

Crossover or non-crossover outcomes: tailored processing of homologous recombination intermediates

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DNA breaks may arise accidentally in vegetative cells or in a programmed manner in meiosis. The usage of a DNA template makes homologous recombination potentially error-free, however, recombination is not always accurate. Cells possess a remarkable capacity to tailor processing of recombination intermediates to fulfill a particular need. Vegetatively growing cells aim to maintain genome stability and therefore repair accidental breaks largely accurately, using sister chromatids as templates, into mostly non-crossovers products. Recombination in meiotic cells is instead more likely to employ homologous chromosomes as templates and result in crossovers to allow proper chromosome segregation and promote genetic diversity. Here we review models explaining the processing of recombination intermediates in vegetative and meiotic cells and its regulation, with a focus on MLH1–MLH3-dependent crossing-over during meiotic recombination.

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Introduction

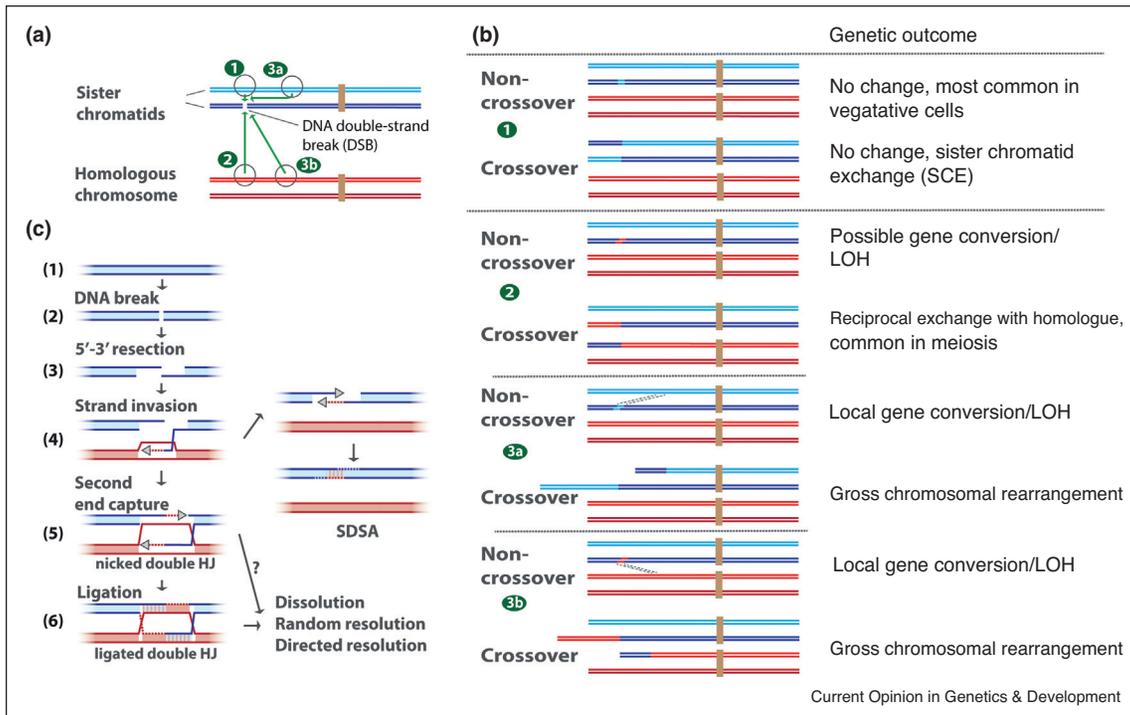
DNA double-strand breaks (DSBs) can be repaired by non-homologous end-joining (NHEJ) or homologous recombination (HR). NHEJ is template-independent, and thus frequently leads to mutations at the break site. In cases when multiple DSBs are present, NHEJ can join the wrong pieces of DNA together, leading to gross genome rearrangements. HR is instead template-directed, and therefore largely accurate [1]. Mutations during HR can arise during DNA synthesis, which has a much higher error rate compared to DNA replication [2], or when DNA sequence other than from the same locus

on the sister chromatid is used as a template. Allelic recombination represents an event whereby the broken DNA is repaired according to a sequence from the same locus on the sister chromatid (Figure 1a, point 1), or from the same locus, but on the homologous chromosome (Figure 1a, point 2). Allelic recombination with the sister chromatid is the most common recombination process in vegetative cells that generally leads to faithful outcomes, since sister chromatids have the identical sequence. Usage of the homolog as a template, which is rare in vegetative cells, can lead to a loss of heterozygosity (LOH). Such LOH events have been linked to cellular transformation [1]. In meiotic cells, there is a bias towards the use of a homolog as a template at the expense of the sister chromatid, which is achieved by preferential disruption of intermediates arising between the sister chromatids to favor interhomolog recombination [3,4]. A repair event that utilizes a template from a different locus, such as in repetitive DNA regions or between sequences that underwent duplications, is termed ectopic recombination, or non-allelic homologous recombination (NAHR), and is often mutagenic (Figure 1a, points 3a and 3b).

Each of the above recombination events, irrespectively of the template used, may result in crossover (CO) or non-crossover (NCO) products (Figure 1b). CO is a recombination outcome in which the arms of the recombining DNA molecules exchange. COs between sister chromatids are defined as sister chromatid exchanges (SCEs). Although not mutagenic *per se*, elevated SCEs are harbingers of genome instability. COs taking place between homologs are detrimental since they may lead to LOH after mitotic division, which could ultimately reveal the expression of recessive alleles. COs occurring during NAHR automatically yield gross chromosomal rearrangements, which include chromosome translocations, deletions, duplications and inversions (Figure 1b). During NCO events, on the other hand, DNA sequences flanking the recombination site are not exchanged. Nevertheless, local transfer of genetic information between the recombining molecules can occur, leading to gene conversion tracts. NCOs between allelic sites on sister chromatids are accurate, whereas NCOs between homologs or ectopic sites can reveal the expression of recessive and deleterious alleles upon gene conversion.

Mechanistically, HR is initiated by resection of the DSB ends, leading to 3'-ssDNA overhangs. These overhangs are bound by RecA family strand exchange proteins that

Figure 1



Overview of recombination-based DSB repair pathways and their genetic outcomes.

(a) DSBs can be repaired based on templates from various parts of the genome. HR-mediated repair of a DSB can be allelic if the respective template position is on a sister chromatid (1, most common) or on a homologous chromosome (2, uncommon in vegetative cells, more common in meiotic cells). In ectopic recombination, the template is located at a different locus in the genome (3a and 3b, rare event).

(b) Genetic outcomes of HR-mediated repair events depending on the template sequence position depicted in (a). Each event can result in crossover or non-crossover products. For simplicity, genetic transfer from the template into the broken DNA was depicted, although, depending on the pathway used, the transfer can occur in both directions (not shown). Crossover with sister chromatid is defined as a sister chromatid exchange (1, bottom). Crossovers with the homologous chromosome constitute typical meiotic crossovers (2, bottom). Crossovers with ectopic sites have the most serious consequences in terms of genome instability (3a and 3b, bottom parts).

(c) Main steps in DSB repair by HR. First, the DSB is resected to expose a 3'-terminated overhang (3), which subsequently invades the template DNA forming the D-loop (4). In the synthesis-dependent strand-annealing (SDSA) subpathway, the D-loop is disrupted and the newly synthesized strand anneals with the exposed ssDNA from the other side of the break. Gaps are filled-in by DNA synthesis and the integrity of the DNA molecule is restored by ligation. The template molecule is unaffected in this process (right side). In the canonical DSB repair pathway (DSBR) the displaced strand of the template molecule is annealed to the second end of the broken DNA molecule. Subsequent DNA synthesis results in the formation of a double Holliday junction intermediate, nicked (5) or ligated (6), which can be processed by the dissolution, random resolution or directed resolution pathways.

include RAD51 and DMC1, which catalyze the search, pairing and invasion of the template DNA, leading to the formation of a D-loop intermediate (Figure 1c). In vegetatively growing cells, the main recombinase is RAD51, which is less proficient upon imperfect pairing with the template, thereby reducing the likelihood of inter-homologue recombination. In meiosis, the key recombinase is instead DMC1, which can better tolerate mismatches in the heteroduplex, licensing also inter-homologue recombination, while RAD51 has only an accessory role [5]. The invading 3'-end at D-loops then primes DNA synthesis. In synthesis-dependent strand annealing (SDSA) subpathway, the joint molecule intermediate is subsequently dismantled, and annealed back to the resected second end of the broken DNA (Figure 1c). SDSA leads to exclusively NCOs. Only the originally broken

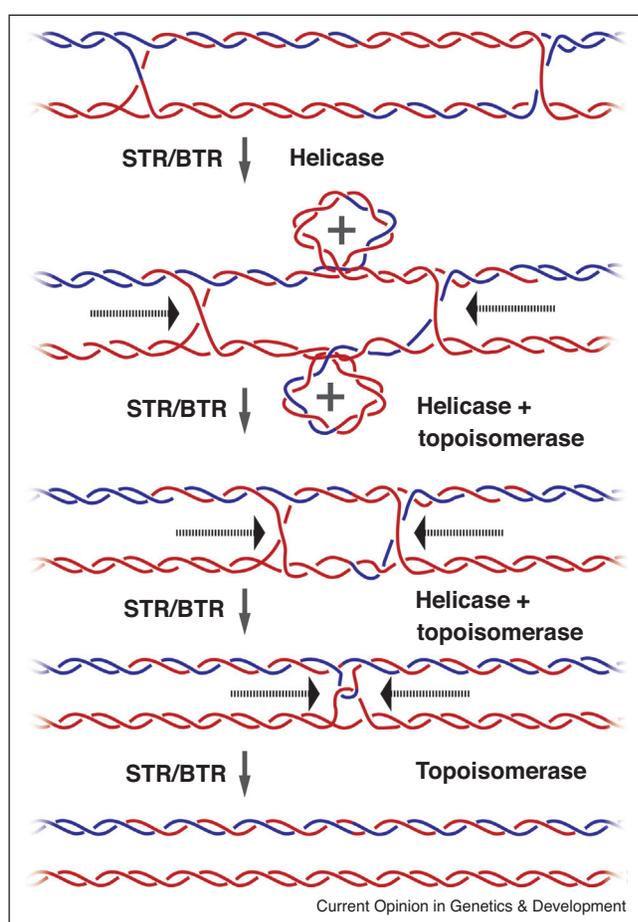
DNA contains heteroduplex DNA, while template DNA in SDSA remains unchanged. Because of its limited mutagenic potential, SDSA constitutes a major recombination pathway in vegetative cells. SDSA is also frequently used in meiotic cells, where it accounts for the majority of NCOs [3]. Here, we focus on mechanisms of processing of joint molecule intermediates arising in the canonical DSB repair pathway (DSBR) [1,6]. In DSBR, the D-loop is stabilized and the second end of the broken DNA is then annealed to the displaced strand (termed as second-end capture). After DNA synthesis and DNA ligation, the double Holliday junction (dHJ) is formed (Figure 1c). This recombination intermediate can be processed by at least three diverse mechanisms, including dissolution, unbiased resolution or crossover-directed resolution as discussed in the next sections.

Dissolution: non-crossover products only

Dissolution likely represents the default mode of dHJ processing in vegetatively growing cells. Mechanistically, dissolution involves convergent migration of the two HJs until the junctions collapse on each other and the DNA molecules separate into exclusively NCO products (Figure 2) [7–10]. Similarly as in SDSA, only the originally broken DNA contains heteroduplex DNA, but in a different configuration, while the template remains unchanged. HJ migration in dissolution is powered by the motor activity of a RecQ family helicase, such as Bloom (BLM) in human cells or Sgs1 in *Saccharomyces cerevisiae*. As dHJs in a chromosomal setting are

topologically constrained, initial helicase-driven convergent branch migration gives rise to positive supercoiling between the junctions, which would stall further movement (Figure 2). To this point, BLM associates with the type IA topoisomerase TopoIII α and OB-fold proteins RMI1 and RMI2 in humans, while Sgs1 binds Top3-Rmi1 in yeast (BTR/STR complex, also known as the dissolvasome) to relieve the torsional stress. Only the concerted action of BLM/Sgs1 and TopoIII α /Top3 allows the convergent branch migration to proceed [7,10,11]. The most critical phase of dissolution occurs when the two junctions are in close proximity, and the two DNA molecules are held together by a few remaining linkages. Rmi1 was found to stabilize the open gate conformation of Top3, which likely increases the time available for strand passage [10,12]. The stabilization of the reaction intermediate by Rmi1 becomes particularly important during the last steps of dissolution. Top3-Rmi1 also promote the motor activity of Sgs1, highlighting the functional integration of the complex [13,14]. A similar interplay was also observed with the human proteins [15].

Figure 2



Overview of the dissolution process leading to non-crossovers. In dissolution, the two HJs are migrated towards each other by the motor activity of the helicase component of the dissolvasome (Sgs1 in yeast and BLM in human cells). The convergent branch migration creates positive supercoiling between the junctions (2), which is relaxed by the type IA topoisomerase activity of the complex (Top3 in yeast or TopoIII α in human cells), allowing thus further migration (3). Yeast Rmi1 or human RMI1–RMI2, respectively, stimulate the last steps of the reaction when the junctions are close to each other (4). Ultimately, the two branch points collapse on each other and the molecules are decatenated by TopoIII α /Top3 (5). The template is unchanged in this process.

Mutations in BLM are associated with the Bloom syndrome, an autosomal recessive disorder characterized by cancer predisposition. At the cellular level, BLM-deficient cells display highly elevated levels of COs. These rearrangements are thought to result from unbiased resolution of undissolved dHJs by structure-specific endonucleases, which are employed as a backup in BLM-deficient cells (see below), leading to LOH, thus explaining the cancer risk. Mutations in TopoIII α cause a Bloom syndrome-like disorder, underpinning the functional interaction with the BLM helicase [16].

Sgs1 activity was found to be controlled in a cell cycle dependent manner. Sgs1 is stimulated by cyclin-dependent kinase (CDK)-catalyzed phosphorylation, which enhances its activity in S-phase, indicating that dissolution can likely take place early in the cell cycle [17]. Whether BLM is regulated in a similar manner remains undefined. BLM physically and functionally interacts with TopBP1, which was described to stabilize its protein levels in S-phase [18], although this result was later disputed [19]. Nevertheless, the interaction of BLM and TopBP1 is required to prevent SCEs [18,19], but the underlying mechanism of potential TopBP1 requirement for dissolution is not clear. Activation of Sgs1 and hence dissolution early in the cell cycle, as observed in yeast [17], may explain why it is likely a dominant mechanism of dHJ processing in vegetative cells. In mitotic and meiotic cells, the STR complex also facilitates non-crossovers by disrupting or dissolving D-loops to promote SDSA [20,21]. In genetic experiments, however, it is often impossible to unambiguously distinguish whether NCOs arise from SDSA or dHJ dissolution [20,22**]. Top3-Rmi1, with or without Sgs1, were also shown to disentangle pathologically intertwined meiotic chromosomes, which

likely involves their decatenation activity [7,21,23]. It is not established whether, or to which extent, dHJ dissolution occurs in meiotic cells [22**].

Unbiased resolution: a random mixture of crossover and non-crossover products

The mechanism of unbiased resolution of HJs by structure-specific endonucleases (SSNs) involves simple endonucleolytic cleavage at or near the branch points of the DNA junctions in both vegetative and meiotic cells [24,25]. Canonical dHJs are thought to be cleaved in an unbiased manner; therefore, depending on the orientation of the cuts, both COs and NCOs are produced (Figure 3a). Both the originally broken and the template DNA molecules contain heteroduplex DNA, in contrast to dissolution.

Enzymes closest to a prototypical resolvase in eukaryotes are yeast Yen1 and human GEN1 [26]. GEN1/Yen1 is activated very late in the cell cycle. In S-phase, Yen1 is phosphorylated by CDK, which limits its nuclear import and inhibits its catalytic activity. Only in anaphase of M-phase, Cdc14 dephosphorylates Yen1 to activate it, which indicates that Yen1 is used as a last resort to process structures generated by homologous recombination such as HJs or anaphase bridges [27–29]. Human GEN1 is instead primarily regulated by nuclear exclusion independently of phosphorylation, and gains access to DNA upon the breakdown of the nuclear envelope in M-phase [30]. Untimely and premature activation of Yen1 leads to genome instability [31*]. In meiotic cells, Yen1 becomes fully activated late in meiosis II, showing that it provides a backup for the disentanglement of unresolved recombination intermediates also in meiosis [31*]. MUS81–EME1 or MUS81–EME2 (or Mus81–Mms4 in yeast cells) and SLX1–SLX4/Slx1–Slx4 are additional enzymes capable to process HJs. In yeast, the catalytic activity of Mus81 is activated upon sequential phosphorylation of Mus81–Mms4 by kinases that operate in the G2-M phase, including M-CDK, Cdc5 and Dbf4-dependent kinase (DDK) [24,32–34]. As with Yen1, premature activation of Mus81 leads to genome instability [35]. To prevent any aberrant Yen1 or Mus81 activity in the next cell cycle, their function must be subsequently extinguished, which is achieved by SUMO-targeted modification of Yen1 by Slx5–Slx8, or phosphorylation of Mms4 by the STUB1–Esc2–Cullin8 E3 ubiquitin ligase complexes, respectively, leading to Yen1 and Mus81 degradation [36,37]. Slx1–Slx4 is activated upon formation of the heterocomplex. The Mus81–Mms4 and Slx1–Slx4 dimers act mostly independently of each other in yeast, while human MUS81–EME1 synergizes with SLX1–SLX4 [38]. To cleave HJs, SLX1 makes the first cut, and MUS81 subsequently cleaves the opposite strand. The activity of the MUS81–EME1–SLX1–SLX4 complex is further stimulated by physical interactions with the nucleotide excision repair factors XPF–ERCC1 and the mismatch repair

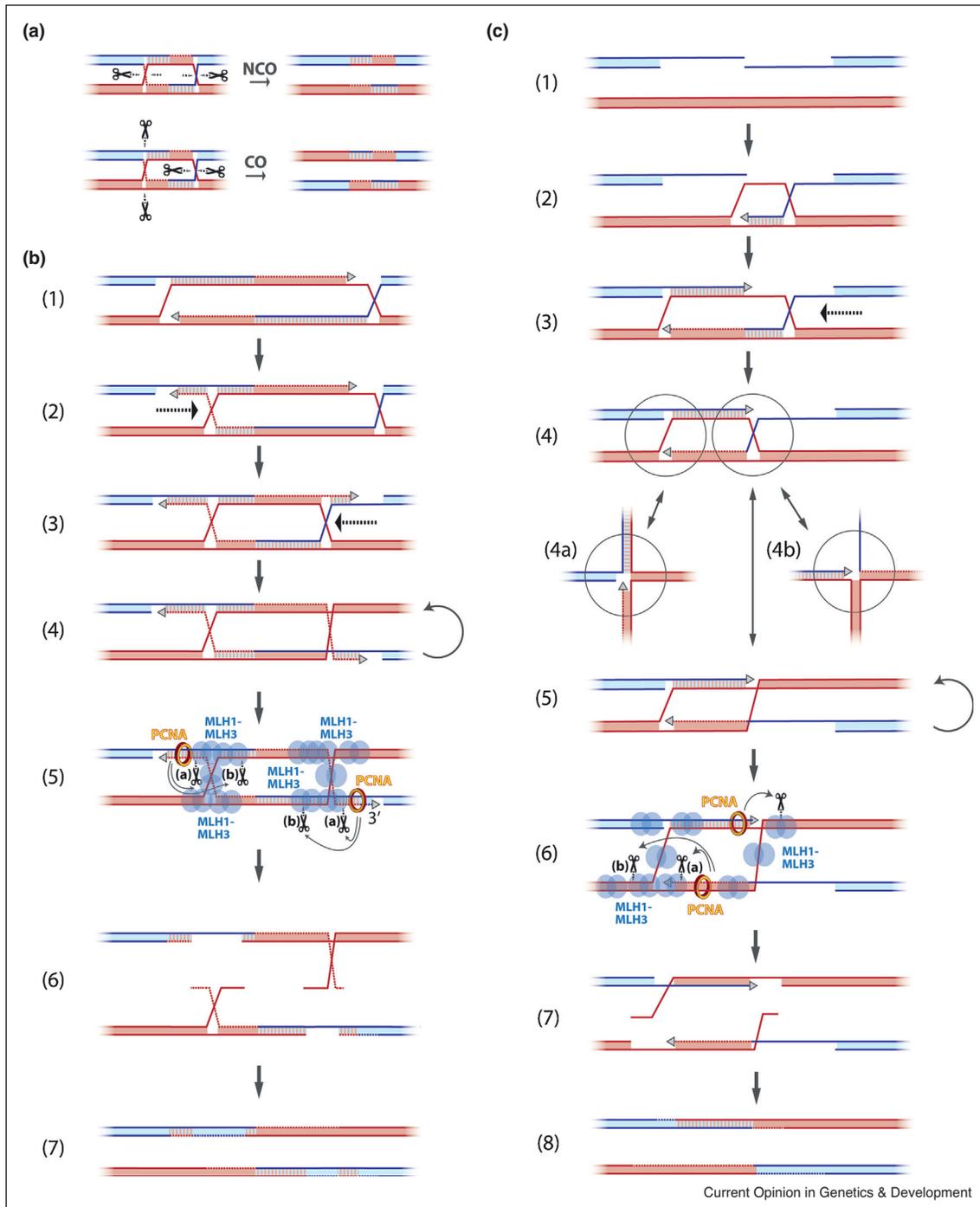
(MMR) heterodimer MSH2–MSH3 (MutS β) [39,40]. As the resolution enzymes are thought to be activated later than BTR/STR, they mostly act on structures that escaped the attention or were unsuitable for the dissolvable, making them a second choice for joint molecule processing to avoid as much as possible CO formation in mitotic cells.

Biased resolution in meiosis: crossovers only

In many organisms, the majority of meiotic COs are dependent on the enzymatic activity of the mammalian/yeast MLH1–MLH3/Mlh1–Mlh3 (MutL γ) nuclease, which processes recombination joint molecules exclusively into COs [41,42]. COs resulting from directed resolution are more evenly spaced along the chromosomes than expected from a random distribution, a phenomenon known as CO interference [3]. CO interference facilitates proper chromosome segregation to prevent aneuploidy, and helps repress deleterious COs in centromere/telomere proximal regions [43,44]. Two closely spaced crossovers largely cancel each other out in terms of a genetic outcome, so interference may also help maximize diversification of the recombined molecules. Implementation of interfering CO formation is dependent on the activity of the ZMM proteins, originally identified in yeast, but now found in many other eukaryotes [45]. The ZMM proteins comprise, among others, the synaptonemal complex and SUMO ligase proteins such as Zip1, Zip2, Zip3 and Zip4, Spo16, the Mer3 helicase and the Msh4–Msh5 (MutS γ) complex. The Msh4–Msh5 heterodimer is related to mismatch recognition factors Msh2–Msh6 (MutS α) and Msh2–Msh3 (MutS β), although it has no MMR function *per se* [45]. Recombinant MutS γ was found to bind HJs and their precursors, on which it forms a sliding clamp. MutS γ clamp is thought to embrace adjacent homologous DNA arms to stabilize recombination intermediates [46]. The levels of MutS γ must be tightly controlled to guarantee its proper function [47].

MutL γ is not described as a ZMM protein, although it is similarly required for CO formation, together with EXO1/Exo1 [41,48]. MutL γ is also related to MMR proteins. In fact, the MLH1/Mlh1 subunit is shared with the key MMR factors MLH1–PMS2 (MutL α) in humans or Mlh1–Pms1 (MutL α) in yeast. MutL γ has a minor function in MMR, and recently was shown to act pathologically in triplet repeat expansion together with MutS β [49,50,51*,52,53]. The endonuclease activity of MLH3 was also implicated during the late step of homologous recombination in mammalian somatic cells [54]. However, the key physiological function of MutL γ lies in the directed resolution pathway in meiosis, and its deficiency leads to infertility in humans [55,56].

Figure 3



Overview of random and crossover-biased resolution pathways.

(a) In unbiased resolution of double Holliday junctions, the two branch points can be cleaved by SSNs symmetrically with respect to one another (top), resulting in a non-crossover (NCO), or asymmetrically (bottom), resulting in a crossover event (CO). Because of the random nature of this process, SSN-mediated resolution of dHJs in mitotic cells leads to the formation of both NCO and CO products. For simplicity, only one of the two possibilities for CO and NCO formation is shown. The model explains generation of COs in mitotic cells.

(b) A model for crossover-directed processing of double Holliday junctions in meiosis. Following the formation of an unligated dHJ (1), the junctions partially migrate towards each other (2, 3). Structures depicted in (3) and (4) are isoforms that reflect possible chromosome arm rotation around the junction. PCNA is loaded at strand discontinuities on the outer side of the junctions and directs DNA cleavage by MLH1–MLH3 (5). If junctions are ligated, both (a) and (b) cuts are required (in total at least 4 cuts per dHJ). If junctions remained unligated, only (b) cuts are needed (5). The recombining DNA molecules ultimately separate upon branch migration or unwinding of the DNA stretch between the branch points and incision sites, or after nucleolytic degradation of the same DNA region (6). Separated DNA molecules are filled-in by DNA synthesis and sealed by

The mechanism employed by the directed resolution pathway is likely related to MMR. In MMR, MutS α or MutS β bound to a mismatch help activate the MutL α nuclease. The key strand discrimination signal is a discontinuity in the newly replicated strand, which, by definition, contains the mismatch [57]. The replication clamp proliferating cell nuclear antigen (PCNA) plays a crucial role to activate the MutL α nuclease to nick the newly synthesized strand. Mechanistically, the strand to be incised is determined by the specific loading orientation of PCNA directed by the nick [58]. Therefore, in MMR, the MutL α nuclease cleaves DNA in a biased manner, followed by EXO1-mediated exonucleolytic excision of the DNA stretch from the incision site past the mismatch [57]. Similar asymmetric DNA cleavage by MutL γ has been likely repurposed in meiotic recombination to bias joint molecule processing towards COs [59^{**},60^{**}].

MutL γ is an endonuclease that nicks one strand of a DNA duplex, but it does not have a structure-specific nuclease activity, despite it is preferentially binding HJs [53,61–63]. *In vitro*, the endonuclease activity of MutL γ is stimulated by MutS γ , EXO1 and the clamp loader replication factor C (RFC) together with PCNA [59^{**},60^{**}]. The activation by EXO1 is in agreement with genetic observations in yeast and mice, which indicated a structural function of EXO1 to promote MLH3-dependent COs [48,64]. Exo1 in *S. cerevisiae* also helps recruit the Polo kinase Cdc5, which may provide an additional way to facilitate the activation of MutL γ [65,66]. Exo1 thus appears to be a central regulator of MutL γ -dependent COs, able to coordinate CO formation stimulation, chromatin remodeling and cell cycle control through its interaction with MutL γ , the chromatin remodeler Chd1 and the Cdc5 kinase, respectively [65,66].

The physical and functional interaction of MutL γ with PCNA likely determines the directionality of DNA cleavage. In experiments with negatively supercoiled dsDNA *in vitro*, RFC loads PCNA indiscriminately, promoting random DNA nicking by MutS γ –EXO1–MutL γ [59^{**},60^{**}]. During recombination, PCNA assists Pol δ in DNA synthesis, which only extends the broken DNA strand. PCNA may be retained asymmetrically at the joint molecule intermediates until the resolution stage to provide the critical discrimination signal. Indeed, RFC and PCNA were found to localize to prospective

crossover sites along meiotic chromosomes [59^{**},60^{**},67]. Additionally, whereas dHJs are symmetric structures, they arise from D-loops that are asymmetric. Using structured illumination microscopy in *Caenorhabditis elegans*, one distinct population of MutS γ was observed on early recombination intermediates. Later, as dHJs formed, MutS γ relocated into two distinct foci, possibly to sites internal to the two HJs [68^{*}]. Notably, MLH1–MLH3 is absent in *C. elegans*, and CO-directed resolution is instead catalyzed by SSNs. However, such regulated distribution of MutS γ will likely be common to other organisms. In case MutS γ is located asymmetrically with respect to the junctions, it might provide additional signal for directional DNA cleavage. The presence of MutS γ between the junction points of HJs may also prevent convergent branch migration by dissolution, preventing thus NCOs [68^{*}].

Although the exact structures of the meiotic recombination intermediates and their occupancy by MutL γ and co-factors are not known, several models can be proposed to explain CO-directed processing (Figure 3b and c) [60^{**},69^{*}]. The model depicted in Figure 3b, originally proposed by Hunter and colleagues [60^{**}], employs partial convergent branch migration. PCNA is then loaded on either side of the junctions to direct DNA cleavage by MutL γ , reminiscent of MMR. Figure 3c shows a related model, in which PCNA, retained after DNA synthesis, directs cleavage from sites between the junction points. It should be also considered that not all dHJs may be fully ligated, limiting the number of MutL γ -dependent nicks required to resolve the junctions, and removing also topological constraints during the processing [69^{*}]. Furthermore, the unligated nicks may serve as discrimination sites themselves. Residual nicks depicted in Figure 3c could also explain CO-directed processing in organisms that rely on SSNs instead of MutL γ , such as in *C. elegans*. Prematurely activated yeast Yen1 could partially compensate for CO defects in *mlh3* cells and promoted CO-biased resolution when expressed during meiotic pachytene, at which point CO-designated HR intermediates have formed [31^{*}]. This shows that SSNs can drive biased processing when ZMM proteins are intact, even in organisms that possess MutL γ . Indeed, cutting the DNA strand at junction points opposite to nicks, a known activity of SSNs, would also result in CO-biased processing (Figure 3c). Both models envision the

(Figure 3 Legend Continued) ligation (7). In this model, PCNA directs MLH1–MLH3 to nick DNA ‘upstream’, that is, analogously to canonical mismatch repair. However, a new molecule of PCNA would be likely needed to be loaded after branch migration at step 5.

(c) Alternative model for crossover-biased processing of double Holliday junctions. To accommodate for one-sided events suggested from sequencing studies (see text), the D-loop is initially migrated (2, 3) before second end-capture and DNA synthesis takes place (4). Structures depicted in 4, 4a/b and 5 are equivalent. PCNA remaining after DNA synthesis between the junctions directs the MLH1–MLH3 nuclease to nick DNA. The model depicts unligated junctions, which lack the topological constraints of ligated junctions, and only require 2 cleavage events (6). SSNs could also resolve the intermediate into COs, upon cutting the strand opposite to strand discontinuities (4a and 4b). Following the cuts, DNA gets separated and repair process completes as in (b). In this model, the MLH1–MLH3 catalyzed nicking takes place downstream of PCNA, in contrast to canonical mismatch repair. However, the model employs the same molecule of PCNA as used for DNA synthesis. Models in (b) and (c) are theoretical concepts that require experimental validation.

possibility of multiple cleavage events adjacent to the junction by MutL γ , in accord with sequencing of meiotic recombination products resulting from complex events in yeast [22^{••}]. In the canonical DSB repair model (Figures 1c and 3a), dHJ resolution yields heteroduplex DNA tracts on both sides of the initiating DSB. However, extensive branch migration depicted in the model (Figure 3c) would give rise to heteroduplex DNA tracts only on one side, as seen in yeast and mice [22^{••},70^{••}]. Nevertheless, the exact mechanism of CO-directed resolution is unknown and requires experimental validation.

DNA cleavage at sites away from the branch points of the junctions does not *per se* separate the recombining DNA molecules. DNA segregation might ultimately require limited nucleolytic activity or DNA unwinding. Although the nuclease activity of Exo1 was found dispensable for meiotic CO resolution in yeast [48], it cannot be excluded, as it may be redundant with another process, such as degradation by another nuclease or DNA unwinding. The involvement of the EXO1 nuclease to degrade DNA from the nicking sites to the junctions would be consistent with MMR models [57]. Alternatively, a helicase could separate the DNA strands between the incision sites, allowing chromosomes to separate. The excellent candidate for this function is the BTR/STR complex. Indeed, Sgs1 was found to play a role in the Mlh3-dependent pro-CO pathway in genetic experiments [41], and footprints of extended branch migration were observed in the products of meiotic recombination in yeast and mice [22^{••},70^{••}]. Similarly, BLM helicase localizes to sites of meiotic recombination in *C. elegans* and mice [42,68[•],71].

Conclusion and perspectives

Mechanisms of Holliday junction dissolution and unbiased resolution are relatively well understood, and the reactions have been reconstituted with purified components. More recent research provided insights into the regulation of these pathways. In contrast, crossover-directed resolution in meiotic cells remains poorly understood. Recent genetic and biochemical studies allowed to propose the first models showing how biased crossing-over might be enforced, and are hinting at similarities with MMR. Elucidating the precise nature of meiotic recombination intermediates, their occupancy by MutL γ and co-factors and the underlying mechanism of DNA cleavage leading to COs remains a challenging goal for the future.

Conflict of interest statement

None declared.

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