PCH-2[TRIP13] regulates spindle checkpoint strength

Lénaïg Défachelles, Anna E. Russo, Christian R. Nelson and Needhi Bhalla*

Department of Molecular, Cell and Developmental Biology, University of California,

Santa Cruz,

Santa Cruz, CA 95064

*corresponding author: nbhalla@ucsc.edu

Department of Molecular, Cell and Developmental Biology

225 Sinsheimer Labs

University of California, Santa Cruz

Santa Cruz, CA 95064

phone: (831) 459-1319

fax: (831) 459-3139

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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 genetically

manipulate embryos to decrease cell volume, PCH-2 is no longer required for the

spindle checkpoint or recruitment of Mad2 at unattached kinetochores in embryos with

monopolar spindles. 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 a conserved factor

that induces asymmetry in the early embryo. Finally, the stronger checkpoint in germline

precursor cells is regulated by CMT-1, the *C. elegans* 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 through its ability to regulate the availability

of inactive Mad2 at and near unattached kinetochores, governs checkpoint strength.

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) 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, Nashchekina et al., 2013), cell volume (Galli & Morgan, 2016, Kyogoku & Kitajima, 2017), and cell fate (Galli & Morgan, 2016, Gerhold, Poupart et al., 2018).

The spindle checkpoint response initiates with the recruitment of Mad1 and Mad2 at unattached kinetochores (Chen, Shevchenko et al., 1998, Chen, Waters et al., 1996, Li & Benezra, 1996, Sironi, Melixetian 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, Chan 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, Tang et al., 2002, Luo, Tang et al., 2004, Sironi, Mapelli et al., 2002). 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 (De Antoni, Pearson et al., 2005, Fava, Kaulich et al., 2011, Simonetta, Manzoni et al., 2009, Sironi et al., 2001). Thus, unattached kinetochores act as a platform for MCC

assembly. The MCC effectively tunes the spindle checkpoint response: the length of the

cell cycle delay imposed by the checkpoint is governed by the ratio of the soluble MCC

checkpoint signal to cytoplasmic volume (Collin et al., 2013, Dick & Gerlich, 2013, Galli

& Morgan, 2016, Kyogoku & Kitajima, 2017).

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

proteins, a group that includes Mad2 (Aravind & Koonin, 1998, Rosenberg & Corbett,

2015, Vader, 2015). Originally described as a spindle checkpoint silencing protein,

experiments showed that 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

(Alfieri, Chang et al., 2018, Brulotte, Jeong et al., 2017, Eytan, Wang et al., 2014,

Miniowitz-Shemtov, Eytan et al., 2015, Wang, Sturt-Gillespie et al., 2014, Ye, Rosenberg

et al., 2015). We and others have shown that PCH-2/TRIP13 is essential for spindle

checkpoint activation in *C. elegans* and mammalian cells (Ma & Poon, 2016, Ma & Poon,

2018, Nelson, Hwang et al., 2015, Yost, de Wolf et al., 2017). PCH-2 is present at

unattached kinetochores (Nelson et al., 2015, Tipton, Wang et al., 2012, Wang et al.,

2014) and is required to robustly localize Mad2, but not Mad1, to unattached

kinetochores (Nelson et al., 2015, Yost et al., 2017). Biochemical and structural studies

have shown that PCH-2 converts C-Mad2 to O-Mad2 (Alfieri et al., 2018, Brulotte et al.,

2017, Ye et al., 2015). Altogether, these data suggest a model in which PCH-2 converts

a population of C-Mad2 that is not competent for checkpoint signaling into O-Mad2, so

that Mad1/Mad2 recruited to unattached kinetochores can template C-Mad2 for

assembly into the MCC.

This model has major implications for our understanding of the spindle checkpoint. First,

it indicates that the spindle checkpoint does not simply depend on the presence of C-

Mad2. Rather, only C-Mad2 that has been assembled into the MCC at unattached

kinetochores is competent for checkpoint signaling (Ma & Poon, 2016). Second, it

suggests that there is a significant population of C-Mad2 in cells that must be liberated

for a functional checkpoint. In *C. elegans*, some of this C-Mad2 appears to be

complexed with and stabilized by the Mad2 mimic p31^{comet} (CMT-1 in *C. elegans*)

(Nelson et al., 2015, Yang, Li et al., 2007); loss of CMT-1 partially suppresses the

spindle checkpoint defect in *pch-2* mutants, likely by liberating enough O-Mad2 to make

PCH-2 partially dispensable (Nelson et al., 2015). In cells that have a significant

population of available O-Mad2, such as HeLa cells (Luo et al., 2004), TRIP13 function

becomes essential for checkpoint activity only when this population of O-Mad2 is limiting

(Ma & Poon, 2018).

Here, we 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 two-cell

embryo (Nelson et al., 2015), PCH-2 becomes dispensable for the spindle checkpoint

and Mad2 recruitment at unattached kinetochores as AB cells are genetically

manipulated to become smaller, suggesting that PCH-2's ability to concentrate O-Mad2

near unattached kinetochores is essential for checkpoint activation in large cells. Indeed,

robust spindle checkpoint strength relies on Mad2 dosage. The requirement for PCH-2 in

promoting spindle checkpoint strength is also observed 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 a conserved regulator of embryonic

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

ortholog of p31^{comet}, CMT-1, suggesting that CMT-1's role in localizing PCH-2 to

unattached kinetochores and its ability to enrich PCH-2 in P_1 cells, 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* two-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 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, Habermann et al., 2005) (Figure 1A). We monitored the length of mitosis

in these embryos, 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, Dammermann 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 these embryos. (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, Caron et al., 2001) and unattached kinetochores (Essex

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

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

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

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

checkpoint response more closely resembled that of control embryos than *mad-1* mutant

embryos (Figure 1C, Videos 3 and 4). There was no significant difference between the

slopes of the regression analysis of control and *pch-2* mutant data (p value = 0.1407),

while the slopes between the regression analysis of *pch-2* and *mad-1* mutant data were

significantly different (p value = 0.0007). We partitioned our data to show that *pch-2*

mutant embryos fell into three clear categories: 1) wild-type sized embryos (more than 5

x 10^3 μm^3) in which PCH-2 was essential for the spindle checkpoint; 2) medium sized

embryos (between 3.5 x 10^3 μm^3 and 5 x 10^3 μm^3), which exhibited an intermediate level

of checkpoint function; and 3) small embryos (less than 3.5 x 10^3 μm^3), in which PCH-2

was completely dispensable for the spindle checkpoint response (Figure 1D).

We verified that the mitotic delay observed in *pch-2* embryos 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, Goldmark 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). These data allow us to draw

two important conclusions: 1) Since we observe a robust spindle checkpoint activation in

pch-2 mutant embryos as they decrease in size and mitotic timing is similar to what we

observe in control embryos, 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 somatic cells of two-cell *C. elegans* embryos

with monopolar spindles.

Recent experiments have shown that acute depletion of PCH-2's mammalian ortholog,

TRIP13, has no effect on spindle checkpoint function in HeLa cells until O-Mad2 is

limiting (Ma & Poon, 2018). Since MAD-2 is localized to the nucleus and nuclear

envelope in *C. elegans* oocytes (Bohr, Nelson et al., 2015, Lawrence, Chau et al., 2015)

(Figure 2A) and *ani-2*[RNAi] treatment does not affect nuclear size (Figure S2), we

reasoned that as cells are genetically manipulated to decrease in cell volume, the

absolute amount of MAD-2 protein is likely to remain constant but its concentration

increases. This increase in concentration may improve the likelihood that O-Mad2 is at

or near unattached kinetochores in embryos treated with *zyg-1* RNAi (Figure 2B),

obviating the requirement for PCH-2 in small embryos.

To test this model, 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* in *mad-2* heterozygotes, which express

half of the Mad2 of control animals (data not shown). Indeed, *mad-2* heterozygotes

exhibited stronger spindle checkpoint strength as AB cells became smaller but not as

robustly as control embryos (Figure 2C, Videos 5-8). The slopes of the linear

regressions for both control and *mad-2* heterozygotes were significantly non-zero (p

value = 0.0002 for control and p = .0395 for *mad-2/+*), unlike similar experiments with

mad-1 homozygotes (p value = 0.4197) (Figure 1B). We could not test whether a

decrease in Mad2 protein levels restored the reliance on PCH-2 in small embryos since

pch-2;mad-2/+ double mutants exhibited a substantial decrease in the production of

embryos (brood size), preventing us from performing these experiments (data not

shown). Further, *pch-2;mad-2* double mutants could not be recovered from *pch-2;mad-*

2/+ mothers (data not shown), a genetic interaction that demonstrates the close

functional relationship between these two genes and is not observed when we generate

pch-2;mad-1 double mutants (Bohr et al., 2015) or *pch-2;san-1* double mutants (Figure

S1B).

PCH-2 becomes dispensable for MAD-2 recruitment at unattached kinetochores in

somatic cells as they decrease in size

Having established that Mad2 dosage affects spindle checkpoint strength (Figure 2C),

we reasoned that if our model was correct, we should see increased recruitment of

GFP::MAD-2 at unattached kinetochores in small *pch-2* mutant embryos. We quantified

GFP::MAD-2 recruitment at unattached kinetochores in pseudo-metaphase in small

control and *pch-2* mutant embryos (less than 3.5 x 10^3 μm^3) and compared it to the

recruitment observed in wild-type sized embryos. Consistent with our previous results,

GFP::MAD-2 was recruited to 20% of control levels in *pch-2* mutant embryos that were

wild-type in size (Nelson et al., 2015) (Figures 2D and E). In small embryos, GFP::MAD-

2 was recruited to unattached kinetochores in control embryos as expected (Figure 2D).

In small *pch-2* mutant embryos, GFP::MAD-2 signal can be detected at unattached

kinetochores (Figure 2D) and, when quantified, GFP::MAD-2 was partially restored to

58% of control levels (Figure 2E).

One explanation for why GFP::MAD-2 recruitment is not completely restored in small

pch-2;ani-2^{RNAi};zyg-1^{RNAi} mutant embryos may be that these smaller embryos require

less MAD-2 recruitment to support a mitotic delay than control small embryos

(Defachelles, Hainline et al., 2015). Consistent with this idea, when we plotted

GFP::MAD-2 fluorescence against cell volume, we observed that the regression analysis

of GFP::MAD-2 fluorescence at unattached kinetochores in *pch-2;ani-2^{RNAi};zyg-1^{RNAi}*

embryos exhibited a negative slope, showing improved GFP::MAD-2 recruitment to

unattached kinetochores as cells got smaller, but that was nonetheless lower in

fluorescence intensity than *ani-2^{RNAi};zyg-1^{RNAi}* control embryos (Figure S3A).

Surprisingly, the regression analysis for control embryos had a positive slope,

suggesting that less GFP::MAD-2 is required at unattached kinetochores for spindle

checkpoint function even in small control embryos (Figure S3A). This was despite similar

levels of soluble GFP::MAD2 in both genetic backgrounds (Figure S3B). Nevertheless,

our experiments demonstrate that PCH-2 is also dispensable for Mad2 recruitment at

unattached kinetochores in small embryos with monopolar spindles, potentially because

decreasing cell volume concentrates Mad2, specifically O-Mad2 around mitotic

chromosomes.

PCH-2 is essential for the spindle checkpoint in *ani-2^RNAi* small embryos treated with nocodazole

Next, we evaluated whether PCH-2 became dispensable for the spindle checkpoint as cells decreased in size when the spindle checkpoint was activated by spindle depolymerizing drugs. We permeabilized embryos by performing *perm-1* RNAi (Carvalho, Olson 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 the AB cells of two cell embryos. To our surprise, when *pch-2;ani-2^RNAi;perm-1^RNAi* embryos were treated with the microtubule depolymerizing drug, nocodazole, PCH-2 remained essential for the spindle checkpoint, similar to *san-1;ani-2^RNAi;perm-1^RNAi* mutants and unlike *ani-2^RNAi;perm-1^RNAi* embryos (Figure 3A, Videos 9-11).

We wondered whether this greater reliance on PCH-2 in embryos treated with nocodazole was because PCH-2's localization was affected by microtubule depolymerization. In the AB cell, PCH-2 protein becomes enriched in the area around the chromosomes in prometaphase and is recruited to unattached kinetochores if the spindle checkpoint is active (Nelson et al., 2015). Once NEBD occurred, we could easily see PCH-2::GFP coalesce around mitotic chromosomes in a diffuse cloud in control (bipolar spindle), *zyg-1^RNAi* (mono-polar spindle) and nocodazole treated (no spindle) embryos (Figure 3B), indicating that PCH-2::GFP localization around chromosomes was not dependent on the spindle. Unfortunately, PCH-2::GFP was difficult to visualize on unattached kinetochores of holocentric chromosomes in nocodazole-treated embryos

given the lack of a clear metaphase or pseudo-metaphase plate (data not shown).

Instead, we quantified PCH-2::GFP around mitotic chromosomes in control, $zyg-1^{RNAi}$

and nocodazole treated embryos after NEBD (Figure 3C). PCH-2::GFP fluorescence

around chromosomes was similar in both $zyg-1^{RNAi}$ and nocodazole-treated embryos and

both were higher than control embryos (Figure 3C). However, we noticed that the area

occupied by PCH-2::GFP in nocodazole treated embryos was not significantly different

than that of control embryos but significantly larger than that of $zyg-1^{RNAi}$ embryos (yellow

dashed circle in Figure 3B and quantified in Figure 3D). When we factored this larger

area of PCH-2::GFP fluorescence into our analysis, we observed an increase in the

integrated density of PCH-2::GFP around mitotic chromosomes in nocodazole treated

embryos compared to either $zyg-1^{RNAi}$ or control embryos (Figure 3E). Therefore, this

increased amount of PCH-2::GFP around mitotic chromosomes in embryos treated with

nocodazole may result in a stronger reliance on PCH-2, even in small cells. Alternatively,

the dependence on PCH-2 in nocodazole-treated small cells for the spindle checkpoint

may reflect a synthetic spindle checkpoint defect: the absence of both PCH-2 and some

other factor whose localization or function depends on the spindle prevents full spindle

checkpoint activation. This second interpretation is supported by the observation that

checkpoint strength increases similarly in nocodazole treated developing embryos to

embryos in which $zyg-1$ is inactivated (Gerhold et al., 2018), despite having more

unattached kinetochores, raising the possibility that a factor required for checkpoint

strength may depend on microtubules for function.

PCH-2 is required for the spindle checkpoint response during embryogenesis

During embryogenesis, cell volume decreases and spindle checkpoint strength

increases (Galli & Morgan, 2016, Gerhold et al., 2018). Given our observation, that PCH-

2 becomes dispensable as cell volume decreases in the AB cell of two-cell embryos, we

assessed whether this also happens during normal embryogenesis.

We first performed this experiment in *perm-1*[RNAi] embryos treated with nocodazole. Cells

of the AB lineage 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 & 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).

Consistent with the results that PCH-2 is required in small AB cells treated with

nocodazole (Figure 3A), *pch-2* mutant embryos treated with nocodazole resembled *san-*

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

during embryogenesis, PCH-2 is essential for the spindle checkpoint when microtubules

are absent.

Given the different requirements for PCH-2 in spindle checkpoint activation in *ani-2*[RNAi]

embryos (Figures 1C and 3A), we also analyzed the requirement for PCH-2 in embryos

with monopolar spindles. To perform this experiment, we used a fast acting temperature

sensitive allele of *zyg-1* (*zyg-1*[ts]) (O'Rourke, Carter et al., 2011) to activate the spindle

checkpoint in developing embryos with a variable number of 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 4B), 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 reduced in comparison to *zyg-1*[ts]

embryos. Thus, similar to our results with embryos treated with nocodazole, PCH-2 is

required for the spindle checkpoint as cells of the AB lineage naturally decrease in cell

size during embryogenesis and when the checkpoint is activated by the presence of

monopolar spindles. However, additional considerations may make direct comparisons

between our $ani\text{-}2^{RNAi}$;$zyg\text{-}1^{RNAi}$ experiments and $zyg\text{-}1^{ts}$ dividing 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 & Morgan, 2016, Gerhold et al., 2018).

Therefore, we tested whether PCH-2 contributed to the stronger spindle checkpoint in

the germline lineage, specifically in P_1 cells of two-cell embryos (Figures 5 and S4).

Consistent with other reports (Galli & 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 S4, Videos 12 and 13). 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 S4, Videos 14 and 15), 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

S4). 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, Ryan et al., 2015) and similar to mammalian

cultured cells (Ma & Poon, 2016, Meraldi, Draviam et al., 2004, Rodriguez-Bravo,

Maciejowski et al., 2014). 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 statistically

different than control P_1 cells (Figure 5C).

PCH-2's enrichment in P_1 cells is dependent on PAR-1

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 &

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 the

presence or absence 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, Osborne Nishimura 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).

Since neither PCH-2::GFP or GFP::MAD-2 recruitment to unattached kinetochores were

different between AB and P_1 cells (Figure S5) and given the existence of a "cloud" of

checkpoint factors, including MAD-2 and PCH-2, around chromosomes, even during

normal cell cycles (Essex et al., 2009, Nelson et al., 2015), we quantified PCH-2::GFP

fluorescence around mitotic chromosomes in AB and P_1 cells during unperturbed cell

cycles. Similar to AB cells (Nelson et al., 2015), 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 P_1 cells (Figure 6C). To evaluate whether this enrichment was the indirect

consequence of the smaller volume of P_1 cells, we also quantified 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, Grill et al., 2003, Gotta, Dong et

al., 2003, Srinivasan, Fisk et al., 2003). $gpr-1/2^{RNAi}$ embryos showed a similar

enrichment of PCH-2::GFP in P_1 cells as control embryos (Figure S7).

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

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

the essential polarity factor, PAR-1 (Guo & Kemphues, 1995). In $par-1^{RNAi}$ mutant

embryos, both AB and P_1 cells exhibit the same checkpoint strength as control P_1 cells

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

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

embryos, we will refer to the anterior blastomere as AB and the posterior as P_1. 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). Further,

similar to the effect on spindle checkpoint strength (Gerhold et al., 2018), we found that

the concentration of PCH-2::GFP in $par-1^{RNAi}$ AB cells was greater than that of control

AB cells (data not shown) and more closely resembled PCH-2::GFP concentration in P_1

cells treated with control RNAi (p value = 0.348). Therefore, PCH-2::GFP's enrichment

around mitotic chromosomes in P_1 cells depends on a conserved factor that induces

embryonic asymmetry and germline cell fate, PAR-1.

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 during the spindle checkpoint response, stabilize

Mad2 protein levels 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

PCH-2's localization to unattached kinetochores promotes a strong spindle checkpoint

response in large AB cells. 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 16-19). 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. 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

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

spent significantly longer in mitosis than $cmt\text{-}1$ 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, $cmt\text{-}1;zyg\text{-}1^{RNAi}$ mutant

embryos failed to generate a stronger checkpoint in P_1 cells, consistent with $cmt\text{-}1;ani\text{-}$

$2^{RNAi};zyg\text{-}1^{RNAi}$ 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 $cmt\text{-}1$ mutant AB and P_1 cells (Figure 7C). First, we found that

PCH-2::GFP fluorescence was slightly higher in AB cells in $cmt\text{-}1$ mutants than control

embryos (Figure 7D). We saw a similar result in our $par\text{-}1$ RNAi experiments (data not

shown), although in both cases these increases were not statistically significant.

However, unlike $par\text{-}1^{RNAi}$ 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 $cmt\text{-}1$ AB cells is a consequence of the

absence of PCH-2 recruitment at unattached kinetochores (Nelson et al., 2015). Further,

when we compared the quantification of PCH-2::GFP fluorescence in $cmt\text{-}1$ mutant AB

and P_1 cells, we did not detect a significant difference between the two cells (Figure 7E),

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, it appears that

CMT-1 promotes spindle checkpoint strength through two mechanisms: localizing PCH-2

to unattached kinetochores and ensuring its enrichment around mitotic chromosomes 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 (Alfieri et al., 2018,

Brulotte et al., 2017, Eytan et al., 2014, Miniowitz-Shemtov et al., 2015, Wang et al.,

2014, Ye et al., 2015), more recent evidence also indicates a role in promoting the

checkpoint response (Ma & Poon, 2016, Ma & Poon, 2018, Nelson et al., 2015, Yost et

al., 2017). It's clear that the reliance on PCH-2/TRIP13 in checkpoint activation likely

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

that PCH-2, likely in its role regulating O-Mad2 availability, specifically at and near

unattached kinetochores, also controls checkpoint strength, providing an unanticipated

mechanism to explain its regulation (Figure 8). We propose that this role in checkpoint

strength is 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 two 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 & 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* two-cell embryos would be analogous to mammalian

cells undergoing cell division soon after acute depletion of TRIP13 (Ma & 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 correlative data support this hypothesis:

PCH-2's characterized biochemical activity converts C-Mad2 to O-Mad2 (Alfieri et al.,

2018, Brulotte et al., 2017, Ye et al., 2015); the delay we observe in small *pch-2;ani-*

2^(RNAi);zyg-1^(RNAi) embryos is checkpoint dependent (Figure S1B); as cells are genetically

manipulated to become smaller, robust checkpoint strength depends on Mad2 dosage

(Figure 2C); GFP::MAD-2 localization is restored to unattached kinetochores in small

pch-2;ani-2^(RNAi);zyg-1^(RNAi) embryos (Figures 2D and E); and *pch-2* and *mad-2* mutant

alleles genetically interact (data not shown), indicating a close functional relationship

between these two genes during embryogenesis.

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 cannot suppress the requirement for PCH-2 in two-cell embryos

(Nelson et al., 2015). 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, Thomas et al., 2017) and budding yeast (Mariani, Chiroli 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.

Despite our findings that PCH-2 becomes dispensable for spindle checkpoint activation

as two-cell embryos are experimentally induced to decrease in volume, PCH-2 remains

essential for the spindle checkpoint as AB cells normally decrease in volume during

embryogenesis (Figure 4). This may reflect that O-Mad2 eventually does become

limiting in cells of the AB lineage with successive divisions after the two-cell stage and

thus, there is 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 two-cell embryos treated with *ani-2^{RNAi}* (Figure S2), 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.

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 (Alfieri et

al., 2018, Brulotte et al., 2017, Miniowitz-Shemtov et al., 2015, Ye et al., 2015), CMT-1

localizes PCH-2 to unattached kinetochores (Nelson et al., 2015) and promotes PCH-2's

enrichment in P_1 cells (Figure 7). 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 and driving the production of

soluble C-Mad2 and MCC (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 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 when CMT-1 is

absent (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 $pch\text{-}2;ani\text{-}2^{RNAi};zyg\text{-}1^{RNAi}$ and $cmt\text{-}1;ani\text{-}2^{RNAi};zyg\text{-}1^{RNAi}$ mutants show

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

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

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

timing but this is not significantly faster than control (Figures 5C and 7B). Given the

rapidity of cell cycles in these early embryos, it's possible that $ani\text{-}2^{RNAi};zyg\text{-}1^{RNAi}$

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).

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 (van Hooff, Tromer et al., 2017, Vleugel, Hoogendoorn et al., 2012).

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 (Chao, Kulkarni et al., 2012,

Nezi, Rancati et al., 2006) either don't express their PCH-2 ortholog during mitosis

(budding yeast) (San-Segundo & Roeder, 1999) or don't have a PCH-2 ortholog in their

genome (fission yeast) (Wu & 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, Mello 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

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

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

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 &

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

2009) and mouse anti-MAb414 (1/400; (Davis & 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 two-cell embryos

For live imaging of two-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 & 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 S2A).

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, Tsuchida 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 two-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 two-cell embryos with a

few modifications: only the nucleus 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, Kim et al., 2014, Nelson et

al., 2015) and fluorescence in the cytoplasm as described in (Galli & Morgan, 2016). 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. 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. 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* 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, gpr-1/2* RNAi or control RNAi plates and incubated at 15°C for 3

days.

Statistical Analysis

Linear regression analysis and assessing significance of this data (Figures 1C, 2C, 3A,

5A, 5B, 7A, S1C, S1D, S3A, S4) was performed using GrapPad Prism version 6 for

Macintosh. For all other data, significance was assessed by performing t-tests (Figures

1D, 2E, 3C, 3D, 3E, 4A, 4B, 5C, 6A, 6C, 6E, 7B, 7D, 7E, S5B, S5D, S6B and S7C). 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 as they decrease in size

(A) Images of control and *ani-2^{RNAi}* two-cell embryos. Scale bar indicates 5 µm. (B)

Cartoon of embryos treated with *zyg-1^{RNAi}* or *ani-2^{RNAi};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 regression analysis for each set of data. (D) Data from (C)

partitioned into three categories: wild-type sized embryos (more than 5 x 10^3 µm^3),

medium sized embryos (between 3.5 x 10^3 µm^3 and 5 x 10^3 µm^3) and small embryos

(less than 3.5 x 10^3 µm^3). Error bars are S.E.M. In all graphs, a * indicates a p value <

0.05, ** indicates a p value < 0.01 and *** a p value < 0.0001.

Figure 2: PCH-2 becomes dispensable for MAD-2 recruitment at unattached

kinetochores in somatic cells as they decrease in size

(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 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 regression analysis for

each set of data. (D) Cartoon and images of GFP::MAD-2 recruitment to unattached

kinetochores in AB cells of small and wild-type sized embryos. Scale bar indicates 1 µm.

(E) Quantification of kinetochore bound GFP::MAD-2. Error bars are S.E.M.

Figure 3: PCH-2 is essential for the spindle checkpoint in *ani-2^RNAi* small embryos

treated with nocodazole

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

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

embryos treated with nocodazole plotted against cell volume. Lines represent regression

analysis for each set of data. (B) Cartoon and images of PCH-2::GFP localization around

mitotic chromosomes in AB cells of two-cell embryos. Scale bar indicates 5 μm. Yellow

dashed circle indicates area of PCH-2::GFP fluorescence. (C) Quantification of PCH-

2::GFP fluorescence in AB cells with bipolar spindles, monopolar spindles or no

spindles. (D) Quantification of area of PCH-2::GFP fluorescence in AB cells with bipolar

spindles, monopolar spindles or no spindles. (E) Quantification of integrated density of

PCH-2::GFP fluorescence in AB cells with bipolar spindles, monopolar spindles or no

spindles. All error bars are S.E.M. NS indicates not significant.

Figure 4: PCH-2 is required for the spindle checkpoint response 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 nocodazole at different developmental stages (4- and 16-cell embryos). (B)

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 S.E.M.

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};$zyg\text{-}1^{RNAi}$ embryos (A) or pch-2;ani-2^{RNAi};$zyg\text{-}1^{RNAi}$ (B) embryos. Lines represent

regression analysis for each set of data. 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 S.E.M.

Figure 6: PCH-2's enrichment 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 two-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} two-cell embryos. (E)

Quantification of PCH-2::GFP fluorescence in AB and P_1 cells of par-1^{RNAi} embryos. All

error bars are S.E.M. NS indicates not significant.

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};$zyg\text{-}1^{RNAi}$ embryos. Lines represent regression analysis for each set of data. (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 S.E.M. NS indicates not

significant.

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 two-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.

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}* two-cell embryos (A) and an *ani-2^{RNAi};zyg-1^{RNAi}* two-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 regression analysis for each set of data. The regression line of *pch-2;ani-2^{RNAi};zyg-1^{RNAi}* embryos from Figure 1C is indicated by the opaque red line for comparison.

Figure S2: Related to Figure 2. Nuclear volume does not scale with cell volume in *ani-2^{RNAi}* two-cell embryos.

(A) Images of a large (top) and small (bottom) AB cell of *ani-2^{RNAi}* embryos. The nuclear area is indicated with a dashed yellow line. Scale bar indicates 5 μm. (B) Nuclear area plotted against cell volume.

Figure S3: Related to Figure 2: GFP::MAD-2 decreases at unattached kinetochores

in the AB cells of small *ani-2^{RNAi};zyg-1^{RNAi} embryos, unlike in *pch-2;ani-2^{RNAi};zyg-*

***1^{RNAi} embryos.**

(A) Quantification of GFP::MAD-2 fluorescence at unattached kinetochores plotted

against cell volume in AB cells of control and *pch-2* embryos. Lines represent regression

analysis for each set of data. (B) Quantification of GFP::MAD-2 fluorescence around

mitotic chromosomes in AB cells of control and *pch-2* embryos plotted against cell

volume. (C) 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. Scale bar indicates 5 μm.

Figure S4: Related to 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 or *pch-2;ani-2^{RNAi};zyg-1^{RNAi}* embryos. Lines represent regression

analysis for each set of data.

1001

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 two-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

two-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 S.E.M. NS

indicates not significant.

1011

1012 **Figure S6: Related to Figure 6. There is no difference in the amount of PCH-2::GFP**

1013 **in the cytoplasm of AB and P$_1$ cells.**

1014 (A) Images of AB (left) and P$_1$ (right) cells after NEBD. Scale bar indicate 5 µm. (B)

1015 Quantification of PCH-2::GFP fluorescence in the cytoplasm of AB and P$_1$ cells. Error

1016 bars are S.E.M. NS indicates not significant.

1017

Figure S7: Related to Figure 6. PCH-2's enrichment in P$_1$ cells depends on GPR-

1/2. (A) Images of two cell embryos treated with control RNAi or RNAi against *gpr-1* and

gpr-2. (B) 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}* two-cell embryos. Scale bars indicate

5 µm. (C) Quantification of PCH-2::GFP fluorescence in AB and P$_1$ cells of *gpr-1/2^{RNAi}*

embryos. Error bars are S.E.M.

1024

1025 **Movie legends**

1026

1027 **Video 1**

1028 Mitosis in the AB cell of a wild-type sized control two-cell embryo with monopolar

1029 spindles expressing GFH::PH and mCherry::H2B for visualization of the plasma

1030 membrane and the chromosomes, respectively (strain OD95). The timer starts at NEBD.

1031

1032 **Video 2**

1033 Mitosis in the AB cell of a small control two-cell embryo with monopolar spindles

1034 expressing GFH::PH and mCherry::H2B for visualization of the plasma membrane and

1035 the chromosomes, respectively (strain OD95). The timer starts at NEBD.

1036

1037 **Video 3**

1038 Mitosis in the AB cell of a wild-type sized *pch-2(tm1458)* two-cell embryo with monopolar

1039 spindles expressing GFH::PH and mCherry::H2B for visualization of the plasma

1040 membrane and the chromosomes, respectively (strain BHL575). The timer starts at

1041 NEBD.

1042

1043 **Video 4**

1044 Mitosis in the AB cell of a small *pch-2(tm1458*) two-cell embryo with monopolar spindles

1045 expressing GFH::PH and mCherry::H2B for visualization of the plasma membrane and

1046 the chromosomes, respectively (strain BHL575). The timer starts at NEBD.

1047

1048 **Video 5**

1049 Mitosis in the AB cell of a wild-type sized *mdf-2(tm2190*)/+ two-cell embryo with

1050 monopolar spindles expressing GFH::PH and mCherry::H2B for visualization of the

1051 plasma membrane and the chromosomes, respectively (strain BHL666). The timer starts

1052 at NEBD.

1053

1054 **Video 6**

1055 Mitosis in the AB cell of a small *mdf-2(tm2190*)/+ two-cell embryo with monopolar

1056 spindles expressing GFH::PH and mCherry::H2B for visualization of the plasma

1057 membrane and the chromosomes, respectively (strain BHL666). The timer starts at

1058 NEBD.

1059

1060 **Video 7**

1061 Mitosis in the AB cell of a wild-type sized control two-cell embryo with monopolar

1062 spindles expressing GFH::PH and mCherry::H2B for visualization of the plasma

1063   membrane and the chromosomes, respectively (strain BHL958). The timer starts at

1064   NEBD.

1065

1066   **Video 8**

1067   Mitosis in the AB cell of a small control two-cell embryo with monopolar spindles

1068   expressing GFH::PH and mCherry::H2B for visualization of the plasma membrane and

1069   the chromosomes, respectively (strain BHL958). The timer starts at NEBD.

1070

1071   **Video 9**

1072   Mitosis in a wild-type sized control two-cell embryo after microtubule depolymerization

1073   expressing GFH::tubulin and mCherry::H2B for visualization of the microtubules and the

1074   chromosomes, respectively (strain BHL891). The timer starts at NEBD.

1075

1076   **Video 10**

1077   Mitosis in a wild-type sized *pch-2(tm1458*) two-cell embryo after microtubule

1078   depolymerization expressing GFH::tubulin and mCherry::H2B for visualization of the

1079   microtubules and the chromosomes, respectively (strain BHL892). The timer starts at

1080   NEBD.

1081

1082   **Video 11**

1083   Mitosis in a small *pch-2(tm1458*) two-cell embryo after microtubule depolymerization

1084   expressing GFH::tubulin and mCherry::H2B for visualization of the microtubules and the

1085   chromosomes, respectively (strain BHL892). The timer starts at NEBD.

1086

1087   **Video 12**

1088   Mitosis in the P_1 cell of a wild-type sized control two-cell embryo with monopolar spindles

1089   expressing GFH::PH and mCherry::H2B for visualization of the plasma membrane and

1090   the chromosomes, respectively (strain OD95). The timer starts at NEBD.

1091

1092   **Video 13**

1093   Mitosis in the P_1 cell of a small control two-cell embryo with monopolar spindles

1094   expressing GFH::PH and mCherry::H2B for visualization of the plasma membrane and

1095   the chromosomes, respectively (strain OD95). The timer starts at NEBD.

1096

1097   **Video 14**

1098   Mitosis in the P_1 cell of a wild-type sized *pch-2(tm1458)* two-cell embryo with monopolar

1099   spindles expressing GFH::PH and mCherry::H2B for visualization of the plasma

1100   membrane and the chromosomes, respectively (strain BHL575). The timer starts at

1101   NEBD.

1102

1103   **Video 15**

1104   Mitosis in the P_1 cell of a small *pch-2(tm1458)* two-cell embryo with monopolar spindles

1105   expressing GFH::PH and mCherry::H2B for visualization of the plasma membrane and

1106   the chromosomes, respectively (strain BHL575). The timer starts at NEBD.

1107

1108   **Video 16**

1109   Mitosis in the AB cell of a wild-type sized *cmt-1(ok2879)* two-cell embryo with monopolar

1110   spindles expressing GFH::PH and mCherry::H2B for visualization of the plasma

1111   membrane and the chromosomes, respectively (strain BHL608). The timer starts at

1112   NEBD.

1113

1114 **Video 17**

1115 Mitosis in the AB cell of a small *cmt-1(ok2879)* two-cell embryo with monopolar spindles

1116 expressing GFH::PH and mCherry::H2B for visualization of the plasma membrane and

1117 the chromosomes, respectively (strain BHL608). The timer starts at NEBD.

1118

1119 **Video 18**

1120 Mitosis in the P_1 cell of a wild-type sized *cmt-1(ok2879)* two-cell embryo with monopolar

1121 spindles expressing GFH::PH and mCherry::H2B for visualization of the plasma

1122 membrane and the chromosomes, respectively (strain BHL608). The timer starts at

1123 NEBD.

1124

1125 **Video 19**

1126 Mitosis in the P_1 cell of a small *cmt-1(ok2879)* two-cell embryo with monopolar spindles

1127 expressing GFH::PH and mCherry::H2B for visualization of the plasma membrane and

1128 the chromosomes, respectively (strain BHL608). The timer starts at NEBD.

A

control

ani-2^RNAi

GFP::PH
mCherry::H2B

B

zyg-1^RNAi

ani-2^RNAi;zyg-1^RNAi

C

D

A

B

A

Large AB cell

Small AB cell

GFP::PH
mCherry::H2B

ani-2^RNAi

B

ani-2^RNAi

pch-2;ani-2^RNAi

A

zyg-1^{RNAi}

merge

PCH-2::GFP

PCH-2::GFP
mCherry::H2B

B

C

zyg-1^{RNAi}

merge

GFP::MAD-2

GFP::MAD-2
mCherry::H2B

D

A

merge

PCH-2::
GFP

PCH-2::GFP
mCherry::H2B

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

B

A

Control RNAi   *gpr-1/2^RNAi*

PCH-2::GFP
mCherry::H2B
mCherry::PH

B

C

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*