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From the majestic Great Dane to the diminutive Chihuahua, the staggering diversity in canine breeds is a testament to centuries of selective breeding. Artificial selection examples in dogs range from traits like size, coat color, temperament, and even specialized skills such as herding or hunting. The deliberate breeding practices of humans have sculpted canines into an astonishing array of shapes, sizes, and abilities, showcasing the remarkable adaptability of life to human desires. The history of agriculture is replete with artificial selection examples, as humans have transformed wild progenitors into the staple crops that sustain civilizations. Wheat, corn, rice, and countless other agricultural commodities bear little resemblance to their wild ancestors, thanks to millennia of selective breeding. Transgenic crops, created through genetic engineering, represent a modern twist on selective breeding, allowing scientists to introduce specific traits from one organism into another. From drought-resistant crops to those engineered for enhanced pest resistance, these genetic marvels showcase the power of human ingenuity in shaping the future of food production. Gardens and landscapes adorned with an exquisite array of ornamental plants, such as hydrangeas, roses, and tulips, are testaments to the artistry of artificial selection. From vibrant roses to exotic orchids, ornamental plants have been selectively bred for their aesthetic appeal, fragrance, and unique features. Artificial selection examples abound in the horticultural world, where breeders tirelessly work to create novel cultivars with dazzling colors, intricate patterns, and resilient growth habits. Through selective breeding, humans have transformed humble wildflowers into botanical marvels that adorn parks, gardens, and private landscapes worldwide. The domestication of poultry stands as one of the most striking examples of artificial selection in the animal kingdom. Chickens, ducks, and turkeys, once wild birds, have been selectively bred for traits like egg production, meat yield, and docile behavior. Modern poultry breeds exhibit a staggering diversity of plumage colors, egg sizes, and growth rates, all shaped by centuries of human intervention. From the sleek elegance of Leghorn chickens to the majestic plumage of heritage turkey breeds, artificial selection has transformed wild avian ancestors into indispensable sources of food, fiber, and companionship. The realm of aquaculture offers a glimpse into the transformative power of artificial selection in aquatic species. From humble beginnings as wild fish stocks, species like salmon, tilapia, and trout have been selectively bred for traits like growth rate, disease resistance, and fillet quality. Aquaculture operations around the world rely on genetically improved stocks bred through generations of artificial selection, ensuring sustainable seafood production to meet the demands of a growing global population. The evolution of aquaculture serves as a testament to the adaptive potential of artificial selection in harnessing nature's bounty for human benefit. Flowers, with their kaleidoscope of colors and fragrances, represent another domain where artificial selection has left an indelible mark. From the iconic beauty of roses to the delicate charm of daisies, the diversity of floral species is much to human desire. Artificial selection examples in flowers extend beyond mere aesthetics, encompassing traits like bloom size, petal shape, and flowering time. Botanists and horticulturists have meticulously crafted new varieties through generations of breeding, enriching our gardens with endless floral diversity. The selective breeding of horses, particularly in the realm of Thoroughbred racing, showcases the power of artificial selection in shaping elite athletic performance. From vibrant chestnuts to sleek black silhouettes, Thoroughbreds have been bred for speed, endurance, and the ability to thrive under the intense pressures of competition. The history of horse racing stands as a testament to the enduring partnership between humans and horses, forged through the art and science of artificial selection. Fruits, nature's sweet offerings, have undergone profound transformations through the lens of artificial selection. From the wild progenitors of apples and bananas to the cultivated varieties found in supermarkets worldwide, fruit crops bear the hallmarks of human intervention. Artificial selection examples in fruits encompass traits like size, flavor, shelf life, and resistance to pests and diseases. Plant breeders have employed innovative techniques to create new cultivars with enhanced nutritional profiles, improved taste, and extended seasonality, ensuring a constant supply of fresh and flavorful fruits to consumers year-round. Source: BetterLesson The dairy industry owes much of its success to centuries of artificial selection in cattle breeding. From the ancient aurochs to modern dairy breeds like Holstein and Jersey, cattle have been selectively bred for milk production, conformation, and adaptability to various climates. Artificial selection examples in dairy cattle include traits like milk yield, butterfat content, and udder conformation, all optimized through careful breeding programs. The dairy sector relies on genetically superior cattle bred for efficiency and productivity, ensuring a steady supply of milk and dairy products to meet consumer demand. Orchids, with their exquisite blooms and diverse forms, represent a pinnacle of artificial selection in the plant kingdom. From the towering spikes of Cattleya hybrids to the delicate allure of Phalaenopsis varieties, orchid enthusiasts have cultivated an astonishing array of cultivars through selective breeding. Artificial selection examples in orchids span traits like flower size, color, fragrance, and even the timing of blooms. Orchids, often considered the most delicate and expensive of plants, owe their diversity to the meticulous work of breeders who have pushed the boundaries of natural variation through generations of selective breeding. The history of artificial selection in orchids is a testament to humanity's profound impact on the evolutionary trajectory of life on Earth. From the humble wildflower to the most majestic thoroughbred, the fingerprints of human intervention are evident in the staggering diversity of species shaped by selective breeding. As we marvel at nature's wonders, let us recognize the role of artificial selection in unlocking the genetic potential of organisms, enriching our lives and livelihoods with a bounty of agricultural, horticultural, and zoological treasures. For More Visit The Lifesciences Magazine In laying out the evidence for his theory of evolution by natural selection in his 1859 book, On the Origin of Species, the British naturalist and biologist Charles Darwin highlighted the physical traits and behaviors of several species of bird called finches. During a voyage in the 1830s, Darwin had observed these birds on the Galápagos Islands, a group of islands in the Pacific Ocean west of South America. Sometimes summed up by the phrase "survival of the fittest," natural selection is based on the following principles: In nature, organisms produce more offspring than are able to survive and reproduce. Offspring with traits that make them more likely to survive, mature, and reproduce in the environment they inhabit pass on their traits to the next generation. As this happens generation after generation, natural selection acts as a kind of sieve, or a remover of undesirable traits. Organisms therefore gradually become better-suited for their environment. If the environment changes, natural selection will then push organisms to evolve in a different direction to adapt to their new circumstances. How does this relate to finches? On the Galápagos Islands, some finches appeared so different from others that Darwin did not realize at first that they were all finches. In fact, they were different species of finches with a variety of traits. Some finches, for instance, had long, narrow beaks, while others had short, thick beaks. Darwin concluded that the traits of the different populations of finches had changed over time, and that these variations were the result of natural selection. As the finches' beaks changed, they were able to eat different types of food. Darwin's finches constituted powerful evidence for natural selection. But Darwin was also inspired greatly by the evolution that he saw in the traits of pigeons, not due to natural selection but rather artificial selection. Breeding pigeons was a popular hobby in England in Darwin's time. By selecting which pigeons were allowed to mate, people had a profound effect on their appearance, such as the shape and size of their beaks and the color of their feathers. Dog breeding is another prime example of artificial selection. Although all dogs are descendants of the wolf, the use of artificial selection has allowed humans to drastically alter the appearance of dogs. For centuries, dogs have been bred for various desired characteristics, leading to the creation of a wide range of dogs, from the tiny Chihuahua to the massive Great Dane. Artificial selection has been widely used in agriculture to produce animals and crops with desirable traits. The meats sold today are the result of the selective breeding of chickens, cattle, sheep, and pigs. Many fruits and vegetables have been improved or even created through artificial selection. For example, broccoli, cauliflower, and cabbage were all derived from the wild mustard plant through selective breeding. Artificial selection appeals to humans since it is faster than natural selection and allows humans to mold organisms to their needs. Artificial selection or selective breeding describes the human selection of breeding pairs to produce favorable offspring. This applies to all organisms – from virus to four-footer, and from pet to food source. Artificial selection aims to increase the productive or esthetic value of an organism to our advantage. In the field of biology, artificial selection covers a whole host of subtopics. One can implement artificial selection to eradicate disease, increase yield per acre, lower competition within an ecosystem, or produce a new color in a breed of dog. With recent strides in the uncovering of the genetic sequences of a long list of organisms, it is possible to create a genetically modified organism. Artificial selection is DNA modification. Aggressive male stock has been castrated for centuries, while those males with genotypes, phenotypes (dominant traits) of use to humans have been used as breeding stock. Artificial selection not only concerns the appearance, productivity or muscle mass of a food source but even its behavior. When riding horses or using one to pull a plough, a gelding is much easier to control than a stallion and, even before the study of genetics, it was known that a nervous disposition is not entirely the fault of the environment but of heritable traits. Dairy cows are bred according to milk yield, sows which kill their young are removed from the breeding stock, and the more muscle mass a male calf is born with, the greater its chance of passing on its genes to the next generation. In modern farming pharmaceutical and nutritional developments have increased the productivity formerly controlled by selective breeding. The combination of genetics, health and behavior creates super-stock to feed the ever-growing world population with increasing efficiency. Artificial selection has been used for millennia. It is estimated that it has taken approximately 14,000 years of selective breeding to produce the huge number of 'pure-bred' dogs today, although the phrase pure-bred is incorrect, as only the original breed – the gray wolf – is, in essence, pure. From the huge Great Dane to the miniature chihuahua, and from the fastest, leanest greyhound to the shortest, slowest bulldog, each breed originates back to a common ancestor. This common ancestor was artificially bred to produce friendlier, faster and more useful versions for the benefit of the human race. Early artificial selection of dog breeds was primarily a move towards a loyal animal which would protect its human owner, increase his or her chances of a successful hunt and, when agriculture began, guard and guide stock. One breed does not fill all human requirements, and particular breeds have become synonymous with particular tasks. The speedy greyhound for the hunt, the intelligent collie for herding, the aggressive but loyal mastiff for protection, the bloodhound for tracking, and the small, pretty lapdog for comic companionship. The results of artificial selection Artificial selection in crops began when the first nomadic tribes settled and had to depend on local produce. A common ancestor of many of today's cabbage family is the wild mustard plant, Brassica oleracea. Triticum monococcum or einkorn wheat was first cultivated in Asia around 40,000 years ago and is thought to be the type from which all of today's artificially selected wheat cultivars are derived. Einkorn wheat's own ancestors are ancient wild grasses. Modern wheat cultivation techniques have brought the entire world an important source of carbohydrates and dietary fiber, at the same time producing certain cultivars for specific uses. Wheat for beer, wheat for pasta, white wheat that lowers bleaching costs (as esthetically, humans prefer their flour to look white), low protein wheat that makes pastry and cakes light, and high protein wheat for bread. All of these modern cultivars produce more kernels per plant, are more resistant to disease, can be grown more closely together, and offer more competition to weeds than their ancestors. Evolutionary biology has given us new techniques for the control of pests. These include genetic elimination (release of insects carrying a dominant lethal gene, or RIDL), and reproductive interference, where genetically adapted sterile forms are released into natural populations (sterile insect technique, or SIT). One genetically modified pest can kill or even cause a sex change in another, or it can lower the entire population's reproductive rate through induced sterilization. Lesser used methods are CRISPR gene editing to create a negative mutagenic chain reaction (MCR), and RNA interference, where males are made sterile through the artificial introduction of double-stranded RNA through viral or fungal vectors which "silences" testis genes. Another artificial control method is that of genetic underdominance, where offspring are less healthy than the parents, gradually lowering each subsequent generation's success within an ecosystem. Myotonia congenita is a hereditary condition where stress or physical exertion can cause fainting. A debilitating condition in man where the fight and flight reaction is replaced by temporary unconsciousness, goat breeding circles view this strange behavior in a more positive light. Goats with myotonia congenita do not climb the fences that surround them as the physical exertion causes them to faint. As goats are natural Houdinis', this trait is highly coveted by goat farmers. Now recognized as an official breed, fainting goats are the result of relatively recent human artificial selection dating from just over a century ago. Fainting goats Unnatural selection, or artificial selection, is the result of human action. In the case of the abovementioned fainting goats, myotonia congenita would almost certainly lead to the mutation's extinction should the animals involved live in the wild. This extinction would be the result of natural selection, as any predator attack would render the mutations easy prey and the majority of affected goats would not live to adulthood or breed, thereby passing on their myotonia congenita genes. The fainting goat can, therefore, be considered the product of unnatural selection. Natural selection – a selection of certain alleles independent of human intervention – requires a set of specific conditions. These are the variation of alleles within a single species which must be heritable, and that "positive" traits lead to larger populations of organisms featuring this trait because the trait increases survival and/or reproduction rates and population success. In artificial selection, the variation of alleles is – currently – important, as is their heritability, although biotechnology may eventually render these criteria obsolete. The final criterion also changes: unnatural selection does not require successful reproductive or survival rates, only a genotype which is beneficial to man. A naked cat bred for human purposes is kept indoors, in a warm environment, with a goal to provide entertainment and companionship. Its survival depends upon its human owner, as does its reproduction rate. A crop that provides a good food source and is cheap to produce will receive water, shelter, pest control, and nutrients. Natural selection is a slow process where in-species mutations need time to create a new and successful breed. Other factors can prevent the proliferation of a new set of alleles, even if this set is superior to the original. Predators, disease, climate and the ability or inability to find a mate through which the different alleles become dominant throughout the breed can create significant setbacks. On the other hand, natural or artificial selection is a rapid process as it occurs in protected and controlled environments where many of these factors are absent. Even the sourcing of a mate in which recessive but desired alleles are present has become unhindered since the recording of pedigrees and bloodlines, and the advent of artificial insemination. As genetic research increases, the need to breed declines through scientific procedures such as cloning. The poles of natural and unnatural selection are therefore spreading further and further apart. Artificial selection is used to improve the health and well-being of the global population or to improve the health and well-being of an individual. However, the benefit or disadvantage of other factors pertaining to the results of artificial selection is often forgotten. Agricultural ecosystems featuring pest- and mold-resistant crops will, in principle, use fewer pesticides. The introduction of genetically-modified fish which are less likely to absorb heavy metals into their flesh into the seas may pass these genes on to wild populations and increase the overall reproduction rate of a species. Artificially selected trees can repopulate forests at a much more rapid rate. And the possibility of eliminating Dengue and malaria through the artificial selection of sterile mosquitoes is becoming less fictitious. Artificial selection in microbial ecosystems might even produce a microorganism that can successfully digest the microplastics that litter the oceans. It is therefore obvious that artificial selection has an important place now, and in the future. Mosquito extinction – a future fact? However, artificial selection can also be used to damaging effect. Often, it is the quality of life of the artificially-selected species that is affected, such as respiratory infections and hypoxia in short-nosed dogs, and fainting in goats. Artificial selection also vastly reduces the amount of variation within a gene pool – a field of modern wheat contains just that, not the huge mix of wild grasses and meadow flowers a medieval wheat field was known to include. This negatively affects the biodiversity of an ecosystem. Inbreeding can shorten lifespans or cause offspring to develop serious health problems which are often not discovered until it is too late. Biodiversity in a traditional meadow The main problem with the ethics of unnatural selection is the same as with any ethical problem – who decides what is right and what is not? How important is it that a breed of cat comes in three colors or four? Does it matter if, by eliminating one pest through artificial selection, we offer the right conditions for the opportunistic adaptive radiation of another pest? Is the creation of a single global crop wise, even if this crop puts an end to famine on a global scale? What will happen if a pest decimates that crop? And how can scientists be sure that the adaptation of one allele will not produce dangerous mutations further down the line? Artificial selection is far from a new concept, but recent advances in biotechnology mean this method of species control will one day have the power to not only change every organism but also to influence speciation itself. Selective breeding is evolution by human selection. As nineteenth-century British naturalist Charles Darwin noted in Variation of Animals and Plants under Domestication, selective breeding may be methodical or unconscious. Methodical selection is oriented toward a predetermined standard, whereas unconscious selection is the result of biases in the preservation of valuable individuals. Methodical selection requires great care in discriminating among organisms and is capable of rapid