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# **ANALYSIS OF CELL SURFACE CORTEX DURING CILIA REGENERATION**

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**CERTIFICATE**

The research work embodied in this dissertation has been carried out in the School of Life Sciences, Jawaharlal Nehru University, New Delhi. This work is original and has not been submitted in part or full for any other degree or diploma of any University.

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(Pratima Ray)

## INTRODUCTION

The development, maintenance and evolution of forms are the features which are common to both the multicellular as well as the unicellular organisms. Some unicellular organisms, such as many protozoans exhibit a wide diversity of structural and functional features, rarely encountered in any single cell of multicellular organisms. The confinement of all the vital and complex components within the limit of an unicellular form of life provides us an unique advantage, for the investigation of biological organizations at the cellular level.

Among the ciliated protozoans Tetrahymena has been extensively used in several biological disciplines like genetics, cell and molecular biology, developmental biology etc. Because, it is easier to handle this organism for its rapid growth, genetic stability and animal characters.

In multicellular organisms, the primary feature which determines the form and its change is the 'skeletal' system. This is in form of fibrous matrix in plants and chitinous and bony matrix in animals. However, in single-celled organisms, this is accomplished by the elaboration of the cellular architecture which reaches the highest degree of complexity in ciliate in the form of complex fibrillar

'cortex'. The cortex is a highly differentiated cell surface comprising of ectoplasmic sculpturing, multiple pellicular membranes, rows of kinetosomes and other fibrillar structures.

The cortical pattern, its chemistry, morphology and its development in the ciliated protozoan have been one of the areas of major interest of study. Thus, there have been several in depth studies of its fine structure and development.

The cortex and its ciliary components appeared to be very simple to the early biologists, using the light microscopes. However, the electron microscopic investigation has revealed the cortex as a structure of entirely unexpected complexity (Lwoff, 1950; Corliss, 1952; Metz and Westfall, 1954; Gibbons and Grimstone, 1960).

The ciliate cortex is divided into a somatic cortex concerned with protection and adhesion and oral cortex for acquisition and ingestion of nutrients. However, the cortical architecture is fundamentally similar in both. It can be interpreted as a fabric composed primarily of a large number of fundamentally similar and uniformly spaced ciliary units or kinetides (Pitelka, 1969; Ehret, 1960). So the kinetide or cilia-kinetosome complex are the fundamental components of the ciliate cortex (Grain, 1969;

Pitelka, 1969; Sonneborn, 1970). In addition to a cilium and kinetosome or basal body the kinetid includes a set of membranes and associated fibrills, complexed into an asymmetric structure with a well defined anterior posterior and left right axis (Lynn, 1980). The ciliary units or kinetids are themselves ordered into a characteristic pattern, the most important of which is the linear-array of kinety or the ciliary rows parallel to the anterior posterior axis of the cell (Lwoff, 1950) making the primary meridian. Other association of somewhat modified ciliary units occur in compound organelles with specialized ingestatory functions (Fig. 1)

The ciliate cortex is a highly organized system exhibiting a large number of different other structures beside the ciliary unit, such as mucocyst pores located between the cilia along the primary meridian and also making up the secondary meridian, the parasomal sacs microtubules, contractile vacuole pore. Three sets of membranes, the outer pellicular (outer alveolar), inner pellicular (inner alveolar) and the inner most cytoplasmic membrane also contribute to the cortical pattern of ciliate (Tokuyasu & Scherbaum 1965; Pitelka, 1964). These versatile structures of ciliate cortex obviously contribute to the diverse functional properties such as the maintenance of the typical ciliate shape, impermeability to chemical

substances, ciliate protection, serotype reaction of ciliates and movement effected by the cilia.

The cortical architecture of Tetrahymena, provides an excellent opportunity for analysis of cortical pattern. It is fundamentally similar to the ciliate cortex in general. Oral cortex of Tetrahymena is more specialized exhibiting four sets of membranelles in characteristic pattern, which gives tetrahymena its name. Among these the undulating membrane is most prominent feature (Fig. 1)

The kinetosome or the basal body lying at the origin of each cilium is the organizing centre. In addition to the function of providing the origin of the locomotory unit organell i.e. the cilium, it also provides the site for nucleation of other microtubular organells ~~in~~ new basal body (Allen, 1969; Dippek, 1968). The kinetosomes are self reproducing bodies (Lwoff, 1950) having genetic materials within them. New basal bodies are added anterior to the pre-existing one (Nanney, 1971b, 1975). The basal bodies in ciliates are homologous to the centrioles of the multicellular organisms (Pitelka, 1969). They are arranged in cortical rows which are 17-23 in number in tetrahymena (Nanney, 1960; Frankel, 1980). The number of cortical units or kinetids in tetrahymena are fairly constant in



a particular strain but the number of cortical rows or kineties may vary within certain range (Nanney, 1971b). This range of variation is also constant for a particular strain. This cortical stability pattern in strains of tetrahymena is considered as potentially a useful means of discrimination of strains (Nanney, 1968).

The cilia are the most prominent structural components of the cortex. It is one of the first cell organelle to be investigated with the electron microscope (Fawcett and Porter 1954). Among the most complete description of Tetrahymena cilia is that described by Gibbons (1963) and Allen (1968b).

The outer limiting membrane and the 9 + 2 array of microtubules of the axonemata predominate in the cross section of these organelles. The limiting membrane is a continuation of the outer pellicular membrane of the cortex. The detailed structure includes 9 pairs of peripheral microtubules, each pair consisting of a subfibre-A and subfibre-B and a pair of central microtubules enclosed by a central sheath. The other components of the cilium include the radially oriented spokes extending from central sheath to each sub-fibre-A. The dense portion at the middle of each radial spoke often interpreted as the secondary fibre, oriented longitudinally along the cilium. Two rows of short projections, the dynein arms having ATPase activity are

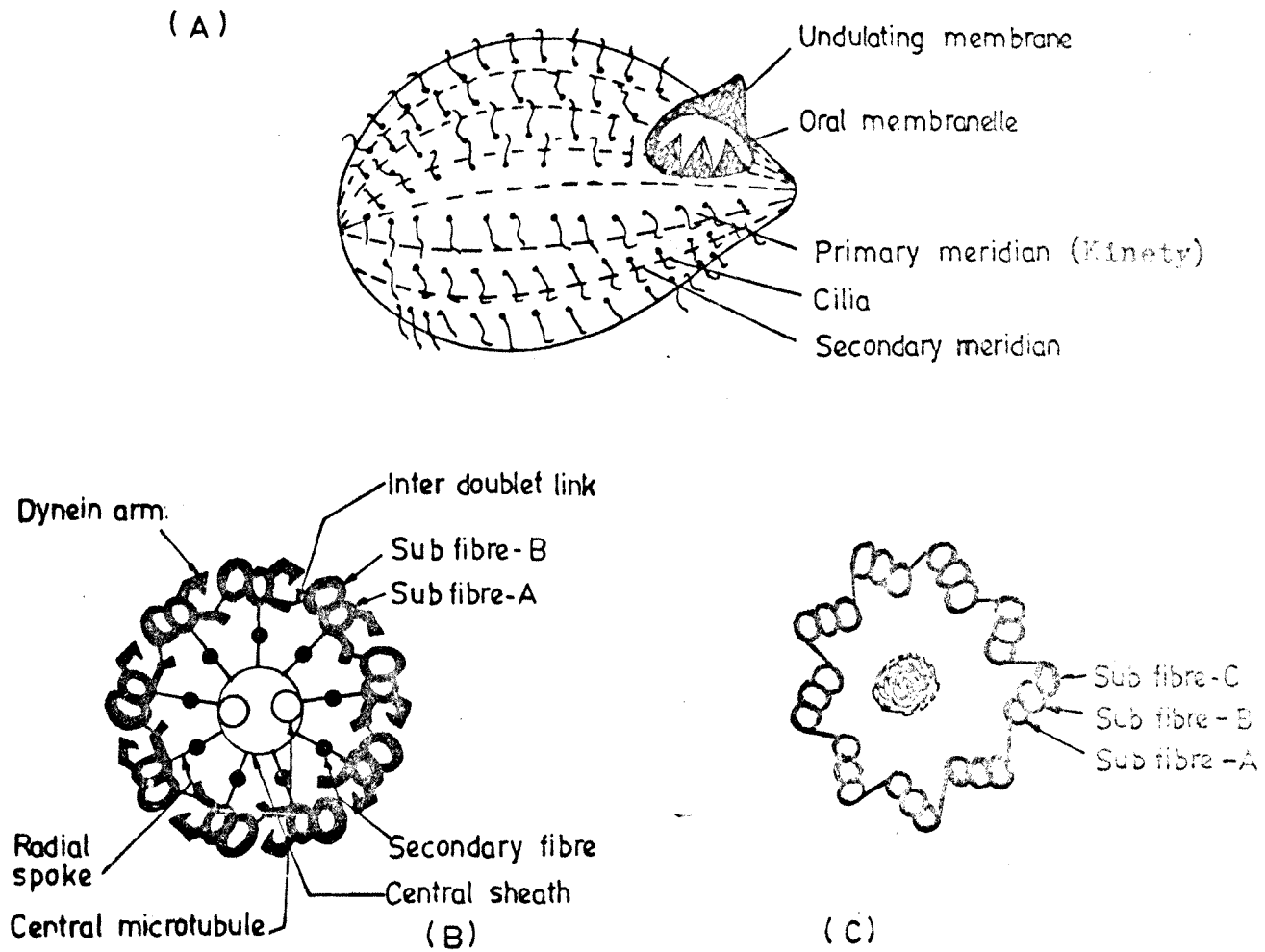


Fig. 1 A - Tetrahymena pyriformis

B - T.S. of a cilium

C - T.S. of a basal body

connected to the subfibre-A of each outer doublet.

The essential structure of both the cilium and the basal body is the microtubule. However, in basal body, they are present in 9 peripheral triplets of which subfibre-A and subfibre-B are <sup>in</sup> continuous with the doublet microtubules of cilium. The subfibre-C terminates at the origin of the cilium and the central pair of microtubule is absent in the basal body.

At the junction of the cilium and kinetosome, there are various accessory structures which connect them with the membrane (Dentler 1977). The central microtubule cap connects the central microtubules and the dorsal filament links the outer doublet to the membrane. Besides these, various other fibres and tubules are associated with the kinetosome complex which contribute to the cortical pattern and involved in the ciliary beat (Allen 1963a).

The biochemistry of cilia and kinetosomes has been more elusive than their morphology. Analysis of cilia has indicated that the bulk of isolated material is protein (Child, 1959), which accounts for 80% of the weight of the fraction. The main protein is a globular protein i.e., tubulin of molecular weight 55,000. Each microtubule is a linear assembly of tubulin subunits which is a heterodimer

consisting of two apparently non identical proteins i.e.  $\alpha$ -tubulin and  $\beta$ -tubulin (Bryan & Wilson, 1971). Amino acid sequencing revealed similarity of tubulin with actin. It is rich in glutamic and aspartic acid. Tubulin from various sources has nearly identical properties but recently the difference of ciliary tubulin and flagellar tubulin has been found (Stephens 1977 & 1981).

The other protein components of the axonem include dynein, nexin, calmodulin etc. Dynein having  $Mg^{2+}$  - ATPase activity, sediments at different rates (14S dynein and 30S dynein) with molecular weight 600,000 (Gibbons and Grimstone 1963 & 1965). Nexin joins the subfibre-A of two adjacent doublet microtubule (Stephens 1974). Calmodulin has been found to be associated with the 14S dynein and also has calcium dependent activity with molecular weight, 15,000 (Gordon et al. 1979).

At present, more attempts have been made to understand the mechanism of tubulin assembly for the formation of microtubule which is only partially understood. Assembly of tubulin subunits starts with activated tubulin molecules containing two tightly bound GTP molecules, one to each of the two tubulin subunits ( $\alpha$  and  $\beta$ ). It proceeds through both lateral and longitudinal association of tubulin molecules.

The sequence of events which link the dimers to form the microtubule is still not clearly known as all the observations were done in vitro. But the role of calcium in this process of assembly is no doubt important and is also facilitated by another protein i.e. microtubule associated proteins (MAPs).

For the further understanding of the complex mechanism involved in the assembly process of tubulin, various investigators have been trying with different types of known drugs and chemicals. The pioneer work in this aspect was by Berisy and Taylor (1967) who found out the binding of colchicine to the microtubule subunit protein i.e. tubulin. Now, it is clearly known that colchicine can block the polymerization of tubulin and thus inhibit cilia regeneration in Tetrahymena (Rosenbaum and Carlson, 1969). Ethylacrylate urea is also known to inhibit the polymerization process and cilia regeneration (Himes and Himes, 1980). The treatment of cilia regenerating cells with actinomycine D, dinitrophenol, puromycin and cyclohexamide have proved that cilia regenerating cells to some extent require protein synthesis and DNA dependent RNA synthesis (Rannestad, 1974; Child, 1965). However, most of the ciliary proteins come from the cytoplasmic pool.

Two different hypothesis have been postulated to explain the mechanism of ciliary beat. One explains the co-ordinated, sequential, active contraction of the outer

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fibre doublets (Machin, 1958; Brokaw, 1966; Astbury *et al.* 1955). The other which is indicated also by high resolution electron microscopy, shows the pairs of tubules instead of undergoing any change in length, slide along each other being attached at the base, suggesting the sliding-filament model which is similar to muscle contraction (Brokaw, 1971 Satir, 1968).

The cilia which are the most important structural as well as functional component of cortex have got the unique property of regeneration. The systems of regenerating cilia in the protozoans have shown to offer many advantages for the investigation of various aspects of the synthesis and assembly of ciliary proteins. These aspects of cilia regeneration have been studied by several investigators (Rosenbaum, Carlson, 1969; Castro *et al.* 1973; Rannestad, 1974; Rodriguez and Renau *et al.*, 1980; Bird and Zimmerman, 1980; Keenan & Rice, 1980; Guttman & Gorevsky, 1980).

The present investigation has been undertaken not only to find out the cilia regeneration kinetics under our experimental condition but also to correlate different morphological changes of cortical structure those occur during the process of cilia regeneration. This may unravel some aspects of the mechanism and control process of the development of

cellular organelles in general. Further understanding may be obtained from the effect of cytochalasin B which is also known to interfere various physiological process of cell including the cell motility. This may provide some additional information to explain the regulation of cilia regeneration and the synthesis of various components of the ciliary apparatus in tetrahymena.

## MATERIALS AND METHODS

Tetrahymena pyriformis is a single celled ciliated protozoa. It is a freeliving ( a few are parasitic), fresh water organism measuring about 50  $\mu$  in length and 30  $\mu$  m in width. Normally in log phase of growth, it has a small pear shaped body not distinguishable with unaided eye, but the extreme plasticity of the tetrahymena pellicle permits considerable temporary distortion. The body is uniformly ciliated in longitudinal rows or kinetics the number of which varies from 17 - 23 and alternate with secondary meridians of mucocyst pores. The oral area is located close to the anterior pole of the cell. A centrally positioned oval macronucleus is always present. But the micronucleus may be absent in some strains. A contractile vacuole is found in the posterior part of the cell.

### Cell Culture:

For the present investigation, the organism used is Tetrahymena pyriformis (W) (micronucleate strain). The organisms are cultured axenically at  $24 \pm 2^\circ\text{C}$  in the laboratory in 2% proteose peptone supplemented with 0.02% liver extract. For the preparation of culture medium 2 gm of proteose peptone with 0.02 gm liver extract is dissolved in 100 ml of double distilled water in a 250 ml conical



flask, filtered, capped with cotton plug and wrapped with aluminium foil and then the flasks are autoclaved for 20 minutes in 15 psi. Flasks are inoculated aseptically with 2 ml. of a 2-days old culture with the help of a 2 ml. sterilized transfer pipette and is allowed to grow for 2 days. The generation time of tetrahymena in our experimental condition has been found to be approximately two-hours and forty-five minutes.

#### Experimental methods

##### Selection of the cells:

For our experimental purpose 48 hours log phase cultures are always selected when the cells are healthy and actively swimming. The cells are harvested at room temperature (24 ± 2°C) by centrifugation at 200 - 300 rpm using a Remi centrifuge for 3 - 4 minutes and are concentrated twice by decantation of the supernatant and resuspended in their original growth medium. The concentrated cells are immediately used for the experimental purpose.

##### Cilia amputation procedure:

The procedure for cilia amputation is used as described by Rosenbaum and Carlson (1969). The whole operation is carried out at 4°C using an ice bucket.

2 ml. of the concentrated cells are added to 5.0 ml. of medium A (10 mM EDTA + 50 mM  $\text{CH}_3\text{COONa}$ , pH 6.0) in a 15 ml. screw capped centrifuge tube (corning) and thoroughly mixed by gentle shaking. After a minute, 2 ml. of ice cold double distilled water is added and after 2 minutes 0.25 ml. of 0.2 M  $\text{CaCl}_2$  is added. Then the suspension is mixed by inverting the centrifuge tube several times. After 5 minutes the cell suspension is subjected to 3 - 4 shearing with a 10 ml. glass syringe fitted with a 10 gauge needle. Immediately after deciliation procedure, the cell suspension is centrifuged for 2 - 3 minutes and the supernatant is decanted off and resuspended into the original growth medium.

Determination of cilia regeneration timing in normal cells:

The deciliated cells are kept at room temperature ( $24 \pm 2^\circ\text{C}$ ) and since deciliated cells are not motile, cilia regeneration is monitored simply by determining the percentage of cells regaining motility with time. At each hour following deciliation an aliquot of cells is observed under the microscope using a haemocytometer and the number of motile and non-motile cells are counted per 0.1 c.u.m.m. of the cell suspension. The percentage of cells moving at a particular time, thus can be calculated at different hours until hundred percent of cells regain their motility. Each experiment is repeated at least for four times.

## Cytochalasin B treatment

### Dose tolerance:

Before subjecting the cells to cytochalasin B treatment, the extent of viability of the cells at different concentrations of the chemical is taken into account. The dose tolerance test has been done with cytochalasin B, 0.001% to 0.009%. For each concentration of the chemical the deciliated cells are kept in the broth containing the chemical for one hour and the percentage of viable cells is noted using dye exclusion test (0.1% trypan blue). In this test, the living cells first take the dye but immediately after a few minutes the dye will be excluded out, whereas the dead cells will retain the dye permanently. The stock solution of cytochalasin B is prepared in DMSO (10 mg/ml) and stored in the refrigerator. The final solution is prepared in the tetrahymena culture medium at the time of experiment. The cell survival at various concentrations is taken as an index to determine, whether at a particular concentration, the chemical had deleterious effect or not. On the basis of dose tolerance test the concentration of the chemical and the duration of treatment are so selected as not to have any lethal effect on the ciliate.

**Duration and time of treatment:**

To determine the duration and the time of treatment, four simultaneous experiments are carried out;

1. The cells are pretreated with cytochalasin B for 2 hour before the cilia amputation procedure and then the drug is immediately washed off.
2. The cells are pretreated for two hours before deciliation as well as through out the cilia regeneration period.
3. The cells are treated for one hour immediately after deciliation and then shifted to fresh medium.
4. Cells are only post treated through out the cilia regeneration period.

**Determination of regeneration kinetics for treated cells**

This is determined in similar method as is done in case of control cells. The percentage of motile cells is obtained at different hours after deciliation by counting the treated cells, both motile and non-motile until about hundred percent of cells regain their motility. Four different sets of experiments are carried out to obtain the average timing. For each set of experiment twenty counts are taken.

## Observation of cell surface morphology:

### Preparation of cell sample for light microscopic observation:

For preliminary observation of cell morphology in relation to their cortical pattern, conventional light microscopic studies are carried out using different staining techniques with the help of Carl Zeiss Amplival microscope (magnification x 160). For this routine observations of cells, (1) normal ciliated tetrahymena (2) cells immediately after deciliation (3) cells with regenerating cilia i.e. 2 hour after deciliation and (4) cells of CCB treated at  $\frac{1}{2}$  hour after deciliation are studied.

### Giemsa Staining:

For the preparation of slides drop of aliquote is taken on a subbed slide (prepared with 0.5% gelatin) kept in a slanting position for few minutes for partial drying. Fixation is done with 1:3 acetic acid and ethanol for 5 minutes and dehydrated with absolute and 90% ethanol for ten minutes in each. Finally the slides are stained with buffered Giemsa (pH 7.0) and mounted with DPX.

### Negative Staining by Nigrosin

The procedure for preparation of negatively stained slides is same as that followed for preparation of Giemsa staining. But here, the staining is done by putting a drop

of nigrosine (10%, prepared in double distilled water).

Silver impregnated slides:

The procedure is followed as described in Chatton-Lwoff silver impregnation technique. Cells are prefixed with Champy's fixative ( 7 parts, 3%  $K_2Cr_2O_7$  + 7 parts 1%  $Cr_2O_3$  + 4 parts 2%  $OsO_4$ ) for 2-3 minutes and then post fixed with Da Fano's fixative (1 gm Cobalt nitrate + 1 gm. NaCl + 10 ml. formalin + 90 ml. double distilled water) for two hours. Samples are prepared using subbed slides kept in 3% silver nitrate solution for 15-20 minutes in cold and dark. Dehydration is done with 70%, 80%, 95% and absolute ethanol, then with Xylene and finally mounted in DPX. Mounted slides are then thoroughly exposed to bright sunlight for the reduction of silver nitrate to metallic silver.

Preparation of specimen for scanning electron microscopic study

For detailed observation of cell surface morphology, the cells observed in scanning electron microscope with the help of a Cambridge stereo scan -S4-10, operated in 30 KV. Cell samples of (1) normal ciliated cells (2) deciliated cells at zero hour (3) cells with regenerating cilia, 2 hour after deciliation and (4) CCB treated cells

at  $\frac{1}{2}$  hour after deciliation are prepared. Prefixation is done with 2.5% glutardialdehyde (in sodium cacodylate buffer, pH 7.2) in cold for one hour. Cells are thoroughly washed in sodium cacodylate buffer and post fixed in ice cold 1% osmium tetroxide for one hour. Osmium tetroxide is completely removed by thorough washing with cacodylate buffer. Dehydration is carried out at room temperature in 50%, 70%, 90% & absolute ethanol and finally through two changes of acetone. Thin layer of cells are taken on a cover glass, lyophilized for 15 - 20 minutes and placed on metallic stubbs. Cell sample is coated with silver 200 A° thick. Photo-micrographs are taken at different magnifications.

Source of chemicals:

Gelatin (Bacteriological)  $\text{AgNO}_3$ , ethanol, acetic acid, xylene, acetone, DPX, EDTA,  $\text{CH}_3\text{COONa}$ ,  $\text{CaCl}_2$ ,  $\text{NaH}_2\text{PO}_4$ ,  $\text{KH}_2\text{PO}_4$ ,  $\text{K}_2\text{Cr}_2\text{O}_7$ ,  $\text{CrO}_3$ ,  $\text{Co}(\text{NO}_3)_2$ ,  $\text{NaCl}$ , formalin are all Analar grade and obtained from M/s BHI, India or M/s Sarabhai M. Chemicals, India.

IMSO, sodium cacodylate, hog liver extract,  $\text{OsO}_4$  are purchased from Sigma Chemical, U.S.A. Proteoseptone or obtained from Difco Laboratories, U.S.A. and Glensa strain is procured from British Drug House Ltd. England.

Glutardialdehyde is purchased from Riedel, Dehainag  
seele-Hannover and Cytochalasin B is procured from  
Aldrich Chemical Co., U. .A., Trypan blue is obtained from  
George T. Curve Ltd., London and nigrosine from Loba  
Chemie, Bombay.

**Abbreviations used:**

EDTA	-	Ethylene diamine tetra acetic acid
$\text{NaH}_2\text{PO}_4$	-	Sodium phosphate dibasic
$\text{KH}_2\text{PO}_4$		Potassium phosphate di basic
$\text{K}_2\text{Cr}_2\text{O}_7$	-	Potassium dichromate
$\text{CaCl}_2$	-	Calcium chloride
$\text{Cr}_2\text{O}_3$	-	Chromium trioxide
$\text{Co}(\text{NO}_3)_2$	-	Cobalt nitrate
$\text{CH}_3 \text{COONa}$	-	Sodium acetate
$\text{AgNO}_3$	-	Silver nitrate
DMSO		Dimethyl sulfoxide
CCB	-	Cytochalasin B



EXPERIMENTAL RESULTS AND OBSERVATIONS

A. Observations on the cell surface cortex of Tetrahymena pyriformis

A series of cytological preparations using various staining techniques have been made for an analysis of the general morphology of the cortical structures in tetrahymena for visualization of the cortex under light microscope. The observations are further strengthened by a detailed analysis of the cortical architecture of the ciliate with the help of scanning electron microscopic observations. The organism has a spindle shaped cell body, the surface of which is uniformly ciliated. The cilia are the most prominent structural component of the cell surface cortex and are arranged in parallel rows of kineties as shown in the photomicrographs of a normal tetrahymena (Figs. 2 & 3). Since the cilia are very minute and submicroscopic structures, they are not seen in the light microscopic observation but their positions are represented by the ciliary grooves from where, they originate (Fig. 4). The kineties are arranged in an anterior posterior direction making the primary meridian alternating with the secondary meridian of mucocyst pores seen as rows of pits. The oral area is located close to the anterior pole (Fig. 5).

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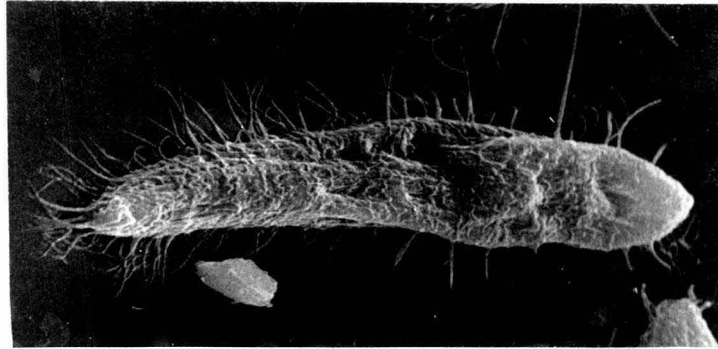


Fig. 2. Scanning electron micrograph of tetrahymena pyriformis, showing ventral view. Arrow (↑) indicates the oral end X4950.

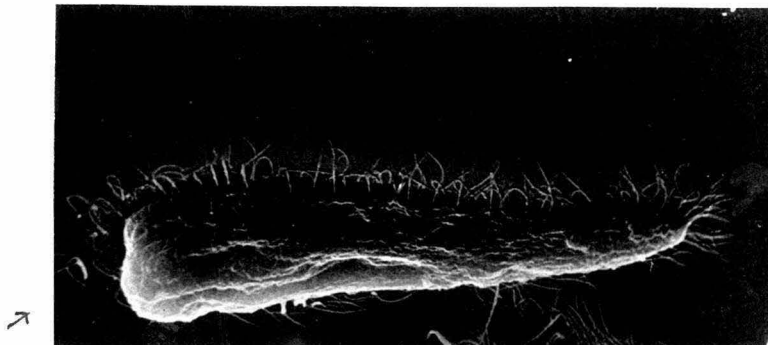


Fig. 3. Scanning electron micrograph of T. pyriformis showing the lateral view. Arrow indicates the oral end X43704.



Fig. 4. Negrosine staining of *T. pyriformis* showing the rows of kineties X 100.

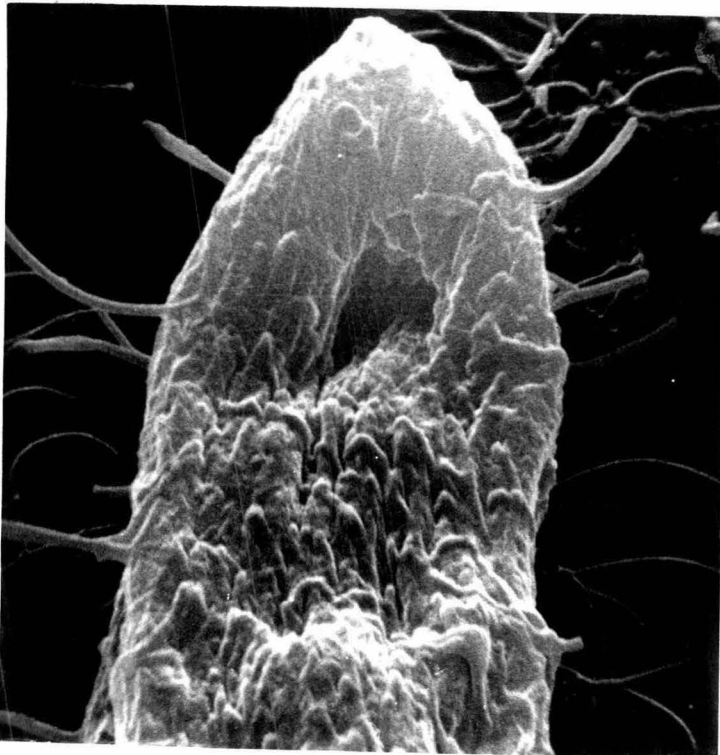


Fig. 5. Scanning electron micrograph of the interior region of *T. pyriformis* showing the oral groove X 23850.

**B. Kinetics of Cilia Regeneration:**

Immediately after deciliation all the cells are found to be immotile and they settled at the bottom. However, within very short time after the cilia amputation a few cells show aberrant type of movement. These cells slowly rotate on their longitudinal axis and a few of them display a circular motion moving along a short circular path. Still a few show non-directed, jerky movement. However, all these cells are not considered to be motile cells for our cell motility count. A cell, for our experimental purpose, is considered to be motile when it shows the typical ciliary motion as found in a normal tetrahymena. At one hour after deciliation ca. 15% of cells have regained their motility while by second hour the motility index reaches up to ca. 50%. By next hour, about 75% of cells become motile and almost all cells display the typical ciliary locomotion at the end of fourth hour. However, our observation at fifth hour of deciliation shows almost no immotile cells, indicating a complete ciliogenesis in about 100% of deciliated tetrahymenae (Figs. 6 & 7).

It has been observed that the deciliation procedure carried out in cold (ca. 4°C) is most suitable in contrast to the room temperature (ca. 22°C), where a cell lysis between 20 - 25% has been found to occur.

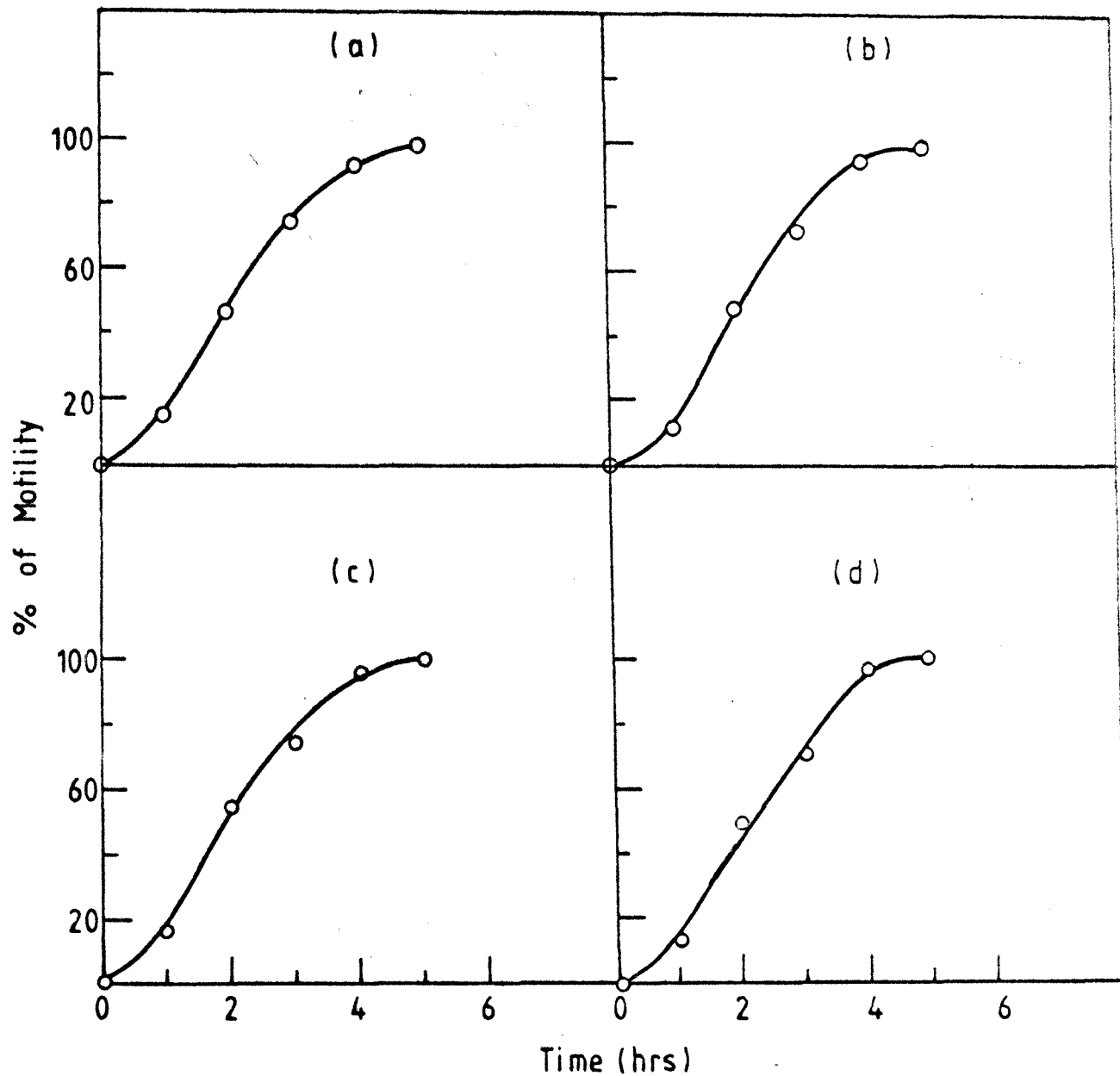


Fig. 6 Timing of cilia regenerations in *T. pyriformis*, a, b, c & d represent four typical experiments showing the regeneration kinetics.

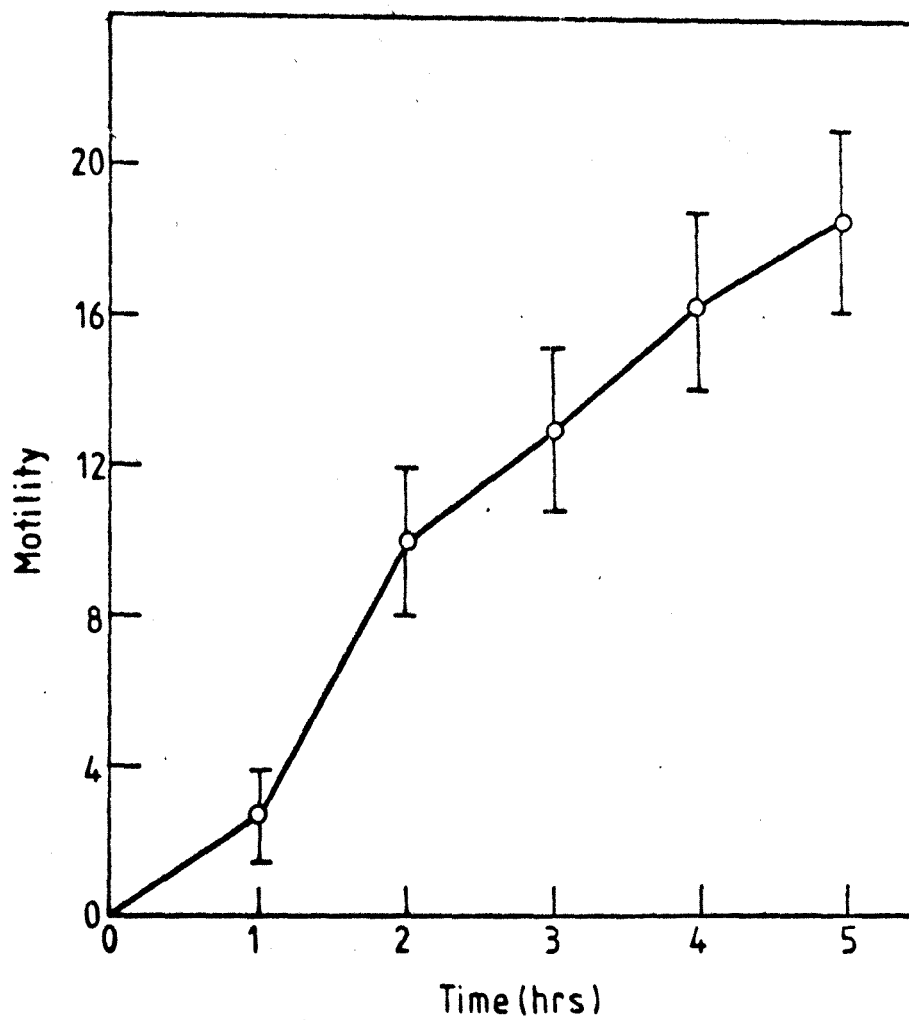


Fig. 7 Summary of experiments on cilia regeneration in Tetrahymena pyriformis.

C. General Morphology of the Cells during Cilia Regeneration:

General morphological pattern of the cortex shows various kinds of alterations after the cilia are removed. Instead of the typical spindle shape, many cells exhibit a spherical form as depicted in Figs. 8 & 9. In the deciliated cells, rows<sup>of</sup> kinetics are indistinct when observed under light microscope. This indicates, the absence of cilia. But, in the scanning electron microscopic observation the ciliary groves look quite prominent and devoid of cilia (Figs. 10 & 11).

In the cilia regenerating cells, at two hour after deciliation, though most of the cells regain their typical cell shape, a few are still seen to be abnormal (Fig. 12). When the cell sample at this hour are observed, it has been found that the cell population contain a mixture of both ciliated and deciliated cells. However, scanning electron microscopic study show that most of the cells which are observed at this hour do not possess the full complement of ciliary numbers. In fact, the tetrahymenae around this hour bear a few cilia on the cell surface (Fig. 13). This situation might have been possibly due to the fragile nature of the newly formed cilia, which are more sensitive, as compared to the cilia of the normal cells, to the fixation procedures needed for scanning electron microscopic observations.

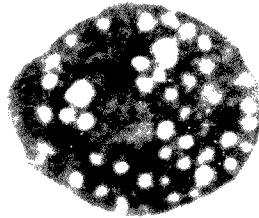


Fig. 8. T. Pyriformis immediately after deciliation  
Note the rounded up and hyper vacuolated  
conditions of the cell. Giemsa stained X 160.

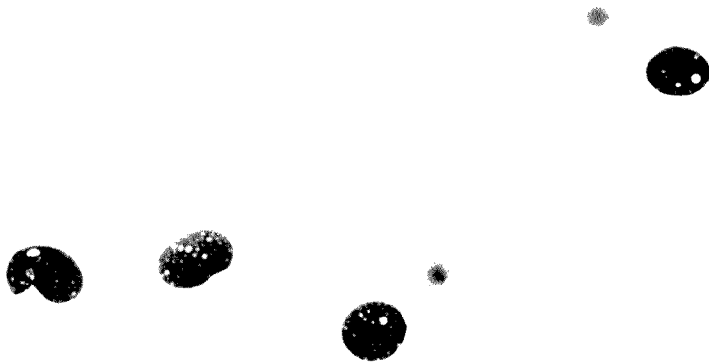


Fig. 9. Showing a group of T. pyriformis immediately  
after deciliation. Giemsa stained X63.



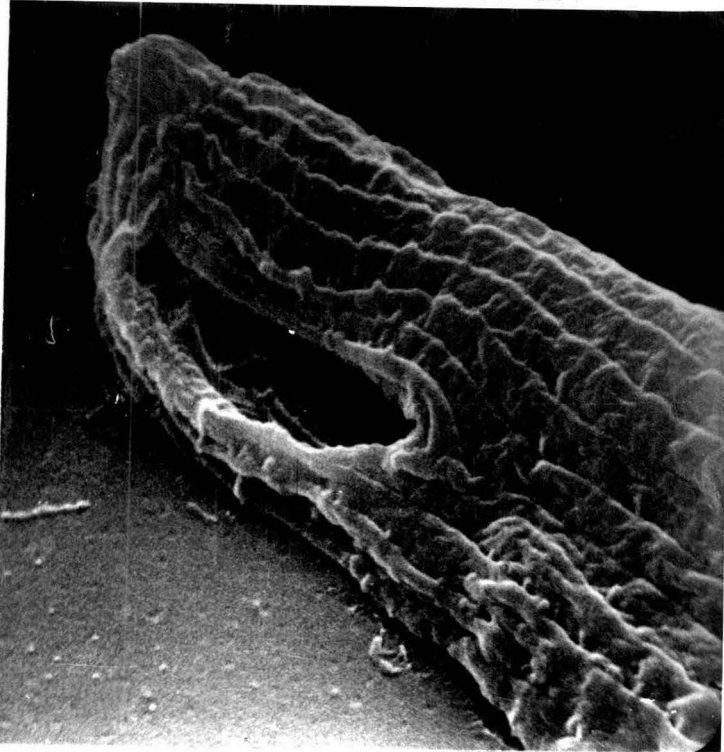


Fig. 10 Scanning electron micrograph of anterior end of T. pyriformis immediately after deciliation X 24300



Fig. 11 A deciliated T. pyriformis X8505.



Fig. 12. A group of T. pyriformis two hours after deciliation. Chattow-Lwoff silver impregnation technique X100.

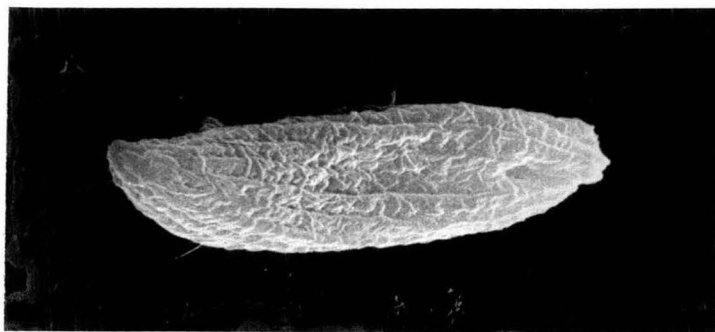


Fig. 13. Scanning electron micrograph of T. pyriformis two hours after deciliation of X8775.

D. Cytchalasin - B (CCB) Treatment:

The drug CCB, which is well known for producing various kinds of cellular changes has been administered to tetrahymena in order to investigate its effect on cilia regeneration process. It has been found out that the ciliates can tolerate high dose of CCB unlike the mammalian cells for a prolonged period of time. For example a concentration of 25  $\mu\text{g/ml}$  of CCB produces little effect on tetrahymena and causes almost no lethality. On the basis of a dose tolerance experiment, a concentration of 20  $\mu\text{g/ml}$ . (0.002%) of CCB has been found to be most suitable for our experimental purpose. At this dose, 100% of cell survival has been obtained and no alteration in the cell morphology has been detected, even when the cells are treated with the drug for 24 hours or so.

Four types of experiments have been conducted with CCB on deciliated tetrahymenae:

1. When the ciliates are pretreated for two hours with CCB prior to their deciliation, the regeneration kinetics of the cilia remain unaffected i.e. around fourth hour after the deciliation, almost total recovery in cell motility has been noticed similar to that of the untreated cells.

2. When the tetrahymenae are treated with CCB immediately after deciliation procedure and kept in the drug through out the cilia regeneration period i.e. for five hours, a lag period of one hour is noticed before any cell can regain its motility. However, at later hours, the cells slowly recover somewhat from this initial lag and, at about fifth hour after deciliation they show about more than 90% motility similar to that of the control.
3. The pre-treatment for two hours and post-treatment (after deciliation) for five hours show an identical result like that of number 2 i.e. only an initial lag of one hour in cell motility has been observed.
4. Post-treatment with CCB for one hour alone, immediately after deciliation also shows similar type of result as that of number-3. So in effect, the one hour treatment of CCB immediately after deciliation treatment is enough to produce the initial lags of one hour in the ciliary motion in tetrahymena. The effect of CCB treatment on the process of cilia regeneration has been summarised and depicted in the Fig. 14.

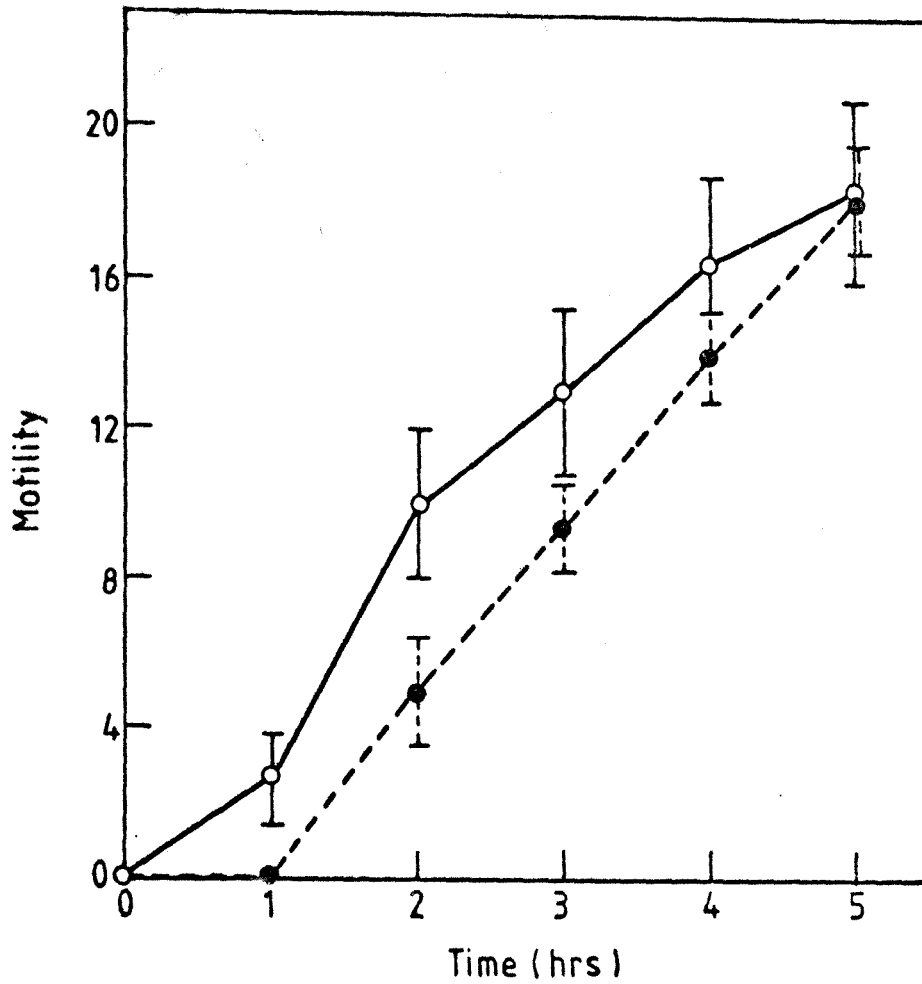


Fig. 14 The effect of cytochalasin B on cilia regeneration timing. The figure depicts the summary of four experiments with cytochalasin B together with the appropriate controls.

Although CCB does not produce any visible effect on cell morphology in normal tetrahymena, it produces a remarkable effect on the deciliated cells. In many deciliated and CCB treated cells a pronounced alteration in the cell morphology has been observed. These cells in many cases demonstrate a change in their cell shape and these changes are quite visible in light and scanning electron microscope. In most of the cases, the contour of the CCB treated deciliated tetrahymenae, appeared to be twisted and as a result, the arrangement of the kineties are also found to be quite distorted. In untreated cells rarely such aberrant morphological feature has been encountered. The morphological changes in CCB treated cells together with the changes in the cortical architecture are shown in Figs. 15 to 20.

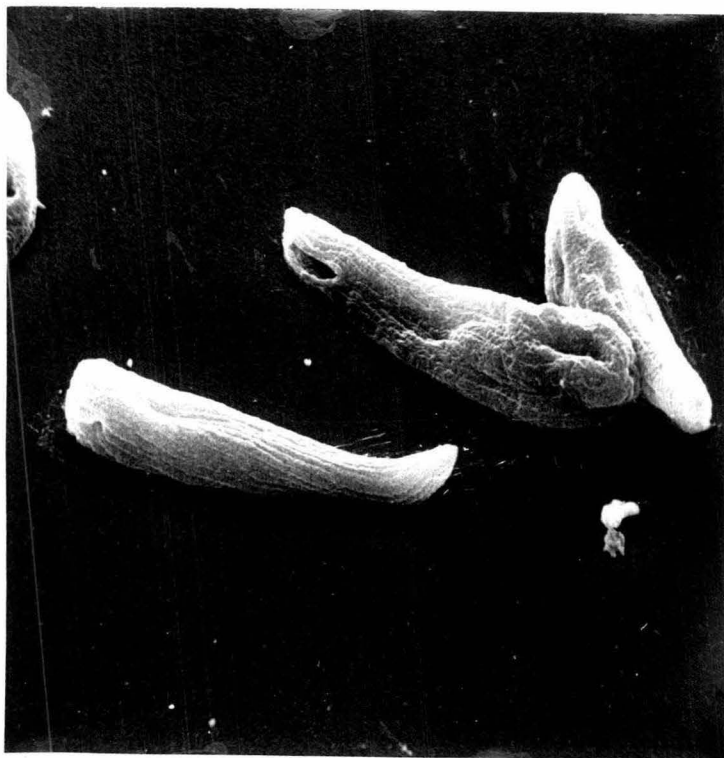


Fig. 15. Deciliated  
*T. pyriformis* X3645

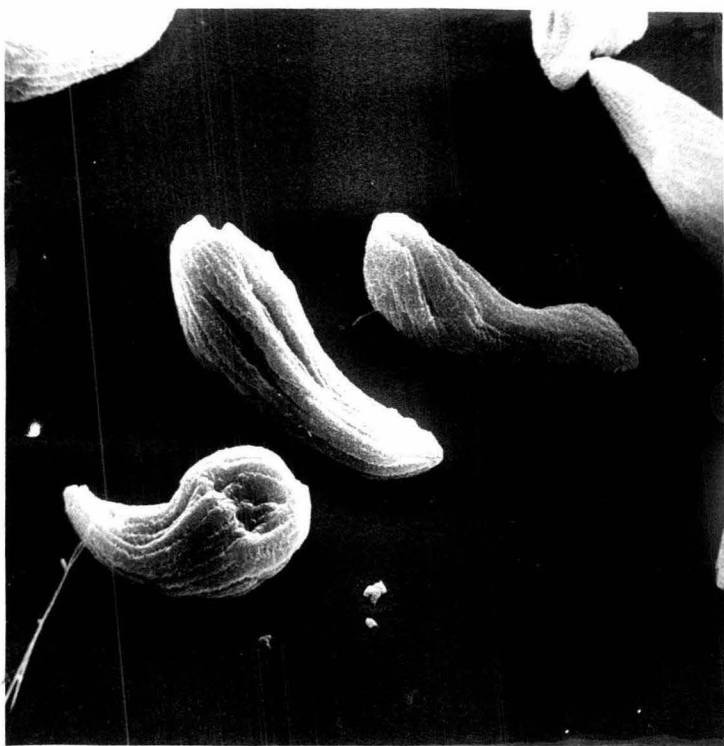


Fig. 16. Deciliated and  
cytochalasin B treated  
*T. pyriformis*. Note  
the twisted cellular  
appearance of the ciliates  
X 3150.



Fig. 17. A group of T. pyriformis deciliated and cytochalasin B treated Chattow-Lwoff silver imprignation technique X100.



Fig. 18. Scanning electron micrograph of T. pyriformis deciliated and cytochalasin B treated X550.



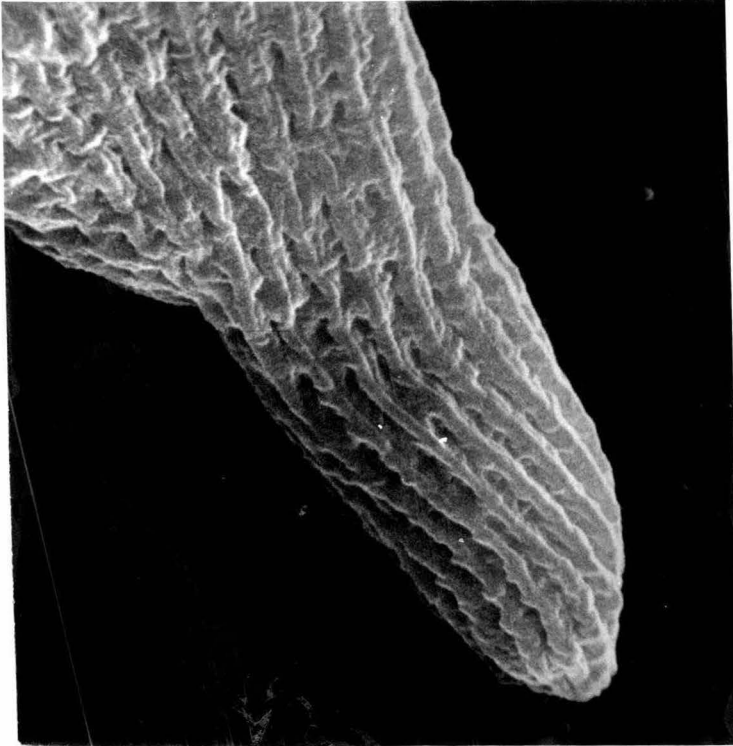


Fig. 19. The caudal region of a deciliated *T. pyriformis*. Scanning electron micrograph X22525.

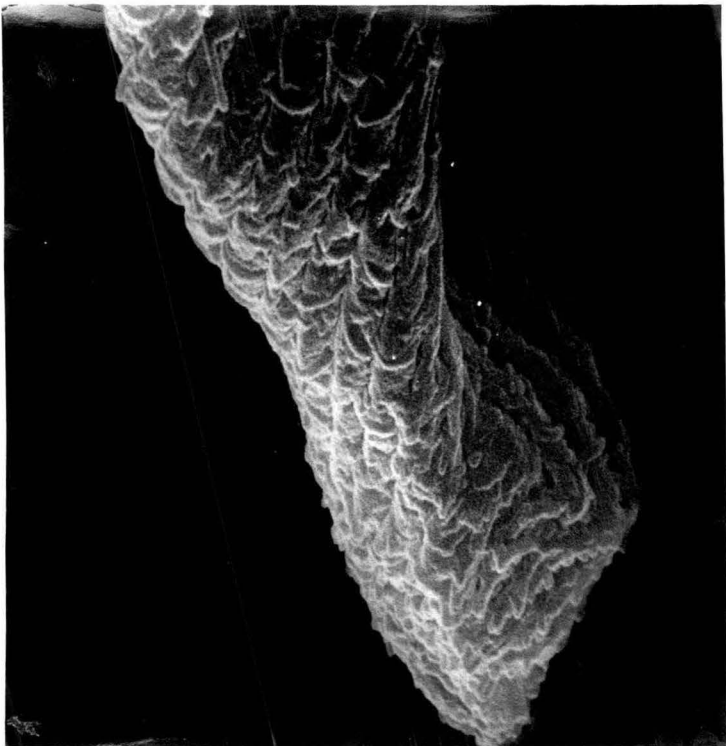


Fig. 20. Caudal region of a deciliated and cytochalasin B treated *T. pyriformis*. Note the distorted caudal region and the rows of kineties. Scanning electron micrograph X20825.

## DISCUSSION

There are several studies on the regeneration process of cilia and flagella which have been tried to unravel the phenomenon of ciliogenesis both at morphological as well as biochemical level (Child, 1965; Auclair, Siegel, 1966; Rosenbaum, Child, 1967, Rosenbaum and Carlson, 1969; Castro, Colon *et al.* 1973; Rannestad, 1974; Bird and Zimmerman,<sup>1980</sup> Guttman & Gorovsky, 1979; Keenan and Rice, 1980; Rodriguez and Renaud, 1980). However the process of assembly of ciliary components, their transfer and location at specific sites on the ciliate cortex is still not clearly understood. Moreover, the various complex molecular interactions, which are involved in the regulation of cilia regeneration as revealed from the work of the above mentioned investigators, still remain largely unresolved.

Our study on the timing of cilia regeneration in Tetrahymena pyriformis is more or less consistent with that of Rosenbaum and Carlson (1969) and Guttman and Gorovsky (1979). Under our experimental conditions, a total cessation of cell motility has been observed immediately after the deciliation treatment, indicating

an almost total removal of cilia from the cell surface. This has been confirmed from the scanning electron microscopic observations. About an hour after deciliation of the tetrahymena, a small population of cells begin to move around. However, a few cells can be seen moving even within 30 minutes after deciliation treatment. At later period, there is a rapid increase in the number of motile cells and at third hour after deciliation, approximately 75% of cells become fully motile, reaching upto almost 100% level around fourth hour. Rosenham and Carlson (1969) and Guttman and Gorovsky (1979) have observed a complete cilia regeneration in tetrahymena within 90 minutes after deciliation which is fairly a shorter period compared to our experimental results. This difference in the cilia regeneration kinetics can probably be attributed to the difference in experimental conditions viz., growth condition, temperature, pH, the particular strain of tetrahymena used etc.

We have observed that there exists quite a large range of difference in the timing of resumption of motility of the individual cell at any given time. For example, some cells regenerate their cilia as early as within 30 minutes after deciliation whereas others need as long as 3-4 hours. Other investigators have also observed similar variations in the timing of cilia regeneration. These differences can possibly be explained by the asynchronous

state of the experimental cells. It is quite plausible that since the cells remain at various phases of cell cycle, they will have differences also in their physiological states (metabolic conditions), which are reflected in early or delayed regeneration process of the ciliary apparatus.

The aberrant behaviour of cell movement which has been observed in some cells at early phase after the deciliation in our experiments could be due to the short and partial or preferential cilia regeneration at particular area of the cortex which causes the cells to rotate more than to progress. Similar kind of observations have also been reported by Guttman and Gorovsky (1979).

Immediately after deciliation some changes of cell morphology have been noticed in Tetrahymena Pyriformis. The cells become little abnormal in shape and mostly they assume a spherical configuration. Within about two hours, however, most of the cells regain their normal spindle shaped form. This morphological alteration could possibly be due to the action of certain chemical components present in the deciliating agent. As there are several surface acting chemicals e.g. EDTA,  $Ca^{++}$  etc. present in this medium, presumably these chemicals might produce some transient effects resulting in the change of the cell shape.

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The mode of action of the deciliating agent is not clearly understood. It is believed that EDTA plays the main role in the detachment of cilia from the cortex and addition of  $Ca^{++}$  to the deciliating agent causes the destabilization of the cortex, as "the normal stability of the cell surface requires a critical level of  $Ca^{++}$ .

The formation of cilium, which requires the synthesis, localisation and assembly of fresh ciliary components, is thought to be stimulated by the deciliation treatment. It has been reported that the synthesis of tubulin (the main protein component of cilia) is highly sensitive to deciliation treatment (Bird and Zimmerman, 1980). For the formation of cilia although most of the protein <sup>b</sup>subunits are available from cytoplasmic pool, a minor portion is synthesised freshly during the regeneration process (Nelson, 1975).

Many workers have used various kinds of inhibitors for a better understanding of ciliogenesis. For the synthesis of ciliary proteins such as tubulin, dynein etc., the transcription of specific mRNA and their translation to the protein subunits are required. These protein subunits

reassemble to form the microtubules and their final arrangement leads to the formation of cilia. The regeneration of cilia, thus, can be blocked at any of these steps. Rosenbaum and Carlson (1969) have shown that the treatment of colchicine can inhibit the cilia regeneration irreversibly. Other investigators in this field have tried with the inhibitors of protein synthesis and also with actinomycin-D to explain the regulation of this regeneration process (Child, 1965; Nelson, 1975). Castro *et al.* (1973) showed that treatment of melatonin, a plant hormone, on the deciliated cells causes a delay in the cilia regeneration timing.

Our investigation with a fungal metabolite, cytochalasin-B on the cilia regeneration has shown that this drug affects the cilia regeneration kinetics. In an earlier study Himes and Himes (1980) have used ethyl acetyl acrylate, an analog of cytochalasin-A which inhibits the assembly process of tubulin.

Cytochalasin-B has been known to produce a number of diverse cellular effects (Carter, 1967). It causes a marked alteration of cell morphology. Carter, (1967) has reported flattened shape of fibroblast cells caused by CCB at a dose of 1  $\mu$ g/ml. Sanger and Holtzer (1972) observed a branched cellular configuration and inhibition

of cell movement brought about by CCB in fibroblast and myoblast cells. Recently in 1979, Devoy *et al.*, in their experiment on chick mesoderm cells have found morphological alterations caused by CCB. However, these effects are not observed for all cell types. So it has been suggested that the differences in response to CCB may reflect fundamental differences in cell surfaces (Copeland, 1975).

Cytochalasin B has also been known to affect the cellular adhesion reaction (Senger and Holtzer, 1972) and to cause nuclear extrusion (Carter, 1967). The inhibition of mucopolysaccharide biosynthesis *in vitro* by CCB has also been observed (Senger and Holtzer, 1972).

Besides the morphological alterations the drug also brings about a lot of alterations in the physiology of the cells. It causes a depression in phagocytic activity in human blood leucocytes (Malawista, 1971). This drug also has been known to induce some abnormalities in the mitotic process with inhibition of cytokinesis resulting in the formation of multinucleated cells (Carter, 1967; Krishan and Ray Chowdhury, 1969).

Many investigators also have observed that CCB has many adverse effects on the microfilaments, especially studied on the cytoskeletal and contractile elements

(Goldman et. al., 1973; Edds, 1980; Temink and Spiele, 1981). The drug blocks the polymerization of actin filament by binding to its end (Spudich & Lin, 1972; Brown and Spudich, 1979; Fox and Phillips, 1981).

Our results with CCB on the ciliogenesis of Tetrahymena pyriformis demonstrate that when the drug is administered prior to the deciliation treatment, it does not bring about any alteration in the timing of cilia regeneration. This probably indicates that the cells with intact cilia, cell membrane and the mucopolysaccharide coat do not permit the drug to enter inside the cell, or may be the binding site for CCB is not exposed. This chemical becomes effective only when the ciliates are denuded. It is quite obvious from our data that the process of cilia regeneration remains inhibited for about an hour, when CCB is applied immediately after deciliation. However, at later periods they show increased motility albeit at a lower level compared to the untreated cells. Around fifth hour after deciliation, the recovery in cell motility process is much accelerated and becomes almost comparable to that of the control cells. The pre & post treatment with CCB does not bring about any additive effect resulting in any greater inhibition in cilia regeneration. Moreover,



CCB post treatment for longer than one hour also does not cause any greater suppression in cell motility. So we can conclude that post treatment of CCB for one hour immediately after deciliation is most effective in causing alteration in the timing of cilia regeneration. In this context, it is interesting to observe that synthesis of a 50,000 dalton protein (deciliation induced protein, DIP) begins shortly after the cells are deciliated. The synthesis of this protein declines around one hour after deciliation. The synthesis of tubulin ( 55,000 dalton protein) can be detected only one hour after deciliation (Guttman and Gorovsky, 1979). It is tempting to speculate that CCB which is only effective during the first hour after deciliation might interfere with this DIP proteins thereby causing a lag in the cilia regeneration process.

A remarkable effect of CCB treatment which is revealed by our scanning electron microscopic observations, is the alteration of cell morphology. We have consistently observed that CCB post treatment produces bizarre cell shape. Many of the treated cells display a distorted contour and twisted appearance. High resolution scanning electron microscopic study reveals that the cell surface cortex is also disturbed and the orderly rows of kineties

become disarrayed due to the treatment of the drug. This kind of aberrant cell morphology has seldom been encountered in the drug untreated cells. This kind of contorted appearance of CCB treated cells are regulated back to the normal shape at later period. Many kinds of such morphological changes have also been reported by various other investigators. Devoy *et al.*, (1979) observed a rounding up of cells of chick mesoderm treated with this chemical. CCB causes an immediate distortion in cell morphology in coelomocyte cells (Edds, 1980). Britch and Allen (1981) have observed morphological changes with disruption of microfilament in normal rat liver cells and hepatoma derived cell-line. CCB is also known to cause a change in cell morphology of 3T3 cells (Tennink and Spiele, 1981). This kind of effect can possibly be correlated with the action of CCB on the cell surface components of tetrahymena. Recently the major cytoskeletal proteins of the cell surface in tetrahymena have been identified and observed under electron microscope. It has also been found that the 'epiplasm' is a continuous layer of fibrous elements found just below the surface membrane. It has also been indicated that the actin protein might also be present in this epiplasmic layer (Williams & Vaudax 1979; and Vaudax & Williams, 1979). It is already known that CCB greatly interferes with

the polymerization and elongation process of the actin filaments (Spudich and Lin, 1972; Brown and Spudich, 1979; Fox and Phillips, 1981). So it will not be unreasonable to conclude that the alterations in the surface architecture of the ciliate cortex could be due to the action of CCB on the cytoskeletal proteins including actin. However, a similar kind of speculation has also been made that the morphological alterations are to be due to an effect of CCB on the cytoskeleton which could be a direct disruptive effect or disruption of microfilament of the cell surface (Goldman et al., 1973; Devoy & England et al., 1979). We can conclude that the changed cell surface topography may therefore, affect the precise steps of synthesis, assembly and transport of the ciliary components by altering the spatial arrangement of cilia on the cortex. This, in turn, leads to the change of cilia regeneration kinetics.

SUMMARY

1. Ciliated protozoan, Tetrahymena pyriformis (w) are deciliated by EDTA and  $Ca^{++}$  pulse method and the cilia regeneration kinetics as well as the morphology of the cell surface cortex during the cilia regeneration are studied with light microscope and in more detail by scanning electron microscopy.
2. It has been observed that a small population of cells slowly start moving at about one hour after deciliation and after this, the motility index slowly increases, such that, after four<sup>hr</sup> of deciliation almost all cells regenerate their ciliary apparatus.
3. The observation of cell surface morphology shows that, immediately after deciliation all the cells are completely devoid of cilia and a few cells show a spherical shape.
4. Cytochalasin B which is well known to cause various physiological as well as morphological alterations of the cells viz., phagocytosis, pinocytosis, cell motility and polymerization of actin filament etc. has been administered to see the effect of the drug on the cilia regeneration of tetrahymena. In our study it has been consistently observed that this

drug produces a lag period of one hour in the cilia regeneration timing. But however, the effect is temporary and after the lag period the cells slowly recover to the normal level at about fifth hour after deciliation.

5. Cytochalasin B also causes a remarkable change in the morphology of the cell surface cortex. Mainly it causes a twisted configuration of the cortical pattern with distorted rows of kineties.
6. It is postulated that these observed effects of cytochalasin B on the cilia regeneration timing and the morphology of the cortex can be due to <sup>two</sup> reasons. The drug may interfere with the synthesis of DIP proteins or the protein components of cell surface viz, actin. It may be also possible that the drug may affect both these protein components simultaneously to bring these observed alterations.

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