REVIEW



A practical reference for studying meiosis in the model ciliate *Tetrahymena thermophila*

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Abstract

Meiosis is a critical cell division program that produces haploid gametes for sexual reproduction. Abnormalities in meiosis are often causes of infertility and birth defects (e.g., Down syndrome). Most organisms use a highly specialized zipper-like protein complex, the synaptonemal complex (SC), to guide and stabilize pairing of homologous chromosomes in meiosis. Although the SC is critical for meiosis in many eukaryotes, there are organisms that perform meiosis without a functional SC. However, such SC-less meiosis is poorly characterized. To understand the features of SC-less meiosis and its adaptive significance, the ciliated protozoan *Tetrahymena* was selected as a model. Meiosis research in *Tetrahymena* has revealed intriguing aspects of the regulatory programs utilized in its SC-less meiosis, yet additional efforts are needed for obtaining an in-depth comprehension of mechanisms that are associated with the absence of SC. Here, aiming at promoting a wider application of *Tetrahymena* for meiosis research, we introduce basic concepts and core techniques for studying meiosis in *Tetrahymena* and then suggest future directions for expanding the current *Tetrahymena* meiosis research toolbox. These methodologies could be adopted for dissecting meiosis in poorly characterized ciliates that might reveal novel features. Such data will hopefully provide insights into the function of the SC and the evolution of meiosis from a unique perspective.

Keywords Meiosis · Ciliate · Tetrahymena · Synaptonemal complex · Cytogenetics

Introduction

In most investigated organisms, meiosis is a specialized cell division that turns diploid germ cells into haploid gametes for sexual reproduction. Advances in meiosis research have been directly aiding the elucidation of causes of infertility and birth defects in humans (Ioannou et al. 2019; Veitia

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2020), as well as promoting crop breeding (Lambing and Heckmann 2018; Taagen et al. 2020) and improving the understanding of speciation and evolution (Smagulova et al. 2016; Webster and Hurst 2012). Because of its importance, meiosis has been extensively studied since the early 1900s, although predominantly in a few model eukaryotes. These studies have revealed that the conserved meiosis program begins with a round of chromosome replication, followed by the formation of programmed DNA double-strand breaks (DSBs). Next, broken chromosomes are repaired preferentially using the counterpart of intact homologous chromosomes (homologs) as templates, such that crossovers (COs) can form between homologs. COs not only re-shuffle alleles, which is the major advantage of meiosis over mitosis in generating genetic diversity, but more importantly, they provide physical connections between homologs so that they can be faithfully segregated into gametes that each contain a haploid genome (see Ohkura 2015).

The synaptonemal complex (SC) is a zipper-like tripartite protein structure formed between aligned homologs during meiotic prophase I of most organisms (Fig. 1A). It is crucial for several meiotic events, including regulating



Fig. 1 Diagrams of the canonical synaptonemal complex (SC), other relevant structures, and their presence and absence in organisms of different taxa. **A** A diagram of the SC. Orange and grey (or blue) lines are homologous chromosomes, they are anchored at the axial/lateral elements (blue cylinder; yellow rings are cohesin complexes) and form loops. Within the region with full synapsis, lateral elements, transverse elements (yellow–red twists), and central elements (yellow bar) form the canonical tripartite structure. Homologous recombination takes place within the fully synapsed region and is often observed as an intensive node (aka recombination node, RN) under electron microscopy. **B** Fission yeast lacks a canonical SC; however,

the number of DSBs (Lee et al. 2021), enforcing homologous pairing, promoting the interhomolog recombinational repair of DSBs, and maintaining obligate CO formation, thus ensuring faithful chromosome segregation (see Zickler and Kleckner 2015). Consequently, disruption of SC components or assembly leads to abnormal or abolished CO formation (Capilla-Perez et al. 2021; MacQueen et al. 2002; Wang et al. 2010) and causes infertility in mice and humans (de Vries et al. 2005; Fan et al. 2021).

Strikingly, there are a few organisms from different taxa lacking SCs that still perform meiosis successfully (Loidl 2016; Shah et al. 2020) (Fig. 1B–D). The discoveries of SCless meiosis raise interesting evolutionary questions: Why is SC-dependent meiosis more prevalent than SC-less meiosis? What is the adaptive significance of SC-less meiosis? What selection forces shape SC-less meiosis and SC-dependent meiosis? Answers to these questions will advance understanding of the origin and evolution of the SC, an important goal of meiosis research.

Among the organisms with SC-less meiosis, the fission yeast *Schizosaccharomyces pombe* and the ciliated protozoan *Tetrahymena thermophila* (herein referred to

it has homologs of axial/lateral elements core components, and they are crucial for meiotic recombination. **C** In *Tetrahymena*, a SC or SClike structure has not been detected. Moreover, it is unclear whether *Tetrahymena* meiotic chromosomes organize as highly structured loops. **D** The synaptonemal complex is absent in multiple organisms of different taxa (i.e., organisms labeled with half-circles or open circles). The solid white circle and half-circle with black bars indicate canonical SC-like tripartite structure or axial element-like liner structure was observed in corresponding organisms by electron microscopy, respectively. The phylogenetic tree (Neighbor-Joining method) was constructed using *18S* rRNA sequences

as *Tetrahymena*) are mostly investigated (see Loidl 2006, 2021; Loidl and Lorenz 2016; Yamada et al. 2018). Despite lacking a canonical SC, *S. pombe* still possesses a linear proteinaceous structure that shares some morphological and functional features with the canonical SC components (see Kariyazono et al. 2019; Loidl 2016) (Fig. 1B). By contrast, *Tetrahymena* lacks most proteins with any homology to SC components, and a linear structure has not been detected in the meiotic nucleus by electron microscopy (Chi et al. 2014; Wolfe et al. 1976) (Fig. 1C). In this regard, *Tetrahymena* could be a better model than *S. pombe* for exploring SC-independent meiosis.

Tetrahymena is a convenient and genetically tractable single-celled model organism. Using *Tetrahymena* as a model, recent works in the field of chromatin biology have revealed functions of the epigenetic DNA modification N6-methyladenine (Cheng et al. 2019; Sheng et al. 2021; Wang et al. 2019; Zhao et al. 2021), small RNA-mediated transposable element repression (Xu et al. 2021; Zhao et al. 2019), and functions of a conserved methyltransferase in DNA replication and transcription (Zhao et al. 2020). Notably, it is also a favorable model for studying meiosis, in particular. Like budding yeast, billions of *Tetrahymena* cells can be obtained—axenically—within one liter of simple and inexpensive medium (Cassidy-Hanley 2012). Moreover, *Tetrahymena* meiosis can be easily triggered by mixing starved cells of different mating types. Hence, a large quantity of meiotic cells can be routinely generated with simple laboratory setups. Despite that *Tetrahymena* cells of different mating types can exchange genetic information in a sexual manner, they reproduce asexually. Therefore, *Tetrahymena* mutants with disrupted meiosis can be stably maintained by asexual reproduction. Of note, *Tetrahymena* has several distinct advantages over budding yeast for studying meiosis: first, the meiotic nucleus is about thirty times larger than that of budding yeast, which is easier for microscopic examination. Second, the meiotic nucleus undergoes notable morphological alterations in meiotic prophase I, hence, different sub-stages can be easily determined (Fig. 2). Finally, *Tetrahymena* diverged early in evolution from commonly used models for studying meiosis (e.g., yeasts and mice), hence, studying meiosis using *Tetrahymena* provides exclusive



Fig. 2 The bi-nucleated *Tetrahymena* and the dynamic morphological alterations of its germline nucleus in the meiotic prophase I. A The somatic macronucleus (MAC) and the germline micronucleus (MIC) are different in transcription activity, nuclear division programs, chromatin status, chromosome numbers, and ploidy levels. The asterisk (*) indicates that the MIC is transcribed mostly, if not exclusively, in meiosis. 'cb' stands for chromatin body. 'nu' stands for nucleolus. MAC and MIC chromatin structures are adapted from published electron micrographs (Wolfe et al. 1976). B *Tetrahymena* meiosis can be easily induced by mixing starved cells of different mating types. C In meiotic prophase I, the MIC undergoes dynamic nuclear morpho-

logical alterations. The chromosomes are also rearranged, with centromeres and telomeres clustered at opposite poles of the elongated nucleus. MTs stands for microtubules. **D** Representative 4',6-diamidino-2-phenylindole (DAPI)-stained single cell and paired cells at different stages of meiosis. The numbers indicate hours after mixing cells. It is worth noting that the progression of meiosis presented here was obtained with cells maintained at 30 °C. The actual progression of meiosis could be affected by many factors, including mating efficiency, temperature, aeration. Arrows of different colors denote meiotic nuclei of different cells. Scale bar: 5 μ m

information to advance the comprehensive understanding of the diversification and conservation of meiosis (see Loidl 2021; Loidl and Lorenz 2016).

Because many aspects of *Tetrahymena* are biologically unique from commonly used model organisms, specialized methods have been developed or adapted for studying its meiosis. However, these techniques are scattered in methods sections of different research articles. Given the above arguments for its study, we see a need for these methods to be combined into an instructional handbook for studying Tetrahymena meiosis. Hence, in this review we summarized concepts and techniques for studying Tetrahymena meiosis, from culturing cells, inducing meiosis, cytological staining, and finally to analyzing protein function. Moreover, typical meiotic failures and their causes are enumerated at the end of this article. We hope that this review will serve as a basic reference for studying meiosis in Tetrahymena and other ciliates whose meiotic chromatin seems to have intriguing features but were never investigated with modern techniques (Gong et al. 2020; Jiang et al. 2019; Raĭkov 1982).

Culturing strains and inducing meiosis

Tetrahymena is a typical ciliate housing two types of nuclei within a cell (Fig. 2A). They differ in many aspects, including morphology, transcriptional activity, cell cycle, and even histone composition (see Chalker et al. 2013; Ruehle et al. 2016; Wei et al. 2022). Like other ciliates (Li et al. 2021; Zheng et al. 2021), the large polyploid macronucleus (MAC) of Tetrahymena has highly fragmented chromosomes. The MAC contains the somatic genome, transcribes mRNAs, and thus determines phenotype. The small diploid micronucleus (MIC) has five pairs of chromosomes and contains the germline genome. However, it is transcriptionally silent, except during meiotic prophase I, when the transcription products are non-coding RNAs (Chalker and Yao 2001; Schoeberl et al. 2012; Sugai and Hiwatashi 1974; Zhao et al. 2019). The MAC divides amitotically and does not undergo meiosis. By contrast, the MIC divides mitotically and undergoes meiosis upon mating of Tetrahymena cells (i.e., conjugation). Notably, in meiotic prophase, the intranuclear microtubules (MTs) drive the stretching of the MIC over 20 times its length (> $2 \times$ length of the cell). Meanwhile, centromeres and telomeres cluster at opposite poles of the elongated nucleus and form an 'ultimate bouquet'(Loidl et al. 2012; Luo et al. 2020). Such spatial constraints are crucial for pairing of homologous chromosomes in Tetrahymena (Fig. 2B–D)(Tian et al. 2020).

The highly in-bred *Tetrahymena thermophila* B strains are commonly used wild-type strains with well-defined genetic backgrounds (Byrne et al. 1978; Cassidy-Hanley 2012; Frankel et al. 1993; Mayo and Orias 1981). Because conjugation of WT B strains B2086 and CU428 yields a relatively high percentage of progeny cells (in our hands, up to 72% of paired conjugants were able to produce viable progeny), they are usually used (and are also recommended) for meiosis research. Both strains are available from the national Tetrahymena Stock Center, located at Cornell University (Chalker 2012). High-quality MIC and MAC genome sequences have been generated (Eisen et al. 2006; Hamilton et al. 2016; Sheng et al. 2020; Wang et al. 2021), gene expression and protein phosphorylation datasets are also available from publicly accessible databases (http://ciliate.org/; http://tfgd.ihb.ac.cn/) (Coyne et al. 2008; Miao et al. 2009; Stover et al. 2006; Tian et al. 2014; Xiong et al. 2011, 2012, 2013). It is also worth noting that macronuclear genomes of ten closely related Tetrahymena species are available in the Tetrahymena comparative genome database (Xiong et al. 2019; Yang et al. 2019) (http://ciliate.ihb.ac.cn/tcgd/), which serves as a resource to determine conserved, and therefore possibly functionally critical segments of Tetrahymena meiosis proteins.

A variety of simple, budget-friendly peptone-based media, as well as chemically defined media, are available for axenically culturing *Tetrahymena* (Cassidy-Hanley et al. 1997). For meiosis research, the peptone-based modified Neff medium is preferable over the commonly used nutrient-rich SPP medium. In Neff, cells propagate sufficiently rapidly (ca. 3.5 h per generation), accumulate at high density (up to 3×10^6 cells/ml), and can be maintained for at least a week at the stationary phase. In SPP, however, cells have a short stationary phase and then deteriorate rapidly.

Proper aeration is crucial for obtaining cell cultures with highly synchronized meiotic cells. This can be achieved by starving and mixing equal quantity of starved cells with different mating types in shallow, flat bottom vessels. For example, a 10 cm Petri-dish can be used for a 10 ml small scale culture, and plastic boxes (e.g., the IKEA SAMLA box, 39 cm $[L] \times 28$ cm $[W] \times 14$ cm [H]) can be used for larger scale cultures, up to 300 ml. Cell density should also be controlled to ensure efficient mattings. In our hands, over 90% conjugation efficiency could be achieved regularly by mixing cells starved in 10 mmol/L Tris-HCl (pH 7.5) at a density of 3.5×10^{5} cells/ml (or $O.D_{540nm} \approx 0.5$, see Supplementary Table S1 for an O.D and cell density conversion chart). Additionally, the presence of CdCl₂ (a chemical for activating the most commonly used inducible promoter, MTT1) also reduces the efficiency of conjugation. Thus, it has to be removed (preferably) by pelleting cells and resuspending them in fresh 10 mmol/L Tris-HCl (pH 7.5). Alternatively, $CdCl_2$ needs to be drastically reduced (< 0.1 µg/ul) before the induction of conjugation.

Manipulating meiotic processes

Well-established genetic tools exist for Tetrahymena genetic manipulation (Akematsu et al. 2018; Chalker 2012; Hayashi and Mochizuki 2015; Howard-Till et al. 2013; Iwamoto et al. 2014; Qiao et al. 2022; Ruehle et al. 2016). These have been used for studying the importance of a number of genes for meiotic processes. In addition, several meiotic processes can be conveniently inhibited using commercially available chemicals. For example, meiotic nuclear elongation is effectively repressed by 10 µg/ml of nocodazole, an effective and reversible microtubule depolymerizing drug (Loidl et al. 2012). It has been successfully used for revealing the critical roles of intranuclear microtubules in promoting centromere clustering and faithful homolog pairing in meiosis. The Tetrahymena meiotic DNA damage response (DDR) is dependent on the conserved ataxia telangiectasia-mutated and Rad3-related (ATR) kinase, a member of the phosphatidylinositol 3-kinase (PI3K) family of proteins (Mochizuki et al. 2008; Tian and Loidl 2018). PI3K inhibitors, 10 mmol/L caffeine, or 2 µmol/L wortmannin have been successfully applied to block the meiotic DDR and the subsequent DNA damage repair in Tetrahymena meiotic cells (Loidl and Mochizuki 2009). In addition, multiple DNA damage-inducing agents (e.g., cisplatin and methyl methane sulfonate) have been used for the induction of ectopic DNA damage in Tetrahymena (Loidl and Mochizuki 2009), which lead to the conclusion that DNA damage triggers the nuclear stretching and clustering of centromeres and telomeres via the DDR pathway.

Cytological techniques

Conventional fixation for cytology

Fixing cells for 30 min in 3.7% formaldehyde and 0.5% Triton X-100 has an overall good performance in preserving both cortical membrane structure and nuclear morphology (Loidl and Scherthan 2004) (Fig. 2D). Using cells fixed by this method (hereinafter referred to as 'conventional fixation method'), proteins localized to the cortical membrane, cytoplasm (except for microtubules), or nucleus can usually be stained by immunostaining.

Protein localization

Protein localization data are crucial for inferring whether and how a protein is involved in regulating meiosis. In *Tetrahymena*, protein localization is investigated either in live cells or in chemically fixed cells (Fig. 3A). The outer layer of *Tetrahymena* consists of juxtaposed layers of soft membranes (Frankel 2000) which allows the usage of cellpermeable dyes (e.g., Hoechst 33342) for live-cell imaging. By immobilizing cells with either a custom microcompressor (Yan et al. 2014), 3% low-melting-temperature agarose (Kobayashi et al. 2016), nickel chloride (Jiang et al. 2015), or simply compressing cells with a coverslip, dynamic localization of fluorescent-fusion proteins can be investigated and documented (Iwamoto et al. 2015). Fluorescent-tagged proteins could also be directly visualized in cells fixed with 3.7% formaldehyde and 10% methanol (Kataoka and Mochizuki 2015). However, care should be taken as artificial green fluorescence signals from nuclei appear after exposing cells to a strong exciting light source.

In addition to the direct detection by fusing a protein of interest (hereinafter referred to as POI) to a fluorescent protein, indirect immunostaining is commonly used for protein localization (see Pina et al. 2022). Briefly, cells are first fixed and permeabilized with chemicals and then POI is probed with antibodies. However, it is worth noting that the fixation method may vary according to the properties of the POI (Dave et al. 2009; Howard-Till et al. 2011).

Many proteins exist as two major fractions, a freely diffusible fraction and an immobilized fraction that is tightly associated with specific subcellular domains or structures (e.g., chromatin, nuclear matrix, cytoskeleton). The two forms may actively exchange within cells. To specifically visualize the immobilized form, soluble cytoplasmic and nucleoplasmic proteins need to be removed. This can be done by first extracting cells with 1% Triton X-100 (supplemented with 0.37% formaldehyde) on ice, then completing fixation by adding extra formaldehyde to a final concentration of 3.7% (Fig. 3B). Using this in situ fractionation method (aka 'detergent spreading method', 'prefixation detergent treatment' in published works) (Ali et al. 2018; Howard-Till et al. 2011; Lukaszewicz et al. 2010; Tian et al. 2019), Howard-Till and colleagues revealed that the meiotic DSB repair recombinase, Dmc1, localizes in the nucleus in both diffused form and chromatin-associated form (Howard-Till et al. 2011). While Dmc1 localizes to the nucleus in a DSB-independent manner, the association of Dmc1 with chromatin is dependent on DSB formation (Howard-Till et al. 2011).

Histone variants and histone modifications play crucial roles in meiosis (Diagouraga et al. 2018; Yadav and Claeys Bouuaert 2021). In *Tetrahymena*, they are best visualized using cells fixed with mercuric chloride and organic solvents (e.g., methanol or ethanol). Two versions of mercuric chloride-based fixative are currently used for cell fixation. One of them is the standard Schaudinn's fixative (Mochizuki et al. 2008). It is a mixture of 2 parts of saturated HgCl₂, 1 part of ethanol, and 1% acetic acid. After fixing cells with this method at 25 °C, cells are further washed with ice-cold 70% ethanol, then resuspended in an appropriate amount



Fig. 3 Representative images of cytological stainings. **A** Fluoresence imaging of EGFP-/mCherry-fusion proteins in a live cell (left panel) and a methanol fixed cell (right panel). Rib1 is a MIC transcription regulator, MicNup98A is a MIC-specific nuclear pore complex subunit. The asterisk (*) indicates commonly seen autofluorescence in *Tetrahymena* cells, presumably from food vacuoles. **B** Detection of total Dmc1 protein in a cell fixed with the conventional fixation method (left panel) and chromatin-bound Dmc1 fraction in a cell fixed with an in situ fractionation method using detergent extraction of soluble proteins (right panel, see text for details). **C** Immunostain-

of methanol/acetic acid mixture (in 2:1 ratio) and dropped onto a slide. After fixation, cells burst yet the nuclei remain intact (Fig. 3C). Such treatment makes chromatin more accessible for antibody binding, and it is excellent for staining the centromere-specific histone H3 variant (Cna1) using a custom antibody (Cervantes et al. 2006). Another method uses a modified and simplified Schaudinn's fixative. It has been successfully applied for staining γ -H2A.X (Tian and Loidl 2019) (Fig. 3D). Briefly, cells are fixed with a solution of 0.26% saturated HgCl₂ and 0.14% ethanol, then washed twice with ice cold methanol, and then dropped onto a slide.

Unlike homologous pairing in humans and yeasts, stretching intranuclear microtubules drive *Tetrahymena* meiotic nuclear elongation and promote the alignment of homologs (Kushida et al. 2015; Wolfe et al. 1976). However, the gene(s) directly responsible for regulating the dynamic alteration of the meiotic intranuclear microtubules remains unknown, hence efforts are needed to solve this enigma. To visualize intranuclear microtubules, fixation methods must be modified to preserve microtubule integrity (Fujiu and Numata 2000; Kushida et al. 2015; Loidl et al. 2012). Briefly, cells are first treated with a modified PEM buffer

ing of the centromeric histone H3 variant, Cna1, in a cell prepared with Schaudinn's fixative. **D** Immunostaining of the DNA doublestrand break marker, γ -H2A.X, in a cell prepared with the modified Schaudinn's fixative. **E** Immunostaining of microtubules in a cell fixed in modified PEM buffer. **F** Staining of condensed chromosomes at meiotic metaphase I Upper panel: Bivalents; Lower panel: Univalents. **G–I** Labelling of telomeric repeats, MIC-specific repetitive sequences (*REP2*), and a MIC chromosome 5 locus (ca. 38 kb) using fluorescence in situ hybridization. **J** Labeling of newly synthesized DNA during the meiotic DSB repair using BrdU. Scale bars: 5 µm

(0.145 mol/L NaCl, 7.4 mmol/L Na₂HPO₄, 2.6 mmol/L NaH₂PO₄, 2 mmol/L EGTA, 5 mmol/L MgSO₄, pH 7.2) at 25 °C, then fixed by adding formaldehyde to a final concentration of 1.8%. Subsequently, cells are collected, resuspended in the modified PEM buffer supplemented with 0.1 mol/L glycine, and spread onto poly-L lysine coated slides for immunostaining with an anti-tubulin antibody (Fig. 3E).

Analyzing chromosome morphology

Chiasmata, the physical linkages formed between homologs, are cytological markers of interhomolog COs. The number and distribution of chiasmata is a valuable cytological readout for evaluating meiotic recombination. However, as nuclear structures are well preserved under the conventional fixation condition, individual bivalents or chromosomes cannot be clearly distinguished as they are closely juxtaposed. Thus, the standard Schaudinn's fixation is needed to slightly disassociate chromosomes (Fig. 3F). Moreover, instead of DAPI (which bleaches during examination using fluorescence microscopy), Giemsa is commonly used for staining acidic chromatin to investigate chromosome configurations (Lukaszewicz et al. 2015; Shodhan et al. 2014; Tian and Loidl 2019). Chromosomes fixed in this manner can be viewed and imaged using conventional bright-field light microscopy, which is also an advantage over using fluorescent DNA stains.

DNA analysis

Meiotic chromosomes undergo dynamic alterations in multiple ways. First, homologs become closely juxtaposed and alleles are faithfully aligned. Second, DNA double-strand breaks (DSBs) form and are repaired; during this process, new DNA is synthesized around DSB sites. All these events can be studied cytologically in *Tetrahymena* by the following methods.

Fluorescent in situ hybridization

Homologous pairing can be monitored by measuring the distance between alleles labeled using fluorescent in situ hybridization (FISH). FISH can be used to label long (ca. 100 kb) or repetitive DNA segments (e.g., telomere repeats, transposable elements; Fig. 3G-I) using cells fixed with the conventional fixation method (Howard-Till and Loidl 2018; Tian et al. 2020). However, unwanted background staining often impairs visualization of weak signals in conventionally fixed cells. Therefore, we recommend releasing nuclei from the cells by disrupting cells and fixing nuclei using a methanol-based Carnoy's fixative (methanol, chloroform, acetic acid: 6:3:1; Fig. 3I) (Mochizuki et al. 2008). In short, cells are first fixed with the Carnoy's fixative at 25 °C for an hour and then washed with 70% ethanol and dropped on a slide. According to our experience, optimal FISH is usually obtained using a slide that is air-dried in a fume hood at 25 °C. The standard FISH is a rather laborious procedure, thus a more time-efficient and labor-saving FISH method (e.g., Tn5 FISH (Niu et al. 2020)) might be adapted for Tetrahymena.

DSB detection

Although the presence of DSBs can be assayed indirectly by immuno-staining against γ -H2A.X or the Dmc1 recombinase (discussed above, Fig. 3D), agarose gel electrophoresis provides a direct indication of chromosome fragmentation resulting from the formation of DSBs. However, it demands a large number of meiotic cells with good synchronicity and purity (Lukaszewicz et al. 2010). Because billions of synchronized *Tetrahymena* meiotic cells can be obtained by an entry-level laboratory (see section "Culturing strains and inducing meiosis"), it is one of the few organisms in which meiotic DSB formation and repair could be investigated with this method. Sizes of the five *Tetrahymena* meiotic chromosomes range from 25.5 to 36.2 Mb (Hamilton et al. 2016). Hence, even using pulsed-field gel electrophoresis for resolving high molecular weight DNA, intact meiotic chromosomes are too large to migrate into the 1% agarose gel. However, smaller chromosome fragments resulting from DSB can migrate into the gel. Therefore, the appearance and disappearance of low molecular weight DNA bands serves as direct indications of the formation and repair of meiotic DSBs (Lukaszewicz et al. 2010).

To avoid potential artificial chromosome fragmentation during genomic DNA preparation, Tetrahymena cells are first embedded in an agarose gel plug, then chromosomes are crudely extracted in situ by digestion with protease K and RNase A (Lukaszewicz et al. 2010). It is worth noting that, owing to the co-existence of MAC and MIC chromosomes in the agarose gel plug, fragmented MIC chromosomes are masked by MAC chromosomes, whose sizes range from 38 Kb to 3.2 Mb (Sheng et al. 2020; Wang et al. 2021). Therefore, Southern hybridization is needed to label the MIC-derived chromosomes, using a MIC-specific DNA probe (e.g., Tlr elements (Wuitschick et al. 2002)). The sizes and intensities of the gel bands provide quantitative data to evaluate the frequency and the level of DSBs, respectively (Akematsu et al. 2017; Lukaszewicz et al. 2010; Tian and Loidl 2018).

Monitoring DNA repair synthesis

During homologous recombination, new DNA needs to be synthesized to fill gaps that are resected around DSB sites. In *Tetrahymena*, such DNA repair synthesis can be monitored by labeling newly synthesized DNA with a thymidine analog, bromodeoxyuridine (BrdU, Fig. 3J) and then probing the incorporated BrdU with an Anti-BrdU antibody (Loidl and Scherthan 2004). BrdU staining can be performed on cells fixed with the conventional fixation method. However, as BrdU is not accessible for antibodies without denaturing the incorporated DNA, cells for BrdU staining need to be pretreated (e.g., by heating, to denature DNA) before immunostaining (Loidl and Scherthan 2004).

Identification of protein-protein interactions

Emerging data suggest that some meiosis genes evolve rapidly (Dapper and Payseur 2019; Grishaeva and Bogdanov 2014). In different organisms, some proteins with similar functions in meiosis show little similarity at the sequence level (Tian and Loidl 2018). Therefore, only a few highly conserved meiosis genes were identified in *Tetrahymena* based on sequence homology (Chi et al. 2014; Mochizuki et al. 2008). The rest of *Tetrahymena* meiosis genes have mostly been identified by a systematic knockout screen of genes expressed primarily in meiosis (see Loidl 2021). Most of these genes lack any known protein domain or signature motif. Therefore, in silico analysis provides little useful information to infer their molecular functions. For this reason, the functions of these novel proteins are often determined by investigating their protein partners, which may be characterized proteins or their homologs.

Immunoprecipitation coupled mass spectrometry (IP-MS) is a commonly used technique for identifying protein partners of POIs in vivo. Briefly, cells are harvested, lysed, and incubated with antibody-conjugated microbeads. Ideally, the POI and its protein partners bind to the beads, and unbound proteins are washed away. The bound proteins are then identified by mass spectrometry-based proteomic analysis.

Unlike some commonly used model organisms, currently there are only a few antibodies that can be used for IP of *Tetrahymena* meiosis proteins (e.g., Dmc1, Cna1, Mms4) (Cervantes et al. 2006; Howard-Till et al. 2011; Lukaszewicz et al. 2013). Therefore, IP is often performed using transgenic cells expressing epitope-tagged proteins. So far, many epitope tags have been successfully used for the IP of *Tetrahymena* proteins. For instance, HA-tag, EGFP-tag, mCherry-tag, and a Flag-ZZ fusion tag (Akematsu et al. 2020; Jiang et al. 2013; Kataoka et al. 2010; Tian et al. 2020). The HA tag is the smallest tag with nine amino acids; thus, theoretically, the fusion of an HA-tag with the POI would introduce minimal alteration. For this reason, cells expressing HA-fusion proteins are often used for IPs in *Tetrahymena*.

To purify HA-fusion proteins, cells are first lysed with mild detergent (e.g., 0.1-1% Triton X-100) and then incubated with microbeads conjugated with anti-HA antibodies. The beads are then washed to remove unbound proteins, and HA peptides are used to specifically elute the POI and its protein partners. According to our experience, lysate prepared from over 50 million cells (ca. 200 ml of conjugating cells) is sufficient for IPs using anti-HA beads (Tian and Loidl 2019). If there are limitations for obtaining an adequate number of cells, POI can be fused with an EGFP tag and then purified with the GFP-Trap® beads. Because of the superior affinity of GFP-Trap® breads to GFP (equilibrium dissociation constant: 10⁻¹² mol/L), a sufficient amount of EGFP-tagged protein and its partners can be purified with the beads from as little as 2.5 million cells (unpublished data). However, in addition to the size of the EGFP-tag, a drawback of this method is that the captured POI cannot be specifically eluted from the beads, hence it may have higher background compared to the peptide elution strategy used with anti-HA beads. Nonetheless, high confidence partners of the POI have been identified by analyzing duplicated IP samples using dedicated proteomic analysis algorithms for identifying protein-protein interactions, for instance, SAINTexpress (Teo et al. 2014). Due to the page limitation,

detailed protocols are not included in this review, but they will be uploaded onto the following webpage: https://www.protocols.io/workspaces/miao_tian.

Typical signs of abnormal meiosis

Thanks to the large sizes of germline chromosomes and their characteristic changes in morphology, Tetrahymena cells with defective meiosis can be identified by checking nuclear or chromosome configurations by DNA staining, or immunostaining of robust meiotic proteins or modified histones (see Loidl and Lorenz 2016). Attention should also be given to the timing or duration of meiosis in mutant cells compared to wild-type. Therefore, cytological time courses of mating cells at 1-2 h intervals can be useful to determine whether meiosis is progressing normally, and at what stage cells are delayed or arrested. Here, we summarize typical phenotypes of aberrant meiotic cells and underlying genetic bases, such that one could compare a novel meiotic mutant to published ones. The mutants are classified into different groups according to their representative nuclear morphological features:

MIC stays round

More specifically, the MIC chromatin, as visualized with DAPI or other DNA stains, remains round. So far, this 'round MIC' phenotype has only been observed in cells with a defective centromeric Histone H3 variant, Cna1, which leads to the dissociation of chromatin from the intracellular microtubules (Loidl et al. 2012). Consequently, MIC chromatin remains round due to the lack of pulling force from the microtubules (Fig. 4A). Finding additional mutants with similar phenotypes would be highly desirable, as this could identify components that serve to link centromeres to one pole of the elongating nucleus.

MIC stays like a teardrop

Mutants with this phenotype mate and form stable pairs, like WT cells. Their MICs migrate from the MAC pocket towards the direction of the mating junction; however, they remain next to the mating junction and elongate only slightly, like teardrops (Fig. 4B). This is a typical phenotype of defective meiosis initiation. Deletion of a meiosis-specific cyclin (Cyc2 (Xu et al. 2016)), Cyclin-dependent kinase (Cdk3 (Xu et al. 2019; Yan et al. 2016)), or Zinc-finger domain-containing protein, Zfp1, leads to this phenotype (Zhang et al. 2022a). Nevertheless, the underlying molecular mechanism remains elusive.



Fig. 4 Schematic summaries of representative nuclear and chromosome morphologies in cells with disrupted meiosis. A–H Aberrant phenotypes are arranged according to the progression of meiosis. MACs are depicted as pink circles with dashed outlines; MICs are

depicted with light yellow circles with a solid outline. Blue and red lines are homologous chromosomes. Arrows indicate disruption of certain meiosis genes leads to aberrant phenotypes in the early and late stages of meiosis

MIC elongates slightly, like a spindle

This phenotype has been observed in cells that lack meiotic DSB formation (i.e., $spo11\Delta$, $pars11\Delta$) or DDR (i.e., ATR1 knockdown cells) (Mochizuki et al. 2008; Tian and Loidl 2018). The major differences between this 'spindle' phenotype and the above described 'teardrop' phenotype are that the MICs are longer and, instead of remaining next to the conjugation junction, they tend to migrate towards the posterior of the MAC (Fig. 4C).

MIC elongates partially

In mutants with defective nuclear elongation *per se* and/or disrupted centromere or telomere clustering, meiotic MICs are shorter than the length of the cell (Fig. 4D). Nonetheless, their MICs are longer than that of cells without meiotic DSBs or DDR. It is worth noting that, the mutant with disrupted telomere clustering has these characteristic pointy MICs (Tian et al. 2020).

Bivalent formation defects

The association of condensed homologs as bivalents is a consequence of the formation of meiotic COs. Using Giemsa staining, the thick bivalent form can be easily differentiated from the thin univalent form (i.e., individual chromosomes lacking pairing partners; Fig. 4E). Mutants with defects either in DSB formation (Mochizuki et al. 2008; Tian and Loidl 2018), interhomolog recombination (Howard-Till et al. 2011; Mochizuki et al. 2008; Tian and Loidl 2019), or CO formation (Shodhan et al. 2014, 2017a, b) are characteristically incapable of forming five bivalents at metaphase I.

Fragmented or aberrant chromosomes at metaphase I

The appearance of fragmented chromosomes at meiotic metaphase I indicates that meiotic DSBs are not repaired properly (Lukaszewicz et al. 2010) (Fig. 4F). This pheno-type commonly presents as grainy, punctate DAPI staining

in what should be the metaphase stage of meiosis. Fragmentation occurs in cells in which DSB ends are not properly processed for DNA repair (e.g., cells lacking COM1 or MRE11 (Lukaszewicz et al. 2010)), in cells with defective DNA damage response (e.g., ATR1 knockdown cells (Tian and Loidl 2018)), or cells lacking or misregulating the cohesin complex (Ali et al. 2018; Howard-Till et al. 2013). It is worth noting that the lack of the meiosis-specific recombinase Dmc1 does not lead to chromosome fragmentation, as meiotic DSBs are effectively repaired by the Rad51-mediated DNA repair pathway in Tetrahymena (Howard-Till et al. 2011). In the latter case, DSBs are likely repaired using sister chromatids as templates, and crossovers are not formed. Less fragmented, but nevertheless aberrant chromosomes were observed in mutants with an abnormally elevated level of DSBs (Tian and Loidl 2018). The absence of condensin can also present aberrant chromosomal morphologies similar to fragmentation, due to lack of condensation and decatenation (Howard-Till and Loidl 2018).

Meiosis arrests at the onset of the first meiotic division, condensed bivalents are arranged tandemly

Such a phenotype has been identified in three mutants (Fig. 4G). They are either lacking a meiosis-specific E2F family transcription factor (E2fl1) or its protein partner (Dpl2 (Zhang et al. 2017, 2018)) or another protein without any detectable domain (named Apro1, for anaphase promoting 1 (Tian et al. 2022)). All three proteins localize exclusively in the MAC of conjugating cells. Hence, they possibly regulate yet unknown genes required for the initiation of subsequent chromosome segregation.

Chromosome mis-segregation in anaphase

Disruption of many genes will eventually cause chromosome segregation defects, which may present as unequal segregation, lagging chromosomes, or extensive bridging during anaphase (Fig. 4H). However, except for the characteristic collapsed anaphase I phenotype observed in CO resolution factor mutants (Lukaszewicz et al. 2013) and the potentially entangled chromosomes incapable of segregating in cells with a disrupted condensin complex (Howard-Till and Loidl 2018), it is difficult to determine which pathway is disrupted by solely considering the mis-segregation phenotype. Therefore, if defective divisions are observed, it is generally advised to examine earlier steps in meiosis. Many of the mutants described above will eventually attempt meiotic divisions, more or less successfully, since Tetrahymena seems to have no hard checkpoints. Even mutants that do not form crossovers are capable of occasionally producing a seemingly functional haploid gamete by random chance.

Conclusion and perspectives

Various cytogenetic and biochemistry techniques have been developed or adapted for studying *Tetrahymena* meiosis. By utilizing this initial version of the meiosis research toolbox, many details of *Tetrahymena's* SC-less meiosis have been decoded (see Loidl 2021). Collectively, mechanisms regulating *Tetrahymena's* 'simplified' meiosis are believed to mirror core features of a hypothetical proto-meiosis and thus, may facilitate the understanding of the origin and evolution of meiosis (see Loidl 2021).

The rapid development of next-generation sequencing (NGS) technologies has led to the generation of numerous tools for tackling fundamental questions concerning meiosis that could not be solved easily with classical, low-resolution techniques (Brick et al. 2018; Gittens et al. 2019; Lam et al. 2017; Mimitou and Keeney 2018; Paiano et al. 2020). Although novel techniques for identification of DSB sites are still emerging (e.g., Protec-seq (Prieler et al. 2021)), none of them can be directly used for studying Tetrahymena meiosis. Consequently, the proof for the existence of meiotic DSB hotspots (i.e., a locus with a high frequency of DSB formation events) and CO hotspots in *Tetrahymena* remains elusive. This has greatly hindered the characterization of chromatin features of the DSB site, the understanding of DSB end processing mechanisms, and the correlation between DSB hotspots and CO hotspots in SC-independent meiosis. Hence, adding NGS-based techniques into the current Tetrahymena meiosis toolbox is needed.

The utilization of high-throughput, genome-wide techniques is largely limited by the lack of an effective method for purifying the meiotic MICs from the cell lysate, which contains MACs, non-meiotic MICs, and meiotic MICs. We believe that this could be solved by combining utilization of a recently optimized MIC preparation method (Duan et al. 2021) with the widely-applied fluorescent-activated cell sorting technique (i.e., for sorting labelled meiotic MICs from non-meiotic MICs and MACs).

Pioneer works revealed structural features in the meiotic nucleus of various ciliates (Raĭkov 1982; Zhang et al. 2022b). Notably, these features are highly diverse in different ciliates. For instance, an SC seems to be present in some ciliates but absent in others (Fig. 2D). However, these features have not been investigated with molecular biology techniques (e.g., immunostaining, FISH). Because the cellular structures of ciliates are largely conserved, the *Tetrahymena* meiosis research toolbox might be used for studying regulatory mechanisms in other ciliates.

In conclusion, we believe that investigating the enigmatic features of the SC-less meiosis using novel techniques in *Tetrahymena* would help to understand the biological significance of the SC from an opposite perspective. Meanwhile, a comprehensive characterization of SC-dependent and SC-independent meiosis of different ciliates will undoubtedly shed light on the evolutionary significance of different types of meiosis.

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Data availability All data generated or analysed during this study are included in this published article (and its supplementary information file).

Declarations

Conflict of interest The authors declare no conflicts of interest.

Animal and human rights statements We declare that all applicable international, national, and or institutional guidelines for sampling, care, and experimental use of organisms for the study have been followed and all necessary approvals have been obtained.

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