Cylicins are a structural component of the sperm calyx being indispensable for male fertility in mice and human

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Abstract

Cylicins are testis-specific proteins, which are exclusively expressed during spermiogenesis. In mice and humans, two Cylicins, the gonosomal X-linked Cylicin 1 (*Cylc1/CYLC1*) and the autosomal Cylicin 2 (*Cylc2/CYLC2)* genes have been identified. Cylicins are cytoskeletal proteins with an overall positive charge due to lysine-rich repeats. While Cylicins have been localized in the acrosomal region of round spermatids, they resemble a major component of the calyx within the perinuclear theca at the posterior part of mature sperm nuclei. However, the role of Cylicins during spermiogenesis has not yet been investigated. Here, we applied CRISPR/Cas9-mediated gene-editing in zygotes to establish *Cylc1*- and *Cylc2*-deficient mouse lines as a model to study the function of these proteins. *Cylc1* deficiency resulted in male subfertility, whereas *Cylc2*$^{-/-}$, *Cylc1*$^{-/y}$ *Cylc2*$^{+/-}$, and *Cylc1*$^{-/y}$ *Cylc2*$^{-/-}$ males were infertile. Phenotypical characterization revealed that loss of Cylicins prevents proper calyx assembly during spermiogenesis. This results in decreased epididymal sperm counts, impaired shedding of excess cytoplasm, and severe structural malformations, ultimately resulting in impaired sperm motility. Furthermore, exome sequencing identified an infertile man with a hemizygous variant in *CYLC1* and a heterozygous variant in *CYLC2*, displaying morphological abnormalities of the sperm including the absence of the acrosome. Thus, our study highlights the relevance and

importance of Cylicins for spermiogenic remodeling and male fertility in human and mouse, and

provides the basis for further studies on unraveling the complex molecular interactions between

perinuclear theca proteins required during spermiogenesis.

Keywords: *Cylc1*, *Cylc2*, Cylicin, male infertility, subfertility, sperm, calyx, perinuclear theca,
cytoskeleton, manchette, motility, CRISPR, gene-editing

Introduction

The differentiation of round spermatids into sperm during spermiogenesis is a highly organized and

spatiotemporally controlled process taking place in the seminiferous epithelium of the testis. Cellular

and morphological remodeling involves DNA hypercondensation, establishment of a species-specific

head morphology, removal of excess cytoplasm as well as formation of accessory structures like

acrosome and flagellum. These structural changes depend on a highly efficient protein trafficking

machinery and a unique sperm cytoskeleton [1]. One essential cytoskeletal element is the perinuclear

theca (PT), which surrounds the sperm nucleus, except for the caudal edge, at the implantation site

of the flagellum. The PT is supposed to serve as a structural scaffold for the sperm nucleus and

resembles a rigid cytosolic protein layer, which is resistant to non-ionic detergents and high salt

buffer extractions [2, 3]. The PT has been subdivided into a subacrosomal and postacrosomal part based

on its localization, function, composition, and developmental origin. The subacrosomal part of the PT

develops early during spermiogenesis, simultaneously with the formation of the acrosome. It is

supposed to emerge from acrosomal vesicles, and presents as a thin cytosolic protein layer between

the inner acrosomal membrane and the nuclear envelope [4, 5]. The postacrosomal part of the PT, also

known as the sperm calyx, originates from cytosolic proteins that are transported via the manchette

and assembled during sperm head elongation [4]. It is located in between the nuclear envelope and the

sperm plasma membrane.

Proteomic analyses using murine and bovine PT extracts revealed 500-800 different proteins,

highlighting its high molecular complexity [6, 7]. Apart from cytoskeletal proteins, signaling molecules

and several *de novo* synthesized core histones were identified. They are proposed to be essential for

sperm-egg interaction and chromatin remodeling of the male pronucleus at early post-fertilization

stages [8, 9, 4, 10, 11]. Many structural proteins of the PT are testis-specific and uniquely expressed in the

PT, including Calicin (*Ccin*) [12, 2, 13], Cylicin 1 (*Cylc1*) and Cylicin 2 (*Cylc2*) [2, 14, 15], actin-capping proteins

CPβ3 and CPα3 [16–18] as well as actin-related proteins Arp-T1 and Arp-T2 [19]. Despite being

characterized on molecular level, their function remains largely elusive.

Both, *Ccin* and Cylicins are highly basic proteins with a predominant localization in the calyx of

mature sperm [14, 15, 12]. In most species, two Cylicin genes, *Cylc1* and *Cylc2*, have been identified

(Figure 1-supplement 1). They are characterized by repetitive lysine-lysine-aspartic acid (KKD) and

lysine-lysine-glutamic acid (KKE) peptide motifs, resulting in an isoelectric point (IEP) > pH 10 [14, 15].

Repeating units of up to 41 amino acids in the central part of the molecules stand out by a predicted

tendency to form individual short α-helices [14]. Mammalian Cylicins exhibit similar protein and domain

characteristics, but CYLC2 has a much shorter amino-terminal portion than CYLC1 (Figure 1 -

supplement 1). While the *CYLC2/Cylc2* gene is encoded on autosomes, the human and murine

CYLC1/Cylc1 gene is encoded on the X-chromosome, resulting in hemizygosity in males. Further, in

bovine, Cylc2 serves as actin-binding protein of the sperm perinuclear cytoskeleton [20]. Cylicins seem

to be cytoskeletal regulators and required for proper sperm head architecture.

In this study, we report the CRISPR/Cas9-mediated generation and characterization of *Cylc1-*, *Cylc2-*,

and *Cylc1/2*-deficient mice, demonstrating that Cylicins are indispensable for male fertility and play a

key function in the formation of the sperm calyx. We show that Cylicins are required for the

maintenance of the PT integrity during spermiogenesis and in mature sperm. Their deficiency results

in morphological defects of the sperm head, acrosome, and mid-piece. Our analyses revealed that

Cylicin genes are evolutionary conserved in rodents and primates. Furthermore, we identified Cylicin

variants in an infertile man, demonstrating the conserved role of Cylicins in regulating male

infertility.

Results

Cylicins are indispensable for male fertility in mice

Cylicins were first discovered and characterized in the early nineties due to their subcellular

localization a role in sperm head architecture was postulated [2, 14, 15], . To address the question of the

role of Cylicins during spermiogenesis, we used CRISPR/Cas9-mediated gene-editing to generate

Cylc1- and *Cylc2*-deficient mouse models. First, for *Cylc1*, a pair of sgRNAs targeting exon 5 was

designed, and a mouse line with a frameshift inducing deletion of 1.585 kb, accounting for 85% of the

Cylc1 coding sequence, was established (Fig. 1 A). Next, two guide RNAs targeting exon 4/5 of the

Cylc2 gene were applied to establish a *Cylc2*-deficient mouse line with a 1.145 kb frameshift inducing

deletion (Fig. 1 A). In both lines, the majority of predicted functional domains with repetitive, lysine-

lysine-aspartic acid (KKD) and lysine-lysine-glutamic acid (KKE) peptide motifs were depleted.

Deletion was confirmed by PCR-based genotyping (Fig. 1 B).

Fertility testing of *Cylc1*$^{-/y}$ males revealed significantly reduced pregnancy rates (16 %) and mean

litter size (2.2) (Fig. 1 C). *Cylc2*$^{-/-}$ males were infertile, while *Cylc2*$^{+/-}$ males showed no significant

difference in fertility parameters compared to wildtype mice (Fig. 1 C). Additionally, established

mouse lines were intercrossed to generate $Cylc1^{-/y}$ $Cylc2^{+/-}$ and $Cylc1^{-/y}$ $Cylc2^{-/-}$ males. Of note, $Cylc1^{-/y}$

$Cylc2^{+/-}$, and $Cylc1^{-/y}$ $Cylc2^{-/-}$ males were infertile (Fig. 1 C). This indicates that loss of $Cylc1$ alone is

partially tolerated, as suggested by subfertility of $Cylc1^{-/y}$ males, whereas the additional loss of one

$Cylc2$ allele renders male mice infertile. Taken together, the results suggest, that two functional

Cylicin alleles are required for male fertility.

qRT PCR confirmed the absence of $Cylc1$ and/or $Cylc2$ transcripts in Cylicin-deficient animals (Fig. 1

D). In $Cylc2^{+/-}$ animals expression of $Cylc2$ was reduced by 50 %. Neither loss of $Cylc1$ nor $Cylc2$

resulted in upregulation of $Cylc2$ or $Cylc1$, respectively.

Next, due to the lack of commercial antisera, polyclonal antibodies against murine CYLC1 and CYLC2

were raised to visualize the localization of Cylicins during spermiogenesis. Specificity of antibodies

was proven by immunohistochemical stainings (IHC), showing a specific signal in testis sections only,

but not in any other organ tested (Figure 1 - supplement 2). Immunofluorescence staining of

wildtype testicular tissue showed presence of both, CYLC1 and CYLC2 from the round spermatid

stage onward (Fig. 1 E). The signal was first detectable in the subacrosomal region as a cap-like

structure, lining the developing acrosome (Fig. 1 E-F, Figure 1 – supplement 3). As the spermatids

elongate, CYLC1 and CYLC2 move across the PT towards the caudal part of the cell (Figure 1 –

supplement 4). At later steps of spermiogenesis, the localization in the subacrosomal part of the PT

faded, while it intensified in the postacrosomal calyx region (Fig. 1 E-F). Of note, the localization of

CYLC1 and CYLC2 in the calyx of mature sperm has been reported in bovine and human. The

generated antibodies did not stain testicular tissue and mature sperm of $Cylc1$- and $Cylc2$-deficient

males, except for a very weak unspecific background staining in the lumen of seminiferous tubules

and the residual bodies of testicular sperm (Fig. 1 E). Additionally, Western Blot analyses confirmed

the absence of CYLC1 and CYLC2 in cytoskeletal protein fractions of the respective knockout (Fig. 1

G), thereby demonstrating i) specificity of the antibodies and ii) validating the gene knockout. Of

note, the CYLC1 antibody detects a double band at 40-45 KDa. This is smaller than the predicted size

of 74 KDa as, but both bands were absent in Cylc1$^{-/y}$. Similarly, the CYLC2 Antibody detected a double

band at 38-40 KDa instead of 66 KDa. Again, both bands were absent in $Cylc2^{-/-}$. Next, Mass

spectrometry analysis of cytoskeletal protein fraction of mature spermatozoa was performed

detecting both proteins in WT but not in the respective knockout samples (Figure 1 – supplement 5;

Figure 1 – supplement 6).

Sperm morphology is severely altered in Cylicin-deficient mice

Next, spermiogenesis of Cylicin-deficient males was analyzed in detail. Gross testicular morphology

as well as testicular weight were not significantly altered (Fig. 2 A, B). The testicular morphology

appeared unaltered, with all stages of spermatogenesis being detectable in hematoxylin and eosin

(HE) stained testicular sections (Figure 2 – supplement 1). However, a strong decline in cauda

epididymal sperm counts was observed in all Cylicin-deficient males. For $Cylc1^{-/Y}$ and $Cylc2^{+/-}$ males, a

moderate reduction of 40-47% was determined, whereas $Cylc2^{-/-}$ and $Cylc1^{-/Y}$ $Cylc2^{+/-}$ displayed an

approx. 65% reduction in epididymal sperm counts compared to wildtype mice (Fig. 2 C). In $Cylc1^{-/Y}$

$Cylc2^{-/-}$ males, spermiogenesis was most impaired, as indicated by an 85% reduction of the sperm

count (Fig. 2 C). Eosin-Nigrosin staining revealed that the viability of epididymal sperm from all

genotypes was not severely affected (Fig. 2 D, Figure 2 – supplement 2). However, viability of $Cylc2^{-/-}$

and $Cylc1^{-/Y}$ $Cylc2^{-/-}$ sperm was significantly reduced by approx. 15% compared to wildtype sperm.

(Fig. 2 D).

Next, we used brightfield microscopy to evaluate the effects of Cylicin deficiency on sperm

morphology. Above all, coiling of the sperm tails and kinked sperm heads were observed in $Cylc2^{-/-}$

and $Cylc1^{-/Y}$ $Cylc2^{-/-}$ males (Fig. 2 E). To confirm this, we used PNA-FITC lectin immunofluorescence

staining to analyze acrosome localization in mature sperm, MITOred to visualize mitochondria in the

flagellum and DAPI to stain the nucleus (Fig. 2 F). Loss of $Cylc1$ alone caused malformations of the

acrosome in around 38% of mature sperm, while their flagellum appeared unaltered and properly

connected to the head. $Cylc2^{+/-}$ males showed normal sperm tail morphology with around 30% of

acrosome malformations. $Cylc2^{-/-}$ mature sperm cells displayed morphological alterations of head and

mid-piece (Fig. 2 F-G). 76% of $Cylc2^{-/-}$ sperm cells showed acrosome malformations, bending of the

neck region, and/or coiling of the flagellum, occasionally resulting in its wrapping around the sperm

head in 80% of sperm (Fig. 2 F). While 70% of $Cylc1^{-/Y}$ $Cylc2^{+/-}$ sperm showed these morphological

alterations, around 92% of $Cylc1^{-/Y}$ $Cylc2^{-/-}$ sperm presented with coiled tail and abnormal acrosome

(Fig. 2 F-G).

To analyze in detail the sperm head, we used Nuclear Morphology software on DAPI stained sperm

samples. $Cylc1^{-/Y}$ and $Cylc2^{+/-}$ sperm showed no alterations of the nuclear shape when compared to

wildtype (Fig. 2 H, Fig. S2 C, D). However, heads of $Cylc2^{-/-}$ and $Cylc1^{-/Y}$ $Cylc2^{-/-}$ sperm appeared

smaller, with shorter hooks and increased circularity of the nuclei as well as reduced elongation (Fig.

2 H, Fig. S2 D). Interestingly, $Cylc1^{-/Y}$ $Cylc2^{+/-}$ sperm heads appeared unaltered, suggesting that only

$Cylc2$ has a crucial role for sperm head shaping, and one functional $Cylc2$ allele is sufficient to

maintain the correct shape of the nucleus (Fig. 2 H, Figure 2 – supplement 3).

To study the effects of Cylicin deficiency on sperm calyx integrity and morphology, we analyzed the

localization of other calyx-specific proteins, such as CCIN and CapZα3. In epididymal sperm, CCIN co-

localize with both CYLC1 and CYLC2 in the calyx (Figure 2 – supplement 4). In *Cylc1*$^{-/Y}$ and *Cylc2*$^{+/-}$

sperm, CCIN localization remained unchanged, being present in the calyx and in the ventral portion

of PT as described previously [7]. However, in 91% of *Cylc2*$^{-/-}$ sperm, CCIN localized to the tail or in

random parts of the sperm head (Fig. 2 I, J). In 91% of *Cylc1*$^{-/Y}$ *Cylc2*$^{+/-}$ and 98% of *Cylc1*$^{-/Y}$ *Cylc2*$^{-/-}$

sperm, the localization of CCIN was also significantly altered, with the signal mainly being present in

the sperm tail. CapZα3 forms a heterodimer with CapZβ3, creating a functional complex that localizes

in the calyx [21]. Immunofluorescence stainings revealed that the localization of CapZα3 remained

unchanged in *Cylc1*$^{-/Y}$ and *Cylc2*$^{+/-}$ mice compared to wildtype mice. In 84% of *Cylc2*$^{-/-}$ sperm cells,

CapZα3 localized in the caudal portion of the head but without regular calyx localization (Fig. 2 I, K).

Interestingly, *Cylc1*$^{-/Y}$ *Cylc2*$^{+/-}$ mice showed less severe anomalies of the calyx and although CCIN was

located almost exclusively in the tail, CapZα3 maintained the correct calyx localization in around 30%

of sperm (Fig. 2 I). Finally, 92% of *Cylc1*$^{-/Y}$ *Cylc2*$^{-/-}$ spermatozoa showed CapZα3 localization across the

sperm head without regular calyx shape. These results suggest that the loss of Cylicins impairs the

formation of calyx and the correct localization of its components, which might contribute to

morphological anomalies of the sperm described initially.

***Cylc2*$^{-/-}$ sperm cells have altered flagellar beat**

Transmission electron microscopy (TEM) of epididymal sperm confirmed the severe structural

defects observed by light microscopy (Fig. 3 A, Figure 3 – supplement 1): *Cylc2*$^{-/-}$ sperm showed

coiling of the tail and dislocation of the head-tail connecting piece from the basal plate, resulting in

parallel positioning of head and tail (Fig. 3 A, white arrowheads). Furthermore, in *Cylc2*$^{-/-}$ sperm,

excess of cytoplasm was observed, located around the nucleus and coiled tail (Fig. 3 A). Anomalies of

the head were observed at the level of the PT, while the nuclei appeared unaltered. In all *Cylc2*$^{-/-}$

sperm cells, the posterior portion of PT – calyx was absent (Fig. 3 A, red arrowheads). Instead of

surrounding the nucleus entirely, the PT in *Cylc2*$^{-/-}$ sperm appeared interrupted, missing completely

its caudal part. Further, we observed loosening of the peri-acrosomal region, which is not compact

and adherent to the nucleus (Fig. 3 A, green arrowheads). On the contrary, *Cylc1*$^{-/Y}$ sperm cells

appeared healthy, with intact PT, acrosome and calyx.

While the motility of *Cylc1*$^{-/Y}$ and *Cylc2*$^{+/-}$ sperm remained unchanged compared to wildtype sperm

(around 60% motile cells), motility of *Cylc2*$^{-/-}$ sperm was drastically reduced to only 7% motile sperm

(Fig. 3 B) and the motility of *Cylc1*$^{-/Y}$ *Cylc2*$^{-/-}$ sperm was reduced to 2% motile sperm. In addition, the

few motile sperm cells were not progressive but were swimming in circular trajectories. Interestingly,

in *Cylc1*$^{-/Y}$ *Cylc2*$^{+/-}$ mice, sperm motility was reduced as well, but less drastically, with 27% of sperm

cells being motile (Fig. 3 B).

The SpermQ software was used to analyze the flagellar beat of non-capacitated *Cylc2*^{-/-} sperm in

detail [22]. *Cylc2*^{-/-} sperm showed stiffness in the neck and a reduced amplitude of the initial flagellar

beat, as well as reduced average curvature of the flagellum during a single beat (Figure 3 –

supplement 2). Interestingly, we observed that the flagellar beat of *Cylc2*^{-/-} sperm cells was similar to

wildtype cells, however, with interruptions during which midpiece and initial principal piece

appeared stiff, whereas high frequency beating occurs at the flagellar tip (Fig. 3 C, Video 1, Video 2).

These interruptions occurred only on the open-hook side and the duration of such interruptions

varied from beat to beat. Of note, similar phenotypes have been observed for sperm with structural

defects in the axoneme [23], however axoneme structure of Cylicin-deficient sperm appeared

unaltered, presenting typical 9+2 microtubular composition in all genotypes (Figure 3 – supplement

1). Thus, we hypothesize that observed structural defects of the PT and head-tail connecting piece

are restrictive for sperm motility and physiological beating patterns.

Taken together, observed anomalies of sperm heads, impaired sperm motility, and the decrease in

epididymal sperm concentration show that Cylicin deficiency resembles a severe OAT (Oligo-

Astheno-Teratozoospermia-syndrome) described in human.

Cylicins are required for acrosome attachment to the nuclear envelope

To study the origin of observed structural sperm defects, spermiogenesis of Cylicin-deficient males

was analyzed in detail. PNA lectin staining and Periodic Acid Schiff (PAS) staining of testicular tissue

sections were performed to investigate acrosome biogenesis. During Golgi phase, the acrosome first

starts to appear as an aggregation of proacrosomal vesicles into a single granule. This premature

acrosomal structure was unaltered in all genotypes, with PNA signal appearing as a small dot on one

pole of round spermatids (Fig. 4 A-B). During cap phase, acrosomes grow to cover the apical part of

the nucleus. In wildtype and *Cylc2*^{+/-} mice, the forming acrosome appeared equally smooth and

showed a regular cap structure on the perinuclear region of round spermatids. However, in some of

the round spermatids from *Cylc2*^{-/-} and *Cylc1*^{-/Y} mice, gaps in the forming acrosome were observed, as

well as an irregular shape of the cap. In *Cylc1*^{-/Y} *Cylc2*^{+/-} and *Cylc1*^{-/Y} *Cylc2*^{-/-} mice, most of the round

spermatids were deformed or displayed irregularly localized caps (Fig. 4 A-B, Figure 4 – supplement

1, Figure 4 – supplement 2). At acrosome phase, many elongating spermatids of *Cylc1*^{-/Y}, *Cylc2*^{-/-},

Cylc1^{-/Y} *Cylc2*^{+/-} and *Cylc1*^{-/Y} *Cylc2*^{-/-} mice had irregular acrosome (Fig. 4 A-B, Figure 4 – supplement 1,

Figure 4 – supplement 2). Detachment of the acrosome from the nuclear envelope was evident in

testis samples of *Cylc2*^{-/-} and *Cylc1*^{-/Y} *Cylc2*^{-/-} male mice. These results suggest that Cylicins are

required for the attachment of the developing acrosome to the nuclear envelope during

spermiogenesis. Microtubules appeared longer on one side of the nucleus than on the other,

displacing the acrosome to the side and creating a gap in the PT (Fig. 4 C). Whereas elongated

spermatids at step 14-15 in wildtype sperm already disassembled their manchette and the PT

appeared as a unique structure that compactly surrounds nucleus, in $Cylc2^{-/-}$ spermatids, remaining

microtubules failed to disassemble (Fig. 4 C, yellow arrowhead), and the acrosome detached from

the nuclear envelope (green arrowhead). In addition, at step 16, the calyx was absent, and an excess

of cytoplasm surrounded the nucleus and flagellum (Fig. 4 C, white arrowhead). Furthermore, many

damaged and degrading cells were observed in testicular tissue TEM samples, having perforated

nuclei and detached structures (Figure 4 – supplement 3). Interestingly, phagosomes with cellular

remains were observed far away from the lumen and sometimes even at the basal membrane of the

tubuli, suggesting that the cells that suffer most severe structural damage are being removed. This

mechanism of removing malformed cells explains the reduction of epididymal sperm count in Cylicin-

deficient genotypes.

Cylicin deficiency results in abnormal manchette elongation and disassembly

Next, we investigated the role of Cylicins during formation and development of the manchette – a

sperm-specific, transient structure that represents a microtubular platform for protein transport,

which showed several anomalies in TEM. Transport of the intracellular vesicles is crucial for the

formation of the flagellum, acrosome assembly and removal of excess cytoplasm. The manchette is

first detected at step 8 at the perinuclear ring of round spermatids, just prior to their elongation.

During the next steps of spermiogenesis, as the spermatids elongate, manchette moves towards the

neck region in a skirt-like structure and starts disassembling at step 13 when the elongation is

complete [24]. We used immunofluorescence staining of α-tubulin on squash testis samples containing

spermatids at different stages of spermiogenesis to investigate whether the altered head shape,

calyx structure, and tail-head connection anomalies originate from defects of the manchette

structure. Spermatids starting from step 8 were observed individually for step-to-step comparison. In

all genotypes, a cap-like shape of the manchette was observed in step 8 round spermatids,

suggesting that the manchette assembles properly and starts elongating towards the neck region

during step 9 (Figure 5 – supplement 1). In all genotypes, the typical skirt-like structure was observed

at the caudal region of the spermatids at step 10 and 11, suggesting that the manchette assembles

correctly even in Cylicin-deficient sperm (Fig. 5 A). In spermatids from $Cylc1^{-/Y}$ and $Cylc2^{+/-}$ mice,

regular manchette development was observed in further steps of spermiogenesis (Fig. 5 A). However,

starting from step 12, spermatids from $Cylc2^{-/-}$, $Cylc1^{-/Y} Cylc2^{+/-}$, and $Cylc1^{-/Y} Cylc2^{-/-}$ mice showed

abnormal manchette elongation, which became more prominent at step 13 (Fig. 5 A). Manchette

length was measured starting from step 10 until step 13 spermatids and the mean was obtained,

showing that the average manchette length was 76-80 nm in wildtype, $Cylc1^{-/Y}$ and $Cylc2^{+/-}$, while for

$Cylc2^{-/-}$ and $Cylc1^{-/Y}$ $Cylc2^{-/-}$ spermatids mean manchette length reached 100 nm (Fig. 5 B). $Cylc1^{-/Y}$

$Cylc2^{+/-}$ spermatids displayed an intermediate phenotype with a mean manchette length of 86 nm.

Interestingly, some of $Cylc2$-deficient spermatids showed shifting of the manchette to the ventral

side of the nucleus along with excessive elongation. At step 16, the manchette was normally

disassembled in wildtype, $Cylc1^{-/Y}$, and $Cylc2^{+/-}$ spermatids (Fig. 5 A). However, $Cylc2^{-/-}$, $Cylc1^{-/Y}$ $Cylc2^{+/-}$

, and $Cylc1^{-/Y}$ $Cylc2^{-/-}$ spermatids showed a persistent α-tubulin signal, indicating that disassembly of

the manchette is delayed or incomplete (Fig. 5 A).

Other than α-tubulin, we also used HOOK1 as manchette marker. HOOK1 is a member of a family of

coiled-coil proteins, which bind to microtubules and organelles and regulate microtubule trafficking

during endocytosis and spermiogenesis. Co-staining of the spermatids with antibodies against PNA

lectin (green) and HOOK1 (red) revealed that abnormal manchette elongation and acrosome

anomalies simultaneously occurred in elongating spermatids of $Cylc2^{-/-}$ male mice (Fig. 5 C).

Schematic representation shows acrosome biogenesis and manchette development in wildtype and

$Cylc2^{-/-}$ spermatids (Fig. 5 C). While round spermatids of $Cylc2^{-/-}$ mice elongated as those of the

wildtype sperm, the manchette elongated abnormally and the acrosome became loosened (Fig. 4 C,

Fig. 5 C).

$Cylc2$ coding sequence is slightly more conserved among species than $Cylc1$

To address why $Cylc2$ deficiency causes more severe phenotypic alterations than $Cylc1$ deficiency in

mice, we performed evolutionary analysis of both genes. Analysis of the selective constrains on $Cylc1$

and $Cylc2$ across rodents and primates revealed that both genes' coding sequences are conserved in

general, although conservation is weaker in $Cylc1$ trending towards a more relaxed constraint (Fig. 6).

A model allowing for separate calculation of the evolutionary rate for primates and rodents, did not

detect a significant difference between the clades, neither for $Cylc1$ nor for $Cylc2$, indicating that the

sequences are equally conserved in both clades.

To analyze the selective pressure across the coding sequence in more detail, we calculated the

evolutionary rates for each codon site across the whole tree. According to the analysis, 34% of codon

sites were conserved, 51% under relaxed selective constraint, and 15% positively selected. For $Cylc2$,

47% of codon sites were conserved, 44% under neutral/relaxed constraint, and 9% positively

selected. Interestingly, codon sites encoding lysine residues, which are proposed to be of functional

importance for Cylicins, are mostly conserved. For $Cylc1$, 17% of lysine residues are significantly

conserved and 35% of significantly conserved codons encode for lysine. For *Cylc2*, this pattern is even
more pronounced with 27.9% of lysine codons being significantly conserved and 24.3% of all
conserved sites encoding for lysine (Fig. 6).

Cylicins are required for normal sperm morphology in human

As loss of two Cylicin alleles causes fertility defects in mice, we next addressed whether infertile men
also display variants in *CYLC1/CYLC2*.

Exome sequencing within the MERGE (**M**al**e R**eproductive **G**enomics study) cohort identified one
patient (M2270) carrying rare (MAF < 0.01, gnomAD) missense variants in both *CYLC1* and *CYLC2*. The
man of German origin presented at age of 40 years for couple infertility because unsuccessfully trying
to conceive for 6 years. The couple underwent one ICSI procedure which resulted in 17 fertilized
oocytes out of 18 retrieved. Three cryo-single embryo transfers were performed in spontaneous
cycles, but no pregnancy was achieved.

Patient M2270 carries the hemizygous variant c.1720G>C in *CYLC1* that leads to an amino acid
exchange from glutamic acid to glutamine (p.(Glu574Gln)), is predicted to be deleterious or possibly
damaging by *in silico* tools (SIFT [25] and PolyPhen [26], respectively), and has a CADD score of 11.91. It is
located in exon four out of five and affects a region that is predicted to be intolerant to such
substitutions (Figure 7 – supplement 1, metadome). It occurs only twice in the gnomAD database
(v2.1.1) comprising 141,456 individuals (67,961 XY), once identified in a hemizygous male and once in
a female carrier and is absent from our database.

M2270 further carries the heterozygous variant c.551G>A in *CYLC2* that is predicted to be tolerated
(SIFT) or benign (PolyPhen) in accordance with a low CADD score of 0.008. It is located in exon five
out of eight and affects a region in which variants are likely to be tolerated (Figure 7 – supplement 1,
metadome). However, it is a rare variant occurring with an allele frequency of 0.0035 in the general
population, according to the gnomAD database. Importantly, only three XX individuals are reported
to be homozygous for the variant within *CYLC2*.

Segregation analyses revealed maternal inheritance of the X-linked *CYLC1* variant c.1720G>C p.
(Glu574Gln), whereas the father carries the heterozygous *CYLC2* variant c.551G>A p.(Gly184Asp) (Fig.
7 A). According to ACMG-AMP criteria [27] both variants are classified as variants of uncertain
significance. No other potentially pathogenic variants in genes associated with sperm morphological
defects were identified by exploring the exome data of M2270.

Semen analysis performed following WHO guidelines [28] is shown in Table 1. The sperm concentration
in the semen was slightly reduced, while significant reduction of motile spermatozoa (12.5%) was
observed. Interestingly, only 2% of the sperm cells appeared morphologically normal, while 98% of

sperm showed head defects (Table 1). Immunofluorescence staining of CYLC1 revealed that while in healthy donor's sperm, CYLC1 localizes in the calyx, in M2270, CYLC1 labeling was absent (Fig. 7 B). Bright field microscopy demonstrated that M2270's sperm flagella coiled in a similar manner compared to flagella of sperm from Cylicin-deficient mice. Quantification revealed 57% of M2270 sperm displaying abnormal flagella compared to 6% in the healthy donor (Fig. 7 D). Interestingly, DAPI staining revealed that 27% of M2270 flagella carry cytoplasmatic bodies without nuclei and could be defined as headless spermatozoa (Fig. 7 C, white arrowhead; Fig. 7 E). CCIN staining demonstrated that while spermatozoa of a healthy donor showed a typical, funnel-like calyx structure in the posterior region of PT, spermatozoa from M2270 had CCIN localized in irregular manner throughout head and tail, suggesting that Cylicins have a role in maintenance of the calyx structure and composition in both mice and human spermatozoa (Fig. 7 F). Testis-specific phospholipase C zeta 1 (PLCζ1) is localized in the postacrosomal region of PT in mammalian sperm [29] and has a role in generating calcium (Ca^{2+}) oscillations that are necessary for oocyte activation [30]. Staining of healthy donor's spermatozoa showed a previously described localization of PLCζ1 in the calyx, while sperm from M2270 patient presents signal irregularly through the PT surrounding sperm heads (Fig. 7 G). These results suggest that Cylicin deficiency can cause severe disruption of PT in human sperm as well, causing male infertility.

Discussion

Spermiogenesis is a highly organized process that is dependent on a unique cytoskeletal organization of the sperm cells. The PT has a role of structural scaffold that surrounds sperm nucleus, and its protein composition is crucial for correct sperm development. In this study, we used CRISPR/Cas9 gene editing to establish *Cylc1-*, *Cylc2-* and *Cylc1/2-*deficient mouse lines to analyze the role of Cylicins. We demonstrated that the loss of Cylicins impairs male fertility in mice by severely disturbing sperm head architecture. The significance of our findings is supported by the identification of *CYLC1/2* variants in an infertile patient who presents similar structural anomalies in sperm cells.

Detailed analysis of sperm development and morphology demonstrated that infertility of Cylicin-deficient male mice is caused by anomalies of different sperm structures. The prominent loss of PT integrity and calyx structure in the mature sperm lead to acrosome loosening and detachment from the nuclear envelope. Furthermore, the shifting of the basal plate caused damage in the head-tail connecting piece resulting in coiling of the flagellum and impaired swimming. Murine Cylicins are first detected in the periacrosomal region of round spermatids and move to the postacrosomal region of PT during spermatid elongation to finally localize to the calyx of mature sperm. This dynamic localization pattern of Cylicins has been described in human, boar and bovine sperm as well [2, 14, 15].

Interestingly, other PT enriched proteins CCIN [12, 31, 7] and CPβ3/CPα3 move in the similar manner

across PT during spermiogenesis and are present in the calyx of mature sperm of various mammalian

species (Figure 2 – supplement 4). This co-localization suggests the potential interaction between

calyx proteins. Furthermore, CCIN [2, 12, 13] and CPβ3-CPα3 complex [16–18] are described as actin-binding

proteins and porcine Cylc2 has been shown to have a high affinity for F-actin as well [20]. The potential

roles of F-actin during spermiogenesis in mammals involve biogenesis of the acrosome [32] and its

correct attachment to the outer nuclear membrane of the spermatids [33] as well as removal of excess

cytoplasm [34].

The loss of Cylicins caused acrosome detachment from NE starting from cap phase of the acrosome

biogenesis. Interestingly, loss of CCIN results in similar loosening of the acroplaxome from the outer

nuclear membrane [7]. CCIN is shown to be necessary for the IAM-PT-NE complex by establishing

bidirectional connections with other PT proteins. Zhang et al. found CYLC1 to be among proteins

enriched in PT fraction [7]. Based on their speculation that CCIN is the main organizer of the PT, we

hypothesize that both CCIN and Cylicins might interact, either directly or in a complex with other

proteins, in order to provide the 'molecular glue' necessary for the acrosome anchoring.

Furthermore, Cylicin deficiency resulted in cytoplasmatic retention and bending of the midpiece,

similarly to the CPα3 mutant phenotype repro32/repro32 [35]. The CAPZ complex has been shown to

regulate the actin dynamics by preventing addition or loss of G-actin subunits to the ends of F-actin

filaments [36]. Since we demonstrated that the loss of Cylicins resulted in mislocalization of both CCIN

and CPα3, we speculate that Cylicins have a crucial role in maintenance of the integrity of PT

structure and thus are required for proper function of PT proteins.

Other than morphological defects of the mature sperm PT, during spermiogenesis Cylicin deficiency

results in excessive manchette elongation, its delayed disassembly as well as formation of abnormal

gaps in the PT at the level of perinuclear ring. The intra-manchette transport (IMT) of proteins from

the apical pole of the head to the base of the developing tail occurs during spermiogenesis [37]. The

malfunctions of the IMT can cause delay in manchette clearance and morphological defects of

mature sperm. Mouse models deficient for IMT proteins such as HOOK1 [38] CEP131 [39] and IFT88 [40]

show abnormal manchette elongation and delay in its clearance resulting in aberrant nuclear shape

of the sperm. Furthermore, the loss of HOOK1 results in head-tail connection and mid-piece

anomalies such as flipping of the head, basal plate defects and coiling of the tail similar to *Cylc2*

deficiency [41]. The localization of manchette on the caudal portion of spermatids coincides with the

localization of the calyx in the mature sperm, so these results indicate that the manchette might be

maintained longer to compensate for the missing formation of the calyx structure. Furthermore, we

observed wide gaps in the perinuclear ring during manchette elongation, suggesting that Cylicins

might have a role in maintenance of the contact between caudal and apical PT region and its

integrity.

Our evolutionary analysis of *Cylc1* and *Cylc2* genes across rodents and primates revealed that both

coding sequences are under purifying selection. Overall, the results reveal that *Cylc1* is under slightly

less conserved constraint than *Cylc2* leading to the hypothesis that loss of function in *Cylc1* might be

less severe and could be compensated for by *Cylc2* due to partial redundancy. This hypothesis is

supported by our finding that *Cylc1* deficiency causes subfertility in male mice, while the loss of both

Cylc2 alleles results in male infertility. Furthermore, *in Cylc2$^{+/-}$* male mice fertility was preserved,

while *Cylc1$^{-/Y}$ Cylc2$^{+/-}$* males were unable to sire offspring leading to the conclusion that the loss of

one *Cylc2* allele could be compensated by *Cylc1*, however at least two functional Cylicin alleles are

required for male fertility in mice. Interestingly, *Cylc1$^{-/Y}$ Cylc2$^{+/-}$* males displayed an "intermediate"

phenotype, showing slightly less damaged sperm than *Cylc2$^{-/-}$* and *Cylc1$^{-/Y}$ Cylc2$^{-/-}$* animals. This further

supports our notion, that loss of the less conserved *Cylc1* gene might be at least partially

compensated by the remaining *Cylc2* allele.

In general, the evolutionary rate of C-terminal lysine rich region of both Cylicins seems to be highly

volatile between conserved and positively selected codon sites, while the lysine residues seem to be

strongly conserved. Changes in the C-terminal region, potentially affecting the length of the lysine

rich domain, might have an adaptive advantage. Targeted positive selection on codon sites could also

be a signature of co-evolution with a rapidly evolving interactor.

Sperm morphological defects and infertility observed in one patient with variants in both Cylicin

genes points towards a requirement for human spermiogenesis and fertility. A defect in acrosome

formation and the existence of variants in two out of three alleles in both *CYLC* genes is in line with

the observations made in mice. The absence of CYLC1 confirmed through immunofluorescent

staining indicates a functional impact of the missense variant on the CYLC1 protein. Furthermore,

impaired CCIN localization was observed in patient M2270 as well, suggesting that PT has similar

roles in human and rodents despite the differences in sperm head shape [42]. These results suggest

that establishing mouse models deficient for Cylicin and other PT proteins might provide insights into

mechanisms of human spermiogenesis and cytoskeletal regulation as well. However, with our data

we cannot exclude the possibility that there is a discrepancy between mice and men and that the

missense variant in *CYLC1* might alone be sufficient to cause the observed phenotype of M2270. The

o/e ratios of both genes calculated within the gnomAD database rather indicate a stronger selective

pressure on human *CYLC1* (0.08) than on *CYLC2* (0.84). Furthermore, the *CYLC1* variant affects an

intolerant region within the protein sequence according to metadome [43], whereas the *CYLC2* variant

is located in a region that is more tolerant to variation (Figure 7 – supplement 1). Therefore, we
cannot definitively validate the hypothesis of an oligogenic disease in men as well.

The *CYLC2* missense variant is inherited by the father of M2270 (Fig. 5A) and, thus, not sufficient to
cause infertility. However, the father reported difficulties to conceive naturally. Based on this one
family, we cannot exclude an effect of pathogenic heterozygous *CYLC2* variants.

Overall, the identification and detailed characterization of further patients with variants in *CYLC1* and
CYLC2 is warranted to draw firm conclusions on the effect of variants in these genes on
spermiogenesis and infertility.

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Figure legends

Figure 1: Loss of *Cylc1* or *Cylc2* results in impaired male fertility.

(A) Schematic representation of the *Cylc1* and *Cylc2* gene structure and targeting strategy for CRISPR/Cas9-
mediated generation of *Cylc1*- and *Cylc2*-deficient alleles. Targeting sites of guide RNAs are depicted by red
arrows. Genotyping primer binding sites are depicted by black arrows.
(B) Representative genotyping PCR of *Cylc1*- and *Cylc2*-deficient mice. N=3
(C) Fertility analysis of Cylicin-deficient mice visualized by mean litter size and pregnancy rate (%) in
comparison to wildtype matings. Black dots represent mean values obtained for each male included in
fertility testing. Columns represent mean values +/- standard deviation (SD). Total number of offspring per
total number of pregnancies as well as total number of pregnancies per total number of plugs are depicted
above each bar.
(D) Expression of *Cylc1* and *Cylc2* in testicular tissue of WT, $Cylc1^{-/y}$, $Cylc2^{+/-}$, $Cylc2^{-/-}$, $Cylc1^{-/y}$ $Cylc2^{+/-}$ and
$Cylc1^{-/y}$ $Cylc2^{-/-}$ mice analyzed by qRT PCR. Biological replicate of 3 was used.

(E) Immunofluorescent staining of testicular tissue and cauda epididymal sperm from WT, *Cylc1*^{-/y}, *Cylc2*^{+/-},

Cylc2^{-/-}, *Cylc1*^{-/y} *Cylc2*^{+/-} and *Cylc1*^{-/y} *Cylc2*^{-/-} males against CYLC1 and CYLC2. Cell nuclei were counterstained

with DAPI. Staining was performed on 3 animals from each genotype. Scale bar: 5 µm.

(F) Schematic illustration of CYLC localization during spermiogenesis. CYLC localization (green) is shown for

round and elongating spermatids as well as mature sperm.

(G) Representative immunoblot against CYLC1 and CYLC2 on cytoskeletal protein fractions from WT, *Cylc1*^{-/y},

Cylc2^{+/-} and *Cylc2*^{-/-} testes. α-Tubulin was used as load control.

Figure 1 – supplement 1: Amino acid sequence comparison of CYLC1 and CYLC2 in *C.elegans* and *M.musculus*

to *H.sapiens*. KKD/E motifs are highlighted in blue and repeating units are marked by red brackets.

Figure 1 – supplement 2: Immunohistochemical staining against CYLC1 and CYLC2 in tissue sections of testis,

brain, thymus and spleen. Scale bar: 100 µm.

Figure 1 – supplement 3: Immunofluorescence staining against the acrosomal matrix marker protein SP56

(green) and CYLC1 or CYLC2 (red) in round and elongating spermatids. Nuclei were stained with DAPI. Scale bar:

5 µm.

Figure 1 – supplement 4: Immunofluorescence staining of CYLC1 and CYLC2 in elongating spermatids of WT,

Cylc1^{-/y}, *Cylc2*^{+/-}, *Cylc2*^{-/-}, *Cylc1*^{-/y} *Cylc2*^{+/-} and *Cylc1*^{-/y} *Cylc2*^{-/-} mice. Scale bar: 5 µm.

Figure 1 – supplement 5: Proteome abundances

Figure 1 – supplement 6: Proteome clustering

Figure 2: Sperm morphology is severely altered in Cylicin-deficient mice

(A) Testis weight [mg] and sperm count (x10^7) of WT, *Cylc1*^{-/y}, *Cylc2*^{+/-}, *Cylc2*^{-/-}, *Cylc1*^{-/y} *Cylc2*^{+/-} and *Cylc1*^{-/y}

Cylc2^{-/-} males. Mean values +/- SD are shown; block dots represent data points for individual males.

(B) Comparable photographs of the testes of WT, *Cylc1*^{-/y}, *Cylc2*^{+/-}, *Cylc2*^{-/-}, *Cylc1*^{-/y} *Cylc2*^{+/-} and *Cylc1*^{-/y} *Cylc2*^{-/-}

mice.

(C) Epididymal sperm count (x10^7) of WT, *Cylc1*^{-/y}, *Cylc2*^{+/-}, *Cylc2*^{-/-}, *Cylc1*^{-/y} *Cylc2*^{+/-} and *Cylc1*^{-/y} *Cylc2*^{-/-} males.

Mean values +/- SD are shown; block dots represent data points for individual males.

(D) Viability of the epididymal sperm stained with Eosin Nigrosine. Percentage of Eosin negative (viable) and

Eosin positive (inviable) sperm is shown. Data represented as mean +/- SD. Staining was performed on 3

animals from each genotype.

(E) Bright field microscopy pictures of epididymal sperm from WT, Cylc1^{-/y}, Cylc2^{+/-} and Cylc2^{-/-} mice. Scale bar:

10 µm.

(F) Immunofluorescence staining of epididymal sperm acrosomes with PNA lectin (green) and tails with

MITOred (red). Nuclei were counterstained with DAPI. Scale bar: 5 µm.

(G) Quantification of abnormal sperm of WT, *Cylc1*$^{-/y}$, *Cylc2*$^{+/-}$, *Cylc2*$^{-/-}$, *Cylc1*$^{-/y}$ *Cylc2*$^{+/-}$ and *Cylc1*$^{-/y}$ *Cylc2*$^{-/-}$ mice

is shown. Acrosome aberrations and tail coiling were counted separately. Staining was performed on 3

animals from each genotype.

(H) Nuclear morphology analysis of WT, *Cylc1*$^{-/y}$, *Cylc2*$^{+/-}$, *Cylc2*$^{-/-}$, *Cylc1*$^{-/y}$ *Cylc2*$^{+/-}$ and *Cylc1*$^{-/y}$ *Cylc2*$^{-/-}$ sperm.

Number of cells analyzed for each genotype is shown.

(I) Representative pictures of immunofluorescent staining against PT proteins CCIN (upper panel) and CAPZa3

(lower panel) in WT, *Cylc1*$^{-/y}$, *Cylc2*$^{+/-}$, *Cylc2*$^{-/-}$, *Cylc1*$^{-/y}$ *Cylc2*$^{+/-}$ and *Cylc1*$^{-/y}$ *Cylc2*$^{-/-}$ sperm. Nuclei were

counterstained with DAPI. Staining was performed on 3 animals from each genotype. Scale bar: 5 μm.

(J-K) Quantification of sperm with abnormal calyx integrity in WT, *Cylc1*$^{-/y}$, *Cylc2*$^{+/-}$, *Cylc2*$^{-/-}$, *Cylc1*$^{-/y}$ *Cylc2*$^{+/-}$ and

Cylc1$^{-/y}$ *Cylc2*$^{-/-}$ mice based on CCIN and CapZA staining patterns.

Figure 2 – supplement 1: HE-stained testicular tissue sections of WT, *Cylc1*$^{-/y}$, *Cylc2*$^{+/-}$, *Cylc2*$^{-/-}$, *Cylc1*$^{-/y}$ *Cylc2*$^{+/-}$

and *Cylc1*$^{-/y}$ *Cylc2*$^{-/-}$ mice. Scale bar: 100 μm.

Figure 2 – supplement 2: Eosin-Nigrosin staining of epididymal sperm samples from WT, *Cylc1*$^{-/y}$, *Cylc2*$^{+/-}$, *Cylc2*$^{-/-}$

, *Cylc1*$^{-/y}$ *Cylc2*$^{+/-}$ and *Cylc1*$^{-/y}$ *Cylc2*$^{-/-}$ mice. Scale bar: 10 μm.

Figure 2 – supplement 3: Nuclei of WT, *Cylc1*$^{-/y}$, *Cylc2*$^{+/-}$, *Cylc2*$^{-/-}$, *Cylc1*$^{-/y}$ *Cylc2*$^{+/-}$ and *Cylc1*$^{-/y}$ *Cylc2*$^{-/-}$ sperm

stained with DAPI. Scale bar: 5 μm. Elongation and circularity of nuclei from WT, *Cylc1*$^{-/y}$, *Cylc2*$^{+/-}$, *Cylc2*$^{-/-}$, *Cylc1*$^{-/-}$

Cylc2$^{+/-}$ and *Cylc1*$^{-/y}$ *Cylc2*$^{-/-}$ sperm. The minimum detection area was set to 1.000 pixels, while the maximum

detection area was 7.000 pixels.

Figure 2 – supplement 4: Co-staining against CYLC1/CYLC2 (red) and CCIN (green) in epididymal sperm cells of

WT mouse. Nuclei were counterstained with DAPI. Scale bar: 2 μm.

Figure 3: *Cylc2*$^{-/-}$ sperm cells have altered flagellar beat

(A) TEM micrographs of WT, *Cylc1*$^{-/y}$ and *Cylc2*$^{-/-}$ epididymal sperm. Acrosome appears detached from the

nucleus in *Cylc2*$^{-/-}$ sperm (green arrowheads), while the calyx is missing entirely (red arrowheads). The

head-tail connecting piece shifted from the basal plate is shown by white arrowheads causing the looping

of the flagellum and formation of a cytoplasmatic sac. *Cylc1*$^{-/y}$ sperm appears comparable to WT. Scale bar:

1 μm.

(B) Motility of the epididymal sperm of WT, *Cylc1*$^{-/y}$, *Cylc2*$^{+/-}$, *Cylc2*$^{-/-}$, *Cylc1*$^{-/y}$ *Cylc2*$^{+/-}$ and *Cylc1*$^{-/y}$ *Cylc2*$^{-/-}$ males

activated in TYH medium.

(C) Full and half-beat cycle plots of the flagellar beat are shown for WT and *Cylc2*$^{-/-}$ spermatozoa. Half beat

cycle shows the stiffness of the midpiece (upper arrow) and high oscillations (lower arrow) in *Cylc2*$^{-/-}$ sperm

in one direction of the beat.

Figure 3 – supplement 1: TEM micrographs of WT and *Cylc2*$^{-/-}$ sperm and axonemes.

Figure 3 – supplement 2: SpermQ analysis of the flagellar beat of WT (green) and *Cylc2$^{-/-}$* (red) sperm. Average curvature of the flagellum and the arc length are shown.

Figure 4: Cylicins are required for acrosome attachment to the nuclear envelope

(A) PNA-FITC lectin immunofluorescence staining of the acrosome in testicular tissue of WT, *Cylc1$^{-/Y}$, Cylc2$^{+/-}$, Cylc2$^{-/-}$, Cylc1$^{-/Y}$ Cylc2$^{+/-}$* and *Cylc1$^{-/Y}$ Cylc2$^{-/-}$* mice (green). Golgi phase of acrosome biogenesis at round spermatid stage (I-IV) is visible in the left panel. Middle panel shows cap phases on round spermatids (stage V-VIII). In the right panel acrosomal phase is shown (stage IX-XI). Nuclei were counterstained with DAPI. Staining was performed on 3 animals from each genotype. Scale bar: 10 µm. Insets show representative single spermatids at higher magnification (scale bar: 2 µm).

(B) PAS staining of testicular sections from WT, *Cylc1$^{-/Y}$, Cylc2$^{+/-}$, Cylc2$^{-/-}$, Cylc1$^{-/Y}$ Cylc2$^{+/-}$* and *Cylc1$^{-/Y}$ Cylc2$^{-/-}$* mice. Representative spermatids at different steps of spermiogenesis are shown. Scale bar: 3 µm.

(C) TEM micrographs of testicular tissues of WT and *Cylc2$^{-/-}$* mice. Single spermatids from step 6 to step 16 are shown. nu: nucleus; av: acrosomal vesicle; pr: perinuclear ring; m: manchette microtubules; cy: cytoplasm; green arrowheads: developing acrosome; red arrowheads: manchette; white arrowhead: cytoplasm; yellow arrowhead: remaining microtubules in mature sperm. Scale bar: 1 µm.

Figure 4 – supplement 1: PNA-lectin immunofluorescence staining of WT, *Cylc1$^{-/Y}$, Cylc2$^{+/-}$, Cylc2$^{-/-}$, Cylc1$^{-/Y}$ Cylc2$^{+/-}$* and *Cylc1$^{-/Y}$ Cylc2$^{-/-}$* testicular tissue. Spermatids at cap phase and acrosome phase of acrosome biogenesis are shown individually. Scale bar: 5 µm.

Figure 4 – supplement 2: PAS stained testicular tissue sections of WT, *Cylc1$^{-/Y}$, Cylc2$^{+/-}$, Cylc2$^{-/-}$, Cylc1$^{-/Y}$ Cylc2$^{+/-}$* and *Cylc1$^{-/Y}$ Cylc2$^{-/-}$* mice. Scale bar: 20 µm.

Figure 4 – supplement 3: TEM micrographs of degrading damaged spermatids in testicular sections of *Cylc2$^{-/-}$* mice. Scale bar: 5 µm.

Figure 5: Cylc2 deficiency causes delay in manchette removal

(A) Immunofluorescence staining of α-Tubulin to visualize manchette structure in squash testis samples of WT, *Cylc1$^{-/Y}$, Cylc2$^{+/-}$, Cylc2$^{-/-}$, Cylc1$^{-/Y}$ Cylc2$^{+/-}$* and *Cylc1$^{-/Y}$ Cylc2$^{-/-}$* mice. Spermatids in different steps of spermiogenesis were shown, for step-to-step comparison. Scale bar: 5 µm.

(B) Quantification of manchette length in WT, *Cylc1$^{-/Y}$, Cylc2$^{+/-}$, Cylc2$^{-/-}$, Cylc1$^{-/Y}$ Cylc2$^{+/-}$* and *Cylc1$^{-/Y}$ Cylc2$^{-/-}$* α-Tubulin stained spermatids at step 10-13.

(C) Co-staining of the manchette with HOOK1 (red) and acrosome with PNA-lectin (green) is shown in round, elongating and elongated spermatids of WT (upper panel) and *Cylc2$^{-/-}$* mice (lower panel). Scale bar: 3 µm. Schematic representation shows acrosomal structure (green) and manchette filaments (red).

Figure 5 – supplement 1: Immunofluorescence staining of α-Tubulin in WT, *Cylc1$^{-/y}$*, *Cylc2$^{+/-}$*, *Cylc2$^{-/-}$*, *Cylc1$^{-/y}$*

Cylc2$^{+/-}$ and *Cylc1$^{-/y}$ Cylc2$^{-/-}$* squash testis samples. Spermatids at step 8-9 are shown. Scale bar: 10 μm.

Figure 6: Species phylogeny with branch length representing number of nucleotide substitutions per codon

with

schematic representation of (A) CYLC1 and (B) CYLC2 amino acid alignment used in the PAML CodeML analysis.

Alignments were stripped of columns with gaps in more than 80% of species. Evolutionary rate (ω) obtained by

CodeML models M0 is shown for the whole alignment. The graph on top shows the evolutionary rate (ω) per

codon sites across the whole tree (CodeML model M2a). Significantly positively selected sites are marked by

asterisks. Sites with a probability of higher than 0.95 to belonging to the conserved or positively selected site

class are marked in green and red respectively below the graph.

Figure 7: Cylicins are required for human male fertility

(A) Pedigree of patient M2270. His father (M2270_F) is carrier of the heterozygous *CYLC2* variant c.551G>A

and his mother (M2270_M) carries the X-linked *CYLC1* variant c.1720G>C in a heterozygous state. Asterisks

(*) indicate the location of the variants in *CYLC1* and *CYLC2* within the electropherograms.

(B) Immunofluorescence staining of CYLC1 in spermatozoa from healthy donor and patient M2270. In donor's

sperm cells CYLC1 localizes in the calyx, while patient's sperm cells are completely missing the signal. Scale

bar: 5 μm.

(C) Bright field images of the spermatozoa from healthy donor and M2270 show visible head and tail

anomalies, coiling of the flagellum as well as headless spermatozoa, which carry cytoplasmatic residues

without nuclei (white arrowhead). Heads were counterstained with DAPI. Scale bar: 5 μm.

(D-E) Quantification of flagellum integrity (D) and headless sperm (E) in the semen of patient M2270 and a

healthy donor.

(F-G) Immunofluorescence staining of CCIN (F) and PLCz (G) in sperm cells of patient M2270 and a healthy

donor. Nuclei were counterstained with DAPI. Scale bar: 3 μm.

Figure 7 – supplement 1:

(A) Localization of the CYLC1 variant found in M2270. The variant affects exon four and an intolerant part of

the C-terminal region of CYLC1 according to metadome 41.

(B) CYLC2 variant localization. The missense variant in CYLC2 detected in M2270 affects exon five and a

tolerant part of CYLC2 according to metadome 41.

608 **Table 1:** Semen analysis of the patient M2770 carrying variants in the *CYLC1* and *CYLC2* genes

	First visit	**Second visit**	**WHO reference rang**
Abstinence time [d]	4.0	5.0	
Volume [ml]	4.2	5.8	> 1.4
Concentration [Mill./ml]	10.5	16.3	> 16
Total sperm count [Mill.]	44.1	94.5	> 39
Vitality [%]	53	27	> 54
Motility			
a [%]	7	9	a + b >30
b [%]	5	4	
c [%]	19	8	
d [%]	69	79	
Morphology			
Normal [%]	2	2	> 4
Head defects [%]	99	99	
Midpiece defects [%]	63	59	
Flagella defects [%]	18	47	

610 **Table 2: Protospacer sequences**

Name	protospacer sequence (5´-3´)
Mm.Cas9.CYLC1.sg1	GGTTTATCCATACGTGAGT
Mm.Cas9.CYLC1.sg2	GGCTTAGGTGATGCTCTAAA
Mm.Cas9.CYLC2.1.AB	AAGGGAGAGTCGAAAAGCGT
Mm.Cas9.CYLC2.1.AF	GGATCCAAGGATAAAGTGTC

612 **Table 3: PCR primer sequences**

Cylc1	5´-3´	expected band size
Cylc1_F1	TATACACACAATCCACAATCTTGAAAT	WT: 427 bp
Cylc1_R1	TCACTTCAAAATCCAACTTGTCCT	*KO: 264 bp*
Cylc1_R2	TGCCTAGTATTTCAGGTTCCCC	
Cylc2		
Cylc2_F1	ACCACCATTATGGATGCACCG	WT: 376 bp
Cylc2_R1	AGTGTTTCTTGTGAGCTCGTTG	KO: 286 bp

Cylc2_R2	GGCTGAATCTTTACCCTTAGGT	

Table 4: qRT primer sequences

Name	forward (5´-3´)	reverse (5´-3´)
Cylc1	GGGGAAAAATAAGCTCATGTGTAG	TTCAGGTTCCCCATTGGTTA
Cylc2	GCATTTCCCAAACCACCAAGG	AACGGATGGTCTCTCGGATATT
beta-actin	TGTTACCAACTGGGACGACA	GGGTGTTGAAGGTCTCAAA

Table 5: Antibodies

Antibody	company	Catalogue number	Antigen	Dilution IF	Dilution WB
α-Tubulin	Abcam	ab7291			1:10000 in 3% BSA
α-Tubulin	Merck Millipore (Billerica, USA)	16-232		1:1000	
CapZa3	Progen	GP-SH4		1:500	
Ccin	Progen	GP-SH3		1:500	
Cylc1 (used for mouse)	Davids Biotechnology (Regensburg, Germany)	Custom made polyclonal antibody	AESRKSKNDERRKTLKIKFRGK and KDAKKEGKKKGKRESRKKR	1:1000 (sperm cells) 1:500 (testis tissue) 1:1000 Western blot	1:1000 in 5% milk in TBST
Cylc1 (used for human samples)	Santa Cruz	sc-166400		1:500	
Cylc2	Davids Biotechnology (Regensburg, Germany)	Custom made polyclonal antibody	KSVGTHKSLASEKTKKEVK and ESGGEKAGSKKEAKDDKKDA	1:1000 (sperm cells) 1:500 (testis tissue) 1:1000 Western blot	1:1000 in 5% milk in TBST
Hook1	Proteintech	10871-1-AP		1:500	

| PLCζ | Invitrogen | PA5-50476 | | 1:100 | |
| Sp56 | Invitrogen | MA1-10866 | | 1:500 | |

Methods

Animals

All animal experiments were conducted according to German law of animal protection and in

agreement with the approval of the local institutional animal care committees (Landesamt für Natur,

Umwelt und Verbraucherschutz, North Rhine-Westphalia, approval IDs: AZ84-02.04.2013.A429,

AZ81-02.04.2018.A369). *Cylc1*- and *Cylc2*-deficient mice were generated by CRISPR/Cas9-mediated

gene-editing in zygotes of the hybrid strain B6D2F1. Guide sequences are depicted in Table 2. For

Cylc1, in vitro transcribed sgRNAs (50 ng/µl each) and Cas9 mRNA (100 ng/µl) (Sigma-Aldrich,

Taufkirchen, Germany) were microinjected into the cytoplasm of zygotes as described previously [44].

Cylc2-deficient mice were generated by electroporation of ribonucleoprotein (RNP) complexes into

zygotes using a GenePulser II electroporation device (BioRad, Feldkirchen, Germany). For RNP

formation, crRNA and tracrRNA (IDT, Leuven, Belgium) were combined in duplex buffer (IDT) to a

final concentration of 50 mM each and annealed (95°C, 5 min; cool down to room temperature with -

0,2°C/sec.). For RNP assembly, 4 µM Cas9 protein (IDT) and 2 µM of each annealed cr/tracr RNA were

combined in Opti-MEM media (Gibco 11058-021, Thermo Fisher, Carlsbad, USA) and incubated for 10

min at room temperature. RNPs complexes were diluted 1:2 in Opti-MEM, supplemented with 30-40

zygotes in a 0.1 cm gene-pulser cuvette (BioRad) and electroporated (two 30 V square wave pulses, 2

ms pulse length, 100 ms pulse interval). Recovered embryos were cultured over night at 37°C, 5%

CO_2 in G-TL medium (Vitrolife, Göteborg, Sweden) and transferred into the oviduct of

pseudopregnant CB6F1 foster mice at 2-cell stage. Offspring were genotyped and gene-edited alleles

were separated by backcrossing of founder animals with C57Bl/6J mice. Established mouse lines

were registered with Mouse Genome Informatics: Cylc1[em1Hsc] (MGI: 7341368), Cylc2[em1Hsc]

(MGI:6718280). Mouse lines were maintained as congenic strains on C57Bl/6J background. For all

analyses sexually mature males at the age of 8-15 weeks, backcross generation ≥N3 were used.

Genomic DNA extraction and genotyping

643 Genomic DNA was extracted from biopsies using the HotShot method [45]. PCR reactions were

644 assembled according to the manufacturers protocol of the DreamTaq Green DNA Polymerase

645 (Thermo Fisher, EP0712) using gene-specific primers listed in Table 3.

Fertility analysis

647 Males were mated 1:2/1:1 with C57Bl/6J females, which were checked daily for presence of a vaginal

648 plug indicative for successful copulation. Plug positive females were separated and pregnancies as

649 well as litter size were recorded.

Sampling

Mature sperm were obtained from the cauda epididymis in M2 medium (Merck) or PBS preheated at

37°C. Following several incisions of the cauda, sperm were retrieved by flush-out for 15-30 min. The

extracted sperm samples were washed in PBS, centrifuged (4000 rpm, 5 min, 4°C) and snap frozen.

For squash tubule samples, fresh testes from three animals of each genotype were transferred to PBS

and tubules were dissected as described by Kotaja et al. [46]. Tubule sections were pressed on a slide,

quickly frozen in liquid nitrogen and fixed in 90% ethanol for 5 min.

Semen analysis

658 Sperm concentrations for at least 4 animals of each genotype were determined using a Neubauer

659 hemocytometer. Viability of sperm was determined by Eosin-Nigrosin staining as described

660 previously [47] for at least 3 animals per genotype. Sperm motility was analyzed referring to the WHO

661 guidelines for analysis of human semen. For all analyses at least 100 sperm per individual were

662 analyzed and the percentage of motile/immotile, viable/inviable sperm was calculated.

Quantitative reverse transcription-polymerase chain reaction (qRT-PCR)

RNA was extracted from the testis tissue with TRIzol (Life Technologies, Carlsbad, USA; 15596018).

RNA concentrations and purity ratios were determined by NanoDrop ONE (Thermo Scientific)

measurements. qRT-PCR was performed as described previously [42], on ViiA 7 Real Time PCR System

(Applied Biosystems) using Maxima SYBR Green qPCR Mastermix (Thermo Fisher; K0221). Replicate

of 3 was used for each genotype. Beta-actin was used as a housekeeping gene for normalization.

Primers used are shown in table 4.

Subcellular protein extraction and Western Blot analysis

For the extraction of cytoskeletal protein fraction from sperm cells, Subcellular Fractionation Kit for

Cultured cells (Thermo Fisher, #78840) was used according to manufacturer's instructions, with slight

modifications to adjust it to sperm cells. Five subcellular protein fractions were extracted: membrane

protein fraction, cytoplasmic protein fraction, soluble nuclear fraction, chromatin bound fraction and

cytoskeletal protein fraction. Briefly, epididymal sperm cells were washed in ice cold PBS and

centrifuged at 500 x g for 5 min at 4°C. Pellet was resuspended in Cytoplasmatic Extraction Buffer

(CEB), incubated for 10 min and centrifuged again at 500 x g for 5 min. Following steps of subcellular

fractionation were performed according to manufacturer's instructions. Quantity of proteins in each

fraction was determined using NanoDrop ONE (Thermo Fisher). For further analysis only cytoskeletal

protein fraction was used.

Cytoskeletal proteins were separated on 12% SDS gel with 5% stacking gel. Transfer to PVDF

membrane was performed using Trans Blot Turbo System (Bio-Rad). Membranes were washed with

TBST 1X, stained with Coomassie blue and blocked with 1% milk for 1 h at room temperature with

gentle shaking. Primary antibodies anti-CYLC1 and anti-CYLC2 were diluted in milk and incubated

overnight at 4°C (for antibody dilutions see table 5). After washing in TBST, membranes were

incubated for 1 h at room temperature with polyclonal goat anti-rabbit secondary antibody IgG/HRP

(P044801-2; Agilent Technologies/Dako, Santa Clara, 527 CA, United States) diluted 1:2000 in milk.

After extensive TBST washing membranes were imaged using WESTARNOVA2.0 chemiluminescent

substrate (Cyanagen) or SuperSignal West Femto Maximum Sensitivity Substrate (34095; Thermo

Fisher) and ChemiDoc MP Imaging system (Bio-Rad). Membranes were further re-blocked in 3% BSA

for 1 h at room temperature with gentle shaking and incubated with α-Tubulin at 4°C overnight. After

washing in TBST, membranes were incubated for 1 h at room temperature with polyclonal rabbit

anti-mouse secondary antibody IgG/HRP (P0260; Agilent Technologies/Dako) diluted 1:2000 in 3%

BSA.

Proteomics

<u>Peptide preparation</u>

All chemicals from Sigma unless otherwise noted.

Cytoskeletal protein solutions extracted as described in previous paragraph were processed with the

SP3-approach [48]. Briefly, protein lysate with 50 µg protein were subjected to cysteine reduction and

alkylation with 20 mM DTT and 40 mM acrylamide in 50 mM triethylammonium bicarbonate (TEAB).

Then a mixture of hydrophilic carboxylate-coated magnetic beads (equal amounts of Sera-Mag

SpeedBeads, GE Healthcare, cat. no. 45152105050250, and cat. no. 65152105050250) were added at

a bead:protein ratio of 10:1 (w/w). Protein binding was induced by adding 3 volumes of ethanol and

subsequent mixing for 5 min. Beads with bound proteins were then washed three times with 80%

ethanol and finally subjected to overnight tryptic digestion at 37 °C using a trypsin:protein ratio of

1:25. Peptide solutions were separated from the magnetic beads, dried in a vacuum concentrator,

and stored at -20°C. Before measurements, 10 µg of peptides were further desalted with C18 ZipTips

(Merck Millipore, Darmstadt, Germany) to ensure complete removal of beads.

<u>LC-MS analysis</u>

Dried peptides were dissolved in 10 μl 0.1% formic acid (solvent A) Peptide separation was

performed on a Dionex Ultimate nano HPLC system (Dionex GmbH, Idstein, Germany) coupled to an

Orbitrap Fusion Lumos mass spectrometer (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Bremen, Germany). 1 μg

peptides were injected onto a C18 analytical column (400 mm length, 100 μm inner diameter,

ReproSil-Pur 120 C18-AQ, 3 μm).

The samples were analyzed by a standard data-dependent (DDA) method: Peptides were separated

during a linear gradient from 5% to 35% solvent B (90% acetonitrile, 0.1% FA) at 300 nL/min within

120 min. Data-dependent acquisition was performed on ions between 330 and 1600 m/z scanned in

the Orbitrap detector every 2.5 seconds (R=120,000, standard gain control and inject time settings).

Polysiloxane (*m/z* 445.12002) was used for internal calibration. z>1 ions were subjected to higher-

energy collision induced dissociation (HCD: 1.0 Da quadrupole isolation, threshold intensity 25,000,

collision energy 28%) and fragments analyzed in the Orbitrap (R=15,000). Fragmented precursor ions

were excluded from repeated analysis for 25 s.

<u>Data analysis</u>

Raw data processing of DDA data and analysis of database searches were performed with Proteome

Discoverer software 2.5.0.400 (Thermo Fisher Scientific). Peptide identification was done with an in-

house Mascot server version 2.8.1 (Matrix Science Ltd, London, UK) against the Uniprot reference

proteome for Mus musculus (as of 06/28/23) and a collection of common contaminants [49]. Precursor

ion *m/z* tolerance was 10 ppm, fragment ion tolerance 20 ppm. Tryptic peptides (Trypsin/P) with up

to two missed cleavages were searched, propionamide was set as a static modification of cysteines,

while oxidation of methionine and acetylation of protein N-termini were set as dynamic

modifications. Spectrum confidence of Mascot results was assessed by the Percolator algorithm 3.05

as implemented in Proteome Discoverer [50]. Spectra without high confident matches (q-value > 0.01)

were sent to a second round Mascot search with semi-specific enzyme cleavage and changing the

modification of cysteines with propionamide to dynamic. Proteins with two unique proteins in the

protein group were reported. For quantification, summed abundances were normalized on total

protein amount in Proteome Discoverer.

High-resolution microscopy of the flagellar beat

Image sequences of mouse sperm were acquired using dark-field at an inverted microscope (IX71;

Olympus, Hamburg, Germany), equipped with a dark-field condenser and a high-speed camera

(ORCA-Flash4.0 V3, C13220-20 CU, Hamamatsu, Hamamatsu City, Japan). A 10x objective (NA 0.4,

UPlanFL; Olympus, Hamburg, Germany) with an additional 1.6x magnifying lens (Olympus, Hamburg,

Germany) that was inserted into the light path (final magnification: 16x) was applied. Image

sequences were recorded at a rate of 200 frames per second (fps). A custom-made observation

chamber was used [22]. Sperm samples were diluted in THY buffer shortly before insertion of the

suspension into the observation chamber. Three WT and three *Cylc2*^{-/-} animals were used.

Sperm nuclear morphology

For the analysis of sperm nuclear morphology, epididymal sperm samples from 3 animals of each

genotype were fixed in methanol and acetic acid (3:1). The samples were spread onto a slide and

stained with 4',6-diamidino-2-phenylindole (DAPI) containing mounting medium (ROTImount

FluorCare DAPI (Carl Roth GmbH, Karlsruhe, Germany; HP20.1)). The sperm cells were imaged at

100x magnification, using a Leica DM5500 B fluorescent microscope. At least 200 pictures were taken

from each group and analyzed using Nuclear Morphology software [51] according to the developer's

instructions. The minimum detection area was set to 1.000 pixels while the maximum detection area

was 7.000 pixels.

Histology

Bouin fixed testis tissues were paraffinized, embedded and sectioned at 3-5 µm using microtome. For

histological analysis, the sections were deparaffinized, hydrated incubated with Periodic acid (0.5%)

for 10 min, rinsed with H_2O and incubated for 20 min with Schiff reagent. Alternatively, tissue

sections were stained with Hemalum solution acid (Henricks and Mayer) and Eosin Y solution (Carl

Roth). In both procedures, stained sections were dehydrated in alcohol row and mounted using

Entellan (Sigma-Aldrich). Slides were imaged at 20x and 63x magnification under bright field using

5500 B microscope.

Immunofluorescence/Immunohistochemistry

Bouin fixed testis tissue sections were deparaffinized in Xylene and rehydrated in decreasing alcohol

to be used for immunohistochemical staining. Squash testis samples fixed in 90% EtOH were used for

the staining of α-Tubulin and HOOK1. For sperm immunofluorescence, mature sperm cells isolated

from cauda epididymis were fixed with methanol acetic acid (3:1), dropped on glass slides and air

dried. After washing in PBS twice, all samples were permeabilized using 0.1% Triton x100 for 10 min

at room temperature. The samples were then blocked with 5% BSA for 30 min, followed blocking

with normal horse serum (Vectorlabs, Burlingame, USA; DI-1788) for 30 min at room temperature.

For tissue sections, heat-activated antigen retrieval was performed using citrate buffer (pH 6.0). All

primary antibodies were incubated over night at 4°C. Antibodies and dilutions are listed in table 5.

The respective secondary antibodies were incubated for 1 h at room temperature using VectaFluor

Labeling Kit DyLight 488 and DyLight 594 (Vectorlabs, Burlingame, USA; DI-1788, DI-1794). Slides

were mounted with DAPI containing mounting medium (ROTImount FluorCare DAPI, Carl Roth;

HP20.1).

For IHC staining against CYLC1 and CYLC2, after antigen retrieval and blocking procedures, slides

were treated with 6% H_2O_2 for 30 min. Slides were then incubated with primary antibodies overnight

at 4°C. Biotinylated goat anti-rabbit IgG was used as a secondary antibody and incubated for 1 h at

room temperature. Slides were then processed using Vectastain ABC-AP Kit (Vector Laboratories, AK-

5001) and stained using ImmPACT® Vector® Red Substrate Kit, Alkaline Phosphatase (Vector

Laboratories, SK-5105) according to manufacturer's instructions. Counterstaining was performed

using Hematoxylin.

For the analysis of acrosome biogenesis peanut agglutinin (PNA)-fluorescein isothiocyanite (FITC)

Alexa Fluor 488 conjugate (Molecular Probes, Invitrogen, Waltham, USA; L21409) was used on the

Buin fixed testis tissues. After permeabilization and blocking, the tissues were incubated with PNA-

FITC 5 μg/ml for 30 min at room temperature. Mature sperm were fixed with paraformaldehyde (4%)

for 20 min at room temperature. After PBS washing, the sperm samples were incubated with 5 μg/ml

PNA-FITC and 5 nM Mito Tracker Red (Cell Signaling; 9082) for 30 min at room temperature. The

slides were then mounted with DAPI mount. All stainings were performed on minimum of 3 animals

per genotype.

Transmission electron microscopy

For Transmission Electron Microscopy fresh epididymal sperm and testis tissue were used. After

washing with PBS, the samples were fixed in 3% glutaraldehyde at 4°C overnight. The samples were

then washed in 0.1 M cacodylate buffer and fixed again in 2% osmium tetroxide at 4% for 2 h. After

dehydration in an ascending ethanol row, the samples were contrasted in 70% ethanol 0.5% uranyl

acetate for 1.5 h at 4°C. Samples were then washed in propylenoxide, three times for 10 min at room

temperature before embedding in Epon C at 70°C for 48 h. Ultra-thin sections were examined using

a Verios 460L microscope (FEI) with a STEM III-detector.

Evolutionary analysis

Evolutionary rates of mammalian Cylicin genes were analyzed according to Lüke et al (2016) [52].

Briefly, *Cylc1* and *Cylc2* nucleotide sequences were obtained from NCBI genbank and Ensembl

genome browser. Phylogenetic trees of considered species were built according to the "Tree of Life

web project". The webPRANK software was applied for codon-based alignment of orthologous gene

sequences and results were visualized using the ETE toolkit. To determine evolutionary rates of gene

sequences across mammals, for different clades and for individual codon sites, the codeml

application implemented in the PAML software was used [53, 54]. Selective pressures on protein level

are represented by calculation of the nonsynonymous/synonymous substitution rate ratio ($\omega =$
dN/dS). It distinguishes between purifying selection ($\omega<1$), neutral evolution ($\omega=1$) and positive
selection ($\omega>1$) within various models. The M0 model served as basis for all performed analyses.
Different codon frequency settings were tested for the M0 model of each gene and the setting with
the highest likelihood was chosen. To test whether alternative models describe the selective
constraints within a dataset more precise than the M0 model, likelihood ratio-tests (LRT) were
performed. Applied models and LRTs are described by Yang [53, 54] and Lüke et al. [52].

Study cohort and ethical approval

The MERGE (**M**a**l**e **R**eproductive **G**enomics study) cohort currently comprises over 2,030 men, mainly
recruited at the Centre of Reproductive Medicine and Andrology (CeRA) in Münster. The large
majority has severe spermatogenic failure, i.e. severe oligozoospermia (<5 Mill./ml sperm
concentration), crypto- or azoospermia. So far, only 35 cases were included because of notable
sperm morphological defects (≥5 Mill./ml sperm concentration, <4 % normal forms). Common causes
for infertility such as oncologic diseases, AZF deletions or chromosomal aberrations were ruled out in
advance. Patients with aetiologically still unexplained infertility underwent whole exome sequencing.

All participants gave written informed consent according to the protocols approved by the Ethics
Committee of the Medical Faculty Münster (Ref. No. MERGE: 2010-578-f-S) in accordance with the
Declaration of Helsinki in 1975.

Whole exome sequencing and data analysis

After DNA extraction from patients' peripheral blood lymphocytes WES was performed as previously
described [55]. WES data obtained from 2,066 infertile men was filtered for rare (≤ 0.01 minor allele
frequency, gnomAD) variants located within the coding sequence or the adjacent 15 bp of flanking
introns in *CYLC1* and *CYLC2*. Patients carrying only one variant in either of the gene were excluded. In
case of either bi-allelic *CYLC2* variants or a combination of *CYLC1* and *CYLC2* variants, the whole
exome dataset was screened to rule out other potential genetic causes. Variants detected in this
study were classified according to the guidelines by the American College of Medical Genetics and
Genomics-Association for Molecular Pathology (ACMG-AMP) [27] adapted to recent recommendations
as outlined in [56].

To rule out an alternative genetic cause for the patient's condition, his exome data was screened for
rare (MAF ≤ 0.01, gnomAD and in-house database), homozygous, X-linked or potentially compound
heterozygous high-impact variants (stop gain, start lost, stop lost, frameshift, splice site and splice
region as well as missense variants with CADD > 20) and rare, heterozygous LoF variants (stop gain,

start lost, stop lost, frameshift, splice site) without filtering for a specific set of genes. Respective

genes were screened for testis-expression and reports of infertility.

Sanger sequencing

Sanger sequencing with variant-specific primers was conducted for validation and segregation

purposes. The primers to confirm the *CYLC1* (NM_021118.3) variant c.1720G>C p.(Glu574Gln) are

5'-ACTGATGCTGACTCTGAACCG-3' (forward) and 5'-CCTTCGAGTCACAAAGTTGTCA-3' (reverse). To

confirm the *CYLC2* (NM_001340.5) variant c.551G>A p.(Gly184Asp), the primers

5'-CTGTCGAGGTGGATTCTAAAGC-3' (forward) and 5'-TGCATCCTTCTTTGCATCCT-3' (reverse) were

used.

Analysis of the human sperm samples

Human ejaculate samples from healthy donor and patient M2270, were analyzed according to WHO

guidelines prior to washing in buffer and centrifuged (1000 rpm, 20 min). The cells were fixed in

methanol and acetic acid (3:1) and used for immunofluorescence staining. Samples were dropped on

slides and permeabilized with 0.1% Triton x100. After blocking with 5% BSA for 30 min, slides were

incubated with primary CCIN or CYLC1 antibodies (concentrations shown in Table 3) for 3 h at room

temperature. Secondary antibodies were incubated for 1 h, followed by mounting with DAPI

containing medium. All stainings were repeated 3 times using aliquots of the same sample.

Statistics

859 For all analyses mean values +/- SD were calculated. Statistical significance was determined by One-

860 way ANNOVA analyses using Bonferroni correction. All experiments were conducted as biological

861 replicates and N is provided in Materials and methods section and/or figure legends.

Materials and data availability statement:

Custom made antibodies used in this study were developed against murine CYLC1 and CYLC2. A
limited amount of antibody can be provided upon request.

SpermQ software used for the analysis of the flagellar beat is publicly available
https://github.com/hansenjn/SpermQ .

For the purposes of this study a new code was written for color-coded figures and it's freely available
at https://github.com/hansenjn/ColorStackByTimeAndProject

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Figure 1

Figure 2

Figure 3

A

WT

Cylc2⁻/⁺

Cylc1⁻/y

nu

nu

B

C

Wildtype

One beat cycle
(0.00-0.10 sec)

Half cycles
0.00-0.05 sec   0.05-0.10 sec

0.00

time
(sec)

0.10

KO

One beat cycle
(0.00-0.17 sec)

Half cycles
0.00-0.08 sec   0.085-0.17 sec

0.00

time
(sec)

0.17

Figure 4

Figure 5

Figure 6

Figure 7