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A NEW FACTOR IN EVOLUTION.

By J. MARK BALDWIN.

In several recent publications I have developed, from different points of view, some considerations which tend to bring out a certain influence at work in organic evolution which I venture to call "a new factor." I give below a list of references to these publications and shall refer to them by number as this paper proceeds. The object of the present paper is to

¹ References:

- (1). Imitation: a Chapter in the Natural History of Consciousness, Mind (London), Jan., 1894. Citations from earlier papers will be found in this article and in the next reference.
- (2). Mental Development in the Child and the Race (1st. ed., April, 1895; 2nd. ed., Oct., 1895; Macmillan & Co. The present paper expands an additional chapter (Chap. XVII) added in the German and French editions and to be incorporated in the third English edition.
- (3). Consciousness and Evolution, Science, N. Y., August, 23, 1895; reprinted printed in the American Naturalist, April, 1896.
- (4). Heredity and Instinct (I), Science, March 20, 1896. Discussion before N. Y. Acad. of Sci., Jan. 31, 1896.
 - (5). Heredity and Instinct (II), Science, April 10, 1896.
 - (6). Physical and Social Heredity, Amer. Naturalist, May, 1896.
- (7). Consciousness and Evolution, Psychol. Review, May, 1896. Discussion before Amer. Psychol. Association, Dec. 28, 1895.

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gather into one sketch an outline of the view of the process of development which these different publications have hinged upon.

The problems involved in a theory of organic development may be gathered up under three great heads: Ontogeny, Phylogeny, Heredity. The general consideration, the "factor" which I propose to bring out, is operative in the first instance, in the field of *Ontogeny*; I shall consequently speak first of the problem of Ontogeny, then of that of Phylogeny, in so far as the topic dealt with makes it necessary, then of that of Heredity, under the same limitation, and finally, give some definitions and conclusions.

I.

Ontogeny: "Organic Selection" (see ref. 2, chap. vii).—The series of facts which investigation in this field has to deal with are those of the individual creature's development; and two sorts of facts may be distinguished from the point of view of the functions which an organism performs in the course of his life There is, in the first place, the development of his heredity impulse, the unfolding of his heredity in the forms and functions which characterize his kind, together with the congenital variations which characterize the particular indiual—the phylogenetic variations, which are constitutional to him; and there is, in the second place, the series of functions, acts, etc., which he learns to do himself in the course of his life. All of these latter, the special modifications which an organism undergoes during its ontogeny, thrown together, have been called "acquired characters," and we may use that expression or adopt one recently suggested by Osborn,2 "ontogenic variations" (except that I should prefer the form "ontogenetic variations"), if the word variations seems appropriate at all.

² Reported in Science, April 3rd.; also used by him before N. Y. Acad. of Sci., April 13th. There is some confusion between the two terminations "genic" and "genetic." I think the proper distinction is that which reserves the former, "genic," for application in cases in which the word to which it is affixed qualifies a term used actively, while the other, "genetic" conveys similarly a passive signification; thus agencies, causes, influences, etc., and "ontogenic phylogenic, etc.," while effects, consequences, etc, and "ontogenetic, phylogenetic, etc."

Assuming that there are such new or modified functions, in the first instance, and such "acquired characters," arising by the law of "use and disuse" from these new functions, our farther question is about them. And the question is this: How does an organism come to be modified during its life history?

In answer to this question we find that there are three different sorts of ontogenic agencies which should be distinguished-each of which works to produce ontogenetic modifications, adaptations, or variations. These are: first, the physical agencies and influences in the environment which work upon the organism to produce modifications of its form and They include all chemical agents, strains, confunctions. tacts, hindrances to growth, temperature changes, etc. As far as these forces work changes in the organism, the changes may be considered largely "fortuitous" or accidental. Considering the forces which produce them I propose to call them "physico-genetic." Spencer's theory of ontogenetic development rests largely upon the occurrence of lucky movements brought out by such accidental influences. Second, there is a class of modifications which arise from the spontaneous activities of the organism itself in the carrying out of its normal congenital functions. These variations and adaptations are seen in a remarkable way in plants, in unicellular creatures, in very young children. There seems to be a readiness and capacity on the part of the organism to "rise to the occasion," as it were, and make gain out of the circumstances of its life. The facts have been put in evidence (for plants) by Henslow. Pfeffer, Sachs; (for micro-organisms) by Binet, Bunge; (in human pathology) by Bernheim, Janet; (in children) by Baldwin (ref. 2, chap. vi.) (See citations in ref. 2, chap. ix, and in Orr, Theory of Development, chap. iv). These changes I propose to call "neuro-genetic," laying emphasis on what is called by Romanes, Morgan and others, the "selective property" of the nervous system, and of life generally. Third, there is the great series of adaptations secured by conscious agency, which we may throw together as "psycho-genetic." The processes involved here are all classed broadly under the term "intelligent," i. e., imitation, gregarious influences, maternal instruction, the lessons of pleasure and pain, and of experience generally, and reasoning from means to ends, etc.

We reach, therefore, the following scheme:

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Ontogenetic Modifications.	Ontogenic Agencies.
1. Physico-genetic	1. Mechanical.
2. Neuro-genetic	2. Nervous.
3. Psycho-genetic	3. Intelligent.
	Imitation.
	Pleasure and pain.
	Reasoning.

Now it is evident that there are two very distinct questions which come up as soon as we admit modifications of function and of structure in ontogenetic development: first, there is the question as to how these modifications can come to be adaptive in the life of the individual creature. Or in other words: What is the method of the individual's growth and adaptation as shown in the well known law of "use and disuse?" Looked at functionally, we see that the organism manages somehow to accommodate itself to conditions which are favorable, to repeat movements which are adaptive, and so to grow by the principle of use. This involves some sort of selection, from the actual ontogenetic variations, of certain ones—certain functions, etc. Certain other possible and actual functions and structures decay from disuse. Whatever the method of doing this may be, we may simply, at this point, claim the law of use and disuse, as applicable in ontogenetic development, and apply the phrase, "Organic Selection," to the organism's behavior in acquiring new modes or modifications of adaptive function with its influence of structure. The question of the method of "Organic Selection" is taken up below (IV); here, I may repeat, we simply assume what every one admits in some form, that such adaptations of function-"accommodations" the psychologist calls them, the processes of learning new movements, etc.—do occur. We then reach another question, second; what place these adaptations have in the general theory of development.

Effects of Organic Selection.—First, we may note the results of this principle in the creature's own private life.

1. By securing adaptations, accommodations, in special circumstances the creature is kept alive (ref. 2, 1st ed., pp. 172 ff.). This is true in all the three spheres of ontogenetic variation distinguished in the table above. The creatures which can stand the "storm and stress" of the physical influences of the environment, and of the changes which occur in the environment, by undergoing modifications of their congenital functions or of the structures which they get congenitally—these creatures will live; while those which cannot, will not. In the sphere of neurogenetic variations we find a superb series of adaptations by lower as well as higher organisms during the course of ontogenetic development (ref. 2, chap. ix). And in the highest sphere, that of intelligence (including the phenomena of consciousness of all kinds, experience of pleasure and pain, imitation, etc.), we find individual accommodations on the tremendous scale which culminates in the skilful performances of human volition, invention, etc. The progress of the child in all the learning processes which lead him on to be a man, just illustrates this higher form of ontogenetic adaptation (ref. 2, chap. x-xiii).

All these instances are associated in the higher organisms, and all of them unite to keep the creature alive.

2. By this means those congenital or phylogenetic variations are kept in existence, which lend themselves to intelligent, imitative, adaptive, and mechanical modification during the lifetime of the creatures which have them. Other congenital variations are not thus kept in existence. So there arises a more or less widespread series of determinate variations in each generation's ontogenesis (ref. 3, 4, 5).3

"It is necessary to consider further how certain reactions of one single organism can be selected so as to adapt the organism better and give it a life history. Let us at the outset call this process "Organic Selection" in contrast with the Natural Selection of whole organisms. . . . If this (natural selection) worked alone, every change in the environment would weed out all life except those organisms, which by accidental variation reacted already in the way demanded by the changed conditions—in every case new organisms showing variations, not, in any case, new elements of life-history in the old organisms. In order to the latter we would have to conceive . . . some modification of the old reactions in an organism through the influence of new conditions. . . . We are, accordingly, left to the view that the new stimulations brought by changes in the environment

The further applications of the principle lead us over into the field of our second question, i. e., phylogeny.

II.

Phylogeny: Physical Heredity.—The question of phylogenetic development considered apart, in so far as may be, from that of heredity, is the question as to what the factors really are which show themselves in evolutionary progress from generation to generation. The most important series of facts recently brought to light are those which show what is called "determinate variation" from one generation to another. This has been insisted on by the paleontologists. Of the two current theories of heredity, only one, Neo-Lamarkism-by means of its principle of the inheritance of acquired characters—has been able to account for this fact of determinate phylogenetic change. Weismann admits the inadequacy of the principle of natural selection, as operative on rival organisms, to explain variations when they are wanted or, as he puts it, "the right variations in the right place" (Monist, Jan., '96).

I have argued, however, in detail that the assumption of determinate variations of function in ontogenesis, under the principle of neurogenetic and psychogenetic adaptation, does away with the need of appealing to the Lamarkian factor. In the case i. g., of instincts, "if we do not assume consciousness, then natural selection is inadequate; but if we do assume consciousness, then the inheritance of acquired characters is unnecessary" (ref. 5).

"The intelligence which is appealed to, to take the place of instinct and to give rise to it, uses just these partial variations which tend in the direction of the instinct; so the intelligence supplements such partial co-ordinations, makes them functional, and so keeps the creature alive. In the phrase of Prof.

themselves modify the reactions of an organism. . . . The facts show that individual organisms do acquire new adaptations in their lifetime, and that is our first problem. If in solving it we find a principle which may also serve as a principle of race-development, then we may possibly use it against the 'all sufficiency of natural selection' or in its support" (ref. 2, 1st. ed., pp. 175-6.)

Lloyd Morgan, this prevents the 'incidence of natural selection.' So the supposition that intelligence is operative turns out to be just the supposition which makes use-inheritance unnecessary. Thus kept alive, the species has all the time necessary to perfect the variations required by a complete in-And when we bear in mind that the variation required is not on the muscular side to any great extent, but in the central brain connections, and is a slight variation for functional purposes at the best, the hypothesis of use-inheritance becomes not only unnecessary, but to my mind quite superfluous" (ref. 4, p. 439). And for adaptations generally, "the most plastic individuals will be preserved to do the advantageous things for which their variations show them to be the most fit, and the next generation will show an emphasis of just this direction in its variations" (ref. 3, p. 221).

We get, therefore, from Organic Selection, certain results in the sphere of phylogeny:

1. This principle secures by survival certain lines of determinate phylogenetic variation in the directions of the determinate ontogenetic adaptations of the earlier generation. The variations which were utilized for ontogenetic adaptation in the earlier generation, being thus kept in existence, are utilized more widely in the subsequent generation (ref. 3, 4). "Congenital variations, on the one hand, are kept alive and made effective by their use for adaptations in the life of the individual; and, on the other hand, adaptations become congenital by further progress and refinement of variation in the same lines of function as those which their acquisition by the individual called into play. But there is no need in either case to assume the Lamarkian factor" (ref. 3). And in cases of conscious adaptation: "We reach a point of view which gives to organic evolution a sort of intelligent direction after all; for of all the variations tending in the direction of an adaptation, but inadequate to its complete performance, only those will be supplemented and kept alive which the intelligence ratifies and uses. The principle of 'selective value' applies to the others or to some of them. So natural selection kills off the others; and the future development at each stage of a species' development must be in the directions thus ratified by intelligence. So also with imitation. Only those imitative actions of a creature which are useful to him will survive in the species, for in so far as he imitates actions which are injurious he will aid natural selection in killing himself off. So intelligence, and the imitation which copies it, will set the direction of the development of the complex instincts even on the Neo-Darwinian theory; and in this sense we may say that consciousness is a 'factor'" (ref. 4).

- 2. The mean of phylogenetic variation being thus made more determinate, further phylogenetic variations follow about this mean. and these variations are again utilized by Organic Selection for ontogenetic adaptation. So there is continual phylogenetic progress in the directions set by ontogenetic adaptation (ref. 3, 4, "The intelligence supplements slight co-adaptations and so gives them selective value; but it does not keep them from getting farther selective value as instincts, reflexes, etc., by farther variation" (ref. 5). "The imitative function, by using muscular co-ordinations, supplements them, secures adaptations, keeps the creature alive, prevents the 'incidence of natural selection,' and so gives the species all the time necessary to get the variations required for the full instinctive performance of the function" (ref. 4). But, "Conscious imitation, while it prevents the incidence of natural selection, as has been seen. and so keeps alive the creatures which have no instincts for the performance of the actions required, nevertheless does not subserve the utilities which the special instincts do, nor prevent them from having the selective value of which Romanes speaks. Accordingly, on the more general definition of intelligence, which includes in it all conscious imitation, use of maternal instruction, and that sort of thing-no less than on the more special definition—we still find the principal of natural selection operative" (ref. 5).
- 3. This completely disposes of the Lamarkian factor as far as two lines of evidence for it are concerned. First, the evidence drawn from function, "use and disuse," is discredited; since by "organic selection," the reappearance, in subsequent generations, of the variations first secured in ontogenesis is ac-

counted for without the inheritance of acquired characters. So also the evidence drawn from paleontology which cites progressive variations resting on functional use and disuse. Second, the evidence drawn from the facts of "determinate variations;" since by this principle we have the preservation of such variations in phylogeny without the inheritance of acquired characters.

4. But this is not Preformism in the old sense: since the adpatations made in ontogenetic development which "set" the direction of evolution are novelties of function in whole or part (although they utilize congenital variations of structure). And it is only by the exercise of these novel functions that the creatures are kept alive to propagate and thus produce further variations of structure which may in time make the whole function, with its adequate structure, congenital. Romanes' argument from "partial co-adaptations" and "selective value," seem to hold in the case of reflex and instinctive functions (ref. 4, 5), as against the old preformist or Weismannist view, although the operation of Organic Selection, as now explained, renders them ineffective when urged in support of Lamark-"We may imagine creatures, whose hands were used for holding only with the thumb and fingers on the same side of the object held, to have first discovered, under stress of circumstances and with variations which permitted the further adaptation, how to make use of the thumb for grasping opposite to the fingers, as we now do. Then let us suppose that this proved of such utility that all the young that did not do it were killed off; the next generation following would be plastic, intelligent, or imitative, enough to do it also. They would use the same co-ordinations and prevent natural selection getting its operation on them; and so instinctive 'thumb-grasping' might be waited for indefinitely by the species and then be got as an instinct altogether apart from use-inheritance" (ref. 4). "I have cited 'thumb-grasping' because we can see in the child the anticipation, by intelligence and imitation, of the use of the thumb for the adaptation which the Simian probably gets entirely by instinct, and which I think an isolated and weak-minded child, say, would also come to do by instinct '" (ref. 4).

5. It seems to me also—though I hardly dare venture into a field belonging so strictly to the technical biologist—that this principle might not only explain many cases of widespread "determinate variations" appearing suddenly, let us say, in fossil deposits, but the fact that variations seem often to be "discontinuous." Suppose, for example, certain animals, varying. in respect to a certain quality, from a to n about a mean The mean x would be the case most likely to be preserved in fossil form (seeing that there are vastly more of them). Now suppose a sweeping change in the environment, in such a way that only the variations lying near the extreme ncan accommodate to it and live to reproduce. generation would then show variations about the mean n. And the chances of fossils from this generation, and the subsequent ones, would be of creatures approximating n. would be a great discontinuity in the chain and also a widespread prevalence of these variations in a set direction. seems especially evident when we consider that the paleontologist does not deal with successive generations, but with widely remote periods, and the smallest lapse of time which he can take cognizance of is long enough to give the new mean of variation, n, a lot of generations in which to multiply and deposit its representative fossils. Of course, this would be only the action of natural selection upon "preformed" variations in those cases which did not involve positive changes, in structure and function, acquired in ontogenesis; but in so far as such ontogenetic adaptations were actually there, the extent of difference of the n mean from the x mean would be greater. and hence the resources of explanation, both of the sudden prevalence of the new type and of its discontinuity from the earlier, would be much increased. This additional resource. then, is due to the "Organic Selection" factor.

We seem to be able also to utilize all the evidence usually cited for the functional origin of specific characters and groupings of characters. So far as the Lamarkians have a strong case here, it remains as strong if Organic Selection be substituted for the "inheritance of acquired characters." This is especially true where intelligent and imitative adaptations are

involved, as in the case of instinct. This "may give the reason, e.g., that instincts are so often coterminous with the limits of species. Similar structures find the similar uses for their intelligence, and they also find the same imitative actions to be to their advantage. So the interaction of these conscious factors with natural selection brings it about that the structural definition which represents species, and the functional definition which represents instinct, largely keep to the same lines" (ref. 5).

6. It seems proper, therefore, to call the influence of Organic Selection "a new factor;" for it gives a method of deriving the determinate gains of phylogeny from the adaptations of ontogeny without holding to either of the two current theories. The ontogenetic adaptations are really new, not performed; and they are really reproduced in succeeding generations, although not physically inherited.

(To be continued.)

THE PATH OF THE WATER CURRENT IN CUCUMBER PLANTS.

By ERWIN F. SMITH.

(Continued from page 378).

2. Upward Movement of One Per Cent. Eosine Water Through Cut Stems Plugged with Gelatine.

In all of these experiments a somewhat stiff gelatine was used (15 per cent.) to secure a relatively high melting point (about 27° C.) and this was tinged with India ink, so that the location of the gelatine plugs inside of the vessels could be determined accurately on cross section. Both substances being as far as has been determined inert to the plant, it is not likely that they could have in any way injured the carrying capacity of the walls of the vessels.²

²Recently Dixon and Joly (Annals of Botany, Sept., 1895, p. 403) have raised some objections to this view, but it cannot be said that they have fully established their case.