

# Adaptation

(1)

What is adaptation; How many types of adaptation are possible describe any one in detail? or Describe the adaptation for the marine habitat.

Acc. to Darwin's natural selection theory, only most fit during the struggle for existence only. most viable and adaptable species are survived. Thus the adjustment of the species to its new environment becomes the main factor in the formation and conservation of species. other forms which are unable to change themselves are perish during the course of time.

"Any characteristic that is advantageous to a particular organism or population to adjust them to the changing environment is known as adaptation." Adaptation is the characteristic of living.

Adaptation in different or related genera being ads to the similar environment brings about the similar changes, such adaptation are called convergent adaptation (i.e; they all are converged to one habitat). While in divergent adaptation (adaptive radiation) the closely related genera become adapted to the different kinds of environment.

## Law of Adaptive radiation

The convergence & divergence play a main role in evolution. The divergence of species from common stem to different adaptable units brings about evolution. Lamarck called it as embranchment, while Osborn called as adaptive radiation. Acc to Osborn's law each isolated region, having variable topography

soil, climate, and vegetation, will give rise to diversified fauna. The larger the region and more diverse the environmental conditions, the greater the variety of animals will result.

### Forces of Adaptation

Mutation, selection and genetic drift are the main forces which brings about the evolutionary changes. These forces upset the genetic equilibrium producing micro-evolutionary changes, i.e. small changes in population.

By selection the nature sorts out some gene combinations and select others, that occurred due to mutation or recombination.

Genetic drift is another evolutionary force that fixes the non-adaptive or neutral gene recombination in a population.

This micro-evolution produces changes in all populations from one generation to the other. It is also responsible for the differences produced between related populations. Besides these forces some additional forces co-operate with mutation, selection and genetic drift to produce new populations from pre-existing ones and thus produce new population from pre-existing ones and thus the process of adaptation involved. The fragmentation and development of new population is called speciation.

### Types of Adaptation →

- structurally adaptations may be morphological (confined to the shape, size, and external features) or anatomical (internal organs adapted according to its needs). These adaptations vary from individual to individual, depending on the environmental climatic conditions in which the organisms live.

According to Mathew adaptation are following types

- (1) cursorial Adaptation (a) digitigrade, (b) unguligrade.
- (1) Fossorial "
  - (3) Scansorial " (or Arborescent)
  - (4) Volcanic "
  - (5) Aquatic "
  - (6) Cave "
  - (7) Deep-sea "
  - (8) Desert "

### (1) Cursorial or terrestrial adaptation —

There are meant for fast locomotion, searching the food and for escaping their enemies.

Eg - Flightless birds, dinosaurs, kangaroo, rabbit, dogs, cat, leopards etc.

→ characterised by following changes —

- ① Streamlining of body contour — spindle shaped body offer least resistance to air. Thorax is compressed & ribs are flattened.
- ② Less developed forelimbs — concerned with food gathering.
- ③ Digitigradation in foot — The foot becomes digitigrade. The bones of wrist, palm, ankle and sole (carpals, metacarpals, tarsals, metatarsals) are raised from the ground. They are supported by pads to sustain various shocks.
- ④ Unguligrade mode of progression — In mammals, we walk on modified nails or hoofs. The feet are provided with one or two pads.
- ⑤ Loss of digits — Plantigrade. wrists and ankles are not raised from the ground. generally 5 toes, eg - Bear, raccoon, primates

- ⑥ Reduction in ulna & fibula - In horse represented by split bones.
- ⑦ Movements of limbs in one plane - to avoid interference between forelimbs during running.
- ⑧ Bipedal changes - Reduction in forelimbs in bipedal forms. (e.g. birds, marsupials, man). In semi-erect bipedal, tail is used as counter-poise. In Kangaroos & dinosaurs tail serves as third limb.

### Fossorial & Subterranean adaptation

#### Fossorial for digging habits

Fossorial meant for digging habits. These animals usually live on surface, rarely go into earth. While subterranean adaptations are adjustments occurring in underground forms.

Fossorial - e.g. - Sphenodon, Uromastyx, limbless lizard, desert snakes, burrowing owl, monotremes, marsupials, mole, hedgehog, hares, etc. Fossorial animals are primitive, small, plantigrade & pentadactyl with claws.

Fossorial grouped under three heads —

- (A) animals which dig for food but live over ground & forelimbs modified for digging.
- (B) animals which live under ground & feed over the ground.
- (C) animals which live permanently in tunnels.

The (A)(B) are partial while (C) is true fossorial adaptation.

#### Characters

- ① Spindle shaped body - greatest diameter of body near the neck or shoulder. Body often bent to resist fall to subterranean passage.
- ② Tapering of head - head tapers anteriorly, feed upon feeble prey such as insects.
- ③ Reduction of tail -
- ④ Loss of eyes - eyes are small or vestigial

- ~~coronavarians, tetrapod, oviparous, etc.~~  
- ~~Neck & tail may be short or absent~~

(4) ~~loss of eyes~~ - as they are once used in dark habit.

In Geomyidae (pocket gophers) — eyes small.

Marsupial mole (*Notoryctes*) — functionless

*Talpa* - vestigial

Golden mole - covered with skin

(5) Disappearance of pinnæ - since they would be an obstruction in burrowing.

Geomyidae & other - small.

monotremes (wholly fossorial forms) - lacking

(6) Digging adaptation - For digging various changes occur.

- Snout well developed, upturned at the tip.

nasal bone develop at the tip of the nose.

- Teeth (incisor or canines) — forwardly directed

- Forelimbs & hindlimbs are short. The forelimbs are broad and stout with long claws; development of extra bone falciform, which increases the breadth of palm; the golden mole (*Chrysochloris*) cut four middle two are meant for digging. The proximal end of humerus bears ridges for insertion of powerful short shoulder muscles and

that help in rotating the hand. The olecranon process is large, short clavicles.

- In hind limb, femur is weak, tibia & fibula partially fused & calcaneum prominent.

(7) Girdles - The bones of <sup>pelvic</sup> girdle become elongated & lie parallel to vertebral column.

(8) Vertebrae - The sacral vertebrae fused to give strength & firmness in pushing the animal through earth.

(9) Hibernation →

## Scansocial (Arboreal) adaptation →

climbing trees.

These adjustments have evolved in animals which lives on trees or climb on vertical surface.  
e.g. climbing perch (Anabas), mud skipper - fishes, tree frog (Hyla), geckos, chameleon, tree snakes, opossums, tree kangaroo, tree sloths, flying squirrels.

### Categories of scansocial animals

- ① Wall and stalk climbers — Not tree inhabiting, but are well suitable for climbing. In these digits provided with sharp & recurved claws & bears adhesive discs.  
e.g. wall lizards.
- ② Terrrestrial-arboreal forms — capable of climbing but rest at home, some time they form nests in trees.  
e.g. various carnivores, rodents, insectivores etc.
- ③ True arboreal forms — Perfectly tree living. according to mode of locomotion fall into three categories
  - ① Branch runners — lemurs, chameleons etc.
  - ② Hanging or suspended forms — Bat, sloths, flying lemurs. Bat hangs by claws of hind limbs & stalks by forelimbs claws.
  - ③ Swinging by the forelimbs (Brachiator) → e.g. apes (primates)

### Adaptation →

- ① Stoutness of body contour → Thorax is sub-circular & ribs are much curved. ribs are numerous giving support to viscera in their inverted position. Dorsal-lumbar vertebra elongated and becomes increased in number from 19 to 25, as a response of arboreal need.
- ② Toughness limb girdles → shoulder girdle is strong to support body weight. clavicle & scapula are well developed.
- ③ elongation of proximal limb segments → humerus long (e.g. sloth) & great apes length is directly related to the climbing power, the gibbon arms touch the ground.
- ④ Syndactyly and oxydactyly in limbs → syndactyly (union of digits) is common. In marsupials (opossum) fourth hallux is offset to oppose the fourth digit, the 2nd, 3rd bound together in a common integument. In reptiles syndactyly is occurs in fore & hind limbs. In hand out inner bundle formed by union of three finger while outer bundle formed by two finger. But in foot reverse syndactyly is present i.e. the outer bundle has three finger & inner bundle has two fingers. In scansocial birds outer toe is rotated in such a way that 4th toe & hallux become opposed to 2nd & 3rd toes. this type of foot is called zygodactylous.

⑤ Digital reduction - In soft & midland Bats, some lemurs lost the second digits.

⑥ Specialization of tail - Prehensile (e.g. Chameleon, spider monkey - 5th hand) Non prehensile scales or spines present underneath of tail.

⑦ Development of accessory organs - spines or tubercles on the forearm in some lemurs. In Lemur catta there is a specific climbing organ.

⑧ Volant adaptation →

### VOLANT ADAPTATION

- concerned with the flight

- Flight may be passive or gliding type characterized by leaping (Jumping) - locomotive force is gravity

⑨ True flight is the aerial flight caused by the action of wings

⑩ Adaptation for passive flight or gliding → e.g. Draco, Exocoetus cormorants, lemurs, Rhacophorus etc -

Adaptation —

① Development of patagia → the patagium is formed by the wing folds. May be supported by webs (Draco) between fore and hind limbs. Patagium can be folded like a fan when not used. The flying lemur (Galeopithecus volans) patagium extends from side of neck to the tip of tail even including digits which are webbed as for aquatic life. In bats patagium supported by elongated fore limbs and 2, 3, 4 & 5th digits this first digit is free.

② Enlargement & high insertion of pectoral fins → In Exocoetus the pectoral fins becomes enlarged in the form of parachutes & are tightly inserted on body. The lower lobe of tail is larger, helping in leaping.

④ Webbing effect → In flying frog (Rhacophorus) feet are webbed & digits terminate into adhesive pads which help in leaps & adhesion to trees respectively. Rudiments of patagia are present but ill-defined.

## 2- Adaptation for true or active flight →

① Body contour → spindle or boat shaped for least air resistance, neck mobile.

② Development of feathers → There are "nature's masterpiece". Structurally it consists of a basal quill or calamus and distal rachis or shaft. The rachis bears a series of lateral barbs which further consists of double rows of barbules connected with each other by barbicells. The barbs, barbules & barbicells form a short net, which help in flight.

③ Presence of wings → In birds forelimbs modified into wings, and are most specialized of all modern wings. The digits reduced to 3 in fused together to help in flight.

In bat wings manus is well developed & ulna is weak. In microchiroptera 2 fused with 3rd to support the ant. margin of wings. While in megachiroptera the 2 is free from 3rd clawed.

In pterodactyl's wing radius & ulna are equal.

These wings are membranous lateral folds having nerves for attachment with thorax help in flying.

④ Pneumatization of bones - add buoyancy during flight

⑤ Presence of flight muscles & keeled sternum - Flight muscle connects limb bone with wing & keel for attachment of pectoral muscles.

⑥ Development of air sacs - act as air reservoir during respiration and air buoyant

⑦ Brain & sense organs specifically → cerebrum & optic lobe well developed olfactory lobes reduced & eyes bear characteristic sclerotic plates to resist variable air pressure.

④ Primary aquatic adaptations — These occurs in fishes, which never had terrestrial ancestry and thus adapted to water medium.

① Body contour — Stream-lined form, head is sub conical. There is no protuberance over the body which would retard the swift swift passage of the animal through water.

② Presence of fins

③ Respiratory organs — gill well suited for gaseous exchange in water.

④ Air bladder — In advanced bony fishes, functions as accessory respiratory organ as well as hydrostatic organ.

⑤ Lateral line system — Reteptive receptors

⑥ Skin → Protected with scales, overlain mucous gland.

⑦ Secondary aquatic adaptation —

These are lung breathers which were return to aquatic life due to certain circumstances such as scarcity of food & place. of Amphibious animals showing partial aquatic adaptation thereby.

Turtles, crocodiles, duck, gecko, Hippopotamus, ~~etc.~~ show dual habitat.

① Stream-lined body — Neck constriction disappears and the tail enlarges e.g. Cetacea, Sirenia

② Enlargement of size — Water animals are larger in size because their animal use that extra energy in growth which is exhausted in gravitational forces.

③ Shortening of neck — In whale cervicle vertebral fused into a man of bone.

④ Disappearance of excrecence —

— Ossicles absent in water mammals

— External nostrils move towards apex

— eyes become water adapted — shifting lighter on the

face in hippopotamus. The truly aquatic forms eye do not change but adapt to aquatic vision by changing the curvature of lenses.

- ⑤ Occurrence of fins — Fin-like expansion of the body wall in ichthyosaurs & ichthyosaurs which help in propulsion. In a killer whale, while absent in Balaena & Dolphin dorsal fin is horizontal in marine mammals while vertical in reptiles & birds divides the tail into two parts rather than running into one lobe. In reptiles & mammals propulsion occurs by fin-like limbs while in whales & mammals propulsion occurs by tail because their limbs become disappeared.
- ⑥ Disappearance of hairs, skin, glands etc — Hairless body. Fully layer (blubber) is formed below the skin to compensate the hairless in mammals.
- ⑦ Mouth opening position → Jaws lost their power of movement (except in calves & young ones) because they are not used for mastication. Teeth are simplified & greater in numbers (present only in one jaw in sperm whale & absent in baleen whale).
- ⑧ Modification of skull & v.c. — Cranium is shortened but become wider, zygomatic arch reduced or vestigial (Cetacea). In vertebrates zygomatic arch Zygopophyses become reduced as body weight is supported by water. Chest become cylindrical (aqueous type). Several processes become reduced in the trunk region, but elongated in tail to provide greater area for muscular attachment.
- ⑨ Lightness of bones — Light & spongy, in Ichthyosaurs interstices are filled with oil.

### Cave Adaptations

Caves are abandoned channels through which underground rivers flowed in past. The present mostly in limestone region since the lime stone is soluble. Lateral channels are formed due to vertical movement of water & they are called CAVERNS.

Characteristic of the caves → Absence of light & uniform temperature. But, within mouth of cave and for a short distance inside the cave, the light penetrates & temperature also fluctuates seasonally. This region is called twilight or transitional region. Degree of moisture is uniform in some parts of cave & may fluctuate in other caves through which water flows.

Hence the animal & plants will be adapted for lack of light, scarcity of food & uniform conditions.

Cave flora → Mostly fungi — Agrius ~~sp.~~, Pezizal. Many species are discovered from different caves.

## Cave fauna →

- ① Temporary fauna - bats, temporary visitors of caves.
- ② Permanent fauna - There is no permanent cave-dwelling reptiles & Birds.  
Amphibians - • Cave salamander (*Speleosaurus maculicauda*) - normal eye & live in twilight zones.  
• Blind salamander - (*Typhlonectes spelaeus*) - forming permanent cave fauna - eyelids gone & rods & cones of retina disappear.  
• Proteus anglerius - totally blind, gill present -
- Fishes  
• Cave fisher (*Gymnophorus natator*) - partially blind,  
• Many fishes of family Amblyosidae - permanent cave dwellers.  
• Chilogaster polyphemus, Amblyopsis etc. are blind fishes.

## Cave adaptations -

- ① Loss of pigmentation -
- ② Degenerate eyes - either reduced or covered by other tissue
- ③ Tactile organs & sense of smell → well developed.  
cave fishers & salamanders are sensitive to vibrations.  
Amblyopsis possesses taste organs scattered on head, snout & lips
- ④ Slender body
- ⑤ Digestive organ - modified for complete utilization of food.

The sea constitutes a major part of biosphere, covering about 65% of earth's surface. All the major groups of animals except amphibia are present in sea. These animals are usually large size because they are not required to support the weight of their body on substratum and the higher density of sea water helps them to keep their body up, and reduces the weight of the body so that locomotion is very easy. Thus whale is the largest animal of world. Marine animals show different adaptations according to whether they are pelagic or deep sea forms.

### Pelagic fauna —

This realm constitutes all superficial waters upto depth to which effective sun light penetrates. The depth upto which light penetrates is greater towards tropics & less towards poles. This region characterised by the presence of light & absence of substratum. There is plenty of food, oxygen & light, pressure is not high as deep sea. Due to these condition animals of this region are small, active & predaceous. Their renal organs, swimming organs, organs of offence & defence are well developed. They are able to keep afloat by various devices. Some animals (e.g. ctenophores) never sink to the bottom. Some have pelagic larvae while the adults are bottom dwellers.

### Floatation mechanisms in the pelagic animals —

The capacity to float depends upon various factors & increased by water reducing the specific gravity. The reduction in specific gravity — affected by following factors —

- ① By using little skeletal parts — Reduction in hard parts occurs in pelagic animals e.g. Foraminifera have thin shell.  $\text{CaCO}_3$  reduced in this shell & size of pores & opening of shell enlarged.

③ By having uncalcified or weakly calcified shell -

Crustaceans - uncalcified or weakly calcified shell

Cephalopods - small calcified internal shell.

④ By taking up large amount of water - Large amount of water taken in the connective tissue producing transparent, jelly like material as in medusa.

⑤ By storing less fat or air or saline water -

vacuoles containing fluid of low specific gravity -

(e.g. - ctenophore) & Fat globules (e.g. Radiolaria)

are present in some animals. The eggs of fishes

float due to the presence of oil droplets in them.

Airsacs full of gas are present in many.

Rhizopores (e.g. - Physalia, Vellella)

turtles, sea-snakes, whales, & seals and is achieved

the lungs serve the same purpose as the air bladder in other fishes.

⑥ By changing the form -

This method is effective only in small animals

and is achieved by flattening the body.

⑦ By having cilia - Not very effective due to their small size and are present only in Protozoans.

⑧ By producing a stream of water → By constriction of tube shaped body. The ejected water drives the animal forwards.

Deep-sea Flora - The animals populations grows thinner at greater depths. The abyssal realm is that portion of the water where light fails to reach. It includes animals from the protozoa to fishes. The following condition exist in deep sea -

① Absence of light-

② Low temp. - temp is constant and is at the freezing point.

- ⑩ Enormous pressure → our atm increases with every ten meters.
- ⑪ Calmness of water → the water is calm at greater depths and there are no waves or storms.
- ⑫ Absence of light → due to absence of sun light. There is no plant life, Bacteria are also absent in this region.
- ⑬ Scarcity of food → due to absence of plant life there is a complete absence of food. The food consists of the animals and plant falling from above.
- ⑭ Dead animals do not decompose → Due to extremely low temp. and the absence of bacteria, the dead animals do not decompose.
- ⑮ The substratum is composed of soft mud.

Requirements of life in deep sea

An enlargement of body surface and a distribution of the weight to widely separated points are adaptations for this life. These animals are always at the surface provided with long legs so that when walking, the body is kept high above the muddy water. These animals are adapted to face prolonged starvation & high pressure.

Adaptations to deep sea fauna

- ① Food & Feeding adaptations → the deep sea animals obtains the food by (i) hunting (ii) from the bodies of surface plants & animals which sink to bottom and (iii) the falling excreta of the surface animals food falls like a gentle rain from the above. The abyssal animals living on this food have an elongated digestive tract, their esophagus is reduced and they have an elongated excretory tube to carry excreta away from the feeding ground.
- ② Predaceous animals have powerful jaws, strong teeth & sometimes large mouth.
- ③ The distensible stomach contains some fine cilia which prey larger than themselves.
- ④ Smaller animals (e.g. protozoan, sponges) take their food directly from water.

④ Colour - due to absence of light, the colour of animals is uniform, red predominates, but brown, violet, black blue are also present.

⑤ Body form & skeleton → slender, long & stalked bodies are very common, the skeleton is weak, fragile & non-calcareous. Most deep sea fishes have uncalcified skeletons e.g. Chimaera.

⑥ Bioluminescence → The production of light by deep-sea animals is regarded as adaptation to the absence of sun light. Luminescent organs are found either over the entire body or on one belly or localized on highly modified organs.

Some pelagic animals also produce light.

Many Cephalopods, <sup>Crustaceans</sup> some starfishes, annelids & a large number of fishes produce light.

Luminescence is useful for the recognition of sex and for attracting the prey.

⑦ Eyes → most deep-sea animals are blind or have reduced eyes e.g. Pelecanus, Fasces, some crustaceans. Among fishes & cephalopods complete degeneration of eyes is rare. Size of eye decreases with depth. Some animals have telescopic eyes in which instead of the eye the lens is very much enlarged.

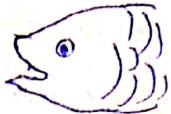
⑧ Other sensory organs → For compensation of loss of vision deep sea forms possess long feelers and slender attenuations of the fins. In

Bathypterois one fin ray of pectoral fin & in

Stylephorus caudal fin is produced into long filament which is sensory. Ossiculars possess long tentacles.



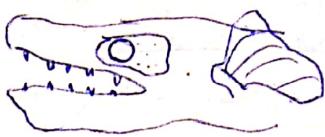
at 250 m depth



at 4500 m depth



*Argyropelecus*



*Gigantura*

Fig - Eyes in some deep sea fishes

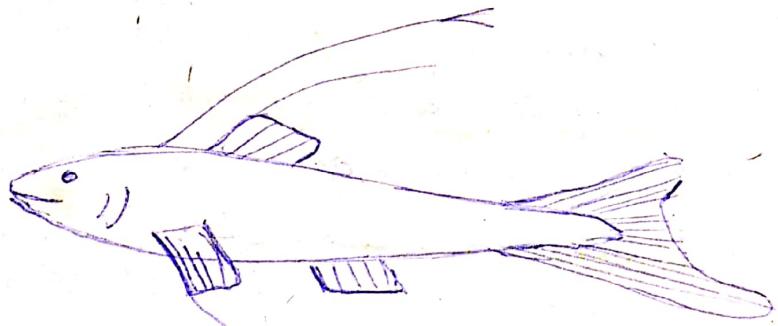


Fig - *Bathypetersis* (4500 m) with  
elongated fin rays

#### ⑦ Loss of power of mastication —

many deep sea fishes loose the masticatory power since they feed on decaying ooze. Most deep sea fishes have very large mouth, sharp teeth, and enormous stomach capable of eating large animals.

#### ⑧ Sexual dimorphism → In abyssal zone it is difficult to search the mate or partner. In angler fishes male are attached to a process on head of female.

#### ⑨ Uniformity of Abyssal fauna —

The conditions deep sea are uniform — uniformly cold without motion, light, cracks & holes. still there are faunal differences among animals and specialization takes place. The differences are increased by the presence of barriers of which depth is most important.

## Deep Sea Fauna →

### ① Archaic forms in deep-sea →

In deep-sea, the struggle with physical environment-forces is very much increased hence competition between all species is reduced. Hence ancient forms maintain themselves in deep-sea e.g. Ampioxus, Cimulidae, Lingula etc.

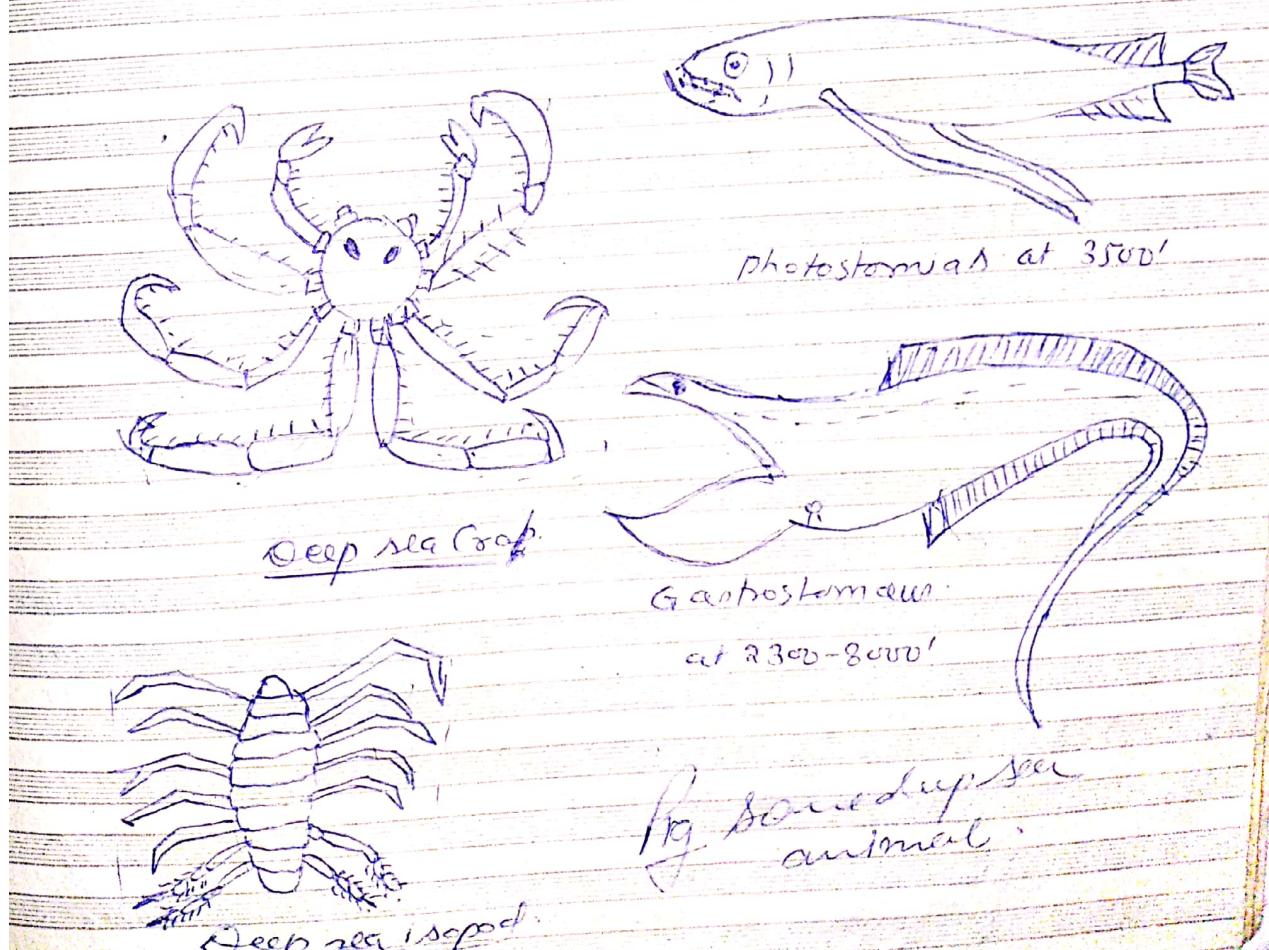
So we can say that abyssal fauna is characterized by uniformity & changelessness. The fauna, although rich in species, is poor in individuals.

### → Invertebrates form in deep-sea —

Sponges, corals, hydroids, brittle star, holothurians, starfish, tube dwelling annelids, bryozoan, brachiopods, Pelecypoda, crabs, shrimps, isopods etc.

### → Vertebrates in deep-sea —

Lamniform shark (Spinax niger) Silversharks  
(Chimaera, Collothecynthus), Escrifer mesogaleus<sup>group</sup>  
fishes. (Cetomimus, Ipnops) Anguilliformes (Leptocephalus, Gnathostomus)



## Desert adaptation.

Nearly  $\frac{1}{3}$  of the entire land area of world is desert & found almost in all countries e.g. Indus valley in Pakistan, Gobi in China, Sahara & Kalahari in Africa, etc.

Desert consist of land devoid of vegetation except certain places. Desert has rainless or nearly rainless climate, where draught remain almost continuous. The average rainfall is not more than 10-15 inches in a year. Therefore the fauna & flora particularly adapted to these conditions. The main requirements of desert life are getting moisture, conservation of water, defence against physical & organic environments & obtaining food.

### ① Moisture getting →

① Water → Water is the most important problem of desert life. Hence, animals obtain moisture by various methods & effectively conserve it. The only source of water is juice of plants or the blood of prey. Most of desert animals are adapted to live on these sources only and do not drink water even when it is available.

Example →

Plant → Date palm having long, deep, horizontally spreading roots. presence of hairs on leaves.

Animals → Few animal absorb dew drops along with vegetation food.

Mole having hygroscopic skin and absorbs water like blotting paper. Its surface covered by thorny scales.

Desert rabbit, turtles, woodrat eat succulent plants; Kangaroo rat (Dipodomys) pocket mouse and other desert rodents eat dry seeds; predators eat prey for their water requirements.

Conservation of water & moisture is also important for desert fauna & flora.

Examples → Plant Flora → Desert plants (e.g. cacti) contain large masses of watery pulp, small leaves or no leaves, & when occur fold themselves to avoid evaporation of water.

Fauna → Camels are able to store water in the rumen of the stomach in where well special water all the parent stored water in cell sufficient for several days, Mole have thorny skin, Horn toad has hard & rough skin. Desert animals also have thick skin to avoid loss of water by perspiration.

Desert insect are water proof. To conserve water animals remain in burrows during day time & come outside during night when the percentage of moisture in their burrows and outside is equal. Certain animals plug the mouth of their burrows during day time. Uromastyx store water in large intestine.

Defence → For self defence from extreme temp., arid climate, the animals adopt themselves as follows-

- In burrowing animals the nostrils are directed upwards instead of forward. In snakes nostrils are protected by valves or are reduced to fine apertures.

In Typhlops (desert snake) eyes are protected by sheath.

In camels eyes are protected by long eye lashes and are kept high above the sand by long neck. The same is true for ostrich.

- The ear openings are also well protected by hairs or scales.

Protection against its natural enemies is achieved through colouration or spiny covering. Desert animals show protective & warning colours. Some insects and lizards possess a hard or spiny covering for protection e.g. moloch, phrynosoma. Presence of venom is another desert adaptation for self defence.

Almost all reptiles, spiders, scorpions of desert are predators. They can run fast to protect themselves from enemy or to hunt the prey. Desert animals possess long limbs and padded feet to run on sand. The

Sense organs of sight, hearing & smell are highly developed to help the animals in offence & defence.

Due to scarcity of food animals are adopted for scarcity.