॅंगूबर्ग्भेन्। ळॅव्.न्रेग्'म्'य्यम्'र्येष'र्ध्वग्'यदे'र्ख्यस्युम्'ग्वेर्वे *ऄॱॸऺऀॻऻॺॱॸॖॻॱॻऀॱय़ॻॖॖॖॖॸॱग़ॖॖॖॸॺॱॱॱ*ॺॸॱॸॡॺॱॻढ़ऀॱॹढ़ऀॱॾय़ॱॾ ગલગ'ને જેન'નમ્સ્સુ નાયલે મક્કુન મેચ નેન પ્યત્ર ખેન જે આ છેન षियाः चेषायते रे देवा पावसायपाय विषाः झेमा साम्राज्य साम्राज्य साम्राज्य साम्राज्य साम्राज्य साम्राज्य साम्राजय ᡷ᠋᠋ᠳ᠋᠃ᡆ᠋᠋᠉᠂ᡩ᠂ᠺᠴᢓᠧ᠆ᡷ᠋᠔ᠫ᠃ᡅᢂᢋᢃ᠔᠋ᢋ᠆᠋ᡗᡬᠯ᠉᠇ᠴ᠋᠋ᢓᠵ᠇ᠴ᠋᠋ᡲᡨ ॻढ़ॎॺॱॸॻॱक़ॖ॓ॸॱॻऀॱक़ॕॱॺॖॕॴॱक़ॕॖॸॱॻॖऀॱय़॓ॹॱक़॔ॸॱड़॓ॱॼॖॖॺॱड़ॖॱ तर्षेज्ञप्तप्त्रात्र्य्यम् द्येप्रयाद्यम् द्येप्रयाद्यम् द्याप्रात्र्यम् द्याप्रात्त्रयम् द्याप्रात्र्यम् द्याप्रात्त्यम् द्याप्रात्त्यम् द्याप्रात्त्यम् द्याप्रात्र्यम् द्याप्रात्त्यम् द्याप्त्रम् द्याप्रात्त्यम् द्याप्त्रम् द्याप्त्रम् द्याप्त्रम् द्याप्त्रम् द्याप्त्रम् द्याप्त्रम् द्याप्त्रम् द्याप्त्यम् द्याप्त्रम् द्याप्त्रम् द्याप्त्रम् द्याप्त्रम् द्याप्त्रम् द्याप्त्रम् द्याप्त्यम् द्याप्त्रम् द्याप्त्रम् द्याप्त्यम् द्याप्त्यम् द्याप्त्यम् द्याप्त्यम् द्याप्त्र द्याप्त्रम् द्याप्त्रम् द्याप्त्रम् द्याप्त्यम् द्याप्त्यम् द्याप्त्यम् द्याप्त्यम् द्याप्त्यम् द्याप्त्यम् द्य द्यापत्रम् द्यापत्रम् द्यापत्रम् द्यापत्रम् द्यापत्रम् द्यापत्रम् द्यापत्यम् द्यापत्यम्त्यम् द्यापत्यम् दयम् द्यम् द्यापत्यम् द्यापत्यम् द्यापत्यम् द्यापत्यम् द्यापत्यम् द्यापत्यम् द्यापत्यम् द्यापत्यम् द्यम् द्य द्यात्यम् द्यापत्यम् द्यात्यम् द्यापत्यम् द्यापत्यम् द्यात्यम् द्यात्यम् द्यात्यम् द्यात्यम् द्यात्यम् द्यात्यम् द्यात्यम् द्यात्यम्त्यम् द द्यात्यम्यस्यम्यस्यस्यस्यस्यस्यस्यस्यम्यस्यस्यस्यस्यस्यस्यस्यस्यम्यस्यस्यम्यस्यस्यम्यस्यस्यस्यस्यम्यस्यस्यम्यस्य ऄॺॱॸ॒ॸॱऻॖॾॖॖ॓ॱॼॖॺॖॱफ़ॖॖॱॸॖ॓ॱॺॾढ़ऀॱख़ॖॱख़ॖॸॱॺऀॱॺॕॺऻॱॺॱॸॖ॓ॱ(ॿॣॖऀॸॱ)ढ़ॸॖऀॸॱ ग्रेन्ग्वेवर्ग्सन् रूप्णेन्षर्ग्यात्रव्या ग्रीम्ब्रीन् स्वन् या कार्यात्र स्वर् 1411 येंतरहें सेयरहुगात यय सुत्र पति ह्वित्याधीय हिया वृत्त कें र्श्वेण'गे'वर्गे'ख़िम्ब'वन'र्रम'गे'हेंग'वळर'वने'क्षर'म्बेन' व्येन "ลู้ นุสาททั้งสาบี เด็ทาย์ทามกาลู้ เลฮ่า เฏพายกายกามกับ aित्तत्तुत्रायान् द्येन् त्यांते कः क्रेत्ने याँम्त्राः स्वेण्याने न्यो नुत्राः ญลรามาญลายราสราพีราชิลาพราพราษีราฏิสาพีรๆ บางา शैन (क्षेः या वर्नन यायः शैन छेष यदे कः क्रे द्व या मायाः *ऀऄॱॺॱॸॖॖॸॱ*॥)ॺॱख़ॖॎऺॴढ़ऺऀॺॱॱॸॖॱॿॖॱख़ॖॸॱॸय़ऀॱॺक़ॆ॔ख़ॖॱक़ॕॖॿॱॺॕॱढ़ॎऺॺॱऒ॔ॸॱॱ 5ुःसुःचेःक्रुत्तः ह्रस्वा देन् कंतुवा क्रेंग्' व्यःचेंगव्यः प्रगुत्तः कन्ः *ॸॺॱॺॺॱॡ॔ॺॱॾॱॺॱঀॻॖॸॱॻॖऀॱ*ॺॖ॓ॸॱॺॖॖॖ॔*ॸॱॻॖॖॸॱॸॱॸॹॖॖॸॱ*ॸऺ*ॺॱऻॖ*ॺॖ॔ॸॱ *ॾॖॖऀॱॾ*ऺऺॵॻऻॻऻॺॸॱॖॖॱॻॖॖॸॱॺॺऻॱऻॸॱॖॖॸॱॶॱॺॿॖॸॱॖॱढ़ॕॻॱढ़ॾऀॱॸॱ ठव्र ग्रे ' त ग्रु र ' त ग्रें ग' ग्रे ' गें' ' रे अ' र ज्रुन ' कें ग' कें ग' ह ' ग व र ' थें न' ५देश्वाः द्वार्थाः द्विदाः दुः (ग्विदाः ग्रीशः) म्वतः मनः त्युः द्वारः न्तमा भट द' (गवद ग्रीम) झून मेद छेन देमा भेवा में द गुर *र्श्रेण'ळण*रूणर्शे*ब'र्ॅं'*अ'ट्युट'नदे'र्येट'र्रेल'ग्रे'र्'रू'रेर'दर्टे' क्षेत्र:तुः(तझवार्:तुःर्चेत्र:मङ्ख्यम्)तर्धेःश्चे:तुद्रःमःतेतृ।"

रेनन्थ

ૼઌૡૻૻ૾ૻૼૡ૾૾ઌૻ૾ૡૻ૽ૼ૾ૻૼ૱ૢૻૼૹૻૻૻૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૡૢૻૡૼૻ૽ૡૻ૽ૡૼૡૻ૽ૡ૽ૻૡ૽ૻૡ૽ૻૡ૽ૻૡ૽ૼૡ૽ૻૡ૽ૻૡ૽ૼૡ૽ૻૡ૽ૻૡ૽ૼૡ૽ૻૡ૽ૻૡ૽ૼૡ૽ૻૡ૽ૻૡ૽ૼૡ૽ૻૡ भ्रानमा गुप्पःविगागीमा मिमाधेतमधीगाम्यम्भेभावमा न्ववग्यन्ते हेव भवा रेम् महेन्द्रे खुबा दनुव हेवा खु ळ^ॱॸॺॱॸ॓ॱॺॺऀ॔ॸॱॸॖॺॱॺ॒ॸॱॸ॓ॸॱड़ॹॖॻॺॱय़ॱड़ॺॱॺॺॱ ॺॎॱऄॖॖॺॱॸॖ॓ॱॸॷॺॱय़ॺऻ ॸॖ॓ॱॴॺॱज़ॱठ८ॱॾऀॱ८ॺॱॼॆ॔ॱॸॱ८८ ळनमः रुवादेरः तसुः ख्रमावेरमः तत्वा रेमानम् सेंग શિંદ્ર હેરાયા છે. આ પ્રાંચ પ્રાંચ પ્રાંચ છે. આ ᢔᢆ᠋᠋᠋ᡪ᠊ᡃ᠋ᡚ᠄ᠴ᠋ᢦᢦ᠌᠗ᢅ᠊᠋ᠫ᠆ᡗ᠋ᢆ᠆ᡪ᠆ᠮᢩᢜᢦ᠋᠂ᠴ᠋ᠹᠴ᠄ᠴ᠋᠋᠋ᡷᡨ᠋᠋᠋᠋ᢋ᠋᠋ᡃᢓ᠆᠄᠋ᡛ

الْآج بَالَ جَهَا عَلَيْهِا ह्ते वृत्त्र मी क्रु त्रे व

<u>ਭਿ</u>ਕਾਜ਼ੂ<u></u>ਤਾਬ੍ਰੋਤਾਬ੍ਰੋ

ૡૢૹૻૻૻઽઌૹૻૹઽૻૼૡૻ૾ૺૼ૾ૡૼઽૼ૾૾૱ૹૻૹ૽૿ૹ૽૾ૺૹૻૹ૾ૣૺૻૹૼૡૼૻૡ૱ૢૻૡ૱ૢ૽ૺૡ૱ૢૻૡ૱ૹૻ૾ૡ૽૾ૡ૾ૻૡ૾૾ૡ૾ૻૡ૾ૻૡ૾ૻૡૻ૽ૡ૾ૻૡ૾ૻૡૻ૽ૡ૾ૻૡ૾ૻૡૻ૽ૡ૾ૻૡ૾ૻૡ ੵਫ਼੶ਗ਼ੵ੶ਫ਼੶ਸ਼ੑਗ਼ਫ਼੶ਸ਼੶ਗ਼**੶ਸ਼੶੶ਖ਼੶ਫ਼੶੶**ਗ਼ਫ਼ਸ਼੶ਗ਼ੑਫ਼ੑਸ਼੶ਖ਼ੑਫ਼੶ਫ਼ੑਫ਼੶੶ਖ਼ੑਫ਼੶ਫ਼ੑਗ਼੶ਸ਼ੑਖ਼੶ਫ਼ੑ੶ਫ਼ੑਗ਼੶ਖ਼ੑਖ਼੶ਖ਼ੑੑ੶ਖ਼ੑਖ਼੶ਖ਼ੑੑ੶ਖ਼ੑਖ਼੶੶ਗ਼ੑਫ਼੶ਗ਼ੑੑਫ਼੶ਫ਼੶ਖ਼ੑਜ਼੶ ૹુઃદૅૹ[ૣ]ૡૡૻૺ૱ૹ૾ૻૼૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૡૢૻૹૻૹૺૻૹૣ૾૾ૻૹૼ૱ૡૢ૽ૺૡઙ૽ૢૺૢૼૻૹ૽ૢ૾ૺ૱ઌઌૻૻૡૡૺૺ૿ૻઌૡઌૻૻ૱ૡ૽૿ૡૻૻૼૼૼૼૼૡૻૡ૽૿ૡૻૹ૾ઌૡૻૻ૱ૡ૽ૻૺૼૼૼૡૡ૽ૼૺ૱ૡ૽ૼ <u>૽</u>ુષ[્]ર્બેન[,]પષા વિંદ-વી'નદ-કેવા'વી'વર્ગોન'ય'નેલે'ર્ઢવ્ય'હું'વાનુશ્ર'નું ગ્રેદ'લ્ઠર-ખેંન'ચલે'વર્ગોન'ય'જ્ઞઅષ્ય વર્ગેવ' જ્ઞેનું' છેન યાયદાર્શેનુ ને ભૂત્તાવૃતદાવેદાવી **લે જવાત છે. તછે દાંગુ સામ**ાને વે ગાલે તે શાંગુ તે પાયા પ્રાયંત્ર શે ગાળ જેતિ

^באַקֿיףיףי<u>פ</u>ּריאַקאַן

ᠴᡏᢆ᠋ᢋ᠊ᡝᢂᢅᡪ᠋᠆ᡔ᠋᠊ᡘ᠊ᡈᡆᡃᡪ᠋ᠵᡄ᠇ᡈ᠋᠗ᡃ᠗ᡃᡆ᠋ᡃᢆᠪ᠋ᢦᠡᡃᠭᢧ᠙ᡈᠬᡊᡎᢩᠵᡘᠯ᠋ᠳᡃᡅᡃ᠋ᠼᡆᢦᠠ᠊ᠵᡄᡃ᠋ᠲᢆᡃ᠋ᠭ᠋ᢌᠠᠵᡆ᠋ᢦ᠈᠈ᢓᢆᡜ᠄ᡅᡬ᠈ᢩᡍ

ૡુભાવજ્ઞુવાદ્યુવાયાનું જ્ઞુવારુષાયાયવાદ્યવાદ્યવાયાં સુ

ૹૡ૾ૺ૽ઌૼૼ૾ૻઌૡ૽૾ૺ૽ૹૢ૾ૢૺઽ૾ઌ૾૽ૺ૾ૹૢ૾ૺૡ૱ૡ૾ૢ૽ૼૼૡૹ૽૿ૢ૾ૡઽૹૻૻ૽ઽૡ૱ૹૡ૽૾ૺ૽ઽૼૼૡૻૻઌૡૼૼૺ૾ૻૼૡૻૻઌૡ૾૾ૺૡ૽૾ૼૢૻૹૡૹ૽ૻૡ૽ૼઌૡૻ ᠋᠋᠋ᠳᡄ᠋᠋ᠬ᠈ᡍᢆ᠋ᡆ᠈ᠺᡄᠮᡆᢂ᠋᠋ᠳᡄᡅᡅᢅ᠆ᢄ᠋ᡬᠯᡊᡭᡛ᠋ᡆᡃ᠋᠊ᢖ᠂᠊᠋ᢖ᠋ᡃ᠋ᢋ᠆᠆᠋᠋᠆᠄ᢅᠯ᠖ᡃᡇ᠆᠆᠋᠄ᡬ᠋ᡬᢄᡩᡎᡵ᠆ᡪ᠆ᠺᡬᢂ᠋ᡎᢂ

ને 'ક્ષૂત્ર' શુદ્ર 'વર્ષુ શુભાગયલે' ગુભાર્ત્ત અર્ક્ષે (તદુ શાસુભા નદા) ને 'વર્ષા 'સુદ્ર' નું 'વર્ષા 'સુદર્યો' ને 'વર્ષા 'સું'

᠊᠊᠋᠊᠋᠊ᡯᡄᡃ᠋᠋᠆ᡪ᠋᠋᠋᠋ᡎ᠄ᡸᡃᢎᡄ᠊ᠭ᠊᠋ᢃ᠉ᡇ᠋᠋ᡪᢌ᠉ᡄᡭ᠄ᡦᡃᢩ᠄ᡷᢩᡆᡣ᠗ᠴᡄᠧ᠋ᠵ᠋ᡷᢦ᠋᠄ᡱᠳᢓᡄ᠊ᠴ᠋ᠴᡄ᠋᠘ᡭ᠖ᢤᡎ᠕᠕ᡷᢧ᠗᠕᠄ᢆᡃᡍ᠕᠄᠕᠉ᡚ᠕᠄ᢆᢧᢙ᠉ᢓ યત્ર બચેબ બશુત્ર ગ્રુતા - ને ભૂલે સ્નું ભૂલ ને નવા ર્ફેવા બદ્દે ત્ર દે જેત્ર સે ત્ર અપ્તે નવા વત્ર વી સંસત્વી જેવાય ૹ૽ૢ૿ૺૢૡૢૢૻૐૼૼૼઌૹૻૻ૽૽ૼૺ૾ૡૼઽૻૢૼૻ૱ૡૼૢૼૼૼૹૻૻૻઌૻૻૻૻૼૻૼૼૼૺ**ઌૹૻૻઌૼૢૼૹ**૽૽૱ૻૡ૽૾ૺૡૻૻ૽ૺ૾ૺૢૻૹ૽ૼૡૹૻઌ૽૾ૺ૱ૡૹૻૻૹૻ૾ૼૡૻ૾ૡૻૡૻઌૡૻૺ૱ૻ૾ૼૡ૽ૻૡૻૻૻ૽ૡ૽૿ૡૻૻૻ૽ૡ૽૿ૡૻૻૻ૽ૡ૽૿ૡૻૻૻ૽ૡ૽૿ૡૻૻૻ૽ૡ૽૿ૡૻૻૻૡ૽૿ૡૻૻૻૡ૽૿ૡૻૻૻૡ૽૿ૡૻૻૻૡ૽૿ૡૻૻ ૡઽૢૹ੶ਗ਼੮੶ઽਗ਼੶ૡૻૺૼૼૠ੶ૡૢਗ਼੶દેૹ੶ૡૼਗ਼੶ૢ੶ૡૻૹૻૺ૾ૹૻૣ૾ૼૼૼઽ૽૽૾ૢૺૢૼૻઌૻઽૢૼૼૼૼૼૼૼઌૻૻઌૹૻ**૽ૢ૽ૺૢૻૡ૱ૹ੶ૡૻૼૼૼૠૻૡૢ**૽ૼ૽ૻૼૡૢૻ૽૽ૼૼૡૻૻૡ૾ૻ૱ૻૡૻૼૹૻૻૹૻ૾ૹૼૹૻૹ૽૾ૼૼૻ નલિવ ૬ સ્ટ્રી સ્વર શે ટેંજે વચાર ૬ ચાર્બે દચાર સાથે સાંધાર સે સાધાર સે સાધાર સે સાધાર સે સાધાર સે સાધાર સિંદ સા

IN-DEPTH: CARL LINNAEUS' NAMING SYSTEM

In Linnaeus' system, every living thing has two scientific names, a **genus** name and a **species** name.

The first person to discover a new creature was responsible for naming it. Over a million

species have been named since Linnaeus began using this system in the 1750s.

Scientific names help researchers identify organisms across cultures and socities. In choosing a scientific name, a scientist may highlight an interesting feature of the organism or may name it in honor of a person or the place it was found.

In the Linnaean System, similar species are grouped

into a genus, similar genera (more than one genus) into a family, similar families into an order, similar orders into a class, similar classes into a phylum, and similar phyla into a kingdom.

After it became clear that organisms could be classified based on particular characteristics or life patterns, the next logical step made was to see that organisms that shared characteristics were related. A central idea emerged that life has a connected history.

As the concept of classification was refined, scientists developed the idea of a **species**, a set of closely related organisms that share the same basic characteristics and are able to reproduce with each other. Humans are a species called, using Linneaus' system, *Homo sapiens*; domestic dogs are a species, *Canis familiaris*.

It became evident that each species, though distinct, might be related to every other based on shared characteristics. Scientists represent such relationships using family trees. These family trees are analogous to family trees that are used to represent your own personal family history. Such a personal tree shows how you are related to each member of your family (Figure 4). If you continued this tree to show how every member of your family is related to other families, the tree would grow and grow back in time; each per-



Figure 4: Sample family tree. This family tree shows three generations of a family.

<u>નય</u>ે 'તૈયા ૬ ઊઢા જ્ઞુન 'ચૂંન' રૉલે'નુચે અર્જેવા ઊઢા જ્ઞુન ચૂંન રૉ'લને વા ઉઠા જ્વન લેવા વી એ 'ત્વચ વા શુઆ અર્જેવ છે બેનુ



นา ซาลง พักา

९८२७ेन्द्रेममभग्ने क्षेत्रं सुख्याधित्र र्श्वेणळणम्भयेषा क्लेग्वे स्वाय्य दिय्वीया या स्वाप्तर स्वाक्रयम्बद्धराज्य र्श्वे स्वाक्यम्बद्धर क्षेत्र वर्त्त्यम्बर्ग्य स्वाय्य स्वाय्य स्वाय्य स्वाय्य स्वाय्य

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ગારવાયો વૈ બાદ્ય છે. જેવ સાવવા દેર જોવા

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ચંદ્ર ચેદ વાલે જે સંસ્વત્ર વાય જે સંસ્વય સંસ્વર્થ સંસ્વરે સ્વર્થ સંસ્વર્થ સંસ્વરે સ્વરે સ્વર

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son is connected to multiple family trees. Thus, the tree grows more and more branches. In theory, you could build a family tree that goes back to the point where you are related to all other Tibetans and then, eventually, all other human groups. And if we keep going over thousands of generations, we find we're all related to each other. This idea is one of Darwin's major conceptual breakthroughs: we all share a common ancestor.

As we move back in time building our family tree generation after generation, we might use different classification systems as we go. For example, you might use your family name to classify and group together your immediate family. Far enough back in time, you might not know names, so you might use place of birth as a classification mechanism. If you keep going back in time even further, thousands of years, you would have to use other means of classification, because we have no record of place names. You might try classifying based on how faces look, how tall people were (based on skeletons that were found), or how they interacted with their environment. For example, you might group together people that farmed (based on evidence from cave drawings or relics we find at the sites of ancients communities) in one category and people that hunted in another.

Evolutionary biologists demonstrate that if we keep going back still further in time, hundreds of thousands of years, we find that the category or species of 'human' disap-

Before we look at how Dar-	looking insects or other ani-	Think of characteristics (for	up in the same group more
win's and other scientists'	mals.	example, color, shape, size,	than once?
ideas have been used to de-		method of movement, num-	
fine, classify, and order life,	If you are in a class, form a	ber of legs, etc.) you could use	Develop a set of character-
let's try an observation ex-	group with two other stu-	for grouping things together.	istics that allow you to clas-
periment ourselves:	dents and pool your informa-	Then group your organisms	sify all your organisms into
	tion.	based on one particular trait.	groups that make sense to
Go outside. Draw or collect		Then group them using an-	you.
10 different plant leaves	Develop a way of classifying	other, different trait.	
Draw or collect 10 different-	what you drew or collected.	Do certain organisms wind	

pears altogether. There is no record (later we will talk about what types of records and evidence we use to look this far back in time) of any humans existing beyond a certain time, but we can still see signs, shared characteristics, of how we are related to *other species*. For example, biologists characterize or group humans with many other animals under the category **Mammals**. Mammal refers to a group of many different species that share certain characteristics, among them: all mammals have hair on at least some part of their bodies during at least some part of their lives; female mammals have mammary glands that secrete milk for their young, who are born live; all mammals have hearts with four chambers.

YOUR TURN: ORGANIZING LIFE

<u> ન</u>ુषः वया याप्तः अळ्ययः विया पक्तियः हेषः क्षेत्रेः पर्वे प्या पत्रेः र्ह्येन् : गुष्णः पतिः हेषः ના ફ્રેયચા ગો આ તે ગો આ સુધારી છે. આ ગામ આ ગ ๚ฬัพหังพพรสายิเซิเซิเซสาสุราราวรัฐที่ที่นั่ญรายที่สายสายสายสาริเอราสมริสาธสาวทุวรัฐสาร์รา मान्ना गुल्वायामा सुगार्श्वारा कार्या स्वार्थ्य गावाया के स्वार्थ्य के स स्वार्थ्य के स्वार्थ स्वार्थ्य के स्वार्थ

ૹૻૼ[੶]ૻઽઽ[੶]ઌૢ૾ૺઽૻ[੶]ઌ૾ૢૢૺૹૻૻ[ૢ]ૡૢૻૡ૽૾ઌૻઽૻૻ૽ૼૻૻૼૻ૽ૼૻ૽ઌ૽ૻૹૻૻ૽ૡ૽૾ઌૻૻૡ૽૿ઌૻૻ૽૱ૻ য়ৣৢ৲৾ঀয়৾৾ঀ৾৾৾য়৾৾য়৾৾ঀ৾৾য়৾ঀ৾৾য়৾৾য়৾ ঀ৾৾৾৾৾৾৾ঢ়৽৻৾য়৾৾য়৾৽য়৾৾য়৾য়৾য়৾য়৾য়৾য়৾য়৾য়৾য়৾৾য়৾

ᠵ᠊᠋ᠵ᠂ᡱᡇ᠂ᡪᠵ᠊᠄᠊᠋᠋ळ॔ᡇ᠂᠋ᡭ᠊᠋᠋᠊᠋᠋᠇᠃᠋ᡎ᠍ᠭᡆ᠆ᡪ᠋᠋᠋᠋᠋᠋᠇᠋᠋᠋ᢆᡆ ᠊ᡲ᠋᠊᠋ᠳ᠇ᠴᡃᠴᠯ᠆᠋᠄᠍ᢓ᠆ᡝ᠋ᡶ᠗᠋ᢅ᠄ᡷ᠋ᢩᡆ᠋᠋᠋᠋᠋ᢆᡆ᠋᠋᠋᠄ᠽᢅ᠄ᡘ

শইশ'দৃ:শ্বুদশ্ ୲ଌୖୄ୕ୄ୵୕ୢୄୢୖ୶୶୶ୄୖୢ୷୶୲୳ୠୄୢ୶ୖ୷ଽୄୠଵ୲୳୲୵୶୲ୖ <u>वर्तये तैबाद्वैबावबार्येतर्यदे र्</u>तवावबा <u></u> สุมฺॺॱॺॄ८ॱॻॄॺ॓ॺॱॾॖेॱळ॔ॺॱॸॖॾॖॆॱय़ॾॖॆॸॱॻॖॱ वनगःभेगामी वेगानग्राह्य वित्रा (त्रेर

नगागीन्द्रि रेश्वरे खेला གལ་ୖୠୖ୲ୠ୕ୖୢ୵୕୵୕୵ୄ୕୵ୄୡୖ୲ୡୖୖୖୖୖ୕ଽଵ୕ୣ୕ୢ୶୕୵ୖଐୄ୵୕ଵୄ ଽୖୢୄଈ୕୳ୄୣଽ୶୲୶ଵ୶ୄ୴ୖୠ୕୶୳୵୵ୄଌୡୄ୵ୢ୵୳ୖୄଌ୳୶୲ भःश्रूरःप्रश्नूषःयदेग्वत्रषःर्सुभःर्मुवाषः

बेंगबर्यते)छन् हगबरनेगबर्योवरहे। <u>૱</u>ૹૼૡૢૢૢૢૢૢૡ૱ૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૡ૱૱ૡૡ૱૱ नमयार्च्चे र्वेट्रमा दे हे हे मान्न्य मार्ग्य का रहे मार्ग्य का रहे है के राज्य के राज्य के राज्य के राज्य के र ૡ૾ૺૼૼૼૺૺૻૻૻૻૡૺ૱ૡૡ૾૾ૺૡ૱ૡૡ૽ૻૡ૽ૻૡ૽ૼૡૻ૱ૡૡ૽ૡૡ ૹ૾ૢૢૺૼ૾ૻૡ૱૱૱૱ૻઌ૱ૡૢૼ૱ૹ૽ૢૼ૱ૻૡ૱૱૱ र्चेषा देवबाह्यराणमाधराह्यराह्यवायाववा विगागवि लागवगा त्र मा झुे ख्वा दे स्वयमा

वा गिर्देग मर्डेन्ट्रीमबा मेंटबाळना दमुला

र्श्नेट्र'ग्रे'घ्रिय्र व्ययाया क्षुवा अवा यी या दब राज

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वरःणबेबःद्वेःळवःर्नुः देनुर्नुं देन् ๆอิ่ๆ น่ว่าสุราญสายอิยาญญาสรายรา अनुअ-5- दियामार दुवा याया हेंगा <u> ने</u> स्ट्रेन स्ट्रन मुंब मार्थ स्ट्रन स्ट्री स्ट्रन स्ट - स्ट्रन स् - स्ट्रन स्ट ₹ॺॺॱॻๅ**वॺॱॶॻऻॺॱ**ॸॖॸॱख़ॖॖॺॱॻऺढ़॓ॱख़ॖ॓ॱळ॔ॺॱ न्द्रे ख़िम्बः विषा हु यहिंगुरू स्वरायवा देवा.

<u>ૻ</u>ૡૢૼૼૼૼઽૢઌૢ૽ૺૼૻઽૺૹૻૹૼ૾૾ૹૻ૽ૼૼૼૼૹૻ૽ઌૼઌ૽ૻૼૼૻ૽ૼઽૼૺ૱ૻૹ૾૾ૢૺૼૼૼૼૼ૽૽ઌૻૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼઌૺૼૻ૽ૼ

નઠત્ર શે કે વ રા છે જે સંગ્રે સંગે સંગ્રે સંગે સંગ્રે સં

<u>দ:</u>ষ্ট্ৰুৰ্ম. રેંગુરુ નુકેલે છે. જેવાયા અર્ગ ગાલવા મર્ગી બાર્ છેનુ છેનુ નુકેન્ડ જેનુ નુકે નુકે નુકે નુકે છે. જેવાય જેવાય છે. જે [৻]યઃད་ཕོད་ཕྱིམ་ཆོང་གི་མིང་པེད་སྒྱོད་བྱས་དི་ཆོན་ལག་བསྒྱིལ་བ་དང་། ད་ནས་རིམ་གྱིས་དུས་ལ་ཕྱིར་ལོག་བྱས་པ་ན་ཕྱིམ་ ล้ารานนิ เมธ์มพาริรา ราษิ เราหูนิ เปิรายกพาริ เราพายุคล เราที่ ณารายุพารา และ เราหายุ มธ์มพาริ เรา เราหนิง เรา भारतन्द्र रेणमा दर्भरः वा (पार्देद्र अदे द्विअग्वाबिमः क्र्यामाम्बद्र म्यू भाषाः क्रुंद्र र्ग्वे युद्ध र पर्यः यात्र दा या रेमाः ^ऒ॔ज़ॺॱग़ॖॖॖ॓ॱॸ॒ॸॸॱक़ॖग़ॺॱॻढ़ॎऀॱॎॻख़ॺग़ॺॺॱ)ख़ॾॕॱक़ॆॖॺॱॸॖॱढ़ॎऀॸॱ॒ॺॺॱय़ॱज़ॺॖग़ॸ॒ॸॱऻ ऀॱॸॗग़ॺॱॸॾॕक़ॱख़ॾऀक़ॱॻॖॺॱय़ॱ

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- ইন্যাঝ্যম্বরি'যান্ত্রদ'

RELATEDNESS AND TIME

The exercise we just went through of building a family tree, starting with ourselves and then moving backward in time until we could show relationships to all organisms, is very similar to what biologists do to demonstrate evolutionary relationships. Biologists build family trees we call **phylogenies** to show the relationship in time among different organisms.

The *closer in time* two organisms are related, the *more* related they are, and the more biological characteristics they share. Organisms and species change over time. The more related, the more recent is the common ancestor, the less change has occurred. I am very related to my brother and my mother; I am less related to my mother's brother; I am even less related to my mother's mother's brother; I am less related to other non-human mammals, but I *am* related to these other mammals, and in fact, evolution shows, I am related to all other living organisms. Because, if we continue our family tree back far enough in time (about 4 billion years), we see that indeed *all* organisms share a common ancestor.

Look at the simple family tree or phylogeny in Figure 5a. This tree is built based on the characteristic of a backbone; it shows how animals with backbones are related. Animals that have backbones, known as **vertebrates** (as opposed to animals without backbones, known as **invertebrates**), all had a common ancestor at one point. The presence of a backbone is a major classifying characteristic. Each branch point in the tree represents the formation of a new species based on a major change in a common ancestor. Additional characteristics can be used by biologists to classify animals, such as having a bony skeleton or having four limbs.

If we place this small tree into the whole tree of life (Figure 5b), then we see three major branches or **clades** of living organisms: **archaea**, **bacteria**, and **eukaryota**. Organisms in both the archaea and bacteria clades are single-celled, but they are very different at the molecular level; for example, the ways they carry out the processes that convert their DNA to protein and the chemical composition of the two clades' cell walls are quite different. The animal branch, including the mammals branch we were just discussing, is part of eukaryota, the clade of multicellular organisms.

These kinds of organizations of the tree of life are supported, as we will see, by significant evidence from many different branches of science, but, like all science, they still constitute a **model** that is changing and being adjusted as more experiments are done and more discoveries made.



Figure 5a: A phylogeny based around the vertebrate. It shows how animals with backbones are related.



Figure 5b: The tree of life. There are three major branches, or clades, in the tree of life -- archaea, bacteria, and eukaryota. The phylogeny in Figure 5a fits into a very small part of this tree.

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<u>क्र</u>ेन्ध्र्व ग्रीकें विगरेता

གལ་ᠭ᠋ᠵ᠊᠇᠊᠌ᢅ᠋ᢍᠯᡊ᠇ᡏᢆ᠆᠋᠋ᡏᢆ᠆᠄ᢤᡄ᠆ᡬᡀ᠋ᠼ᠆ᡩ᠆ᡭᡠ᠉ᢤᢆᡣ᠋ᡷ᠋ᠬ᠈ᡬᡭ᠈ᢩ᠈ᡩᡄ᠆ᡬᡭ᠄ᡎ᠗ᠴᡃᠭ᠋᠋ᠴ᠋ᢓ᠋ᡣᢂ᠋ᢋ[(ᡪ᠋᠋ᠴ᠄ᡬᢂᢩ᠕ᡅ) གᡭᡃᢋᢂ᠆ᠵ ૹ૾ૼૹૻૡૹૻૺઌૡ૽ૺૹ૽૽ૹ૽ૢ૾ૺૡૣ૱ઌ૽ૻૣ૱ઌૻ૾ૼૼૹ૽ૻઌૡ૾ૺૻઌૡૹૻ૾ૼૼૡૹૢ૱ઽૢૻૹ૽૾ૹૻઌૡ૾ૹૡૢઌૻ૽ઽૺઌૻૡ૾ૺૺૻ૾ૡૻ૽ૻ૽૾ૡ૽ૻૡ૽૿૱ૡ૱ ^{ૹૼ}ૻૹૼૡૼૺ૾ૺૢ૾ૺૼ૾ૹ૾૱ૺૹ૽૾ઽૺ૽ૣ૾ૺ૱ઌૻૻૢૻઽઌૻૡૢૼૼ૱ૡૢૻ૱ૻૡ૾ૺ૱ૢૻૢૢૼૢૼ૾ૡ૽ઌૡૻૡૢૼૡૡૻૡૻ૽ૡ૽ૼૡ૾ૻૡૻ૽ૡ૾૽ૡ૽ૼૡૻ૽૱ઌૡૻ૽ૼૡૻૼ૱ઌૡૻૡ૽ૼ૱૱ૡ ૽૿૽૾ૡૻૡૢઽૻઙ૽ૺૢ૱ૹ૽૿ૢ૽ૻૻૣૼૹૻૻ૱ૹૣૻૢૣ૽ૻૻૹૢૼઌૻઌૻૻ૱ૹૻઌૻઌૻૹૢૻઌૻૻ૱ૻૹ૾ૺઌૻૹૻઌૻઌૻઌૻ૾૾ૻઌૻૻ૱ૻૹ૽ૼૡૻૹ૽૾ૡૻૹ૽૾ૡૻૹ૾૽ૡૻૹ૾૽૱ૹ

- નચે: तैशः ५ग वृत्तः वृष्णव्यायते: ळॅवावा क्वेति: तथेव्या तैथः अथा विश्वः क्रुतः क्वेत्तः देत्रः क्वेत्यायते के वित्यायते के विश्वः क्वेत्तः देत्रः क्वेत्यायते के विद्यां क्वेत्यायते के विद्या के क्वेत्रः क्वेत्यायते के क्वेत्यायते क्वेत्यायते के क्वेत्यायते के क्वेत्यायते के क्वेत्यायते क्वेत्यायत्वायते के क्वेत्यायत्वयत्वयायते के क्वेत्यायत्वया के क्वेत्यायत्वया के क्वेत्यायत्वया के क्वेत्यायत्वय के क्वेत्यायत्वया के क्वेत्यायत्वयत्य क्वेत्यायत्वयाय के क्वेत्यायत्वयायत्वयाय के क्वेत्यायत्वया क्वेत्यायत्वया क्वेत्यायत्वयाय क्वेत्यायत्वयाय के क्व क्वेत्याय क्वेत्याय क्वेत्यायत्वयाय के क्वेत्याय के क्वेत्याय के क्वेत्याय के क्वेत्याय के क्वेत्याय के क्वेत्य ୄୢୄୠ୕ୖ୰ୄ୵ୠ୶ୄୖୄୄୄ୰ୄ୲ୠୄ୵ୄ୕୶ୣ୕୶୶୕ୣ୶ୖ୲ୡ୕୶୲୵ୠୡ୲୵ୠୡ୲୵ୡୗୄୡୄ୲୷ୄ୷ୡୢୗ୶ୄ୷ୠୡ୲୷ୠୡୄ୲ୡୄୗ୷୷ୡୡୢୡ ୖୖୄଽୄ୶୵୵୳ୖୠ୶୲ୄୄୄୄୠ୕୶୲୶ଌୖୖ୶ୣ୳ୖ୴ୖ୴ୠ୲ୢୠୠ୲ୢୠ୶ୄଌୠୄ୰୳ୖୖୖ୶୶୶୶୰ୠ୶ୢୢୄୠ୶୶ଡ଼୶**ୄୖଈ୶୳ୖଈୄୖ୴୶୲ୖଈ**ୄ<mark>୶୶୲ୖଈ</mark>ୣୖ୶୶<mark>୲</mark>ଈୄ୶୶୲ୖୠ୵୲ୖୄୠୄ୷୲ୄ ୟ'ମଷ୍ପ**ရ**'ର୍ଛିସ୍'ୟ'ଧିଶ୍ୱ

ମଧି ନିଷା ଏମା ଦର୍ନି ଶି ଞ୍ଚାଦା ନୁଷା ଦାଜି ଦା ସାବସା ଛି ସକ୍ଷା ମହା યતે જેંગુરુ છેતે તથે બાર્નસ લિંગ ધોનું તરી જા સુભાનુ જા মৰ্ক্টিবা

হ্ব,ব্ৰু শৰ্মি শৰ্ম মন্তব্য

)ᠭᢩ᠊ᠭ᠋᠉᠃ᢓᠵᡗᡇ᠋᠋᠋᠋᠋᠊᠋᠋᠋᠊ᢖᢂ᠋ᠴ᠋ᡃᢋ᠄ᡚ᠉ᠼ᠉ᠴ*᠋᠋᠊ᡍᡆ*᠃ᠮᢋᢄ᠋ᡸᠴᡘ᠄᠋᠋᠋ᢖᢋᢂᢅ᠋ᡘ᠆ᡆ᠋ᢆᡰᡱᢂ᠋᠋ᠱ᠋ᡗᠴ᠋ᡆᡭᡆ᠋ᢩᢂ᠋ᡩ᠉᠄ᢓᡆ

หลิณาจหิงระวาจดิสารรารูญชา



ଡିମ୍ଟରଙ୍କ ଞ୍ରି ଅସ୍ଟ ସରଷା ହିମ୍ମ ସିମ୍ମର୍ଯ୍ୟ ସମ୍ବାହ୍ୟ વતે ર્સેવાર્ચ ચેતે ત્વેત્ય ત્વે સ ને લે સંવ ર્ચેન સંત તે સ ના સ્

कुट- 5 'वैग'गे' विंटब खु ' २ 5 बारा भी वी

When you did your classification activity (refer to "Your Turn: Organizing Life" on page 26), you selected particular characteristics on which to base your separation of groups. The construction of phylogenies requires a careful refinement and selection of the traits used to develop trees. We select characteristics that are inherited (come from) common ancestors. Such traits are called homologies. One example of a homology is having four limbs like tigers, lizards and bats do. Having four limbs inherited from their parents and by their offspring provides evidence that these animals are more closely related to each other than any of them are related to animals without four limbs, animals like birds or fish. Another common way to develop phylogenies is by using similarity in molecules. It turns out that the homologies in parts of organisms-wings, legs, etc.-are also reflected in the molecules that build and constitute those parts. Later, we will discuss phylogenies built with one such molecule, DNA.

People throughout history and including many today often make the mistake of thinking family trees are arranged like ladders, so that organisms at the bottom of the tree are less advanced than those at the top. This is an artifact of the drawing and is not true; phylogenies only demonstrate the relatedness of organisms, not their relative 'advancement', although there is often more complexity in organisms higher in the tree. This concept of 'advanced' versus 'complex' is a tricky one we will illustrate with an example. Bacteria and archaea (together known as prokaryota or prokaryotes) are single-celled organisms, while eukaryota like us are multicellular. As we will discuss in more detail below, eukaryotic cells are much more complex; they have more compartments and components to their cells and interact with each other in more complex ways than prokaryotic cells. Nevertheless, neither cell type is more advanced. While you might say, 'But multicellular organisms like us can do many more things and make much more progress in life than unicellular organisms!' I would respond by saying, 'Yes, but unicellular organisms are very successful in their own ways: for example, they can reproduce much faster and more efficiently than we (half an hour and without a mate for prokaryotes versus nine months with a mate for humans!), and they can live in very harsh environments in which we wouldn't survive for very long.'

Another common misconception is that humans evolved from chimpanzees, but when we look at the phylogeny in Figure 6, we see that instead humans and chimpanzees shared a common ancestor that was neither human nor chimp. After the split, just like after Figure 6: Primate phylogeny. Humans and chimall such splits between all species, humans and chimps became distinct in other ways.

Finally, looking at the species, like humans, at the ends or tops of the trees one might be fooled into thinking that evolution has stopped in these organisms, that there is no

YOUR TURN: HOMOLOGY

Find a common trait of these animals.









panzees shared a common ancestor that was neither human nor chimp.








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ট্রিন্'শ্রী'র্নম'র্রমা য়েন্ম'মন্তব'রেন'র্বমা

^{યવે શુન્ચંદ્રમાં એ^{ન્યાં લે}માં^બેમ અદ્યવર્સેના છ્રિંચ જ્રું ન જ્રેંદર્ગ્યેલે છે ચેંત્ર ગાવ જ મહે જ્રું 'સ્વ છે સે ગાગ નચે સ્વ ચે જે સે ગાગ મું જે સ્વ સે સે સે સે ગાગ મું જે સે ગાગ મું ગાળ મું જે સે ગાગ મું સે ગાગ સે ગાગ મું જે સે ગાગ મું સે ગાગ મું જે સે ગાગ મું જે સે ગાગ મુ સે સે ગાગ મું જે સે ગાગ મું મ સે સે મું જે સે ગાગ મું જે ગાગ મું સે ગાગ મું જે સે ગાગ મું મે ગાગ મું જે સે ગાગ મું જે સે ગાગ મું જે સે ગાગ મું જે ગાગ મું જે ગાગ મું સે ગાગ મું સે ગાગ મુ મે ગાગ મું સે ગાગ મું સે ગાગ મ સે સે ગાગ મું સે ગાગ મું સે ગાગ મું જે સે ગાગ મું સે ગાગ મે સે ગાગ મું સે ગા મું સે મું સે ગાગ મુ સે સે બાળ સે મું સે ગાગ મું સે ગાગ મું સે}

ଌୖୖୖୖୖୖୖ୶ୄୢଈ୕୶ୠ୵ୖୠ୵୕୶୵ୖ୕ୄ୩ୖଌୖୖୖୖୖୖୖୖ୶୰ୠୖୢୖ୰ୠ୷ୖ୶ ૡઽ૾ૺૡ૾ૺૻૻૹ૽૽ૡ૾૾ઌૻૡૼૺૻૡૡ૾ૺૼૢૢૢૼ૿ૡ૱૽૽ૢ૾ૺૡ૱૽૽ૢ૾ૻ૱ૻૻૻ૱ૹૡૻૹૼૻૻૻૡૼૡ૽ૺ૱૱ૡ૽ૼૡૼૻૡૡ૽ૼ૱ૡ૽ૡૼ૱ૡ૽ૡ૽૾ૡૡ૽ૻૡૡ૽ૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡ ર્થેલ ગ્રું જી જેન ગાલે નચલ ખર ગાસુ દ ગો ખેંના વેંલ ગ્રુદ ભ્રાસ્ત જ બાને સે બાયુબ મારુ જ બાને વાયુ બને સે જ સાથ aĩæҡтҳ҃ҡҡ҄ҟҡѯѽҋѽӈ҈ӣҹҡҧ҈ҀѧҏӑҡҡҀӷ҅ҵҹҡ҄ѧѵҵҀ҄ӑҧ҉ѩ҄҉ѩҡҋҧѧҧӈҧҧ ୠ୵୕୲୕ଡ଼୶ୄୖୢୄଌୗଽଽଽୠ୶୶୲ୖଈ୶୲ୠ୲ଡ଼୵ଽୖୄୡ୕ଡ଼୲୵ୡୖଽ୵ୖଈ୲୕୳୕୳୵ୄ୲ୖୖୖ୳ୄ୵ଡ଼୲୕ୖଡ଼୲ୣଽ୲ଽୠ୵ଽୡ୶୶୲ୠ୵୕୲ଽ୶୲ୢୖୄୄୠ୲ୣଌୠୄୢୖଌ୲ୡ୲ଽୠ୵ୣଡ଼୲୕୶୲ न्वेबाग्रीग्रेगिरेशार्वेन्थराम्चबाग्रीम्ब्रायायरायार्थन्याक्षेत्वाविबादेबावा देरारबाग्रुरार्थेबायपुत्रान्तेन् देश्वरावतरा ૡૺૡૢઽૻ૾૾૾૾ઌ૿૽ઌૻૢઽૻઌ૽૿ૺૹ૽ૢ૾ૺૡ૱૱૱૱૱૽ૼૺ૱૾૽ૡ૽૾ઌ૽૿૱૱ૡ૽૾ૡ૽૾૱૱ૡ૽૾ૡ૽૾૱૱ૡ૽૾ૡ૽૾૱૱ૡ૽૾ૡ૽

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longer potential for more branches from them; however, organisms are always adapting to their environments, always evolving. It's just that the trees only represent time up to the present.

How long did it take for humans to evolve? What are the timeframes we are discussing here? How long does it take for species to evolve and new branches to form on the trees? Before we add the variable of time to our family trees, let's take a step back in time...

TIME AND DEEP TIME

As you learn when studying physics and cosmology, over the past few hundred years in the West, it was commonly believed that the universe is only a few thousand years old. However, as researchers studied our planet, they realized the universe must be much older. And by the early part of the twentieth century, it became clear Earth is at least hundreds of millions of years old.

Telescopes allowed astronomers to view deeply into the universe and see that the cosmos are immense. Our galaxy is thought to contain a hundred billion stars, and researchers saw that the universe contains around one hundred billion galaxies. These galaxies are massive and spread through space with great distances separating them (Figure 7).

Edwin Hubble noted in the early part of the 20th century that the galaxies in our uni- Figure 7: Deep Field from the Hubble televerse are moving away from each other at very fast speeds. Galaxies which are closer to us appear to move away slower than galaxies that are further away. This suggests there from a series of observations by the Hubble was a massive explosion, the so-called Big Bang, in the distant past from which came all material in the universe.

Scientists have integrated the information about the velocities of galaxies moving away from us, the distances of other galaxies, and other data to determine that our universe is approximately 13.7 billion years old!

The very early universe was probably incredibly small and intensely hot and energetic. As the universe expanded, it cooled and this allowed for its parts to interact with each other. Approximately 10 billion years ago, the matter of the universe began to form into galaxies and as this occurred, relatively small knots of matter coalesced so tightly that they became extremely hot. Our solar system, the sun and the planets that orbit it, is an example of one of these knots, and it is about 5 billions years old.

Initially Earth was also a molten mass, but over time the planet cooled and formed a



scope. The "Deep field" is an image of a small region in the constellation Ursa Major, The Hubble Deep Field is constructed Space Telescope. The image was assembled from 342 separate photographs taken over ten consecutive days between December 18 and December 28, 1995.

*૽૾ૺ*ઽਗ਼੶૱ਗ਼ૹ੶ਗ਼ਸ਼੶ਸ਼ૼ੶Ĕ੶ਖ਼ਸ਼੶ਲ਼ਜ਼ੑਗ਼੶ੑੑਸ਼੶ਖ਼ੑ੶ਸ਼ੑਸ਼੶ਜ਼ਗ਼

খাৰীয়ালুপু

দ্বথি-ইক্ষ্ম 🖉 *ઙૢ*ઞ૽૽ૣૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢઌૻૹૢૢ૽ૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢઌૻૹૢ૽ૢૢૢૢૼૢૻૹ૾૽ૢૼૼૼૼૼઽૻઌૡ૽૾ૺૻૻ૱ૹૻૹ૽૾૱ૡ૽૾ૺૺૺૡૢઌૣ "ૡ૱ૡૻૻ૱ૻૡ૽૾ૡૢઌૢૢૡૢૻ૾ૡૢ૾ૼૼૼૼૼૼૡ૽૾ૡ૽૾ૡ૽૾ૡ૽૾ૡ૽૾ૡ૽૾ૡ૽૾ૡ૽ૻૡ૽૿ૡૻ૽ૡ૽ૼૡૼૡ૽૿ૡૼૡૻ૽ૡ૽૿ૡૼૡૻ૽ૡ૽૿ૡ૽ૼૡૼૡ૽૿ૡૼૡ ૹ૾ૄૢૼૼૢ૱ૹૡૻૡૹૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૡૢૡ૽ઌઽ૾ૹૡઽ૱૱ૡૡૹૹ૾૾ૣ૽ૡૡ૾ૼ૱૱ૹ ज्ञ. 17 केंब. 11 वेब. 11 वर.खेव.नछ.नस्नुर.वर.नश्चरब.यथ.



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ૹ૾ૺૼઌૣૹૻૹૻઌઌૣૻૻઌૡ૱ૹ૽૾ૢૺૹૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૡૻૻઌૡ૱ઌૡ૱ઌૻઌ૾ૼઽૻઌૣૡૹૡૼઌૻૹઽૻઽઽૣઌૻ૾૱ઌ૱ૹ૾ૣ૱ૻ૱ૹૻૻ૱ૡ૽ૡ૱૱૱૱૱

ᢜᡭ᠂ᠺ᠋᠋᠍ᡛ᠋᠋ᠳᡲᢋ᠄ᡃᢆᡀ᠋ᡃᢦ᠋ᢂ᠋᠊ᢂ᠄ᠺ᠋᠋ᡗᡃᢙ᠆᠋ᠣ᠋ᡎᢂ᠋ᢋᢂ᠋ᠮᡐᡅ᠗ᡔ᠂ᠱᢄ᠋ᠴ᠄ᡘᠽ᠋᠍ᠴ᠉᠋᠉ᢣ᠋ᢧᢂ᠋ᠬᡃ᠍᠍ᡱᢋ᠋᠄ᠴᡭ᠄ᢜᢅ᠆᠄᠊᠋᠋ᡷᢂ᠄᠊᠋᠋ᢧ᠋᠋᠋᠋ᡃ᠋᠋᠋ᢆᡎ᠋᠋᠋᠋ᢆ᠋᠋

ગુષ્ય દ્વનાય ગુત્ત લેતા ને બાગવેત વસાયદેવા દેવ છે બચાય તે છેને જે આ છે આ છે છે. આ ગુના છે આ ગુના છે આ ગુના છે આ ᠵ᠋᠊᠌᠊᠋ᢅᡸᡭ᠄ᡪ᠊ᢩ᠊᠋᠊᠋᠊᠋᠊᠋ᢆᡷ᠋ᡎ᠋ᢦᡃ᠋᠋ᠳᡭ᠋᠋᠋ᢋ᠋᠋᠆᠄ᠼ᠆᠄ᠼᠴᠴᡜᢣ᠄ᡘᢋ᠋ᢂᠴᠼᢖ᠄ᢋᡆ᠋᠋᠋ᠳ᠋ᡆᢆᢒᡆ᠋᠋ᢩ᠂ᢅᡅᡗ᠄ᡭᡠ᠋ᢋ᠋᠋ᠴᡀ᠋ᢤᢋ᠁ᢙᡆᡃᠴᡇᡞ ॸॱॸ॒ॻॱॻऀॺॱ(८ॱऄॕ॔ऀऺिॱ)ऺऺढ़ऺऺऀॻॱड़ॆ॓ॖऺॖॖॺॱॻॖॖऀॱय़ॎॺॺॱढ़८ॱॸॖग़॒ॱऄऀॱॻॺॱॸॖॖऀॱय़ड़ॱॿ॓ॸॱढ़ड़ॖॺॱॸक़ॖॖॱड़ॻॱॵॺॱड़ॕॖॻॺॱड़ॗॖॖॖॖड़ॱॱ

<u>ध</u>ुराषय्वत्रार्थेतःचेवर्यतेःणवत्रार्द्धवाण्यवार्य्त्व्यायाः

้ญั้าฏิพาร์รัพเกมพาริทานารราวริทาริสากมพาร์รัพาริทานาฐัราฐพาฐกพายิพาร์ทพาฐราวานดิสุเ วรุพา ୖୖ୵୕୶୶ୖୖୖ୕ୖଽୖଌ୲ୢୖୄୗ୶ୄ୕ୠ୶୕୵୳୶ୖୠୄୄୄୄୄୄ୳୳ୖୖୖୡ୵୲ୡୖ*୲*ୄୖୢ୶ଽୄୠୄୢୄୖଽୠ୳୶ୄୢ୷୳୶୲ୖ୶ୖୖୡୖ୲୳ୄୖ୶୷ୡୖ୲୶୲୷ୡୄୖ୶୲ୡ୲୶ୡ୲ୡ୲ୡ୲ୡ୲୷ୖ୶ୖଽୄୠ

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hard crust on its surface. Massive rains that lasted for many, many years led to the formation of the oceans and other bodies of water we now see on Earth. Although most of the materials that make up our planet were in place, Earth was lifeless for approximately a billion years. Then, around 3.8 billion years ago, life began.

CHANGE OVER TIME

The Buddha said that nothing is constant. In this, modern science and Buddhism are in complete agreement. All processes, people, societies, everything we know will be different tomorrow and the day after. Nothing stays the same in our world, and time is a way of measuring that change. Change over time is seen in the development of children;

IN-DEPTH: WHAT IS A BILLIO	N?		
Even thinking about the meaning of one billion, like contemplating <i>skal-</i> <i>chan</i> or <i>grangs-med</i> in Buddhist literature, is dif-	we think of our millions and billions as concrete numbers, no different re- ally than the number 3 or 524. One billion seconds	years old. So, if I started counting now to one bil- lion, by the time I finished I would be a grandfather. And that's simply count-	lion years! It's difficult, but not impossible.
ficult. In Western science,	is about 30 years. I am 45	ing to a billion. Imagine	
One year one thousand times thousand years (a millennium			Dne million years one thousand imes = one billion years

YOUR TURN: UNDERSTANDING BIG NUMBERS

If 1 meter = a million years, what measure of length = the first identified life form (3.5-3.8 billion years), the Cambrian explosion of diversity of life (550-600 mya = million years ago), first mammals (250 mya), first primates (90 mya), first hominids (5-7 mya), first modern humans (150-200,000 years ago) and finally, the average span for a human life ~ 75 years?

their limbs grow as they age, and eventually their bodies and personalities become that of an adult. Similar change occurs in all living things, including other animals and plants.

In our discussion of building family trees, we talked about time and differences. We discussed how organisms that are more related are more similar. How do we specifically measure change in time and the events that happened long ago? What evidence do we use to determine the age and relatedness of organisms back in time?

Scientists use signatures of change within nature to help measure and learn about the past. The near and ancient past is written all around us. It is written in the trees, snow pack and rock layers.

ঀয়৾ঢ়য়৾য়৾ঀ

यत्रान्यत्राह्मण्याही रद्रायायहेव न्वींयायया

য়য়ঀ৻৽ড়ৢ৾৾য়৾৽৻য়৾য়ৣয়৾য়৾য়৾য়ৢ৾৾ঢ়৾৾য়য়য়৾য়ৢ৾য়৾য়৾য়ৢ৾য়৾য়৾

गूभाने सेंग्सप्याग्हेगांनी खुदळं ने (तृणुआळं ने ग्रे)नुमन्तु)भारत्स्याहेगांगी स्टाइन्दन्सक्रमायत्यद्वेश्वत्वा देशवित भवे ळे ख्रागी हस्याय विगासने जुन्यत्यत्य हेण्युद ळं न (सेंग देवेरपद्वस्यान्त्वे स्वा २४ मन्त्र ग्रे) खन्द्वे (सेंग देन्द्र स्यान्त्वे स्वा २४ मन्त्र ग्रे ख्रान्त्य ने न्युक्त देन्द्र स्यान्त्वे स्वाय्त्र स्वाय्त्र स्वाय्त्र कें त्रा गोसने से खद्र प्ययेग्या केन्द्र प्यर्थेन्द्र स्वाय्त्र ने न्यावे स्वाय्त्र

યાંશેપ્વર્ડા માન્ન રહેરા અર્ડ મેં (વચેવા વશુ રાશું) ભ્રાષ્ટ્ર અાશું નિવર દુ: હુઆ પરે દુ, આ ખુત સુરા દુ 'લેવા વો હતા) વચેવા છુ આ હુત વવે દુ આ જેવા અને વેવર શે ખુત જ દુ 'લે તે આ ખા પ્ ૧૯૦ વચે ૧૯૦૦ વર શે ખાર શેવ) દુના વવે વર શે બુલ જ દુ (લે દિંગ ખા ૧૯૦ શેવ) દુના સેવે સેવા જ વા શે શેવા આ તે હુત વવે વર શે ખુત જેવા (વે દે શેવે સેવા જ વા શે શેવા આ તે હુત વવે વર શે ખુત જેવા (વે દે

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 য়৾৾ৼয়৾৽য়৾৾ঀয়৾৽য়৾৾য়৾৽৻ঽঀৣয়৾৽ঀ৾৾ড়৾ঀ৾৽ঀ৾ৼ য়৾ৼয়৾৾৽ঀ৾৽য়৾ৼয়৾৽য়৾ড়য়য়৾৽য়ৢ য়৾৽য়৾য়৾য়ৢঀৢ৾ৼ৻ড়ঢ়৾য়ৢঀঀৣ৾য়ৣ৾য়৾৽য়৾য় য়৾ড়য়৾য়ঀ৾৾ঢ়ঀৢৼ৻ড়ঢ়য়ৣঀঀৣ৾য়ৣ৾য়৾৽য়৾য় য়৾ড়য়ঀ৾য়ৼয়ৣঢ়৻ড়য়৻৾ঀয়৾য়ৼ৽ঀয়য় য়৾ড়য়ঀ৾য়ৼয়ৣঢ়৻ড়য়৻৾ঀয়৾য়ৼ৽য়য়৻

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MEASURING CHANGE AND TIME: SHORT TERM

Like humans, trees grow and develop over their lifetimes. They increase the number of leaves they have, and their root systems expand underground. And trees actually keep a record of their growth and age. Look at a cross section of a tree trunk (Figure 8), and note the series of rings radiating from the middle of the trunk. Each year, a new ring grows and surrounds all rings from previous years. A ring represents all the growth that occurred that year for that tree.

By looking at growth rings we can also determine what the weather was like in a particular year, since good weather promotes good growth, and poor weather poor growth. With such techniques, in a thousand-year-old tree like a bristlecone pine (Figure 9), we can determine the climate centuries ago in the area the tree is found.

LONG TERM

Water is a major agent of change. In some locations around the world, like the peaks of grows and surrounds previous rings. A ring the Himalayas, it is so cold that the frozen water in snow never melts. In these regions, one year. the snow that falls in a given year packs on top of snow from previous years leaving a time-related pattern similar to the rings in a tree trunk. Scientists observe the snow layers with a long hollow tube called a coring device (Figure 10). Each layer contains information about the amount and type of snow that fell in a given year as well as concentrations of atmospheric gases in the air at the time. Such gases are trapped by snow as it falls, and they give us hints about the kinds of organisms that could have lived in those atmospheres. These records allow scientists to look back in time hundreds of thousands of years.

At lower elevations the snow does melt and the resulting water joins with that from rains to flow into small creeks that become rivers. Rivers can move with immense speed as they roll down from the mountains. If you have stood near one of these rivers, you know the great force they exert as they pass through gullies and canyons on their way to the sea. Over time this force wears away at, or erodes, the riverbanks. The products of this erosion are the silt and sand that are carried away by the river to the sea where they are deposited on the bottom as the water slows. Over time, this process creates layer after layer of deposits on the sea floor.

We see similar records of time in rock. The hard crust of the earth on which we live greater than that of any other single living is not continuous around the globe, but is broken into massive pieces that float on the molten center of our planet. These pieces, known as tectonic plates, move around and



Figure 8: Tree rings. Each year, a new ring represents all the growth that occurred in



Figure 9: Bristlecone pine. The bristlecone pines are a group of pine trees (Family Pinaceae, genus Pinus, subsection Balfourianae) that are thought to reach an age far organism known, up to nearly 5,000 years.

୩ଵ୍ଟ ୩ଛି୩'ଅଟ ଛିମ୍ୟୁ ନ୍ଦିମ୍ ଅିର୍ଘ୍ୟୁ

གམོས་ཀྱི་ཆོ་སྐོ་ོ་ୡིག་ཡིན། (ཐྱིམ། pinaceae; གྱུད། pinus; ནང་ শই মার্ক্য আ Balfourianae)

ရိုင္းဒီစုရားၾငိုးစိုးင်း ဖစစစ စားခဲ့အရိုးအခု အနီးနိုင္ ခ်င္မြားရွားၾားင်ာ့ရာ

দমি:দীক্ষা ৫



- २२ंग्रेश २ विष्योक्तिमार्श्वन वेंग्रेग्वविक्तिमार्श्वन्यम्यारेग् थॅन ळेंणबःर्झेनःवेणयीबःयंग्वरेणवत्युत्यते क्रुंवळत्ये। उद्या ગુન અર્જેન શે ખેંન



5्र नल्र ग्रीव गवर्ष थेंना

ઽૻૹૻૼૻઽૢૹૻૹ૽૿ઌૹૻ૽૽૿ૢ૽૾૽૽૱ૡ૽ૼૼૡઽ૾ૡઽૻૡૻૡ૽ૼૻઌ૽૿ૡૻૻઽૢૡૻૻ૽ૼૢ૾ૺઌૻૺૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૻ૾ઌૻૺૢૢૢૢૢૢૻૻ૾ૻૹૻ૽ૡૹૻૼ૽ૹ૾ૼૡૻૼૼૻઙ૽ૢ૾ૻૢઽૻૹ૽૾ૡ૾૽ૼૹૼ૽ૻૡૼ૽ૻૡ૽૾ૡ૽૽ૡ૽ૺૡ૽ૡ૽ૡૡ૱ૡૻ <u>ૺ</u>ને 'ચંદે' ચેંદ્ર વેંદ્ર સુધાર છે. આ પ્રાપ્ત પ્ ૬ વાબોન્સાવેન્ટ્ર તરીન્ટ્ર પ્રત્યે કુચાર્ક્ષ તે કે તે પે છે. તે આ પ્રત્ય પે પ્રત્ય પ્રત્ય પે પ્રત્ય પે પ્રત્ય પે પ્રત્ય પે પ્રત્ય પ <u>ે</u> ચેર લેટા વર્ત પ્વાર્થેવયા બના સંવ રાખવા છે. આ પ્રાપ્ય પ

ୢ୩୫୮:ସୖ୵ଌୖୖ୶[ୄ]ୖ୳୵୳ୄୢୄ୴୵୕୳୲ୢୢୢ୩୫୮:ସୖଽ୵ୠୄୖ୳୵ଡ଼ୄୠୄୄୄ୷ୡୄ୵୷ୡୖୣ୶ୖୠୖୖୖ୶୲ୠ୶ୖୖୖୖ୷ୖୠ[ୄ]୶ୖ୵ୖୠୄୖ୷୷ୄୠୄ ਗ਼ਫ਼ૼઽ੶૨ૻૼ੶ૡઽ૾૾ૡ૾૾ਗ਼੶ਗ਼૽ૡૹૹ੶ૢૢ੶ૡઽૹ੶૱ૹૡ૱ૻ૽૾૽૾૾૾૾ૻ૱ૹૢૡૻૻૡ૱ૹ૽ૡૻ૽ૼૡૹૢ૾ૢૼૼૢૻ૽ૼૺ૱ૹ૽ૢૻ૱ૻૻૼૡ૱ૻ૽ૡ૱ૻૹ૾૾ૡ૾૾૾૽૾૾ૡ ᡜ᠋ᡪ᠊ᡃᡅᡳ᠊ᢓᡪᠬ᠋᠉᠋᠂ᡷᠬᡃ᠋**᠍᠆**ᡪᡭ᠋ᡅᠽ᠋ᠭ᠋ᡊᢋᢩᠵ᠋᠊᠋᠋ᠼᢩᠮ᠋ᡘ᠉᠋᠊᠋᠋ᠼ᠉ᡋᡭᢙᠴ᠋ᡪᡄᢃᢧ᠔ᡬ᠈᠊᠋ᢋᡄ᠋ᡗᢆᡎᡊᢩ᠖ᡔ᠇ᠴᡳ᠍ᢓ᠆᠋᠔ᢄᠴ

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୲ଵୖ୶ୄୠ୕୵ୠ୕୰ଌ୵୕ୢୢ୴୷୳ଵ୶ୖଈ୵୳ୖୖଌ୵୳୷୵ୖଡ଼୲୶୲ଡ଼୷୶୲ୖୢଌ୕୵ୄୖୄୖୄ୰୲ୡ୲ୄଌ୶୲୶ୖଽୡ୲ଵୡ୲୴୷୳ଢ଼ୢ୲ୖୖ୩୲ୖୡୣ୷ र्षासुत्य दर्ने न्या मुर्ग्ये

ਸ਼ੑੑੑੑੑੑੑੑੑੑੑੑੑੑੑੑੑੑਸ਼ਗ਼ਖ਼ੑੑੑਸ਼ੑਗ਼ੑੑੑੑੑੑੑੑੑਸ਼ੑਖ਼ੑੑੑੑੑਸ਼ਗ਼ਖ਼ੑੑੑੑੑਸ਼ਗ਼ਖ਼ੑੑੑੑੑਸ਼ਗ਼ਖ਼ੑੑੑੑਸ਼ੑਖ਼ੑੑੑਸ਼ੑਖ਼ੑੑੑਸ਼ੑਖ਼ੑੑੑੑ

र्केग'य'थेव<u>ा</u>

ૡદેવ ખઽ છે૮ દ્વરાષ્ટ્રી ગવયાગીયા પ્રવાર પંચા છે. તે સંસાય પ્રાપ્ત પ્રાપ્ત પ્રાપ્ત પ્રાપ્ત પ્રાપ્ત છે. તે સંસાય પ્રાપ્ત પ્ર પ્રાપ્ત પ (न्ये रेशा () श्रु सु विषा यक्तुन मेन र र्थेन र ने येन स्वरे सा सु भरे दे ये रें र यक्त स्वा र्थेव की पाव का पविषा पाव र विभा छा सा

ۥڡٚٚڗڂٕۘؗڟۥٛػٛڂ؆ڲؚؚؚٚڟ۪ڟ۪ڂڂڂ؆ڡۿڂۥڲۛڹۣڐؚؾۣڮڐٵۛۼڡٮٚ؆ڡۿڴڟؚٵۣۛٛ؈ٛۻٳ

۩ٚٚ؆ۿۯٵڡؾڔ؆ٮڟڡۥۿڔ؞؆ٮػٚڡٵٵڿٮڡۮ؆ڛڛؾۼ؆ؽ؇ڛٚٳ؋ۅٞۼؿۘٵڋڡٵ؆؆؊ڡڟٵؿ؆ڛڟٵ؆ र्वे'देब'यर'वर'ग्री'र्पेना नये'रेबा ४ यर'णबब्य'वदे'वेट'वी'र्चेट'र्येदे'वर्ध्वन'णवणब'ग्री'ह्रब'यर'र्व्वेब'न्ट'। र्ड्वेट'र्येदे' નનુશ્વ સ્વયત્વ શેન ત્વર્સે ગુશ્વ પ્યતે જે વાય જ્ઞેંત્ર શે ત્રિયા પ્યત્વા પાયન ત્વર્યા છે સ્વયત્વ સંવય જે વાય જે ત્ર ત્વાય સંતર વાય સ્વય ત્વા ત્વર સંવય સંતર વાય સ્વય ત્વા પ્યાય ત્વા શે ત્વર સંવય સંતર વાય સ્વય ત્વા પ્યાય ત્વા પ્યાય ત્વા શે ત્વર સંવય સંતર વાય સ્વય ત્વા પ્યાય ત્વા પ્ય

bump, slide and grind past each other. Many hundreds of millions of years ago the Indian tectonic plate slammed into the Asian tectonic plate, and this forced what was once the bottom of the sea to rise and rise and eventually form the great Himalayan mountain range and the Tibetan plateau we mentioned at the beginning of this book.

Since the process for depositing river silt and sand and compressing them into rock takes so much longer than it does for trees to grow, the record in rock layers goes back much further. Using these rock layers, we learn about what happened and how it happened millions of years ago.

DISCOVERING ROCKS' SECRETS

So, the deeper the rock layer, the older it is. If we find something in a rock layer, we know it is the same age as the rock. Now, if we can determine the age of the rock, then we know the age of what else is found in that rock. How do we know the age of the rock? And what signs of the past do rock layers hold?

Scientists use a technique called radiometric analysis to determine rock age. Radiometric analysis relies on the fact that chemical elements in the rock decay or lose particles at a known rate, which can vary, depending on the element, from thousands to millions of Figure 10: Ice coring. In the top picture, a scientist

years. Estimates of the age of the rocks are made based on this decay.

Fossils are the major record of past life histories found in rock (or more rarely ice) layers. In rare cases, actual whole ancient organisms are found; humans and other animals have been discovered frozen and fully preserved in ice, and ancient insects are preserved in a material called amber (Figure 11). 'Living' fossils like these sometimes have the huge bonus of still containing analyzable proteins or DNA, molecular footprints of ancient times. More often, we find in rock the hard parts of organisms, such as bones and teeth and shells. Indirect evidence of life is seen in fossils of the imprints of organisms, their Figure 11: Spider preserved in amber. Amber is fossil-



bores a hole to retrieve an ice core. Sample ice cores are in the lower image.



ized resin. It originates as a sticky substance in which organisms become trapped.

Uranium-238 Thorium-234 Radioactive Decay Chain Uranium-234 Thorium-230 Radium-226 Half-life Bismuth-210 5 days Polonium-210 🧹 140 days Lead-206 Stable

IN-DEPTH: RADIOMETRIC ANALYSIS

The universe is full of naturally occurring elements that are inherently unstable. These are known as radioactive elements. Over time, radioactive "parent atoms" decay into stable "daughter atoms."

When molten rock cools, radioactive atoms are trapped inside. Afterwards, they decay at a predictable rate. By measuring the quantity of unstable atoms left in a rock and comparing it to the quantity of stable daughter atoms in the rock, scientists can estimate the amount of time that has passed since that rock formed.

વેન્ષય્યત્ર શુત્ર ભા નુષ્ય છેથારું વર્ષે નુષ્ય સ્વર્જન વશ્

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बरः खुबः विदः रदाः चढीवः श्रेः चहुवायदेः हुवा स्वाग्रीः

२वेंत्रःळंन्ग्चरुणः कृषा नेःकृन्धःवेंत्व्याः कृत्याः विक्राः

ઞह્त વાયતે સું દ્વારા શું બધેં માં જેને સંસ્થાન સંસ્થા સંસ્થા સંસ્થા સંસ્થા સંસ્થા સંસ્થા સંસ્થા સંસ્થા સંસ્થા સ



၎ચે રેશા 10 हॅलमेબ के जिन्छन जन छात्र देशा हॅलमेબ वे घट रु रेश શैल हेन शुरु र बिग भेवा हॅलमेબ श्रे हला दे दिया हॅलमेल वे घट रु रेश हलमेग भेव र ज रे र क्रे हिन संस्थेर रेगल पछर पह र घेरज रे ज भेव





ર્શેયવેભાવેયાયલે નદેયા સ્થાયિન નું જેમ જંગાય છેયા છે. તેથું મું ગાય સાથે છે. તેથું મું ગાય સાથે મું ગાય તેને સંગાય તે સંગાય તેને સંગાય તેને સંગાય તેને સ त्रति वृत्तः ज्ञूनका रे न न न न हो विन पयेर न ते ही सका कथा धात व ने खेव खे सु मु हो गवत रॉते पन का हु या ही हेका

२८: जुरु र मुवा मे के र म क के र म के र

"मुःहुअ""ग्रि हें में राय रें का य में लुव हें रे आ ग्रे का ग्रा रा

रमानविव ग्री स्वायास्य ग्री रेगया व्य राज्य राज

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ह्मग्रम् ग्रम् न्द्र माद्र स्वर्थम् स्वया

नेश्वत्य म्वार्यस्टि स्वयम् कित्त्वन्य में दि स्वित्त ग्री श्वते क्वित्त में स्वयं ᡏ᠋ᢅᡄᡊ᠊ᢅ᠋ᢙ᠋᠋᠆ᡪᡄ᠈ᢆᡏ᠁᠋ᢍ᠆᠉᠋᠕᠋ᡆ᠉ᠴ᠁᠗᠋ᡆ᠉ᠴ᠆ᡔ᠋ᢅ᠋ᢆᢆᢍ᠉ᡗᡆ᠉ᢓᢩᠴ᠋᠃᠋ᡎᠬᡍ᠋᠊ᡸ᠋᠋ᢁᢆ᠋ᡎᠬᡬᠴ᠋ᡸᡬᡧ᠋ᡎ᠋ᢆᡆ᠉ᡸ᠋᠆ᡄ᠉᠂᠋ᠳᠶᡆ᠂᠋᠊᠋ᢓᢩᠭ᠉ᢩᢡᡆ

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<u>ซ</u>ิ) ซิ์รา

યત્ર ગાયના ત્રાપ્તુ છે. આ ગાયના સુધાર સ ᠊ᡊᡃ᠋ᠫᢅᡄ᠋᠋ᡆ᠋᠋ᢆ᠆ᢍᡎ᠋ᠭ᠋ᢞᢌᡊᠽᡎᡊᡒ᠋ᡎ᠆ᡄᠡᢅ᠋᠋᠊᠋ᢍᢆᡎᡅ᠋ᡝᢄ᠋ᡩ᠋ᡎ᠋᠆ᡄ᠉ᢋᡊᢓᠳ᠋ᡳ᠋ᢓᡆ᠋᠁ᡓᡘᡬᡬᡱᡏᠴᢄ᠋ᡎᠴᢄᡁᠴ

4'55'

(A) Land (A) Land

parts left in rock, in footprints or even fossilized feces (See Fossils: An Image Gallery sidebar).

Using a combination of radiometric and molecular analysis, different fossils, and knowledge about currently living species, scientists can make strong predictions about what organisms looked like, where and when they lived and how they are related to other organisms.

GENES AND DNA

We have discussed three signatures of time and change in nature: tree rings, ice cores, and rocks and their fossils. A third signature is more difficult to see—Darwin was un-aware of it— but is just as powerful.



FOSSILS: AN IMAGE GALLERY

All types of organisms can be found in fossils – including fish, plants and bugs.



How much time is depicted in the figure? What changes occur in the horse through time? Why do you think such changes may have occurred? What hypothesis and thought experiment could you employ to address these questions?







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MODEL SYSTEMS

In the horse example and the other family trees we discussed, it is clear that different species of organisms change and are related over time. This is the phenomenon that evolution describes and for which it provides a driving force of change: the environment. Evolution accounts for the similarity and the diversity within family trees and within the whole tree of life. But what does evolution actually act on? What is the molecular signature of change? We have discussed particular similarities (homologies) in traits like backbones and limb number. But now we are asking: what is the material that changes and is passed on, inherited from generation to generation, the material that accounts for the particular characteristics we use to classify organisms?

This material, this molecular signature, is called **genes**. Genes are made of **deoxyribo-nucleic acid**, or **DNA** for short. Genes and DNA are the **molecular substrate** that the environment interacts with to effect change over time.

What are genes exactly? We'll address this question at the conceptual level through Gregor Mendel's experiments and then, briefly at the contemporary molecular level.

Mendel developed the concepts of genes and genetics in the middle of the 1800's through a set of elegantly simple experiments.

Mendel used pea plants as his model system. Mendel started with pure-breeding pea plants that differed in one particular trait. 'Pure-breeding' means that a given plant showed the same characteristic or **phenotype** generation after generation. For example, Mendel studied pea plants that yielded only white flowers and another that yielded only purple flowers generation after generation. He then analyzed what happened to these traits in different situations. When he crossed pure-breeding whites with pure-breeding purples, the next generation was all purple. The white-flowered trait seemed to have disappeared, but when Mendel then crossed these purples to themselves and allowed their seeds to grow (many plants can be crossed with themselves in this fashion), white flowers reappeared in the second generation (Figure 12). What happened?

Figure 12: Mendel's pea plants – flower color throughout generations. Mendel took two plants – one that consistently produced purple flowers and one that consistently produced white flowers – and bred them. The offpsring contained all purple flowers. He then bred two of the offspring, both of which had purple flowers. Their offspring contained white flowers.



Scientists often use model systems to study complex problems. The idea is that because so much of nature is so similar across evolutionary time, one can study an analogue of a complex problem of interest in a relatively simple system. For example, instead of studying diseases in humans, due to ethical and other considerations, scientists will often recreate the disease in fruitflies or mice and study it in those organisms. The simpler, easier, and less expensive the system, the better. Of course, studying problems in non-human organisms does not take care of all the important ethical considerations, and many guidelines and regulations exist to ensure the welfare of animals.

Clearly, Buddhists have deep concerns about using animals for research. What do you think about such research? Regardless of their religious beliefs, scientists have to think carefully about how or if they will use animals in their research. I once heard His Holiness the Dalai Lama speak to this issue at a teaching in Dharamsala. He said that one has to carefully weigh the costs and benefits of such research in each particular case, and if the benefits to humans greatly outweigh the costs, then perhaps research on animals is acceptable. This is an issue that continues to require careful analysis and reflection.

વીષ લદ્દો બ રહવા થ સુ સે તેવા સુ અવ શ સુવા ન સે નુ ન બા गवित्र देश के जिन्ना दगार रें श्र झुना च क्रु द रा विना च द अश ષંદ્રિષ જેન મુખ્ય મુખ્ય માંચી તેલું શુને તે સુવ સ્વયત્વ ત્યારી.

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રૈષાં સ્થાનદાર્ગ્રેષા શાસ્યા સુદાયદેન સ્થેન્ છે. રેષા માં બદ્દે વે સુવા ગુરુ ખેંદ્વ

ਸ਼੶ਗ਼ੑੑੑੑੑਸ਼੶ਸ਼ਫ਼ੑਸ਼੶ਸ਼ੑ੶ਸ਼ਗ਼੶ਸ਼ਗ਼੶ਸ਼ਗ਼੶ਗ਼ੑ੶ਜ਼ੵੑ੶ਖ਼ਗ਼

³तेन'बनम'केन'क्रुम'स्वगंध्ययां युवाकेमा वर्ने'आक्रुम'दीयां युनि'खेन'खे'वियाददी'वाधीना रेणयास्वानमाने खेनाखे'

र्श्वेर-प्रदे:स्राक्तुन्नेगर-धेव वया

 गॅदणी हरी प्रयेत अळें व झानगप्त हरा होय कु हिंद रों पावन ग्रे में पार्थ का स्तर हाय का स्तर का स्राय की का स्व શું ૡવં શે જે રે વયા & જો સંતર સે બદા માં સ્રયય દ્વારા શે જી સુવ ઘવા વિંદા બધે બાદ શું રાય શે માં દા દા દા દા શ ॡॖ॔ॖॺॱॻऻढ़ॖ॓ॺॱख़॔ॺॱॻॖॖॖऀॱय़ड़ॖॊ॒ॴॻॺॱॾॖॖॊॴॱज़ॺॵॺऀॱॻऻॺॴॱय़ॕॱऀऄॺऻ ॻऻॺॸॱॸॕक़ॱय़ॸऀॱय़ॎऄॴय़ॻॖॖॸॱॸऀॻऻॻॺॱय़ॻॖॊॴॻॺॸॸॱ . कुषायवि विषाभीष विम्ना रेषायाने दे र्धेवाबा वबागुबावा किंराधुवाने ने पट्टी प्रयुत्त मा क्रुनियरी क्षुवाया कु (લુદ્ર શ્ર શકુર્વ છુદ્દ કરા) ર્જ્ને ર ગ્રેંચ સુર ગ્રુય ખેતી વેં વ ગ્રુદ ર વે રે ગયર તે સર પર ગ્રુ છે વર્ષ વ ગ્રુ ર વ ગ્રે ગયર ગ્

ૡ૾ૺ૱ૡ૬ૢૢૢૢૣਗ਼੶૽૿ૢ૽ૺૺ૾ઌૹ੶ૼૣૼૼૼૼૼૼૼ૱૽ૢ૾ૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૡૼૢૻ૱ૻૢૼૡૼૼ૱૽૾ૼૻૹ૾ૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼ મર્गેબઃર્ફ્યુન:કુેન:યાવનેવે:ઘન:વન:પવે:ર્જેચ:બુાવાચાય: ฮัสาลิ์เฉฮาตุริกาสกาพีรายตุลาร์เพลา ดิจา ૡ૬ૢਗ਼ૡઽ૾ૡઽૡ૾ૺૹૻૢૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૻૡ૽ૼૼૢૡૻઌૹૹૡ૾ૢૼૡ૽ૻ૽ਗ਼ૡઽૡ૽ૼૼૼૼ ૹૼૼૼૼૢઽ૾૽ઌૢૻૻૡૻૹ૽ૣૺઽૻૹ૽ૼૼૼૹૻૼઌ૽૾ૺઌ૾ૺઌૢૻઌ૾૾ઌ૽૿ઌૻ নৃশ্ব 5. ईुंन्-नर्गेश्वः श्रेन्-नश्वयागविणः त्रन्वः देन्-รศักขา สูงรสางการทางการสารการที่สารการที่การการที่การการที่ ^{য়}ॱॸॗॱॴय़॓ॱॸॖॖॱॴॾॕॴॱॵॺॱॻऻॺॸॱॸऀ॔ॺॱय़ॸऀय़॓ॱॺॕॻॱ न्मेंद्रमार्स्तुयामसुद्रमायावेमाद्रमार्धेमार्धेद्रा यिदा षीबादेवायहुवायदीयद्वीर्भवत्राष्ट्रवार्थाः णवरूःश्रूटरूः र्सें सें लागविषारू हे स्व में पर्य रा য়৾৾ঀ৾৾৾ঢ়ৼ৾৾য়ৣ৾ঀ৽য়৾৾ঀ৾য়ৼয়৸৾ঀয়ৼয়৾য়ৼয়৾য়ৼয়৾য়ৼ৾৾য় રકું તકુરકર્યું નાયાજીર શેલ છું જેવાયાયા "गर्वेन"र्श्नेव"ग्यम"यव"र्धेगम्गयम्"न्येन स्निनम् ૡૺૼૼૼ૽ૣ૾ૺૡ૾૾ૺ૾૿ૡ૾૾ૺૺૼૼૼૻૡૡૢ૾ૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૻ૽ૢૡ૽ૼૡ૽ૻૡ૽ૼૡ૽ૢૼૡૻ૽ૼૻ૽ૡ૽ૼૡૡૻ૽ૼૻ૽ૡ૽૾ૡ૽૾ૡ૽ૻૡૡૡૻ

<u> উষ্ণ দ</u>্যান স্থ্রু রাজি দ্য

 \mathfrak{a} લ્ব'રેण'य'क्त्रब्र'ग्रीब'र्हेण'५९ँ८'ठव'ग्री'५ग्रा५' ાયના રેનાચ રકે લેન કેર સ્નનચ રુચ વય રુચ સુ રચે. ર્જ્વચાયના મર્ગેયાર્ શુંન છેન છે. બેના ને ભૂમ છેન પ્રતે શુવાદ્દેવ શે રેવાયાં વે લવે ખેવાદે વિયય વશુત્ર ગુર ଦି ଓ କୁଣ୍ଡ କଣ୍ଡ କୁଣ୍ଡ इस्रमायव र्स्तव फुरुरुर पट्र स्रस्तर के प्रमा <u>ગ</u>દ્રાયા શું સુદ મેં દ્રાયા સે સું ગાય દું દા જ્વા છે. દે ગાય છે દે ગાય છે. દે ગાય છે ગાય છે. દે ગાય છે ୲୩୩'ବି୩'୩'ଙ୍କ୍'ନ୍ମ ନ୍ନିଷ୍ୟ ମତ୍ୟ ଶ୍ରିଷ୍ୟ ଅନ୍ଥ୍ୟ ଅନ୍ଥ୍ୟ ਗ਼૾ૢૢૢૺ੶ઽૣ૾ૡ૾ૺ૾ૡઽૼૻૹૼઌૻૻ૾ૹ૾૽ઌ૽ૻ૽૽ૺૼૼૹ૽૾ૢ૽ૡૻઽૼૢૻૻઽૢ૽ૺ૿ૡ૽૾ઌૻ૽૱ૹૻૻૻૻૻૻૡૻૻ ર્જેળપ્યને ખેત્રા નુચેર ત્રા ર્જી બાર્ શુંન શે જી અર્જન નુસ્ટ गुवतुः भरत कुः अर्ळतुः अरूः र्रेदिः नुमरः मेशा ळत् के मेगः धः इस्रयः ग्रीयः नुषः दयः नुषः सु। सेतिः झेटः नुः वृत् રૈળાચારીવા'નકું લિવ'કુંન જીવે જવા છે. ने'ग्रागर'नु'यहमाही यांबि'न्हार'नेर'न्डे'बिय'डेन'ग्री' थॅन् ने'वे'वन्त्र'ययाम्'विमाहे'र्ठयाञ्च'यान्यूया ૾વૈઽૻૹૄૢ૽૽ૼૼૣૼૼ૱ૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢઽૻૻૻઌ૾ૡૼૻૻઽ૽ૼૼ૱ૼૹ૾૽ૹ૾૽ૹ૾૽ૡ૽ૻૡૻ૾૾ૡ૽૾ૡ૽ૻ૱ૻઌ૾ૡૼૻ นดิ.ซ.ล่สาญที่ปี รู.เล็น.ล่งชาว ซาลากูสามตร નુકુ લેન કુન ખત્ર લુગય મથા જુબ ફુંન શે ગવન र्नेवरगुवर्नमा गुलवर्भमानुनर्वोर्झेगळगुरुगुः न्देर्नेवन्दर्यद्वेभानवेग्वह्वनःगविग्यसः ह्रेंवगाुवः Mendel hypothesized that a plant has two copies (or **alleles**) of each of its genes, one inherited from each parent. So, there are three possible gene combinations (or **genotypes**) for any one gene. For example, if big-P stands for purple and little-p for white, then any plant has one of any of three possible genotypes for pea plant flower color: PP, Pp, or pp. Mendel proposed that the PP and Pp genotypes both result in purple flowers because big-P purple is **dominant** over little-p white, and that only pp results in white flowers, because little-p is **recessive** to big-P. This explained Mendel's results as can be seen in Fig 13 illustrated in what are called Punnett squares. You can see in the squares that Mendel's hypothesis predicts two things: that you will see white-flowered plants only in the second generation (Pp X Pp), and also how many of those white-flowered plants you will see in relation to the purple-flowered ones.

Indeed, Mendel's experiments with flower color and many other pea plant traits were consistent with his hypothesis and led to his development of these basic genetic principles:

- 1. Every gene has two alleles, one from each parent.
- 2. These two alleles separate during gamete (sperm or egg) formation and wind up in different gametes. In Figure 13, possible gametes are indicated by the letters on the sides of the Punnett squares. One sperm and one egg get together to result in offspring with the genotype that is shown inside each of the four small squares inside the one larger square. We will discuss how gametes are made in Life Sciences Primer Year 2: Genes and Cells.
- 3. Different alleles of the same gene, one from each parent, can result in variation in inherited traits.
- 4. If the two alleles for one gene are different, one may be dominant and the other recessive, so that the dominant trait is the only one that is seen in the organism.







Figure 13: Punnett Squares. In the top figure, Mendel crossed two "pure" plants – one with white flowers and one with purple flowers. In the second figure, he bred two of the offspring from the original cross. In the last figure, gametes are indicated inside the dark blocks on the sides of the square. Inside the squares, the four combinations represent the genotypes of the offspring.

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सु'वेत'ग्नु'गह्यगम्। हेर'गे'रेस'पदे'र्न्स'र्न्स' केन'

२२२७४२ क्षेत्रम्बन्द्रम् द्रम्बन्द्रम्बन्द्रम्बन्द्रम्बन्द्रम्बन्द्रम्बन्द्रम्बन्द्रम्बन्द्रम्बन्द्रम्बन्द्रम्बन्द्रम्बन्द्रम्बन्द्रम्बन्द

᠊᠋ᡷ᠋᠋ᠳᢩᢦᠡ᠊᠍ᢟ᠋ᢦ᠇ᡏᡏᢅᡄ᠊ᡕ᠋᠊ᢋ᠂᠋ᠳ᠋ᡷᠳ᠄᠊᠋ᡗᡃ᠊ᡬᠯ᠄ᢉᡆᡃ᠋ᢍ᠋᠋᠇ᡭ᠀᠋ᢦ᠋᠂ᡅᢆᠬᢍᢛ᠋ᡷ᠂ᡷᢄᠮᠴ᠊ᠴᠺᡬ᠋᠉᠋᠋ᢍ᠋᠂᠗ᠴ᠋ᠴ᠋ᢋ᠋ᢍᢦ᠂᠊ᡃᢧᢐ᠋᠉᠊᠊ᡍᢩᠵ

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र्बेरायग्रेकावकानायार्वेनाय्यकासुनकायवितन्दाक्षतनुप्तनुकायाधेवा नयेर्रेका ११ मधेवत् ᡎᡆ᠌ᢂ᠊ᡊ᠊᠋ᠭᡆᢦ᠉᠊ᢋ᠋ᠴ᠋ᢦ᠉ᢋ᠋ᡎᡆ᠋᠊ᠵᠧ᠆᠋ᡆ᠋᠆ᢋ᠋᠋᠋ᡩ᠋ᡎ᠋᠋ᡎᡜᡎ᠋ᢂ᠋᠊ᢧᢆᢧ᠍᠍ᡠᡎ᠋ᢂ᠋᠊ᡜᠵ᠄ᡬᠱᡬ᠋ᡬ᠕᠋ᡎᡊᢩ᠋ᢒᠼ᠄ᠴᠴ᠆ᠴᢘᡃᢋ᠂ᠱ᠋ᡪ ાવચલાનચર સાસુદ રે નદાવચલાનગાર સાસુદ રે ચલુ ચાનુ વદુ શાય ગાય જીદુ વદ્ દિવા વગુદ રા દે સુર <u>ॖ</u>नूूूूूूूूूू न्द्र्द्दे तर्श्वे स्रिंग्वे देने मुबाद द्वार स्थाय दुवा वित्य के स्वाय के स

শশ্বন্দির্ব-দ্রুম্বা

अपनेत्रेव का विंदा यो का देवा का स्वार्ग्ध यावे स्वते यावका खुयाका दृदा र द्वी वा यते याव का या ग्री देवा की या रदी दिया.

ᡏᢆ᠋᠋ᠳ᠋ᡃ᠋ᠵ᠈ᡏᡝ᠊ᢐ᠋᠋᠋᠋ᢋ᠈᠊ᡃᢧᢆ᠂᠋᠊᠋ᡷᡃᡗ᠋ᢆᠲ᠆᠋ᡎ᠆᠋ᢩᢂᠵ᠋᠉ᠺᡬᠴ᠋᠋ᡞᡧ᠋ᠴ᠋ᢌ᠉᠋᠗᠋᠋ᢋ

᠊ᡳ᠋᠋᠋ᠬ᠉᠋᠍᠗᠋᠋᠋ᡆ᠄᠋ᢓ᠉᠄ᡚᢅ᠆᠋᠋ᡪᡄᡆ᠋ᡎᡊ᠋ᡲ᠂᠙ᡔ᠄᠋ᢖ᠋᠉᠂ᡍ᠋᠋ᡷᡃᡗᡇᡄᢙᢆ᠋᠋᠋ᡎ᠋᠁ᢦᡃ᠉᠋᠋᠊ᡞ᠋᠅ᠵ᠋ᢋ᠉᠂ᢓᢆᠴ᠉ᡚ᠉ᡏ᠆᠄᠊ᡆᢩ᠉ᠿ᠉ᡏ᠆᠄᠊ᡆᢩ᠉ᡬ নপ্ৰশ (অন'ৰা ๚ลูกุลามีนางิกลา (การป รูมานาง เล่ามีนาง เล่ามีนาง เล่ามีนาง เล่านาง เล่านาง เล่านาง เล่านาง เล่านาง b.b. a ण्इरुर्ण्येत्रः हेंग्यां वी PP, PP, यहात्रा PP पठवायीत्रा देवे केर्ट्रायेंहर्णवायव्यक्षां के प्रतित्र के देवावा ৼૣૻૹૻૻૡૡૢૼૹૻૻૡૢઌૻૹૻૻ PP ૡઽૻ PP ઌૼૺઌ૽૿ઌ૽ૼૺ૾ૺ૱ૡૢૼઌૻૡૼઙૹૻૹૢ૽ૼ૱૽ૼૺૡૻૹૺૻઌૼઌૻૹૢૺ૾ૻ૱ૡૻૻ૱૱૱૽ૢ૾ૺ૾૾ઌૺ૾ૡૺૼ૽ૹૄૼ૱ૹૼૡૼૡ૽૾ૼૺ૱૽૾ૺઙ૽૽ૹ૽ P สุขุณชสาขี) ผูเพลาวิ เซาะมีณา สุขุณชสาขี) นามาร์เอาส์สาขาวิ เอานี้สายเป็นเป็นเป็นเป็น เป็นเป็น เป็น (२५ूबाखुणबा PP ण्डिणासुदि:अह्णादन्नबाखु: क्रिंगिपानगपारायें:ठवाक्रे) आ नेदे:क्रुं अळवाके रहुपानेबा P हणबा ठव् ग्रे'नगर र्ये'ने'ळे दीषा P ह्याषा ठव् ग्रे'सु अव याषा भेवा नमे से के या थेव याषा थेव खेषा यावना ने का वा दय รูาตุสณาสานติสาขี้ ਧੁਨ੍ਹਿਆਪਾਕਿੱਕ੍ ਨਾਬੇਂਕ੍ਰਾਪਾਨੇ ਨ੍ਰਨਾ (PP X PP)। ਧੁਨ੍ਹਿਆ ਨਰਆਨੇ ਨਾਘਨਾ ਕੇ ਨਿੱਧਾ ਗੁਾਕਰਾ ਗੁੰ ਡਿੱ ਸਿਨਾ ਧੀ ਸ਼ੁਨਆਪਾ ਕੇਂ ਆ ਨੇ ਕੇ



न्ये रेश १७





Pp



CHARLES DARWIN AND GREGOR MENDEL



Charles Darwin



Gregor Mendel

Charles Darwin, the father of evolution, and Gregor Mendel, the father of genetics, were contemporaries, but they never met. Darwin, an Englishman, lived from 1809-1882. Mendel, born into a German family in the Austro-Hungarian Empire, lived from 1822-1884. Mendel became a monk in 1847; as a monk, he was a biology and math teacher. In his spare time, Mendel did groundbreaking research using pea plants (see inset figure). Mendel's careful experimentation with peas led to his formulation of the concept of genes that carry the information for characteristics of living organisms. Mendel's intellectual acumen, like Darwin's, was stunning. He developed and tested hypotheses with only the materials available to any gardener. Mendel's findings, together with Darwin's ideas,

revolutionized biological thought. Recent evidence suggests that Darwin did have access to the work in which Mendel described his research on peas, but Darwin either never read it or never realized its relevance to his own ideas. And actually, as is often the case when great ideas are introduced, no one appreciated Mendel's work until decades after his death. Only when the rest of the scientific world caught up to Mendel's ideas, did it become clear how fundamental his experiments and conclusions were. In the century following Mendel and Darwin's historic work, DNA was shown to be the stuff that made up the genes that Mendel had postulated, and DNA and genes were shown to be the hereditary material, the stuff that Darwin's evolution and the environment act upon to effect change in organisms.



Now that we understand Mendel's concepts of genes and genetics, we move to the 20th century when scientists began to appreciate Mendel's concepts at the molecular level. We will spend a good bit of time in Life Sciences Primer Year 2 going into the details of the molecular nature of genes, how genes are controlled, and how they operate in a cell. In terms of our discussion of evolution, here are a few molecular details about DNA we should know:

- Virtually all organisms have DNA as their genetic material.
- All DNA is composed of the same four chemicals, adenine (A), guanine (G), thymine (T) and cytosine (C). The order and sequence of these few chemicals is what accounts for all different genes and their differences in all organisms. For example, the purple allele and the white allele of the pea-plant flower color gene have different DNA sequences.
- As we discussed, all organisms are made of cells. Each cell in an organism has the same DNA as every other cell in that organism.

गुवरेरेरेव्रबर्टेखेव्खेधेस्वाळण्वेरेषा अर्ह्यूट्रब्य्या व्यक्त्या के मुवर्या से सुवाधीवा

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ઽૻૐૹૻઽ૾ૺઌૹૻૻૡૻૹૻઽઽૻઽ૾ઌૹૻૡૼૹૹૢૢૼઽૻૡઽ૽ૺઽઙ૽ૢૺઽૻૡૢૼૼૡૹ૾ૢૼૼઽ૽ૹ૽૿ૢ૱૱ઌૹ૽૿ૢ૽ૺૼ૿ૡૻૹૢૼૡૻ૱ૹૹૡ૾ૺૹ૽૿૽૽૱ૻઌૹૣ দ'ন্নীঝ' ૠ૱ૹૻૻ૽ૼૢૼૹૻૻૠૻૻઌૹૻૡ૽૾ૼૡ૾ૺ૾ૺૼૼૻ૾ૹૼ૱૾ૺઌૻૻૻ૱૱ૹૻ૾૽૽૽ૺૹૻ૽૽૽ૢૼૼૼૼૼઌૻૹૻૡૼઌૻઌૻઌૹ૱ઌૡ૾૽ૺૡૻૻ૽ૻ૱ૻૹ૾૽ૡૻૻ૱ૻૹ૾૽ૡૻૻૹૻ૽ૡૻૻ૱ૻૹ૾ૼૡૻ ᠋᠊᠋᠋᠋᠋᠋᠋ᠵ᠋᠋᠋᠋᠋ᡎᢙ᠋᠉ᠴ᠋ᡘ᠆ᡎ᠈᠆ᡷ᠗᠋ᠴ᠋ᠴ᠆ᡷᡎ᠋᠉ᡓ᠉ᢧᢆᡃ᠋᠋᠋᠋᠋᠋ᡎᡆ᠉᠄ᡁᡎᢂ᠋᠆ᡘ᠋᠋᠋᠋᠋᠋᠆᠋᠋᠋

શ્રે:રે:ૹૣ૽ૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼ૱૱૱



ळर:येश्रे:टर:सेवा



ૡથેવા ૡૹૄૢૢૣૣૣૣૣૣૣૣૠૡ૽૾ૺૼૼૡઌૻઌ૽૾ૹ૾૾ૡૻ૾ૡ૽૾ૡ૽૾ૡ૽ૻૡ૽૿ૡ૽ૻૡ૽૿ૡ૽ૻૡ૽૿ૡ૽ૻૡ૽૿ૡ૽૿ૡ૽ૻૡ૽૿ૡ૽૿ૡ૽૿ૡ૽૿ૡ૽૿ૡ૽૿ૡ૽૿ૡ૽૿ૡ૽૿ૡ૽૿ૡ૽૿ૡ૽૿ૡ ᠵ᠋᠋᠆ᠵ᠆ᡭ᠊᠋ᡎ᠋ᢦᠠ᠄᠊᠌ᢞᢩᢦ᠋᠂ᡭ᠊ᡢᡎᠴᡭ᠄᠋ᠭᠴ᠋ᢍ᠄ᢓᡎ᠄ᡬ᠄ᢩᡍᢆ᠆ᡪ᠄᠗ᢋ᠂ᡷᠬ इस्राणवेश्वास्त्री सेंगाणरेगाम्याधेवाधमा यवार्स्तुवागहवा वृषः धुणः दर्धनः धुरुः श्रेनः वेतु न धुवः है ते श्रे से गृषः धेवः यते'न्रर'मेत्र'मेु'र्थे' १४०९-१४४१ मर'दर्ळे'म्बुगुर्य नुष्याया अष्य र्ते म्हर छे रे प्यव कुयायया गार्म्य वार्म्य वार् धुे'ग्रें' १९११-१९९९ घर पर्ळे पतुगुष गुष थेंदा होत วิณายิ่านี้ 1162 येंत्र यु यत्र लुगुषा यु याध्वे यवित्र ५. प्रिंट जीबाक्की टेंद्र राज्य या स्वार्थ स्व स्वार्थ स्वा स्वार्थ स्वार्थ स्वार्थ स्वार्थ स्वार्थ स्वार्य स्वार्थ स्वार्थ स्वार्थ स्वार्थ स्वार्थ स्वार्थ स्वार्थ स्वार्थ स्वार्य स्वार्थ स्वार्थ स्वार्थ स्वार्थ स्वार्य स्वा स्वार्य स्वा स्वार्य स्वाय स्वाय स्वार्य स्वार् मुत्र मुन्ना रहा वी पर पासे हा सुरा में ही सा सुत रे भा નજ્ઞુત્રજ્ઞ (વર્ત્સ વદુવા દ્વે રેજા વ્યર્જ્ણ) વિંદ વીજા વાગ્રવ ववःळेवः^२गेषःश्ववःदेशःश्वेःभेदःर्वेणःनङ्घ्यन्यःयदेःन्देशः षविरः यहवा नधुनः गुरुषः यः यः यहेवः वस्त्र दर्छे यवेत्रः ૹ૽ૢૢૺૡ૱ૡ૾૾ઌૻઌ૽૿ૡૢૹૻૻૡ૽૾ૺૡૢઽ૱ૹૻૢૼૼૼૼૼૼૹ૽૾ૢ૽ૺ૱ૡઙ૾૽૱ ਖ਼ୖ୕ਗ਼ॺ੶ਸ਼ঢ়ॺੑ੶ฃॖୖ੶ୖୖୖଽୄਗ਼ॺ੶ਞੑॺ੶ਗ਼ੑੑੑੑੑੑਸ਼ੑੑਸ਼ਗ਼ੑਸ਼੶ੑੑੑਸ਼ੑੑ੶੶ਖ਼ नदेःरेणबःमदेःगलुन्ःखुणबःगहरुःयःषन्दुनःर्थेन्। ઽૠ૾ૺ૱ૡ૽૿૱ૡ૽૾ૼ૱૱૱૱ૡ૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱ ^ઌ૾ૡૻૺૼૼ૱ૹ[ૣ]ઌ૽૾ૺૼ૾ૺઌ૽ૻૢઽૢૻૻૼૼ૱ૡ૽ૡ૽૽ૡ૽ૻૡ૽ૻ૱ <u>ঀ৾৾য়ৼৼৼ৾ঀ</u>৽৵ড়ঀ৾৾ঀ৾৾৾ঀ৾৾ঀ৾৾ঀ৾৾৾৾ঀ৾৾৾ঀ৾৾৾ৼ৾য়৾৾য়৾৾ঀ৾৾৾ <u>નુધુન ગુજા તર સેવ શુ રેવા પાનન એવ તેવ શુ કેવ</u>



ર્શેવ'୩ૢૡ૾ૺૹ'૱ઽૡ૱ૺઌ૾૽ૹ૾૾ૹ૾૽ૢ૽૾ઽઽૼૼૹૻઽ૾૾ઌૢૻઽઌૺૼૺૼૼૡૢૻૹૣઌૻઌૻ૱ઌૹૻ૾ૡ૾૽ઽ૽૽૾ૢઽૼૡૢૹૻૹ૾ઌૹૻઌ૾ૼઽૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢ૽૾ૡ૽ૺ૱ૹૻૻ૾ૼૼઌ૾ૻૹ૽૾૱ૹૻ૾૾૽ૼ૱ૡ૽ૺ૱૱૱૱ વલે 'નયર' हળજાળાં લેન' ગુજ 'વા એ લ' ને બ' શું 'જ્ઞ લ અલે 'લેન' લદ્દ વા ર્સેન્ટ શું 'બ શું બાર બનન' બાર જેને 'ને ને 'શું ' બળ' ૢૼૻૼૹૼૼૼૼૡૻૻૼૼૼૼૡૼૻૢૡૻૻૢ૾ૡૻૻઌ૽ૻ૱૽ૻૡ૽૿૱ૻૹ૾ૣઌૹ૽ૻ૽૾ૼૺૻઌ૾૿ઌૻૻૹ૽ૻ૽ૻૼૼૻૹૻઌૹૣૻઌૹૻૻઌૡૹૢૻ૾ૡૡૻૻ૱૾૾ૡ૽૾ઌૻૹ૽૱૽ૺ૱ૻૻૡ૽૿૱ૻૻ૱ ୩ศสาขูลาฃู๛๚ิเรารสารขุกลารฐีราสูเมคสายูรามิรา สมเด็กาสาชสาริกามากสมสาชิมเมิสาวิณ શુઃરેવૃાપ્યવે 'ર્વે] हॅ्वृब्ब: શુ: ह्वे, ब्यु: ब्यु: ब्यु: क्यु: क्यू: क्यु: สุมฺॺ[ॣ]ॸऀॱऌ॔য়ॱॻॖऀॖऺॹॖॖ॑ॱॹय़ॱॻढ़ॎऺऀय़॓ॱॸय़ॱय़ढ़ऺऀॺॱॶॺॱग़ॖॵॷॵॻॺॵय़ॕॸॱय़ॖऺॺॱय़ॖॖॖॻॱॻॱॻॖॖॖॖॖॖॖॖॖॖॖॻॱऻॱऀऄॺॱऄॵॸय़ॱय़ॸॱॱऄॖॺॱ णहेत्रग्रीर्षग्वेग्द्युर्षन्ध्रेरन्धें रुवग्धे रेणयने तणयहेव वर्षग्ये रेंग्वहु खणणहेवा वीद्देश्व विश्वेव के क्रेंत्र ग्री गवत्

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- The genes, acted on by the environment, encode proteins and other molecules that do much of the work and constitute most of the structures in organisms.
- Only the genes that are 'needed' in a particular cell at a particular time are used or 'turned on' to make protein.
- Humans have in total about 30,000 genes on 23 pairs of chromosomes in each of the cells in our body. It is estimated that the human body has 10 trillion cells.
- We inherit a version of each chromosome from each parent. Each pair of chromosomes is nearly identical in DNA sequence, but there are a few differences.
- A given species has all of the same genes, but some of these exist in different versions (as reflected in DNA sequence differences like that seen in the pea plant flower color gene) that allow for slight variation in traits of individuals within that same species population.

To keep our perspective here, look at the figure below that summarizes this information about genes. We see that the DNA that makes up genes is inside cells, and we are reminded that, in multicellular organisms like us or pea plants, cells together make up tissues, which together make up organs, which together make up organisms.

A significant contribution to any trait or characteristic of any living thing comes from the genes; genes and the DNA that composes them are the currency of evolution. Therefore it makes sense that the more related are two organisms, the more similar their DNA. When the DNA changes, genes can change, and thus traits can change. Thus, scientists also use DNA similarities and differences to develop phylogenies, and measure degree of relatedness, and variation over time.





TISSUES

ORGANS



ORGANISMS



DNA is the genetic material of nearly all known organisms; it consists of four chemicals -- Adenine, Guanine, Cytosine, and Thymine. These chemicals bind together in a specific way which we'll discuss in future primers. The way in which they bind lends DNA its **secondary structure** -- a double helix, seen below.



Genes are pieces of DNA that encode specific proteins that work to keep an organism alive and constitute its cells, tissues, and organs. Genes are grouped on chromosomes. Humans have 23 pairs of chromosomes. Maps of human chromosomes are known as karyotypes, as seen below.



EVOLUTIONARY CONSERVATION AT THE MOLECULAR LEVEL

Consider the implications: *all* living organisms have DNA as their genetic material. One strong idea that follows from this is that since DNA is the substrate for evolutionary change, the *processes* of evolutionary change are most likely the same for all living

ગા ટે જોવ જો વે તથે બ ત્ શુ માં દે તે ગો તે માં દે માં દે તે માં દે મા મા માં દે માં



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यापत गरिं र्ये ने रेगाया स्वायावि क्रुं ने प्वा रेगाया रेगाया स्वापत र रेगाया स्वाया र रेगाया स्वाया र रेगाये के के के के स्वाया र रेगाया र रेगाय ॻऻऀऄॖॺॱग़ॖॖॖॖ॓ॱॸॆॱऄॺॱऄॱऴॻॺॱॻऻॿऀॱਘॸॱॺख़ॖॕॸॺॱख़ॖ॔ऀऀऀॱॻय़ॺॸॱय़ॸॖऺॸॱॻॺॺॱॶॻॺॱॷॺॱऄऀॺॱऄॱख़ॱय़ॹॖॸॱॸॱज़ॖ॒ॸॱॻज़ॖ ୖୖୖୖୖ୶୩୶୲ୄୖଝ୶୲୶୲୵ୄୄୢୄୠ୷୷୵୶ୄୠୄ୵୲୶୲ୠୄ୵୲ୄ୕ୡୄ୩୶୲୶୲୵ୄୄୄୠ୷୷୲୵ୄୠୄ୷୷୲ୖ୴ୡ୲୲ୖୄ୵୲୳୶୲୶୲ଌ୕୶ୖ୷୳୲୳୲ଽୡ୶୶୲ୢୖୄୗ୲୶ୖୖୄ୵୲ୠ୶ ૹ૾ૺૹૢ૽ૺઽૻઌ૽૿ૡઽૻૹૡૼઽઽૹ૾ૡઽૻૹૡ૾ૺૹૺૹૡૢૻઌઌ૽ૼૼૺૡ૽ૻઌ૾૾ૺૹ૽ૢ૾ૺૡ૱ૼૹૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૡૹૡ૾૽ૡ૾ૺૡૢ૿ઌૻૡૻૡૼૡ૾૾ૹ૾૽ઌૡ૽ૼૡ૾૽ૡ૽ૼૡૡ૽ૼૡૡ૽ૼૡ૽ૼૡ

भ्रत्मकाग्री प्रदेशियायान् द्वयायन् प्रत्ये सुराव स्था व्यवस्था व्यवस्थाने व्यवस्थाने प्रत्ये का स्थाने स्थान મસુન્વૅોંભા નેન્સ્ટ જેંગરેવાયા સ્થાવાન અયા શુના અલે તે જોવે જોને નવા સાસુન વી બુલા છે વન નુ વ્યેન પ્રસ્અર્થે લેના શેન્ટ ᠵ᠋᠋᠋᠋ᠵᡄ᠋᠋ᡗᢆᡎᠴ᠋ᠴ᠆ᡏ᠆ᠮ᠘ᢋ᠋ᡎᠴ᠋ᠬᡐᢛ᠋ᡍ᠈ᢩᡩᢋ᠋ᡎᠴ᠋ᠴᠴᢐᢦᠬᡅᠬᡄ᠆᠋ᡷᢦᢆᡊᢆᢩᡆᡅ᠆ᡷᢦ᠆ᡄᢅ᠋᠋ᡠ᠋ᠵᡸᢋ᠋᠋ᡨᡐᢆᢓ᠆ᡏ᠋

<u></u> ફળાષા શે તર રાગવે છુન પત્ર જ્યાં શે તર દુન જોવા

ॡॖॖॖॖॖ_ॖड़ॾॸॱॲॸ॔ॱॻ॓ढ़॓ॱॻॖॖॖ॓ॺॱॻॖॖ॓ॴ क़ॖॖ॓ॱॷॺॱढ़॓ॱॸ॓ॻॺॱॻऻऄॻॱॻॊऄॕॻऻॺॱय़ॸॖॖॺॱक़ॸॱॻऀॱॻॎ॓ॸॱॻऻड़ॖॻऻॺॱॺॕॱॺॕॸॱॻॎॖॸॱ

<u>ગ</u>ુદ્ર સે ' ત્ર : સ' લુદ્ર : બુષ્પ એં દ્ર ' પ' તે દ્ર

ઽૻૹૻૼૻઽઽઽ૽ઌ૽૿ૡૻૻૹૻૻ૽ઽૺૡૹૻૹૻૼૹૻઌૣ૽૱ૢઌૹૻૻઌ૽ૻ૱ૻઌૼૹૻૹૢ૾ૢૢૼૢૻૡૡ૾૾ૡૼૡૻ૽ૼૡૼૡૻ૽ૼૡૻ૽ૡૻ૽ૡૻઌૹ૽૿ઌ૾ૻૡૻૻ૱ૡૻૹ૾૾ૡૻ૽ૡૡ૱ૡ૽ૻૡ ᡃ᠋᠊ᡃᢧᢆᡃ᠋᠋᠋᠋᠋᠊᠋ᢟ᠍᠍ᡎ᠋᠋᠋᠆ᡷᡭ᠄᠋ᢋᡄ᠊ᡃᡆ᠋ᢆᡃ᠁ᡃ᠋ᠬ᠋᠋ᡭ᠋᠆ᡊᠴ᠋ᡩᢋ᠋᠋᠋ᢄᢞ᠉᠔ᢋ᠉᠔ᡬ᠃ᠺᠱ᠋᠋᠋᠆ᡷᡘ᠉᠋᠋ᠴ᠆ᡪᢅᢧ᠋ᢁᡔᡸᡝᢂᢅᡪ᠄ᢅᢂᢋ᠉᠔ᡬ᠉ᡬ᠕ᡩ᠋᠉ᡬᡀ

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<u>ને</u>વે વૃત્ત્વી સુત્ત બન્ન અન્ અન્ સુવ શેવ બેંનુ

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न्दा सुदःशुम् न्यदःयंग्वरुषःशुमायरावान् वद्येवार्थेनः अने स्वर्भे या की की स्वर्भ स्व स्वर्भ स स्वर्भ स्वर *स्वा*द्वय्रवार्थेवायात्रुपवार्थीः हेटरनु रनुयात्रवायात्रवार्थेन रहेटर) के रे रे के मानु मार के की मार के मानु क मानु के नःन्वित् वेते युषः ग्रेडें संग्वुनुषा ग्रे देसंन्या या के स

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organisms. This is worth repeating: not only are evolutionary processes conceptually the same, as Darwin so brilliantly demonstrated, but the very chemical substrate, DNA, that underlies these processes is the same. This logic leads us to another enormously striking piece of evidence for Darwin's ideas. Think about it: (1) Darwin hypothesized that all organisms share a common ancestor—all organisms are related; (2) Evolution '**conserves**' the things, mechanisms, or processes that work because they give organisms survival advantages; (3) All organisms use DNA as their genetic material; (4) So, this strongly suggests that the original common ancestors, the roots of Earth's family tree of life, successfully used DNA to store and pass on information—so successfully that evolution conserved DNA and its functions in all organisms that have evolved in the billions of years since.

Not only is DNA conserved by evolution in all organisms, but the *sequences* of the DNA chemicals that encode particular genes are also conserved. The more important the function of a gene, the more similar the sequences of those genes are throughout the family tree of life. For example, all cells need energy to function; this has been true since the very first cell. So, you should not find it too surprising that genes involved in making energy are conserved and very similar. Figure 14 shows the protein sequence (encoded by the DNA sequence) for a gene/protein involved in energy production. You can see that organisms throughout the tree of life, from rice to humans have this gene, *and* the sequences of it are very, very similar, that is they have been conserved over millions and millions of years of evolution. We discuss DNA and how it is converted into proteins in much more detail in Life Sciences Primer ; for now, the major concept to grasp is that proteins with similar functions have similar sequence across evolutionary time. Scientists actually use the amount of change, together with estimates on how often such change happens in these genes, to build family trees and estimate roughly how far apart in time two organisms shared a common ancestor.



Figure 14: Protein sequence of cytochrome b5 showing homology across species -- including cow, chicken, horse, human, and rice. A small, stylized section of the protein sequence (a direct reflection of the gene DNA sequence) of a protein called cytochrome b5 involved in energy production in cells. The protein, its function, and its sequence are conserved by evolution in nearly all eukaryotic cells. The shaded areas indicate protein sequence that is identical (perfectly conserved) among several species that are separated by millions of years of evolutionary time. Each single letter stands for one of the 20 amino acids that the DNA encodes.

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HOW THE ENVIRONMENT AFFECTS DNA

When there is a change in DNA that alters an organism's traits, and if that change gives the organism an advantage in its environment, then the change is likely saved by evolution. Thus, DNA is the substrate on which evolution acts, the paper on which we can read the history of organisms and populations. The next step, then, is to consider *how* changes in DNA happen.

The environment affects which DNA and genes occur and which gene versions are predominant in a population of related organisms (a species). The environment does this through three different levels of action: (1) at the micro-level of particular genes in cells inside an individual organism; (2) at the level of the interaction between genes within an individual organism and the environment of that organism; and (3) at the level of the proportion of the population containing a particular version of a gene.

CHANGES IN DNA SEQUENCE: MUTATION

Changes within an individual organism's DNA that makes up its genes are rare and random. However, those rare and random DNA changes that happen to give organisms an advantage are conserved by evolution and passed on to the next generations. The *conservation* of change, therefore, is *not* random.

DNA changes in a particular organism happen through a process called **mutation**, an alteration in the DNA sequence. Mutations are caused by at least three different mechanisms. One is when mistakes are made in the cellular environment in copying the DNA. As mentioned above, each cell has a copy of all the genes of that organism, and every time a cell divides (which is very often for most cells), the cell must copy all this DNA exactly. Many proofreading mechanisms have evolved in our cells to ensure such mistakes are rare, but they *do* happen.

Mutations can also be caused by environmental agents, such as ultraviolet light from the sun or certain poisons called **mutagens** (Figure 15). Such mutations are also often detected and repaired by cellular mechanisms. Even when these mutations that remain unrepaired affect specific cells, they are only passed on to the next generation, they are

only substrates of evolution, if they occur in the DNA of the **gamete** cells—the sperm or _{Figure 15: Common Types of Mutagens} eggs—of the parents. Only the DNA in gametes is inherited by offspring.

Speaking of gametes, a third way DNA changes occur is when sperm and egg develop in a father or mother and when they get together in the process called **fertilization**—in

IN-DEPTH: EFFECT OF CHANGE

You might notice that there is a tension here. On the one hand, the change that drives evolution can come about only when the DNA sequences of genes are changed; in other words DNA change = gene change = phenotype change. On the other hand, change can be dangerous, even deadly, so processes have evolved to prevent DNA change (or too much of it) from happening. On the other hand, sexual reproduction probably evolved in large part as a mechanism to safely increase genetic diversity.

Ionizing radiation Ultraviolet radiation Base analogs, which substitute for DNA bases and cause copying errors Intercalating agents, such as ethidium bromide, that get inserted between bases in the DNA double helix Alkaloid plants Bromine Sodium azide Benzene

আঁদৰাঞ্জনাতৰ শ্ৰীপ্ৰস্তুম দ্বলাস্ক্ৰমণ্ডীন শ্ৰী নিৰাশ বিশ্বেয় বৃংধ্ৰয

্বনি:ইন্ধা ୬५ অঁদেশান্তন:তব:গ্রী:বেয়ান:বাগর্রান:ব্রি:গ্রী:ইণাঝা

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વ સુગુર જ્ઞુન બનેન છેન ખાલે જ અઠવ છે જ ખાલે છે ન

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ইঝন্দরি র্দ্রিण দতর্ম র্মা

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both processes, the DNA material mixes to create unique combinations of genes (and thus traits) that result in unique individuals. A major biologic reason for sex is that it allows the development of this increased **genetic diversity**. The more genetic diversity a species has, the more chance it has for success, because it has a greater likelihood of surviving in a diversity of environments. As you know, success in the evolutionary sense means having more offspring.

THE EXTERNAL ENVIRONMENT ACTS ON INDIVIDUALS' GENES

The environment that an individual organism is exposed to affects how its genes are expressed. Remember that a gene's DNA encodes a protein, and it is the proteins that do the work of cells. The environment of a gene can affect the *amount* of protein that is made from it and *when* that protein is made and can thus have a large effect on an organism. A striking example of the importance of environment to genes is seen in studies with identical twins who are separated at birth and grow up in different environments. These two people, *who have the exact same genes* can look *and act* very differently when raised in different environments (Figure 16). This demonstrates that genes have the *potential* to affect traits, but whether that potential is fulfilled and to what extent depends on the environments of that organism and its genes. Both twins may have the **genetic capacity** to be very tall, but if one does not receive proper nutrition or suffers a particular disease, he may wind up shorter than the other twin who has a lot of food and remains healthy.

Figure 16: Identical twins who look different

This phenomenon is true for both physical and mental traits; notice twins may have very different personalities even though they have the same genes. We are discussing twins to make a clear case, but these concepts are true for all organisms.

GENES ACROSS WHOLE POPULATIONS

The environment not only directly affects genes and their traits in the short term, that is within the lifetime of individual organisms, but particular environments can also favor one particular *version* (one particular sequence) of a gene over another within a single population over time.

How do DNA changes within one organism translate to DNA changes across a whole population of organisms? Remember that each individual of a particular species has the same genes as all the other individuals in that species, but, for the reasons we discussed above, any particular gene and its sequence within one individual might be slightly different than in other individuals. And, as with any DNA difference, the particular en-

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. < शुरूरपान्दरायद्वीयायायादर्थोन्दरावे वा यदीरा क्रिंग्ले दिवायां दिवायी वदायां के स्वार्थ क स्वार्थ के स्वा स्वार्थ के स स्वार्थ के स्वार स्वार्थ के स्वार्थ क स्वार्थ के स स्वार्थ के स

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ॉर्वरः अुषा गीषाः नुषाध्वणाधुरः नुः ह्रे। क्रुं श्वित् द्वे द्वणांगी क्रिं नुषा गठिणांगी वरः द्ध्वानुः त्रेणषा स्थानरः देवे छिन हणवा द्वयवा ૡઽૢૹ੶ਗ਼੮੶૨ૻૼ૾ૡ૾૾ਗ਼੶ਗ਼૾ૡ૽ૢૻૼૼૼ૱ૡ੶(ૹਗ਼ૹ੶ૹૢૼૡ੶ઽૺૹ੶ઌ૱ૢ੮੶ਗ਼૾)ઽ૾ਗ਼ૹ੶ਞૹ੶ૹ૽૾ૢૺ૽ૼૹ૱ૻૻૡ૽ૻ૽૽૱ૡ૽ૡ૽૽ਗ਼੶ਸ਼ૹૡ੶ૡૡૺૹૹ੶ਸ਼ૢૹ੶ਸ਼ૡઽ੶

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 यदी भ्रम्य प्रदेश में कि स्वर्थ के स्वर्थ

শ্রীদ'শ'ন্দি

ૹ૾ૣૺ*ૺૡૹૡ૾૾ૺૡૼૹઌ*૽ૼ૱ૢૢૢૻૡૻૻ૱ૢૹૻૡૼૡૻૻૡૻ*ૢૡૡ૱ૹ૽૾ૢૺૡ૽ૺૡ*ૼ૱૱ૡ૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱ ૡૼ^ઌૻઽૼૻ*ઙ૾ૣૢૼૼઽૼૻઌૡૢ૽૱ૡૢૻઌઙૼ*૱ઽૻ૱૾ૻૡઽૻૻૻઌ૾ૼૢૣૻ૾ૢૢૡ૱૱૾ૢઌ૾૾૾૽૾૽ૼઽૻ૿ૻૡૡઌૡઽ૾૾ૹૻ૾૾૾ઌૹૻૻૡૻૹઽૼ૿ૻૡૻૹ૾ૺૡ૱૽૿૱૿ૢૺૡ૿૱૽૿૱૿૽ૡ ଶ୍ୟଂଶ୍ୟମାରିଙ୍କ ଅନ୍ତର୍ଶ୍ୱ ଅନ୍ତର୍ମ୍ୟ କୁ ଅନ୍ତର୍ମ୍ୟ କୁ ଅନ୍ତର୍ମ୍ୟ ଅନ୍ତର୍ମ୍ୟ ଅନ୍ତର୍ମ୍ୟ ଅନ୍ତର୍ମ୍ୟ ଅନ୍ତର୍ମ୍ୟ ଅନ୍ତି ଅନ୍ତର୍

੶ਖ਼ੑੑ<u></u>ਖ਼ੑਗ਼੶ਗ਼ਖ਼੶ਜ਼ੵ੶ਞੑੑਗ਼ਖ਼੶ਖ਼ਗ਼੶ਫ਼ਗ਼੶ਖ਼ਖ਼੶ਖ਼੶ਸ਼੶ਖ਼੶ਖ਼੶ਖ਼

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द्वेःदेषा १७ देगात्रः स्वःगठेगायते युक्तेः अण्वेदण्यतः स्वतः स्वयः श्रेः শৃন্ঠিশ্যম্য

vironment the genes are in might allow an advantage for one version over the other. We will discuss three related mechanisms by which the proportion of one gene version within a population can be affected by the environment: gene flow, genetic drift, and natural selection.

Consider a population of birds, all of the same species. As we discussed above and as we see every day in humans, even organisms of the same species have many differences in particular traits. The birds in our population might, for example, be bigger or smaller, have stronger or weaker beaks, be colored differently, or have longer or shorter wings. Lets's say that these trait differences are due to different versions of the same genes.

How might the proportion of one specific type of gene/trait (say, strong beaks) change in relation to another specific type of the same gene/trait (say, weak beaks)? Perhaps several birds of the same species, who just happen to have the gene/trait for strong beaks, fly in from another city to join our population. This phenomenon, called **migration** or **gene flow**, is one way the number of strong-beaked birds could change, right? Suddenly, there simply are more of a particular version of birds of this species who have come into the population. Strong beaks (and whatever other genes and traits these new birds have) will immediately become more prevalent in the population and, if these new immigrants mate with each other and with the original population, their genes, and those genes' traits, are more likely to get passed on, resulting in more birds born with strong beaks.

Another way you may have proposed to alter the proportion of strong-beaked birds is the opposite of migration: if some accident or event just happens to kill off a bunch of birds and, by chance, mostly kills birds with the strong beak gene/trait (or it could just as easily mostly kill weak-beaked birds), then the predominant birds alive, and thus the predominant ones that can pass on beak traits, are weak-beaked birds. This phenomenon is called **genetic drift**.

NATURAL SELECTION

Natural selection is the third way the proportion of particular gene versions are shifted in a population. We have referred to natural selection throughout this book. Let's go back to birds for one example of this phenomenon, and then we will discuss a few others. Consider a specific kind of bird that Darwin actually studied, the finch, in which natural selection was observed over a relatively short time period. Darwin made many of the observations that led him to formulate the theory of natural selection when visiting the Galapagos Islands during an exploratory voyage on the ship *HMS Beagle* in 1835. The Galapagos, now part of Ecuador in South America, are relatively isolated in the Pacific

YOUR TURN: BIRDS' BEAKS

What might lead to an increase or decrease in the number of birds with strong beaks (and thus the genes for strong beaks)? Do you have any hypotheses?

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The observations we will discuss were made by Peter and Rosemary Grant during extensive studies beginning in the 1970's. The birds the Grants studied are now officially known as Darwin's finches! Many types of finches lived in the Galapagos (Figure 17 and Figure 18). The finches differ in a number of ways, including wing length, tail length and beak size. We will focus on their beaks. The finches use the beaks to crack open the seeds that are their main source of food.

Look at the medium ground finches, known by the Linnean classification name *Gospiza fortis* (Remember Linneaus; he is the Swedish scientist who developed a naming classification system), and you can see variation in the size of the beaks of different species of finches (Figure 18). Even within one species of finch, you can observe variation in beak size and shape.



Figure 17: Two different finches



In order to be able to follow each bird in the population, the Grants labeled them with colored tags on their legs. By watching which birds gave birth to which offspring and then comparing the traits of the offspring to those of the parents, the Grants determined which traits were more likely genetic, that is, inherited from generation to generation. They did this for beak size and, as you can see in Figure 19, showed that parents with large beaks are more likely on average to give birth to birds with larger beaks.

In 1977 a severe drought in the Galapagos where the birds live resulted in the death of many finches; the population went from 1400 to 200. During the drought, the seeds the finches usually eat decreased in quantity and quality. In normal years most of the seeds were relatively small and soft and could be broken and eaten by the finches, but during the drought only large, hard seeds were available (see Figure 20). So, for the most part, only birds that happened to have large beaks (and, therefore, the versions of beak genes that encode large beaks) were able to open large, hard seeds and survive. Thus, the proportion of finches with large beaks increased.





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^નાગ્રવ : અલ્લા ગાર્કે : મેં બદ્યુ : સેંવ : ગાર્કે ન : નુ : અરુ : સ્ટ્રેં સ : નગોં બ : સ્ટ્રેં ન : ગ્રે : બેંન્ ન

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This is a dramatic example of how changes in the environment affect a population of organisms by selecting a particular trait (and thus the genes that encode it). It's important to realize that natural selection can only act on traits that already exist in the population; it doesn't create new traits. The larger-beak trait just happened to already exist in the finch population, so that when the drought came the larger-beaked finches were selected by nature. This is natural selection, and this is why you can think of each organism and each species and its genes and traits as a sum of all the histories of their previous relatives, those relatives' traits and the environments those relatives lived in. This is also why, as we discussed above, we can use traits or the DNA that encodes them to develop family trees.



Figure 20: Seed type and availability, 1975-1978. The figures show both the abundance of seeds and their characteristics during the course of a severe drought in 1977; we see that there were many fewer seeds and those that remained were large and hard.



૬યેઃરેષા ૧૦ દ્યો[,] ૧૯୬૫-૧૯୬૧ વરઃશે[,]યૉસુરાવદાર્શવપ્રદેવપરિ વધુ ચેંત્ર છે.રેવાયાનના વધુ ચેંત્ર ને ૬વાયો છિવાઢના ૬ચેઃરેષાવને ૬વાયોષાશ્રી વો ૧૯୬୬ વરાયવાય સુરાવદે રેરાવસું ચેંત્ર છે.છવાઢન ૬૮.છન વધુ થળા અઢેવાયો ક્ષેત્ર વે પ્લાસ્ત્ર છે.વર્વેર &૬.હુલ.૬ છેવાયન ૬૨૦૦૦ છેવા છે વ્યજ્ઞ વદે વસું ચેંત્ર ઝુદાય છેવા સરાયુષા વ્યક્ત્ર છે. વધુ થયા વસું વધુ છેવા છે વ

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THE PEPPERED MOTH

Another famous example of natural selection involves the peppered moth, *Biston betularia*, which lives in Britain. Unlike many brightly-colored butterflies and moths, the peppered moth has wings of various shades of gray, ranging from very light gray to very dark (see Peppered Moths sidebar). These moths spend time on the branches of trees, where birds like to find and eat them.

Prior to and early in the 19th century, most peppered moths were light gray, but by the middle of the century, collectors began to notice darker-colored moths. And by the early 20th century, populations of these moths near industrial cities such as Manchester were mostly dark-colored. Why were there suddenly more dark moths? Compare this situation to the previous example. Think about the beaks of the finches, the change in rainfall and its effect on food supply. How might the color of a moth affect its survival and lead to more of one color than another in the population?

One hypothesis is that darker color was an adaptation to a new environment that allowed for greater survival, that is, fewer moths eaten. Perhaps on light-colored trees, birds easily see and thus eat dark moths, while the lighter-colored ones are harder for the birds to see (Figure 21). Prior to the 19th century the trees and the lichen on them were light in color. With the rise in smoke and soot pollution associated with industrialization, the lichen and trees became darker in color. So, dark moths were harder to spot and the birds preferentially ate the lighter-colored moths.

This is a reasonable hypothesis, but what predictions and assumptions does the hypothesis make? The hypothesis predicts or assumes:

- birds that eat the peppered moths can tell the difference between light and dark moths (different species of animals have the ability to see very different colors);
- if pollution decreased and dark trees became lighter, the majority of moths would once again become light-colored;
- moth color is a genetic trait, passed on from parents to offspring like beak size; but perhaps the moths change color just based on the color of what they eat;
- individual peppered moths do not change color during their lifetime in response to their background environment.

PEPPERED MOTHS: AN IMAGE GALLERY

Peppered moths are various shades of gray, from very light to very dark.









Figure 21: Different colored peppered moths on different colored outdoor environments



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าสิสาสุพากรามิาญพามรัญกายกรามสาธิภาพ

- <u>ૹ૾</u>ી઼઼બઃૡનુઃષ્બઃઢેઃમઃક્ષુત્રઃખઽઃક્ષુૢ઼અર્ڄે૦ૄ઼ાઌ૱ૡૢ૱ઽઽેૹઃઐ૱યા
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શૈબ બરા સુા સાં સેંચ ખલે બરાવ છું જે 'રાવા થી વા શૈબ બરા જાત તે વા થી છિટ બરા બરી જે શાળા (શ્રેંવા રુવા વા વા શ

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ळॅॅ५'डेंश'गठेग'वे। वग'ब५'ळे'पदे'ग'र्देग'दे'ग्रिं'र'णुग'गश्रर'पर'पश्चुव'दशुर'ग्रीं'इढा'प'बेग'णेव'रा'श्चे। देश' ହିଁଦ ସିଂକ୍ଥ ସିଣି କ୍ଟିଦ ମୁ ଗ ୩ ମ ୩ ରଗ୍ ୩ ଥିଲି ଏ ଦ୍ୱ ମ ୩ ଅହିଁଦ କ୍ଥ ଜିମା କ୍ଥ ମ ୩ ରଗ ୩ ଥି ଲି ଏ ଦ୍ୟ ଅହିଁଦ ମ ୩ ମ ୩ ୮ ลนั้สายสายสายาสาสมสายิญสาฐานี้สำหราสีสายณหาสิรายาพิสา(รณิสิสา) กูสารยสาย และสุ้สารายิรา รรามเดมารูายูรานนิ้ารูานารรายณายิาฐิทุณาซึ่งๆที่ารุนรายิสาซัรรนับรรายังที่มีระบับระบับระบับระบับระบับระบับระบับ ผชัสงาญ ริสิารามาร์ขางสามาร์ขางสามาร์ขางสามาร์สามาร์ขางสา สามาร์ขางสามาร์ขางสามาร์ขางสามาร์ขางสามาร์ขางสามาร์ขางสามาร์ขางสามาร์ขางสามาร์ขางสามาร์ขางสามาร์ขางสามาร์ขางสามาร สามาร์ขางสามาร์ขางสามาร์ขางสามาร์ขางสามาร์ขางสามาร์ขางสามาร์ขางสามาร์ขางสามาร์ขางสามาร์ขางสามาร์ขางสามาร์ขางสามาร สัสเซาริรา

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૬ુંશ રનશ ૫૯ મંદે ત્ર્યો સ્ટ્રેન વર સુભાવનુ બભા સેં જે સુાવન જે નદે કભા અર્દેવા અવ ભાવના દેવ ગામ વસાય જે તે છે.

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What experiments could you develop to test these predictions?

By simply capturing light moths and dark moths and monitoring their color, their reproduction and their landing on dark and light surfaces, it became clear the first and last assumptions—that moth color is genetic and that moths don't change color depending on where they are—are true.

To determine if birds can discriminate between light and dark moths, a geneticist at Oxford University did an ingenious experiment. He released approximately equal numbers of both light- and dark-colored moths onto trees in (1) a polluted area near Birmingham, England, where the trees were dark and (2) a relatively remote region in Dorset where the trees were light. When he later recaptured the surviving moths, he found more dark moths survived on dark trees and more light moths survived on light trees. He also directly observed and filmed birds eating the moths.

Finally, this hypothesis makes a prediction about what would happen if pollution decreased and trees returned to their original lighter color. Indeed when this happened, the moth population adapted, slowly returned to a lighter color. That is, the version of 'moth-color' gene that was most predominant in the population shifted from being the dark-color-causing version to being the light-color-causing version (Figure 22).



Figure 22: Changes in percentage of dark moths with improving air quality. Air quality in the US dramatically improved beginning in the late 1960s. The number of dark-colored moths decreased over time as air quality continued to improve.

बे.वु:नृनःसें व्हेब:व्युम्



1975

ર્દેશ વાલિ સ્નુ લન રુવ ન દવવા લન રુવ ન વા ભુ ભગવા બુવાય ગરુ જે બા ફેવા લેન સ્થાય રાગ્ર શાય બાય વે દાવી રુવ વા જ ५८४४५८८४३२२२ श्रीभाष्यद्वि श्रुषा अर्देगाने क्रुनावनेनाम्हें प्राद्य स्वाधित यान्ता रत्यात्र, यात्र वा स्वाय प्राद्य स्वाय ୢୠଵ୕୶୶ୖଽ୕ୣୄୣ୕ୄୣ୕ୄୣ୶୲୵୳ୡୄୄୠ୷୵୕ୣ୷ୖଌ୲୵ୠୄୢୄ୷୵୷ଡ଼ୖ୲ୠଵ୲ୢୄ୷୷୳ୖୠଵ୲୷୷୳ୖୡୠ୶୲

र्लेगार्श्व:स्वेन्त्*तः* मार्डुं मा भवाः श्चेन्तः गढिरावरणी रेगरा द्वारा प्राप्ता क्वार्या के स्वार्या के स्वार स्वार्या के स्वा स्वार्या के स ૹ૾ૢૺઽ੶૬ૢૻૹ૾૿ૣ૾ૡૡૡૢૻૹૢૢ૿૽૽ૼૹઽૡ૾ૻૡૢૹૻઌ૾ૻૼૢૡ૽ૼૢ૾ૢૺૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૡ૽ૻ૱૱ૡૻ૽ૡૼૡ૾૾ૡ૾૾ૡૡ૾ૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡ

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นदिः भ्रेंग्वायाः सुः पद्यें प् गुरुष् भ्रेवे दार्या दे भे विषे (दयेः देखा ११)

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1959

One last famous example of natural selection (an example that actually can be observed overnight!) is that of the development of antibiotic resistance in bacteria. Antibiotics like penicillin are one of the great breakthroughs in medical history. Upon their discovery during World War II, suddenly, humans didn't die of infection, which commonly occurs during regular everyday life in events like childbirth or even from small cuts in the skin. Once penicillin (a naturally-produced antibiotic) was discovered, many lives were saved.

However, over time, antibiotic resistance, the ability of bacteria to avoid being killed by antibiotics, can spread through a species of bacteria and, because bacteria grow so quickly, the resistance can spread quickly also. Bacterial antibiotic resistance is a major and growing problem around the world in diseases—like bacterial pneumonia and tuberculosis— that once responded to penicillin and related antibiotics.

In all cases of natural selection, including those we have discussed here—in birds, moths, and bacteria— the resulting changes that increase survival in a particular environment are known as **adaptations**. Organisms change or adapt to fit their environments, or they eventually die out.

As you are beginning to see, adaptation and natural selection are about nature (the environment) 'selecting' the traits that fit best in a given environment. This 'fit' is called **fitness**, a measure of how well a species with a particular trait or set of traits survives and passes on those same traits (genes) to the next generation.

Notice that genetic change, fitness, adaptation and natural selection are not in themselves 'good' or 'bad'. Or, perhaps we should say they could be either, depending on your perspective. Natural selection is not *trying* to be good or bad, for sure, but is simply choosing the traits that work best for an organism in a particular environment. From our perspective, natural selection of antibiotic resistance is bad, because it allows the survival of more bacteria that can make us very sick or kill us, but from the bacteria's perspective antibiotic resistance is good, because it allows the survival of more bacteria.

SEXUAL SELECTION

Just because you happen to be bigger or stronger or faster does not necessarily mean you have greater fitness. Like with all other traits, this depends on the environment. When might it be an advantage for humans to be shorter? Taller?

When I, a six and half-foot-tall human, walk through the Himalayas or through the

YOUR TURN: ANTIBIOTIC RESISTANCE

Based on what we have discussed about natural selection, outline a scenario by which antibiotic resistance might evolve (that is, how could bacteria that are killed by antibiotics evolve into bacteria of the same species that are not killed by antibiotics?) and design a laboratory experiment that would test your hypothesis. This is a challenging exercise. Start by thinking at the big picture level: what would have to change in a bacterium that dies when exposed to antibiotics versus in a bacterium that lives? How could that change occur? How could the change be passed on to other bacteria?
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ู่ หรัร ซู้ราหร้อม ซู ๆ

ઐવ દે! ને શ્વાયત રા સા જે શાયત સે કે શાયત સે સાથે તે તે સાથે તે સ

ૡઽ૾ૺૠ૾૾ઌ૾૾ઽૡ૾૾ૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૡ૽ૻ૽૾ૢ૾ૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૡૻઌૼઌ૾૾ૡૻ૾ૡૼ૱ૡૻ૾ૡૻ૾ૡૻ૾ૡ૽ૻૡ૽૿ૡૡ૾ૢૡૻ૽ૡ૽૿ૡૡ૾ૢૡૡ૽ૻૡૡ૽ૻૡૡ૽ૻૡૡૡ૾ૻૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡ <u>वःवर्नःक्षरःहे।</u> नेःन्गाम्वन्नःस्वःर्चरःत्यग्रुरःवेःणमःवणःस्रःद्वेनःग्रीःक्षःर्ध्वेगुष्यःयान्याय्य्यायाय्य्येव। नेःधमःस्टःग्रुमः ૡઽૺ૱ૹૻૹૣૣૣઌૢૢૢૻઌ૾ૻ૾૽ઌ૽૿ૼ૾ૺૼૼૼૺ૱ૻઽૺ૽ૼઌ૾ૢૺઽૻૻ૱ઽૻૡૼૹ૽૾ૢૺઙૻૢૺૼઌૹૻઌૻઽૻ૾ૢૡઽૻ૱૽ૡૢઌૹૻઌૺૢ૽ૻઽ૽૱૾ૺૡૼૼ૱ૡ૽ૻઌૻૹ૽ૡૡ૽ૻૡ૽ૻૡૡૻ૱ૹ૽ૺ૱ <u></u>ڃાવા પાલેવા વો વત્ત : સ્તું : સુવ : દું : રાવા પાલેવા બા અદ્યુત : લર્સેન્ડ : રેને જો છું : છુન્ડ : हવા જો ને : વાનચ : વાજબ : દુજ્ઞ : પાર્જ આ લેવા 'ખેત્ર] नियेन्त्वा श्रेति रत्यों मते क्षर्खेणमा वमा मक्षमा व गानुव रहें अमा तुमा र्योगा गानु अनम्भा गुरू माने स्व क्षणमधीया भीवा भीवा

<u>ઽૣਗ਼ૻ૱૱ૼ૱ૼ</u>ૡૢૻૼૼઽૻૡૢ૱ઐ૱૽૽ૼૺૺૼ૱ૼ૱ઌ૽૾ૡ૽ૺૼ૱૽ઌ૾૾ૡૺ

हनामान्वरार्वेषाने न्दराष्ट्रात्वम्मा (वित्राधुना)ग्रीषायनेममाङ्घनाष्ट्रीन रहुवाग्री वीन्त्रेमान्दरव्येवान्धेत् वर्तत्र ळॅॅवाबग्वा८ॱविवा-९्बग्धुव-६ र्जअन्वर-क्रुव-५ष्ठिं८ब-धुन-छेटन) क्रुटन-५६ व-हेबग्अ-९वाग्य-७८-हन्बग्ब-(तैवाब-ह्वय)ने

ระเอูะ เฉริมพาลูขาข้าขสุขาสุขาสุขาสมขอราร์า ข้าะรูข้มพาลูรายพายใยรารา มิขานยูราย เนยาสาย ୄฏୄ୵୕୳ଞ୍ଗ୶୶୶ୖ**୳ଞ୍ଗ୶୶ୄୢୠ୵**ଽୖୗୢ୵୲୷ୄ୷ୠୗୢୄୖୢୠୄୖ୲୶୶ଢ଼୶ଢ଼ୄ୰୵ୖୠଢ଼୶୷୲ୡ୵୷ୠ୶୷୷ଡ଼ୢ୵୲୵୰ଢ଼ୢୗ୵ୠୄୗ୶୲୵୲ୢଌୗ

<code>གནོད་མོན་གཔོལ་བིི་ཕྱིད་ནུག་དོ་འབུ་ཕฺའི་ཞི་རིགག་ཀྱི་སྱོན་ལོ་གྱབ་ཆིང་བདལ་ལ། དོར་མ་གད། འབུ་ཕฺ་ཕྱི་འཕིལ་</code> ^ֈ႘ႍᠵᠠᠵᠲᠬᡃ᠋᠊᠋ᢖᢩᠭᢄᢜ᠋ᡎ᠇ᠴᡃᡅ᠔᠋᠊᠋ᢖᢩ᠆ᠺᢋ᠄ᢩᡩᡬ᠄᠈ᡷ᠆᠃ᡅᢆ᠀ᢋᡊᢄᡬᠯᢂ᠋ᡃᡊᡬᡀ᠉᠋ᡆ᠋ᡝᡚ᠆ᡆᢩᢆ᠉ᡩ᠄ᡭᢋ᠉ᡬᡬᢢᢋ᠂ᠱᡄ᠋᠉᠃

ᠵᠵ᠊᠋᠊᠋᠊᠋ᠧ᠋ᠵ᠋ᠺ᠋ᢋᠯᡆ᠋᠉ᡎ᠋᠋ᡎ᠋ᡎᡎ᠉᠋᠊᠋ᠣ᠂ᡆᡭ᠂ᡪ᠋ᡶᠯᠵ᠉ᢣ᠋ᡏᠯᡆ᠉ᢙᢆᡎ᠋ᡘ᠋᠋ᡜ᠋᠘᠋ᢋ᠉ᢙᢆᡆ᠉ᢙᡎ મલે શિંત મું આ મુ આ મું આ મ આ મું આ મુ આ મું આ મુ આ મું આ મ આ મું આ મુ આ મું આ મુ આ મું આ મું આ

*ঀૅ৻*ৼ৻ৼ৾৻ৼ৾৾৻ৼ৾৾৻ৼ৾৾৾ৼ৾৾৻ৼ৾৾৾ ग्रेंबःस्ट्रूरःगटःगुरूग्यःक्तव्रवायेविःयःचवग वृषा गृतव रहे स्र मा तुष र में गा गी में रिस ॻॖॖॖऺॺॱॻऻॺॕॸ॒ॱॺॖॖॺॱॻय़॓ॱय़य़ॖॱॷय़॓ॱॸऀॻऻॺॱॠॺॺॱ <u> न</u>म्ब्रेन्याकुन्दर्योगःवन्त्रःवेत्रःनेत्रःगर्वेन् ૱૱ૢૢૢૢૣૣૹૻૻૻૡ૽૾૾ૡઌૢૻૡૡ૽ૺ૾૽ઽ૽ૼૡૻૼૼૼૼૼૼૻૼૼૼૻ૽ૼૡૢ૾૱ૡૡૺઌ णवृषाः स्ट्रेम् स्त्रीणः भ्रीणः गर्भेवः मुन्यः देवयः ᠵᡄᡃᡆᢆᡰ᠍ᢀ᠋᠋ᡃ᠋᠋᠋ᠳᡄ᠄ᢅᢅᢅ᠊᠋᠊᠋᠆᠊᠋ᡷᠯ᠋᠃ᢓᢩᢀ᠋᠂ᠴ᠂ᠫ᠂ᠴᡗ᠋ᢋ᠄᠌᠗᠋ᢋ णवृष्णम्बर मुद्देष मधेर महेषा मुझुम ग्री रेवा ય લેવા વદુશ્વ વર્ષે ન સ્ટ્રે લેવ. าग्राद में दिया धेव राषा नम् में या के रादे ୖୖଽୡ୲୕୳୕୶ୖୠୄ୲୵୳ୖୡ୲୷୶୶ୡ୲ୖୄଈ୕୳ୠ୵ୖୖଈଡ଼୲୕୳ୖଶୄ ૡૡૢ੶ૹૄ੶ઽૺૠૡૹૄૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૡ૽ઌ૽ૡ૽૾૱ૹ૽ૡ૽૾ૡ૽૾ૡ૾૽ૡ૽૿ૡ ळटायाधेवावया देप्ट्रियायुरायादेख्या ચ⁻ને બનુ સંગવન ભા ર્જુભા દે ભૂન નુ ગ જ્યુન ର୍ଶ୍ୱିମ୍ କ୍ରିମ୍ ଶ୍ୱସ୍ଦ ସ୍ୟା ଖ୍ଯ୍ୟୁର୍ମ୍ବା

ট্রিন্-শ্রী-ইন্স-র্রান্সা गविव तर्हे श्रहा विश्व राष्ट्रीय rainforests of the Amazon, I am always struck by how much more difficult it is for me to move through these environments than it is for those humans who are native to those environments and are, on average, much shorter.

One special case of natural selection related to fitness, particularly the ability of finding and attracting a mate, is called **sexual selection**. The males of some species, notably the peacock, go to great lengths, literally, to impress potential mates (see Sexual Selection sidebar). These males are selected for and thus have greater fitness, despite the fact that these same traits might significantly disadvantage them in other ways. For example, male peacocks can sometimes barely walk because their tails are so long and heavy! The males of some insect species even sacrifice their lives—their mates eat them— to be able to mate and reproduce. At the same time male mating traits are being selected, the way the females of these species go about choosing these males is also being selected for. So, the idea here is the major goal of natural selection is to pass genes that work well in a particular environment to the next generation, sometimes at a very high cost.

WHAT NATURAL SELECTION IS NOT

Before we continue our discussion about evolution and what natural selection is, let's take a short break and consider what natural selection *isn't*. These distinctions are important from many perspectives, both scientific and philosophic, with implications for how evolution is understood by the general public.

First, as we hinted above, natural selection is not a purposeful process. 'Selecting' is often put in quotation marks because in the process of natural selection, nature does not actively choose the fittest organisms with the best traits, but instead, whatever environment *happens* to be present allows for the greater survival of those traits that *happen to already* exist in those organisms that best fit the environment.

On the other hand, natural selection is not random. Natural selection is sometimes dismissed as a cold and random process, not imbued with the beauty or meaning of, say, a more spiritual explanation of creation. However, as we discussed above in the case of genes, natural selection is not random; instead it selects those traits that work best, increase survival and reproduction the most, in a particular environment. The contemporary scholar Holmes Rolston III has a creative and robust way of looking at evolution; he describes the relationship between genes/traits and their environment as a dynamic, creative, interactive, two-way communication, much more than a cold, non-spiritual process. Here is what he says in his book, *Genes, Genesis, and God* (Cambridge University Press, 1999):

SEXUAL SELECTION AN IMAGE GALLERY

Male peacocks (upper picture) and Birds of Paradise (lower picture) go to great lengths to impress their mates.





ખર છુઁ વાગ વાવ લેવા વર્ષા રર ગુર વરે અરુ સુવાવે વો 'રે અર્ચે 'સ્વ યાલેવા એવા સુર અવા ર રર ગુર વરે અરુ સુવા ' વો વો 'રે અરે ' રે જે 'જે ન એન ' અર સે અંદે અરંગ ન વા સુર ' સુવા ' તે વા સે સુવા વા અર્ગ સુર સુર અને સુર અને સુર અર્ચ સુવા ' તે ' ' તે ' ગુર મ સે ' સુર ' તે ' સુર ' સુર ' તે ' ' ' તે ' ' સુર ' સુ ' સુર ' સુ

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ૹ੶g੶ૹૻ੶(ઽૡઽ੶ઽ૾ૹ੶ૹૻ૽ૼૼૼઽૻૹ)ઽઽૻઽૼૡૻૻૡૺૼઽૻ ૽૿ૺૺૢઙૢૻ૾૾૾ૹૻ૾૾ૻૼૣૺૼૡ૱ઽ૽ૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૹૻૻૡૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૼૹૻ૽ૻ૱ૻ૽ૼ૱ૻ૽ૡ૽૿ૺ ૹૻૣૺૻૼૡ૾ૺૼ૿૾ઌ૾૾ઽૢૻઽ૱ઽૡ૽૿ૢ૽ૡૻૺૹૣ૾ૺૹ૽૿૱ૻ૽ૢ૾ૺ૱ૻૻઌ૾ૺ ૹઌૹૹ૾ૢૺૹૡ૾ૻૼઽૢૼૹૢૼૼૹ૱ૹૣૢ૾ઌૺઙ૽ૢ૾ૺઽ૾૾ૺૺ૱ૡ૾ૻૼૼૼૼૼૼૺૢ

ૡર્નેન્?ર્શુન્'લ્વેચર્ચ'જ્ઞુળ ન્યર-સેશ્ર'સેન્ટન્ન'લેળ ...genes conserve order but also introduce novelty. Genes code a coping, and the coping is a defense of [the] values gained and dynamically transformed over time. What is conserved is what has proved valuable, tested, and transmitted intergenerationally [from one generation to the next]. In result, with exploratory variations, what is selected is promising and seminal.

ARTIFICIAL SELECTION

The basic underlying principle of Darwin's theories, selection, has actually been a driving force in human interactions with domestic plants and animals for thousands of years—long before Darwin came along to give that force a name and explanation. When humans use selection, we call it **artificial selection** because it is done in an intentional way by humans, not by nature. In fact Darwin learned a lot about selection from poor, 19th century Englishmen who had bred homing pigeons (birds used to deliver messages) for years and years. These breeders selected for pigeon traits like speed and accuracy of delivery. That is, the breeders chose the birds that did best what the humans wanted them to, and then bred only those selected pigeons. Horse racers do the same with horses, and farmers do the same with vegetables. Tibetans have for centuries intentionally selected strains of barley that taste best and grow well at the high altitudes and during the available growing season of the Himalayas.

Artificial selection can also have unintended consequences. Scientists have documented the case of the snow lotus, a plant species important in Tibetan and Chinese medicine for treating headaches, high blood pressure and menstrual problems. Traditionally, larger specimens of this relatively rare plant are collected, as bigger plants are thought to make better medicine. Over the decades, the removal of primarily larger plants by humans resulted in artificial selection for the smaller plants. That is, the bigger, and therefore usually healthier plants were removed, leaving the smaller, weaker plants.

Additionally, for medicinal reasons the large snow lotus is collected at a time in the plant's life cycle right before the seeds for the next generation are released. The result of all this was that over time mostly seeds carrying the small, weak plant traits were dispersed, so fewer and fewer large plants grew. Since the smaller plants are generally weaker, this artificial selection might eventually lead to the elimination of the snow lotus species altogether.

A key point here: the concept of selection is the same, whether natural or artificial.

<u>भ</u>्भग'गे'गवन'र्नेव'वे'गरुग'अर्द्ध्र'न्श'रेना

યદ્વતિ જે ત્રે વાય બેંદય દેવાયા સંસ્થેદય સું ત શુર જેવ ખેંદ ન પર તે ન

⁸श्चवॱस्वाग्री'न्वो'अळव'ण'गविषाबाने' से निर्णो प्रतें प्वते क्यून'रेश मिन्रर्ग श्रेवा'सी का कीन्यते केंव'द्यु' <u> ব</u>িস:ঝাহ্রদা ୶ୖଌ୕୶ୖ୳୵୕ଽ୶୶୶୴୵୶ୄୖୢୄ୰୳ୢ_ୠୖଈୢ୴୶_ୖสม๙ฌୖୖଈ୕୶୵ଌୖ୕୶ୖ୳ୄୖ^୷ୖୄ୰ୣୖ୵୲ୢୖୠୄ୵ଌ୳୶୵ୡୖୄ୵ୣ୵୳ୖ୳୲ୡୢ୲ଽୣ୳୲୵ଽ୲୶ୖୡ୲ୢ શેષા સ્ટેંગેન જે ગવે તે પાય છે સું બહેર મે લુન નુન પ્રાયુન તે પાય સાથવા મુખ્ય સાથ તે પાય સાથ સાથ સું તે પાય સાથ <u>କ୍</u>ରି'ଞ୍ଗିସଷ'ଶ୍ରମ'ୟର୍ଗ୍ୱ ଅଟି'ଜ୍ମୁ' ଅଟି'କ୍ସର୍ବ'ଶ୍ରର୍ବ'ଶ୍ରର୍ବ'ଶ୍ରର୍ବ୍ବ ଅଟି'କ୍ସର୍ବ'ରୁ ଅଟି'କୁ'ରୁ ଅଟି'କ୍ସର୍ବ'ର୍ବ'ରୁ ଅଟି'କ୍ସର୍ବ'ର୍ବ'ରୁ ଅଟି'କ୍ସର୍ବ'ର୍ବ'ରୁ ଅଟି'କ୍ସର୍ବ'ର୍ବ'ରୁ ଅଟି'କ୍ସର୍ବ'ର୍ବ'ରୁ ଅଟି'କ୍ସର୍ବ'ରୁ ଅଟି'କ୍ସର୍ବ'ର ଅଟି'କ୍ସର୍ବ'ର ଅଟି'କ୍ସର୍ବ'ର

ચક્ષુ૬-૬-૭નાયલે.લુભ-૬-જ્રે.વેદ-જ્રુદ-૨-૬૮-લિવ-પલે.રેળવાર્સ્ટચાક્ષળાચર-ભુવાચરને.ધેવા

ৰ্ক্তব' રેવાપાર્ટ્સ વાદ્યાં છે. પદ્ધ તે સ્ટ્રીંગ વાદ્ય સંસ્થળ આવે પર સ્ટ્રાં છેવાયા સ્ટ્રીવા છે. સ્ટ્રીય સંસ્થળ આવે છે. સ્ટ્રીય સંસ્થળ આવે સ્ટ્રીય સ્ટ્રીય સંસ્થળ આવે સ્ટ્રીય સંસ્થળ આવે સ્ટ્રીય સ્ટ્રીય સંસ્થળ આવે સ્ટ્રીય સ્ટ્રીય સ્ટ્રીય સંસ્થળ આવે સ્ટ્રીય સ્ટ્રીય સ્ટ્રીય સંસ્થળ આવે સ્ટ્રીય સ્ટ્રીય સ્ટ્રીય સ્ટ્રીય સંસ્થળ આવે સ્ટ્રીય સ્ટ સ્ટ્રીય સ્ટ્ર ฐลายุดูราสราสที่สุรารุรา เลขาศราฐสานสิวสุรายุติ ยูรามิราชิราชิรสาสสารรับาสราชสาชานา નગ્રદ નવે સુચઢં વ રદ્દ શ છે સુવ દુ સે વ દ તે તે નવા સ્થય લક્ષુ સુદ છે દ સે બાળ સુવ દુ સ્વ દુ દ સે બાળ સુદ સ્થ સ प्रदेशवाञ्चणविषवार्थेन्यारेन् ने दे के मिन्द्र में मिन्द्र में मिन्द्र में मिन्द्र में से मिन्द्र में मिन्द्र मिन्द्र में मिन्द्र मिन्द्र में मिन्द्र मिन्द्र में मिन्द्र मिन्द्र में मिन्द्र मे मिन्द्र में मिन्द् मिन्द्र में मिन्द मिन्द्र मेन्द्र में मिन्द्र में मिन्

สุณหารุณิ์ ริขุณ พิราวานสมาร์สุราวารริมณ เมือง เป็น

ᠵ᠊ᠵ᠂ᡱᡆ᠄᠋᠊ᡃᢆᢧ᠄ᡷ᠋ᡎᢦᠠ᠊ᡅᡭ᠂᠋ᡎᢩ᠍᠋᠊᠋ᡇ᠋᠋ᠧ᠂ॶᢩᡎᢦᠠᡃ᠋ᠼᢌᢦᡅᡃ᠋ᡃᢧ᠄ᠼᡊ᠊ᡎᢙ᠋᠊᠉ᢩᡎᠵ᠊ᡅᡭ᠂᠋᠊᠋ᡒᡊᡭ᠃᠋ᡎ᠋᠋᠋ᡇᢦ᠉᠊ᡐᡎᢦᠠ᠅᠋ᡬ᠂ᠱ᠂ᡬ᠂ᡬ᠂ᡬ᠉ᡩᠬ᠄ᢋᡨ᠂ᠭ᠄᠕ᡭ᠂ ૨૮ઃશ્રેઃ ફ્રશ્રચા ગ્રીયા ગ્રીયા ગાર્ચેયા ર્સેવા રાજ્ય ગાય ને પ્રાય ગાય સાથે આ પ્રાય સાથે પ્રાય સાથે આ પ્રાય સાથ รู้รูสาพูสาริตามีเดิญาสุขาญอาญาานเดิญาพิสุขาญทุพาริการาชาตาชีพามีพาตามีพาตรีพาสรีพาริสุขาชิพาตรีสา รู้รูสาพูสาริตามีเดิญาสุขาญอาญารีสาพิมาที่สามาร์สาราชาตาชีพามีพาตามีพาตรีพาสรีพาสรีพา สามาร์สาราชาตามีเลือง เมือง เมือ เมือง ભા નેતે જીં. શ્રાજ્ય થયે છે. આ પ્રાય્તી તે તે જે છે. આ પ્રાય્તી તે પ્રાપ્ત છે. આ પ્રાય્ત પ્રાયત્વે ଌୖ୕ୣ୵ୄ୕_ଽୄୢୢୢୖୢଈୖୣୖୖ୴୴ୖ୰ୡ^୲୴ୖୖୖ୶ଽ୳ୖଽ୴ୖ୶^୲ୖୖ୴ୡୄୗୖୖୖୖୖ୕ୣଽୄ୵ୖୖଽୖ^୷ୄୠ୷ଽୄ୵୵ୖ୳ୡୣ^୲ୄୠ୕୶୵୵ୄୢୄୠୄୄୄ୷୲୵ୡୢୗ୶୳ୢୖୄୠ୷ୄୖୠ^୲୴ୡ୶୲_{ୖୄୡ}୷ ૹ૾ૢૼૼૼૼૼઽ૽૽૾ૢૺૼૢૻૻૹૡ૱૿ઌ૾૾ૡૢૺ૾ૻ૽ૻઌૻ૾ૡૼૼૹ૾ૢૼૼૼૼૻૻ૱ૡૡૼૻ૽૽૾ૺૡૻઌૡૻઌૡ૽ૻઌૡૻૹ૽૾ૼૡૡ૾ૻૡૡ૽ૻૡૡ૽ૻૡૡ૽ૻૡૡ૽ૻૡૡ૽ૻૡૡ૽ૻૡૡ૽ૻૡૡ૽ૻૡૡ ने'न्या'यन्य्यय'त्रया नेदे'न्देयांबाग्री'दन्य क्वयाबां किं न्यावें क्लिंट्युबाय'नेना ने'यविव'तु'त्त क्रुया यहिं <u>สามาฏิรายจพร้ามสู่รพา</u>ฏราพ ดิรามพายราชัชสามาริ สดิสาราฐราษีราษีรามีราชีพายรามีรักษฐานตามรา ર્યેલે સેન્દ કે અભાષાયલે સે જીન વિંત ભાષા લેન બનેન સામયા છે. વેશ રે આ પ્રે મું બે જીન સામે સામ સામ સામ સામ સામ

ลิฆาลุรัยเงาริยา

ન્વવેત્ર'ને'ઐત્ર'ર્વે]]"વેશ્ર'ગશુન્રશ્પેન્

૿૾૾ઌ૾૽ઌૹૻૻૻૣૹૻૹ૽૾ઌઌૻૹૢ૾ૺૡૻઌૢ૾ઌૡૢૻૡૡ૽ૻઌૡૻઌૡૻૡૡ૽ઌૡૡૢૻઌૹૻૡૺઌૡૻૹ૽ૻ૱ૡૻૹ૽ૻ૱ૡૡૻૹૻૹ૾ૡૡૼૡૡ૽ૻ૱ૡૡૻૹૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡ ञ्चेयायी अन्न भाषा सहय าเดิสารารพฤพายสารสายการๆาณาสูรารู้การฏิสสายเดิญาพิสา การทางรายสายรังสารสายการสารกา กรุญายสาร ๚ กาพาลุพากาพาลู (กาพาๆอิตาลุพากาพายิามกา)สูลาผู้มีกพายูกาพากาๆพิลุา วิทุสายิามยณหาผูงๆกาลิตาผสัญ ૡ૾ૺૺ૱ૻૢૡૻૹૻ૾ૼૡૢૡ૾ૺૻૡઽૻૻૡૡ૱ૻૡૹ૽ૢૻૣૻૻૡૡ૽ૼ૱ૢૻૻઌૡૼૹૻૻૹૻ૽ૼ૱૿ૢૣૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૻૻૡ૽ૻ૱૽૾ૺૼૼૡૻૹ૽ૼ૱ૻૹ૾૽ૼ૱ૻૹ૽૾ૼ૱ૻૡ૽૾ૼ૱ૻૡ૽ૼ૱ૻૡ૽ૼૼૡૻૻૡ૽ૼૹૻૻઌ૽ૡ૽ૺૻૻૡૻ

COEVOLUTION

As in the case we just discussed, the lives and lifestyles of two or more species are often tightly connected to each other. Think of species that benefit each other or that eat each other or, as in the antibiotic case above, consider cases where one species makes the other sick.

Our guts are filled with *E. coli* bacteria that benefit us by helping digest our food; in return we provide an environment for the bacteria to live and reproduce. So, it isn't too hard to imagine that humans and our gut bacteria have **co-evolved** (and are still co-evolving) so that the traits of one species evolve to 'match' the traits of the other in a way that maximize the fitness of each other. Make sense? This is called **co-evolution**, because each species' evolution involves the other.

Other bacteria, including different types of E. coli and bacteria that cause tuberculosis or pneumonia we mentioned above, make us sick. Our immune systems, the cells and organs devoted to fighting foreign substances that invade our bodies, evolve to fight the bacteria. Usually, our immune systems, even without antibiotics, can fight off bacterial infection. But at the same time our immune systems evolve, the invading bacteria are evolving to evade our immune systems and to evade the antibiotics we treat ourselves with. This is another kind of co-evolution.



Figure 23: Symbiosis of rhizobium bacteria with legumes. Roots of the legume release a substance that attracts Rhizobium bacteria, which enters the cells around the root. Chemicals from the bacteria signal the plant cells to begin dividing; the bacteria performs nitrogen fixation.

YOUR TURN: CO-EVOLUTION

Co-evolution occurs between plants and animals and between different species of animals and can occur among a number of species at once. Do you know of or can you hypothesize any such situations? How would you test to see if the species you are thinking of are indeed co-evolving?

শীর্ম ক্রিন



त्र र. श्रे. के अग्र राज्य विषेय रेता

שריתשמיתש<u>מי</u>תשין

ૡૢ૽ૼૼૢૻૼઌ૽૿ૢ૽૽ૺૼૼૼૺૠૻૹૼૼૹૣ ૱ૢૻૢૻૻૡ૽૽ૢૺૡૻૡૡ૾ૺૡૻૡઌ૿ૢૢૢૻૣૻૻૣ A good example of co-evolution on the Tibetan plateau occurs between legume plants and rhizobium bacteria. Such relationships in which two species rely on each other for optimal survival are described as **symbiotic**; two species have a **mutualistic** symbiotic relationship when they live closely together and each benefits from the other. In the case of legumes and rhizobium, their relationship is especially important to us and much of life as we know it (see Figure 23).

We and all other organisms require nitrogen, a chemical element needed to make two types of molecules, proteins and nucleic acids (DNA and RNA), without which we cannot live. While a lot of nitrogen exists in the atmosphere, we are unable to access, or 'fix' it; however, bacteria like rhizobium *are* able to fix the nitrogen. They can only do this when in a symbiotic relationship with certain plants. Once these bacteria fix the nitrogen, it is then accessible and useful to the plants (which can use it to make their own proteins and nucleic acids) and then, when we and other species eat those plants or other species who eat those plants, we are able to get the nitrogen we need to live (Figure 24). This is the only way humans can get the nitrogen we need, so in a way we are in a symbiotic relationship with the rhizobium and legumes also!



Figure 24: The Nitrogen cycle. Nitrogen, which is fixed by bacteria in the soil, is required for human life. Without the Nitrogen cycle, life as we know it would perish.

Particular species of bacteria can only be in symbiotic relationships with particular plants, and, not surprisingly, the specific plant and specific bacterium involved in these relationships co-evolve. This is what the scientists found with specific legumes and specific rhizobia in Tibet. Rhizobia that had coevolved with legumes on the Tibetan plateau, can form symbiotic relationships only with legumes from the Tibetan plateau.

<u>ᡪ</u>ᢆᢡᡵ᠂ᡆᠽ રેચ બશુર વક્તુન યાવે ને જચારે ચઢર છે વાલેવા ચેવા ગવેલ ભાષાને છેને જવારે વાય નવા વાલે જે છે. જે શુચારી ધેન્ટ શુચઃશુઃ રેેેે વર્ષા વિં'વ'નઽ' સુવ'ઽ' અલે આવે થયી. તરી નાના નક્ષેવ વિદ્યારા તેની પ્ર



 ${\mathfrak F}_{\mathfrak T}^{\operatorname{ur}}(\widehat{\mathfrak d}_{\mathfrak T})^{\operatorname{u}}(\widehat{\mathfrak d}_{\mathfrak T}) = {\mathfrak F}_{\mathfrak T}^{\operatorname{ur}}(\widehat{\mathfrak d}_{\mathfrak T})^{\operatorname{u}}(\widehat{\mathfrak d}_{\mathfrak T})^{\operatorname{u}}(\mathfrak{d}_{\mathfrak T})^{$ <u>५</u>:५८:डे:वेर-वी:रेगबाप्य कार् प्रभुव: ५:अनुआण्य कार्यी: पद्मेयायर र्रेयायदे वीं रेआर्थे: हेवःश्चरःपर्गेषःग्रेनःषुग વેન ફ્રોંન કેન) ગા ને દેશ છે. તેમ છે. ุทุลุณฺฏิกานรามโข้นนิเลมิภู้าริลาฏิเสลานอีนาฏิเพิกุ (กนาริลา १७) มิเสมพานารกานารที่พานนิเลมิเว้าริสา

વીૠ્ૠાયાયબાર્સે હેર ૬ હર વાબાવર હેવાર્યે ખેંવા (ત્વે રેજા) ૧૧)

ૹૢ૽ૢૺૡૣ૱ઌૢ૽ૢ૾૾ૺ૽ઌૻૡૢૢૹૻૻ૾૾ૼઌૻૻૻૻૢૼૼૹૻૻૹ૽ૢ૾ૢ૱ઌ૱ૹૻ૽૽૱ૻૻઌ૱ૻૡ૱ૻૡ૾ૺૹ૽ૢૺૡૣ૱૽૾ઌ૽૾ૹ૽ દે સું ખયાતનુ સંતે નગર અર્વે ન જી ખેતી ङ्गे स्व ते रेगमःगढ़ेमःज्ञरूटः यत्नमः क्वमः सुःगवन्यः यदेः स्ट्रेटः । यनः इनगढिमायीयः महिमायः रक्षायदेमायः छेत्रः यदिवः तुः यक्वेः These data support the central concept of co-evolution: the two species evolved together to survive and succeed specifically in the unique environment of Tibet. Since the two species were also benefiting each other, the evolution of each was important to the evolution of the other, and thus, they co-evolved.

MICRO-VS. MACROEVOLUTION

the trees?

So far, we have concentrated mostly on **microevolution**, which refers to change with time within a species. But, what about *macroevolution*, the evolution of whole new species? Remember the type of figure at the right (Figure 25), the family tree we discussed Figure 25: Phylogeny showing speciation, deearlier in this book? The question now is how do you get new species, new branches of tree

Well, we can begin to see how macroevolution works by looking carefully at some of the microevolution examples we discussed. The basic processes that drive microevolutionmutation, gene flow, natural selection- also drive microevolution. Macroevolution is really just an extension of microevolution.

When some organisms of a species become geographically isolated from others of their species, they become more and more different, adapting to distinct environments, until the point that if the organisms somehow come together again, they now can no longer reproduce. They now constitute two new species. We see this with the legumes and rhizobia of the Tibetan plateau we just discussed. Prior to the collision of India and Asia, when there was no Tibetan plateau, these two species reproduced with and were of the same species as other legumes and rhizobia in India and Asia. But then came the collision, and suddenly (speaking in evolutionary terms) these species were in a much different, much higher, much colder environment than their brother and sister organisms. So they had to change, and eventually they changed so much that they became new species; legumes from the plateau could not reproduce with legumes from the lowlands. This process is called **speciation** (Figure 25), and it is represented by a split in the family tree.

Interestingly, in this particular case, as we discussed, Tibetan legumes also co-evolved so that they could only form symbiotic relationships with *Tibetan* rhizobia (the rhizobia also formed a new species). This process is termed **co-speciation**.

There are at least two big challenges to fully understanding macroevolution. It is difficult at first to translate the idea of subtle speciation, say from one type of legume to another, into the broad idea of speciation across the tree of life from, say, bacteria to humans, or plants to mammals. However, we can see that if we move in time from one branch of



Speciation events

noted by a split in one of the branches of the

YOUR TURN: CREATE A NEW SPECIES

Design a thought experiment to see if you could create a new species. What would drive the creation of this new species? What would it look like? What would its native environment be? Describe your species in detail and come up with a name for it.

નર્વોષા નર્દ દેવા દેના નચેર લ બે શુધ્ર દેવા વે નવા દેવા સંગળા લ સંગળા લ સંભળવા લ દેવા બે બે દેવા છે સંગતે શુધ્ર તે શુધ્ર શુધ્ર શુધ્ર તે શુધ્ર શુધ્ર તે શુધ્ર શુધે

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रेगमःग्रेःश्रॅंगळ्गमं क्ष्मायान्तमायमाहे माववाहे माववाहु त्युराम्म अवराक्षेमके ज्याववात्युराम्झूट्रायते द्वम्र ^ଵୗ୶୕ୢୄୢୠ୲ୣ୳୶୳ଵୄ୕ୣୄୣ୶ୄୄ୲ୠ୕ୖୢଽୠୄ୶୲ଽୄୖ୷ୄୠ୶ୖଽ୲ୖୄୖୣ<mark>୵</mark>ୄ୶ୠ୶ୄୠ୰ୖୄୠ୰ୡୖୖଽ୶୶୰୳ୖୖୡୖୖୖୖୡ୕୷ୄୄୠ୵୷୲ୖୄୄୄ୵ୄ୵ୣୄୖ୶୲୴ୠୄୡ୕ୢୄୡଽୖୄୢଌୠୄୖୄ୶୰ୄୢୄୠ୷ୄୄ_୴ୣ $A\hat{E}$ \hat{A}^{*}_{B} $A\hat{A}^{*}$ \hat{B}^{*}_{A} \hat{B}^{*}_{A} \hat{B}^{*}_{A} \hat{A}^{*}_{A} \hat{A}^{*}_{A} ૽વૅૼઽૻૻૼ૱ૻૼૼૼૼૢૺૼ૽ૼૼૹૼૹૻ૾ૢ૱૽૾ૼૺ૱૿ૻૡૺ૱ૻૻૼ૱ૻઌ૾ૺ૾૽૱ૼ૱ૻ૽૱૽ૺઌ૽ૺ૱૱૾૽૱૾૽૱૾ૻ૱૱૾૽૱ૻ૽૱૱૾ૻૡ૽૽ૼ૱૱૾૽૱૱૾૽૱ *ਜ਼*ਗ਼ਸ਼੶ੑੑੑਸ਼ੑੑੑ੶ਸ਼ਖ਼ਖ਼੶ਖ਼੶ਖ਼ੑਸ਼੶ਲ਼ਫ਼ਖ਼੶ਸ਼ਁ੶ਸ਼ੑਗ਼ਖ਼੶ਸ਼ੑੑਸ਼ੑੑਸ਼੶ਸ਼੶ *ઽ*བར་གྱི་གནས་སྐངས་ཀྱང་འདི་དང་གསིག་མཆྱོངས་ਘིན། म्मिन्ग्वीर्म्स्याः स्टर्भन्ग्रीः अर्विः स्वर्म्यावाश्वः सुयायेन्यां स्वन्याः नेर्म्यार्म्याः स्वन्याः स्वर्म्याः स्वर्म स्वर्म्याः स्वर्याः स्वर्म्याः स्वर्म्याः स्वर्म्याः स्वर्म्याः स्वर्म्याः स्वर्म्याः स्वर्याः स्वर्म्याः स्वर स्वर्म्याः स्वर्याः स्वर्याः स्वर्याः स्वर्याः स्वरत्याः स्वर्याः स्वरत्याः स्वरत्याः स्वरत्याः स्वर्याः स्वर्यः स्वरत्याः स्वरत्याः स्वर्याः स्वरत्याः स्वर्याः स्वर्यः स्वरत्यः स्वर्यः स्वरत्यः स्वर्यः स्वरत्यः स्वरत्यः स्वर्यः स्वर्यः स्वर्यः स्वरय्यः स्वर्यः स्वर्यः स्वर्यः स्वरत्यः स्वर्यः स्वर स्वरय्यस्यः स्वरत्याः स्वरत्याः स्वरत्यायः स्वरत्यायः स्वरत्यायः स्वरत्यायः स्वर्यः स्वरय्यः स्वर्यः स्वरय्य स्वरय्यः स्वरत्याः स्वरत्याः स्वरत्यायः स्वरत्यायः स्वरत्यायः स्वरत्यः स्वरत्यः स्वरय्यः स्वरय्यायः स्वरय्यः स्य ૻવર્તિવાયાયથી સવર્સ્ટ્વરાક્ષેત્ર ક્ષેત્ર ક્ષેત્ર ક્ષેત્ર ક્ષેત્ર સ્થેત્ય છે ત્વેત્ય છે ત્વું યોટ ક્ષેય સાથવાય છે ત્યાં પ્રાપ્ત છે ત્યાં ત્યાં પ્રાપ્ત થયે ત્યાં ત્યાં પ્રાપ્ત થયે ત્યા પ્રાપ્ત થયે ત્યાં પ્રાપે ત્યાં પ્રાપ્ત થયે ત્યાપ્ત થયે ત્યા ત્યાં પ્રાપ્ત થયે ત્યાપ્ત થયે ત્યાં પ્રાપ્ત થયે ત્યાં પ્રાપ્ત થયે ત્યાં પ્રાપ્ત થયે ત્યાં પ્રાપ્ત સ્યાપ્ય સ્યાપ્ત સ્યાપ્ત સ્યાપ્ત સ્યાપ્ત સ્યાપ્ય સ્યાય સ્યાપ્ત સ્યાપ્ત સ્યાપ્ત સ્યાપ્ત સ્યાપ્ત સ્યાપ્ત સ્યાપ્ત સ્યાપ્ય સ્યાપ્ત સ્યાપ્ય સ્યાપ્ત સ્યાપ્ત સ્યાપ્ત સ્યાપ્ત સ્યાપ્ય સ્યાપ્ય સ્યાપ્ય સ્યાય સ્યા સ્યાપ્ત સ્યાપ્ત સ્યાપ્ત સ્યાપ્ત સ્યાપ્ય સ્યાપ્ય સ્યાપ્ત સ્યાપ્ય સ્યાપ્ત સ્યાપ્ત સ્યાપ્ય સ્યાપ્ત સ્યાપ્ત સ્યાપ્ય સ્યાપ્ય સ્યાપ્ત સ્યાપ્ય સ્યાપ્ય સ્યાપ્ત સ્યાપ્ય સ્યાપ્ય સ્યાપ્ત સ્યાપ્ય સ્યાપ્ય સ્યાપ્ય સ્યાપ્યાપ્ય સ્યાપ્ય સ્યાપ્ય સ્યાપ નચલ અત્ર લક્ષે જા માલે ખે શુઆનુ વાન દા સે ના સુંત્ર શું ખાંચા તે જા સુન લદ્દે તે સું લયે બા છેનુ આ સુન માં સુન સે આવને ખા

नक्नेन्ग्यते क्यायार्डवा विषा थेवा

๚ฺิติฮิลิวิฏิราริลาฺ฿ฺๅ ฮูลาฺยุลา฿ลานดิวลฺฃูราว๚าราา ริกาฑาฮุลานตูรานขั้าพารรา รัรายูรานรุ้มหาฐุญาวอง

ମ୍ବୟା ଜିଷ୍ୟ ସର୍ଦ୍ଧି।

मण्ड्रे। देन्त्रेणमार्द्रभग्रेंग्देगांगमार, प्रमुवाळ्या है भूर धेद द्वोत्तर्य युर भाषा **गर्यव**र्धेगमा क्षेंगमा संग्रेणमाय के दिसे देश (รน้ำริสา พ.)ฏิรสมนาณสาทสณานานดิสา ที่รารารนำรินานรินิาสราบีสารฐราฐสานนิายิสาฐรารีรานริรา ઽચેઃરેષા ૧૫ શેષાવશુરા શે વાં રેઢા અઠે દ્વાપારે. દેવાષા છે તે બુલ્લે બારે આ છે રેષા વશુરા છે વાં રેઢા અઠે દ્વાપારે. พญาตาสี่าสี่ดิาผิกาตาลี่ารี่กางตาลาร์ารี่สาญีสาดญี้รายาสสา णण्णसरम्पद्देः स्नर्रान्दन्दम् अत्यत्वः धुँग्रस्याववाववायम्दन्द्वा क्रुं स्वतः केरीणस्याप्रस्यावेषायस्य रुद्देः स्नर्यत्याप

สนิตเลอีนเสมฐาเสเซาะเปลี่ตเลอีนเนอีนเปล่าเป

୳ୖୢୠ୶୲୵୵୵ୡ୶୶୵ୡୄୢୗ୷୵ୠ୶୲ୡୗ

<u>ਗ਼</u>ੑੑੑੑੑਸ਼ੑਲ਼੶ਖ਼ੑਗ਼੶ਗ਼ੑੑੑੑੑੑੑੑੑੑੑਸ਼੶ਫ਼ੑਗ਼੶ਫ਼ਖ਼ੑਗ਼੶ਫ਼ਗ਼ੑੑੑਸ਼੶ਗ਼ੵ੶ਖ਼ਗ਼੶ਖ਼ਫ਼੶ਖ਼ੑਗ਼੶ਖ਼ੵੑੑੑੑਸ਼੶ਖ਼੶ਖ਼ੑਗ਼੶ਖ਼ੵੑਸ਼੶ਜ਼ਗ਼ੑੑੑੑੑੑੑੑੑੑੑਗ਼੶ਗ਼ੑੑੑੑੑੑੑੑੑੑੑੑੑ मेंद्र मार्ग्वया झुं. ^{*} भ्रे^{*} भ्वत्ते माहेश्वर्य्यवर्द्धव माहेमामीश्वरमाहेमाला प्वत्यांग्वर्थ्य मित्र स्वित्तुः रकेंग्रायमा गरेगार्मेगाग्री रयेवादगुरादे गवित परि रयेवादगुरावा गवित केर गुरावा दे सरावा दे गवित्र जुरा

ᠹᢆ᠋᠋ᡪ᠆ᠭᢆᢧᢩᢂ᠄ᢣᡜ᠂ᢙ᠋᠅᠋ᡘᡎᢂ᠋ᠴᡎᢂᠴ᠋ᠴᡘᡜᢋ ચલે 'ર્કેુેગુષ'શુ' વશ્વરા સેંતિ વસ્ત્રી નિર્ણુન છે. વાગી ' ૡઽ૾ૺૡઽૡ૾ૺૹૢ૽ૺઽ૾ૺઌૣૹૻઌૣૹૻૻઽૻૡઽ૽ૺૡૹૢૣૢૢ૽ૼ૱ૻૻ૱ ଞ୍ଖୁଲ'ହ୍ମିମଞ୍ଚିମ'ଶ୍ଚିମ୍'ମ୍ୟା ମି'ଝ୍ଟମ'ସଞ୍ଚୁମଷ'ୟରି' त्रगुरादेषाया हेरीषायादेवीरादार्यरा धुणने हे रदा देवा हा रख्यु र दे रा रा रा र ॻीॺॱॸॹॣॖॖॺॱॻऺऺऺऀॱज़ॖ॓ॱॸऀॻऻॺॱॸॆॖऀढ़ऀॱढ़ॻॖ॒॒॓ॴॱॸॾॆॕॖॸॱ

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the tree to the other, many small subtle speciations add up to large changes very slowly over millions of years and many branches. This leads to our second big challenge: the timescales involved here are huge (billions of years as we discussed) and hard to imagine.

Also because of this it is difficult to actually observe speciation in action. But, we *are* able to see the beginnings of some speciation in action (like the cases of Darwin's finches and antibiotic resistance we discussed), and when we combine the evidence we see in fossils, DNA sequence, and from other signs of evolution, we can build an excellent case for macroevolution.

Different lineages (branches of the family trees) can have different patterns of change. Many lineages remain unchanged for millions of years, others change often or abruptly. What factors would be important in whether lineage change occurs and at what speed?

In the end most lineages (nearly all those that have existed on Earth) share the same fate: **extinction**, scientists' word for the death of an entire species. Looking across the span of Earth's history, massive extinctions appear to have occurred approximately every 100 million years (Figure 26). These mass extinctions are probably due to some hugely dramatic environmental change like a meteor hitting Earth. One such event happened about 225 million years ago and led to the extinction of more than 90% of all species on earth! Sounds scary, but on the positive side, when so many species disappear, op-



Figure 26: Extinctions throughout time. Extinctions occur when an entire species dies out, and mass extinctions happen regularly throughout time. On occasion, an extreme event will occur that kills off many of the species on the planet.

रैण्इः अट र्थेन्द्वी में हु र्थेण मे थें हु





શું ખેંદ્રા થલે થેં બાલે બેં જીવાયો છેં છેંવે. બાહીર સંલેવા ગિયાયી સંખાજીર ખું છે. આ ગામ આ નવે સંશ્વેદ સંદ નવે ગાય મારે છે. તે નવે સંદ નવે સ

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้ชั้ตๆญ พราฐการจพามราชีาญี่รักพาพารูามราคฏรารามิรายรารราชีรายุสพายารุรา อาฐกายาคยุรา

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<u> বিম</u>াঝাল্লবা รगाद र्बे थेंना ने क्षेत्र वतर ग्रेग त्युर ग्रे तेगमा तयाद रेते ग्रेन रेब ग्रे त्ये हैं वा पत्वित या र के मा वि व। गॅ्रान्त्नर्भवरग्री मुग्रियां करे क्रॅंग्रान्त्या गॅ्रान्थ्यात् पार्क्षयात् प्रत्ये व्याप्त्र व्याप्त भ्रम्पर्गप्तिषु) नेत्रः अः चन् मः रेजेषाः अर्वेतः पत्निषु पतिः त्युत्तः हेतेः छेत्रः नुगण्यायतेः नगरः हण्यायान् ने खेवाः खेतेः

^અ'નદ'લ્વેગ')| નેલે'ન્વદ'વીશ'ગશ્ચર'गલિંग'નું જ્ઞુ જ્ઞાં વાલેવા ઢીલા

ઌૼૹਗ਼ૹ੶ਸ਼੶ୖੑੑੑੑੑੑ੶੶੶ૹ૾ૼૹ੶ૹૹ૾ૼૡ੶ਖ਼ૢਗ਼ૡૡ૾૾ૼૡૹ૽ૣ૾ૢૢૺ૾ઙઽૡૹ૽ઌ૽૾ਗ਼ૻ૾ૢૼૼૼૼૼૡ૽ૻૡ૽ૡૼ૱૱ૡૢ૽ૼૡ૾૾૾ૡઌૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡૡ portunities (environmental 'spaces' called **niches**) are opened up for the evolution of all sorts of new species, an explosion of new life forms. Just such an explosion happened about 530 million years ago in the oceans over a brief evolutionary time period (around 10 million years).

FUTURE QUESTIONS IN EVOLUTIONARY BIOLOGY

As we have seen, the evidence for evolution is overwhelming. Like with all scientific concepts, the theory of evolution continues to be explored and reshaped, but the underlying tenets of Darwin's ideas have only been reinforced over the 150 years since he published *The Origin of Species*. Many difficult questions remain, and this is what makes science exciting: the more and better experiments we do, and the more and better data we get, the sharper our theories become. It's a kind of evolution.

One common question about evolution is 'how does complexity evolve?' For example, how did organisms evolve from having no eyes to having eyes? What good is half an eye? Or half a wing? Similarly, how do complex biochemical pathways evolve to make, for example, DNA? What good is a pathway that only makes something that eventually will, millions of years later, evolve into DNA?

Good theories are emerging to address these questions: in the case of the eye, for example, Dan-Erik Nilsson has developed models, starting with the computer and then using plastic and metal, to demonstrate how an eye could have evolved in as little as a half million years starting with only light-sensitive cells and evolving into a camera-like eye similar to those we humans have.

Remember: anything that gives an organism an advantage in the environment in which it lives may well be selected for by natural selection. If an organism evolves even just a tiny patch of cells that are somewhat light-sensitive, this would allow it to detect the shadows of a predator and thereby increase its fitness. Nilsson shows that any depression at all of these cells creates a situation where the cells across the depression have different exposures to light and thus can measure that light in different orientations. So, this patch of cells reflected on a backdrop of other cells (a primitive retina he represents with a translucent sheet of plastic) now carries information that is fuzzy, but does allow for the detection of movement. Indeed, flatworms living today (see Flatworms sidebar) have just such an eye – a collection of depressed light-sensitive cells.

But what if, in order to survive, organisms need to detect faster predators or prey than they can with the simple flatworm eye? Nilsson shows that if the center of the light-sen-

FLATWORMS AN IMAGE GALLERY

Flatworms have the ability to perceive movement using a light-sensitive patch of cells.



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য়ৢ))᠊᠋᠊᠋ᡖᢩᡣ᠙ᡊ᠄ᡱᢩᢖᢋ᠊ᡃᡅᡭ᠂ᡪ᠋ᡬ᠊ᠯ᠋᠉ᠮ᠋ᡝ᠇᠋᠋᠋ᡎ᠋᠋᠋᠋ᠯ᠄ᢅ᠌ᡘᡃ᠊ᢒ᠋ᢆ᠂ᡅᢅ᠆᠂ᢋᡄᠠᢅᢋᡳ᠊ᠵ᠋᠋ᢋᠧ᠆ᡘᠽ᠋᠋ᢓᡵ᠃ᠺᢋᢂ᠋ᢁ᠋᠍ᡜ᠋ᠳᡱ᠋᠆ᢣᡅᢅᡩ᠄ᢆ᠍ᡅᡆ᠋ শব্য: <u></u> નેષઃૠૢૢ૽ૺૡ઼ૣ૱ૡૺૡ૽ૻ૱ૹૢ૱ૡૹૼ૱ૻઌ૽૿ૢ૽૱૱ૡ૽ૼ૱ *ॺॺॎऀॸख़*ढ़ऀॱॶॖॺॱॻॖॖऀॱॻॖऀॸॱॺॱॡॖ॔ॺॱळॸॱय़ॖऀॺॱळॕॸॱॻॖॖऀॸॱॸॖॱढ़ॸॖॖॺॱॺऻ <code>གઌઽ̃ᠵ་ᡆᠵ་ᠵᢍ᠈ᡆ᠋ᡭ᠊ᡎᢦ᠋ᠭ᠍᠊ᡆ᠋ᢓ᠆ᡪ᠉ᡁ᠆ᡎᡅ᠂ᠪ᠄ᢩᢋ᠄᠊ᢋᠧ᠆ᡭᡭ᠄ᡭ᠊ᡎᢦ᠉᠅ᢓ᠊ᡆ᠈ᠭᢅᡄ᠄ᡆᢆᡃ᠖ᢧ᠆ᡃᡆᠵ᠊ᡎᡄᢁ᠋ᡄ᠉ᡬᢅ᠆᠄᠔ᢆ᠋ᢄᡷᡆ᠈ᠱᠵ᠊ᡥ᠋᠖ᢅᡠᢋ</mark></code> ૡ૬ૻૻઌૡ૾ૺૻૹ૾૾ઌૻૻૡઙૣૹૻૡ૾ૡૼૡ૾ૻૡ૽ૻઌ૽ૼૡૻઌ૽ૼૡૻઌૻૡૻઌૻૡૻ૽ઌૻ૽ૡ૽ૻૡૻ૽ૡૻ૽ૡ૽ૻૡૻ૽ૡ૽ૻૡ૽ૻૡ૽ૻૡ૽ૻૡ૽૿ઌૻ૾ૡ૽૿ઌૻ૾ૡ૽૿ઌૻ૾ૡ૽૿ઌૻ૾ૡૺૼૼ૱ૡ૽૿ૡ

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᠋ᢓ᠊᠋ᠴ᠈᠋ᡄᡲᡃ᠊ᡪ᠋᠋᠋᠋᠊᠋ᡏ᠋ᡎ᠉᠃ᡆᢋ᠙ᡄ᠋᠋ᢩᠲᠴ᠋ᢦ᠋᠓᠋ᢆᢧ᠙ᠴᠲ᠆ᢅ᠋ᡷᡧ᠋ᡃᢆ᠋᠋ᢆᢖ᠆ᢣᡭ᠄ᡭᡆᢩᡰᢦ᠉᠄ᡬᡗ᠊᠋ᡎ᠖ᠸ᠄ᡧᡎᠯ᠋᠉᠂ᡬᡗᡎ᠋ᡎ᠉ᡬᡗ᠋᠋ $- \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j=1}^{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum$

શુરુષ્પ બેવ વર્ષા શ્રેષા છેનુ રાજ્ય બાજા એનુ વ ત્વો અઢવ છે લેવા તુ શુરુ બેંનુ ત્સા બાન વા બનના વર્ષા વેના છેનુ જયા બાજા એનુ વ ત્વો ના છે. ૾૾ૺૹ૾ૺૡૹ૾ૺૡૹ૾ૢ૽ૺૢૼૻઌ૾૽ઽ૽૽ૼઽૻૼઽૻૼૼઽૻ૽૽ૣૼ૾ૡૢઽૻૡૡ૾ૺઌૡઌૢૢૻઽૻૹ૾ૼઽૻૻઌ૿ૡૻૡૡ૱ૡૣૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૻૻ૽ૼૡૻૻૹ૽ૻૡૻ૽ૡૻૻૡૼૡૡ૽ૻ૱ૡ૿ૡૡૡ૽ૻૡૡૡ૽ૻૡૡૡ

สมพาตินาซ์ทพาสิาธิสานขู้ रादेषाधी वर्षे आदा राष्ट्रे राष्ट्र

ะชั้สเวิลาๆลงานดิสา ผนงานยู่สาวิๆานสามูลายิราชิารุนการุกลาลลายูงางสานรุสานพัรา ริายุสาสนกาชสาวิทา ૿૽ૺૺૺૺૺૡૢૻઃશુવૻઃग़ૢૡૻઽઽૻ૱ૹૢૼઽૹૻૻ૱ઽૡૡૺઌૻૡૹૄ૱૽૽ૹ૾૽૽ૺઽ૽ૺૼૺૼૺૼૼૼૡૻૻઌૡ૽૽૽ૼૺઽૻઽૻૢઽૻૻૡૢૻ૱ૡૢૻૡૼૡ૽ૡ૽ૼ૱ૡૡૢ૽ૡૼૡ૽ૻૡ૽ૼૡ૾ૻૡૼૡ૾ૻ૱૾૽ૡ૽ૼૡૡ૽ૻ૱ૡ૽૿ૡૡ૽ૼૡૡ૽ૻ૽ૼૡૡ૽ૻ૱ૡ૽ૻૡૡ૽ૼૡૡ૽ૻ૽ૼૡૡ૽ૻૡૡ૽ૻૡૡ૽ૻૡૡ૽ૻૡૡૡ तह्वाहेः अट न्ट्र हे लेगावानुवाय नक्कु दाराळें र गाव वाळ्ल पहें अट न्ट्र हे जना पहें नाया के लाव र के ते गाव र जाव र ज र जाव र जा र जाव र ज र जाव र ज जाव र ज जाव र जाव जाव र जाव जाव र जाव जाव र जाव जाव र जाव जाव र जाव

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ૡૡૢ੶ૡ૽ઌ੶ઽૣਗ਼੶ਗ਼૾ੑੑੑੑੑੑੑੑੑૹૻઌૼઽૣ੶ૹૻૼૻઽ੶ઌૡ૾ૺ੶ਖ਼ੑ੶ सुर-रिनुबावाडीवाबार्ट्याला हीत्र हीत् र देश र ૡਗ਼ੵੑਗ਼੶ੑੑੑੑੑੑੑੑੑੑੑੑੑੑੑੑਗ਼ੑਗ਼ਗ਼ੑਗ਼ਗ਼ੑਗ਼੶ਸ਼ੑਖ਼ੑਗ਼ਗ਼ੑਗ਼੶ ধ্বশ

নন্য:শিশা न्यरःरेश्वःस्रेरःयःविष sitive cell patch is constricted, the light becomes more focused on the retina backdrop, and light detection improves. In fact, this is what occurs in the modern-day seasnail, the chambered nautilus (Figure 27). But, 'eyes' like those in the chambered nautiluses, in narrowing their centers, significantly decrease the *amount* of light they can detect. Nilsson says a much better solution than constriction that evolved is to cover the light hole with two sheets of clear cells, otherwise known as a lens.



Figure 27: Chambered Nautilus

When Nilsson models this with two sheets of transparent plastic, a lot of light still shines through to the primitive retina, and, if he adds water between the two sheets of clear cells (represented by plastic), making the lens bulge out and become rounder, the image on the retina gets even sharper. The more water he adds, the rounder the lens becomes, and the sharper the image; this results in an eye-like model very similar to human eyes. This is an example of how modeling, in conjunction with the observation of existing species, can demonstrate how evolution might happen. Nilsson's example is particularly striking because it is so simple in concept and predicts that the whole process could happen over just a few hundred thousand generations.

EVOLUTION BEYOND SCIENCE

Perhaps no other scientific idea has been as revolutionary as Darwin's theory of evolution. In the century-and-a-half since he and Wallace introduced it to the world, many others, in realms outside of science, integrated the theory into ideas outside of strict science. Some of these instances saw the fatal twisting of Darwin's ideas to support great calamities in human history; the eugenics movement, driven by the idea that one could select for 'the best' humans, was born in the United States and then co-opted and twisted even further by Hitler and his Nazi Party to promulgate the idea of genetically elite humans and to help justify the attempted elimination of entire groups of human beings.

In a much more positive vein, Darwin's ideas have helped lead to a better understanding of how other complex phenomena and processes, like language or even ideas themselves, evolve. In his book *Guns, Germs, and Steel*, Jared Diamond provides a provocative example of how applying Darwin's ideas can help rethink fields far outside biology. Diamond hypothesizes that the entire curve of the history of human cultures can be explained by natural selection. He starts with a question he was asked by a native New Guinean: why did white European cultures invade and colonize native African and American cultures, rather than vice versa?

Diamond builds a convincing case that the answer is primarily about the environment in which different peoples found themselves. To simplify his ideas: those peoples who

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<u> ને '</u>ભૂત્ર' આ ગુરૂષ પાર્ટ : '' આ જ ગુરુષ ગુર ગુરુષ ગ ગુરુષ ગુર ગુરુષ ગુરુ

ᠺ᠋᠋᠊᠋ᢟᡄ᠊᠋ᢐ᠋ᡇ᠂ᢆᡃᢆᢧᡃ᠆ᡏ᠋ᡬ᠋ᢆ᠉ᡩ᠋᠉ᢋᢌ᠋ᢂ᠂ᠺᡆᡎ᠊ᠬᠺᡎᢩᠵ᠄᠋ᡛ᠂ᡎᠵ᠂ᡆᢩᠳ᠋᠊᠈ᡚᢅ᠃᠋᠋᠋ᡆᡪ᠋ᡩ᠋᠋ᡨᡘ᠋ᢋᠴᠯ᠋ᡵ २२.भेव. ग्री रेगाय इटबाय के क्वें व बाक्री ख़्व कव रेगा भवा गविव यदे रेगाय क्वबा भवर राम्र क्वा राम्र राम्र राम <code>᠊ᢒᢩ᠊ᢂ᠄᠊᠊ᢆᡠᡆ᠋᠋᠊ᡅᡭ᠊᠄ᢓᢅᡎᡆ᠋᠈᠊ᢐᢩ᠂᠊ᡭ᠗ᢂᢂ᠙ᠺᡎᡅ᠄ᡱᡆᢂ᠄ᡄ᠉ᡚᢆ᠂ᡪ᠋ᡶ᠉᠗ᢟᢋ᠉ᠴ᠋ᠵ᠄ᠮᢆ᠂ᠺᢋᢅᡜ᠉ᢓᢩ᠕ᡃ᠊ᢒᢂ᠉ᡬᡗ᠋᠋᠁ᡏᡝᡄ᠄᠋ᡇᢆᢂ᠄ᡭᡭᡘ᠂ᠺᢩ᠍ᡘᡝᠴᡭ᠄</mark></code> ने भारा कि ग्वी मा की सु क्रे के भारत खुव के लिया में मा कि भारत के भारत के भारत के भारत के भारत के भारत के भारत ସ୍ୱସ୍ୟ ପ୍ରିୟ ଐମ୍ବା ายศารน์วิเวล์ เวล์ เวลียงเขา ริเหล้าริเวริเวริสา ราวรายู่รักเขิงสิเรลาที่ระวัลิเริ่าๆ ๆดูกราวๆ จิเหล่าริเพา ઽઽઽૹૻૻૹ૾૽૽ૼઽ૾ૺૼૼૹૻૻઌૺૼ૾૾૾૾ૼૼૼૼૼૺૺઌૻૻઌૻૻૡૢૼૼઽૻ૱ૼૡૼૡૼૡઽૢૼૡઽઽઽૡઽૡૢૻઽ૱ૹૻ૾ૡ૾ૻૼઽૻૻૡૡૡ૾૾૾૾૾૾૾ૡ૽ૻૡૡઽૻ૱ૡ૽૾ૡ૽૾ૡ૾૽ૡૡ૾૽૱ૡૡ

<u>ุจุรายสาหาร</u>ู

*ਙ੶*ਗ਼ਸ਼੶ੑੑੑੑੑੑੑੑਲ਼੶੶ਖ਼ੑੑੑੑੑੑੑੑੑੑੑਸ਼੶ਗ਼ੑੑਫ਼ੑੑਸ਼੶ਗ਼ੑੑਖ਼ੑਗ਼ੑਗ਼ੑਖ਼੶ਫ਼ੑਫ਼ੑ੶ਗ਼ੑਗ਼ੑੑਫ਼੶ਖ਼ੑਗ਼ੑਗ਼ੑਸ਼੶ਫ਼ੑਫ਼ੑ੶ਗ਼ਗ਼ੑਖ਼੶ਫ਼ਫ਼ੑਖ਼੶ਸ਼ਫ਼ਖ਼ੑਖ਼੶ਗ਼ੑੑਗ਼ੑੑਫ਼੶ਗ਼ੑੑ ५८९भेः भेषे स्वयंगविषः ग्रीषः कार्यः में ग्यायेः स्वेरः दुः में गां पर्यः देने से स्वयंग्यः देने से स्वयंग्यः स्वयंगयः स्वयंगयः स्वयंग्यः स्वयंग्यः स्वयंग्यः स्वय स्वयंग्यः स्वयंग्यः स्वयंग्यः स्वयंग्यः स्वयंग्यः स्वयंग्यः स्वयंगयः स्वयंगयः स्वयंग्यः स्वयंग्यः स्वयंग्यः स्वयंगयः स्वयंग्यः स्वयंग ฏพ^ะธิ์ขานผิ:ริขานพ_ีพูณ_์ฐัน:ฏพนาณาสุสาสพาหาริผิ:สุนามิ:ริขาพานริมพาขุพพานขุณเลขุณเลิงเนพ ³शे रैणबाह्यबाह्य-२. त्यायाबार्य्य अदि रेणबाहुराणबया विणाशुनायरा पक्षायते प्रबाध क्रुंया देराणवुरा र दोया श्रे की <u>वर्षणिहत्वात्रवेषणः ज्ञुयण्वेत्व</u>र्ध्ययय्यत्वन् ह्युँद्युष्यहे। क्षेत्वेः त्रेणषातुष्यणवत्वाद्यवायः विणः स्वकेत्तुः णहेत्यतुरः

*ਫ਼*ਗ਼੶ਸ਼ਗ਼੶ਸ਼ਜ਼੶ਸ਼ਜ਼ਖ਼੶ਸ਼ਖ਼੶ਸ਼ਗ਼ੑਸ਼

૽ઞેનૻ દેંશ વાલેશ મેં (લર્ને રંબર્શ) વાર્વેવા વીશ અર્જે વ બેંના) ને લે મનર વ સુ સુવાય મથા ગૃત્ર શાવા વાય ને ગવા છે રાજ્ય છે છે : <u>યાલુવાય ને દુ: શ્ર</u>ેન.રે. ગ્રેમ્.ત.રે. ગ્રેમ્.ત.રે. જોય રે. જોય છે. ક્યાના જોય તે પ્રાપ્ત છે. ક્યાના જોય છે. ક્યાના જોય છે. આ પ્રાપ્ત જોય છે. આ પ્રા આ પ્રાપ્ત જોય છે. આ પ





वृत्तःणे ञ्चणायसुः श्रे। कृत्तः स्वतः वर्ग्येवः सुः विषायतेः श्रेत्तः न्द्रेर्या सुः अर्थेतः क्रुः थॅपना (त्रयेः त्रेषा १४) तेवः ग्रुतः कृतः स्वतः पर्यवः ૡુઃ૾૾ૡૢૹૻ૾ૹ૾ૢઽૻઌ૽૿૾ૻૹ૾૾ઌૻૻૡઽૻૹ૾૾ૻૡઽૻૻૡ૾૾ઽ૾ૡઽૻૡૻ૾ૡૢ૾ૹ૾ૢઽૻૡઽૻૹ૾ૢૼઌૹૻૡૡૢૹૻ૾ૡૼૡૹૻૡૼૺૻૡૹૻ૾ૼૼૼૼૼૼૻૡ૽૾ૡ૾ૺૹૻઌૡ૾ૺ ભયુષ્ય યોષાય છે. તેમું તેમું સુધ્ય પુર્શુ તે દ્વેતે છે. તેમું તેમું તેમું સુધ્ય પુર્વુ તેમું તેમું સુધ્ય પુર્વુ તેમું ઽઌૢૻઽઌ૾૾૾ૡૢૻૡૢઽ૾ઌ૽૿ૢ૾ૺ૾ૡૻૻૻ૽ઌ૾ૻઌૻઌ૾૽ૡૻ૽ઌ૽૿ૡૻ૽ઌ૽૿ૡૻ૽ઌ૽ૻઌ૽૿ૡૻ૽ૡૻ૽ૡૻ૽ઌ૽૿ૡૻ૽ઌ૽૿ૡૻ૽ઌ૾૽ૡૻ૽ઌ૾૽ૡૻ૽ઌ૾૽ૡૻ૽ઌ૾૽ૡૻ૽ઌ૾૽ૡૻ૽ઌ૾૽ૡૻ૽ઌ૾૽ૡૻ૽ઌ૾૽ૡૻ૽ઌ૾૽ૡૻ૽ઌ૾૽ૡૻ૽ઌ૾૾ઌ૾ૻઌ૾ૻઌ૾ૻઌૻ૾ઌૻ૾ઌૻ૾ઌૻ

were in an environment that happened to have plants and animals that could be domesticated (and there are very few such plants and animals) were able to settle down and farm. This led to human settlements in which the plants and animals 'did the work' people had previously had to do. This freed up the people and their brains for more time to think, more time to develop better ways to do things—first to make their food attainment even more efficient (inventing firearms, plows, etc.) and then eventually to move on from there to become more creative in even more ways. Meanwhile, the peoples who were not in environments that happened to have domesticable plants or animals could not settle down and invent, but had to devote most of their energy to obtaining food and other basic needs. So, one culture can dominate another based on a long history of advantages provided by the environment and the adaptation by the humans to that environment. Sound familiar?

So perhaps we can expand Dobzhansky's statement with which we started this book to say '*nothing* makes sense without evolution'. Perhaps. Regardless, evolution is clearly the foundation of all biology. As you continue to study cells and genes, and the even more complex systems of biology and neuroscience, this will become more and more evident.

णवन नेंवने खेते केंग का हे कें कें

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ਤਿਉੱਕਾਂ ਸਿੱਤਾ ਸ਼੍ਰਤਾ ਬੁੱਤਾ ਬੁੱਤਾ ਬਾਲ ਤਾ ਕਿ ਇੱਤਾ ਕ

Amber Amphibia antibiotics antibiotics resistance archaea Artificial selection Bacteria **Bacteriods** Base analog **Biochemical pathways** bristlecone pine Cambrian explosion Canis familiaris Carl Linnaeus' naming system **Cartilagenous Fish** chambered nautilus clades Coelacanths Coevolution Constriction coring device Cork Cortical cells **Co-speciation** Crocodilians cytochrome b5 Daughter atoms Deep Field Deep time deoxyribonucleic acid double helix E.coli eugenics movement eukaryota eukaryotic cells fertilization Fixation flatworms flus Gamete Gene flow Genetic drift Geneticist Germs

ଞ୍ଲାୟ'ର୍ଲ୍ଲିଗ'ସାନ୍ତିଷ'ମ୍ବଚ୍ଛିଷ'ର୍ଲ୍ଲିସା'ଜସାଷା শন্তব নেই রিম্বা জনগী শ্বশ্বীৰা ୖଈଵ୕୶୳ୖ<u>ୖ</u>ୖୢଈଵୄ୶୵୷ୠ୶୲ୄ_{ୖଈ}୶ নন্মু:ধ্রুরি:ইশ্রুমা দন্য শ্ববি নী শাৰ্ষ দেয়া যা**ৰি**'অমি'ৰ্ক্তম'<u>ৰ্ল্</u>ৰমা ૹ૽ૢૢૺૡ૱ૡૻૻૡૻ૱ૡૼૹ૿ૢૢૣૣૣૻૠ૽ૻૹ૽૾ૡૡૻ૱ૡૻ ૱૾ૺૡૡૡૡૡૡ ગોચ'નૈ'નૈ'ਘૅૅૅૅ 'પૅૅૅૅ 'પૅૅૅં 'પૅૅં 'પૅૅં 'પૅંચ 'પૅંચ 'પૅંચ' 'પૅંચ 'પૅંચ' 'પૅંચ' 'પૅંચ' 'પૅંચ' 'પૅંચ' 'પૅંચ' ' गों के छि रेगाओं *૫*૫:ઽ઼ૣૣઌઽ૾ૡ૽૾ૺ૾ૡૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૺઌ হিন'দন্ট্রিরি'ঝ'৸য় *ন্ত*শ্বেষ'ন্<u>ড</u>ৰা ळॅंद्र ख़ुव र्वों व रा ٤ র'র্ক্ট'ন'শ্রল্পন'ডবা <u> ચ</u>ૈદ્ય પ્રસંગ પ્રસંગ પ્રચીચ પ્ર নম্থু:স্লুঝ'য়্ৰি'ট্ৰব্'নীঝা নম্খু:স্লুঝা ૡઽૢૢૢ૽ૼૼઽૻ૽ઙ૽ૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢ૽ૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૢૺૢૡૻૹ૾ૻૻ র্গাঁন:শ্লীস্থাস্থন্য <u>র্</u>রুম'রেট্রীঝ'রেয়্রুম' क़ॖॱड़ॖॖॖॖऺॺॱड़॒े॒य़ॆॱॻॊ॔ॻॱय़ॻॖॕय़ऀॱड़ॖॖॖॖ॔ॻॱळॻॺ। ধ্ৰ'ৰ্ক্টবি'শ্বী'ধশ্য ন্থ'স্থুন্থ' ᠺ᠋᠊᠋᠊᠊ᡯ᠋᠋ᢋ᠋᠋ᡔ᠋ᡜ᠋᠋ᠬᡃᠭ᠋ᠳ᠋ᠵ᠄ᢂ᠋ᠴ᠊ᠵᡃ᠋ᠿᠵ᠄᠊ᡍᠵ*᠄*ᡓᢌᢩ᠋ ୩ଟିଷଂମ୍ବଟ୍ରମଂକ୍ଷଷଂଶ୍ରି ସମ୍ମିମ୍ୟା ঞ্জ'র্সা মি মন্যু শ্বা ૹ૾૾ૺઃઽ૾ૺઌૢૻૹૻૻૡ૱ૹૹૻૻ૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱૱ *ণ্ডিম*:ডব:স্ন্র<u>)</u>:শ্বব য়৾৾য়৾৾য়৽ঀ৾৾ঽয়৾ৠৢ৾৾য়৾৾ঢ়৾য় જ્ઞુત્ર વર્ગેઓ જ્ઞુત્ર વર્ગેઓ શું દુવ নন্ন:শিবা <u></u>&અ'&ંદ્ર'ગ્રે'રેગચરીગ দেয়ার্জান্যুনার্জা नैवाबास्वायुन्तःक्तु দেন্ট্র দের্যা

Gigatons Gray Groundbreaking half-life Hominids Homo sapiens Homologies Hyracotherium (Echip pus) (dawn horse) Ice core Ice coring Influenza Intercalating agents. Ionizing radiation Karyotypes Lampreys Legumes lichen Lungfish Macroevolution mammary glands Marsupial Mammals Microevolution Migration molten mass Monotreme Mammals क्षेंग्विया तुंगर्भेम सेम्रम उदा **Mutagens** Mutation Natural selection Non-avian Dinosaurs **Ornischian Dinosaurs** Parent atoms peppered moth Phenotype phosphoric salts Phylogeney **Placental Mammals** Placoderms Pneumonia Population Primate phylogeny Primate prokaryota radioactive decay chain

ষণ্যঅর্নিয় মের্নিযান্সার্ন্যা สมารฏ์ราทุจรามสิวรราสุดิสา *કેુે*ઽ:∋ઽ:ઽ઼ૅ઼ચ:સુવ] ฐาลิ เปิล กรุรา শ্বদ'ষ্বী রিশ্রশ্রপ্রব দ্বিশ্রমা শর্নির'ঝনি'লা রদ্রদ্রামান্টন'নের্'রিমা

ซราริผจะสิัราจนิ สุรารุข गश्रेम'२हग'मुर'क्तुंबा શેષાં દ્વારા યુદ્ધાના પ્રાથમિક સાથે છે. આ પ્રાથમિક સાથે છે. આ પ્રાથમિક સાથે છે. આ પ્રાથમિક સાથે છે. આ પ્રાથમિક ळेंबग्वाञ्चयाबग्धूत्रः झेया 3'45'4 ભે.ગ્રુચાવ્રુચાર્યુ સંવેદા থি'দেব'ট্টি'শেদামা র্ন্নি'নি দেধীনাদেগ্রুসাসগ্রামা দের্দ্রমানগ্র্যুস:শ্ব:র্মা শ্ববন্ধ শ্ৰুঁমা बे लुव ग्री गेंद न्यु ત્શુત્ર સેંગ કેન જેવા ক্তুব শ্বব ঊষ শ ন শ ন শ ন শ ন শ ন শ यर्वेग'ेर'गृत्रुय'तज्ज्य ষ'₹থ| শ্বীনানন্য-স্ন্রী-শ্বী रैगबास्थायर्देवाह्य સુ જે તે 'જુ র্ক্রিযামান্ট্রবি'নের্রানা-মিমা প'ঝ'ডব'ট্ৰ)'ব্ৰ'শৰ্মিশ্ব'শ্বীশ'ক্তনা র'ম্রেম'ঝর্য্যা'ডব' গ্র্রীর্ক্তন'বন'শাঁণী র্ক্তিযাঝ'ন্দ্রেম্বা ર્ફ્સે હ્યુન રચેલે રહેવાય સ્થેલે ત્વચે બ જે આ র্ন্নিন্থব-ফুনি-ঝিঝঝাতবা *ণ্ডি*ম্মের্যু:শ্রুবা तेयोद्यात्रस्थित्रस्य स्वीत्र ग्री लिया *ঀয়ৣ*৲য়৾৾৽৾৾ঀয়

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