1 **A delta-tubulin/epsilon-tubulin/Ted protein complex is required for centriole**
2 **architecture**
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11
12 ## Abstract
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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 and 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 find that
mutant centrioles elongate to the same length as control centrioles in G2-phase. These mutants
fail to recruit inner scaffold proteins of the central core and have an expanded proximal region.
During mitosis, the mutant centrioles elongate further before fragmenting and disintegrating. All
four proteins physically interact and TEDC1 and TEDC2 are capable forming a subcomplex in
the absence of the tubulins. These results support an AlphaFold Multimer model of the tetramer
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. Our results demonstrate that delta-tubulin, epsilon-tubulin,
TEDC1, and TEDC2 function together to promote robust centriole architecture. This work also
lays the groundwork for future molecular studies of this complex, providing a basis for
determining the mechanisms that underlie the assembly and interplay between the triplet
microtubules and inner centriole structure.

Introduction

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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).
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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.
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The compound microtubules are directly linked to many of the substructures at the proximal,
central, and distal regions within centrioles. At the proximal end, the cartwheel, a ninefold
symmetric hub and spokes made from SASS6 and associated proteins, 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). Multiple
cartwheels are stacked within the centriole lumen to a height of approximately one-third of the
entire centriole length (~170 nm in human centrioles) (Klena et al., 2020). The A-tubule of one
triplet is connected to the C-tubule of the adjacent triplet through a structure known as the A-C
linker. Recently CCDC77, WDR67, and MIIP were identified to be components of the A-C
linkers (Bournonville et al., 2024; Laporte et al., 2024). Within the central core, a helical inner
scaffold 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 in G2-phase of the first cell cycle after centriole birth, is
composed of POC5, POC1B, FAM161A, WDR90, and CCDC15 and contacts all three (A-, B-,
and C-) tubules of the triplet (Arslanhan et al., 2023; Laporte et al., 2024; Le Guennec et al.,
2020; 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; Laporte et al., 2024; Le Borgne et al., 2022;
Spektor et al., 2007). The connections between the compound microtubules and these distal
end proteins are not well-understood.
86
Canonically, centriole formation in cycling cells is "templated," in which one newly formed
procentriole is created at the proximal end of each pre-existing parental centriole in S-phase,
resulting in four centrioles within the cell. During the first 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 (Sullenberger et al., 2020; Tischer et al., 2021). Under experimental manipulations
in which the parental centrioles are ablated, centrioles can also form *de novo* in S-phase. *De*
novo centriole formation can result in more than five centrioles per cell and has been shown to
be error-prone (Wang et al., 2015), perhaps indicating differences in centriole structure or
regulation. The composition and architecture of centrioles made in this manner has not been
systematically characterized.
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Here, we extend our original work by defining the roles of two additional proteins, TEDC1 and
TEDC2, that regulate triplet microtubule formation and stability. These proteins physically
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). We
created $TEDC1^{-/-}$ or $TEDC2^{-/-}$ mutant cells in the same background as the $TUBD1^{-/-}$ and $TUBE1^{-}$
$^{/-}$ mutants and found that these cells phenocopy loss of TUBD1 or TUBE1. All four proteins
interact in a complex. We find that the compound microtubules are required for recruiting the
helical inner scaffold and correctly positioning the proximal end. As part of our analysis, we also
determine the composition and architecture of centrioles formed *de novo* and find that these are
very similar to those of procentrioles formed by templated centriole duplication. Together, these
results indicate that compound microtubules are required for scaffolding substructures within
centrioles and maintaining 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
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 *TP53*$^{-/-}$, which will be
referred to as 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 (CETN) 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, Fig 1 – Supp 1).
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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 (Fig 1G).
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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.
These centrioles had cartwheels and pinheads, but A-C linkers were not visible (Fig 1E,F, Fig 1
– Supp 2). 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.
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TEDC1 and TEDC2 localize to centrosomes
Next, we investigated the localization of TEDC1 and TEDC2 to determine if they may directly
act on centrosomes. TEDC1 and TEDC2 are expressed at low levels in cells (Fig 1 – Supp 1),
and we could not reproducibly localize the endogenous proteins with antibody staining. Instead,
we localized the functional, tagged proteins in our rescue cell lines. We found that the tagged
rescue constructs localize to centrosomes, (Fig 2A and 2B) and the antibodies for the tags were
specific (Fig 2 - Supp Fig 1E-J). 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.
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To analyze TEDC1 and TEDC2 localization at higher resolution, we localized our tagged rescue
constructs using three methods: a super-resolution spinning disk confocal microscope with
immunofluorescence microscopy (Fig 2 – Supp Fig 1A,B), ultrastructure expansion microscopy
(U-ExM, (Gambarotto et al., 2019), Fig 2C, D), and a second expansion microscopy method
(Kong et al., 2024, Fig 2 - Supp 1C, D). With all three methods, we observed that both proteins
localize to procentrioles and the proximal ends of parental centrioles. At these regions, both
proteins overlap with the centriolar microtubules. Together, these results show that TEDC1 and
TEDC2 localize to centrosomes and likely directly act upon them.
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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).

Together, these experiments indicate that TEDC1, TEDC2, TUBD1 and TUBE1 physically interact with each other, as previously reported (Breslow et al., 2018; Huttlin et al., 2017; Huttlin et al., 2021). Furthermore, TEDC1 and TEDC2 can form a subcomplex in the absence of either tubulin.

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, Fig 3 – Supp 1A). A similar prediction was obtained with the newly released AlphaFold 3 (Abramson et al., 2024)(Fig 3 – Supp 1B). 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
1C), 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 1D).

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). Given the size and shape of the
tetrameric complex as predicted by AlphaFold-Multimer, it is possible that these may form a
structural component of centrioles. Future work will be necessary to test these possibilities.
Together, our experiments indicate that TEDC1, TEDC2, TUBD1 and TUBE1 physically interact
in a complex and are recruited together to centrioles.

Loss of TEDC1, TEDC2, TUBD1 or TUBE1 results in centrioles with aberrant
ultrastructure

Next, we determined how the loss of these proteins, and the triplet microtubules themselves,
affect centriole ultrastructure and protein composition. Because centrioles are constitutively
formed *de novo* every cell cycle in our mutant cells, we incorporated two controls in 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. For each of the 2 control and 4 mutant cell lines, cells were
synchronized by mitotic shake off, resulting in coverslips enriched for cells in late S and G2
phases, with a minor population in M phase. Synchronized cells were then expanded using U-
ExM and stained for centriolar markers.

We first tested whether the microtubules of mutant centrioles could be modified by acetylation of
alpha-tubulin. 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.

We next tested whether mutant centrioles were capable of elongating during the cell cycle. In
our expansion gels of cells enriched in late S and G2 phases, we used PCNA to mark S-phase
cells and co-stained with acetylated tubulin to mark centrioles. Similar to a recently published
report, we also found a range of centriole lengths in S- and G2-phases (Laporte et al., 2024). 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). By contrast, mutant centriole widths did not increase and centrioles remained narrow,
as we previously reported (Fig 4 – Supp 5 and Wang et al., 2017). These results indicate that
centrioles with singlet microtubules can elongate to the same overall length as control centrioles

in G2 phase. 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).
257
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 checked glutamylation, a post-translational modification thought to be restricted to
the outer surface of centrioles (Guichard et al., 2023). 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 (Hamel et al., 2017).
In human centrioles, polyglutamylation is enriched in the proximal and central regions, and is
absent in the distal region (Gambarotto et al., 2019; Mahecic et al., 2020; Sullenberger 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 or *de novo* centrioles in the first cell cycle after
their formation, 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,
similar to previous reports (Sullenberger et al., 2020), our results suggest that centriole
glutamylation is a multi-step process, in which long glutamate side chains are added later during
centriole maturation.
277
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 also previously reported (Laporte et
al., 2024), we failed to 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 whether gamma-
tubulin, which is recruited to the lumen of centrioles by the inner scaffold, was mislocalized in
mutant centrioles.
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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 centrioles in S-phase. In control centrioles in G2-phase, SASS6 was
restricted to just the proximal end. Surprisingly, SASS6 was elongated in all G2-phase mutant
centrioles (Fig 4F, Fig 4 – Supp 4). We observed a similar phenotype with multiple other
proximal-end proteins: CEP135, STIL, CPAP, and CEP44 (Fig 4G-I, Fig 4 - Supp 1, Fig 4 –
Supp 3), 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 within mutant centrioles.
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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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317   **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 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 to be 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).
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, centrioles elongate in early mitosis to form an aberrant
intermediate structure, followed by fragmentation in late mitosis.
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345 **Discussion**
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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.
363
While the molecular mechanisms underlying the function of this complex are unknown, an
attractive model is that the tetrameric complex forms a structural component of centrioles. Our
AlphaFold models indicate that such a structure would be approximately 13 nm in length and 6
nm in width. Within procentrioles and the proximal region of the parental centriole, it is possible
that these four proteins help form the A-C linker, the pinhead, or the triplet base. Recently,
components of the A-C linker have been identified (Bournonville et al., 2024; Laporte et al.,
2024), and three of the proteins in our complex (TEDC2, TUBD1, and TUBE1) had shared co-
dependencies with A-C linker components using DepMap (Bournonville et al., 2024). The A-C
linker is lost from our mutant centrioles, but it is not clear whether this is because these proteins
have a direct role in forming A-C linkers or whether this reflects an indirect role of the triplet
microtubules in stabilizing A-C linkers. We note that it is also possible that only some proteins of
the complex, such as delta-tubulin and epsilon-tubulin, form structural components of centrioles,
or that the complex may interact transiently with centrioles. Future experiments will reveal the
mechanisms by which these proteins act.
378
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.
393
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). It is possible 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. Recently, loss of the inner scaffold protein POC1A has been shown to result in
centrioles with extended regions of some proximal proteins, including CEP44, CEP135, and
CEP295, indicating that the inner scaffold regulates the extent of these proteins (Sala et al.,
2024). Interestingly, unlike our mutant centrioles which have singlet microtubules, $POC1A^{-/-}$
mutant centrioles can form triplet microtubules and do not have extended SASS6 staining (Sala
et al., 2024). This suggests that the height of the cartwheel may be regulated by the triplet
microtubules. The cartwheel and centriolar microtubules have been proposed to assemble
interdependently to impart ninefold symmetry upon the centriole (Hilbert et al., 2016), and it is
possible that interdependent assembly also regulates the height of the cartwheel.
414
415 Many aspects of centriole architecture, including formation of the distal tip, centriole length
416 regulation prior to mitosis, acquisition of post-translational modifications, establishment of
417 proximal-distal polarity, and recruitment of proteins required for centriole-to-centrosome
418 conversion, are unaffected in mutant centrioles. These results indicate that the proteins that
419 regulate these processes can act upon the A-tubule independently of the B- and C-tubules.
420
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., 2024; 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, (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.
447
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.
463
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 $TP53^{-/-}$), $TEDC1^{-/-}$ (RPE1 $TP53^{-/-}$; $TEDC1^{-/-}$),
TEDC1 Rescued (RPE1 $TP53^{-/-}$; $TEDC1^{-/-}$; TEDC1-Halotag-3xflag), $TEDC2^{-/-}$ (RPE1 $TP53^{-/-}$;
$TEDC2^{-/-}$), TEDC2 Rescued (RPE1 $TP53^{-/-}$; $TEDC2^{-/-}$; 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 (CETN); 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 all centrioles (parental,
pro, and *de novo* centrioles) in indicated cell types positive for SASS6 staining. Each condition
was performed in triplicate, with 200 cells scored for each. (D) Percent of all centrioles (parental,
pro, and *de novo* centrioles) in indicated cell types positive for CEP164 staining. Each condition
was performed in triplicate, with 100 cells scored for each. **(E)** TEM cross-section of a centriole
in a G2-phase $TEDC1^{-/-}$ cell. Scale bar: 100 nm **(F)** TEM cross-section of a centriole in a G2-
phase $TEDC2^{-/-}$ cell. Scale bar: 100 nm **(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 $TP53^{-/-}$ 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 $TP53^{-/-}$ 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 $TP53^{-/-}$ cells, the $TEDC1^{-/-}$ mutant, and TEDC1 Rescued (RPE1 $TP53^{-/-}$; $TEDC1^{-/-}$;
TEDC1-Halotag-3xflag) cells. Top: PCR for TEDC1. Bottom: PCR for Halotag. **(D)** Genotyping
PCR of the TEDC2 locus in parental $TP53^{-/-}$ cells, the $TEDC1^{-/-}$ mutant, and TEDC2 Rescued
(RPE1 $TP53^{-/-}$; $TEDC2^{-/-}$; TEDC2-V5-APEX2) cells. Top: PCR for TEDC2. Bottom: PCR for
APEX2. **(E)** Western blot of TEDC1 protein levels in parental $TP53^{-/-}$ cells, the $TEDC1^{-/-}$ mutant,
and TEDC1 Rescued (RPE1 $TP53^{-/-}$; $TEDC1^{-/-}$; TEDC1-Halotag-3xflag) cells. Total protein
stain is used as a loading control. TEDC1-Halotag-3xFlag is overexpressed 73-fold above
endogenous levels (average of 3 independent experiments). Asterisks mark non-specific bands.
(F) Western blot of TEDC2 protein levels in parental $TP53^{-/-}$ cells, the $TEDC2^{-/-}$ mutant, and
TEDC2 Rescued (RPE1 $TP53^{-/-}$; $TEDC2^{-/-}$; TEDC2-V5-APEX2) cells. Total protein stain is used
as a loading control. TEDC2-V5-APEX2 is overexpressed 26-fold above endogenous levels
(average of 3 independent experiments). Asterisks mark non-specific bands.

Figure 1 - Supplementary Figure 2. Symmetrization of *TEDC1*^-/- and *TEDC2*^-/- mutant
centrioles

Original (left) and symmetrized (right) images of TEM images of *TEDC1*^-/- and *TEDC2*^-/-
centrioles. The first image is the same as that in Fig 1E, the last image is the same as that in Fig
1F. The middle image is an additional centriole from the *TEDC1*^-/- mutant cells.

Figure 2. Tedc1 and Tedc2 localize to centrioles

(A) Immunofluorescence staining of Tedc1 rescue cell lines expressing TEDC1-Halotag-3xFlag
in G1, S/G2, and M. Images are maximum projections of confocal stacks. Blue: DAPI; Cyan:
Centrin; Magenta: TEDC1-Halotag-3xFlag (localized with anti-Flag antibody); Yellow: SASS6.
Scale bar: 5 um. **(B)** Immunofluorescence staining of Tedc2 rescue cell lines expressing
TEDC2-V5-APEX2 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-V5-APEX2 (localized with anti-V5 antibody); Yellow: SASS6. Scale bar: 5 um.
(C) U-ExM of Tedc1 rescue cell lines expressing TEDC1-Halotag-3xFlag, arranged by
procentriole length. Cyan: Acetylated tubulin; Magenta: TEDC1-Halotag-3xFlag (localized with
anti-Flag antibody). Confocal image stacks were deconvolved using Microvolution; single plane
images shown. Scale bar: 1 um. **(D)** U-ExM of Tedc2 rescue cell lines expressing TEDC2-V5-
APEX2, arranged by procentriole length. Cyan: Acetylated tubulin; Magenta: TEDC2-V5-APEX2
(localized with anti-V5 antibody). Confocal image stacks were acquired with a Yokogawa CSU-
W1 spinning disk microscope and deconvolved using Microvolution; single plane images shown.
Scale bar: 1 um.

Figure 2 - Supplementary Figure 1. Extended localization analyses of TEDC1 and TEDC2

(A) Immunofluorescence staining of a TEDC1 rescue cell in G2 phase expressing TEDC1-
Halotag-3xFlag, super-resolution image using SoRA disk and 2.8x relay. Maximum projection.
Cyan: Centrin (CETN); Magenta: TEDC1-Halotag-3xFlag (localized with anti Flag antibody);
Yellow: SASS6. Scale bar: 0.5 um **(B)** Immunofluorescence staining of a TEDC2 rescue cell in
G2 phase expressing TEDC2-V5-APEX2, super-resolution image using SoRA disk and 2.8x
relay. Maximum projection. Cyan: Centrin (CETN); Magenta: TEDC2-V5-APEX2 (localized with
anti V5 antibody); Yellow: SASS6. Scale bar: 0.5 um **(C)** Expansion microscopy image of
TEDC1 rescue cells expressing TEDC1-Halotag-3xFlag. Expansion gel was made as described
in (Kong et al., 2024). The procentriole is oriented vertically. Cyan: CEP44; Magenta: TEDC1-
Halotag-3xFlag (localized with anti-Flag antibody). Deconvolved using Microvolution; maximum
projection. Scale bar: 1 um. **(D)** Expansion microscopy image of TEDC2 rescue cells expressing
TEDC2-V5-APEX2. Expansion gel was made as described in (Kong et al., 2024). The
procentriole is oriented vertically. Cyan: CEP44; Magenta: TEDC2-V5-APEX2 (localized with
anti-V5 antibody). Deconvolved using Microvolution; maximum projection of confocal stacks.
Scale bar: 1 um. **(E)** Immunofluorescence staining of *TP53*^-/- 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:
Flag; Yellow: SASS6. Scale bar: 5 um. **(F)** Immunofluorescence staining of *TP53*^-/- 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: V5; Yellow:
SASS6. Scale bar: 5 um. **(G)** U-ExM of *TP53*^{-/-} cells expressing Halotag-Flag - negative control
for Fig 2C. Cyan: Acetylated tubulin; Magenta: Flag. 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. **(H)** U-ExM of *TP53*^{-/-} cells expressing V5-APEX2 -
negative control for Fig 2D. Cyan: Acetylated tubulin; Magenta: V5. 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. **(I)** Expansion microscopy image of *TP53*^{-/-} cells
stained with Flag antibody, negative control for Fig 2 – Supp 1C. Cyan: CEP44; Magenta: Flag.
Confocal image stacks were deconvolved using Microvolution; image is a maximum projection
of confocal stack. Scale bar: 1 um. **(J)** Expansion microscopy image of *TP53*^{-/-} stained with V5
antibody, negative control for Fig 2 – Supp 1D. Cyan: CEP44; Magenta: V5. Confocal image
stacks were deconvolved using Microvolution; image is a maximum projection of confocal stack.
Scale bar: 1 um.
573
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-Halotag-3xFlag (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-V5-APEX2
(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. IB: indicates the antibody used for
immunoblotting. The proteins and their positions are labeled on the right. Asterisks mark non-
specific bands. **(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. IB: indicates the antibody used for immunoblotting. The proteins and their
positions are labeled on the right. Asterisks mark non-specific bands. **(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.
595

Fig 3 - Supplementary Figure 1. AlphaFold-Multimer and AlphaFold3 predictions
(Ai) Rotated view of the AlphaFold-Multimer prediction from Fig 3E (120 degrees around the y-axis) **(Aii)** Rotated view colored according to pLDDT. Very high: pLDDT > 90. High: 90 > pLDDT > 70. Low: 70 > pLDDT > 50. Very low: pLDDT <50 **(Aiii)** Rotated view of the AlphaFold-Multimer prediction from Fig 3E (240 degrees around the y-axis) **(Aiv)** Rotated view colored according to pLDDT. Very high: pLDDT > 90. High: 90 > pLDDT > 70. Low: 70 > pLDDT > 50. Very low: pLDDT <50 **(Bi)** AlphaFold3 prediction of the complex **(Bii)** AlphaFold3 prediction colored according to pLDDT. Very high: pLDDT > 90. High: 90 > pLDDT > 70. Low: 70 > pLDDT > 50. Very low: pLDDT <50 **(Biii)** Predicted align error of the AlphaFold3 prediction. Expected position error (Angstroms) is graphed). **(Biv)** Structural alignment between the AlphaFold3 prediction (magenta) and the AlphaFold-Multimer prediction (cyan). Using ChimeraX v1.7.1 Matchmaker, the RMSD between 450 pruned atom pairs is 0.538 angstroms (across all 475 pairs: 0.979). **(Ci)** AlphaFold-Multimer prediction of TEDC1, TEDC2, TUBA1A, TUBB **(Cii)** AlphaFold-Multimer prediction from Ci) colored according to pLDDT. Very high: pLDDT > 90. High: 90 > pLDDT > 70. Low: 70 > pLDDT > 50. Very low: pLDDT <50 **(Ciii)** Predicted align error of the AlphaFold-Multimer prediction from Ci). Expected position error (Angstroms) is graphed. **(Di)** AlphaFold Multimer prediction of *Xenopus* TEDC1, TEDC2, TUBD1, TUBE1 **(Dii)** AlphaFold-Multimer prediction from Di) colored according to pLDDT. Very high: pLDDT > 90. High: 90 > pLDDT > 70. Low: 70 > pLDDT > 50. Very low: pLDDT <50 **(Diii)** Predicted align error of the AlphaFold-Multimer prediction from Di). Expected position error (Angstroms) is graphed.

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 from cells of the indicated cell cycle stages. Lengths were adjusted for the gel expansion factors. Cells were synchronized in S/G2/M and S-phase cells were marked with PCNA. For each genotype, the differences between S and G2 phase centriole lengths are statistically significant (<0.0001, Welch's t-test). **(B)** U-ExM images of centrioles stained for alpha-tubulin and acetylated tubulin. **(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. **(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. **(F, G, H, I)** U-ExM of centrioles in S and G2 phase stained for alpha tubulin (cyan) or acetylated tubulin (Ac.Tub, 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.
648
Figure 4 - Supplementary figure 2 - Total protein levels of centrosomal proteins are
unchanged in mutant cells
(A) Western blot of control (RPE1 $TP53^{-/-}$), $TEDC1^{-/-}$, $TEDC2^{-/-}$, $TUBD1^{-/-}$, $TUBE1^{-/-}$, $SASS6^{-/-}$
cell lysates, immunoblotted for SASS6. Total protein stain (Revert) serves as a loading control.
(B) Western blot of control (RPE1 $TP53^{-/-}$), $TEDC1^{-/-}$, $TEDC2^{-/-}$, $TUBD1^{-/-}$, $TUBE1^{-/-}$ cell lysates,
immunoblotted for STIL. Total protein stain (Revert) serves as a loading control. **(C)** Western
blot of control (RPE1 $TP53^{-/-}$), $TEDC1^{-/-}$, $TEDC2^{-/-}$, $TUBD1^{-/-}$, $TUBE1^{-/-}$ cell lysates,
immunoblotted for CPAP. Total protein stain (Revert) serves as a loading control. **(D)** Western
blot of control (RPE1 $TP53^{-/-}$), $TEDC1^{-/-}$, $TEDC2^{-/-}$, $TUBD1^{-/-}$, $TUBE1^{-/-}$ cell lysates,
immunoblotted for POC5. Total protein stain (Revert) serves as a loading control.
659
Figure 4 - Supplementary figure 3 – Quantification of CEP135 centriolar localization
through S and G2 phase
Mutant centrioles have over-elongated CEP135. A) control procentrioles, n=29 centrioles; B) *de*
novo centrioles, n=42 centrioles; C) $TUBD1^{-/-}$, n=32 centrioles; D) $TUBE1^{-/-}$, n=30 centrioles; E)
$TEDC1^{-/-}$, n=23 centrioles; F) $TEDC2^{-/-}$, n=36 centrioles.
For each panel, representative U-ExM images of centrioles in S and G2 phase are shown.
These are the same centrioles as in Figure 4G and were stained for alpha-tubulin (cyan),
acetylated tubulin (yellow), and CEP135 (magenta). Scale bars = 1 um.
Graphs: Each column represents a centriole, for which the proximal and distal positions of
CEP135 (magenta), acetylated tubulin (yellow) and alpha-tubulin (cyan) are displayed.
Centrioles were arranged from shortest to longest. Numbers were adjusted for expansion factor.
A line of best fit was added for CEP135 position: control procentrioles (dashed), *de novo*
centrioles (dotted), and mutants (solid).
673
Figure 4 - Supplementary figure 4 – Quantification of SASS6 centriolar localization
through S and G2 phase
Mutant centrioles have over-elongated SASS6. A) control procentrioles, n=53 centrioles; B) *de*
novo centrioles, n=44 centrioles; C) $TUBD1^{-/-}$, n=39 centrioles; D) $TUBE1^{-/-}$, n=44 centrioles; E)
$TEDC1^{-/-}$, n=34 centrioles; F) $TEDC2^{-/-}$, n=30 centrioles.
Each column represents a centriole, for which the proximal and distal positions of SASS6
(magenta) and alpha-tubulin (cyan) are displayed. Centrioles were arranged from shortest to
longest. A Numbers were adjusted for expansion factor. line of best fit was added for SASS6
position: control procentrioles (dashed), *de novo* centrioles (dotted), and mutants (solid).

Figure 4 - Supplementary figure 5 – Quantification of centriole widths and lengths

Mutant centrioles have smaller widths compared to controls. A) control procentrioles, n=82 centrioles; B) *de novo* centrioles, n=86 centrioles; C) *TUBD1*$^{-/-}$, n=64 centrioles; D) *TUBE1*$^{-/-}$, n=74 centrioles; E) *TEDC1*$^{-/-}$, n=56 centrioles; F) *TEDC2*$^{-/-}$, n=62 centrioles. Centriole widths and lengths measured by alpha-tubulin antibody are graphed, adjusted for expansion factor. A line of best fit was added (red).

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.

Primers used for genotyping were: 5'CCCTGCCGACGCAGTGATTGG3' and 5'CAGGGAGTGGCGAGAGCACAC3' for TEDC1 and 5' CTTGCCCGCAAGGAGGGAGAGA3' and 5'GCAGGGCCCAGCCCAAACAGA3' for TEDC2.

742
743   To rescue the mutations, Halo-3xFlag-tagged TEDC1 or APEX-V5-tagged TEDC2 were
744   introduced into the mutant cells using lentiviral transduction as described below.
745

Lentivirus production and viral transduction

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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.
758

Immunofluorescence

759
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.
767

Cell cycle synchronization

768
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.

Expansion microscopy

775
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. 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.
791
792   For Fig 4, Fig 4 – Supp 3 and Fig 4 – Supp 4 when co-staining with alpha-tubulin, centrioles
793   were fixed with 1.4% formaldehyde and 2% acrylamide for 3 to 5 hours at 37°. U-ExM was
794   performed as described above. Gels were pre-incubated with anti alpha-tubulin antibody at 4°C
795   overnight prior to staining with other primary antibodies.
796
<u>Expansion microscopy as per Kong et al.</u>
For Fig 2 – Supp 1C, D, expansion microscopy was performed similar to (Kong et al., 2024).
Coverslips were incubated in 4% formaldehyde in 1x PBS for 1 hour. The coverslips were then
incubated overnight in an acrylamide–formaldehyde anchoring solution (AA/FA; 4%
formaldehyde, 30% acrylamide in PBS) at 40°C. Gelation was allowed to proceed in monomer
solution (7% sodium acrylate, 20% acrylamide, 0.04% bis-acrylamide, 0.5% ammonium
persulfate-APS, 0.5% TEMED in PBS) for 20 min on ice followed by 1 hour at room
temperature. Gels were heated in denaturation buffer (200 mM SDS, 200 mM NaCl, 50 mM Tris-
HCl pH 9) at 90°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. 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.
812
<u>Expansion gel imaging (all protocols)</u>
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).
823
Centriole measurements
For measuring overall 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.
Measurements were adjusted for gel expansion factor. Statistical analysis was performed with
Graphpad Prism.
830
For measuring protein position as in Fig 4 – Supp 3 and Fig 4 – Supp 4, maximum projections of
U-ExM images of longitudinally positioned centrioles were measured using ImageJ (FIJI). The
coordinates of the proximal-most and distal-most position for each protein were recorded. Three
measurements were made per centriole and averaged. The recorded coordinates were used to

calculate the positions of the most proximal and most distal signal for each protein, then
graphed from shortest to longest centriole.

Transmission electron microscopy. For ultrastructural analysis of centrosomes by TEM,
RPE-1 *TP53^{-/-} ; TEDC1^{-/-}* and RPE-1 *TP53^{-/-} ; 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).

Symmetrization of TEM images was performed with centrioleJ (https://www.epfl.ch/labs/gonczy-
lab/databases-and-resources/ressources-centriolej/).

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.

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) were loaded per lane. For Fig 3, samples
were loaded after pulldowns.

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.
887
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), chicken anti-GFP antibody (Aves Cat #GFP-1020,
RRID:AB_10000240).
912
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),
Goat anti-Mouse, Star Red (1:200, Abberior Cat# STRED-1001, RRID:AB_3068620), Goat anti-
rabbit, Star Orange (1:200, Abberior Cat #STORANGE-1002, RRID:AB_3068622), Goat anti-
chicken, Alexa 488 (Thermo Fisher Scientific Cat# A-11039, RRID:AB_2534096).
933
Primary antibodies used for Western blotting and dilutions in TBST: rabbit anti TUBD1 (1:1000,
Sigma-Aldrich Cat# HPA027090, RRID:AB_1858457), rabbit anti TUBE1 (1:1000, Sigma-
Aldrich Cat # HPA032074, RRID:AB_10601216), rabbit anti C14orf80 (1:1000, Sigma-Aldrich
Cat # HPA039049, RRID:AB_2676320), rabbit anti C16orf59 (1:1000, Sigma-Aldrich Cat #
HPA055389, RRID:AB_2732595), mouse IgG2b anti SASS6 (1:200, Santa Cruz Biotech Cat #
sc-81431, RRID:AB_1128357), rabbit anti STIL (1:2000, Abcam Cat# ab89314,
RRID:AB_2197878), rabbit anti CENPJ/CPAP (1:1000, Proteintech Cat# 11517-1-AP,
RRID:AB_2244605), rabbit anti POC5 (1:1000, Thermo Fisher Scientific Cat# A303-341A (also
A303-341A-T), RRID:AB_10971172), mouse IgG2a anti V5 (1:1000, Thermo Fisher Scientific
Cat# R960-25, RRID:AB_2556564), mouse IgG1 anti Flag, clone M2 (1:2000, Sigma-Aldrich
Cat# F1804, RRID:AB_262044). Secondary antibodies used for Western blotting: 680 Donkey
anti rabbit (H+L) (1:20,000, Thermo Fisher Scientific Cat# A10043, RRID:AB_2534018), 800
Donkey anti rabbit (H+L) (1:20,000, Li-COR Cat# 926-32213, RRID:AB_621848), 680 Donkey
anti mouse (H+L) (1:20,000, Thermo Fisher Scientific Cat# A10038, RRID:AB_11180593), 800
Donkey anti mouse (H+L) (1:20,000, Li-COR Cat# 926-32212, RRID:AB_621847).
949

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Figure 1

Figure 1 - Supp 1

Figure 2

Figure 2 - Supp 1

Figure 3 - Supp 1

Figure 4

Figure 4 - Supp 1

Figure 4 - Supp 2

Figure 4 - Supp 3

Figure 5