Phospho-regulated tuning of viscoelastic properties balances centrosome growth and strength

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SIGNIFICANCE STATEMENT

To build and position the mitotic spindle, centrosomes must grow large enough to nucleate many hundreds of microtubules and resist their pulling forces. How centrosomes simultaneously achieve dynamic growth and tensile strength is unknown. Here, we show that centrosomes behave as phosphorylation-tunable hydrogels with both liquid-like and solid-like properties, which contribute to dynamics and material strength, respectively. Phospho-null or phospho-mimicking mutations in the scaffold protein SPD-5 dysregulate the balance of liquid- and sold-like behaviors within the centrosome, impairing function and embryo viability in both cases. Our results showcase how meso-scale material properties contribute to the function of a membrane-less organelle and how they are finely tuned by chemical modifications.

ABSTRACT

Centrosomes nucleate microtubule asters and comprise centrioles surrounded by pericentriolar material (PCM). In preparation for mitosis, the PCM scaffold grows dramatically while resisting microtubule pulling forces. How PCM achieves dynamic growth while maintaining mechanical strength is unclear. Here we probed the dynamic and material properties of the *C. elegans* PCM scaffold. Single-embryo extrusion experiments revealed that the protein SPD-5 forms distinct but co-existing dynamic and stable scaffolds within PCM. The stable scaffold grew in preparation for mitosis, then

disappeared at anaphase onset. SPD-5 mutants that lacked PLK-1 phosphorylation at
four key sites (4A) could not build the stable scaffold, whereas phospho-mimetic SPD-
5(4E) could. Expression of SPD-5(4A) impaired PCM assembly, but this phenotype was
partially rescued by eliminating microtubule pulling forces, indicating material weakness.
SPD-5(4A) expression also resulted in chromosome segregation defects, revealing the
importance of PCM strength for development. Unexpectedly, expression of SPD-5(4E)
prevented full-scale PCM growth and caused embryonic lethality. *In vitro*, PLK-1-induced
phosphorylation increased the viscoelastic moduli of minimal SPD-5 scaffolds, which
increased their solidity. This caused faster initial growth that then plateaued, in effect
setting an upper limit to SPD-5 scaffold size. Thus, PCM scaffold assembly and strength
are optimized through phospho-regulated equilibrium of dynamic and stable scaffold
components. Our results further reveal kinase-driven kinetic arrest as a potential
mechanism of centrosome size scaling.

INTRODUCTION

The centrosome is a membrane-less organelle composed of centrioles that
organize a micron-scale mass of protein called pericentriolar material (PCM). Upon entry
into mitosis, PCM rapidly expands by accumulating scaffold proteins that then recruit
client proteins (e.g., gamma-tubulin) needed for microtubule aster formation (Gomes
Pereira et al., 2021). The scaffold proteins have been unambiguously identified in
nematodes (SPD-5) and insects (Cnn) and contain numerous coiled-coil domains
interspersed with disordered linkers (Hamill et al., 2002; Megraw et al., 1999). Polo-Like
Kinase phosphorylation potentiates centrosome maturation by promoting the self-
association of these scaffold proteins (Conduit et al., 2014; Rios et al., 2024; Woodruff et
al., 2015). Proper microtubule organization at the centrosome is important for the
formation of the mitotic spindle, which segregates mitotic chromosomes during cell
division. Centrosomes also nucleate astral microtubules that connect to cortically
anchored motors, which generate force to position the mitotic spindle (Laan et al., 2012;
Pecreaux et al., 2006). How PCM achieves mechanical strength to resist these forces
while simultaneously incorporating new scaffolding material remains unclear.

While key molecular interactions driving PCM scaffold assembly have been
identified (Feng et al., 2017; Nakajo et al., 2022; Rios et al., 2024; Wang et al., 2010), a
quantitative assessment of PCM material properties is currently lacking. This has led to
uncertainties and contradictory conclusions concerning the physical nature of PCM. On
the one hand, some studies suggest that PCM is a solid-like material. For example,
electron microscopy of isolated centrosomes from the Atlantic surf clam and cryo-electron
tomography of native centrosomes in *C. elegans* embryos revealed that a lattice-like
network undergirds PCM (Schnackenberg et al., 1998; Tollervey et al., 2024).
Fluorescence recovery after photobleaching (FRAP) experiments indicated little turnover
within the mature PCM scaffold in *D. melanogaster* and *C. elegans* embryos (Conduit et
al., 2014; Laos et al., 2015). Taken together, these observations demonstrate that the
PCM contains a static structure, supporting the notion that PCM scaffold is a lattice-like
matrix. On the other hand, evidence for a dynamic PCM scaffold exists, albeit
circumstantially. Laos et al. (2015), reported a minor mobile fractionafter photobleaching
of GFP-labeled SPD-5 in *C. elegans* embryos (~10% recovery after 65 s). However, in
this experiment it is difficult to distinguish the effects of incorporating new material (i.e.,
growth) from material exchange or rearrangement. Biochemical reconstitution revealed
that SPD-5 forms micron-scale spherical condensates in the presence of a molecular
crowding agent (Woodruff et al., 2017). This study proposed that the SPD-5 scaffold is
initially liquid-like and then rapidly ages into a non-dynamic state. It is not known to what
extent this minimal system faithfully recapitulates native PCM properties. Finally, optical
nano-rheology showed that PCM can flow under shear stress, but only during its
disassembly phase or when PLK-1 is inhibited (Mittasch et al., 2020). It is unclear if a
dynamic scaffolding component contributes to PCM assembly in unperturbed cells. Thus,
it is important to clarify 1) the extent to which PCM contains static and dynamic scaffolding,
2) how these scaffolds contribute to mesoscale properties like viscosity, elasticity, and
strength, and 3) how these features are regulated and contribute to cell viability.

Here we used cell-based and *ex vivo* biophysical assays, biochemical
reconstitution, and microrheology to characterize the material states of *C. elegans* PCM
and how they are regulated by PLK-1 phosphorylation. We show that SPD-5 can
transition between dynamically and stably associated states based on its phosphorylation

status. The stable scaffold contributes to PCM strength, while the dynamic scaffold
contributes to PCM growth and achieving a spherical morphology.

RESULTS

The *C. elegans* PCM scaffold is a composite of distinct but coexisting static and
dynamic components

Analysis of PCM dynamics during its growth phase is difficult to interpret due to
strong contributions from newly incorporated material from the cytoplasm. We thus used
controlled extrusion to assess PCM scaffold properties while avoiding the confounding
effects of growth. By coating *C. elegans* embryos with calcofluor white, a fluorescent dye
that binds chitin and absorbs blue light, we could use a short, focused pulse of 405 nm
laser light to create precise punctures. Application of light pressure forces the PCM
(labeled with GFP::SPD-5) out of the embryo into a dilute, controlled medium (Figure 1A).
When extruded into low salt buffer (25 mM HEPES, 0 KCl), PCM remained mostly intact
for >1 hr (Figure 1B). Thus, the PCM scaffold is intrinsically stable and does not require
cytoplasmic factors for its maintenance in low salt conditions.

We hypothesized that if the PCM scaffold is a solid, stable matrix, it should be
relatively insensitive to dilution into a near-physiological salt buffer (25 mM HEPES, 150
mM KCl). However, if the PCM scaffold is a dynamic, liquid-like phase, it should rapidly
dissolve after dilution in the same buffer. Use of extrusion allowed distinction of solid-like
and liquid-like phases of P granules, indicating its applicability (Putnam et al., 2019).
Extrusion into physiological salt buffer caused dissipation of GFP::SPD-5 signal, both in
area and mean intensity. In extruded interphase and metaphase cells, GFP signal rapidly
declined initially and then plateaued. In extruded anaphase cells, GFP signal
monotonically decreased until PCM was completely dissolved (Figure 1C-E). Thus, PCM
in the dilute solution is unstable due to a dynamic fraction of SPD-5 that departs. We
term this fraction the "dynamic component". The remaining salt-insensitive fraction of
GFP::SPD-5 seen in interphase and metaphase cells was stable for 1 hr. We term this
population of SPD-5 the "stable component". The stable component was smallest in
interphase, larger in metaphase, and non-existent in anaphase. (Figure 1D).　These

results reveal that dynamic and stable pools of SPD-5 co-exist within PCM. The dynamic
component is present throughout the cell cycle, whereas the stable component grows in
preparation for mitosis, then disappears after anaphase entry. The co-existence of these
dynamically different scaffold populations might explain the discrepancies in the literature
about the material nature of PCM (see discussion).

126 Phosphorylation of SPD-5 regulates the equilibrium of the dynamic and static PCM
127 scaffold components

Our results indicate that the relative fractions of static and dynamic PCM scaffold
components differ during the cell cycle, suggesting regulation (Fig 1B, C). We
hypothesized that PLK-1 phosphorylation of SPD-5 could determine its dynamic
properties. We thus generated embryos that express GFP-tagged transgenes of *spd-5*
from an ectopic locus in the genome (Woodruff et al., 2015). These transgenes were re-
encoded to be RNAi-resistant, thus allowing us to study their effects after depletion of
endogenous *spd-5*. We mutated four residues known to be phosphorylated by PLK-1
(S530, S627, S653, S658) to alanine (4A; phospho-null) or glutamic acid (4E; phospho-
mimetic) (Figure 2A). We analyzed one-cell embryos in metaphase, as these have the
largest PCM that contains both the stable and dynamic SPD-5 components. Mitotic PCM
built from these SPD-5 variants showed different sensitivities to dilution when extruded:
compared to wild-type SPD-5, GFP::SPD-5(4E) showed an increased persistence at the
centrosome, whereas GFP::SPD-5(4A) rapidly dispersed (Figure 2B). These results
suggest that phosphorylated SPD-5 produces the stable component, while
unphosphorylated SPD-5 produces the dynamic component.

We then assayed how the phosphorylation state of SPD-5 affects PCM scaffold
dynamics in intact embryos by performing partial FRAP. We selected embryos at nuclear
envelope breakdown (NEBD), when the PCM is large enough to perform partial FRAP
and there is enough time to take measurements before natural PCM disassembly occurs
in anaphase (>150 s). GFP::SPD-5(WT) showed almost no detectable recovery over 100
s, as expected for this timescale (Laos et al., 2015). GFP::SPD-5(4E) signal also did not
recover, whereas GFP::SPD-5(4A) signal did (Figure 2C). Thus, SPD-5(4A) is dynamic
and exchanges between the PCM and surroundings, consistent with our extrusion

experiments. The inability of FRAP to resolve differences between SPD-5(WT) and SPD-
5(4E) indicates that extrusion is a more sensitive assay of dynamics, likely because it
operates on longer time scales (20-40 min). We conclude that phosphorylation of SPD-5
decreases its dynamics within PCM and promotes the formation of the stable PCM
component.
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157 PLK-1 phosphorylation changes the dynamics of reconstituted PCM scaffolds

We next tested if PLK-1 phosphorylation is sufficient to modify the dynamic
properties of the SPD-5 scaffold.   We reconstituted minimal SPD-5 scaffolds and
investigated their material properties in the presence and absence of PLK-1
phosphorylation. Previous reconstitution of spherical SPD-5 condensates required the
use of the crowding agent PEG, which severely dampened regulation by PLK-1 (Woodruff
et al., 2017). 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 will condense into micron-scale
droplets at low salt concentrations (75 mM KCl; Figure 3A, S1A,B). We then incubated
SPD-5/TPXL-1 condensates with constitutively-active (CA) or kinase dead (KD) PLK-1 in
the presence of 0.4 mM ATP for 30 minutes. After incubation with PLK-1(KD),
condensates remained dynamic and could fuse (Figure 3B). FRAP revealed recovery of
both the SPD-5::RFP and TPXL-1::GFP signal (Figure 3C; S1C). On the other hand,
condensates incubated with PLK-1(CA) did not dynamically rearrange nor could they fuse
(Figure 3B); instead, these condensates formed chains reminiscent of colloidal gels.
Under these conditions, SPD-5::RFP signal did not recover after photobleaching, while
TPXL-1::GFP signal recovered fully (Figure 3C). These results suggest that
phosphorylation-driven reduction of condensate dynamics is due to the stabilization of
SPD-5. Unphosphorylated condensates lost considerable mass upon 4.3X dilution into
extrusion buffer (150mM KCl, 25mM Hepes pH 7.4), whereas phosphorylated
condensates maintained their mass (Figure 3D). These data indicate that PLK-1
phosphorylation directly decreases the dynamics and increases the stability of the SPD-
5 scaffold. These results are consistent with our *in vivo* FRAP and extrusion analyses,
highlighting the physiological relevance of our simplified reconstitution system.

Phosphorylation increases the viscoelasticity of reconstituted PCM scaffolds

To quantify how phosphorylation changes the material properties of reconstituted

PCM, we performed video particle tracking micro-rheology (VPT) of 100 nm fluorescent

beads embedded in SPD-5/TPXL-1 condensates incubated with PLK-1(CA) or PLK-

1(KD) (Figure 4A). 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 4B). 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 4C). Phosphorylation shifted the crossover point

between G' and G" upward, indicating a transition to higher viscoelasticity (Figure 4C),

and to the left, indicating emergence of elastic (solid-like) behavior at lower frequencies.

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 4D). The

estimated zero-shear viscosity (resting viscosity) of the condensates differed nearly 10-

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. Relaxation time

characterizes the timescale when a material transitions from elastic to viscous behavior

under applied stress, and it is defined as the inverse of the frequency at the G'-G"

crossover point. Longer relaxation times are associated with more elastic, solid-like states.

Phosphorylation increased the relaxation time of SPD-5/TPXL-1 condensates (4.6 s (CA)

vs.1.03 s (KD))(Figure 4E). Our micro-rheology data, combined with FRAP and fusion

assays, indicate that PLK-1 phosphorylation directly increases the viscoelasticity of the

PCM scaffold and makes its behavior more solid-like.

<u>Hypo-phosphorylation of SPD-5 impairs PCM strength and the fidelity of chromosome segregation</u>

Our data so far indicate that phosphorylation tunes the material properties of the

PCM scaffold. We next investigated how dysregulation of SPD-5 phosphorylation impacts

PCM function in living embryos. Expression of GFP::SPD-5(4A) in the absence of
endogenous WT SPD-5 impaired PCM assembly, as expected (Woodruff et al., 2015).
Based on our *in vitro* data and prior work (Lucas and Raff, 2007; Rios et al., 2024), we
hypothesized that this assembly defect could be a material phenotype, such that PCM
can assemble but is too weak to resist microtubule-dependent pulling forces. In *spd-5(4A)*
interphase embryos, depolymerizing microtubules with 40 μM nocodazole increased
PCM scaffold mass 2.7-fold (p<0.005)(Figure 5A). PCM mass in control embryos was not
significantly affected by nocodazole (1.2-fold change; p = 0.24). Since microtubule-
dependent pulling forces stretch PCM, nocodazole treatment reduced PCM area in *spd-*
5(WT) embryos. Conversely, nocodazole addition increased PCM area in *spd-5(4A)*
embryos, likely due to increased accumulation of SPD-5(4A) in the absence of forces
(Figure 5A). Thus, hypo-phosphorylated SPD-5 can build PCM, but it is weak and
dissembled by pulling forces. Since SPD-5(4A) only forms the dynamic scaffold, this
result suggests that the stable scaffold is essential for PCM strength.

Expression of SPD-5(4A), but not SPD-5(WT), caused embryo lethality and
chromosome segregation defects in all embryos imaged (n=16). Phenotypes included
lagging chromosomes, micronuclei multiple nuclei, chromosome separation failure during
metaphase, and multipolar spindles (Figure 5B, C). Previous work demonstrated that
achieving full-sized PCM is not essential for accurate chromosome segregation (Ohta et
al., 2021). Thus, we speculate that these phenotypes in *spd-5(4A)* embryos are likely not
due to defects in PCM size, but rather to defects in PCM strength.

Hyper-phosphorylation of SPD-5 limits PCM scaffold growth

Several studies have shown that PLK-1 potentiates assembly of the PCM (Conduit
et al., 2014; Decker et al., 2011; Haren et al., 2009; Lee and Rhee, 2011; Woodruff et al.,
2015). A key prediction is that PCM assembly should scale with the degree of
phosphorylation. To the contrary, we observed that PCM built with SPD-5(4E) was
smaller than the controls (Figure 6A,B). We often observed small foci of GFP::SPD-5(4E)
separate from the main PCM body in embryos depleted of endogenous SPD-5 (Figure
6B); these foci could represent ectopically nucleated complexes, as seen with phospho-
mimetic Cnn mutants in *D. melanogaster* (Conduit et al., 2014). Even including these

ectopic foci, the overall mass of detected PCM was still smaller in 4E vs. WT embryos

(Figure 6B). This difference in size remained even after treatment with nocodazole,

demonstrating that hyperphosphorylation limits PCM growth in a force-independent

manner (Figure 6C). SPD-5(4E) levels were slightly higher than SPD-5(WT) (Figure S2A);

thus, differences in PCM size were not due to decreased transgene expression.

Furthermore, centrosome size is known to be affected by cell cycle length in flies (Wong

et al., 2024); however, we did not observe significant changes in cell cycle length between

embryos solely expressing GFP::SPD-5(WT) and GFP::SPD-5(4E) (+RNAi conditions;

Figure S2B).

Expression of GFP::SPD-5(4E) caused smaller, irregularly shaped centrosomes

but did not result in chromosome segregation defects during early embryogenesis (Figure

6D). 34% embryos expressing GFP::SPD-5(4E) did not hatch, indicating that SPD-5

hyper-phosphorylation interferes with late embryonic development (Figure 6E). We

conclude that hyper-phosphorylation of SPD-5 promotes its initial self-assembly but

hinders PCM growth, ultimately leading to pathologically stable PCM and failed embryonic

development.

We next tested if hyperphosphorylation is sufficient to limit PCM scaffold growth.

We observed a biphasic behavior in our *in vitro* condensate assembly assay: at early time

points, phosphorylation promoted SPD-5 condensate assembly; later, phosphorylation

inhibited condensate growth (Figure 6F). Our results support a model where PLK-1

activity promotes the initial assembly of SPD-5 but, if unchecked, leads to premature

termination of assembly.

<u>Discussion</u>

In preparation for mitotic spindle assembly, the protein-rich PCM must perform two

seemingly contradictory behaviors: it must be stable enough to resist microtubule-

dependent forces and dynamic enough to grow. Our results suggest that these behaviors

are enabled due to the tunable viscoelastic nature of the PCM scaffold. The main scaffold

protein in *C. elegans*, SPD-5, is likely under-phosphorylated when it first incorporates into

PCM. In this state, SPD-5 is dynamic and can rearrange and depart, creating a viscous,

liquid-like scaffold that favors isotropic growth and the spherical morphology characteristic

of PCM (Laos et al., 2015). Active PLK-1 concentrated within PCM phosphorylates SPD-

5, causing a transition to an elastic, solid-like network that confers strength. The two SPD-

5 scaffold components co-exist *in vivo*, presumably due to the competition between

phosphorylation by PLK-1 and de-phosphorylation by PP2A, a PCM-resident

phosphatase (Enos et al., 2018; Magescas et al., 2019). Dysregulation of this competition

is pathological: under-phosphorylation creates PCM that is too dynamic and weak,

leading to premature PCM disassembly and chromosome segregation errors, while over-

phosphorylation creates PCM that is too stable and irregular in size and shape (Figure 7).

How might phosphorylation regulate the material properties and size of the SPD-

5 scaffold? Our previous work revealed that SPD-5 forms supramolecular assemblies

through multivalent coiled-coil interactions (Rios et al., 2024). Phosphorylation blocks

auto-inhibitory interactions, opening up SPD-5 so that coiled-coil domains can interact in

trans, which would promote scaffold growth. Our in vitro rheology revealed that

phosphorylation directly increased the viscoelasticity of SPD-5 scaffolds, making them

more solid-like. In vivo, expression of SPD-5(4A) led to weaker PCM (Figure 5). These

results suggest that PCM strength is derived from PLK-1-induced solidification of the

SPD-5 scaffold.

As it is well established that 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 than normal (Figure 6A-E). *In vitro*, PLK-1 phosphorylation initially

promoted SPD-5 assembly, as expected, but then arrested growth, in effect capping SPD-

5 size at a set limit (Figure 6F). How could PLK-1 phosphorylation of SPD-5 both promote

and limit its assembly? One hypothesis is that phosphorylation of SPD-5 creates inter-

molecular interactions that are too strong and are unable to release and bind new

molecules. Eventually, all possible interaction motifs would be occupied, thus preventing

the addition of new molecules and capping growth. 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).

Alternatively, it is possible that hyper-phosphorylation promotes excessive nucleation of

small, ectopic SPD-5 scaffolds that are too solidified to fuse together; these nuclei could

soak up the available pool of bulk SPD-5, thus stalling growth of the main PCM body. We
could detect some ectopic SPD-5(4E) scaffolds; however, even after including them in
our calculations, PCM mass was still smaller in embryos expressing SPD-5(4E) vs. SPD-
5(WT)(Figure 6B). Still, we cannot exclude the possibility of many smaller ectopic
complexes that cannot be detected by light microscopy. Regardless of the exact
molecular basis of this phenomenon, we propose that phosphorylation-induced kinetic
arrest strengthens PCM and sets its upper size limit. Future work will assess how tuning
of scaffold dynamics and material properties contribute to developmental size scaling of
PCM (Decker et al., 2011) and other membrane-less organelles.

Our work indicates that PCM is organized as a solid phase intercalated by a liquid-
like phase of proteins. This model is consistent with the observations that *C. elegans* PCM
is spherical and grows isotopically (Laos et al., 2015), which is expected for a viscous
liquid, but also contains an underlying fibrous meshwork (Tollervey et al., 2024), which
would be expected for an elastic solid. These features are reminiscent of polymer-based
hydrogels (Sun et al., 2013). Recently, it was shown that PCM in *D. melanogaster*
embryos is also a composite of a stable scaffold composed of Cnn co-existing with a
dynamic phase of TACC protein, both of which can assemble independently of the other
(Wong and Raff 2024). 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 and Raff 2024). While the identities of the PCM scaffolding components differ
between species, it is possible that the overall material design—a viscoelastic hydrogel—
may be conserved.

More broadly, our work demonstrates how tuning material properties is required
for proper biological function of a membrane-less organelle. Liquidity allows isotopic
incorporation and rearrangement of new scaffolding material, which are important for
PCM to reach its full size and microtubule-nucleating capacity. Solidification of the PCM
scaffold creates strength so that it can maintain integrity under microtubule-mediated
pulling forces that position the spindle and move mitotic chromosomes. Based on studies
of polyampholyte hydrogels (Sun et al., 2013), the combination of strongly- and weakly-
associated scaffold molecules is ideal for creating a material that is both tough and
resistant to repeating pulling forces (i.e., fatigue). Weak interactions allow for minor

rearrangements that dissipate energy over time and self-heal, while the strong
interactions maintain the overall form of the structure (Sun et al., 2013). This finding
contrasts with most studies on condensates and other supramolecular assemblies, such
as FUS droplets, TDP-43 aggregates, and amyloids, which propose that solidification is
pathological (Alberti and Hyman, 2021). Thus, our study joins a growing body of work
revealing that solidification can be physiological when condensates are required to resist
mechanical stresses (Mittasch et al., 2020) or shut down biochemistry (Boke et al., 2016;
Bose et al., 2022).
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DATA AVAILABILITY

Further requests and information for resources and reagents should be directed to and
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(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 VPT
analysis. 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. 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. 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. L4 hermaphrodites were grown on feeding plates at

23°C for 24-30 hr.

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

445 Embryos from adult worms were dissected on a 22 × 22 mm coverslip (Catalog No: 2975-
446 225; Coring) using a 22-gauge needles in a 7 µl solution of egg salts buffer (ESB) (118mM
447 NaCl, 48mM KCl, 2mM $CaCl_2$, 2mM $MgCl_2$, 25mM Hepes) or M9 buffer. Samples were
448 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 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 ESB or MQ H2O. 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.

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 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 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 sample preparation and analysis

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 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 (η = G"/ω) 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*
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*

577 **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(+)]II; ltIs37 [(pAA64) pie-1p::mCherry::his-58 + unc-119(+)] IV.	MosSCI into EG6699	This study
JWW94	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)

FIGURE LEGENDS

Figure 1: The *C. elegans* PCM scaffold is a composite of distinct but coexisting stable and dynamic phases.

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 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).

Figure 2: Phosphorylation of SPD-5 regulates the equilibrium of the dynamic and stable PCM scaffold components.

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. Left, centrosomes were extruded from metaphase embryos expressing *gfp::spd-5* transgenes (no RNAi). High salt buffer was used (150mM KCl, 25mM Hepes, pH 7.4). Right, quantification of the integrated density of GFP::SPD-5 of extruded centrosomes imaged every 2 minutes for 1 hr (mean +/- 95% C.I.; SPD-5(WT) n= 12, SPD-5(4A) n=9, SPD-5(4E) n=5 centrosomes).

c. Partial fluorescence recovery after photobleaching (FRAP) of centrosomes in intact embryos. Centrosomes were photobleached at nuclear envelop breakdown in one-cell embryos expressing *gfp::spd-5* transgenes (no RNAi). GFP intensity was measured with a 5 μm line scan 0 s and 100 s after photobleaching (mean +/- 95% C.I.; GFP::SPD-5(WT) n= 16, GFP::SPD-5(4E) n=8, GFP::SPD-5(4A) n=7 centrosomes).

Figure 3: PLK-1 phosphorylation changes the dynamics 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. PLK-1 phosphorylation affects the morphological properties of reconstituted PCM scaffolds. Samples were prepared as in (A) with 0.5 µM kinase dead PLK-1(KD) or 0.5 µM 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.

c. 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.

d. 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 4: 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 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. PCM condensates were incubated with 0.2 µM PLK-1(KD) or 0.2 µM PLK-1(CA).

c. Plots for viscoelastic moduli of condensates determined from VPT. Moduli were calculated from using the generalized Stokes-Einstein relation (GSER) fit to a maxwell fluid from the averaged MSD from 0.015 to 100 s (shaded region in panel B). Dashed line indicates crossover frequency.

d. Viscosity was calculated from averaged MSD from 0.015 to 100 s (shaded region in B). The mean value of the plateau at the low frequency was used to estimate the zero-shear viscosity (η_0).

e. Summary of rheological measurements.

Figure 5: Hypo-phosphorylation of SPD-5 impairs PCM strength and the fidelity of chromosome segregation.

a. Transgenic worms were treated with *spd-5* RNAi to silence expression of endogenous SPD-5. Left, one-cell embryos expressing GFP::SPD-5(WT) or GFP::SPD-5(4A) treated with 2% DMSO or 40 µM nocodazole at nuclear envelope breakdown. Right, quantification of PCM area and PCM integrated density (mean +/- 95% C.I.; WT + DMSO n = 24, WT+ nocodazole n=26, 4A + DMSO n=26, 4A + nocodazole n=26; p values from Brown-Forsythe and Welch ANOVA tests).

b. Time-lapse images of transgenic embryos (+s*pd-5(RNAi)*) during mitosis. DNA is visualized with H2B::mCherry.

c. Chromosome segregation defects seen in embryos solely expressing GFP::SPD-5(4A).

Figure 6: Hyper-phosphorylation of SPD-5 limits PCM scaffold growth.

a. PCM assembly in one-cell embryos expressing GFP::SPD-5 transgenes in the presence of endogenous SPD-5. Top, representative images taken at nuclear envelope breakdown (NEBD). Bottom, quantification of GFP::SPD-5 integrated density relative to NEBD (mean +/- 95% C.I.; WT n=22, 4E n=22 centrosomes)

b.   As in A), except worms were treated with RNAi to deplete endogenous SPD-5
(mean +/- 95% C.I.; WT n=18, 4E n=30 centrosomes)
c.   PCM size at NEBD after microtubules were depolymerized with nocodazole.
(mean +/- 95% C.I.; WT n=20, 4E n=12, 4E + *spd-5(RNAi)* n=18; p values from a
Kruskal-Wallis test).
d.   Chromosome segregation in embryos expressing GFP::SPD-5(4E).
e.   Embryo viability assay (mean +/- 95% C.I.; WT n=8, WT + *spd-5(RNAi)* n=8, 4E
n=7, 4E + *spd-5(RNAi)* n=8 mothers, >20 embryos counted per mother; p values
from a Kruskal-Wallis test).
f.   *In vitro* PCM condensate assembly assay over time. Right, representative images.
Left, quantification of average condensate size over time (mean +/- 95% C.I.;
n>100 condensates from 3 replicates).
682

Figure 7: Phospho-regulated tuning of viscoelastic properties balances PCM
growth and strength.
a.   Diagram of PCM architecture in a *C. elegans* embryo. The PCM scaffold comprises
two forms of interconnected SPD-5 molecules: a dynamic, liquid-like fraction
(orange) and a stable, solid-like fraction (red). Conversion between states is driven
by phosphorylation and dephosphorylation of SPD-5. PCM must grow while
resisting pulling forces mediated by microtubules.
b.   Balance of stable and dynamic SPD-5 scaffolds is needed for proper PCM function.
Left, under-phosphorylation of SPD-5 leads to PCM that is too dynamic and weak,
and it gets quickly pulled apart by forces. Right, over-phosphorylation of SPD-5
makes the PCM scaffold too solid-like, which prevents full-scale PCM growth and
hinders late embryonic development.
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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. 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. *In vivo* analysis of SPD-5(4E).

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

Worms were grown at 23°C

b. Plot of cell cycle length in one-cell embryos expressing GFP::SPD-5 transgenes.

Time from pronuclear meeting (PNM) to nuclear envelope breakdown (NEBD) was

measured (mean +/- 95% C.I. p values from Kruskal-Wallis test).

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Figure 1

A Dilution via extrusion

PCM   microtubules

DNA

Rupture cell with 405 nm laser

Centrosome is released

B Before | After extrusion into 0mM KCl

GFP::SPD-5
H2B::mCherry

0 min   64 min

10 μm

C GFP::SPD-5 H2B::mCherry

Before | Extrusion into 150 mM KCl

Interphase   5μm   3μm

Metaphase

Anaphase

0 min   10 min   20 min   60 min

D

interphase
metaphase
anaphase

PCM mass (A.U.)

time (min)

E

interphase
metaphase
anaphase

Norm. PCM mass (A.U.)

time (min)

Figure 2

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 PCM extrusion at Metaphase (no RNAi)

GFP::SPD-5 H2B::mCherry

Before | After extrusion into 150 mM KCl

WT
4E
4A

5 μm   3 μm

C Partial bleach of PCM (no RNAi)

Bleach

t = 0 s

t = 100 s

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

time post-bleach
0 s
100 s

0 s   100 s   0 s   100 s   0 s   100 s

3μm

Figure 3

Figure 4

PLK-1	Crossover Point (1/s)	Zero Shear Viscosity (Pa•s)	Relaxation Time (s)	Condensate Fusion?	Material State
KD	0.975	3.779	1.026	yes	more liquid-like
CA	0.217	31.84	4.616	no	more solid-like

Figure 5

A   *gfp::spd-5 transgenes + spd-5(RNAi)*

SPD-5(WT)   SPD-5(4A)

DMSO

nocodazole

3µm

10 µm

PCM mass (A.U.)

100000
80000
60000
40000
20000

ns   ****   ****   ****   ***

WT DMSO   WT Nocodazole   4A DMSO   4A Nocodazole

PCM size (µm²)

20
15
10
5

****   ****   ****   ****

WT DMSO   WT Nocodazole   4A DMSO   4A Nocodazole

B

Metaphase   Anaphase   Telophase

WT

4A

DNA

10µm

C   SPD-5(4A)   DNA

Lagging chromosomes   Multipolar Spindle

Failed chromosome separation   Multiple nuclei

10 µm

Figure 6

Figure 7

A

microtubules

PCM

DNA

Dynamic SPD-5 scaffold

Stable SPD-5 scaffold

centrioles

force

B

Scaffold dynamics

PLK-1 phosphorylation

Strength defect
PCM pulled apart

Too liquid-like

PCM reaches full size
and strength

Ideal

PCM growth defect
Viability loss

Too solid-like

Figure S1

A

kDa

1 2 3 4 5 6

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

B

SPD-5   TPXL-1   SPD-5 + TPXL-1

RFP

GFP

MERGE

5μm

C

FRAP TPXL-1

+PLK-1^CA

+PLK-1^KD

TPXL-1::GFP normalized mean intensity

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

A

B