Phosphoproteomic identification of Mos-MAPK targets in meiotic cell cycle and asymmetric

oocyte divisions

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22   Running title: Phosphoproteomics identifies targets of Mos-MAPK

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Abstract

The Mos kinase activates the ERK/MAPK pathway during oocyte meiosis, controlling essential meiotic functions in species across metazoa. However, despite its significance, the molecular targets of Mos-MAPK remain largely unidentified. Here, we addressed this question using starfish oocytes ideally suited to combine cellular assays with phosphoproteomics. This revealed CPE-mediated mRNA polyadenylation as a prominent target of Mos-MAPK, and we show that translation is required to drive the second meiotic division. Secondly, we identify a well-defined subset of cytoskeletal regulators as targets of Mos-MAPK. We show that this regulation is critical to ensure the asymmetry of meiotic divisions primarily by reducing the growth of astral microtubules. This allows positioning of the spindle directly beneath the cortex and prevents the separation of spindle poles in anaphase, thereby minimizing polar body size. Thus, by phosphoproteomics we reveal molecular modules controlled by Mos-MAPK explaining how this single, conserved kinase can act as a switch between the mitotic and meiotic division programs.

Introduction

Oocyte meiosis is a specialized form of cell division adapted to produce the fertilizable egg. This is achieved through two highly asymmetric divisions, meiosis I (MI) and meiosis II (MII), without an intervening S-phase, resulting in a single, large, haploid egg and small unviable polar bodies as byproducts (Mullen et al., 2019; Jessus et al., 2020). Strikingly, after fertilization, in the same egg cytoplasm embryonic mitoses take place with alternating S- and M-phases showing typical mitotic and lacking meiosis-specific features. What mediates this dramatic switch between meiotic and mitotic division programs?

The Mos kinase is a constitutive activator of the ERK/MAPK cascade that is present during oocyte meiosis, and is degraded after fertilization (Dupré et al., 2010). Therefore, the ERK/MAPK pathway and the downstream effector p90[RSK] are active during oocyte meiosis, but not in mitosis. That this peculiar Mos-MAPK activity plays critical roles in driving the meiotic division program has been shown in species across metazoa: first in *Xenopus* oocytes (Sagata et al., 1988), followed by studies in mice (Colledge et al., 1994; Hashimoto et al., 1994), starfish (Tachibana et al., 2000), tunicates (Sensui et al., 2012), and in cnidarian jellyfish (Amiel et al., 2009). In some of these species, Mos-MAPK is required for triggering meiotic maturation (Sagata et al., 1988), however a more widely conserved function of Mos-MAPK appears to be preventing S-phase between MI and MII, and driving oocytes directly into MII. Mos-MAPK inhibition causes oocytes to reform the nucleus and initiate S-phase after MI in *Xenopus* and starfish oocytes (Sagata et al., 1988; Tachibana et al., 2000), and mouse oocytes also display signs of meiotic exit after MI (Araki et al., 1996; Phillips et al., 2002; Verlhac et al., 1996). An even more prominent function of Mos is to establish the 'cytostatic factor (CSF) arrest', i.e. to halt meiosis until fertilization, and thereby synchronize these two vital processes (Jessus et al., 2020). Across species, Mos-MAPK inhibition leads to the loss of CSF arrest and parthenogenetic activation of oocytes (Sagata et al., 1988; Colledge et al., 1994; Hashimoto et al., 1994; Tachibana et al., 2000; Mori et al., 2006). Common to these seemingly unrelated functions is that they directly or indirectly involve increasing or sustaining Cdk1-Cyclin B activity. While in most species the detailed mechanisms remain unclear, it is well understood in *Xenopus* oocytes that Mos-MAPK facilitates Cyclin B translation to trigger meiotic maturation and to drive MII (Abrieu et al., 2001; Hochegger et al., 2001). Furthermore, for maintenance of the CSF arrest, degradation of Cyclin B is prevented by phosphorylation of Erp1/Emi2 by p90[RSK] downstream of Mos-MAPK (Wu and Kornbluth, 2008; Isoda et al., 2011).

Besides meiosis-specific cell cycle regulation, Mos-MAPK activity is also required for the asymmetric meiotic divisions. From jellyfish through starfish to mice, Mos-MAPK inhibition alters

meiotic spindle morphology converting them to somewhat 'mitotic-like' displaying long, astral-like

microtubules. This interferes with asymmetric division resulting in enlarged polar bodies or failed

polar body cytokinesis (Araki et al., 1996; Verlhac et al., 1996; Bodart et al., 2002; Amiel et al., 2009;

Ucar et al., 2013). The reverse effect has also been observed in tunicates: mitotic embryos

ectopically expressing Mos show short, meiotic-like spindles and extrude polar bodies (Dumollard

et al., 2011). In mouse oocytes, two spindle regulators under the control of Mos-MAPK, MISS and

DOC1R have been identified and characterized in substantial detail (Lefebvre et al., 2002; Terret et

al., 2003). However, a mechanistic model of how Mos-MAPK regulates spindle organization is

lacking.

Here, we took advantage of starfish oocytes that are transparent, synchronous and available in

large quantities to identify downstream targets of Mos-MAPK by quantitative phosphoproteomics.

We used imaging assays to characterize cellular phenotypes of Mos-MAPK inhibition in live oocytes,

and then analyzed samples by phosphoproteomics precisely timed to key transitions. This revealed

conserved molecular modules under the control of Mos-MAPK explaining how Mos-MAPK activity

may drive the meiotic division program.

Results and discussion

Mos-MAPK drives the second meiotic division

First, we confirmed earlier observations by Tachibana and coworkers (Tachibana et al., 2000; Ucar

et al., 2013) showing that the Mos kinase activates the ERK/MAPK pathway specifically during

meiosis, not active in immature oocytes and inactivated again at the end of MII (Fig. 1A). This

activity is effectively and specifically inhibited by 20 µM of the small-molecule MEK inhibitor,

U0126 without interfering with hormone-induced maturation and the initial activation of Cdk1-

cyclin B leading up to nuclear envelope breakdown (NEBD) (Fig. 1A, S1A, B).

We then imaged live oocytes by high-resolution confocal microscopy to complement previous,

detailed biochemical characterization of Mos-MAPK inhibition (Tachibana et al., 2000; Mori et al.,

2006). After NEBD, chromosomes congressed to the animal pole both in U0126- and DMSO-treated

oocytes and the MI spindle formed with normal timing, indicating that these early steps of meiosis

are independent of Mos-MAPK (Fig. 1B, C). However, at metaphase the MI spindle showed a slightly

enlarged morphology and the polar bodies were consistently larger in U0126-treated oocytes (Fig.

1B, S1C-E and see below). Additionally, while DMSO-treated oocytes rapidly progressed to MII,

forming the MII spindle within ~30 minutes, U0126-treated oocytes failed to transition to MII (Fig.

1B). Unlike control oocytes, in which chromosomes remained condensed and the nuclear envelope

did not re-form during the MI-MII transition, U0126-treated oocytes exited meiosis after MI

evidenced by decondensation of chromatin and reformation of the nucleus (Fig. 1B, E). Even in

absence of fertilization, U0126-treated oocytes then initiated the first mitotic division and began

parthenogenetic embryo development with similar timing to untreated and fertilized oocytes (Fig.

1B, D). The, counting from the start of meiosis, second metaphase spindle in U0126-treated oocytes

showed a morphology very similar to control mitotic spindles, about twice larger in length and

centrosomal area size than meiotic spindles (Fig. S1C-E).

In *Xenopus,* S-phase is prevented between MI and MII by rapid reactivation of Cdk1-Cyclin B,

forcing direct entry into MII (Gerhart et al., 1984). This results from translation of Cyclin B protein

and activatory dephosphorylation of Cdk1 shortly after completion of MI (Hochegger et al., 2001;

Iwabuchi et al., 2000). To test whether in starfish oocytes active Cdk1-Cyclin B is sufficient to

rescue the effect of Mos-MAPK inhibition, we injected oocytes with active Cdk1-Cyclin B protein

shortly after metaphase I (Fig. 1F). This treatment reversed the effect of Mos-MAPK inhibition:

while U0126-treated oocytes exited MI, formed a pronucleus and entered parthenogenetic

development, Cdk1-Cyclin B injected oocytes assembled an MII spindle without forming a

pronucleus (Fig. 1F). MII spindles in these Cdk1-Cyclin B-injected oocytes showed a meiotic

morphology, unlike the mitotic-like morphology in U0126-treated oocytes.

Taken together, consistent with previously published biochemical data, we show that in starfish

oocytes Mos-MAPK is activated after NEBD, and its inhibition has no effect on maturation and

spindle assembly before the metaphase of MI. However, soon after Mos-MAPK is activated,

phenotypes of Mos-MAPK inhibition become evident: the metaphase I spindle is enlarged resulting

in the formation of an enlarged polar body. Subsequently, Mos-MAPK inhibition prevents

reactivation of Cdk1-Cyclin B after MI that would normally drive transition to MII. Therefore, Mos-

MAPK inhibited oocytes exit the meiotic program after MI and proceed to parthenogenetic

development while skipping MII completely.

Mapping downstream targets of Mos-MAPK by phosphoproteomics

Based on the above observations and taking advantage of the high synchronicity of starfish oocytes,

we collected samples for phosphoproteomics at the metaphase of MI; soon after Mos-MAPK is

activated, and as soon as the first cellular phenotypes of Mos-MAPK inhibition are evident. Thereby

we expect to identify mostly direct effects. Oocytes were collected from three starfish animals, each

treated with U0126 or an equal amount of DMSO and then matured (Fig 2A). Synchronicity was confirmed by staining a small portion of the sample with Hoechst 33342 that showed 92-96% metaphase figures. Samples were then enriched for phosphopeptides and analyzed by multiplexed quantitative tandem mass tag (TMT) mass spectrometry identifying 9,035 protein groups, of which 3,197 contained phosphopeptides (see Source Data File 1 for complete dataset).

We then used ratios of phosphorylated peptides to their total protein intensities in U0126- *vs.* DMSO-treated samples (of 14,360 phospho-peptides identified, 10,880 unique phospho-peptides and 16,621 sequence-PTM combinations were quantified). This resulted in 211 unique phospho-peptides (205 down-, 6 upregulated, 360 sequence-PTM combinations) that passed significance threshold (Source Data File 3). Unsupervised clustering clearly separated U0126-treated samples from DMSO controls, evidencing an effect much above biological variability despite sampling genetically diverse individuals (Fig. 2B).

Next, we performed an over-representation analysis revealing the enrichment of gene ontology (GO) terms related to cell cycle and cytoskeletal regulation among the dephosphorylated proteins (Fig. 2C). We also predicted putative human protein kinases corresponding to the observed de-phosphorylation activity (Johnson et al., 2023). This showed an enrichment of kinases of the MAPK-pathway (STE kinase family) and its downstream effector p90[RSK] (AGC kinase family) (Fig. 2D). Analysis of the predicted upstream kinases revealed that the Mos-MAPK-p90[RSK] pathway had one of the largest sets of peptide targets and highest predicted ranks, followed by putative targets of Cdk1 (Fig. S2A).

We complemented the phosphoproteomics experiment at metaphase of MI with a DIA (Data Independent Acquisition) proteomics experiment to monitor changes in protein levels at subsequent stages (Fig. 2E, see Source Data File 2 for complete dataset). In this experiment we were able to identify 7,480 protein groups of which 5,103 protein groups could be quantified. This dataset did not reveal major overall changes in protein abundance consistent with previous work by Swartz *et al.* showing that the proteome is largely stable during meiosis in starfish oocytes (Fig. 2F) (Swartz et al., 2021). However, they showed that a very limited subset of proteins, including key cell cycle regulators, do change in abundance that we were able to recapitulate in our time course experiment (Fig. 2G and S2B and see discussion below).

Phosphoproteomics identifies functional modules downstream of Mos-MAPK

We then displayed the differentially phosphorylated peptides on a volcano plot, and manually
annotated these hits to identify functional modules (Fig. 3A, B, Table S1 and Source Data File 3).

In the U0126-treated samples, we detected dephosphorylation of MEK and the downstream effector
p90[RSK], consistent with effective inhibition of the Mos-MAPK pathway. Additionally, we found
several components of the core cell cycle machinery to be differentially dephosphorylated,
including the Cdc25 phosphatase, the Myt1 kinase, the APC/C subunit Cdc27 (APC3), as well as
Arpp19 and PP2A. These changes indicate that Mos-MAPK inhibition acts towards Cdk1-Cyclin B
inactivation, suggesting that normally Mos-MAPK activity contributes to keep Cdk1 activity high to
allow rapid transition to MII -- fully consistent with our findings above.

Manual annotation revealed translational regulation as another prominent functional module
downstream of Mos-MAPK. This was not immediately apparent in the GO-term enrichment analysis,
as we only identified a specific subset of 11 out of the 1,059 proteins associated with the broad
term "translation". These proteins are components of the CPE-mediated mRNA polyadenylation
pathway that is known to have critical importance in oocytes documented extensively in *Xenopus* as
well as in other model systems (Conti and Kunitomi, 2024; Richter and Lasko, 2011; Mendez and
Richter, 2001; Piqué et al., 2008). CPEB binds to the CPE element in the 3'UTR of transcripts and
forms both repressive complexes that prevent translation and the active complex that facilitates
translation by polyadenylation of the mRNA. During oocyte maturation, CPEB is thought to be first
phosphorylated by Aurora A and then hyper-phosphorylated by Cdk1 and Mos-MAPK. These
phosphorylations are required for the formation of the active complex, and lead to subsequent
degradation of CPEB (Mendez et al., 2000; Thom et al., 2003; Keady et al., 2007; Lapasset et al.,
2008; Ochi et al., 2016). The potential Aurora site is conserved in starfish, but we could not detect
phosphorylation of this site. Instead, we detected the largest change on Ser32, a site not well
conserved, but located near the Thr22 site, a target of Mos-MAPK in *Xenopus* oocytes (Keady et al.,
2007). We detected additional CPEB phosphopeptides consistent with hyper-phosphorylation by
Cdk1 and Mos-MAPK. The proteomics time course experiment also confirmed that while CPEB is
still detectable at MII, levels gradually decrease both in control and U0126-treated samples (Fig.
2G). Interestingly, CPEB levels at MI appear somewhat lower in U0126-treated samples as
compared to controls that could explain, at least in part, the lower level of Cyclin B in this condition.

We detected dephosphorylation of the eIF4E transporter, eIF4ENIF1 a.k.a. 4E-T, which along with
CPEB is a core component of the repressive ribonucleoparticle (RNP) keeping mRNAs
translationally inactive. We detected peptides of other components of RNPs including eIF4E, DDX6,

LSM14 (but not Zar1) (Minshall et al., 2007; Cheng and Schuh, 2024). These proteins are present at

constant levels through meiosis, and we saw no significant change in their phosphorylation (Fig. 3B,

S2B). We also detected many phosphopeptides of TACC3/Maskin, and while the changes remain

below significance, they show a trend towards dephosphorylation (Source Data File 1). This

suggests that TACC3/Maskin may play a similar role as in *Xenopus* oocytes and interact with eIF4E

to regulate translation (Stebbins-Boaz et al., 1996).

Upon CPEB phosphorylation, the repressive complex dissociates and so CPEB can interact with the

multi-subunit cleavage and polyadenylation specificity factor (CPSF) to recruit the PolyA

polymerase PAP/Gld2 (Mendez et al., 2000; Barnard et al., 2004). Besides Gld2, we observed a

change in phosphorylation of several components of the cap-dependent translation initiation

complex including the scaffold protein eIF4G that binds to the polyadenylate binding protein

PABPC on the semi-circularized mRNA (Wells et al., 1998), and eIF3A involved in the eventual

recruitment of the small ribosomal subunit (Aitken and Lorsch, 2012) (Fig. 3B, Table S1).

Interestingly, the non-essential initiation factor eIF4B showed increased phosphorylation upon

U0126 treatment. While we did not detect a change in phosphorylation, we did detect peptides of

most other subunits of the complex, such as the cap binding protein eIF4E, the helicase eIF4A, the

polyadenylate binding protein PABPC (Fig. S2B).

Interestingly, our top hits also included LARP1, a regulator specific to mRNAs with a 5ʹ terminal

oligopyrimidine (5ʹTOP), a motif known to associate with mTOR targets (Berman et al., 2021).

LARP1 is thought to bind this 5'TOP motif and stabilize the semi-circularized mRNA through

interaction with PABPC (Hochstoeger et al., 2024).

Another large group of phospho-peptides identified were regulators of the cytoskeleton, a

substantial subset of which are involved in centrosomal microtubule nucleation (Fig. 3A, B, Table

S1). We found components with roles in centrosome maturation, including proteins involved in the

recruitment of the pericentriolar material to centrioles (CEP192, CEP44, and POC1), the main

pericentriolar material (PCM) constituent PCM1, as well as the protein furry (FRY)-like, thought to

be important for centrosome integrity early in cell division (Ikeda et al., 2012; Conduit et al., 2015).

Secondly, we found several proteins that play a role in nucleating and stabilizing astral

microtubules including the general microtubule plus tip binding proteins XMAP215/chTOG and

CLIP1 (Slep and Vale, 2007), and GTSE1, a plus tip binding protein that specifically regulates the

stability of astral microtubules (Bendre et al., 2016). Furthermore, we identified several members

of the kinesin superfamily. A kinesin-4 family member (identified as KIF4/21/27) may be involved

in separation of spindle poles in anaphase (Bieling et al., 2010), and the kinesin-3 KIF14 may be

required for anaphase in interaction with citron kinase (Gruneberg et al., 2006). Interestingly, a
meiosis-specific paralog of KIF14, NabKin was reported to regulate polar body cytokinesis in
Xenopus oocytes (Samwer et al., 2013).

We also identified several proteins that regulate the actin cytoskeleton (Fig. 3A, B, Table S1). In
particular, regulators of the small GTPases Cdc42, Rac1, and RhoA as well as their downstream
effectors have been detected. This includes BCR, which is a GTPase-activating protein for Cdc42, as
well as the activator of RhoA, MYO9. We detected a significant dephosphorylation of the formin
mDia2, which confirms earlier results demonstrating that mDia2 is a downstream target of Mos-
MAPK in starfish (Ucar et al., 2013). Additionally, we found a significant effect on the Cdc42 binding
protein MRCK, which recently has been shown to drive the initial, meiosis-specific step of polar
body cytokinesis (Bourdais et al., 2023). Finally, we found Rac1 that may be involved in Arp2/3-
dependent actin nucleation and act as an antagonist of RhoA during polar body cytokinesis, to be
dephosphorylated (Halet and Carroll, 2007; Pal et al., 2020).

Taken together, our phosphoproteomic analysis identified well-defined and conserved molecular
modules downstream of Mos-MAPK that are involved in the regulation of the meiotic cell cycle,
CPE-dependent translation, and the microtubule and actin cytoskeleton. Firstly, these data are
consistent with the model proposed in *Xenopus*, whereby Mos-MAPK drives MI-MII transition both
by facilitating rapid reactivation of Cdk1 by its dephosphorylation, as well as by triggering
translation of Cyclin B and other regulators (Hochegger et al., 2001; Iwabuchi et al., 2000). Our data
supports a possible model for translational regulation, by which Mos-MAPK and Cdk1
phosphorylate CPEB leading to the disassembly of repressive RNPs and promote the assembly of
the active polyadenylation complex.

Secondly, Mos-MAPK regulates the cytoskeleton to mediate the highly asymmetric oocyte divisions.
We identified microtubule regulators including constituents of the centrosome, the pericentriolar
material, regulators of microtubule growth at the plus-tips of microtubules, and kinesin motor
proteins. These proteins are not part of a single complex, but they do have a common function in
organizing centrosomal microtubule arrays. These hits are distinct from regulators of other major
pathways of spindle assembly, such as the chromatin-mediated Ran pathway (Valdez et al., 2023).
Interestingly, a very recent study found that casein kinase 2 (CK2) specifically regulates the Ran
pathway in meiosis (Cantwell et al., 2025). This suggests that there may be multiple kinases
regulating different aspects of meiotic spindle assembly with Mos-MAPK specifically acting on
astral microtubule arrays.

Mos-MAPK prevents assembly of astral microtubule arrays

To explore the effects of Mos-MAPK on the cytoskeleton in more detail, we recorded the dynamics

of MI spindles in 3D at high resolution in live oocytes (Fig. 4A). Quantification of the maximal length

of the astral microtubules and the distance between the spindle poles revealed that U0126-treated

oocytes display longer astral microtubules and increased pole-to-pole distance. The difference is

initially subtle, but it then increases continuously as oocytes progress from prometa- to telophase

(Fig. 4A-C). Indeed, Mos-MAPK qualitatively changes the behavior of spindle poles: while in control

oocytes with Mos-MAPK active astral microtubules and pole-to-pole distance shortens, in U0126-

treated oocytes asters and pole-to-pole distance increases as spindles progress towards telophase

(Fig. 4A-C). As a consequence, the first polar body nearly doubles in size and polar body cytokinesis

more frequently fails in Mos-MAPK inhibited oocytes (Fig. 4D, E).

Next, we performed immunofluorescence stainings to visualize spindle organization at even higher

resolution (Fig. 4F). These data corroborated observations made in live oocytes: in normal meiosis

centrosomes are almost completely inactive, and chromosomes separate merely by shortening of

kinetochore fibers (anaphase A) (Fig. 4F-H). By stark contrast, Mos-MAPK inhibited oocytes display

prominent microtubule asters nucleated by centrosomes, which contain numerous and long

microtubules (Fig. 4F-H). U0126-treated spindles also display a prominent mid-spindle formed by

overlapping microtubules, which drive separation of spindle poles concomitant with shortening of

kinetochore fibers in anaphase (anaphase A+B) (Fig. 4F).

Taken together, in excellent agreement with the identified phosphoproteins, we show that in

unperturbed meiosis I Mos-MAPK activity impedes centrosomal microtubule nucleation, prevents

formation of the spindle midzone and anaphase B. If Mos-MAPK is inhibited, the MI spindle adopts a

mitotic-like organization with large centrosomal asters and a prominent mid-spindle promoting

separation of poles in anaphase B. As a consequence, enlarged polar bodies form and polar body

cytokinesis frequently fails. Intriguingly, our data reveal a tight correlation between the maximal

length of astral microtubules and pole-to-pole distance, suggesting that the two processes may be

functionally linked (Fig. 4B, C, see schematics on Fig. 5E). The explanation for this can be that

centrosomal microtubules grow in all directions: away from the spindle as astral microtubules, and

into the spindle to form interpolar microtubules. Interpolar microtubules are critical to form the

overlapping microtubule bundles at the spindle midzone, pushed apart in anaphase B by PRC1 and

kinesin-4 (Bieling et al., 2010). In meiosis, with Mos-MAPK active, both astral and interpolar

microtubules are absent, and thus anaphase B does not occur. Through these mechanisms Mos-

MAPK functions to minimize polar body size in two ways: by reducing aster size it allows the
spindle to localize tightly to the cortex, and by preventing anaphase B it limits the distance between
the cortex and the spindle midzone (Fig. 5E). Therefore, Mos-MAPK essentially switches off two
mitotic spindle functions: positioning by astral microtubules, and anaphase B that in mitosis is
required to move chromosome masses away from the cleavage furrow.

In starfish oocytes, unlike in most other species, centrioles are still present at MI (Sluder et al.,
1993; Borrego-Pinto et al., 2016a). This might have made the phenotypes easier to interpret than in
other species with acentrosomal meiotic spindles. However, acentrosomal microtubule organizing
centers (aMTOCs) contain most if not all of the proteins we identified, and functionally replace
centriolar centrosomes in oocytes (Mogessie et al., 2018; Schuh and Ellenberg, 2007). Indeed, Mos-
MAPK inhibition results in enlarged microtubule asters nucleated from aMTOCs in *Xenopus*, mouse,
and *Clytia* oocytes (Verlhac et al., 1996; Bodart et al., 2002; Amiel et al., 2009), and in mouse spindle
elongation, i.e. anaphase B was observed in Mos-/- oocytes, very similar to our observations above
(Verlhac et al., 2000). This suggests that Mos-MAPK likely has a conserved role in species both with
centrosomal and acentrosomal MTOCs. In turn, this meiosis-specific spindle architecture may
explain why oocytes employ specialized, actin-driven mechanisms for spindle positioning (Field
and Lénárt, 2011).

Translation is required to drive meiosis II, but it does not affect spindle architecture

While the observed effects on spindle organization could be fully explained by direct
phosphorylation of proteins of the 'microtubule module' we identified, alternatively Mos-MAPK-
dependent translation of specific microtubule regulators may also affect spindle architecture. To
separate out these effects, we inhibited translation by emetine (Swartz et al., 2021). Emetine-
treated oocytes progressed to MI without delay, assembled the MI spindle with apparently normal
morphology, and extruded a polar body. Thereafter, a pronucleus formed and oocytes remained in a
sustained interphase arrest (Fig. 5A). This confirms that in starfish oocytes new protein synthesis is
not needed until the end of MI, however, new protein synthesis is required for progression to MII
(Swartz et al., 2021).

Next, to investigate effects of translation inhibition on spindle organization, we fixed and stained
oocytes at metaphase of MI that were treated with emetine and with emetine and U0126 (Fig. 5B).
Emetine alone had no visible effect on spindle organization, whereas a combined treatment with
emetine and U0126 resulted in the same phenotype with enlarged asters and pole-to-pole distance

as U0126 alone (compare Figs. 4F, G and 5B-D). To specifically test whether translation of Cyclin B -

- the protein the levels of which change to the largest extent during meiosis -- has an effect on MI

spindle organization, we injected oocytes with a morpholino targeting Cyclin B. While the Cyclin B

morpholino caused an effect very similar to translation inhibition by emetine in preventing MII, it

had no apparent effect on the morphology of the MI spindle (Fig. S3).

Thus, these data together show that in starfish oocytes protein synthesis is not required for meiotic

maturation and meiotic progression until the end of MI, however translation of Cyclin B and likely

other proteins in required to drive MII. Furthermore, our data show that Mos-MAPK acts on spindle

organization independently of its effect on translational regulation.

Conclusions

Mos-MAPK and its functions in oocyte meiosis have been studied extensively in the past. These

studies evidence that Mos is an 'early invention' already present in the non-bilaterian cnidarian

jellyfish, and is thus an ancestral and conserved regulator of oocyte meiosis in metazoa (Amiel et al.,

2009). However, likely due to the inherent diversity in cellular morphology and timing of oocyte

meiosis among animal species, it remained difficult to identify conserved molecular mechanisms

under the control of Mos-MAPK (Dupré et al., 2010). Here, by combining cellular assays with

phosphoproteomics we identified the molecular modules controlled by Mos-MAPK; translational

regulation by CPE-mediated mRNA polyadenylation, and regulation of astral microtubule arrays.

We show how these two processes are critical for switching between mitotic and meiotic division

programs, for adapting the cell division machinery to produce the haploid egg ready to be fertilized.

Materials and Methods

Oocyte collection, drug treatments and microinjection

Bat stars (*Patiria miniata*) were obtained in the springtime from Southern California (South Coast Bio-Marine LLC, Monterey Abalone Company, or Marinus Scientific Inc). They were kept at 16°C for the rest of the year in seawater aquariums at MPI-NAT's Animal Facility. Ovaries and testes were isolated as described previously (Borrego-Pinto et al., 2016). Oocytes were isolated and used immediately or stored for 1-2 days in seawater at 14°C, for some experiments ovaries were stored for 2-3 days in seawater at 14 °C and oocytes were isolated thereafter (Wessel et al., 2010). For fertilization, freshly isolated sperm was added just prior to the emission of the first polar body.

mRNAs and other fluorescent markers were injected using Kiehart chambers and horizontally mounted needles as described previously (Borrego-Pinto et al., 2016; Jaffe and Terasaki, 2004), with the modification that instead of mercury-filled needles, simple back-loaded capillaries were used on a FemtoJet (Eppendorf) injector. mRNA was injected the day before to allow protein expression, whereas fluorescently labeled proteins were injected a few hours prior to imaging.

Meiosis was induced by the addition of 1-methyladenine (1-MA, Acros Organics) at 10 μM final concentration. NEBD started typically 20-25 min after 1-MA addition. U0126 (Sigma) was added simultaneously with 1-MA at 20 μM final concentration. Emetine (Sigma) was added at 10 μM final concentration 30 min before 1-MA.

Every experiment was repeated at least three times, with oocytes taken from at least two different animals.

Fluorescent markers

Chromosomes were labeled by either injecting mRNA encoding human H2B-mCherry or H1 protein purified from calf thymus (Sigma) labeled with AlexaFluor 568 or 647 as described previously (Bun et al., 2018). Microtubules were labeled either by injection of HiLyte488- or HiLyte647-tubulin purified from porcine brain (Cytoskeleton), or recombinant human EB3-mClover protein (gift from So Chun, MPI-NAT). Anti-cyclin B morpholino (TAACCAATGCGAGTTCCGAGGAG, Gene Tools), was injected at 500 μM final concentration immediately before 1-MA stimulation (Swartz et al., 2021).

Capped mRNAs with poly-A tail were synthesized from linearized pGEMHE plasmids using the
HiScribe™ T7 ARCA mRNA Kit (NEB). The mRNA was purified by Monarch RNA Cleanup Kit (NEB).

Active Cdk1-Cyclin B complex was a gift from Pim J. Huis in't Veld and Andrea Musacchio (MPI for
Molecular Physiology, Dortmund, Germany) (Huis In 't Veld et al., 2022). In order to remove
glycerol, the complex was purified through a 10K MWCO protein concentrator (Pierce) and
dissolved in PBS with 200 mM sucrose. The activity of the complex was confirmed by its ability to
cause maturation in starfish oocytes. The Cdk1-Cyclin B complex was injected into the U0126-
treated oocytes directly after the first polar body extrusion.

Live cell microscopy

Starfish oocytes were imaged directly in the injection chambers. Live-cell images were acquired
either on a Visitron Systems (Puchheim, Germany) spinning disk confocal microscope or on a Zeiss
LSM780 (Jena, Germany) laser scanning confocal microscope. The spinning disk system is based on
a Nikon Ti2 microscope body equipped with a Yokogawa W1 scanhead and two Prime BSI cameras
(Teledyne Photometrics). On the laser scanning microscope, we used a C-Apochromat 40x 1.20 NA
objective lens with the following settings: imaging area 100 μm×100 μm, pixel size 200 nm, 15 z-
slices with 2 μm step size, pinhole set to 2 AU, time intervals 3-5 min. On the spinning disk
microscope, we used a CFI SR Plan Apo IR 60x 1.27 NA water immersion objective. Typical settings
were: exposure time 200 ms, pixel size 110 nm, 11-15 z-slices with 3 or 4 μm step size, time
intervals 3-5 min. Images of the control and experimental groups were acquired under identical
imaging conditions on the same microscope. All live imaging experiments were carried out at 20°C.

Immunostaining

Oocytes were fixed at the desired times in a PFA/GA fixative (100 mM HEPES [pH 7.0], 50 mM
EGTA, 10 mM $MgSO_4$, 0.5% Triton-X100, 400 mM sucrose, 2% formaldehyde, and in some
experiments 0.2% glutaraldehyde) modified from (Strickland et al., 2004). Subsequently, samples
were permeabilized and blocked in blocking buffer (PBS + 0.1% Triton-X100 plus 3% BSA and the
Image-IT reagent (Thermo Scientific)). Antibody staining was done for 24 h in a blocking buffer at
room temperature with the primary antibody premixed with secondary nanobodies/Fab fragment.
Microtubules were labeled with anti-α-tubulin mouse antibody (DM1A, Sigma), and lamin was

labeled with a custom-made rabbit polyclonal antibody (Wesolowska et al., 2020) primarily labeled
with Alexa 488 NHS ester (Thermo Scientific) according to the manufacturer's instructions.
Secondary staining was done by anti-mouse secondary nanobodies with Atto-488 (NanoTag,
#N2002-At488-S) or donkey Fab anti-mouse IgG AlexaFluor594 (Jackson, #715-587-003). DNA was
labeled with Hoechst 33342 (Thermo Scientific). Oocytes were mounted in PBS or in the antifade
agent ProLong Glass or SlowFade Diamond (Thermo Scientific). Fixed oocytes were imaged on the
same microscope systems as used for live imaging with the following modifications: for the
spinning disk confocal microscope, exposure time of 200 ms, pixel size of 110 nm, and 70 z-slices
with 200 or 600 nm step size. On the laser scanning system, we used a pixel size of 40 nm, 80 z-
slices with 200 nm step size, pinhole set to 1 Airy unit.

Image analysis

Prior morphometric quantification, immunofluorescent images were deconvolved using the
Huygens software (Scientific Volume Imaging) with either confocal, AiryScan, or spinning disk
settings as appropriate. Quantification was done in ImageJ/FIJI (Schindelin et al., 2012). Images
were rotated and resliced in XY and XZ planes to orient the spindle orthogonally. The quantification
of spindle length and diameter of centrosomes were done by measuring the half-maximal width of
the intensity profile along the respective structures along the spindle axis. Statistical analysis was
performed by Excel (Microsoft), results were plotted in R (R Core Team).

The maximal length of microtubules and spindle diameter were quantified on live images using
ImageJ/FIJI (Schindelin et al., 2012) in a maximal Z-projected volume slab of 10 μm thickness. The
maximal length of microtubules was estimated by measuring the distance of aster tips to the
centriole (live labeled by EB3-mClover or by anti-tubulin-staining in fixed samples) and the pole
distance was measured by placing points at each pole and calculating their 3D distance. Statistical
analysis was performed by using Excel (Microsoft), results were plotted in R (R Core Team).

For presenting images on figures, we typically used a Gaussian blur of 0.5-1 pixels to reduce shot
noise. Images were adjusted for brightness and contrast, and where indicated, gamma adjustments
were applied.

Western Blots

Approximately 50 oocytes were collected for each condition at the stated time points, lysed in SDS

sample loading buffer (62.5 mM TRIS, pH 6.8, 1.5% SDS, 0.5 M sucrose, 25 mM DTT, 0.002%

bromophenol blue) and heated at 95°C for 10 minutes. Proteins were resolved using SDS-PAGE

performed on 4-12% Bis-Tris gels (Thermo) and transferred to a nitrocellulose membrane

(Thermo, #88025) for Western blotting. Anti phospho-p44/42 MAPK (Erk1/2) antibody (Cell

Signaling Technology, #9101) was diluted to 1:3000, anti phospho-cdc2(Tyr15) antibody (Cell

Signaling Technology, #9111) to 1:1000 and anti-alpha tubulin (DM1A) to 1:1000 in 5% BSA made

in TBST (TBS with 0.1% Tween-20). Fluorescently labeled anti-mouse CF770 (Biotium,

#20077)/anti-mouse CF680 (Biotium, #20065) and anti-rabbit CF680 (Biotium, #20418)/anti-

rabbit CF770 (Biotium, #20484) secondary antibodies were diluted to 1:10000 in TBST before use.

All immunoblots were scanned on a LI-COR Odyssey imager.

Sample preparation and LC/MS analysis

Two or three biological replicates of oocytes were collected from different starfish animals for the

proteomics and phosphoproteomics experiments, respectively (see schematics on Fig 2A and E).

Oocytes were matured by addition of 1-MA and were simultaneously treated with 20 μM U0126 or

equal amount of DMSO. Maturation timing was tested in prior experiments and was also directly

monitored under a dissecting microscope. Synchronicity of oocytes was confirmed by staining a

small portion of the collected oocytes with Hoechst 33342 and imaging on a confocal microscope.

We confirmed a synchronicity of 92-96% of all samples analyzed.

For the phosphoproteomics experiment, 20 μl of starfish oocytes were lysed on ice in SDS lysis

buffer (4% [w/v] SDS, 150 mM Hepes-KOH pH 7.0, 2 mM dithiothreitol (DTT), 10 mM EDTA, 250

mM sucrose, and protease inhibitor cocktail [Complete Roche Mini]). The mechanical cell

disruption was done by centrifuging oocytes through a 40 μm mesh at 7000 g. Samples were

diluted to a final 0.1% SDS and 1 mM $MgCl_2$ was added. Proteins were reduced with 5 mM DTT for

30 min at 37°C, 300 rpm, and alkylated with 10 mM iodoacetamide (IAA) for 30 min at 25°C, 300

rpm, in the dark. The reaction was quenched with 10 mM DTT for 5 min at 25°C, 300 rpm.

Sample cleanup was performed by applying a single-pot, solid-phase-enhanced sample preparation

protocol (Hughes et al., 2019). Briefly, carboxylate-modified magnetic beads (Cytiva

65152105050350, 45152105050250, mixed 1:1) were added at a 1:10 protein-to-bead mass ratio

with an equal volume of 100% [v/v] acetonitrile (ACN). Beads were washed twice with 80% [v/v]

EtOH and once with 100% [v/v] ACN. Proteins were digested in 50 mM TEAB containing trypsin

(Promega) at a 1:20 enzyme-to-protein ratio overnight at 37 °C, 1000 rpm. Peptides were removed

from the magnetic beads and aliquots were taken for whole proteome analysis.

Residual samples were subjected to phosphopeptide enrichment according to the EasyPhos

protocol (Humphrey et al., 2015). Briefly, peptide mixtures were adjusted to final 228 mM KCl, 3.9

mM KH_2PO_4, 38% [v/v] ACN, 4.5% [v/v] trifluoroacetic acid (TFA), mixed and cleared by

centrifugation. TiO_2 beads (10 µm, GL Sciences) in 80% ACN, 6% TFA were added at a beads-to-

protein ratio of 10:1. Peptides were incubated with beads for 20 min at 40°C, 1000 rpm. Beads were

resuspended and washed in 60% [v/v] ACN, 1% [v/v] TFA four times. Finally, beads were

resuspended in 80% [v/v] ACN, 0.5% [v/v] acetic acid and transferred to empty columns (Harvard

Apparatus, 74⬚3840). Phosphopeptides were eluted in two steps with 40% [v/v] ACN, 15% [v/v]

NH_4OH.

TMTsixplex™ (Thermo Scientific) labeling was performed according to manufacturer's instructions.

Whole proteome and phosphopeptide-enriched samples were labeled separately. Both were further

cleaned using C18 MicroSpin columns (Harvard Apparatus) according to manufacturer's

instructions. Samples were dissolved in 10 mM NH_4OH pH 10, 5% [v/v] ACN and peptides were

loaded onto an Xbridge C18 column (Waters) using an Agilent 1100 series chromatography system.

The column was operated at a flow rate of 60 µl/min with a buffer system of buffer A, 10 mM

NH_4OH pH 10; and buffer B, 10 mM NH_4OH pH10, 80% [v/v] ACN. The column was equilibrated

with 5% B and separation was performed over 64 min using the following gradient: 5% B (0-7

min), 8-30% B (8-42 min), 30-50% B (43-50 min), 90-95% B (51-56 min), 5% B (57-64 min). For

phosphopeptides, the first 6 min were collected as flow-through (FT), followed by 48x1 min

fractions, which were reduced to 23 fractions by concatenated pooling. The remaining fractions

were discarded. For the whole proteome sample, 54x1 min fractions were collected and combined

to 19 final fractions. The remaining fractions were discarded. Fractionated whole proteome and

phosphopeptide samples were dried in a speed vac concentrator and subjected to LC-MS/MS

analysis.

For the proteomics time course experiment, oocytes were collected, pelleted and lysed in SDS lysis

buffer (4% [w/v] SDS, 150 mM Hepes-NaOH pH 7.5, 1x Roche Protease inhibitor cocktail) by

incubation for 5 min, 99°C; by sonication, in alternating 30 s on- and 30 s off-cycles at highest

intensity output (Bioruptor, Diagenode); and by another incubation for 5 min, 99°C. Protein

concentrations were determined using Pierce™ BCA Protein Assay Kit - Reducing Agent Compatible

(Thermo Scientific; 23250). Proteins were reduced with 10 mM dithiothreitol (DTT) for 30 min at

37°C, 300 rpm, and alkylated with 40 mM iodoacetamide (IAA) for 30 min at 25°C, 300 rpm, in the

dark. The reaction was quenched with 10 mM DTT for 5 min at 25°C, 300 rpm. Aliquots containing

0.1 mg of protein for each replicate of each sample were further processed. Samples were diluted to

final 0.4% [w/v] SDS and 1 mM $MgCl_2$ was added. DNA content was digested using 312.5 U of

Pierce™ Universal Nuclease (Thermo Scientific) for 2 hrs at 37°C, 300 rpm. Samples were cleaned

up by single-pot, solid-phase-enhanced sample preparation protocol as above. Peptides were

recovered from the magnetic beads and beads were washed once with 100 uL water. Samples were

dried in a speed vac. Samples were measured using DIA.

Proteomics data analysis

The proteome database was compiled using datasets at Echinobase v2 (echinobase.org) (Kudtarkar

and Cameron, 2017) and NCBI annotation (RefSeq ID 23626818) for *Patiria miniata*. The available

protein sequences were clustered with mmseqs2 easy-clust workflow (Steinegger and Söding,

2018) with a sequence similarity threshold of 0.95 to obtain a non-redundant set of representative

sequences. Transcript sequences for Echinobase v2 were derived from the genome sequence and

transcriptome annotation with gffread tool (Pertea and Pertea, 2020). The representative

transcripts were annotated via TRAPID web interface (Bucchini et al., 2021) using EggNOG 4.5.1

database (Huerta-Cepas et al., 2016). Full log of TRAPID annotation is deposited at

https://doi.org/10.25625/03K7BQ. In addition, manually curated protein sequences for selected

proteins of interest were included into the proteome. TRAPID gene identifiers and ontology terms

were used for the downstream over-representation analysis.

Raw phospho-TMT mass spectrometry data were processed using MaxQuant version 1.6.17.0 (Cox

and Mann, 2008). MaxQuant output tables were filtered to remove decoys, contaminants and low-

confidence peptides with posterior error probability (PEP) >= 0.01. Ratios of phospho-peptide

intensities to the corrected parent protein intensities were log2-transformed and used for

subsequent differential expression analysis. The protein groups were not post-filtered by identified

unique peptides or q-values to maximize the match with phospho-peptides, resulting in 76% of

phospho-peptides having a corresponding total protein intensity for normalization.

A linear model testing for the difference between means of phospho-peptide ratios in treatment

and control groups was fit with least-squares, and p-values were estimated with the empirical

Bayes approach via *limma* R package (Ritchie et al., 2015). Multiple hypothesis correction was done

using the Benjamini and Hochberg approach for false discovery rate (FDR) estimation and a
threshold of p-adjusted <=0.05 was set (Benjamini and Hochberg, 1995).

Gene ontology over-representation analysis was performed using the *g:Profiler* tool g:GOSt using
the default p-value adjustment strategy "g_SCS" and a significance threshold of 0.05 (annotation
available with identifier "gp__EGla_34PO_4UY") (Raudvere et al., 2019).

The heatmap of all significantly differentially phosphorylated sites was made from the normalized
ratios of significantly up- and down- regulated phosphopeptides scaled to the mean of 0 and
standard deviation of 1. Plotting was done via the *pheatmap* R package with "ward.D2" clustering
method (Murtagh and Legendre, 2014) and euclidean distance as a metric (Kolde, 2025).

The Phospho (STY) probabilities for each tested peptide sequence were mean-aggregated on amino
acid level across all peptide-spectrum matches (PSMs) and the most likely amino acid per peptide
sequence was treated as phosphorylated. Peptide sequences, log2-fold changes and p-values of
differential expression were submitted for kinase prediction at phosphosite.org(Hornbeck et al.,
2015). Top significantly downregulated kinases that passed the p-adjusted threshold of 0.05 were
reported. Phosphosite motifs were derived by centering all the differentially dephosphorylated
peptides (q-value < 0.05) around the most likely phospho-sites as a foreground, compared to the
background of all dephosphorylated peptides and plotted via *Logolas* R package (Dey et al., 2018).
Kinase-specific motifs were derived from a set of significantly de-phosphorylated peptides having
the kinase of interest in the top-10 predicted targets.

Data-independent acquisition (DIA) proteomics was processed with DIA-NN using the default
settings (Demichev et al., 2020), and the signal intensity was post-aggregated with the MaxLFQ
algorithm upon the following PSM-level filters: Q-value <= 0.001 and Protein Group Q-value <=
0.05. Same as for phospho-TMT, the differential expression was assessed via "limma", with
additional weights of 0.05 assigned to the missing values, conservatively imputed by minimal
replicate intensity. The thresholds of adjusted p-value (BH procedure) of 0.05 and a
log2FoldChange of 0.5 were chosen to define reliably quantified proteins with a large enough effect
size.

Statistical analyses

Statistical comparisons were done using the Mann-Whitney test or a two-tailed T-test, as indicated
in the figure legend. ** denotes p<0.05, and *** denotes p<0.0001. Data distribution was assumed to
be normal but this was not formally tested. Computational and statistical analysis has been

implemented in R v4.1.1 (Ihaka and Gentleman, 1996) or in Excel (Microsoft) and subsequently

plotted in R.

Online supplemental material

This manuscript contains 4 Supplementary Figures/Tables and 4 Source Data Files. Fig. S1 shows

experiments to determine the effective dose of U0126, and morphometric analyses of spindles

treated with U0126; Fig. S2 shows further analyses of the proteomics experiments; Table S1 shows

tabulated data for the functional modules shown on Fig. 3B; Fig S3 shows the effect of preventing

Cyclin B synthesis during meiosis. The Source Data Files include the complete phosphoproteomics

dataset (Source Data File 1), the complete proteomics time course dataset (Source Data File 2), the

significant hits of the phosphoproteomics experiment (Source Data File 3), and the uncropped

membranes of the Western blots shown (Source Data File 4 and 5).

Data and availability

No new or unique reagents were generated in this study.

The TRAPID protein database used for searching the proteomics data is available at GRO.data at

https://doi.org/10.25625/03K7BQ . The mass spectrometry proteomics datasets for starfish

oocytes are available in PRIDE (Perez-Riverol et al., 2022) and UCSD MassIVE member repositories

of the ProteomeXchange Consortium with the project accession identifiers PXD043650 and

PXD067579 | MSV000098905, respectively.

Acknowledgements

We thank all members of the Lenart laboratory at MPI-NAT for protocols, reagents and support, in

particular Jasmin Jakobi and Antonio Politi. We thank MPI-NAT's Animal Facility, specifically Sascha

Krause and Ulrike Teichmann. We would like to thank So (Nick) Chun and Melina Schuh for

providing the recombinant EB3-mClover3 protein, Pim J Huis In't Veld and Andrea Musacchio for

Cdk1-Cyclin B complex and Dirk Görlich for Gibson assembly kit. I.A. is a member and has been

partially funded by the IMPRS Molecular Biology Programme. The laboratory of P. L. is funded by

the Max Planck Society, H. U. receives additional funding by the Deutsche Forschungsgemeinschaft

Author contributions

599 I.A. and P.L. designed and conceptualized the experiments. I.A, P.M., M.C., A.O. conducted

600 experiments and analyzed data. L.W. under the supervision of H.U. carried out the

601 phosphorproteomics analysis. Y.H. under the supervision of J.L. analyzed the proteomics data and

602 carried out other bioinformatics analyses. P.L. analyzed data and wrote the manuscript. I.A, P.M.

603 and Y.H. revised and improved the manuscript.

 Figure legends

Figure 1. Mos-MAPK inhibition prevents MII leading to parthenogenetic development

(A) Western blot of a time course using phospho-MAPK (marking activated MAPK) and phospho-
Cdk1 (marking the inactive Tyr15 phosphorylated form) antibodies to monitor Mos-MAPK and
Cdk1 activities during meiosis of starfish oocytes. Oocytes were treated with 20 μM U0126 or equal
amount of DMSO added simultaneously with the maturation hormone. Timepoints are indicated as
minutes after NEBD. Fertilization was performed 60 minutes after NEBD. Numbers to the left are in
kDa and mark the position of the molecular weight markers. For the complete blots see Source Data
File 4.

(B) Selected frames from time-lapse recording of oocytes expressing H2B-mCherry (red) and
injected with HiLyte488-tubulin (cyan) to label chromosomes and microtubules, respectively.
Oocytes were imaged through meiosis and then fertilized after meiosis I while imaging on a
spinning disk confocal microscope. Before inducing maturation, oocytes were treated either with
20 μM U0126 or an equal amount of DMSO. PBI and outlines indicate the polar bodies. Venus and
Mars signs indicate female and male pronuclei respectively. Insets show magnified views of
chromosomes. Maximum intensity projections are shown, scale bars are 20 μm (insets 5 μm), and
time is given in minutes.

(C) Individual data points and boxplot showing the time from nuclear envelope breakdown (NEBD)
to metaphase I quantified on recordings similar to shown in (B). Statistical comparison was done
using the Mann-Whitney test, n marks the number of oocytes imaged.

(D) Individual data points and boxplot showing the time from meiotic metaphase I to the first
mitotic metaphase quantified on recordings similar to those shown in (B). Statistical comparison
was done using the Mann-Whitney test, n marks the number of oocytes imaged.

(E) Immunofluorescence images of oocytes stained for microtubules (anti-tubulin, cyan), chromatin
(Hoechst 33342, red), and the lamina (anti-lamin B, green). Oocytes were treated with 20 μM
U0126 or an equal amount of DMSO and then fixed 60 and 120 minutes after NEBD, respectively.
Samples were imaged on a spinning disk microscope. Maximum intensity projections are shown,
scale bars are 10 μm.

(F) Selected frames from a time-lapse recording of oocytes expressing H2B-mCherry (red) and injected with HiLyte488-tubulin (cyan) to label chromosomes and microtubules, respectively. Oocytes were imaged through meiosis on a spinning disk confocal microscope. Before inducing maturation, oocytes were treated with 20 µM U0126. Then oocytes were either left unmanipulated or they were injected with active Cdk1-Cyclin B protein immediately following extrusion of the first polar body. Maximum intensity projections are shown, scale bars are 20 µm, and time is given in minutes. PB I denotes the first polar body, and PN is the pronucleus.

Figure 2. Overview of the proteomics and phosphoproteomics experiments

(A) Outline of the phosphoproteomics experiment. Mos-MAPK-inhibited (20 µM U0126, purple) and control (DMSO, green) oocytes were collected at metaphase I in three biological replicates and processed for phosphoproteomics. For the complete dataset see Source Data File 1.

(B) Unsupervised clustering of differentially phosphorylated peptides (rows) vs TMT channels (columns). Green: control, purple: Mos-MAPK inhibition. TMT reporter intensity values are scaled to mean of 0 and SD of 1.

(C) Gene ontology (GO) over-representation analysis of differentially phosphorylated proteins. The numbers indicate the gene set sizes and a number of differentially phosphorylated proteins.

(D) Prediction of human effector kinase families from the differentially de-phosphorylated sites.

(E) Outline of the proteomics time course experiment. Mos-MAPK-inhibited (20 µM U0126, purple) and control (DMSO, green) oocytes were collected at the specified stages at the given times in two biological replicates. Samples were processed in 3 technical replicates for proteomics and analyzed by DIA. For the complete dataset see Source Data File 2.

(F) Unsupervised clustering of centered DIA intensities of 2 biological and 3 technical replicates (columns). Green: control, purple: Mos-MAPK inhibition.

(G) Log10 normalized protein intensities for the indicated proteins. Mean and standard error of the two biological replicates and three technical repetitions of each are shown.

Figure 3. Phosphoproteomics reveals cell cycle, cytoskeleton and translation as the main processes regulated by Mos-MAPK

(A) Volcano plot of the quantified phosphopeptides. The majority of phosphopeptides were manually classified into four categories: Translation, Cytoskeleton, Cell cycle regulation, and MAPK pathway. The rest of the phosphopeptides including those from unidentified proteins are marked as gray dots. For the complete dataset see Source Data Files 1 and 3.

(B) Functional modules were manually assembled from the list of significantly affected phosphopeptides. Color code indicates the average Log2 fold change in phosphopeptide abundance upon Mos-MAPK inhibition. The numerical data is shown in a tabulated form on Table S1.

Figure 4. Mos-MAPK reduces aster growth to minimize polar body size

(A) Selected frames from a time-lapse recording of the microtubule spindle in an oocyte undergoing meiosis I on a spinning disk confocal microscope. Chromosomes are labeled with H1-Alexa568 (red) and microtubule plus tips by EB3-mClover3 protein (cyan). Before inducing maturation, the oocyte was treated with either 20 μM U0126 or an equal amount of DMSO. (left) overlay of the two fluorescent channels; (middle) the EB3-mClover3 channel is shown with adjusted gamma; (right) 3D rendering of the centrosome (cyan) and chromosomes (red). Maximum intensity projections are shown, scale bars are 20 μm.

(B, C) 3D distances of the spindle poles and the maximal length of astral microtubules at different stages of meiosis I are quantified on recordings similar to (A). n refers to the number of individual oocytes analyzed.

(D) Boxplot showing quantification of polar body sizes on transmitted light microscopy images. n refers to the number of individual oocytes analyzed. ***$p<0.0001$, statistical comparison was done using a two-tailed T-test.

(E) Bar chart showing the success rate of polar body formation. Polar bodies were counted by live imaging in H1-Alexa568-injected oocytes after completion of meiosis. n refers to the number of individual oocytes analyzed.

(F) Immunofluorescence images of oocytes stained for microtubules (anti-tubulin, cyan), and chromatin (Hoechst 33342, red). Oocytes were treated with 20 μM U0126 or an equal amount of DMSO, and then fixed at the stages indicated. Imaging was done using spinning disk confocal microscopy. Maximum intensity projections are shown, scale bar is 20 μm. Lower panels show the tubulin channel separately and with adjusted gamma (0.5).

(G) Quantification of the 3D distance between spindle poles on data similar to shown in (F).

**p<0.05, ***p<0.0001 in two-tailed T-tests.

(H) Single optical sections crossing the centrosomes selected from the projected images shown in

(F). Images are shown after gamma adjustment (0.5), scale bar is 10 μm.

Figure 5. Translation is required for MII transition, but it does not affect spindle morphology

(A) Selected frames from a time-lapse recording of an oocyte injected with H1-Alexa647 (red) and

HiLyte488-tubulin (cyan) to label chromosomes and microtubules, respectively. The oocyte was

imaged through meiosis on a spinning disk confocal microscope. Before inducing maturation, the

oocyte was treated with 10 μM emetine to block translation. Maximum intensity projections are

shown, the scale bar is 20 μm, and time is given in minutes. PB I denotes the first polar body, and

PN is the pronucleus.

(B) Oocytes fixed at metaphase I and stained for microtubules (anti-tubulin, cyan), chromatin

(Hoechst 33342, red). Oocytes were treated with emetine and DMSO or 20 μM U0126. 3D stacks

were acquired on a spinning disk microscope. Maximum intensity projections are shown, scale bars

are 20 μm.

(C, D) Boxplots showing a comparison of the pole-to-pole distance and maximal length of

microtubules at metaphase I between emetine and emetine+U0126 treated oocytes as shown on

(B). Statistical comparison was done using a two-tailed T-test.

(E) Mos-MAPK specifically downregulates pericentriolar material proteins, reduces the growth and

number of astral and interpolar microtubules, and prevents Anaphase B, thereby minimizing the

size of the polar body. Bottom: schematic illustration of correlated changes in aster size and pole

distance. Mean values shown on Fig. 4B and C are plotted on a schematic of the spindle.

Supplemental Figure Legends

Figure S1. U0126 effectively and specifically inactivates Mos-MAPK in starfish oocytes and
alters spindle morphology

(A) Oocytes were treated with the indicated concentrations of U0126 concomitant with maturation
hormone addition. Thereafter maturation was monitored by videomicroscopy, of which selected
frames are shown at the start of the recording and 60 minutes after hormone addition.

(B) Western blots of oocytes treated as in (A) using phospho-MAPK and phospho-Cdk1 antibodies
to monitor Mos-MAPK and Cdk1 activities, respectively. Numbers to the left are in kDa and mark
the position of the molecular weight markers. For the complete blots see Source Data File 4.

(C) Immunofluorescence images of oocytes stained for microtubules (anti-tubulin, cyan) and
chromatin (Hoechst 33342, red) at the indicated stages and treated with 20 µM U0126 or an equal
amount of DMSO. Imaging was done on a laser scanning confocal microscope. Maximum intensity
projections are shown, scale bars are 20 µm.

(D) Schematics of the meiotic spindle illustrating the morphometric measurements. Microtubules
are cyan, chromatin is red.

(E) Individual data points and boxplots showing 3D measurements performed on images similar to
those shown in (C). **p<0.05, ***p<0.0001, statistical analysis was done using a two-tailed T-test. n
is the number of oocytes analyzed.

Figure S2. Further analyses of the proteomics experiments

(A) Logo motif representation of the consensus site of all differentially phosphorylated peptides in
the phosphoproteomics experiment. Peptides were grouped based on the kinases that would be
most likely to be responsible for their phosphorylation. Logo motif representation of the consensus
sequence for each group most likely to be phosphorylated by Mos, MAPK, RSK and Cdk1/2,
respectively. The y-axis shown the information content that was scaled between 0 and 1 for each of
the kinase targets.

(B) Log10 normalized protein intensities for the indicated proteins in the proteomics time course experiment. Mean and standard error are shown of the two biological replicates and three technical repetitions of each.

Figure S3. Preventing Cyclin B synthesis blocks MII transition, but it does not affect MI spindle morphology

(A) Selected frames from a time-lapse recording of oocytes injected with H1-Alexa647 (red) and HiLyte488-tubulin (cyan) to label chromosomes and microtubules, respectively. Oocytes were imaged through meiosis on a spinning disk confocal microscope. Before inducing maturation, oocytes were injected with either a morpholino targeting Cyclin B or water as control. Maximum intensity projections are shown, scale bars are 20 μm, and time is given in minutes. PB I and II denote the first and second polar bodies, respectively; PN is the pronucleus.

(B) Individual data points and boxplots showing a comparison of the maximal length of microtubules at metaphase I between control and Cyclin B morpholino injected oocytes. Statistical comparison was done using a two-tailed T-test, n is the number of oocytes analyzed.

Supplemental Tables

Table S1. Tabulated data for the functional modules shown on Fig. 3B

Manually annotated functional modules are listed, color code indicates the average Log2 fold change in phosphopeptide abundance upon Mos-MAPK inhibition.

Source Data Files

Source Data File 1. The phosphoproteomics dataset (DDA-TMT)

Differential expression analysis (DEA) of the ratios of phosphorylated peptides to their total protein intensities in U0126 versus DMSO treated samples.

Source Data File 2. The proteomics time course experiment (DIA)

Differential expression analysis (DEA) of the peptides to their total protein intensities in the
different conditions relative to the MI control (DMSO) sample.

Source Data File 3. Significant hits of the phosphoproteomics experiment

Results of the manual annotation of the significant hits (p-adj>0.05) from the differential
expression analysis (DEA).

Source Data Files 4. and 5. Uncropped images of Western blots

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Figure 1.

A

	Im	NEBD 0'	MI +30'	MII +60'	+90'	+120'	+150'	Mitosis +180'

DMSO

20 µM U0126

P-MAPK (active)

P-Cdk1 (Tyr15) (inactive)

B

Chromatin (H2B-mCherry) Microtubules (HiLyte488-tubulin)

DMSO: NEBD 0' | Metaphase I 43' | Polar body I 57' PB I | Interkinesis 65' | Metaphase II 79' | Polar body II 86' PB I PB II | Interphase 129' ♀ ♂ | Mitotic meta 165'

U0126: NEBD 0' | Metaphase I 42' | Polar body I 54' PB I | Interphase 62' | 79' | 88' | 121' | Mitotic meta 150'

C Time from NEBD to Metaphase I

n.s.

Time (min) — DMSO n=30, U0126 n=16

D Time from meiotic to mitotic metaphase

n.s.

Time (min) — DMSO n=11, U0126 n=15

E
DMSO, unfertilized 60 min after NEBD
U0126, unfertilized 60 min after NEBD
DMSO, fertilized 120 min after NEBD

Chromatin (Hoechst 33342)
Microtubules (anti-tubulin)
Lamina (anti-lamin B)

F U0126 treated oocytes injected with Cdk1-Cyclin B at Meiosis I

U0126 No Cdk1-CycB: 0' PB I PN | 15' | 30' | 45' | 60' | 90'

U0126 Cdk1-CycB injected: 0' PB I | 15' | 30' | 45' | 60' | 90'

Chromatin (H2B-mCherry) Microtubules (Atto488-tubulin)

Figure 2.

Figure 3.

Figure 4.

A

Prometa I | Meta I | Ana I | Telo I | Prometa I | Meta I | Ana I | Telo I | Prometa I | Meta I | Ana I | Telo I

DMSO

U0126

Chromatin (H1-Alexa568)
Microtubules (EB3-mClover3)

Microtubules (gamma adjusted)

Chromatin (isosurface)
Centrosomes (spot detection)

B Pole-to-pole distance

DMSO (n=10)
U0126 (n=9)

d (μm)

Prometa I Meta I Ana I Telo I

C Maximal length of astral microtubules

DMSO (n=4)
U0126 (n=4)

l (μm)

Prometa I Meta I Ana I Telo I

D Polar body diameter

***

PB I diameter (μm)

n=41   n=36
DMSO   U0126

E % successful polar body

% oocytes with PBI

n=42   n=43
DMSO   U0126

F

DMSO | U0126

Prometa I | Meta I | Ana I | Telo I | Prometa I | Meta I | Ana I | Telo I

Chromatin (Hoechst)   Microtubules (anti-tubulin)   Microtubules (gamma adjusted)

G

** | n.s. | *** | ***

Pole-to-pole distance (μm)

DMSO
U0126

n=28 n=20 | n=5 n=7 | n=10 n=24 | n=2 n=10
Prometa I | Meta I | Ana I | Telo I

H Single slice, gamma adjusted

DMSO | U0126

R = 20 μm 10 μm 5 μm | R = 20 μm 10 μm 5 μm

Figure 5.

A Translation inhibited (Emetine)

Chromatin (H1-Alexa647)   Microtubules (HiLyte488-tubulin)

B

| Emetine + DMSO | Emetine + U0126 |

Chromatin (Hoechst 33342)
Microtubules (anti-tubulin)

C Pole-to-pole distance

3D pole distance (µm)

***

n=10   n=11

Emetine   Emetine + U0126

D Maximal length of astral microtubules

Microtubule length (µm)

***

n=14   n=17

Emetine   Emetine + U0126

E Model for Mos-MAPK mediated changes to spindle morphology that minimize polar body size

Average values taken from Fig. 3B and C: l = length of astral microtubules d = pole-to-pole distance