A delta-tubulin/epsilon-tubulin/Ted protein complex is required for centriole architecture

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Abstract

Centrioles have a unique, conserved architecture formed by three linked "triplet" microtubules arranged in nine-fold symmetry. The mechanisms by which these triplet microtubules are formed are not understood, but likely involve the noncanonical tubulins delta-tubulin and epsilon-tubulin. Previously, we found that human cells deficient in delta-tubulin or epsilon-tubulin form abnormal centrioles, characterized by an absence of triplet microtubules, lack of central core protein POC5, and a futile cycle of centriole formation and disintegration (Wang et al., 2017). Here, we show that human cells lacking either of the associated proteins TEDC1 and TEDC2 have these same phenotypes. Using ultrastructure expansion microscopy, we identified the roles of these proteins and triplet microtubules in centriole architecture by mapping the locations of centriolar proteins throughout the cell cycle. We find that mutant centrioles have normal architecture during S-phase. By G2-phase, mutant centrioles grow to the same length as control centrioles, but fail to recruit inner scaffold proteins of the central core. Instead, the inner lumen of centrioles is filled with an expanded proximal region, indicating that these proteins, or the triplet microtubules themselves, may be required for recruiting central core proteins and restricting the length of the proximal end. During mitosis, the mutant centrioles elongate further before fragmenting and disintegrating. All four proteins physically interact and TEDC1 and TEDC2 are capable of interacting in the absence of the tubulins. These results support an AlphaFold Multimer structural prediction model for the tetrameric complex, in which delta-tubulin and epsilon-tubulin are predicted to form a heterodimer. TEDC1 and TEDC2 localize to centrosomes and are mutually dependent on each other and on delta-tubulin and epsilon-tubulin for localization. These results indicate that delta-tubulin, epsilon-tubulin, TEDC1, and TEDC2 function together in promoting robust centriole architecture. This work also lays the groundwork for future dissection of this complex, which will provide a basis for determining the mechanisms that underlie the assembly and interplay between compound microtubules and inner centriole structure.

Introduction

The major microtubule organizing center of mammalian cells, the centrosome, is composed of two barrel-shaped centrioles surrounded by layers of pericentriolar material (Breslow and Holland, 2019). The unique architecture of the centriole is highly conserved: the centriole barrel walls of approximately 250 nm in diameter by 500 nm in length are formed of compound microtubules linked to each other through shared protofilament walls, arranged in nine-fold symmetry (Wang and Stearns, 2017). Centrioles exhibit proximal-distal polarity comprised of three subdomains: the proximal end with triplet microtubules, the distal end with doublet microtubules, and the central core spanning the two regions (LeGuennec et al., 2021). The triplet microtubules are named the A-, B-, and C-tubules. The A-tubule is a complete microtubule formed of 13 protofilaments, and the B- and C-tubules are partial tubules and share protofilament walls with adjacent tubules. The A- and B-tubules extend beyond the C-tubule to form the doublet microtubules of the centriole distal end. During ciliogenesis, the A- and B-tubules elongate further to form the ciliary axoneme (Wang and Stearns, 2017).

Compound microtubules are unique to centrioles and ciliary axonemes and are conserved in almost all organisms with these organelles. Little is known about the mechanisms by which they form, or the functional roles they play within centrioles and cilia. Two non-canonical members of the tubulin superfamily, delta-tubulin (TUBD1) and epsilon-tubulin (TUBE1), are required for compound microtubule formation or stability in multiple organisms (de Loubresse et al., 2001; Dupuis-Williams et al., 2002; Dutcher and Trabuco, 1998; Dutcher et al., 2002; Gadelha et al., 2006; Goodenough and StClair, 1975; Ross et al., 2013; Wang et al., 2017). Previously, we showed that human cells lacking these tubulins make aberrant centrioles that only have singlet microtubules and disintegrate in mitosis, resulting in a futile cycle of centriole formation and loss every cell cycle (Wang et al., 2017). These mutant centrioles fail to recruit the distal end protein POC5, indicating that compound microtubules may be required for centriole composition. We concluded that either the compound microtubules themselves, or the proteins that they associate with, are required for centriole stability through the cell cycle. Together, these results suggest that the compound microtubules may form a unique scaffold for the protein-protein interactions that define centrosomes and cilia.

Here, we build upon our previous work by addressing two important questions relating to triplet microtubule formation and function. First, are there additional proteins that regulate triplet microtubule formation or stability? Second, how do compound microtubules affect the overall architecture of centrioles?

Toward the first question, two additional proteins, TEDC1 (C14orf80) and TEDC2 (C16ORF59), have been reported to interact with TUBD1 and TUBE1 (Breslow et al., 2018; Huttlin et al., 2017; Huttlin et al., 2021). Loss of TEDC1 or TEDC2 in 3T3 cells results in a variable distribution of centriole numbers through the cell cycle, and tagged TEDC1 localizes to centrosomes (Breslow et al., 2018). Here, we create $Tedc1^{-/-}$ or $Tedc2^{-/-}$ mutants cells in the same background as the $Tubd1^{-/-}$ and $Tube1^{-/-}$ mutants and test whether these cells undergo a futile centriole cycle and whether their centrioles may have compound microtubules. We localize

83   TEDC1 and TEDC2 to centrosomes using both diffraction-limited immunofluorescence and
84   expansion microscopy. In addition, we extend our understanding of the interactions between
85   these four proteins by defining their mutual dependencies, whether any might form
86   subcomplexes within cells, and report an AlphaFold-Multimer structural prediction model for the
87   complex.
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Toward the second question, multiple lines of evidence suggest that the compound
microtubules may scaffold some of the protein-protein interactions that occur within
centrosomes. Electron microscopy and cryo-electron tomography studies have shown that the
compound microtubules are directly linked to many of the substructures within centrioles
(LeGuennec et al., 2021). At the proximal end, the cartwheel, a ninefold symmetric hub and
spokes made from SASS6 and associated proteins, forms early in procentriole biogenesis
during G1/S phase. Multiple cartwheels are stacked within the centriole lumen to approximately
one-third of the entire centriole length (~170 nm in human centrioles) (Klena et al., 2020). The
cartwheel is connected to the A-tubule through the pinhead, which has been proposed to be
formed of CEP135 and CPAP (Hatzopoulos et al., 2013; Kraatz et al., 2016; Lin et al., 2013a;
Sharma et al., 2016). The cartwheel and centriolar microtubules have been proposed to
assemble interdependently to impart ninefold symmetry upon the centriole (Hilbert et al., 2016),
but it is unclear how the cartwheel might be regulated in centrioles lacking compound
microtubules.
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Within the central core, a helical inner scaffold is formed in G2-phase of the first cell cycle after
centriole birth, imparts structural integrity upon the centriole (Le Guennec et al., 2020; Steib et
al., 2020), and recruits proteins, including gamma-tubulin, to the lumen of the centriole
(Schweizer et al., 2021). This scaffold is formed of POC5, POC1B, FAM161A, WDR90, and
CCDC15 and contacts all three (A-, B-, and C-) tubules (Arslanhan et al., 2023; Le Guennec et
al., 2020; Steib et al., 2020). WDR90 has been proposed to form the inner junction stem
bridging the inner scaffold and the interface between the A- and B-tubules (Steib et al., 2020).
The distal region of centrioles also has a unique protein composition, including the proteins
centrin, CP110, SFI1, CEP97, CEP90, OFD1, and MNR (Kleylein-Sohn et al., 2007; Kumar et
al., 2021; Laporte et al., 2022; Le Borgne et al., 2022; Spektor et al., 2007). The connections
between the compound microtubules and these distal end proteins are not well-understood.
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In addition to scaffolding these architectural substructures within centrioles, compound
microtubules may also be involved in recruiting or regulating enzymes that modify centrioles
during their maturation. During the first cell cycle after their formation, procentrioles acquire
post-translational modifications, elongate, recruit the inner scaffold, lose the cartwheel, and
undergo centriole-to-centrosome conversion. Additional changes occur during the second cell
cycle, including acquisition of the distal and subdistal appendages that are important for
ciliogenesis.
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Here, we directly test the scaffolding hypothesis by determining whether loss of the compound
microtubules affects the positioning of proteins along the centriole, and the changes that occur
to centrioles during the first cell cycle after their formation. We note that due to the futile

centriole cycle in these mutant cells, we could only assay centriole architecture during the first
cell cycle. In addition, because centrioles are constitutively formed *de novo* every cell cycle in
our mutant cells, we incorporated two controls to our analysis: procentrioles undergoing normal
parental-mediated centriole duplication in control (RPE-1 *p53*^{-/-}) cells, and centrioles formed in
RPE-1 *p53*^{-/-} cells *de novo* in the first cell cycle after centrinone washout. The architecture of *de*
novo-formed centrioles has not been systematically characterized prior to this study, though this
mechanism has been shown to be error-prone, perhaps indicating differences in centriole
structure or regulation (Wang et al., 2015).
135
136 We find that the compound microtubules are required for recruiting the helical inner scaffold and
137 correctly positioning the proximal end, and dispensable for recruitment of distal end proteins and
138 centriole elongation. In mitosis, mutant centrioles continue elongating before fragmenting and
139 disintegrating. Together, these results indicate that the compound microtubules are required for
140 scaffolding substructures within centrioles and centriole stability through the cell cycle.
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Results

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Loss of TEDC1 or TEDC2 phenocopies loss of TUBD1 or TUBE1
Are there additional proteins that regulate compound microtubule formation or stability? TEDC1
and TEDC2 have been reported to physically interact with delta-tubulin and epsilon-tubulin, and
loss of either *Tedc1* or *Tedc2* in 3T3 cells results in cells with a variable number of centrioles
through the cell cycle (Breslow et al., 2018). To further dissect the phenotypes of loss of *Tedc1*
or *Tedc2* and directly compare to our original report on delta-tubulin and epsilon-tubulin, we
used CRISPR/Cas9 to generate strong loss of function/null mutations in *Tedc1* or *Tedc2* in the
same cell type and background genotype (hTERT RPE-1 *p53*^{-/-}) as the *Tubd1*^{-/-} (delta-tubulin
knockout) and *Tube1*^{-/-} (epsilon-tubulin knockout) mutant cells (Fig 1 - Supp 1). By
immunofluorescence staining for two centriolar proteins, centrin and CP110, we observed that
Tedc1^{-/-} and *Tedc2*^{-/-} mutant cells had similar phenotypes to each other and to *Tubd1*^{-/-} and
Tube1^{-/-} mutant cells: in an asynchronously growing culture, about half of the cells had no
centrioles, and half had five or more centrioles. These phenotypes were fully rescued by
expression of tagged TEDC1 (TEDC1-Halotag-3xFlag) or TEDC2 (TEDC2-V5-APEX2) (Fig 1A).
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Next, we checked whether the centrioles in *Tedc1*^{-/-} and *Tedc2*^{-/-} mutant cells underwent a futile
cycle of centriole formation and disintegration. We synchronized cells in each stage of the cell
cycle, quantified the number of cells with centrioles, and found that almost all mutant cells
lacked centrioles in G0/G1 phase. Centrioles formed in S-phase and disintegrated in M (Fig 1B).
The centrioles that were present in mutant cells were immature: all centrioles were positive for
the procentriole marker SASS6 and negative for the mature centriole marker CEP164 (Fig 1C,
1D). We conclude that cells lacking TEDC1 or TEDC2 also undergo a futile cycle, similar to cells
lacking delta-tubulin or epsilon-tubulin.
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We also examined the centriolar microtubule status of *Tedc1*^{-/-} and *Tedc2*^{-/-} mutant cells by
TEM. Similar to cells lacking delta-tubulin or epsilon-tubulin, we found that centrioles in *Tedc1*^{-/-}
and *Tedc2*^{-/-} mutant cells lacked compound microtubules and only had singlet microtubules (Fig

1E). Together, these results demonstrate that loss of TEDC1 or TEDC2 phenocopies loss of
delta-tubulin or epsilon-tubulin, indicating that these proteins likely act together.

TEDC1 and TEDC2 localize to centrosomes
Next, we investigated the localization of TEDC1 and TEDC2 to determine if they may directly
act on centrosomes. By immunofluorescence, we found that in our rescued cell lines, the tagged
rescue constructs localize to centrosomes, (Fig 2A and 2B) and the antibodies for the tags were
specific (Fig 2 - Supp Fig 1). TEDC1 and TEDC2 were enriched at centrosomes in S/G2 and
colocalized with SASS6, but not centrin, indicating that Tedc1 and Tedc2 may localize to newly
formed procentrioles and/or the proximal ends of parental centrioles.

To analyze TEDC1 and TEDC2 localization at higher resolution, we used ultrastructure
expansion microscopy (U-ExM, Gambarotto et al., 2019) to localize our tagged rescue
constructs. We found that both proteins localize to procentrioles and the proximal ends of
parental centrioles. Within these areas, both proteins show some overlap with the centriolar
microtubules. Together, these results show that TEDC1 and TEDC2 localize to centrosomes
and likely directly act upon them.

TEDC1, TEDC2, TUBD1 and TUBE1 form a complex in cells
To determine how TEDC1, TEDC2, TUBD1 and TUBE1 might act together, we first determined
whether they are mutually required for their localization at centrosomes. We found that TEDC1
did not localize to centrioles in the absence of TEDC2, TUBD1, or TUBE1 (Figure 3A). Likewise,
TEDC2 did not localize to centrioles in the absence of TEDC1, TUBD1, or TUBE1 (Figure 3B).
These results indicate that these proteins are mutually required for TEDC1 or TEDC2
localization. Furthermore, overexpression of TEDC1 or TEDC2 did not rescue the centriole
phenotypes in any of the other mutants, indicating that TEDC1 and TEDC2 are not downstream
effectors of TUBD1 and TUBE1 (Fig 3A and 3B).

TEDC1 and TEDC2 have previously been shown to physically interact with TUBD1 and TUBE1
(Breslow et al., 2018). To further probe the nature of this interaction, we first determined
whether any of these proteins may form subcomplexes in cells. We expressed TEDC1-Halotag-
3xFlag in each mutant cell line and determined whether immunoprecipitation of tagged TEDC1
could precipitate the other proteins. TEDC1-Halotag-3xFlag rescuing the $Tedc1^{-/-}$ mutant could
precipitate TEDC2, TUBD1, and TUBE1, indicating that all four proteins physically interact.
TEDC1 did not interact with epsilon-tubulin in the absence of delta-tubulin, nor did it interact with
delta-tubulin in the absence of TUBE1. In the absence of TEDC2, TEDC1 did not interact with
TUBD1 or TUBE1. However, in the absence of TUBD1 or TUBE1, TEDC1 and TEDC2 could
still interact with each other (Fig 3C).

We performed the reciprocal experiment, in which we expressed TEDC2-V5-APEX2 in each
mutant cell line and determined whether immunoprecipitation of tagged TEDC2 could precipitate
the other proteins. We observed similar results as our analysis with TEDC1. TEDC2-V5-APEX2
rescuing the $Tedc2^{-/-}$ mutant could precipitate TEDC1, TUBD1, and TUBE1, indicating that all
four proteins physically interact. TEDC2 did not interact with either tubulin in the absence of the

other. In the absence of TEDC1, TEDC2 did not interact with either tubulin. However, in the
absence of TUBD1 or TUBE1, TEDC2 and TEDC1 could still interact (Fig 3D).
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218 Together, these experiments indicate that TEDC1, TEDC2, TUBD1 and TUBE1 physically
219 interact with each other, as previously reported (Breslow et al., 2018; Huttlin et al., 2017; Huttlin
220 et al., 2021). Furthermore, TEDC1 and TEDC2 can form a subcomplex in the absence of either
221 tubulin.
222
To gain additional insight into the nature of this interaction, we used AlphaFold-Multimer (Evans
et al., 2021) to predict the structure of the complex. AlphaFold-Multimer predicted that TUBD1
and TUBE1 would form a heterodimer, similar to the alpha-tubulin/beta-tubulin heterodimer, with
TUBD1 at the minus-end of the heterodimer. AlphaFold also predicted that the alpha-helices of
TEDC1 and TEDC2 interact with each other, and that TEDC1 and TEDC2 form an interaction
surface with TUBD1. These predictions, especially at the interface between TEDC1, TEDC2,
and TUBD1, yielded high confidence pLDDT and PAE scores (Fig 3E-G). As controls, we used
AlphaFold-Multimer to predict whether TEDC1 and TEDC2 might interact with alpha-tubulin and
beta-tubulin, and whether similar structures would be predicted for *Xenopus* TEDC1, TEDC2,
TUBD1 and TUBE1. While AlphaFold-Multimer did not predict a high-confidence interaction for
TEDC1, TEDC2, alpha- and beta-tubulin (Fig 3 - Supp 1 - Fig A-C), it did predict a high-
confidence structure for *Xenopus* TEDC1, TEDC2, TUBD1 and TUBE1, similar to that predicted
for the human proteins (Fig 3 - Supp 1 - Fig D-F).
236
Our pulldown experiments showed that TEDC1 and TEDC2 can interact in a subcomplex in the
absence of TUBD1 or TUBE1, which supports the predicted structural model, in which TEDC1
and TEDC2 are predicted to directly interact with each other without being bridged by either
tubulin. Further supporting this model, immunoprecipitation of TEDC2 identifies the other
proteins in stoichiometric amounts (Breslow et al., 2018), and we previously showed that
TUBD1 and TUBE1 physically interact (Wang et al., 2017). Future work will be necessary to
confirm these structural predictions. Together, these experiments indicate that TEDC1, TEDC2,
TUBD1 and TUBE1 physically interact in a complex and are recruited together to centrioles.
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246 **Loss of TEDC1, TEDC2, TUBD1 or TUBE1 results in centrioles with aberrant**
247 **ultrastructure**
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Next, we determined how the loss of these proteins, and the triplet microtubules themselves,
affect centriole ultrastructure and protein composition. We first tested whether mutant centrioles
were capable of elongating during the cell cycle. We compared the length of mutant centrioles in
all four mutant cell lines to the length of centrioles from two control conditions: procentrioles
undergoing normal parental-mediated centriole duplication in control (RPE-1 $p53^{-/-}$) cells, and
centrioles formed in RPE-1 $p53^{-/-}$ cells *de novo* in the first cell cycle after centrinone washout.
For each cell line, cells were synchronized by mitotic shake off, resulting in coverslips enriched
for cells in S, G2, or M phases. Cells were then expanded by U-ExM and stained for acetylated
tubulin to mark centrioles and PCNA to mark S-phase cells. We found that in S-phase,
centrioles were short in all conditions. In G2-phase, centrioles elongated in all conditions, and

mutant centrioles reached approximately similar lengths as control centrioles (Fig 4A, 4B).
These results indicate that centrioles with singlet microtubules can elongate to the same length
as controls, and therefore that triplet microtubules are not essential for regulating centriole
length. Consistent with this hypothesis, CEP120, a protein involved in regulating centriole length
(Comartin et al., 2013; Lin et al., 2013b; Mahjoub et al., 2010), was present and properly
localized within mutant centrioles (Fig 4 - Supp 1D).
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We next tested whether the microtubules of mutant centrioles could be modified by post-
translational modifications. The compound microtubules of centrioles are heavily post-
translationally modified, and recent studies have indicated that each tubule may acquire
different modifications (Guichard et al., 2023). We first checked acetylation of alpha-tubulin, one
of the most well-studied centriole post-translational modifications. During centriole formation,
acetylation is thought to proceed from the proximal toward the distal end and from the A- to the
C-tubules (Sahabandu et al., 2019). We found that antibodies against acetylated alpha-tubulin
stained mutant centrioles well (Fig 4B), indicating that centrioles with only singlet A-tubules can
be acetylated.
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Next, we checked glutamylation, a post-translational modification thought to be restricted to the
outer surface of centrioles. Within *Chlamydomonas* centrioles, glutamylation is differentially
distributed between each tubule: on the C-tubule at the distal end, on all 3 tubules in the central
core, and on the A-tubule at the proximal end. In human centrioles, polyglutamylation is
enriched in the proximal and central regions, and is absent in the distal region (Mahecic et al.,
2020). We used two antibodies to detect glutamylation: the GT335 antibody, which recognizes
the glutamylation branch and thus detects all polyglutamylation, and the polyE antibody, which
recognizes long polyglutamate side chains with at least 2 or 3 glutamate residues (Kann et al.,
2003; Van Dijk et al., 2007). We found that mutant and control centrioles could be stained by
GT335 (Fig 4C), indicating that mutant centrioles are at least mono-glutamylated. However, the
polyE antibody did not label control procentrioles, making this antibody uninformative for our
mutants (Fig 4D). These results show that centrioles with just singlet microtubules (A-tubules)
can be mono-glutamylated. Moreover, our results suggest that centriole glutamylation is a multi-
step process, in which long glutamate side chains are added later during centriole maturation.
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We previously demonstrated that *Tubd1*^{-/-} and *Tube1*^{-/-} mutant centrioles fail to recruit the distal
centriole protein POC5 (Wang et al., 2017). Using expansion microscopy, we found that *Tedc1*^{-/-}
and *Tedc2*^{-/-} mutant centrioles also failed to recruit POC5 (Fig 4Ei). Since our original work was
published, POC5 was shown to be a component of the helical inner scaffold within the central
core. These results indicate that the helical inner scaffold is not properly formed in centrioles
with singlet microtubules. To test the mechanisms underlying loss of POC5, we next tested
whether mutant centrioles recruit WDR90, which has been proposed to localize to the inner
junction between the A- and B-tubules and function in recruiting the inner scaffold (Steib et al.,
2020). We found that WDR90 was not recruited to mutant centrioles, in contrast to control
centrioles, in which it is recruited in G2-phase (Fig 4Eii). From these results, it is likely that
mutant centrioles with singlet microtubules fail to build or stabilize the inner junction between the
A- and B-tubules. In the absence of the inner junction and junctional protein WDR90, centrioles

with singlet microtubules cannot form the inner scaffold. As a further test of inner scaffold
function, we sought to determine whether gamma-tubulin, which is recruited to the lumen of
centrioles by the inner scaffold, had localization defects in mutant centrioles. However, we were
unable to reliably detect gamma-tubulin within the lumen of control or *de novo*-formed centrioles
in S or G2-phase (Fig 4-Supp1E), and thus were unable to test this hypothesis.
308
Next, we tested whether the centriole proximal end might be properly formed in mutant
centrioles. We found that the centriolar cartwheel protein, SASS6, was present within the lumen
of control and mutant procentrioles in S-phase. In control centrioles in G2-phase, SASS6 was
restricted to just the proximal end. Surprisingly, SASS6 was elongated throughout the length of
the centriole in all G2-phase mutant centrioles (Fig 4F). We observed a similar phenotype with
multiple other proximal-end proteins: CEP135, STIL, and CPAP (Fig 4G-I), CEP44 (Fig 4 - Supp
1A), indicating that the entire proximal end is elongated in mutant centrioles. The extended
localization of proximal end proteins was not due to increased protein expression in mutant cells
(Fig 4 - Supp 2). We conclude that loss of TEDC1, TEDC2, TUBD1, or TUBE1 results in
elongated proximal end domains that span the length of the mutant centrioles.
319
Elongation of the proximal end of centrioles may also indicate an overall defect in centriole
polarity. To test this hypothesis, we next determined whether these mutant centrioles might
properly recruit proteins to their distal ends. We found that CETN2 and CP110, two proteins of
the distal centriole, were localized to mutant centrioles and clearly marked one end of the
centriole barrel in both S-phase and G2-phase (Fig 4 - Supp 1B, 1C). We conclude that
proximal-to-distal centriole polarity was unaffected in mutant centrioles, and proximal end
elongation did not affect the recruitment of proteins to the centriole distal end. Together, these
results indicate that centrioles lacking compound microtubules are unable to properly regulate
the length of the proximal end.
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330 **Mutant centrioles elongate further in mitosis before fragmenting**
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Centrioles lacking triplet microtubules undergo a futile cycle of formation and disassembly, but
the mechanisms underlying this disassembly are not well-understood. We first tested whether
centriole loss in mutant centrioles may be due to loss of CEP295. CEP295 promotes centriole-
to-centrosome conversion, a process in which pericentriolar material is recruited to newly-
formed procentrioles. Cells lacking CEP295 form centrioles that disintegrate during the cell
cycle due to a failure to undergo centriole-to-centrosome conversion (Izquierdo et al., 2014).
Using U-ExM, we found that CEP295 was present and normally localized within mutant
centrioles in both S- and G2-phases (Fig 4 - Supp 1F). We conclude that centriole loss in our
mutants is unlikely due to loss of CEP295 localization, and therefore that TEDC1, TEDC2,
TUBD1 and TUBE1 are likely part of a different pathway required for centriole stability through
the cell cycle.
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Next, we used U-ExM to visualize centriole loss during mitosis. We stained for the centriole wall
(GT335), the centriole proximal end (SASS6) and the centriole distal end (CP110). In control
cells, in which centrioles formed *de novo* after centrinone washout, multiple centrioles could be

seen throughout mitosis, and SASS6 was lost from centrioles in anaphase-stage cells (Fig

5A,B). By contrast, in prometaphase stage $Tubd1^{-/-}$ or $Tube1^{-/-}$ cells, we found that centrioles

had a unique appearance: they were longer than normal, with an elongated proximal end

marked by SASS6, and a CP110-positive cap. These two ends were connected by weak

monoE staining (Fig 5C, 5E). This phenotype is identical to our observations of centrioles in a

prometaphase $Tube1^{-/-}$ cell by TEM in our previous publication (Wang et al., 2017, Fig 2B),

suggesting that this structure may represent an intermediate in the centriole disassembly

process.

After metaphase, centrioles in mutant cells were either completely absent, or had a fragmented

appearance (Fig 5D, 5F), with aggregates of staining that did not resemble true centrioles. We

conclude that in our mutant cells, centriole disassembly likely occurs through centriole

elongation and fragmentation, with an aberrant intermediate structure during disassembly.

361   Discussion

Here, we extend our previous study on delta-tubulin (TUBD1), epsilon-tubulin (TUBE1) and the

centriolar triplet microtubules. Previously, we showed that loss of either of these proteins from

mammalian cultured cell lines results in the same phenotype: loss of the triplet microtubules and

a futile cycle of centriole formation and disintegration (Wang et al., 2017). Here, we add two new

proteins to this pathway: TEDC1 and TEDC2, which were originally identified by their

association with TUBD1 and TUBE1 (Breslow et al., 2018; Huttlin et al., 2017; Huttlin et al.,

2021). Loss of TEDC1 or TEDC2 phenocopies the loss of TUBD1 or TUBE1: aberrant centrioles

are formed that lack triplet microtubules and disintegrate during passage through mitosis.

TEDC1 and TEDC2 localize to centrioles, indicating that they have a direct role in forming or

maintaining centriole structure, and their localization depends on each of the other three

proteins within the complex. All four proteins physically interact with each other. Using our

mutant cell lines, we interrogated whether any of these proteins can form subcomplexes within

cells. We found that TEDC1 and TEDC2 can interact with each other independently of the

tubulins, supporting a predicted AlphaFold-Multimer model. Together, these results indicate that

these four proteins act together in a complex at centrosomes to form or stabilize the compound

microtubules.

Using ultrastructure expansion microscopy, we find that mutant centrioles with singlet

microtubules exhibit additional major architectural defects, including absence of the inner

scaffold and elongation of the proximal end. We propose that the absence of the inner scaffold

arises from the loss of the B- and C-tubules within centrioles, which may serve to anchor

WDR90 and/or other proteins of the inner scaffold. WDR90 has been proposed to localize to the

inner junction between the A- and B-tubules and is required for recruiting other inner scaffold

components (Le Guennec et al., 2020; Steib et al., 2020). We find that mutant centrioles with

singlet microtubules fail to localize WDR90, and thus speculate that the B-tubule is required to

recruit or stabilize WDR90 at the inner junction. In addition, by cryo-electron tomography, the

inner scaffold makes connections to all three (A-, B-, and C-) tubules. Though the identities of all

the proteins that form these connections have not been determined, it is possible that mutant

centrioles with only A-tubules also fail to provide anchoring sites for the other proteins within the
inner scaffold. Together, these results demonstrate that the compound microtubules of
centrioles are required for proper formation of the inner helical scaffold of the central core.
394
Mutant centrioles with singlet microtubules have an elongated proximal end that extends the
entire length of the centriole, as marked by multiple proximal end markers (SASS6, CEP135,
STIL, CPAP, CEP44). These results are also supported by our previous observations that by
TEM, the lumen of *Tubd1*^{-/-} and *Tube1*^{-/-} mutant centrioles are filled with electron-dense material
(Wang et al., 2017). Little is known about the molecular mechanisms that regulate proximal end
length, though centrioles from the symbiotic flagellate *Trichonympha* bear an elongated
proximal region with extended cartwheel, and the doublet and singlet-bearing centrioles from
Drosophila and *C. elegans* have cartwheels that extend the entire length of the centriole
(González et al., 1998; Guichard and Gönczy, 2016; Guichard et al., 2012; Pelletier et al., 2006;
Woglar et al., 2022). We speculate that the triplet microtubules, the inner scaffold, and/or the
TUBD1/TUBE1/TEDC1/TEDC2 protein complex might act to limit the length of the proximal end.
406
407   Many aspects of centriole architecture, including centriole length regulation prior to mitosis,
408   acquisition of post-translational modifications, establishment of proximal-distal polarity, and
409   recruitment of proteins required for centriole-to-centrosome conversion, are unaffected in
410   mutant centrioles. These results indicate that the proteins that regulate these processes can act
411   upon the A-tubule independently of the B- and C-tubules.
412
Here, we also extend our previous observations of centriole loss in mutant centrioles. In most
cell types, centrioles are inherited by daughter cells during each mitosis. Centriole loss is not
unique to centrioles lacking compound microtubules: mammalian cells engineered to lack
CEP295 also form centrioles that are lost through the cell cycle, due to an inability to undergo
centriole to centrosome conversion (Izquierdo et al., 2014). Similarly, in *Drosophila* oocytes,
down-regulation of Polo kinase and pericentriolar material triggers centriole elimination
(Pimenta-Marques et al., 2016). We find that CEP295 is properly localized in mutant centrioles
with singlet microtubules, indicating that centriole loss in this context may be independent of
centriole to centrosome conversion and pericentriolar material recruitment. Using expansion
microscopy, we find that centriole loss is correlated with loss of the SASS6 cartwheel in mitosis.
In this regard, mutant centrioles with singlet microtubules resemble centriole loss within *C.*
elegans oocytes, in which an analogous structure to the cartwheel named the central tube is lost
prior to centriole widening and subsequent loss of the centriolar microtubules (Pierron et al.,
2023). In addition, centriole loss in our mutant cells occurs through a stereotyped progression of
architectural changes in mitosis, starting with centriole over elongation in prometaphase and
culminating with centriole fragmentation and loss. Prolonged mitotic arrest has been reported to
result in centriole over elongation through Plk1 activity (Kong et al., 2020), and it is possible that
a lengthened mitosis, as observed in these mutant cells and cells lacking centrioles (Farrell et
al., 2023; Wang et al., 2017), may also result in over elongation of mutant centrioles with just A-
tubules. In addition, we note that CPAP has an expanded domain in mutant centrioles
compared to controls (Fig 4 and Vásquez-Limeta et al., 2022). CPAP is involved in slow
processive microtubule growth (Sharma et al., 2016) and its loss results in centriole

fragmentation (Vásquez-Limeta et al., 2022), and it is possible that CPAP mislocalization may
also contribute to over elongation of these mutant centrioles. Future work will determine the
molecular mechanisms by which mutant centrioles lacking triplet microtubules are disassembled
through the cell cycle.
439
Finally, we note that mutant human centrioles lacking compound microtubules bear similarities
to the centrioles of *Drosophila* and *C. elegans* embryos, which have evolved to lack triplet
microtubules and have cartwheels extending the entire length of the centriole (González et al.,
1998; Pelletier et al., 2006; Woglar et al., 2022). Embryonic centrioles in both species are
shorter than that of other organisms, and helical inner scaffolds have not been reported. In both
species, these diminished centrioles participate in mitosis, can duplicate their centrioles, and
serve as basal bodies for sensory cilia. We speculate that centrioles with triplet microtubules
and the proteins they anchor, including the inner scaffold, may be required for centriole function
in organisms with motile cilia, perhaps to help stabilize the basal body against ciliary movement.
Such activity has been described for Tetrahymena basal bodies, and mutating an inner scaffold
protein, Poc1, results in abnormal bending within basal bodies (Junker et al., 2022). Further
supporting this hypothesis, *Drosophila* spermatocytes, one of the few cells within this species
with motile cilia, have basal bodies with triplet microtubules (González et al., 1998). We note
that these spermatocytes likely form triplet microtubules in an alternative manner, as *Drosophila*
lacks delta-tubulin or epsilon-tubulin.
455
In conclusion, this work, along with our previously published study, identifies proteins required
for the formation or maintenance of the centriolar triplet microtubules and maps the
requirements of these proteins and the triplets in centriole architecture. Together, these results
pave the way for deeper molecular understanding of the mechanisms by which the triplet
microtubules are formed and maintained reproducibly within cells to form robust centrioles and
cilia.

Figure legends

Figure 1. Loss of Tedc1 or Tedc2 phenocopies loss of delta-tubulin or epsilon-tubulin
(A) Immunofluorescence staining of control (RPE1 $p53^{-/-}$), $Tedc1^{-/-}$ (RPE1 $p53^{-/-}$; $Tedc1^{-/-}$),
Tedc1 Rescued (RPE1 $p53^{-/-}$; $Tedc1^{-/-}$; Tedc1-Halotag-3xflag), $Tedc2^{-/-}$ (RPE1 $p53^{-/-}$; $Tedc2^{-/-}$),
Tedc2 Rescued (RPE1 $p53^{-/-}$; $Tedc2^{-/-}$; Tedc2-V5-APEX2) cells. Top row: G1 stage cells with 2
centrioles. Bottom row: S/G2 stage cells with 4 centrioles. Blue: DAPI; Yellow: Centrin;
Magenta: CP110. Images are maximum projections of confocal stacks. Scale bar: 5 um **(B)**
Centriole number counts of the indicated cell lines. Cells were either asynchronous, serum-
starved for G0/G1, stained for PCNA for S-phase, synchronized with RO-3306 for G2/M, or
mitotic figures were identified by DAPI staining. Each condition was performed in triplicate, with
n=100 cells scored for each. **(C)** Percent of centrioles in indicated cell types positive for SASS6
staining. Each condition was performed in triplicate, with n=200 cells scored for each. (D)
Percent of centrioles in indicated cell types positive for CEP164 staining. Each condition was
performed in triplicate, with n=100 cells scored for each. **(E)** TEM cross-section of a centriole in
a G2-phase $Tedc1^{-/-}$ cell. **(F)** TEM cross-section of a centriole in a G2-phase $Tedc2^{-/-}$ cell. **(G)**
Schematic of centriole formation and loss in control and $Tedc1^{-/-}$ or $Tedc2^{-/-}$ cells.

Figure 1 - Supplementary Figure 1. Genotyping of Tedc1$^{-/-}$ and Tedc2$^{-/-}$ mutant cell lines
(A) Gene structure of the Tedc1 locus in parental $p53^{-/-}$ cells and the $Tedc1^{-/-}$ mutant. Green
boxes: exons; blue lines: introns; red triangles: sgRNA binding sites; black arrow: translation
start site. The $Tedc1^{-/-}$ mutant (clone 2F4) is a compound heterozygote bearing a deletion of 227
bp on one allele and a deletion of 329 bp on the other allele. In both alleles, the ATG start site is
deleted and the next ATG is not in-frame. **(B)** Gene structure of the Tedc2 locus in parental $p53^{-/-}$
cells and the $Tedc2^{-/-}$ mutant. Green boxes: exons; blue lines: introns; red triangles: sgRNA
binding sites; black arrow: translation start site. The $Tedc2^{-/-}$ mutant (clone F5) is a compound
heterozygote bearing a deletion of 19 bp on one allele flanking the ATG start site. On the other
allele, there is an insertion of 306 bp corresponding to a fusion between Tedc2 and the hCLHC1
gene. In both alleles, the ATG start site is deleted, the next ATG is not in-frame, and no
additional ATG start sites are found. **(C)** Genotyping PCR of the Tedc1 locus in parental $p53^{-/-}$
cells, the $Tedc1^{-/-}$ mutant, and Tedc1 Rescued (RPE1 $p53^{-/-}$; $Tedc1^{-/-}$; Tedc1-Halotag-3xflag)
cells. Top: PCR for Tedc1. Bottom: PCR for Halotag. **(D)** Genotyping PCR of the Tedc2 locus in
parental $p53^{-/-}$ cells, the $Tedc1^{-/-}$ mutant, and Tedc2 Rescued (RPE1 $p53^{-/-}$; $Tedc2^{-/-}$; Tedc2-V5-
APEX2) cells. Top: PCR for Tedc2. Bottom: PCR for APEX2.

Figure 2. Tedc1 and Tedc2 localize to centrioles
(A) Immunofluorescence staining of Tedc1 rescue cell lines in G1, S/G2, and M. Images are
maximum projections of confocal stacks. Blue: DAPI; Cyan: Centrin; Magenta: Tedc1 (localized
with anti-Flag antibody); Yellow: SASS6. Scale bar: 5 um. **(B)** Immunofluorescence staining of
Tedc2 rescue cell lines in G1, S/G2, and M. Images are maximum projections of confocal
stacks. Blue: DAPI; Cyan: Centrin (localized with anti-GFP antibody recognizing GFP-centrin);
Magenta: Tedc2 (localized with anti-V5 antibody); Yellow: SASS6. Scale bar: 5 um. **(C)** U-ExM
of Tedc1 rescue cell lines, arranged by procentriole length. Cyan: Acetylated tubulin; Magenta:
Tedc1 (localized with anti-Flag antibody). Confocal image stacks were deconvolved using

506   Microvolution; single plane images shown. Scale bar: 1 um. **(D)** U-ExM of Tedc2 rescue cell
507   lines, arranged by procentriole length. Cyan: Acetylated tubulin; Magenta: Tedc2 (localized with
508   anti-V5 antibody). Confocal image stacks were acquired with a Yokogawa CSU-W1 spinning
509   disk microscope and deconvolved using Microvolution; single plane images shown. Scale bar: 1
510   um.
511
Figure 2 - Supplementary Figure 1. Specificity of Flag and V5 antibodies
(A) Immunofluorescence staining of p53$^{-/-}$ cells expressing Halotag-Flag - negative control for
Fig 2A. Images are maximum projections of confocal stacks and were acquired with the same
exposure settings as in Fig 2A. Blue: DAPI; Cyan: Centrin; Magenta: Tedc1 (localized with anti-
Flag antibody); Yellow: SASS6. Scale bar: 5 um. **(B)** Immunofluorescence staining of p53$^{-/-}$ cells
expressing V5-APEX2 - negative control for Fig 2B. Images are maximum projections of
confocal stacks and were acquired with the same exposure settings as in Fig 2B. Blue: DAPI;
Cyan: Centrin (localized with anti-GFP antibody recognizing GFP-centrin); Magenta: Tedc2
(localized with anti-V5 antibody); Yellow: SASS6. Scale bar: 5 um. **(C)** U-ExM of p53$^{-/-}$ cells
expressing Halotag-Flag - negative control for Fig 2C. Cyan: Acetylated tubulin; Magenta:
Tedc1 (localized with anti-Flag antibody). Confocal image stacks were deconvolved using
Microvolution; single plane images shown. Images were acquired using the same parameters
as Fig 2C. Scale bar: 1 um. **(D)** U-ExM of p53$^{-/-}$ cells expressing V5-APEX2 - negative control
for Fig 2D. Cyan: Acetylated tubulin; Magenta: Tedc2 (localized with anti-V5 antibody). Confocal
image stacks were deconvolved using Microvolution; single plane images shown. Images were
acquired using the same parameters as Fig 2D. Scale bar: 1 um.
528
Fig 2 - Supplementary Figure 2 - Tedc1 localization arranged by procentriole length and
centriole orientation
U-ExM of Tedc1 rescue cell lines, arranged by procentriole length and centriole orientation.
Procentriole lengths are indicated in each image (um). Cyan: Acetylated tubulin; Magenta:
Tedc1 (localized with anti-Flag antibody). Confocal image stacks were deconvolved using
Microvolution; single plane images shown. Scale bar: 1 um.
535
Fig 2 - Supplementary Figure 3 - Tedc2 localization arranged by procentriole length and
centriole orientation
U-ExM of Tedc2 rescue cell lines, arranged by procentriole length and centriole orientation.
Procentriole lengths are indicated in each image (um). Cyan: Acetylated tubulin; Magenta:
Tedc2 (localized with anti-V5 antibody). Confocal image stacks were deconvolved using
Microvolution; single plane images shown. Scale bar: 1 um.
542

Figure 3. Tedc1, Tedc2, TUBD1, TUBE1 form a complex in cells
(A) Centrosomal Tedc1 localization depends on Tedc2, Tubd1, Tube1.
Immunofluorescence staining of cells expressing Tedc1-Halotag-3xflag. Control cell is Tedc1
mutant cells rescued with Tedc1-Halotag-3xflag. Images are maximum projections of confocal
stacks. Blue: DAPI; Cyan: SASS6; Magenta: Tedc1 (localized with anti-Flag antibody). Scale
bar: 5 um. **(B) Centrosomal Tedc2 localization depends on Tedc1, Tubd1, Tube1.**
Immunofluorescence staining of cells expressing Tedc2-V5-APEX2. Control cell is Tedc2
mutant cells rescued with Tedc2-V5-APEX2. Images are maximum projections of confocal
stacks. Blue: DAPI; Cyan: SASS6; Magenta: Tedc2 (localized with anti-V5 antibody). Scale bar:
5 um. **(C) Tedc1 pulls down Tedc2 in the absence of delta or epsilon-tubulin.** Western blot
of input and pulldown of Halotag-Flag or TEDC2-Halotag-Flag in the indicated cell lines. **(D)**
Tedc2 pulls down Tedc1 in the absence of delta or epsilon-tubulin. Western blot of input
and pulldown of TUBA1B-V5-APEX2 or TEDC2-V5-APEX2 in the indicated cell lines. **(E)**
AlphaFold Multimer prediction of the complex **(F)** AlphaFold Multimer prediction colored
according to pLDDT. Very high: pLDDT > 90. High: 90 > pLDDT > 70. Low: 70 > pLDDT > 50.
Very low: pLDDT <50 **(G)** Predicted align error of the AlphaFold Multimer prediction. Expected
position error (Angstroms) is graphed.
560
Fig 3 - Supplementary Figure 1. AlphaFold Multimer predictions
(A) AlphaFold Multimer prediction of TEDC1, TEDC2, TUBA1A, TUBB **(B)** AlphaFold-Multimer
prediction from A) colored according to pLDDT. Very high: pLDDT > 90. High: 90 > pLDDT > 70.
Low: 70 > pLDDT > 50. Very low: pLDDT <50 **(C)** Predicted align error of the AlphaFold-
Multimer prediction from A). Expected position error (Angstroms) is graphed. **(D)** AlphaFold
Multimer prediction of *Xenopus* TEDC1, TEDC2, TUBD1, TUBE1 **(E)** AlphaFold-Multimer
prediction from E) colored according to pLDDT. Very high: pLDDT > 90. High: 90 > pLDDT > 70.
Low: 70 > pLDDT > 50. Very low: pLDDT <50 **(F)** Predicted align error of the AlphaFold-
Multimer prediction from D). Expected position error (Angstroms) is graphed.
570
Figure 4. Mutant centrioles elongate in G2 but fail to recruit central core proteins and
have an expanded proximal region
(A) Lengths of expanded centrioles (um) from cells of the indicated cell cycle stages. Cells were
synchronized in S/G2/M and S-phase cells were marked with PCNA. The expansion factor was
approximately 4x (see Fig 4 - Supp fig 1). **(B)** U-ExM images of nuclei and centrioles from cells
of the indicated cell cycle stages and genotypes, used for quantification in A). Nuclei were
stained for PCNA, scale bar = 25 um. Cells in S phase had punctate PCNA staining. Centrioles
were stained for acetylated tubulin, scale bar = 1 um. **(C)** U-ExM of centrioles in S or G2 phase
stained with monoE (GT335) antibody. **(D)** U-ExM of control centrioles in S or G2 phase stained
with acetylated tubulin and polyE antibodies **(E) i)** U-ExM of centrioles in G2 phase stained with
acetylated tubulin (cyan) and POC5 (magenta) antibodies. POC5 is present in the central core
of control procentrioles and *de novo* centrioles, and absent from mutants. Scale bar = 1 um. **(ii)**
U-ExM of centrioles in G2 phase stained with acetylated tubulin (cyan) and WDR90 (magenta)
antibodies. WDR90 is present in the central core of control procentrioles and *de novo* centrioles,
and absent from mutants. Scale bar = 1 um. **(F, G, H, I)** U-ExM of centrioles in S and G2 phase
stained for acetylated tubulin (cyan) or monoE (GT335, cyan) and the following antibodies in

magenta: F) SASS6, G) CEP135, H) STIL, I) CPAP. In control centrioles, these proteins are limited to the proximal end. In mutant centrioles, these proteins are present at the proximal end in S phase centrioles and elongate throughout the entire centriole in G2 phase. Images were acquired with a Yokogawa CSU-W1 SoRA with 2.8x relay and deconvolved with 10 iterations using Microvolution. Scale bars: 1 um.

Figure 4 - Supplementary figure 1 - Extended analyses of mutant centriole architecture and U-ExM gel expansion factor

(A, B, C, D, E, F) U-ExM of centrioles in S and G2 phase stained for acetylated tubulin (cyan) and the following proteins in magenta: A) CEP44, B) CETN2, C) CP110, D) CEP120, E) gamma-tubulin, F) CEP295. Scale bars = 1 um. Images were acquired with a Yokogawa CSU-W1 SoRA with 2.8x relay and deconvolved with 10 iterations using Microvolution.
(G) Measurements of the widths of parental centrioles from each experiment as a readout of expansion factor, including the cell cycle analyses in Fig 4A and Fig 4B. Centriole widths were a mean of 1.0 um, corresponding to a four-fold expansion factor.

Figure 4 - Supplementary figure 2 - Total protein levels of centrosomal proteins are unchanged in mutant cells

(A) Western blot of control (RPE1 *p53*$^{-/-}$), *Tedc1*$^{-/-}$, *Tedc2*$^{-/-}$, *Tubd1*$^{-/-}$, *Tube1*$^{-/-}$, *Sas6*$^{-/-}$ cell lysates, immunoblotted for SAS6. Total protein stain (Revert) serves as a loading control. **(B)** Western blot of control (RPE1 *p53*$^{-/-}$), *Tedc1*$^{-/-}$, *Tedc2*$^{-/-}$, *Tubd1*$^{-/-}$, *Tube1*$^{-/-}$ cell lysates, immunoblotted for STIL. Total protein stain (Revert) serves as a loading control. **(C)** Western blot of control (RPE1 *p53*$^{-/-}$), *Tedc1*$^{-/-}$, *Tedc2*$^{-/-}$, *Tubd1*$^{-/-}$, *Tube1*$^{-/-}$ cell lysates, immunoblotted for CPAP. Total protein stain (Revert) serves as a loading control. **(D)** Western blot of control (RPE1 *p53*$^{-/-}$), *Tedc1*$^{-/-}$, *Tedc2*$^{-/-}$, *Tubd1*$^{-/-}$, *Tube1*$^{-/-}$ cell lysates, immunoblotted for POC5. Total protein stain (Revert) serves as a loading control.

Fig 5. Mutant centrioles elongate further in mitosis before fragmenting

U-ExM of centrioles stained for monoE (GT335, cyan), CP110 (yellow) and SASS6 (magenta).
(A) A prometaphase cell with centrioles formed *de novo* **(B)** An anaphase cell with centrioles formed *de novo* **(C)** A prometaphase *Tubd1*$^{-/-}$ cell **(D)** A telophase *Tubd1*$^{-/-}$ cell **(E)** A prometaphase *Tube1*$^{-/-}$ cell **(F)** An anaphase *Tube1*$^{-/-}$ cell. Scale bars: 1 um. Images were acquired with a Yokogawa CSU-W1 SoRA with 2.8x relay.

Materials and Methods

Cell lines and cell culture

hTERT RPE-1 $TP53^{-/-}$ cells were a gift from Meng-Fu Bryan Tsou (Memorial Sloan Kettering Cancer Center) and were cultured in DMEM/F-12 (Corning) supplemented with 10% Cosmic Calf Serum (CCS; HyClone). HEK293T cells for lentivirus production (see below) were obtained from the ATCC and cultured in DMEM (Corning) supplemented with 10% CCS. hTERT RPE-1 and HEK293T/17 cells were authenticated using STR profiling using CODIS loci. All other cell lines used were derived from hTERT RPE-1 $TP53^{-/-}$ cells. Stable $Tp53^{-/-}$; $Tedc1^{-/-}$ and $Tp53^{-/-}$; $Tedc2^{-/-}$ knockout cell lines were made in the hTERT RPE-1 $Tp53^{-/-}$ cells by CRISPR/Cas9 (see below). For rescue experiments, clonal knockout cell lines were rescued using lentiviral transduction (see below). All cells were cultured at 37°C under 5% CO_2, and are mycoplasma-free (Uphoff and Drexler, 2011).

Generation of $Tedc1^{-/-}$ and $Tedc2^{-/-}$ cells and rescue cell lines

$Tedc1^{-/-}$ and $Tedc2^{-/-}$ cells were generated by CRISPR/Cas9 mediated gene editing using a recombinantly produced, purified Cas9 protein (Cas9-NLS, QB3 Macrolab, Berkeley) and chemically synthetized two-component gRNA (crRNA:tracrRNA, Alt-R CRISPR-Cas9 system, IDT). For increased efficiency, two gRNAs, both targeting the 5' end of each gene, were used at the same time. Target sequences were: 5'-CGCCAAGTTCGACCGTCCGG-3' and 5'-CGTCCAATCACCGCACGGGC-3' for TEDC1, and 5'-CGCACAGCGACAATTGCAAT-3' and 5'-CACCGGCGCGAGCAGCCCGC-3' for TEDC2.

Lyophilized RNA oligos were reconstituted according to the instructions provided by the manufacturer (IDT). Briefly, oligos were reconstituted in the duplex buffer at a concentration of 200 μM. To anneal crRNA with tracrRNA, 3 μl of each (600 pmol) were mixed, heated to 95°C, and transferred to room temperature to gradually cool. Pre-complexed crRNA and tracrRNA (550 pmol) were mixed with purified Cas9 (360 pmol), diluted with PBS to a total volume of 25 μl and incubated for 15 min at room temperature to form ribonucloprotein complexes (RNPs).

RPE1 $Tp53^{-/-}$ cells stably expressing GFP-centrin (Wang et al., 2017) were electroporated in a home-made electroporation buffer (Zhang et al., 2014) using Amaxa Nucleofector II (Lonza). Cells were electroporated with an equal mix of two RNPs: 50 μl of RNPs mixture was added to 2 x 10^6 cells in 200 μl electroporation buffer. To facilitate the identification of electroporated cells, an mRuby2 expressing plasmid (pcDNA3-mRuby2, plasmid pTS3994) was electroporated together with RNPs.

Two days after electroporation, cells expressing mRuby2 were sorted using FACS, and single cells were plated into 96 well plates in conditioned media. Surviving clones were genotyped by PCR of genomic DNA and screened for phenotype based on centrin-GFP expression.

662 Primers used for genotyping were: 5'CCCTGCCGACGCAGTGATTGG3' and
663 5'CAGGGAGTGGCGAGAGCACAC3' for TEDC1 and 5' CTTGCCCGCAAGGAGGGAGAGA3'
664 and 5'GCAGGGCCCAGCCCAAACAGA3' for TEDC2.
665
666 To rescue the mutations, Halo-3xFlag-tagged TEDC1 or APEX-V5-tagged TEDC2 were
667 introduced into the mutant cells using lentiviral transduction as described below.
668
Lentivirus production and viral transduction
Recombinant lentiviruses were made by cotransfection of HEK293T cells with the respective
transfer vectors (TEDC1-Halotag-3xFlag and TEDC2-V5-APEX2), second-generation lentiviral
cassettes (packaging vector psPAX2, pTS3312 and envelope vector pMD2.G, pTS3313) using
calcium phosphate-mediated transfection. Briefly, transfection mixture was made with CaCl2, 2x
HBS (50 mM Hepes, 10 mM KCl, 12 mM dextrose, 280 mM NaCl, 1.5 mM Na2HPO4x7H2O, pH
7.05), and plasmids. Cells were treated with 25 uM chloroquine immediately before transfection,
then the transfection mixture was added to cells. The medium was changed 5-6 h after
transfection, and viral supernatant was harvested after an additional 48 and 72 h. Recipient
cells (RPE-1 $Tp53^{-/-}; Tedc1^{-/-}$ and $Tp53^{-/-}; Tedc2^{-/-}$ and $Tp53^{-/-}; Tubd1^{-/-}$ and $Tp53^{-/-};$
$Tube1^{-/-}$) were transduced with viral supernatant and 8 ug/mL Sequabrene. Transduced cells
were expanded to 10-cm dishes.
681
Immunofluorescence
Cells were grown on poly-L-lysine-coated #1.5 glass coverslips (Electron Microscopy Sciences).
Cells were fixed with −20°C methanol for 15 min. Coverslips were then washed with PBS for 10
min and blocked with PBS-BT (3% BSA, 0.1% Triton X-100, 0.02% sodium azide in PBS) for 30
min. Coverslips were incubated with primary antibodies diluted in PBS-BT for 1 hr, washed with
PBS-BT, incubated with secondary antibodies and DAPI diluted in PBS-BT for 1 hr, then
washed again. Samples were mounted using Mowiol (Polysciences) in glycerol containing 1,4,-
diazobicycli-[2.2.2]octane (DABCO, Sigma-Aldrich) antifade.
690
Cell cycle synchronization
For cell cycle analyses in Fig 1, cells were seeded onto coverslips, then synchronized in G0/G1
by serum withdrawal for 24 hr, or in G2 with 10 µM RO-3306 (Adipogen) for 24 hr. Cells were
fixed for immunofluorescence and analyzed for centrin/CP110 presence.
For Fig 4 and 5, mitotic shakeoff was performed on asynchronously growing cells. One pre-
shake was performed to improve synchronization. Cells were fixed for U-ExM and expanded as
below.

Ultrastructure expansion microscopy (U-ExM)

Cells were grown on poly-D-lysine-coated #1.5 glass coverslips (Electron Microscopy Sciences)

and fixed with −20°C methanol for 15 min, then washed with PBS. U-ExM was performed as

previously described (Gambarotto et al., 2019): coverslips were incubated overnight in an

acrylamide–formaldehyde anchoring solution (AA/FA; 0.7% formaldehyde, 1% acrylamide in

PBS) at 37°C. Gelation was allowed to proceed in monomer solution (19% sodium acrylate,

10% acrylamide, 0.1% bis-acrylamide, 0.5% ammonium persulfate-APS, 0.5% TEMED) for 1

hour at 37°C. Gels were heated in denaturation buffer (200 mM SDS, 200 mM NaCl, 50 mM

Tris-HCl pH 9) at 95°C for 1 h. After denaturation buffer was removed, gels were washed with

multiple water rinses and allowed to expand in water at room temperature overnight. Small

circles of each expanded gel (~5 mm in diameter) were excised and incubated with primary

antibodies diluted in PBS-BT (3% BSA, 0.1% Triton X-100 in PBS) on a nutator at 4°C

overnight. (Exception: the WDR90 antibody was incubated at 37°C overnight, as reported in
Steib et al., 2020). The next day, gels were washed three times with PBS-BT buffer and
incubated with secondary antibodies and 5 μg/ml DAPI diluted in PBS-BT, protected from light,
on a nutator at 4°C overnight. Immunostained gels were washed once with PBS and at least
three times with water, and placed in a glass-bottomed 35 mm plate for imaging. All U-ExM
images were acquired as z-stacks collected at 0.27-μm intervals using a confocal Zeiss Axio
Observer microscope (Carl Zeiss) with a PlanApoChromat 1.4 NA 63× oil immersion objective, a
Yokogawa CSU-W1 (Fig 2) or Yokogawa CSU-W1 SoRA head with 2.8x relay (Fig 4, 5) and a
Photometrics Prime BSI express CMOS camera. Slidebook software (Intelligent Imaging
Innovations, 3i) was used to control the microscope system. Deconvolution was performed with
Microvolution (Cupertino, CA) using a calculated point spread function (PSF) for 10 iterations.
ImageJ (FIJI) was used for image analysis (Schindelin et al., 2012). For measuring centriole
width or length, z-stacks of U-ExM images were measured using ImageJ (FIJI) on maximum
projections. Only centrioles that were in perfect longitudinal or cross-section were measured.
Three measurements were made per centriole and averaged.

Transmission electron microscopy. For ultrastructural analysis of centrosomes by TEM,
RPE-1 *p53*^{-/-} *; Tedc1*^{-/-} and RPE-1 *p53*^{-/-} *; Tedc2*^{-/-} cells were synchronized in G2/M with 10 uM
RO-3306 for 24 hrs. Cells were trypsinized, resuspended in complete media and centrifuged at
800g for 5 min. The pellet was collected in a 14-mL tube and fixed in 2%
paraformaldehyde/2.5% glutaraldehyde (Ted Pella Inc., Redding, CA) in 100 mM cacodylate
buffer, pH 7.2 for 2 hr at room temperature. Samples were washed in cacodylate buffer and
postfixed in 1% osmium tetroxide (Ted Pella Inc.)/1.5% potassium ferricyanide (Sigma, St.
Louis, MO) for 1 hr. Samples were then rinsed extensively in dH$_2$O prior to en bloc staining with
1% aqueous uranyl acetate (Ted Pella Inc.) for 1 hr. Following several rinses in dH$_2$O, samples
were dehydrated in a graded series of ethanol and embedded in Eponate 12 resin (Ted Pella
Inc.). Ultrathin sections of 95 nm were cut with a Leica Ultracut UCT ultramicrotome (Leica
Microsystems Inc., Bannockburn, IL), stained with uranyl acetate and lead citrate, and viewed
on a JEOL 1200 EX transmission electron microscope (JEOL USA Inc., Peabody, MA)
equipped with an AMT 8 megapixel digital camera and AMT Image Capture Engine V602
software (Advanced Microscopy Techniques, Woburn, MA).
741
TEDC1 and TEDC2 pulldowns
Cells stably expressing TEDC1-Halotag-3xFlag or TEDC2-V5-APEX2 were lysed in 50 mM Tris
pH7.5, 150 mM NaCl, 1% Triton X-100, 1 mM DTT, Halt protease and phosphatase inhibitor
cocktail (ThermoFisher Scientific) for 30 minutes on ice, then cleared by centrifugation at 21,000
g for 20 min. Protein concentration was determined by Pierce BCA Protein Assay - Reducing
Agent Compatible (ThermoFisher Scientific). Each cell lysate was incubated with 25 uL of
equilibrated Chromotek Halo-Trap Magnetic Agarose (Proteintech) or Chromotek V5-Trap
Magnetic Agarose (Proteintech) for 1 h at 4C on a nutator. Beads were washed using a
magnetic separator rack. Elution was performed by adding 80 uL of 2x SDS loading buffer (100
mM Tris pH 6.8, 4% SDS, 20% glycerol, 100 mM DTT), boiling the beads for 5 min at 95C, then
separating the eluate with a magnetic separator rack. Samples were loaded on SDS-PAGE and
transferred for Western blotting.
754
Western blotting
For Fig 4 - Supp 2, samples were lysed in 50 mM Tris pH7.5, 150 mM NaCl, 1% Triton X-100, 1
mM DTT, Halt protease and phosphatase inhibitor cocktail (ThermoFisher Scientific) for 30
minutes on ice, then cleared by centrifugation at 21,000 g for 20 min. Protein concentration was
determined by Pierce BCA Protein Assay - Reducing Agent Compatible (ThermoFisher
Scientific). Equal amounts of protein (20 to 40 ug) was loaded per lane. For Fig 3, samples were
loaded after pulldowns.
762
Proteins were separated by SDS-PAGE and transferred to nitrocellulose (LiCOR Biosciences) in
transfer buffer (192 mM Glycine, 25 mM Tris, 20% ethanol). Membranes were blocked with 5%
milk in TBST (137 mM NaCl, 25 mM Tris, 2.7 mM KCl, 0.1% Tween-20) at room temp for 1 h,
then washed three times with TBST for 5 min each wash. Membranes were incubated with
primary antibodies overnight at 4C on a nutator. The next day, membranes were washed three
times with TBST for 5 min each wash and incubated with secondary antibodies at room
temperature for 2.5 hours. Membranes were washed again with TBST for 5 min each wash and

then imaged with the LiCOR Odyssey XF imager and analyzed using Image Studio (LiCOR
Biosciences). Each experiment was performed in triplicate.
772

Antibodies
Primary antibodies used for immunofluorescence and U-ExM and dilutions in PBS-BT: mouse
IgG2b anti-acetylated-tubulin, clone 6-11B-1 (1:1000,Sigma-Aldrich Cat# T6793,
RRID:AB_477585), rabbit anti-acetyl-α-tubulin (Lys40) (1:100, Cell Signaling Technology Cat#
5335, RRID:AB_10544694), mouse IgG2b anti-centrin3, clone 3e6 (1:1000, Novus Biological,
RRID:AB_537701), mouse IgG2a anti-centrin, clone 20H5 (IF 1:200, UExM 1:500, EMD
Millipore, RRID:AB_10563501), rat anti-Cep120 (1:1000, gift from Moe Mahjoub (Betleja et al.,
2018)), rabbit anti-Cep135 (1:500, Proteintech Cat# 24428-1-AP, RRID:AB_2879543), rabbit
anti-Cep295 (1:1000, Sigma-Aldrich Cat# HPA038596, RRID:AB_10672720), rabbit anti-Cep44
(1:100, Proteintech Cat# 24457-1-AP, RRID:AB_2879557), rabbit anti-CENPJ (1:500,
Proteintech Cat# 11517-1-AP, RRID:AB_2244605), rabbit anti-CP110 (IF 1:200, UExM 1:2000,
Proteintech Cat# 12780-1-AP, RRID:AB_10638480), mouse IgG1 anti-Flag, clone M2 (1:500,
Sigma-Aldrich Cat# F1804, RRID:AB_262044), mouse IgG1 anti-gamma-tubulin, clone GTU-88
(IF 1:1000, UExM 1:500, Sigma-Aldrich, RRID:AB_477584), mouse IgG2a anti-PCNA (1:500,
BioLegend, RRID:AB_314692), rabbit anti-POC5 (for IF: 1:500, Bethyl Laboratories,
RRID:AB_10949152), rabbit anti-POC5 (for U-ExM: 1:500, Thermo Fisher Scientific Cat# A303-
341A (also A303-341A-T), RRID:AB_10971172), mouse IgG1 anti-polyglutamylation, clone
GT335 (1:500, AdipoGen Cat# AG-20B-0020, RRID:AB_2490210), rabbit anti-polyglutamate-
chain, polyE (1:500, AdipoGen Cat# AG-25B-0030, RRID:AB_2490540), mouse IgG2b anti-
SASS6 (1:200, Santa Cruz Cat# sc-81431, RRID:AB_1128357), rabbit anti-STIL (1:500, Abcam
Cat# ab89314, RRID:AB_2197878), mouse IgG2a anti-V5 (1:00, Thermo Fisher Scientific Cat#
R960-25, RRID:AB_2556564), rabbit anti-WDR90 (1:100, Thermo Fisher Scientific Cat# PA5-
61943, RRID:AB_2649628).
796

For immunofluorescence and U-ExM, AlexaFluor conjugated secondary antibodies (Thermo-
Fisher) were diluted 1:1000 in PBS-BT. Goat anti-Mouse IgG1, 488 (1:1000, Thermo Fisher
Scientific Cat# A-21121, RRID:AB_2535764), Goat anti-Mouse IgG2a, 488 (1:1000, Thermo
Fisher Scientific Cat# A-21131, RRID:AB_2535771), Goat anti-Mouse IgG2b, 488 (1:1000,
Thermo Fisher Scientific Cat# A-21141, RRID:AB_2535778), Goat anti-rabbit IgG (H+L), 488
(1:1000, Thermo Fisher Scientific Cat# A-11034 (also A11034), RRID:AB_2576217), Goat anti-
Mouse IgG1, 568 (1:500, Thermo Fisher Scientific Cat# A-21124, RRID:AB_2535766), Goat
anti-Mouse IgG2a, 568 (1:500, Thermo Fisher Scientific Cat# A-21134, RRID:AB_2535773),
Goat anti-Mouse IgG2b, 568 (1:500, Thermo Fisher Scientific Cat# A-21144,
RRID:AB_2535780), Goat anti-rabbit IgG (H+L), 568 (1:500, Thermo Fisher Scientific Cat# A-
11036 (also A11036), RRID:AB_10563566), Goat anti-Mouse IgG3, 594 (1:500, Thermo Fisher
Scientific Cat# A-21155, RRID:AB_2535785), Goat anti-rat IgG (H+L), 594 (1:500,Thermo
Fisher Scientific Cat# A-11007 (also A11007), RRID:AB_10561522), Goat anti-Mouse IgG1,
647 (1:500, Thermo Fisher Scientific Cat# A-21240, RRID:AB_2535809), Goat anti-Mouse
IgG2a, 647 (1:500, Thermo Fisher Scientific Cat# A-21241, RRID:AB_2535810), Goat anti-
Mouse IgG2b, 647 (1:500, Thermo Fisher Scientific Cat# A-21242, RRID:AB_2535811), Goat
anti-rabbit IgG (H+L), 647 (1:500, Thermo Fisher Scientific Cat# A32733, RRID:AB_2633282)

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Figure 1

Figure 1 - Supp 1

Figure 2

Figure 2 - Supp 1

A *p53*$^{-/-}$; Halotag-Flag

CETN | CETN
TEDC1 | TEDC1
TEDC1 | SASS6
SASS6

B *p53*$^{-/-}$; V5-APEX2

CETN | CETN
TEDC2 | TEDC2
TEDC2 | SASS6
SASS6

C Ac tub | Tedc1 | Merge

D Ac tub | Tedc2 | Merge

Figure 2 - Supp 2

Figure 2 - Supp 3

Figure 3

Figure 3 - Supp 1

Figure 4

Figure 4 - Supp 1

Figure 4 - Supp 2

Figure 5