CLASSIC PAPERS IN GENETICS

Edited by

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Preface

Each paper in this collection has been selected for one or more reasons. It may have served to focus attention on a particular facet of genetics. It may illustrate well the impact the study of genetics has on biology or on social and racial relationships. It may have embodied a particular idea unique at the time of publication that has led to extensive research by other geneticists, in many cases still continuing today. It may provide a brilliant example of the use of the scientific method. It may furnish a clear-cut, concise illustration of incisive reasoning. One or two have the added virtue of having been written in an entertaining style.

In each case, they are evidence of work considered to constitute “classic” contributions to the science of biology. Taken as a unit, they have done much to give form and direction to genetic research. Their vitality is unimpaired by age, and their repeated citation in bibliographies of current literature or on seminar reading lists testifies that they are still important sources of information.

You should not expect, and will not find, any attempt by an author to “write down” to the level of his readers, for the primary concern is neither popularization nor condensation, but rather, adequate presentation. There is an assumption by the authors that the reader has some biological background. Lack of this background should not handicap anyone in following the development of the basic ideas. Most of the major steps in the development of the gene theory are here, and the nature of the material discussed by each author was as new to biology at the time of writing as to any reader meeting it for the first time today.

This collection of papers served as the basis for a course in introductory biology taught for two years at Brown University. Many of these students had had no previous training in biology, but they demonstrated most satisfactorily that a neophyte in science can read, understand, and profit from a direct experience with the original literature of a particular field. Some guidance was necessary, and much was given in class. It is presented here in the form of an introduction to each paper. Little or no interpretation of the paper will be found in the introduction, however, for this interferes with the relationship between the author and the reader. All authors attempt to express their ideas clearly to the reader, and it is only fair to let them do so if they can. At the same time, the reader who follows an author’s logic can feel that he has received his information from the primary source, and he is no longer dependent upon second hand interpretation of research.

It is my pleasure to acknowledge the permission granted by the publishers and authors to reproduce the papers in this volume. Citations to the original source are included with each paper. All of the journals are still being published except the Report of the Evolution Committee of the Royal Society, and they contain a continuing record of recent activities and researches. It would repay the reader to look over them occasionally to see what solutions have been offered to the many ques-
tions left unsolved by the authors included in this book.

It is also my pleasure to thank my students at Brown University for their work and study expended in reading, discussing, and understanding these papers. A student who generates an interest in the subject he is studying is a joy forever, and I found myself blessed with a bountiful crop of them.

Note: All page references contained in the individual papers have been carried over into this volume from the original publications, for any value they might have for the researcher. Page numbers cited in the text do not refer to pages in this volume unless specifically so stated.
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Experiments in Plant-Hybridization

GREGOR MENDEL

This paper needs no introduction. It is the original classic paper on the theory of the gene, and the cornerstone of the science of genetics. The paper was translated from German into English by William Bateson, and has been reprinted several times.

Mendel's results are presented in a clear-cut and straightforward fashion, and his paper is fairly easy to read and understand. There have been comments made that Mendel was either very lucky or tampered with his data, because his results are almost miraculously close to perfect. Personally, I think both of these charges are arrant nonsense. Luck has little to do with results slowly accumulated over eight years' time. The results are the consequence of painstakingly careful attention to detail, followed by intelligent analysis of a mass of accumulated data. As to the second charge, that he might have arranged his data so as to shed the best possible light on his conclusions, I believe that the only way he might have manipulated his data is through omission of certain results that would have led to unnecessary complications. When Mendel specified that his experiments were to deal with "constantly differentiating characters" that occurred in pairs, he relieved himself of the necessity of considering some of the interrelationships that exist in genetic phenomena, and which will be discussed in the Bateson and Punnett papers (see pp. 44 and 54). Mendel probably knew of these interrelationships, because he tested many characters before selecting the seven pairs he used. The fact that he chose to utilize only those characteristics that fitted his concepts cannot be interpreted as an act of dishonesty on his part. As I see it, he recognized several of the basic concepts of heredity, and presented as much of his data as was necessary to validate those concepts.

I have not included the last few pages of Mendel's original paper, which dealt with experiments on hybrids of other species of plants, and with remarks on certain other questions of heredity. These paragraphs have little bearing on the principles Mendel proposed in this paper, and I have found from experience with my students that these pages serve primarily to confuse rather than to clarify.
INTRODUCTORY REMARKS

Experience of artificial fertilisation, such as is effected with ornamental plants in order to obtain new variations in colour, has led to the experiments which will here be discussed. The striking regularity with which the same hybrid forms always reappeared whenever fertilisation took place between the same species induced further experiments to be undertaken, the object of which was to follow up the developments of the hybrids in their progeny.

To this object numerous careful observers, such as Kölreuter, Gärtner, Herbert, Lecoq, Wichura and others, have devoted a part of their lives with inexhaustible perseverance. Gärtner especially, in his work "Die Bastardierung im Pflanzenreiche" (The Production of Hybrids in the Vegetable Kingdom), has recorded very valuable observations; and quite recently Wichura published the results of some profound investigations into the hybrids of the Willow. That, so far, no generally applicable law governing the formation and development of hybrids has been successfully formulated can hardly be wondered at by anyone who is acquainted with the extent of the task, and can appreciate the difficulties with which experiments of this class have to contend. A final decision can only be arrived at when we shall have before us the results of detailed experiments made on plants belonging to the most diverse orders.

Those who survey the work in this department will arrive at the conviction that among all the numerous experiments made, not one has been carried out to such an extent and in such a way as to make it possible to determine the number of different forms under which the offspring of hybrids appear, or to arrange these forms with certainty according to their separate generations, or definitely to ascertain their statistical relations.

It requires indeed some courage to undertake a labour of such far-reaching extent; this appears, however, to be the only right way by which we can finally reach the solution of a question the importance of which cannot be overestimated in connection with the history of the evolution of organic forms.

The paper now presented records the results of such a detailed experiment. This experiment was practically confined to a small plant group, and is now, after eight years' pursuit, concluded in all essentials. Whether the plan upon which the separate experiments were conducted and carried out was the best suited to attain the desired end is left to the friendly decision of the reader.

SELECTION OF THE EXPERIMENTAL PLANTS

The value and utility of any experiment are determined by the fitness of the material to the purpose for which it is used, and thus in the case before us it cannot be immaterial what plants are subjected to experiment and in what manner such experiments are conducted.

The selection of the plant group which shall serve for experiments of this kind must be made with all pos-

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1 This translation was made by the Royal Horticultural Society of London, and is reprinted, by permission of the Council of the Society, with footnotes added and minor changes suggested by Professor W. Bateson, enclosed within [ ]. The original paper was published in the *Verb. naturf. Ver. in Brunn, Abhandlungen*, iv. 1865, which appeared in 1866.

2 [It is to the clear conception of these three primary necessities that the whole success of Mendel's work is due. So far as I know this conception was absolutely new in his day.]
sible care if it be desired to avoid from the outset every risk of questionable results.

The experimental plants must necessarily—
1. Possess constant differentiating characters.
2. The hybrids of such plants must, during the flowering period, be protected from the influence of all foreign pollen, or be easily capable of such protection.

The hybrids and their offspring should suffer no marked disturbance in their fertility in the successive generations.

Accidental impregnation by foreign pollen, if it occurred during the experiments and were not recognized, would lead to entirely erroneous conclusions. Reduced fertility or entire sterility of certain forms, such as occurs in the offspring of many hybrids, would render the experiments very difficult or entirely frustrate them. In order to discover the relations in which the hybrid forms stand towards each other and also towards their progenitors it appears to be necessary that all members of the series developed in each successive generation should be, without exception, subjected to observation.

At the very outset special attention was devoted to the Leguminosae on account of their peculiar floral structure. Experiments which were made with several members of this family led to the result that the genus Pisum was found to possess the necessary qualifications.

Some thoroughly distinct forms of this genus possess characters which are constant, and easily and certainly recognizable, and when their hybrids are mutually crossed they yield perfectly fertile progeny. Furthermore, a disturbance through foreign pollen cannot easily occur, since the fertilising organs are closely packed inside the keel and the anther bursts within the bud, so that the stigma becomes covered with pollen even before the flower opens. This circumstance is of especial importance. As additional advantages worth mentioning, there may be cited the easy culture of these plants in the open ground and in pots, and also their relatively short period of growth. Artificial fertilisation is certainly a somewhat elaborate process, but nearly always succeeds. For this purpose the bud is opened before it is perfectly developed, the keel is removed, and each stamen carefully extracted by means of forceps, after which the stigma can at once be dusted over with the foreign pollen.

In all, thirty-four more or less distinct varieties of Peas were obtained from several seedsmen and subjected to a two years' trial. In the case of one variety there were noticed, among a larger number of plants all alike, a few forms which were markedly different. These, however, did not vary in the following year, and agreed entirely with another variety obtained from the same seedman; the seeds were therefore doubtless merely accidentally mixed. All the other varieties yielded perfectly constant and similar offspring; at any rate, no essential difference was observed during two trial years. For fertilisation twenty-two of these were selected and cultivated during the whole period of the experiments. They remained constant without any exception.

Their systematic classification is difficult and uncertain. If we adopt the strictest definition of a species, according to which only those individuals belong to a species which under precisely the same circumstances display precisely similar characters, no two of these varieties could be referred to one species. According to the opinion of
DO NOT PERMIT OF A SHARP AND CERTAIN SEPARATION, SINCE THE DIFFERENCE IS OF A "MORE OR LESS" NATURE, WHICH IS OFTEN DIFFICULT TO DEFINE. SUCH CHARACTERS COULD NOT BE UTILISED FOR THE SEPARATE EXPERIMENTS; THESE COULD ONLY BE APPLIED TO CHARACTERS WHICH STAND OUT CLEARLY AND DEFINITELY IN THE PLANTS. LASTLY, THE RESULT MUST SHOW WHETHER THEY, IN THEIR ENTIRETY, OBSERVE A REGULAR BEHAVIOUR IN THEIR HYBRID UNIONS, AND WHETHER FROM THESE FACTS ANY CONCLUSION CAN BE COME TO REGARDING THOSE CHARACTERS WHICH POSSESS A SUBORDINATE SIGNIFICANCE IN THE TYPE.

THE CHARACTERS WHICH WERE SELECTED FOR EXPERIMENT RELATE:

1. TO THE DIFFERENCE IN THE FORM OF THE Ripe SEEDS. THESE ARE EITHER ROUND OR ROUNDISH, THE DEPRESSIONS, IF ANY, OCCUR ON THE SURFACE, BEING ALWAYS ONLY SHALLOW; OR THEY ARE IRREGULARLY ANGULAR AND DEEPLY WRINKLED (P. quadratum).

2. TO THE DIFFERENCE IN THE COLOUR OF THE SEED ALBUMEN (ENDOSPERM). The albumen of the ripe seeds is either pale yellow, bright yellow and orange coloured, or it possesses a more or less intense green tint. This difference of colour is easily seen in the seeds as [= if] their coats are transparent.

3. TO THE DIFFERENCE IN THE COLOUR OF THE SEED-COAT. THIS IS EITHER WHITE, WITH WHICH CHARACTER WHITE FLOWERS ARE CONSTANTLY CORRELATED; OR IT IS GREY, GREY-BROWN, LEATHER-BROWN, WITH OR WITHOUT VIOLET SPOTTING, IN WHICH CASE THE COLOUR OF THE STANDARDS IS VIOLET, THAT OF THE WINGS PURPLE, AND THE STEM IN THE AXILS OF THE LEAVES IS OF A REDDISH TINT. THE GREY SEED-COATS BECOME DARK BROWN IN BOILING WATER.

4. TO THE DIFFERENCE IN THE FORM OF THE Ripe PODS. THESE ARE EITHER SIMPLY
inflated, not contracted in places; or they are deeply constricted between the seeds and more or less wrinkled (P. saccharatum).

5. To the difference in the colour of the unripe pods. They are either light to dark green, or vividly yellow, in which colouring the stalks, leaf-veins, and calyx participate. They are either light to dark green, or vividly yellow, in which colouring the stalks, leaf-veins, and calyx participate.

6. To the difference in the position of the flowers. They are either axial, that is, distributed along the main stem; or they are terminal, that is, distributed almost in a false umbel; in this case the upper part of the stem is more or less widened in section (P. umbellatum).

7. To the difference in the length of the stem. The length of the stem is very various in some forms; it is, however, a constant character for each, in so far that healthy plants, grown in the same soil, are only subject to unimportant variations in this character.

In experiments with this character, in order to be able to discriminate with certainty, the long axis of 6 to 7 ft. was always crossed with the short one of ¾ ft. to 1 ½ ft.

Each two of the differentiating characters enumerated above were united by cross-fertilisation. There were made for the

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4 One species possesses a beautifully brownish-red coloured pod, which when ripening turns to violet and blue. Trials with this character were only begun last year. [Of these further experiments it seems no account was published. Correns has since worked with such a variety.]

5 [This is often called the Mummy Pea. It shows slight fasciation. The form I know has white standard and salmon-red wings.]

6 [In my account of these experiments (R.H.S. Journal, vol. xxv. p. 54) I misunderstood this paragraph and took "axis" to mean the floral axis, instead of the main axis of the plant. The unit of measurement, being indicated in the original by a dash ('), I carelessly took to have been an inch, but the translation here given is evidently correct.]

From a larger number of plants of the same variety only the most vigorous were chosen for fertilisation. Weakly plants always afford uncertain results, because even in the first generation of hybrids, and still more so in the subsequent ones, many of the offspring either entirely fail to flower or only form a few and inferior seeds.

Furthermore, in all the experiments reciprocal crossings were effected in such a way that each of the two varieties which in one set of fertilisation served as seed-bearer in the other set was used as the pollen plant.

The plants were grown in garden beds, a few also in pots, and were maintained in their naturally upright position by means of sticks, branches of trees, and strings stretched between. For each experiment a number of pot plants were placed during the blooming period in a greenhouse, to serve as control plants for the main experiment in the open as regards possible disturbance by insects. Among the insects which visit Peas the beetle Bruchus pisi might be detrimental to the experiments should it appear in numbers. The female of this species is known to lay the eggs in the flower, and in so doing opens the keel; upon the tarsi of one specimen, which was caught in a flower, some pollen grains could clearly be seen under a lens. Mention must also be made of a circumstance which possibly might lead

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7 [It is somewhat surprising that no mention is made of Thrips, which swarm in Pea flowers. I had come to the conclusion that this is a real source of error and I see Laxton held the same opinion.]
to the introduction of foreign pollen. It occurs, for instance, in some rare cases that certain parts of an otherwise quite normally developed flower wither, resulting in a partial exposure of the fertilising organs. A defective development of the keel has also been observed, owing to which the stigma and anthers remained partially uncovered. It also sometimes happens that the pollen does not reach full perfection. In this event there occurs a gradual lengthening of the pistil during the blooming period, until the stigmatic tip protrudes at the point of the keel. This remarkable appearance has also been observed in hybrids of Phaseolus and Lathyrus.

The risk of false impregnation by foreign pollen is, however, a very slight one with Pisum, and is quite incapable of disturbing the general result. Among more than 10,000 plants which were carefully examined there were only a very few cases where an indubitable false impregnation had occurred. Since in the greenhouse such a case was never remarked, it may well be supposed that Bruchus pisi, and possibly also the described abnormalities in the floral structure, were to blame.

[F.] THE FORMS OF THE HYBRIDS

Experiments which in previous years were made with ornamental plants have already afforded evidence that the hybrids, as a rule, are not exactly intermediate between the parental species. With some of the more striking characters, those, for instance, which relate to the form and size of the leaves, the pubescence of the several parts, &c., the intermediate, in-deed, is nearly always to be seen; in other cases, however, one of the two parental characters is so preponderant that it is difficult, or quite impossible, to detect the other in the hybrid.

This is precisely the case with the Pea hybrids. In the case of each of the seven crosses the hybrid-character resembles that of one of the parental forms so closely that the other either escapes observation completely or cannot be detected with certainty. This circumstance is of great importance in the determination and classification of the forms under which the offspring of the hybrids appear. Henceforth in this paper those characters which are transmitted entire, or almost unchanged in the hybridisation, and therefore in themselves constitute the characters of the hybrid, are termed the dominant, and those which become latent in the process recessive. The expression “recessive” has been chosen because the characters thereby designated withdraw or entirely disappear in the hybrids, but nevertheless reappear unchanged in their progeny, as will be demonstrated later on.

It was furthermore shown by the whole of the experiments that it is perfectly immaterial whether the dominant character belongs to the seed-bearer or to the pollen-parent; the form of the hybrid remains identical in both cases. This interesting fact was also emphasised by Gärtner, with the remark that even the most practised expert is not in a position to determine in a hybrid which of the two parental species was the seed or the pollen plant.

Of the differentiating characters

8 [This also happens in Sweet Peas.] 9 [Mendel throughout speaks of his cross-bred Peas as “hybrids,” a term which many restrict to the offspring of two distinct species. He, as he explains, held this to be only a question of degree.] 10 [Note that Mendel, with true penetration, avoids speaking of the hybrid-character as “transmitted” by either parent, thus escaping the error pervading the older views of heredity.] 11 [Gärtner, p. 223.]
which were used in the experiments the following are dominant:

1. The round or roundish form of the seed with or without shallow depressions.
2. The yellow colouring of the seed albumen [cotyledons].
3. The grey, grey-brown, or leather-brown colour of the seed-coat, in association with violet-red blossoms and reddish spots in the leaf axils.
4. The simply inflated form of the pod.
5. The green colouring of the unripe pod in association with the same colour in the stems, the leaf-veins and the calyx.
6. The distribution of the flowers along the stem.
7. The greater length of stem.

With regard to this last character it must be stated that the longer of the two parental stems is usually exceeded by the hybrid, a fact which is possibly only attributable to the greater luxuriance which appears in all parts of plants when stems of very different length are crossed. Thus, for instance, in repeated experiments, stems of 1 ft. and 6 ft. in length yielded without exception hybrids which varied in length between 6 ft. and 7 1/2 ft.

The hybrid seeds in the experiments with seed-coat are often more spotted, and the spots sometimes coalesce into small bluish-violet patches. The spotting also frequently appears even when it is absent as a parental character.  

The hybrid forms of the seed-shape and of the albumen [colour] are developed immediately after the artificial fertilisation by the mere influence of the foreign pollen. They can, therefore, be observed even in the first year of experiment, whilst all the other characters naturally only appear in the following year in such plants as have been raised from the crossed seed.

[F₂] THE GENERATION [BRED] FROM THE HYBRIDS

In this generation there reappear, together with the dominant characters, also the recessive ones with their peculiarities fully developed, and this occurs in the definitely expressed average proportion of three to one, so that among each four plants of this generation three display the dominant character and one the recessive. This relates without exception to all the characters which were investigated in the experiments. The angular wrinkled form of the seed, the green colour of the albumen, the white colour of the seed-coats and the flowers, the constrictions of the pods, the yellow colour of the unripe pod, of the stalk, of the calyx, and of the leaf venation, the umbel-like form of the inflorescence, and the dwarfed stem, all reappear in the numerical proportion given, without any essential alteration. Transitional forms were not observed in any experiment.

Since the hybrids resulting from reciprocal crosses are formed alike and present no appreciable difference in their subsequent development, consequently the results [of the reciprocal crosses] can be reckoned together in each experiment. The relative numbers which were obtained for each pair of differentiating characters are as follows:

Expt. 1. Form of seed.—From 253 hybrids 7,324 seeds were obtained in the second trial year. Among them were 5,474 round or roundish ones and 1,850 angular wrinkled ones. Therefrom the ratio 2.96 to 1 is deduced.

Expt. 2. Colour of albumen.—258 plants yielded 8,023 seeds, 6,022 yellow, and 2,001 green; their ratio, therefore, is as 3.01 to 1.

In these two experiments each pod
yielded usually both kinds of seeds. In well-developed pods which contained on the average six to nine seeds, it often happened that all the seeds were round (Expt. 1) or all yellow (Expt. 2); on the other hand there were never observed more than five wrinkled or five green ones in one pod. It appears to make no difference whether the pods are developed early or later in the hybrid or whether they spring from the main axis or from a lateral one. In some few plants only a few seeds developed in the first formed pods, and these possessed exclusively one of the two characters, but in the subsequently developed pods the normal proportions were maintained nevertheless.

As in separate pods, so did the distribution of the characters vary in separate plants. By way of illustration the first ten individuals from both series of experiments may serve.

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<td>6</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>14</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>18</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As extremes in the distribution of the two seed characters in one plant, there were observed in Expt. 1 an instance of 43 round and only 2 angular, and another of 14 round and 15 angular seeds. In Expt. 2 there was a case of 32 yellow and only 1 green seed, but also one of 20 yellow and 19 green.

These two experiments are important for the determination of the average ratios, because with a smaller number of experimental plants they show that very considerable fluctuations may occur. In counting the seeds, also, especially in Expt. 2, some care is requisite, since in some of the seeds of many plants the green colour of the albumen is less developed, and at first may be easily overlooked. The cause of this partial disappearance of the green colouring has no connection with the hybrid-character of the plants, as it likewise occurs in the parental variety. This peculiarity [bleaching] is also confined to the individual and is not inherited by the offspring. In luxuriant plants this appearance was frequently noted. Seeds which are damaged by insects during their development often vary in colour and form, but, with a little practice in sorting, errors are easily avoided. It is almost superfluous to mention that the pods must remain on the plants until they are thoroughly ripened and have become dried, since it is only then that the shape and colour of the seed are fully developed.

Expt. 3. Colour of the seed-coats.—Among 929 plants 705 bore violet-red flowers and grey-brown seed-coats; 224 had white flowers and white seed-coats, giving the proportion 3.15 to 1.

Expt. 4. Form of pods.—Of 1,181 plants 882 had them simply inflated, and in 299 they were constricted. Resulting ratio, 2.95 to 1.

Expt. 5. Colour of the unripe pods.—The number of trial plants was 580, of which 428 had green pods and 152 yellow ones. Consequently these stand in the ratio 2.82 to 1.

Expt. 6. Position of flowers.—Among 858 cases 651 had inflorescences axial and 207 terminal. Ratio, 3.14 to 1.

Expt. 7. Length of stem.—Out of 1,064 plants, in 787 cases the stem was long, and in 277 short. Hence a mutual ratio of 2.84 to 1. In this experiment the dwarfed plants were carefully
lifted and transferred to a special bed. This precaution was necessary, as otherwise they would have perished through being overgrown by their tall relatives. Even in their quite young state they can be easily picked out by their compact growth and thick dark-green foliage.\footnote{This is true also of the dwarf or "Cupid" Sweet Peas.}

If now the results of the whole of the experiments be brought together, there is found, as between the number of forms with the dominant and recessive characters, an average ratio of 2.98 to 1, or 3 to 1.

The dominant character can have here a \textit{double signification}—viz. that of a parental character, or a hybrid-character.\footnote{This paragraph presents the view of the hybrid-character as something incidental to the hybrid, and not "transmitted" to it—a true and fundamental conception here expressed probably for the first time.} In which of the two significations it appears in each separate case can only be determined by the following generation. As a parental character it must pass over unchanged to the whole of the offspring; as a hybrid-character, on the other hand, it must maintain the same behaviour as in the first generation \([F_2]\).

\[ [F_3] \text{ THE SECOND GENERATION} \]
\[ \text{bred] FROM THE HYBRIDS} \]

Those forms which in the first generation \([F_2]\) exhibit the recessive character do not further vary in the second generation \([F_3]\) as regards this character; they remain constant in their offspring.

It is otherwise with those which possess the dominant character in the first generation [bred from the hybrids]. Of these \textit{two-thirds} yield offspring which display the dominant and recessive characters in the proportion of 3 to 1, and thereby show exactly the same ratio as the hybrid forms, while only \textit{one-third} remains with the dominant character constant.

The separate experiments yielded the following results:

Expt. 1. Among 565 plants which were raised from round seeds of the first generation, 193 yielded round seeds only, and remained therefore constant in this character; 372, however, gave both round and wrinkled seeds, in the proportion of 3 to 1. The number of the hybrids, therefore, as compared with the constants is 1.93 to 1.

Expt. 2. Of 519 plants which were raised from seeds whose albumen was of yellow colour in the first generation, 166 yielded exclusively yellow, while 353 yielded yellow and green seeds in the proportion of 3 to 1. There resulted, therefore, a division into hybrid and constant forms in the proportion of 2.13 to 1.

For each separate trial in the following experiments 100 plants were selected which displayed the dominant character in the first generation, and in order to ascertain the significance of this, ten seeds of each were cultivated.

Expt. 3. The offspring of 36 plants yielded exclusively grey-brown seed-coats, while of the offspring of 64 plants some had grey-brown and some had white.

Expt. 4. The offspring of 29 plants had only simply inflated pods; of the offspring of 71, on the other hand, some had inflated and some constricted.

Expt. 5. The offspring of 40 plants had only green pods; of the offspring of 60 plants some had green, some yellow ones.

Expt. 6. The offspring of 33 plants had only axial flowers; of the offspring of 67, on the other hand, some had axial and some terminal flowers.

Expt. 7. The offspring of 28 plants
inherited the long axis, and those of 72 plants some the long and some the short axis.

In each of these experiments a certain number of the plants came constant with the dominant character. For the determination of the proportion in which the separation of the forms with the constantly persistent character results, the two first experiments are of especial importance, since in these a larger number of plants can be compared. The ratios 1.93 to 1 and 2.13 to 1 gave together almost exactly the average ratio of 2 to 1. The sixth experiment gave a quite concordant result; in the others the ratio varies more or less, as was only to be expected in view of the smaller number of 100 trial plants. Experiment 5, which shows the greatest departure, was repeated, and then, in lieu of the ratio of 60 and 40, that of 65 and 35 resulted. The average ratio of 2 to 1 appears, therefore, as fixed with certainty. It is therefore demonstrated that, of those forms which possess the dominant character in the first generation, two-thirds have the hybrid-character, while one-third remains constant with the dominant character.

The ratio of 3 to 1, in accordance with which the distribution of the dominant and recessive characters results in the first generation, resolves itself therefore in all experiments into the ratio of 2:1:1 if the dominant character be differentiated according to its significance as a hybrid-character or as a parental one. Since the members of the first generation \([F_2]\) spring directly from the seed of the hybrids \([F_1]\), it is now clear that the hybrids form seeds having one or other of the two differentiating characters, and of these one-half develop again the hybrid form, while the other half yield plants which remain constant and receive the dominant or the recessive characters [respectively] in equal numbers.

THE SUBSEQUENT GENERATIONS [BRED] FROM THE HYBRIDS

The proportions in which the descendants of the hybrids develop and split up in the first and second generations presumably hold good for all subsequent progeny. Experiments 1 and 2 have already been carried through six generations, 3 and 7 through five, and 4, 5, and 6 through four, these experiments being continued from the third generation with a small number of plants, and no departure from the rule has been perceptible. The offspring of the hybrids separated in each generation in the ratio of 2:1:1 into hybrids and constant forms.

If \(A\) be taken as denoting one of the two constant characters, for instance the dominant, \(a\), the recessive, and \(AA\) the hybrid form in which both are conjoined, the expression

\[A + 2AA + a\]

shows the terms in the series for the progeny of the hybrids of two differentiating characters.

The observation made by Gärtner, Köllreuter, and others, that hybrids are inclined to revert to the parental forms, is also confirmed by the experiments described. It is seen that the number of the hybrids which arise from one fertilisation, as compared with the number of forms which become constant, and their progeny from generation to generation, is continually diminishing, but that nevertheless they could not entirely disappear. If an average equality of fertility in all plants in all generations be assumed, and if, furthermore, each hybrid forms seed of which one-half yields hybrids again, while the other half is constant to both characters in equal proportions, the ratio of numbers for the offspring in
each generation is seen by the following summary, in which $A$ and $a$ denote again the two parental characters, and $Aa$ the hybrid forms. For brevity's sake it may be assumed that each plant in each generation furnishes only 4 seeds.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Generation</th>
<th>$A$</th>
<th>$Aa$</th>
<th>$a$</th>
<th>Ratio $A : Aa : a$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1 : 2 : 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>3 : 2 : 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>7 : 2 : 7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>120</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>120</td>
<td>15 : 2 : 15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>496</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>496</td>
<td>31 : 2 : 31</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

$n^{2n−1} = 1 : 2 : 2^n−1$

In the tenth generation, for instance, $2^{10} - 1 = 1023$. There result, therefore, in each 2,048 plants which arise in this generation 1,023 with the constant dominant character, 1,023 with the recessive character, and only two hybrids.

THE OFFSPRING OF HYBRIDS IN WHICH SEVERAL DIFFERENTIATING CHARACTERS ARE ASSOCIATED

In the experiments above described plants were used which differed only in one essential character. The next task consisted in ascertaining whether the law of development discovered in these applied to each pair of differentiating characters when several diverse characters are united in the hybrid by crossing. As regards the form of the hybrids in these cases, the experiments showed throughout that this invariably more nearly approaches to that one of the two parental plants which possesses the greater number of dominant characters. If, for instance, the seed plant has a short stem, terminal white flowers, and simply inflated pods; the pollen plant, on the other hand, a long stem, violet-red flowers distributed along the stem, and constricted pods; the hybrid resembles the seed parent only in the form of the pod; in the other characters it agrees with the pollen parent. Should one of the two parental types possess only dominant characters, then the hybrid is scarcely or not at all distinguishable from it.

Two experiments were made with a considerable number of plants. In the first experiment the parental plants differed in the form of the seed and in the colour of the albumen; in the second in the form of the seed, in the colour of the albumen, and in the colour of the seed-coats. Experiments with seed characters give the result in the simplest and most certain way.

In order to facilitate study of the data in these experiments, the different characters of the seed plant will be indicated by $A$, $B$, $C$, those of the pollen plant by $a$, $b$, $c$, and the hybrid forms of the characters by $Aa$, $Bb$, and $Cc$.

Expt. 1.—$AB$, seed parents; $A$, form round; $B$, albumen yellow. $ab$, pollen parents; $a$, form wrinkled; $b$, albumen green.

The fertilised seeds appeared round and yellow like those of the seed parents. The plants raised therefore yielded seeds of four sorts, which frequently presented themselves in one pod. In all, 556 seeds were yielded by 15 plants, and of these there were:
315 round and yellow,
101 wrinkled and yellow,
108 round and green,
32 wrinkled and green.

All were sown the following year. Eleven of the round yellow seeds did
not yield plants, and three plants did
not form seeds. Among the rest:

38 had round yellow seeds ....... AB
65 round yellow and green seeds ABb
60 round yellow and wrinkled
yellow seeds ..................... AaB
138 round yellow and green,
wrinkled yellow and green
seeds ............................ AaBb

From the wrinkled yellow seeds 96 re-
sulting plants bore seed, of which:

28 had only wrinkled yellow seeds   aB
68 wrinkled yellow and green seeds   aBb.

From 108 round green seeds 102 re-
sulting plants fruited, of which:

35 had only round green seeds   Ab
67 round and wrinkled green seeds   Aab.

The wrinkled green seeds yielded 30
plants which bore seeds all of like char-
acter; they remained constant ab.

The offspring of the hybrids ap-
peared therefore under nine different
forms, some of them in very unequal
numbers. When these are collected and
co-ordinated we find:

38 plants with the sign AB
35 " " " " Ab
28 " " " " aB
30 " " " " ab
65 " " " " ABb
68 " " " " aBb
60 " " " " AaB
67 " " " " Aab
138 " " " " AaBb.

The whole of the forms may be
classed into three essentially different
groups. The first includes those with
the signs AB, Ab, aB, and ab: they
possess only constant characters and
do not vary again in the next genera-
tion. Each of these forms is represented
on the average thirty-three times. The
second group includes the signs ABb,
aBb, AaB, Aab: these are constant in
one character and hybrid in another,
and vary in the next generation only as
regards the hybrid-character. Each of
these appears on an average sixty-five
times. The form AaBb occurs 138
times: it is hybrid in both characters,
and behaves exactly as do the hybrids
from which it is derived.

If the numbers in which the forms
belonging to these classes appear be
compared, the ratios of 1, 2, 4 are un-
mistakably evident. The numbers 33,
65, 138 present very fair approxima-
tions to the ratio numbers of 33, 66,
132.

The developmental series consists,
therefore, of nine classes, of which
four appear therein always once and
are constant in both characters; the
forms AB, ab, resemble the parental
forms, the two other present combina-
tions between the conjoined characters
A, a, B, b, which combinations are
likewise possibly constant. Four classes
appear always twice, and are constant
in one character and hybrid in the
other. One class appears four times,
and is hybrid in both characters. Con-
sequently the offspring of the hybrids,
if two kinds of differentiating char-
acters are combined therein, are repre-
sented by the expression

\[ AB + Ab + aB + ab + 2ABb + 2aBb + 2AaB + 2Aab + 4AaBb. \]

This expression is indisputably a
combination series in which the two
expressions for the characters A and a,
B and b are combined. We arrive at
the full number of the classes of the
series by the combination of the ex-
pressions:
MENDEL

\[ A + 2Aa + a \\
B + 2Bb + b. \]

Expt. 2.

\( ABC, \) seed parents;
\( A, \) form round;
\( B, \) albumen yellow;
\( C, \) seed-coat grey-brown.

\( abc, \) pollen parents;
\( a, \) form wrinkled;
\( b, \) albumen green;
\( c, \) seed-coat white.

This experiment was made in precisely the same way as the previous one. Among all the experiments it demanded the most time and trouble. From 24 hybrids 687 seeds were obtained in all; these were all either spotted, grey-brown or grey-green, round or wrinkled.\(^{16}\) From these in the following year 639 plants fruited, and, as further investigation showed, there were among them:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Plants</th>
<th>Genotypes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>( ABC )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>( Abc )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>( AbC )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>( Abc )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>( aBc )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>( abc )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>( abc )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22</td>
<td>( ABCc )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>45</td>
<td>( ABBc )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>36</td>
<td>( ABcc )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>38</td>
<td>( AaBCc )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40</td>
<td>( Aabc )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>49</td>
<td>( AaaBCc )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>48</td>
<td>( AaaBbc )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>78</td>
<td>( AaBbc )</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The whole expression contains 27 terms. Of these 8 are constant in all characters, and each appears on the average 10 times; 12 are constant in two characters, and hybrid in the third; each appears on the average 19 times; 6 are constant in one character and hybrid in the other two; each appears on the average 43 times. One form appears 78 times and is hybrid in all of the characters. The ratios 10, 19, 43, 78 agree so closely with the ratios 10, 20, 40, 80, or 1, 2, 4, 8, that this last undoubtedly represents the true value.

The development of the hybrids when the original parents differ in three characters results therefore according to the following expression:

\[
\begin{align*}
ABC + ABc + AbC + Abc + aBC \\
+ aBc + abc + abc + 2 ABCc \\
+ 2 AbCc + 2 abc + 2 abc \\
+ 2 ABbc + 2 Abbc + 2 Abc \\
+ 2 AaBc + 2 AaCc + 4 AaBbc \\
+ 4 aabbCc + 4 AabCc + 4 AabCc \\
+ 4 AaBbc + 4 AaBbc + 8 AaBbc.
\end{align*}
\]

Here also is involved a combination series in which the expressions for the characters \( A \) and \( a, B \) and \( b, C \) and \( c, \) are united. The expressions

\[
\begin{align*}
A + 2Aa + a \\
B + 2Bb + b \\
C + 2Cc + c
\end{align*}
\]

give all the classes of the series. The constant combinations which occur therein agree with all combinations which are possible between the characters \( A, B, C, a, b, c; \) two thereof, \( ABC \) and \( abc, \) resemble the two original parental stocks.

In addition, further experiments were made with a smaller number of experimental plants in which the remaining characters by twos and threes were united as hybrids: all yielded approximately the same results. There is therefore no doubt that for the whole of the characters involved in the experiments the principle applies that the offspring of the hybrids in which several essentially different characters are combined exhibit the terms of a series of combinations, in which the developmental series for each pair of differentiating characters are united. It is demonstrated at the same time that the

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\(^{16}\) [Note that Mendel does not state the cotyledon-colour of the first crosses in this case; for as the coats were thick, it could not have been seen without opening or peeling the seeds.]
relation of each pair of different characters in hybrid union is independent of the other differences in the two original parental stocks.

If \( n \) represents the number of the differentiating characters in the two original stocks, \( 3^n \) gives the number of terms of the combination series, \( 4^n \) the number of individuals which belong to the series, and \( 2^n \) the number of unions which remain constant. The series therefore contains, if the original stocks differ in four characters, \( 3^4 = 81 \) classes, \( 4^4 = 256 \) individuals, and \( 2^4 = 16 \) constant forms; or, which is the same, among each 256 offspring of the hybrids there are 81 different combinations, 16 of which are constant.

All constant combinations which in Peas are possible by the combination of the said seven differentiating characters were actually obtained by repeated crossing. Their number is given by \( 2^7 = 128 \). Thereby is simultaneously given the practical proof that the constant characters which appear in the several varieties of a group of plants may be obtained in all the associations which are possible according to the [mathematical] laws of combination, by means of repeated artificial fertilisation.

As regards the flowering time of the hybrids, the experiments are not yet concluded. It can, however, already be stated that the time stands almost exactly between those of the seed and pollen parents, and that the constitution of the hybrids with respect to this character probably follows the rule ascertained in the case of the other characters. The forms which are selected for experiments of this class must have a difference of at least twenty days from the middle flowering period of one to that of the other; furthermore, the seeds when sown must all be placed at the same depth in the earth, so that they may germinate simultaneously. Also, during the whole flowering period, the more important variations in temperature must be taken into account, and the partial hastening or delaying of the flowering which may result therefrom. It is clear that this experiment presents many difficulties to be overcome and necessities great attention.

If we endeavour to collate in a brief form the results arrived at, we find that those differentiating characters, which admit of easy and certain recognition in the experimental plants, all behave exactly alike in their hybrid associations. The offspring of the hybrids of each pair of differentiating characters are, one-half, hybrid again, while the other half are constant in equal proportions having the characters of the seed and pollen parents respectively. If several differentiating characters are combined by cross-fertilisation in a hybrid, the resulting offspring form the terms of a combination series in which the combination series for each pair of differentiating characters are united.

The uniformity of behaviour shown by the whole of the characters submitted to experiment permits, and fully justifies, the acceptance of the principle that a similar relation exists in the other characters which appear less sharply defined in plants, and therefore could not be included in the separate experiments. An experiment with peduncles of different lengths gave on the whole a fairly satisfactory result, although the differentiation and serial arrangement of the forms could not be effected with that certainty which is indispensable for correct experiment.

**THE REPRODUCTIVE CELLS OF THE HYBRIDS**

The results of the previously described experiments led to further ex-
experiments, the results of which appear fitted to afford some conclusions as regards the composition of the egg and pollen cells of hybrids. An important clue is afforded in *Pisum* by the circumstance that among the progeny of the hybrids constant forms appear, and that this occurs, too, in respect of all combinations of the associated characters. So far as experience goes, we find it in every case confirmed that constant progeny can only be formed when the egg cells and the fertilising pollen are of like character, so that both are provided with the material for creating quite similar individuals, as is the case with the normal fertilisation of pure species. We must therefore regard it as certain that exactly similar factors must be at work also in the production of the constant forms in the hybrid plants. Since the various constant forms are produced in *one* plant, or even in *one* flower of a plant, the conclusion appears logical that in the ovaries of the hybrids there are formed as many sorts of egg cells, and in the anthers as many sorts of pollen cells, as there are possible constant combination forms, and that these egg and pollen cells agree in their internal composition with those of the separate forms.

In point of fact it is possible to demonstrate theoretically that this hypothesis would fully suffice to account for the development of the hybrids in the separate generations, if we might at the same time assume that the various kinds of egg and pollen cells were formed in the hybrids on the average in equal numbers.\(^\text{17}\)

In order to bring these assumptions to an experimental proof, the following experiments were designed. Two forms which were constantly different in the form of the seed and the colour of the albumen were united by fertilisation.

If the differentiating characters are again indicated as *A*, *B*, *a*, *b*, we have:

- **AB**, seed parent;
- *A*, form round;
- *B*, albumen yellow.
- **ab**, pollen parent;
- *a*, form wrinkled;
- *b*, albumen green.

The artificially fertilised seeds were sown together with several seeds of both original stocks, and the most vigorous examples were chosen for the reciprocal crossing. There were fertilised:

1. The hybrids with the pollen of **AB**.
2. The hybrids with the pollen of **ab**.
3. **AB** with the pollen of the hybrids.
4. **ab** with the pollen of the hybrids.

For each of these four experiments the whole of the flowers on three plants were fertilised. If the above theory be correct, there must be developed on the hybrids egg and pollen cells of the forms **AB**, *Ab*, *aB*, *ab*, and there would be combined:

1. The egg cells **AB**, *Ab*, *aB*, *ab* with the pollen cells **AB**.
2. The egg cells **AB**, *Ab*, *aB*, *ab* with the pollen cells **ab**.
3. The egg cells **AB** with the pollen cells **AB**, *Ab*, *aB*, *ab*.
4. The egg cells **ab** with the pollen cells **AB**, *Ab*, *aB*, *ab*.

From each of these experiments there could then result only the following forms:

\(^{17}\) [This and the preceding paragraph contain the essence of the Mendelian principles of heredity.]
1. AB, ABB, AaB, AaBb.
2. AaBB, Aab, aBB, ab.
3. AB, ABB, AaB, AaBb.
4. AaBB, Aab, aBB, ab.

If, furthermore, the several forms of the egg and pollen cells of the hybrids were produced on an average in equal numbers, then in each experiment the said four combinations should stand in the same ratio to each other. A perfect agreement in the numerical relations was, however, not to be expected, since in each fertilisation, even in normal cases, some egg cells remain undeveloped or subsequently die, and many even of the well-formed seeds fail to germinate when sown. The above assumption is also limited in so far that, while it demands the formation of an equal number of the various sorts of egg and pollen cells, it does not require that this should apply to each separate hybrid with mathematical exactness.

The first and second experiments had primarily the object of proving the composition of the hybrid egg cells, while the third and fourth experiments were to decide that of the pollen cells. As is shown by the above demonstration the first and third experiments and the second and fourth experiments should produce precisely the same combinations, and even in the second year the result should be partially visible in the form and colour of the artificially fertilised seed. In the first and third experiments the dominant characters of form and colour, A and B, appear in each union, and are also partly constant and partly in hybrid union with the recessive characters a and b, for which reason they must impress their peculiarity upon the whole of the seeds. All seeds should therefore appear round and yellow, if the theory be justified. In the second and fourth experiments, on the other hand, one union is hybrid in form and in colour, and consequently the seeds are round and yellow; another is hybrid in form, but constant in the recessive character of colour, whence the seeds are round and green; the third is constant in the recessive character of form but hybrid in colour, consequently the seeds are wrinkled and yellow; the fourth is constant in both recessive characters, so that the seeds are wrinkled and green. In both these experiments there were consequently four sorts of seed to be expected—viz. round and yellow, round and green, wrinkled and yellow, wrinkled and green.

The crop fulfilled these expectations perfectly. There were obtained in the
1st Experiment, 98 exclusively round yellow seeds;
3rd Experiment, 94 exclusively round yellow seeds.

In the 2d Experiment, 31 round and yellow, 26 round and green, 27 wrinkled and yellow, 26 wrinkled and green seeds.

In the 4th Experiment, 24 round and yellow, 25 round and green, 22 wrinkled and yellow, 26 wrinkled and green seeds.

There could scarcely be now any doubt of the success of the experiment; the next generation must afford the final proof. From the seed sown there resulted for the first experiment 90 plants, and for the third 87 plants which fruited: these yielded for the

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>1st Exp.</th>
<th>3rd Exp.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
In the second and fourth experiments the round and yellow seeds yielded plants with round and wrinkled yellow and green seeds, \( AaBb \).

From the round green seeds, plants resulted with round and wrinkled green seeds, \( AaBb \).

The wrinkled yellow seeds gave plants with wrinkled yellow and green seeds, \( aBb \).

From the wrinkled green seeds plants were raised which yielded again only wrinkled and green seeds, \( ab \).

Although in these two experiments likewise some seeds did not germinate, the figures arrived at already in the previous year were not affected thereby, since each kind of seed gave plants which, as regards their seed, were like each other and different from the others. There resulted therefore from the

\begin{align*}
2\text{d Exp.} & \quad 4\text{th Exp.} \\
31 & \quad 24 \text{ plants of the form } AaBb \\
26 & \quad 25 \quad " \quad " \quad " \quad Aab \\
27 & \quad 22 \quad " \quad " \quad " \quad aBb \\
26 & \quad 27 \quad " \quad " \quad " \quad ab
\end{align*}

In all the experiments, therefore, there appeared all the forms which the proposed theory demands, and they came in nearly equal numbers.

In a further experiment the characters of flower-colour and length of stem were experimented upon, and selection was so made that in the third year of the experiment each character ought to appear in half of all the plants if the above theory were correct. \( A, B, a, b \) serve again as indicating the various characters.

\( A \), violet-red flowers \( a \), white flowers \( B, \) axis long. \( b, \) axis short.

The form \( Ab \) was fertilised with \( ab \), which produced the hybrid \( Aab \). Furthermore, \( aB \) was also fertilised with \( ab \), whence the hybrid \( aBb \). In the second year, for further fertilisation, the hybrid \( Aab \) was used as seed parent, and hybrid \( aBb \) as pollen parent.

Seed parent, \( Aab \).
Possible egg cells, \( Ab, ab \).
Pollen parent, \( Aab \).
Pollen cells, \( aB, ab \).

From the fertilisation between the possible egg and pollen cells four combinations should result, viz.,

\[ AaBb + aBb + Aab + ab. \]

From this it is perceived that, according to the above theory, in the third year of the experiment out of all the plants

Half should have violet-red flowers \( (Aa) \), Classes 1, 3.  
Half should have white flowers \( (a) \), Classes 2, 4.  
Half should have a long axis \( (Bb) \), Classes 1, 2.  
Half should have a short axis \( (b) \), Classes 3, 4.

From 45 fertilisations of the second year 187 seeds resulted, of which only 166 reached the flowering stage in the third year. Among these the separate classes appeared in the numbers following:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Color of flower</th>
<th>Stem</th>
<th>Numbers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 violet-red</td>
<td>long</td>
<td>47 times</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 white</td>
<td>long</td>
<td>40 &quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 violet-red</td>
<td>short</td>
<td>38 &quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 white</td>
<td>short</td>
<td>41 &quot;</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

There subsequently appeared

The violet-red flower-colour \( (Aa) \) in 85 plants.
The white flower-colour \( (a) \) in 81 plants.
The long stem \((Bb)\) in 87 plants.
The short stem \((b)\) in 79 plants.

The theory adduced is therefore satisfactorily confirmed in this experiment also.

For the characters of form of pod, colour of pod, and position of flowers, experiments were also made on a small scale, and results obtained in perfect agreement. All combinations which were possible through the union of the differentiating characters duly appeared and in nearly equal numbers.

Experimentally, therefore, the theory is confirmed that the pea hybrids form egg and pollen cells which, in their constitution, represent in equal numbers all constant forms which result from the combination of the characters united in fertilisation.

The difference of the forms among the progeny of the hybrids, as well as the respective ratios of the numbers in which they are observed, find a sufficient explanation in the principle above deduced. The simplest case is afforded by the developmental series of each pair of differentiating characters. This series is represented by the expression \(A + 2Aa + a\), in which \(A\) and \(a\) signify the forms with constant differentiating characters, and \(Aa\) the hybrid form of both. It includes in three different classes four individuals. In the formation of these, pollen and egg cells of the form \(A\) and \(a\) take part on the average equally in the fertilisation; hence each form [occurs] twice, since four individuals are formed. There participate consequently in the fertilisation

\[
\text{The pollen cells } A + A + a + a \\
\text{The egg cells } A + A + a + a.
\]

It remains, therefore, purely a matter of chance which of the two sorts of pollen will become united with each separate egg cell. According, however, to the law of probability, it will always happen, on the average of many cases, that each pollen form, \(A\) and \(a\), will unite equally often with each egg cell form, \(A\) and \(a\), consequently one of the two pollen cells \(A\) in the fertilisation will meet with the egg cell \(A\) and the other with an egg cell \(a\), and so likewise one pollen cell \(a\) will unite with an egg cell \(A\), and the other with egg cell \(a\).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pollen cells</th>
<th>(A)</th>
<th>(A)</th>
<th>(a)</th>
<th>(a)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Egg cells</td>
<td>(A)</td>
<td>(A)</td>
<td>(a)</td>
<td>(a)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The result of the fertilisation may be made clear by putting the signs of the conjoined egg and pollen cells in the form of fractions, those for the pollen cells above and those for the egg cells below the line. We then have

\[
\frac{A}{A} + \frac{A}{a} + \frac{a}{A} + \frac{a}{a}.
\]

In the first and fourth term the egg and pollen cells are of like kind, consequently the product of their union must be constant, viz. \(A\) and \(a\); in the second and third, on the other hand, there again results a union of the two differentiating characters of the stocks, consequently the forms resulting from these fertilisations are identical with those of the hybrid from which they sprang. There occurs accordingly a repeated hybridisation. This explains the striking fact that the hybrids are able to produce, besides the two parental forms, offspring which are like themselves; \(\frac{A}{a}\) and \(\frac{a}{A}\)- both give the same union \(Aa\), since, as already remarked above, it makes no difference in the result of fertilisation to which of the two characters the pollen or egg cells belong. We may write then
The average figure four times in the fertilisation, since sixteen individuals are included in the series. Therefore the participants in the fertilisation are

\[ \begin{align*}
\text{Pollen cells} & \quad AB + AB + AB + AB \\
& + Ab + Ab + Ab + Ab \\
& + aB + aB + aB + aB \\
& + ab + ab + ab + ab. \\
\text{Egg cells} & \quad AB + AB + AB + AB \\
& + Ab + Ab + Ab + Ab \\
& + aB + aB + aB + aB \\
& + ab + ab + ab + ab. \\
\end{align*} \]

In the process of fertilisation each pollen form unites on an average equally often with each egg cell form, so that each of the four pollen cells \( AB \) unites once with one of the forms of egg cell \( AB, Ab, aB, ab \). In precisely the same way the rest of the pollen cells of the forms \( Ab, aB, ab \) unite with all the other egg cells. We obtain therefore

\[ \begin{align*}
\frac{AB}{AB} & + \frac{AB}{Ab} + \frac{AB}{aB} + \frac{AB}{ab} + \frac{Ab}{AB} \\
& + \frac{Ab}{Ab} + \frac{Ab}{aB} + \frac{Ab}{ab} + \frac{Ab}{AB} \\
& + \frac{aB}{Ab} + \frac{aB}{aB} + \frac{aB}{ab} + \frac{aB}{AB} \\
& + \frac{ab}{Ab} + \frac{ab}{aB} + \frac{ab}{ab}. \\
\end{align*} \]

or

\[ \begin{align*}
AB + ABb + AaB + AaB + ABb + ABB \\
+ Ab + AaB + Aab + AaB \\
+ Aab + ab + aBb + AaBb \\
+ Aab + ab + aBb + aBb \\
+ ab + ab + 2Abb + 2aBb \\
+ 2Aab + 2Aab + 4Aabbb. \end{align*} \]

In precisely similar fashion is the developmental series of hybrids exhibited when three kinds of differentiating

\[ \text{MENDEL} \]

\[ A + A + \frac{a}{A} + \frac{a}{a} = A + 2Aa + a. \]

This represents the average result of the self-fertilisation of the hybrids when two differentiating characters are united in them. In individual flowers and in individual plants, however, the ratios in which the forms of the series are produced may suffer not inconsiderable fluctuations.\(^{19}\) Apart from the fact that the numbers in which both sorts of egg cells occur in the seed vessels can only be regarded as equal on the average, it remains purely a matter of chance which of the two sorts of pollen may fertilise each separate egg cell. For this reason the separate values must necessarily be subject to fluctuations, and there are even extreme cases possible, as were described earlier in connection with the experiments on the form of the seed and the colour of the albumen. The true ratios of the numbers can only be ascertained by an average deduced from the sum of as many single values as possible; the greater the number, the more are merely chance effects eliminated.

The developmental series for hybrids in which two kinds of differentiating characters are united contains, among sixteen individuals, nine different forms, viz.,

\[ AB + Ab + aB + ab + 2Abb + 2aBb + 2aBb + 2Aab + 4Aabbb. \]

Between the differentiating characters of the original stocks, \( Aa \) and \( Bb \), four constant combinations are possible, and consequently the hybrids produce the corresponding four forms of egg and pollen cells \( AB, Ab, aB, ab \), and each
characters are conjoined in them. The hybrids form eight various kinds of egg and pollen cells—ABC, AbC, AbC, ABC, aBC, AbC, abC, abc—and each pollen form unites itself again on the average once with each form of egg cell.

The law of combination of different characters, which governs the development of the hybrids, finds therefore its foundation and explanation in the principle enunciated, that the hybrids produce egg cells and pollen cells which in equal numbers represent all constant forms which result from the combinations of the characters brought together in fertilisation.

Heredity in Populations and Pure Lines

A Contribution to the Solution of the Outstanding Questions in Selection

W. JOHANNSEN

Translated from Ueber Erblichkeit in Populations und in reinen Linien, published by Gustav Fischer, Jena, 1903.

I have translated here only the final summary and discussion from Johannsen’s long paper on pure lines, which was written in German. This thorough and meticulous investigation of the true significance of selection was a bombshell to evolutionary thought. The efficacy of selection in the production of new species had been one of the mainstays of Darwin’s theory of evolution. Johannsen’s studies demonstrated conclusively that selection could not extend the limits of previously established variability. This fact became important in arguments against Darwinism, and led to a period when selection was discredited as evolutionarily significant. The mutation theory became the new basis for explanation of evolutionary phenomena.

As has often happened in biology, the final solution of the problem involved a reconciliation of the two viewpoints. Mutation (as a source of variants) and selection (as a method of elimination of some but not all variants) provide the modern basis for explanation of the process of evolution. We owe to Johannsen our modern viewpoint of selection as a primarily passive process, which eliminates but does not produce variations.

Although Johannsen uses the German word “Typus” throughout his paper with reference to his pure lines, I have substituted his own term, “genotype,” invented at a later date. To Johannsen goes the credit as well for inventing the word “gene.” It should be noted that he wrestles with the various names that had been proposed for the hereditary particles in this paper, on p. 26, but does not at this time suggest the term gene.