# **Identification and Characterization of Autosomal Genes That Interact** With glass in the Developing Drosophila Eye

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#### ABSTRACT

The glass gene encodes a zinc finger, DNA-binding protein that is required for photoreceptor cell development in Drosophila melanogaster. In the developing compound eye, glass function is regulated at two points: (1) the protein is expressed in all cells' nuclei posterior to the morphogenetic furrow and (2) the ability of the Glass protein to regulate downstream genes is largely limited to the developing photoreceptor cells. We conducted a series of genetic screens for autosomal dominant second-site modifiers of the weak allele glass<sup>3</sup>, to discover genes with products that may regulate glass function at either of these levels. Seventy-six dominant enhancer mutations were recovered (and no dominant suppressors). Most of these dominant mutations are in essential genes and are associated with recessive lethality. We have assigned these mutations to 23 complementation groups that include multiple alleles of Star and hedgehog as well as single alleles of Delta, roughened eye, glass and hairy. Mutations in 18 of the complementation groups are embryonic lethals, and of these, 13 show abnormal adult retinal phenotypes in homozygous clones, usually with altered numbers of photoreceptor cells in some of the ommatidia.

N Drosophila, the adult compound eye consists of  $\sim$ 800 facets (ommatidia), each of which contains 20 cells: eight photoreceptor cells and 12 accessory cells (WADDINGTON and PERRY 1960). The photoreceptor cells can be subdivided into three subtypes according to their morphology, synaptic specificity, and spectral sensitivity: the six outer photoreceptors, R1-R6, the apical central photoreceptor, R7, and the basal central photoreceptor, R8 (reviewed by TOMLINSON 1988; MEINERTZHAGEN and HANSON 1993). The accessory cells include lens-secreting cone cells, light-insulating pigment cells, and cells comprising a mechano-sensory bristle. The compound eye develops from a monolayer epithelium called the eye imaginal disc, which grows by unpatterned cell divisions during early larval life, without apparent differentiation. Cell-type differentiation begins in the last larval instar, when a transverse groove (the morphogenetic furrow) sweeps across the eye imaginal disc from posterior to anterior (READY et al. 1976; HEBERLEIN and MOSES 1995). Anterior to the furrow, cells are dividing and undifferentiated. At the furrow, cell division stops and differentiation begins, and the ommatidial founder cells appear in a regular array. Posterior to the furrow, a final wave of cell division occurs (READY et al. 1976; WOLFF and READY 1991) and differentiation proceeds as photoreceptor cells and accessory cells are sequentially specified (TOMLINSON 1988). Many genes have been found to act in photore-

ceptor cell development. The eyeless gene functions in the specification of the nervous system (QUIRING et al. 1994; BARINAGA 1995; HALDER et al. 1995), and some genes function early to control the growth of the retinal cell precursors, such as sine oculis (CHEYETTE et al. 1994) and eyes absent (BONINI et al. 1993). Some genes function in the specification of the regular arrays of ommatidial founder cells, such as scabrous (BAKER et al. 1990; MLODZIK et al. 1990a; ELLIS et al. 1994; BAKER and ZI-TRON 1995), the Drosophila homologue of the epidermal growth factor receptor, Egfr, (BAKER and RUBIN 1989; BAKER and RUBIN 1992; ZAK and SHILO 1992), Notch (CAGAN and READY 1989; BAKER and ZITRON 1995) and Delta (BAKER and ZITRON 1995). Some genes function to specify photoreceptor subtypes, such as rough (BASLER et al. 1990; KIMMEL et al. 1990; HEBERLEIN and RUBIN 1991), sevenless (recently reviewed by DICK-SON and HAFEN 1994) and seven up (MLODZIK et al. 1990b; HIROMI et al. 1993; BEGEMANN et al. 1995; KRAMER et al. 1995).

The glass (gl) gene functions in the terminal differentiation of photoreceptor cells. In gl mutants, the presumptive photoreceptor cells begin to develop as neurons but fail to express photoreceptor cell-specific genes and die after about 60 hr of pupal development. Externally, the adult compound eyes are reduced in size, and the regular array of ommatidia is disrupted. Strong gl alleles also cause part of the eye to lack pig-ment, while three independent weak alleles  $(gl^3, gl^{BX9})$ and  $gl^{B24}$ ) produce fully pigmented eyes. gl function is required autonomously by all the developing photoreceptor cell types and is not required by the accessory cells (MOSES et al. 1989). The gl gene encodes a 604-

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amino acid protein with five zinc finger motifs that can bind to sequences within the enhancer regions of the Rh1 (rhodopsin) gene and regions within its own promoter (MOSES and RUBIN 1991). At least three of the five zinc finger domains are required for DNA binding, and there is also an activation domain (O'NEILL et al. 1995). Sequences resembling Gl-binding sites are found near the promoter of the chicken rhodopsin gene, and they are bound by a retinal-specific, chicken nuclear protein (SHESHBERADARAN and TAKAHASHI 1994). gl appears to be the last regulatory gene in its hierarchy, as it acts directly on terminal "realizator" functions (GARCÍA-BELLIDO et al. 1975), such as Rh1. Thus gl may be a master regulatory gene that controls photoreceptor differentiation, and the regulation of gl activity may be a critical step in the specification of the photoreceptor cell type.

In Drosophila, both transcription and translation of the gl gene begin at the morphogenetic furrow (in all cells) and then persist to the posterior margin of the disc, although at a lower level (MOSES et al. 1989; ELLIS et al. 1993). Gl protein is detected in the nuclei of all cells posterior to the furrow, but its ability to activate transcription differs between cell types: a Gl-regulated  $\beta$ -galactosidase reporter construct is expressed in the developing photoreceptor cells but not in the accessory cells. In the developing R7 cell gl activity is dependent on the sevenless tyrosine kinase signal (MOSES and RUBIN 1991). There are at least two classes of model to account for this restriction. (1) There could be photoreceptor cell-specific, positive regulators of gl function. Gl protein may be modified in the developing photoreceptor cells: an anti-Gl monoclonal antibody detects multiple forms of the protein on blots (ELLIS et al. 1993). (2) Alternatively, there could be negative regulators of gl function, which would be present in all cells in the morphogenetic furrow and then later specifically eliminated from the developing photoreceptor cells. This second possibility appears to be more likely, as a sequence adjacent to (and overlapping with) a gl-binding site in an *Rh1* enhancer is responsible for the repression of gl response in nonphotoreceptor cells (ELLIS et al. 1993). However gl activity is regulated, genes that act in the gl pathway might be identified as dominant, second-site modifiers of gl.

Screens for second-site modifiers have been used to identify functionally linked genes in Drosophila (BOTAS *et al.* 1982; BRAND and CAMPOS-ORTEGA 1990; ROGGE *et al.* 1991; SIMON *et al.* 1991; CARTHEW *et al.* 1994; HAR-DING *et al.* 1995; WEMMER and KLÄMBT 1995). In such a screen, the activity of a gene (in our case *gl*) is reduced, such that an intermediate, or weak, phenotype is seen (Figure 1). In this sensitized condition, a recessive loss-of-function mutation in a functionally related gene may cause a visible phenotype although only one copy of the gene is inactivated. Thus the new mutation may be revealed as dominant, while otherwise it would be recessive. Since the new mutations cause visible phenotypes as heterozygotes, vital genes affecting eye development can be identified. This is important since many genes have pleiotropic effects. It has been estimated that about two-thirds of the vital genes may be essential for eye development (THAKER and KANKEL 1992), however, because most genetic screens for genes with function in eye development have required mutations to be viable (BAKER et al. 1992), only a few vital genes affecting eve development have been identified, such as Notch (CAGAN and READY 1989), Delta (BAKER and ZITRON 1995) and EgfrE (BAKER and RUBIN 1989). Some new screening strategies, such as FLP-mediated somatic recombination (Xu and RUBIN 1993) and the "enhancer trap" technique (O'KANE and GEHRING 1987), also facilitate the identification of such vital genes, such as seven-up (MLODZIK et al. 1990b).

We report here the results of a screen for autosomal genes that interact with gl, as second-site dominant enhancers or suppressors. All known gl alleles (including protein nulls) are completely recessive in trans to wild type. This implies that 50% of the normal quantity of Gl protein is sufficient for normal development. Homozygotes of weak gl alleles  $(gl^3, gl^{BX9} \text{ and } gl^{B24})$  have an intermediate, rough eye phenotype (Figure 1B). Unlike null alleles (Figure 1C), their phenotype can be made stronger by placing them in trans to a deficiency, and as such they are likely to be hypomorphic alleles (MULLER 1932). Modification of this weak gl phenotype may be caused by mutations in genes that are upstream regulators of gl and that act in a stoichiometric manner. A loss-of-function mutation in a gene that normally acts to positively regulate gl could be recovered as a dominant enhancer of the weak  $gl^3$  phenotype. Similarly, a lossof-function mutation in a gene that normally acts to negatively regulate gl could be recovered as a dominant suppressor of the weak  $gl^3$  phenotype. Modification of this weak gl phenotype is less likely to be caused by mutations in genes that are downstream of gl. gl appears to be the last regulatory gene in its pathway and acts on many terminal "realizators." Mutations in any individual terminal gene are unlikely to have a detectable effect on the phenotype tested in this screen. For instance, mutations in the Rh1 opsin gene (ninaE alleles) do not affect external morphology to cause a rough eye and are unlikely to enhance the phenotype of  $gl^3$  as  $F_1$ heterozygotes.

We report here the results from a series of screens for dominant modifiers of  $gl^3$ . We used three mutagens (EMS,  $\gamma$ -rays and hybrid dysgenesis) to treat males and examined ~455,000 F<sub>1</sub> progeny. We report the isolation and characterization of 76 dominant enhancer of glmutations in 23 complementation groups.

## MATERIALS AND METHODS

**Drosophila stocks:** Drosophila cultures were carried out at 25° on standard cornmeal-molasses-agar medium. gl alleles used were as follows:  $gl^3$  is a weak mutation caused by a spontaneous insertion of ~2.5 kb,  $gl^{6lj}$  is a null allele caused

by a spontaneous insertion of  $\sim 30$  kb,  $gl^{BX9}$  is a weak mutation induced by X-rays,  $gl^{B24}$  is a weak mutation induced by EMS (MOSES *et al.* 1989). The stock used for mutagenesis was isogenic for the second and third chromosomes and is of the genotype  $w^{1118}$ ;  $P[(w,ry)D] \exists gl^{\exists} e$ , where  $P[(w,ry)D] \exists$  is one cM proximal to gl (R. LEVIS and G. M. RUBIN, unpublished results). The white gene carried by this P element renders the eye red and was used as a reference marker to monitor the efficiency of the mutagenesis by scoring the white-eyed flies in the screens. The following P-element insertions were used in mapping experiments and mosaic clone analyses (kindly provided by G. M. RUBIN and T. LA-VERTY, see Table 1): P[(w,ry)A]N22 (in polytene region 30C, 2-34 on the meiotic map), P[(w,ry)A] 1-1 (47Å, 2-60), P[(w,ry)A-R] 012 (66E, 3-17), P[w] 21 (89A, 3-58), P[(w,ry)A] 44 (100F, 3-108), all from (HAZELRIGG et al. 1984); P[(w,ry)F] 4-2 (21D, 2-0), P[(w,ry)D]1 (25C, 2-15), P[(w,ry)F]4-1 (57B, 2-95), P[(w,ry)H] 1 (78CD, 3-46), P[(w,ry)D] 3 (90E, 3-62) and P[(w,ry)E] 7 (94D, 3-81), from R. LEVIS and G. M. RUBIN (unpublished results). The marker stocks for mosaic clone analy-ses were as follows:  $w^{1118}$ ; P[(w,ry)A]N22 (for mutations on 2L),  $w^{1118}$ ; P[(w,ry)A] 1-1 (for mutations on 2R),  $w^{1118}$ ; P[gl]-30B; P[(w,ry)H]1 (for mutations on 3L),  $w^{1118}$ ; P[gl]30B; P[w] 21 (for mutations on  $\mathcal{R}$ ). P[gl] 30B is a  $gl^+$  transgenic insertion in polytene region 30B that fully rescues gl mutant's phenotype (MOSES et al. 1989). gl deletion chromosomes were  $Df(3R)gl^{BX3}$ ,  $Df(3R)gl^{BX7}$  and  $Df(3R)gl^{BX8}$  (Moses et al. 1989). The balancer chromosomes used were In(2LR)O, TM3 Sb and TM6B Tb Hu (LINDSLEY and ZIMM 1992). A h<sup>CI</sup> stock was a gift of N. L. BROWN and S. B. CARROLL. A hh<sup>AC</sup> stock was a gift of J. J. LEE and P. A. BEACHY. A ptc<sup>IN</sup> stock was a gift of J. E. HOOPER. Stocks containing  $m^5$  and  $m^{20}$ were gifts of R. GRIFFIN-SHEA. Stocks carrying the following mutations were obtained from the Bloomington and Bowling Green stock centers:  $arm^{k2}$ ,  $ci^{D}$ ,  $Dl^{X}$ ,  $en^{IIB}$ ,  $eve^{ID19}$ ,  $ftz^{W20}$ ,  $fu^{62/3}$ , Df(2R)gsb,  $gt^{132}$ ,  $h^{5H07}$ ,  $hb^{14F}$ ,  $kni^{5F107}$ ,  $Kr^{2}$ ,  $nkd^{7E}$ ,  $opa_{5H97}$ ,  $prd^{IB42}$ ,  $roe^{i}$ ,  $roe^{3}$ ,  $roe^{4}$ ,  $run^{E9}$ ,  $S^{1}$ ,  $slp^{L12}$ ,  $smo^{Q14}$ ,  $tll^{L10}$  and  $wg^{CX4}$ .

Mutant screens: For chemical and radiation mutagenesis, males of the genotype  $w^{1118}$ ; P[(w,ry)D] 3  $gl^3$  e were treated with 25 mM EMS (Sigma #M0880) as described in ASHBURNER (1989) or  $\gamma$ -rays (4000 rads from a <sup>137</sup>Cs source) and crossed to  $w^{1118}$ ;  $gl^3$  virgin females. About 395,000 F<sub>1</sub> progeny were inspected under dissecting microscope for modified eye phenotypes. Mutations of the white gene on the P[(w,ry)D] 3 element were also scored as a monitor of the efficiency of mutagenesis. As a second method to monitor the mutagenesis efficiency, for each mutagenesis run we measured the frequency of induced X-linked lethals, by crossing mutagenized males en masse to FM6K y w B virgin females. The  $F_1$  progeny were allowed to mate inter se, and then 100 single females were bred in individual vials. We scored for the presence or absence of  $B^+$  males in the F<sub>2</sub> progeny of each female. Each case of the absence of such males was scored as one X-linked lethal. For P-element transposon mutagenesis, Birm-2/+; Ki  $\Delta 2$ -3 ry 506/gl<sup>3</sup> males were crossed to  $w^{1118}$ ; gl<sup>3</sup> virgin females. The  $\Delta 2-3$  element is a stably integrated source of P-element transposase (at polytene band 99B) and Birm-2 is a second chromosome isolated from the *Birmingham* (*Birm*) stock of D. melanogaster, which has a large number of defective Pelements and no complete ones. The  $\Delta 2$ -3; Birm-2-combined genotype results in a relatively high level of P-element transposition, which can then be stabilized by selecting against Ki (and thus  $\Delta 2-3$ ) in the next generation (LASKI *et al.* 1986; ROBERTSON et al. 1988). We scored ~60,000  $F_1 Ki^+$  progeny for modified eye phenotypes. The mutants obtained were crossed to  $w^{1118}$ ;  $gl^3$  flies. If mutations from any of the screens bred true, they were crossed to the following balancer stocks,  $w^{1118}$ ; In(2LR)O/Sco,  $gl^3$  and  $w^{1118}$ ; TM3 Sb e  $gl^{B2}/TM6B$  Tb Hu e  $gl^{BS1}$ , and maintained as balanced stocks. We also tested 25 known au-

tosomal genes for their ability to act as dominant enhancers of  $gl^3$ . The genes tested were armadillo, cubitus interuptus, engrailed, even skipped, fused, fushi tarazu, giant, glass, gooseberry, hairy, hunchback, knirps, Krüppel, naked, odd paired, paired, patched, roughened eye, rotund, runt, sloppy paired, smooth, Star, tailless and wingless (see alleles listed above and RESULTS section below).

Linkage and complementation tests: The mutations were assigned to linkage groups by their patterns of inheritance relative to the dominant markers on the balancer chromosomes, and on whether they were linked to the third chromosome P[(w,ry)D] 3 element. The E(gl) mutations that are associated with recessive lethality were assigned to lethal complementation groups by complementation tests (within each linkage group). In those cases where map position and/ or mutant phenotype suggested that a particular enhancer of gl might be an allele of a known gene, we tested this by complementation.

Mapping: We determined the approximate meiotic map position of one allele of each previously unidentified complementation group obtained in the screens. We determined the position of both the dominant E(gl) phenotype and the recessive lethality associated with it (when applicable) in independent experiments. We mapped the positions of the dominant enhancers of gl by scoring the enhancer and eye color phenotypes, of the progeny of the outcross of heterozygous females (genotype:  $w^{11/8}$ ;  $E(gl)/E(gl)^+ P[w^+]$ , in a  $gl^3$  homozygous background) crossed to males of the  $w^{11/8}$ ;  $gl^3$  stock. We mapped the positions of the recessive lethality associated with most of the dominant enhancers of gl by back-crossing  $F_1$  heterozygous females (genotype:  $w^{1118}$ ;  $E(gl)/E(gl)^+ P[w^+]$ , in a  $gl^3$  homozygous background) to males carrying a mutation in the same lethal E(gl) complementation group (using a different allele, when available) of the genotype  $w^{1118}$ ; E(gl)/balancer and then scoring the eye color phenotypes of the nonbalancer progeny. The scale of our mapping experiments and the distribution of the white<sup>+</sup> markers were such that the resulting positions are accurate to only  $\pm 5$  cM.

Mosaic clone analysis: Mutants were crossed to the marker stocks described above, as appropriate to their map positions. To induce mitotic recombination, heterozygous F<sub>1</sub> progeny in the early first instar were treated with  $\gamma$ -rays from a <sup>137</sup>Cs source (1000 Rad) or X-rays (1000 Rad at 120 kv, 5 mA). Adults were then screened for mosaic clones in the eye, marked by a lack of retinal pigment. Heads of such flies were fixed and embedded in resin, and  $3-\mu m$  retinal sections were cut as described by TOMLINSON and READY (1987a). The sections were examined and photographed using phase contrast lenses.

Electron microscopy, cuticle preparation, and histochemistry: Scanning electron microscopy was performed as described (MOSES et al. 1989). Embryonic cuticles were prepared as described in WIESCHAUS and NÜSSLEIN-VOLHARD (1986). Embryos were stained as described by DEQUIN et al. (1984). The antibody used for embryonic central nervous system staining was mAb BP102, gift of C. GOODMAN (HORTSCH et al. 1990). The antibody used for embryonic peripheral nervous system staining was mAb 22C10, gift of S. L. ZIPURSKY (FUIITA et al. 1982). Eye imaginal discs were stained as described by TOMLINSON and READY (1987b) as modified by MA et al. (1993). Antibodies used were anti-Elav, from the University of Iowa developmental biology hybridoma bank (BIER et al. 1988), anti-Hairy, gift of S. CARROLL (CARROLL and WHYTE 1989), anti-Scabrous, gift of N. E. BAKER (MLODZIK et al. 1990a), and anti-Dpp, gift of F. M. HOFFMANN (PANGANIBAN et al. 1990).

Genomic DNA blots: DNA was isolated from adults as described (MOSES et al. 1989). The DNA was digested with six restriction endonucleases, BamHI, EcoRI, HindIII, PstI, SacI



FIGURE 1.—External retinal morphologies of E(gl) mutants. All panels are SEMs of adult retinas. Anterior is to the right and dorsal is up. All panels are to the same scale, bar in A, 100  $\mu$ m. (A) Wild type. (B)  $gl^3$  homozygote. (C)  $gl^{60j}$  homozygote, a null allele. D-F are examples of E(gl) heterozygotes in a  $gl^3$  homozygous background. (D) E(gl)2D, a weak enhancer, (E)  $h^{SCGI}$ , an intermediate strength enhancer, (F) E(gl)3C, a strong enhancer.

and *Xho*I, then run on agarose gels and transferred to nitrocellulose. Blots were hybridized to <sup>32</sup>P nick-translated probes covering the genomic region of the *hh* gene from a *Hin*dIII site at -5.5 kb to the *Eco*RI site at +16.4 kb, position numbers as LEE *et al.* (1992).

## RESULTS

**Mutant screens:** The compound eyes of  $gl^3$  homozygotes have a phenotype that is intermediate between that of wild type and that of a gl null (compare Figure 1B with 1A and 1C). We recovered 76 dominant enhancers of  $gl^3$  in a total of ~455,000 F<sub>1</sub> flies: 49 EMSinduced mutants (in ~282,000), 24  $\gamma$ -ray-induced mutants (in  $\sim$ 113,000), and three dysgenic mutants (in  $\sim$ 60,000) (see MATERIALS AND METHODS). No dominant suppressors were found. Seventy of the mutations are homozygous lethal when cultured at 25°. One mutation was found to be temperature sensitive, and the homozygotes are viable at 18°. Pair-wise complementation tests were used to assign the E(gl) mutations to 23 complementation groups. Figure 1 shows external views of the dominant modified-eye phenotypes of one weak, one intermediate and one strong E(gl) complementation group (shown in a  $gl^3$  homozygous background). The

meiotic map position of each E(gl) complementation group was determined relative to several transgenic Pelements carrying a *white*<sup>+</sup> gene (see Tables 1 and 2, Figure 2 and MATERIALS AND METHODS).

Mutations in genes that are not functionally related to gl may be recovered in this screen, and secondary tests were required to eliminate such false positives. Such extraneous genes can be recovered through the neomorphic or antimorphic mutation of genes with products that do not normally act in the gl pathway. These mutations are inherently rare and are usually recovered as the sole allele in a complementation group. Indeed, the single hairy allele appears to be antimorphic (see below). All E(gl) mutations were compared to known loss-of-function alleles of the same gene, whenever possible. Also haplo-insufficient, dominant rough eye mutations (such as Star) may have a simple additive effect with the rough eye mutation  $gl^3$ and thus appear in our screen. To test for such nonspecific interactions, members of each complementation group were crossed to wild type (Canton-S), and their progeny were examined for dominant eye phenotypes in this  $gl^+/gl^3$  background. Mutations in seven of the E(gl) loci show this phenotype and thus are not consid-

Name	Abbreviation	Polytene	Мар	Reference <sup>a</sup>
P[(w,ry)F] 4-2	2-I	21D	2-0	1
P[(w,ry)D]1	2-II	25C	2-15	1
P[(w,ry)A]N22	2-III	30C	2-34	2
P[(w,ry)A] 1-1	2-IV	47A	2-60	2
P[(w,ry)F] 4-1	2-V	57B	2-95	1
P[(w,ry)A-	(w,ry)A- 3-I 66E		3-17	2
P[(w,ry)H] 1	<i>y</i> , <i>r</i> ) <i>H</i> ] <i>1</i> 3-II 78CD 3-46		3-46	1
<i>P</i> [ <i>w</i> ] 21 3-III 89A		89A	3-58	2
P[(w,ry)D] 3 3-IV 90E		3-62	1	
P[(w,ry)E] 7	3-V	94D	3-81	1
P[(w,ry)A] 4-4	3-VI	100F	3-108	2

TABLE 1 Pelement insertion markers

<sup>a</sup> 1, R. LEVIS and G. M. RUBIN, unpublished results; 2, HAZELRIGG et al. (1984).

ered to be specific enhancers of gl (see "Specific Enhancer" column in Table 2).

The  $gl^3$  mutation was spontaneously induced (CSIK 1929) and is associated with an insertion of 2.5 kb near the 5' end of the gene (which may be a transposable element) (MOSES et al. 1989). It may be possible for a second-site enhancer mutation to identify a gene that interacts with  $gl^3$  through regulatory effects on the insertion, and that itself does not have any normal function in eye development. An example of such an interaction is that between a gypsy-induced allele of Hairy wing and mutations at the suppressor of Hairy wing [su(Hw)] locus (PARKHURST and CORCES 1986; PARKH-URST et al. 1988; HOOVER et al. 1992; HARRISON et al. 1993; SHEN et al. 1994; SMITH and CORCES 1995). To rule out such allele-specific interactions, members of each complementation group were crossed to two other weak gl alleles:  $gl^{BX9}$  (induced by X-rays) and  $gl^{B24}$  (induced by EMS) and that are unlikely to harbor the same transposon as  $gl^3$ . By this test we found that none of the mutations discovered in our screen interacts specifically with the  $gl^3$  allele alone. As the homozygous hypomorphic phenotype of  $gl^3$  is stronger when placed in trans to a null allele, we could (and did) recover a new gl mutation in this screen (see below).

The most direct test of the function of a gene in eye development is to examine the homozygous phenotype of null mutations of that gene alone, in an otherwise wild-type genetic background. For homozygous lethal mutations, this can only be done through the examination of homozygous somatic mosaic clones. To examine the retinal phenotypes of the recessive lethal mutations (in a  $gl^+$  genetic background), we made retinal mosaic clones of members of each complementation group that were marked with white and examined them in adults by sectioning and microscopy (see MATERIALS AND METHODS). Of the 18 genes that can mutate to recessive lethality, 13 showed retinal phenotypes in this test (see below and Table 2). We also examined the embryonic phenotypes of members of each recessive lethal complementation group by embryo cuticle preparation and by immunohistochemical staining of the nervous system (see below).

**Characterization of identified loci:** Six complementation groups were identified based on their mutant phenotypes, map positions, and complementation tests with mutations of known genes. They are *Delta*, *glass*, *hairy*, *hedgehog*, *roughened eye* and *Star* (Table 2).

**Delta** (*Dl*): *Dl* encodes a protein with transmembrane domain and EGF-like repeats (KOPCZYNSKI et al. 1988; ALTON *et al.* 1989). In the eye, ommatidia formed by cells homozygous for weak *Dl* loss-of-function alleles contain an increased number of rhabdomere-bearing cells (which are likely to be photoreceptor cells) (DIE-TRICH and CAMPOS-ORTEGA 1984), and *Dl* plays a role (with *Notch* and *scabrous*) in spacing the array of ommatidial preclusters in the morphogenetic furrow (BAKER and ZITRON 1995).

**glass** (gl):  $gl^{SCGI}$  is associated with a lethal deletion between polytene bands 90F and 91F (data not shown). gl is located in 91A1-2, and  $gl^{SCGI}$  fails to complement the lethality associated with three extant lethal gl deletions:  $Df(3R)gl^{BX3}$ ,  $Df(3R)gl^{BX7}$ , and  $Df(3R)gl^{BX8}$  (Moses *et al.* 1989).

*hairy* (*h*): Homozygotes of  $h^{SCGI}$  show a typical *h* cuticular pair-rule phenotype (NÜSSLEIN-VOLHARD and WIESCHAUS 1980; INGHAM et al. 1985) and fail to complement the lethality associated with two known h alleles  $(h^{5H07} \text{ and } h^{CI})$ . Ommatidia that are homozygous for  $h^{SCGI}$  (in retinal mosaic clones, Figure 3G) are often missing rhabdomere-bearing cells (20% of such ommatidia). h encodes a basic helix-loop-helix (bHLH) family transcription factor (MURRE et al. 1989; RUSHLOW et al. 1989). H protein is normally expressed anterior to the morphogenetic furrow in the developing eye, and ectopic expression of h can alter retinal cell fates (CAR-ROLL and WHYTE 1989). However, homozygous h retinal mosaic clones show no mutant phenotype (BROWN et al. 1991), and it is likely that H acts redundantly in the developing eye to regulate other bHLH proteins (BROWN et al. 1995; HEBERLEIN and MOSES 1995). We showed that a h null mutation is not a dominant en-

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# TABLE 2

## Summary of the Enhancer-of-glass mutations

Gene	Allele(s)"	Map position <sup>b</sup>	Distance from left flanking w <sup>+</sup> marker <sup>e</sup>	Distance from right flanking w <sup>+</sup> marker <sup>e</sup>	Specific enhancer	Lethal	Note
Dl	SC1	3-66			No	Ves	
øl	SCG1	3-63			Vec	Ver	
h h	SCG1	3-26			Ver	Vec	Antimorph
hh	SC1-SC21	3-20 8-81			Ves	Vee	Anumorph One sight all the second second
1070	SCGLSCG5	5-01			165	ies	One viable allele, one temperature-sensitive
**** <i>a</i>	SC01-5C02	9 47					
nue S	501	3-47			Yes	No	
3	SCG1-SCG12 SCG1-SCG12 SCP1-SCP3	2-1.3			No	Yes	
E(gl) 2A	SC1	2-24	2-II, 6 cM (16/271)	2-III, 10 cM (22/212)	Yes	Yes	No obvious retinal <sup>d</sup> or embryonic' defects.
Ор1	SC1	2-50	2-III, 21 cM (18/87)	2-IV, 10 cM (9/93)	No	Yes	No obvious embryonic' defects. Homeotic phenotypes in some retinal <sup>d</sup> clones (Figure 7). Other retinal clones contain ommatidia with both increased and decreased numbers of rhabdomeres
							(average number 6.8, Figure 3B)
E(gl) 2B	SC1	2-65	2-IV, 4 cM (6/142)	2-V, 25 cM (75/305)	Yes	Yes	No obvious retinal <sup>4</sup> or embryonic <sup>4</sup> defects.
E(gl) 2C	SC1	2-65	2-IV, 5 cM (3/63)	2-V, 33 cM (15/45)	Yes	Yes	No obvious embryonic' defects. Retinal clones <sup>d</sup> contain ommatidia with both increased and decreased numbers of rhabdomeres (average number 8.1, Figure 3C)
E(gl) 2D	SC1	2-70	2-IV, 11 cM (46/408)	2-V, 38 cM (76/200)	Yes	Yes	No obvious embryonic' defects. Retinal clones <sup>d</sup> contain ommatidia with both increased and decreased numbers of rhabdomeres (average number 7.9). Also 67% of the ommatidia are miss-oriented Figure 3D)
E(gl) 2E	SC1	2-70	2-IV, 10 cM (18/174)	2-V, 23 cM (44/190)	Yes	Yes	No obvious retinal <sup>d</sup> or embryonic' defects.
E(gl) 2F	SC1	2-70	2-IV, 11 cM (25/227)	2-V, 30 cM (80/268)	Yes	Yes	No obvious embryonic' defects. Retinal clone <sup>4</sup> contain rare ommatidia with decreased numbers of rhabdomeres (average number 7.9, Figure 3E)
E(gl) 2G	SC1	2-70	2-IV, 11 cM (15/141)	2-V, 31 cM (80/255)	No	Yes	No obvious retinal <sup>4</sup> or embryonic' defects.
E(gl) 2H	SC1	2-97/	2-IV, 40 cM (72/182)	2-V, 2 cM (4/189)	Yes	No	No obvious retinal <sup>d</sup> defects.
Pas	SC1	3-0/	3-I, 26 cM (62/239)	3-II, 44 cM (131/298)	No	Yes	Embryonic nervous system defects, dominant retinal <sup>d</sup> defects (see text)
dog	SC1, SC2	3-42	3-I, 15 cM (44/258)	3-II, 4 cM (14/320)	Yes	Yes	No obvious embryonic' defects, required by all retinal <sup>4</sup> cells (see text).
E(gl) 3A	SC1	3-43	3-II, 43 cM (74/173)	3-II, 3 cM	Yes	No	No obvious retinal <sup><math>d</math></sup> defects.
Roa	SCG1	8-45	3-11 1 cM	8.III 14 cM	No	Vee	No obvious embryonic' defects dominant
100	0001	0 10	(1/166)	(39/999)		ICS	retinal <sup>d</sup> defects (see text)
Oab	SCG1	3-46	3-II, 0 cM	3-III, 11 cM	No	Yes	No obvious embryonic' defects, dominant
E(gl) 3B	SCG1	3-81	(0/77) 3-V, 0 cM (0/69)	(4/38) 3-VI, 2 cM (3/185)	Yes	Yes	No obvious embryonic' defects. Retinal clones <sup>4</sup> contain rare ommatidia with decreased numbers of rhabdomeres (average number 7.9, Figure 3L)
E(gl) 3C	SCG1	3-99	3-V, 19 cM (50/267)	3-VI, 24 cM (52/213)	Yes	No	Homozygous adult retinas lack 2% of the ommatidia, and the surviving ommatidia occasionally have both increased and decreased numbers of rhabdomeres (average numbers 6 5 Furses 30)
E(gl) 3D	SC1, SCG1	3-108	3-V, 26 cM (25/98)	3-VI, 0 cM (0/47)	Yes	Yes	Embryonic nervous system defects (Figure 8). No obvious retinal <sup>d</sup> defects.

<sup>a</sup> EMS alleles are listed as SC numbers.  $\gamma$ -ray induced alleles are listed as SCG numbers. Hybrid-dysgenesis induced alleles are listed as SCP numbers.

<sup>b</sup> The map positions of known genes are taken as published in LINDSLEY and ZIMM (1992).

'In each case, the abbreviated name of the marker is given first, then the estimated map distance to it in cM, and then the number of recombinants per total number in parentheses. <sup>d</sup> The retinal phenotypes of lethal genes were examined in adults in negatively marked mosaic clones, see MATERIALS AND

METHODS.

'The embryonic cuticular and nervous system phenotypes of homozygous embryos were examined, see MATERIALS AND METH-ODS.

<sup>f</sup>Gene is distal to the outer marker, thus the two closest proximal markers were used.



FIGURE 2.—Genetic map of E(gl) mutations and mapping markers. The two heavy lines marked 2 and 3 represent the second and third chromosomes of *D. melanogaster*. Below each chromosome are the positions of the transgenic  $w^+$ mapping insertions used (see Table 1 and MATERI-ALS AND METHODS). Above each chromosome are shown the positions and names of all autosomal E(gl) mutations recovered (see Table 2). Genes with multiple alleles are boxed.

hancer of  $gl^3$  (by examining the genotype  $h^{Cl}/h^+$ ;  $gl^3/gl^3$ ), and it appears that  $h^{SCGl}$  is a rare antimorphic allele ( $h^{SCGl}$  homozygous embryos have a more extreme phenotype than that of a null mutation) (NADEAN BROWN and SEAN CARROLL, personal communication).

hedgehog (hh): We recovered 26 alleles of hh as dominant enhancers of  $gl^3$  (21 induced by EMS, and five induced by  $\gamma$ -rays, see Table 2), as confirmed by their embryonic segment polarity phenotype, map position and failure to complement the lethality associated with a known hh null allele,  $hh^{AC}$  (LEE et al. 1992). hh is a zygotic segment polarity gene (NÜSSLEIN-VOLHARD and WIESCHAUS 1980), which has nonautonomous effects on neighboring cells in the developing embryo and elsewhere (MOHLER 1988). hh encodes a secreted and cleaved protein, which comprises an extracellular signal (LEE et al. 1992; MOHLER and VANI 1992; TABATA et al. 1992; TASHIRO et al. 1993; LEE et al. 1994; BUMCROT et al. 1995; MARTÍ et al. 1995; PORTER et al. 1995). hh homologues have been found to act in several aspects of vertebrate development, including the eye (SMITH 1994; CONCORDET and INGHAM 1995; EKKER et al. 1995).

One of the  $\gamma$ -induced *hh* alleles (*hh*<sup>152</sup>) is temperature sensitive. The coding sequence of *hh*<sup>152</sup> has been determined, and it shows a replacement of seven amino acid residues by five others (PORTER *et al.* 1995). We have found that *hh* is expressed posterior to the morphogenetic furrow, and that it is required for the progression of the furrow (MA *et al.* 1993), where it appears to act through the TGF $\beta$  homologue *decapentaplegic* (*dpp*). These results are consistent with the effects of *hh* in retinal mosaic clones (HEBERLEIN *et al.* 1993b; MA *et al.* 1993), and ectopic Hh expression anterior to the furrow is sufficient for furrow initiation (HEBERLEIN and MOSES 1995; HEBERLEIN *et al.* 1995).

Another of the  $\gamma$ -induced *hh* alleles (*hh*<sup>furrow stops early</sup> or *hh*<sup>fse</sup>) is homozygous viable with no embryonic defects. Homozygous  $hh^{fse}$  animals have a kidney-shaped eye that is very similar to the first hh mutation discovered, bar-3 (now known as  $hh^{1}$ ). We examined developing eye imaginal discs from  $hh^{fse}$  homozygous (Figure 4) and found that the phenotype is indistinguishable from that of bar-3: the furrow stops early (HEBERLEIN et al. 1993b). The bar-3 mutation is associated with a 1.7-kb deletion in the first intron of the hh transcription unit (LEE et al. 1992). We examined genomic DNA from hh<sup>fse</sup> and compared it to its progenitor chromosome and to bar-3 by genomic DNA gel blot. Four of six restriction enzymes used reveal the presence of a new 0.8- to 1-kb deletion associated with  $hh^{fse}$  (data not shown). This new deletion overlaps with that of bar-3 (Figure 5).

roughened eye (roe): roe<sup>SCI</sup> homozygotes are viable and show defects in the eyes, wings, and legs. The eyes are rough and reduced in size (Figure 6A) with variable and



FIGURE 3.—Retinal sections of E(gl) mutants in a  $gl^3/gl^+$  genetic background. All panels are shown as the dorsal half of the right eye. Anterior is to the right and dorsal is up. All panels are to the same scale, bar in A, 5  $\mu$ m. (A) Wild type. B–L are mosaic clones that are homozygous for E(gl) mutations and are marked with  $w^-$ . (B) Opl, (C) E(gl)2C, (D) E(gl)2D, (E) E(gl)2F, (F) Pas, (G)  $h^{SCGI}$ , (H)  $dog^{SCI}$ , (I) Roa, anterior clone, (J) Roa, posterior clone, (K) Oab, (L) E(gl)3B. (M) Roa heterozygote (anterior region of the eye), (N) Oab heterozygote, (O) E(gl)3C homozygote. Arrowheads show abnormally oriented ommatidia, open arrows show ommatidia with extra rhabdomere-bearing cells, arrows show ommatidia with reduced numbers of rhabdomere-bearing cells, white asterisks show the positions of missing ommatidia.

reduced numbers of photoreceptors in almost all ommatidia (Figure 6B). The wings are short, with the distal part deleted (compare Figure 6, C and D), and the legs are also short due to the fusion of tarsal segments (compare Figure 6, E and F). These phenotypes are similar to those of some mutations in dpp (SPENCER et al. 1982) and dachshund (dac) (MARDON et al. 1994), which are known to affect the morphogenetic furrow (HEBERLEIN and MOSES 1995). roe mutations have also been recovered as dominant enhancers of  $N^{spl}$  (BRAND and CAMPOS-ORTEGA 1990). roe<sup>SCI</sup> maps close to the rotund (rn) and roe loci (KERRIDGE and THOMAS-CAVALLIN 1988; AGNEL et al. 1989, 1992). Complementation tests were carried out between  $roe^{SCI}$  and  $rn^5$  (a strong rotund mutation), and  $rn^{20}$ (a deletion in the *rotund* region that also includes *roe*) (R. GRIFFIN-SHEA, personal communication).  $roe^{SCI}/rn^5$  flies show the same wing and leg defect as described above.  $roe^{SCI}/rn^{20}$  flies show small and rough eye phenotype in addition to the wing and leg defect. This eye phenotype is the same as that caused by roe mutations, which are

adjacent to rn (AGNEL et al. 1989). We found that roe<sup>1</sup>,  $roe^3$ , and  $roe^4$  fail to complement the small and rough eve phenotype of roe<sup>SCI</sup>. Therefore, roe<sup>SCI</sup> lesion inactivates both *rn* and *roe*. The *roe* mutation is responsible for the enhancement of gl phenotype, since while  $roe^1$ ,  $roe^3$ ,  $roe^4$ and the deletion of the region  $(m^{20})$  are all dominant enhancers of the phenotype of  $gl^3$ , the strong *m* allele  $(m^5)$  is not. Thus *roe* and *rn* show complex complementation, and it is possible that they are two classes of mutation of the same gene, each of them disrupting a subfunction: class I represented by roe<sup>1</sup>, roe<sup>3</sup> and roe<sup>4</sup> and class II represented by  $m^5$ , and several more alleles in these classes exist (LINDSLEY and ZIMM 1992).  $me^{SCI}$  and the  $m^{20}$  deletion disrupt both classes. There are several transcripts from this genomic location (AGNEL et al. 1992). However, some roe and rn alleles are separable by meiotic recombination, and we found 0.023% recombinants between  $roe^{1}$ and  $m^5$  (1/4267 recombinant/total progeny).

**Star** (S): S mutations are haplo-insufficient dominants with a rough eye phenotype (RENFRANZ and BE-



FIGURE 4.— $hh^{fse}$  mutant phenotypes. All panels are third instar eye-imaginal discs. Anterior is to the right and dorsal is up. All panels are to the same scale, bar in A, 100  $\mu$ m. V's show the position of the furrow. A–C are wild type. D–F are  $hh^{fse}$  homozygotes. A and D are stained to show the expression of Elav (black) and Hairy (brown) (see MATERIALS AND METHODS). B and E are stained to show Elav (black) and Scabrous (brown) (see MATERIALS AND METHODS). C and F are stained to show Dpp (see MATERIALS AND METHODS). Note, in  $hh^{fse}$  mutants, overly mature clusters are seen at the furrow, and Scabrous and Dpp expression are repressed.

NZER 1989) and are recessive lethal, due to an essential embryonic function in ventral midline development. *S* is one of six genes in the "*spitz*" group (NÜSSLEIN-VOLHARD *et al.* 1984; MAYER and NÜSSLEIN-VOLHARD 1988), and *S* encodes a possible transmembrane protein, required for the prospective photoreceptor cells to differentiate as neurons (HEBERLEIN and RUBIN 1991; HEBERLEIN *et al.* 1993a; KOLODKIN *et al.* 1994).

**Characterization of unidentified loci:** We were unable to assign mutations at 17 loci to known comple-



FIGURE 5.—Map of the *hh* genomic locus. The heavy line represents genomic DNA, coordinates in kb, and the structure of the transcript are after LEE *et al.* (1992). The deletions associated with *bar-3* and *hh*<sup>fse</sup> are shown. End-point uncertainty is shown by the open box for  $hh^{fse}$ .

mentation groups, and of these, 15 are represented by only one allele (Table 2 and Figure 2). Nine of them are on the second chromosome, and eight are on the third (none lie on the fourth). We have named some of them according to their mutant phenotype and the rest are identified only by the generic E(gl) with the chromosome number and a letter as a specific suffix (e.g., E(gl)2A) (see Table 2).

**Opthalmopedia-like (Opl):** We examined homozygous Opl tissue in negatively marked  $(w^-)$  retinal mosaics, and in some cases (3/15 clones in one experiment) the mutant retinal tissue was transformed into an appendage-like extrusion (Figure 7). We cut thin sections of five mosaic retinal clones, in which no such transformation was seen. Of these, two show no obvious defects, and in three  $\sim 70\%$  of *Opl* homozygous ommatidia (32/ 46 examined) show reduced numbers of photoreceptor cell rhabdomeres, and one ommatidium (in 46) had an extra cell (an overall average of 6.8 rhabdomeres, Figure 3B).

Partial sevenless (Pas): Pas homozygotes die as late



FIGURE 6.— *roe* phenotypes. A is an SEM of the adult retina of  $roe^{SCI}/rn^{20}$  ( $rn^{20}$  is a deletion of the region). Anterior is to the right, dorsal is up. Bar, 100  $\mu$ m. B is a section of an eye of the same genotype as A. Anterior is to the right, dorsal is up. Bar, 5  $\mu$ m. Note the reduced numbers of rhabdomere-bearing cells. C and D are whole mounts of wings. Bar, 500  $\mu$ m. E and F are whole mounts of first male legs. Bar, 100  $\mu$ m. Ta, tarsal segments; V, sex combs. C and E are wild type, and D and F are  $roe^{SCI}$  homozygotes. Note the shortened wing and fused tarsi.

embryos, with defects in their nervous systems (Figure 8, E and F). In a  $gl^+/gl^3$  genetic background, *Pas* shows a dominant effect: ~40% (123/321) of the ommatidia in a *Pas* heterozygote lack the apical central photoreceptor rhabdomere, appearing to be "sevenless", and often also one or more outer cells (average is 6.1 rhabdomere-bearing cells per ommatidium). We examined homozygous *Pas* tissue in three negatively marked  $(w^-)$  retinal mosaics, and we found that the average number of rhabdomere-bearing cells per ommatidium is also 6.1 (Figure 3F).

dog of glass (dog): dog heterozygous flies are sick (*sic.*), and heterozygotes have much shorter life span than that of wild-type flies. We examined homozygous, negatively marked  $(w^-)$  retinal mosaic clones for both  $dog^{SC1}$  and  $dog^{SC2}$  (six and two clones, respectively), and we found that dog is absolutely required for the development of all the retinal cells, as no  $w^-$  photoreceptor or pigment cells remain (Figure 3H). It is thus likely that



FIGURE 7.—*Opl* mosaic clones transform retinal tissue to another fate. A and B are SEMs of two examples of homozygous mosaic clones of *Opl* in a heterozygous background. Anterior is to the right and dorsal is up. Bar, 100  $\mu$ m. Note bizarre objects growing from the clones.

dog is recessive cell-lethal. In the center of the mosaic tissue, there are no ommatidia and along the periphery there are abnormal ommatidia with reduced numbers of rhabdomere-bearing cells. We scored 189 rhabdomere-bearing cells in 50 such ommatidia and found that all the rhabdomere-bearing cells carry pigment granules, marking them as  $dog^+$ . Homozygous dog retinal clones are associated with vacuoles in the underlying lamina region of the optic lobe of the brain (data not shown).

**Rough anteriorly (Roa):** Roa heterozygotes show a dominant retinal mutant phenotype (in a  $gl^+/gl^3$  background): the anterior half of the eye is rough, flattened and devoid of bristles. Sections of the mutant region show that there are only sparse ommatidia isolated by massive pigment cells (Figure 3M). Forty percent of the remaining ommatidia contain reduced numbers of rhabdomere-bearing cells (average number is 4.3). Because the anterior part of the eye in a *Roa* heterozygote is mutant, we analyzed *Roa* homozygous clones in the anterior and posterior parts of the eye separately. Anterior *Roa* homozygous clones have a phenotype that is very similar to that of the heterozygous tissue (Figure 3I). Posterior homozygous *Roa* clones show no mutant phenotype (Figure 3J).

**Orientation abnormal (Oab):** Oab heterozygotes show a dominant retinal mutant phenotype (in a  $gl^+/gl^3$  background): a slightly rough eye. We cut sections of these eyes, and we found that the orientations of ~23% (56/ 245) of the mutant ommatidia are randomized and the normally regular array of ommatidia is disrupted (Figure 3N). We also examined two negatively marked (w) retinal mosaics, and we found similar defects: ~30% (15/49) of the mutant ommatidia showed an orientation defect (Figure 3K).

Tests of mutations in candidate genes as dominant modifiers of *gl*: As mutations of two segmentation genes (*hedgehog* and *hairy*) were recovered as dominant



FIGURE 8.—Embryonic phenotypes of two E(gl) mutations. Late embryos are shown; all panels are to the same scale. Bar in A, 100  $\mu$ m. Anterior is to the left. A, C and E are ventral views of embryos stained with mAb BP102 to show the central nervous system (CNS) (see MATERIALS AND METHODS). B, D and F are lateral views, ventral down, of embryos stained with mAb 22C10 to show the peripheral nervous system (PNS). A and B are wild type. C and D are E(gl)3D homozygotes. Note the commisural failures in the CNS and the neural hypertrophy in the PNS. E and F are *Pas* homozygotes. Note the commisural failures in the CNS and the neural disruption in the PNS.

enhancers of gl, we tested 25 known autosomal genes (see MATERIALS AND METHODS) for this genetic interaction. We constructed genotypes that are heterozygous for each of the 25 individual segmentation mutations and homozygous for  $gl^3$ . None of them was a dominant modifier of  $gl^3$ . However, we found that although  $ptc^{IN}$ mutation does not modify the  $gl^3$  homozygous phenotype, it does suppress the rough eye phenotype caused by the  $hh^{ls2}$  mutation, which is a dominant enhancer of gl (MA et al. 1993; MA and MOSES 1995). In the course of the EMS screen, we recovered nine alleles of Notch (N), which were not retained. We constructed the genotypes  $N^{spl}/N^+$ ;  $gl^3/gl^3$  and  $N^{ts}/N^+$ ;  $gl^3/gl^3$  and found that loss-of-function N alleles are dominant enhancers of gl. While we do not know if null alleles of Dl are enhancers of gl, this appears unlikely, as we only recovered one *Dl* allele in this screen.

#### DISCUSSION

In this screen we set out to isolate autosomal secondsite dominant modifiers of the phenotype of a weak *gl* allele. Such a screen might have been expected to de-

tect genes that act to regulate gl activity. We recovered 76 mutations in 23 genes, as well as nine alleles of Notch (N, which were not retained), and these fall broadly into two groups: genes for which a large number of alleles were recovered (N, S and hh) and genes at which only one or two were found (all the rest). Enough is known of the molecular biology of N, S and hh to state that while these genes clearly play crucial roles in eye development, they do not interact with gl in a direct way. N, S and hh are all involved in the function of the morphogenetic furrow. N is required for the correct spacing of neurons in the furrow and later functions (CAGAN and READY 1989; BAKER and ZITRON 1995). S is required for the correct recruitment of those photoreceptor cells that immediately follow the founding R8 cell (HEBERLEIN and RUBIN 1991) and is likely to be involved in the EGF receptor pathway (KOLODKIN et al. 1994). hh encodes a diffusible signal that is produced in differentiating photoreceptor cells behind the furrow and acts to induce more anterior cells to enter the furrow (HEBERLEIN et al. 1993b, 1995; MA et al. 1993; HEBERLEIN and MOSES 1995). Thus all three of these genes are required for the normal specification and

differentiation of photoreceptor cells, and in that (indirect) sense, they act upstream of gl. It is worth noting that a screen for genes that interact with N in the eye recovered alleles of gl as well as other loci identified in this screen (*roe* and Dl) (BRAND and CAMPOS-ORTEGA 1990). For the most other loci detected in this screen, we do not yet have sufficient information to determine their biochemical relationship to gl.

It is thought that the photoreceptor cell specific activity of gl is due to a negative factor that binds to a DNA sequence adjacent to that of the Gl protein-binding site (ELLIS *et al.* 1993). If this is the case, the negative factor itself must be either be expressed only in the nonphotoreceptor cells, or it must be downregulated in the photoreceptor cells as they differentiate. Because that factor has not been identified yet, these possibilities remain open. One would expect loss-of-function mutations in this gene to be dominant suppressor of gl. However, we did not recover any dominant suppressor mutations. It is possible that one of the single-hit E(gl)mutations is a gain-of-function mutation of such a gene.

Why were mutations at 21 loci detected at a 10-fold lower frequency than N, S and hh? It could simply be that the level of saturation in this screen was insufficient to detect many genes. This is unlikely, based on three criteria: the number of control mutations recovered in the white gene, the number of recessive lethals induced on the X chromosome in control experiments, and the curves seen when the number of loci and the number of mutations are plotted against the number of flies screened. In this screen the mutagenized males' third chromosomes carried a transgenic copy of white, and as they were crossed to white mutant females, new white alleles could easily be detected in the F1 (and tested for true-breeding in the  $F_1$  males). In the course of these screens, we recovered 70 true-breeding white alleles. The white gene is not known for hypermutability with EMS or radiation, and thus this large number argues strongly for a high degree of saturation. The average frequency of X-linked lethal mutations in the EMS screens was 14%, and in the  $\gamma$ -ray screens it was 5%. The total number of flies inspected in those screens were 282,000 and 113,000, respectively. Assuming that there are  $\sim 1000$  vital genes on the X chromosome, the average number of mutations per locus was 39 in the EMS screens and six in the  $\gamma$ -ray screens. Plotting the number of mutations recovered in the screens against the number of F1 flies screened (open circles and solid line in Figure 9) yields a constantly increasing linear relationship. When we plot the number of genes against the number of flies screened (filled circles and dotted line in Figure 9), a much lower slope is seen and the lines cross. Perhaps the simplest explanation of these data are that there are two classes of potential targets in this (and perhaps any) genetic screen: those loci at which a simple loss-of-function mutation will produce the required phenotype (in this case N, S and hh), and those loci at which only a rare more complex mutation



FIGURE 9.—Graph showing screen saturation. Abscissa is the number of  $F_1$  progeny screened. Ordinate is the number of genes ( $\bullet$ ) and mutations ( $\bigcirc$ ). Left of the vertical dashed line, the mutagen was EMS. Right of the vertical dashed line, the mutagen was  $\gamma$ -rays. Hybrid-dysgenic screen data are not shown. Two lines were fitted by eye: the solid line through the open circles and the dotted line through the filled circles. Note that these two lines intersect (see text).

can yield the required phenotypic effect (this class could include a vast number of genes). This may be true in many cases for the 22 one- or two-hit loci we recovered. Indeed, the one allele of h appears to behave as an antimorph.

In some cases three other factors may produce a paucity of mutations. Mutations at some loci are subviable, even as heterozygotes. In this screen both *dog* mutations are subviable as heterozygotes. Thus many potential *dog* mutant  $F_1$  flies may simply not have survived to be detected in the screens. Mutations at some loci have only very weak effects (low expressivity), for example E(gl)2D(Figure 1D). Such mutations are difficult to detect (by definition) and may often be missed. Similarly, some loci may produce variable phenotypes (low penetrance) and thus can also be missed in the  $F_1$ .

Several of the E(gl) mutations have intriguing phenotypes. The subviability of *dog* heterozygotes may suggest that the gene encodes a dose-sensitive function required for cell viability. The specificity of its interaction with *gl* might suggest that this function is associated with zinc finger transcription factors. The homeotic transformation seen in the homozygous *Opl* clones may be toward wing fates. This may correlate to the observation from disc transplantation experiments, that eye imaginal disc tissue can most easily transform to wing (HADORN 1968). Further studies of these, and other loci from these screens, may produce new insights into Drosophila retinal development in the future.

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