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York. Effect of K-pn on the pseudo-
alleles of the prune locus.

K-pn (3-104.5), or "prune killer" is a
dominant autosomal gene which kills all
prune (1-0.8) eye colored flies. It has
no other detected effect on phenotype. In
1954 Sturtevant tested this gene against
sources of pn, pn² and pn³, the only alleles

of the prune available at the time, and found it equally effective in killing each in males.
He found that it would kill pn in homozygous attached X females. We marked K-pn with Mio
(3-100.5) and thus have the stock Mio K-pn/Ins TM3, ri pP bx^{34c} Ser.

We set out to: (1.) test other alleles of prune against the K-pn gene, (2.) test
homoallelic females, pnⁱ/pnⁱ, against the K-pn gene, and (3.) to set up transheterozygotes,
pnⁱ/pn^j, and test them against K-pn. To transmit prunes through males in the presence of K-pn
we have used Lindsley's modified Y, kz⁺--spl⁺ y⁺ ac⁺ KL•bb⁺ KS.

All the alleles of prune tested were susceptible to the killer both in males and in homo-
allelic females.

All combinations of transheterozygotes, pnⁱ/pn^j, except one are susceptible to the killer.
One transheterozygote, pn²⁷⁻⁹/+pn^{68b10} produced wild-type eye color and was not susceptible
to the killer. (See Table 1.)

This means that the prune locus has two complons. We have been unable to separate the
functions of eye color and susceptibility to the prune killer.

Table 1
Phenotype and Effect of K-pn on Various
Homoallelic and Transheterozygous Prune Females

MALE PARENT	FEMALE PARENT				
	pn ²	pn ²⁷⁻⁹	pn	pn ³	pn ^{68b10}
pn ²	+	+	+	+	+
pn ²⁷⁻⁹		+	+	+	-
pn			+	+	+
pn ³				+	+
pn ^{68b10}					+

+ Eye color prune; dies in presence of K-pn

- Eye color wild type; lives in presence of K-pn

Gooch, James L. Juniata College,
Huntingdon, Pennsylvania. Rapid micro-
evolutionary changes in sternopleural
bristle count in *Drosophila melanogaster*.

The sternopleural bristles remain favorable
material for the study of short term evo-
lutionary changes. A hybrid stock of *D.*
melanogaster was synthesized from a mass
mating of Oregon-R, Seto and Samarkand
strains. During the next four months ran-

dom mating occurred, fractionating the genomes of the strains among individuals of the hybrid
stock. The hybrid stock was then divided into three lines, each replicated three times in
half-pint population bottles on cornmeal-molasses-agar medium. Line I replicates were founded
by 200 females and 50 males each, and were carried 22 generations. Each generation was arti-
ficially truncated at the 18th day. Line II replicates were maintained in the same way, but
were founded by only five females and five males each. Line III replicates were also initi-
ated by five flies of each sex, but were decimated to the same level each generation.

Thus, Line I served as a large-population control, with an ample reservoir of genetic
variability. Population levels averaged 450-650 flies after the first generation. Line II
was founded according to the "founder principle". After the first generation populations also
averaged 450-650 flies per replicate. Line III replicates were bottlenecked every generation
to obtain random drift of gene frequencies and, hopefully, drift of bristle count. Population

maxima per replicate were on the order of 350-450 flies.

Every other generation 100 female flies from each replicate were assayed for sternopleural bristle count. Samples from males invariably averaged a few percent lower in bristle count than females. The 22nd generation results, based on the pooled counts of 600 females taken from subreplicates of replicates, are summarized below.

Means and 95% Confidence Intervals

Line I Replicate		Line II		Line III	
1	17.43±.22	1	17.83±.22	1	16.79±.21
2	17.65±.25	2	17.72±.23	2	16.58±.16
3	17.64±.23	3	17.96±.23	3	18.58±.26

Inter- and intra- line divergence are relatively slight in Lines I and II. The initiation of Line II populations with small samples of the parental gene pool did not lead to a drifting apart of bristle count. The more drastic decimation regimen of Line III was effective in producing drift. Two generation 22 replicates have counts significantly less than any Line I or II replicates, and one replicate is significantly higher. A plot of replicate bristle count against generations (not shown) indicates that the dispersal of Line III replicates developed gradually and was still increasing at the termination of the experiment.

Monclús, M. University of Barcelona, Spain. Influence of day time and season on mating propensity in *D. subobscura*.

A strong influence of day time and season has been detected in the mating propensity of *D. subobscura*. This relation came out in tests carried on with a different purpose. In each test 50 ♂ and 25 virgin ♀

were put together and the number of matings accomplished during one hour was recorded. Flies of different ages were tested separately, but in the results here presented all the ages are lumped.

The individuals were developed in our standard conditions of culture for *D. subobscura*, in a room with controlled temperature at $17^{\circ} \pm 0.5^{\circ}$ C. The mating tests were performed in all seasons at 22° or 23° C. The stock used has been kept in the laboratory for two years.

Routine tests were performed at 11 a.m. since December to June. Working at the same time of the day in July and August it became difficult to get results because of the very few matings observed. Since *D. subobscura* in the natural populations is active in summer only early in the morning and in the evening, the time of testing was moved to 6:45 a.m. The mean mating frequencies observed in the tests carried out in these three different conditions, are as follows:

December-June	11	a.m. (32 tests)	M = 16.03	matings for test		
July-August	11	a.m. (13 tests)	M = 1.30	"	"	"
July-August	6:45	a.m. (9 tests)	M = 10.44	"	"	"

These results seem to indicate that the sexual activity of *D. subobscura* is controlled by an internal rhythm, perhaps related to some external factor difficult to identify.

Robertson, F. W. and Chipchase, M. Department of Genetics, University of Edinburgh. The comparison of genetic differences by hybridization between DNA and RNA synthesized in vitro.

DNA prepared from different species of *Drosophila* has been used as template to synthesize complementary RNA (c-RNA) by RNA polymerase extracted from *Micrococcus lysodeikticus*. The general properties of the hybridization between such DNA and RNA have been studied and the RNA transcribed

from *melanogaster* template has been annealed with DNA from various species to determine the level of discrimination. The ribonuclease resistant RNA, bound to denatured DNA, is recovered on membrane filters and separate labelling of the DNA and RNA has been used to estimate the fraction of the DNA which is bound to RNA. The level of hybridization between *D. melanogaster*