

Chapter 1: A Short History of Evolution Theory

Despite having its heritage in ancient Greece, the theory of evolution was first brought to the consideration of the scientific world in the nineteenth century. The most carefully considered view of evolution was expressed by the French biologist Jean-Baptiste Lamarck, in his *Zoological Philosophy* (1809). Lamarck thought that all living things were endowed with a vital force that steered them to evolve toward greater complexity. He also thought that organisms could impart to their offspring traits acquired during their lifetimes. As an example of this way of thinking, Lamarck suggested that the long neck of the giraffe evolved when a short-necked ancestor took to browsing on the leaves of trees instead of on grass.

This evolutionary model of Lamarck's was invalidated by the discovery of the laws of genetic inheritance. In the middle of the twentieth century, the discovery of the structure of DNA revealed that the nuclei of the cells of living organisms possess very special genetic information, and that this could not be altered by 'acquired traits'. In other words, during its lifetime, even though a giraffe managed to make its neck a few centimetres longer by extending it to upper branches, this trait would not pass to its offspring. In short, the Lamarckian view was simply refuted by scientific findings and went down in history as a faulty assumption.

However, the evolutionary theory formulated by another natural scientist, who lived a couple of generations after Lamarck, proved to be more influential. This natural scientist was Charles Robert Darwin, and the theory he formulated is known as "Darwinism".

The Birth of Darwinism

Charles Darwin based his theory on various observations he made as a young naturalist on board the *HMS Beagle*, which sailed in late 1831 on a five-year official voyage around the world. Young Darwin was heavily influenced by the variety of species he observed, especially of the different Galapagos Island finches. The differences in the beaks of these birds, Darwin thought, were a result of their adaptation to their different environments.

After this voyage, Darwin started to visit animal markets in England. He observed that breeders produced new breeds of cow by mating animals with different characteristics. This experience, together with the different finch species he observed in the Galapagos Islands, contributed to the formulation of his theory. In 1859 he published his views in his book *The Origin of Species*, postulating that all species had descended from a single ancestor, evolving from one another over time by slight variations.

What made Darwin's theory different from Lamarck's was his emphasis on 'natural selection'. Darwin theorised that there is a struggle for survival in nature, and that natural selection is the survival of strong species, which can adapt to their environment. Darwin adopted the following line of reasoning:

Within a particular species there are natural and coincidental variations. For instance, some cows are bigger than others, while some have darker colours. Natural selection selects the favourable traits. The process of natural selection thus causes an increase of favourable genes within a population, which results in the features of that population becoming better adapted to local conditions. Over time these changes may be significant enough to cause a new species to arise.

However, this 'theory of evolution by natural selection' gave rise to doubts from the start:

1. What were the natural and coincidental variations referred to by Darwin? It was true that some cows were bigger than others, while some had darker colours, yet how could these variations provide an explanation for the diversity in animal and plant species?
2. Darwin asserted that living beings evolved gradually. In this case, formerly there should have lived millions of "transitional forms". Yet there was no trace of these theoretical creatures in the fossil record. Darwin gave considerable thought to this problem, and eventually arrived at the conclusion that further research would provide these fossils.
3. How could natural selection explain complex organs, such as eyes, ears or wings? How can it be defended that these organs evolved gradually, bearing in mind that they would fail to function if they had even a single part missing?
4. Before considering these questions, consider the following: How did the first organism, the so-called ancestor of all species according to Darwin, come into existence? Could natural processes give life to something which was originally inanimate and dead?

Darwin was, at least, aware of some these questions, as can be seen from the chapter “Difficulties of the Theory”. However, the answers he provided had no scientific validity. HS Lipson, a British physicist, makes the following comments about these “difficulties” of Darwin's:

On reading *The Origin of Species*, I found that Darwin was much less sure himself than he is often represented to be; the chapter entitled “Difficulties of the Theory” for example, shows considerable self-doubt. I was particularly intrigued by his comments on how the eye would have arisen.¹

Darwin invested all his hopes in advanced scientific research, which he expected to dispel the “difficulties of the theory”. However, contrary to his expectations, more recent scientific findings have merely increased these difficulties.

The Problem of the Origin of Life

In his book, Darwin never mentioned the origin of life. The primitive understanding of science in his time rested on the assumption that living things had very simple structures. Since mediaeval times, spontaneous generation, the theory that non-living matter could come together to form living organisms, had been widely accepted. It was commonly believed that insects came into existence from leftover bits of food and that mice came into being from wheat. Interesting experiments were conducted to prove this theory. Wheat was placed on a dirty piece of cloth, and it was expected that mice would appear in due course.

Similarly, the fact that maggots appeared in meat was believed to be proof for spontaneous generation. However, it was only realized some time later that maggots did not appear in meat spontaneously, but were carried by flies in the form of larvae invisible to the naked eye.

Even in the era when Darwin's *Origin of Species* was written, the belief that bacteria could come into existence from inanimate matter was pervasive.

However, five years after the publication of Darwin's book, Louis Pasteur announced his results after long studies and experiments which disproved spontaneous generation, a cornerstone of Darwin's theory. In his triumphal lecture at the Sorbonne in 1864, Pasteur said, “Never will the

¹ Lipson, 1988, p 6

doctrine of spontaneous generation recover from the mortal blow struck by this simple experiment”.²

Supporters of the theory of evolution refused to accept Pasteur's findings for a long time. However, as scientific progress revealed the complex structure of the cell, the idea that life could come into being coincidentally faced an even greater impasse. We shall consider this subject in some detail later.

The Problem of Genetics

Another subject that posed a dilemma for Darwin's theory was inheritance. At the time when Darwin developed his theory, the question of how living beings transmitted their traits to other generations – that is, how inheritance took place – was not completely understood. That is why the naive belief that inheritance was transmitted through blood was commonly accepted.

Ambiguous beliefs about inheritance led Darwin to base his theory on completely false grounds. Darwin assumed that natural selection was the “mechanism of evolution”. Yet one question remained unanswered – How would these “useful traits” be selected and transmitted from one generation to the next? At this point, Darwin embraced the Lamarckian theory, that is, “the inheritance of acquired traits”. In his book *The Great Evolution Mystery*, Gordon R Taylor, a researcher supporting the theory of evolution, expresses the view that Darwin was heavily influenced by Lamarck:

Lamarckism... is known as the inheritance of acquired characteristics... Darwin himself, as a matter of fact, was inclined to believe that such inheritance occurred and cited the reported case of a man who had lost his fingers and bred sons without fingers... [Darwin] had not, he said, gained a single idea from Lamarck. This was doubly ironical, for Darwin repeatedly toyed with the idea of the inheritance of acquired characteristics and, if it is so dreadful, it is Darwin who should be denigrated rather than Lamarck... In the 1859 edition of his work, Darwin refers to 'changes of external conditions' causing variation but subsequently these conditions are described as directing variation and cooperating with natural selection in directing it... Every year he attributed more and more to the agency of use or disuse... By 1868 when he published *Varieties of Animals and Plants under Domestication* he gave a whole series of examples of supposed Lamarckian inheritance:

² Fox and Dose, 1972, p 4

such as a man losing part of his little finger and all his sons being born with deformed little fingers, and boys born with foreskins much reduced in length as a result of generations of circumcision.³

However, Lamarck's thesis, as we have seen above, was disproved by the laws of genetic inheritance discovered by the Austrian monk and botanist, Gregor Mendel. The concept of “useful traits” was therefore left unproven. Genetic laws showed that acquired traits are not passed on, and that genetic inheritance takes place according to certain unchanging laws. These laws supported the view that species remain unchanged. No matter how often the cows that Darwin saw in England's animal fairs bred, the species itself would never change: cows would always remain cows.

Gregor Mendel announced the laws of genetic inheritance that he discovered as a result of long experiment and observation in a scientific paper published in 1865. But this paper only attracted the attention of the scientific world towards the end of the century. By the beginning of the twentieth century, the truth of these laws had been accepted by the whole scientific community. This was a serious dead-end for Darwin's theory, which tried to found the concept of “useful traits” on Lamarck.

Here we must correct a general misunderstanding: Mendel opposed not only Lamarck's model of evolution, but also Darwin's. As the article “Mendel's Opposition to Evolution and to Darwin,” published in the *Journal of Heredity*, makes clear, “he [Mendel] was familiar with *The Origin of Species*...and he was opposed to Darwin's theory; Darwin was arguing for descent with modification through natural selection, Mendel was in favour of the orthodox doctrine of special creation”.⁴

The laws discovered by Mendel put Darwinism in a very difficult position. For these reasons, scientists who supported Darwinism tried to develop a different model of evolution in the first quarter of the twentieth century. Thus “neo-Darwinism” was born.

The Efforts of Neo-Darwinism

³ Taylor, G R. 1984, pp. 36, 41–42

⁴ Bishop, 1996, pp. 205–13; also see Callender, 1988, pp. 41–75

A group of scientists, who were determined to reconcile Darwinism with the science of genetics, in one way or another, came together at a meeting organized by the Geological Society of America in 1941. After long discussion, they agreed on ways to create a new interpretation of Darwinism and over the next few years, specialists produced a synthesis of their fields into a revised theory of evolution.

The scientists who participated in establishing the new theory included the geneticists G. Ledyard Stebbins and Theodosius Dobzhansky, the zoologists Ernst Mayr and Julian Huxley, the palaeontologists George Gaylord Simpson and Glenn L. Jepsen, and the mathematical geneticists Sir Ronald A. Fisher and Sewall Wright.⁵

To counter the fact of ‘genetic stability’ (genetic homeostasis), this group of scientists employed the concept of ‘mutation’, which had been proposed by the Dutch botanist Hugo de Vries at the beginning of the twentieth century. Mutations were defects that occurred, for unknown reasons, in the inheritance mechanism of living things. Organisms undergoing mutation developed some unusual structures, which deviated from the genetic information they inherited from their parents. The concept of ‘**random mutation**’ was supposed to provide the answer to **the question of the origin of the advantageous variations which caused living organisms to evolve** according to Darwin's theory – a phenomenon that Darwin himself was unable to explain, but simply tried to side-step by referring to Lamarck. The Geological Society of America named this new theory, which was formulated by adding the concept of mutation to Darwin's natural selection thesis, the ‘**synthetic theory of evolution**’ or the ‘**modern synthesis**’. In a short time, this theory came to be known as ‘**neo-Darwinism**’ and its supporters as ‘**neo-Darwinists**’.

Yet there was a serious problem: It was true that mutations changed the genetic data of living organisms, yet this change always occurred to the detriment of the living thing concerned. All observed mutations ended up with blemished, weak, or diseased individuals and sometimes led to the death of the organism. Hence, in an attempt to find examples of “useful mutations” which improve the genetic data in living organisms, neo-Darwinists conducted many experiments and observations. For decades, they conducted mutation experiments on fruit flies and various other species. However, in none of these experiments was there a mutation which improved the genetic data in a living being.

⁵ Spetner, 1997, p 20

Today the issue of mutation is still a great impasse for Darwinism. Despite the fact that the theory of natural selection considers mutations to be the unique source of 'useful changes', no mutations of any kind have been observed that are actually useful (i.e. that improve the genetic information). Another impasse for neo-Darwinists came from **the fossil record**. Even in Darwin's time, fossils were already posing an important obstacle to the theory. While Darwin himself accepted the lack of fossils of 'intermediate species', he also predicted that further research would provide evidence of these vanished transitional forms. However, despite all the palaeontologists' efforts, the fossil record continued to remain a serious hindrance to the theory. One by one, concepts such as 'vestigial organs', 'embryological recapitulation' and 'homology' lost all significance in the light of new scientific findings.

A Theory in Crisis

We have just reviewed in summary form the bottleneck Darwinism found itself in from the day it was first proposed. We will now start to analyse the enormous dimensions of this stalemate. In doing this, our intention is to show that the theory of evolution is not indisputable scientific truth, as many people assume or try to impose on others. On the contrary, there is a glaring contradiction when the theory of evolution is compared to scientific findings in such diverse fields as the origin of life, population genetics, comparative anatomy, palaeontology and biochemistry. As described by Prof. Michael Denton, an Australian biochemist and a renowned critic of Darwinism, evolution is a theory in "crisis".

In his book *Evolution: A Theory in Crisis* (1985), Denton examined the theory in the light of different branches of science, and concluded that the theory of natural selection is very far from providing an explanation for life on earth.⁶ Denton's intention in offering his criticism was not to show the rightness of another view, but only to compare Darwinism with the scientific facts. During the last two decades, many other scientists have published significant works questioning the legitimacy of Darwin's theory of evolution.

In this thesis, this crisis will be examined. No matter how much concrete evidence is provided, some readers may be unwilling to abandon their positions and will continue to hold fast to the theory of

⁶ Denton, 1985.

evolution. However, reading this thesis will still be of use to them, helping them to see the real situation of the theory they believe, in the light of scientific findings.

THE MECHANISMS OF DARWINISM

According to the theory of evolution, living things came into existence by means of pure chance, and developed further as a consequence of coincidental effects. Approximately 3.8 billion years ago, when no living organisms existed on earth, the first simple single-celled organisms (prokaryotes) emerged. Over time, more complex cells (eukaryotes) and multicellular organisms came into being. In other words, according to Darwinism, the forces of nature manufactured simple inanimate elements into highly complex and faultless designs.

In evaluating this claim, one should first consider whether such forces exist in nature. More explicitly, are there really natural mechanisms which can bring about evolution according to the Darwinian scenario?

The neo-Darwinist model, which we shall take as the mainstream theory of evolution today, argues that life has evolved through two mechanisms: natural selection and mutation. The theory basically asserts that natural selection and mutation are complementary. The origin of evolutionary modifications lies in random mutations that take place in the genetic structures of living things. The traits brought about by mutations are selected by the mechanism of natural selection, and in this way living things evolve. However, when we look further into this theory, we find that there is no such evolutionary mechanism. Neither natural selection nor mutations can cause different species to evolve into one another, and the claim that they can is completely unfounded.

Natural Selection

The concept of natural selection is the basis of Darwinism. This assertion is stressed even in the title of the book in which Darwin proposed his theory: *The Origin of Species, by means of Natural Selection...*

Natural selection is based on the assumption that in nature there is a constant struggle for survival. It favours organisms with traits that best enable them to cope with pressures exerted by the environment. At the end of this struggle, the strongest ones, the ones most suited to natural conditions, survive. For example, in a herd of deer under threat from predators, those individuals that can run fastest will naturally survive. As a consequence, the herd of deer will eventually consist of only fast-running individuals.

However, no matter how long this process goes on, it will not transform those deer into another species (or another kind of animal). The weak deer are eliminated, the strong survive, but, since no alteration in their genetic data takes place, no change of a species occurs. Despite the continuous processes of selection, deer continue to survive as deer.

The deer example is true for all species. In any population, natural selection only eliminates those weak or unsuited individuals who are unable to adapt to the natural conditions in their habitat. It does not create new species, new genetic information, or new organs. That is, it cannot cause anything to evolve. Darwin too, accepted this fact, stating that “**natural selection can do nothing until favourable individual differences or variations occur**”.⁷ This is why neo-Darwinism had to add the mutation mechanism, as a factor altering genetic information, to the concept of natural selection.

We will deal with mutations next. But before proceeding, we need to further examine the concept of natural selection in order to see the contradictions inherent in it.

A Struggle for Survival?

The essential assumption of the theory of natural selection holds that there is a fierce struggle for survival in nature, and every living thing cares only for itself. At the time Darwin proposed this theory the ideas of Thomas Malthus, the British classical economist, were an important influence on him. Malthus maintained that human beings were inevitably in a constant struggle for survival, basing his views on the fact that population, and hence the need for food resources, progresses geometrically, while food

⁷ Darwin, 1998, p 127 (*emphasis added*)

resources themselves increase only arithmetically. The result is that population size is inevitably checked by factors in the environment, such as hunger and disease. Darwin adapted Malthus' vision of a fierce struggle for survival among human beings to nature at large, and claimed that "natural selection" is a consequence of this struggle.

Further research, however, revealed that there was no struggle for life in nature as Darwin had postulated. As a result of extensive research into animal groups in the 1960s and 1970s, V C Wynne-Edwards, a British zoologist, concluded that living things balance their population in an interesting way, which prevents competition for food. Animal groups were simply managing their population on the basis of their food resources. Population was regulated, not by elimination of the weak through factors like epidemics or starvation, but by instinctive control mechanisms. In other words, animals controlled their numbers not by fierce competition, as Darwin suggested, but by limiting reproduction.⁸

Even plants exhibited examples of population control, which invalidated Darwin's suggestion of selection by means of competition. The botanist A D Bradshaw's observations indicated that during reproduction, plants behaved according to the 'density' of the planting, and limited their reproduction if the area was highly populated with plants.⁹ On the other hand, examples of sacrifice observed in animals such as ants and bees display a model completely opposed to the Darwinist struggle for survival.

In recent years, research has even revealed findings regarding self-sacrifice in bacteria. These living things, without brains or nervous systems, totally devoid of any capacity for thought, kill themselves to save other bacteria when they are invaded by viruses.¹⁰

These examples surely invalidate the basic assumption of natural selection—the absolute struggle for survival. It is true that there is competition in nature; however, there are clear models of self-sacrifice and cohesion, as well.

Observation and Experiments

Apart from the theoretical weaknesses mentioned above, the theory of evolution by natural selection comes up against a fundamental impasse when faced with concrete scientific findings. The scientific

⁸ Wynne-Edwards, 1965, pp. 1543–48; Wynne-Edwards, 1986.

⁹ Bradshaw, 1965, pp. 115-155; cited in Spetner, 1997, pp. 16–17.

¹⁰ Andy Coghlan, 1999

value of a theory must be assessed according to its success or failure in experiment and observation. Evolution by natural selection fails on both counts.

Since Darwin's time, there has been no evidence put forward to show that natural selection causes living things to evolve. Colin Patterson, senior palaeontologist at the British Museum of Natural History in London and a prominent evolutionist, stresses that natural selection has never been observed to have the ability to cause things to evolve:

“No one has ever produced a species by the mechanisms of natural selection. No one has ever got near it, and most of the current argument in neo-Darwinism is about this question.”¹¹

Philip Johnson has these words to say in his book *Darwin on Trial*:

The “evolution in action” of J Huxley and other biologists is simply the observation of demographic facts, local fluctuations of genotypes, geographical distributions. Often the species concerned have remained practically unchanged for hundreds of centuries! Fluctuation as a result of circumstances, with prior modification of the genome, does not imply evolution, and we have tangible proof of this in many panchronic species [i.e. living fossils that remain unchanged for millions of years].¹²

A close look at a few “observed examples of natural selection” presented by biologists who advocate the theory of evolution, would reveal that, in reality, they do not provide any evidence for evolution.

The True Story of Industrial Melanism

When evolutionist sources are examined, one inevitably sees that the example of moths in England during the Industrial Revolution is cited as an example of evolution by natural selection. This is put forward as the most concrete example of evolution observed, in textbooks, magazines and even academic sources. In actual fact, this example has nothing to do with evolution at all.

According to this account, at the beginning of the Industrial Revolution in England, the colour of tree barks around Manchester was quite light. Because of this, dark-coloured moths resting on those trees could easily be noticed by the birds that fed on them, and therefore they had very little chance of survival.

¹¹ Colin Patterson, “Cladistics”, interview by Brian Leek, interviewer Peter Franz, March 4, 1982, BBC. (*emphasis added*)

¹² Johnson, 1991, p 27.

Fifty years later, in woodland where industrial pollution has killed the lichens, the bark of the trees had darkened, so now the light-coloured moths became the most hunted, since they were the most easily noticed. As a result, the proportion of light-coloured to dark-coloured moths decreased. Evolutionists believe this to be a great piece of evidence for their theory. They take refuge and solace in window-dressing, showing how light-coloured moths 'evolved' into dark-coloured ones.

However, although we believe these facts to be correct, it should be quite clear that they can in no way be used as evidence for the theory of evolution, since no new form arose that had not existed before. Dark coloured moths had existed in the moth population before the Industrial Revolution. Only the relative proportions of the existing moth varieties in the population changed. The moths had not acquired a new trait or organ, which would cause "speciation".¹³ In order for one moth species to turn into a different living species, for example, a bird, new additions would have had to be made to its genes. That is, an entirely separate genetic program would have had to be loaded to include information about the physical traits of the bird.

This is the answer to the evolutionist story of Industrial Melanism. However, there is a more interesting side to the story, not just its interpretation, as the story itself is flawed. As molecular biologist Jonathan Wells explains in his book *Icons of Evolution*, the story of the peppered moths, which is included in almost every evolutionary biology book and has therefore, become an 'icon' in this sense, does not reflect the truth. Wells discusses in his book how Bernard Kettlewell's experiment, which is known as the 'experimental proof' of the story, is actually a scientific scandal. Some basic elements of this scandal are:

Many experiments conducted after Kettlewell's revealed that only one type of moth rests on tree trunks, and all other types prefer to sit beneath small, horizontal branches. Since 1980 it has become clear that peppered moths do not normally rest on tree trunks. In 25 years of fieldwork many scientists, such as Cyril Clarke; Rory Howlett; Michael Majerus; Tony Liebert and Paul Brakefield, concluded that in Kettlewell's experiment, moths were forced to act atypically, therefore the test results could not be accepted as scientific.¹⁴

¹³ For more detailed information about Industrial Melanism, please see Johnson, 1991, p 26.

¹⁴ Wells, 2000, pp. 149–50

Scientists who tested Kettlewell's conclusions came up with a more astonishing result: The quantity of light moths would be expected to be larger in the less polluted regions of England, but the dark moths there still numbered four times as many as the light ones. This meant that there was no correlation between the moth population and the tree trunks as claimed by Kettlewell and repeated by almost all evolutionist sources.

As the research deepened, the scandal changed dimension: “the moths on tree trunks” photographed by Kettlewell, were actually dead moths. Kettlewell glued or pinned dead specimens to tree trunks and then photographed them. In truth, there was little chance of taking such a picture as the moths rested underneath the leaves, not on the tree trunks.¹⁵

These facts were exposed by the scientific community only in the late 1990s. The collapse of the myth of Industrial Melanism, which had been one of the most cherished subjects in “Introduction to Evolution” courses in universities for decades, greatly disappointed evolutionists. One of them, Jerry Coyne, remarked, “My own reaction resembles the dismay attending my discovery, at the age of six, that it was my father and not Santa who brought the presents on Christmas Eve.”¹⁶

Thus, “the most famous example of natural selection” was relegated to the trash-heap of history as a scientific scandal – which was inevitable since natural selection is not an “evolutionary mechanism”, contrary to what evolutionists claim.

In short, natural selection is not capable of adding a new characteristic to a living organism, or of removing one. Neither is it capable of changing an organism of one species into that of another. The ‘greatest’ evidence put forward since Darwin has been able to go no further than the ‘Industrial Melanism’ of moths in England.

Why Natural Selection Cannot Explain Complexity

As we showed at the beginning, the greatest problem for the theory of evolution by natural selection, is that it cannot facilitate new organs or traits to emerge in living things. Natural selection cannot develop a species’ genetic data; therefore it cannot be used to explain the emergence of new species. The greatest

¹⁵ Wells, 2000, pp. 141–51

¹⁶ Jerry Coyne, 1988, pp. 35–6 (A review of Michael Majerus's *Melanism: Evolution in Action*.)

defender of the theory of punctuated equilibrium, Stephen Jay Gould, refers to this impasse of natural selection as follows:

The essence of Darwinism lies in a single phrase: natural selection is the creative force of evolutionary change. No one denies that selection will play a negative role in eliminating the unfit. Darwinian theories require that it create the fit as well.¹⁷

Another of the misleading methods that evolutionists employ on the issue of natural selection is their effort to present this mechanism as an intelligent designer. However, **natural selection has no intelligence**. It does not possess a will that can decide what is good and what is bad for living things. As a result, natural selection cannot explain biological systems and organs that possess the feature of **'irreducible complexity'**. These systems and organs are composed of a great number of parts co-operating together, and are of no use if even one of these parts is missing or defective. (For example, the human eye does not function unless it exists with all its components intact.)

Therefore, the will that brings all these parts together should be able to foresee the future and aim directly at the advantage that is to be acquired at the final stage. Since natural selection has no consciousness or will, it can do no such thing. This fact, which demolishes the foundations of the theory of evolution, also worried Darwin, who wrote: **"If it could be demonstrated that any complex organ existed, which could not possibly have been formed by numerous, successive, slight modifications, my theory would absolutely break down."**¹⁸

Mutations

Mutations are defined as breaks or replacements taking place in the DNA molecule, which is found in the nuclei of the cells of a living organism and contains all its genetic information. These breaks or replacements are the result of external effects such as radiation or chemical action. Every mutation is an 'accident' and either damages the nucleotides making up the DNA or changes their locations. Most of the time, they cause so much damage and alteration that the cell cannot repair itself.

Mutation, which evolutionists repeatedly hide behind, is not a magic wand that modifies living organisms into a more advanced and perfect form. The direct effect of mutations is harmful. The changes effected

¹⁷ Gould, 1977b, p 28

¹⁸ Charles Darwin, 1964, p. 89 (*emphasis added*)

by mutations can only be similar to those experienced by people in Hiroshima, Nagasaki, and Chernobyl: that is, death, disability, and disfigurement.

The reason for this is very simple: DNA has a very complex structure, and random effects can only damage it. Biologist B G Ranganathan states:

First, genuine mutations are very rare in nature. Secondly, most mutations are harmful since they are random, rather than orderly changes in the structure of genes; **any random change in a highly ordered system will be for the worse, not for the better.** For example, if **an earthquake** were to shake a highly ordered structure such as a building, there would be a random change in the framework of the building, which, in all probability, **would not be an improvement.**¹⁹

Not surprisingly, **no useful mutation has been so far observed.** All mutations have proven to be harmful. The evolutionist, scientist Warren Weaver comments on the report prepared by the Committee on Genetic Effects of Atomic Radiation, which was formed to look into mutations that might have been caused by the nuclear weapons used in the Second World War:

“Many will be puzzled about the statement that practically all known mutant genes are harmful. For mutations are a necessary part of the process of evolution. How can a good effect – evolution to higher forms of life – result from **mutations practically all of which are harmful?**”²⁰

Every effort put into “generating a useful mutation” has resulted in failure. For decades, evolutionists carried out many experiments to produce mutations in **fruit flies**, as these insects reproduce very rapidly and so mutations would show up quickly. Generation upon generation of these flies were mutated, yet no useful mutation was ever observed. The evolutionist geneticist Gordon Taylor writes accordingly:

It is a striking, but not much mentioned fact that, though geneticists have been breeding fruit-flies for sixty years or more in labs all round the world – flies which produce a new generation every eleven days – they have never yet seen the emergence of a new species or even a new enzyme.²¹

Another researcher, Michael Pitman, comments on the failure of the experiments carried out on fruit flies:

¹⁹ B G. Ranganathan, 1988 (*emphasis added*) quote accessed online at http://www.bbcerefuted.com/bbc_evolutionary_1.html

²⁰ Warren Weaver et al., 1956, p 1159 (*emphasis added*)

²¹ Taylor, G R. 1984, p 48

Morgan, Goldschmidt, Muller, and other geneticists have subjected generations of fruit flies to extreme conditions of heat, cold, light, dark, and treatment by chemicals and radiation. All sorts of mutations, practically all trivial or positively deleterious, have been produced. Man-made evolution? Not really: Few of the geneticists' monsters could have survived outside the bottles they were bred in. In practice **mutants die, are sterile, or tend to revert to the wild type.**²²

The same holds true for man. All mutations that have been observed in human beings have had deleterious results. All mutations that take place in humans result in physical deformities or infirmities such as **mongolism, Down syndrome, albinism, dwarfism** or **cancer**. Needless to say, a process that leaves people disabled or sick cannot be 'an evolutionary mechanism' – evolution is believed to produce forms that are better fitted to survive.

The American pathologist David A. Demick notes the following in a scientific article about mutations:

Literally thousands of human diseases associated with genetic mutations have been catalogued in recent years, with more being described continually. A recent reference book of medical genetics listed some 4,500 different genetic diseases. Some of the inherited syndromes characterized clinically in the days before molecular genetic analysis (such as Marfan's syndrome) are now being shown to be heterogeneous; that is, associated with many different mutations... With this array of human diseases that are caused by mutations, what of positive effects? With thousands of examples of harmful mutations readily available, surely it should be possible to describe some positive mutations if macroevolution is true. These would be needed not only for evolution to greater complexity, but also to offset the downward pull of the many harmful mutations. **But, when it comes to identifying positive mutations, evolutionary scientists are strangely silent.**²³

The only instance evolutionary biologists give of "useful mutation" is the disease known as **sickle cell anemia**. Here, the haemoglobin molecule, which acts to carry oxygen in the blood, is damaged as a result of a mutation, and undergoes a structural change. As a consequence of this, the ability of the haemoglobin molecule to carry oxygen is seriously impaired. People with sickle cell anaemia experience increasing respiratory difficulties for this reason. However, this example of mutation, which is discussed under blood disorders in medical textbooks, is strangely appraised by some evolutionary biologists as a

²² Michael Pitman, 1984b, p 70 (*emphasis added*)

²³ David A Demick, 1999 (*emphasis added*)

‘useful mutation’. They say that the partial immunity to malaria by those with the illness is a “gift” of evolution. Using the same logic, one could say that people born with genetic leg paralysis are powerless to walk and so are saved from being killed in traffic accidents – therefore genetic leg paralysis is a ‘useful genetic feature’. This logic is wholly unfounded.

It is obvious that mutations are entirely a destructive mechanism. Pierre-Paul Grassé, former president of the French Academy of Sciences, is quite unequivocal about this point in a comment he made about mutations. Grassé equated mutations to making mistakes in the letters when copying a written text. And as with mutations, letter mistakes cannot give rise to any information, but merely damage the information that already exists. Grassé described this detail in this way:

Mutations, in time, occur incoherently. They are not complementary to one another, nor are they cumulative in successive generations toward a given direction. They modify what preexists, but they do so in disorder, no matter how.... As soon as some disorder, even slight, appears in an organized being, sickness, then death follows. There is no possible compromise between the phenomenon of life and anarchy.²⁴

Hence for that reason, as Grassé puts it, “**No matter how numerous they may be, mutations do not produce any kind of evolution.**”²⁵

The Pleiotropic Effect

The most significant proof that mutations lead simply to damage, is the process of genetic coding. Almost all of the genes in a fully developed living thing carry more than one piece of information. For example, one gene may control both the height and eye colour of that organism. Microbiologist Michael Denton explains this feature of genes in higher organisms, such as human beings, in this way:

The effects of genes on development are often surprisingly diverse. In the house mouse, nearly every coat-colour gene has some effect on body size. Out of seventeen x-ray induced eye colour mutations in the fruit fly *Drosophila melanogaster*, fourteen affected the shape of the sex organs of the female, a characteristic that one would have thought was quite unrelated to eye colour.

²⁴ Grassé, 1977, pp. 97, 98

²⁵ *Ibid.*, p 88 (*emphasis added*)

Almost every gene that has been studied in higher organisms has been found to effect more than one organ system, a multiple effect which is known as pleiotropy. As Mayr argues in *Population, Species and Evolution*: 'It is doubtful whether any genes that are not pleiotropic exist in higher organisms'.²⁶

Because of this characteristic of the genetic make-up of living things, any accidental change because of a mutation, in any gene in the DNA, will have an effect on more than one organ. Accordingly, this mutation will not be restricted to one part of the body, but will expose more of its negative impact. Even if one of these impacts turns out to be beneficial, as a result of a very rare fluke, the unavoidable effects of the other damage it causes will more than outweigh those benefits.

To summarize, there are three main reasons why mutations cannot make evolution possible:

1. The express effect of mutations is harmful: Since they occur arbitrarily, they almost always harm the living organism that undergoes them. Reason tells us that insensible intrusion in a perfect and complex structure will not improve that structure, but will rather impair it. Indeed, no "useful mutation" has ever been observed.
2. Mutations add no novel information to an organism's DNA: The particles making up the genetic information are either destroyed, damaged or moved. Mutations cannot make a living thing gain a new organ or a new characteristic. They only cause aberrations like a leg protruding from the back, or an ear from the stomach.
3. In order for a mutation to be transmitted to the succeeding generation, it has to have occurred in the reproductive cells of the organism: A random change that occurs in a cell or organ of the body cannot be transferred to the next generation. For example, a human eye distorted by the effects of radiation, or by other causes, will not be passed on to subsequent generations.

All the explanations presented above point out that natural selection and mutation have no evolutionary effect at all. So far, no visible example of "evolution" has been obtained by this method. Sometimes, evolutionary biologists declare that they cannot observe the evolutionary effect of natural selection and mutation mechanisms since these mechanisms occur only over an extended period of time. However, this

²⁶ Michael Denton, 1985, p 149

argument is groundless, in the sense that it lacks any scientific foundation. During his lifetime, a scientist can observe thousands of generations of living things with short life spans such as fruit flies or bacteria, and still detect no 'evolution'. Pierre-Paul Grassé states the following about the unchanging nature of bacteria, a fact which invalidates evolution:

Bacteria...are the organisms which, because of their huge numbers, produce the most mutants. [B]acteria...exhibit a great fidelity to their species. The bacillus *Escherichia coli*, whose mutants have been studied very carefully, is the best example. The reader will agree that it is surprising, to say the least, to want to prove evolution and to discover its mechanisms and then to choose as a material for this study a being which practically stabilized a billion years ago! **What is the use of their unceasing mutations, if they do not [create evolutionary] change?** In sum, the mutations of bacteria and viruses are merely hereditary fluctuations around a median position; a swing to the right, a swing to the left, but no final evolutionary effect. Cockroaches, which are one of the most venerable living insect groups, have remained more or less unchanged since the Permian, yet they have undergone as many mutations as *Drosophila*, a Tertiary insect.²⁷

In brief, it is impossible for living beings to have evolved, because there is no mechanism in nature that can cause evolution. Furthermore, this conclusion concurs with the evidence of the fossil record, which does not exhibit the existence of a process of evolution, but rather quite the contrary.

THE TRUE ORIGIN OF SPECIES

When Darwin's *The Origin of Species* was published in 1859 it was thought that he had put forward a theory that could account for the extraordinary variety of living things. He had observed that there were different variations within the same species. For instance, while wandering through England's animal fairs, he noticed that there were many different breeds of cow and stockbreeders selectively mated them to produce new breeds. Taking that as his starting point, he continued with the logic that "living things can naturally vary within themselves", which meant that over a long period of time all living things could have descended from a common ancestor.

²⁷ Grassé, 1977, p 87 (*emphasis added*)

However, Darwin's assumption about “the origin of species” was not actually able to explain their origin at all. Thanks to developments in genetic science, it is now understood that increases in variety within one species can never lead to the emergence of another new species. What Darwin believed to be ‘evolution’, was actually ‘variation’.

The Meaning of Variation

Variation is a genetic expression referring to an event that causes the individuals or groups of a certain type or species to possess different characteristics from one another. For example, all the people on earth hold basically the same genetic information, yet some have slanted eyes, some have blonde hair, some have long noses and others are short of stature, all depending on the degree of the variation potential of this genetic information.

Variations do not represent evidence for evolution because they are the outcome of different arrangements of already existing genetic information, and do not add any new trait to the genetic information. The important obsession for the theory of evolution is the question of how brand-new information to create a brand-new species could come about.

Variation always takes place within the confines of genetic information. In the science of genetics, this limit is called the ‘gene pool’. All of the characteristics present in the gene pool of a species may come to light in different ways due to variation. For example, varieties that have relatively longer tails or shorter legs may emerge in a certain species of reptile, as a result of variation, since information for both long-legged and short-legged forms may exist in the gene pool of that species. However, variations do not change reptiles into birds by adding wings or feathers to them, or by changing their metabolism. Such a change necessitates an increase in the genetic information of the organism, which is certainly not possible through variations.

Darwin was not aware of this fact when he devised his theory. He thought that there was no limit to variations. An article he wrote in 1844 stated: “That a limit to variation does exist in nature is assumed by most authors, though I am unable to discover a single fact on which this belief is grounded.”²⁸ In *The Origin of Species* he cited different examples of variations as the most important evidence for his theory.

²⁸ Eiseley, 1958, p 186; cited in Macbeth, 1971, p 30

For instance, according to Darwin, animal breeders who mated different types of cattle in order to bring about new varieties that produced more milk were eventually going to transform them into a different species. Darwin's notion of "unlimited variation" is best seen in the following sentence from *The Origin of Species*:

I can see no difficulty in a race of bears being rendered, by natural selection, more and more aquatic in their structure and habits, with larger and larger mouths, till a creature was produced as monstrous as a whale.²⁹

The reason Darwin cited such a fanciful example was the archaic understanding of science in his day. Since then, in the twentieth century, science has put forward the principle of "genetic stability" (genetic homeostasis), based on the results of experiments carried out on living things. This principle holds that since all mating attempts conducted to change a species into another have been open to doubt, there are strict barriers among different species of living things. This meant that it was utterly impossible for animal breeders to convert cattle into a different kind of animal by mating different variations of them, as Darwin had postulated.

Norman Macbeth, who disproved Darwinism in his book *Darwin Retried*, states:

The heart of the problem is whether living things do indeed vary to an unlimited extent... The species look stable. We have all heard of disappointed breeders who carried their work to a certain point only to see the animals or plants revert to where they had started. Despite strenuous efforts for two or three centuries, it has never been possible to produce a blue rose or a black tulip.³⁰

Luther Burbank, considered the most competent breeder of all time, expressed this fact when he said, "there are limits to the development possible, and these limits follow a law".³¹ In his article titled "Some Biological Problems With the Natural Selection Theory," Jerry Bergman comments by quoting from biologist Edward Deevey who explains that variations always take place within strict genetic boundaries:

Deevey concludes, 'Remarkable things have been done by cross-breeding...but wheat is still wheat, and not, for instance, grapefruit. We can no more grow wings on pigs than hens can make cylindrical eggs.' A more contemporary example is the average increase in male height that has

²⁹ Charles Darwin, 1964, p 184

³⁰ Macbeth, 1971, pp. 32-33

³¹ Macbeth, 1971, p 36

occurred the past century. Through better health care (and perhaps also some sexual selection, as some women prefer taller men as mates) males have reached a record adult height during the last century, but the increase is rapidly disappearing, indicating that we have reached our limit.³²

In short, variations only bring about changes which remain within the limitations of the genetic information of species; they can never append new genetic data to them. For this reason, no variation can be considered an example of evolution. No matter how often you mate different breeds of dogs or horses, the end result will still be dogs or horses, with no new species or kind emerging. The Danish scientist W. L. Johannsen sums the matter up, “The variations upon which Darwin and Wallace placed their emphasis cannot be selectively pushed beyond a certain point, that such variability does not contain the secret of ‘indefinite departure’.”³³

Confessions about ‘Microevolution’

As we have seen, genetic science has revealed that variations, which Darwin thought could account for ‘the origin of species’, actually do no such thing. For this reason, evolutionary biologists were strained to distinguish between variation within species and the formation of new ones, and to propose two different concepts for these different phenomena. Diversity within a species – that is, variation – they called ‘microevolution’, and the hypothesis of the development of new species was termed ‘macroevolution’.

These two concepts have appeared in biology books for quite some time. But there is actually a deception going on here, because the examples of variation that evolutionary biologists have called “microevolution” actually have nothing to do with the theory of evolution. The theory of evolution proposes that living things can develop and produce new genetic data by the mechanisms of mutation and natural selection. However, as we have just seen, variations can never create new genetic information, and are thus incapable of bringing about ‘evolution’. Giving variations the name of “microevolution” is actually an ideological fondness on the part of evolutionary biologists.

The impression that evolutionary biologists have given by using the term ‘microevolution’ is the false logic that over time variations can form brand new classes or kinds of living things. And many people who are not already up to date on the subject come away with the apparent idea that “as it spreads,

³² Bergman, 1992

³³ Loren Eiseley, 1958, p 227; cited in Macbeth, 1971, p 33

microevolution can turn into macroevolution.” One can often see examples of that sort of thinking. Some “amateur” evolutionists put forward such examples of logic as the following: since human beings' average height has risen by two centimetres in just a century, this means that over millions of years any kind of evolution is achievable. However, as has been exposed above, all variations such as changes in average height happen within specific genetic limits, and are trends that have nothing to do with evolution.

In truth, nowadays even evolutionist experts accept that the variations they call ‘microevolution’ cannot lead to new kinds of living things – in other words, to “macroevolution.” In a 1996 article in the leading journal *Developmental Biology*, the evolutionary biologists S F. Gilbert, J.M. Opitz, and R.A. Raff explained the matter this way:

The Modern Synthesis is a remarkable achievement. However, starting in the 1970s, many biologists began questioning its adequacy in explaining evolution. Genetics might be adequate for explaining microevolution, but microevolutionary changes in gene frequency were not seen as able to turn a reptile into a mammal or to convert a fish into an amphibian. Microevolution looks at adaptations that concern only the survival of the fittest, not the arrival of the fittest. As Goodwin (1995) points out, **“the origin of species – Darwin's problem – remains unsolved.”**³⁴

The fact that ‘microevolution’ cannot lead to ‘macroevolution’, in other words that variations present no explanation of the origin of species, has been acknowledged by other evolutionary biologists as well. The noted author and science expert Roger Lewin describes the result of a four-day symposium held in November 1980 at the Chicago Museum of Natural History, in which 150 evolutionists participated:

The central question of the Chicago conference was whether the mechanisms underlying microevolution can be extrapolated to explain the phenomena of macroevolution. ...The answer can be given as a clear, No.³⁵

We can sum up the situation like this: Variations, which Darwinism has seen as “evidence of evolution” for some hundred years, actually have nothing to do with ‘the origin of species’. Cows can be mated together for millions of years, and different breeds of cows may well emerge. But cows can never turn

³⁴ Gilbert, Opitz, & Raff, 1996, p 361 (*emphasis added*)

³⁵ Lewin, 1980, p 883

into a different species or kind – giraffes or elephants for instance. In the same way, the diverse finches that Darwin saw on the Galapagos Islands are an additional example of variation that is no evidence for ‘evolution’. Recent observations have revealed that the finches did not undergo an unlimited variation as Darwin's theory presupposed. Moreover, most of the different types of finches which Darwin thought represented 14 distinct species actually mated with one another, which means that they were variations that belonged to the same species. Scientific observation shows that the finch beaks, which have been mythicized in almost all evolutionist sources, are in fact an example of “variation”; therefore, they do not constitute evidence for the theory of evolution. For example, Peter and Rosemary Grant, who spent years observing the finch varieties in the Galapagos Islands searching for evidence for Darwinian evolution, were forced to conclude that “the population, subjected to natural selection, is oscillating back and forth”, a fact which implied that no ‘evolution’ that leads to the emergence of new traits ever takes place there.³⁶ So for these reasons, evolutionists are still unable to resolve Darwin's dilemma of the ‘origin of species’.

The Origin of Species in the Fossil Record

The evolutionist claim is that each species on earth came from a single common ancestor through minor changes. In other words, the theory deems life to be a continuous phenomenon, without any predetermined or fixed categories. However, the examination of nature clearly does not reveal such a continuous picture. What emerges from the living world is that life-forms are strictly split into very distinct categories. Robert Carroll, an evolutionist authority, admits this fact in his *Patterns and Processes of Vertebrate Evolution*:

Although an almost incomprehensible number of species inhabit Earth today, they do not form a continuous spectrum of barely distinguishable intermediates. Instead, nearly all species can be recognized as belonging to a relatively limited number of clearly distinct major groups, with very few illustrating intermediate structures or ways of life.³⁷

Therefore, evolutionists presume ‘intermediate’ life-forms that constitute links between living organisms have lived in the past. This is why the fundamental science that can shed light on the matter is palaeontology, the study of fossils. Evolution is alleged to be a process that took place in the past, and the

³⁶ Lisle Gibbs & Peter R. Grant, 1987, pp. 513; for more detailed information, please see Wells, 2000, pp. 159–75.

³⁷ Carroll, 1997, p 9

only scientific source that can supply us with information on the history of life is fossil discoveries. The well-known French palaeontologist Pierre-Paul Grassé has this to say on the subject:

Naturalists must remember that the process of evolution is revealed only through fossil forms... *only* palaeontology can provide them with the evidence of evolution and reveal its course or mechanisms.³⁸

In order for the fossil record to shed any light on the subject, we shall have to contrast the hypotheses of the theory of evolution with fossil discoveries.

According to the theory of evolution, every species has emerged from a predecessor. One species which existed previously turned into something else over time, and all species have come into being in this way.

According to the theory, this transformation proceeds gradually over millions of years.

If this were the case, then numerous intermediate species should have lived during the vast period of time when these transformations were supposedly occurring. For instance, there should have lived in the past some half-fish/half-reptile creatures which had acquired some reptilian traits in addition to the fish traits they already had. Or there should have existed some reptile/bird creatures, which had acquired some avian traits in addition to the reptilian traits they already possessed. Evolutionists refer to these imaginary creatures, which they believe to have lived in the past, as “transitional forms”.

If such animals had really existed, there would have been millions, even billions, of them. More importantly, the remains of these creatures should be present in the fossil record. The number of these transitional forms should have been even greater than that of present animal species, and their remains should be found all over the world. In *The Origin of Species*, Darwin accepted this fact and explained:

If my theory be true, numberless intermediate varieties, linking most closely all of the species of the same group together must assuredly have existed... Consequently evidence of their former existence could be found only amongst fossil remains.³⁹

Even Darwin himself was aware of the absence of such transitional forms. He hoped that they would be found in the future. Despite his confidence, he realized that these missing intermediate forms were the largest stumbling-block for his theory. That is why he wrote the following in the chapter of the *Origin of Species* entitled “Difficulties of the Theory”:

³⁸ Grassé, 1977, p 82

³⁹ Charles Darwin, 1964, p 179

...Why, if species have descended from other species by fine gradations, **do we not everywhere see innumerable transitional forms?** Why is not all nature in confusion, instead of the species being, as we see them, well defined?...But, as by this theory innumerable transitional forms must have existed, why do we not find them embedded in countless numbers in the crust of the earth?... But in the intermediate region, having intermediate conditions of life, why do we not now find closely-linking intermediate varieties? This difficulty for a long time quite confounded me.⁴⁰

The only explanation Darwin could come up with to answer this objection was the argument that the fossil record discovered so far was inadequate. He asserted that when the fossil record had been studied in detail, the missing links/transitions would be found.

The Question of Transitional Forms

Believing in Darwin's prophecy, evolutionary palaeontologists have been digging up fossils and searching for missing links all over the world since the middle of the nineteenth century. Despite their best efforts, no transitional halfway forms have yet been uncovered. All the fossils unearthed in excavations have shown that, contrary to the beliefs of evolutionists, life appeared on earth all of a sudden and fully-formed.

Robert Carroll, an expert on vertebrate palaeontology and a committed evolutionist, comes to the conclusion that the Darwinist hope has not been satisfied with fossil discoveries:

Despite more than a hundred years of intense collecting efforts since the time of Darwin's death, the fossil record still does not yield the picture of infinitely numerous transitional links that he expected.⁴¹

Another evolutionary palaeontologist, K. S. Thomson, tells us that new groups of organisms appear very abruptly in the fossil record:

When a major group of organisms arises and first appears in the record, it seems to come fully equipped with a suite of new characters not seen in related, putatively ancestral groups. These radical changes in morphology and function appear to arise very quickly...⁴²

⁴⁰ Charles Darwin, 1998, p 124–5 (*emphasis added*)

⁴¹ Carroll, 1997, p 25

⁴² Thomson, 1988, p 98

Biologist Francis Hitching, in his book *The Neck of the Giraffe: Where Darwin Went Wrong*, states:

If we find fossils, and if Darwin's theory was right, we can predict what the rock should contain; finely graduated fossils leading from one group of creatures to another group of creatures at a higher level of complexity. The 'minor improvements' in successive generations should be as readily preserved as the species themselves. But this is hardly ever the case. In fact, the opposite holds true, as Darwin himself complained; "innumerable transitional forms must have existed, but why do we not find them embedded in countless numbers in the crust of the earth?" Darwin felt though that the "extreme imperfection" of the fossil record was simply a matter of digging up more fossils. But as more and more fossils were dug up, it was found that almost all of them, without exception, were very close to current living animals.⁴³

The fossil record reveals that species emerged rapidly, with totally different structures, and remained exactly the same over the longest geological epochs. Stephen Jay Gould, a Harvard University palaeontologist and well-known evolutionist, admitted this fact first in the late 70s:

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

1) **Stasis** – most species exhibit no directional change during their tenure on earth. They appear in the fossil record looking much the same as when they disappear; morphological change is usually limited and directionless; 2) **Sudden appearance** – in any local area, a species does not arise gradually by the steady transformation of its ancestors; it appears all at once and 'fully formed'.⁴⁴

Further research only strengthened the facts of stasis and sudden appearance. Stephen Jay Gould and Niles Eldredge wrote in 1993 that "most species, during their geological history, either do not change in any appreciable way, or else they fluctuate mildly in morphology, with no apparent direction".⁴⁵

Robert Carroll is anxious to agree that "most major groups appear to originate and diversify over geologically very short durations and to persist for much longer periods without major morphological or trophic change".⁴⁶

At this point, it is necessary to clarify just what the concept of 'transitional form' means. The intermediate forms predicted by the theory of evolution are living things falling between two species, but

⁴³ Francis Hitching, 1982, p 40

⁴⁴ Gould, 1977a (*emphasis added*)

⁴⁵ Gould & Eldredge, 1977, p 115

⁴⁶ Carroll, 1997, p 146

which have deficient or semi-developed organs. But sometimes the concept of intermediate form is misunderstood, and living organisms which do not possess the features of transitional forms are seen as actually doing so. For instance, if one group of living things possesses features which belong to another, this is not an intermediate form or feature. The platypus, a mammal living in Australia, reproduces by laying eggs just like reptiles. In addition, it has a bill similar to that of a duck. Scientists describe such creatures as the platypus as 'mosaic creatures'. That mosaic creatures do not count as intermediate forms is also accepted by such foremost palaeontologists as Stephen Jay Gould and Niles Eldredge.⁴⁷

The Adequacy of the Fossil Record

Some 140 years ago Darwin put forward the following argument: "Right now there are no transitional forms, yet further research will uncover them". Is this argument still valid today? In other words, taking into account the conclusions from the entire fossil record, should we accept that transitional forms never existed, or should we wait for the results of new research?

The wealth of the existing fossil record will surely answer this question. When we look at the palaeontological findings, we come across a great quantity of fossils. Based on the billions of fossils uncovered all around the world,⁴⁸ 250,000 individual species have been identified, and these bear striking similarities to the 1.5 million identified species currently living on earth.⁴⁹ (Of these 1.5 million species, 1 million are insects.) Despite the abundance of fossil sources, not a single transitional form has been discovered, and it is not likely that any transitional forms will be found as a result of new excavations.

A professor of palaeontology from Glasgow University, T. Neville George, admitted to this fact years ago:

There is no need to apologise any longer for the poverty of the fossil record. In some ways it has become almost unmanageably rich and discovery is outpacing integration... **The fossil record nevertheless continues to be composed mainly of gaps.**⁵⁰

⁴⁷ Gould & Eldredge, 1977, p 147

⁴⁸ Gish, 1995, p 41

⁴⁹ David Day, 1989

⁵⁰ Neville George, 1960, pp. 1, 3. (*emphasis added*)

And Niles Eldredge, the well-known palaeontologist and curator of the American Museum of Natural History, expresses, as follows, the invalidity of Darwin's claim that the shortage in the fossil record is the reason why no transitional forms have been found:

“The record jumps, and all the evidence shows that the record is real: **the gaps we see reflect real events in life's history** – not the artifact of a poor fossil record.”⁵¹

Another American scholar, Robert Wesson, states in his 1991 book *Beyond Natural Selection*, that **“the gaps in the fossil record are real** and meaningful.” He gives details of this claim in this way:

The gaps in the record are real, however. The absence of a record of any important branching is quite phenomenal. Species are usually static, or nearly so, for long periods, species seldom and genera never show evolution into new species or genera but replacement of one by another, and change is more or less abrupt.⁵²

This situation annuls the above argument, which has been stated by Darwinism for 140 years. The fossil record is rich enough for us to understand the origins of life, and plainly reveals that distinct species came into existence on earth all of a sudden, with all their diverse forms. The rapid appearance of phylum-level differences is what is called the “Cambrian explosion.” Fossil discoveries over the last one hundred and fifty years have turned Darwin’s tree of life upside down by showing the Cambrian explosion was even more sudden and extensive than scientists once thought. Also, because the major groups of animals- instead of coming last, at the top of the tree- come first, when the animals make their first appearance in the Cambrian (layer of rocks). For example, the trilobite, with an articulated body, complicated nervous system, and compound eyes, suddenly appears fully formed at the beginning of the explosion. It is amazing.

The Truth Revealed by the Fossil Record

But where does the “evolution-palaeontology” relationship, which has taken subliminal root in society over many decades, actually stem from? Why do most people have the view that there is a positive connection between Darwin's theory and the fossil record whenever the latter is mentioned? The answer to these questions is supplied in an article in the leading journal *Science*:

⁵¹ Eldredge & Tattersall, 1982, p 59 (*emphasis added*)

⁵² Wesson, 1991, p 45

A large number of well-trained scientists outside of evolutionary biology and palaeontology have unfortunately gotten the idea that the fossil record is far more Darwinian than it is. This probably comes from the oversimplification inevitable in secondary sources: low-level textbooks, semi popular articles, and so on. Also, there is probably some wishful thinking involved. In the years after Darwin, his advocates hoped to find predictable progressions. In general these have not been found yet the optimism has died hard, and **some pure fantasy has crept into textbooks.**⁵³

N. Eldredge and I. Tattersall also make an important comment:

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

The observation that species are amazingly conservative and static entities throughout long periods of time has all the qualities of **the emperor's new clothes: everyone knew it but preferred to ignore it. Palaeontologists**, faced with a recalcitrant record obstinately refusing to yield Darwin's predicted pattern, **simply looked the other way.**⁵⁴

Similarly, the American palaeontologist Steven M. Stanley describes how the Darwinist dogma, which controls the world of science, has neglected this truth demonstrated by the fossil record:

The known fossil record is not, and never has been, in accord with gradualism. What is remarkable is that, through a variety of historical circumstances, even the history of opposition has been obscured....The majority of palaeontologists felt their evidence simply contradicted Darwin's stress on minute, slow, and cumulative changes leading to species transformation....**their story has been suppressed.**⁵⁵

⁵³ *Science*, July 17, 1981, p 289 (*emphasis added*)

⁵⁴ Eldredge, & Tattersall, 1982, pp. 45–6 (*emphasis added*)

⁵⁵ Stanley, 1981, p 71 (*emphasis added*)

All of this contradicts Darwinism which predicted the slow gradual development of organisms over time.

There is really only one explanation that accounts for all the evidence. In any other field of research it would be obvious, but many scientists do not want to touch it in Biology, Geology and Anthropology. The answer is an **intelligent designer**.

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