

1 **Mitotic chromosomes scale to nucleo-cytoplasmic ratio and cell size in *Xenopus***

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16 **Abstract**

17 During the rapid and reductive cleavage divisions of early embryogenesis, subcellular structures
18 such as the nucleus and mitotic spindle scale to decreasing cell size. Mitotic chromosomes also
19 decrease in size during development, presumably to coordinately scale with mitotic spindles, but
20 underlying mechanisms are unclear. Here we combine *in vivo* and *in vitro* approaches using eggs
21 and embryos from the frog *Xenopus laevis* to show that mitotic chromosome scaling is
22 mechanistically distinct from other forms of subcellular scaling. We found that mitotic
23 chromosomes scale continuously with cell, spindle and nuclear size *in vivo*. However, unlike for
24 spindles and nuclei, mitotic chromosome size cannot be re-set by cytoplasmic factors from earlier
25 developmental stages. *In vitro*, increasing nucleo-cytoplasmic (N/C) ratio is sufficient to
26 recapitulate mitotic chromosome scaling, but not nuclear or spindle scaling, through differential
27 loading of maternal factors during interphase. An additional pathway involving importin α scales
28 mitotic chromosomes to cell surface area/volume (SA/V) during metaphase. Finally, single-
29 chromosome immunofluorescence and analysis of Hi-C data suggest that mitotic chromosomes
30 scale through decreased recruitment of condensin I, resulting in major rearrangements of DNA
31 loop architecture to accommodate the same amount of DNA on a shorter axis. Together, our
32 findings demonstrate how mitotic chromosome size is set by spatially and temporally distinct
33 developmental cues in the early embryo.

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41 **Introduction**

42 Upon fertilization, embryos undergo a series of rapid cell division events in the absence of cell
43 growth, thereby decreasing cell size. Subcellular structures including the nucleus and mitotic
44 spindle scale to cell size through a set of defined mechanisms (Heald and Gibeaux, 2018; Levy
45 and Heald, 2015). Mitotic chromosomes also shrink in size during development and scale with
46 cell size across metazoans (Kramer et al., 2021; Micheli et al., 1993), but underlying mechanisms
47 are poorly understood. In plants and in fly embryos, artificially lengthening chromosomes resulted
48 in increased chromosome mis-segregation during mitosis (Schubert and Oud, 1997; Sullivan et
49 al., 1993). Similar experiments in budding yeast showed that the artificially longer chromosome
50 was hyper-compacted during anaphase due to Aurora B kinase phosphorylation of substrates
51 including condensin, a key regulator of mitotic chromosome condensation and resolution (Neurohr
52 et al., 2011). In *C. elegans*, a genetic screen for genes required for segregation of an extra-long
53 chromosome identified the centromeric histone CENP-A and topoisomerase II (topo II) as
54 regulators of holocentric chromosome size (Ladouceur et al., 2017). However, it is unclear
55 whether pathways that tune the length of an artificially long chromosome also operate during the
56 physiological process of mitotic chromosome scaling during embryogenesis.

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58 Mechanisms that scale the spindle and nucleus during development have been well-
59 characterized. As cell volume decreases, structural components become limiting (Good et al.,
60 2013; Hazel et al., 2013). In addition, some scaling factors are regulated by the nuclear transport
61 factor importin α , which partitions between the cytoplasm and the cell membrane and serves as
62 a sensor for the cell surface area to volume ratio (Brownlee and Heald, 2019). Previous studies
63 of mitotic chromosome scaling, performed mainly in *C. elegans*, revealed that mitotic
64 chromosome size correlates positively with cell size and nuclear size and negatively with
65 intranuclear DNA density (Hara et al., 2013; Ladouceur et al., 2015). Knockdown of importin α or

66 the chromatin-bound Ran guanine exchange factor RCC1 decreased both nuclear and mitotic
67 chromosome size (Hara et al., 2013; Ladouceur et al., 2015). Haploid embryos generated by
68 katanin knockdown contained longer mitotic chromosomes compared to diploids (Hara et al.,
69 2013). However, conserved relationships among genome size, nuclear size, and cell size
70 complicate efforts to distinguish correlation from causation of mitotic chromosome scaling.
71 Furthermore, it is unclear whether similar underlying mechanisms operate during embryogenesis
72 of vertebrates that possess larger chromosomes and more complex karyotypes.

73
74 The African clawed frog *Xenopus laevis* provides a powerful system for studying mechanisms of
75 mitotic chromosome scaling. Female frogs produce thousands of eggs that enable isolation of
76 undiluted and cell cycle-synchronized cytoplasm in the form of egg extracts that reproduce many
77 cellular processes *in vitro* including mitotic chromosome condensation (Maresca and Heald,
78 2006). In addition, fertilized eggs divide synchronously allowing extracts to be prepared from
79 embryos at different stages of development. Our previous work demonstrated that egg extracts
80 can recapitulate a decrease in chromosome size between early and late blastula stages of
81 development *in vitro* (Kieserman and Heald, 2014), but did not uncover underlying scaling
82 mechanisms. Here, we fully leverage the *Xenopus* system by systematically comparing changes
83 in mitotic chromosome size observed *in vivo* with perturbations *in vitro* to distinguish factors that
84 regulate mitotic chromosome scaling including nuclear size, spindle size, cell size, cell-cycle stage
85 and nucleo-cytoplasmic (N/C) ratio. We find that mitotic chromosomes scale continuously with
86 spindle size, even in large cells of the early embryo. We show that scaling occurs primarily through
87 differential recruitment of the DNA loop extruding motor condensin I, which alters DNA loop size
88 and thus length-wise compaction of chromosomes. Finally, we describe how two distinct
89 developmental cues, cell size and nucleocytoplasmic ratio, combine to reduce chromosome
90 length over the course of development. Together, these results create a multi-scale model for
91 how mitotic chromosome size is set in the embryo and open up new avenues for deeper

92 exploration of how changes in chromosome size and architecture contribute to early vertebrate
93 embryogenesis.

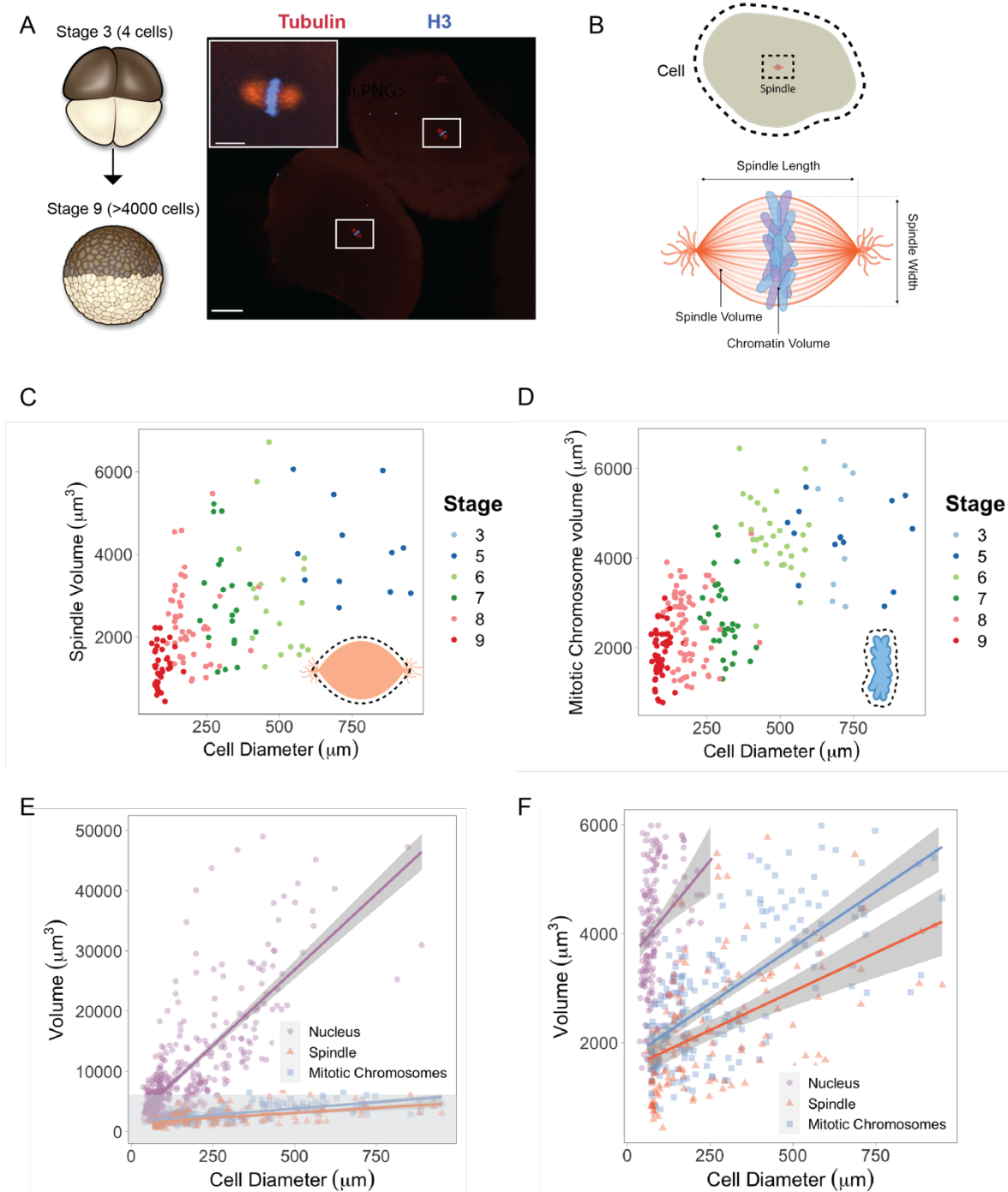
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95 **Results**

96 **Mitotic chromosomes scale continuously with cell, nuclear, and spindle size.**

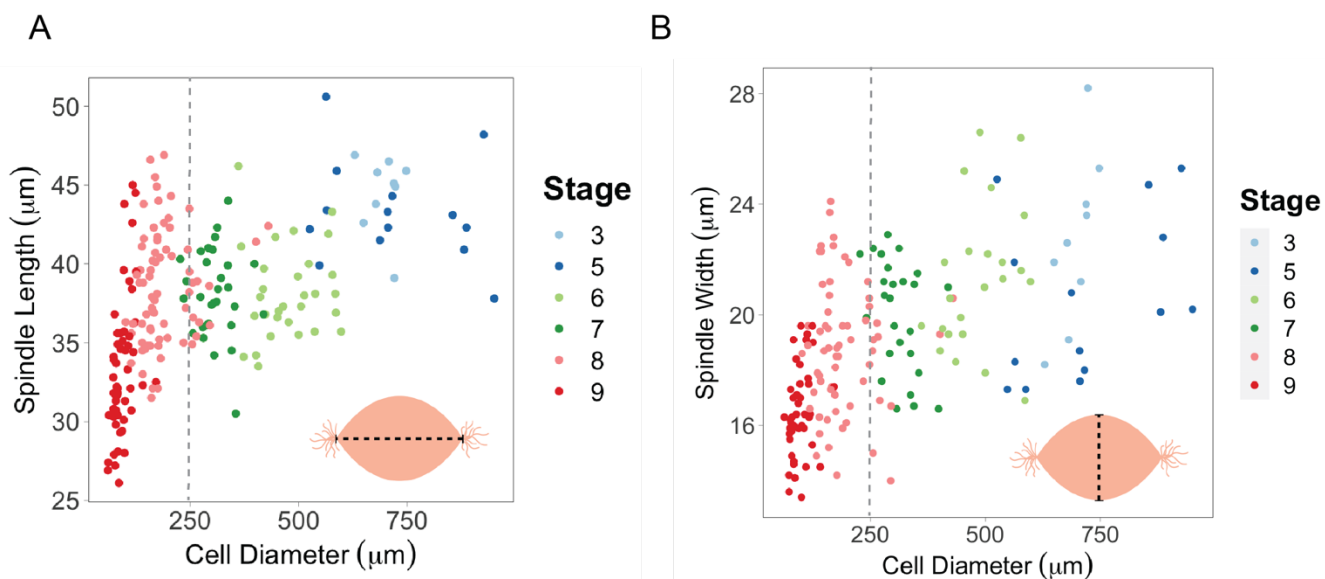
97 We reasoned that mitotic chromosome size may relate to nuclear size and content due to factors
98 associated with the DNA prior to entry into mitosis, such as histones. Alternatively, mitotic
99 chromosomes could scale with spindle size through mechanisms operating in mitosis. To
100 distinguish between these possibilities, we performed a time course of whole embryo
101 immunofluorescence through the late blastula stages of *X. laevis* development and measured the
102 dimensions of cells, spindles, and metaphase plates (Figure 1A-B). Although previous work
103 showed that spindle lengths reach a plateau in cells larger than ~200 microns in diameter (Figure
104 1-S1A, (Wühr et al., 2008)), measurement of spindle volumes by confocal microscopy revealed
105 size scaling in cells as large as 600 microns in diameter (Figure 1C), consistent with observations
106 that spindle width correlates more robustly with cell volume than spindle length in cultured cells
107 (Figure 1-S1B, (Kletter et al., 2021)). Mitotic chromosome volumes also scaled continuously with
108 cell size, similar to published work describing nuclear scaling (Figure 1D, Figure 1-S2, (Jevtić and
109 Levy, 2015)). To assess whether mitotic chromosomes scale more with nuclear size or with mitotic
110 spindle size, we binned the data by cell size and plotted average volumes of the different
111 subcellular structures. We found that mitotic chromosomes scaled remarkably well with both
112 spindles and nuclei (Figure 1-S3). However, the magnitude change in nuclear volume was far
113 greater than for mitotic structures: nuclei scaled by ~10-fold over early cleavage divisions, while
114 mitotic chromosomes and spindles scaled by 3-fold and 2-fold, respectively (Figure 1E-F). Thus,
115 the change in chromosome compaction as cells enter mitosis diminishes from 8-fold in early
116 blastula embryos to 1.5-fold in late blastula stages (Figure 1-S4). Overall, these results
117 demonstrate that mitotic chromosomes scale continuously with cell size in the early embryo and

118 suggest that mitotic chromosomes may share scaling features with both nuclei and mitotic
 119 spindles.



120 **Figure 1: Mitotic chromosomes scale continuously with cell size.** (A) Experimental scheme for whole-embryo
 121 immunofluorescence. Blastula-stage embryos were fixed during mitosis and stained with anti-histone H3 and anti-
 122 tubulin antibodies to visualize mitotic chromosomes and spindles, respectively. Representative image of two cells
 123 from a stage 6 embryo with white rectangles outlining mitotic spindles, scale bar = 100 μm . Inset: Magnified view
 124 of one of the mitotic spindles, scale bar = 20 μm . (B) Dimensions of cells and spindles were either directly measured
 or calculated (for details see Materials and Methods). (C) Measurements of spindle volume or (D) mitotic
 chromosome volume plotted against cell diameter, colored by developmental stage. (E) Volumes of spindles, nuclei
 and mitotic chromosomes all plotted against cell diameter, fit with linear models. 95% confidence intervals shown
 in gray. (F) Zoom-in of gray panel shown in (E). n = 2 biological replicates.

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128 **Figure 1, Supplement 1: Spindle lengths or widths vs. cell size.** (A) Spindle lengths and (B) widths
129 plotted against cell diameter. Gray dotted lines show that spindle lengths plateau at around 250 μm while
130 spindle widths continue to increase.

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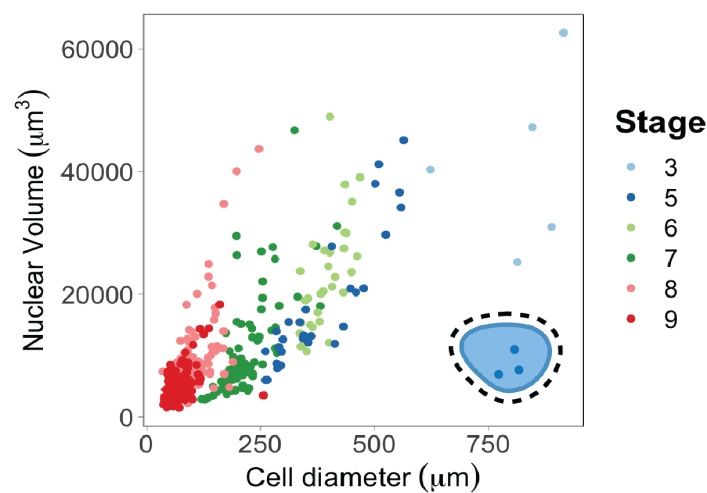
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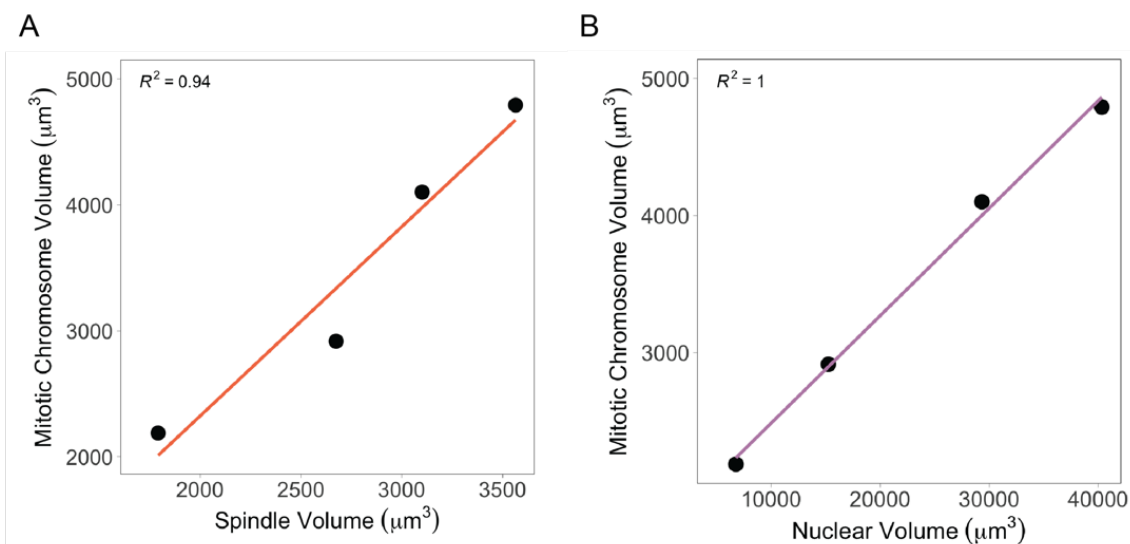
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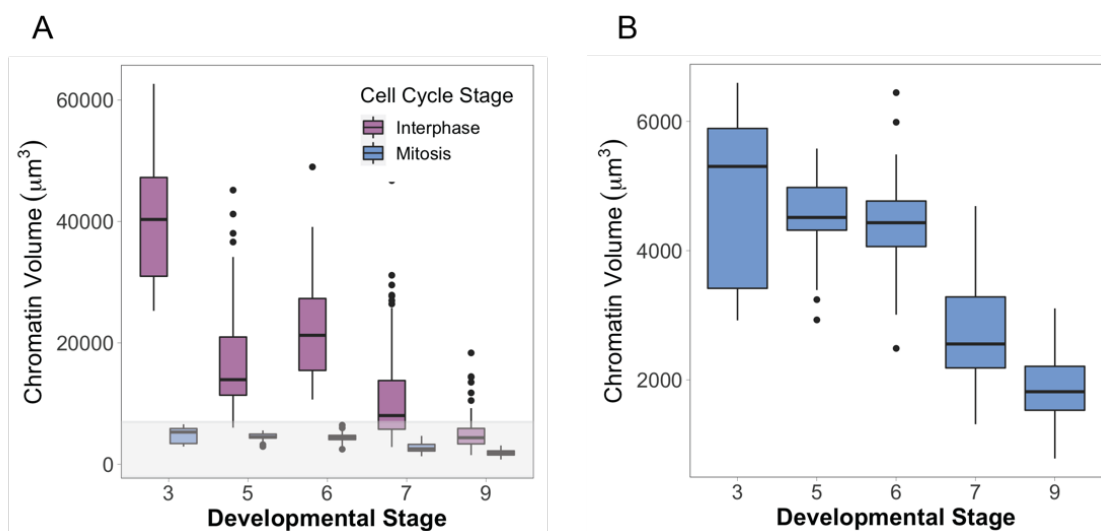
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148 **Figure 1, Supplement 2: Nuclear volumes scale continuously with cell size.** Nuclear volumes plotted
149 against cell diameter. Raw data used with permission from Jevtić and Levy, *Current Biology* 2015.



159 **Figure 1, Supplement 3: Mitotic chromosomes scale linearly with both nuclei and spindles.** (A)
160 Average mitotic chromosomes volumes plotted against (A) spindle volumes or (B) nuclear volumes, binned
161 by cell diameter (bin 1 = 35.1 – 219 μm, bin 2 = 219 – 402 μm, bin 3 = 402 – 585 μm, bin 4 = 585-768 μm).
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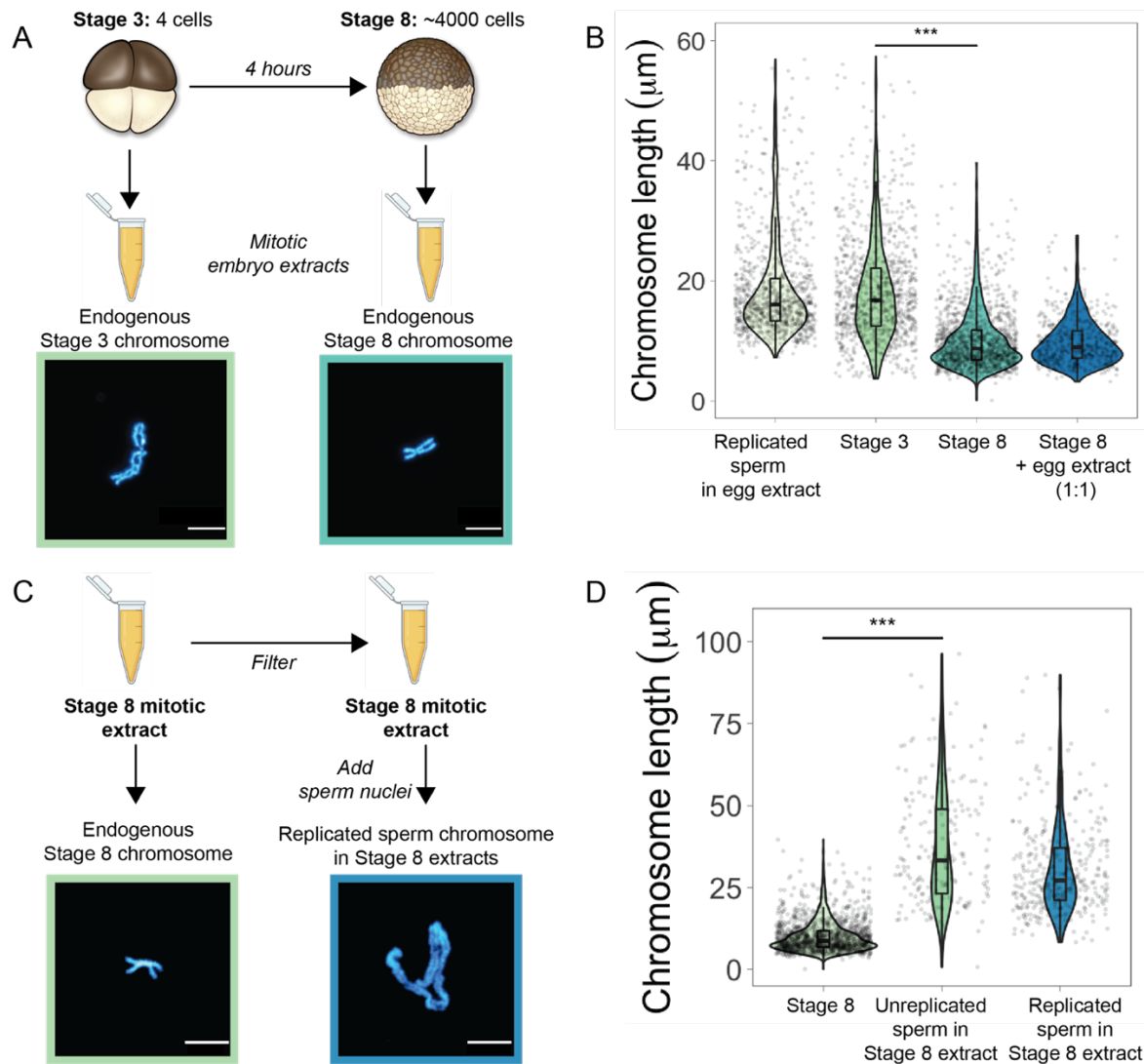
163 **Figure 1, Supplement 4: Nuclear vs. mitotic chromatin volumes during early cleavage divisions.** (A)
164 Chromatin volumes, either in interphase (purple) or metaphase (blue), binned by developmental stage. (B)
165 Zoomed-in view of data shown in the gray panel in (A), only for mitotic chromosomes.
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168 **Mitotic chromosomes scale length-wise.**

169 To examine how morphologies of individual mitotic chromosomes change during development,
170 we prepared mitotic cell extracts from stage 3 (4-cell) or stage 8 (~4000-cell) embryos (Wilbur
171 and Heald, 2013) and centrifuged single endogenous mitotic chromosomes onto coverslips for
172 size measurements. We found that median chromosome lengths decreased ~2-fold between
173 stage 3 and stage 8 (Figure 2A-B), similar to the magnitude of mitotic chromosome scaling during
174 this period estimated by whole-embryo immunofluorescence (~2-3-fold, Figure 1D) and indicating
175 that shortening of the long axis is the predominant metric underlying mitotic chromosome scaling
176 during early embryogenesis. We also observed that the median length of endogenous stage 3
177 mitotic chromosomes was not statistically different from that of replicated sperm chromosomes
178 formed in egg extracts (Figure 2B), demonstrating that replicated sperm chromosomes formed in
179 egg extracts serve as a proxy for mitotic chromosome size during the earliest cell divisions.

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181 Previously, it was shown that mixing mitotic extracts prepared from early and late blastula stage
182 embryos resulted in spindles of intermediate size due to equilibration of cytoplasmic spindle
183 scaling factors (Wilbur and Heald, 2013). Likewise, combining interphase extracts at different
184 ratios from two *Xenopus* species with different sized nuclei produced a graded effect on nuclear
185 size (Levy and Heald, 2010). To test whether a similar mechanism operates on mitotic
186 chromosomes, we combined metaphase-arrested egg extracts in a 1:1 ratio with stage 8 mitotic
187 embryo extracts containing endogenous mitotic chromosomes (Figure 2B). However, we
188 observed no increase in chromosome length, indicating that mitotic chromosome scaling factors
189 are not exchangeable in the cytoplasm during metaphase. To test whether mitotic chromosome
190 scaling could occur if initiated before the onset of chromosome condensation, we filtered stage 8
191 extracts to remove endogenous chromosomes and added back unreplicated sperm
192 chromosomes or sperm nuclei that had undergone replication in egg extracts (Figure 2C). In both
193 cases, sperm chromosomes were at least 2-fold longer than the endogenous stage 8

194 chromosomes (Figure 2D). Thus, mitotic chromosome size is predominantly set by factors loaded
195 during interphase that are not exchangeable, making mitotic chromosome scaling fundamentally
196 distinct from nuclear or spindle size scaling.



197

198 **Figure 2: Mitotic chromosomes scale length-wise.** (A) Mitotic extracts were prepared from stage 3 or
199 stage 8 embryos and endogenous, individual mitotic chromosomes were centrifuged onto coverslips and
200 stained with Hoechst DNA dye. Representative images of stage 3 and stage 8 chromosomes are shown.
201 (B) Length distributions of sperm mitotic chromosomes replicated in egg extract, mitotic chromosomes
202 isolated from embryo extracts and stage 8 embryo extract chromosomes after mixing 1:1 with egg extract.
203 (C) Stage 8 extracts were filtered to remove endogenous chromosomes, then unreplicated or replicated
204 sperm nuclei were added to form mitotic chromosomes. Representative images of endogenous stage 8
205 chromosome or replicated sperm chromosome formed in stage 8 extracts shown here. (D) Quantification
206 of chromosome lengths for the experiment shown in (C). n=3 biological replicates, >50 chromosomes per
207 replicate. Scale bar = 10 μm . *** denotes p < 0.001 by one-way ANOVA statistical testing.

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210 **Mitotic chromosome size is determined by nuclear factors during interphase.**

211 The results above indicated that mitotic chromosome size is largely determined by nuclear rather
212 than cytoplasmic factors. Consistent with this idea, we confirmed previous results that G2-
213 arrested nuclei from blastula-stage embryos added to metaphase egg extracts produced mitotic
214 chromosomes ~2-fold shorter than replicated sperm chromosomes formed in the same extract
215 (Figure 3A, C; (Kieserman and Heald, 2014)). This finding suggested that mitotic chromosome
216 size is determined prior to entry into metaphase, likely by chromatin factors loaded during
217 interphase. The 2-fold difference in chromosome size was also recapitulated in extracts depleted
218 of membranes through ultracentrifugation, which are unable to form spindles but are competent
219 for mitotic chromosome assembly, indicating that spindle formation is not required for mitotic
220 chromosome scaling (Figure 3-S1). Previous work in *C. elegans* suggested that mitotic
221 chromosome size correlates with intranuclear density and nuclear size (Hara et al., 2013), but we
222 observed that embryo nuclei were larger than interphase sperm nuclei, and mitotic spindles
223 formed in egg extracts with these two sources of nuclei were indistinguishable in size (Figure 3-
224 S2). These data further suggest that scaling of spindles, nuclei and mitotic spindles are not
225 necessarily coordinated.

226
227 Interestingly, although mitotic chromosome scaling could be recapitulated by adding embryo
228 nuclei to metaphase-arrested egg extracts, chromosome morphologies were distinct. The
229 separation of sister chromatid arms resulting in X-shaped mitotic chromosomes in both stage 3
230 and stage 8 mitotic embryo extracts (Figure 2A) was not observed when stage 8 embryo nuclei
231 were added to egg extracts, as chromosome arms remained tightly associated along their lengths
232 (Figure 3B). Taken together, these results indicate that factors determining mitotic chromosome
233 size remain associated with G2-arrested embryo nuclei when placed into metaphase egg extracts,
234 while factors required for regulating sister chromatid arm cohesion do not.

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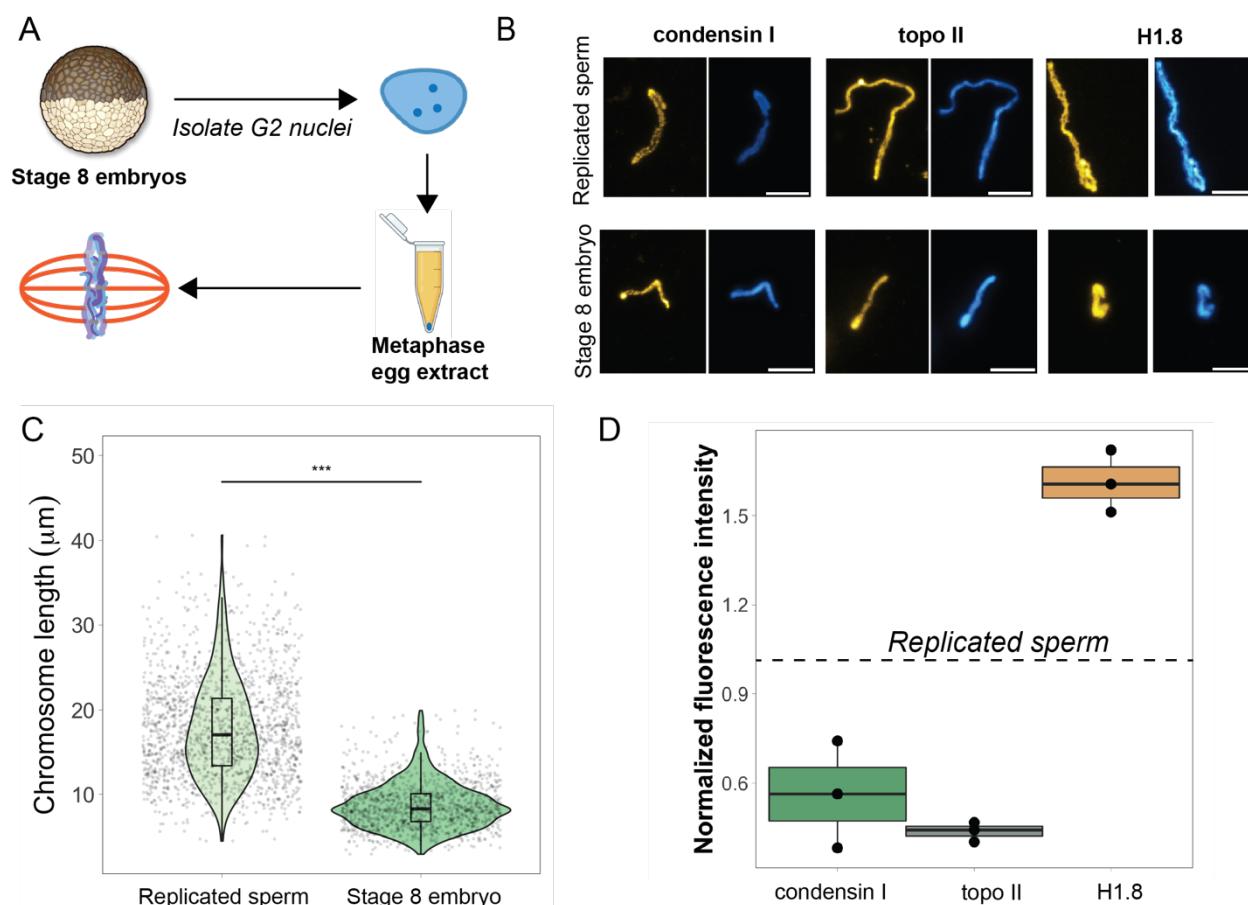
236 **Chromosome scaling correlates with differential recruitment of condensin I, topo II, and**
237 **histone H1.8.**

238 Robust recapitulation of chromosome scaling in metaphase-arrested egg extracts enabled
239 molecular-level analysis of potential scaling factors, which was not technically feasible in embryo
240 extracts that cannot transit the cell cycle *in vitro*. We examined three proteins known to influence
241 chromosome size and morphology in *Xenopus*, condensin I (the predominant condensin in
242 *Xenopus* eggs), topoisomerase II (topo II), and the maternal linker histone, termed H1.8 (Maresca
243 et al., 2005; Nielsen et al., 2020; Shintomi and Hirano, 2011). After performing immunostaining of
244 short embryo chromosomes or long sperm chromosomes formed in the same egg extracts, the
245 abundance of each factor was calculated by normalizing immunofluorescence signal to DNA dye
246 intensity (Figure 3B, see Materials and Methods). We found that short embryo chromosomes
247 contained less condensin I and topo II, but more H1.8 relative to long replicated sperm
248 chromosomes (Figure 3D). These results are consistent with studies showing that depletion of
249 H1.8 from egg extracts lengthens mitotic chromosomes (Maresca et al., 2005). Furthermore, it
250 was recently shown that H1.8 inhibits binding of condensin I and topo II to mitotic chromosomes
251 (Choppakatla et al., 2021). Therefore, differential recruitment of condensin, topo II, or H1.8 may
252 contribute to mitotic chromosome scaling during embryogenesis.

253
254 Our previous work showed that short embryo chromosomes could be reset to lengths observed
255 in replicated sperm samples by cycling the mitotic chromosomes through an additional interphase
256 in egg extracts (Figure 3-S3A; (Kieserman and Heald, 2014)). To test whether the abundance of
257 candidate scaling factors was affected, we performed immunofluorescence on mitotic embryo
258 chromosomes before and after the additional interphase. We found that the abundance of all three
259 factors on mitotic chromosomes increased on the embryo chromosomes (Figure 3-SC-F), which
260 also doubled in length (Figure 3-S3B). Of the three factors, condensin I levels increased the most
261 (2-fold), returning to levels found on replicated sperm chromosomes (Figure 3-S3C). Our

262 observation that H1.8 levels increased slightly after the second metaphase suggests that
263 condensin I abundance is not necessarily regulated by H1.8, and that condensin I can override
264 the condensation activity of H1 to lengthen embryo chromosomes.

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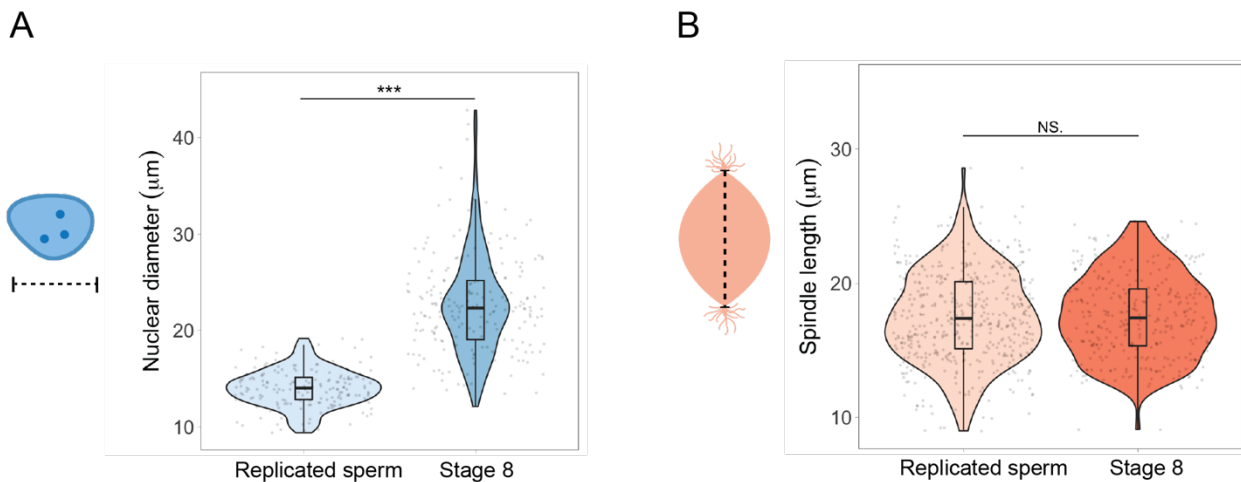
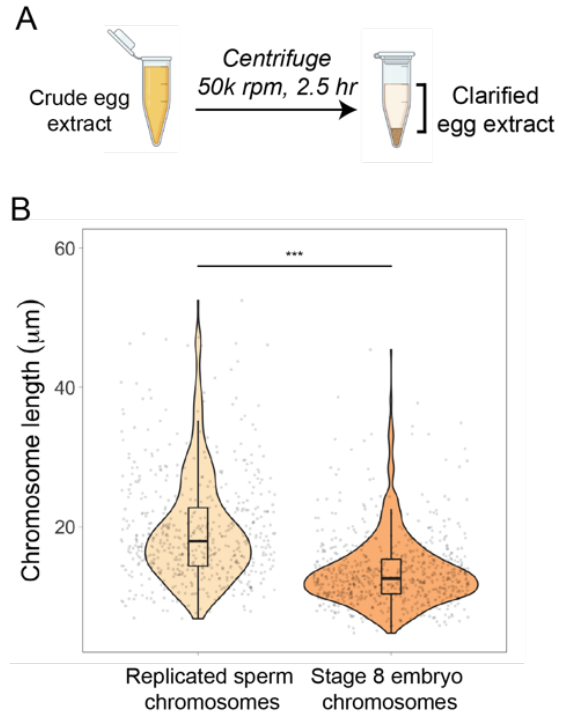


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267 **Figure 3: Egg extracts recapitulate mitotic chromosome scaling through differential recruitment of**
268 **condensin I, topo II, and histone H1.8.** (A) Experimental scheme. Stage 8 embryos arrested in G2 with
269 cycloheximide were used to prepare extracts, then embryo nuclei were pelleted and added to metaphase-
270 arrested egg extracts to form mitotic spindles and chromosomes. (B) Representative images of mitotic
271 chromosomes prepared by adding replicated sperm nuclei (top) or stage 8 embryo nuclei (bottom) to
272 metaphase egg extracts, and stained with antibodies for condensin I, topo II or H1.8. Scale bar = 10 μm.
273 (C) Lengths of replicated sperm chromosomes or stage 8 embryo chromosomes formed in metaphase egg
274 extracts. n>3 biological replicates, >50 chromosomes per replicate. *** denotes p < 0.001 by one-way
275 ANOVA statistical testing. (D) Abundances of topo II, condensin I and H1.8 (calculated by normalizing
276 immunofluorescence signal to Hoechst signal, see Materials and Methods for details) on short embryo
277 chromosomes normalized to long sperm chromosomes (shown by dotted line), from three different extracts.
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Figure 3, Supplement 1: Clarified egg extracts recapitulate mitotic chromosome scaling. (A) Crude extracts were centrifuged at high speed to pellet membranes. (B) Quantification of mitotic chromosome lengths from either replicated sperm nuclei or stage 8 embryo nuclei added to clarified metaphase egg extracts. n=3 biological replicates, >50 chromosomes per replicate. *** denotes $p < 0.001$ by one-way ANOVA statistical testing.



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Figure 3, Supplement 2: Nuclei and spindles do not scale with mitotic chromosome size in egg extracts. (A) Diameters of replicated sperm nuclei or stage 8 embryo nuclei just before placing into metaphase egg extracts. (B) Lengths of spindles formed around either replicated sperm nuclei or embryo nuclei in metaphase egg extracts. n=3 biological replicates, >50 structures per replicate. *** denotes $p < 0.001$ by one-way ANOVA statistical testing.

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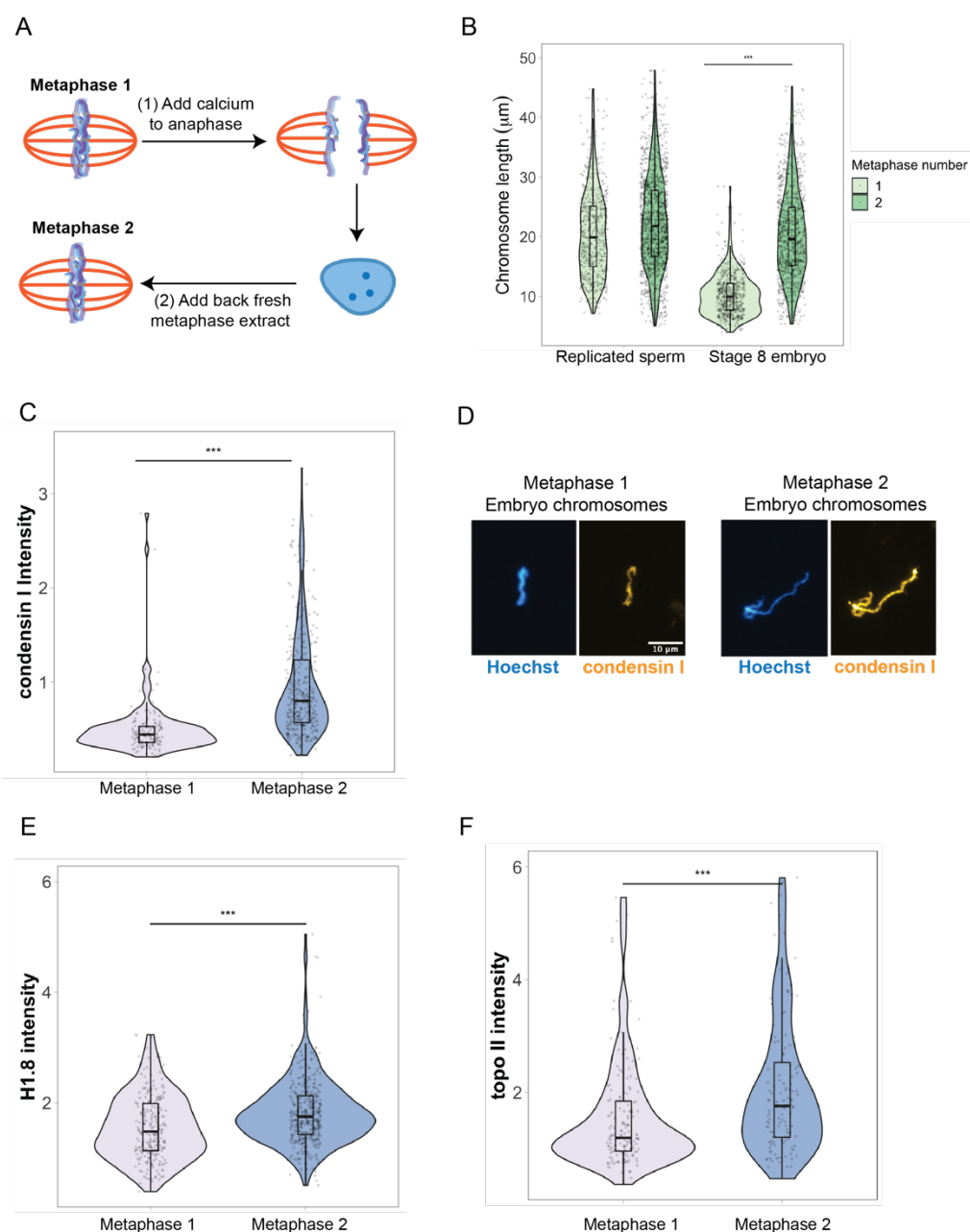


Figure 3, Supplement 3: Scaling factors are re-loaded onto embryo chromosomes after an additional interphase in egg extracts. (A) Schematic of anaphase experiment. Calcium is added to send metaphase spindles containing embryo chromosomes into anaphase, and then interphase. After nuclei formed, fresh metaphase extract was added to trigger mitotic chromosome formation. (B) Quantification of chromosome lengths for the first and second metaphase comparing replicated sperm and stage 8 embryo mitotic chromosomes. (C) Abundance of condensin I on stage 8 embryo chromosomes in the first or second metaphase. (D) Representative images of embryo chromosomes from metaphase 1 or metaphase 2, stained for condensin I. (E-F) Abundance of H1.8 and topo II on stage 8 embryo chromosomes in the first or second metaphase. Based on median values, condensin I increased 2-fold, H1.8 increased 1.2-fold and topo II increased 1.5 fold from the first to second metaphase. $n=3$ biological replicates, >50 chromosomes per replicate. *** denotes $p < 0.001$ by one-way ANOVA statistical testing.

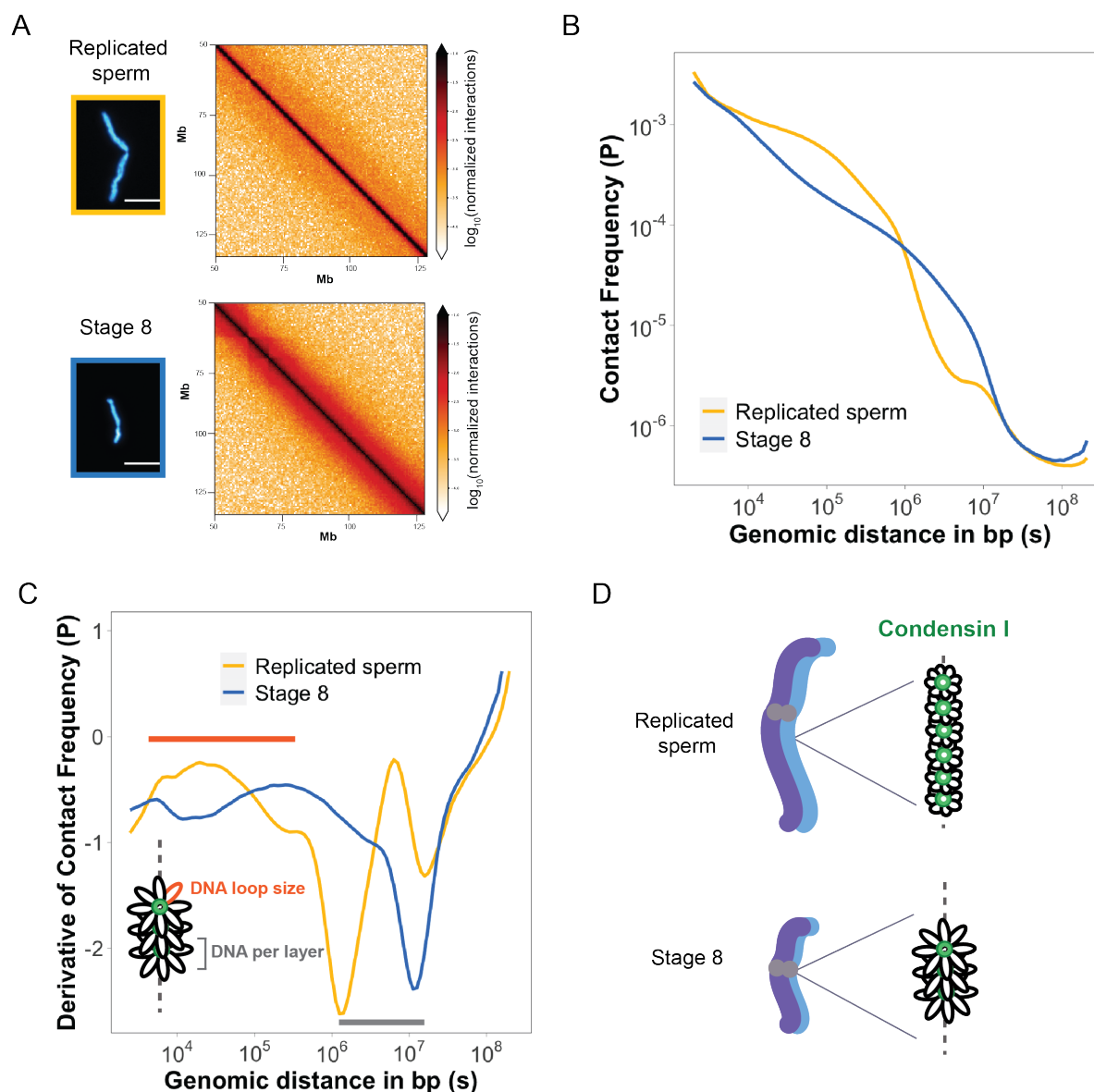
365 **Mitotic chromosomes scale through extensive remodeling of DNA loop architecture.**

366 Condensin shapes mitotic chromosomes through its ability to form and extrude loops from the
367 central axis (Ganji et al., 2018; Goloborodko et al., 2016). *In silico* models of loop extrusion activity
368 suggested that tuning the abundance of condensin could dramatically alter DNA loop architecture
369 and thus chromosome dimensions (Goloborodko et al., 2016). However, these models have not
370 been tested under physiological conditions that relate to chromosome size changes *in vivo*.

371
372 To assess how DNA loop size and arrangement is altered in the context of mitotic chromosome
373 scaling, we performed Hi-C on long sperm chromosomes and short embryo chromosomes formed
374 in egg extracts. Hi-C contact maps indicate that short embryo chromosomes had increased
375 genomic contacts along their entire length, as evidenced by thickening of the diagonal (Figure
376 4A). To quantify this effect, we plotted the decay of contact frequencies (P) as a function of
377 genomic distance in bp (s) (Figure 4B). We find that the shape of $P(s)$ is similar to what we
378 observed in earlier work for mitotic chromosomes from human, chicken and *Xenopus*
379 (Choppakatla et al., 2021; Gibcus et al., 2018; Naumova et al., 2013), and for rod-shaped
380 dinoflagellate chromosomes (Nand et al., 2021). $P(s)$ is characterized by two regimes: an initial
381 regime where the slope is rather small, followed by a regime where the slope is much steeper.
382 We have shown that this shape is characteristic of compact rod-shaped chromosomes that are
383 organized in layers (Naumova et al., 2013), and the genomic distance where the slope suddenly
384 increases is related to the amount of DNA that is packed per layer. Loci within a layer often
385 interact, but loci separated by a genomic distance that is larger than the layer size rarely do
386 because of the stiffness of the chromosome. Within a layer, chromosomes are organized as loops,
387 the size of which can be estimated from the derivative of $P(s)$ (Johan H. Gibcus et al., 2018), the
388 loop size is around where the derivative displays a maximum (Figure 4C).

389

390 We find that $P(s)$ for short embryo chromosomes differ in two ways from long sperm
391 chromosomes. First the layer size is larger, i.e., $\sim 10^7$ bp vs. 10^6 bp (Figure 4C, gray bar), which
392 would be expected for shorter chromosomes where more DNA is packed within a cross-section
393 of a chromosome. Second, DNA loop size is considerably larger for short embryo chromosomes,
394 as is visible in a rightward shift in the peak of the derivative of $P(s)$ (Figure 4C, orange bar). This
395 analysis, combined with our immunofluorescence results from Figure 3, is consistent with a model
396 where mitotic chromosomes scale through decreased recruitment of condensin I, resulting in
397 larger DNA loops and more DNA per layer, thus accommodating more DNA on a shorter
398 chromosome axis (Figure 4D).



399

400 **Figure 4: Mitotic chromosomes scale through extensive remodeling of DNA loop architecture.** (A)
 401 Hi-C maps of chromosome 4S from replicated sperm or stage 8 embryo chromosomes formed in
 402 metaphase egg extracts. (B) Plots comparing how contact frequency (P) genome-wide decays as a function
 403 of genomic distance (s) for replicated sperm (yellow) or stage 8 mitotic chromosomes (blue). (C) Derivative
 404 of contact frequencies from (B). Based on previous models, the difference in inflection point at 10^4 - 10^6 bp
 405 represents a difference in loop size (orange), while the difference in inflection point at 10^6 - 10^7 bp represents
 406 a difference in DNA per layer (gray). (D) Model depicting how lower condensin I occupancy on short embryo
 407 chromosomes results in an increase in DNA loop size and DNA per layer. $n = 2$ biological replicates.
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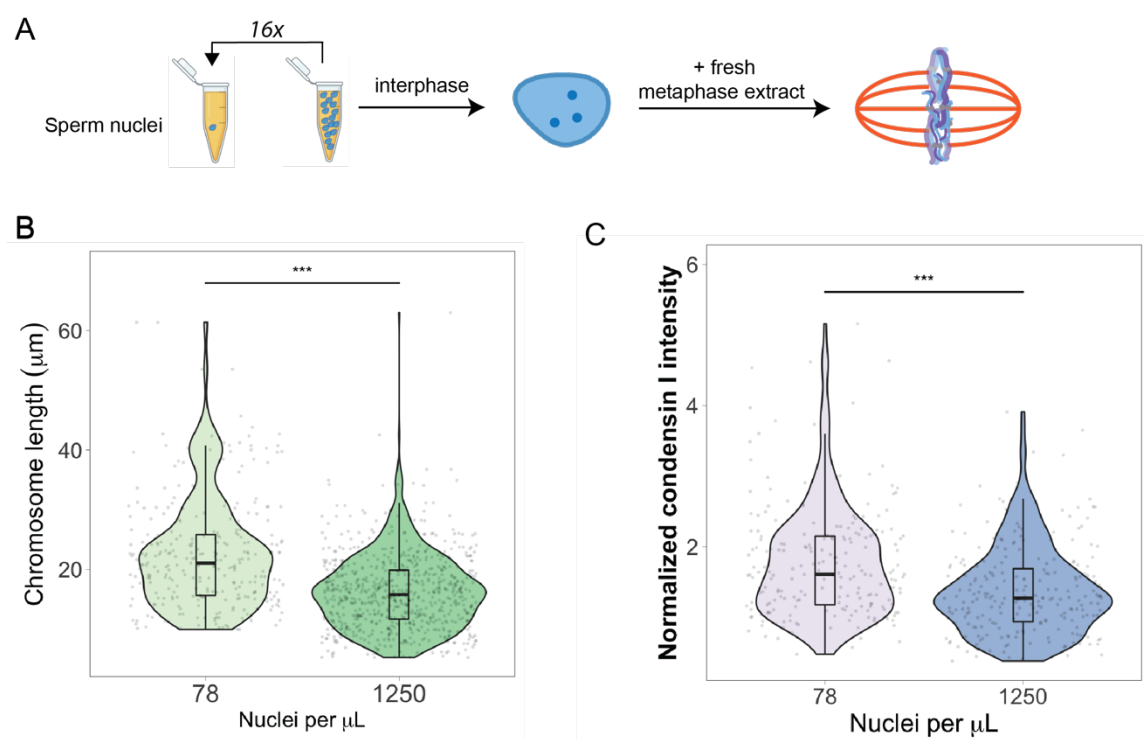
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411 **Nucleo-cytoplasmic ratio regulates mitotic chromosome scaling, but not nuclear or**
412 **spindle scaling**

413 We next investigated the developmental cues that could decrease the abundance of condensin I
414 on mitotic chromosomes as they scale during development. Characteristic features of cleavage
415 divisions during early embryogenesis are the lack of cell growth and minimal gene expression,
416 resulting in exponentially increasing copies of the genome within the same total volume and
417 content of cytoplasm. The increase in nucleo-cytoplasmic (N/C) ratio, defined here as the number
418 of nuclei per volume of cytoplasm, titrates a finite maternal pool of DNA binding factors that are
419 distributed to more and more genomes over time, thus lowering their abundance per genome.
420 This effect is thought to underlie activation of zygotic transcription at the mid-blastula transition
421 (Amodeo et al., 2015), and titration of the histone chaperone Npm2 was shown to play a role in
422 nuclear scaling (Chen et al., 2019).

423 To test whether N/C ratio could play a role in mitotic chromosome scaling, we varied the
424 concentration of sperm nuclei at two different densities corresponding to early (~75 sperm
425 nuclei/ μ l) and late (~1250 nuclei/ μ l) blastula stage embryos (Figure 5A). We first allowed these
426 nuclei to replicate in interphase egg extracts, then added back fresh metaphase extracts before
427 analyzing mitotic chromosome lengths and abundances of condensin I, topo II and H1.8. We
428 found that increasing N/C ratio decreased mitotic chromosome size by ~1.5 fold (Figure 5B),
429 consistent with the difference observed *in vivo* at the stages of development that correspond to
430 the N/C ratios tested (Stage 6-7, Figure 1D). This 1.5-fold change in chromosome size also
431 correlated with a 1.5-fold decrease in condensin I abundance on mitotic chromosomes (Figure
432 5C), and with less significant changes for H1.8 and topo II abundance (Figure 5-S1). Interestingly
433 we found that increasing N/C ratio did not significantly affect nuclear size and actually led to an
434 increase in spindle size (Figure 5-S2), suggesting that N/C ratio is only sufficient to scale mitotic
435 chromosome size during embryogenesis.

436 To examine whether the titration effect of chromosome factors observed *in vitro*
437 corresponded to changes in their abundance during development *in vivo*, we measured levels of
438 condensin I, H3 and histone H1.8 on embryo nuclei isolated from different stages. As predicted,
439 although protein concentrations in embryos did not change over the course of the early cleavage
440 divisions (Figure 5-S3A), levels of all factors on interphase nuclei decreased as genome copy
441 number increased (Figure 5-S3B). Furthermore, adding different concentrations of stage 8
442 embryo nuclei to egg extracts did not significantly change mitotic chromosome size (Figure 5-S4),
443 consistent with the idea that titration of maternal factors had already occurred in the embryo, and
444 that interphase factors set chromosome size during metaphase. Together these observations
445 confirm that maternally loaded factors are titrated onto newly synthesized copies of the genome,
446 and that increasing N/C ratio is sufficient to shorten mitotic chromosomes, likely by decreasing
447 levels of condensin I.



448
449 **Figure 5: Nucleo-cytoplasmic ratio regulates mitotic chromosome scaling, but not nuclear or**
450 **spindle scaling.** (A) Concentration of sperm nuclei in egg extracts was varied 16-fold to mimic
451 concentrations found in early (78 nuclei/ μL) vs. late (1250 nuclei/ μL) blastula stages. (B) Quantification of

452 mitotic chromosome lengths and (C) condensin I intensities, normalized to Hoechst signal, in samples
453 containing high or low concentrations of sperm nuclei. n=3 biological replicates, >50 chromosomes per
454 replicate, *** denotes p <0.001 by one-way ANOVA statistical testing.

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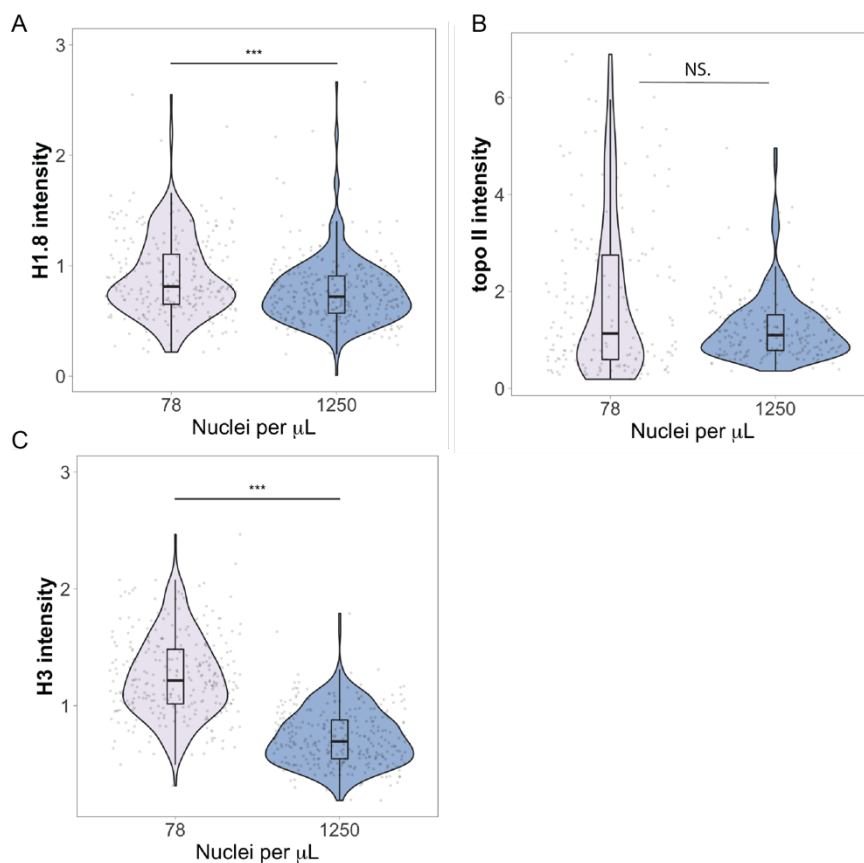
488 **Figure 5, Supplement 1: topo II and H1.8 exhibit less of a titration effect than condensin I.**

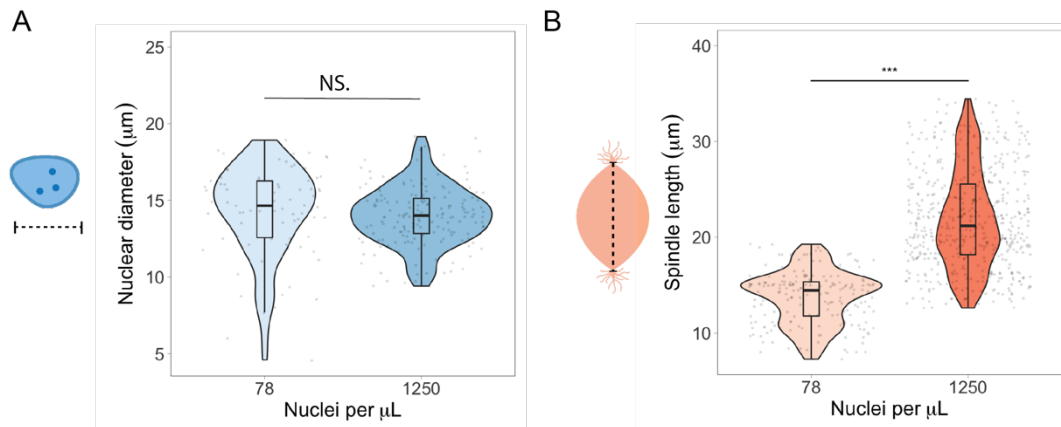
489 Normalized fluorescence intensity of (A) H1.8, (B) topo II, and (C) H3 on sperm mitotic chromosomes in
490 samples containing low or high concentrations of nuclei. n=3 biological replicates, >50 chromosomes per
491 replicate, *** denotes p <0.001 by one-way ANOVA statistical testing.

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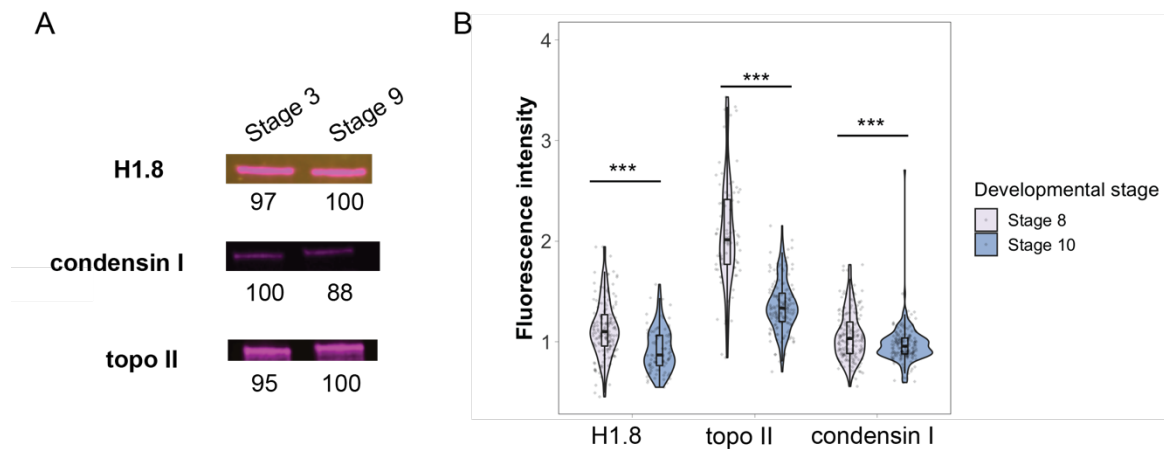
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 496 **Figure 5, Supplement 2: N/C ratio does not regulate spindle or nuclear size.** (A) Nuclear diameters
 497 plotted for samples containing low or high concentrations of sperm nuclei. (B) Spindle lengths plotted for
 498 samples containing low or high concentrations of sperm nuclei. n=3 biological replicates, >50 structures
 499 per replicate, *** denotes p < 0.001 by one-way ANOVA statistical testing.

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 507 **Figure 5, Supplement 3: Titration of nuclear factors during embryogenesis.** (A) Western blots of
 508 whole embryo extracts from early (stage 3) or late (stage 9) blastula stages. Numbers below each band
 509 indicate the relative differences in signal intensity, normalized to the highest intensity band for that
 510 antibody. (B) Immunofluorescence of nuclei from stage 8 or 10 embryos showing the depletion of nuclear
 511 factors in later stages. n=3 biological replicates, >50 chromosomes per replicate, and *** denotes p
 512 < 0.001 by one-way ANOVA statistical testing.

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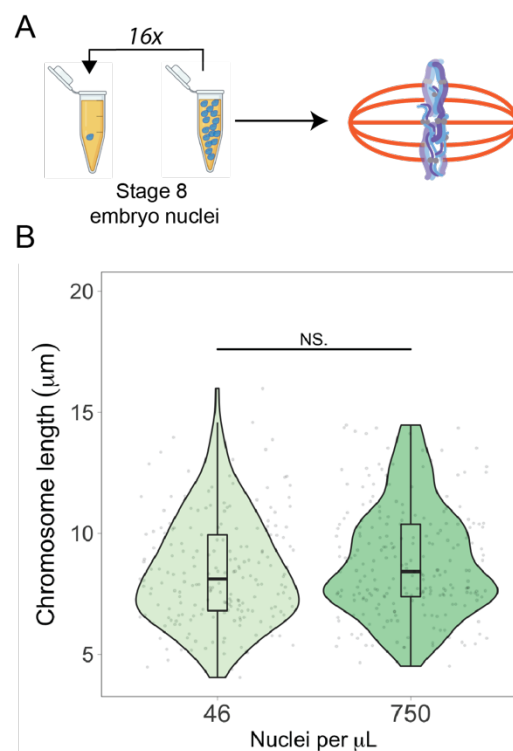


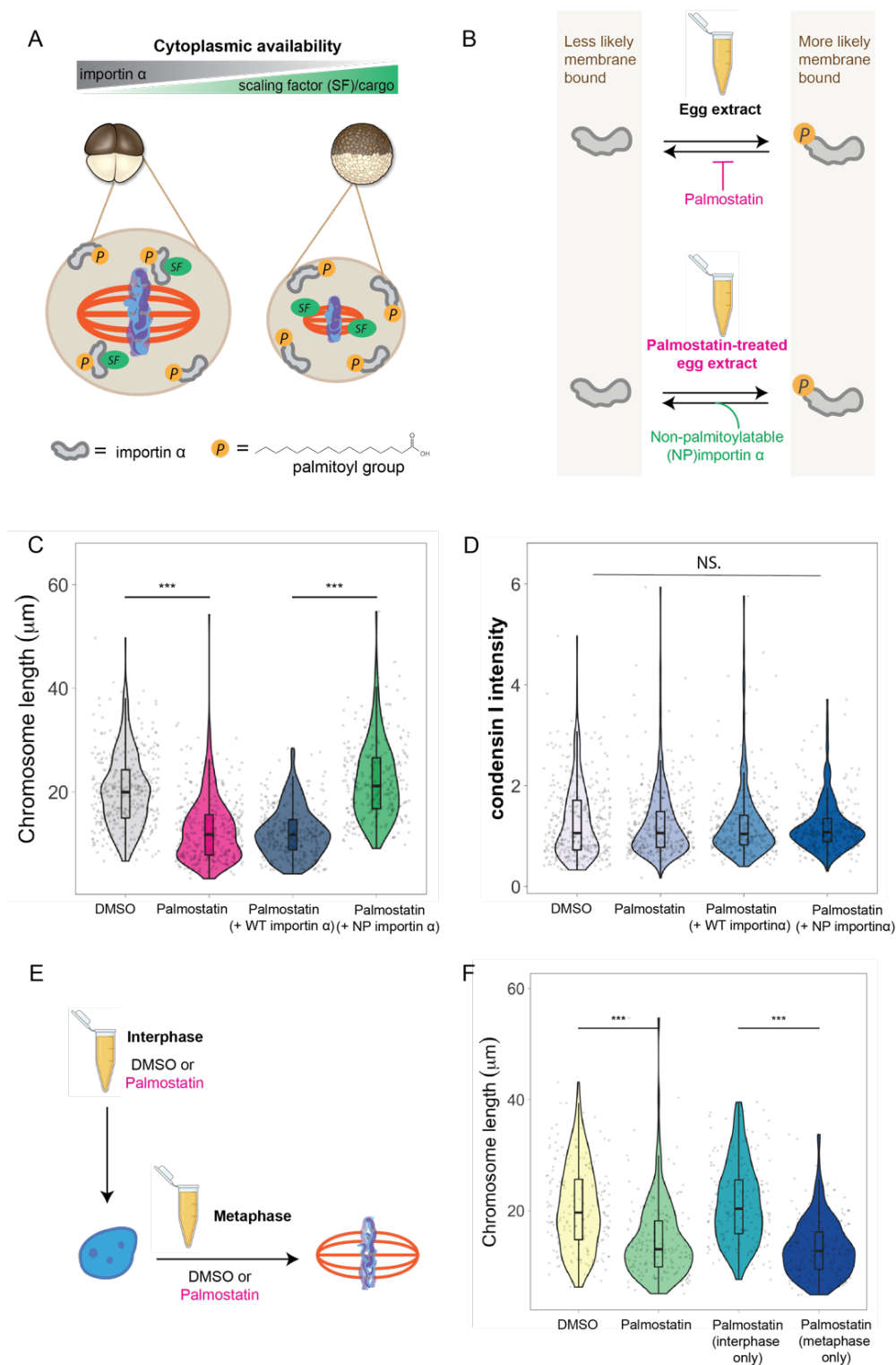
Figure 5, Supplement 4: Embryo mitotic chromosome lengths are not affected by nuclei density.

(A) Schematic of experiment. Stage 8 embryo nuclei were added to metaphase egg extracts at N/C ratios spanning a 16-fold range. (B) Quantification of mitotic chromosome lengths in samples containing high or low concentrations of stage 8 embryo nuclei. n=3 biological replicates, >50 chromosomes per replicate, and *** denotes p <0.001 by one-way ANOVA statistical testing.

554 **Importin α partitioning scales mitotic chromosomes to spindle and cell size.**

555 A major developmental cue central to the scaling of nuclei and spindles is cell size. We previously
556 identified importin α as a factor that coordinately scales nuclei and spindles to cell size by
557 regulating nuclear import of lamin proteins and the activity of a microtubule destabilizing protein,
558 respectively (Brownlee and Heald, 2019; Levy and Heald, 2010; Wilbur and Heald, 2013).
559 Palmitoylation of importin α drives a subset of the total population to the cell membrane, where it
560 can no longer interact with its nuclear localization sequence (NLS)-containing cargo that scale
561 mitotic spindles (Figure 6A). As cell size decreases during early cleavage divisions, cell surface
562 area/volume (SA/V) increases, causing more importin α to be driven to the membrane and more
563 scaling factors to be released into the cytoplasm (Figure 6A; (Brownlee and Heald, 2019)). To
564 address whether importin α also plays a role in mitotic chromosome scaling, we treated egg
565 extracts with palmostatin, an inhibitor of the major depalmitoylation enzyme APT1 to increase the
566 pool of palmitoylated importin α , thus mimicking smaller cells with higher cell SA/V (Figure 6B;
567 (Dekker et al., 2010)). We found that mitotic chromosome size decreased with palmostatin
568 treatment and was fully rescued by the addition of recombinantly purified importin α that cannot
569 be palmitoylated (NP importin α), but not by addition of wild-type (WT) importin α (Figure 6B-
570 C). Surprisingly, we found no significant difference in condensin I abundance on mitotic
571 chromosomes formed in either DMSO or palmostatin-treated extracts (Figure 6D), suggesting
572 that importin α partitioning acts separately from the N/C pathway to scale mitotic chromosomes.
573 To determine when in the cell cycle palmostatin was affecting importin α cargos, we added it to
574 extracts either before interphase or following entry into metaphase (Figure 6E). Interestingly,
575 analogous to effects on spindle size but not nuclear size (Brownlee and Heald, 2019), we found
576 that palmostatin treatment during metaphase was sufficient to scale mitotic chromosomes (Figure
577 6F). Together these results demonstrate that partitioning of importin α during metaphase scales
578 mitotic chromosomes to spindle and cell size in a condensin I-independent pathway.

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630 **Figure 6: Importin α partitioning scales mitotic chromosomes to spindle and cell size.** (A) Model for
631 how importin α scales mitotic spindles to cell size. Due to palmitoylation of importin α , a portion of it is
632 driven to the cell membrane, where it can no longer interact with nuclear localization sequence (NLS)-
633 containing scaling factors, freeing them to shrink the mitotic spindle. As cell surface area/volume (SA/V)
634 increases during embryogenesis, proportionally more importin α is driven to the membrane, thus increasing

635 the cytoplasmic availability of scaling factors. (B) Top, Inhibition of the major depalmitoylation enzyme APT1
636 in egg extracts mimics smaller cells by increasing the proportion of palmitoylated, membrane-bound
637 importin α . Bottom, addition of non-palmitoylatable (NP) importin α should rescue chromosome size in
638 palmostatin-treated egg extracts by increasing the proportion of cytoplasmic importin α . (C) Quantification
639 of mitotic chromosome lengths in palmostatin-treated extracts and rescue of chromosome length by
640 addition of non-palmitoylatable (NP) importin α but not by wild-type (WT) importin α . (D) Quantification of
641 condensin I intensity for the samples shown in (C). (E) Schematic of experiment to test whether importin α
642 partitioning plays a role in chromosome scaling during interphase or metaphase. (F) Quantification of
643 chromosome lengths for experiment described in (E). n=3 biological replicates, >50 chromosomes per
644 replicate, and *** denotes p <0.001 by one-way ANOVA statistical testing.

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647 **Discussion**

648 The results described here provide a comprehensive view of how mitotic chromosome size is
649 regulated by different developmental cues during early cleavage divisions of *Xenopus* embryos.
650 Our data suggest that mitotic chromosomes coordinately scale with spindle and cell size through
651 importin α partitioning. Additionally, increasing N/C ratio is sufficient to scale mitotic chromosomes
652 through decreased recruitment of condensin I, resulting in increased DNA loop and layer size and
653 length-wise compaction. As detailed below, our findings have important implications for the
654 interplay between subcellular scaling and chromosome structure during early embryogenesis.

655

656 Mitotic chromosome size is not necessarily coupled to nuclear and spindle size. Previous work in
657 *C. elegans* showed that mitotic chromosome size correlated positively with nuclear size and
658 negatively with intranuclear density (Hara et al., 2013; Ladouceur et al., 2015). However, in egg
659 extracts, mitotic chromosome size does not necessarily correlate with spindle and nuclear size.
660 G2-arrested stage 8 embryo nuclei, which contain both the maternal and paternal genomes, are
661 almost 2-fold larger than replicated sperm nuclei (Figure 3-S2A), consistent with a 2-fold increase
662 in genome content. Yet when added to metaphase egg extracts, they form mitotic chromosomes
663 that are 2-fold shorter than replicated sperm chromosomes (Figure 3C), demonstrating that mitotic
664 chromosomes don't necessarily scale to either intranuclear density or nuclear size. We also
665 showed that though mitotic chromosomes scale continuously with spindle size *in vivo* (Figure 1),

666 this correlation is abolished *in vitro* (Figure 3-S2B). In a completely different set of experiments,
667 when N/C ratio was varied in egg extracts (Figure 5), mitotic chromosomes shrank 1.5-fold while
668 spindle size increased almost 2-fold and nuclear size remained constant. Together these data
669 suggest that the mechanisms that regulate the size of mitotic chromosomes, spindles and nuclei
670 are distinct.

671

672 Mitotic chromosome scaling involves temporally and spatially distinct developmental cues.

673 Whereas mitotic spindle size and nuclear size are set by factors operating during metaphase and
674 interphase, respectively, we found that both phases of the cell cycle contribute to scale mitotic
675 chromosomes. Our embryo extract and egg extract data (Figures 2 and 3) suggest that mitotic
676 chromosome size is determined by factors already present in interphase nuclei and cannot be re-
677 set by metaphase egg extracts. On the other hand, importin α partitioning plays an additional role
678 to scale mitotic chromosomes to spindle and cell size specifically during metaphase. Consistent
679 with this temporal separation of developmental cues, condensin I acts as a scaling factor only in
680 the N/C pathway and not the importin α pathway (Figure 5C vs. Figure 6D). Together, these data
681 suggest that the NLS-containing cargo that scale mitotic chromosomes, unlike cargo that scale
682 nuclei and spindles, cannot freely exchange with other factors in the egg cytoplasm to lengthen
683 short embryo chromosomes. Future work will be required to identify this cargo. Finally, since
684 *Xenopus* embryos divide asymmetrically, with larger cells on the vegetal side, our results suggest
685 that within the same embryo, the importin α and N/C ratio pathways could combine to have
686 different effects on mitotic chromosome size.

687

688 Multiple molecular pathways can regulate mitotic chromosome size. Based on *in silico* models of

689 condensin I loop extrusion activity, it was predicted that changing condensin I occupancy on
690 mitotic chromosomes causes major changes in DNA loop size and chromosome dimensions

691 (Goloborodko et al., 2016). However, it was unclear whether such changes occur *in vivo*. Our
692 results suggest that within the physiologically relevant range of condensin I concentrations
693 present during embryogenesis, less condensin I correlates with both increased loop size and
694 increased length-wise compaction. Another recent study showed that H1.8 can suppress
695 condensin I occupancy on sperm mitotic chromosomes, reducing their length (Choppakatla et al.,
696 2021). In contrast, we found that an increase in condensin I could act independently of H1.8 to
697 lengthen chromosomes (Figure 3-S3), suggesting that condensin I is the major scaling factor for
698 mitotic chromosomes. In the future it will be interesting to examine other factors that could be
699 acting upstream or downstream of condensin I to set mitotic chromosome size in the embryo.

700
701 N/C ratio as a fundamental mechanism for regulating chromatin structure during pre-ZGA
702 cleavage divisions. Previous work in zebrafish and frogs suggested that titration of maternal
703 factors such as histone H3 due to increasing N/C ratio plays an important role in regulating timing
704 of Zygotic Genome Activation (ZGA) in the embryo (Amodeo et al., 2015; Joseph et al., 2017).
705 One proposed model is that decreasing histone abundance facilitates the binding of transcription
706 activation machinery (Joseph et al., 2017). Here we were able to recapitulate this titration effect
707 by simply increasing the concentration of nuclei in egg extracts (Figure 5) and found that N/C ratio
708 is sufficient to regulate mitotic chromosome size but not spindle or nuclear size. Together these
709 results suggest that N/C ratio could be a universal mechanism for regulating chromatin structure
710 across the cell cycle, but for completely different functions: transcriptional regulation during
711 interphase and chromosome segregation during metaphase. In the future it will be interesting to
712 identify additional factors that are titrated from maternal cytoplasm, and how this affects overall
713 chromatin architecture and functions leading up to ZGA.

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717 **Materials and methods**

718 Whole embryo immunofluorescence

719 Eggs were fertilized and successfully dividing embryos were fixed in MAD (2 parts methanol, 2
720 parts acetone, 1 part DMSO) at 5-minute intervals at each stage when mitosis was likely to be
721 occurring. After 1-3 hours of fixation, embryos were transferred to fresh MAD before storing at -
722 20 °C for up to 3 months. Embryos were then gradually rehydrated into 0.5x SSC (75 mM NaCl,
723 7.5 mM sodium citrate, pH 7.0), bleached in 2% H₂O₂, 5% formamide and 0.5x SSC under direct
724 light or 2-3 hours. Bleached embryos were blocked in 1x PBS, 0.1% Triton X-100, 2 mg/mL BSA,
725 10% goat serum, 5% DMSO for 16-24 hours at 4 °C. Primary antibodies were incubated at 2-10
726 µg/mL at 4 °C for 60 hours, washed in PBT (1x PBS, 0.1% Triton X-100, 2 mg/mL BSA) for 30
727 hours. Secondary antibodies were added at 2 µg/mL, covered from light and incubated for 60
728 hours at 4 °C before washing for 30 hours with PBT. Embryos were then gradually rehydrated into
729 100% methanol, stored overnight at -20 °C, then cleared with Murrays solution (2 parts benzyl
730 benzoate, 1 part benzyl alcohol). Embryos were imaged with 20x or 40x objective on Zeiss LSM
731 780 confocal microscope. Once cells containing a mitotic spindle were identified, z-stacks were
732 taken. Using Imaris, we performed 3D visualization and segmentation of mitotic spindles and
733 metaphase plates to directly measure volumes. Cell size was measured in FIJI by manually
734 tracing the cell in the z-stack where the spindle appeared the largest. We used this cell area
735 measurement to calculate cell diameter. Interphase data were calculated using a published
736 dataset (Jevtić and Levy, 2015), which used very similar methods to obtain measurements of
737 nuclear size and cell size.

738

739 Embryo extract preparation and sample reactions

740 *Mitotic embryo extracts.* Stage 3 and stage 8 mitotic embryo extracts were prepared as previously
741 described (Wilbur and Heald, 2013). Briefly, eggs from at least 2 separate females were fertilized

742 synchronously with ~1/2 of a fresh testes. After the appropriate amount of growth at 23 °C (1 hour
743 and 45 minutes for stage 3 extract and 5.5 hours for stage 8 extracts), successfully dividing
744 embryos were collected in 2 mL test tubes, washed with 5 times with XB (10 mM Hepes pH 7.8,
745 1 mM MgCl₂, 0.1 mM CaCl₂, 100 mM KCl, 50 mM sucrose) and 5 times with CSF-XB (10 mM
746 Hepes pH 7.8, 2 mM MgCl₂, 0.1 mM CaCl₂, 100 mM KCl, 50 mM sucrose, 5 mM EGTA) containing
747 protease inhibitors LPC (10 µg/mL leupeptin, pepstatin and chymostatin). Cytochalasin B (Cyto
748 B) was added in the final wash for a final concentration of 20 µg/mL. Embryos were gently pelleted
749 in a tabletop microcentrifuge at 1,000 rpm for 1 minute, then 2,000 rpm for 30 seconds. Embryos
750 were then crushed in a swinging bucket rotor (Sorvall HB-6) at 10,200 rpm for 12 minutes at 16
751 °C. Cytoplasm was removed, placed on ice and immediately supplemented with 10 µg/mL LPC,
752 20 µg/mL CytoB, 1x energy mix (3.75 mM creatine phosphate, 0.5 mM ATP, 0.05 mM EGTA, 0.5
753 mM MgCl₂), 0.25 µM cyclinBΔ90 and 5 µM UbcH10 C114S to induce metaphase arrest, and
754 0.6 µM rhodamine-labeled tubulin to visualize microtubules.

755
756 To examine endogenous mitotic chromosomes, 25-100 µL samples of embryo cytoplasm were
757 incubated at 20 °C for ~1 hour or until spindles had formed. Samples were diluted 4-fold in CDB
758 (250 mM sucrose, 10 mM Hepes pH 8.0, 0.5 mM EGTA, 200 mM KCl, 1 mM MgCl₂) for 5-10
759 minutes, then diluted an additional 5-fold in CFB (5 mM Hepes pH 7.8, 0.1 mM EDTA, 100 mM
760 NaCl, 2 mM KCl, 1 mM MgCl₂, 2 mM CaCl₂, 0.5% Triton X-100, 20% glycerol and 2%
761 formaldehyde). Chromosomes were then layered on a 5 mL of CCB (5 mM Hepes pH 7.8, 0.1
762 mM EDTA, 100 mM NaCl, 2 mM KCl, 1 mM MgCl₂, 2 mM CaCl₂ 40% glycerol) and centrifuged
763 onto coverslips at 5500 rpm (HB-6) for 20 minutes. Coverslips were removed and additionally
764 fixed for 5 minutes in ice-cold methanol, and washed 5 times in 1x PBS, 0.1% NP-40 before
765 moving on to immunostaining.

766

767 *Interphasic embryo extracts.* Embryos were first arrested in G2 using 150 $\mu\text{g}/\text{mL}$ cycloheximide
768 for 1.5 hours, then washed with ELB (250 mM sucrose, 50 mM KCl, 2.5 mM MgCl_2 , 10 mM Hepes
769 pH 7.8) containing 10 $\mu\text{g}/\text{mL}$ LPC, 200 $\mu\text{g}/\text{mL}$ CytoB. Embryos were gently pelleted, then
770 manually crushed with a pestle for 30 seconds before centrifuging at 10,000 g for 10 minutes.
771 Cytoplasm was removed, placed on ice and immediately supplemented with 10 $\mu\text{g}/\text{mL}$ LPC, 20
772 $\mu\text{g}/\text{mL}$ CytoB, 1x energy mix, and 8% glycerol. Samples were aliquoted and flash frozen and
773 stored at -80°C for up to 2 years. For immunofluorescence, embryo nuclei were thawed and
774 directly fixed in ELB supplemented with 15% glycerol and 2.6% paraformaldehyde for 15 minutes
775 with rocking at room temperature. Fixed nuclei were layered over a 5 mL cushion containing 100
776 mM KCl, 1 mM MgCl_2 , 100 μM CaCl_2 , 0.2 M sucrose, and 25% glycerol. Nuclei were spun onto
777 coverslips at 1,000 g for 15 minutes at 16°C . Coverslips additionally fixed and washed as
778 described above.

779
780 *Western blots.* Stage 3 and stage 9 embryo extracts were prepared as described above and
781 analyzed by Bradford to determine total protein concentrations. 25 μg protein was loaded per
782 sample on 4-20% gradient gels (BioRad). Proteins were transferred overnight at 4 degrees onto
783 nitrocellulose membranes, blocked in 5% milk in Tris Buffered Saline containing 0.1% Triton-X100
784 (TBST) for 1 hour at room temperature, then stained with primary antibodies for 1 hour at room
785 temperature. After washing with PBST 5 times, blots were incubated with secondary antibodies
786 containing infrared dyes for 1 hour at room temperature. After a final wash in PBST, blots were
787 visualized on an LiCor Odyssey Imager.

788
789 Egg extract preparation and sample reactions
790 Egg extracts from *X. laevis* were prepared as previously described (Maresca and Heald, 2006)
791 For crude extracts, eggs were packed in a clinical centrifuge and crushed in an HB6 rotor for 16

792 minutes at 10,200 rpm. The cytoplasm was removed and supplemented with 10 $\mu\text{g}/\text{mL}$ LPC, 20
793 $\mu\text{g}/\text{mL}$ CytoB, 1x energy mix, and 0.6 μM rhodamine-labeled tubulin. For clarified extracts, crude
794 extracts were centrifuged at 55,000 rpm for 2 hours, and then 30 minutes to pellet membranes (
795 all steps at 4 °C). Supernatants containing soluble fraction of the cytoplasm were flash frozen and
796 stored at -80 °C for up to 3 years.

797
798 *Nuclei reactions and spin downs.* Freshly prepared egg extracts were aliquoted into 20 μL
799 reactions and sent into interphase with addition of 1x CA (0.4 mM CaCl_2 , 10 mM KCl, 0.1 mM
800 MgCl_2). After 5 minutes, sperm nuclei were added at 1000 nuclei/ μL unless otherwise specified.
801 Once nuclei had swollen, they were fixed and processed for immunofluorescence as stated above
802 for embryo nuclei.

803
804 *Mitotic chromosome reactions and spin downs.* To form mitotic chromosomes from replicated
805 sperm nuclei, purified sperm nuclei were added to 20 μL of interphase egg extract at 1000
806 nuclei/ μL unless otherwise specified. After nuclei had swelled and chromatin was replicated
807 (around 45 minutes), 30 μL fresh metaphase egg extract was added and spindles formed after
808 ~45 minutes. To form mitotic chromosomes from stage 8 G2-arrested embryo nuclei, nuclei were
809 first thawed on ice for 15 minutes before adding 1.5 mL of CSF-XB containing 10 $\mu\text{g}/\text{mL}$ LPC.
810 Nuclei were pelleted at 1600 g for 5 minutes at 4 °C. Nuclei pellets were resuspended in 10-15
811 μL of fresh CSF-XB (+LPC), and added at 1000 nuclei/ μL to metaphase egg extracts, and mitotic
812 spindles formed within 1 hour. Once successful formation of mitotic spindles and chromosome
813 condensation was confirmed by taking a small sample and staining with Hoechst (1 $\mu\text{g}/\text{mL}$),
814 samples were diluted 100-fold and fixed at the same time in ice-cold 1x XBE2 (5 mM Hepes pH
815 7.8, 100 mM KCl, 2 mM MgCl_2 , 0.1 mM CaCl_2 , 5 mM EGTA, 50 mM sucrose) containing 0.25%
816 Triton X-100 and 2% formaldehyde. Fixed chromosomes were layered over a 5 mL cushion

817 containing 1x XBE2 and 30% glycerol and spun onto coverslips at 5500 rpm for 20 minutes at 16
818 °C.

819

820 *Mitotic spindle spin downs.* To fix and spin down mitotic spindles instead of mitotic chromosomes,
821 the same procedure was used except spindles were fixed in 1x BRB80 (80 mM PIPES pH 6.8, 1
822 mM MgCl₂, 1 mM EGTA) containing 30% glycerol and 0,5% Triton X-100 and cushion buffer
823 contained 1x BRB80 and 40% glycerol.

824

825 *Anaphase reactions.* Once mitotic spindles had formed, reactions were transferred to fresh tubes
826 and 1x CA was added. After 40 minutes of interphase, an additional 0.5x CA was added to ensure
827 full replication of DNA. Successful reactions were confirmed by staining a small sample with
828 Hoechst. After 75 minutes of interphase, nuclei were swollen and an equal volume of fresh
829 metaphase extracts were added to form a second round of metaphase spindles. Once formed,
830 mitotic chromosomes were fixed and isolated using same procedures as described above.

831

832 *Titration experiments.* Anytime nuclei concentration in egg extracts was varied, the volume of
833 extract fixed was also varied to keep the nuclei concentration per coverslip constant. We found
834 this to be important for ensuring that any effects we observed were not due to titration of the
835 antibody used for immunostaining.

836

837 *Importin α experiments.* These experiments were performed as described previously (Brownlee
838 and Heald, 2019). Briefly, extracts were incubated with either DMSO or 10 μ M palmostatin for 45
839 minutes at 20°C before using. Exogenous importin α (WT and NP) was purified from *E. coli* using
840 previously published constructs and procedures (Brownlee and Heald, 2019).

841

842 Immunofluorescence, imaging and analysis of chromosomes, spindles and nuclei from extracts

843 Once mitotic chromosomes, nuclei or spindles were fixed and isolated on coverslips, they were
844 blocked overnight with 1x PBS, 3% BSA at 4 °C. Primary antibodies were added at 1µg/mL 2.5
845 µg/mL for 1 hour at room temperature and washed 5 times with 1x PBS, 0.1% NP-40. Secondary
846 antibodies were added at 1 µg/mL for 1 hour, washed 5 times, then stained with Hoechst at 1
847 µg/mL for 10 minutes. Coverslips were washed two more times, then mounted using Vectashield
848 without DAPI. Imaging was performed on an Olympus BX51 upright epifluorescence microscope
849 using an Olympus PlanApo 60x oil objective for chromosomes and 40x air objective for nuclei and
850 spindles. Images were analyzed in FIJI. Single chromosomes were manually selected and
851 cropped from the rest of the image. Chromosome lengths were measured manually using the
852 freehand line tool. Median intensity values were used to perform background subtractions in each
853 channel and the abundance of a certain factor of interest was calculated by dividing the
854 background-subtracted fluorescence intensity of the factor by the background-subtracted
855 fluorescence intensity of Hoechst.

856

857 Hi-C and contact probability analysis

858 *Preparation of samples and sequencing.* Hi-C was performed as previously described (Belaghzal
859 et al., 2017). Mitotic chromosomes from either replicated sperm or stage 8 embryo nuclei were
860 formed in 250 µL egg extract reactions containing 4000 nuclei/µL. Reactions were then diluted
861 48-fold in XBE2 containing 1% formaldehyde and 0.25% triton X-100. After 10 minutes of fixation
862 with rocking at room temperature, samples were quenched for 5 minutes with 140 mM glycine
863 before transferring to ice for 15 minutes. Chromatin was pelleted at 6,000 g for 20 minutes at 4°C,
864 then resuspended in XBE2 containing 0.25% Triton X-100. Briefly, pellets were homogenized
865 treated with 0.1% SDS (final concentration) and quenched with 1% Triton X-100 (final
866 concentration) prior to overnight digestion with 400 U DpnII at 37 °C. Next day, enzyme was

867 inactivated prior to biotin-fill with biotin-14-dATP for 4 hr at 23 °C. Subsequently, chromatin was
868 ligated at 16 °C for 4 hours. After crosslinking was reversed by proteinase K at 65°C overnight.
869 Sonicated ligation products were size selected for 100-350 bp products. Size selected products
870 were end repaired followed by biotin-pull down with streptavidin. Prior to Illumina Truseq adapter
871 ligation purified DNA fragments were A-tailed. PCR amplification and primer removal were last
872 steps before final library was sequenced on Illumina HiSeq 4000 with PE50.

873
874 *Hi-C analysis.* Hi-C libraries processed by mapping to the *X. Laevis* 10 genome using the distiller
875 pipeline (<https://github.com/open2c/distiller-nf>). Reads were aligned with bwa-mem, uniquely
876 mapped reads were further processed after duplicate removal. Valid pair reads were binned at 1,
877 2, 5, 10, 25, 50, 100, 250, 500, and 1000kb in contact matrices in the cooler format (Abdennur
878 and Mirny, 2019). Cooler files were normalized using Iterative balancing correction (Imakaev et
879 al., 2012), excluding first two diagonals to avoid artifacts at short range.

880
881 *Hi-C contact probability analysis.* For contact probabilities balanced Hi-C data binned at 1kb was
882 used to calculate contact frequency as function of genomic distance. From cooltools
883 `expected_cis`, `logbin_expected`, and `combined_binned_expected` was used to generate average
884 contact decay plots genome-wide (Venev et al. 2022). First, the contact frequency by distance for
885 each chromosome was calculated using `expected_cis`. Data was grouped into log spaced bins
886 with `logbin_expected`. Genome-wide average was calculated by `combined_binned_expected`.

887
888 **Statement of Competing Interests**

889 We have no competing interests.

890

891

892

893 **Acknowledgements**

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900

901

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