Mitosis down-regulates nuclear volume and resets nuclear envelope

folding of cancer cells under prolonged confinement

Malèke Mouelhi[1*], Alexis Saffon[1], Hélène Delanoë-Ayari[1], Sylvain Monnier[1+*], Charlotte Rivière[1,2,3+*]

[1] *Univ Lyon, Université Claude Bernard Lyon 1, CNRS, Institut Lumière Matière, UMR 5306, 69622, Villeurbanne,*
France
[2] *Institut Universitaire de France (IUF), France*
[3] *Institut Convergence PLAsCAN, Centre de Cancérologie de Lyon, INSERM U1052-CNRS UMR5286, Univ Lyon,*
Université Claude Bernard Lyon 1, Centre Léon Bérard, Lyon, France
[+]Senior author contributed equally to this work

[*]Corresponding authors

Abstract

During their life, mammalian cells are subjected to numerous mechanical constraints, especially in

pathological contexts such as cancer. Most studies on cell confinement focus on short periods, and little

is still known about cell adaptation to prolonged squeezing, over several cell divisions. Using a hydrogel-

based confinement system, we reveal the unsuspected role of mitosis in long-term adaptation to

prolonged uniaxial confinement, in a contractility-dependent manner. To adapt to the level of

confinement and to alleviate the imposed mechanical stress, nuclei are reaching a new homeostatic

state following the first confined cell division: cells down-regulate their nuclear volume, together with a

reset of their nuclear envelope folding. A simple geometric model suggests that this new nuclear volume

is triggered by the apparent surface of the nuclear envelope.

Our findings have important implications for the fundamental understanding of nuclear regulation under

mechanical constraints and are critical to better comprehend cancer cells plasticity.

Introduction

Cancer is a leading cause of death worldwide, despite continual progress in therapeutic strategies and

in our understanding of cancer cell biology. The role of mechanics in cancer cell response has raised

attention over the last decades [1–4], and alleviating mechanical stress is now envisioned as an interesting

therapeutic strategy [5,6]. Deformed nuclei within tumors has been reported *in vivo* [7,8], though

consequences on cell fate remain unknown. Pioneer works have identified an alteration of cell mitosis

under such confined situations [9,10], with modified cell cycle progression and division [11], the presence of

multi-daughter events, daughter cells of unequal size, and induction of cell death [12]. Conversely, it has

been shown that flattening is required for the G1-S transition [13], as well as the G2-M transition [14]. The

role of the nucleus as a mechanosensor is now clearly recognized [15,16], with a mechanism of nuclear

repair[17] and rescue of DNA damage [18]. Upon squeezing, the nucleus shortly unfolds its inner lamin

envelope, activating the cytosolic phospholipase A2 (cPLA2)-Arachidonic acid (AA) pathway [15], as well as

myosin II contractility and switches towards a motile phenotype[16]. Nuclear blebs and chromatin

herniation can also occur, leading to transient events of nuclear rupture and repair [17,19]. However, all

these studies analyzed the short-term nuclear adaptation (within minutes to a few hours), and cancer

cells adaptation to a prolonged imposed deformation (over several days) remains unexplored,

specifically how such deformation affects cell cycle progression.

We have recently developed an agarose-based soft-confiner, ideal to analyze the proliferation of

squeezed cells for several days[20]. Here, based on the compatibility of this assay with *in-situ*

immunostaining and time-lapse analysis, we explored how the nucleus responds to an imposed

deformation for several days in a colorectal cancer cell model (HT-29). As expected, within a short

timeframe, an unfolding of the nuclear envelope and the appearance of nuclear blebs were observed.

Under prolonged confinement, we evidenced for the first time a global nuclear adaptation, with a

decrease in nuclear volume within 24 h, and a readjustment of nuclear shape, namely the disappearance

of blebs and refolding of the nuclear envelope. Surprisingly, all these changes were triggered by mitosis

in a contractility-dependent manner and were conserved by the next daughter's generation, setting a

new state of homeostasis.

Results

Multi-height soft confiner

Cells were confined using the agarose-based confiner previously published [20]. In this system, a 2%

agarose pad presenting an array of pillars with a height smaller than that of the cell enabled precise cell

squeezing. All experiments were performed using agarose exhibiting a stiffness of 150 kPa [20]. In this

stiffness range, it is not possible for cells to deform the confining agarose gel. The method originally

published by Prunet et al. [20] relied on standard photolithography processes to create the wafers needed

for agarose molding, and could only confine cells at a single height per system. We have now upgraded

this soft confiner by implementing the possibility to submit a cell population to multiple confinements

simultaneously. For that, we developed a multi-height micro-milled mold (Figure 1a), allowing us to

control the height of the pillars with a micron resolution. We can confine cells at four different heights

within the same system, with a central control zone included, where no confinement was imposed. Each

pillar with a given shape corresponds to a specific height: 9 µm (the highest pillar with the least

confinement), 7 µm (intermediate confinement), 5 µm (strong confinement) and 3 µm (the strongest

confinement) (Figure 1b-c). This multi-height mold was reproducible over time, as illustrated in Figure

1d, where the heights of stained cells/nuclei measured at 2 h and 24 h were almost identical. Moreover,

cells were properly and homogenously confined within each zone, and displayed the following average

heights: 15 ± 0.13 µm for control condition, 8.7 ± 0.45 µm (slight confinement), 6.9 ± 0.16 µm

(intermediate confinement, twice the cell size), 5.1 ± 0.13 µm (strong confinement), to 3.7 ± 0.25 µm

(very strong confinement, below a fourth of the original cell size) (Figure 1d-e). These cellular heights

corresponded to a decrease in nuclear height from 10 ± 0.10 µm (control condition) to 5.9 ± 0.08 µm

(slight confinement), 4.9 ± 0.10 µm (intermediate confinement), 3.9 ± 0.04 µm (strong confinement), 2.9

± 0.08 µm (very strong confinement) (Figure 1d-e).

Hence, by modifying the soft confiner we previously designed, we obtained a user-friendly, robust, and

time-saving system to visualize and analyze the long-term effect of four levels of cell confinement on

cancer cell morphology and biology.

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Figure 1: Nuclear volume is regulated according to the level of confinement

(a) 3D representation of confinement principle showing the molded agarose pad. **(b)** Schematic diagram of the
multi-height pad with the theoretical heights of each pillar. **(c)** Confocal images of cells and the shaped pillar of
each confined zone. *Scale bar = 250 µm*. **(d)** Quantification of cells and nuclear height by z-stack confocal imaging,
under each confined zone. *N = 3 experiments with n = 30 cells; Mann-Whitney test*. **(e)** Representative confocal
images of nuclei stained with NucGreen in XY (*Scale bar = 10µm*) and its orthogonal view (scale bar = 5µm) at 2 h
and 24 h under each level of confinement. **(f)** Nuclear deformation in percent for each degree of confinement
defined as $\varepsilon_{Nz} = \left(\frac{h_{nuc}^{ctr} - h_{nuc}}{h_{nuc}^{ctr}}\right) x100$. **(g)** SuperPlot quantifying the projected nuclear area. In each condition, the 3
colors represent 3 distinct experiments with their respective individuals and average value represented by small
and large dots respectively. *N = 3 experiments with n > 5,000cells/experiments; Welch's test. Welch's ANOVA test*
was also performed between each confined condition at 24 h and was not significant. **(h)** Nuclear volume
quantification. *N = 3 experiments with n>5,000cells/experiments; Welch's test. Ordinary one-way ANOVA was*
carried out between each confinement condition at 2 h and was not significant.

Long-term nuclear volume regulation

Having optimized the confinement system, we then investigated how long-term confinement affects cell nuclei. We first computed the nuclear deformation for each level of confinement (Figure 1f) and obtained a nuclear deformation along the z-direction (ε_{Nz}) of 41 ± 3% for slightly confined cells, 52 ± 0.5% for an intermediate confinement, 60 ± 1% and 70 ± 2% for strong and very strong levels of confinement, respectively (Figure 1f). These deformations are associated with changes in nuclear projected-area and nuclear volume. At 2 h of confinement, the nuclear-projected area increased with the level of confinement (Figure 1e-g), while the volume of each nucleus, computed by approximating the shape of the nucleus to a cylinder (See schematic representation in Figure 1g), remained constant for all imposed deformations (Figure 1h, squares). Intriguingly, at 24 h of confinement, the nuclear-projected area of confined cells decreased towards that of the control condition (Figure 1g, triangles). This decrease in nuclear-projected area corresponds to a proportional decrease in nuclear volume after 24 h of confinement (Figure 1 h, triangles), with a nuclear volume loss from 20 ± 6 % (for slight confinement), 25 ± 7 % (for intermediate confinement), 39 ± 8% (for strong confinement) to 34 ± 15 % (for very strong confinement, Supplementary Fig. 1a). Interestingly, this loss in nuclear volume was inversely proportional to nuclear deformation ε_{Nz} (Figure 1h, dotted line).

In addition, the distance between the cell membrane and the nuclear envelope was significantly reduced with confinement (Figure 1d, Supplementary Fig. 1c) and accompanied by the re-localization of the contractility machinery (Phosphorylated Myosin Light Chain (p-MLC) staining) from above the nucleus to the lateral plane indicating a cortex rearrangement (Supplementary Fig. 1d).

Moreover, at 2 h of cell confinement, DNA damages appeared as evidenced by an increase in the number of γH2AX foci (marker of double-strand breaks, Supplementary Fig. 1e-f) per cells. This confinement-induced DNA damages was repaired at 24 h, as the number of foci per cells in confined conditions was identical to that of unconfined ones (Supplementary Fig. 1e-f).

Long-term regulation of nuclear tension

Under the strongest levels of confinement (60% and 70% nuclear deformation), we observed nuclear protrusions at 2 h (Figure 1e, strong-very strong confinement panel and Figure 2a), which participated in the increase in nuclear-projected area, though not entirely as the increase remained significantly different even if protrusions were dismissed to compute the projected area (Supplementary Fig. 1b). As observed, the nuclear volume remains constant for short timescales (2 h), but due to the applied confinement and geometrical considerations, the nuclear envelope (NE) unfolds, its tension increases [21], which can lead to nuclear protrusions [22–24]. Nuclear protrusions are dynamic structures whose membrane can rupture – visualized by leakage of NLS-RFP dye to the cytoplasm (Supplementary Fig 2a, arrows) – and repair[17].

The proportion of nuclei displaying protrusions (indiscriminately called blebs in the rest of the manuscript for simplicity), as well as dividing, apoptotic and normal nuclei was quantified according to their morphology (Figure 2a, insets). Under slight confinement (41 % nuclear deformation), blebbing nuclei represented only 4.2 ± 4.7 % of all nuclei (Figure 2b). However, the proportion of these nuclei gradually increased with the degree of confinement and represented 37.7 ± 6.7 % and 63.4 ± 11.8 % of all nuclei for 60% and 70% of nuclear deformation, respectively (Figure 2b). Strikingly, at 24 h of confinement, those proportions dropped to less than 10 %, which was reflected by an increase in normal nuclei proportions (Figure 2c-d). The number of blebs per cell and the size of those blebs were also drastically reduced at 24 h under strong confinement (Supplementary Fig. 2b-e). This change in nuclear phenotype at 24 h is in accordance with the reduction in nuclear volume and the refolding of the nuclear envelope. Nuclear envelope folding was quantified from lamin A/C immunostained images with the positive area defined as the excess area of the lamina envelope compared to the nuclear area (See methods and schematic representation in Figure 2f). In control conditions, the nuclear envelope was folded, reaching similar levels at 2h (56 ± 1.5%) and 24h (57 ± 2%) (Figure 2e-f). Under a strong level of confinement (60% nuclear deformation), a complete unfolding of the nuclear envelope was observed at 2 h, evidenced by a radical decrease of the positive area (Figure 2e-f, down to 20 ± 1 %). Strikingly, at 24

140   h, a refolding of lamin A/C was observed (Figure 2e), with an increase in the positive area (34 ± 1 %)

141   (Figure 2e-f).

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Figure 2: Regulation of nuclear tension
(a, c) Max projection confocal images of stained nuclei and pMLC at 2 h and 24 h, respectively, scale bar = 50 μm.
Cropped nuclei correspond to nuclei with blebs, dividing and apoptotic cells and normal nuclei, at 2 h (a) and 24 h
(c), scale bar = 10 μm. **(b, d)** Percentage of HT-29 cells presenting nuclear blebs, dividing, apoptotic cells, or normal
nuclei in control condition or under confinement, at 2 h **(b)** and 24 h **(d).** *N = 3 experiments with n >*
5,000cells/experiments. **(e)** Representative confocal images (max intensity projection) of stained nuclei and lamin
A/C without confinement (control) or under 60% nuclear deformation (strong confinement) at 2 h and 24 h. *Scale*
bar = 10 μm. (f) Quantification of the positive area of the nuclear envelope (lamin A/C) which represents the folded
nuclear envelope. *N = 3 experiments with n > 30cells/experiments; mean ± SEM; Mann-Whitney test*.

Thus, not only was nuclear volume regulated at 24 h of confinement but also nuclear blebbing, and

nuclear envelope folding, suggesting either a relaxation of the nuclear envelope tension, either an

inability of cells with blebs to divide. All these changes (volume decrease, blebs disappearance, nuclear

envelope refolding) are referred as global "nuclear adaptation" in the rest of the manuscript.

In addition, we noticed a constant proportion of dividing cells at 24 h of confinement below 60% of

nuclear deformation, albeit a slight increase at 70% nuclear deformation (Figure 2c-d). This increase in

dividing nuclei was most likely due to an increase in the duration of mitosis (Supplementary Fig. 3a),

already described by Lancaster et al. [10].

Cell cycle progression does not explain long-term nuclear adaptation

We next performed experiments to narrow the range of potential mechanisms involved in this long-term

nuclear adaptation. To this end, we conducted time-lapse experiments on live cells by confining HT-29

expressing the FUCCI fluorescent cell cycle reporter system over 3 to 4 days (Figure 3a). We first,

hypothesized that an alteration of cell cycle progression could explain the loss of nuclear volume

observed under prolonged confinement. It was reported that mechanically confined cell, without having

the possibility to round up for division, results in stressed cell division with delayed mitosis, multi-

daughter mitosis events, unevenly sized daughter cells and induction of cell death[9,10]. We confirmed this

experimentally and saw a gradual increase in abnormal divisions with the level of confinement, from

none for control conditions to $40 \pm 4\%$ for very strong confinement (Supplementary Fig. 3b,

Supplementary Movie 1). In addition, for mother cells, while the duration of the first mitosis was similar

for control and slight confinement (Supplementary Fig. 3a, respectively 1.8 ± 0.1 h and 1.6 ± 0.1 h), it

doubled for cells under strong confinement (3.5 ± 0.4 h), and considerably increased up to 9.2 ± 0.8 h for

very strong confinement, reaching up to 20h in some cases (Supplementary Fig. 3a). The time spent in

G2 for mother cells also increased for cells under very strong confinement (Supplementary Fig. 3c), and

led to a larger increase in volume during this S-G2-phase (Supplementary Fig. 3d), with no significant

increase in volume detected before the G2-phase (Supplementary Fig. 3e).

We then focused on the cell cycle taking place after a first confined division. Surprisingly, for the

daughter cells, we found that confinement did not significantly change the duration of the whole cell

cycle (Figure 3b) and neither that of its subpart (G1, S-G2 Supplementary Fig. 3f). Indeed, the entire cell

cycle for daughter cells lasted 27 ± 7 h under slight confinement, 23 h ± 4 under strong confinement

compared to 22 ± 5 h under no confinement (Figure 3b). Similarly, relative nuclear growth (change in

volume normalized by their initial volume) remained unchanged under confinement during the entire

cell cycle (Figure 3c), and during its subpart (Supplementary Fig. 3g). Likewise, nuclear growth rates of

confined cells were similar regardless of the level of confinement (Figure 3d), with no significant

difference in its subpart (Supplementary Fig. 3h). These results suggest that long-term nuclear volume

regulation of daughter cells cannot be explained by changes during cell cycle progression nor growth

rate.

Long-term nuclear adaptation occurs during confined mitosis

We then focused on changes of nuclear volume during confined mitosis. A reasonable assumption is that

the nuclear volume is conserved throughout mitosis, so that the volume of the sum of the two daughter

cells after division is equal to the volume of their mother cell. Intriguingly, nuclei were smaller after the

first division under confinement (Figure 3e-f), with a volume ratio decreasing gradually with increasing

nuclear deformation, similarly to the one observed at 24 h on fixed samples (Figure 1h, 3f and

Supplementary Figure 3i for the fit). The loss of volume during mitosis reached up to 60 ± 15% for the

strongest confinement (Figure 3f). The fact that we obtain the same proportionality on both fixed (Figure

1h) and live (Figure 3f) experiments confirm the robustness of our results concerning such nuclear size

regulation. On the contrary, during the second division under confinement, we observed no volume loss

(Figure 3f, generation 2). Hence, the nuclear volume seems to have reached homeostasis after the first

confined division and does not shrink further during a second confined division. Therefore, mitosis

appears to be the main checkpoint in the observed long-term adaptation of nuclear volume.

This prompted us to investigate whether mitosis could also play a role in the loss of nuclear blebs. Using

time-lapse experiments, we quantified the nuclear blebs before and after confined divisions (Figure 3g-

h). Before mitosis, the mean number of blebs per cell was 1 ± 0.3 for cells under strong confinement

(Figure 3h, 60% nuclear deformation), and reached 3 ± 2.2 for very strong confinement (Figure 3h, 70%

nuclear deformation). However, immediately after mitosis, the mean number of blebs per cell was close

to 0 for both strong and very strong confinement (Figure 3g-h, Supplementary Movie 2). In addition, we

observed no blebs before the second mitosis (Figure 3h). We can thus conclude that the loss of nuclear

blebs is essentially due to cells undergoing mitosis, suggesting that nuclear volume and nuclear envelope

tension are tightly coupled, and supporting the hypothesis that mitosis is a key regulator of nuclear

envelope tension.

Figure 3: Global phenotypic regulation of the nucleus occurs through mitosis

(a) Time-lapse images of HT-29 nuclei expressing the FUCCI fluorescent cell cycle reporter, without confinement (control) or under strong confinement (60% nuclear deformation). *Scale bar = 10 µm*. **(b, c, d)** Quantification of the duration **(b),** the relative nuclear growth **(c)** and the nuclear growth rate **(d)** of HT-29-Fucci cells under several levels of confinement during an entire cell cycle after the first cell division. *N = 2 experiments with n > 200 cells, Mann-Whitney test for (b, c), and unpaired t-test for (d)*. **(e)** Representative images of nuclei at the end of the G2 phase (just before mitosis) and its respective daughter nuclei just after mitosis (beginning of G1 phase), following two consecutive divisions, for control and strong confinement conditions. *Scale bar = 10 µm*. **(f)** Quantification of the size of daughter nuclei over their respective mother following two consecutive divisions, under several levels of confinement. *N = 2 experiments with n = 130 cells, unpaired t-test*. **(g)** Sequential images of a blebbing nucleus under strong or very strong confinement before and after mitosis, NEB is set here as a reference time t = 0 h. *Scale bar = 10 µm*. **(h)** Quantification of the number of blebs before and after mitosis under strong and very strong confinement. *N = 3 experiments with n = 167 cells, Mann-Whitney test*.

Adaptation of nucleus phenotype and volume is contractility-dependent

Acto-myosin contractility is a well-known transducer of stress to the nucleus, inducing deformation and blebbing [22]. Conversely, it has been shown recently that nuclear tension and blebbing increase cell contractility [15,16]. Therefore, to gain further insights into the mechanisms involved in this global nuclear adaptation, we inhibited cell contractility using Blebbistatin, a pharmacological inhibitor of myosin II. The addition of Blebbistatin immediately after confining cells, imped nuclear volume regulation, as evidenced at 24 h under very strong confinement (Figure 4a-b). Of note, while at 2 h under very strong confinement (70% nuclear deformation) the number of nuclear blebs drastically increased with or without the addition of Blebbistatin (Figure 4c, 2 h), very few blebs had disappeared at 24 h with Blebbistatin (Figure 4c, 24 h and Supplementary Fig. 4d). Similarly, inhibiting contractility before applying the confinement (Blebbistatin added 1h before confinement) also prevented the regulation of nuclear volume and blebs (Supplementary Fig. 4 a-c).

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Figure 4: Contractility is essential for nuclear regulation

(a) Representative images of stained nuclei and phospho-Myosin Light Chain either with or without Blebbistatin at
2 h and 24 h, without confinement or under very strong confinement. *Scale bar = 20 µm*. **(b)** Quantification of
nuclear volume at 2 h and 24 h with or without Blebbistatin, without confinement or under very strong
confinement. *N = 3 experiments with n=9,818 cells, mean ± SEM, unpaired t-test (for no drug conditions) or Mann-*
Whitney test (for Blebbistatin conditions). **(c)** Quantification of nuclei with blebs, dividing, apoptotic, or normal
without confinement or under very strong confinement at 2 h and 24 h, with no drug or with Blebbistatin. *N = 3*
experiments with n = 9,818 cells.

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Cells regulate their apparent nuclear surface during mitosis

From our data, we calculated the apparent surface of confined nuclei S_{app} (See Supp. Mat 1), which corresponds to the surface of a cylinder. As expected, the apparent surface passively increases after 2 h under confinement, while it seemed to remain constant at 24 h (Figure 5a). Moreover, this constant apparent surface was similar for non-confined cells. This strongly suggests that the apparent surface is the key parameter regulated during prolonged confinement.

To test whether it is the total surface of nuclear envelope that determines the nuclear volume, we estimated the surface for unfolded nuclear envelope conditions after 2 h under confinement S_0 (See Supp. Mat. 1). From S_{app} (apparent surface) and S_0 (total surface, obtained in the unfolded nuclear envelope condition) we computed the expected nuclear volumes in confined conditions (Figure 5b) and found that the volumes calculated using S_{app} were in good agreement with the experimental volumes measured after 24 h under confinement (Figure 5c). Collectively, these geometrical arguments strongly suggest that the nuclear volume is not limited by the total surface of the nuclear envelope available, but rather actively set by the apparent surface that remains constant under different geometrical constraints.

Figure 5: Nuclear total surface determines the final nuclear volume

(a) Nuclear apparent surface as a function of the deformation ε_{NZ} at 2 h and 24 h under confinement. The dashed

line shows the apparent surface measured for unconfined cells. **(b)** Schematic representation of the geometric

model, showing the apparent nuclear envelope surface S_{app} and the unfolded nuclear envelope surface S_0 **(c)**

Calculations of nuclear volume using the apparent surface (green) and the total surface (pink). The total surface is

obtained from the tensed nuclear envelope measured under intermediate confinement at 2 h. Experimental values

are shown in black. **(d)** Diagram summarizing the results showing that under confinement before mitosis, the

nuclear envelope is tensed and tension increases as evidenced by the nuclear blebs. Tension is then released during

the first mitosis as the nuclear volume is lower at mitosis exit. Low initial tension is restored, nuclear-envelope

folds appear again but not blebs.

Discussion

Deciphering how the nucleus reacts to long-term confinement is of primary importance in the context of cancer progression and response to treatment [25,26]. Using an imposed deformation, we show that the nucleus is regulating both its volume and its structure (blebs, lamin A/C folding) within 24 h. We evidenced that this regulation is mediated by mitosis: nuclei then reach a new state of homeostasis, with no further adaptation observed in the next generations. This regulation is an active process requiring the contractility machinery. In addition, a simple model supports the idea that the total nuclear surface is a key parameter in setting the nucleus size and consequently alleviating nuclear envelope tension (see Figure 5d for a schematic representation).

Strong confinement increases nuclear envelope tension and growth

Taking advantage of the compatibility of our soft-confiner system with time-lapse microscopy, we were able to follow the same cells for several cell divisions and observed different steps of adaptation to various levels of confinement. The first step takes place before the first division of confined cells. Within the first hours of confinement, only highly confined cells display an increase in nuclear growth rate (Supplementary Fig. 3d), in accordance with the nuclear envelope tension threshold observed for HeLa cells[15]. This increase in growth rate might be due to an increase in nuclear import following a rise in nuclear envelope tension and uncoupled nuclear and cytoplasmic volumes as proposed by Pennacchio et al.[27–29]. This bias in nuclear shuttling can generate an increase in nuclear osmotic pressure and account for the blebbing observed during the first hours under confinement (Figure 2a-b)[8,30]. This increase in growth rate is also accompanied by a lengthening of the G2 phase (Supplementary Fig. 3c). Conversely, slighter levels of confinement did not impact cell cycle progression (Supplementary Fig. 3c-e), suggesting that the flattening required for the G1 to S transition observed for HeLa cells[13] should be sufficient to fully extend the nuclear envelope or might be cell type dependent.

Mitosis plays a key role in nuclear adaptation to confinement and alleviation of nuclear envelope tension

The key step in nuclear adaptation to confinement is clearly cell mitosis. We clearly show that the regulation of nuclear volume observed at 24 h of confinement largely originated from volumetric changes at division exit (Figures 1h and 3f). Confined mitosis can be prolonged due to defects in spindle assembly[10] or leads to asymmetric or multi-daughter division[9], but so far such shrinking of the nucleus during division has never been observed to our knowledge. More strikingly, no more shrinking was observed for the second division under confinement (Figure 3f). This important observation points out toward a true adaptation to confinement: once adapted, there is no further volume decrease.

So far, however, the mechanisms involved remain elusive. Using a mechanistic approach, we showed that the apparent nuclear surface is the parameter conserved over a long time and therefore during cell division (Figure 5). By regulating the apparent surface of their nucleus, cells can adjust their nuclear envelope tension to a homeostatic level. Indeed, mitosis also plays a pivotal role in relaxing the nuclear envelope tension generated by confinement as nuclear blebs disappeared completely after the first mitosis (Figure 3h), while nuclear envelope folds reappeared in confined conditions at 24 h (Figure 2e-f).

Of note, we also observed a population of abnormal divisions (multi-daughter cells, cells blocked in mitosis), as already reported for Hela cells [9,10]. In the future, it could also be of interest to analyze how this abnormal subpopulation regulates (or not) its nuclei.

The critical role of actomyosin contractility in the regulation of lamina tension and nuclear volume

The nuclear adaptation we evidenced was lost by blocking contractility via Blebbistatin treatment. This result is in accordance with the fact that abnormal actomyosin contractility is associated with changes in cell division, such as defects in spindle positioning[10,31], failed mitosis, and the appearance of polynucleated cells [9,10]. During cell division, actomyosin contractility participates in cleavage furrow formation[32]. Here, our results suggest that contractility is required to set nuclear volume and nuclear envelope folding, mostly during nuclear envelope reformation at the end of mitosis.

Regulation of nuclear repair mechanism associated with lamina folding and nuclear volume loss

Consistent with previous studies[33,34], we also evidenced an increase in DNA-damage at 2 h of confinement (Supplementary Fig. 1e-f). Such an increase in DNA-damage could lead to chromosomal instability and mutations[35,36]. However, very interestingly, in addition to lamina refolding and nuclear volume loss, we also observed a decrease in DNA damage at 24 h of confinement (disappearance of most γ-H2AX foci, Supplementary Fig. 1e-f). This is in accordance with the reported role of lamin in the DNA damage repair pathway [37] and a lower nuclear envelop tension associated with bleb disappearance. Such repair mechanisms have also been reported in other confinement situations [18], as well as in response to other stresses like radiotherapy [38]. As such repair mechanism is highly correlated with cell-cycle re-entry [18], this is again consistent with a key role for mitosis in such DNA-damage regulation in response to nuclear deformation.

Growing evidence also indicates a role for lamins in the regulation of transcription [39], replication, and genome stability [40]. It will be very interesting to further investigate the effect on transcription activity, protein synthesis, as well as chromatin condensation.

Conclusion and outlooks

Here, under prolonged cancer cell squeezing, we experimentally highlighted the critical role of mitosis in the regulation of nuclear envelope lamina folding, nuclear blebs, and nuclear volume. Using simple geometric assumptions, we show that homeostasis of nuclear volume is set by the apparent surface of the nuclear envelope.

This study calls for in-depth analysis of the molecular pathways at play, as well as for deciphering the consequences that such regulation could have in the context of cancer and resistance to therapies. We anticipate the role of calcium as well as cPLA2, both of which were recently reported to be involved in nuclear deformation sensing [15]. The nuclear to cytoplasmic ratio, which is constant within a given population, is most likely to be impacted by the confinement and changes in nuclear envelope tension [27,41,42], and might be at play in the regulation we describe herein. The import/export regulated by the nuclear pore complex is also a putative important player [28]. Lastly, we identified a clear change in lamin

unfolding/refolding during this nuclear adaptation: lamins and lamin-associated proteins are known

regulators of nuclear size [42] and should therefore be further investigated, especially in the context of

cancer.

Noteworty, as already mentioned, the agarose gel used herein exhibit a stiffness of 150 kPa[20], which is

too rigid for the cell to deform the gel. It would be interesting in the future to analyze cell response using

softer gels (in the kPa range). Indeed, if the cells are able to deform the gel, the nuclear regulation

highlighted in this study could be completely different. In Lancaster et al. [10], when the mitotic cells were

able to deform the gel, they divide normally.

Outlook in the context of cancer

Abnormal nuclei shape [43], together with alterations in the expression of lamin A and lamin B is a hallmark

for the prognosis of many tumors [25], including colorectal cancer [44]. Low lamin A/C is associated with a

decrease in stiffness, irregular shape, and larger nuclei deformation [45] as well as increased metastatic

capacities [46]. Noteworthy, the HT-29 cell line used in this study presents the p53 mutation [47], has no

lamin B2, and low lamin B1 level [48]. Loss of lamin B1 leads to nuclear blebs, while it has been reported

that nuclear envelope rupture is dependent on p53 [49]. To gain further insight into the role of lamins and

p53 mutations in nuclear regulation we evidenced in this study, it would be interesting to analyze nuclear

adaption in response to prolonged confinement in other cancer cell lines of different origins, as well as

in colorectal cancer cell lines of higher grades, with no p53 mutation and/or exhibiting different levels

of lamins expression.

Potential implications for drug resistance of cancer cells

The regulation of nuclear size identified in this study could have important consequences on resistance

to classical chemotherapeutic treatment targeting proliferation. In addition, emerging pharmaceutical

compounds specifically targeting nuclei size are currently under investigation (Nuclear Size Rectifiers[50]).

Deciphering the molecular pathways involved in such nuclear regulation and more specifically the inner

nuclear membrane re-assembly post-mitosis [51,52] could pave the way towards novel therapeutic

strategies. Finally, our soft confiner is an ideal tool for identifying cancer drug targets as it allows users

to test several conditions simultaneously.

Material and methods
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Cell culture
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HT-29 wild type colorectal adenocarcinoma cells were purchased from the ATCC (HT29 HTB-38). A stable

cell line expressing NLS-mKate2 was established using the lentiviral vector IncuCyte® nuclight orange

(λex=555nm, λem=584nm): the cells were selected using puromycin according to the manufacturer

protocol. The stable HT29 expressing Fucci (Cdt1-RFP and hGeminin-GFP) cell line was a gift from Dr.

Toufic Renno's team (CRCL, Lyon, France).

All cells were cultured in Dulbecco's modified Eagle's medium (DMEM - Glutamax, Gibco^{TM})

supplemented with 10% heat-inactivated fetal bovine serum (FBS; PanBiotech™), 100 units/100µg

penicillin/streptomycin (Gibco^{TM}). Routinely, all HT-29 cell lines were grown in T-25 cell culture flasks

and kept at 37°C and under 5% CO_2. Culture medium was changed regularly, and cell passage was carried

out at 70% confluency. Cell lines were tested for Mycoplasma every 6 months and the tests were

negative.

Drug treatments
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The following pharmacological inhibitors and chemical compounds were used: Blebbistatin (Tocris™) at

a final 100 µM concentration.

To inhibit cell contractility before confinement, we added 500µL of medium with 100µM blebbistatin 1h

prior confinement.

To inhibit cell's contractility after confinement, 500 µL of medium solution with 200 µM of Blebbistatin

was added following the confinement (to reach a final concentration within the confiner of 100 µM).

Initial rinsing after confinement was also made with medium containing Blebbistatin at 100 µM.

Multi-height micro-milled mold fabrication
397

The height of the micropillars (from 9 µm to 3 µm) determines the level of spatial confinement of cells.

The array presents regularly distributed pillars (distance between each pillar of 800µm) with specific

shapes according to their height: the "o" shape for 9 μm; the "-" shape for 7μm; the "L" shape for 5 μm;

the "+" shape for 3μm. The field of pillars is surrounded by a solid band of 3.5 mm to stabilize the

structure, and two external notches to enable the proper positioning during molding. The pillars were

drawn using Autodesk software and the mold was created using the CNC Mini-Mill/GX on brass.

Microfabrication-based confinement of cell populations

Cell confinement was performed using the agarose-based soft cell confiner methods previously

described [20] and now available as Agarsqueezer (https://www.idylle-labs.com/agarsqueezer-by-

softconfiner). All cell lines were seeded in the systems overnight before confinement on glass coverslips

previously coated with fibronectin 50 μg/mL (Sigma-Aldrich™) (1h incubation in the system at room

temperature and washed 3 times with PBS). All the cell lines were seeded at the same intermediate cell

density level: 500 μL of a cell solution at 180,000cells/mL.

Agarose molding

Based on the procedure described in Prunet et al.[20], molding was adapted to obtain accurate agarose-

replicates from the newly developed multi-height brass mold. First, a solution of agarose diluted in

distilled water (2% (w/v)) was prepared by autoclaving at 120 °C for 10 min, or 30 s microwave (1000 W).

All the following steps were performed under a sterile culture hood, and the polycarbonate (PC) holder

was UV sterilized before use (20 min on each side under 24 W, 365 nm). 400 μL of the prepared agarose

solution was deposited in the prewarmed PC holder (placed on a hot plate at 75°C) and was left at room

temperature for 5 min to let it gel. Then, 500 μL of the prepared agarose solution was deposited on the

prewarmed micro-milled brass mold (on the same hot plate temperature) with the PC holder and placed

under the press (Supplementary Fig. 5). The press generates a uniform pressure and ensures the contact

between the PC holder and the mold, to ensure proper molding and resolute pillars. After 30 min under

press at room temperature, the PC holder was gently removed from the brass mold. Evenly distributed

holes were drilled into the gel using a 20G and 16G puncher and through holes present on the PC holder.

In total, five 16G holes and four 20G holes were done. The molded agarose gel was then placed in sterile

PBS and sterilized under UV light (20 min on each side). The molded agarose can be stored in its PC

holder at 4°C in PBS until further use. It was replaced either by culture medium or by drug treatment and

incubated at 37 °C at least 12h before the confinement experiment.

Immunostaining

During confinement, cells were fixed *in situ* with paraformaldehyde (PFA): cell culture medium was

removed, and cells were washed twice with PBS. 4% PFA (Electron Microscopy Sciences™) was added

and incubated for 40 min at RT. After incubation, samples were rinsed with PBS - 3% BSA (Sigma-

Aldrich™) (3x20min). The agarose gel is then removed and cells were permeabilized using 0.5% Triton X-

100 (Acros Organics™) for 10 min at RT. After blocking with PBS - 3% BSA (3x5min) to inhibit non-specific

binding of antibodies, cells were incubated overnight at 4°C with primary antibodies diluted in PBS - 2%

BSA - 0.1% Triton X-100. After 3x5min washes with PBS, samples were incubated with secondary

antibodies for 2 h at RT. The primary antibodies used were: p-MLC (Cell signaling™ at 1/50); LaminA/C

(Santa Cruz Biotechnology™ at 1/100), γH2Ax (Santa Cruz Biotechnology™ at 1/200). NucGreen™ Dead

488 (Invitrogen™, 1 drop per 3 ml in PBS); Alexa 647 Phalloidin (Invitrogen™ at 1/500); Alexa 555

Phalloidin (Invitrogen™ at 1/500) were also used. The secondary antibodies used were: Anti-Mouse 647

(Invitrogen™ at 1/500); anti-rabbit 647 (Invitrogen™ at 1/500), anti-mouse 555 (Invitrogen™ at 1/500).

Coverslips were then mounted using 2 drops of Fluoroshield™ (Sigma-Aldrich™) and varnish-sealed after

overnight hardening at room temperature.

Confocal fluorescence microscopy

444 Fixed samples were visualized using a Leica SP5 confocal microscope with a 20x Dry objective (NA = 0.65),

445 a 40x oil immersion (NA = 1.25), a 40x Dry (NA = 0.95) or a 63x oil immersion (NA = 1.25) objectives.

446 Images were collected in sequential mode using averaging at a resolution of 1024x1024. Z-stacks of cells

447 were acquired to precisely measure the height of confinement and nuclear volumes (dz = 0.2 μm or 0.5

448 μm for each stack).

Epifluorescence imaging

450 Fixed samples were also visualized using an inverted microscope Leica DMI8 using epifluorescence

451 microscopy with a 40x dry objective (NA = 0.55).

Live-cell imaging

Cells were observed with an inverted microscope Leica DMI8 using epifluorescence imaging. Timelapse imaging was performed for 2 to 5 days in a controlled environment (CO_2, temperature, and humidity), using a 20x dry objective (NA = 0.65). A motorized x-y stage enabled the concomitant recording of up to 20 regions for each system every 10 min.

Quantitative image analysis

Cell height, nuclear area, and volume were assessed with a homemade routine workflow using both ImageJ/Fiji and MATLAB® software. First, after applying a gaussian blur on nuclei-stained images, nuclei were automatically detected either using the stardist Fiji plugin [53] or using the Otsu's threshold detection directly in Matlab®. Mask and labeled images obtained were exported in Matlab® to perform automated morphological analyses on individual pre-labeled nuclei. The Z-plot profile of ImageJ/Fiji was used on orthogonal views of both nuclei and phalloidin staining to obtain nuclear and cell heights, respectively. Codes are available upon request.

For the nuclear area, at least four different areas were imaged and analysed per conditions.

DNA compaction was determined by measuring the fluorescence intensity levels of NucGreen –a DNA intercalant – on an inverted epifluorescence microscope (Leica DMI8), and normalized by the height of nuclei.

Proportion analysis of nuclear blebs both in live and fixed experiments was conducted using the cell counter plugin of ImageJ/Fiji. To further characterize the nuclear blebbing phenotype, labeled images of nuclei and their blebs were obtained using the stardist Fiji plugin [53] (blebs are automatically extracted from the main nuclei using stardist) We filtered the core nucleus and their blebs based on their respective area. If the area of an object was below 100 µm² for confined conditions, it was considered to be a bleb.

DNA damage analysis was automatically performed using the Find Maxima tool within each nucleus in ImageJ/Fiji.

The percentage of **positive nuclear envelope area** corresponds to the excess area of the lamina envelope

compared to the nuclear area. This parameter was derived from methods used in [15,54]. The nuclear

envelope-positive area was assessed by thresholding the maximum intensity projection images of lamin

A/C staining obtained by confocal microscopy (x63 objective NA 1.25, Leica SP5) and merging them with

nuclei masks. This allowed us to study the laminas within the nucleus and provided information on the

proportion of area with laminas within the nucleus (positive area).

Live movies were analyzed manually by using either MTrackJ, or manual tracking and ROI manager tool

in ImageJ/Fiji plugin. Thus, we could measure nuclear areas over time in each phase of the cell cycle and

the corresponding duration of those phases.

For each experiment, at least three different areas within each confined zone of the confiner were

analyzed.

Statistics and reproducibility of experiments

Statistical data were expressed as mean ± standard deviation unless mentioned otherwise. Sample size

(n) and the number of repetitions (N) are specified in the text of the paper or figure legends. The

statistical significance between experimental conditions was determined using a two-tailed unpaired t-

test, Welch's test, Mann-Whitney test, or ANOVA after confirming that the data met appropriate

assumptions (normality distribution, homogeneous variance, and independent sampling). All data were

analyzed with GraphPad Prism 8.0. (San Diego, CA, USA). **** $P < 0.0001$, *** $P < 0.001$, ** $P < 0.01$, *

$P < 0.05$.

Supplementary Material 1 – Geometrical model

Confined nuclei can be modeled as a cylinder. Thus, their surfaces were calculated using the following

equations.

$$2\pi R_1 h + 2\pi R_1{}^2 = S_{app} \qquad \text{(Equation 1)}$$

With R_1, the diameter of the nucleus, h, its height, and S_{app}, its apparent surface.

R_1, the radius of this cylinder can then be extracted:

$$R_1{}^2 + R_1 h - \frac{S_{app}}{2\pi} = 0 \qquad (2)$$

With a positive solution:

$$R_1 = \frac{-h + \sqrt{\Delta}}{2} \quad (4)$$

To compute the nuclear-envelope surface to add during division, we first calculated the surface of the

mother cell using equation 1 and then its volume. Using the obtained volume and equation 1 for two

cells, we finally computed the surface of the two daughter cells. For non-confined cells, we used a similar

approach with spheres rather than cylinders.

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Author contribution

S.M. and C.R. contributed equally to this work. S.M and C.R. supervised the project. M.M., S.M. and C.R. designed the research. M.M., A.S. performed the experiments. M.M., H.A. performed the modeling. M.M., A.S., S.M. and C.R. analyzed the data. M.M., S.M. and C.R. wrote the manuscript. All authors helped to edit the manuscript.

Supplementary figures

Figure 1 supp

(a) Variation of nuclear volume between 2 h and 24 h according to the nuclear deformation (which correspond to the height of the confinement). *N = 3 experiments with n > 5,000cells/experiment, unpaired t-test.* **(b)** Scatter plot of nuclear area without the blebs at 2 h and 24 h without confinement or under strong confinement. *N = 3 experiments with n = 31 cells, unpaired t-test.* **(c)** The difference in height between the nucleus and its cell membrane under increasing nuclear deformation. *N = 3 experiments with n > 5,000 cells/experiment.* **(d)** Representative images of stained nuclei and p-MLC in XY (scale bar = 10 µm) and its orthogonal view under increasing confinement (scale bar = 5 µm). **(e)** Representative images of nuclei and DNA damage, shown by stained γH2AX foci. Phleomycin is a drug that induces DNA damage used here as a positive control. *Scale bar = 10 µm.* **(f)** Quantification of the number of foci/cell, representative of the DNA damages according to an increase in nuclear deformation. *N = 2 experiments with n > 2000; mean ± SEM; unpaired t-test. Ordinary one-way ANOVA was also performed on all 24 h confinement conditions and was no significant.*

Figure 2 supp

(a) Sequential images of HT-29 cell expressing NLS-mKAte2 under strong confinement. Arrows show NLS-mKAte2 dye leakage within the cytoplasm indicating nuclear membrane rupture. *Scale bar = 10 μm.* **(b)** Bar chart of the number of blebs per cell according to the nuclear deformation (0% or 60%) at 2 h or 24 h of confinement. *N = 3 experiments with n = 1,376 cells, unpaired t-test.* **(c)** Quantification of the total area of blebs without confinement or under strong confinement (60% nuclear deformation) between 2 h and 24 h. *N = 3 experiments with n = 36, Mann-Whitney test.* **(d)** Quantification of the average area of blebs without confinement or under high confinement (60% nuclear deformation) between 2 h and 24 h. *N = 3 experiments with n = 36, Mann-Whitney test.* **(e)** Proportion (in percentage) of bleb area per nucleus without confinement or under high confinement (60% nuclear deformation) between 2 h and 24 h. *N = 3 experiments with n = 1,376 cells, Kolmogorov-Smirnov test.*

Figure 4 supp

(a) Representative images of stained nuclei and phospho-Myosin Light Chain (p-MLC) with Blebbistatin – added before confinement – at 2 h and 24 h without confinement or under very strong confinement. *Scale bar = 20 µm*.
(b) Quantification of nuclear volume at 2 h and 24 h without drug or with Blebbistatin – added before confinement – without confinement or under very high confinement. *N = 3 experiments with n = 7,526 cells, mean ± SEM, unpaired t-test (for no drug conditions) or Mann-Whitney test (for Blebbistatin conditions).* **(c)** Quantification of nuclei with blebs, dividing, apoptotic or normal without confinement or under very strong confinement at 2 h and 24 h, with Blebbistatin – added before confinement –. *N = 3 experiments with n = 7,526 cells.* **(d)** Difference in proportion of normal nuclei and nuclei with blebs between 2 h and 24 h under several conditions: without drug, with Blebbistatin added pre-confinement and with Blebbistatin added post-confinement. *N = 3 experiments with n > 10,000 cells.*

693 *Figure 5 supp*
694 **(a)** Picture of the principal components of the confiner system and their name next to the brass mold. **(b)** Picture
695 of the press used to generate a uniform pressure during agarose molding. **(c)** Picture of the assembly process of
696 agarose molding under press.
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699 *Movie 1 - Example of abnormal divisions under very strong confinement*
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701 *Movie 2 - Example of blebs disappearance after mitosis.*
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