Membrane stretching activates calcium-permeability of a putative channel Pkd2 during

fission yeast cytokinesis

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Abstract

Pkd2 is the fission yeast homolog of polycystins. This putative ion channel localizes to the plasma membrane. It is required for the expansion of cell volume during interphase growth and cytokinesis, the last step of cell division. However, the channel activity of Pkd2 remains untested. Here, we examined the calcium permeability and mechanosensitivity of Pkd2 through in vitro reconstitution and calcium imaging of the *pkd2* mutant cells. Pkd2 was translated and inserted into the lipid bilayer of giant unilamellar vesicles using a cell-free expression system. The reconstituted Pkd2 permeated calcium when the membrane was stretched via hypo-osmotic shock. In vivo, inactivation of Pkd2 through a temperature-sensitive mutation *pkd2-B42* reduced the average intracellular calcium level by 34%. Compared to the *wild type*, the hypomorphic mutation *pkd2-81KD* reduced the amplitude of hypo-osmotic shock-triggered calcium spikes by 59%. During cytokinesis, mutations of *pkd2* reduced by 60% the calcium spikes that accompany the cell separation and the ensuing membrane stretching. We concluded that fission yeast polycystin Pkd2 allows calcium influx when activated by membrane stretching, representing a likely mechanosensitive channel that contributes to the cytokinetic calcium spikes.

Introduction

Polycystins are evolutionarily-conserved calcium-permissive cation channels. Loss of function

mutations of human polycystins leads to one of the most common genetic disorders, Autosomal

Dominant Polycystic Kidney Disorder (ADPKD) which is diagnosed in 1 in 1000 live births

(Hughes et al., 1995; Mochizuki et al., 1996). Homologs of polycystins have been found in most

metazoans, including fruit flies and worms (Barr and Sternberg, 1999; Gao et al., 2003), as well

as unicellular organisms such as social amoebae (Lima et al., 2014), green algae (Huang et al.,

2007) and fission yeast (Palmer et al., 2005).

The fission yeast polycystin homolog Pkd2 is an essential protein required for cell

division and growth. Pkd2 localizes to the plasma membrane throughout the cell cycle (Morris et

al., 2019). During interphase, it is enriched at cell tips where the putative channel promotes the

extension of the cylindrical-shaped fission yeast cells (Sinha et al., 2022). During cytokinesis,

Pkd2 moves to the equatorial plane, regulating contractile ring constriction and cell separation

(Morris et al., 2019). Without Pkd2, the daughter cells fail to separate. In addition, Pkd2

antagonizes the activity of yeast Hippo signaling pathway SIN (septation initiation network) by

modulating its activity and localization during cytokinesis (Sinha et al., 2022). Although fission

yeast cytokinesis is accompanied by a temporary increase in intracellular calcium concentration

(Poddar et al., 2021), it remains unclear if Pkd2 permeates calcium in this process and how it is

activated.

Reconstitution experiments using bottom-up in vitro expression of transmembrane

proteins, including ion channels, have become a powerful approach to investigating their

functions compared to purified proteins expressed in cells. For expression of certain proteins in

cells, growth retardation or lysis of the host cells and low endogenous expression levels attribute

to poor production of heterologous recombinant proteins (Laohakunakorn et al., 2020). Despite

advances in protein purification, several limitations exist for invitro reconstitution of membrane

proteins with complicated structures, such as improper protein function, compromised membrane

integrity due to residual detergents, and poor control over the orientation of protein insertion (Jia

and Jeon, 2016; Knol et al., 1998; Rigaud and Levy, 2003; Shen et al., 2016; Wingfield, 2015).

Cell-free expression (CFE) systems coupling transcription and translation reactions outside the

cellular environment have shown the potential to overcome the barriers mentioned above and can

be a robust strategy for protein synthesis and investigation (Chong, 2014; Gregorio et al., 2019;

Khambhati et al., 2019; Lu, 2017; Rigaud and Levy, 2003). For example, the bacterial

mechanosensitive channel MscL is expressed by encapsulating CFE reactions in giant

unilamellar vesicles (GUVs) and has been shown to sense physical stimuli (Majumder et al.,

2017). Since bacterial lysate lacks membranous components, eukaryotic CFE systems are

gaining increasing attention for in vitro production of membrane proteins (Dondapati et al.,

2014). Their innate endogenous microsomal structures enable newly synthesized membrane

proteins to insert directly into the natural endoplasmic reticulum (ER)-based lipid bilayers

without detergents. This eukaryotic CFE-based approach significantly reduces the potential for

membrane protein denaturation and favors their proper folding in vitro.

In this study, we first expressed the putative channel Pkd2 in a HeLa-based CFE system

and reconstituted it in a lipid bilayer. To determine the orientation of Pkd2 in the membrane, we

used a pronase digestion assay with *Streptomyces griseus*-derived pronase (Xu et al., 1988). We

applied different osmotic pressures to GUVs coexpressing Pkd2 and G-GECO, a fluorescent

calcium-sensitive reporter. To determine whether Pkd2 regulates calcium influx in vivo, we

employed a GCaMP-based calcium indicator and single-cell imaging to quantify the intracellular

calcium level of two *pkd2* mutants. We then induced fast expansion of the plasma membrane

using microfluidics-applied osmotic shock and measured the calcium spikes in the *pkd2* mutant

cells compared to the *wild type*. Finally, we quantified the constriction and separation calcium

spikes, which accompany compression and expansion of the plasma membrane respectively

during cytokinesis, in the *pkd2* mutant cells in comparison to the wild type.

Results

Expressing Pkd2 by using mammalian CFE

We used a CFE system to synthesize this putative channel Pkd2 in vitro. We expressed full-

length Pkd2 tagged with superfold GFP (sfGFP) at the C-terminus in a HeLa cell extract-based

system. To monitor expression yield, we quantified the fluorescence of Pkd2-sfGFP over 3 hours

(**Fig. S1**). The fluorescence increased gradually and reached a plateau after 2 hours. We

concluded that Pkd2 is efficiently expressed in our cell-free system.

We then determined if the in vitro-synthesized Pkd2 can be reconstituted as a

transmembrane protein in supported lipid bilayers with extra reservoir (SUPER) templates (**Fig.**

1A). The excess lipid bilayer membranes were generated on silica beads by the rupture and

fusion of small unilamellar vesicles (SUVs) carrying lipids with negative charges under high

ionic strength (Majumder et al., 2018; Pucadyil and Schmid, 2008; Pucadyil and Schmid, 2010).

We incubated SUPER templates with the in vitro-translated Pkd2-sfGFP and isolated them by

low-speed centrifugation. The supernatant fraction contained most of the CFE reaction, while the

pellet fraction included the SUPER templates for different assays (**Fig. 1A**). The expressed

protein appeared as a single band of ~108 kDa on an SDS-PAGE gel (**Fig. 1B**), which was

consistent with the predicted molecular weight of the fusion protein (MW_{Pkd2} = 78 kDa). The

yield was roughly 15 µg from a 10 µl reaction. The lipid-coated beads incubated with pellet

fraction became fluorescent after being washed with PBS (**Fig. 1C**), thereby confirming that

Pkd2-sfGFP was incorporated into the SUPER templates.

Since several Pkd2 homologs, including the human homologs, localize to the ER and

plasma membrane (Gonzalez-Perrett et al., 2001; Hughes et al., 1995; Protchenko et al., 2006),

we investigated whether Pkd2 similarly translocate into endogenous microsomal structures. We

applied a high-speed airfuge assay to CFE-expressed Pkd2, labeled with fluorescently tagged

lysine, Green lysine, to isolate supernatant and pellet fractions; the latter presumably contained

microsomes (**Fig. S2A**). The majority of Pkd2 was in the pellet, while the amount of Pkd2 in the

supernatant decreased as the washing cycles was increased (**Fig. S2B**). This indicated that ER

fragments might recognize translocons and membrane protein chaperones to promote Pkd2

insertion into microsomes. When the pellet or supernatant fractions were added to the SUPER

templates, only the beads incubated with the pellet fraction were fluorescent (**Fig. S2C**). We

concluded that in vitro-expressed Pkd2 translocates into microsomal fragments, which

subsequently fused with the SUPER templates.

Reconstituted Pkd2 responds to osmotic pressure to permeate calcium

We next determined the orientation of Pkd2 in the lipid bilayer membranes on SUPER templates

using an image-based pronase protection assay. Alpha-fold (Jumper et al., 2021) and other

transmembrane helices projection software predicted that Pkd2 possesses an N-terminal

extracellular domain and a putative C-terminal cytoplasmic tail (**Fig. S3A**). Depending on the

orientation of Pkd2-sfGFP in the lipid bilayer, sfGFP will either be exposed to pronase or be

protected from degradation (**Fig. S3B**). Based on our previous work on reconstituting nuclear

envelope proteins SUN1 and SUN2 in SUPER templates (Majumder et al., 2018), we predicted

that Pkd2 would insert into the excess lipid bilayer membranes with its C-terminus orienting

outwards. We observed that the fluorescence of in vitro-translated Pkd2-sfGFP disappeared

following pronase treatment (**Fig. S3C**). We concluded that Pkd2 is inserted in microsomal

fragments in an orientation that positions its C-terminus on the cytosolic side. For the GUVs we

used in our experiment, the C-terminus of Pkd2-sfGFP would be in the lumen of the vesicle, an

orientation consistent with their predicted topology in cells (**Fig. 2A**) since CFE reactions were

encapsulated in vesicles.

We next determined whether reconstituted Pkd2 alone is calcium permissive. We

encapsulated CFE-expressed Pkd2 in GUVs generated using continuous droplet interface

crossing encapsulation (cDICE) (Bashirzadeh et al., 2021; Van de Cauter et al., 2021) and

monitored calcium entry in GUVs (**Fig. 2B**). A genetically-encoded calcium fluorescent reporter,

G-GECO, was used to detect calcium entry into vesicles (Majumder et al., 2017). There was no

G-GECO fluorescence in GUVs under iso-osmotic conditions with or without Pkd2 expression

(**Fig. 2C**), indicating that CFE-expressed Pkd2 is mostly non-permeable to calcium without a

stimulus.

To determine whether Pkd2 can become calcium-permeable upon mechanical stimulus,

we stretched the membrane of Pkd2-expressing GUVs with hypo-osmotic shock. We added

water to the external solution of the GUVs. The G-GECO fluorescence in Pkd2-embedded GUVs

gradually increased under a hypo-osmotic condition of 100 mOsm, compared to those without

Pkd2 (**Fig. 2C**). The fluorescence increase was proportional to calcium concentrations in the

external solution (**Fig. S4**). When gadolinium chloride ($GdCl_3$), a non-specific stretch-activated

ion channel blocker, was added to the external solution, it blocked the fluorescence increase of

G-GECO inside those Pkd2-expressing GUVs under same conditions (**Fig. 2D**). As expected,

the peak fluorescence intensities of GUVs increased proportionally to the strength (40-100

mOsm) and duration (0-20 mins) of hypo-osmotic shock (**Fig. 2E and F**). We concluded that

Pkd2 is calcium-permeable under the mechanical stimulus of membrane stretching.

Intracellular calcium level was lower in *pkd2* mutants

To determine if calcium-permissive Pkd2 regulates calcium homeostasis in fission yeast cells,

we measured the calcium level of *pkd2-81KD,* a hypomorphic mutant with growth and

cytokinesis defects even at the permissive temperature (Morris et al., 2019). We employed the

ratiometric indicator GCaMP-mCherry to measure the intracellular calcium level of single cells

(Poddar et al., 2021) by quantifying the ratio of fluorescence intensity of GCaMP to that of

mCherry (**Fig. 3A**). At 25°C, the intracellular calcium level of mutant cells (n > 450) decreased

only slightly (3%) compared to *wild type* cells (**Fig. 3B**). Next, we measured the calcium level of

a novel temperature-sensitive *pkd2* mutant at the restrictive temperature (Sinha et al., 2022). At

36°C, the average calcium level of *pkd2-B42* cells was 34% lower than *wild type* cells (**Fig. 3C**

and D). To rule out the possibility that reduced calcium concentration was an indirect result of

either cytokinesis or growth defects of the *pkd2* mutant, we examined two other temperature-

sensitive mutants, *sid2-250* and *orb6-25*. The former fails in cytokinesis, and the latter is

defective in cell growth (Balasubramanian et al., 1998; Verde et al., 1998). In comparison to

pkd2-B42, the intracellular calcium concentration of the *sid2-250* mutant cells were only slightly

lower (by 13%) than *wild type* cells at 36°C (**Fig. S5A and B**). This was despite their much

stronger cytokinesis defect compared to *pkd2-B42*, evident in the substantially increased cell

length (**Fig. S5A**). Contrary to *pkd2-B42*, *orb6-25* almost doubled the intracellular calcium level

with a far higher frequency of cells exhibiting elevated calcium concentrations (**Fig. S5B**). We

concluded that putative channel Pkd2 contributes significantly to the maintenance of intracellular

calcium levels.

Lastly, we determined whether over-expression of Pkd2 interfered with intracellular calcium regulation. We over-expressed Pkd2 by replacing its endogenous promoter with a strong inducible promoter, 3nmt1 (Maundrell, 1990). Under the inducing condition, intracellular calcium levels of mutant cells were similar to that of *wild type* cells (**Fig. S5C-D**). We concluded that over-expression of Pkd2 alone is not sufficient to alter intracellular calcium levels.

Osmotic shock-induced calcium spikes were reduced in *pkd2* mutants

We examined whether Pkd2 promotes calcium spikes triggered by plasma membrane stretching in vivo. In yeast, an abrupt drop in extracellular osmolarity triggers a sharp increase in intracellular calcium levels (Batiza et al., 1996). Such calcium spikes, accompanied by cell volume expansion, raise the intracellular calcium level by up to five-fold (Poddar et al., 2021). These spikes can be captured at the single-cell level in a microfluidic device.

We first determined whether such calcium spikes depend on influx from the media, a process that plasma membrane localized Pkd2 likely regulates. We first trapped the *wild type* cells in a microfluidic imaging chamber infused with the isosmotic EMM media (**Fig. 4A**). After switching to EMM plus 1.2M sorbitol for 30 minutes, we dropped the extracellular osmolarity by more than 1,300 mOsm by switching back to EMM (**Fig. 4A, S6A**). This shock caused the average width of *wild type* cells to increase significantly (**Fig. 4B**). As expected, this was accompanied by calcium spikes (**Fig. 4C**). In comparison, removing calcium from EMM media during hypo-osmotic shock reduced average amplitude of calcium spikes by 40% (**Fig. S6C, E, and F**). Similarly, 2mM EGTA in EMM media resulted in a 52% decrease in the amplitude of calcium spikes (**Fig. S6D-F).** We concluded that extracellular calcium contributes significantly to calcium spikes induced by hypo-osmotic shock.

We then determined whether Pkd2 contributes to osmotic shock-induced calcium spikes.

We measured the spikes in *pkd2-81KD* mutant cells stimulated with hypo-osmotic shock. Like

wild type cells, *pkd2-81KD* mutant cells expanded their width after shock, but comparably less

(**Fig. 4B**). Peak amplitude of the spikes in *pkd2-81KD* cells was 59% lower than in *wild type*

cells (**Fig. 4C and D**). The amplitude of the spikes in *pkd2-B42* cells was similarly reduced by

62% (**Fig. 4D**). On average, the calcium level in *pkd2-81KD* returned to baseline sooner than in

wild type after shock (**Fig. 4E**). We concluded that Pkd2 contributes significantly to calcium

influx triggered by hypo-osmotic shock in vivo.

Pkd2 mutations reduced the separation calcium spikes during cytokinesis

Besides the stress induced calcium transients, two separate calcium spikes accompany the fission

yeast cytokinesis (Poddar et al., 2021). The constriction spikes are concurrent with the cleavage

furrow ingression and the membrane compression whose force is provided by the actomyosin

contractile ring (**Fig. 5A**). The other, termed separation spike is accompanied by the cell

separation, a process concurrent with the membrane stretching (**Fig. 5A**).

First, we compared the constriction spikes in the *pkd2* mutant cells to those in the wild

type cells. We carried out the time-lapse calcium imaging in the cells expressing the actomyosin

contractile ring marker Rlc1-Tdtomato together with GCaMP throughout the ring assembly and

constriction (**Fig. 5B**). As we shown before (Poddar et al., 2021), the GCaMP fluorescence of the

wild type cells increased by an average of 2-fold within 4 minutes after the start of the ring

constriction. In comparison, such fluorescence increased by more than 4-fold in either *pkd2-*

81KD or *pkd2-B42* cells following the ring constriction (**Fig. 5C**). Next, we extracted individual

calcium spikes using computer-assisted image analysis and quantified their amplitudes (see

Methods and Materials). The average amplitude of constriction spikes in the *pkd2* mutant cells

increased more than 2.5-folds, compared to those of the wild type cells **(Fig. 5D).** We conclude

that Pkd2 is not essential for the constriction spikes during cytokinesis.

Next, we applied similar methods to compare the separation spikes of the *pkd2* mutant

cells to those of the wild type. We tracked the last step of cytokinesis, when two daughter

physical separate and their new ends emerge, through bright-field microscopy coupled with the

calcium imaging **(Fig. 5E).** Consistent with our previous observation (Poddar et al., 2021), the

GCaMP fluorescence of the wild type cells increased ~1.8-fold within 2 minutes of cell

separation in either both or one daughter cell. In comparison, such fluorescence increased was

more than 50% smaller in either *pkd2-81KD* or *pkd2-B42* cells **(Fig. 5F).** Next, we extracted

individual calcium spikes in these separating cells using computer-assisted image analysis and

quantified their amplitudes (see Materials and Methods). As expected, the average amplitude of

the spikes identified in *pkd2-81KD* and *pkd2-B42* mutant cells decreased by 45% and 60%

respectively **(Fig. 5G).** We conclude that Pkd2 contributes to the separation calcium spikes at the

end of cytokinesis.

Discussion

In this study, we determined the calcium permeability and activation mechanism of putative

fission yeast channel Pkd2. In vitro reconstitution established Pkd2 as calcium-permeable under

membrane tension. Calcium imaging of *pkd2* mutant cells demonstrated this essential protein's

critical role in regulating calcium homeostasis and adaptation to hypo-osmotic shock.

In vitro-reconstituted Pkd2 in GUVs allowed the passage of calcium ions in a force-

dependent manner. Mechanical activation of Pkd2 was proportional to the extent of membrane

stretching, suggesting that only a small fraction of the transmembrane protein was activated at

the lower end of the applied force. Compared to calcium spikes in the yeast cells, the calcium

influx mediated by Pkd2 in vitro was relatively slow. This is likely due to the small amount of

reconstituted Pkd2 in the membrane. Another reason may be that our GUVs do not have calcium

buffer capabilities other than G-GECO. Nevertheless, our minimal system demonstrated that

Pkd2 is calcium-permeable in response to membrane stretching.

The calcium permeability of reconstituted Pkd2 is consistent with the significantly

reduced intracellular level of *pkd2* mutant cells. Our in vivo data has provided the first line of

evidence that Pkd2 mediates calcium homeostasis in fission yeast cells. It remains to be

determined whether Pkd2 is also permeable to other cations such as potassium similar to human

polycystins (Liu et al., 2018).

The calcium spikes triggered by hypo-osmotic shock likely come from calcium influx

and internal release. Removal of extracellular calcium did not quench calcium spike completely,

suggesting the calcium release from the internal sources must contribute to the calcium spikes.

These could come from either ER or vacuoles, the main intracellular calcium storage of yeast

cells (Pittman, 2011).

Consistent with the mechanosensitivity of Pkd2 in vitro, it also plays a critical role in

adaptation to hypo-osmotic shock when tension of the plasma membrane increases. Our result

confirms the long-standing hypothesis that stretch-activated yeast channels likely contribute to

osmotic adaptation whose identities have nevertheless remained unknown (Batiza et al., 1996).

Considering its localization on the plasma membrane and its force-sensitivity, Pkd2 likely allows

the direct influx of calcium that contributes to adaptation after hypo-osmotic shock (Nakayama

et al., 2012). However, it is worth noting that mutations of *pkd2* reduced calcium spike even

more than removal of external calcium following hypo-osmotic shock. This strongly suggests

that Pkd2 not only regulates calcium influx, but also internal release of calcium during the

spiking events.

The function of Pkd2 in regulating osmotic adaptation bears some similarities to that of

mechanosensitive MscC channels, but there are some critical differences. Msy1 and Msy2 are

fission yeast homologs of the small bacterial conductance mechanosensitive channel MscS

(Nakayama et al., 2012). Like Pkd2, Msy1 and Msy2 play a crucial role in adaptation to hypo-

osmotic shock. However, unlike Pkd2, they localize to the endoplasmic reticulum (ER)

(Nakayama et al., 2012). More surprisingly, deletion of both fission yeast MscS channels leads to

enhanced calcium spikes following hypo-osmotic shock (Nakayama et al., 2012), contrary to the

phenotype of *pkd2-81KD* mutant cells. The potential interlink between polycystin and MscS

channels will require further analysis.

The force-sensitive nature of putative channel Pkd2, combined with its localization on the

plasma membrane, makes it an ideal candidate to sense membrane tension and regulate turgor

pressure homeostasis during cell growth. The key phenotype of *pkd2* mutants is their failure to

maintain turgor pressure required for both tip extension and cell separation. This putative

channel could play a critical role in maintaining turgor pressure during cell growth, as the cell

volume expands. Pkd2 is a potential candidate for the known mechanosensitive channel

regulating the turgor pressure of fission yeast (Zhou and Kung, 1992).

The reduced separation calcium spikes in the *pkd2* mutant cells strongly suggests that the

putative Pkd2 channel may contribute directly to the calcium influx during the cell separation.

Pkd2 is likely activated by the membrane stretching as a result of the daughter cells increasing

their volume and forming the new ends. In contrary to the separation spikes, the constriction

spikes increased in the *pkd2* mutant cells, suggesting that other channels may contribute to this

calcium spike. The increased constriction spike, nevertheless, is consistent with the accelerated

ring constriction observed in the *pkd2* mutant cells (Morris et al., 2019).

The calcium permeability of Pkd2 is similar to that of mammalian polycystins, but its

mechanosensitivity is distinct. Like Pkd2, human polycystin channels also regulate intracellular

calcium levels (Liu et al., 2018; Wang et al., 2019). Moreover, of the two mammalian

homologues, polycystin-1 is sensitive to mechanical stimulus (Forman et al., 2005). However,

the mammalian polycystin channels mostly localize to primary cilia where they are activated by

mechanical force from fluid flow (Nauli et al., 2003).

Our results support the hypothesis that Pkd2 is a calcium-permissible ion channel

activated by membrane stretching during osmotic adaption and cytokinesis.

Materials and Methods

DNA construct

Pkd2-sfGFP was constructed through High-Fi DNA Assembly (NEB). All PCR reactions were

carried out with Q5 High-Fidelity DNA Polymerase (NEB #M0491). The cDNA of Pkd2 was

amplified from the plasmid Pkd2-EGFP-N1 (Lab stock) using the forward primer

AACCCTCAAAAGACAAGACCATGAGGCTTTGGAGAAGCCC and the reverse primer,

AAGAATTCGTCGACCTCGAGACGAAAGCATTGTTAGGTA. The vector pAV0714

(Vjestica et al., 2020) was amplified using the forward primer,

TACCTAACAATGCTTTTCGTCTCGAGGTCGACGAATTCTT and the reverse primer,

GGGCTTCTCCAAAGCCTCATGGTCTTGTCTTTTGAGGGTT. The PCR products were then

digested with DpnI for 1 hour at 37⁰C and purified with Macherey-Nagel NucleoSpin Gel and

PCR Clean-up kit (NC0389463). The purified fragments were assembled through HiFi DNA

Assembly (NEB, E2621S) to generate the Pkd2-sfGFP construct (QC-V199).

To generate Pkd2-His$_6$ and Pkd2-sfGFP-His$_6$ for the HeLa CFE reaction, the SUN1^{FL}-

His$_6$ construct in pT7-CFE1-Chis (Majumder et al., 2018) was used as a template for Gibson

assembly cloning. Initially, Pkd2 was amplified from QC-V199 using the primers Pkd2 –

Forward: CCACCACCCATATGGGATCCGAATTCATGAGGCTTTGGAGAAGCCC and

Pkd2 – Reverse:

CTCGAGTGCGGCCGCGTCGACTTAACGAAAGCATTGTTAGGTAATGG with Phusion

High-Fidelity DNA Polymerase. The DNA of Pkd2–sfGFP was amplified from QC-V199 using

the primers Pkd2 – sfGFP – Forward:

CACCCATATGGGATCCGAATTCATGAGGCTTTGGAGAAGCCCAC and Pkd2 – sfGFP –

Reverse: CGAGTGCGGCCGCGTCGACCTTATAAAGCTCGTCCATTCCGTGAG. The next

step was to insert Pkd2 or Pkd2-sfGFP into pT7-CFE1-CHis downstream from the T7 promoter

construct by replacing SUN1^{FL} with Pkd2 in the pT7-CFE1-CHis construct (Thermo Fisher

Scientific). To remove SUN1^{FL} from the pT7-CFE1-SUN1^{FL}-His$_6$ construct (Majumder et al.,

2019) as the backbone, we used primers pT7-CFE-Forward:

GAATGGACGAGCTTTATAAGGTCGACGCGGCCGCACTC and pT7-CFE-Reverse:

GCTTCTCCAAAGCCTCATGAATTCGGATCCCATATGGGTGGTG with Phusion High-

Fidelity DNA Polymerase for PCR amplification. Afterward, the resulting PCR products, Pkd2,

Pkd2-sfGFP, and pT7CFE-CHis, were digested with DpnI for 1 hour at 37°C and subsequently

purified with the QIAquick Gel Extraction Kit (Qiagen #28704). They were ligated with

homemade Gibson Master Mix (**Table S1**) to create pT7-CFE1-Pkd2-CHis and pT7-CFE1-

Pkd2-sfGFP-CHis constructs.

CFE reaction

We used the 1-Step Human Coupled IVT Kit (Thermo Fisher Scientific #88881) to produce

Pkd2 protein in vitro. The reaction was carried out based on the manufacturer's protocol. Briefly,

1 µl plasmid DNA (~500 ng/µl) was used for one 10 µl reaction. G-GECO plasmid was used in a

previous study (Majumder et al., 2017). CFE reactions were carried out at 30°C for 3 hours.

Pkd2-sfGFP expression was measured on a fluorescence plate reader (Biotek Synergy H1).

SUPER template generation

Supported bilayer with excess membrane reservoir (SUPER) templated beads were generated

following a published protocol (Neumann et al., 2013). For SUPER template formation, 25 µl of

small unilamellar vesicle (SUV) solution was fused with 2 µl of 5 µm silica beads (Bangs

Laboratories) in the presence of 1 M NaCl. The final SUPER templated beads were washed with

PBS twice by centrifuging at 200 g for 2 minutes and then resuspended in 30 µl of milli-Q water

at a final concentration of ~9.6×10^6 beads/ml. The SUPER template stock can be stored at room

temperature for 3 hours.

For SUV generation, 75% 1,2-dioleoyl-*sn*-glycero-3-phosphatidylcholine (DOPC),

24.9% cholesterol, and 0.1% Rhod-PE for a final concentration of 1 mM were mixed and dried

under vacuum for 1 hour. 1 ml milli-Q water was then added, and the tube was thoroughly

vortexed. The mixture was then passed through a liposome-extruder (T&T Scientific, Knoxville,

TN) with 100 nm porous membrane for 11 times to generate SUVs.

Vesicle encapsulation system

Vesicles were generated by modifying the continuous droplet interface crossing encapsulation

(cDICE) method. The device contains a rotor chamber made with clear resin using a 3D printer

(Formlabs) mounted on the servo motor of a benchtop stir plate. The procedure involves an inner

solution (IS), outer solution (OS), and lipid-in-oil solution (LOS). HeLa-based CFE reactions

with the addition of 5% OptiPrep (to increase the density to aid sedimentation of GUVs) were

prepared as the IS. OS stock (115 mM HEPES, 23 mM $MgCl_2$, 1.15M KCl, 770 mM glucose)

was diluted with Milli-Q water to the same osmolarity matching that of the IS. The LOS consists

of 40% DOPC, 30% DOPE, 29.9% cholesterol, and 0.1% Rhod-PE in mole percentage with a

total lipid concentration of 0.4 mM was thoroughly mixed with the desired volume of 1:4

mineral oil:silicon oil by vortexing for at least 10 seconds. The water-in-oil emulsion was first

generated by vigorously pipetting CFE reactions in 500 µL of LOS ~10 times. 700 µL of

aqueous OS, 5 mL of LOS and the water-in-oil emulsion were then sequentially added into the

cDICE chamber rotating at 700 rpm. After 2 minutes of rotation, vesicles accumulating in the OS

near the chamber wall could be gently collected from the capped hole near the outer edge of the

chamber.

Airfuge fractionation assay

After the CFE reaction was completed, it was collected in a 1.5 mL microcentrifuge tube and

373 then mixed well with 30 µl of extraction buffer (20 mM HEPES-KOH, pH 7.5, 45 mM

374 potassium acetate, 45 mM KCl, 1.8 mM magnesium acetate, 1 mM dithiothreitol (DTT)). 40 µl

375 of the mixture was then transferred to an ultracentrifuge tube and centrifuged at around 100,000

376 g for 15 minutes at room temperature using an airfuge (Beckman Coulter). After the

377 centrifugation, 20 µl of the supernatant was carefully recovered and transferred to a 1.5 mL

378 microcentrifuge tube without disturbing the pellet, and the remaining 20 µl of pellet fraction was

379 resuspended by pipetting up and down to thoroughly mix before transferring to another

380 microcentrifuge tube. The centrifugation cycles mentioned above can be repeated multiple times,

381 as shown in **Fig. S2A**. To investigate the protein incorporation, 2 µl of SUPER templated beads

382 were added and incubated with the supernatant and pellet fractions respectively for 30 minutes at

383 room temperature and then centrifuged at 300 g for 3 minutes. After the centrifugation, SUPER

384 templated beads were visible as a small white pellet, and the remaining supernatant was collected

385 as the final pellet fraction. The SUPER template pellets were washed twice with PBS by

386 centrifuging at 200 g for 2 minutes and then resuspended in 30 µl of milli-Q water at a final

387 concentration of ~9.6×10^6 beads/ml. Following the recovery of fractions, the amount of cell-free

388 expressed Pkd2 in each fraction can be determined by visualizing fluorescence proteins on an

389 SDS-PAGE gel.

390 **Pronase digestion assay**

391 Lyophilized *S. griseus* pronase (Roche) was dissolved in Milli-Q water to a stock concentration

392 of 6 mg/ml and stored at 4°C for a maximum of 3 days. After 1 hour of incubation of CFE

393 reactions with SUPER templates, the beads were pelleted by centrifugation at 300 g for 3

394 minutes. The supernatant was then gently removed and collected for fluorescence gel imaging.

395 The remaining bead pellets were washed twice with 1 ml of PBS (Ca^{2+} and Mg^{2+}-free, pH 7.5)

by centrifugation at 200 g for 2 minutes, followed by resuspension in 20 µl of PBS. Next, 10 µl

of the SUPER templated beads in PBS was incubated with 5 µl of pronase stock solution (6

mg/ml) at room temperature for 15 minutes. The final concentration of pronase was 2 mg/ml,

and the other 10 µl of beads were used for observing the protein incorporation as a control.

Confocal fluorescence images were taken 15 minutes after the addition of pronase.

Confocal fluorescence microscopy and in-gel imaging of in vitro reconstituted Pkd2.

All images were acquired using an oil immersion 60×/1.4 NA Plan-Apochromat objective with

an Olympus IX-81 inverted fluorescence microscope (Olympus, Japan) controlled by

MetaMorph software (Molecular Devices, USA) equipped with a CSU-X1 spinning disk

confocal head (Yokogawa, Japan), AOTF-controlled solid-state lasers (Andor, Ireland), and an

iXON3 EMCCD camera (Andor). Images of sfGFP and lipid fluorescence were acquired with

488 nm laser excitation at an exposure time of 500 ms and with 561 nm laser excitation at an

exposure time of 100 ms, respectively. Each acquired image contained ~5 lipid bilayer vesicles

or ~10 lipid-coated beads that had settled upon a 96-well glass-bottom plate or a coverslip,

respectively. Three images were taken at different locations across a well or coverslip for an

individual experiment. Three independent repeats were carried out for each experimental

condition. Samples were always freshly prepared before each experiment.

FluoroTect Green lysine-tRNA (green lysine) was purchased from Promega. In-gel

imaging of Pkd2-sfGFP or Pkd2 was carried out on a Sapphire biomolecular imager (Azure

Biosystems). Samples were not heated to retain in-gel sfGFP and green lysine fluorescence.

Image analysis

To quantify the fluorescence inside the lipid bilayer vesicles, all images were analyzed using

MATLAB. All data are included for analysis without blinding. Since all the vesicles were

labeled with rhodamine PE, the edges/boundaries of vesicles were first detected and isolated,

corresponding to the red fluorescence rings using the function 'imfindcircles' embedded in

MATLAB. Averaged background intensity measurements were then performed for each image

by the average fluorescence (of all pixels), excluding the area of vesicles defined by the code in

MATLAB from the previous step. For quantification, the final fluorescence intensity of each

vesicle was obtained by averaging the fluorescence of all the pixels inside the vesicles after

subtracting the average background intensity. For the box plots marking the first and third

quartile and the median in **Fig. 2F**, each data point represents the fluorescence of one vesicle

after normalization with respect to the average background subtracted fluorescence intensity of

vesicles corresponding to the cell-free expressed proteins at time zero under each condition.

Since there are two independent variables, time and osmotic condition/osmolarity, statistical

analysis was performed using two-way ANOVA followed by Dunnett's post-hoc test for all data

among all groups throughout the whole experiment. The quantitative data was

compared/analyzed between the individual groups at a certain time followed by a two-tailed *t*-

test with a significance level of 0.05. $P < 0.05$ was considered statistically significant. P values

are indicated as *: $P < 0.05$; **: $P < 0.01$; ***: $P < 0.001$.

Yeast genetics and cell culture

We followed the standard protocols for yeast cell culture and genetics (Moreno et al., 1991).

Tetrads were dissected with a Spore+ micromanipulator (Singer, UK). All the fission yeast

strains used in this study are listed in **Supplemental Table S2**.

Microscopy of fission yeast cells

For microscopy, cells were first inoculated in a YE5S medium for two days at 25°C. 1 ml of the

exponentially growing cell culture, at a density between 5×10^6/ml and 1.0×10^7/ml, was harvested

by centrifugation at 4,000 rpm for 1 min. They were washed three times with synthetic EMM

medium ($[Ca^{2+}]$ = 107 µM) and re-suspended in 1 ml of EMM before proceeding for

microscopy. 20 µl of the resuspended cells were spotted in a 10-mm Petri dish with a glass

coverslip (#1.5) at the bottom (D35-10-1.5N, Cellvis, USA). The coverslip was pre-coated with

50 µl of 50 µg/ml lectin (Sigma, L2380) and allowed to dry overnight at 4°C. The cells were

allowed to attach to the coverslip for 10 mins at room temperature before addition of another 2

ml EMM in the Petri dish.

We employed a spinning disk confocal microscope for fluorescence microscopy using an

Olympus IX71 unit equipped with a CSU-X1 spinning-disk unit (Yokogawa, Japan). The

motorized stage (ASI, USA) includes a Piezo Z Top plate for acquiring Z-series. The images

were captured on an EMCCD camera (IXON-897, Andor) controlled by iQ3.0 (Andor). Solid-

state lasers of 488 and 561 nm were used at a power of no more than 2.5 mW. Unless specified,

we used a 60×objective lens (Olympus, Plan Apochromat, NA = 1.40). A Z-series of 8 slices at a

spatial distance of 1 µm was captured at each time point. The microscopy was carried out in a

designated room maintained at 22 ± 2°C. To minimize environmental variations, we typically

imaged both control and experimental groups in randomized order on the same day.

We employed a CellASIC ONIX2 system controlled by a desktop computer through the

ONIX software (EMD Millipore) to apply osmotic shock. Using yeast haploid microfluidics

plate (Y04C, EMD Millipore), we pushed the cells into the imaging chamber at a pressure of 5-8

PSI for a minimum of 2 minutes using EMM media. The trapped cells were equilibrated in EMM

for 10 mins at a pressure of 1.45 PSI. The same pressure was applied for the media exchange

afterwards.

Calcium imaging of fission yeast cells and data analysis

To measure the intracellular calcium level of single fission yeast cells, we quantified the

fluorescence intensity of cells expressing GCaMP-mCherry (Poddar et al., 2021). Whenever a

temperature shift was required, cells were imaged after incubation at 36ºC for 4 hours. The

fluorescence intensity of each cell was quantified using average intensity projections of the Z-

series after the background subtraction. To measure the intracellular fluorescence, we quantified

the average fluorescence intensity on a line drawn along the long axis of a cell. Background

fluorescence was calculated similarly by measuring the areas without any cells.

For time-lapse measurement of calcium spikes, we quantified the fluorescence intensity

of cells expressing GCaMP. The GCaMP fluorescence was quantified from the average intensity

projection of the Z-series on a line along the long axis of a cell throughout osmotic shock. The

fluorescence intensities were background subtracted and normalized to the average value before

application of osmotic shock. Amplitudes of a calcium spike were defined as $\Delta F/F_0$. ΔF equals to

F_{max}, the maximum value during the first ten minutes after osmotic shock, minus the baseline

value F_0, calculated as the average of the five data points before osmotic shock.

Computation-assisted quantification of cytokinetic calcium spikes

We applied custom-written software to extract the parameters of cytokinetic calcium spikes from

time-lapse microscopy. Specifically, the analysis of the separation spikes was performed in two

separate segments, prior and post to cell separation. The first step of this analysis involves

removal of background noise to increase the signal to noise ratio (SNR) by preprocessing the

image sequences extracted from the videos. The images were passed through a median filter,

which smoothens the images while preserving their spatiotemporal resolution. The background

fluorescence was removed by subtracting the temporal average of each median-filtered pixel

value from the median-filtered images at each time point. A binary mask was generated by

further subtracting the average pixel value of each frame and binarizing the images using Otsu's

thresholding method. The signal from individual cells were identified by applying the binary

mask on the median-filtered background-subtracted images and the average fluorescence

intensity value per pixel was calculated for each frame. For post-cell separation, the two daughter

cells were analyzed separately. The aforementioned steps were also applied on the daughter cells

separately, i.e. median filtering followed by background subtraction and application of the binary

mask. Additionally, we applied a size-based filter to digitally eliminate any other fragments of

cells that may be present within the field of view and interfere with the analysis. This filtering

was done by detecting the objects (cells) and calculating their area. Any object with size below a

pre-set cutoff was eliminated from Analysis. The cut-off size was manually calculated based on

the average of more than 20 different cells.

The time dependent average fluorescence intensity (per pixel in each frame) was recorded

for each cell both before and after the cell separation. Temporal averaging of the signal was

performed in order to eliminate any minute fluctuations within the data and intensity values

lower than a threshold value was nullified. The locations of the peaks are defined by the point of

inversion of the derivative from positive to negative. These locations (frame number/timepoint)

and the average fluorescence intensity values corresponding to these time points were recorded

and used for analysis.

The temporal average of the baseline fluorescence intensity value (per pixel) was

calculated by applying the binary mask on the original images without any preprocessing. The

baseline for the parent cell and the two daughter cells were calculated separately. The video

processing and analysis was performed by implementing our custom developed code in

MATLAB (MathWorks, MA).

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518 **Figure and Figure Legends**
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Figure 1: Localization of cell-free expressed Pkd2 in SUPER template. (A) Schematic
illustrating the use of CFE for in vitro protein production and testing the incorporation of
membrane proteins by using SUPER templates. SUPER templated beads are added to the CFE
reaction expressing Pkd2 protein fused to sfGFP at the C-terminus and incubated together. CFE
reaction and SUPER templates are then isolated by low-speed centrifugation for running a gel or
imaging, respectively. **(B)** Fluorescence gel image of cell-free expressed Pkd2-sfGFP added to
SUPER templates. **(C)** Brightfield and fluorescence micrograph of SUPER templates incubated
with cell-free expressed Pkd2-sfGFP. Beads were washed with PBS before imaging. Scale bar:
10 μm.

Figure 2: Pkd2 reconstituted in GUVs responds to osmotic pressure. **(A)** Schematic illustrating the directional insertion of cell-free expressed Pkd2 protein into the lipid bilayer membrane of SUPER templated beads and GUVs. Pkd2 channels are oriented with their C-termini protruding away from the lipid-coated beads and with their C-termini pointing inside the vesicles. **(B)** Schematic illustrates the formation of vesicles encapsulating cell-free expressed proteins using cDICE, followed by applying osmotic shock to Pkd2-containing GUVs. Vesicles were formed in iso-osmotic conditions and then milli-Q water was added to the outer solution to create a hypo-osmotic environment. 100 mM $CaCl_2$ stock solution is added to the hypo-osmotic external solution to a final concentration of 10 mM. **(C)** Representative fluorescence micrographs of vesicles encapsulating 1 mM EGTA and cell-free expressed Pkd2 and G-GECO at t =10 min after applying osmotic shock. Plasmid concentrations of Pkd2 and G-GECO were fixed at 1 nM. The final concentration of Ca^{2+} in the hypo-osmotic external solution was 10 mM. The aqueous external solution was made by diluting the external solution stock (HEPES: $MgCl_2$: KCl: glucose (in mM) = 15:3:150:50) with milli-Q water. The osmolarity difference between iso-osmotic and hypo-osmotic solutions was kept at 100 mOsm. **(D)** Representative fluorescence micrographs of vesicles expressing Pkd2 and G-GECO with addition of $GdCl_3$ for blocking the

force-activated function of Pkd2 channels under osmotic shock. GdCl$_3$ was added to the outer
solution with the final concentration fixed at 1 mM. The same method and solutions/conditions
described in (C) applied osmotic pressure to the vesicles. The images were taken 15 minutes
after the application of osmotic shock. Vesicles expressing Pkd2 and G-GECO without the
addition of GdCl$_3$ served as a control. **(E)** Representative fluorescence micrographs of vesicles
encapsulating cell-free expressed Pkd2 and G-GECO under different hypo-osmotic environments
at specified time points. The concentrations of EGTA, Pkd2, G-GECO, and Ca^{2+} were the same
as indicated in (C). **(F)** Box plot depicting the fluorescence intensities of vesicles under different
osmotic conditions and times. At least thirty vesicles were analyzed for each condition. All
experiments were repeated three times under identical conditions. Scale bars: 10 μm. ***: P <
0.001.
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Figure 3: Intracellular calcium level was reduced in *pkd2* mutant cells. The intracellular
calcium level of *wild type* (*WT*) and *pkd2* mutant cells at either the permissive temperature of
25°C (A and B) or the restrictive temperature of 36°C (C and D). **(A and C)** Representative
fluorescence micrographs of *wild type* (top) and *pkd2* mutant (bottom) cells expressing GCaMP-
mCherry. Arrowhead: a cell with elevated calcium level. **(B and D)** Scatter interval plot of
intracellular calcium level of the *wild type* and the *pkd2* mutant cells. The average calcium level
of *pkd2-81KD* cells was 3% lower than that of *wild type* cells. In contrast, the average calcium
level of *pkd2-B42* cells was 34% lower than the *wild type* at 36°C. All data are pooled from three
biological repeats. **: $P < 0.01$. ***: $P < 0.001$. Two-tailed student t-tests with unequal variants
were used. Scale bars: 10 µm.

Figure 4: Pkd2 mutations reduced calcium spikes triggered by hypo-osmotic shock. (A)
Time course of the osmolarity of the extracellular environment in the microfluidics chamber.
Time zero: application of hypo-osmotic shock through replacing EMM plus 1.2M sorbitol with
EMM media. **(B)** Time course of the cell width changes during the hypo-osmotic shock. Cloud
represents standard deviations. Both *wild type* (*WT*) and *pkd2-81KD* cells expanded their cell
width significantly after shock, but the *wild type* expanded more than the *pkd2-81KD* mutant. **(C)**
Time-lapse micrographs of *wild type* and *pkd2-81KD* cells expressing GCaMP. The hypo-
osmotic shock triggered calcium spikes. **(D)** Violin plot comparing calcium spikes amplitude of
wild type, *pkd2-81KD,* and *pkd2-B42* cells (n > 360). **(E)** Time course of normalized GCaMP
fluorescence during hypo-osmotic shock. Cloud represents standard deviations. All data are
pooled from at least three biological repeats. ***: P < 0.001. Two-tailed student t-tests with
unequal variants were used. Scale bars: 10 μm.

Figure 5: Pkd2 mutations reduced the separation calcium spikes.
(A) Diagram of the time course of cytokinetic calcium spikes in fission yeast cells. **(B-D)**
Mutations of *pkd2* enhanced the constriction calcium spikes. **(B)** Time-lapse micrographs of a
wild type (WT) and a *pkd2-81KD* cell expressing both GCaMP (pseudo-colored) and Rlc1-
tdtomato (gray). Number: the time after the start of the contractile ring constriction. **(C)** Time
courses of the average GCaMP fluorescence of the wild type and two *pkd2* mutants *(pkd2-81KD
and pkd2-B42)* cells (n>40) throughout the contractile ring constriction. Cloud represents
standard deviation. **(D)** Dot plot of the peak amplitude of the constriction spikes. Line: average.
(E-G) Mutations of *pkd2* reduced the separation calcium spikes. **(E)** Time-lapse micrographs of
separating wild type (WT) and *pkd2-81KD* cells expressing GCaMP (pseudo-colored). Number:
the time after the cell separation. Arrowhead: cell separation. **(F)** Time course of the average
GCaMP fluorescence of the wild type and two *pkd2* mutants *(pkd2-81KD and pkd2-B42)* cells
(n>32). Cloud represents standard deviation. **(G)** Dot plot of the peak amplitude of the separation
calcium spikes. Line: average. All the data are pooled from at least three independent biological
repeats. ***: P < 0.001 (Two-tailed student t-test).

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