

Engineered Truncations in the Drosophila Mastermind Protein Disrupt Notch Pathway Function

Whitney Helms,* Hyung Lee,* Matthew Ammerman,* Annette L. Parks,† Marc A. T. Muskavitch,† and Barry Yedvobnick^{*,1}

*Department of Biology, Emory University, Atlanta, Georgia 30322; and †Program in Genetics, Cell and Developmental Biology, Department of Biology, Indiana University, Bloomington, Indiana 47405

The phenotypes and genetic interactions associated with mutations in the *Drosophila mastermind (mam)* gene have implicated it as a component of the Notch signaling pathway. However, its function and site of action within many tissues requiring Notch signaling have not been thoroughly investigated. To address these questions, we have constructed truncated versions of the Mam protein that elicit dominant phenotypes when expressed in imaginal tissues under GAL4-UAS regulation. By several criteria, these effects appear to phenocopy loss of function for the Notch pathway. When expressed in the notum, truncated Mam results in failure of lateral inhibition within proneural clusters and perturbations in cell fate specification within the sensory organ precursor cell lineage. Expression in the wing is associated with vein thickening and margin defects, including nicking and bristle loss. The truncation-associated wing margin phenotypes are modified by mutations in Notch and Wg pathway genes and are correlated with depressed expression of *wg, cut,* and *vg*. These data support the idea that Mam truncations have lost key effector domains and therefore behave as dominant-negative proteins. Coexpression of Delta or an activated form of Notch suppresses the effects of the Mam truncation, suggesting that Mam can function upstream of ligand-receptor interaction in the Notch pathway. This system should prove useful for the investigation of the role of Mam within the Notch pathway.

Key Words: Mastermind; Notch pathway; Drosophila; wing margin; notum.

INTRODUCTION

Cell communication and signal transduction are essential developmental processes, and a wide variety of such systems has been described in many organisms (Greenwald and Rubin, 1992). The Notch pathway is one of the more recently characterized signal transduction systems. The pathway comprises a membrane receptor, ligands, and several cytoplasmic and nuclear proteins that are involved in the regulation of target gene expression. Originally described in *Drosophila*, some of the pathway-encoding genes, called the neurogenic loci, were initially associated with lateral inhibition during nervous system formation (Lehmann *et al.*, 1983). These loci were subsequently shown to function in a wide spectrum of tissues throughout *Drosoph*-

¹ To whom correspondence should be addressed. Fax: (404) 727-2880. E-mail: Biolby@Biology.Emory.Edu.

ila development (Dietrich and Campos-Ortega, 1984; Xu et al., 1990; Corbin et al., 1991; Ruohola et al., 1991; Hartenstein et al., 1992; Bender et al., 1993; Parody and Muskavitch, 1993) and to be evolutionarily-conserved (Artavanis-Tsakonas et al., 1995; Weinmaster, 1997). Components of the Notch pathway have been described in Caenorhabditis elegans and numerous vertebrates, including humans, demonstrating fundamental roles in normal development as well as disease processes (Gridley, 1997). The best-described components of the pathway include the Notch receptor, its ligands Delta (Dl) and Serrate (Ser), a cytoplasmic protein Deltex (Dx), the negative regulator Hairless (H), and the nuclear proteins Suppressor of Hairless [Su(H)], Mastermind (Mam), and members of the Enhancer of Split [E(spl)] class of transcription factors (Artavanis-Tsakonas et al., 1995). E(spl) proteins are positively regulated by Notch/Su(H) (Jennings et al., 1994; Bailey and Posakony, 1995; Lecourtois and Schweisguth, 1995) and, in combination with Groucho (Gro), repress target genes (Oellers *et al.*, 1994; Paroush *et al.*, 1994). Repression of genes normally associated with specific pathways of differentiation, such as proneural genes during neurogenesis, is consistent with the suggestion that the Notch pathway can maintain cells in an uncommitted state (Coffman *et al.*, 1993).

The Notch pathway has been studied in several imaginal tissues. In the eye, it is required for numerous cell fate decisions affecting photoreceptors, cone cells, pigment cells, and bristles (Cagan and Ready, 1989; Parks et al., 1995; Baker and Yu, 1997). In the notum, the pathway mediates selection of sensory organ precursor (SOP) cells from proneural clusters and subsequent determination of their progeny (Hartenstein and Posakony, 1990; Parks and Muskavitch, 1993; Bang et al., 1995; Lyman and Yedvobnick, 1995). In the wing, it is critical for vein morphogenesis (de Celis, 1997, Huppert et al., 1997) and establishment of the "D/V" organizer at the junction between the dorsal and the ventral wing compartments (Rulifson and Blair, 1995; Neumann and Cohen, 1996; Kim et al., 1996; de Celis and Bray, 1997; Micchelli et al., 1997; Fleming et al., 1997). During wing patterning, the expression of Notch and its ligands is subject to feedback regulation that produces an asymmetric distribution of these proteins in adjacent cell populations and the subsequent restriction of signaling and reception (de Celis and Bray, 1997; Huppert et al., 1997; Micchelli et al., 1997). At the D/V organizer, Notch activity positively regulates genes that are involved in growth and differentiation, such as *wingless* (*wg*), *vestigial* (*vg*), and *cut* (Rulifson and Blair, 1995; Neumann and Cohen, 1996; Kim et al., 1996; Micchelli et al., 1997; de Celis and Bray, 1997). These genes also require Su(H) function for expression (Neumann and Cohen, 1996). Thus, the Notch pathway regulates the expression of a diverse group of genes and mediates both lateral-inhibitory and inductive events. These processes involve additional genes that may contribute in either a general or a tissue-specific manner to pathway function. For example, not all effects are mediated by Su(H) (Lecourtois and Schweisguth, 1995; Matsuno et al., 1997), and loci such as strawberry notch (sno) exhibit more limited mutant phenotypes (Majumdar et al., 1997). Furthermore, genetic screens have identified additional pathway components in Drosophila (Verheyen et al., 1996; Rooke et al., 1996) and C. elegans (Levitan and Greenwald, 1995; Hubbard et al., 1996). Interactions with other signaling systems, such as the Wg, Sevenless (Sev), and epidermal growth factor receptor pathways, have also led to the characterization of genes that affect Notch signaling (Axelrod et al., 1996; Karim et al., 1996; Price et al., 1997). Thus, a major goal in the study of the Notch pathway is to identify and determine the role of each of its components and to understand the basis for cross-communication with other pathways. An analysis of the Drosophila mastermind (*mam*) gene is central to this goal.

One of the more enigmatic components of the Notch pathway, *mam* is a member of the original group of zygotic neurogenic loci (Lehmann et al., 1983; Yedvobnick et al., 1988). The mam gene is widely expressed and functions throughout Drosophila development (Dietrich and Campos-Ortega, 1984; Hartenstein and Campos-Ortega, 1986; Smoller et al., 1990; Bettler et al., 1991; Hartenstein et al., 1992; Schmid et al., 1996; Bettler et al., 1996). The Mam protein comprises a novel sequence with features suggestive of a role in transcriptional regulation, including basic and acidic charge clusters that might mediate interactions with DNA and protein, respectively (Smoller et al., 1990). Consistent with a regulatory role, the protein associates with specific chromosome sites in vivo and is often coincident with RNA polymerase II (Bettler et al., 1996). Mutations in mam exhibit genetic interactions with N(Brand and Campos-Ortega, 1990; Xu et al., 1990), dx (Xu and Artavanis-Tsakonas, 1990), and Su(H) mutations (Fortini and Artavanis-Tsakonas, 1994). These interactions are evident during wing morphogenesis as the wing phenotypes of N, dx, and Su(H) alleles are enhanced by loss-of-function mam mutations. Because N, dx, and Su(H) each encode a key component of the signaling cascade, the genetic interactions imply an important and proximate role for Mam. However, despite the genetic and molecular information available on Mam, its function and site of action within the pathway during critical developmental events have not been thoroughly investigated. To address these questions, we have created transgenic strains expressing mutated Mam proteins that effectively depress *mam* function in a stage and tissue-specific manner. This was accomplished by engineering truncated versions of Mam that were placed under GAL4-UAS regulation (Brand and Perrimon, 1993). Using this system, we show that Mam truncations elicit imaginal phenotypes consistent with those associated with loss-of-function mutations in other Notch pathway loci. In the wing, these phenotypes are modified by mutations in Notch and Wg pathway genes and are correlated with depressed expression of the Notch pathway target genes *cut, vg,* and *wg.* The highly penetrant dominant phenotypes produced by this system facilitated epistasis studies to position Mam action within the Notch pathway. The results of these studies support the idea that Mam can function in the Notch pathway upstream of ligand-receptor interaction during wing margin formation.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Drosophila Strains

GAL4 driver strains. C96-GAL4 drives at the wing margin (Gustafson and Boulianne, 1996). *sevhs-GAL4* drives in sets of cells posterior to the eye furrow (Fortini *et al.*, 1993), and 309-GAL4 drives in proneural clusters of the wing disc (Artavanis-Tsakonas, personal communication). *glass-GAL4* drives in cells posterior to the eye furrow (Freeman, 1996). *blk-GAL4* drives along the anterior/posterior wing boundary and in the leg and eye disc (Morimura *et al.*, 1996). *pnr-GAL4* drives from the future notal midline to prospective microchaete stripe 5 (Heitzler *et al.*, 1996a).



FIG. 1. Mam truncation constructs cloned into pUAST. The top diagram (Mam) shows the general structure of the full-length Mam protein, containing three charged amino acid clusters and three runs of alternating glycine and valine (GV). Additional features of the protein sequence are described in Smoller *et al.* (1990) and Bettler *et al.* (1996). UAS-MamR eliminates a small carboxy-terminal segment of the protein that includes most of the second acidic cluster. UAS-MamN removes sequences located carboxy to the first GV region, and UAS-MamH removes sequences carboxy to the basic cluster. Details of the constructions are given under Materials and Methods.

UAS strains. The UAS strains used were Dl, UAS-DIWT1; Ser, UAS-SerD; N, UAS-N^{actW}; Dx, UAS-DxA89; Su(H), UAS-Su(H)/Cy; H, UAS-H3; Dfz2, UAS-Dfz263-10; Dsh, UAS-Dsh3; Zw3, UAS-Zw310a; Arm, UAS-Arm^{S2A} and UAS-Arm^{S10C}; and dTCF, UASdTCF10.

Other strains. The other strains used were w^{1118} ; $H^1 Pr/In(3R)C$ e, $arm^1/FM7c$, $(dTCF) pan^{13a}/ey^D$, $P\{ry^+t7.2 = neoFRT\}43D$ $P\{w^+mC = \pi M\}46F P\{w^+mC = \pi M\}47F FRT43-2\pi M, wg^{CX4}/CyO$, $zw3^{M11-1}/FM7$, $dsh^{v26}/FM7$, $y w^a N^{5419}$; C(1)DX ywf; $Dp(1;2)w^{+51D7}$, nd^1 , ec dx^1 , st e $E(sp1)^{8D06}/TM3$, $gro^{E48}/TM6B$, mam^{N2G}/Cy , ss $D1^{BX9}$ $e^4 ro/TM6C$, e $Bd^G/TM6B$, red $Ser^{rev6-1}/TM3$, $Su(H)^{S5}/CyO$, $Su(H)^{SF8}$ $Adh^{up3} cn/CyO$, vg-LacZ, w; $P[FRT]43D mam^{IL115}/CyO$, w hsFLP; Sco/Cy, cm cut^{53d}.

Strain descriptions can be found in Lindsley and Zimm (1992) and Flybase. All crosses were performed at 25°C.

Construction of UAS-Mam Truncations

Subclones of the 6333-nucleotide Mam cDNA B4 (Smoller et al., 1990) in pUAST (Brand and Perrimon, 1993) were created as follows. The constructs are diagrammed in Fig. 1. The full-length Mam open reading frame (ORF) predicts a protein of 1596 residues. For UAS-MamR, which terminates at nucleotide 5446, B4 was cut with EcoRI and a 5.7-kb fragment was cloned into pUAST. This fragment of Mam contains the entire ORF except for the carboxyterminal 32 residues, which contain the majority of sequence within the second acidic charge cluster. For UAS-MamN, which terminates at nucleotide 3884, the UAS-MamR clone was cut with NotI at an internal site and also within the pUAST polylinker. The fragment corresponding to UAS-MamN was self-ligated. This construct encodes through the first acidic charge cluster, as well as an additional 500 residues, ending at Mam residue 1043; it eliminates two of three Gly-Val runs. For UAS-MamH, which terminates at nucleotide 1489, cDNA B4 was cut with EcoRI and HincII, and a 1.8-kb fragment was cloned into pBluescript KS (Stratagene) between the EcoRI and SmaI sites. The MamH segment was excised with EcoRI and XbaI and cloned into pUAST. This truncation ends at Mam residue 245, 55 residues carboxy to the basic charge cluster. It eliminates both acidic charge clusters and all other sequences carboxy to residue 245. Constructs were transformed into the w^{1118} strain using standard techniques (Rubin and Spradling, 1982).

Mounting of Adult Tissues

Wings were dehydrated in isopropanol and mounted in Euparol. For nota and eyes, adults were mounted on slides with adhesive and photographed.

Antibody Staining of Third-Instar Larval Wing Discs

The protocol of Brennan *et al.* (1998) was followed for the fixation, staining, and washing of imaginal discs. Images were obtained using a Bio-Rad MRC 1024 confocal microscope. The following antibodies/ dilutions were used: Mam (1:1000 rat polyclonal; Bettler *et al.*, 1996), Wg (1: 20 mouse monoclonal; R. Nusse), β -galactosidase (1: 100 mouse; Promega), Cut (1:20 mouse monoclonal; Developmental Studies Hybridoma Bank), and c-Myc (1:100 rabbit polyclonal, A-14-G; Santa Cruz Biotechnology). FITC and Cy5 secondary antibodies were obtained from Jackson ImmunoResearch Laboratories and used as described previously (Bettler *et al.*, 1996).

Antibody Staining of Pupal Nota

Monoclonal antibody 22C10 (Seymour Benzer) recognizes a cytoplasmic epitope expressed primarily in neuronal cells (Zipursky *et al.*, 1984; Hartenstein, 1988). Monoclonal antibody 990 E5 F1 (Sean Carroll) recognizes the Achaete protein. Goat anti-mouse secondary antibody conjugated to horseradish peroxidase was obtained from Jackson Immunochemicals. Immunolocalization was carried out as described in Parks *et al.* (1997). For Achaete staining, the color reaction was intensified using silver enhancement (Gallyas *et al.*, 1982; Liposits *et al.*, 1984). In some instances, parts of two or more micrographs were combined in a montage to generate a continuous image of the disc epithelium.

Generation of mam Mosaics

w hsFLP; Sco/Cy females carrying an X chromosome source of FLP recombinase were crossed with *w*; *P*[FRT]43D mam^{IL115}/CyO males. Cy, non-Sco males were mated to homozygous females containing FRT at 43D and a Myc protein marker (strain described above). Embryos were collected for 8 h, aged an additional 72 h, and then heat-shocked at 37°C for 60 min to induce FLP. When larvae reached late third instar they were heat-shocked to induce Myc expression and then allowed to recover 30 min prior to dissection. After fixation, wing discs were double-stained with anti-Myc and anti-Cut, as described above.

RESULTS

Production of Dominant Phenotypes through GAL4-UAS-Mediated Overexpression of Mam Truncation Products

The predicted amino acid sequence of Mam suggests a function in transcriptional regulation. The sequence contains three clusters of charged amino acids, an amino-

terminal basic cluster, and two acidic clusters, as well as three unusual runs of alternating glycine-valine (Smoller et al., 1990; Fig. 1). The basic region contains a nuclear localization sequence (Robbins et al., 1991) and limited sequence similarity to a subset of bZip DNA-binding domains. Although no sequence-specific DNA-binding activity has been observed for Mam, the protein associates with a discrete set of transcriptionally active sites on polytene chromosomes (Bettler et al., 1996). Given the absence of strong sequence similarity to known proteins, we reasoned that the charge clusters and Gly-Val repeats of Mam might represent important functional domains. The sequence conservation between Drosophila melanogaster and D. virilis within the charge clusters and a portion of the Gly-Val repeats supports this reasoning (Newfeld et al., 1993). We predicted that truncations of Mam that eliminate acidic charge clusters, and/or Gly-Val repeats, but retain nuclear targeting via the basic region, might be useful for production of dominant phenotypes. In principle, such truncations could compete with wild-type protein and depress Mam function below 50%, a level of activity that is not associated with reproducible dominant phenotypes (B.Y., unpublished observation). This approach was further encouraged by the characterization of a *mam* mutation associated with a dominant wing-nicking phenotype, In(2R)N2G (mam^{N2G}). This *mam* allele is predicted to encode a truncated protein that terminates after the basic region (Smoller et al., 1990). The wing-nicking phenotype of mam^{N2G} is not completely penetrant and is very sensitive to genetic background effects. Therefore, truncation constructs were cloned into pUAST (Brand and Perrimon, 1993) to allow in vivo expression at high levels.

Strains containing the MamR, MamN, and MamH truncations in pUAST were constructed (Fig. 1). Transformant lines carrying each construct were crossed to GAL4 lines that drive in imaginal tissues known to express Mam (Schmid et al., 1996; Bettler et al., 1996), including the wing, eye, and notum. Several GAL4 lines produce adult phenotypes when combined with the *MamN* and *MamH* truncations. A completely penetrant rough eye phenotype is produced in glass-GAL4/UAS-MamN and UAS-MamN/+; sev-GAL4/+ flies (Figs. 2P-2S). We tested glass-GAL4/UAS-MamN flies for genetic interactions and did not observe modifications to the eye phenotype by mutation of *mam* or other Notch pathway loci, except for a very weak enhancement by DI^{BX9} (data not shown). However, strains heterozygous for this *Dl* allele also exhibit minor eye roughness.

Expression of Truncated Mam in the Notum Elicits Phenotypes Similar to Those Associated with Notch Pathway Loss-of-Function Mutations

A bristle, consisting of a shaft, a socket, a neuron, and a thecogen cell, arises from a single SOP cell that is specified within a proneural cluster (Hartenstein and Posakony, 1989). The Notch pathway functions in cellular specifica361

stein and Posakony, 1990; Parks and Muskavitch, 1993). The 309-GAL4 driver is expressed in proneural clusters of the wing disc (Fig. 2N) and when combined with UAS-*MamN* or *UAS-MamH* produces changes in bristle number. A recombinant chromosome designated 309-MamH contains both the 309-GAL4 and the UAS-MamH transgenes. 309-MamH/+ nota contain additional macrochaetes, most notably at scutellar (Fig. 2C) and posterior notopleural sites (Fig. 2G). These effects are enhanced in flies heterozygous for certain mam alleles (Figs. 2D and 2H). Additionally, mutations in other Notch pathway genes variably enhance the 309-MamH/+ bristle phenotype, and heterozygotes for a N locus deletion (N^{5419}) exhibit a lethal interaction (data not shown).

In the heminotum, *pnr-GAL4* directs expression from the future notal midline to prospective microchaete stripe 5 (the stripe which contains the dorsocentral macrochaetes). pnr-GAL4/UAS-MamN adults exhibit microchaete loss between the dorsocentral macrochaetes; the phenotypic severity ranges from bald nota to those sparsely populated with bristles (Fig. 3A). Similar bald patches are observed in nota containing mosaic clones homozygous for the severe mam^{IL115} allele (Fig. 3A, lower inset). In addition, pnr-GAL4/UAS-MamN animals exhibit additional macrochaetes, twin shafts at some microchaete sites, and twin to quadruple shafts at some macrochaete sites (primarily the scutellar macrochaetes, Fig. 3A, upper inset). The absence of microchaetes could be due to loss of precursors during SOP specification or, alternatively, due to transformation of the shaft and socket cells into neuronal cells at the four-cell stage. We examined SOP specification in pnr-GAL4/UAS-MamN animals by staining pupal nota at 13 h after puparium formation (APF) with antibodies to Achaete, which is expressed only in SOP cells at this stage (Parks and Muskavitch, 1993). We observe an increase in the number of SOPs in pnr-GAL4/UAS-MamN nota (Fig. 3C) compared to control nota (Fig. 3B). Supernumerary SOPs are also seen in animals following reductions in Notch or Delta function (Hartenstein and Posakony, 1990; Parks and Muskavitch, 1993).

We next examined 35-h APF nota from pnr-GAL4/UAS-MamN flies with MAb 22C10, which recognizes shaft and neuron cells of the bristle (Hartenstein and Posakony, 1989). Compared to control nota (Fig. 3D), most microchaetes appear to exhibit only neuronal cell staining (Fig. 3E, inset shows higher magnification). Reduction of Notch or Delta function during specification of bristle organ cells results in similar neuronal clusters (Hartenstein and Posakony, 1990; Parks and Muskavitch, 1993). Similarly, the presence of twin shafts at some microchaete sites indicates a transformation at the four-cell stage of socket cell to shaft cell, a phenotype associated with loss of Notch signaling (Schweisguth and Posakony, 1994; A. L. Parks, T. R. Parody, and M. A. T. Muskavitch, unpublished observation).

MAb 22C10 staining also reveals that multishafted macrochaete groups are associated with multiple neurons, sug-



FIG. 2. Imaginal phenotypes associated with overexpression of Mam truncations. Strains containing pUAST Mam constructs were crossed to GAL4 lines that direct expression in imaginal discs, and the progeny were scored for highly penetrant phenotypes. UAS-MamR exhibits only weak effects with certain GAL4 lines, whereas UAS-MamN and UAS-MamH produce very strong phenotypes that are in some cases completely penetrant. 309-GAL4 expresses in proneural clusters of the notum (N) and when combined with UAS-MamH elicits perturbations in bristle number predominantly at scutellar (A-D) and notopleural (E-H) sites. Control UAS-MamH/+ (A and E) and 309-GAL4/+ (B and F) nota exhibit normal macrochaete number, except for a low frequency of scutellar duplications in UAS-MamH. In contrast, nota from recombinant 309-MamH/+ animals exhibit macrochaete duplications at most scutellar sites and at posterior notopleural sites (C and G, arrows). Nota from mam^{N2G}/309-MamH animals show an enhanced macrochaete multiplication phenotype (D and H, arrows). C96-GAL4 expresses along the wing margin (O) and when combined with UAS-MamH produces wing nicks and loss of margin bristles (I-M). Control C96-GAL4/+ and UAS-MamH/+ wings are normal (I and J, respectively), whereas the heterozygote carrying the recombinant chromosome (C96-MamH/+) exhibits wing nicking and bristle loss from anterior and posterior margins and the distal wing tip (K). Wings from a mam^{N2G}/+ heterozygote show a minor nicking phenotype that is incompletely penetrant (L). Wings from mam^{N2G}/+; C96-MamH/+ animals exhibit an enhanced phenotype (M) that is also incompletely penetrant. glass-GAL4 and sev-GAL4 express in cells posterior to the morphogenetic furrow and when combined with UAS-MamN produce rough eyes. Homozygotes for glass-GAL4 do show minor eye roughness; however, heterozygotes for glass-GAL4 appear normal under a dissecting scope (P); sev-GAL4/+ eyes (data not shown) and UAS-MamN/+ eyes (Q) also appear normal. The combinations glass-GAL4/UAS-MamN (R) and UAS-MamN/+; sev-GAL4/+ (S) produce a completely penetrant rough eye phenotype. The phenotype associated with a recombinant glass-MamN chromosome is not detectably modified by mutations in mam or any other Notch pathway gene, except for a slight enhancement by Dl (data not shown).



FIG. 3. Mam truncation phenotypes in the notum resemble *N* and *Dl* loss-of-function phenotypes. Adult notum from a *pnr-GAL4/UAS-MamN* fly. (A) Microchaete loss is evident throughout the central region of the notum. In other nota, the central regions are devoid of all microchaetes (bald), and more anterior/lateral regions of the notum contain higher than normal microchaete densities

gesting the presence of complete bristle organs and therefore the specification of supernumerary SOPs (Fig. 3G). In some cases, multiple shafts appear to be associated with a single cell body. This phenotype may be similar to multishafted bristles seen in clones of cells carrying deletions of genes within the E(spl) complex (Heitzler *et al.*, 1996b) or with reduction of Notch signaling associated with overexpression of *Hairless* (Bang and Posakony, 1992).

Expression of Truncated Mam at the Dorsal/ Ventral Wing Boundary Perturbs Wing Margin Formation

Notch pathway function is essential for proper development of the wing margin, therefore we tested the effects of truncated Mam expression on margin formation. The C96-GAL4 driver is expressed along the dorsal-ventral wing margin (Fig. 2O), as reported previously by Gustafson and Boulianne (1996). Margin nicks and bristle loss are evident in C96-GAL4/UAS-MamH wings or wings of C96-MamH/+ flies (C96-MamH is a recombinant chromosome that contains the C96-GAL4 and UAS-MamH transgenes) (Fig. 2K). The wing-nicking phenotype can be enhanced by heterozygosity for mam^{N2G} , although the enhancement is not fully penetrant (Figs. 2L and 2M). Similar wing phenotypes are observed in C96-GAL4/UAS-MamN animals (described below); however, only minor wing effects with low penetrance are observed with C96-GAL4/UAS-MamR flies (Fig. 4D).

Notch Pathway Mutations Modify the Mam Truncation Wing Phenotype

The phenotype associated with the recombinant *C96-MamN/+* genotype consists of anterior and posterior wing margin loss (nicks) and associated bristle loss (Fig. 4A). In wings from *C96-MamN/+* flies, the most significant mar-

(data not shown). Bald regions are also observed in mam^{IL115}/ mam^{IL115} mosaic nota (lower inset, arrow). Supernumerary macrochaetes (arrow) and twin microchaete shafts (arrowhead) are observed in pnr-GAL4/UAS-MamN nota. Macrochaete multishafted groups sometimes arise in the scutellar region (upper inset). Achaete staining in a 13-h APF control A101/TM3 notum reveals a regular array of SOPs (B). Supernumerary SOPs are detected with Achaete antibody in a 13-h pnr-GAL4/UAS-MamN notum (C). At 35 h APF, MAb 22C10 stains both the microchaete shaft cells and the neurons in a control A101/TM3 notum (D). In contrast, MAb 22C10 staining reveals clusters of neurons at each microchaete site in a pnr-GAL4/UAS-MamN notum (E). A single neuron and shaft cell are stained by MAb 22C10 at a posterior scutellar macrochaete site in a control A101/TM3 notum (F). Multiple neurons and several large polyploid cells (shaft and socket cells are both polyploid in bristle organs, and the socket cell will sometimes stain with MAb 22C10) are found at a posterior scutellar macrochaete site in pnr-GAL4/UAS-MamN animals (G).



FIG. 4. The C96-MamN truncation wing phenotype is modified by mutations of other Notch pathway genes. These studies utilized a recombinant chromosome that contains both the C96-GAL4 and the UAS-MamN transgenes and is referred to as C96-MamN. The C96-MamN/+ genotype yields a completely penetrant phenotype including nicks and variable bristle loss along the anterior and posterior wing margins (A, B), very similar to the C96-MamH/+ phenotype described earlier. The phenotype is significantly more severe in C96-MamN/C96-MamN homozygotes (C). Expression of UAS-MamR under C96-GAL4 regulation (C96-GAL4/UAS-MamR) elicits a minor wing-nicking phenotype at low frequency (D). Parental strain w¹¹¹⁸ (E). C96-MamN/TM3, Sb flies were crossed with those carrying Notch pathway mutations and scored for modification of the wing phenotype; all controls (except for nd^1/Y and dx^1/Y) are heterozygous for w^{1118} . nd^{1}/Y causes a minor wing-nicking phenotype (G) that strongly enhances the phenotype of C96-MamN, as shown for nd^{1}/Y ; C96-MamN/+ flies (H). $N^{5419/+}$ wings show a minor and incompletely penetrant wing phenotype in the w^{1118} genetic background (F). $N^{5419/+}$; Dp (1:2)w+51b7/+; C96-MamN/+ flies contain a second chromosome duplication of the wild-type N locus and show the typical C96-MamN phenotype (I). $N^{5419}/+$; C96-MamN/+ flies do not carry the N^+ duplication and therefore are heterozygous for N; they exhibit severely enhanced wings (J). Wings from $Dl^{BX9}/+$ controls show a typical Dl mutant phenotype (K), whereas those from $Dl^{BX9}/C96-MamN$ show significantly enhanced wing phenotype (L). Wings from Ser^{rev6-1}/+ are normal (M), whereas those from Ser^{rev6-1}/C96-MamN are enhanced (N). Wings from $Bd^{G}/+$ show loss of material (O), and those from $Bd^{G}/C96$ -MamN exhibit severely enhanced wing phenotypes (P). The inset in (P) shows the wing phenotype observed in a smaller percentage of cases; the wing blade is nearly absent. The $Su(H)^{ss}$ allele is a gain-of-function mutation (Fortini and Artavanis, 1994). Su(H)^{SS/+} wings are normal (Q), whereas Su(H)^{SS/+}; C96-MamN/+ wings show an enhanced phenotype (R). Wings from dx^{1}/Y flies exhibit minor wing perturbations associated with extra vein material (S), whereas those from dx^1/Y ; C96-MamN/+ flies exhibit significantly enhanced loss of margin and wing blade (T). Wings from flies heterozygous for a deficiency of the E(spl) complex, E(spl)^{8D06}, or a null mutation in gro, gro^{E48}, are normal (data not shown). Wings from E(spl)^{8D06}/C96-MamN (U) and $gro^{E48}/C96-MamN$ (V) do not appear enhanced. In(3R)C, e/C96-MamN (H^+/H^+) wings exhibit a typical C96-MamN/+ wing phenotype (W); this phenotype is partially suppressed by a mutation of the negative Notch pathway regulator H; e.g., an $H^{1}/C96-MamN$ wing (X). This genotype produces a range of phenotypes, with some wings rescued more and others less than the wing presented.

gin loss occurs along distal and posterior wing regions. Within some affected regions, the margin is largely intact; however, most bristles, particularly those of the stout mechanosensory class, are missing (Fig. 4B). The *C96-MamN/C96-MamN* phenotype is associated with significant wing blade loss (Fig. 4C).

The C96-MamN/+ phenotype is enhanced by N mutations. Males hemizygous for nd^1 exhibit a minor wingnicking phenotype (Fig. 4G), and females heterozygous for N^{5419} have a weakly-penetrant wing-nicking phenotype (Fig. 4F). The nd^{1}/Y ; C96-MamN/+ (Fig. 4H) and $N^{5419}/+$; C96-MamN/+ (Fig. 4J) genotypes produce enhanced wing margin effects. $N^{5419}/+$; $Dp(1;2)w^{+51b7}/+$; C96-MamN/+ females that carry a N^+ duplication on chromosome 2 exhibit a typical Mam truncation phenotype (Fig. 4I). Synergism is also observed with mutations in Dl (Figs. 4K and 4L), Ser (Figs. 4M-4P), Su(H) (Figs. 4Q and 4R), and dx (Figs. 4S and 4T). In the case of *Su*(*H*), interactions were observed with a gain-of-function allele $Su(H)^{S5}$, but not with loss-offunction alleles, such as $Su(H)^{SF8}$ (data not shown). Deletion of the E(spl) complex and point mutations in groucho do not enhance the C96-MamN phenotype (Figs. 4U and 4V), whereas reduction in the function of *H*, a negative pathway regulator (Maier et al., 1992; Schweisguth and Posakony, 1994), suppresses the phenotype (Figs. 4W and 4X).

Truncated Mam Elicits Loss-of-Function-like Effects and Depresses Expression Levels of Notch Pathway Targets

During wing margin formation, the Notch pathway activates genes involved in patterning, including *cut*, *vg*, and wg (Rulifson and Blair, 1995; Neumann and Cohen, 1996; Kim et al., 1996; de Celis and Bray, 1997; Micchelli et al., 1997; Sun and Artavanis-Tsakonas, 1997). When driven at the margin, MamN depresses the expression of Cut (Figs. 5A and 5B), a vg-LacZ reporter (Figs. 5C and 5D), and Wg (Figs. 5E and 5F). For Cut, gaps in expression are always evident, whereas for *vg-LacZ* the effects are more variable in severity. The effects on Wg are more uniform and severe than those observed for Cut or vg-LacZ. Because the C96-GAL4 enhancer trap line also expresses at the wing margin, we determined whether MamN affects its expression. LacZ expression was assayed in C96-GAL4/UAS-LacZ wing discs and C96-MamN/UAS-LacZ wing discs. A small, reproducible depression of C96-mediated LacZ expression was observed in the presence of MamN (Figs. 5G and 5H).

The effects on target gene expression were corroborated by driving MamN along the anterior/posterior (A/P) wing boundary utilizing a *blk-GAL4* construct, which contains the *dpp* 3' disc enhancer (Morimura *et al.*, 1996). The *blk-GAL4/UAS-MamN* genotype produces phenotypes in the notum, wing, and eye (Figs. 6J–6L), within domains of *dpp* expression in imaginal discs (Masucci *et al.*, 1990). Macrochaete duplications, a deep wing incision, thickening of wing vein 3, and smaller, roughened eyes are observed. The eye phenotype is enhanced by mutations in *mam*, *N*, and *D1* (Figs. 6M–6O). At the intersection of the A/P and D/V boundaries, expression of Cut (Figs. 6A–6C), *vg-LacZ* (Figs. 6D–6F), and Wg (Figs. 6G–6I) are eliminated by MamN. However, *vg-LacZ* expression persists in a group of MamN-positive cells immediately anterior to the A/P boundary. Additionally, MamN expression within the hinge region does not depress Wg accumulation; similar observations were obtained by others using dominant-negative forms of Delta and Serrate (Sun and Artavanis-Tsakonas, 1997). Thus, overexpression of MamN decreases Notch pathway target gene expression along the wing margin, consistent with its phenotypic effects and genetic interactions.

To determine whether MamN was eliciting an effect similar to *mam* loss-of-function genotypes, mosaic clones of the severe allele *mam*^{IL115} were produced (Xu and Rubin, 1993). Homozygous *mam* clones were analyzed for expression of Cut; clones that cross the wing margin lose Cut expression (Figs. 5I–5K). Additionally, adults that emerge in these experiments often exhibit wing margin defects (Fig. 5L). These data strongly suggest that the MamN protein acts in a dominant-negative fashion.

The Mam Truncation Wing Phenotype Is Rescued by Overexpression of Delta and an Activated Form of Notch, Suggesting a Role for Mam Upstream of Notch during Margin Formation

The availability of *UAS*-regulated Notch pathway components allowed us to examine their genetic interactions with the *C96-MamN* truncation and investigate their relative order of function within the Notch signaling cascade. If overexpression of another pathway component could rescue the wing phenotype produced by MamN, it would argue for MamN action upstream of that component. Conversely, the inability to rescue the MamN phenotype would favor placement of MamN downstream of that component.

The *C96-MamN* strain was crossed with various *UAS* strains and the wing-nicking phenotypes of the progeny were analyzed. *UAS-D1* (Figs. 7A and 7B) and an activated form of Notch, *UAS-N*^{actW} (Figs. 7E and 7F), strongly suppress the MamN wing-nicking phenotype, implying that the Mam truncation disrupts a function upstream of Delta-Notch interaction. *UAS-Ser* (Figs. 7C and 7D) shows much less rescuing activity. Overexpression of *UAS-H*, a negative pathway regulator of Notch signaling, enhances the wing phenotype (Figs. 7K and 7L). Neither *UAS-Dx* (data not shown) nor *UAS-Su(H)* (Figs. 7I and 7J) rescues the *C96-MamN* phenotype.

C96-GAL4-mediated overexpression of *UAS-Dl*, *UAS-Ser*, *UAS-N*^{actW}, or *UAS-Su(H)* elicits effects on margin bristle formation, including gain and loss of bristles, as well as formation of double sockets. Wings from *UAS-N*^{actW}; *C96-GAL4/+* flies exhibit loss of bristles and formation of double sockets, gain-of-function Notch phenotypes (Lyman and Yedvobnick, 1995) (Fig. 7G). *C96-MamN* does not suppress this phenotype (Fig. 7H), consistent with MamN



FIG. 5. Wing margin expression of the MamN truncation disrupts expression of Notch pathway targets. Late third-instar larval wing discs were stained with antibodies to Cut (A, B), β -galactosidase (C, D, G, H), or Wg (E, F). Cut expression in +/+ (w¹¹⁸) discs (A), and Cut expression in *C96-MamN*/+ discs (B). *LacZ* expression in *vg-LacZ*/+ discs (C), and *LacZ* expression in *vg-LacZ*/*C96-MamN* discs (D). Wg expression in +/+ discs (E), and Wg expression in *C96-MamN*/+ discs (F). *LacZ* expression in *C96-GAL4/UAS-LacZ* discs (G), and *LacZ* expression in *C96-MamN/UAS-LacZ* discs (H). Mosaic discs containing patches of mam^{IL115}/mam^{IL115} tissue were produced as described under Materials and Methods and stained with antibodies to Myc and Cut proteins. mam^{IL115}/mam^{IL115} clones are marked by the absence of Myc protein staining (I, red). Mosaic patches that cross the wing margin eliminate expression of Cut protein (J, green). Merged image (K). Some adults emerging from this experiment exhibited wing margin defects (L).

FIG. 6. Loss of expression of Notch pathway targets coincides with expression of the MamN truncation. The *blk-GAL4* construct drives along the A/P border of the wing disc (Morimura *et al.*, 1996) and was used to analyze coincidence of *MamN* expression and loss of target gene expression. Anterior is to the left in A–I. *blk-GAL4/UAS-MamN* discs were stained for Mam (MamN) protein (A, D, G) and either Cut (B), β -galactosidase for *vg-LacZ* (E), or Wg (H) protein. (C, F, and I) Merged images illustrating MamN and target gene expression patterns. At the margin, loss of Cut and Wg expression coincide exactly with the presence of MamN. However, *vg-LacZ* expression is evident in the posterior domain of MamN expression along the margin. The *blk-GAL4/UAS-MamN* combination produces very striking adult phenotypes, including duplications of scutellar macrochaetes (J), thickened wing vein 3 and a loss of material at the anterior/posterior boundary of the margin (K), and small rough eyes (L). Some eyes exhibit more significant ommatidial losses ventrally (not shown). These phenotypes can be enhanced by mutations in other Notch pathway loci. A *blk-GAL4 + UAS-MamN* recombinant chromosome (*blk-MamN*) was constructed. The *blk-MamN* eye phenotype is enhanced by mutation of *mam* (M), *mam*^{IL115}/+; *blk-MamN*/+, *N* (N), *N*⁵⁴¹⁹/+; *blk-MamN*/+, and *Dl* (O), *Dl*^{BX9}/*blk-MamN*.



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action upstream of activated Notch. However, some modifications in *C96-GAL4*-induced bristle phenotypes are observed following coexpression of *C96-MamN* with *UAS-Dl*, *UAS-Ser*, and *UAS-Su(H)* (Fig. 7 legend).

Alterations in Wg Pathway Function Modify the Mam Wing Phenotype

The wing phenotypes associated with C96-MamN expression are characteristic of wg mutations (Baker, 1988; Axelrod et al., 1996), suggesting that the loss of Wg expression mediated by C96-MamN contributes to the phenotype. This was investigated by analyzing interactions between C96-MamN and mutations in Wg pathway genes. Wing enhancements are associated with *wg*^{CX4}/+; C96-MamN/+ (Fig. 8A) and $arm^{1}/+$; C96-MamN/+ (Fig. 8B) genotypes; however, these effects are observed at lower frequency and are less severe than those observed with Notch pathway mutations. No interactions are observed with mutations in dsh, zw3, or pan (Figs. 8C-8E). To examine genetic interaction with the Dfz2 Wg receptor, we used UAS-GPI-Dfz2, a truncated version of the receptor that appears to function in a dominant-negative manner (Cadigan et al., 1998). The C96-GAL4/UAS-GPI-Dfz2 genotype is associated with a minor wing-nicking phenotype (Fig. 8F). However, C96-MamN/UAS-GPI-Dfz2 flies exhibit enhancement to variable extents, including wings that are missing significant blade material (Fig. 8G).

Overexpression of Wg pathway components partially rescues the *C96-MamN* phenotype. Expression of *UAS-Dsh* (Figs. 7O and 7P) or *UAS-Arm^{S10}*, an activated form of Arm (Van de Wetering *et al.*, 1997) (Figs. 7U and 7V), restores most of the wing margin. However, expression of *UAS-Dfz2* (Figs. 7M and 7N), *UAS-Arm* (Fig. 7S and 7T), or *UAS-dTCF* (Figs. 7W and 7X) does not rescue. *UAS-Zw3* enhances the wing phenotype (Figs. 7Q and 7R).

Interactions between *C96-MamN* and a *cut* mutation are also observed (Figs. 8H and 8I), consistent with reports of genetic interactions between *mam* and *cut* (Morcillo *et al.*, 1996). However, a deletion that removes the *vg* locus does not detectably interact with *C96-MamN* (data not shown).

DISCUSSION

Overexpression of a Truncated Mam Protein Elicits Loss-of-Function Notch Pathway Phenotypes

Genetic studies have implicated *mam* as an integral component of the Notch pathway in *Drosophila* (Lehmann *et al.*, 1983; Dietrich and Campos-Ortega, 1984; Xu and Artavanis-Tsakonas, 1990; Xu *et al.*, 1990; Verheyen *et al.*, 1996). However, detailed studies of *mam* function during processes known to involve Notch signaling have not been performed. We have demonstrated that targeted overexpression of truncated versions of the Mam protein under *GAL4* regulation in transgenic flies produces distinct mutant phenotypes. Based on several criteria, these phenotypes appear to reproduce those associated with loss-of-function mutations in Notch pathway genes. This system also provided evidence of Mam function upstream of Notch activation during wing margin formation.

A bristle organ in the notum arises from an SOP cell that is specified within a proneural cluster (Hartenstein and Posakony, 1989). Mam truncations driven by *GAL4* in notal regions under *309*, *pnr*, and *blk* (*dpp*) control elicit effects on bristle development consistent with reductions in Notch signaling. Notal MamN expression results in multiple macrochaetes at each macrochaete site and supernumerary microchaete SOPs, indicating a failure in Notchmediated lateral inhibition in bristle proneural clusters. We also observe transformations of socket to shaft and of all four bristle progeny to the neuronal cell fate, indicating that expression of truncated Mam interferes with Notch signaling during later stages of bristle development as well.

During wing development, the Notch pathway is required for delimiting veins (de Celis, 1997; Huppert *et al.*, 1997) and proper margin formation and growth (Rulifson and Blair, 1995; Neumann and Cohen, 1996; Kim *et al.*, 1996; de Celis and Bray, 1997; Micchelli *et al.*, 1997; Fleming *et al.*, 1997). Expression of truncated Mam within the provein of wing vein 3, near the A/P compartment boundary, results in increased numbers of vein cells, a Notch pathway loss-of-function phenotype (de Celis, 1997; Huppert *et al.*, 1997). When expressed at the wing margin, truncated Mam produces nicking and bristle loss phenotypes similar to those associated with mutations in N and

FIG. 7. Rescue of the *C96-MamN* truncation wing-nicking phenotype through overexpression of components of the Notch and Wg pathways. The *C96-MamN/TM3* strain was crossed with strains carrying Notch and Wg pathway transgenes under *GAL4-UAS* regulation, and progeny were scored for modification of the *C96-MamN* wing-nicking phenotype. In each pair of images the left shows wings obtained from adults carrying the *UAS*-transgene combined with the *C96-GAL4* driver; the right represents the same *UAS* transgene in combination with the *C96-MamN* chromosome. *UAS-D1/+; C96-GAL4/+* wings show distal anterior margin bristle duplications and proximal bristle loss and appear slightly convex at the dorsal surface (A). *UAS-D1/+; C96-MamN/+* wings show significant rescue of margin nicking. Additionally, these wings contain bristle duplications along the entire anterior margin (B). *UAS-Ser/+; C96-GAL4/+* wings show minor bristle duplications near the distal anterior margin in most wings. Although not evident in the image displayed, these wings can exhibit a slight suppression of bristle duplication (D). *UAS-N^{act}/+; C96-GAL4/+* wings show bristle loss and double sockets along the



anterior margin and appear convex at the dorsal surface (E, G; G is a higher magnification image of E). UAS-N^{act}/+; C96-MamN/+ wings exhibit nearly complete rescue of margin nicks (F). However, the bristle loss and double-socket phenotype are still evident (H, higher magnification image of F). UAS-Su(H)/+; C96-GAL4/+ wings show extensive bristle loss and double sockets at the anterior margin (I). UAS-Su(H)/+; C96-MamN/+ wings do not show rescue of margin nicking, and in some cases margin loss is enhanced and includes wing blade material. Although the bristle loss and double-socket phenotype persist, a slight restoration of bristles is evident within regions of intact margin (J). UAS-H/+; C96-GAL4/+ wings show significant bristle loss and nicking at the margin (K). UAS-H/+; C96-MamN/+ wings exhibit extensive loss of blade material at anterior and posterior regions (L). UAS-Dx/C96-GAL4 wings appear normal and UAS-Dx/C96-MamN wings do not show rescue (data not shown). UAS-Dfz2/+; C96-GAL4/+ wings appear normal (M). UAS-Dfz2/+; C96-MamN/+ wings do not show rescue (N). UAS-Dsh/C96-GAL4 wings show additional margin bristles and some ectopic bristles on the wing blade near the margin (O). UAS-Dsh/C96-MamN wings show partial rescue of margin nicks (P). UAS-Zw3/+; C96-GAL4/+ wings show nicks and bristle loss at the margin (Q). UAS-Zw3/+; C96-MamN/+ wings do not show rescue (T). Activated Arm: UAS-Arm/+; C96-GAL4/+ wings appear normal (S). UAS-Arm/+; C96-MamN/+ wings do not show rescue (T). Activated Arm: UAS-Arm⁵¹⁰/+; C96-GAL4/+ wings show additional margin bristles, as well as bubbles at the distal end (U). UAS-Arm⁵¹⁰/+; C96-GAL4/+ wings show additional margin bristles, as well as bubbles at the distal end (U). UAS-Arm⁵¹⁰/+; C96-GAL4/+ wings show additional margin bristles, as well as bubbles at the distal end (U). UAS-Arm⁵¹⁰/+; C96-GAL4/+ wings show minor wing nicking (W). UAS-dTCF/+; C96-MamN/+ wings do not show rescue (X).



FIG. 8. The *C96-MamN* truncation wing phenotype is modified by mutations in Wg pathway genes and *cut*. Strains containing mutations in the Wg pathway or *cut* were crossed to *C96-MamN/TM3*, *Sb* flies and scored for wing phenotypes. Wings from $wg^{CX4}/+$; *C96-MamN/+* flies show an enhanced phenotype that is partially penetrant, including loss of additional blade material along the posterior margin and bristle loss along the anterior margin (A). A low percentage of more severe strap wings is also observed (data not shown). Wings from $arm^{1}/+$; *C96-MamN/+* flies exhibit enhancements of the *C96-MamN/+* phenotype similar to those induced by a *wg* mutation (B). These phenotypes are also incompletely penetrant. Wings from $dsh^{V26}/+$; *C96-MamN/+* (C), $zw3^{M1I-1}/+$; *C96-MamN/+* (D), and $pan^{13a}/C96-MamN$ flies (E) do not exhibit modifications of the *C96-MamN/+* phenotype. To assess genetic interactions with the Dfz2 Wg receptor, we utilized a *UAS-GPI-Dfz2* strain encoding a truncated form of Dfz2. *UAS-GPI-Dfz2* elicits dominant-negative effects under appropriate *GAL4* regulation (Cadigan *et al.*, 1998). When this construct is driven in the *C96-GAL4/UAS-GPI-Dfz2* genotype, virtually all flies contain wings with anterior terminal nicking (F). Wings from *C96-MamN/UAS-GPI-Dfz2* exhibit a wide range of enhanced phenotypes, including severe loss of blade material (G). Wings from cut^{53d}/Y flies exhibit a minor margin-nicking phenotype (H). Wings from cut^{53d}/Y ; *C96-MamN/+* flies exhibit enhanced wing phenotypes (I).

wg (Axelrod *et al.*, 1996). Additionally, MamN expression reduces the margin expression of *wg*, *cut*, and *vg*. Analysis of *mam/mam* mosaic clones demonstrates that the wing margin effects of MamN represent *mam* loss-of-function phenotypes. Finally, the MamN-induced wing margin phenotypes are modified by mutations in the Notch and Wg pathways.

Most Notch pathway mutations exhibit a synergistic interaction with the *C96-MamN* genotype; however, $E(spl)^{8D06}$, which deletes the E(spl) complex and groucho, does not exhibit interactions. This is consistent with the observation that the E(spl) complex does not play a major role in wing margin formation (de Celis *et al.*, 1996), although effects on Cut expression within either E(spl) or groucho mutant clones have been reported recently (Ligoxy-dakis *et al.*, 1999). In contrast, loss-of-function for Su(H) along the wing margin is associated with defects (de Celis *et al.*, 1996), yet we do not observe interactions between loss-of-function Su(H) alleles and *C96-MamN*. This may indicate that Su(H) protein is normally present in substan-

tial excess at the margin, compared to the levels required for wild-type function. Interestingly, a gain-of-function allele, $Su(H)^{S_5}$, enhances the C96-MamN wing phenotype. Similar genetic interactions were observed during studies of $Su(H)^{S5}$ and the loss-of-function mam^{IL115} allele (Fortini and Artavanis-Tsakonas, 1994). Although the basis for these interactions is unclear, genetic data indicate that Su(H)gain-of-function mutations may not simply result in an increase in wild-type activity (Fortini and Artavanis-Tsakonas, 1994). Analyses of mammalian homologs of Su(H) have shown that the protein functions as a repressor until it complexes with a coactivator, such as EBNA2 (Hsieh and Hayward, 1995) or the intracellular domain of Notch (Jarriault et al., 1995). Su(H) gain-of-function alleles could encode aberrant proteins with novel activities, such as elevated repression, that perturb Notch pathway signaling; when such a protein is present, reduction in mam function may produce a synergistic effect.

Wg pathway interactions with *C96-MamN* are observed with mutations in *wg* and *arm* and with coexpression of several downstream effectors. Such interactions presumably result from the depression of Wg expression at the margin, associated with expression of the MamN truncation. Wg pathway action is initiated by the interaction of Wg and Dfz2. This interaction leads to activation of Dsh, inhibition of Zw3, and subsequent stabilization of Arm protein. Arm then functions in the nucleus as a coactivator with the DNA-binding protein dTCF (van de Wetering et al., 1997). The basis for the absence of C96-MamN genetic interaction with *dsh, zw3*, or *dTCF* mutations is unknown, but may be related to the basal expression levels of these components, as suggested above for Su(H). Additionally, Wg pathway function is influenced by other regulatory inputs (Peifer, 1999) and involves enzymatic activities (Siegfried et al., 1994) that may be subject to posttranslational modes of regulation.

Genetic Epistasis Analyses Suggest an Early Function for Mam within the Notch Pathway during Wing Margin Formation

One of the central questions concerning the role of Mam is its site(s) of action within the Notch pathway. Previous studies of embryonic neurogenesis indicated that Mam is required upstream of Notch activity for lateral inhibition (de la Concha et al., 1988; Lieber et al., 1993). In contrast, the data of Schuldt and Brand (1999) indicate that Mam can act downstream of Notch later during CNS development, when specific neuronal cell fates are established by the pathway (Skeath and Doe, 1998; Buescher et al., 1998). Our studies largely support a role for Mam upstream of Notch activation during wing margin formation. Overexpression of Delta or activated Notch, and to a minor extent Serrate, rescues the wing-nicking phenotype induced by the MamN truncation. One hypothesis suggested by these observations, that Mam positively regulates expression of Notch ligands, particularly Delta, is being investigated. Although we favor the hypothesis that Mam acts upstream of Notch activation during wing margin epithelium formation, our data do not exclude a role for Mam at other sites in the pathway during this process. For example, expression of MamN is unlikely to produce a total loss-of-function mam phenotype. Therefore, high levels of upstream effectors may be able to surmount partial blockage of Mam function, even if Mam functions downstream of Notch activation. Furthermore, the interpretation of epistasis data can be problematic given the existence of feedback regulation within the Notch pathway (de Celis and Bray, 1997; Huppert et al., 1997; Micchelli et al., 1997) and interpathway interactions involving the Notch pathway (Axelrod et al., 1996; Karim et al., 1996; Price et al., 1997). Given such complexities, it is conceivable that a "downstream" perturbation can manifest effects at one or more points "upstream" in the pathway. For example, it appears that Wg, a target of the Notch pathway, positively regulates Notch ligand expression during wing margin formation (Micchelli et al., 1997, de Celis and Bray, 1997). Therefore, some phenotypic effects of Mam

truncations could be mediated through a reduction of ligand activity, an indirect effect of depressed Wg levels.

Given its role as an effector of Notch pathway function in various contexts (Fortini and Artavanis, 1994; Jennings *et al.*, 1994; Bailey and Posakony, 1995; Lecourtois and Schweisguth, 1995; Neumann and Cohen, 1996), it is interesting that Su(H) overexpression does not rescue wingnicking induced by Mam truncation expression. This result might be explained by the observation that Su(H)-related proteins require a coactivator, such as the Notch intracellular domain, for transcriptional activation functions (Hsieh and Hayward, 1995). Since the MamN truncation appears to compromise Notch pathway activity prior to Notch activation, excess Su(H) alone may not be sufficient to rescue MamN effects on wing margin epithelium formation.

Finally, in the context of bristle formation at the wing margin we observe that the MamN truncation does not modify effects produced by overexpression of activated Notch, consistent with a role for Mam upstream of Notch activation. However, the truncation can modify bristle effects associated with overexpression of Delta, Serrate, and Su(H). This may indicate a role for Mam downstream of Notch activation during bristle formation at the margin or lower levels of GAL4-UAS-mediated expression of Delta, Serrate, and Su(H) in developing bristles versus wing margin epithelium. In any case, these data imply that expression of activated Notch may not be equivalent to expression of excess quantities of Notch ligands or Su(H) within the context of wing margin bristle development.

Mam Truncations May Behave as Dominant-Negative Proteins

Mam contains clusters of charged amino acids and associates with transcriptionally active and repressed chromosomal regions (Bettler et al., 1996), indicative of a genetic regulatory function. Dominant-negative behaviors associated with truncated transcription factors that retain DNAbinding activity have been reported (Bohmann et al., 1994; Singh et al., 1998; Stoffers et al., 1998), and it is likely that some of these effects derive from competition between mutant and wild-type proteins. Therefore, ineffective Mam truncations may compete with wild-type Mam proteins and poison transcription complexes that are essential for Notch pathway function. Elimination of the carboxy-terminal acidic charge cluster of Mam elicits very minor effects. In contrast, a truncation that eliminates approximately the carboxy-terminal third of Mam (MamN) induces significant phenotypic effects when overexpressed. The MamN truncation removes two of three runs of alternating glycine and valine, a polyalanine run, and other homopolymer runs distributed within nonrepetitive Mam sequences. It remains to be determined which, if any, of these sequences serves an effector role in Mam. The MamH truncation produces phenotypes qualitatively similar to those induced by MamN, despite the loss of additional Mam sequences up to the basic charge cluster. This indicates that an important determinant for the production of these phenotypes resides in or near the basic charge cluster. Given the high penetrance of the phenotypes it should be possible to identify residues within the truncation essential for these effects. For example, several amino acids within the Mam basic domain are shared by the DNA binding domains of bZip proteins (Bettler *et al.*, 1996). If alteration of such residues in a Mam truncation were to eliminate phenotypic effects and chromosomal association, it would provide indirect support for the hypothesis that Mam functions through an association with DNA.

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