

1 **Homogeneous multifocal excitation for high-throughput super-resolution imaging**

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19 **Abstract**

20 Super-resolution microscopies, which allow features below the diffraction limit to be
21 resolved, have become an established tool in biological research. However, imaging
22 throughput remains a major bottleneck in using them for quantitative biology, which requires
23 large datasets to overcome the noise of the imaging itself and to capture the variability
24 inherent to biological processes. Here, we develop a multi-focal flat illumination for field
25 independent imaging (mfFIFI) module, and integrate it into an instant structured illumination
26 microscope (iSIM). Our instrument extends the field of view (FOV) to $>100 \times 100 \mu\text{m}^2$ without
27 compromising image quality, and maintains high-speed (100 Hz), multi-color, volumetric
28 imaging at double the diffraction-limited resolution. We further extend the effective FOV by
29 stitching multiple adjacent images together to perform fast live-cell super-resolution imaging
30 of dozens of cells. Finally, we combine our flat-fielded iSIM setup with ultrastructure
31 expansion microscopy (U-ExM) to collect 3D images of hundreds of centrioles in human
32 cells, as well as of thousands of purified *Chlamydomonas reinhardtii* centrioles per hour at
33 an effective resolution of ~ 35 nm. We apply classification and particle averaging to these
34 large datasets, allowing us to map the 3D organization of post-translational modifications of
35 centriolar microtubules, revealing differences in their coverage and positioning.

36 **Introduction**

37 Super-resolution fluorescence techniques have enabled optical imaging beyond the
38 diffraction limit. Two main illumination strategies are used to achieve super-resolution: wide-
39 field illumination is typically used for single-molecule localization microscopies (SMLM)
40 such as STORM¹ and PALM², while patterned illumination is typically used for methods
41 such as structured illumination microscopy (SIM)^{3,4} and stimulated emission depletion
42 (STED)⁵. Initial implementations of these methods were relatively slow, in part due to the
43 use of the time domain to separate single molecules (SMLM), the need to collect multiple
44 images to cover Fourier space (SIM), or the scanning of a reduced excitation volume

45 (STED). In both wide-field and patterned illumination, the imaging throughput – defined as
46 the area imaged per time – can be increased by parallelizing the acquisition, as long as the
47 necessary illumination can be maintained over a larger surface in the sample plane.
48 Extending the array of patterned excitation has been used to increase the speed or FOV of
49 confocal⁶, STED^{7,8} and SIM imaging⁹, but ensuring the quality of the extended pattern
50 across a larger FOV remains a limiting factor. For SMLM, flat-fielding approaches made it
51 possible to extend super-resolution imaging over $\sim 100 \times 100 \mu\text{m}^2$ FOVs^{10,11}, but their transfer
52 to patterned illumination remains limited.

53 An entirely different approach to effectively achieve super-resolution modifies
54 sample preparation rather than image acquisition. By physically increasing the size of the
55 specimen in an isotropic manner via expansion microscopy¹² (ExM), overall imaging
56 throughput can be increased by opting for faster diffraction-limited microscopes^{12–14}.
57 Alternatively, combining ExM with existing super-resolution microscopies allows even
58 further improvement in resolution^{14–18}, since the resolvable scale is reduced by the
59 expansion factor. However, expansion exacerbates limitations in imaging throughput since
60 the effective FOV size is divided by the expansion factor along each dimension¹⁹.
61 Therefore, fast, parallelized, super-resolution techniques with large FOVs present an
62 advantage for imaging ExM samples, among other applications.

63 The instant structured illumination microscope (iSIM)⁹ uses parallelization in the
64 form of multifocal excitation and optical image processing to achieve a two-fold
65 improvement in resolution, at frame rates reaching 100 Hz. While this gives the iSIM good
66 potential for high-throughput super-resolution imaging, spatially varying illumination
67 produces a spatially dependent signal to noise ratio while restricting the imaging FOV to
68 $\sim 50 \times 50 \mu\text{m}^2$. Although solutions for producing homogeneous multi-focal excitation exist
69 using diffractive optical elements²⁰, spatial light modulators (SLM)²¹, multi-mode fibers²² or
70 beam splitters²³, each suffers from some combination of a limited number of excitation
71 spots^{20,21,23}, heterogeneity^{21,23} or low transmission efficiency²⁰.

72 In this work, we develop a flat-fielding element for multi-focal excitation, dubbed
73 mfFIFI. Our design is based on the Koehler integrator^{24–26} and ensures that the
74 homogeneity, pitch and size of the excitation spots are optimized. We integrate mfFIFI into
75 an iSIM to engineer an instrument capable of 3D multi-color imaging with uniform quality
76 and doubled resolution over a 100x100 μm^2 FOV. We further parallelize the acquisition
77 across multiple FOVs, stitching them together to create seamless montages of tens of
78 super-resolved living cells within seconds, enabled by the homogeneous illumination.
79 Finally, we combine the mfFIFI iSIM with ultrastructure expansion microscopy (U-ExM)³¹ to
80 perform high-throughput super-resolution imaging with an effective resolution of ~ 35 nm.
81 We use this to collect 3D images of hundreds of expanded centrioles in human cells, and
82 thousands of expanded purified *Chlamydomonas reinhardtii* centrioles. These particles are
83 averaged to reconstruct maps of post-translational modifications (PTMs) of centriolar
84 tubulin, revealing differences in the spatial organization of acetylation, monoglutamylation
85 and polyglutamylation.

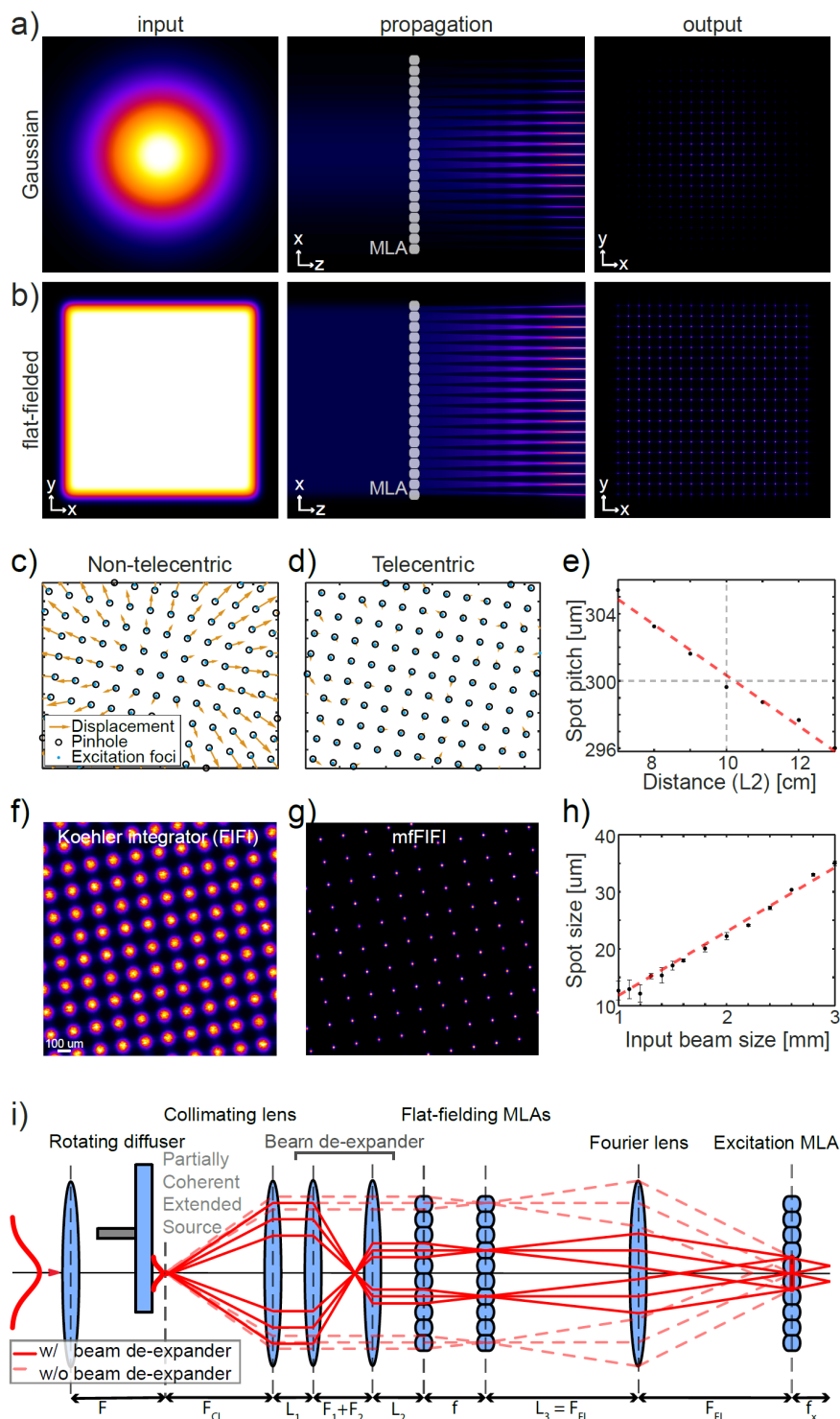
86 **Results**

87 **Design and implementation of homogeneous multifocal excitation**

88 Generating a uniform irradiance over a large FOV while retaining the highest
89 achievable resolution requires the following properties of the excitation focal spots in a
90 multi-focal microscope: 1) homogeneous intensity, 2) constant pitch and 3) diffraction-
91 limited size across the field of view. Existing methods for generating uniform excitation are
92 often limited to producing a low number of excitation spots, with residual heterogeneity and
93 low transmission efficiency. Thus, we set out to extend the Koehler integrator^{24–26}, which
94 averages over the spatial and angular distributions of the light source to homogenize the
95 beam, for use with multifocal excitation.

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99 **Figure 1 – Design and features of the mfFIFI module.** a,b) Wave optics simulation with
 100 (a) a Gaussian beam or (b) a flat-top beam used as input onto the excitation MLA, showing
 101 their propagation and their effect on the output intensity of the generated excitation spots.
 102 c,d) Experimental positions of the excitation spots (blue dots) overlaid on a conjugate
 103 pinhole array (black circles) and the displacement between the two (yellow arrows) for (c)

104 non-telecentric and (d) telecentric illumination of the excitation MLA reveals a change in the
105 pitch of excitation spots caused by non-telecentric illumination. Data are from separately
106 acquired images of pinholes and excitation spots. e) Plot showing the dependence of the
107 pitch of the excitation spots on the offset of the Fourier lens back focal plane to the second
108 flat-fielding MLA. Dashed line represents zero offset on the x-axis and the ground truth set
109 by the pitch of the MLA on the y-axis. f) Image of excitation spots generated with a
110 Gaussian beam as input into the excitation MLA. Directly implementing the Koehler
111 integrator as the input results in large excitation spots. g) Limiting the number of flat-fielding
112 MLA channels used for beam homogenization partially recovers the size of the excitation
113 spots as achieved using Gaussian excitation (a), while maintaining uniform intensity of the
114 Koehler integrator (f). h) The spot size increases linearly with the diameter of the beam
115 incident on the flat-fielding MLAs over the given range. i) Complete design and
116 implementation of the extended Koehler integrator for multi-focal flat illumination for field
117 independent imaging (mfFIFI).

118 Previously, multifocal excitation for the iSIM was generated by illuminating a
119 microlens array (MLA) with a collimated Gaussian beam^{6,9}. As expected, the non-
120 homogeneous beam profile results in excitation points whose intensity depends on their
121 location, a result which is recapitulated in a wave optics simulation (**Figure 1a**)
122 (**Supplemental information**). Alternatively, illuminating the excitation MLA with a flat-top
123 beam – such as that produced by a Koehler integrator – results in an array of multifocal
124 excitation spots of homogeneous intensity (**Figure 1b**). This can be achieved by placing the
125 excitation MLA at the front focal plane of the Fourier lens of the Koehler integrator, where
126 the flat-top is focused (**Supplemental Figure 1a**). However, if the incident wavefront is not
127 flat, the non-telecentric illumination of the excitation MLA produced by this configuration
128 alters the pitch of the excitation spots in the focal plane of the excitation MLA (**Figure 1c**).
129 This periodicity – usually determined by the pitch of the excitation MLA – must match the
130 periodicity of additional components that are typically placed in conjugate image planes of
131 confocal microscopes, such as a pinhole array. In the case of a mismatch of array
132 elements, the light will be gradually occluded and decrease in intensity away from the
133 center of the optical path. To solve this problem and achieve telecentric illumination of the
134 excitation MLA, we place the Fourier lens of the Koehler integrator one focal length away

135 from the second flat-fielding MLA²⁷, resulting in a flat wavefront and thereby ensuring that
136 the pitch of the excitation is conserved (**Figure 1d, Supplemental Figure 1b**). Additionally,
137 adjustment of the distance between the second flat-fielding MLA and the Fourier lens can
138 be used to finely adjust the resulting periodicity of the excitation spots to match that of the
139 other optical elements (**Figure 1e, Supplemental Figure 2a-d**). This feature, not shared by
140 refractive beam-shapers, allows us to optimize transmission efficiency.

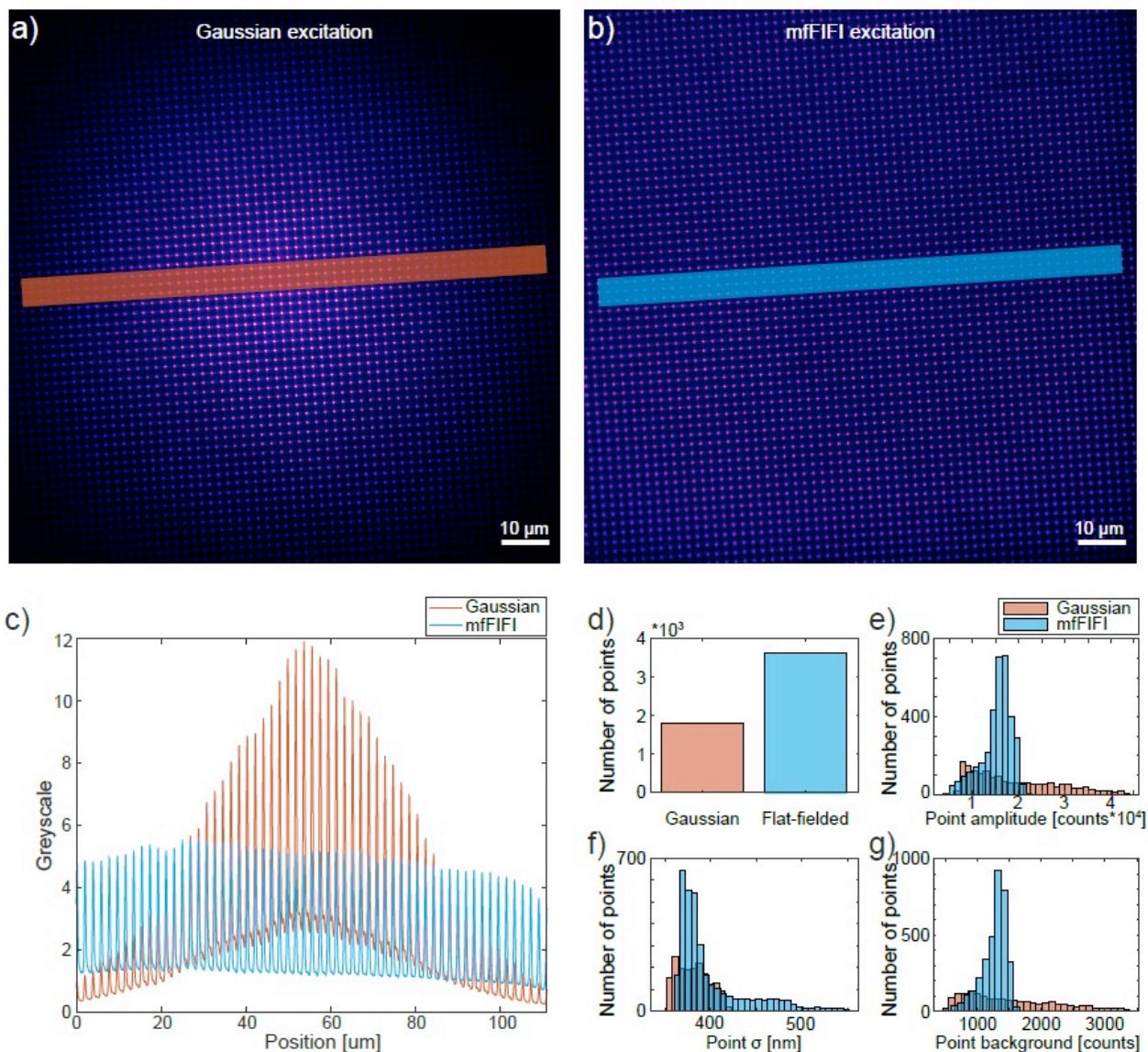
141 Finally, in confocal microscopy and its variants such as iSIM, maximizing the
142 achievable resolution requires focusing the excitation light to a diffraction-limited spot on the
143 sample. This imposes a limitation on the spot size that should be generated in the excitation
144 path. However, implementing a traditional Koehler integrator in the excitation path would
145 produce large excitation spots due to the nature of the partially coherent extended source
146 created by the rotating diffuser (**Figure 1e-f, Supplemental Figure 1**). In that case, the
147 accessible improvement in resolution would not be based on diffraction-limited
148 performance. A possible solution would be to introduce a pinhole array to mask the
149 excitation spots that are focused onto the sample, but at a significant cost to the
150 transmission efficiency.

151 In an alternative design, we find that – contrary to the typical Koehler integrator
152 where illuminating a maximal number of flat-fielding microlenses is preferred^{24–26} –
153 illuminating fewer microlenses offers a solution to control the excitation spot size and
154 ensure diffraction-limited excitation at the sample (**Figure 1g,h**). Incorporating a beam
155 expander to contract the light incident on the flat-fielding MLAs (referred to as a beam
156 contractor henceforth, **Figure 1i, Supplemental Figure 1c**) allows us to tune the apparent
157 size and angular distribution of the extended source. This shrinks the size of the excitation
158 spots, while maintaining efficient light transmission and homogeneity across the excitation
159 illumination. This configuration, which we call multifocal flat illumination for field-
160 independent imaging (mfFIFI), meets all the above requirements for homogeneous
161 multifocal excitation and is shown in **Figure 1i**.

162 These requirements can be described by geometrical optics and are a direct
163 outcome of ray transfer matrix calculations (**Supplemental information, Supplemental**
164 **Figure 2**), but the large parameter space makes the design and optimization of the mfFIFI
165 module non-trivial. For example, beam contraction presents a trade-off between
166 homogeneity of the multifocal excitation and the ability to achieve diffraction-limited
167 excitation and requires careful optimization (**Supplemental information, Supplemental**
168 **Figure 3h**). To facilitate the optimization and choice of components for efficient mfFIFI, we
169 provide the main design equations and an extended version of our existing wave optics
170 simulation platform¹⁰ (**Supplemental information, Supplemental Figure 3, Supplemental**
171 **Table 1**).

172 **iSIM integration and performance characterization**

173 We tested the performance of the mfFIFI module when integrated into the excitation
174 path of an iSIM^{14,31} (**Supplemental information, Supplemental Figure 4**). To visualize the
175 excitation illumination of the iSIM, we used a concentrated dye solution²⁸, and imaged the
176 emitted light onto the camera without scanning (**Supplemental information,**
177 **Supplemental Figure 4a**). Using an approximately Gaussian beam ($M^2 < 1.1$, FWHM
178 diameter ~ 12 mm) to create the excitation pattern, as used in the initial iSIM design^{9,29},
179 results in excitation points of spatially varying intensity closely following a Gaussian
180 distribution (**Figure 2a**), as expected from the simulation (**Figure 1a**). Scanning the
181 Gaussian excitation points partially homogenizes the excitation along the scan direction;
182 however, the resulting illumination features a bright central region and strong roll-off away
183 from the central optical axis (**Supplemental information, Supplemental Figure 5a,b**). In
184 comparison, generating the excitation using the mfFIFI module results in a more uniform
185 multifocal excitation covering an area of approximately $100 \times 100 \mu\text{m}^2$ (**Figure 2b**), and a
186 more homogeneous excitation during scanning (**Supplemental information,**
187 **Supplemental Figure 5c-e**).



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189 **Figure 2 – Performance comparison between Gaussian and mfFIFI excitation.** a,b)
 190 Excitation points imaged onto a NaFITC fluorescent dye sample with (a) Gaussian and (b)
 191 mfFIFI excitation. c) Intensity profiles measured along lines in (a, b). d) Number of
 192 excitation points with a signal-to-noise ratio (SNR) above 3 in Gaussian and mfFIFI
 193 excitation. mfFIFI increases the number of excitation points by a factor of two. e-g)
 194 Histograms of excitation point (e) amplitudes, (f) variance and (g) background levels for
 195 Gaussian and mfFIFI excitation.

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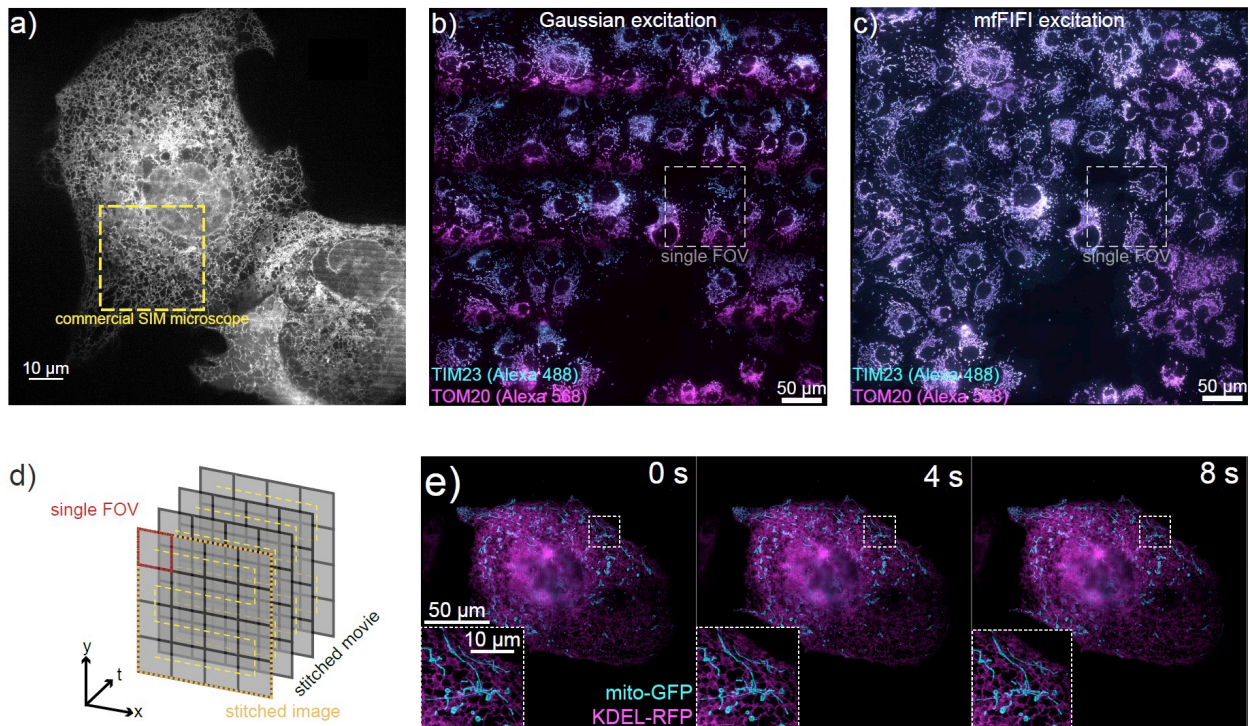
197 Comparing intensity profiles along the rows of excitation spots shows that mfFIFI
 198 efficiently redistributes the spatially varying input Gaussian excitation over a larger area
 199 (Figure 2c). Quantifying these differences, we find that mfFIFI doubles the number of
 200 excitation spots above background levels compared to the Gaussian excitation, while
 resulting in a much narrower distribution of spot amplitudes and background (Figure 2d-e,

201 **g)**. Furthermore, this improvement comes at no measurable cost to the quality of the
202 structured illumination. We find that both the size of the excitation spots required for
203 resolution improvement in confocal microscopy (**Figure 2f**) and their periodicity (222.3 ± 0.3
204 μm (Gaussian) and $222.2 \pm 0.3 \mu\text{m}$ (mfFIFI) (mean \pm S.D.)) are maintained, and compare
205 well with the ground truth ($222 \mu\text{m}$ excitation MLA pitch) (**Supplemental information**). This
206 was further verified by imaging 100 nm fluorescent beads, showing comparable lateral
207 resolution between mfFIFI ($214 \pm 5 \text{ nm}$, mean \pm S.D.) and Gaussian illumination (219 ± 12
208 nm), based on FWHM measured on raw iSIM data before deconvolution, or $\sim 140 \text{ nm}$ lateral
209 and $\sim 350 \text{ nm}$ axial resolution after deconvolution⁹ (**Supplemental information**).

210 **Large FOV iSIM imaging and FOV stitching**

211 We used our custom-built iSIM setup as a platform to combine the capability of
212 mfFIFI excitation with a scientific complementary metal-oxide semiconductor (sCMOS)
213 camera for detection to perform large FOV volumetric imaging at doubled resolution. While
214 existing commercial SIM setups are mostly limited to FOVs with a linear dimension of $30\text{-}60$
215 μm , our setup reaches $>100 \times 100 \mu\text{m}^2$, thus providing a $\sim 4\text{-}$ to 10- fold increase in FOV area.
216 We used mfFIFI iSIM to simultaneously image multiple mammalian cells within a single
217 FOV at doubled resolution (**Figure 3a, Supplemental Movie 1**). Accessible imaging
218 speeds are limited merely by the frame rate of the detector; thus, frame rates of up to 100
219 Hz as reported for iSIM^{9,29} are preserved, since the increase in FOV is achieved by
220 improved parallelization from the increased number of illumination spots. Thus, the increase
221 in FOV translates directly into an increase in throughput.

222



223

224 **Figure 3 – Large FOV imaging and multi-FOV stitching.** a) Cos7 cell expressing KDEL-
225 RFP imaged with an iSIM using mfFIFI excitation and an sCMOS camera enabling imaging
226 of FOVs up to $\sim 115 \times 115 \mu\text{m}^2$ at doubled resolution compared to diffraction limited
227 performance. Yellow square shows the size of a $30 \times 30 \mu\text{m}^2$ FOV available on a standard
228 commercial SIM setup. Full movie shown in **Supplemental Movie 1**. b,c) Raw iSIM images
229 of Cos7 cells immunolabelled for TIM23 and TOM20, stitched from a 5x5 grid of FOVs
230 using (b) Gaussian and (c) mfFIFI excitation. d) Introducing an additional layer of
231 parallelization into iSIM imaging by iterating over multiple FOVs allows trading off the speed
232 of iSIM imaging to construct larger FOVs at high speed and doubled resolution compared to
233 diffraction limited performance. e) Montage showing frames from a high-speed movie built
234 up over a 2x2 grid of FOVs (**Supplemental information**, original movie 2s temporal
235 resolution) of cells expressing mito-GFP and KDEL-RFP. Full movie shown in
236 **Supplemental Movie 2**.

237 The effective image size can be further extended by stitching together adjacent
238 FOVs. Such an approach requires homogeneous illumination to allow seamless stitching
239 (**Figure 3b**). The speed of iSIM imaging combined with the large FOV enabled by mfFIFI
240 allowed us to stitch together dual-color 3D stacks covering a $500 \times 500 \times 5 \mu\text{m}^3$ volume with a
241 5x5 grid of FOVs, each acquired within 5 seconds. With this approach, within 2 minutes, we
242 could capture 3D images of more than 80 cells stained for the mitochondrial inner (TIM23)

243 and outer (TOM20) membrane translocases, revealing coupled geometries of the two
244 membranes (**Figure 3b-c**). The current limiting factor for multi-FOV imaging is the speed of
245 stage translation and synchronization between stage translation and the rest of the iSIM
246 acquisition control (**Supplemental information**). In contrast, the same acquisition without
247 mfFIFI resulted in varying intensity across each FOV, with pronounced dark boundaries at
248 the borders of individual FOVs (**Figure 3b**).

249 For time-lapse imaging, we introduced an additional layer of parallelization by
250 iterating the acquisition procedure over a grid of FOVs (**Figure 3d**). By trading temporal
251 resolution for a gain in imaging area, we can use the speed of iSIM imaging to cover
252 multiple FOVs. For example, by iterating over a 2x2 grid of FOVs we could capture four
253 time more regions of close contact between mitochondria and ER, known to serve as
254 hotspots for mitochondrial division³⁰ at a temporal resolution of 2 seconds (**Figure 3e**,
255 **Supplemental Movie 2**) (**Supplemental information**). This illustrates how processes with
256 less demanding temporal dynamics can benefit from mfFIFI to extend the throughput of
257 iSIM without compromising spatial resolution.

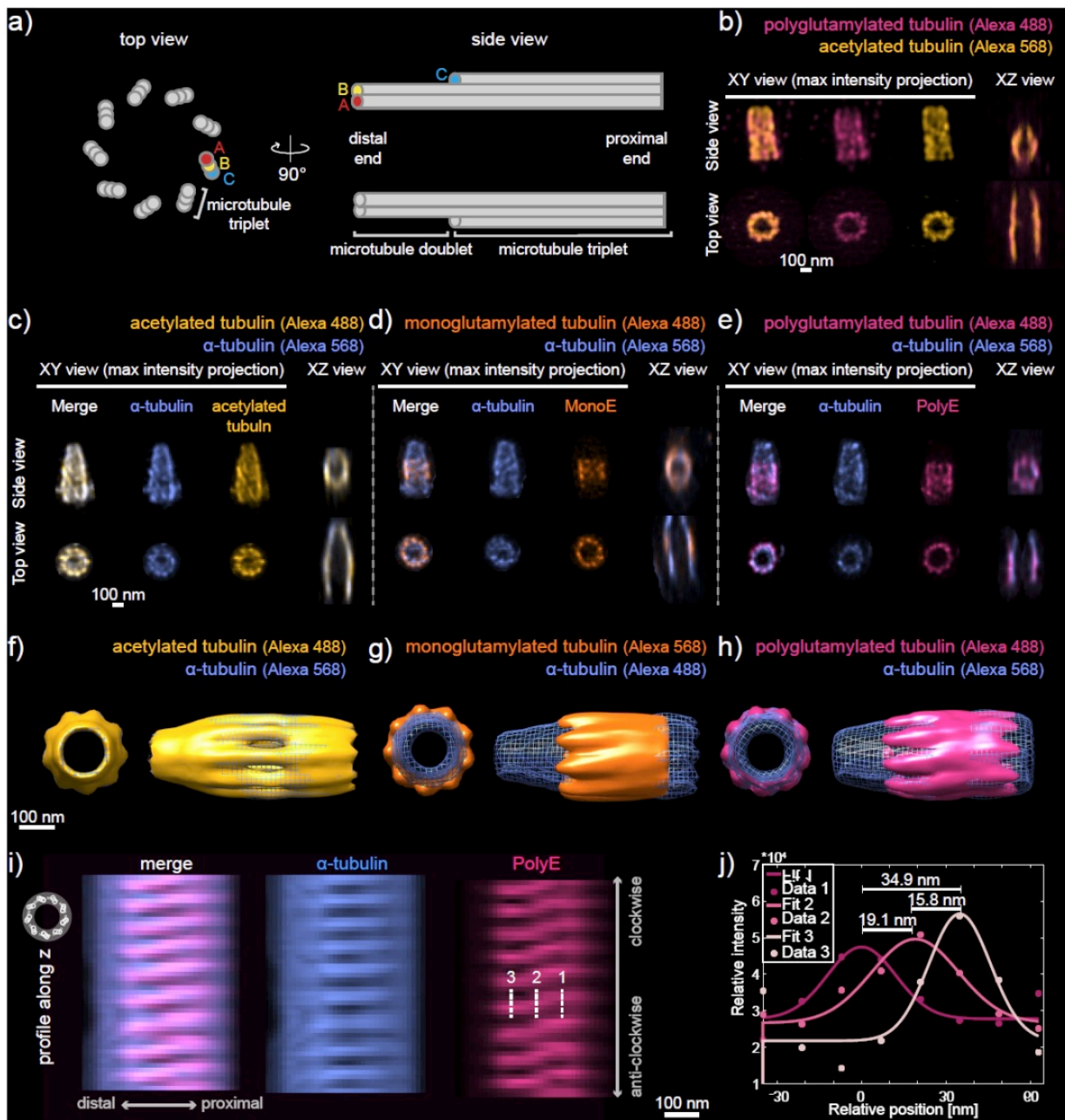
258 **High-throughput super-resolution imaging of expanded centrioles**

259 A recently developed variant of ExM termed ultrastructure expansion microscopy
260 (U-ExM)³¹ enables preservation of the structure and molecular identity of multi-protein
261 assemblies (particles). When combined with iSIM imaging, an expansion factor of ~ 4
262 results in an effective resolution of $\sim 140 / 4 = 35$ nm laterally and $\sim 350 / 4 \approx 90$ nm axially
263 after deconvolution. Compared with current state-of-the-art super-resolution microscopes
264 with similar resolution performance, such as the HT-STORM¹⁰ capable of imaging a
265 $100 \times 100 \mu\text{m}^2$ FOV in ~ 5 -10 minutes or a similar FOV with easySLM-STED³² in 60-80
266 minutes, the iSIM is capable of stitching together images of expanded samples to form an
267 equivalent FOV within 2-5 seconds. This represents a 100-1000-fold improvement in
268 imaging throughput. Therefore, acquiring datasets of thousands of particles that would take

269 weeks or months to acquire on a conventional STORM or STED microscope require only 1-
270 2 hours on the high-throughput iSIM.

271 As a proof-of-concept for iSIM/U-ExM, we set out to analyze centrioles, organelles
272 found in most eukaryotic cells that seed the formation of the axoneme in cilia and the
273 centrosome in animal cells. Centrioles have a characteristic nine-fold radial symmetric
274 arrangement of microtubule triplets towards the proximal end of the organelle, composed of
275 complete A-microtubules and incomplete B- and C-tubules³³, with a transition to A- and B-
276 microtubule doublets towards the centriole distal end³⁴ (**Figure 4a**). It is known that
277 centriolar tubulin is enriched in post-translational modifications (PTMs), including
278 acetylation and polyglutamylation^{35,36}. Acetylation is known to stabilize microtubules,
279 increase their flexibility and protect them against mechanical aging³⁷⁻³⁹. Glutamylation has
280 been postulated to likewise stabilize microtubules in the centriole and protect the organelle
281 from pulling and pushing forces acting during mitosis^{36,40,41}. Although these observations
282 indicate that centrioles might be stabilized via tubulin acetylation and polyglutamylation, the
283 spatial organization of these PTMs on the organelle remains largely unexplored.

284 To analyze human centrioles in a similar stage of the cell cycle and of the centriole
285 duplication cycle, we synchronized RPE-1 cells with thymidine to arrest them at the G1/S
286 transition and with the Plk4 inhibitor Centrinone to prevent the formation of new centrioles⁵².
287 After expansion and staining with antibodies against acetylated and polyglutamylated
288 tubulin, we imaged >100 centrioles in 3D in their cellular context per hour, revealing the
289 distribution of these PTMs along the organelle. Analyzing over 400 individual particles
290 extracted from these images (**Supplemental Figure 6**) revealed that centriolar tubulin
291 appears uniformly acetylated, while polyglutamylation terminates ~30 nm before the distal
292 end (**Figure 4b, Supplemental Figure 7a-c**). Moreover, the polyglutamylation signal
293 exhibits a larger diameter (**Figure 4b, Supplemental Figure 7a-c**), in line with the fact that
294 acetylation occurs within the microtubule wall and polyglutamylation on the outer surface of
295 the polymer³¹.



296

297 **Figure 4 – High-throughput super-resolution imaging of expanded centrioles for**
 298 **mapping post-translational modifications of centriolar tubulin.** a) Schematic
 299 representation of the centriolar microtubule wall viewed from the side (left) and top from the
 300 distal end. The A-, B- and C-microtubules are indicated. b) Examples of individual mature
 301 human centriole particles orthogonal (side view) or parallel (top view) to the optical axis
 302 collected in expanded RPE-1 cells labelled for acetylated tubulin and polyglutamylation
 303 (PolyE). The lateral (XY) maximum intensity projection and axial (XZ) cross sections are
 304 shown. c-e) Examples of individual purified *Chlamydomonas reinhardtii* centriole particles
 305 viewed orthogonal (side view) or parallel (top view) to the optical axis labelled for α -tubulin
 306 as reference and (c) acetylated tubulin, (d) monoglutamylated tubulin (GT335, MonoE) and
 307 (e) polyglutamylated tubulin (PolyE). f-h) High resolution particle averaging reconstructions

308 of (f) acetylated tubulin, (g) MonoE and (h) PolyE with α -tubulin as reference. Scale bars:
309 100 nm (pre-expansion). Top views shown from the distal end. i) Circular axial projection
310 (XZ profile) of the centriole reconstruction from (h) showing α -tubulin and PolyE signal
311 around the centriole (viewed from the outside). j) Intensity profiles measured along the
312 dashed lines from (i) showing the radial displacement of the PolyE signal.

313 To further increase throughput, we sought to expand purified centrioles to capture
314 dozens of pairs within a single FOV rather than just one per cell. We used centrioles
315 purified from *Chlamydomonas reinhardtii* to this end since the U-ExM protocol had been
316 optimized for this species³¹. Similarly to what we observed with human centrioles in the
317 cellular context, we observe that in centrioles purified from *Chlamydomonas reinhardtii*,
318 acetylated tubulin colocalizes with the microtubule wall along the entire length of the
319 organelle (**Figure 4c**), in agreement with previous reports⁴². In contrast, we found that
320 tubulin monoglutamylation (MonoE) is concentrated in the central core region of
321 *Chlamydomonas reinhardtii* centrioles (**Figure 4d**), as previously reported⁴². Since MonoE
322 recognizes the first glutamylation branching required for polyglutamylation (PolyE), we
323 would expect the distribution of PolyE to partially or completely overlap with that of MonoE.
324 Surprisingly, we found that although PolyE also localizes on the outer surface of the
325 microtubule triplets where it has been suggested to localize to the C-microtubule³¹, it covers
326 a wider band along the length axis than MonoE (**Figure 4e, Supplemental Figure 7, 12**).
327 This difference could reflect lower MonoE antibody labelling efficiency, since saturating the
328 signal shows similar MonoE/PolyE localization.

329 The high throughput offered by mfFIFI-iSIM allowed us to collect 3D images of
330 thousands of purified expanded *Chlamydomonas reinhardtii* centrioles per hour
331 (**Supplemental Figure 8, Supplemental Table 2**). Having obtained 3D rather than 2D
332 particles allowed us to use fewer particles to perform averaging and high-resolution
333 multicolor reconstruction⁴⁴ compared to previous approaches using STORM⁴⁵ or electron
334 microscopy^{46,47}. Thus, we classified particles before reconstruction to identify and average
335 only those particles sharing a high degree of similarity (ranging from 10-50% of the whole
336 dataset), and thereby achieve even higher resolution reconstructions (**Figure 4f-h**,

337 **Supplemental information, Supplemental Figure 9**). Here, we have focused on the most
338 frequently appearing class, but other classes could also be independently reconstructed.
339 For mapping multiple PTMs within the centriole, we employ dual-color labeling, using α -
340 tubulin staining of the microtubule triplet wall as a reference to subsequently align all PTMs
341 (**Supplemental Figure 10**).

342 The resulting reconstructions revealed an unexpected shift in the tangential position
343 of the PolyE signal from the proximal to the distal end (**Figure 4h**), which is also sometimes
344 visible in individual raw particles (**Supplemental Figure 8b inset, Figure 4e**). To account
345 for this shift, we considered two possibilities: 1) the whole microtubule triplet twists around
346 its axis while the PolyE signal remains localized to the C-microtubule⁴⁸ giving it an apparent
347 twist, and 2) the PolyE signal changes microtubule localization within the microtubule triplet.
348 Arguing against the first possibility, the microtubule triplet twists only within ~100 nm of the
349 proximal end (Le Guennec et al., in press), while in our reconstruction the PTM twist occurs
350 within a wider region covering ~250 nm from the proximal end,. Moreover, we determined
351 that the first possibility would be expected to cause a moderate ~6 nm shift of the PolyE
352 signal, and the second a more pronounced ~35-40 nm shift (**Supplemental information,**
353 **Supplemental Figure 11**). From our reconstruction, we measure a twist of ~34.9 nm,
354 which cannot be explained purely by twisting of the microtubule triplet (**Figure 4i,j,**
355 **Supplemental information, Supplemental Figure 11**). Therefore, we propose that
356 polyglutamylation changes localization within the microtubule triplet along the centriole,
357 moving from A- on the proximal end to the C-microtubule more distally.

358 **Conclusion**

359 To summarize, we designed a flat-fielding method for efficient multifocal excitation,
360 accompanied by a wave optics simulator which ensures optimal resolution performance.
361 While the Koehler integrator has spot generating properties when used with coherent
362 illumination, it introduces a strong wavelength dependence of the periodicity, making it
363 unsuitable as such for multi-color applications²⁶. mfFIFI provides a largely wavelength-

364 independent solution for generating homogeneous multi-focal excitation, while benefiting
365 from the homogenizing properties of the Koehler integrator. We implemented the mfFIFI
366 module into an iSIM microscope, since its fast acquisition speeds and resolution doubling
367 give it good potential for high-throughput super-resolution imaging. However, the mfFIFI
368 module could be extended to any multi-focal excitation microscope such as a spinning disk
369 confocal microscope⁶ using a Nipkow disk configuration, but not with other flat-fielding
370 solutions using diffractive optical elements²⁰, spatial light modulators (SLM)²¹ or beam
371 splitters²³. Furthermore, combining mfFIFI with phase masks required for donut beam
372 shaping could extend its application to parallelized STED and RESOLFT microscopes.

373 Flat-fielding enables multi-field of view imaging, which is a powerful way to maintain
374 resolution while increasing the effective image size to span more length scales. This is
375 important for sample spanning multiple fields of view, as in the case of tissues, or expanded
376 samples. ExM sacrifices the effective FOV to increase resolution, and stitching provides a
377 way to maintain throughput, allowing cellular features or structures to be imaged *in situ*, as
378 we demonstrate by imaging hundreds of human centrioles in cells.

379 Particle averaging and reconstruction is traditionally used in ultrastructural biology,
380 and leverages large datasets to capture the intrinsic variability within particles through
381 classification before reconstruction, while averaging out the noise. In the case of ExM,
382 different gels can have slightly different expansion factors, but this issue is circumvented by
383 our iSIM setup since thousands of particles can be acquired from a single gel section (~5x5
384 mm²). In our case, the collected datasets were sufficiently large to allow particle
385 classification prior to averaging, an approach which improves the resolution of the
386 reconstruction and which, to our knowledge, has not been previously used for fluorescence
387 super-resolution. In addition to a 100-1000-fold improvement in throughput of iSIM/U-ExM
388 over HT-STORM^{10,45} or easySLM-STED³², expanded samples offer enhanced accessibility
389 of antibodies to bind proteins in crowded assemblies. Beyond particle averaging, high-
390 content or machine learning approaches rely on large datasets for training or screening,
391 and can benefit from the combination of throughput and resolution described here.

392 Our previous attempts to image centriolar microtubules with STORM proved largely
393 unsuccessful, restricting previous studies to the more accessible epitopes⁴⁵. Here, we
394 reveal previously unobserved molecular organization, showing high coverage of
395 polyglutamylation in human centrioles, as well as precise localization to microtubule triplets
396 along the *Chlamydomonas reinhardtii* centriole. We find that polyglutamylation appears to
397 shift from the A-microtubule proximally to the C-microtubule more distally. It is possible that
398 such a glutamylation shift reflects a centriolar tubule code that defines the spatial
399 boundaries of the various elements that compose it, which could determine the positioning
400 of different structural elements along the length of the organelle.

401

402 **Methods**

403 **Sample preparation**

404 Cos-7 and RPE-1 cells were grown in Dulbecco's modified Eagle medium (DMEM)
405 supplemented with 10% fetal bovine serum (FBS). Cells were plated on 25 mm, #1.5 glass
406 coverslips (Menzel) 16-24 h prior to transfection or fixation at a confluency of $\sim 10^5$ cells per
407 well.

408 Transfections using [insert], were performed with Lipofectamine 2000 (Life
409 Technologies) using 150 ng of [insert] and 1.5 μ L of the Lipofectamine 2000 reagent in 100
410 μ L Opti-MEM medium per 6 well.

411 For synchronization of RPE-1 cells at the G1/S transition and the onset of centriole
412 assembly, $\sim 125'000$ cells were seeded for 24 h in six well-plates (Merck, TPP, 92006) on
413 12 mm coverslips in DMEM [insert]. Thymidine (Merck, T1895, 1 mM) and Centrinone
414 (Lucerna-Chem, MCE-HY-18682, 300 nM) were added for 18 h, before fixation of cells with
415 -20°C methanol for 5'.

416 For immunofluorescence experiments with COS-7 cells, cells were washed in pre-
417 warmed PBS before being fixed in pre-warmed fixation buffer (4% paraformaldehyde in
418 PBS). Cells were then permeabilized in 0.25 % Triton-X in PBS for 10 min. After washing in
419 PBS for 5 min, cells were incubated in blocking buffer (1% BSA in PBS) for 60 min. The
420 primary antibodies (Tom20-rabbit (1:50, FL-145 sc-11415 Santa Cruz Biotechnologies),
421 Tim23-mouse (1:100, 611222 BD Biosciences)) diluted in blocking buffer were incubated
422 for 60 min before washing 3 times in 0.2% BSA with 0.25% Triton-X in PBS for 10 min.
423 Secondary antibodies (AlexaFluor 488 goat anti-mouse IgG (H+L) (1:150, A28175
424 ThermoFisher), AlexaFluor 568 goat anti-rabbit IgG (H+L) (1:150, A11011 ThermoFisher))
425 were diluted in blocking buffer before incubation for another 30 min. The sample was
426 incubated in the dark, then washed 3 times with PBS before imaging.

427 **iSIM imaging**

428 The iSIM setup was partly based on previously described implementations^{9,29}. Two
429 lasers with wavelengths of 488 nm (Sapphire 488-300 CW CDRH, Coherent) and 561 nm
430 (gem 561, Laser Quantum GmbH) were combined using a dichroic mirror (F48-486,
431 Analysentechnik) and controlled through an acousto-optic tunable filter (AOTFnC-400.650-
432 TN, AA Optoelectronic). In the case of Gaussian excitation, the beam was expanded with a
433 10x beam expander ($f_{1a} = 40$ mm, $f_{2a} = 400$ mm, Thorlabs). In the mfFIFI path, a focusing
434 lens ($f_{FC} = 50$ mm) was used to focus the light near a rotating diffuser ($2.5^\circ \pm 0.25^\circ$ FWHM
435 at 650 nm, 24-00066, Süss MicroOptics SA) before collimation by a collimating lens ($f_{CL} =$
436 60 mm, Thorlabs). The collimated beam was contracted by a factor of 4 by two lenses ($f_{1b} =$
437 120 mm, $f_{2b} = 30$ mm, Thorlabs) before illuminating two flat-fielding MLAs (300 μm pitch,
438 10mm x 10 mm, $f = 4.78$ mm, square lenses, 18-00157, Süss MicroOptics SA). The flat
439 field was then focused by a Fourier lens ($f_{FL} = 300$ mm, Thorlabs). Both paths then
440 illuminated the excitation MLA (222 μm pitch, 1" diameter, $f = 6$ mm, square lenses APO-Q-
441 P222-R2.74, Advanced Microoptic Systems GmbH). The excitation was relayed by scan
442 lenses ($f_{SL} = 190$ mm, 55-S190-60-VIS, Special Optics) to and from the scanning mirror
443 (SPO9086 Rev B Coated X Mirror, Sierra Precision Optics) mounted on a galvanometer
444 scanner (QS-12, N-2071, Nutfield Technology). The excitation was then imaged onto the
445 sample using a tube lens ($f_{TL} = 350$ mm, 49-289-INK, Edmund Optics) and an objective lens
446 (APON60XOTIRF, Olympus), resulting in a final magnification of $\sim 116\times$. The sample was
447 placed on a precision aligned microscopy platform including a micropositioning control
448 (RM21-AZ-AXY-RMS-M, Mad City Labs) and a Z piezo stage (Nano-Z200, Mad City Labs).
449 The emission was relayed back through the excitation side of the scanning mirror and split
450 using a dichroic mirror (F58-488S, Semrock). The emission was then pinholed with a
451 pinhole array (chrome on 0.090-inch-thick quartz, 222 μm pitch, 40 μm diameter,
452 Photosciences) and relayed by two relay lenses ($f_R = 300$ mm, Thorlabs) before contracting
453 each emission spot by a factor of 2 using another MLA (222 μm pitch, 1" diameter, $f = 0.93$

454 mm, square lenses APO-Q-P222-R0.425, Advanced Microoptic Systems GmbH). The
455 emission was then relayed using scan lenses on the emission side of the scan mirror,
456 towards a filter wheel (Lambda 10-B, Sutter Instruments, Science Products) with 2 notch
457 filters (NF-03-488E-25 and NF-03-561E-25, Semrock) mounted to block the excitation
458 wavelengths. The transmitted emission was then collected by a sCMOS camera (PrimeBSI,
459 01-PRIME-BSI-R-M-16-C, Photometrics). The size of a square camera pixel corresponds to
460 56 nm on the sample.

461 The microscope was controlled using a custom written MATLAB script which
462 controlled an analog output card (PCI-6733, National Instruments) and breakout box (BNC-
463 2110, National Instruments) for precise control and synchronization of the scan mirror,
464 AOTF, camera and Z-stage. The XY stage and camera were controlled through
465 MicroManager⁴⁹.

466 For live cell imaging, imaging was performed at 37 °C in pre-warmed Leibovitz
467 medium in a top stage incubator (H301-PRIOR-NZ100-H117, Okolab). Imaging of
468 immunostained samples was performed in PBS. Expanded samples were mounted as
469 previously described³¹. Briefly, the expansion factor was determined before imaging by
470 measuring the gel size with a caliper (precision ± 0.01 mm). The gel was then cut using a
471 razor, before removing excess water and placing the gel on a poly-D-lysine treated
472 coverslip (25 mm round coverslips, Mendel #1.5) already placed inside the imaging
473 chamber. After gently pressing on the gel to ensure attachment to the coverslip, a few
474 drops of ddH₂O were added on top of the sample to avoid shrinkage during imaging.
475 Image acquisition was performed using a custom written MATLAB script, in combination
476 with MicroManager⁴⁹.

477 **iSIM deconvolution**

478 Raw iSIM images were deconvolved using the Lucy-Richardson deconvolution
479 algorithm implemented in MATLAB and provided by Dr. Hari Shroff⁹. Each raw z-stack was
480 deconvolved for 40 iterations.

481 **mfFIFI characterization platform**

482 An optical characterization setup was built to measure the variation in pitch and spot
483 size of the multifocal points. A laser beam with a wavelength of 640 nm (CUBE 640-100C,
484 Coherent) was expanded with a 6x beam expander ($f = 50$ mm, $f = 300$ mm, Thorlabs) with
485 a pinhole (P50D, Thorlabs) at the joint focal plane of the two lenses to spatially filter the
486 beam. The beam is passed through a Köhler integrator, made of the following components:
487 focusing lens ($f = 80$ mm, Thorlabs), rotating diffuser ($2.5^\circ \pm 0.25^\circ$ FWHM at 650 nm, 24-
488 00066, Süss MicroOptics SA), collimating lens ($f = 40$ mm, Thorlabs), two flat-fielding MLAs
489 ($300 \mu\text{m}$ pitch, $10\text{mm} \times 10$ mm, $f = 4.78$ mm, square lenses, 18-00157, Süss MicroOptics
490 SA), Fourier lens ($f_{\text{FL}} = 300$ mm, Thorlabs). An iris (ID25, Thorlabs) is used before the two
491 MLAs to control the portion of the beam which is allowed to propagate forward to reach and
492 illuminate MLAs, by adjusting the opening diameter of the iris. An excitation MLA ($300 \mu\text{m}$
493 pitch, $10\text{mm} \times 10$ mm, $f = 8.72$ mm, square lenses, 18-00221, Süss MicroOptics SA) is
494 used to produce the multifocal points. The size of the multifocal illumination is reduced by a
495 factor of 0.6x by a beam de-expander ($f = 50$ mm, $f = 30$ mm, Thorlabs) to be of appropriate
496 size for the sensor of the camera (DCC1545M, Thorlabs).

497 To obtain the data shown in Figure 1e, h, we used the characterization platform to
498 test the parameters affecting the spot size and pitch. A Vernier caliper was used to
499 measure the iris opening diameter, which was varied methodically to control the size of the
500 beam which illuminates the MLAs. Images of the beam at different iris opening diameters
501 were analyzed using a MATLAB script, which allowed us to fit each excitation point to a 2D
502 Gaussian and measure the multifocal points' mean spot FWHM as function of iris diameter.
503 In order to study the variation in the pitch of the multifocal points, the distance between the
504 Fourier lens and the second flat-fielding MLA was varied by displacing the flat-fielding
505 MLAs. A MATLAB script is used to measure the mean pitch at each distance, so that the
506 relationship between this distance and the pitch can be determined.

507 **Image analysis**

508 **Plateau uniformity quantification**

509 The homogeneity was quantified using the plateau uniformity definition based on the
510 FWHM of the histogram of the intensity values, according to ISO, ISO 13694:2018: Optics
511 and optical instruments - lasers and laser-related equipment - test methods for laser beam
512 power (energy) density distribution.

513 **Illumination profile measurement**

514 The illumination profiles used to optimize the pitch (telecentricity) and spot size of
515 the multifocal excitation were visualized using a small color CMOS camera (DCC1645C,
516 Thorlabs), placed in an intermediate image plane of the iSIM, between the second scan
517 lens and tube lens, to avoid introducing other aberrations along the whole optical path of
518 the iSIM.

519 The excitation profile at the sample was measured using a highly concentrated
520 fluorescent dye sample³², as previously described⁹. Briefly, sodium fluorescein (NaFITC)
521 powder was diluted in deionized water, followed by vortexing and sonication until the
522 powder was completely dissolved. A 10 μ L drop was placed on a 25 mm coverslip, before
523 covering with a 12 mm coverslip. The sample was then sealed using nail polish. The same
524 dye sample was used to measure both the 488 nm and 561 nm illumination profiles. The
525 illumination spots were characterized by fitting a 2D Gaussian to the intensity image. The
526 threshold was set so that no points in the background were detected. The scanning profiles
527 were measured with a 150 pixel thick line in Fiji⁵⁰.

528 In the case of excitation spots visualized in Figure 1f, g and the quantification in
529 Figure 1e, h, the illumination profile was imaged directly onto a camera placed in a
530 conjugate image plane.

531

532 **Bead FWHM analysis**

533 To characterize the performance of the iSIM microscope, we used 100 nm
534 Tetraspeck beads (ThermoFisher Scientific, T7279) deposited on poly-L-lysine treated
535 coverslips. Bead size was determined by fitting a Gaussian profile to the intensity profile of
536 the bead and extracting the FWHM.

537

538 **Centriole shape and coverage analysis**

539 To analyze the diameters of different PTM localizations within the centrioles, we
540 measured the intensity profile through the centers of top view centrioles (central plane,
541 centriole barrel parallel to the imaging axis). The profile was measured using a 7 pixel thick
542 line in Fiji⁵⁰. Each peak was fitted to a Gaussian profile to localize its center, before
543 calculating the diameter as the distance between the two peaks on opposing sides of the
544 centriole ring.

545 To analyze the PTM distribution along the length of the centriole and their coverage,
546 we measured the intensity profile along the length of the centriole using a 10 pixel thick line
547 and from summed intensity projections of side view centrioles (centriole barrel orthogonal to
548 the imaging axis). We then took the width of the profile at $\frac{1}{4}$ of the maximal signal as the
549 length, to be less susceptible to noise. The coverage was then calculated by dividing the
550 length of the PTM in question, by the length of the reference label (acetylated tubulin for
551 human centrioles and α -tubulin in the case of *Chlamydomonas reinhardtii* centrioles).

552 **Multiple field of view stitching**

553 For stitching of multiple images, raw images or z-stacks were acquired with a 10%
554 overlap for both Gaussian and mfFIFI excitation. The acquired images were then combined
555 using the Grid/Collection stitching tool in Fiji⁵⁰ using the linear blending method with the

556 default values of 0.30 for regression threshold, 2.50 for max/avg displacement threshold
557 and 3.50 for absolute displacement threshold.

558 **Wave optics simulations**

559 The mfFIFI simulation platform has been adapted based on previous work⁹. All
560 simulations are based on standard numerical Fourier optics algorithms and rely on angular
561 spectrum propagation methods to simulate the propagation of an optical wave. An initial
562 simulation showing the effect of illuminating the excitation MLA with Gaussian and flat-
563 fielded profiles was performed using phase masks to represent optical components.

564 The parameters used for the simulation are summarized in **Supplemental Table 1**.

565 **Centriole expansion protocol**

566 *Chlamydomonas reinhardtii* centrioles were isolated from the cell-wall-less strain
567 CW15⁻⁵¹ and expanded using the U-ExM protocol³¹. Briefly, isolated centrioles were spun
568 on 12mm Poly-D-Lysine-coated (ThermoFisher, A3890401) coverslips prior to U-ExM. For
569 human cell expansion, cells were initially seeded on 12 mm coverslips before being fixed
570 with 4% PFA. Coverslips were then incubated in a solution of 0.7% formaldehyde and 1%
571 acrylamide in PBS for 4-5 hours at 37°C. Next, coverslips were incubated in the monomer
572 solution for 1 minute on ice and then shifted to 37°C, for 1 hour in a dark and humidified
573 chamber. For one gel, the monomer solution is made of 25 µL sodium acrylate (Sigma-
574 Aldrich, 408220, 38% (wt/wt, diluted with nuclease-free water)), 12.5 µL acrylamide (Sigma-
575 Aldrich, A4058, 40% stock solution), 2.5 µL N,N'-methylenebisacrylamide (Sigma-Aldrich,
576 M1533, 2% stock solution), and 5 µL 10X PBS, supplemented with 2.5 µL TEMED and 2.5
577 µL APS (from 10% stock solutions). Once polymerized, gels were moved into denaturation
578 buffer (200 mM SDS, 200 mM NaCl and 50 mM Tris in nuclease-free water, pH 9) for 15
579 minutes at room temperature with gentle shaking and then shifted for 30 minutes to 95°C in
580 an 1.5 mL Eppendorf tube with 1 mL of fresh denaturation buffer. Then, gels were placed at

581 room temperature in beakers with 200 mL of distilled water. Water was exchanged twice
582 (every 30 min) and the sample was incubated overnight at room temperature. The following
583 day, water was changed with PBS for 15 min at room temperature. Gels were then
584 incubated for 3h at 37°C with gentle shaking in 1 mL of primary antibody solution (in 3%
585 BSA and 0.05% Tween20). Samples were then washed three times for 10 min with PBS
586 supplemented by 0.1% Tween20 while shaking, followed by incubation with secondary
587 antibodies for 3h at 37°C in 3% BSA and 0.05% Tween20. Finally gels were washed 3x in
588 T-PBS. For RPE-1 cells, the sample was supplemented in the second wash with Hoechst
589 33258 (1:2'000) dye and place in beakers with 200 mL of distilled water for final expansion,
590 with again water being exchanged twice for 30'. Before imaging, gels were again expanded
591 overnight in ddH₂O. Primary antibodies used to image centrioles in expanded RPE-1 cells
592 were rabbit anti-polyglutamate chain (polyE), pAb (IN105, 1:250) and mouse monoclonal
593 anti-acetylated tubulin (Merck, T7451, 1:500). Secondary antibodies were goat anti-Rabbit
594 Alexa488 (Thermo-Fisher Scientific, A11034, 1:500) and goat anti-mouse IgG Alexa 568
595 F(ab')₂ (Thermo-Fisher Scientific, A11019, 1:500). The following primary antibodies were
596 used for imaging expanded purified *Chlamydomonas reinhardtii* centrioles: rabbit polyclonal
597 anti-polyglutamate chain (PolyE, IN105, 1:500, AG-25B-0030-C050, Adipogen), mouse
598 monoclonal anti- α -tubulin (DM1 α , 1:500, T6199, Sigma-Aldrich), mouse monoclonal anti-
599 polyglutamyl modification (GT335, 1:200, AG-20B-0020, Adipogen), mouse monoclonal
600 anti-acetyl- α -tubulin (Lys40, 1:50, 32-2700, Invitrogen, ThermoFisher). Secondary
601 antibodies were goat anti-rabbit Alexa Fluor 488 IgG H+L (1:400, A11008), goat anti-mouse
602 Alexa Fluor 488 IgG H+L (1:400, A11029), goat anti-rabbit Alexa Fluor 568 IgG H+L (1:400,
603 A11036), goat anti-mouse Alexa Fluor 568 IgG H+L (1:400, A11004 all from Invitrogen,
604 ThermoFisher).

605 **Particle segmentation, classification and 3D reconstruction of purified centrioles**

606 Particles were segmented using a custom written Matlab script. Briefly, the
607 threshold value was found on the maximum intensity projections of the 3D stacks, before

608 applying it back to the individual stacks. The regions were then binarized and segmented
609 by connecting neighboring pixels across the 3D stack. The binarized points of interested
610 were then dilated to form the mask which was then applied back to the raw stack. The
611 particles were then cut out from the original stack with their specific mask and a 60x60 pixel
612 surrounding region. The segmentation was ~50% successful, mostly because centrioles are
613 often found in pairs, and closely located pairs had to be rejected since they could not be
614 segmented correctly.

615 After particles were segmented and up-sampled (to reach isotropic pixel size), the
616 particles with tubulin signal were aligned to a reference using Dynamo. The reference was
617 built using a reconstructed tubulin signal made from 12 manually selected particles. Once
618 particles were all similarly aligned, a cross-correlation matrix was generated by calculating
619 the similarity between each pairs of particles. The cross-correlation matrix was converted to
620 a distance matrix by subtracting cross-correlation values to 1. A hierarchical classification
621 was made using the Ward method (hclust function from R). The classification tree was
622 empirically cut into 10 groups. For each group, the average particle was generated for the
623 tubulin signal and for the PolyE signal by applying the transformation parameters obtained
624 during the alignment step. The 10 averages were compared to identify which groups were
625 most promising. The best classes were used to produce the reconstruction results of Figure
626 4. The reconstruction method was based on ref.⁴⁴, and followed the procedure reported in
627 ref.³¹ with a C9 symmetry constraint. The point spread function was experimentally
628 measured by imaging 100 nm fluorescent beads (TetraSpeck™ Microspheres, 0.1 μm,
629 T7279 ThermoFisher). We made two modifications to the *reference-free* step of the
630 reconstruction algorithm⁴⁴. Firstly, we adopted a multiscale reconstruction approach: we
631 used results obtained with coarsely subsampled data to get a coarse initialization. Thanks
632 to this approach, we were able to perform the reconstruction at the highest resolution in
633 reasonable computation time. Secondly, we decoupled the angular search of the
634 orientations: the first two Euler angles were estimated first, before the third one. This further
635 accelerated the reconstruction and provided sharper results in the case of C9 symmetry.

636 Reconstructions were visualized using Chimera, by setting the threshold to fit the
637 average length of the particles. Artefactual signals in the center of the reconstruction that
638 arise due to the imposed 9-fold symmetry were removed during post-processing.

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649 **Author contributions**

650 D.M., K.M.D., P.Gö., V.H., P.Gu. and S.M. conceived and designed the project.
651 P.Gö., V.H., P.Gu and S.M. supervised the project. D.M., K.M.D. and S.M. designed the
652 multi-focal illumination system. D.M. and K.M.D. developed the simulation platform. D.M.
653 built the microscope, performed all experiments and data analysis. D.G. performed the
654 purified *Chlamydomonas reinhardtii* centriole sample preparation. D.F. performed single
655 particle averaging and reconstruction. N.B. performed the human RPE-1 centriole sample
656 preparation. M.L.G. performed the particle classification and alignment. K.I. built and
657 performed experiments on the flat-fielding characterization platform. D.M. and S.M. wrote
658 the manuscript with contributions from all authors.

659 **Competing interests**

660 The authors declare no competing financial interests.

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