Chromosomal basis of dosage compensation in Drosophila

I. Cellular autonomy of hyperactivity of the male X-chromosome in salivary glands and sex differentiation*

By S. C. LAKHOTIA AND A. S. MUKHERJEE

Department of Zoology, University of Calcutta, 35 Ballygunge Circular Road, Calcutta 19, India

(Received 12 May 1969)

I. INTRODUCTION

The enlargement of the X-chromosome in larval salivary glands of male Drosophila has been noted by many workers and this has been considered to be the chromosomal manifestation of dosage compensation (Offermann, 1936; Aronson, Rudkin & Schultz, 1954; Dobzhansky, 1957; Rudkin, 1964; Schultz, 1965; Mukherjee & Beermann, 1965; Mukherjee, 1966; Mukherjee, Lakhotia & Chatterjee, 1968; Stern, 1968). Mukherjee and his collaborators have shown that the male X-chromosome in larval salivary glands of Drosophila synthesizes RNA at a rate equal to that of the paired X's of the female. It has also been observed that the enlargement of the male X in D. melanogaster is reversible under the action of X-rays and of certain chemicals known to inhibit chromosomal RNA synthesis (Lakhotia, unpublished). This and other histochemical evidence, e.g. differences in the DNA replication pattern of the X-chromosome in the male and female (Berendes, 1966; Rodman, 1968) support the surmise that X-chromosomal enlargement accompanied by the increased rate of RNA synthesis in male larval salivary glands of Drosophila may be considered as the chromosomal basis of dosage compensation (see Discussion).

A major controversy over the mechanism of dosage compensation in *Drosophila* still remains. While Muller (1950) and others (see Stern, 1960) believed in the independence of the dosage compensation mechanism and the sex-differentiating system, Goldschmidt (1954, 1955) considered differences in sex-physiology of male and female to be responsible for dosage compensation. Recently, Komma (1966) and Lee (1968) have reported their findings which have been interpreted as evidence that support Goldschmidt's idea. On the other hand, Smith & Lucchesi (1968) have concluded on the basis of their spectrophotometric analysis of eye colour mutants that differences in sex-physiology do not mediate dosage compensation in *Drosophila*.

In this series of investigation, further evidence has been sought to establish that the hyperactivity of the male X-chromosome, expressed by its enlargement and enhanced rate of RNA synthesis, may be considered as a cytological counterpart

^{*} Supported by UGC Research Fellowship (F8-25/67(SF)) to the senior author.

of dosage compensation, and to find out whether this hyperactivity is dependent on the sex of the individual—as required by Goldschmidt's theory of dosage compensation in *Drosophila*. For this purpose, the unstable ring-X-chromosome, which is frequently eliminated from certain cells during division, was utilized to produce XX/XO mosaic salivary glands. This provides us with a unique opportunity to demonstrate the role of sex-physiology on the hyperactivity of the male X-chromosome in *Drosophila* salivary glands and thereby to understand the possible relation between the hyperactivity, dosage compensation and sex-differentiation. In the present communication, comparative observations on the morphology and pattern of RNA synthesis of the X-chromosome in such mosaic glands developing in a sexually female background (i.e. otherwise genotypically XX) will be presented.

2. MATERIAL AND METHODS

The following stocks of D. melanogaster were used for these experiments (for details of abbreviations, see Bridges & Brehme, 1944): (1) In (Xc2)wcc/In(1)dl-49, ywlz female: In (1)dl-49, ywlz scs. Y male, and (2) ywct male and female. Five to seven days old virgin ring-X females from the stock (no. 1 above) were mated to ywct males and mature third-instar larvae (F1) sarificed for salivary gland chromosome analysis. While the non-ring-X female larvae obtained in the F₁ would be homozygous for both y and w and therefore should have yellow mouthparts (unless suppressed by the floating sc8. Y) and colourless Malpighian tubules, 2 the ring-X female larvae would be heterozygous for both y and w and should have black mouthparts and bright yellow Malpighian tubules. Only those larvae which could be distinctly identified as females by their gonads and had mout parts black and Malpighian tubules yellow were taken for salivary gland preparation. The presence of ring-X in their glands was verified cytologically. For morphological observations squash preparations were made by the usual method of acetocarmine-aceto-orcein staining and squashing in lacto-aceto-orcein. The parental stocks as well as the larvae were raised on standard cornmeal-agar Drosophila food at 24+1 °C.

Each preparation, containing only one pair of glands from a single larva, was scanned for the presence of XO nuclei which were identified by the absence of the ring-X and presence of only one rod-X. The number of XO and XX nuclei in each mosaic gland was scored only from mature nuclei since they alone could be observed with definite clarity. Since the ring-X stock carried a floating sc^8 . Y, the mosaics observed could be either XX/XO or XXY/XY; in both cases the single-X-bearing nuclei will be referred to as XO. In one of the mosaic glands (larva no. 5, Table 1) instead of the paternal non-inversion rod-X-chromosome, Indl-49-X-chromosome was present. This probably had resulted from non-disjunction in the parental female. Nuclei from this pair of mosaic glands have also been considered together with those from other XX/XO mosaics.

Preparations which contained both XX and XO nuclei were selected for measurement of the width of chromosomes. The width of the X-chromosome and

96.0 mean absolute width XO nuloloi, mosaio glands XX muclol,

the left arm of the 3rd chromosome (3L) was measured from camera lucida drawings using a vernier-attached slide-calliper by the method described previously (Mukherjee et al. 1968). The width was measured from XX and XO nuclei selected at random—except one restriction that they had good and uniform spreading of chromosomes. In each XX nucleus the width of the paired part of ring-/rod-X's (XX), unpaired part of ring-X (X^{ri}) , unpaired part of rod-X (X^{ro}) and the paired 3L $(3L^{t})$, and in each XO nucleus the width of the single rod-X (X^{ro}) and the paired 3L $(3L^{m})$ was measured. All camera-lucida drawings were made under the same magnification $(\times 95, \times 10)$, and since the XX and XO nuclei were selected at random, and therefore the samples should be more or less of similar polytenic class, the absolute widths of the X-chromosome in the two types of nuclei are directly comparable. This can be further checked by comparing the absolute widths of the 3L in XX and XO nuclei, respectively, from any one pair of mosaic glands. For obtaining the width of an asynapsed X of XX nuclei, average of widths of the rod- and ring-X's $(X^{ro}-r^{t})$ has been used.

For studying the pattern of RNA synthesis, each pair of glands from a single larva as above were incubated in 0·02 ml of Drosophila ringer (pH 7·0, Berendes, Van Breugel & Holt, 1965) containing 2 μc of [³H]uridine (sp. act. 3·6 c/mм) for 10 min and were then immediately fixed in aceto-alcohol. The preparations were stained as above and squashed in 50% acetic acid. The coverslips were removed by floating them off in a 1:1 mixture of 50% acetic acid and 50% ethyl alcohol. Both slides and coverslips were covered with Kodak AR 10 stripping film* following the usual procedure. The coverslips were mounted on a clean slide by means of a glass adhesive with material side up prior to covering them with the film. After 20 days of exposure in the dark at 4–8 °C the preparations were developed in Kodak D 19b for 10 min at 10 °C and fixed in Kodak Rapid Acid Fixer at the same temperature (this low temperature for developing and fixing was employed because at a higher temperature the films tended to slip off the preparations). After washing, the autoradiograms were stained with 0·2% toluidine blue in 30% alcohol, dehydrated and mounted.

3. RESULTS

A. Morphology of X-chromosome in XX/XO mosaic salivary glands

Width of the chromosomes was measured from XX and XO nuclei of mosaic salivary glands of six larvae. Complete XO or complete XX salivary glands were also observed, but no width measurement was made from such nuclei since experience from pilot experiments has shown that the morphology of the X-chromosome in such nuclei is similar to that in regular XY male and XX female larval salivary glands, respectively. The XO nuclei in any mosaic gland were at once apparent by the characteristic pale staining and enlargement of their single X-chromosome as found in regular XY nuclei of normal male salivary glands. This

fact becomes evident from the photomicrographs presented in Figs. 1-4. In each of these figures a part of the squashed mosaic glands has been shown under low magnification and an XX and an XO nucleus from the same field has been presented in higher magnification. The data presented in Table 1A and B make it clear that the width of unpaired X's of female nuclei is not half that of the paired X's. A similar situation exists for autosomes. As shown earlier (Mukherjee, Lakhotia & Chatterjee, 1968), the ratio of width of a paired autosome to that of an unpaired autosome is in the range of 1.5-1.6 but not 2.0. Thus the unpaired condition of a chromosome by itself leads to a width greater than half of the paired chromosome. But the single male X is more enlarged and this cannot be explained by its unpaired condition. Thus, the average ratio of the mean width of an unpaired female X to half of the width of paired X's $(X^{ro-ri}/\frac{1}{2}XX)$ is 1.37, while the average ratio of the width of male's single X to half of the width of paired X's of female (Xm/1XX) is 1.84, a value closer to 2.0 (Table 1B). Furthermore, the average ratio of width of paired X's to asynapsed 1X in female nuclei (XX/Xro-ri) is 1.45 and the average ratio of the width of paired X's of female to the single X of male nuclei in the same individual (XX/X^m) is only 1.09. This direct comparison of the absolute chromosomal widths in XX and XO nuclei may be considered to be valid, since the average width of the 3L in XX and XO nuclei of a particular pair of glands is more or less similar (average 3Lt/3Lm ratio being 1-01, column 3 in Table 1B) and since the width of the X in a particular nucleus has been found to be positively correlated with that of the 3L(r = +0.7) to +0.8; N=32-35). The average ratio of the width of the single X of XO nuclei to the width of the unpaired X's of XX nuclei (Xm/Xro-rt) is not 1.0 (which would have been the case if there were no enlargement of the single X in male nuclei), but it is 1.34 instead, a value closer to 1.45 obtained for XX/Xro-rt ratio above. These facts suggest that the single X-chromosome in male nuclei is definitely enlarged and wider than individual X's and nearer to the width of the two paired X's in female nuclei.

Table 2 shows the frequency distribution of the ratios in mosaic glands and in the normal male and female. A comparison of the new ratios in mosaic glands with those in normal male and female shows that neither the mean ratios nor the frequency distributions of these ratios in the two groups are significantly different from each other.

The important point that emerges from these observations is that the enlargement of the single X in male salivary glands is cell-autonomous and that this autonomy is expressed fully and clearly whenever a 2A:1X balance is realized, irrespective of the sex of the individual. The last point is specially notable from these data since all the XO nuclei measured are from individuals that were female by their gonads and in addition, in the same tissue (salivary gland), both male and female (XO and XX respectively) cells were functioning normally without any apparent interference. It is clear that the enlargement of the single X in XO nuclei is in no way related to the relative proportion of XO nuclei in a pair of glands. The frequency of XO nuclei in the mosaic glands observed varied from 0.5% (only one

^{*} Films were kindly given by Drs W. Beermann, C. Pelling and C. Stern, which we gratefully acknowledge.

Plate 1

S. C. LAKHOTIA AND A. S. MUKHERJEE

Fig. 2. XX and XO nuclei from larva no. 2 with 96%, XO nuclei. a, An XO nucleus; b, an XX

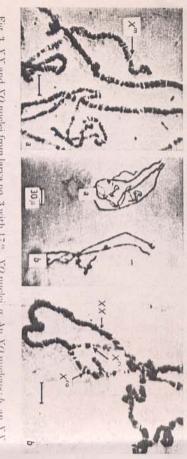
Table 2. Frequency distribution of ratios of chromosomal widths in normal Oregon-R male and female nuclei and in ring-X mosaic male and female nuclei*

			%	% of nuclei in different ranges of ratio									
100	0.81	0.91	1.01	1.11	1.21	1.31	1.41	1.51	1.61	1.71			
Chromosomal	to	to	to	to	to	to	· to	to	to	to		Mean	
ratio	0.90	1.00	1.10	1.20	1.30	1.40	1.50	1.00	1.70	above	N	ratio	tost
I. 3L1/XX													
Normal ?	7.0	46.0	40.0	7.0	1	-	-	-			59	1.00 ± 0.001	t = 0.53
Ring-X	12.5	37.5	28-1	18.8	3.1	-		-	-	100	32	1.01 ± 0.018	P > 0.5
(XX nuclei)													
II. 3Lm/Xm													
Normal 3	3.0	8.0	42.0	33.0	12.0	2.0	-	0000	-		60	1.10 ± 0.011	t = 0.42
Ring-X	-	22.8	40-0	31.4	5.8	-	=		-	2000	35	1.09 ± 0.013	P > 0.6
(XO nuclei)													
III. $2X/1X$						11 1555735							
Normal ?			-	-		32.3	-	50.0	16.7	-	6	1.51 ± 0.016	t = 1.52
Ring-X	-	-			12-5	21.9	25.0	28-1	9.4	3.1	32	1.45 ± 0.023	P > 0.1
(XX nuclei)													
IV. 2A/1X													
Normal ?	-	-	-	-	***	25.0	_	25.0	37.5	12.5	8	1.54 ± 0.061	t = 0.92
Ring-X	-		-	-	15.6	12.5	40.7	15.6	12.5	3-1	32	1.46 ± 0.027	P > 0.3
(XX nuclei)										-			

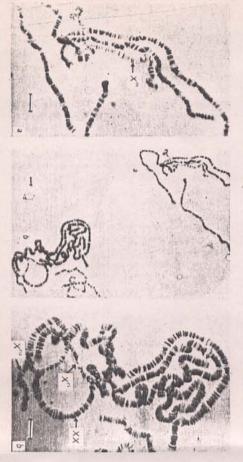
^{*} Data for normal male and normal female from Mukherjee et al. (1968).

the text. The scale represents 10μ in this and all other figures, unless otherwise mentioned. chromatid asymapsis) nuclei. Abbreviations in this and subsequent figures are the same as in observed in the whole gland; b, an XX nucleus; and, Fig. 1. XX and XO nuclei from larva no. 1 with 0.5% XO nuclei. a, The single XO nucleus c, one of the 'tetraploid' (or showing

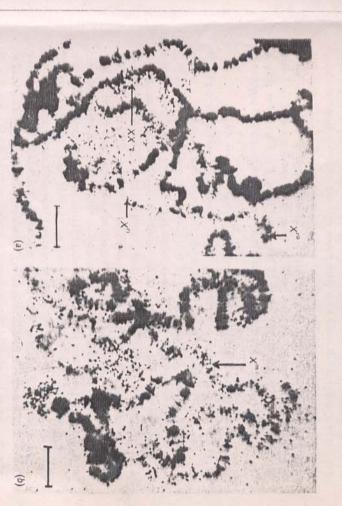




nucleus. Fig. 3. XX and XO nuclei from larva no. 3 with 17% XO nuclei, a, An XO nucleus; b, nn XX



nucleus. The rod-X in this mosaic carries Indl-49. Fig. 4. XX and XO nuclei from larva no. 5 with 8 ° , XO nuclei. a, An XO nucleus; b, an XX



paired as well as unpaired parts of the ring- and rod-X's: (b) an XO nucleus from the same Fig. 5. [3 H]Undiae labelling in XX and X0 nuclei of a mosaic gland, (a) An XX nucleus with

XO nucleus) to 96% (only eight XX nuclei) and in every case the autosome to X-chromosome ratio is more or less the same (see Table 1, Figs. 1-4). Larva no. 1, with only one XO nucleus observed in the whole gland, is worth noting. The X-chromosome of this nucleus shows unmistakable enlargement with typical pale staining (Fig. 1a) and the $3L^m/X^m$ ratio for this nucleus is 1·12. This value is not much different from the average mean ratio 1·09 since the frequency of ratios in the range 1·11-1·20 has been found to be 31·4% (Table 2). Interestingly, in the same gland two tetraploid nuclei were also present; these had three ring- and one rod-X's. The autosome-to-X ratio in these two nuclei has been found to be similar to that in any typical female nucleus (Fig. 1c). However, it is also possible that these two nuclei are examples of chromatid asynapsis (Gersh, 1968).

B. RNA synthesis by X-chromosome in XX/XO mosaic glands

To correlate this autonomous enlargement of the single X-chromosome in XO nuclei with dosage compensation, the rate of RNA synthesis by the single X in XO nuclei has been compared with that by the two paired X's in XX nuclei of the same mosaic gland. From the autoradiograms, silver grains were counted over two regions on the X and 3L chromosomes in XX and XO nuclei of mosaic glands. On the X-chromosome the two regions selected were: (a) 11A to 20 F, and (b) 1A to 3B, and on the 3L: (a) 62A to 68B, and (b) 61A to 61F. It is to be noted that in XX nuclei selected for grain counting, the region 11A to 20 F was always paired and the region 1A to 3B always unpaired, and the grains on this region of the rod-X alone were counted; in XO nuclei these two regions were obviously single. The two regions on the 3L in these XX and XO nuclei were always paired. This allowed a direct comparison of the rate of RNA synthesis by the single X of XO nuclei with that of identical regions of paired and unpaired X's of XX nuclei.

Table 3 shows the mean number of grains over identical portions of X and 3L in XX and XO nuclei from different mosaic glands observed. The grain number on 3L serves as a point of reference for the degree of labelling of the XX and XO nuclei respectively. If there were no increased rate of RNA synthesis by the single X of XO nuclei, one would expect that under a similar degree of labelling the number of grains on the paired X-chromosomes of XX nuclei should be twice that on an identical region of the single male X, while the number of grains on an unpaired X of XX nuclei should be equal to that on the single X of XO nuclei. On the other hand, if there were an enhanced RNA synthesis by the X in XO nuclei this relation in 2X of female to 1X of male and 1X of female to 1X of male nuclei would be reversed. In our experiments the second possibility has been realized. Since the degree of labelling of XX and XO nuclei in any one pair of mosaic glands is more or less similar, as evident from the labelling of the 3L (Table 3), we can directly compare the grain numbers on the X-chromosome in XX and XO nuclei. Such a comparison shows that the average mean number of grains on the region 11 A to 20 F of the single X of XO nuclei is equal to that on the identical region of the paired two X's of XX nuclei of the same gland (average mean XX/XO ratio = 0.98). The average mean number of grains on the region

IA to 3B of the single X of XO nuclei is not equal to but nearly twice that on

Table 3. Mean number of grains on X- and 3L-chromosomes in different XX/XO mosaic glands

Chromosomal segments in XX and XO nuclei.

arva no.	11A-	-20 F	1 A-:	BB .	62 A-	68B	61 A-61 F					
	XX*	xo	XX†	xo'	XX	xo xo	XX	xo				
A	143·5 ± 6·5 (2)	132·8 ± 7·8 (5)	31.4 ± 2.8 (5)	48·6 ± 6·1 (5)	159.0 ± 6.0 (2)	119·4 ± 8·7 · (5)	26.8 ± 4.0 (5)	30·2 ± 5·2 (5)				
В	131·0 ± 17·3 (4)	132·8 ± 11·3 (5)	$27 \cdot 0 \pm 3 \cdot 1$ (4)	49·0 ± 2·9 (4)	125.5 ± 13.8 (4)	123·6 ± 13·6 (5)	28·0 ± 1·6 (4)	30·5 ± 1·0 (4)				
C	50·7 ± 3·6 (8)	60·2 ± 5·7 (5)	10·7 ± 1·4 (6)	21.8 ± 2.6 (5)	44·7 ± 5·1 (8)	57·4 ± 6·2 (5)	9·1 ± 1·6 (6)	9·4 ± 1·3 (5)				
D.	37·8 ± 3·3 (5)	38·8 ± 3·3 (5)	8·2 ± 1·5 (5)	14·0 ± 0·9 (5)	28.8 ± 2.3 (5)	28·4 ± 2·3 (5)	7·2 ± 1·1 (5)	5·8 ± 0·5 (5)				
Av. n		/XO 98	XX 0-	/XO 57		/XO 03		/XO 00 .				

* The region 11A-20F paired in these XX nuclei.

† The region 1A-3B unpaired and single in these XX nuclei. Numbers in parentheses denote the number of nuclei observed.

identical region of an unpaired X of XX nuclei (average mean XX/XO ratio = 0.57). Figure 5 presents labelling pattern in unpaired and paired X's of an XX nucleus, and in the single X of an XO nucleus of mosaic glands. It is clear from these figures and the data presented in Table 3 that the single X in male (XO) nuclei synthesizes RNA equal to that synthesized by the two X's of female (XX) nuclei in the larval salivary glands, a situation similar to that obtained in XY male and XX female individuals.

Like the effect on the morphology of the X-chromosome, the sex of the individual has no effect on the activity of the X-chromosome of male or female nuclei. Although the exact number of XO and XX nuclei present in such mosaic salivary glands could not be definitely ascertained due to the possibility of loss of some material during autoradiographic processing, it has been observed that the relative proportion of XO nuclei varied from gland to gland, and this variation in the number of XO nuclei had no effect on the activity of the male X-chromosome.

DISCUSSION

threshold level of activity is achieved by the male X even without attaining approaches that of the paired two X's of the female. It seems likely that the narrower than the width of the paired two X's of the female. Thus it is clear that measured by the same standards is 84% wider than the latter, and only 8% than half of the width of the paired two X's, the male's single X in XO nuclei unpaired X-chromosomes of female nuclei (XX) are on an average 37% wider ments on the width of the X-chromosome in these nuclei show that while the single unpaired due to heterozygosity for the inversion in the ring-X. Actual measure from section 1 to 10 of salivary gland chromosome maps of Bridges, remain same pair of glands. Long portions of the female X's, usually including the region unpaired portions of the two X's of the female with the single X of the male in the addition, provided an opportunity for a direct comparison of long paired and tions essentially fulfils this requirement. corresponding portions of both single and double X's'. The present set of observa portions of the double X that have remained asynapsed, for comparison with inclined to accept the idea of enlargement of the male X, did not rule out the inflated than the individual X's of female. Muller & Kaplan (1966), while not Aronson et al. 1954; Rudkin, 1964; Dobzhansky, 1957; Forward & Kaufmann possibility entirely. They suggested a need for 'actual measurement on long X-chromosome in male larval salivary glands in Drosophila is considerably more 1967; Mukherjee et al. 1968) taken together firmly establish that the single The results of the male X-chromosome, although not identical to, very nearly presented here and those in earlier reports (Offermann, 1936 The present experimental design, in

The evidence for a possible correlation between this X-enlargement and dosage compensation comes mainly from studies on metabolic activities of the

size identical to that of the paired two X's of the female.

La

within the male X, a condition that may be required for a higher genetic activity chromosome in the male has been interpreted to be due to a loose coiling of DNA shown that in Drosophila the male X-chromosome in the larval salivary glands rep-Mukherjee et al. 1968). Furthermore, Berendes (1966) and Rodman (1968) have licates earlier than the rest of the autosomes. This asynchronous replication of the XX-chromosome in male and female salivary glands (Mukherjee & Beermann, 1965;

expressed identically in the two sexes because of this hyperactivity of the male X. glands, as in other systems, is related to the degree of genetic activity (Beermann, et al. 1968; and Lakhotia, unpublished). The rate of RNA synthesis in salivary reduction in the width of the male X-chromosome in D. melanogaster (Mukherjee with nucleoprotein metabolism, e.g. X-rays, benzamide, etc., cause a selective sites of active RNA synthesis. It has also been observed that agents which interfere genetically more active than other chromosomes is made more than probable by the phenotypes, which the individual genes on the X-chromosome control, are and one X of the male means that they are activated to an identical level and that production of chromosomal RNA at an equal rate by the two X's of the female regulated expression of X-linked genes in the two sexes. Under the circumstances, 1964; Pelling, 1964; Berendes, 1967) and dosage compensation is nothing but a looks like a generalized 'puff', and puffs in giant chromosomes are known to be its appearance itself. The whole chromosome by its swelling and pale staining That the male X-chromosome in the larval salivary glands of Drosophila is

ively, the rate of synthesis of the immediate gene product (RNA) by the two X's evidence that the hyperactivity and enlargement of the male X is the chromosomal of X-enlargement and hyperactivity in male salivary gland nuclei provide strong lished). The autonomy of genetic dosage compensation and the cellular autonomy which are normally compensated (e.g. wa, white apricot) produce an eye colour in eye in an otherwise XX female is as light as that in XY males while the alleles show that for non-compensated alleles (e.g. we, white eosin) the colour of an XO for the present work is being observed. Preliminary results with the white series of X-linked eye-colour mutants in D. melanogaster in a system similar to that used has been found to be equal. In an independent set of experiments, the expression of XX and one X of XO nuclei present simultaneously in the same pair of glands basis of dosage compensation in Drosophila. XO eyes as dark as in normal XY male or in XX female eyes (Lakhotia, unpub-In the present set of experiments, as in XX and XY female and male, respect-

that, unlike mammals, the morphological characteristics of the male X in Drosowith one controlling centre. Schultz (1965) and Muller & Kaplan (1966) have found X-hyperactivity in male Drosophila should also be a whole-chromosomal function somal affair (Russell, 1964) with one controlling centre, the X-enlargement and reason to assume that, because in mammals the X-inactivation is a whole-chromotype (Muller & Kaplan, 1966) of dosage compensation mechanism. There is no dosage compensation in Drosophila can be reconciled with Muller's 'piecemeal' phila are not hindered in their expression because of X-autosome translocations The theory of X-enlargement and X-hyperactivity in males as the basis of

> increased width and enhanced rate of RNA synthesis by the X-chromosome in in the male and that in totality this hyperactivity finds its expression in the pensators operating upon individual X-linked genes cause them to be hyperactive Muller, 1950; Stern, 1960). Thus it is possible that individual sets of dosage comthe X-chromosome may not be limited to any particular segment of the same (see larval salivary glands of male Drosophila. This fact is in agreement with genetic findings that dosage compensators on

as the single asynapsed rod-X of XX nuclei. in XO nuclei shows that the single rod-X of XO nuclei is nearly twice as active single asynapsed rod-X in XX nuclei with that on the identical region of the rod-X XX nucleus. Furthermore, comparison of the number of silver grains scored on some way more active than the ring-X is not likely, since no significant difference enlargement and hyperactivity of the male X. The possibility that the rod-X is in rate of development and other physiological mechanisms have no influence on the female (XX). This cellular autonomy is a clear indication of the fact that the contrary, the single X in every XO nucleus examined, irrespective of the proporshould have behaved like the individual asynapsed X's of XX nuclei. On the of the individual. If the sex-physiology had a role in causing the normal male X to activity of the single male X in Drosophila is not dependent on the sex-physiology has been found in the widths of the rod- and ring-X's measured separately in each X's of the female in width and RNA synthesis as in the regular male (XY) and tion of such nuclei among total nuclei in the glands, is as much like the two paired be hyperactive, the single X in all XO nuclei developing in an XX environment These observations support the conclusions derived from genetic studies by The evidence obtained in the present work shows very clearly that the hyper-

such individuals are, in fact, more male-like from the point of view of fertility temale-type intersexes may not be fully correct since various early works show that sators. However, the reasons for considering X/X; tra/tra individuals to be extreme mental physiology and not due to action of the supposed plus and minus compenand also Komma (1966) and Lee (1968) have argued that the X/X;tra/tra indi-Mukherjee, 1965; R. K. Datta, unpublished). Extensive studies by Brown & King 1963), and sex-comb and other morphological features (Brown & King, 1961; individuals resembles that in normal females is because of female-like developmore female-like, and that the expression of X-linked genes in X/X; tra/tra viduals are extreme female-type intersexes and as such physiologically they are tra (transformer), which, when homozygous, transforms XX females into pheno sexes. These genetic conclusions were based mainly on studies utilizing the gene (Novitski, 1951), structure of gonads and behaviour during copulation (Seidel, physiology has any effect on these dosage relationships. Goldschmidt (1954, 1955) temales, not more extreme type, as would have been the case if the male-like the expression of all X-linked genes examined was identical with that in normal typic males (Sturtevant, 1945). In such transformed individuals (X/X; tra/tra) tion in Drosophila is not mediated by a difference in the physiology of the two Sturtevant (1945), Muller (1950), Stern (1960) and others that dosage compensa-

unjustified and therefore the demonstration of sex-independency of dosage comconsideration of X/X;tra/tra flies as having a female-type sex-physiology is pensation mechanism in Drosophila by using the gene tra cannot be invalidated. pletely male-like or intersexes of extreme male-type. These facts suggest that (1961) and Seidel (1963) clearly establish that these individuals are either com-

results do not support Goldschmidt's idea of sex-dependency of dosage compensa results of a spectrophotometric analysis of X-linked eye-colour mutants in compensation. On the other hand, Smith & Lucchesi (1968) have reported the genuse did not give the results expected on the sex-dependence theory of dosage with the expectation, another X-linked enzyme, 6-phosphogluconate dehydroof dosage compensation. However, the data are not unambiguous: while the D. melanogaster in the presence and absence of the gene dsx (doublesex), and their tion mechanism in Drosophila. X-linked enzyme, glucose-6-phosphate dehydrogenase, behaved in accordance Komma (1966) has presented some evidence to support Goldschmidt's theory

dosage compensation in Drosophila in general, is not dependent on sex-differentiasome in salivary glands of male larvae, and that this hyperactivity and, therefore, is expressed visibly in the morphology and metabolic activity of the X-chromo-X-inactivity in female mammals, that this genetic hyperactivity of the male X is achieved chiefly, if not fully, by a hyperactivity of the male X, in contrast to the tion, but is a function of the doses of the X-chromosome itself. In conclusion, it may then be suggested that dosage compensation in Drosophila

synthesis by them was studied upon the use of [3H]uridine autoradiography in such same pair of glands. The width of the X-chromosome and the left arm of the 3rd and nearly twice that of an unpaired X of XX nuclei. Neither the developmental nuclei synthesizes RNA at a rate equal to that of the paired two X's of female nuclei as is also the case in normal male (XY) and female (XX). The single X of male some of male nuclei is nearly as great as that of the paired two X's of female nuclei, chromosome (3L) of larval salivary glands was measured and the rate of RNA glands of an XX larva has any influence on these two characteristics of the male physiology of the sex nor the proportion of XO nuclei in a pair of mosaic salivary wise genotypically XX). In such mosaic glands the width of the single X-chromo-XX (female) and XO (male) nuclei developing in a female background (i.e. othermosaic larval salivary glands of Drosophila melanoguster have been examined. For this purpose the unstable ring-X was utilized to produce XX and XO nuclei in the Morphology and the rate of RNA synthesis of the X-chromosome in XX/XO

if not fully, by a hyperactivity of the male X, in contrast to the single X inactivation in female mammals, that this hyperactivity of the male X is expressed visibly It is suggested that dosage compensation in Drosophila is achieved chiefly, the morphology and metabolic activity of the X-chromosome in the larval

Chromosomal basis of dosage compensation in Drosophila. I

149

but is a function of the doses of the X-chromosome itself. compensation in Drosophila in general is not dependent on sex-differentiation salivary glands of the male, and that this hyperactivity and therefore dosage

REFERENCES

Aronson, J. F., Rudkin, G. T. & Schultz, J. (1954). A comparison of giant X-chromosomes chem. Cytochem. 2, 458-459. in male and female Drosophila melanoguster by cytophotometry in the ultraviolet. J. Histo-

BEERMANN, W. (1964). Control of differentiation at the chromosomal level. J. exp. Zool. 157

Benevnes, H. D. (1966). Differential replication of male and female X-chromosomes in Drosophila. Chromosoma 20, 32-43.

Berendes, H.D. (1967). Controlled induction of gene activity in polytene chromosomes. Proc. Symp. on 'La basi molecolari del differenziamento', pp. 179-187. Accademia Nazionale dei Lincei (Rome).

BERENDES, H. D., VAN BREUGEL, F. M. A. & HOLT, TH. K. H. (1965). Experimental puffs in salivary gland chromosomes of Drosophila hyder. Chromosoma 16, 35-46.

Bridges, C. B. & Brehme, K. S. (1944). The mutants of Drosophila melanogaster. Publs Carnegie Instn, no. 552.

Brown, E. H. & King, R. C. (1961). Studies on the expression of the transformer gene of Drosophila melanogaster. Genetics 46, 143-156.

DOBZHANSKY, TH. (1957). The X-chromosome in the larval salivary glands of hybrids of D. insularis × D. tropicalis. Chromosoma 8, 691-698.

FORWARD, K. J. & KAUFMANN, B. P. (1967). The bipartite nature of the salivary-gland X chromosome. D.I.S. 42, 90-91.

GERSH, E. S. (1968). Chromatid asynapsis in salivary gland nuclei. D.I.S. 43,124-125.

Goldschmidt, R. B. (1954). Different philosophies of Genetics. Science, N.Y. 119, 703-710. Gendschamt, R. B. (1955). Theoretical Genetics, pp. 356-358. Berkley: University of California Press.

LEE, G. L. (1968). Dosage compensation as a developmental phenomenon in Drosophila KOMMA, D. J. (1966). Effect of sex-transformation genes on glucose-6-phosphate dehydro genase activity in Drosophila melanogaster. Genetics 54, 497-503.

MUKHERJEE, A. S. (1965). The effect of sexcombless on the forelegs of Drosophila melanogaster Genetics 51, 285-304. Genet. Res., Camb. 11, 115-118.

MUKHERJEE, A. S. (1966). Dosage compensation in Drosophila: an autoradiographic study Nucleus, Calcutta, 9, 83-96.

MURHEBJEE, A. S. & BEERMANN, W. (1965). Synthesis of RNA by the X-chromosomes of Drosophila melanogaster and the problem of dosage compensation. Nature, Lond. 207.

MUKHERJEE, A.S., LAKHOTIA, S.C. & CHATTERJEE, S.N. (1968). On the molecular and Nucleus, Calcutta, Symp. Vol., pp. 161-173. chromosomal basis of dosage compensation in Drosophila. Proc. Int. Seminar on 'Chromo some-its Structure and Function', held in Calcutta, Aug. 1968; ed. A. K. Sharma

MULLER, H. J. (1950). Evidence of the precision of genetic adaptation. Harvey Lect. 43 (1947-48), 165-229.

MULLER, H. J. & KAPLAN, W. D. (1966). The dosage compensation in Drosophila and mam

nists as showing accuracy of the normal type. Genet. Res., Camb. 8, 41-59.

Noverset, E. (1951). Autonomy of sterility of transformed females. D.I.S. 25, 121.

Offermann, C. A. (1936). Branched chromosomes as symmetrical duplications. J. Genet. 32

Perling, C. (1964). Ribonukleinsäure-synthese der Riesenchromosomen. RODMAN, T.C. (1968). Relationship of developmental stage to initiation of replication in graphische Untersuchungen an Chironomus tentans. Chromosoma 15, 71-122. polytene nuclei. Chromosoma 23, 271-287. Autoradio

RUDKIN, G. T. (1964). The proteins in polytene chromosomes. In *The Nucleohistones*, ed. J. Bonner and P.TS'o. San Francisco: Holden Day Inc.

RUSSELL, L. B. (1964). Another look at the single-active-X hypothesis. Trans. N.Y. Acad. Sci. (II), 26, 726-736.

SCHULTZ, J. (1965). Genes, differentiation and animal development. Brookhaven Symp. Biol. 18, 116-147.

SEIDEL, S. (1963). Experimenfelle Untersuchungen über die Grundlagen der Sterilität von Transformer — (tra) Männchen bei Drosophila melanogaster. Z. VererbLehre 94, 215–241.

SMITH, P. D. & LUCCHESI, J. C. (1968). The role of sexuality in dosage compensation in Drosophila. Genetics 60, 227 (Abstr.).

STERN, C. (1960). Dosage compensation—development of a concept and new facts. Can. J. Genet. Cytol. 2, 105-118.
STERN, C. (1968). Genetic Mosaics and Other Essays. Cambridge Mass.: Harvard University

Press.

Surpage A. H. (1945) A gene in Drosephila melanogaster that transforms formulae into

STURTEVANT, A. H. (1945). A gene in Drosophila melanogaster that transforms females into males. Genetics 30, 297-299.