

Partial complementation by murine *t* haplotypes: deficit of males among t^6/t^{w5} double heterozygotes and correlation with transmission-ratio distortion

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Summary

To evaluate whether sex reversal contributes to sex-ratio imbalance among t^6/t^{w5} double heterozygotes, the cross performed by K. B. Bechtol (*Genetical Research* 39, 1982, 79–84), $T/t^6 \times T/t^{w5}$, was repeated. Significantly more normal-tailed (t^6/t^{w5}) females than males were recovered. By contrast, sex ratios were normal among tailless progeny resulting from this cross and among all classes produced by control crosses. Hybridization of a Y-specific DNA probe with genomic DNA from phenotypic females revealed no XY, sex-reversed males. On the genetic backgrounds that generated only moderate transmission distortion of t^{w5} (81–85%), the overall viability of the doubly heterozygous progeny was only 50% and the sex-ratio skew among this class was strong. However, on a genetic background that displayed extreme t^{w5} transmission (99%), embryonic viability was more than 80% and the sex-ratio imbalance was weak.

1. Introduction

In wild mouse populations, the proximal third of chromosome 17 (Chr 17) is commonly found in variant forms, *t* haplotypes, that control several striking genetic effects. These include: interaction with brachyury (*T*) to produce taillessness in *T/t* heterozygotes; altered transmission ratio of *t* chromosomes from heterozygous males; and crossover suppression over the entire *t* region (reviewed by Silver, 1985). In addition, at least 14 embryonic lethal (*tel*) complementation groups are associated with different *t* haplotypes, although not all *t* haplotypes carry recessive lethal mutations (Bennett, 1975; Magnuson, 1983; Klein, Sipos & Figueroa, 1984). Utilizing free recombination between complementing *t* haplotypes, Artzt and coworkers (Artzt, McCormick & Bennett, 1982; Artzt, 1984) and Pla & Condamine (1984) showed that *tel* mutations belonging to different complementation groups map to independent loci throughout the *t* region.

Only partial complementation has been observed between *t* haplotypes from different complementation groups, denoted here as t^a and t^b . Often, t^a/t^b heterozygotes from $T/t^a \times T/t^b$ intercrosses show reduced viability (18% to 85%) relative to their tailless (*T/t*) sibs (Dunn & Gluecksohn-Shoenheimer,

1943; Dunn, 1956; Smith, 1956; Silagi, 1962; Bennett, 1975; Bechtol, 1982; Shin *et al.* 1983; Mains, 1986). In addition, males doubly heterozygous for complementing *t* haplotypes are sterile (Lyon, 1986). In at least some cases, t^a/t^b males display mortality in excess of t^a/t^b females (Dunn & Gluecksohn-Shoenheimer, 1943; Bechtol, 1982).

One model to explain the skewed sex ratios (in favour of females) that have been observed among mice doubly heterozygous for certain partially-complementing *t* haplotypes would posit that a *t*-region gene with a role in primary sex determination is altered in each member of these pairs of *t* haplotypes. Such alterations could disrupt the normal interaction of this gene or gene product with signals initiated by the Y-linked testis-determining locus (*Tdy*), resulting in a high frequency of XY females among t^a/t^b double heterozygotes. Indeed, Eicher & Washburn (1983, 1986, 1989, 1990) have identified a gene or gene complex (*Tas*) delimited by the hairpin tail (T^{hp}) and T-Orleans (T^{Ori}) deletions on Chr 17 that affects primary sex determination. They observe that C57BL/6J mice cogenic for $T^{hp}/+$ or $T^{Ori}/+$ and carrying the Y-linked testis-determining locus from strain AKR/J (Tdy^a) either display hermaphroditic gonads or are completely sex reversed. In an alternative model, sex-ratio imbalance among t^a/t^b double heterozygotes could be due to factors independent of *Tas* and *Tdy*. For example, additive sublethal effects of these *t* haplotypes might slow the growth of

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t^a/t^b embryos; slow embryonic growth (e.g. from haploinsufficiency) has been postulated to be responsible for XY sex reversal (Cattanach, Rasberry & Beechey, 1988; Mittwoch, 1989). Finally, instead of sex reversal, the observed excess of females might involve the differential viability of male versus female embryos.

To evaluate whether sex reversal contributes to skewed sex ratios among t^6/t^{w5} double heterozygotes, a cross similar to that performed by Bechtol (1982) has been repeated, and genomic DNA from the resulting t^6/t^{w5} females has been tested for hybridization with a Y-specific DNA probe.

2. Materials and methods

(i) Mice

T/t^6 mice, obtained from The Jackson Laboratory (Bar Harbor, ME), were crossed with brachyury, tufted (Lyon, 1956) Ttf/tf partners from the segregating inbred strain BTBR (obtained from J.-L. Guénet, Institut Pasteur, Paris). The t^6 haplotype has been maintained in subsequent generations by intercrossing tailless, non-tufted brothers and sisters. The Ttf/t^6 and Ttf/tf mice used in experiments described here were the sister progeny from F_1 and F_2 females that were backcrossed to short-tailed ($T/+$) BTBR males. Ttf/t^{w5} mice were obtained from V. C. Bode (Kansas State University, Manhattan, KS). These mice were backcrossed (N_2) to strain C57BL/6J, followed by brother-sister intercrossing for eight to nine generations. C57BL/6J mice cogenic for the brachyury allele T-Oak Ridge 4 (T^{4Or} ; Bennett *et al.* 1975), B6- T^{4Or} , or the Y chromosome from strain AKR/J, B6.AKR-Y, were obtained from E. M. Eicher (The Jackson Laboratory, Bar Harbor, ME). $T^{4Or}/+$, XY^{AKR} males were produced by mating B6- T^{4Or} females (N_{18}) and B6.AKR-Y males (N_{18}) and then backcrossing to C57BL/6J females. Mice carrying T^{hp} (Johnson, 1974; 1975) were obtained from L. M. Silver (Princeton University, Princeton, NJ). The male $T^{hp}/+$ carriers used in these experiments were N_9 on the BTBR background. T/t^{w5} males carrying the Y chromosome from strain AKR (Y^{AKR}) were produced by crossing females from the Ttf/t^{w5} line with $T^{4Or}/+$, XY^{AKR} or $T^{hp}/+$, XY^{AKR} males.

(ii) Southern blot analysis

DNA for Southern blot analysis was prepared from whole blood by the method of Phillips & Nadeau (1984), digested with *EcoRI* or *PstI* and electrophoresed through 0.8% or 1.0% agarose. Gels were stained with ethidium bromide and photographed. As a positive control, DNA from at least one male was included on every gel and was loaded into several lanes in diminishing amounts, from one-half to one-tenth of a single DNA preparation. Only those experimental lanes that showed at least as much

ethidium-bromide staining as positive-control lanes were counted. Gels were depurinated with 0.25 M-HCl and transferred to Zetaprobe (Bio-Rad) filters with 0.4 M-sodium hydroxide, according to the manufacturer's instructions. Filters were prehybridized for 2–4 h at 65 °C in 0.25 M sodium phosphate, pH 7.2/5% sodium dodecyl sulphate/1 mM-EDTA/10% (wt/vol) PEG, molecular weight 6000–8000/sonicated calf thymus DNA (100 μ m/ml). Whole plasmid or purified insert from pYB10 (Eicher *et al.* 1989), donated by E. M. Eicher, was labelled with [α -³²P]dCTP by nick translation (Rigby *et al.* 1977) or by random primer extension (Feinberg & Vogelstein, 1984). Hybridizations were carried out for 16 to 18 h at 65 °C. Filters were washed to high stringency (final wash in 0.04 M sodium phosphate, 1% sodium dodecyl sulphate at 60 °C) with gentle agitation. Washed filters were exposed for 48–72 h to Kodak XAR-5 film with intensifying screens.

(iii) Statistical analysis

Standard error (S.E.) was estimated as described by Bhattacharyya & Johnson (1977, p. 242). Statistical inferences concerning comparisons between population proportions were made according to the method described on pp. 308–312.

3. Results

(i) Incomplete complementation between t^6 and t^{w5} confirmed

Mice were mated as shown in Table 1. Individual Ttf/t^{w5} males were simultaneously bred with experimental Ttf/t^6 and control Ttf/tf females throughout the study. The sex and tail phenotypes of the offspring were recorded one to two days after birth and were reconfirmed at weaning. While the full penetrance of T was not verified by progeny testing, tufted was scored among the progeny of the Ttf/tf (control) females so that any non-penetrant Ttf/tf mice could be detected among apparently normal-tailed progeny. No phenotypic misclassifications were discovered.

Among the progeny of the control Ttf/tf females, sex ratios were not significantly different from 1 female:1 male (in the worst case, that of the short-tailed class, $P > 0.1$). Thus, X- and Y-bearing sperm appeared to be transmitted with equal frequency and male and female zygotes appeared to survive equally well. In addition, the set of Ttf/t^{w5} males was shown to transmit the t^{w5} -bearing chromosome 85% of the time (see Table 1). When these same males were crossed to Ttf/t^6 (experimental) females, only about 50% of the expected t^6/t^{w5} progeny were observed, based on 85% transmission of t^{w5} . Furthermore, the observed sex-ratio – 3 females:2 males – was significantly different from 1:1 ($P \approx 0.0015$). The fre-

Table 1. The tail phenotype and sex of offspring from T tf/+tf × T tf/t^{w5} and T tf/t⁶ × T tf/t^{w5}

Cross	T tf/+tf ♀		×		T/tf/t ^{w5} ♂		×		T tf/t ⁶ ♀		
Progeny	Tailless (T/t ^{w5})		Short (T/+)		Normal (+/t ^{w5})		Designation	Tailless (T/t ^{w5} ; T/t ⁶)		Normal (t ⁶ /t ^{w5})	
Tail (Genotype)	♀	♂	♀	♂	♀	♂		♀	♂	♀	♂
Sex	42	21	7	4	34	30	a	67	45	26	18
Number	4	7	2	0	11	9	b	9	6	4	2
	16	13	3	2	20	14	c	18	13	11	8
	25	27	6	4	36	29	d	50	36	17	8
	8	9	3	0	7	9	e	21	21	16	5
	10	11	1	2	9	12	f	23	39	21	11
	39	36	6	6	24	32	g	70	60	30	24
	16	21	6	3	26	27	h	22	26	10	11
	160	145	34	21	167	162		280	246	135	87
	305		55		329	= 689		748 =	526		222
Frequency of males	0.48 ± 0.03		0.38 ± 0.07		0.49 ± 0.03			0.47 ± 0.02		0.39 ± 0.03	
Transmission frequency of t ^{w5}	$\frac{305 + 329}{305 + 329 + 2(55)} = 0.85$						Expected frequencies based on t ^{w5} transmission of 0.85	0.5405	0.4594		
							Expected number of progeny	526	447		
							Viability rates		Total	0.50 ± 0.02	
									Females	0.60 ± 0.03	
									Males	0.39 ± 0.03	

Progeny listed along the same row were sired by the same T tf/t^{w5} male. For determining the viability rates for t⁶/t^{w5} mice, the expected frequency and number of t⁶/t^{w5} mice (assuming full viability of the tailless class and a transmission frequency of 0.85 for t^{w5}) was calculated by assuming the number of T/t⁶ and T/T progeny to be equal and the number of T/t^{w5} and t⁶/t^{w5} progeny to be equal, since there is no transmission-ratio distortion from the female parent. Frequencies shown are ± 1 S.E.

quency of males among the t⁶/t^{w5} mice was also significantly different from the frequency of males observed among tailless siblings ($P \approx 0.03$) and from that observed among the t-bearing progeny of control T tf/+tf mothers ($P \approx 0.009$). These results support the male-deficit effect observed by Bechtol (1982), but show a significantly less dramatic sex-ratio skewing than the 3:1 ratio she reported ($P \approx 0.025$).

(ii) Sex-ratio skewing among t⁶/t^{w5} animals is not enhanced by Y^{AKR}

The model presented by Eicher & Washburn (1986) for the genetic control of primary sex determination suggests that the Tdy^a allele encoded on the Y chromosome of strain AKR may initiate the testis-determining pathway later than the Tdy^b allele carried by strain C57BL/6J. Thus, the marked deficiency in male progeny reported by Bechtol (1982), compared with the results in Table 1, might be owing to the particular Tdy allele involved; the origin of the Y carried by the T/t^{w5} males used by Bechtol is unknown. Complementation and control crosses were therefore repeated with T/t^{w5} males known to carry the Y^{AKR} chromosome; these results are presented in Table 2. While more t⁶/t^{w5} females than males were again

produced, the skewing is less extreme than for the cross described in Table 1. The frequency of males among the t⁶/t^{w5} mice is not significantly different from 0.5 ($P \approx 0.19$), or from the frequency of males observed among tailless siblings ($P \approx 0.16$), or from that observed among the t-bearing progeny of (control) T tf/+tf mothers ($P \approx 0.08$). Interestingly, t^{w5} transmission from males in the cross shown in Table 2 was significantly higher (99%) than from males in the cross shown in Table 1 (85%) ($P < 0.0001$). In addition, the viability of t⁶/t^{w5} zygotes produced in the second cross (Table 2; ~ 80%, overall) was significantly elevated ($P < 0.0001$), compared with that observed in the first cross (Table 1; ~ 50% viability, overall).

(iii) Probing for Y-specific sequences among female t⁶/t^{w5} mice

Two hundred and twenty-nine t⁶/t^{w5} females produced in experimental crosses (134 of 135 from the cross shown in Table 1, 95 of 101 from the cross shown in Table 2) and 23 of their tailless female littermates (all from Table 1) were tested by Southern blot analysis for the presence of a Y-specific sequence (Eicher *et al.* 1989). While DNA from their fathers and brothers

Table 2. The tail phenotype and sex of offspring from $T\ tf/+tf \times T/t^{w5}, XY^{AKR}$ and $T\ tf/t^6 \times T/t^{w5}, XY^{AKR}$

Cross	$T\ tf/+tf \text{ } \text{♀}$				\times	$T/t^{w5} \text{ } \text{♂}$	\times	$T\ tf/t^6 \text{ } \text{♀}$				
Progeny	Tailless				Short	Normal	Designation	Tailless				Normal
Tail (Genotype)	(T/t^{w5})		$(T/+)$		$(+ / t^{w5})$			$(T/t^{w5}; T/t^6)$		(t^6/t^{w5})		
Sex	♀	♂	♀	♂	♀	♂		♀	♂	♀	♂	
Number	31	34	0	0	29	30	<i>i</i>	22	26	22	24	
	15	16	0	0	9	16	<i>j</i>	11	12	15	11	
	36	41	0	1	47	41	<i>k</i>	30	39	11	8	
	14	21	0	0	14	19	<i>l</i>	9	11	33	29	
	4	5	0	0	8	7	<i>m</i>	25	17	16	12	
	6	5	0	0	10	6	<i>n</i>	2	2	1	0	
	7	7	0	1	5	5	<i>o</i>	3	1	1	0	
	4	3	0	0	9	7	<i>p</i>	10	6	8	4	
	117	132	0	2	131	131		112	114	101	83	
	249		2		262		= 513	410 =		226		184

Frequency of males	0.53 ± 0.03	0.50 ± 0.03	0.50 ± 0.03	0.45 ± 0.04
Transmission frequency of t^{w5}	$\frac{249 + 262}{249 + 262 + 2(2)} = 0.99$			Expected frequencies based on t^{w5} transmission of 0.99
				Expected number of progeny
				Viability rates
				Total
				Females
				Males

Progeny listed along the same row were sired by the same $T\ tf/t^{w5}$ male. For determining the viability rates for t^6/t^{w5} mice, the expected number of t^6/t^{w5} mice (assuming full viability of the tailless class and a transmission frequency of 0.99 for t^{w5}) was calculated by assuming the number of T/t^6 and T/T progeny to be equal and the number of T/t^{w5} and t^6/t^{w5} progeny to be equal, since there is no transmission-ratio distortion from the female parent. Frequencies shown are ± 1 S.E. T/t^{w5} males *i-m* carried $T^{4Or} - +$, males *n-p* carried $T^{hp} - tf$ (see Materials and methods).

hybridized strongly with labelled probe, DNA from all phenotypic females gave no signal. Thus, the sex-ratio skew demonstrated in these crosses is not due to the classification of XY, sex-reversed animals as females.

4. Discussion

Clearly, the sex-ratio imbalance reported here for t^6/t^{w5} double heterozygotes was not caused by sex-reversed XY animals. However, the mice bred by Bechtol (1982) may have included alleles at *Tdy* and/or other background loci that increased the penetrance of XY sex reversal in t^{w5}/t^6 double heterozygotes. (Because the *t* haplotypes used by Bechtol were not on standard backgrounds, it is not possible to duplicate her experiment precisely and test directly for sex reversal under those conditions.)

It is intriguing that the T/t^{w5} males described in Table 2 exhibited a dramatically higher t^{w5} -transmission frequency than did the males shown in Table 1. Gummere and coworkers (1986) have described a similar variability in transmission-distortion ratio between two inbred strains that carry t^{12} . These authors attribute this effect to genetic differences both on Chr 17 and in the background. Control crosses

have shown that the difference in t^{w5} transmission between the males in Table 1 versus the males in Table 2 cannot be entirely owing to differences between their Y chromosomes. T^{4Or}/t^{w5} males, produced by the reciprocal cross – female $T^{4Or}/+$ (from the cross $B6-T^{4Or} \times B6.AKR-Y$, as in Materials and methods) \times male $T\ tf/t^{w5}$ – transmit t^{w5} at 100% (based on 141 sampled gametes).

Among t^6/t^{w5} progeny sired by males that displayed 99% transmission of t^{w5} (Table 2), the viability was 80% and the sex ratio was only slightly skewed (45% males). By contrast, sires that exhibited modest transmission distortion (81%, see Bechtol, 1982; 85%, see Table 1), produced lower t^6/t^{w5} viability (52%, Bechtol, 1982; 50%, Table 1) and more dramatic sex-ratio skewing (25% males, Bechtol, 1982; 39% males, Table 1). Again, these differences are likely to be due to the genetic backgrounds of the sires since the females used in the crosses presented here were very similar (N_2 cousins). Co-modulation of viability rate, sex-ratio imbalance, and transmission-ratio distortion when genetic backgrounds were altered could indicate a shared mechanism underlying these properties of *t* haplotypes. Alternatively, an entirely different set of genes could be involved.

In any case, the sex-related mortality of certain t^a/t^b

zygotes, reported first by Dunn & Gluecksohn-Schoenheimer (1943), later by Bechtol (1982), and reaffirmed here, remains a puzzling feature of *t*-haplotype genetics. Perhaps the cause of this phenomenon will be elucidated only when the gene products associated with the transmission-ratio distortion phenotype (see Lyon, 1984, 1987; Schimenti *et al.* 1988; Bullard & Schimenti, 1990) become defined, and interactions between them can be studied.

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