Kinetochore-independent sister chromosome separation is driven by plus-end microtubule dynamics

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ABSTRACT

Although centromeres play a key role in sister chromatid separation and segregation, mitotic transmission of chromosome fragments lacking a centromere (acentrics) can be successful. In *Drosophila* neuroblasts, acentric chromosomes undergo delayed, but successful transmission revealing the existence of kinetochore-independent mechanisms driving transmission. In spite of delayed sister chromatid separation, bulk cohesin removal from the acentric is not delayed, suggesting factors other than cohesin are responsible for the delay. In contrast to intact kinetochore-bearing chromosomes, we discovered that acentrics align parallel as well as perpendicular to the mitotic spindle. In addition, sister acentrics undergo unconventional patterns of separation. For example, rather than the simultaneous separation of sisters, acentrics oriented parallel to the spindle often slide past one another toward opposing poles. To identify the mechanisms driving acentric separation, we screened 117 RNAi gene knockdowns for synthetic lethality with acentric chromosome fragments. In addition to well-established DNA repair and checkpoint mutants, this candidate screen identified synthetic lethality with X-chromosome-derived acentric fragments in knockdowns of Greatwall (cell cycle kinase), EB1 (plus-end tracking protein), and Map205 (microtubule-stabilizing protein). Additional image-based screening revealed that reductions in Topoisomerase II levels disrupted sister acentric separation. Intriguingly, live imaging revealed that knockdowns of EB1, Map205, and Greatwall preferentially disrupted the sliding mode of sister acentric separation. In spite of these failures in acentric separation, acentrics incorporated into daughter nuclei and there was no increase in micronuclei formation. Based on our analysis of EB1 localization and knockdown phenotypes, we propose that in the absence of a kinetochore, microtubule plus-end dynamics provide the force to resolve DNA catenations required for sister separation.

AUTHOR SUMMARY

Centromeres, the site on the chromosomes to which microtubules attach driving the separation and segregation of replicated sister chromosomes, have been viewed as essential for proper cell division and accurate transmission of chromosomes into daughter cells. However previous studies demonstrated that sister chromosomes lacking a centromere (acentrics) often undergo separation, segregation and transmission. Here we demonstrate that sister acentrics are held together through DNA intertwining. During anaphase, acentric sister separation is achieved through Topoisomerase activity, an enzyme that resolves these DNA linkages, as well as forces generated on the acentrics by the growing ends of highly dynamic microtubule polymers. We found acentric sister chromatids display unique patterns of separation using mechanisms independent of the centromere. Additionally, we identified the specific microtubule-associated proteins required for the successful mitotic transmission of acentric chromosomes to daughter cells. These studies reveal unsuspected, distinct forces that likely act on all chromosomes during mitosis independent of centromere-microtubule attachments.

INTRODUCTION

Eukaryotic cells have evolved mechanisms to detect and protect against genomic insults. These mechanisms include checkpoint pathways that delay cell cycle progression allowing time for repair and apoptotic pathways that eliminate the damaged cells from the dividing population [1]. Although a great deal is known regarding the function of these corrective pathways during interphase, much less is known about the mechanisms that protect against genomic instability after exit from metaphase. Studies demonstrate that DNA damage persisting through metaphase delays anaphase onset. This delay is mediated both by the DNA damage and spindle assembly checkpoint pathways [2, 3].

Despite these mechanisms, if the DNA damage remains, the checkpoints are overridden,

and the cell exits metaphase [4]. The persistence of unrepaired double-strand breaks (DSBs) at

metaphase is particularly problematic due to the formation of chromosome fragments, one of

which lacks a telomere and the other lacking a centromere and a telomere. The latter are known

as acentrics and are incapable of forming canonical microtubule-kinetochore attachments that

drive poleward chromosome segregation. Consequently, acentrics would be expected to lag on

the metaphase plate and exhibit severe segregation defects. In accord with this expectation,

acentrics often fail to segregate, are excluded from daughter nuclei, and subsequently form

cytoplasmic micronuclei [5-7]. However, a growing number of reports demonstrate poleward

migration of acentric chromosome fragments [5, 8-13]. Proposed mechanisms of acentric

segregation include neo-centromere formation [14] and direct association of the acentric

chromosome with microtubules [15] or a kinetochore-bearing chromosome [16-18].

Acentrics are efficiently generated in *Drosophila* bearing an I-CreI endonuclease

transgene, which fortuitously recognizes a repetitive sequence within the pericentric rDNA repeats

of the *Drosophila* X chromosome [19-22]. Induction of I-CreI expression results in the formation

of acentrics in over 80% of third instar larval neuroblast cells [12]. Although acentrics lag behind

on the metaphase plate well after the intact chromosomes migrate toward opposite poles, the

acentrics have a remarkable ability to accurately separate, segregate and incorporate into

daughter telophase nuclei. Acentric segregation relies on the chromokinesin Klp3A and interpolar

microtubules [15]. Sister acentrics are held together on the metaphase plate well after the main

chromosome mass has segregated, suggesting the existence of kinetochore-independent

mechanisms for maintaining sister chromosome association on the metaphase plate and delaying

their separation during anaphase. Possible explanations include delayed acentric cohesin

removal, delayed resolution of sister DNA catenations, or opposing plus-end directed microtubule

forces acting on each sister.

Here we employ a combination of synthetic lethal screens and live imaging to identify

factors required for proper separation of sister acentrics. Live analysis reveals three distinct

modes of acentric separation: unzipping, sliding, and dissociation. This candidate screen revealed

that Topoisomerase II, the cell-cycle regulator Greatwall kinase, the microtubule (MT) plus-end

tracking protein EB1, and the MT-associated protein Map205 provide key roles in sister

separation of acentrics. In addition, gene knockdowns of EB1, Map205, and Greatwall

preferentially disrupt the sliding mode of sister separation. As will be discussed, this analysis

demonstrates the existence of kinetochore-independent mechanisms facilitating sister

chromosome separation.

RESULTS
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Acentric sister separation, but not cohesin removal, is delayed during the metaphase-to-

anaphase transition

As described previously, acentric chromosome fragments are efficiently generated

through heat-shock induction of an I-CreI transgene that specifically targets and creates DSBs in

the rDNA repeats at the base of the *Drosophila* X chromosome [19]. In accord with previous

studies [12], live analysis of the resulting X chromosome acentrics in the larval neuroblasts

reveals that sister separation of the acentrics occurs on average 100 seconds (± 48, n=19) after

segregation of the intact chromosomes (**Figure 1, Table 1**). Sister chromatids are held together

at metaphase by cohesin, a tripartite ring-like protein complex comprised of two structural

maintenance of chromosome proteins (SMC1, SMC3) and a kleisin subunit (Rad21/Scc1) [23,

24]. Initially, cohesin removal occurs only along the chromosome arms through proteolytic

cleavage of the kleisin subunit by separase just prior to anaphase onset [25-27]. Due to the

Sgo/PP2A-dependent protection mechanism, cohesin remains at the centromeric regions [28].

Once removed, microtubules drive sister separation [29]. The delay in cohesin removal does not

depend on proximity to the centromere, as it occurs in chromosome rearrangements in which the

centric heterochromatin is no longer associated with the centromere [30].

To investigate if delays in cohesin release are responsible for the delayed separation of

acentric chromosomes, female neuroblast divisions were live imaged with a cohesin component,

Rad21, tagged with EGFP [31]. Time-lapse images of a control neuroblast expressing Rad21-

EGFP are shown in **Figure 2A** (chromosomes in magenta, cohesin in green). No lagging

chromosomes are observed and Rad21 is cleared off of all chromosomes just prior to anaphase

onset and separation of sister chromatids. **Figure 2B and Supplemental Movie 1** show time-

lapse images of an I-CreI-expressing neuroblast division. Separation and segregation of sister

acentrics is delayed relative to the intact chromosomes. However, cohesin removal just prior to

anaphase onset from the acentrics and the intact kinetochore-bearing chromosomes occurs

simultaneously. This is more clearly seen in the single channel black and white cohesin images

of **Figure 2B** (depicting yellow outlined regions of **Figure 2B**). Quantification of the Rad21

fluorescent signal supports the conclusion of a relatively synchronous removal of cohesin on the

acentric and intact chromosomes (**Figure 2C**).

The finding that sister acentrics remain paired despite the absence of cohesin and well

after the intact chromosomes have separated, indicate additional forces hold sister acentrics

together.

Acentric sister separation occurs via three distinct patterns

To examine dynamics of acentric separation, we imaged live neuroblasts expressing I-

CreI, the histone marker H2Av-RFP, and the telomere marker HOAP-GFP [32]. Marked telomeres

enabled us to determine the orientation of acentrics with respect to one another as they aligned

on the metaphase plate, separated, and segregated poleward [15]. We observed three distinct

patterns of sister acentric separation (**Figure 3**). In the most frequent pattern (49%, N=45),

acentric pairs separate by sliding past one another (**Figure 3A**, Top row: histone-labeled

chromosomes in magenta, HOAP-labeled telomeres in green). This is more clearly observed in

the single histone channel movie (**Figure 3A Bottom row and Supplemental Movie 2**). In

contrast to intact kinetochore-bearing chromosomes which always align perpendicular to the

spindle, the paired sister acentrics align either parallel or perpendicular to the spindle and division

axis. Later, the separation and segregation of sisters toward opposite poles always occurs with

the acentrics aligned parallel to the spindle.

The second pattern of acentric separation occurs via an "unzipping" mechanism (**Figure

3B**). This pattern occurs at a frequency of 31% (N=45). During separation, sister acentrics often

first separate at the broken end followed by separation at the telomere. This is illustrated in **Figure

3B**: the telomeres remain associated while the broken ends are well separated. Rarely, the paired

acentrics unzip from the telomere end first. In contrast to the acentrics that separate by sliding,

these paired sister acentrics are usually aligned perpendicular to the spindle and division axis.

In the third pattern of separation, the remaining 20% (N=45), acentric sisters cleanly

separate from one another along their entire length similar to that observed for centric

chromosomes (**Figure 3C**). We termed this centric-like pattern: dissociation. Acentrics that

separate via dissociation are aligned in multiple orientations on the metaphase plate (from parallel

to perpendicular) with respect to the spindle and division axis. At separation, dissociating sister

acentrics simultaneously separate along their entire lengths.

We next analyzed the orientation of sister acentrics with respect to one another at the time

of separation through labeling telomeres with HOAP-GFP. As expected, the vast majority (87%,

39/45) of sister acentrics were oriented with their telomeres paired and aligned (**Figure 3D**).

However, a small but notable fraction (13%, 6/45), aligned with their telomeres opposed (**Figure

3D). Acentric pairs that align with telomeres opposed presumably have already lost catenation

and/or cohesin in order to adopt this geometry. 14% and 33% of acentric sisters that separated

by sliding and dissociating, respectively, aligned with their telomeres opposed. Interestingly, sister

acentrics that separated by unzipping were never observed aligned with their telomeres opposed.

This suggests that there is an absolute requirement for sister pairing in acentrics that separate by

unzipping.

To further characterize these three modes of acentric separation, we measured the time

from anaphase onset (as determined by separation of the intact chromosomes) to sister acentric

separation (**Figure 3E**). Sliding acentrics separated much later than acentrics (202 ± 51 seconds)

that separated either by unzipping (131 ± 54 seconds) or dissociating (106 ± 55 seconds) (N=45,

Figure 3E). These differences were statistically significant as determined by two-sided Mann-

Whitney tests (p=0.0008 and p=0.0008, respectively). We did not detect any difference in the

timing of acentric sister separation by unzipping or dissociating (p=0.25 as determined by a two-

tailed Mann-Whitney test).

Taken together, these results demonstrate three distinct patterns for acentric separation.

We note that based on the movements and orientation of both sliding and dissociating acentrics,

it is possible that catenation must be lost along the entire length of the acentric pair simultaneously

at the moment of separation. In contrast, acentrics that separate by unzipping and appear to have

an absolute requirement for sister pairing may be more tightly associated with one another, and

this tight association may be due to lingering catenations.

Synthetic lethal screen identifies genes required for separation of sister acentrics

To identify the mechanisms required for transmission of acentric sister chromosomes, we

screened candidate RNAi gene knockdowns for those that resulted in synthetic lethality in the

presence of acentrics. The rationale for this screen is based on previous studies demonstrating

that I-CreI induction of acentric chromosomes during third instar larval stage resulted in only slight

reductions in adult survival because the acentrics are efficiently transmitted to daughter nuclei

[12]. However, reducing or partially disrupting the function of genes required for the normal

acentric transmission results in a dramatic reduction in adult survival upon acentric induction [12,

15]. Thus, we expected that a subset of the gene knockdowns that resulted in synthetic lethality

upon I-CreI induction would be required for proper pairing and segregation of sister acentrics.

To perform the screen, adult flies bearing a heat-shock inducible I-CreI endonuclease and

Gal4 under the control of a ubiquitously expressed Actin enhancer element (Act5) were crossed

to adults bearing UAS-gene specific RNAi constructs. Lethality of heat-shocked (I-CreI induced)

and non-heat-shocked (I-CreI not induced) F1 progeny bearing both constructs were assayed.

RNAi constructs that significantly increased lethality upon I-CreI induction were of particular

interest. We screened 117 candidate genes for synthetic lethality upon acentric induction

(**Supplemental Table 1**). These included genes encoding proteins spanning a diversity of mitotic

functions, including microtubule-associated proteins, chromatin remodelers, DNA repair genes,

cell cycle kinases, and cell cycle checkpoints. For each RNAi line, we determined the survival

ratio of the RNAi knockdown with I-CreI induced to the RNAi knockdown alone ([RNAi knockdown

+ I-CreI]/[RNAi knockdown]). A ratio of less than 0.65 was scored as a significant synthetic lethal

interaction (**Table 2**).

The acentrics are generated through I-CreI induced double-strand breaks. As expected,

RNAi knockdowns of DNA repair and cell cycle checkpoints exhibit synthetic lethality upon I-CreI

induction. Genes involved in DNA repair (*spnA/Rad51*, DSB repair [33]; *mus309*, DSB repair [34];

and *Ku80*, NHEJ [35]) all exhibit strong synthetic lethality upon I-CreI induction with survival ratios

of 2%, 11%, and 29%, respectively (**Table 2**). The DNA damage checkpoint gene *tefu* (ATM [36])

also results in a pronounced synthetic lethality (survival ratio of 43%).

The screen also yielded a number of microtubule-associated proteins. These included

msps (microtubule nucleation [37]), *asp* (astral microtubule organization [38]), *eb1* (plus-end

microtubule binding [39]), *klp68D* (kinesin motor protein [40]), and *map205* (microtubule stabilizer

[41]). Given that microtubule-based transport plays a key role in the poleward transport of the

acentric chromosome fragments [15], synthetic lethal interactions with microtubule-associated

proteins were expected.

The screen also yielded a large class of genes involved in chromatin organization. This

included *cap-D2* (condensin [42]), *chd1* (ATP-dependent chromatin remodeler [43]), *sin3A* and

sir2 (histone deacetylases [44]), *chrac* (nucleosome mobilization [45]), and *hp1* (heterochromatin

protein [46]). Whether these are directly required for double-strand break repair, separation and/or

segregation of sister acentrics remains to be determined.

In accord with previous work, reduced levels of BubR1 kinase (spindle-assembly

checkpoint protein) also exhibited a pronounced synthetic lethality upon I-CreI induction [12]. The

screen also yielded two additional cell cycle kinases: *gwl* (greatwall kinase, an inhibitor of the cell

cycle phosphatase PP2A [47]) and *ald* (altered disjunction, chromosome segregation [48]).

Live imaging analysis reveals the microtubule-associated proteins Map205 and EB1 and

Topo II are required for separation, but not segregation of sister acentrics.

We conducted live imaging experiments on neuroblasts to investigate the effect of specific

RNAi-mediated gene knockdowns on acentric mitotic transmission. Each line contains an RFP-

tagged histone transgene facilitating live confocal analysis [49]. Based on previous studies

revealing the role of microtubules in acentric transmission [15], we initially focused on the

microtubule-stabilizing protein Map205 and the microtubule plus-end associated protein EB1.

In a wild-type background, the majority of acentrics line up at the outer edge of the

metaphase plate, separated from the main mass of intact chromosomes [12, 15]. As described

above and in previous publications, during anaphase sister acentrics remain paired on the

metaphase plate well after the separation of intact chromosomes (**Figure 4A**) [12, 15]. On

average, separation of sister acentrics occurs 100 seconds ± 48 (N=19) after separation of the

kinetochore-bearing chromosomes (**Table 1**). 83% (19/23) of acentric sister chromatid pairs

separate normally with sister acentrics going to opposite cell poles (**Figure 4C**). In the remaining

17% (4/23), acentric sister chromatids line up in metaphase, lag behind at the metaphase plate,

and segregate together to one pole of the cell. Micronuclei form in telophase in 24% (4/17) of

neuroblasts expressing I-CreI micronuclei form in telophase (**Figure 4D**).

Live imaging of acentric behavior in neuroblasts expressing Map205 RNAi revealed that

47% (8/17) of acentric sister chromatids do not separate from one another and segregate to one

cell pole together, in comparison to 17% (4/23) in a wildtype background (**Figure 4C, Figure 5B**).

In spite of defects in sister chromatid separation, the timing of the initiation of poleward

segregation and their poleward segregation rate were normal (**Figure 5D, Table 3**). Despite the

increase in failed acentric separation, there was not an increase in micronuclei formation (9%

compared to 24% in controls) (**Figure 4D**).

Live analysis of acentric behavior in neuroblasts expressing EB1 RNAi revealed that 47%

(14/30) of acentric sister pairs fail to separate (**Figure 4C, Figure 5E**). The failure of separation

results in acentric sisters segregating together to a single cell pole (**Figure 4B and Supplemental**

Movie 3). Similarly, to the cells with Map205 knockdown, the timing of acentric segregation

initiation and their rate of poleward segregation was normal (**Figure 5E, Table 3**). There was also

not an increase in micronuclei formation (8% compared to 24% in controls) (**Figure 4D**). This

indicates that the Map205 and EB1 knockdowns are specifically disrupting sister separation of

acentrics and have no effect on the latter stages of acentric transmission.

As described earlier, cohesin removal on the intact chromosomes and acentrics occurs

simultaneously, yet acentric sisters remain paired. This raised the possibility of a role for DNA

catenation in maintaining acentric pairing. Previous work demonstrated that DNA catenations

preserve sister chromatid cohesion in intact chromosomes until resolution by Topoisomerase II

(Topo II) at the metaphase-anaphase transition [50]. Topo II decatenates intertwined DNA

allowing sister chromatids to segregate to opposing poles of the cell. To test the role of DNA

catenation in maintaining acentric sister pairing, we knocked down levels of Topo II specifically in

the *Drosophila* neuroblast using the Gal4/UAS RNAi technique described above. Topo II

knockdowns revealed that 50% (8/16) of sister acentrics fail to separate and subsequently

segregate together to one pole (**Figure 6 and Supplemental Movie 4**). Due to the lasting

catenations between acentric sisters, the timing of initiation of acentric separation was further

delayed in neuroblasts expressing Topo II RNAi (t-test; $p = 0.04$) (**Table 1**). Although acentric

separation is disrupted, their poleward segregation rate and their rate of micronuclei formation

were normal (**Figure 5F, Table 3, Figure 4D**).

The screen also yielded the PP2A inhibitor Greatwall kinase (*gwl*) that controls the timing

and events of mitotic exit including sister chromatid separation [51]. Thus, we were particularly

interested in the dynamics of acentric separation and segregation when the levels of *gwl* were

reduced. This analysis uncovered that with reduced levels of *gwl*, 39% (14/36) of acentric sister

pairs failed to separate from one another (**Figure 4C, Figure 5B**). Additionally, the timing of the

initiation of poleward segregation, the rate of poleward segregation, and the rate of micronuclei

formation were normal (**Figure 5G, Table 3, Figure 4D**).

EB1, Map205, Greatwall, and Topo II differentially influence the dynamics of acentric

separation

As described above, in a wild-type background acentrics exhibit three distinct patterns of

separation: sliding, unzipping, and dissociation. Sliding is the most frequent occurring 49% of the

time, with unzipping and dissociation occurring at frequencies of 31% and 20%, respectively

(**Figure 3E**). To determine the role of the genes identified above in these distinct forms of acentric

separation, we monitored the frequency of segregation patterns in RNAi knockdowns of the

candidate genes. RNAi knockdowns of Map205 and Greatwall decreased the frequency of

separation via sliding. Additionally, RNAi knockdown of Topoisomerase II decreased the

frequency of separation by sliding as well as unzipping. Similarly, RNAi knockdowns of EB1

resulted in a dramatic decrease in the frequency of acentric separation by sliding (**Figure 5B**).

To determine if microtubule plus-ends preferentially accumulate around acentrics, I-CreI-

expressing neuroblasts were live imaged with EGFP-tagged EB1. Fluorescence intensities of both

GFP and RFP were measured and corrected for brightness in control neuroblasts (N=5) and I-

CreI-expressing neuroblasts (N=5). During mitosis, EB1 localizes along microtubules moving

towards the plus-ends (**Figure 7 and Supplemental Movie 5**). It was previously demonstrated

that acentrics are surrounded by microtubules during anaphase [15], consequently EB1

associates with these microtubules and surrounds acentrics. However, the concentration of EB1

is not significantly increased at or near the acentrics (P > 0.05, two sample t-test; **Figure 7**). Thus,

while EB1 and the acentrics co-localize, we do not observe a preferential recruitment and

accumulation of this protein at the microtubule plus-ends.

DISCUSSION

Although much of chromosome dynamics is driven by the kinetochore, numerous studies

reveal additional forces act on the chromosomes during mitosis [52]. Here we focused on the role

of kinetochore independent forces driving sister chromatid separation. A key finding is that while

cohesin removal occurs simultaneously on intact and acentric chromosomes, sister separation of

the latter is significantly delayed. An explanation for this delay comes from studies of intact

chromosomes demonstrating that once cohesin is removed, sister acentrics remain held together

through DNA catenations [50, 53, 54].

Catenations are concentrated at the centromeric DNA and opposing kinetochore

microtubule interactions likely provide the resolving force [55-59]. Support for this conclusion

comes from studies of chromosome rearrangements in which centromeric heterochromatin is

displaced from the centromere [30]. Sister chromatin separation is specifically delayed in these

regions resulting in localized stretching during anaphase. A likely consequence of being displaced

from the centromere is that the ectopic heterochromatic regions no longer experience sufficient

kinetochore forces required to efficiently resolve sister DNA catenations. In light of these studies,

it is likely that acentric sisters remain associated well after separation of the intact chromosomes

through DNA catenations. This conclusion is supported by our finding that reductions in the

Topoisomerase II levels specifically disrupt acentric sister separation. As described below, our

studies suggest both plus-end and lateral microtubule interactions with the acentrics provide the

alternative force driving sister separation.

Intact chromosomes align perpendicular to the spindle. In contrast, we find acentric

chromosomes align either perpendicular or parallel to the spindle. Without a kinetochore, a

combination of lateral and plus-end microtubule interactions likely determines the final orientation

of acentrics on the metaphase plate. In addition to the multiple orientations, acentrics undergo

distinct patterns of sister separation that we have termed sliding, unzipping and dissociation.

Sliding of sisters past one another toward opposite poles is the most common mode of acentric

separation. This mode occurs primarily when sister acentrics are oriented parallel to the spindle

just prior to separation suggesting lateral microtubule interactions provide the force driving this

mode of acentric separation (**Figure 3A, Figure 5C, Table 4**). While sister separation of all

acentrics is delayed relative to intact chromosomes, the delay is much more pronounced for

acentrics that undergo separation by sliding. The delay may in part be due to the additional time

it takes to establish the multiple lateral interactions required to generate sufficient separation

force. It is likely chromokinesins provide the force driving separation, but these have yet to be

identified.

In contrast to sliding, sister separation by unzipping occurs primarily when the acentrics

are oriented perpendicular to the spindle just prior to separation suggesting a limited role for lateral

microtubule interactions (**Figure 3B, Figure 5C, Table 4**). During unzipping, acentrics generally

initiate separation at their broken ends with completion of separation occurring at the telomeres.

The delay of acentric separation by unzipping is much less than the delay observed for separation

by sliding. Previous studies demonstrated that the acentric and its centric partner are connected

via a DNA tether [12]. The preference for initiation of separation at the broken-ends suggests that

a DNA tether connecting the broken end to the centromere-bearing fragment may provide the

initial separation force (**Figure 3B**). While this tether is not thought to provide the force driving

acentric separation, because of its association with the broken end of the acentric, it may drive

the initial stage of unzipping. In contrast to separation by sliding, telomeres are always aligned in

sisters that separate by unzipping (**Figure 3E, Figure 3F**). This suggests maintaining gene-for-

gene sister pairing is essential for this form of separation.

The third mode of acentric separation, dissociation, is characterized by a simultaneous

separation along the entire length of sister acentrics (**Figure 3C**). While sister separation via

dissociation favors the perpendicular orientation, this skewing is much less dramatic compared to

the unzipping mode (**Figure 5C**). The most distinguishing feature of this form of separation is the

high frequency in which sister acentrics aligned with their telomeres opposed (33% compared to

14% and 0% for sliding and unzipping separation, respectively) (**Figure 3F**). This high frequency

of unaligned telomeres suggests weak connections between sisters and that sister pairing is not

required.

Synthetic lethal screens have proven an effective means of identifying factors required for

the successful mitotic transmission of acentric chromosome fragments [12, 15]. These screens

have identified proteins required for poleward transmission and final incorporation of acentrics

into the telophase nucleus. Here we focused on identifying genes required for successful

separation of sister acentrics. Of the 117 candidate genes screened, we identified 23 RNAi

knockdowns/mutations that resulted in a significant lethality upon acentric induction (**Table 2**).

Live analysis secondary screening revealed knockdowns of EB1 and Map205, and the cell cycle

kinase Greatwall resulted in dramatic defects in acentric sister separation. Live imaging also

revealed reducing levels of Topoisomerase II severely disrupted sister acentric separation.

Given that previous studies demonstrated the chromokinesin Klp3A is required for acentric

poleward transport [15], it is not surprising that microtubule-associated proteins also play a key

role in separation of acentric sisters. Reduced levels of EB1 and Map205 greatly increase the

frequency of failed sister separation. EB1 is a plus-end tracking protein that associates with a

number of regulatory proteins and is essential for generating anti-polar forces on the

chromosomes [60]. EB1 knockdowns most dramatically reduce the frequency of acentric

separation via sliding. In addition, for those acentric sisters that did separate by sliding in EB1

knockdowns, separation was greatly delayed. As lateral interactions between the microtubules

and chromatin are likely to drive sister separation by sliding, we suspect plus-end directed EB1

forces may play a role in orienting the acentric in order to establish lateral interactions. Support

for this idea comes from the finding of a synthetic lethal interaction between I-CreI induction and

reductions in the levels of Nod, a non-motile chromokinesin that associates with EB1 [15, 61].

Map205 is a microtubule-associated protein required for targeting Polo kinase to spindle

microtubules [41]. Thus, it is likely that the effect of the Map205 knockdowns on acentric sister

separation is through disruption of Polo localization. Previous studies demonstrated that Polo

localizes to the DNA tether associated with the acentric and Polo knockdowns disrupted acentric

transmission with sister acentrics remaining on the metaphase plate [12]. As with EB1, reductions

in Map205 levels dramatically reduce the frequency of acentric separation by sliding suggesting

a disruption in lateral interactions between the acentrics and the microtubules. While much

evidence indicates that Polo functions at the centromere during sister separation, our studies of

the effects of Map205 and Polo knockdowns suggest that it is also involved in promoting

chromatid/spindle interactions that are independent of the centromere.

Reducing the levels of Topoisomerase II leads to a significant increase in failed separation

of sister acentrics, supporting the conclusion that once cohesin is removed sister acentrics remain

held together through DNA catenation. We suspect that reduced Topoisomerase II levels disrupt

sister separation of the acentrics more profoundly than that of intact chromosomes because the

latter primarily rely on kinetochore forces to resolve DNA catenations. Of the four mutants

analyzed through live analysis, reductions in Topoisomerase levels had the greatest effect of the

unzipping mode of acentric sister separation. This result is interesting given our finding that the

unzipping mode of acentric separation is likely the most reliant on sister pairing and consequently

are likely to be highly catenated.

Taken together, these data support a model in which multiple forces drive the separation

of sister acentrics. Acentrics that separate by sliding and unzipping tend to be oriented parallel

and perpendicular to the spindle, respectively. We view acentric sister separation by sliding as

largely driven by lateral microtubule interactions, while separation by unzipping as initially driven

by the DNA tether. Sister acentrics that separate by dissociation may be driven by a combination

of these forces (**Figure 8**). EB1 and Map205 may be required to establish microtubule interactions

with the acentric, while in the absence of a kinetochore high levels of Topoisomerase are needed

to resolve DNA catenations between sisters.

Finally, it should be noted that although these mutants resulted in a high frequency of

failed acentric sister separation, we did not observe an equivalent increase in micronuclei. In

contrast, mutants that disrupted acentric poleward transport or the final stages of incorporation

into daughter nuclei resulted in an accompanying increase in micronuclei [62-64]. This indicates

that the knockdowns in the genes identified in this study specifically disrupt acentric sister

separation as the subsequent transmission occurs normally to allow incorporation of the acentric

into the daughter nuclei. This interpretation is in accord with a model that acentrics experience

different forces at different stages of their separation, transmission, and incorporation into

daughter nuclei [64].

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Figure 1: Acentric sister separation is delayed relative to kinetochore-bearing
chromosomes during anaphase. (A) Still frames of a time-lapse movie of a mitotic neuroblast
labeled with H2Av-RFP and not expressing I-CreI. (B) Still frames of a time-lapse movie of a
mitotic neuroblast with I-CreI induced acentrics. Separation of sister acentrics (arrows) is delayed.
Consequently, they lag on the spindle equator but eventually separate, segregate, and are
reincorporated into daughter nuclei. Bars, 2 μm. Time in seconds.
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Figure 2: Cohesin complexes are cleared off of acentric sisters upon anaphase onset.
Chromosomes labeled with H2Av-RFP (magenta) and cohesin labeled with Rad21-EGFP
(green). (A) Stills from a time-lapse movie of a control mitotic neuroblast. (B) Still images from a
time-lapse movie of a mitotic neuroblast with I-CreI-induced acentrics (Movie S1). Acentrics
(arrowhead) lag on the spindle equator. (C) Bar graphs of a compilation of five videos of I-CreI-
expressing neuroblasts showing the relative fluorescence intensities in arbitrary units (AU) of
chromosomes (H2Av-RFP, top) cohesin (Rad21-EGFP, bottom) around acentrics (cyan outlined
region) and the main mass of chromosomes (yellow outlined region) at time points 50, 40, 25,   0

s, prior to anaphase onset, respectively. Bars, 2 µm. Time in seconds. Error bars represent
standard deviations of fluorescence intensities at all points tested.
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Figure 3: Sister acentrics separate via three distinct patterns. Chromosomes labeled with
H2Av-RFP (magenta) and telomeres labeled with HOAP-GFP (green). Telomeres indicated by
yellow arrowheads. Direction of separation indicated by white arrows. (A) Top row: Still images of
a time-lapse movie of a mitotic neuroblast with I-CreI induced acentrics showing sister acentrics
(cyan arrows) lagging behind during anaphase, paired with telomeres opposing, sliding past one
another, and ultimately separating. Bottom row: Black and white images of sister acentrics sliding
past one another (see arrows) (Movie S2). (B) Top row: Still images of a time-lapse movie of a
mitotic neuroblast with I-CreI induced acentrics showing acentrics (cyan arrows) lagging on the
metaphase plate. In a process we term "unzipping", sister acentrics are aligned with telomeres
paired, initiate separation at their broken ends followed by separation of telomeres. Bottom row:
Black and white images of sister acentrics unzipping (see arrows). (C) Top row: Still images of a
time-lapse movie of a mitotic neuroblast with I-CreI induced acentrics showing sister acentrics
(cyan arrows) lagging behind during anaphase. In a process we term "dissociation", sister
acentrics simultaneously separate along their entire length. Bottom row: Black and white images
of sister acentrics simultaneously separating along their entire length (see arrows). (D) Frequency
of acentric sisters paired with their telomeres aligned or in opposite orientations. (E)
Measurements of the frequency of each mode of acentric sister separation (x-axis) and the timing
of acentric sister separation after intact chromosomes separate (y-axis). Each dot represents on
acentric pair. Black dots represent acentric sisters with telomeres aligned and purple dots
represent acentric sisters with telomeres oriented in opposite directions. Boxes show interquartile
ranges and lines show medians of the measured data. Statistical significance was determined by

a Kruskal-Wallis test. (F) Chart showing the distribution of telomere orientations within each mode
of acentric sister separation. Acentrics that separate by unzipping are always oriented with their
telomeres paired.
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Figure 4: EB1 RNAi knockdowns specifically disrupt acentric sister separation. (A) Still
frames of a time-lapse movie of a mitotic neuroblast with I-CreI induced acentrics. Paired sister
acentrics (white and yellow arrowheads) lag behind at the spindle equator but eventually
separate, segregate, and are reincorporated into daughter nuclei. (B) Still frames of a time-lapse
movie of a mitotic neuroblast with I-CreI induced acentrics and expressing EB1 RNAi. Separation
of paired sister acentrics (white and yellow arrowheads) fails, resulting in sisters segregating to
and incorporating into the same daughter nucleus. Bars, 2 μm. Time in seconds. (Video 3) (C)
Percentages of neuroblast divisions in which acentric sisters failed to completely separate from
one another. (D) Percentages of neuroblast divisions in which acentrics failed to incorporate into
daughter nuclei and formed one or more micronuclei.

Figure 5: Knockdowns of EB1 and Map205 preferentially disrupt the sliding mode of acentric separation. (A) Model of different acentric orientations prior to separation. Polarity axis indicated by the dotted line. (B) Bar graph showing the percentage of acentric pairs that separate via dissociation, sliding, or unzipping and the percentage of those that fail to separate. (C-G) Measurements of the frequency of each mode of acentric sister separation (x-axis) and the timing of acentric sister separation after the separation of intact chromosomes (y-axis). Each dot represents one acentric pair. Blue dots represent acentric pairs that were oriented perpendicular then parallel to the polarity axis prior to separation. Orange dots represent acentric pairs that were oriented parallel to the polarity axis prior to separation. Green dots represent acentric pairs that were oriented perpendicular to the polarity axis prior to separation. Boxes show interquartile ranges and lines show medians of the measured data. Asterisks indicate statistical significance (*P = 0.04, **P = 0.02, ***P = 0.005, ****P = 0.0007, *****P = 0.00004) determined by a two-tailed T-test. Non-significant values had a P-value greater than 0.05.

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Figure 6: Acentrics appear to be held together by DNA catenations. (A) Still images of a time-
lapse movie of a control neuroblast with I-CreI induced acentrics showing sister acentrics
associated in early anaphase (white arrows), lagging behind and ultimately separating and
segregating to opposite poles (cyan and magenta arrowheads). (B) Still images of a time-lapse
movie of a neuroblast with partial knockdown of Topoisomerase II using RNAi and I-CreI induced
acentrics. Acentrics associate and lag behind in early anaphase (white arrow), then fail to
completely separate and segregate unequally (cyan and magenta arrowheads). Bars, 2 µm. Time
in seconds. (Movie S4) (C) Bar graph showing the quantification of acentric behavior in control
and Topo II RNAi neuroblasts with the failure of acentric sister separation in magenta and the
successful, even separation of acentric sisters in gray.

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Figure 7: Acentrics travel poleward in late anaphase while associated with EB1. EB1 is in green and chromosomes are in magenta. (A) Still images from a time-lapse movie of a control neuroblast from metaphase (0 s) through telophase (85 s). (B) Still images from a time-lapse movie of a mitotic neuroblast with I-CreI induced acentrics from metaphase (0 s) through telophase (135 s) (Movie S5). The intact chromosomes and acentrics initiate sister separation at the 15 s and 40 s timepoints, respectively. Sister acentrics (white arrowheads) separate and move toward opposite cell poles while associated with EB1. (C) Line graph from a compilation of five control videos showing the corrected fluorescence intensities in arbitrary units (AU) of EB1 (green) and chromosomes (magenta). Corrected fluorescence intensities were calculated within the yellow boxes at the time points 15, 20, 25, 30, 35 seconds after anaphase onset. (D) Line graph

527 from a compilation of five videos of I-CreI-expressing neuroblasts showing the corrected
528 fluorescence intensities in arbitrary units (AU) of EB1 (green) and chromosomes (magenta).
529 Corrected fluorescence intensities were calculated within the yellow boxes at the time points 15,
530 25, 30, 40, 50 seconds after anaphase. Bars, 2 µm. Time in seconds. Error bars represent SDs
531 of the fluorescent intensities at all points tested.
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Cohesin   Telomere

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Figure 8: Schematic showing distinct modes of acentric separation. At some point during
the metaphase-to-anaphase transition, acentrics that separate by sliding orient parallel to the
spindle and slide past one another. This is likely driven by lateral associations between the
microtubules and acentrics. The unzipping mode occurs when separation initiates at the broken
end followed by separation of sister telomeres. It may be that the initial separation is driven by
the DNA tether connecting the centric and acentric fragments. Simultaneous separation across
the entire length of the acentric is referred to as dissociation. It may be that the DNA tether and
acentric-microtubule interactions contribute equally for sister acentrics that separate by
dissociation. (Chromosomes in magenta, microtubules in green, cohesin in cyan, telomeres in
orange).
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Table 1: Average timing of acentric separation.

	Avg ± SD (seconds)	N (acentric pairs)
Control	100 ± 48	19
MAP205 RNAi	78 ± 38	9
EB1 RNAi	113 ± 59	16
Topo II RNAi	150 ± 76	8
gwl^{1028}/gwl^{716}	117 ± 49	22

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Table 2: Top hits from synthetic lethality screen.

	Gene RNAi	Survival rate with RNAi and I-CreI induced / Only RNAi induced	Rate of larvae-to-adult survival of RNAi with I-CreI induction % ± SD (N)	Rate of larvae-to-adult survival of RNAi without I-CreI induction % ± SD (N)	Gene function
	Wildtype (Control)		80 ± 21 (194)	91 ± 7 (194)	—
Chromatin-associated:	hyx (2)	10%	8 (25)	88 (25)	Transcription factor
	cap-D2	12%	6 (17)	50 (12)	Condensin
	chd1	30%	10 ± 17 (69)	33 ± 6 (99)	ATP-dependent chromatin remodeling
	sin3A	33%	8 (25)	24 (25)	Histone deacetylase, transcription regulator
	chrac-14 (2)	48%	48 (25)	100 (25)	Nucleosome mobilization, chromatin assembly
	chd1 (2)	50%	48 (25)	95 (23)	ATP-dependent chromatin remodeling
	spt4	55%	24 (25)	44 (25)	Transcription elongation factor
	sir2	60%	64 (25)	94 (16)	Histone deacetylase, heterochromatin gene silencing
	hp1e	65%	65 (20)	100 (25)	Heterochromatin protein 1 (chromosome segregation)
Microtubule-associated:	msps	27%	18 ± 17 (56)	67 ± 24 (30)	Mitotic spindle, microtubule nucleation
	asp (2)	46%	44 (25)	96 (25)	Astral microtubule organization, spindle orientation
	EB1	47%	44 ± 25 (86)	94 ± 9 (38)	Microtubule plus-end binding, chromosome segregation
	Klp68D	51%	29 (24)	57 (21)	Kinesin motor protein, microtubule-based transport
	asp	52%	52 (25)	100 (15)	Astral microtubule organization, spindle orientation
	map205	65%	54 ± 18 (141)	83 ± 13 (91)	Binds/stabilizes microtubules
DNA repair/checkpoint:	spnA	2%	2 ± 4 (57)	82 ± 18 (99)	Rad51 double-strand break repair
	mus309	11%	10 ± 1 (42)	95 (22)	Double-strand break repair
	ku80	29%	28 (25)	96 (25)	Non-homologous end joining double-strand break repair
	tefu	43%	43 (30)	100 (25)	DNA damage checkpoint
	cp190	48%	12 (17)	25 (12)	Chromatin silencing, DNA damage response
Cell cycle kinase:	bubR1	3%	1 ± 2 (168)	31 ± 23 (69)	Mitotic exit and spindle checkpoint kinase
	gwl (2)	8%	2 ± 2 (112)	26 ± 10 (99)	Negative PP2A regulator and mitotic exit kinase
	ald	59%	52 (25)	88 (25)	Altered disjunction, chromosome separation kinase

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559 **Table 3: Average rates of acentric segregation.**
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	Avg velocity ± SD (nm/s)	N (individual acentrics)
Control	10 ± 4	26
MAP205 RNAi	12 ± 5	30
EB1 RNAi	10 ± 4	27
Topo II RNAi	12 ± 3	26
gwl^{1028}/gwl^{716}	8 ± 4	32

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564 **Table 4: Distribution of modes of acentric separation.**
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	Failed to separate	Disassociated	Slid Apart	Unzipped	N (acentric pairs)
Control	17%	13%	48%	22%	23
MAP205 RNAi	47%	12%	6%	35%	17
EB1 RNAi	47%	20%	13%	20%	30
Topo II RNAi	50%	19%	25%	6%	16
gwl^{1028}/gwl^{716}	39%	11%	28%	22%	36

MATERIALS AND METHODS

<u>Fly Stocks</u>

All stocks were raised on standard *Drosophila* media at room temperature (20-22°C). For

generating acentrics, a transgenic fly line bearing the I-CreI endonuclease under heat-shock 70

promoter were kindly provided by Kent Golic at The University of Utah. For synthetic lethality

screen, the ubiquitous Gal4 driver under the control of an actin enhancer (Act5) was used (#25708

from Bloomington). Dominant negative allele of ISWI was kindly provided by John Tamkun at UC

Santa Cruz. Greatwall hypomorphs ($gwl^{1080, 716, 180, and 2790}$) were kindly provided by Michael

Goldberg at Cornell University. The line with *rad21-EGFP* transgene were kindly provided by

Stefan Heidmann at University of Bayreuth.

<u>Synthetic Lethality Screen</u>

Third instar progeny with genotype Act5-Gal4/+; I-CreI, Sb/UAS-RNAi were collected from

parental genotypes Act5-Gal4/CyO-GFP; I-CreI, Sb/TM6B and were heat shocked for 1.5 hours

at 37°C (unless otherwise indicated). After heat shock, the vials were set-aside at room

temperature for 10-15 days until adult flies emerged. Synthetic lethality was calculated as the %

of larvae that develop into adulthood. Control progeny with genotype Act5-Gal4/+; Sb/UAS-RNAi

from parents with the genotype Act5-Gal4/CyO-GFP; Sb/TM6B and UAS-RNAi were heat-

shocked for 1.5 hours at 37°C.

<u>Live analysis of acentric behavior in *Drosophila* third instar neuroblasts</u>

Acentric chromosome fragments were induced by I-CreI expression (under heat shock 70

promoter) in 3rd instar larvae by a 1-hour 37°C heat shock followed by a 1-hour recovery period

at room temperature. The larval brains from third instar larvae were dissected in PBS and then

transferred to a slide with 20 µl of PBS. A coverslip was dropped on PBS solution with brain and

the excess PBS solution was wicked out from edge of coverslip to induce squashing of brain

between slide and coverslip. For live analysis, the edge of coverslip was sealed with halocarbon

and was imaged as described below. Neuroblast divisions in all images were from female 3rd

instar larvae.

<u>Microscopy and image acquisition</u>

Wide-field microscopy

Time-lapse imaging for Figure 4C, 4D, 5, and 5C was acquired with a Leica DM16000B wide-field

inverted microscope with a Hamamatsu electron-multiplying charge coupled device camera

(ORCA 9100-02) with a binning of 1 and a 1.4 NA 100x Plan-Apochromat objective. Signal from

RFP and GFP fluorophores was collected at 585 nm and 508 nm, respectively. Time-lapse videos

were done every 20 seconds. Imaging was performed at room temperature. Images were

acquired using the Leica Application Suite Advanced Fluorescence Software. 3D deconvolution

was performed using AutoQuant X2.2.0.

Spinning-disk microscopy

Images in Figures 1, 2, 3, 4A, 4B, 6A, 6B, and 7 were acquired with an inverted Nikon Eclipse

TE2000-E spinning disk (CSLI-X1) confocal microscope equipped with a Hamamatsu electron-

multiplying charge coupled device camera (ImageEM X2) with a 100X 1.4 NA oil-immersion

objective. Imaging was performed at room temperature. Images were acquired with

MicroManager 1.4 software. Time-lapse fluorescent images of neuroblasts divisions were done

with 120 and 100 ms exposures for GFP and RFP, respectively, with 0.5 µm Z-steps. Time-lapse

videos with both GFP and RFP were done every 5 to 18 seconds and time-lapse movies with

RFP alone were done every 5 to 10 seconds. Figures were assembled in Adobe Illustrator.

Selected   stills   (both   experimental   and   control)   were   processed   with   ImageJ

(http://rsb.info.nih.gov/ij/).

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645 <u>Measurements</u>
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In Figures 2B and 2C, relative fluorescence intensities of chromosomes (H2Av-RFP) and cohesin

(Rad21-EGFP) were done by calculating the corrected total cell fluorescence (CTCF) using

ImageJ of the region outlined around acentrics and the main mass of chromosomes. CTCF =

integrated density – (area of selected region in cell * mean fluorescence of background readings).

In Figure 7, relative fluorescence intensities of acentrics (H2Av-RFP) and EB1 (EB1-EGFP) were

done by calculating the CTCF using integrated density, area, and mean fluorescence of the

background acquired from ImageJ of the region outlined around acentrics in I-CreI expressing

neuroblasts and the region outlined around the spindle midzone in control neuroblasts. The area

of the boxes outlining acentrics and spindle midzones were kept consistent for each cell. In Table

3, velocities of acentric segregation were calculated as distance (micrometers)/time (seconds).

For statistical analyses, unpaired two-sided t-tests and two-sided Mann-Whitney-Wilcoxon tests

were used. Unpaired two-sided t-tests were performed in Prism Version 8 (GraphPad Software).

Two-sided Mann-Whitney-Wilcoxon tests and Kruskal-Wallis tests were performed in R (R Core

Team).

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663
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providing us with Greatwall hypomorph flies. We thank Dr. Stefan Heidmann for providing us with

the transgenic fly line bearing *rad21-EGFP*. We thank H. Vicars' service dog Teddy Bear for his

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