The Genetic Analysis of *snf*: A Drosophila Sex Determination Gene Required for Activation of *Sex-lethal* in Both the Germline and the Soma

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ABSTRACT

Our analysis demonstrates that snf is a positive regulator of Sex-lethal in both the germline and the soma. In the germline, unregulated expression of Sex-lethal can bypass the requirement for snf⁺ gene function, implying that snf is required for Sex-lethal activity in the germline. This conclusion is supported by the finding that the Sex-lethal transcription pattern is abnormal in a snf mutant background. In the soma, activation of Sex-lethal appears to be sensitive to snf gene dosage only when the probability of Sex-lethal activation has been otherwise reduced. We also show that the activity of one of the constitutive Sex-lethal alleles (Sxl^{M1}) is sensitive to snf gene dosage, demonstrating that, in spite of its constitutive behavior in some assays, Sxl^{M1} is still subject to some regulation. In spite of snf's role in the somatic activation of Sex-lethal, no lethal alleles of snf were isolated in a screen of ~25,000 chromosomes. The observation that the existing snf mutations present a lethal phenotype only in certain genetic backgrounds suggests that snf is required, but is not essential, for the activation of Sex-lethal in the soma. In contrast, snf does appear to be essential for activation of Sex-lethal in the germline, as evidenced by its female-sterile phenotype.

CEXUAL development in the fruit fly Drosophila **D** melanogaster is one of the best characterized systems to study the complex gene interactions necessary for the initiation and maintenance of developmental decisions. The sex-specific decisions leading to somatic sexual differentiation, the vital process of X chromosome dosage compensation and differentiation of the germline are all controlled by the binary switch gene Sex-lethal (Sxl) (HODGKIN 1990; PAULI and MAHOW-ALD 1990; SLEE and BOWNES 1990; STEINMANN-ZWICKY, AMREIN and NOTHIGER 1990). When Sxl is ON, the female-specific pathway is chosen; conversely when Sxl is OFF, the male-specific pathway is chosen. Recessive loss of function mutations are female-specific lethals, whereas dominant gain of function mutations are male-specific lethals.

At a molecular level activation of Sxl appears to be quite complex. In the soma, the initial response of Sxlto the X chromosome to autosome ratio is under transcriptional regulation (ERICKSON and CLINE 1991; KEYES, CLINE and SCHEDL 1992). Once femalespecific expression of Sxl is achieved, it regulates its own activity as well as the downstream genes by alternative RNA splicing (BELL *et al.* 1988; NAGOSHI *et al.* 1988; INOUE *et al.* 1990; BELL *et al.* 1991; SAMUELS, SCHEDL and CLINE 1991). In contrast to the soma, little is known about how Sxl is activated in the germline, although it is possible that it too is activated by a similar two step process (SALZ, CLINE and SCHEDL 1987; SAMUELS, SCHEDL and CLINE 1991).

Genetic studies have suggested that another locus,

in addition to Sxl, is required for a similar set of sexspecific functions in both the germline and the soma (GOLLIN and KING 1981; OLIVER, PERRIMON and MA-HOWALD 1988; STEINMANN-ZWICKY 1988). snf's role (also named fs(1)1621, sans-fille, and liz), in germline sex determination was determined directly from the genetic analysis of a single allele, snf¹⁶²¹. Females homozygous for snf¹⁶²¹ are sterile (GANS, AUDIT and MASSON 1975). In the mutant neither the oocyte nor the nurse cells differentiate. Instead the germarial cells continue to divide, resulting in the formation of ovarian tumors (GOLLIN and KING 1981). The similarity of snf and Sxl mutant phenotypes in the germline suggests that they disrupt the same process, germlinesex determination (OLIVER, PERRIMON and MAHOW-ALD 1988; STEINMANN-ZWICKY 1988).

In contrast to snf's role in germline sex determination, its role in somatic sex differentiation and Xchromosome dosage compensation can only be inferred by an unusual genetic interaction between mutations at the snf and Sxl loci. Females that are doubly heterozygous for a Sxl null mutation and snf^{1621} (or a deficiency of snf) show a cold-sensitive dominant lethal interaction (CLINE 1988; OLIVER, PERRIMON and MAHOWALD 1988; STEINMANN-ZWICKY 1988). The double heterozygous females have reduced viability, presumably due to upsets in dosage compensation. In addition, many of these surviving females show signs of sex transformations. In addition to its zygotic requirement for snf function, a maternal requirement can also be inferred from these data. All daughters (snf/Sxl and +/Sxl) from snf/+ mothers and Sxl fathers have reduced viability, irrespective of their genotype with respect to snf.

Although genetic interactions between mutations at different loci are useful in identifying genes required in similar processes, they tell us little about their actual function. Thus to understand the role of snf in both the germline and the soma we have extended the genetic analysis of snf. Our results indicate that snf is a positive regulator of Sxl: snf function is required to activate Sxl both in the early embryo and in the germline. Surprisingly, in an extensive screen for new mutations, we recovered only one new allele of snf. This new allele behaves in a similar fashion to the original allele in both the germline and the soma. The failure to isolate lethal alleles of snf suggests that zygotic snf function is not essential for Sxl activation in the early embryo.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Note on nomenclature: A considerable amount of confusion surrounds the naming of the snf locus. snf was initially isolated in a screen for female-sterile mutations and named fs(1)1621 (GANS, AUDIT and MASSON 1975; GOLLIN and KING 1981). Once identified as a sex determination gene it was renamed sans-fille (snf) (OLIVER, PERRIMON and MA-HOWALD 1988) and liz (STEINMANN-ZWICKY 1988). Although we will use the three letter designation snf (pronounced sniff) in this report, we would like to point out that the name sans-fille, which means "daughterless" in French, is inconsistent with the phenotype of the mutation since mutant females are simply sterile and produce neither sons nor daughters.

Fly stocks and culture conditions: Mutations and rearrangements not described in the text or listed in Table 1 are described in Lindsley and GRELL (1968) or LINDSLEY and ZIMM (1985, 1986, 1987, 1990).

Unless otherwise indicated, flies were reared at room temperature which ranged from 22° to 25° on a standard cornmeal, yeast molasses, agar medium.

Cytological analysis: The salivary gland chromosomes of individuals heterozygous for a rearrangement and a wildtype chromosome were examined by phase contrast microscopy after staining with lacto-acetic-orcein. Cytological breakpoints were assigned using the photographs in LE-FEVRE (1976) and SORSA (1988).

Isolation of γ -ray induced mutations that do not complement snf^{1621} : This screen was necessarily complicated by the fact that there was, at the time, no duplication for the region that was viable in males (see below on how we made one). Virgin collection in this screen was kept to a minimum by including l(1)44ts, which is lethal at 29° but not at 25° (KOMITOPOULOU *et al.* 1983). Males hemizygous for an isogenized X chromosome marked with yellow were exposed to 4000 rad γ -irradiation delivered from a ⁶⁰Co source and mated *en masse* to l(1)44ts/FM3 virgin females at 29°. Only virgin female progeny are produced in the next generation because both l(1)44ts and FM3 males are lethal. Individual stocks of each mutagenized X chromosome were established by mating a single y/FM3 virgin to an FM7 male and then in the next generation selecting out the FM7/FM3 females. Each stock was then tested for complementation with snf^{1621} .

Construction of Dp(1;2)4FRDup-a duplication that cov-

ers the 4C11-12; 4F11-12 interval and is viable in males: To facilitate the genetic analysis of this region of the Xchromosome, a duplication was needed. However, all preexisting duplications were lethal to males because they also include a copy of a dosage sensitive region, located at position 3F (CLINE 1988; OLIVER, PERRIMON and MAHOW-ALD 1988; STEINMANN-ZWICKY 1988). When present in two copies in males, this region causes lethality. Our strategy for isolating a duplication that covers Df(1)JC70 but does not include a copy of the dosage sensitive region was to induce a deficiency in a preexisting duplication $Dp(1;2)w^+64b13$. Males that were Df(1)A113; $Dp(1;2)w^+64b13/+$ were exposed to 4000 R γ -irradiation and crossed to females homozygous for yellow and white. Out of the $\approx 50,000$ chromosomes screened, 22 males that carried the duplication were selected, of which 5 were fertile. The extent of the remaining duplication was determined by complementation with several deficiencies in the area. The reduced duplication (Dp(1;2)4FRDup) that was used in this study covers $\hat{Df}(1)JC70$ and Df(1)ovoG6, but not Df(1)RC40. It also contains the wildtype copies of both Notch and white, which can be used to determine the absence or presence of the duplication. In the text we have abbreviated Dp(1;2)4FRDup as 4FRDup.

Isolation of mutations in the 4C11-12; 4F11-12 interval: The screen was designed to isolate mutations within Df(1) [C70 that are either lethal in females, female sterile or that are either "sonless" or "daughterless" (Figure 1). Our selection criteria made no assumptions with respect to the mutant phenotype in males. Males isogenic for an X chromosome marked with w were fed either 0.025 M ethyl methanesulfonate (EMS) or 0.007 M diexpoxybutane (DEB) according to the method of LEWIS and BACHER (1968) and then mated to C(1)DX ywf; 4FRDup $(w^+)/+$ virgins. The duplication-carrying male progeny of this cross (w; 4FRDup/ +) were mated individually to several yw Df(1)JC70/FM7cfemales. Progeny from each vial were scored for the induction of a mutation within the deficiency by scoring the phenotype of $w/y \le Df(1)/C70$ females. In each case the $w/y \le Df(1)/C70$ FM7c females, balanced for the mutagen treated chromosome, were used to establish a stock of each putative mutation.

Only those mutations that retested over either Df(1)ovoG6or Df(1)DEB4D were analyzed further. Df(1)DEB4D was isolated in a pilot screen for DEB-induced lethals within Df(1)JC70. The pilot screen was virtually identical to the one described here.

Determination of the order of and the distance between snf and fs(1)1059 by recombination: Because recombination between fs(1)1059 and snf mutations carried in trans will produce a wild-type recombinant, the frequency of fertile chromosomes recovered is indicative of the distance between the two loci. The order of the flanking markers (white and cut) present on the fertile chromosome is indicative of the order of the two genes. To map $f_s(1)1059$ relative to snf, sons recombinant for the flanking markers white and cut (w⁺ ct and w ct^+ males) were collected from among the progeny of w snf¹⁶²¹ ct/fs(1)1059 females. To screen for recombination between snf and fs(1)1059, each putative recombinant male was mated to Df(1)JC70/FM7 females and the non balancer female progeny tested for fertility. Of 6397 males, 1106 were recombinant for the flanking markers, w and ct. These males were then tested for a recombination event between snf and fs(1)1059. Two w^+ ct recombinant chromosomes were found to be fertile when heterozygous with Df(1)/C70; these two chromosomes represent half of all recombination events between snf and fs(1)1059. From these data we can conclude that the two genes are 0.06 cM apart and that snf is distal to fs(1)1059.



FIGURE 1.—Crossing scheme for mutant isolation in the 4C11-12;4F11-12 interval described in MATERIALS AND METHODS. * indicates a mutagen treated chromosome.

RNA analysis: Poly(A⁺) RNA was isolated and Northern blots carried out as previously described (SALZ *et al.* 1989).

RESULTS

Isolation and characterization of new snf alleles: To determine the effect of a complete loss of snf function, we initiated three large scale screens to isolate new snf alleles. In all we screened approximately 25,000 chromosomes using three different mutagens.

Initially we screened for γ -ray induced *snf* alleles that did not complement *snf*¹⁶²¹ (described in MA-TERIALS AND METHODS). Because females heterozygous for a deficiency of the locus and *snf*¹⁶²¹ are viable, but sterile, new mutants were to be identified based on a sterile phenotype when heterozygous with *snf*¹⁶²¹. In this screen we also expected to isolate new *Sxl* alleles by virtue of the fact that the double heterozygous *Sxl*, *snf*⁺/*Sxl*⁺, *snf* females have reduced viability and are sterile. In a screen of $\approx 10,000 X$ chromosomes we identified three female-specific lethal mutations that map by recombination to the *Sxl* locus (data not shown). No mutations that map within the *snf* region were isolated in this screen.

The next screens were broader in scope and were facilitated by the construction of a male-viable duplication of the cytogenetic interval containing *snf* (see MATERIALS AND METHODS). Within this interval, we screened for mutations, based solely on their phenotype in females (Figure 1): We screened for female-specific lethals, non-sex-specific lethals, female-steriles and females that produce progeny in aberrant sex ratios (a "daughterless" or "sonless" phenotype). About 10,000 EMS-treated X chromosomes and

TABLE 1

Cytology of chromosome deficiencies used in this study

Name	Cytology°	Reference
Df(1)JC70	4C11-12;5A3-4	CRAYMER AND ROY (1980)
Df(1)subEH ^b	Not visible, removes fl(1)301, hnt, svb, ovo	EBERL AND HILLIKER (1988)
Df(1)ovoG6 ^b	4C11-12;4F1,2	Oliver, Perrimon and Mahowald (1987)
Df(1)ovoG7 ^b	4A4;4F1,2	Oliver, Perrimon and Mahowald (1987)
Df(1)RC40	4B;4F1,2	CRAYMER AND ROY (1980)
Df(1)0v044	4A4-5;4F11-12	STEINMANN-ZWICKY (1988)
Df(1)HC44	3E;4F11-12	CRAYMER AND ROY (1980)
Df(1)DEB4D	4E1,2;4F11-12	This study

^a All breakpoints are based on our own cytology.

^b Df(1)ovoG6 and Df(1)ovoG7 were originally published as Df(1)ovoD1rG6 and Df(1)ovoD1rG7, respectively. Df(1)svbEH was originally published as l(1)EH587 and identified as a small deletion by OLIVER, PERRIMON and MAHOWALD (1987) that removes *hnt*, *svb* and *ovo*. We have also shown that it removes another locus fl(1)302 (STEINMANN-ZWICKY 1988) which is located in 4C adjacent to *hnt* (data not shown).

5,000 DEB-treated X chromosomes were screened for mutations within the 4C11-12;4F11-12 interval. In all 16 mutations were isolated: 8 female-steriles and 8 non-sex-specific lethals. Each was tested for complementation with the deficiencies listed in Table 1, which divide the 4C11-12; 4F11-12 interval into 5 regions. Mutations that fell within the same region were tested for complementation among themselves as well as with previously identified mutations that map within each region. The results of this analysis are summarized in Figure 2.

Three mutations were localized to the same interval as *snf* (4F1, 2-4F11, 12) by complementation with several deficiencies. Whereas two of these mutations map by recombination to the *Sxl* locus (1–19), the third mutation, *e8H*, maps by recombination close to the *snf* locus (1–11) (data not shown). *e8H* appears to be an allele of *snf* because it does not complement *snf*¹⁶²¹, but does complement the only other known mutation within this interval, fs(1)1059. *e8H/snf*¹⁶²¹ females are sterile and have ovarian tumors. Surprisingly, and in contrast to *snf*¹⁶²¹, females homozygous for *e8H* are fertile and have equal numbers of male and female progeny (data not shown).

snf^{e8H} also displays a lethal synergistic interaction with Sxl: Previous studies have shown that snf^{1621} or a deficiency of snf show a cold sensitive lethal interaction with null alleles of Sxl (CLINE 1988; OLIVER, PERRIMON and MAHOWALD 1988; STEINMANN-ZWICKY 1988). In our experimental conditions this interaction is fairly weak (Table 2, cross A). Thus we might not detect an interaction with snf^{e8H} since it is a weaker mutation than snf^{1621} . We therefore made the assay more sensitive by the addition of a mutation at another sex determination locus. By reducing the dose of either daughterless ($da^2/+$) in the mother or 550



FIGURE 2.—Genetic organization of the 4C11-12;4F11-12 cytogenetic interval. Deletions are indicated by heavy horizontal lines. DEB induced mutations are preceded by a lowercase d; EMS induced mutations are preceded by a lower case e. Region 1: Three lethal mutations were identified as alleles of shavenbaby (svb) by a lack of complementation with each other and with svb^{YP17b} (WIES-CHAUS, NUSSLEIN-VOLHARD and JURGENS 1984). One of these alleles, d2A is also an allele of ovo as determined by complementation with ovo^{DirSI} (OLIVER, PERRIMON and MAHOWALD 1988). In addition, three EMS-induced female sterile mutations were identified as alleles of ovo. Previous studies had also localized a locus named lozenge-like (lzl) to this region. However, recent molecular studies suggest that the lzl phenotype is apparently due to the misexpression of an aberrant ovo gene product (GARFINKEL, LOHE and MAHOW-ALD, 1992; MEVEL-NINIO, TERRACOL and KAFATOS 1991). All of the existing *lzl* mutations are associated with an insertion of a gypsy transposable element in the same orientation within the dominant ovo^{D1} locus. Region 2: Two alleles of a new lethal complementation group, l(1)4Ea, were identified within this region. Region 3: The rugose (rg) gene is the only known gene within this region. Although the original mutation, rg', has a rough eye phenotype with no effect on viability, the rg allele we isolated is a semilethal. It is likely that lethality is due to mutant rg function since this allele fully complements the neighboring lethal, l(1)4Ea. Our data suggest that the rg gene is required for an essential function that is not eye-specific. Region 4: snf and fs(1)1059 (also reported as fs(1)K575 and fs(1)M60) are located within this region. One additional allele of snf was identified by complementation with snf¹⁶²¹. Although no alleles of fs(1)1059 were isolated in our screens, others have reported the isolation of several EMS-induced alleles (GANS, AUDIT and MASSON 1975; MOHLER 1977; KOMITOPOULOU et al. 1983; PERRIMON et al. 1986). Recombination analysis has placed snf 0.06 cM distal to fs(1)1059 (see MATERIALS AND METHODS for details). Region 5: Two complementation groups have been identified within this region. Two new alleles of $f_s(1)456$ were identified by complementation with fs(1)456 (GANS, AUDIT and MASSON 1975) and two alleles of a newly identified lethal complementation group l(1)4Fa. were identified. The order of these two genes with respect to each other is not known.

sisterless-a (sis-a/+) in the zygote the lethal interaction between snf and Sxl is enhanced. For example even though daughters from $snf^{1621}/+$ mothers and Sxl^{f1} fathers show only slightly reduced viability, daughters from $snf^{1621}/+$ mothers and Sxl^{f1} , sis-a fathers rarely survive (compare crosses A and B in Table 2). Similarly, daughters from $snf^{1621}/+$; $da^2/+$ mothers and Sxl^{f1} fathers seldom survive (data not shown).

The data in Table 2 (crosses C, D and E) demonstrate that even though snf^{e8H} appears to be a weaker

TABLE 2

Dominant synergism between Sxl, sis-a and the mutations in 4F1,2-4F11,12

		Genotype and number of progeny and their viability (%) relative to the number of control males recovered			
Cross [#] Cross [#]	• Parental • genotype				Control males
A	1621/FM7 × Sxl/Y	1621/Sxl 30 (26%)	Sxl/FM7 69 (60%)	1621/Y 96 (83%)	<i>FM7/Y</i> 116
В	1621/FM7 × Sxl, sis/Y	1621/Sxl, sis 2 (1%)	Sxl, sis/FM7 9 (6%)	<i>1621/Y</i> 149 (100%)	<i>FM7/Y</i> 150
С	e8H/FM7 × Sxl, sis/Y	e8H/Sxl, sis 41 (51%)	Sxl, sis/FM7 46 (58%)	e8H/Y 61 (76%)	<i>FM7/Y</i> 80
D	e8H/e8H × Sxl, sis/Y	e8H/Sxl, sis 0 (<0.5%)			<i>e8H/Y</i> 196
E	e8H/e8H × Sxl	e8H/Sxl 0 (<0.3%)			<i>e8H/Y</i> 398
F	1059/FM7 × Sxl, sis/Y	1059/Sxl, sis 122 (100%)	Sxl, sis/FM7 182 (100%)	1059/Y 229 (100%)	FM7/Y 65

^a Full genotypes of the crosses: $cm Sxl^{f1} ct/Y$ males or $cm Sxl^{f1}$ ct sis-a/Y males were crossed to the following females: y cho $snf^{1621} ct$ $vg f/FM7, fs(1)1059 v^{24}/FM7, w snf^{*8H}/FM7, or w snf^{*8H}/w snf^{*8H}$.

allele than snf^{1621} it still displays a strong lethal synergistic interaction with the sex determination loci. Sxl, sis-a/+,+ female progeny from mothers *heterozy*gous for snf^{e8H} have reduced viability (cross C). The lethal synergistic interaction can be further enhanced by reducing the amount of snf^+ product produced by the mother. Sxl, sis-a/+,+ females from mothers *homozgyous* for snf^{e8H} are not viable (cross D). The importance of the maternal requirement for snf^+ function is further demonstrated by the observation that Sxl/+ females from mothers homozygous for snf^{e8H} are also not viable (cross E).

The snf mutations are the only identified mutations within 4F1,2-4F11,12 that interact with Sxl: The failure to recover lethal alleles of snf is somewhat surprising in light of previous studies that suggested that snf also plays a vital role in the soma. This conclusion was based on the observation that a deficiency chromosome that lacks at least from 4F1,2 to 4F11,12 interacts with mutations at the Sxl locus (CLINE 1988; OLIVER, PERRIMON and MAHOWALD 1988; STEINMANN-ZWICKY 1988). Because snf^{1621} interacts in the same way it was presumed that the snf locus is solely responsible for this interaction (OLIVER, PERRIMON and MAHOWALD 1988; STEINMANN- ZWICKY 1988). However, given that another locus, fs(1)1059, is also located within the same interval as snf, it is a formal possibility that it too could interact with Sxl. The data in Table 2 (cross F) demonstrate that fs(1)1059 fully complements Sxl, sis-a. Thus it appears that the snf locus is the only identified locus within 4F1,2-4F11,12 that displays a lethal synergistic interaction with Sxl.

snf's function in the germline: The similarity of the ovarian tumor phenotype observed in snf mutations compared to that found in germline-specific mutations of Sxl (SALZ, CLINE and SCHEDL 1987) suggests that they both disrupt the same process. STEINMANN-ZWICKY (1988) further refined the relationship between Sxl and snf by demonstrating that the female sterility of snf^{1621} homozygous females can be suppressed by Sxl^{MI} , a constitutive allele of Sxl. Although the phenotypes of double mutant combinations can be used to place genes in a regulatory hierarchy, they can also result from allele-specific interactions that are not interpretable in the same manner (for example, see the interaction between Sxl^{M1} and snf in the soma described in the next section). The following observations suggest that the germline suppression of the *snf* mutant phenotype is not due to allele-specific interactions. The sterility of snf^{1621} can be suppressed by either of two constitu-tive alleles Sxl^{M1} or Sxl^{M4} . Both snf^{1621} , $Sxl^{M1}/$ Df(1)DEB4D and snf^{1621} , $Sxl^{M1}/Df(1)DEB4D$ females are fertile. Moreover, Sxl^{M1} can equally suppress both alleles of snf: both Df(1)DEB4D, Sxl^{M1}/snf^{e8H} females and Df(1)DEB4D, Sxl^{M1}/snf¹⁶²¹ females are fertile. Because the suppression is not due to allele-specific interactions between snf and Sxl^{MI}, the suppression is likely to be due to the ability of the unregulated expression of Sxl to bypass the germline requirement for snf^+ . From these data snf^+ appears to be a positive regulator of Sxl in the germline.

Consistent with this hypothesis is the observation that the Sxl transcription pattern is altered in females homozgyous for snf^{1621} (Figure 3). In wild type females, three major size classes of RNAs are observed when a Sxl cDNA is used as a probe: 4.2, 3.3 and 1.9 kb. In contrast, in snf^{1621} females the 1.9-kb RNA is not detectable and there is a marked reduction in the level of the 3.3-kb size class. Similar abnormal transcription patterns are also obtained with females without a germline (SALZ *et al.* 1989). Thus snf^{1621} mutant females appear to be missing the two germlinedependent Sxl RNAs.

snf's function in the soma: Although snf function appears to be genetically upstream of Sxl in the germline, its role in the soma appeared, from analogous experiments, to be downstream of Sxl (STEINMANN-ZWICKY 1988). We suspected that these seemingly contradictory results in the two tissues might be due



FIGURE 3.—*Sxl* transcription pattern in *snf*¹⁶²¹ mutant females. Northern blot hybridization of poly(A⁺) RNA ($\approx 5 \mu g$ per lane) from 0–1-hr embryos, wild-type females and homozygous *snf*¹⁶²¹ mutant females probed with the female *Sxl* cDNA described in BELL *et al.* (1988).

to allele specific interactions, rather than tissue specific differences. To determine whether this was the case, we compared in parallel experiments the snf^{1621} - Sxl^{M1} and snf^{1621} - Sxl^{M4} interaction.

Males hemizygous for either Sxl^{M1} or Sxl^{M4} do not survive, presumably due to upsets in dosage compensation that result from the inappropriate expression of Sxl. Yet the male lethality can be partially suppressed by snf mutations at 18° (17% of the expected snf¹⁶²¹, Sxl^{MI} males are recovered), seemingly placing snf's somatic function downstream of Sxl (data not shown). If this were the case then we would expect snf mutations to block the male lethality of any and all Sxl constitutive alleles. However, snf does not suppress the male-lethal phenotype of Sxl^{M4} (No snf^{1621} , Sxl^{M4} males were ever recovered out of over 500 progeny scored at either 18° or 25°). The allele specificity of the interaction between snf and Sxl^{M1} suggests to us that Sxl^{M1} requires snf⁺ gene function for fully constitutive expression.

 Sxl^{M1} 's unique requirement for snf function can also be assayed in females. Females heterozygous for deletions which remove two positive regulators of Sxl, sisa and sisterless-b (sis-b) are lethal (CLINE 1988). The data presented in Table 3 demonstrates that this lethality is suppressible by either Sxl^{M1} or Sxl^{M4} . Suppression by Sxl^{M1} , however, is dependent on two wildtype copies of snf. sis-b, $sis-a/snf^{1621}$, Sxl^{M1} females have a relative viability of only 16%. In contrast, the ability of Sxl^{M4} to suppress the female lethality is independent of snf: sis-b, $sis-a/snf^{1621}$, Sxl^{M4} females are fully viable.

If snf^+ does function as a regulator of Sxl, then under some circumstances snf mutations should behave like Sxl null alleles. For instance, null alleles of

TABLE	3
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snf¹⁶²¹ blocks the constitutive behavior of Sxl^{M1}, but not of Sxl^{M4} in females

snf ^x , Sxl ^x	Relative viability of sis-b ⁻ , sis-a ⁻ /snf ^x , Sxl ^x females (n)	Relative viability of sis-b ⁻ , sis-a ⁻ /+ females (n)	Reference females sis-b ⁻ , sis-a ⁻ /snf ^x , Sxl ^x Dp(sis-b ⁺), Dp(sis-a ⁺)/+ (n)	
snf ¹⁶²¹ , Sxl ⁺	<0.5% (0)	2.3% (5)	217	
snf+, Sxl ^{MI}	114% (127)	<0.9% (0)	111	
snf ¹⁶²¹ , Sxl ^{M1}	16% (38)	0.4% (1)	240	
snf ⁺ , Sxl ^{M4}	130% (114)	1.1% (1)	88	
snf ¹⁶²¹ , Sxl ^{M4}	107% (133)	<0.5% (0)	124	

Relative viability is defined as the number (n) of experimental animals relative to the number of control sisters recovered from the same cross. The crosses were as follows: $y snf^x$, $Sxl^x/FM7$ females $\times Df(1)sc19$, Df(1)N71/Y; DD(2)Ha, $y^+/+$ males. The full genotypes of the snf^x , Sxl^x chromosomes are: 1) y cho snf^{1621} ct sn v g f; 2) y Sxl^{M1} ct sn v; 3) y cho snf^{1621} Sxl^{M1} ct sn v; 4) y cm Sxl^{M4} and 5) y cho snf^{1621} Sxl^{M4} cm.

Sxl suppress the male lethality that results from the simultaneous duplication of sis-a and sis-b (CLINE 1988). Like Sxl mutations, snf^{1621} can suppress the male lethality of the double duplication (Table 4, crosses A and B). The inability of snf^{1621} to suppress the male lethality associated with the double duplication as completely as a null allele of Sxl is not totally unexpected because snf mutations apparently do not prevent Sxl activation, but instead only reduce the probability of Sxl activation.

Consistent with previous studies, the data in Table 4 suggest that snf^+ is also required maternally to activate Sxl in the embryo. However, because differences in male viability can be attributed to differences in genetic background (CLINE 1988), we repeated these crosses in such a way that variations in genetic background were kept to a minimum. These data are presented in Table 4 (crosses C and D). In each cross we determined the relative viability of the same isogenic snf^+ chromosome. snf^+ , $Dp(sis-b^+)$, $Dp(sis-a^+)/+$ sons from mothers heterozygous for a deletion that uncovers *snf* are more viable (13% relative viability) than snf^+ , $Dp(sis-b^+)$, $Dp(sis-a^+)/+$ sons from snf^+ females (0.5% relative viability). Thus, suppression of the double duplication male lethality by mutations in snf results in part from an apparent maternal effect.

DISCUSSION

snf activates Sxl in the germline: Mutations at the snf locus result in abnormal ovarian development. During normal oogenesis, the oogonia divide to give rise to a number of cystoblasts. Each cystoblast undergoes four cell divisions to produce a syncytium of 16 interconnected cells. One of these cells develops into an oocyte and the remaining cells 15 cells become the nurse cells (KING 1970). In snf mutations the cystocytes appear to undergo uncontrolled cell divisions, resulting in an ovarian tumor phenotype. The similarity of snf and Sxl mutant phenotypes in the germline suggests that snf is a sex determination gene. We present two lines of evidence that demonstrate that snf is required to activate Sxl in the germline. First, the *snf* mutant phenotype can be suppressed by either of two constitutive alleles of Sxl. Thus unregulated expression of Sxl can bypass the requirement for snf^+ gene function. Second, an analysis of the Sxl transcription pattern demonstrates that in snf mutant females the two germline-dependent Sxl transcripts are missing. A detailed comparison of the structures of the different female-specific RNAs has found that the germline and the somatic RNAs are very similar in structure (SAMUELS, SCHEDL and CLINE 1991). Thus it appears that the germline RNAs, like the somatic RNAs, are processed by a female-specific splicing mechanism. Although we expect that the failure to activate Sxl in the germline does result in the processing of the germline-dependent Sxl RNAs in the male mode, the fact that we did not observe these RNAs in our experiments is not unexpected given the fact that we examined the expression pattern in whole females. The ovaries in *snf* mutant females are rudimentary, suggesting that the germline-specific transcripts are making only a minimal contribution to the overall expression pattern. In contrast, the ovary in wild-type females is well developed, consequently the germline transcripts are likely to make a more substantial contribution to the total expression pattern.

snf activates Sxl in the soma: Our data demonstrate that activation of Sxl is sensitive to both the maternal and zygotic gene dosage of snf in certain genetic backgrounds. Not only do snf mutations present a female-lethal phenotype if the probability of Sxl activation has been otherwise reduced, they also suppress the male-lethal phenotype associated with an increased probability of Sxl activation. Whether snf is essential for Sxl function can not be determined until we unequivocally determine the null phenotype of snf. Although we screened over 25,000 chromosomes for new snf alleles, the fact that we isolated only one new snf allele (whereas we isolated five additional Sxl mutations), makes us uncertain as to whether we have identified the null phenotype. However, our observation does suggest the possibility that the null phenotype is not a lethal. A nonessential requirement for

TABLE 4	ABLE 4	ł
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Suppression of the male lethality of the $Dp(sis-b^+)$, $Dp(sis-a^+)$ chromosome

Cross	Genotype of mother with respect to snf ^x , Sxl ^x	Relative viability of snf ^x , Sxl ^x ; DpDp/+ males (n)	Relative viability of +; DpDp/+ males (n)	Relative viability of snf ^x , Sxl ^x ; +/+ males (n)	Reference males $+/+$; $+/+$ (<i>n</i>)
A	Sxl ^{f1} /FM7	59% (45)	<1.3% (0)	88% (67)	76
В	snf ¹⁶²¹ /FM7	17% (34)	6% (12)	122% (246)	201
С	$Df(snf^{-})/+$		13% (13)		102
D	$S \times l^{j_l} / +$	44% (96)	0.5% (1)	97% (210)	217

Relative viability is assessed by comparing the number (n) of experimental animals to the number of control animals recovered from the same cross. The full genotype of the crosses were as follows: A) $y w Sxl^{fi} ct/FM7 \mathfrak{V} \times Df(1)sc19$, Df(1)N71/Y; DD(2)Ha, $y^+/+\delta\delta$. B) $y cho snf^{162i} ct sn v g f/FM7 \mathfrak{V} \times Df(1)sc19$, Df(1)N71/Y; DD(2)Ha, $y^+/+\delta\delta$. C) y w Df(1) JC70, $snf^-/y w \mathfrak{V} \times Df(1)sc19$, Df(1)N71/Y; DD(2)Ha, $y^+/+\delta\delta$. D) $y w Sxl^{fi} ct/y w \mathfrak{V} \times Df(1)sc19$, Df(1)N71/Y; DD(2)Ha, $y^+/+\delta\delta$.

 snf^+ function can be explained if there are one or more other genes with functions similar to snf^+ that are required to activate Sxl in the embryo. Such redundant functions have been proposed to explain the viable phenotypes of mutations in other genes with predicted vital functions. For instance, no lethal mutations were isolated in the Drosophila fasciclin I gene, a neural cell adhesion molecule (ELKINS et al. 1990). A mutant phenotype was only observed when mutations in fas I are combined with a mutation in the abl tyrosine kinase gene.

Our results also indicate that the activation of a specific gain of function allele of Sxl, Sxl^{M1} , is sensitive to gene dosage of snf, whereas the activation of another gain of function allele, Sxl^{M4}, is independent of snf gene function. We observed that the sensitivity of Sxl^{M1} to snf gene dosage was detectable in males under all circumstances, and in females when the X to autosome ratio had been reduced (by simultaneously reducing the dosage of sis-a and sis-b). Previous studies have also shown that Sxl^{MI} is also sensitive to the X to autosome ratio in the germline (NOTHIGER et al. 1989; STEINMANN-ZWICKY, SCHMID and NOTHIGER 1989). Only when the ratio is 1:1 in the germline is Sxl^{M1} found to be truly constitutive.

These results are consistent with the molecular nature of both constitutive alleles. The mutant phenotypes of both Sxl^{M4} and Sxl^{M1} appear to be due to insertions of foreign DNA within 1 kb of each other. These insertions apparently cause Sxl to be processed in the female mode irrespective of the X to autosome ratio (MAINE et al. 1985). The location of the insertion associated with Sxl^{M4} is within or very close to the male-specific exon, suggesting that it might block the male-specific splicing alternative. This forces the female-specific alternative to be used under all circumstances. The location of the insertion associated with Sxl^{MI}, on the other hand, is 1 kb away from the malespecific exon, suggesting that it functions by a different mechanism. Thus it is probable that it requires at least some of the factors normally necessary to enter into the female mode of activity. Our data suggest that one of these factors is the *snf* gene product.

Where in the process of Sxl activation is snf likely to function? The experiments described here provide compelling evidence that snf is required to activate Sxl in both the germline and the soma. Interestingly, the signals required to activate Sxl in the two tissue types appear to be different: Whereas an X to autosome ratio of 1:1 is sufficient for activation of Sxl in the soma, germline activation of Sxl requires, in addition to a ratio of 1:1, an inductive signal from the female gonadal soma (NOTHIGER et al. 1989; STEIN-MANN-ZWICKY, SCHMID and NOTHIGER 1989). Since it is likely that *snf* has the same function in both the germline and the soma, we propose that *snf* facilitates the interpretation of the X to autosome ratio. Alternatively snf may function downstream, or independently, of the signals required to initiate Sxl activation, thus maintaining Sxl activity. Whether snf regulates Sxl at the level of sex-specific transcription or sexspecific RNA processing remains to be determined.

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