THE LINEAR ARRANGEMENT OF SIX SEX-LINKED FACTORS IN DROSOPHILA, AS SHOWN BY THEIR MODE OF ASSOCIATION

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HISTORICAL

The parallel between the behavior of the chromosomes in reduction and that of Mendelian factors in segregation was first pointed out by Sutton ('02) though earlier in the same year Boveri ('02) had referred to a possible connection (loc. cit., footnote 1, p. 81). In this paper and others Boveri brought forward considerable evidence from the field of experimental embryology indicating that the chromosomes play an important rôle in development and inheritance. The first attempt at connecting any given somatic character with a definite chromosome came with McClung's ('02) suggestion that the accessory chromosome is a sex-determiner. Stevens ('05) and Wilson ('05) verified this by showing that in numerous forms there is a sex chromosome, present in all the eggs and in the female-producing sperm, but absent, or represented by a smaller homologue, in the maleproducing sperm. A further step was made when Morgan ('10) showed that the factor for color in the eyes of the fly Drosophila ampelophila follows the distribution of the sex-chromosome already found in the same species by Stevens ('08). Later, on the appearance of a sex-linked wing mutation in Drosophila, Morgan ('10 a, '11) was able to make clear a new point. By crossing white eved, long winged flies to those with red eyes and rudimentary wings (the new sex-linked character) he obtained, in F₂, white eved rudimentary winged flies. This could happen

only if 'crossing over' is possible; which means, on the assumption that both of these factors are in the sex-chromosomes, that an interchange of materials between homologous chromosomes occurs (in the female only, since the male has only one sex-chromosome). A point not noticed at this time came out later in connection with other sex-linked factors in Drosophila (Morgan '11 d). It became evident that some of the sex-linked factors are associated. i.e., that crossing over does not occur freely between some factors, as shown by the fact that the combinations present in the F₁ flies are much more frequent in F₂ than are new combinations of the same characters. This means, on the chromosome view, that the chromosomes, or at least certain segments of them, are more likely to remain intact during reduction than they are to interchange materials. On the basis of these facts Morgan ('11 c, '11 d) has made a suggestion as to the physical basis of coupling. He uses Janssens' ('09) chiasmatype hypothesis as a mechanism. As he expresses it (Morgan '11 c):

If the materials that represent these factors are contained in the chromosomes, and if those that "couple" be near together in a linear series, then when the parental pairs (in the heterozygote) conjugate like regions will stand opposed. There is good evidence to support the view that during the strepsinema stage homologous chromosomes twist around each other, but when the chromosomes separate (split) the split is in a single plane, as maintained by Janssens. In consequence, the original materials will, for short distances, be more likely to fall on the same side of the split, while remoter regions will be as likely to fall on the same side as the last, as on the opposite side. In consequence, we find coupling in certain characters, and little or no evidence at all of coupling in other characters, the difference depending on the linear distance apart of the chromosomal materials that represent the factors. Such an explanation will account for all the many phenomena that I have observed and will explain equally, I think, the other cases so far described. The results are a simple mechanical result of the location of the materials in the chromosomes, and of the method of union of homologous chromosomes, and the proportions that result are not so much the expression of a numerical system as of the relative location of the factors in the chromosomes.

¹ It is interesting to read, in this connection, Lock's ('06, p. 248-253) discussion of the matter.

SCOPE OF THIS INVESTIGATION

It would seem, if this hypothesis be correct, that the proportion of 'cross-overs' could be used as an index of the distance between any two factors. Then by determining the distances (in the above sense) between A and B and between B and C, one should be able to predict AC. For, if proportion of cross-overs really represents distance, AC must be approximately, either AB plus BC, or AB minus BC, and not any intermediate value. From purely mathematical considerations, however, the sum and the difference of the proportion of cross-overs between A and B and those between B and C are only limiting values for the proportion of cross-overs between A and C. By using several pairs of factors one should be able to apply this test in several cases. Furthermore, experiments involving three or more sex-linked allelomorphic pairs together should furnish another and perhaps more crucial test of the view. The present paper is a preliminary report of the investigation of these matters.

I wish to thank Dr. Morgan for his kindness in furnishing me with material for this investigation, and for his encouragement and the suggestions he has offered during the progress of the work. I have also been greatly helped by numerous discussions of the theoretical side of the matter with Messrs. H. J. Muller, E. Altenburg, C. B. Bridges, and others. Mr. Muller's suggestions have been especially helpful during the actual preparation of the paper.

THE SIX FACTORS CONCERNED

In this paper I shall treat of six sex-linked factors and their inter-relationships. These factors I shall discuss in the order in which they seem to be arranged.

B stands for the black factor. Flies recessive with respect to it (b) have yellow body color. The factor was first described and its inheritance given by Morgan ('11 a).

C is a factor which allows color to appear in the eyes. The white eyed fly (first described by Morgan '10) is now known to be always recessive with respect both to C and to the next factor.

- O. Flies recessive with respect to O(o) have eosin eyes. The relation between C and O has been explained by Morgan in a paper now in print and about to appear in the Proceedings of the Academy of Natural Sciences in Philadelphia.
- P. Flies with p have vermilion eyes instead of the ordinary red (Morgan '11 d).
- R. This and the next factor both affect the wings. The normal wing is RM. The rM wing is known as miniature, the Rm as rudimentary, and the rm as rudimentary-miniature. This factor R is the one designated L by Morgan ('11 d) and Morgan and Cattell ('12). The L of Morgan's earlier paper ('11) was the next factor.
- M. This has been discussed above, under R. The miniature and rudimentary wings are described by Morgan ('11 a).

The relative position of these factors is B, $\frac{C}{C}$, P, R, M. C and

O are placed at the same point because they are completely linked. Thousands of flies had been raised from the cross CO (red) by co (white) before it was known that there were two factors concerned. The discovery was finally made because of a mutation and not through any crossing over. It is obvious, then, that unless coupling strength be variable, the same gametic ratio must be obtained whether, in connection with other allelomorphic pairs, one uses CO (red) as against co (white), Co (eosin) against co (white), or CO (red) against Co (eosin) (the cO combination is not known).

METHOD OF CALCULATING STRENGTH OF ASSOCIATION

In order to illustrate the method used for calculating the gametic ratio I shall use the factors P and M. The cross used in this case was, long winged, vermilion-eyed female by rudimentary winged, red-eyed male. The analysis and results are seen in table 1.

It is of course obvious from the figures that there is something peculiar about the rudimentary winged flies, since they appear in far too small numbers. This point need not detain us here, as it always comes up in connection with rudimentary crosses,

TABLE 1

TABLE					
	Long vermilion ♀—MpX MpX Rudimentary red ♂—mPX				
F ₁	MpX mPX—long red ♀ MpX —long vermilion ♂				
Gametes F ₁	Eggs —MPX mPX MpX mpX Sperm—MpX				
F ₂	MPX MpX \ mPX MpX \ \ mPX MpX \ \ mpX MpX \ mpX MpX \ mpX MpX \ mpX MpX \ \ mpX MpX \ \ mpX MpX \ \ \ mlong red \ \sigma -105 \ mPX \ \ \ -long vermilion \ \sigma -33 \ MpX \ \ -long vermilion \ \sigma -316 \ mpX \ \ -rudimentary vermilion \ \sigma -4				

and is being investigated by Morgan. The point of interest at present is the linkage. In the F₂ generation the original combinations, red rudimentary and vermilion long, are much more frequent in the males (allowing for the low viability of rudimentary) than are the two new or cross-over combinations, red long and vermilion rudimentary. It is obvious from the analysis that no evidence of association can be found in the females, since the M present in all female-producing sperm masks m when it occurs. But the ratio of cross-overs in the gametes is given without complication by the F2 males, since the maleproducing sperm of the F₁ male bore no sex-linked genes. are in this case 349 males in the non-cross-over classes and 109 in the cross-overs. The method which has seemed most satisfactory for expressing the relative position of factors, on the theory proposed in the beginning of this paper, is as follows. of 'distance' is taken as a portion of the chromosome of such length that, on the average, one cross-over will occur in it out of every 100 gametes formed. That is, percent of cross-overs is used as an index of distance. In the case of P and M there occurred 109 cross-overs in 405 gametes, a ratio of 26.9 in 100; 26.9, the per cent of cross-overs, is considered as the 'distance' between P and M.

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TABLE 2

TA	BLE 2	
FACTORS CONCERNED	PROPORTION OF CROSS-OVERS	PER CENT OF CROSS-OVERS
всо	$\frac{193}{16287}$	1.2
во	373	0.5
вр	$\frac{1464}{4551}$	32.2
BR	$\frac{115}{324}$	35.5
ВМ	<u>260</u> 693	37.6
СОР	$\frac{224}{748}$	30.0
COR	$\frac{1643}{4749}$	34.6
СОМ	<u>76</u> 161	47.2
ор	247 836	29.4
OR		34.0
ом	<u>218</u> 404	54.0
CR	236 829	28.5
CM	$\frac{112}{333}$	33.6
B(C, O)	$\frac{214}{21736}$	1.0
(C, O)P	471 1584	29.7
(C, O)R	2062 6116	33.7
(C, O)M	406 898	45.2
PR	17 573	3.0
PM	109 405	26.9

THE LINEAR ARRANGEMENT OF THE FACTORS

Table 2 shows the proportion of cross-overs in those cases which have been worked out. The detailed results of the crosses involved are given at the end of this paper. The 16287 cases for B and CO are from Dexter ('12). Inasmuch as C and O are completely linked I have added the numbers for C, for O, and for C and O taken together, giving the total results in the lines beginning (C, O) P, B (C, O), etc., and have used these figures, instead of the individual C, O, or CO results, in my calculations. The fractions in the column marked 'proportion of cross-overs' represent the number of cross-overs (numerator) to total available gametes (denominator).

As will be explained later, one is more likely to obtain accurate figures for distances if those distances are short, i.e., if the asso-

O B C	PR	М
00 10	30,7 33.7	57.6

Diagram 1

ciation is strong. For this reason I shall, in so far as possible, use the percent of cross-overs between adjacent points in mapping out the distances between the various factors. Thus, B (C, O), (C, O) P, PR, and PM form the basis of diagram 1. The figures on the diagram represent calculated distances from B.

Of course there is no knowing whether or not these distances as drawn represent the actual relative spacial distances apart of the factors. Thus the distance CP may in reality be shorter than the distance BC, but what we do know is that a break is far more likely to come between C and P than between B and C. Hence, either CP is a long space, or else it is for some reason a weak one. The point I wish to make here is that we have no means of knowing that the chromosomes are of uniform strength, and if there are strong or weak places, then that will prevent our diagram from representing actual relative distances—but, I think, will not detract from its value as a diagram.

Just how far our theory stands the test is shown by table 3, giving observed per cent of cross-overs, and distances as calcu-

lated from the figures given in the diagram of the chromosome. Table 3 includes all pairs of factors given in table 2 but not used in the preparation of the diagram.

It will be noticed at once that the long distances, BM, and (C, O)M, give smaller percent of cross-overs than the calculation calls for. This is a point which was to be expected, and will be discussed later. For the present we may dismiss it with the statement that it is probably due to the occurrence of two breaks in the same chromosome, or 'double crossing over.' But in the case of the shorter distances the correspondence with expectation is perhaps as close as was to be expected with the small numbers that are available. Thus, BP is 3.2 less than BR, the difference

TABLE 3

FACTORS.	CALCULATED DISTANCE	OBSERVED PER CENT OF CROSS-OVERS
BP	30.7	32.2
BR	33.7	35.5
BM	57.6	37.6
(C, O)R	32.7	33.7
(C, O)M		45.2

expected being 3.0. (C, O)R is less than BR by 1.8 instead of by 1.0. It has actually been found possible to predict the strength of association between two factors by this method, fair approximations having been given for BR and for certain combinations involving factors not treated in this paper, before the crosses were made.

DOUBLE CROSSING OVER

On the chiasmatype hypothesis it will sometimes happen, as shown by Dexter ('12) and intimated by Morgan ('11 d) that a section of, say, maternal chromosome will come to have paternal elements at both ends, and perhaps more maternal segments beyond these. Now if this can happen it introduces a complication into the results. Thus, if a break occurs between B and P, and another between P and M, then, unless we can follow P also, there will be no evidence of crossing over between B and

M, and the fly hatched from the resulting gamete will be placed in the non-cross-over class, though in reality he represents two cross-overs. In order to see if double crossing over really does occur it is necessary to use three or more sex-linked allelomorphic pairs in the same experiment. Such cases have been reported by Morgan ('11 d) and Morgan and Cattell ('12) for the factors B, CO, and R. They made such crosses as long gray red by miniature yellow white, and long yellow red by miniature gray white, etc. The details and analyses are given in the original papers, and for our present purpose it is only the flies that are available for observations on double crossing over that are of interest. Table 4 gives a graphical representation of what happened in the 10495 cases.

Double crossing over does then occur, but it is to be noted that the occurrence of the break between B and CO tends to prevent that between CO and R (or vice versa). Thus where B and CO did not separate, the gametic ratio for CO and R was about 1 to 2, but in the cases where B and CO did separate it was about 1 to 6.5.

Three similar cases from my own results, though done on a smaller scale, are given in the table at the end of this paper. The results are represented in tables 5, 6 and 7.

TABLE 4

NO CROSSING OVER	SINGLE CRO	DOUBLE CROSSING OVER	
B CO R 6972	B CO R 3454	CO R 60	B CO R 9

TABLE 5

NO CROSSING	SINGLE CRO	DOUBLE CROSSING OVER	
O	O	O	O
P	P	P	P
R	R	R	R
194	102	11	1

TABLE 6

NO CROSSING		SINGLE CROSSING OVER			DOUBLE CROSSING OVER		
B O M 278		E C N 16	1	B O M 1		B O M 0	
	TABLE 7						
B O P R 393	B O P R 203	B O P R 19	B O P R 6	B O P R 2	B O P R 1	B O P R 1	B O P R 0

It will be noted that here also the evidence, so far as it goes, indicated that the occurrence of one cross-over makes another one less likely to occur in the same gamete. In the case of BOPR there was an opportunity for triple crossing over, but it did not occur. Of course, on the view here presented there is no reason why it should not occur, if enough flies were raised. An examination of the figures will show that it was not to be expected in such small numbers as are here given. So far as I know there is, at present, no evidence that triple crossing over takes place, but it seems highly probable that it will be shown to occur.²

Unfortunately, in none of the four cases given above are two comparatively long distances involved, and in only one are there enough figures to form a fair basis for calculation, so that it seems as yet hardly possible to determine how much effect double crossing over has in pulling down the observed percent of cross-overs in the case of BM and (C, O)M. Whether or not this effect is partly counter-balanced by triple crossing over must also remain unsettled as yet. Work now under way should furnish answers to both these questions.

² A case of triple crossing over within the distance CR was observed after this paper went to press.

TABLE 8

(The meaning of the phrase 'proportion of cross-overs' is given on p. 45)

BO. P₁: gray eosin ♀ × yellow red ♂
F₁: gray red ♀ × gray eosin ♂
F₂: ♀♀, g.r. 241, g.e. 196
♂♂, g.r. 0, g.e. 176, y.r. 195, y.e. 2

Proportion of cross-overs, $\frac{2}{373}$

BP. P_1 : gray red \mathcal{P} × yellow vermilion \mathcal{P} F_1 : gray red \mathcal{P} × gray red \mathcal{P}

F₂: QQ, g.r. 98;

♂, g.r. 59, g.v. 16, y.r. 24, y.v. 33

Back cross, F₁ gray red ♀ ♀ from above × yellow vermilion ♂♂

F₂: ♀♀, g.r. 31, g.v. 11, y.r. 12, y.v. 41 ♂♂, g.r. 23, g.v. 13, y.r. 8, y.v. 21 P₁: gray vermilion ♀ × yellow red ♂

 F_1 : gray verminon $\mathcal{Q} \times \mathcal{Q}$ yellow red \mathcal{Q}

F₂: Q Q, g.r. 199, g.v. 182 Q, g.r. 54, g.v. 149, y.r. 119, y.v. 41

P₁: yellow vermilion $\mathfrak{P} \times \operatorname{gray} \operatorname{red} \mathfrak{T}$ F₁: gray red $\mathfrak{P} \times \operatorname{yellow} \operatorname{vermilion} \mathfrak{T}$

F₂: Q Q, g.r. 472, g.v. 240, y.r. 213, y.v. 414 $\sigma \sigma$, g.r. 385, g.v. 186, y.r. 189, y.v. 324

F₁: gray vermilion × yellow red (sexes not recorded)

 F_1 : gray red Q Q. These were mated to yellow vermilion \mathcal{O} \mathcal{O} of other stock

F₂: Q Q, g.r. 50, g.v. 96, y.r. 68, y.v. 41 Q Q, g.r. 44, g.v. 105, y.r. 86, y.v. 47

Proportion of cross-overs, adding Q Q from BOPR (below), $\frac{1464}{4551}$

BR. P₁ miniature yellow ♀ × long gray ♂ F₁: long gray ♀ × miniature yellow ♂

F₂: ♀♀ l.g. 14, l.y. 2, m.g. 7, m.y. 6; ♂♂ l.g. 10, l.y. 1, m.g. 6, m.y. 8.

P₁: long yellow ♀ × miniature gray ♂

 F_1 : long gray $\varphi \times \log \text{ yellow } \sigma$

F₂: ♀♀, l.g. 148, l.y. 130

♂♂, l.g. 51, l.y. 82, m.g. 89, m.y. 48

Proportion of cross-overs, $\frac{115}{324}$

TABLE 8 (continued)

BM. P₁: long yellow ♀ × rudimentary gray ♂

 F_1 : long gray $Q \times long yellow <math>\mathcal{I}$

 $F_1: QQ, l.g. 591, l.y. 549$

♂♂, l.g. 228, l.y. 371, r.g. 20, r.y. 3

 P_1 : long gray $Q \times rudimentary yellow <math>\sigma$

 F_1 : long gray $Q \times long gray <math>O$

F₂: ♀♀, l.g. 152

♂, l.g. 42, l.y. 29, r.g. 0, r.y. 0

Proportion of cross-overs, $\frac{260}{693}$

COP. P_1 : vermilion $Q \times$ white σ

 F_1 : red $\circ \times$ vermilion \circ

F₂: QQ, r. 320, v. 294

♂♂, r. 86, v. 206, w. 211

(7 of the vermilion 9 9 known from tests to be CC, 2 known to be Cc. 7 white ♂♂ Pp, 2 pp.)

Back cross, F_1 red QQ from above X white Q^1Q^3 , gave

F₂: ♀♀, r.195, w. 227,

♂♂, r. 66, v. 164, w. 184

Out cross, F₁ Q Q as above X white or or recessive in P, gave

F₂: QQ, r. 35, v. 65, w. 98

♂♂, r. 33, v. 75, w. 95

Proportion of cross-overs, $\frac{224}{748}$

COR. P₁: miniature white $\mathcal{P} \times \text{long red } \sigma$

' F_1 : long red $\mathcal{P} \times \text{miniature white } \mathcal{O}$

F₂: ♀♀, l.r. 193, l.w. 109, m.r. 124, m.w. 208

♂♂, l.r. 202, l.w. 114, m.r. 123, m.w. 174

 P_1 : long white $\mathcal{P} \times \text{miniature red } \mathcal{O}$ F_1 : long red $\mathcal{P} \times \text{long white } \mathcal{O}$

F₂: Q Q l.r. 194, l. w. 160

♂ d l.r. 52, l. w. 124, m.r. 97, m.w. 41

Proportion of cross-overs, $\frac{563}{1561}$; or, adding such available figures from

Morgan ('11 d) and Morgan and Cattell ('12) as are not complicated

by the presence of yellow or brown flies, $\frac{1643}{4749}$

COM. P₁: long white $\mathcal{P} \times \text{rudimentary red } \mathcal{O}$

 F_1 : long red $\mathcal{P} \times \text{long white } \mathcal{O}$

F₂: ♀♀, l.r. 157, l.w. 127

o'o', l.r. 74, l.w. 82, ru.r. 3, ru.w. 2

Proportion of cross-overs, $\frac{76}{161}$

TABLE 8 (continued)

OP. P₁: black red ♀ × black eosin-vermilion ♂
F₁: black red ♀ × black red ♂

F₂: (all black), ♀♀, r. 885

♂, r. 321, v. 125, e. 122, e.-v. 268

Proportion of cross-overs, $\frac{247}{836}$

OR. P₁: long red \mathcal{Q} × miniature eosin \mathcal{O}

 F_1 : long red $\mathcal{P} \times long red <math>\mathcal{O}$

F₂: ♀♀, l.r. 408

♂, l.r. 145, l.e. 67, m.r. 70, m.e. 100

P1: long eosin Q x miniature red o

 F_1 : long red $\mathcal{P} \times \text{long eosin } \mathcal{O}$

F₂: 99, l.r. 100, l.e. 95

♂♂, l.r. 27, l.e. 54, m.r. 56, m.e. 19

Proportion of cross-overs, $\frac{183}{538}$

OM. P1: long eosin ♀ × rudimentary red ♂

 F_1 : long red $Q \times long eosin <math>\sigma$

F₂: QQ, l.r. 368, l.e. 266

♂♂, l.r. 194, l.e. 146, ru.r. 40, ru.e. 24

Proportion of cross-overs, $\frac{218}{404}$

CR. P₁: long white ♀ × miniature eosin ♂

 F_1 : long eosin $Q \times long$ white σ^2

 F_2 : QQ, l.e. 185, l.w. 205

♂, l.e. 54, l.w. 147, m.e. 149, m.w. 42

P₁: long eosin $Q \times miniature$ white σ

F₁: long eosin ♀ × long eosin ♂

F₂: ♀♀, l.e. 527

♂♂, l.e. 169, l.w. 85, m.e. 55, m.w. 128

Proportion of cross-overs, $\frac{236}{829}$

CM. P₁: long white ♀ × rudimentary eosin ♂

 F_1 : long eosin $Q \times long$ white σ

 F_2 : Q Q, l.e. 328, l.w. 371

♂♂, l.e. 112, l.w. 217, ru.e. 4, ru.w. 0

Proportion of cross-overs, $\frac{112}{333}$

TABLE 8 (continued)

PR. P_1 : long vermilion (yellow) $\circ \times$ miniature red (yellow) \circ

 F_1 : long red yellow $\mathcal{Q} \times \text{long vermilion yellow } \mathcal{O}$

F₂: (all y.) ♀ ♀, l.r. 138, l.v. 110

♂♂, l.r. 8, l.v. 117, m.r. 97, m.v. 1

P₁: long vermilion (gray) ♀ × miniature red ♂

 F_1 : long red $\mathfrak{P} \times \text{long vermilion } \mathfrak{T}$

 F_2 : Q Q, l.r. 116, l.v. 110

♂, l.r. 2, l.v. 81, m.r. 96, m.v. 1

 P_1 : miniature red $Q \times long$ vermilion σ^2

F₁: long red \mathcal{P} × miniature red \mathcal{O}

F₁: 99, l.r. 45, m.r. 49

♂, l.r. 1, l.v. 27, m.r. 26, m.v. 0

F₁ long red ♀♀ from above × miniature red ♂♂ of other stock, gave

F₂: ♀♀, l.r. 74, m.r. 52

♂, l.r. 3, l.v. 66, m.r. 46, m.v. 1

Proportion of cross-overs, $\frac{17}{573}$

PM. P₁: long vermilion ♀ × rudimentary red ♂

 $\mathbf{F_1}$: long red $\mathbf{P} \times \mathbf{long}$ vermilion \mathbf{P}

 F_2 : Q Q, l.r. 451, l.v. 417

♂ ♂, l.r. 105, l.v. 316, ru.r. 33, ru.v. 4

Proportion of cross-overs, $\frac{109}{405}$

OPR. P₁: long vermilion $Q \times \text{miniature eosin } \sigma'$

 F_1 : long red \circ \times long vermilion \circ

F₂: QQ, l.r. 205, l.v. 182

♂♂, l.r. 1, l.v. 109, l.e. 8, l.e.-v. 53, m.r. 49, m.v. 3, m.e. 85, m.e.-v. 0

BOM. P₁: long red yellow $\mathcal{P} \times \text{rudimentary eosin gray } \mathcal{P}$

 F_1 : long red gray $\mathcal{P} \times \text{long red yellow } \mathcal{O}$

F₂: ♀♀, l.r.g. 530, l.r.y. 453

ਾਨਾ, l.r.g. 1, lr.y. 274, l.e.g. 156, l.e.y. 0, ru.r.g. 0, ru.r.y. 4, ru.e.g. 4, ru.e. y. 0

BOPR. P1: long vermilion brown Q × miniature eosin black o

 F_1 : long red black $\mathcal{P} \times \text{long vermilion brown } \mathcal{O}$

F₂: ♀♀, l.r.bl. 305, l.r.br. 113, l.v.bl. 162, lv.br. 256

്റ്, l.r.bl. 0, l.r.br. 2, l.v.bl. 3, l.v.br. 185, l.e.bl. 9, l.e.br. 0, l.e.-v.bl. 127, l.e.-v.br. 0, m.r.bl. 1, m.r.br. 76, m.v.bl. 1, m.v.br. 10, m.e.bl. 208, m.e.br. 3, m.e.-v.bl. 0, m.e.-v.br. 0

POSSIBLE OBJECTIONS TO THESE RESULTS

It will be noted that there appears to be some variation in coupling strength. Thus, I found (CO)R to be 36.7; Morgan and Cattell obtained the result 33.9; for OR I got 34.0, and for CR, 28.5. The standard error for the difference between (CO)R (all figures) and CR is 1.84 per cent, which means that a difference of 5.5 per cent is probably significant (Yule '11, p. 264). The observed difference is 6.1 per cent, showing that there is some complication Similarly, BM gave 37.6, while OM gave 54.0—and BOM gave 36.7 for BM, and 36.5 for OM. There is obviously some complication in these cases, but I am inclined to think that the disturbing factor discussed below (viability) will explain However, experiments are now under way to test the effect this. of certain external conditions on coupling strength. seen that on the whole when large numbers are obtained in different experiments and are averaged, a fairly consistent scheme Final judgment on this matter must, however, be withheld until the subject can be followed up by further experiments.

Another point which should be considered in this connection is the effect of differences in viability. In the case of P and M. used above as an illustration, the rudimentary winged flies are much less likely to develop than are the longs. Now if the viability of red and vermilion is different, then the longs do not give a fair measure of the linkage, and the rudimentaries, being present in such small numbers, do not even up the matter. It is probable that there is no serious error due to this cause except in the case of rudimentary crosses, since the two sides will tend to even up, unless one is very much less viable than the other, and this is true only in the case of rudimentary. It is worth noting that the only serious disagreements between observation and calculation occur in the case of rudimentary crosses (BM, and (CO)M). Certain data of Morgan's now in print, and further work already planned, will probably throw considerable light on the question of the position and behavior of this factor M.

SUMMARY

It has been found possible to arrange six sex-liked factors in Drosophila in a linear series, using the number of cross-overs per 100 cases as an index of the distance between any two factors. This scheme gives consistent results, in the main.

A source of error in predicting the strength of association between untried factors is found in double crossing over. The occurrence of this phenomenon is demonstrated, and it is shown not to occur as often as would be expected from a purely mathematical point of view, but the conditions governing its frequency are as yet not worked out.

These results are explained on the basis of Morgan's application of Janssens' chiasmatype hypothesis to associative inheritance. They form a new argument in favor of the chromosome view of inheritance, since they strongly indicate that the factors investigated are arranged in a linear series, at least mathematically.

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