THE GENETIC IDENTIFICATION OF A HETEROCHROMATIC SEGMENT ON THE X CHROMOSOME OF DROSOPHILA MELANOGASTER¹

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ABSTRACT

An autosomal euchromatic maternal-effect mutant, abo (= abnormal oocyte), interacts with, or regulates the activity of, the heterochromatin of the sex chromosomes of *Drosophila melanogaster*. It is shown that this interaction or regulation with the X chromosome involves a specific heterochromatic locus or small region that maps to the distal penultimate one-eighth of the basal X-chromosome heterochromatic segment.

A LTHOUGH the basal heterochromatin of the X chromosome of Drosophila melanogaster (symbol: Xh) is large both cytologically (COOPER 1959) and in DNA content (RUDKIN 1965), of the hundreds of loci identified on the X chromosome only bb (bobbed), NO (the nucleolus organizer) and conceivably su(f) (suppressor of forked) are located in the heterochromatic region (LINDSLEY and GRELL 1968). Recently, a new genetic property of Xh has been demonstrated (SANDLER 1970). It was shown that females homozygous for an autosomal recessive maternal-effect mutant, abo (abnormal oocyte), produce eggs whose probability of supporting zygotic development increases with increasing numbers of either the Y chromosome or doses of Xh present in either the mutant mother or in her abo^+ progeny. In this report we show that there is a specific locus or small region of Xh (symbol: Xh^{abo}) responsible for this rescue that maps to the distal six-eighths to seven-eighths of the basal X heterochromatin.

The basic experiment diagnostic of *abo* is as follows: sister *abo/abo* and *abo/+* females carrying normal X chromosomes are crossed with abo^+/abo^+ males carrying an attached-XY chromosome and no other sex chromosome. The regular progeny, that is, those that receive a single maternal X chromosome, can be either X/XY females or X/0 males according to the sex chromosome constitution of the fertilizing sperm: X/XY female offspring of homozygous *abo* mothers survive 70 percent as often as in the control, while the X/0 male offspring of mutant mothers survive only 6 percent as well as in the control. The relative survival of these two classes is expressed as " δ -recovery" which is defined as the ratio of the sex-ratios in experimental and control sets (see footnote \P , Table 1). A mapping of the region of Xh responsible for rescuing eggs from

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TABLE 1

				Frequency	Type of p Regular		
Duplication	Size*	bb	su(f)‡	exceptions	у В♀♀ + ♂♂	Exceptional B♀♀ ア♂♂	♂ -recovery¶
NONE				_	C 7066 9760		0.12
					E 4763 810		
Dp(1;f)1187	< 0.3			0.50	C 2253 3225	2485 2944	0.13
				0.48	E 1052 201	936 228	
Dp(1,f)1205	0.7			0.49	C 1815 2485	1862 2224	0.11
				0.48	E 1367 198	1323 133	
Dp(1;f)1144	1.1			0.49	C 630 1752	441 1871	0.14
				0.45	E 674 258	581 190	
Dp(1;f)1346	2.0	+		0.00	C 933 1533	0 0	0.15
		•		0.00	E 1570 394	0 0	
Dp(1;f)856	3.0	+		0.01	C 2453 2968	0 37	0.17
				< 0.01	E 2965 592	45	
Dp(1;f)1173	3.2-3.6	+		0.01	C 1762 2396	3 36	0.29
• • • • •				< 0.01	E 1946 766	05	
Dp(1;f)3	3.7-4.0	+	+	0.01	C 3463 5423	1 49	0.32
			I	< 0.01	E 2081 1031	0 10	
				1			

The results of crossing females homozygous for the sex-linked recessive y and either heterozygous (C) or homozygous (E) for abo by males carrying $Y^{S}X Y^{L}$, In(1)EN, y B and the indicated X-chromosome free duplication marked by y+

* As fraction of mitotic chromosome 4; KRIVSHENKO and COOPER in LINDSLEY and GRELL (1968).

† From LINDSLEY and GRELL (1968) and confirmed by us in crosses to C(1)DX. ‡ From LINDSLEY and GRELL (1968) and/or confirmed or determined by us. § The relatively rare exceptions resulting from nondisjunction in the parental females have been excluded from these data.

These males are γ owing to the absence of a γ^+ homolog in the parental males. ¶ " β -recovery" is computed among regular progeny only as ($\varphi \varphi$ in control) X ($\beta \delta$ in experimental) \div ($\varphi \varphi$ in experimental) X ($\delta \delta$ in control).

the abo-induced lethality is accomplished by performing this cross using abo+ males that carry, in addition to the attached-XY chromosome, any one of a series of X-chromosome duplications.¹ These duplications all carry the centromere of the X chromosome, a portion of Xh starting at the centromere and proceeding distally for some length, and the tip of the X chromosome including the normal allele of γ . In any such cross, the regular female progeny (as opposed to instances in which the attached-XY chromosome and the duplication nondisjoined in the parental male) will carry a maternal X chromosome and the paternal attached-XY; the regular male progeny will carry a maternal X chromosome and whatever free duplication is involved in the cross. Any change in δ -recovery, therefore, should reflect a change in the survival of the X/duplication-bearing males.

The results of this experiment are shown in Table 1. The duplications are listed in order of increasing size. The presence or absence of the bb locus (which is about in the middle of Xh) and the su(f) locus (which is near the heterochromatic-euchromatic border) is also shown. It may be noted in passing that those

¹ The duplications used here are those constructed and described by KRIVSHENKO and COOPER, except for Dp(1;f)3which was constructed by WELTMAN and described by LINDSLEY and SANDLER. References and full descriptions of all of these are found in LINDSLEY and GRELL (1968).

duplications that lack the bb locus segregate, in male meiosis, at random with respect to the attached-XY chromosome, while the presence of the bb locus results in the regular separation of the two sex chromosomes.

A clear separation of bb and Xh^{abo} , with Xh^{abo} occupying the more distal position, is made by Dp(1;f)1144 and Dp(1;f)1346. The similarity of the results with Dp(1;f)1173 and Dp(1;f)3 implies that Xh^{abo} is separable from, and proximal to, su(f). The cytological lengths of the duplications suggest that Xh^{abo} is in the distal fourth of Xh.

This position can be made somewhat more precise by a consideration of some previously published data (SANDLER 1970). It was shown that the relative survival from abo/abo mothers, compared with control, was 25%-30% for XY males and 50%-53% for XX females. This implies either that the Y chromosome rescues less than the X chromosome, or that, owing to differences in development between the two sexes, male zygotes are inherently less rescuable. That the latter obtains was indicted by the facts that (1) $XX^{-}Y$ females (X⁻ symbolizes an X chromosome deficient for most of Xh, $In(1)sc^{4L}sc^{sR}$ have a relative survival of 53% comparable to the 50%-53% for XX females, and (2) XX^- females have a relative survival of 14%, which is higher than the 6% relative survival exhibited by X0 males. These observations strongly suggest (1) a difference in rescuability of males and females, (2) the identity of rescue by the X and Y chromosomes, and (3) that the heterochromatin contained in $In(1)sc^{4L}sc^{8R}$ does not effect rescue. This chromosome does contain the distal-most one-eighth of Xh implying that Xh^{abo} is proximal to this and therefore in the penultimate eighth of Xh.

It seems very likely that Xh^{abo} is the necessary function in Xh that can be inferred from the lethality of $In(1)sc^{4L}sc^{8R}/Dp(1;f)1346$ males (LINDSLEY and GRELL 1968) that are deficient for the region between the right breakpoint of $In(1)sc^4$ and bb.

In these experiments, we have encountered one unexplained peculiarity. The experiments just referred to imply that Xh, at least in an intact X chromosome, and a Y chromosome rescue to the same extent. Since Dp(1;f)3 carries all of Xh, it too should rescue as efficiently as the Y. However δ -recovery using γ^+Y (a Y chromosome with the γ^+ tip of the X analogous to the free duplications) was 0.86 compared to 0.32 for Dp(1;f)3 (Table 2). Moreover, in the previous experiments of SANDLER (1970), the γ^+Y was not different from a normal Y, but in the present experiments a normal Y resulted in a δ -recovery of only 0.61 (Table 2).

The X chromosomes used in the experiments reported here differ from those used by SANDLER in that our X chromosomes carry γ to permit identification of duplication-bearing progeny. A comparison of results from the two *abo* stocks is also shown in Table 2. It can be seen that both the γ^+Y and Dp(1;f) exhibit very different ϑ -recovery values in the two stocks but that in both cases the Y is a more efficient rescue agent than is the duplication. However, the male recovery value for γ^+Y in the γ^+ ; *abo* stock of 0.42 is similar to the 0.48 reported by SANDLER with this same stock, for a normal Y, suggesting that the γ^+ ; *abo* stock has not changed since the earlier report.

TABLE 2

The results of crossing females heterozygous (C) or homozygous (E) for abo from balanced abo/In(2LR)Cy stocks with either normal (y⁺) or y-bearing (y) X chromosomes by Y^SX·Y^L, In(1)EN, y B males carrying either y⁺Y, a normal Y chromosome, or Dp(1:f)3

Parental	Progeny*				
<u>٩</u> ٥		ŶŶ`	ి రి	o recovery	
$\gamma; abo XY/\gamma + Y$	C	1939	1983	0.86	
	Έ	1695	1488		
y;abo XY/Y	С	2117	2154	0.61	
	E	1334	824		
‡y;abo XY/Dp(1;f)3	С	3464	5472	0.32	
	Е	2081	1041		
$\gamma^+;abo XY/\gamma^+Y$	С	1479	1647	0.42	
	Έ	1243	577		
$y^+;abo XY/Y$	С	5616	5487	0.48	
	Έ	4311	2017		
$\gamma^+;abo XY/Dp(1;f)3$	С	2205	2758	0.17	
	Е	2214	478		

* Exceptional and regular progeny are summed in the cases in which they are distinguishable. + Computed as in Table 1.

Data from Table 1.

\$ Data from SANDLER (1970); his Table 3.

From these observations it seems reasonably clear that different wild-type X chromosomes and different wild-type Y chromosomes can carry *abo*-responsive regions of differing efficacy. While it is not clear what the physical basis of these differences is, the observations are reminiscent of those showing that the heterochromatin of normal X chromosomes from different stocks can contain very different numbers of rRNA cistrons (RITOSSA, ATWOOD and SPIEGELMAN 1966, SPEAR and GALL 1973).

In summary, it has been previously argued from the interactions between Xh and abo, that the product of the autosomal locus interacts with (most likely regulates) the activity of some function or functions of the heterochromatin of the sex chromosomes. The present observations show that this interaction is not with heterochromatin in general, but rather with a specific, mappable, locus or small region on the X chromosome, and, by inference, with an homologous segment on the Y chromosome.

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