Polyamines promote disordered protein phase separation

Matthew Percival[1], Christian F. Pantoja[1], Maria-Sol Cima-Omori[1], Stefan Becker[2], and Markus Zweckstetter[1,2*]

[1] German Center for Neurodegenerative Diseases (DZNE), Von-Siebold-Str. 3a, 37075 Göttingen.

[2] Max Planck Institute for Multidisciplinary Sciences, Department of NMR-based Structural Biology, Am Fassberg 11, 37077 Göttingen, Germany.

* correspondence: Markus.Zweckstetter@dzne.de

Abstract

Membrane-less organelles are spatially heterogenous deposits of interacting macromolecules, often intrinsically disordered proteins and RNA, that form and dissolve in response to cellular stimuli. How membrane-less organelles control composition while maintaining stimuli-responsiveness in an environment with competitive interactions is not well understood. Here we demonstrate that natural polyamines, which are found in all living organisms and help in many biological processes, promote protein phase separation via attractive interactions with acidic disordered domains. We show that the abundant polyamine spermine promotes phase separation of the stress-granule associated protein G3BP1 and modulates together with RNA the phase separation and amyloid formation of the Parkinson's disease-related protein ➔-synuclein. Polyamine-promoted phase separation is controllable via polyamine acetylation and RNA-mediated competitive interactions. The results suggest that cellular polyamines may serve diverse roles in biomolecular condensation and the regulation of membrane-less organelles.

Introduction

Membrane-less organelles (MLOs) form via a process akin to liquid-liquid phase separation (LLPS) and are implicated in a wide range of biological processes [1]. MLO-associated biomolecular condensation involves reversible interactions amongst macromolecules with spatially distributed stickers along the sequence [2,3]. MLOs are spatially heterogenous, consist of many different macromolecules, and are stimuli responsive [4,5]. The question of how MLOs control composition while maintaining stimuli-responsiveness in a cellular environment of competitive interactions is not understood.

The natural polyamines spermine, spermidine and putrescine, cellularly abundant small cationic molecules, are found in most living organisms [6]. Their multivalent, cationic nature at physiological pH has led to the suggestion that in vivo their main state is in the bound state with nucleic acids since they are strong polyelectrolytes [6]. Polyamines can also interact electrostatically with acidic domains of disordered proteins and, in doing so, affect protein conformations and self-assembly behaviour [7–9]. The polyamines regulate multiple cellular processes, ranging from translation, autophagy and ion channel gating [10–12]. This polyamine-mediated cellular regulation is critical for cellular function, and dysregulation is considered a contributing factor to cancer and neurodegenerative diseases [13–15].

Owing to the established connection between polyamines and nucleic acids, in addition to the plethora of intermolecular interactions between RNA and disordered proteins in MLOs [5,16–18], polyamines may thus have an important role in contributing to the regulation of MLOs via competitive interactions.

Here, we study the mechanistic connection between the three natural polyamines spermine, spermidine and putrescine, and RNA or disordered proteins, and their resulting phase separation behaviour. We demonstrate that polyamines promote the phase separation of the stress granule-associated protein G3BP1 and the Parkinson' disease associated protein ➔-synuclein (αSyn) in a polyamine concentration and acetylation state-dependent manner. We further show that RNA sequesters polyamines

57 from αSyn's C-terminus, dissolves αSyn from polyamine-induced droplets and delays

58 αSyn's aggregation kinetics highlighting the importance of competitive interactions in

59 the regulation of phase separation. Our study suggests an important role of natural

60 polyamines for the regulation of membrane-less organelles.

Results

The cellular polyamine spermine promotes G3BP1 phase separation

G3BP1 is a central component of stress granules, MLOs which form in response to

cellular stress and sequester mRNAs [19–21]. A plethora of evidence links polyamines to

stress granule regulation [15,22–24]. At the same time it is challenging to determine

whether polyamines are directly important for stress granule assembly or disassembly,

i.e. via direct intermolecular interactions with the constituents. G3BP1 contains a large

acidic segment in the centre of its chain which is disordered (**Fig. 1a,b**). Referred to as

IDR1, this domain represents a substantial portion of the G3BP1's sequence. It is also

the most acidic domain of the protein **(Fig. 1a).** We therefore hypothesised that the

strongly positively charged polyamine spermine can interact with the IDR1 region and

promote G3BP1's phase separation.

To determine whether spermine can directly interact with the IDR1 region of G3BP1,

we synthesized a 20 amino acid peptide from G3BP1's IDR1 (G3BP1-pep). The NMR

signals of G3BP1-pep were sequence specifically assigned using a combination of two-

dimensional (2D) TOCSY and NOESY experiments. Subsequently, spermine was mixed

with the peptide and a 2D ^{1}H-^{15}N HSQC recorded **(Fig. 1c)**. Comparison of the ^{1}H-^{15}N

HSQC without spermine revealed many spermine-induced chemical shift perturbations

(**Fig. 1c**). Sequence-specific analysis assigned the strongest perturbations to the acidic

C-terminus of G3BP1-pep, and conversely very few to the N-terminal residues **(Fig. 1d)**.

Residues E12 and V13 (corresponding to G3BP1 residues E152 and V153) displayed the

largest chemical shift perturbations, likely highlighting their positions at the centre of

the spermine interaction site.

Next, we performed full-length G3BP1 phase separation experiments without and with
spermine. Firstly, we incubated 5 μM G3BP1 in 8 % w/v PEG-8000 solution. Phase
contrast microscopy confirmed the presence of droplets **(Fig. 1e, left panel)**. Similar
sized droplets were observed in the presence of spermine **(Fig. 1e, right panel)**. We
then decreased the G3BP1 concentration to 3 μM and the PEG-8000 concentration to 5
% (**Fig. 1e**, **lower panel).** In these less phase separation--prone conditions, only very
few droplets were observed in the absence of spermine **(Fig. 1e, left panel)**. However,
addition of spermine generated more droplets of larger size **(Fig. 1e, right panel)**.
Turbidity measurements reinforced these findings (**Fig. 1f**). In the absence of
spermine, the solution turbidity of 3 μM G3BP1 with 5% w/v PEG-8000 was very low but
increased upon addition of spermine (**Fig. 1f**). The data demonstrate that the cellular
polyamine spermine promotes the phase separation of the stress granule-scaffold
protein G3BP1 **(Fig. 1g).**

αSyn and spermine form clusters in solution

Next, we investigated the interaction of the naturally occurring polyamine spermine
with the intrinsically disordered 140-residue protein αSyn. NMR spectroscopy revealed
a interaction site in the acidic C-terminus of αSyn (**Fig. 2a).** In agreement with previous
reports, the interaction site is centred around the most acidic region of the C-terminus
comprising residues D119-E136 and the affinity is in the micromolar range [9] **(Fig. 2a,**
inset).

Phase separation between αSyn and spermine was tested using a temperature-ramp
dynamic light scattering (DLS) experiment. In the presence of spermine, bimodal
decays and 'wiggles' (**Fig 2b**, arrows) present in the autocorrelation function at 15 °C
and 50 °C indicated the presence of inhomogeneities likely representing high
molecular weight structures **(Fig. 2b)**. In contrast, without αSyn present the decay was
monomodal and representative of small molecule tumbling, such as spermine
(Supplementary Fig. 1a). The mass-weighted average radius of αSyn and spermine
was 12.1 nm compared to 5.1 nm without spermine present **(Supplementary Fig. 1b)**.
These averaged radii are much larger than monomeric αSyn and reflect the presence
of high molecular weight species coexisting with monomeric protein. Size analysis

indicated that the high molecular weight species are in the range of 10-25 nm in
diameter **(Fig. 2c).** The mass fraction of high molecular weight species with both αSyn
and spermine present was higher at 50 °C compared to 15 °C but was not statistically
significant and showed a strong dependence on αSyn: spermine molar ratio **(Fig 2c)**.
This stoichiometry-dependency is to be expected if the high molecular weight species
that are formed are correlated to the heterotypic interaction of spermine with the C-
terminus of αSyn.

To confirm the presence of high molecular weight structures, samples were imaged
with transmission electron microscopy. Electron microscopy revealed oligomers of
various shapes **(Fig. 2d)**. At room temperature and 50 °C, oligomers were present in
both αSyn and αSyn/spermine samples **(Fig. 2d and Supplementary Fig. 2d)**.
However, the average size of the oligomers grew substantially in the presence of
spermine **(Fig. 2d**, bottom row**).** In contrast, without αSyn the micrographs were
sparsely populated **(Supplementary Fig. 2b).** The micrographs containing spermine
and αSyn additionally displayed the presence of larger spherical objects (diameter of
~32 nm) (**Fig 2d, arrows, inset).** However, most of the objects were not spherical and
appeared to have more complex shapes **(Fig 2d).** Interested in the time-dependent
evolution of the clusters, we measured the same samples after an incubation of four
days at room temperature. In the case of αSyn and spermine, the size homogeneity of
the oligomeric particles apparently increased during the incubation period **(Fig. 2d,**
lower right). In contrast, the micrograph with only αSyn was more sparse after
incubation for four days when compared to the start of incubation **(Fig 2d, upper right**
compared to **Fig. 2b, upper left)**, suggesting that the oligomeric particles are unstable
without spermine.

Previous reports demonstrated that αSyn can form nanoclusters in high ionic strength
and crowding conditions that evolve over-time into a macroscopic phase separated
state [25]. In contrast, we did not observe time-evolution into a macroscopic phase
separated state; in contrast, the clusters were more stable with spermine than without.
We propose that in these non-crowded and low ionic strength conditions that
spermine enhances the clustering ability of αSyn by partial charge neutralisation of the

highly acidic C-terminus. The process might also involve spermine-induced bridging of

αSyn chains as a consequence of spermine's multivalency, as has been proposed in

other systems [26]. We therefore suggest that a combination of heterotypic (αSyn:

spermine) and homotypic (αSyn: αSyn) interactions drive the cluster formation. While

mixtures of oppositely and strongly charged polymers can self-assemble into micelles

or coacervates due to entropic forces from counter-ion and hydration release, we

consider it more likely that this weakly charged system which contains significant

hydrophobicity from αSyn is assembling due to enthalpic forces resulting from

electrostatic and hydrophobic contacts.

Despite these differences, the relatively narrow size distribution of the clusters and the

proposed mechanism of formation has some resemblance to the formation of complex

coacervate micelles that form nanostructured colloids with a characteristic size of tens

of nm [27]. In the αSyn and spermine clusters, undoubtedly a contribution to the stability

of the clusters comes from the excess charge present in the cluster which might

originate from the C- or N-terminal regions of αSyn or spermine.

Spermine promotes phase separation of αSyn

To investigate whether αSyn and spermine can also form larger micrometer-sized

droplets, we added the macromolecular crowder PEG-8000 to the solution. At the

concentrations tested, neither αSyn alone, nor αSyn with only spermine, nor spermine

with PEG underwent phase separation [28] (**Supplementary Fig. 2a)**. Similarly, αSyn with

only PEG did not phase separate, in agreement with previous reports **(Supplementary**

Fig. 2a) [28]. However, in the presence of spermine and 20 % PEG turbidity

measurements revealed sigmoidal growth profiles, with maxima occurring at

approximately a 1:5 to 1:10 molar ratio of αSyn to spermine (**Fig. 3a).** Microscopy

experiments revealed the presence of αSyn-rich droplets in a spermine concentration-

dependent manner highlighting the αSyn: spermine stoichiometry is important for the

phase separation (**Fig. 3b).** Additionally, phase separation between αSyn and spermine

was observed without fluorescently-labelled αSyn **(Supplementary Fig. 2b)**. The phase

separation area was substantially reduced at a 1:1 molar ratio of αSyn to spermine

suggesting αSyn phase separation in these conditions depends strongly on the molar

ratio **(Fig. 3b, c).** The droplet size distributions were similar at both 1:5 and 1:20 molar

ratios of αSyn to spermine indicating that the effect of spermine has saturated **(Fig.**

3d).

To determine the lowest concentration of αSyn at which phase separation could be

detected, the αSyn to spermine molar ratio was held constant and only the αSyn

concentration was varied **(Supplementary Fig. 2c)**. αSyn-rich droplets were detected at

20 μM but not 10 μM, and their total area and frequency increased at 50 μM

(Supplementary Fig. 2c, d). Therefore, the lowest concentration for phase separation

of αSyn in the presence of spermine and 20 % PEG is likely between 10 and 20 μM. At

the lower PEG concentration of 10 % w/v, the lowest concentration increased to ~200

μM **(Supplementary Fig. 2e, f).** At 5 % PEG, no phase separation was observed

(**Supplementary Fig. 2e, f**). These results are consistent with a combination of

heterotypic (spermine and αSyn), homotypic (αSyn and αSyn) and crowder-induced

interactions leading to a phase separated state.

PEG-8000 is excluded from the αSyn: spermine condensate

A recent report demonstrated that PEG-8000 is enriched in the condensate of NPM-1[29] .

This contrasts with other reports showing that PEG is predominantly excluded from

biomolecule condensates [30,31]. To determine the composition of the αSyn condensate

and the recruitment of solutes we used spatially-resolved NMR [32]. This high-resolution

method allows us to discriminate signals in a position-dependent manner between

those in the condensate (lower) and the supernatant (upper) phase.

In preparing a phase separated condensate of an aggregation-prone protein such as

αSyn there is a trade-off between increasing the αSyn concentration to increase the

size of the condensate – enabling easier experimentation – and decreasing the protein

concentration to reduce the rates of αSyn aggregation. In conditions of 400μM αSyn,

4mM spermine and 10% w/v PEG-8000 we observed an abundance of um-sized

droplets using phase contrast microscopy **(Supplementary Fig. 3A, bottom)**. For the

NMR experiment we increased the concentration of αSyn to 600μM and maintained the

PEG concentration at 10% w/v and the αSyn: spermine molar ratio at 1: 10. Phase

separation of only αSyn was not observed even at 800 µM concentration **(Supplementaty Fig. 3A, top).** After centrifugation of the αSyn, spermine and PEG solution a turbid region was formed at the bottom of the Shigemi NMR tube indicating the formation of an αSyn-rich condensate **(Supplementaty Fig. 3C).**

After equilibration of the sample at 15^0C we performed a 1D echo imaging experiment to map the signal intensity of the water signal along the z-axis **(Supplementary Fig. 3B).** For αSyn which forms a single homogenous phase in these conditions the profile is analogous to a bell or hat representing a uniformly mixed solution **(Supplementary Fig. 3A, grey).** In the case of αSyn: spermine and PEG an intensity dropped occurred close to the bottom of the Shigemi NMR tube **(Supplementary Fig. 3B, black).** The intensity drop suggests the presence of a second phase with less water than the first phase.

We then recorded 1D spatially resolved NMR spectra in the condensate (lower) and supernatant (upper) phases of the sample **(Supplementary Fig. 3E).** The signals from the condensate were severely broadened which are a consequence of magnetic susceptibility differences between both phases in addition to any changes to chemical environments **(Supplementary Fig. 3E, asterisks, arrow).** The signals from the methyl region (0.6 – 1.1ppm) which contains signals only from αSyn, as well as the methylene region which contains signals from the alpha and beta protons of spermine **(Supplementary Fig. 3D),** appear more intense in the condensate, whereas that of DSS (sodium trimethylsilylpropanesulfonate) – used as a chemical shift calibration reference - is severely broadened almost beyond detection **(Supplementary Fig. 3E).**

To determine how the composition changes from the condensate to the upper phase we recorded spectra at different positions in the sample. This spatially-resolved method excites 1.5 mm slices at different z-positions in the NMR sample allowing the possibility to discriminate signals in the condensate and upper phase of the system **(Supplementary Fig. 3F, upper cartoon).** Therefore, we were able to determine the composition of the condensate by initially exciting a region containing only the Shigemi susceptibility-matched glass – which contains no liquid - and the condensate, thus excluding signals from the upper phase. The analysis determined that αSyn's signal

intensity plateaus in condensate before decreasing at higher positions which have larger contributions from the upper phase **(Supplementary Fig. 3F).** Therefore, αSyn is present in the homogenous phase of the condensate. After sufficient increments in the position of the slice in the z-direction both the condensate and the upper phases are excited, and this is the regime where the PEG-8000 signal appears **(Supplementary Fig. 3G).** In contrast to the αSyn signals which have reached a plateau, the PEG-8000 - CH- signal was substantially enhanced. Therefore, since the PEG-8000 signal intensity positively correlates with extent of upper phase excitation we concluded that PEG-8000 is excluded from the condensate. This is in agreement with previous reports which demonstrated PEG exclusion from αSyn droplets using fluorescent methods [25].

αSyn is enriched in the condensate

To quantify the concentrations of the solutes in the two phases we recorded reference spectra of αSyn, PEG and spermine following the protocol presented previously [32] **(Supplementary Fig. 4A, B, C).** The analysis determined that the concentration of αSyn in the dilute and condensed phases was 300.0 ± 3.7 µM and 2212.5 ± 13.9 µM, respectively **(Supplementary Fig. 4D).** This yields a partition coefficient for αSyn – defined as the quotient of concentrations in the condensate and dilute phase – of 7.4. In contrast, using the resolved -CH- signal of PEG we determined its concentration in the dilute phase to be 10.5 ± 1.1% w/v.

Quantifying spermine's concentration had low accuracy since its detectable 1H signals originate from its methylene -CH2- groups which are also present in the side chains of some amino acids, for example lysine which is abundant in αSyn's N-terminus. Despite this, we were able to determine the upper phase concentration of spermine to be 5.4 ± 0.8 mM. Since this is lower than the initial mixing conditions of 6 mM it suggests that spermine is abundant in both phases and is probably slightly enriched in the αSyn-enriched condensate. Therefore, PEG-8000 is excluded from the condensate, whereas αSyn is majorly and spermine minorly enriched in the condensate. These calculations are consistent with a segregative phase separation process between αSyn: spermine and PEG-8000.

Time-dependency of condensate composition

We next investigated the time-dependency of the condensate composition. Over a 1-month period we detected a gradual decrease to the signal intensity of the αSyn methyl region and comparatively less change from the other solutes abundant in the condensate **(Supplementaty Fig. 5B.** The intensity of αSyn's methyl region decreased to 25% of its initial value over this time-period. Moreover, while a condensate apparently remained visible in the NMR tube the sample had aged significantly **(Supplementaty Fig. 5A**). This hardening of the condensate likely reflects the aggregation process of αSyn into NMR-invisible aggregates.

Spermine-assisted αSyn phase separation accelerates αSyn aggregation

It is known that the polyamines and especially spermine can accelerate the aggregation kinetics of αSyn [33]. How the aggregation kinetics in the phase separated solution compare is less clear. In phase separated conditions of 50 µM αSyn, 500 µM spermine and 20 % w/v PEG-8000, the lag phase decreased substantially compared to αSyn and PEG mixtures. The lag phase of αSyn fibrillization decreased to ~10 hours with both spermine and PEG present. In contrast, with only PEG present the lag phase was ~40 hours, i.e. ~4 times longer (**Fig. 3f**). Under the same aggregation conditions but with only αSyn and spermine or with only αSyn, no thioflavin-T (ThT) positive aggregation of the protein was detected during the incubation period (**Fig. 3f**). We also observed significant changes to the areas under the ThT curves, with the αSyn/spermine/PEG condition yielding higher fluorescence intensities compared to non-phase separated conditions (**Fig. 3f**). This may be due to multiple factors, for example it could be due to a more efficient binding of ThT to the αSyn fibrils formed in phase separation conditions.

To confirm the presence of aggregates, the samples were imaged with transmission electron microscopy at different time points of the aggregation process. At the early stages, phase separation but no aggregation of the αSyn/spermine/PEG sample was evident, while without spermine the sample was clear **(Fig. 3g, first column)**. After ~24h when the ThT intensity of the phase separated sample reached saturation, phase contrast microscopy revealed both aggregates and droplets, while without spermine

the sample was again clear **(Fig. 3g, second column)**. At 48h of incubation,

transmission electron microscopy revealed aggregates in both cases, but under the

conditions of phase separation long and fibrillar species were present **(Fig. 3g, third**

column). To confirm that these species were beta-sheet rich species, a low

concentration of ThT was spiked into the samples. Fluorescence microscopy revealed

ThT staining for both the αSyn-rich droplets and the fibrillar aggregates, albeit

approximately three times stronger in the fibrillar species **(Fig. 3h, second column**

and inset). In contrast to the phase separated sample, αSyn and PEG alone showed no

ThT staining **(Fig. 3h, first column)**. The analysis demonstrates that spermine-assisted

phase separation of αSyn into protein-rich droplets accelerates its aggregation kinetics

into fibrillar species that coexist with aged droplets **(Fig.** 3I, III+). In summary, a

combination of heterotypic (spermine: αSyn) and homotypic (αSyn: αSyn) interactions

are necessary to initially form a spermine-assisted αSyn cluster **(Fig.** 3I, I+). Following

this, spermine-dependent crowding-induced interactions result in a segregative phase

separation process which completely partitions αSyn and PEG in opposing phases

(Supplementaty Fig, III+). This phase separated state is associated with accelerated

rates of αSyn aggregation which is due largely to the high concentrations of the

protein in the condensate.

Acetylation of spermine reduces αSyn phase separation

Inside cells, spermine can be back-converted to spermidine and putrescine, two

shorter but biologically abundant polyamines [34] (**Fig. 4a**). Moreover, mono- and di-

acetylated forms of spermine often form en-route to its back-conversion to spermidine

and putrescine (**Fig. 4a**) [12]. Acetylation of polyamines has been suggested to be an

important mechanism of polyamine control since aberrant acetyltransferase behaviour

results in multiple cellular disasters [34,35]. The major physicochemical consequence of

back-conversion and acetylation is that it reduces the net charge of the polyamine,

thus decreasing the electrostatic potential for interaction with oppositely charged

macromolecules**.**

While the interaction site at the acidic C-terminus of αSyn remains identical for each of

the polyamines according to NMR titrations**,** the interaction strength decreased in the

order spermidine > mono-acetyl spermine > putrescine > di-acetyl spermine which
correlates with the decreasing net charge of the polyamines (**Fig. 4b, c**)**.** To determine
the influence of the polyamine modifications on αSyn phase separation, we conducted
turbidity experiments with each of the polyamines. In comparison to spermine, higher
concentrations of each of the polyamines were necessary to reach the αSyn phase
separated state **(Fig. 4d)**. Spermidine, bearing approximately 2.7 protonated groups at
neutral pH, led to αSyn-rich droplets at a 1:5 molar ratio and a 1:20 molar ratio **(Fig. 4d,**
e and Supplementary Fig. 6a, b). At a molar ratio of 1:1, however, no phase
separation was observed **(Supplementary Fig. 6a, c)**. Putrescine, bearing slightly less
than two protonated groups at neutral pH, required a 100-fold molar excess to phase
separate αSyn **(Fig. 4e, second column and Supplementary Fig. 3d, e)**. This reflects
the much weaker binding affinity of putrescine to αSyn.

Acetylation of spermine also led to higher concentrations being necessary to reach the
αSyn phase separated state, with 1 mM necessary for mono-acetyl spermine (**Fig. 4e**
and Supplementary Fig. 6f, g). For di-acetyl spermine, no phase separation was
observed at any concentration **(Fig. 4e)**. Partly this is due to the much weaker binding
affinity of di-acetyl spermine to αSyn compared to the other polyamines, but also it
reflects the poor solubility of the compound in water as higher concentrations were
unreachable without precipitation. The ability to promote αSyn phase separation was
thus ordered spermidine > mono-acetyl spermine > putrescine > di-acetyl spermidine.
Since this order is identical to that obtained from the interaction strength in non-phase
separated conditions using NMR, it supports the importance of polyamine-mediated
electrostatic interactions with the C-terminus of αSyn to the phase separation process.
The metabolic conversion of spermine and physiologically essential acetylation of
spermine's primary amines thus reduces the interaction strength and phase separation
with the paradigmatic disordered protein αSyn.

Electrostatics control polyamine-assisted αSyn phase separation
The above experiments demonstrated the importance of the molar ratio of αSyn to
polyamine, and the type of polyamine. If electrostatic, rather than hydrophobic,
interactions are largely responsible for the phase separation between the polyamines

and αSyn there should be a reduction in phase separation volume with increasing ionic
strength. At 100 μM αSyn and 1000 μM spermine, addition of up to 50 mM NaCl did not
significantly affect total droplet area **(Fig. 4f, g and Supplementary Fig. 6h)**. However,
at 200 mM NaCl turbidity was absent and minimal αSyn-rich objects were observed
with microscopy (**Fig. 4f, g, right-most column and Fig. 4g**). Turbidity experiments
confirmed a decrease in phase separation upon reaching 200mM salt concentration
(**Fig. 4h).** The sensitivity of polyamine-promoted phase separation to salt concentration
is analogous to the influence of ionic strength on complex coacervation whereby
strong polyelectrolytes, which interact electrostatically, phase separate [36]. This is
despite the phase separation process in our system undoubtedly involving a
combination of heterotypic, homotypic, and crowding-induced interactions that involve
ion-pairs, hydrogen bonds, Van der Waal's interactions, hydration and excluded-
volume effects. While therefore it may be too simplistic to label this process as complex
coacervation, it nevertheless highlights the importance of the heterotypic electrostatics
for the phase separation in this system.
368
Our results add to previous reports on αSyn phase separation that demonstrated high
ionic strength can lead to phase separation of the protein
[25,37]. Our results differ because of the presence of spermine to promote a heterotypic
phase separation which circumvents the necessity of high ionic strength to promote
the homotypic phase separation. This also avoids the perturbation of bulk hydration
expected at high ionic strength. Moreover, spermine interacts more specifically to
αSyn's C-terminus compared to monovalent cations because of its high net charge. As
a consequence, in this case high ionic strength screens the electrostatic interaction
between spermine and αSyn, thus weakening the interaction and exposing αSyn's
charged C-terminus to solution. This prevents the protein from phase separation
because of the high solubility of the C-terminus. This is consistent with previous
reports on the distinction between heterotypic and homotypic phase separation of
charged biopolymers [38].

RNA sequesters polyamines from the αSyn C-terminus

RNA is abundant in MLOs where it forms a variety of intermolecular interactions with

stickers of disordered proteins [17,20,39]. Since polyamines interact strongly with RNA and

can promote its phase separation [31], we investigated the interaction equilibria of RNA,

polyamines and αSyn and its relation to phase separation. We firstly characterised the

phase separation of polyU RNA and spermine using DLS **(Supplementary Fig. 7a)**. We

observed a lower critical solution temperature transition for the phase separation, as

reported previously [40] **(Supplementary Fig. 7a)**. Microscopy confirmed the presence of

RNA and spermine droplets which grow in size with higher PEG concentrations, in

agreement with previous studies [31] **(Supplementary Fig. 7b)**.

To study the interaction in more detail, we used ^{1}H NMR at 15 °C to prevent phase

separation. Titrating polyU RNA into a 250 μM spermine solution led, at low RNA

concentrations, to lower chemical shift values of spermine's methylene protons

indicative of an interaction **(Supplementary Fig. 7d, inset right column)**. At higher

concentrations a combination of large chemical shift changes alongside broadening of

spermine's signals occurred **(Supplementary Fig. 7c inset right panel and**

Supplementary Fig. 7e, grey shaded region). The broadening of spermine's chemical

shifts indicates a strong interaction between RNA and spermine. The origin of the

broadening can either be from chemical exchange effects or an increased transverse

relaxation rate of spermine in the bound state with RNA. Importantly, the pH remained

the same during the titration removing any possible pH-induced chemical shift

changes to these signals (Data not shown).

Since spermine interacts with both RNA and αSyn, we next investigated a ternary

system of spermine, αSyn and RNA. If RNA has a much higher binding affinity for

spermine than αSyn we expected a similar effect to spermine's chemical shifts with

increasing RNA concentration; moreover, we expected the spermine-induced chemical

shift perturbations of αSyn to return to their reference values reflecting a decreased

population of spermine-bound αSyn.

In the presence of αSyn, spermine's methylene proton signals show a similar pattern to

what was observed with only RNA in solution, namely lower field chemical shift

changes followed by signal broadening at higher RNA concentrations **(Supplementary**

Fig. 7f, inset, and Supplementary Fig. 7g). Similarly to the case with only polyU RNA

present, this behaviour occurs at around charge neutrality conditions **(Supplementary**

Fig. 7g, first pink shaded region). This analysis suggests that the interaction between

polyU RNA and spermine is qualitatively similar with or without αSyn present. We also

recorded HSQC spectra of αSyn in the same conditions to determine if RNA is

decreasing the population of the αSyn: spermine bound state **(Fig 5. a, b).** The analysis

determined that αSyn's chemical shifts in the presence of spermine return to their

reference values with increasing RNA concentration **(Fig 5, C)**. The chemical shifts do

not return exactly to the reference chemical shifts of αSyn indicating that there is still

some spermine correlated to the C-terminus at high polyU RNA concentration. There

was no evidence of broadening of αSyn's chemical shifts, nor of chemical shift

perturbations in the lysine-rich N-terminus of the protein. These observations suggest

that RNA – as a consequence of its much higher binding affinity for spermine than αSyn

[6] – is sequestering spermine from the C-terminus of αSyn.

RNA-mediated sequestration of spermine dissolves αSyn droplets and delays

aggregation

We next asked how the presence of RNA and αSyn, two competing binding partners for

spermine, impacts αSyn's phase separation with the polyamine.

In microscopy-based phase separation experiments, we observed that with increasing

RNA concentration the intensity of αSyn's fluorescence decreased substantially **(Fig. 6a,**

b and Supplementary Fig. 8). At the lowest RNA concentration used, αSyn remained

strongly concentrated in the droplets **(Fig. 6a, top row)**. At higher polyU RNA

concentrations, however, the fluorescence intensity decreased **(Fig. 6b)** and shell-like

droplets became present **(Fig. 6a, middle row)**. At these high RNA concentrations αSyn

appeared to partition to the interface of some droplets **(Fig. 6a, insets).** The data

indicate that polyamine-promoted phase separation of αSyn is readily controllable

through competitive interactions involving RNA. This highlights the importance of the

αSyn: spermine heterotypic interactions for the phase system in this system which

function alongside the αSyn homotypic and crowding-induced interactions. Clearly,

despite the complexity of the system the spermine-mediated electrostatics represent a

dominating contribution to the process of αSyn phase separation.

RNA-induced release of spermine from αSyn's C-terminus and subsequent depletion of

αSyn from droplets suggests that RNA might decrease αSyn's aggregation kinetics in

the presence of spermine. Consistent with this hypothesis we found that RNA slows

αSyn's aggregation kinetics in the presence of spermine in otherwise identical phase

separation conditions (**Fig. 6c, d**). With increasing concentrations of RNA, the lag time

of αSyn's aggregation increases substantially relative to the reference phases

separation condition (**Fig. 6d**). This indicates that the competition-induced release of

spermine from the C-terminus of αSyn and the corresponding dissolution from the

droplets attenuates αSyn's aggregation kinetics **(Fig. 6e)**. We also observed that the

area under the curve decreased with increasing RNA concentration. The reasons

behind this can be many, for example the presence of droplets and partitioning of ThT

could affect its fluorescence yield, or it could be due to a change in the intercalation of

ThT with the fibrils in the different conditions.

Discussion

Cellular condensates likely form through a process involving a combination of phase

separation (density-process) and gelation (network-process) of sticker-containing

biomolecules involving both homotypic and heterotypic interactions [1,41,42]. Abundant

cellular molecules are likely to promote, negate and control the formation and

regulation of membrane-less organelles (MLO) in the complex environment of cells [43].

Here we show that the cellularly abundant natural polyamines, which may exceed

millimolar concentrations inside cells [44], promote the phase separation of MLO-

associated proteins containing acidic domains (**Fig. 1-4**).

G3BP1 is a scaffold protein of stress granules which has its saturation concentration

for phase separation lowered in the presence of RNA, an interaction that occurs

predominantly at the basic termini of the protein [33]. It was found that removal of the

central, long acidic segment of G3BP1 (IDR1) in these conditions enhanced the phase

separation of G3BP1 in the presence of RNA. This led the authors to suggest that the

acidic disordered region represents an autoinhibitory domain of G3BP1's phase

separation [19]. However, this is a context-dependent classification since intramolecular

interactions which compete with intermolecular interactions (whether RNA or

polyamines) that are necessary for the phase separation of the protein will likely

increase the saturation concentration. Our results show that the natural polyamine

spermine promotes the phase separation of G3BP1 (**Fig. 1**).

We further show that spermine increases the clustering, phase separation and

aggregation kinetics of the Parkinson's disease-associated protein αSyn (**Fig. 2-3**).

Interestingly, αSyn has recently been suggested as a modulator of processing bodies –

a type of MLO – and mRNA stability [45]. A speculative suggestion is that polyamines –

themselves strongly correlated to cellular mRNA – are involved in the clustering, phase

separation and aggregation of αSyn in MLOs [41]. This may be especially important

considering the increasingly appreciated association of polyamines with Parkinson's

disease [15]. We also show that the polyamine-mediated demixing depends on RNA

concentration, with increasing RNA concentration sequestering polyamines from the

acidic domain and reversing αSyn phase separation (**Fig. 5, 6**). Since polyamines can

reach high cellular concentrations (> 1 mM) this effect may be substantial. Consistent

with a regulatory role of polyamines in the life cycle of MLOs, polyamines are known to

regulate the association of RNA-binding proteins with mRNA via competitive

interactions [46]. These competitive interactions reflect a mechanism that cells may exert

to control composition, assembly and disassembly of MLOs.

Acidic domains of proteins which interact with polyamines might be considered

analogous to RNA-binding domains of proteins in that they control saturation

concentrations of proteins via electrostatic complementarity. Polyamines, however, are

much shorter than most RNA molecules in the cell and are thus less likely to act as a

scaffold for phase separation. On the other hand, owing to their multivalency and large

size relative to other cellular cations, polyamines have been demonstrated to bridge

like-charged ions and nucleic acids together into network-like structures [47–49] .

Polyamines might therefore be predominantly involved with initial protein and RNA
clustering processes as well as in competitive interactions that control assembly and
disassembly of MLOs [50].

The physiological function of cellular polyamines is intimately tied to the regulation of
RNA and stress responses [10,22,46,51,52]. Polyamines regulate the assembly and
disassembly of stress granules in a concentration-dependent manner, and depletion of
polyamines enhances stress granule formation in epithelial cells [36]. However, owing to
their small molecule nature, it is challenging to separate direct and indirect effects of
polyamines on stress granules. Since it has been suggested that most of the
intracellular polyamine pool is in the bound state with RNA [6], and polyamines are
directly implicated in cellular stress responses [22], it is tempting to suggest that
polyamines have direct involvement with stress granules and other RNA-bodies. This
involvement might be related to a recently suggested model of MLOs whereby
stoichiometry-dependent competition between stickers of macromolecules controls
the assembly, disassembly and composition of MLOs [50]. Our data further suggest that
this process can be regulated by acetylation and metabolic conversion of spermine
(**Fig. 4**), processes that naturally occurs in cells [34].

Taken together our data suggest a critical role of cellular polyamines in the regulation
of biomolecular condensation and membrane-less organelles.

Data availability
All data that support the findings of this study are available from the corresponding
authors upon reasonable request.

References

1. Brangwynne, C. P., Tompa, P. & Pappu, R. V. Polymer physics of intracellular
phase transitions. *Nature Physics* **11**, 899–904 (2015).
2. Martin, E. W. *et al.* Valence and patterning of aromatic residues determine the
phase behavior of prion-like domains. *Science* (2020) doi:10.1126/science.aaw8653.
3. Ranganathan, S. & Shakhnovich, E. I. Dynamic metastable long-living droplets

formed by sticker-spacer proteins. *eLife* (2020) doi:10.7554/eLife.56159.

4.   Yang, Y., Jones, H. B., Dao, T. P. & Castañeda, C. A. Single Amino Acid
Substitutions in Stickers, but Not Spacers, Substantially Alter UBQLN2 Phase
Transitions and Dense Phase Material Properties. *Journal of Physical Chemistry B* **123**,
3618–3629 (2019).

5.   Kaur, T. *et al.* Sequence-encoded and composition-dependent protein-RNA
interactions control multiphasic condensate morphologies. *Nature Communications* **12**,
(2021).

6.   Lightfoot, H. L. & Hall, J. Endogenous polyamine function - The RNA perspective.
Nucleic Acids Research (2014) doi:10.1093/nar/gku837.

7.   Despotović, D. *et al.* Polyamines mediate folding of primordial hyperacidic
helical proteins. *Biochemistry* (2020) doi:10.1021/acs.biochem.0c00800.

8.   Antony, T. *et al.* Cellular polyamines promote the aggregation of α-synuclein.
Journal of Biological Chemistry **278**, 3235–3240 (2003).

9.   Fernández, C. O. *et al.* NMR of α-synuclein-polyamine complexes elucidates the
mechanism and kinetics of induced aggregation. *EMBO Journal* **23**, 2039–2046 (2004).

10.   Dever, T. E. & Ivanov, I. P. Roles of polyamines in translation. *Journal of Biological*
Chemistry **293**, 18719–18729 (2018).

11.   Zhang, H. *et al.* Polyamines Control eIF5A Hypusination, TFEB Translation, and
Autophagy to Reverse B Cell Senescence. *Molecular Cell* (2019)
doi:10.1016/j.molcel.2019.08.005.

12.   Chen, W., Harnett, M. T. & Smith, S. M. Modulation of neuronal voltage-activated
calcium and sodium channels by polyamines and Ph. *Channels* **1**, 281–290 (2007).

13.   Mandal, S., Mandal, A., Johansson, H. E., Orjalo, A. V. & Park, M. H. Depletion of
cellular polyamines, spermidine and spermine, causes a total arrest in translation and
growth in mammalian cells. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United*
States of America **110**, 2169–2174 (2013).

14.   Casero, R. A., Murray Stewart, T. & Pegg, A. E. Polyamine metabolism and
cancer: treatments, challenges and opportunities. *Nature Reviews Cancer* (2018)
doi:10.1038/s41568-018-0050-3.

15.   Makletsova, M. G. *et al.* Polyamines in Parkinson's Disease: Their Role in
Oxidative Stress Induction and Protein Aggregation. *Journal of Neurology Research*
(2019) doi:10.14740/jnr509.

16.   Banani, S. F. *et al.* Compositional Control of Phase-Separated Cellular Bodies.
Cell (2016) doi:10.1016/j.cell.2016.06.010.

17.   Garcia-Jove Navarro, M. *et al.* RNA is a critical element for the sizing and the
composition of phase-separated RNA–protein condensates. *Nature Communications* **10**,
(2019).

18.   Sanders, D. W. *et al.* Competing Protein-RNA Interaction Networks Control
Multiphase Intracellular Organization. *Cell* **181**, 306-324.e28 (2020).

19.   Yang, P. *et al.* G3BP1 Is a Tunable Switch that Triggers Phase Separation to
Assemble Stress Granules. *Cell* (2020) doi:10.1016/j.cell.2020.03.046.

20.   Guillén-Boixet, J. *et al.* RNA-Induced Conformational Switching and Clustering of
G3BP Drive Stress Granule Assembly by Condensation. *Cell* (2020)
doi:10.1016/j.cell.2020.03.049.

21.   Mahboubi, H. & Stochaj, U. Cytoplasmic stress granules: Dynamic modulators of

cell signaling and disease. *Biochimica et Biophysica Acta - Molecular Basis of Disease*
(2017) doi:10.1016/j.bbadis.2016.12.022.

22. Takahashi, T. & Kakehi, J. I. Polyamines: Ubiquitous polycations with unique
roles in growth and stress responses. *Annals of Botany* (2010) doi:10.1093/aob/mcp259.

23. Zou, T. *et al.* Polyamines inhibit the assembly of stress granules in normal
intestinal epithelial cells regulating apoptosis. *American Journal of Physiology - Cell*
Physiology (2012) doi:10.1152/ajpcell.00009.2012.

24. Bitrián, M., Zarza, X., Altabella, T., Tiburcio, A. F. & Alcázar, R. Polyamines under
abiotic stress: Metabolic crossroads and hormonal crosstalks in plants. *Metabolites* **2**,
516–528 (2012).

25. Ray, S. *et al.* Mass photometric detection and quantification of nanoscale α-
synuclein phase separation. *Nat. Chem.* 1–11 (2023) doi:10.1038/s41557-023-01244-8.

26. Ivanov, S. M., Atanasova, M., Dimitrov, I. & Doytchinova, I. A. Cellular polyamines
condense hyperphosphorylated Tau, triggering Alzheimer's disease. *Scientific Reports*
(2020) doi:10.1038/s41598-020-67119-x.

27. Cohen Stuart, M. A., Besseling, N. A. M. & Fokkink, R. G. Formation of Micelles
with Complex Coacervate Cores. *Langmuir* **14**, 6846–6849 (1998).

28. Siegert, A. *et al.* Interplay between tau and α-synuclein liquid–liquid phase
separation. *Protein Science* **30**, 1326–1336 (2021).

29. André, A. A. M., Yewdall, N. A. & Spruijt, E. Crowding-induced phase separation
and gelling by co-condensation of PEG in NPM1-rRNA condensates. *Biophysical Journal*
122, 397–407 (2023).

30. Park, S. *et al.* Dehydration entropy drives liquid-liquid phase separation by
molecular crowding. *Commun Chem* **3**, 1–12 (2020).

31. Marianelli, A. M., Miller, B. M. & Keating, C. D. Impact of macromolecular
crowding on RNA/spermine complex coacervation and oligonucleotide
compartmentalization. *Soft Matter* **14**, 368–378 (2018).

32. Pantoja, C. F., Ibáñez de Opakua, A., Cima-Omori, M. & Zweckstetter, M.
Determining the Physico-Chemical Composition of Biomolecular Condensates from
Spatially-Resolved NMR. *Angew Chem Int Ed* **62**, e202218078 (2023).

33. Bertoncini, C. W. *et al. Release of Long-Range Tertiary Interactions Potentiates*
Aggregation of Natively Unstructured α-Synuclein. Proceedings of the National Academy of
Sciences of the United States of America vol. 102 1430–1435
www.pnas.orgcgidoi10.1073pnas.0407146102 (2005).

34. Seiler, N. Functions of polyamine acetylation. *Canadian Journal of Physiology and*
Pharmacology (1987) doi:10.1139/y87-317.

35. Casero, R. A. & Pegg, A. E. Spermidine/spermine N[1]-acetyltransferase — the
turning point in polyamine metabolism. *The FASEB Journal* **7**, 653–661 (1993).

36. Rumyantsev, A. M., Zhulina, E. B. & Borisov, O. V. Complex Coacervate of Weakly
Charged Polyelectrolytes: Diagram of States. *Macromolecules* **51**, 3788–3801 (2018).

37. Ray, S. *et al.* α-Synuclein aggregation nucleates through liquid–liquid phase
separation. *Nat. Chem.* **12**, 705–716 (2020).

38. Onuchic, P. L., Milin, A. N., Alshareedah, I., Deniz, A. A. & Banerjee, P. R. Divalent
cations can control a switch-like behavior in heterotypic and homotypic RNA
coacervates. *Scientific Reports* (2019) doi:10.1038/s41598-019-48457-x.

39. Lin, Y., Protter, D. S. W., Rosen, M. K. & Parker, R. Formation and Maturation of

Phase-Separated Liquid Droplets by RNA-Binding Proteins. *Molecular Cell* **60**, 208–219
(2015).

40.   Aumiller, W. M., Pir Cakmak, F., Davis, B. W. & Keating, C. D. RNA-Based
Coacervates as a Model for Membraneless Organelles: Formation, Properties, and
Interfacial Liposome Assembly. *Langmuir* **32**, 10042–10053 (2016).

41.   Kar, M. *et al.* Phase-separating RNA-binding proteins form heterogeneous
distributions of clusters in subsaturated solutions. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* **119**,
e2202222119 (2022).

42.   Semenov, A. N. & Rubinstein, M. Thermoreversible gelation in solutions of
associative polymers. 1. Statics. *Macromolecules* (1998) doi:10.1021/ma970616h.

43.   Kang, J., Lim, L. & Song, J. ATP enhances at low concentrations but dissolves at
high concentrations liquid-liquid phase separation (LLPS) of ALS/FTD-causing FUS.
Biochemical and Biophysical Research Communications (2018)
doi:10.1016/j.bbrc.2018.09.014.

44.   Kanemura, A. *et al.* Opposite effect of polyamines on in vitro gene expression:
Enhancement at low concentrations but inhibition at high concentrations. *PLoS ONE* **13**,
(2018).

45.   Hallacli, E. *et al.* The Parkinson's disease protein alpha-synuclein is a modulator
of processing bodies and mRNA stability. *Cell* **185**, 2035-2056.e33 (2022).

46.   Zou, T. *et al.* Polyamines Regulate the Stability of JunD mRNA by Modulating the
Competitive Binding of Its 3′ Untranslated Region to HuR and AUF1. *Molecular and
Cellular Biology* (2010) doi:10.1128/mcb.00807-10.

47.   Iacomino, G., Picariello, G. & D'Agostino, L. DNA and nuclear aggregates of
polyamines. *Biochimica et Biophysica Acta - Molecular Cell Research* (2012)
doi:10.1016/j.bbamcr.2012.05.033.

48.   Ouameur, A. A., Bourassa, P. & Tajmir-Riahi, H. A. Probing tRNA interaction with
biogenic polyamines. *Rna* **16**, 1968–1979 (2010).

49.   Dai, L., Mu, Y., Nordenskiöld, L. & Van Der Maarel, J. R. C. Molecular Dynamics
Simulation of Multivalent-Ion Mediated Attraction between DNA Molecules. (2007)
doi:10.1103/PhysRevLett.100.118301.

50.   Wheeler, J. R., Matheny, T., Jain, S., Abrisch, R. & Parker, R. Distinct stages in
stress granule assembly and disassembly. *eLife* (2016) doi:10.7554/eLife.18413.

51.   Pegg, A. E. Functions of polyamines in mammals. *Journal of Biological Chemistry*
(2016) doi:10.1074/jbc.R116.731661.

52.   Rhee, H. J., Kim, E.-J. & Lee, J. K. Physiological polyamines: simple primordial
stress molecules. *J Cell Mol Med* **11**, 685–703 (2007).

53.   Ahmed, R. *et al.* A delayed decoupling methyl-TROSY pulse sequence for atomic
resolution studies of folded proteins and RNAs in condensates. *Journal of Magnetic
Resonance* **362**, 107667 (2024).

54.   Hoyer, W. *et al.* Dependence of α-synuclein aggregate morphology on solution
conditions. *Journal of Molecular Biology* **322**, 383–393 (2002).

Acknowledgments

We thank Kerstin Overkamp for solid-phase synthesis of the G3BP1 peptide, and Karin

Giller for preparation of fluorescently-labelled αSyn. M.Z. was supported by the

European Research Council (ERC) under the EU Horizon 2020 research and innovation

programme (grant agreement No. 787679) and the VolkswagenStiftung (Project-ID AZ

98188).

Author contributions

M.P. and C.F.P performed NMR spectroscopy. M.P. biochemical experiments,

fluorescence microscopy, and phase separation experiments. M-S.C-O. prepared

recombinant αSyn. S.B. supervised preparation of fluorescently-labelled αSyn. M.P. and

M.Z. wrote the original manuscript. M.P, C.F.P and M.Z. reviewed and edited the

manuscript. M.Z. designed the project.

Competing interests

The authors declare no competing interests.

Methods

Protein production

αSyn was recombinantly produced in BL21(DE3) Escherichia coli cells (Novagen) as

previously described [54]. Full-length G3BP1 was obtained from Novus Biologicals (NBP1-

50925-50UG). Upon arrival, the sample was dialysed into 50 mM Tris, pH 7.4, 1 mM DTT

at 4 °C. The protein was subsequently frozen at -20 °C. G3BP1-peptide was obtained as

a powder and was subsequently dissolved in 50 mM Tris buffer, pH 7.4. The sample

was then frozen at -20 °C until needed.

Dynamic light scattering

DLS measurements were conducted at variable temperatures using a DynaPro NanoStar instrument (Wyatt Technologies) and NanoStar disposable microcuvettes. The samples were illuminated with a 120 mW air-launched laser at a wavelength of 662 nm and the intensity of light scattered at an angle of 90° was detected with an actively quenched, solid-state single-photon counting module. Data were acquired with an acquisition time of 5 s with a total of 10 acquisitions per measurement. The hydrodynamic radii were determined using the Dynamics (version 7.10.0.23) software package.

Turbidity (spectrophotometry)

Turbidity measurements were conducted using a Eppendorf Biospectrometer® kinetic (Eppendorf®) instrument in a 10mm path-length microvolume Quartz Cuvette. The samples were illuminated at a wavelength of 600 nm. Data were acquired in triplicate unless stated otherwise. In conditions of 20% w/v PEG-8000, PEG alone would firstly be measured repeatedly to ensure a constant signal before baselining for future measurements. In between measurements the cuvette was rinsed several times with distilled H_2O and dried using a steady flow of nitrogen gas.

Light microscopy

Phase separation experiments were monitored by differential inference contrast microscopy and fluorescence microscopy and were conducted at room temperature unless stated otherwise. Samples were fluorescently labelled on lysine residues using Alexa Fluor 488 Microscale Protein Labelling Kit (Thermo Fisher Scientific, #A30006) according to the manufacturer's instructions. In all experiments, small amounts of labelled protein, which was insufficient to phase separate by itself, was added to unlabelled protein to the final concentration indicated in the text. If not stated otherwise, the RNA analog polyuridylic acid was used (polyU; Sigma #P9528).

A total of 5 µL of sample was loaded onto a glass slide and covered with a 18 mm coverslip. DIC micrographs as well as fluorescent micrographs were acquired on a Leica DM6B microscope with a x63 objective (water immersion) and processed using ImageJ.

NMR spectroscopy

For G3BP1-peptide, NMR spectra were recorded at 15 °C on a 800 MHz spectrometer equipped with a triple-resonance cryogenic probe. The protein was dissolved in 50 mM Tris buffer, pH 7.4, with or without 1250 µM spermine, along with DSS for proton chemical shift referencing and 10% D2O. One-dimensional ^{1}H NMR and 2D ^{1}H-^{1}H TOCSY and NOESY spectra were acquired. In addition, ^{1}H-^{15}N heteronuclear single quantum coherence (HSQC) spectra were recorded. Samples were prepared by dissolving the peptide powder in the NMR buffer before temperature equilibration for 15 minutes inside the spectrometer.

For αSyn, spermine and polyU RNA interaction studies, 600 MHz, 700 MHz and 800 MHz NMR spectrometers (Bruker) equipped with a triple-resonance cryogenic probe were used to record one-dimensional and two-dimensional spectra. Specific details are provided in relevant figure legends, but most often measurements were conducted at 15°C in hepes buffer, pH 7.4, with DSS ^{1}H chemical shift referencing and 10% D2O. All data were processed using Topspin 4.1.4 (Bruker) and analysed with CCPNMR 3.1. For calculating the dissociation constant between αSyn and spermine a weighting coefficient of 0.14 for 15N was used.

For the slice-selection experiments of the αSyn: spermine and PEG-8000 phase separated solution as well as the reference samples NMR spectra were recorded at 15°C on a 700 MHz spectrometer equipped with a triple-resonance cyrogenic probe. The 1D spin-echo imaging pulse sequence – or z-profile – was acquired with 2 transients 1 dummy scan and a relaxation delay of 30s. For the spatially selective experiments a WET-DPFGSE pulse sequence was used as previously described [32]. For this experiment 256 transients and 8 dummy scans were used with a 1.5s relaxation delay.

The conditions for the phase separated sample were 600 µM αSyn, 6 mM spermine, 10% w/v PEG-8000 and 1mM DSS. The sample was transferred to a 3.0 mm NMR Shigemi tube and assembled in a coaxial manner inside a 5.0 mm NMR tube filled with D20 for spectrometer locking. To form a condensate, the coaxial NMR tube was centrifuged at ~1500 g for many hours at room temperature. Three other samples

were measured for the quantification of concentrations in the phase separated system:

sample 1 contained 10% w/v PEG-8000 in 50 mM Hepes solution, sample 2 contained

600μM αSyn solution in 50 mM Hepes solution, and sample 3 contained 6 mM

spermine in 50 mM Hepes solution.

Aggregation assays

Aggregation of 50 μM αSyn was performed in 50 mM Hepes, 10mM NaCl and 20% w/v

PEG-8000 with or without 500 μM Spermine, pH 7.4. ThT was added to the solution at a

final concentration of 50 μM to monitor aggregation kinetics. A total of 100 μL of 50 μM

αSyn protein with 50 μM ThT, 20% w/v PEG-8000 and 500 μM spermine was pippeted in

a well of 96-well plate (Greiner Bio-one, microplate, 96 well, PS, F-bottom, Chimney

well, uClear, black, non-binding, item no-655906). The aggregation assay was

performed at 37 °C in a Tecan spark plate reader with double orbital shaking (shaking

duration – 1min, shaking amplitude – 6mm, shaking frequency – 54rpm) at an interval

of 10 min. An excitation filter at a wavelength of 430 nm with an excitation bandwidth

of 35 nm was used to excite ThT. The emission wavelength was set to 485 nm with a

bandwidth of 20 nm (manual gain – 40, number of flashes – 30, integration time – 40

us). The Z-position was calibrated using an empty well before starting each

experiment. The ThT fluorescence were called using Tecan Spark control software (v

2.2). The analysis of the aggregation data was performed using MATLAB.

Spermine-induced phase separation of αSyn in the presence of either 0.25 or 1.0

mg/ml polyU RNA was conducted in the same manner as above.

Tranmission electron microscopy

Samples were adsorbed onto 400-mesh carbon-coated copper grids and the buffer

removed using filter paper. Subsequently, samples were stained by the addition of 1%

uranyl acetate solution and dried with filter paper. The grids were imaged using a Talos

L120C G2 electron microscope.

Statistical analysis

$P > 0.05$ was considered non-significant. * $P < 0.05$, ** $P < 0.01$, *** < 0.001 by one-way

ANOVA. Statistical analysis was performed in MATLAB (The Mathworks Inc. 2023).

Figure Legends

Fig. 1: Spermine promotes G3BP1 phase separation.

a, Net charge per residue plot of full-length G3BP1. **b,** AlphaFold predicted structure of

G3BP1 (UniProt Q13283). Colours correspond to smoothed net charge of the protein

sequence projected onto the structure. **c,** ^{1}H-^{15}N HSQC spectrum of 500 μM G3BP1

peptide + 1250 μM spermine (orange) and G3BP1-peptide (blue) alone. G3BP1 peptide

sequence is shown above spectrum, with charged residues highlighted in red and

assigned residues present in the HSQC underlined in black. **d,** Chemical shift changes

of G3BP1 vs G3BP1 + spermine obtained from ^{15}N chemical shifts. **e,** (Top) DIC

microscopy micrographs of 5 μM G3BP1 and 5 μM G3BP1 + spermine phase separation

in 8% w/v PEG-8000. (Bottom) Microscopy of 3 μM G3BP1 and 3 μM G3BP1 + spermine

in 5% w/v PEG-8000. Scale bar, 5 μm. **f,** Turbidity at 632 nm of G3BP1 vs G3BP1 +

spermine. Error bars come from replicates of 3. **g,** Phase separation stoichiometry

diagram of G3BP1 and G3BP1 + spermine at different PEG-8000 concentrations.

Fig. 2: Spermine promotes αSyn clustering

A, Chemical shift perturbation of 50 μM αSyn plus 1 mM spermine. Black dotted line

corresponds to 2 standard deviations of chemical shift perturbations along the entire

sequence. Inset shows chemical shift perturbation of S129 with increasing spermine

concentration. Kd value is the best fit of non-linear regression with 95% confidence

intervals 116 to 390 μM. B, Autocorrelation function of 250 μM αSyn and 250 μM αSyn +

2.5mM spermine at 15°C and 50°C. Samples were incubated at relevant temperature

for 5 minutes before the start of the measurement. Black arrows point toward wiggle

and oscillations in the slow decaying part of the curve. C, Mass-weighted intensity

increase of 250 μM αSyn and αSyn with various molar ratios with spermine between

the radii 10 and 25 nm at 15°C and 50°C. Error bars represent standard deviation of 3

replicates. D, Transmission Electron Microscopy (TEM) micrographs of 250 μM αSyn

(top row) and αSyn + 2500 μM Spermine (bottom row) at room temperature. First two

columns correspond to measurements at t0d whereas the latter two columns

correspond to measurements of the sample sample but at t4d. Scale bar of original

images 100nm, scale bar of zoomed images 20nm. E, schematic of the spermine-

induced αSyn cluster formation.

Fig. 3: Spermine promotes αSyn phase separation and fibrillization.

a, Turbidimetric plot using a wavelength of 600nm. αSyn was held constant at a 50 µM

concentration and spermine added at various concentrations. Buffer was 50 mM Hepes

with 5 mM NaCl. Error bars represent standard deviation from 3 replicates. **b,** DIC (left

column) and fluorescence (right column) microscopy of αSyn with various molar ratios

of spermine. Fluorescent signal originates from Alexa-fluor 488 tagged αSyn which was

spiked at low concentrations into the samples. Scale bar, 5 µm. **c,** Total area of

fluorescent droplets at a 1:1, 1:5 and 1:20 molar ratio of αSyn with spermine. Error bars

represent standard deviation of two calculations of total droplet area. **d,** Radius

histogram of αSyn and spermine droplets at 1:5 and 1:20 molar ratios. **e,** Schematic of

phase diagram between αSyn and αSyn + Spermine with 20% w/v PEG-8000 in solution.

f, ThT aggregation assay of αSyn (50 µM) with either PEG, Spermine or PEG + Spermine,

the latter being phase separation conditions. Samples were in 50 mM Hepes buffer, 5

mM NaCl. The error bars represent standard deviation of 3 replicates. The stars (1, 2, 3

and 4) correspond to different time points of the aggregation reaction (t0d, t1d, t2d,

and t4d) at which microscopy measurements **(Fig. 3g)** were conducted at. **g,** DIC and

TEM micrographs of 50 µM αSyn with or without 500 µM spermine recorded at

different time points. Samples were incubated identically as to how they were in the

previous ThT assay to ensure reproducibility. Scale bar in DIC images is 5 µm, in TEM

image it is 100 nm. Inset shows a TEM image with the black arrow pointing toward a

fibrillar species. Scale bar,100 nm. **h,** DIC and fluorescence micrographs of αSyn and

αSyn + spermine at t 4d. Fluorescent signal originates from ThT which was spiked into

the αSyn and spermine samples after 4 days of incubation. White text corresponds to

the maximum fluorescence intensities measured in fibrils (upper arrow) or droplets

(lower arrow). **i,** Schematic of the αSyn and spermine phase separation process (see

text).

Fig. 4: Polyamines promote αSyn LLPS.

a, Chemical structures of different polyamines (top to bottom: putrescine, spermidine, spermine, mono-acetyl spermine, di-acetyl spermine). **b,** ^{1}H-^{15}N HSQC spectra of 50 μM αSyn (brown) recorded at 15 °C compared with 50 μM αSyn plus either 1 mM spermine (blue), 1 mM spermidine (orange), or 5 mM putrescine (green). **c,** Inset of ^{1}H-^{15}N HSQC showing the chemical shift of αSyn residue E130 in the presence of either 1 mM spermine (blue), 1 mM spermidine (orange), 5 mM putrescine (green), 5 mM mono-acetyl spermine (purple) or 1 mM di-acetyl spermine (yellow). **d,** Turbidity measurements conducted using a wavelength of 600 nm to study αSyn in the presence of increasing concentrations of the various polyamines, in each case with 20% w/v PEG-8000 present. Spectrophotometer was blanked with 20% w/v PEG-8000 in water and measured repeatedly to ensure stable readings before αSyn measurements. Error bars represent standard deviation of n=3 measurements.. **e,** DIC and fluorescence micrographs of 50 μM αSyn with either 1 mM spermidine (left), 1 mM mono-acetyl spermine (second column) and 1 mM di-acetyl spermine (third column). In each case fluorescently-tagged αSyn was spiked into solution. Scale bar, 5 μm. **f,** DIC and fluorescence micrographs of 100 μM αSyn + 1 mM spermine at various NaCl concentrations. Fluorescently-tagged αSyn was spiked into the solution prior to measurements. Scale bar, 5 μm. **g,** Total fluorescent areas of αSyn, spermine and NaCl micrographs. Error bars represent standard deviation of n=2 total area calculations. Statistical significance tests were conducted using one-way ANOVA. **h,** Turbidity using a 600 nm wavelength of light of αSyn + spermine at various NaCl concentrations, in each case with 20% w/v PEG-8000 present. Spectrometer was blanked using 20% w/v PEG-8000 and repeatedly measured to ensure a stable baseline.

Fig. 5: RNA sequesters spermine from αSyn's C-terminus.

a, ^{1}H-^{15}N HSQC spectra of 50 μM ^{15}N-labelled αSyn (olive) in the presence of constant 500 μM spermine (aqua) and increasing concentrations of polyU RNA (purple). Spectra were recorded at 15 °C in identical buffer conditions. **b,** Inset of HSQC showing αSyn residue E130 undergoing chemical shift perturbations in the presence of increasing polyU RNA in solution. The chemical shift of E130 moves in the direction of the

reference αSyn chemical shift with increasing polyU RNA concentration. **c,** Chemical
shift perturbation of αSyn in the presence of constant spermine and increasing polyU
RNA concentrations. Data represent an average of four αSyn residues involved in the
interaction, S129, E130, E135 and A140. Error bars were obtained from standard
deviation of each residues chemical shift.

Fig. 6: RNA dissolves αSyn from droplets

a, DIC and fluorescence micrographs of αSyn (fluoresently-labelled) with spermine at a
constant concentration and polyU RNA at various concentrations, each with 20% w/v
PEG-8000 present in solution. Each row corresponds to a unique polyU RNA
concentration with the total RNA concentration increasing as the row number
increases. The second column has fluorescence originating from Alexa-fluor 488
staining on αSyn. Measurements were conducted at 30 °C. Scale bar, 5 µm. Right-most
column is the normalised pixel intensity taking a cross-section across the droplet. **b,**
Partition coefficient of αSyn, RNA and spermine mixtures defined as the height of the
fluorescence peak within the droplets divided by the averaged background in the
vicinity of the droplet. Error bars represent standard deviation and asteriks represent
one-way ANOVA test. **c,** ThT aggregation assay of 50 µM αSyn, 500 µM spermine with
either 0 polyU RNA, 0.25 mg/ml or 1.00 mg/ml in each case with 20% PEG w/v present.
Error bars represent standard deviation from 3 replicates. **d,** Aggregation half-time in
hours defined as the mean inflection point of each replicate fitted with a sigmoid
function. Error bars represent standard deviation of the three replicates. **e,** Schematic
of the process. αSyn and spermine form a phase separated state excluding PEG-8000
which accelerates αSyn aggregation. RNA can selectively dissolve aSyn form the
condensate due to its higher affinity interactions with spermine (left).

901   For Table of Contents Only

For Table of Contents Only

a Dimerisation Domain | IDR1 --- | IDR2 +++ | RRM | IDR3 +++

Net Charge Per Residue

Residues: 100 200 300 400

b G3BP1

+1

−1

c

FVTEPQEESEEVEEPEERQ
1   5   10   15   20

15N (ppm)

G3BP1
G3BP1 peptide + Spermine

S9
T3
E15
Q20
E14
E12
R19
V13
V2
E4
F1

1H (ppm)

Spermine

H3+N — N+H2 — N+H2 — NH3+

8% PEG-8000

e 5 µM G3BP1 | 5 µM G3BP1 + Spermine

5% PEG-8000

3 µM G3BP1 | 3 µM G3BP1 + Spermine

d

15N Chemical Shift Change

Residues: 0 2 4 6 8 10 12 14 16 18 20

f

Absorbance (a.u.)

***

G3BP1 | G3BP1 + Spermine

g

LLPS No LLPS

PEG-8000 (% w/v)

8
4

G3BP1 | G3BP1+ Spermine

a

DIC | alexa-tagged αSyn

0.0315 mg/ml

0.5 mg/ml

1 mg/ml

RNA concentration

Normalised Pixel Intensity

Distance (microns)
0   7   14

b

Fluorescence Intensity Ratio

*** | * | *** | *** | *** | ***
NS | NS | NS | * | **
NS | NS | *** | ***
NS | ** | **
* | *
NS

PolyU RNA (mg/ml)
0.00 0.32e-01 0.68e-01 0.13 0.250 0.500 1.000

c

αSyn + Spermine (LLPS)
+0.25 mg/ml RNA
+1.00 mg/ml RNA

Fluorescence Intensity (a.u.)

Time (h)
0   10   20   30   40   50

d

Aggregation Half-Time (h)

NS | **
NS (p = 0.053)

αSyn + Spm + PEG (LLPS)
0.25 mg/ml RNA
1.00 mg/ml RNA

e

Reduced αSyn aggregation | Accelerated αSyn aggregation

RNA-dependent **αSyn-depleted** condensate | Dilute phases | Polyamines-dependent **αSyn-enriched** condensate

+ RNA

PEG-8000
αSyn
Spermine
RNA

H_3N H_2 N H_2 N NH_3