The meiotic LINC complex component KASH5 is an activating adaptor for cytoplasmic

dynein

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Abstract

Cytoplasmic dynein-driven movement of chromosomes during prophase I of mammalian

meiosis is essential for synapsis and genetic exchange. Dynein connects to chromosome

telomeres via KASH5 and SUN1 or SUN2, which together span the nuclear envelope. Here,

we show that KASH5 promotes dynein motility in vitro, and cytosolic KASH5 inhibits dynein's

interphase functions. KASH5 interacts with either dynein light intermediate chain (DYNC1LI1

or DYNC1LI2) via a conserved helix in the LIC C-terminal, and this region is also needed for

dynein's recruitment to other cellular membranes. KASH5's N-terminal EF-hands are

essential, as the interaction with dynein is disrupted by mutation of key calcium-binding

residues, although it is not regulated by cellular calcium levels. Dynein can be recruited to

KASH5 at the nuclear envelope independently of dynactin, while LIS1 is essential for

dynactin incorporation into the KASH5-dynein complex. Altogether, we show that the trans-

membrane protein KASH5 is an activating adaptor for dynein, and shed light on the

hierarchy of assembly of KASH5-dynein-dynactin complexes.

Introduction

To conceive healthy offspring, a paternal sperm and maternal egg must be created, which requires the specialised form of cell division, meiosis, in which maternal and paternal homologues pair in prophase I to allow the swap of genetic material by synapsis, generating genetically distinct haploid daughter cells. This is facilitated by chromosomes attaching to the nuclear envelope (NE), usually via their telomeres (Kim et al., 2022; Rubin et al., 2020). In vertebrates and many other organisms, the chromosomes move along the inner nuclear membrane (INM) to transiently cluster in a 'meiotic bouquet' (Fig. S1 A) that brings homologues into close proximity and promotes the formation of the synaptonemal complex in zygotene, enhancing synapsis and recombination (Burke, 2018; Kim et al., 2022; Rubin et al., 2020). In many organisms, these dynamic chromosome movements require force generated by the microtubule motor cytoplasmic dynein-1 (dynein, hereafter) either acting directly on the chromosomes (Horn et al., 2013; Lee et al., 2015; Morimoto et al., 2012; Rog and Dernburg, 2015; Sato et al., 2009; Wynne et al., 2012), or indirectly by driving nuclear movement (Burke, 2018; Lee et al., 2015; Rubin et al., 2020). Crucially, the force must be transmitted from the cytoplasm to the chromosomes on the other side of the NE. This is achieved by Linkers of Nucleoplasm and Cytoplasm (LINC) complexes which span the NE to physically connect the cytoskeleton and nucleus (Burke, 2018; Sato et al., 2009; Spindler et al., 2019) (Fig. S1 A).

LINC complexes consist of SUN (Sad1, Unc-84) domain proteins that span the INM, binding nuclear lamins and chromatin associated proteins in the nucleoplasm, and interacting with KASH (**K**larsicht, **A**NC-1, **S**yne **H**omology) domain proteins. KASH proteins have large cytosolic domains that bind cytoskeleton-associated proteins and are anchored in the outer nuclear membrane (ONM) by a C-terminal transmembrane domain (Burke, 2018; Kim et al., 2022; Rubin et al., 2020). Inside the NE lumen, the short C terminal KASH-domain sequence associates with SUN proteins, restricting KASH proteins to the nuclear membrane (Hao and Starr, 2019; Morimoto et al., 2012; Starr and Han, 2002). The meiotic LINC complex can contain SUN1 and SUN2, which have both overlapping and distinct roles in meiosis (Ding et al., 2007; Lei et al., 2009; Link et al., 2014; Schmitt et al., 2007). Although *Sun1*$^{-/-}$ mice are sterile (Chi et al., 2009), SUN2 can recruit telomeres to the NM and drive bouquet formation (Link et al., 2014; Schmitt et al., 2007) and allow some prophase chromosome movement

(Lee et al., 2015). SUN1 and 2 bind to a meiotic telomere complex (Dunce et al., 2018;

Shibuya et al., 2014) and to KASH5 in vertebrates, or ZYG-12 in C. elegans, which recruit

dynein to the ONM (Fig. S1 A) (Horn et al., 2013; Lee et al., 2015; Morimoto et al., 2012; Rog

and Dernburg, 2015; Sato et al., 2009; Wynne et al., 2012). KASH5 is essential for

mammalian meiosis, as *Kash5*^{-/-} mice are completely sterile due to impaired synapsis,

accumulation of double-stranded DNA breaks and resulting meiotic arrest (Horn et al.,

2013). Chromosome movement and nuclear rotation in prophase I are also lost (Lee et al.,

2015). Human mutations that cause mistargeting of KASH5 to mitochondria lead to male

sterility (Bentebbal et al., 2021). KASH5 shares sequence homology with the N-terminal

region of the protein encoded by the zebrafish gene *futile cycle* which is required for

pronuclear migration (Dekens et al., 2003; Lindeman and Pelegri, 2012), another dynein-

dependent function that drives the female pronucleus towards the male pronucleus along

microtubules nucleated from the male centrosome (Gönczy et al., 1999; Payne et al., 2003;

Reinsch and Karsenti, 1997; Robinson et al., 1999). ZYG-12 performs the same role in C.

elegans (Malone et al., 2003), but the KASH protein responsible for pronuclear migration in

mammals is not yet known.

Dynein transports a wide range of cargo to the minus end of microtubules (Reck-Peterson et

al., 2018). It is a large 1.6 MDa holoenzyme (Fig. S1 B) comprised of two heavy chains (DHC:

DYNC1H1) containing the globular motor domains, which are the site of ATP hydrolysis. Its

cargo binding tail domain contains the intermediate chains (ICs: DYNC1I1 and 2) which bind

directly to the DHCs; three light chains, which bind to the ICs; and two light intermediate

chains (LICs: DYNC1LI1 and 2) (Pfister et al., 2005; Reck-Peterson et al., 2018). The LICs bind

to DHC via their N terminal GTPase-like domain which is highly conserved between LICs 1

and 2 (Schroeder et al., 2014). The unstructured carboxy terminus protrudes from the

motor complex (Celestino et al., 2019; Lee et al., 2018; Schroeder et al., 2014) and is less

homologous between LIC1 and 2 apart from two regions of predicted alpha-helix that link

dynein to cargo adaptors (Celestino et al., 2019; Kumari et al., 2021b; Lee et al., 2020; Lee et

al., 2018).

Dynein requires the multi-component dynactin complex (Fig. S1 B) for function (Feng et al.,

2020; Gill et al., 1991; King et al., 2003; McKenney et al., 2014; Schlager et al., 2014a;

Schroer and Sheetz, 1991), although dynein and dynactin alone interact weakly (Baumbach

et al., 2017; Chowdhury et al., 2015; Jha et al., 2017; Splinter et al., 2012; Urnavicius et al.,

2015). An 'activating adaptor' (Fig. S1 B) is needed for optimum motility and force

generation *in vitro* (Belyy et al., 2016; McKenney et al., 2014; Schlager et al., 2014a) (for

reviews see (Canty and Yildiz, 2020; Olenick and Holzbaur, 2019; Reck-Peterson et al.,

2018)). They strengthen the interaction between dynein and dynactin (Schroeder and Vale,

2016; Splinter et al., 2012) by forming extensive interactions with both components to

generate a tripartite dynein-dynactin-adaptor (DDA) complex, or complexes with two

dyneins per dynactin and adaptor (D_2DA) (Chowdhury et al., 2015; Grotjahn et al., 2018; Lau

et al., 2021; Lee et al., 2020; Urnavicius et al., 2018; Urnavicius et al., 2015), or two dyneins,

one dynactin and two adaptors (Chaaban and Carter, 2022). Adaptor binding releases the

dynein motor domains from the autoinhibited Phi conformation (Torisawa et al., 2014;

Zhang et al., 2017), helping to align them for microtubule interaction (Chowdhury et al.,

2015; Zhang et al., 2017). Finally, adaptors recruit dynein and dynactin to cargo (e.g.

(Horgan et al., 2010b; Schroeder and Vale, 2016; Splinter et al., 2012; Wang et al., 2019)).

The assembly and function of dynein adaptor complexes is promoted by Lissencephaly-1

(LIS1). LIS1 is needed for many dynein functions (Markus et al., 2020) and is mutated in the

neurodevelopmental disorder, Type-1 lissencephaly (Reiner et al., 1993). LIS1 binding to the

dynein motor domain opens the Phi complex (Elshenawy et al., 2020; Gillies et al., 2022;

Htet et al., 2020; Marzo et al., 2020; Qiu et al., 2019) and enhances the formation of DDA

complexes (Baumbach et al., 2017; Dix et al., 2013), increasing the frequency, velocity and

duration of dynein movement (Baumbach et al., 2017; Dix et al., 2013; Fenton et al., 2021;

Gutierrez et al., 2017). LIS1 also increases the proportion of two dynein D_2DA complexes

(Elshenawy et al., 2020; Htet et al., 2020) which generate more force, move faster and are

more processive than DDA complexes (Elshenawy et al., 2019; Sladewski et al., 2018;

Urnavicius et al., 2018). Furthermore, LIS1 contributes to the recruitment of dynein,

dynactin and/or adaptors to a wide range of cellular cargoes in interphase and mitosis

(Cockell et al., 2004; Dix et al., 2013; Dzhindzhev et al., 2005; Lam et al., 2010; Siller et al.,

2005; Sitaram et al., 2012; Splinter et al., 2012; Wang et al., 2013).

Activating adaptor proteins share little sequence homology, but generally contain a long

coiled coil domain, and a site for cargo binding (Lee et al., 2020; McKenney et al., 2014;

Redwine et al., 2017; Schlager et al., 2014a; Schlager et al., 2014b; Urnavicius et al., 2015).

They bind the C-terminal domain of LICs via at least three distinct types of sequence motif—

the CC1 box; the Hook domain; or EF hands (Celestino et al., 2019; Gama et al., 2017; Lee et

al., 2020; Lee et al., 2018; Schroeder and Vale, 2016)—and the motility of all three types of

complex is promoted by LIS1 (Htet et al., 2020). Other adaptors may not activate dynein,

but still link the motor to cargoes (Olenick and Holzbaur, 2019; Reck-Peterson et al., 2018).

For example, Rab7-interacting lysosomal protein (RILP) recruits dynein and dynactin to Rab7

positive late endosomes/lysosomes (Johansson et al., 2007; Jordens et al., 2001; Scherer et

al., 2014; Tan et al., 2011) via its RILP homology domains, but lacks a long coiled coil. The

KASH proteins KASH5 and ZYG-12 are good activating adaptor candidates, because they bind

dynein, have long coiled coils, with KASH5 having an N-terminal EF hand domain (Horn et

al., 2013; Morimoto et al., 2012) whereas ZYG-12 has a Hook domain (Malone et al., 2003).

However, unlike other activating adaptors identified so far, they are trans-membrane

proteins.

Mammalian dynein contains either two LIC1 subunits, or two LIC2 subunits (Tynan et al.,

2000a), providing the potential for differential interactions with adaptors. However, both

LICs bind to the adaptors Rab11-FIP3 (Celestino et al., 2019; Horgan et al., 2010a; Horgan et

al., 2010b), RILP (Celestino et al., 2019; Scherer et al., 2014), BICD2, spindly, Hook3, ninein

and TRAK1 (Celestino et al., 2019), via the highly conserved helix 1 in the LIC C-terminus.

This shared binding ability suggests that LICs may act redundantly, as has been reported in

the endocytic pathway (Horgan et al., 2010a; Horgan et al., 2010b; Tan et al., 2011).

However, other endocytic functions may be isoform-specific (Bielli et al., 2001; Hunt et al.,

2013; Palmer et al., 2009). Likewise, although LIC1 and 2 act redundantly for some mitotic

functions (Jones et al., 2014; Raaijmakers et al., 2013), isoform-specific functions and

localisations have been reported in mitosis (Horgan et al., 2011; Mahale et al., 2016a;

Mahale et al., 2016b; Palmer et al., 2009; Raaijmakers et al., 2013; Sharma et al., 2020;

Sivaram et al., 2009), at the centrosome (Tynan et al., 2000b), during neuronal nuclear

migration (Goncalves et al., 2019) and cell migration (Even et al., 2019; Schmoranzer et al.,

2009). In addition, mitotic phosphorylation of the LIC1 C-terminal domain may offer

temporal control of adaptor selection (Kumari et al., 2021a). The degree of specific and

shared functions for LICs is an important issue that is not fully resolved.

How the dynein motor interacts with KASH5 to drive the dynamic chromosome movements

essential for mammalian meiosis has been poorly understood. Here, we reveal KASH5 to be

a dynein activating adaptor that interacts with the LIC helix 1 region, in agreement with

recent work (Agrawal et al., 2022). We show that this region in the LIC is also key for

dynein's function at the Golgi apparatus and throughout the endocytic pathway, with LICs 1

and 2 acting redundantly. Analysis of the hierarchy of adaptor complex assembly reveals

that dynein can be recruited to KASH5 independently of dynactin, and that LIS1 is essential

for full complex assembly. The interaction between KASH5 and dynein is disrupted by

mutation of the KASH5 EF hand domain, although dynein recruitment to KASH5 in cells is

calcium independent. Since defective synapsis can lead to genetic abnormalities and

infertility, the characterisation of the KASH5-dynein interaction is an important step forward

in understanding the complex mechanism of chromosome movement during mammalian

meiotic prophase I.

Results

KASH5 forms a complex with dynein, dynactin and LIS1

Because KASH5 is expressed only in the meiotic germ line, HeLa cells provide a convenient

"KASH5-null" background for studying the interaction between dynein and KASH5 (Horn et

al., 2013; Morimoto et al., 2012). We generated a stable HeLa cell line in which expression

of GFP-KASH5 was induced by doxycycline so that the recruitment of endogenous dynein

and dynactin to the nuclei of KASH5-expressing cells could be visualised by

immunofluorescence. LIC1 and dynactin p50 were both recruited to KASH5-expressing

nuclei (Fig. 1 A), in addition to dynactin p150 and IC (Horn et al., 2013). In contrast, neither

dynein nor dynactin were recruited to the nuclei of cells transiently expressing a different

KASH protein, nesprin-2α2 (GFP-N2α2).

We confirmed the recruitment of dynein and dynactin to KASH5 biochemically. HeLaM cells

were transiently transfected with GFP-KASH5ΔK (Fig. 1 B) or GFP-N2α2ΔK, which lack their

KASH and transmembrane domains, and so are cytosolic. LIC1, LIC2, IC and p150 all

associated with GFP-KASH5ΔK and not with GFP-N2α2ΔK (Fig. 1 C). The KASH5 N-terminal

166 amino acids (GFP-KASH5ND), containing the EF-hands, was able to pull down dynein IC

and dynactin from cell lysates (Horn et al., 2013), and we found that it was somewhat more

efficient than GFP-KASH5ΔK for LIC1 (Fig. 1 D), as seen for IC (Horn et al., 2013).

LIS1 plays a key role in the assembly of DDA and D$_2$DA complexes (reviewed in (Canty and

Yildiz, 2020; Markus et al., 2020; Olenick and Holzbaur, 2019), and co-precipitates with

BICD2N, dynein and dynactin (Splinter et al., 2012). As reported previously (Horn et al.,

2013), GFP-KASH5ΔK pulled down LIS1 as well as dynein and dynactin, but this complex

excluded the dynein adaptor BICD2 (Fig. 1 C). Immunofluorescence analysis revealed that

endogenous LIS1 was detected at the NE in 99.8% of KASH5-expressing cells (Fig. 1 A; Fig. S1

C), whereas the LIS1 and dynein interactor Nde1 was not, even though it could be detected

at the NE in late G2 cells (Fig. 1 A).

Hierarchy of dynein, dynactin and LIS1 recruitment to KASH5

We next sought to identify which dynein subunits mediate the KASH5 interaction, and the

roles played by dynactin and LIS1. We used RNA interference to deplete individual dynein

subunits in the GFP-KASH5 cell line (Fig. S2 A) and assessed the effect on recruitment to

KASH5. Depletion of dynein IC2 (the only form expressed in HeLa cells: (Palmer et al., 2009))

did not prevent dynein recruitment (Fig. 2 A), with 100% of KASH5-positive nuclei being

labelled with anti-LIC1 (Fig. S1 C). Cytosolic levels of LIC1 were reduced following IC2

depletion, making the NE pool particularly distinct. This is likely due to a modest reduction

in total dynein levels when IC2 is depleted, as seen by immunoblotting with anti-LIC1 and 2

(Fig. S2 A). LIS1 recruitment to KASH5 at the NE was also unaffected by depletion of IC2 (Fig.

2 A and S1 C). Strikingly, dynactin was only rarely detected at the NE in IC2-depleted cells

using antibodies to p150 or p50 (Fig. 2 A and S1 C), even though p150 was still readily

observed at microtubule plus ends. These data suggest that while the interaction between

IC and p150 (Karki and Holzbaur, 1995; King et al., 2003; Vaughan and Vallee, 1995) is not

needed for dynein and LIS1 recruitment to KASH5, it is essential for the association of

dynactin with KASH5.

Since IC2 depletion reduced total cellular dynactin p150 levels by ~25% (Fig. S2 A), we used

a dominant negative approach as another way of testing the effect of disrupting IC2-p150

interactions on recruitment to KASH5, using over-expression of the coiled coil 1 region of

p150 (CC1) (King et al., 2003; Quintyne et al., 1999). Unfortunately, transiently transfected

constructs would not co-express with GFP-KASH5 in the inducible GFP-KASH5 cell line. We

therefore transiently co-transfected HeLa cells with GFP-KASH5 and myc-SUN2 (to enhance

localisation of KASH5 to the NE) along with RFP-tagged CC1. Notably, while CC1 expression

had no effect on dynein or LIS1 recruitment to KASH5, it prevented dynactin accumulation

at the NE (Fig. 2 B), confirming that dynein and LIS1 can associate with KASH5 independently

of dynactin.

We used RNAi to investigate the involvement of LICs in the dynein-KASH5 interaction. There

was no reduction in the proportion of cells with detectable dynein, dynactin or LIS1

recruited to KASH5 after depleting LIC2 alone (Fig. 3 B, D). LIC1 depletion also had very little

effect on dynactin or LIS1 recruitment in a binary scoring assay, but had a variable effect on

dynein intermediate chain, with 80.8 ± 24.3% of cells (n=3 experiments, ±SD) showing IC

signal at the NE (Fig. 3 A, D). However, when both LIC1 and LIC2 were depleted

simultaneously, the proportion of cells with detectable dynein and dynactin at the NE was

reduced by ~75% (Fig. 3 C, D). LIS1 recruitment was also reduced, with ~40% of KASH5

expressing cells showing no LIS1 signal at the NE. We were not able to deplete endogenous

LIC1 completely using RNAi (Fig. S2 B) which may explain why in some cells a residual level

of dynein, dynactin and LIS1 remained with KASH5. In addition, GFP-KASH5ΔK pull-downs

from LIC1 and 2 depleted HeLa cells contained very little dynein and dynactin (Fig. 3 E).

Thus, LIC1 and 2 act redundantly to recruit dynein and LIS1 to KASH5 at the NE, with

dynactin being recruited downstream, by a mechanism requiring the interaction between IC

and p150.

To test if LIS1 is required for KASH5 to associate with dynein and dynactin, we depleted LIS1

using RNAi. Interestingly, the proportion of cells with LIC1 detectable at the NE was virtually

unaffected by LIS1 knock-down (Fig. S1 D, E) whereas p150 recruitment was seen in only

20% of cells (Fig. S1 D, G). Dynein IC detection at KASH5-positive nuclei varied between

experiments (Fig. S1 D, F), with a mean of 57.1% of cells positive for IC74 antibody labelling.

The discrepancy between the anti-LIC1 and IC scoring most likely reflects the weaker NE

labelling seen with the IC74 antibody compared to anti-LIC1 antibodies in control cells. Our

interpretation of these data is that LIS1 depletion reduces dynein levels at the NE

somewhat, to levels that are still detectable by anti-LIC1 but sometimes not by IC74.

Altogether, these data reveal that LIS1 is vital for the dynactin complex to be recruited to

KASH5 downstream of dynein and suggest that LIS1 may also promote the formation of, or

stabilise, the KASH5-dynein complex.

Dynein LIC1 helix 1 is essential for KASH5 binding

We next wanted to ascertain the LIC1 region responsible for the dynein-KASH5 interaction.

Assays with purified protein have shown that helix 1 and some preceding amino acids (433-

458) was the minimal LIC1 region needed for interaction with Hooks, BICD2 and Spindly (Lee

et al., 2018), with additional interactions between LIC1 and Spindly, BICD2 and Hook3 being

seen in helix 2 and the linker region upstream of helix 1 (Celestino et al., 2019). In contrast,

RILP required only helix 1 (LIC1 440-455) (Celestino et al., 2019). We made a series of hLIC1

constructs (Fig. 4 A): full length LIC1; a truncation containing helix 1 but not helix 2 (LIC1-

CT2: amino acids 1-456); and a construct which terminates shortly after the Ras-like domain

and lacks both helices and the linker sequences (LIC1-CT3: amino acids 1-388). Cells

depleted of LIC1 and 2 by RNAi were co-transfected with myc-tagged LIC1 constructs and

the soluble GFP-KASHND. GFP trap IP revealed that while dynein containing LIC1-FL and

LIC1-CT2 was recruited to the KASH5 N-terminal domain, dynein with LIC1-CT3 was not (Fig.

4 B). Previous work has shown that deletion of just helix 1 (N440-T456) or helix 1 point

mutants (F447A/F448A and L451A/L452A) prevented binding of the LIC1 C-terminal domain

to several dynein adaptors using purified proteins (Celestino et al., 2019). We generated the

helix 1 deletion and mutations in GFP-LIC1 (Fig. 4A), and also a deletion lacking helix 1 plus

some linker sequence (S433-S458). These were co-expressed with HA-tagged KASH5ΔK in

HeLaM cells depleted of both LICs. Full length GFP-LIC1 pulled down KASH5ΔK effectively,

whereas the LIC1 helix 1 deletions and point mutants did not (Fig. 4C). We then examined

the recruitment of LIC1 to KASH5 at the NE in HeLaM cells co-expressing HA-KASH5, myc-

SUN2 and GFP-LIC1 constructs. Both wild-type GFP-LIC1 and the mid-length LIC1-CT2 were

recruited to KASH5, although CT2 detection at the NE was variable (Fig. 4 D, E). In contrast,

LIC1-CT3, the helix 1 deletions, and helix 1 point mutants were poorly recruited. Altogether,

these results demonstrate LIC1 helix 1 is essential for interaction with KASH5.

The importance of LIC helix 1 in cargo binding prompted us to assess the role of the LICs on

endogenous membrane cargoes, whose adaptors have not been fully defined. First, we

tested if LIC1 and 2 functioned redundantly in Golgi apparatus morphology and positioning,

for which there is conflicting published evidence (Kumari et al., 2021a; Palmer et al., 2009;

Tan et al., 2011). RNAi depletion of LIC1 or 2 individually led to break-up of the Golgi ribbon

in ~60% of HeLaM cells, with the Golgi fragments remaining centrally located (Fig. 5 A-C). In

contrast, depletion of both LICs simultaneously led to complete fragmentation and

scattering of the Golgi apparatus (Fig. 5 B, C), demonstrating that the LICs act redundantly in

Golgi positioning. This was confirmed by expressing RNAi-resistant LIC1-mKate or LIC2-

mKate in cells depleted of both LICs (Fig. 5 D), as either LIC was able to fully restore Golgi

apparatus clustering. The endocytic pathway also relies heavily on dynein activity (Flores-

Rodriguez et al., 2011; Granger et al., 2014; Reck-Peterson et al., 2018; Wang et al., 2019),

which contributes to the sorting of endocytic cargo in the early endosome (Driskell et al.,

2007). Depletion of both LICs profoundly altered the distribution of early endosomes,

recycling endosomes and lysosomes (Fig. S3 A) while only minimal effects were seen with

single depletions (not shown). Moreover, expression of either LIC1-mKate or LIC2-GFP

restored the position of endocytic organelles (Fig. S3 B), confirming that LICs act

redundantly in this context. We investigated if the same effects were observed with dynein

recruitment to RILP. Recruitment of dynein and dynactin to HA-RILP-positive late

endosomes was significantly reduced when both LICs were depleted together, but not

individually (Fig. S4 A-D).

To examine if the LIC1 region 388-456 that contains helix 1 is needed for Golgi apparatus

and endocytic organelle positioning, we used our knock-down and rescue approach (Figs. 5

E; S3 C, D; S4 E). Both full length GFP-LIC1 and GFP-LIC1-CT2 rescued Golgi apparatus, early

endosome, and lysosome clustering. In contrast, GFP-LIC1-CT3 did not, with EEA1-positive

early endosomes (Fig. S3 C) and LAMP1-positive late endosomes/lysosomes (Fig. S3 D)

remaining localised in the cell periphery, and the Golgi apparatus being fragmented and

scattered (Fig. 5 E). Moreover, GFP-LIC1-CT3 did not interact with RILP, whereas GFP-LIC1-

CT2 or full-length GFP-LIC1 were robustly recruited to RILP positive organelles (Fig. S4 E).

Altogether, these data provide clear *in cellulo* evidence that the LIC adaptor binding helix 1

is needed for dynein's interaction with KASH5 and RILP, and is also crucial for dynein's

function on the Golgi apparatus, early endosomes and lysosomes. Furthermore, we

demonstrate that LIC1 and LIC2 act redundantly in these situations.

KASH5 is a novel activating dynein adaptor

KASH5 shares key properties with other activating dynein adaptors: interaction with LIC

helix 1; ability to recruit dynactin; and presence of an N-terminal dynein binding domain

(containing EF-hands) followed by an extended coiled coil (Horn et al., 2013). In addition,

KASH5's biological function in telomere clustering in prophase of meiosis I (Horn et al.,

2013; Lee et al., 2015) strongly suggest that it recruits active dynein. When expressed out of

its meiotic context, in HeLa cells, we quite often observed clusters of KASH5 and dynein

around discrete points close to or on top of the nucleus (red arrowheads and arrows in Fig.

1 A), suggestive of clustering around the centrosome via active dynein. In addition,

asymmetric distribution of KASH5 in the NE with enrichment towards the MTOC has been

noted (Horn et al., 2013).

Overexpression of activating dynein adaptor proteins lacking their cargo binding domain

disrupts dynein functions by sequestering dynein and preventing its binding to endogenous

adaptors (e.g. (Hoogenraad et al., 2001; Hoogenraad et al., 2003; Horgan et al., 2010a;

Horgan et al., 2010b; Splinter et al., 2012). As KASH5 interacts with LIC helix 1, we

hypothesised that it would compete with other adaptors for binding to dynein. Indeed,

overexpression of cytosolic GFP-KASH5ΔK in HeLaM cells resulted in complete

fragmentation of the Golgi apparatus, and redistribution of lysosomes to the cell periphery;

phenotypes indicative of a loss of dynein function (Fig. 6 A). In contrast, expression of a

cytoplasmic KASH5 construct lacking its N terminal dynein binding domain (Fig. 1 B, GFP-

KASH5ΔNDΔK (Horn et al., 2013)) had no effect on Golgi apparatus or lysosome distribution

and morphology (Fig. 6 A). The effects of GFP-KASH5ΔK are therefore due to KASH5 binding

and sequestering dynein, preventing its recruitment to other membrane cargoes.

We next determined if KASH5 competes with established dynein adaptors for dynein

binding. To test this possibility, we co-transfected HeLaM cells with HA-tagged full-length

KASH5, myc-tagged SUN2 and dominant negative versions of the activating adaptors BICD2

(GFP-BICD2N: (Hoogenraad et al., 2001; Splinter et al., 2012)) and Rab11-FIP3 (GFP-Rab11-

FIP3 I737E, which retains its LIC binding domain but is unable to interact with Rab11 (Wilson

et al., 2005)). Endogenous dynein was recruited to KASH5 at the NE in control cells, but this

was prevented when dominant negative dynein adaptors BICD2N and Rab11-FIP3 I737E

were expressed (Fig. 6 B). We investigated if the same was true for dynein recruitment to

RILP, even though RILP is not thought to be able to activate dynein/dynactin motility (Lee et

al., 2020; Reck-Peterson et al., 2018). Dynein was recruited to RILP-positive organelles

following overexpression of HA-tagged RILP (Fig. 6 C). However, when GFP-BICD2N or GFP-

Rab11-FIP3 I737E were co expressed, recruitment of dynein LIC1 to RILP was abrogated (Fig.

6 C). Taken together, these findings show that established dynein adaptor proteins compete

with KASH5 and RILP for dynein binding.

To test directly if KASH5 could act as an activating adaptor and form motile complexes with

dynein and dynactin, we used single molecule in vitro motility assays consisting of purified

bacterially expressed KASH5 truncations (Fig. 7 A) mixed with purified fluorescently-labelled

dynein, dynactin and LIS1. We generated three KASH5 constructs encoding amino acids 1-

407, 1-460, 1-507, all of which contain the N-terminal EF-hand dynein binding domain plus

the predicted coiled coil region (amino acids 166-350), plus a variable amount of the C-

terminal region. SEC-MALS analysis showed that all three proteins formed dimers (Fig. 7 B).

Of these, KASH5$_{1-460}$ was the most active in motility assays using dynein containing a heavy

chain mutant that cannot form the inhibited Phi conformation (Zhang et al., 2017) (Fig. 7C).

We next used assays with wild type purified dynein, which when combined with dynactin

and LIS1 alone displayed very little motility (Fig. 7 D). The inclusion of KASH5$_{1-460}$ promoted

processive dynein movements (Fig. 7 D, E), although a lesser number than seen with

purified Hook3$_{1-522}$ (Urnavicius et al., 2018). KASH5 EF-hands (amino acids 1-115), the coiled

coils (amino acids 155-349), or a combination of EF-hands and coiled coils alone (amino

acids 1-349) were not enough to activate dynein/dynactin (Fig. 7 F). Importantly, the

velocity of processive dynein movements was the same for KASH5$_{1-460}$ and Hook3$_{1-522}$ (Fig. 7

E). KASH5, a transmembrane protein, is therefore an activating dynein adaptor.

KASH5's EF hand is critical for dynein and dynactin complex assembly

A common feature of several dynein adaptor proteins is the presence of an N terminal pair

of EF hands in the dynein-binding domain, as seen in Rab11-FIP3, CRACR2a, Rab45/RASEF

and ninein (Celestino et al., 2019; Lee et al., 2020; Reck-Peterson et al., 2018; Wang et al.,

2019). KASH5 contains two putative EF hands, extending from amino acids 36-103, which

form the bulk of the dynein binding domain (Fig. 1 B, D; 4 C). Sequence alignment of the

KASH5 EF hands with CRACR2a, Rab45, FIP3 and ninein revealed that KASH5, like FIP3 and

ninein, lacks some key consensus calcium-binding amino acids (at positions X,Y,Z,-X,-Y,-Z),

with these changes being consistent across species (Fig. 8 A). EF hand 1 is particularly

divergent, with only the residue in position X (Grabarek, 2006) matching the consensus, and

with the key position -Z being a glutamine or histidine instead of a glutamate residue. While

EF hand 2 has consensus amino acids in position X, other residues either do not conform or

vary between species. For example, in non-rodent KASH5 EF hand 2, there is aspartate in

place of glutamate at -Z, which can result in magnesium binding (Grabarek, 2006), as

suggested for FIP3 (Lee et al., 2020).

This analysis suggested that KASH5 might not be calcium regulated. To determine if the

KASH5 and Rab11-FIP3 interaction with dynein in cells required calcium or not, we

expressed GFP-tagged KASH5 with myc-SUN2 in HeLaM cells, or GFP-Rab11-FIP3 in Vero

cells, and labelled for endogenous LIC1. In control DMSO-treated cells there was robust

recruitment of dynein to KASH5 at the NE and to Rab11-FIP3-positive recycling endosomes

(Fig. S5). This recruitment was not affected by treating cells with the cell permeable calcium

chelator, BAPTA-AM, for 2 hours to deplete intracellular calcium (Fig. S5). Furthermore,

endogenous LIC1 was present at equal levels when GFP-KASH5-ND was pulled down from

cell lysates in the presence or absence of EGTA (Fig. 8 B). This demonstrates that the KASH5-

dynein interaction does not require calcium and confirms that the Rab11-FIP3-dynein

interaction in cells is calcium-independent, as reported for in vitro assays (Lee et al., 2020).

We wanted to test the importance of KASH5's EF hands in the dynein interaction, even if

calcium was not required. The *fue* mutation in the zebrafish KASH5 homologue, futile cycle

(fue) (Lindeman and Pelegri, 2012), gives zygotes that are defective in pronuclear migration

and mitotic spindle assembly (Dekens et al., 2003; Lindeman and Pelegri, 2012). The

corresponding mutation in human KASH5 changes a valine to glutamic acid in EF hand 1

(V54E: Fig. 8 A). We generated KASH5-EF-*fue* constructs to establish how this mutation

affected KASH5-dynein interactions. We also mutated the amino acids in positions X and Y

of both EF hands to alanine (KASH5-EF-AA: D44A; Q46A; D81A; N83A: Fig. 8 A), as these

mutations in CRACR2a ablate its function (Srikanth et al., 2016; Wang et al., 2019). Lastly,

we replaced some KASH5 residues by those found in CRACR2a (Fig. 8 A). KASH5-EF-mod1

has four substitutions: Q46E; Q55D; P87Y and K88L. In KASH5-EF-mod2, nine amino acids in

EF hands 1 and 2 and part of the exiting helix were changed to the CRACR2a sequences.

To test which KASH5 mutants could form a stable complex with dynein and dynactin, GFP-

KASH5ΔK-WT or EF hand mutants were isolated from HeLaM cells by GFP-trap and probed

for endogenous IC and dynactin p150. Unmodified GFP-KASH5ΔK co-precipitated with

dynein and dynactin, as did GFP-KASH5ΔK-EF-mod1 (Fig. 8 B). Interestingly, dynein

recruitment to EF-mod1 was greater than to KASH5ΔK-WT in 2/3 experiments. In contrast,

much less dynein and dynactin bound to the GFP-KASH5ΔK-EF-*fue*, EF-AA, or EF-mod2

mutants. In agreement, we found that endogenous dynein was recruited to full length GFP-

KASH5 and GFP-KASH5-EF-mod-1 at the NE, whereas GFP-KASH5-EF-*fue*, EF-AA, or EF-mod2

mutants did not accumulate dynein (Fig. 8 C and D).

As another means of assessing the effects of these mutations on KASH5-dynein binding, we

harnessed the dominant negative effect of expressing cytosolic KASH5, which causes Golgi

fragmentation by sequestering dynein (Fig. 6A). In this assay, any mutant that prevents

KASH5 from binding dynein would have no effect on Golgi morphology when expressed, as

seen with GFP alone (Fig. 8 E). Overexpression of GFP-KASH5ΔK or GFP-KASH5ΔK-mod1 in

HeLaM cells resulted in strong fragmentation of the Golgi apparatus. In contrast, GFP-

KASHΔK-EF-*fue*, GFP-KASHΔK-EF-AA or GFP-KASHΔK-EF-mod2 (Fig. 8 E) had a much weaker

effect on Golgi positioning, implying that these EF hand mutants were much less able to

sequester dynein. Altogether, these findings show that the KASH5 EF hand is critical for its

function with dynein and dynactin, although the interaction is not calcium dependent.

Discussion

Infertility will affect approximately 1 in 7 couples trying to conceive and has extraordinarily

detrimental effects on those affected. Despite this, surprisingly little is known about the

multitude of molecular and genetic causes of infertility. This is largely due to the complexity

of meiosis and pronuclear migration, and a lack of samples to study from sterile

populations. Dynein generates the mechanical force required for the dynamic chromosome

movements in meiotic prophase I that are essential for meiotic progression and to maintain

genetic integrity. KASH5 is part of the mammalian LINC complex component that spans the

NE to link dynein to telomeres and is essential for synapsis and meiotic progression (Horn et

al., 2013; Morimoto et al., 2012). Here, we show that KASH5 is a trans-membrane activating

adaptor for dynein, in agreement with a recent report (Agrawal et al., 2022). We reveal that

dynein-KASH5 interactions require LIC helix 1 (LIC1 residues 440-456), which mediates

dynein's interaction with many other cargo adaptors (Celestino et al., 2019; Lee et al., 2020;

Lee et al., 2018). Accordingly, KASH5 competes with established dynein adaptors for dynein

binding, and expression of a cytosolic KASH5 truncation inhibits dynein interphase function

(Fig. 6), as seen for other dynein adaptor constructs that cannot bind cargo (Hoogenraad et

al., 2001; Hoogenraad et al., 2003; Horgan et al., 2010a; Horgan et al., 2010b; Splinter et al.,

2012). Our *in vitro* assays (Fig. 7) confirm that KASH5 is an activating dynein adaptor

(McKenney et al., 2014; Schlager et al., 2014a; Schlager et al., 2014b) as KASH5, in the

presence of LIS1 and dynactin, promotes motility of purified dynein molecules (Fig. 7), as

recently reported (Agrawal et al., 2022).

Considerable force must be exerted to move chromosomes within the nucleoplasm to

promote synapsis. There may be ~80 LINC complexes per telomere (Spindler et al., 2019),

each providing a point where dynein motors can engage with the cytoplasmic face of the

NE. A key question is how many dyneins bind to each LINC complex, which likely contains

three KASH5 dimers bound to two SUN trimers (Gurusaran and Davies, 2021). Solution

studies suggest that a single LIC protein binds per KASH5 dimer (Agrawal et al., 2022), in

keeping with the report that two BICD2 proteins can assemble with one dynactin and two

dyneins (Chaaban and Carter, 2022), with the LICs from one of the dyneins interacting with

both of the BICD2 adaptors. This suggests that there maybe one or two dyneins per LINC

complex, and an ensemble of 80-160 dyneins per telomere.

Importantly, we find that KASH5 recruits LIS1 as well as dynein and dynactin. LIS1 is crucial

for dynein function where high force is needed (Chapman et al., 2019; Markus et al., 2020;

Pandey and Smith, 2011; Reddy et al., 2016; Yi et al., 2011). It increases dynein force

generation in vitro by promoting the recruitment of two dynein motors per dynactin

(Elshenawy et al., 2020; Htet et al., 2020; Markus et al., 2020) and opens the dynein phi

complex to allow easier assembly of the dynein/dynactin/adaptor complex (Elshenawy et

al., 2020; Gillies et al., 2022; Htet et al., 2020; Marzo et al., 2020; Qiu et al., 2019). Indeed, in

cells, LIS1 enhances dynein and dynactin recruitment to a wide range of cellular cargoes,

including the NE in late G2 (Cockell et al., 2004; Dix et al., 2013; Dzhindzhev et al., 2005; Lam

et al., 2010; Siller et al., 2005; Sitaram et al., 2012; Splinter et al., 2012; Wang et al., 2013).

Our data suggest that LIS1 is essential for recruiting dynactin to KASH5 (Fig. S1). Surprisingly,

LIS1 depletion had much less effect on dynein recruitment. We also saw that interfering

with dynein IC-p150 interactions by IC2 depletion or over-expression of p150 CC1 did not

prevent dynein recruitment to KASH5. Based on these data, we propose that the first step in

KASH5 adaptor complex assembly is an interaction between LIC helix 1 and the KASH5 EF-

hands. Next, binding of LIS1 opens the dynein phi complex. The third step involves

recruitment of the dynactin complex initiated by the IC-p150 interaction, followed by the

formation of extensive contacts between the dynactin complex and the adaptor

(Chowdhury et al., 2015; Grotjahn et al., 2018; Lau et al., 2021; Lee et al., 2020; Urnavicius

et al., 2018; Urnavicius et al., 2015; Zhang et al., 2017). Interestingly, forming the active

complex requires more than just the KASH5 EF-hands and coiled coil region (amino acids 1-

349, Fig. 7). There is a potential spindly motif (Gama et al., 2017) at amino acids 371-376

(Agrawal et al., 2022), which in other adaptors interacts with the pointed end of dynactin

(Chaaban and Carter, 2022; Lau et al., 2021). This motif is present in all motility-promoting

KASH5 truncations (Fig. 7).

An interesting question is whether dynein's conformation (phi or open) affects its ability to

bind adaptors, or subsequently recruit dynactin. If so, then LIS1 binding may regulate

adaptor complex assembly *per se*. While LIS1 does not remain in motile complexes with

dynein and dynactin in vitro (Elshenawy et al., 2020; Htet et al., 2020), it appears to be a

stable component of at least some DDA complexes in vivo because it is recruited to KASH5

at the NE. It is also found along with dynein and dynactin in KASH5 (Fig. 1; (Horn et al.,

2013)) and BICD2 pull-downs (Splinter et al., 2012). It is also required for dynein-dynactin

recruitment to the NE in late G2/prophase (Raaijmakers et al., 2013). Understanding fully

the in vivo role of LIS1 in dynein-dynactin-adaptor function is a key challenge for the future.

KASH5 interacts with LICs via its N-terminal EF-hand domain, like FIP3, CRACR2a, Rab45 and

ninein (Celestino et al., 2019; Lee et al., 2020; Reck-Peterson et al., 2018; Wang et al., 2019).

Many EF-hands are known for their regulation by calcium, and CRACR2a-dynein interactions

are calcium-dependent (Wang et al., 2019). However, not all EF hand adaptors bind calcium,

nor does calcium binding necessarily regulate EF hand function (Lee et al., 2020; Wang et

al., 2019). Indeed, neither KASH5-dynein nor FIP3-dynein interactions were affected by

calcium depletion (Fig. S5), and the KASH5 EF-hands lack key residues known to be essential

for calcium binding (Fig. 8 A). Furthermore, helix 1 peptide binding to purified KASH5 was

not calcium sensitive, and KASH5 did not bind calcium (Agrawal et al., 2022). However, the

structure of the KASH5 EF-hand is clearly vital, since mutating the X and Y positions of both

EF-hands to alanine ablated KASH5-dynein interactions (Fig. 8). Similar adverse effects on

dynein-KASH5 association were seen after mutation of other residues in KASH5 EF-hands,

and the expression of one of these (L147D) reduced the levels of dynactin somewhat at

telomeres in mouse spermatocytes in vivo (Agrawal et al., 2022). Importantly, our studies

suggest why the *fue* mutation in the EF-hand (Lindeman and Pelegri, 2012) is detrimental in

zebrafish development (Dekens et al., 2003; Lindeman and Pelegri, 2012). It puts a

negatively charged glutamic acid in place of a hydrophobic valine in the first exiting helix,

which disrupts KASH5-dynein interactions in vitro and in cells (Fig. 8). Interestingly, zebrafish

fue mutants are defective in pronuclear migration (Dekens et al., 2003). Similarly, Zyg12, the

C. elegans LINC complex KASH-domain protein that binds dynein LIC via a Hook domain, is

needed for both pronuclear migration (Malone et al., 2003; Minn et al., 2009) and meiotic

synapsis (Sato et al., 2009). Whether KASH5 plays a role in mammalian pro-nuclear

migration remains to be determined.

As well as characterising KASH5 as a dynein adaptor, we also provide insight into LIC

function in cells. Either LIC can recruit dynein to KASH5 in cells (Fig. 3), as confirmed by using

pull-downs with GFP-LIC1 (Figs. 4, 8) and reconstituting KASH5-activated motility of dynein

containing only LIC2 (Fig. 7). Similarly, LICs 1 and 2 act redundantly for recruitment of dynein

to RILP, and in the positioning of the Golgi apparatus and recycling, early and late

endosomes in cells (Figs. 5 and S3). We also show that the helix 1-containing region is

essential for all these roles. This is in keeping with roles for Hooks and BicD2 at the Golgi

apparatus (Christensen et al., 2021; Hoogenraad et al., 2001; Hoogenraad et al., 2003;

Splinter et al., 2012), and Hooks (Christensen et al., 2021; Guo et al., 2016; Olenick et al.,

2019; Villari et al., 2020), FIP3 (Horgan et al., 2010a; Horgan et al., 2010b) and RILP

(Johansson et al., 2007; Jordens et al., 2001; Scherer et al., 2014; Tan et al., 2011) in

endocytic organelle dynamics, since all of these adaptors can interact with both LICs

(Celestino et al., 2019; Christensen et al., 2021; Lee et al., 2020; Lee et al., 2018; Schlager et

al., 2014a; Schroeder et al., 2014; Schroeder and Vale, 2016; Urnavicius et al., 2018),

although BicD2 may preferentially bind LIC1 in vivo (Goncalves et al., 2019). As yet,

however, there is no molecular explanation for why LIC1 is needed for motility of SNX8-

labelled endosomal tubules whereas LIC2-dynein moves SNX1 and SNX4 tubules (Hunt et al.,

2013). Other isoform-specific roles for LICs have been described (see introduction),

particularly in mitosis, where LIC phosphorylation, coupled with Pin1 binding, may help

control which adaptors bind to LIC1 and LIC2 (Kumari et al., 2021a; Kumari et al., 2021b). LIC

phosphorylation, included in the region just upstream of helix 1, also plays a key role in

switching dynein from interphase to mitotic cargos (Addinall et al., 2001; Dwivedi et al.,

2019; Kumari et al., 2021a; Niclas et al., 1996).

Altogether, we have shown that KASH5 is a novel trans-membrane member of the dynein

activating adaptor protein class, mapped its interaction with dynein LICs, and demonstrated

that the KASH5 EF hands are critical for this process. This work also sheds light on order in

which dynein-dynactin-adaptor complexes assemble in cells, and the involvement of LIS1 in

this process.

Materials and Methods

Antibodies and constructs

The following mouse antibodies were used: dynein IC (IC74, MAB1618, Millipore;

RRID:AB_2246059); EEA1 (Clone 14, BD Biosciences; RRID:AB_397830); LAMP1 (Clone H4A3,

Developmental Studies Hybridoma Bank, RRID:AB_2296838; or Abcam, RRID:AB_470708);

LIS1 (Sigma-Aldrich L7391; RRID:AB_260418); dynactin p150 (BD Transduction Laboratories

610473; RRID:AB_397845); GFP (Roche 11814460001; RRID:AB_390913); Myc-tag 9B11 (Cell

Signaling Technology 2276; RRID:AB_331783); GM130 (BD Transduction Laboratories

610822; RRID:AB_398141); transferrin receptor (Clone MEM-189, MA1-19300,

ThermoFisher/Zymed; RRID:AB_2536952); and α-tubulin DM1A (Sigma-Aldrich T9026;

RRID:AB_477593). The following rabbit antibodies were used: HA-tag (Sigma-Aldrich H6908;

RRID:AB_260070); LAMP1 (Cell Signalling D2D11, monoclonal; RRID:AB_2687579); EEA1

(Cell Signalling Technology C45B10, monoclonal; RRID:AB_2096811); LIC1 (Cambridge

Bioscience HPA035013, polyclonal; RRID:AB_10600807); LIC2 (Abcam ab178702,

monoclonal); Nde1 (Proteintech, 10233-1-AP, polyclonal; RRID:AB_2149877). Secondary

antibodies: LI-COR IRDye secondary antibodies (800CW or 680RD: RRIDs AB_621846,

AB_621847, AB_621848, AB_2814912, AB_2716687); Alexa Fluor 488, Alexa Fluor 594,

Alexa Fluor 647, Cy3, or Cy5 labelled donkey anti-mouse, -rabbit and -sheep (Jackson

Immunoresearch, RRIDs AB_2340846, AB_2340854, AB_2340813, AB_2340819,

AB_2340862, AB_2313584, AB_2340621, AB_2340607, AB_2492288, AB_2307443,

AB_2340745 , AB_2340748, AB_2340751, AB_2340730).

Constructs

The following KASH5 constructs in pcDNA 4T/O have been previously described (Horn et al.,

2013): GFP-KASH5; GFP-KASH5ΔK; GFP-KASH5ΔNDΔK; GFP-KASH5ΔCDΔK; GFP-KASH5ND, as

has a myc-SUN2 construct in pcDNA3.1(-). EF-hand mutants were made using HiFi assembly

(New England Biolabs) by linearising GFP-KASH5 and GFP-KASH5ΔK using Q5 polymerase

with primers 5'GTCATGCGTGACTGGATTGCTG-3' and 5'-CGTGGAGTTGAGTATTTGCTCCTC-3'

and inserting synthetic G-block sequences (Integrated DNA Technologies) encoding KASH5

bps 97-319 with the appropriate mutations (see Fig. 8). HA-KASH5ΔK was made by

amplifying the KASH5ΔK sequence using forward primer 5'-

GCGCGGATCCGACCTGCCCGAGGGCCC-3' and reverse primer 5'-

GCGCGAATTCTTATGGATGTCGAGTGACTCTGAGC-3', digesting with BamH1 and EcoRI then

ligating into pcDNA3.1 containing the HA tag sequence. For generating a stable cell line, full

length GFP-KASH5 was inserted into the doxycycline-inducible lentiviral vector pTRIPZ (Open

Biosystem, Singapore) after amplification using primers 5'-

GCGCCTCGAGGACCTGCCCGAGGGCCCGGT-3' and 5'-

GCGCACGCGTTCACACTGGAGGGGGCTGGAGG-3' followed by digestion with XhoI and MluI.

Full length nesprin2α2 was amplified from a HeLa cDNA library and inserted into pcDNA3.1

downstream of GFP using XhoI and AflII digestion to give GFP-N2α2. A version lacking the

transmembrane and KASH domain was generated in the same vector to give GFP-N2α2ΔK.

Silently-mutated siRNA resistant full length hLIC1-mKate, hLIC2-mKate and hLIC2-GFP have

been previously described (Jones et al., 2014). RNAi-resistant full length LIC1 and LIC2 and

LIC1 truncations were generated by PCR and restriction digest cloning into pEGFP-C3

(Clontech) and used for rescue experiments. GFP-LIC1-CT2 encodes amino acids 1-456 of

human LIC1 with the addition of the amino acid sequence ADPPDLDN after the LIC1 C-

terminus. GFP-LIC1-CT3 encodes amino acids 1-387 followed by ADPPDLDN. N-terminally

Myc-tagged versions of full length human LIC1, LIC1-CT2 and LIC1-CT3 were generated using

the forward primer 5'-CAGCTGGTACCGCGGCCGTGGGGCGAGTC-3'. The reverse primers

were 5'-TCGAATCTAGACTAAGAAGCTTCTCCTTCCGTAGGAGATG-3' (full length LIC1), 5'-

TCGAATCTAGACTAAGAGCCAGTCTTTTTACTCAACAAAC-3' (LIC1-CT2) and

TCGAATCTAGACTATGGTGGTTGCTTTGCTAAAAGGGAC (LIC1-CT3), with no additional C-

terminal amino acids. PCR products were inserted into pcDNA-3.1 downstream of a myc-tag

sequence using KpnI and XbaI digestion. To generate LIC1 helix 1 mutants (FF: F447A, F448A

and AA: L451A, L452A), EGFP-LIC1 was linearised using Q5 polymerase (New England

Biolabs) with primers 5'-GTGTGAGTGGTGGTAGCCCTG-3' and 5'-

TGTAGCTCCAGCTTTCATGTTTGG-3'. A 111 bp single stranded ultramer (IDT) was used to

insert the appropriate mutated sequence using HiFi assembly (New England Biolabs). LIC1

helix 1 deletion mutants were generated in EGFP-LIC1 by Q5 amplification with

phosphorylated primers followed by blunt end ligation using the NEB Quick Ligation kit. The

primers for deletion or helix 1 (S440-T456) were 5'Phos-GGCTCTCCAGGAGGCCCTG and

5'Phos-TGTAGCTCCAGCTTTCATGTTTGGATC. For deletion of helix 1 and flanking sequences

(N433-S458) the primers were 5'Phos-CCAGGAGGCCCTGGTGTGAG-3' and 5'Phos-

TGGATCAATTTTTTTTGACCCAGCAGGAA-3'.

Vectors encoding mCherry-chicken p50 and RFP-CC1 have been previously described

(Wozniak et al., 2009). To generate GFP-BICD2N, the DNA sequence encoding amino acids 2-

402 of mouse BICD2 was amplified using forward primer, 5'-

GCGCGAATTCGTCGGCGCCGTCGGAGGAG-3'; reverse primer, 5'-

GCGCGGATCCTCACAGGCGCCGCAGGGCACT-3', then cloned into pEGFP-C1 (Clontech) using

EcoRI and BamHI. Other constructs were generous gifts from the following colleagues:

pMDG2.1-VSV-G and p8.91-Gag-Pol vectors (Apolonia et al., 2015; Zufferey et al., 1997), Dr

M. Malim (King's College London, UK); GFP-Rab11-FIP3 and GFP-Rab11-FIP3 I737E, (Wilson

et al., 2005), Prof. G. Gould (University of Glasgow, UK); pEGFP-C1 containing hRILP (Colucci

et al., 2005), Prof. Cecilia Bucci (University of Salento, Italy); pCB6-HA-RILP, Dr Mark Dodding

(University of Bristol, UK).

Cell lines and transfection

HeLa and hTERT-RPE cells were obtained from ATCC; Vero cells were purchased from

European Collection of Authenticated Cell Cultures. HeLaM cells were kindly provided by Dr

Andrew Peden, University of Sheffield, UK. Mycoplasma testing was routinely performed by

DAPI staining.

HeLa, HeLaM, HEK293T and Vero cells were maintained in DMEM supplemented with 10%

FBS at 8.0% CO_2 and 37°C. To generate cells stably expressing human GFP-KASH5, HeLa cells

were transfected with pTRIPZ-GFP-KASH5, pMDG2.1-VSV-G and p8.91-GAG-POL in a ratio of

4:1:2 to a total of 10 μg of DNA using Lipofectamine 2000 (ThermoFisher) as per the

manufacturer's instructions overnight. Virus was then collected and passed through a 0.45

μm filter before addition to cells for 4 hours. Transduced cells were selected for with fresh

media containing puromycin (3μg/ml). Induction of GFP-KASH5 expression was induced with

doxycycline (500ng/ml) for 16 hours. Transient transfection of HeLaM and Vero cells on #1.5

coverslips was achieved using JetPEI (PolyPlus transfection), using half the manufacturer's

recommended amounts of total DNA and JetPEI. Expression levels were carefully titrated for

each plasmid, in some cases using dilution with carrier DNA (pBluescript SK-II) (Flores-

Rodriguez et al., 2011), to avoid over-expression artefacts. For biochemical analysis, cells

were transfected in 10 cm dishes using either JetPEI, PEI (Sigma 408727) or FuGENE® HD

(E2311). PEI was dissolved at 1 mg/ml in 150 mM NaCl by incubation at 50°C, sterile filtered

and stored in aliquots at -80°C. Per dish, 16 µg of total DNA was diluted in 200 µl Opti-MEM

(Gibco 319850), 48 µl of PEI was added to another 200 µl of Opti-MEM, then after 5 min the

PEI was added to the DNA mix and incubated for 30 min at room temperature before adding

to the cells.

Short interfering RNA (siRNA) methods

For depletion of target genes, siRNA transfections used INTERFERin (PolyPlus Transfection).

siRNAs targeting the ORF of human LIC1 and LIC2 were obtained from Eurofins MWG

Operon. Oligonucleotides were applied to HeLaM cells at a final concentration of 5-20 nM

(for HeLaM) or 20 nM (for GFP-KASH5 HeLas) per target for 72 hours before analysis by

immunoblot and immunofluorescence. The following sequences were used, synthesised by

Eurofins MWG with dTdT overhangs: LIC1, 5'-AGAUGACAGUGUAGUUGUA-3'; LIC2, 5'-

ACCUCGACUUGUUGUAUAA-3' (Jones et al., 2014; Palmer et al., 2009); LIS1, 5'-

GAACAAGCGAUGCAUGAAG-3' (Lam et al., 2010; Tsai et al., 2005). For IC2, a SMARTpool

(Thermo Scientific Dharmacon) was used consisting of a mixture of four siRNAs: 5'-

GUAAAGCUUUGGACAACUA-3'; 5'-GAUGUUAUGUGGUCACCUA-3'; 5'-

GCAUUUCUGUGGAGGGUAA-3'; 5'-GUGGUUAGUUGUUUGGAUU-3'. Control RNAi

experiments were performed either using siGENOME lamin A/C Control (ThermoFisher

Scientific: Fig. 5 B-C, S3 A, B) or ON-TARGET-plus Non-targeting siRNA #1 (Thermo Scientific

Dharmacon). For transfection of siRNA-treated cells for biochemical or immunofluorescence

analysis, cells were depleted for 24 or 48 hrs then transfected with either JetPEI, PEI or

FuGENE® HD and incubated for a further 24 hr before lysate preparation or fixation. For LIC

rescue experiments, the LIC1 constructs used were siRNA-resistant (Jones et al., 2014).

Immunoblotting

For validating siRNA knock-down efficiency, lysates were collected 72 hours post siRNA

addition in RIPA lysis buffer (Sigma-Aldrich R0278) supplemented with cOmplete ULTRA

protease inhibitor (Roche 5892791001) and PhosSTOP (Roche PHOSS-RO) phosphatase

inhibitor. A total of 20 µg of protein was loaded per well diluted in denaturing SDS loading

buffer, and protein samples and molecular weight markers (PageRuler Plus Pre-stained Protein Ladder, ThermoFisher Scientific 26619, or Colour pre-stained protein standards NEB P7712 or P7719) were separated using 8%, 10% or 12% polyacrylamide gels before being transferred to PVDF Immobilon-FL membrane with pore size 0.45 μm (Millipore Billerica, MA, USA) using a Mini Trans-Blot electrophoretic transfer system (BioRad, Hertfordshire, UK). The transfers were carried out in ice-cold transfer buffer at 100 V for 1.5 hours. After transfer the membrane was blocked either by incubation in 5% dried milk (Marvel) in PBS with 0.1 % Tween-20 (Sigma-Aldrich) (PBST) for 30 minutes at room temperature or in 1x alpha-casein buffer (Sigma-Aldrich B6429) diluted in tris-buffered saline (TBS: 20 mM Tris/HCl, pH 7.7, 150 mM NaCl) for 1 hour at room temperature. Primary antibodies were diluted in 5% milk/PBST or 1x alpha-casein diluted in TBS supplemented with 0.01% Tween-20 (TBST) and incubated at 4°C overnight. Membranes were washed three times in TBST or PBST and incubated with LI-COR IRDye secondary antibodies (800CW or 680RD) diluted 1:10,000 in 5% milk/PBST or 1x alpha-casein in TBST for 1 hour at room temperature. Blots were washed three times in PBST or TBST and once in water before imaging on a LI-COR Odyssey or Odyssey CLx using Image Studio software.

GFP-Trap immunoprecipitation

For LIC1 truncation or mutant immunoprecipitation experiments, HeLa M cells were depleted of endogenous LIC1 and LIC2 for 24 hours prior to transfection. Cells were transiently transfected using PEI or JetPEI (see cell lines and transfection methods) and incubated for 24 hours. Cells were washed with ice cold PBS and lysed in IP lysis buffer (50 mM Tris, pH 7.5, 10 mM NaCl, 2.5 mM $MgCl_2$, 1 mM DTT, 0.01% digitonin [Calbiochem 300410] and protease inhibitors, 10 μg/ml aprotinin [Sigma A6103], leupeptin [Calbiochem 108976] and pepstatin [Alfa Aesar J60237]) before centrifugation at 17,000 rpm for 30 mins at 4°C in a microcentrifuge. For EGTA treatment, 1 mM EGTA was added to the lysis buffer at this point. A tenth of the supernatant was taken as an input sample, and the remaining supernatant was rotated at 4°C for 2 hours with ChromoTek GFP-Trap® magnetic agarose beads pre-washed in IP wash buffer (50 mM Tris, pH 7.5, 10 mM NaCl, 1 mM DTT and protease inhibitors). For EGTA treatment, 1 mM EGTA was added to the IP wash buffer. Beads were isolated and washed three times in IP wash buffer and proteins eluted by boiling at 95°C in SDS-PAGE sample buffer before analysis by SDS-PAGE and

immunoblotting. For LIC mutant immunoprecipitations, cells were transfected using

FuGENE® HD transfection reagent, as per manufacturer's instructions, with a reagent:DNA

ratio of 3:1 and incubated for a further 24 hours following endogenous LIC depletion. The

buffers contained 50 mM NaCl, and 0.01% digitonin was added to the wash buffer.

BAPTA-AM treatment

HeLaM cells were grown on uncoated #1.5 glass coverslips and Vero cells were grown on

coverslips coated with 1μg/ml Fibronectin (Sigma F0895) then transfected. Cells were

treated with either 10 μM BAPTA-AM (Abcam ab120503) or DMSO vehicle control for 2

hours before fixation and immunofluorescence labelling.

Quantification of immunoblots

Protein band signal intensity was measured using LI-COR Image Studio Lite software or

ImageJ, and blot background signal intensity was subtracted. For siRNA knock-down

experiments, band signal intensity was normalised to total protein. Protein amount was

then expressed as a percentage compared to control siRNA samples, which were set as

100%. For immunoprecipitation experiments, the enrichment factor for GFP or each GFP-

tagged protein in the pull-down was first calculated as bound/input=x. For each prey,

bound/input=y was calculated, and then the efficiency of pull-down compared to GFP was

determined as a percentage ($y/x*100$). For GFP-trap pull-downs from siRNA-treated cells,

the prey protein levels could not be normalised compared to input levels if that protein had

been depleted. Instead, the amount of each prey protein in the control-depleted GFP-

KASH5DK pull-downs was set as 100%, and the amount present in other samples was

compared to that.

Immunofluorescence

HeLaM or Vero cells were grown on #1.5 coverslips at appropriate density. For EEA1

antibody labelling cells were fixed for 20 mins in 3% formaldehyde in PBS at RT. After

washing, unreacted formaldehyde was quenched with glycine (0.1 M) and permeabilised in

0.1% Triton X-100 in PBS for 10 mins before PBS wash prior to antibody labelling. For all

other antibody labelling, cells were fixed in methanol for 10 minutes at -20°C and washed in

PBS. Secondary antibodies labelled with Alexa Fluor 488, Alexa Fluor 594, Alexa Fluor 647,

Cy3, or Cy5 were used along with 1 µg/ml DAPI, and samples were mounted in ProLong Gold

(Invitrogen). For LIS1 antibody labelling (Baffet et al., 2015), coverslips were washed once in

PBS then incubated for 1 min in PHEM buffer (60 mM PIPES, 25 mM HEPES, 10 mM EGTA,

2mM $MgCl_2$, pH 6.9) containing 0.5% Triton X-100. Cells were then transferred to PHEM

buffer supplemented with 3.7% paraformaldehyde for 20 minutes. This was followed by

incubation in 0.2% Triton X-100 in PBS for 5 minutes. Coverslips were rinsed in PBS and

quenched with glycine before labelling.

Imaging and analysis

Fixed HeLaM (Fig. 4 D; 5 D&E; 6 B, C; 8 C; S3 C, D; S4 E and S5A) and Vero cells (Fig. S5 B)

were imaged using an Olympus BX60 or BX50 microscope (Olympus Keymed) with a Plan

apochromat 60X 1.4 N.A. oil immersion objective, CoolLED light source (CoolLED Ltd) or

100W Hg lamp, CoolSNAP ES CCD camera (Teledyne Photometrics) and MetaVue software

(Molecular Devices). Subsequent image analysis was performed using MetaVue and ImageJ

software. The imaging in Fig. 1-3, 5 A, 6 A and S3 A was performed on a IX71 microscope

(Olympus) which was equipped for optical sectioning by a DeltaVision CORE system (GE

Healthcare) with z-spacing fixed at 0.2 µm. Plan Apochromat 60X 1.4 N.A. or UPlanFl 100X

1.35 N.A. oil immersion objective lenses (Olympus) were used with a CoolSNAP HQ CCD

camera (Photometrics). Deconvolution was completed using SoftWorX (Applied Precision)

and images are displayed as z-projections.

Line scans were generated using Image J using the plot profile tool, with the lines starting in

the cytoplasm. Data was exported and plotted as graphs in GraphPad Prism. ImageJ was

used to generate inverted greyscale images, merge channels, and draw cell outlines, using

contrast-adjusted images as a guide, where needed. Some images were prepared and

annotated using Adobe Photoshop. For phenotype scoring, each experiment was performed

at least three times, and the number of cells manually scored are given in the Figure

legends. Examples of the Golgi apparatus, early endosome and lysosome phenotypes are

shown in Figs 5 and S3. For dynein recruitment to KASH5 in Fig. 3 D, 4 E, 8 C and Fig. S1 C

and D, cells were scored in a binary fashion as to whether dynein or dynactin could be seen

at the NE. For the analysis shown in Figs. 4 and 8, the scoring was performed without

knowing the sample identity. Cells with strong nuclear enrichment of GFP-KASH5 and HA-

SUN1 (Fig. 8) or GFP-KASH5 and myc-SUN2 (Fig. 4), but with limited accumulation in the ER,

were selected without reference to the LIC1 channel, which was then used to score for

dynein recruitment. For these data, statistical tests were not deemed appropriate as there

was no variation in some control conditions, with all cells recruiting dynein or dynactin to

KASH5. For other datasets, the statistical tests used are given in the figure legends. For

experiments where one condition was compared to a control, an unpaired t-test was

performed using GraphPad Prism (GraphPad Software). For multiple comparisons, one-way

ANOVA was used if all data points were present. In Fig. 4E, ANOVA could not be used

because four data points were missing (out of a possible 49). Instead, a mixed model was

implemented using Prism, fitted using Restricted Maximum Likelihood (REML) with Geisser-

Greenhouse correction. Tukey's multiple comparison was used for ANOVA and REML

analysis. For experiments where categoric phenotype scoring data across multiple

conditions were compared to one control, multinomial logistic regression was applied using

SPSS (IBM) software (Lam et al., 2010). Full statistical analysis is given in Supplementary

tables 2-4. Graph preparation was performed in Prism. Figures were assembled using Adobe

Illustrator (Adobe) or Affinity Designer (Serif Europe Ltd).

Recombinant KASH5 protein expression and purification

Constructs of human KASH5 (amino acid residues: 1-115, 155-349, 1-349, 1-407, 1-460 and

1-507) were cloned into pMAT11 vector (Peranen et al., 1996) for expression with an N-

terminal TEV-cleavable His_6-MBP tag. KASH5 constructs were expressed in BL21 (DE3) cells

(Novagen), in 2xYT media, and induced with 0.5 mM IPTG for 16 hr at 25°C. Bacterial pellets

were harvested, resuspended in 20mM Tris pH 8.0, 500 mM KCl and lysed using a TS Cell

Disruptor (Constant Systems) at 172 MPa. Cellular debris were later removed by

centrifugation at 40,000 g. KASH5 fusion proteins were purified through consecutive Ni-NTA

(Qiagen), amylose (NEB), and HiTrap Q HP (Cytiva) ion exchange chromatography. The N-

terminal His_6-MBP tag was cleaved using TEV protease and the cleaved samples were

further purified through HiTrap Q HP (Cytiva) ion exchange chromatography and size

exclusion chromatography (HiLoad 16/600 Superdex 200, Cytiva) in 20 mM HEPES pH 7.5,

150 mM KCl, 2 mM DTT. Purified KASH5 protein samples were spin concentrated using

Amicon® Ultra centrifugal filter device (10,000 NMWL), flash-frozen in liquid nitrogen and

stored at -80°C. Purified KASH5 proteins were analysed using SDS-PAGE and visualised with

Coomassie staining. Protein concentrations were determined using Cary 60 UV

spectrophotometer (Agilent) with extinction coefficients and molecular weights calculated

by ProtParam (http://web.expasy.org/protparam/).

Multi-angle light scattering coupled with size exclusion chromatography (SEC-MALS)

The absolute molar masses of KASH5 protein samples were determined by multi-angle light

scattering coupled with size exclusion chromatography (SEC-MALS). KASH5 protein samples

at > 1.5 mg ml^{-1} were loaded onto a Superdex™ 200 Increase 10/300 GL size exclusion

chromatography column (Cytiva) in 20 mM Tris pH 8.0, 150 mM KCl, 2 mM DTT, at

0.5 ml min^{-1}, in line with a DAWN® HELEOS™ II MALS detector (Wyatt Technology) and an

Optilab® T-rEX™ differential refractometer (Wyatt Technology). Differential refractive index

and light scattering data were collected and analysed using ASTRA® 6 software (Wyatt

Technology). Molecular weights and estimated errors were calculated across eluted peaks

by extrapolation from Zimm plots using a dn/dc value of 0.1850 ml g^{-1}. Bovine serum

albumin (ThermoFisher) was used as the calibration standard.

Protein purification

Human LIS1 (Baumbach et al., 2017) and full length wild type human cytoplasmic dynein-1

(Schlager et al., 2014a), or a version containing heavy chain phi-disrupting mutations

R1567E and K1610E that prevent the phi autoinhibitory conformation of dynein (Zhang et

al., 2017), were expressed using the *Sf*9/baculovirus system and purified as previously

described (Baumbach et al., 2017; Schlager et al., 2014a). Pellets from 1 L of Sf9 cell culture

were suspended in 50 ml lysis buffer (50 mM HEPES pH 7.2, 100 mM NaCl, 1 mM DTT, 0.1

mM Mg.ATP, 10% Glycerol), supplemented with one cOmplete tablet (Roche) and 1mM

PMSF. Cells were lysed using a Dounce homogeniser at 4°C, then lysate clarified for 45 mins

at 500,000 x *g*. The supernatant was incubated with 1.5 ml pre-equilibrated IgG beads

(Cytiva) for 3 h. Beads were washed with 200 ml lysis buffer. For dynein, beads were then

transferred to a 2 ml tube, adding 10 μM SNAP-Cell TMR-Star dye (New England Biolabs)

and incubating for 1 h at 4°C. Beads for both constructs were then washed with 100 ml TEV

buffer (50 mM Tris-HCl pH 7.4, 148 mM K-acetate, 2 mM Mg-acetate, 1 mM EGTA, 10%

Glycerol, 0.1 mM Mg.ATP, 1 mM DTT), then transferred again to a 2 ml tube, adding 400 μg

TEV protease and incubating overnight at 4°C. Sample was then concentrated and gel

filtered using a G4000$_{SWXL}$ 7.8/300 column (TOSOH Bioscience) into GF150 buffer (25 mM

HEPES pH 7.2, 150 mM KCl, 1 mM MgCl$_2$, 5 mM DTT, 0.1 mM Mg.ATP) for dynein, or TEV

buffer for Lis1. Peak fractions were concentrated and snap-frozen in liquid nitrogen.

Dynactin was purified from frozen porcine brains as previously described (Urnavicius et al.,

2015). Porcine brains were blended with 300 ml homogenisation buffer (35 mM PIPES pH

7.2, 5 mM MgSO$_4$, 1 M KCl, 200 µM EGTA, 100 µM EDTA, 1 mM DTT) supplemented with

four cOmplete tablets and 1mM PMSF until just thawed. The lysate was then clarified in two

steps: 15 mins at 38,400 x g at 4°C, then 50 mins at 235,000 x g at 4°C. All subsequent steps

were carried out at 4°C The supernatant was then filtered through a GF filter then a 0.45 µm

filter, then loaded onto an SP Sepharose column (Cytiva), equilibrated with SP buffer A (35

mM PIPES pH 7.2, 5 mM MgSO$_4$, 1 mM EGTA, 0.5 mM EDTA, 1 mM DTT, 0.1 mM Mg.ATP).

The resin was then washed until white using 99.5% SP buffer A/0.5% SP buffer B (35 mM

PIPES pH 7.2, 5 mM MgSO$_4$, 1 M KCl, 1 mM EGTA, 0.5 mM EDTA, 1 mM DTT, 0.1 mM

Mg.ATP), then dynactin was eluted using a gradient from 0.5-25% (% SP buffer B). Dynactin-

containing fractions were then filtered through a 0.22 µm filter, then loaded onto a Mono Q

HR 16/60 column (Cytiva), pre-equilibrated with Mono Q buffer A (35 mM PIPES pH 7.2, 5

mM MgSO$_4$, 200 µM EGTA, 100 µM EDTA, 1 mM DTT). This column was washed with 10 CV

Mono Q buffer A, then dynactin eluted using a 15-35% gradient (% Mono Q buffer B, 35 mM

PIPES pH 7.2, 5 mM MgSO$_4$, 1 M KCl, 200 µM EGTA, 100 µM EDTA, 1 mM DTT). Peak

fractions were concentrated and gel filtered using a G4000$_{SW}$ 21.5/600 column (TOSOH

Bioscience) into GF150 buffer, with the peak concentrated and snap-frozen in liquid

nitrogen.

Strep-tagged human Hook3 (1-522) (Urnavicius et al., 2018) was purified using the

*Sf*9/baculovirus system as previously described (Urnavicius et al., 2018). A pellet from 500

ml of Sf9 culture was thawed using 50 ml Strep-tag lysis buffer (30 mM HEPES pH 7.2, 50

mM K-Acetate, 2 mM Mg-Acetate, 1 mM EGTA, 10% Glycerol, 1 mM DTT) plus one

cOmplete tablet and 1 mM PMSF. Cells were then lysed using a Dounce homogeniser, with

the lysate clarified for 20 minutes at 50,000 x g at 4°C. Supernatant was filtered using a GF

filter, then flown onto a StrepTrap HP 1 ml column (Cytiva) at 4°C, washed using 40 CV

Strep-tag lysis buffer, then eluted with 3 mM desthiobiotin. Peak fractions were

concentrated and gel filtered using a Superose 6 10/300 Increase column (Cytiva) into
GF150 buffer. The monodisperse peak was concentrated and snap-frozen in liquid nitrogen.
904

***in vitro* TIRF motility assays**
in vitro TIRF assays were carried out as previously (Urnavicius et al., 2018). Microtubules
were typically prepared the day before the assay. Microtubules were made by mixing 1 µl of
HiLyte Fluor 488 tubulin (2 mg/ml, Cytoskeleton), 2 µl biotinylated tubulin (2 mg/ml,
Cytoskeleton) and 7 µl unlabelled pig tubulin (Schlager et al., 2014a) (6 mg/ml) in BRB80
buffer (80 mM PIPES pH 6.8, 1 mM $MgCl_2$, 1 mM EGTA, 1 mM DTT). 10 µl of polymerization
buffer (2× BRB80 buffer, 20% (v/v) DMSO, 2 mM Mg.GTP) was added, then the solution was
incubated at 37°C for 1 h for microtubule polymerization. The sample was diluted with 100
µl of MT buffer (BRB80 supplemented with 40 µM paclitaxel), then centrifuged at 21,000 x *g*
for 9 minutes at room temperature to remove soluble tubulin. The resulting pellet was
gently resuspended in 100 µl of MT buffer, then centrifuged again as above. 50 µl MT buffer
was then added, with the microtubule solution then stored in a light-proof container. Before
usage, and every 5 hours during data collection, the microtubule solution was spun again at
21,000 x *g* for 9 minutes, with the pellet resuspended in the equivalent amount of MT
buffer.
920

Assay chambers were prepared by applying two strips of double-sided tape on a glass slide,
creating a channel, then placing a piranha-solution-cleaned coverslip on top. The coverslip
was then functionalized using PLL-PEG-Biotin (SuSOS), washed with 50 µl of TIRF buffer (30
mM HEPES pH 7.2, 5 MgSO$_4$, 1 mM EGTA, 2 mM DTT), then incubated with streptavidin (1
mg/ml, New England Biolabs). The chamber was again washed with TIRF buffer, then
incubated with 10 µl of a fresh dilution of microtubules (2 µl of microtubules diluted into 10
µl TIRF-Casein buffer (TIRF buffer supplemented with 50 mM KCl and 1 mg/ml casein)) for 1
min. Chambers were then blocked with 50 µl blocking buffer.
929

Complexes were prepared mixing 1.5 µl of each component at the following concentrations:
dynein at 0.3 µM, dynactin at 0.3 µM, adaptor at 6 µM, Lis1 at 50 µM. GF150 buffer was
added to a final volume of 6 µl. Complexes were incubated on ice for 15 minutes then
diluted with TIRF-Casein buffer to a final buffer of 15 µl. Four microliters of complex were

added to 16 µl of TIRF-Casein buffer supplemented with an oxygen scavenging system (0.2

mg/ml catalase, Merck; 1.5 mg/ml glucose oxidase, Merck; 0.45% (w/v) glucose) 1% BME, 5

mM Mg.ATP. This mix was flowed into the chamber.

The sample was imaged immediately at 23°C using a TIRF microscope (Nikon Eclipse Ti

inverted microscope equipped with a Nikon 100x TIRF oil immersion objective). For each

sample, a microtubule image was acquired using a 488 nm laser. Following this a 500-frame

movie acquired (200 ms exposure, 4.1 fps) using a 561 nm laser. To analyse the data, ImageJ

was used to generate kymographs from the tiff movie stacks. These kymographs were

blinded, then events of similar length were picked to analyse velocity and number of

processive events/µm microtubule/s, using criteria outlined previously (Schlager et al.,

2014a; Urnavicius et al., 2018). Velocity was calculated using pixel size of 105 nm and frame

rate of 235 ms/frame. Three replicates were taken for each sample, with velocities and

number of processive events plotted using GraphPad Prism 7, using ANOVA with Tukey's

multiple comparison to test significance.

Supplementary material

Fig. S1. illustrates the meiotic LINC complex, dynein, dynactin, and the role of dynein in

meiotic prophase I. It also demonstrates the effect of IC2 and LIS1 depletion on dynein and

dynactin recruitment to KASH5. Fig. S2 shows immunoblot analysis demonstrating depletion

of targets by RNAi. Fig. S3 shows that LICs 1 and 2 act redundantly in endocytic organelle

positioning, with helix 1 being essential. Fig. S4 demonstrates that LICs act redundantly to

recruit dynein and dynactin to RILP-positive late endosomes, and that dynein recruitment

requires helix 1. Fig. S5 depicts the effect of BAPTA-AM treatment on dynein recruitment to

KASH5 and Rab11-FIP3, and that KASH5-dynein interactions are not affected by EGTA in

vitro. Table S1 contains the quantitation of blots from Figs. 1 C and 3 E. Tables S2-4

document the full multinomial logistic regression analysis of the data shown in Figs. 5 C, 8 E,

S3 C and D.

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 Figure legends

Figure 1. Recruitment of dynein, dynactin and LIS1 to KASH5 in HeLa cells.

(A) A stable HeLa cell line inducibly expressing GFP-KASH5 (green) was labelled with

antibodies against dynein IC and LIC1, dynactin p150 and p50, LIS1 and Nde1 (magenta) and

imaged on a DeltaVision microscope. Images are z-projections of deconvolved image stacks.

The bottom panel shows the transient expression of GFP-N2α2 in green and labelling with

anti-LIC1 in magenta, with undeconvolved wide-field images. Arrowheads point out the

location of centrosomes, full arrows show creases in the NE and asterisks mark cytoplasmic

accumulations of GFP-KASH5. Thin white lines on colour merge images show where a line

scan plot was performed, shown on the right. Scale bars = 10 μm. **(B)** Schematic showing

KASH5 and the constructs used. For some experiments, the GFP was replaced with an HA

tag. **(C)** Dynein, dynactin and LIS1 are recruited to KASH5 as shown by GFP-Trap pull-downs.

HeLaM cells were transiently transfected with GFP-KASH5ΔK or GFP-N2α2ΔK. The pull-

downs and inputs (1.5% of total lysate) were probed with antibodies against GFP, p150, IC,

LIC1, LIC2, LIS1, BICD2 and α-tubulin. Molecular weight markers are shown. Quantitation of

the blot is given in Table S1. **(D)** The KASH5 N-terminal EF-hand domain is sufficient to

recruit dynein. Lysates of HeLaM cells expressing GFP, GFP-KASH5ΔK (GFP-K5ΔK) or GFP-

KASH5 N terminus (GFP-K5ND) were isolated by GFP-trap and probed for LIC1 by

immunoblotting. The input is 15% of the GFP-trap sample. The graph shows quantitation of

LIC1 levels in pull-downs (n=3 independent experiments), normalised to GFP-K5ND.

1013

Figure 2. Dynein and LIS1 recruitment to KASH5 does not require interaction between

dynein IC and dynactin p150.

(A) HeLa cells stably expressing GFP-KASH5 (green) were depleted of IC2 using 20 nM siRNA

for 72 hours and then processed for immunofluorescence with antibodies against LIC1,

dynactin p150 and LIS1 (magenta). White lines on colour merge images show where a line

scan plot was performed, shown on the right. **(B)** HeLa cells were transiently transfected

with GFP-KASH5, RFP-CC1 and myc-SUN2 (CC1 and SUN2: not shown. Cells expressing CC1

are marked with asterisks). Cells were fixed and labelled with antibodies against dynein IC

and LIC1, dynactin p50 and p150, and LIS1. Green lines on the GFP-KASH5 images indicate

line scan locations, shown on the right. Images were taken on a DeltaVision microscope and

z-stack projections of deconvolved images are shown. Scale bars = 10 μm.

1025

Figure 3. Dynein is recruited to KASH5 via either LIC1 or 2.

(A-D) HeLa cells stably expressing GFP-KASH5 (green) were depleted of LIC1 **(A)**, LIC2 **(B)**, or

both LIC1 and 2 **(C)** using 10 nM of each siRNA for 72 hours, then fixed and labelled with

antibodies against IC, dynactin p150 or LIS1 (magenta). Thin white lines show where a line

scan plot was performed on LIC1&2 depleted cells, shown on the right. Images were taken

on a DeltaVision microscope and z-stack projections of deconvolved images are shown.

Scale bars = 10 μm. **(D)** LIC depleted cells were scored in a binary fashion for recruitment of

IC, p150 or LIS1 to KASH5. The mean and standard deviation of each condition is shown. The

experiment was repeated three times, with 300 cells scored for each condition in each

experiment. **(E)** HeLaM cells were depleted with siRNA against both LICs together (10 nM

each), or with control siRNAs. 48 hours into the knockdown, cells were transfected with

either GFP-KASH5ΔK or GFP-N2α2ΔK. The following day cells were lysed and a GFP trap was

performed. Input and pull-downs were immunoblotted with antibodies against GFP, p150,

LIC1, LIC2, IC and α-tubulin. The input was 1.5% of the total cell lysate. Molecular weight

markers are shown on the right. Quantitation of the blot is given in Table S1.

1041

Figure 4. KASH5-LIC1 interactions require LIC1 helix 1.

(A) Schematic of LIC1 showing the GTPase-like domain that is highly conserved between

LICs, and a less well conserved C terminal domain containing helix 1 (440-456) and helix 2

(493-502). The constructs used are: truncations lacking helix 2 (LIC1 CT2) or both helix 1 and

helix 2 (LIC1 CT3); point mutations within Helix 1 (FF: F447A/F448A and LL: L451A/L452A);

helix 1 deletions (Δ440-456 and Δ433-458). **(B, C)** HeLaM cells were depleted of both LICs by

siRNAs for 48 hours, then co-transfected and incubated for a further 24 hours with Myc-

tagged LIC1 constructs and GFP-KASH5ND or GFP as a control (B) or GFP-LIC1 constructs and

HA-KASH5ΔK (C). Cell lysates were incubated with GFP-trap beads then analysed by SDS-

PAGE and immunoblotting with antibodies to GFP, myc and IC (IC74) to detect native

dynein, as indicated. The input is 15% of the GFP-trap sample. Quantitation of myc-LIC1 pull-

down efficiency (B) with GFP-KASH5ND vs. myc-LIC1-FL was 177% for LIC1-CT2 and 8.0% for

LIC1-CT3 (n=2). Quantitation of HA-KASH5DK pull-down efficiency (C) vs. GFP-LIC1-WT was

3.9±3% for LIC1-FF, 3.3±4.9% for LIC1Δ433-458 and 1.9±2.1% for LIC1Δ440-456 (±S.D., n=3)

and 3.1% for LIC1-LL (n=2). **(D, E)** HeLaM cells were co-transfected with GFP-tagged LIC1

constructs, HA-KASH5 and myc-SUN2 for ~18 hours, then fixed and labelled with antibodies

to HA, GFP and myc (not shown) and imaged by wide-field microscopy. Cells with strong

enrichment of KASH5 and SUN2 at the NE were scored for the presence or absence of GFP

at the NE without knowing the identity of the LIC1 construct expressed (see methods). **(D)**

Example wide-field images with line scans (black lines on the images): GFP-LIC1 constructs

shown in green, HA-KASH5 in black. GFP-LIC1-WT is recruited to HA-KASH5 (top panels)

whereas GFP-LIC1-CT3 is not (bottom panels). Scale bar = 10 μm. **(E)** Recruitment of GFP-

LIC1 proteins to the NE was scored in a binary fashion from 5-7 experiments with 25-82 cells

scored per experiment per construct. The total number of cells scored for each condition is

shown above the line. A mixed effects analysis was performed (see methods) with Tukey's

multiple comparison test to compare GFP-LIC1 FL recruitment vs. all others (P≤0.0001=****,

≤0.001=***, ≤0.01=**). No other comparisons gave significant P-values.

1069

Figure 5. LICs 1 and 2 act redundantly in Golgi apparatus positioning, with helix 1 being

essential.

(A-C) HeLaM cells were depleted of LIC1, LIC2 or both LICs using 5 nM siRNA for each

subunit, then analysed by immunoblotting of lysates with antibodies to LIC1 and 2 **(A)**, or

fixed and labelled with antibodies to GM130 and imaged on a DeltaVision microscope to

reveal the Golgi apparatus **(B)**. Z-projections of deconvolved images stacks are shown.

Quantitation of knock-down efficiency is shown in Fig. S2C. **(C)** Golgi morphology was scored

manually for 100 cells per condition, in 3 independent experiments. Mean ±SD values are

plotted. Statistical analysis was performed using multinomial logistic regression (see Table

S2 for full results): comparisons vs. control samples are shown on the graph

(P≤0.0001=****). **(D, E)** HeLaM cells were depleted of both LICs then transfected with RNAi-

resistant LIC1-mKate or LIC2-mKate **(D)** or GFP-LIC1-FL, GFP-LIC1-CT2, GFP-LIC1-CT3 and GFP

constructs **(E)**. Cells treated with control siRNAs and transfected with GFP were used as

controls. GM130 labelling was used to reveal Golgi apparatus morphology (wide-field

images: asterisks mark cells expressing the constructs). Golgi morphology was scored for

~100 cells per experimental condition in three independent experiments **(E)**. Mean ±SD

values are plotted. GFP and GFP-LIC1-CT3 rescue data are significantly different to control

knowdown (P≤0.0001), whereas rescue with GFP-LIC1-FL or GFP-LIC1-CT2 are not

(multinomial logistic regression, see table S2). All scale bars = 10 μm.

1089

Figure 6. KASH5 has properties of a dynein adaptor.

(A) HeLaM cells transiently expressing GFP-KASH5ΔK or GFP-KASH5ΔNΔK (which lacks the

dynein binding domain) were labelled with GM130 or LAMP1 antibodies (z-stack projections

of deconvolved images shown). Cells were scored for phenotypes associated with dynein

inhibition: Golgi apparatus scattering, peripheral clustering of lysosomes and enlarged

lysosomes. Manual scoring of 100 cells per condition was repeated in three independent

experiments, with mean and S.D. shown. An unpaired t-test was performed comparing GFP-

KASH5ΔK- and GFP-KASH5ΔNΔK-expressing cells for each phenotype. **** = p≤0.0001, ***

= p≤0.001, ** = p≤0.01. **(B, C)** Full length HA-KASH5 **(B)** or HA-RILP **(C)** were expressed alone

(top panel, control) or with dominant negative GFP-BICD2N (middle panel), or dominant

negative GFP-Rab11-FIP3-I73E (bottom panel) in HeLaM cells. Endogenous dynein was

visualised along with HA-KASH5 or HA-RILP using antibodies to LIC1 and HA (wide-field

imaging, scale bar = 10 μm). Thin black and white (left panels) or red lines (LIC1 panels)

show where line scan plots were performed (right).

1104

Figure 7. KASH5 is an activating adaptor for dynein motility in vitro.

(A) SDS-PAGE and Coomassie blue staining of purified bacterially-expressed KASH5

truncations. KASH5$_{1-115}$ contains the EF hands; KASH5$_{155-349}$ consists of only the coiled coil;

KASH5$_{1-349}$ is the EF hand plus coiled coil; KASH5$_{1-407}$, KASH5$_{1-460}$ and KASH5$_{1-507}$ all contain

the EF hands, coiled coil, and additional sequence. **(B)** SEC-MALS analysis of purified KASH5

truncations, showing the measured M_w. The predicted dimeric M_w values are: KASH5$_{1-407}$, 92

kDa; KASH5$_{1-460}$, 103 kDa; KASH5$_{1-507}$, 114 kDa. **(C)** Purified baculovirus-expressed

recombinant dynein containing a heavy chain R1567E/K1610E mutant that cannot form the

inhibited Phi conformation, LIS1 and porcine brain dynactin were combined with KASH5$_{1-407}$,

KASH5$_{1-460}$ or KASH5$_{1-507}$ and motility of individual 6-carboxytetramethylrhodamine-labelled

dynein molecules along microtubules was visualised using TIRF microscopy and displayed as

kymographs. **(D)** Motility of wild-type recombinant dynein, LIS1 and dynactin in the

presence or absence of KASH5$_{1-460}$, with the activating adaptor Hook3$_{1-522}$ as a positive

control. **(E)** Analysis of motility from (D). Left panel: the number of processive events per μm

microtubule per minute from was determined from kymographs in a blinded fashion for all

three conditions in three technical replicates, with the mean ± S.D. plotted. The total

number of movements analysed were 2066 for Hook3, 339 for KASH5 and 34 for the no

addition control. Significance was determined using ANOVA with Tukey's multiple

comparison (ns = not significant, * = p≤0.05, **** = p≤0.0001). Right panel: the mean

velocity of processive dynein movements from the $KASH5_{1-406}$ and $Hook3_{1-522}$ data are

plotted (± S.D., n=3 replicates). **(F)** Kymographs of 6-carboxytetramethylrhodamine-labelled

wild-type dynein molecules combined with LIS1, dynactin and $KASH5_{1-115}$, $KASH5_{155-349}$, or

$KASH5_{1-349}$.

1128

Figure 8. KASH5's EF hand is critical for dynein and dynactin complex assembly.

(A) Top: Sequence comparison between human KASH5 and other dynein adaptors

containing EF-hands, and between KASH5 proteins from different species. The EF-hand

consensus sequence is shown, along with position nomenclature (Grabarek, 2006). Bottom:

mutations generated in KASH5 EF-hands (altered amino acids shown in red), along with

published mutations in the calcium-dependent dynein adaptor CRACR2a (Wang et al., 2019).

Summary of KASH5 mutant dynein-binding activity, as indicated by + or - symbols. **(B)** GFP-

trap immunoprecipitates from cells expressing GFP-hKASH5ΔK, GFP-hKASH5ΔK EF hand

mutants, or GFP, probed with antibodies to GFP, dynein IC and dynactin p150. Quantitation

of IC and p150 levels normalised to GFP-LIC1-WT levels (n=3 experiments) is plotted

graphically below. **(C, D)** HeLaM cells were transiently transfected with GFP-KASH5-WT or EF

hand mutants along with HA-SUN1 (not shown). Cells were fixed and labelled with

antibodies against endogenous dynein LIC1 and GFP. **(C)** Line scans (black lines on the

images) were performed and are shown on the right: LIC1 shown in black, GFP-KASH5 in

green. Wide-field imaging; scale bar = 10 μm. **(D)** The samples were scored for dynein

recruitment (see methods; 100 cells per condition, in each of 3 independent repeats). **(E)**

GFP-tagged KASH5ΔK, GFP-KASHΔK EF-hand mutants, or GFP were expressed in HeLaM cells

then fixed and labelled with antibodies to GFP and GM130 then scored for Golgi apparatus

morphology in a blinded fashion (100 cells per condition, in each of 3 independent repeats).

Statistical analysis is given in Table S3.

1149

Supplementary Figure 1. Effect of IC2 and LIS1 depletion on dynein and dynactin recruitment to KASH5.

(A) Illustration depicting how the meiotic LINC complex connects telomeres inside the nucleus to cytoplasmic dynein in the cytoplasm. The telomeres (black dots) associate with SUN1 or SUN2 at the inner nuclear membrane (INM). KASH5 couples to dynein at the outer nuclear membrane (ONM), dragging the telomeres towards the centrosome (yellow dots) in leptotene of prophase I, generating the chromosome 'bouquet' in zygotene. This movement allows pairing of homologous chromosomes (shades of green, blue and red/orange) and the formation of the synaptonemal complex (black bars). For simplicity, only 6 chromosomes are depicted. **(B)** A schematic showing the subunits of dynein, dynactin, and a DDA motor-adaptor complex. **(C)** HeLa cells stably expressing GFP-KASH5 (green) were depleted of IC2 using 20 nM siRNA for 72 hours and then processed for immunofluorescence with antibodies against LIC1, dynactin p150 and LIS1. Cells were scored in a binary fashion for recruitment of IC, LIC1 or p150 to KASH5. The mean and standard deviation is shown for three independent repeats in which 300 cells were scored for each condition per experiment. **(D-G)** HeLa cells stably expressing inducible GFP-KASH5 were depleted of LIS1 using 20 nM siRNA, induced to express GFP-KASH5 and then fixed and labelled. **(D)** Cells were scored in a binary fashion to determine if cells showed recruitment IC, LIC1 or p150 to KASH5. The mean and standard deviation is shown for four independent repeats in which 300 cells were scored for each condition per experiment. Statistical tests were determined as not being appropriate for the data in B or C, as there is no variation in some control conditions. Immunofluorescence images showing GFP-KASH5 in green and antibodies against dynein LIC1 **(E)**, IC **(F)** and dynactin p150 **(G)** in magenta. Images were taken on a DeltaVision microscope followed by deconvolution. Images are Z-stack projections. Thin white lines on colour images are site of line scans which are shown on the right. Scale bars represent 10 µm.

Supplementary Figure 2. Immunoblot analysis demonstrating depletion of targets by RNAi.

(A) HeLa cells stably expressing inducible GFP-KASH5 were depleted of various dynein subunits or LIS1 using 20 nM siRNAs against the following targets: Control (Sc), LIC1, LIC2, LIC1&2, IC2 and LIS1. Representative western blots of cell lysates of knockdown cells are

shown. Blots were probed with antibodies against GFP, p150, IC, LIC1, LIC2, LIS1 and α-

tubulin. Molecular weight markers are shown on the right. Knockdown efficiency was

analysed by quantification of blots using Image Studio software, with correction for protein

loading using the anti-tubulin signal. Experiments were repeated four times alongside

immunofluorescence experiments. Error bars represent standard deviations. **(B)**

Immunoblotting of HeLaM cells depleted with 5 nM each of LIC1 and LIC2 duplexes, or 10

nM control duplexes, for 72 hours. Blots were probed with antibodies to dynein LIC1, LIC2,

IC (IC74) and dynactin p150. Mean efficiency of knockdowns (±S.D.) was analysed as above,

for n=3 independent experiments. **(C)** Quantitation of siRNA efficiency for LICs individually

and together, in HeLaM cells (n=3, ±S.D.), including the data depicted in Fig. 5A.

1192

Supplementary Figure 3. LICs 1 and 2 act redundantly in endocytic organelle positioning,

with helix 1 being essential.

(A) HeLaM cells were depleted of Lamin A/C or LIC 1 and 2 using 5 nM of each siRNA duplex

and stained for organelle markers (EEA1, early endosomes; LAMP1, lysosomes; TfR,

recycling endosomes). **(B)** LIC-depleted cells were transfected with siRNA-resistant LIC1-

mKate or LIC2-GFP and antibody labelled. The boxed region in the LAMP1 image is shown at

two different focal planes. Asterisks mark transfected cells. **(C, D)** LIC depleted cells were

transfected with GFP-LIC1 FL, CT2, CT3 or GFP. Asterisks mark transfected cells. Control

knockdown cells were not transfected. Cells were labelled with anti-EEA1 **(C)** or anti-LAMP1

(D). All images are wide-field. Scale bars = 10 μm. Early endosome and lysosome position

phenotypes were scored as outlined in **(E)**, with ~100 cells per condition, repeated in 3

independent experiments. GFP and GFP-LIC1-CT3 rescue data are significantly different to

control knockdown (P≤0.0001), whereas rescue with GFP-LIC1-FL or GFP-LIC1-CT2 are not

(multinomial logistic regression, see table S4).

1207

Supplementary Figure 4. LICs act redundantly to recruit dynein and dynactin to RILP-

positive late endosomes, and recruitment requires helix 1.

(A-D) Cells were depleted of LICs individually or together for 48 hours using a total of 20 nM

siRNA then transfected with GFP-RILP and fixed 1 day later and labelled for IC **(A)** or

dynactin p150 **(B)**. Control cells (not siRNA treated) were transfected with GFP-RILP.

DeltaVision deconvolved images are shown as z-stack projections. Scale bar = 10 μm. The

percentage of cells with GFP-RILP structures labelled with IC **(C)** or p150 **(D)** was scored (±

S.D.). At least 100 cells were scored in each of three independent experiments. *** =

P<0.001, **** = P<0.0001, one-way ANOVA with Dunnett's post-hoc test. **(E)** HeLaM cells

were co-transfected with HA-RILP and GFP-LIC1 full length, CT2 or CT3. Wide-field images

are shown; scale bar = 10 μm.

Supplementary Figure 5. Effect of calcium depletion on dynein recruitment to KASH5 and

Rab11-FIP3.

Following transient transfection of HeLa M cells with GFP-KASH5-FL **(A)** or Vero cells with

GFP-Rab11-FIP3 **(B)**, cells were treated with either DMSO vehicle control or 10 μM BAPTA-

AM for 2 hours at 37°C. Cells were fixed and labelled with antibodies to GFP and

endogenous LIC1. Wide-field images, with boxed regions shown as enlargements in **(B)**.

Scale bars represent 10 μm. **(C)** Lysates of HeLaM cells expressing either GFP or GFP-

KASH5ND were used for GFP-trap in the presence or absence of 1 mM EGTA. Beads and

inputs (15% of the GFP-trap samples) were probed for endogenous LIC1 or GFP by

immunoblotting. An un-paired T-test was used to compare levels of LIC1 pulled down with

KASH5 ± EGTA (n=3 independent experiments, P=0.592).

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Garner et al. Figure 1

Garner et al. Figure 2

A IC2 siRNA

B RFP-p150-CC1 expression

Garner et al. Figure 3

A LIC1 KD

GFP-KASH5 / IC
GFP-KASH5 / p150
GFP-KASH5 / LIS1

B LIC2 KD

GFP-KASH5 / IC
GFP-KASH5 / p150
GFP-KASH5 / LIS1

C LIC1&2 KD

GFP-KASH5 / IC
GFP-KASH5 / p150
GFP-KASH5 / LIS1

GFP-KASH5
anti-IC

GFP-KASH5
anti-p150

GFP-KASH5
anti-LIS1

D

% of cells with recruitment to KASH5 nuclei

IF ab
p150
IC
LIS1

Knockdown condition: Control, LIC1, LIC2, LIC1&2

E

Blot ab — Input — GFP-trap — M_w

GFP, p150, LIC1, IC, LIC2, tubulin

GFP-K5ΔK control, GFP-K5ΔK LIC1&2 KD, GFP-N2α2ΔK control, GFP-K5ΔK control, GFP-K5ΔK LIC1&2 KD, GFP-N2α2ΔK control

100, 75, 130, 55, 75, 55, 55

Figure 4, Garner et al.

Garner et al. Figure 7

Figure 8, Garner et al.

A

EF hand alignments

	Incoming helix	EF hand 1	Exiting helix	Incoming helix	EF hand 2	Exiting helix

CRACR2a (54-119)
Rab45 (8-77)
FIP3 (202-269)
NIN (8-77)
hKASH5 (32-104)

EFHand Consensus amino acids

Position name: X Y Z -Y -X -Z   X Y Z -Y -X -Z

Mouse KASH5
Rat KASH5
Dog KASH5
Human KASH5
Cow KASH5

EF hand mutations

Dynein binding?

hKASH5wt (32-104) — +
hKASH5-*fue* — -
hKASH5-EF-AA — -
hKASH5-EF-mod1 — +
hKASH5-EF-mod2 — -

CRACR2a
CRACR2a F58D
CRACR2a (EFmut)

B

C

GFP-KASH5 WT / LIC1 — WT KASH5
GFP-KASH5-*fue* / LIC1 — KASH5 fue
GFP-KASH5-AA / LIC1 — KASH5-AA
GFP-KASH5-Mod1 / LIC1 — KASH5-Mod 1
GFP-KASH5-Mod2 / LIC1 — KASH5-Mod 2

Intensity vs Distance (µm)

D

Cells with NE recruitment (%)

Control, EF WT, EF *fue*, EF AA, EF mod 1, EF mod 2

GFP-K5ΔK

E

Golgi morphology (% of cells)

Golgi apparatus morphology:
- fully scattered
- semi-scattered
- extended/broken ribbon
- ribbon/compact

GFP, EF WT, EF *fue*, EF AA, EF mod 1, EF mod 2

GFP-K5ΔK