1 **Specialisation of meiotic kinetochores revealed through a synthetic spindle**
2 **assembly checkpoint strategy**
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Abstract

Meiosis creates haploid gametes through two sequential M phases. While many studies have focused on meiosis I, the molecular events which drive and define meiosis II are largely unknown. Here, we report a novel cell synchronization strategy which allows for collection of yeast cells arrested at metaphase I or metaphase II, enabling better characterisation of meiosis II events. The method relies on chemically-inducible dimerization of ectopic copies of spindle assembly checkpoint (SAC) proteins Mps1 and Spc105. Using this synthetic SAC (SynSAC) approach, we found that the SAC response is weaker in metaphase I compared to metaphase II and that the PP1 binding site within Spc105 contributes to restraining the MI SAC response. Furthermore, we demonstrate the utility of the SynSAC approach by analysing the composition and phosphorylation of kinetochores from metaphase I and metaphase II. This revealed an increase in the abundance of outer kinetochore proteins in meiotic metaphase I and reduced phosphorylation on metaphase II kinetochore proteins. Overall, we present the SynSAC method as a valuable tool for analysis of both meiotic metaphases.

Introduction

To make haploid gametes for sexual reproduction, diploid cells undergo meiosis which consists of a single round of DNA replication followed by two sequential chromosome segregation events, meiosis I and meiosis II. In meiosis I, maternal and paternal chromosomes, called homologs, separate, while in meiosis II, sister chromatids separate, similar to mitosis. To achieve this, the sister chromatids within each homolog are mono-oriented toward the same spindle pole in meiosis I but bi-oriented towards opposite poles in meiosis II. This requires that kinetochores, large protein complexes which connect chromosomes to spindle microtubules, establish mono-orientation in meiosis I and then convert to bi-orientation in meiosis II. The sequential segregation of homologs and sister chromatids further rely on the step-wise loss of sister chromatid cohesion coupled to two consecutive rounds of spindle assembly and disassembly (reviewed in (Duro and Marston, 2015)). How these key cell biological events are established and coupled in meiosis to allow two distinct rounds of chromosome segregation without an intervening S phase is not well understood. In human oocytes, meiotic chromosome segregation is error-prone and aneuploidy is common (Gruhn and Hoffmann, 2022). Thus identifying molecular mechanisms which prevent improper chromosome segregation may help efforts to improve fertility.

A major barrier in defining molecular events that direct the two meiotic divisions is a lack of synchronization tools which allow collection of populations of cells at key meiotic stages. While mammalian oocytes naturally arrest in metaphase II, material is limited, which precludes biochemical analysis. *Xenopus* oocytes provide a powerful system for analysis of metaphase II extracts but isolation of pure metaphase I populations is challenging (Iwabuchi et al., 2000; Peshkin et al., 2025). Furthermore, identifying chromosome-related proteins in the comparatively large cytoplasmic volume of oocytes presents an additional impediment.

The ability to harvest large number of cells together with ease of genetic manipulation have made yeast outstanding tools for discovering the fundamental mechanisms of meiosis. However, compared to mitosis, our knowledge of meiotic chromosome segregation has lagged behind, in part due to a lack of robust synchronization systems. Nevertheless, recent advances allow reversible arrest of budding yeast at meiotic entry and prophase, allowing synchronous release into meiosis I, and subsequently meiosis II (Berchowitz et al., 2013; Carlile and Amon, 2008; Chia and van Werven, 2016). These systems have been used extensively, but the short time window between the divisions limits the ability to resolve pure meiosis I and II populations. Therefore, direct comparison of meiosis I and II has remained difficult to achieve in any system.

To overcome these challenges, we sought to establish a method that relies on
inducible inhibition of the Anaphase Promoting Complex (APC-Cdc20) in either meiosis I or
meiosis II. The APC-Cdc20 is a ubiquitin ligase that targets key substrates for degradation
including securin and cyclin B, which is required for progression into anaphase (Peters, 2006).
The requirement for the APC-Cdc20 at both meiosis I and II is well-established and placement
of the gene for the APC activator, *CDC20*, under control of a meiotically-repressed promoter
has been widely used to arrest budding yeast cells in metaphase I (Lee and Amon, 2003).
This system has also been adapted to allow re-expression of *CDC20* and synchronous
meiosis II entry (Argüello-Miranda et al., 2017) as well as re-expression of the *cdc20-3*
temperature sensitive allele to enable collection of metaphase II cells (Mengoli et al., 2021).
However, the reliance on transcriptional control and temperature shift results in a slower
response than desirable. Therefore, no tools currently exist to quickly and reliably enrich
budding yeast cell populations in meiosis II.

The APC-Cdc20 is a natural target of the spindle assembly checkpoint (SAC), a
signalling cascade that prevents anaphase when chromosomes are not properly attached to
the spindle (McAinsh and Kops, 2023). The SAC is initiated at improperly attached
kinetochores when the kinase Mps1 phosphorylates the kinetochore protein Spc105[KNL1]. This
phosphorylation recruits the checkpoint proteins Bub3/Bub1 and then Mad1/Mad2 to the
kinetochore. Within this kinetochore complex, Mad2 is converted from the open to closed
conformation and C-Mad2 associates with Mad3[BubR1], Bub3, and Cdc20 to form the mitotic
checkpoint complex (MCC), a diffusible inhibitor of the anaphase promoting complex (APC).
Sustained SAC activation, resulting in prometaphase arrest, can be induced experimentally
by perturbing kinetochore-microtubule interactions, for example by treatment with
microtubule-depolymerizing drugs, and this method has been used extensively in mitotic cells.
However, meiotic cells respond poorly to such drugs, likely due to a combination of impaired
uptake, toxicity and a weakened checkpoint (Hochwagen et al., 2005; MacKenzie et al., 2023).
Moreover, such treatments are unsuitable for analysis of kinetochore function since they
ablate microtubule interactions and convert kinetochores into a signalling platform, thereby
changing their composition and properties.

An alternative approach to arrest cells in either metaphase I or II would induce SAC-
dependent APC-Cdc20 inhibition without perturbing kinetochores. Mechanistic studies in
fission yeast and human cells have achieved inducible activation of the SAC through
conditional dimerization of Mps1 kinase and Spc105[KNL1] (Amin et al., 2018; Aravamudhan et
al., 2015; Chen et al., 2019; Leontiou et al., 2019). Here, we adapted this approach to arrest
cells in either metaphase I or metaphase II of meiosis. We demonstrate that induced

dimerization of Mps1 and Spc105[KNL1] engineered to lack their kinetochore-targeting domains

efficiently arrests cells in either metaphase I or metaphase II, in addition to mitotic metaphase.

This synthetic SAC (SynSAC)-dependent arrest relies on the same downstream signalling

cascade required for APC-Cdc20 inhibition during mitotic division, culminating in stabilization

of the anaphase inhibitor Pds1[securin]. We find that the SynSAC arrest is more potent in

metaphase II than metaphase I, and provide evidence that protein phosphatase 1 (PP1) limits

the duration of the SAC-mediated metaphase I delay. To demonstrate the utility of our SynSAC

approach, we purified kinetochores from metaphase I, metaphase II, and mitotic metaphase

SynSAC cells and analysed their composition and phosphorylation using mass spectrometry.

This provided evidence that the relative enrichment of purified core kinetochore sub-

complexes changes in meiotic metaphase I and II compared to mitotic metaphase, and that

overall kinetochore phosphorylation is reduced in metaphase II. Therefore, by developing

SynSAC as a meiotic interrogation tool we have generated a comprehensive dataset of

kinetochore composition and phosphorylation, a key resource to uncover the critical

specializations that direct distinct segregation events in meiosis I and II.

Results

A synthetic SAC prolongs metaphase I or metaphase II

We sought to activate the SAC to arrest cells in metaphase without disrupting kinetochores.

Thus, we constructed a yeast strain which has an additional, ectopic copy of each of Spc105

and Mps1 lacking their kinetochore-binding domains and which can be inducibly dimerised.

To temporally separate populations of cells undergoing meiosis I vs meiosis II, this strain also

carried inducible *NDT80*, which allows synchronous release from prophase arrest upon

addition of β-estradiol (Carlile and Amon, 2008). To induce dimerization, we used the PYL and

ABI tags, which dimerise in the presence of the plant hormone abscisic acid (ABA) (Liang et

al., 2011; Miyazono et al., 2009). This system is particularly advantageous compared with the

widely used rapamycin-inducible dimerization system because it cannot affect endogenous

mTOR signalling, nor does it require background mutations to avoid toxicity. Spc105 lacking

its C-terminal kinetochore localization domain (Ghodgaonkar-Steger et al., 2020; Maskell et

al., 2010; Petrovic et al., 2014; Roy et al., 2022), and tagged with PYL, was produced from its

endogenous promoter (Spc105[(1-455)]-PYL). Similarly, the C-terminal kinase domain of Mps1,

also under the control of its native promoter and lacking the N-terminal disordered domain

which mediates its kinetochore localization, was fused to ABI (Mps1[(440-765)]-ABI) (Figure

1A)(Araki et al., 2010). As expected, spore viability of this "SynSAC" strain after prophase

release was comparable to that of a strain lacking the ABI/PYL tagged truncations, indicating
that meiosis was not impaired by these constructs (Figure 1B).

We scored spindle morphology after anti-tubulin immunofluorescence to determine cell
cycle stage (Figure 1C). Prophase, metaphase I, anaphase I, metaphase II, anaphase II and
post-meiotic spindles appeared successively over the timecourse in both the absence and
presence of ABA (Figure 1D). While SynSAC dimerisation did not alter characteristic spindle
morphologies, it changed their distribution over time. Following prophase release in the
absence of ABA, metaphase I and metaphase II cell populations peak at approximately 75
and 120 min, respectively, as determined by spindle morphology (Figure 1E). ABA addition at
prophase release extended metaphase I by 15 minutes and metaphase II by 30 minutes
(Figure 1E). This suggested that conditional dimerization of Spc105$^{(1-455)}$-PYL and Mps1$^{(440-765)}$-ABI is sufficient to activate the SAC and delay cells in either metaphase I or metaphase II.
To delay cells specifically at metaphase II, we added ABA at 100 minutes after prophase
release, corresponding to the anaphase I peak according to spindle morphology, and this
resulted in a pronounced (60 min) metaphase II delay (Figure 1E).

To confirm that the delay in cell cycle progression was dependent on the canonical
spindle checkpoint cascade, we tested whether the SynSAC-induced metaphase delays
required downstream SAC proteins. Deletion of *MAD2* or *MAD3* abolished the SynSAC delays
in metaphase I and II, since cell cycle profiles were comparable when either ethanol or ABA
were added at prophase release (Figure 2A and B). Similarly, SynSAC dimerization after
meiosis I did not delay cells in metaphase II in the absence of the SAC proteins (Figure 2C).
Therefore, both meiotic metaphase delays induced by dimerization of Mps1$^{(440-765)}$-ABI and
Spc105$^{(1-455)}$-PYL are dependent on known downstream SAC components. We conclude that
SynSAC can induce a delay in both metaphase I and metaphase II, in a manner requiring
downstream checkpoint components.

Metaphase I, metaphase II and mitotic metaphase show differential sensitivity to
SynSAC
We noticed that SynSAC induced a more pronounced delay in metaphase II than metaphase
I (Figure 1E, Figure 2B and C). Furthermore, both the metaphase I and metaphase II arrests
were transient and cells subsequently underwent both meiotic divisions to produce spores,
even in the presence of ABA. In contrast, SynSAC induced a robust mitotic metaphase arrest
and checkpoint-dependent growth inhibition (Figure 2-figure supplement 1A and B). This is in
accordance with findings in yeast and vertebrates which have suggested that the SAC is less
robust in meiosis I compared to either mitotic metaphase or metaphase II (Gui and Homer,

2012; Kolano et al., 2012; Lane et al., 2012; MacKenzie et al., 2023; Nagaoka et al., 2011; Sebestova et al., 2012). However, since these previous observations rely on methods which perturb kinetochore-microtubule attachments, it has remained unclear whether this difference stems from reduced SAC signalling or a dampened response. Our finding that SynSAC, which uncouples signal generation from the response, induces a graded effect, demonstrates that meiosis I and to a lesser extent meiosis II have a reduced response to checkpoint signalling.

To explore the differences between the meiosis I and II SAC responses further, we analysed the effects of SynSAC on downstream signalling events. The SAC inhibits the APC-Cdc20 from targeting the anaphase inhibitor securin for degradation. Therefore, we monitored Pds1^{securin} degradation as a readout for APC-Cdc20 activity in the SynSAC strain. Without ABA-induced dimerization, Pds1^{securin} levels decreased along with the appearance of anaphase I spindles at 90 minutes after prophase release, re-accumulated at 105 minutes, then decreased again at 135 minutes when anaphase II spindles appeared (Figure 3A). In wild-type cells, Pds1 levels are higher in meiosis I than in meiosis II, likely because the interval between the divisions is too short to allow Pds1 reaccumulation (Marston et al., 2003; Matos et al., 2008; Salah and Nasmyth, 2000). This pattern was also observed in SynSAC strains in the absence of ABA (Figure 3A). Note that Pds1 levels do not fully decline in this population-based analysis as the short duration of meiotic stages results in a mixed-stage population. For example, at the anaphase I peak (90 minutes) around 30% of cells remain in prior stages in which Pds1 levels are expected to be high. However, ABA addition at the time of prophase release resulted in Pds1^{securin} stabilisation throughout the time course, consistent with delays in both metaphase I and metaphase II (Figure 3B). Anaphase I spindles nevertheless appeared with delayed kinetics, peaking at ~40% at 105 min. Concurrently, ~40% of cells remained in metaphase I or II and were therefore Pds1-positive, accounting for the persistent Pds1 signal on the western blot. In contrast, anaphase II spindles are observed at low frequency (maximum 10%) from 165 minutes onwards because metaphase II spindles give way to post-meiotic spindles, without undergoing anaphase II extension (Figure 1D). Therefore, SynSAC activation prior to metaphase I stabilises Pds1^{securin} with the greatest effect in meiosis II. When ABA was added after metaphase I at 100 minutes after release, Pds1^{securin} levels similarly remained high until the end of the timecourse and after spindle disassembly (Figure 3C). Together, these findings suggest that activation of the SynSAC in meiosis delays metaphase I and II by preventing Pds1^{securin} degradation. Interestingly, although SynSAC induces a longer delay in metaphase II compared to metaphase I, in both cases the delay is transient and accompanied by Pds1^{securin} persistence.

One possibility for the extended delay in metaphase I compared to metaphase II could

be differential protein expression in the two divisions. To test this, we assessed the levels of

the SynSAC dimerising proteins by Western blotting. Both full length endogenous and the C-

terminal SynSAC fragment of Mps1 were tagged with 3V5 for direct comparison, which

revealed increased expression of Mps1$^{(440-765)}$-ABI-3V5 compared to Mps1-V5 (Figure 3-figure

supplement 1A and B), consistent with the presence of a degron in the N-terminal domain of

Mps1 (Palframan et al., 2006). However, levels of the SynSAC Mps1$^{(440-765)}$-ABI-3V5 fragment

were relatively consistent throughout meiosis I and II (Figure 3-figure supplement 1A and B).

Similarly, FLAG-tagging of both full length endogenous Spc105 and Spc105$^{(1-455)}$-PYL

indicated that protein levels were equivalent across the two divisions (Figure 3-figure

supplement 1C and D). Thus, temporal differences in the abundance of the SynSAC

dimerising constructs cannot account for the longer delay in metaphase II compared to

metaphase I.

Finally, the transience of the SynSAC delay at both metaphase I and metaphase II

raised the question of whether escape into anaphase I and II was associated with accurate

chromosome segregation. To test this, SynSAC strains were allowed to complete sporulation

in the presence of ABA and spore viability was measured. If kinetochores or chromosome

segregation were significantly disrupted by the delayed meiotic cell cycle, spores would inherit

the incorrect number of chromosomes and be inviable. However, spore viability after SynSAC

dimerization, either before metaphase I or specifically in metaphase II, was not significantly

different from wild type (Figure 3-figure supplement 2). Therefore, SynSAC does not disrupt

chromosome segregation and provides a powerful tool to study meiotic metaphase.

PP1 binding to Spc105 limits SAC-induced metaphase delay in meiosis

Why does SynSAC induce a more potent arrest in metaphase II compared to metaphase I?

One possibility is that checkpoint silencing mechanisms are especially active in meiosis I and

could contribute to a rapid reversal of the checkpoint activity. A key event in checkpoint

silencing is the docking of Protein Phosphatase 1 (PP1; Glc7 in yeast) onto two consensus

motifs in the N-terminal region of Spc105, leading to the dephosphorylation of Spc105 and the

disassembly of the SAC signalling platform (Rosenberg et al., 2011; Roy et al., 2019). Analysis

of mitotic cells indicated that the RVxF motif is the primary PP1 docking motif and that the

SILK motif (GILK in budding yeast) plays an auxiliary role (Rosenberg et al., 2011; Roy et al.,

2019). To test whether PP1 binding to Spc105 regulates the duration of the SynSAC delay in

meiosis, we created strains in which the dimerizing copy of Spc105$^{(1-455)}$-PYL in the SynSAC

strain background had mutations in the RVxF and SILK motifs that would prevent PP1 binding.

We mutated either the SILK motif, creating *spc105^(1-455)-4A-PYL*, or the RVSF motif, creating

spc105^(1-455)-RASA-PYL, and additionally generated *spc105^(1-455)-4A-RASA* which has both

PP1-binding motifs mutated. We also made the *spc105^(1-455)-RVAF* mutant in which serine 77

within the RVSF motif is mutated to alanine, to block potential Ipl1$^{Aurora\ B}$ phosphorylation of

this site. In human cells, Aurora B-dependent phosphorylation of KNL1^{Spc105} within the RVSF

motif appears to prevent PP1 binding (Liu et al., 2010). However, the phospho-null RVAF

mutant does not impact growth of budding yeast, suggesting it may not have as much

importance in this organism (Rosenberg et al., 2011; Roy et al., 2019).

In the absence of ABA, mutation of the PP1 binding sites in the SynSAC construct did

not affect meiotic progression or spore viability (Figure 4-figure supplement 1A and B), nor did

they compromise mitotic growth (Figure 4-figure supplement 1C). However, activating the

SynSAC by adding ABA at the time of prophase release resulted in a metaphase I delay of

varying duration depending on the status of the PP1-binding motifs (Figure 4A). Mutation of

the SILK motif (*spc105^(1-455)-4A*) did not detectably alter the 15-30 min metaphase I delay

observed for the wild-type SynSAC (Figure 4A), consistent with the notion that this motif is

less important. However, preventing PP1 binding to the RVxF motif (*spc105^(1-455)-RASA*)

extended the duration of the SynSAC-induced metaphase I delay considerably and mutation

of both PP1 binding motifs (*spc105^(1-455)-4A-RASA*) led to an even more pronounced delay,

with metaphase I cells persisting until the end of the timecourse (Figure 4A). Conversely,

mutation of the potential Ipl1$^{Aurora\ B}$-dependent kinase site (*spc105^(1-455)-RVAF*), which is

predicted to increase PP1 binding and thereby promote checkpoint silencing, modestly

decreased the duration of the metaphase I delay (Figure 4A). Taken together, these findings

indicate that PP1 binding to Spc105 dampens the SynSAC response in meiosis I and that both

PP1 binding motifs play a role, with the RVxF motif being the primary binding site.

To test whether the duration of the metaphase II delay is also affected by the ability of

PP1 to bind Spc105, we repeated the above experiment except ABA was added only at the

time of anaphase I. As for metaphase I, preventing PP1 binding to Spc105 increased the

duration of SynSAC-induced metaphase II, with the different mutations showing a gradient of

effects (Figure 4B). The strongest metaphase II delay was observed with the *spc105^(1-455)-4A-*

RASA construct, with the *spc105^(1-455)-RASA* mutant alone also extending metaphase II

compared to the wild-type, as judged by the absence of anaphase II cells. Mutation of the

SILK motif (*spc105^(1-455)-4A*) caused a modest additional 15 minutes delay. However, we

observed no detectable effect of mutating the potential Ipl1$^{Aurora\ B}$ site on the SynSAC

metaphase II delay (Figure 4B). Overall, these results indicate that PP1 binding to the RVxF

motif, and to a lesser extent the SILK motif, on Spc105 affects the duration of the metaphase

to anaphase transition in both meiosis I and II. Interestingly, the effect on metaphase I appears

more striking, potentially suggesting increased PP1-dependent SAC silencing activity in

meiosis I. These findings also indicate that *spc105(1-455)-4A-RASA* is the preferred SynSAC

variant, particularly where metaphase I arrest is the goal. However, due to concurrent

investigations, below we employed the simple SynSAC system and demonstrate its suitability

for functional studies.

Kinetochore composition changes at meiotic prophase, metaphase I, and metaphase II

The SynSAC system we developed allows robust isolation of populations of both metaphase

I and metaphase II cells from the same strain, providing the first opportunity for biochemical

comparisons between these stages. As proof-of-principle, we analysed kinetochores, which

must be modified to achieve distinct functions during meiosis. Indeed, previous work has

established a dramatic remodelling of kinetochore composition between meiotic prophase and

meiosis I (Borek et al., 2021; Meyer et al., 2015). However, the lack of a suitable arrest system

precluded analysis of meiosis II. Since kinetochores undergo a configuration switch from

mono-oriented in meiosis I to bi-oriented in meiosis II to direct the successive segregation of

homologs and sister chromatids, direct comparison of meiosis I and meiosis II kinetochores is

an important goal. We exploited our newly developed SynSAC system to determine

kinetochore composition at metaphase I and metaphase II, together with mitotic metaphase

and meiotic prophase for comparison. To do so, we purified kinetochores via

immunoprecipitation of the central kinetochore protein Dsn1 and used mass spectrometry to

analyse their composition (Akiyoshi et al., 2010; Borek et al., 2021; Sarangapani et al., 2014).

Metaphase arrests were confirmed by spindle immunofluorescence (Figure 5-figure

supplement 1A) and silver staining indicated broadly similar purifications across replicates and

cell cycle stages (Figure5-figure supplement 1B).

To determine kinetochore composition, we used data independent acquisition (DIA)

mass spectrometry. Due to the high sensitivity of this method, thousands of proteins were

quantified in each of three replicate immunoprecipitations from each stage (Figure 5-figure

supplement 2A) and 2,415 quantified proteins were common to all three replicates of the Dsn1-

His-FLAG IPs from all 4 cell cycle stages (Figure 5-figure supplement 2B). Consistent trends

in kinetochore protein abundance were observed across replicates (Figure 5-figure

supplement 2C). As expected, Dsn1 and other components of the core kinetochore structure,

especially other members of the KMN (KNL1^{Spc105}-Mis12^{MIND}-Ndc80) network were most

enriched compared to the untagged control immunoprecipitations (Figure 5A-E). Spindle pole

body and microtubule-associated proteins were enriched in mitotic metaphase, meiotic

metaphase I and metaphase II, but depleted from prophase kinetochore purification, along with outer kinetochore (Mis12[MIND]-Ndc80) complexes (Figure 5B-E) (Borek et al., 2021; Meyer et al., 2015).

To better quantify differences in kinetochore protein abundances between the different cell cycle stages, we scaled all protein abundances to the level of Dsn1 quantified in each individual sample (Figure 6-figure supplement 1). As expected, the abundance of most kinetochore proteins was slightly lower than the bait protein Dsn1 in *DSN1-His-Flag* ("tag") samples, but not in the *DSN1* negative control immunoprecipitations ("no tag") (Figure 6-figure supplement 1D). Overall, there was an increased amount of quantified protein in the prophase and metaphase I kinetochore ("tag") samples compared to the metaphase II and mitotic metaphase samples (Figure 6-figure supplement 1E). Although this difference was not significant when the levels of known kinetochore proteins were compared (Figure 6-figure supplement 1F), it is possible that it reflects increased stability and/or dynamics of protein-protein interactions with the kinetochore in prophase and metaphase I.

Next, we performed pair-wise comparisons to identify which proteins, relative to Dsn1, were the most different in abundance between cell cycle stages (Figure 6). In addition, we used GO term analysis to identify shared functions among the top 50 non-kinetochore proteins associated with the Dsn1 immunoprecipitate at each stage (Figure 6-figure supplement 2A). At prophase, proteins involved in chromosome pairing, recombination, and respiration were associated with kinetochores (Figure 6-figure supplement 2A and B). At metaphase I, chromosome organization, spindle pole body, and spindle organization proteins were enriched. The enrichment of many chromatin-associated factors, e.g. histones and chromatin remodeling complexes, with metaphase I, but not metaphase II kinetochores (Figure 6-figure supplement 2A and B) is consistent with closer association of kinetochores with chromatin in the mono-oriented vs bi-oriented state. At metaphase II, sporulation and spore wall proteins became enriched (Figure 6-figure supplement 2A and B). Mitotic kinetochores were associated with nucleolar, ribosome, and nuclear envelope proteins (Figure 6-figure supplement 2A and B). Together, these associations underscore the dynamic nature of kinetochore protein interactions. Further, it suggests that the kinetochore may serve as a platform to direct cell cycle stage-specific signalling such as promoting recombination at meiotic prophase, specialised kinetochore-spindle associations at metaphase I and instigating meiotic-exit processes such as spore wall formation in metaphase II.

Beyond identifying novel protein interactions, we aimed to determine whether there were significant changes in the kinetochore composition itself at the different stages, relative to Dsn1. Across the 4 stages, we were able to quantify ~70 known kinetochore proteins (Figure

7A). As expected, proteins within the KMN network, which Dsn1 is a part of, were most
abundant, while proteins at the inner or outer edges of the complex, or only transiently
associated, were less abundant. Comparing protein abundances grouped by sub-complex or
function at each stage indicated that inner kinetochore CCAN proteins were reduced at meiotic
metaphase I and II compared to prophase or mitotic metaphase, although the trend was not
significant, while outer kinetochore Dam1 complex proteins showed the reverse trend (Figure
7A-B). It is possible that meiotic kinetochores are enriched in outer kinetochore complexes to
facilitate the challenge of capturing homologs in meiosis I. Alternatively, inner kinetochore
protein interactions may be weakened in the two meiotic metaphases, while outer kinetochore
interactions are better preserved during the purification. As expected, there was a significant
depletion of the Ndc80 and Dam1 complex proteins from kinetochores in prophase, in
agreement with previous observations (Chen et al., 2020; Hayashi et al., 2006; Meyer et al.,
2015; Miller et al., 2012) (Figure 7A-B).
393   Within the diverse kinetochore "accessory" group, the strongest changes were an
enrichment of Glc7^{PP1} phosphatase regulator Fin1 at meiotic metaphase I and II, as well as
an enrichment in Glc7^{PP1} phosphatase at prophase. Additionally, proteins with known
functions in mono-orientation such as monopolin complex proteins Csm1 and Mam1 had
higher abundance or were exclusively detected in metaphase I but not metaphase II
kinetochores. SAC and CPC protein abundance on kinetochores was largely comparable in
all stages, other than a depletion in Mps1 levels at prophase, which likely reflects the fact that
this is the only condition in which SynSAC was not induced. Finally, microtubule-associated
proteins (MAPs) were relatively depleted from mitotic kinetochores and the Bik1$^{CLIP-170}$
microtubule plus-end tracking protein was particularly enriched on metaphase I and
metaphase II kinetochores, consistent with the general increase in abundance of the
microtubule-binding components of the outer kinetochore in these purifications (Figure 7A-B).
Together, our results reveal that although the levels of most core kinetochore proteins are
relatively stable at different cell cycle stages, there are significant differences. Notably, there
is a loss of outer kinetochore proteins at prophase, a depletion in some inner kinetochore
protein interactions at meiotic metaphase vs mitotic, and an increase in outer kinetochore
protein levels at metaphase I, and also to some extent at metaphase II.
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Reduced phosphorylation of kinetochores at metaphase II
Protein composition changes are only partially responsible for the distinct behaviour of
kinetochores in meiosis I and meiosis II. Indeed, multiple kinases are known to contribute
(Clyne et al., 2003; Lee and Amon, 2003; Lo et al., 2008; Matos et al., 2008; Petronczki et al.,

2006), indicating that phosphorylation is a key mechanism driving these changes. However,
a global picture of phosphorylation changes at the kinetochore is lacking. This is challenging
because phospho-peptides are relatively low in abundance and recovery of sufficient
quantities of protein from highly synchronised cells is especially important to detect changes
between stages. Our SynSAC approach makes this possible because large quantities of
highly synchronised cells can be collected within a single experiment.

To this end, 95% of the eluates from the kinetochore purifications above were
subjected to phospho-peptide enrichment and DIA-MS. Thus, alongside quantification of the
kinetochore-associated proteome as described above, we obtained matched phospho-
proteomic datasets for each sample. Overall, we identified 4,480 phosphorylation sites
("phospho-sites") on 1,614 proteins with 99% confidence. The abundance of each phospho-
site was normalised to the total abundance of the corresponding protein quantified in the non-
phospho-enriched fraction of the sample. This more accurately identifies dynamic
phosphorylation, rather than protein abundance. Additionally, we filtered the dataset to
analyse only those phospho-sites which were identified in all replicates of at least one sample
type. With these metrics, we quantified ~1,500 phosphorylation sites on meiotic prophase and
meiotic metaphase I kinetochores and ~700-1,100 phospho-sites on meiotic metaphase II and
mitotic metaphase kinetochores (Figure 8-figure supplement 1A). As expected, many
phosphorylation sites were stage-specific, with 177 sites identified in all replicates of all stages
(Figure 8-figure supplement 1B).

We performed GO term enrichment analysis to look for shared functions among the
phospho-proteins most abundant in the kinetochore purifications. This was done with the top
50 most abundant phospho-proteins which are not known kinetochore proteins, in order to
identify alternative processes. At prophase, phospho-proteins involved in chromosome
organization, double-strand break repair, and transcription were associated with kinetochores
(Figure 8-figure supplement 1C). Similarly, metaphase I phospho-proteins were involved in
chromatin remodeling, chromosome organization, and gene expression. At metaphase II,
phospho-proteins involved in cell cycle regulation, sexual reproduction, and spindle pole body
organization were enriched (Figure 8-figure supplement 1C). Finally, mitotic metaphase
phospho-proteins were involved in the microtubule cytoskeleton, nucleus organization, and
regulation of transcription. Overall, the temporal trends seen in the GO term analysis are
apparent in ranked lists of the most abundant non-kinetochore phospho-sites for each stage
comparison (Figure 8-figure supplement 1D).

To determine whether there were general trends in the total level of phosphorylation,
we analysed the distribution of kinetochore phospho-site abundances at the 4 different stages

(Figure 8). The number of phospho-sites on known kinetochore proteins was around ~100 at

each stage however the median level of phosphorylation was higher in meiotic prophase and

metaphase I than it was in metaphase II and mitotic metaphase (Figure 8A). This suggests

that kinetochores are subject to essential phosphorylation in meiosis I and that either

phosphatase activity increases, or kinase activity towards kinetochores decreases at

metaphase II. Interestingly, the total abundance of phosphorylation on kinetochores was very

similar between metaphase II and mitotic metaphase, suggesting that the increased level of

kinetochore phosphorylation is characteristic of meiosis I.

We next asked whether these phosphorylation events were focused on specific

kinetochore sub-complexes or functional groups. The CCAN and KMN subcomplexes

contained the most phosphorylation sites, while relatively few sites were mapped to the Cbf3

complex and MAPs (Figure 8A). The levels of phosphorylation on the CCAN and KMN

subcomplexes were highest in prophase and metaphase I, and lower in metaphase II and

mitotic metaphase, mirroring the trend seen for all kinetochore sites. Interestingly, there

appeared to be increased phosphorylation on outer kinetochore Dam1 complex proteins in

metaphase I vs II, and overall higher phosphorylation in meiosis vs mitosis. Since Dam1

complex proteins are known targets of error correction kinases Ipl1[Aurora B] and Mps1, this may

suggest increased error correction in meiosis vs mitosis. To identify which kinetochore

proteins were most phosphorylated, we calculated the sum of the abundance of all

phosphorylation sites on individual kinetochore proteins at each stage, and then ranked the

proteins based on the total sum from all stages (Figure 5B). This revealed that Spc105, Bir1,

Lrs4, Sli15, Dsn1, Okp1 and Ame1 were the most heavily phosphorylated kinetochore

proteins. Additionally, we determined the maximum range in abundance between cell cycle

stages for each phospho-site within each protein. This revealed that Mif2[CENP-C], Dsn1, Cin8[Kif11],

Okp1[CENP-Q], and Cse4[CENP-A] have highly dynamic phosphorylation sites (Figure 8C).

Finally, we highlight several individual phospho-sites with interesting trends (Figure

8D). Slk19[CENP-F] regulates both spindle stability and mitotic/meiotic exit (Buonomo et al., 2003;

Marston et al., 2003; Stegmeier et al., 2002; Sullivan et al., 2001). We found that

phosphorylation of Slk19-S-23, in part of the protein involved in meiotic exit (Havens et al.,

2010), is reduced in metaphase II. In mitosis, phosphorylation of the N-terminus of Ndc80 by

Ipl1[Aurora B] promotes detachment of kinetochores from microtubules, allowing for correction of

erroneous attachments (Akiyoshi et al., 2009; Pinsky et al., 2006; Sarangapani et al., 2013);

in meiosis, Ipl1[Aurora B] phosphorylation of an overlapping set of sites, including T54, destabilizes

Ndc80 protein levels in prophase, contributing to the loss of outer kinetochore proteins at this

time (Chen et al., 2020). Consistent with this, we observed significantly more phosphorylation

of Ndc80-T-54 on purified kinetochores in meiotic prophase and metaphase I (Figure 8D).

Dsn1-S-69 is found very close to where the monopolin complex that directs mono-orientation

in meiosis I is thought to bind (residues 72-110) (Plowman et al., 2019; Sarkar et al., 2013).

We observed greatest phosphorylation of Dsn1-S-69 in prophase and metaphase I, the time

when kinetochores prepare for mono-orientation, suggesting it may be a functionally important

modification (Figure 8D). Finally, we found that S70 phosphorylation on inner kinetochore

protein Okp1^{CENP-Q}, a likely Cdk substrate (Holt et al., 2009), is reduced at metaphase II.

To uncover trends in types of kinase activity directed towards kinetochore proteins,

we conducted motif analysis on phospho-sites at different cell cycle stages. Of the nearly 100

kinetochore phosphorylation sites identified, the most prominent trend was for a proline

residue at the +1 position from the phospho-acceptor site, which is a known motif recognised

by cyclin-dependent kinase (Cdk) as well as MAP kinases (Figure 9A). Next, we analysed how

many of the kinetochore phospho-sites at each stage matched a panel of known kinase

consensus motifs. The trends were weak suggesting common types of kinase activity at the

different stages, however, there was a slight preference for the strict Cdk or Ipl1$^{Aurora\ B}$ kinase

consensus motif among prophase phospho-sites compared with the other stages (Figure 9B).

Additionally, fewer sites matching the Ipl1$^{Aurora\ B}$ motif were found in meiotic metaphase I and

II (Figure 9B), which may suggest that Ipl1$^{Aurora\ B}$ activity is reduced at these times. Indeed, we

would anticipate that the prolonged SynSAC arrest allows for robust chromosomal alignment

and minimal requirement for Ipl1$^{Aurora\ B}$-dependent error-correction. We previously found that,

globally, Cdc5^{Polo} kinase promotes phosphorylation of a more stringent motif of [DEN]x[ST]*F

specifically in meiotic metaphase I (Koch et al., 2024). We found that this trend also applies

to kinetochores since the number of phosphorylation sites on kinetochore proteins that match

this motif was also highest at metaphase I (Figure 9B). Finally, there was no stage-specific

enrichment of the motif recognised by the DDK kinase Cdc7, known to function in DNA

damage repair and homologous recombination in prophase (Figure 9B), suggesting that its

activity is widespread through mitosis and meiosis, or that other kinases can recognise these

sites.

Given that the minimal Cdk and Cdc5^{Polo} kinase motifs were common among

kinetochore phospho-sites, we also analysed whether these sites were preferentially located

within specific sub-complexes. For Cdc5^{Polo} motif sites, this revealed a slight enrichment within

the outer kinetochore complexes KMN and Dam1c compared with the inner kinetochore

CCAN sub-complex, and this trend was most prominent at metaphase II and mitosis (Figure

9C). Conversely, at all stages there was an enrichment for Cdk motif sites within the inner

kinetochore CCAN complex vs the outer kinetochore KMN and Dam1 sub-complexes. Finally,

we reveal the identities of individual Cdc5^{Polo} and Cdk motif phospho-sites across the core

kinetochore (Figure 9D). There was a range of different trends, with some sites being

phosphorylated relatively equally across stages while others appeared enriched at specific

stages. Together, this dataset provides a strong basis for identifying phosphorylation sites

which may have key stage-specific roles such as directing mono-orientation in meiosis I and

biorientation in meiosis II.

Discussion

Mitosis, meiosis I and meiosis II involve distinct segregation events, each with specific

modifications to chromosome structure and orientation that must function in the context of a

unique cell cycle programme. Understanding these changes biochemically relies on the ability

to harvest cells at these distinct cell cycle stages for direct comparisons. Until now, meiosis II

has been particularly elusive since robust methods to arrest budding yeast cells in this stage

been lacking. However, meiosis II is of key interest: although it is often referred to as

"resembling mitosis", there are crucial differences since it occurs directly after another M

phase, meiosis I, and is followed by gamete formation. Here, we developed the SynSAC

system to overcome this limitation. SynSAC uses the same yeast strain to arrest cells in

metaphase of mitosis, meiosis I or meiosis II, allowing direct comparisons. This system could

be applied to interrogate changes in any cellular process or protein complex at these distinct

cell cycle stages. Here, as proof of principle, we determined the changes in protein

composition and phosphorylation abundance at kinetochores. Our findings develop a new tool

for meiotic investigations, provide key insights into meiotic regulation by SAC activation and

additionally generate an important resource that provides key insight into how kinetochores

are adapted at different cell cycle stages.

A simple method to arrest yeast cells at metaphase II

We found that inducible dimerization of fragments of Spc105 and Mps1 upon prophase

release or during anaphase I allows for robust synchronization at metaphase I or II of meiosis,

respectively (Figure 1). Since the meiotic SynSAC method relies on two drug-inducible events

and does not require media washout steps, it greatly simplifies and improves recovery of

metaphase cells. One advantage of SynSAC is that it does not require kinetochore

peturbation, as the checkpoint signal is generated ectopically. Since endogenous SAC

proteins are also present, SynSAC strains can also mount a response to kinetochore

perturbation, as normal. In addition, SynSAC is conditional, allowing the arrest to be induced

only at the desired time. This is in contrast to previous studies which have isolated metaphase

I cells through repressing transcription of *CDC20* (Lee and Amon, 2003), where loss of the

Cdc20 protein, itself part of the mitotic checkpoint complex (McAinsh and Kops, 2023), may

have secondary effects. Thus, by relying on relatively quick chemical reactions and achieving

arrest without reducing protein levels, the SynSAC method may more accurately reflect the

metaphase state. A limitation of this approach, as with any synchronisation system, is that

unintended consequences of rewiring cell cycle control cannot be excluded. In the case of

SynSAC, such effects could arise from sustained Bub1 signalling, from ectopic activation of

the checkpoint away from kinetochores or from induction of enhanced Mps1 activity. Key

findings should therefore be validated using orthogonal approaches.

The duration of SAC signalling in metaphase I is regulated by PP1

Interestingly, the duration of SynSAC-mediated delay is consistently shorter in meiosis I vs II,

despite equivalent protein level of the dimerizing construct. Microtubule-depolymerising drugs

also cause a shorter SAC delay in meiosis I compared to either meiosis II or mitosis

(MacKenzie et al., 2023). The differential sensitivity of cells to SynSAC in meiosis I and II

suggests that this is an intrinsic difference between the two divisions. Previous work has

established a role for PP1 in prematurely silencing the SAC in meiosis I in the presence of

improperly attached kinetochores (MacKenzie et al., 2023). Our work similarly implicates PP1

binding to Spc105 as being responsible for limiting the duration of the SynSAC arrest in

meiosis I. We discovered that mutation of either the conserved RVxF or the GILK motif does

indeed lengthen the duration of the metaphase I SynSAC arrest, with the strongest effect seen

when both mutations are present. This suggests that PP1 binding to these motifs may promote

Spc105 dephosphorylation and SAC silencing in metaphase I. Consistently, PP1 phosphatase

Glc7 and its regulatory subunit Fin1, were enriched on meiotic kinetochores (Figure 7A). In

contrast, we observed only minor additional delays in metaphase II when PP1 binding to

Spc105 was prevented. Moreover, surprisingly, the RASA mutation, but not 4A or 4A RASA

abolished the growth defect of SynSAC cells in mitosis. While this finding remains

unexplained, it points to differential wiring of checkpoint activation and silencing mechanisms

in mitosis, meiosis I and meiosis II. Together, these observations suggest that PP1 activity is

more prominent at metaphase I. How this relates to the unique segregation pattern in this

division where homologs, rather than sister chromatids, are segregated is an important area

of investigation for the future.

Previous studies in *S. cerevisiae* found no evidence that Aurora B–dependent

phosphorylation of S77 within the RVSF motif inhibits PP1 binding (Rosenberg et al., 2011;

Roy et al., 2019), unlike the mechanism described in human cells (Liu et al., 2010). In contrast,

we found that the RVAF mutation partially restores mitotic growth in the SynSAC strain and
shortens the SynSAC-induced delay in metaphase I. These observations suggest that PP1
binding may nevertheless be regulated by phosphorylation within the RVSF motif to attenuate
checkpoint signalling, a mechanism that may be particularly important during meiosis I.
Interestingly, similar to PP1, CPC subunits, including Ipl1[AuroraB], and SAC proteins are enriched
on kinetochores in metaphase I. We suggest that the physical linkage of homologs by
chiasmata in meiosis I creates additional constraints on biorientation, thereby necessitating
repeated error correction through opposing CPC/Aurora B and PP1 activity.

Finally, the stronger and more prolonged SynSAC arrest obtained using the PP1
binding site mutant *spc105[1-455]-4A-RASA* prompts its consideration as an alternative tool for
future studies, particularly where meiosis I arrest is important. At the time of performing the
kinetochore immunoprecipitations, these mutations were not yet available but, as we have
demonstrated, wild type SynSAC protein fragments nevertheless yielded sufficiently enriched
populations of metaphase I and II cells to allow reliable detection of stage-specific kinetochore
proteins and phosphorylations. Going forward, however, we consider SynSAC-4A-RASA to
be the optimal tool for inducing metaphase arrests.

Kinetochore composition dynamics in meiosis reveal distinct functional states
We applied SynSAC to understand changes in composition of the kinetochore by quantitative
proteomic analysis. Prior work used Dsn1 kinetochore immunoprecipitations and
minichromosome purifications to compare kinetochore and centromere composition in mitosis,
prophase I and metaphase I (Borek et al., 2021). However, analysis of purified metaphase II
kinetochores was previously inaccessible and our application of high-sensitivity DIA mass
spectrometry, together with matched phosphorylation analysis, provides a more complete
picture overall. Our dataset of kinetochore composition from four stages: (1) mitotic
metaphase I; (2) meiotic prophase I; (3) metaphase I and (4) metaphase II therefore greatly
extends our understanding of how kinetochores change during meiosis. Consistent with
remodelling reported in our earlier study (Borek et al., 2021), we reveal a change in the
stoichiometry of sub-complexes relative to each other, dependent on cell cycle stage. For
example, the inner kinetochore CCAN is less abundant at meiotic metaphase I and II
compared with mitosis and prophase (Figure 7A). The mechanisms underlying the lower
abundance of CCAN proteins, which notably include some of the most essential DNA-
contacting proteins such as the Cse4[CENP-A] histone and the Ame1[CENP-C]/Okp1[CENP-Q]
heterodimer, during meiotic metaphase require further investigation. Moreover, it is possible
that this phenomenon contributes to the essential requirement for some CCAN proteins for

kinetochore assembly in meiosis, but not mitosis (Borek et al., 2021; Fernius and Marston, 2009; Mehta et al., 2014). Conversely, we observed higher levels of Dam1 complex proteins at meiotic metaphase I and II compared with mitosis, and this trend was significant for the complex as a whole (Figure 7A-B). Along the same lines, there was a small but statistically significant increase in the levels of KMN proteins in metaphase I specifically (Figure 7A-B). Overall, there is a trend for a loss in inner kinetochore protein interactions and a gain in outer kinetochore protein interactions in meiotic metaphase compared to mitotic metaphase. Although some variation could reflect global changes in protein abundance during meiosis, we previously found that only a few proteins undergo dynamic abundance changes during the meiotic divisions (Koch et al., 2024), so this is unlikely to fully explain the kinetochore composition differences observed. Instead, it is tempting to speculate that kinetochores are more loosely associated with chromatin and more strongly associated with the spindle through the outer kinetochore in meiotic vs mitotic metaphase. Potentially, kinetochore-spindle interactions are stabilised to better ensure accurate segregation during the rapid metaphase-anaphase transitions of meiosis and to cope with the challenging configuration of homologs in meiosis I, relying on chiasmata-dependent linkages.

Our data also provide insight into the unique regulatory state of meiosis I kinetochores. Consistent with our previous findings (Borek et al., 2021), meiotic axis (Red1) and synaptonemal complex protines (Zip1) are enriched on prophase kinetochores and the meiosis I-specific monopolin complex was enriched on metaphase I kinetochores. Cohesins (Smc1 and Smc3) were also enriched on metaphase I kinetochores, supporting the requirement for a dedicated pool of centromeric cohesion for mono-orientation at this stage (Barton et al., 2022). Casein kinase 1 (CK1/Hrr25), which plays multiple roles in meiosis, including as a component of monopolin (Argüello-Miranda et al., 2017; Galander et al., 2019; Petronczki et al., 2006), was immunoprecipitated with kinetochores at all meiotic stages. As noted above, PP1 phosphatase and CPC-Aurora B kinase enrichment further suggest dynamic phospho-regulation in metaphase I consistent with our detection of increased kinetochore-associated phosphorylations at this stage compared to metaphase II or mitosis (Figure 8A). Furthermore, the pericentromeric cohesin protector, shugoshin (Sgo1), was highly enriched on metaphase I compared to metaphase II kinetochores. This is consistent with recent work in mouse oocytes which indicated that shugoshin-dependent cohesin protection is lost prior to meiosis II (El Jailani et al., 2025). Nevertheless, imaging experiments show that shugoshins are retained at meiosis II kinetochores (Galander et al., 2019; Katis et al., 2004; Marston et al., 2004; Mengoli et al., 2021), albeit at a reduced level, suggesting that they may play additional roles in meiosis II. Overall, these findings indicate dynamic changes

in the composition of kinetochore-associated proteins during meiosis and provide a starting

point for future studies directed at their functional significance.

Metaphase II kinetochores have reduced phosphorylation

Our phospho-proteomic analysis of purified kinetochores from meiosis and mitosis identified

4,487 phosphorylation sites on 1,614 proteins, indicating that ~35% of the detected proteome

is phosphorylated, in agreement with previous studies (Figure 8-figure supplement 1A)

(Ptacek et al., 2005; Wettstein et al., 2024). Nearly twice as many phospho-sites were

identified in meiotic prophase and metaphase I compared with metaphase II and mitotic

metaphase (Figure 8-figure supplement 1A). Around 250-400 more proteins were detected in

prophase and metaphase I, suggesting unique regulation at the level of protein abundances

as well as phosphorylation (Figure 5-figure supplement 2A). We found less variation in the

number of phospho-sites found on known kinetochore proteins, with around 100 sites

identified on ~70 kinetochore proteins across all stages (Figure 8A). Despite this similarity, we

quantified significant differences in the overall abundances of the phospho-sites, with meiotic

prophase and metaphase I kinetochores having significantly higher levels of phosphorylation

compared with meiotic metaphase II and mitotic metaphase (Figure 8A). Within the core

kinetochore structure, most phospho-sites mapped to the chromatin-associated CCAN or the

spindle-associated KMN complexes. Around 40% of CCAN phosphosites matched the CDK

consensus, suggesting that CDK control of kinetochore assembly timing may be concentrated

at the inner kinetochore. It is also interesting that the two most dynamic phosphoproteins

identified in our study, Dsn1 and Mif2[CENP-C] (Figure 8C), are implicated in recruitment of factors

required for the unique mono-oriented arrangement of sister chromatids in meiosis I. An N-

terminal extension on Dsn1 directly binds monopolin (Plowman et al., 2019; Sarkar et al.,

2013), while mouse and fission yeast CENP-C recruit MOKIRs Moa1 and Meikin (Kim et al.,

2015; Tanaka et al., 2009). It therefore seems highly likely that some of the stage-specific

phosphorylation events are important for regulating the switch in kinetochore orientation in

meiosis, and future research should aim for their functional characterisation.

688   Furthermore, most of the detected phosphorylation sites were unique to the stage and

therefore their function is likely to be stage-specific (Figure 8-figure supplement 1B). Whether

sister kinetochore biorientation at metaphase II and mitotic metaphase is physically and/or

biochemically distinct remains unclear. Our characterisation of meiotic SynSAC duration and

previous work with the endogenous SAC (MacKenzie et al., 2023) suggest that metaphase II

is regulated differently, with metaphase II having a shorter arrest compared to mitotic

metaphase upon SynSAC activation. However, previous biophysical characterisation

indicated that the kinetochore-microtubule attachment strength of metaphase II and mitotic

purified kinetochores was equivalent on average (Sarangapani et al., 2014). Thus, it may be

that the shorter duration of metaphase II does not depend on maximum attachment strength

per se and rather on some intrinsic cell cycle regulation or other properties of kinetochores in

these stages. Indeed, the distance between sister centromeres in mouse metaphase II

oocytes is nearly double that in human and mouse mitotic cells, so there are likely biophysical

differences between biorientation at these two stages (Kouznetsova et al., 2019). Additionally,

as many as ~20% of chromosomes in mouse metaphase II cells appear to have lateral or

merotelic attachments that persist into anaphase II, when they are then corrected

(Kouznetsova et al., 2019). Thus, compared with mitosis, error-correction mechanisms are

notably different in meiosis. Error-correction relies on phospho-regulation of the outer

kinetochore sub-complexes KMN and Dam1c, and we observed higher levels of Dam1

complex proteins in kinetochores from meiosis vs mitosis. This, in addition to the differential

phospho-sites identified on outer kinetochore proteins, provides a good first step for future

investigations into meiotic kinetochore attachment mechanisms and how they differ in meiosis

I and meiosis II.

Materials and Methods

Plasmids

Plasmids used in this study are listed in Supplemental Table 1.

MPS1(440-765) in a *HIS3* single integration plasmid AMp1725 was made by restriction

digest of empty *HIS3* single integration plasmid AMp1694 (received from Biggins Lab) and

MPS1(440-765) amplified from wild type SK1 yeast genomic DNA. *pMPS1-MPS1(440-765)* in

a *HIS3* single integration plasmid AMp1740 was made by Gibson assembly of ~500bp of

MPS1 promoter amplified from wild type SK1 yeast genomic DNA and AMp1725. *pMPS1-*

*MPS1(440-765)-AB*I in a *HIS3* single integration plasmid AMp1755 was made by Gibson

assembly of ABI amplified from AMp1460 (received from Hardwick Lab, made in Heun Lab)

and AMp1740.

pSPC105-SPC105(1-455)-PYL-3FLAG in a *LEU2* single integration plasmid AMp1741

was made by Gibson assembly of 3 parts. ~500bp of *SPC105* promoter and *SPC105(1-455)*

were amplified from wild type SK1 genomic DNA, *PYL-3FLAG* was amplified from plasmid

AMp1461 (received from Hardwick Lab, made in Heun Lab) and *LEU2* single integration

plasmid AMp1697 (received from Biggins Lab).

pSPC105-SPC105(1-455)-PYL in a *LEU2* single integration plasmid AMp2055 was
made by megaprimer mutagenesis (two-step PCR) to completely remove the 3FLAG tag in
AMp1741.

PP1 binding site mutations in *SPC105-PYL* plasmids were made by megaprimer
mutagenesis. *spc105(1-455)-4A* mutates the 21-GILK-24 motif to 21-AAAA-24. *spc105(1-*
455)-RASA mutates the 75-RVSF-78 motif to 75-RASA-78. The *spc105(1-455)-4A-RASA*
plasmid contains both sets of mutations. *spc105(1-455)-RVAF* mutates serine 77 to alanine
only.

Yeast strains

Budding yeast strains used in this study were derivatives of SK1 and are listed in
Supplemental Table 2. *pGAL1-NDT80 pGPD1-GAL4.ER* was described previously (Benjamin
et al., 2003). The *MPS1-3V5*, *SPC105-6His-3Flag*, and *DSN1-6His-3Flag* strains were made
by standard PCR tagging methods. SynSAC strains with *MPS1(440-765)-ABI* and *SPC105(1-*
455)-PYL integrated at the *his3* and *leu2* locus, respectively, were made by restriction
digestion of the appropriate plasmids and standard yeast DNA transformation procedures.
Yeast strains are available upon request without restriction.

Meiotic prophase block-release timecourse

Cells were induced to undergo meiosis as described by (Barton et al., 2022) and *pGAL-*
NDT80 prophase block-release experiments were performed as outlined in (Carlile and Amon,
2008). Briefly, strains were patched from –80 °C stocks to YPG agar (1% Bacto yeast extract,
2% Bacto peptone, 2.5% glycerol, 0.3 mM adenine, 2% agar) plates. After ~16 h, cells were
inoculated into YPDA media and grown for 24 h at 30 °C with shaking at 250 rpm. Next,
BYTA (1% Bacto yeast extract, 2% Bacto tryptone, 1% potassium acetate, 50 mM potassium
phthalate) cultures were prepared to $OD_{600} = 0.3$ and grown at 30 °C with shaking at 250 rpm
overnight (~16 h). The next morning, cells were washed twice in sterile water and resuspended
in sporulation medium (0.3% potassium acetate, pH=7.0) at $OD_{600} = 2.0$. After 5.5 h in
sporulation media, 1 µM β-estradiol was added to release cells from prophase and samples
were collected for immunofluorescence every 15 min until 180 min, and then every 30 min for
a further hour. For experiments where protein samples were analysed by Western blotting, 10
ml of meiotic culture or 5 ml of mitotic culture was collected by centrifugation and resuspended
in 5 ml ice-cold 5% trichloroacetic acid (TCA). Cells were collected again by centrifugation and
transferred to Fastprep (MP) tubes. Cell pellets were snap frozen in liquid nitrogen and stored
at -70 °C. Frozen cell pellets were washed in 500 µl acetone and air-dried. Cell pellets were

resuspended in TE with 2.75µM DTT and 1x Roche cOmplete protease inhibitor cocktail.

Protein samples were prepared by bead-beating in an MP Fastprep machine, at speed 6.5 for

3 rounds of 45 seconds with 1 min on ice in between, at 4 °C. SDS Sample buffer was added

(final concentration 3% SDS) and samples were boiled for 3 minutes before PAGE.

Spore viability assay

All spore viability assays were carried out following prophase block-release timecourses.

Following the timecourse, cultures were left shaking at 30 °C ~24h. 100ul of culture was

collected by spinning in a microcentrifuge for 1min 13k rpm and then resuspended in 20ul

1mg/ml zymolyase in 1M sorbitol and incubated for 10 minutes at room temperature before

adding 1mL sterile water. Tetrads were dissected with a micromanipulator on a Nikon Eclipse

50i light microscope.

Mitotic alpha factor arrest-release timecourse

Yeast strains were patched from –80 °C stocks to YPG agar (1% Bacto yeast extract, 2%

Bacto peptone, 2.5% glycerol, 0.3 mM adenine, 2% agar) plates. The next day, strains were

patched to YPDA (1% Bacto yeast extract, 2% Bacto peptone, 2% glucose, 0.3mM adenine)

agar plates. The next day, cells were inoculated into YPDA medium and grown overnight ~16h

at 30 °C with shaking at 250 rpm. The next morning, cultures were diluted to OD ~0.2 and

grown for 2 hours at room temperature with shaking at 250 rpm. Cultures were diluted back

to OD ~0.2 and alpha factor was added to 7.5 µg/ml. Cultures were shaken at room

temperature for 3 hours before checking that >90% of cells were shmooing or unbudded. Cells

were washed three times in 2x volume water and collected by centrifuging in a tabletop

centrifuge 3k rpm for 2 minutes at room temperature. Cells were resuspended in fresh YPDA

and placed into clean flasks. Culture samples of 100µl were taken at time zero before addition

of either ethanol or 250 µM abscisic acid (ABA) and then at 30 minute intervals after addition

of ethanol or ABA. 100ul culture samples were immediately combined with 400µl ethanol and

stored at 4 °C. For DNA staining, cells were pelleted and resuspended in 100ul 1 µg/ml DAPI

in PBS. Yeast cells were sonicated for 30 seconds on low in a Bioruptor Twin sonicating device

(Diagenode) and glass slides were prepared and visualised on a Zeiss Axioplan Imager Z2

fluorescence microscope with a 100x Plan ApoChromat NA 1.45 oil lens. At least 100 cells

were counted for each condition.

Serial dilution mitotic growth assay

Yeast strains were inoculated into YPDA medium and grown overnight ~16h at room
temperature. Cultures were diluted to OD_{600}=0.2 and grown to mid-log at room temperature
before being diluted back to OD_{600}=0.3. Serial dilutions were set up in 96-well plates, with 5-
fold dilutions across rows. Yeast were transferred to YPDA plates or YPDA plates spread with
250 µM abscisic acid (ABA). Plates were incubated at 30 °C for ~24 h before taking images.
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Spindle immunofluorescence

Meiotic spindles were visualised by indirect immunofluorescence as described in (Barton et
al., 2022). A rat anti-tubulin primary antibody (AbD serotec) at 1:50 dilution and an anti-rat
FITC conjugated secondary antibody (Jackson Immunoresearch) at 1:100 dilution were used.
A Ziess Axioplan Imager Z2 fluorescence microscope with a 100x Plan ApoChromat NA 1.45
oil lens was used to visualise cells. In total, 100-200 cells were counted at each timepoint
and/or for each sample.
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SDS-PAGE and Western blotting

SDS-PAGE and Western blotting were carried out largely as described in (Barton et al., 2022),
with minor modifications. Protein samples were separated on 10% bis-tris acrylamide gels
submerged in running buffer (25 mM Tris, 190 mM glycine, 0.01% SDS) using the Bio-Rad
Mini-Protean or Scie-plas TV200Y wide format mini gel system. SDS-PAGE gels were
transferred onto nitrocellulose membrane (0.45uM, Amersham-GE Healthcare) in transfer
buffer (25 mM Tris, 1.5% glycine, 0.02% SDS, 10% methanol) in a Bio-Rad Mini Trans-Blot
system or a semi-dry Amersham TE70 transfer unit.
Membranes were blocked in 5% milk in PBS with 0.01% Tween-20 (PBST) for at least
30 minutes before incubation in primary antibody overnight with gentle shaking at 4 °C. At
room temperature, membranes were washed three times for 10 minutes in PBST before
incubation in secondary antibody for 1 hour. Membranes were washed for 10 minutes, 3 times,
before visualisation using chemiluminescence. HRP-conjugated antibodies were detected
with ECL blotting substrate (Pierce), SuperSignal West Pico Plus substrate (Pierce), or
SuperSignal West Atto substrate (Pierce) for weaker signals and images were acquired with
a ChemiDoc MP Imaging System (Bio-Rad).
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Growth conditions for kinetochore immunoprecipitations

All immunoprecipitations were performed with lysate from either a *DSN1-His-Flag*
strain (33675) or no tag *DSN1* (30990) strain grown in different conditions.

For each replicate from meiotic cultures, two cultures of 400mL OD~2.0 were

sporulated in 4L flasks and scored for metaphase arrest by spindle IF as appropriate. Cultures

that were most similar by date of growth and spindle IF were combined during later grinding

lysis. For each replicate from mitotic cultures, 800ml OD=1.1-1.3 culture was grown in one 4L

flask and harvested and processed together.

For each 400mL meiotic culture, strains were patched from -70 stocks to YPG plates

and grown at 30C. After ~24h, a 25mL YPDA culture in a 250 mL flask was inoculated and

grown at 30C, shaking at 250 rpm. After ~24h, a 200mL BYTA culture in a 2L flask was started

at OD=0.2 and grown at 30C, shaking at 250rpm. The next morning, after ~16h, a 400ml

culture in a 4L flask was started at OD~2.0 in sporulation medium. All meiotic cultures were

grown at 30C with shaking at 250rpm. For meiotic prophase, cultures were incubated for 5.5

hours before harvest. For metaphase I, cultures were incubated for 5.5 hours before 1 µM β-

estradiol and 250uM ABA were added together. After 90 minutes, cells were harvested. For

metaphase II, cultures were incubated for 5.5 hours before 1 µM β-estradiol was added. After

105 minutes, 250 µM ABA was added and cells were harvested at 135 minutes. Samples for

spindle immunofluorescence were collected at the time of harvest.

For each mitotic culture, strains were patched from -70 stocks to YPG plates and grown

at 30C. After ~24h, a 25mL YPDA culture was inoculated in a 125mL flask and grown at 30C

with shaking at 250rpm. After ~16h, an 800 mL YPDA culture was started in a 4L flask at

OD~0.3 and grown at 30C with shaking at 250rpm. After ~3h, the OD=1.1-1.2 culture was

harvested.

Immunoprecipitation of kinetochores for mass spectrometry

Immunoprecipitations were carried out essentially as described in (Borek et al., 2021),

with minor modifications.

Harvest: Cell cultures were spun at 4k rpm for 5 min at 4C in a Beckman Avanti J25

centrifuge. Each 400ml cell culture pellet was washed in 150 mL water and spun again the

same way. Then, cell pellets were resuspended in BH0.15 lysis buffer (150mM KCl, 25mM

HEPES-KOH pH 8.0, 2mM MgCl2, 0.5mM EGTA-KOH pH 8.0, 0.1mM EDTA-KOH pH 8.0,

0.1% NP-40) including phosphatase inhibitors (5mM NaF, 2mM Na-beta-glycerophosphate,

1mM sodium pyrophosphate, 800uM sodium orthovanadate, 200nM microcystin-LR) and

protease inhibitors (2mM Pefabloc, 10ug/ml each of 'CLAAPE' (Chymostatin,

Leupeptin,Aprotinin,Antipain,Peptstatin A,E-64), and 1x Roche cOmplete inhibitor cocktail).

Cell pellets were resuspended in BH0.15 including inhibitors according to the following

equation: OD600 x culture volume in L x 2 = mL buffer (ie for each 400 mL OD=2.0 pellet,

cells were resuspended in 1.6mL buffer). Resuspended cultures were drop frozen into liquid
nitrogen and stored at -70 before further processing.

Lysis: Frozen cell pellets were lysed by cryo-grinding in a SPEX 6875 Freezer Mill,
with 5 min pre-cool, 2 min Run time, 2 min Cool time, 8 cycles of 10 cycles per second. Cryo-
grindate was stored at -70 before further processing.

Antibody conjugation to Dynabeads: As described in (Borek et al., 2021). Antibody-
conjugated Protein G Dynabeads (ThermoFisher) were always prepared no more than 24
hours before use and were stored at 4 C until use.

Immunoprecipitation and elution: Grindate powder, in 50mL falcons, was thawed in
room temperature water before transferring to ice. Thawed grindate was clarified by
centrifugation in a tabletop centrifuge at 3,500 rpm for 10 min 4C. The supernatant, the lysate,
was transferred to a new falcon tube and concentration measured by standard Bradford Assay
(BioRad Cat#5000006). IPs were set up so that 80-100mg protein was incubated with ~100
uL anti-FLAG conjugated Protein G Dynabeads (ThermoFisher). The ratio of protein to beads
was always kept such that 12.6 mg protein was incubated with 15 uL antibody-conjugated
beads. IPs of replicates of the same condition were all done on the same day and normalised
so that protein concentration and antibody-bead volumes were the same between replicates.
Protein lysates and antibody-conjugated Dynabeads were incubated together in falcon tubes
with gentle rotation at 4C for 3 hours. Next, supernatants were collected and beads were
washed twice in 1mL BH0.15 with phosphatase and protease inhibitors by gently inverting the
tubes, then washed once in 1mL BH0.15 alone. Protein was eluted from beads in two rounds
of 10 min at 50C in a ThermoMixer C (Eppendorf) at 500-600 rpm with 0.1% RapiGest SF in
50mM Tris pH 8.0, added to one-half volume of Dynabeads (ie two rounds of 50 ul elution for
100 ul Dynabeads). The two sequential elutions were combined and the eluate was stored at
-70 before further processing.

Silver staining
Protein samples were separated on 4-12% NuPAGE pre-cast gels (Invitrogen) run in MES
buffer (50mM MES, 50mM Tris Base, 0.1% SDS, 1mM EDTA, pH 7.3) and stained using an
Invitrogen Silverquest staining kit following the manufacturer's instructions.

Preparation of samples for mass spectrometry
RapiGest eluates were prepared for mass spectrometry by trypsin digestion with a
filter-aided sample preparation (FASP) method, essentially as described in (Koch et al., 2024;
Wiśniewski et al., 2009).

Phospho-peptide enrichment

For each trypsin-digested peptide solution, 5% was loaded directly onto C18 stage tips, called the "N" sample, and 95% was processed for phospho-peptide enrichment via Ti-IMAC beads (MagReSyn) as described in (Koch et al., 2024), and called the "PE" (for phospho-enriched) sample before loading on C18 stage tips. Samples of the same condition were all processed on the same day (eg all prophase samples were processed together on the same day).

DIA mass spectrometry

The "N" and "PE" peptides eluted from the filter units were acidified using 20 μl of 10% Trifluoroacetic Acid (TFA) (Sigma Aldrich). Samples were spun onto StageTips as described by (Rappsilber et al., 2007). Peptides were eluted in 40 µL of 80% acetonitrile in 0.1% TFA and concentrated down to 1 µL by vacuum centrifugation (Concentrator 5301, Eppendorf, UK). They were then prepared for LC-MS/MS analysis by diluting it to 5 µL by 0.1% TFA.

LC-MS analyses were performed on Orbitrap Exploris™ 480 (Thermo Fisher Scientific, UK) on a Data Independent Acquisition (DIA) mode, coupled on-line, to an Ultimate 3000 HPLC (Dionex, Thermo Fisher Scientific, UK). Peptides were separated on a 50 cm (2 μm particle size) EASY-Spray column (Thermo Scientific, UK), which was assembled on an EASY-Spray source (Thermo Scientific, UK) and operated constantly at 55°C. Mobile phase A consisted of 0.1% formic acid in LC-MS grade water and mobile phase B consisted of 80% acetonitrile and 0.1% formic acid. Peptides were loaded onto the column at a flow rate of 0.3 µL min^{-1} and eluted at a flow rate of 0.25 µL min^{-1} according to the following gradient: 2 to 40% mobile phase B in 150 min and then to 95% in 11 min. Mobile phase B was retained at 95% for 5 min and returned back to 2% a minute after until the end of the run (160 min).

Survey scans were recorded at 120,000 resolution (scan range 350-1650 m/z) with an ion target of 5.0e6, and injection time of 20ms. MS2 was performed in the orbitrap at 30,000 resolution with a scan range of 200-2000 m/z, maximum injection time of 55ms and AGC target of 3.0E6 ions. We used HCD fragmentation with stepped collision energy of 25.5, 27 and 30. We used variable isolation windows throughout the scan range ranging from 10.5 to 50.5 m/z. Narrow isolation windows (10.5-18.5 m/z) were applied from 400-800 m/z and then gradually increased to 50.5 m/z until the end of the scan range. The default charge state was set to 3. Data for both survey and MS/MS scans were acquired in profile mode.

Mass spectrometry library search conditions

The DIA-NN software platform (Demichev et al., 2020) version 1.9.2. was used to

process the DIA raw files and search was conducted against our in house *Saccharomyces*

cerevisiae complete/reference proteome (original database from Saccharomyces Genome

Database for the strain SK1, released in May, 2019). Precursor ion generation was based on

the chosen protein database (automatically generated spectral library) with deep-learning

based spectra, retention time and IMs prediction. Digestion mode was set to specific with

trypsin allowing maximum of two missed cleavages. Carbamidomethylation of cysteine was

set as fixed modification. Oxidation of methionine, acetylation of the N-terminus and

phosphorylation on serine, threonine and tyrosine were set as variable modifications. The

parameters for peptide length range, precursor charge range, precursor m/z range and

fragment ion m/z range as well as other software parameters were used with their default

values. The precursor FDR was set to 1%. Annotating library proteins were created with

information from the FASTA database.

Mass spectrometry data analysis in R

All data analysis was performed using the report.pg_matrix.tsv and

report.phosphosites_99.tsv files from DIA-NN version 1.9.2 using R (v 4.2.3) within the

RStudio environment.

For proteins, the columns corresponding to the measurements of the non-phospho-

enriched ("N") samples in the report.pg_matrix.tsv file were analysed. For phospho-sites, the

columns corresponding to the measurements of the phospho-enriched ("PE") samples in the

report.phosphosites_99.tsv file were analysed. Only phospho-peptides with greater than or

equal to 99% localisation confidence for the phospho- modification at the given site residue

are included in the measurements in the report.phosphosites_99.tsv file. In DIA-NN, phospho-

site abundances can include measurements from multiply-modified peptides, however the

vast majority of phospho-sites are quantified from singly phospho-peptides.

No imputation was carried out. Due to low coverage, only two out of three replicates

of the mitotic DSN1 ("no tag") "N" samples were analysed for protein levels and only two out

of three replicates from each of the mitotic DSN1 ("no tag") and mitotic Dsn1-His-Flag ("tag")

"PE" samples were analysed for phospho-site abundances. Samples from Dsn1-His-Flag

("tag") IPs and DSN1 ("no tag") IPs were normalised separately. All IP samples of the same

type ("tag" or "no tag"), including all replicates and cell cycle stages, were normalised together.

For both the protein measurements of the "N" samples and the phospho-site measurements

from the "PE" samples, a column median normalisation was carried out; all values in a given

sample column were multiplied by a scaling factor consisting of the median intensity of all

sample columns divided by the median sample intensity of that individual column. To
normalise phospho-site abundances to the protein level, each column-normalised value from
the "PE" measurements of the phosphosites_99 file were divided by the corresponding
column-normalised protein (from "N") measurement from the pg_matrix table and multiplied
by 1000. For example the normalised value of phospho-site Ndc80-T-54 in the PE sample of
the phosphosites_99 table was divided by the normalised value of the protein Ndc80 in the
corresponding N sample of the pg_matrix and multiplied by 1000.

To better analyse differential protein levels between IPs, the protein measurements
from the "N" samples were further scaled by the measurement of Dsn1 within each sample.
Each normalised protein measurement was divided by the normalised value of Dsn1 within
that sample. All protein measurements shown in Figures 6 and 7 are Dsn1-scaled.

Protein and phospho-site measurements were further analysed using functions from
the Differential Enrichment of Proteins (DEP) R package (Zhang et al., 2018). Both protein
and phospho-site tables were filtered to include only proteins or sites that were measured in
all replicates of at least one condition.

Venn diagrams were made using interactivenn.net (Heberle et al., 2015). For the GO
term enrichment analysis, ranked lists were generated. Proteins or phospho-proteins were
ranked by descending fold-change and known kinetochore proteins were excluded. For each
stage, comparison with the other stages generated three ranked lists. The top 50 proteins
from all three lists were combined together in one list and duplicates were removed. Using
these lists, GO term enrichment was carried out using gprofiler2 R package (Kolberg et al.,
2020) with organism="scerevisiae" and otherwise default settings. For the ranked lists in Supp
Fig 6 Supp 2 and Fig 8 Supp 1, proteins were ranked by descending fold-change, known
kinetochore proteins were excluded, and the top 20 proteins were selected.

The stat_pwc() function from the ggpubr R package was used to run statistical tests
comparing protein or phospho-site intensities. For boxplots, a two-sided Wilcoxon test was
run and p-values adjusted with the Bonferroni method. For barplots in Figure 8D, a two-sided
t-test was run and p-values adjusted with the Bonferroni method. In all figures, a single
asterisk (*) indicates a p-value of less than 0.05, two asterisks (**) a p-value less than
0.01, and three asterisks (***) p-value of less than 0.001.

The ggseqlogo R package was used to make phospho-site motif logos (Wagih, 2017).

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1005 **Data Availability**

1006 Mass spectrometry data generated in this study has been deposited at the PRIDE database

1007 with dataset identifier PXD067911.

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1009   The R script for all data analysis in this study is provided as Source Code 1 and published on

1010   Github (https://github.com/lori-koch/Kinetochore-SynSAC).

1011

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1022

1023   **Author contributions**

1024   Conceptualization – LK and AM; Data curation –LK and CS; Funding Acquisition – AM; Formal

1025   Analysis – LK, TG, and CS; Investigation – LK and TG; Software – LK; Supervision –AM;

1026   Visualization – LK and AM; Writing – original draft – LK; Writing – review and editing – LK and

1027   AM with input from all authors

1028

1029   **Disclosure and competing interests statement**

1030   The authors declare no conflicts of interest.

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1312   **Supplementary Table 1** List of plasmids used in this study
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1314   **Supplementary Table 2** List of strains used in this study

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1316   **Source Code 1** R script used for mass spectrometry analysis and figure generation in this
1317   study.
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Figure 1 The meiotic SynSAC activation system

(A) Schematic of synthetic SAC dimerization system. (B) Spore viability of wild type

(AM11189) and SynSAC dimer (AM30783) yeast strains (C) Schematic showing spindle

morphology at different stages in meiosis. (D and E) SynSAC strain AM30783 was released

from prophase by β-oestradiol addition under control (ethanol, left), meiosis I dimerizing

(250μM ABA at release), or meiosis II dimerizing (250μM ABA at 100 minutes) conditions. (D)

Representative images of fields of SynSAC cells at the indicated times after prophase release.

Upper panels (ethanol) show control cells where SynSAC is not activated, lower panels (ABA)

show cells where SynSAC is activated from prophase release. Scale bar = 5μm. (E) Scoring

of spindle morphology after anti-tubulin immunofluorescence. 100 cells were scored at each

timepoint. Arrow indicates time of ethanol or ABA addition.

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Figure 2

1338 **Figure 2 SynSAC activation depends on checkpoint proteins**
1339 (A-C) Meiosis spindle immunofluorescence timecourse in wild-type SynSAC (AM30783),
1340 SynSAC SynSAC *mad2Δ* (AM33559), and SynSAC *mad3Δ* (AM30784) strains. All strains
1341 were released from prophase by β-oestradiol addition. (A) Control cells where ethanol was
1342 added at release (B) SynSAC dimerisation was induced by addition 250μM abscisic acid at
1343 prophase release (C) SynSAC dimerisation was induced by addition 250μM of abscisic acid
1344 100 minutes after release. 100 cells were scored at each timepoint.
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Figure 2- figure supplement 1. SynSAC induces a robust ABA-induced mitotic arrest

(A) Serial dilution mitotic growth assay of wild-type (AM11189), SynSAC (AM30783),

SynSAC *mad1Δ* (AM33558), SynSAC *mad2Δ* (AM33559), and SynSAC *mad3Δ* (AM30784)

strains on YPDA rich media (top) and YPDA with 250μM ABA (bottom). (B) Mitotic SynSAC

arrest timecourse. Yeast cultures of wild-type haploid SynSAC strain AM30663 were

arrested in G1 with alpha factor and released into fresh media. Cultures were treated with

either control solvent (ethanol) or ABA to induce SynSAC dimerization. The fraction of cells

with large buds and one nucleus after DAPI-staining was determined after scoring 100 cells

for each timepoint.

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Figure 3 Meiotic SynSAC delays degradation of Pds1^securin^

(A-C) Meiosis timecourse with spindle immunofluorescence (left) and western blotting to visualize Pds1-Myc and Pgk1 loading control (right). (A) Control timecourse with ethanol added at prophase release. (B) Meiosis I SynSAC delay timecourse with 250μM ABA added at prophase release. (C) Meiosis II SynSAC delay meiosis timecourse with 250μm ABA added at 100 minutes after prophase release (vertical dotted line). Strain used in A-C was AM34398. For the spindle counts, 100 cells were scored at each timepoint. Arrows indicate the time of ethanol or ABA addition.

Figure 3-figure supplement 1. Protein levels of the SynSAC dimer constructs do not significantly change throughout meiosis.

(A and B) Meiotic timecourse after release from prophase of a strain expressing V5-tagged full-length endogenous Mps1 in addition to the Mps1$^{(440-765)}$-ABI-3V5 SynSAC dimer construct (AM34816). (A) Spindle morphology after scoring 100 cells per timepoint. Arrows indicate time of ethanol addition. (B) Western blot analysis of samples at the indicated timepoints. Extracts from cycling wild-type (AM1828), *MPS1-3V5* (34733) and his3::Mps1$^{(440-765)}$-3V5-ABI (33850) strains were run as controls. (C and D) Meiotic timecourse of a strain expressing Flag-tagged

full-length endogenous Spc105 in addition to the Spc105$^{(1\text{-}455)}$-PYL-3Flag SynSAC dimer

construct (AM34817). (C) Spindle morphology at the indicated timepoints were scored after

tubulin immunofluorescence. (D) Western blot analysis of samples harvested at the indicated

timepoints. Extracts from cycling wild-type (AM1828), Spc105-6His-3Flag (AM34876) and

leu2::Spc105$^{(1\text{-}455)}$-PYL-3Flag (AM30735) strains run as controls. * indicates a background

band present in the untagged control strain.

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Spore Viability

	WT	SynSAC	SynSAC	SynSAC	SynSAC mad3Δ
b-estradiol	+	+	+	+	+
ethanol t0	-	+	-	-	-
ABA t0	-	-	+	-	-
ABA t100	-	-	-	+	+
n	264	440	440	440	440

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Figure 3-figure supplement 2. SynSAC does not affect spore viability after meiosis

Spore viability assay of SynSAC strains following meiosis I or meiosis II SynSAC activation.

Following meiotic timecourses with the indicated treatments, tetrads were collected and

dissected on rich media plates. The number of spores which grew colonies was counted.

Strains analysed were wild type (AM11189), SynSAC (AM30783) and SynSAC *mad3Δ*

(30784).

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Figure 4 PP1 binding restrains SynSAC delay duration in meiotic metaphase

(A and B) Meiosis I (A) and meiosis II (B) SynSAC spindle immunofluorescence timecourses in wild-type vs PP1 binding site mutant SynSAC strains. Top: Schematic indicating drug addition timing. Middle row: Control wild-type (AM30783), SynSAC wild-type (AM30783), SynSAC *spc105-4A* (AM34201). Bottom row: SynSAC *spc105-RASA* (AM34203), SynSAC

1402   *spc105-4A-RASA* (AM34202), SynSAC *spc105-RVAF* (AM34487). Arrows indicate the time

1403   of ethanol/ABA addition. 100 cells were scored at each timepoint.

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A Ethanol at t=0

Figure 4-figure supplement 1. Mutation of the PP1 binding sites in the Spc105 SynSAC construct does not affect timing of meiosis, spore viability, or mitotic growth.

(A) Meiotic spindle immunofluorescence timecourses of control treated wild-type *SPC105(1-455)-PYL* (AM30783), *spc105(1-455)-4A-PYL* (AM34201), *spc105(1-455)-RASA-PYL* (AM34203), *spc105(1-455)-4A-RASA-PYL* (AM34202), and *spc105(1-455)-RVAF-PYL* (AM34487) strains. Arrows indicates time of ethanol addition. 100 cells were scored for each timepoint. (B) Spore viability of wild-type and PP1 binding site mutant SynSAC strains. Tetrads from control treated meiotic timecourses as in (A) (ethanol added at prophase release), were collected and dissected on rich media. The number of colonies which grew from dissected

1415   spores was counted. (C) Serial dilution mitotic growth assay of wild-type and PP1 binding

1416   site mutant SynSAC strains as in (A) on YPDA and YPDA with 250μM ABA media.

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Figure 5 Kinetochore composition in mitotic metaphase, meiotic prophase, meiotic

metaphase I and meiotic metaphase II. (A) Heatmap showing the fold change enrichment

level of each kinetochore protein at each stage, for the tag vs no tag comparison. (B-D)

Volcano plots comparing unscaled protein levels of Dsn-6His-3FLAG (tag) to no tag after

anti-FLAG immunoprecipitation from matched extracts of mitotic metaphase (B), meiotic

prophase (C), metaphase I (D) and metaphase II (E). Strains used are no tag (AM30990) or

DSN1-6His-3Flag (AM33675).

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Figure 5-figure supplement 1. Immunoprecipitation of kinetochores from meiotic

prophase, metaphase I, metaphase II and mitotic metaphase

(A and B) Kinetochores were purified from the indicated cell cycle stages by anti-FLAG

immunoprecipation of Dsn1-6His-3FLAG (AM33675) and compared to no tag (strain

AM30990). (A) Enrichment of cells at the indicated metaphase stages was confirmed by

scoring spindle morphology after tubulin immunofluorescence. (B) Silver-stained gels of

control no-tag and Dsn1-6His-3Flag immunoprecipitations are shown.

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Figure 5-figure supplement 2. Kinetochore composition in meiosis

(A and B) Analysis of kinetochore composition after Dsn1 immunoprecipitation at different

cell cycle stages. (A) Barplot of number of proteins detected in each *DSN1-6His-3Flag* IP

sample from the indicated stage and replicate. (B) Venn diagram showing the number of

proteins detected in each *DSN1-6His-3FLAG* IP sample and the overlap of which proteins

were unique to each sample or shared between samples. Proteins were counted as included

in a group if they were detected in all replicates of that sample type. (C) Kinetochore protein

enrichment in kinetochore and control immunoprecipitations. Heatmap showing the

abundance of each kinetochore protein in all immunoprecipitation samples analysed. Grey

indicates missing values.

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Figure 6. Volcano plots of differential protein enrichment for each pair-wise

comparison between different cell cycle stages

Comparisons of protein abundance detected by mass spectrometry in kinetochore

purifications at the different stages. (A) Volcano plot comparing Dsn1-scaled protein levels in

meiotic prophase (left) vs metaphase I (right). (B) Volcano plot comparing Dsn1-scaled

protein levels in mitotic metaphase (left) vs meiotic prophase (right). (C) Volcano plot

comparing Dsn1-scaled protein levels in meiotic prophase (left) vs metaphase II (right). (D)

Volcano plot comparing Dsn1-scaled protein levels in metaphase I (left) vs metaphase II

(right). (E) Volcano plot comparing Dsn1-scaled protein levels in mitotic metaphase (left) vs

metaphase II (right). (F) Volcano plot comparing Dsn1-scaled protein levels in mitotic

metaphase (left) vs metaphase I (right).

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Figure 6-figure supplement 1. Total protein and kinetochore protein abundances

before and after scaling to Dsn1

(A-F) Mass spectrometry analysis of Flag immunoprecipitations from no tag (AM30990) or

DSN1-6His-3Flag (AM33675) strains. (A) Protein abundances (intensities) of all IP samples

analysed by MS. (B) Kinetochore protein abundances of all IP samples analysed by MS. (C)

Protein abundances after scaling to the Dsn1 protein level in each sample. (D) Kinetochore

1471   protein abundances after scaling to the Dsn1 protein level in each sample. (E) Protein

1472   abundances of the 4 *DSN1-6His-3Flag* sample types. Proteins were included if they were

1473   detected in all replicates of that stage. (F) Kinetochore protein abundances of the 4 *DSN1-*

1474   *His-3Flag* sample types. Proteins were included if they were detected in all replicates of that

1475   stage.

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	pro vs MI	pro vs MII	pro vs mitoM	MI vs MII	MI vs mitoM	MI vs pro	MII vs MI	MII vs mitoM	MII vs pro	mitoM vs MI	mitoM vs MII	mitoM vs pro
Enrichment ↑	ZIP1	NDJ1	ADY2	DBF4	ADY2	CDC5	SPS1	ADY2	SPO19	BUD20	UBA4	BUD20
	NDJ1	ZIP1	MDH2	HHO1	CIT3	TEP1	CDC16	YAT2	SPO74	UBA4	HXT2	ECM1
	THI73	RED1	CIT3	SPC72	PCK1	PES4	SPO74	MIP6	SPO21	PDC5	MUB1	UBA4
	RED1	PCP1	ACS1	HTA1	ACS1	SPO19	SPR2	INO1	PES4	GLY1	NSR1	ALB1
	MPC3	TOM5	CRC1	SAS3	ADH2	CNM67	SPO19	ACS1	SSP1	MUB1	DLD3	NSR1
	ENV10	HOP1	ADH2	PCP1	MDH2	CLB4	SPS22	CIT3	CDC5	NAF1	YCR087C-A	PXR1
	PHO89	CST9	INO1	ABF2	INO1	SPC42	CDC26	FOX2	RRT5	YCR087C-A	ALB1	NAF1
	CST9	TIM21	PCK1	NSI1	ICL1	CLB1	HYM1	IME2	CDC16	HXT2	GAL4	YCR100C
	EMC10	CSM4	ICL1	SWC7	FOX2	RRT5	YKR015C	MDH2	SPS22	ALB1	URA7	REI1
	COX12	CBP4	PDH1	AHC2	PDH1	SPO23	ASE1	PCK1	HYM1	DBP3	UBR2	RNH203
	TOM5	FSF1	FOX2	RAP1	CRC1	SPC110	IRC10	ADH2	TEP1	TPO1	ARX1	TMA23
	MHT1	ADR1	SFC1	IOC2	YAT2	SPC98	CDA1	ICL1	DON1	NSR1	AHP1	NHP2
	COX7	COX4	CIT2	PHO3	IME2	SPO21	SMA1	YNL194C	CDC26	UBR2	SDA1	GLY1
	OLE1	COX6	MLS1	IOC4	YNL194C	SPR1	CDH1	CDC16	CLB1	PXR1	DBP3	DBP3
	ATP14	SCO2	YNL194C	HHT1	CIT2	SPC97	CHS5	PDH1	PFS1	GDH1	THI7	FIR1
	CSM4	COX12	YAT2	SKO1	MLS1	SSP1	MPC54	TES1	MRK1	REI1	YEF3	EBP2
	NCE103	POR1	ATO3	CBP4	RIM4	DON1	YHL012W	HSP26	MIP6	FSH1	PHO3	NOP15
	COX4	COX5A	NUS1	BRF1	MIP6	NUD1	CIK1	CIT2	SUT1	DBP2	YEF3	ESF1
	ATP19	ABF2	GUT2	HTZ1	AMS1	YLR146W-A	SPO21	ADY3	CDA1	ARX1	ERG11	DBP2
	FTR1	DFM1	ACH1	MOT3	ATO3	SPC29	BCH1	CRC1	CNM67	RSA4	RRP36	DBP2

Figure 6-figure supplement 2. Identity and function of proteins enriched on kinetochores at distinct stages

(A) GO term enrichment of the selected terms among the top 50 non-kinetochore proteins co-purified at each stage. (B) Top 20 non-kinetochore proteins, ranked by increasing fold change enrichment in the first stage listed vs the second stage. (For example prophase vs MI, proteins are ranked by enrichment in prophase.)

Figure 7 Kinetochore protein dynamics in meiotic prophase, metaphase I, metaphase II, and mitotic metaphase

(A and B) Kinetochores purified by Dsn1-6His-3Flag immunoprecipation were analysed from cells arrested at the indicated stages using the SynSAC system by mass spectrometry. Strain used was AM33675. Protein levels are Dsn1-scaled. (A) Heatmap of individual protein levels of core kinetochore proteins (left). Heatmap of individual protein levels of kinetochore-associated proteins at each stage (right). (B) Boxplots of groups of kinetochore proteins at each stage. Dots indicate individual proteins and the numbers above each plot indicate the

1494   number of proteins included in each group at that stage. P-values from Wilcoxon two-sided

1495   test are shown.

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Figure 8 Reduced kinetochore protein phosphorylation in metaphase II

(A-D) Phosphorylation analysis of kinetochores purified as in Figure 5 and subjected to phospho-enrichment prior to mass spectrometry. (A) Boxplots of groups of kinetochore protein phosphorylation sites at each stage. Numbers above each plot indicate the number of phospho-sites included in the group at each stage. P-values from two-sided Wilcoxon test are

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shown for all kinetochore phospho-sites (upper left). No other comparisons were significantly different by Wilcoxon test in any other group/stage. (B) Heatmap of total sum of phospho-site abundance for each kinetochore protein at each stage. Phospho-proteins are ranked, with proteins with the highest sum of phospho-site abundances, for all 4 stages together, at the top. Numbers within parentheses next to protein name indicate the sum of phospho-site abundances for all 4 stages. (C) Boxplots of maximum phospho-site range across the 4 stages for each kinetochore protein. Phospho-proteins are ranked so that proteins with the highest median phospho-site dynamic range across stages are at the top. Numbers in parentheses indicate the number of phospho-sites considered to calculate maximum phospho-site range. (D) Barplots of individual phospho-site abundances for the indicated sites at each of the 4 stages. Dots indicate the abundance in individual replicates. P-values from two-sided t-test are indicated.

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Figure 8-figure supplement 1

Figure 8-figure supplement 1. Identification of phospho-sites co-isolated with purified kinetochores in meiotic prophase, metaphase I, metaphase II and mitotic metaphase.

(A) Barplot of the number of phospho-sites quantified in each Dsn1-6His-3Flag immunoprecipitation. (B) Venn diagram of the number of phospho-sites identified in each Dsn1-6His-3Flag immunoprecipitation and whether they were unique to sample type or

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shared between groups. A phospho-site was included in a group if it was detected in all

replicates of that sample type. (C) GO term enrichment of the selected terms among the top

50 non-kinetochore phospho-proteins co-purified at each stage. (D) Top 20 non-kinetochore

phospho-sites, ranked by increasing fold change enrichment in the first stage listed vs the

second stage. (For example prophase vs MI, phospho-sites are ranked by enrichment in

prophase.)

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Figure 9 Kinetochore phospho-site motifs do not vary significantly by stage

(A-D) Features of kinetochore phosphorylation after phospho-analysis of kinetochore purifications in Figure 5. (A) Motif logos of amino acids surrounding kinetochore protein phospho-sites at each stage. (B) Barplots of the percent of phospho-sites which match indicated kinase consensus motifs at each stage. (C) Barplots of the percent of phospho-sites which match the Polo kinase consensus motif (top) or minimal Cdk consensus motif (bottom),

1538   sorted by kinetochore sub-complex and cell cycle stage. (D) Heatmap showing the abundance

1539   of individual kinetochore phospho-sites matching the minimal Polo kinase consensus. (E)

1540   Heatmap showing the abundance of individual kinetochore phospho-sites matching the

1541   minimal Cdk kinase consensus.