Condensation of pericentrin proteins in human cells illuminates phase separation in centrosome assembly

Xueer Jiang[1], Dac Bang Tam Ho[1], Karan Mahe[1], Jennielee Mia[1], Guadalupe Sepulveda[1†], Mark Antkowiak[1‖], Soichiro Yamada[2], and Li-En Jao[1*]

Affiliations

[1]Department of Cell Biology and Human Anatomy, University of California, Davis, School of Medicine, Davis, CA 95616, USA

[2]Department of Biomedical Engineering, University of California, Davis, Davis, CA 95616, USA

[†]Current address: Department of Molecular and Cell Biology, University of California, Berkeley, Berkeley, CA 94720, USA

[‖]Current address: Northwestern University, Feinberg School of Medicine, Chicago, IL 60611, USA

[*]For correspondence: ljao@ucdavis.edu

Abstract

Mitotic centrosomes are complex membraneless organelles that guide the formation of

mitotic spindles to ensure faithful cell division. They are formed by timely expansion of the

pericentriolar material (PCM) around the centrioles at the onset of mitosis. How PCM proteins

are recruited and held together without a lipid membrane remains elusive. Here we found that

endogenously expressed pericentrin (PCNT), a conserved PCM scaffold protein, condenses

into liquid-like granules during early mitosis in cultured human cells. Furthermore, the N-terminal

segment of PCNT, enriched with conserved coiled-coils and low-complexity regions (LCRs),

undergoes phase separation. These PCNT "condensates" selectively recruit PCM components

and nucleate microtubules in cells. We propose that coiled-coils and LCRs, two prevalent

sequence features in the centrosomal proteome, are preserved under evolutionary pressure to

drive phase separation, a process that bestows upon the centrosome a distinct material

property critical for its assembly and functions.

Introduction

The centrosome serves as a major microtubule-organizing center (MTOC) in animal cells. It consists of a pair of centrioles embedded in a proteinaceous network of pericentriolar material (PCM) (Conduit et al., 2015; Rieder & Borisy, 1982; Vorobjev & Chentsov Yu, 1982; Wang et al., 2011; Woodruff et al., 2014). The MTOC activity of the centrosome is determined by the PCM, which acts as a scaffold to recruit MT regulators and nucleators, such as γ-tubulin ring complexes (γ-TuRCs) (Jeng & Stearns, 1999; Moritz, Braunfeld, Sedat, et al., 1995; Moritz et al., 1998; Oegema et al., 1999; Zheng et al., 1995). The PCM is not a static structure. In interphase cells, relatively small amounts of PCM are assembled around the centriole and organized as a layered, nanometer-sized toroid (Fu & Glover, 2012; Lawo et al., 2012; Mennella et al., 2012; Sonnen et al., 2012). As the cell enters mitosis, the PCM expands dramatically into a micron-sized ensemble, with a concomitant increase in its MTOC activity as the mitotic spindle forms in a process termed centrosome maturation (Mahen & Venkitaraman, 2012; Mennella et al., 2014; Palazzo et al., 2000).

Over the past decades, proteins important for centrosome maturation have been identified (Andersen et al., 2003; Dobbelaere et al., 2008; Goshima et al., 2007; Hamill et al., 2002; Hutchins et al., 2010; Neumann et al., 2010; Sonnichsen et al., 2005; Woodruff et al., 2015). At the molecular level, centrosome maturation is initiated upon phosphorylation of core PCM components, such as spindle-defective protein 5 (SPD-5), centrosomin (Cnn), and pericentrin (PCNT) by mitotic kinases Polo/PLK1 and aurora kinase A (Barr & Gergely, 2007; Berdnik & Knoblich, 2002; Conduit, Feng, et al., 2014; Hannak et al., 2001; Joukov et al., 2014; Kinoshita et al., 2005; Lee & Rhee, 2011; Woodruff et al., 2017; Woodruff et al., 2015; Wueseke et al., 2016). This triggers the cooperative assembly of additional PCM proteins (Alvarez-Rodrigo et al., 2019; Conduit, Richens, et al., 2014; Hamill et al., 2002; Kemp et al., 2004; Meng et al.,

2015) and γ-TuRCs to facilitate bipolar spindle assembly (Conduit et al., 2015; Jeng & Stearns,

1999; Khodjakov & Rieder, 1999; Moritz, Braunfeld, Sedat, et al., 1995; Moritz et al., 1998;

Oegema et al., 1999; Piehl et al., 2004; Woodruff et al., 2014; Zheng et al., 1995). While the

mechanism of centrosome maturation has been elucidated at the molecular level, the

biophysical principle of PCM assembly remains elusive at the organellar level—without an

enclosing membrane, what keeps the crowded PCM proteins from dispersing?

Liquid-liquid phase separation, a process through which macromolecules de-mix and

partition from a single phase into two or more distinct phases in a concentration-dependent

manner, has emerged as a mechanism that underlies a variety of cellular processes involving

non-membrane-bound compartments or organelles (reviews in Banani et al., 2017; Holehouse &

Pappu, 2018; Hyman et al., 2014; Shin & Brangwynne, 2017). Recently Woodruff and

colleagues proposed that the centrosome is formed through phase separation (Woodruff et al.,

2017). They showed that *in vitro* purified SPD-5, a core PCM protein with extensive coiled-coils

in *C. elegans* (Hamill et al., 2002), forms spherical liquid "condensates" *in vitro* in the presence

of crowding reagents, which mimic the dense cytoplasm (Woodruff et al., 2017). SPD-5

condensates possess a centrosomal activity *in vitro*, capable of nucleating MTs after selectively

recruiting tubulin dimers and cognate proteins (ZYG-9 and TPXL-1) (Woodruff et al., 2017).

These data are also consistent with mathematical modeling of centrosomes as autocatalytic

droplets formed by phase separation (Zwicker et al., 2014). However, it is unclear how closely

this *in vitro* system actually reflects centrosomal MT nucleation *in vivo*, as SPD-5 condensates

do not recruit γ-tubulin, an essential *in vivo* MT nucleation factor for many species (Felix et al.,

1994; Hannak et al., 2002; Joshi et al., 1992; Oakley et al., 1990; Stearns et al., 1991; Stearns

& Kirschner, 1994; Zheng et al., 1991).

Contrary data suggest that phase separation may not play a role in centrosome assembly.

For example, Cnn—a major mitotic PCM component and functional homolog of SPD-5 in

Drosophila—does not undergo dynamic internal rearrangements as it incorporates into the

centrosome *in vivo* (Conduit et al., 2010; Conduit, Feng, et al., 2014). Two short conserved

domains of Cnn can self-assemble into solid-like scaffolds *in vitro*, but no liquid-to-solid phase

transition has been observed (Feng et al., 2017). However, the action of these Cnn segments in

the context of full-length Cnn *in vivo* remains unknown. Together, with the available evidence, it

remains elusive whether liquid-liquid phase separation underlies centrosome assembly.

In vertebrates, PCNT plays a particularly important role in PCM assembly as it is required for

the initiation (Lee & Rhee, 2011; Zimmerman et al., 2004) and recruitment of key PCM

components during centrosome maturation (Haren et al., 2009; Lawo et al., 2012; Zimmerman

et al., 2004). We recently showed that PCNT enrichment during centrosome maturation is

controlled by a co-translational targeting mechanism that ensures timely production and spatial

deposition of PCNT at the centrosome (Sepulveda et al., 2018). Indeed, PCNT expression is

tightly regulated. For example, human loss-of-function mutations of PCNT cause microcephalic

osteodysplastic primordial dwarfism type II (Anitha et al., 2009; Delaval & Doxsey, 2010; Griffith

et al., 2008; Numata et al., 2009; Rauch et al., 2008), whereas elevated PCNT levels disrupt

ciliary protein trafficking and sonic hedgehog signaling, and may contribute to clinical features of

Down syndrome (Galati et al., 2018). Despite its importance at the cellular and organismal

levels, the precise function of PCNT in centrosome assembly remains enigmatic.

Here we demonstrate that endogenously GFP-tagged human PCNT forms droplet-like

pericentrosomal granules during early mitosis. These GFP-PCNT granules show liquid-like

properties as they fuse and split in seconds and are dissolved by hexanediol that disrupts weak

protein-protein interactions. These data suggest that PCNT phase separates into liquid-like

condensates at physiologically relevant levels during mitosis. We further show that phase

separation of PCNT is driven by the segments enriched with conserved coiled-coils and low-

complexity regions (LCRs). These PCNT condensates transition from liquid- to gel/solid-like

states and exhibit centrosome-like activities in cells, including selectively recruiting endogenous

PCM components and nucleating MTs. The finding that PCNT undergoes liquid-liquid phase

separation under physiologically relevant conditions provides insights into the role of coiled-coils

and LCRs in the assembly of the membraneless centrosome, which is enriched with proteins

containing both sequence features.

Results

Endogenously expressed GFP-PCNT forms liquid-like condensates during early mitosis

To test whether PCNT undergoes liquid-liquid phase separation under physiologically

relevant conditions in mammalian cells, we generated stable human cell lines with GFP-tagged

PCNT expressed from its endogenous locus using the CRISPR technology (S. Lin et al., 2014;

Zhang et al., 2017). We inserted a super-folder GFP (sfGFP) cassette at the 5' end (exon 1) of

the *PCNT* allele in hTERT-immortalized human retinal pigment epithelial cells (RPE-1 cells)

(**Figure 1- figure supplement 1**). The resulting knock-in cell lines exhibited normal cell

morphology and mitotic progression with the GFP-PCNT decorating the centrosomes as

expected (**Figure 1- figure supplement 1**).

Through high-resolution time-lapse confocal microscopy, we observed small GFP-PCNT

granules (100-400 nm) near centrosomes in early mitosis (**Figure 1A and Figure 1- movie**

supplement 1 and 2). Similar pericentrosomal PCNT granules were also observed by

immunostaining endogenous, untagged PCNT during early mitosis (Sepulveda et al., 2018)

(**Figure 1- figure supplement 2**). These GFP-PCNT granules were dynamic and appeared to

fuse and split over a timescale of seconds. Similar dynamic pericentrosomal GFP-PCNT

granules were also observed in another independent knock-in clone (**Figure 1- movie**

supplement 3). This dynamic behavior suggests that these PCNT granules may be liquid-like

condensates formed by liquid-liquid phase separation. To test this hypothesis, we treated the

cells with aliphatic alcohol 1,6-hexanediol, which dissolves liquid-like condensates by disrupting

weak hydrophobic interactions (Kroschwald et al., 2017; Ribbeck & Gorlich, 2002). Following

hexanediol addition, PCNT granules near centrosomes dispersed within minutes (**Figure 1B**

and C). Together, these results suggest that PCNT, expressed from its endogenous locus,

forms liquid-like condensates, likely through liquid-liquid phase separation, before incorporating

into the early mitotic centrosome of cultured human cells.

Coiled-coils and low-complexity regions of pericentrin are more conserved than the rest

of the protein sequence

If condensation of PCNT is of evolutionary significance, the sequence features that

contribute to condensation should be conserved across species and may be identifiable at the

primary sequence level. To test this hypothesis, we constructed an alignment of 169 pericentrin

orthologous proteins—167 from vertebrates, one from fruit fly (D-PLP, Martinez-Campos et al.,

2004), and one from budding yeast (Spc110, Knop & Schiebel, 1997; Sundberg & Davis, 1997)

(**Figure 2A and Figure 2- table 1**). A number of sequence blocks are highly conserved. A

prominent one is located at the C-terminus, particularly at the PACT motif, a hallmark pericentrin

domain known for centrosomal anchoring (Gillingham & Munro, 2000; Takahashi et al., 2002).

Another highly conserved region is in the middle portion of the protein. In contrast, the N-

terminus is not well conserved, with the evidence of clade-specific insertions.

To gain insights into the properties of these conserved sequences, we performed further *in*

silico analyses (Lupas et al., 1991; Wootton, 1994), focusing on human PCNT. We found that

similar to other centrosomal proteins, human PCNT is enriched with coiled-coils and low-

complexity regions (LCRs) (**Figure 2A**). LCRs often overlap with intrinsically disordered regions,

which can mediate multivalent interactions to drive or tune liquid-liquid phase separation (Boke

et al., 2016; Kato et al., 2012; Lin et al., 2015; Molliex et al., 2015; Patel et al., 2015; Riback et

al., 2017). Indeed some disorder predictors (e.g., PONDR, Peng et al., 2006; Peng et al., 2005)

predicted that human PCNT is largely disordered except for the C-terminal PACT motif (**Figure**

2- figure supplement 1). However, as a known limitation with current disorder predictions

(Atkins et al., 2015), not all disorder predictors are in complete agreement, with each predictor

suggesting different degrees of disorder/order tendency [e.g., IUpred (Dosztanyi et al., 2005)

predicted an overall more ordered structure than PONDR did].

Nonetheless, by comparing the conservation profile of the multi-species alignment and the

locations of the predicted features of human PCNT, we found that the coiled-coils and LCRs in

human PCNT are concentrated within the conserved orthologous regions (**Figure 2A**).

Statistical analyses further demonstrated that coiled-coils and LCRs are significantly more

conserved than non-coiled-coils and non-LCRs, respectively, in human PCNT (**Figure 2B**).

Together, these results suggest that coiled-coils and LCRs of pericentrin orthologs are likely

under natural selection to preserve their molecular functions.

PCNT phase separates via its coiled-coil/LCR-rich segments in a concentration-

dependent manner

Given that both coiled-coils and LCRs can drive liquid-liquid phase separation (Berry et al.,

2015; Boeynaems et al., 2018; Elbaum-Garfinkle et al., 2015; Fang et al., 2019; Hennig et al.,

2015; Lu et al., 2020; Molliex et al., 2015; Nott et al., 2015; Smith et al., 2016; Wang et al.,

2018; Wippich et al., 2013; Zeng et al., 2016; Zhang et al., 2018), we hypothesized that the

coiled-coil/LCR-rich sequences drive phase separation of the full-length PCNT observed in the

knock-in cells.

To test this hypothesis, control PCNT transcription tightly, and map phase separation

determinants, we divided PCNT into N- and C-terminal segments, tagged each with sfGFP, and

subcloned the resulting GFP-PCNT constructs under the control of a doxycycline (Dox)-

inducible promoter. We then stably integrated each construct in RPE-1 cells using a *piggyBac*

transposon system (Kim et al., 2016). Upon Dox induction, live cell imaging showed that the N-

terminal segment, GFP-PCNT (2-1960), formed dynamic condensates (**Figure 2C and Figure**

2- movie supplement 1) with fast internal rearrangement of molecules ($t_{1/2}$ = 260 ms) as

determined by fluorescence recovery after photobleaching (FRAP) assays (**Figure 2D**). In

contrast, the C-terminal segment, GFP-PCNT (1954-3336), formed solid-like scaffolds (**Figure**

2C and Figure 2- movie supplement 2) with little internal rearrangement or fluorescence

recovery (**Figure 2D**).

To further map the phase separation driver sequences, we tested GFP-tagged PCNT (2-

891) and (854-1960) constructs, which subdivide PCNT (2-1960) but do not disrupt predicted

individual coiled-coils or LCRs. After inducing their expression in cells, we compared their

respective critical concentrations, the point above which liquid-liquid phase separation occurs

(Asherie, 2004). To quantitatively assess this value in living cells, we developed an imaging and

quantification workflow to measure relative protein concentrations by fluorescence intensity per

voxel (volume). With this workflow, we found that GFP-PCNT (2-891) remained diffuse in cells

as its concentration increased. However, over the same concentration range, GFP-PCNT (854-

1960) suddenly formed droplet-like condensates when it reached its critical concentration for

phase separation (**Figure 2E,** also see **Figure 3**). Using this workflow, we also validated the

liquid-liquid phase separation behavior of GFP-PCNT (2-1960)—which had a slightly higher

critical concentration than GFP-PCNT (854-1960)—and the lack of phase separation for GFP-

PCNT (1954-3336) within the same concentration range (**Figure 2E**). Collectively, these results

suggest that the abundant coiled-coils and LCRs between residues 854 and 1960 of human

PCNT—which are also well conserved across species (**Figure 2A and B**)—contain the key

sequence elements that mediate PCNT phase separation.

GFP-PCNT (854-1960) undergoes liquid-liquid phase separation, coalesces, and moves toward the centrosome

Besides phase separating at a lower concentration than GFP-PCNT (2-1960) (**Figure 2E**), GFP-PCNT (854-1960) condensates also exhibited different morphology and behavior. In particular, early-stage small GFP-PCNT (854-1960) condensates formed well-defined spherical, liquid-like droplets as they rapidly split and fused within seconds (**Figure 3A**). Over time, these GFP-PCNT (854-1960) condensates coalesced and converged at the centrosome—arcing around the nucleus in some cases—to form large pericentrosomal blobs (**Figure 3B and Figure 3- movie supplement 1**). Their movement is likely mediated by dynein motors as this PCNT segment contains a putative dynein-binding domain (Tynan et al., 2000) (**Figure 2A**). Importantly, since FLAG- and mScarlet-i-tagged PCNT (854-1960) fusion proteins also formed similar condensates (**Figure 3- figure supplement 1 and Figure 3- movie supplement 2**), the GFP tag did not artifactually drive liquid-liquid phase separation.

Close examination of time-lapse data revealed that the rate of fusing and splitting decreased as PCNT (854-1960) condensates coalesced (**Figure 3B and Figure 3- movie supplement 1 and 2**), suggesting that the viscosity of PCNT (854-1960) condensates increased over time. To test this hypothesis, we used the Dox-inducible system to induce, track, and analyze material properties of young (0-3 h old) and old (20-24 h old) GFP-PCNT (854-1960) condensates by FRAP. We found that young condensates recovered fluorescence almost twice as fast as the old ones (**Figure 3C**). Some young condensates recovered >100% of their initial fluorescence intensity because they grew in size. These results suggest that GFP-PCNT (854-1960) condensates become "hardened" over time. Such molecular aging is also reported for other proteins that phase separate *in vitro*, such as SPD-5 (Woodruff et al., 2017), FUS (Patel et al., 2015), hnRNPA1 (Lin et al., 2015), and Tau (Wegmann et al., 2018).

GFP-PCNT (854-1960) condensates selectively recruit endogenous PCM components

Because the "hardened" SPD-5 condensates recruit tubulins and factors involved in MT

nucleation *in vitro* (Woodruff et al., 2017), we tested whether GFP-PCNT (854-1960)

condensates can also recruit PCM components, including structural polypeptides and "client"

proteins, which are also recruited to mitotic PCM (e.g., dynein and PLK1). We found that

endogenous PCNT, γ-tubulin, CEP215, CEP192, dynein intermediate chains (ICs), and PLK1

were significantly enriched in GFP-PCNT (854-1960) condensates, whereas the non-PCM

component ribosomal protein S6 (RPS6) was excluded (**Figure 4**). Interestingly, these recruited

proteins were nonuniformly distributed, with reticular patterns that resemble mitotic PCM (Lawo

et al., 2012; Sonnen et al., 2012). To exclude the possibility that any phase-separated

condensates could recruit PCM components, we examined the enrichment of PCM components

in the condensates formed by HOTags, the *de novo*-designed homo-oligomeric coiled-coils

(Grigoryan et al., 2011; Huang et al., 2014; Thomson et al., 2014), which phase separate

through multivalent interactions (Zhang et al., 2018). We found that PCM components γ-tubulin,

PCNT, and CEP192 were not enriched in the HOTag condensates (**Figure 4- figure**

supplement 1). Collectively, these results indicate that PCNT (854-1960) condensates possess

a unique material property that enables them to selectively recruit endogenous PCM

components.

GFP-PCNT (854-1960) condensates nucleate microtubules in cells

Since PCNT (854-1960) condensates recruit γ-tubulin (**Figure 4**), the protein that plays a

central role in MT nucleation (Felix et al., 1994; Hannak et al., 2002; Joshi et al., 1992; Oakley

et al., 1990; Stearns et al., 1991; Stearns & Kirschner, 1994; Zheng et al., 1991), we tested

whether these condensates can also nucleate MTs in cells by performing a MT renucleation

assay (Jao et al., 2017; Sanders et al., 2017). In this assay, we treated cells with nocodazole to

depolymerize MTs, washed out the drug, and monitored renucleation of MTs by anti-α-tubulin

immunostaining. We found that MTs were renucleated not only from the centrosome as

expected, but also from the interior and surface of PCNT condensates (**Figure 5A, arrows**).

The condensates also recruited endogenous PCNT as observed before. Some small PCNT

condensates also recruited endogenous PCNT and nucleated MTs (**Figure 5B, inlets,**

asterisks). Quantification of MT density in condensates and their surrounding cytoplasm

confirmed that PCNT condensates have a significantly higher MT renucleation activity than the

surrounding cytoplasm (**Figure 5C**). A similar MT renucleation assay was also performed in live

cells, where EB3-tdTomato was used to track the growing MT plus ends. Live cell imaging

showed that some PCNT condensates nucleated MTs as EB3-tdTomato signals were

emanating from the surface of the PCNT condensates (**Figure 5- figure supplement 1**). From

these two MT renucleation assays, we conclude that GFP-PCNT (854-1960) condensates

possess the centrosome-like MT nucleation activity in cells.

Discussion

Our work shows that endogenously expressed PCNT, a core PCM protein important for

centrosome maturation, forms liquid-like granules before incorporating into mitotic centrosomes

in human cells. These PCNT granules are likely formed through liquid-liquid phase separation

because (1) they are sensitive to the acute hexanediol treatment that is known to disrupt phase-

separated condensates (Kroschwald et al., 2017; Larson et al., 2017; So et al., 2019; Strom et

al., 2017) and (2) the coiled-coil/LCR-rich portion of PCNT undergoes concentration-dependent

condensation *in cellulo* that obeys characteristics of phase separation, including a sharp phase

transition boundary, condensate coalescence, deformability, and fast recovery in FRAP

experiments. Recent theoretical modeling (Zwicker et al., 2014) and *in vitro* reconstitution

studies (Woodruff et al., 2017) suggest that liquid-liquid phase separation underlies centrosome

assembly in *C. elegans*. To our knowledge, our study provides the first *in cellulo* evidence to

support such a model and suggests that phase separation may also underlie the assembly of

vertebrate centrosomes with at least one protein, PCNT, directly involved in this process.

Is co-translational targeting of PCNT linked to its condensation during early mitosis?

The liquid-like PCNT granules are predominantly observed during early mitosis when co-

translational targeting of PCNT to the centrosome peaks (Sepulveda et al., 2018). This raises

an intriguing question of whether co-translational targeting facilitates PCNT phase separation. In

the co-translational targeting model, multiple nascent PCNT polypeptides emerge from each

polysome complex with a single large *PCNT* mRNA and are transported along the MT tracks.

This process could effectively bring multiple N-terminal, phase separation-driving PCNT

polypeptides in close proximity. A proximity-driven phase separation can thus be envisioned

since phase separation is a concentration-dependent process. This also explains why these

liquid-like PCNT granules are observed predominantly during early mitosis when PCNT

production is maximized. This proximity-driven phase separation model is also consistent with

the results that phase separation of the N-terminal (2-1960) or middle (854-1960) segment of

PCNT can be recapitulated in the cytoplasm in a concentration-dependent manner, when it was

expressed exogenously and has reached its critical concentration.

Functional significance of liquid-like PCNT granules

What is the functional significance of PCNT condensation? Would it facilitate the

centrosomal targeting and incorporation of PCNT? Or more broadly, is the formation of liquid-

like PCNT granules a prerequisite for proper centrosome assembly? Woodruff and colleagues

show that in the presence of crowding reagents, purified centrosomal protein SPD-5 forms

liquid-like spherical condensates *in vitro*, which then rapidly "mature" into a gel- or solid-like

state (Woodruff et al., 2017). Strikingly, only these spherical SPD-5 condensates can nucleate

MTs, but not the solid-like SPD-5 scaffolds formed in the absence of crowding reagents

(Woodruff et al., 2017; Woodruff et al., 2015). Their data thus suggest that formation of a

condensate with liquid-like properties, even only transiently, might be important to allow

centrosomal proteins to be properly assembled to organize MTs (Raff, 2019; Woodruff et al.,

2017). A similar scenario could happen here; the formation of liquid-like PCNT granules may

enable the proper assembly of the human centrosome to organize MTs, for example, by

allowing various PCM components to "morph" into the desired configuration (also see below).

Important future studies are to investigate whether other PCM components are co-condensed

with PCNT granules, and to rationally design phase separation-deficient (and -rescuing) PCNT

variants to determine the significance of phase separation *per se* in centrosome function under

physiologically relevant conditions.

Is there a liquid-to-gel/solid-like transition in PCM assembly?

PCNT (854-1960) condensates transition from liquid- to gel/solid-like state, resulting in a scaffold with an inhomogeneous, porous appearance (**Figures 3 and 4**). Morphologically, this pattern resembles that of salt-stripped mitotic centrosomes purified from flies and clams in early electron tomography studies (Moritz, Braunfeld, Fung, et al., 1995; Schnackenberg et al., 1998), in which the PCM is shown as a fibrous, solid-like scaffold surrounding the centrioles. Moritz and colleagues further demonstrate that upon adding bovine or fly tubulins, MTs regrow from the PCM of the salt-stripped centrosomes, with MT nucleation sites distributed throughout the PCM and MTs oriented in different directions (Moritz, Braunfeld, Fung, et al., 1995). Interestingly, in our MT renucleation assays, we also observed a similar MT renucleation pattern in the PCNT condensate; MTs were nucleated throughout the condensate and regrown into different directions (**Figure 5 and Figure 5- figure supplement 1**). We thus speculate that without the C-terminal PACT motif for centrosomal anchoring, the PCNT (854-1960) condensate is allowed to grow freely in the cytoplasm (through the process of liquid-liquid phase separation), eventually becoming a giant ensemble that shares a similar internal organization with the real PCM. The similarity in organization between PCNT condensates and purified PCM scaffolds implicates that centrosome assembly may be guided by a similar underlying principle, pivoting on liquid-to-gel/solid-like phase transition.

What could be the advantage of assembling the centrosome through a liquid-to-gel/solid-like transition? We speculate that with the liquid-like state (even just transiently), large scaffold proteins such as PCNT, along with other PCM components, are allowed to establish the interconnection before transitioning into the mature, gel/solid-like state. This "extra transitioning step" might be particularly important in forming large, micron-sized, membraneless structures such as the PCM.

How is PCNT (854-1960) capable of recruiting endogenous PCM components and

nucleating MTs?

It is surprising that the PCNT condensates formed by one-third of PCNT (residues 854-

1960) can selectively recruit endogenous centrosomal proteins and nucleate MTs *in cellulo*.

This region is particularly enriched with coiled-coils and LCRs (**Figure 2A**) and appears to

contain the sequence elements that drive phase separation. However, this region does not

contain the putative γ-tubulin-binding domains, which are within the first 350 amino acids of

human PCNT (T. C. Lin et al., 2014) (**Figure 2A**), nor the CEP215-binding domain, which is

mapped to the C-terminus of human PCNT (amino acids 2390-2406) (Kim & Rhee, 2014). Yet

both γ-tubulin and CEP215 (and several other PCM proteins) are recruited to these

condensates (**Figure 4**). One explanation is that their recruitments are mediated through the

endogenous PCNT that is also recruited to the condensate. Another possibility is that PCNT

(854-1960) contains yet to be identified binding sites for these PCM components. It is also

possible that PCNT (854-1960) condensates gain new material properties that enable selective

recruitment by generating a binding environment specific for PCM components. In the future,

studying the PCNT (854-1960) condensates in the *PCNT* knockout cells and reconstituting

PCNT (854-1960) condensates *in vitro* to test their capability of recruiting PCM components

would help distinguish these possibilities.

Re-evaluating the role of coiled-coils in centrosome assembly

Coiled-coils are often enriched with low-complexity sequences (Romero et al., 1999). They

are frequently predicted to be disordered as monomers but become folded upon formation of

quaternary structures (coupled folding and binding) (Anurag et al., 2012; Szappanos et al.,

2010; Uversky et al., 2000). Due to these unique properties, coiled-coils are known to adapt

vast structural variations with different superhelical stabilities to exert a wide range of biological

functions (Grigoryan & Keating, 2008; Li et al., 2003; Rose & Meier, 2004).

It has long been recognized that coiled-coil proteins are enriched at the centrosome and

function as parts of the "centromatrix" for the recruitment of other proteins (Doxsey, 2001;

Salisbury, 2003; Schnackenberg & Palazzo, 1999). Recent *in vitro* reconstitution studies of the

coiled-coil PCM proteins SPD-5 (*C. elegans*) and Cnn (*Drosophila*) provide strong evidence to

support a polymer-based mechanism of PCM assembly (Feng et al., 2017; Woodruff et al.,

2017; Woodruff et al., 2015). However, the exact mechanism underlying this polymer-based

assembly is still under debate. It also remains unclear whether this model is applicable to

vertebrate systems (Gupta & Pelletier, 2017; Raff, 2019).

We found that in cultured human cells, not only endogenously expressed full-length human

PCNT condense into liquid-like granules, the coiled-coil-rich PCNT segments alone can also

phase separate to form bioactive condensates with centrosome-like activities. These findings

illuminate the fundamental principle of centrosome assembly and join a growing list of studies in

which coiled-coil-mediated phase separation participates in a variety of biological functions

(Fang et al., 2019; Lu et al., 2020; Vega et al., 2019; Zeng et al., 2016).

Importantly, coiled-coils and LCRs of human PCNT are enriched in the regions that are

evolutionarily conserved, suggesting that these sequence features are under natural selection to

preserve critical functions. We propose that PCNT is a linear multivalent protein that phase

separates through its conserved coiled-coils and LCRs to become spatially organized

condensates that scaffold PCM assembly. This process is likely initiated during its co-

translational targeting to the centrosome when the nascent PCNT polypeptides are in close

proximity in the polysome (**Figure 6**). We propose that PCNT phase separation achieves two

main goals. First, it concentrates PCM components and clients as the PCNT condensates

selectively recruit them. This will facilitate and limit the biochemical reactions that eventually

take place at the centrosome (e.g., MT nucleation, kinase activities). Second, it enables a liquid-

to-gel/solid-like transitioning process during centrosome assembly. This process provides the

PCM components a thermodynamically favored pathway to assemble into a micron-sized,

membraneless, and yet spatially organized PCM.

Although coiled-coils mediate other phase separation-independent activities, it is tempting to

speculate that coiled-coil-mediated phase separation might be widespread among other coiled-

coil-rich centrosomal proteins as previously suggested (Woodruff et al., 2017). Our results

encourage future studies to rethink the conceptional framework regarding coiled-coil proteins

and phase separation in centrosome assembly and to determine whether a unified mechanism

is applied across metazoans.

Materials and Methods

Key resources table

Reagent type	Reagent	Source	Cat. No	Additional information
Chemical compound, drug	1,6-Hexanediol	Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis, MO	240117	
Chemical compound, drug	DAPI	Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis, MO	D9542	
Chemical compound, drug	Doxycycline hyclate	Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis, MO	D9891	
Chemical compound, drug	G418 disulfate salt	Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis, MO	A1720	
Chemical compound, drug	Nocodazole	Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis, MO	M1404	
Chemical compound, drug	Polybrene	Santa Cruz Biotechnology Inc., Santa Cruz, CA	SC-134220	
Chemical compound, drug	Rapamycin	LC Laboratories, Woburn, MA	R-5000	
Chemical compound, drug	RO-3306	R and D Systems, Minneapolis, MN	4181	
Chemical compound, drug	Taxol	TOCRIS Bio-Techne Corporation Minneapolis, MN	1097	
Antibody	Alexa Fluor 568 goat anti-mouse IgG [H+L]	Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA	Invitrogen Cat# A11031, RRID: AB_144696	1:500 dilution
Antibody	Alexa Fluor 568 goat anti-rabbit IgG [H+L]	Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA	Invitrogen Cat# A11011,	1:500 dilution

			RRID: AB_143157	
Antibody	Alexa Fluor 647 goat anti-mouse IgG [H+L]	Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA	Invitrogen Cat# A21236, RRID: AB_2535805	1:500 dilution
Antibody	Alexa Fluor 647 goat anti-rabbit IgG [H+L]	Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA	Invitrogen Cat# A21245, RRID: AB_2535813	1:500 dilution
Antibody	Mouse anti-alpha-tubulin	Developmental Studies Hybridoma Bank (DSHB), University of Iowa, Iowa City, IA	DSHB Cat# 12G10, RRID: AB_1157911	1:100 dilution
Antibody	Mouse anti-Dynein, 74 kDa intermediate chains, cytoplasmic, clone 74.1	EMD Millipore, Burlington, MA	EMD Millipore Cat# MAB1618, RRID: AB_2246059	1:500 dilution
Antibody	Mouse anti-hGAPDH	Developmental Studies Hybridoma Bank (DSHB), University of Iowa, Iowa City, IA	DSHB Cat# DSHB-hGAPDH-2G7, RRID: AB_2617426	1:300 dilution
Antibody	Mouse anti-PLK1	EMD Millipore, Burlington, MA	EMD Millipore Cat# 05-844, RRID: AB_310836	1:1000 dilution
Antibody	Mouse anti-p53	Abcam, Cambridge, MA	Abcam Cat# ab1101, RRID: AB_297667	1:1000 dilution
Antibody	Mouse anti-ribosomal protein S6 (C-8)	Santa Cruz Biotechnology Inc., Santa Cruz, CA	Santa Cruz Biotechnology Cat# sc-74459, RRID: AB_1129205	1:50 dilution
Antibody	Mouse anti-γ-tubulin	Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis, MO	Sigma-Aldrich Cat# T6557, RRID: AB_477584	1:500 dilution

Antibody	Rabbit anti-CDK5RAP2 (CEP215)	EMD Millipore, Burlington, MA	EMD Millipore Cat# 06-1398, RRID: AB_11203651	1:500 dilution
Antibody	Rabbit anti-CEP192	Bethyl, Montgomery, TX	Bethyl Cat# A302-324A, RRID: AB_1850234	1:500 dilution
Antibody	Rabbit anti-PCNT N terminus	Abcam, Cambridge, MA	Abcam Cat# ab4448, RRID: AB_304461	1:1000 dilution
Commercial system or kit	Corning® 50 mL Tube Top Vacuum Filter System, 0.22 μm Pore 13.6cm² CA Membrane	Corning Inc., Corning, NY	Corning Cat# 430320	
Commercial system or kit	Lipofectamine™ 3000 Transfection Reagent	Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA	Invitrogen Cat# L3000-008	
Commercial system or kit	Neon™ Transfection System	Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA	MPK5000	
Commercial system or kit	Neon™ Transfection System 10 μL Kit	Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA	MPK1096	
Cell line	HEK293T cells	A gift from Henry Ho, University of California, Davis, Davis, CA	ATCC Cat# CRL-3216, RRID: CVCL_0063	
Cell line	HeLa cells	A gift from Susan Wente, Vanderbilt University, Nashville, TN	ATCC Cat# CCL-2, RRID: CVCL_0030	
Cell line	hTERT RPE-1 cells	A gift from Irina Kaverina, Vanderbilt University, Nashville, TN	ATCC Cat# CRL-4000, RRID: CVCL_4388	
Software	Fiji (ImageJ)	Image Processing and Analysis in Java	ImageJ, RRID: SCR_002285	
Software	Fusion	Andor Technology, Belfast, UK	Andor Technology	

Software	Imaris	Bitplane, Belfast, UK	Imaris, RRID: SCR_007370	
Software	Jalview	The Barton Group, University of Dundee, Scotland, UK	Jalview, RRID: SCR_006459	
Software	Microsoft Excel	Microsoft, Redmond, WA	Microsoft Excel, RRID: SCR_016137	
Software	Prism 8	Graphpad, San Diego, CA	Graphpad Prism, RRID: SCR_002798	
Software	R	R Project for Statistical Computing	R, RRID: SCR_001905	

Constructs

To generate constructs for stable expression of GFP- or mScarlet-i-PCNT segments

controlled by a doxycycline-inducible promoter, each PCNT segment was first amplified by PCR

from the pCMV-3xFLAG-EGFP-PCNT-Myc plasmid (a kind gift from Kunsoo Rhee, Seoul

National University, Seoul, South Korea) (Lee & Rhee, 2011) and assembled into a vector with

sfGFP or mScarlet-i by Gibson assembly (Gibson et al., 2009). The final constructs with the

piggyBac transposon elements and doxycycline-inducible promoter were made by subcloning

the sfGFP- or mScarlet-i-PCNT fragment into PB-TA-ERN (a gift from Knut Woltjen, Addgene

plasmid #80474; http://n2t.net/addgene:80474; RRID: Addgene_80474) (Kim et al., 2016) using

the Gateway cloning system (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, MA). The following *piggyBac*

transposon constructs, with amino acid sequences of human PCNT in the parentheses, were

used in this study: PB-TA-sfGFP-PCNT (2-891), PB-TA-sfGFP-PCNT (854-1960), PB-TA-

sfGFP-PCNT (2-1960), and PB-TA-sfGFP-PCNT (1954-3336), PB-TA-mScarlet-i-PCNT (854-

1960).

To make the construct to label microtubule plus ends, the EB3-tdTomato fragment was

amplified by PCR from the EB3-tdTomato plasmid (a gift from Erik Dent, Addgene plasmid

#50708; http://n2t.net/addgene:50708; RRID: Addgene_50708) (Merriam et al., 2013) and

cloned into a lentiviral targeting plasmid pLVX-EF1α-mCherry-N1 without the mCherry portion (a

gift from Henry Ho, 631986, Takara Bio, Mountain View, CA) by Gibson assembly. The resulting

plasmid, pLVX-EF1α-EB3-tdTomato, was used to make lentiviruses to transduce cultured

human cells.

To make the construct to label DNA, mScarlet-i-H2A construct was amplified by PCR from

the pmScarlet-i_H2A_C1 plasmid (a gift from Dorus Gadella, Addgene plasmid #85053;

http://n2t.net/addgene:85053; RRID: Addgene_85053) (Bindels et al., 2017) and cloned into the

same lentiviral targeting construct by Gibson assembly as described above to generate pLVX-

EF1α-mScarlet-i-H2A.

To make the construct to label the centrioles with far red fluorescence, the coding sequence

of human centrin 2 (CETN2) was first cloned from total RNA of HEK293T cells using the

SuperScript® III One-Step RT-PCR System (Invitrogen). The miRFP670 was amplified by PCR

from the pmiRFP670-N1 plasmid (a gift from Vladislav Verkhusha, Addgene plasmid #79987;

http://n2t.net/addgene:79987; RRID: Addgene_79987) (Shcherbakova et al., 2016). miRFP670

and CETN2 were then assembled into the same lentiviral targeting construct by Gibson

assembly as described above to generate pLVX-EF1α-miRFP670-CETN2.

To generate the Cas9 tagged with the nuclear localization signal (NLS) at both the N- and

C-termini for expression in mammalian cells, an NLS from SV40 large T-antigen (Kalderon et

al., 1984) was synthesized and added to hCas9, a construct encoding a human codon-

optimized Cas9 (hCas9) with an NLS at its C-terminus (a gift from George Church, Addgene

plasmid #41815; http://n2t.net/addgene:41815; RRID: Addgene_41815) (Mali et al., 2013), by

PCR. The final construct, pCMVSP6-NLS-hCas9-NLS-polyA_Tol2pA2, with NLS-hCas9-NLS

under the control of the cytomegalovirus (CMV) immediate-early enhancer and promoter was

generated by the Gateway cloning system (Thermo Fisher Scientific) using the components

from the Tol2kit (Kwan et al., 2007).

Cell culture

RPE-1 cells (a gift from Irina Kaverina, Vanderbilt University) were maintained in Dulbecco's

Modification of Eagles Medium/Ham's F-12 50/50 Mix (DMEM/F-12) (10–092-CV, Corning,

Corning, NY). HeLa cells (ATCC CCL-2, a gift from Susan Wente, Vanderbilt University,

Nashville, TN) and HEK293T cells (a gift from Henry Ho, University of California, Davis, Davis,

CA) were maintained in DMEM (10–017-CV, Corning). All cell lines were supplemented with

10% fetal bovine serum (FBS) (12303C, lot no. 13G114, Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis, MO), 1x

Penicillin Streptomycin (30–002 CI, Corning), and maintained in a humidified incubator with 5%

CO_2 at 37°C.

Cell lines used in this study were not further authenticated after obtaining from the sources.

All cell lines were tested negative for mycoplasma using a PCR-based testing with the Universal

Mycoplasma Detection Kit (30–1012K, ATCC, Manassas, VA). None of the cell lines used in this

study was included in the list of commonly misidentified cell lines maintained by International

Cell Line Authentication Committee.

Generation of GFP-PCNT knock-in cell line

The CRISPR/Cas9 technology with a double-cut homology directed repair (HDR) donor was

used to knock in sfGFP into the *PCNT* locus of RPE-1 cells (S. Lin et al., 2014; Zhang et al.,

2017). Because it was unclear if knocking in sfGFP would perturb centrosome integrity that

might lead to p53-dependent cell cycle arrest (Mikule et al., 2007), making it unfavorable to

isolate the knock-in clones, we first generated a *TP53* knockout RPE-1 cell line before the

knock-in experiment (**Figure 1- figure supplement 3**). Knocking out *TP53* was achieved

through the CRISPR-mediated gene editing by co-expression of Cas9 protein with the gRNA

targeting *TP53* (5'-GGGCAGCTACGGTTTCCGTC-3') using the method described by the

Church group (Mali et al., 2013). The gRNA template was cloned into the gRNA Cloning Vector

(Addgene plasmid # 41824; http://n2t.net/addgene:41824; RRID: Addgene_41824) via Gibson

assembly. 1 μg Cas9 plasmid (pCMVSP6-NLS-hCas9-NLS-polyA_Tol2pA2) and 1 μg gRNA

plasmid were transfected into RPE-1 cells using the Lipofectamine P3000 reagent according to

the manufacturer's instruction (Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA). Cells were expanded, isolated as

single colonies, and screened for frameshift mutations in both *TP53* alleles by high-throughput

Illumina sequencing. The loss of TP53 expression was further confirmed by Western blot

analysis. A *TP53*^{-/-};RPE-1 cell line (RPE-1_1-1) was used in this study (**Figure 1- figure**

supplement 3).

To knock in sfGFP into the *PCNT* locus, crRNA/tracrRNA (i.e., the Alt-R system, Integrated

DNA Technologies, Coralville, IA) were used to target a sequence near the start codon of *PCNT*

(CGCGCGGAGTCTGAGGGAGA). The double-cut HDR donor contains the sfGFP-PCNT

cassette with 600-bp homology arms flanked by the same guide RNA target sequence

(synthesized and cloned into pUC57-Kan vector, Genewiz, South Plainfield, NJ) (**Figure 1-**

figure supplement 1). Annealed crRNA/tracrRNA and Cas9 protein (a kind gift from Fuguo

Jiang and Jennifer Doudna, Jiang et al., 2016; Jiang et al., 2015) were incubated in 30 mM

HEPES, pH 7.5, 1 mM MgCl$_2$, 200 mM KCl, and 1 mM TCEP at 37°C for 10 min to form the

Cas9 ribonucleoprotein (RNP) complexes. Before electroporation, the HDR donor plasmid was

mixed with 2 x 10^5 of the *TP53*^{-/-};RPE-1 cells synchronized to early M phase using RO-3306 as

done before (Sepulveda et al., 2018). The Cas9 RNP complexes were then mixed with the

cell/donor vector mix, followed by electroporation using the Neon electroporation system with a

10-μl tip according to the manufacturer's instruction (Pulse voltage: 1200 V, pulse width: 25,

pulse number: 4, Invitrogen). The final concentrations of the annealed crRNA/tracrRNA, Cas9

protein, and HDR donor plasmid are 3 μM, 2 μM, and 120 nM, respectively, in a total volume of

10 μl. After electroporation, the cells were grown for 10-14 days in dilute density. Individual

clones were isolated and screened for the presence of GFP-positive centrosomes. The GFP-

positive clones were further confirmed by anti-PCNT immunostaining and sequencing the

junctions of the sfGFP integration site (primer sequences are in **Supplementary file 1**).

Generation of doxycycline-inducible cell lines with GFP- or mScarlet-i-PCNT segments

We used a previously described *piggyBac* transposon system (Kim et al., 2016) to generate

stable cell lines that express different GFP- or mScarlet-i-PCNT fusions in a doxycycline-

inducible manner. In brief, the PB-TA-sfGFP-PCNT or PB-TA-mScarlet-i-PCNT *piggyBac*

transposon construct and a *piggyBac* transposase plasmid (PB210PA-1, System Biosciences,

Palo Alto, CA) were electroporated into *TP53$^{-/-}$*;RPE-1 cells using the Neon electroporation

system according to the manufacturer's instruction (Invitrogen). After 8-10 day of 200 mg/ml

G418 treatment, sfGFP-PCNT integrated cells were obtained. Sometimes fluorescence

activated cell sorting (FACS) was further performed to obtain cells with desired, more uniform

expression levels of fusion proteins.

Generation of stable cell lines by lentiviral transduction

To generate recombinant lentiviruses expressing EB3-tdTomato, pLVX-EF1α-EB3-tdTomato

plasmid was first co-transfected with the following third-generation packaging plasmids (gifts

from Didier Trono): pMD2.G (Addgene plasmid #12259; http://n2t.net/addgene:12259; RRID:

Addgene_12259), pRSV-rev (Addgene plasmid #12253; http://n2t.net/addgene:12253; RRID:

Addgene_12253), and pMDLg/pRRE (Addgene plasmid #12251; http://n2t.net/addgene:12251;

RRID: Addgene_12251) (Dull et al., 1998) into HEK293T cells. Viral supernatants were

collected from media 24-48 h post transfection, filtered by a 0.22-μm filter, and were used to

infect the inducible GFP-PCNT (854-1960) $TP53^{-/-}$;RPE-1 cells with 8 μg/ml polybrene. 18-24 h

post infection, the viruses were removed and the cells were expanded. To minimize the impact

on microtubule dynamics, the cells expressing low levels of EB3-tdTomato (gated and collected

by FACS) were used for experiments.

To generate lentiviruses expressing mScarlet-i-H2A and miRFP670-CETN2, the same

procedure was performed as above except for using the targeting vectors pLVX-EF1α-mScarlet-

i-H2A and pLVX-EF1α-miRFP670-CETN2, respectively. The resulting viral supernatants were

used to infect the GFP-PCNT knock-in cells as described above.

Measurement of protein enrichment in PCNT and HOTag condensates

To test whether the PCNT condensates recruit PCM but exclude non-PCM components,

about 5 x 10^4 GFP-PCNT (854-1960) cells were seeded onto each 12-mm circular coverslip in a

24-well plate, treated with 1 μg/ml doxycycline treatment for 24 h, followed by immunostaining.

To compare the recruitment of PCM component between the PCNT and non-PCNT

condensates, the HOTag3/6 condensates (Zhang et al., 2018) were formed by transfecting

pcDNA3-FKBP-EGFP-HOTag3 and pcDNA3-Frb-EGFP-HOTag6 plasmids (gifts from Xiaokun

Shu; Addgene plasmid #106924 and #106919, respectively) into $TP53^{-/-}$;RPE-1 cells using the

Lipofectamine P3000 reagent according to the manufacturer's instruction (Invitrogen). In

parallel, the doxycycline-inducible GFP-PCNT (854-1960) cells were treated with 1 μg/ml

doxycycline for 6 h to induce the formation of PCNT condensates. Cells with either HOTag or

PCNT condensates were then treated with 100 nM rapamycin for 1 h (to induce the formation of

HOTag condensates) prior to immunostaining.

Microtubule renucleation assay

Microtubule renucleation assay was adapted from previous studies (Jao et al., 2017;

Sanders et al., 2017). In brief, cells were treated with 8.3 μM nocodazole for 2 h to depolymerize

microtubules. The plate containing the treated cells was then placed on ice, while washing the

cells with ice-cold media for 8 times to remove nocodazole. To allow microtubules to renucleate,

the plate was then placed in a 37°C water bath while the cells were incubated with pre-warmed

media for 65-110 s (the optimal regrowth period varied between experiments), followed by a 10-

s incubation with pre-warmed Extraction Buffer (60 mM PIPES, pH 6.9, 25 mM HEPES, 10 mM

EGTA, 2 mM MgCl$_2$, 0.1% Saponin, 0.25 nM nocodazole, 0.25 nM taxol). Immediately after the

regrowth, the cells were fixed with 4% paraformaldehyde, 0.025% glutaraldehyde in

Cytoskeleton Buffer (10 mM MES, 150 mM NaCl, 5 mM MgCl$_2$, 5 mM EGTA, 5 mM D-glucose)

for 10 min at room temperature. The cells were then incubated with 0.2% NaBH$_4$ in 1x PBS for

10 min at room temperature to quench the autofluorescence before immunostaining. For the live

MT renucleation assay, the nocodazole-treated EB3-tdTomato-expressing cells with PCNT

condensates were mounted on the microscope stage, first imaged in the presence of

nocodazole, followed by washes with pre-warmed fresh media 5 times. After washes, the cells

were imaged again at 1-min intervals to monitor MT renucleation.

Immunostaining

Immunostaining was performed as previously described (Jiang et al., 2019; Sepulveda et

al., 2018). In brief, cells were fixed for 15 min in 4% paraformaldehyde in 1x PBS at room

temperature or 5 min in ice-cold 100% methanol at -20°C. Cells were then washed twice with 1x

PBS and incubated with Blocking Solution (2% goat serum, 0.1% Triton X-100, and 10 mg/ml

bovine serum albumin in 1x PBS) for 1 h at room temperature. Cells were then incubated with

Blocking Solution containing diluted primary antibody for 1 h at room temperature, washed three

times with 1x PBS, and incubated with Blocking Solution containing diluted secondary antibody

for 1 hr at room temperature. Cells were washed three times with 1x PBS, and nuclei were

counterstained with 0.05 mg/ml DAPI in 1x PBS for 30 min at room temperature before

mounting.

Microscopy

Confocal microscopy was performed using a spinning disk confocal microscope system

(Dragonfly, Andor Technology, Belfast, UK) housed within a wrap-around incubator (Okolab,

Pozzuoli, Italy) with Leica 63x/1.40 or 100x/1.40 HC PL APO objectives, an iXon Ultra 888

EMCCD camera, or a Zyla sCMOS camera for immunofluorescence and live cell imaging.

Deconvolution was performed using the Fusion software (Andor Technology).

For live imaging, cells were seeded in 35-mm glass-bottom dishes 12-18 h prior to imaging

and were imaged in a humidified environmental chamber with 5% CO_2 at 37°C.

For acute 1,6-hexanediol treatment, 3.5% 1,6-hexanediol in 10% FBS DMEM/F-12 media

was added 2 min after the start of time-lapse imaging at 37°C (every 3 min for 5 times; time 0 =

the time 1,6-hexanediol was added). Control cells (i.e., no 1,6-hexanediol) were imaged in

parallel under the same acquisition condition and intervals.

Fluorescence recovery after photobleaching (FRAP)

A FRAP photoablation module with a computer-controlled fiber optically pumped dye laser was used to bleach a region-of-interest (ROI) on the condensate (~2 μm in diameter) after a few pre-bleach images were acquired. After photobleaching, the same ROI continued to be imaged at 2-s (young condensates) or 5-s (old condensates) intervals for 5 to 12 min. Images were acquired using a Zeiss AxioObserver with a 60x objective coupled with a Yokogawa CSU-10 spinning disk confocal system and a Photometrics CoolSNAP HQ2 cooled CCD camera (BioImaging Solutions, San Diego, CA). The microscope system was controlled by Slidebook software (Intelligent Imaging Innovations, Denver, CO) and was enclosed in an environmental chamber with temperature set at 37°C. Images and data were analyzed using ImageJ, Microsoft Excel, and GraphPad Prism 8 (GraphPad, San Diego, CA).

Measurement of relative protein concentrations in cells

Doxycycline-inducible cell lines expressing individual GFP-PCNT segments were seeded on glass-bottom 35-mm dishes and live imaging started after addition of 1 μg/ml doxycycline. Imaging of different cell lines was performed with the same acquisition setting and condition (5% CO_2 at 37°C) using a spinning disk confocal microscope system (Dragonfly, Andor Technology). To estimate the relative protein concentrations of GFP-PCNT in cells, the volumes of the condensates and their surrounding cytoplasm were first determined from the confocal voxels. This was done by performing surface rendering of the GFP signals of the condensates (dense phase) and of the whole cytoplasm (light phase) with different thresholds using the Surface reconstruction function of Imaris (Bitplane, Belfast, UK). Depending on the GFP expression level in each cell, threshold values were manually selected for rendering. The volume and intensity sums of each rendered surface were then calculated. The volume and intensity sums in the light

(cytoplasm) phase were calculated by subtracting the values in the dense phase from the total

in the cell. Relative protein concentrations were calculated as intensity sum per volume. The

critical concentration of phase-separated PCNT segments was determined as the cytoplasmic

protein concentration (light phase) of the phase-separated cells since this value stayed relatively

constant once the protein phase separated in cells.

Quantification of protein intensity in the condensates

To quantify the fold enrichment of various proteins in the condensates, three randomly

chosen fixed areas in the condensates and in the cytoplasm per cell (2.25 μm^2 for data in

Figure 4, 0.159 μm^2 for data in **Figure 4- figure supplement 1**) were selected for quantification

using Fiji. The mean protein intensity value in each selected area was exported into an Excel

sheet. The averaged mean intensity values in the cytoplasm and in the condensates per cell

were calculated. The fold enrichment in the condensates is calculated as the ratio of protein

intensity mean in the condensates per cell to the overall protein intensity mean in the cytoplasm.

For cells with centrosomes embedded in the PCNT condensates, PCM protein signals at the

centrosomes within the PCNT condensates were excluded from quantification.

Quantification of microtubule density

Each condensate was manually outlined as the first ROI using the freehand selection tool in

Fiji. The second ROI was then defined as the cytoplasm space between the outline of the first

ROI and the outline 1 μm larger than the first ROI. Values of area and intensity sum of anti-α-

tubulin signals in the first (condensate) and second (cytoplasm) ROIs were then calculated in an

Excel sheet. One or two condensates was quantified per cell. Microtubule density was

calculated as anti-α-tubulin intensity sum per area. Normalized microtubule density was

calculated as the ratio of microtubule density in the condensate to the averaged microtubule

density in the cytoplasm.

Multiple protein sequence alignments

Protein sequences of pericentrin orthologs from a diverse group of vertebrates, as well as

two functional homologs of pericentrin from budding yeast (Spc110) and fruit fly (pericentrin-like

protein, D-Plp), were retrieved from Ensembl genome database (http://uswest.ensembl.org),

resulting in a total of 233 sequences. We further filtered sequences to eliminate those with low-

quality sequence reads, incomplete annotations, and those inducing large gaps (e.g., due to the

insertions specific to small numbers of species), resulting in a final list of 169 sequences. These

169 sequences were then aligned using MUSCLE (Edgar, 2004) and colored with the default

Clustal X color scheme in Jalview (**Figure 2- table 1**) (Waterhouse et al., 2009). The

conservation of each residue was scored using the AMAS method of multiple sequence

alignment analysis in Jalview (Livingstone & Barton, 1993).

Statistical analysis

Statistical analysis was performed using the GraphPad Prism 8 (GraphPad). Each sample

size (n value) is indicated in the corresponding figure or figure legend. Significance was

assessed by performing an unpaired two-sided Student's t-test, as indicated in individual

figures. The experiments were not randomized. The investigators were not blinded to allocation

during experiments and outcome assessment.

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Cas9 protein and kindly shared it with us for this study.

Legends for movie supplements

Figure 1- movie supplement 1. A time-lapse movie of a GFP-PCNT knock-in cell. Part of the time-lapse micrographs (inset #1) are shown in Example 1 of Figure 1. Arrowheads denote the fusing and splitting events of the GFP-PCNT granules. Asterisks denote the centrosomes.

Figure 1- movie supplement 2. A time-lapse movie of a GFP-PCNT knock-in cell. Part of the time-lapse micrographs (inset #1) are shown in Example 2 of Figure 1. Arrowheads denote the fusing and splitting events of the GFP-PCNT granules. Asterisks denote the centrosomes.

Figure 1- movie supplement 3. A time-lapse movie of a GFP-PCNT knock-in cell from another independent knock-in clone. Asterisks denote the centrosomes. Note the fusing and splitting events of the GFP-PCNT granules near centrosomes.

Figure 2- movie supplement 1. Time-lapse movie of GFP-PCNT (2-1960) condensates in RPE-1 cells 24 h post Dox induction. Part of the time-lapse micrographs (inset #1) are shown in Figure 2C.

Figure 2- movie supplement 2. Time-lapse movie of GFP-PCNT (1954-3336) solid-like scaffolds in RPE-1 cells 24 h post Dox induction. Part of the time-lapse micrographs (inset #1) are shown in Figure 2C.

Figure 3- movie supplement 1. Time-lapse movie of GFP-PCNT (854-1960) in RPE-1 cells. Time-lapse imaging started 3.5 h post Dox induction. The centrosomes are labeled by

686   miRFP670-CETN2 fusion protein. Part of the time-lapse micrographs are shown in Figure 3B.

687   GFP-PCNT (854-1960) in yellow, miRFP670-CETN2 in magenta.

689   **Figure 3- movie supplement 2. Time-lapse movie of mScarlet-i-PCNT (854-1960) in RPE-1**

690   **cells.** In some cells, the centrosomes are labeled by miRFP670-CETN2 fusion protein.

691   mScarlet-i-PCNT (854-1960) in cyan, miRFP670-CETN2 in magenta.

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Figure 1. Endogenously expressed GFP-PCNT forms liquid-like condensates during early mitosis.
(**A**) Time-lapse micrographs of GFP-PCNT expressed from its endogenous locus during early mitosis. Arrowheads denote the fusing and splitting events of the GFP-PCNT granules. Asterisks in time 0 s denote the centrosomes. The experiment was repeated three times with similar results. (**B**) Time-lapse micrographs of early mitotic cells showing pericentrosomal GFP-PCNT granules without or with the acute 3.5% 1,6-hexanediol treatment. Time 0 is set at the time of hexanediol addition. Asterisks in time -2 min denote the centrosomes. (**C**) Quantification of the results from the experiments shown in (B). Percent of GFP-PCNT granules remained, without and with the acute 1,6-hexanediol treatment, as the function of time was plotted and represented as mean ± 95% CI (confidence intervals) from three biological replicates. The total number of cells analyzed for each condition is indicated. The arrowhead denotes the time of hexanediol addition (time 0). p-values were determined by two-tailed Student's t-test. Scale bars, 1 μm (A, Example 1), 0.5 μm (A, Example 2), and 5 μm (B).

Figure 1- figure supplement 1. Generation and validation of GFP-PCNT knock-in cells. (A)
Schematic of knocking in *sfGFP* into the *PCNT* locus of RPE-1 cells using the CRISPR/Cas9 technology with a double-cut homology-directed repair (HDR) donor. Arrows indicate the locations of genotyping primers. (**B**) Immunofluorescence images of GFP-PCNT knock-in (KI) cells. The experiment was repeated three times with similar results. (**C**) Genotyping results of the GFP-PCNT KI and the parental cells by polymerase chain reaction (PCR) using the primers indicated in (A). The experiment was repeated three times with similar results. (**D**) Quantification of mitotic durations of GFP-PCNT KI and parental cells stably expressing miRFP670-CETN2 and mScarlet-i-H2A that mark the centrosome and DNA, respectively. Data are mean ± 95% CI. The p-value was determined by two-tailed Student's t-test; n.s., not significant. n, number of cells analyzed from three biological replicates.

Figure 1- figure supplement 2. PCNT granules near centrosomes during early mitosis. Immunofluorescence of a prophase RPE-1 cell using the anti-PCNT N-terminus antibody to detect endogenous PCNT proteins. Asterisks denote the centrosomes. The experiment was repeated three times with similar results.

Figure 1- figure supplement 3. Generation of *TP53* knockout RPE-1 cells. (**A**) Illumina sequencing confirmed that one of the CRISPR-edited RPE-1 cell lines, RPE-1_1-1, has frameshift mutations at the gRNA target site in both *TP53* alleles (a 1-bp deletion and a 1-bp insertion). Sequencing data were analyzed and illustrated by an R-based toolkit, CrispRVariants (Lindsay et al., 2016). (**B**) Western blot analysis confirmed the loss of TP53 protein in RPE-1_1-1 cells. Anti-GAPDH staining served as the loading control. WT: parental RPE-1 cells; KO: RPE-1_1-1 cells.

A

Human PCNT (as reference)

1   211   854   1960   3336

169 pericentrin orthologs

Conservation — High / Low

Coiled-coils | PACT motif

Human — **Low complexity**

Putative γ-tubulin BDs (SPM + CM1)

Putative dynein BD

B

Conservation score (a.u.)

$p<0.0001$ ****

CC   Non-CC

CC: coiled-coils

$p<0.0001$ ****

LC   Non-LC

LC: low complexity

C

GFP-PCNT (2-1960)

0 s   3   6   9   12   15

GFP-PCNT (1954-3336)

0 s   3   6   9   12   15

Pixel intensity

D

Normalized intensity

GFP-PCNT (2-1960)
60.1% recovery in 2 min
$t_{1/2}$ = 0.26 s (n=59)

GFP-PCNT (1954-3336)
3.5% recovery in 2 min
$t_{1/2}$ = 1.02 s (n=56)

Time (s)

Pre-bleach   Bleach   Recovery

2-1960:   -0.5 s   0   5   10   20   116
nucleus

1954-3336:   -0.5 s   0   5   10   20   120

Pixel intensity

E

Critical concentration

$p<0.0001$ ****

PCNT (2-891) (n=85)

PCNT (854-1960) (n=119)

PCNT (2-1960) (n=73)

PCNT (1954-3336) (n=69)

Concentration (intensity per volume, a.u.)

Critical concentration

○ Diffused/light phase

● Condensed/dense phase

▼ Solid-like scaffolds

Figure 2. Coiled-coil/LCR-rich N-terminal and middle segments of PCNT phase separate in a concentration-dependent manner. (**A**) An alignment of 169 pericentrin orthologous proteins from vertebrates (167), fruit fly (1), and budding yeast (1) with the conservation scores shown below the alignment. The alignment was colored by the default Clustal X coloring scheme (Figure 2- table 1). Locations of predicted coiled-coils, PACT motif, low-complexity regions, and putative γ-tubulin and dynein binding domains (BDs) of human PCNT are noted below the alignment. (**B**) Distribution of conservation scores corresponding to human PCNT within or outside of the coiled-coil (CC) or low complexity (LC) regions. Data are presented in violin plots, with red bars and dashed lines denoting the median and third quartile, respectively. (**C**) Representative time-lapse micrographs of GFP-tagged PCNT (2-1960) and PCNT (854-1960) 24 h post Dox induction in RPE-1 cells. Brackets denote the dynamic rearrangement of GFP-PCNT (2-1960) condensates. Similar results were observed in three biological replicates. (**D**) FRAP analyses of GFP-PCNT (2-1960) condensates and GFP-PCNT (1954-3336) scaffolds in RPE-1 cells. Dashed circles delineate the bleached sites. Data are mean ± 95% CI. n, number of condensates/scaffolds analyzed from >3 biological replicates. The percent recovery and half-life ($t_{1/2}$) after photobleaching were calculated after fitting the data with non-linear regression. (**E**) Quantification of relative protein concentrations (intensity sum per volume) in live cells expressing various GFP-tagged PCNT segments after Dox induction. Critical concentrations are mean ± 95% CI. n, number of cells analyzed from three biological replicates per segment. The p-values were determined by two-tailed Student's t-test. a.u., arbitrary unit. Scale bars, 5 μm.

Category	Color	Residue at position	{Threshold, Residue group}
Hydrophobic	BLUE	A, I, L, M, F, W, V	{>60%, WLVIMAFCHP}
		C	{>60%, WLVIMAFCHP}
Positive charge	RED	K, R	{>60%, KR}, {>80%, K, R, Q}
Negative charge	MAGENTA	E	{>60%, KR}, {>50%, QE}, {>85%, E, Q, D}
		D	{>60%, KR}, {>85%, K, R, Q}, {>50%, ED}
Polar	GREEN	N	{>50%, N}, {>85%, N,Y}
		Q	{>60%, KR}, {>50%, QE}, {>85%, Q, E, K, R}
		S, T	{>60%, WLVIMAFCHP}, {>50%, TS}, {>85%, S, T}
Cysteines	PINK	C	{>85%, C}
Glycines	ORANGE	G	{>0%, G}
Prolines	YELLOW	P	{>0%, P}
Aromatic	CYAN	H, Y	{>60%, WLVIMAFCHP}, {>85%, W, Y, A, C, P, Q, F, H, I, L, M, V}
Unconserved	WHITE	any/gap	If none of the above criteria are met

Figure 2- table 1. Clustal X coloring scheme (adapted from Jalview) used in the multi-species alignment in Figure 2A.

Figure 2- figure supplement 1. Disorder predictions of human PCNT. Predicted coiled-coils and low-complexity regions of human PCNT aligned with results of three disorder prediction algorithms (PONDR VSL2, PONDR VL3-BA, and IUpred).

Figure 3. GFP-PCNT (854-1960) undergoes liquid-liquid phase separation, coalesces, and moves toward the centrosome. (**A**) Time-lapse micrographs of GFP-PCNT (854-1960) condensates in RPE-1 cells. Arrowheads denote the fast fusing and splitting events of the spherical condensates. Similar results were observed in three biological replicates. (**B**) Time-lapse micrographs of GFP-PCNT (854-1960) expressed in miRFP670-CETN2-positive RPE-1 cells. Time-lapse imaging started 3.5 h post Dox induction. The time when the first condensates formed is marked as time 0. Arrowheads denote the examples of two condensates moving around the nucleus toward the centrosome. The experiment was repeated more than three times with similar results. (**C**) FRAP analysis of different ages of GFP-PCNT (854-1960) condensates in RPE-1 cells. Dashed circles delineate the bleached sites. Data are mean ± CI. n, number of condensates analyzed from three biological replicates. The percent recovery and half-life ($t_{1/2}$) after photobleaching were calculated after fitting the data with non-linear regression. Note that the highly mobile nature of young condensates prevented us from tracking the same condensates consistently beyond 5 min in the recovery phase of the FRAP assay. Scale bars, 2 μm (A), 10 μm (B), 1 μm (C, young condensates), and 2 μm (C, old condensates).

Figure 3- figure supplement 1. FLAG- and mScarlet-i-tagged PCNT (854-1960) fusion proteins form condensates. (**A**) Anti-PCNT N-terminus immunofluorescence of HeLa cells transiently expressing FLAG-PCNT (854-1960). The experiment was repeated two times with similar results. (**B**) mScarlet-i-PCNT (854-1960) condensates in live RPE-1 cells. Dashed lines delineate the cell boundaries. The experiment was repeated three times with similar results.

Figure 4. GFP-PCNT (854-1960) condensates selectively recruit endogenous PCM components.
Immunofluorescence of PCNT N-terminus (PCNT N-term), γ-tubulin, CEP215, CEP192, cytoplasmic
dynein intermediate chains (Dynein ICs), PLK1, or ribosomal protein S6 (RPS6) in RPE-1 cells after
Dox induction to form GFP-PCNT (854-1960) condensates. Fold enrichment of fluorescence signals
in the condensate (Con) relative to those in the cytoplasm (Cyt) was quantified. Data are mean ± 95%
CI. Fold enrichment mean values are noted. n, number of cells analyzed from at least two biological
replicates per protein. p-values were determined by two-tailed Student's t-test. Scale bars, 5 μm.

Figure 4- figure supplement 1. Endogenous PCM components are not enriched in the HOTag condensates.
(**A**) Anti-γ-tubulin immunofluorescence of GFP-PCNT (854-1960) and GFP-HOTag3/6 condensates. Right: The line plots of the selected regions (cyan lines). Asterisks denote the centrosomes. (**B** and **C**) Fold enrichment of fluorescence signals in the PCNT or HOTag condensates relative to those in the cytoplasm was quantified. Data are mean ± 95% CI. p-values were determined by two-tailed Student's t-test. n.s., not significant. n, number of cells analyzed from two, one, and two biological replicates for γ-tubulin, PCNT, and CEP192, respectively.

Figure 5. GFP-PCNT (854-1960) condensates nucleate MTs in cells. (**A**) Anti-α-tubulin immunofluorescence of GFP-PCNT (854-1960) condensates during MT renucleation in max-projected and single optical section views. Note that MTs were renucleated within and on the surface of the condensate (arrows). A dot in the merged channels denotes the centrosome, where MT renucleation was robust. (**B**) MT renucleation also occurred in small PCNT condensates (asterisks), which also recruited endogenous PCNT. (**C**) Quantification of MT density in GFP-PCNT (854-1960) condensates (Con) and in the surrounding cytoplasm (Cyt) during MT renucleation. Data are mean ± 95% CI. Fold enrichment mean value is noted. n, number of condensates analyzed from three biological replicates. The p-value was determined by two-tailed Student's t-test. a.u., arbitrary unit. Scale bars, 10 μm and 2 μm (inset).

Figure 5- figure supplement 1. GFP-PCNT (854-1960) condensates nucleate MTs in live cells. (**A**) Schematic of the MT renucleation assay in live cells. GFP-PCNT (854-1960) condensates in EB3-tdTomato-positive RPE-1 cells were formed after Dox induction. MTs were then depolymerized by nocodazole (Noc). A pre-wash image was taken [Noc (+)], followed by time-lapse imaging at 1-min intervals after nocodazole was washed out on the microscope stage to follow MT renucleation [Noc (-)]. (**B**) Single optical sections of time-lapse micrographs of EB3-tdTomato-labeled microtubule plus ends on the surface of a GFP-PCNT (854-1960) condensate during MT renucleation. Time 0 was the time immediately after nocodazole was washed out. The experiment was repeated three times with similar results.

Figure 6. Model for PCNT phase separation in centrosome assembly. PCNT is a linear multivalent protein that phase separates through its conserved coiled-coils and LCRs during its co-translational targeting to the centrosome when the nascent PCNT polypeptides are in close proximity in the polysome. The resulting PCNT granules/condensates promote PCM assembly by (1) selectively concentrating PCM components and clients; this will facilitate and limit the biochemical reactions that eventually take place at the centrosome (e.g., MT nucleation, kinase activities) and (2) enabling a liquid-to-gel/solid-like transitioning process during centrosome assembly; this process provides the PCM components a thermodynamically favored pathway to assemble into a micron-sized, membraneless, and yet spatially organized PCM.