

### Daughter centrioles assemble preferentially towards the nuclear envelope in Drosophila syncytial embryos

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2	Daughter centrioles assemble preferentially towards the nuclear
3	envelope in <i>Drosophila</i> syncytial embryos
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#### 28 Abstract

29 Centrosomes are important organisers of microtubules within animal cells. They comprise a pair of centrioles surrounded by the pericentriolar material (PCM), which 30 nucleates and organises the microtubules. To maintain centrosome numbers, 31 32 centrioles must duplicate once and only once per cell cycle. During S-phase, a single 33 new "daughter" centriole is built orthogonally on one side of each radially symmetric "mother" centriole. Mis-regulation of duplication can result in the simultaneous 34 formation of multiple daughter centrioles around a single mother centriole, leading to 35 centrosome amplification, a hallmark of cancer. It remains unclear how a single 36 37 duplication site is established. It also remains unknown whether this site is pre-defined or randomly positioned around the mother centriole. Here, we show that within 38 39 Drosophila syncytial embryos daughter centrioles preferentially assemble on the side of the mother facing the nuclear envelope, to which the centrosomes are closely 40 attached. This positional preference is established early during duplication and 41 remains stable throughout daughter centriole assembly, but is lost in centrosomes 42 forced to lose their connection to the nuclear envelope. This shows that non-43 centrosomal cues influence centriole duplication and raises the possibility that these 44 45 external cues could help establish a single duplication site.

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#### 52 Introduction

Centrosomes are important microtubule organising centres (MTOCs) within animal 53 54 cells, best known for organising the mitotic spindle poles during cell division (Conduit et al., 2015b). They typically comprise an older "mother" and younger "daughter" pair 55 of barrel-shaped microtubule-based centrioles. While centriole structure varies 56 57 between species and cell type (Loncarek and Bettencourt-Dias, 2018), they all display 58 a 9-fold radial symmetry, with an inner "cartwheel" structure supporting the assembly 59 of 9 microtubule triplets, doublets or singlets that make up the centriole wall. The 60 mother centriole recruits and organises a surrounding pericentriolar material (PCM), 61 which contains the necessary microtubule-associating and signalling proteins required 62 for centrosome function (Woodruff et al., 2014). The mother centriole also templates 63 the assembly of the daughter centriole in a process called centriole duplication 64 (Banterle and Gönczy, 2017; Firat-Karalar and Stearns, 2014; Fu et al., 2015). This occurs after cell division, when each daughter inherits a single centrosome containing 65 a disengaged mother-daughter centriole pair. The daughter centriole is converted into 66 a mother and both mothers support the orthogonal assembly of a new daughter 67 centriole at their proximal end during S-phase. The two mother-daughter centriole 68 69 pairs break apart during G2/M-phase to form two centrosomes, which mature by 70 recruiting more PCM in preparation for mitosis. During mitosis, the two centrosomes 71 each organise one pole of the bipolar spindle and towards the end of mitosis the 72 centrioles disengage in preparation for a new round of duplication in the following cell 73 cycle.

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75 In most cell types, centrioles duplicate once per cell cycle during S-phase and it is this 76 "once and only once" duplication event that maintains centrosome numbers through 77 multiple cell divisions (Nigg and Holland, 2018). Failure to duplicate the centrioles 78 during S-phase results in the inherence of a centrosome with a single centriole, which cannot then split to form two centrosomes. This leads to monopolar spindle formation 79 and cell cycle arrest. In contrast, multiple centrosomes form if mother centrioles 80 template the assembly of more than one daughter centriole and this leads to multipolar 81 spindle formation in the next cell cycle. Multipolar spindles can result in cell death or 82 83 they can be transformed into bipolar spindles that harbour erroneous kinetochore

attachments, leading to lagging chromosomes and chromosome instability (Basto et
al., 2008; Ganem et al., 2009; Godinho and Pellman, 2014; Nigg and Holland, 2018).
Centrosome amplification is strongly associated with cancer progression, with
chromosome instability and increased centrosome signalling being possible causal
links (Anderhub et al., 2012; Basto et al., 2008; Denu et al., 2016; Godinho et al., 2014;
Godinho and Pellman, 2014; Mittal et al., 2021; Salisbury et al., 2004).

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Seminal studies in *C. elegans* identified a core set of proteins necessary for centriole 91 duplication: the kinase ZYG-1 and the large coiled-coil proteins SPD-2, SAS-4, SAS-92 5 and SAS-6 (Delattre et al., 2006; Leidel and Gönczy, 2003; O'Connell et al., 2001; 93 94 Pelletier et al., 2006). Homologues in Drosophila (Sak/Plk4, Spd-2, Sas-4, Ana2 and Sas-6) and human cells (PLK4, CEP192, CPAP, STIL and SAS-6) were subsequently 95 identified and, with the exception of *Drosophila* Spd-2 (Dix and Raff, 2007), shown to 96 also be essential for centriole duplication (Basto et al., 2006; Bettencourt-Dias et al., 97 98 2005; Dammermann et al., 2004; Habedanck et al., 2005; Kim et al., 2013; Leidel et al., 2005; Sonnen et al., 2013; Stevens et al., 2010; Tang et al., 2011; Terra et al., 99 2005). The role of worm SPD-2, which is to recruit ZYG1/PLK4, is played instead by 100 Drosophila Asterless (Asl) (Blachon et al., 2008; Dzhindzhev et al., 2010), and the 101 102 human homologues of Asl (CEP152) is also required for centriole duplication (Blachon 103 et al., 2008; Cizmecioglu et al., 2010; Hatch et al., 2010), functioning together with the human homologue of SPD-2 (CEP192) to recruit PLK-4 (Kim et al., 2013; Park et al., 104 105 2014; Sonnen et al., 2013).

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A large number of studies are producing a clear picture about how each of these 107 proteins contributes to centriole assembly (reviewed in (Arguint and Nigg, 2016; Firat-108 109 Karalar and Stearns, 2014; Fu et al., 2015; Yamamoto and Kitagawa, 2021). In 110 essence, CEP192/SPD-2 and/or CEP152/Asl recruit the master kinase PLK-4 to the wall of the mother centriole where it regulates the recruitment of STIL/Ana2 and SAS-111 6 and then CPAP/Sas-4 to form the daughter centriole. A key feature is that daughter 112 centriole assembly occurs on only one side of the radially symmetric mother centriole, 113 and this relies on localising PLK4, SAS-6 and STIL/Ana2 to a single spot on the side 114 115 of the mother. The problem is that CEP192/SPD-2 and CEP152/Asl localise as a ring

around the mother centriole and thus PLK4 is also initially recruited in a ring-like 116 pattern (Kim et al., 2013; Park et al., 2014; Sonnen et al., 2013). In order for just a 117 single daughter centriole to form, this ring of PLK4 must therefore be converted to a 118 'dot', which marks the site of centriole duplication. Failure of PLK4 to undergo this 119 'ring-to-dot' conversion results in multiple daughter centrioles forming around the 120 121 mother centriole and this leads to centrosome amplification (Brownlee et al., 2011; Habedanck et al., 2005; Klebba et al., 2013; Kleylein-Sohn et al., 2007; Ohta et al., 122 2014). Ring-to-dot conversion of PLK4 is thought to be largely self-controlled, as it 123 involves the auto-phosphorylation of a degron within PLK4 (Cunha-Ferreira et al., 124 2013, 2009; Guderian et al., 2010; Holland et al., 2010; Klebba et al., 2013; Rogers et 125 126 al., 2009; Sillibourne et al., 2010), and could also depend on the ability of PLK4 to self-127 assemble, a property that is regulated by auto-phosphorylation and that protects PLK4 128 from degradation (Gouveia et al., 2018; Park et al., 2019; Yamamoto and Kitagawa, 129 2019). Nevertheless, ring-to-dot conversion is likely also influenced by the binding of 130 STIL/Ana-2, which increases PLK4 activity (Arguint et al., 2015; Moyer et al., 2015) and protects PLK4 from degradation (Arguint et al., 2015; Ohta et al., 2014). In human 131 132 cells, PLK4 is observed as an asymmetric punctate ring prior to the recruitment of STIL, suggesting that initial symmetry breaking is independent of STIL, although the 133 134 full ring-to-dot conversion occurs only once STIL and SAS-6 have been recruited (Kim et al., 2013; Ohta et al., 2018, 2014; Park et al., 2014; Yamamoto and Kitagawa, 135 2019). In flies, Ana2 recruitment is the first observed symmetry breaking event 136 137 (Dzhindzhev et al., 2017). Mathematical models can explain how the properties of 138 PLK4, with or without the help of STIL/Ana2, can lead to the symmetry breaking ringto-dot transition (Leda et al., 2018; Takao et al., 2019). 139

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While various studies have focussed on understanding how symmetry breaking is achieved, it remains unknown whether the site of daughter centriole assembly is randomly assigned or not. We decided to investigate this using *Drosophila* syncytial embryos as a model system. These embryos go through rapid and near-synchronous rounds of S-phase and then mitosis with no intervening gap phases. The nuclear envelope does not fully break down during mitosis and the centrosomes remain closely attached to the nuclear envelope throughout each cycle. At the end of mitosis / start

of S-phase, mother and daughter centrioles separate with the daughter converting to 148 a mother and both centrioles quickly migrate around the nuclear envelope to form two 149 new centrosomes that will organise the next round of mitosis. During S-phase, each 150 mother centriole templates the formation of a new daughter centriole, with only the 151 mother centriole organising PCM (Conduit et al., 2015a, 2010). Towards the end of 152 mitosis, the centrioles disengage and the daughter centrioles are converted to mothers 153 by the addition of Asl, allowing them to begin recruiting PCM and initiate centriole 154 155 duplication in the next cycle (Conduit et al., 2010; Novak et al., 2014).

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157 Using a dual-colour FRAP approach along with super-resolution Airyscan imaging, we 158 show here that daughter centrioles preferentially assemble on the side of the mother centriole facing the nuclear envelope. By tracking duplication events throughout S-159 160 phase, we show that this preferential positioning of the daughter centriole with respect to the nucleus occurs from the early stages of centriole formation and remains 161 162 relatively stable throughout the cycle. Using a point mutation in the key PCM protein Centrosomin (Cnn), we show that this preferential positioning towards the nuclear 163 envelope is lost in centrosomes that have detached from the nuclear envelope. 164 Collectively, these observations suggest that the site of centriole duplication is 165 166 influenced by the nuclear envelope and raise the possibility that cues external to the centriole duplication machinery may influence and help control centriole duplication. 167

#### 169 **Results**

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171 The site of daughter centricle assembly is non-random with respect to cell geometry 172 To address whether the site of daughter centricle formation is pre-defined or randomly assigned during centriole duplication, we turned to the Drosophila syncytial embryo. 173 174 In these embryos hundreds of nuclei and centrosomes undergo rapid cycles of division (~8-15 min per cycle) in near synchrony, alternating between S-phase and M-phase 175 176 without gap phases. At around division cycle 9 the nuclei and centrosomes migrate to 177 the cell cortex and their divisions can be readily imaged with a fluorescence-based 178 microscope until they pause in cycle 14. Mitotic spindles form parallel to the cortex 179 such that they align along the X-Y imaging plane. The mother centrioles also have a 180 regular alignment; their proximal-distal (end-to-end) axis is aligned orthogonally to the spindle axis such that mother centrioles point along the Z imaging axis. Newly forming 181 182 daughter centrioles grow along the X-Y imaging axis. This regular alignment of the 183 centrioles in theory allows one to record the position of the daughter centriole relative to other cellular structures, such as the mitotic spindle axis. Drosophila centrioles are 184 relatively small, however, meaning that duplicating mother-daughter centriole pairs 185 cannot be resolved using "standard" confocal microscopy. We therefore developed a 186 method to estimate the location of the centrioles within an engaged mother-daughter 187 centriole pair by performing dual-colour Fluorescence Recovery After Photobleaching 188 (FRAP) experiments. This relies on the fact that PCM proteins, such as Spd-2, Asl or 189 190 Cnn, are dynamically recruited around the mother, but not the daughter, centriole, 191 while the centriole protein Sas-4 is dynamically recruited to the growing daughter, but 192 not the mother, centriole (Conduit et al., 2015a). By tagging a PCM protein and Sas-4 193 with different coloured fluorophores and then photobleaching during S-phase, the 194 centroids of the recovering fluorescent signals can be used to estimate the relative positions of the mother (PCM signal) and daughter centrioles (Sas-4 signal) (Figure 195 196 1A). We used this approach to compare the position of the growing daughter centriole relative to the mother centriole and the future spindle axis (Figure 1B). 197

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199 To begin with, we used Spd-2-GFP and Sas-4-mCherry as our mother and daughter 200 centriole markers, respectively. We photobleached either one centrosome from a

separating centrosome pair during early S-phase (when Sas-4 starts to be 201 202 incorporated at the newly forming daughter centrille) or we photobleached a single 203 centrosome in late M-phase, just prior to centrosome splitting, daughter centriole 204 assembly and Sas-4 recruitment, and monitored the two resulting centrosomes in the 205 following S-phase. Both cases result in centrosomes where Spd-2-GFP recovers only 206 around the mother centriole and Sas-4-mCherry recovers only at the growing daughter 207 centrioles during S-phase, but the latter case generates two centrosomes that can be 208 analysed. We recorded the centroids of the recovering fluorescent signals in mid to late S-phase once the centrosomes had reached their final positions on the opposite 209 210 side of the nuclear envelope. Waiting until the centrosomes had fully separated 211 allowed us to use the future spindle axis (a line drawn between the paired 212 centrosomes) as a spatial reference point with which to compare the position of 213 daughter centriole assembly (Figure 1B). We analysed a total of 121 centrosomes from 16 embryos and collated the results. Strikingly, the positions of daughter 214 215 centrioles were not evenly distributed relative to the future spindle axis (positive Y axis in Figure 1C). A frequency distribution of the angles of the daughter centrioles relative 216 217 to the future spindle axis showed displayed a Normal distribution around the 0° angle (Figure S1A,B) (passed all 4 normality tests in Prism) i.e. the daughter centrioles had 218 219 a preference to be close to the 0° angle and were not evenly distributed around the mother centriole (Chi-square=44.52, df=11, p<0.0001), as would be expected if 220 221 daughter centriole positioning were random. The data can also be represented by a 222 Rose Plot, where each segment corresponds to a duplication event and its position 223 corresponds to the angle from the future spindle axis (Figure 1D). 95 of 121 (78.51%) 224 daughter centrioles were assembled within 90 degrees of the future spindle axis (blue 225 segments, Figure 1D), while only 26 (21.49%) were assembled more than 90 degrees 226 from the future spindle axis (red segments, Figure 1F) (Binomial Wilson/Brown test, 227 p<0.0001). The distribution of daughter centrille positions was not due to microscope 228 induced misalignment of the green and red channels: auto-fluorescent beads were used to correct for microscope-induced offset between the channels (as in (Conduit et 229 230 al., 2015a)); and the data was taken from multiple nuclei/centrosome pairs, all of which have different orientations with respect to the X-Y axes of the microscope. Moreover, 231 232 we observed a more random and non-Normal distribution of angles when imaging the

fluorescence recovery of two PCM proteins, Spd-2-GFP and RFP-Cnn, which are 233 234 expected to be closely aligned (Figure 1E,F; Figure S1C,D). Indeed, the positions of 235 the recovering RFP-Cnn signals relative to the recovering Spd-2-GFP signals were much closer together with the mean distance between these signals (0.099µm) being 236 significantly shorter than the mean distance between the recovering Spd-2-GFP 237 (mother) and Sas-4-GFP (daughter) signals (0.284µm) (Figure 1G). We also repeated 238 the experiment using a green version of Sas-4 (Sas-4-GFP) and a different mother 239 240 centriole marker (Asl-mCherry) on a different microscope and again found that the positions of daughter centriole assembly were not evenly distributed relative to the 241 242 future spindle axis (Figure S1E), that the angles from the future spindle axis were Normally distributed around 0° (Figure S1F,G), that a much higher proportion of 243 244 daughter centrioles assembled within 90 degrees of the future spindle axis (Figure S1H), and that the distance between the recovering signals was similar to that for the 245 Spd-2-GFP/Sas-4-mCherry data (Figure S1I). Collectively, this data shows that the 246 positioning of daughter centriole assembly in Drosophila syncytial embryos is non-247 248 random with respect to cellular geometry.

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# The non-random position of daughter centriole assembly is dependent on centrosome association with the nuclear envelope

252 In Drosophila syncytial embryos, the centrosomes are tightly associated with the 253 nuclear envelope via nuclear envelope associated Dynein (Robinson et al., 1999). 254 Thus, the observation that daughter centrioles form preferentially within 90° of the 255 future spindle axis also meant that they were preferentially positioned on the side of 256 the mother centriole facing the nuclear envelope. This raised the intriguing possibility 257 that the nuclear envelope might influence the position of daughter centriole assembly. 258 To test this, we wanted to examine the position of daughter centriole assembly in 259 centrosomes that had detached from the nuclear envelope. We knew that Threonine 260 1133 within the PCM protein Cnn is important for Cnn to oligomerise and form a PCM 261 scaffold (Feng et al., 2017) and our unpublished observations had shown that 262 substituting Threonine 1133 with Alanine partially perturbs scaffold formation and the ability of centrosomes to remain attached to the nuclear envelope (see also Figure 263 2A). We therefore generated a stock co-expressing Sas-4-mCherry and a GFP-Cnn-264

T1133A to analyse daughter centriole position in attached versus detached 265 centrosomes. The detached centrosomes in Cnn-T1133A mutants normally remain 266 267 relatively close to the nuclear envelope, do not fall into the embryo centre, and form a spindle pole in during the following mitosis. Nevertheless, they often do not fully 268 migrate around the nucleus (Figure 2A). Thus, instead of using the line between paired 269 270 centrosomes as a reference point for the angle of daughter centriole assembly, we 271 used a line drawn between the mother centriole and the centre of the nucleus (visualised due to the exclusion of fluorescence molecules), which we hereafter refer 272 to as the nuclear axis (Figure 2A,B). 273

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275 We photobleached centrosomes in late mitosis and monitored the fluorescence 276 recovery during the following S-phase, noting which centrosomes had separated from 277 the nuclear envelope and which had not. Importantly, the daughter centrioles within 278 centrosomes that had remained attached to the nuclear envelope still displayed a 279 preference to assemble on the side of the mother facing the nuclear envelope (Figure 2C-F), showing that perturbation of the PCM via Cnn's T1133A mutation did not 280 indirectly affect daughter centriole positioning. In these attached centrosomes, the 281 estimated position of the daughter centrioles displayed a similar non-even distribution 282 283 to that observed in the analyses above for Spd-2-GFP;Sas-4-mCherry and AslmCherry; Sas-4-GFP (compare Figures 1C, 2C and Figure S1E). The measured 284 285 angles of daughter centriole formation were normally distributed around 0° (Figure 286 2D,E) (passed all 4 Normality tests in Prism) and a Rose Plot graph highlighted how 287 66.3% (59 of 89) daughter centrioles were positioned within 90 degrees of 0° (Figure 2F) (Binomial Wilson/Brown test, p<0.01). In contrast to the attached centrosomes, 288 the daughter centrioles within centrosomes detached from the nuclear envelope did 289 290 not display a preference to assemble on the side of the mother facing the nuclear 291 envelope (Figure 2G-J). The estimated position of these daughter centrioles was more evenly spread around the mother centriole (Figure 2G) and the angles at which they 292 assembled relative to the nuclear axis were not normally distributed around 0° (Figure 293 2H,I) (Failed 3 of 4 Normality tests in Prism) and were not significantly different from 294 a random distribution (Chi-square=8.4, df=11, p=0.68). Moreover, there was no 295 296 preference for the centrioles to form within 90 degrees of the nuclear axis, with similar

numbers of daughter centrioles forming within 90 degrees (31/60) and more than 90
degrees (29/60) from the nuclear axis (Figure 2J) (Binomial Wilson/Brown test,
p=0.90).

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It was possible that the perceived loss of preference for the daughter centriole to form 301 302 towards the nuclear axis in detached Cnn-T1133A centrosomes could have been an 303 indirect effect of defects in centricle orientation with respect to the imaging axis i.e. detached centrosomes may tilt such that their daughter centrioles do not grow along 304 the X-Y imaging axis, causing increased noise and a possible randomising effect in 305 the data. We ruled this out in two different ways. First, we compared the frequency at 306 which GFP-Cnn-T1133A displayed a "central hole" at attached and detached 307 centrosomes. Cnn molecules surround the mother centriole such that, with sufficient 308 309 X-Y spatial resolution, a "hole" in the centre of the Cnn fluorescence signal can be 310 observed (e.g. top panels in Figure 3A, B). We reasoned that this central hole would 311 be observed only in centrosomes that had their mother centrille pointing normally along the Z imaging axis. We imaged fixed embryos in S-phase expressing GFP-Cnn-312 T1133A and Asl-mCherry (which labels only mother centrioles during S-phase) on a 313 Zeiss Airyscan 2 microscope, which increases X-Y spatial resolution to up to 120nm, 314 315 and quantified the frequency of "clear", "partial", or "no clear" central holes in attached (Figure 3A) versus detached (Figure 3B) centrosomes. Out of a total of 112 316 317 centrosomes from 3 embryos, 83 were attached and 29 were detached. Of the 83 318 attached centrosomes, 38 (45.8%) displayed a clear central hole, 25 (30.1%) 319 displayed a partial central hole, and 20 (24.1%) displayed no clear central hole (Figure 3C). These percentages were similar in detached centrosomes. Of the 29 detached 320 321 centrosomes, 12 (41.4%) displayed a clear doughnut-like pattern, 9 (31.0%) displayed 322 a partial doughnut-like pattern, and 8 (27.6%) displayed no clear doughnut-like pattern 323 (Figure 3C). There was no significant difference between the categorisation of these 324 attached and detached centrosomes (Chi-square = 0.204, df=2, p=0.903), suggesting 325 that detached centrosomes are not mis-oriented compared to attached centrosomes. To further support this finding, we used the previous Spd-2-GFP/Sas-4-mCherry 326 FRAP data (Figure 2C,G) to compare the median estimated distances between 327 328 mother and daughter centrioles in attached ( $0.30\mu m$ ) versus detached ( $0.33\mu m$ ) centrosomes and found there was no significant difference (Figure 3D; Mann-Whitney,
p=0.26). The distance would in theory be shorter in detached centrosomes if they were
misoriented. Thus, the data suggests that mother centrioles within centrosomes that
have detached from the nuclear envelope remain aligned along the Z imaging axis.
We therefore conclude that, unlike in attached centrosomes, daughter centrioles within
detached centrosomes do not form preferentially towards the nuclear envelope and
that the nucleus somehow influences daughter centriole positioning.

336

#### 337 <u>The positioning of daughter centriole assembly is consistent through time</u>

To estimate the position of daughter centrioles from our FRAP data, we had needed 338 339 to wait until the fluorescent signals had recovered sufficiently in order to take accurate 340 measurements, meaning that we could only assess daughter centriole positioning 341 during mid to late S-phase. We therefore wondered whether the initial steps of 342 daughter centriole formation occur with a positional preference, or whether they occur 343 in a random position with the daughter centriole rotating to face the nuclear envelope later in S-phase. To address this, we performed live imaging of duplicating 344 centrosomes throughout S-phase using an Airyscan microscope that enabled us to 345 distinguish two mother and daughter foci of Sas-4-mCherry signal, with the mother 346 347 centriole localised in the centre of the Spd-2-GFP fluorescence (Figure 4A). Note that the growing daughter centriole rapidly recruits excess Sas-4 (Conduit et al., 2015a) 348 349 and so appears brighter than the mother for the majority of S-phase, and that Spd-2-350 GFP, like GFP-Cnn, surrounds the mother centriole and can display a central hole with 351 high enough spatial resolution (certain timepoints in Figure 4A; (Conduit et al., 2014)). Exclusion of cytoplasmic fluorescence can also be used to assess the position of the 352 nuclear envelope (data not shown), which is indicated in blue in Figure 4A (note that 353 354 centrosomes can migrate over the nucleus, explaining why the paired centrosome in 355 timepoint 1 overlaps the nuclear region).

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We followed 72 centrosomes for at least 6 timepoints (~5 minutes) and collated the data. Note that for most centrosomes, the mother and daughter centrioles within a pair were not resolvable for all 6 timepoints and so the number of measurements per timepoint varied between timepoints. We found that daughter centrioles had a strong

preference to assemble on the side of the mother facing the nuclear envelope from 361 362 the earliest stage of S-phase that the daughter centrioles were visible (timepoint 1, Figure 4B). Moreover, this preference remained throughout the 6 timepoints (Figure 363 4B). Indeed, we found that daughter centriole positioning relative to the nuclear axis 364 remained quite stable over time. The median angle deviation between timepoints was 365 21.5°, which is much lower than the median angle deviation expected were the 366 daughter centrioles to be positioned randomly at each timepoint (~90°). Indeed, the 367 368 distribution of deviation angles was significantly different from the distribution of random number data (Figure 4C; p<0.0001 Kolmogorov-Smirnov test). Collectively, 369 370 this data shows that daughter centriole assembly is initiated preferentially on the side of the mother facing the nuclear envelope and that this positioning remains relatively 371 372 stable throughout daughter centriole assembly.

#### 374 **Discussion**

375 We have shown that during the mitotic nuclear cycles in *Drosophila* syncytial embryos 376 daughter centrioles preferentially assemble on the side of the mother centriole facing 377 the nuclear envelope. This preferential positioning is lost when centrosomes become detached from the nuclear envelope, raising the intriguing possibility that crosstalk 378 379 between nuclear-envelope-related factors and the centriole duplication machinery 380 may help to instruct centriole duplication. It remains to be seen whether an attachment 381 to the nuclear envelope influences centriole duplication in other cell types, but the 382 centrosome is not always attached to the nuclear envelope in all cell types. It remains 383 possible, however, that other cellular structures could be involved in these cells, or 384 that daughter centriole positioning is random, relying on stochastic processes.

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386 We used a Cnn point mutant (Cnn-T1133A) to show that daughter centrioles within 387 detached centrosomes lose their preferential positioning towards the nuclear 388 envelope. This mutation has a relatively subtle effect on PCM assembly and stability, while being sufficient to cause a fraction of centrosomes to detach from the nuclear 389 envelope. We predict that this detachment is stochastic and occurs because fewer 390 391 microtubules can be organised at centrosomes with reduced PCM. Thus, there is a 392 chance that some centrosomes will detach from the nuclear envelope. PCM levels are not low enough, however, to cause Cnn-T1133A centrosomes to 'rocket' around the 393 394 embryo, unlike centrosomes completely lacking Cnn (Lucas and Raff, 2007), and we 395 do not see any obvious effect on centriole structure or duplication. We therefore 396 consider that the loss of preferential daughter centriole positioning in detached Cnn-397 T1133A centrosomes is not due to PCM instability *per se*, especially as the daughter 398 centrioles within attached Cnn-T1133A centrosomes still retain a biased position 399 towards the nuclear envelope. Although this bias (66%) appears to be lower than that 400 recorded when looking at "wild-type" centrosomes (78.5% when using Spd-2-GFP and Sas-4-mCherry; 72.9% when using Asl-mCherry and Sas-4-GFP), we believe this is 401 402 due to a lower accuracy of estimating mother centriole position when using Cnn-T1133A as opposed to using Spd-2 and Asl. This is because Spd-2 and Asl 403 404 incorporate very close to the wall of the mother centriole, while Cnn incorporates into 405 a broader area (Conduit et al., 2014), meaning that the recovering fluorescent signals

406 of Spd-2 and Asl better predict mother centriole position. It would be satisfying to 407 repeat the experiment with a mutation that perturbs centrosome attachment to the 408 nuclear envelope without affecting centrosome structure at all, such as mutations in 409 the LINC complex, but these experiments would be technically challenging due to the 410 complex genetics and possible maternal effects of LINC mutants.

411

Further work is needed to understand the molecular basis for the positional bias, as well as understanding its importance, if any. We do not observe any obvious centriole duplication defects in Cnn-T1133A centrosomes that have detached from the nuclear envelope, indicating that the influence of the nuclear envelope on centriole duplication is not essential to ensure the production of a single daughter centriole, but we have not examined this extensively and it could still make the process more robust.

418

#### 419 **Opening Up**

420 A major outstanding question is how PLK4 symmetry breaking is achieved to ensure that only one daughter centriole is formed on the side of the radially symmetric mother 421 422 centriole (Yamamoto and Kitagawa, 2021). It is known that the PLK4 ring-to-dot 423 transition requires proteasome activity (Ohta et al., 2014), Plk4 activity (Ohta et al., 424 2018; Park et al., 2019), and phosphorylation of PLK4's cryptic polo box (Park et al., 2019), suggesting that the auto-catalytic self-destructive properties of PLK4 could 425 regulate the transition (Leda et al., 2018; Park et al., 2019; Takao et al., 2019; 426 Yamamoto and Kitagawa, 2021, 2019). Indeed, computer modelling suggests that 427 428 PLK4 symmetry breaking can be initiated by the self-organisational properties of PLK4 429 (Leda et al., 2018; Takao et al., 2019). An initial stochastic break in symmetry could 430 then be enhanced by the binding of STIL (Leda et al., 2018; Takao et al., 2019), which 431 both stimulates PLK4 activity (Moyer et al., 2015) and protects Plk4 from degradation 432 (Arguint et al., 2015; Ohta et al., 2014). The different computer simulations place a difference emphasis on the role of STIL binding (Leda et al., 2018; Takao et al., 2019), 433 434 but both agree that this is a critical step in completing the ring-to-dot transition. It is intriguing that STIL is able to bind to only a single site on the mother centriole even 435 436 when PLK4 remains as a ring after proteasome inhibition (Ohta et al., 2014), 437 suggesting that STIL recruitment to a single site within the ring of Plk4 could even be

the initial trigger for symmetry breaking in certain circumstances. In *Drosophila* S2
cells, the first observed break in symmetry is the recruitment of the STIL homologue,
Ana2, to a single spot on the mother centriole (Dzhindzhev et al., 2017).

441

Is there a link between PLK4, Ana2 and the nuclear envelope? In various cell types, 442 including *Drosophila* syncytial embryos, the centrosomes are tightly associated with 443 444 the nuclear envelope via interactions between the microtubules they organise and nuclear-envelope-associated Dynein (Agircan et al., 2014; Bolhy et al., 2011; 445 Raaijmakers et al., 2012; Robinson et al., 1999; Splinter et al., 2010). From our 446 observations, we speculate that molecules associated with the nuclear envelope or 447 448 concentrated within the local environment between centrosomes and the nuclear envelope may help determine the position of centriole duplication proteins in 449 450 Drosophila syncytial embryos. These putative molecules may help stabilise Plk4 or 451 recruit Ana2, or both. This could relate to the asymmetry in centrosomal microtubules, 452 with differences in the ability of the microtubules connecting the centrosomes to the nuclear envelope and the microtubules extending out into the cytosol to concentrate 453 PLK4 and Ana2. Alternatively, perhaps proteins associated with the nuclear envelope 454 can transiently bind Plk4 or Ana2 and thus increase their local concentration in the 455 456 region between the mother centricle and nuclear envelope. Ana2 directly interacts with 457 a conserved member of the Dynein complex, Cut-up (Ctp), which is a form of Dynein 458 Light Chain in *Drosophila* (Slevin et al., 2014; Wang et al., 2011). Although the precise 459 function of the Ana2-Ctp interaction remains unclear, it appears to help mediate Ana2 460 tetramerisation (Slevin et al., 2014), and Ana2 tetramerisation is important for centriole assembly (Cottee et al., 2015). Thus, while Ctp does not appear to be essential for 461 centriole duplication (Wang et al., 2011), any Ctp molecules released from the nuclear 462 associated Dynein complexes would be ideally positioned to bind to Ana2 and promote 463 daughter centriole assembly on the side of the mother centriole facing the nuclear 464 465 envelope.

466

It will also be interesting to see whether positional bias occurs in other systems.
Intriguingly, LRRCC1 has recently been shown to localise asymmetrically within the
lumen of human centrioles with the position of procentriole assembly being non-

random with respect to this asymmetric mark (Gaudin et al., 2021). Thus, although the
molecular nature may vary, it's possible that a non-random positional preference in
daughter centriole assembly is an important conserved feature of centriole duplication.

473 474

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493 Figure Legends

494

495 Figure 1

Analysis of dual-colour FRAP data reveals that the site of daughter centriole 496 497 assembly is non-random. (A) Confocal images show a centrosome within an embryo 498 expressing Spd-2-GFP (green) and Sas-4-mCherry (magenta) prior to photobleaching 499 (left), immediately after photobleaching (centre), and after fluorescence recovery 500 (right). The diagrams below are cartoon representations of how the proteins behave 501 before and after photobleaching. Note that the recovering Sas-4-mCherry signal 502 (daughter centriole) is offset from the centre of the recovering Spd-2-GFP signal 503 (mother centriole). (B) Confocal image shows a pair of centrosomes (top unbleached, 504 bottom recovering from bleaching) on opposite sides of the nuclear envelope (mid-late 505 S-phase). The nuclear envelope and how angles from the future spindle axis are 506 calculated are indicated. (C) Graph displays the estimated positions of daughter 507 centrioles (magenta circles) relative to the estimated position of their respective mother centrioles (position 0.0 on the graph) and the future spindle axis (positive y-508 509 axis) obtained from Spd-2-GFP (mother) Sas-4-mCherry (daughter) data. (D) Rose 510 plot representing the angle at which daughter centrioles (marked by Sas-4-mCherry) 511 form in relation to the future spindle axis (0°). Each segment corresponds to a single duplication event. Blue and red segments indicate daughter centriole assembly 512 occurring less than or more than 90° from the future spindle axis, respectively. (E) 513 Graph displays the positions of the centre of recovering RFP-Cnn signal relative to 514 515 recovering Spd-2-GFP signal (position 0,0 on the graph) and the future spindle axis (positive y-axis) obtained from the control Spd-2-GFP (mother) RFP-Cnn (mother) 516 517 data. (F) Rose plot (as in (D)) representing the angle relative to the future spindle axis (0°) formed by a line running between the recovering Spd-2-GFP and RFP-Cnn 518 519 signals. (G) Graph showing the distance between the centre of the recovering Spd-2-GFP signal (mother centriole) and the recovering Sas-4-mCherry signal (daughter 520 centriole, magenta) or the recovering RFP-Cnn signal (mother centriole). The datasets 521 522 were compared using a Mann-Whitney test.

- 523
- 524 Figure 2

The site of daughter centriole assembly is random in centrosomes that have 525 526 detached from the nuclear envelope. (A,B) Confocal image (A) and cartoon representation (B) show a pair of centrosomes in S-phase within an embryo 527 expressing GFP-Cnn-T1133A (grayscale). Note that one centrosome is attached to 528 529 and one centrosome is detached from the nuclear envelope. Cartoon in (B) indicates 530 how the angles of daughter centriole assembly from the nuclear axis were measured. (C-J) Graphs display results from analysing the estimated position of daughter 531 centrioles relative to the estimated position of their respective mother centrioles 532 (position 0,0 on the graph) and the nuclear axis (positive y-axis) in centrosomes that 533 534 have either remained attached to (C-F) or that have detached from (D-J) the nuclear 535 envelope within embryos expressing GFP-Cnn-T1133A and Sas-4-mCherry. Estimated positions of the daughter centrioles were determined from analysing the 536 centre of fluorescence recovery of GFP-Cnn-T1133A (mother) and Sas-4-mCherry 537 538 (daughter). Graphs in (C) and (G) show the estimated positions of the daughter 539 centrioles; (D) and (H) are frequency distributions of the angles at which daughter centriole form in relation to the nuclear axis  $(0^{\circ})$ ; (E) and (I) are normal QQ plot showing 540 that the angles in (E), but not in (I), conform well to a Normal distribution; Rose plots 541 in (F) and (J) represent the angle at which daughter centrioles form in relation to the 542 543 mother centriole and the nuclear axis (0°). Each segment corresponds to a single duplication event. Blue and red segments indicate daughter centriole assembly 544 545 occurring less than or more than 90° from the nuclear axis, respectively.

546

#### 547 Figure 3

Cnn-T1133A centrosomes that have detached from the nuclear envelope remain 548 549 correctly oriented with respect to the imaging axis. (A,B) Airyscan images of 550 centrosomes that are either attached to (A) or detached from (B) the nuclear envelope 551 within embryos expressing GFP-Cnn-T1133A and Sas-4-mCherry in a cnn null mutant background. Examples with a clear central hole (top panels), a partial central hole 552 553 (middle panels), and a no clear central hole (bottom panels) are shown. (C) Graph shows the percentage of each centrosome type in either attached or detached 554 555 centrosomes, as indicated. Datasets were compared using a Chi-squared contingency 556 analysis. (D) Graph shows the distances between the estimated positions of mother

and daughter centrioles from the Spd-2-GFP/Sas-4-mCherry FRAP data in either
attached or detached centrosomes, as indicated. The datasets were compared using
a Mann-Whitney test.

560

#### 561 **Figure 4**

Daughter centrioles initially form preferentially towards the nuclear envelope 562 and retain a stable position throughout S-phase. (A) Airyscan images of a 563 centrosome in an embryo expressing Spd-2-GFP (green) and Sas-4-mCherry 564 (magenta) progressing through S-phase. Approximate times after centrosome splitting 565 are indicated – images were collected approximately every minute. The position of the 566 567 nuclear envelope (as determined by the exclusion of fluorescence from the nucleus) is indicated by the dotted blue line. The Sas-4-mCherry signals for mother (m) and 568 569 daughter (d) centrioles are also indicated. (B) Rose plot graphs display the angle at 570 which daughter centrioles form in relation to the mother centriole and the nuclear axis 571 (0°) as calculated from time-lapse Airyscan images that followed centrosomes 572 throughout S-phase. Each segment corresponds to a single duplication event. Blue 573 and red segments indicate daughter centriole assembly occurring less than or more than 90° from the nuclear axis, respectively. Each rose plot corresponds to a given 574 timepoint, with timepoint 1 occurring ~1 minute after centrosome splitting and there 575 being a ~1-minute gap between timepoints. The numbers of events for each timepoint 576 577 are indicated; this varies due to the varying ability to resolve the two centrioles through 578 time. (C) Graph shows the change in the angle of the daughter centriole (angle 579 deviation) with respect to the mother centriole and the nuclear axis that occurred 580 between timepoints from real data (left dataset) or randomly generated angles (right dataset). Each point on the graph represents an individual angle deviation. The 581 582 median and 95% CIs are shown. The p value indicates that the two datasets have a 583 different distribution (Kolmogorov-Smirnov test).

#### 585 Materials and methods

#### 586 Contact for Reagent and Resource Sharing

- 587 Further information and requests for resources and reagents should be directed to and
- will be fulfilled by the Lead Contact, Paul Conduit (paul.conduit@ijm.fr).
- 589

#### 590 Experimental Model and Subject Details

591 All fly strains were maintained at 18 or 25°C on Iberian fly food made from dry active 592 yeast, agar, and organic pasta flour, supplemented with nipagin, propionic acid, 593 pen/strep and food colouring.

594

#### 595 Methods

#### 596 *Drosophila melanogaster* stocks

The following fluorescent alleles were used in this study: pUbg-Spd-2-GFP (Dix and 597 Raff, 2007), eSas-4-mCherry (endogenous promoter) (Conduit et al., 2015a), pUbg-598 599 RFP-Cnn (Conduit et al., 2010), eSas-4-GFP (endogenous promoter) (Novak et al., 600 2014), eAsI-mCherry (endogenous promoter) (Conduit et al., 2015a), pUbg-GFP-Cnn-T1133A (this study). To make the pUbg-GFP-Cnn-T1133A allele, we used 601 QuikChange (Agilent) to introduce the T1133A mutation into Cnn within a pDONR 602 vector and used Gateway cloning (ThermoFisher) to transfer it into a pUbg-GFP vector 603 604 containing a miniwhite marker. This construct was injected by BestGene in order to 605 generate transgenic lines.

606

For performing FRAP experiments we used fly lines expressing either: two copies of 607 608 pUbg-Spd-2-GFP and two copies eSas-4-mCherry in a sas-4 null background (sas-4<sup>I(3)2214</sup>/Df(3R)BSC221); two copies of pUbq-Spd-2-GFP and one copy of RFP-Cnn in 609 a cnn<sup>f04547</sup>/ cnn<sup>HK21</sup> mutant background; two copies of eSas-4-GFP and two copies of 610 611 eAsI-mCherry in a sas-4 null background (sas-4<sup>1(3)2214</sup>/Df(3R)BSC221); or one copy of pUbq-GFP-Cnn-T1133A and two copies eSas-4-mCherry in a sas-4 null background 612 613 (sas-4<sup>1(3)2214</sup>/Df(3R)BSC221). For the live Airyscan imaging, we used flies expressing two copies of pUbq-Spd-2-GFP and two copies eSas-4-mCherry in a sas-4 null 614 background (sas-4<sup>I(3)2214</sup>/Df(3R)BSC221). For the fixed Airyscan imaging, we used 615

616 flies expressing one copy of pUbq-GFP-Cnn-T1133A and two copies eAsI-mCherry in

- an *asl* null mutant background (asl<sup>mecd</sup> (Blachon et al., 2008)).
- 618

#### 619 Fixed and live cell imaging

For live dual FRAP experiments, 0.5µm thick confocal sections were collected from 620 621 living syncytial embryos in nuclear cycle 11 or 12 at ~21°C on either a Perkin Elmer ERS Spinning Disk confocal system mounted on a Zeiss Axiovert microscope using a 622 63X/1.4NA Oil objective, or an Andor Revolution Spinning Disk confocal system 623 mounted on a Nikon Ti inverted microscope coupled to an Andor iXon camera using 624 625 a Plan-Apochromat 60X/1.4NA Oil objective. Focused 488nm and 561nm lasers were 626 used to photobleach the GFP and mCherry/RFP signals, respectively. For live 627 Airyscan imaging, 0.2 µm thick sections were collected from living embryos in nuclear 628 cycle 12 or 13 on an inverted Zeiss 880 microscope fitted with an Airyscan detector at 21°C and a Plan-Apochromat 63×/1.4NA oil lens using 488-nm argon and 561-nm 629 630 diode lasers. Images were collected approximately every 1 min with a zoom value of 23.3 pixels/µm. Focus was readjusted between the 1-min intervals. Images were Airy-631 processed in 3D with a strength value of "auto" ( $\sim$ 6) or 6.5. For fixed Airyscan imaging, 632 0.2 µm thick sections were collected from methanol fixed embryos in nuclear cycle 11 633 or 12 on an inverted Zeiss LSM980 microscope fitted with an Airyscan2 detector 634 at 21°C and a Plan-Apochromat 63×/1.4NA oil lens using 488-nm argon and 561-nm 635 diode lasers. When measuring centriole positions, images from the different colour 636 637 channels were registered with alignment parameters obtained from calibration 638 measurements with 0.2 µm diameter TetraSpeck beads (Life Technologies). The centroids of each fluorescent signal were calculated in ImageJ using the "centre of 639 640 mass" analysis tool. The number of pixels for the images was first increased such that 641 each real pixel was made of 5x5 sub-pixels. This increases the location accuracy for 642 the centroid of the fluorescence signal.

643

#### 644 Quantification and Statistical Analysis

Data was processed in Microsoft Excel. Graph production was performed using either
Microsoft Excel (rose plots) or GraphPad Prism (all other graphs) and statistical
analysis was performed using GraphPad Prism. N numbers and statistical tests used

for each experiment are indicated within the main text or Figure Legends. The
following Normality tests were carried out in Prism to analyse the frequency
distributions of angles: Anderson-Darling test, D'Agostino & Pearson test, ShapiroWilk test, Kolmogorov-Smirnov test.

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# Figure 1





## Figure 3











#### **Online Supplementary Material**

#### Figure S1

Further analysis of dual-colour FRAP data supports the finding that the site of daughter centriole assembly is non-random. (A) Frequency distribution of the angles at which daughter centrioles (marked by Sas-4-mCherry) form in relation to the future spindle axis (0°). (B) Normal QQ plot showing that the angles in (A) conform well to a normal distribution. (C) Frequency distribution of the angles at which the recovering RFP-Cnn fluorescence is positioned in relation to the future spindle axis (0°). (D) Normal QQ plot showing that the angles in (B) do not conform well to a normal distribution. (E) Graph displays the estimated positions of daughter centrioles (green circles) relative to the estimated position of their respective mother centrioles (position 0,0 on the graph) and the future spindle axis (positive y-axis) obtained from AslmCherry (mother) Sas-4-GFP (daughter) data. (F) Frequency distribution of the angles at which daughter centrioles (marked by Sas-4-GFP) form in relation to the future spindle axis (0°). (G) Normal QQ plot showing that the angles in (F) conform well to a normal distribution. (H) Rose plot representing the angle at which daughter centrioles (marked by Sas-4-GFP) form in relation to the future spindle axis (0°). Each segment corresponds to a single duplication event. Blue and red segments indicate daughter centriole assembly occurring less than or more than 90° from the future spindle axis, respectively. (I) Graph showing the distance between the estimated positions of mother and daughter centrioles (left and right datasets) or two different estimations of the mother centriole (central dataset) in the different imaging conditions used, as indicated. Note that data for the datasets on the left and in the centre have been replotted from Figure 1G to allow comparison to the dataset on the right. Datasets were compared to each other using a one-way ANOVA Kruskal-Wallis test.

