Remodeling of the secretory pathway is coordinated with *de novo* membrane formation in budding yeast gametogenesis

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Abstract

Gametogenesis in budding yeast involves large-scale rearrangement of membrane traffic to

allow *de novo* formation of a membrane, called the prospore membrane (PSM). However,

the mechanism underlying this event is not fully elucidated. Here, we show that the number

of endoplasmic reticulum exit sites (ERES) per cell fluctuates and switches from decreasing

to increasing upon the onset of PSM formation. Reduction in ERES number is accompanied

by a transient stall in membrane traffic, resulting in loss of the preexisting Golgi apparatus

from the cell, as well as local ERES regeneration, leading to Golgi reassembly in nascent

spores. We have revealed that protein phosphatase-1 (PP-1) and its development-specific

subunit, Gip1, promote ERES regeneration through Sec16 foci formation. Furthermore, a

mutant with impaired ERES formation showed defects in PSM growth and spore formation.

Thus, ERES regeneration in nascent spores facilitates the segregation of membrane traffic

organelles, leading to PSM growth.

Key words: sporulation, meiosis, membrane traffic, Endoplasmic reticulum, Golgi apparatus,

ER exit sites, Saccharomyces cerevisiae, Sec16, COPII

Introduction

Gametogenesis of budding yeast, a developmental process consisting of meiosis and spore formation, in which chromosomes stored within the nucleus undergo a single round of replication followed by two successive rounds of segregation to produce haploid gametes. In meiosis II, a newly generated membrane, the prospore membrane (PSM), is formed at the cytoplasmic surface of the spindle pole body (SPB) embedded in the nuclear membrane, and the haploid set of chromosomes in the nucleus is engulfed by the growing PSM, along with organelles and cytosol[1]. This process is triggered by starvation and accompanied by a massive remodeling in the mother cell and is carried out through the strict control of transcription and translation, which also depends on membrane traffic[1,2]. Hence, a sporulating cell regulates the number of spores by producing the PSM only at modified SPBs in response to the available nutrients, resulting in the formation of fewer than four spores per cell[3,4].

In mitotic cell growth, both secretory cargo molecules and lipids synthesized in the endoplasmic reticulum (ER) are first transported to the Golgi apparatus then sorted to their final destinations, post-Golgi compartments and the extracellular space. The itinerary of this default secretory pathway is dramatically altered during meiosis, and its destination is changed to the PSM[5]. In this case, the formation of the PSM is initiated by converting the molecular mechanisms of post-Golgi vesicle fusion with the plasma membrane in mitotic cells, and limiting the location of vesicle fusion to the cytoplasmic surface of the SPB[6]. The mother cell requires a large supply of lipids to generate from scratch the large membrane structures that later become the gamete's plasma membrane. To accomplish this, not only the conversion of membrane traffic but also lipid transport by Vps13, a newly identified lipid transporter, and its adaptor complex, are required[7-11]. The Vps13 complex is assumed to transport lipids directly from the ER to the PSM through its hydrophobic tunnel-like structure[7,12]. Although various studies have shed light on the mechanisms of nascent PSM formation, the integrated regulation of membrane traffic throughout the cell during meiotic progression remains unclear.

Transport of cargo proteins from the ER is mediated by the COPII transport carrier that is formed at specialized ER subdomains called ER exit sites (ERES)[13]. The COPII carrier consists of inner coat Sec23-Sec24 and outer coat Sec13-Sec31 complexes that are recruited to the membrane by the active Sar1-GTPase[14]. ERES are preferentially formed at the high-curvature domain of the ER that is composed of fenestrated sheets and tubules[15]. Sec16 is a large peripheral membrane protein and a key molecule for ERES organization, since its dysfunction causes failure of COPII-mediated transport as well as ERES formation[16,17]. The potential function of Sec16 in ERES organization is widely conserved

throughout eukaryotes, but its regulation differs among organisms[18]. In mammals, during mitosis, the ERES collapse and the Golgi fragment disperses into the cytoplasm, thereby the secretory pathway is transiently attenuated[19,20]. In *Drosophila melanogaster*, upon starvation, Sec16 is released from the ER membrane and sequestered in a phase-separated granule with several COPII-forming factors[21]. This sequestration is bidirectional and is assumed to function as a reservoir to initiate COPII formation quickly after recovery from starvation. Mammalian cell division and the starvation response of flies are processes that involve large-scale remodeling, in which cells employ integrated regulation of membrane traffic via its starting point, the ERES. Gametogenesis in budding yeast also involves cellular remodeling, but it is not well understood whether ERES formation is similarly regulated.

We previously showed that the cortical ER, a subset of the ER closely associated with the plasma membrane, is reorganized upon PSM formation and that the PSM acts as a border to keep the Golgi apparatus inside[22]. More recently, the molecular mechanisms responsible for the morphology of the ER during meiosis and for the distribution of the mitochondria have also been elucidated[23,24]. Although these organellar remodeling processes are shown to be a system to exclude unnecessary organelles rather than an active transport machinery toward the gametes, they are crucial to the cell, as it is inherently linked to cell rejuvenation by eliminating age-related factors from the gametes[2,25]. In this case, the PSM provides a barrier between age-related factors such as damaged organelles and those including chromosomes to be inherited by the next generation. Thus the progeny become protected by the robust spore wall formed in the lumen of PSMs, while the remaining age-related factors are degraded either by autophagy and subsequent vacuolar rupture[26].

In this study, we revealed the dynamics of ERES during gametogenesis and its involvement in PSM formation; ERES formation is transiently inactivated during meiosis, while ERES regeneration is locally activated in the region surrounded by the PSM in meiosis II to extend the PSM. Analysis of mutants defective in PSM formation revealed that Gip1, a meiosis-specific targeting subunit of PP1[27,28], functions in ERES remodeling, and whose direct contribution to PSM formation was previously unknown. PP1-dependent ERES remodeling occurs through Sec16, and the analysis of factors involved in COPII-carrier formation suggests that the reorganization of membrane traffic in presumptive spores is the system responsible for the segregation of membrane traffic into gametes, and that lipid supply through the secretory pathway contributes to PSM growth. Overall, our study suggests that developmental regulation of membrane traffic coordinates *de novo* membrane formation and organellar segregation to the progeny.

Results

ERES numbers fluctuate in meiosis.

Meiotic development includes the faithful inheritance of essential organelles such as the nucleus, mitochondria, and ER for the generation of spore gametes. To characterize morphologies of the organelles for membrane traffic in detail upon meiotic development, time-course observation of the ER was performed in cells expressing the transmembrane domain of ER-localized tethering protein, Scs2, fused with mNeonGreen (mNG-Scs2TM) and chromatin (Htb2-mCherry) (Fig. 1A). In premeiotic cells, reticular cortical ER expanded underneath the plasma membrane and was retained as in vegetatively growing cells (Fig. 1A. 0-3 hrs). Detachment of cortical ER from the plasma membrane and the expansion of cytoplasmic ER were observed before the first meiotic division (Fig. 1A. 4 hr), then they were subsequently lost as meiosis progressed, presumably being absorbed into the nuclear ER (Fig. 1A. 5 hr-). In metaphase II to anaphase II cells, ER signals were detected in association with dividing nuclei (Fig. 1A. 6-9 hrs), similar to that observed previously[22]. Subsequently, regeneration of the cortical ER underneath the spore plasma membrane was seen after completion of spore maturation (Fig. 1A. 10 hr), consistent with the prior data[23].

ERES are sites for the assembly of COPII transport carriers and are formed preferentially at the high-curvature domain of the ER[15]. Observation of ERES, visualized by Sec13-GFP, in pre-meiotic cells showed numerous spots in the peripheral region of the cell. In contrast, as meiosis progresses, cells showed the disappearance of a cortically localized portion of ERES; instead, they accumulate in the cytoplasm (Fig. 1B). To analyze ERES dynamics in meiotic development, time-course observation of ERES was also performed with chromatin marked by Htb2-mCherry (Fig. 1C). Numerous punctate structures of ERES in premeiotic cells were similarly observed as in mitotic cells, but their number gradually decreased and then increased after metaphase II (Fig. 1D). Although the number of ERES fluctuated gradually during meiotic progression, average signal intensities for Sec13-GFP were relatively stable (Fig. S1A, S1B). We reasoned that the observed change in the number of ERES could correspond to the activity of COPII generation. In the fruit fly, *D. melanogaster*, amino acid starvation leads to the coalescence of Sec16, the scaffold protein for the assembly of COPII transport carriers, into large membrane-less organelles called sec bodies, which are thought to act as a reservoir for ERES in harsh conditions[21]. In our condition for budding yeast meiosis, Sec16-GFP was similarly distributed and colocalized with Sec13-mCherry (Fig. S1C, S1D). Analyzing Sec13-GFP dynamics by fluorescence recovery after photobleaching (FRAP), we showed that Sec13-GFP molecules exchange rapidly between ERES and the cytoplasm in vegetatively growing cells. The half-time to recovery was 4.6 seconds (+/- 2.4 seconds). By contrast, in cells undergoing meiosis, the

half-time to recovery for meiosis I and II was 18.8 seconds (+/- 16.9 seconds) and 26.5

seconds (+/- 21.6 seconds), respectively (Fig. S1E and S1F). These data indicate that the

activity of ERES persists, but its dynamics specifically slowed down in the progression of

meiosis.

ERES forms *de novo* in the spore cytoplasm.

In anaphase II cells, ERES always localize in association with dividing

chromosomes and were considered to be segregated to gametes. Indeed, ERES were

precisely segregated into presumptive spores (Fig. 1C). We next investigated the proper

timing of ERES segregation into nascent spores. The PSM is formed by the coalescence of

post-Golgi vesicles at the cytoplasmic face of SPBs[1]. Based on time-course observation of

PSM perimeters, PSM growth was categorized into the initial fusion process, horseshoe,

elongation, and mature stages[10], and ERES segregation was found in cells with the

horseshoe stage (Fig. 1C). To further characterize the segregation of ERES during PSM

formation, we then performed 3D live-cell imaging of ERES and PSM dynamics by

super-resolution confocal live imaging microscopy (SCLIM)[29,30]. ERES first appeared inside

the PSM at the stage (~12 min) in which the PSM showed horseshoe-like morphology, then

ERES proliferated inside PSMs during the elongation stage until the completion of PSM

maturation (Fig. 1E and Movie S1). Taken together, these data reveal that the collapse of

ERES leads to the decrease of their number in the cell during meiotic progression until the

onset of PSM formation, then they are formed *de novo* and proliferate in the cytoplasm of

nascent spores.

Change in ERES number coincides with the Golgi disappearance and reappearance.

In yeast, the Golgi can form *de novo*, as COPII vesicles arising from ERES fuse to

form a post-ER compartment and then presumably mature into *cis*-cisterna of the Golgi[13,31].

We have previously shown that the nascent PSM functions as a diffusion barrier for the

Golgi[22], however, detailed dynamics of the ER-Golgi unit during meiosis have not been

examined. To this end, we investigated whether the collapse and regeneration of the Golgi

in cells are also observed during meiotic progression and PSM formation. To observe the

Golgi apparatus, we chose the fluorescently tagged Golgi-resident proteins, Mnn9-sfGFP, a

cis-Golgi resident mannosyltransferase, Sys1-Envy, a receptor for Arl3 GTPase residing in

trans-Golgi, and *trans*-Golgi network (TGN) marker, Sec7-Envy[32,33] (Fig. 2). Although

numerous spots for these markers were seen in vegetative and pre-meiotic cells (Fig. 2,

Initial-stages), signals at the Golgi were not detected in a certain population of the cells in

the early process of PSM formation (Fig. 2A, 2B, horseshoe-stages). Note that weak signals

182 for Mnn9-sfGFP at the ER and Sys1-Envy at the vacuole were observed in these cells. As

183 the PSM elongates, however, the presumptive spores completely acquired dot-like signals

184 for these marker proteins (Fig. 2A, 2B, arrowheads in elongation-stages). These

185 observations could reflect both disassembly and regeneration of the Golgi during the

186 formation of PSMs, which might be based on the change of ERES number in meiosis. A

187 similar tendency was also observed for Sec7-Envy, a TGN-localized marker, which

188 appeared much earlier in PSM growth (Fig. 2C). These findings indicate that the decrease in

189 the number of Golgi foci corresponds to the decrease in ERES number, and they

190 reassemble within the spore cytoplasm possibly from the fusion of COPII vesicles arising

191 from ERES.

193 **Determinants of ER shape are important for change in ERES numbers.**

194  The site of ERES formation is restricted to the high-curvature region of the ER[15].

195 As reticulons and DP1/Yop1 are factors stabilizing the network-like morphology of the ER[34],

196 ERES accumulate at the edge of the expanded sheet of the ER in *rtn1∆ rtn2∆ yop1∆* cells[15].

197 In meiosis, reticulon-mediated ER curvature has been reported to lead directly or indirectly

198 to the cortical detachment and cabling of the ER[23]. To test whether the changes in ERES

199 numbers are also affected in this situation, we analyzed the morphology of the ER and the

200 distributions of ERES numbers in *rtn1∆ rtn2∆ yop1∆* cells. Consistent with the previous

201 observation[23], there was no expansion of the cytoplasmic ER or absorption into the nuclear

202 ER, rather smooth, sheet-like structures were retained near the cortical region of the cell

203 (Fig. 3A, 3B). Thus, the cytoplasmic expansion is the result of the detachment of cortical ER.

204 The number of ERES was not decreased but rather persisted in metaphase II (Fig. 3C),

205 corresponding to the observed defect in morphological change of the ER in *rtn1∆ rtn2∆*

206 *yop1∆* cells. These results suggest that the number and distribution of ERES are linked, at

207 least in part, to the morphological change of the ER in meiotic development.

209 **ERES regeneration within spores requires a meiosis-specific PP1 subunit.**

210  To clarify the molecular basis for ERES regeneration within the spore cytoplasm,

211 we carried out visual inspection among the mutants displaying defects in the morphological

212 development of the PSM, including *gip1∆, vps13∆, spo71∆, spo73∆, sma2∆, spo1∆,*

213 *spo19∆*[10,28,35–37]. In this analysis, *gip1∆* showed obvious ERES regeneration defect; no

214 ERES foci were observed inside the PSM (Fig. 4A, upper panels, and 4B). Gip1 is a

215 sporulation-specific targeting subunit for Glc7, the sole catalytic subunit of PP1 in budding

216 yeast, and *gip1∆* showed multiple defects in spore development such as septin organization,

217 PSM growth, and spore wall formation[27,28]. PSM extension is facilitated independently by

unknown functions of PP1-Gip1 and Vps13-mediated lipid transport[27]. Although a similar

PSM growth defect has been shown in mutants for Vps13 and its adaptor complex

Spo71-Spo73[10], ERES distributed inside the PSM in these mutant cells (Fig. 4A, lower

panels, and 4B). Time-course analyses of the numbers of ERES distributions in *gip1Δ* and

vps13Δ mutants were indistinguishable from that in wild-type cells (Fig. 4C and Fig. 1C, 1D).

In *gip1Δ* cells, the initial process of PSM formation was normal, but the elongation was

defective, stopping at the horseshoe-stage (PSM perimeter of almost 6 μm) (Fig. 4D, *gip1Δ*).

Whereas ERES regeneration was observed in most of the wild-type cells with a PSM

perimeter of at least 2 μm (Fig. 4E, wt), the *gip1Δ* PSM failed to contain ERES, even in cells

with PSM lengths greater than 2 μm perimeters (Fig. 4E, *gip1Δ*). To assess how the

observed defect in ERES regeneration in *gip1Δ*, we conducted 3D live-cell imaging using

SCLIM. Observation of Sec13-GFP in *gip1Δ* cells showed no ERES signals accumulate

within the spore cytoplasm along with the defect in PSM elongation (Fig. 5A and Movie S2).

Quantification of the signal intensity ratio of Sec13-GFP between inside the PSM and the

entire cell, clearly showed that the *de novo* formation of ERES within the PSM in wild-type

cells, that was not observed in *gip1Δ* cells (Fig. 5B). No characteristic defect in the ER

morphological change was found in the *gip1Δ* mutant during meiosis (Fig. 5C). In *gip1Δ* cells,

regeneration of the Golgi was completely abolished in all PSMs formed (Fig. 5D).

Collectively, we propose that Gip1 is required for ERES regeneration in nascent spores to

establish membrane traffic, leading to PSM elongation.

To determine whether the observed ERES regeneration defect in *gip1Δ* cells is

caused by a failure to properly localize Glc7 or a specific function of Gip1 itself, we next

examined the localization of GFP-Glc7 in *gip1Δ* cells, then ERES regeneration in the

glc7-136 mutant, in which the Glc7 protein is defective in association with Gip1[38]. In

wild-type cells, GFP-Glc7 was first seen as dots inside the small circular PSM, which may

reflect transient SPB localization. Then GFP-Glc7 showed septin-like parallel bars along

with the growing PSM, and finally appeared in the nucleus after PSM maturation (Fig. 6A).

These localization patterns of GFP-Glc7 are consistent with the dynamic localization of Gip1

during PSM formation, which we have shown previously[27]. In *gip1Δ* cells, SPB-localization

of GFP-Glc7 was normal, but the subsequent characteristic localizations along the PSM and

septin was not observed (Fig. 6B). Moreover, ERES regeneration defect was similarly

observed in the *glc7-136* mutant allele (Fig. 6C). Previously, we mapped the

septin-localization domain in Gip1, and the deletion of this domain (Gip1-Δsep) resulted in

protein localization at the PSM instead of proper localization with septin[27], but neither PSM

growth nor sporulation defects were seen under this condition. Consistently, Gip1-Δsep was

able to suppress completely the ERES regeneration defect in *gip1Δ* cells, as the wild-type

version of Gip1 did (Fig. S2). Thus, the defect in ERES regeneration in *gip1Δ* can be the
consequence of the failure to recruit Glc7 to the PSM during PSM formation.

The next question is how the PP1-Gip1 signal is transmitted to ERES formation?
We hypothesize that the factor organizing ERES is the transducer of PP1-Gip1 during
sporulation and Sec16 is a candidate. In wild-type cells, Sec16-2xyEGFP foci were
distributed along the nucleus, which underwent alterations in miotic progression, and were
precisely segregated into the nascent spore cytoplasm, consistent with the observation of
ERES visualized with Sec13-GFP (Fig. 6D, 6E). In *gip1Δ* cells, we found that
Sec16-2xyEGFP was unable to form foci upon transition from the initial to horseshoe-stage
of PSM formation (Fig. 6F). Thus, whether directly or indirectly, PP1-Gip1 transduces
signals toward ERES regeneration via development of Sec16 foci during PSM formation.

Defect in ERES formation also affects PSM extension.
Since PSMs are formed by the fusion of post-Golgi vesicles[1], analysis of *SEC*
genes for their effects on PSM formation has been limited to late-acting *SEC* genes[6]. Thus,
we investigated the effect of components required/important for COPII carrier and ERES
formation on sporulation. Most of these components are essential for growth, but deletions
of some relatively minor components for ERES and COPII formation are viable. One of
these components, Sed4 is a non-essential paralog of Sec12, the ER-resident
transmembrane guanine-nucleotide-exchange-factor (GEF) for Sar1 GTPase, which has no
catalytic activity toward Sar1, but is proposed to stimulate Sar1 activity[39–41]. We found that a
single deletion mutant for *SED4* has defect in sporulation (Fig. 7A). Consistent with the
proposed mitotic localization of Sec12 and Sed4, at the entire ER and dot-like signals on the
ER, respectively[42], similar localizations of GFP-Sec12 and GFP-Sed4 were observed during
sporulation (Fig. 7B). When we observed the Sec13-GFP and mCh-Spo20[51-91] in *sed4Δ*, a
significant fraction of the *sed4Δ* cells showed defective ERES segregation and unequal,
aberrant PSM extension (Fig. 7C, 7D). These defects were suppressed by introducing either
full-length Sed4 or Sed4 lacking the luminal domain, which is dispensable for its function[39]
(Fig. 7C). Live-cell imaging of ERES and the PSM by SCLIM showed that, in *sed4Δ* cells,
ERES formation was normal within the PSM that showed a relatively normal extension rate,
but was defective within PSMs defective in extension (Fig. 7E, 7F, and Movie S3). These
results again confirmed that the *de novo* formation of ERES is indeed required for the
subsequent extension of PSMs.

Discussion

We investigated the dynamics of secretory pathway organelles in budding yeast

during the formation of *de novo* membranes in meiosis. In this analysis, we found that the

number of ERES, the starting point of membrane traffic, per cell decreased, and then

increased after anaphase II. The increase in ERES number was attributed to their

regeneration, which was restricted within the cytoplasmic space surrounded by the newly

formed PSM. Furthermore, we showed that ERES regeneration could be mediated through

Sec16 and is triggered by PP1-Gip1, which is specifically targeted to the inner surface of

PSMs during meiosis. A mutant defective in both COPII carrier and ERES formation showed

the PSM growth defect that is reminiscent to the defect in *gip1Δ* cells, suggesting a possible

link between these pathways. In sum, our results revealed that developmentally regulated

ERES regeneration is essential for PSM growth by mediating the segregation of organelles

that constitute membrane traffic, including the Golgi, which presumably supplies membrane

lipids to PSMs through the secretory pathway (Fig. 8). This process may also contribute to

the renewal of secretory pathway organelles that have been damaged through aging,

leading to maintenance of proteostasis.

Meiosis-specific ERES regeneration leads to both PSM formation and segregation of

the secretory pathway organelles into gametes

In mitosis, the number of ERES fluctuates, according to the processes of assembly

and disassembly, fusion and fission[15–17,43]. In the present study, we have observed that the

ERES numbers gradually decrease as meiosis progresses, and increase after the onset of

PSM formation due to local regeneration in the nascent spore cytoplasm. The ERES

dynamics and *gip1Δ* phenotype for local ERES regeneration led us to propose that there is a

signal that directly/indirectly represses ERES formation through Sec16 in the early stages of

meiosis. At the onset of PSM formation, however, ERES formation is de-repressed in a

Gip1-dependent manner. Although numerous phosphorylation sites have been found in

Sec16, their specific roles remain unclear[44]. Importantly, since the mutations in these

phosphorylated amino acids did not show any defects, either in meiotic progression or PSM

formation (data not shown), specific regulation could exist in meiosis. Candidate signaling

pathways to inhibit ERES formation include regulators that act early in meiosis, such as

Cdc5 and Hrr25[45,46]. In mammalian cells, secretion mediated by membrane traffic pauses

during mitosis[47]. This phenomenon is due to the disruption of the early secretory pathway

that is composed of ERES and the Golgi, and some parts of the mechanism have been

shown recently[20]. ERES formation in mammals is determined by the interaction between

Sec16 and TANGO1, and the affinity of TANGO1 for Sec16 is regulated by phosphorylation

in a cell cycle-dependent manner. The phosphorylation status of TANGO1 is in equilibrium

through the action of CK1 and PP1, but PP1 activity is specifically decreased during mitosis,

leading to the dissociation of Sec16 from the ER and ERES disassembly[19]. Although

TANGO1 is absent in budding yeast, development-specific regulation of Sec16 recruitment

could exist. We found that the mutant of Sed4, a regulator of the Sar1 GTPase cycle and

Sec16 localization to ERES[39,48], partially phenocopied the *gip1Δ* phenotype, suggesting a

possible involvement of these factors in the ERES formation in meiosis.

Our previous analysis of organellar segregation in sporulation is inconclusive as to

whether the Golgi segregation into spores is mediated through the active transport or PSMs

act as a diffusion barrier for the Golgi[22]. In the present study, we showed that local

regeneration of ERES and the Golgi occurs specifically in the spore cytoplasm in wild-type

cells, but neither was observed in *gip1Δ* cells. Thus, the Golgi apparatus is once dissipated

from the cell and reassembled specifically within the nascent spores during meiosis, and

this phenomenon is equivalent to the mitotic disassembly and reassembly of the Golgi in

mammalian cells. How the Golgi apparatus is formed and maintained in cells remains

elusive. To clarify such questions, live cell observations of the Golgi regeneration were

conducted in plant cells using a drug that induces Golgi disassembly followed by its

washout[49,50]. Results from the study showed that the Golgi enzymes are absorbed into the

ER upon disassembly and return to the Golgi through ERES when the Golgi is reassembled

by drug washout. Moreover, a subset of the Golgi-resident proteins underwent nucleation

near ERES as a template for Golgi regeneration occurring upon drug removal, leading the

authors to conclude that it served as the scaffold for Golgi regeneration, called Golgi entry

core compartment (GECCO)[49,51]. A similar scaffold for Golgi regeneration could be also

present in budding yeast and segregated first in the vicinity of SPBs during PSM formation.

The molecular mechanism underlying this phenomenon in meiosis is clearly regulated by

PP1-Gip1, and similar mechanisms might be involved in Golgi regeneration in mitosis.

PP1-Gip1 is also essential for the formation of the septin higher-order structure that

forms beneath PSMs, where it localizes to this formed structure[28]. We previously identified a

septin localization domain of Gip1, and showed that the Gip1 mutant that lacks this domain

(Gip1Δsep) can also trigger ERES formation and PSM formation[27]. This result is in

agreement with our previous report, in which the localization of PP1-Gip1 around PSMs is

sufficient for its function[27]. The observed sporulation defects in *gip1Δ* cells can be explained

by Gip1's function as a trigger for membrane traffic remodeling and its contribution to PSM

formation.

Nutrient starvation-triggered meiotic remodeling in yeast

In flies, and more recently in mammals, nutrient starvation is shown to result in the

formation of a membrane-less structures of Sec16, called Sec bodies, by liquid-liquid phase

separation together with a subset of COPII components[21,52]. Sec bodies are proposed to act

as temporal reservoirs for COPII components when secretion is blocked in response to

stress, that is immediately resolved upon stress removal[52]. Although yeast meiosis is a

process triggered by starvation, our results have shown that ERES are reduced in number

but do not undergo the feature of membrane-less structures; ERES remain active during

meiosis.

Gametogenesis in budding yeast regulates spore number by controlling catabolic

and anabolic pathways with available nutrients in response to starvation. In this situation,

the cell shuts off an energy-consuming secretory pathway at the ERES early in meiosis,

then lifting constraints by Gip1 in the later stage. However, the cell may take the strategy of

on membrane traffic only to produce a minimum number of spores, and Gip1 acts in this

process. This means that the cell maximizes usage of limited resources, initiating

membrane formation only at selected SPBs, and producing the determined number of

spores.

King et al. found that the mechanism of cell rejuvenation following sporulation is

achieved through the elimination of senescence factors such as non-chromosomal rDNA

circles with nuclear pore complexes from the gametes, and that PSMs are key for this

elimination[26]. In the present study, we found PP1-Gip1-triggered reorganization of

membrane traffic specifically in the cytoplasmic space engulfed by PSMs, and cells may use

this mechanism to eliminate senescence factors. The ERES has an important function not

only on the cytoplasmic side but also on the luminal side, which is to sort and filter the

transport cargo from ER-resident proteins[53]. Assuming that the bulky cargo and its receptor

are loaded into a COPII container to filter the ER-resident proteins by creating molecular

crowding[54], Sma2, its cargo receptor Erv14, and GPI-anchored proteins, including Spo19

and Cwp1[35,37], as a whole may play such a role. The work by Otto et al.[23] and our

observations indicate that a large fraction of the ER is left outside of nascent gametes upon

ER remodeling in meiosis. In this case, molecular crowding by the aforementioned bulky

cargo may contribute to the filtration of senescence factors, a subset of ER-PM tethers, left

behind from the lumen and membrane regions of the ER that are inherited by the gametes.

Our study provides a framework for the reorganization of membrane traffic during

meiosis to form PSMs. This elaborate maneuver not only generates *de novo* membrane

structures but also partitions the ERES, the Golgi, and ultimately the entire membrane traffic

itself into new cytosolic compartments created by the PSM. Importantly, a comparison of

lipid supply to the PSM with autophagosome and acrosome membrane formation points to

the fact that these membrane structures are generally cup-shaped bilayer structures with a

lumen, derived from vesicles from the Golgi, and their growth is directly mediated by lipid

transporters including Vps13 and Atg2[55,56]. During the formation of the autophagosomes,

the proximity of the autophagosomal isolation membrane to the ERES has been observed,

and direct fusion of COPII vesicles has also been proposed as a source of membrane

lipids[57,58]. Thus, the cell can utilize various strategies to assemble nascent membranes from

scratch. Identifying these individual mechanisms and uncovering their shared features will

provide key insights into both areas.

Materials and methods

Yeast strains and plasmids

Standard genetic techniques were used unless otherwise noted. All strains used in this study are derivatives of SK1. Strains and plasmids are listed in Table S1 and S2, respectively. The following alleles and plasmids were constructed in previous studies: $NDT80::hphNT1::P_{4xlexA}$-9xMyc-NDT80 and $AUR1::P_{ACT1}$-LexA-ER-haVP16::AUR1-C[7], $mTagBFP2$-Spo20$^{51\text{-}917}$, and glc7-136[28].

Deletion and tagging of genes at their endogenous loci were performed by standard PCR-based methods[58–61]. The pNC160-GFP-GLC7 was a gift from K. Tatchell[62].

To construct pRS306-mCherry-Spo20$^{51\text{-}91}$ as a marker for PSM, sequences for mCherry and a fragment of Spo20 were cloned into a URA3 integrating vector harboring the TEF1 promoter and DIT1 terminator. For the visualization of nucleus, Htb2-mCherry[10] was cloned into URA3 integrating vector. To generate pRS303-mNG-Scs2TM, sequences for mNeonGreen and a transmembrane domain of Scs2 were cloned into the HIS3 integrating vector harboring the TEF1 promoter and DIT1 terminator. The full-length gene including upstream and downstream flanking regions encoding GIP1 was cloned into the HIS3 CEN vector. To construct HIS3 integration plasmids harboring either full-length GIP1 or GIP1Δsep, corresponding sequences from CEN TRP1 plasmids[27] were digested and cloned into pRS303. All HIS3 integration plasmids were integrated into the genome by BssHII digestion. Similarly, URA3 integration constructs were integrated by cutting with EcoRV. Coding sequences for Sed4 or Sed4 without the luminal domain were cloned into the HIS3 integration vector together with upstream and downstream flanking regions, and transformed into sed4Δ::kanMX6 strains.

Growth conditions

Unless otherwise noted, standard media were used[63]. Induction of sporulation was performed essentially as described[6]. Synchronous sporulation induction by the estradiol-inducible NDT80 block/release system was carried out as described previously[7,64].

Fluorescence microscopy and image analyses

Static images were acquired with a Leica Thunder Imager Live Cell equipped with a Leica HC APO 100x oil immersion lens (NA 1.4), sCMOS camera DFC9000 GTC, as well as by using a Keyence BZ-X710. Time-lapse imaging was performed with a super-resolution confocal live imaging microscopy (SCLIM2), which we developed based on our basic imaging system SCLIM[29,30]. This system consists of a Nikon ECLIPSE Ti2-E inverted microscope equipped with a NIKON APO TIRF 100x NA 1.49 oil immersion objective lens, a

high-speed spinning-disk confocal scanner (CSU-X1, Yokogawa Electric), a custom-made

spectroscopic unit, an image intensifier (Hamamatsu Photonics) with a custom-made

cooling system, and three sCMOS cameras (Zyla 5.5, Andor) for green, red, and infrared

observation. Image acquisition was executed by NIS-Elements (Nikon). For 3D (*xyz*) and 4D

(*xyz* plus time) observations, cells induced for sporulation were immobilized on a

glass-based dish (Iwaki) by sandwiching with a 1% agarose pad containing 1% KOAc and

imaged. Stacks of ~ 50 image planes were collected with a spacing of 0.2 μm to cover the

entire cell. Z-stack images were subjected to deconvolution (iterative restoration) with

Volocity software (Perkin Elmer) using the theoretical point-spread function for spinning-disk

confocal microscopy, then combined using maximum intensity z-projection.

Image quantification

Intensity profile images for Sec13-GFP were obtained using the Metamorph built-in

module (Molecular Devices). For the quantification analysis of ERES numbers, Sec13-GFP

images were segmented into background and objects using the ilastik pixel classification

workflow[65]. Cell masks were also generated from bright field images using CellPose[66].

Distribution of the numbers for segmented ERES pixels within the area of the cell was

analyzed by Fiji and custom script in R. PSM perimeter was analyzed by Fiji. For

time-course analysis of ERES intensities, the PSM of interest was tracked manually and

fluorescent intensity (F_{PSM}) for the green channel was averaged within the region for PSM

and normalized to averaged fluorescent intensity of the whole cell (F_{cell}) over time.

FRAP analysis

FRAP analysis was performed using confocal laser scanning microscopy (LSM880,

Carl Zeiss) with a 63x Apochromat objective lens (NA 1.4) and a 488-nm laser. The

bleaching routine started with 2 pre-bleach scans followed by a bleaching scan, and the

recovery of fluorescence was monitored every 1 s for 60 s at 0.2% laser intensity. The

fluorescence recovery data were normalized using data acquired from the non-bleached

regions. Data were fitted to a double exponential curve to calculate half-time to recovery

after full scale normalization using easyFRAP software[67].

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Conceptualization: Y.S.

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Investigation: Y.S. and T.S.

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Visualization: Y.S. and T.S.

Declaration of interests

The authors declare no competing financial interests.

Figure legends

Figure 1

Distribution of ERES numbers in meiotic progression. (A) Maximum intensity projections

(top) or single planes at the center (middle) or periphery (bottom) of cells expressing

mNG-Scs2TM and Htb2-mCherry at each time point in meiosis. Detachment of cortical ER

(closed arrowhead), expansion of cytoplasmic ER (open arrowhead), and regeneration of

cortical ER within the spores (arrow) are shown. (B) Single planes at the periphery (upper

left) or center (upper right) of vegetative and sporulating cells expressing Sec13-GFP. Signal

intensity profiles for Sec13-GFP in vegetative and sporulating cells (bottom). (C) Maximum

intensity projections of cells expressing Sec13-GFP with either Htb2-mCherry or

mCherry-Spo20$^{51-91}$ at each time point after induction of meiosis. (D) Quantification of the

experiments in upper images of panel C. Median is shown as dots. (E) Regeneration of

ERES in presumptive spore. Time-lapse images of single presumptive spores from cells

expressing Sec13-GFP and mCherry-Spo20$^{51-91}$ in meiosis. Kymograph from Movie S1 is

shown.

Movie S1

Dynamics of Sec13-GFP and mCherry-Spo20$^{51-91}$ in wild-type cell, related to Figure 1E.

Figure S1

(A) Montage of cells expressing Sec13-GFP and Htb2-mCherry in meiotic progression.

Quantification of Sec13-GFP signal intensity over time is also shown. Median is shown as a

bold line. (B) Quantification of signal intensity of Sec13-GFP per cell over time. (C)

Maximum intensity projections of the cells expressing Sec16-2xyEGFP, mCherry-Spo20$^{51-91}$

in meiosis. (D) Maximum intensity projections of the cells expressing Sec16-2xyEGFP,

Sec13-2xmCherry, and tagBFP-Spo20$^{51-91}$ in meiosis. (E) FRAP analysis of Sec13-GFP at

ERES in vegetatively growing or sporulating cells. Bleached area (circle) is shown in single

plane images of the upper left. Data represents in the upper right, mean ± SEM, n≥10.

Montage of Sec13-GFP recoveries is shown in the bottom panels. (F) Quantification of

half-time recoveries of the cells in vegetative growth or in each stage of meiotic progression.

Figure 2

Regeneration of the Golgi in presumptive spores. (A-C) Upper panels depict the markers of

distinct cisternae of the Golgi in budding yeast. (A) *cis*-Golgi localized enzyme Mnn9-sfGFP

or (B) *trans*-Golgi/TGN localized transmembrane protein Sys1-Envy or (C) *trans*-Golgi/TGN

localized peripheral marker Sec7-Envy. Middle panels showing maximum intensity

projections of the cells expressing Golgi makers with PSM marker mCherry-Spo20$^{51-91}$ at
each stage of PSM progression. Lower graphs depict quantification of middle panels. The
proportion of cells with or without Golgi signals or with Golgi localized signals in the spore
cytoplasm was analyzed.

Figure 3
ER-shaping determinants are important for the distribution of ERES numbers in meiosis.
(A-B) Maximum intensity projections of anaphase II cells expressing (A) mNG-Scs2TM and
Htb2-mCherry or (B) mNG-Scs2TM and mCherry-Spo20$^{51-91}$. (C) Maximum intensity
projections of cells expressing Sec13-GFP with mCherry-Spo20$^{51-91}$ at each time point after
induction of meiosis. Lower graph shows quantification of the experiments in the upper
panels. Median is shown as dots.

Figure 4
Gip1, a sporulation-specific PP1 targeting subunit, is required for ERES capture by PSMs.
(A) Maximum intensity projections of cells with the horseshoe-stage of PSMs expressing
Sec13-GFP with mCherry-Spo20$^{51-91}$ in mutants defective for PSM growth, *gip1*Δ, *gip1*Δ
with *CEN-GIP1*, *spo71*Δ, *spo73*Δ, or *vps13*Δ. (B) Quantification of the experiments in panel
A. (C) Maximum intensity projections of mutant cells, *gip1*Δ and *vps13*Δ, expressing
Sec13-GFP with mCherry-Spo20$^{51-91}$ at each time point after induction of meiosis. Lower
graphs show quantification of the experiments in upper panels. Median is shown as dots.
(D) Representative maximum intensity projection images of wild-type and *gip1*Δ cells
expressing mCherry-Spo20$^{51-91}$ at various stages of PSM growth. Numbers indicate
average cell perimeter. Quantification of the distributions of PSM length per cell at each time
point is shown in the right. (E) Quantification of the distribution of PSM length and ERES
acquisition per cell at 7-8 hours after meiosis induction in wild-type and *gip1*Δ.

Figure 5
Gip1-dependent regeneration of ERES within presumptive spores. (A) Representative
time-lapse image of single presumptive spores from *gip1*Δ cells expressing Sec13-GFP and
mCherry-Spo20$^{51-91}$ in meiosis. Kymograph from Movie S2 is shown. (B) Quantification of
signal intensities of ERES, Sec13-GFP in the cytoplasm of single PSMs of wild-type and
*gip1*Δ cells over time. (C) Maximum intensity projection images of anaphase II cells
depicting the ER marked with mNG-Scs2TM and PSMs, mCherry-Spo20$^{51-91}$ in wild-type
and *gip1*Δ. (D) Maximum intensity projections of *gip1*Δ cells expressing Mnn9-sfGFP,
Sys1-Envy, or Sec7-Envy, with PSM marker mCherry-Spo20$^{51-91}$ at each stage of PSM

progression.

Movie S2

Dynamics of Sec13-GFP and mCherry-Spo20$^{51-91}$ in *gip1Δ* cell, related to Figure 5A.

Figure 6

Gip1-dependent foci formation of Sec16 at the onset of PSM formation. (A-B) Maximum

intensity projections of cells with various stages of PSMs expressing GFP-Glc7 with

mCherry-Spo20$^{51-91}$ in wild-type (A) and *gip1Δ* (B). (C) Representative maximum intensity

projection image of Sec13-GFP and mCherry-Spo20$^{51-91}$ in *glc7-136* cells, in which the

association between Glc7, the catalytic subunit of PP1, and Gip1, a development-specific

targeting subunit of PP1, is defective. (D-E) Maximum intensity projections of cells at

indicated stages during meiotic progression. Wild-type and *gip1Δ* cells expressing

Sec16-2xyEGFP with (D) Htb2-mCherry or (E) mCherry-Spo20$^{51-91}$. (F) Quantification of the

experiments shown in panels D and E.

Figure S2

Gip1 contributes to ERES regeneration localizing only in the vicinity of PSMs. Quantification

of ERES regeneration in presumptive spores in *gip1Δ* cells expressing full-length Gip1 or

Gip1Δsep lacking the septin localization domain.

Figure 7

Deletion of *SED4* phenocopied most of the defects observed in *gip1Δ* cells. (A)

Representative bright field images of wild-type and *sed4Δ* cells that were induced to

sporulate. Graph shows the quantification of the distribution of asci in left panels. (B)

Representative images of GFP-Sec12 or GFP-Sed4 with mCherry-Spo20$^{51-91}$ at each stage

of meiosis in wild-type cells. (C) Maximum intensity projection images of cells with

Sec13-GFP and mCherry-Spo20$^{51-91}$ in *sed4Δ* harboring empty vector, full-length *SED4*, or

SED4 lacking the luminal domain (*SED4Δlum*). (D) Quantification of the PSM perimeters in

wild-type, *gip1Δ*, and *sed4Δ*. (E) Representative time-lapse image of single presumptive

spores from *sed4Δ* cells expressing Sec13-GFP and mCherry-Spo20$^{51-91}$ in meiosis.

Kymograph from Movie S3 is shown. (F) Quantification of signal intensities of ERES,

Sec13-GFP in the cytoplasm of single PSMs of wild-type and *gip1Δ* cells over time.

Movie S3

Dynamics of Sec13-GFP and mCherry-Spo20$^{51-91}$ in *sed4Δ* cell, related to Figure 7E.

Figure 8

Model for the early step of PSM formation. Coalescence and fusion of post-Golgi vesicles

initiate nascent PSMs at SPBs. ERES formation is transiently inactivated during meiosis

(ERES in grey), while ERES regeneration is locally activated in the region surrounded by the

PSM in early anaphase II (ERES in orange). Gip1-Glc7 mediates ERES regeneration, Golgi

re-assembly, and presumably supplies membrane lipids toward PSMs via membrane traffic.

Gip1-Glc7 is also essential for septin high-order structural formation in the spore cytoplasm.

In this step, the Vps13-complex functions as the direct lipid conduit from the ER to PSMs.

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Figure 1

Figure 2

Figure 3

A *rtn1Δ rtn2Δ yop1Δ*

Htb2-mCh   mNG-Scs2TM   Merge

B *rtn1Δ rtn2Δ yop1Δ*

mCh-Spo20$^{51-91}$ mNG-Scs2TM   Merge

C

Time (hr)   0   1   2   3   4   5   6   7   8   9   10

Sec13-GFP
mCh-Spo20$^{51-91}$

Figure 4

A Sec13-GFP mCh-Spo20^51-91

wt | gip1Δ | GIP1 gip1Δ
spo71Δ | spo73Δ | vps13Δ

B
% of cells with ERES within PSM

***   n.s.

wt | gip1Δ | gip1Δ GIP1 | vps13Δ | spo71Δ | spo73Δ

C Sec13-GFP mCh-Spo20^51-91

Time (hr): 6, 7, 8, 9, 10

gip1Δ

ERES foci per cell vs Sporulation time (hr)

Time (hr): 6, 7, 8, 9, 10

vps13Δ

ERES foci per cell vs Sporulation time (hr)

D
wt | gip1Δ

Initial: 1.4 μm | 1.5 μm
Horseshoe: 5.4 μm | 3.1 μm
Elongation: 7.5 μm
Mature: 7.9 μm

:wt :gip1Δ

Cell count vs PSM perimeter (μm)
7 hr, 7.5 hr, 8 hr, 9 hr, 10 hr, 11 hr, 12 hr

E ERES in nascent spores
:Yes :No

wt | gip1Δ

Cell count vs PSM perimeter (μm)

Figure 5

Figure 6

A wt

mCh-Spo20$^{51\text{-}91}$ | GFP-Glc7 | Merge

Horseshoe

Elongation

Mature

B *gip1Δ*

mCh-Spo20$^{51\text{-}91}$ | GFP-Glc7 | Merge

C

Sec13-GFP
mCh-Spo20$^{51\text{-}91}$

glc7-136

D Sec16-2xGFP
Htb2-mCh

wt | *gip1Δ*

Early Meta II

Late Meta II

Ana II

post-MII

E Sec16-2xGFP
mCh-Spo20$^{51\text{-}91}$

wt | *gip1Δ*

Initial

Horseshoe

Elongation

Mature

F

% of cells with Sec16 foci formation

n.s. ***

100 80 60 40 20 0

Initial | Horseshoe | Initial | Horseshoe
wt | *gip1Δ*

Figure 7

Figure 8

Mitosis / Meiosis I   **Metaphase II**   **Early Anaphase II**   **Late Anaphase II**

: ERES   : Golgi apparatus   : post-Golgi vesicles   : septin

ERES & Golgi regeneration

Sec16

PSM

Gip1
Glc7

Sec16

Septin
formation

Lipid supply
via membrane traffic

Direct lipid supply
from the ER by Vps13

Figure S1

Figure S2