1 **Cytoplasmic Microtubule Organizing Centers Regulate Meiotic Spindle Positioning in**

2 **Mouse Oocyte**

5 **Running title:** mcMTOCs regulate spindle positioning

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ABSTRACT

During oocyte meiosis, migration of the spindle and its positioning must be tightly regulated to ensure elimination of the polar bodies and provide developmentally competent euploid eggs. Although the role of F-actin in regulating these critical processes has been studied extensively, little is known whether microtubules (MTs) participate in regulating these processes. Here, we characterize a pool of MTOCs in the oocyte that does not contribute to spindle assembly but instead remains free in the cytoplasm during metaphase I (metaphase cytoplasmic MTOCs; mcMTOCs). In contrast to spindle pole MTOCs, which primarily originate from the perinuclear region in prophase I, the mcMTOCs are found near the cortex of the oocyte. At nuclear envelope breakdown, they exhibit robust nucleation of MTs, which diminishes during polar body extrusion before returning robustly during metaphase II. The asymmetric positioning of the mcMTOCs provides the spindle with a MT-based anchor line to the cortex opposite the site of polar body extrusion. Depletion of mcMTOCs, by laser ablation, or manipulating their numbers, through inhibitors or inducers of autophagy, revealed that the mcMTOCs are required to regulate the timely migration and positioning of the spindle in meiosis. We discuss how forces exerted by F-actin in mediating movement of the spindle to the oocyte cortex are balanced by MT-mediated forces from the mcMTOCs to ensure spindle positioning.

INTRODUCTION

Mammalian oocytes enter meiosis during early fetal life. Soon after birth, meiotic oocytes undergo a lengthy arrest at the dictyate stage of the prophase I of the first meiotic division (MI) [1]. At the age of puberty, gonadotropin cues allow prophase I-arrested oocytes to resume MI evident by breakdown of the nuclear envelope (NEBD) and formation of a central bipolar spindle [2-4]. The central positioning of the spindle is required to establish proper kinetochore-MT attachments and to protect against aneuploidy. The position of the spindle dictates the plane of cell division [5] and therefore, in contrast to mitotic cells where a centrally positioned spindle allows symmetrical cell division, the meiotic spindle must migrate towards the cortex for the highly asymmetric meiotic divisions [5,6]. Such peripheral positioning of the spindle is critical to extrude the tiny polar body (PB) thereby retaining the great majority of the cytoplasm containing maternal RNAs and protein for the egg to support early embryonic development [7,8]. It is essential to understand the critical events of spindle positioning and migration, which are required for the fidelity of chromosome transmission to the next generation.

To date, F-actin and its regulatory molecules represent the only cytoskeletal components known to regulate spindle migration and positioning in the mammalian oocyte. It has been shown that perturbation of F-actin, but not of MTs, impairs spindle migration in oocytes and that the resulting increased symmetry of cell division results in infertility [6,9-11]. This contrasts with mitotically dividing somatic cells, where positioning of the spindle at the center of the cell is primarily regulated by the interaction of the astral MTs at its poles with the cell cortex [12]. Such astral MTs are nucleated by centrosomes, centriole pairs surrounded by peri-centriolar material (PCM). By contrast, mammalian oocytes lack classic centrosomes [13] because centrioles are lost

during early oogenesis through an unknown mechanism. The numerous acentriolar MT

organizing centers of the oocyte (MTOCs) [13,14] are still able to nucleate astral-like MTs but these

are short and unable to extend to the cortex when the spindle is centrally positioned [14-16]. These

observations have enforced the notion that MTs have no role in regulating central spindle

positioning and migration. It is therefore surprising that when mouse oocytes are treated with

nocodazole, a MT depolymerizing agent, chromosomes migrate towards the cortex at a higher

speed and at an earlier time than in control oocytes [11,17]. These unexplained observations suggest

that MTs have, yet unknown, role(s) in regulating spindle migration and positioning in

mammalian oocytes.

In prophase I-arrested oocytes, the MTOCs are initially found in the perinuclear region [13]. Then,

before NEBD, these perinuclear MTOCs undergo distinct processes of decondensation,

stretching and redistribution into a large number of smaller MTOCs [18,19]. The fragmented

MTOCs are then clustered and sorted to form two poles necessary to assemble a bipolar spindle

[14,20,21]. Another pool of MTOCs is also present in the cytoplasm during NEBD. Some of these

cytoplasmic MTOCs migrate from the periphery to the center of the egg, where they participate

in spindle formation [14,18]. Another subset of cytoplasmic MTOCs, hereafter referred to as

metaphase cytoplasmic MTOCs (mcMTOCs) does not contribute to spindle formation and has

yet unknown biological significance for oocyte meiosis.

Here, we show that the pMTOCs and the mcMTOCs of MI oocytes represent two different

functional sets. We find by 3D time-lapse imaging that mcMTOCs localize asymmetrically

opposite the site of F-actin enrichment where the polar body is extruded. Super-resolution

Stimulated Emission Depletion (STED) microscopy reveals that mcMTOCs are able to nucleate

MTs that connect the spindle to the cortex. Importantly, we show that by increasing mcMTOC

numbers following treatment with an inhibitor of autophagy or by depleting them by laser

ablation, the meiotic spindle becomes abnormally positioned leading to aneuploidy. Our results

suggest a model whereby the role of F-actin in mediating movement of the meiotic spindle to the

cortex is balanced by forces exerted from mcMTOCs to ensure the timely migration and accurate

positioning of the spindle in the oocyte.

RESULTS

MTOCs in the cytoplasm and at the spindle poles of meiotic oocytes

The multiple MTOCs of prophase I-arrested oocytes follow distinct patterns of behavior.

Immediately before NEBD, perinuclear MTOCs become fragmented in three phases;

decondensation, stretching and repositioning towards the spindle poles through the sequential

actions of Polo-like kinase 1, BicD2-anchored dynein, and the KIF11 motor protein [18,19]. Soon

after NEBD, a second group of cytoplasmic MTOCs migrates from the periphery to the center of

the oocyte, where it participates with perinuclear MTOCs in spindle assembly [14,18]. Finally, a

third population of MTOCs persists in the cytoplasm of MI oocytes at metaphase (here termed

mcMTOCs) [16,22-25], whose role in meiosis is unknown. To follow the behavior of mcMTOCs

during MI, we employed live imaging using 3D confocal microscopy to visualize prophase I-

arrested oocytes (collected from CF-1 mice) expressing GFP-tagged Aurora A Kinase (AURKA-

GFP, an integral component of MTOCs in mouse oocytes [26-28] and H2B-mCherry (H2B-mCh) to

label MTOCs and DNA, respectively. As previously reported, perinuclear MTOCs became

fragmented into small multiple MTOCs at NEBD before they sorted and re-clustered at the two

spindle poles as pMTOCs (Fig. 1A; Supplementary Movie 1). We also observed cytoplasmic

MTOCs in the cytoplasm at NEBD, some of which migrated towards the oocyte center to

contribute to spindle formation alongside pMTOCs whereas others, mcMTOCs remained free in

the cytoplasm during prophase and metaphase I (Met I) after the bipolar spindle had formed (Fig.

1A; Supplementary Movie 1). We carried out 3D reconstruction of entire oocytes to examine the

number (Fig. 1 B,C) and volume (Fig. D, E) of the mcMTOCs (Supplementary Movie 2). In

contrast to pMTOCs which undergo a time-dependent decrease in number and increase in

volume (due to MTOC clustering) as the oocyte proceeds to Met I, the mcMTOCs displayed the

opposite pattern and showed a time-dependent increase in number and volume in prophase and

Met I (Fig. 1A,B,D; Supplementary Movies 1 and 2). Each oocyte had a variable number of

mcMTOCs (between 4 and 12) at Met I located on different focal planes (Supplementary Movie

3). The mcMTOCs became less distinct, appearing to be decreased in number and volume during

anaphase I (Ana I) and telophase I (Telo I) before regaining their metaphase appearance as the

oocytes arrested in Met II (Fig. 1A-E; Supplementary Movies 1 and 2). We confirmed that these

AURKA-positive foci were indeed MTOCs by showing the colocalization of γ-tubulin, another

integral component of PCM in meiotic oocytes [20] (Supplementary Fig. 1). To confirm our

observations, we fixed CF-1 oocytes at different developmental stages (GV, Met I, Ana I/Telo I

and Met II) and immunostained them to reveal the MTOC markers, γ-tubulin, pericentrin and

Cep192 [18,29-31]. This also revealed pMTOCs and mcMTOCs at Met I (Fig. 1F, G) that were able

to nucleate asters of MTs (α-tubulin staining, Fig. 1F). Similar findings were observed in Met I

oocytes from C57BL/6 mice (Supplementary Fig. 2). Just as we observed in time-lapse imaging

of MTOCs in living oocytes, the mcMTOCs became less distinct in fixed preparations of oocytes

in Ana I/Telo I of fixed MI oocytes.

mcMTOCs undergo three patterns of directional movement during MI

To dissect the directional motion and kinetics of the mcMTOCs, we tracked their movement in

3D reconstructions over time during pro-Met I. In contrast to pMTOCs which primarily

originate from perinuclear MTOCs at NEBD, the mcMTOCs formed at the periphery of the

oocyte (Fig. 2A; Supplementary Movie 4 and 5) and then appeared to undergo three phases of

directional movement. In the first phase, from NEBD to early Met I, the peripheral mcMTOCs

moved towards the oocyte's center with an average speed of 0.09 ± 0.007 μm min^{-1} and a

maximum speed of 0.18 ± 0.005 μm min^{-1}. During this phase, the average volume of the

mcMTOCs increased, in some cases due to mcMTOCs merging with each other (Fig. 2A;

Supplementary Movie 4 and 5). The second was marked by the slowing of mcMTOC movement

to an average speed of 0.06 ± 0.009 μm min^{-1} allowing them to remain in confined areas of the

cytoplasm (Fig. 2B; Supplementary Movie 4). During this phase, the pMTOCs underwent active

clustering whereas the mcMTOCs remained apart. The third phase occurred during Ana I and

Telo I when the mcMTOCs showed a reversal of their behavior in phase I; they displayed a

drastic reduction in volume and migrated towards the cortex with an average speed of $0.12 \pm$

0.01 μm min^{-1} and a maximum speed of 0.22 μm min^{-1} (Fig. 2C; Supplementary Movies 4 and

6). In as many as 50% of oocytes (14/28), we were not able to observe mcMTOCs during Ana

I/Telo I but in all cases when they could be observed, the mcMTOCs migrated towards the

region of cortex opposite direction the site of extrusion of the first PB. The mcMTOCs showed

independent directional movement to cytoplasmic droplets and so do not reflect overall

cytoplasmic movements (Supplementary Fig. 3). Taken together, our observations confirm that

meiotic oocytes have two different pools of MTOCs and suggest that mcMTOCs differ from

pMTOCs in their function.

mcMTOCs localize asymmetrically to anchor the spindle to the cortex

To determine whether the mcMTOCs were physically connected to pMTOCs, we employed

immunocytochemistry and STED super-resolution microscopy to visualize the MTOCs in

relation to MTs and F-actin. We confirmed that F-actin formed a cage around the spindle as

previously reported [10,32] but could not detect any direct connection of F-actin between the

pMTOCs and mcMTOCs (Supplementary Fig. 4). In contrast, we detected MTs originating from

the mcMTOCs and linking them to both the oocyte cortex and the pMTOCs and spindle (Fig.

3A,B). In addition, we also observed MTs connecting mcMTOCs with each other. Relatively

short astral-like MTs could not reach the oocyte cortex unless they bind mcyMTOCs

(Fig. 3A,B). Thus, mcMTOCs enable MTs to bridge the gap between the spindle and the

cortex. It was also evident from our observations that the mcMTOCs were asymmetrically

distributed in the oocyte cytoplasm leading us to consider their relationship in time and space to

the positioning of the spindle itself. In prophase arrest oocytes, the GV is usually found in a

centralized location [33-36]. Consequently, the spindle also forms around the chromatin at or near

the center of the oocyte before it migrates towards the cortex in late pro-Met to allow

asymmetrical cell division. In all the oocytes examined, we found that the mcMTOCs were all

asymmetrically positioned from the GV stage and throughout NEBD and early pro-Met I when

the spindle is still localized centrally (Fig. 3C; Supplementary Movie 7). Strikingly, when the

spindle began its actin-mediated migration, this took place towards the opposite side of the

oocyte to that occupied by mcMTOCs in the majority of the oocytes (38 out of 40 examined, Fig.

3 C-E). These findings suggest a model whereby mcMTOCs localize asymmetrically to anchor

the spindle to the cortex in such a way as to oppose the F-actin mediated force that builds to

direct the spindle to the cortex on the opposite face of the oocyte for polar body extrusion. This

would account for the unexplained finding that nocodazole-induced MT depolymerization during

Met I results in the earlier migration of chromosomes towards the cortex at a relatively higher

speed than in control oocytes (Supplementary Fig. 5) and others [11]. Thus, the mcMTOCs appear

to enable opposing MT forces that counter spindle/chromosome migration that are necessary to

regulate its timing and the final position of the spindle.

mcMTOCs regulate spindle positioning in acentriolar oocytes

To determine the function(s) of mcMTOCs during MI and to test the above hypothesis, we

selectively depleted mcMTOCs by two-photon laser ablation (Fig. 4A). The two-photon laser

microscope has the advantage of offering deeper tissue penetration enabling efficient ablation

and minimizing off-target effects [37]. We first microinjected prophase I-arrested oocytes with

cRNAs encoding *Aurora A-GFP* and *eGFP-EB3* to label MTOCs and MTs, respectively. We

then marked small cuboidal regions surrounding each mcMTOC, which we then exposed to a

927 nm wavelength laser to ablate the mcMTOCs, (Fig. 4B; Supplementary Movie 8). We

ensure reduction of fluorescence of each mcMTOC to background levels (compare images

before ablation, Fig. 4B, upper panels, to after ablation, Fig. 4B, lower panels) before ablating

the next. Importantly, laser ablation not only depleted the mcMTOCs but also disrupted their

associated nucleation of MTs (Fig. 4C). We also exposed control oocytes to the same protocol by

ablating random areas of the cytoplasm adjacent to but not overlapping with the mcMTOCs.

We confirmed the efficiency of mcMTOC depletion by immunostaining a subset of oocytes to

reveal γ-tubulin and were only able to detect γ-tubulin foci in the cytoplasm but not at spindle

poles (Supplementary Fig. 6). Control and mcMTOC-depleted oocytes were *in vitro* matured for

16 h allowing us to assess the proportion of Met II eggs and determine their karyotype using an

in situ chromosome counting technique [38,39]. We first noted that the depletion of mcMTOCs

resulted in a significant increase in oocytes arrested at Met I compared to control oocytes (Fig.

4D). Importantly, a relatively higher proportion of mcMTOC-depleted eggs were aneuploid (7

out of 13 examined eggs) compared to controls (6 out of 24 examined eggs). Because depletion

of mcMTOCs increased the percentage of oocytes arrested at Met I stage (Fig. 4D), we were not

able to assess spindle positioning due to the high variability related to the meiotic stage and so

we chose to arrest meiotic progression in Met I by incubating oocytes in meiotic maturation

medium containing a proteasome inhibitor (MG-132). In this way, we could compare spindle

positioning in such arrested oocytes (Fig. 4A). This revealed that whereas in control MI arrested

oocytes, the spindle maintained its position over a period of 8h, the position of the spindle in

mcMTOC-depleted oocytes was not stable (Fig. 4e; Supplementary Movie 9 and 10) and

displayed considerable movement (Fig. 4F,G). Following the onset of spindle movement in

mcMTOC-depleted oocytes, the spindle poles lost their integrity in contrast to control oocytes,

likely due to the imbalance of forces on spindle poles (Supplementary Movie 9 and 10). Together

this suggests that the mcMTOCs are required to position the MI spindle and maintain the

integrity of the spindle poles.

Autophagy regulates mcMTOC numbers and spindle positioning in meiotic oocytes

In mitotic cells, autophagy plays an important role in regulating and maintaining the proper

number of centrosomes where autophagy-deficient cells contained multiple centrosomes [40,41].

This led us to investigate the effects of inhibiting or inducing autophagy upon mcMTOC

numbers and the consequences for meiosis. To this end, we chose to treat oocytes with 3-

Methyladenine (3-MA), which inhibits autophagy by blocking autophagosome formation via the

inhibition of type III Phosphatidylinositol 3-kinases (PI-3K). However, because 3-MA

(autophagy inhibitor) blocks NEBD (data not shown), we treated oocytes with 3-MA

immediately after NEBD. We also treated oocytes with rapamycin as an inducer of autophagy

by adding the compound to the *in vitro* maturation medium during prophase I. In both cases, we

allowed the treated oocytes (3-MA or rapamycin) together with controls to mature for 5 h post-

NEBD prior to fixation and immunostaining using anti-Cep192 and anti-α-tubulin antibodies to

label MTOCs and the spindle, respectively. We found that treatment with rapamycin resulted in a

decrease in the number of mcMTOCs, compared to control oocytes (Fig. 5A-C). In contrast,

treatment with 3-MA significantly increased the number of mcMTOCs, but not pMTOCs,

compared to control oocytes (Fig. 5d-f). To determine the effect of such drug treatments upon

spindle positioning, we used DIC imaging to track the position of chromosomes over time.

Rapamycin-treated oocytes behaved in a similar way to controls; we could see no significant

differences in the proportion of oocytes completing MI and extruding a polar body (Fig. 6A,B).

Moreover, rapamycin-treated oocytes showed no differences to controls in chromosome

positioning (Fig. 6A,F; Supplementary Movie 11 and 12), in the average time spent by

chromosomes during migration to reach the cortex (Fig. 6C), in the total distance traveled by

chromosomes until reaching the cortex; Fig. 6D), or in the average speed of migrating

chromosomes (Fig, 6E). By contrast, the increase in MTOC numbers following 3-MA treatment

was associated with abnormal chromosome (spindle) positioning and orientation (Fig. 6A,F;

Supplementary Movie 13 and14) with chromosomes moving in circles in around 40% of oocytes

treated with 3-MA. Accordingly, we found a significant increase in the distance traveled by

chromosomes during migration until reaching the oocyte cortex (Fig. 6D). In line with our model

that mcMTOC-mediated MTs anchor the spindle to the cortex opposite the PBE side to position

the spindle centrally, we found that increasing mcMTOC numbers by 3-MA treatment resulted in

a significant delay in chromosome migration towards the cortex (Fig. 6C), resulting from their

significantly ($p < 0.001$) reduced speed (Fig. 6E) in comparison to control oocytes. Indeed, we

observed cases in which the chromosomes underwent segregation before the spindle had reached

the cortex, resulting in enlarge polar bodies in around 21.05% of oocytes (Supplementary Movie

14). The relatively weaker effect of rapamycin than 3-MA on spindle positioning could be

attributed to our observation that average mcMTOC number in rapamycin-treated oocytes (~ 4)

remained within the range of mcMTOC numbers in control oocytes (between 4 and 12).

Together, these data show that mcMTOC numbers must be regulated tightly, and provide further

evidence that mcMTOCs play an important role in regulating the spindle position and timing of

its migration in mouse oocytes.

DISCUSSION

To date, the only known function of acentriolar MTOCs in mouse oocytes is to assemble the

spindle. Using 3D time-lapse confocal microscopy, we identify a subset of MTOCs that remain

free in the cytoplasm during Met I of meiosis and which do not contribute to bipolar spindle

assembly *per se*. In contrast to polar pMTOCs, which originate mainly from the perinuclear

MTOCs in prophase I, the mcMTOCs originate exclusively from MTOCs present in the

cytoplasm in prophase I. The mcMTOCs are first observed near the oocyte cortex at NEBD; they

increase in number and size while moving to a central position during Met I. STED super-

resolution microscopy revealed that microtubules nucleated by the mcMTOCs connect one side

of the spindle to the cortex during Met I. In Ana I/Telo I of MI, the mcMTOCs undergo a

decrease in both number and size while migrating towards the cortex. When mcMTOCs

functions were perturbed, either by laser ablation or treatment with 3-Methyladenine (3-MA) to

inhibit type III Phosphatidylinositol 3-kinases and increase MTOC numbers, we have shown that

the mcMTOCs play a role in regulating spindle positioning and the timing of its migration to the

cortex.

To our knowledge, this is the first study of the function of mcMTOCs in living mammalian

oocytes, which differ in several ways from the pMTOCs. The majority of pMTOCs, for

example, originate from the perinuclear MTOCs, which never contribute to the mcMTOCs.

Whereas the pMTOCs undergo a clustering-associated decrease in number and increase volume

During pro-Met I/Met I, the mcMTOCs undergo a steady increase in both number and volume

and rarely self-aggregate (~1.5% of all examined mcMTOCs). Interestingly, inhibition of

autophagy with 3-MA increased the number of mcMTOCs, but not pMTOCs. Finally, in contrast

to pMTOCs, mcMTOCs participated in spindle positioning but never contributed to bipolar

spindle assembly. Together, these observations suggest that mammalian oocytes have two

different functional sets of MTOCs and raise the future important challenge to determine

whether differences in their biochemical compositions underlie their differences in function.

The primary function of the spindle is to provide the machinery for faithful chromosome

segregation. This is achieved in a series of critical, non-overlapping steps. First, during pro-Met I

and early Met I, the spindle is assembled and positioned at or near the oocyte's center. Second,

during the late Met I, the spindle migrates towards a sub-cortical location to allow asymmetrical

cell division. Third, the spindle rotates from a parallel to a perpendicular position in relation to

the cortex to allow PB extrusion. Many studies have emphasized the roles of F-actin and its

motor proteins in regulating spindle positioning and migration [9-11] and two models have been

proposed to explain how F-actin regulates spindle positioning and migration. In the first, F-actin

enrichment at the cortex provides a spindle pulling force [9]. In the second, a spindle pushing force

is mediated by the cytoplasmic F-actin meshwork [11]. Both models enforce the notion that an F-

actin-mediated force on the spindle, whether pushing or bulling, acts towards the nearest cortical

side through which the PB is extruded. On the other hand, spindle orientation seems to be

dependent on both F-actin and MTs [15]. Astral-like MTs are only able to reach the cortex only

when it is very close to the spindle poles [15]. Because astral-like MTs are relatively short and

cannot easily reach the cortex, they can only establish contacts with MTs nucleated by

mcMTOCs which, in turn, could act as amplifying sites that anchor the spindle to the cortex.

This model, which we here propose, thus depends on the presence of two opposing forces:

cyMTOC-mediated MTs at one side and F-actin at the other side of the spindle (Fig. 6). These

opposing forces would be essential to position the spindle centrally during early Met I and to

prevent premature spindle migration. Our model is consistent with three sets of observations: 1)

mcMTOCs are exclusively localized asymmetrically, opposite the site of PB extrusion (the side

of F-actin enrichment); 2) mcMTOCs undergo a significant decrease in number and volume

during late Met I and Ana I/Telo I, allowing the F-actin mediated force to extrude the PB; and 3)

nocodazole-mediated MT depolymerization advances the timing of chromosome migration to the

cortex, which takes place at a relatively higher speed [11,17] whereas increasing mcMTOC numbers

delays chromosome migration to the cortex, which occurs at a relatively reduced speed compared

to controls.

Depletion of mcMTOCs, disruption of mcMTOC numbers and MT depolymerization were each

associated with abnormal spindle positioning and/or perturbed chromosome/spindle migration.

For example, increasing mcMTOC numbers by 3-MA treatment significantly decreased

chromosome speed and delayed chromosome migration towards the cortex. This phenotype

accords with increased mcMTOC-mediated MT forces that oppose F-actin; thereby preventing

proper spindle migration. Conversely, depleting mcMTOCs using laser ablation or MT

depolymerization has the reciprocal effect [11,17]. These findings indicate that the numbers of

mcMTOCs must be regulated tightly to regulate spindle positioning and timely spindle

migration.

In almost all mammals, including humans [42,43], meiotic oocytes contain numerous acentriolar

MTOCs. This is in contrast to somatic mitotic cells, which contain only a pair of centrosomes

that are sufficient to assemble and position the spindle centrally. Positioning the spindle at the

center of mitotic cells depends on nucleating symmetrical astral MTs that anchor the spindle to

the cell cortex. However, the mechanism appears different during MI. Mammalian eggs are large

and the astral MTs from acentriolar MTOCs are relatively short. Yet, the cell must divide

asymmetrically, something that would likely be difficult for a pair of symmetrical centrosomes to

achieve. Our proposed model may, therefore, account for why meiotic oocytes rely upon two

different functional sets of numerous MTOCs rather than a pair of typical centrosomes.

MATERIAL AND METHODS

Ethics

All animals were kept and experiments were conducted in accordance with UK Home Office

regulations and the University of Missouri (Animal Care Quality Assurance Ref. Number, 9695).

Oocyte collection, microinjection and culture

Full-grown GV-arrested oocytes were isolated from CF-1 or C57BL/6 female mice (6-8-week-

old) previously primed (~44 h before collection), with pregnant mare serum gonadotropin (Lee

BioSolutions #493-10-10) according to [44,45]. Unless otherwise specified, CF-1 mice were used to

conduct the experiments. Cumulus oocyte complexes (COCs) were collected and denuded using

mechanical pipetting in bicarbonate-free minimal essential medium (MEM) containing 3 mg/ml

polyvinylpyrolidone (PVP) and 25 mM Hepes (pH 7.3) supplemented with 2.5 μM milrinone

(MilliporeSigma, St. Louis, MO, USA # M4659), a phospho diesterase inhibitor to arrest the

oocytes at prophase I [46]. Prophase I-arrested oocytes were microinjected with 10-15 pl of cRNAs

encoding fluorescently labeled proteins while cultured in milrinone-containing MEM medium.

Microinjected oocytes were then cultured in Chatot, Ziomek, and Bavister (CZB) medium [47]

supplemented with milrinone in a humidified incubator with 5% CO_2 in air at 37°C for ~3 h to

allow protein expression before releasing into milrinone-free CZB medium and initiating *in vitro*

maturation. Met I, Ana I/Telo I or Met II oocytes were collected at 4, 7 or 14 h after NEBD.

Nocodazole (MilliporeSigma #M1404), MG-132 (MilliporeSigma #474790), Rapamycin (Enzo

Life Sciences, Farmingdale, NY, USA #BML-A275), 3-Methyladenine (3-MA, Cayman

Chemical, Ann Arbor, MI, USA #13242) were dissolved in dimethyl sulfoxide (DMSO) and

used at a final concentration of 7.5 µM, 20 µM and 10 mM, respectively. *In vitro* maturation was

carried out in organ culture dishes under humidified conditions (Becton Dickinson #353037).

Cloning and *in vitro* cRNA synthesis

Generation of *Aurka-Gfp*, *H2b-mCherry* and *eGfp-Eb3* were described previously [28,48]. DNA

linearization of *Aurka-Gfp* and *H2b-mCherry* constructs was carried out using Nde I (New

England BioLabs), whereas DNA linearization of *eGfp-Eb3* construct was carried out using SfiI

(New England BioLabs). Purification of linearized DNA was carried out according to the

manufacturer's protocol (Qiagen, QIAquick PCR Purification). Purified DNA was *in vitro*

transcribed using an mMessage mMachine T7 kit (Ambion) to generate *Aurka-Gfp* and *H2b-*

mCherry cRNAs or mMessage mMachine T3 kit (Ambion) to generate eGfp-Eb3 cRNA

according to the manufacturer's instructions. cRNA purification was performed using an

RNAEasy kit (Qiagen) and stored at −80°C.

Immunocytochemistry and fluorescence microscopy

Meiotic oocytes were fixed for 20 min at room temperature in freshly prepared 2 %

paraformaldehyde solution (MilliporeSigma #P6148) dissolved in phosphate buffer saline (PBS).

Fixed oocytes were permeabilized in 0.1% Triton X-100 in PBS for 20 min prior to incubation

for an additional 20 min in PBS containing 0.3% BSA and 0.01% Tween-20 (blocking solution).

Primary antibody incubation was performed at room temperature for 1 h. Oocytes were then

washed three times (8-9 min each) prior to incubation with secondary antibodies for 1 h. Oocytes

were washed again three times in blocking solutions for 8-9 min. To detect F-actin, phalloidin

(Texas Red X Phalloidin, ThermoFisher Scientific #T7471; 1:50) was added to secondary

antibody solutions. Oocytes were mounted on slides using Vectashieled with 4',6-Diamidino-2-

Phenylindole, Dihydrochloride (DAPI; Vector Laboratories, Burlingame, CA, USA) to stain

DNA. To label DNA for STED super-resolution imaging, 5 mg/m Hoechst 33342 was used

(Molecular Probes H3570). The following primary antibodies were used in immunofluorescence:

α-tubulin-Alexa Fluor 488 conjugate (Life Technologies #322 588; 1:100), Cep192 (Young In

Frontier #AR07-PA0001; 1:100), γ-tubulin (Millipore-Sigma #T6557; 1:75), Pericentrin (BD

Biosciences #611814; 1:100), CREST autoimmune serum (Antibodies Incorporated #15-234;

1:25). Omitting the primary antibody served as a negative control. Fluorescence signals were

detected under a 63X objective using Leica TCS SP8 confocal microscope equipped with 3-

color, 3-D STED super-resolution 3X system. Images were captured to span the entire oocyte at

3 μm Z-intervals (confocal microscopy) or 0.5 μm Z-intervals (STED super-resolution

microscopy). All images were acquired using the same laser power when the intensity of

fluorescence is quantified.

Time-lapse confocal microscopy

Oocytes expressing fluorescently labeled proteins were transferred to milrinone-free CZB

medium and imaged over time under a 63X objective using Leica TCS SP8 confocal microscope

equipped with microenvironmental chamber to maintain the oocytes at controlled CO_2 (5%) and

temperature (37 °C) in a humidified air. DIC, GFP and mCherry image acquisitions were started

at prophase I stage and images were captured every certain time according to each experimental

design (as indicated in corresponding figure legends). Images were captured to span the entire

region including all MTOCs at 3 μm Z-intervals.

Depletion of mcMTOCs using laser ablation

Depletion of mcMTOCs was carried out using two-photon laser ablation which has the

advantage of offering deeper tissue penetration, efficient ablation and minimizing off-target

effects [37]. Two different microscopes were used. Oocytes expressing fluorescently labeled

proteins were transferred to milrinone-free MEM medium and mcMTOCs were ablated using

upright LaVision BioTec TriM Scope II (with controlled temperature at 37 °C) or to milrinone-

free CZB medium if Leica TCP SP8 two-photon inverted microscope (equipped with

microenvironmantal chamber to control CO_2 and temperature) was used. In both cases, a small

square area(s) surrounding mcMTOCs were marked and then exposed to a laser with 927 nm

wavelength. We compared the first image (before ablation) and the second image (after ablation)

in the time series cycle to ensure that after ablation, the fluorescence in the targeted mcMTOCs

decreased to that observed at the background levels. Next, we moved the focal plane and ablated

the remaining mcMTOCs. McMTOC-depleted oocytes underwent live imaging using the same

parameters. Control oocytes were exposed to the same protocol except ablating random areas of

the cytoplasm, just adjacent and equal to the same size and number of mcMTOCs.

Image processing and analysis

Images acquired using 3-D STED super-resolution microscopy were deconvolved using Huygens

Professional software before image analysis. NIH image J software (National Institute of Health,

Bethesda, MD, USA) was used to process and analyze the images of fixed oocytes. The speed

and average distance of chromosome/spindle/MTOCs at their final position over time were

analyzed using the manual tracking function of NIH image J software. The point of intersection

between the line connecting the two dominant spindle poles and spindle midzone was used to

determine the position of the spindle. The point of intersection between the two lines

representing the minor axis length and the major axis length of chromosomes was used to

determine the position of all chromosomes [49]. The speed and distance for each MTOC were

analyzed separately before calculating the average for all MTOCs within each oocyte. 3D

reconstruction of MTOCs, MTOC number and volume were processed and analyzed using

isosurface spot analysis feature of Imaris software (Bitplane, Zürich, Switzerland) according to

[18]. Briefly, based on MTOC signal to noise, the threshold value was adjusted on an oocyte-to-

oocyte basis followed by MTOC surface segmentation. MTOC number was calculated using the

spot analysis feature, whereas MTOC volume was analyzed using surface analysis feature.

mcMTOCs were quantified after excluding the pMTOCs manually, and *vice versa*. Same

processing parameters were applied for each experimental analysis

***In situ* chromosome counting**

Oocytes at Met II stage (12 h post-NEBD) were treated with 100 µM monastrol (MilliporeSigma

#M8515), an Eg5-kinesin inhibitor to induce monopolar spindle formation with subsequent

chromosome dispersion [38,39]. Oocytes were fixed and immunostained by Cep192, pericentrin, as

previously mentioned with CREST autoimmune serum to detect kinetochores. Oocytes were then

mounted onto a glass slide using Vectashield with DAPI (Vector Laboratories) to label DNA.

Confocal microscopy was used to image the entire region of the chromosomes at 0.7-µm Z-

intervals to capture all kinetochores. Serial confocal sections were analyzed and the total number

of kinetochores were counted using NIH image J software.

Statistical analysis

One-way ANOVA, Student t-test and chi-square contingency test were used to evaluate the

differences between groups using GraphPad Prism. ANOVA test was followed by the Tukey

post hoc test to allow the comparison among groups. The differences of $P < 0.05$ were

considered significant. The data were expressed as means ± SEM.

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DECLARATION OF INTEREST

The authors declare that there is no conflict of interest that could be perceived as prejudicing the

impartiality of the research reported.

 FIGURE LEGENDS

Figure 1: Two different sets of MTOCs are present in acentriolar oocytes. (A) Time-lapse

confocal microscopy of MTOCs in live oocytes. Full-grown prophase-I oocytes were injected

with cRNAs encoding *H2b-mCherry* (red) and *Aurka-Gfp* (pseudo white), incubated in

milrinone-containing CZB medium for 3 h, followed by *in vitro* maturation. Shown are

representative images (Z-projection of 16 sections every 3 μm) from a time course (see

Supplemental Movie 1). Lower panels represent a 3D reconstruction of MTOCs from oocyte

shown in upper panels (see Supplemental Movie 2). Fluorescence images were captured every

20 min (time, h:min). The scale bar represents 10 μm. The white arrow represents cytoplasmic

MTOC that participate in spindle pole formation as a pMTOC. White arrowhead represents

cytoplasmic MTOC that remains in the cytoplasm during Met I (mcMTOC). (B,D)

Quantification of average MTOC number and MTOC volume over time during meiosis I,

respectively. Error bars show S.D. Dashed blue lines represent the time of Ana I onset. (C,E).

Quantification of average MTOC number and MTOC volume, respectively, during metaphase I

(Met I) and anaphase I/telophase I (Ana I/Telo I) stages. The data are expressed as mean ± SEM.

Student t-test was used to analyze the data. Values with asterisks vary significantly, ****P <

0.0001. The total number of analyzed oocytes (from three independent replicates) is specified

above each graph. (F) Fully grown prophase-I-arrested oocytes were *in vitro* matured for 0 (Pro

I, prophase I), 8 h (Met I), 9 h (Ana I/Telo I) or 16 h (Met II) prior to fixation and

immunocytochemistry using γ-tubulin and α-tubulin antibodies to label MTOCs (red) and

microtubules (grey). DAPI was used to detect DNA (blue). (G) Fully grown prophase-I-arrested

oocytes were *in vitro* matured for 8 h (Met I) followed by fixation and immunostaining using

Cep192 (red) and pericentrin (grey) antibodies to label MTOCs. DAPI was used to detect DNA

(blue). Shown are representative confocal z-projections. Arrowheads represent mcMTOCs. A

total of 184 oocytes were examined. Scale bars represent 10 μm.

Figure 2: mcMTOCs exhibit three different directional behaviors during meiosis I.

Tracking of 3D reconstructed mcMTOCs from time-lapse confocal microscopy in live oocytes

during three different phases: (A) nuclear envelope breakdown (NEBD)- early metaphase I (Met

I, see Supplemental Movie 4 and 5), (B) Met I (see Supplemental Movie 4) and (C) late Met I-

telophase I (Telo I), see Supplemental Movie 5 and 6. Full-grown prophase-I oocytes were

injected with cRNAs encoding *H2b-mCherry* (red) and *Aurka-Gfp* (pseudo white), incubated in

milrinone-containing CZB medium for 3 h prior to *in vitro* maturation. Shown are representative

images of 3D reconstructed Z-projection of 16 sections every 3 μm from a time course.

Fluorescence images were captured every 15 min (time, h:min). The scale bar represents 20 μm.

Right panels show a zoomed area of mcMTOC tracking over time. White arrows represent the

overall direction of displacement calculated automatically by Bitplane Imaris software.

Arrowheads represent mcMTOCs. The total number of analyzed oocytes is 34.

Figure 3: mcMTOCs anchor the spindle to the cortex. (A) Fully grown prophase-I-

arrested oocytes were *in vitro* matured for 6 h (metaphase I) prior to fixation and

immunocytochemistry using γ-tubulin and α-tubulin antibodies to label MTOCs (red) and

microtubules (grey). Hoechst was used to detect DNA (blue). Fluorescence signals were detected

under a 63X objective using STED super-resolution system. Shown is a representative image (Z-

projection of 65 sections every 0.5 μm). (B) Example of fluorescence intensity of microtubules in

"B", connecting pMTOCs, mcMTOCs and the cortex, using the 'plot profiles' function in

ImageJ. The scale bar represents 10 μm. (C) Representative images (Z-projection of 16 sections

every 3 μm) of time-lapse confocal microscopy of a live oocyte expressing AURKA-GFP

(MTOCs) and H2B-mCherry (chromosomes) from a time course (see Supplemental Movie 7).

Fluorescence and bright-field images (lower panels) were captured every 20 min (time, h:min).

Arrowheads represent mcMTOCs. Scale bars represent 10 μm. (D) Schematic diagram shows

how the proportion of polar body extrusion side in relation to mcMTOC position was assessed.

(E) Quantification of the proportion of polar body extrusion side from "C" according to "D". The

data are expressed as mean ± SEM. Student t-test was used to analyze the data. Values with

asterisks vary significantly, ****$P < 0.0001$. The total number of analyzed oocytes (from three

independent replicates) is specified above the graph.

Figure 4: mcMTOCs are required to regulate spindle positioning in meiotic

oocytes. (A) Schematic diagram shows the experimental design following mcMTOC depletion.

(B-G) Oocytes expressing AURKA-GFP and eGFP-EB3 were *in vitro* matured for 6 h

(metaphase I, Met I), transferred to CZB medium with or without MG-132, followed by

mcMTOC depletion using two-photon laser ablation. Small square area(s) surrounding

mcMTOCs were marked and then exposed to a laser with 927 nm wavelength. Control oocytes

were exposed to the same parameters except ablating random areas of the cytoplasm, just

adjacent and equal to the same size and number of mcMTOCs. (B) Z-sections of 3D time-lapse

imaging of a live oocyte during mcMTOC ablation (see Supplemental Movie 8). Black

arrowheads represent mcMTOCs before ablation (upper panels). White arrowheads represent

laser beam targets (middle panels). (C) Z-sections of 3D time-lapse imaging of live oocyte to

track microtubules (eGFP-EB3) following mcMTOC ablation. Black arrow represents mcMTOC

541 before ablation (-3 S). Black arrowheads track microtubules over time. The scale bar represents

542 20 μm. (D) control and mcMTOC-depleted oocytes were *in vitro* matured in MG-132-free

543 medium until Met II (16 h) and assessed for extrusion of the first polar body (PBE). The data are

544 expressed as mean ± SEM. chi-square contingency test was used to analyze the data. Values with

545 asterisks vary significantly, **P < 0.01. The total number of analyzed oocytes in each group

546 (from two independent replicates) is specified above each condition within each graph. (E) Z-

547 projection (16 sections every 3 μm) of 3D time-lapse microscopy of control (see Supplemental

548 Movie 9) and mcMTOC-depleted (see Supplemental Movie 10) Met I oocytes while cultured in

549 MG-132-containing medium for additional 9 h to track the spindle. Fluorescence images were

550 captured every 3 min (time, h:min). White arrowheads represent the tracking path of all time

551 periods. The scale bar represents 10 μm. (F) Quantification of total distance traveled by the

552 spindle. (G) Quantification of average spindle speed. The data are expressed as mean ± SEM.

553 Student t-test was used to analyze the data. Values with asterisks vary significantly, ****P <

554 0.0001. The total number of analyzed oocytes (from two independent replicates) is specified

555 above each graph.

557 **Figure 5: Autophagy regulates mcMTOC numbers in meiotic oocytes.** (A) Full-grown

558 prophase-I oocytes were divided into two groups and treated with DMSO or Rapamycin (added

559 at 0 h after collection) followed by *in vitro* maturation until metaphase I (Met I, 7h). Met I

560 oocytes were fixed and immunostained using Cep192 and α-tubulin antibodies to label MTOCs

561 (red) and microtubules (grey). DAPI was used to detect DNA (blue). (B) Quantification of

562 average mcMTOC number in "A". (C) Quantification of average pMTOC number in "A". (D)

563 Full-grown prophase-I oocytes were divided into two groups and treated with DMSO or 3-MA

(added at NEBD) followed by *in vitro* maturation until metaphase I (Met I, 7h). Met I oocytes

were fixed and immunostained using Cep192 and α-tubulin antibodies to label MTOCs (red) and

microtubules (grey). DAPI was used to detect DNA (blue). (E) Quantification of average

mcMTOC number in "D". (F) Quantification of average pMTOC number in "D". Arrowheads

represent mcMTOCs. The data are expressed as mean ± SEM. Student t-test was used to analyze

the data. Values with asterisks vary significantly, *P < 0.05, ****P < 0.0001. The total number

of analyzed oocytes (from two independent replicates) is specified above each graph.

Figure 6: Autophagy regulates spindle positioning in meiotic oocytes.

(A) Z-projection (16 sections every 3 μm) of time-lapse imaging of DMSO, Rapamycin (Rap)

and 3-MA-treated oocytes (see Supplemental Movie 11, 12, 13 and 14, respectively). Images

were captured every 30 min. White arrows represent the direction of chromosome displacement.

Scale bars represent 10 μm. Lower panels of each group show the tracking path (blue) over time.

(B) Quantification of the percentage of first polar body extrusion (PBE). (C) Quantification of

the average time spent by chromosomes from the start of migration till reaching the cortex. (D)

Quantification of the total distance traveled by chromosomes from the start of migration until

reaching the cortex. (E) Quantification of average chromosome speed during migration. (F)

Quantification of the percentage of oocytes exhibiting abnormal spindle positioning and

orientation prior to reaching the oocyte cortex. Arrows represent the direction of chromosome

displacement. The data are expressed as mean ± SEM. One-way ANOVA was used to analyze

the data. Values with asterisks vary significantly, *P < 0.05, ***P < 0.001, ****P < 0.0001. The

total number of analyzed oocytes (from three independent replicates) is specified above each

graph.

Figure 7: Schematic model for spindle positioning in the meiotic oocyte.

Supplementary Figure 1: AURKA-GFP foci colocalize with pericentriolar material protein

(γ-tubulin) at mcMTOCs. Full-grown prophase-I oocytes were injected with *Aurka-*

Gfp (green), incubated in milrinone-containing CZB medium for 3 h, followed by *in vitro*

maturation. Metaphase I oocytes were fixed and immunostained using γ-tubulin antibody to label

MTOCs (red). DAPI was used to detect DNA (blue). Shown are representative Z-projection of

confocal images. The scale bar represents 10 μm.

Supplementary Figure 2: MTOCs in the cytoplasm and at the spindle poles of meiotic

oocytes collected from C57BL/6 mice. Full-grown prophase-I oocytes collected from C57BL/6

mice were *in vitro* matured for 7 h. Metaphase I oocytes were fixed and immunostained using γ-

tubulin and α-tubulin antibodies to label MTOCs (red) and microtubules (grey). DAPI was used

to detect DNA (blue). Arrowheads represent mcMTOCs. Shown are representative Z-projection

of confocal images. The scale bar represents 10 μm.

Supplementary Figure 3: mcMTOC movement does not follow the movement of the

cytoplasm. Representative images (Z-projection of 16 sections every 3 μm) of time-lapse

confocal microscopy of live oocytes expressing AURKA-GFP (MTOCs) and H2B-mCherry

(chromosomes) from a time course. Fluorescence and bright-field images (lower panels) were

captured every 15 min (time, h:min). The white arrow represents cytoplasmic droplet. Lower

panels show the tracking of both cytoplasmic droplet (green) and mcMTOC (blue). The scale bar

represents 10 μm.

Supplementary Figure 4: F-actin localization in mouse oocytes. Full-grown prophase-I

oocytes collected from C57BL/6 mice were *in vitro* matured for 7 h. Metaphase I oocytes were

fixed and immunostained using γ-tubulin to label MTOCs (red). Hoechst stain was used to detect

DNA (blue) and phalloidin stain was used to detect F-actin (pseudo green). Shown are

representative Z-projection. The scale bar represents 10 μm.

Supplementary Figure 5: Inhibition of MTs accelerates chromosome migration towards the

cortex in meiotic oocytes. Full-grown prophase-I oocytes were divided into two groups and

treated with DMSO or nocodazole (added at 0 h after collection) followed by *in vitro* maturation

and time-lapse imaging. Images were captured every 15 min. (A) Quantification of the average

time spent by chromosomes until reaching the cortex. (B) Quantification of average chromosome

speed during migration. The data are expressed as mean ± SEM. Student-t test was used to

analyze the data. Values with asterisks vary significantly, ***$P < 0.001$, ****$P < 0.0001$. The

total number of analyzed oocytes (from two independent replicates) is specified above each

graph.

Supplementary Figure 6: Two-photon laser ablation efficiently depletes mcMTOCs.

Oocytes expressing AURKA-GFP and eGFP-EB3 were *in vitro* matured for 6 h (metaphase I,

Met I), transferred to CZB medium with MG-132, followed by mcMTOC depletion using two-

photon laser ablation. Small square area(s) surrounding mcMTOCs were marked and then

exposed to a laser with 927 nm wavelength. Control oocytes were exposed to the same

parameters except ablating random areas of the cytoplasm, just adjacent and equal to the same

size and number of mcMTOCs. Control and mcMTOC-ablated oocytes were fixed and

immunostained using γ-tubulin antibody to label MTOCs. DAPI was used to detect DNA (blue).

Arrowheads represent mcMTOCs. Shown are representative Z-projection of confocal images.

The scale bar represents 10 μm.

Supplementary Movie 1: Time-lapse confocal microscopy of MTOCs in live oocyte. The

full-grown prophase-I oocyte was injected with cRNAs encoding *H2b-mCherry* (red) and *Aurka-*

Gfp (pseudo grey), followed by *in vitro* maturation. Fluorescence images (Z-projection of 16

sections every 3 μm) were captured every 20 min (time, h:min). Same oocyte as shown in Fig.

1A (upper panels). The scale bar represents 10 μm.

Supplementary Movie 2: 3D reconstruction of MTOCs from the oocyte in Supplementary

Movie 1. Same oocyte as shown in Fig. 1B (lower panels).

Supplementary Movie 3: 3D reconstruction of MTOCs from the oocyte in Supplementary

Movie 1 during metaphase I.

Supplementary Movie 4: Time-lapse confocal microscopy of MTOCs in live oocyte. The

full-grown prophase-I oocyte was injected with cRNAs encoding *H2b-mCherry* (red) and *Aurka-*

Gfp (pseudo grey), followed by *in vitro* maturation. Fluorescence images (Z-projection of 16

sections every 3 μm) were captured every 15 min (time, h:min). The scale bar represents 20 μm.

Supplementary Movie 5: Tracking of 3D reconstructed mcMTOCs from the oocyte in

Supplementary Movie 4 during nuclear envelope breakdown (NEBD) to early metaphase I (Met

I). Same oocyte as shown in Fig. 2A.

Supplementary Movie 6: Tracking of 3D reconstructed mcMTOCs from the oocyte in

Supplementary Movie 4 during late metaphase I to telophase I. Same oocyte as shown in Fig.

2C.

Supplementary Movie 7: Time-lapse confocal microscopy of MTOCs in live oocyte. The

full-grown prophase-I oocyte was injected with cRNAs encoding *H2b-mCherry* (red) and *Aurka-*

Gfp (pseudo grey), followed by *in vitro* maturation. Fluorescence and bright-field images (Z-

projection of 16 sections every 3 μm) were captured every 20 min (time, h:min). Same oocyte as

shown in Fig. 3C (lower panels). The scale bar represents 10 μm.

Supplementary Movie 8: 3D time-lapse imaging of live oocyte expressing AURKA-GFP

(pseudo grey) and eGFP-EB3 (pseudo grey) during mcMTOC ablation. The white squares

represent the actual laser beam targets. Same oocyte as shown in Fig. 4B.

Supplementary Movie 9: Tracking the spindle over time in control oocyte (non-mcMTOC-

ablated) expressing AURKA-GFP (pseudo grey) and eGFP-EB3 (pseudo grey), while cultured in

MG-132-containing medium for 9 h, using 3D time-lapse microscopy. Fluorescence images were

captured every 3 min (time, h:min). The scale bar represents 10 μm. Same oocyte as shown in

Fig. 4E.

Supplementary Movie 10: Tracking the spindle over time in mcMTOC-laser-ablated oocyte

expressing AURKA-GFP (pseudo grey) and eGFP-EB3 (pseudo grey), while cultured in MG-

132-containing medium for 9 h, using 3D time-lapse microscopy. Fluorescence images were

captured every 3 min (time, h:min). The scale bar represents 10 μm. Same oocyte as shown in

Fig. 4E.

Supplementary Movie 11: Tracking the chromosomes over time in DMSO-treated oocytes

during meiosis I. Bright-field images (Z-projection of 16 sections every 3 μm) were captured

every 30 min (time, h:min). Prophase -I stage represents 0 h. Same oocyte as shown in Fig. 6A

(Control). The scale bar represents 10 μm.

Supplementary Movie 12: Tracking the chromosomes over time in Rapamycin-treated

oocytes during meiosis I. Bright-field images (Z-projection of 16 sections every 3 μm) were

captured every 30 min (time, h:min). Prophase -I stage represents 0 h. Same oocyte as shown in

Fig. 6A (Rapamycin). The scale bar represents 10 μm.

Supplementary Movie 13: Tracking the chromosomes over time in 3-MA-treated oocytes

during meiosis I. Bright-field images (Z-projection of 16 sections every 3 μm) were captured

every 30 min (time, h:min). Prophase -I stage represents 0 h. Same oocyte as shown in Fig. 6A

(3-MA, upper panels). The scale bar represents 10 μm.

Supplementary Movie 14: Tracking the chromosomes over time in 3-MA-treated oocytes

during meiosis I (another representative showing defective asymmetrical division). Bright-field

images (Z-projection of 16 sections every 3 μm) were captured every 30 min (time, h:min).

701 Prophase -I stage represents 0 h. Same oocyte as shown in Fig. 6A (3-MA, lower panels). The

702 scale bar represents 10 µm.

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Fig. 1

A

NEBD

Early Met I

45min 60min

120min 180min

MTOCs/DNA

Time 45min

Time 180min

B

Met I

MTOCs/DNA

Time 195 min

Time 255 min

Time 330 min

Time 435 min

C

Late Met I

Telo I

-75min 45min

90min 105min

MTOCs/DNA

Time -75min

Time 105min

Fig. 2

Fig. 3

Fig. 4

Fig. 5

Fig. 6