Polo-Like Kinase 1 phosphorylation tunes the functional viscoelastic properties of the centrosome scaffold

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ABSTRACT

Centrosomes are membranelles organelles containing centrioles encapsulated by pericentriolar material (PCM). PCM nucleates microtubules that help position and segregate chromosomes during mitosis, yet how PCM resists microtubule-mediated forces is poorly understood at the material level. Here, we show that PLK-1 phosphorylation of SPD-5 tunes the dynamics and material properties of the PCM scaffold in *C. elegans* embryos. Microrheology of reconstituted PCM condensates reveals that PLK-1 phosphorylation decreases SPD-5 dynamics and increases condensate viscoelasticity. Similarly, in embryos, phospho-mimetic SPD-5 is less dynamic than wild-type SPD-5, which itself is less dynamic than phospho-null SPD-5. PCM built with phospho-null SPD-5 is smaller than normal, but its assembly can be partially rescued by reducing microtubule-dependent forces. The same is true for PCM built with phospho-mimetic SPD-5, yet the underlying causes are distinct: under force, phospho-null SPD-5 fails to assemble, while phospho-mimetic SPD-5 forms hyper-stable foci that fail to cohere into a uniform, spherical mass. Both mutants have defects with chromosome segregation and viability. Thus, tuning of SPD-5 phosphorylation optimizes PCM material properties to achieve correct PCM size, integrity, and function. Our results demonstrate how regulated chemical modification of a scaffolding protein modulates the material properties and function of a membraneless organelle.

1.0 INTRODUCTION

Mesoscale material properties like viscosity, elasticity, and strength emerge from the collective interactions between molecules. This is well understood for associative polymers solutions that undergo gelation or phase separation (Cohen, 1982; Flory, 1953). For example, chain length, valence, strength of interactions, and solubility are all well characterized to influence the material properties of engineered and biological polymer-based materials (Alshareedah et al., 2024; Ferry, 1980; Harmon et al., 2017). While this framework has been applied to understand subcellular structures, such as membraneless organelles (Banani et al., 2017; Lyon et al., 2021), the relationship between material properties and function of such structures is incompletely understood.

The centrosome represents an ideal model to investigate how material properties influence the function of membraneless organelles. The centrosome is a force-bearing structure composed of barrel-shaped centrioles that organize an amorphous proteinaceous matrix known as the pericentriolar material (PCM). PCM-nucleated microtubules help form the mitotic spindle, which segregates mitotic chromosomes during cell division (Gomes Pereira et al., 2021; Woodruff et al., 2014). PCM also nucleates astral microtubules that connect to cortically anchored motors, which generate force to position the mitotic spindle (Laan et al., 2012). If PCM integrity is disrupted, microtubule-based pulling forces can fragment it, leading to multipolar spindles and genomic instability (Maiato and Logarinho, 2014; Oshimori et al., 2006). These observations suggest that the material properties of the PCM are functionally important.

Understanding the molecular interactions within PCM could be informative for determining functionally important material properties. Upon entry into mitosis, PCM rapidly expands by accumulating scaffold proteins that then recruit client proteins needed for microtubule aster formation (Gomes Pereira et al., 2021). Major scaffold proteins have been identified in nematodes (SPD-5), insects (Cnn), and vertebrates (CDK5RAP2). These all contain numerous coiled-coil domains interspersed with disordered linkers (Hamill et al., 2002; Megraw et al., 1999) Polo-family kinase phosphorylation potentiates PCM maturation by promoting the self-association of these scaffold proteins (Conduit et al., 2014; Feng et al., 2017; Haren et al., 2009; Rios et al., 2024; Rios et al., 2025; Woodruff et al., 2015) In *C. elegans,* Polo-like Kinase (PLK-1) phosphorylation of SPD-5

at four sites (S530, S626, S653, S658) is important for SPD-5 multimerization and overall

PCM maturation (Woodruff et al., 2015). Optical nano-rheology showed that *C. elegans*

PCM can flow under shear stress, but only during its disassembly phase or when PLK-1

is inhibited (Mittasch et al., 2020). This result suggests that the material properties of the

PCM are dynamic and are subject to cell cycle regulation by PLK-1. It is unclear if PLK-1

directly regulates the material properties of the PCM and whether properly tuned material

properties are important for PCM function.

Here, we used cell-based and *ex vivo* biophysical assays, biochemical

reconstitution, and microrheology to characterize how PLK-1 regulates the material

properties of the PCM in *C. elegans*. We demonstrate that PLK-1 phosphorylation

increases the viscoelastic moduli of reconstituted SPD-5 scaffolds in vitro. In embryos,

we show that SPD-5 can transition between dynamically and stably associated states

based on its phosphorylation status. A balance of these two states tunes the material

properties of the PCM to optimize its mechanical integrity and ability to segregate

chromosomes during mitosis.

2.0 Results

2.1 PLK-1 phosphorylation changes the dynamics and material properties of

reconstituted PCM scaffolds

To investigate how PLK-1 phosphorylation changes the material properties of the

PCM, we biochemically reconstituted PCM scaffold assembly *in vitro.* Previous

reconstitution of micron-scale SPD-5 condensates required the use of macromolecular

crowding agents, which dampened regulation by PLK-1 (Woodruff et al., 2017). More

importantly, the presence of crowding agents has been shown to artificially affect the

elasticity and viscosity of biomolecular condensates (Andre et al., 2023; Kaur et al., 2019).

To circumvent these complications, we discovered conditions that permit SPD-5

condensation without using a macromolecular crowding agent. We found that SPD-5 in

combination with its client protein TPXL-1 condenses into micron-scale droplets at near-

physiological salt concentrations (75 mM KCl; Figure 1A, S1A,B). For the rest of this

study, we refer to these reconstituted assemblies as "PCM condensates."

Time-lapse imaging revealed that, after mixing of SPD-5, TPXL-1, and kinase dead

(KD) PLK-1, PCM condensates steadily grew. Incubation with constitutively active (CA)

PLK-1 initially enhanced PCM condensate assembly compared with the KD control (<10

min) (Figure 1B). Thus, PLK-1 activity, and not simply binding, promotes condensate

assembly, recapitulating PLK-1-mediated potentiation of PCM assembly seen in vivo

(Decker et al., 2011; Woodruff et al., 2015). At later time points, however, PLK-1 activity

inhibited PCM condensate growth, suggestive of kinetic arrest (Linsenmeier et al., 2022;

Ranganathan and Shakhnovich, 2020). Furthermore, PCM condensates incubated with

PLK-1(CA) appeared clustered, reminiscent of a colloidal suspension, whereas

condensates incubated with PLK-1(KD) were dispersed (Figure 1B,C).

Time-lapse imaging revealed that PCM condensates with PLK-1(KD) could fuse,

while condensates incubated with PLK-1(CA) could not fuse and remained clustered after

540 s (Figure 1C). Molecular rearrangement underlies droplet coalescence in soft matter

materials; therefore, we hypothesized that PLK-1 activity decreases the dynamics of PCM

condensates. Indeed, condensates with PLK-1(KD) recovered after photobleaching,

albeit at a low level, whereas condensates with PLK-1(CA) showed no recovery (Figure

1D, S1B). As an orthogonal approach, we measured persistence of SPD-5::RFP in

condensates after 4.3-fold dilution into a higher salt buffer (150mM KCl, 25mM Hepes pH

7.4). Unphosphorylated condensates lost considerable mass upon dilution, whereas

phosphorylated condensates largely maintained their mass (Figure 1E).

To confirm that dynamic changes conferred by PLK-1 activity were due to the

phosphorylation state of SPD-5 and not TPXL-1, we used phospho-mimetic SPD-5, which

contains serine to glutamic acid substitutions at 4 PLK-1 phosphorylation sites important

for PCM assembly (S530E, S627E, S653E, S658E; SPD-5(4E)) (Woodruff et al., 2015).

SPD-5(4E) condensates morphologically and dynamically recapitulated SPD-5(WT)

condensates treated with PLK-1(CA); both assembled smaller drops unable to fuse that

were resistant to dilution (Fig S1C, D). Furthermore, PLK-1 did not reduce TPXL-1

dynamics but rather increased them (Figure S1E). We conclude that phosphorylation of

SPD-5 directly decreases the dynamics of reconstituted PCM scaffolds and their ability to

fuse.

2.2 Phosphorylation increases the viscoelasticity of reconstituted PCM scaffolds

To quantify how phosphorylation changes the material properties of reconstituted PCM, we used 100 nm beads to perform video particle tracking microrheology (VPT) of SPD-5/TPXL-1 condensates incubated with PLK-1(CA) or PLK-1(KD)(Figure 2A). To minimize effects from confinement, only beads located in the condensate center were analyzed (see methods). Phosphorylation reduced the mean squared displacement (MSD) of beads inside the condensates (n>17,000 trajectories; Figure 2B). Using the Generalized Stokes-Einstein Relation, we expressed MSD in terms of the viscoelastic modulus, which consists of viscous (G") and elastic (G') moduli as functions of frequency (ω) (Figure 2C). Phosphorylation shifted the two moduli upward, indicating a transition to higher viscoelasticity (Figure 2C), and shifted the first crossover point (where G' = G") to the left, indicating emergence of elastic (solid-like) behavior at lower frequencies. In PLK-1(CA) condensates, G' and G" appeared to approach a second crossover point at a higher frequency not accessible by our VPT analysis. We speculate that phosphorylation could qualitatively change the rheological behaviors of SPD-5 condensates in addition to simply quantitatively increasing their viscoelasticity (see Discussion). Next, we derived viscosity (η) as a function of frequency using the relation $\eta=G"/\omega$. Phosphorylation increased the condensate viscosity at all frequencies (Figure 2D). The estimated zero-shear viscosity (resting viscosity) of the condensates differed more than 8-fold: 31.8 Pa*s in the presence of PLK-1(CA) vs. 3.8 Pa*s in the presence of PLK-1(KD).

The response of a viscoelastic material is dominated by elastic contributions on short time scales and viscous contributions on longer time scales. The terminal relaxation time characterizes the timescale when a material transitions from elastic to terminally viscous behavior under applied stress and is defined as the inverse of the frequency at the first G'-G" crossover point. Longer terminal relaxation times are associated with more elastic, solid-like states. Phosphorylation increased the terminal relaxation time of SPD-5/TPXL-1 condensates (4.6 s (CA) vs.1.03 s (KD); Figure 2C). Our microrheology data, combined with FRAP and fusion assays, indicate that PLK-1 phosphorylation increases the viscoelasticity of the PCM condensates, which leads to more solid-like PCM at functionally relevant time scales. Furthermore, our data demonstrate that the dynamics of SPD-5 correlate with viscoelasticity of PCM condensates (Figure 2E). We conclude

that phosphorylation-dependent tuning of SPD-5 dynamics determines the overall
viscoelastic behavior of PCM condensates.

2.3 The phosphorylation state of SPD-5 affects its dynamics in metaphase-arrested
embryos

We next investigated how phosphorylation impacts PCM material properties and
function in embryos. It is technically challenging to introduce beads into *C. elegans* PCM
and perform VPT. However, our in vitro system showed a strong correlation between
phosphorylation-induced changes in dynamics and material properties of SPD-5
condensates. Therefore, we sought to infer PCM material properties in embryos by
measuring SPD-5 dynamics. We generated embryos that express GFP-tagged, RNAi-
resistant transgenes of *spd-5* from an ectopic locus in the genome (Woodruff et al., 2015).
We mutated the four residues (S530, S627, S653, S658) known to be phosphorylated by
PLK-1 and important for PCM assembly to alanine (4A; phospho-null) or glutamic acid
(4E; phospho-mimetic) (Figure 3A). Importantly, this system allows us to test the effects
of mutant protein dosage: without RNAi, both mutant and wild-type SPD-5 co-exist, while
upon RNAi depletion of endogenous *spd-5*, only the mutant version is expressed
(Wueseke et al., 2016).

We assayed how the phosphorylation state of SPD-5 affects PCM scaffold
dynamics by performing fluorescence recovery after photobleaching (FRAP). To decouple
signal recovery contributed by replacement of existing material (dynamics) from
incorporation of new material from the cytosol (growth), we arrested cells in metaphase
when PCM stops growing (Laos et al., 2015). This is achieved by expressing a
temperature sensitive allele of *emb-30,* which encodes a subunit of the Anaphase
Promoting Complex (Furuta et al., 2000). After shifting embryos to 25°C for 15 min,
confocal imaging verified that embryos were arrested in metaphase and that PCM was
most stable 200-340 s post arrest. After 400 s following arrest, PCM disassembled,
indicating escape from arrest (Figure 3B). Therefore, we restricted our analysis to 200-
340 s post arrest.

In the presence of endogenous SPD-5 (no RNAi), GFP::SPD-5(4A) was the most
dynamic, recovering up to ~20%, whereas GFP::SPD-5(WT) and GFP::SPD-5(4E)

recovered at ~10% and ~5% respectively (Figure 3C,D). To test the effects of the mutant

proteins alone, we depleted endogenous SPD-5 using RNAi. Again, GFP::SPD-5(4A) was

the most dynamic, followed by WT then 4E (Figure 3C,D). RNAi treatment increased the

dynamics of SPD-5(4A), implying that it is partly stabilized by the presence of wild-type

protein (Figure 3D). On the other hand, RNAi treatment did not affect the dynamics of the

WT or 4E mutant. We noticed that PCM made with the SPD-5(4E) was highly irregular,

comprising an aggregate of several foci, rather than a cohesive, spherical assembly; the

nature of this behavior is not clear but could be a consequence of kinetic arrest (see

Discussion). These data indicate that a small, dynamic population of SPD-5 exists in

metaphase PCM. Furthermore, phosphorylation decreases the dynamics of SPD-5 within

PCM, consistent with our in vitro results.

2.4 SPD-5 dynamics change with the cell cycle

Our data indicate that PCM scaffold dynamics are affected by the phosphorylation

state of SPD-5. Given that PLK-1 activity changes during the cell cycle (Golsteyn et al.,

1995; Mittasch et al., 2020), we hypothesized that PCM scaffold dynamics are tuned

during the cell cycle. Due to the fast movement and growth of PCM, it is difficult to

measure dynamics using FRAP. Therefore, we used laser-induced extrusion to expel

PCM from the cell and measured its persistence, similar to our *in vitro* dilution assay

(Figure 1E). We performed extrusion by coating *C. elegans* embryos with calcofluor white,

a fluorescent dye that binds chitin and absorbs blue light, then using a short, focused

pulse of 405 nm laser light to create precise punctures in the embryo cortex. Application

of light pressure forced PCM out of the embryo into a dilute, controlled medium (Figure

4A). To ensure that the extrusion process itself does not damage the integrity of PCM, we

first extruded PCM (labeled with GFP::SPD-5) into low salt buffer (25 mM HEPES, 0 KCl).

PCM remained mostly stable for >1 hr (Figure 4B); thus, the wild-type PCM scaffold is not

damaged by extrusion. These results demonstrate that PCM is intrinsically stable and

does not require cytoplasmic factors for its maintenance in low salt conditions.

Extrusion into a high salt buffer (25 mM HEPES, 150 mM KCl) caused dissipation

of GFP::SPD-5 signal in a cell-cycle specific manner (Figure 4C,D). In extruded

interphase and metaphase cells, GFP integrated density rapidly declined initially and then

plateaued for up to 60 min, whereas, in anaphase, GFP integrated density monotonically
decreased and was no longer detected after ~10 min (Figure 4C-E). The total amount of
GFP signal remaining was higher in metaphase vs. interphase. However, normalization
of the signal revealed that departure rates were similar between metaphase and
interphase (Figure 4E). Our results indicate that PCM scaffold dynamics are subject to
cell cycle-dependent regulation: dynamics are relatively low in interphase and
metaphase, then increase dramatically in anaphase, which could facilitate PCM
disassembly. Furthermore, our data show the utility of extrusion to probe the dynamics
of growing or moving organelles.

We next wondered how disrupted phospho-regulation affects PCM persistence
following extrusion. We chose to focus on metaphase cells, when PCM is at its largest
and perturbations in stability, size, and integrity would be most prominent. In the presence
of endogenous SPD-5, GFP::SPD-5(4A) signal rapidly disappeared after extrusion
(Figure 4F), reminiscent of wild-type anaphase PCM. On the other hand, GFP::SPD-5(4E)
strongly persisted, much longer than GFP::SPD-5(WT) (Figure 4F). Considering that the
phosphorylation state of SPD-5 affected the dynamics of extruded PCM, we wondered if
PP2A, a PCM-resident phosphatase, could dephosphorylate PCM after extrusion and
affect its dynamics. Extrusion of metaphase PCM into a high salt buffer with 10 µM LB-
100, which inhibits PP2A (Magescas et al., 2019), showed higher persistence compared
to the control (Figure S2). This result suggests that PCM-associated PP2A can
dephosphorylate SPD-5 after extrusion and facilitate its departure. We conclude that
phosphorylation of SPD-5 increases the persistence of the PCM scaffold following
extreme dilution upon extrusion. These data support that phosphorylation decreases the
rate of SPD-5 dissociation from PCM, consistent with our in vitro results.

In the absence of endogenous SPD-5 (via *spd-5(RNAi)*), GFP::SPD-5(4A) signal
was lost even quicker (Figure 4F), again suggesting that wild-type SPD-5 can help
stabilize unphosphorylated SPD-5, as we saw in our FRAP assay. Unexpectedly, SPD-
5(4E) integrated density rapidly decreased initially and then stabilized over time; this
pattern was markedly different from the no RNAi condition. Higher resolution imaging
revealed that PCM made exclusively from SPD-5(4E) fragmented immediately following
extrusion, whereas wild-type PCM remained intact (Figure 4G). These 4E fragments

remained stable in fluorescence intensity but often drifted out of the imaging plane, thus
giving the appearance of lower overall GFP integrated density. We conclude that PCM
built with hyper-phosphorylated SPD-5 has compromised mechanical integrity at the
meso-scale: SPD-5(4E) can form small assemblies that are highly stable but poorly
connected to other assemblies. This lack of overall cohesiveness could explain the
irregular shape of PCM in *spd-5(4E)* embryos.

2.5 The phosphorylation state of SPD-5 tunes the mechanical integrity of the PCM
We then examined how the viscoelastic properties of PCM contribute to its
mechanical integrity, specifically its ability to withstand external forces without fracturing
or deforming. PCM must resist microtubule pulling forces, and defects in PCM scaffold
assembly can cause premature, force-driven disassembly of PCM (Rios et al., 2024). Our
in vitro experiments indicated the viscoelastic properties of the SPD-5 scaffold correlate
with SPD-5 dynamics, and that both are regulated by PLK-1 phosphorylation. Given that
SPD-5(4E) PCM without endogenous SPD-5 is structurally unsound when extruded from
embryos, we hypothesized that this PCM also suffers an assembly defect that could be
rescued by removing microtubule pulling forces by depolymerizing microtubules with
nocodazole.
Confocal imaging revealed that in the absence of endogenous SPD-5, PCM built
from GFP::SPD-5(4E) accumulated less mass relative to WT during mitosis (Figure S3A).
PCM was also smaller when SPD-5(4E) was expressed in the presence of endogenous
SPD-5 (Figure S3A). These changes in size were not due to differences in expression
levels or cell cycle lengths (Figure S3B,C). PCM built solely from SPD-5(4E) appeared
irregular and broken, in contrast to uniform, spherical wild-type PCM (Figure 5A). To test
if this is a material defect, we eliminated pulling forces by treating embryos with
nocodazole. Application of 40 μM nocodazole fully rescued the morphology of PCM in
spd-5(4E) embryos and partially rescued PCM mass (1.82-fold increase; $p < 0.005$), while
PCM mass in *spd-5(WT)* embryos was not affected ($p > 0.9$)(Figure 5A,B). Thus, *spd-*
5(4E) embryos have both a force-dependent and -independent deficiency in PCM
assembly. We conclude that hyper-phosphorylation of SPD-5 impairs its ability to build a
cohesive, full-sized scaffold.

Embryos expressing only SPD-5(4A) failed to build full-sized PCM, consistent with
previous studies (Woodruff et al., 2015). This phenotype was previously interpreted
exclusively as a defect in PCM assembly. However, treatment with 40 μM nocodazole
partially rescued PCM scaffold mass in these embryos (2-fold; p < 0.005)(Figure 5A,B).
Thus, similar to SPD-5(4E), SPD-5(4A) alone can also build a small amount of PCM that
is weak but is prematurely dissembled by pulling forces. Furthermore, this observation
supports the idea that PCM scaffold assembly and strength are interrelated. We suspect
that the underlying molecular basis for overall PCM weakness is different for the 4E and
4A mutants (see Discussion). We conclude that dysregulated phosphorylation of SPD-5
leads to force-dependent and –independent defects in PCM assembly.

2.6 Proper SPD-5 phosphorylation is important for the fidelity of chromosome
segregation

We hypothesized that PCM integrity defects caused by dysregulated
phosphorylation of SPD-5 could interfere with centrosome function. To test this, we
imaged chromosome segregation from metaphase until telophase in one-cell embryos
solely expressing *gfp::spd-5* transgenes. Chromosome segregation was normal in all *spd-*
5(WT) embryos. On the contrary, chromosome segregation was defective in 100% of *spd-*
5(4A) and 14% of *spd-5(4E)* embryos (Figure 6A,B,D). Defects included failure to position
mitotic chromosomes at the metaphase plate, lagging chromosomes during anaphase,
and appearance of extranuclear DNA in telophase (Figure 6B; Figure S4A,B). 34% of
spd-5(4E) embryos did not hatch (Figure S4C), and previous studies demonstrated that
spd-5(4A) embryos are largely inviable (Woodruff et al., 2015; Wueseke et al., 2016).
Thus, either hypo- and hyper-phosphorylation of SPD-5 interferes with chromosome
segregation and embryonic development.

Our extrusion data indicated that PCM built solely from SPD-5(4E) is mechanically
compromised, which could contribute to the mild chromosome segregation defect in these
embryos. If true, sensitizing the system by increasing mechanical load should exacerbate
PCM integrity and function defects in *spd-5(4E)* embryos. To test this, we increased
cortically directed microtubule pulling forces ~1.5-fold by depleting CSNK-1 (Panbianco
et al., 2008). In *spd-5(WT) + csnk-1(RNAi)* embryos, spindle rocking was exaggerated,

but PCM remained intact, as expected (Mittasch et al., 2020). In contrast, in *spd-5(4E)* +

csnk-1(RNAi) embryos, PCM was violently ripped apart and caused an increase in

chromosome segregation defects (Figure 6C,D; quantification of all defects is shown in

Figure S4A,B). Since CSNK-1 depletion is known to impair polar body extrusion (Flynn

and McNally, 2017), we excluded defects resulting from incorporation of the polar bodies

into aberrant additional nuclei. These data further demonstrate that PCM built from SPD-

5(4E) is mechanically unsound and cannot function in cases of increased load, unlike

wild-type PCM.

We next tested if chromosome segregation defects seen in *spd-5(4A)* embryos

were due to disrupted PCM mechanical integrity. Since chromosome segregation defects

are already severe in *spd-5(4A)* embryos, it is not productive to further sensitize the

system with *csnk-1(RNAi)*. Instead, we tested if decreasing microtubule pulling forces, via

gpr-1/2(RNAi)(Colombo et al., 2003) could rescue chromosome segregation. We saw a

30% reduction in segregation errors for *spd-5(4A)* embryos with reduced forces, whereas

chromosome segregation in wild-type embryos was not affected (Figure 6C,D). PCM size

was still reduced in *spd-5(4A)* embryos and spindle centration and rocking were defective,

indicating that the double RNAi knockdown was effective. We conclude that PCM built

with SPD-5(4A) is too weak to resist physiological microtubule pulling forces, which

ultimately affects the ability of PCM to assemble and function. Overall, our results

demonstrate that the mechanical integrity of the PCM scaffold is important for its function

in faithfully segregating mitotic chromosomes.

3.0 Discussion

The protein-rich PCM scaffold resists microtubule pulling forces needed to position

the mitotic spindle and segregate mitotic chromosomes. Here, we investigated how the

dynamics and material properties of the PCM scaffold influence its function in *C. elegans*.

Our results support a model whereby PLK-1 phosphorylation of SPD-5 reduces its

dynamics, which increases the viscoelasticity of PCM. Thus, PLK-1 phosphorylation

promotes the initial assembly of the SPD-5 scaffold and its emergent material properties.

Properly tuned viscoelasticity is required for the PCM to resist pulling forces and

segregate chromosomes during mitosis.

Viscoelastic materials exhibit a hybrid response to stress: an elastic spring-like
response that stores energy and a viscous response that dissipates energy over time.
Our results indicate that the PCM scaffold is viscoelastic, a property that is increased by
PLK-1 phosphorylation. Specifically, PLK-1 phosphorylation of the main scaffold protein
SPD-5 decreased its dynamics within PCM condensates and concomitantly increased the
viscous and elastic moduli of PCM condensates in vitro (Figure 1, 2). We saw similar
results in vivo, where SPD-5 dynamics and PCM material properties changed in relation
to phosphorylation status. Because both PLK-1 and its opposing phosphatase PP2A
coexist within the PCM, SPD-5 likely exists in both phosphorylated and dephosphorylated
states (Enos et al., 2018; Magescas et al., 2019). We propose that this balance tunes the
viscoelastic properties of the PCM scaffold to optimize function (Figure 7). Under-
phosphorylated SPD-5 is dynamic and can rearrange and depart, thus contributing to the
overall viscous, liquid-like behavior. On the other hand, phosphorylated SPD-5 is less
dynamic and cannot rearrange, thus contributing to the overall elastic, solid-like character
of PCM. This viscoelastic character allows PCM to assemble properly and resist
microtubule pulling forces during spindle assembly. Consistent with our model,
dysregulation of the phosphorylation state of SPD-5 is pathological, leading to premature
PCM disassembly, defective chromosome segregation, and embryonic lethality. PCM
built with solely phospho-null SPD-5 (SPD-5(4A)) assembles a thin layer of dynamic PCM
that is unable to resist microtubule pulling forces needed for full-scale assembly and
proper chromosome segregation. On the other hand, PCM built from solely phospho-
mimetic SPD-5 (SPD-5(4E)), exhibits a similar phenotype but is driven by a different
mechanism. This PCM is less dynamic, exhibiting multiple hyperstable foci, which cannot
cohere into a uniform PCM body and thus are broken apart by microtubule pulling forces.
Our results suggest that SPD-5 dynamics reflect the functionally relevant
viscoelastic properties of the PCM scaffold in embryos. Our *in vitro* data revealed that
PLK-1 activity decreased SPD-5 dynamics and concomitantly increased the
viscoelasticity of PCM condensates. *In vivo,* FRAP of PCM in metaphase-arrested cells
showed SPD-5 turnover in matured PCM over a biologically relevant time scale (140 s).
Thus, SPD-5 is dynamic, albeit at a low amount, consistent with molecular rearrangement
expected for a viscoelastic material. Our group previously demonstrated that PCM can

resist deformation induced by thermoviscous pumping at metaphase but not during

anaphase or when PLK-1 is inhibited (Mittasch et al., 2020). These material states align

with changes in SPD-5 dynamics we observed in the present study: SPD-5 became more

dynamic in anaphase (Figure 4C-E) or when underphosphorylated (e.g., 4A mutant)

(Figure 3C-D, 4F). Taken together these data support that SPD-5 dynamics are

responsible for the viscoelastic properties of PCM in embryos.

378   How important are these viscoelastic properties for function? PCM built from either

SPD-5(4A) or SPD-5(4E) mutants disrupted PCM dynamics and assembly and caused

chromosome segregation defects. A secondary question thus arises: is PCM scaffold size

or dynamics most critical for function? A previous study revealed that embryos expressing

a simpler SPD-5 phospho-mutant (S653A, S658A; called "2A"), failed to build full-sized

PCM like SPD-5(4A)(Ohta et al., 2021). Partial photobleaching revealed that GFP::SPD-

5(2A) and GFP::SPD-5(WT) both have similarly low dynamics, while GFP::SPD-5(4A)

has high dynamics (Figure S5A,B), as shown in other experiments. However, PCM built

from solely SPD-5(2A) properly segregates mitotic chromosomes (Ohta et al., 2021) while

PCM built from solely SPD-5(4A) cannot. This suggests that achieving correct scaffold

dynamics—and, by association, material properties—is more important than achieving

full size for PCM function.

390   Why would PCM built from solely phospho-mimetic SPD-5, which we hypothesize

is more viscoelastic than PCM built from phospho-null SPD-5, exhibit assembly defects?

Since PLK-1 phosphorylation is essential for mitotic PCM assembly (Conduit et al., 2014;

Decker et al., 2011; Haren et al., 2009; Lee and Rhee, 2011; Woodruff et al., 2015), it was

surprising that hyper-phosphorylation of SPD-5 led to PCM that was smaller and

irregularly shaped (Figures 3-6). Furthermore, this PCM existed as multiple foci unable to

cohere into a uniform body, that then fragmented into many stable packets upon extrusion

(Figure 4G) or under increased pulling forces (Figure 6). One hypothesis is that excessive

phosphorylation increases the affinity of intermolecular SPD-5 interactions such that they

become too strong and are unable to release and bind new molecules. Eventually, all

possible interaction motifs per SPD-5 molecule would be occupied, thus preventing the

addition of new molecules and capping growth. In theory, this would lead to high affinity

clusters of SPD-5 that are weakly connected to each other.   Simulations of ideal

multivalent polymers demonstrated that this mechanism, termed "valency exhaustion", is sufficient to cause kinetic arrest and stop condensate growth (Ranganathan and Shakhnovich, 2020). Consistent with this idea, we saw that PLK-1 phosphorylation initially promoted SPD-5 assembly but then inhibited growth and prevented PCM condensate fusion *in vitro* (Figure 1B,C). Alternatively, SPD-5 phosphorylation could create a new type of interaction between SPD-5 molecules, which then leads to new material properties. This is the case for amyloid formation in FUS condensates (Ranganathan and Shakhnovich, 2022). Our microrheology showed that unphosphorylated PCM condensates have one crossover between G' and G" at low frequency. In phosphorylated PCM condensates, G' and G" cross over at even lower frequency, indicating an increase in elastic character, but they also approach toward a second crossover point at higher frequency. A second crossover would indicate that the condensate has acquired more complex material properties, but what this means at the molecular level is still unclear (Liu et al., 2006). Regardless of the finer mechanism, our results argue that hyperphosphorylation increases intermolecular interactions between neighboring molecules at the expense of less connectivity at the mesoscale, thus leading to defects in overall PCM assembly and mechanical integrity.

The tunable viscoelastic nature of the PCM scaffold could help make sense of previous conflicting results concerning PCM dynamics and architecture. For example, *C. elegans* PCM is spherical and grows isotopically (Laos et al., 2015), which is expected for a viscous liquid. On the other hand, in situ cryo-electron tomography showed that PCM contains an underlying fibrous meshwork (Tollervey et al., 2025), which would be expected for an elastic solid. One mystery arising from this work was that the pore size of the meshwork was ~6-8 nm, which, if static, would be too small to accommodate large PCM proteins and complexes (e.g., TPXL-1, ZYG-9, γ-tubulin ring complex) (Tollervey et al., 2025). A viscoelastic PCM could achieve these complex features. Viscous behavior over longer time scales would allow for rearrangements in the scaffold. This would allow pore dilation needed accommodate larger proteins and movement of material to achieve isotropic growth. Elastic behavior over longer time scales would maintain the overall structure of the scaffold and allow it to resist microtubule pulling forces.

Recently, it was shown that PCM in *D. melanogaster* embryos is a composite of a
stable scaffold of Cnn proteins co-existing with a dynamic phase of TACC protein (Wong
et al., 2025). The Cnn scaffold seems to be important for mechanical strength (Lucas and
Raff, 2007), while the TACC scaffold is required to recruit specific clients (Wong et al.,
2025). This combination of static and dynamic scaffolds suggests that fly PCM is also
viscoelastic. Future work should use rheology to test if PCM from flies and other species
is similarly viscoelastic and regulated by phosphorylation. We speculate that tunable
viscoelasticity is a universal design principle for PCM across eukaryotes.
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DATA AVAILABILITY

Further requests and information for resources and reagents should be directed to and
will be fulfilled by the Lead Contact, Jeffrey Woodruff
(Jeffrey.woodruff@utsouthwestern.edu).

COMPETING INTERESTS

The authors declare no competing interests.

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AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

M. Amato performed all experiments and analyzed data. J.H. Hwang performed the
microrheology experiments. M.U. Rios developed and optimized the embryo extrusion
assay and performed and analyzed extrusion experiments. N.E. Familiari made
baculoviruses and expressed proteins. J.B. Woodruff made transgenic *C. elegans* strains.
M. Amato and J.B. Woodruff wrote the manuscript. M.K. Rosen and J.B. Woodruff
supervised the project.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Experimental model and subject details

For the expression of recombinant proteins (listed in Table S1), we used SF9-ESF *S.*
frugiperda insect cells grown at 27°C in ESF 921 Insect Cell Culture Medium (Expression
Systems) supplemented with Fetal Bovine Serum (2% final concentration). *C. elegans*
worm strains were grown on nematode growth media (NGM) plates at 23°C, following
standard protocols (www.wormbook.org). Worm strains used in this study are listed in
Table S2.

Generation of transgenic *C. elegans*

C. elegans worm strains used in this study were created with MosSCI (Frokjaer-Jensen
et al., 2008) and are based on constructs made previously (Woodruff et al., 2015).
GFP::SPD-5(4E) mutant was created by replacing a section of the wild-type sequence
with a mutated gene block. All plasmids were purified using a NucleoBond Xtra Midi Prep
Kit (Macherey Nagel), combined with co-injection plasmids, and injected into strain
EG6699 (tt5605, Chr II). After one week, worms were heat-shocked for 3 hr at 35°C to kill
worms maintaining extrachromosomal arrays. Moving worms without fluorescent co-
injection markers were selected as candidates. Sequencing was used to confirm
transgene integration.

Protein purification

All expression plasmids are listed in Table S1. SPD-5, TPXL-1 and PLK-1 constructs were
expressed and purified as previously described (Woodruff et al., 2017; Woodruff and
Hyman, 2015; Woodruff et al., 2015). Baculoviruses were generated using the FlexiBAC
system (Lemaitre et al., 2019) in SF9 cells. Protein was harvested 72 hr after infection
during the P3 production phase. Cells were collected, washed, and resuspended in
harvest buffer (25 mM HEPES, pH 7.4, 150 mM NaCl). All subsequent steps were
performed at 4°C. Cell pellets were resuspended in buffer A (25 mM HEPES, pH 7.4, 30
mM imidazole, 500 mM KCl, 0.5 mM DTT, 1% glycerol, 0.1% CHAPS) + protease
inhibitors and then lysed using a dounce homogenizer. Proteins were bound to Ni-NTA
(Qiagen), washed with 10 column volumes of buffer A, and eluted with 250 mM imidazole.
For SPD-5 proteins, Ni-NTA eluate was then bound to MBP-Trap beads (Chromotek) and
washed with 5 column volumes of buffer A and eluted with by adding PreScission
protease, incubating overnight and then passing over Ni-NTA to remove the Precission
protease. For TPXL-1 proteins, Ni-NTA eluate was equilibrated with binding buffer (25 mM
HEPES, pH 7.4, 150 mM KCl) and then bound to SP Sepharose (GE Healthcare catalog
No: 10261262) and washed with 5 column volumes of binding buffer. TPXL-1 was eluted
using buffer A. For PLK-1 proteins, Ni-NTA eluate was concentrated with a 30 K MWCO
Amicon concentrator (Millipore), filtered, and then passed over a Superdex 75 increase
size exclusion column (Cytiva). Purified proteins were then concentrated using 30 K
MWCO Amicon concentrators (Millipore). All proteins were aliquoted in PCR tubes, flash-
frozen in liquid nitrogen, and stored at −80°C. Protein concentration was determined by
measuring absorbance at 280 nm using a NanoDrop ND-1000 spectrophotometer
(Thermo Fisher Scientific).

RNAi treatment

RNAi was done by feeding. RNAi feeding using *gpr-1/2*, *csnk-1*, feeding clones from the
Ahringer and Vidal collections (Source BioScience;(Rual et al., 2004)) The *spd-5* feeding
clone targets a region that is reencoded in our MosSCI transgenes (Woodruff et al., 2015).
Bacteria were seeded onto nematode growth media (NGM) supplemented with 1 mM
isopropyl β-D-1-thiogalactopyranoside (IPTG) and 100 μg/mL ampicillin. For
chromosome segregation experiments, *spd-5* feeding clone was combined with either

csnk-1 or *gpr-1/2* feeding clone and plated as before. L4 hermaphrodites were grown on

feeding plates at 23°C for 24-34 hr or at 16°C for 24-34 hr in worms expressing *emb-*

30(ts).

Target sequence for *spd-5(RNAi)*

5′-TGG AAT TGT CCG CTA CTG ATG CAA ACA ACA CAA CTG TCG GAT CTT TTC GTG

GAA CTC TTG ATG ACA TTC TGA AGA AAA ACG ATC CAG ATT TCA CAT TAA CCT

CTG GTT ATG AAG AAA GAA AGA TCA ACG ACC TGG AGG CAA AGC TCC TCT CTG

AGA TCG ACA AGG TAG CTG AGC TGG AAG ATC ACA TTC AGC AGC TCC GTC AAG

AAC TTG ACG ACC AAT CTG CAA GGC TTG CCG ATT CAG AAA ATG TTC GCG CTC

AGC TTG AAG CGG CCA CTG GAC AAG GAA TCC TCG GAG CTG CTG GAA ACG

CTA TGG TTC CAA ATT CAA CGT TCA TGA TCG GGA ACG GTC GTG AAT CAC AGA

CGC GAG ACC AGC TCA ATT ACA TTG ATG ATC TTG AAA CGA AGT TAG CTG ATG

CGA AGA AGG AAA ATG ATA AGG CTC GTC AGG CAC TCG TTG AAT ACA-3′.

Western blotting

45 adult worms were picked and transferred to blank plates for 20 min to remove bacteria

from their bodies. Worms were then moved to PCR tubes containing 10 µl of milli-Q water

to which 10 µl of SDS loading buffer was added. Samples were separated by SDS-PAGE.

Protein from each gel was transferred to a nitrocellulose membrane using a Trans-blot

turbo transfer for high molecular weight proteins (10 min). Membranes were incubated in

a blocking buffer consisting of TBS-T + 3% Blotting-Grade Blocker (BioRad) shaking at

room temperature for 1 hr. Membranes were then washed three times with TBS-T and

incubated shaking with primary antibodies overnight at 4°C. The primary antibody was

washed off three times with TBS-T and incubated with secondary antibodies at room

temperature for 1 hr. Each membrane was then incubated in ECL reagent (Thermo Fisher

Scientific SuperSignal West Femto) for 5 min and imaged with a ChemiDoc Touch

Imaging System. Primary antibodies: Mouse anti-alpha tubulin (Product No: 3873S;

1:1,000; Cell Signaling Technologies); Rabbit anti-SPD-5 C-terminus (1:1,000, clone 785,

Dresden Antibody Facility; Pelletier et al., 2004). Secondary Antibodies (1:50,000 for all):

HRP conjugated Goat anti-Rabbit IgG (1 mg/ml) (catalog No: 65-6120, catalog No:

J276300; Invitrogen); HRP conjugated Goat anti-Mouse (1.5 mg/ml) (Catalog No: 62-

6520, Catalog No: WA312227; Invitrogen); and HRP conjugated Donkey anti-Goat (1

mg/ml) (Catalog No: A15999, Catalog No: 58-155-072318; Invitrogen).

Microscopy of *C. elegans* embryos

Embryos from adult worms were dissected on a 22 × 22 mm coverslip (Catalog No: 2975-

225; Coring) using a 22-gauge needles in a 7 µl solution of egg salts buffer (ESB) (118mM

NaCl, 48mM KCl, 2mM $CaCl_2$, 2mM $MgCl_2$, 25mM Hepes) or M9 buffer. Samples were

then mounted onto plain 25 × 75 × 1 mm microscope slides (Catalog No: 12-544-4; Fisher

Scientific). Time-lapse images were acquired with an inverted Nikon Eclipse Ti2-E

microscope with a Yokogawa confocal scanner unit (CSU-W1), piezo Z stage, and an

iXon Ultra 888 EMCCD camera (Andor), controlled by Nikon Elements software. We used

a 100X Plan Apo silicon immersion objective (NA 1.35). To quantify GFP::SPD-5

transgene intensity we imaged at 15-18 × 1-µm Z-stacks using 488-nm at 2 x 2 binning,

15% laser power, 100 ms exposures every 20 seconds until centrosome disassembly

except where specified.

For microtubule depolymerization assays, one-cell embryos from adult worms were

treated with ESB mixed with nocodazole to make a 40 µM nocodazole solution or 2%

DMSO solution and imaged prior to PNM. For SPD-5 growth curves one-cell embryos

from adult worms were dissected in M9 and imaged prior to pronuclear meeting (PNM).

***In vivo* FRAP of metaphase arrested embryos**

Metaphase arrest was achieved by temperature inactivation of *emb-30(ts)* by incubating

embryos from 16℃ to 25℃ for 15 minutes. One-cell embryos from adult worms were

dissected in M9 buffer and identified prior to metaphase. Metaphase arrest was

determined by chromosomes positioned at the metaphase plate. After 200 s post

metaphase arrest, stable PCM was imaged before photobleaching and every 20 s after

photobleaching for 140 s. PCM was photobleached with a 405-nm laser using a roi the

area of the centrosome at 20% intensity, 250 µs dwell time. Mean GFP::SPD-5 transgene

intensity was measured and normalized to the mean intensity of the centrosome prior to

photobleaching as the highest value and cytoplasmic region as the lowest value. To

validate PCM mass was stable during arrest, the mean GFP::SPD-5 transgene intensity
of the unbleached centrosome was recorded.

In vivo **partial FRAP of centrosomes**

One-cell embryos from adult worms were dissected in M9 buffer and photobleached with
a 405-nm laser at NEBD using a stim point positioned in the center of centrosomes at 1%
intensity, 50 ms dwell time. To quantify the intensity of GFP::SPD-5 transgene after
photobleaching a 5 µm line scan was positioned at centrosomes such that the maximum
and minimum intensity occurred at 1.82 µm and 2.6 µm respectively. GFP::SPD-5
transgene intensity was recorded immediately after photobleaching and 100 s thereafter.
Intensities are averaged over replicates and normalized to the maximum intensity
immediately after photobleaching.

Centrosome extrusion assay

Dissected one-cell embryos from adult worms were coated in a solution of 10 µm
Calcofluor-white (Biotium catalog No: 29067) in high salt buffer (150mM KCl, 25mM
Hepes pH 7.4). or MQ H20 with 25mM Hepes pH 7.4. In PP2A inhibition experiments,
centrosomes were extruded into high salt buffer containing 10 µM LB-100. To extrude
centrosomes, a 405 nm laser was targeted to the periphery of the eggshell using (100%
laser intensity, 500 ms dwell time). Cell cycle stage was determined by chromosome
organization via mCherry::H2B signal. Imaging was performed as above with a 60 × 1.2
NA Plan Apochromat water-immersion objective, GFP/mCherry splitter, 2 x 2 binning, 488
nm laser (15% intensity), 561 nm laser (10% intensity), 51 x 0.5 µm Z-steps, every 2 min
for 60 min or until centrosomes completely dissolved. The integrated density of
GFP::SPD-5 was normalized to centrosome intensity prior to extrusion in the normalized
plot.

High resolution imaging of GFP-SPD-5(4E) was performed using 100X Plan Apo silicon
immersion objective (NA 1.35) imaged at 15-18 × 1-µm Z-stacks using 488-nm at 2 x 2
binning, 15% laser power, 100 ms exposures every 5 s until centrosomes left the field of
view.

Chromosome segregation defects

To quantify chromosome segregation defects in embryos expressing *gfp::spd-5*
transgenes treated with various RNAi one-cell embryos were dissected into M9 and
imaged prior to metaphase until telophase. Chromosome segregation defects were
determined by organization of DNA visualized by mCherry::H2B signal. Embryos were
imaged at 15-18 × 1-μm Z-stacks using 488-nm at 2 x 2 binning, 15% laser power, 561-
nm at 2 x 2 binning, 20% laser power, 100 ms exposures every 20 seconds.

96-well glass bottom passivation

To clean a 96-well glass bottom imaging plate, wells were then treated with a solution of
5% v/v Hellmanex (Sigma-Aldrich catalog No: Z805939) for 1hr and washed 10X in H2O
and dried. A solution of 5M NaOH is added to wells for 1hr and washed 5X with H2O. To
passivate the surface of the wells, the 96-well glass-bottom imaging plate was treated
with a solution of 0.5% w/v of mPEG-Silane, MW 5,000 (Creative PEGWorks catalog No:
PLS-2011) in 95% EtOH for 1hr and then washed 10X with H2O and dried. On the day of
the experiment, a solution of 5% w/v of Bovine Serum Albumin (BSA) (Sigma-Aldrich)
was incubated in the wells for 30 min, washed 5X with H2O and then dried.

In vitro **PCM scaffold reconstitution and imaging**
To reconstitute PCM scaffold assembly from purified components we incubated 1μM
SPD-5::RFP, 1μM TPXL-1::GFP, 75mM KCl, 1mM DTT, 0.4mM ATP, 1mM $MgCl_2$,4mM
Hepes pH 7.4, except where indicated, in a passivated 96-well glass-bottom imaging plate
for 15 min. To prevent evaporation wells are covered with parafilm (Bemis). To image
reconstituted PCM we used at 100x silicon objective an inverted Nikon Eclipse Ti2-E
microscope with a Yokogawa confocal scanner unit (CSU-W1), piezo Z stage, and an
iXon Ultra 888 EMCCD camera (Andor), controlled by Nikon Elements software. Imaging
was performed at 488-nm; 2 x 2 binning, 1% intensity, 100ms exposure, and 561-nm; 1x1
binning, 5% intensity, 100ms exposure at a single imaging plane at the surface of the
glass except where specified. For condensate FRAP and fusion assays, we imaged at
0.5 x 10μm relative to the surface of the glass well.

In vitro PCM scaffold FRAP assay

To measure the dynamics of reconstituted PCM scaffolds, we incubated samples (as above) with 0.5 µM PLK-1(CA) or 0.5 µM PLK-1(KD) for 30 minutes and then photobleached with a 405 nm laser using a rectangular ROI positioned within condensates at 20% intensity, 200 µs dwell time. We imaged condensates at 0.5 x 10 µm relative to the surface of the glass well. The mean intensity of SPD-5::RFP and TPXL-1::GFP was recorded prior to photobleaching and recorded every 15 seconds for 10 min post photobleaching. Mean intensities were normalized to mean intensity prior to photobleaching. 6 and 5 replicated were performed for PLK-1(KD) and PLK-1(CA) conditions respectively.

In vitro PCM scaffold dilution assay

To determine the sensitivity to dilution of reconstituted PCM, we prepared reconstituted PCM scaffolds using 1µM SPD-5::RFP, 1µM TPXL-1::GFP, 50mM KCl, 1mM DTT, 0.4mM ATP, 1mM $MgCl_2$,4mM Hepes pH 7.4 and incubated with 0.5 µM PLK-1(CA) or 0.5 µM PLK-1(KD) in a cleaned non-passivated 96-well glass imaging plate. Samples were incubated for 1hr and Imaged. Samples were then diluted samples with 4.3x extrusion buffer (150mM KCl, 25mM Hepes pH 7.4) and incubated for an additional hour and imaged. We measured the total integrated density of SPD-5::RFP prior and after dilution in which 6 images at different locations at the surface of the glass well were gathered for each condition.

In the case of SPD-5(4E)::GFP, PCM condensates were prepared using 1µM SPD-5(4E)::GFP, 1µM TPXL-1, 50mM KCl, 1mM DTT, 4mM Hepes pH 7.4 n a cleaned non-passivated 96-well glass imaging plate. Samples were incubated and imaged as before but instead diluted 4.3x into (250mM KCl, 25mM Hepes pH 7.4).

In vitro PCM scaffold assembly assay

To determine the effect of PLK-1 phosphorylation on the assembly of reconstituted PCM scaffolds, we incubated 1µM SPD-5::GFP, 1µM TPXL-1, 50mM KCl, 1mM DTT, 0.4mM

ATP, 1mM MgCl$_2$, 4mM Hepes pH 7.4 with 0.5µM PLK-1(CA) or 0.5µM PLK-1(KD) in a

passivated 96-well imaging plate. We imaged using 488-nm; 2 x 2 binning, 1% intensity,

100ms exposure. 3 images at distinct locations at the surface of the glass well were

recorded at every interval for intervals 5, 10, 15, 20, 30, 45, 60, 90 minutes from one

experiment for PLK-1(CA) and PLK-1(KD). Condensate size was measured using a semi-

automated threshold-based analysis. The watershed function in FIJI was used to

segregated chains of condensates.

Video particle tracking microrheology sample preparation

Samples were prepared in 384-well glass bottom microwell plates (Brooks Life Science

Systems: MGB101-1-2-LK-L). Prior to use, the plates were cleaned with 5% Hellmanex

III (Hëlma Analytics), etched with 1M KOH, and siliconized with Sigmacote (Sigma-

Aldrich). On the day of the experiment, individual wells were blocked with 1% bovine

serum albumin, then rinsed thoroughly with MilliQ-water. PCM samples were prepared

with 1 µM SPD-5::GFP, 1 µM TPXL-1, 50 mM KCl, 0.4 mM ATP, 1 mM MgCl$_2$,1mM Hepes

pH 7.4 pH), 150 beads/µL with 0.2 µM PLK-1(KD) or 0.2 µM PLK-1(CA) and 100 nm-

diameter carboxylate-modified fluorescent beads (Invitrogen: F8801). The final

concentration of beads was <150 beads/µL. Samples were incubated inside the

temperature-controlled microscope chamber at 30°C for at least 1 hour before imaging.

Video particle tracking microrheology microscopy

Images were captured on a Lecia DMI6000 B microscope base with a Yokogawa CSU-

X1 spinning disk confocal scanner unit and a 405/488/561/647 nm Laser Quad Band Set

filter cube (Chroma) with a plan apo 63 or 100 × 1.40 NA oil immersion objective. Images

were acquired using a Hamamatsu ImagEMX2 EM-CCD camera at 15ms/frame using

stream acquisition function on Metamorph (Biovision) software. At least 10000 frames (3-

25 min) were acquired for each acquisition, up to 6 acquisitions were made per sample

per session, and at least 3 sessions were carried out per sample for reproducibility.

Video particle tracking microrheology data analysis

Particle tracking and calculation of mean squared displacement (MSD) was performed
using MATLAB codes by Daniel Blair & Eric Dufresne
(https://site.physics.georgetown.edu/matlab/code.html). Average MSD was calculated
from >17000 individual trajectories and smoothed using a moving average with span
<10% of total number of frames. Elastic (G') and viscous (G") moduli as a function of
frequency (ω) were calculated from the averaged MSD from 0.015 to 100s using
generalized Stokes-Einstein relation (GSER) as described by Mason TG (Rheologica
Acta, 2000) using MATLAB codes by Andrew Sun
(https://github.com/andrewx101/track_analysis/releases/tag/v2.05). Viscosity (η) is
calculated ($\eta = G"/\omega$) and plotted against frequency. From viscosity plot, the mean value
of the plateau at the low frequency was used to estimate the zero-shear viscosity (η_0).

Image quantification and statistical analysis

Images were analyzed using a semiautomated, threshold-based particle analysis in FIJI
(https://fiji.sc/). MATLAB (Mathworks) was used to analyze VPT experiments. All data are
expressed as the mean ± 95% confidence intervals as stated in the figure legends and
results. The value of n and what n represents (e.g., number of centrosomes, condensates
or experimental replicates) is stated in figure legends and results. A Brown-Forsythe and
Welch ANOVA statistical test were used for normally distributed data, and a Kruskal-Walis
were used for non-normally distributed data. Significance was reported as; p value < 0.05
= *, p value < 0.005 = **, p value < 0.0005 = ***, p value of < 0.00005 = ****.

TABLE S1. Baculoviral expression constructs for protein expression.

protein	sequence	plasmid name	parent plasmid (pOCC #)	N-term tag	C-term tag	species
SPD-5	Full-length	JWV1	pOCC28	MBP-PreScission	eGFP-PreScission-6xHis	*C.elegans*

SPD-5	Full-length	JWV3	pOCC25	MBP-PreScission	RFP-PreScission-6xHis	*C.elegans*
SPD-5	Full-length	JWV10	pOCC27	MBP-PreScission	eGFP-PreScission-6xHis	*C.elegans*
TPXL-1	Full-length	JWV29	pOCC27	MBP-PreScission	eGFP-PreScission-6xHis	*C.elegans*
TPXL-1	Full-length	JWV30	pOCC28	MBP-PreScission	PreScission-6xHis	*C.elegans*
PLK-1(CA)	Full-length T194D	JWV11	pOCC7	6xHis-Prescission	-	*C.elegans*
PLK-1(KD)	Full-length K67M	JWV12	pOCC7	6xHis-Prescission	-	*C.elegans*

713 **TABLE S2. C. elegans strains.**

Strain name	genotype	Creation method	Origin
JWW12	unc-119(ed9) III; ltSi202[pVV103/ pOD1021; Pspd-2::GFP::SPD-5 RNAiresistant;cb-unc-119(+)]II	MosSCI into EG6699	(Woodruff et al., 2015)
JWW69	unc-119(ed9) III; ltSi202[pVV103/ pOD1021; Pspd-2::GFP::SPD-5 re-encoded;cb-unc-119(+)]II; ltIs37 [(pAA64) pie-1p::mCherry::his-58 + unc-119(+)] IV.	MosSCI into EG6699	This study

JWW70	unc-119(ed9) III; utsw1[pJWB56; Pspd-2::GFP::SPD-5(530E, 627E, 653E, 658E) re-encoded; cb-unc-119(+)]III; ltIs37 [(pAA64) pie-1p::mCherry::his-58 + unc-119(+)] IV.	MosSCI into EG6699	This study
JWW254	mCherry::his-58, unc-119(ed9) III; ltSi228[pVV153/ pOD1615; Pspd-2::GFP::spd-5 S530A,S627A, S653A, S658A reencoded; cb-unc-119(+)]II	MosSCI into EG6699	(Woodruff et al., 2015)
DG627	emb-30(tn377) III.	EMS mutagenized	(Furuta et al., 2000)
JWW155	emb-30(tn377) III; ltSi202[pVV103/ pOD1021; Pspd-2::GFP::SPD-5 re-encoded;cb-unc-119(+)]III; ltIs37 [(pAA64) pie-1p::mCherry::his-58 + unc-119(+)] IV.	Cross of JWW69 with DG627	This study
JWW243	emb-30(tn377) III. unc-119(ed9) III; utsw1[pJWB56; Pspd-2::GFP::SPD-5(530E, 627E, 653E, 658E) re-encoded; cb-unc-119(+)]III; ltIs37 [(pAA64)	Cross of JWW70 with DG627	This study
JWW266	emb-30(tn377) III. unc-119(ed9) III; utsw1[pJWB56; Pspd-2::GFP::SPD-5(530A, 627A, 653A, 658A) re-encoded; cb-unc-119(+)]III; ltIs37 [(pAA64)	Cross of JWW254 with DG627	This study

FIGURE LEGENDS

Figure 1: PLK-1 phosphorylation changes the dynamics and material properties of reconstituted PCM scaffolds.

a. Reconstitution of PCM condensates using purified SPD-5, TPXL-1, and no molecular crowding agent. Proteins were assembled for 15 min in buffer (75 mM KCl, 4 mM Hepes pH 7.4, 10 mM DTT, 0.4 mM ATP, 1 mM $MgCl_2$) and imaged in a 96-well glass bottom plate using confocal fluorescence microscopy.

b. *In vitro* PCM condensate assembly assay over time. Top, representative images.

Bottom, quantification of average condensate size over time (mean +/- 95% C.I.;

n>100 condensates from 3 replicates).

c. Samples were prepared as in (A) with 0.5 µM kinase dead PLK-1(KD) or

constitutively active PLK-1(CA) and imaged after 30 min. Top panel, static images.

Bottom panel, timelapse imaging of condensates. Arrows indicate the site of

condensate fusion.

d. Fluorescence recovery after photobleaching of SPD-5/TPXL-1 condensates. Top,

SPD-5::RFP intensity was measured and normalized (mean +/- 95% C.I.; PLK-

1(KD) n = 6, PLK-1(CA) n = 6 condensates). Bottom, images of bleached

condensates.

e. Dilution assay of reconstituted PCM. 1 µM SPD-5::RFP, 1 µM TPXL-1::GFP was

incubated in buffer (50 mM KCl, 4 mM Hepes pH 7.4, 10 mM DTT, 0.4 mM ATP, 1

mM MgCl$_2$) with 0.5 µM PLK-1 (KD) or 0.5 µM PLK-1(CA) for 1 hr and imaged.

Samples were then diluted 4.3X into extrusion buffer (150mM KCl, 25mM Hepes

pH.7.4) and imaged after 1 hr (left panels). Right, quantification of SPD-5::RFP

integrated density before and after dilution (mean +/- 95% C.I.; PLK-1(KD) n=6

images, PLK-1 (CA) n=6 images with >100 condensates).

Figure 2: Phosphorylation increases the viscoelasticity of reconstituted PCM

scaffolds.

a. Schematic of Video Particle Tracking (VPT) technique. 100 nm-diameter

carboxylate-modified fluorescent beads were encapsulated in reconstituted PCM

condensates. Left, representative spinning-disc confocal fluorescence image. Top

right, diagram of condensate with bead; not to scale. Bottom right, representative

trajectory of a single bead within a condensate.

b. Plot for averaged mean squared displacement (MSD) of beads encapsulated in

reconstituted PCM condensates incubated with 0.2 µM PLK-1(KD) or PLK-1(CA).

c. Viscoelastic moduli of condensates determined from VPT. Moduli were calculated

using the generalized Stokes-Einstein relation fit to a maxwell fluid from the

averaged MSD from 0.015 to 100 s. For G' and G", solid lines indicate measured

values, dashed lines indicate extrapolated values. Dashed grey line indicates
crossover frequency.

d. Viscosity was calculated from averaged MSD from 0.015 to 100 s. The mean value
of the plateau at the low frequency was used to estimate the zero-shear viscosity
(η_0). Solid lines indicate measured values, dashed lines indicate extrapolated
values.

e. Summary of in vitro rheological and dynamics measurements.

Figure 3: The phosphorylation state of SPD-5 affects its dynamics in metaphase-
arrested embryos.

a. Top, diagram of key PLK-1 phosphorylation sites in SPD-5. Bottom, design of
gfp::spd-5 transgenes expressed at the Mos locus on chromosome II.

b. Top, representative image of metaphase arrest in one-cell *emb-30(ts)* embryos
expressing GFP::SPD-5(WT) and mCherry::H2B. Right, characterization of
PCM size during metaphase arrest. Bottom, normalized integrated density of
GFP::SPD-5 200-340 s after metaphase arrest (mean +/- 95% C.I.; n= 12
embryos).

c. Representative images for fluorescence recovery after photobleaching (FRAP)
of PCM in metaphase-arrested embryos. PCM was photobleached at 200 s
post metaphase arrest in one-cell embryos expressing *gfp::spd-5* transgenes
with and without RNAi against endogenous *spd-5*.

d. Quantification of (C). GFP mean intensity was measured every 20 s until 140
s and normalized (mean +/- 95% C.I.; GFP::SPD-5(WT) n= 12, GFP::SPD-
5(WT) + *spd-5(RNAi) n= 7,* GFP::SPD-5(4E) n=8, GFP::SPD-5(4E) + *spd-*
5(RNAi) n=11, GFP::SPD-5(4A) n=9, GFP::SPD-5(4A) + *spd-5(RNAi)* n=7
centrosomes). Curves are fit to a one-phase nonlinear regression model.

Figure 4: SPD-5 dynamics change with the cell cycle.

a. Diagram of centrosome release and dilution via extrusion. *C. elegans* embryos
were coated with calcofluor white and eggshells were ruptured with a 405 nm laser.

b. Representative images of centrosomes (labeled with GFP::SPD-5) extruded from

a one-cell embryo at metaphase into low salt buffer (0mM KCl, 25mM HEPES pH

7.4). DNA is labeled with H2B::mCherry.

c. Representative images of centrosomes extruded from one-cell embryos in different

cell cycle stages into high salt buffer (150mM KCl, 25mM HEPES pH 7.4).

d. Quantification of integrated density of GFP::SPD-5 of extruded centrosomes

imaged every 2 minutes for 1 hr (mean +/- 95% C.I.; interphase n=11, metaphase

n=12, anaphase n=9 centrosomes).

e. Normalized data from D.

f. Normalized GFP integrated density of extruded centrosomes from metaphase

embryos expressing *gfp::spd-5 transgenes* with and without *spd-5(RNAi)*(mean +/-

95% C.I.; GFP::SPD-5(WT) n= 12, GFP::SPD-5(4E) n=5, GFP::SPD-5(4E) + *spd-*

5(RNAi) n=8, GFP::SPD-5(4A) n=9, GFP::SPD-5(4A) + *spd-5(RNAi)* n=10

centrosomes).

g. Representative images of extruded centrosomes in one-cell metaphase embryos

expressing *gfp::spd-5(4E)* treated with *spd-5(RNAi)* into low salt buffer (0mM KCl,

25mM Hepes pH 7.4).

Figure 5: The phosphorylation state of SPD-5 is tuned to maximize the mechanical

integrity of the PCM.

a. Transgenic worms were treated with *spd-5* RNAi to deplete endogenous SPD-5.

Left, one-cell embryos expressing *gfp::spd-5 transgenes* treated with 2% DMSO

or 40 µM nocodazole and imaged at nuclear envelope breakdown.

b. Quantification GFP integrated density at PCM (mean +/- 95% C.I.; WT + DMSO n

= 14, WT+ nocodazole n=10, 4E + DMSO n=18, 4E + nocodazole n=16, 4A +

DMSO n=20, 4A + nocodazole n=20; p values from Brown-Forsythe and Welch

ANOVA tests, followed by a Dunnet's multiple comparisons test).

Figure 6: Proper SPD-5 phosphorylation is important for the fidelity of chromosome

segregation.

a. Representative images of chromosome segregation in one-cell embryos expressing *gfp::spd-5 transgenes* treated with *spd-5(RNAi)* to deplete endogenous SPD-5, imaged from metaphase until telophase. DNA is visualized with H2B::mCherry.

b. Examples of chromosome segregation defects observed in (A).

c. Chromosome segregation in transgenic *spd-5(RNAi)* embryos combined with *csnk-1(RNAi)* to increase microtubule pulling forces (Left) or *gpr-1/2(RNAi)* to reduce microtubule pulling forces (Right).

d. Quantification of chromosome segregation defects in (A) and (C) reported as Percentage of embryos with chromosome segregation defects in (A) and (C). (gray panel: n= 29,29,23 (WT,4E,4A) embryos across 4 biological replicates; orange panel: n=20,17 (WT,4E) across 3 biological replicates; blue panel: (WT n=15 (WT,4A) across 3 biological replicates).

Figure 7: Phosphorylation tunes the functionally important viscoelastic properties of the PCM. Diagram of PCM architecture in a *C. elegans* embryo. Properly tuned PCM dynamics and viscoelasticity ensures PCM reaches full size and strength needed for function. Left, under-phosphorylated SPD-5 (orange) builds PCM that is too dynamic and weak, leading to a liquid-like PCM that gets quickly pulled apart by microtubule pulling forces. Right, over-phosphorylated SPD-5 (red) builds PCM that lacks dynamic character leading to solid-like PCM that is irregularly shaped and lacks mechanical integrity.

SUPPLEMENTAL FIGURE LEGENDS

Figure S1. In vitro analysis of PCM.

   a. Coomassie gel of proteins used in this study.
   b. Reconstituted PCM condensates. Representative images of reconstituted PCM condensates prepared with 1 μM SPD-5::RFP, 1 μM TPXL-1::GFP, 50 mM KCl, Hepes pH 7.4 and incubated for 15 min.
   c. Representative images of reconstituted PCM condensates prepared with either 1 μM SPD-5:GFP(WT) or 1 μM SPD-5(4E), 1 μM TPXL-1::GFP, 50 mM KCl, Hepes pH 7.4 and incubated for 30 min.
   d. Dilution assay of reconstituted PCM. 1 μM SPD-5::GFP(WT) or 1 μM SPD-5::GFP(4E), 1 μM TPXL-1::GFP was incubated in buffer (50 mM KCl, 4 mM Hepes pH 7.4, 10 mM DTT, 0.4 mM ATP, 1 mM $MgCl_2$) with 0.5 μM PLK-1 (KD) or 0.5 μM PLK-1(CA) for 1 hr and imaged. Samples were then diluted 4.3X into buffer (200mM KCl, 25mM Hepes pH.7.4) and imaged after 1 hr (left panels). Right, quantification of SPD-5::RFP integrated density before and after dilution (mean +/- 95% C.I.; PLK-1(KD) n=6 images, PLK-1 (CA) n=6 images with >100 condensates).
   e. Fluorescence recovery after photobleaching (FRAP) of reconstituted PCM condensates incubated with 0.5 μM PLK-1(KD) or 0.5 μM PLK-1(CA) for 30 min. TPXL-1::GFP intensity was measured and normalized (mean +/- 95% C.I.; KD, n = 5, CA n = 6 condensates).

Figure S2. Effect of PP2A inhibition of PP2A on SPD-5 persistence in extruded PCM.
Quantification of PCM from metaphase embryos expressing GFP::SPD-5(WT) + endogenous SPD-5 extruded into high salt buffer (150mM KCl, 25mM Hepes pH 7.4) (black curve), or high salt buffer with 10 μM LB-100 (green curve)(mean +/- 95% C.I.; no drug n= 12, 10 μM LB-100 n=7 centrosomes).

Figure S3. *In vivo* characterization of SPD-5(4E).

868  a. PCM assembly in one-cell embryos expressing GFP::SPD-5 transgenes. Top left,
869    representative images taken at nuclear envelope breakdown (NEBD). Bottom left,
870    quantification of GFP::SPD-5 integrated density relative to NEBD. Top right, worms
871    were treated with RNAi to deplete endogenous SPD-5 (mean +/- 95% C.I.; WT
872    n=22, 4E n=22, WT + *spd-5(RNAi)* n=18, 4E + *spd-5(RNAi)* n=30).

873  b. Western blot against SPD-5. Alpha tubulin was detected as a loading control.

874  c. Time from pronuclear meeting (PNM) to nuclear envelope breakdown (NEBD) was
875    measured in one-cell embryos expressing GFP::SPD-5 transgenes (mean +/- 95%
876    C.I., p values from Kruskal-Wallis test followed by Dunn's multiple comparisons
877    test).

879 **Figure S4. Characterization of chromosome segregation defects in embryos**
880 **expressing *gfp::spd-5 transgenes*.**

881   a. Quantification of chromosome segregation defects by category in Figure 6A
882    and C (see figure 6D for n values).

883   b. Representative images of chromosome segregation defect categories.
884    Unfocused spindle poles were observed in cases where centrosomes broke
885    symmetry along the spindle axis.

886   c. Embryo viability assay (mean +/- 95% C.I.; WT n=8, WT + *spd-5(RNAi)* n=8,
887    4E n=7, 4E + *spd-5(RNAi)* n=8 mothers, >20 embryos counted per mother; p
888    values from a Kruskal-Wallis test followed by Dunn's multiple comparisons
889    test).

891 **Figure S5. Partial FRAP of PCM in embryos expressing *gfp::spd-5* transgenes**
892 **during mitosis.**

893  a. Top, diagram of key PLK-1 phosphorylation sites in SPD-5. Bottom, design of
894   *gfp::spd-5* transgenes expressed at the Mos locus on chromosome II. GFP::SPD-
895   5(2A) harbors two of the four S-to-A mutations present in GFP::SPD-5(4A).

896  b. Partial fluorescence recovery after photobleaching (FRAP) of PCM at nuclear
897   envelop breakdown in one-cell embryos (no RNAi). GFP intensity was measured
898   with a 5 μm line scan 0 s and 100 s after photobleaching (mean +/- 95% C.I.;

899   GFP::SPD-5(WT)   n=16,   GFP::SPD-5(4A)   n=7,   GFP::SPD-5(2A)   n=8

900   centrosomes).

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1019

Figure 1

A *In vitro* condensates: 1μM SPD-5::RFP 1μM TPXL-1::GFP

RFP   GFP   MERGE

5 μm

B SPD-5::GFP

+PLK-1^KD

+PLK-1^CA

5 min   10min   15 min   20 min   60 min

10μm

C +PLK-1^KD   +PLK-1^CA

SPD-5::RFP   10 μm

+PLK-1^KD   2 μm

+PLK-1^CA

0 s   15 s   75 s   255 s   540 s

condensate size (μm²)

+PLK-1^KD
+PLK-1^CA

time (min)

D RFP mean intensity (normalized)

+PLK-1^KD n=6
+PLK-1^CA n=5

Time (s)

SPD-5::RFP   2 μm

+PLK-1^KD

+PLK-1^CA

Pre-bleach   0 s   30 s   60 s   120 s   240 s   600 s

High

Low

E +PLK-1^KD   +PLK-1^CA

Pre Dilution

Post Dilution

SPD-5::RFP   5 μm

Normalized SPD-5::RFP PCM Mass

Pre   Post   Pre   Post
+PLK-1^KD   +PLK-1^CA

Figure 2

PLK-1 type	Crossover Point (1/s)	Zero Shear Viscosity (Pa•s)	Relaxation Time (s)	Condensate fusion	FRAP recovery	Resistance to dilution	Material State
KD	0.975	3.779	1.026	yes	low	low	more liquid-like
CA	0.217	31.84	4.616	no	none	high	more solid-like

Figure 3

A SPD-5 protein

Coiled-coil domain
Alpha helix

N 1 ... S530 ... S658 S653 S627 ... 1198 C

PLK-1 phosphorylation sites

MosSCI strains

Chr I: endogenous *spd-5*

Chr II: GFP-labeled *spd-5* transgenes (RNAi resistant)

WT : S530, S627, S653, S658
4A : S530A, S627A, S653A, S658A   phospho-null
4E : S530E, S627E, S653E, S658E   phospho-mimic

B *emb-30(ts)*
GFP::SPD-5(WT)
mCherry::H2B

10μm

Stable PCM

Time from Metaphase

PCM Growth
0s
100s

Stable PCM
200s
300s

PCM Dissasembly
400s
500s

5μm

C

	pre bleach	bleach	40s	60s	140s
WT					
WT + RNAi					
4E					
4E + RNAi					
4A					
4A + RNAi					

High
Low

3μm

D FRAP of stable PCM

- WT n=12
- WT+ RNAi n=7
- 4E n=5
- 4E + RNAi n=11
- 4A n=9
- 4A + RNAi n=7

Norm. Mean GFP::SPD-5 Intensity (A.U.)

Time post bleach (s)

Figure 4

Figure 5

A

B

Figure 6

gfp::spd-5 transgenes + mCherry::H2B + spd-5(RNAi)

A

WT | 4E | 4A

Metaphase
Metaphase
Anaphase
Telophase

10 µm
5 µm

B

Chromosome mis-alignment
4A
4E

Anaphase Bridges
4A
4E

extra nuclear DNA
4E

Lagging Chromosomes
4A

5 µm

C

Increased forces [+ csnk-1(RNAi)]

WT | 4E

Decreased forces [+ gpr-1/2(RNAi)]

WT | 4A

Metaphase
Anaphase
Telophase

5 µm

D

% embryos w/ chromosome segregation defects

spd-5 (RNAi)
spd-5 (RNAi) csnk-1 (RNAi)
spd-5 (RNAi) grp-1/2 (RNAi)

WT 4E 4A WT 4E WT 4A

Figure 7

Figure S1

A

| kDa | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |

1.) SPD-5::RFP
2.) SPD-5::GFP
3.) SPD-5(4E)::GFP
4.) TPXL-1::GFP
5.) TPXL-1
6.) PLK-1 (CA)
7.) PLK-1 (KD)

B

SPD-5   TPXL-1   SPD-5, TPXL-1

RFP
GFP
MERGE

5µm

C

SPD-5(WT)::GFP   SPD-5(4E)::GFP

5µm

D

SPD-5(WT)::GFP   SPD-5(4E)::GFP

pre-dilution

post-dilution

10µm

Normalized SPD-5::GFP PCM mass

1.5
1.0
0.5
0.0

Pre   Post   Pre   Post
SPD-5(WT)   SPD-5(4E)

E

FRAP TPXL-1

KD n=6
CA n=5

TPXL-1::GFP normalized mean intensity

1.5
1.0
0.5
0.0

0   200   400   600   800
Time (s)

TPXL-1::GFP   3µm

+PLK-1^{KD}
+PLK-1^{CA}

Pre-bleach   0 s   30 s   60 s   120 s   240 s   600 s

High
Low

Figure S2

**Extruded PCM persistence
at metaphase**

Normalized PCM mass

Time (min)

- No drug n=12
- 10μM LB-100 n=7

Figure S3

Figure S4

A

Chromosome segregation defects by category

Percent of embryos with defects

gfp::spd-5 transgenes + spd-5(RNAi)
- WT
- 4E
- 4A
- WT + *csnk-1(RNAi)*
- 4E + *csnk-1(RNAi)*
- WT + *gpr-1/2(RNAi)*
- 4A + *gpr-1/2(RNAi)*

Categories: Anaphase bridge, Micronuclei, Unfocused spindle poles, Lagging chromosome, Chromosome positioning

B

Chromosome mis-alignment | Lagging Chromosomes | Unfocused Spindle Poles | ecDNA
4A | 4A | 4E + *csnk-1(RNAi)* | 4E
4E | WT + *csnk-1(RNAi)* | Anaphase Bridges / 4A | + *csnk-1(RNAi)* / WT
4E | 4E + *csnk-1(RNAi)* | 4E | + *csnk-1(RNAi)* / 4E

5μm

C

embryo viability (%)

WT | WT +spd-5(RNAi) | 4E +spd-5(RNAi) | 4E +spd-5(RNAi)

ns, **, *

Figure S5

A

SPD-5 protein

Coiled-coil domain
Alpha helix

N — 1 — S530 — S658 S653 S627 — 1198 — C

PLK-1 phosphorylation sites

MosSCI strains

Chr I: endogenous *spd-5*

Chr II: GFP-labeled *spd-5* transgenes (RNAi resistant)
WT : S530, S627, S653, S658
4A : S530A, S627A, S653A, S658A   phospho-null
2A : S653A, S658A   expansion mutant

B

Partial bleach of PCM (no RNAi)