Synergistic interaction between particular X-chromosome deletions and Sex-lethal causes female lethality in Drosophila melanogaster

ANURANJAN ANAND* and H. SHARAT CHANDRA*†

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

[†]Jawaharlal Nehru Centre for Advanced Scientific Research, Bangalore 560 012, India

MS received 25 August 1994

Abstract. We studied the effect on female viability of *trans*-heterozygous combinations of X-chromosome deficiencies and Sxt^{fl} , a null allele of Sex-lethal. Twentyfive deficiencies, which together covered 80% of the X chromosome, were tested. Seven of these trans-heterozygous combinations caused significant levels of female lethality. Two of the seven interacting deficiencies include the previously known sex determination genes sans fille and sisterless-a. Four of the remaining uncover X-chromosomal regions that were not hitherto known to contain sex determination genes. These newly identified regions are defined by deficiencies Df(1)RA2 (7D10; 8A4-5), Df(1)KA14 (7F1-2; 8C6), Df(1)C52 (8E; 9C-D) and Df(1)N19 (17A1; 18A2). These four deficiencies were characterized further to determine whether it was the maternal or zygotic dosage that was primarily responsible for the observed lethality of female embryos. daughterless and extra macrochaetae, two known regulators of SxI, influence the interaction of these deficiencies with SxI.

Keywords. Drosophila melanogaster; sex determination; Sex-lethal.

1. Introduction

In *Drosophila melanogaster*, the primary signal for sex determination is the ratio of the number of X chromosomes to the number of sets of autosomes (the X: A ratio) (Bridges 1921; reviewed by Cline 1993). The X: A ratio is measured very early in development and the signal is conveyed to an X-linked master regulatory gene, *Sex-lethal (Sxl)* (Cline 1978). An X: A ratio of 1 results in the transcriptional activation of the early-acting, female-specific promoter of *Sxl* and this is essential for female development (Keyes *et al.* 1992). Once *Sxl* has been activated, the primary signal is not necessary for maintenance of *Sxl* activity during subsequent development because *Sxl* activity is autoregulated via alternative RNA splicing (Bell *et al.* 1991). When the X: A ratio equals 1/2, the early promoter of *Sxl* is not activated and male development ensues. Activation of *Sxl* in females leads to appropriate regulation of downstream genes concerned with somatic sex determination, germline sex determination, and dosage compensation (reviewed by Baker 1989; Steinmann-Zwicky *et al.* 1990; McKeown 1992; Pauli and Mahowald 1990; Steinmann-Zwicky 1992; Kuroda *et al.* 1993).

Three X-linked genes, sisterless-a (sis-a), sisterless-b (sis-b) and runt, have been identified as numerator components of the X: A signal. All three genes are positive regulators of Sxl and mutations in them show dose-dependent, female-specific

lethality in *trans*-heterozygous combination with Sxt^{fl} , a null mutation of Sxt (Cline 1986, 1988; Torres and Sanchéz 1989, 1992; Duffy and Gergen 1991). It is thought that heterozygosity for sis-a, sis-b or runt in trans combination with Sxt^{fl} lowers Sxt product levels, resulting in female lethality.

If there are other X-chromosomal genes or regions that contain elements involved in the regulation of Sxl, it may be possible to detect them by similarly examining their interaction with Sxl^{fl} . Analysis of the interaction of Sxl^{fl} with relatively large deficiencies of the X chromosome might therefore be an appropriate method for rapid screening of chromosomal segments for additional elements involved in Sxl regulation. We have attempted both mutational and deletion analysis of the X chromosome. Results of the deletion analysis are reported here.

2. Materials and methods

The deficiency stocks used were obtained from the Umeà (Sweden), Bloomington (USA) and TIFR (Bombay, India) stock centres. The Sxt^{fl} mutation was kindly provided by Dr Thomas Cline, sis-b (sc^{10-1}) by Dr Lucas Sanchéz, the $Dp(1;2)sn^{+72d}$ (7A8;8A5;32C;58E) (Lefevre 1981) stock and da by Dr Anthony Mahowald, the emc allele by Dr James Posakony, and Df(1)D2, $Df(1)fu^{B10}$, $Df(1)os^{UE19}$ and $Df(1)os^{IA}$ by Dr Norbert Perrimon (Eberl et al. 1992). The break points of the deletion chromosomes used are given in table 1. See Lindsley and Zimm (1992) for complete descriptions of these stocks. Flies were raised at 25°C on standard corn meal–sucrose–yeast medium in half-pint bottles under uncrowded conditions.

Twentyfive deficiencies, which together uncover about 80% of the X chromosome, were tested. In each case, females heterozygous for the deficiency were crossed to cm Sxl^{fl} ct⁶ males. In this cross three classes of progeny—females of the genotypes Df(1)/Sxl^{fl} and FM7/Sxl^{fl}, and FM7 males—are expected to emerge; these are designated A, B and C respectively. In control crosses, females heterozygous for the deficiency were crossed to cm Sxl+ ct6 males. In order to keep nonspecific variation to a minimum, the same balancer X chromosome, FM7c ($w^{\hat{a}} sn^{X2} v^{\hat{o}f} g^4 B$), was used in all crosses. A maternal role for the elements uncovered by the deficiency is likely if, in the progeny, females of both classes, i.e. $Df(1)/Sxt^{f^{T}}$ and $FM7/Sxt^{f^{T}}$, show reduced viability. This is represented in the text and in table 1 as two ratios: the sex ratio [(A+B)/C], i.e. the ratio of the total number of females to that of males; and the A/B ratio, i.e. the ratio of the doubly heterozygous $Df(1)/Sxl^{f}$ females to FM7/Sxl^{f1} females. These ratios were computed for both experimental and control crosses. Since the viability of balancer males can fluctuate owing to nonspecific effects, including the genetic background, and lead to variation in the sex ratio, we decided to focus on deficiencies that show a large, i.e. at least six-fold, reduction in the sex ratio in experimental crosses. A reduction in the number of $Df(1)/Sxl^{fl}$ females compared to $FM7/Sxl^{fl}$ females is indicative of a zygotic role for the deleted segment; the interaction was considered significant if the deficiency caused at least a three-fold reduction in viability of Df(1)/Sxl^{ft} females.

3. Results

Of the 25 deletions tested, seven-HC244, RA2, KA14, C52, RA37, C246 and

N19—caused significant levels of female lethality in combination with Sxt^{II} . The results of the crosses involving each of these deficiencies are described below. Four of the deficiencies—RA2, KA14, C52 and C246—resulted in more than six-fold reduction in the sex ratio [(A + B)/C]. Three—HC244, RA37 and N19—showed synergistic interactions with Sxt^{II} and significantly reduced the viability of doubly heterozygous females in comparison with females heterozygous for Sxt^{II} alone (table 1).

Table 1. Effect of interaction between particular X-chromosome deletions and *Sxl* on survival.

Deficiency <i>Df(1)</i> (cytology)		A/B ratio*	No. of class B females	Sex ratio**
1. S39	C	1·09	487	1·66
(1E1-2;2B5-6)	E	0·88	244	2·01
2. <i>Pgd35</i> (2C2-4;2E2-F1/F5)	C	1·22	1014	2·44
	E	1·22	1348	2·98
3. <i>JC19</i> (2F6;3C5)	C	0·88	1218	2·95
	E	0·77	1196	2·47
4. <i>HC244</i> ^a (3E8;4F11)	C	0·83	187	0·75
	E	0·16	275	0·37
5. <i>dm75e19</i> (3C11;3E4)	C	1·14	516	2·65
	E	1·30	641	3·22
6. <i>C149</i> (5A8-9;5C5-6)	C	0·92	416	4·60
	E	1·12	599	6·60
7. <i>N73</i> (5C2;5D5-6)	C	1·30	200	4·33
	E	1·92	371	2·28
8. <i>HA32,SxГ</i> (6E4-5;7A6)	C	1.01	328	2·28
	E	0	760	1·88
9. RA2 ^{d1} (7D10;8A4-5)	C	1·01	452	3·39
	E	0·94	88	0·15
(7F1-2;8C6)	C	1·05	394	5·49
	E	1·22	252	0·28
11. C52 ^{d3}	C	0·81	275	1·42
(8E;9C-D)	E	0·77	98	0·19
2. <i>HC133</i> (9B9-10;9E-F)	C	0·99	438	1·74
	E	1·05	542	1·95
3. <i>RA37</i> ^b (10A6;10B15)	C	0·85	387	1·53
	E	0·03	1019	1·36
4. <i>HA85</i> (10D;11A3-5)	C	1·10	753	1·53
	E	0·88	481	1·81
5. <i>M13</i>	C	1·20	288	1·19
(10D;11A3-5)	E	0·74	246	1·36
6. <i>KA6</i>	C	0·81	532	1.43
(10E1;11A7-8)	E	0·94	438	4.08
7. <i>N105</i>	C	0·85	857	2·32
(10F1;10F9-10)	E	1·01	958	2·60

(contd)

Table 1 (contd)

Deficiency <i>Df(1)</i> (cytology)		A/B ratio*	No. of class B females	Sex ratio**
18. <i>RA47</i> (10F1;10F9-10)	C E	1.11	350 469	8·19 4·59
19. <i>JA26</i>	C	1·05	721	2·08
(11A1;11D-E)	E	0·73	480	0·83
20. <i>N12</i> (11D1-2;11F7-8)	C	1·15	429	3·50
	E	1·24	436	1·86
21. <i>C246</i> ^c (11D3;12A1-2)	C	0·87	373	3·31
	E	0·25	68	0·13
22. <i>HA92</i>	C	0·91	907	3·22
(12A6-7;12D3)	E	1·11	1114	3·60
23. <i>N19</i> ^{d4} (17A1;18A2)	C	1·05	1114	3·42
	E	0·25	1355	1·52
24. fu ^{B10} (17C5-D1;18A4-7)	C	0·85	730	3·14
	E	0·15	899	1·13
25. <i>JA27</i> (18A5;20A)	C	0·80	1478	4·66
	E	2·20	1321	1·77
26. <i>DCB-1-35b</i> (19F1-2;20E-F)	C	1·04	646	3·64
	E	2·39	457	4·26

E, experimental cross, $Df(1)/FM7 \times Sxl^{fI}/Y$; C, control cross, $Df(1)/FM7 \times Sxl^{+}/Y$ *Ratio of the $Df(1)/Sxl^{fI}$ vs $FM7/Sxl^{fI}$ and $Df(1)/Sxl^{+}$ vs $FM7/Sxl^{+}$ females obtained in the progeny of $Df(1)FM7 \times Sxl^{fI}/Y$ and $Df(1)/FM7 \times Sxl^{+}/Y$ crosses respectively

3.1. Df(1)RA2

In the cross involving Df(1)RA2 and Sxl^{II} , the sex ratio was 0·15 (171 females and 1113 males). Df(1)RA2 is deleted from 7D10 to 8A4–5. In the control cross, the sex ratio was 3·39 (933 females and 275 males). Although the number of females was reduced drastically in the experimental cross, the ratio of $Df(1)/Sxl^{II}$ to $FM7/Sxl^{II}$ females (referred to as the A/B ratio in table 1) was within normal limits (1·01 in control and 0·94 in experimental cross), leaving open the possibility that the element(s) deleted could be acting maternally. The following cross was performed to test for maternal effect: $FM7/Sxl^{II}$ females were mated with Df(1)RA2/Y; $Dp(1;2)sn^{+72d}/CyO$ males. The compensating duplication in the latter stock allows the deficiency chromosome to be passed through males. In this cross the sex ratio was 1·10 (511 females and 490 males), indicating that the female-specific lethality seen in the cross $[Df(1)RA2/FM7 \times Sxl^{II}/Y]$ was most likely due to a maternal effect.

3.2 Df(1)KA14

In the experimental cross involving Df(1)KA14, the sex ratio was 0.28 (559 females

^{**(}A + B)/C, Ratio of total females (classes A and B) to total males (class C) a, Steinmann-Zwicky and Nothiger 1985; b, Cline 1986; c, Belote *et al.* 1985; d1, d2, d3, d4, this study

and 2021 males); in the control cross, the sex ratio was 5.49 (807 females and 147 males). *Df(1)KA14* (7F1-2; 8C6) and *Df(1)RA2* (7D10; 8A4-5) are overlapping deletions, which suggests that the observed interactions could be due to the region common to both, i.e. chromosomal bands 7F1-2 to 8A4-5. Here again, the A/B ratio was within normal limits (1.05 in control and 1.22 in experimental), suggesting that the effect of interacting elements is likely to be maternal.

3.3 Df(1)C52

The region defined by Df(1)C52 uncovers bands 8E to 9C-D. A partially overlapping deletion, Df(1)HC133, which lacks the region from 9B9-10 to 9E-F, did not show any interaction (see table 1). Thus the region interacting with Sxt^{II} can be narrowed down to 8E to 9B9-10. In this case also, the A/B ratio was normal, but a significant reduction in the total number of females was seen (173 females and 929 males). This too is consistent with a maternal role for the region uncovered by Df(1)C52, but reciprocal crosses to confirm this possibility could not be carried out because duplications covering this region were not available.

3.4 Df(1)C246

A sex ratio of 0.13 (85 females and 675 males) was seen in the cross involving Df(1)C246 and Sxt^{II} . Df(1)C246 uncovers bands 11D3 to 12A1-2. In the control cross, the sex ratio was 3.31 (698 females and 211 males). In addition to a reduction in the overall number of females, the $Df(1)/Sxt^{II}$ class of females were less viable than $FM7/Sxt^{II}$ females $(17 Df(1)/Sxt^{II})$ and $68 FM7/Sxt^{II}$; A/B ratio = 0.25). The A/B ratio in the control cross was 0.87 (325 $Df(1)/Sxt^{I}$ and 373 $FM7/Sxt^{I}$ females). A partially overlapping deletion Df(1)N12 (table 1), in which bands 11D1-2 to 11F7-8 are deleted, showed almost no interaction with Sxt^{II} (sex ratio 3.50 in control and 1.86 in experimental cross, A/B ratio 1.15 in control and 1.24 in experimental cross). Therefore the interacting region can be narrowed down to bands 11F7-8 to 12A1-2.

3.5 Df(1)HC244

This deficiency uncovers chromosomal bands 3E8 to 4F11. In the cross involving Df(I)HC244 and Sxt^{II} , the sex ratio was 0.37 (318 females and 862 males). There was also significant reduction in viability of $Df(I)/Sxt^{II}$ females compared to $FM7/Sxt^{II}$ females (43 $Df(I)/Sxt^{II}$ and 275 $FM7/Sxt^{II}$, A/B ratio 0.16). In the control cross, the sex and A/B ratios were 0.75 (342 females and 453 males) and 0.83 (155 $Df(I)/Sxt^{II}$ and 187 $FM7/Sxt^{II}$) respectively.

3.6 *Df(1)RA37*

Chromosomal bands 10A6 to 10B15 are deleted in Df(1)RA37. In the progeny of the cross $Df(1)RA37 \times Sxl^{fl}$, a substantial reduction in the number of $Df(1)/Sxl^{fl}$ females was seen. The A/B ratios were 0.03 (30 $Df(1)/Sxl^{fl}$ and 1019 $FM7/Sxl^{fl}$) in

the experimental cross and $0.85~(328~Df(1)/Sxl^{+}$ and $387~FM7/Sxl^{+})$ in the control cross.

3.7 Df(1)N19

The region defined by Df(1)N19, which uncovers chromosomal bands 17A1 to 18A2, also caused female lethality in *trans* combination with Sxt^{II} . Females doubly heterozygous for Df(1)N19 and Sxt^{II} were four-fold less viable than $FM7/Sxt^{II}$ females (344 $Df(1)/Sxt^{II}$ and 1355 $FM7/Sxt^{II}$). This observation is consistent with zygotic interaction of one or more elements in the deleted segment with Sxt^{II} . Out of four overlapping deficiencies (D2, fu^{BIO} , os^{UEI9} , os^{IA}) tested for interaction with Sxt^{II} , only $Df(1)fu^{BIO}$ (17C5-D1; 18A4-7) caused a significant reduction in the number of doubly heterozygous females (137 $Df(1)fu^{BIO}/Sxt^{II}$ and 899 $FM7/Sxt^{II}$) [see table 1; data not shown for others]. Hence the interacting region is within chromosomal bands 17C5-D1 to 18A2.

As noted earlier, it is possible to distinguish among effects that are maternal, zygotic, or both by examining whether female viability is reduced (i) equally in both classes of females $(Df(1)/Sxt^{II}$ and $FM7/Sxt^{II}$), (ii) only in $Df(1)/Sxt^{II}$ females, or (iii) in both, but more severely in $Df(1)/Sxt^{II}$ females. On this basis the effects of RA2, KA14 and C52 appear to be maternal, and those of RA37 and RA37 and

3.8 Female-lethal interaction between four of the deletions and Sxl^{fl} is enhanced by daughterless and decreased by extra macrochaetae

To test if the four new interacting deficiencies identified in this screen interact with daughterless (da) and extra macrochaetae (emc), two known regulators of Sxl, we analysed the influence of mutations in these genes on female lethality in crosses between Sxl^{II} and RA2, KA14, C52 or N19. In control crosses, females of the same genotype were crossed to Sxl^{+} males (table 2). The autosomal gene da^{+} codes for a maternal product that is essential for the proper activation of Sxl (Cline 1978). Whereas daughters of da/da mothers do not survive, sons are unaffected. Among the female progeny of da/+ mothers, those that are heterozygous for a null allele of Sxl (Sxl^{+}/Sxl^{-}) are less viable than their Sxl^{+}/Sxl^{+} sisters, suggesting that da and Sxl interact in a dose-dependent manner (Cline 1980). The gene emc^{+} has recently been shown to be a maternally acting negative regulator of Sxl. Sex ratio of the progeny of mothers heterozygous for emc is normal or nearly so. Males with reduced maternal emc^{+} activity and imbalance of $sis-b^{+}$ to dpn^{+} ($deadpan^{+}$, an autosomal regulator of Sxl) dosage, i.e. with two copies of $sis-b^{+}$ and one copy of dpn^{+} , show reduced viability (Younger-Shepherd et al. 1992).

The effect of da and emc on the interaction between Sxl and the deletions RA2,

Table 2. Interactions among da, emc, Sxl and the deficiencies.

	Paternal genotype**		
	Sxl ⁺	Sxl^{ff}	
Maternal genotype*	Numbers of surviving females/males (sex ratio)		
1. +/+; da ¹ /+	546/511 (1·07)	496/738 (0·67)	
2. +/+; emc ^{ML} /+	561/509 (1·10)	1089/843 (1·29)	
3. RA2/+; da ¹ /+	1181/1166 (1·01)	17/1152 (0·01)	
4. RA2/+; emc ^{ML} /+	1166/775 (1·50)	884/653 (1·35)	
5. KA14/+; da^{l} /+	1182/1018 (1·16)	31/1239 (0·03)	
6. KA14/+; emc ^{ML} /+	1156/721 (1·60)	753/539 (1·40)	
7. C52/+; da ¹ /+	513/520 (0·99)	9/414 (0·02)	
8. C52/+; emc ^{ML} /+	409/268 (1·53)	539/552 (0·98)	
9. N19/+; da ¹ /+	1182/703 (1·68)	588/1166 (0·50)	
10. N19/+; emc ^{ML} /+	1264/576 (2·19)	1156/568 (2·04)	

^{*}The da^I mutation employed in these crosses is a weak allele, and emc^{ML} a strong allele

KA14, C52 and N19 was studied by crossing Sxl^{f} males with females doubly heterozygous for the deficiency and da' (a hypomorphic allele) or emc^{ML} (a strong allele). Viability of females was significantly lower in the progeny of Df(1)/+; da/+ mothers than in those of singly heterozygous mothers (table 2; see also table 1). For instance, in the cross $RA2/+:da/+\times Sxl^{f}/Y$, 1152 males and 17 females were obtained, suggesting a strong maternal influence of the genes uncovered by Df(1)RA2. However, female viability was restored when mothers carrying RA2, KA14, C52 or N19 were also heterozygous for emc^{ML} (table 2). For example, RA2/+; $emc^{ML}/+$ heterozygotes when crossed to Sxl^{II} males gave rise to 884 females and 653 males. Similarly, a strong maternal influence was observed in the case of KA14 and C52, whereas the elements uncovered by N19 seem to interact with Sxt^{l} in a zygotic fashion. These results provide further evidence that additional genetic elements involved in the regulation of Sxl may be present in the regions uncovered by RA2, KA14, C52 and N19. The extent of female lethality (almost 100%) observed for interactions between Sxl^{fl} on the one hand and RA2, KA14 or C52 and da on the other could therefore serve as a robust assay to isolate interacting genes.

^{**}The relevant genotypes were $cm Sxl^+ ct^6$ and $cm Sxl^{fI} ct^6$

4. Discussion

Genes involved in a particular developmental pathway may be identifiable on the basis of their failure to complement mutant genes at other loci. Such an approach has been successfully used to identify genes involved in sex determination in the region uncovered by Df(I)C246. It was observed that in XX flies heterozygous for both transformer (tra) and transformer-2 (tra-2), two genes involved in somatic sex determination, Df(I)C246 led to the development of intersexes in a significant proportion of the progeny (Belote et al. 1985). Such genetic screens have been successful in analysing other developmental pathways as well. For instance, this approach enabled Tricoire (1988) to identify X-chromosomal regions interacting with Krüppel, hunchback and hairy, three genes involved in segmentation. Simon et al. (1991) screened for mutations that decrease the effectiveness of signalling by a protein kinase, the product of the sevenless gene, and isolated seven mutations whose wild-type counterparts code for products essential for signalling by the product of the sevenless gene.

In the present study, female-specific lethality was observed in seven out of the twentyfive X-chromosome deletions tested. These are HC244, RA2, KA14, C52, RA37, C246 and N19. Deficiencies HC244 and RA37 have been investigated by other workers and the following genes involved in the sex determination pathway have been identified: snf (Oliver et~al. 1988; Flickinger and Salz 1994) [also named fs(1)A1621 by Gans et~al. 1975, and liz by Steinmann-Zwicky 1988] in the region defined by Df(1)HC244, and sis-a in the region defined by Df(1)RA37 (Cline 1986). The independent identification of these regions in the present study adds to the validity of this type of genetic approach. The gene sisterless-c (sis-c) has recently been identified as an additional numerator component of the X:A ratio (Cline 1993). Df(1)N19, one of seven deficiencies found to interact with Sxt^{fl} (table 1), uncovers sis-c. It seems likely that sis-c is also uncovered by $Df(1)fu^{B10}$, which partially overlaps with Df(1)N19 (table 1).

runt is a positive regulator of Sxl (Duffy and Gergen 1991; Torres and Sanchéz 1992). In trans-heterozygous combination with Sxl^{II} , runt causes a reduction in the number of female offspring. However, in the present study, deletion Df(1)JA27, which uncovers runt, did not cause female-specific lethality when combined with Sxl^{II} . This may be because of differences in genetic background in the two sets of experiments. Interaction between runt and Sxl^{II} is not as strong as that between Sxl^{II} and sis-a or sis-b. Double heterozygotes for Sxl^{II} and runt show only a 50% reduction in female viability ($runt/Sxl^{II} = 206$, $FM6/Sxl^{II} = 416$; Duffy and Gergen 1991). In the light of this observation, and the fact that the strength of the interactions among sex determination genes can vary widely depending on genetic background (Cline 1988), it is not surprising that female lethality was not observed in our experiments involving Sxl^{II} and Df(1)JA27.

Female lethality resulting from interaction between Sxl and deficiencies RA2, KA14, C52 and N19 is enhanced by da and decreased by emc, whose wild-type alleles are both early regulators of Sxl. Early activation of Sxl is mediated by a set of genes all of which except two (sis-a and runt) encode helix-loop-helix (HLH) proteins. While the amounts of maternally provided da^+ and emc^+ products are expected to be the same in both male and female embryos, a two-fold difference is expected in the product levels of the zygotically active numerator genes sis-a,

sis-b and runt. It appears that the probability of activation of Sxl depends on limiting concentrations of products of numerator genes. Our observation that the interactions between Sxl^{II} and deficiencies RA2, KA14, C52 and N19 are influenced by da and emc suggests that the genes uncovered by these deficiencies may also code for HLH transcription regulators.

Acknowledgements

We thank K. VijayRaghavan, V. Nanjundiah and Bruce Baker for discussions and comments on the manuscript. We also appreciate the assistance of K. Srinivasan in providing fly food, and Ananya Bhattacharya and Jayshree Robert in manuscript preparation. This work was supported by a grant from the Department of Biotechnology, Government of India. A.A. was the recipient of a fellowship from CSIR, New Delhi.

References

- Baker B. S. 1989 Sex in flies: The splice of life, Nature 340: 321-324
- Bell L. R., Horabin J. L., Schedl P. and Cline T. W. 1991 Positive autoregulation of Sex-lethal by alternative splicing maintains the female determined state in Drosophila. Cell 5: 229-239
- Belote J. M., McKeown M. B., Andrew D. J., Scott T. N., Wolfner M. F. and Baker B. S. 1985 Control of sexual differentiation in *Drosophila melanogaster*. Cold Spring Harbor Symp. Quant. Biol. 50: 605–614
- Bridges C. B. 1921 Triploid intersexes in Drosophila melanogaster. Science 54: 252-254
- 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. 1980 Maternal and zygotic sex-specific gene interactions in *Drosophila melanogaster*. Genetics 96: 903-926
- Cline T. W. 1986 A female-specific lethal lesion in an X-linked positive regulator of the *Drosophila* sex determination gene, *Sex-lethal. Genetics* 113: 641-663
- 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 *Sxl* between two alternative stable expression states. *Genetics* 119: 829–862
- Cline T. W. 1993 The *Drosophila* sex determination signal: how do flies count two? *Trends Genet.* 9: 385–390
- Duffy J. B. and Gergen J. P. 1991 The *Drosophila* segmentation gene runt acts as a position-specific numerator element necessary for the uniform expression of the sex-determining gene, *Sex lethal*. *Genes Dev.* 5: 2176–2187
- Eberl D. F., Perkins L. A., Engelstein M., Hilliker A. J. and Perrimon N. 1992 Genetic and developmental analysis of polytene section 17 of the X chromosome of *Drosophila melanogaster*. Genetics 130: 569-583
- Flickinger T. W. and Salz H. K. 1994 The *Drosophila* sex determining gene *snf* encodes a nuclear protein with sequence and functional similarity to the mammalian U1A snRNP protein. *Genes Dev.* 8: 914–925
- Gans M. C., Audit C. and Masson M. 1975 Isolation and characterization of sex-linked female sterile mutants in *Drosophila melanogaster*. *Genetics* 81: 683–704
- Keyes L. N., Cline T. W. and Schedl P. 1992 The primary sex determination signal of Drosophila acts at the level of transcription. *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
- Lefevre G. Jr. 1981 The distribution of randomly recovered X-ray induced sex-linked genetic effects in Drosophila melanogaster. Genetics 99: 461–480
- Lindsley D. L. and Zimm G. 1992 The genome of Drosophila melanogaster (San Diego: Academic

Press)

- McKeown M. 1992 Sex differentiation: the role of alternative splicing. Curr. Opin. Genet. Dev. 2: 299-303
- Oliver B., Perrimon N. and Mahowald A. P. 1988 Genetic evidence that the sans fille locus is involved in *Drosophila* sex determination. *Genetics* 120: 159–171
- Pauli D. and Mahowald A. P. 1990 Germline sex determination in *Drosophila melanogaster*. Trends Genet. 6: 259-264
- Simon M. A., Bowtell D. D. L., Dodson G. S., Laverty T. R. and Rubin G. M. 1991 Ras1 and a putative guanine nucleotide exchange factor perform crucial steps in signalling by the Sevenless protein tyrosine kinase. *Cell* 67: 701-716
- Steinmann-Zwicky M. 1988 Sex determination in *Drosophila*: the X-chromosomal gene *liz* is required for *Sxl* activity. *EMBO J.* 7: 3889–3898
- Steinmann-Zwicky M. 1992 How do germ cells choose their sex? *Drosophila* as a paradigm. *Bioessays* 14: 513-518
- Steinmann-Zwicky M., Amrein H. and Nothiger R. 1990 Genetic control of sex determination of Drosophila. Adv. Genet. 27: 189-237
- Steinmann-Zwicky M. and Nothiger R. 1985 A small region on the X chromosome of Drosophila regulates a key gene that controls sex determination and dosage compensation. Cell 42: 877-882
- Torres M. and Sanchéz 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
- Torres M. and Sanchéz L. 1992 The segmentation gene *runt* is needed to activate *Sex-lethal*, a gene that controls sex determination and dosage compensation in Drosophila. *Genet. Res.* 59: 189–198
- Tricoire H. 1988 Dominant maternal interactions with Drosophila segmentation genes. Roux's Arch. Dev. Biol. 197: 115-123
- Younger-Shepherd S., Vaessin H., Bier E., Jan L. Y. and Jan Y. N. 1992 deadpan, an essential pan-neural gene encoding an HLP protein, acts as a denominator in Drosophila sex determination. Cell 70: 911–922