Title

Actin filaments accumulate in the nucleus during interphase and remain in the vicinity of

condensing chromosomes during prophase to metaphase in zebrafish early embryos

Haruka Oda[1], Yuko Sato[1], Shigehiro A. Kawashima[2], Yusuke Fujiwara[2], Máté Pálfy[3],

Edlyn Wu[3,4], Nadine L. Vastenhouw[3,4], Motomu Kanai[2], and Hiroshi Kimura[1,*]

[1]Cell Biology Center, Institute of Innovative Research, Tokyo Institute of Technology,

Yokohama 226-8503, Japan; [2]Graduate School of Pharmaceutical Sciences, The

University of Tokyo, Tokyo 113-0033, Japan; [3]Max Planck Institute of Molecular Cell

Biology and Genetics, Dresden-01307, Germany; [4]University of Lausanne, Center for

Integrative Genomics, Lausanne 1015, Switzerland

Corresponding author: Hiroshi Kimura, hkimura@bio.titech.ac.jp

Key words

Nuclear actin, zebrafish embryo, live-cell imaging

Summary statement

Filamentous actin accumulates in the nucleus of zebrafish early embryos and forms

patches associating with condensing chromosomes during prophase.

Abstract

In the cytoplasm, filamentous actin (F-actin) plays a critical role in cell regulation, including cell migration, stress fiber formation, and cytokinesis. Recent studies have shown that actin filaments that form in the nucleus are associated with diverse functions. Here, using live imaging of an F-actin-specific probe, superfolder GFP-tagged utrophin (UtrCH-sfGFP), we demonstrated the dynamics of nuclear actin in zebrafish (*Danio rerio*) embryos. In early zebrafish embryos up to around the high stage, UtrCH-sfGFP increasingly accumulated in nuclei during the interphase and reached a peak during the prophase. After nuclear envelope breakdown (NEBD), patches of UtrCH-sfGFP remained in the vicinity of condensing chromosomes during the prometaphase to metaphase. When zygotic transcription was inhibited by injecting α-amanitin, the nuclear accumulation of UtrCH-sfGFP was still observed at the sphere and dome stages, suggesting that zygotic transcription may induce a decrease in nuclear F-actin. The accumulation of F-actin in nuclei may contribute to proper mitotic progression of large cells with rapid cell cycles in zebrafish early embryos, by assisting in NEBD, chromosome congression, and/or spindle assembly.

Introduction

Actin is a highly conserved protein throughout eukaryotes. In the cytoplasm, actin serves a role in cell migration, stress fiber formation, and cell division by forming a contractile ring during cytokinesis. Actin is also present in nuclei, where it plays a crucial role in transcriptional regulation (Vartiainen *et al*., 2007; Baarlink *et al*., 2013; Tian *et al*., 2016; Sokolova *et al.*, 2018) and in DNA damage repair processes (Chiolo *et al.*, 2011; Belin *et al.*, 2015; Caridi *et al.*, 2019). Actin nuclear localization is mediated through the interplay of nuclear import regulated by importin 9 with cofilin (Dopie *et al*., 2012) and nuclear export regulated by exportin 6 (Exp6), which transports profilin-actin complexes (Stüven *et al*., 2003). Whereas filamentous actin (F-actin) is rarely observed in somatic cell nuclei, it is presumed to be involved in regulating the function and structure of undifferentiated cell nuclei (Misu *et al.*, 2017).

In mouse early embryonic nuclei, F-actin facilitates nuclear expansion during the G1 phase (Baarlink *et al.*, 2017) and maintains the integrity of the totipotent state of the cell mass (Okuno *et al.*, 2020). Nuclear actin polymerization via Wave-1 is required for reprogramming somatic nuclei that are transplanted into African clawed frog (*Xenopus laevis*) oocytes (Miyamoto *et al*., 2011). Actin has a distinct role in the large nucleus of oocytes, which is also called the germinal vesicle (GV). *Xenopus laevis* GV contains a high concentration of actin to maintain the large nuclear structure (Clark and Merriam, 1977; Clark and Rosenbaum, 1979; Bohnsack *et al*., 2006). In mammalian oocytes, F-actin bundle in GVs stabilizes the chromatin mobility and secures the accurate chromosome alignment and segregation (Mogessie and Schuh, 2017; Scheffler *et al.*, 2022; Dunkley *et al.*, 2022). In starfish oocytes, actin mesh forms in the nuclear area after nuclear envelope break down (NEBD; Lénárt *et al.*, 2005), and the contraction of

the actin meshwork transports chromosomes until they are captured by microtubules

(Mori *et al*., 2011). In addition, F-actin polymerizes underneath the nuclear envelope and

accelerates fragmentation of the nuclear envelope during the first stage of NEBD (Mori

et al., 2014; Wesolowska *et al.*, 2020).

During *Xenopus* embryonic development, F-actin accumulates in nuclei up to the

blastula stage, when the major wave of zygotic transcription begins, before diminishing

at the gastrula stage (Oda *et al.*, 2017). A reconstituted system utilizing *Xenopus* egg

extracts has been used for analyzing the assembly of early embryonic nuclei from de-

membraned sperm *in vitro* (Murray, 1991). In reconstituted nuclei using this system,

nuclear actin prevents chromatin aggregation during interphase and facilitates

chromosome alignment during prometaphase (Oda *et al*., 2017). However, the dynamics

of nuclear actin during *Xenopus* embryo development have not been elucidated,

because live-cell imaging is hampered by the melanin granules that are present in the

cortex of embryos.

In contrast to the African clawed frog (*Xenopus laevis*), zebrafish (*Danio rerio*) embryos

that share a similar developmental process with frog are transparent and thus suitable

for live-cell imaging. During the early embryo stages of zebrafish, cells have relatively

large nuclei and undergo a series of short and synchronized cell cycles without

transcription and gap phases (Satoh, 1977; Kimmel *et al*., 1995; Joseph *et al*., 2017),

which also occurs in *Xenopus* embryos (Jevtić and Levy, 2015; Newport and Kirschner,

1982; Lucas *et al*., 2000; Mahbubani *et al*., 1992).

In zebrafish embryos, transcription from the zygotic gene is observed as early as at the

64-cell stage, and becomes further activated at around the 512-cell to 1k-cell stages

(Mathavan *et al*., 2005; Heyn *et al*., 2014; White *et al*., 2017; Pálfy *et al*., 2017;

Vastenhouw *et al*., 2019). After the 1k-cell stage, the cell cycle elongates and loses

synchronicity, which occurs with the onset of differentiation (Kane *et al*., 1992).

Fluorescently labeled phalloidin has been the standard reagent to stain F-actin in fixed

cells (Dancker *et al*., 1975; Wehland *et al*., 1977). Live-cell actin-specific probes have

also been developed, including fluorescent protein-tagged LifeAct and UtrCH, as well as

actin-specific chromobody (Actin-chromobody®, Rocchetti *et al*., 2014). UtrCH, which is

the Calponin Homology domain of human utrophin (Burkel *et al*., 2007), is an actin-

binding peptide that is more selective to F-actin than LifeAct, which is derived from the

yeast actin-binding protein, Abp140 (Riedl *et al*., 2008). In this report, we mainly used

superfolder GFP-tagged UtrCH (UtrCH-sfGFP) to track nuclear F-actin dynamics in

zebrafish early embryos. We observed that F-actin accumulates in nuclei during

interphase and the actin patches remained in the vicinity of condensing chromosomes

during the prophase to metaphase.

Results

Visualizing nuclear F-actin in zebrafish early embryos

To investigate whether F-actin accumulates in nuclei in zebrafish early embryos, we first aimed to detect F-actin by using fixed embryos stained with fluorescently labeled phalloidin. DNA was counterstained with Hoechst dye. Phalloidin signals were enriched in nuclei in the 32-, 128-, and 1k-cell stages, particularly in Hoechst-poor regions (Fig. 1A-C). In the sphere stage embryos, the total nuclear phallodin signals were decreased whereas filamentous structures were observed (Fig. 1B and 1C). This observation suggests that F-actin is abundantly present in nucleoplasm during the early stages of zebrafish development, as was observed in *Xenopus laevis* embryos (Oda *et al*., 2017). Although the filamentous structures observed at the later stages are of interest, we here focused on the dynamics and function of nuclear F-actin that are abundantly accumulated at the earlier stages.

To visualize nuclear F-actin dynamics in living zebrafish embryos, purified UtrCH-sfGFP (Fig. S1A) was injected into the yolk of 1-cell stage embryos. The antigen-binding fragment (Fab) specific for acetylation of histone H3 lysine 9 (H3K9ac), which distributes throughout the chromatin from the early stage of development, labeled with Cy5 was co-injected as a chromatin marker (Sato *et al.*, 2019). The injected embryos were set onto a confocal microscope at the 4-cell stage, and three-dimensional time-lapse images were acquired every 90 s from the 8-cell stage to the oblong stage. UtrCH-sfGFP signal is enriched in the interphase nuclei of embryos from the 8-cell stage to the 1k-cell stage (Fig. 1D, arrowheads and insets; Fig. 2A; Movie 1). At the oblong stage (3.5 hours post-fertilization; hpf), UtrCH signals in nuclei became weaker compared to those in earlier stages (Figs. 1D). These live-cell imaging data are consistent with the observations in

fixed embryos.

Time-laps imaging with 1.5-min intervals (Fig. 2A and Fig. S2) and measurements of

the nucleus to the cytoplasm intensity ratio (N/C ratio) of UtrCH-sfGFP (Fig. 2B) revealed

that UtrCH-sfGFP signal began to accumulate in the nucleus at the end of telophase,

and became more concentrated during interphase, peaking just before mitosis, and then

disappeared from mitotic chromosome areas during 16-cell to 1k-cell stages. After the

1k-cell stage, the mean value of UtrCH-sfGFP N/C ratio reduced to less than 1.0 (Fig.

2B).

Because UtrCH could stabilize actin filaments and influence actin dynamics (Spracklen

et al., 2014), we used another actin-binding peptide, LifeAct, which binds to globular actin

(G-actin) and F-actin (Riedl *et al*., 2008), as the sfGFP-tagged version (LifeAct-sfGFP)

to validate the results obtained with UtrCH (Fig. 2). Purified LifeAct-sfGFP (Fig. S1B)

was co-injected with Cy3-labeled anti-phosphorylated histone H3 serine 28 (H3S28ph)

Fab to highlight chromosomes from the prometaphase to anaphase (Hayashi-Takanaka

et al., 2014) and Cy5-labeled anti-H3K9ac Fab to label nuclei (Fig. S1C). LifeAct-sfGFP

was concentrated in nuclei, showing >1.0 N/C ratio, during early embryonic stages (Fig.

3). After the 1k-cell stage, the LifeAct-sfGFP N/C ratio reduced to <1.0 (Fig. 3B), as was

observed in UtrCH-sfGFP (Fig. 2B). This lowered N/C ratio on average could be

attributed to the less nuclear accumulation and/or the asynchronized cell cycle, as cells

in the mitotic phase showed a low N/C ratio (Figs. 2 and 3).

We then analyzed N/C ratios in individual interphase nuclei by eliminating H3S28ph-

positive mitotic cells (Fig. 3C). The cumulative bar chart showed that >90% of interphase

nuclei exhibited a LifeAct-sfGFP N/C ratio >1.0 up to the 256-cell stage. At the 512- and

1k-cell stages, the fraction of nuclei with an N/C ratio of >1.0 decreased to ~80% and

~65%, respectively (Fig. 3C). After the 1k-cell stage, the fraction of nuclei with an N/C

ratio of <1 increased substantially (Fig. 3C, 150 min), reaching ~90% at the sphere (180

min) and dome (195 min) stages. Taken together with the phalloidin-staining and UtrCH-

sfGFP data, these results suggest that actin is gradually concentrated and polymerized

in nuclei during the interphase in the early stages of zebrafish embryos, as observed in

Xenopus (Oda *et al.*, 2017), and the amount of nuclear actin decreases after the 1k-cell

stage.

F-actin accumulates in the nucleus during interphase to prophase and remains

along with condensing chromosomes during early prometaphase

Since nuclear UtrCH-sfGFP reached a peak just before mitosis (Fig. 2A, 7.5, 9.0, and

10.5 min; Fig. S2A, 7.5, 9.0, and 10.5 min, 3A, 10.5 min), we investigated F-actin

dynamics during the late interphase to mitosis in detail. For this purpose,

tetramethylrhodamine-labeled 155-kDa dextran (TMR-dextran) was used for monitoring

the timing of NEBD; TMR-dextran that was injected into the cytoplasm cannot enter to

the nucleus due to its big size until the nuclear membrane breaks down at the onset of

prometaphase. Thus, NEBD was identified by the onset of TMR-dextran leakage into the

nucleus. In addition, we used JF646-labeled latency-associated nuclear antigen peptide

(JF646-LANA) to track chromatin throughout the cell cycle. The LANA peptide binds to

the acidic patch in the nucleosome (Barbera *et al.*, 2006), and a synthetic LANA peptide

with polyethylene glycol and fluorescein was shown to label chromatin in living cells

(Fujiwara *et al.*, 2021). In the current study, JF646-LANA was synthesized (see Materials

and methods) to be used together with sfGFP- and TMR/Cy3-labeled probes. Mitotic

chromosomes visualized with Cy3-H3S28ph Fab were indeed more intensely detected

by JF646-LANA than by H3K9ac Fab, whose chromatin binding is decreased by

deacetylation during mitosis (Fig. S1C and S1D).

To visualize F-actin dynamics at around NEBD, 1-cell stage embryos were injected with

UtrCH-sfGFP, TMR-dextran, and JF646-LANA, and were imaged every 12.5 s from 256-

cell stage. Figure 4 shows the representative images of cells in the 1k-cell stage (A) and

high stage (B) embryos with the changes in N/C intensity ratio of UtrCH-sfGFP and TMR-

dextran (C). UtrCH-sfGFP accumulated in nuclei (Fig. 4, −37.5 s to −12.5 s), reaching a

peak concomitantly with NEBD as indicated by TMR-dextran diffusing into nuclear areas

(Fig. 4, 0 s). After NEBD, UtrCH signals were remained in the vicinity of condensing

chromosomes during prometaphase (Fig. 4, 0 s to 25 s), and almost disappeared from

the chromosome areas by metaphase (Fig. 4, 37.5 s).

To track microtubule dynamics with F-actin and chromosomes during prophase to

metaphase, TMR-labeled tubulin was co-injected with UtrCH-sfGFP and JF646-LANA,

and three-dimensional images were acquired every 15 s at the 256-cell (Movie 2), 512-

cell (Movie 3), 1k-cell (Fig. 5 and Movie 4), high (Fig. 6 and Movie 5), sphere (Fig. 7),

and dome stages (Fig. S3). UtrCH-sfGFP was located in the nucleus with enrichment at

around the nuclear periphery of the 1k-cell stage embryo before NEBD (Fig. 5, −15 s).

Just after NEBD, UtrCH-sfGFP remained in the vicinity of the condensing chromosomes,

and microtubule spindles (TMR-Tubulin) grown from centrosomes extended along with

the chromosomes (Fig. 5A, 0 s and 15 s; see also Fig. 5B for 3D rendering views). UtrCH-

sfGFP signals gradually disappeared from the nuclear areas during prometaphase to

metaphase (Fig. 5A, 30–45 s; and Fig. 5B, 30 s). Concomitantly with actin diminishment,

microtubule spindles appeared to capture chromosomes for their segregation (Fig. 5, 45

s to 90 s). Similar dynamics of actin and tubulin were observed from the 256-cell stage

to 1k-cell stages (256-cell stage: Movie 2, 512 cell-stage: Movie 3). In the oblong stage,

the UtrCH-sfGFP signal in the nucleus was much weaker (Fig. 6, −45s to 0 s); however,

after the NEBD, the actin patches were still observed in the vicinity of condensing

chromosomes (Fig. 6, 15 s and 30 s). In the sphere stage, the timing of UtrCH-sfGFP

nuclear accumulation was more transient and the signals were much weaker than those

during the 1k-cell stage (Fig. 7, 0 s and 15 s). Only a trace amount of UtrCH-sfGFP was

observed in the chromosome area in the dome stage Fig. S3, 30 s and 45 s).

Transcription inhibition prolonged nuclear actin decrease after zygotic genome

activation (ZGA)

We next examined the relationship between zygotic transcription and nuclear F-actin,

because the amount of F-actin was substantially decreased after the oblong stage, as in

most somatic cells (Schoenenberger *et al*., 2005; Hofmann *et al*., 2009; Xu *et al*., 2010;

Parisis *et al*., 2017). To test whether zygotic transcription is required to diminish nuclear

F-actin, we injected α-amanitin, which directly binds to RNA polymerase II and interferes

with its translocation and nucleotide incorporation (Nguyen *et al*., 1996; Brueckner and

Cramer, 2008), into zebrafish embryos (Fig. 8A; Kane *et al*., 1996; Sato *et al*., 2019).

Embryos that were injected with α-amanitin or the buffer were fixed at the 1k-cell and

oblong stages and stained with Hoechst and phalloidin. In 1k-cell stage embryos, in

which major ZGA typically begins, phalloidin signals were concentrated in the nuclei,

regardless of α-amanitin injection (Fig.8B, 1k-cell). In contrast, at the oblong stage,

nuclear phalloidin signals were slightly enriched in α-amanitin-injected embryos

compared to those detected in the control embryos (Fig. 8B, oblong). We then confirmed

the effect of α-amanitin on nuclear F-actin in living cells by using UtrCH-sfGFP. In the

both amanitin-treated and control embryos, the N/C ratio of UtrCH-sfGFP began to

decrease after the high stage (Fig. 8C). However, compared to the control, the N/C ratio

in α-amanitin-injected embryos remained relatively high at sphere and dome stages (Fig.

8C). These data suggest that the decrease of the N/C ratio of UtrCH-sfGFP is facilitated

by zygotic transcription.

Attempts to disturb nuclear actin in zebrafish early embryos.

To investigate the physiological role of nuclear F-actin in early embryos, we sought to

artificially manipulate its levels. The first attempt to decrease nuclear actin by ectopic

expression of Exp6, which is known to export actin from the nucleus to the cytoplasm

(Stüven *et al*., 2003), by injecting mRNA encoding 3×FLAG-tagged zebrafish Exp6 into

embryos. However, Exp6-3×FLAG expression induced severe cytokinesis defects but

did not decrease nuclear actin levels (Fig. S4).

Next, we expressed a polymerization-deficient actin mutant (R62D), in which Arg 62

was substituted to Asp (Posern *et al*., 2002), tagged with the superfolder Cherry and a

nuclear localizing signal (Actin R62D-sfCherry-NLS), to inhibit nuclear F-actin formation.

The wild type actin tagged with sfCherry-NLS (Actin WT-sfCherry-NLS) and sfCherry-

NLS were used as controls to examine the effect of the wild-type actin and sfCherry

alone. Embryos were co-injected with mRNA encoding Actin R62D-sfCherry-NLS, Actin

WT-sfCherry-NLS, or sfCherry-NLS, with UtrCH-sfGFP and Cy5-labeled H3K9ac-

specific Fab and were imaged from 8-cell stage. The N/C intensity ratios of UtrCH-sfGFP,

however, did not show obvious differences among embryos expressing sfCherry-NLS,

Actin R62D-sfCherry-NLS, and Actin WT-sfCherry-NLS (Fig. S5A and S5B). Expression

of Actin R62D tagged with smaller 3xFLAG tagged versions, instead of sfCherry, also did

not affect the N/C ratios of UtrCH-sfGFP (Fig. S5C). Because actin was already

abundantly present in nuclei, additional expression of the wild-type or mutant actin might

have minimal effects.

In has been reported that cofilin proteins actively depolymerize actin filaments in

cytoplasm during the interphase (Vartiainen *et al*., 2002; Amano *et al*., 2002; Kaji *et al*.,

2008; Chin *et al*., 2016; Wioland *et al*., 2017). Cofilin1 is the non-muscle isoform

expressed ubiquitously while cofilin2 is the muscle isoform. We expressed zebrafish

cofilin1 and cofilin2, tagged with sfCherry and an NLS, to attempt depolymerizing nuclear

actin in embryos, but again the N/C intensity ratios of UtrCH-sfGFP were not affected

(Fig. S6). Thus, it was not possible to manipulate the level of nuclear F-actin in our

experimental conditions. Nuclear F-actin level might be robustly regulated in zebrafish

early embryos.

Discussion

Nuclear actin accumulation in zebrafish early embryos

We demonstrated F-actin accumulation in zebrafish early embryo nuclei by fixed cells

using phalloidin and by living cells using fluorescent actin-binding probes. In living

embryos from the 8-cell to 1k-cell stages, UtrCH-sfGFP, which selectively binds to F-

actin, gradually accumulated in the nucleus during the interphase, thereby reaching the

maximum amount at around NEBD. After the high stage, UtrCH-sfGFP was not much

concentrated in nuclei, while some filamentous structures were more evidently observed.

These data are consistent with previous findings in mouse and *Xenopus laevis* early

embryos (Baarlink *et al*., 2017; Oda *et al*., 2017), which indicates that nuclear F-actin

accumulation in undifferentiated cells is common in vertebrates (Xu *et al*., 2010;

Miyamoto *et al.*, 2011; Miyamoto *et al.*, 2013; Sokolova *et al.*, 2018; Okuno *et al.*, 2020).

After ZGA, the level of nuclear F-actin drops. The decrease appears to be induced by

zygotic transcription, as nuclear F-actin was still observed in the sphere-stage embryos

that were treated with α-amanitin, an RNA polymerase II inhibitor. Maternal-to-zygotic

transition may alter the balance of nuclear import and export factors of actin, as it was

previously demonstrated that the actin exporter, Exp6, is not expressed in *Xenopus*

oocytes nor in early embryonic stages, yet it becomes expressed after ZGA (Bohnsack

et al., 2006).

Nuclear F-actin may facilitate chromosome congression and regulate microtubule

growth

In early-stage zebrafish embryos, the peak of nuclear F-actin accumulation was

concurrent with the timing of NEBD and F-actin localized in the vicinity of condensing

chromosomes during prometaphase before disappearing during metaphase. This actin

behavior is similar to that observed in starfish oocytes (Lénárt *et al.*, 2005; Mori *et al.*,

2011; Mori *et al.*, 2014; Wesolowska *et al.*, 2020). In starfish oocyte GV, F-actin is

assembled underneath the nuclear membrane and forms spikes toward to the nuclear

membranes, which contribute to membrane rupture and NEBD (Mori *et al.*, 2014;

Wesolowska *et al.*, 2020). After the germinal vesicle breakdown, actin meshwork catches

chromosomes and shrinks like a fishnet to transport them over a long distance toward

underneath the starfish oocyte cortex in meiosis II (Lénárt *et al.*, 2005; Mori *et al.*, 2011).

In the mouse oocyte, both nuclear F-actin and spindle F- actin protect the chromosomes

misalignment and missegregation at the meiosis (Mogessie and Schuh, 2017; Scheffler

et al., 2022). It is interesting to speculate that the function of actin in large oocyte cells

may partially be retained in fertilized eggs, although it is unknown whether a similar

system to starfish is conserved in zebrafish oocytes. During the short cell cycle of

zebrafish embryos, the spindle checkpoint is weak until the zygotic genome activation

(Ikegami *et al*., 1997). In relatively large cells during the early embryonic stages, actin

patches remained around chromosomes may assist in chromosome congression, just as

the actin meshwork in starfish oocytes. It is also possible that actin patches guide

microtubule assembly and promote proper and rapid spindle formation, as recent reports

have shown that actin supports proper spindle formation in *Xenopus* gastrula embryos,

mouse and human oocytes, and cultured cells (Woolner *et al*., 2008; Mogessie and

Schuh, 2017; Roeles and Tsiavaliaris, 2019; Plessner *et al*., 2019; Farina *et al*., 2016;

Farina *et al*., 2019; Kita *et al*., 2019). However, "spindle-actin" has been depicted with

barrel structures composed of fine actin fiber at metaphase, unlike actin patches during

the prometaphase of zebrafish embryos. We speculate that the accumulation of F-actin

in nuclei in zebrafish early embryos contribute to proper mitotic progression by assisting

in NEBD, chromosome congression, and/or spindle assembly under rapid cell cycles

with weak checkpoint mechanism.

Manipulation of nuclear actin level in zebrafish embryos

We took different approaches to decrease the level of nuclear F-actin by expressing

Exp6, an NLS-tagged Actin R62D, and NLS-tagged cofilin; unfortunately, however, none

of them were successful. Exp 6 and NLS-tagged Actin R62D have been used to decrease

nuclear actin and inhibition of nuclear actin polymerization, respectively, in previous

reports (Bohnsack *et al*., 2006; Okuno *et al*., 2020; Miyamoto *et al*., 2011; Spencer *et al*.,

2011; Dopie *et al*., 2012; Parisis *et al*., 2017; Baarlink *et al*., 2017). However, we did not

observe significant decreases of UtrCH-sfGFP N/C ratios in zebrafish embryos

expressing Exp6 and Actin R62D, under the conditions that did not affect cytoplasmic F-

actin. Increasing the expression levels of those proteins by injecting more mRNA affected

cytoplasmic F-actin causing defects in cytokinesis. We also attempted to decrease

nuclear F-actin using NLS-tagged cofilin 1 and cofilin 2, which are actin-depolymerizing

factors (Amano *et al*., 2002; Vartiainen *et al*., 2002; Kaji *et al*., 2008; Chin *et al*., 2016;

Wioland *et al*., 2017); however, their expression did not affect nuclear F-actin levels. In

addition, the expression of NLS-tagged wild-type actin did not increase UtrCH-sfGFP

N/C ratio. It can be speculated that nuclear actin is very abundant and the ectopic wild-

type actin or R62D mutant may not affect much on the total F-actin level. Also, F-actin

formation in the nucleus may be robustly regulated, and expressing factors that assist in

actin depolymerization may be compensated when the expression level is mild not

affecting the cytoplasmic actin.

Materials and methods

Zebrafish embryo preparation for live imaging

To obtain fertilized eggs, 5–10 pairs of AB line WT zebrafish (*Danio rerio*) males and

females were crossed. Embryos were dechorionated using 1 mg/mL pronase

from *Streptomyces griseus* (SIGMA, 10165921001) diluted in 0.3× Danieau's buffer

[17.4 mM NaCl, 210 µM KCl, 120 µM $MgSO_4$, 180 µM $Ca(NO_3)_2$, 1.5 mM HEPES, pH

7.6]. For actin visualization, UtrCH-sfGFP (1.46 fmol; see below) or LifeAct-sfGFP (2.3

fmol; see below) was injected with labeled Fabs (anti-H3K9ac [CMA315; 50 pg], anti-

H3S28ph [CMA315; 50 pg]; anti-DYKDDDDK tag [FUJIFILM Wako, 012-22384; 50 pg];

Sato *et al*., 2019) and 10 fmol JF646-LANA (see below) in 0.5 nL phosphate-buffered

saline (PBS, Takara, T900) containing 0.05% phenol red (SIGMA, P5530) as an injection

marker, were injected into the yolk of 1-cell stage embryos. For NEBD or tubulin

visualization, TMR-labeled 155-kDa dextran (250 pg in 0.5 nL PBS, SIGMA, T1287) or

TMR-labeled tubulin (1.25 ng in 0.5 nL General Tubulin Buffer, Cytoskeleton, TL590M)

was injected with UtrCH-sfGFP and JF646 LANA. When mRNA was also injected, mRNA

of sfCherry-NLS or 3×FLAG-tagged Actin WT or R62D (125 pg in 0.5 nL water), 3×FLAG-

tagged Exp6 (150 pg in 0.5 nL water), sfCherry-NLS-tagged cofilin1 (125 or 400 pg in

0.5 nL water) or sfCherry-NLS-tagged cofilin2 (125 pg in 0.5 nL water) was first injected

into the cell of 1-cell stage embryos, and then UtrCH-sfGFP, LifeAct-sfGFP, Fabs, and/or

JF646-LANA were injected into the yolk. For transcription inhibition, 250 pg α-amanitin

(Merck, 129741) in 0.5 nL PBS was injected into the yolk of 1-cell stage embryos (Kane

et al., 1996; Sato *et al*., 2019). To monitor the transcription inhibition, 530 pg of Cy3-

labeled antisense morpholino oligonucleotide specific to miR-430 transcripts (Hadzhiev

et al., 2019) in 0.5 nL water was injected into the yolk of the 1-cell stage embryos with

JF646-LANA. The injected embryos were incubated at ~25°C up to the 4-cell stage and

embedded into 0.5% agarose type VII-A low melting temperature (SIGMA, A-0701) in

PBS on a glass bottom dish (IWAKI, 3791-035) with the animal pole positioned down for

live-cell imaging.

All zebrafish experiments were approved by the Tokyo Institute of Technology Genetic

Experiment Safety Committee (I2018001), and animal handling was carried out

according to the guidelines.

Zebrafish embryo fixation and staining

For Fig. 1A and B, dechorionated embryos were incubated until fixation at the desired

stage with 4% paraformaldehyde in 250 mM HEPES for 3 h at 25°C. After fixation,

embryos were washed three times with PBS and stained with 2 µg/mL Hoechst 33342

(Nacalai Tesque, 04929-82) and 20 nM Acti-stain™ 555 phalloidin (Cytoskeleton,

PHDH1-A) in PBS containing 0.05% Triton X-100 at 4°C overnight in the dark. Stained

embryos were washed three times with PBS before microscopic observation. For Fig.

8B, embryos were injected with α-amanitin (250 pg in 0.5 nL) or PBS (0.5 nL) as the

control and incubated until the 1k-cell or oblong stage and fixed with 4%

paraformaldehyde in 250 mM HEPES for 3 h at 25°C. After the fixation, embryos were

washed with PBS and embedded in 100 µL 0.5% agarose in PBS and covered with 100

µL 1% agarose to prevent the detachment of embryos from a glass bottom dish. Embryos

were stained with 2 µg/mL Hoechst 33342 and 20 nM Acti-stain™ 555 phalloidin in PBS

containing 0.05% Triton X-100 in the dark with gentle shaking (Titec, Shake-XR; 40 rpm)

overnight. Stained embryos were washed three times with PBS before microscopic

observation.

Embryo imaging

Images were collected using a confocal microscope. For Figs. 1, 2, 3, 8A, 8C, S2, S4,

S5, S6, and Movie 1, images were acquired using a confocal microscope FV1000

(OLYMPUS) operated under built-in software (FLUOVIEW-ASW, version 4.2) with a

UPLSAPO 30× silicone-immersion objective lens (NA 1.05), with 150 µm pinhole, zoom

1.0×, and 488-nm, 543-nm, and 633-nm laser lines on a heated stage at 28°C (Tokai Hit).

For live imaging of Figs. 1D, 2A, 3A, 8C, S2, S4, S5, S6, and Movie 1, 25 z-stack images

(4 µm z-intervals; 512 × 512 pixels) were taken with 90 s intervals.

For high-speed or higher resolution imaging to produce the images shown in Figs. 4, 5,

6, 7, 8A, S1C, S1D, S3, and Movie 2–5, images were taken using a spinning disk

confocal system consisting of an inverted microscope (Ti-E, Nikon) with an Apo 40×

water-immersion objective lens (NA 1.25; Figs. 4, 5, 6, 7, 8A, S3 and Movies 2–5) or a

Plan Apo 25× silicon-immersion objective lens (NA 1.05, Fig. S1C and S1D), a spinning

disk unit with 40 μm pinhole (Dragonfly, Oxford Instruments), a laser unit with 488-nm,

561-nm and, 637-nm laser lines, and an EM-CCD camera (iXon Life 888, Oxford

Instruments), operated under Fusion software (version 2.0 and 2.2, Oxford Instruments).

15–25 z-stack images (1, 2, or 4 μm z-intervals; 1024 × 1024 pixels) were taken with

12.5, 15, 60, or 90 s time intervals at 25°C.

Actin-binding peptides

DNA fragment encoding UtrCH (1-262 of human utrophin, NM_007124) or LifeAct (Riedl

et al., 2008) gifted from Dr. Mari Iwabuchi (Nagoya University, Japan) was fused with the

sfGFP gene with a linker sequence (DPPVAT) and was cloned into a pGEX6P-1 vector

that has the N-terminal glutathione S-transferase (GST) tag (Cytiva). *E. coli* BL21 (DE3)

cells harboring the pGEX6P-1-based expression plasmid were grown in 24 mL Plusgrow

II (Nacalai Tesque, 08246-86) medium overnight at 25°C. The overnight culture (24 mL)

was diluted into 400 mL PlusgrowII medium and further incubated at 25°C for 3 h. The

expression of GST-UtrCH-sfGFP and GST-LifeAct-sfGFP was induced in *E. coli* BL21

(DE3) at 25°C for 7 h by adding 1 mM isopropyl β-D-thiogalactopyranoside (Nacalai

Tesque, 19742-94). Harvested bacterial cells (400 mL, 4,000 ×*g*, 10 min, 4°C) were

suspended in 20 mL ice-cold 50 mM Tris–HCl (pH 7.4) buffer containing 1 mg/mL

lysozyme (Seikagaku Corporation, 100940) and 1× protease inhibitor cocktail (Nacalai

Tesque, 03969-21) and were lysed by sonication (Branson; SONIFIRE 250; output

control: 1, duty cycle: 50% for 2 min repeated 14 cycles with 30 s interval) in an ice bath.

Triton X-100 (10% in water) was added to the sonicated solution to yield the final

concentration at 1% and the mixture was incubated for 30 min at room temperature with

a gentle rotation (Titec, RT-50; 30 rpm). After centrifugation (10,000 ×g for 20 min at 4°C),

the supernatant was mixed with 5 mL (bed volume) glutathione sepharose 4B beads

(Cytiva, 17075605; prewashed with PBS) and gently rotated (Titec, RT-50; 30 rpm) at

4°C for 20 h in the dark. The beads were collected in a Poly-Prep® Chromatography

Columns (BioRad) and washed with a 10-column volume of PBS. GST-UtrCH-sfGFP or

GST-LifeAct-sfGFP was eluted using a 5-column volume of 10 mM glutathione

(FUJIFILM Wako Pure Chemical, 073-02013) containing 50 mM Tris–HCl (pH 8.7). The

eluate was concentrated down to 1.5 mL using an Amicon Ultra Centrifuge Filter unit (30

kDa cutoff for GST-UtrCH-sfGFP and 10 kDa cutoff for GST-LifeAct-sfGFP; Merck,

UFC903024 and UFC901024, respectively). The GST tag was removed by digestion with

8 units/mL PreScission Protease (Cytiva, 27084301) on ice for 24–36 h and then

removed through glutathione sepharose 4B beads (5 mL bed volume) packed twice in

Poly-Prep® Chromatography Columns (BioRad). UtrCH-sfGFP and LifeAct-sfGFP were

further purified through gel filtration column chromatography (HiLoad 16/600 Superdex

75 pg, Cytiva, 28989333) using AKTAPrime™PLUS (Cytiva, 11001313). After loading

1.5 ml of the protein sample, 30 mL fractions were collected and analyzed by 15%

sodium dodecyl sulfate (SDS)-polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis (SuperSep Ace,

FUJIFILM Wako Pure Chemical, 190-15001). The highly pure fractions were collected

(Supplementary Fig. S1A and S1B), aliquoted, snap-frozen in liquid N_2, and stored at

−80°C. Once thawed, recombinant proteins were stable at 4°C for at least 5 days.

Fab preparation

Dye-conjugated Fabs were prepared as previously described (Kimura and Yamagata,

2015). In brief, 100 μg purified Fab (anti-H3K9ac: CMA310/19E5, Hayashi-Takanaka *et*

al., 2011; anti-H3S28ph: CMA315/10-20F11, Hayashi-Takanaka *et al*., 2014; anti-

DYKDDDDK tag: FUJIFILM Wako, 012-22384) was reacted with N-hydroxysuccinimide

ester-conjugated fluorescence dye (Cy5, cytiva, PF11A25001; Cy3, cytiva, PA13105) in

100 mM $NaHCO_3$ (pH 8.3) in PBS for 1 h at room temperature in the dark. Dye-

conjugated Fabs were collected using PD MiniTrap G-25 column (Cytiva, 28918004; pre-

equilibrated with PBS) and were concentrated to 1 mg/mL using a 10-kDa cutoff Amicon

Ultracell Centrifuge Filter Unit (Merck, UFC5010BK), and stored at 4°C in the dark.

Morpholino oligonucleotide labeling

Antisense morpholino oligo nucleotide was labeled as previously described (Sato *et al*.,

2019). In brief, 3′-primary amino-modified morpholino oligonucleotides specific for miR-

430 was reacted with N-hydroxysuccinimide ester-conjugated Cy3 in 0.1 M $NaHCO_3$ (pH

8.3) for 1 h at room temperature in the dark. After the reaction, Cy3-labeled morpholino

oligonucleotide was purified using a PD MiniTrap G-25 column.

Synthesis of PEG$_{750}$-LANA-JF646 (JF646-LANA)

Preparative high-performance liquid chromatography (HPLC) was conducted by using a

JASCO HPLC system equipped with a UV-2075 spectrometer (230 nm), PU-4086 pumps,

a DG-4580 degasser, and an MX-2080-32 mixer using a YMC-Triart C18 (20 mm I.D. ×

250 mm or 10 mm I.D. × 250 mm) column at 40°C with a gradient of acetonitrile in 0.1%

aqueous trifluoroacetic acid (TFA) at a flow rate of 10 or 3.5 mL/min. Analytical HPLC

was conducted by using a JASCO HPLC system equipped with a UV-2075 spectrometer,

PU-4180 pumps, a DG-4580 degasser, and an MX-2080-32 mixer, using a YMC-Triart

Phenyl C18 (4.6 mm I.D. × 150 mm) column with a linear gradient of 2%–90% acetonitrile

in 0.1% aqueous TFA over 3–15 min.

Poly(ethylene glycol) methyl ethers (Mn = 750) were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich

(#202495). All protected α-amino acids were purchased from Watanabe Chemical

Industries, Ltd. (Hiroshima, Japan) and Peptide Institute, Inc. (Osaka, Japan). NovaPEG

Rink amide resin was purchased from Merck KGaA, Co. Other chemicals were used as

received, unless otherwise stated.

The LANA peptide was synthesized on a solid phase using NovaPEG-Rink-amide-resin

(Fig. S7A). The Fmoc-amino acid was sequentially coupled using the DIC-HOBt method

in N,N-dimethylformamide (DMF; 3 equiv. each) for 60 min at room temperature after

removal of each Fmoc group with 20% piperidine-DMF for 10 min. The N-terminus was

capped with 20% acetic anhydride in CH_2Cl_2 for 5 min. The peptide was cleaved from

the resin by treatment with TFA in the presence of triisopropylsilane (TIPS) and H_2O

(95:2.5:2.5) for 90 min at room temperature, and then was concentrated under reduced

pressure, and precipitated with ether to obtain crude peptides, which were purified with

preparative HPLC (0% acetonitrile for 5 min, followed by a linear gradient of 0%–60%

acetonitrile over 30 min with a flow rate of 10 mL/min) to afford the product $LANA_{5-22}$-N_3

peptide (Fig. S7B) as white solids after lyophilization. 3,4,5-Tris(PEG_{750})-N-(prop-2-yn-1-

yl)benzamide was synthesized (Fig. S7C) following a previously described method

(Fujiwara *et al.*, 2021).

To synthesize PEG_{750}-LANA (Fig. S7D), Cu-Tris[(1-benzyl-1H-1,2,3-triazol-4-

yl)methyl]amine (TBTA) solution in water:tBuOH (1:2, 150 µL; separately prepared by

mixing 24 mM $CuSO_4$ solution in water and 24 mM TBTA solution in tBuOH) was added

to a stirred solution of $LANA_{5-22}$-N_3 (10 mM in water, 72 µL, 720 pmol) and 3,4,5-

tris(PEG$_{750}$)-N-(prop-2-yn-1-yl)benzamide (50 mM in tBuOH, 14.4 µL, 720 pmol). Then,

sodium ascorbate aqueous solution (100 mM, 60 µL, 6.00 µmol) was added, and the

mixture was stirred at room temperature for 22 h. Insoluble materials were removed by

filtration, and the filtrate was purified with preparative HPLC (0% acetonitrile for 3 min,

followed by a linear gradient of 0%–25% acetonitrile over 2 min, then a linear gradient of

25%–80% acetonitrile over 35 min with a flow rate of 3.5 mL/min) to produce PEG$_{750}$-

LANA; (Fig. S7E) after lyophilization.

To synthesize PEG$_{750}$-LANA-JF646 (Fig. S7F), 276 µL of DMF was added to a

stirred solution of PEG750-LANA (10 mM in water, 40 µL, 400 pmol) and Janelia Fluor

646, N-succinimidyl ester (TOCRIS, 10 mM in DMSO, 44 µL, 720 pmol). Then, 40 µL

saturated sodium hydrogen carbonate aqueous solution was added, and the mixture was

stirred at room temperature for 5 h. Insoluble materials were removed by filtration, and

the filtrate was purified with preparative HPLC (0% acetonitrile for 3 min, followed by a

linear gradient of 0%–25% acetonitrile over 2 min, then a linear gradient of 25%–80%

acetonitrile over 35 min with a flow rate of 3.5 mL/min) to produce PEG$_{750}$-LANA-JF646

(Fig. S7G) after lyophilization. The final product was analyzed by a MALDI-TOFMS (Fig.

S8, Shimadzu Biotech Axima ToF^2 spectrometer).

mRNA synthesis

To clone zebrafish genes, RNA was prepared from 24 hpf embryos using TRIzol reagent

(Ambion, 15596026). Zebrafish WT beta-actin (actin WT, GenBank Accession:

AF025305), Exp6 (GenBank Accession: BC044132), cofilin1 (GenBank Accession:

AY398323), and cofilin2 (GenBank Accession: AY398324) cDNA were amplified from the

embryo RNA using PrimeScript™ II High Fidelity One Step RT-polymerase chain

reaction (PCR) Kit (Takara, R026A) using the following primers: actin WT: (5'-

ATGGATGATGAAATTGCCGCACTGGTTGT-3') and (5'-

GAAGCATTTGCGGTGGACGATGGATGGTCC-3'); Exp6: (5'-

ATGGCGTCAGAGGAGGCCTCCTTACGGGCC-3') and (5'-

TAACTTCAGCGTTCCCGGCGGGAGGCTCCC-3'); cofilin1: (5'-

ATGGCCTCAGGTGTAGC-'3) and (5'-TTAGACAGGCTTCCCCTCC-'3); cofilin2 (5'-

ATGGCCTCCGGAGTTAC-3') and (5'-TCAATCGGTTAGAGGCTTTCC-3'). Amplified

cDNA was cloned into pSC plasmid (StrataClone Blunt PCR Cloning Kit, STRATAGENE,

240207). Then, the actin R62D mutant was obtained by inverse PCR using the following

primers (5'-GATGAGGCTCAGAGCAAGAGAGGTATCCTGACCCTGAAG-3') and (5'-

CTTCAGGGTCAGGATACCTCTCTTGCTCTGAGCCTCATC-3'). The nucleotide

sequence was validated by Sanger sequencing. For *in vitro* transcription, actin WT and

R62D were inserted into the EcoRI and NotI sites of the pcDNA3.1 + poly(A)83 plasmid

(Yamagata *et al.*, 2005) with sfCherry or 3×FLAG-tag and NLS (see below). Exp6 was

inserted into the EcoRI and NotI sites of the pcDNA3.1 + poly(A)83 plasmid with

3×FLAG-tag. Cofilin1 or cofilin2 were inserted into the EcoRI and NotI sites of the

pcDNA3.1 + poly(A)83 plasmid with sfCherry and NLS. The resulting

pcDNA3.1_sfCherry-NLS + poly(A)83, pcDNA3.1_actin R62D-sfCherry-NLS + poly(A)83,

pcDNA3.1_actin WT-sfCherry-NLS + poly(A)83, pcDNA3.1_actin R62D-3×FLAG-NLS +

poly(A)83, pcDNA3.1_actin WT-3×FLAG-NLS + poly(A)83 pcDNA3.1_sfCherry-NLS +

poly(A)83, pcDNA3.1_Cofilin1-sfCherry-NLS + poly(A)83, pcDNA3.1_Cofilin2-sfCherry-

NLS + poly(A)83 were linearized by XbaI digestion, and pcDNA3.1_Exp6-3×FLAG-NLS

+ poly(A)83 was linearized by XhoI digestion. The linearized plasmids were treated with

0.2 mg/mL proteinase K (Invitrogen, 25530-015), purified with phenol–chloroform

treatment and ethanol precipitation, then processed through *in vitro* transcription using

mMESSAGE mMACHINE T7 Transcription Kit (Ambion, AM1344) according to the

manufacturer's instruction. The concentration of synthesized mRNA was measured and

adjusted to 50, 250, 300, or 800 ng/µL by using nuclease-free water (Cytiva,

SH30538.01) containing 0.05% phenol red (SIGMA-ALDRICH, P5530-5G) as an

injection marker.

Nuclear Localization Signal cloning

Nucleoplasmin 2B (NPM, GenBank Accession: NM_001123007) was amplified from 24

hpf embryo RNA using the PrimeScript II High Fidelity One Step RT-PCR kit (Takara,

R026A) and the following primers; 5'-ATGAGCAAAACCGAGAAACC-3' and 5'-

TCACGCCTTCGCCTTC-3'. The nucleotide sequence was validated with Sanger

sequencing. NPM cDNA was fused to the C-terminus of sfGFP and cloned into pcDNA3.1

containing a poly(A) tail sequence for mRNA synthesis, as described above. After

confirming the nuclear localization of sfGFP-NPM, the potential NLS region containing

41 amino acids at the C-terminus was subcloned into the same vector. The 41 amino

acids directed sfGFP to the nuclei, so were used as an NLS in zebrafish embryos.

Western blotting

After dechorionation and injection, zebrafish embryos were incubated at 28°C for 5.3 h.

At the 50%-epiboly stage, the yolk was removed by hand using a pair of sharp forceps

and the cells were washed three times in 0.3× Danieau's buffer. Ten de-yolked embryos

were transferred into a 1.5 ml protein low bind-tube (Eppendorf, 0030108116) with the

buffer and the number of the embryos was confirmed under a stereoscopic microscope.

A gel-loading tip (QSP, 010-R204S-Q) was used to remove as much of the extra buffer

as possible. Then, 10 µL 2× SDS-gel loading buffer (125 mM Tris–HCl, 0.01%

bromophenol blue, 4% SDS, 20% glycerol, 100 mM DTT) was added to the embryos,

mixed by vortex and boiled at 95°C for 5 min. The 10 embryos were loaded into each

lane and separated on a 7.5% polyacrylamide gel (SuperSep Ace, FUJIFILM Wako Pure

Chemical, 191-14931), then transferred onto a polyvinylidene fluoride membrane (PALL,

BSP0161) using a semi-dry blotting system (ATTO). After blocking with Blocking-One

(Nacalai Tesque, 0395395), the membrane was incubated with anti-DYKDDDDK

antibody (1E6, 1 µg/mL, FUJIFILM Wako Pure Chemical, 012-22384) overnight at 4°C.

After washing with TBST (0.01% Tween-20, 10 mM Tris, 150 mM NaCl, pH 8.0), the

membrane was incubated with horseradish peroxidase-conjugated goat anti-Mouse IgG

(1:1000 dilution, Jackson ImmunoResearch, 115-035-146) overnight at 4°C. After

washing the membrane with TBST, the signal was developed using Western Lightning®

Plus-ECL (PerkinElmer, NEL104001EA) and detected using a gel documentation system

(ATTO, LuminoGraphII).

Data analysis

The intensity ratio of the nucleus to the cytoplasm depicted in Figs. 2, 3, 8C, S4, S5, and

S6 were measured as previously described (Sato *et al.*, 2019) using MATLAB software

(https://github.com/lhilbert/NucCyto_Ratio_TimeLapse). Using this code, the nuclear

area was segmented by the Cy5-labeled H3K9ac channel, and the cytoplasm was

defined as the region between 3.3 µm and 8.3 µm from the surface of the nucleus. To

measure the intensity ratio of the nucleus or chromosomes to the cytoplasm of UtrCH

shown in Fig.4C and 8B, a single z-section of the equatorial plane of each nucleus was

selected, and the nuclear area was determined based on the JF646- LANA or Hoechst

signal. The cytoplasmic area was defined as the region between 0.3 µm and 2.5 µm from

the edge of the nucleus using ImageJ FIJI (ver. 2.1.0).

Drawing line graphs, box plots, and statistical analyses were performed by using R

software (version 4.0.3; https://www.r-project.org/). The data distribution of each dataset

was first analyzed using Kolmogorov-Smirnov test. For parametric samples, the

homoscedasticity was analyzed using F-test, and then Student's t-test (unpaired, two-

tailed, Fig. 7A; comparing N/C ratio with homoscedasticity) was used.

Acknowledgement

We appreciate Mari Iwabuchi and Kazuo Yamagata for plasmids, Lennart Hilbert for

MatLab code, and Masahiko Harata, Kei Miyamoto and members in Kimura lab for

discussion. We thank the Biomaterials Analysis Division, Open Facility Center, Tokyo

Institute of Technology for DNA sequencing.

Competing interests

No competing interests declared.

Funding

This work was in part supported by Japan Society for the Promotion of Science KAKENHI

grants (JP17J06627 and JP21K15103 to H.O., JP17KK0143 and JP20K06484 to Y.S.,

JP21H02074 to S.A.K., JP20H00489 to M.K., and JP18H05527 and JP21H04764 to

H.K.), Japan Science and Technology CREST (JPMJCR20S6 to Y.S. and JPMJCR16G1

to H.K.), the Max Planck Society and the University of Lausanne (to N.L.V., M.P., and

E.W.), and Fonds de la Recherche en Santé du Québec (FRQS) postdoctoral fellowship

to E.W.

References

Amano, T., Kaji, N., Ohashi, K. and Mizuno, K. (2002). Mitosis-specific Activation of LIM Motif-containing Protein Kinase and Roles of Cofilin Phosphorylation and Dephosphorylation in Mitosis. *J. Biol. Chem.* 277, 22093–22102.

Baarlink, C., Wang, H. and Grosse, R. (2013). Nuclear actin network assembly by formins regulates the SRF coactivator MAL. *Science* 340, 864–867.

Baarlink, C., Plessner, M., Sherrard, A., Morita, K., Misu, S., Virant, D., Kleinschnitz, E.-M., Harniman, R., Alibhai, D., Baumeister, S., *et al*. (2017). A transient pool of nuclear F-actin at mitotic exit controls chromatin organization. *Nat. Cell Biol.* 19, 1389–1399.

Barbera, A.J., Chodaparambil, J.V., Kelley-Clarke, B., Joukov, V., Walter, J.C., Luger, K., and Kaye, K.M. (2006). The nucleosomal surface as a docking station for Kaposi's sarcoma herpesvirus LANA. *Science* 311, 856-861.

Belin, B. J., Lee, T. and Mullins, R. D. (2015). DNA damage induces nuclear actin filament assembly by Formin -2 and Spire-½ that promotes efficient DNA repair. *eLife* 4, e07735.

Bohnsack, M. T., Stüven, T., Kuhn, C., Cordes, V. C. and Görlich, D. (2006). A selective block of nuclear actin export stabilizes the giant nuclei of Xenopus oocytes. *Nat. Cell Biol.* 8, 257–263.

Brueckner, F. and Cramer, P. (2008). Structural basis of transcription inhibition by α-amanitin and implications for RNA polymerase II translocation. *Nat. Struct. Mol. Biol*. 15, 811–818.

Burkel, B. M., von Dassow, G. and Bement, W. M. (2007). Versatile fluorescent probes for actin filaments based on the actin-binding domain of utrophin. *Cell Motil. Cytoskeleton* 64, 822–832.

Caridi, C. P., Plessner, M., Grosse, R. and Chiolo, I. (2019). Nuclear actin filaments in DNA repair dynamics. *Nat. Cell Biol.* 21, 1068–1077.

Chin, S. M., Jansen, S. and Goode, B. L. (2016). TIRF microscopy analysis of human Cof1, Cof2, and ADF effects on actin filament severing and turnover. *J. Mol. Biol*. 428, 1604.

Chiolo, I., Minoda, A., Colmenares, S. U., Polyzos, A., Costes, S. V. and Karpen, G. H. (2011). Double-strand breaks in heterochromatin move outside of a dynamic HP1a domain to complete recombinational repair. *Cell,* 144, 732-744

Clark, T. G. and Merriam, R. W. (1977). Diffusible and bound actin in nuclei of *Xenopus laevis* oocytes. *Cell* 12, 883–891.

Clark, T. G. and Rosenbaum, J. L. (1979). An actin filament matrix in hand-isolated nuclei of X. *laevis* oocytes. *Cell* 18, 1101–1108.

Dancker, P., Löw, I., Hasselbach, W. and Wieland, T. (1975). Interaction of actin with phalloidin: Polymerization and stabilization of F-actin. *Biochim. Biophys. Acta - Protein Struct*. 400, 407–414.

Dopie, J., Skarp, K. P., Rajakylä, E. K., Tanhuanpää, K. and Vartiainen, M. K. (2012). Active maintenance of nuclear actin by importin 9 supports transcription. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U. S. A.* 109, E544-552

Dunkley, S., Scheffler, K. and Mogessie, B. (2022). Cytoskeletal form and function in mammalian oocytes and zygotes. *Curr. Opin. Cell Biol*. 75, 102073.

Farina, F., Gaillard, J., Guérin, C., Couté, Y., Sillibourne, J., Blanchoin, L. and Théry, M. (2016). The centrosome is an actin-organizing centre. *Nat. Cell Biol.* 18, 65–75.

Farina, F., Ramkumar, N., Brown, L., Samandar Eweis, D., Anstatt, J., Waring, T., Bithell, J., Scita, G., Thery, M., Blanchoin, L., *et al*. (2019). Local actin nucleation tunes centrosomal microtubule nucleation during passage through mitosis. *EMBO J*. 38, e99843.

Fujiwara, Y., Yamanashi, Y., Fujimura, A., Sato, Y., Kujirai, T., Kurumizaka, H., Kimura, H., Yamatsugu, K., Kawashima, S. A. and Kanai, M. (2021). Live-cell epigenome manipulation by synthetic histone acetylation catalyst system. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci*. 118, e2019554118.

Hadzhiev, Y., Qureshi, H. K., Wheatley, L., Cooper, L., Jasiulewicz, A., Van Nguyen, H., Wragg, J. W., Poovathumkadavil, D., Conic, S., Bajan, S., et al. (2019). A cell cycle-

coordinated Polymerase II transcription compartment encompasses gene expression before global genome activation. *Nat. Commun.* 2019 101 10, 1–14.

Hayashi-Takanaka, Y., Stasevich, T. J., Kurumizaka, H., Nozaki, N. and Kimura, H. (2014). Evaluation of chemical fluorescent dyes as a protein conjugation partner for live cell imaging. *PLoS One* 9, e106271.

Hayashi-Takanaka, Y., Yamagata, K., Wakayama, T., Stasevich, T. J., Kainuma, T., Tsurimoto, T., Tachibana, M., Shinkai, Y., Kurumizaka, H., Nozaki, N., *et al*. (2011). Tracking epigenetic histone modifications in single cells using Fab-based live endogenous modification labeling. *Nucleic Acids Res.* 39, 6475–6488.

Heyn, P., Kircher, M., Dahl, A., Kelso, J., Tomancak, P., Kalinka, A. T. and Neugebauer, K. M. (2014). The earliest transcribed zygotic genes are short, newly evolved, and different across species. *Cell Rep*. 6, 285–292.

Hofmann, W. A., Arduini, A., Nicol, S. M., Camacho, C. J., Lessard, J. L., Fuller-Pace, F. V and De Lanerolle, P. (2009). SUMOylation of nuclear actin. *J. Cell Biol*. 186, 193–200.

Ikegami, R., Zhang, J., Rivera-Bennetts, A. K. and Yager, T. D. (1997). Activation of the metaphase checkpoint and an apoptosis programme in the early zebrafish embryo, by treatment with the spindle-destabilising agent nocodazole. *Zygote* 5, 329–350.

Jevtić, P. and Levy, D. L. (2015). Nuclear size scaling during *Xenopus* early development contributes to midblastula transition timing. *Curr. Biol.* 25, 45–52.

Joseph, S. R., Pálfy, M., Hilbert, L., Kumar, M., Karschau, J., Zaburdaev, V., Shevchenko, A. and Vastenhouw, N. L. (2017). Competition between histone and transcription factor binding regulates the onset of transcription in zebrafish embryos. *eLife* 6, e23326

Kaji, N., Muramoto, A. and Mizuno, K. (2008). LIM Kinase-mediated Cofilin Phosphorylation during Mitosis Is Required for Precise Spindle Positioning. *J. Biol. Chem*. 283, 4983–4992.

Kane, D. A., Warga, R. M. and Kimmel, C. B. (1992). Mitotic domains in the early embryo of the zebrafish. *Nature* 360, 735–737.

Kane, D. A., Hammerschmidt, M., Mullins, M. C., Maischein, H. M., Brand, M., Van Eeden, F. J. M., Furutani-Seiki, M., Granato, M., Haffter, P., Heisenberg, C. P., *et al.* (1996). The zebrafish epiboly mutants. *Development* 123, 47–55.

Kimmel, C. B., Ballard, W. W., Kimmel, S. R., Ullmann, B. and Schilling, T. F. (1995). Stages of embryonic development of the zebrafish. *Dev. Dyn*. 203, 253–310.

Kimura, H. and Yamagata, K. (2015). *Nuclear Reprogramming*. (ed. Beaujean, N., Jammes, H., and Jouneau, A.), pp. 124-147, New York, NY: Springer New York.

Kita, A. M., Swider, Z. T., Erofeev, I., Halloran, M. C., Goryachev, A. B. and Bement, W. M. (2019). Spindle-F-actin interactions in mitotic spindles in an intact vertebrate epithelium. *Mol. Biol. Cell* 30, 1645–1654.

Lénárt, P., Bacher, C. P., Daigle, N., Hand, A. R., Eils, R., Terasaki, M. and Ellenberg, J. (2005). A contractile nuclear actin network drives chromosome congression in oocytes. *Nature* 436, 812–818.

Lucas, I., Chevrier-Miller, M., Sogo, J. M. and Hyrien, O. (2000). Mechanisms ensuring rapid and complete DNA replication despite random initiation in *Xenopus* early embryos. *J. Mol. Biol.* 29, 769-786

Mahbubani, H. M., Paull, T., Eider, J. K. and Blow, J. J. (1992). DNA replication initiates at multiple sites on plasmid DNA in *Xenopus* egg extracts. *Nucleic Acids Res.* 20, 1457–1462

Mathavan, S., Lee, S. G. P., Mak, A., Miller, L. D., Murthy, K. R. K., Govindarajan, K. R., Tong, Y., Wu, Y. L., Lam, S. H., Yang, H., *et al.* (2005). Transcriptome analysis of zebrafish embryogenesis using microarrays. *PLoS Genet*. 1, 0260–0276.

Misu, S., Takebayashi, M. and Miyamoto, K. (2017). Nuclear actin in development and transcriptional reprogramming. *Front. Genet*. 8, 27

Miyamoto, K., Pasque, V., Jullien, J. and Gurdon, J. B. (2011). Nuclear actin polymerization is required for transcriptional reprogramming of Oct4 by oocytes. *Genes Dev.* 25, 946–958.

Miyamoto, K., Teperek, M., Yusa, K., Allen, G. E., Bradshaw, C. R. and Gurdon, J. B. (2013). Nuclear Wave1 Is Required for Reprogramming Transcription in Oocytes and for Normal Development. *Science* 341, 1002–1005.

Mogessie, B. and Schuh, M. (2017). Actin protects mammalian eggs against chromosome segregation errors. *Science.* 357, eaal1647.

Mori, M., Monnier, N., Daigle, N., Bathe, M., Ellenberg, J. and Lénárt, P. (2011). Intracellular transport by an anchored homogeneously contracting F-actin meshwork. *Curr. Biol.* 21, 606–11.

Mori, M., Somogyi, K., Kondo, H., Monnier, N., Falk, H. J., Machado, P., Bathe, M., Nédélec, F. and Lénárt, P. (2014). An Arp2/3 nucleated F-actin shell fragments nuclear membranes at nuclear envelope breakdown in starfish oocytes. *Curr. Biol*. 24, 1421–8.

Murray, A. W. (1991). Xenopus laevis: Practical Uses in Cell and Molecular Biology. *Methods Cell Biol*. 36, 581–605.

Newport, J. and Kirschner, M. (1982). A major developmental transition in early *Xenopus* embryos: I. characterization and timing of cellular changes at the midblastula stage. *Cell* 30, 675–686.

Nguyen, V., Giannoni, F., Dubois, M.-F., Seo, S.-J., Vigneron, M., Kédinger, C. and Bensaude, O. (1996). In vivo degradation of RNA polymerase II largest subunit triggered by alpha-amanitin. *Nucleic Acids Res*. 24, 2924–2929.

Oda, H., Shirai, N., Ura, N., Ohsumi, K. and Iwabuchi, M. (2017). Chromatin tethering to the nuclear envelope by nuclear actin filaments: a novel role of the actin cytoskeleton in the *Xenopus* blastula. *Genes to Cells* 22, 376–391.

Okuno, T., Li, W. Y., Hatano, Y., Takasu, A., Sakamoto, Y., Yamamoto, M., Ikeda, Z., Shindo, T., Plessner, M., Morita, K., *et al*. (2020). Zygotic Nuclear F-Actin Safeguards Embryonic Development. *Cell Rep*. 31, 107824.

Pálfy, M., Joseph, S. R. and Vastenhouw, N. L. (2017). The timing of zygotic genome activation. *Curr. Opin. Genet. Dev.* 43, 53–60.

Parisis, N., Krasinska, L., Harker, B., Urbach, S., Rossignol, M., Camasses, A., Dewar, J., Morin, N. and Fisher, D. (2017). Initiation of DNA replication requires actin dynamics and formin activity. *EMBO J*. 36, 3212–3231.

Plessner, M., Knerr, J. and Grosse, R. (2019). Centrosomal Actin Assembly Is Required for Proper Mitotic Spindle Formation and Chromosome Congression. *iScience* 15, 274–281.

Posern, G., Sotiropoulos, A. and Treisman, R. (2002). Mutant Actins Demonstrate a Role for Unpolymerized Actin in Control of Transcription by Serum Response Factor. *Mol. Biol. Cell* 13, 4167–4178.

Riedl, J., Crevenna, A. H., Kessenbrock, K., Yu, J. H., Neukirchen, D., Bista, M., Bradke, F., Jenne, D., Holak, T. A., Werb, Z., *et al*. (2008). Lifeact: A versatile marker to visualize F-actin. *Nature Methods* 5, 605-607.

Rocchetti, A., Hawes, C. and Kriechbaumer, V. (2014). Fluorescent labelling of the actin cytoskeleton in plants using a cameloid antibody. *Plant Methods* 10, 12.

Roeles, J. and Tsiavaliaris, G. (2019). Actin-microtubule interplay coordinates spindle assembly in human oocytes. *Nat. Commun*. 10, 4651.

Sato, Y., Hilbert, L., Oda, H., Wan, Y., Heddleston, J. M., Chew, T.-L., Zaburdaev, V., Keller, P., Lionnet, T., Vastenhouw, N., *et al*. (2019). Histone H3K27 acetylation precedes active transcription during zebrafish zygotic genome activation as revealed by live-cell analysis. *Development* 146, dev179127.

Satoh, N. (1977). 'Metachronous' cleavage and initiation of gastrulation in amphibian embryos. *Dev. Growth Differ.* 19, 111–117.

Scheffler, K., Giannini, F., Lemonnier, T. and Mogessie, B. (2022). The prophase oocyte nucleus is a homeostatic G-actin buffer. *J. Cell Sci.* 135, jcs259807.

Schoenenberger, C. A., Buchmeier, S., Boerries, M., Sütterlin, R., Aebi, U. and Jockusch, B. M. (2005). Conformation-specific antibodies reveal distinct actin structures in the nucleus and the cytoplasm. *J. Struct. Biol*. 152, 157–168.

Sokolova, M., Moore, H. M., Prajapati, B., Dopie, J., Meriläinen, L., Honkanen, M., Matos, R. C., Poukkula, M., Hietakangas, V. and Vartiainen, M. K. (2018). Nuclear Actin Is Required for Transcription during Drosophila Oogenesis. *iScience* 9, 63-70.

Spencer, V. A., Costes, S., Inman, J. L., Xu, R., Chen, J., Hendzel, M. J. and Bissell, M. J. (2011). Depletion of nuclear actin is a key mediator of quiescence in epithelial cells. *J. Cell Sci*. 124, 123–132.

Spracklen, A. J., Fagan, T. N., Lovander, K. E. and Tootle, T. L. (2014). The pros and cons of common actin labeling tools for visualizing actin dynamics during Drosophila oogenesis. *Dev. Biol.* 393, 209–226.

Stüven, T., Hartmann, E. and Görlich, D. (2003). Exportin 6: A novel nuclear export receptor that is specific for profilin-actin complexes. *EMBO J.* 22, 5928–5940.

Tian, X., Qi, W., Chen, H., Zeng, X., Han, L. and Mi, D. (2016). β-Actin regulates interleukin 6-induced p21 transcription by interacting with the Rpb5 and Rpb7 subunits of RNA polymerase II. *Animal Cells and Systems* 20, 282-288.

Vartiainen, M. K., Guettler, S., Larijani, B. and Treisman, R. (2007). Nuclear actin regulates dynamic subcellular localization and activity of the SRF cofactor MAL. *Science* 316, 1749-1752.

Vartiainen, M. K., Mustonen, T., Mattila, P. K., Ojala, P. J., Thesleff, I., Partanen, J. and Lappalainen, P. (2002). The three mouse actin-depolymerizing factor/cofilins evolved to fulfill cell-type-specific requirements for actin dynamics. *Mol. Biol. Cell* 13, 183–194.

Vastenhouw, N. L., Cao, W. X. and Lipshitz, H. D. (2019). The maternal-to-zygotic transition revisited. *Development* 146, dev161471.

Wehland, J., Osborn, M. and Weber, K. (1977). Phalloidin-induced actin polymerization in the cytoplasm of cultured cells interferes with cell locomotion and growth. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U. S. A.* 74, 5613–7.

Wesolowska, N., Avilov, I., Machado, P., Geiss, C., Kondo, H., Mori, M. and Lénárt, P. (2020). Actin assembly ruptures the nuclear envelope by prying the lamina away from nuclear pores and nuclear membranes in starfish oocytes. *eLife* 9, e49774.

White, R. J., Collins, J. E., Sealy, I. M., Wali, N., Dooley, C. M., Digby, Z., Stemple, D. L., Murphy, D. N., Billis, K., Hourlier, T., *et al*. (2017). A high-resolution mRNA expression time course of embryonic development in zebrafish. *eLife* 6, e30860.

Wioland, H., Guichard, B., Senju, Y., Myram, S., Lappalainen, P., Jégou, A. and Romet-Lemonne, G. (2017). ADF/Cofilin Accelerates Actin Dynamics by Severing Filaments and Promoting Their Depolymerization at Both Ends. *Curr. Biol*. 27, 1956-1967.e7.

Woolner, S., O'Brien, L. L., Wiese, C. and Bement, W. M. (2008). Myosin-10 and actin filaments are essential for mitotic spindle function. *J. Cell Biol.* 182, 77–88.

Xu, Y. Z., Thuraisingam, T., De Lima Morais, D. A., Rola-Pleszczynski, M. and Radzioch, D. (2010). Nuclear translocation of β-actin is involved in transcriptional regulation during macrophage differentiation of HL-60 cells. *Mol. Biol. Cell* 21, 811–820.

Yamagata, K., Yamazaki, T., Yamashita, M., Hara, Y., Ogonuki, N. and Ogura, A. (2005). Noninvasive visualization of molecular events in the mammalian zygote. *Genesis* 43, 71–79.

 Figure legends

Figure 1. Nuclear F-actin in zebrafish early embryos detected by specific probes.

(**A**-**C**) F-actin in fixed zebrafish embryos. Zebrafish embryos were fixed at the 32-, 128-,

1k-cell, and sphere stage, and stained with Acti-stain™ 555 phalloidin and Hoechst. Low

(**A**) and high (**B**) power views of single confocal sections are shown. (**C**) Relative intensity

profile plots of lines indicated in (**B**). The intensity is normalized using the average

cytoplasmic intensity. Phalloidin signals were clearly observed in nuclei of the 32-, 128-,

and 1k-cell stages. (**D**) F-actin in living zebrafish embryos. Zebrafish embryos were

injected with UtrCH-sfGFP as an F-actin probe and Cy5-labeled Fab for H3K9ac as a

chromatin marker. Every 90 s, 25 z-stack fluorescence images with 4 μm intervals were

acquired using a confocal microscope. Single z-sections are displayed. Accumulation of

UtrCH-sfGFP in nuclei is clearly observed in the 8- to the 1k-cell stage embryos

(arrowheads). Insets show the zoomed images of nuclei indicated by red arrowheads.

See also Movie 1. Scale bars: 50 μm (**A**), 10 μm (**B**), and 100 μm (**D**).

Figure 2. Nuclear F-actin levels increased in the late interphase.

Zebrafish embryos were injected with UtrCH-sfGFP and H3K9ac Fab-Cy5, and images

were acquired using the same procedure as described in Figure 1D. (**A**) Single confocal

sections of a nucleus in different cell stages are depicted with the time (min) after the

onset of the interphase. Scale bar: 20 μm. (**B**) The nucleus to cytoplasmic (N/C) intensity

ratios of UtrCH-sfGFP were measured. The mean values of UtrCH-sfGFP N/C ratios with

the standard deviations (s. d.) and the number of nuclei, as identified by H3K9ac Fab-

Cy5, are plotted. The duration of interphase is shaded in orange from the 8- to 1k-cell

stage. N/C ratios of UtrCH-sfGFP are above 1.0 (orange line) up to the 1k-cell stage.

Figure 3. LifeAct-sfGFP accumulates in nuclei in early stage embryos.

Zebrafish embryos were injected with LifeAct-sfGFP as an actin probe, H3S28ph Fab-Cy3 as a mitotic chromosome marker, and H3K9ac Fab-Cy5 as a chromatin marker. Every 90 s, 25 z-stack fluorescence images with 4 µm intervals were acquired using a confocal microscope. (**A**) Single confocal sections of a nucleus at the 512-cell stage (2.75 hpf) are shown. LifeAct-sfGFP accumulated in the nucleus up to 12 min and disappeared at 13.5 min, when H3S28ph was observed on condensed chromosomes. Scale bar: 20 µm. (**B**) Mean values of N/C ratios are plotted with standard deviations (s. d.). The duration of interphase is shaded in orange from the 8- to 1k-cell stage. N/C ratios of LifeAct-sfGFP are above 1.0 (orange line) up to the 1k-cell stage. (**C**) Interphase nuclei were selected based on a low H3S28ph Fab signal (N/C ratio <2.2). The numbers of nuclei with different ranges of LifeAct-sfGFP N/C ratio in every time point are plotted as cumulative bars. After the 1k-cell stage, the number of nuclei with LifeAct-sfGFP N/C ratio <1.0 increased.

Figure 4. F-actin that accumulated in the nucleus remained there after nuclear envelope breakdown (NEBD).

Zebrafish embryos were injected with UtrCH-sfGFP as an F-actin probe, TMR-labeled 155-kDa dextran to monitor NEBD, and JF646-LANA as a chromatin marker. Every 12.5 s, confocal sections were acquired during the 1k-cell (**A**) and the high (**B**) stages. UtrCH-sfGFP accumulated in nuclei (**A** and **B**, −37.5 s to −12.5 s) and remained in the vicinity of chromosomes even after NEBD (**A** and **B**, 0 s to 37.5 s). (**C**) Nucleus/Cytoplasm or Chromosome area/Cytoplasm intensity ratio of UtrCH-sfGFP and TMR-Dextran were

measured (N = 10) at the 512-cell, 1k-cell, and high stages. The mean values were

shown with the s. d. Nuclear actin levels increased at the late interphase to prophase

(from −50 s to 0 s) with a peak at around NEBD (0 s). After NEBD, UtrCH-sfGFP gradually

decreased from chromatin (from 0 s to 50 s) during the prometaphase. Scale bars: 20

μm.

Figure 5. Actin patches remained in the vicinity of chromosomes during

prometaphase and disappeared at the metaphase in the 1k-cell stage embryos.

Zebrafish embryos were injected with UtrCH-sfGFP, TMR-tubulin, and JF646-LANA.

Every 15 s, confocal sections were acquired. (**A**) Single sections of UtrCH-sfGFP, TMR-

tubulin, and JF646-LANA at the 1k-cell stage embryo, and their merged and magnified

images are shown. Relative intensity profile plots of lines are indicated at the bottom.

The intensity is normalized using maximum and minimum intensity. UtrCH-sfGFP signals

are located by chromosomes. (**B**) The surface rendering three-dimensional images are

shown (green: UtrCH-sfGFP, magenta: JF646-LANA, cyan: TMR-Tubulin). UtrCH-sfGFP

accumulated in the nucleus (−15 s) remained in the vicinity of condensing chromosomes

after NEBD (from 0 s to 45 s) and disappeared before the chromosomes were aligned at

the metaphase (60 s). Just after NEBD (0 s and 15 s), TMR-Tubulin does not appear to

reach chromosomes when UtrCH-sfGFP patches are around. When UtrCH-sfGFP

patches partially disappear (15 s and 30 s), TMR-Tubulin appears to capture condensing

chromosomes (15 s and 30 s). See also Movie 4. Scale bars: 20 μm. See Figure S3 for

the sphere stage.

Figure 6. Actin patches partially remained in the vicinity of chromosomes during

prometaphase and disappeared at the metaphase in the high stage embryos.

Zebrafish embryos were injected with UtrCH-sfGFP, TMR-tubulin, and JF646-LANA.

Every 15 s, confocal sections were acquired. (**A**) Single sections of UtrCH-sfGFP, TMR-

tubulin, and JF646-LANA at the high stage embryo, and their merged and magnified

images are shown. Relative intensity profile plots of lines are indicated at the bottom.

The intensity is normalized using maximum and minimum intensity. UtrCH-sfGFP signals

are located in the vicinity of chromosomes. (**B**) The surface rendering three-dimensional

images are shown (green: UtrCH-sfGFP, magenta: JF646-LANA, cyan: TMR-Tubulin).

UtrCH-sfGFP signals appeared around condensing chromosomes after NEBD (from 0 s

to 45 s) and disappeared before the chromosomes were aligned at the metaphase (60

s). Just after NEBD (0 s and 15 s), TMR-Tubulin does not appear to reach chromosomes

associated with UtrCH-sfGFP patches. TMR-Tubulin appears to capture condensing

chromosomes (0 s to 30 s). See also Movie 5. Scale bars: 20 μm.

Figure 7. Actin patches appeared during prophase to prometaphase and

disappeared at the metaphase in the sphere stage embryo.

Zebrafish embryos were injected with UtrCH-sfGFP, TMR-labeled tubulin, and JF646-

LANA. Every 15 s, confocal sections were acquired. (**A**) Single sections for UtrCH-sfGFP,

TMR-labeled tubulin, and JF646-LANA in sphere stage embryo, and their merged and

magnified images are shown. (**B**) The surface rendering three-dimensional images are

shown (green: UtrCH-sfGFP, magenta: JF646-LANA, cyan: TMR-Tubulin). Weak UtrCH-

sfGFP signals were observed in the vicinity of chromosomes after NEBD (0 s and 15 s)

and disappeared (45 s) before chromosomes aligned at the metaphase (60 s). Scale

bars: 20 μm.

Figure 8. Transcription inhibition delayed the nuclear actin decrease after the 1k-cell stage.

(**A**) Zebrafish embryos were injected with α-amanitin to inhibit RNA-polymerase II-mediated transcription, or the vehicle (PBS), with Cy3-labeled morpholino antisense oligonucleotide for miR-430 transcripts as a transcription marker, and JF646-LANA as a chromatin marker. Every 90 s, 25 z-stack images with 4 μm intervals were acquired using a confocal microscope. 7 slices at each time point from the 128-cell to dome stage were depicted and the max intensity projection images are shown. (**B**) Embryos were grown to the 1k-cell stage and oblong stage before fixation and staining with Hoechst and Acti-stain™ 555 phalloidin. Single confocal sections are shown with N/C ratios of phalloidin intensity (N = 10). In the box plots, center lines show the medians; box limits indicate the 25th and 75th percentiles; whiskers extend 1.5 times the interquartile range from the 25th to 75th percentiles; × indicates the means; and data points are plotted as closed circles (PBS, blue; α-amanitin, orange). p-values obtained with a Students t-test (unpaired, two-tailed) are also shown (*, $p < 0.05$). At the 1k-cell stage, clear phalloidin signals are observed in the nuclei of both embryos treated without or with α-amanitin. At the oblong stage, phalloidin signals are not concentrated in the nucleus of embryos without α-amanitin but are still observed in the nucleus of α-amanitin-treated embryos. (**C**) Zebrafish embryos were injected with α-amanitin, or PBS, and then with UtrCH-sfGFP and H3K9ac Fab-Cy5. Every 90 s, 25 z-stack fluorescence images with 4 μm intervals were acquired. The mean values of N/C ratios (control: blue, +α-amanitin: orange) are plotted with the s. d. from the 128-cell to dome stage. α-amanitin-injected embryos showed the higher N/C ratio of UtrCH-sfGFP value in later stages (sphere and

723   dome). Single confocal sections at the sphere stage are shown on the right. UtrCH-

724   sfGFP remained accumulated in some nuclei during the sphere stage (orange

725   arrowheads). Scale bars: 10 μm (**A**) and 20 μm (**B** and **C**).

Figure 1

Figure 2

Figure 3

Figure 4

Figure 5

A   High stage (3.3 hpf)

Time after NEBD

	−45 s	−30 s	−15 s	0 s	15 s	30 s	45 s	60 s

UtrCH-sfGFP

TMR-Tubulin

JF646-LANA

Merged

Merged and magnified UtrCH / LANA

−15 s	0 s	15 s	30 s

Relative intensity

Distance (µm)

B   Time after NEBD

	−15 s	0 s	15 s	30 s

3D Surface rendering

UtrCH / LANA

UtrCH / LANA / Tubulin

Figure 6

A Sphere stage (4.0 hpf)

	−45 s	−30 s	−15 s	0 s	15 s	30 s	45 s	60 s
UtrCH-sfGFP								
TMR-Tubulin								
JF646-LANA								
Merged								

Merged and magnified
UtrCH / LANA

−15 s   0 s   15 s   30 s

B

Time after NEBD

−15 s   0 s   15 s   30 s

3D Surface rendering

UtrCH / LANA

UtrCH / LANA / Tubulin

Figure 7

Figure 8