Myristoylated Neuronal Calcium Sensor-1 captures the ciliary vesicle at distal appendages

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Summary (230 Words)

The primary cilium is a microtubule-based organelle that cycles through assembly and disassembly. In many cell types, formation of the cilium is initiated by recruitment of ciliary vesicles to the distal appendage of the mother centriole. However, the distal appendage mechanism that directly captures ciliary vesicles is yet to be identified. In an accompanying paper, we show that the distal appendage protein, CEP89, is important for the ciliary vesicle recruitment, but not for other steps of cilium formation. The lack of a membrane binding motif in CEP89 suggests that it may indirectly recruit ciliary vesicles via another binding partner. Here, we identify Neuronal Calcium Sensor-1 (NCS1) as a stoichiometric interactor of CEP89. NCS1 localizes to the position between CEP89 and a ciliary vesicle marker, RAB34, at the distal appendage. This localization was completely abolished in CEP89 knockouts, suggesting that CEP89 recruits NCS1 to the distal appendage. Similarly to CEP89 knockouts, ciliary vesicle recruitment as well as subsequent cilium formation was perturbed in NCS1 knockout cells. The ability of NCS1 to recruit the ciliary vesicle is dependent on its myristoylation motif and NCS1 knockout cells expressing myristoylation defective mutant failed to rescue the vesicle recruitment defect despite localizing proper localization to the centriole. In sum, our analysis reveals the first known mechanism for how the distal appendage recruits the ciliary vesicles.

Introduction

The primary cilium is an organelle that consists of the microtubule-based axoneme surrounded by the ciliary membrane, which accumulates specific membrane proteins (e.g., G-protein coupled receptors) to serve as a sensor for extracellular environmental cues (Reiter & Leroux, 2017). The cilium extends from the mother centriole, and cycles assembly and disassembly, as the cell needs to disassemble the cilium prior to mitosis (Vorobjev & Chentsov Yu, 1982) to allow the centrosome to function within the spindle pole during mitosis. The processes of the cilium formation were described in great detail through electron microscopy by Sergei Sorokin in 1960s (S. Sorokin, 1962) (S. P. Sorokin, 1968) and is known to be subdivided to two types called the extracellular and intracellular pathways (Molla-Herman et al., 2010). In the extracellular pathway used, for example, by mouse inner medullary collecting duct cells (mIMCD3 cells), the mother centriole is believed to first dock to the plasma membrane before the extension of the axonemal microtubule as well as ciliary membrane (Molla-Herman et al., 2010). In the intracellular pathway used, for example, by Retinal Pigment Epithelia (RPE) cells (Molla-Herman et al., 2010) and fibroblasts (S. Sorokin, 1962) (Molla-Herman et al., 2010), the first step of cilium formation is attachment of the small vesicles, or so-called ciliary vesicles, to the distal end of the mother centriole (S. Sorokin, 1962), or more specifically to the distal appendage (Schmidt et al., 2012; Sillibourne et al., 2013). The distal appendage is a nine-fold blade-like structure attached to the distal end of the mother centriole (Anderson, 1972; Bowler et al., 2019; Paintrand, Moudjou, Delacroix, & Bornens, 1992). The ciliary vesicle recruitment is followed by the fusion of the small vesicles (Lu et al., 2015), removal of CP110 (Lu et al., 2015), which is believed to cap the distal end of the mother centriole (Spektor, Tsang, Khoo, & Dynlacht, 2007), and subsequently axonemal extension, which is mediated at least partially by

intraflagellar transport (IFT) (Craft, Harris, Hyman, Kner, & Lechtreck, 2015). While the distal

appendage is indispensable for all those steps, how exactly the distal appendage controls these

multiple processes is largely unknown.

To understand the molecular roles of the distal appendage, we first need to uncover its

molecular composition and identify critical functions of distal appendage proteins. In an

accompanying paper, we comprehensively analyzed all known distal appendage proteins to date

and revealed that the Centrosomal Protein 89 (CEP89) is important for ciliary vesicle

recruitment, but not for other processes organizing cilium formation. Since CEP89 lacks

apparent lipid binding motifs, we hypothesized that an interacting partner of CEP89 may bind to

ciliary vesicle directly. We sought to identify and understand the protein directly recruiting the

ciliary vesicle.

Results

Discovery of Neuronal Calcium Sensor-1 as a stoichiometric interactor of CEP89

To identify interacting partners of CEP89, we performed tandem affinity purification and mass

spectrometry (TAP-MS) (Rigaut et al., 1999). Localization and affinity purification (LAP)

(Cheeseman & Desai, 2005) tagged CEP89 was expressed in retinal pigment epithelia

immortalized with human telomerase (RPE-hTERT), and CEP89 was immunoprecipitated first

by Green Fluorescent Protein (GFP) antibody beads followed by a second affinity precipitation

by S protein beads. Final eluates were resolved by SDS-PAGE gel and analyzed by silver-

staining (Figure 1A) and mass spectrometry (Figure 1B). This analysis identified two

stoichiometric interactors, Neuronal Calcium Sensor-1 (NCS1) and C3ORF14, consistent with

the previous high-throughput proteome analyses, which identified both proteins as either CEP89

interactors (Huttlin et al., 2021) or neighbors (Gupta et al., 2015). Consistent with the TAP-MS

data, endogenous NCS1 strongly coimmunoprecipitated with endogenous CEP89 (Figure 1-

figure supplement 1A).

NCS1 is a member of NCS family proteins, which are characterized as containing

calcium binding EF-hand motifs as well as a myristoylation signal for N-terminal addition of

myristate (Burgoyne & Weiss, 2001). NCS1 was first identified as Frequenin in Drosophila, a

protein that can facilitate neurotransmitter release in neuromuscular junction (Pongs et al., 1993).

Since then, numerous papers propose models wherein NCS1 is involved in both presynaptic and

postsynaptic functions (reviewed in (Dason, Romero-Pozuelo, Atwood, & Ferrus, 2012)).

However, how exactly NCS-1 regulates neuronal function is still not well understood. As

described later in this paper, NCS-1 is expressed ubiquitously in various tissues, consistent with

the previous report (Gierke et al., 2004). While the previous literatures reported the role of NCS1

in other cell types including cardiomyocytes (Nakamura, Jeromin, Mikoshiba, & Wakabayashi,

2011) and adipocytes (Ratai, Hermainski, Ravichandran, & Pongs, 2019), molecular mechanisms

regulating non-neuronal functions of NCS1 remains enigmatic. A centrosomal role of NCS1 has

never been described.

CEP89 binding to NCS1 required the N-terminal region (1-343a.a.) (Figure 1C and D).

The C-terminal portion of CEP89 (344-783a.a.) is required for its centrosomal localization

(Figure 1- figure supplement 1B), consistent with a previous report (Sillibourne et al., 2013). An

in vitro binding assay using *in vitro* translated proteins revealed that HA tagged CEP89 directly

binds to MYC tagged C3ORF14 and NCS1 (Figure 1E), whereas HA-C3ORF14 did not bind to

NCS1 (Figure 1F). A negative control, CEP350 fragment (2470-2836 a.a.), which binds to its

binding partner FGFR1OP (or FOP) efficiently (Figure 1-figure supplement 2A) as previously

described (Kanie et al., 2017), did not bind to either HA-CEP89, nor HA-C3ORF14 (Figure 1E

and F). Thus, CEP89 serves to bridge NCS1 and C3ORF14 (Figure 1G).

NCS1 is recruited to the distal appendage by CEP89 and is positioned between CEP89 and

the ciliary vesicle marker, RAB34

We next sought to determine the precise localization of NCS1 and C3ORF14. When observed

via a wide-field microscopy, NCS1 localized to the mother centriole, marked by CEP170 (Figure

2A). Some cytoplasmic staining was also observed. Both centriolar and cytoplasmic staining was

highly specific as the signal was strongly reduced in NCS1 knockout cells (Figure 2A). The

cytoplasmic localization of NCS1 is inconsistent with a previous study, where C-terminally

Enhanced Yellow Fluorescent Protein (EYFP) tagged NCS1 constitutively localized to

membranous compartments (O'Callaghan et al., 2002). We tested if the difference in localization

is due to the tagging. We also tested whether membrane binding, myristoylation motif, of NCS1

affects its localization by making the myristoylation defective mutant by converting the position

2 glycine to alanine (NCS1-G2A). N-terminally LAP (EGFP and S) tagged wild-type or G2A

mutant of NCS1 localized to mother centriole as well as cytoplasm, similar to endogenous NCS1

(Figure 2- figure supplement 1A and B). Consistent with the previous paper (O'Callaghan et al.,

2002), C-terminally LAP tagged wild-type NCS1 localized to membrane compartments, such as

plasma membrane and endoplasmic reticulum, whereas the myristoylation defective mutant

(G2A) diffusely localized to cytoplasm (Figure 2-figure supplement 1C and D). This result

suggests that C-terminal tagging of NCS1 changes its localization potentially via exposing the

myristoylation motif of NCS1, and endogenous NCS1 may sequester its myristoylation motif to

allow localization to cytoplasm. A small amount of nuclear localization observed in LAP tagged

NCS1 likely derives from LAP tagging (Figure 2- figure supplement 1), as the endogenous

NCS1 did not localize to nucleus (Figure 2A). Similar to NCS1, C-terminally LAP tagged

C3ORF14 localized to the location between acetylated tubulin, a cilium marker, and Pericentrin,

a centrosome marker, suggesting that it also localizes specifically to the mother centriole (Figure

2B). NCS1 localization to the mother centriole was enhanced upon serum deprivation (Figure

2C), a condition that induces cilium formation in RPE cells, much like several other distal

appendage proteins (see Figure 1D of an accompanying paper for detail). When observed via 3D

structured illumination microscopy, of which resolution is twice as high as a diffraction limited

microscopy (Y. Wu & Shroff, 2018), C-terminally LAP (EGFP-S) tagged C3ORF14 localized to

a position slightly distal to the distal appendage protein, CEP164, in side-view (Figure 2D).

When top (or axial) view of the mother centriole was visualized, LAP-C3ORF14 formed a ring-

like structure that is slightly smaller than the CEP164 ring (Figure 2E), which is reminiscent of

the 9-fold symmetrical structure of the distal appendage (Paintrand et al., 1992). Similarly, NCS1

localized slightly distal to CEP164 (Figure 2F) as well as the binding partner, CEP89 (Figure

2G), and slightly proximal to the ciliary vesicle marker, RAB34 (Stuck, Chong, Liao, & Pazour,

2021)(see also the accompanying paper) (Figure 2H). Like C3ORF14, NCS1 formed a slightly

smaller ring than CEP164 (Figure 2I). Consistent with this, the ring diameter of NCS1 and

C3ORF14 was 319.5±7.7 nm (n=13, average±SEM) and 348.8±8.0 nm (n=16, average±SEM),

respectively (see Figure 1C of the accompanying paper). It is notable that both C3ORF14 and

NCS1 also localized to the region close to subdistal appendage in some but not all centrioles

(Figure 2D and F), consistent with what was observed for CEP89 localization (Chong et al.,

2020). This near subdistal appendage localization explains why C3ORF14 was previously

classified as a subdistal appendage protein (Gupta et al., 2015). These results suggest that NCS1

localizes to the distal appendage and more precisely to the position sandwiched between CEP89

and the ciliary vesicle (Figure 2J).

We next determined the hierarchy of the three proteins. Centriolar localization of CEP89 was not

affected by depletion of either NCS1 nor C3ORF14 (Figure 2K and Figure 2-figure supplement

2A). NCS1 failed to localize to the mother centriole without altering its cytoplasmic localization

in CEP89 knockout cells but not in C3ORF14 knockout cells (Figure 2L and Figure 2-figure

supplement 2B), indicating that CEP89 recruits NCS1 to the distal appendage. The lack of NCS1

localization at the centriole in CEP89 knockouts cells was rescued by expressing untagged

CEP89 (Figure 2L and Figure 2- figure supplement 2B). C3ORF14 localization required CEP89,

but not NCS1 (Figure 2M and Figure 2- figure supplement 2C). The expression level of neither

NCS1, nor C3ORF14 was affected by CEP89 depletion (Figure 2- figure supplement 2D and E).

These results suggest that both NCS1 and C3ORF14 are recruited to the distal appendage by

CEP89 (Figure 2N). We also tested whether the three proteins affect localization of other distal

appendage proteins and found that the localization of other distal appendage proteins were

unchanged in cells deficient in CEP89, NCS1, or C3ORF14 (Figure 2-figure supplement 3A-C)

(see also Figure 2A-L of the accompanying paper). Similar to the centriolar localization of

CEP89, which was significantly reduced in CEP83 or SCLT1 knockouts, NCS1 localization was

also greatly diminished in these knockouts (Figure 2-figure supplement 3D). This is consistent

with the observation that CEP83-SCLT1 module serves as a structural component of the distal

appendage (see an accompanying paper for the detail). In contrast, the feedback complex

CEP164-TTBK2 (see an accompanying paper for the detail) was required for proper centriolar

localization of NCS1 (Figure 2- figure supplement 3D) but not for CEP89 (Figure 2F of an

accompanying paper). Given that CEP89 is a substrate of TTBK2 (Bernatik et al., 2020; Lo et

al., 2019), this might suggest that phosphorylation of TTBK2 could affect the interaction

between CEP89 and NCS1. It is also possible that NCS1 may be a phosphorylation target of

TTBK2. These questions warrant future investigation.

NCS1 is important for efficient ciliary vesicle recruitment at the distal appendage

We next sought to understand the role of NCS1 at the distal appendage and performed kinetic

analysis of ciliation in control (sgGFP) and knockouts of CEP89, NCS1, or C3ORF14 in RPE

cells, in which serum starvation induces cilium formation (Figure 3A). Control RPE cells form

cilia over 24 hours after serum starvation, and almost of all cells completed cilium formation

between 24 and 48 hours. CEP89 and NCS1 knockouts displayed a notable delay in initiating

ciliation (see 12-hour in Figure 3A), but gradually catch up on ciliogenesis and exhibited only

mild ciliary formation defects at later time points (see 48 hours in Figure 3A). The cilium

formation defect was rescued by expressing untagged CEP89 in CEP89 knockouts or untagged

NCS1 in NCS1 knockouts (Figure 3B). This kinetic defect is strongly consistent with the

knockouts of several other distal appendage proteins, namely ANKRD26 and FBF1 (Figure 5A

and B of an accompanying paper). Consistent with the cells deficient in ANKRD26 or FBF1 (see

Figure 5- figure supplement 1 of an accompanying paper), ciliary ARL13B signal intensity was

reduced in CEP89 or NCS1 knockouts even after the cells complete cilium formation (Figure 3-

figure supplement 1A-C). This suggests that even though the NCS1 or CEP89 knockouts can

eventually form primary cilia, those cilia may be functionally different from wild-type cilia.

C3ORF14 knockouts showed similar but much milder kinetic defect of cilium formation than

CEP89 or NCS1 knockouts, therefore, we focused on NCS1 in the subsequent investigation.

189   We then sought to understand how NCS1 is involved in cilium formation. In an

accompanying paper, we showed that CEP89 participates in cilium formation by regulating

ciliary vesicle recruitment without affecting IFT88::CEP19 recruitment, important steps that

require distal appendage proteins (Schmidt et al., 2012) (Dateyama et al., 2019)(see Figure 5 of

an accompanying paper). We tested if NCS1 has similar roles to its binding partner, CEP89.

Indeed, NCS1 knockouts exhibited moderate ciliary vesicle recruitment defect, similar to CEP89

knockouts, when assessed using RAB34 as a ciliary vesicle marker (Figure 3C). Transmission

electron microscopy analysis confirmed the ciliary vesicle recruitment defect in NCS1 knockouts

(Figure 3D and E). The presence of fused vesicles, albeit much lower percentage than control

cells, in NCS1 knockouts (Figure 3D and E) suggests that NCS1 is important for recruitment but

not fusion of the ciliary vesicle. Removal of CP110, which is believed to act as a cap of

axonemal microtubule, was partially, but measurably affected in NCS1 knockout cells (Figure

3F), consistent with the fact that CP110 removal is in part downstream of ciliary vesicle

recruitment (Figure 4D of an accompanying paper). Neither IFT88 nor CEP19 recruitment to the

centriole was affected in NCS1 knockout cells (Figure 3G and H). These results suggest that

NCS1 plays an important role in cilium formation by regulating ciliary vesicle recruitment, but

not other known processes of cilium formation, consistent with the role of CEP89 in ciliary

vesicle recruitment.

Yet unknown distal appendage proteins may compensate the lack of NCS1 in ciliary vesicle

recruitment

As we showed in an accompanying paper, the distal appendage is indispensable for the

recruitment of the ciliary vesicle to the mother centriole. Virtually no RAB34 positive ciliary

vesicle was observed at mother centriole in cells deficient in CEP164, CEP83, or TTBK2, which

are critical for structural integrity of the distal appendage (Figure 5C of an accompanying paper).

This phenotype is much stronger than what we observed in CEP89 or NCS1 knockouts (Figure

3C), suggesting that some other distal appendage proteins may compensate the lack of NCS1 for

the ciliary vesicle recruitment. To address this question, we created cells lacking both NCS1 and

each of the other distal appendage proteins (FBF1, CEP89, ANKRD26, KIZ, LRRC45) as well

as the distal appendage associated protein, INPP5E (Figure 4A). We omitted the integral

components of the distal appendage proteins (CEP164, TTBK2, CEP83, SCLT1) from the

analysis, as the knockouts of these proteins showed very strong ciliary vesicle recruitment

defects on their own, therefore making it difficult to test if the NCS1 depletion shows additive

effects. Cilium formation assay revealed that depletion of NCS1 decreased the percentage of

ciliated cells in each single knockout cells, except CEP89 (Figure 4B and C). This suggests that

CEP89, but no other distal appendage protein regulates the same ciliary formation pathway as

NCS1. Similarly, depletion of NCS1 decreased the RAB34 positive centriole in each of the

single distal appendage knockout cells, except CEP89 knockouts (Figure 4D). These results

suggest that yet unknown distal appendage proteins would be required to compensate for the

ciliary vesicle recruitment defect of NCS1 knockout cells. Another possibility is that one or more

integral components (CEP164, TTBK2, SCLT1, and CEP83) may be directly involved in ciliary

vesicle recruitment. These hypotheses warrant future investigation.

NCS1 captures ciliary vesicle via its myristoylation motif

Since NCS1 is myristoylated, we wondered whether the membrane association motif is

necessary for NCS1 to recruit the ciliary vesicle. We tested this hypothesis by creating a

myristoylation defective mutant (NCS1-G2A). We tested whether the mutant indeed lost the

ability to bind membrane using differential centrifugation following nitrogen cavitation. We first

determined which fraction is the most optimal to assess membrane association in our

experimental setting. While the microsomal fraction prepared from the pellet following

ultracentrifugation at 100,000 g is often used to analyze membrane fraction of the cells (Graham,

2015), the plasma membrane marker, Epidermal Growth Factor Receptor (EGFR), was enriched

mostly in the pellet following centrifugation at 15,000 *g* in our experiment (Figure 5A; see

Methods for further explanation of the technical design). In addition, NCS1-G2A was

fractionated in the 100,000 *g* pellet to similar extent as wild-type NCS1 (Figure 5A), indicating

that centrifugation at 100,000 *g* may also pellet some soluble proteins, even though cytoplasmic

protein RabGDI remained in the 100,000 *g* supernatant. Thus, we decided to use 15,000 *g* pellet

to assess membrane fraction in our experiment. In control cells (sgSafe), both NCS1 and CEP89

was found in both soluble fraction (15,000 *g* supernatant) and membrane fraction (15,000 *g*

pellet) (Figure 5A). In contrast, NCS1-G2A was only found in the soluble fraction (15,000 *g*

supernatant) (Figure 5A), suggesting that myristoylation is required for membrane localization of

NCS1. Interestingly, CEP89 was only found in the soluble fraction (15,000 *g* supernatant) in

NCS1 knockout cells expressing either empty vector or NCS1-G2A, but not NCS1-WT. This

suggests that membrane localization of CEP89 requires NCS1 with an intact myristoylation

motif. When expressed at similar level to endogenous NCS1 (Figure 5B), both wild-type and the

myristoylation defective (G2A) NCS1 localizes to the mother centriole to a similar extent

(Figure 5C and D). However, the myristoylation defective mutant almost completely failed to

rescue ciliation and ciliary vesicle recruitment defect of NCS1 knockout cells (Figure 5E and F).

These data suggest that NCS1 recruits ciliary vesicle to the distal appendage via its

myristoylation motif (Figure 5G).

Calcium binding is needed for stability of NCS1

In addition to myristoylation motif, human NCS1 also has three functional and one apparently

non-functional (due to the mutation in critical amino acids needed for co-ordination bond with

calcium) EF-hand motifs (Bourne, Dannenberg, Pollmann, Marchot, & Pongs, 2001). Several

other NCS family proteins, including Recoverin and Hippocalcin, show a calcium-myristoyl

switch (Ames et al., 1997; O'Callaghan, Tepikin, & Burgoyne, 2003). In this mechanism, the

sequestered myristoylation motif is exposed to allow the protein to bind membrane upon calcium

binding. It has been proposed that NCS1 may employ a similar molecular switch. While the

structure of fission yeast Ncs1, solved by nuclear magnetic resonance spectroscopy showed the

calcium-myristoyl switch (Lim, Strahl, Thorner, & Ames, 2011), several lines of evidence

suggest the absence of that type of switch in budding yeast and mammalian NCS1(Ames et al.,

2000; O'Callaghan et al., 2002) (Lemire, Jeromin, & Boisselier, 2016). Since a myristoylation

defective mutant of NCS1 failed to form cilia efficiently without affecting its centrosomal

localization (Figure 5C and E), we tested if there is a calcium-myristoylation switch by making

various EF-hand mutations, where each or combination of the three active EF-hand motif was

disabled by mutating invariant glutamate at -Z position to glutamine (E84Q for the 1st, E120Q

for the 2nd, and E168Q for the 3rd active EF-hand mutation). We expressed *wild type* or EF-hand

mutants of untagged NCS1 in NCS1 knockout cells and detected the expression and the

localization of each mutant using α-NCS1 antibody. The wild-type and the mutants of NCS1

were functionally tested via ciliation assay rather than the ciliary vesicle recruitment assay,

because the ciliation assay is much less variable than the vesicle recruitment assay. Although the

E84Q mutant as well as any double and triple EF-hand mutants were highly destabilized (See

input in Figure 5- figure supplement 1A), centriolar NCS1 signal intensity of the mutant was

reduced in parallel to its diminished expression level. This suggests that the first EF hand is

indispensable for stability of NCS1. E120Q mutant had similar expression level, but its

centrosomal signal was significantly reduced (Figure 5- figure supplement 1B), consistent with

its diminished interaction with CEP89 (see IP: GFP in Figure 5- figure supplement 1A), a protein

that recruits NCS1 to the mother centriole (Figure 2L). This suggests that the second EF-hand is

involved in keeping its structure to interact with CEP89. E168Q had a negligible effect in

stability and localization of NCS1. The ciliation assay revealed that none of single EF-hand

mutants showed significant cilium formation defect (Figure 5- figure supplement 1C) despite the

partial reduction of centriolar signal intensity for E84Q and E120Q. The double or triple mutants

almost completely failed to rescue ciliation defect of NCS1 knockout cells (Figure 5-figure

supplement 5C), reflecting their very low expression level (Figure 5-figure supplement 1A).

These results suggest that calcium binding is primarily required for the structure and stability of

NCS1 and NCS1 does not clearly exhibit a calcium-myristoylation switch. The structural role of

calcium on NCS1 is largely consistent with NCS1's high binding affinity to calcium (-90 nM)

(Aravind et al., 2008).

NCS1 is recruited to the centriole in a microtubule-independent manner where it captures

ciliary vesicles

We next sought to understand where NCS1 captures ciliary vesicle. One possibility is that NCS1

captures the ciliary vesicle in the cytoplasm and then traffics it to the centriole by dynein-

dependent transport via microtubule. Another possibility is that NCS1 traffics to the centriole

first and then captures ciliary vesicles. To distinguish these two possibilities, we treated RPE

cells with nocodazole to destabilize microtubules, as microtubules were previously shown to be

indispensable for ciliary vesicle recruitment (C. T. Wu, Chen, & Tang, 2018). Consistent with

the previous report (C. T. Wu et al., 2018), destabilization of microtubule by nocodazole (Figure

6A and B) immediately inhibited ciliary vesicle recruitment and subsequent cilium formation

(Figure 6C and D), suggesting that ciliary vesicles are trafficked to the mother centriole via

microtubules. In contrast, centriolar NCS1 signal was gradually increased upon serum starvation

even in the presence of nocodazole (Figure 6E), suggesting that NCS1 accumulates at the distal

appendage by microtubule-independent mechanisms, possibly by diffusion, similar to the

previously proposed diffusion-to-capture model of IFT trafficking to the ciliary base (Hibbard,

Vazquez, Satija, & Wallingford, 2021). Because NCS1 is an N-terminally myristoylated protein,

we also considered whether NCS1 might be trafficked to the distal appendage through UNC119,

a chaperone that binds to N-myristoylated ciliary proteins like NPHP3 and cystin and traffics

them to the primary cilium (K. J. Wright et al., 2011). We conclude that NCS1 unlikely uses

UNC119 pathway, as we did not observe UNC119A/UNC119B in our AP/MS analysis of

CEP89 (Figure 1B-Source Data), nor in purifications of UNC119A/UNC119B proteins

themselves (K. J. Wright et al., 2011). In a complementary approach to the microtubule

destabilization, we tested if NCS1 localizes to the distal appendage even if the ciliary vesicle

recruitment is inhibited by RAB34 depletion (see Figure 4B and C of an accompanying paper).

We confirmed that centriolar NCS1 was comparable between control (sgSafe) and RAB34

knockout cells (Figure 6F), suggesting that NCS1 is recruited to the centriole independently from

the ciliary vesicle. These results suggest that NCS1 moves to the distal appendage possibly by

diffusion or an alternative trafficking mechanism and there it captures the ciliary vesicle that is

trafficked to the centriole by microtubule-dependent trafficking.

NCS1 localizes to the ciliary base in neuronal and non-neuronal cells

While the majority of papers to date focused on the role of NCS1 in neurons given its original

discovery as a protein that facilitates neurotransmitter release (Pongs et al., 1993), expression

analysis revealed that the protein is expressed ubiquitously in non-neuronal tissues (Gierke et al.,

2004). Since we discovered that NCS1 localizes to the centriole, a major microtubule organizing

center in animal cells (Bornens, 2012), we tested the expression and the localization of NCS1 in

neuronal and non-neuronal cell types. We first tested the expression of NCS1 in various murine

tissues and confirmed that NCS1 is expressed in a wide-range of tissues (Figure 7-figure

supplement 1A). The low expression level of NCS1 in liver, skeletal muscle, and fat might

reflect that most of the cells (hepatocyte, myocyte, and adipocytes, respectively) in those tissues

do not retain cilia, or because of the difference in ratio between intracellular and extracellular

proteins. When we performed immunofluorescence assay, NCS1 localized to both cytoplasm and

the ciliary base (a dot next to ciliary markers, ARL13B or AC3) in isolated hippocampal neuron

(top panel in Figure 7A) as well as cells in hypothalamus (Figure 7B) and the dentate gyrus of

the hippocampus (Figure 7-figure supplement 2C). Both cytoplasmic and the centriole signal was

specific for NCS1 as we detected no signal in NCS1 knockout cells (bottom panel in Figure 7A

and B, and Figure 7-figure supplement 2C). NCS1 also localized to the ciliary base in virtually

all the non-neuronal ciliated cells that we tested, including kidney epithelia, pancreatic islet cells,

airway epithelia, ependymal cells, and mouse embryonic fibroblasts (MEFs) (Figure 7C and D,

Figure 7-figure supplement 2A-D). Only ciliated cells where we failed to detect NCS1 at the

ciliary base was photoreceptor cells (Figure 7-figure supplement 2E). We next sought to

determine whether NCS1 is involved in cilium formation in those cells, as we saw in RPE cells

(Figure 3A and B). In MEFs, cilium formation is modestly perturbed in Ncs1 depleted cells

(Figure 7E and F), consistent with the kinetic cilium formation defect in RPE cells (Figure 3A).

Decrease in ciliary ARL13B signal was also detected in $Ncs1^{-/-}$ MEFs (Figure 7F), similar to

NCS1 knockout RPE cells (Figure 3-figure supplement 1). In contrast, we did not detect a

measurable cilium formation defect in hippocampal neurons that lack Ncs1 (Figure 7G), whereas

the signal of ciliary membrane protein, type III adenylyl cyclase (ADCY3) (Bishop, Berbari,

Lewis, & Mykytyn, 2007) (Berbari, Bishop, Askwith, Lewis, & Mykytyn, 2007), was

significantly decreased (Figure 7H). Other ciliary GPCRs, such as SSTR3 and GPR161, were

also decreased in *Ncs1*^{-/-} neurons, but did not show statistical significance with the small number

of samples analyzed (Figure 7-fiure supplement 3A and B). The difference in the cilium

formation defect in different cell types (modest ciliation defects in RPE and MEFs, but no defect

in neurons) as well as potential signaling function of NCS1 will be discussed in the Discussion.

Ncs1 knockout mice exhibit obesity, but not other phenotypes related to ciliopathies

To date, NCS1 has been characterized mainly in neuronal aspects, as NCS1 was classically

believed to be a neuron-specific calcium sensor (Olafsson et al., 1997). Ncs1 was shown to be

essential for memory formation in C. elegans. Mice lacking Ncs1 exhibited impairment of

memory formation (de Rezende et al., 2014; Saab et al., 2009) (Nakamura et al., 2017). Since

NCS1 is now shown to localize to the distal appendage in both neuronal and non-neuronal cells

and regulate efficient cilium formation at least in some cell types, we sought to test if *Ncs1*

knockout mice show phenotypes related to ciliopathies, pleiotropic disorders caused by

functional and structural dysfunction of cilia (Reiter & Leroux, 2017). A series of previous

mouse genetic studies showed that the loss of ciliary function in mice result in partially penetrant

pre-weaning lethality, obesity, retinal degeneration, and male infertility (Nishimura et al., 2004)

(Ding et al., 2020; Fath et al., 2005; Mykytyn et al., 2004). We assessed whether the previously

generated *Ncs1*^{-/-} mice (Hermainski, 2012; Ng et al., 2016) exhibit ciliopathy phenotypes.

Inconsistent with the previous two reports (Nakamura et al., 2011) (Dickinson et al., 2016),

which generated *Ncs1* knockout mice independently, our *Ncs1*^{-/-} mice did not exhibit pre-

weaning lethality (Figure 7A, p=0.369 in Chi-square test in data with male and female

combined). The difference between our data and the previous studies might derive from the

background of mice (C57BL6/J in our study and C57BL6/N in the previous studies). When body

weight was analyzed, both male and female $Ncs1^{-/-}$ mice became more obese than their

littermates starting at 9-10 weeks of age, and gained 10% more weight than the controls at 20

weeks (Figure 7B-C). The obesity phenotype is consistent with the previous reports (Nakamura

et al., 2011; Ratai et al., 2019) and is similar to what was observed in cilia-defective mice, which

became obese starting between 8-12 weeks (Ding et al., 2020; Fath et al., 2005; Mykytyn et al.,

2004; Nishimura et al., 2004). $Ncs1^{-/-}$ accumulated more fat than their littermate $Ncs1^{+/-}$ mice,

suggesting that the obesity phenotype at least partially comes from the increased fat amount in

$Ncs1^{-/-}$ mice. We also assessed other ciliopathy phenotypes, but $Ncs1^{-/-}$ did not show other cilia-

related symptoms, such as retinal degeneration (judged by thickness of outer nuclear layer),

polycystic kidney, and male infertility (Figure 8E-H). The absence of retinal degeneration, one of

the most penetrant phenotypes besides obesity in Bardet-Biedl syndrome (Forsythe & Beales,

2013) (Forsyth & Gunay-Aygun, 2020), might reflect the lack of Ncs1 at the ciliary base in

photoreceptors (Figure 7-figure supplement 2E). The milder phenotype of $Ncs1^{-/-}$ mice than the

previously reported cilia-defective mice may reflect mild-modest cilium formation defect of

$Ncs1^{-/-}$ mice (Figure 7E and G). Further investigations are needed to determine whether the

obesity phenotype singularly come from cilia defect, and how exactly dysfunction of cilia leads

to obesity in $Ncs1^{-/-}$ mice.

Discussion

In 1962, Sorokin described through electron micrographs that cilium biogenesis in fibroblasts is

initiated by attachment of a small vesicle to the distal end of the centriole (S. Sorokin, 1962), or

more precisely to the distal appendage of the mother centriole (Schmidt et al., 2012). Since the

distal appendage proteins that have been discovered so far (CEP83 (Tanos et al., 2013), CEP164

(Graser et al., 2007), TTBK2 (Cajanek & Nigg, 2014), SCLT1 (Tanos et al., 2013), FBF1 (Tanos

et al., 2013), CEP89 (Sillibourne et al., 2011), ANKRD26 (Bowler et al., 2019), LRRC45

(Kurtulmus et al., 2018)) lack apparent lipid binding motifs, how exactly the ciliary vesicle is

captured by the distal appendage is poorly understood. In an accompanying paper, we screened

all the previously and newly discovered distal appendage proteins and found that CEP89 is

important for ciliary vesicle recruitment but not for other processes of cilium formation, such as

IFT and CEP19 recruitment (see Figure 6 of an accompanying paper). Since CEP89 also lacks

any identifiable lipid binding domain, we hypothesized that an interactor of CEP89 would be

directly involved in the ciliary vesicle recruitment. In this paper, we discovered NCS1 as a

stoichiometric interactor of CEP89. We further show that NCS1 captures the ciliary vesicle via

its myristoylation motif.

How NCS1 captures ciliary vesicles only at distal appendages?

To make cilium formation efficient and error-free, we assume that the cells would have

mechanisms where NCS1 only captures the ciliary vesicle at the distal appendage but not at other

location of the cells (e.g. cytoplasm). In addition to its centriolar localization, NCS1 localizes

throughout cytoplasm, of which signal is completely lost in NCS1 knockout cells (Figure 2A).

This implies that NCS1 may sequester its myristoylation motif to remain in cytoplasm and may

expose the membrane association motif to capture the ciliary vesicle only at the distal

appendage. One very intriguing possibility is that NCS1 may protrude its myristoyl group in

response to increase in local calcium concentration (calcium-myristoyl switch), as shown in

other NCS family proteins, such as Recoverin and Hippocalcin (Ames et al., 1997; O'Callaghan

et al., 2003). The local calcium concentration may be higher at the centriole because of the high

calcium concentration in the cilium (Delling, DeCaen, Doerner, Febvay, & Clapham, 2013). We

addressed this question by making a series of EF-hand mutants of NCS1, where the amino acids

at the -z position required for calcium binding were mutated. Our data emphasizes the

importance of calcium in the stability of NCS1 (Figure 5-figure supplement 1A). As long as the

expression level of NCS1 is maintained, the mutation did not strongly affect either centriolar

localization or cilium formation (Figure 5-figure supplement 1B and C). These data suggest that

calcium may be required for the structural integrity of NCS1 but may not regulate protrusion of

myristoyl moiety, which is required for efficient ciliary vesicle recruitment and subsequent

cilium formation (Figure 5E and F). Our data aligns with the previous reports that suggest the

absence of calcium-myristoyl switch in NCS1 (Ames et al., 2000; O'Callaghan et al., 2002)

(Lemire et al., 2016). The second possibility is that NCS1 exposes its myristoyl group only when

the protein binds to another protein at the distal appendage. Given that CEP89 recruits NCS1 to

the distal appendage (Figure 2L), we wondered if NCS1 associates with membranes only when

the protein binds to CEP89. However, a fractionation experiment showed that NCS1 purifies

with the membrane fraction even in the absence of CEP89 (Figure 5A), indicating the absence of

CEP89-myristoyl switch. The third possibility is that NCS1 continuously expose its

myristoylation motif but remains in cytoplasm because of a weak membrane association. This

hypothesis is in agreement with the low affinity of myristoylated peptides for lipid with the

dissociation constant of 100 µM, which is barely sufficient to keep its membrane association

(Peitzsch & McLaughlin, 1993). Myristoylated proteins typically require additional mechanisms

to bind membranes (M. H. Wright, Heal, Mann, & Tate, 2010): 1) another acyl chain (e.g.,

palmitoylation), 2) a cluster of basic amino acids that help association with negatively charged

head group of the membrane, 3) an interacting partner that has affinity for membrane. Since

NCS1 does not appear to have another acyl chain, membrane binding of NCS1 is likely enhanced

by either basic amino acids or another distal appendage protein that is in close proximity to

NCS1 keeps the protein associated with membrane. Interestingly, a recent paper showed that

lysine residues at position 3, 7, and 9 may be also involved in membrane binding of NCS1

(Baksheeva et al., 2020). In terms of the binding partner induced membrane association, this

process is likely regulated by yet unknown distal appendage protein(s) and not by CEP89 as

membrane association of NCS1 does not require CEP89 (Figure 5A). The rise in the local

concentration of NCS1 as well as membrane vesicle at the centriole may also help NCS1's

membrane association at that location. The weak association between myristoylated NCS1 and

membrane could also explain why cells can capture ciliary vesicles, albeit less efficiently, even

in the absence of NCS1 (Figure 3C and 5F). We currently do not have an obvious candidate for a

distal appendage protein that may compensate the lack of NCS1, as the depletion of NCS1 in any

of the knockouts of the known distal appendage proteins did not further inhibit the ciliary vesicle

recruitment and cilium formation (Figure 4B-D). Future study will focus on identifying

additional protein(s) that recruit the ciliary vesicle to the centriole.

How the ciliary vesicle is transported to the distal appendage.

Our model suggests that the ciliary vesicle is recruited to the distal appendage in a microtubule-

dependent manner, whereas NCS1 can reach to the mother centriole without intact microtubules

(Figure 6). How is the ciliary vesicle recruited to the distal appendage? Classically, subdistal

appendages were considered as the site where the microtubule anchoring occurs, as the electron

micrograph showed that microtubule are in contact with the head of the subdistal appendage (see

Figure 12 of the (Vorobjev & Chentsov Yu, 1982)). The subdistal appendage localization of

Ninein, which was shown to be indispensable for microtubule anchoring at the centriole

(Delgehyr, Sillibourne, & Bornens, 2005), further supports that subdistal appendages are the

contact site of the microtubule. Therefore, one can hypothesize that the ciliary vesicle is

transported first to the subdistal appendage and then subsequently moves to the distal appendage

by an unknown mechanism. Interestingly, CEP89 and its interactors, NCS1 and C3ORF14, each

localize to positions near the subdistal appendage in addition to their distal appendage

localization (Figure 2D and F) (Chong et al., 2020). NCS1 may bind to ciliary vesicle at the

subdistal appendage and then move to the distal appendage to anchor the vesicle and promote

cilium formation. Possibly this process is rapid, so that any vesicle attached to the subdistal

appendage has never been observed in electron micrographs. However, this model conflicts with

the observation that subdistal appendages are dispensable for cilium formation (Mazo, Soplop,

Wang, Uryu, & Tsou, 2016). Alternatively, microtubules may populate a structural site around

the distal appendages as shown by recent dSTORM imaging (Chong et al., 2020). γ-tubulin

observed in vicinity of the distal appendage may nucleate those microtubules. If this is the case,

the ciliary vesicle may be transported directly to the distal appendage and then be captured by

NCS1. To address this question, it would be greatly informative if the entire ciliary vesicle

recruitment process could be visualized by super-resolution microscopy in live cells in a future

study. Another important question is whether NCS1 specifically recognizes a receptor on the

ciliary vesicle or NCS1 randomly captures the membrane of vesicles that arrive at the distal

appendage. NCS1 may recognize specific vesicles via the membrane curvature or specific lipid

components. Interestingly, a recent study showed that NCS1 preferentially binds to

phosphatidylinositol-3-phosphate (Baksheeva et al., 2020). This warrants future study.

Requirement of NCS1 in cilium formation differs among cell types

Cilium formation can be classified into two types (S. P. Sorokin, 1968) (Molla-Herman et al.,

2010): 1) the intracellular pathway, which is initiated by ciliary vesicle recruitment to the distal

appendage, and 2) the extracellular pathway, where the centriole first docks to plasma

membrane. While specific cell types have been observed to selectively use one of the two

pathways, the distinction between the pathways might not be so definite. For example, mouse

inner medullary collecting duct cells (mIMCD3), typically classified as using the extracellular

pathway, can use the intracellular pathway in less confluent cells (Stuck et al., 2021).

Nonetheless, the requirement for RAB34, a ciliary vesicle marker, in ciliogenesis is more

pronounced in the cells that use the intracellular pathway (Ganga et al., 2021; Oguchi, Okuyama,

Homma, & Fukuda, 2020; Stuck et al., 2021), indicating that ciliary vesicle recruitment is an

indispensable step for that pathway. Our data showed that cilium formation is modestly affected

by NCS1 depletion in the cell types that are known to use intracellular pathway (Molla-Herman

et al., 2010), such as RPE and MEFs (Figure 3A and Figure 7E). While the ciliogenesis pathway

is not well characterized in neurons, the presence of the ciliary pocket, a sign of the intracellular

pathway (Molla-Herman et al., 2010), is apparent in electron micrographs of neurons and neural

progenitors (Barnes, 1961; Brechbuhl, Klaey, & Broillet, 2008; Breunig et al., 2008; Dingemans,

1969; Han et al., 2008; Mirzadeh, Merkle, Soriano-Navarro, Garcia-Verdugo, & Alvarez-Buylla,

2008). Thus, we can predict that neurons would use the intracellular pathway. However,

inconsistently with RPE and MEFs, we did not observe a ciliary formation defect in cultured

hippocampal neurons isolated from E18.5 mice, suggesting that the requirement for NCS1 may

differ among cell types even though they use the same cilium formation pathway. Another

possible explanation for a failure to see cilium formation defects is that it is not easy to assess the

kinetics of ciliation in isolated hippocampal neurons because culture conditions are very different

from RPE cells. Notably, cilium formation is not induced by serum starvation in isolated

hippocampal neurons. In tissues *in vivo*, it was not easy to assess whether the $Ncs1^{-/-}$ mice have

fewer cilia than the control mice for several reasons. First, cilium structure is greatly affected by

sample preparation. For example, we cannot visualize cilia if we do not fix the tissues by cardiac

perfusion with 4% paraformaldehyde and it is difficult to achieve perfectly efficient perfusion.

Second, orientation of cilia is affected by the orientation of how the tissue is sectioned and it is

thus difficult to analyze cilia that elongate perpendicularly to the slice. Therefore, we could not

test whether NCS1 is required for cilium formation in cells that typically use extracellular

pathway. These questions warrant future studies. Importantly, we did observe a decrease in

ciliary localization of several membrane proteins, such as ARL13B (Figure 3-figure supplement

1A-C) and ADCY3 (Figure 7H) in $Ncs1^{-/-}$ cells, even when the percentage of ciliated cells was

comparable to the control cells. This may suggest that NCS1 might be involved in recruiting

membrane signaling proteins to the cilium besides its function in ciliary vesicle recruitment and

cilium formation. It would be interesting to test in the future study if other ciliary membrane

proteins are also brought to the cilium via ciliary vesicles.

***NCS1* may be a ciliopathy gene**

Given that NCS1 is involved in ciliary vesicle recruitment and subsequent cilium formation, we

tested if $Ncs1^{-/-}$ mice exhibit ciliopathy phenotypes. Our data showed that $Ncs1^{-/-}$ mice display a

modest obesity phenotype, but no other apparent ciliopathy related phenotypes, including retinal

degeneration. The absence of retinal degeneration may be explained by the lack of Ncs1 at the

ciliary base in photoreceptors. A possible explanation for the lack of other ciliopathy phenotypes

is the partial penetrance of these other symptoms. In human, obesity and retinal degeneration is

observed in most Bardet-Biedl syndrome patients (-90%), whereas other phenotypes, such as

hypogonadism and kidney disease are often absent (Forsyth & Gunay-Aygun, 2020). Mice

lacking the distal appendage protein, FBF1(Zhang et al., 2021) or ANKRD26 (Acs et al., 2015)

(Bera et al., 2008), or the distal appendage associate protein, CEP19 (Shalata et al., 2013),

display morbid obesity with few other ciliopathy-related phenotypes (e.g., preweaning lethality

and hydrocephalus in *Fbf1*^{-/-} and male infertility in *Cep19*^{-/-} mice). Interestingly, our data

revealed that knockouts of each of these genes show a kinetic defect in ciliation, but the cells

also are observed to eventually catch up for cilium formation (Figure 5A and B in an

accompanying paper for ANKRD26 and FBF1) (Figure 3C of (Kanie et al., 2017) for CEP19).

This phenotype is almost identical to what was observed in CEP89 or NCS1 knockout cells

(Figure 3A), suggesting that mild cilium formation defect may result in obesity with few other

ciliopathy-related defects. Another explanation for the lack of other ciliopathy phenotypes

besides obesity is the background of our *Ncs1*^{-/-} mice (C57BL6/J). It is well known that depletion

of the same gene could cause different severity of the phenotypes in different background of

mice. For example, mice lacking Bbip10, a BBSome associated protein (Loktev et al., 2008), in

pure C57BL6/J background show complete perinatal lethality, while approximately half of the

Bbip10^{-/-} mice in 129/SvJ background can survive into adulthood (Loktev & Jackson, 2013).

Interestingly, two independent reports showed that *Ncs1*^{-/-} exhibit partial (-50%) preweaning

lethality (Dickinson et al., 2016; Nakamura et al., 2011) in C57BL6/N mice. The difference in

the severity of the phenotypes in *Ncs1*^{-/-} mice between previous reports and our results may be

explained by the difference between C57BL6/J and C57BL6/N. Genetic and phenotypic

differences between these two strains were extensively described in the previous paper (Simon et

al., 2013). Thus, NCS1 may be a ciliopathy gene and obesity caused by NCS1 depletion may be

attributable to ciliary defect. This warrants future genetic study. If obesity accompanied with

NCS1 depletion is due to a cilia defect, what kind of cilia defect exist in the *Ncs1* defective

animals *in vivo*? A simple defect may be the reduced number of ciliated cells because of the

cilium formation defect. While we did not see an apparent decrease in the number of cilia in

Ncs1^{-/-} mice in any tissues that we examined (e.g., brain, kidney, pancreatic islets, and airway

epithelia) (Figure 7B-D, Figure 7-figure supplement 2), more accurate characterization is needed

to make a conclusion. It is possible that cilium formation is abolished in developmentally and

spatially regulated manner, so that the defect may be only apparent in specific cell types and

developmental stage. Another possibility that may cause cilia-related obesity phenotype in *Ncs1*^{-/-}

mice is that localization of some of the ciliary membrane proteins may be abolished in *Ncs1*^{-/-}

cells as shown in the cultured hippocampal neurons (Figure 7H). Unfortunately, it is not easy to

assess the number and morphology of the cilia as well as signal intensity of the ciliary membrane

proteins *in vivo* because of the issues described above. Technical improvement in the future may

allow us to more accurately characterize the cilia *in vivo* and determine whether ciliary defects in

Ncs1^{-/-} mice indeed cause obesity. Alternatively, it would be interesting to see if *Cep89* knockout

mice display the similar phenotypes as *Ncs1* knockout mice.

The connection between NCS1-related neurological disorder and cilia defect.

NCS1 has been shown to participate in memory formation in *C. elegans* (Gomez et al., 2001) and

mice (Saab et al., 2009) (Nguyen et al., 2021) (Nakamura et al., 2017; Ng et al., 2016) (de

Rezende et al., 2014). While the neurological phenotypes in *Ncs1*^{-/-} mice are not consistent

across studies, possibly because of the differences in mouse background, it seems that many

studies agree that the overall phenotypes are mild, and the mice display defects in memory

formation, when tested for novel object recognition (de Rezende et al., 2014) or displaced object

recognition (Mun et al., 2015; Ng et al., 2020; Nguyen et al., 2021). It is intriguing to consider

whether the memory formation defect in *Ncs1*^{-/-} mice is attributable to ciliary defects. Several

lines of evidence suggest that loss of cilia in brain results in memory formation defects. If IFT88,

an IFT component critical for formation of the cilium, is depleted in telencephalon by Emx-1

Cre, the mice display impaired recognition memory assessed through novel object recognition

test (Berbari et al., 2014). The depletion of IFT20 in dentate gyrus of the hippocampus using

AAV-CAMKII-Cre caused the defect in displaced object recognition test (Rhee, Kirschen, Gu,

& Ge, 2016). Both mice lacking ADCY3 or SSTR3, ciliary membrane proteins that are

prominent in neurons (Bishop et al., 2007), exhibit defect in novel object recognition (Einstein et

al., 2010; Wang, Phan, & Storm, 2011). The similarity between cilia-defective mice and $Ncs1^{-/-}$

mice may suggest that the memory formation defect in $Ncs1^{-/-}$ deficient mice may be due to

ciliary dysfunction. It would be interesting to test whether SSTR3 agonist, which induces long-

term potentiation (LTP) (Einstein et al., 2010) likely via binding to the ciliary G-protein coupled

receptor, SSTR3, can induce LTP in $Ncs1^{-/-}$ mice. It would be also interesting to see if Cep89

depletion in mice causes similar memory formation defect, since NCS1 knockouts and CEP89

knockouts showed almost identical cilium formation defects (Figure 3). The importance of cilia

in neurological deficiencies should be an area of extensive future study.

Author Contributions

Conceptualization, T. K. and P. K. J.; Methodology, T. K., R.N., K.A., and P. K. J.;

Investigation, T. K., R.N., K.A., and P. K. J.; Writing – Original Draft, T. K.; Writing – Review

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Resources, T.K. and P. K. J.; Supervision, T. K. and P. K. J.

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Materials and Methods

Plasmids

pMCB306, a lenti-viral vector containing loxP-mU6-sgRNAs-puro resistance-EGFP-loxP

cassette, and P293 Cas9-Blue Fluorescent Protein (BFP) were gifts from Prof. Michael Bassik.

Lenti-virus envelope and packaging vector, pCMV-VSV-G and pCMV-dR8.2 dvpr respectively,

were gifts from Prof. Bob Weinberg (Addgene plasmid #8454 and #8455).

pOG44 (V600520) was obtained from Thermo Fisher Scientific.

627 Lentiviral vectors containing single guide RNAs (sgRNAs) were generated by ligating 50 fmol

628 oligonucleotides encoding sgRNAs into 25 ng of the pMCB306 vector digested with BstXI

629 (R0113S, NEB) and BlpI (R0585S, NEB) restriction enzymes along with 0.25 μl of T4 ligase

630 (M0202S, NEB) in 2.5 μl total reaction volume. Before ligation, 4 μM of forward and reverse

631 oligonucleotides listed in the supplementary table were annealed in 50 μl of annealing buffer

632 (100 mM potassium acetate, 30 mM HEPES (pH7.4), and 3mM magnesium acetate) at room

633 temperature following denaturation in the same buffer at 95°C for 5 minutes. The targeting

634 sequence for sgRNAs are listed in the supplementary table "Source Data 1-Primers used for

635 genomic PCR and for generating sgRNA vectors". The guide RNA targeting sequence for

636 pMCB306-sgNCS1 vector used to create cells lacking both NCS1 and each of the other distal

637 appendage proteins shown in Figure 4 is the same as the one used to make NCS1 knockout cells.

638 The knockout cells for other distal appendage proteins were described in an accompanying

639 paper.

640 pG-LAP6/puro vector (pCDNA5/TO/FRT/EGFP-TEV cleavage site-S tag-PreScission cleavage

641 site/DEST) used for the tandem affinity purification experiment was previously described (Kanie

642 et al., 2017). Gateway cloning compatible lentiviral vectors, pWPXLd/LAP-N/puro/DEST vector

643 and pWPXLd/LAP-C/puro/DEST vector, were previously described (Kanie et al., 2017).

644 pWPXLd/LAP-N/blast/long EF/DEST was created by inserting N-terminally LAP tag (EGFP-

645 TEV cleavage site-S tag-PreScission cleavage site)/DEST/blasticidin resistance cassette into a

646 second generation lenti-viral vector, pWPXLd. pWPXLd vector was a gift from Prof. Didier

647 Trono (Addgene plasmid #12258). pWPXLd/LAP-C/blast/long EF/DEST vector was created by

648 inserting DEST/C-terminally LAP tag/blasticidin resistance cassette into the pWPXLd vector.

649 pWPXLd/FLAG-N/blast/DEST vector was created by inserting FLAG/DEST/blasticidin

resistance cassette into the pWPXLd vector. All the lenti-viral vectors were propagated in Stbl3

competent cells to reduce unwanted recombination of long terminal repeat of the vectors.

pCS2-N-terminal 5×MYC/DEST and pCS2-N-terminal 3×HA/DEST (used for in vitro

translation) were created by inserting either 5×MYC tag or 3×HA tag and destination cassette

into pCS2+ vector, which contains Sp6 and CMV promoter.

The Gateway entry vector for Homo sapiens CEP89 was created by BP recombination using a

Polymerase Chain Reaction (PCR) product containing attB1 and attB2 site, which was amplified

using pCR4-TOPO-CEP89 (MHS6278-213243472, Open Biosystems) as a template. Gateway

entry vectors carrying truncation mutants of CEP89 (1-343a.a. and 344-783a.a.) were created by

using BP recombination between pDONR221 and PCR-amplified inserts.

The Gateway entry vectors for Homo sapiens NCS1 (HsCD00366520) and C3ORF14

(HsCD00365881) were obtained from Harvard plasmid. STOP codons were added or removed

by using Quick change mutagenesis if necessary. The Gateway entry vectors for NCS1 mutants

(myristoylation defective or EF-hand mutants) were created via Quick change mutagenesis using

the entry vector for NCS1 described above. The quick-change mutagenesis was performed by

PCR with a complementary primary set (forward and reverse) that has a point mutation in the

middle of the primers. Following the PCR, the PCR product was treated with 20U of DpnI

(R0176L, NEB) for 1 hour at 37°C to eliminate the template, and was then used to transform

competent cells.

The entry vectors for the CEP350 fragment (2470-2836 a.a.) and FGFR1OP (or FOP) was

previously described (Kanie et al., 2017).

Flp-In system compatible N-terminally LAP-tagged CEP89 was generated by LR recombination

between CEP89 entry vector and pG-LAP6/puro.

Lentiviral vector containing untagged CEP89 (minimal CMV promoter) was created by LR

recombination between CEP89 entry vector that contains a stop codon and

pWPXLd/LAPC/blast/minimal CMV/DEST vector.

Lentiviral vectors containing untagged NCS1 (long EF promoter or short EF promoter) were

created by LR recombination between NCS1 (wild-type and mutants) entry vectors that contain

stop codons and pWPXLd/LAPC/blast/long EF/DEST or pWPXLd/LAPC/blast/short EF/DEST

vectors.

N-terminally HA tagged CEP89, C3ORF14, and FGFR1OP (or FOP) vectors used for in vitro

binding assay were created by LR recombination between the respective entry vectors containing

a stop codon and the pCS2-N-terminal 3×HA/DEST vector. pCS2-N-terminal 5×MYC tagged

C3ORF14, NCS1, and the CEP350 fragment (2470-2836 a.a.) vectors were created by LR

recombination between the respective entry vectors that contain stop codons and the pCS2-N-

terminal 5×MYC/DEST vector.

Cell line, Cell culture, Transfection, and Lentiviral expression

hTERT RPE-1 cells and 293T cells were grown in DMEM/F-12 (12400024, Thermo Fisher

Scientific) supplemented with 10% FBS (100-106, Gemini), 1× GlutaMax (35050-079, Thermo

Fisher Scientific), 100 U/mL Penicillin-Streptomycin (15140163, Thermo Fisher Scientific) at

37°C in 5% CO_2. To induce cilium formation, cells were incubated in DMEM/F-12

supplemented with 1×GlutaMax and 100 U/mL Penicillin-Streptomycin (serum-free media).

Both cell lines were authenticated via a short-tandem-repeat based test. The authentication was

performed by MTCRO-COBRE Cell line authentication core of the University of Oklahoma

Health Science Center. Mycoplasma negativity of the original cell lines (hTERT RPE-1 and

293T) grown in antibiotics-free media were confirmed by a PCR based test (G238, Applied

Biological Materials).

RPE-FRT9 expressing N-terminally LAP tagged CEP89 used for tandem affinity purification

was generated by transfecting 150 ng of the preceding vectors with 850 ng of pOG44, followed

by selection with 10 μg/ml puromycin. Flp-In system compatible RPE cells (RPE-FRT9) were

previously described (Sang et al., 2011).

All other stable cell lines, including CRISPR knockout cells, were generated using lentivirus.

Lentivirus carrying either gene of interest or sgRNAs was produced by co-transfecting 293T

cells with 150 ng of pCMV-VSV-G, 350 ng of pCMV-dR8.2 dvpr, and 500 ng of lenti-viral

transfer plasmids previously described along with 3 μl of Fugene 6 (E2692, Promega)

transfection reagent. Media was replaced 24 hr after transfection to omit transfection reagent,

and virus was harvested at 48 hr post-transfection. Virus was then filtered with a 0.45 μm PVDF

filter (SLHV013SL, Millipore) and mixed with 4-fold volume of fresh media containing 12.5

μg/ml polybrene (TR-1003-G, Millipore). Following infection for 66 hr, cells were selected with

either 10 μg/ml puromycin (P9620, SIGMA-Aldrich) or 10 μg/ml blasticidin (30-100-RB,

Corning) for at least 10 days before subsequent analysis.

CRISPR knockout

RPE cells expressing BFP-Cas9 were generated by infection with lentivirus carrying P293 Cas9-

BFP, followed by sorting BFP-positive cells using FACSAria (BD). RPE-BFP-Cas9 cells were

then infected with lentivirus carrying sgRNAs in the pMCB306 vector to generate knockout

cells. After selection with 10 μg/ml puromycin, cells were subjected to immunoblotting,

immunofluorescence, or genomic PCR combined with TIDE analysis (Brinkman, Chen,

Amendola, & van Steensel, 2014) to determine knockout efficiency. The exact assay used for

each cell line is listed in "Source Data 7-summary of CRISPR knockout cells". Cells were then

infected with adenovirus carrying Cre-recombinase (1045N, Vector Biolabs) at a multiplicity of

infection of 50 to remove the sgRNA-puromycin resistance-EGFP cassette. 10 days after

adenovirus infection, GFP-negative single cells were sorted using FACSAria. The single cell

clones were expanded, and their knockout efficiency were determined by immunofluorescence,

Western blot, and/or genomic. The same number of validated single clones (typically three to

four different clones) were mixed to create pooled single cell knockout clones to minimize the

phenotypic variability occurred in single cell clones. The cells lacking both NCS1 and each of

the other distal appendage proteins shown in Figure 4 were created by infecting the knockout

cells with lenti-virus carrying sgNCS1. The experiments shown in Figure 4 were performed

without removing loxP-mU6-sgRNAs-puro resistance-EGFP-loxP cassette.

Cells used in the rescue experiments shown in Figure 3B, Figure 3- figure supplement 1A-C,

Figure 5A-F, and Figure 5- figure supplement 1A-C were created by infecting the respective

knockout cells with lenti-virus carrying untagged CEP89 or NCS1 (wild-type or mutants). To

rescue the ciliation defect of CEP89 knockout cells, the expression level of CEP89 was carefully

adjusted by using minimal CMV promoter to mimic endogenous CEP89 expression, since

overexpression of CEP89 under the control of long EF promoter significantly inhibited cilium

formation (data not shown).

Tandem affinity purification

5 mL packed cell volume of RPE-FRT9 cells expressing N-terminally LAP-tagged CEP89 were

re-suspended with 20 mL of LAP-resuspension buffer (300 mM KCl, 50 mM HEPES-KOH [pH

7.4], 1 mM EGTA, 1 mM MgCl$_2$, 10% glycerol, 0.5 mM dithiothreitol (DTT), and protease

inhibitors [PI88266, Thermo Scientific]), lysed by gradually adding 600 μL 10% NP-40 to a

final concentration of 0.3%, then incubated on ice for 10 min. The lysate was first centrifuged at

14,000 rpm (27,000 g) at 4°C for 10 min, and the resulting supernatant was centrifuged at 43,000

rpm (100,000 g) for 1 hr at 4°C to further clarify the lysate. High speed supernatant was mixed

with 500 μL of GFP-coupled beads (Torres, Miller, & Jackson, 2009) and rotated for 1 hr at 4°C

to capture GFP-tagged proteins, and washed five times with 1 mL LAP200N buffer (200 mM

KCl, 50 mM HEPES-KOH [pH 7.4], 1 mM EGTA, 1 mM MgCl$_2$, 10% glycerol, 0.5 mM DTT,

protease inhibitors, and 0.05% NP40). After re-suspending the beads with 1 mL LAP200N buffer

lacking DTT and protease inhibitors, the GFP-tag was cleaved by adding 5 μg of TEV protease

and rotating tubes at 4°C overnight. All subsequent steps until the cutting of bands from protein

gels were performed in a laminar flow hood. TEV-eluted supernatant was added to 100 μL of S-

protein agarose (69704-3, EMD Millipore) to capture S-tagged protein. After washing three

times with LAP200N buffer lacking DTT and twice with LAP100 buffer (100 mM KCl, 50 mM

HEPES-KOH [pH 7.4], 1 mM EGTA, 1 mM MgCl$_2$, and 10% glycerol), purified protein

complexes were eluted with 50 μL of 2×Lithium Dodecyl Sulfate (LDS) buffer (212 mM Tris-

HCl, 282 mM Tris-base, 4% LDS, 20% glycerol, 1.02 mM EDTA, 0.13% Brilliant Blue G250,

0.05% phenol red buffer) containing 10% DTT and boiled at 95°C for 3 min. Samples were then

run on Bolt® Bis-Tris Plus Gels (NW04120BOX, Thermo Fisher Scientific) in Bolt® MES SDS

Running Buffer (B000202, Thermo Fisher Scientific). Gels were fixed in 100 mL of fixing

solution (50% methanol, 10% acetic acid in Optima™ LC/MS grade water [W6-1, Thermo

Fisher Scientific]) at room temperature, and stained with Colloidal Blue Staining Kit (LC6025,

Thermo Fisher Scientific). After the buffer was replaced with Optima™ water, the bands were

cut into eight pieces, followed by washing twice with 500 μL of 50% acetonitrile in Optima™

water. The gel slices were then reduced and alkylated followed by destaining and in-gel

digestion using 125 ng Trypsin/LysC (V5072, Promega) as previously described (Shevchenko,

Tomas, Havlis, Olsen, & Mann, 2006) with the addition of Protease Max (V2071, Promega) to

increase digestion efficiency. Tryptic peptides were extracted from the gel bands and dried in a

speed vac. Prior to LC-MS, each sample was reconstituted in 0.1% formic acid, 2% acetonitrile,

and water. NanoAcquity (Waters) LC instrument was set at a flow rate of either 300 nL/min or

450 nL/min where mobile phase A was 0.2% formic acid in water and mobile phase B was 0.2%

formic acid in acetonitrile. The analytical column was in-house pulled and packed using C18

Reprosil Pur 2.4 μM (Dr. Maisch) where the I.D. was 100 μM and the column length was 20-25

cm. Peptide pools were directly injected onto the analytical column in which linear gradients (4-

40% B) were of either 80 or 120 min eluting peptides into the mass spectrometer. Either the

Orbitrap Elite or Orbitrap Fusion mass spectrometers were used, where a top 15 or "fastest"

MS/MS data acquisition was used, respectively. MS/MS was acquired using CID with a

collisional energy of 32-35. In a typical analysis, RAW files were processed using Byonic

(Protein Metrics) using 12 ppm mass accuracy limits for precursors and 0.4 Da mass accuracy

limits for MS/MS spectra. MS/MS data was compared to an NCBI GenBank FASTA database

containing all human proteomic isoforms with the exception of the tandem affinity bait construct

sequence and common contaminant proteins. Spectral counts were assumed to have undergone

fully specific proteolysis and allowing up to two missed cleavages per peptide. All data was

filtered and presented at a 1% false discovery rate (Elias & Gygi, 2007).

Silver staining

5μl of samples containing LDS buffer and DTT prepared for tandem affinity purification and

mass spectrometry described above were mixed with 0.5 μl of 500 mM iodoacetamide

(0210035105, MP Biomedicals). Proteins were separated in a 4-12% Bis-Tris gel (NP0321BOX,

Invitrogen), followed by fixation of the gel overnight in 50% methanol at room temperature.

The gel was impregnate with solution C (0.8% (w/v) silver nitrate (S6506, SIGMA), 207.2mM

ammonium hydroxide (A6899, SIGMA) and 18.9 mM sodium hydroxide) for 15 minutes,

followed by rinsing with water twice. The image was then developed in solution D (0.05% citric

and 0.0185% formaldehyde in Milli-Q) until intensity of the bands increase to optimal level. The

reaction was then terminated by adding stop solution (45% methanol and 10% acetic acid).

Immunoblot

For immunoblotting, cells were lysed in NP-40 lysis buffer (50 mM Tris-HCl [pH7.5], 150 mM

NaCl, 0.3% NP-40 [11332473001, Roche Applied Science]) containing 10 μg/ml LPC

(leupeptin, Pepstatin A, and chymostatin) and 1% phosphatase inhibitor cocktail 2 (P5726,

SIGMA). Following clarification of the lysate by centrifugation at 15,000 rpm (21,000 g) for 10

min, samples were mixed with 1× LDS buffer (106 mM Tris-HCl, 141 mM Tris-base, 2% LDS,

10% glycerol, 0.51mM EDTA, 0.065% Brilliant Blue G250, 0.025% phenol red) containing

2.5% 2-mercaptoethanol (M3148, SIGMA) and incubated at 95°C for 5 min. Proteins were

separated in an NuPAGE™ Novex™ 4-12% Bis-Tris protein gel (WG1402BOX, Thermo Fisher

Scientific) in NuPAGE™ MOPS SDS running buffer (50 mM MOPS, 50 mM Tris Base, 0.1%

SDS, 1 mM EDTA, pH 7.7), and transferred onto an Immobilon™-FL PVDF Transfer

Membrane (IPFL00010, EMD Millipore) in Towbin Buffer (25 mM Tris, 192 mM glycine, pH

8.3). Membranes were incubated in LI-COR Odyssey Blocking Buffer (NC9232238, LI-COR)

for 30 min at room temperature, and then probed overnight at 4°C with the appropriate primary

antibody diluted in the blocking buffer. Next, the membrane was washed 3×5 min in TBST

buffer (20 mM Tris, 150 mM NaCl, 0.1% Tween 20, pH 7.5) at room temperature, and incubated

with the appropriate IRDye® antibodies (LI-COR) diluted in the blocking buffer for 30 min at

room temperature. After washing three times in TBST buffer, the membrane was scanned on an

Odyssey CLx Imaging System (LI-COR) and proteins were detected at wavelengths 680 and 800

nm. Primary antibodies used for immunoblotting are listed in the "Source Data 4-List of the

antiboidies_CEP89-NCS1". Secondary antibodies used for immunoblotting were IRDye®

800CW donkey anti-rabbit (926-32213, LI-COR) and IRDye® 680CW donkey anti-mouse (926-

68072, LI-COR).

Co-immunoprecipitation

Cells were plated in a 10 cm dish and grown to confluent. Cells were then lysed with NP-40 lysis

buffer (50 mM Tris-HCl [pH7.5], 150 mM NaCl, and 0.3% NP-40) containing 10 μg/ml LPC

(leupeptin, Pepstatin A, and chymostatin) and 1% phosphatase inhibitor cocktail 2 (P5726,

SIGMA), followed by clarification of the lysate by centrifugation at 15,000 rpm (21,000 g) for

10 min. The protein concentration was measured by Bradford assay as described previously (see

procedure B step 8 in (Kanie & Jackson, 2018)). For GFP co-immunoprecipitation shown in

Figure 1D and Figure 5- figure supplement 1A, the soluble fraction was incubated with Protein A

beads cross-linked with rabbit anti-GFP antibody (Torres et al., 2009) (10 μl bed volume per 3

mg of lysate) with end-over-end rotation for 1.5 hr at 4°C. For co-immunoprecipitation with

endogenous NCS1 shown in Figure 1- figure supplement 1A, the lysate was incubated with

mouse monoclonal anti-NCS1 antibody (sc-376206, Santa Cruz) (1 μg of antibody per 4 mg of

lysate) for 1 hour with end-over-end rotation. The samples were then mixed with protein A beads

(20 μl bed volume) and incubated with end-over-end rotation for 1.5 hr at 4°C. After the

incubation with the beads (for both GFP co-IP and NCS1 co-IP), the samples were washed five

times with IP wash buffer (50 mM Tris-HCl [pH 7.5], 150 mM NaCl, and 0.1% NP-40). Samples

were then eluted with 2 × LDS buffer containing 2.5% 2-mercaptoethanol (M3148, SIGMA).

Subcellular fractionation

Cells were plated in a 15 cm dish at the density of 1.25×10^6 cells and grown in DMEM/F-12

media containing 10% FBS for 90 hours. Cells were detached from the plate using 0.05%

trypsin/EDTA (25300-054, Gibco) and pelleted down by centrifugation at 500 g at 4°C for 5

minutes. After washing once with 15 ml of ice cold low osmotic buffer (25mM HEPES-NaOH

(pH7.5), 0.5 mM $MgCl_2$), the cell pellet was re-suspended in 10 ml of the ice cold low osmotic

buffer and incubated on ice for 10 minutes to let the cells swollen. The swollen cells were

pelleted down and were re-suspended in 0.8 ml of the ice cold low osmotic buffer, followed by

nitrogen cavitation at 300 psi for 30 minutes on ice. The cavitate was centrifuged at 1000 g at

4°C for 10 minutes. The 1000 g supernatant was then centrifuged at 15,000 g at 4°C for 10

minutes. The 15,000 g supernatant was then transferred to an ultracentrifugation tube (343778,

Beckman) and ultracentrifuged at 100,000 g (R_{max}) in a TLA100.2 fixed angle rotor (Beckman) at

4°C for 1 hour. The supernatant samples were prepared by mixing 25 μl of supernatant from

each centrifugation speed with 25 μl of 2×LDS buffer containing 5% 2-mercaptoethanol. The

pellet samples were prepared by re-suspending the pellet with appropriate amount of 1× LDS

buffer containing 2.5% 2-mercaptoethanol.

In vitro binding assay

Co-In vitro translated (co-IVT) proteins were generated with pCS2-N-terminal 5×MYC vectors and pCS2-N-terminal 3×HA vectors described above using TnT® Coupled Reticulocyte Lysate System under the SP6 promoter (L4600, Promega) and by following manufacturer's recommendations with few modifications. Briefly, instead of in vitro translating 1μg of plasmid for each reaction, 0.5μg of HA-tagged protein along with 0.5μg of corresponding MYC-tagged protein was co-translated. Note that we only observed the interaction between CEP89 and NCS1 when the two proteins were co-translated. The interaction between all the other proteins were identical between original protocol and co-IVT. For each pull-down reaction, 50 μl of co-IVT protein was added along with 5 μL (bed volume) of washed HA-beads (11815016001, Roche) in 300 μL binding buffer (25 mM HEPES-NaOH [pH 7.5], 500 mM NaCl, 1 mM CaCl2, and 0.1% Triton X-100) and mixed for 2 hours at 4°C. The beads were washed five times with the same buffer and eluted with 1×LDS buffer containing 2.5% 2-mercaptoethanol. The eluates were then resolved by SDS-PAGE and analyzed by immunoblotting with anti-HA (901501, BioLegend) and anti-MYC (ab9106, Abcam) antibodies.

Transmission electron microscopy

Either control (sgGFP) or NCS1 knockout RPE cells were grown to confluent on 12 mm round coverslips (12-545-81, Fisher Scientific), followed by serum starvation for 3 hr. Cells were then fixed with 4% paraformaldehyde (PFA) (433689M, Alfa Aesar) and 2% glutaraldehyde (G7526, SIGMA) in sodium cacodylate buffer (100 mM sodium cacodylate and 2 mM $CaCl_2$, pH 7.4) for 1 hr at room temperature, followed by two washes with sodium cacodylate buffer. Cells were then post fixed in cold/aqueous 1% osmium tetroxide (19100, Electron Microscopy Sciences) in

Milli-Q water for 1 hour at 4°C, allowed to warm to room temperature (RT) for 2 hours rotating

in a hood, and washed three times with Milli-Q water. The samples were then stained with 1%

uranyl acetate in Milli-Q water at room temperature overnight. Next, the samples were

dehydrated in graded ethanol (50%, 70%, 95%, and 100%), followed by infiltration in EMbed

812. Ultrathin serial sections (80 nm) were created using an UC7 (Leica, Wetzlar, Germany), and

were picked up on formvar/Carbon coated 100 mesh Cu grids, stained for 40 seconds in 3.5%

Uranyl Acetate in 50% Acetone followed by staining in Sato's Lead Citrate for 2 minutes.

Electron micrographs were taken on JEOL JEM1400 (120kV) equipped with an Orius 832

digital camera with 9 μm pixel (Gatan). To test the percentage of the ciliary vesicle positive

centriole, multiple serial sections (typically 3-4) were analyzed per each mother centriole, as

ciliary vesicles are often not attached to all nine blades of the distal appendage (i.e., ciliary

vesicles are often not found in all the sections of the same mother centriole).

Immunofluorescence

For wide-field microscopy, cells were grown on acid-washed 12 mm #1.5 round coverslips

(72230-10, Electron Microscopy Sciences) and fixed either in 4% paraformaldehyde (433689M,

Alfa Aesar) in phosphate buffered saline (PBS) for 15 min at room temperature or in 100%

methanol (A412-4, Fisher Scientific) for 5 min at -20°C. The primary antibodies used for

immunofluorescence are listed in the "Source Data 4-List of the antiboidies_CEP89-NCS1". All

staining condition such as fixation condition and dilution of the antibodies can be found in the

source data of each figure. After blocking with 5% normal serum that are matched with the

species used to raise secondary antibodies (005-000-121 or 017-000-121, Jackson

ImmunoResearch) in immunofluorescence (IF) buffer (3% bovine serum albumin (BP9703100,

Fisher Scientific), 0.02% sodium azide (BDH7465-2, VWR International), and 0.1% NP-40 in

PBS) for 30 min at room temperature, cells were incubated with primary antibody in IF buffer

for at least 3 hr at room temperature, followed by rinsing with IF buffer five times. The samples

were then incubated with fluorescent-labeled secondary antibody (listed below) in IF buffer for 1

hr at room temperature, followed by rinsing with IF buffer five times. After nuclear staining with

4',6-diamidino-2-phenylindole (DAPI) (40043, Biotium) in IF buffer at a final concentration of

0.5 μg/ml, coverslips were mounted with Fluoromount-G (0100-01, SouthernBiotech) onto glass

slides (3050002, Epredia). Images were acquired on an Everest deconvolution workstation

(Intelligent Imaging Innovations) equipped with a Zeiss Axio Imager Z1 microscope and a

CoolSnap HQ cooled CCD camera (Roper Scientific). A 40x NA1.3 Plan-Apochromat objective

lens (420762-9800, Zeiss) was used for ciliation assays, and a 63x NA1.4 Plan-Apochromat

objective lens (420780-9900, Zeiss) was used for other analyses.

For ciliation assays, cells were plated into a 6-well plate at a density of 2 x 10^5 cells/well and

grown for 66 hr. Cells were serum starved for 24 hr unless otherwise indicated and fixed in 4%

PFA. In the experiments presented in Figure 3A, the cells were incubated in serum free media for

12, 24, 48, 72, or 96 hours before fixation. After the blocking step, cells were stained with anti-

ARL13B (17711-1-AP, Proteintech), anti-CEP170 (41-3200, Invitrogen), and anti-acetylated

tubulin (Ac-Tub) antibodies (T7451, SIGMA), washed, then stained with anti-rabbit Alexa Fluor

488 (711-545-152, Jackson ImmunoResearch), goat anti-mouse IgG1-Alexa Fluor 568 (A-

21124, Invitrogen), and goat anti-mouse IgG2b Alexa Fluor 647 (A-21242, Invitrogen). All the

images were captured by focusing CEP170 without looking at a channel of the ciliary proteins to

avoid selecting specific area based on the percentage of ciliated cells. The structures extending

from the centrosome and positive for ARL13B with the length of more than 1 μm was counted as

primary cilia. At least 6 images from different fields per sample were captured for typical

analysis. Typically, at least 200 cells were analyzed per experiment. Exact number of cells that

we analyzed in each sample can be found in the Source Data of corresponding figures. The

percentage of ciliated cells were manually counted using the SlideBook software (Intelligent

Imaging Innovations).

For ciliary vesicle recruitment assays, cells were plated into a 6-well plate at a density of 2×10^5

cells/well, grown for 66 hr (without serum starvation), and fixed in 4% PFA. After the blocking

step, cells were stained with anti-RAB34 (27435-1-AP, Proteintech), anti-Myosin Va (sc-

365986, Santa Cruz), and anti-CEP170 (to mark centriole) antibodies (41-3200, Invitrogen),

washed, and then stained with goat anti-mouse IgG2a Alexa Fluor 488 (A-21131, Proteintech),

goat anti-rabbit Alexa Fluor 568 (A10042, Invitrogen), and goat anti-mouse IgG1 Alexa Fluor

647 (A-21240, Invitrogen). All the images were captured by focusing CEP170 without looking at

a channel of the ciliary vesicle markers to avoid selecting specific area based on the percentage

of ciliary vesicle positive centrioles. At least eight images from different fields per sample were

captured for typical analysis. Typically, at least 50 cells were analyzed per experiment. Exact

number of cells that we analyzed in each sample can be found in the Source Data of

corresponding figures.

For CP110 removal assays, cells were plated into a 6-well plate at a density of 2×10^5 cells/well

and grown for 66 hr. Cells were serum starved for 24 hr in 100% methanol. After the blocking

step, cells were stained with anti-CP110 (12780-1-AP, Proteintech), anti-FOP (H00011116-M01,

Abnova) (to mark both mother and daughter centrioles), and anti-CEP164 (sc-515403, Santa

Cruz) (to mark the mother centriole) antibodies, washed, then stained with anti-rabbit Alexa

Fluor 488 (711-545-152, Jackson ImmunoResearch), goat anti-mouse IgG2a-Alexa Fluor 568

(A-21134, Invitrogen), and goat anti-mouse IgG2b Alexa Fluor 647 (A-21242, Invitrogen). All

the images were captured by focusing FOP without looking at a channel of the other centriolar

proteins to avoid selecting specific area based on the percentage of CP110 positive centrioles.

CP110 localizing to both mother and daughter centrioles (as judged by colocalization with FOP)

were counted as two dots, and CP110 localizing only to daughter centriole (as judged by no

colocalization with CEP164) was counted as a one dot. Exact number of cells that we analyzed

in each sample can be found in the Source Data of corresponding figures.

For structured illumination microscopy, cells were grown on 18 mm square coverslips with the

thickness of 0.17 mm (474030-9000-000, Zeiss), fixed, and stained as described above. DAPI

staining was not included for the structured illumination samples. Coverslips were mounted with

SlowFade Gold Antifade Reagent (S36936, Life Technologies). Images were acquired on a

DeltaVision OMX V4 system equipped with a 100×/1.40 NA UPLANSAPO100XO objective

lens (Olympus), and 488 nm (100 mW), 561 nm (100 mW), and 642 nm (300 mW) Coherent

Sapphire solid state lasers and Evolve 512 EMCCD cameras (Photometrics). Image stacks of 2

μm z-steps were taken in 0.125 μm increments to ensure Nyquist sampling. Images were then

computationally reconstructed and subjected to image registration by using SoftWoRx 6.5.1

software.

Secondary antibodies used for immunofluorescence were donkey anti-rabbit Alexa Fluor 488

(711-545-152, Jackson ImmunoResearch), donkey anti-Chicken IgY Alexa Fluor 488 (703-545-

155, Jackson ImmunoResearch), donkey anti-mouse IgG DyLight 488 (715-485-150, Jackson

ImmunoResearch), goat anti-mouse IgG2a Alexa Fluor 488 (A-21131, Thermo Fisher

Scientific), goat anti-mouse IgG$_1$ Alexa Fluor 488 (A-21121, Thermo Fisher Scientific), donkey

anti-rabbit IgG Alexa Fluor 568 (A10042, Thermo Fisher Scientific), goat anti-mouse IgG2a-

Alexa Fluor 568 (A-21134, Thermo Fisher Scientific), goat anti-mouse IgG1-Alexa568 (A-

21124, Thermo Fisher Scientific), goat anti-mouse IgG2b Alexa Fluor 647 (A-21242, Thermo

Fisher Scientific), goat anti-mouse IgG1 Alexa Fluor 647 (A-21240, Thermo Fisher Scientific),

donkey anti-rabbit IgG Alexa Fluor 647 (711-605-152, Jackson ImmunoResearch).

Mice

Ncs1$^{-/-}$ mice in a C57BL/6J background were originally generated by the lab of Olaf Pongs

(Hermainski, 2012) and the strategy for the gene targeting was previously described (Ng et al.,

2016). Briefly, the 129 strain derived R1 embryonic stem cells carrying the targeting cassette

was injected into C57BL/6J blastocysts. The resulting *Ncs1$^{-/-}$* mice, which lack exon 4-7 of *Ncs1*,

were backcrossed to C57BL/6J over 10 generations. The backcrossed mice were re-derived and

maintained at the Toronto Centre for Phenogenomics until they were transferred to Stanford

University.

All mice were maintained under specific pathogen-free conditions at the Stanford animal care

facility. All experiments were approved by Administrative Panel on Laboratory Animal Care at

Stanford University (Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee protocol number: 28556).

The primers used for genotyping PCR are mNCS1_genotyping-F: 5ʹ-

GTCCACCCATACCAATCACT -3ʹ, mNCS1_genotyping_WT-R: 5ʹ-

ACAGAGAATCCAAAGCCAGC-3ʹ, mNCS1_genotyping_KO-R: 5ʹ-

TTGTGCTGGAGAAGGGAGAG-3ʹ. The bands observed by PCR amplifications are 398 bp

and 514 bp for wild-type and knockout mice respectively.

The term "littermate controls" used in this paper means that the mice were born from the same

mother on the same day and were housed in the same cage as the test animals throughout the life.

<u>Assessment of viability of $Ncs1^{-/-}$ mice</u>

To test viability of $Ncs1^{-/-}$ mice, $Ncs1^{+/-}$ female and male mice were mated, and genotype of the

offspring was examined by genomic PCR using the genotyping PCR primers described above at

P21.

1001

1002   <u>Body weight measurement</u>

1003   The body weight of male or female $Ncs1^{-/-}$ mice and their littermate controls were measured

1004   weekly between 9 am-12 pm. The statistics was obtained through 2-way ANOVA with Tukey's

1005   multiple comparisons test. All the raw data can be available in Figure 8B-Source Data.

1006

1007   <u>Measurement of fat weight</u>

1008   20 week old $Ncs1^{-/-}$ and their litter mate $Ncs1^{+/-}$ mice were anesthetized with isoflurane and

1009   euthanized by cervical dissociation. Inguinal or epididymal fat was then dissected out from the

1010   mice and were measured on a scale.

1011

<u>Preparation, staining, and imaging of the tissue samples.</u>

6- to 8-week-old $Ncs1^{-/-}$ or their litter mate control animals were first anesthetized with 3%

isoflurane (Fluriso, Bet-one) at a delivery rate of 1L/min. Complete anesthesia was confirmed by

checking toe pinch reflex, and the animal was kept anesthetized throughout the procedure using a

face mask that is connected to the anesthesia machine (VetEquip). Following exposure of the

heart, an incision was made in the right atrium. Next, 27G½ gage needle (305109, BD)

connected to a 20 ml syringe (302830, BD) was inserted into the left ventricle to transcardially

perfuse the animal with 20 ml of PBS followed by 1.5 ml/g (-35 ml) of 4% (v/v)

paraformaldehyde (PFA) (15710, Electron Microscopy Sciences). Note that the transcardial

perfusion of 4% PFA is critical to preserve the sample to visualize primary cilia in tissues. The

fixed tissues were dissected out and post-fixed in 20 ml of 100% methanol at -20°C for 20 hours.

We found that the post fixation in methanol is critical for Ncs1 visualization in tissues likely

through washing out the PFA from the tissue, since over-fixation of the samples in PFA greatly

diminished the centrosomal signal of Ncs1 in monolayer cultured cells (data not shown). The

post-fixed tissues were then submerged in graded concentration (10-20-30% (w/v)) of sucrose

(S9378, SIGMA Aldrich) in PBS at 4°C until the tissue sunk in each solution to cryoprotect the

samples. The tissues were then embedded into OCT compound (4583, Tissue-Tek). Cryosections

(typically 7-10 μm thickness) were created on a Cryostat (3050S, Leica) and the sliced tissues

were collected on adhesive microscope slides (16005-110, VWR). Samples were immunostained

using the same procedure as the one used for wide-field microscopy experiments. The stained

samples were imaged on the Marianas SDC spinning disk microscope (Intelligent Imaging

Innovations) equipped with Cascade 1K camera (photometrics) and CSU22 confocal scanner

unit (Yokogawa). A 63x NA1.4 Plan-Apochromat objective lens (420781-9910-000, Zeiss) was

used to acquire images. Typically, image stacks of 10 -20 μm z-steps were taken in 0.5 μm

increments.

1037

HE stains

20, 30, or 50 weeks old *Ncs1*^{-/-} mice and their littermate controls were first fixed by transcardial

perfusion of 4% PFA as described above and post-fixed in 4% PFA at 4°C for 72 hours. Tissues

were then processed, embedded in paraffin blocks, sectioned on a microtome, and stained with

Hematoxylin and eosin by standard techniques. Optimal number of tile pictures were obtained

and stitched together via Keyence BZ-X710 fluorescent microscope.

1044

<u>Isolation of hippocampal neurons</u>

Hippocampus was dissected out from E18.5 mice, which were developed from *Ncs1*^{+/-} female

mouse crossed with *Ncs1*^{+/-} male mice. The dissected hippocampus was dissociated by incubating

the tissue in calcium magnesium free (CMF)-HBSS media (14175095, Gibco) supplemented

with 10 mM HEPES (15630080, Gibco) containing 0.05% trypsin (15400-054, Gibco) at 37°C

for 20 minutes. After washing the trypsinized tissue three times with 500 μl of CMF-HBSS

containing 10 mM HEPES, the tissue was triturated with a fire polished Pasteur pipette. The

dissociated cells were then plated on a 12 mm round coverslip (12-545-81, Fisher Scientific)

coated with poly-D-lysine at a density of 60,000 cells per 24-well plate (930186, Thermo

Scientific). The cells were grown in 500 μl of the Neurobasal Medium (21103049, Gibco)

supplemented with 1×B27 (17504044, Gibco), 1×GlutaMax, 100 U/mL Penicillin-Streptomycin,

and 10% horse serum (16050130, Gibco). 24 hours after plating, the media were replaced with

the Neurobasal Medium media supplemented with 1×B27, 1×GlutaMax, and 100 U/mL

Penicillin-Streptomycin. The genotype of the neurons was confirmed by genotyping PCR using

the genotyping PCR primers described above.

1060

<u>Preparation of Mouse Embryonic Fibroblast</u>

Mouse embryonic fibroblasts (MEFs) were prepared from E13.5 mice embryos, which were

developed from $Ncs1^{+/-}$ female mice crossed with $Ncs1^{+/-}$ male mice. After removing innards

from the embryo, the remaining was minced with a razor blade (55411-050, VWR). The minced

tissues were dissociated using 2 ml 0.05% trypsin/EDTA (25300-054, Gibco) for 20 minutes at

37°C, followed by neutralization of trypsin by adding 4 ml of MEF media (DMEM high glucose

(11995073, Gibco), 10% FBS (100-106, Gemini), 1×GlutaMax (35050-079, Thermo Fisher

Scientific), and 100 U/mL Penicillin-Streptomycin (15140163, Thermo Fisher Scientific))

containing 100 μg DNase I (LS002006, Worthington). Cells were then pelleted down, re-

suspended in 15 ml of MEF media and plated into a T75 flask. The genotype of the MEFs were

confirmed by genotyping PCR using the genotyping PCR primers described above. All

experiments were performed with the cells that were passaged no more than three times.

1073

<u>Immunoblotting of the tissue lysate</u>

A 7-week-old $Ncs1^{-/-}$ and a 6-week-old $Ncs1^{+/+}$ mouse (not a littermate control) were anesthetized

with isoflurane and euthanized by cervical dissociation. Tissues were quickly dissected out and

minced with a razor blade (55411-050, VWR). The minced tissue is lysed in tissue lysis buffer

(50 mM Tris-HCl [pH7.5], 150 mM NaCl, and 1% NP-40 (11332473001, Roche Applied

Science)) for 15 minutes. Following clarification of the lysate at centrifugation at 15,000 rpm

(21,000 g) for 15 minutes at 4°C, the concentration of the supernatant was measured by Bradford

assay as previously described (see Procedure B step 8 in (Kanie & Jackson, 2018)). The lysate

was mixed to prepare a sample containing 4 mg/ml lysate, 1×LDS buffer, and 2.5% 2-

mercaptoethanol. 50 μg (for NCS1 blot) or 12 μg (for other proteins) were loaded onto

NuPAGE™ Novex™ 4-12% Bis-Tris protein gels. Western blot was performed as described

above and the fluorescent signal was detected on an Odyssey CLx Imaging System (LI-COR).

1086

1087 **Experimental replicates**

1088 The term "replicates" used in this paper indicate that the same cell lines were plated at different

1089 dates for each experiment. In most cases, cell lines were thawed from liquid nitrogen at different

1090 dates and immunostaining was performed at different dates among the replicates.

1091

Quantification of fluorescent intensity and statistical analysis

Fluorescent intensity measurement

The fluorescent intensity was measured with 16-bit TIFF muti-color stack images acquired at

63x magnification (NA1.4) by using Image J software. To measure the fluorescent intensity of

centrosomal proteins, channels containing CEP170 and the protein of interest (POI) were

individually extracted into separate images. A rolling ball background subtraction with a rolling

ball radius of 5 pixels was implemented for both CEP170 and the POI to perform local

background subtraction. The mask for both CEP170 and the POI was created by setting the lower

threshold to the minimum level that covers only centrosome. Each mask was then combined by

converting the two masks to a stack followed by z projection and then dilating the mask until the

two masks are merged. After eroding the dilated masks several times, the fluorescent intensity of

the POI was measured via "analyze particles" command with optimal size and circularity. The

size and circularity are optimized for individual POI to detect most of the centrosome in the

image without capturing non-centrosomal structure. Outliers (likely non-centrosomal structure)

were then excluded from the data using the ROUT method with a false discovery rate of 1%

using GraphPad Prism 9 software. Fluorescent intensity of ciliary proteins was measured

similarly to centrosomal proteins but with several modifications. Mask was created for ciliary

proteins by setting the lower threshold to the minimum level that covers only cilia. The size and

circularity are optimized for individual POI to detect only cilia without capturing non-ciliary

structure. Macros used for the intensity measurement are available from "Source Data- Macro for

measuring fluorescent intensity of centrosomal proteins" and "Source Data-Macro for measuring

fluorescent intensity of ciliary proteins" in an accompanying paper.

To test whether the difference in the signal intensity is statistically different between control and

test samples, the intensity measured through the described method was compared between

control and test samples using nested one-way ANOVA with Dunnett's multiple comparisons

test or nested t-test if there are more than two replicates. In case there are less than three

replicates, the statistical test was not performed in a single experiment, as the signal intensity is

affected slightly by staining procedure and statistical significance is affected largely by the

number of cells examined. For example, we saw statistical significance in the signal intensity

with the same samples that are stained independently if we analyze large number of the cells

(more than 100 cells). Instead, we confirmed the same tendency in the change of fluorescent

intensity in the test samples across two replicates.

1124

1125   _Statistical analysis for ciliation, ciliary vesicle recruitment, and CP110 removal assay_

1126   For ciliation, ciliary vesicle recruitment, and CP110 removal assay, the number of ciliated cells

1127   from the indicated number of replicates were compared between control (sgGFP or sgSafe) and

1128   the test samples using Welch's t test. The exact number of samples and replicated are indicated

1129   in the Source Data of the corresponding figures.

1130

1131   For all the statistics used in this paper, asterisks denote *: $0.01 \le p < 0.05$, **: $p < 0.01$, ***: $p <$

1132 0.001, n.s.: not significant. All the statical significance was calculated by using GraphPad Prism

1133   9 software.

1134

1135   **Materials Availability Statement**

1136   All the newly created materials used in this paper including plasmids and stable cell lines are

1137   readily available from the corresponding authors (Tomoharu-Kanie@ouhsc.edu or

1138   pjackson@stanford.edu) upon request.

1139

Figure supplements

Figure 1-figure supplement 1. *Co-immunoprecipitation of endogenous NCS1 and the localization*

of CEP89 mutants shown in Figure 1C.

Figure 1-figure supplement 2. *A negative control for the experiment shown in Figure 1E and F.*

Figure 2-figure supplement 1. *Localization of GFP tagged NCS1.*

Figure 2-figure supplement 2. *Quantification data and immunoblot related to Figure 2.*

Figure 2-figure supplement 3. *Localization of other distal appendage proteins in NCS1*

knockouts.

Figure 3-figure supplement 1. *Quantification of ciliary signal intensity of ARL13B in CEP89 and*

NCS1 knockouts.

Figure 5-figure supplement 1. *Calcium is required mainly for the stability of NCS1.*

Figure 7-figure supplement 1. *The expression of NCS1 in various tissues.*

Figure 7-figure supplement 2. *NCS1 localizes to the ciliary base in most ciliated tissues but not*

in photoreceptor cells.

Figure 7-figure supplement 3. *Localization of ciliary GPCRs is mildly decreased in hippocampal*

neurons prepared from Ncs1$^{-/-}$ mice.

1156

Source Data

Figure 1A- Source Data. Uncropped image of silver staining of the tandem affinity purification

analysis of CEP89.

Figure 1B-Source Data. Mass spectrometry analysis of tandem affinity purification of CEP89.

Figure 2A-Source Data. Immunofluorescence conditions in the experiment shown in Figure 2A.

Figure 2B-Source Data. Immunofluorescence conditions in the experiment shown in Figure 2B.

Figure 2C-Source Data. Immunofluorescence conditions, raw image quantification data, and

detailed statistics of the experiment shown in Figure 2C.

Figure 2D-I-Source Data. Immunofluorescence conditions in the experiment shown in Figure

2D-I.

Figure 2K-Source Data. Immunofluorescence conditions in the experiment shown in Figure 2K.

Figure 2L-Source Data. Immunofluorescence conditions in the experiment shown in Figure 2L.

Figure 2M-Source Data. Immunofluorescence conditions in the experiment shown in Figure 2M.

Figure 3A-Source Data. Raw quantification data, immunofluorescence conditions and detailed

statistics of the experiment shown in Figure 3A.

Figure 3B-Source Data. Raw quantification data, immunofluorescence conditions and detailed

statistics of the experiment shown in Figure 3B.

Figure 3C-Source Data. Raw quantification data, immunofluorescence conditions and detailed

statistics of the experiment shown in Figure 3C.

Figure 3E-Source Data. Raw quantification data and detailed statistics of the experiment shown

in Figure 3E.

Figure 3F-Source Data. Raw quantification data, immunofluorescence conditions and detailed

statistics of the experiment shown in Figure 3F.

Figure 3F-Source Data. Raw quantification data, immunofluorescence conditions and detailed

statistics of the experiment shown in Figure 3F.

Figure 3G-Source Data. Raw quantification data, immunofluorescence conditions and detailed

statistics of the experiment shown in Figure 3G.

Figure 3H-Source Data. Raw quantification data, immunofluorescence conditions and detailed

statistics of the experiment shown in Figure 3H.

Figure 4B-Source Data. Raw quantification data, immunofluorescence conditions and detailed

statistics of the experiment shown in Figure 4B.

Figure 4C-Source Data. Raw quantification data, immunofluorescence conditions and detailed

statistics of the experiment shown in Figure 4C.

Figure 4D-Source Data. Raw quantification data, immunofluorescence conditions and detailed

statistics of the experiment shown in Figure 4D.

Figure 5C-Source Data. Immunofluorescence conditions in the experiment shown in Figure 5C.

Figure 5D-Source Data. Raw quantification data and immunofluorescence conditions of the

experiment shown in Figure 5D.

Figure 5E-Source Data. Raw quantification data, immunofluorescence conditions and detailed

statistics of the experiment shown in Figure 5E.

Figure 5F-Source Data. Raw quantification data, immunofluorescence conditions and detailed

statistics of the experiment shown in Figure 5F.

Figure 6B-Source Data. Immunofluorescence conditions in the experiment shown in Figure 6B.

Figure 6C-Source Data. Raw quantification data, immunofluorescence conditions and detailed

statistics of the experiment shown in Figure 6C.

Figure 6D-Source Data. Raw quantification data, immunofluorescence conditions and detailed

statistics of the experiment shown in Figure 6D.

Figure 6E-Source Data. Raw quantification data and immunofluorescence conditions of the

experiment shown in Figure 6E.

Figure 6F-Source Data. Raw quantification data and immunofluorescence conditions of the

experiment shown in Figure 6F.

Figure 7A-Source Data. Immunofluorescence conditions in the experiment shown in Figure 7A.

Figure 7B-Source Data. Immunofluorescence conditions in the experiment shown in Figure 7B.

Figure 7C-Source Data. Immunofluorescence conditions in the experiment shown in Figure 7C.

Figure 7D-Source Data. Immunofluorescence conditions in the experiment shown in Figure 7D.

Figure 7E-Source Data. Raw quantification data, immunofluorescence conditions and detailed

statistics of the experiment shown in Figure 7E.

Figure 7F-Source Data. Raw quantification data, immunofluorescence conditions and detailed

statistics of the experiment shown in Figure 7F.

Figure 7G-Source Data. Raw quantification data, immunofluorescence conditions and detailed

statistics of the experiment shown in Figure 7G.

Figure 7H-Source Data. Raw quantification data, immunofluorescence conditions and detailed

statistics of the experiment shown in Figure 7H.

Figure 8A-Source Data. Detailed information of the mice and detailed statistics of the

experiment shown in Figure 8A.

Figure 8B-C-Source Data. Raw data and detailed statistics of the experiment shown in Figure

8B-C.

Figure 8D-Source Data. Raw data and detailed statistics of the experiment shown in Figure 8D.

Figure 8E-G-H-Source Data. Information of the mice used in the experiments shown in Figure

8E, G and H.

Figure 8F-Source Data. Raw data and detailed statistics of the experiment shown in Figure 8F.

1228

Figure 1-Figure Supplement 1B-Source Data. Immunofluorescence conditions in the experiment

shown in Figure 1-Figure supplement 1B.

Figure 2-Figure Supplement 1-Source Data. Immunofluorescence conditions in the experiment

shown in Figure 2-Figure supplement 1.

Figure 2-Figure Supplement 2A-Source Data. Immunofluorescence conditions and raw

quantification data of the experiment shown in Figure 2-Figure supplement 2A.

Figure 2-Figure Supplement 2B-Source Data. Immunofluorescence conditions and raw

quantification data of the experiment shown in Figure 2-Figure supplement 2B.

Figure 2-Figure Supplement 2C-Source Data. Immunofluorescence conditions and raw

quantification data of the experiment shown in Figure 2-Figure supplement 2C.

Figure 2-Figure Supplement 3A-Source Data. Immunofluorescence conditions, raw

quantification data and detailed statistics of the experiment shown in Figure 2-Figure supplement

3A.

Figure 2-Figure Supplement 3B-Source Data. Immunofluorescence conditions, raw

quantification data and detailed statistics of the experiment shown in Figure 2-Figure supplement

3B.

Figure 2-Figure Supplement 3C-Source Data. Immunofluorescence conditions and raw

quantification data of the experiment shown in Figure 2-Figure supplement 3C.

Figure 2-Figure Supplement 3D-Source Data. Immunofluorescence conditions and raw

quantification data of the experiment shown in Figure 2-Figure supplement 3D.

Figure 3-Figure Supplement 1-Source Data. Immunofluorescence conditions, raw quantification

data and detailed statistics of the experiment shown in Figure 3-Figure supplement 1A-C.

Figure 5-Figure Supplement 1B-Source Data. Immunofluorescence conditions and raw

quantification data of the experiment shown in Figure 5-Figure supplement 1B.

Figure 5-Figure Supplement 1C-Source Data. Immunofluorescence conditions, raw

quantification data and detailed statistics of the experiment shown in Figure 5-Figure supplement

1C.

Figure 7-Figure Supplement 2-Source Data. Immunofluorescence conditions in the experiment

shown in Figure 7-Figure supplement 2A-E.

Figure 7-Figure Supplement 3A-Source Data. Immunofluorescence conditions, raw

quantification data and detailed statistics of the experiment shown in Figure 7-Figure supplement

3A.

Figure 7-Figure Supplement 3B-Source Data. Immunofluorescence conditions, raw

quantification data and detailed statistics of the experiment shown in Figure 7-Figure supplement

3B.

Source Data 1-Primers used for genomic PCR and for generating sgRNA vectors.

Source Data 2- The list of mouse embryonic fibroblasts used in this paper.

Source Data 3- The list of Hippocampal Neurons used in this paper.

Source Data 4- The list of antibodies used in this paper.

Source Data 5- The list of cell lines used in this paper.

Source Data 6- uncropped images of the Immunoblot.

Source Data 7-summary of CRISPR knockout cells.

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Main Figures

Kanie et al., Figure 1

Figure 1 *Identification of Neuronal Calcium Sensor-1 as a stoichiometric interactor of CEP89.*

A. Silver staining of the eluate following tandem affinity purification of N-terminally LAP (EGFP-TEV cleavage site-S tag-PreScission cleavage site)-tagged CEP89 expressed in confluent RPE cells. The cell lysates were purified with GFP antibodies and S-protein beads, resolved by Sodium Dodecyl Sulfate–Polyacrylamide Gel Electrophoresis (SDS-PAGE) and visualized by silver staining. The bands corresponding to S tagged CEP89 (S-CEP89), NCS1, and C3ORF14 are indicated. Molecular weights (kDa) estimated from a protein marker are indicated. Asterisk denotes a band corresponding to TEV protease used for tandem affinity purification.

B. Tabulation of peptide-spectrum matches (PSMs), unique peptide counts, coverage, and the length of the amino acids from the mass spectrometry analysis of the eluate shown in (A).

C. A cartoon depicting the region of CEP89 important for centrosomal localization or binding to NCS1. Localization data can be found in Figure 1-figure supplement 1A.

D. Immunoblot (IB) analysis of the eluates from a co-immunoprecipitation assay of the full length or the indicated fragments of N-terminally LAP-tagged CEP89 expressed in confluent RPE cells. The cell lysates were purified with GFP antibodies, resolved by SDS-PAGE and immunoblotted with the indicated antibodies. Molecular weights (kDa) estimated from a protein marker are indicated.

E-F. Immunoblot (IB) analysis of the eluates from *in vitro* binding assay of the *in vitro* translated (IVT) N-terminally HA-tagged CEP89 (E) or C3ORF14 (F) and the indicated N-terminally MYC tagged proteins. The *in vitro* translated proteins were mixed and captured by HA-agarose beads, resolved by SDS-PAGE and immunoblotted with the indicated antibodies. The CEP350 fragment (2470-2836 a.a.), which binds to FOP efficiently (Figure 1-figure supplement 2A)(Kanie et al. 2017) serves as a negative control. Red asterisks indicate non-specific bands, which overlap with the MYC-tagged C3ORF14. Molecular weights (kDa) estimated from a protein marker are indicated.

G. The order of binding for CEP89-NCS1-C3ORF14 interaction.

Kanie et al., Figure 2

Figure 2 *NCS1 is recruited to the distal appendage by CEP89.*

A. Immunofluorescence images taken via wide-field microscopy. Control (sgGFP) or NCS1 knockout RPE cells were serum starved for 24 hours, fixed, and stained with indicated antibodies. Insets at the right panels are the enlarged images of the mother centriole. Ac-Tub indicates acetylated α-tubulin. Scale bar: 10 μm.

B. Immunofluorescence images taken via wide-field microscopy. RPE cells expressing C-terminally LAP (LAPC) tagged C3ORF14 were serum starved for 24 hours, fixed, and stained with indicated antibodies. Scale bar: 10 μm.

C. Box plots showing centrosomal signal intensity of NCS1. RPE cells were grown in fetal bovine serum (FBS)-containing media for 24 hours, and then grown in either fetal bovine serum (FBS)-containing media (+ FBS) or serum free media (-FBS) for an additional 24 hours. Cells were fixed and stained with NCS1 antibody. Centrosomal signal intensity of NCS1 was measured from fluorescence images using the method described in Materials and Methods. A.U., arbitrary units. Data are combined from three replicates. Statistical significance was calculated from a nested T-test. The raw data, experimental conditions, and detailed statistics are available in Figure 2C-Source data

D-I. Immunofluorescence images taken via 3D-structured illumination microscopy. Side view (D, F, G, and H) or Top view (E and I) is shown. RPE cells were either grown to confluent (H) or serum starved for 24 hours (D-G and I), fixed and stained with indicated antibodies. Each individual image is from a representative z-slice. Scale bar: 1 μm. CEP170: a marker of subdistal appendage and proximal end of the mother centriole. A cartoon at the right of each figure shows estimated positions of each protein at the mother centriole.

J. A cartoon depicting the localization of NCS1 relative to RAB34 and CEP89. NCS1 is sandwiched between RAB34 and CEP89.

K-M. Immunofluorescence images taken via wide-filed microscopy. Control (sgGFP) or indicated knockout RPE cells were serum starved for 24 hours, fixed, and stained with indicated antibodies. Scale bar: 10 μm. Insets at the right panels are the enlarged images of the mother centriole. Quantification data are available in Figure 2-figure supplement 2A-C.

N. A cartoon depicting the order of recruitment of the CEP89-NCS1-C3ORF14 complex.

Kanie et al., Figure 3

Figure 3 *NCS1 is important for ciliary vesicle recruitment, but not for IFT88/CEP19 recruitment.*

A. Time course of cilium formation assay in control (sgGFP) and indicated knockout RPE cells. The indicated cells were serum starved for 12, 24,48,72,96 hours, fixed, stained with α-ARL13B (to mark cilium) and α-CEP170 (to mark centriole), and imaged via wide-field microscopy. Data averaged from four independent experiments. Error bars represent ± SEM. Statistics obtained through comparing between each knockout and control by Welch's t-test. The raw data, experimental conditions, detailed statistics are available in Figure 3A-Source data.

B. Cilium formation assay in control (sgGFP) and indicated knockout RPE cells serum starved for 24 hours. Data averaged from three independent experiments, and each black dot indicates the value from the individual experiment. Error bars represent ± SEM. Statistics obtained by Welch's t-test. The raw data, experimental conditions, and detailed statistics are available in Figure 3B-Source data.

C. Ciliary vesicle recruitment assay in control (sgGFP) or indicated knockout RPE cells grown to confluence (without serum starvation). The data are averaged from 4 independent experiments, and each black dot indicates the value from each individual experiment. Error bars represent ± SEM. Statistics obtained through comparing between each knockout and control by Welch's t-test. The raw data, experimental conditions, and detailed statistics are available in Figure 3C-Source data.

D. Transmission electron microscopy analysis of the mother centriole in control (sgGFP) or NCS1 knockout RPE cells serum starved for 3 hours. The representative images of the mother centrioles without (left) or with (right) ciliary vesicle at the distal appendage are shown. Scale: 200 nm.

E. Quantification of the data from the experiments shown in Figure 3D. The raw data and detailed statistics are available in Figure 3E-Source data. This experiment was synchronized with the experiment shown in the Figure 4C of an accompanying paper, hence the values for sgGFP are exactly the same as the ones shown in the accompanying paper.

F. CP110 removal assay in control (sgGFP) and indicated knockout RPE cells serum starved for 24 hours. Data are averaged from three independent experiments, and each black dot indicates the value from the individual experiment. Error bars represent ± SEM. Statistics obtained through comparing between each knockout and control by Welch's t-test. The raw data, experimental conditions, and detailed statistics are available in Figure 3F-Source data.

G-H. Quantification of the centrosomal signal intensity of IFT88 (G) or CEP19 (H) in control (sgGFP) and indicated knockout RPE cells serum starved for 24 hours. The data are combined from three independent experiments. Statistical significance was calculated from nested T test. The raw data, experimental conditions, detailed statistics are available in Figure 3G-H-Source Data.

A.U., arbitrary units; n.s., not significant; *p < 0.05, **p < 0.01, ***p < 0.001

Kanie et al., Figure 4

Figure 4 A *ciliary vesicle recruitment defect in NCS1 knockout cells is compensated by yet unknown distal appendage proteins.*

A. Immunoblot (IB) analysis of expression of NCS1 (IB: NCS1) and α-tubulin (IB: Tub) in control (sgGFP) or indicated knockout RPE cells stably expressing either sgSafe (non-targeting) or sgNCS1. The cells were grown to confluence (without serum starvation), lysed and analyzed by immunoblot. Molecular weights (kDa) estimated from a protein marker are indicated.

B-C. Cilium formation assay in control (sgGFP) and indicated knockout RPE cells stably expressing either sgSafe (non-targeting) or sgNCS1. The cells were serum starved for 24 (B) or 48 (C) hours. Data averaged from three independent experiments, and each black dot indicates the value from the individual experiment. Error bars represent ± SEM. Statistics obtained by Welch's t-test. The raw data, experimental conditions, and detailed statistics are available in Figure 4B-C-Source Data.

D. Ciliary vesicle recruitment assay in control (sgGFP) or indicated knockout RPE cells stably expressing either sgSafe (control) or sgNCS1. Cells were grown to confluence (without serum starvation). Data are averaged from three independent experiments. Error bars represent ± SEM. Statistics obtained by Welch's t-test. The raw data, experimental conditions, and detailed statistics are available in Figure 4D-Source data.

n.s., not significant; *p < 0.05, **p < 0.01, ***p < 0.001

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Kanie et al., Figure 5

Figure 5 *NCS1 captures the ciliary vesicle via its myristoylation motif.*

A. Immunoblot (IB) analysis of expression of NCS1, CEP89, EGFR, and RabGDI. The control (sgSafe) and indicated knockout cells were grown to confluence, lysed by nitrogen cavitation, and fractionated by differential centrifugation at 1,000, 15,000, and 100,000 x g. S: supernatant; P: pellet. Molecular weights (kDa) estimated from a protein marker are indicated. EGFR and RabGDI serves as representative markers for plasma membrane or cytoplasmic proteins, respectively.

B. Immunoblot (IB) analysis of expression of NCS1 and α-tubulin in control (sgSafe) or or indicated RPE cells. Molecular weights (kDa) estimated from a protein marker are indicated.

C. Immunofluorescence images taken via wide-filed microscopy in the cells described in (B) serum starved for 24 hours. Insets at the right panels are the enlarged images of the mother centriole. Scale bar: 10 μm.

D. Box plots showing centrosomal signal intensity of NCS1 in cells described in (B) that were serum starved for 24 hours. A.U., arbitrary units. The data from a representative experiment are shown. The raw data and experimental conditions are available in Figure 5D-Source data.

E. Cilium formation assay in the cells described in (B) serum starved for 24 hours. Data averaged from four independent experiments, and each black dot indicates the value from the individual experiment. Error bars represent ± SEM. Statistics obtained by Welch's t-test. The raw data, experimental conditions, and detailed statistics are available in Figure 5E-Source data.

F. Ciliary vesicle recruitment assay in the cells described in (B) grown to confluence (without serum starvation). Data averaged from 5 independent experiments. Error bars represent ± SEM. Statistics obtained through comparing between each knockout and control by Welch's t-test. The raw data, experimental conditions, and detailed statistics are available in Figure 5F-Source data.

G. A cartoon depicting the model generated by our results. NCS1 is recruited to the distal appendage by CEP89 and captures ciliary vesicle via its myristoylation motif.

n.s., not significant; *p < 0.05, **p < 0.01, ***p < 0.001

Kanie et al., Figure 6

Figure 6 *Ciliary vesicle, but not NCS1 and CEP89, is recruited to the centriole via microtubule.*

A. A cartoon showing the method used to test the requirement of microtubules in ciliary vesicle recruitment and NCS1 localization. RPE cells were cultured in media containing 10% FBS for 72 hours, then serum starved (-FBS) for indicated times in the presence of nocodazole or dimethyl sulfoxide (DMSO).

B. Immunofluorescence images taken via wide-filed microscopy. RPE cells were cultured as shown in (A), fixed, and stained with antibodies against α-Tubulin and FGFR1OP (FOP). Scale bar: 10 μm.

C. The time course of cilium formation in cells treated with either DMSO (magenta) or nocodazole (blue). The cells were fixed at indicated time points, stained with α-ARL13B (to mark cilium) and α-CEP170 (to mark centriole), and imaged via wide-field microscopy. Data averaged from three independent experiments. Error bars represent ± SEM. Statistics obtained through comparing between DMSO and nocodazole treated cells at each time point by Welch's t-test. The raw data, experimental conditions, and detailed statistics are available in Figure 6C-Source data.

D. The time course of ciliary vesicle recruitment in cells treated with either DMSO (magenta) or nocodazole (blue). The cells were fixed at indicated time points, stained with α-RAB34 (to mark ciliary vesicle) and α-CEP170 (to mark centriole), and imaged via wide-field microscopy. Data are averaged from three independent experiments. Error bars represent ± SEM. Statistics obtained through comparing between DMSO and nocodazole treated cells at each time point by Welch's t-test. The raw data, experimental conditions, and detailed statistics are available in Figure 6D-Source data.

E. Box plots showing centrosomal signal intensity of NCS1 in RPE cells prepared using the method described in (A). The data from the representative experiment are shown. The raw data and experimental conditions are available in Figure 6E-Source data.

F. Quantification of the centrosomal signal intensity of NCS1 in control or RAB34 knockout RPE cells serum starved for 24 hours. The data from the representative experiment are shown. The raw data and experimental conditions are available in Figure 6F-Source data.

A.U., arbitrary units; n.s., not significant; *p < 0.05, **p < 0.01, ***p < 0.001

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Kanie et al., Figure 7

Figure 7 *NCS1 localizes to the ciliary base in ciliated tissues and gets involved in cilium formation and ciliary membrane protein trafficking.*

A. Immunofluorescence images of cultured hippocampal neurons taken by wide-field microscopy. The isolated hippocampal neurons from E18.5 mice were fixed and stained for the indicated markers. Arrow indicates Ncs1 localization at the ciliary base. The individual image is from a representative z-slice. Scale bar: 10 μm.

B-D. Immunofluorescence images of indicated mouse tissues taken via spinning disk confocal microscopy. Tissue sections prepared from 8 week old *Ncs1+/+* or *Ncs1-/-* mice with the method described in Materials and Methods were stained for indicated markers. The images shown in (D) were created by maximum intensity z-projection. The other images were from representative z-slices. Arrowheads indicate NCS1 localization. Scale bar: 10 μm.

E. Cilium formation assay in *Ncs1+/+* or *Ncs1-/-* mouse embryonic fibroblasts (MEFs) serum starved for indicated time. Data averaged from six different MEFs per genotype. Each black dot indicates the value from the individual experiment. Error bars represent ± SEM. Statistics obtained through comparing between the two genotypes at each time point by Welch's t-test. The raw data, experimental conditions, and detailed statistics are available in Figure 7E-Source data.

F. Box plots showing ciliary signal intensity of ARL13B in *Ncs1+/+* or *Ncs1-/-* MEFs. The cells were serum starved for 24 hours, fixed, stained with α-ARL13B (to mark cilium) and α-CEP170 (to mark centriole), and imaged via wide-field microscopy. Data averaged from six different MEFs per genotype. Statistical significance was calculated from nested T test. The raw data, experimental conditions, and detailed statistics are available in Figure 7F-Source data.

G. Cilium formation assay in isolated hippocampal neurons prepared from *Ncs1+/+* or *Ncs1-/-* E18.5 mouse embryos at 7 days in vitro (DIV). Data are averaged from four different hippocampal neurons per genotype. Each black dot indicates the value from the individual experiment. Error bars represent ± SEM. Statistics obtained through comparing between the two genotypes at each time point by Welch's t-test. The raw data, experimental conditions, detailed statistics are available in Figure 7G-Source data.

H. Box plots showing ciliary signal intensity of ADCY3 in isolated hippocampal neurons prepared from *Ncs1+/+* or *Ncs1-/-* E18.5 mouse embryos at DIV7. The cells were fixed and stained with α-ADCY3 antibody, and imaged via wide-field microscopy. Data are averaged from five different neurons per genotype. Statistical significance was calculated from nested T test. The raw data, experimental conditions, and detailed statistics are available in Figure 7H-Source data.

A.U., arbitrary units; n.s., not significant; *p < 0.05, **p < 0.01, ***p < 0.001

Kanie et al., Figure 8

Figure 8 *Ncs1* knockout mice display obesity but no other ciliopathy-related phenotypes.

A. A table showing viability of *Ncs1+/+*, *Ncs1+/-*, or *Ncs1-/-* mice, generated by crossing *Ncs1+/-* male and female, at P21. Detailed information of the mice and statistics are available in Figure 8A-Source Data.

B-C. Body weight analysis of *Ncs1+/+*, *Ncs1+/-*, or *Ncs1-/-* male (B) and female (C) mice. Raw data and detailed statistics are available from Figure 8B-C-Source Data.

D. Measurements of the weights of inguinal fat (left) or epididymal fat (right) from 20-week-old *Ncs1+/+* or *Ncs1-/-* male mice. Raw data and detailed statistics are available in Figure D-Source Data.

E. Hematoxylin and Eosin (H&E) staining of the retina prepared from 50-week-old *Ncs1+/+* or *Ncs1-/-* female mice. Scale bar: 50 μm. G, ganglion cell layer; IPL, inner plexiform layer; INL, inner nuclear layer; OPL, outer plexiform layer; ONL, outer nuclear layer; P, photoreceptor cell layer. Representative images from five *Ncs1+/+* or *Ncs1-/-* mice are shown. Detailed information of the mice is available in Figure 8E-G-H-Source Data.

F. Quantification of ONL/INL ration of the retina prepared from 50-week-old *Ncs1+/+* or *Ncs1-/-* mice. 8 areas per mouse and 5 mice from each genotype were analyzed. Statistical significance was calculated from nested T test. The raw data, detailed information of the mice, and detailed statistics are available in Figure 8F-Source Data.

G-H. H&E staining of the kidney (G) or Testis (H) prepared from 50-week-old *Ncs1+/+* or *Ncs1-/-* female mice (G) or 20-week-old *Ncs1+/+* or *Ncs1-/-* male mice. Scale bar: 1mm (G) and 100 μm (H). Representative images from five (G) or three (H) *Ncs1+/+* or *Ncs1-/-* mice are shown. Detailed information of the mice is available in Figure 8E-G-H-Source Data.

n.s., not significant; *p < 0.05, **p < 0.01, ***p < 0.001

Figure supplements

Kanie et al., Figure 1-figure supplement 1

Figure 1-figure supplement 1 *Individual channels of the images shown in Figure 1A.*

A. Immunoblot (IB) analysis of the eluates from co-immunoprecipitation assay of endogenous NCS1 in the control (sgSafe) or NCS1 knockout cells. The eluates were immunoblotted with antibodies against NCS1 or CEP89. Molecular weights (kDa) estimated from a protein marker are indicated.
B. Immunofluorescence images taken via wide-field microscopy. RPE cells expressing the indicated N-terminally LAP (EGFP and S) tagged fragments of CEP89 or LAPN (control) were serum starved for 24 hours, fixed, and stained with antibodies against GFP and CEP170. Scale bar: 10 μm.

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A

Kanie et al., Figure 1-figure supplement 2

Figure 1-figure supplement 2 *A negative control for the experiment shown in Figure 1E and F.*

A. Immunoblot (IB) analysis of the eluates from *in vitro* binding assay of the *in vitro* translated N-terminally HA-tagged FGFR1OP and the indicated N-terminally MYC tagged proteins. The *in vitro* translated proteins were mixed and captured by HA-agarose beads, resolved by SDS-PAGE and immunoblotted with the indicated antibodies. The CEP350 fragment (2470-2836 a.a.), which binds to FGFR1OP efficiently (Kanie et al. 2017) serves as a positive control. Blue asterisks indicate non-specific bands, which overlap with the MYC-tagged C3ORF14. Molecular weights (kDa) estimated from a protein marker are indicated.

1570

A RPE-hTERT expressing LAPN-NCS1-WT
NCS1 localizartion: Cytoplasm, Centriole, Nucleus

GFP (NCS1)　　CEP170　　DAPI　GFP (NCS1)　CEP170

B RPE-hTERT expressing LAPN-NCS1-G2A
NCS1 localizartion: Cytoplasm, Centriole, Nucleus

GFP (NCS1)　　CEP170　　DAPI　GFP (NCS1)　CEP170

C RPE-hTERT expressing LAPC-NCS1-WT
NCS1 localizartion: ER, Plasma membrane, Nucleus

GFP (NCS1)　　CEP170　　DAPI　GFP (NCS1)　CEP170

D RPE-hTERT expressing LAPC-NCS1-G2A
NCS1 localizartion: Cytoplasm, Nucleus

GFP (NCS1)　　CEP170　　DAPI　GFP (NCS1)　CEP170

Kanie et al., Figure 2-figure supplement 1

Figure 2-figure supplement 1 *Localization of GFP tagged NCS1.*

A-D. Immunofluorescence images taken via wide-field microscopy. RPE cells expressing N-terminally LAP tagged wilde-type NCS1 (A), N-terminally LAP tagged myristoylation defective mutant (G2A) of NCS1 (B), C-terminally LAP tagged wild-type NCS1 (C), or C-terminally LAP tagged myristoylation defective mutant (G2A) of NCS1 (D) were serum starved for 24 hours, fixed, and stained with indicated antibodies. Scale bar: 10 μm. Insets at the right panels are the enlarged images of the mother centriole. The experimental conditions are available in Figure 2-Figure Supplement 1-Source Data.

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Kanie et al., Figure 2-figure supplement 2

Figure 2-figure supplement 2 *Quantification data and Westen blot related to Figure 2.*

A-C. Box plots showing centrosomal signal intensity of CEP89 (A), NCS1 (B), or GFP-C3ORF14 (C) from the immunofluorescence experiments shown in Fig.2K-M. Data from a representative experiment are shown. A.U., arbitrary units. The raw data and experimental conditions are available in Figure 2-Figure Supplement 2A-C-Source Data.

D-E. Immunoblot (IB) analysis of expression of CEP89, NCS1, and LAPC-C3ORF14 in indicated RPE cells. The cells were serum starved for 24 hours, lysed and analyzed by immunoblot. Molecular weights (kDa) estimated from a protein marker are indicated.

A.U., arbitrary units; n.s., not significant

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Kanie et al., Figure 2-figure supplement 3

Figure 2-figure supplement 3 *Localization of distal appendage protein in NCS1 knockouts.*

A-B. Box plots showing centrosomal signal intensity of TTBK2 (A) and KIZ (B) in control (sgGFP), CEP89, NCS1, or C3ORF14 knockout RPE cells. The data combined from three independent experiments. Statistical significance was calculated from nested T test. The raw data, experimental conditions, detailed statistics are available in Figure 2-figure supplement 3A-B-Source data.

C-D. Quantification of centrosomal signal intensity of ANKRD26 (C) and NCS1 (D) in indicated RPE cells. The data from the representative experiment are shown. The raw data and experimental condition are available in the source data of Figure 2-figure supplement 3C-D-Source data.

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Kanie et al., Figure 3-figure supplement 1

Figure 3-figure supplement 1 *Quantification of ciliary signal intensity of ARL13B in CEP89 and NCS1 knockouts.*

A-C. Quantification of ciliary signal intensity of ARL13B in indicated cells. The cells were serum starved for 24 (A), 48 (B), and 72 (C) hours, fixed, stained with α-ARL13B (cilium marker) and α-CEP170 (centriole marker), and imaged via wide-field microscopy. Data are averaged from three independent experiments. Error bars represent ± SEM. Statistics obtained by One-way ANOVA with Šídák's multiple comparison test. The raw data, experimental conditions, detailed statistics are available in Figure3-figure supplement 1-Source data.

A.U., arbitrary units.

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Kanie et al., Figure 5-figure supplement 1

Figure 5-figure supplement 1 *Calcium is required mainly for the stability of NCS1.*

A. Immunoblot (IB) analysis of the eluates from co-immunoprecipitation assay of NCS1 knockout RPE cells stably expressing wild-type or indicated point mutants of untagged NCS1 and N-terminally LAP (EGFP and S) tagged CEP89. The cell lysates were co-immunoprecipitated with GFP antibodies, resolved by SDS-PAGE and immunoblotted with indicated antibodies. Molecular weights (kDa) estimated from a protein marker are indicated.

B. Box plots showing centrosomal signal intensity of NCS1. Control (sgGFP) or NCS1 knockout RPE cells stably expressing wild-type or indicated point mutants of NCS1were serum starved for 24 hours. Cells were fixed and stained with NCS1 antibody. Centrosomal signal intensity of NCS1 was measured from fluorescent images with the method described in Materials and Methods. A.U., arbitrary units. Data from a representative experiment are shown. The raw data and experimental conditions are available in Figure 5-figure supplement 1B-Source data.

C. Cilium formation assay in cells described in (B) serum starved for 24 hours. Data are averaged from three independent experiments, and each black dot indicates the value from the individual experiment. Error bars represent ± SEM. Statistics obtained through comparing between each mutant and wild-type NCS1 by Welch's t-test. The raw data, experimental conditions, and detailed statistics are available in Figure 5-figure supplement 1C-Source data.

n.s., not significant; *p < 0.05, **p < 0.01, ***p < 0.001

A

Kanie et al., Figure 7-figure supplement 1

Figure 7-figure supplement 1 *The expression of NCS1 in various tissues.*

A. Immunoblot (IB) analysis of the indicated tissue lysate from *Ncs1*^{+/+} (7-week-old) or *Ncs1*^{-/-} (6-week-old) mice. 50 μg (for NCS1 detection) or 12 μg (for detection of other proteins) of each tissue lysate was loaded and analyzed by immunoblot with the indicated antibodies. Molecular weights (kDa) estimated from a protein marker are indicated.

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Kanie et al., Figure 7-figure supplement 2

Figure 7-figure supplement 2 *NCS1 localizes to the ciliary base in most ciliated tissues but not in photoreceptor cells.*

A-E. Immunofluorescence images of indicated mouse tissues taken via spinning disk confocal microscopy. Tissue sections prepared from 8-week-old *Ncs1*^{+/+} or *Ncs1*^{-/-} mice with the method described in materials and methods were stained for indicated markers. Arrowheads indicate NCS1 localization. The individual image is from a representative z-slice. Scale bar: 10 μm. P, photoreceptor cell layer; ONL, outer nuclear layer; OPL, outer plexiform layer.

Kanie et al., Fig.7- figure supplement 3

Figure 7-figure supplement 3 *Localization of ciliary GPCRs is mildly decreased in hippocampal neurons prepared from Ncs1⁻/⁻ mice.*

A-B. Box plots showing ciliary signal intensity of SSTR3 (A) or GPR161 (B) in isolated hippocampal neurons prepared from E18.5 *Ncs1⁺/⁺* or *Ncs1⁻/⁻* mouse embryos. The cells were cultured in vitro for 7 days (DIV7), fixed, and stained with either SSTR3 or GPR161 together with α-ARL13B (to mark cilium) and α-FGFR1OP (to mark centriole), and imaged via wide-field microscopy. Data are averaged from five different neurons per genotype for SSTR3 and 3 *Ncs1⁺/⁺* and 4 *Ncs1⁻/⁻* neurons for GPR161. Statistical significance was calculated from nested T test. The raw data, experimental conditions, detailed statistics are available in Figure 7-figure supplement 3A-B-Source data.

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