flex, an X-linked female-lethal mutation in *Drosophila melanogaster* controls the expression of *Sex-lethal*

Ananya Bhattacharya^{1,3}, S. Sudha¹, H. Sharat Chandra^{1,2} and Ruth Steward^{3,*}

¹Department of Microbiology and Cell Biology, Indian Institute of Science, Bangalore 560 012, India

²Jawaharlal Nehru Centre for Advanced Scientific Research, Jakkur Post, Bangalore 560 064, India

³Waksman Institute, Department of Molecular Biology and Biochemistry, Rutgers University, Piscataway, NJ 08854-8020, USA *Author for correspondence (e-mail: steward@mbcl.rutgers.edu)

Accepted 13 September; published on WWW 9 November 1999

SUMMARY

The Sex-lethal (Sxl) gene is required in Drosophila females for sexual differentiation of the soma, for gem cell differentiation and dosage compensation. We have isolated three new alleles of *female-lethal-on-X* (*flex*), an X-linked female-lethal mutation and have characterized its function in sex determination. SXL protein is missing in *flex/flex* embryos, however transcription from both Sxl_{Pe} , the early Sxl promoter and Sxl_{Pm} , the late maintenance promoter, is normal in *flex* homozygotes. In *flex/flex* embryos, SxlmRNA is spliced in the male mode. Analysis of *flex* germline clones shows that it also functions in oogenesis, but in contrast to Sxl mutants that show an early arrest tumorous phenotype, *flex* mutant egg chambers develop to stage 10. In *flex* ovarian clones, Sxl RNA is also spliced in

INTRODUCTION

In Drosophila melanogaster, the sex determination process is initiated by the ratio of the number of X chromosomes (X) to the number of sets of autosomes (A). This ratio is assessed by a counting process involving the products of X-linked numerator and autosomal denominator elements (Bridges, 1925; reviewed in Cline, 1993; Cline and Meyer, 1996). This signal is transmitted to Sex-lethal (Sxl), the master switch gene located on the X chromosome which then is activated sex specifically. Sxl regulates all aspects of sexual differentiation by either activating or repressing downstream genes (reviewed by Cline and Meyer, 1996). Sxl is regulated at two levels: at the level of transcription (as described above) and subsequently at the level of splicing. When the X:A ratio is 1.0, as in XX embryos, an embryo-specific Sxl promoter (Pe) is activated during nuclear cycles 12-14 (Erickson and Cline, 1993; Keyes et al., 1992). In XY embryos, whose X/A ratio is 0.5, Sxl remains 'off' and SXL protein is not synthesized. After the blastoderm stage, Pe becomes inactive and expression is regulated by a maintenance promoter, Pm, which is active in both sexes. However, the accumulation of Sex-lethal protein (SXL) is restricted to females through a positive autoregulatory RNA splicing mechanism (Bell et al., 1991; Cline, 1984).

the male form. Hence, *flex* is a sex-specific regulator of *Sxl* functioning in both the soma and the germline. Genetic interaction studies show that *flex* does not enhance female lethality of *Sxl* loss-of-function alleles but it rescues the male-specific lethality of both of the gain-of-function *Sxl* mutations, *Sxl^{M1}* and *Sxl^{M4}*. In contrast to mutations in splicing regulators of *Sxl*, the female lethality of *flex* is not rescued by either *Sxl^{M1}* or *Sxl^{M4}*. Based on these observations, we propose that *flex* regulates *Sxl* at a post-splicing stage and regulates either its translation or the stability of the SXL protein.

Key words: Sex determination, Dosage compensation, *Sex-lethal*, Splicing, Translational control, *flex*

Alternately spliced transcripts are generated by the splicing process and this prevents the inclusion of a translation-terminating exon in Sxl_{Pm} -derived mRNA in females (Bell et al., 1988; Bopp et al., 1991). In addition to Sxl itself, three genes are known to be involved in the female-specific splicing of Sxl pre-mRNA: *snf* (Albrecht and Salz, 1993; Salz, 1992), fl(2)d (Granadino et al., 1990, 1992), *vir* (Hilfiker and Nothiger, 1991; Hilfiker et al., 1995).

In addition to its function in regulating female somatic development, *Sxl* also imposes the female mode of X-chromosome dosage compensation (reviewed in Baker et al., 1994; Kelley and Kuroda, 1995; Lucchesi, 1983, 1997). Misregulation of *Sxl* upsets dosage compensation resulting in sex-specific lethality because of inappropriate levels of X-linked gene expression (Cline, 1978; Gorman et al., 1993; Lucchesi and Skripsky, 1981; Gergen 1987). The products of five genes, *msl-1*, *msl-2*, *msl-3* and *mle* (collectively referred to as the *msls*) and *mof* are required for the proper regulation of dosage compensation (Belote and Lucchesi 1980a,b; Hilfiker et al., 1997; for reviews see Baker et al., 1994; Gorman and Baker, 1994; Lucchesi and Manning, 1987; Kuroda et al., 1993).

The genes regulating germline sex determination are substantially different from those governing somatic sex

5486 A. Bhattacharya and others

determination. They include cell-autonomous (germ cell intrinsic components) and cell non-autonomous factors (somatic signals, Horabin et al., 1995; Nöthiger et al., 1989; Staab and Steinmann-Zwicky, 1996; Steinmann-Zwicky et al., 1989; reviewed by Pauli and Mahowald, 1990; Steinmann-Zwicky, 1992). Proper formation of the female germline requires Sxl (Bopp et al., 1993; Granadino et al., 1993; Nöthiger et al., 1989; Oliver et al., 1993; Schupbach, 1985; Steinmann-Zwicky et al., 1989). Analysis of germline-specific mutants of Sxl show that Sxl is required for proper differentiation of female germ cells and its activity is maintained by autoregulation (Bopp et al., 1993; Hager and Cline, 1997; Schüpbach, 1985; Steinmann-Zwicky et al., 1989). Mutations in *snf*, fl(2)d, ovo and otu, show phenotypes similar to those observed in Sxl mutants and are required for the proper expression of Sxl in XX germ cells (Granadino et al., 1992; Oliver et al., 1993; Pauli et al., 1993).

From an EMS screen designed to identify additional Xlinked genes affecting sex determination, one allele of a mutation named *flex* (*female-lethal on X*) was isolated (Anand, 1993). We isolated three additional alleles that, like the original allele, showed female-specific lethality. To gain insight into what causes this phenotype, we studied the expression of Sxlin *flex* homozygous embryos. We find that Sex-lethal protein (SXL) is not present in embryos homozygous for *flex*, which is presumably the cause of the lethality. Monitoring the transcription of Sxl shows that both the *Pe* and *Pm* promoters are activated normally. However, in *flex* homozygous females, Sxl transcripts are spliced in the male mode. *flex* is also required for the development of the female germline and functions in the regulation of Sxl in this tissue.

Genetic experiments show that *flex* rescues the male lethality of gain-of-function mutations of Sxl (Sxl^M). Unexpectedly, the lethality of homozygous *flex* females is not rescued by Sxl^M mutations. *flex* function is exclusively sex specific and we propose that it functions at the post-splicing level in either the translation of the SXL protein or its maintenance.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Flies were maintained on standard cornmeal-yeast-sugar-agar medium and the embryos were collected on glucose agar plates.

Fly stocks

Unless otherwise indicated all mutations and chromosomes are described in Lindsley and Zimm (1992). *flex*¹(Anand, 1993) was the original *flex* allele used in this study. *flex*² was the EMS allele and *flex*³ and *flex*⁴ were the γ -irradiated alleles of *flex* isolated subsequently. *Sxl^{M1}* and *Sxl^{M4}* were used to study interaction with *flex*. *Sxl^{IP7BO}* served as a negative control for the staining reactions. The stock carrying the *Sxl_{Pe}* promoter construct fused to *lacZ* (Keyes et al., 1992) on the second chromosome was used to look for activation of *Sxl_{Pe}*. *y* w *FRT*⁹⁻² / *y* w *FRT*⁹⁻² and *ovo*^{D2} v²⁴ *FRT*⁹⁻²/C(1)DX, *y f*/Y; FLP³⁸/FLP³⁸ (Chou and Perrimon, 1992) were used to generate germline clones of *flex*.

X-Gal staining of embryos

Embryos carrying chromosomes with *lac-Z* promoter-fusion constructs were dechorionated and fixed in glutaraldehyde buffer. Following fixation, they were rehydrated in PBS containing 0.3% TX100. The embryos were transferred to a cavity block and incubated at 37°C in an X-Gal-staining solution (3.1 mM K₄Fe(CN)₆, 3.1 mM K₃Fe(CN)₆, 0.3% (v/v) TX100 and 0.2% X-Gal in PBS) until the blue

stripes appeared (Montell et al., 1992). The reaction was stopped by rinsing the embryos in PBS-TX.

Anti-SXL staining of embryos

Embryos of interest were collected, dechorionated, fixed in formaldehyde and stained with the SXL ascites. The procedure followed was essentially that described by Bopp et al. (1991). Horseradish-peroxidase-conjugated detection reagents from the Vectastain ABC kit (Vector Laboratories, Burlingame, California) were used. The reaction was visualized with DAB (3,3'-diaminobenzidine) and stopped by rinsing in PBS when a dark-brown color developed.

For double labeling, embryos were first stained with X-Gal and subsequently with anti-SXL antibody. Embryos of the appropriate genotype were collected, stained with X-Gal, and the stained and the unstained embryos were separated. They were then devitellinized by shaking vigorously in 5 ml of heptane and 10 ml of methanol, rehydrated and stained with anti-SXL antibody as described before.

In situ hybridization

Hybridizations to *Sxl* transcripts were done using digoxigenin-labeled *Sxl* probes of sequences corresponding to the male-specific exon (g2) and an exon present in mature transcripts of both sexes (h1) (Samuels et al., 1991). Double-stranded probes (used for hybridization to whole mounts of embryos) were prepared by the random-primed labeling reaction as described in the manufacturer's protocol (Boehringer and Mannheim). Embryos of interest were collected, dechorionated, fixed and processed for in situ hybridization essentially as described by Tautz and Pfeifle (1989). Hybridization was carried out overnight at 48°C in formamide. Sense and antisense RNA probes (used for hybridization to whole mounts of ovaries) were prepared by labeling with the RNA polymerases (T3, T7 or SP6) according to the standard procedure.

For double labeling, embryos were collected, dechorionated, fixed and stained with X-Gal as described before (Montell et al., 1992). The unstained embryos were separated and devitellinized and processed for in situ hybridization (Cohen and Cohen, 1992) with *Sxl* exons as probes.

Staining embryos for anti-H4Ac16

Embryos of interest were collected, dechorionated, fixed in formaldehyde and stained with the polyclonal antibodies R14 and R41 to detect different isoforms of histone H4. The staining procedure used was that of Turner and Fellows (1989). For detection, the Vectastain ABC kit was used.

Germline clones

Clones homozygous for *flex* were generated by the FLP-DFS technique (Chou and Perrimon, 1992). Females of the genotype *y cho cv v f flex*² *FRT* (18E)/FM7 were crossed to ovo^{D2} *FRT* (18E)/Y; FLP³⁸/FLP³⁸ males and the progeny were heat shocked for 2 hours at 37°C between L2 and L3. *y cho cv v f flex*² *FRT*/*ovo*^{D2} *FRT* females were then tested for their fertility.

RESULTS

flex is a female-specific lethal mutation

A mutation showing female-specific lethality, *flex*, was isolated in a screen for additional X-linked genes affecting sex determination (Anand, 1993). To identify more alleles, approximately 15,000 EMS mutagenised chromosomes and 8,000 γ - irradiated chromosomes were screened for noncomplementation of the female lethal phenotype of *flex¹*. The screen was designed without selection bias, to identify male or female lethal alleles (Fig. 1). One EMS-induced allele, *flex²*, and two γ -radiation alleles, *flex³* and *flex⁴*, were obtained. As



Check for non-complementation

Fig. 1. Mutagenesis screen for the isolation of additional *flex* alleles.

observed for *flex¹*, hemizygous males of all three new alleles show the same viability as their balancer brothers and are fertile (Table 1). The lethal period was determined for all four alleles by counting the number of embryos that hatched. In all four alleles, about 25% of the eggs did not hatch and there were also a few dead larvae (< 1%) arrested at first instar stage. All four mutations are strong loss-of-function alleles, as they show the same lethal phenotype as homozygotes, as heteroallelic combinations and over a deficiency uncovering the locus.

SXL protein is not present in *flex/flex* female embryos

The sex-specific lethality associated with *flex* suggests that *Sxl* is misregulated in embryos homozygous for *flex*. Therefore, we stained embryos (2-13 hour) from wild type and a cross of *flex*/Bal females and *flex* males. While 50% of wild-type embryos, presumably the females, stain with anti-Sxl antibody (Fig. 2B, Bopp et al., 1991), only approximately 25% of embryos from the *flex* cross were positive (data not shown). This result is consistent with *flex/flex* females not expressing SXL.

To verify this hypothesis, we repeated the experiment using a FM7 chromosome carrying a *ftz*-promoter-*lac-Z* transgene that allowed us to identify the homozygous and hemizygous *flex* embryos. As a negative control for SXL staining, we did the same experiment with flies carrying a male viable deletion uncovering Sxl (Sxl^{7BO}). After X-Gal staining, embryos with the balancer chromosomes (Fig. 2A) were counted and amounted to

flex controls Sex-lethal expression 5487

50% in the *flex* and *Sxl* experiments. The lacZ-positive embryos were manually separated and both the balancer and non-balancer embryos were stained with anti-Sxl antibody. About 50% of the embryos positive for β -gal stained with the anti-Sxl antibody (result not shown). But, neither the *Sxl*^{7BO}/*Sxl*^{7BO} females and *Sxl*^{7BO}/Y male embryos (0 of 166, Fig. 2C) nor the *flex* embryos stained with the antibody: *flex*¹ (0/265), for *flex*² (0/134, Fig. 2D) and for *flex*⁴ (0/179). These results show that *flex* plays a role in regulating the expression of SXL.

Transcription of Sxl is normal in flex/flex embryos

The expression of the Sxl early mRNAs depends on the maternal and zygotic genes, the numerator and the denominator elements, that control the activation of the early embryonic promoter Pe (Keyes et al., 1992). After the cellular blastoderm stage Pe is turned off and Sxl expression is maintained by the maintenance promoter Pm.

To examine whether *flex* controls the choice of sexual identity by regulating the function of Sxl_{Pe} in the early embryo, a *Pe-lac-Z* reporter construct (Keyes et al., 1992) was crossed into *flex²* and *flex⁴* backgrounds. Embryos from the *flex* stocks and a *flex*⁺ stock, all homozygous for the *lac-Z* reporter, were stained with X-Gal. The result was the same for all three genotypes, about 50% of the embryos were positive, indicating that *flex* does not control the transcriptional activation of Sxl_{Pe} (results not shown).

In situ hybridization was performed to investigate if *flex* controls the transcription of *Sxl* from *Pm*. The probe used was a 1.0 kb *Sxl* exon (h1) present in the transcripts of both male and female post-blastoderm stage embryos. Virtually 100% of (3-3.5 hour) embryos from the wild-type and *flex¹* and *flex²* populations showed positive staining and the distribution of the RNA was identical in all embryos (Fig. 2). Thus, *Sxl* transcription from both promoters is normal in *flex/flex* embryos and the distribution of the *Sxl* mRNA is not affected.

Sxl mRNA is spliced in the male-specific form in *flex/flex* female embryos

Since *Sxl* expression is controlled post-transcriptionally at the level of splicing, we investigated whether *flex* affects *Sxl* splicing. To this end, we carried out in situ hybridization with the male-specific *Sxl* exon (#3). Embryos from homozygous and hemizygous *flex*², *flex*⁴ as well as *Sxl*^{7B0} deletion embryos (3-3.5 hour old) were first identified by their lack of the characteristic *ftz* blue stripes, associated with the marked FM7

		Paternal chromosome						
	Maternal chromosome	flex ⁴		flex ³		flex ²		
		Sons	Daughters	Sons	Daughters	Sons	Daughters	
	flex ³	1064*	0	729	0	640	0	
	Balancer	1034	1104	748	794	611	693	
	flex ²	1104	0	843	0	986	0	
	Balancer	1120	1151	800	789	1007	1014	
	flex ⁴	1509	0	937	0	782	0	
	Balancer	1503	1482	907	963	756	731	
	Df(1)JA27	767	0	733	0	767	0	
	FM7	1002	989	977	1000	988	1012	

Table 1. All *flex* alleles are female lethal

Complete genotypes of *flex* alleles=w cv f flex; FM7, $y^{31d} sc^8 w^a sn^{X2} v^{of} g^4 B$.

*Numbers are pooled from three independent experiments.



Fig. 2. Detection of SXL in mutant embryos. (A) Heterozygous (*flex/+*) embryos carrying a balancer chromosome with a *ftz-lac-Z* marker were stained for β-gal staining. (B) *flex⁺* (wild type) embryo staining with mSx118, a monoclonal anti-SXL antibody; SXL staining is uniform throughout the embryo. (C) In *Sx1^{7BO}* and (D) *flex²* embryos, SXL is not present. Anterior is to the left and dorsal to the top.

chromosome. In situ hybridization experiments using exon #3 was carried out on the unstained embryos. While, as expected, none of the Sxl^{7B0} embryos stained, almost 100% of the *flex* embryos expressed the male-specific exon (similar to what is shown in Fig. 3; Table 2), confirming that the female-specific splicing is disrupted in homozygous *flex* embryos.

In *flex/flex* female embryos histone H4 is acetylated at position 16, a characteristic of male dosage compensation

The enrichment of a particular isoform of acetylated histone H4 (H4Ac16) on the male X chromosome is taken as evidence of dosage compensation (Turner et al., 1992). Using an

antibody raised against H4Ac16 (R14), increased staining can be detected in stage 9 male embryos (Franke et al., 1996; Rastelli et al., 1995). Since SXL is not present in *flex/flex* embryos, we investigated whether the acetylated H4 isoform is augmented in chromosomally female *flex* embryos.

Stage 14 (11-13 hours old) embryos collected from wildtype, Sxl^{7BO} and *flex* (*flex*² and *flex*⁴) stocks were stained with anti-H4Ac16, R14 antibody (Fig. 4). As shown in Table 3, 47% of the wild-type embryos show weak, background staining with the R14 antibody, while the other 50%, presumably the males, show intense staining in the anterior end. In contrast, only 27% of the embryos from the Sxl^{7BO} cross show weak background staining with H4Ac16, which are presumably Sxl^{7BO} /Bal females. Similarly, only about 25% of embryos from the *flex* crosses did not stain strongly, presumably representing the



Fig. 3. *Sxl* expression in wild-type and mutant embryos. (A) All wild-type embryos show hybridization with exon number h1 present in both male and female transcripts. (B) All *flex* embryos also hybridize with the h1 probe. One representative embryos is shown. The negative control (embryos that were treated the same way but no probe was added) did not show any staining (figure not shown). The distribution of *Sxl* transcripts is uniform and identical to wild type in these embryos.



Fig. 4. Distribution of the histone H4Ac16 isoform in embryos carrying *flex*. The presence of H4Ac16 was detected with the polyclonal antibody R14. (A) An embryo showing the male characteristic distribution of H4Ac16. (B) A presumably female embryo showing only background staining. 75% of the *flex* embryos (Table 2) show the pattern illustrated in A indicating that they behave like males and are dosage compensated.



Fig. 5. Interaction between Sxl^M and *flex*.

flex/Bal females. This shows that the *flex* homozygous female embryos stain at the same level as males with the R14 antibody. R41 is an anti-histone H4 antibody that does not show any sexspecific difference in its distribution in embryos and was used as a control. As expected, virtually 100% of embryos from all crosses stained with this antibody, irrespective of their sex and genotype. These results confirm that dosage compensation in *flex/flex* female embryos is in the male mode, as would be expected since these embryos lack SXL.

flex suppresses male lethality of SxI^{M1} and SxI^{M4}

 Sxl^{M1} and Sxl^{M4} are two gain-of-function mutations of Sxl, which result in the presence of SXL in chromosomally male

 Table 2. RNA in situ hybridization experiment with the male-specific Sxl exon

Genotype of embryos	Stained	Unstained	Total	Percentage stained
Sxl ^{7BO} /Sxl ^{7BO} ; Sxl ^{7BO} /Y	0	210	210	0
flex ² / flex ² , flex ² /Y	314	61	375	84
flex ⁴ / flex ⁴ , flex ⁴ /Y	263	24	287	92

animals, leading to inappropriate regulation of dosage compensation and subsequent male lethality (Bernstein et al., 1995; Cline, 1978). Mutations in *snf*, fl(2)d and *vir*, the splicing regulators of *Sxl*, can rescue *Sxl^M*-induced male lethality to varying degrees (Salz, 1992; Granadino et al., 1992; Hilfiker et al., 1995). We were therefore interested in finding out whether *flex* is able to rescue males carrying *Sxl^{M1}* or *Sxl^{M4}*. To this end, we recombined *Sxl^M* and *flex* onto the same chromosome, and scored for the survival of males carrying the two mutations (Fig. 5, Table 4). The presence of *Sxl^M* was monitored with the help of the two closely linked markers *carmine* (*cm*; 0.01 cM distal from *Sxl*) and *singed* (*sn*; 0.1 cM proximal from *Sxl*). The presence of *flex* was monitored by the presence of *forked* (*f*, 4.5 cM distal from *flex*).

The map distance between Sxl and flex is about 40 cM. Therefore, from a total of 971 males obtained from a recombination experiment involving Sxl^{M4} and flex, 388 are expected to be recombinants between Sxl and flex. Half of these should be the recombinant double-mutant males, while the other half should be wild type for both genes. The 81 double-mutant (Sxl^{M4} flex) males that were found to survive



Fig. 6. Detection of *Sxl* expression in germline clones of *flex*. (A) Wild-type ovariole hybridized with the h1 probe, which detects mature *Sxl* transcripts in females. (B) Wild-type ovariole after hybridization with the male-specific exon #3. Only background staining is observed. (C) *flex/flex* germline clone hybridized with the h1 probe shows the same distribution of *Sxl* transcripts as in wild type. (D) A *flex/flex* germline clone hybridized with the male-specific exon #3 showing strong cytoplasmic staining (compare B and D). *Sxl* transcripts retain the male-specific exon in *flex/flex* clones indicating abnormal splicing.

		R14			R41		
Parental genotype	Stained	Unstained	Percentage unstained	Stained	Unstained	Percentage unstained	
OR	147	131	47.12	232	8	3.3	
Sxl ^{7BO} /Bal×Sxl ^{7BO} /Y	191	72	27.3	213	26	10.8	
$flex^2$ / Bal× $flex^2$ /Y	195	61	23.6	184	20	10.2	
flex ⁴ /Bal×flex ⁴ /Y	291	93	24.2	435	31	6.6	

 Table 3. Detection of H4 isoforms upon staining with antibodies R14 and R41

represent 41.7% of expected recombinants. The result for Sxl^{M1} flex was similar; 59.6% of the expected recombinant males survived (Table 4). None of the surviving males were Sxl^{M} and $flex^{+}$ ruling out any unanticipated interaction. We conclude from this experiment that $flex^{2}$ rescues both $Sxl^{M 1}$ and Sxl^{M4} . The rescue is slightly temperature sensitive, fewer males survive at 29°C than at 25°C. This rescue does not appear to be allele specific because $flex^{1}$ also rescues both Sxl^{M1} .

The presence of Sxl on the chromosomes was not further tested, since the flanking markers cm and sn are very closely linked to Sxl. To further verify the presence of flex in the rescued males, we tested for the homozygous female lethal phenotype of flex by crossing the 412 Sxl^M flex males singly to flex/FM7 sn females. In all the crosses, only FM7 chromosome bearing males and females and Sxl^M flex males survived (approximately 30 offspring of each genotype counted from each cross). Therefore, the presence of Sxl^M does not rescue the female lethality of flex homozygotes. The males that carry both Sxl^M and flex had no obvious evidence of sex transformation and were fertile. The genetic interactions between Sxl^M and flex confirms that the lethality of flex/flexhomozygotes is due to a post-transcriptional perturbation in Sxl.

Sxl is spliced in the male form in *flex/flex* ovarian germline clones

Since most of the regulators of *Sxl* also function in the germline to maintain the expression of *Sxl*, we investigated whether in *flex/flex* germ cells *Sxl* regulation is disrupted. We found that *flex* function is essential for normal oogenesis. *flex/flex* germline clones induced in *flex/ovo*^{D2} females using the FLP-DFS system (Chou and Perrimon, 1992) did not produce fertile eggs. Inspection of ovarian *flex/flex* clones showed that

Table 4. Rescue of Sxl^M by flex

		Num				
Maternal genotype	Temperature	Sxl ^M flex	Sxl ^M flex ⁺	Sxl ⁺ flex; Sxl ⁺ flex ⁺	Percentage rescue	
Sxl ^{M4} /flex	25°C	81	0	891	41.7	
•	29°C	52	0	804	30.6	
Sxl ^{M1} /flex	25°C	171	0	1267	59.6	
	29°C	108	0	988	49.3	

Percentage rescue represents the actual number of Sxl^M flex males/expected number of double-mutant males. The expected number of double-mutant males is calculated from the map distance between Sxl and flex.

Cross 1: $y pn cm Sxl^{M4} sn^+/Bal females × w cv sn f flex^2/Y males. In the F₂, <math>y pn cv^+ cm sn^+ f/Y$ males were scored as carrying both Sxl^{M4} and $flex^2$. Males with only Sxl^{M4} ($y pn cv^+ cm sn^+ f^+/Y$) were not recovered. Cross 2: $y pn cm Sxl^{M1} sn^+/Bal females × w cv sn f flex^2/Y$ males. The experiment was the same as described for Sxl^{M4} .

oogenesis initiated normally, but the egg chambers did not develop past stage 10 (Bhattacharya et al., 1999).

In such germline clones, the splicing of *Sxl* was monitored by in situ hybridization using the antisense Sxl exons as probes (Fig. 6). The clones were generated in a background of ovo^{D2} which has been shown to arrest before stage 6 of oogenesis (Pauli et al., 1995). Any egg chamber of a later stage was considered to represent a *flex/flex* clone. Large amounts of *Sxl* transcripts were detected in all germ cells when the Sxl exon present in the transcripts of both sexes was used as a probe (Fig. 6C). The pattern of expression is identical to that observed in wild-type ovarioles (Fig. 6A; Bopp et al., 1993). When whole-mount ovaries were hybridized with a probe that detects only the male exon sequences, intense cytoplasmic staining was observed only in *flex* clones, especially at stages 8-10 (Fig. 6D), and only very faint staining in $flex^+$ egg chambers (Fig. 6B). No staining was observed when the control sense probes were used (data not shown). This indicates that *flex* is essential for Sxl splicing and, in its absence, transcripts containing the male-specific exon accumulate. Hence, *flex* regulates *Sxl* not only in somatic cells, but also in the female germline.

DISCUSSION

flex functions as a positive regulator of Sxl

We report on the characterization of *flex*, a female-specific lethal mutation on the X chromosome. In Drosophila, such sexspecific lethality is usually indicative of a gene that functions as part of the sex-determination pathway. We found that SXL is absent in *flex/flex* female embryos throughout embryogenesis. We further found that, while Sxl transcription from both the early (Pe) and the late constitutive promoter (Pm) is normal. male-specific splicing is observed in *flex* female embryos. The absence of *flex* results in dosage compensation in chromosomally female embryos, as seen by the presence of H4Ac16 in these animals. Male-specific splicing is also observed in ovarian germline clones homozygous for flex. But, homozygous mutant cells survive in clones generated in the thorax and abdomen. Clones on the female forelegs did not show any appearance of sex combs (data not shown). Hence, it is unlikely that *flex* has a general, non-sex-specific function, but rather *flex* is a positive regulator of *Sxl*, which is essential for female-specific splicing, and is required for the expression of the SXL.

flex is not essential for Sxl transcription

The sex-specific regulation of expression of *Sxl* in the early embryo is regulated both at the level of transcription and splicing. The products of the counting elements *da*, *sisA*, *sisB*,

Our experiments show that, in embryos homozygous for *flex*, there is no apparent defect in the activation of both the *Pe* and *Pm* promoters of *Sxl*. We also investigated genetically whether *flex* affects transcription of *Sxl*. We determined if *flex* shows any dose-dependent synergistic interactions with *da*, *sisA*, *sisB* and *Sxl^f*. *Trans*-heterozygous combinations of these genes and *flex* showed no effect on the sex ratio (data not shown). In contrast, all X/A counting elements show dose-dependent synergistic interactions with *sxl^{f/I}* (Cline, 1988; Torres and Sanchez, 1989). Hence, it is unlikely that *flex* is a counting element like *da*, *sisA* or *sisB*, and suggests that *flex* is not a part of the transcriptional machinery controling *Sxl* activation.

Rescue of *SxI^M* by *flex*

The Sxl^M mutations are caused by insertions into the Sxl-coding region that result in the constitutive expression of the gene from Sxl_{Pm} irrespective of the X/A ratio (Bernstein et al., 1995). These Sxl gain-of-function mutations can rescue the femalelethality caused by mutations in *da*, *sisA*, *sisB* and *her* (Cline, 1978, 1988; Pultz and Baker, 1995). On the contrary, the splicing regulators *snf*, *vir* and fl(2)d rescue the male lethality caused by Sxl^M (Salz, 1992; Hilfiker et al., 1995; Granadino et al., 1992). Hence, interaction with Sxl^M provides a useful tool to investigate at which level genes in the pathway function. We found that both alleles of *flex* tested (*flex¹* and *flex²*) rescued the Sxl^M male lethality.

The observed interaction between *flex* and *Sxl^M* is similar to that seen between *snf*, *vir* and fl(2)d (Salz, 1992; Hilfiker et al., 1995; Granadino et al., 1992) and, since these mutations affect *Sxl* regulation at the post-transcriptional level, *flex* is also likely to function post-transcriptionally. Indeed, in our in situ hybridization experiments, we found that splicing of the *Sxl* transcript in the female form is affected in *flex* embryos resulting in the default male-specific splice. In other aspects also, *flex* behaves similar to *vir*. It suppresses *Sxl^{M1}* and surviving males are fertile showing no sex transformation (Hilfiker et al., 1995), unlike fl(2)dI, where the *trans*-heterozygous males are sex transformed (Granadino et al., 1992).

A clear difference in function between the splicing regulators and *flex* is evident from the observation that both Sxl^{M1} and Sxl^{M4} can rescue the female lethality of *vir* and fl(2)d, but they fail to rescue the female lethality of *flex* homozygotes. Also, none of the regulators of Sxl splicing rescue the male lethality of Sxl^{M4} . *flex* is the only mutation, that shows rescue of this phenotype. This difference in rescue could possibly be due to the fact that *snf* and fl(2)d1 are partial loss-of-function alleles.

Regulation and function of *Sxl* and *flex* in the female germline

Most of the genes involved in the somatic sex determination cascade are dispensable within the germ cells (Granadino et al., 1993; Marsh and Wieschaus, 1978; Schupbach, 1982; Steinmann-Zwicky, 1993, 1994; Horabin et al., 1995). *Sxl*, although necessary for oogenesis, does not have a master regulatory function for sex determination in the germline (Horabin et al., 1995; Steinmann-Zwicky, 1994). The

expression of *Sxl* in the germline depends both on an inductive signal from the soma and on an autonomous signal given by the X:A ratio, which is measured by elements different from those used in assessing the X:A ratio in the soma (Granadino et al., 1993; Steinmann-Zwicky, 1993). *snf*, fl(2)d and *vir* which control the maintenance of *Sxl* activity in the soma are also required in the germline (Granadino et al., 1992; Hilfiker et al., 1995; Salz, 1992).

We found that *flex*, which is required for the expression of SXL in the soma, also regulates Sxl in the germline, but the loss-of-function *flex* phenotype can only be detected in midoogenesis. The germline phenotypes of *flex* and *Sxl* are different. *flex/flex* germline clones proceed normally through oogenesis till about stage 10 when the egg chambers disintegrate. These clones, when hybridized with the malespecific exon of Sxl show intense cytoplasmic staining especially after stage 6 of oogenesis (Fig. 6D), indicating the Sxl splicing is affected. The different germline phenotypes of Sxl and flex could be due to one of the following reasons. A perdurance effect of FLEX protein synthesized in heterozygous stem cells prior to mitotic recombination could initiate the production of SXL protein in *flex* clones thereby allowing them to survive the early stage of SXL requirement. This possibility is unlikely because *flex/flex* clones show no defect in the early stages of oogenesis even 2 weeks after induction of mitotic recombination and after several rounds of stem cell divisions.

A second possibility would be that the first few hours of development in heterozygous condition before the induction of mitotic recombination determine the female fate of germ cells irreversibly. The induction of Sxl^- germline clones by mitotic recombination rule out this possibility (Schutt et al., 1998). The phenotype observed in Sxl^{f4} germline clones is similar to that observed in pole cell transplantation experiments (Schupbach, 1985). The phenotypic differences observed in Sxl and *flex* mutant egg chambers suggest that only the later germline functions of Sxl require *flex*.

The mechanism controlling the initiation of *Sxl* expression in the germline is unknown. Initially, SXL is necessary in gonial cells at the tip of the germarium of the adult ovary for female-specific development of the germ cells. Later in oogenesis, the germ cells may become independent of the primary signals from the soma, and the X/A ratio may control SXL levels by autoregulation (Hager and Cline, 1997). Bopp et al. (1993) have shown that, concomitant with this change in regulation, SXL gets redistributed during oogenesis. In stem cells and early cystoblasts the protein is predominantly cytoplasmic. Once the cluster of 16-cell cysts is formed the protein is concentrated in the nuclei of the cystocytes.

The genes required for regulation of Sxl at early stages, such as *otu* and *ovo^D*, as well as the splice regulators *snf* and *fl*(2)*d*, display similar phenotypes to *Sxl*; oogenesis is arrested in the germarium and multicellular cysts are formed. Only one other gene, *vir*, displays a similar phenotype to *flex*, and it has been suggested that it functions in the splicing of *Sxl* at later stages of oogenesis, after the transition in regulation (Schutt et al., 1998).

flex functions in the control of protein expression

Our results demonstrate that, in *flex* homozygous embryos, splicing of Sxl is disrupted and SXL protein is absent. Two basic hypotheses can be put forward to explain these

5492 A. Bhattacharya and others

observations. (i) *flex* could regulate sex-specific splicing of Sxl either directly or indirectly. (ii) *flex* could regulate Sxl expression at a post-splicing level, controlling either the translation or stability of the protein.

Two results argue against *flex* functioning at the splicing level. First, vir^{2f} , which has been found to behave like a null allele in females (Hilfiker et al., 1995), is capable of suppressing Sxl^{M1} but fails to suppress Sxl^{M4} . In contrast, two alleles of *flex*, also null alleles (based on genetic criteria) suppress both Sxl^{M1} and Sxl^{M4} . It is therefore unlikely that the difference in Sxl^{M4} nescue could be due to residual levels of *flex* function. Sxl^{M4} has been found to be completely constitutive, it functions independently of the all transcriptional and splicing regulators (Bernstein et al., 1995), but it does require *flex* for its function.

Second, in contrast to mutants in all splice regulators, flex homozygous females are not rescued by either Sxl^{M1} or Sxl^{M4} . In particular, Sxl^{M4} , the constitutive allele, would be expected to rescue *flex* females if *flex* is essential for *Sxl* splicing. Either Sxl^{M4} is not a constitutive allele, and requires flex for its splicing, or *flex* does not function as a splice factor. We therefore suggest, that *flex* abolishes the presence of SXL and interrupts the autoregulatory feedback loop in Sxl^{M1} and Sxl^{M4} males. The fact that the lethal periods of *Sxl* and *flex* overlap, late embryonic (Albrecht and Salz, 1993) and the lack of SXL in *flex* homozygous embryos throughout embryogenesis is consistent with this hypothesis; *flex* may perturb the positive autoregulation by eliminating SXL, leading to the accumulation of transcripts containing the male exon. This explanation is likely to apply to the female germline as well. Thus, we propose that *flex* may function at the post-splicing level, controlling either the translation or the stability of SXL. No matter at what aspect of Sxl expression flex regulates, among all post-transcriptional regulators of Sxl known, it is unique in its sex specificity.

We thank Anuranjan Anand for providing the $flex^{1}$ allele. We also thank Tom Cline, Bruce Baker, John Lucchesi, Norbert Perrimon, Bryan Turner, Girish Deshpande, Paul Schedl and the Bloomington stock center for sending us stocks, clones and antibodies. Thanks are also due to K. Vijayraghavan, Girish Deshpande and Paul Schedl for helpful discussions and Kirsteen Munn and Judy Yanowitz for suggestions on the manuscript. K. Kuppuswamy and Le Nguyen are gratefully acknowledged for preparing fly food. This work was supported by grants from the Department of Biotechnology, Government of India, the National Institutes of Health and the Horace W. Goldsmith Foundation.

REFERENCES

- Anand, A. (1993). A search for additional genes affecting sex determination in *Drosophila melanogaster*. Ph.D. Thesis, Department of Microbiology and Cell Biology, Indian Institute of Science, Bangalore.
- Albrecht, E. B. and Salz, H. K. (1993). The Drosophila sex determination gene *snf* is utilized for the establishment of the female-specific splicing pattern of *Sex-lethal. Genetics* 134, 801-807.
- Baker, B. S., Gorman, M. and Marin, I. (1994). Dosage compensation in Drosophila. Annu. Rev. Genet. 28, 491-521.
- Belote, J. M. and Lucchesi, J. C. (1980a). Control of X chromosome transcription by the *maleless* gene in *Drosophila*. *Nature* 285, 573-575.
- Belote, J. M. and Lucchesi, J. C. (1980b). Male-specific lethal mutations of Drosophila melanogaster. Genetics 96, 165-186.

Bell, L. R., Maine, E. M., Schedl, P. and Cline, T. W. (1988). Sex-lethal, a

Drosophila sex determination switch gene, exhibits sex- specific RNA splicing and sequence similarity to RNA binding proteins. *Cell* 55, 1037-1046.

- Bell, L. R., Horabin, J. I., Schedl, P. and Cline, T. W. (1991). Positive autoregulation of *Sex-lethal* by alternative splicing maintains the female determined state in Drosophila. *Cell* 65, 229-239.
- Bernstein, M., Lersch, R. A., Subrahmanyan, L. and Cline, T. W. (1995). Transposon insertions causing constitutive Sex-lethal activity in Drosophila melanogaster affect Sxl sex-specific transcript splicing. Genetics 139, 631-648.
- Bhattacharya, A., Sudha, S., Balakrishna, S. and Chandra, H. S. (1999). Requirement of *flex* clones in the germ line of *Drosophila melanogaster* females. *J. Genetics* (in press).
- Bopp, D., Bell, L. R., Cline, T. W. and Schedl, P. (1991). Developmental distribution of female-specific Sex-lethal proteins in *Drosophila melanogaster*. Genes Dev. 5, 403-415.
- Bopp, D., Horabin, J. I., Lersch, R. A., Cline, T. W. and Schedl, P. (1993). Expression of the Sex-lethal gene is controlled at multiple levels during Drosophila oogenesis. Development 118, 797-812.
- Bridges, C. B. (1925). Sex in relation to chromosomes. *Am. Nat* 59, 127-137. Chou, T. B. and Perrimon, N. (1992). Use of a yeast site-specific recombinase
- to produce female germline chimeras in Drosophila. *Genetics* **131**, 643-653. **Cline, T. W.** (1978). Two closely linked mutations in *Drosophila melanogaster*
- that are lethal to opposite sexes and interact with *daughterless. Genetics* **90**, 683-698.
- Cline, T. W. (1984). Autoregulation functioning of a Drosophila gene product that establishes and maintains the sexually determined state. *Genetics* 107, 231-277.
- **Cline, T. W.** (1988). Evidence that *sisterless-a* and *sisterless-b* are two of several discrete 'numerator elements' of the X/A sex determination signal in Drosophila that switch between two alternative stable expression states. *Genetics* **119**, 829-862.
- Cline, T. W. (1993). The Drosophila sex determination signal: how do flies count to two? *Trends Genet.* 9, 385-390.
- Cline, T. W. and Meyer, B. J. (1996). Vive la difference: males vs females in flies vs worms. *Annu. Rev. Genet.* **30**, 637-702.
- Cohen, B. and Cohen, S. M. (1992). Double labeling of mRNA and proteins in Drosophila embryos. In *Non-Radioactive Labeling and Detection of Biomolecules*. (ed. C. Kessler). pp 382-392. Berlin/Heidelberg: Springer-Verlag
- Erickson, J. W. and Cline, T. W. (1993). A bZIP protein, *sisterless-a*, collaborates with bHLH transcription factors early in Drosophila development to determine sex. *Genes Dev.* **7**, 1688-1702.
- Franke, A., Dernburg, A., Bashaw, G. J. and Baker, B. S. (1996). Evidence that MSL-mediated dosage compensation in Drosophila begins at blastoderm. *Development* 122, 2751-2760.
- Gergen, J. P. (1987). Dosage compensation in Drosophila: evidence that *daughterless* and *Sex-lethal* control X chromosome activity at the blastoderm stage of embryogenesis. *Genetics* **117**, 477-485.
- Gorman, M., Kuroda, M. I. and Baker, B. S. (1993). Regulation of the sexspecific binding of the *maleless* dosage compensation protein to the male X chromosome in Drosophila. *Cell* **72**, 39-49.
- Gorman, M. and Baker, B. S. (1994). How flies make one equal two: dosage compensation in Drosophila. *Trends Genet.* 10, 376-380.
- Granadino, B., Campuzano, S. and Sanchez, L. (1990). The Drosophila melanogaster gene fl(2)d is needed for female-specific splicing of Sex-lethal RNA. EMBO J. 9, 2597-2602.
- **Granadino, B., San Juan, A., Santamaria, P. and Sanchez, L.** (1992). Evidence of a dual function in *fl*(2)*d*, a gene needed for *Sex-lethal* expression in *Drosophila melanogaster. Genetics* **130**, 597-612.
- Granadino, B., Santamaria, P. and Sanchez, L. (1993). Sex determination in the germ line of *Drosophila melanogaster*: activation of the gene *Sexlethal. Development* **118**, 813-816.
- Hager, J. H. and Cline, T. W. (1997). Induction of female Sex-lethal RNA splicing in male germ cells: implications for Drosophila germline sex determination. Development 124, 5033-5048.
- Hilfiker, A. and Nothiger, R. (1991). The temperature-sensitive mutation *virts* (*virilizer*) identifies a new gene involved in sex determination of Drosophila. *Roux's Arch. Dev. Biol.* 200, 240-248
- Hilfiker, A., Amrein, H., Dubendorfer, A., Schneiter, R. and Nothiger, R. (1995). The gene *virilizer* is required for female-specific splicing controlled by *Sxl*, the master gene for sexual development in Drosophila. *Development* 121, 4017-4026.
- Hilfiker, A., Hilfiker-Kleiner, D., Pannuti, A. and Lucchesi, J. C. (1997).

mof, a putative acetyl transferase gene related to the Tip60 and MOZ human genes and to the SAS genes of yeast, is required for dosage compensation in Drosophila. *EMBO J.* **16**, 2054-2060.

- Horabin, J. I., Bopp, D., Waterbury, J. and Schedl, P. (1995). Selection and maintenance of sexual identity in the Drosophila germline. *Genetics* 141, 1521-1535.
- Kelley, R. L. and Kuroda, M. I. (1995). Equality for X chromosomes [see comments]. *Science* 270, 1607-1610.
- Kelley, R. L., Solovyeva, I., Lyman, L. M., Richman, R., Solovyev, V. and Kuroda, M. I. (1995). Expression of *msl-2* causes assembly of dosage compensation regulators on the X chromosomes and female lethality in Drosophila. *Cell* 81, 867-877.
- Keyes, L. N., Cline, T. W. and Schedl, P. (1992). The primary sex determination signal of Drosophila acts at the level of transcription [published erratum appears in Cell 1992 May 1;69(3):following 572]. Cell 68, 933-943.
- Kuroda, M. I., Palmer, M. J. and Lucchesi, J. C. (1993). X chromosome dosage compensation in Drosophila. *Semin. Dev. Biol.* 4, 107-116.
- Lindsley, D. L. and Zimm, G. (1992). The Genome of Drosophila melanogaster. Academic Press, Inc., Harcourt Brace Jovanovitch, Publishers.
- Lucchesi, J. C. and Skripsky, T. (1981). The link between dosage compensation and sex differentiation in *Drosophila melanogaster*. *Chromosoma* 82, 217-227.
- Lucchesi, J. C. (1983). Dosage compensation in Drosophila. Isozymes Curr. Top. Biol. Med. Res. 9, 179-188.
- Lucchesi, J. C. and Manning, J. E. (1987). Gene dosage compensation in Drosophila melanogaster. Adv. Genet. 24, 371-429.
- Lucchesi, J. C. (1997). Dosage compensation in Drosophila and the complex world of transcriptional regulation. *BioEssays* 18, 541-546.
- Marsh, J. L. and Wieschaus E. (1978). Is sex determination in the germ line and soma controlled by separate mechanisms? *Nature* 272, 249-251.
- Montell, D. J., Rorth, P. and Spradling, A. C. (1992). slow border cells, a locus required for a developmentally regulated cell migration during oogenesis, encodes Drosophila C/EBP. Cell 71, 51-62.
- Nöthiger, R., Jonglez, M., Leuthold, M., Meier-Gerschwiler, P. and Weber, T. (1989). Sex determination in the germ line of Drosophila depends on genetic signals and inductive somatic factors. *Development* 107, 505-518.
- Oliver, B., Kim, Y. J. and Baker, B. S. (1993). *Sex-lethal*, master and slave: a hierarchy of germ-line sex determination in Drosophila. *Development* **119**, 897-908.
- Pauli, D. and Mahowald, A. P. (1990). Germline sex determination in Drosophila melanogaster. Trends Genet 6, 259-264.
- Pauli, D., Oliver, B. and Mahowald, A. P. (1993). The role of the ovarian tumor locus in Drosophila melanogaster germline sex determination. Development 119, 123-134.
- Pauli, D., Oliver, B. and Mahowald, A. P. (1995). Identification of regions interacting with ovo^D mutations: potential new genes involved in germline

sex determination or differentiation in *Drosophila melanogaster*. Genetics **139**, 713-732.

- Pultz, M. A. and Baker, B. S. (1995). The dual role of *hermaphrodite* in the Drosophila sex determination regulatory hierarchy. *Development* 121, 99-111.
- Rastelli, L., Richman, R. and Kuroda, M. I. (1995). The dosage compensation regulators MLE, MSL-1 and MSL-2 are interdependent since early embryogenesis in Drosophila. *Mech. Dev.* **53**, 223-233.
- Salz, H. K. (1992). The genetic analysis of *snf*: a Drosophila sex determination gene required for activation of *Sex-lethal* in both the germline and the soma. *Genetics* 130, 547-554.
- Samuels, M. E., Schedl, P. and Cline, T. W. (1991). The complex set of late transcripts from the Drosophila sex determination gene *Sex-lethal* encodes multiple related polypeptides. *Mol. Cell Biol.* 11, 3584-3602.
- Schupbach, T. (1982). Autosomal mutations that interfere with sex determination in somatic cells of Drosophila have no direct effect on the germ line. *Dev. Biol.* 89, 117-127
- Schupbach, T. (1985). Normal female germ cell differentiation requires the female X chromosome to autosome ratio and expression of *Sex-lethal* in *Drosophila melanogaster*. *Genetics* 109, 529-548.
- Schütt, C., Hilfiker, A. and Nöthiger, R. (1998). virilizer regulates Sex-lethal in the germline of Drosophila melanogaster. Development 125, 1501-1507.
- Staab, S. and Steinmann-Zwicky, M. (1996). Female germ cells of Drosophila require zygotic *ovo* and *otu* product for survival in larvae and pupae respectively. *Mech. Dev.* 54, 205-210.
- Steinmann-Zwicky, M., Schmid, H. and Nothiger, R. (1989). Cellautonomous and inductive signals can determine the sex of the germ line of drosophila by regulating the gene Sxl. Cell 57, 157-166.
- Steinmann-Zwicky, M. (1992). How do germ cells choose their sex? Drosophila as a paradigm. *BioEssays* 14, 513-518.
- Steinmann-Zwicky, M. (1993). Sex determination in Drosophila: *sis-b*, a major numerator element of the X:A ratio in the soma, does not contribute to the X:A ratio in the germ line. *Development* **117**, 763-767.
- Steinmann-Zwicky, M. (1994). Sxl in the germline of Drosophila: a target for somatic late induction. Dev. Genet. 15, 265-274.
- Tautz, D. and Pfeifle, C. (1989). A non-radioactive in situ hybridization method for the localization of specific RNAs in Drosophila embryos reveal, translational control of the segmentation gene *hunchback. Chromosoma* 98, 81-85.
- Torres, M. and Sanchez, L. (1989). The scute (T4) gene acts as a numerator element of the X:A signal that determines the state of activity of Sex-lethal in Drosophila. EMBO J. 8, 3079-3086.
- Turner, B. M. and Fellows, G. (1989). Specific antibodies reveal ordered and cell cycle related use of histone H4 acetylation sites in mammalian cells. *Eur. J. Biochem.* 179, 131-139.
- Turner, B. M., Birley, A. J. and Lavender, J. (1992). Histone H4 isoforms acetylated at specific lysine residues define individual chromosomes and chromatin domains in Drosophila polytene nuclei. *Cell* 69, 375-384.