The *bx* region enhancer, a distant *cis*-control element of the *Drosophila Ubx* gene and its regulation by *hunchback* and other segmentation genes

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The Drosophila homeotic gene Ultrabithorax (Ubx) is regulated by complex mechanisms that specify the spatial domain, the timing and the activity of the gene in individual tissues and in individual cells. In early embryonic development, Ubx expression is controlled by segmentation genes turned on earlier in the developmental hierarchy. Correct Ubx expression depends on multiple regulatory sequences located outside the basal promoter. Here we report that a 500 bp DNA fragment from the bx region of the Ubx unit, ~ 30 kb away from the promoter, contains one of the distant regulatory elements (bx region enhancer, BRE). During early embryogenesis, this enhancer element activates the Ubx promoter in parasegments (PS) 6, 8, 10 and 12 and represses it in the anterior half of the embryo. The repressor of the anterior Ubx expression is the gap gene hunchback (hb). We show that the hb protein binds to the BRE element and that such binding is essential for hb repression in vivo. hb protein also binds to DNA fragments from abx and bxd, two other regulatory regions of the Ubx gene. We conclude that hb represses Ubx expression directly by binding to BRE and probably other Ubx regulatory elements. In addition, the BRE pattern requires input from other segmentation genes, among them tailless and fushi tarazu but not Krüppel and knirps.

Key words: distant enhancer/gap gene/homeotic gene/ parasegmental expression

Introduction

Drosophila early development depends on the sequential activation of a hierarchy of zygotic genes. The specific distribution of maternal determinants in the egg activates a set of early zygotic segmentation genes, the gap genes, in distinct but partially overlapping domains. Combinations of these gene products in turn provide spatial cues for the activation of the next tier of genes in specific patterns that lead to the subdivision of the embryo into metameric units (reviewed by Ingham, 1988). The identities of individual segments are subsequently assigned by the homeotic genes. One of the major homeotic genes is Ultrabithorax (Ubx), a member of the bithorax complex (BX-C) that controls the posterior part of the body (Lewis, 1978; Sanchez-Herrero et al., 1985). The role of the Ubx gene varies in different tissues: in the epidermis it specifies primarily parasegments (PS) 5 and 6. In the mesoderm it is required in most of the abdominal segments, in the region from PS6 to PS13 (Hooper, 1986) but the visceral mesoderm only requires Ubx in PS7 (Bienz and Tremml, 1988). A major role of Ubx is in the central nervous system where it is expressed in PS5-PS13 but, as in the epidermis, it is needed principally in PS5 and 6 (Teugels and Ghysen, 1985).

During embryogenesis, the Ubx expression pattern is initiated at the blastoderm stage as a band of weak transcription in the region of the egg between 25 and 50%egg length (EL), measured from the posterior tip. During germ band extension, expression becomes stronger and evolves into a transient pair-rule pattern which subsequently resolves into a complex parasegmental pattern spanning PS5-13, with the highest level of expression in PS6. After germ band retraction, expression of Ubx is found predominantly in the ventral nervous system (Akam and Martinez-Arias, 1985; White and Wilcox, 1985a; Beachy et al., 1985; White and Lehmann, 1986). Genetic interactions indicate that a number of early-acting genes, such as the gap gene hunchback (hb), the pair-rule gene fushi tarazu (ftz) and the terminal gene tailless (tll), are involved in the correct activation of Ubx expression (White and Lehmann, 1986; Ingham and Martinez-Arias, 1986; Irish et al., 1989; Reinitz and Levine, 1990). A Ubx promoter fragment containing only 3.1 kb upstream sequence (Ubx basal promoter) directs expression in a pattern very different from that of the endogenous Ubx gene (Bienz et al., 1988). Therefore, the correct regulation of Ubx expression by early segmentation genes requires sequences located outside the basal promoter.

The sequences essential for proper Ubx expression are distributed over more than 100 kb and include regulatory regions that dictate Ubx function in specific parts of the embryo, specific tissues or groups of cells. abx, bx, bxd and pbx are four such regulatory regions identified by genetic analysis (Lewis, 1978). Mutations in each of these cause homeotic tranformations of discrete subsets of cells without affecting the identities of other parts of Ubx-controlled segments (reviewed by Duncan, 1987). bxd and pbx mutations have been mapped upstream of the Ubx promoter and transform PS6 towards PS5, while abx and bx mutations reside within a large intron 25-50 kb from the promoter and cause PS5 - PS4 tranformations in the adult cuticle (Figure 1). The specific defects caused by abx, bx, bxd and pbx mutations have been correlated with decreased amounts of the Ubx protein in corresponding groups of cells in embryos or imaginal discs (White and Wilcox, 1985b; Cabrera et al., 1985). These observations suggest that each regulatory region might encode tissue-specific enhancers that specify Ubx expression in a subset of cells. The final Ubx expression pattern would then result from the cumulative and/or combinatorial effect of these enhancers. If the enhancer-like activity of such regulatory regions could be demonstrated, important questions to be explored are precisely what aspects of Ubx expression each one governs,



Fig.1. Localization of the bx region enhancer (BRE). The Ubx transcription unit is shown on top with bars indicating the positions of the abx, bx and part of the bxd and pbx regulatory regions. The scale, in kb, is numbered according to Bender et al. (1983). The bx region is shown enlarged below, with insertional bx mutations indicated. The bx - Ubx - lacZ fusion construct is at the bottom. The bx sequence is indicated by a solid bar, with some of the restriction sites used in the constructions (S:Sall; H3: HindIII; R: EcoRI; H2: HincII). The open, hatched and shaded boxes represent the Ubx promoter, lacZ gene and SV40 T antigen polyadenylation region, respectively. The arrow indicates the direction of transcription. The bx DNA is an 8.8 kb Sall-HincII fragment from -55.5 to -64.3 on the Ubx map, I, II, III are three bx sub-fragments individually tested. bxI gave an expression pattern identical to that of the entire 8.8 kb fragment while II and III produced either the basal pattern only (Figure 2f, Bienz et al., 1988) or variable patterns attributable to position effects.

how they are able to influence the activity of the promoter at such great distances, how the regulation of each is achieved and how they interact with one another.

Some of these elements are able to control the Ubx promoter on a homologously paired chromosome by a transvection mechanism that requires the activity of the zeste gene product (Lewis, 1954; Kaufman et al., 1973). Previous studies have identified a number of *zeste* binding sites within the regulatory regions of *Ubx* (Benson and Pirrotta, 1988), suggesting that regulation over a distance might be achieved by juxtaposing distant elements to the promoter through the action of the *zeste* protein. The presence of a strong *zeste* binding site in the bx region led us to study the enhancer activity of this regulatory element. In this paper, we show that the bx region contains an enhancer element (bx region enhancer or BRE) that directs promoter expression in a parasegmental pattern related to the early embryonic Ubx pattern. The BRE enhancer is regulated by the same set of segmentation genes that controls the expression of Ubx, suggesting that it is one of the distant enhancers that regulate the expression of the Ubx gene. In particular, we show that direct repression of this enhancer, and possibly of enhancers in the other Ubx regulatory regions, by the gap gene hb is responsible for establishing the correct anterior boundary of the Ubx expression domain.

Results

The bx region contains a strong embryonic enhancer

The bx region is defined by the sites of a number of bx mutations that exhibit a common phenotype with differing severity. Most of these mutations are caused by the insertion

of transposable elements, most frequently the gypsy element. and have been mapped within a 10 kb interval between positions -55 and -65 in the 2Ubx map (Peifer and Bender, 1986). This region contains also a strong zeste binding site identified by immunoprecipitation (Benson and Pirrotta, 1988). To identify potential enhancers in the bx regulatory region, an 8.8 kb fragment including almost the entire bx region was placed in either orientation upstream of a Ubx - lacZ fusion gene driven by the Ubx basal promoter (Figure 1) and the constructs were introduced into the fly genome by P element-mediated germ line transformation (Rubin and Spradling, 1982). In transgenic embryos, the bx DNA directed a strong, dynamic expression from the Ubx basal promoter, independent of its orientation. The control construct, containing the Ubx promoter only, gave a very weak basal pattern similar to that described by Bienz et al. (1988). Ubx protein is not detectable in normal embryos until four hours after fertilization (White and Lehmann, 1986), probably due to the length of the Ubx gene, which requires more than one hour for complete transcription (Kornfeld et al., 1989). The reporter protein β -galactosidase, in contrast, can be detected one hour earlier by antibody staining, probably because the LacZ gene is much smaller than the Ubx gene and is more rapidly transcribed.

Antibody staining reveals that β -galactosidase is first expressed in a region of the embryo spanning 25-50% EL at the cellular blastoderm stage. At the onset of gastrulation, this domain resolves into three stripes of stronger expression, with a fourth stripe, weaker and about half as wide as the other three, appearing during germ band extension. The four stripes are laid out in pair-rule fashion, corresponding with PS6, 8, 10 and 12. Double staining with anti- β -galactosidase and anti-engrailed (en) antibodies (DiNardo et al., 1985) shows that the first three stripes are wider than the actual parasegments (Figure 2), consisting of the even parasegment plus the anterior part of the odd parasegment (defined by the engrailed stripe). Expression in the ectoderm is strongest in the anterior part of the parasegment but in the mesoderm it appears uniform across each stripe. During germ band extension, the anterior boundary of the pattern coincides with engrailed stripe 6 (beginning therefore with PS6). However, during germ band retraction, weak expression appears in the posterior part of PS5, corresponding to the anterior T3 segment which is typically affected by bx mutations (Figure 2e). After germ band shortening, the stain appears to be localized predominantly in the lateral ectoderm and is much weaker in the ventral neurogenic region or in the mesoderm.

To determine whether the expression of this enhancer depends on the function of the endogenous Ubx gene, we crossed the enhancer-lacZ transposon into flies carrying Ubx null mutations. Embryos lacking functional Ubx product $[Df(3)bxd^{100} \text{ or } Ubx^{1} \text{ embryos, data not shown}]$ produced a normal pattern of lacZ expression, in agreement with the observation of Bienz and Tremml (1988) that the expression of Ubx in the visceral mesoderm, but not that in the ectoderm, depends on autocatalytic activation by the endogenous Ubx protein. Overall, the expression directed by the bx DNA during embryogenesis may be viewed as a part of the total Ubx expression pattern. It is very similar to the initial Ubx pattern up to the germ band extension stage. Afterwards, however, it does not continue to resolve from the pair-rule to the parasegmental pattern and remains conspicuously absent from the nervous system, the major



Fig. 2. Antibody detection of BRE-directed Ubx-lacZ gene expression during embryogenesis. Whole mount embryos were either stained with anti- β -galactosidase antibody (a, b, c, e, f), or double-stained with anti- β -galactosidase and anti-en antibodies (d). Optical sections of the stained embryos are shown with anterior end to the left and dorsal side up. (a) At the cellular blastoderm stage, the earliest stage, β -galactosidase is evenly distributed from 25 to 50% EL (0% is the posterior tip). (b) As gastrulation starts, the blastoderm domain is resolved into three stripes, with a fourth one appearing shortly afterwards. Staining persists in the dorsal region and later gives rise to a pattern of staining cells in the amino-serosa corresponding to *Ubx*-expressing cells in these tissues. (c) Ventral surface view of the stain pattern at early germ band elongation. Note that the ventral mesoderm displays the same staining pattern as the lateral ectoderm at this stage. (d) Typical pair-rule pattern at germ band elongation (stage 10, following Campos-Ortega and Hartenstein, 1985). The *en* stripes position the four β -galactosidase bands to PS6, 8, 10 and 12. (e) Stage 13 embryo: ventral lateral view after germ band retraction. The ventral neurogenic region stains more weakly than the lateral ectoderm. Note that weaker expression is now found in the posterior part of PS5. Later, at the time of head involution and dorsal closure, the pattern starts to break down and expression is found in all thoracic and head segments and in the posterior terminal region. (f) Basal pattern expressed by the *Ubx-lacZ* gene without *bx* enhancer at the end of the germ band elongation (stage 11). This weak basal pattern, very similar to that described by Bienz *et al.* (1988), is detected using more concentrated antibody and longer staining. Note that in the *bx*-direct pattern shown in (a)–(e), the ectopic anterior expression.

tissue of Ubx expression in the late embryo. These results indicate that other elements must be responsible for Ubxexpression in odd-numbered parasegments and in the ventral nerve cord. In the late embryo, the spatial restriction that initially confined expression to the region between PS6 and PS12 begins to break down and activity begins to be detected in more anterior parasegments and in the head region as well as in the posterior terminal region.

We conclude from these results that the bx region contains a spatially regulated enhancer element (BRE). This enhancer may be the element affected by the classical bx mutations and might provide an explanation for their adult phenotypes (Peifer and Bender, 1986). The domain of expression directed by the BRE element in the early embryo only covers PS6-12, while bx phenotypes typically transform PS5 to PS4; however, by the beginning of germ band retraction, expression extends to the posterior part of PS5. Most bx mutations are due to the insertion of transposable elements that are known to alter the regulation of nearby genes (see, for example, Geyer et al., 1990). Since the phenotypic effect of bx mutations is not detectable during embryonic stages (White and Wilcox, 1985b), it is possible that these mutations affect bx function principally in the late embryo and imaginal discs. In fact, the 8.8 kb bx DNA stimulates β -galactosidase expression in the imaginal discs while the Ubx basal promoter does not. However, the expression is not restricted to discs derived from PS5 (the haltere and third leg discs) but is found also in the first leg, second leg, wing and eye-antenna discs. The imaginal disc expression therefore does not follow the parasegmental pattern of expression established in the early embryo and, in particular, it extends to more anterior compartments than those affected by the bx mutations. Within the discs also, the expression pattern of the fusion gene does not obey the parasegmental restrictions and varies from line to line, presumably under the influence of the chromosomal insertion site. This suggests that the imaginal bx function requires the interaction of the bx region with other control element(s) to produce the correct pattern in the haltere and third leg discs and to repress the expression in discs more anterior than PS5.

To map the sequences responsible for the BRE enhancer activity, we subdivided the 8.8 kb bx fragment into three intervals and tested them individually. The entire pattern of expression could be obtained with a 1.7 kb Sall-HindIII fragment (bxI) from -64.3 to -62.6 on the Ubx map (Figure 1). The embryonic pattern was consistent in all the lines obtained with this fragment and was essentially identical to that produced by the entire 8.8 kb DNA. Fragment bxII,

which contains the *zeste* binding site, and *bx*III did not produce specific patterns in the embryo. When the *bx*I fragment was further divided into three, a 500 bp

ApaI-EcoRI fragment in the middle (see below and Figure 5c) was found to retain all the pattern information although the level of expression was reduced. The other two fragments



Fig. 3. hb suppresses BRE activity in the anterior half of the embryo. In wild-type embryos carrying bx - Ubx - lacZ (a), double staining with anti-hb and anti- β -galactosidase antibodies reveals that the domain of hb (blue) and the domain of BRE-directed expression (brown) are spatially complementary. In homozygous amorphic hb mutant (hb^{14F}) embryos (b, cellular blastoderm; c, early gastrulation, d, germ band extension), the anterior border of the BRE expression domain shifts from 50 to 75% EL, confirming the role of hb in setting the anterior boundary. hb^{14F} is phenotypically null but still produces a reduced level of hb antigen (Tautz, 1988) which is presumably inactive. Panel c shows a reduced level of hb staining from 75% EL to the anterior tip and an apparently normal or slightly weaker posterior hb stripe in hb^{14F} embryos. The BRE pattern in another hb null allele hb^{7M} which expresses no zygotic hb protein (Tautz, 1988) is identical to that in hb^{14F} (not shown). The posterior BRE border is set by *tailless* in addition to hb (Figure 4a).



Fig. 4. Effects of mutations in *tll*, *fiz*, *Kr* and *kni* on BRE expression. (a) *tll*^g embryo at the cellular blastoderm stage. The posterior border of BRE expression is shifted almost to the posterior tip (compare with Figure 2a). Note that in the $hb^{1/4F}$ embryo, there is no posterior shift (Figure 3b). (b) *fiz*^{H34} embryo at the germ band elongation stage (compare with Figures 2d or 7d). The normally strong BRE expression in even numbered parasegments never develops at any stage and staining remains at the low level normally seen in the odd parasegments. Partial *engrailed* bands are visible only at PS1, 3, 7 and 9 in this focal plane. (c) and (d) Kr^1 and kn^{IIE72} embryos at the cellular glastoderm stage double stained with anti- β -galactosidase (brown) and anti-*fiz* antibodies (blue). The BRE pattern (brown) is essentially normal in both mutant embryos from the beginning of cycle 14, when both BRE and *fiz* expression first became visible. The altered *fiz* patterns served to identify the mutant embryos (Carroll and Scott, 1986).

do not display any pattern by themselves but apparently contribute to give the normal level of activity.

The hunchback gene limits the anterior expression of the BRE

A striking feature of the BRE pattern is the sharp anterior border at 50% EL, similar to the anterior boundary of expression of the endogenous Ubx gene at the onset of transcription (Akam and Martinez-Arias, 1985). In contrast, the basal Ubx promoter alone gives a pattern of weak expression that extends into the head region. In the presence of the BRE, even the basal pattern is suppressed in the thorax and head, suggesting that the BRE contains a silencer for the anterior half of the embryo. The best candidate for a trans-acting repressor to set the anterior border of Ubx is the product of gap gene hunchback (hb) (Lehmann and Nüsslein-Volhard, 1987). hb, one of the earliest acting zygotic gap genes, is required for the development of head and thorax and is expressed strongly in the anterior half of the embryo, fading off at around 50% EL (Tautz et al., 1987; Tautz, 1988). White and Lehmann (1986) observed that in hb mutant embryos, Ubx expression is shifted anteriorly, implying that hb could be the principal regulator directly or indirectly limiting the anterior extent of the Ubx domain of expression. hb encodes a zinc finger DNA-binding protein (Tautz et al., 1987) and is known to regulate transcription of at least one pair-rule gene, even-skipped (eve) (Stanojevic et al., 1989). Figure 3 shows that, in wild-type embryos, the domain of BRE-directed expression is complementary to that of hb expression. Furthermore, in hb mutant embryos $(hb^{14F}$ in Figure 3; also hb^{7M} , not shown), the expression of the BRE-Ubx-lacZ fusion transposon, like that of the endogenous Ubx gene, is shifted markedly forward from 50% EL to about 75% EL. Note, that although no zygotic hb is expressed, these embryos still contain maternal hb product in their anterior region which may contribute to setting an anterior boundary. These results indicate that the BRE element is regulated by hb, either directly or indirectly. As Figure 3 shows, at the blastoderm stage, hb expression occurs also in a posterior domain (10-20% EL). However, the domain of BRE-directed expression does not expand posteriorly in an hb mutant, suggesting that additional repressive interactions may be involved.

The hb binding sites in the BRE mediate anterior suppression

To determine whether the hb suppression of the BRE results from a direct or an indirect interaction, we tested for the ability of bacterially expressed hb protein (Stanojevic et al., 1989) to bind to BRE DNA. The immunoprecipitation experiment shown in Figure 5a demonstrates that hb protein binds specifically to the bxI fragment. Further experiments localized strong binding to the 500 bp ApaI-EcoRI fragment in the middle of bxI that encodes the pattern information, and a weak binding site to a 220 bp HincII-HindIII fragment at the right end of bxI (Figure 5c). Whether the strong and weak binding sites interact in vivo remains to be determined. When analyzed by DNase I footprinting, the middle ApaI-EcoRI fragment was found to contain three strong hb binding sites each about 25 bp in length (Figure 5 b and c). hb has recently been shown to recognize a 10 bp A-rich consensus sequence in the promoters of the eve gene and of the hb gene itself (Stanojevic et al., 1989; Treisman and Desplan, 1989). Two of the bxI footprinting sites contain one copy of this core sequence while the third site contains two copies (Figure 5c). Beyond this A-rich consensus sequence, these three hb footprinting sites differ.

The co-localization of the strong hb binding sites and the enhancer pattern element within the same 500 bp DNA fragment argues strongly that hb suppresses the enhancer directly by binding to these sites. To confirm this, we deleted the hb recognition consensus sequences in all three strong hb binding sites of bxI by site-directed *in vitro* mutagenesis (Figure 5c and Materials and methods) and examined the interaction of the mutated enhancer with hb by the DNA binding assay *in vitro* and by the expression pattern *in vivo*. Figure 6 shows that the hb protein binds to the mutated



Fig. 5. Binding of hb protein to the BRE. (a) Immunoprecipitation of the BRE DNA with hb protein. Input DNA is the bx-pUC18 plasmid containing the 8.8 kb bx fragment, digested with Sall-HindIII (Figure 1), and end-labeled. Lane 1, input DNA before immunoprecipitation: lane 2, 50 µg hb extract; lane 3, 50 µg Kr extract. Of the entire 8.8 kb bx DNA, only the 1.7 kb bx I enhancer element is coprecipitated with hb protein. Extract from bacteria expressing the Krüppel (Kr) protein failed to bind any of the input DNA fragments. Further experiments localized the strong binding region to a 500 bp Apal-EcoRI fragment in the middle of the 1.7 kb bxI. (b) DNase I footprinting of the Apal-EcoRI fragment. Lane 1, no protein; lane 2, 50 μ g of protein from host bacteria without hb expression plasmid; lanes 3 and 4, 25 µg and 50 µg of hb extract; lane 5, 50 µg of Kr extract. (c) map of hb binding sites in the 1.7 kb bxI element. Sites A. B and C shown in (b) are indicated by arrows and their sequences are listed below the map with the A-rich consensus sequence underlined. A weaker binding site D is also indicated. Restriction sites: S: Sall: A: ApaI; R: EcoRI; H3: HindIII.

enhancer much more weakly than to the wild-type enhancer under the same assay conditions. The residual binding is probably due to the remaining site D (Figure 5c). When placed in the Ubx - lacZ construct and expressed in wild-type embryos, the mutated enhancer lacked the hb-dependent anterior restriction and displayed the same anterior shift exhibited by the normal enhancer in hb mutant embryos. The new anterior border is now positioned right behind the cephalic furrow at PS2 instead of PS6 but, instead of simply expanding the four normal stripes, the mutated enhancer expands anteriorly by adding two new stripes in PS2 and PS4 (Figure 7). The shift of the anterior border resulting from the elimination of the hb binding consensus sequences proves that hb directly represses the BRE. Interestingly, in addition to shifting the anterior border, the mutation in the enhancer also relaxes the posterior border of the pattern. The fourth stripe, which is normally narrower than the others and covers only the anterior part of the PS12, is enlarged to about the same width as the first three stripes and an extra



Fig. 6. Deletion of the *hb* binding consensus sequences in the BRE reduces the *hb* binding in the immunoprecipitation assay. Wild-type and deletion mutant *bx*I-Bluescript plasmids were digested with SaII - HindIII end-labeled, and equal amounts of the labeled DNAs were immunoprecipitated by hb protein extract. Lanes 1 and 2: wild-type and mutant *bxI* input DNA before immunoprecipitation. Lanes 3 and 4: wild-type and mutant *bxI* fragment after immunoprecipitation. The mutant *bxI* fragment was precipitated at about one-fourth the efficiency of the wild-type fragment. The upper band in the input DNA lanes is the vector.

stripe appears at PS14 (Figure 7d). Together with the two new stripes generated by the anterior shift, we have a novel seven stripe pattern. The posterior shift may indicate that the posterior domain of hb expression (a band between 10 and 20% EL) also plays a role in defining the *Ubx* expression domain. We think it more likely that the deletion mutations disrupted the interaction of the enhancer not only with hbbut also with the terminal gene *tll* (Strecker *et al.*, 1988) since, as will be shown below (Figure 4a), the posterior border of the BRE domain was shifted in *tll* but not in hbnull embryos (Figure 3). The *tll* gene has recently been cloned and was shown to also encode a putative zinc finger DNA-binding protein (Pignoni *et al.*, 1990). Its binding sites in the BRE element may therefore overlap those of the *hb* protein.

In hb mutant embryos, the four stripes expressed by the normal enhancer, especially the first stripe, are expanded (Figure 3) but no new stripes are added to the pattern. This is clearly different from the seven stripe pattern of the mutant enhancer in wild-type embryos (Figure 7), although both expand anteriorly to the same extent. This difference can be explained in terms of the effect of hb on the pair-rule genes that create the metameric pattern, in particular those that activate Ubx expression. A major activator of Ubx, and most likely of BRE, is the pair-rule gene ftz which is expressed at blastoderm in a series of seven stripes roughly coinciding with the even parasegments. Genetic studies have indicated that fiz activity is necessary for the activation of Ubx expression in the even-numbered parasegments (Ingham and Martinez-Arias, 1986). We find that, in fiz mutant embryos, the strong BRE expression in the even-numbered parasegments is reduced to the level found in odd-numbered parasegements, resulting in a homogeneously low level of expression (see below and Figure 4b). In wild-type embryos, the relief of hb repression in the anterior of the embryo allows ftz to activate the mutated enhancer in PS2 and PS4; likewise, relief of *tll* repression in the posterior terminal region allows fiz to activate the mutated BRE in PS12 and PS14, resulting in a seven stripe pattern. In hb null mutant



Fig. 7. Altered expression pattern of the mutant BRE element in which the *hb* binding sites have been deleted. (a) Normal BRE pattern at early gastrulation. (b) Early gastrulation embryo carrying the mutated BRE shows the anterior shift of the expression pattern. The anterior border now lies right behind the cephalic furrow. At this stage, the posterior shift is not apparent. (c) Normal BRE pattern at the extended germ band stage. (d) Novel seven stripe pattern at the germ band extension stage. As the result of the BRE mutation, three new stripes appear in PS2, 4, 14, and the normally narrow PS12 stripe is now enlarged to same width as the other stripes.

embryos, the first three anterior and the last two posterior ftz stripes are fused into broad anterior and posterior bands, the remaining two middle ftz stripes do not fuse but also become broader than normal (Carroll and Scott, 1986). Accordingly, in the absence of hb product, the four BRE stripes are enlarged and expanded anteriorly.

hb protein also binds to DNA fragments of the abx and bxd regulatory regions

Since the pattern displayed by the BRE element constitutes only a part of the endogenous Ubx expression pattern, there must be other regulatory elements located elsewhere in the Ubx gene. Besides the bx region, abx and bxd/pbx are two other important regulatory regions of the Ubx gene defined by genetic analyses. Since Ubx expression as a whole is subject to the *hb*-dependent anterior restriction, any enhancers contained in these regions would be expected to obey the same restriction. Using the immunoprecipitation assay, we scanned across 110 kb of DNA, including the Ubx transcription unit and 30 kb of upstream regulatory region, for the presence of additional hb binding sites. The results are summarized in Figure 8. There are only five significant hb binding fragments in the entire interval. Of the three stronger binding sites, one is located in the bx region and two in the bxd region. Of the two weaker binding sites, one is found in the bxd region, the other in the abx region. It is possible that some or all of these hb binding fragments are associated with enhancer elements. The relative strength of these binding sites might be significant. The hb concentration in the embryo does not drop sharply at 50% EL but rather is graded down progressively (Tautz, 1988). Sites with low binding affinity for hb would be occupied only at more anterior positions, where the hb concentration is higher, while sites with high affinity would continue to be occupied in more posterior parts of the embryo. This type of mechanisms has been shown to control the bicoiddependent activation of hb in the anterior part of the embryo (Driever et al., 1989; Struhl et al., 1989). In our case, hb binds to the abx region more weakly than to the bx and bxd regions, suggesting that the enhancer in the abx region is able to function more anteriorly than enhancers in the bxand bxd regions. This is consistent with the genetic results impying that *abx* functions more anteriorly than *bx* and *bxd*.

BRE expression in tll, ftz, Kr and kni mutant embryos

hb is obviously only one of many factors involved in the activation of the BRE element. We have examined BRE expression in mutant backgrounds lacking other potential regulators. Of the four genes discussed in this section, *tll* and *ftz* alter BRE expression while *Kr* and *kni* has no effect,

at least on the early pattern of BRE activation. In *tll* mutant embryos, the posterior border is relaxed and BRE expression extends nearly to posterior tip (Figure 4a). This effect could be indirect, mediated, for sample, by hb, whose posterior domain of expression is activated by tll (Schröder et al., 1988). However, since the posterior border remains normal in *hb* mutant embryos (Figure 3), we conclude that *tll* is the major factor limiting posterior BRE expression. Figure 4b shows the effect of a *ftz* mutation on the expression of BRE: the strong four stripe BRE pattern never develops and expression remains at a low level in a homogeneous domain, indicating that ftz is required for the enhanced expression in the even-numbered parasegments. Based on this result and on the altered ftz expression in hb mutant embryos, we have suggested above that the difference between the BRE pattern in hb mutant embryos (Figure 3) and the BRE deletion mutant pattern in normal embryos (Figure 7) could be explained by the dependence of BRE expression on fiz activity. The shift of the posterior BRE border in tll mutants and the decrease of BRE expression in even-numbered parasegments in *ftz* mutants parallel the behavior of the Ubx gene in these mutants (Reinitz and Levine, 1990; Ingham and Martinez-Arias, 1986). The similarities indicate that, like *hb*, *tll* and *ftz* also regulate *Ubx* expression through distant enhancers, probably in a direct fashion.

The expression of the endogenous Ubx gene in PS6 is much stronger and different in detail for the rest of the metameric pattern. To account for this local enhancement, Ingham and Martinez-Arias (1986) proposed that the fiz and Krüppel (Kr) products act synergistically to achieve higher levels of Ubx expression. The BRE pattern does not show this preference for PS6. Initially, the expression is fairly uniform within the domain and, after the stripe pattern arises, it is somewhat stronger in PS8 than in PS6. Krüppel (Kr) and knirps (kni) are two major early-acting gap genes that are required for the abdominal segmentation of the embryo (Nüsslein-Volhard and Wieschaus, 1980). The expression domain of these two genes overlaps that of the BRE element (Gaul et al., 1987; Pankratz et al., 1989), raising the possibility that Kr and kni might be the early activators of the BRE. Irish et al. (1989) found that in Kr mutant embryos, strong early activation of the endogenous Ubx gene is not observed in the region corresponding to PS6 although expression in a broad posterior domain appears by early gastrulation. In contrast, in embryos lacking Kr or kni, the initial activation of the BRE element appeared at the normal time and was normal in spatial distribution and intensity from the earliest stage. Figure 4 c and d show the normal extent of expression at the cellular blastoderm stage, although the later stripe pattern is, of course, affected. Consistent with



Fig. 8. hb binding sites in the Ubx locus. The Ubx transcription unit and the abx, bx, bxd and pbx regions are depicted as in Figure 1. The hb binding fragments identified by immunoprecipitation are indicated by boxes below. Filled boxes represent strong binding sites; hatched boxes, weak sites; open boxes, very weak sites. The bx region has a strong binding site, the bxd region has two strong and one weak site and the abx region has one weak binding site.

these results, we could not detect specific binding of the K₁ protein to the BRE element (Figure 5a and b).

Discussion

The bx region enhancer, BRE

Several lines of evidence make it likely that the BRE contributes to Ubx expression during embryogenesis and, although imperfectly, corresponds to the genetically identified bx control element. The BRE expression pattern closely resembles the early Ubx pattern. It is regulated by the same set of segmentation genes that regulate the Ubx pattern: it is repressed by hb and by tll, which together set its boundaries, and it is positively regulated by ftz.

Physically, the sites of most bx mutations fall within the 8.8 kb BRE fragment. Within this region we have found no other enhancer activity that functions in the embryo or imaginal discs. All bx alleles but one are caused by transposon insertions, most frequently involving the gypsy element, and may have wider effects, perhaps influencing, for example, the abx region as well as bx. The exception is $bx^{34e-prv}$, a partial revertant of bx^{34e} in which the gypsy element excised leaving a deletion of ~ 9.5 kb that completely overlaps the 8.8 kb interval represented in our largest BRE construct (Peifer and Bender, 1986). Genetic evidence indicates that the downstream elements abx and bx make a substantial contribution to the expression of the native Ubx gene. Removal of most of the upstream bxd region reduces but does not eliminate Ubx expression in the embryo (Bienz et al., 1988; Irvine et al., 1990). However, strong mutations in either abx or bx fail to alter appreciably the distribution of *Ubx* expression at early embryonic stages (White and Wilcox, 1985b; Irvine et al., 1990). We suppose that the domains of expression controlled by the upstream elements overlap substantially the pattern produced by the downstream elements, particularly at the early stages. Functional overlap is also suggested by the observation that bx bxd double mutants have a lethal phenotype much stronger than the viable phenotype displayed by either class separately (Lewis, 1951).

While this article was being written, two other works on the Ubx regulatory region appeared (Simon et al., 1990; Irvine et al., 1990). These papers, together with the present work, show that the Ubx regulatory region contains elements which produce patterns of expression in alternating parasegments. A control element in the abx region gives expression in odd parasegments beginning with PS5. At least two distinct elements are present in the bxd region, one expressing in even- and one in odd-numbered parasegments. The BRE is superficially similar to one of the bxd elements and produces a pattern in even-numbered parasegments beginning with PS6. These control elements program patterns of expression related to those expected for the genetically identified abx, bx and bxd control regions but the correspondence is not perfect, suggesting that additional controls or combinatorial interactions are required to reproduce the full anterior - posterior pattern. In addition to their differences in parasegmental pattern, the different genetic control elements appear to have different spectra of tissue specificities. The *abx* and *bxd* mutations clearly affect Ubx expression in the embryonic CNS as well as the epidermis, while bx mutants, including $bx^{34e-prv}$, have no detectable effects on the CNS (Little et al., 1990; White and

Wilcox, 1985b). The bxd and bx elements and, to a lesser extent, abx play a role in the mesoderm (Hooper, 1986). Consistent with these tissue specificities, the *abx* enhancer of Simon et al. (1990) is active in the epidermis and in the CNS while the BRE does not program expression in the CNS but is strongly expressed in the mesoderm as well as in the epidermis. The bxd enhancers have been analyzed in lesser detail but seem to affect all three tissues (Irvine et al., 1990). Although there is overlap in the domains of expression of bx and bxd elements, there are important differences in detail. In the mesoderm, Hooper (1986) found that bx mutations cause substantial transformations of the larval abdominal musculature in segments A1 to A5, similar to the defects caused by bxd mutations. However, while bxd affects the more medial muscles, bx mutations transform the more lateral muscles, consistent with the intense expression of BRE in the lateral mesoderm and the weak expression in the ventral region of the later embryo (see Figure 2e).

A major discrepancy remains between the BRE pattern and the classical bx phenotypes. The bx mutations typically transform anterior T3 towards anterior T2 in the imaginal discs and the adult cuticle, that is a PS5 to PS4 transformation. This presupposes a normal bx-dependent expression in the posterior part of PS5 in the third leg and haltere imaginal discs. In the early embryo we do not detect BRE expression in PS5 until the end of term band extension when weaker expression becomes visible in this parasegment. However, direct comparison of BRE activity and imaginal or adult bx phenotypes is not possible because of the breakdown of parasegmental control. The failure to preserve the parasegmental specificity beyond the extended germ band stage was observed in different degrees with all the enhancer constructs (Simon et al., 1990) except the largest one tested by Irvine et al. (1900). Most of these enhancer constructs also produced inappropriate expression in the imaginal discs, indicating that some additional layer of control is required in later development to determine correct parasegmental regulation. We conclude that the BRE program of expression corresponds at least in part to the genetically defined bx function but we cannot exclude the possibility that the bx region contains additional control elements that might correct or modify the pattern. It is possible also that combinatorial effects between enhancers might produce additional pattern elements not predictable from their separate behavior. In fact, the abx20 construct tested by Simon et al. (1990) probably contained both the abx enhancer and the BRE described here. However the pattern of expression described by this construct can be accounted for by the simple addition of the BRE and abx pattern elements.

Regulation by segmentation genes

The parasegmental pattern of Ubx and of BRE expression implies that the segmentation genes have a major input in the activation of the Ubx gene. Mutations in gap, pair-rule and segment polarity genes all affect the correct establishment of Ubx expression (Ingham and Martinez-Artias, 1986; Ingham *et al.*, 1986; Ingham, 1988; Martinez-Artias and White, 1988; Irish *et al.*, 1989). Our results show that neither Kr nor kni, the two gap genes expressed in the Ubxdomain, are required for the initial activation of BRE. The initial activation of the Ubx gene as a whole occurs also in a broad abdominal region but becomes sharply enhanced in a narrow stripe at the position of PS6 and then in stripes at PS8, 10 and 12 (Akam and Martinez-Arias, 1985). This strong expression of *Ubx* is affected by *Kr* and *kni* mutations (Ingham *et al.*, 1986; Irish *et al.*, 1989) while the lower level initial BRE expression is not. It is possible that the initial activation of BRE is affected by ubiquitous factors and controlled primarily by negative regulators.

Our results reveal that at least one gap gene, hb, acts directly upon the BRE and probably on the other distant regulatory elements of Ubx to repress more anterior expression and determine the anterior boundary of the Ubx domain. Failure to suppress anterior expression of Ubx causes homeotic transformations (Gonzalez-Reyes et al., 1990), demonstrating the importance of this repressive effect. *hb* also has a posterior domain of expression, which is activated at blastoderm and may contribute to setting the posterior border but our results indicate that, for BRE as for the endogenous Ubx gene, lack of hb is not sufficient to remove the posterior boundary of the early expression pattern. Instead, the major factor determining this boundary is the terminal gene *tll* (Figure 4b; Reinitz and Levine, 1990). The site-specific mutagenesis experiments show that the repressive effect of hb on BRE is mediated directly by one or more of the three hb binding sites in the BRE DNA but do not clarify the mechanisms of repression. The hb binding consensus sequences might overlap with the binding sites of an activator, permitting hb to block or compete with the binding of the activator. Alternatively, hb protein might have a direct negative effect on the promoter or it might interfere with the communication between enhancer and promoter. The deletion of the three hb binding sites does not inactivate the enhancer appreciably, indicating that possible activator binding sites do not overlap extensively with the hb binding sites. It is interesting to note that the deletions also relieve the negative effect of tll. Since this effect is not mediated through hb, it is likely that the *tll* product or a protein immediately controlled by *tll* also binds to one or more of the deleted sequences, suggesting that both tll and hb affect the action of the enhancer by the same mechanism.

After the cellular blastoderm stage, stronger expressing stripes composed of the even parasegments plus the anterior part of the odd parasegments are superimposed on the uniform initial domain of BRE. Our result shows that *ftz* is necessary for the strong expression of the BRE normally seen in the even parasegments. DNA binding experiments suggest that this is a direct effect since *ftz* protein binds to the same 500 bp fragment for the BRE that contains the *hb* binding sites (S.Qian, M.Capovilla and V.Pirrotta, unpublished results). However, the BRE stripes are wider than the stripes of *ftz* expression, strongly suggesting that some other pair-rule gene that interacts with *ftz* also enhances BRE expression.

Later expression

Input from the segmentation genes is essential for the establishment of the *Ubx* pattern and, as we have shown, to set the boundaries of the expression domain. *In vivo*, the *Ubx* gene continues to be expressed only in the appropriate segmental derivatives throughout the embryonic development and in the larval imaginal discs. What maintains this pattern after the cellular blastoderm, when the expression of the segmentation genes fades away in their segmental domains? Autoregulation, which has been shown to stabilize a pattern

of expression in some cases (Kuziora and McGinnis, 1988; Bienz and Tremml, 1988), is not involved in the case of the BRE but it is possible that mutual interactions between homeotic genes play some role (Struhl and White, 1985). Two classes of genes are important in maintaining the Ubx pattern of expression through later development. One is the *Polycomb* group, which appears to act by keeping *Ubx* repressed in parts of the embryo in which it is not initially activated (Duncan, 1982; Jürgens, 1985; Struhl and Akama, 1985). The other is the trithorax class of genes, whose role is to sustain expression in the appropriate segments (Ingham, 1985). The BRE pattern of expression in late embryonic development and in the imaginal discs suggests that both of these mechanisms fail to act upon our constructs. The parasegmental restriction of BRE expression begins to be transgressed shortly after germ band retraction when staining appears in thoracic segments T1 and T2 as well as in the head region and in posterior terminal structures. In the imaginal discs, the expression of BRE is variable in different transformed lines and it appears in inappropriate discs or compartments.

Long-distance regulation

The BRE element, like the other genetically defined regulatory regions of Ubx, is located at a large distance from the Ubx promoter. In vivo, it is presumably able to control its activity across more than 30 kb. One possible mechanism that could account for the ability of regulatory elements to act over distances of this order was suggested by the phenomenon of transvection, first observed by Lewis (1954) and prominently exhibited by bx mutations. Transvection is the ability of regulatory elements such as bx to control the promoter of a second copy of the gene on a homologously paired chromosome. The phenomenon requires the activity of the zeste gene and could be explained by a model according to which zeste binding sites near the distant regulatory element and zeste binding sites near the promoter mediate the looping that brings the distant element in proximity to the promoter (Benson and Pirrotta, 1988). The presence of a zeste binding site little more than one kb distant from the BRE lends support to this model. However, zeste function is not essential for correct Ubx expression since normal development is possible in flies bearing total deletions of the gene (Goldberg et al., 1989; V.Pirrotta, unpublished results). It is likely therefore that the mechanisms are more complex and that additional functions exist that can substitute for any role that zeste may have in gene regulation.

Materials and methods

Fly stocks and mutant embyro collection

Recipient flies for germ line transformation were $Df(1)w^{67c23(2)}$ in which the white gene is partially deleted causing complete lack of eye pigmentation (Pirrotta *et al.*, 1983). The mutant stocks used for analysis of genetic interactions are: *hb* null alles $hb^{1/4F}$; hb^{7M} (Tautz, 1988); *Ubx* null alles Ubx^1 ; $Dfbxd^{100}$ (Bienz and Tremml, 1988), fiz^{9H34} (Ingham and Martinez-Arias, 1986); tl^{18} (Strecker *et al.*, 1988); Kr^1 (Preiss *et al.*, 1985). kn^{illE72} (Tearle and Nüsslein-Volhard, 1987). To obtain embryos homozygous for various mutations and carrying the BRE – Ubx - lacZ transposon, the mutant strain was first crossed with transgenic flies carrying the transposon on a different chromosome and their non-balancer progeny were mated together to produce embryos for antibody staining.

Tranposon construction and germ line transformation

The Ubx basal promoter is a 1.65 kb Stul fragment including 680 bp of 5' upstream sequence and the entire 968 bp untranslated leader plus the

first 7 codons (Saari and Bienz, 1987). This fragment was adapted with a Bg/II linker and cloned into the BamHI-digested Cahsneo-lacZ, a Carnegie 4-derived plasmid (V.Pirrotta, unpublished), to give Ubx-lacZ gene assembled in a P-transposon using the hs-neo gene as selective marker (Steller and Pirrotta, 1985). Translation of the Ubx-lacZ gene begins with the first 7 codons of Ubx fused in-frame to the lacZ coding sequence. The 8.8 kb bx DNA was generated by merging a Sall-KpnI fragment from lambda clone 2269 and a KpnI-HincII fragment from clone 2261 of the Ubx chromosomal walk (Bender et al., 1983) in a pUC18 plasmid. From this bx-pUC clone, the 8.8 kb bx DNA was excised out as a Sall fragment and inserted into the Sall site of the Ubx - lacZ-hsneo P-transposon, upstream of the Ubx promoter. Constructs with bx arranged in both orientations relative to the Ubx promoter were selected. Transposon injection and G418 selection were done as described by Steller and Pirrotta (1985). For bx sub-fragment, the bx - Ubx - lacZ fusion constructs were assembed in CaSpeR4, a derivative of the CaSpeR vector (Pirrotta, 1988) containing a more extensive polylinker. Transformant flies were identified by eye pigmentation (details of constructions available upon request).

Antibody staining

Embryos were fixed, stained and mounted by the methods of Lawrence and Johnston (1989). The rabbit anti- β -galactosidase antibody (Cappel) was preabsorbed against 0-14 h embryos overnight at 1:500 dilution and used at a further dilution of 1:10 for early stage embryos or 1:20 for later stage embryos. The anti-\u00c3-galactosidase antibody was detected as brown color using the Vectastain ABC-HRP kit (Vector Labs), as instructed. For double staining, the embryos were washed after anti- β -galactosidase stain and incubated overnight with secondary antibody, then reacted with the Vectastain ABC-AP kit reagents to produce a blue color. The rat anti-hb antiserum was preabsorbed at 1:20 dilution, used at a final dilution of 1:5000; the rabbit anti-fiz antiserum was preabsorbed at 1:100 dilutions, used at a final dilution of 1:1000; the mouse anti-en antibody was used at 1:1000 dilution.

Immunoprecipitation and DNase I footprinting

hb and Kr proteins were expressed from the T7 promoter in E. coli host strain BL2(DE3) (Stanojevic et al., 1989). 100 ml cultures at OD₆₀₀ = 1 were induced for 3 h with 0.4 mM IPTG. Cells were pelleted and resuspended in 0.5 ml of buffer Z (Hoey and Levine, 1988). After adding 0.25 mg lysozyme and sonicating, the insoluble fraction was pelleted and then solubilized in 1.5 ml buffer Z containing 4 M urea. The protein extracts were stored at -80°C and used directly for immunoprecipitation (Benson and Pirrotta, 1987) and DNase I protection assays.

DNase I footprinting was done according to Stanojevic et al. (1989) with slight modifications: 2-4 ng ³²P-labeled DNA, $0.5 \mu g$ poly(dl·dC), 0.25 µg sonicated calf thymus DNA and appropriate amounts of protein extract were incubated on ice for 30 min in 50 µl binding buffer (100 mM KCl, 35 mM HEPES pH 7.9, 10 mM MgCl₂, 1 mM DTT, 0.1 mM ZnCl₂, 12% glycerol and 0.06% NP-40). After incubation, 50 µl of 10 mM MgCl₂, 5 mM CaCl₂ was added and 1 µl of 0.04 µg/µl DNase I was mixed in to give a final concentration of 0.4 μ g/ml. After 2-5 min digestion on ice, the reaction was stopped by adding 90 μ l stop solution (1% SDS, 20 mM EDTA, 200 mM NaCl). The DNA samples were extracted with phenol-chloroform (1:1), then with chloroform, ethanol precipitated and analysed on a 6% acrylamide sequencing gel.

Site-specific deletions

To minimize the damage to the bx enhancer, only the core hb binding consensus sequences (shown by parentheses) in the footprinting site A, B and C (Figure 3c) were deleted: A: CACA(CATAAAAAA)CGGTTCC-CTAAA; B: GGAACGA(TTTTTT)AATGTTTCTC; C: TGCACTT-(TTTATGACCTCGTAAAAA)AACT. Site D was left intact.

The *hb* consensus sequences were deleted using a strategy based on the site-directed mutagenesis method of Kunkel (1985). The bx I fragment was cloned into the Bluescript phagemid vector and single-stranded template was prepared from host cells BW313. The template DNA prepared from the BW313 host contains uracil residues in place of thymine. It can serve as template for in vitro DNA synthesis but is unable to replicate in wildtype E.coli cells, thus simplifying the selection of deletion products. A synthetic oligonucleotide complementary to two sides of the target sequence was annealed to the single-stranded template to prime in vitro DNA synthesis. The double-stranded DNA product was then transformed into DH5 α cells and deletion mutants were selected by DNA sequencing. The correct mutant clone then served as new template and the process repeated until all three consensus sequences were deleted. The oligonucleotide primers were made with 14 bp match in each side of the deletion target sequences. Sites A and B were deleted in two single cycles while the site C was deleted in two steps.

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