PCH-2^{TRIP13} regulates spindle checkpoint strength

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ABSTRACT

Spindle checkpoint strength is dictated by three criteria: the number of unattached kinetochores, cell volume and cell fate. We show that the conserved AAA-ATPase, PCH-2/TRIP13, which remodels the checkpoint effector Mad2 from an active conformation to an inactive one, controls checkpoint strength in *C. elegans*. When we manipulate embryos to decrease cell volume, PCH-2 is no longer required for the spindle checkpoint or recruitment of Mad2 at unattached kinetochores. This role in checkpoint strength is not limited to large cells: the stronger checkpoint in germline precursor cells also depends on PCH-2. PCH-2 is enriched in germline precursor cells and this enrichment relies on conserved factors that induce asymmetry in the early embryo. Finally, the stronger checkpoint in germline precursor cells is regulated by CMT-1, the ortholog of p31^{comet}, which is required for both PCH-2's localization to unattached kinetochores and its enrichment in germline precursor cells. Thus, PCH-2, likely by regulating the availability of inactive Mad2 at and near unattached kinetochores, governs checkpoint strength. This role may be specifically relevant in scenarios where maintaining genomic stability is particularly challenging, such as in oocytes and early embryos enlarged for developmental competence and germline cells that maintain immortality.

INTRODUCTION

To prevent the missegregation of chromosomes and the production of daughter cells with an incorrect number of chromosomes, the spindle checkpoint (also called the spindle assembly checkpoint or the mitotic checkpoint) monitors whether chromosomes are attached to the spindle via kinetochores. If kinetochores fail to attach properly, this checkpoint delays the cell cycle to promote error correction and prevent aneuploidy. Despite its critical role, the duration of the cell cycle delay, defined as the strength of the spindle checkpoint, can be highly variable. This variability can be controlled by the number of unattached kinetochores (Collin *et al.*, 2013), cell volume (Galli and Morgan, 2016; Kyogoku and Kitajima, 2017), and cell fate (Galli and Morgan, 2016; Gerhold *et al.*, 2018).

The spindle checkpoint response initiates with the recruitment of Mad1 and Mad2 at unattached kinetochores (Chen *et al.*, 1996; Li and Benezra, 1996; Chen *et al.*, 1998; Sironi *et al.*, 2001), which catalyzes the production of a Mitotic Checkpoint Complex (MCC). The MCC enforces a checkpoint arrest by inhibiting the Anaphase Promoting Complex/Cyclosome (APC/C) and preventing cell cycle progression (Sudakin *et al.*, 2001). Formation of the MCC is driven by conformational changes in Mad2, which can exist in an open conformation (O-Mad2) or a closed conformation (C-Mad2) (Luo *et al.*, 2002; Sironi *et al.*, 2002; Luo *et al.*, 2004). Mad2 is in the closed conformation in the Mad1/Mad2 tetramer recruited to unattached kinetochores. C-Mad2 in the tetramer acts as a template to convert additional soluble O-Mad2 to C-Mad2, which can be assembled into the MCC (Sironi *et al.*, 2001; De Antoni *et al.*, 2005; Simonetta *et al.*, 2009; Fava *et al.*, 2011). Thus, unattached kinetochores act as a platform for MCC assembly. This soluble signal generated by unattached kinetochores effectively tunes the spindle

checkpoint response: the length of the cell cycle delay imposed by the checkpoint is

governed by the ratio of unattached kinetochores producing MCC, and its ability to inhibit

the APC, to cytoplasmic volume (Collin *et al.*, 2013; Dick and Gerlich, 2013; Galli and

Morgan, 2016; Kyogoku and Kitajima, 2017).

PCH-2/TRIP13 is a hexameric AAA+ ATPase that remodels HORMA domain-containing

proteins, a group that includes Mad2 (Aravind and Koonin, 1998; Rosenberg and

Corbett, 2015; Vader, 2015). Biochemical and structural studies have shown that PCH-2

converts C-Mad2 to O-Mad2 (Ye *et al.*, 2015; Brulotte *et al.*, 2017; Alfieri *et al.*, 2018).

TRIP13 works with the adaptor protein p31^{comet} to extract C-Mad2 from the MCC and

promote its disassembly, permitting the activation of the APC/C and silencing the

checkpoint (Eytan *et al.*, 2014; Wang *et al.*, 2014; Miniowitz-Shemtov *et al.*, 2015; Ye *et*

al., 2015; Brulotte *et al.*, 2017; Alfieri *et al.*, 2018). In addition to this role, we and others

have shown that PCH-2/TRIP13 is essential for spindle checkpoint activation in *C.*

elegans and mammalian cells (Nelson *et al.*, 2015; Ma and Poon, 2016; Yost *et al.*,

2017; Ma and Poon, 2018). PCH-2 is present at unattached kinetochores (Tipton *et al.*,

2012; Wang *et al.*, 2014; Nelson *et al.*, 2015) and is required to robustly localize Mad2,

but not Mad1, to unattached kinetochores (Nelson *et al.*, 2015; Yost *et al.*, 2017). A

major implication of this work is that O-Mad2 can be limiting during checkpoint activation

and PCH-2/TRIP13 plays a central role in ensuring its availability (Ma and Poon, 2018).

Based on a genetic interaction between the *C. elegans* ortholog of p31^{comet}, CMT-1, and

PCH-2, we had previously proposed that PCH-2 disassembles a CMT-1/Mad2 complex

to promote checkpoint signaling, similar to its role during checkpoint silencing (Nelson *et*

al., 2015). However, recent data from mammalian systems, in which loss of p31^{comet}

does not suppress the requirement for TRIP13 (Nelson *et al.*, 2015; Ma and Poon, 2016;

Yost *et al.*, 2017; Ma and Poon, 2018) and TRIP13's function becomes essential for

checkpoint activity only when O-Mad2 becomes limiting (Ma and Poon, 2018), suggest

an alternative model in *C. elegans*. In this model, some Mad2, likely C-Mad2, is

complexed with and stabilized by CMT-1, explaining the reduction in total Mad2 protein

levels in *cmt-1* mutants. Despite this reduction of Mad2, we propose that in the absence

of CMT-1, more O-Mad2 is available, thus making PCH-2 partially dispensable and

explaining the genetic suppression. This model differs from our understanding of TRIP13

and p31^{comet} in mammalian cells, potentially because relative levels of C and O-Mad2

may vary between systems and most Mad2 in mammalian cells is present as O-Mad2

(Luo *et al.*, 2004). Further, it highlights the importance of studying spindle checkpoint

function in developmentally-relevant model organisms.

This model, however, raises another question: if the primary role of PCH-2/TRIP13 is to

guarantee enough O-Mad2 is available for checkpoint activation and this role can be

dispensable when enough O-Mad2 is available, is there a reason for PCH-2/TRIP13 to

localize to unattached kinetochores (Tipton *et al.*, 2012; Wang *et al.*, 2014; Nelson *et al.*,

2015)? One possible answer comes from our additional analysis of *cmt-1* mutant worms.

In addition to its role as a PCH-2 adapter (Ye *et al.*, 2015) and stabilizing Mad2 protein

levels (Nelson *et al.*, 2015), CMT-1 is also required to localize PCH-2 to unattached

kinetochores during the spindle checkpoint response and generate a robust spindle

checkpoint response in AB cells (Nelson *et al.*, 2015). Overexpressing Mad2 does not

suppress the partial defect in spindle checkpoint activation in *cmt-1* mutants (Nelson *et*

al., 2015), suggesting that the defect in spindle checkpoint strength is not because of

reduced Mad2 protein levels but the inability to localize PCH-2 to unattached

kinetochores.

Here, we test this possibility and show that PCH-2 controls spindle checkpoint strength

in *C. elegans*. Despite being essential for the spindle checkpoint in the large somatic, or

AB, cell of the 2-cell embryo (Nelson *et al.*, 2015), PCH-2 becomes dispensable for the

spindle checkpoint and partially dispensable for Mad2 recruitment at unattached

kinetochores as AB cells are genetically manipulated to become smaller. The

requirement for PCH-2 in promoting spindle checkpoint strength is also observed as

cells decrease in size during embryogenesis and in germline precursor, or P_1, cells,

which have a stronger checkpoint than their somatic counterparts. PCH-2 is enriched in

P_1 cells and this enrichment depends on conserved regulators of embryonic polarity,

PAR-1 and PAR-6. Further, the stronger checkpoint in P_1 cells also relies on the *C.*

elegans ortholog of p31^{comet}, CMT-1, indicating that CMT-1's ability to enrich PCH-2 in P_1

cells, in addition to its role in localizing PCH-2 to unattached kinetochores, contributes to

a stronger checkpoint. We propose that PCH-2, and its mammalian ortholog TRIP13,

ensure a robust spindle checkpoint response and proper chromosome segregation by

regulating the availability of O-Mad2 at and near unattached kinetochores. This role may

be specifically relevant in scenarios where maintaining genomic stability is particularly

challenging, such as in oocytes and early embryos enlarged for developmental

competence and germline cells that maintain immortality.

RESULTS

PCH-2 becomes dispensable for the spindle checkpoint response in somatic cells

experimentally reduced in size

In the large somatic, or AB, cell of the *C. elegans* 2-cell embryo, PCH-2 is essential for

spindle checkpoint activation (Nelson *et al.*, 2015). To further assess the requirements

for PCH-2 function, we manipulated the cell volume of embryos, and thus AB cells,

experimentally by performing RNA interference (RNAi) against *ani-2*. *ani-2* encodes a

germline specific anillin whose depletion generates oocytes and, after fertilization,

embryos, of varying size (Maddox *et al.*, 2005) (Figure 1A). We monitored the length of

mitosis in these AB cells, using the time between nuclear envelope breakdown (NEBD)

to the onset of cortical contractility (OCC) as markers for the entry into and exit from

mitosis, respectively (Essex *et al.*, 2009). We then correlated the length of mitosis to

cytoplasmic volume. RNAi of *ani-2* did not affect cell cycle progression in control, *pch-2*,

or *mad-1* mutants (Figure S1A), indicating that reducing cytoplasmic volume did not

affect mitotic timing in AB cells. (In *C. elegans*, the genes that encode Mad1 and Mad2

are *mdf-1* and *mdf-2*, respectively. To avoid confusion, we will use *mad-1* and *mad-2*).

We performed double depletion of *ani-2* and *zyg-1* to induce the spindle checkpoint

response in control embryos, *pch-2*, and *mad-1* mutants. ZYG-1 is essential for

centrosome duplication and after the first embryonic division, its depletion generates

monopolar spindles (O'Connell *et al.*, 2001) and unattached kinetochores (Essex *et al.*,

2009) (Figure 1B). Consistent with previous reports, as AB cells decreased in cell

volume the length of the cell cycle delay, an indicator of spindle checkpoint strength,

increased in control embryos (Galli and Morgan, 2016; Gerhold *et al.*, 2018) (Figure 1C,

Videos 1 and 2). Surprisingly, as *pch-2* mutants decreased in size, the spindle

checkpoint response more closely resembled that of control AB cells than *mad-1*

mutants (Figure 1C, Videos 3 and 4). *mad-1* mutant embryos appear more sensitive to

ani-2 RNAi treatment and we had difficulty recovering any wild-type sized *mad-1*

embryos. There was no significant difference between the slopes of the regression

analysis of control and *pch-2* mutant data (p value = 0.4664), while the slopes between

the regression analysis of *pch-2* and *mad-1* mutant data were significantly different (p

value = 0.0007). To make these comparisons more clear, we binned our data. By our

measurements, control AB cells ranged from 5 to 6 x 10^3 μm^3. Therefore, we classified

AB cells which were more than 5 x 10^3 μm^3 as wildtype sized. The remaining cells, which

ranged from 1.5 x 10^3 μm^3 to 5 x 10^3 μm^3 were partitioned equally into two classes:

medium sized embryos were between 3.3 x 10^3 μm^3 and 5 x 10^3 μm^3 and small embryos

were between 1.5 x 10^3 μm^3 and 3.3 x 10^3 μm^3. When partitioned into these classes,

pch-2 mutants produced no checkpoint response in wildtype-sized AB cells, as

previously reported (Nelson *et al.*, 2015), defects in checkpoint strength in medium-sized

AB cells and a robust checkpoint response in small AB cells (Figure 1D).

We verified that the mitotic delay observed in *pch-2* AB cells was a legitimate spindle

checkpoint response by monitoring mitotic timing after performing double depletion of

ani-2 and *zyg-1* in *san-1* and *pch-2;san-1* mutant embryos. SAN-1 is the *C. elegans*

ortholog of the essential spindle checkpoint factor, Mad3 (Nystul *et al.*, 2003) (Figure

S1B). There was no significant difference between the slopes of the regression analysis

of *san-1* and *pch-2;san-1* data (p value = 0.8813) and the slopes of each model were not

statistically different than zero (Figure S1B). However, we observed a slight increase in

the length of the cell cycle as cells got smaller in *san-1* mutants, potentially reflecting

that the spindle checkpoint in *C. elegans* is composed of two independent branches

(Essex *et al.*, 2009). These data allow us to draw two important conclusions: 1) Since we

observe robust spindle checkpoint activation in *pch-2* mutant AB cells as they decrease

in size and mitotic timing is similar to what we observe in control cells, PCH-2 does not

appear to affect spindle checkpoint silencing in *C. elegans*; and 2) the requirement for

PCH-2 during spindle checkpoint activation is proportional to cell volume in AB cells with

monopolar spindles.

MAD-2 recruitment is partially restored to unattached kinetochores in *pch-2*

somatic cells experimentally reduced in size

We showed that PCH-2 is required for robust recruitment of Mad2 at unattached

kinetochores during spindle checkpoint activation in AB cells of 2-cell embryos (Nelson

et al., 2015). Therefore, we tested whether the checkpoint induced delay we observed in

small *ani-2^RNAi^;zyg-1^RNAi^;pch-2* AB cells was accompanied by increased recruitment of

GFP::MAD-2 at unattached kinetochores. We quantified GFP::MAD-2 recruitment at

unattached kinetochores in pseudo-metaphase in control animals and *pch-2* mutants

treated with *ani-2* and *zyg-1* RNAi (Figure 2A) and plotted GFP::MAD-2 fluorescence

against cell volume (Figure 2B). Surprisingly, the regression analysis for control AB cells

had a positive slope, suggesting that less GFP::MAD-2 is required at unattached

kinetochores for spindle checkpoint function as these cells became smaller (Figure 2B).

This was despite similar levels of soluble GFP::MAD2 around mitotic chromosomes after

NEBD in both genetic backgrounds (Figures S2A and S2B). We observed that the

regression analysis of GFP::MAD-2 fluorescence at unattached kinetochores in *pch-*

*2;ani-2^RNAi^;zyg-1^RNAi^* AB cells exhibited a negative slope, showing improved GFP::MAD-2

recruitment to unattached kinetochores as cells got smaller. However, the amount of

GFP::MAD-2 was typically lower in fluorescence intensity than *ani-2^RNAi^;zyg-1^RNAi^* control

cells (Figure 2B). Therefore, our experiments demonstrate that MAD-2 recruitment is

partially restored to unattached kinetochores in *pch-2* mutant somatic cells

experimentally reduced in size.

MAD-2 dosage controls checkpoint strength

C. elegans meiotic nuclei in the germline exist in a syncytium and cellularize after

completing meiotic prophase. Knockdown of *ani-2* affects this cellularization event,

resulting in a loss of cytoplasmic volume after nuclei are fully formed (Maddox *et al.*,

2005). MAD-2 is localized to the nucleus and nuclear envelope in these oocytes (Bohr *et*

al., 2015; Lawrence *et al.*, 2015) (Figure 3A). Since embryonic nuclear size is not

affected by *ani-2* RNAi (Figure S3), we reasoned that as cells are genetically

manipulated to decrease in cell volume, the absolute amount of Mad2 protein is likely to

remain constant but its concentration increases. Given that TRIP13 function is

dispensable for checkpoint activation when O-Mad2 is readily available in mammalian

cells (Ma and Poon, 2018), we reasoned that something similar might be happening in

C. elegans embryos. Specifically, we hypothesized that an increase in concentration of

Mad2, and O-Mad2 in particular, may explain the reduced requirement for PCH-2 in *ani-*

2^{RNAi};zyg-1^{RNAi} small AB cells (Figure 3B).

To test this possibility, we initially attempted to directly visualize O-Mad2 in *C. elegans*

embryos. Unfortunately, we were unable to perform this experiment with a commercial

antibody (data not shown). Further, we could not directly probe total Mad2 concentration

as cells decrease in volume upon treatment with *ani-2* RNAi because GFP::MAD-2 does

not localize to the nucleus and instead localizes in the cytoplasm until NEBD (Essex *et*

al., 2009; Nelson *et al.*, 2015), making it an inaccurate reporter for this assay. Instead,

we tested whether reducing Mad2 dosage affected checkpoint strength. We

hypothesized that if Mad2 concentration influences checkpoint strength, reducing it by

half should attenuate checkpoint strength in comparison to control animals. We

performed double depletion of *ani-2* and *zyg-1* by RNAi in *mad-2* heterozygotes. Indeed,

mad-2 heterozygotes exhibited stronger spindle checkpoint strength as cells became

smaller. However, the increase in spindle checkpoint strength was less robust than

control cells (Figure 3C). The slopes of the linear regressions for both control and *mad-2*

heterozygotes were significantly non-zero, unlike similar experiments with *mad-1* and

san-1 homozygotes (Figures 1B and S1D). Therefore, spindle checkpoint strength

depends on MAD-2 dosage.

We wondered whether the decrease in Mad2 protein levels might restore the reliance on

PCH-2 in small embryos. However, *pch-2;mad-2/+* double mutants exhibited a

substantial decrease in the production and viability of embryos, preventing us from

performing these experiments: *pch-2;mad-2/+* double mutants produced broods that

were 14% of control animals and only 1% of these embryos were viable. Further, *pch-*

2;mad-2 double mutants could not be recovered from *pch-2;mad-2/+* mothers, a genetic

interaction that we did not observe when we generated *pch-2;mad-1* double mutants

(Bohr *et al.*, 2015) or *pch-2;san-1* double mutants (Figure S1B). Worms with mutations in

some spindle checkpoint mutants often display defects in fertility, viability and

development (Kitagawa and Rose, 1999; Stein *et al.*, 2007; Lara-Gonzalez *et al.*, 2019).

Thus, in addition to MAD-2 dosage controlling checkpoint strength, it collaborates with

PCH-2 to promote *C. elegans* fertility and viability.

PCH-2 affects spindle checkpoint strength during embryogenesis

During embryogenesis, cell volume decreases and spindle checkpoint strength

increases (Galli and Morgan, 2016; Gerhold *et al.*, 2018). Given that the requirement for

PCH-2 is proportional to cell volume in 2-cell embryos treated with *ani-2* RNAi, we

assessed the role for PCH-2 in spindle checkpoint activation as cells decreased in size

during normal embryogenesis.

We permeabilized embryos by performing *perm-1* RNAi (Carvalho *et al.*, 2011) and

activated the spindle checkpoint by treating these *perm-1^RNAi* embryos with nocodazole,

a drug that depolymerizes microtubules. Since we could not reliably visualize OCC in

these dividing embryos, we measured mitotic timing from nuclear envelope break down

(NEBD) to decondensation of chromosomes (DECON) in cells of the AB lineage. These

cells in control embryos exhibited a longer mitotic delay in 16-cell than in 4-cell embryos

(Figure 4A), verifying that the spindle checkpoint increases in strength as cells decrease

in volume during embryogenesis (Galli and Morgan, 2016; Gerhold *et al.*, 2018). As a

control, we performed the same experiment in *san-1* mutants and did not detect a mitotic

delay when these embryos were treated with nocodazole (Figure 4A). Cells in 4-cell *pch-*

2 mutant embryos treated with nocodazole resembled *san-1* mutants (Figure 4A).

However, cells in the AB lineage in 16-cell *pch-2* mutant embryos treated with

nocodazole exhibited a significant cell cycle delay when compared to similar cells in *pch-*

2 mutants treated with DMSO and *san-1* mutants treated with nocodazole. These delays

were not as prolonged as that observed in control embryos treated with nocodazole

(Figure 4A). Thus, as cells of the AB lineage naturally decrease in cell size to 16 cell

embryos, *pch-2* mutants treated with nocodazole delay the cell cycle but exhibit defects

in spindle checkpoint strength.

Given our hypothesis that Mad2 dosage might contribute to spindle checkpoint strength,

particularly in *pch-2* mutants, we tested if a subtle increase in MAD-2 protein levels

would suppress the defect in spindle checkpoint function or strength in *pch-2* mutant

embryos. The presence of a GFP::MAD-2 transgene, in addition to endogenous MAD-2,

results in about 2.5 times more MAD-2 in worms. This slight overexpression generates a

normal spindle checkpoint response in control AB cells and can bypass the requirement

for checkpoint components MAD-3 or BUB-3 (Essex et al., 2009), but not PCH-2 (Nelson

et al., 2015) in AB cells of 2-cell embryos with monopolar spindles. Overexpression of

MAD-2 did not affect the checkpoint response in 16-cell *pch-2* embryos (Figure 4B).

However, in contrast to our results in 4-cell *pch-2* mutant embryos treated with

nocodazole (Figure 4A), we found that overexpression of MAD-2 in cells of the AB

lineage of 4-cell *pch-2* embryos produced cell cycle delays when compared to the same

cells in embryos treated with DMSO. Again, these delays were not as dramatic as

control cells overexpressing GFP::MAD-2 (Figure 4B) but were significant, allowing us to

conclude that slight overexpression of Mad2 partially restores checkpoint function to

pch-2 mutants as cells of the AB lineage decrease in size during embryogenesis, at least

in 4-cell embryos.

Given that we activated the spindle checkpoint in *ani-2^{RNAi}* embryos by generating

monopolar spindles (Figures 1C and 3C), we also tested whether embryos with

monopolar spindles might behave differently than embryos treated with nocodazole,

particularly in very early embryogenesis. We used a fast acting temperature sensitive

allele of *zyg-1* (*zyg-1^{ts}*) (O'Rourke *et al.*, 2011) to activate the spindle checkpoint in

developing embryos with 2, 4 and 8 cells. We shifted embryos at different stages of

development, verified the appearance of monopolar spindles and measured mitotic

timing from NEBD to DECON. In control *zyg-1^{ts}* mutant embryos, we observed a delay in

mitotic timing in cells from the AB lineage and this delay only became marginally longer

as embryos had more cells (Figure 4C), similar to previous reports (Gerhold *et al.*,

2018). In stark contrast to our *ani-2^{RNAi}* experiments, the mitotic timing observed in *pch-*

2;zyg-1^{ts} mutant embryos was the same in AB cells of 2-cell, 4-cell and 8-cell embryos

and significantly reduced in comparison to *zyg-1^{ts}* embryos. Thus, similar to our results

with 4-cell *pch-2* mutant embryos treated with nocodazole, *pch-2* mutants exhibit no cell

cycle delay in the presence of monopolar spindles in AB cells in 2-cell, 4-cell and 8-cell

embryos. However, additional considerations may make direct comparisons between our

ani-2^{RNAi};zyg-1^{RNAi} experiments and *zyg-1^{ts}* embryos difficult (see Discussion).

PCH-2 is responsible for the stronger spindle checkpoint in the germline lineage

Cell fate is another important determinant of spindle checkpoint strength. In *C. elegans* embryos, the spindle checkpoint is stronger in germline precursor cells than similarly sized somatic counterparts (Galli and Morgan, 2016; Gerhold *et al.*, 2018). However, as we observed with AB cells (Nelson *et al.*, 2015), PCH-2 is essential for the spindle checkpoint in wildtype-sized P_1 cells (Figure S4). Therefore, having established that PCH-2 becomes dispensable for the spindle checkpoint as 2-cell embryos are genetically manipulated to become smaller (Figures 1C and D), we tested whether PCH-2 contributed to the stronger spindle checkpoint in P_1 cells of 2-cell embryos treated with *ani-2* RNAi (Figures 5 and S4B). Consistent with other reports (Galli and Morgan, 2016; Gerhold *et al.*, 2018), when we performed double depletion of *ani-2* and *zyg-1* in control embryos and monitored mitotic timing, we observed P_1 cells with similar volumes as AB cells exhibiting a longer cell cycle delay (Figures 5A and S4B, Videos 5 and 6). Further, the regression analysis that best fit control P_1 data is significantly different and steeper than that of control AB cells (p value < 0.0001), indicating that variables in addition to cell volume contribute to the spindle checkpoint strength in germline precursor cells. When we knocked down both *ani-2* and *zyg-1* in *pch-2* mutant embryos, we no longer observed a significant difference (p value = 0.9096) between the slopes of the regression analysis of P_1 and AB cells (Figures 5B and S4B, Videos 7 and 8), indicating that PCH-2 is responsible for the stronger checkpoint in P_1 cells.

We observed that cell cycle timing was faster in *pch-2* mutant P_1 cells than similarly sized *pch-2* mutant AB cells after treatment with *ani-2* and *zyg-1* RNAi (Figures 5B and S4B). We wondered if embryonic germline precursor cells might rely on some spindle checkpoint proteins for normal mitotic timing, analogous to mitotically dividing stem cells in the *C. elegans* germline (Gerhold *et al.*, 2015) and similar to mammalian cultured cells

(Meraldi *et al.*, 2004; Rodriguez-Bravo *et al.*, 2014; Ma and Poon, 2016). To address

this, we measured normal mitotic timing in AB and P_1 cells of both control and *pch-*

2 mutant embryos. We found that while normal mitotic timing is unaffected by mutation of

pch-2 in AB cells, *pch-2* mutant P_1 cells go through mitosis significantly faster than

control P_1 cells (Figure 5C), thus providing an explanation for the faster cell cycle timing

in *pch-2* mutant P_1 cells with the same cell volume as *pch-2* mutant AB cells after

treatment with *ani-2* and *zyg-1* RNAi. We saw a decrease in the cell cycle timing of P_1

cells in *mad-1* mutants but this was not significantly different than control P_1 cells (Figure

5C).

PCH-2's enrichment in P_1 cells depends on PAR-1 and PAR-6

Cell fate is driven by the asymmetric distribution of various determinants between

somatic and germline lineages during early divisions of the *C. elegans* embryo (Rose

and Gonczy, 2014). Since we found that PCH-2 promoted the spindle checkpoint

strength in both AB and P_1 cells, but even more dramatically in P_1 cells, we asked if

PCH-2 was regulated differently between these cells. First, we tested whether PCH-

2::GFP could also support the stronger checkpoint in P_1 cells. We treated embryos

expressing PCH-2::GFP with *zyg-1* RNAi and evaluated mitotic timing in both AB and P_1

cells, in control cells and in the presence of monopolar spindles, using chromosome

decondensation as a marker for mitotic exit. P_1 cells expressing PCH-2::GFP had full

checkpoint function, exhibiting a mitotic delay longer than AB cells also expressing PCH-

2::GFP (Figure 6A).

Previous transcriptome analysis of PCH-2 did not reveal asymmetric enrichment of PCH-

2 mRNA between AB and P_1 cells (Tintori *et al.*, 2016). We tested whether PCH-2::GFP

exhibited differences in protein levels between AB and P_1 cells. First, we assessed

whether PCH-2::GFP was more enriched in pseudo-metaphase at unattached

kinetochores in P_1 than AB cells. We quantified PCH-2::GFP fluorescence at unattached

kinetochores in both AB and P_1 cells of embryos treated with *zyg-1* RNAi but did not

detect any difference between the two cell types (Figures S5A and B). Similarly, we did

not detect any difference in GFP::MAD-2 recruitment at unattached kinetochores

between AB and P_1 cells in *zyg-1*^{RNAi} embryos (Figures S5C and D).

Checkpoint factors, including MAD-2 and PCH-2, form a diffuse "cloud" around mitotic

chromosomes after NEBD, even during normal cell cycles (Essex *et al.*, 2009; Nelson *et*

al., 2015). We wondered if PCH-2::GFP fluorescence in this cloud might be different

between AB and P_1 cells. First, we verified that PCH-2::GFP fluorescence around mitotic

chromosomes was similar between AB cells during unperturbed (control) or monopolar

mitosis (*zyg-1*^{RNAi}) (Figure S6). PCH-2::GFP fluorescence around chromosomes was

significantly higher in *zyg-1*^{RNAi} AB cells than control AB cells (Figure S6B). However, we

noticed that the area occupied by PCH-2::GFP in control AB cells was significantly larger

than that of *zyg-1*^{RNAi} AB cells (yellow dashed circle in Figure S6A and quantified in

Figure S6C). When we factored this larger area of PCH-2::GFP fluorescence into our

analysis, we observed a similar amount of PCH-2::GFP around mitotic chromosomes in

both control and *zyg-1*^{RNAi} AB cells (Figure S6D).

Having established that AB cells had similar amounts of PCH-2::GFP whether the

checkpoint was active or not, we quantified PCH-2::GFP fluorescence in the area around

mitotic chromosomes in AB and P_1 cells during unperturbed cell cycles. Similar to AB

cells (Nelson *et al.*, 2015) and Figure S6A), we observed PCH-2::GFP enriched in the

area around the chromosomes in prometaphase in P_1 cells (Figure 6B). When we

quantified the fluorescence of PCH-2::GFP in this area surrounding chromosomes after

NEBD in both AB and P_1 cells, we detected a statistically significant enrichment of PCH-

2::GFP in the area surrounding chromosomes in P_1 cells (Figure 6C) but not in the

cytoplasm of P_1 cells (Figures S7A and B). Although this enrichment is limited to a

"cloud" around mitotic chromosomes (see Figure S7B), we verified that this enrichment

was not the indirect consequence of the smaller volume of P_1 cells by quantifying PCH-

2::GFP fluorescence in $gpr-1/2^{RNAi}$ embryos. This double knockdown equalizes the size

of AB and P_1 cells without affecting their cell fate (Colombo *et al.*, 2003; Gotta *et al.*,

2003; Srinivasan *et al.*, 2003). RNAi of $gpr-1/2$ showed variability in the effect on AB and

P_1 cell size (Figure S7C). However, when we limited our analysis of PCH-2::GFP

fluorescence to embryos in which AB and P_1 cells were of similar area (red symbols in

Figure S7C), we observed a similar enrichment of PCH-2::GFP in P_1 cells as control

embryos (Figures S7D and E).

To better understand the relationship between PCH-2 enrichment in P_1 cells and cell

fate, we abrogated the asymmetry of the 2-cell embryo by performing RNAi against the

essential polarity factors, PAR-1 (Guo and Kemphues, 1995) and PAR-6 (Hung and

Kemphues, 1999). These factors antagonize each other, with PAR-6 at the anterior

cortex and PAR-1 at the posterior cortex of early embryos, to establish asymmetries

during the first two embryonic divisions (Goldstein and Macara, 2007). In both $par-1^{RNAi}$

and $par-6^{RNAi}$ mutant embryos, AB and P_1 cells exhibit similar checkpoint strength

(Gerhold *et al.*, 2018), indicating that the stronger spindle checkpoint response in P_1

cells depends on this asymmetric division. Despite the loss of cell fate in $par-1^{RNAi}$ and

$par-6^{RNAi}$ embryos, we will refer to the anterior blastomere as "AB" and the posterior as

"P_1". We verified the efficiency of $par-1$ and $par-6$ RNAi by measuring cell area and

found that AB and P_1 cells approached similar sizes in both conditions (Figures S8A and

B), although AB cells were still significantly larger than P_1 cells in *par-1^{RNAi}* mutant

embryos (Figure S8A). We quantified PCH-2::GFP fluorescence in the area around

chromosomes in AB and P_1 cells after *par-1* RNAi and observed that the fluorescence of

PCH-2::GFP, despite being slightly lower in P_1 cells, was not significantly different

between AB and P_1 cells, unlike what we observed in embryos exposed to control RNAi

(Figures 6D and E). AB and P_1 cells treated with *par-6* RNAi showed equal PCH-2::GFP

fluorescence (Figures S8C and D). Therefore, PCH-2::GFP's enrichment around mitotic

chromosomes in P_1 cells depends on the conserved factors that induce embryonic

asymmetry and germline cell fate, PAR-1 and PAR-6.

The stronger checkpoint in P_1 cells depends on CMT-1

In vitro, the *C. elegans* ortholog of p31^{comet}, CMT-1, is required for PCH-2 to bind and

remodel Mad2 (Ye *et al.*, 2015). In addition to this role, CMT-1 is also required to localize

PCH-2 to unattached kinetochores and generate a robust spindle checkpoint response

in AB cells (Nelson *et al.*, 2015). Therefore, we reasoned that CMT-1 might also be

required for the stronger checkpoint in P_1 cells.

To test this possibility, we first performed double knockdown of *ani-2* and *zyg-1* in *cmt-1*

mutants and monitored the length of the spindle checkpoint response as AB and P_1 cells

became smaller (Figure 7A, Videos 9-12). When compared to the regression model for

control AB cells (opaque blue line in Figure 7A), we saw that *cmt-1* AB cells consistently

exhibit a weaker checkpoint at all cell volumes. Similar to *pch-2;ani-2^{RNAi};zyg-1^{RNAi}*

mutants (Figure 5B), the stronger spindle checkpoint response in P_1 cells was lost in

cmt-1;ani-2^{RNAi};zyg-1^{RNAi} mutants and we did not observe any statistical difference

between the between the slopes of the regression analysis of P_1 and AB cells (p value =

0.9403). We also observed that cell cycle timing was faster in *cmt-1* P_1 cells that were

similar in volume to *cmt-1* AB cells (Figure 7A). Thus, CMT-1 is also essential to

promote spindle checkpoint strength in germline precursor cells.

We also performed *zyg-1* RNAi on control and *cmt-1* mutant embryos and monitored

mitotic timing in both AB and P_1 cells. AB and P_1 cells of control and *cmt-1* mutant

embryos treated with control RNAi had similar mitotic timing. Unlike similar experiments

in *pch-2* mutants (Figure 5C), we did not detect a statistically significant difference

between cell cycle time in P_1 cells between wildtype and *cmt-1* mutants embryos (Figure

7B), suggesting that *ani-2^{RNAi};zyg-1^{RNAi}* embryos might be more sensitive to subtle

perturbations in cell cycle timing. In *zyg-1^{RNAi}* embryos, P_1 cells exhibited a stronger

checkpoint response than AB cells (Figure 7B). By contrast, both AB and P_1 cells in *cmt-*

1;*zyg-1^{RNAi}* mutant embryos exhibited similar spindle checkpoint delays (Figure 7B).

Despite having spindle checkpoint responses that were less robust than that of control

zyg-1^{RNAi} embryos, AB and P_1 cells in *cmt-1* mutant embryos treated with *zyg-1* RNAi

spent significantly longer in mitosis than *cmt-1* mutant embryos treated with control RNAi

(Figure 7B), indicating that they activated a weaker spindle checkpoint response, similar

to our published results (Nelson *et al.*, 2015). More importantly, *cmt-1*;*zyg-1^{RNAi}* mutant

embryos failed to generate a stronger checkpoint in P_1 cells, consistent with *cmt-1;ani-*

2^{RNAi};zyg-1^{RNAi} experiments (Figure 7A).

Aside from localizing PCH-2 to unattached kinetochores (Nelson *et al.*, 2015), we

wondered if CMT-1 was required for any other aspects of PCH-2 regulation. Therefore,

we tested whether CMT-1 was necessary for PCH-2's asymmetric enrichment in P_1

cells. We quantified PCH-2::GFP fluorescence in prometaphase in the area around

chromosomes in both *cmt-1* mutant AB and P_1 cells (Figure 7C). First, we found that

PCH-2::GFP fluorescence was slightly higher in AB cells in *cmt-1* mutants than control

embryos (Figure 7D). We saw a similar result in our *par-1* RNAi experiments, although in

both cases these increases were not statistically significant. However, unlike *par-1*[RNAi]

embryos (Gerhold *et al.*, 2018), this increase in PCH-2::GFP was not accompanied by

an increase in checkpoint strength (Figure 7B), consistent with our hypothesis that the

weaker checkpoint in *cmt-1* AB cells is a consequence of PCH-2's absence from

unattached kinetochores (Nelson *et al.*, 2015). Further, when we compared the

quantification of PCH-2::GFP fluorescence in *cmt-1* mutant AB and P_1 cells (Figure 7C),

we did not detect a significant difference between the two cells (Figure 7D), unlike our

experiment in control embryos (Figures 6B and C), indicating that CMT-1 contributes to

the asymmetric enrichment of PCH-2 in P_1 cells. Thus, CMT-1 promotes spindle

checkpoint strength through two mechanisms: localizing PCH-2 to unattached

kinetochores and ensuring its enrichment in germline precursor cells.

DISCUSSION

The role of PCH-2, and its mammalian ortholog TRIP13, in the spindle checkpoint has

been enigmatic. Originally identified as a checkpoint silencing factor (Eytan *et al.*, 2014;

Wang *et al.*, 2014; Miniowitz-Shemtov *et al.*, 2015; Ye *et al.*, 2015; Brulotte *et al.*, 2017;

Alfieri *et al.*, 2018), more recent evidence also indicates a role in promoting the

checkpoint response (Nelson *et al.*, 2015; Ma and Poon, 2016; Yost *et al.*, 2017; Ma and

Poon, 2018). It's clear that the reliance on PCH-2/TRIP13 in checkpoint activation

reflects the relative levels and availability of O-Mad2 (Ma and Poon, 2018). We show

here that PCH-2 also controls checkpoint strength. Surprisingly, we can uncouple PCH-

2's requirement for checkpoint activation, which we detect in both AB and P_1 cells of

wildtype sized 2-cell embryos (Nelson *et al.*, 2015 and Figure S4), from the requirement

for spindle checkpoint strength, which we observe when we genetically manipulate cell

size of 2-cell embryos by *ani-2* RNAi (Figures 1C and 5B). Based on this, we propose

that PCH-2 regulates checkpoint strength not only by regulating O-Mad2 availability, but

by doing so specifically at and near unattached kinetochores, providing an unanticipated

mechanism to explain this phenomenon (Figure 8). This role in checkpoint strength

appears to be particularly important in large cells, such as oocytes and cells in early

embryos, as well as cells that give rise to immortal germ cells.

Our model assumes that 2-cell embryos have a significant amount of O-Mad2 available,

even when PCH-2 function is lost (Figure 8), unlike what is reported in mammalian cells

(Ma and Poon, 2016). Given that this is a developmental system in which embryos have

only undergone a single mitotic division before we perform our assays, we propose that

O-Mad2 is not limiting in very early embryos, even in *pch-2* null mutants. In this way, *C.*

elegans 2-cell embryos would be analogous to mammalian cells undergoing cell division

soon after acute depletion of TRIP13 (Ma and Poon, 2018). Unfortunately, we were

unable to directly probe O-Mad2 concentration or its availability at or near unattached

kinetochores in small *ani-2^{RNAi}* embryos or germline precursor cells. However, we think

that several pieces of data support our model (Figure 8). PCH-2's characterized

biochemical activity regulates the availability of O-Mad2 (Ye *et al.*, 2015; Brulotte *et al.*,

2017; Alfieri *et al.*, 2018), making this the likely mechanism through which PCH-2

regulates checkpoint strength. PCH-2 at unattached kinetochores in AB and P_1 cells

(Nelson *et al.*, 2015 and Figure 7B) and its enrichment around mitotic chromosomes in

P_1 cells (Figures 5A and 6C) correlates with a stronger checkpoint. The loss of PCH-2 or

this enrichment produces similar checkpoint strength between AB and P_1 cells (Gerhold

et al., 2018 and Figures 1C, 5B, 6E, S7D, 7A and 7D). Indeed, the equalization of PCH-

2::GFP between AB and P_1 cells that we observe in *par-1^{RNAi}* and *par-6^{RNAi}* embryos

(Figures 6E and S8D) is entirely consistent with the observation that in these mutants,

AB cells more closely resemble P_1 cells in spindle checkpoint strength (Gerhold et al.,

2018). Finally, checkpoint strength depends on Mad2 dosage (Figure 2C), particularly in

AB cells of 4-cell *pch-2* mutant embryos (Figure 4B).

Another prediction of our model is that overexpression of Mad2 should also make PCH-2

dispensable for spindle checkpoint activation. We've shown that subtle elevations of

Mad2 protein levels introduce a cell cycle delay in AB cells of 4-cell embryos treated with

nocodazole but not those treated with DMSO (Figure 4B), entirely consistent with our

model. However, it's not clear why we do not observe a similar effect in cells of the AB

lineage of 8-cell or 16-cell embryos that overexpress Mad2 (Figure 4B). Unfortunately,

more dramatic overexpression experiments are technically difficult in *C. elegans*.

Further, it's likely that strong overexpression of Mad2 in *C. elegans* embryos will delay

normal mitosis, consistent with similar findings in mammalian cells (Marks *et al.*, 2017)

and budding yeast (Mariani *et al.*, 2012). In this way, PCH-2's function may provide a

useful buffer: Since Mad2 protein levels may need to stay within a narrow range to allow

normal mitotic timing, PCH-2's localization at and near unattached kinetochores provide

a mechanism to increase O-Mad2's local concentration to promote effective and efficient

signaling during checkpoint activation.

The requirement for PCH-2 in spindle checkpoint strength is also seen as AB cells

normally decrease in volume during embryogenesis (Figure 4A), although not as

dramatically as when we genetically manipulate cell size (Figure 1C). The inconsistency

between our *ani-2* and embryogenesis experiments could be explained by a variety of

factors. O-Mad2 may eventually become limiting in cells of the AB lineage with

successive divisions after the 2-cell stage, resulting in a greater reliance on PCH-2

function. Moreover, it may also suggest that relative levels of O-Mad2 and C-Mad2 are

more stringently regulated as embryonic development progresses and the multi-cellular

embryo becomes more complex. This possibility is supported by our finding that PCH-2

regulates normal cell cycle timing in P_1 cells, but not AB cells (Figure 5C), which implies

that variations in O-Mad2/C-Mad2 ratios influence normal mitotic timing in cells with

specific developmental fates. In addition, unlike the nuclei of 2-cell embryos treated with

ani-2^{RNAi} (Figure S3), nuclear volume scales with cell volume during embryogenesis

(Gerhold *et al.*, 2018). Therefore, the concentration of Mad2 may not necessarily

increase as cell size decreases in cells of the developing embryo, making direct

comparisons between small cells obtained by *ani-2^{RNAi}* treatment and small cells

resulting from normal embryogenesis challenging. Finally, recent reports have indicated

that, during embryogenesis in other systems, cell volume may not be a major contributor

to spindle checkpoint strength (Chenevert *et al.*, 2019; Vazquez-Diez *et al.*, 2019).

Indeed, in *C. elegans*, when only AB cells are monitored during very early

embryogenesis (the 2-8 cell stage), they exhibit very minor increases, if any, in

checkpoint strength (Galli and Morgan, 2016; Gerhold *et al.*, 2018 and Figure 4). This

may suggest that cell fate is generally a more important determinant of spindle

checkpoint strength during normal embryogenesis, potentially reconciling reports from a

wide array of systems.

Our experiments identify CMT-1, the *C. elegans* ortholog of mammalian p31^{comet}, as an

important regulator of PCH-2 function and, as a result, checkpoint strength. In addition to

its requirement in facilitating PCH-2's ability to interact with its substrate, Mad2

(Miniowitz-Shemtov *et al.*, 2015; Ye *et al.*, 2015; Brulotte *et al.*, 2017; Alfieri *et al.*, 2018),

CMT-1 localizes PCH-2 to unattached kinetochores (Nelson *et al.*, 2015) and promotes

PCH-2's enrichment in P_1 cells (Figure 7D). We propose that both of these roles

contribute to checkpoint strength. In large AB cells, CMT-1 ensures PCH-2's presence at

unattached kinetochores, increasing the local concentration of O-Mad2, driving the

production of soluble C-Mad2 and MCC and enforcing a robust checkpoint (Figure 8A).

In P_1 cells, the combination of PCH-2's localization at kinetochores and its enrichment

around chromosomes and near unattached kinetochores produces a checkpoint

stronger than somatic cells (Figure 8C). It's striking that, when CMT-1 is absent, AB

cells, in which there is more PCH-2 (Figure 7D), and P_1 cells, which are slightly smaller

than AB cells, exhibit similar checkpoint strength (Figure 7B). This indicates that even

these cells depend on PCH-2 to be present at unattached kinetochores to increase the

local concentration of O-Mad2 and promote checkpoint strength.

P_1 cells in both $pch-2;ani-2^{RNAi};zyg-1^{RNAi}$ and $cmt-1;ani-2^{RNAi};zyg-1^{RNAi}$ mutants show

faster cell cycle timing than similarly sized AB cells of the same genotype (Figures 5B

and 7A). However, only $pch-2$ mutants significantly affect cell cycle timing in unperturbed

P_1 cells, (Figure 5C); P_1 cells in $cmt-1$ and $mad-1$ mutants show accelerated cell cycle

timing but this is not significantly faster than control (Figures 5C and 7B). Further, we

don't detect significant acceleration of the cell cycle in P_1 cells of $pch-2;zyg-1^{RNAi}$ or $mad-$

$1;zyg-1^{RNAi}$ mutant embryos (Figure S4 and 7B). Given the rapidity of cell cycles in these

early embryos, it's possible that $ani-2^{RNAi};zyg-1^{RNAi}$ experiments provide greater

sensitivity to observe subtle accelerations in cell cycle timing and that some subset of

spindle checkpoint components, including PCH-2, CMT-1, MAD-1 and MAD-2 regulate

normal cell cycle timing in germline precursor cells, similar to the role of MAD-1 and

MAD-2 in germline mitotic nuclei (Gerhold $et\ al.$, 2015). Unfortunately, we cannot test

this with MAD-1 or MAD-2 since $mad-1$ and $mad-2$ mutants abolish the spindle

checkpoint response in $ani-2^{RNAi};zyg-1^{RNAi}$ embryos (Gerhold $et\ al.$, 2015) and Figure

1C). An alternative hypothesis that we do not favor is that only PCH-2 regulates cell

cycle timing in P_1 cells, in a mechanism independent of other spindle checkpoint

proteins.

Evolutionary analysis across phyla have revealed a close co-evolutionary relationship

between PCH-2 and its orthologs and HORMA domain containing proteins, including

CMT-1 and Mad2 (Vleugel *et al.*, 2012; van Hooff *et al.*, 2017). However, some

organisms that rely on the templated conversion of O-Mad2 to C-Mad2 to assemble the

MCC, such as budding and fission yeasts (Nezi *et al.*, 2006; Chao *et al.*, 2012) either

don't express their PCH-2 ortholog during mitosis (budding yeast) (San-Segundo and

Roeder, 1999) or don't have a PCH-2 ortholog in their genome (fission yeast) (Wu and

Burgess, 2006). This is potentially explained by cell volume: Both budding and fission

yeasts are two orders of magnitude smaller than mammalian cells and *C. elegans*

embryos. They also undergo closed mitosis, in which the nuclear envelope does not

break down, providing an additional opportunity to concentrate factors required for

mitosis. We propose that recruiting O-Mad2 to unattached kinetochores may not present

as great a challenge in these significantly smaller cells, making a factor required to

increase the local concentration of O-Mad2 at unattached kinetochores unnecessary.

An obvious question our experiments raise is how PCH-2 is enriched in P_1 cells.

Germline precursor cells are transcriptionally silent until gastrulation (Seydoux *et al.*,

1996) and sequencing of mRNA in early embryos shows that both CMT-1 and PCH-2

mRNA are not enriched in germline precursor cells (Tintori *et al.*, 2016), indicating that

enrichment of PCH-2 is likely to occur at the level of protein regulation. Understanding

this regulation, its control by developmental events and its effect on the relative levels of

O-Mad2 and C-Mad2 in different cell types promises to be an exciting area of

investigation.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Worms strains

640 The *C. elegans* Bristol N2 (Brenner, 1974) was used as the wild-type strain. Most strains

641 were maintained at 20°C, except for *zyg-1(or297)* strains, which were maintained at

642 15°C. See Table S1 for the list of all the strains used in this study.

Immunostaining

Immunostaining was performed on adult worms 48h after L4, as described in (Bhalla and

Dernburg, 2005). The antibodies used were rabbit anti-MAD-2 (1/500; (Essex *et al.*,

2009) and mouse anti-MAb414 (1/400; (Davis and Blobel, 1986). Secondary antibodies

were Alexa Fluor 488 anti-rabbit (Invitrogen) and Cy3 anti-mouse (Jackson

ImmunoResearch Laboratories, Inc.) diluted at 1:500. Antibody against MAD-2 was a gift

from A. Desai (Ludwig Institute/University of California, San Diego, La Jolla, CA).

Images were acquired on a DeltaVision Personal DV microscope (GE Healthcare)

equipped with a 100× NA 1.40 oil-immersion objective (Olympus), a short ARC xenon

lamp (GE Healthcare) and using a CoolSNAP charge-coupled camera (Roper Scientific).

Z-stacks were collected at 0.2 μm Z-spacing and processed by constrained, iterative

deconvolution. Imaging, image scaling, and analysis were performed using functions in

the softWoRx software package (GE Healthcare). Projections were calculated by a

maximum intensity algorithm. Composite images were assembled and some false

coloring was performed with Fiji.

Live imaging of 2-cell embryos

For live imaging of 2-cell embryos, worms were dissected on glass coverslips in egg

buffer and then mounted on 2% agar pads. Images were acquired every 1 minute or 20

seconds on a DeltaVision Personal DV microscope as described in the previous section;

except that the distance between two planes was 2 µm. Mitotic timing was measured

from NEBD to OCC as described in (Nelson *et al.*, 2015). Cell volumes were measured

as described in (Galli and Morgan, 2016). To measure the nuclear area, a sum

projection of the embryo was generated 1 minute before chromosomes began to

condense and the area was measured with Fiji (Figure S3A).

Live imaging of embryogenesis

After treatment with *perm-1^{RNAi}* (see below), worms were dissected onto a coverslip with

egg salt buffer (118 mM NaCl, 48 mM KCl) supplemented with 10 mM PIPES pH 7.3, 1

mM ATP and 10 mM sucrose. Embryos and adult carcasses were transferred into a well

of an 8-well plate (ibidi 1 µ-Slide 8 Well Glass bottom) that had been freshly coated with

0.1% Poly-L-Lysine solution (Sigma P8920) and extensively washed. Time-lapse videos

were acquired with a Solamere spinning disk confocal system piloted by µManager

software (Edelstein *et al.*, 2014) and equipped with a Yokogawa CSUX-1 scan head, a

Nikon (Garden City, NY) TE2000-E inverted stand, a Hamamatsu ImageEM ×2 camera,

LX/MAS 489 nm and LS/MAS 561 nm laser, and Plan Apo ×60/1.4 numerical aperture

oil objective. Acquisition times per frame were 50 ms using 5% of the lasers power for

both channels, and images were obtained as stacks of planes at 2 µm intervals taken

every 1 minute. Nocodazole was added from a 5X stock to a final concentration of 50 µM

after the first time point. Mitotic timing was measured from NEBD to DECON as

described in (Essex *et al.*, 2009).

To image embryogenesis in *zyg-1(or297)* mutants, images were generated under the

same conditions as previously described for the live imaging of 2-cell embryos with a few

modifications: Images were acquired every 20 seconds on a DeltaVision Personal DV

microscope in a room heated to 26°C. Mitotic timing was measured from NEBD to

DECON as described in (Essex *et al.*, 2009).

Quantification of fluorescence intensity

To quantify GFP::MAD-2 and PCH-2::GFP levels, images were generated under the

same conditions as previously described for the live imaging of 2-cell embryos with a few

modifications: only the area defined by the GFP cloud and mitotic chromosomes was

imaged, the interval between the four planes was 1 μm and images were collected every

20 seconds. Quantification of fluorescence at kinetochores was performed in Fiji as

described in (Moyle *et al.*, 2014; Nelson *et al.*, 2015). Briefly, maximum intensity

projections of both mCh::H2B and GFP fusion proteins were made after the pseudo-

metaphase plate was generated. The image was rotated so the metaphase plate was

vertical, channels were split, and the maximum GFP pixel was identified using the

process function within a box on the unattached side of the metaphase plate. In the

same x-plane, the maximum mCh::H2B pixel was found. The width was changed to 12

pixels and the maximum GFP signal intensity was recorded in this 12 pixel window

centered at the mCherry maxima. The background GFP signal was calculated by taking

the average GFP intensity of a 4 pixel box in the same x-plane, 8 pixels away from the

maximum mCherry on the opposite side of the pseudo-metaphase plate to the maximum

GFP (i.e. the attached side). This background GFP was then subtracted from the

maximum to measure the kinetochore bound GFP fusion intensity. Fluorescence around

mitotic chromosomes was quantified as described in (Galli and Morgan, 2016). Sum

intensity projections were generated and fluorescence in the area around mitotic

chromosomes was measured in Fiji. Background fluorescence was measured in a 30

pixel band around this "cloud" and subtracted from the initial fluorescence intensity to

determine the final fluorescence value. In some of our movies, identifying a clear

metaphase plate was more difficult in AB than P_1 cells. Therefore, to ensure that we

were quantifying PCH-2::GFP fluorescence around mitotic chromosomes at the same

stage in mitosis in these two cell types, PCH-2::GFP was quantified in frames that were

normalized relative to NEBD and mitotic exit. To measure the cell volume, one Z-stack of

the entire cell was taken at NEBD at 2 μm Z-spacing.

Feeding RNA interference (RNAi)

C. elegans strains were fed HT115 bacteria expressing the desired dsRNA after IPTG

induction. Bacterial strains containing RNAi vectors were cultured overnight at 37°C,

centrifuged, and the pellet was resuspended in 1/50 of the original volume. 100 μl of

concentrated culture was spotted onto a nematode growth medium (NGM) plate

containing 1 mM IPTG and 50 μg/μl of kanamycin or carbenicillin and the plate was

incubated overnight at 37°C.

For *ani-2* RNAi, gravid adults were bleached onto the RNAi plate and their progeny was

allowed to develop at 20°C during 2.5 days. Then, L4s were transferred to a fresh plate

containing OP50 or *zyg-1* RNAi bacteria.

For *zyg-1* RNAi, L4s were transferred (from an OP50 or *ani-2* RNAi plate) onto a *zyg-1*

RNAi plate and cultured 1.5 days at 20°C.

For *perm-1* RNAi, young adults (8h post L4) were incubated onto *perm-1* RNAi plates for

16-20 hours at 15°C.

For *par-1, par-6* and *gpr-1/2* RNAi, gravid adults were bleached onto control RNAi

(L4440) plates and their progeny were allowed to develop at 15°C for 3 days. L4s were

then transferred onto *par-1, par-6, gpr-1/2* RNAi or control RNAi plates and incubated at

15°C for 3 days. For *gpr-1/2* RNAi, "small" AB cells were identified by whether their area

was at least one standard deviation lower than the average of control AB cells and

"large" P_1 cells were identified by whether their area was at least one standard deviation

higher than the average of control P_1 cells.

Statistical Analysis

All statistical analysis was performed using GrapPad Prism version 6 for Macintosh,

including linear regression analysis and assessing significance of this data (Figures 1C,

2B, 3C, 5A, 5B, 7A, S1C, and S1D). For comparing two means, significance was

assessed by performing two-tailed t-tests (Figures 6C, S5B, S5D, S6B, S6C, S6D, and

S7A). In graphs in which multiple means were tested, we performed ANOVA analysis

with the Sidak post-hoc test (Figures 1D, 5C, 6A, 6E, 7B, 7D, S4A, S8A, S8B, and s8D).

In all graphs, a * indicates a p value < 0.05, ** indicates a p value < 0.01 and *** a p

value < 0.0001.

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CONTRIBUTIONS

Conceptualization and Methodology, L.D., A.E.R., C.R.N. and N.B.; Investigation, L.D.,

A.E.R., and C.R.N.; Writing - Original Draft, L.D. and N.B.; Writing - Review &

Editing, L.D., A.E.R., C.R.N. and N.B.; Supervision and Funding Acquisition, N.B.

COMPETING INTERESTS

The authors declare no competing interests.

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Figure Legends

Figure 1: PCH-2 becomes dispensable for the spindle checkpoint response in

somatic cells experimentally reduced in size

(A) Images of wildtype-sized and small *ani-2^{RNAi}* 2-cell embryos. Scale bar indicates 5

µm. (B) Cartoon of wildtype-sized and small *ani-2^{RNAi}* 2-cell embryos treated with *zyg-*

1^{RNAi}. (C) Mitotic timing, as measured from nuclear envelope breakdown (NEBD) to the

onset of cortical contractility (OCC), in AB cells of control, *pch-2* and *mad-1* mutant

embryos plotted against cell volume. Lines represent least-squares regression models

with 95% confidence intervals (gray shaded areas) for each set of data. Equations and p

values indicating whether slopes are significantly non-zero for each model are: *ani-*

2^{RNAi};zyg-1^{RNAi} (blue): y=-1.117x+11.15 and p < 0.0001; *pch-2;ani-2^{RNAi};zyg-1^{RNAi}* (red):

y=-1.264x+10.50 and p < 0.0001; *mad-1;ani-2^{RNAi};zyg-1^{RNAi}* (green): y=-0.1709x+4.468

and p = 0.4197. (D) Data from (C) partitioned into three categories: wild-type sized

embryos (more than 5 x 10^3 µm^3), medium sized embryos (between 3.3 x 10^3 µm^3 and 5

x 10^3 µm^3) and small embryos (less than 3.3 x 10^3 µm^3). Error bars are 95% confidence

intervals. In all graphs, a * indicates a p value < 0.05, ** indicates a p value < 0.01 and

*** a p value < 0.0001.

Figure 2: MAD-2 recruitment is partially restored to unattached kinetochores in

pch-2 **mutant somatic cells experimentally reduced in size**

(A) Cartoon and images of GFP::MAD-2 recruitment to unattached kinetochores in AB

cells of control and *pch-2* AB cells treated with *ani-2* and *zyg-1* RNAi. Scale bar indicates

1 µm. (B) Quantification of kinetochore bound GFP::MAD-2 in control and *pch-2* AB cells

plotted against cell volume. Lines represent least-squares regression models with 95%

confidence intervals (gray shaded areas) for each set of data. Equations and p values

indicating whether slopes are significantly non-zero for each model are: *ani-2^RNAi;zyg-*

1^RNAi (blue): y=1.531x+5.024 and p = 0.0115; *pch-2;ani-2^RNAi;zyg-1^RNAi* (red): y=-

1.384x+7.911 and p = 0.0384.

Figure 3: MAD-2 dosage controls checkpoint strength

(A) Immunostaining of MAD-2 and nuclear pore complex components (NPCs) shows

MAD-2 localized in the nucleus and at the nuclear envelope during interphase. Scale bar

indicates 5 µm. (B) Model depicting how a decrease in cell volume might result in an

increase in the local concentration of O-Mad2 in *ani-2^RNAi;zyg-1^RNAi* embryos*,* in contrast

to *zyg-1^RNAi* embryos. (C) Mitotic timing, as measured from nuclear envelope breakdown

(NEBD) to the onset of cortical contractility (OCC), in AB cells of control and *mad-2/+*

mutant embryos plotted against cell volume. Lines represent least-squares regression

models with 95% confidence intervals (gray shaded areas) for each set of data.

Equations and p values indicating whether slopes are significantly non-zero for each

model are: control (dark purple): y=-1.302x+8.477 and p = 0.0002; *mad-2/+* (light

purple): y=-0.3171x+4.402 and p = 0.0395.

1002

Figure 4: PCH-2 regulates spindle checkpoint strength during embryogenesis

(A) Mitotic timing, as measured from nuclear envelope breakdown (NEBD) to

decondensation of chromatin (DECON), in control, *pch-2* and *san-1* mutant embryos

treated with *perm-1* RNAi and DMSO or nocodazole at different developmental stages

(4- and 16-cell embryos). (B) Mitotic timing in control and *pch-2* mutant embryos

overexpressing GFP::MAD-2 and treated with *perm-1* RNAi and either DMSO or

nocodazole at different developmental stages (4- and 16-cell embryos). (C) Mitotic

timing in *zyg-1^ts* and *pch-2;zyg-1^ts* mutant embryos at different developmental stages (2-,

4- and 8-cell embryos). All error bars are 95% confidence intervals.

1012

Figure 5: PCH-2 is responsible for the stronger spindle checkpoint in the germline lineage

Mitotic timing, as measured from nuclear envelope breakdown (NEBD) to the onset of cortical contractility (OCC), in AB and P_1 cells plotted against cell volume in control *ani-2^{RNAi};zyg-1^{RNAi}* embryos (A) or *pch-2;ani-2^{RNAi};zyg-1^{RNAi}* (B) embryos. Lines represent least-squares regression models with 95% confidence intervals (gray shaded areas) for each set of data. Equations and p values indicating whether slopes are significantly non-zero for each model are: *ani-2^{RNAi};zyg-1^{RNAi}* AB (dark blue): y=-1.117x+11.15 and p < 0.0001; *ani-2^{RNAi};zyg-1^{RNAi}* P_1 (light blue): y=-8.047x+32.27 and p = 0.0021; *pch-2;ani-2^{RNAi};zyg-1^{RNAi}* AB (red): y=-1.264x+10.50 and p < 0.0001; *pch-2;ani-2^{RNAi};zyg-1^{RNAi}* P_1 (pink): y=-1.218x+7.75 and p = 0.0125. Data for AB cells in both control and *pch-2* mutants is the same as in Figure 1C. (C) Mitotic timing of AB and P_1 cells in control, *pch-2* and *mad-1* mutants during unperturbed divisions. Error bars are 95% confidence intervals.

Figure 6: PCH-2's enrichment around mitotic chromosomes in P_1 cells depends on PAR-1

(A) Mitotic timing of control embryos and embryos expressing PCH-2::GFP during unperturbed divisions or in the presence of monopolar spindles. (B) Cartoon and images of PCH-2::GFP localization around mitotic chromosomes in AB and P_1 cells of 2-cell embryos. Scale bar indicates 5 µm. (C) Quantification of PCH-2::GFP fluorescence in AB and P_1 cells. (D) Cartoon and images of PCH-2::GFP localization around mitotic chromosomes in AB and P_1 cells of control RNAi and *par-1^{RNAi}* 2-cell embryos. (E) Quantification of PCH-2::GFP fluorescence in AB and P_1 cells of *par-1^{RNAi}* embryos. All error bars are 95% confidence intervals. NS indicates not significant.

1038

Figure 7: The stronger checkpoint in P$_1$ cells depends on CMT-1

(A) Mitotic timing, as measured from nuclear envelope breakdown (NEBD) to the onset

of cortical contractility (OCC), in AB and P$_1$ cells plotted against cell volume in *cmt-1;ani-*

2^{RNAi};zyg-1^{RNAi} embryos. Lines represent least-squares regression models with 95%

confidence intervals (gray shaded areas) for each set of data. The opaque blue line

represents the regression model of the control AB data from Figure 1C. Equations and p

values indicating whether slopes are significantly non-zero for each model are: *cmt-*

1;ani-2^{RNAi};zyg-1^{RNAi} AB (dark green): y=-0.713x+7.44 and p = 0.0050; *cmt-1;ani-*

2^{RNAi};zyg-1^{RNAi} P$_1$ (light green): y=-0.6767x+5.291 and p = 0.0452. (B) Mitotic timing of

control, *cmt-1* and *mad-1* mutant embryos during unperturbed divisions or in the

presence of monopolar spindles. (C) Cartoon and images of PCH-2::GFP localization

around mitotic chromosomes in AB and P$_1$ cells of *cmt-1* mutant embryos. Scale bar

indicates 5 µm. (D) Quantification of PCH-2::GFP fluorescence in AB cells of control and

cmt-1 mutant embryos. (E) Quantification of PCH-2::GFP fluorescence in AB and P$_1$

cells of *cmt-1* mutant embryos. All error bars are 95% confidence intervals. NS indicates

not significant.

1055

Figure 8: Model

(A) A robust spindle checkpoint response in large cells requires the presence of PCH-2

at unattached kinetochores to increase the local concentration O-MAD-2 at and near

unattached kinetochores. (B) Reducing cell volume of 2-cell embryos increases the

concentration of O-Mad-2 at and near unattached kinetochores, allowing a checkpoint

response in the absence of PCH-2. (C) The enrichment of PCH-2 around mitotic

chromosomes in P$_1$ cells results in a higher production of O-MAD-2, generating a

stronger spindle checkpoint response in these cells.

1064

Figure S1: Related to Figure 1. The mitotic delay observed in *pch-2;ani-2^{RNAi};zyg-

1^{RNAi} **small cells is a spindle checkpoint response.**

Cartoon of control and *ani-2^{RNAi}* 2-cell embryos (A) and an *ani-2^{RNAi};zyg-1^{RNAi}* 2-cell

embryo (B). Mitotic timing in AB cells plotted against cell volume, during unperturbed

mitosis (C) and in the presence of monopolar spindles. (D). Lines represent least-

squares regression models for each set of data. For (C) equations and p values

indicating whether slopes are significantly non-zero for each model are: *ani-2^{RNAi}* (blue):

y=-9.744x10^{-3}x+3.001 and p = 0.6073; *pch-2;ani-2^{RNAi}* (red): y=-0.1315x+3.503 and p =

0.0483; *mad-1;ani-2^{RNAi}* (green): y=-0.2944x+4.247 and p = 0.0251. In (D), 95%

confidence intervals are indicated by gray shaded areas and equations and p values

indicating whether slopes are significantly non-zero for each model are: *san-1;ani-*

2^{RNAi};zyg-1^{RNAi} P$_1$ (blue): y=-0.4136x+5.535 and p = 0.1885; *san-1;pch-2;ani-2^{RNAi};zyg-*

1^{RNAi} P$_1$ (red): y=-0.3541x+5.647 and p = 0.0643. The regression model of *pch-2;ani-*

2^{RNAi};zyg-1^{RNAi} embryos from Figure 1C is indicated by the opaque red line in (D) for

comparison.

1080

Figure S2: Related to Figure 2: There is no difference in GFP::MAD-2 fluorescence

around mitotic chromosomes in *ani-2^{RNAi};zyg-1^{RNAi}* embryos and *pch-2;ani-*

2^{RNAi};zyg-1^{RNAi} **AB cells.**

(A) Images of MAD-2::GFP in AB cells of control *ani-2^{RNAi};zyg-1^{RNAi}* embryos or *pch-*

2;ani-2^{RNAi};zyg-1^{RNAi} embryos after NEBD. Scale bar indicates 5 μm. (B) Quantification of

GFP::MAD-2 fluorescence around mitotic chromosomes in AB cells of control and *pch-2*

embryos plotted against cell volume.

1088

1089 **Figure S3: Related to Figure 3. Nuclear volume does not scale with cell volume in**

1090 *ani-2^{RNAi}* **2-cell embryos.**

1091 (A) Images of a large (top) and small (bottom) AB cell of *ani-2^{RNAi}* embryos. The nuclear

1092 area is indicated with a dashed yellow line. Scale bar indicates 5 µm. (B) Nuclear area

1093 plotted against cell volume.

1094

1095 **Figure S4: Related to Figure 5. PCH-2 is required for the spindle checkpoint in the**

1096 **germline lineage.**

1097 (A) Mitotic timing of control and *pch-2* mutant embryos during unperturbed divisions or in

1098 the presence of monopolar spindles. Data for control embryos is the same as Figure 7B.

1099 Error bars indicate 95% confidence intervals.

1100

Figure S5: Related to Figure 6. There is no difference in the amount of PCH-2::GFP

or GFP::MAD-2 recruited to unattached kinetochores in AB and P$_1$ cells.

(A) Cartoon and images of PCH-2::GFP recruitment to unattached kinetochores in AB

and P$_1$ cells of 2-cell embryos. Scale bar indicates 1 µm. (B) Quantification of PCH-

2::GFP recruitment at unattached kinetochores in AB and P$_1$ cells. (C) Cartoon and

images of GFP::MAD-2 recruitment to unattached kinetochores in AB and P$_1$ cells of 2-

cell embryos. Scale bar indicates 1 µm. (D) Quantification of GFP::MAD-2 fluorescence

at unattached kinetochores in AB and P$_1$ cells. All error bars are 95% confidence

intervals. NS indicates not significant.

1110

Figure S6: Related to Figure 6. There is no difference in the amount of PCH-2::GFP

around mitotic chromosomes in AB cells with bipolar or monopolar spindles. (A)

Cartoon and images of PCH-2::GFP localization around mitotic chromosomes in AB

cells of 2-cell embryos. Scale bar indicates 5 µm. Yellow dashed circle indicates area of

PCH-2::GFP fluorescence. (B) Quantification of PCH-2::GFP fluorescence in AB cells

with bipolar spindles (control) or monopolar spindles (zyg-1^{RNAi}). (C) Quantification of

area of PCH-2::GFP fluorescence in AB cells with bipolar spindles or monopolar

spindles. (D) Quantification of integrated density of PCH-2::GFP fluorescence in AB cells

with bipolar spindles or monopolar spindles. All error bars are 95% confidence intervals.

NS indicates not significant.

1121

Figure S7: Related to Figure 6. PCH-2's enrichment in P1 cells is around

chromosomes and does not depend on GPR-1/2.

(A) Quantification of PCH-2::GFP fluorescence in the cytoplasm of AB and P_1 cells. (B)

Images of AB (left) and P_1 (right) cells after NEBD. Scale bar indicate 5 μm. (C)

Quantification of cell area in AB and P_1 cells of control RNAi and gpr-$1/2^{RNAi}$ 2-cell

embryos. Red symbols indicate cells in which PCH-2::GFP fluorescence was quantified

in (D). (D) Quantification of PCH-2::GFP fluorescence in AB and P_1 cells of control RNAi

and gpr-$1/2^{RNAi}$ embryos. (E) Cartoon and images of PCH-2::GFP localization around

mitotic chromosomes in AB and P_1 cells of control RNAi and gpr-$1/2^{RNAi}$ 2-cell embryos.

Scale bars indicate 5 μm. Error bars are 95% confidence intervals. NS indicates not

significant.

1133

Figure S8: Related to Figure 6. PCH-2's enrichment around mitotic chromosomes

in P_1 cells depends on PAR-6. (A and B) Quantification of cell area in AB and P_1 cells

of control RNAi, par-1^{RNAi} and par-6^{RNAi} 2-cell embryos. (C) Cartoon and images of PCH-

2::GFP localization around mitotic chromosomes in AB and P_1 cells of control RNAi and

par-6^{RNAi} 2-cell embryos. Scale bars indicate 5 μm. (D) Quantification of PCH-2::GFP

fluorescence in AB and P_1 cells of control RNAi and par-6^{RNAi} embryos. Error bars are

95% confidence intervals. NS indicates not significant.

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1142 **Movie legends**

1143

1144 **Video 1**

1145 Mitosis in the AB cell of a wild-type sized control 2-cell embryo with monopolar spindles

1146 expressing GFH::PH and mCherry::H2B for visualization of the plasma membrane and

1147 the chromosomes, respectively (strain OD95). The timer starts at NEBD.

1148

1149 **Video 2**

1150 Mitosis in the AB cell of a small control 2-cell embryo with monopolar spindles

1151 expressing GFH::PH and mCherry::H2B for visualization of the plasma membrane and

1152 the chromosomes, respectively (strain OD95). The timer starts at NEBD.

1153

1154 **Video 3**

1155 Mitosis in the AB cell of a wild-type sized *pch-2(tm1458)* 2-cell embryo with monopolar

1156 spindles expressing GFH::PH and mCherry::H2B for visualization of the plasma

1157 membrane and the chromosomes, respectively (strain BHL575). The timer starts at

1158 NEBD.

1159

1160 **Video 4**

1161 Mitosis in the AB cell of a small *pch-2(tm1458*) 2-cell embryo with monopolar spindles

1162 expressing GFH::PH and mCherry::H2B for visualization of the plasma membrane and

1163 the chromosomes, respectively (strain BHL575). The timer starts at NEBD.

1164

1165 **Video 5**

1166   Mitosis in the P$_1$ cell of a wild-type sized control 2-cell embryo with monopolar spindles

1167   expressing GFH::PH and mCherry::H2B for visualization of the plasma membrane and

1168   the chromosomes, respectively (strain OD95). The timer starts at NEBD.

1169

1170   **Video 6**

1171   Mitosis in the P$_1$ cell of a small control 2-cell embryo with monopolar spindles expressing

1172   GFH::PH and mCherry::H2B for visualization of the plasma membrane and the

1173   chromosomes, respectively (strain OD95). The timer starts at NEBD.

1174

1175   **Video 7**

1176   Mitosis in the P$_1$ cell of a wild-type sized *pch-2(tm1458)* 2-cell embryo with monopolar

1177   spindles expressing GFH::PH and mCherry::H2B for visualization of the plasma

1178   membrane and the chromosomes, respectively (strain BHL575). The timer starts at

1179   NEBD.

1180

1181   **Video 8**

1182   Mitosis in the P$_1$ cell of a small *pch-2(tm1458)* 2-cell embryo with monopolar spindles

1183   expressing GFH::PH and mCherry::H2B for visualization of the plasma membrane and

1184   the chromosomes, respectively (strain BHL575). The timer starts at NEBD.

1185

1186   **Video 9**

1187   Mitosis in the AB cell of a wild-type sized *cmt-1(ok2879)* 2-cell embryo with monopolar

1188   spindles expressing GFH::PH and mCherry::H2B for visualization of the plasma

1189   membrane and the chromosomes, respectively (strain BHL608). The timer starts at

1190   NEBD.

1191

1192 **Video 10**

1193 Mitosis in the AB cell of a small *cmt-1(ok2879)* 2-cell embryo with monopolar spindles

1194 expressing GFH::PH and mCherry::H2B for visualization of the plasma membrane and

1195 the chromosomes, respectively (strain BHL608). The timer starts at NEBD.

1196

1197 **Video 11**

1198 Mitosis in the P_1 cell of a wild-type sized *cmt-1(ok2879)* 2-cell embryo with monopolar

1199 spindles expressing GFH::PH and mCherry::H2B for visualization of the plasma

1200 membrane and the chromosomes, respectively (strain BHL608). The timer starts at

1201 NEBD.

1202

1203 **Video 12**

1204 Mitosis in the P_1 cell of a small *cmt-1(ok2879)* 2-cell embryo with monopolar spindles

1205 expressing GFH::PH and mCherry::H2B for visualization of the plasma membrane and

1206 the chromosomes, respectively (strain BHL608). The timer starts at NEBD.

A

wildtype-sized embryo

small embryo

GFP::PH
mCherry::H2B

B

wildtype sized embryo
with monopolar spindle

small embryo
with monopolar spindle

C

*ani-2^RNAi^;zyg-1^RNAi^*
*pch-2;ani-2^RNAi^;zyg-1^RNAi^*
*mad-1;ani-2^RNAi^;zyg-1^RNAi^*

D

*ani-2^RNAi^;zyg-1^RNAi^*
*pch-2;ani-2^RNAi^;zyg-1^RNAi^*
*mad-1;ani-2^RNAi^;zyg-1^RNAi^*

A

Mitotic timing: NEBD to DECON (minutes)

● *perm-1^RNAi* + DMSO
■ *perm-1^RNAi* + nocodazole

***
NS
NS NS
***
** NS
***

Control *pch-2* *san-1* | Control *pch-2* *san-1*
4-cell | 16-cell

B

Mitotic timing: NEBD to DECON (minutes)

● *perm-1^RNAi* + DMSO
■ *perm-1^RNAi* + nocodazole

***
NS ***
***
***

GFP::MAD-2 *pch-2;* GFP::MAD-2 | GFP::MAD-2 *pch-2;* GFP::MAD-2
4-cell | 16-cell

C

Mitotic timing: NEBD to DECON (minutes)

● *zyg-1^ts*
■ *pch-2;zyg-1^ts*

*** *** ***
NS
NS NS

2-cell 4-cell 8-cell

A

ani-2^RNAi;zyg-1^RNAi   *pch-2;ani-2^RNAi;zyg-1^RNAi*

merge

GFP::MAD-2

GFP::MDF-2
mCherry::H2B

B

A

B

C

D

A

PCH-2::GFP
mCherry::H2B

B

PCH-2::GFP intensity (A.U.)

*

Control RNAi   *zyg-1* RNAi

C

PCH-2::GFP enrichment area (μm²)

***

Control RNAi   *zyg-1* RNAi

D

PCH-2::GFP integrated density

NS

Control RNAi   *zyg-1* RNAi

A

PCH-2::GFP intensity (A.U.)

NS

AB   P₁

B

AB   P₁   AB   P₁

merge

PCH-2::GFP

PCH-2::GFP
mCherry::H2B

Cytoplasmic = [Avg.1,2,3] - 4

C

cell area (μm²)

AB   P₁   AB   P₁
Control RNAi   *gpr-1/2* RNAi

D

PCH-2::GFP intensity (A.U.)

NS

*   *

AB   P₁   AB   P₁
Control RNAi   *gpr-1/2* RNAi

E

Control RNAi   AB   P₁   *gpr-1/2^RNAi*   AB   P₁

Somatic
Germline

AB   P₁   AB   P₁

merge

PCH-2::GFP

PCH-2::GFP
mCherry::H2B

Table S1: Strains used in this study

Strain	Genotype
OD56	*unc-119(ed3) III; ltIs37 [pAA64; Ppie-1::mCherry::his-58; unc-119 (+)] IV*
OD95	*unc-119(ed3) III; ltIs37 [pAA64; Ppie-1::mCherry::his-58; unc-119 (+)] IV; ltIs38 [pAA1; Ppie-1::GFP::PH(PLC1delta1); unc-119(+)]*
BHL575	*pch-2(tm1458) II; unc-119(ed3) III; ltIs37 [pAA64; Ppie-1::mCherry::his-58; unc-119 (+)] IV; ltIs38 [pAA1;Ppie-1::GFP::PH(PLC1delta1); unc-119(+)]*
BHL596	*unc-119(ed3) III; ltIs37 [pAA64; Ppie-1::mCherry::his-58; unc-119 (+)] IV; ltIs38 [pAA1; Ppie-1::GFP::PH(PLC1delta1); unc-119(+)]; mdf-1(av19) V*
BHL600	*unc-119(ed3) III; ltIs37 [pAA64; Ppie-1::mCherry::his-58; unc-119 (+)] IV; ltIs52 [pOD379; Ppie-1::GFP::MDF-2; unc-119 (+)]*
BHL604	*pch-2(tm1458) II; unc-119(ed3) III; ltIs37 [pAA64; Ppie-1::mCherry::his-58; unc-119 (+)] IV; ltIs52 [pOD379; Ppie-1::GFP::MDF-2; unc-119 (+)]*
BHL608	*cmt-1(ok2879) I; unc-119(ed3) III; ltIs37 [pAA64; Ppie-1::mCherry::his-58; unc-119 (+)] IV; ltIs38 [pAA1;Ppie-1::GFP::PH(PLC1delta1); unc-119(+)]*
BHL664	*Ppch-2::pch-2::GFP-3XFLAG (blt4 [pCN94]) II; unc-119(ed3) III; ltIs37 [pAA64; Ppie-1::mCherry::his-58; unc-119 (+)] IV*
BHL666	*unc-119(ed3) III; ltIs37 [pAA64; Ppie-1::mCherry::his-58; unc-119 (+)];mdf-2(tm2190) IV/nT1[qIs51](IV;V) ltIs38 [pAA1; Ppie-1::GFP::PH(PLC1delta1); unc-119(+)]*
BHL883	*san-1/mdf-3 (ok1580) I; pch-2(tm1458) II; unc-119(ed3) III; ltIs37 [pAA64; Ppie-1::mCherry::his-58; unc-119 (+)] IV; ltIs38 [pAA1; Ppie-1::GFP::PH(PLC1delta1); unc-119(+)]*
BHL887	*cmt-1(ok2879) I; pch-2::GFP-3XFLAG (blt4 [pCN94]) II; unc-119(ed3) III; ltIs44[pAA173; pPie-1::mCherry::PH(PLC1delta1); unc-119(+)]; ltIs37 [pAA64; Ppie-1::mCherry::his-58; unc-119 (+)] IV*
BHL888	*unc-119(ed3) III; ltIs44 [pAA173; pPie-1::mCherry::PH(PLC1delta1); unc-119(+)]; ltIs52 [pOD379; Ppie-1::GFP::mdf-2; unc-119 (+)]; ltIs37 [pAA64; Ppie-1::mCherry::his-58; unc-119 (+)] IV*
BHL889	*pch-2(tm1458) II; unc-119(ed3) III; ltIs44 [pAA173; pPie-1::mCherry::PH(PLC1delta1); unc-119(+)]; ltIs52 [pOD379; Ppie-1::GFP::mdf-2; unc-119 (+)]; ltIs37 [pAA64; Ppie-1::mCherry::his-58; unc-119 (+)] IV*
BHL891	*unc-119(ed3) III; ltIs37 [pAA64; Ppie-1::mCherry::his-58; unc-119 (+)] IV; ltIs24[pAZ132; pPie-1::GFP::tba-2; unc-119(+)]*
BHL892	*pch-2 (tm1458) II; unc-119(ed3) III; ltIs37 [pAA64; Ppie-1::mCherry::his-58; unc-119 (+)] IV; ltIs24 [pAZ132; pPie-1::GFP::tba-2; unc-119(+)]*
BHL893	*san-1/mdf-3 (ok1580) I; unc-119(ed3) III; ltIs37 [pAA64; Ppie-1::mCherry::his-58; unc-119 (+)] IV; ltIs38 [pAA1; Ppie-1::GFP::PH(PLC1delta1); unc-119(+)]*
BHL904	*Ppch-2::pch-2::GFP-3XFLAG (blt4 [pCN94]) II; unc-119(ed3) III; ltIs44[pAA173; pPie-1::mCherry::PH(PLC1delta1); unc-119(+)]; ltIs37 [pAA64; Ppie-1::mCherry::his-58; unc-119 (+)] IV*
BHL950	*pch-2(tm1458) II; unc-119(ed3) III; ltIs37 [pAA64; Ppie-1::mCherry::his-58; unc-119 (+)]; mdf-2(tm2190) IV/nT1[qIs51](IV;V); ltIs38 [pAA1; Ppie-1::GFP::PH(PLC1delta1); unc-119(+)]*

BHL958	*unc-119(ed3) III; ltIs37 [pAA64; Ppie-1::mCherry::his-58; unc-119 (+)] IV/nT1[qIs51](IV;V); ltIs38 [pAA1; Ppie-1::GFP::PH(PLC1delta1); unc-119(+)]*
BHL964	*zyg-1(or297) unc-4(e120) II unc-119(ed3) III; ltIs37 [pAA64; Ppie-1::mCherry::his-58; unc-119 (+)] IV; ltIs24[pAZ132; pPie-1::GFP::tba-2; unc-119(+)]*
BHL965	*zyg-1(or297) pch-2(tm1458) unc-4(e120) II; unc-119(ed3) III; ltIs37 [pAA64; Ppie-1::mCherry::his-58; unc-119 (+)] IV; ltIs24[pAZ132; pPie-1::GFP::tba-2; unc-119(+)]*
GAL5	*san-1/mdf-3 (mat5) I; unc-119(ed3) III; ruIs57[Ppie-1::GFP::tubulin + unc-119(+)]; ltIs37[pie-1p::mCherry::his-58 (pAA64) + unc-119(+)] IV*