

**Proteomic and functional analysis of the
Drosophila melanogaster centrosome identifies a
novel role in cell cycle control**

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Contents

List of publications	9
1 Introduction	11
1.1 The centrosome	11
1.2 Isolation of centrosomes	13
1.3 Identification of centrosomal proteins	14
1.4 Known centrosomal proteins and their functions	15
1.5 The centrosome cycle	17
1.6 The centrosome in disease	20
1.6.1 Cancer	20
1.6.2 Ciliary diseases	21
1.6.3 Neurodegenerative disorders	22
1.6.4 Genetic disorders	22
1.7 The spindle assembly checkpoint	23
1.8 Aim of this project	26
2 Synopses of publications	27
2.1 Immunoisolation of Centrosomes from <i>Drosophila melanogaster</i>	27
2.2 Proteome analysis identifies functionally conserved protein components important for centrosome structure and cellular signalling in <i>Drosophila</i> and human	28
2.3 A Centrosome-Independent Role for γ -TuRC Proteins in the Spindle Assembly Checkpoint	30
3 Publications	33
3.1 Immunoisolation of Centrosomes from <i>Drosophila melanogaster</i>	
3.1.1 Manuscript	33
3.2 Proteome analysis identifies functionally conserved protein components important for centrosome structure and cellular signalling in <i>Drosophila</i> and human	
3.2.1 Manuscript	51
3.2.2 Supplementary material	75
3.3 A Centrosome-Independent Role for γ -TuRC Proteins in the Spindle Assembly Checkpoint	
3.3.1 Manuscript	105
3.3.2 Supplementary material	111
4 Discussion	123
4.1 Comparison of centrosome isolation methods	123
4.2 Centrosome proteome analysis in <i>Drosophila</i>	124
4.3 Comparison of centrosome proteome analyses in different species	125
4.4 The functional analysis of the centrosomal proteome	126

4.5	The role of the centrosome in cell cycle control	127
4.6	A possible function of RNA for the centrosome	128
4.7	Conclusion	128
5	References	131
6	Appendix	141
6.1	Abstract	141
6.2	Zusammenfassung	142
6.3	Curriculum vitae	143
6.4	Selbständigkeitserklärung	146

List of publications enclosed in this thesis

Lehmann V, Müller H, Lange BMH. 2005. Immunoisolation of centrosomes from *Drosophila melanogaster*. Current Protocols in Cell Biology. Chapter 3: Unit 3.17.

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1 Introduction

1.1 The centrosome

Theodor Boveri first described the centrosome in 1901 and named it on the basis of its location near the cell centre (Boveri, 1901). He observed that the centrosomes focused the ends of thin cytoplasmic fibres in interphase cells and bipolar spindles in mitotic cells. Boveri correlated the occurrence of supernumerary centrosomes with the assembly of multipolar mitotic spindles and cancer. He hypothesized that centrosomes play a role in aneuploidy resulting from missegregation of chromosomes during cell division (Boveri, 1914). Today the centrosome is characterised as the primary microtubule-organizing centre (MTOC) in eukaryotic cells. The centrosome plays a role in fundamental cellular functions like mitosis, cytokinesis, intracellular transport, cell polarity and positioning of other cell organelles. Apart from these microtubule-dependent processes it is implicated in cell cycle regulation and signal transduction pathways relating to DNA damage, stress response and differentiation (Lange, 2002). Centrosomal aberrations have been shown to occur in various diseases like cancer and several genetic disorders (see chapter 1.6).

The centrosome consists of two centrioles that are embedded in a complex protein matrix, the pericentriolar material (PCM) (Fig.1). The composition of the PCM is largely unknown. Moreover, the PCM is highly dynamic and its protein composition changes depending on the cell cycle stage (Kalt & Schliwa, 1993).

Centrioles are cylindrical structures in orthogonal configuration with interconnecting fibres at their proximal ends. A centriolar pair consists of a mature centriole (mother centriole) and an immature centriole that is assembled during the previous cell cycle (daughter centriole). A mammalian centriole consists of nine microtubule triplets held together by linker proteins. The mother centriole has nine distal and nine subdistal appendages, which anchor cytoplasmic microtubules or dock to membranes (Paintrand *et al.*, 1992). The centriole of the early *Drosophila melanogaster* embryo lacks appendages and consists of a ring of nine singlet microtubules (Moritz *et al.*, 1995) or doublet microtubules (Callaini *et al.*, 1997) surrounding one central tube.

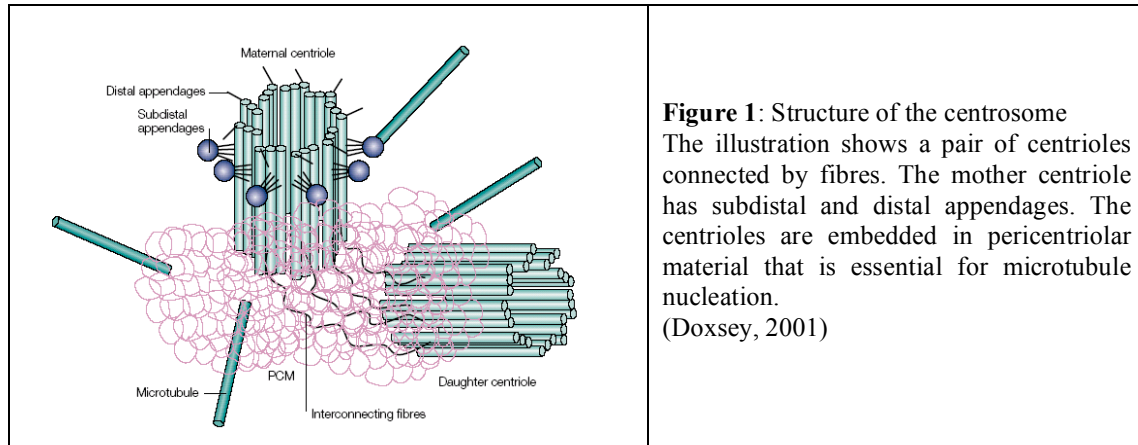


Figure 1: Structure of the centrosome

The illustration shows a pair of centrioles connected by fibres. The mother centriole has subdistal and distal appendages. The centrioles are embedded in pericentriolar material that is essential for microtubule nucleation.

(Doxsey, 2001)

In contrast to other cell organelles the centrosome is not enclosed by a membrane. Thus, it is still unclear what holds the centrosome together. A scaffold structure has been proposed to serve as the basis for centrosomal cohesion (Schnackenberg *et al.*, 1998, Moritz *et al.*, 1998). The scaffold is described as a stable protein matrix that resists extraction with high concentration of potassium iodide. Soluble PCM components assemble onto the scaffold to form an intact centrosome. Which proteins build the scaffold structure remains to be elucidated.

Centrosomes are present in higher eukaryotic cells with the exception of female meiotic cells in e.g. *Drosophila* (Theurkauf & Hawley, 1992) or mouse (Szollosi *et al.*, 1972) and higher plant cells (reviewed by Schmit, 2002). Even though centrosomal proteins are evolutionary conserved, the microtubule-organizing centre differs morphologically between species. The functional equivalent of the centrosome in yeast is the spindle pole body (SPB). The SPB is a cylindrical multilaminar organelle embedded in the nuclear envelope. It consists of three plaques: an outer cytoplasmic plaque, a central plaque in the plane of the nuclear membrane and an inner plaque within the nucleus (Rout & Kilmartin, 1990). The MTOC in slime molds like *Dictyostelium discoideum* is termed nucleus-associated body (NAB) (Roos, 1975). The NAB has a multilayered, box-shaped core that is embedded in an amorphous corona (Omura & Fukui, 1985) and lacks centrioles (Heath, 1981). Basal bodies are related to centrioles and serve as the template for the axoneme, the basic structure of all eukaryotic cilia and flagella. In the green algae *Chlamydomonas* the same organelle functions as a flagellar basal body during interphase and as centriole at the spindle pole during cell division.

The next sections focus mainly on the centrosome in *Drosophila melanogaster* and *Homo sapiens* because the experimental work in this thesis concerns the isolation,

identification and functional characterisation of centrosomal proteins of these two organisms.

1.2 Isolation of centrosomes

Although many centrosomal components have been identified, a comprehensive molecular characterisation of the centrosome in *Drosophila* has not been accomplished yet. The centrosome represents only a minor proportion of the cell proteome as it is small and is present in a single copy per cell. Therefore, an enrichment of centrosomes is the prerequisite for the molecular characterisation of the organelle. The limiting factor for such analysis was the lack of an isolation method that enriches centrosomes thousand-fold and at the same time sufficiently reduces contamination with other cellular components.

A number of methods have already been established to isolate centrosomes from diverse organisms, tissues or cultured cells. These include the isolation from human lymphoblastoma KE37 cells (Moudjou & Bornens, 1994), mouse neuroblastoma N115 and CHO cells (Mitchison & Kirschner, 1984) *Spisula solidissima* oocytes (Palazzo & Vogel, 1999), calf thymus (Komesli *et al.*, 1989) and *Drosophila* embryos (Moritz *et al.*, 1995). Like the isolation of spindle pole bodies from yeast (Rout & Kilmartin, 1990) all these methods are based on cell organelle enrichment via density gradient centrifugation. Lange *et al.* (2000) developed a new efficient immunoisolation technique that further improves the enrichment of centrosomes. With this method, centrosomes are first isolated in sucrose step gradients from syncytial *Drosophila* embryos. Subsequently, centrosomes are affinity purified using magnetic beads that are coupled to centrosome-specific antibodies (Lange *et al.*, 2000). Within the experimental part of this thesis, this method has been further optimized (see chapter 2.1 and 3.1). The immunoisolation of centrosomes results in highly enriched centrosomal preparations that can be used for the direct identification of centrosomal proteins by mass spectrometry techniques. Hence, this approach makes a direct biochemical dissection of the centrosome feasible and provides the basis for a systematic functional analysis of the centrosomal proteome.

1.3 Identification of centrosomal proteins

During the past ten years remarkable progress has been made in defining the structure and the molecular composition of the centrosome. Several approaches to identify centrosomal proteins have been developed. Initially, Calarco-Gillam *et al.* used a human autoantibody that marked an antigen in the PCM (Calarco-Gillam *et al.*, 1983). Thereafter, a number of centrosomal proteins have been identified based on using autoimmune sera and subsequent production of centrosome-specific antibodies. The application of organelle isolation and subsequent mass spectrometric analysis allowed identification of further centrosomal or centriolar proteins and related structures like basal bodies, cilia and flagella. This approach was first carried out for the yeast spindle pole body, discovering twelve known and eleven novel spindle pole proteins (Wigge *et al.*, 1998). The proteomic analyses of human centrosomes (Andersen *et al.*, 2003) and cilia (Ostrowski *et al.*, 2002), basal bodies (Keller *et al.*, 2005) and flagella (Pazour *et al.*, 2005) of *Chlamydomonas* as well as basal bodies of *Trypanosoma* (Broadhead *et al.*, 2006) and nucleus-associated body of *Dictyostelium* (Reinders *et al.*, 2006) have identified more than 300 candidate proteins in total. Some of these candidate proteins have been confirmed by localization and mutagenesis studies or RNA interference (reviewed in Bettencourt-Dias & Glover, 2007). A number of studies have taken advantage of recent sequencing and annotation of several genomes using genomics and comparative genomics approaches. The computational subtraction of the non-flagellated proteome of *Arabidopsis* from the shared proteome of the ciliated and flagellated organisms *Chlamydomonas* and human led to the identification of proteins that are involved in ciliary and basal body biogenesis and function (Li *et al.*, 2004). A large set of flagellar components was discovered in the genome-wide analysis of transcription levels following deflagellation in *Chlamydomonas* (Stolc *et al.*, 2005). Furthermore, a functional whole genome RNA interference (RNAi) screen for proteins involved in mitotic spindle assembly (Goshima *et al.*, 2007) revealed novel centrosomal components in *Drosophila*.

Despite all efforts to define the molecular make-up of the centrosome, further molecular characterisation of the centrosome has to be accomplished to reveal the precise functions of the cell organelle and to better understand the implication of the centrosome in fundamental cellular processes. This knowledge will be relevant for understanding the role of the centrosome in signalling pathways of the cell cycle, stress,

differentiation, cell death and the relation of dysregulation of the centrosome cycle and dysfunction of centrosomal proteins to diseases.

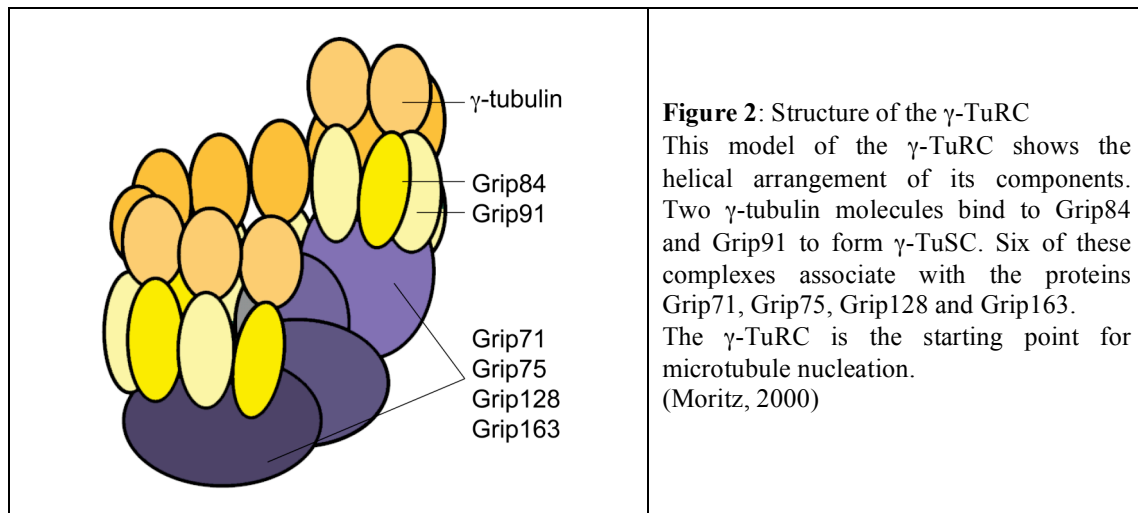
1.4 Known centrosomal proteins and their functions

Previous studies have identified several centrosomal components, which can be classified into at least four groups according to their function (Lange, 2002):

(a) Scaffold proteins that maintain the structure of the centrosomes, (b) proteins functioning in microtubule nucleation, (c) anchoring proteins that connect microtubule nucleation proteins to regulatory molecules and (d) regulatory proteins like kinases, phosphatases and signalling molecules.

The centrosome is the only cell organelle in higher eukaryotic cells that has no clear boundary (reviewed by Kalt & Schliwa, 1993). Thus, the basis of centrosomal cohesion, a stable protein matrix has been proposed to serve as a scaffold (Schnackenberg *et al.*, 1998, Moritz *et al.*, 1998). The scaffold structure persists extraction with high salt concentrations while it loses the ability to nucleate microtubules. The nucleating ability can be restored with embryonic extract, demonstrating that the scaffold builds a basic structure onto which functional subunits are assembled. Ultrastructural analysis of potassium iodide (KI) extracted *Spisula solidissima* centrosomes revealed a latticework of 12-15 nm-diameter filaments that lack centrioles (Schnackenberg *et al.*, 1998). Approximately 90% of centrosomal proteins are removed by KI treatment, of the residual 10% that are part of the scaffold structure, only few have been identified so far. One example of a scaffold protein is Odf2 in mammalian cells that is associated with the mother centriole in G0/G1 phase of the cell cycle and with both centrioles toward G1/S phase before centrosome duplication (Nakagawa *et al.*, 2001).

The basic function of the centrosome is microtubule nucleation. Microtubule nucleation is mediated by γ -tubulin and associated proteins, which are localised in the PCM. A model has been proposed in which γ -tubulin is mainly found in two complexes in *Drosophila* (Moritz *et al.*, 2000): the γ -tubulin small complex (γ -TuSC) in which two γ -tubulin molecules bind to Grip84 and Grip91 and the γ -tubulin ring complex (γ -TuRC).



The γ -TuRC consists of six γ -TuSCs that are arranged in a ring structure and associate with the proteins Grip71, Grip75, Grip128 and Grip163 maintaining the configuration of the ring (Fig.2). γ -tubulin is in contact with the minus end of a microtubule protofilament, forming the starting point for microtubule nucleation. A core component of the centrosome is Centrosomin (Cnn) that is responsible for the assembly of other PCM proteins to achieve microtubule-organizing activity in *Drosophila*. Cnn was first identified as a regulatory target of the homeotic genes in *Drosophila* (Heuer & Kaufman, 1995). Functional studies of mutant *Drosophila* embryos revealed that absence of Cnn displaces the PCM core proteins γ -tubulin, CP60 and CP190 from the centrosome and results in a lack of astral microtubules in mitosis (Megraw *et al.*, 1999). It has been shown recently that centrosomal localisation of the proteins Aurora A, D-TACC and Msp also depend on Cnn (Zhang & Megraw, 2007).

The centrosome is integrated in multiple signalling pathways (Lange, 2002). It is thought to serve as a docking site that brings regulatory elements in close proximity to each other or to specific centrosomal proteins. This connection is mediated by anchoring proteins. Examples of this protein class are Pericentrin or AKAP450 that contain a functional domain to bind phosphatases or kinases and a PACT (Pericentrin/AKAP450 centrosomal targeting) domain functioning in recruiting proteins to the centrosome (Gillingham & Munro, 2000). In *Drosophila*, the pericentrin-like protein (D-PLP) that contains a PACT domain is essential for efficient recruitment of the PCM components Cnn, D-TACC, CP60, Msp and CP190 to the centrosome (Martinez-Campos *et al.*, 2004).

A multitude of regulatory proteins, namely kinases and phosphatases, localise to the centrosome. Protein phosphorylation and dephosphorylation plays an important role in controlling microtubule nucleation ability in different cell cycle stages. During centrosome maturation the kinases Polo and Aurora A among other proteins promote the recruitment of microtubule nucleation factors to prepare for the assembly of the mitotic spindle. This is counteracted through dephosphorylation by protein phosphatases like protein phosphatase 1 (PP1) or protein phosphatase 4 (PP4) (reviewed by Bettencourt-Dias & Glover, 2007).

The view of the centrosome changes from being only a microtubule-organizing centre towards functioning as a regulatory hub connected to cell cycle progression and checkpoint control (see chapter 1.7). Further identification and characterisation of novel centrosomal proteins contributes to a better understanding of these processes. Furthermore, the identification of components of the centrosomal scaffold is necessary to clarify the basis of centrosomal cohesion and therefore important aspects of centrosome function.

1.5 The centrosome cycle

The centrosome duplicates and segregates in synchrony with the cell cycle. A critical feature of the centrosome cycle is to limit centrosome duplication to once per cell cycle. The centrosome duplication cycle in higher animal cells can be subdivided into four distinct steps: centriole disengagement, centriole duplication, centrosome maturation and centrosome separation (Fig.3). Some of these steps can be linked to cell cycle progression through involvement of common regulators.

Centriole disengagement: In G1-phase of the cell cycle the orthogonal configuration of the two centrioles is lost, a process that is referred to as centriole disengagement. It requires the activity of the protease separase that also triggers anaphase by disrupting sister chromatid binding (Tsou & Stearns, 2006). It has been suggested that engagement of the centrioles with each other blocks centrosome re-duplication and that disengagement licenses duplication in the subsequent cell cycle as mechanism to control centrosome number and limit duplication to once per cell cycle (Tsou & Stearns, 2006).

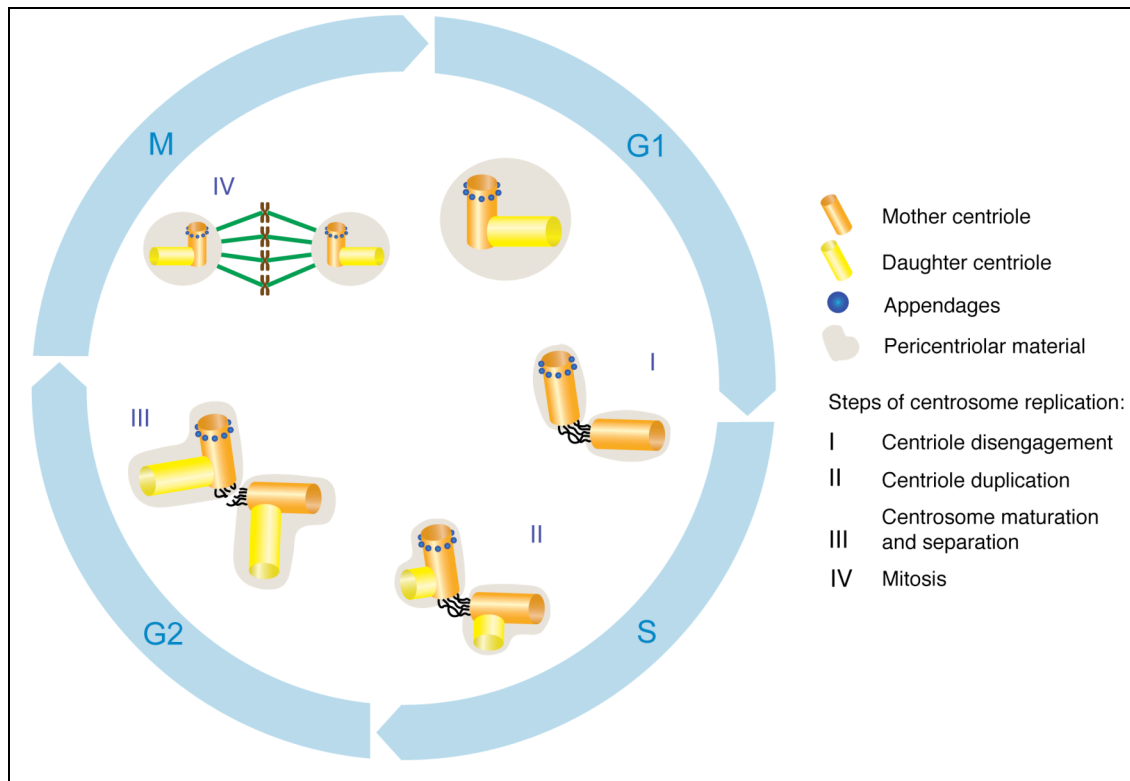


Figure 3: The centrosome cycle

The steps of the centrosome cycle are outlined in this illustration. Centriole disengagement: The orthogonal orientation of the two centrioles breaks down in G1-phase. Centriole duplication: Procentrioles are generated perpendicular to the mother centriole in S-phase and elongate until G2. Centrosome maturation: Additional proteins are recruited to the PCM in preparation of mitosis. Centrosome separation: The linkage between the centrioles disassembles prior to mitosis. Centrosome separation results in two centrosomes containing two centrioles each that build the spindle poles.

Centriole duplication: Procentrioles are generated perpendicular to the mother centriole in S-phase and elongate until G2. Initiation of centriole duplication requires the cell cycle kinase Cdk2 together with cyclin E and cyclin A in *Xenopus* egg extracts (Hinchcliffe *et al.*, 1999) and mammalian cells (Meraldi *et al.*, 1999; Matsumoto *et al.*, 1999). The protein nucleophosmin, which is abundantly found in the nucleolus (Szebeni & Olson, 1999) also localises to spindle poles after nuclear envelope breakdown and is a primary target for phosphorylation by Cdk2/cyclin E in order to initiate centriole duplication (Okuda *et al.*, 2000). The Cdk2/cyclin E complex is also known to induce DNA replication (reviewed in Ekholm *et al.*, 2000). Cdk2/cyclin E triggers initiation of DNA synthesis by phosphorylation of the retinoblastoma protein (Rb). Phosphorylated Rb dissociates from E2F transcription factor resulting in transcription of genes necessary for initiation of DNA synthesis (Nevins, 1992). A recent study shows that uncoupling of nuclear cycle and centrosome cycle occurs as a consequence of RNAi-

mediated protein depletion of mitotic cyclins in early *Drosophila* embryos (McClelland & O'Farrell, 2008). The activation of Cdk2/cyclin E is a key event for the coordinated initiation of centriole duplication and DNA replication.

Further proteins that are essential for centriole duplication have been identified in *C.elegans*. Consecutive recruitment of SPD-2, the kinase ZYG-1 and the SAS-6 – SAS-5 complex leads to formation of the central tube onto which singlet microtubules are assembled (Pelletier *et al.*, 2006, Delattre *et al.*, 2006). This mechanism is likely to be conserved because the involved proteins (except ZYG-1) have orthologues in other species (Azimzadeh & Bornens, 2007). Plk4, a member of the Polo kinase family, has been proposed to be a functional equivalent of ZYG-1 because it positively regulates centriole duplication in *Drosophila* and human (Bettencourt-Dias *et al.*, 2005; Habedanck *et al.*, 2005).

Centrosome maturation: During the G2-phase and mitosis numerous proteins are recruited to the PCM. The process of centrosome maturation depends on mitotic kinases like Aurora A (Hannak *et al.*, 2001; Berdnik & Knoblich, 2002), Polo (Fry *et al.*, 2000) or Nek2 (Fry *et al.*, 1998). Centrosomal proteins are phosphorylated and the ability to nucleate microtubules increases due to enhanced recruitment of γ -tubulin ring complexes (reviewed by Palazzo *et al.*, 2000). In addition, centrosomal microtubules are stabilized by activation of D-TACC – Msp complexes through phosphorylation by Aurora A in *Drosophila* (Barros *et al.*, 2005). The increase in microtubule nucleation capacity and the stabilization of centrosomal microtubules is a prerequisite for assembly of the mitotic spindle.

Centrosome separation: Centrosome separation results in the generation of two spindle poles containing two centrioles each. The linkage between the mother centrioles disassembles in response to phosphorylation of linker proteins such as C-Nap1 (Mayor *et al.*, 2000) and Rootletin (Bahe *et al.*, 2006).

In conclusion, regulators of the cell cycle also participate in regulating the centrosome cycle. Thus, timing and progression of both centrosome and cell cycle are coordinated, demonstrating the interdependence of cell cycle and centrosome cycle.

1.6 The centrosome in disease

The importance of the centrosome and its components is reflected by its implication in several human diseases like cancer, ciliary diseases or neurodegenerative disorders. Examples for the role of centrosomal aberrations or dysfunction of centrosomal proteins in human diseases are summarised in the following section.

1.6.1 Cancer

The transformation of a normal cell into a cancer cell is likely to result from the accumulation of mutations in multiple genes (Hanahan & Weinberg, 2000). These mutations cause malignant phenotypes like immortalization, mitogen-independent growth, anchorage-independent growth or loss of tissue specificity (Fukasawa, 2005). Tumourigenesis involves uncontrolled cell proliferation and metastasis. Characteristic of tumour cells is genomic instability resulting from aneuploidy, chromosome translocation, gene amplification and mutation (Cheng & Loeb, 1997).

Centrosome abnormalities occur in many types of human cancers. These abnormalities include numerical aberrations, increase in centrosome size, formation of acentriolar bodies and alteration of phosphorylation state of PCM components. Increased and decreased recruitment of γ -TuRCs cause altered microtubule nucleation capacity and therefore affect shape, polarity and motility of tumour cells (Lingle *et al.*, 2002). Supernumerary centrosomes (extra-copies of centrosomes) are observed in almost all types of cancers. If more than two centrosomes are present in a cell, multipolar mitotic spindles are formed. This increases the frequency of chromosome segregation errors that lead to higher tumour progression rate and to genomic instability, as suggested for example for pancreatic cancer by Shono *et al.* (2001). Deregulation of centrosome duplication, cytokinesis failure, cell fusion or *de novo* genesis were proposed as possible reasons for occurrence of supernumerary centrosomes (Nigg, 2006).

The relevance of the tumour suppressor gene p53 for centrosome number control indicates a relation between deregulation of the centrosome duplication cycle and cancer. p53 is frequently mutated in human cancers. It is activated as a consequence of DNA damage and regulates key processes like DNA repair, cell cycle arrest and apoptosis in order to suppress cancer (reviewed by Riley *et al.*, 2008). p53 has been linked to control of centrosome duplication, because p53 deficiency in mouse cells was shown to result in centrosome overduplication (Fukasawa, 1996; Fukasawa, 1997).

The tumour suppressor genes BRCA1 and BRCA2 are both implicated in DNA repair (Moynahan *et al.*, 1999; Kerr & Ashworth, 2001) and bind to Rad51, which plays a role in repair of DNA double-strand breaks (Scully *et al.*, 1997; Mizuta *et al.*, 1997). Deficiency of BRCA1 (Xu *et al.*, 1999), BRCA2 (Tutt *et al.*, 1999) and Rad51 (Bertrand *et al.*, 2003) results in supernumerary centrosomes, therefore providing a link between DNA damage/repair and centrosome duplication.

So far, it is unclear if overduplication of centrosomes is a cause or a consequence of tumourigenesis. However, the existence of supernumerary centrosomes in pre-cancerous lesions supports the view that overduplication of centrosomes might be an early event in tumourigenesis (Nigg, 2006).

1.6.2 Ciliary diseases

Centrioles are structurally related to basal bodies, which generate cilia and flagella (reviewed by Kilburn & Winey, 2008). Motile cilia and flagella are important for cell locomotion and transport of material over cell surfaces. Cilia play a role in processes important for development and health like determination of left-right asymmetry, kidney function and photoreception. The primary cilium in vertebrate cells is a non-motile cilium that provides sensory and signalling functions (reviewed by Marshall & Nonaka, 2006). Dysfunction of basal body/centriole and cilia associated proteins leads to human diseases. An example for a ciliary disease is the Bardet-Biedl syndrome (BBS). BBS is a multisystemic disorder characterized by retinal dystrophy, renal dysfunction, obesity, polydactyly and numerous developmental and behavioural defects (Beales *et al.*, 1999). Mutations in several genes (BBS1 – BBS12) have been linked to the syndrome. At least four of the twelve known mammalian BBS proteins localize to centrosomes and basal bodies (Ansley *et al.*, 2003; Kim *et al.*, 2004; Li *et al.*, 2004, Kim *et al.*, 2005). BBS4 for instance localizes to centriolar appendages and interacts with the protein PCM1. PCM1 is thought to be involved in recruiting proteins to the centrosome that are necessary for centrosome duplication as well as microtubule organization and anchoring (Dammermann & Merdes, 2002). Silencing or expression of truncated forms of BBS4 (similar to those found in BBS) induces mislocalisation of PCM1 which detaches microtubules from the centrosome, arrests the cell in the cell cycle, leads to apoptotic cell death and finally contributes to the BBS phenotype (Kim *et al.*, 2004).

1.6.3 Neurodegenerative disorders

The observation that proteasomes are concentrated at the centrosome and that proteasomal components co-purify with γ -tubulin in centrosomal fractions after sucrose gradient centrifugation has led to the description of the centrosome as a proteolytic centre (Wigley *et al.*, 1999) and to its association with Parkinson's disease. Dysfunction of protein degradation at the proteasome is implicated in several neurodegenerative disorders like Parkinson's disease (reviewed by Badano, 2005).

Furthermore, the centrosome is implicated in the neurodegenerative disorder Huntington's disease. The centrosome is organising the microtubule cytoskeleton and therefore plays a role in intracellular transport and positioning of proteins and cell organelles. Neuronal defects that are observed in Huntington disease are thought to result from defects in microtubule-dependent vesicle transport (Gutekunst *et al.*, 1995), which links the centrosome to this disease. In addition, the huntingtin protein that causes Huntington's disease by expansion of a polyglutamine repeat, interacts indirectly with PCM1 (Engelender *et al.*, 1997).

1.6.4 Genetic disorders

Lissencephaly is a human brain malformation manifested by a smooth cerebral surface and abnormal neuronal migration. Mutations in the genes LIS1 (Reiner *et al.*, 1993) and DCX (Gleeson *et al.*, 1998) cause lissencephalic phenotypes and contribute to neuronal migration defects in Miller-Dieken syndrome. Both proteins localize to centrosomes.

Mutations in centrosomal genes CDK5RAP2 (Bond *et al.*, 2005), ASPM (Shen *et al.*, 2005) and CENPJ (Bond *et al.*, 2005) have been identified in primary microcephaly. A recent study reveals that a mutation of Pericentrin (PCNT) causes primordial dwarfism (Rauch *et al.*, 2008). Pericentrin is part of the PCM and anchors γ -tubulin and is therefore essential for maintaining centrosome function (Takahashi *et al.*, 2002). The absence of Pericentrin in patients' cells resulted in disorganized mitotic spindles and chromosome segregation defects (Rauch *et al.*, 2008).

Numerical aberrations or dysfunction of centrosomal proteins often occur in disease. It has been shown that dysfunction of a centrosomal protein causes for example primordial dwarfism. In terms of cancer, there is a debate on cause or consequence of

centrosome overduplication (Nigg, 2002). Hence, more and more evidence is provided for a close link of the centrosome to genetic diseases. Future work needs to elucidate the molecular basis of such diseases and the role of centrosomal proteins in their development.

1.7 The spindle assembly checkpoint

The cell cycle is divided into (a) interphase consisting of the G1 phase, S phase and G2 phase and (b) mitosis. In G1 and G2 phase, the so-called gap phases, the cell grows, synthesizes proteins and assembles organelles. During S phase the DNA is replicated in preparation for cell division. In mitosis the cytoplasm and chromosomes are equally distributed between the two daughter cells. The precision of chromosome distribution is crucial for the cell to maintain genomic stability. Errors in this process might lead to either cell death or malignant transformations (Nigg, 2001).

Therefore, the cell cycle is controlled by a checkpoint system that monitors the process of cell division and is able to delay cell cycle progression in order to correct defects like DNA damage or incomplete mitotic spindle assembly. The transition of metaphase to anaphase during mitosis is controlled by the spindle assembly checkpoint (SAC). The SAC is explained in detail in the following section because a part of this thesis provides evidence for a molecular role of γ -TuRC proteins in the activation of the spindle assembly checkpoint (Fig. 4).

During prometaphase the spindle microtubules bind to the kinetochores, which are specialised protein structures that assemble on the centromere of each chromosome. In metaphase the pairs of sister chromatids are aligned in the metaphase plate and attached to spindle microtubules emanating from opposite poles. The sister chromatids are held together by a multisubunit protein complex called cohesin (Michaelis *et al.*, 1997). The cohesin-mediated cohesion is protected by the protein Shugoshin (Salic *et al.*, 2004) that also plays a role in centriole cohesion (Wang *et al.*, 2008).

At the onset of anaphase, sister chromatids become separated and pulled towards the spindle poles. The separation of sister chromatid requires the activation of the anaphase-promoting complex/cyclosome (APC/C), a multiprotein E3 ubiquitin ligase, by Cdc20. APC^{Cdc20} ubiquitylates securin, which is an inhibitor of the protease separase, thereby targeting it for degradation by the proteasome (reviewed by Castro *et al.*, 2005).

Degradation of securin releases the protease separase that cleaves the cohesin complex and enables sister chromatid separation (Uhlmann *et al.*, 1999).

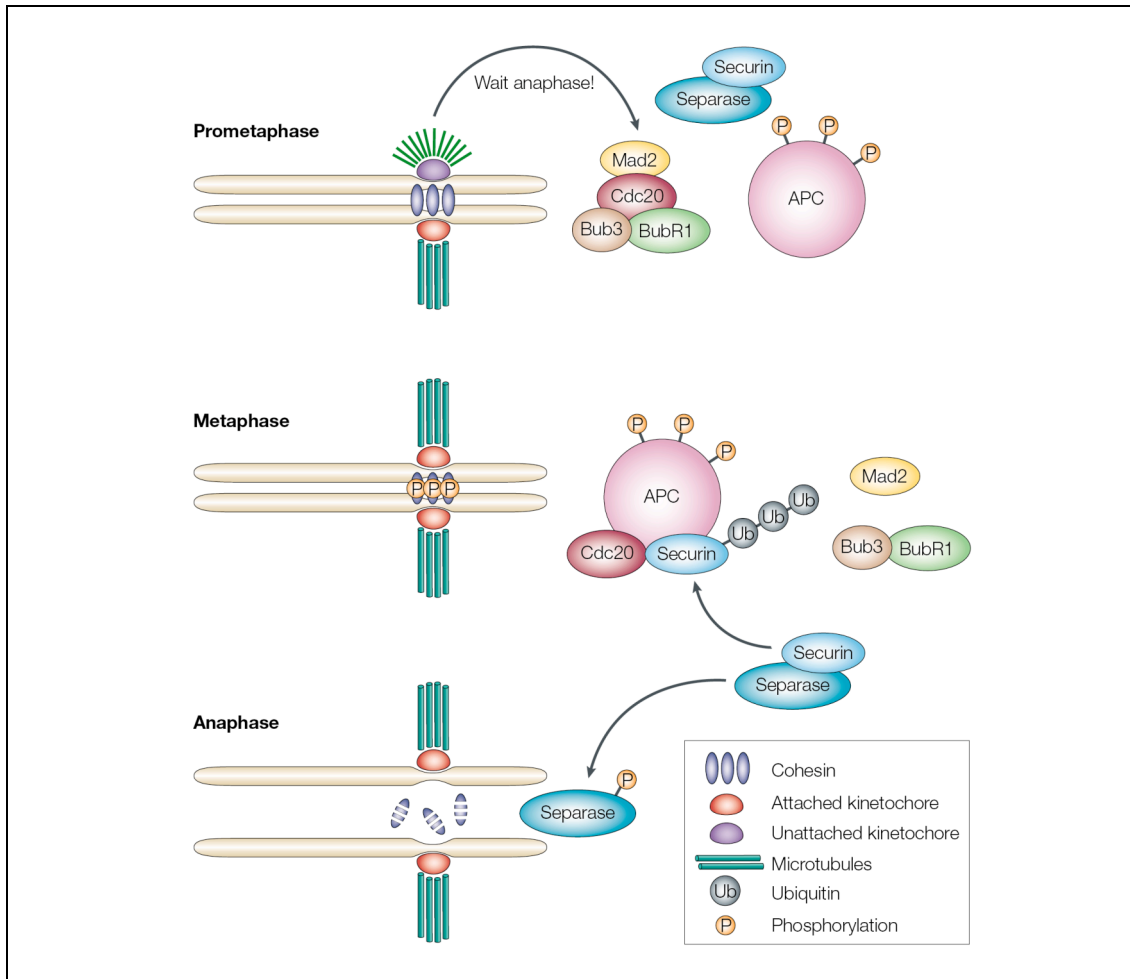


Figure 4: The spindle assembly checkpoint prevents transition from metaphase to anaphase. At the onset of anaphase, sister chromatids are separated and pulled to the opposite poles if kinetochores are bipolar attached to spindle microtubules. Unattached kinetochores can be sensed by the Mad and Bub spindle assembly checkpoint proteins that generate a diffusible “wait”-signal. Cdc20 forms APC-inhibitory complexes with BubR1, Bub3 and Mad2. Once all kinetochores are attached, the spindle assembly checkpoint is turned off and Cdc20 activates APC. APC ubiquitylates the separase inhibitor securin, thereby targeting it for proteolysis. Separase is released and cleaves cohesin complexes that mediate chromatid cohesion causing sister chromatids to separate. (Musachio & Hardwick, 2002)

The equal distribution of chromosomes to the daughter cells depends on the correct bipolar attachment of all kinetochores to the mitotic spindle. The SAC is a surveillance mechanism that delays anaphase onset by maintaining sister chromatid cohesion. It senses the existence of misaligned sister chromatids by either lack of attachment or tension that is generated by pulling forces of the mitotic spindle (reviewed by Musachio & Hardwick, 2002). The highly conserved core spindle assembly checkpoint proteins

are Mad1, Mad2, BubR1, Bub1, Bub3 and Mps1. Mad1 and Bub1 are stably associated with unattached kinetochores, BubR1 and Mad2 are proposed to function as a diffusible signal that prevents anaphase onset (Howell *et al.*, 2004). Cdc20-activation of APC/C is the key target of the SAC. BubR1, Bub3, Mad2 and Cdc20 have been proposed to form APC/C-inhibitory complexes (reviewed by Yu, 2007) preventing securin from being degraded. Consequently, sister chromatid cohesion is preserved and anaphase onset is delayed until all chromosomes are bipolar attached to the mitotic spindle. Once all kinetochores are attached, APC/C can be activated. In addition to securin, APC/C targets cyclin B for degradation via the proteasome pathway. This degradation leads to inactivation of the Cdk1/cyclin B complex, which is essential for exit from mitosis (Glotzer *et al.*, 1991).

It has been suggested that the centrosome is implicated in mitotic progression: The centrosome is involved in the metaphase-anaphase transition via cyclin B. The degradation of cyclin B starts at the spindle pole and extends to the mitotic spindle in *Drosophila* embryos (Huang & Raff, 1999). In the *Drosophila* mutant “centrosome fall off” (cfo), in which centrosomes are displaced from the spindle pole, degradation of cyclin B occurred at the centrosome but not at the mitotic spindle, resulting in anaphase arrest (Wakefield *et al.*, 2000).

In addition, a function for the centrosomal proteins γ -tubulin in *Aspergillus nidulans* (Prigozhina *et al.*, 2004) and pericentrin in *Schizosaccharomyces pombe* (Rajagopalan *et al.*, 2004) in cell cycle transitions and establishing or maintaining a mitotic checkpoint has been proposed. Furthermore, within this thesis the role of γ -TuRC proteins in the spindle assembly checkpoint in *Drosophila* and human has been shown (Müller *et al.*, 2006).

In conclusion, the view of the centrosome as an organelle that is solely responsible for organisation and anchoring of microtubules is incomplete. Centrosomes and centrosomal proteins independently of the centrosome structure also function in regulation of the cell cycle and are integrated in disease related signalling pathways.

1.8 Aim of this project

In spite of the fact that the centrosome has been suggested to have many important cellular functions and is implicated in the development of several genetic diseases, its molecular structure and composition remains unclear so far. Hence, to have a better knowledge of the precise molecular role of centrosome components, it was the aim of this project to carry out a comprehensive biochemical analysis of the centrosomal proteome from *Drosophila melanogaster* using whole cell organelle isolation followed by the functional characterisation of all identified components.

A prerequisite for the elucidation of the centrosome protein composition was to optimise the isolation procedure in order to obtain highly enriched preparations. It was the first goal to improve an immunoisolation technique of this cell organelle. The next steps were the identification of centrosomal proteins using mass spectrometry and their functional characterisation through protein depletion in *Drosophila* SL2 cells using RNAi. The following phenotype analysis was directed at identifying proteins that are relevant for centrosome segregation, replication, maturation, altered cell cycle distribution and aberrant chromosome segregation when depleted. Finally, this work aimed at analysing the function of the classical microtubule nucleation proteins, the γ -TuRC proteins, in activation of the spindle assembly checkpoint. A possible interaction of γ -TuRC proteins with spindle assembly checkpoint proteins was tested on a biochemical (immunoprecipitation in *Drosophila* and tandem-affinity-purification in human cells) and on a functional level (RNAi).

2 Synopses of Publications

2.1 Immunoisolation of Centrosomes from *Drosophila melanogaster*

Verena Lehmann, Hannah Müller, Bodo MH Lange. 2005. Current Protocols in Cell Biology, Chapter 3: Unit 3.17.

One of the main objectives of this project was the identification of the centrosomal proteome in *Drosophila*. The lack of an affinity-isolation technique that yields highly enriched preparations and minimizes contamination prevented a comprehensive proteomic analysis of the centrosome so far. Hence, the aim was to further develop the isolation method established by Lange *et al.* (2000).

The isolation procedure that is described here uses the syncytial stage of the *Drosophila* embryo as starting material, which is advantageous for several reasons: (a) At this stage the embryo is highly mitotic. As the centrosome is very dynamic in terms of protein composition, the amount of pericentriolar material peaks during mitosis. Therefore, isolation of centrosomes from this stage results in high protein yields. (b) The embryo is not cellularised yet. Cell organelles and the cytoskeleton are not enclosed by membranes. (c) Using *Drosophila* embryos is time and cost efficient, because large amounts of starting material can be produced within a few hours with a relative simple setup. (e) Large quantities of starting material can be obtained (up to 60 g a day) facilitating the purification of μg quantities of affinity purified centrosomes that can be characterised in coomassie stained gels followed by MS analysis.

The first step enriches centrosomes from *Drosophila* embryo extract using classic sucrose gradient centrifugation. In a second step centrosomes are further purified by means of immunomagnetic separation, which is crucial to obtain highly enriched centrosomes that can be used for subsequent biochemical analyses, mass spectrometry or functional characterisation. The method described here differs from the one originally described in Lange *et al.* (2000) since an anti-Cnn antibody was used for affinity purification, which was chemically crosslinked to magnetic beads allowing further enrichment of centrosomes while avoiding IgG sample contamination. This method makes proteomic analysis of centrosomes feasible, because it significantly increases the enrichment of centrosomes and reduces contamination by other cellular fractions.

2.2 Proteome analysis identifies functionally conserved protein components important for centrosome structure and cellular signalling in *Drosophila* and human

Hannah Müller, Ekaterina Mirgorodskaya, Sandra Steinbrink, Verena Lehmann, Karin Habermann, Niklas Gustavsson, Hans Lehrach, Johan Gobom, Michael Boutros, Bodo MH Lange. 2008. Submitted.

The aim of this project was to identify the composition of the centrosomal proteome in *Drosophila melanogaster* and to functionally characterise its components. To better understand how the centrosome is implicated in different signalling pathways, the functional role of the centrosomal candidate proteins in centrosome structure maintenance, centrosome replication, segregation and cell cycle progression was analysed.

Immunoisolated centrosomes of *Drosophila* embryos were subjected to proteomic analysis by Nano-LC and MALDI mass spectrometry. 260 centrosomal candidate proteins were identified and subsequently characterised by RNAi protein depletion. The resulting phenotypes were analysed via immunofluorescence microscopy and FACS. In detail, we examined the effects of depletion of the candidate proteins on centrosome number and morphology, mitotic index and cell cycle progression. We classified proteins in clusters, which are relating to distinct functions in centrosome integrity, centrosome cycle or cell cycle progression. Depletion of 61 proteins affected the centrosome, of which 28 were novel centrosomal candidate proteins. We distinguished three classes of aberrant centrosomal morphology: large centrosomes (26 proteins), small centrosomes (6 proteins) and fuzzy centrosomes (4 proteins). A change in centrosome size is likely to result from defects in centrosome maturation or segregation, as well as irregular number of centrioles or fragmentation of the centrosome. Altered centrosome shape or a complete lack of centrosomes (20 proteins) can be the consequence of depletion of a protein that plays a role in maintenance of the centrosome structure. Centrosome segregation defects after protein level reduction might result in mitotic cells with one centrosome (28 proteins) and overduplication of centrosomes can lead to mitotic cells with more than three centrosomes (5 proteins).

Several proteins that we identified to function in centrosome segregation, replication or integrity have been reported to play a role in other cellular processes like nuclear

import, receptor tyrosine kinase signalling and contractile ring formation. This demonstrates the implication of the centrosome in multiple cellular signalling pathways. FACS analysis and determination of the mitotic index of cells depleted of centrosomal candidate proteins provided evidence for the centrosomes role in cell cycle progression, cell proliferation and cell viability. Predominant phenotypes resulting from protein depletion were viability defects (20 proteins), cytokinesis defects (28 proteins), cell cycle arrest in G1/G0-phase (9 proteins) or mitosis (20 proteins).

A number of proteins functioning in RNA-binding and transport were identified in the proteomic analysis. Depletion of these proteins often affected centrosome integrity or segregation. Together with the recent discovery of RNA in the centrosome (Alliegro *et al.* 2006) this suggests a possible role of RNA in centrosomal cohesion.

The centrosome is an evolutionary conserved organelle. Database searches showed that 75% of the identified proteins have human orthologues. In addition to sequence conservation, functional conservation was shown by small interfering RNA (siRNA) depletion of a subset of human orthologues in human U2OS cells, that play a role in structure maintenance in *Drosophila* SL2 cells. SiRNA of five orthologues resulted in a centrosome-related phenotype, confirming a structural role of these proteins in human cells.

In summary, we defined the centrosomal proteome and functionally characterised the identified candidate proteins. We assigned novel functions to 28 proteins, relating to centrosome replication and morphology and showed that centrosome-associated proteins play a role for cytokinesis and cell cycle progression. Furthermore, we provided evidence for molecular links of centrosomal proteins to diverse cellular signalling pathways such as cytokinesis and nuclear signalling.

2.3 A Centrosome-Independent Role for γ -TuRC Proteins in the Spindle Assembly Checkpoint

Hannah Müller, Marie-Laure Fogeron, Verena Lehmann, Hans Lehrach, Bodo MH Lange. 2006. Science, 314: 654-656

Classically, the γ -TuRC proteins function in microtubule nucleation. This work provides evidence for a novel role of γ -TuRC proteins in cell cycle control. The implication of these proteins in the activation of the spindle assembly checkpoint was investigated on a biochemical and on a functional level. RNAi protein depletion of the γ -TuRC components γ -tubulin, Grip84, Grip91 and Grip71 resulted in aberrant centrosome number, defects in spindle morphology and an increase of mitotic index, indicating mitotic arrest and therefore spindle assembly checkpoint activation. Simultaneous depletion of Cnn and Grip71 revealed that the mitotic arrest following γ -TuRC depletion can be triggered in the absence of an intact centrosome structure.

The spindle assembly checkpoint is triggered through sensing of misaligned sister chromatids by either lack of attachment between the kinetochore and spindle microtubules or lack of tension within the mitotic spindle (see chapter 1.7). To determine if the γ -TuRC is part of a signalling complex activating the spindle assembly checkpoint, we investigated a possible interaction of γ -TuRC proteins with spindle assembly checkpoint components. On the biochemical level, immunoprecipitation of γ -tubulin from *Drosophila* embryo extract as well as tandem-affinity purification from human cells (HEK293) showed an evolutionary conserved interaction with Cdc20 and BubR1. On a functional level, we depleted the checkpoint components simultaneously with γ -tubulin using RNAi. γ -tubulin depletion mediated checkpoint arrest was not triggered when Mad2, Mps1- or BubR1-levels were reduced, demonstrating the functional importance of their interaction and that γ -tubulin absence triggers a spindle assembly checkpoint. The co-depletion of Cdc20 and γ -tubulin resulted in a cumulative increase of the mitotic index compared to Cdc20 single knock-down, which corroborates a functional interaction consistent with the biochemical data. We suggest that reduction of γ -tubulin levels triggers activation of spindle assembly checkpoint in addition to missing kinetochore microtubule attachment or lack of tension.

To investigate the contribution of kinetochore and γ -TuRC to spindle checkpoint activation we depleted the structural kinetochore component CID using RNAi. CID is

required for kinetochore assembly and is localised close to the inner plate of the kinetochore. Reduction of this protein led to displacement of the chromosomes from the metaphase plate and increased mitotic index, suggesting activation of the spindle assembly checkpoint due to microtubule-kinetochore attachment defects. Simultaneous depletion of γ -tubulin and CID causes a further increase in mitotic index, therefore indicating an activation of the spindle assembly checkpoint through an additional signal. The study provides evidence for a role of the γ -TuRC in spindle checkpoint activation independent of centrosome localisation or centrosome integrity. γ -tubulin interacts biochemically and functionally with spindle assembly checkpoint components and this interaction is evolutionary conserved between human and *Drosophila*.

Immunoisolation of Centrosomes from *Drosophila melanogaster*

Verena Lehmann, Hannah Müller, Bodo M.H. Lange

Current protocols in Cell Biology, 2005. Chapter 3: Unit 3.17, pages 3.17.1-3.17.13,
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Abstract

Classical protocols for the isolation of centrosomes from higher eukaryotic cells are based on enrichment of cell organelles by density gradient centrifugation. Various successful protocols have been described that isolate centrosomes from mammalian tissue culture cells, tissue, clam oocytes, *Drosophila*, and yeast, to mention only some of the more frequently used sources. The material produced is subsequently used in various assays. These include functional tests such as the microtubule nucleation assay, electron microscopic study of centrosome morphology, and antigen localization; the organelles may also be used for the generation of antibodies. Furthermore, centrosomal preparations have been used for the characterization of their protein composition. The method described here focuses on the isolation of centrosomes from the syncytial stages of the early *Drosophila* embryo. This is a particularly attractive system because these organelles are not bounded by cellular membranes. Moreover, the abundance of pericentriolar material of these centrosomes produces excellent total protein yields.

Experimental contributions:

Conception: B.M.H. Lange

Cloning of Cnn, Preparation of *Drosophila* embryo extract: V. Lehmann

Proteome analysis identifies functionally conserved protein components important for centrosome structure and cellular signalling in *Drosophila* and human

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running title: centrosome proteome analysis in *Drosophila*

While centrosomal proteins have been implicated in several human diseases (Badano et al. 2005), a comprehensive inventory of the centrosome's protein components plus knowledge of their function is missing. Here, we identified and analysed the *Drosophila* centrosomal proteome using immunoisolation, mass spectrometry and functional characterisation of 260 identified components through RNA interference. We could assign novel functions to 28 proteins relating to centrosome structure and cellular signalling pathways. Our results provide evidence for the molecular link of the centrosome to major signalling pathways and the functional clustering of the identified proteins in *Drosophila* and in human cells.

The MTOC of eukaryotic cells has evaded a detailed molecular characterisation, mainly due to its low cellular abundance. Several bioinformatic and proteomic studies have identified a number of components of the spindle pole body from yeast (Wigge et al. 1998) and *Dictyostelium* (Reinders et al. 2006) and of the basal body of *Chlamydomonas* (Keller et al. 2005; Li et al. 2004), the structural and functional homologue of the centriole. In *Drosophila*, genetic approaches and genome wide RNAi screening have identified and characterised a series of centrosomal proteins but remained short of a comprehensive molecular characterisation of the centrosome. In higher eukaryotic cells centrosome components have been identified and characterised via bulk isolation methods (Komesli et al. 1989; Lehmann et al. 2005; Lange et al. 2000; Moritz et al. 1995) and by combining mass spectrometry (MS) with protein correlation profiling (Andersen et al. 2003). On a functional level several proteins have been identified to be required for the structural maintenance of the centrosome: Firstly, proteins of the pericentriolar material (PCM) such as *cnm* are essential for centrosome integrity as they provide a link between the centriole and the PCM in *Drosophila* (Lucas and Raff 2007). Grip84, Grip91 and γ -tubulin, proteins of the small γ -tubulin ring complex (γ -TuSC) are involved in MT nucleation but are also required for structural maintenance of the centrosome (Vérollet et al. 2006). Secondly, centriole proteins are part of the centrosomal core structure, as ablation or depletion of the centriolar proteins Ana1, Ana2, Asl and SPD-2 are resulting in destruction of the mitotic centrosome in *Drosophila* (Goshima et al. 2007; Dix and Raff 2007; Varmark et al. 2007). Thirdly, on the regulatory level, the cell cycle kinases Plk1, CDK1/CDK2 and Aurora A control

PCM recruitment at the beginning of the M-phase and therefore control overall centrosome size and structure (Bettencourt-Dias and Glover, 2007).

The proteins ZYG-1, SAS4, SAS5, SAS6 control distinct steps of daughter centriole formation, structural maturation and mother daughter disengagement. This has been defined on a molecular and electron microscopy level in *C. elegans* (Pelletier et al. 2006). SAK (Plk4 in human and *Drosophila*), CDK1, CDK2, CamKII and the ubiquitin ligase complex SCF are controlling transition steps of centriolar and centrosomal replication and segregation. In addition, DNA damage and DNA replication processes are coupled to centrosome replication and segregation (Sibon et al. 2000; Bettencourt-Dias et al. 2005). Hence, there is a tight coordination of the centrosome with basic physiological cellular functions that control cell cycle regulation, protein expression, DNA replication and DNA damage (Lange 2002). However, on both the biochemical and on the functional level details are lacking of how the centrosome is integrated in different signalling pathways. Here we identified and characterised through a direct biochemical approach centrosome components that play a functional role for centrosome structure maintenance, centrosome replication and segregation. Functional clustering reveals protein networks in the centrosome proteome. We propose that this functional and molecular information is critical for a better understanding of developmental processes, such as asymmetric cell division and for diseases such as cancer in which centrosome morphology and number are frequently dysregulated.

Results and Discussion

Immunoisolation of *Drosophila* centrosomes from early preblastoderm embryos identified 260 centrosomal candidate proteins

One of the major problems so far in defining the molecules involved in structure maintenance, replication and segregation of the centrosome was the limited quantity and low purity of the available centrosome preparations. This has been partly overcome by a novel MS approach that applied protein correlation profiling of centrosomes isolated through sucrose gradient centrifugation, thereby identifying over 20 novel human centrosome proteins (Andersen *et al.* 2003). Here we used immunoisolation in addition to sucrose gradient centrifugation to increase enrichment of centrosome proteins (Lehmann *et al.* 2005; Lange *et al.* 2000) (Fig. 1A). The resulting centrosome preparation was analysed by LC-MS and the function of the identified proteins were validated through RNAi in SL2 cells (Bartscherer *et al.* 2006; Boutros *et al.* 2004). Centrosome enrichment was confirmed using western blotting against the centrosomal protein markers (γ -tubulin, Grip84) while the cytoplasmic actin was strongly reduced (Fig. 1B). In addition, quantitative immunofluorescence analysis of the immunoisolated centrosomes confirmed an over 600-fold enrichment (Supplemental Methods). MS analysis of the immunoisolated centrosomes identified 260 proteins of which 17 were known from previous studies to be localised to the *Drosophila* centrosome (Supplemental Table 1). The identified proteins and the results from this functional analysis are discussed in the following section and are listed in Supplemental Table 1.

Functional analysis through RNAi in *Drosophila* SL2 cells assigned novel functions to 28 proteins for maintaining centrosome structure and number

In our functional analysis we used RNAi in *Drosophila* SL2 cells to determine the relevance of the identified components for centrosome structure and cell cycle progression by immunofluorescence microscopy and FACS. 61 proteins (from 260 identified candidate proteins) were found to affect centrosome morphology, separation or replication (Supplemental Table 2). From the total number of abnormal centrosomal phenotypes (61) we identified 33 known and 28 novel centrosome candidate proteins.

Using immunofluorescence microscopy we distinguished three main classes of abnormal centrosome morphology as compared to control cells (Fig. 2): (i) large centrosomes (26/61), (ii) small centrosomes (6/61) and (iii) fuzzy centrosomes (4/61)

(i.e. fragmented or without a clear morphological border). These three classes result from RNAi mediated depletion of proteins involved in centrosome separation, centrosome maturation (recruitment of PCM) and centrosome assembly, respectively.

The accuracy of the functional scoring has been confirmed by the identification of 24 known proteins that have previously been associated with abnormal phenotypes. Examples are Grip75 (Vérollet *et al.* 2006), Grip84, Grip91 (Barbosa *et al.* 2003) and *cnn*, whose depletion resulted in a phenotype of single or no centrosomes. *Asp* (do Carmo Avides and Glover 1999), *ncd* (Endow *et al.* 1994) and *aur* (Giet *et al.* 2002) were positive controls of identified proteins relevant to centrosome assembly or splitting confirming the scoring for the morphological class of fuzzy centrosomes. To test the accuracy of the functional scoring on the RNAi level we investigated potential off-target effects both through detailed bioinformatics analysis as well as in a second round of experiments, that positively confirmed 11/13 selected functionally important proteins (Supplemental Table 3). We analysed centrosome localisation of a set of the identified proteins by fluorescence microscopy of expressed N- and C-terminal GFP-fusion or TAP-tag fusion proteins (Fig. 1C-N). We confirmed that our combined biochemical and functional characterisation identified both known and novel centrosome proteins.

Centrosome replication and segregation is depending on proteins that function in nuclear import, receptor tyrosine kinase signalling and contractile ring formation

We identified 14 proteins that upon depletion through RNAi produced a phenotype characterised by a single large centrosome (see Fig. 2D). A group of these proteins (genes *fzy*, *mts*, *ida*, *thr*, *feo*, *stg*) function in cell cycle transition at either the G2/M border or at the exit of mitosis. Hence, their function for centrosome segregation and replication is governed by protein dephosphorylation and protein degradation (Nigg 2001). We identified *Pen* (Kussel and Frasch 1995), an Importin alpha subunit required for cell proliferation, as a centrosome-associated protein that produced a “large centrosome” phenotype when depleted in SL2 cells. *Pen* depleted cells also displayed an 8n DNA content as identified through FACS analysis (Supplemental Fig. 1). We suggest therefore that *Pen* is implicated both in the regulation of cytokinesis and in centrosome segregation. Depletion of the protein *mask*, an ankyrin and RNA binding domain protein, also resulted in a large centrosome phenotype in SL2 cells and was previously reported to be involved in *Drosophila* receptor tyrosine kinase signalling

(RTS) (Smith *et al.* 2002). Hence this finding suggests that RTS might be involved in centrosome separation. The feo protein carries a microtubule associated protein domain and is required for the formation of the contractile ring at the central spindle. Removal of feo has previously been described to result in a diffuse localisation of both the pav and asp proteins along spindle microtubules (Verni *et al.* 2004). Depletion of feo in the RNAi assay resulted in large centrosomes. However, whether this function relates to the effect on the centrosomal fraction of pav or asp remains to be evaluated.

Centrosome and centriole replication is controlled by the origin recognition complex 3 (lat)

Recently it has been suggested that common licensing mechanisms might exist that control both DNA and centrosome replication (Bettencourt-Dias and Glover 2007). The hetero-hexameric origin recognition complex (ORC) is involved in DNA replication and has been proposed to link DNA licensing i.e. the labelling of replicated vs. non replicated DNA to centrosome duplication and cell division (Prasanth *et al.* 2004). We identified three DNA licensing factors in our centrosomal preparations (ORC1, ORC2, lat) of which lat depletion had an effect on centrosome replication. We investigated if depletion of lat is leading to PCM fragmentation or affects centriolar replication and segregation. Co-labelling of lat-depleted cells for γ -tubulin (a PCM protein) and cp309 (a protein primarily associated with the centriole) (Martinez-Campos *et al.* 2004) detected multiple centrosome fragments each containing a single centriole as judged by immunofluorescence microscopy labelling (Fig. 3C). Moreover, as we did not detect cells with a significant higher DNA content after lat depletion, the multiple centrosomes/centrioles are not likely to be the result of a cytokinesis failure (Supplemental Table 1). This result suggests that lat provides a functional and molecular link between centrosome replication and DNA replication.

Centrosome structure is maintained through the anillin (ANLN) homologue Scra and the RNA-binding repeat proteins Rael, CG31716, CG11943

Scra is an anillin homologue causing defects in septin recruitment to the contractile ring and strongly perturbing cellularisation (Field *et al.* 2005). Our RNAi experiments revealed a centrosome “0” phenotype after scra depletion indicating a role in centrosome structure assembly or maintenance, which can not be explained with the

known role of scra in cytokinesis. This function is not evolutionary conserved, as we could not confirm it for the homologue ANLN in human cells (Supplemental Table 4).

The role of actin related proteins for centrosome structure maintenance however is further corroborated by the depletion of Act57B and the actin binding protein Sop2, which is leading to centrosome disintegration.

We identified in the immunisolated centrosome samples proteins that are implicated in mRNA transport: Rae1, CG31716, CG11943 and Nup153. Knock-down of these proteins result in a centrosome “0” or “1” phenotype. The centrosome related function of CG31716 and CG11943 is conserved as siRNA knock-down of their human orthologues CNOT4 and NUP205 leads to centrosome disintegration (Fig. 4; Supplemental Table 4). This suggests a function for centrosome structure of NUP205 (CG11943), RAE1 and NUP153 (Supplemental Fig. 2). This is consistent with the presence of Rae1 at the spindle pole and its translation-independent role in spindle assembly (Blower *et al.* 2005).

We identified ribosomal proteins in our preparations, which have been previously described as possible contaminants in centrosome preparations (Andersen *et al.* 2003). The recent discovery of RNA in the centrosome (Alliegro *et al.* 2006) led us to investigate the function of these proteins for the centrosome. Depletion of ribosomal proteins affects protein translation, is therefore consistent with interfering with centrosomal replication and was reflected by a single centrosome phenotype (Supplemental Table 1). Other, potentially more direct functions of these proteins such as scaffolding remain to be investigated. However, we speculate that a more physical link of ribosomal proteins to the centrosome exists.

Link of the centrosome to cell cycle progression, cell proliferation pathways and cell viability

To elucidate molecular links of centrosomal proteins to cell proliferation pathways, all identified proteins were analysed for their potential role in cell cycle progression (Supplemental Table 1; Supplemental Fig. 1). The depletion of a group of proteins (20/260) resulted in viability defects, represented by an increased cell population with a sub-G1-phase DNA content. An accumulation of cells in G1/G0-phase of the cell cycle occurred after depletion of 9/260 identified proteins. Also a several-fold increase (8n) of DNA content was frequently detected (28/260). Mitotic arrest was another commonly observed phenotype (20/260). We found that a large group of proteins whose depletion

caused mitotic arrest were members of the γ -TuRC. It has been previously described that depletion of γ -TuRC proteins in *Drosophila* (Vérollet et al. 2006; Müller et al. 2006) lead to activation of the spindle checkpoint while a knock-down of centriolar and centrosomal proteins in mammalian cells leads to a p53 and p38 dependent arrest in G1/S phase (Mikule et al. 2007). Taken together, these results suggest that different sets of centrosome proteins are linked to discrete cell cycle transitions.

In summary, the functional characterisation of the centrosome proteome assigned a novel function to 28 proteins that are required for maintaining centrosome morphology and centrosome number control. Moreover, we show that centrosome associated proteins play a role for mitotic progression, cell viability and cytokinesis. Hence, this work provides new insights on how centrosome proteins are clustered into different functional groups and provides evidence for molecular links of the centrosome to cellular signalling pathways.

Material and Methods

Centrosome isolation

Embryo homogenate was prepared from *Drosophila* preblastoderm stage embryos and centrosomes were enriched through sucrose gradients centrifugation according to Moritz *et al.* (1995). Subsequent immunoisolation of centrosomes was performed as described before (Lehmann *et al.* 2005) with following modifications: To improve the isolation efficiency, affinity purified antibodies against the centrosomal protein *cnm* were bound to Protein G coupled magnetic beads (Dynal) and then cross-linked in two consecutive steps using Dimethyl pimelidate dihydrochloride (Sigma).

Nano LC-MALDI MS

Nano LC-MALDI MS was performed as described recently (Mirgorodskaya *et al.* 2005). In brief, peptide samples were analyzed on an 1100 Series Nanoflow LC system (Agilent Technologies). The mobile phases used for the reversed-phase separation were Buffer A: 1% ACN (v/v), 0.05% TFA (v/v) and Buffer B: 90% ACN (v/v), 0.04% TFA (v/v). The matrix solution was CHCA (100 g/l) in 90% tetrahydrofuran, 0.001% TFA (v/v), 50 mM citric acid, containing the two calibration standards angiotensin I (1 pmol/ μ l) and ACTH 18-39 (2 pmol/ μ l).

Mass analysis of positively charged peptide ions was performed on an Ultraflex II LIFT MALDI-TOF/TOF mass spectrometer (Bruker Daltonics).

Protein identification was performed using the Mascot software (Matrixscience), searching the FlyBase sequence database (<http://flybase.bio.indiana.edu/>).

RNA Interference

SL2 cells were cultured in „Schneider’s *Drosophila* Medium“ (Gibco, Invitrogen) with 10% FBS (Foetal bovine serum, Gibco, Invitrogen) at 25°C. DsRNA treatment of cells was performed essentially according to Clemens *et al.* (2000). Differing from this protocol, 1×10^6 cells were incubated with 10 μ g dsRNA for 1 h at 25°C. After 72 h a second dsRNA treatment was carried out to ensure maximum depletion of proteins. The cells were analyzed via immunofluorescence microscopy and FACS.

Immunofluorescence microscopy

SL2 cells were settled on Concanavalin A (Sigma) coated coverslips (Rogers et al. 2002) and fixed with 4% para-formaldehyde (Appllichem) for 20 min at room temperature followed by methanol for 1 h at -20°C. Centrosomes were visualised with the mouse monoclonal anti- γ -tubulin GTU-88 (Sigma) or rat cnn (custom-made, Pineda) antibody. Centrioles were visualized with the custom-made rabbit polyclonal anti-cp309 antibody. Images were captured using a Zeiss Imager Z1 or LSM 510 meta microscope with Zeiss MRM CCD camera or a Photometrics Coolsnap HQ slow scan CCD camera and Axiovision image acquisition software. Image processing and annotation was done using the Adobe Photoshop and Adobe Illustrator software.

Data evaluation

For each knockdown a minimum of $n = 100$ cells were classified by immunofluorescence microscopy regarding these categories: centrosome number (0, 1, 2, 3, >3), centrosome morphology (intact, unequal size, large, small, fuzzy) and chromosome arrangement (normal, abnormal). To verify significant phenotypic deviation from the control, non-parametric two-tailed chi square test of the resulting data was performed using Microsoft Excel. Significance levels < 0.0001 were considered to be statistically significant (list of p-values see Supplemental Table 3).

Flow cytometry

For the flow cytometry experiments, cells were fixed in ice-cold 70% Ethanol overnight and stained with propidium iodide staining solution (50 $\mu\text{g/ml}$ pancreatic RNaseA (Sigma) and 50 $\mu\text{g/ml}$ propidium iodide (Calbiochem) in PBS) for 1.5 h at 37°C. Samples were stored at 4°C in the dark until used for FACS experiments.

The DNA content of the cells was quantified on a flow cytometer (BD FACSAarray Bioanalyzer System, BD Biosciences) and analysed using FlowJo software (Tree star). The cell populations were gated and quantified within the different cell cycle phases. The average of both replicates was calculated and the z-scores were assessed for each sample. The z-score signifies the number of standard deviation a specific phase in the cell cycle differs from the mean of the EGFP controls. Specifically, z-scores represent the ratio of the sample value minus the mean of the control divided by the standard deviation of the control.

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Figure Description

Fig. 1

Immunoisolation of centrosomes results in highly enriched centrosome preparations. (A) Projection of confocal microscopy images of centrosomes (yellow) immunoisolated on magnetic beads (red). (B) Western blotting analysis of different isolation stages shows an enrichment of centrosomal proteins (γ -Tub, Grip84). (EH = embryo homogenate, CEF = centrosome enriched fraction, IPC = immunoisolated centrosomes, mock = negative control sample: magnetic beads coupled to preimmune serum incubated with CEF). The cytoplasmic protein actin is strongly reduced in the IPC fraction. (C-E) GFP-tagging of the identified centrosomal candidate protein CG17286 verifies its centriolar-like localisation in SL2 cells. CG17286 (red) co-localises with cp309 (green). DNA was labelled with DAPI (blue).

(F-H) Transiently expressed fusion protein CG11148 with the N-terminal TAP-tag is localised to the spindle and the centrosome in mitosis. (I-K) Centrosome localisation of CG11148 expressed as a fusion protein with an N-terminal TAP-tag is maintained after depolymerisation of microtubules with colchicines. (L-N) GFP-tagged cort localises to one centriole in interphase cells. (C-N) TAP/GFP-tag localisation in red, γ -Tub in green and superimposition of both images with DNA in blue.

Fig. 2

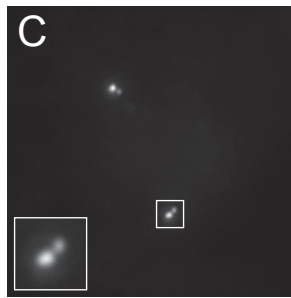
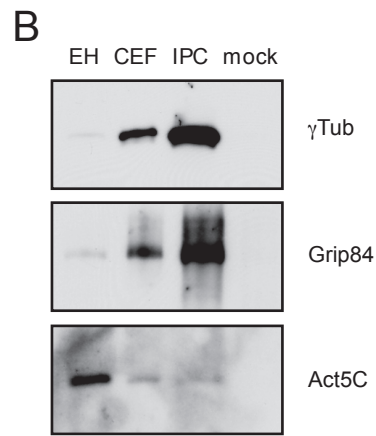
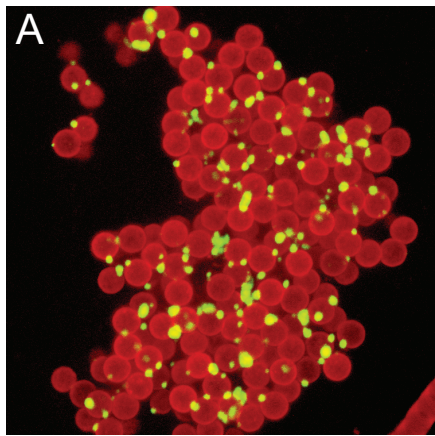
Depletion of centrosomal candidate proteins by RNAi in SL2 cells resulted in 6 main phenotypic classes, shown by examples of immunofluorescence microscopy images. Centrosomes were labelled with an anti- γ -Tub antibody (green) and mitotic chromosomes with an anti-phospho-histone 3 antibody (red). SL2 cells treated with EGFP-dsRNA were used as a control. Normal centrosome and chromosome arrangement during metaphase (A, B) and anaphase (C). Examples of centrosome shape phenotypes: (D) Abnormally large centrosomes in mitosis after stg depletion. (E) Depletion of CG17286 protein caused small centrosomes. (F) Aberrant centrosome assembly after *ncd*-RNAi indicated by fuzzy centrosomes. Examples of centrosome number phenotypes: (G) depletion of the CG15524 protein producing a “0” centrosome phenotype. (H) Mitotic cells with a single centrosome after *ida*-RNAi. (I) Depletion of the *mpl* protein resulted in supernumerary centrosomes.

Fig. 3

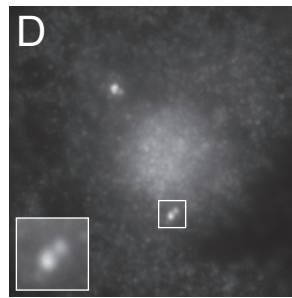
Immunofluorescence microscopy of SL2 cells depleted of the proteins *feo*, *lat*, *cnn* and CG17286 shows the centriole number in relationship to centrosome size and number. The PCM marked with an anti- γ -Tub antibody (red), centrioles labelled with an anti-cp309 antibody (green). DNA labelled with DAPI (blue). EGFP was used as negative RNAi control. Below each main image the enlarged insert of one of the centrosomes is shown in the following sequence: γ -Tub, cp309, superimposed image. In the images (*D-F*) phospho-histone 3 was labelled together with γ -Tub in the red channel to visualise three different antibody labels (γ -Tub, H3P, cp309) at the same time in addition to DAPI. (*A, D*) A single centriole can be detected within the PCM in EGFP control cells. (*B*) Large centrosomes after *feo* depletion contain multiple centrioles demonstrating that centriolar over-replication has occurred. (*C*) Each centrosome fragment co-labels with the anti-cp309 antibody indicating that multiple small centrosomes were generated through over-replication rather than PCM fragmentation after *lat*-RNAi. (*E*) *cnn* depletion is causing PCM dispersion and centriole-like structures are still detected. (*F*) CG17286 depletion causes complete PCM dispersion and centriole destruction is marked through the absence of cp309.

Fig. 4

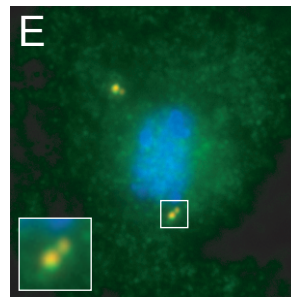
Depletion of the human orthologues of a subset of the centrosomal candidate proteins in U2OS cells influences centrosome shape and number. Immunofluorescence microscopy of mitotic U2OS cells shows examples of the different phenotypes. Centrosomes were labelled with an anti- γ -Tub antibody (green) and mitotic chromosomes with an anti-phospho-histone 3 antibody (red). (*A*) Mock-transfected control cells show normal metaphase chromosome alignment and two centrosomes at the spindle poles. (*B-C*) Depletion of CEP192 and CENPJ affects centrosome structure (small (*B*) or fuzzy (*C*) centrosomes). These phenotypes correlate with the occurrence of defective centrosome number (0 centrosomes (*D*), 1 centrosome (*E*)). ANLN depleted cells exhibit aberrant cytokinesis and supernumerary centrosomes (*F*).



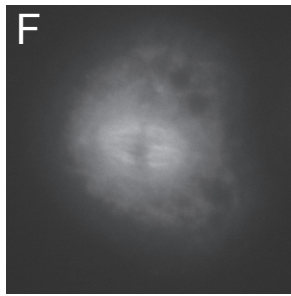
GFP-CG17286



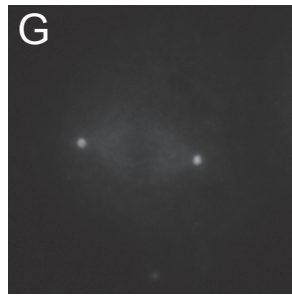
cp309



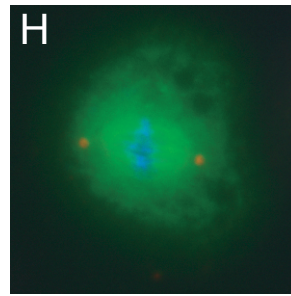
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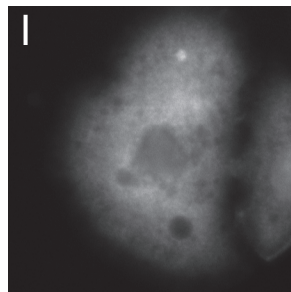
NTAP-CG11148



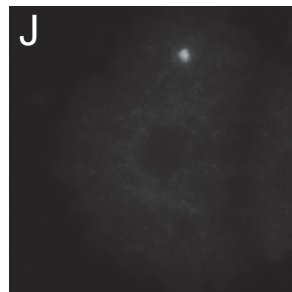
γ Tub



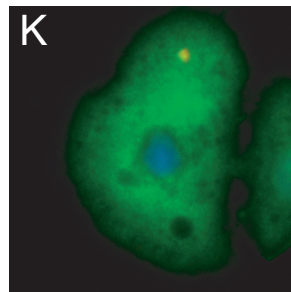
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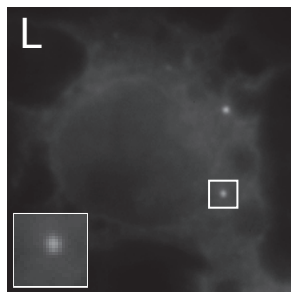
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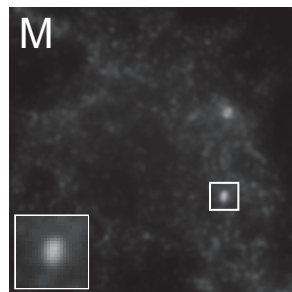
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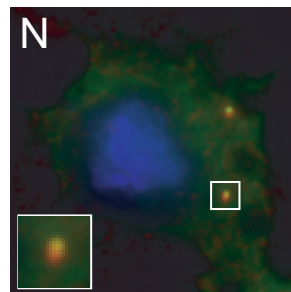
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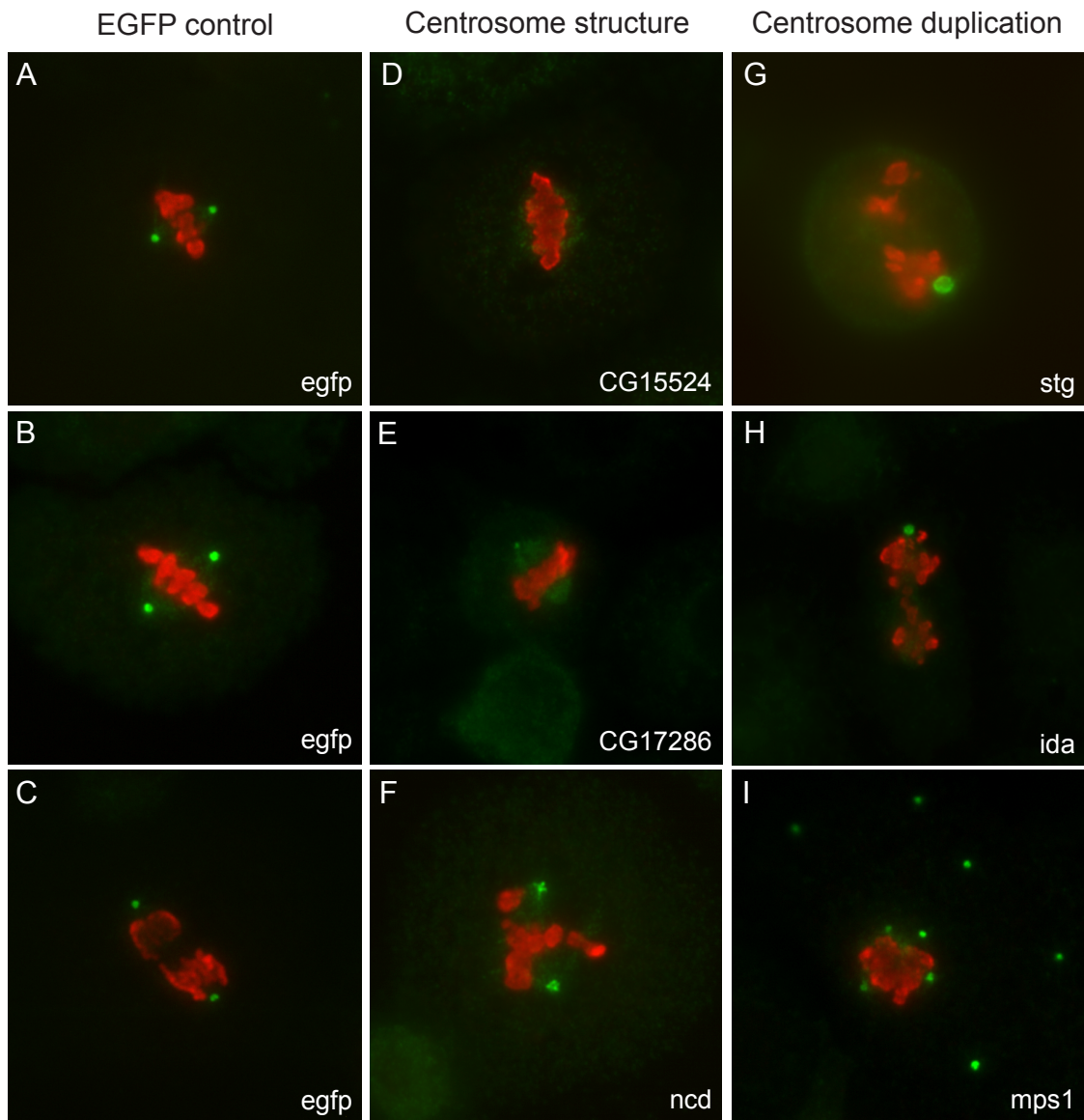
GFP-cort

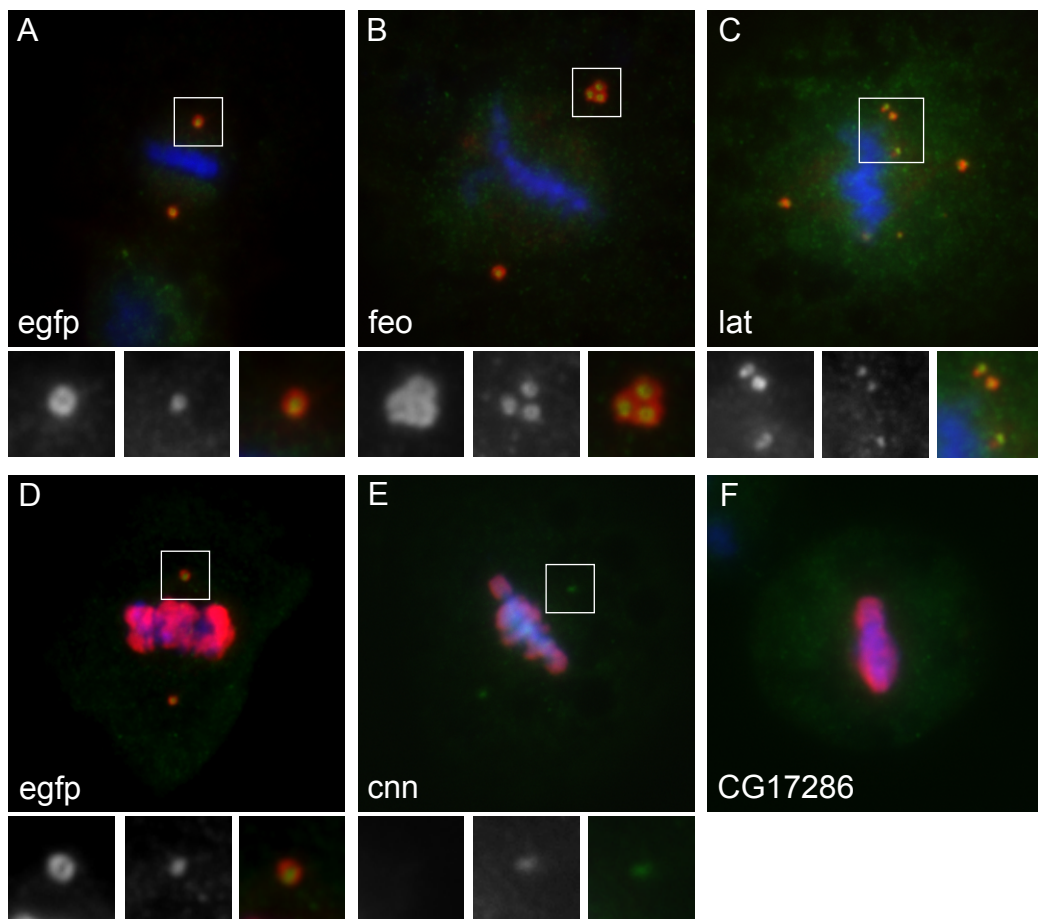


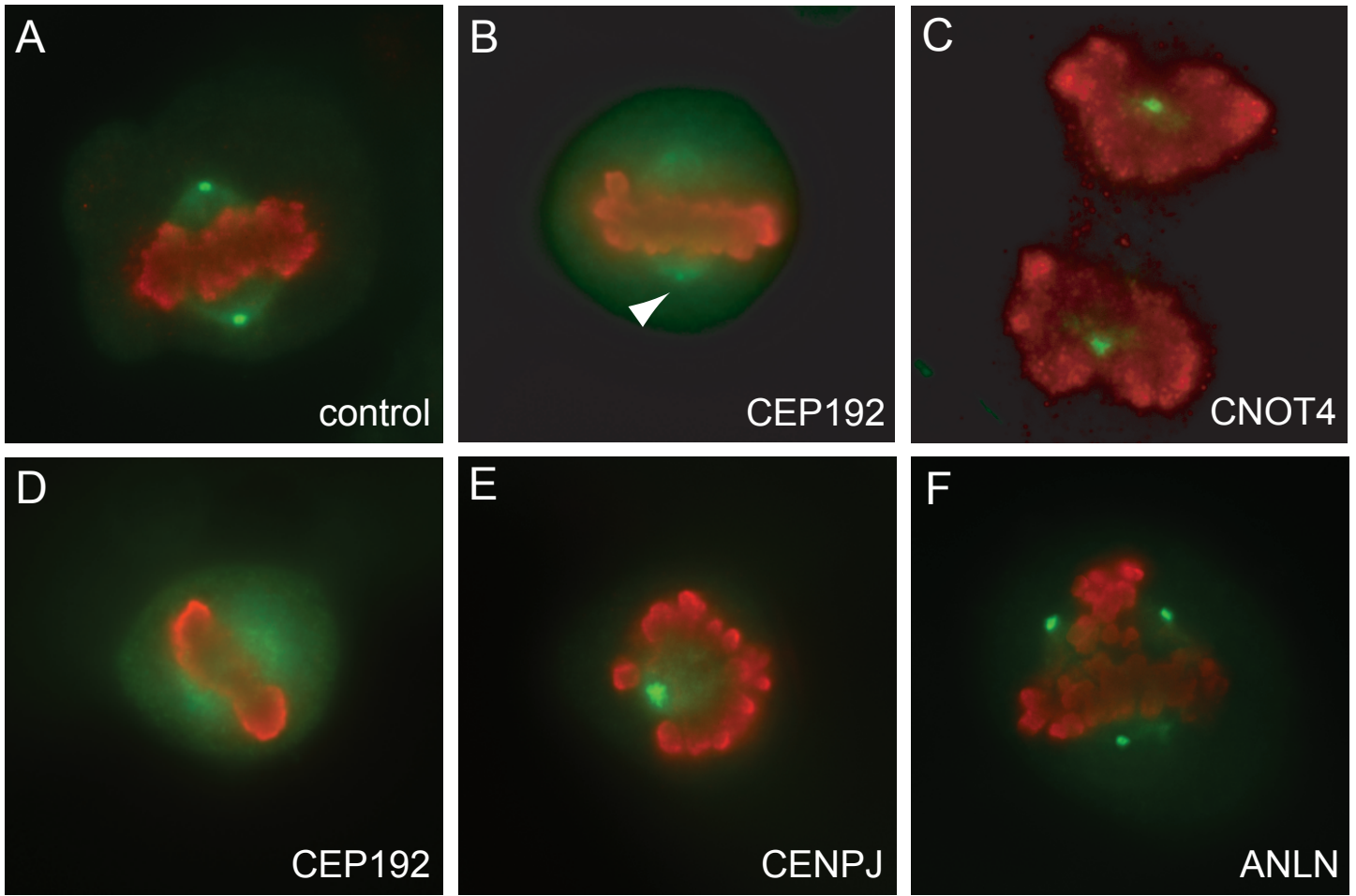
γ Tub



GFP-cort- γ Tub-DAPI







Supplemental Methods

Cloning and Molecular Biology

Exon 6 of the *cnn* gene was amplified by PCR from genomic DNA from the *Drosophila* W118 strain. The amplified DNA sequence was first cloned into the entry vector pENTR/D-Topo (Invitrogen) and then recombined with the destination vector pDest 17 (Invitrogen) for His-tagged protein expression. CG17286 and *cort* were amplified by PCR from the DGRC cDNA gold collection and afterwards cloned into the entry vector pENTR/D-Topo (Invitrogen). Recombination was done with the Gateway vectors pAGW (N-terminal EGFP Tag) and pAWG (C-terminal EGFP Tag) from the *Drosophila* Gateway vector collection from the DGRC. CG11148 was PCR-amplified using clone GH25014 from the DGRC release 1 collection as template. The attB-flanked PCR product was then recombined with the Gateway donor vector pDONR201 (Invitrogen) and subsequently shuttled into expression vectors pMK33-CTAP and pMK33-NTAP, respectively.

Cloning Primer Pairs

Gene Symbol	Gene ID	Primer Sequence
<i>cnn</i>	CG4832	5'CACCAGTGACAACGAGGCCAGCTCCCAGG 3'CTACTCTGACTTTGCCTTTGGACTCGCT
CG17286	CG17286	5'CACCGACAGTAGCAGTGGAAGCCAA (N-term.) 3'TTAAAATTTAAAATAATCGGGACA (N-term.) 5'CACCATGGACAGTAGCAGTGGAAGC (C-term.) 3'AAATTTAAAATAATCGGGACACTG (C-term.)
<i>cort</i>	CG11330	5'GGGGACAAGTTTGTACAAAAAAGCAGGCTT CCCTGGCATATGCAGTCCCGT (N-term.) 3'GGGGACCACTTTGTACAAGAAAGCTGGGTCTC ACCGTATGCCTTTGTACA (N-term.) 5'GGGGACAAGTTTGTACAAAAAAGCAGGCTACCATG GGTCCTGGCATATGCAGTCC (C-term.) 3'GGGGACCACTTTGTACAAGAAAGCTGGGTCCCGTA TGCCTTTGTACAGGC (C-term.)

CG11148	CG11148	5' GGGGACAAGTTTGTACAAAAAAGCAGGCTTCAG ATCGGCGCCTGGTCTGGC (N-term)
		3'GGGGACCACTTTGTACAAGAAAGCTGGGTCTTAT GGTCCTTCGACGTAGT (N-term)
		5'GGGGACAAGTTTGTACAAAAAAGCAGGCTACCA TGGGTAGATCGGCGCCTGGTCTGGC (C-term)
		3'GGGGACCACTTTGTACAAGAAAGCTGGGTCTGGT CCTTCGACGTAGTCTC (C-term)

Transfection of SL2 cells

The N- and C-terminal EGFP-tagged Gateway constructs were transiently transfected in *Drosophila* cells with Cellfectin (Invitrogen) and analysed by immunofluorescence microscopy. The N-terminal EGFP Gateway vectors carrying the CG17286 gene was stably co-transfected with the pCoBlast vector (carrying a Blasticidin resistance marker) in *Drosophila* SL2 cells by calcium phosphate transfection (Invitrogen) for 24 h using 3×10^6 cells per well. Selection for the plasmid resistancy marker was started seven days after transfection with 75 µg/ml Blasticidin. After two weeks, resistant cells were maintained in medium containing 10 µg/ml Blasticidin.

Antibodies

His-tagged fusion protein corresponding to *cnn* exon 6 was used to raise and affinity purify rabbit and rat polyclonal antibody (Pineda). Anti-peptide antibodies were custom-made and affinity purified (Eurogentec) against the peptides from the cp309 protein AA: C+2447-246: C+KSPGDSPRKSPRADF--conh2; C+1014-1028: C+KFYERQQGDDDYKPA--conh2). For Western blotting and immunofluorescence staining following antibodies were used: Mouse monoclonal anti-γ-Tubulin (clone GTU-88) (Sigma), rabbit polyclonal anti-Grip84, rat monoclonal anti-Actin (Babraham), rabbit polyclonal anti-phospho-histone H3 (Upstate).

Primary antibodies were detected with the secondary antibodies Alexa Fluor 488-conjugated anti-mouse, Alexa Fluor 594-conjugated anti-rabbit (Molecular Probes) and FITC-conjugated anti-rat (Jackson ImmunoResearch).

Centrosome Isolation

Cnn protein expression and purification

Cnn protein was expressed as a His-tagged fusion protein in Isopropyl- β -D-thiogalactopyranoside (IPTG) induced BL 21 cells for 6 h at 30°C. The cell extract was prepared by resuspending the cell pellet in lysis buffer (10 mM β -Mercaptoethanol, 10% Sucrose, 1x PBS, 0.8 M NaCl, 1 mM Imidazole pH 7.0, 1mg/ml Lysozym) supplemented with a proteinase inhibitor mix (100 mg/ml Pefabloc SC Roche, 2.5 mM Phenylmethanesulfonyl fluoride (PMSF) and 1 mg/ml of Aprotinine, Leupeptine, Pepstatine A) sonicated and further incubated after adding 1% Triton X-100, 10 μ g/ml Dnase I, 10 mM MgCl₂ and 1 mM MnCl for 30 min. The inclusion bodies were recovered and solubilised by a protocol adapted from Sambrook and Russel (2001) and purified using TALON Metal Affinity Beads (BD) according to the manufacturers instructions. The eluted protein was precipitated with trichloroacetic acid.

Drosophila embryo extract

An average of 30-50 g of 0-3 h old *Drosophila* (strain W118) embryos were collected per day on apple juice/molasses agar trays from large fly populations (>200 000 flies) (Bonte and Becker, 1999). Embryo extract was prepared as described previously (Moritz et al. 1995).

Centrosome isolation

Centrosomes were enriched through sucrose gradients centrifugation according to Moritz et al. (1995). Subsequent immunoisolation of centrosomes was performed as described before (Lehmann et al. 2005) with following modifications: To increase the concentration of centrosomes, several preparations were combined (in total from more than 200 ml of embryo homogenate starting material) in an additionally third centrifugation step through a 1.5 ml 55% (w/v) onto a 70% (w/v) sucrose cushion. To improve the isolation efficiency, affinity purified antibodies against the centrosomal protein cnn were bound to Protein G coupled magnetic beads (Dynal) and then cross-linked in two consecutive steps using Dimethyl pimelidate dihydrochloride (DMP) (Sigma). Antibody to bead coupling efficiency was monitored by SDS-PAGE.

Purification Step	Total Protein [mg/ml]	Centrosomes/ml	Centrosomes/mg Total Protein
Embryo Homogenate	140	5 E6	0.03
Centrosome Enriched Fraction	6	50 E6	8.3
Immunopurified Centrosomes	28	500 E6	17.9

Protein concentration of the embryo homogenate (EH) was determined by measuring the absorbance at 280 nm in a spectrophotometer. Protein concentrations of the centrosome enriched fraction (CEF) and the immunopurified fraction (IPC) were calibrated using SDS-PAGE gels, based on comparison to the known concentration of EH. Immunofluorescence microscopy was used to determine the number of centrosomes/ml. Equal volumes of sample from each purification step were centrifuged onto coverslips, labelled with the anti-g-Tubulin antibody and centrosomes in ten fields of view (using the 63x PlanApo objective) per sample were quantified using the ImageJ software. The following equation was then used to calculate the concentration of centrosomes during the different purification steps:

$$\text{centrosomes/ml} = \frac{\frac{A_{\text{coverslip}}}{A_{\text{field of view}}} \times \text{average counts per field of view}}{\text{test volume [ml]}}$$

Centrosomes/mg total protein was calculated as a ratio of centrosomes/ml to total protein concentration of the respective sample. N-fold change in this quantity during a purification step should be equal to the n-fold enrichment of centrosomes relative to total protein. Calculation of total enrichment during the isolation procedure is found to be at least 600-fold, based on comparison of data for embryo homogenate and the immunopurified fraction.

Mass spectrometry

Chemicals

The peptide calibration standards, angiotensin I and ACTH 18-39 were purchased from Bachem (Heidelberg, Germany). Acetonitrile (HPLC Gradient Grade, Carl Roth GmbH (Karlsruhe, Germany). Trifluoroacetic acid (TFA), tetrahydrofuran (THF), n-octylglucopyranoside (nOGP), α -cyano-4-hydroxycinnamic acid (CHCA), and water used for HPLC solvents and MALDI matrix solutions were purchased from Fluka Chemie (Buchs, Switzerland). Porcine trypsin was purchased from Promega

(Mannheim, Germany), dithiotreitol (DTT), iodoacetamide (IAA), from Sigma (Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis, MO), citric acid and 2,2'-thiodiethanol from Aldrich (Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis, MO)

In-solution trypsinolysis of protein samples

Samples from the affinity pull-down experiment (3.3 µg) and the control experiment were subjected to trypsinolysis. Lyophilised samples were dissolved in 10 µl 100 mM NH₄HCO₃, 20 mM n-OGP. For reduction of cysteines, a 2 µl aliquot of 20 mM DTT was added and samples were incubated at 37°C for 30 min. Cysteine carbamidomethylation was performed by adding a 2 µl aliquot of 50 mM IAA and incubating the samples at room temperature for 30 min. 26 µl of 100 mM NH₄HCO₃ were added followed by 1 µl of trypsin solution (0.05 µg/µL, in 1 mM HCl) and the samples were incubated at 37°C over night. To terminate trypsinolysis, the samples were acidified by addition of 1 µl 10% TFA (v/v).

SDS-PAGE

Due to the high complexity of the samples, the proteins were separated by SDS-PAGE prior to trypsinolysis. Proteins from the centrosome purification and from the control experiment (4 times larger volume) were separated by SDS-PAGE on a 10 cm gel (vertical SDS-PAGE chamber, EMBL workshop, Heidelberg). The proteins were stained with colloidal Coomassie Blue G250 (Serva) and each lane was cut into 25 slices of different width, with smaller sizes at the high MW region (3 mm for the first 10 slices, 4 mm for the next ten slices, and 5 mm for the last 5 slices). Each gel sample was further cut into smaller pieces and washed by incubation with 800 µl 50% ethanol (v/v), 50 mM NH₄HCO₃ (wash solution) for 30 min. The wash solution was removed and the gel samples were dehydrated by incubation with 800 µl ethanol for 5 min. The ethanol was aspirated and the samples were stored at -20°C prior to *in-situ* trypsinolysis.

***In-situ* trypsinolysis**

The samples were washed twice by addition of 800 µl wash solution and incubation for 30 min while shaking. The Wash solution was removed and the gel samples were dehydrated by incubation with 800 µl ethanol for 5 min, after which the ethanol was

removed. For reduction of cysteine disulfides, 400 μ l 10 mM DTT, 50 mM NH_4HCO_3 were added and the samples were incubated for 30 minutes at 37 °C. The supernatants were removed and the samples were dehydrated by incubation with 800 μ l ethanol for 5 min, after which the ethanol was removed. For alkylation of cysteines, 400 μ l 20 mM IAA, 50 mM NH_4HCO_3 were added and the samples were incubated for 30 min at room temperature in the dark. The supernatants were aspirated and excess IAA was inactivated by incubating the gel samples in 400 μ l 20 mM 2,2'-thiodiethanol for 10 min at room temperature. The liquid was removed and the samples washed by incubation with 800 μ l wash solution for 5 min. The wash solution was removed and the washing procedure was repeated once followed by incubation with 800 μ l ethanol (100%) for 10 minutes. After removing the liquid, the samples were dried in a vacuum centrifuge for 60 min. For trypsinolysis, 20 μ l trypsin (2.5 ng/ μ l in 50 mM NH_4HCO_3 , pH7.8) were added to the dry gel pieces. After 30 min incubation on ice, additional volumes of 50 mM NH_4HCO_3 (pH 7.8), necessary to just cover the gel pieces, were added to the gel followed by incubation over night at 37°C. For peptide extraction, 100 μ l of 0.1% TFA, 0.2 mM n-OGP were added and the gel samples were placed on a shaker for 10 min. The supernatants were collected into fresh vials and the extraction procedure was repeated twice using 100 μ l 0.1 % TFA, 50 % ACN. The pooled extracts were dried in a vacuum centrifuge and stored at -20°C prior to further analysis.

Nano LC-MALDI MS

Nano LC-MALDI MS was performed as described recently (Mirgorodskaya *et al.* 2005). In brief, peptide samples were analyzed on an 1100 Series Nanoflow LC system (Agilent Technologies). The mobile phases used for the reversed-phase separation were Buffer A: 1% ACN (v/v), 0.05% TFA (v/v) and Buffer B: 90% ACN (v/v), 0.04% TFA (v/v). The samples were first loaded onto a trapping column (ZORBAX 300 SB C18, 0.3 mm \times 5 mm, Agilent Technologies), using Buffer A, delivered by the loading pump with a flow-gradient according to the manufacturer's recommendation. After 5 min, the trapping column was connected to the nanoflow path and the samples were eluted onto the analytical separation column (ZORBAX 300 SB C18, 75 μ m \times 150 mm, Agilent Technologies), using a binary pump operated at 300 nl/min. For fractionation, the LC effluent was deposited onto pre-formed microcrystalline layers of CHCA prepared on prestructured MALDI sample supports (AnchorChip 600/384, Bruker Daltonics). The

matrix solution was CHCA (100 g/l) in 90% tetrahydrofuran, 0.001% TFA (v/v), 50 mM citric acid, containing the two calibration standards angiotensin I (1 pmol/μl) and ACTH 18-39 (2 pmol/μl). Thin layers of CHCA were prepared by spreading 200 μl of matrix solution over the target surface with a Teflon rod (Gobom et al. 2005).

Mass analysis of positively charged peptide ions was performed on an Ultraflex II LIFT MALDI-TOF/TOF mass spectrometer (Bruker Daltonics). Positively charged ions in the m/z range 500 – 4,500 Da were analyzed automatically in the reflector mode. Sums of 50 single-shot spectra were acquired from 14 different sample spot positions (700 in total from each sample). Fixed laser attenuation was used, the optimal value of which was determined prior to analysis by evaluation of a few fractions. MALDI-TOF/TOF analysis was performed on the Ultraflex II instrument operated in the LIFT mode. MS/MS spectra were acquired automatically with fixed laser attenuation and fixed laser power boost. Up to 15 MS/MS spectra, each consisting of a total sum of 4,100 laser single-shot spectra, were acquired from a single MALDI sample. Additionally, manual spectra acquisition of signals for which parent ion isolation failed in the automatic mode were performed when sample availability permitted.

Data processing

Automatic detection of the peptide monoisotopic signals was performed using the algorithm SNAP, implemented in the FlexAnalysis software (Bruker Daltonics). Internal mass correction was performed using the signals of two peptides (Angiotensin I, MH^+ 1,296.6853 (monoisotopic mass), and ACTH (18-39), MH^+ 2,465.1989) included in the MALDI matrix solution, as reference masses.

Selection of precursor ions was performed based on the entire MS data set using a beta-version of the WARPLC software (collaboration with Bruker Daltonics), with manual corrections when necessary. Protein identification was performed using the Mascot software (Matrixscience), searching the FlyBase sequence database (<http://flybase.bio.indiana.edu/>). The following settings were used for the searches: mass error tolerance for the precursor ions: 30 ppm; mass error tolerance for the fragment ions: 0.8 Da; fixed modification: carbamidomethylation; variable modification: methionine oxidation; number of missed cleavage sites: 1; type of instrument: MALDI-TOF-PSD.

Phenotypic and microscopy assays

Production of double-stranded RNA (dsRNA)

Long dsRNA for RNAi experiments were generated by using ~500bp long PCR fragments from a genome-covering *Drosophila* library as templates (Hild et al. 2003). The amplicons contain T7 promoter sites flanked by unique tag sequences and are amplified using tag-specific primers (Boutros et al. 2004). The resulting T7-PCR fragments are used as templates for in vitro transcription reactions, followed by DNaseI digestion and ethanol precipitation to purify the RNA (Boutros et al. 2004). Primer and amplicon sequence information are shown in Supplemental Table 2 and are available from <http://rnaï.dkfz.de/>.

Mitotic index

To determine the mitotic index, SL2 cells were processed for immunofluorescence microscopy as described above. The cells were labelled with an antibody against phosphorylated histone 3 (Upstate), as a marker of mitotic cells and with diamidino-2-phenylindoldihydrochloride (DAPI) to visualise the DNA. The percentage of mitotic cells was determined using the image processing software ImageJ (<http://rsb.info.nih.gov/ij/>) and custom-made macros available for downloading from our webpage: http://www.molgen.mpg.de/~ag_lange/links.html. A minimum of n = 2000 cells per experiment was counted. Evaluation of significant deviation of mitotic index: arithmetic mean of mitotic indices of all control samples were subtracted from arithmetic mean of mitotic index of each sample. An arithmetic mean whose standard deviation was out of the range of two times the standard deviation of the control was accepted to be statistically significant.

Mitotic arrest of SL2 cells

To enrich mitotic SL2 cells, cultures were treated with 25µM Colchizine (Calbiochem) for 16 h at 25°C in “Schneider’s *Drosophila* Medium” (Gibco, Invitrogen).

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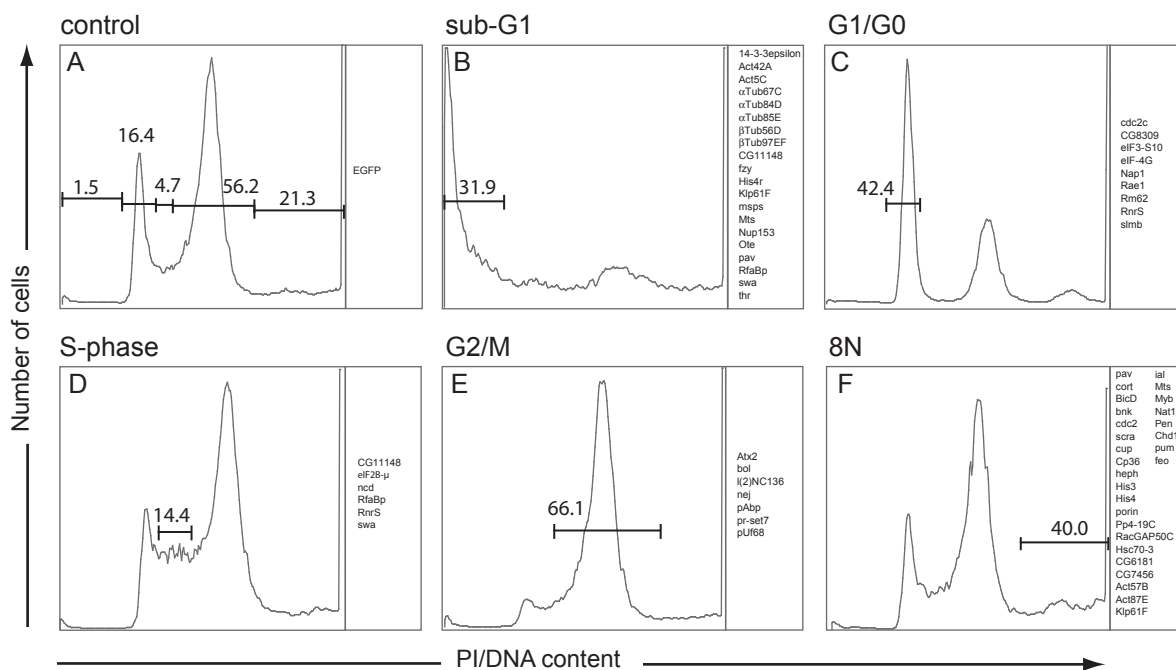
Hild, M., Beckmann, B., Haas, S.A., Koch, B., Solovyev, V., Busold, C., Fellenberg, K., Boutros, M., Vingron, M., Sauer, F. et al. 2003. An integrated gene annotation and transcriptional profiling approach towards the full gene content of the *Drosophila* genome. *Genome Biol.* **5**: R3.

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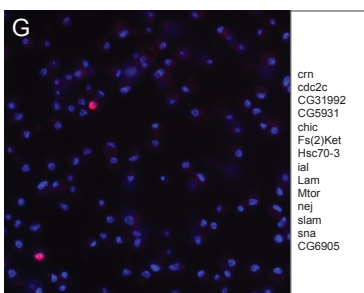
Supplemental Figure Descriptions

Supplemental Fig. 1

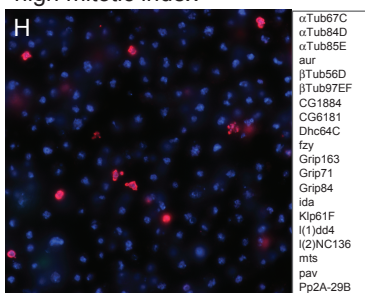
FACS analysis of the dsRNA treated cells shows accumulation of cells in different phases of the cell cycle. Compared to control cells (*A*), a large group of proteins produced an accumulation in sub-G1 (*B*, 20 proteins) and G1/G0 when depleted (9 proteins, *C*). Protein level reduction resulted in arrest in S-phase (*D*, 6 proteins) or G2/M-phase (*E*, 7 proteins). The major group (*F*, 28 proteins) displayed 8n-DNA content, indicating that these proteins influence cytokinesis. The mitotic index of the SL2 cells after RNAi was analysed by labelling with an anti-phospho-histone 3 antibody (red) and DNA staining with DAPI (blue) (*G,H*). An example for cells displaying a phenotype with a low mitotic index and a list of the relevant proteins are shown in (*G*, 14 proteins). An example of cells with a high mitotic index together with the corresponding list of proteins is shown in (*H*, 20 proteins). Aberrant chromosome segregation occurred frequently (36/260) of which 8/36 were consistent with cytokinesis defects (*I*).



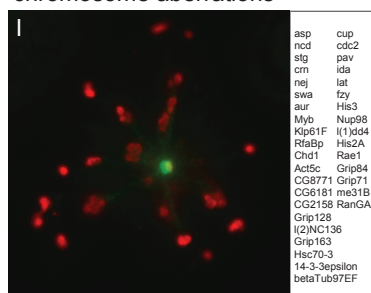
low mitotic index



high mitotic index



chromosome aberrations



Supplemental Table 2

GeneSymbol	centrosome number phenotype			centrosome morphology phenotype		
	1	0	>3	large	fuzzy	small
CG6905						
CG7033						
crn						
fzy						
gammaTub23C						
Grip75						
alphaTub67C						
alphaTub84D						
alphaTub85E						
betaTub56D						
betaTub97EF						
mts						
Nup153						
Pp2A-29B						
RacGAP50C						
Hsc70-3						
ida						
Klp10A						
Grip71						
thr						
CG7456						
feo						
His3						
His4r						
mask						
Myb						
Pen						
stg						
Grip163						
Klp61F						
pav						
Grip128						
CG31716						
l(3)s2214						
Mer						
Lam						
CG11943						
CG15524						
CG3173						
eIF-4a						
Grip84						
l(1)dd4						
Rae1						
scra						
Sop2						
Act57B						
CG17286						
cnr						
cort						
cup						
Fib						
lat						
ald						
His2A						
nuf						
ncd						
Act79B						
asp						
aur						
Total	28	20	5	26	4	6

Significant phenotypes relating to centrosome number and morphology are listed for MS identified and selected control centrosome associated proteins.

Supplemental Table 4

Centrosomal phenotype						
	1	0	>3	large	fuzzy	small
CEP192						
CENPJ						
CNOT4						
NUP205						
ANLN						

Experimental contributions:

Conception: B.M.H. Lange, H. Lehrach, M. Boutros

Mass spectrometry analysis: J. Gobom, N. Gustavsson, E. Mirgorodskaya

Production of dsRNA, FACS analysis, Supplementary Table 3: S. Steinbrink

Parts of cell culture (RNAi) and microscopic phenotype evaluation: K. Habermann,
B.M.H. Lange, V. Lehmann

A Centrosome-Independent Role for γ -TuRC Proteins in the Spindle Assembly Checkpoint

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Bodo M.H. Lange

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Abstract

The spindle assembly checkpoint guards the fidelity of chromosome segregation. It requires the close cooperation of cell cycle regulatory proteins and cytoskeletal elements to sense spindle integrity. The role of the centrosome, the organizing center of the microtubule cytoskeleton, in the spindle checkpoint is unclear. We found that the molecular requirements for a functional spindle checkpoint included components of the large γ -tubulin ring complex (γ -TuRC). However, their localization at the centrosome and centrosome integrity were not essential for this function. Thus, the spindle checkpoint can be activated at the level of microtubule nucleation.

Experimental contributions:

Conception: B.M.H. Lange, H. Lehrach

Tandem-Affinity-Purification: M-L. Fogeron

Immunoprecipitation: D. Weichert

Parts of cell culture and microscopy: V. Lehmann

4 Discussion

In addition to its function in microtubule nucleation, the centrosome has been implicated in signalling pathways regulating cell cycle progression, differentiation, cell death and stress (Lange, 2002). To better understand the molecular basis of the connection of the centrosome to these pathways, the aim of this work was to identify the centrosomal proteome and to analyse its function. In the following sections, the obtained results will be discussed in relation to previously published work.

4.1 Comparison of centrosome isolation methods

The development and application of a new efficient centrosome isolation method was the prerequisite for the proteomic analysis of the centrosome. Centrosome isolation techniques from mammalian tissue culture cells (Mitchison & Kirschner, 1984; Moudjou & Bornens, 1994), calf thymus (Komesli *et al.*, 1989), yeast (Rout & Kilmartin, 1990) and *Spisula solidissima* (Palazzo & Vogel, 1999) resulted in a 600-fold to 3000-fold enrichment of centrosomes. Previous isolation in sucrose gradients from *Drosophila* embryo extract resulted in 1000-fold enrichment of centrosomes in relation to total protein concentration, a total number of $0,5-2,5 \times 10^7$ centrosomes per gram embryos and 10% estimated yield (Moritz *et al.*, 1995), taking into account that one embryo is 9,5 μg and contains 2500 centrosomes (Ashburner, 1989). Using the same isolation technique as described in Moritz *et al.* (1995) we calculated 250-fold enrichment with the total number of 10×10^7 centrosomes present in the isolated fraction and a 25% yield. The difference between the two calculations of centrosomal enrichment could be due to the fact, that Moritz *et al.* determined the enrichment in the centrosomal peak fraction, which is not representative for the complete preparation. The total numbers of centrosomes resulting from both preparations is similar, indicating comparable quantities of isolated centrosomes. Application of the immunoisolation technique established by Lange *et al.* (2000) and optimized as part of this thesis (Lehmann *et al.*, 2005) results in a further 10-fold increase per ml. Therefore, immunoisolation results in an overall 2500-fold enrichment of centrosomes from embryo extract as analysed by quantitative immunofluorescence microscopy, western blotting and SDS-PAGE, showing reduction of contaminations like actin and enrichment of centrosomal proteins like Cnn, Dgrip84 and γ -tubulin in the immunoisolated preparations. In conclusion, we achieve higher enriched centrosomal

preparations by applying immunoisolation compared to isolation methods previously used to isolate centrosomes from *Drosophila* embryos.

4.2 Centrosome proteome analysis in *Drosophila*

Different estimates have been made for the total number of centrosomal proteins. It has been speculated that approximately 100 proteins are associated with the *Drosophila* centrosome (Moritz *et al.*, 1995). More recently, the proteomic analysis of the human centrosome identified as many as 500 proteins (Andersen *et al.*, 2003) while around 100 proteins (60 in interphase centrosome) have been identified with various methods (reviewed by Schatten, 2008). Database searches provide a list of only 31 proteins that localise to the centrosome in *Drosophila*. In our preparations we identified 260 proteins, of which 17 were previously known centrosomal proteins, thereby confirming the reliability of our isolation and mass spectrometry analysis.

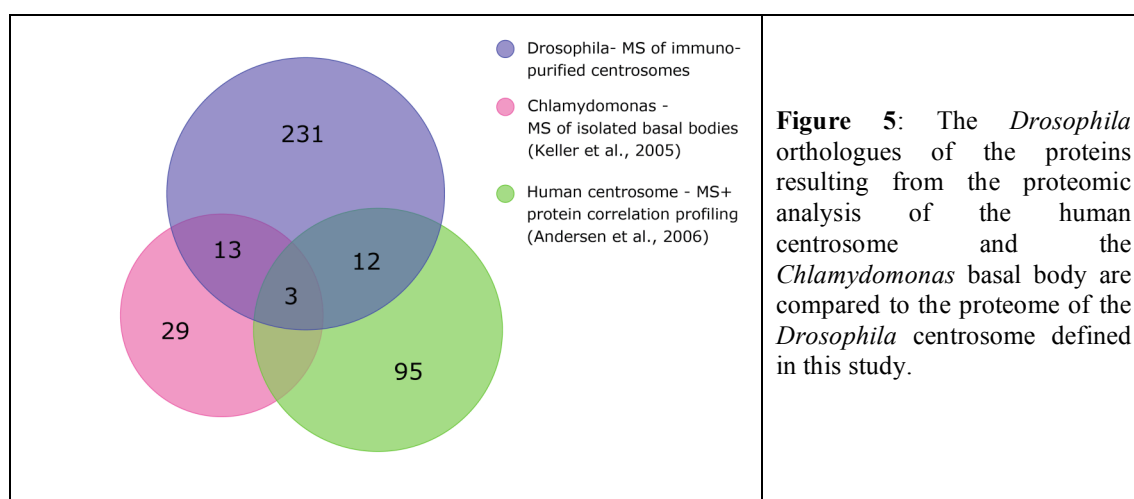
In addition, immunofluorescence microscopy of GFP- and TAP-tagged expressed Cort, CG11148 and CG17286 and in SL2 cells has verified centrosomal localisation for three identified candidate proteins. Cort localises to one of the two centrioles in interphase, CG11148 to the PCM in mitosis and CG17286 to both centrioles. Recent work classified CG17286 (Spd-2) as a centriolar protein (Dix & Raff, 2007), corroborating the accuracy of our localisation studies. Centrosomal localisation of Cort and CG11148 has not been reported before. The identification of both centriolar and PCM proteins denotes (a) that intact centrosomes have been isolated and (b) the sensitivity of our approach in identifying low abundant centriolar proteins. To confirm an association with the centrosome for further candidate proteins, the localisation studies have to be pursued.

A few known centrosomal proteins, such as Asp, Cp190 or Cp60 were not detected in our proteomic analysis. Cp190 localises to centrosomes during mitosis (Whitfield *et al.*, 1988) and centrosomal localisation of Cp60 peaks during anaphase and telophase (Kellogg *et al.*, 1995). It has been shown that composition of the centrosome depends on the concentration of detergent used in the isolation procedure (Moritz *et al.*, 1995). Centrosomal localisation of γ -tubulin was not effected by higher detergent (0,5 % Triton X-100) concentration, while Cp190 localisation was slightly and Cp60 significantly reduced. Sucrose gradients that we used for the first step of the centrosome isolation contained 0,3 % non-ionic detergent, which might have caused a displacement of

Cp190, Cp60 and probably other proteins from the centrosome. The protein Asp is associated with the microtubule minus ends and can easily be removed from the centrosome (Wakefield *et al.*, 2001). Proteins with a transient association might also get strongly reduced during the isolation process and are therefore difficult to detect in the mass spectrometry analysis.

4.3 Comparison of centrosome proteome analyses in different species

To compensate for the lack of an isolation technique that efficiently reduces contaminations, a previous proteomic analysis of the human centrosome used protein correlation profiling to distinguish centrosomal proteins from contaminants in sucrose gradient fractions (Andersen *et al.*, 2003). In this study, we applied a direct biochemical approach in which we performed mass spectrometry analysis from immunisolated centrosomes. In a similar study, basal bodies of *Chlamydomonas* were isolated by gradient centrifugation and analysed via mass spectrometry (Keller *et al.*, 2005). Figure 5 compares the *Drosophila* orthologues of the proteins resulting from the proteomic analysis of the human centrosome and the *Chlamydomonas* basal body with the centrosomal proteome of *Drosophila*.



Although these three studies used different approaches and organisms and the *Chlamydomonas* basal body represents only the centriole-part of the centrosome, the overlap of identified proteins evidences that proteins functioning in microtubule nucleation (γ -TuRC) and protein folding (chaperones) are conserved between species regarding their centrosomal function.

The microtubule monomers α -tubulin and β -tubulin as well as the chaperone Hsp90 were identified in all three organisms. α -tubulin and β -tubulin build the centriolar microtubule triplets, they are therefore likely to be present in all three analyses. Hsp90 was shown before to be essential for centrosome function in *Drosophila* and vertebrates (Lange *et al.*, 2000). In consistency with previous studies that reported an important role in flagellar and cilia assembly for chaperones (Stolc *et al.*, 2005), two more chaperones (Hsp26, CG8863) were found in the centriole of *Chlamydomonas* and the *Drosophila* centrosome. The presence of chaperones at the centrosome in different species argues for a central role of these proteins in basic centrosomal function, probably mediated by modulating protein structure and facilitating interactions of centrosomal proteins (Lange *et al.*, 2000). The importance of Hsp90 for centrosome function links the centrosome to human disease through its function in cilia assembly (Stolc *et al.*, 2005) and therefore ciliary diseases (reviewed by Badano *et al.*, 2006) and through its implication in cancer (reviewed by Neckers, 2007).

The main protein group that was identified both in the centrosomal proteome of *Drosophila* and human is the γ -TuRC. All seven members were found in both organisms, demonstrating the conservation of the basic function of this complex for microtubule nucleation. Other components that are part of the *Drosophila* and the human centrosome proteome are involved in RNA processing or possess RNA helicase activity (CG10077, Rm62, Fib). A possible relevance for these proteins for centrosome structure is discussed below.

A common feature of 10 of the 15 proteins shared between *Drosophila* and human is the presence of at least one coiled-coil domain. Coiled-coil domains are protein-protein interaction motifs that are a common feature in centrosomal proteins (reviewed by Rose & Meier, 2004).

In conclusion, a set of centrosomal proteins is structurally and functionally conserved between *Chlamydomonas*, *Drosophila* and human, functioning in basic processes like microtubule nucleation.

4.4 The functional analysis of the centrosomal proteome

The accuracy of the phenotype analysis following mass spectrometry identification and RNAi is reflected by the identification of 24 previously identified proteins that have been associated with abnormal centrosomal phenotypes. Depletion of Grip75 (Vèrollet

et al., 2006), Grip 84 (Colombié *et al.*, 2006), Grip 91 (Barbosa *et al.*, 2003) and Cnn (Megraw *et al.*, 1999) was shown to result in cells with single or no centrosomes. These previously shown phenotypes have been reproduced in the functional RNAi analysis, therefore substantiating our functional scoring. A further validation is provided by previous relation of the proteins Asp (do Carmo Avides & Glover, 1999), Ncd (Endow *et al.*, 1994) and Aur (Giet *et al.*, 2002) to centrosome integrity. In this study, depletion of these proteins also resulted in an abnormal centrosome shape indicating a disruption of centrosome integrity.

It has been proposed that the centrosome is integrated into multiple signalling pathways (Lange, 2002; Doxsey *et al.*, 2005a). We identified for example the protein Pen (Küssel & Frasch, 1995), which is known to be an Importin alpha subunit that localises at the nucleus in a cell cycle-dependent manner. This study uncovers further functions of this protein: Pen depletion resulted in cells with large centrosomes and 8n DNA content. This indicates a function for Pen in both the regulation of cytokinesis and centrosomes segregation. The mechanism how centrosome duplication is limited to once per cell cycle is not fully understood. Recently, it has been proposed that DNA replication and centrosome replication are controlled by the same mechanism (Bettencourt-Dias & Glover, 2007). Support for this model is provided by our observation that depletion of the protein lat caused overduplication of centrosomes. Lat was previously described to play a role in DNA replication initiation (Chesnokov *et al.*, 1999), suggesting a link between DNA replication and centrosome replication. Here we provided additional evidence for involvement of centrosomal proteins in cellular functions like nuclear transport and DNA replication.

4.5 The role of the centrosome in cell cycle control

The centrosome is required for several cell cycle transitions (Doxsey *et al.*, 2005b). For example, increasing evidence relates the centrosome or centrosomal components to the spindle assembly checkpoint. In *Aspergillus nidulans*, a mutation in the γ -tubulin gene *mipA* disrupted the coordination of late mitotic events (Prigozhina *et al.*, 2004). The authors suggest a role for γ -tubulin in establishing or maintaining a mitotic checkpoint block. The work of Vardy and Toda (2000) proposed that the fission yeast γ -tubulin complex members Alp4 and Alp6 are essential components of the spindle assembly checkpoint. An involvement of Dgrip84, which is part of the γ -TuRC, in mitotic

checkpoint regulation has been proposed in *Drosophila* (Colombiè *et al.*, 2006) and was confirmed as part of this thesis. Here, implication of the γ -TuRC in the spindle assembly checkpoint in *Drosophila melanogaster* has been shown by providing evidence for a molecular and functional interaction of γ -TuRC proteins with spindle assembly checkpoint components.

4.6 A possible function of RNA for the centrosome

There has been a long debate on the presence of DNA and RNA in the centrosome. While the presence of DNA has not been confirmed (Johnson & Rosenbaum, 1990), RNA has been discovered in the centrosome recently (Alliegro *et al.*, 2006, Alliegro & Alliegro, 2008). In relevance to this, our analysis identified a group of proteins that have previously been implicated in RNA-transport, RNA-processing or have RNA-binding domains. A subset of these proteins resulted in cells with no centrosomes or a single centrosome after RNAi mediated protein knock-down. This leads to the hypothesis that RNA and RNA-binding proteins might be involved in maintenance of centrosome structure and the regulation of the centrosome cycle. If RNA and RNA-binding proteins might act as a scaffold structure or play a role for centrosome regulation has to be validated by future studies. Furthermore, we identified ribosomal proteins in our immunisolated centrosomes. 25 years ago it has been hypothesized that centrioles might contain ribosomes (Kallenbach, 1983), but more previously ribosomal proteins have been described to be a common contamination of centrosomal preparations (Andersen *et al.*, 2003). In the functional analysis 70% of the identified ribosomal proteins caused a centrosomal phenotype after depletion. Whether this effect refers to impaired protein synthesis or reflects a physical link between centrosome and ribosome remains to be tested.

4.7 Conclusion

More and more evidence is provided for the implication of centrosomal proteins in the development of disease (Badano *et al.*, 2005; Fukasawa, 2005; Nigg, 2006). This is reflected by the fact that the centrosome is implicated in many essential cellular processes. A detailed description of the centrosomal proteome and molecular functions of its components is still missing. Through the proteomic and functional characterisation of the early *Drosophila* embryo centrosome this work provides

valuable insights and contributes to the molecular understanding of how the centrosome is connected to signalling pathways and how malfunction of such conserved proteins might lead to disease.

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6 Appendix

6.1 Abstract

The centrosome is the primary microtubule-organizing centre in eukaryotic cells. In addition to its function in microtubule nucleation it is implicated in signalling pathways regulating fundamental processes like cell cycle progression, differentiation or cell stress. Centrosomal aberrations and dysfunction of centrosomal proteins frequently occur in various diseases such as cancer. To better understand these processes on a molecular level, precise functions of single centrosomal components have to be elucidated. Although a series of centrosomal proteins have already been characterised, the knowledge of centrosome composition and of function of its proteins remains incomplete. It was the aim of this project to identify the components of the centrosomal proteome in *Drosophila melanogaster* and to characterise their function for centrosome integrity, replication and cell cycle regulation. An immunoisolation technique was optimized to obtain highly enriched centrosomal preparations from *Drosophila* preblastoderm stage embryos for mass spectrometry protein identification. Using this approach, 260 centrosomal candidate proteins were identified and subsequently functionally characterised through RNAi in *Drosophila* SL2 cells. Analysing the resulting phenotypes by immunofluorescence microscopy and FACS revealed the existence of functional groups of centrosomal proteins playing a role in centrosome integrity, centrosome cycle or cell cycle progression. A new centrosome related function was assigned to 28 proteins. Among these proteins a conserved group of proteins were identified required for maintaining centrosome structure both in *Drosophila* and in human cells. Furthermore, this work provides evidence for a novel role of the microtubule nucleation proteins, the γ -TuRC proteins, in cell cycle control. A biochemical and functional interaction of γ -TuRC proteins with spindle assembly checkpoint proteins was shown by means of RNAi and immunoprecipitation in *Drosophila* and tandem-affinity purification in human cells. Depletion of γ -TuRC proteins triggers the spindle assembly checkpoint in addition to activation through lack of kinetochore-microtubule attachment. Simultaneous protein depletion of γ -TuRC and Cnn revealed that the γ -TuRC mediated activation of the spindle assembly checkpoint is independent of centrosome integrity.

In summary, a comprehensive proteomic analysis identified novel centrosomal candidate proteins functioning in centrosome integrity, centrosome replication and cell cycle progression. γ -TuRC proteins are implicated in the spindle assembly checkpoint. The interaction of γ -TuRC components with spindle assembly checkpoint proteins is evolutionary conserved between human and *Drosophila*.

6.2 Zusammenfassung

Das Zentrosom ist das Mikrotubuli-organisierende Zentrum in eukaryotischen Zellen. Neben Mikrotubuli-Nukleation spielt es eine Rolle in Signaltransduktionswegen, die fundamentelle zelluläre Prozesse wie das Fortschreiten des Zellzyklus, Differenzierung oder Zellstress regulieren. Zentrosomale Aberration oder Veränderung einzelner zentrosomaler Bestandteile ist häufig in der Entstehung von Krankheiten wie Krebs zu beobachten. Um diese Prozesse auf molekularer Ebene zu verstehen, ist es notwendig, die Funktionen einzelner zentrosomaler Proteine aufzuklären. Obwohl einige zentrosomale Proteine bereits charakterisiert wurden, ist die genaue Zusammensetzung dieses Zellorganells weitgehend unbekannt. Das Ziel dieser Arbeit war es, die zentrosomalen Proteine in *Drosophila melanogaster* zu identifizieren und deren Funktion in Integrität und Replikation des Zentrosoms, sowie Regulation des Zellzyklus zu charakterisieren. Ein Immunoisolationsansatz wurde optimiert, um hoch angereicherte zentrosomale Präparationen aus *Drosophila* Embryonen für die Analyse mittels Massenspektrometrie zu gewinnen. Mit diesem Ansatz wurden 260 zentrosomale Kandidatenproteine identifiziert und anschließend mittels RNAi in *Drosophila* SL2 Zellen funktionell untersucht. Die Immunfluoreszenzmikroskopie- und FACS-Analyse der resultierenden Phänotypen zeigte, dass sich die Funktion zentrosomaler Proteine in Erhaltung der zentrosomalen Struktur oder Regulation von Zentrosomenzyklus und Zellzyklus in Gruppen einordnen lassen. Eine neue zentrosomale Funktion wurde 28 identifizierten Proteinen zugeordnet. Darunter befand sich eine evolutionär konservierte Protein-Gruppe, die für die Aufrechterhaltung der Zentrosomenstruktur in *Drosophila* und im Menschen verantwortlich ist. Weiterhin konnte in dieser Arbeit der Nachweis erbracht werden, dass Proteine des γ -TuRC neben ihrer Funktion in Mikrotubuli-Nukleation eine Rolle im Zellzyklus-Kontrollsystem spielen. Unter Verwendung von RNAi, Immunopräzipitation in *Drosophila* und Tandem-Affinitäts-Aufreinigung in menschlichen Zellen wurde eine biochemische und

funktionelle Interaktion von γ -TuRC-Proteinen mit Spindelcheckpoint-Proteinen festgestellt. Reduzierung von γ -TuRC-Proteinen kann, zusätzlich zur Aktivierung durch fehlende Verbindung zwischen Kinetochor und Spindelmikrotubuli, den Spindelcheckpoint auslösen. Die gleichzeitige Proteinreduktion von γ -TuRC und Cnn belegte, dass γ -TuRC-vermittelte Spindelcheckpointaktivierung unabhängig von der Integrität des Zentrosoms ist.

Zusammenfassend kann gesagt werden, dass mit Hilfe einer umfassenden Proteomanalyse neue zentrosomale Kandidatenproteine identifiziert wurden, welchen eine Funktion in Aufrechterhaltung zentrosomaler Integrität, Zentrosomenreplikation und Zellzyklusregulation zugeordnet wurde. An der Aktivierung des Spindelcheckpoints sind γ -TuRC-Proteine beteiligt, deren evolutionär konservierte Interaktion mit Proteinen des Spindelcheckpoints gezeigt wurde.

6.4 Selbständigkeitserklärung

Ich versichere hiermit, diese Arbeit selbständig verfasst und nur die angegebenen Hilfsmittel und Hilfen in Anspruch genommen zu haben.

Experimente und Analysen wurden, sofern nicht anders gekennzeichnet, von mir durchgeführt.

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