Full Title

Non-autonomous insulin signaling regulates the duration of mitosis in *C. elegans* germline stem

and progenitor cells

Short Title

Stem cell mitosis in vivo and its regulation by signaling pathways

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Abstract

Stem and progenitor cell mitosis is essential for tissue development and homeostasis. How these

cells ensure proper chromosome segregation, and thereby maintain mitotic fidelity, in the

complex physiological environment of a living animal is poorly understood. Here we use *in situ*

live-cell imaging of *C. elegans* germline stem and progenitor cells (GSPCs) to ask whether signaling

pathways that play a conserved role in regulating stem and progenitor cell cycle progression also

impact mitosis. Through a candidate screen we identify a new role for the insulin/IGF receptor

(IGFR), *daf-2,* as a regulator of GSPC mitosis. Mitosis is delayed in *daf-2/*IGFR mutants, and these

delays require canonical, DAF-2/IGFR to DAF-16/FoxO insulin signaling, here acting cell non-

autonomously from the soma. We further show that while mitotic delays in *daf-2*/IGFR mutants

depend on the spindle assembly checkpoint, they are not accompanied by a loss of mitotic

fidelity. Finally, we show that caloric restriction, which delays GSPC mitosis and compromises

mitotic fidelity, does not act via the canonical insulin signaling pathway, and instead requires

AMP-activated kinase (AMPK). Together this work demonstrates that GSPC mitosis is regulated

by at least two genetically separable signaling pathways and highlights the importance of

signaling networks for proper stem and progenitor cell mitosis *in vivo*.

Author Summary

Stem and progenitor cells drive tissue development and sustain adult tissue turnover by

producing new daughter cells via cell division and the success of cell division relies on proper

chromosome segregation during mitosis. Stem and progenitor cells perform mitosis in the

complex environment of a living animal, yet relatively little is known about how events during

mitosis are influenced by this *in vivo* context. Here we took advantage of the germline stem and

progenitor cells of the model nematode *C. elegans* to ask whether signaling pathways that

coordinate stem and progenitor cell division with external cues also play a role during mitosis.

We uncovered a role for the insulin signaling pathway in regulating mitosis in these cells. Reduced

insulin signaling delays germline stem and progenitor cell mitosis without compromising

chromosome segregation and acts non-autonomously from somatic tissues. While insulin

signaling is known to link cell division with nutritional status in many species, we found that it did

not mediate the effects of caloric restriction on germline stem and progenitor cell mitosis.

Instead, caloric restriction acts via the conserved energy-sensing regulator AMPK. These results

uncover new regulators of germline stem and progenitor cell mitosis and emphasize the

importance of signaling pathways for proper stem and progenitor cell mitosis *in vivo*.

Introduction

The ability of stem and progenitor cells to support tissue development and homeostasis relies

on signaling networks to couple cell cycle progression with organismal physiology and

developmental cues. Signaling pathways ensure the appropriate production of daughter cells by

interacting with the core cell cycle machinery to control passage from the G1 to S and G2 to M

phases of the cell cycle (reviewed in (1)). Whether these same pathways also regulate events in

M phase, particularly those required for stem and progenitor cells to ensure proper chromosome

segregation in mitosis, and therefore genomic integrity, is less clear.

Error-free mitoses require that replicated chromosome pairs are attached to and bi-oriented

on the mitotic spindle, via stable kinetochore-microtubule attachments, prior to the onset of

chromosome segregation in anaphase. The spindle assembly checkpoint safeguards this process

by delaying anaphase in the presence of unattached kinetochores. Unattached kinetochores

recruit checkpoint proteins to catalyze formation of the mitotic checkpoint complex (MCC), which

prevents the anaphase-promoting complex/cyclosome (APC/C) from targeting mitotic

substrates, like cyclin B and Securin, for degradation (reviewed in (2)). Defects in spindle assembly

and/or checkpoint surveillance can lead to chromosome segregation errors, compromising

genomic stability and cellular fitness (3).

Signaling pathways can influence mitotic events directly or indirectly through changes in gene

expression. For example, in transformed human cells, hyperactive Ras/MAPK signaling leads to

excessive phosphorylation of kinetochore proteins and impaired kinetochore-microtubule

attachments (4), while changes in gene expression downstream of insulin signaling affect spindle

assembly and/or checkpoint activity in several cell types (5-8). However, much of the work linking

signaling pathways to mitotic events has been carried out in *ex vivo* model systems.

Consequently, how physiological changes in signaling pathway activity influence mitosis *in vivo*,

is not well understood, but likely important for stem and progenitor cells to maintain mitotic

fidelity within the changeable environment of a living organism.

The germline stem and progenitor cells (GSPCs) of the nematode *Caenorhabditis elegans* are

an established model for how stem and progenitor cells match their proliferative state with tissue

demand and animal physiology (9-15). *C. elegans* hermaphrodites have two pools of GSPCs, one

located at the distal tip of each of the two U-shaped gonad arms (**Fig 1A**; reviewed in (16)). GSPCs

are kept in an undifferentiated, mitotic state by proximity to a somatic niche, the distal tip cell.

Collectively, the distal region of the germ line is referred to as the progenitor or proliferative zone

(PZ) and comprises two populations of mitotically cycling germ cells - the distal-most cells with

the highest level of niche signaling are considered stem cells. These cells divide symmetrically

with respect to cell fate and are maintained according to a population-based model (17). The

more proximal cells are progenitor cells completing their final mitotic cell cycle before entering

meiosis. Meiotic germ cells can become nurse cells, eventually undergoing apoptosis, or give rise

to mature gametes, which are found at the proximal end of the gonad. Thus, proper GSPC

proliferation is intimately linked with reproduction and correspondingly under tight control by

both local and systemic cues.

GSPC mitosis can be observed directly by live-cell imaging in whole-mount animals (18-20),

making them an excellent model system for studying stem and progenitor cells mitosis *in vivo*.

We have shown previously that caloric restriction leads to checkpoint-dependent mitotic delays

in GSPCs and may perturb spindle assembly (18), supporting the idea that mitosis *in vivo* is

influenced by the physiological status of the whole animal. Here we report a candidate genetic

screen for signaling pathway mutants that impact mitotic duration in GSPCs and uncover a role

for the insulin/IGF receptor (IGFR) *daf-2* in promoting proper GSPC mitotic timing. We show that

DAF-2/IGFR acts via the canonical insulin/IGF-1 signaling (IIS) pathway, converging on the

transcription factor DAF-16/FoxO; however, the predominant site of pathway activity resides

outside of the germ line in the soma, and is thus cell non-autonomous. Surprisingly, we find that

while reduced IIS leads to checkpoint-dependent mitotic delays, it does not compromise mitotic

fidelity. This is different from caloric restriction, which we show increases the frequency of

chromosome segregation errors when surveillance by the spindle assembly checkpoint is

compromised. Correspondingly, we find different genetic requirements for mitotic delays

downstream of caloric restriction and reduced DAF-2/IGFR activity.

Results

A candidate screen for signaling pathways that affect mitotic duration uncovers daf-2/IGFR

Several conserved signaling pathways regulate GSPC fate (i.e. whether to remain mitotic or

enter meiosis) and/or cell cycle progression, both during development and in the adult animal

(**Fig 1B**; reviewed in (16, 21)). The Notch pathway regulates the mitosis-meiosis decision in GSPCs

(22), but does not affect cell cycle progression per se (23, 24). Transforming Growth Factor-β

(TGF-β) signaling acts both upstream of and in parallel to Notch signaling to regulate GSPC fate

(25, 26) and has also been implicated in the maintenance of GSPCs during reproductive aging

(27). The TOR pathway is thought to affect both GSPC fate and cell cycle progression (28, 29) and

plays a role in regulating GSPC quiescence during L1 larval and dauer diapause (30-32). Regulation

of GSPC quiescence in larvae and adults also requires AMP-activated kinase (AMPK) (10, 31, 33)

and the lipid and protein phosphatase PTEN, here acting independently of the transcription factor

FoxO (9-11, 30, 34, 35). Ras/MAPK pathway activity affects GSPC proliferation (33, 36, 37),

although its primary role in the germline is to promote meiotic progression and oocyte

maturation (36, 38, 39). Finally, the IIS pathway, via inhibition of FoxO, promotes GSPC

proliferation and is particularly important for larval expansion of the GSPC pool (11, 24, 40).

We crossed mutant alleles of key genes in each pathway into our reference strain, which

carries germline-expressed, GFP-tagged β-tubulin (GFP::TBB-2) to mark mitotic spindles and

mCherry-tagged histone H2B (mCH::HIS-11) to mark chromatin (**Fig 1C-D**). We focused our

analysis on the L4 larval stage of development (**Fig 1A**), as GSPCs proliferate extensively during

this time and may be more sensitive to changes in environmental and/or developmental signaling

(24, 28, 41).

We first scored the GSPC mitotic index in these strains, by counting the total number of PZ

nuclei and the total number of cells in mitosis (**Fig 1E and S1A-B Fig**). We found that reducing

insulin pathway activity via a hypomorphic allele of the insulin/IGF receptor (IGFR) *daf-2* (*daf-*

2(e1370) (42); hereafter *daf-2(rf)*) lead to a lower mitotic index, while all other conditions were

not significantly different from control, despite wide ranging alterations in the number of PZ

nuclei. This result aligns well with previous reports suggesting that the insulin pathway is the

chief regulator of GSPC cell cycle progression during larval development (24). The mitotic index

tended to be lower in animals carrying a hypomorphic allele of *daf-7*/TGF-β (*daf-7(e1320)*; (43)),

although this result was not statistically different from control (p = 0.09), suggesting that TGF-β

may also regulate GSPC proliferation. Our results differ from the literature in one regard: a loss-

of-function allele of ribosomal S6 kinase (S6K) *rsks-1* (*rsks-1(ok1255)* (44)), which acts

downstream of TOR in many species, and which has been shown to strongly reduce the number

PZ cells (28), had no effect in our hands (**S1A Fig**). We do not know what underlies this

discrepancy, but suspect that it could be due to genetic background and/or to gene-diet

interactions (45).

To determine whether these pathways affect GSPC mitosis, we performed live-cell imaging

and used GFP::TBB-2 to track pairs of mitotic spindle poles, which allows us to monitor mitotic

progression by looking for the stereotypical changes in spindle length that accompany mitotic

transitions (**Fig 1D**; (18-20)). We defined the duration of mitosis as the amount of time between

the end of NEBD, when spindle length stops decreasing, until the metaphase-anaphase

transition, after which spindle length increases rapidly. In GSPCs, the duration of mitosis is

dictated by the timing of anaphase onset and is regulated by the spindle assembly checkpoint,

with conditions that disrupt spindle assembly or weaken the checkpoint prolonging or reducing

mitotic duration, respectively (18). We found that GSPCs in animals bearing hypomorphic alleles

of *daf-2*/IGFR, *daf-7*/TGF-β or *glp-1*/Notch had significantly longer durations of mitosis, while

those in animals bearing a hypomorphic allele of *mpk-1*/ERK, gain-of-function alleles of *let-*

60/Ras or *glp-1*/Notch or null alleles of *daf-18*/PTEN, *rsks-1*/S6K and *aak-1/2*/AMPK divided with

timing similar to control (**Fig 1F**).

In addition to providing a measure of mitotic duration, spindle pole tracking allows us to

extract a range of mitotic features related to spindle assembly and/or chromosome alignment

and segregation (**S2A Fig**; (20)). When we compared mitotic features across all genotypes, we did

not observe any obvious trends that might explain changes in the duration of mitosis (**S2B Fig**).

Correspondingly, no features were strongly correlated with the duration of mitosis across all cells

(**S2C Fig**). To determine whether different genotypes and/or cells with longer durations of mitosis

(delayed cells) were defined by different combinations of features, we performed a principal

component analysis (PCA). While we did not observe any well-defined clusters within our data,

delayed cells in *daf-2(rf)* and *daf-7*/TGF-β hypomorphic animals tended to separate in PC space

from those in *glp-1*/Notch hypomorphic animals, suggesting that these cells are defined by

different combinations of mitotic features (**S2D Fig**). Altogether, our data implicate the IIS, TGF-

β and Notch pathways in the regulation of GSPC mitosis and suggest a degree of specificity in

how they impact spindle formation and/or dynamics.

daf-2/IGFR regulates mitotic duration via the canonical IIS pathway

To begin to decipher how different signaling pathway mutants affect GSPC mitosis, we

focused our attention on *daf-2(rf)* and the IIS pathway. DAF-2/IGFR activates a canonical

phosphoinositide 3-kinase (PI3K)/Akt signaling cascade, which is antagonized by DAF-18/PTEN,

to inhibit the Forkhead family transcription factor DAF-16/FoxO (**Fig 2A**). This core pathway is

conserved and plays a major role in integrating cell proliferation with organism physiology in

many species (reviewed in (46)).

In *C. elegans* GSPCs, *daf-2(rf)* mutants have fewer germ cells, and a lower mitotic index,

primarily due to a delay in the G2 phase of the cell cycle, and these effects are mediated by DAF-

16/FoxO (24). Correspondingly, we found that the low GSPC mitotic index in *daf-2(rf)* mutants

was suppressed by a catalytically dead allele of *daf-18*/PTEN (*daf-18(nr2037)* (47); hereafter *daf-*

18(lf)) and a dominant-activating allele of *akt-1* (*akt-1(mg144)* (48); hereafter *akt-1(gf)*), which

increase pathway activity downstream of DAF-2/IGFR, and by a null allele of *daf-16*/FoxO (*daf-*

16(mu86) (49); hereafter *daf-16(0)*), which simulates the transcriptional response induced by

high pathway activity (**S3A Fig,** (24)).

To test whether the canonical IIS pathway also mediates the effect of *daf-2(rf)* on the duration

of mitosis in GSPCs, we used live-cell imaging and spindle pole tracking to measure mitotic

duration in *daf-18(lf)*, *akt-1(gf)* and *daf-16(0)* single mutants and in double mutants carrying each

of these alleles with *daf-2(rf)* (**Fig 2B**). We found that the duration of mitosis was unchanged in

daf-18(lf), *akt-1(gf)* and *daf-16(0)* single mutants, as compared to wild-type control, suggesting

that elevating IIS is not sufficient to accelerate basal mitotic timing; however, all three mutations

fully suppressed *daf-2(rf)* mitotic delays, indicating that reduced DAF-2/IGFR activity prolongs

GSPC mitosis via the canonical IIS pathway converging on the regulation of DAF-16/FoxO.

DAF-2/IGFR inhibits DAF-16/FoxO transcriptional activity by regulating its subcellular

localization: when DAF-2/IGFR is active, DAF-16/FoxO is sequestered in the cytoplasm (50-52).

Accordingly, if DAF-2/IGFR regulates GSPC mitosis via DAF-16/FoxO-dependent changes in gene

expression, we would expect increased DAF-16/FoxO nuclear localization in GSPCs when DAF-

2/IGFR activity is reduced. To test this, we measured the nuclear-to-cytoplasmic ratio of DAF-

16::GFP in GSPCs, using a strain in which the endogenous *daf-16*/FoxO locus bears a carboxyl-

terminal GFP tag to mark all isoforms (DAF-16::GFP; (53)) (**Fig 2C**). We found that DAF-16::GFP

was enriched in GSPC nuclei in both *daf-2(rf)* animals (**Fig 2C-E**) and in animals in which *daf-2* was

depleted by RNAi (**S3B Fig**).

In *daf-2(rf)* animals, the duration of GSPC mitosis varies from ~5 minutes, which is similar to

the mean duration for controls, up to ~25 minutes (see **Figs 1F and 2B**). To determine whether

differences in DAF-16::GFP nuclear enrichment might account for this variation, we plotted the

DAF-16::GFP nuclear-to-cytoplasmic ratio prior to mitosis versus mitotic duration on a per cell

basis (**Fig 2F-G and S3C Fig**). However, we found only a weak, non-statistically significant,

correlation between these two values. Furthermore, nuclear DAF-16::GFP was elevated (nuclear-

to-cytoplasmic ratio > 1.4) even in *daf-2(rf)* GSPCs with relatively normal durations of mitosis (4-

6 min). Thus, while reducing the activity of DAF-2/IGFR leads to increased nuclear localization of

DAF-16/FoxO in GSPCs, nuclear enrichment of DAF-16/FoxO is unlikely to be the sole determinant

of mitotic delays.

IIS regulates the duration of mitosis cell non-autonomously

The lack of a predictive relationship between GSPC DAF-16/FoxO nuclear enrichment and

GSPC mitotic duration prompted us to ask whether DAF-2/IGFR to DAF-16/FoxO signal

transduction was acting in GSPCs (i.e. cell autonomously) to promote proper mitotic timing or

whether cell non-autonomous signaling might be involved. To test this idea directly, we used the

auxin-inducible degron (AID) system which allows for the conditional depletion of AID-tagged

proteins using tissue-specific expression of the F-box substrate recognition component TIR1 (54).

We used a strain in which the endogenous *daf-2*/IGFR locus is tagged at the carboxyl-terminus

with AID and mNeonGreen (DAF-2::AID::mNG; (55)). In the PZ of L4 larvae, DAF-2::AID::mNG

showed weak membrane localization, appearing largely as cytoplasmic puncta (**S4A Fig**).

We generated strains carrying DAF-2::AID::mNG and a germline-specific TIR1 (*sun1p::TIR1*;

(54)), with either mCherry-tagged β-tubulin (mCH::TBB-2) for spindle pole tracking, or DAF-

16::GFP. We found that depletion of DAF-2/IGFR in the germ line led to increased nuclear DAF-

16::GFP in GSPCs (**Fig 3A-C**), consistent with cell autonomous DAF-2/IGFR to DAF-16/FoxO

signaling. However, germline DAF-2/IGFR depletion did not delay GSPC mitosis (**Fig 3D**), further

suggesting that elevated nuclear DAF-16/FoxO in GSPCs is not sufficient to affect mitotic timing.

These results also imply that mitotic delays in *daf-2(rf)* animals may be due to a cell non-

autonomous requirement for DAF-2/IGFR activity. Correspondingly, depletion of *daf-2/IGFR*

using germline-specific RNAi (56) did not affect mitotic duration in GSPCs, whereas RNAi

depletion in the whole animal induced significant mitotic delays (**S4B Fig**).

To test whether reducing somatic DAF-2/IGFR activity was sufficient to delay GSPC mitosis,

we performed analogous experiments using a strain bearing pan-somatic TIR1 (*eft-3p::TIR1* with

the *unc-54* 3' UTR; (54)). In our hands, *eft-3p::TIR1* DAF-2::AID::mNG animals showed reduced

DAF-2::AID::mNG in somatic tissues and phenotypes consistent with a partial loss of DAF-2/IGFR

somatic activity even without supplemental auxin (**Fig 3A and S4C Fig**). However, germline

expression of DAF-2::AID::mNG and GSPC DAF-16::GFP nuclear localization were similar to what

we observed in our germline-specific TIR1, no auxin controls, suggesting that germline DAF-

2/IGFR activity was relatively intact (**Fig 3B-C**). We therefore took advantage of these animals to

test the effect of partial somatic DAF-2/IGFR depletion on GSPC mitosis and found that mitosis

was significantly delayed (**Fig 3D**). Together these results imply that the focus of DAF-2/IGFR

activity responsible for the duration of mitosis in GSPCs resides in the soma.

To determine whether DAF-16/FoxO also acts cell non-autonomously, we used the AID

system to deplete DAF-16/FoxO (DAF-16::GFP::AID; (55)) in the germ line (*sun-1p::TIR1*) or in the

soma (*eft-3p::TIR1*) and asked whether either was sufficient to suppress GSPC mitotic delays

induced by whole-animal RNAi knockdown of *daf-2*. In these experiments, *eft-3p::TIR1* induced

significant depletion of DAF-16::GFP::AID in both the soma and the germ line following auxin

treatment, while *sun-1p::TIR1*-driven depletion was restricted to the germ line as expected (**S4D**

Fig). However, auxin treatment only suppressed *daf-2*(RNAi)-induced GSPC mitotic delays in the

eft-3p::TIR1 background (**Fig 3E**). Thus, while we cannot fully exclude the possibility that germline

DAF-16/FoxO plays a role in mediating DAF-2/IGFR's effects on GSPC mitotic timing, our results

are most consistent with the notion that DAF-16/FoxO, like DAF-2/IGFR, acts primarily in the

soma.

To further pinpoint the somatic tissues involved, we used the AID system to deplete DAF-

2::AID::mNG from neurons (*rgef-1p::TIR1*), muscle (*myo-3p::TIR1*), intestine (*ges-1p::TIR1*),

hypodermis (*dpy-7p::TIR1*) and gonadal somatic sheath cells (*lim-7p::TIR1*) (55). Depletion from

the intestine or gonadal sheath cells was sufficient to delay mitosis in GSPCs, while depletion

from other tissues had no effect (**Fig 3F**). Taken together, our data strongly suggests that the IIS

pathway, from DAF-2/IGFR to DAF-16/FoxO, acts in somatic tissues to maintain proper mitotic

timing in GSPCs, with the intestine and gonadal sheath cells being the principal foci of pathway

activity.

Reduced IIS delays mitosis via the spindle assembly checkpoint but does not compromise mitotic

fidelity

To determine how changes in IIS affect the duration of mitosis in GSPCs we first tested for

the involvement of the spindle assembly checkpoint. We used a null allele of the core checkpoint

gene *mdf-2*/Mad2 (*mdf-2(lt4)* (57); hereafter *mdf-2(0)*) to ablate checkpoint activity and assessed

GSPC mitotic duration in *mdf-2(0)* single and *daf-2(rf)*; *mdf-2(0)* double mutant animals. The

duration of mitosis in *mdf-2(0)* GSPCs was significantly reduced compared to control, consistent

with checkpoint regulation of basal mitotic timing in these cells (18), and GSPCs in *daf-2(rf)*; *mdf-*

2(0) double mutants had durations of mitosis that were indistinguishable from *mdf-2(0)* single

mutants (**Fig 4A**). Thus, *daf-2(rf)* mitotic delays are entirely dependent on an intact spindle

assembly checkpoint.

Checkpoint-dependent mitotic delays are typically due to defects in spindle assembly, and

correspondingly, accompanied by chromosome segregation errors when checkpoint surveillance

is removed. To determine whether reduced DAF-2/IGFR impairs spindle assembly, we asked

whether *daf-2(rf)*; *mdf-2(0)* GSPCs were more prone to mitotic errors. We used live-cell imaging

and scored GSPCs for mitotic errors using mCH::HIS-11 to monitor chromosome alignment and

segregation (**Fig 4B**). The frequency of mitotic errors in *daf-2(rf)* GSPCs was the same as control,

while *mdf-2(0)* GSPCs showed significantly more mitotic errors, as would be expected for

checkpoint-null cells (**Fig 4C**). Surprisingly, *daf-2(rf); mdf-2(0)* GSPCs showed the same frequency

of mitotic errors as *mdf-2(0)* cells (**Fig 4C**). We obtained similar results using putative null allele

of a second checkpoint gene *san-1*/Mad3 (*san-1(ok1580)* (44); hereafter *san-1(lf)*) (**S5A Fig**).

Correspondingly, several known checkpoint-null phenotypes that are associated with germline

function were not enhanced in *daf-2(rf); mdf-2(0)* animals, including embryonic lethality and

reduced brood size (58) (**Fig 4E-F**), nor did we observe increased germ cell apoptosis, which clears

nuclei with DNA damage and/or chromosome abnormalities (59-61) (**Fig 4G**). Altogether, we

conclude that reducing DAF-2/IGFR activity leads to checkpoint-dependent mitotic delays that

are not associated with defects in spindle assembly. Accordingly, in the absence of checkpoint

surveillance, reducing DAF-2/IGFR activity does not further compromise mitotic fidelity.

Interestingly, the one genetic interaction that we observed in *daf-2(rf); mdf-2(0)* animals was

enhanced sterility (**S5B Fig**). Both *daf-2(rf)* and *daf-2(rf); mdf-2(0)* germ lines had fewer mitotic

cells than controls, and *daf-2(rf); mdf-2(0)* germ lines tended to have fewer mitotic cells than *daf-*

2(rf) alone, although this difference was not statistically significant (9.4 +/-2.1, n=15 *daf-2(rf)*

versus 7.4 +/-2.8, n=15 *daf-2(rf); mdf-2(0)*; **S5C Fig**). Given the recently reported role for MDF-

2/Mad2 in promoting the G2/M transition independently of its involvement in the spindle

assembly checkpoint (57), and the known role of DAF-2/IGFR in promoting GSPC passage through

G2 (24), we speculate that enhanced sterility in *daf-2(rf), mdf-2(0)* animals may be due to

synergistic defects in GSPC cell cycle progression.

Reduced IIS and caloric restriction delay mitosis via different pathways

The effects of reduced IIS on GSPC mitosis are different from what we have previously

reported for caloric restriction. Caloric restriction leads to GSPC mitotic delays that depend on

the spindle assembly checkpoint, and a lower GSPC mitotic index (**S6A Fig**; (28)); however, caloric

restriction also enhances several phenotypes associated with increased chromosome

segregation errors when the checkpoint is impaired (18). We verified that caloric restriction

compromises mitotic fidelity by scoring the frequency of mitotic errors in animals fed a 1 in 10

dilution of their normal bacteria food source (sDR; (62)) with and without checkpoint regulation,

as done for *daf-2(rf)*. We found that sDR increased the frequency of mitotic errors in *san-1(lf)*

GSPCs, as compared to *san-1(lf)* GSPCs in animals fed *ad libitum* (**Fig 5A**). Thus, unlike the mitotic

delays caused by reduced IIS, mitotic delays upon caloric restriction reflect impaired spindle

assembly.

We next tested the genetic requirements for GSPC mitotic delays upon caloric restriction,

focusing on members of the IIS pathway. We used two methods to induce caloric restriction, a

mutation in *eat-2* (*eat-2(ad465)*; hereafter *eat-2(rf))* that slows pharyngeal pumping reducing

food intake (63), and sDR. For *eat-2(rf)* experiments, we used GFP::TBB-2 to visualize spindles

and measure mitotic timing. For sDR experiments, both spindles (GFP::TBB-2) and chromatin

(mCH::HIS-11) were marked, allowing us to measure both mitotic timing and mitotic index. We

found that *daf-16(lf)*, which fully suppressed mitotic delays in *daf-2(rf)* animals (**Fig 2B**), did not

suppress mitotic delays in either *eat-2(rf)* or sDR-treated animals (**Fig 5B-C**). The GSPC mitotic

index of sDR-treated *daf-16(lf)* animals also remained low (**S6B Fig**). These results indicate that

canonical DAF-2/IGFR to DAF-16/FoxO signaling does not mediate the effect of caloric restriction

on GSPC mitosis and, by extension, downstream effectors other than DAF-16/FoxO must be

involved.

daf-18/PTEN plays both *daf-16*/FoxO-dependent and independent roles in regulating GSPC

proliferation during development and adulthood (9-11, 24, 30, 35). We found that *daf-18(lf)*

restored normal mitotic timing in both *eat-2(rf)* and sDR-treated animals (**Fig 5B-C**) and rescued

the low mitotic index in sDR-treated animals (**S6B Fig**). In several situations where *daf-18*/PTEN

acts independently of *daf-16*/FoxO to regulate GSPC behavior, it acts upstream of, or in parallel

to, AMPK (31, 33). We tested for AMPK involvement using animals bearing null mutations in both

catalytic α subunits (*aak-1(tm1994)* and *aak-2(ok524)* (44, 64, 65); hereafter *aak-1/2(0)*). Like

daf-18(lf), *aak-1/2(0)* also rescued GSPC mitotic delays and low mitotic index upon sDR (**Fig 5D**

and S6C Fig). Based on these results, we conclude that while caloric restriction and reduced IIS

both delay GSPC mitosis, they do so via distinct mechanisms.

Discussion

Here we have investigated the signaling requirements for proper GSPC mitotic timing as a

model for how stem and progenitor cell mitosis is regulated *in vivo*, in the whole-animal context.

Through our candidate screen we found that reducing the activity of *daf-2*/IGFR, *daf-7*/TGF-β or

glp-1/Notch prolongs the duration of mitosis in GSPCs. These results implicate three distinct

signaling pathways in the regulation of GSPC mitosis. Notably, of the three, only IIS plays a major

role in GSPC cell cycle progression (23-26, 66), suggesting that mitotic and cell cycle timing can

be uncoupled and may therefore be subject to distinct regulatory mechanisms. As only a subset

of the mutant backgrounds in our screen altered GSPC mitosis, we also infer that the effects we

have uncovered are unlikely to be a generic response to perturbed signaling compromising

animal health. This is further supported by our results showing that mitotic delays caused by

reduced IIS and caloric restriction can be suppressed genetically and rely on different

downstream signaling effectors. Together, these results argue that changes in the duration of

GSPC mitosis are not merely a nonspecific consequence of generally suboptimal conditions for

cell division, but rather the product of specific regulatory events.

Our data also suggest that delayed cells from different mutant backgrounds exhibit different

combinations of spindle features, which may indicate specificity in terms of the mitotic processes

that are affected. Further supporting this idea, we have shown that reduced IIS and caloric

restriction produce distinct phenotypes in terms of mitotic fidelity when the spindle assembly

checkpoint is impaired. Caloric restriction increases the frequency of chromosome segregation

errors, while reduced IIS does not, suggesting that the root cause of mitotic delays in each

condition are distinct.

We have previously proposed that caloric restriction delays GSPC mitosis by reducing the

availability of cellular energy, which impairs energy-dependent mitotic events like spindle

assembly and increases the amount of time it takes for cells to satisfy the checkpoint (18). Our

results showing that caloric restriction compromises accurate chromosome segregation when

checkpoint surveillance is removed are consistent with this idea. However, we have also shown

that mitotic delays upon caloric restriction require *daf-18*/PTEN and *aak-1/2*/AMPK, suggesting

that they are more precisely regulated than our earlier model might have anticipated. AMPK is a

highly conserved energy sensor that responds to low cellular energy by modifying both metabolic

and non-metabolic processes, including cell cycle progression (67). More recently, roles for AMPK

in mitosis have been uncovered in both mammalian cells and Drosophila (68-71). Our work

suggests that AMPK's involvement in mitosis is generally conserved and expands on previous

reports by showing that AMPK links mitosis to physiological changes such as dietary intake.

Unlike caloric restriction, reduced IIS does not appear to compromise spindle assembly. In

the absence of checkpoint regulation, these cells are no more likely to experience chromosome

segregation errors than cells in an unperturbed insulin signalling environment, ruling out defects

in kinetochore-microtubule attachment which would impede chromosome bi-orientation. This

then raises the question as to why they are delayed in mitosis? We have shown that these delays

are entirely dependent on the spindle assembly checkpoint, making it unlikely that they are due

to events following checkpoint satisfaction (e.g. a slower rate of APC/C-directed degradation of

cyclin B and/or Securin should slow mitotic progression with or without checkpoint activity (72)).

Instead, we think it more likely that reduced IIS affects the checkpoint itself, by enhancing

checkpoint activity and/or delaying checkpoint silencing. For example, reduced insulin signalling

could increase the strength of checkpoint signaling at individual kinetochores relative to their

attachment state (73, 74) or increase the microtubule occupancy threshold for checkpoint

silencing (75-79). Alternatively, the rate of MCC turnover in the cytoplasm could be slower (80-

86), favoring MCC accumulation and greater APC/C inhibition. Experiments to assess checkpoint

strength and kinetochore enrichment of checkpoint proteins in GSPCs when IIS is reduced will

help to differentiate between these possibilities and clarify the mechanism by which mitosis is

delayed. A role for IIS in modulating checkpoint strength would be particularly interesting as it

might serve to protect cells from environmental or physiological conditions that could

compromise mitotic fidelity and would therefore be adaptive.

In considering the nature of the changes to mitosis downstream of IIS, we also have to

account for the fact that the insulin pathway is acting cell non-autonomously. We found that both

DAF-2/IGFR and DAF-16/FoxO are present in GSPCs and that germline-specific depletion of DAF-

2/IGFR affects DAF-16/FoxO partitioning between the GSPC nucleus and cytoplasm, all of which

is consistent with germline autonomous DAF-2/IGFR to DAF-16/FoxO signal transduction.

However, neither DAF-2/IGFR nor DAF-16/FoxO are required in the germ line for normal GSPC

mitotic timing, while both are required in the soma. Based on these results, we conclude that IIS

in somatic tissues acts cell non-autonomously to impact mitosis in GSPCs.

This result was surprising given the prevailing model that larval GSPC proliferation is regulated

by germline-autonomous IIS (16, 24) and could suggest that anatomically distinct sites of IIS

activity affect GSPC cell cycle versus mitotic timing. In our experiments we did not have the

necessary markers to determine how tissue-specific DAF-2/IGFR depletion affected the GSPC

mitotic index, which is the standard metric for inferring cell cycle perturbations (16), and so could

not address this idea directly. However, the lower mitotic index in *daf-2(rf)* animals (**Figs 1E and**

2B) corresponded to fewer mitotic cells overall (8.2 +/-2.6, n=20 *daf-2(rf)* versus 14.7 +/-3.9, n=28

control; see also **S1B Fig**), and when we counted the total number of mitotic cells per germline

in our DAF-2::AID::mNG experiments, DAF-2 depletion from the soma or intestine phenocopied

daf-2(rf) with fewer mitotic cells (8.0 +/-2.9, n=10 soma and 8.1 +/-3.4, n=12 intestine), while

depletion from the germ line had no effect (**S4E-F Fig**). Thus, in our hands, the effects of reduced

IIS on GSPC mitosis and cell cycle progression appear to be coupled, with both being most

sensitive to DAF-2/IGFR activity in the soma, particularly in the intestine.

Cell non-autonomous IIS occurs when DAF-16/FoxO activity in one tissue influences IIS and

DAF-16/FoxO activity in a second tissue, so-called FoxO-to-FoxO signaling (87, 88), or when DAF-

16/FoxO-independent responses are induced in the signal receiving tissue (89, 90). As germline

DAF-16/FoxO was not necessary to delay GSPC mitosis we favor the latter mechanism. The lack

of a cell autonomous role for DAF-16/FoxO also rules out the possibility that DAF-16/FoxO-

dependent changes in GSPC gene expression determine GSPC mitotic timing. Thus, unlike

Forkhead family transcription factors in yeast and human cells, which affect the timing of mitotic

events and mitotic fidelity by regulating the expression of mitotic genes (5, 91, 92), DAF-16/FoxO

appears to influence mitotic timing in *C. elegans* GSPCs solely via its involvement in inter-organ

communication.

Based on our tissue-specific DAF-2/IGFR depletion experiments, the intestine and somatic

sheath cells are the likely sources for a DAF-16/FoxO-dependent secondary signal that acts on

GSPCs. In *C. elegans*, the intestine comprises the entire endoderm and serves as a major hub for

homeostatic regulation (93). Notably, intestinal IIS contributes to reproductive aging, including

age-related loss of GSPCs (27). The somatic sheath cells, which enwrap the germ line and are

connected to GSPCs by gap junctions for most of larval development, support GSPC proliferation

(41, 94-97) Thus both tissues are well positioned to regulate GSPC mitosis cell non-autonomously.

Determining the identity of the secondary signal which acts on GSPCs and how it interfaces with

mitosis will provide a framework for understanding how inter-organ communication contributes

to mitotic regulation.

Materials and Methods

C. elegans strains and culture

C. elegans strains were maintained at either 15°C or 20°C on nematode growth medium (NGM),

seeded with *Escherichia coli* (*E. coli*) strain OP50 (NGM/OP50), following standard protocols (98).

See **S1 Table** for the full list of strains used in this study. For live-cell imaging, animals were

synchronized at the L1 larval or embryonic stage and raised at 20°C, at a density of 30-40 larvae

per plate. Larvae were raised on standard NGM plates seeded with the *E. coli* strain HT115

(NGM/HT115), which produces more uniform developmental timing and a more consistently high

number of GSPC divisions (19, 99). Late L4 larvae were selected 2-4 days later, depending on

synchronization method and genetic background. For all experiments using thermosensitive

alleles (*daf-2(e1370), glp-1(e2141), glp-1(ar202), mpk-1(ga111), let-60(ga89)* and *daf-7(e1372)*),

animals were raised at the semi-permissive temperature of 20°C from the L1 stage. Synchronized

L1 larvae were obtained by sodium hypochlorite treatment (100) or by direct transfer from

recently starved NGM/OP50 plates. For sodium hypochlorite treatment, gravid adults were

washed from the surface of a standard NGM/OP50 plate using 1 ml M9 buffer (22 mM KH_2PO_4,

42 mM Na_2HPO_4, 86 mM NaCl, 1 mM $MgSO_4$), and dissolved in 1 ml of a solution of 1% NaClO

and 500 mM NaOH in water, for no more than 7 min, with regular agitation. Released embryos

were rinsed and incubated for 24hrs at 15°C in M9 with rotation. For direct transfer, strains were

maintained on NGM/OP50 plates by weekly transfer and small "clumps" of approximately L1

staged larvae were transferred by worm pick 1-3 days after the bacterial lawn had been fully

consumed. To obtain synchronized embryos, 3-5 adults were transferred to an NGM/HT115 plate

and let to lay eggs for 2-3 hrs, after which, adults were removed.

Auxin treatment for AID depletion

35 mm NGM plates containing 1 mM 1-naphthaleneacetic acid, potassium salt (K-NAA), a synthetic auxin analog that is photostable and water soluble (101) (Phytotechnology Laboratories N610) were seeded with 150 µl of HT115 and incubated at room temperature overnight. Control plates with no K-NAA were prepared in parallel. For experiments using TIR1 expressed from the *sun-1* (germ line), *rgef-1* (neurons), and *lim-7* (gonadal somatic sheath cells) promoters and DAF-2::AID::mNG, plates were inoculated with L1 larvae and L4 larvae were selected 40-48 hr later for live-cell imaging. In our hands, strains carrying TIR1 expressed from the *ges-1* (intestine), *myo-3* (muscle), or *dpy-7* (hypodermis) promoters and DAF-2::AID::mNG entered dauer when raised from the L1 stage on 1 mM K-NAA plates. To avoid dauer entry, L1 larvae were raised on control plates for 24 hrs, after which they were transferred to 1 mM K-NAA or fresh control plates, and late L4 larvae were selected for live-cell imaging 24 hrs later. L1 larvae carrying TIR1 expressed from the *eft-3* (pan-soma) promoter and DAF-2::AID::mNG were dauer constitutive when raised on 1 mM K-NAA plates. As animals raised on control (no K-NAA) plates showed a weak *daf-2* phenotype, we did not further pursue auxin treatment of this strain. For experiments using DAF-16::GFP::AID, animals were raised on 1 mM K-NAA or control plates from the L1 stage. We note that weak depletion of AID-tagged proteins in animals raised on control plates (i.e. without supplemental auxin) was evident in several of our experiments (*eft-3p::TIR1* with DAF-2::AID::mNG, as noted above, and *sun-1p::TIR1* with DAF-2::AID::mNG, as seen by lower germline fluorescence of DAF-2::AID::mNG (**Fig 3B**) and elevated nuclear DAF-16::GFP relative to other controls (compare **Fig 2B** to **3B**)). Similar leaky degradation has been documented elsewhere

(102, 103). We also found that *eft-3p::TIR1*, which was designed to express TIR1 in the soma and

not in the germ line (54), lead to robust germline depletion of DAF-16::GFP::AID (**S4D Fig**),

suggesting that *eft-3p::TIR1* is at least weakly expressed in the germline and that this is sufficient

to drive degradation of some AID-tagged proteins.

RNAi depletion of daf-2

RNAi was performed by feeding, as described previously (104) with the following modifications.

A plasmid for the expression of double-stranded RNAi targeting *daf-2* was constructed by cloning

exon 9 of *daf-2* into the L4440 vector and transforming into the HT115 *E. coli* strain. Exon 9 of

daf-2 was amplified with Phusion High-Fidelity DNA polymerase (New England Biolabs, M0530S)

using primers F_Primer: 5'-TAAGCACCATGGCACCTGTACCTTCTCCTTCAAC-3' and R_Primer: 5'-

TGCTTAGGGCCCCCTCTTCGATCGTCATGTTCTC-3'. The amplicon and L4440 vector were digested

using ApaI (New England Biolabs, R0114S) and NcoI (New England Biolabs, R0193S) restriction

enzymes. Ligation was performed using T4 DNA ligase (New England Biolabs, M0202S) and the

resulting plasmid was transformed into the HT115 *E. coli* strain following standard procedures.

HT115 carrying the *daf-2* plasmid or the empty vector L4440 were cultured for 12-16 hrs in LB +

100 µg/ml ampicillin (LB/Amp) at 37°C. This culture was diluted 1:100 in LB/Amp and grown for

another 6 hrs under the same conditions, after which 100 µl was added per 35 mm

NGM/IPTG/Carb plate (NGM with 1 mM isopropyl β-d-thiogalactoside (IPTG) and 50 µg/ml

carbenicillin). Seeded plates were kept in the dark, at room temperature for 3 days before adding

synchronized L1s. For experiments combining *daf-2(RNAi)* with AID depletion of DAF-16, plates

were prepared identically, except that 1 mM K-NAA was added to the NGM/IPTG/Carb plates at

the plate pouring stage.

Dietary Restriction (sDR)

35 mm plates containing standard NGM, with 50 µg/ml carbenicillin to prevent additional

bacterial growth, were seeded with 150 µl of HT115. A fresh overnight HT115 culture was used

either undiluted (control) or after a 1:10 dilution (sDR) in S basal (1M NaCl, 0.44M KH_2PO_4, 0.06M

K_2HPO_4, 0.05mg/mL Cholesterol). Plates were dried at room temperature for 24 hrs. Synchronous

cultures were obtained by egg collection, after rinsing adult animals in M9 buffer to reduce

bacterial transfer. Late L4 larvae were selected ~3 days later.

Animal mounting and live-cell timelapse and single time point imaging

Animals were mounted for live-cell imaging and/or single time point imaging as described in (19).

Briefly, animals were anesthetized in 0.04% tetramisole in M9 buffer and transferred to a 3%

agarose pad, molded using a silicon wafer etched to imprint square-shaped grooves 35 µm deep,

with widths ranging from 38-55 µm. Animals were positioned in grooves by gently blowing air

through a mouth pipet or using a worm eyelash pick. An 18 mm 1.5 coverslip was lowered gently,

the corners were sealed using VaLaP (1:1:1 Vaseline, lanolin, and paraffin) and the area under

the coverslip was backfilled with M9 + 0.04% tetramisole. For whole-animal imaging of DAF-

2::AID::mNG, animals were mounted following the same procedure except that 3% agarose pads

without grooves were used. Images were acquired at room temperature (~20°C) with either a

Quorum WaveFX-X1 spinning disk confocal (Leica DMI6000B inverted microscope, with an ASI

MS-2000 piezo stage, controlled by MetaMorph software, using a Leica 63x/1.40-0.60 HCX PL

APO oil immersion objective, 491 nm (50 mW) and 568 nm (50 mW) diode lasers, with ET 525/50

and FF 593/40 emission filters, using dual camera mode and two Photometrics PRIME BSI sCMOS

cameras), or a Nikon CSU-X1 spinning disk confocal (Nikon TI2-E inverted microscope with a

Yokogawa CSU-X1 confocal scanner, controlled by NIS-Elements software, using a Nikon Apo

40x/1.25 NA water immersion objective, 488 nm (100mW) and 561 nm (100mW) solid-state

lasers, with a dual band pass Chroma 59004m filter, and a Hamamatsu ORCA-Fusion BT sCMOS

camera). Specific imaging parameters are listed by experiment in **S2 Table.**

Image processing and analysis

All image processing and analysis was carried out in Fiji (105), using a combination of in-house,

semi-automated scripts and manual approaches, as specified below. Data were compiled and

analyzed in MATLAB (Mathworks), except where noted.

Measuring mitotic duration and mitotic features using spindle pole tracking

Spindle pole tracking and subsequent data analysis were performed as described in (18-20) with

minor modifications. In Fiji, images were converted from NIS-Elements or MetaMorph file

formats into a standard hyperstack TIF, with image metadata exported to a CSV file. Animal

movement was corrected prior to spindle pole tracking by XY registration, as described in (19,

20). Spindle pole tracking was performed using the TrackMate plug-in (106, 107). Tracks were

manually curated in TrackMate to create a relatively gap-free, single track per spindle pole, and

all spots in each track were renamed to indicate appropriate pairing (i.e. spindle poles belonging

to the same cell). The TrackMate 'Spots' information for each germ line was exported as a TXT

file and the XYZT coordinates and labels for all tracked spindle poles were imported into MATLAB

for scoring and analysis. Pole-to-pole distance (spindle length) was plotted relative to time and

NEBD, the "start" of mitosis, and anaphase onset were scored by clicking on spindle length versus

time plots, as previously described (18-20). If plots were ambiguous, cells were discarded or

scored visually using a cropped time-lapse. While NEBD is the definitive start of mitosis, we use

the first time point after NEBD at which spindle length reaches a stable minimum as the "start"

of mitosis for 2 reasons: (1) we find that NEBD is more difficult to unambiguously score from

spindle length plots; and (2) the time between NEBD and what we define as the "start" of mitosis

is relatively constant across strains and conditions and so not a major contributor to variation in

mitotic timing. These mitotic events were used as landmarks to calculate the duration of mitosis,

as described previously (19, 20), and mitotic features related to spindle size and dynamics.

Analysis of GSPC mitotic features

Mitotic features were calculated in MATLAB. The following features were extracted:

A. Pole separation prior to NEBD: the mean of the top 3 spindle length measurements within 3

min prior to NEBD.

B. Duration of mitosis: as described previously.

C. Spindle length: mean spindle length between the "start" of mitosis (t_s) and anaphase onset

(t_{AO})

D. Spindle length variance: the standard deviation for a random sampling of 7 spindle length

measurements between t_s and t_{AO}, after spindle length was normalized to mean spindle length

(as defined in C).

E. Spindle length fluctuation: the mean rate of change in spindle length, frame-to-frame,

throughout mitosis, calculated as the change in spindle length between frames, as a percent of

mean spindle length (as defined in C), divided by the frame rate.

F. Spindle rotation: the mean rate of spindle rotation, frame-to-frame, throughout mitosis,

calculated as the angle between spindle vectors in adjacent frames divided by the frame rate (i.e.

angular velocity).

G. Spindle elongation rate: the mean rate of change in spindle length between t_{AO} and 2.5 min

after t_{AO}, calculated as the slope of the line fit to spindle length versus time within this time

window.

H. Spindle rotation anaphase: as in F, but measured between t_{AO} and 2.5 min after t_{AO}.

I. Pole separation telophase: the second largest spindle length measured at least 7 min after t_{AO}

and expressed as a percent of mean spindle length (as defined in C).

Raw data are in **S1 Data**. Feature name abbreviations are preserved for compatibility with

MATLAB scripts. Letters correspond to descriptions given above.

To generate the heatmap in S2B Fig, outliers were removed for all features except duration of

mitosis. Outliers were defined as values that were more than 1.5x the interquartile range above

the 75th quartile or below the 25th quartile. Outliers for each feature were assessed on a per

genotype basis (e.g. outliers within the *daf-2(e1370)* data were defined based on the *daf-*

2(e1370) values). A Kruskal-Wallis test with a Tukey-Kramer post hoc test (MATLAB *kruskalwallis*

and *multcompare*) was performed, with a threshold for significance of $p < 0.05$, to determine

whether any genotype was statistically different from control (shown as asterisks in the

heatmap). The mean value for each feature for each genotype was normalized to control, and

these normalized values (# standard deviations above/below control mean) were plotted as a

heatmap (MATLAB *heatmap*). To determine whether any mitotic feature correlated with mitotic

duration across all genotypes (S2C Fig), all measurements for a given feature were combined,

standardized ($x - \mu/\sigma$), and tested for a correlative relationship with the duration of mitosis by

assessing the Pearson's linear correlation coefficient (r) and *p* value, after Bonferroni correction

for multiple testing. Features showing a correlation with *p* < 0.05 were plotted as a heatmap as

above. Non-significant correlations are shown as 0. Principal component analysis (S2D Fig) was

performed after data standardization using the *pca* function in MATLAB. Data were plotted along

the first two principal components, which account for ~45% of the total variance, and features

were overlaid using the *biplot* function. Cells were classified as "delayed" if their duration of

mitosis was greater than the 90th percentile of the control dataset published in (20). Delayed cells

from *daf-2(e1370)*, *daf-7(e1372)* and *glp-1(e2141)* are colored-coded accordingly.

Measuring the number of mitotic GSPCs, the number of PZ nuclei and the PZ mitotic index

The number of mitotic GSPCs, number of PZ nuclei and the PZ mitotic index were measured in

the same germ lines as were used for live-cell imaging. After XY registration, any germ lines in

which the distal germ line was cut off in XY or Z were excluded. Mitotic cells were counted at the

first frame, using the GFP or mCH::TBB-2 signal to identify all cells in which 2 spindle poles could

be easily discerned (i.e. all cells in early prophase through early telophase). Mitotic cells were

scored manually in Fiji using the point selection tool and saving the location of all scored cells as

an ROI list. For stains carrying HIS-11::mCH, the total number of cells in the PZ was counted as

the number of nuclei between the distal tip of the gonad and the first row of crescent shaped

meiotic nuclei (108, 109). Nuclei were counted from the first frame without appreciable animal

movement. PZ nuclei counts were obtained by re-purposing the spot detection tools available in

TrackMate (106, 107). After pre-processing the HIS-11::mCH channel (background subtraction,

median 3D filtering with X and Y radii = 2 μm and Z radius = 1 μm, and gaussian blurring with

sigma = 2) and manually defining a rectangular ROI encompassing the PZ, the Differences of the

Gaussian (DoG) blob detector (estimated blob diameter = 4.25 μm) and the linear assignment

problem (LAP) spot linker (maximum link and gap-closing distances = 3.0 μm, maximum gap

allowance = 2 frames), were used to identify and track nuclei over at least 5 frames. Spots were

manually curated to exclude non-nuclei spots (e.g. auto-fluorescent gut granules) or non-PZ

nuclei (e.g. nuclei in the proximal gonad arm). The TrackMate 'Spots' information for each PZ was

exported as a CSV file and the XYZ coordinates for all nuclei were imported into MATLAB to

extract nuclei counts, align nuclei counts with the respective number of mitotic cells and to

calculate the mitotic index (number of mitotic cells/number of PZ nuclei). We note that our PZ

nuclei counts for control strains are similar to reported values (41), while our mitotic indices are

higher (24), likely owing to the fact that we can detect cells across more mitotic stages (prophase

to telophase) than methods that count mitotic figures or phospho-Histone H3 positive cells.

Measuring DAF-16::GFP nuclear enrichment

For single time point images, 9 interphase nuclei per germ line were selected manually using the

HIS-11::mCH channel. A circular ROI, 4.5 μm in diameter, centered in XY and Z on each nucleus

was drawn manually using the oval area selection tool. To generate cytoplasmic ROIs, the radius

of each nuclear ROI was enlarged by 1 μm, and a donut-shaped composite ROI was generated

using the XOR function in the ROI manager. Neighboring nuclei were outlined manually using the

oval area selection tool and excluded from the cytoplasmic ROI using the XOR function (see **Fig**

2D). DAF-16::GFP fluorescence intensity (FI) was measured by applying these ROIs to the GFP

channel and measuring the mean FI per pixel within each. After background subtraction (the

mean FI per pixel across 3 rectangular ROIs positioned outside of the animal), the nuclear-to-

cytoplasmic ratio for each cell was calculated as the mean nuclear FI divided by the mean

cytoplasmic FI.   To measure DAF-16::GFP nuclear enrichment in timelapse images, animal

movement was corrected by XY registration, as for spindle pole tracking. Mitotic nuclei were

tracked manually by drawing a 4.5 μm diameter circular ROI, centered in XY and Z on each

nucleus, over time. Cytoplasmic ROIs were generated and the DAF-16::GFP nuclear-to-

cytoplasmic ratio was calculated for each time point as described above. The coordinates of the

nuclear ROI were also used to generate an average intensity projection of 5 z-slices (0.75 μm step

size), centered in Z on the tracked nucleus over time. Changes in the variance of the HIS-11::mCH

FI within the nuclear ROI in these projections was used to estimate the duration of mitosis, as

described previously (18). Briefly, the HIS-11::mCH variance for each nucleus was min-max

normalized, and plotted relative to time in MATLAB. NEBD was scored as the last time point when

normalized variance was less than 50% of max and/or just prior to the sharp increase that

characterizes the start of chromosome congression. Anaphase onset was scored as the last time

point when normalized variance was greater than 70% of max and/or just prior to the sharp

decrease that characterizes the start of chromosome segregation. Plots were scored using *ginput*

in MATLAB. The time of NEBD was used to extract the DAF-16::GFP nuclear-to-cytoplasmic ratio

prior to mitosis, by taking the mean of the highest 3 values measured at least 10 min prior to

NEBD. 10 min was selected as the nuclear-to-cytoplasmic ratios measured at this time were

similar to interphase nuclei. After 10 min, nuclear DAF-16::GFP decreases (See **Fig 2E**).

Measuring DAF-2::AID::mNG and DAF-16::GFP::AID germ line depletion

2-channel, single time point Z-stacks were taken prior to the start of live-cell imaging for a subset

of the germ lines used for spindle pole tracking in Fig 3E. The middle z-slice for each germ line

was selected using TBB-2::mCH signal. For DAF-2::AID::mNG measurements, a maximum

intensity projection of 7 z-slices (0.75 µm step size), centered at this mid-plane, was generated.

For DAF-16::GFP::AID measurements, the mid-plane z-slice was used. Three rectangular ROIs

(~9.7 x 12.9 µm) were drawn within the distal germ line region using the TBB-2::mCH signal and

used to measure the mean FI. Background FI was measured by performing the same procedure

for strains carrying *sun-1p::TIR1* or *eft-3p::TIR1* and TBB-2::mCH alone. Germ lines with FI less

than or equal to background were set to 0 and data were normalized to the relevant *sun-1p::TIR1*

no Auxin condition.

Scoring mitotic errors in GSCs

Mitotic cells were tracked using either the TBB-2::GFP signal and spindle pole tracking, as

described above, or the HIS-11::mCH signal, as described for counting PZ nuclei, followed by

manual curation in TrackMate (106, 107) to label mitotic nuclei. Tracking coordinates were used

to generate a cropped maximum intensity projection (11 z-slices, 0.5 μm step size) of each cell.

Cropped cells were collected in a single folder and file names were replaced with an arbitrary

number such that users were blind to the genotype of each cell during scoring. Cells were scored

manually using a semi-automated script that opened each file and allowed users to score cells

according to the following criteria: (1) no obvious defects; (2) misaligned chromosomes during

prometaphase/metaphase; (3) lagging, bridging and/or misaligned chromosomes during

anaphase.

Measuring progeny production

L4 stage larvae from well fed NGM/OP50 plates were singled onto new NGM/OP50 plates and

incubated at 20°C. Animals were transferred to new plates every 24 hrs for a total of 72 hrs. The

total number of mature adults on each plate 72 hrs later was counted manually using a

stereomicroscope. Animals that were sterile, dead, or bagged, were excluded from the analysis.

Data were compiled in Excel.

Measuring embryonic lethality

L4 stage larvae from well fed NGM/OP50 plates were transferred to a new NGM/OP50 plate and

left to develop to adulthood for 24 hrs at 20°C. Synchronous 1-day adults were then singled onto

new NGM/OP50 plates and allowed to lay eggs for 8hr at 20°C. Using a stereomicroscope, the

total number of eggs laid were counted at the end of the 8hr collection. 24 hrs later the number

of unhatched eggs were counted. Percent embryonic lethality was calculated as the number of

unhatched eggs divided by the total number of eggs laid. Data were compiled in Excel.

Measuring sterility

100 L4 stage larvae were transferred from well fed NGM + OP50 plates to new NGM + OP50

plates, 5 larvae per plate, and left to develop for 48 hrs at 20°C. Adults were scored manually,

using a stereomicroscope, as fertile, defined by a clear row of embryos *in utero,* or as sterile,

defined by an absence of embryos *in utero* and signs of abnormal germ line morphology (e.g.

highly reduced germ lines)*.* Animals that were dead were excluded from the analysis. Animals

that bagged were counted as fertile. Data were compiled in Excel.

Counting germ line apoptotic bodies

L4 stage larvae expressing a CED-1::GFP fusion protein in the somatic sheath cells were

transferred from well fed NGM/OP50 plates to fresh plates and allowed to develop for 24 hr at

20°C to reach the adult stage. 1-day adults were mounted as for live-cell imaging and single time-

point z-stack images of the gonadal loop region were captured. Cell corpses were identified using

the CED-1::GFP signal, which accumulates between dying cells and those that are engulfing them

(110). Gonads were scored manually, with genotype information removed (as for mitotic error

scoring) to minimize user bias.

Statistics and figure assembly

Statistical analyses and data plotting were performed in MATLAB. Summary statistics for all

experiments, including statistical tests used, are provided in **S2 Data**. Figures were assembled

using Adobe Illustrator. For all plots showing GSPC mitotic duration, small dots represent

individual GSPCs, larger dots represent the mean duration of mitosis per gonad arm/PZ. For all

other plots, dots represent one gonad arm/PZ and/or one animal. For all experiments, one gonad

arm was assessed per animal. Boxplots show the median, interquartile range and most extreme

values not considered outliers. Bar plots show the mean with error bars showing the standard

deviation. n.s. = $p > 0.05$, * = $p < 0.05$, ** = $p < 0.01$, *** = $p < 0.001$. All representative images

were scaled to the same brightness and contrast settings, pseudo colored and cropped in Fiji,

before exporting as RGB TIFs. Rotated images are indicated by the inclusion of background-

colored pixels. Images were re-sized and/or masked in Adobe Illustrator to fit the final figure

panel.

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throughout this project, and our funding sources.

Supporting Information

S1 Fig. Related to Fig 1. Number of nuclei per PZ (A) and number of mitotic cells per PZ (B) used

to calculate the mitotic index, as shown in Fig 1C and E. The dashed grey line indicates the median

value for control.

S2 Fig. Related to Fig 1. (A) Schematic showing the mitotic features extracted for GSPCs from

animals bearing mutant alleles in the signaling pathways shown in Fig 1B. Features are shown

relative to the spindle length versus time plot from Fig 1D, indicating which stage of mitosis they

relate to. Features are listed on the right with letter designations used in (B-D). (B) Heatmap

showing the mitotic features that differ significantly from control in each mutant background.

Data were compared using a Kruskal-Wallis with Tukey-Kramer post hoc test with the null

hypothesis that all samples come from the same distribution. Red indicates values above the

control mean and blue indicates values below the control mean. Color saturation indicates the

distance above/below the control mean after data standardization. (C) Heatmap showing the

strength of the linear relationship between each mitotic feature and the duration of mitosis

across all cells of all genotypes. Pearson's coefficient (r) is shown for significant ($p < 0.05$ after

Bonferroni correction) correlations. (D) Principal component analysis of mitotic features showing

all cells plotted along the first two principal components, with delayed cells (duration of mitosis

> 90th percentile of control) shown for *daf-2(e1370)*, *daf-7(e1372)* and *glp-1(e2141)*. Vectors

represent the contribution of each mitotic feature to the principal components shown.

S3 Fig. Related to Fig 2. (A) The PZ mitotic index in animals bearing the mutant alleles or allele

combinations indicated. *daf-18(nr2037)*, *akt-1(mg144)* and *daf-16(mu86)* rescue the lower

mitotic index seen in *daf-2(e1370)* animals. (B) The DAF-16::GFP nuclear-to-cytoplasmic ratio

(N:C) is elevated in GSPCs from animals in which *daf-2* was knocked down by RNAi. (C) Single time

point maximum intensity projections showing DAF-16::GFP nuclear localization over the course

of a GSPC mitosis. Numbers indicate time in minutes relative to mitosis start, as inferred from

HIS-11::mCH variance. Scale bar = 5 µm.

S4 Fig. Related to Fig 3. (A) Maximum intensity projection of the distal germ line of a late L4 larvae

showing DAF-2::AID::mNG (green) and germ cell membranes (magenta; tagRFP::PH). DAF-

2::AID::mNG is shown in inverted grey scale below. DAF-2::AID::mNG in the distal germ line is

predominantly found in cytoplasmic puncta (arrow heads) in GSPCs and in the rachis (the shared

inner core of cytoplasm to which all germ cells are connected via cytoplasmic bridges). Scale bar

= 10µm. (B) GSPC mitosis is delayed in animals after *daf-2* was depleted by RNAi throughout the

whole worm but not when *daf-2* was depleted in the germ line alone. (C) Lower magnification,

whole worm images showing partial DAF-2::AID::mNG depletion in *eft-3p::TIR1* animals without

auxin treatment. Orange arrow heads indicate prominent sites of somatic DAF-2::AID::mNG

expression (head neurons, vulva, intestine) in control animals (no TIR1; left) and the same

anatomical locations in animals bearing *eft-3p::TIR1* showing reduced expression. Scale bar =

50µm. (D) Single z-slice sections through the middle of the germ line (orange outline; left), or a

basal region through intestinal nuclei (blue arrow heads; right) in the same animals, showing DAF-

16::GFP::AID expression in *daf-2*(RNAi) treated animals. As with DAF-2::AID::mNG, *eft-3p::TIR1*

leads to partial somatic depletion of DAF-16::GFP::AID without the addition of auxin (compare

top intestinal nuclei to those in either of the bottom 2 images). Auxin treatment leads to nearly

complete DAF-16::GFP::AID depletion, in both germ line and soma, in *eft-3p::TIR1* animals, and

robust germ line depletion in *sun-1p::TIR1* animals. Scale bar = 20μm. Quantification of germ line

DAF-16::GFP::AID fluorescence for a subset of the animals assayed in Fig 3E is shown on the right.

(E) and (F) The number of mitotic cells per PZ for a subset of the germ lines assessed in Figs 3D

and 3F. Fewer mitotic cells were seen in the PZs of *eft-3p::TIR1* animals, although this difference

was not statistically significant, and in the PZs of *ges-1p::TIR1* animals after auxin treatment. Dots

represent individual PZs.

S5 Fig. Related to Fig 4. (A) The percent of cells showing mitotic errors, as shown in Fig 4C, for

san-1(ok1580) single mutants and *daf-2(e1370); san-1(ok1580)* double mutants. The total

number of cells scored for each genotype is shown at the base of each stacked bar plot. *daf-*

2(e1370) does not increase the frequency of mitotic errors in *san-1(ok1580)* mutants. (B) The

percent of L4 larvae that develop into sterile versus fertile/gravid adults. The total number of

animals scored for each genotype is shown at the base of each stacked bar plot. *daf-2(e1370)*

enhances the sterility of *mdf-2(lt4)* mutants. (C) The number of mitotic cells per PZ for a subset

of the germ lines assessed in Fig 4A. The number of mitotic cells is slightly lower in *daf-2(e1370);*

mdf-2(lt4) double mutants than in daf-2(e1370) alone, although this difference is not statistically

significant.

S6 Fig. Related to Fig 5. The mitotic index for animals fed *ad libitum* (adL) versus those subjected

to caloric restriction (sDR) for control (A), *daf-16(mu86)* and *daf-18(nr2037)* mutants (B) and

AMPK null animals (*aak-1(tm1944); aak-2(ok425)*) (C). The mitotic index was measured for a

subset of the animals assayed in Fig 5C and D. Similarly to mitotic duration, the low mitotic index

in sDR animals requires *daf-18* and *aak-1/2*, but not *daf-16*.

S1 Table. Strain list. Unless otherwise indicated, all strains were generated as part of this study,

by standard genetic crosses. The source strains for alleles and transgenes are indicated the first

time a strain carrying them appears in the table.

S2 Table. Imaging parameters. Imaging parameters are listed by experiment type with relevant

figures indicated. Imaging parameters were held constant across experiments with occasional

exceptions. Where multiple settings were used, the most common are in bold. For spindle pole

and mitotic error tracking, variation in imaging parameters was within the range commonly used

by our lab and below the threshold for phototoxicity as determined in (20). For experiments

quantifying fluorescence intensity, data were normalized to the same point of reference to

permit comparison across experiments.

S1 Data. Candidate screen mitotic features

S2 Data. Summary statistics for all figures

 Figure Legends

Fig 1. Mutations in *daf-2*/IGFR, *daf-7*/TGF-β and *glp-1*/Notch delay GSPC mitosis. (A) Cartoon

representation showing the organization of the *C. elegans* somatic gonad and germ line in adults

(top) and L4 larvae (bottom), with a close up of the distal proliferative zone (PZ), which houses

GSPCs. (B) Schematic illustrating the role of conserved signaling pathways in regulating GSPC fate

and/or cell cycle progression and whether they act in the soma or germ line. Major points of

regulation are indicated by line weight. (C) A maximum intensity projection through the top

portion of the distal region of one gonad arm from an L4 larva expressing GFP::TBB-2 (top) and

HIS-11::mCH (bottom) in germ cells. Arrow heads (top) show examples of mitotic spindles in

different stages of mitosis (prophase through telophase). The PZ is outlined (bottom), with an

arrow indicating a crescent-shaped meiotic nucleus marking the proximal end of the PZ. The

mitotic index is calculated by dividing the total number of cells with 2 centrosomes by the number

of nuclei in the PZ. Scale bar = 10 μm. (D) Single time point, maximum intensity projections of

GFP::TBB-2 (top) and HIS-11::mCH (bottom) during GSPC mitosis, with a plot of spindle length

over time for the cell shown. Numbers indicate time in minutes, relative to the metaphase-

anaphase transition, for different mitotic phases or key transitions. Pro = Prophase, NEBD =

nuclear envelope breakdown, start = first time point after NEBD when spindle length stabilizes,

end = metaphase-anaphase transition, Ana = Anaphase, Telo = Telophase. Scale bar = 5 μm. (E-F)

The PZ mitotic index (E) and GSPC duration of mitosis (F) in L4 larvae bearing mutant alleles in

the signaling pathways shown in B. The dashed grey line indicates the median value for control.

The mitotic index is lower in *daf-2(e1370)* animals and mitosis is delayed in *daf-2(e1370)*, *glp-*

1(e2141) and *daf-7(e1372)* animals.

Fig 2. *daf-2(e1370)* delays GSPC mitosis via the canonical IIS pathway converging on DAF-16/FoxO. (A) Schematic showing the core IIS pathway with pathway components color-coded as in (B). (B) The duration of GSPC mitosis in animals bearing the mutant alleles or allele combinations indicated. *daf-2(e1370)* mitotic delays are suppressed by loss-of-function mutations in *daf-18* and *daf-16* and a gain-of-function mutation in *akt-1*. The dashed grey line indicates the median value for control. *daf-2(e1370)* is delayed relative to all other genotypes. All other genotypes are similar to control. (C) Maximum intensity projections of the top half of a gonad arm from control (top) and *daf-2(e1370)* (bottom) L4 larvae expressing DAF-16::GFP, from the endogenous *daf-16* locus, and HIS-11::mCH in germ cells. Yellow boxes indicate the cells shown in (D). (D) Maximum intensity projections of single control (top) and *daf-2(e1370)* (bottom) GSPC nuclei. Blue and yellow overlays show the regions used to measure DAF-16::GFP cytoplasmic and nuclear fluorescence intensity, respectively. (E) The DAF-16::GFP nuclear-to-cytoplasmic ratio (N:C) is elevated in *daf-2(e1370)* GSPCs relative to control. (F) Changes in the DAF-16::GFP N:C (green) and HIS-11::mCH variance (magenta) over time relative to mitosis start for *daf-2(e1370)* GSPCs. Grey shaded region shows the period of time prior to the start of mitosis when DAF-16::GFP was measured for mitotic cells. Mitotic duration was inferred from changes in the variance of HIS-11::mCH. (G) DAF-16::GFP N:C prior to mitosis does not predict the duration of mitosis on a per cell (x) basis. Grey line shows the linear least-squares best fit for the data, with Pearson's coefficient and *p* value shown below.

Fig 3. The IIS pathway acts cell non-autonomously from the soma to regulate GSPC mitosis. (A)

Maximum intensity projections showing DAF-2::AID::mNG in the germline (outlined in orange)

and developing vulva (blue arrow head) in animals carrying *sun-1p*::*TIR1* with (middle) and

without (top) auxin treatment, and *eft-3p*::*TIR1* (bottom) without auxin treatment. The vulva is

shown as an example of somatic depletion in *eft-3::TIR1,* but not in *sun-1p::TIR1,* animals. Scale

bar = 10μm. (B-D) The mean DAF-2::AID::mNG fluorescence intensity per distal germ line,

normalized to *sun-1p*::*TIR1* no auxin (B), the GSPC DAF-16::GFP nuclear-to-cytoplasmic ratio (N:C)

(C), and the duration of GSPC mitosis (D) in *sun-1p::TIR1* animals with and without auxin, and *eft-*

3p::TIR1 animals without auxin. Auxin treatment of *sun-1p::TIR1* animals depletes DAF-

2::AID::mNG in the germ line, increases the GSPC DAF-16::GFP N:C, but does not delay GSPC

mitosis. DAF-2::AID::mNG germline expression and the GSPC DAF-16::GFP N:C in *eft-3p::TIR1* no

auxin are similar to *sun-1p::TIR1* no auxin, yet GSPC mitosis is delayed. (E) The duration of GSPC

mitosis in animals after *daf-2* was depleted by RNAi (purple) compared to control (grey), with and

without auxin treatment to deplete DAF-16::GFP::AID in the germ line (*sun-1p::TIR1*) or in all

tissues (*eft-3p::TIR1*). DAF-16/FoxO depletion in the germ line does not suppress GSPC mitotic

delays induced by *daf-2*(RNAi), while *eft-3p::TIR1*-driven depletion of DAF-16, which affects both

soma and germ line (**S4 Fig**), does. (F) The duration of GSPC mitosis in animals after DAF-

2::AID::mNG was depleted in different somatic tissues. Depletion in the somatic gonadal sheath

cells (*lim-7p*) or intestine (*ges-1p*) was sufficient to delay GSPC mitosis.

Fig 4. Reduced IIS leads to checkpoint-dependent mitotic delays without compromising mitotic

fidelity. (A) The duration of GSPC mitosis in *daf-2(e1370)* and *mdf-2(lt4)* single mutants and *daf-*

2(e1370); mdf-2(lt4) double mutants compared to control. Loss of the checkpoint, via *mdf-2(lt4)*,

suppresses *daf-2(e1370)* mitotic delays entirely. (B) Single time point, maximum intensity

projections of GFP::TBB-2 (green) and HIS-11::mCH (magenta) during GSPC mitosis, with the HIS-

11::mCH channel shown in inverted grey scale below. Numbers indicate time in minutes, relative

to the metaphase-anaphase transition. Orange arrowhead indicates a chromosome that fails to

align at the metaphase plate and segregates improperly in anaphase. Scale bar = 5 μm. (C) The

percent of cells showing mitotic errors, as shown in (C), for *daf-2(e1370)* and *mdf-2(lt4)* single

mutants and *daf-2(e1370); mdf-2(lt4)* double mutants as compared to control. The total number

of cells scored for each genotype is shown at the base of each stacked bar plot. *daf-2(e1370)* does

not increase the frequency of mitotic errors in *mdf-2(lt4)* mutants. (D) Percent embryonic

lethality (dead embryos/total embryos laid) as assessed for individual animals. Animals were

binned according to the percent embryonic lethality shown on the right. The number of animals

scored per genotype is shown at the base of each stacked bar plot. (E) The total number of

progeny produced over a 3 day period for individual animals. (F) The number of apoptotic bodies

per gonad arm. *daf-2(e1370)* does not increase the severity *mdf-2(lt4)* embryonic lethality, low

brood size and elevated germline apoptosis.

Fig 5. Reduced IIS and caloric restriction rely on different downstream signaling effectors to delay

GSPC mitosis. (A) The percent of cells showing mitotic errors for animals fed *ad libitum* (adL) or

subjected to caloric restriction (sDR) in control versus *san-1(ok1580)* single mutants. The total

number of cells scored for each condition is shown at the base of each stacked bar plot. Unlike

daf-2(e1370), sDR increases the frequency of mitotic errors in *san-1(ok1580)* mutants. (B-D) The

duration of GSPC mitosis in *eat-2(ad465)* single mutants compared to control, *daf-16(mu86)*; *eat-*

2(ad465) and *eat-2(ad465); daf-18(nr2037)* double mutants (B), in control versus *daf-16(mu86)*

and *daf-18(nr2037)* single mutant adL and sDR animals (C) and in AMPK null animals (*aak-*

1(tm1944); aak-2(ok425)) fed *ad libitum* or subjected to sDR (D). GSPC mitotic delays upon caloric

restriction depend on *daf-18* and *aak-1/2*, but not *daf-16*.

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Figure 1

A

Adult

Sheath | DTC | GSPCs

Embryos

Oocytes

L4 larva

Distal germ line

PZ

B

Soma

LAG-2 ◄----- DAF-7^TGF-β

LET-60^Ras

↓

MPK-1^ERK

GLP-1^Notch   DAF-2^IGFR

GSPCs

TOR   DAF-18^PTEN

↓   DAF-16^FoxO

RSKS-1^S6K   AAK-1/2^AMPK

Differentiation   Proliferation

C

GFP::TBB-2

cells with 2 centrosomes

Mitotic index

HIS-11::mCH

nuclei in PZ

D

TBB-2

-20   -7   -4   0   2   10

HIS-11

Pro   NEBD   *start*   *end*   Ana   Telo

E

Mitotic index (%)

Control, *daf-2(e1370)*, *daf-18(nr2037)*, *glp-1(e2141)*, *glp-1(ar202)*, *mpk-1(ga111)*, *let-60(ga89)*, *daf-7(e1372)*, *rsks-1(ok1255)*, *aak-1(tm1944); aak-2(ok524)*

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

F

Duration of mitosis (min)

Control, *daf-2(e1370)*, *daf-18(nr2037)*, *glp-1(e2141)*, *glp-1(ar202)*, *mpk-1(ga111)*, *let-60(ga89)*, *daf-7(e1372)*, *rsks-1(ok1255)*, *aak-1(tm1944); aak-2(ok524)*

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

Figure 2

Figure 3

Figure 4