The conserved AAA-ATPase PCH-2 distributes its regulation of meiotic prophase events

by remodeling multiple meiotic HORMADs in *C. elegans*

Anna E. Russo*, Stefani Giacopazzi*, Alison Deshong*, Malaika Menon*, Valery Ortiz*, Kaori M.

Ego#, Kevin D. Corbett# and Needhi Bhalla*[1]

* Department of Molecular, Cell and Developmental Biology, University of California, Santa

Cruz, Santa Cruz, CA 95064

Department of Cellular and Molecular Medicine, University of California, San Diego, La Jolla,

CA 92093

[1] corresponding author: nbhalla@ucsc.edu

Department of Molecular, Cell and Developmental Biology

225 Sinsheimer Labs

University of California, Santa Cruz

Santa Cruz, CA 95064

phone: (831) 459-1319

fax: (831) 459-3139

Abstract

During meiotic prophase, the essential events of pairing, synapsis, and recombination are coordinated with meiotic progression to promote fidelity and prevent aneuploidy. The conserved AAA+ ATPase PCH-2 controls a variety of chromosome behaviors, including coordinating pairing, synapsis and recombination between homologous chromosomes to guarantee crossover assurance and accurate chromosome segregation. However, how PCH-2 accomplishes this coordination is poorly understood. Here, we use a combination of genetic, cytological, and biochemical analyses to show that PCH-2 regulates pairing, synapsis and recombination in *C. elegans* by remodeling meiotic HORMADs from a closed conformation to an unlocked conformation. Further, we find PCH-2 coordinates these events by distributing this regulation among the three essential meiotic HORMADs in *C. elegans*: PCH-2 acts through HTP-3 to regulate pairing and synapsis, HIM-3 to promote crossover assurance, and HTP-1 to control meiotic progression. In addition to identifying a molecular mechanism for how PCH-2 regulates interhomolog interactions, our results provide a possible explanation for the expansion of this family as a conserved evolutionary feature of meiosis. Taken together, our work demonstrates that PCH-2's well-characterized role in remodeling mitotic HORMADs applies to meiotic HORMADs and this remodeling coordinates homolog pairing, synapsis, recombination and meiotic progression to ensure accurate meiotic chromosome segregation.

Introduction

All sexually reproducing organisms depend on the specialized cell division called meiosis, which produces haploid gametes such as sperm, eggs, and pollen. During meiosis, cells combine one round of DNA replication with two rounds of chromosome segregation, all of which is tightly regulated to ensure that gametes inherit the correct number of chromosomes. Errors in meiosis can lead to aneuploid gametes that cause infertility, birth defects and miscarriages (Hassold & Hunt, 2001). Therefore, understanding how meiotic events are coordinated has important implications for reproductive health.

During prophase I of meiosis, chromosome pairs or homologs undergo a series of events known as pairing, synapsis, and crossover recombination. First, homologs find each other and pair within the nucleus. Next, a molecular structure called the synaptonemal complex (SC) assembles between homologs and stabilizes homolog pairing in a process called synapsis. Finally, homologs undergo crossover recombination, which serves two important purposes. First, it shuffles alleles to create new genetic combinations that can be acted upon by natural selection. Second, it physically links homolog pairs, which is required for homologs to properly remodel, orient on the spindle, and segregate correctly during the first meiotic division.

Despite being described as a linear pathway, the processes of pairing, synapsis and recombination between homologous chromosomes are highly dynamic and can occur simultaneously, requiring active coordination. Further, these events can also initiate inappropriately between non-homologous chromosomes and therefore need to be corrected. We have shown that the highly conserved AAA+ ATPase, Pachytene checkpoint 2 (PCH-2), contributes to both this coordination and correction (Deshong, Ye, Lamelza, & Bhalla, 2014; Giacopazzi, Vong, Devigne, & Bhalla, 2020). However, how it carries out these roles is currently unclear.

PCH-2 has been shown to act through a family of proteins that contain a HORMA domain

(HORMAD proteins) to mediate a variety of chromosome behaviors, including meiotic

interhomolog interactions. HORMADs were named after the first proteins in this family to be

discovered in budding yeast: Hop1, Rev7, and Mad2 (Aravind & Koonin, 1998) and meiotic

HORMADs are essential to structure meiotic chromosomes for the meiosis-specific events of

homolog pairing, synapsis, and recombination (Ur & Corbett, 2021). Despite having essential

roles in meiotic prophase, meiotic HORMADs differ greatly across eukaryotes in the number of

family members they contain. For example, *S. cerevisiae* and *S. pombe* each have one meiotic

HORMAD (Hollingsworth, Goetsch, & Byers, 1990; Lorenz et al., 2004), mice and *Arabidopsis*

have two (Caryl, Armstrong, Jones, & Franklin, 2000; Fukuda, Daniel, Wojtasz, Toth, & Hoog,

2010; Wojtasz et al., 2009) and *C. elegans* has four (Couteau & Zetka, 2005; Goodyer et al.,

2008; Martinez-Perez & Villeneuve, 2005; Zetka, Kawasaki, Strome, & Muller, 1999). In both

mice and plants, one meiotic HORMAD plays a more integral role in the events of pairing,

synapsis, and recombination, indicating some separation of function (Caryl et al., 2000; Daniel

et al., 2011; Kogo, Tsutsumi, Ohye, et al., 2012; Shin et al., 2010; Wojtasz et al., 2012; Wojtasz

et al., 2009). This separation of function is also observed in *C. elegans* among the three

essential HORMADs (Kim et al., 2014b): HTP-3 is responsible for double strand break formation

(Goodyer et al., 2008) and REC-8-mediated sister chromatid cohesion (Severson, Ling, van

Zuylen, & Meyer, 2009); HIM-3 promotes synapsis (Kim et al., 2014b) and homolog access to

ensure repair off the homolog versus the sister chromatid during crossover recombination

(Couteau, Nabeshima, Villeneuve, & Zetka, 2004); and HTP-1, in addition to contributing to

homolog access along with HIM-3, also controls the timely initiation of SC assembly once

homologs are paired properly (Couteau & Zetka, 2005; Martinez-Perez & Villeneuve, 2005) and

the protection of sister chromatid cohesion during the first meiotic division (Martinez-Perez et

al., 2008). The fourth meiotic HORMAD, HTP-2, is not essential and is largely redundant with

HTP-1 (Couteau & Zetka, 2005; Martinez-Perez et al., 2008).

HORMAD proteins have a characteristic N-terminal HORMA domain that allows HORMADs to

adopt two different conformations: a closed conformation and an open/unlocked conformation

(reviewed in (Rosenberg & Corbett, 2015)). In the closed conformation, a peptide on a binding

partner called the "closure motif" binds the core of the HORMAD's HORMA domain. This

interaction is further stabilized by a C-terminal region of the HORMA domain called the safety

belt, which wraps around the HORMAD to lock in the binding partner's closure motif against the

HORMA domain core. Conversion of the HORMAD from the closed to open conformation

occurs when the binding partner's closure motif is displaced, and the safety belt region of the

HORMA domain rearranges to occupy the closure motif interaction site. Biochemical and

structural studies show that PCH-2 is directly responsible for the conversion of closed

conformers to open conformers for the mitotic HORMADs Mad2 (Ye et al., 2015) and Rev7

(Clairmont et al., 2020), where this remodeling relies on a direct interaction between PCH-2 and

the N-terminus of the HORMAD (Alfieri, Chang, & Barford, 2018; Ye et al., 2017).

This conformational switching is also essential for meiotic HORMAD function. Closed versions

of meiotic HORMADs assemble on meiotic chromosomes to drive pairing, synapsis,

recombination, and meiotic progression (Kim, Kostow, & Dernburg, 2015; Kim et al., 2014b).

Instead of adopting an open conformation, meiotic HORMADs adopt an intermediate "extended"

state that has been referred to as unlocked or unbuckled (West, Komives, & Corbett, 2017). The

physiological relevance of unlocked meiotic HORMADs *in vivo* is unclear.

While studies with other HORMADs, such as Mad2 and Rev7, provide a powerful framework to

imagine PCH-2's molecular mechanism during meiotic prophase, identifying PCH-2's specific

role during meiosis has been challenging. In contrast to Mad2 and Rev7, attempts to undertake

similar structural and biochemical analysis of PCH-2 and meiotic HORMADs have been less

informative. However, prior evidence from budding yeast, plants, and mammals indicates that

PCH-2 binds and acts directly on meiotic HORMADs. In budding yeast, Pch2 has been shown

to bind to and remodel meiotic HORMADs *in vitro* (Chen, Jomaa, Ortega, & Alani, 2014).

Additionally, PCH-2's orthologs in other systems have been shown to promote meiotic

progression (Raina & Vader, 2020b) by removing or redistributing meiotic HORMADs from

chromosome axes upon synapsis, including budding yeast (Borner, Barot, & Kleckner, 2008;

Joshi, Barot, Jamison, & Borner, 2009), *Arabidopsis* (Lambing et al., 2015) and mice (Wojtasz

et al., 2009). In mice, the removal of the meiotic HORMAD, HORMAD1, at the onset of synapsis

is abolished in both TRIP13 mutants (Wojtasz et al., 2009) or when the N-terminus of

HORMAD1 is deleted (Ye et al., 2017), indicating that PCH-2 and its orthologs' remodeling of

meiotic HORMADs is similar to its remodeling of Mad2 and Rev7. However, meiotic HORMADs

are not removed from chromosomes upon synapsis in all systems, such as in *C. elegans*

(Couteau et al., 2004; Couteau & Zetka, 2005; Goodyer et al., 2008; Martinez-Perez &

Villeneuve, 2005). Further, PCH-2 and its orthologs localize to meiotic chromosomes prior to

synapsis in budding yeast, plants and *C. elegans* (Cuacos et al., 2021; Deshong et al., 2014;

Joshi et al., 2009; Lambing et al., 2015; San-Segundo & Roeder, 1999). These data raise the

important question of whether remodeling of meiotic HORMADs plays additional roles during

meiotic prophase.

Here, we use a combination of genetic, cytological and biochemical data to demonstrate that

PCH-2 remodels meiotic HORMADs to regulate and coordinate pairing, synapsis, crossover

recombination, and meiotic progression in *C. elegans*. We show that a missense mutation in the

HORMA domain of HTP-3 suppresses pairing and synapsis defects in *pch-2* mutants but

exacerbates its recombination defects, indicating these two proteins cooperate to promote

pairing and synapsis but regulate recombination independently. We also show that a similar

mutation in *him-3* exacerbates synapsis defects in *pch-2* mutants but suppresses its

recombination defects, suggesting that PCH-2 acts on HIM-3 specifically to promote crossover

recombination. Finally, we show that corresponding mutations in the meiotic HORMAD HTP-1

produce a delay in meiotic progression, with consequences for synapsis and recombination, and

can be partially suppressed by a mutation in *pch-2*, suggesting that PCH-2 cooperates with

HTP-1 to regulate meiotic progression. Biochemical analysis demonstrates that these mutations

limit the ability of meiotic HORMADs to adopt their closed conformations. Taken together, our

work shows that PCH-2's remodeling of meiotic HORMADs from closed to unlocked

conformations decelerates pairing, synapsis, recombination, and meiotic progression, to

proofread homolog interactions and maintain meiotic fidelity. Further, PCH-2 cleanly delegates

its regulation of different meiotic prophase events to different meiotic HORMADs, offering new

insight into how PCH-2 mechanistically coordinates the events of pairing, synapsis, and

recombination. Lastly, it provides a potential explanation for why this family of meiotic

HORMADs has dramatically expanded in *C. elegans* and what this suggests about the

evolutionary role of HORMADs during meiosis.

Results

PCH-2's localization is consistent with remodeling HORMADs on the axial elements of meiotic

chromosomes

Meiotic HORMADs collaborate with cohesins and other axial proteins to organize meiotic

chromosomes into linear axial elements functionally capable of undergoing interhomolog

pairing, synapsis and recombination (Ur & Corbett, 2021). While PCH-2 has been implicated in

remodeling meiotic HORMADs away from meiotic chromosomes to ensure their availability

(Herruzo et al., 2021; Herruzo et al., 2016) and entry into the nucleus (Yang, Hu, Portheine,

Chuenban, & Schnittger, 2020), its localization to meiotic chromosomes before and after

synapsis (Cuacos et al., 2021; Deshong et al., 2014; Joshi et al., 2009; Lambing et al., 2015;

San-Segundo & Roeder, 1999) suggests a role remodeling meiotic HORMADs on

chromosomes as well. To test this, we used structured illumination microscopy to more closely

178 investigate whether PCH-2's localization was consistent with remodeling meiotic HORMADs on

179 axial elements.

180 Before synapsis and during axis assembly, PCH-2 localizes to foci on meiotic chromosomes.

181 After synapsis, PCH-2 localizes along the synaptonemal complex and this localization is

182 dependent on the central element component SYP-1 (Deshong et al., 2014), which assembles

183 between axial elements during synapsis (Figure 1A). We performed indirect

184 immunofluorescence on wildtype meiotic nuclei against both PCH-2 and SYP-1 and performed

185 structured illumination microscopy to resolve the distance between axial elements (Figure 1B)

186 (Carlton, 2008). While SYP-1 appeared as a line of continuous width in all meiotic nuclei, PCH-2

187 staining often appeared wider than SYP-1, often splitting as parallel tracks with SYP-1 staining

188 between PCH-2 tracks (arrows), indicating that PCH-2 can reside on or close to axial elements

189 of synapsed chromosomes and remodel meiotic HORMADs on chromosomes.

190 *htp-3 ^{H96Y} suppresses the acceleration of pairing and synapsis in pch-2 mutants*

191 Having established that PCH-2's localization is consistent with the ability to remodel meiotic

192 HORMADs on meiotic chromosomes, we looked for genetic interactions that might support this

193 possibility. *htp-3(vc75)* is a missense mutation that replaces histidine 96 with a tyrosine in the

194 HORMA domain (H96Y) (Figure 2A). HTP-3^{H96Y} properly localizes to meiotic chromosomes

195 (Couteau & Zetka, 2011) and does not affect pairing, synapsis and crossover recombination

196 (Bohr, Nelson, Giacopazzi, Lamelza, & Bhalla, 2018; Couteau & Zetka, 2011). However, we and

197 others previously showed that this mutation in *htp-3* abolished meiotic checkpoint responses in

198 *C. elegans* (Bohr et al., 2018; Couteau & Zetka, 2011). Because of this phenotype, we analyzed

199 HTP-3's relationship with PCH-2 in regulating pairing, synapsis, recombination, and meiotic

200 progression.

To test whether PCH-2 genetically interacts with HTP-3 to regulate pairing, we generated *pch-*

2;syp-1 double mutants, *htp-3^{H96Y};syp-1* double mutants*,* and *pch-2;htp-3^{H96Y};syp-1* triple

mutants and assessed pairing when compared with *syp-1* single mutants. SYP-1 is a central

element protein of the synaptonemal complex (SC) (MacQueen, Colaiacovo, McDonald, &

Villeneuve, 2002). *syp*-1 null mutants successfully undergo pairing despite the failure to load SC

components, particularly at specific loci called Pairing Centers (PCs) (MacQueen et al., 2002).

Therefore, these experiments allow us to analyze pairing independent of synapsis. We

performed immunofluorescence against the HIM-8 protein, which localizes to PCs on the X

chromosome (Phillips et al., 2005), to assess pairing at this locus throughout the germline: two

HIM-8 foci indicate the X-chromosomes are unpaired while a single HIM-8 focus indicates

paired X-chromosomes. Because meiotic nuclei are arranged in spatiotemporal gradient in

germlines, we divided the germline into six equivalently sized zones to perform a meiotic time-

course and determined the percentage of nuclei with a single HIM-8 focus in each zone (Figure

3A and 3B).

Similar to previous work (Deshong et al., 2014; Giacopazzi et al., 2020), we found that there is

an increase in percentage of nuclei with paired X chromosomes in zone 2 for *pch-2;syp-1*

double mutants (76%, Figure 3C) compared to *syp-1* single mutant controls (49%, Figure 3C),

showing that the rate of pairing is accelerated in the absence of *pch-2. htp-3^{H96Y};syp-1* double

mutants have a similar rate of pairing compared to *syp-1* single mutant controls (46%, Figure

3C), demonstrating that this mutation does not affect the rate of pairing. Interestingly, we found

that *pch-2;htp-3^{H96Y};syp-1* triple mutants have a similar rate of pairing compared to *syp-1* single

mutants and *htp-3^{H96Y};syp-1* double mutants (49%, Figure 3C), indicating that *htp-3^{H96Y}*

suppresses the acceleration of pairing observed in *pch-2* mutants.

Next, we tested for a genetic interaction between *pch-2* and *htp-3* during synapsis. We analyzed

the rate of synapsis in germlines from control, *pch-2* single mutants, *htp-3*^{H96Y} single mutants,

and *pch-2;htp-3*^{H96Y} double mutant worms by performing immunofluorescence against the axial

element HTP-3 (Goodyer et al., 2008; MacQueen et al., 2005) and the central element SYP-1

(MacQueen et al., 2002). We then determined the fraction of nuclei with complete synapsis in

each zone. Complete synapsis is visible as full co-localization of HTP-3 and SYP-1, whereas

nuclei with incomplete synapsis have stretches of HTP-3 without SYP-1 signal (arrowheads,

Figure 3D). Similar to previous data, we report that *pch-2* null mutants have an accelerated rate

of synapsis (61%, Figure 3E) compared to wildtype controls (33%, Figure 3E) in zone 2 and a

delay in desynapsis in zone 6 (Deshong et al., 2014; Giacopazzi et al., 2020) (Figure 3E). *htp-*

3^{H96Y} single mutants have a similar rate of synapsis compared to wildtype controls (36%, Figure

3E), suggesting that the rate of synapsis is unaffected in this background, and accelerated

desynapsis, as previously reported (Couteau & Zetka, 2011). Analogous to our pairing results,

we found that *pch-2;htp-3*^{H96Y} double mutants have a similar rate of synapsis compared to

wildtype controls and *htp-3*^{H96Y} single mutants (34%, Figure 3E), indicating that *htp-3*^{H96Y}

suppresses the acceleration of synapsis in *pch-2* mutants.

To further solidify that PCH-2 acts on HTP-3 to regulate synapsis, we analyzed synapsis in

meDf2 heterozygotes (*meDf2/+*). *meDf2* is a mutation in which PC regions are deleted from the

X chromosome (Villeneuve, 1994). Since PCs are essential for pairing and synapsis

(MacQueen et al., 2005), *meDf2* homozygotes fail to pair and synapse X chromosomes while

meDf2 heterozygotes behave like a partial loss of function mutation: ~50% of nuclei complete

synapsis of X chromosomes while the remaining 50% have unsynapsed X chromosomes

(MacQueen et al., 2005). In *pch-2;meDf2/+* worms, ~85% of nuclei complete synapsis,

demonstrating that PCH-2 normally inhibits synapsis when PC function is compromised

(Deshong et al., 2014).

To test whether *htp-3^H96Y* also suppressed the synapsis in *pch-2;meDf2*/+ worms, we generated

pch-2;htp-3^H96Y;meDf2/+ triple mutants and analyzed the rate of synapsis, comparing it to

controls. Similar to previous results, we found that 87% of nuclei in *pch-2;meDf2*/+ double

mutants achieve complete synapsis in zone 5 compared to 48% complete synapsis for *meDf2*/+

single mutant worms (Figure 3F). *htp-3^H96Y;meDf2*/+ worms have 52% of nuclei with complete

synapsis in zone 5, similar to *meDf2*/+ single mutants (Figure 3F). *pch-2;htp-3^H96Y;meDf2*/+

triple mutants show maximal levels of synapsis in zone 4 (36%, Figure 3F) and more closely

resemble the levels of synapsis observed in to *htp-3^H96Y;meDf2*/+ double and *meDf2*/+ single

mutants than *pch-2;meDf2*/+ double mutants. These data indicate that PCH-2's ability to inhibit

synapsis when PC function is compromised depends on the function of the HORMA domain of

HTP-3, similar to what we observed when PCs are fully functional (Figure 3E). To determine

whether these defects in synapsis produce chromosome segregation errors, we scored the

percent of male progeny in these strains. Male progeny, which are genotypically XO in contrast

to XX hermaphrodites, are diagnostic of misegregation of X chromosomes in meiosis. The

ability of *htp-3^H96Y* to suppress the synapsis of X chromosomes in *pch-2;meDf2*/+ was further

supported by the increase in male progeny observed in *pch-2;htp-3^H96Y;meDf2*/+ triple mutants

(10.84%, Table 1) in comparison to *pch-2;meDf2*/+ double mutants (0.83%, Table 1).

htp-3^H96Y exacerbates defects in DNA repair and crossover formation in *pch-2* mutants

We next tested whether PCH-2 regulates recombination through HTP-3 by assaying DNA repair

and crossover formation in *pch-2;htp-3^H96Y* double mutants. The rate of DNA repair is assessed

by quantifying the number of RAD-51 foci per nucleus throughout the germline (Figure 3G). The

appearance of RAD-51 foci on meiotic chromosomes is associated with the introduction of

double-strand breaks and their disappearance is associated with the entry of double-strand

breaks into repair pathways (Colaiacovo et al., 2003). RAD-51 numbers peak in zone 4 in

wildtype animals, increasing to an average of 2 per nuclei, and decrease as RAD-51 is removed

during DNA repair. *pch-2* single mutants have a lower average of RAD-51 foci per nucleus in

zones 4-6 (Figure 3H), consistent with previous findings that that *pch-2* mutants exhibit a faster

rate of DNA repair compared to wildtype controls (Deshong et al., 2014). *htp-3*[H96Y] single

mutants show a similar rate of DNA repair as wildtype germlines (Figure 3H), although the

average number of RAD-51 foci is slightly lower than wildtype (Couteau & Zetka, 2011). By

contrast, *pch-2;htp-3*[H96Y] double mutants not only show an accelerated rate of DNA repair,

similar to *pch-2* single mutants, they have a reduced average number of RAD-51 foci in zone 5

(0.75 foci, Figure 3H), showing that mutation of *htp-3* exacerbates the acceleration of DNA

repair in *pch-2* mutants. Because *htp-3*[H96Y] and *pch-2* mutants do not have reduced numbers of

double-stranded breaks (Couteau & Zetka, 2011; Deshong et al., 2014), these results reflect

changes in the rate of DNA repair. Further, this indicates that, in contrast to our findings for

pairing and synapsis, PCH-2 does not act through HTP-3 to regulate the rate of DNA repair.

Instead, both proteins regulate DNA repair independent of each other.

We previously reported that *pch-2;htp-3*[H96Y] double mutants exhibit more achiasmate

chromosomes than either single mutant (Deshong et al., 2014), indicating that the double

mutant has a more severe defect in meiotic crossover recombination than either single mutant

and consistent with our analysis of DNA repair (Figure 3H). To further verify this result on

crossover formation, we quantified the number of GFP::COSA-1 foci for each meiotic nucleus.

COSA-1 is a cyclin-like protein that localizes specifically to presumptive crossovers, serving as

a cytological marker for crossover formation (Yokoo et al., 2012). Because *C. elegans* contain 6

pairs of chromosomes and exhibit strong crossover interference, most wildtype nuclei have 6

GFP::COSA-1 foci per nucleus (Figure 3I) (Yokoo et al., 2012). Our findings also reflect this,

where we report only 3% of nuclei have less than 6 GFP::COSA-1 foci (Figure 3J). We also

found that the incidence of nuclei with less than 6 GFP::COSA-1 foci increases to 9% of nuclei

in *pch-2* single mutants (Figure 3J), recapitulating previous findings that *pch-2* mutants exhibit a

loss of crossover assurance (Deshong et al., 2014; Giacopazzi et al., 2020). *htp-3^{H96Y}* single

mutants also show an increase in the number of nuclei with less than 6 GFP::COSA-1

crossovers compared to wildtype (7%, Figure 3J), consistent with their checkpoint role (Couteau

& Zetka, 2011). Similar to our analysis of DNA repair, the number of nuclei with less than 6

GFP::COSA-1 foci in *pch-2;htp-3^{H96Y}* double mutants increases to 11% percent (Figure 3J),

showing an additive effect for crossover defects. These data illustrate that PCH-2 and HTP-3

work independently to regulate crossover formation.

Altogether, our analysis of pairing, synapsis and crossover recombination indicate that PCH-2

and HTP-3 act together to regulate pairing and synapsis but independently to regulate DNA

repair and crossover formation. More specifically, these data strongly support a model in which

PCH-2 acts through HTP-3's HORMA domain to control the rate of pairing and synapsis but not

the process of meiotic recombination.

htp-3^{H96Y} does not affect meiotic progression

In budding yeast, Pch2's remodeling of the meiotic HORMAD, Hop1, contributes to meiotic

progression (Raina & Vader, 2020a). Since *htp-3^{H96Y}* mutants genetically interact with *pch-2*

mutants in *C. elegans*, we also tested whether *htp-3^{H96Y}* mutants affected meiotic progression.

We assessed meiotic progression by performing immunofluorescence against a factor required

for double-strand break formation, DSB-1 (Figure S1A). DSB-1 localizes to meiotic

chromosomes to facilitate double-strand break formation (Stamper et al., 2013). In response to

meiotic defects, DSB-1 persists on chromosomes to maintain a period of competency for

double-strand break formation to promote crossover assurance (Stamper et al., 2013). We

quantified the fraction of meiotic nuclei that were positive for DSB-1 and could not detect any

difference between control and *htp-3^H96Y^* mutant germlines (Figure S1B), illustrating that this

mutation does not affect meiotic progression.

A null mutation in *htp-3* abolishes the delay in meiotic progression observed when there are

defects in synapsis, such as in *syp-1* mutants (Kim et al., 2015). To determine whether *htp-3^H96Y^*

affected meiotic progression in *syp-1* mutants, we quantified the fraction of DSB-1 positive

meiotic nuclei in both *syp-1* single mutants and *syp-1;htp-3^H96Y^* double mutants and could not

observe any difference between these genotypes (Figure S1C), indicating that *htp-3^H96Y^* does

not affect the extension of meiotic progression observed when there are meiotic defects.

*him-3^R93Y^* does not suppress the acceleration of pairing or synapsis in *pch-2* mutants

Our findings that PCH-2 acts on HTP-3 to promote pairing and synapsis, but not recombination,

indicates that PCH-2 regulates recombination through an HTP-3 independent mechanism.

Further, it is unclear whether PCH-2 regulates pairing and synapsis only through its interaction

with HTP-3 or whether other meiotic HORMADs also contribute to this regulation. To address

these possibilities, we next tested whether *pch-2* genetically interacts with similar mutations in

him-3 or *htp-1*, genes that encode the two other HORMADs essential for meiosis in *C. elegans*.

We performed a Clustal Omega alignment of HTP-3 with the other three meiotic HORMADs

(Sievers et al., 2011) and observed that the mutation in *htp-3^H96Y^* was not of a conserved

residue but was adjacent to two invariant residues in all four meiotic HORMADs (red box in

Figure 2B). Further, based on this alignment, the arginine at position 93 of HIM-3 should be

positioned similarly within the HORMA domain (Figures 2C and D). Using CRISPR/Cas9 gene

editing, we made a corresponding missense mutation to the *htp-3^H96Y^* allele in *him*-3, where

arginine 93 was replaced with a tyrosine (*him-3^R93Y^*). Indirect immunofluorescence verified that

this mutation did not affect HIM-3's localization to chromosomes (Figure S2), progeny viability or

the production of male progeny (Table 1).

First we analyzed pairing in *syp-1*, *pch-2;syp-1*, *him-3^{R93Y};syp-1*, and *pch-2;him-3^{R93Y};syp-1*

mutants by performing immunofluorescence against HIM-8 (Figure 4A and 4B). *him-3^{R93Y};syp-1*

double mutants show 44% of nuclei completed pairing in zone 2, similar to *syp-1* single mutants,

demonstrating that this mutation does not affect pairing (Figure 4B). In contrast to our analysis

of the *htp-3^{H96Y}* allele, we found that *pch-2;him-3^{R93Y};syp-1* triple mutants also show an

accelerated rate of pairing phenotype (63%, Figure 4B) similar to that of *pch-2;syp-1* double

mutants. Therefore, we detect no genetic interaction between *pch-2* and *him-3^{R93Y}* in affecting

the rate of pairing.

Next, we assessed the rate of synapsis in wildtype, *pch-2*, *him-3^{R93Y}*, and *pch-2;him-3^{R93Y}*

germlines by performing immunofluorescence against SYP-1 and HTP-3 (Figure 4C and 4D). In

both *pch-2* and *him-3^{R93Y}* single mutants, we found that there was an increase in the number of

nuclei that completed synapsis in zone 2 (13% for both, compared to the wildtype control of 3%,

Figure 4D), suggesting that synapsis is accelerated in both mutants. However, we found that

pch-2;him-3^{R93Y} double mutants display more severe synapsis defects than either single mutant:

the rate of synapsis is delayed throughout zones 2-5 and these double mutants reach only 87%

complete synapsis throughout the germline (Figure 4D). These results demonstrate that PCH-2

and HIM-3 regulate the progression of synapsis independent of each other.

Finally, we further assessed synapsis in *him-3^{R93Y}* and *pch-2;him-3^{R93Y}* mutants by scoring

synapsis in *meDf2* heterozygotes (*meDf2/+*). Consistent with a role in regulating synapsis, *him-*

3^{R93Y};meDf2/+ double mutants show a reduced rate of synapsis (Figure 4E) compared to

meDf2/+ controls (see zones 4 and 5). This effect was intermediate in *pch-2;him-3^{R93Y};meDf2/+*

triple mutant worms, providing further support that PCH-2 and HIM-3 both regulate synapsis but

accomplish this through independent mechanisms.

him-3^{R93Y} does not suppress DNA repair defects in pch-2 mutants

We next tested whether *pch-2* genetically interacts with *him-3^{R93Y}* during the regulation of DNA

repair by scoring RAD-51 foci in N2, *pch-2*, *him-3^{R93Y}* and *pch-2;him-3^{R93Y}* mutants (Figure 4F).

In *him-3^{R93Y}* single mutants, the average number of RAD-51 foci was higher in zone 3 than both

pch-2 and control germlines, suggesting a more rapid installation of RAD-51 and potentially

more double strand breaks. However, the rate of DNA repair was similar to wildtype (Figure

4G). *pch-2;him-3^{R93Y}* worms more closely resembled *him-3^{R93Y}* single mutants than *pch-2* single

mutants in zone 3 but was intermediate between *him-3^{R93Y}* and *pch-2* single mutants in zone 4

(Figure 4G), indicating that the accelerated rate of DNA repair observed in *pch-2* mutants is not

fully suppressed by the *him-3^{R93Y}* mutation and that these two factors do not act in the same

pathway to regulate DNA repair.

him-3^{R93Y} suppresses crossover recombination defects in pch-2 mutants

To analyze the effect of *him-3^{R93Y}* on crossover recombination, and test for a genetic interaction

with *pch-2* mutants, we scored GFP::COSA-1 foci in wildtype, *pch-2, him-3^{R93Y}* and *pch-2;him-*

3^{R93Y} mutant strains (Figure 4H). Similar to *pch-2* single mutants, we found that there was an

increase of nuclei with less than 6 GFP::COSA-1 foci in *him-3^{R93Y}* mutants compared to wildtype

controls (9%, Figure 4I), showing that mutation of this residue in HIM-3 causes a loss of

crossover assurance. In contrast to *pch-2;htp-3^{H96Y}* double mutants (Figure 3J), *pch-2;him-3^{R93Y}*

double mutants have a reduced number of nuclei with less than 6 foci compared to either single

mutant and more closely resembles the frequency observed in wildtype nuclei (5%, Figure 4I).

Therefore, *him-3^{R93Y}* suppresses the defect on crossover assurance observed in *pch-2* mutants.

We next visualized whether we could observe this genetic suppression later in meiotic

prophase, when chromosome pairs are linked by chiasmata. Wildtype *C. elegans* oocytes

contain 6 pairs of chromosomes or bivalents, and these can be visualized as 6 "DAPI stained

bodies". Defects in recombination produce homologs without chiasmata, or univalents, in

oocytes (arrows, Figure 4J). In our analysis of wildtype oocytes, we did not observe any

univalents (Figure 4K). Similar to our previous findings (Deshong et al., 2014), we found that

there was an increase in the percent of nuclei with univalents in *pch-2* single mutants compared

to wildtype controls (0.8%, Figure 4K), further demonstrating a loss of crossover assurance that

leads to achiasmate homolog pairs. Correlating with our GFP::COSA-1 analysis, *him-3^{R93Y}*

single mutants also have an increase in the number of oocytes containing univalents (1.3%,

Figure 4K), demonstrating that *him-3^{R93Y}* mutants also observe a loss of crossover assurance.

In *pch-2;him-3^{R93Y}* double mutants, we found no instances of univalents (Figure 4K), further

indicating that these two mutant alleles genetically suppress each other in the context of

crossover recombination.

Taken together, our results are consistent with a model in which PCH-2 acts through HIM-3 to

promote crossover recombination but not pairing or synapsis. Further, the roles of the two

meiotic HORMADs appear to be cleanly delegated, with PCH-2 controlling pairing and synapsis

through HTP-3 and crossover recombination through HIM-3. Since we do not observe a similar

genetic interaction when we analyze DNA repair in *pch-2;him-3^{R93Y}* double mutants, this

regulation of crossover recombination occurs later than the installation and removal of RAD-51.

him-3^{R93Y} does not affect meiotic progression

We next tested whether *him-3^{R93Y}* mutants affect meiotic progression by performing

immunofluorescence against DSB-1 and quantifying the fraction that were DSB-1 positive in

wildtype and *him-3^{R93Y}* mutant strains (Figure S3A). We found that there was not a significant

difference between the number of DSB-1 positive nuclei between wildtype and *him-3^{R93Y}* mutant

strains (Figure S3B), suggesting that this mutation does not affect meiotic progression.

We further tested whether the *him-3^{R93Y}* mutation affected meiotic progression by quantifying

the fraction of DSB-1 positive nuclei in *syp-1* and *him-3^{R93Y};syp-1* mutant strains. Similar to our

findings for *htp-3^{H96Y}*, we found that there was not a significant difference in the number of DSB-

1 positive nuclei between *syp-1* single mutant*s* and *him-3^{R93Y};syp-1* double mutants (Figure

S3C). This result further demonstrates that *him-3^{R93Y}* does not affect meiotic progression.

htp-1^{G97T} does not suppress the accelerated rate of pairing in *pch-2* mutants

Our findings suggest that PCH-2 acts through HTP-3 to promote pairing and synapsis, and HIM-

3 to promote crossover formation. We next wanted to test whether *pch-2* genetically interacts

with a similar mutation in *htp-1*, the gene that encodes the final essential meiotic HORMAD in *C.*

elegans.

Preliminary structural analysis of the HORMA domain of HTP-1 indicates that the glycine

residue that is analogous to the histidine and arginine residues of HTP-3 and HIM-3 (Figure 2B),

respectively, is positioned more internally within the HORMA domain (Figure 2E) and therefore

potentially more constrained in the mutations we can introduce at this site without affecting

HTP-1's stability. Indeed, when we replaced this glycine with a tyrosine by CRISPR/Cas9 gene

editing (*htp-1^{G97Y}*), this mutant phenotypically resembled the *htp-1(me84)* null allele (Martinez-

Perez & Villeneuve, 2005) in which this glycine residue is mutated to a glutamate, producing

very few viable progeny and a high incidence of male (HIM) phenotype. Given that the severity

of the *htp-1^{G97Y}* mutation would preclude our analysis of meiotic prophase events, we sought to

create a less severe hypomorphic allele of HTP-1 to test whether it genetically interacts with the

pch-2 null mutation.

To identify a mutation that would allow analysis of pairing, synapsis, recombination, and meiotic

progression, we used CRISPR/Cas9 to substitute glycine 97 with amino acids that progressively

add bulkier side chains at this position (*htp-1^{G97A}*, *htp-1^{G97S}, and htp-1^{G97T}*)*. Upon initial

examination of these strains, we observed a HIM phenotype associated with the *htp-1^{G97T}*

mutant strain (Table 1), suggesting that this mutation causes meiotic chromosome

misegregation. This HIM phenotype was accompanied by a reduction in embryonic viability

(Table 1). Therefore, we limited our analysis of testing genetic interactions with *pch-2* for

pairing, synapsis, and recombination to *htp-1^{G97T}* mutants. Indirect immunofluorescence showed

no difference in the loading of HTP-1 to meiotic chromosomes in *htp-1^{G97T}* mutants (Figure S4).

We first tested whether pairing is disrupted in this strain by performing immunofluorescence

against HIM-8 in *syp-1*, *pch-2;syp-1*, *htp-1^{G97T};syp-1* and *pch-2;htp-1^{G97T};syp-1* mutant germlines

(Figure 5A and 5B). In *htp-1^{G97T};syp-1* double mutants, the percent of nuclei that have

completed pairing in zone 2 is similar compared to *syp-1* single mutants (Figure 5B), indicating

that *htp-1^{G97T};syp-1* double mutants do not have a defect in the progression of pairing. *pch-

2;htp-1^{G97T};syp-1* triple mutants have a similar rate of pairing in zone 2 compared to *pch-2;syp-1*

double mutants (Figure 5B), showing that the *htp-1^{G97T}* mutation does not suppress the

acceleration of pairing observed in *pch-2* mutants.

htp-1^{G97T} causes severe synapsis defects that are not suppressed by mutation of *pch*-2

Next, we tested whether synapsis is perturbed in *htp-1^{G97T}* mutants and whether this allele

genetically interacts with the *pch-2* null allele (Figure 5C and 5D). Synapsis is severely

disrupted in *htp-1^{G97T}* mutants: despite some chromosomes completing synapsis (Figure 5D),

almost all meiotic nuclei have some number of unsynapsed chromosomes throughout the

germline, where only 1.3% of nuclei reach complete synapsis (Figure 5D). In *pch-2;htp-1^{G97T}*

double mutants, we find that synapsis is disrupted as severely as *htp-1^{G97T}* single mutants,

where 1.3% of nuclei also reach complete synapsis (Figure 5D), indicating that these alleles do

not genetically interact and regulate synapsis independent of each other.

htp-1^{G97T} leads to a delay in RAD-51 removal that is not suppressed by mutation of *pch-2*

Next, we assessed the progress of DNA repair in *htp-1^{G97T}* and *pch-2;htp-1^{G97T}* mutants by

scoring RAD-51 foci throughout the germline (Figure 5E and 5F). In comparison to control

germlines, *htp-1^{G97T}* single mutants exhibit a delay in the installation of RAD-51 foci (Figure 5F).

However, as meiotic prophase continues, meiotic nuclei in *htp-1^{G97T}* single mutants have more

RAD-51 foci and substantially delay their removal, possibly as an indirect consequence of the

defects in synapsis we observe in this mutant (Figure 5D). *pch-2;htp-1^{G97T}* double mutants no

longer exhibit this delay in RAD-51 installation, suggesting a partial suppression of this

particular phenotype, but display more RAD-51 foci, particularly in zones 4 and 5, than wildtype

meiotic nuclei and *pch-2* single mutants, similar to *htp-1^{G97T}* single mutants. Thus, PCH-2 and

HTP-1 do not appear to genetically interact to regulate the rate of DNA repair.

htp-1^{G97T} causes defects in crossover recombination that are not suppressed by *pch-2*

mutations

To continue our analysis, we analyzed crossover recombination by scoring the number of

GFP::COSA-1 foci per nucleus in wildtype, *pch-2*, *htp-1^{G97T}*, and *pch-2;htp-1^{G97T}* mutants

(Figure 5G and 5H). Surprisingly, we found that in *htp-1^{G97T}* single mutants, the number of

COSA-1 foci varies greatly across nuclei, ranging from 4 to 9, with only 39% of nuclei have 6

GFP::COSA-1 foci (Figure 5H), suggesting that the *htp-1^G97T* mutation causes misregulation of

crossover formation. We attribute this loss of crossover assurance to the synapsis defects we

observe in *htp-1^G97T* mutants (Figure 5D). In *pch-2;htp-1^G97T* double mutants, we observe a

similar phenotype where the number of GFP::COSA-1 varies across nuclei, ranging from 4 to 9,

with only 45% having 6 COSA-1 foci (Figure 5H). Overall, these data indicate that PCH-2 and

HTP-1 do not genetically interact to regulate crossover recombination.

We further analyzed crossover formation by looking directly at bivalents in oocytes and

quantified the frequency of univalents in wildtype, *pch-2*, *htp-1^G97T*, and *pch-2;htp-1^G97T* mutants

(Figure 5I and 5J). In *htp-1^G97T* single mutants, we found that the frequency of univalents

significantly increases to 41% (Figure 5J), further verifying the defect in crossover formation in

htp-1^G97T single mutants. For *pch-2;htp-1^G97T* double mutants, we also found that the frequency

of univalents is statistically higher compared to wildtype oocytes but not significantly different

when compared to *htp-1^G97T* single mutants (31%, Figure 5J). Taken together, this suggests that

both *pch-2* and *htp-1* both promote crossover assurance but regulate it through different

mechanisms.

<u>*htp-1^G97T* delays meiotic progression and this delay is partially suppressed by mutation of *pch-2*</u>

The absence of HTP-1 accelerates meiotic progression, producing non-homologous synapsis

and more rapid DNA repair (Martinez-Perez & Villeneuve, 2005). In contrast, mutations within

the HORMA domain of HTP-1 that prevent its loading on meiotic chromosomes cause a delay in

meiotic progression, producing asynapsis (Silva et al., 2014). We tested whether *htp-1^G97T*

mutations similarly affect meiotic progression by performing immunostaining against DSB-1.

We quantified the fraction of DSB-1 positive meiotic nuclei in wildtype and *htp-1^{G97T}* mutant

germlines (Figure 6A). We found that *htp-1^{G97T}* mutants display a statistically significant increase

in the fraction of DSB-1 positive nuclei (81%, Figure 6B), suggesting that this mutation produces

a delay in meiotic progression. Since DSB-1 is required for double strand break formation, the

extension of DSB-1 likely explains the increase in RAD-51 foci (Figure 5F) and the loss of

crossover interference (Figure 5H) in *htp-1^{G97T}* mutants. Given the severity of this phenotype,

we wondered if the less severe mutations we generated, *htp-1^{G97A}* and *htp-1^{G97S}* mutants, might

also affect meiotic progression, albeit more weakly (Figure 6A). While *htp-1^{G97A}* mutants did not

affect the fraction of DSB-1 positive nuclei, *htp-1^{G97S}* mutants produced a small but statistically

significant delay in meiotic progression (63% DSB-1 positive nuclei, Figure 6B), indicating that

the introduction of bulkier amino acids at this residue produces an allelic series with respect to

defects in meiotic progression.

We next tested whether this defect in meiotic progression in *htp-1^{G97T}* single mutants is

suppressed by the *pch-2* mutation. We found that the percent of DSB-1stained nuclei is slightly

but significantly lower in *pch-2*;*htp-1^{G97T}* double mutants (77%, Figure 6B) compared to *htp-1^{G97T}*

single mutants (Figure 6B), indicating that the meiotic progression defect in *htp-1^{G97T}* mutants is

partially suppressed by mutations in *pch-2* and that these two proteins cooperate to regulate

meiotic progression.

him-3^{R93Y} mutants maintain the structure of the HORMA domain but have reduced affinity for

closure motifs

Our data thus far demonstrates that *pch-2* genetically interacts with specific alleles of *htp-3*,

him-3 and *htp-1*, with varying effects on pairing, synapsis, recombination and meiotic

progression. However, how these genetic interactions translate into a molecular understanding

of the functional relationship between PCH-2 and these meiotic HORMADs is unclear. To

address this, we tested what effect these mutations had on the ability of meiotic HORMADs to

bind their closure motifs and adopt the closed conformation.

While the closure motif for HTP-3 is unknown, HIM-3 is known to bind closure motifs found

within the C-terminal tail of HTP-3 (Kim et al., 2014b). We cloned and expressed wildtype HIM-3

and HIM-3^{R93Y} in *E. coli*, purified each protein, and performed a fluorescence polarization

peptide binding assay to test how well HIM-3^{R93Y} binds this closure motif peptide *in vitro*. We

found that wildtype HIM-3 binds its closure motif with a K_d of 220 +/- 20 nM and found that it

does not bind to scramble motif controls (Figure 7A). However, HIM-3^{R93Y} binds to the same

closure motif with an increased K_d of 690 +/- 130 nM, indicating that HIM-3^{R93Y} binds its closure

motif with reduced affinity compared to wildtype HIM-3 (Figure 7A). Additionally, we found the

stability of these two proteins to be similar (Figure S5) and the structure of the HIM-3^{R93Y}

HORMA domain to be similar to that of wildtype HIM-3 (Figure 2D), suggesting that reduced

affinity for the closure motif for HIM-3^{R93Y} is not due to instability of the protein or an inability to

adopt the closed conformation. These results demonstrate that HIM-3^{R93Y} cannot bind its

closure motif as readily as wildtype HIM-3, limiting its ability to adopt the closed conformation *in*

vivo (Figure 7B). Because this residue is positioned similarly within all three-essential meiotic

HORMADs (Figure 2B), our biochemical analysis of HIM-3^{R93Y} may be generalizable to the

mutant versions of HTP-3 and HTP-1: HTP-3^{H96Y} and HTP-1^{G97T} likely bind their respective

closure motifs with less affinity and preferentially reside in an unlocked or unbuckled

conformation *in vivo*.

When combined with the localization of PCH-2 by structured illumination microscopy (Figure 1)

and our genetic and cytological analysis (Figures 3-6) of how these mutant alleles suppress

some defects observed in *pch-2* mutants, these data are entirely consistent with PCH-2

remodeling meiotic HORMADs from a closed to unlocked conformation on meiotic

chromosomes to control the progress of pairing, synapsis, meiotic recombination and cell cycle

progression.

<u>Discussion</u>

Since the identification of Pch2 in budding yeast more than 20 years ago (San-Segundo &

Roeder, 1999), the particular role of PCH-2 during meiosis has been enigmatic. More recently,

biochemical and structural analysis of PCH-2's ability to remodel HORMADs (Alfieri et al., 2018;

Clairmont et al., 2020; Ye et al., 2017; Ye et al., 2015) has provided a useful framework to

imagine PCH-2's role in meiosis, particularly given the essential role closed conformations of

meiotic HORMADs play in structuring chromosomes for homolog pairing, synapsis and

recombination and signaling meiotic progression (Kim et al., 2014b). However, despite this

framework, important questions remain unanswered: Since PCH-2 is present on meiotic

chromosomes prior to synapsis and not all systems remove meiotic HORMADs in response to

synapsis: 1) Are there biological consequences for remodeling meiotic HORMADs aside from

regulating meiotic progression and shuttling meiotic HORMADs into the nucleus? 2) Are

unbuckled or unlocked versions of meiotic HORMADs functionally inert, similar to open Mad2,

or do they have some biological relevance *in vivo*? 3) In systems with multiple meiotic

HORMADs, do these meiotic HORMADs carry out different functions, at least in the context of

regulation by PCH-2?

Our experiments from this study in *C. elegans* answer many of these questions. We previously

showed that a null mutation of *pch-2* accelerates the rates of pairing, synapsis and meiotic

recombination, leading to a loss of meiotic fidelity (Deshong et al., 2014). Our identification of

mutations in the HORMA domains of both HTP-3 and HIM-3 (Figure 2A) that suppress these

defects is consistent with a model in which PCH-2 controls the rate of pairing, synapsis and

meiotic recombination through an interaction with these domains in HTP-3 and HIM-3 on meiotic

chromosomes. For HTP-3, this regulation likely happens prior to synapsis when PCH-2 is

present as foci on meiotic chromosomes. For HIM-3, this regulation happens when PCH-2 is on

the synaptonemal complex, temporally overlapping with when chromosomes are competent for

meiotic recombination (Deshong et al., 2014). When combined with the biochemical analysis

that these mutations reduce the affinity of these proteins for their closure motifs (Figure 7),

limiting their ability to adopt the closed conformation, the model becomes even more precise:

PCH-2's remodeling of the HORMA domains of HTP-3 and HIM-3 from closed to unlocked

decelerates the events of pairing, synapsis and recombination, destabilizing and proofreading

them for meiotic fidelity (Giacopazzi et al., 2020). Given that adoption of the closed

conformation by HORMADs often reveals a dimerization motif (Rosenberg & Corbett, 2015), a

very attractive but speculative extension to this model is that PCH-2's remodeling of meiotic

HORMADs from closed to unbuckled destabilizes protein interactions essential for the events of

inter-homolog pairing, synapsis and recombination, deliberately slowing their progress.

Is this deceleration and proofreading of pairing, synapsis and crossover recombination by PCH-

2 conserved in other systems, primarily those that deplete meiotic HORMADs during synapsis?

We think so. First, PCH-2's orthologs localize to sites associated with synapsis initiation and

recombination in budding yeast and plants (Joshi et al., 2009; Lambing et al., 2015), suggesting

a role at these sites. Further, despite PCH-2's depletion or redistribution of meiotic HORMADs

from chromosomes upon synapsis in some systems, meiotic HORMADs are not completely

removed (Borner et al., 2008; Cuacos et al., 2021; Lambing et al., 2015; Wojtasz et al., 2009),

suggesting roles for both meiotic HORMADs and PCH-2 even when chromosomes are

synapsed. Given that the gradual implementation of crossover formation partially overlaps with

when chromosomes are synapsed in budding yeast, plants and mice (Capilla-Perez et al., 2021;

Cole et al., 2012; Joshi, Brown, Bishop, & Borner, 2015; Morgan et al., 2021), we propose that

PCH-2's presence on synapsed chromosomes contributes to controlling the number and

location of crossovers, as observed in *C. elegans* (Deshong et al., 2014).

The relationship between PCH-2 and HTP-1 is less clear. Despite the small structural

differences between HIM-3 and HTP-1 (Figure 2E) that required some adjustments in how we

designed our mutational analysis of HTP-1, we predict that HTP-1^{G97T} also shows a reduced

affinity for its closure motifs in both HTP-3 and HIM-3, preferentially residing in its unbuckled

conformation. The consequences of this difference in protein function are a significant delay in

meiotic progression (Figure 6B) and defects in synapsis, DNA repair and crossover

recombination (Figure 5D, 5F, & 5H). Since previous data had implicated HTP-1 in controlling

meiotic progression, with indirect effects on synapsis, DNA repair and crossover recombination

(Martinez-Perez & Villeneuve, 2005; Silva et al., 2014), we favor the interpretation that the

primary defect in *htp-1^{G97T}* mutants is the delay in meiotic progression, with secondary, indirect

consequences for synapsis and recombination. Mutation of *pch-2* partially suppresses this

defect in meiotic progression (Figure 6B), with little effect on synapsis or recombination (Figure

5D & 5H), supporting our interpretation. How might a delay in meiotic progression prevent

complete synapsis or the normal completion of recombination? This meiotic delay might

maintain a cell cycle state in which the synaptonemal complex and/or recombination

intermediates are more labile and subject to turnover, through mechanisms such as post-

translational modifications, high chromosome mobility, some other unknown condition or some

combination of these conditions. Finally, if we are correct and the increase in unlocked HTP-

1^{G97T} is responsible for a meiotic delay, with indirect consequences on synapsis and

recombination, our data also suggest that unbuckled or unlocked versions of these proteins may

not be functionally inert, unlike open Mad2.

That mutation of *pch-2* only weakly suppresses the delay in meiotic progression we observe in

htp-1^{G97T} mutants raises two possibilities: 1) the *htp-1^{G97T}* mutation is too severe to allow us to

observe this genetic interaction; or 2) PCH-2 does not directly act on HTP-1 to regulate meiotic

progression. How might PCH-2 contribute to the regulation of meiotic progression without

directly remodeling HTP-1? Since both HTP-3 and HIM-3 have HTP-1 closure motifs in their C-

termini (Kim et al., 2014b), PCH-2's remodeling of HTP-3 and HIM-3 may indirectly result in the

removal, and remodeling, of HTP-1, contributing to the regulation of meiotic progression. This

possibility is particularly attractive since it explicitly coordinates meiotic progression with the rate

of pairing, synapsis and recombination.

Finally, our work shows that PCH-2's regulation of pairing, synapsis, recombination and meiotic

progression are cleanly delegated to the remodeling of different meiotic HORMADs: PCH-2

remodels HTP-3 from a closed to an unlocked conformation to decelerate pairing and synapsis,

HIM-3 to decelerate crossover recombination and HTP-1, either directly or indirectly, to control

meiotic progression. This deceleration allows for proofreading of the homolog interactions that

underlie these events and ensure fidelity (Giacopazzi et al., 2020). Similar separation of function

has been observed in plants and mice: each have two meiotic HORMADs, only one of which

(HORMAD1 in mice, ASY1 in plants), appears to be essential for pairing, synapsis and

recombination (Caryl et al., 2000; Daniel et al., 2011; Kogo, Tsutsumi, Ohye, et al., 2012; Shin

et al., 2010; Shin, McGuire, & Rajkovic, 2013). In the case of mice, a second HORMAD,

HORMAD2, is not required for pairing, synapsis or recombination but is essential for efficient

meiotic checkpoint responses (Kogo, Tsutsumi, Inagaki, et al., 2012; Wojtasz et al., 2012). In

plants, no role for ASY2 has been reported yet. The separation of function we observe in *C.*

elegans is slightly different: The three essential meiotic HORMADs have overlapping but distinct

roles that nonetheless significantly impact pairing, synapsis and recombination (Couteau et al.,

2004; Couteau & Zetka, 2005; Goodyer et al., 2008; Kim et al., 2014b; Martinez-Perez et al.,

2008; Martinez-Perez & Villeneuve, 2005). However, it is through their regulation by PCH-2 that

their distinct roles become more clear, allowing for the coordination of pairing, synapsis,

recombination and meiotic progression. This delegation of tasks, as revealed by their regulation

by PCH-2, may also explain why this family has expanded so dramatically in *C. elegans*.

Another possible contributing factor to the expansion of this family in *C. elegans* is the

mechanistic uncoupling of meiotic recombination with synapsis. Mice, budding yeast and plants

all rely on the initiation of meiotic recombination (Baudat, Manova, Yuen, Jasin, & Keeney,

2000; Giroux, Dresser, & Tiano, 1989; Grelon, Vezon, Gendrot, & Pelletier, 2001; Romanienko

& Camerini-Otero, 2000) to promote accurate synapsis. Similarly, all of these organisms have a

single essential meiotic HORMAD controlling pairing, synapsis and recombination (Caryl et al.,

2000; Daniel et al., 2011; Hollingsworth et al., 1990), suggesting a possible connection between

these observations. In contrast to these systems, *C. elegans* does not rely on meiotic

recombination for accurate chromosome synapsis (Dernburg et al., 1998), suggesting that the

family of meiotic HORMADs may have expanded to accommodate the fact that synapsis and

recombination are regulated by two different mechanisms in this system.

While *C. elegans* is unique in that it has four meiotic HORMADs, three of which are essential,

it's formally possible that other systems also have different functional classes of meiotic

HORMADs, even when they have a single meiotic HORMAD in their genome. For example, in

budding yeast, Hop1 can bind directly to nucleosomal DNA (Heldrich et al., 2022), a closure

motif in the axis protein Red1 and closure motifs in Hop1 once it's bound to Red1, producing

oligomerization (West et al., 2017). These three different classes of Hop1, potentially defined by

the molecular nature of their binding to meiotic chromosomes, may have different effects on the

events of meiotic prophase, particularly in terms of their regulation by Pch2, producing a similar

delegation of functions as we observe with HTP-3, HIM-3 and HTP-1.

Our data shows that the remodeling of meiotic HORMADs by PCH-2 have consequences on the

progress, coordination and fidelity of meiotic prophase events. Major questions that arise from

this work is how these meiotic HORMADs contribute to the events of pairing, synapsis and

crossover recombination? How does HTP-3 molecularly participate in pairing and synapsis?

How does HIM-3 promote crossover recombination? And how does HTP-1 control meiotic

progression? Future studies focused on understanding how meiotic HORMADs molecularly

interact with each other, other axis proteins, and/or additional binding partners will shed new

light on how meiotic HORMADs, in collaboration with PCH-2, drive the coordination of meiotic

prophase events to promote fidelity and prevent aneuploidy.

<u>Materials and Methods</u>

Genetics, Worm strains

The C. *elegans* Bristol N2 strain was used as the wildtype strain throughout this study.

The *him-3^{R93Y}, htp-1^{G97A}, htp-1^{G97S}, and htp-1^{G97T}* alleles were generated by CRISPR-Cas9

genome editing supplemented with the *dpy-10* co-conversion method (Arribere et al., 2014).

The following guide RNA sequences were used:

dpy-10 sgRNA: 5'GCU ACC AUA GGC ACC ACG AGG UUU UAG AGC UAU GCU 3'

him-3 sgRNA: 5'CGU GUG UCU UCA ACA UUC GAG UUU UAG AGC UAU GCU 3'

htp-1 sgRNA: 5' UCA ACU ACU UCG AAA UGC UGG UUU UAG AGC UAU GCU 3'

The following DNA repair oligonucleotide sequences were used:

dpy-10: 5' CAC TTG AAC TTC AAT ACG GCA AGA TGA GAA TGA CTG GAA ACC GTA CCG

CAT GCG GTG CCT ATG GTA GCG GAG CTT CAC ATG GCT TCA GAC CAA CAG CCT AT

3'

him-3^{R93Y}: 5' GCA TTC CAG AGC AGT GTT CCT GCC GCA AAG CGT GTG TCT TCA ACA

TTT GAC GGA TTG TAC GAT GCG ATT CAA CAA GGC TAT TTG CGA GAG TTC GCA ATC

GTG TTC TAC AAG 3'

htp-1^{G97A}: 5' GCT TCA GAA ACC CAC GGT CTA ACC AAA TCG CTC AAC TAC TTC GAA

ATG CTG CTG ATG CAA CAA AGG ATG GGT TTC TGA AAG AAG TCT CCC TCG TGA TCA

CAA ATA ATG 3'

htp-1^{G97S}: 5' GCT TCA GAA ACC CAC GGT CTA ACC AAA TCG CTC AAC TAC TTC GAA

ATG CTT CAG ATG CAA CAA AGG ATG GGT TTC TGA AAG AAG TCT CCC TCG TGA TCA

CAA ATA ATG 3'

htp-1 ^{G97T}: 5' 5' GCT TCA GAA ACC CAC GGT CTA ACC AAA TCG CTC AAC TAC TTC GAA

ATG CTA CAG ATG CAA CAA AGG ATG GGT TTC TGA AAG AAG TCT CCC TCG TGA TCA

CAA ATA ATG 3'

For CRISPR/Cs9 gene editing, all mutations were made in the N2 wildtype strain. sgRNAs and

oligo repair templates were synthesized by Integrated DNA technologies (IDT, Coraville, IA)

Injection mixes contained either *htp-1* or *him-3* sgRNA (100 μM final), *dpy-10* sgRNA (100 μM

final, (Arribere et al., 2014)), tracrRNA (100 μM final, IDT), purified Cas9 protein (40 μM final),

htp-3 or *him-3* DNA repair oligo (50 μM final, IDT) and *dpy-10* repair oligo (50 μM final, IDT,

(Arribere et al., 2014)). Young adults were injected, recovered and stored at either 15 or 20

degrees. Roller or *dpy* F1's were singled to individual plates seeded with OP50 and screened

for presence of the mutant allele by PCR and BspHI restriction digest (*htp-1)* or RsaI restriction

digest (*him-3*). Individual F2's were then isolated from F1 plates that contained the allele to

identify a homozygous strain.

All mutations were verified by sequencing and strains were backcrossed against wildtype worms

three times.

Immunofluorescence, Antibodies and Microscopy

Day 1 adult hermaphrodites were dissected 24-28 hours post-late L4 stage and immunostaining

and DAPI staining were performed similarly to (Bhalla & Dernburg, 2005). For analyzing

bivalents, hermaphrodites were dissected and DAPI stained 48 hours post late L4 stage.

The following primary antibodies were used for this study: rat anti-HIM-8 1:500 (Phillips et al.,

2005), guinea pig anti-HTP-3 1:250 (MacQueen et al., 2005), chicken anti-HTP-3 1:250

(MacQueen et al., 2005), rabbit anti-SYP-1 1:500 (MacQueen et al., 2002), guinea pig anti-SYP-

1 1:500 (MacQueen et al., 2002), rabbit anti-HTP-1 1:400 (Martinez-Perez et al., 2008), rabbit

anti-RAD-51 1:250 (Novus Biologicals, Littleton, CO), guinea pig anti-DSB-1 1:250 (Stamper et

al., 2013), mouse anti-GFP 1:100 (Invitrogen, Waltham, MA) and rabbit anti-PCH-2 1:500

(Deshong et al., 2014).

The following secondaries were used for this study: Alexa 488 anti-guinea pig (Invitrogen),

Alexa 488 anti-rabbit (Invitrogen), Alexa 488 anti-mouse (Invitrogen), Cy3 anti-rabbit (Jackson

Immunochemicals, West Grove, PA), Cy3 anti-rat (Jackson Immunochemicals), Cy3 anti-guinea

pig (Jackson Immunochemicals), and Cy5 anti-chicken (Jackson Immunochemicals). All

secondary antibodies were used at a 1:500 dilution.

To visualize meiotic nuclei and bivalents, DAPI was used at a dilution of 1:10,000.

All images except for those in Figure 10 were acquired using a DeltaVision Personal DV system

(Applied Precision) equipped with a 100X N.A. 1.40 oil-immersion objective (Olympus), resulting

in an effective XY pixel spacing of 0.064 or 0.040 μm. Three-dimensional image stacks were

collected at 0.2-μm Z-spacing and processed by constrained, iterative deconvolution. For

structured Illumination microscopy, images were obtained as 125 nm spaced Z stacks, using a

100x NA 1.40 objective on a DeltaVison OMX Blaze microscopy system, 3D-reconstructed and

corrected for registration using SoftWoRx. Image scaling and analysis were performed using

functions in the softWoRx software package. Projections were calculated by a maximum

intensity algorithm. Composite images were assembled and some false coloring was performed

with ImageJ.

Whole germline images were assembled in ImageJ as in (Toraason et al., 2021) using pairwise

stitching and/or grid collection stitching (Preibisch, Saalfeld, & Tomancak, 2009).

Quantification of pairing, synapsis, RAD-51 foci, GFP::COSA-1 foci, and DSB-1 positive nuclei

was performed as in (Giacopazzi et al., 2020) with a minimum of three germlines per genotype.

To determine statistical significance between genotypes, Fisher's exact tests were performed.

Protein Expression and Purification

The full-length HIM-3 gene (residues 2-291) was PCR-amplified from a *C. elegans* cDNA library

and cloned into UC Berkeley Macrolab vector 2-CT (Addgene #29706), which encodes a TEV

protease-cleavable His_6-MBP (maltose binding protein) tag. PCR-based mutagenesis was used

to generate the R93Y mutant construct. Proteins were expressed in *E. coli* strain Rosetta2

pLysS (EMD Millipore) at 20°C for 16 hours, then harvested by centrifugation. Proteins were

purified using Ni^{2+} affinity chromatography (HisTrap HP, Cytiva), followed by TEV protease

treatment (Tropea, Cherry, & Waugh, 2009) for 48 hours. The cleaved mixture was passed

through Ni^{2+} affinity resin a second time to remove uncleaved protein, free His_6-MBP tags, and

His_6-tagged TEV protease, and the flow-through was concentrated and further purified by size

exclusion chromatography (Superdex 200; Cytiva). Fractions were concentrated by ultrafiltration

(Amicon Ultra, EMD Millipore), aliquoted, and stored at -80°C.

Fluorescence polarization binding assays

N-terminal FITC-Ahx labeled peptides were synthesized (BioMatik), resuspended in DMSO,

then diluted into binding buffer (20 mM Tris pH 7.5, 300 mM NaCl, 10% glycerol, 1 mM DTT,

0.1% NP-40). Fifty µL reactions containing 50 nM peptide plus indicated amounts of HIM-3 (WT

or R93Y) protein were incubated 60 minutes at room temperature, then fluorescence

polarization was read in 384-well plates using a TECAN Infinite M1000 PRO fluorescence plate

reader. All binding curves were done in triplicate. Binding data were analyzed with Graphpad

Prism v. 8 using a single-site binding model.

ThermoFluor assays

For protein stability measurement by ThermoFluor assay, purified proteins were diluted to 0.1

mg/mL in a buffer containing 20 mM Tris-HCl pH 7.5, 300 mM NaCl, 10% glycerol, and 1 mM

DTT. 0.5 µL of SPYRO Orange dye (5,000X concentrate; Thermo Fisher Scientific #S6650) was

mixed with 49.5 µL protein solution, and the mixture was sealed in an optically clear PCR plate.

In a Bio-Rad CFX Connect real-time PCR system, fluorescence was measured in scan mode

"FRET" during a 25°-99° temperature ramp (0.5° intervals, 30 second hold per interval). For

analysis, the change in fluorescence per step was plotted against temperature, and the peak of

this plot (the representing the inflection point in the upward slope of the raw fluorescence curve)

was taken as the melting temperature (Tm).

Protein crystallization and structure determination

For crystallization, HIM-3(R93Y) was concentrated to 15-20 mg/mL in crystallization buffer (20

mM HEPES pH 7.5, 100 mM NaCl, 1 mM DTT) and mixed 1:1 with well solution containing 1.4-

1.6 M sodium malonate pH 6.5-7.0. Large crystals grown over the course of two weeks were

cryoprotected in 2.5 M (total) sodium malonate and flash-frozen in liquid nitrogen. Diffraction

data were collected at the Advanced Light source beamline 8.3.1 (support statement below).

Data were indexed and reduced with XDS (Kabsch, 2010), scaled with AIMLESS (Evans &

Murshudov, 2013), and converted to structure factors with TRUNCATE (Winn et al., 2011)

(**Table S1**). The structure was determined by molecular replacement in PHASER using the

structure of HIM-3 (PDB ID 4TRK) (Kim et al., 2014a) as a search model. An initial model was

rebuilt in COOT (Emsley, Lohkamp, Scott, & Cowtan, 2010) and refined in phenix.refine (Adams

et al., 2010) using positional and individual B-factor (anisotropic for protein atoms, isotropic for

water molecules) refinement with riding hydrogens. Structure figures were generated in PyMOL

version 2.0 (Schrödinger, LLC).

ALS Beamline 8.3.1 support statement

The Berkeley Center for Structural Biology is supported in part by the Howard Hughes Medical

Institute. The Advanced Light Source is a Department of Energy Office of Science User Facility

under Contract No. DE-AC02-05CH11231. The Pilatus detector on 5.0.1. was funded under NIH

grant S10OD021832. The ALS-ENABLE beamlines are supported in part by the National

Institutes of Health, National Institute of General Medical Sciences, grant P30 GM124169.

Author contributions:

A.E.R., S.G., A.D., K.D.C., and N.B. designed the experiments. A.E.R., S.G., A.D., M.M., V.O.,

and K.E. performed the experiments. A.E.R., S.G., A.D., M.M., V.O., K.E., K.D.C., and N.B.

analyzed the data. A.E.R and N.B. wrote the initial draft of the manuscript and A.E.R., S.G.,

A.D., M.M., V.O., K.E., K.D.C., and N.B. revised the manuscript. K.D.C., and N.B. acquired

funding.

Acknowledgements:

We would like to thank Abby Dernburg, Monique Zetka and Anne Villeneuve for valuable strains

and reagents. We would also like to thank the members of the Bhalla lab as well as Brandt

Warecki and Alice Devigne for careful review of the manuscript. This work was supported by the

NIH (grant number R35GM141835 [N.B.], T32GM008646 [A.E.R] and R35GM144121 [K.D.C.]).

Some strains were provided by the CGC, which is funded by NIH Office of Research

Infrastructure Programs (P40 OD010440).

References:

Adams, P. D., Afonine, P. V., Bunkóczi, G., Chen, V. B., Davis, I. W., Echols, N., . . . Zwart, P.

H. (2010). PHENIX: a comprehensive Python-based system for macromolecular

structure solution. *Acta crystallographica Section D, Biological crystallography, 66*, 213-

221. doi:10.1107/S0907444909052925

Alfieri, C., Chang, L., & Barford, D. (2018). Mechanism for remodelling of the cell cycle

checkpoint protein MAD2 by the ATPase TRIP13. *Nature, 559*(7713), 274-278.

doi:10.1038/s41586-018-0281-1

Aravind, L., & Koonin, E. V. (1998). The HORMA domain: a common structural denominator in

mitotic checkpoints, chromosome synapsis and DNA repair. *Trends Biochem Sci, 23*(8),

284-286. Retrieved from https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/9757827

Arribere, J. A., Bell, R. T., Fu, B. X., Artiles, K. L., Hartman, P. S., & Fire, A. Z. (2014). Efficient

marker-free recovery of custom genetic modifications with CRISPR/Cas9 in

Caenorhabditis elegans. *Genetics, 198*(3), 837-846. doi:10.1534/genetics.114.169730

Baudat, F., Manova, K., Yuen, J. P., Jasin, M., & Keeney, S. (2000). Chromosome synapsis

defects and sexually dimorphic meiotic progression in mice lacking Spo11. *Mol Cell,*

6(5), 989-998. Retrieved from https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/11106739

Bhalla, N., & Dernburg, A. F. (2005). A conserved checkpoint monitors meiotic chromosome

synapsis in Caenorhabditis elegans. *Science, 310*(5754), 1683-1686.

doi:10.1126/science.1117468

Bohr, T., Nelson, C. R., Giacopazzi, S., Lamelza, P., & Bhalla, N. (2018). Shugoshin Is

Essential for Meiotic Prophase Checkpoints in C. elegans. *Curr Biol, 28*(20), 3199-

3211.e3193. doi:10.1016/j.cub.2018.08.026

Borner, G. V., Barot, A., & Kleckner, N. (2008). Yeast Pch2 promotes domainal axis

organization, timely recombination progression, and arrest of defective recombinosomes

during meiosis. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A, 105*(9), 3327-3332.

doi:10.1073/pnas.0711864105

Capilla-Perez, L., Durand, S., Hurel, A., Lian, Q., Chambon, A., Taochy, C., . . . Mercier, R.

(2021). The synaptonemal complex imposes crossover interference and heterochiasmy

in Arabidopsis. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A, 118*(12). doi:10.1073/pnas.2023613118

Carlton, P. M. (2008). Three-dimensional structured illumination microscopy and its application

to chromosome structure. *Chromosome Res, 16*(3), 351-365. doi:10.1007/s10577-008-

1231-9

Caryl, A. P., Armstrong, S. J., Jones, G. H., & Franklin, F. C. (2000). A homologue of the yeast

HOP1 gene is inactivated in the Arabidopsis meiotic mutant asy1. *Chromosoma, 109*(1-

2), 62-71. doi:10.1007/s004120050413

Chen, C., Jomaa, A., Ortega, J., & Alani, E. E. (2014). Pch2 is a hexameric ring ATPase that

remodels the chromosome axis protein Hop1. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A, 111*(1), E44-53.

doi:10.1073/pnas.1310755111

Clairmont, C. S., Sarangi, P., Ponnienselvan, K., Galli, L. D., Csete, I., Moreau, L., . . .

D'Andrea, A. D. (2020). TRIP13 regulates DNA repair pathway choice through REV7

conformational change. *Nat Cell Biol, 22*(1), 87-96. doi:10.1038/s41556-019-0442-y

Colaiacovo, M. P., MacQueen, A. J., Martinez-Perez, E., McDonald, K., Adamo, A., La Volpe,

A., & Villeneuve, A. M. (2003). Synaptonemal complex assembly in C. elegans is

dispensable for loading strand-exchange proteins but critical for proper completion of

recombination. *Dev Cell, 5*(3), 463-474. Retrieved from

https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/12967565

Cole, F., Kauppi, L., Lange, J., Roig, I., Wang, R., Keeney, S., & Jasin, M. (2012). Homeostatic

control of recombination is implemented progressively in mouse meiosis. *Nat Cell Biol,*

14(4), 424-430. doi:10.1038/ncb2451

Couteau, F., Nabeshima, K., Villeneuve, A., & Zetka, M. (2004). A component of C. elegans

meiotic chromosome axes at the interface of homolog alignment, synapsis, nuclear

reorganization, and recombination. *Curr Biol, 14*(7), 585-592.

doi:10.1016/j.cub.2004.03.033

Couteau, F., & Zetka, M. (2005). HTP-1 coordinates synaptonemal complex assembly with

homolog alignment during meiosis in C. elegans. *Genes Dev, 19*(22), 2744-2756.

doi:10.1101/gad.1348205

Couteau, F., & Zetka, M. (2011). DNA damage during meiosis induces chromatin remodeling

and synaptonemal complex disassembly. *Dev Cell, 20*(3), 353-363.

doi:10.1016/j.devcel.2011.01.015

Cuacos, M., Lambing, C., Pachon-Penalba, M., Osman, K., Armstrong, S. J., Henderson, I. R., .

. . Heckmann, S. (2021). Meiotic chromosome axis remodelling is critical for meiotic

recombination in Brassica rapa. *J Exp Bot, 72*(8), 3012-3027. doi:10.1093/jxb/erab035

Daniel, K., Lange, J., Hached, K., Fu, J., Anastassiadis, K., Roig, I., . . . Toth, A. (2011). Meiotic

homologue alignment and its quality surveillance are controlled by mouse HORMAD1.

Nat Cell Biol, 13(5), 599-610. doi:10.1038/ncb2213

Dernburg, A. F., McDonald, K., Moulder, G., Barstead, R., Dresser, M., & Villeneuve, A. M.

(1998). Meiotic recombination in C. elegans initiates by a conserved mechanism and is

dispensable for homologous chromosome synapsis. *Cell, 94*(3), 387-398. Retrieved from

https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/9708740

Deshong, A. J., Ye, A. L., Lamelza, P., & Bhalla, N. (2014). A quality control mechanism

coordinates meiotic prophase events to promote crossover assurance. *PLoS Genet,*

10(4), e1004291. doi:10.1371/journal.pgen.1004291

Emsley, P., Lohkamp, B., Scott, W. G., & Cowtan, K. (2010). Features and development of

Coot. *Acta crystallographica Section D, Biological crystallography, 66*, 486-501.

doi:10.1107/S0907444910007493

Evans, P. R., & Murshudov, G. N. (2013). How good are my data and what is the resolution?

Acta crystallographica Section D, Biological crystallography, 69, 1204-1214.

doi:10.1107/S0907444913000061

Fukuda, T., Daniel, K., Wojtasz, L., Toth, A., & Hoog, C. (2010). A novel mammalian HORMA

domain-containing protein, HORMAD1, preferentially associates with unsynapsed

meiotic chromosomes. *Exp Cell Res, 316*(2), 158-171. doi:10.1016/j.yexcr.2009.08.007

Giacopazzi, S., Vong, D., Devigne, A., & Bhalla, N. (2020). PCH-2 collaborates with CMT-1 to

proofread meiotic homolog interactions. *PLoS Genet, 16*(7), e1008904.

doi:10.1371/journal.pgen.1008904

Giroux, C. N., Dresser, M. E., & Tiano, H. F. (1989). Genetic control of chromosome synapsis in

yeast meiosis. *Genome, 31*(1), 88-94. Retrieved from

https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/2687110

Goodyer, W., Kaitna, S., Couteau, F., Ward, J. D., Boulton, S. J., & Zetka, M. (2008). HTP-3

links DSB formation with homolog pairing and crossing over during C. elegans meiosis.

Dev Cell, 14(2), 263-274. doi:10.1016/j.devcel.2007.11.016

Grelon, M., Vezon, D., Gendrot, G., & Pelletier, G. (2001). AtSPO11-1 is necessary for efficient

meiotic recombination in plants. *EMBO J, 20*(3), 589-600. doi:10.1093/emboj/20.3.589

Hassold, T., & Hunt, P. (2001). To err (meiotically) is human: the genesis of human aneuploidy.

Nat Rev Genet, 2(4), 280-291. doi:10.1038/35066065

Heldrich, J., Milano, C. R., Markowitz, T. E., Ur, S. N., Vale-Silva, L. A., Corbett, K. D., &

Hochwagen, A. (2022). Two pathways drive meiotic chromosome axis assembly in

Saccharomyces cerevisiae. *Nucleic Acids Res, 50*(8), 4545-4556.

doi:10.1093/nar/gkac227

Herruzo, E., Lago-Maciel, A., Baztan, S., Santos, B., Carballo, J. A., & San-Segundo, P. A.

(2021). Pch2 orchestrates the meiotic recombination checkpoint from the cytoplasm.

PLoS Genet, 17(7), e1009560. doi:10.1371/journal.pgen.1009560

Herruzo, E., Ontoso, D., Gonzalez-Arranz, S., Cavero, S., Lechuga, A., & San-Segundo, P. A.

(2016). The Pch2 AAA+ ATPase promotes phosphorylation of the Hop1 meiotic

checkpoint adaptor in response to synaptonemal complex defects. *Nucleic Acids Res,*

44(16), 7722-7741. doi:10.1093/nar/gkw506

Hollingsworth, N. M., Goetsch, L., & Byers, B. (1990). The HOP1 gene encodes a meiosis-

specific component of yeast chromosomes. *Cell, 61*(1), 73-84. Retrieved from

https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/2107981

Joshi, N., Barot, A., Jamison, C., & Borner, G. V. (2009). Pch2 links chromosome axis

remodeling at future crossover sites and crossover distribution during yeast meiosis.

PLoS Genet, 5(7), e1000557. doi:10.1371/journal.pgen.1000557

Joshi, N., Brown, M. S., Bishop, D. K., & Borner, G. V. (2015). Gradual implementation of the

meiotic recombination program via checkpoint pathways controlled by global DSB levels.

Mol Cell, 57(5), 797-811. doi:10.1016/j.molcel.2014.12.027

Kabsch, W. (2010). XDS. *Acta crystallographica Section D, Biological crystallography, 66*, 125-

132. doi:10.1107/S0907444909047337

Kim, Y., Kostow, N., & Dernburg, A. F. (2015). The Chromosome Axis Mediates Feedback

Control of CHK-2 to Ensure Crossover Formation in C. elegans. *Dev Cell, 35*(2), 247-

261. doi:10.1016/j.devcel.2015.09.021

Kim, Y., Rosenberg, S. C., Kugel, C. L., Kostow, N., Rog, O., Davydov, V., . . . Corbett, K. D.

(2014a). The chromosome axis controls meiotic events through a hierarchical assembly

of HORMA domain proteins. *Developmental Cell, 31*, 487-502.

doi:10.1016/j.devcel.2014.09.013

Kim, Y., Rosenberg, S. C., Kugel, C. L., Kostow, N., Rog, O., Davydov, V., . . . Corbett, K. D.

(2014b). The chromosome axis controls meiotic events through a hierarchical assembly

of HORMA domain proteins. *Dev Cell, 31*(4), 487-502. doi:10.1016/j.devcel.2014.09.013

Kogo, H., Tsutsumi, M., Inagaki, H., Ohye, T., Kiyonari, H., & Kurahashi, H. (2012). HORMAD2

is essential for synapsis surveillance during meiotic prophase via the recruitment of ATR

activity. *Genes Cells, 17*(11), 897-912. doi:10.1111/gtc.12005

Kogo, H., Tsutsumi, M., Ohye, T., Inagaki, H., Abe, T., & Kurahashi, H. (2012). HORMAD1-

dependent checkpoint/surveillance mechanism eliminates asynaptic oocytes. *Genes*

Cells, 17(6), 439-454. doi:10.1111/j.1365-2443.2012.01600.x

Lambing, C., Osman, K., Nuntasoontorn, K., West, A., Higgins, J. D., Copenhaver, G. P., . . .

Franklin, F. C. (2015). Arabidopsis PCH2 Mediates Meiotic Chromosome Remodeling

and Maturation of Crossovers. *PLoS Genet, 11*(7), e1005372.

doi:10.1371/journal.pgen.1005372

Lorenz, A., Wells, J. L., Pryce, D. W., Novatchkova, M., Eisenhaber, F., McFarlane, R. J., &

Loidl, J. (2004). S. pombe meiotic linear elements contain proteins related to

synaptonemal complex components. *J Cell Sci, 117*(Pt 15), 3343-3351.

doi:10.1242/jcs.01203

MacQueen, A. J., Colaiacovo, M. P., McDonald, K., & Villeneuve, A. M. (2002). Synapsis-

dependent and -independent mechanisms stabilize homolog pairing during meiotic

prophase in C. elegans. *Genes Dev, 16*(18), 2428-2442. Retrieved from

http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/entrez/query.fcgi?cmd=Retrieve&db=PubMed&dopt=Citation

&list_uids=12231631

MacQueen, A. J., Phillips, C. M., Bhalla, N., Weiser, P., Villeneuve, A. M., & Dernburg, A. F.

(2005). Chromosome sites play dual roles to establish homologous synapsis during

meiosis in C. elegans. *Cell, 123*(6), 1037-1050. doi:10.1016/j.cell.2005.09.034

Martinez-Perez, E., Schvarzstein, M., Barroso, C., Lightfoot, J., Dernburg, A. F., & Villeneuve,

A. M. (2008). Crossovers trigger a remodeling of meiotic chromosome axis composition

that is linked to two-step loss of sister chromatid cohesion. *Genes Dev, 22*(20), 2886-

2901. doi:10.1101/gad.1694108

Martinez-Perez, E., & Villeneuve, A. M. (2005). HTP-1-dependent constraints coordinate

homolog pairing and synapsis and promote chiasma formation during C. elegans

meiosis. *Genes Dev, 19*(22), 2727-2743. doi:10.1101/gad.1338505

Morgan, C., Fozard, J. A., Hartley, M., Henderson, I. R., Bomblies, K., & Howard, M. (2021).

Diffusion-mediated HEI10 coarsening can explain meiotic crossover positioning in

Arabidopsis. *Nat Commun, 12*(1), 4674. doi:10.1038/s41467-021-24827-w

Phillips, C. M., Wong, C., Bhalla, N., Carlton, P. M., Weiser, P., Meneely, P. M., & Dernburg, A.

F. (2005). HIM-8 binds to the X chromosome pairing center and mediates chromosome-

specific meiotic synapsis. *Cell, 123*(6), 1051-1063. doi:10.1016/j.cell.2005.09.035

Preibisch, S., Saalfeld, S., & Tomancak, P. (2009). Globally optimal stitching of tiled 3D

microscopic image acquisitions. *Bioinformatics, 25*(11), 1463-1465.

doi:10.1093/bioinformatics/btp184

Raina, V. B., & Vader, G. (2020a). Homeostatic Control of Meiotic Prophase Checkpoint

Function by Pch2 and Hop1. *Curr Biol*. doi:10.1016/j.cub.2020.08.064

Raina, V. B., & Vader, G. (2020b). Homeostatic Control of Meiotic Prophase Checkpoint

Function by Pch2 and Hop1. *Curr Biol, 30*(22), 4413-4424.e4415.

doi:10.1016/j.cub.2020.08.064

Romanienko, P. J., & Camerini-Otero, R. D. (2000). The mouse Spo11 gene is required for

meiotic chromosome synapsis. *Mol Cell, 6*(5), 975-987. Retrieved from

https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/11106738

Rosenberg, S. C., & Corbett, K. D. (2015). The multifaceted roles of the HORMA domain in

cellular signaling. *J Cell Biol, 211*(4), 745-755. doi:10.1083/jcb.201509076

San-Segundo, P. A., & Roeder, G. S. (1999). Pch2 links chromatin silencing to meiotic

checkpoint control. *Cell, 97*(3), 313-324. Retrieved from

https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/10319812

Severson, A. F., Ling, L., van Zuylen, V., & Meyer, B. J. (2009). The axial element protein HTP-

3 promotes cohesin loading and meiotic axis assembly in C. elegans to implement the

meiotic program of chromosome segregation. *Genes Dev, 23*(15), 1763-1778.

doi:10.1101/gad.1808809

Shin, Y. H., Choi, Y., Erdin, S. U., Yatsenko, S. A., Kloc, M., Yang, F., . . . Rajkovic, A. (2010).

Hormad1 mutation disrupts synaptonemal complex formation, recombination, and

chromosome segregation in mammalian meiosis. *PLoS Genet, 6*(11), e1001190.

doi:10.1371/journal.pgen.1001190

Shin, Y. H., McGuire, M. M., & Rajkovic, A. (2013). Mouse HORMAD1 is a meiosis i checkpoint

protein that modulates DNA double- strand break repair during female meiosis. *Biol

Reprod, 89*(2), 29. doi:10.1095/biolreprod.112.106773

Sievers, F., Wilm, A., Dineen, D., Gibson, T. J., Karplus, K., Li, W., . . . Higgins, D. G. (2011).

Fast, scalable generation of high-quality protein multiple sequence alignments using

Clustal Omega. *Mol Syst Biol, 7*, 539. doi:10.1038/msb.2011.75

Silva, N., Ferrandiz, N., Barroso, C., Tognetti, S., Lightfoot, J., Telecan, O., . . . Martinez-Perez,

E. (2014). The fidelity of synaptonemal complex assembly is regulated by a signaling

mechanism that controls early meiotic progression. *Dev Cell, 31*(4), 503-511.

doi:10.1016/j.devcel.2014.10.001

Stamper, E. L., Rodenbusch, S. E., Rosu, S., Ahringer, J., Villeneuve, A. M., & Dernburg, A. F.

(2013). Identification of DSB-1, a protein required for initiation of meiotic recombination

in Caenorhabditis elegans, illuminates a crossover assurance checkpoint. *PLoS Genet,

9*(8), e1003679. doi:10.1371/journal.pgen.1003679

Toraason, E., Adler, V. L., Kurhanewicz, N. A., DiNardo, A., Saunders, A. M., Cahoon, C. K., &

Libuda, D. E. (2021). Automated and customizable quantitative image analysis of whole

Caenorhabditis elegans germlines. *Genetics, 217*(3). doi:10.1093/genetics/iyab010

Tropea, J. E., Cherry, S., & Waugh, D. S. (2009). Expression and purification of soluble His(6)-

tagged TEV protease. In *Methods in Molecular Biology* (Vol. 498, pp. 297-307). Totowa,

NJ: Humana Press.

Ur, S. N., & Corbett, K. D. (2021). Architecture and Dynamics of Meiotic Chromosomes. *Annu*

Rev Genet, 55, 497-526. doi:10.1146/annurev-genet-071719-020235

Varadi, M., Anyango, S., Deshpande, M., Nair, S., Natassia, C., Yordanova, G., . . . Velankar, S.

(2022). AlphaFold Protein Structure Database: massively expanding the structural

coverage of protein-sequence space with high-accuracy models. *Nucleic Acids Res,*

50(D1), D439-D444. doi:10.1093/nar/gkab1061

Villeneuve, A. M. (1994). A cis-acting locus that promotes crossing over between X

chromosomes in Caenorhabditis elegans. *Genetics, 136*(3), 887-902. Retrieved from

https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/8005443

West, A. M. V., Komives, E. A., & Corbett, K. D. (2017). Conformational dynamics of the Hop1

HORMA domain reveal a common mechanism with the spindle checkpoint protein Mad2.

Nucleic Acids Res. doi:10.1093/nar/gkx1196

Winn, M. D., Ballard, C. C., Cowtan, K. D., Dodson, E. J., Emsley, P., Evans, P. R., . . . Wilson,

K. S. (2011). Overview of the CCP4 suite and current developments. *Acta*

crystallographica Section D, Biological crystallography, 67, 235-242.

doi:10.1107/S0907444910045749

Wojtasz, L., Cloutier, J. M., Baumann, M., Daniel, K., Varga, J., Fu, J., . . . Toth, A. (2012).

Meiotic DNA double-strand breaks and chromosome asynapsis in mice are monitored by

distinct HORMAD2-independent and -dependent mechanisms. *Genes Dev, 26*(9), 958-

973. doi:10.1101/gad.187559.112

Wojtasz, L., Daniel, K., Roig, I., Bolcun-Filas, E., Xu, H., Boonsanay, V., . . . Toth, A. (2009).

Mouse HORMAD1 and HORMAD2, two conserved meiotic chromosomal proteins, are

depleted from synapsed chromosome axes with the help of TRIP13 AAA-ATPase. *PLoS*

Genet, 5(10), e1000702. doi:10.1371/journal.pgen.1000702

Yang, C., Hu, B., Portheine, S. M., Chuenban, P., & Schnittger, A. (2020). State changes of the

HORMA protein ASY1 are mediated by an interplay between its closure motif and PCH2.

Nucleic Acids Res, 48(20), 11521-11535. doi:10.1093/nar/gkaa527

Ye, Q., Kim, D. H., Dereli, I., Rosenberg, S. C., Hagemann, G., Herzog, F., . . . Corbett, K. D.

(2017). The AAA+ ATPase TRIP13 remodels HORMA domains through N-terminal

engagement and unfolding. *EMBO J*. doi:10.15252/embj.201797291

Ye, Q., Rosenberg, S. C., Moeller, A., Speir, J. A., Su, T. Y., & Corbett, K. D. (2015). TRIP13 is

a protein-remodeling AAA+ ATPase that catalyzes MAD2 conformation switching. *Elife,*

4. doi:10.7554/eLife.07367

Yokoo, R., Zawadzki, K. A., Nabeshima, K., Drake, M., Arur, S., & Villeneuve, A. M. (2012).

COSA-1 reveals robust homeostasis and separable licensing and reinforcement steps

governing meiotic crossovers. *Cell, 149*(1), 75-87. doi:10.1016/j.cell.2012.01.052

Zetka, M. C., Kawasaki, I., Strome, S., & Muller, F. (1999). Synapsis and chiasma formation in

Caenorhabditis elegans require HIM-3, a meiotic chromosome core component that

functions in chromosome segregation. *Genes Dev, 13*(17), 2258-2270. Retrieved from

http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/10485848

1122

1123

1124

1125

1126

1127

1128

1129   **Figure Legends**

1130

Figure 1. PCH-2's localization is consistent with remodeling HORMADs on meiotic axes.

A. Cartoon of synaptonemal complex with axial elements made up of meiotic HORMADs and

the central element component, SYP-1. **B.** Structured illumination microscopy (SIM) images of

meiotic nuclei stained with antibodies against PCH-2 (green) and SYP-1 (magenta). Arrows

represent regions of PCH-2 potentially associated with meiotic axes. Scalebar indicates 5

microns.

1137

Figure 2. HORMA domain structure of meiotic HORMADs in *C. elegans.* A. Cartoon

depicting protein domains of HTP-3, HIM-3, HTP-1, and HTP-2. HORMA domains and closure

motifs are shown as colored boxes and labeled. Mutations generated by CRISPR/Cas9 are

shown. **B.** Clustal Omega alignment of the HORMA domains of HTP-3, HIM-3, HTP-1, and

HTP-2. Asterisks represent conserved residues, : represents conservative changes and .

represents semi-conservative changes. Red box indicates targeted reside for mutation for each

respective HORMAD. **C.** Structure of the *C. elegans* HTP-3 HORMA domain (pink) bound to a

closure motif (gray), predicted by AlphaFold 2 ((Varadi et al., 2022)). Right panels show the

position of H96. **D.** Overlay of wild-type (gray; PDB ID 4TRK) and R93Y mutant (green/pink) of

C. elegans HIM-3. Right panels show the position of residue 93, and show that the overall

HORMA domain structure is not impacted upon mutation of arginine 93 to tyrosine. **E.** View of

the *C. elegans* HTP-1 HORMA domain (PDB ID 4TZQ) equivalent to the close-up panel in (D),

showing the position of residue G97 (yellow spheres), which is partially buried against a

neighboring alpha-helix.

1152

Figure 3. *htp-3^{H96Y}* suppresses the acceleration of pairing and synapsis but exacerbates

defects in DNA repair and crossover formation in *pch-2* mutants. A. Cartoon depicting

zones for quantification in the *C. elegans* germline. **B.** Meiotic nuclei stained with DAPI

(magenta) and antibody against HIM-8 (green). Scalebar indicates 5 microns. **C.** Quantification

of percent nuclei paired in zones 1-6 for *syp-1* (blue), *pch-2;syp-1* (red), *htp-3^{H96Y};syp-1* (green)

and *pch-2;htp-3^{H96Y};syp-1* (purple) mutant strains. ** indicates p-value < 0.01. Significance was

assessed using two-tailed Fisher's exact tests. Error bars represent 95% confidence intervals.

D. Meiotic nuclei stained with antibodies against SYP-1(magenta) and HTP-3 (green). Arrows

indicates unsynapsed chromosomes. Scalebar indicates 5 microns. **E.** Quantification of percent

nuclei synapsed in zones 1-6 for wildtype (blue), *pch-2* (red), *htp-3^{H96Y}* (green) and *pch-2;htp-*

3^{H96Y} (purple) mutant strains. ** indicates p-value < 0.01. Significance was assessed using two-

tailed Fisher's exact tests. Error bars represent 95% confidence intervals. **F.** Quantification of

percent nuclei synapsed in zones 1-6 for *meDf2/+* (blue), *pch-2;meDf2/+* (red), *htp-*

3^{H96Y};meDf2/+ (green) and *pch-2;htp-3^{H96Y};meDf2/+* (purple) mutant strains. Error bars represent

95% confidence intervals. **G.** Meiotic nuclei stained with DAPI (magenta) and antibody against

RAD-51 (green). Scalebar indicates 5 microns. **H.** Quantification of number of RAD-51 foci in

zones 1-6 for wildtype (blue), *pch-2* (red), *htp-3^{H96Y}* (green) and *pch-2;htp-3^{H96Y}* (purple) mutant

strains. Error bars represent standard error of the mean (SEM). **I.** Meiotic nuclei stained with

DNA (magenta) and antibody against GFP::COSA-1 (green). Left indicates representative nuclei

with 6 GFP::COSA-1 foci. Right indicates representative nuclei with 5 GFP::COSA-1 foci.

Scalebar indicates 5 microns. **J.** Quantification of percent nuclei with 5 GFP::COSA-1 foci for

wildtype, *pch-2*, *htp-3^{H96Y}*, and *pch-2;htp-3^{H96Y}* mutant strains. ** indicates p-value < 0.01.

Significance was assessed using two-tailed Fisher's exact-tests. Error bars represent 95%

confidence intervals.

1177

Figure 4. *him-3^{R93Y}* does not suppress the acceleration of pairing, synapsis, or DNA

repair, but does suppress defects in crossover formation in *pch-2* mutants. A. Meiotic

nuclei stained with DAPI (magenta) and antibody against HIM-8 (green). Arrows indicate paired

nuclei. Scalebar indicates 5 microns. **B.** Quantification of percent nuclei paired in zones 1-6 for

syp-1 (blue), *pch-2;syp-1* (red), *him-3^{R93Y};syp-1* (green) and *pch-2;him-3^{R93Y};syp-1* (purple)

mutant strains. ** indicates p-value < 0.01. Significance was assessed using two-tailed Fisher's

exact-tests. Error bars represent 95% confidence intervals. **C.** Meiotic nuclei stained with

antibodies against SYP-1(magenta) and HTP-3 (green). Arrow indicates unsynapsed

chromosomes. Scalebar indicates 5 microns. **D.** Quantification of percent nuclei synapsed in

zones 1-6 for wildtype (blue), *pch-2* (red), *him-3^{R93Y}* (green) and *pch-2;him-3^{R93Y}* (purple) mutant

strains. ** indicates p-value < 0.01. Significance was assessed using two-tailed Fisher's exact-

tests. Error bars represent 95% confidence intervals. **E.** Quantification of percent nuclei

synapsed in zones 1-6 for *meDf2/+* (blue), *pch-2;meDf2/+* (red), *him-3^{R93Y};meDf2/+* (green) and

pch-2;him-3^{R93Y};meDf2/+ (purple) mutant strains. Error bars represent 95% confidence intervals.

F. Meiotic nuclei stained with DAPI (magenta) and antibody against RAD-51 (green). Scalebar

indicates 5 microns. **G.** Quantification of number of RAD-51 foci in zones 1-6 for wildtype (blue),

pch-2 (red), *him-3^{R93Y}* (green) and *pch-2;him-3^{R93Y}* (purple) mutant strains. Error bars represent

standard error of the mean (SEM). **H.** Meiotic nuclei stained with DNA (magenta) and antibody

against GFP::COSA-1 (green). Left indicates representative nuclei with 6 GFP::COSA-1 foci.

Right indicates representative nuclei with 5 GFP::COSA-1 foci. Scalebar indicates 5 microns. **I.**

Quantification of percent nuclei with 5 GFP::COSA-1 foci for wildtype, *pch-2*, *him-3^{R93Y}*, and

pch-2;him-3^{R93Y} mutant strains. * indicates p-value < 0.05. ** indicates p-value < 0.01.

Significance was assessed using two-tailed Fisher's exact-tests. Error bars represent 95%

confidence intervals. **J.** Oocytes stained with DAPI. Left indicates representative oocyte with

zero univalents. Right indicates representative oocyte with univalents (arrows). Scalebar

indicates 5 microns. **K.** Quantification of percent oocytes with univalents for wildtype, *pch-2*,

him-3^{R93Y}, and *pch-2;him-3^{R93Y}* mutant strains. Significance was assessed using two-tailed

Fisher's exact tests. Error bars represent 95% confidence intervals.

1206

Figure 5. *htp-1^{G97T}* does not genetically interact with *pch-2* in the context of pairing,

synapsis, DNA repair, or crossover formation. A. Meiotic nuclei stained with DAPI (magenta)

and antibody against HIM-8 (green). Arrows indicate paired nuclei. Scalebar indicates 5

microns. **B.** Quantification of percent nuclei paired in zones 1-6 for *syp-1* (blue), *pch-2;syp-1*

(red), *htp-1^{G97T};syp-1* (green) and *pch-2;htp-1^{G97T};syp*-1 (purple) mutant strains. ** indicates p-

value < 0.01. Error bars represent 95% confidence intervals. **C.** Meiotic nuclei stained with

antibodies against SYP-1(magenta) and HTP-3 (green). Arrow indicates unsynapsed

chromosomes. Scalebar indicates 5 microns. **D.** Quantification of percent nuclei synapsed in

zones 1-6 for wildtype (blue), *pch-2* (red), *htp-1^{G97T}* (green) and *pch-2;htp-1^{G97T}* (purple) mutant

strains. ** indicates p-value < 0.01. Significance was assessed using two-tailed Fisher's exact

tests. Error bars represent 95% confidence intervals. **E.** Meiotic nuclei stained with DAPI

(magenta) and antibody against RAD-51 (green). Scalebar indicates 5 microns. **F.**

Quantification of number of RAD-51 foci in zones 1-6 for wildtype (blue), *pch-2* (red), *htp-1^{G97T}*

(green) and *pch-2;htp-1^{G97T}* (purple) mutant strains. Error bars represent standard error of the

mean (SEM). **G.** Meiotic nuclei stained with DNA (magenta) and antibodies against

GFP::COSA-1 (green). Left indicates representative nuclei with 6 GFP::COSA-1 foci. Right

indicates representative nuclei with 5 GFP::COSA-1 foci. Scalebar insicates 5 microns. **H.**

Quantification of distribution of GFP::COSA-1 foci per nucleus for wildtype (blue), *pch-2* (red),

htp-1^{G97T} (green) and *pch-2;htp-1^{G97T}* (purple) mutant strains. NS indicates non-significant.

Significance was assessed using two-tailed Student T-test. **E.** Oocytes stained with DAPI. Left

indicates representative oocyte with zero univalents. Right indicates representative oocyte with

univalents (arrows). Scalebar indicates 5 microns. **F.** Quantification of percent oocytes with

univalents for wildtype, *pch-2*, *htp-1^{G97Y}*, and *pch-2;htp-1^{G97Y}* mutant strains. **** indicates p-

value < 0.0001. NS indicates non- significant. Significance was assessed using two-tailed

Fisher's exact tests.

1232

Figure 6. *htp-1^{G97T}* delays meiotic progression and this delay is partially suppressed by

mutation of *pch-2*. A. Full length representative germlines stained with DAPI (magenta) and

antibody against DSB-1 (green). Scalebar indicates 20 microns. **B.** Quantification of DSB-1

positive meiotic nuclei for wildtype, *htp-1^{G97A}, htp-1^{G97S}, htp-1^{G97T} and pch-2;htp-1^{G97T}* mutant

strains. NS indicates non-significant. ** indicates p-value < 0.01. **** indicates p-value <0.0001.

Statistical significance was assessed using two-tailed Fisher's exact tests. Error bars represent

95% confidence intervals.

1240

1241 **Figure 7. *him-3^{R93Y}* mutants have reduced affinity for closure motifs. A.** Fluorescence

1242 polarization peptide binding assay of HIM-3 (blue) and HIM-3^{R93Y} (green) and measured Kd's. **B.**

1243 Cartoon depicting proposed model for open and closed conformation switching of wildtype HIM-

1244 3 and HIM-3^{R93Y}.

1245

1246 **Figure 8. PCH-2 distributes its regulation of meiotic prophase events by remodeling**

1247 **different meiotic HORMADs.** Cartoon depicting proposed model for PCH-2's regulation of

1248   meiotic prophase events. PCH-2 regulates the progression of pairing and by acting through

1249   HTP-3, crossover recombination through HIM-3, and may regulate meiotic progression through

1250   HTP-1.

1251

Figure S1. *htp-3^{H96Y}* does not affect meiotic progression. A. Full length representative

germlines stained with DAPI (magenta) and DSB-1 (green). Scalebar indicates 20 microns. **B.**

Quantification of DSB-1 positive meiotic nuclei for wildtype and *htp-3 ^{H96Y}* mutant strains. NS

indicates non-significant. **C.** Quantification of DSB-1 positive meiotic nuclei for *syp-1* and *htp-3*

^{H96Y};syp-1 mutants. NS indicates non-significant. Statistical significance was assessed using

two-tailed Fisher's exact tests. Error bars represent 95% confidence intervals.

1258

1259   **Figure S2. *him-3^{R93Y}* localizes to meiotic chromosomes. Top:** Mid-pachytene nuclei from

1260   wildtype and *him-3^{R93Y}* germlines stained with DAPI (magenta) and antibody against HIM-3

1261   (green). **Bottom:** Mid-pachytene nuclei from wildtype and *him-3^{R93Y}* germlines stained with HIM-

1262   3 (white). Scalebar indicates 5 microns.

1263

Figure S3. *him-3^{R93Y}* does not affect meiotic progression. A. Full length representative

germlines stained with DAPI (magenta) and antibody against DSB-1 (green). Scalebar indicates

20 microns. **B.** Quantification of DSB-1 positive meiotic nuclei for wildtype and *him-3^{R93Y}* mutant

strains. NS indicates non-significant. **C.** Quantification of DSB-1 positive meiotic nuclei for *syp-1*

and *him-3^{R93Y};syp-1* mutants. NS indicates non-significant. Statistical significance was assessed

using two-tailed Fisher's exact tests.

1270

1271   **Figure S4. *htp-1^{G97T}* localizes to meiotic chromosomes. Top:** Mid-pachytene nuclei from

1272   wildtype and *htp-1^{G97T}* germlines stained with DAPI (magenta) and antibody against HTP-1

1273   (green). **Bottom:** Mid-pachytene nuclei from wildtype and *htp-1^{G97T}* germlines stained with HTP-

1274   1 (white). Scalebar indicates 5 microns.

1275

1276   **Figure S5. HIM3^{R93Y} does not affect HIM-3's protein stability.** Stability curve for purified

1277   wildtype HIM-3 (blue) and HIM-3^{R93Y} (green).

1278

1279   **Table 1. Viability assay and male counts for meiotic HORMAD mutants.** Table with percent

1280   viable progeny and males. Total number of progeny listed in parentheses.

1281

1282   **Table S1. Data collection and refinement statistics.** Table with data collection and

1283   refinement statistics for Figure 7. Explanations of equations listed below the table.

A

Chromatin

Central
Element
Protein
SYP-1

Chromatin

Axial
Element
Proteins
(HORMADs)
HTP-3
HIM-3
HTP-1
HTP-2

B

PCH-2
SYP-1

PCH-2

SYP-1

A

HTP-3   H96Y   739

HIM-3   R93Y   291

HTP-1   G97T   352

HTP-2   352

HORMA domain   **closure motifs**

B

```
HTP-3 (57-116)  VIPAEYFQDFQVYGDVSGYTLRQDIPEGRSVSSKLLASHDAIRQKLLQKLAIVVEESLN-
HIM-3 (55-114)  ILDEKCFKTRTIDKLL-VTAFQSSVPAAKRVSSTFDGLRDAIQQGYLREFAIVFYKKPNE
HTP-1 (59-118)  ILGQEYFTKNYITEKLKCMTLCFRNPRSNQIAQLLRNAGDATKDGFLKEVSLVITNNEGD
HTP-2 (59-118)  ILEKEYFSKNYITENLSCMTLSFKNLRAHQIAQLLRAAGDATKDGFLKEISLVVTEHDGD
                ::   :  *     :     :    ::         ..::. :   ** ::   *::.::*. :   .
```

C

HTP-3 (AlphaFold)

closure motif   180°   H96

D

HIM-3 WT (4TRK)
HIM-3 R93Y

closure motif   180°   Y93   R93

E

HTP-1 (4TZQ)

G97 Cα

Figure 4

Figure 5

A

Wildtype

htp1^{G97A}

htp1^{G97S}

htp1^{G97T}

pch-2;htp1^{G97T}

DNA
DSB-1

B

% DSB-1 positive meiotic nuceli

NS
**
****
****
**

wildtype
htp-1^{G97A}
htp-1^{G97S}
htp-1^{G97T}
pch-2; htp-1^{G97T}

A

HIM-3 WT and R93Y binding HTP-3 motif #4

Protein	Peptide	*Kd*
HIM-3^{WT}	HTP-3 motif #4	220 +/- 20 nm
HIM-3^{WT}	Scrambled	*no binding*
HIM-3^{R93Y}	HTP-3 motif #4	690 +/- 130 nm
HIM-3^{R93Y}	Scrambled	*no binding*

B

HIM-3
wildtype closure motif

HIM-3^{R93Y}
wildtype closure motif

A   **Figure S1**

Wildtype

htp-3^{H96Y}

syp-1

htp-3^{H96Y};syp-1

DNA
DSB-1

B

C

wildtype   *him-3*^{R93Y}

MERGE

HIM-3

DNA
HIM-3

A

wildtype

him-3^{R93Y}

syp-1

him-3^{R93Y};syp-1

DNA
DSB-1

B

C

wildtype *htp-1^{G97T}*

MERGE

HTP-1

DNA
HTP-1

Table 1: Viability and percent male-self-progeny

genotype	percent viability (total no. of animals)	percent male self-progeny
wildtype	100% (2489)	0.22%
meDf2/+	97% (2286)	10.91%
pch-2	100% (2388)	0.71%
pch-2;meDf2/+	98.15% (1808)	0.83%
htp-3	100% (2586)	0.12%
htp-3;meDf2/+	97.03% (1957)	11.34%
pch-2;htp-3	81.89% (1067)	1.12%
pch-2;htp-3;meDf2/+	83.90% (1652)	10.84%
him-3	100% (3304)	0.15%
him-3;meDf2/+	97.69% (3170)	11.30%
pch-2;him-3	100% (3027)	0.03%
pch-2;him-3;meDf2/+	98.43% (3140)	10.34%
htp-1^{G97T}	67.29% (1984)	2.25%
pch-2;htp-1^{G97T}	58.44% (2175)	1.97%

Table S1. Data collection and refinement statistics

	HIM-3 R93Y
Data collection	
Synchrotron/Beamline	ALS 8.3.1
Date collected	9/14/2018
Resolution (Å)	63.4-1.3
Wavelength (Å)	1.11583
Space Group	$P6_1$
Unit Cell Dimensions (a, b, c) Å	73.23, 73.23, 110.82
Unit cell Angles (α,β,γ) °	90, 90, 120
I/σ (last shell)	27.4
[1]R_{sym} (last shell)	0.055 (2.245)
[2]R_{meas} (last shell)	0.056 (2.081)
[3]$CC_{1/2}$ (last shell)	1 (0.677)
Completeness (last shell) %	100 (100)
Number of reflections	1,632,957
unique	82,280
Multiplicity (last shell)	19.8 (19.7)
Refinement	
Resolution (Å)	63.4-1.3
No. of reflections	82274
working	4255
free	78019
[4]R_{work} (last shell) (%)	14.39 (31.35)
[4]R_{free} (last shell) (%)	16.39 (32.51)
Structure/Stereochemistry	
No. of atoms	4093
solvent	252
hydrogen	1907
r.m.s.d. bond lengths (Å)	0.021
r.m.s.d. bond angles (°)	1.58
Ramachandran favored/allowed (%)	97.03%/100%
Molprobity score	1.55
[5]SBGrid Data Bank ID	8CXK
[6]Protein Data Bank ID	910

[1] R_{sym} = $\sum\sum_j |I_j - \langle I \rangle| / \sum I_j$, where I_j is the intensity measurement for reflection j and $\langle I \rangle$ is the mean intensity for multiply recorded reflections.

[2] R_{meas} = $\sum_h [\sqrt{(n/(n-1))} \sum_j [I_{hj} - \langle I_h \rangle] / \sum_{hj} \langle I_h \rangle$, where I_{hj} is a single intensity measurement for reflection h, $\langle I_h \rangle$ is the average intensity measurement for multiply recorded reflections, and n is the number of observations of reflection h.

[3] $CC_{1/2}$ is the Pearson correlation coefficient between the average measured intensities of two randomly-assigned half-sets of the measurements of each unique reflection.

[4] R_{work}, R_{free} = $\sum||F_{obs}| - |F_{calc}||/|F_{obs}|$, where the working and free R-factors are calculated using the working and free reflection sets, respectively.