══ R E V I E W   C O M M O N S   M A N U S C R I P T ══

IMPORTANT:

- Manuscripts submitted to Review Commons are peer reviewed in a journal-agnostic way.
- Upon transfer of the peer reviewed preprint to a journal, the referee reports will be available in full to the handling editor.
- The identity of the referees will NOT be communicated to the authors unless the reviewers choose to sign their report.
- The identity of the referee will be confidentially disclosed to any affiliate journals to which the manuscript is transferred.

GUIDELINES:

- For reviewers: https://www.reviewcommons.org/reviewers
- For authors: https://www.reviewcommons.org/authors

CONTACT:

The Review Commons office can be contacted directly at: office@reviewcommons.org

Manuscript title:

Mapping protein distribution in the canine photoreceptor sensory cilium and calyceal

processes by ultrastructure expansion microscopy

Authors and affiliations:

Kei Takahashi[1], Raghavi Sudharsan[1], William A. Beltran[1] *

[1]Division of Experimental Retinal Therapies, Department of Clinical Sciences & Advanced Medicine,

School of Veterinary Medicine, University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia, PA 19104

***Correspondence**: William A. Beltran, Division of Experimental Retinal Therapies, Department of Clinical

Sciences & Advanced Medicine, School of Veterinary Medicine, University of Pennsylvania, 3900

Delancey Street, Philadelphia, PA, 19104, USA. Email: wbeltran@vet.upenn.edu

Keywords

Canine retina, Connecting cilium, Calyceal processes, Photoreceptor sensory cilium, Ultrastructure

expansion microscopy

Abstract

Photoreceptors are highly polarized sensory neurons, possessing a unique ciliary structure known as the photoreceptor sensory cilium (PSC). Vertebrates have two subtypes of photoreceptors: rods, which are responsible for night vision, and cones, which support daylight vision and color perception. Despite identifying functional and morphological differences between these subtypes, ultrastructural analyses of the PSC molecular architecture in rods and cones are still lacking. In this study, we employed ultrastructure expansion microscopy (U-ExM) to characterize the molecular architecture of the PSC in canine retina. We demonstrated that U-ExM is applicable to both fresh and cryopreserved retinal tissues with standard paraformaldehyde fixation. Using this validated U-ExM protocol, we revealed the molecular localization of numerous ciliopathy-related proteins in canine photoreceptors. Furthermore, we identified significant architectural differences in the PSC, ciliary rootlet, and calyceal processes between canine rods and cones. These findings pave the way for a better understanding of alterations in the molecular architecture of the PSC in canine models of retinal ciliopathies.

Introduction

Photoreceptors are highly polarized sensory neurons, located in the outermost layer of the neuroretina that play a crucial role in light detection and signal transduction. In vertebrate retinas, there are two subtypes of photoreceptors: rods, which are highly sensitive to light and essential for night vision, and cones, which provide high visual acuity, color perception, and daylight vision [1]. These cells possess a unique sensory ciliary structure known as the photoreceptor sensory cilium (PSC). Within the PSC, photoreception and phototransduction occur in the outer segment (OS), a highly elaborated membrane structure supported by a nine-fold microtubule axoneme that originates from the basal body (BB) in the inner segment (IS). The region connecting the OS and IS, termed the connecting cilium (CC), is characterized by Y-shaped linkers (Y-links) that anchor each microtubule axoneme to the cell membrane and function as a critical gateway for ciliary trafficking [2, 3] (**Figure 1**). These fundamental features of the tubulin-based PSC architecture are thought to be shared between rods and cones, although detailed structural analyses for cone PSC are still lacking [4].

Using cryo-electron tomography, the ultrastructure of rod PSC has been thoroughly analyzed in the mouse retina, revealing that the CC structure of mouse rods is approximately 1.1 μm in length and 300 nm in diameter [5]. Additionally, immunogold electron microscopy has been employed to investigate the precise localization of proteins within this small subcellular compartment, identifying the distribution of several ciliary proteins in mouse rod PSC [6-8]. However, despite the identification of pathogenic variants in over 50 genes associated with non-syndromic retinal ciliopathies [9], the specific roles and precise distribution of these proteins within the PSC have remained largely uncharacterized due to the limited resolution and detection capabilities of conventional fluorescence immunohistochemistry.

With recent advances in super-resolution imaging techniques, it has become feasible to analyze detailed protein localization and morphology within the PSC using fluorescence immunostaining [10-13]. Notably, expansion microscopy (ExM), a sample preparation-based approach in which the specimen is expanded with a swellable hydrogel polymer and allows for ultrastructure observation without the need for specialized microscopy equipment, has become widely accessible to researchers [14]. Numerous

modified ExM protocols have been developed to optimize imaging for specific subcellular compartments and sample conditions [15], some of which have been successfully applied to investigate the ultrastructure of photoreceptors [16-18]. Among these advanced methods, ultrastructure expansion microscopy (U-ExM) is particularly notable for its ability to preserve the native intracellular architecture of biological specimens while enabling nanometer-scale observation using standard primary and secondary antibodies used in immunohistochemistry [19]. U-ExM has already made significant contributions to the molecular mapping of the mouse PSC and the detailed assessment of AAV-based gene augmentation therapy in mouse retinal ciliopathy models [18, 20, 21].

Mice are frequently employed in research on PSC morphology and inherited retinal diseases (IRDs), including retinal ciliopathies, due to their ease of handling, low breeding costs, and suitability for gene editing. However, there are significant functional and structural differences between rodent and human photoreceptors, such as very low percentage of cones, the absence of a foveomacular region, and the lack of calyceal processes [22-24]. To address these limitations and enhance the relevance of preclinical animal models, large animals such as dogs, cats, and pigs are proving to be valuable IRDs models. Notably, canine models hold promise for advancing our understanding of the pathogenic mechanisms of IRDs, owing to their fovea-like cone-rich structure [25] and the identification of an increasing number of naturally-occurring genetic mutations linked to human IRDs [26]. Despite this potential, detailed morphological studies on canine photoreceptors remain limited. In this study, we utilize U-ExM to characterize the molecular architecture of the normal adult canine PSC. We validate the U-ExM method for long-term cryopreserved canine retinal samples and provide a comprehensive analysis of the architectural features of the canine PSC. This includes differences in PSC structure between rods and cones, the distribution of retinal ciliopathy-related proteins, and the presence or absence of calyceal processes.

Results

U-ExM protocol is effective on fresh and cryopreserved canine retinal tissues

To investigate whether U-ExM could be applied to canine retinal tissues, we tested a U-ExM protocol recently adapted for mouse retina [18] on adult canine retinal tissues subjected to different fixation and storage conditions. The short fixation condition (4% paraformaldehyde (PFA) for 15 minutes) is the same as that used for mouse retina in the previous U-ExM study, while a longer fixation protocol (4% PFA for 3 hours followed by 2% PFA for 24 hours) is routinely used by our lab for long-term cryopreservation of canine retinal tissues.

First, we assessed the structural preservation of the photoreceptor OS after expansion under each sample condition. In fresh retinas fixed for the short duration, the OS were severely damaged and unevenly swollen (**Figure 2A**). In contrast, the OS structures of both rods and cones were better preserved in the retinas fixed for the longer duration (**Figure 2B**). Similarly, the OS of the cryosection-derived U-ExM samples exhibited relatively better preservation compared to the short-fixed fresh retina, although they showed mild damage (**Figure 2C**). Since slight damage to the OS structure was observed even in the unexpanded cryosections (**Figure 2D**), it is likely that the quality of the cryosectioning was reflected in the sample after expansion.

Next, to verify whether the expansion factor was affected by fixation duration and storage conditions in canine retinal tissues, we compared the structure of the tubulin axoneme of the PSC under each sample condition. Although non-acetylated tubulin has frequently been used as a PSC axoneme marker in previous U-ExM studies using mouse retina [18, 20, 21], this labeling also showed a distinct signal in the photoreceptor IS. In contrast, immunostaining with antibodies targeting acetylated α-tubulin (AcTub), a widely used marker of primary cilia, labeled the PSC axoneme with high specificity (**Figure 2E**). Furthermore, labeling of acetylated and non-acetylated tubulin at the BB and CC of the PSC showed identical localization in the magnified images of the U-ExM samples (**Figure 2F-H**). Therefore, we employed AcTub as a highly specific marker for the PSC axoneme in subsequent studies. The width of the AcTub-labeled axoneme on the CC and the proximal end of the mother centriole (MC) after

processing by U-ExM was comparable across all sample conditions (**Figure 2J and K**). By dividing the

CC axoneme width of U-ExM samples by 200.84 nm, which is the previously reported CC axoneme width

of mouse photoreceptors [5], we determined an average expansion factor of 3.83 across all sample

conditions. Similarly, the gel diameter immediately after the first-round of expansion reached

approximately 5 cm in all sample conditions (**Supplementary Figure 2I**), averaging a 4.17 times larger

dimension than the original gel diameter. These values are not significantly different from the typical

expansion factor (~4) reported in previous U-ExM studies [18, 19].

We further investigated the localization patterns of representative CC-associated proteins to verify

whether there are differences in the localization of these proteins among the different sample conditions.

Centrin and CEP290 (NPHP6), which have been well characterized in mouse photoreceptors as the CC

inner scaffold protein and Y-link-associated protein, respectively [18], were examined. In U-ExM

processed canine photoreceptors, Centrin localized specifically inside the tubulin axoneme of the BB and

CC (**Figure 2L-N**), while CEP290 was observed outside the CC axoneme (**Figure 2P-R**), consistent with

their previously reported localization patterns. Moreover, there were no significant differences in the

localization of these proteins among the different sample conditions. In summary, our findings confirmed

that U-ExM could be utilized for canine retinal tissue and that variations in PFA fixation and storage

conditions do not affect the expansion factor. Considering the better preservation of OS structure, we

used long-fixed fresh retinas and frozen archival retinal tissues for the subsequent studies described

below.

Differences in tubulin-based molecular architecture between rod and cone PSC

We then analyzed the molecular architecture of the tubulin axoneme in rod and cone PSC of normal

adult canine retinas processed by U-ExM. Rod and cone photoreceptors were distinguished by labeling

with rhodopsin and cone arrestin (CAR), respectively. The tubulin axoneme in both photoreceptor

subtypes was visualized by labeling acetylation and glutamylation on the tubulin, which are well-known

post translational modifications in the centriole and primary cilium, using AcTub and GT335 antibodies.

In both photoreceptor subtypes, glutamylation was detected on the tubulin axoneme throughout the PSC, similar to acetylation. The glutamylation signal was also found outside the tubulin axoneme only around the CC region (**Figure 3A-D**). A recent study suggested that glutamylation signal shows localization comparable to CEP290 in mouse photoreceptor CC [18]. Similarly, we identified that the region of the glutamylation signal on the tubulin axoneme matches the CEP290 signal on the CC in canine photoreceptors (**Supplementary Figure 3**). Based on these findings, we assumed that the region with glutamylation outside the tubulin axoneme is equivalent to the CC and measured the length and width of each compartment of the PSC axoneme (**Figure 3E**). As previously reported for other cell types [27, 28], the length of the MC was significantly longer than that of the daughter centriole (DC) in each photoreceptor subtype. More interestingly, cone photoreceptors had notably longer BBs than rods (Rod DC, 269.71 ± 24.00 μm; Cone DC, 357.27 ± 37.26 μm; Rod MC, 372.06 ± 55.22 μm; Cone MC, 465.84 ± 40.58 μm; **Figure 3F**). In contrast, the length of the CC in cones was significantly shorter than that in rods (Rod CC, 1362.81 ± 164.22 μm; Cone CC, 900.35 ± 169.02 μm; **Figure 3H**). The width of the AcTub-labeled tubulin axoneme in the CC and BBs was identical among the photoreceptor subtypes (**Figure 3G and I**).

Next, we focused on the differences between rod and cone tubulin structures in the outer region of the CC, referred to as the bulge region (BR). Based on the measurement method used in previous studies on mouse photoreceptors [18, 21], we measured the width of the tubulin axoneme at multiple positions along the CC in rod and cone photoreceptors: at the distal end of the CC (0), as well as 500 and 1000 nm above (+500, +1000) and 500 nm below (-500) (**Figure 3J and K**). In the rod PSC, the width of the tubulin axoneme significantly increased from the end of the CC to the +500 nm, then decreased to the +1000 nm (**Figure 3L**). Conversely, in the cone PSC, the enhanced width of tubulin axoneme from the CC endpoint to the +500 nm was maintained even at the +1000 nm (**Figure 3M**). When comparing the axoneme width between rods and cones at each measurement point, the cone axoneme was significantly wider than the rod axoneme at all points except the middle part of the CC (-500) (**Figure 3N**). These results revealed that cone photoreceptors have longer and wider BR than rod photoreceptors.

Molecular mapping of the bulge region and distal axoneme in canine rod and cone PSC

To further characterize the differences in molecular architecture at the distal part of the tubulin axoneme between rods and cones in detail, we investigated the location of several proteins associated with the BR and distal axoneme in both rods and cones. LCA5 (lebercilin) has been identified as a BR-specific protein in mouse photoreceptors [18, 21]. Consistent with the results from previous studies, LCA5 showed specific localization to the inner side of the BR in both rod and cone photoreceptors in the canine PSC (**Figure 4A and B**). Additionally, RP1, known to localize from the BR to the distal axoneme in mouse photoreceptors [21], exhibited a comparable localization pattern in canine rod and cone photoreceptors (**Figure 4C and D**). In this study, we identified CCDC66 as a novel protein that specifically localizes to the distal axoneme of both rods and cones (**Figure 4E and F**). CCDC66 is a microtubule-binding protein, and dysfunction of its gene has been reported to cause retinal degeneration in both canine and mouse models [29-31]. Consistent with previous findings where overexpressed CCDC66 in a cell line with induced ciliogenesis was observed near the BB and distal axoneme [32], endogenous CCDC66 in canine photoreceptors also showed a weak signal near the BB and a prominent signal at the distal axoneme.

To elucidate the positional relationship of these three proteins in the distal part of the PSC axoneme, we performed co-immunostaining of RP1 with LCA5 and CCDC66, respectively. In both rods and cones, LCA5 localized slightly more basally than RP1, and these two proteins did not co-localize (**Figure 4G and H**). Additionally, axial view images showed that LCA5 localized on the tubulin axoneme while RP1 localized outside the axoneme (**Figure 4I**). CCDC66 appeared to overlap with RP1 in the distal axoneme in the lateral view (**Figure 4J and K**). However, in the axial view, CCDC66 was localized inside the tubulin axoneme, distinct from the localized area of RP1 (**Figure 4L**). By measuring the distance from the proximal end of the MC to the starting point of each signal, we found that in cones, LCA5 and RP1 localized more basally compared to rods, while CCDC66 localized more distally (**Figure 4M**). Taken together, LCA5, RP1, and CCDC66 each exhibited unique localization patterns in the distal part of the PSC, and differences in localization of these proteins between rod and cone coincided with the

architectural differences in the BR between these photoreceptor subtypes (**Figure 4N**).

Molecular mapping of the connecting cilium in canine rod and cone PSC

Next, we compared the localization of CC-related proteins between rods and cones. POC5, Centrin,

and FAM161A have been well-characterized to localize inside the tubulin axoneme as inner scaffold

proteins at the BB and CC in mouse photoreceptors [18]. Consistent with the reports in mouse

photoreceptors, these three inner scaffold proteins exhibited internal localization within the axoneme at

the BB and CC in both canine photoreceptor subtypes (**Figure 5A-I**). Since the endogenous FAM161A

signal was too weak to quantify (**Figure 5G-I**), similar to results in mouse photoreceptors [18, 20], we

measured the signal length in the CC for only POC5 and Centrin (**Figure 5J**). The signal lengths of these

inner scaffold proteins at the CC were significantly shorter in cones than in rods, and these were

consistent with the CC lengths measured in Figure 3 (Rod POC5, 1383.09 ± 96.53 μm; Cone POC5,

911.01 ± 129.72 μm; Rod Centrin, 1449.83 ± 115.57 μm; Cone Centrin, 989.27 ± 172.09 μm; **Figure 5K**).

We then investigated the localization of several Y-link-associated proteins in canine photoreceptors.

The Y-link is a hallmark element of the transition zone in the primary cilium, exhibiting a distinctive Y-

shaped architecture that connects each microtubule doublets to the ciliary membrane [3]. In mammalian

photoreceptors, the CC is known as a region corresponding to the transition zone in the primary cilium,

and CEP290, a typical Y-link component protein, has been confirmed to localize outside each of the nine

tubulin axonemes in the CC of mouse photoreceptors [18]. As shown in Figure 2 and Supplementary

Figure 3, CEP290 localized at the CC in canine photoreceptors similar to its localization in mouse

photoreceptors. Here, we also found that the signal length of CEP290 at the CC is significantly shorter in

cones than in rods, consistent with the lengths of the CC shown in Figure 3 and Figure 5 (Rod CEP290,

1314.33 ± 118.71 μm; Cone CEP290, 891.09 ± 126.21 μm; **Figure 6A, B, C, and S**). Additionally, several

other Y-link-associated proteins, including RPGR, RPGRIP1 (LCA6), SPATA7 (LCA3), and NPHP5

(IQCB1), were found to have signal lengths comparable to CEP290 at the CC in both rods and cones

(**Figure 6D, E, G, H, J, K, M, N, and S**) and to localize outside the axoneme (**Figure 6F, I, L, O, and R**).

Finally, we found that MAP9, a microtubule-binding protein, localizes specifically to the CC in photoreceptors (**Figure 6P and Q**). A homozygous variant in the MAP9 gene has been reported to accelerate disease progression in a naturally-occurring canine *RPGRIP1*-associated cone-rod dystrophy [33, 34]. The co-localization of MAP9 and RPGRIP1 in the CC of both photoreceptor subtypes suggests a direct interaction between these proteins. Additionally, axial view images and quantification of signal width at the CC revealed that MAP9 is located close to the tubulin axoneme, unlike the axial distribution of other Y-link-associated proteins (**Figure 6R and T**). Mapping of these CC-specific proteins confirmed a significant difference in the length of the CC between canine rods and cones.

Molecular mapping of ciliary trafficking and distal appendage-related proteins on the basal bodies in rod and cone PSC

We next mapped the localization of proteins associated with the BBs, the compartment on the basal part of the tubulin-based PSC architecture. The intraflagellar transport (IFT) machinery is responsible for anterograde and retrograde trafficking of ciliary proteins and consists of two multisubunit complexes, IFT-A and IFT-B [35]. In mouse photoreceptors, it was demonstrated using immunoelectron microscopy that several IFT particles have characteristic distribution around the MC and BR [8], and similar localization of these particles has recently been confirmed using U-ExM as well [20, 21]. We confirmed that in both canine rods and cones, IFT57, a component of the IFT-B complex [36], has a similar distribution at the MC and BR as observed in mouse photoreceptors (**Figure 7A and B**). Additionally, KIF3A, a component of kinesin-II, exhibited a similar distribution to the IFT particles in both photoreceptor subtypes, albeit with a high level of background signal (**Supplementary Figure 4**). Axial view images showed that IFT57 distributes along each of the nine tubulin axonemes at both the MC and BR and is located closer to the axonemes at the BR than at the MC (**Figure 7C**). We also found that the IFT57 signals at the MC were clearly divided into two layers (**Figure 7A and B**). The distance from the proximal end of the MC to these signals was shorter in rods than in cones (**Figure 7D**), consistent with the difference in BB length between the rods and cones presented in Figure 3.

Based on the characteristic distribution of IFT57 in the MC, we hypothesized that the IFT molecules

localize around distal appendages, also known as transition fibers, in the MC, as has been suggested in

previous publications [37, 38]. To verify this, we observed the distribution of CEP164 (NPHP15), a

representative distal appendage protein [39], in both rods and cones. As expected, CEP164 was localized

in the distal part of the MC in both rods and cones (**Figure 7E and F**), and the axial view exhibited a

broader radial distribution (**Figure 7G**), similar to that observed in recent studies using super-resolution

microscopy techniques [40, 41]. The distance from the MC proximal end to CEP164 signals was shorter

in rods than in cones, and these distances were comparable to these of the IFT57 signals at the distal

MC (**Figure 7D and M**).

Additionally, we found that SDCCAG8 (NPHP10), a retinal ciliopathy-associated protein [42, 43],

exhibits specific localization to the end of both MC and DC in rods and cones (**Figure 7H and I**). The

axial view images at the MC showed that SDCCAG8 has a nine-fold symmetry distribution outside the

axoneme, similar to IFT57 and CEP164 (**Figure 7J**). Moreover, co-immunostaining of SDCCAG8 with

glutamylation and γ-tubulin demonstrated that the SDCCAG8 signal on the ciliary axoneme is located

between the MC and CC (**Figure 7K and L**). The distance from the MC proximal end to SDCCAG8 was

comparable to that of CEP164 in both rods and cones (**Figure 7M**). Taken together, these results suggest

that IFT57 and SDCCAG8 localize to distal appendages on the MC (**Figure 7N**). Furthermore, based on

the distance between distal and subdistal appendages suggested in previous study (~100 nm), the

location of the basal IFT57 signal in the MC is assumed to correspond to the location of the subdistal

appendages [44].

Molecular architecture of the ciliary rootlet in canine photoreceptors

To address the peripheral structures of the PSC in canine photoreceptors, we mapped several

proteins related to the ciliary rootlet. Rootletin (CROCC) is a 220-kDa coiled coil protein identified as an

architectural component of the rootlet in mouse photoreceptors [45] and has been used as a marker of

ciliary rootlet in several studies [46, 47]. Consistent with previous reports, in canine retinas processed

with U-ExM, rootletin signals were observed as straight fibers in the photoreceptor IS, representing the

architecture of the ciliary rootlets (**Figure 8A**). In the magnified images, a rootlet stem extending straight

to the MC and a characteristic branch-like structure extending to the middle of the CC were observed in

the rod PSC (**Figure 8B and C, Supplementary Movie 1**). In contrast, cone photoreceptors exhibited a

curvilinear rootlet architecture that was quite different from that of rods. In cone photoreceptors, the base

of the rootlet did not contact the external limiting membrane, unlike in rods, and the ends of the rootlet

appeared to be directed toward the MC and DC, respectively (**Figure 8D and E, Supplementary Movie**

2). These structural features in cones were consistent among cone photoreceptor subtypes, S-cones and

L/M-cones (**Supplementary Figure 5**).

We found that ARL13B, a small GTPase belonging to the Arf-like Ras superfamily, is another protein

located in the ciliary rootlet of canine photoreceptors. In studies of the primary cilium, ARL13B has

frequently been employed as a marker for the ciliary membrane [48, 49]. Since mutations in *ARL13B*

gene have been associated with Joubert syndrome, a systemic ciliopathy accompanied by retinal

dystrophy, the localization of ARL13B in photoreceptors has been discussed in various studies, with

variable conclusions [50-53]. Although several recent reports using mouse retina have claimed that

endogenous ARL13B localizes to the photoreceptor OS [54, 55], we found specific localization of ARL13B

to the ciliary rootlet in U-ExM-processed canine photoreceptors (**Figure 8F**). We performed similar

immunostaining on non-expanded cryosections to confirm that this ARL13B localization pattern, which

differs from recent reports, is not due to an artifact of the U-ExM process. In non-expanded canine retina,

ARL13B localized primarily to the photoreceptor IS, consistent with the results in the U-ExM samples

(**Supplementary Figure 6**). Similar to rootletin, ARL13B exhibited straight localization in rods and

curvilinear localization in cones (**Figure 8G and H**).

Molecular architecture of the calyceal processes in canine photoreceptors

Finally, we investigated the localization of protocadherin-15 (PCDH15), an Usher protein, to

determine the presence or absence of calyceal processes in canine photoreceptors. Calyceal processes

are microvilli-like structures characterized by the localization of Usher proteins in the apical region of the IS of human and nonhuman primate (NHP) photoreceptors, and are absent in mouse photoreceptors [24]. Recent research on NHP photoreceptors using expansion microscopy has described the structural organization of the calyceal processes based on the distribution of PCDH15 [17]. We followed this approach on our canine retinal tissues. First, we determined that PCDH15 is located between the OS and IS in both rods and cones in non-expanded retinal cryosections (**Figure 9A**). In the canine rod photoreceptors processed by U-ExM, PCDH15 staining exhibited a characteristic C-shape, and its distribution was limited to the base of the OS (**Figure 9B, Supplementary Movie 3**). In contrast, PCDH15 formed a microvilli-like structure surrounding the OS near the OS/IS junction in the canine cones (**Figure 9C, Supplementary Movie 4**). The distribution pattern of PCDH15 was identical between S-cones and L/M-cones (**Figure 9D and E**). These differences of PCDH15 distribution between rods and cones were consistent with the previous observations in NHP photoreceptors [17]. Additionally, we attempted to localize another Usher protein, VLGR1 (USH2C), in canine photoreceptors. However, identification of specific VLGR1 signals using a commercially available primary antibody was unsuccessful. Finally, we located actin filaments by immunolabeling of β-actin. Unlike the previous observation in NHP rod photoreceptors, no actin filaments binding to PCDH15 were observed in canine rods. However, canine cones exhibited actin filaments linking to PCDH15-labeled calyceal processes (**Figure 9F**). Taken together, these results suggest that in canine photoreceptors, although the distribution of PCDH15 at the IS/OS junction is found in rods, the calyceal processes-like architecture is present only in cone photoreceptors, similar to NHP photoreceptors (**Figure 9G**).

Discussion

In the present study, we tested a U-ExM protocol to characterize the molecular architecture of the PSC using fresh and frozen archival canine retinal tissues. Utilizing archival samples, particularly from large animals such as dogs and NHP, presents significant advantages in terms of cost efficiency and biological resource management. This approach is not only economical but also allows for the maximization of previously collected biological materials. However, as highlighted in the publication reporting the original U-ExM protocol, the type and duration of fixation can influence the degree of tissue expansion [19]. Earlier studies applying U-ExM to the mouse retina typically used a short duration (15 minutes) of 4%PFA fixation [18, 21]. Here, we demonstrated that the duration of PFA fixation and long-term storage at -80°C do not significantly impact the degree of retinal tissue expansion, achieving approximately 4x isotropic expansion (**Figure 2**). This observation aligns with the recent reports that applied U-ExM to PFA-fixed frozen and formalin-fixed paraffin-embedded mouse tissues [20, 28]. Notably, our results showed that U-ExM enabled super-resolution imaging of archival samples that had been cryopreserved for over a decade, providing comparable imaging quality to that obtained from fresh samples. Additionally, longer durations of PFA fixation (≥ 24 hours), which are routinely used for cryopreservation of ocular tissues, proved beneficial in preserving the structure of the photoreceptor OS in U-ExM. These findings underscore the robustness of U-ExM for use with archival samples, facilitating ultrastructural observation in large animal tissues where fresh samples are often challenging to procure.

In the molecular mapping of the PSC in normal adult canine retinal tissue, we discovered that the tubulin-based PSC architecture differs significantly between the rods and cones (**Figure 3**). Specifically, cones exhibited longer BBs, which encompass both the DM and MC, as well as shorter CC, and longer, wider BR compared to rods. These structural differences were corroborated by the distinct localization patterns of proteins within each PSC compartment (**Figure 4-7**). While detailed comparisons of PSC molecular architecture between rods and cones have been limited, our findings align with the known variations in the structural features of the OS between these photoreceptor subtypes [56]. Previous studies have consistently reported that the CC length in mature mouse rods ranges from approximately

1100 to 1500 nm [5, 18, 21], which is consistent with the CC-specific protein signal lengths of

approximately 1200 to 1400 nm observed in mature canine rods in this study. Similarly, the DC length in

mature mouse rods is approximately 300 nm [5], closely matching the 270 nm measured in mature canine

rods, indicating a conserved architecture of the CC and BB in rods across these species. However,

comparisons of cone PSC architecture between canine and other vertebrates remain challenging due to

a paucity of studies investigating the ultrastructure of cone PSC to date. The significant architectural

differences between rod and cone PSC observed in this study underscore the necessity for further

comprehensive investigations using retinal tissues from a variety of vertebrate species. These

investigations are crucial to determine whether the architectural distinctions in the PSC between

photoreceptor subtypes are unique to canine or represent a broader biological phenomenon.

An interesting question raised by the observed architectural variation between rod and cone PSC is

its involvement in the differential pathological progression among photoreceptor subtypes. A notable

group of retinal ciliopathies, known as cone-rod dystrophy (CRD), is characterized by the progressive

degeneration of cones preceding that of the rods. In canine models of naturally-occurring retinal ciliopathy,

homozygous variants in genes such as *NPHP4*, *NPHP5*, and *RPGRIP1* have been identified as causes

of CRD [57-59], despite these genes being similarly expressed in both rods and cones. Previous studies

have suggested that these CRD-associated proteins are localized to the CC in photoreceptors [11, 60].

Our current study confirms that NPHP5 and RPGRIP1 are indeed localized outside the tubulin axoneme

at the CC in both photoreceptor subtypes (**Figure 6**). Given their comparable distribution, these proteins

are likely to have similar roles related to Y-links in both photoreceptor subtypes. Notably, the CC, where

the tubulin axoneme of the PSC is anchored to the plasma membrane by Y-links, is significantly shorter

in cones than in rods. This structural difference in the CC suggests that cones may be more susceptible

to mutations in Y-link-associated genes compared to rods. The relationship between the heterogeneity of

ciliopathy-associated phenotypes and the structural variations between rods and cones will be further

investigated in future studies, which will involve integrating respective retinal ciliopathy models with U-

ExM techniques to elucidate these differences.

Our study has also revealed significant difference in the architecture of the PSC rootlet between rods and cones (**Figure 8**). Using U-ExM, we observed a linear shape of the rootlet in canine rods, which is consistent with the morphology of the rootlet in mouse rods, as previously described in transmission electron photomicrographs [10]. A new finding in this study is the identification of a rootlet branch extending from the basal part of the PSC to the middle of the CC in rods. This branching structure has also been observed in recent transmission electron photomicrographs of canine photoreceptors, where it appears to be positioned on the opposite side of the PSC axoneme across the ciliary pocket [61], although its functional role remains unclear. Another interesting discovery is the unique elliptical shape of the cone rootlet. A recent study in NHP cones suggests that the cone rootlet has a markedly different shape from the commonly recognized form in rod rootlet, although detailed morphological descriptions have been lacking [17]. Here, we have demonstrated a curvilinear rootlet architecture in canine cones using U-ExM. Additionally, unlike the rod rootlet, which extends towards the external limiting membrane, the cone rootlet is entirely contained within the photoreceptor IS. Both rootlet structures likely play a critical role in providing stable intracellular support for the PSC and their associated OS structures. However, further studies are needed to elucidate the biological significance of these morphological differences between rod and cone photoreceptors.

Finally, the application of U-ExM provided novel insights into the architecture of calyceal processes in canine photoreceptors (**Figure 9**). Our findings indicate that canine cones possess microvilli-like structures characterized by the distribution of PCDH15 around the basal part of the OS and the presence of associated actin filaments. In contrast, canine rods lack calyceal processes-like structures, despite the localization of PCDH15 at the IS/OS junction. These structural differences between rods and cones are similar to those observed in photoreceptors of NHPs in a previous study [17]. To conclusively determine the presence or absence of calyceal processes in canine rods, further detailed morphological studies using electron microscopy are necessary. However, the localization of PCDH15 in canine photoreceptors aligns with the patterns reported in NHP photoreceptors, suggesting that a canine IRD model may provide valuable insights into pathogenesis of Usher syndrome, for which effective pathological models are

challenging to develop in rodents.

In conclusion, our study highlights the effectiveness of super-resolution imaging using U-ExM to

characterize the molecular architecture of the canine PSC. By employing U-ExM, we have achieved

detailed molecular mapping of numerous retinal ciliopathy-related proteins and have identified significant

structural differences in the PSC between rods and cones in canine photoreceptors (**Figure 10**). These

insights gained from this study pave the way for a better understanding of the alterations in PSC

molecular architecture and the efficacy of AAV-based gene augmentation therapies in established canine

models of retinal ciliopathy, such as those with mutations in *RPGR* [62], *NPHP5* [58], *RPGRIP1* [59], and

CCDC66 [31], using U-ExM.

Material and methods

Animals

Retinal tissues from normal adult dogs were used for this study (**Supplementary Table 1**). All dogs were housed under identical conditions, including diet and ambient illumination with a 12-hour light/12-hour dark cycle, at the Retinal Disease Studies Facility (RDSF) at the University of Pennsylvania. The studies strictly adhered to the ARVO Statement for the Use of Animals in Ophthalmic and Vision Research and were approved by the Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee of the University of Pennsylvania.

Tissue processing for long-term cryopreservation

The procedures for long-term cryopreservation of normal adult canine ocular tissues were performed as described in previous publications [63, 64]. In brief, following enucleation of euthanized dogs, the posterior eyecups of the globes were isolated and the vitreous was gently extracted ~ 1 hour after fixation in 4% PFA in 0.1 M phosphate-buffered saline (PBS). Fixation of the posterior eye cups was pursued for an additional 2 hours, followed by an additional 24-hour fixation in 2% PFA in 0.1 M PBS at 4°C. Subsequently, the eyecups were dissected into four quadrants, and the tissues were sequentially cryoprotected for 24 hours each in 15% and 30% sucrose solutions in 0.1 M PBS at 4°C. Following cryopreservation, the dissected tissues were embedded in optimal cutting temperature (OCT) medium within disposable molds. The molds were then placed in shallow metal cups containing methylbutane and immersed in a bath of liquid nitrogen for rapid freezing. The frozen OCT blocks were stored at -80°C until cryosectioning was conducted. All cryopreserved samples used in this study had been stored for more than 12 years at -80°C (**Supplementary Table 1**).

Immunohistochemistry on non-expanded cryosectioned retinal tissues

The frozen OCT blocks were cryosectioned at a thickness 10 µm and stored at -20°C until further processing. Detailed methodology for immunostaining of non-expanded canine retinal cryosection has been described in a previous publication [34]. Frozen sections were dried at room temperature (RT) for

60 minutes and then incubated in D-PBS for 10 minutes to remove the OCT compound. Antigen retrieval

was performed by treating the sections with pepsin reagent for 1 minute, followed by incubation with

blocking buffer (4.5% cold fish gelatin, 0.1% sodium azide, 5% bovine serum albumin, and 0.25% Triton

X-100 in D-PBS) for 60 minutes at RT. Retinal sections were then incubated overnight at 4°C with primary

antibodies (**Supplementary Table 3**) diluted in blocking buffer. After three washes with D-PBS containing

0.1% of tween20 (PBS-T), antigen-antibody complexes were visualized with Alexa Fluor-conjugated

secondary antibodies (**Supplementary Table 4**) and counterstained using Hoechst 33342. The reagents

used for conventional immunostaining were listed in Supplementary Table 2.

Ultrastructure Expansion Microscopy (U-ExM) on canine retina

Based on a U-ExM protocol previously developed for mouse retina [18], we tested U-ExM on fresh

and frozen archival canine retinal tissues. A schematic overview, photographs of each step, and reagents

associated with the U-ExM protocol used in this study are summarized in Supplementary Figure 1 and 2

and in Supplementary Table 2.

(a) U-ExM on fresh canine neuroretinas

After enucleation, the anterior part of eyeball, including the cornea, lens, and vitreous, was gently

removed. The posterior eyecups were fixed in PFA solution for either short (4% PFA for 15 minutes) or

long (4% PFA for 3 hours followed by 2% PFA for 24 hours) durations, and then 5 mm punches were

taken from the eyecups using a disposable biopsy punch (**Supplementary Figure 2A**). Once isolated

from RPE-choroid-sclera complex (**Supplementary Figure 2B, 2C**), a 5 mm retinal punch was placed in

a 14-mm microwell of a 35-mm petri dish and then incubated overnight in 300 µL of 2% acrylamide (AA)

+ 1.4% formaldehyde (FA) solution at 37°C.

After removing the AA/FA solution, 45 µL of monomer solution (MS) composed of 25 µL of sodium

acrylate (SA; stock solution at 38% [w/w] diluted with nuclease-free water), 12.5 µL of AA (40% solution),

2.5 µL of N,N′-methylenebisacrylamide (BIS; 2% solution), and 5 µL of 10× PBS was added to the

microwell. After 90 minutes of incubation at RT, the MS was removed and 90 µL of MS containing

ammonium persulfate (APS) and tetramethylethylenediamine (TEMED) at a final concentration of 0.5%

was dropped onto the tissue, followed by covering with a 12 mm circular cover glass (**Supplementary**

Figure 2D). Subsequently, the 35-mm petri dish containing the tissue and MS solution was placed on ice

for 45 minutes, followed by 60 minutes incubation at 37°C to allow gelation.

Next, 1 mL of denaturation buffer (200 mM Sodium Dodecyl Sulfate (SDS), 200 mM Sodium Chloride

(NaCl), 50 mM Tris Base in deionized distilled water (ddH$_2$O), pH 9) were added to the petri dish for 15

minutes at RT with gentle agitation. The gel was carefully detached from the microwell using a spatula

and then incubated in a 1.5 mL tube filled with denaturation buffer for 90 minutes at 95°C. Immediately

after the denaturation step, the gel was transferred to a beaker filled with ddH$_2$O, and the ddH$_2$O was

replaced twice, every 30 minutes, for the first-round of expansion.

The following day, after measuring the diameter with a ruler (**Supplementary Figure 2E**), the

expanded gel containing retinal tissue was sliced with a razor blade to obtain approximately 1-2 mm thick

cross sections. These sections were then placed in a well of 24-well plate filled with D-PBS containing

calcium & magnesium (D-PBS-Ca^{2+}Mg^{2+}) for the immunostaining steps.

(b) U-ExM for cryosections from frozen retinal tissue

Twenty-µm-thick cryosections were obtained from the frozen posterior cup tissues that had been

fixed with PFA using the longer protocol, cryoprotected in sucrose, and embedded in OCT media. The

frozen sections on a slide glass were thawed at RT for 10 minutes (**Supplementary Figure 2F**), and a

square was drawn around the tissue section using a hydrophobic marker (ImmEdge Pen). After drying

for 60 minutes at RT, 100 µL of D-PBS-Ca^{2+}Mg^{2+} was added into the hydrophobic square for 10 minutes

to wash out the OCT compound.

After removal of D-PBS, the sections were reacted with the AA/FA solution overnight, followed by

penetration with MS for 90 minutes, as was done for fresh retinal punches. For each retinal section, 45

µL of MS containing APS and TEMED per section was dropped onto the tissue, and a 12 mm circular

cover glass was placed on the solution (**Supplementary Figure 2G**). After performing gelation,

denaturation, and the first-round expansion as done for fresh retinal punches, the diameter of the gel was

measured with a ruler (**Supplementary Figure 2H**). The gel containing the retinal tissue was then cut

into approximately 1 cm squares using a razor blade and then in a well of 24-well plate filled with D-PBS-

$Ca^{2+}Mg^{2+}$.

<u>Immunohistochemistry for U-ExM samples</u>

After 10 minutes of incubation of the gels in D-PBS, the solution in the well was replaced with 300

µL of blocking buffer containing the primary antibodies (**Supplementary Table 3**). The gels were

incubated with the primary antibody solution overnight at RT with gentle shaking, followed by 3 washes

with 1 mL of PBS-T for 5 minutes each. Alexa Fluor-conjugated secondary antibodies (**Supplementary**

Table 4) were diluted in the blocking buffer at a concentration of 1/500 and incubated with the gel for 2

hours at RT, protected from light. Next, 100 µL of Hoechst 33342 solution, diluted 1/1000 in D-PBS, was

added to the wells and gently shaken for 30 minutes, followed by 3 washes with 1 mL of PBS-T. After the

washes, each gel was transferred using a spatula to a well of a 6-well plate filled with 10 mL ddH_2O and

incubated for 30 minutes to achieve the second-round expansion. The ddH_2O was replaced twice, every

30 minutes. The gels were then stored in ddH_2O at 4°C, protected from light, until confocal imaging.

Confocal imaging

Prior to imaging, 14-mm microwells of 35-mm petri dishes were filled with 0.1 mg/mL poly-D-lysine

and kept at RT for 1 hour for coating to prevent drifting of the gels. After removing the poly-D-lysine

solution, the microwells were washed three times with ddH_2O, dried, and then stored at 4°C.

Image acquisition was performed on the Leica Stellaris 8 FALCON confocal FLIM microscope using

a 63× (1.20 NA) water objective. The lateral and axial views were obtained by orienting the expanded gel

on the bottom of the microwell to face either the retinal cross-section or photoreceptor outer segment

downward. Z-stacks for the lateral view were acquired with 0.2 µm z-intervals, an x, y pixel size of 45.09

nm, and an imaging speed of 400 Hz. Representative images of the lateral view are shown as maximum

projection images unless specified. Sigle images of the axial view were obtained with an x, y pixel size

of 22.55 nm and an imaging speed of 100 Hz. The images were processed using Leica Application Suite

X (LAS X) software for deconvolution with LIGHTNING function, as well as for building merged and

maximum projection images, and 3D rendering.

Quantification

<u>Gel diameter</u>

The gel diameter after the first-round expansion was measured using a ruler and then divided by the

gel diameter before expansion (1.2 mm) to calculate the degree of gel expansion.

<u>Expansion factor</u>

The expansion factor was calculated by dividing the width of the AcTub-labeled axoneme on the CC

of U-ExM samples by the previously reported CC diameter of non-expanded mice photoreceptors (200.84

nm), quantified using cryo-electron tomography [5]. A total of 40 photoreceptors in all U-ExM conditions

were subjected to measurement of AcTub signal width using LAS X software manually. The width of the

CC was consistent across all U-ExM conditions, and the expansion factor in this study was determined

to be 3.83 by averaging the values of all U-ExM conditions. This expansion factor was used for every

quantification.

<u>Protein signal length, width, and distance from the proximal end of the MC</u>

Lengths, widths, and distance of protein signals were measured using the "Draw scalebar" function

in LAS X software manually to fit the photoreceptor curvature. AcTub-labeled axoneme spread was

measured at four different locations of the rod and cone photoreceptors corresponding to the CC or BR:

+1000, +500, 0, and -500 nm. The distal end of the glutamylation signal located outside the tubulin

axoneme was used to define the 0 location. Each measurement was subsequently corrected using the

expansion factor.

Statistical analysis

Comparisons between 2 groups were performed using the nonparametric Mann-Whitney U test.

Comparisons among more than 3 groups were conducted using the nonparametric Kruskal-Wallis test

with Dunn's multiple-comparison test. Every measurement was performed on at least 2 individual eyes.

Quantitative data are represented as scatter dot plots, with the center line and error bars in the graphs

indicating the mean and standard deviation (± SD), respectively. The significance level is denoted as

follows: nonsignificant (n.s.) $P > 0.05$, $*P < 0.05$, $**P < 0.01$, $***P < 0.001$, $****P < 0.0001$. All statistical

analyses were performed using GraphPad Prism 10. The data underlying the graphs shown in all the

figures are included in Supplementary Data.

Data availability

All data are available in the main text or the supplementary information.

Author Contributions

K.T. and W.A.B. participated in the conception, experimental design, and interpretation of the data for this work. K.T. was responsible for the acquisition and analysis of data, statistical analysis, and the drafting of the manuscript. R.S. and W.A.B. reviewed and edited the manuscript. All authors reviewed the manuscript, approved its submission, and take full responsibility for the manuscript.

Acknowledgements

We express our gratitude to Qin Liu and Eric A. Pierce of Harvard Medical School for providing the RP1 antibody [65]; Penn Vet Imaging Core Facility (Research Resource Identifier: SCR_022764) for technical support; the staff of the Division of Experimental Retinal Therapies for their excellent support; and the staff of RDSF at University of Pennsylvania for their outstanding animal care. This study was supported by NIH grants R01EY006855, R01EY017549, R01EY033049, P30EY001583, S10OD032305-01A1, and Foundation Fighting Blindness.

Conflict of interest

The authors declare that the research was conducted in the absence of any commercial or financial relationships that could be construed as a potential conflict of interest.

References

1.   Lamb TD, Collin SP, Pugh EN, Jr. Evolution of the vertebrate eye: opsins, photoreceptors, retina and eye cup. Nat Rev Neurosci. 2007;8(12):960-76. doi: 10.1038/nrn2283. PMCID: PMC3143066.

2.   Park K, Leroux MR. Composition, organization and mechanisms of the transition zone, a gate for the cilium. EMBO Rep. 2022;23(12):e55420. Epub 20221121. doi: 10.15252/embr.202255420. PMCID: PMC9724682.

3.   Mercey O, Mukherjee S, Guichard P, Hamel V. The molecular architecture of the ciliary transition zones. Curr Opin Cell Biol. 2024;88:102361. Epub 20240421. doi: 10.1016/j.ceb.2024.102361.

4.   Barnes CL, Malhotra H, Calvert PD. Compartmentalization of Photoreceptor Sensory Cilia. Front Cell Dev Biol. 2021;9:636737. Epub 20210204. doi: 10.3389/fcell.2021.636737. PMCID: PMC7889997.

5.   Gilliam JC, Chang JT, Sandoval IM, Zhang Y, Li T, Pittler SJ, et al. Three-dimensional architecture of the rod sensory cilium and its disruption in retinal neurodegeneration. Cell. 2012;151(5):1029-41. doi: 10.1016/j.cell.2012.10.038. PMCID: PMC3582337.

6.   Rachel RA, Yamamoto EA, Dewanjee MK, May-Simera HL, Sergeev YV, Hackett AN, et al. CEP290 alleles in mice disrupt tissue-specific cilia biogenesis and recapitulate features of syndromic ciliopathies. Hum Mol Genet. 2015;24(13):3775-91. Epub 20150409. doi: 10.1093/hmg/ddv123. PMCID: PMC4459394.

7.   Pulvermüller A, Giessl A, Heck M, Wottrich R, Schmitt A, Ernst OP, et al. Calcium-dependent assembly of centrin-G-protein complex in photoreceptor cells. Mol Cell Biol. 2002;22(7):2194-203. doi: 10.1128/mcb.22.7.2194-2203.2002. PMCID: PMC133667.

8.   Sedmak T, Wolfrum U. Intraflagellar transport molecules in ciliary and nonciliary cells of the retina. J Cell Biol. 2010;189(1):171-86. doi: 10.1083/jcb.200911095. PMCID: PMC2854383.

9.   Sánchez-Bellver L, Toulis V, Marfany G. On the Wrong Track: Alterations of Ciliary Transport in Inherited Retinal Dystrophies. Front Cell Dev Biol. 2021;9:623734. Epub 20210305. doi: 10.3389/fcell.2021.623734. PMCID: PMC7973215.

10.   Wensel TG, Potter VL, Moye A, Zhang Z, Robichaux MA. Structure and dynamics of

photoreceptor sensory cilia. Pflugers Arch. 2021;473(9):1517-37. Epub 20210528. doi: 10.1007/s00424-021-02564-9.

11.	Potter VL, Moye AR, Robichaux MA, Wensel TG. Super-resolution microscopy reveals photoreceptor-specific subciliary location and function of ciliopathy-associated protein CEP290. JCI Insight. 2021;6(20). Epub 20211022. doi: 10.1172/jci.insight.145256. PMCID: PMC8564900.

12.	Haggerty KN, Eshelman SC, Sexton LA, Frimpong E, Rogers LM, Agosto MA, et al. Super-resolution mapping in rod photoreceptors identifies rhodopsin trafficking through the inner segment plasma membrane as an essential subcellular pathway. PLoS Biol. 2024;22(1):e3002467. Epub 20240108. doi: 10.1371/journal.pbio.3002467. PMCID: PMC10773939.

13.	Robichaux MA, Potter VL, Zhang Z, He F, Liu J, Schmid MF, et al. Defining the layers of a sensory cilium with STORM and cryoelectron nanoscopy. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A. 2019;116(47):23562-72. Epub 20191105. doi: 10.1073/pnas.1902003116. PMCID: PMC6876244.

14.	Chen F, Tillberg PW, Boyden ES. Optical imaging. Expansion microscopy. Science. 2015;347(6221):543-8. Epub 20150115. doi: 10.1126/science.1260088. PMCID: PMC4312537.

15.	Hümpfer N, Thielhorn R, Ewers H. Expanding boundaries - a cell biologist's guide to expansion microscopy. J Cell Sci. 2024;137(7). Epub 20240417. doi: 10.1242/jcs.260765. PMCID: PMC11058692.

16.	Moye AR, Robichaux MA, Wensel T. Expansion Microscopy of Mouse Photoreceptor Cilia. Adv Exp Med Biol. 2023;1415:395-402. doi: 10.1007/978-3-031-27681-1_58. PMCID: PMC10697808.

17.	Verschueren A, Boucherit L, Ferrari U, Fouquet S, Nouvel-Jaillard C, Paques M, et al. Planar polarity in primate cone photoreceptors: a potential role in Stiles Crawford effect phototropism. Commun Biol. 2022;5(1):89. Epub 20220124. doi: 10.1038/s42003-021-02998-y. PMCID: PMC8786850.

18.	Mercey O, Kostic C, Bertiaux E, Giroud A, Sadian Y, Gaboriau DCA, et al. The connecting cilium inner scaffold provides a structural foundation that protects against retinal degeneration. PLoS Biol. 2022;20(6):e3001649. Epub 20220616. doi: 10.1371/journal.pbio.3001649. PMCID: PMC9202906.

19.	Gambarotto D, Zwettler FU, Le Guennec M, Schmidt-Cernohorska M, Fortun D, Borgers S, et al. Imaging cellular ultrastructures using expansion microscopy (U-ExM). Nat Methods. 2019;16(1):71-4.

Epub 20181217. doi: 10.1038/s41592-018-0238-1. PMCID: PMC6314451.

20. Arsenijevic Y, Chang N, Mercey O, El Fersioui Y, Koskiniemi-Kuendig H, Joubert C, et al. Fine-

tuning FAM161A gene augmentation therapy to restore retinal function. EMBO Mol Med. 2024;16(4):805-

22. Epub 20240319. doi: 10.1038/s44321-024-00053-x. PMCID: PMC11018783.

21. Faber S, Mercey O, Junger K, Garanto A, May-Simera H, Ueffing M, et al. Gene augmentation of

LCA5-associated Leber congenital amaurosis ameliorates bulge region defects of the photoreceptor

ciliary axoneme. JCI Insight. 2023;8(10). Epub 20230522. doi: 10.1172/jci.insight.169162. PMCID:

PMC10322687.

22. Slijkerman RW, Song F, Astuti GD, Huynen MA, van Wijk E, Stieger K, et al. The pros and cons

of vertebrate animal models for functional and therapeutic research on inherited retinal dystrophies. Prog

Retin Eye Res. 2015;48:137-59. Epub 20150501. doi: 10.1016/j.preteyeres.2015.04.004.

23. Kostic C, Arsenijevic Y. Animal modelling for inherited central vision loss. J Pathol.

2016;238(2):300-10. Epub 20151113. doi: 10.1002/path.4641. PMC5063185.

24. Sahly I, Dufour E, Schietroma C, Michel V, Bahloul A, Perfettini I, et al. Localization of Usher 1

proteins to the photoreceptor calyceal processes, which are absent from mice. J Cell Biol.

2012;199(2):381-99. Epub 20121008. doi: 10.1083/jcb.201202012. PMCID: PMC3471240.

25. Beltran WA, Cideciyan AV, Guziewicz KE, Iwabe S, Swider M, Scott EM, et al. Canine retina has

a primate fovea-like bouquet of cone photoreceptors which is affected by inherited macular degenerations.

PLoS One. 2014;9(3):e90390. Epub 20140305. doi: 10.1371/journal.pone.0090390. PMCID:

PMC3944008.

26. Winkler PA, Occelli LM, Petersen-Jones SM. Large Animal Models of Inherited Retinal

Degenerations: A Review. Cells. 2020;9(4). Epub 20200403. doi: 10.3390/cells9040882. PMCID:

PMC7226744.

27. Uzbekov RE, Maurel DB, Aveline PC, Pallu S, Benhamou CL, Rochefort GY. Centrosome fine

ultrastructure of the osteocyte mechanosensitive primary cilium. Microsc Microanal. 2012;18(6):1430-41.

Epub 20121121. doi: 10.1017/s1431927612013281.

28.   Langner E, Puapatanakul P, Pudlowski R, Alsabbagh DY, Miner JH, Horani A, et al. Ultrastructure

expansion microscopy (U-ExM) of mouse and human kidneys for analysis of subcellular structures.

Cytoskeleton (Hoboken). 2024. Epub 20240507. doi: 10.1002/cm.21870.

29.   Dekomien G, Vollrath C, Petrasch-Parwez E, Boevé MH, Akkad DA, Gerding WM, et al.

Progressive retinal atrophy in Schapendoes dogs: mutation of the newly identified CCDC66 gene.

Neurogenetics. 2010;11(2):163-74. Epub 20090924. doi: 10.1007/s10048-009-0223-z.

30.   Gerding WM, Schreiber S, Schulte-Middelmann T, de Castro Marques A, Atorf J, Akkad DA, et al.

Ccdc66 null mutation causes retinal degeneration and dysfunction. Hum Mol Genet. 2011;20(18):3620-

31. Epub 20110616. doi: 10.1093/hmg/ddr282.

31.   Murgiano L, Becker D, Spector C, Carlin K, Santana E, Niggel JK, et al. CCDC66 frameshift

variant associated with a new form of early-onset progressive retinal atrophy in Portuguese Water Dogs.

Sci Rep. 2020;10(1):21162. Epub 20201203. doi: 10.1038/s41598-020-77980-5. PMCID: PMC7712861.

32.   Odabasi E, Conkar D, Deretic J, Batman U, Frikstad KM, Patzke S, et al. CCDC66 regulates

primary cilium length and signaling via interactions with transition zone and axonemal proteins. J Cell Sci.

2023;136(3). Epub 20230202. doi: 10.1242/jcs.260327.

33.   Forman OP, Hitti RJ, Boursnell M, Miyadera K, Sargan D, Mellersh C. Canine genome assembly

correction facilitates identification of a MAP9 deletion as a potential age of onset modifier for RPGRIP1-

associated canine retinal degeneration. Mamm Genome. 2016;27(5-6):237-45. Epub 20160326. doi:

10.1007/s00335-016-9627-x.

34.   Takahashi K, Kwok JC, Sato Y, Aguirre GD, Miyadera K. Molecular characterization of MAP9 in

the photoreceptor sensory cilia as a modifier in canine RPGRIP1-associated cone-rod dystrophy. Front

Cell Neurosci. 2023;17:1226603. Epub 20230815. doi: 10.3389/fncel.2023.1226603. PMCID:

PMC10464610.

35.   Ishikawa H, Marshall WF. Intraflagellar Transport and Ciliary Dynamics. Cold Spring Harb

Perspect Biol. 2017;9(3). Epub 20170301. doi: 10.1101/cshperspect.a021998. PMCID: PMC5334256.

36.   Bhogaraju S, Engel BD, Lorentzen E. Intraflagellar transport complex structure and cargo

interactions. Cilia. 2013;2(1):10. Epub 20130814. doi: 10.1186/2046-2530-2-10. PMCID: PMC3751104.

37.   Yang TT, Chong WM, Wang WJ, Mazo G, Tanos B, Chen Z, et al. Super-resolution architecture of mammalian centriole distal appendages reveals distinct blade and matrix functional components. Nat Commun. 2018;9(1):2023. Epub 20180522. doi: 10.1038/s41467-018-04469-1. PMCID: PMC5964178.

38.   Hazime KS, Zhou Z, Joachimiak E, Bulgakova NA, Wloga D, Malicki JJ. STORM imaging reveals the spatial arrangement of transition zone components and IFT particles at the ciliary base in Tetrahymena. Sci Rep. 2021;11(1):7899. Epub 20210412. doi: 10.1038/s41598-021-86909-5. PMCID: PMC8041816.

39.   Graser S, Stierhof YD, Lavoie SB, Gassner OS, Lamla S, Le Clech M, et al. Cep164, a novel centriole appendage protein required for primary cilium formation. J Cell Biol. 2007;179(2):321-30. doi: 10.1083/jcb.200707181. PMCID: PMC2064767.

40.   Katoh Y, Chiba S, Nakayama K. Practical method for superresolution imaging of primary cilia and centrioles by expansion microscopy using an amplibody for fluorescence signal amplification. Mol Biol Cell. 2020;31(20):2195-206. Epub 20200729. doi: 10.1091/mbc.E20-04-0250. PMCID: PMC7550703.

41.   Bowler M, Kong D, Sun S, Nanjundappa R, Evans L, Farmer V, et al. High-resolution characterization of centriole distal appendage morphology and dynamics by correlative STORM and electron microscopy. Nat Commun. 2019;10(1):993. Epub 20190301. doi: 10.1038/s41467-018-08216-4. PMCID: PMC6397210.

42.   Otto EA, Hurd TW, Airik R, Chaki M, Zhou W, Stoetzel C, et al. Candidate exome capture identifies mutation of SDCCAG8 as the cause of a retinal-renal ciliopathy. Nat Genet. 2010;42(10):840-50. Epub 20100912. doi: 10.1038/ng.662. PMCID: PMC2947620.

43.   Tsutsumi R, Chaya T, Tsujii T, Furukawa T. The carboxyl-terminal region of SDCCAG8 comprises a functional module essential for cilia formation as well as organ development and homeostasis. J Biol Chem. 2022;298(3):101686. Epub 20220204. doi: 10.1016/j.jbc.2022.101686. PMCID: PMC8902618.

44.   Chong WM, Wang WJ, Lo CH, Chiu TY, Chang TJ, Liu YP, et al. Super-resolution microscopy reveals coupling between mammalian centriole subdistal appendages and distal appendages. Elife.

2020;9. Epub 20200403. doi: 10.7554/eLife.53580. PMCID: PMC7173962.

45. Yang J, Liu X, Yue G, Adamian M, Bulgakov O, Li T. Rootletin, a novel coiled-coil protein, is a

structural component of the ciliary rootlet. J Cell Biol. 2002;159(3):431-40. Epub 20021111. doi:

10.1083/jcb.200207153. PMCID: PMC2173070.

46. Ryu S, Ko D, Shin B, Rhee K. The intercentriolar fibers function as docking sites of centriolar

satellites for cilia assembly. J Cell Biol. 2024;223(4). Epub 20240228. doi: 10.1083/jcb.202105065.

PMCID: PMC10901237.

47. Yang J, Gao J, Adamian M, Wen XH, Pawlyk B, Zhang L, et al. The ciliary rootlet maintains long-

term stability of sensory cilia. Mol Cell Biol. 2005;25(10):4129-37. doi: 10.1128/mcb.25.10.4129-

4137.2005. PMCID: PMC1087714.

48. Hua K, Ferland RJ. Fixation methods can differentially affect ciliary protein immunolabeling. Cilia.

2017;6:5. Epub 20170324. doi: 10.1186/s13630-017-0045-9. PMCID: PMC5366141.

49. Gigante ED, Taylor MR, Ivanova AA, Kahn RA, Caspary T. ARL13B regulates Sonic hedgehog

signaling from outside primary cilia. Elife. 2020;9. Epub 20200304. doi: 10.7554/eLife.50434. PMCID:

PMC7075693.

50. Cantagrel V, Silhavy JL, Bielas SL, Swistun D, Marsh SE, Bertrand JY, et al. Mutations in the cilia

gene ARL13B lead to the classical form of Joubert syndrome. Am J Hum Genet. 2008;83(2):170-9. doi:

10.1016/j.ajhg.2008.06.023. PMCID: PMC2495072.

51. Kim YK, Kim JH, Yu YS, Ko HW, Kim JH. Localization of primary cilia in mouse retina. Acta

Histochem. 2013;115(8):789-94. Epub 20130419. doi: 10.1016/j.acthis.2013.03.005.

52. Rashidi H, Leong YC, Venner K, Pramod H, Fei QZ, Jones OJR, et al. Generation of 3D retinal

tissue from human pluripotent stem cells using a directed small molecule-based serum-free microwell

platform. Sci Rep. 2022;12(1):6646. Epub 20220422. doi: 10.1038/s41598-022-10540-1. PMCID:

PMC9033780.

53. Travis AM, Manocha S, Willer JR, Wessler TS, Skiba NP, Pearring JN. Disrupting the ciliary

gradient of active Arl3 affects rod photoreceptor nuclear migration. Elife. 2023;12. Epub 20230104. doi:

10.7554/eLife.80533. PMCID: PMC9831603.

54.   Dilan TL, Moye AR, Salido EM, Saravanan T, Kolandaivelu S, Goldberg AFX, et al. ARL13B, a

Joubert Syndrome-Associated Protein, Is Critical for Retinogenesis and Elaboration of Mouse

Photoreceptor Outer Segments. J Neurosci. 2019;39(8):1347-64. Epub 20181220. doi:

10.1523/jneurosci.1761-18.2018. PMCID: PMC6381253.

55.   Hanke-Gogokhia C, Wu Z, Sharif A, Yazigi H, Frederick JM, Baehr W. The guanine nucleotide

exchange factor Arf-like protein 13b is essential for assembly of the mouse photoreceptor transition zone

and   outer   segment.   J   Biol   Chem.   2017;292(52):21442-56.   Epub   20171031.   doi:

10.1074/jbc.RA117.000141. PMCID: PMC5766971.

56.   Mustafi D, Engel AH, Palczewski K. Structure of cone photoreceptors. Prog Retin Eye Res.

2009;28(4):289-302. Epub 20090606. doi: 10.1016/j.preteyeres.2009.05.003. PMCID: PMC2740621.

57.   Wiik AC, Wade C, Biagi T, Ropstad EO, Bjerkås E, Lindblad-Toh K, et al. A deletion in

nephronophthisis 4 (NPHP4) is associated with recessive cone-rod dystrophy in standard wire-haired

dachshund. Genome Res. 2008;18(9):1415-21. Epub 20080807. doi: 10.1101/gr.074302.107. PMCID:

PMC2527698.

58.   Goldstein O, Mezey JG, Schweitzer PA, Boyko AR, Gao C, Bustamante CD, et al. IQCB1 and

PDE6B mutations cause similar early onset retinal degenerations in two closely related terrier dog breeds.

Invest Ophthalmol Vis Sci. 2013;54(10):7005-19. Epub 20131025. doi: 10.1167/iovs.13-12915. PMCID:

PMC3809947.

59.   Mellersh CS, Boursnell ME, Pettitt L, Ryder EJ, Holmes NG, Grafham D, et al. Canine RPGRIP1

mutation establishes cone-rod dystrophy in miniature longhaired dachshunds as a homologue of human

Leber   congenital   amaurosis.   Genomics.   2006;88(3):293-301.   Epub   20060627.   doi:

10.1016/j.ygeno.2006.05.004.

60.   Patil H, Tserentsoodol N, Saha A, Hao Y, Webb M, Ferreira PA. Selective loss of RPGRIP1-

dependent ciliary targeting of NPHP4, RPGR and SDCCAG8 underlies the degeneration of photoreceptor

neurons. Cell Death Dis. 2012;3(7):e355. Epub 20120719. doi: 10.1038/cddis.2012.96. PMCID:

PMC3406595.

61.   Ripolles-Garcia A, Murgiano L, Ziolkowska N, Marinho FP, Roszak K, Iffrig S, et al. Natural

disease history of a canine model of oligogenic RPGRIP1-cone-rod dystrophy establishes variable effects

of previously and newly mapped modifier loci. Hum Mol Genet. 2023;32(13):2139-51. doi:

10.1093/hmg/ddad046. PMCID: PMC10281748.

62.   Zhang Q, Acland GM, Wu WX, Johnson JL, Pearce-Kelling S, Tulloch B, et al. Different RPGR

exon ORF15 mutations in Canids provide insights into photoreceptor cell degeneration. Hum Mol Genet.

2002;11(9):993-1003. doi: 10.1093/hmg/11.9.993.

63.   Aguirre GD, Cideciyan AV, Dufour VL, Ripolles-García A, Sudharsan R, Swider M, et al. Gene

therapy reforms photoreceptor structure and restores vision in NPHP5-associated Leber congenital

amaurosis. Mol Ther. 2021;29(8):2456-68. Epub 20210327. doi: 10.1016/j.ymthe.2021.03.021. PMCID:

PMC8353203.

64.   Beltran WA, Cideciyan AV, Iwabe S, Swider M, Kosyk MS, McDaid K, et al. Successful arrest of

photoreceptor and vision loss expands the therapeutic window of retinal gene therapy to later stages of

disease. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A. 2015;112(43):E5844-53. Epub 20151012. doi:

10.1073/pnas.1509914112. PMCID: PMC4629324.

65.   Liu Q, Zhou J, Daiger SP, Farber DB, Heckenlively JR, Smith JE, et al. Identification and

subcellular localization of the RP1 protein in human and mouse photoreceptors. Invest Ophthalmol Vis

Sci. 2002;43(1):22-32. PMCID: PMC1963488.

 Figure legends

 Figure 1. Schematic diagram of the rod photoreceptor sensory cilium

Overall view of the architecture of the rod photoreceptor (left) and detailed depiction of each compartment

in the PSC (right). The PSC tubulin axoneme originates from the BB, specifically the MC, located in the

IS and extends through the CC to reach the OS. Just beyond the CC, the axoneme expands at the BR

and then tapers toward the distal part of the OS. Abbreviations: BB, basal body; BR, bulge region; CC,

connecting cilium; DA, distal axoneme; DC, daughter centriole; IS, inner segment; MC, mother centriole;

ONL, outer nuclear layer; OS, outer segment; PSC, photoreceptor sensory cilium.

Figure 2. Comparison of tissue integrity and protein localization under different U-ExM conditions

(A-D) Low-magnification images of the outer retina stained for rhodopsin (yellow), cone arrestin (CAR;

cyan), and α-tubulin (magenta) in U-ExM samples subjected to different preservation/fixation protocols

(fresh/short-fix, A; fresh/long-fix, B; frozen/long-fix, C) and non-expanded samples (D). Scale bars: 5 μm,

without correction for expansion factor. **(E)** Widefield view of a U-ExM sample stained for α-tubulin

(yellow) and acetylated α-tubulin (AcTub; magenta). Scale bar: 5 μm, without correction for expansion

factor. **(F-I)** Details of α-tubulin (yellow) and AcTub (magenta) staining in the canine PSC under U-ExM

(F-H) and non-expanded (I) conditions. The lower panels show axial view at the CC for each U-ExM

condition, indicated by white arrowheads. Scale bars: lateral view = 1 μm; axial view = 200 nm, without

correction for expansion factor. **(J, K)** Widths of AcTub-labeled CC (J) and MC proximal end (K) under

different U-ExM conditions. Sample size: n = 40 photoreceptors. For each condition, 4 individual punches

or cryosections from 2-4 eyes were stained. Non-significant (n.s., P > 0.05) as assessed by Kruskal-

Wallis test with Dunn's multiple-comparison test. **(L-S)** Molecular localization of Centrin (cyan, L-O) and

CEP290 (green, P-S) in normal canine PSC under U-ExM with different preservation/fixation protocols

(fresh/short-fix, L, P; fresh/long-fix, M, Q; frozen/long-fix, N, R) and non-expanded (O, S) conditions.

Scale bars: lateral view = 1 μm; axial view = 200 nm, without correction for expansion factor.

Abbreviations: CC, connecting cilium; DC, daughter centriole; INL, inner nuclear layer; IS, inner segment;

MC, mother centriole; ONL, outer nuclear layer; OS, outer segment; PFA, paraformaldehyde; PSC,

photoreceptor sensory cilium.

Figure 3. Tubulin-based molecular structure of rod and cone PSC in normal adult canine

photoreceptors

(A-D) Confocal images of expanded adult canine PSC stained for AcTub (magenta) and glutamylated

microtubules (white). Rod and cone photoreceptors were identified by labeling with rhodopsin (yellow, A)

and cone arrestin (CAR; cyan, C), respectively. Black, red, and white arrowheads on BR, CC, and MC

correspond to the respective axial views in (B, D). Scale bars: lateral view = 500 nm; axial view = 200

nm, after correction for expansion factor. **(E)** Schematic diagram showing the measurement of length and

width in the CC and BB. The tubulin axoneme labeled with AcTub and the glutamylation signals on Y-

links are represented in magenta and grey, respectively. **(F-I)** Comparison of length and width on the BB

(F, G) and the CC (H, I) between rod and cone PSC. **(J, K)** Rod (J) and cone (K) PSC illustrating the

measurements of AcTub-labeled axoneme width at four locations relative to the BR: +1000, +500, 0, and

-500 nm. The distal end of the glutamylation signal located outside of the tubulin axoneme was used to

define the 0 nm location. Scale bars: 500 nm, after correction for expansion factor. **(L, M)** Measurements

of tubulin width in rod (L) and cone (M) PSC at the four locations illustrated in (J, K). **(N)** Comparison of

tubulin width between rod and cone photoreceptors at the four locations shown in (J, K). Sample size: n

= 12-22 from ≥ 2 individual eyes. *P < 0.05, **P < 0.01, ***P < 0.001, and ****P < 0.0001 as assessed by

Kruskal-Wallis test with Dunn's multiple-comparison test (F, G) or Mann–Whitney test (H, I, L-N).

Abbreviations: BB, basal body; BR, bulge region; CC, connecting cilium; DC, daughter centriole; MC,

mother centriole; PSC, photoreceptor sensory cilium.

Figure 4. Molecular architecture of the bulge region and distal axoneme in normal canine rod and

cone PSC

(A-F) Lateral views of expanded adult canine PSC stained for LCA5 (orange, A, B), RP1 (green, C, D),

and CCDC66 (white, E, F) in rod (A, C, E) and cone (B, D, F) photoreceptors, respectively. Scale bars:

500 nm, after correction for expansion factor. **(G-L)** Co-immunolabeling with LCA5/RP1 (orange/green,

G-I) and RP1/CCDC66 (green/white, J-L) in each photoreceptor subtype. The right panels (I, L) show

axial views of the BR indicated by the white arrowheads in each staining. The white dashed lines

represent the starting position of each protein signal on the tubulin axoneme. Scale bars: lateral view =

500 nm; axial view = 200 nm, after correction for expansion factor. **(M)** Comparison of distance from the

proximal end of the MC to the starting point of each protein signal between rod and cone PSC. Sample

size: n = 12-24 from ≥ 3 individual eyes. ***P < 0.001, and ****P < 0.0001 as assessed by Mann–Whitney

test. **(N)** Model illustrating the differences in molecular architecture of the distal part of the PSC, including

the BR, between rod and cone photoreceptors. Abbreviations: BR, bulge region; MC, mother centriole;

PSC, photoreceptor sensory cilium.

Figure 5. Location of inner scaffold proteins in normal canine rod and cone PSC

(A-I) Confocal images of expanded adult canine PSC stained for POC5 (green, A-C), Centrin (green, D-

F), and FAM161A (green, G-H). Rod and cone photoreceptors were identified by labeling with rhodopsin

(yellow, A, D, G) and CAR (cyan, B, E, H), respectively. The right panels (C, F, I) show axial views of the

CC for each protein, indicated by white arrowheads. Scale bars: lateral view = 500 nm; axial view = 200

nm, after correction for expansion factor. **(J)** Schematic diagram illustrating the measurement of signal

length in the CC. The tubulin axoneme labeled with AcTub and inner scaffold proteins are represented in

magenta and green, respectively. **(K)** Comparison of POC5 and Centrin signal lengths between rod and

cone PSC. Sample size: n = 9-18 from ≥ 2 individual eyes. ****P < 0.0001 as assessed by Mann–Whitney

test. Abbreviations: CC, connecting cilium; PSC, photoreceptor sensory cilium.

Figure 6. Molecular mapping of multiple connecting cilium-related proteins in normal canine rod

and cone PSC

(A-R) Expanded normal canine PSC stained for CEP290 (green, A-C), RPGR (green, D-F), RPGRIP1

(green, G-I), SPATA7 (green, J-L), NPHP5 (green, M-O), and MAP9 (white, P-R) in rod (A, D, G, J, M, P)

and cone (B, E, H, K, N, Q) photoreceptors, respectively. Axial views of the CC for each protein, indicated

by white arrowheads, are shown in (C, F, I, L, O, R). Scale bars: lateral view = 500 nm; axial view = 200

nm, after correction for expansion factor. **(S)** Measurement of signal length of each protein on the CC in

rod and cone PSC. Sample size: n = 11-26 from ≥ 3 individual eyes. **(T)** Comparison of signal width

between CEP290, MAP9, and AcTub in rod and cone PSC. Sample size: n = 11-35 from ≥ 3 individual

eyes. *P < 0.05 and ****P < 0.0001 as assessed by Mann–Whitney test (S) or Kruskal-Wallis test with

Dunn's multiple-comparison test (T). Abbreviations: CC, connecting cilium; PSC, photoreceptor sensory

cilium.

Figure 7. Localization of ciliary trafficking and distal appendage-related proteins in normal canine

rod and cone PSC

(A-C) Confocal U-ExM images of normal canine PSC stained for AcTub (magenta) and IFT57 (green) in

rod (A) and cone (B) photoreceptors, respectively. Insets show details of IFT57 location around the MC.

Black, red, and white arrowheads on BR, CC, and MC correspond to the axial views shown in (C). Scale

bars: lateral view = 500 nm; axial view = 200 nm, after correction for expansion factor. **(D)** Comparison

of distance from the proximal end of the MC to IFT57 signals around the basal part of PSC between rod

and cone PSC. Sample size: n = 12-20 from ≥ 3 individual eyes. **(E-J)** Expanded normal canine

photoreceptors labeled for distal appendage-marker (CEP164; green, E-G) and SDCCAG8 (green, H-J)

in rod (E, H) and cone (F, I) photoreceptors, respectively. Axial views of the basal part of PSC for each

protein, indicated by white arrowheads, are shown in (G, J). Scale bars: lateral view = 500 nm; axial view

= 200 nm, after correction for expansion factor. **(K-L)** Co-immunolabeling with glutamylation/SDCCAG8

(white/green, K) and γ-tubulin/SDCCAG8 (orange/green, L). Scale bars: 500 nm, after correction for

expansion factor. **(M)** Measurement of distance from the proximal end of the MC to the signal of each

protein in rod and cone PSC. Sample size: n = 13-26 from ≥ 3 individual eyes. **P < 0.01, ***P < 0.001,

and ****P < 0.0001 as assessed by Mann–Whitney test. **(N)** Model illustrating the identified location of

IFT57 and SDCCAG8 around the distal appendages and the BB in normal canine photoreceptors.

Abbreviations: BB, basal body; BR, bulge region; CC, connecting cilium; DC, daughter centriole; MC,

mother centriole; PSC, photoreceptor sensory cilium.

Figure 8. Structural characterization of the ciliary rootlet in normal canine rod and cone

photoreceptors

(A) Widefield view of a U-ExM sample stained for rootletin (green) and AcTub (magenta). Scale bar: 1

μm, after correction for expansion factor. **(B-E)** High-magnification of expanded normal canine PSC

stained for rootletin (green) and AcTub (magenta) in rod (B, C) and cone (D, E) photoreceptors,

respectively. 3D rendering images were shown in (C, E) from different angles. Scale bars: 2D maximum

projection = 1 μm; 3D view = 500 nm, after correction for expansion factor. **(F)** Co-immunolabeling with

ARL13B/rootletin (white/green) in a U-ExM sample of normal canine retina. Scale bars: 1 μm, after

correction for expansion factor. **(G, H)** Confocal images of expanded adult canine photoreceptors stained

for ARL13B (white) and AcTub (magenta). Rod and cone photoreceptors were identified by labeling with

rhodopsin (yellow, G) and CAR (cyan, H), respectively. Scale bars: low-magnification view = 1 μm; high-

magnification view = 500 nm, after correction for expansion factor. Abbreviations: CC, connecting cilium;

IS, inner segment; ONL, outer nuclear layer; PSC, photoreceptor sensory cilium.

Figure 9. Molecular architecture of calyceal processes in normal canine photoreceptors

(A) Widefield view of a non-expanded retinal cryosection stained for rhodopsin (yellow), G protein subunit

alpha transducin 1 (GNAT1; orange), and protocadherin 15 (PCDH15; green). The right panels show

details of PCDH15 location in rod and cone photoreceptors. Scale bar: 5 μm, without correction for

expansion factor. **(B-E)** Confocal images of expanded adult canine photoreceptors stained for PCDH15

(green) and AcTub (magenta). Rod and cone photoreceptors were identified by labeling with rhodopsin

(yellow, B), CAR (cyan, C), blue-opsin (blue, D), and red/green-opsin (red, E) respectively. The right

panels in (B, C) and (E, D) are showing 3D rendering images of one photoreceptor. Scale bars: 500 nm,

after correction for expansion factor. **(F)** Co-immunolabeling with PCDH15/β-actin (green/orange) in a U-

ExM sample of normal canine retina. The right panels show details of calyceal processes in cone

photoreceptor with a 2D maximum projection (upper) and a 3D rendering image (lower). Scale bars: low-

magnification view = 1 μm; high-magnification view = 500 nm, after correction for expansion factor. **(G)**

Model illustrating the identified location of proteins related to calyceal processes in canine photoreceptors.

Abbreviations: IS, inner segment; ONL, outer nuclear layer; OS, outer segment; PSC, photoreceptor

sensory cilium.

Figure 10. Schematic summary diagrams of the molecular architecture of PSC and calyceal

processes, and the distribution of retinal ciliopathy-associated proteins in normal canine rod and

cone photoreceptors

(A) Overview of the architecture of normal canine rod (left) and cone (right) photoreceptors. **(B)**

Comparison of PSC molecular architecture between rod and cone photoreceptors. Cone PSC has a

longer and wider BR, longer BBs, and a shorter CC than those of rod PSC. **(C)** Structural differences of

PSC rootlet between rod and cone photoreceptors. Rod photoreceptors have a straight rootlet extending

toward the ONL, whereas the rootlet of cones forms a curvilinear shape. **(D)** Distribution of calyceal

processes-related proteins in rod and cone photoreceptors. In rod photoreceptors, the localization of

PCDH15 is limited to the IS/OS junction, while in cone photoreceptors, PCDH15 shows a microvilli-like

distribution accompanied by actin filaments. Abbreviations: BB, basal body; BR, bulge region; CC,

connecting cilium; DA, distal axoneme; DC, daughter centriole; IS, inner segment; MC, mother centriole;

ONL, outer nuclear layer; OS, outer segment; PSC, photoreceptor sensory cilium.

Supplementary Figure 1. Overview of the modified U-ExM protocol for fresh and frozen-archival

canine retinal tissues

AA, acrylamide; ASP, ammonium persulfate; ddH$_2$O, distilled deionized water; FA, formaldehyde; MS,

monomer solution; OCT, optimal cutting temperature; PFA, paraformaldehyde; RT, room temperature;

TEMED, tetramethylethylenediamine.

Supplementary Figure 2. Tissue processing and gel expansion in U-ExM with canine retinal tissues

(A) Collection of 5 mm tissue punches from PFA fixed-fresh canine posterior eyecup using a disposable biopsy punch. **(B, C)** Isolation of retinal tissue from the 5 mm tissue complex (B, before; C, after isolation). **(D)** Gelation of the 5 mm retinal punch using a 12 mm circular cover glass. **(E)** First-round expansion of the gel including the fresh retinal punch. **(F)** Twenty-µm-thick canine retinal cryosection. **(G)** Gelation of the canine retinal cryosection using a 12 mm circular cover glass. **(H)** First-round expansion of the gel including the retinal section. **(I)** Comparison of gel diameter after the first-round expansion between different fixation conditions. Sample size: n = 4 individual punches or cryosections from 2-4 eyes per fixation/storage condition. Non-significant (n.s., $P > 0.05$) by Kruskal-Wallis test with Dunn's multiple-comparison test.

Supplementary Figure 3. Co-immunolabeling of CEP290 and glutamination on the connecting cilium of normal canine photoreceptors

Confocal images of expanded adult canine PSC stained for AcTub (magenta), glutamination (white), and CEP290 (green). The lower panels show axial views of the CC, indicated by white arrowheads. Scale bars: lateral view = 500 nm; axial view = 200 nm, after correction for expansion factor. Abbreviations: CC, connecting cilium.

Supplementary Figure 4. Localization of KIF3A in normal canine rod and cone PSC

(A, B) Confocal U-ExM images of normal canine PSC stained for AcTub (magenta) and KIF3A (green) in rod (A) and cone (B) photoreceptors, respectively. KIF3A signal shows a similar localization pattern to IFT57 around the BB and BR. Abbreviations: BB, basal body; BR, bulge region; PSC, photoreceptor sensory cilium.

Supplementary Figure 5. Stricture of the PSC rootlet in normal canine blue and red/green cone photoreceptors

(A, B) 3D rendering images of U-ExM samples stained for rootletin (green) with blue-opsin (blue, A) or red/green-opsin (red, B). No significant differences are observed in the architecture of the PSC rootlet among the different cone subtypes. Scale bars: 500 nm, after correction for expansion factor. Abbreviation: PSC, photoreceptor sensory cilium.

Supplementary Figure 6. Immunostaining for ARL13B on non-expanded normal canine retinal cryosection

Widefield (left) and high-magnification (right) view of a non-expanded retinal cryosection stained for rhodopsin (yellow), ARL13B (white), and AcTub (magenta). Similar to the U-ExM samples, ARL13B is predominantly localized to the IS in the non-expanded cryosection. Scale bars: 5 µm. Abbreviations: INL, inner nuclear layer; IS, inner segment; ONL, outer nuclear layer; OS, outer segment.

OS

PSC

IS

ONL

DA

BR

CC

MC

BBs

DC

	Tubulin axoneme
	Y-link

A Rod Cone

OS

IS

ONL

B: PSC

DA

BR

CC

MC

DC

| | Tubulin axoneme | ● CCDC66 | ● RP1 | ● LCA5 |
| | Inner scaffold (POC5, Centrin, FAM161A) | | | MAP9 |

Y-link (CEP290, RPGR, RPGRIP1, SPATA7, NPHP5)

○ Ciliary trafficking (IFT57, KIF3A) ● SDCCAG8

Distal appendages (CEP164) Subdistal appendages

C: PSC rootlet

PSC rootlet (Rootletin, ARL13B)

D: Calyceal processes

PCDH15   Actin filament