Importin α Accumulates in Micronuclei and Associates with Genomic Instability in Human

Cancer Cells

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Running title: Importin α in micronuclei.

Keywords: Cancer development, Chromatin, DNA damage, Genome instability, Micronucleus,

Nuclear transport

Summary statement: Accumulation of importin α in micronuclei, followed by alteration of their

microenvironment, suggests the non-canonical function of importin α in genomic instability and

cancer development.

ABSTRACT

Micronuclei (MN), are membrane-enclosed structures that contain DNA or chromatin, are biomarkers of genome instability. Here, we report that importin α, a key nuclear transport factor, is highly concentrated in the MN of cultured human cancer cells. Notably, it is not uniformly distributed, but is localized to approximately 40% of the MN. This selective localization is characterized by an uncorrelated distribution relative to importin β1, CAS/CSE1L, and Ran, suggesting that the nucleocytoplasmic recycling of importin α is uncontrolled in the MN. We found that the subset of importin α-positive MN exhibits collapsed nuclear envelopes and compromised barrier functions. In addition to an association with euchromatin regions, we identified that chromatin-regulating molecules potentially interact with importin α and noted a significant reduction in the mobility of importin α within MN. These observations indicate that a unique state is established in importin α-enriched structures. Importantly, our findings reveal a mutually exclusive relationship between the accumulation of importin α and RAD51, a protein involved in homologous recombination repair, in MN. These results suggest that importin α is an unrecognized molecular marker for assessing genomic stability in human cancer cells.

INTRODUCTION

Micronuclei (MN) are cytoplasmic structures embedded within the nuclear envelopes but spatially separated from primary nuclei (PN). MN arise from lagging chromosomes or chromosome fragments produced by mitotic errors or DNA damage after genotoxic stress (Hintzsche *et al*, 2017; Kwon *et al*, 2020). Thus, the MN are biomarkers of genome instability, including forms such as chromosome rearrangements, mutagenesis, and chromothripsis (Krupina *et al*, 2021; Kwon *et al.*, 2020; Zhang *et al*, 2015). In particular, the study of chromothripsis in many aggressive types of cancer has been rapidly expanding and advancing; research suggests that MN actively participates in chromothripsis during cancer development, progression, and genome evolution (Forment *et al*, 2012; Ly & Cleveland, 2017; Storchová & Kloosterman, 2016). Moreover, the exposure of DNA/chromatin fibers within MN to cytoplasmic components can serve as a potent molecular pattern signal by activating sterile inflammatory responses, which are associated with many chronic age-associated conditions (Miller *et al*, 2021).

Signal-dependent protein transport occurs through nuclear pore complexes (NPCs) embedded in the nuclear envelope (Fernandez-Martinez & Rout, 2021; Hampoelz *et al*, 2019; Knockenhauer & Schwartz, 2016). Importin α is a classical nuclear localization signal (cNLS) receptor that acts as an adaptor molecule between the cNLS-bearing cargo and their carrier molecule, importin β1 (Goldfarb *et al*, 2004). The cNLS–importin α–importin β1 trimeric complex migrates into the nucleus via mediation by the Ras-like small GTPase, Ran, and dissociates upon the binding of importin β1 and RanGTP (Christie *et al*, 2016; Wente & Rout, 2010). Importin α is exported to the cytoplasm by cellular apoptosis susceptibility gene product (CAS), also known as chromosome segregation 1-like protein [CSE1L; (Behrens *et al*, 2003; Stewart, 2007)]. Human express seven importin α subtypes, including importin α1 (KPNA2), importin α3 (KPNA4), importin α4 (KPNA3), importin α5 (KPNA1), importin α6 (KPNA5), importin α7 (KPNA6), and

importin α8 (KPNA7), which exhibit distinct cNLS-binding specificities and selective expression

in various tissues (Goldfarb *et al.*, 2004; Miyamoto *et al*, 2012; Pumroy & Cingolani, 2015).

Importin α1/KPNA2 has been well investigated, and high expression levels of this protein are

associated with poor prognoses of various cancers (Han & Wang, 2020; Sun *et al*, 2021; Wang *et*

al, 2012). Notably, strong nuclear staining of importin α1 in breast cancer cells using

immunohistochemical analysis is significantly associated with a higher tumor stage (Alshareeda *et*

al, 2015; Dahl *et al*, 2006; Dankof *et al*, 2007).

In addition to nucleocytoplasmic transport regulation, importin α plays non-transport roles

in spindle assembly regulation, lamin polymerization, nuclear envelope formation, protein

degradation, stress response, gene expression, cell surface response, and mRNA metabolism,

which emphasizes its multi-functionality (Miyamoto *et al*, 2016; Oka & Yoneda, 2018). Importin

α accumulates in the nucleus under exceptional conditions, e.g., stress responses, in which it binds

to a DNase-sensitive nuclear component, indicating its potential to associate with DNA/chromatin

(Furuta *et al*, 2004; Kodiha *et al*, 2008; Miyamoto *et al*, 2004). We have demonstrated that nuclear-

localized importin α associates with chromatin and regulates its gene expression (Yasuda *et al*,

2012). A recent report suggests that the importin β binding (IBB) domain enables the binding of

importin α to DNA (Jibiki *et al*, 2021). These findings indicate that the nuclear-localized importin

α can function as a regulator for nuclear homeostasis through its intrinsic capacity for

DNA/chromatin binding.

In this study, we investigated the dynamics and functions of importin α in several human

cancer cell lines. We discovered that a considerable concentration of importin α in MN. Our

findings indicate that the micronuclear localization of importin α does not fully align with its

conventional role and dynamics as a nuclear transport factor. We characterized several interacting

chromatin proteins linked to slow mobility of importin α1 in MN. This investigation revealed not

only a new molecular marker of MN but also elucidated MN structure and quality in cancerous

cells.

RESULTS

Visualization of importin α accumulation in MN

Importin α is highly expressed in various cancer cells; there is a potential association between its

high expression levels and the tumor stages and patient survival outcome (Christiansen &

Dyrskjot, 2013; Han & Wang, 2020). We validated the enhanced expression of importin α

subtypes in breast cancer cell lines (MCF7, MDA-MB-231, and SK-BR-3), along with a control

non-transformed human mammary cell line (MCF10A). Western blot assays revealed that

importin α, particularly importin α1 (KPNA2), was expressed at higher levels in the cancer cell

lines than in the control (Fig. 1A). Indirect immunofluorescence (IF) analysis for identifying the

subcellular localization of importin α1 in MCF7 and HeLa cells revealed that the cytoplasm of

those cell lines emitted quite strong signals, which were found to originate from MN (MCF7 cells

in Fig. 1B, and HeLa cells in Fig. 1C, yellow arrowhead). The MN fluorescence intensity was

considerably higher than that of PN or the cytoplasm, to the extent that the latter was almost

invisible when normalized against the former (Fig. 1D). We also found that other importin α

subtypes—importin α3 (KPNA4), importin α4 (KPNA3), and importin α5 (KPNA1)—were

present in MN (Fig. S1A). Furthermore, similar MN subsets contained different subtypes such as

importin α3 or importin α5 along with importin α1 (Fig. S1B).

Since MN are known to arise from lagging chromosomes during anaphase, a process

associated with chromosome instability, which is a hallmark of cancer cells, we treated cells with

an MPS1 inhibitor, reversine, which efficiently induces chromosome mis-segregation and MN

formation at [Fig. S2A, and S2B (Agustinus *et al*, 2023; D'Alise *et al*, 2008; Santaguida *et al*,

2010)]. After 20 h treatment of HeLa cells with 400 nM reversine (Fig. S2C), MN were observed

in approximately 30 % of the cells (Fig. S2D). We categorized the signal patterns of MN into

three groups, based on the IF analyses using the anti-importin α1 antibody: high (yellow

arrowhead), low (white arrowhead), or no intensity (white arrow) (Fig. S2E). Among the MN

observed in HeLa cells, approximately 30% exhibited high intensity and 10% exhibited low

intensity, indicating that up to 40% of the MN showed importin α1 accumulation under both

standard culture conditions and the reversine treatment (Fig. S2F).

We then examined MN localization of the overexpressed importin α1 fused with enhanced

green fluorescence protein (EGFP) or monomeric red fluorescence protein (mRFP) in reversine

treated HeLa cells (Fig. 1E). Overexpressed importin α predominantly localizes in PN (Miyamoto

et al, 2020). Consistent with this finding, more than 60% of the cells expressed EGFP–importin

α1 showed PN localization (Fig. 1F). In contrast, similar to the results for endogenous importin

α1, approximately 30% of the cells with EGFP–importin α1 displayed signals from some, but not

all, MN, whereas both MN and PN localizations were observed in fewer than 3% of the cells (Fig.

1E, and 1F). Moreover, mRFP–importin α1 colocalized with EGFP–importin α subtypes, α3, α4,

and α5, in the same MN (Fig. S1C), indicating that the accumulation of importin α family

members in the MN is a common feature.

MN localization of importin α1 is uncharacterized in the context of the conventional nuclear

transport machinery.

To determine whether the nuclear transport factors known to influence the subcellular localization

of importin α coordinate its localization in the importin α1-positive MN, we conducted an indirect

IF analysis for importin β1, CAS/CSE1L, and Ran in reversine-treated HeLa cells. Importin β1

was predominantly observed in the cytoplasm and at the rim of PN, as well as in MN. However,

most importin β1 signals represented the rim of MN, with minimal overlap of importin α1 signals

from inside MN (Fig. 2A). Notably, less than 17% of the MN showed importin β1 localization,

which was considerably lower than that of importin α1 (Fig. 2B, and 2C). In contrast, CAS/CSE1L

and Ran signals were detected from most MN in HeLa cells, with localization rates of up to 88%

or 91%, respectively (Fig. 2A-C). These localization patterns suggest that the selective

localization of importin α1 in MN is unlikely to results solely from defects in the nuclear export

machinery based on the CAS/CSE1L and Ran gradient.

We then investigated whether the MN localization of importin α1 is related to the

transport of cNLS substrates. HeLa cells expressing mCherry–SV40TNLS contained endogenous

importin α1 with a relatively high probability in cNLS-positive MN (Cell #1 yellow arrowhead

in Fig. 2D, and 2E). However, cNLS-signals were also detected from importin α1-negative MN

(Cell#2, white arrow in Fig. 2D, and 2E), indicating that selective MN localization of importin α1

is not necessarily linked to the transport of cNLS substrates into MN.

To confirm that the MN localization of importin α1 does not occur due to the interaction

with importin β1, CAS/CSE1L and the cNLS-substrates, we tested several importin α1 mutants,

including those with the IBB domain deleted (ΔIBB), deficient in cNLS binding (ED), or mutated

at the CAS/CSE1L binding domain (C-mut) to express an EGFP fused protein (Fig. S3A). Cells

in which overexpressed EGFP–importin α1 localized only in PN were excluded from the analysis

(see Fig. 1E, top panels). All the tested mutants were clearly observed in MN (Fig. S3B, yellow

arrowheads). In addition, different patterns of PN localization were identified. In contrast to wild-

type importin α1, which appeared to be quite clear and localized exclusively in MN, C-mut

localized in both of MN and PN (Fig. S3B-3D). The ΔIBB mutant was also observed in PN but

to a lesser extent than C-mut. These findings suggest that the subcellular dynamics of importin

α1 in PN and MN are quite different; MN localization of importin α1 is regulated by mechanisms

distinct from those governing PN localization, which is typically associated with canonical

nucleocytoplasmic recycling processes.

Taken together, our data suggest that the MN localization of importin α does not entirely

conform to its traditional role as a nuclear transport factor.

Nuclear envelopes are partially collapsed in the importin α1-enriched MN

Given that MN formation is often linked to nuclear envelope defects that can perturb nuclear

trafficking (Guo *et al*, 2020; Hatch *et al*, 2013; Maciejowski & Hatch, 2020), we examined the

nuclear envelope of the importin α1-enriched MN using antibodies against lamins B1 and A/C.

Indirect IF analysis revealed that neither lamin clearly correlated with the selective MN

localization of importin α1 (Fig. 3A, and 3B: Cell#1). Instead, importin α1 tended to concentrate

in MN regions deficient in lamins (Fig. 3A, and 3B: Cell#2, see the graphs of the fluorescence

intensity in the X-Y lines). Therefore, nuclear envelope defects were confirmed by using the

mAb414 antibody, which recognizes nucleoporins (Fig. S4A and S4B). However, this antibody

could not be further used in this context due to cross-reactivity with highly concentrated importin

α1 in MN (Fig. S4). To additionally scrutinize nuclear envelope collapse in importin α1-positive

MN, we performed correlative light and electron microscopy (CLEM) on HeLa cells expressing

EGFP–importin α1. Transmission electron microscopy (TEM) images revealed portions of the

nuclear envelope with marked weakening (indicated by white arrowheads in Fig. 3C).

We then employed an EGFP fused nuclear export signal (NES) to assess nuclear

envelope in importin α1-positive MN. In HeLa cells expressing EGFP–NES, EGFP signals were

excluded from the importin α1-negative MN (Fig. 3D, white arrows), whereas they originated

from importin α1-positive MN (Fig. 3D, yellow arrowheads). Statistical analysis revealed that the

fluorescence intensity of the EGFP–NES signal was remarkably higher for importin α1-positive

MN (Fig. 3E. and S4F), indicating that their nuclear envelopes had partially collapsed. These

results indicated that nuclear envelopes were partially disrupted in a subset of importin α1-

positive MN.

Epigenetic chromatin status and importin α distribution in MN

Based on our prior findings that importin α can associate with DNase-sensitive chromatin (Yasuda

et al., 2012), we assessed the relationship between importin α1 and DNA/chromatin status in MN

by examining well-characterized histone H3 modifications. We used tri-methylations at lysine 4

and 9 of histone H3 (H3K4me3 and H3K9me3) as markers of euchromatin and heterochromatin

regions, respectively. IF analysis showed that importin α1 signals positively correlated with

H3K4me3 signals, and negatively correlated with H3K9me3 signals for MDA-MB-231 cells (Fig.

4A, and 4B), MCF7 cells (Fig. S5A, and S5B) and HeLa cells (Fig. S5C, and S5D). Notably,

regions with lower intensity of importin α1 signals were often located at the peripheral area of the

MN near the nuclear envelope, where DNA/chromatin fibers were generally condensed due to the

spatial/structural constraints imposed by the nuclear envelope.

To explore the chromatin-binding activity of importin α1, we conducted chromatin

immunoprecipitation sequence (ChIP-seq) analysis on whole MCF7 cells using two different

importin α1 antibodies. Comparison of the ChIP-seq data for importin α1 with a commercially

available dataset for modified histones revealed that importin α1 associated with euchromatin

regions characterized by H3K4me3 and H3K36me3, but not in heterochromatin regions marked

by H3K27me3 and H3K9me3 (Fig. 4C: represented chromosome 16, and Fig. 4D).

Taken together, our data indicate a preferential distribution of importin α1 in the

euchromatic areas rather than in the heterochromatic regions of MN.

Search for potential importin α1-interacting proteins accumulated in MN

Given that importin α1 is concentrated in euchromatin regions, likely due to its chromatin binding

capacity, we attempted to identify potential importin α1-interacting partners. To achieve this, we

performed rapid immunoprecipitation mass spectrometry of endogenous proteins (RIME) using

whole MCF7 cells (Mohammed *et al*, 2016). Using two independent samples from MCF7 cells,

we identified 102 proteins as potential importin α1 interactors which were excluded 4 overlapping

proteins (as shown 106 proteins in Fig. 5A and Table S1). Gene ontology analysis using the

PANTHER Pathways database (Mi *et al*, 2013; Thomas *et al*, 2022) revealed that many of these

proteins are involved in DNA replication and p53 pathways related to the DNA damage response

(Fig. 5B).

To narrow down the candidates implicated in MN localization, we screened the proteins

based on their localization using the online database Human Protein Atlas (HPA) database (Pontén

et al, 2008; Thul *et al*, 2017). Careful review of IF images in the HPA dataset revealed 60 proteins

that appeared in MN as well as PN. Out of twenty candidate MCF7 cell proteins identified by IF

analysis, eight proteins—CCAR2/DBC1, TOP2B, SUPT16H, PARP1, GTF2I, HDAC1, HDAC2,

and DNAJB1—were indeed detected within MN (Fig. 5C). Notably, the signals for

CCAR2/DBC1, TOP2B, SUPT16H, and PARP1 overlapped significantly with importin α1

signals from MN (Table S2). Additionally, the mCherry–PARP1 fusion protein colocalized with

EGFP–importin α1 in MN (Fig. 5D).

These results indicate the existence of the chromatin associated proteins that colocalize

with importin α in MN.

Remarkably low mobility of importin α1 in the MN

Interactions with chromatin via various proteins in MN may affect the molecular dynamics of

importin α1. To assess the mobility of importin α1 in MN, we analyzed reversine-treated HeLa

cells expressing EGFP–importin α1 using fluorescence recovery after photobleaching (FRAP).

The mobility of importin α1 was remarkably lower in MN than in PN (Fig. 6A-C). Moreover, we

found that three distinct modes of mobility were observed, namely, high, middle, and low. These

results indicate that the dynamics of MN-localized importin α1 differ from those of a canonical

nuclear transport factor.

Mutually exclusive MN localization of importin α1 and RAD51

In our investigation of importin α1-intereacting partners and their roles in MN, we discovered that

RAD51, a homologous recombination repair protein involved in DNA damage response,

accumulated in the MN of etoposide-treated HeLa cells (Fig. 7A). Up to 43% of the MN exhibited

RAD51-positive signals (Fig. 7B). Although most RAD51-positive MN displayed low-intensity

signals (Fig. 7C, upper panels: Cell #1, white arrowhead), a small subset of MN occasionally

showed significantly stronger fluorescence intensity (Fig. 7C, lower panels: Cell #2, yellow

arrowhead).

Notabley, we found that the localization of importin α1 and RAD51 in MN was mutually

exclusive. MN with low RAD51 signal intensity exhibited strong importin α1 signal intensity (Fig.

7D, upper panels: Cell #1, yellow arrowhead), and vice versa (Fig. 7D, lower panels: Cell #2,

white arrowhead). Moreover, these molecules exhibited distinct compartmentalization while

localizing in MN in a single cell (Fig. 7E, Cells #1 and #2: yellow arrowhead; importin α1-positive

and RAD51-negative MN, white arrowhead; importin α1-negative and RAD51-positive MN).

Finally, the signal intensity of endogenous RAD51 was remarkably low in MN overexpressing

EGFP–importin α1 (Fig. 7F, and 7G). Importantly, such altered distribution was not observed for

one of the binding candidates, PAPR1(Fig. 5D), indicating that the mutual exclusion was specific

to RAD51.

Taken together, these data suggest that highly enriched importin α1 in MN inhibits the

RAD51 accessibility, highlighting the role of importin α in modulating the MN state by

influencing both importin α-associated chromatin proteins and those excluded from the importin

α-enriched MN.

DISCUSSION

In this study, we found that several subtypes of importin α were localized in MN of human cancer cells, indicating that the MN localization is a common feature of the importin α proteins. Notably, importin α localized in some MN but not in others. This observation suggests that specific features of the MN state, such as its structure and function, may be related to the unique function of importin α.

MN localization of importin α1 did not fully correlate with the cellular distribution of importin α-related transport factors, such as importin β1, CAS/CSE1L, and Ran, and with the transport of cNLS substrates into MN. Furthermore, all tested EGFP–importin α1 mutants (ΔIBB, ED, and C-mut), which do not exhibit nuclear transport functions, showed MN localization. Further, C-mut, which is defective in nuclear export, localized in both PN and MN, whereas wild-type importin α1 was observed exclusively in MN. These results suggest some differences in the nucleocytoplasmic recycling of importin α1 in PM and MN. In particular, importin α1 is rapidly recycled from PN, whereas it moves very slowly between MN and the cytoplasm. This observation indicates that nuclear export of importin α1 from MN is disrupted or inhibited. We hypothesize that interaction with some components, such as the chromatin-regulating proteins identified in this study, suppresses the nuclear export of importin α from MN, leading to significant accumulation.

The high concentration of importin α in MN may have also resulted in nuclear envelope defects. We have demonstrated herein that importin α1 was enriched in the lamin-deficient areas of MN, as evidenced by electron microscopy analysis showing a fragile morphology of the nuclear envelope. We therefore propose that importin α1 mediates the construction and/or collapse of the nuclear envelope of MN. A previous study demonstrated that exogenously added recombinant importin α proteins inhibited nuclear envelope assembly around decondensed sperm chromatin in

Xenopus egg extracts (Hachet *et al*, 2004), indicating that highly concentrated importin α inhibits

nuclear membrane formation. An alternative scenarios that cannot be ruled out is that importin α

accumulation is not the cause of nuclear membrane collapse, but rather a consequence of it.

Emerging research indicates that interactions between mitochondria and MN may induce nuclear

envelope damage and/or inhibit the repair of nuclear membrane defects, possibly via reactive

oxygen species generated by mitochondria located near MN (Di Bona *et al*, 2024; Martin *et al*,

2024). Although we did not collect data on the proximity of importin α-positive MN to

mitochondria in this study, our findings suggest alternative mechanisms that may promote nuclear

membrane damage or impede the repair of membrane defects in MN.

Ruptured MN are associated with chromothripsis and innate immunity mediated by the

cyclic GMP–AMP synthase–stimulator of interferon genes (cGAS-STING) pathway, both of

which play critical roles in tumorigenesis, senescence, inflammation, and cancer immunotherapy

(Guo *et al.*, 2020; Guo *et al*, 2022; Kirsch-Volders *et al*, 2020). In this context, our study highlights

the underappreciated role of importin α in cancer processes, particularly through its effects when

enriched within MN. In a previous study, we demonstrated that nuclear-localized importin α

associates with DNase-sensitive chromatin components and is involved in gene regulation

(Yasuda *et al.*, 2012). We further reported that genetic loss of importin α4 (KPNA4) in mice leads

to changing the epigenetic status of chromatin, which is associated with abnormal sperm

formation and brain inflammation (Miyamoto *et al.*, 2020; Sakurai *et al*, 2024). Furthermore,

research shows that importin α binds to DNA through the IBB domain (Jibiki *et al.*, 2021). These

findings, along with those of this study regarding the distribution of importin α1 in conjunction

with histone modification markers and its notably slow mobility in MN, interestingly demonstrate

the ability of importin α to directly associate with DNA/chromatin fibers through some

components in MN, with potential implications for the induction of the chromothripsis process

and regulation of the cGAS-STING pathway in cancer cells.

Finally, we have provided evidence for an unrecognized molecular connection between

importin α1 and RAD51 in MN. Although RAD51 was not initially identified as a binding partner

in the RIME analysis, a previous study noted importin α1 (referred to as importin α2) as a

component of the RAD51 complex with CAS/CSE1L (Okimoto *et al*, 2015). This finding

suggests a potential role for importin α1 in regulating DNA repair processes related to RAD51,

which is vital for preventing mutations and maintaining genomic stability (Wassing & Esashi,

2021). Increased RAD51 expression is associated with enhanced recombination events and

genome instability in tumor cells (Klein, 2008; Richardson *et al*, 2004). Both importin α1 and

RAD51 have been implicated in tumorigenesis and patient survival (Christiansen & Dyrskjot,

2013; Han & Wang, 2020; Liao *et al*, 2022). Therefore, the enrichment of importin α1 in MN,

along with its interaction with the chromatin, may regulate the accessibility of RAD51 to

DNA/chromatin fibers in MN and protect its activity. This is supported by the observation that

breast cancer tissues that highly express importin α1 exhibit the cytoplasmic localization of

RAD51 (Alshareeda *et al.*, 2015). Understanding the regulatory mechanism and consequences of

RAD51 exclusion by importin α1 in MN is essential for gaining deeper insights into genome

instability, which promotes cancer progression and malignancy.

In summary, our results reveal that importin α is uniquely distributed and alters the

nuclear/chromatin status when enriched in MN. This finding indicates that importin α can serve

as a molecular marker for characterizing the dynamics of MN (Fig. 8). These discoveries will be

valuable for researchers interested in exploring the heterogeneity, quality control, and fate of MN

in various cellular processes, including tumorigenesis, senescence, inflammation, and cancers

immunotherapy.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Cell lines and culture conditions

Human cervical cancer cell line HeLa cells were obtained from the RIKEN cell bank (Tsukuba, Japan). Human breast cancer cell line MCF7 was obtained from NIBIOHN (JCRB 0134), and MDA-MB-231, SK-BR-3, and human breast epithelial cell line MCF10A were kindly gifted from Satoshi Fujii (National Cancer Center, Japan). HeLa and SK-BR-3 cells were maintained in Dulbecco's Modified Eagle's Medium (DMEM; Sigma-Aldrich, St. Luis, MO) containing 10% fetal bovine serum (FBS). MCF7 cells were maintained in Minimum Essential Medium (MEM) Alpha no phenol red (Life Technologies, Carlsbad, CA) containing 10 % FBS, 0.1 mM MEM Non-essential amino acids (NEAA; Life Technologies), 1 mM Sodium pyruvate (Life Technologies), and 10 µg/mL Insulin (Wako, Osaka, Japan). MDA-MB-231 cells were cultured in the RPMI1640 medium (Sigma-Aldrich) containing 10 % FBS and 2 mM L-Glutamine (Life Technologies). MCF10A cells were cultured in MEG mammary epithelial cell growth medium BulletKit added to SingleQuote (CC-3150) and 10 % FBS. Cells were cultured at 37 °C in a 5% CO_2 incubator. Reversine (Cayman Chemical, MI, USA) and etoposide (Tokyo Chemical Industry (TCI) Co., LTD., Tokyo, Japan) were used as described in Fig. S2A-D and Fig. 7A.

Antibodies

Primary antibodies used in the experiments are listed in Table S3. The secondary antibodies used were: Alexa Fluor Plus 488 (A32723, A32790, A32731, and A32814; Thermo Fisher Scientific Inc, Rockford, IL, USA), and Alexa Fluor 488 (A11055), Alexa Fluor 594 (A-21203, A32754, and A11032) for an indirect IF and horseradish peroxidase (HRP)-conjugated anti-goat, anti-rabbit, or anti-mouse secondary antibodies (Jackson ImmunoResearch Inc West Grove, PA, USA) for western blotting.

Immunofluorescence analysis

MCF7, MDA-MB-231, and HeLa cell lines were cultured on 18 × 18 mm coverslips (Menzel-

Glaser, Braunschweig, Germany) in a 35 mm dish, and immunofluorescence analysis was

performed as follows. Cells were fixed with 3.7% formaldehyde in phosphate-buffered saline

(PBS) for 15 min, followed by treatment with 0.5% Triton X-100 in PBS for 5 min. After blocking

with 3% skim milk in PBS for 30 min at 25 °C, the cells on the coverslips were labeled with

primary antibodies overnight and following by reacted with secondary antibodies accordingly for

1 h at 25 °C. To visualize DNA, the slides were incubated with DAPI (1:5000 in PBS, Dojindo)

for 20 min. The fluorescence images were observed using a confocal microscope (Leica TCS SP8

II; Leica Microsystems, Wetzlar, Germany).

Plasmid construction for mammalian expression

Human importin α1 (KPNA2) cDNA subcloned into the pGEX6P2 plasmid was gifted from Akira

Tsujii (NIBIOHN) and then cloned into pEGFPC1 vector (Clontech, Mountain View, CA, USA).

Plasmids for pEGFP-mouse importin α1 (KPNA2) was constructed as described previously

(Yasuda *et al.*, 2012). The SV40T antigen NLS (NLS; PKKKRKVED) within pmCherry-C1

(pmCherry–NLS) was constructed as described (Miyamoto *et al*, 2022). The pEGFPC1-NES

plasmid was kindly gifted from Dr. Asally (Asally *et al*, 2011). The cDNAs encoding PARP1 and

RAD51 were amplified from HeLa cells by PCR using the following primers: PARP1 forward:

5'-GTCCGGACTCAGATCTATGGCGGAGTCTTCGGAT-3' and 5'-

CCGCGGTACCGTCGACTTACCACAGGGAGGTCTTA-3', and RAD51 forward: 5'-

GTCCGGACTCAGATCTATGGCAATGCAGATGCAGCT-3' and reverse: 5'-

CCGCGGTACCGTCGACTCAGTCTTTGGCATCTCCCACT-3'. The cDNAs were cloned into

the pmCherryC1 vector using an In-Fusion HD cloning kit (Clontech, Mountain View, CA, USA).

Transfection

HeLa cells were plated onto 18 × 18 mm coverslips (Menzel-Glaser) in a 35 mm dish 2 days prior

to transfection. The transfections for mammalian expression plasmids were performed using

Lipofectamine 2000 DNA Transfection Reagent (Thermo Fisher Scientific) following the

manufacturer's instructions.

Western blotting

Western blotting was performed as previously described (Miyamoto *et al.*, 2022). Twenty ug of

whole cell lysates were subjected to 10% Supersep SDS-PAGE gel (Wako, Osaka, Japan). The

membranes were incubated with primary antibodies (dilutions ranging from 1:2000) diluted in

Can Get Signal Immunoreaction Enhancer Solution 1 (TOYOBO, Osaka, Japan) overnight at 4 °C.

The used HRP-conjugated secondary antibodies (dilutions ranging from 1:8000 to 1:10,000) were

diluted in Can Get Signal Immunoreaction Enhancer Solution 2 (TOYOBO) at 25 °C for 1 h. The

signals were detected with ATTO EzWest lumi plus (WSE-7120S, ATTO Corporation, Tokyo,

Japan).

Correlative light-electron microscopy (CLEM)

CLEM analysis was performed as described previously (Yokota *et al*, 2021), with some

modifications. Briefly, HeLa cells attached on gridded coverslips (Matsunami) were transfected

with pEGFP-human importin α1 (KPNA2) for 1 day and treated with 400 nM reversine. Then, the

cells were fixed in 2% paraformaldehyde, 0.5% glutaraldehyde, and 50 mM sucrose in 0.1 M

phosphate buffer, and stained with Hoechst 33342 for 1 h. After taking bright field and

fluorescence images using a BZ-X810 microscope (KEYENCE, Osaka, Japan), the cells were

further fixed in 2% glutaraldehyde and 50 mM sucrose in 0.1 M phosphate buffer, and post-fixed

with 1% osmium tetroxide. Fixed cells were dehydrated and embedded in Epok 812 (Oken Shoji).

Ultrathin sections were cut using a UC6 ultramicrotome (Leica), stained with uranyl acetate and

lead citrate, and examined using a JEM-1400 electron microscope (JEOL).

Chromatin immunoprecipitation sequence (ChIP-seq)

MCF7 cells (1×10^6) were grown in 100 mm dishes (IWAKI, Tokyo, Japan) for 7 days, and fixed

at 25 °C for 5 min by adding 135 µL of 37% formaldehyde solution (Nacalai tesque) in 10 mL of

the culture medium. Fixed cells were washed twice with ice-cold PBS twice and collected with

0.5 mL of ice-cold PBS using a cell lifter (Corning, NY), and centrifuged at 600 ×g at 4 °C for 5

min. The cells were resuspended in ChIP buffer [10 mM Tris-HCl (pH 8.0), 200 mM KCl, 1 mM

$CaCl_2$, 0.5% NP40] containing a protease inhibitor cocktail (No.25955, Nacalai tesque), briefly

sonicated (Branson 250 Sonifier, Branson Ultrasonics), and incubated on ice for 10 min. After

centrifugation at 10,000 ×g at 4 °C for 10 min, the supernatants were digested with 1 U/mL

micrococcal nuclease (Worthington Biochemical) at 37 °C for 30 min. The reaction was stopped

with EDTA (final concentration of 10 mM), and centrifuged at 10,000 ×g at 4 °C for 10 min. The

supernatants were incubated with anti-rabbit or anti-mouse IgG magnetic beads (Dynabeads, Life

Technologies) with anti-importin α1 (BD Biosciences, Cat. #610486; Abcam, Cat. # ab84440,

Table S3) for 8 h. The beads were washed twice with ChIP buffer, ChIP wash buffer [10 mM Tris-

HCl (pH 8.0), 500 mM KCl, 1 mM $CaCl_2$, 0.5% NP40, a protease inhibitor cocktail], and TE

buffer [10 mM Tris-HCl (pH 8.0) and 1 mM EDTA] and eluted overnight in an elution buffer

containing [50 mM Tris-HCl (pH 8.0), 10 mM EDTA, and 1% sodium dodecyl sulfate (SDS)] at

65 °C. DNA was recovered using AMPure XP beads (Beckman Coulter) and used for preparation

for ChIP-seq analysis.

A ChIP library was prepared using the NEBNext Ultra DNA Library Prep Kit for

Illumina (New England Biolabs) following the manufacturer's instructions, and sequencing was

conducted on an Illumina HiSeq1500 system. Sequence reads were aligned to the reference human

genome (GRCh38) using Hisat2 (version 2.0.5). Genomic tracks (bigWig) and correlation matrix

were generated using deepTools (version 3.4.5).

Rapid immunoprecipitation mass spectrometry of endogenous proteins (RIME)

MCF-7 cells (1.5×10^6) were cultured in 100 mm dishes (IWAKI) in 10 mL of MEM medium

with 10% FBS for 5 days. To fix the cells, 1/10 volume (1 mL) of freshly prepared Formaldehyde

Solutions [FS: 11% Methanol free formaldehyde, 0.1 M NaCl, 1 mM EDTA, and 50 mM Hepes

(pH7.9)] was directly added to the medium and incubated for 8 min at 25 °C. After the addition

of 0.55 mL 2.5 M glycine solution to the 11 mL of the medium (final conc. 0.1 M) to quench

crosslinking for 5 min, cells were washed twice with ice-cold PBS. After removal of the

supernatants, cells were collected at $800 \times g$ for 10 min at 4 °C, and then, the cell pellets were

resuspended with 10 mL of ice-cold PBS with 0.5% Igepal CA-630 (#I-8896, Sigma-Aldrich) and

then centrifuged again. The cell pellets were suspended with 10 mL of ice-cold PBS with 0.5%

Igepal CA-630 and 100 µL of 100 mM Phenylmethylsulfonyl fluoride (PMSF) in EtOH (final

conc. 1 mM). The cell suspension was centrifuged thrice to pellet the cells, and then, the cell

pellets were snap-frozen in liquid N2 and stored at -80 °C. RIME analysis was performed by

Active Motif, CA., according to published protocols (Mohammed *et al.*, 2016). RIME was carried

out using an antibody against importin α1 (KPNA2; Ab2 in Table S3) and 150 µg of chromatin

from MCF7 cells to identify proteins that interact with importin α1 using mass spectrometry.

Mass spectrometry of the immunoprecipitated protein complexes resulted in 57–60% coverage of

importin α1.

Fluorescence recovery after photobleaching (FRAP)

HeLa cells (ATCC, CCL-2.2) were cultured in DMEM supplemented with 10 % FBS at 37 °C

under 5 % CO_2. A plasmid encoding EGFP–human importin α1(KPNA2) was introduced into

HeLa cells with polyethyleneimine (Polyscience, 49553937). The cells were replated onto a glass-

bottom dish (D11130H, Matsunami) 12 h after transfection and incubated for another 12 h. The

cells were further incubated in the presence of reversine (400 nM) for 20 h. Fluorescence

observation and FRAP analysis were performed using confocal laser scanning microscopy

(Evident, FV3000). Time-lapse images of green fluorescence were obtained every 10 sec for 6

min (for micronuclei) or every 3 sec for 1 min (for primary nuclei). Between 3rd and 4th images,

the fluorescence signal of a region of interest (ROI) was bleached by 488 nm laser irradiation.

The fluorescence signals of ROI was quantified using Image J (ver.1.54f).

Accession number

The ChIP-Seq data are accessible through GEO Series accession number GSE283000.

Statistical analysis

Cells and MN were counted optically under a microscope using the appropriate fluorescence field.

Unless stated otherwise, all data are presented as the mean ± standard deviation (s.d.). Within

individual experiments, data points were based on a minimum of triplicate representative samples.

Data were analyzed with Prism 9.0 software (GraphPad Software, La Jolla, CA).

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

We thank Akira Tsujii (NIBIOHN) for kindly gifting the pGEX6P2-human importin α1 plasmid,

Munehiro Asally (University of Warwick) for kindly gifting the pEGFPC1-NES plasmid, and

Satoshi Fujii (National Cancer Center, Japan) for kindly gifting the human breast epithelial cells.

We also thank the members of the Oka, Katagiri, and Saitoh Laboratories for their helpful

discussion and technical support, and the Laboratory of Morphology and Image Analysis,

Biomedical Research Core Facilities, Juntendo University Graduate School of Medicine for

technical assistance.

FUNDING

This work was supported by Japan Society for the Promotion of Science (JSPS) KAKENHI grant

numbers JP20K06455, JP22KK0111, and JP24K09446 to Y.M., JP17H01878 to H.S., and

JP22H04926, Grant-in-Aid for Transformative Research Areas – Platforms for Advanced

Technologies and Research Resources "Advanced Bioimaging Support", and The Naito

Foundation (Japan) to H.S.

COMPETING INTERESTS

No competing interests declared.

AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

YM and HS conceived originally the project, and designed the experiments. YM, RK, RO, SHY,

MY, KM, CH, TT, MK, and YO performed the experiments. YM, RK, SHY, MY, KM, MK, YO,

TK, YY, MO, and HS analyzed the data and designed figures. YM and HS wrote the manuscript.

FIGURE LEGENDS

Figure 1. Accumulation of importin α proteins in MN. (A) Western blot analysis using specific

antibodies to detect importin α (Imp-α/KPNA) subtypes, importin β1 (Imp-β1/KPNB1),

CAS/CSE1L, and ACTIN as a loading control in whole cell extracts from a human breast

epithelial cell line (MCF10A) and breast cancer cell lines (MCF7, MDA-MB-231, and SK-BR-

3). An antibody against importin α1 (KPNA2) was used the Ab2 in Table S3. (B) An indirect IF

analysis for MCF7 cells using an anti-importin α1 antibody (Imp-α1). The left enlarged image is

extracted from the area enclosed by the red dotted line in the right image. Yellow arrowhead shows

high intensity of importin α1 signals in MN. DNA is stained with DAPI. Bar = 30 μm. (C) IF

image of importin α1 in HeLa cells. Yellow arrowhead: high intensity of importin α1 signals in

MN. White dotted lines indicate cellular boundaries. DNA is stained with DAPI. The yellow line

described with X and Y is for fluorescence intensity that is showed in D. (D) Fluorescent

intensities of importin α1 (green) and DAPI (blue) are measured along with the X-Y line

represented in C. PN: primary nucleus, MN: micronucleus. (E) Representation of overexpressed

EGFP–importin α1 (EGFP-Imp-α1) in HeLa cells which are treated with reversine for 20 h. PN:

primary nuclei (upper panels), MN: micronuclei (middle panels), both of PN and MN (PN/MN,

lower panels). DNA is stained with Hoechest33342. Yellow arrowheads or white arrows indicate

MNs with either high intensity or no intensity of EGFP–Imp-α1. Bar = 20 μm. (F) The ratio of

EGFP–Imp-α1 localized in either PN, MN or PN/MN, exhibited in E. The number of Hoechst-

stained cells (approximately 35 cells per an observed area) is counted to derive the percentage of

either the EGFP–Imp-α1 positive PN, MN or PN/MN. Data are representative of three

independent experiments (108 cells in total).

Figure 2. Localization of the nuclear transport factors and cNLS-substrates in importin α1-

enriched MN.

(A) Indirect IF images of importin α1 with either importin β1, CAS/CSE1L and Ran in reversine-

treated HeLa cells. DNA is stained with DAPI. White dotted lines indicate cellular boundaries.

Yellow arrowhead: high intensity of importin α1 signals, white arrow: no intensity of importin α1

signals. Bar = 10 μm. (B) Ratio of MN localization of either importin β1, CAS/CSE1L, or Ran

against the total number of MN in reversine-treated HeLa cells. The number of DAPI-stained MN

is counted for independent experiments as shown in A (n=4, 80 cells in total each). (C) Ratio of

MN localization of either importin β1, CAS/CSE1L, or Ran against the importin α1-positive MN

in reversine-treated HeLa cells (n=4, 80 cells in total each). (D) Indirect IF images of MN

localized importin-α1 in mCherry–NLS-expressing HeLa cells with reversine treatment. Yellow

arrowheads: Imp-α1-positive MN, white arrows: Imp-α1-negative MN. (E) Ratio of MN

localization of importin α1 against the NLS-positive- or NLS-negative MN as shown in D (n=4,

170 cells in total).

Figure 3. Nuclear envelope collapse of importin-α1-enriched MN.

(A–B) Indirect IF images of importin α1 with lamin B1 (A) or lamin A/C (B) in reversine-treated

HeLa cells. Two images of an independent cell are shown in the upper panel (Cell #1), and the

lower panels show an enlarged MN image (Cell #2). The fluorescence intensities of importin α1

(green), Lamin B1 or Lamin A/C (red), and DAPI (blue) are measured along with the X-Y line in

the lower panel (Cell #2). Yellow arrowhead: high intensity of importin α1 signals, white arrow:

no importin α1 signals. Bar = 10 μm. (C) CLEM analysis of importin α1-expressing MN. Left

image: The merged EGFP–importin α1, Hoechst 33342, and TEM images of reversine-treated

HeLa cells. The boxed area indicates EGFP-positive MN. Scale bar = 5 μm. Center image:

enlarged TEM image of MN in the left box. Scale bar = 1 μm. Right image: enlarged TEM image

of the box in the center image. White arrowheads indicate an area lacking the inner and outer

nuclear membranes of the micronucleus. Scale bar = 500 nm. TEM: transmission electron

microscopy; PN: primary nucleus; MN: micronucleus. (D) MN localization of importin α1 and

lamin B1 in EGFP–NES-expressing HeLa cells treated with reversine. Two images of an

independent cell are shown in the upper (Cell #1) and the lower panels (Cell #2). Yellow

arrowheads: Imp-α1-positive MN, white arrows: Imp-α1-negative MN. (E) MN localization ratio

of EGFP–NES in Imp-α1-negative (left) and Imp-α1-positive (right) MN, measured per 10 cells

(4 observation regions, total >40 cells counted).

Figure 4. Euchromatin localization of importin α1 in MN.

(A–B) Indirect IF images of importin α1 with H3K4me3 (A) or H3K9me3 (B) in normally

cultured MDA-MB-231 cells. The upper enlarged images are extracted from the area enclosed by

the red dotted line in the lower image. DNA is stained with DAPI. Fluorescent intensities of

importin α1 (green), modified histones (red: H3K4me3 or H3K9me3), and DAPI (blue) in MN

are measured along with the X-Y line and represented in the left low. Bar = 10 μm. (C) Alignment

of ChIP-seq data for importin α1 and modified histones in whole MCF7 cells (chromosome 16 is

represented). Two independent importin α1 antibodies (Ab1 and Ab2 in Table S3) were used for

ChIP analysis and modified histones data was obtained from public data set of ENCODE project

(H3K4me3: ENCSR000DWJ, H3K27me3: ENCSR000EWP, H3K36me3: ENCSR000EWO,

H3K9me3: ENCSR000EWQ). (D) Plot the Spearman's correlation coefficient matrix for ChIP-

seq data for two independent importin α1 antibodies and modified histones in MCF7 cells.

Figure 5. Exploration of importin α1-binding proteins through RIME.

(A) Venn diagram grouping candidate importin α1-binding proteins by RIME. Two independent

experiments are performed. MCF7-R1 and MCF7-R2 are proteins precipitated by anti-importin

α1 antibodies, and IgG Control-R1 and -R2 are proteins precipitated by normal IgG antibodies.

One hundred and six proteins are candidate binding partners of importin α1. (B) Gene Ontology

analysis for identified binding proteins. All gene ontology terms are identified as a result of

querying the PANTHER Pathways database for the importin α1-interacting proteins identified by

RIME. Terms are ranked by p-value. (C) Indirect IF analysis of importin α1 with candidate

molecules identified by RIME in HeLa cells. Cells are treated with 400 nM reversine for 20 h,

and the molecules described are detected by the specific antibodies (Table S3). White dotted lines

indicate cellular boundaries. DNA is stained with DAPI. Merged images are shown on the right

side. The yellow arrowheads, white arrowheads, and white arrows indicate MN with either high

intensity, low intensity, or no intensity of importin α1, respectively. Bar = 20 μm. (D)

Overexpressed EGFP–importin α1 co-localizes with mCherry–PARP1 in HeLa cells. The yellow

arrowheads indicate MN with both proteins. Bar = 10 μm.

Figure 6. FRAP analysis of EGFP–importin α1 in MN. (A) Time-lapse images of EGFP–

importin α1 in MN and PN at the represented time points. The bleach area is indicated by the

yellow circle, which surrounds all MN or a part of PN. The enlarged images on the right were

extracted from the area enclosed by the red dotted line in the left image. Three types of recovery

modes are shown, namely, High, Middle, and Low. Bar = 10 μm. (B & C) Graphs representing

recovery kinetics data of FRAP analysis in panel A; the values are means for 6 MN (B) or 9 PN

(C). The FRAP curves were normalized to 100% using pre-bleaching values.

Figure 7. Mutually exclusive localization of importin α1 and RAD51 in MN.

(A) Schematic representation for reversine treatment followed by etoposide treatment to HeLa

cells. After 20 h treatment of 400 nM reversine, the cells are incubated with 10 μM etoposide for

6 h. (B) The ratio of the RAD51-positive MN against the DAPI-stained MN with or without

etoposide treatment. Signal intensities of 200 different cells in total from eight independent

experiments. **P < 0.01, two-tailed Student's t-test. error bars represent s.d. (C) Indirect IF

analysis of RAD51 in HeLa cells that are treated with reversine for 20 h followed by etoposide

for 6 h. Two images with independent cells are represented: the upper panels show MN with a

low signal intensity of RAD51 (Cell #1, white arrowhead), and the lower panels show MN with

a high signal intensity of RAD51 (Cell #2, yellow arrowhead). Bar = 10 μm. (D) Indirect IF

analysis of importin α1 with RAD51 in HeLa cells that are treated with reversine and followed

by etoposide. Two images with an independent cell are represented: the upper panels (Cell #1)

show MN with the high signal intensity of importin α1 (green) and low intensity of RAD51 (red,

yellow arrowhead), and the lower panels (Cell #2) show MN with the low signal intensity of

importin α1 and high signal intensity of RAD51 (white arrowhead). Bar = 10 μm. (E) Indirect IF

analysis of importin α1 with RAD51 in HeLa cells that are treated with reversine and followed

by etoposide. In the upper panels (Cell #1), the single cell that is indicated with a white dotted

line has two MN which indicate high signal intensity of importin α1 (green, yellow arrowhead)

and high signal intensity of RAD51 (red, white arrowhead). The middle panels (Cell #2) show

two MN in one cell. The below panels show enlarged images that are extracted from the area

enclosed by the red dotted line. The yellow arrowheads indicate MN with a high signal intensity

of importin α1 and low signal intensity of RAD51, and the white arrowheads indicate MN with

low intensity of importin α1 and high intensity of RAD51. Bar = 10 μm. (F) Indirect IF analysis

of RAD51 in HeLa cells which are overexpressed EGFP–importin α1 (EGFP–Imp-α1). The cells

are transfected with EGFP–Imp-α1 and followed by treatment with reversine and etoposide. Two

images with an independent cell are represented as Cell #1 and #2. DNA is stained with DAPI.

Yellow arrowheads indicate EGFP–Imp-α1 localized MN. The yellow line is described with X

and Y in the lower panels (Cell #2) that is for the fluorescence analysis in G. Bar = 10 μm. (G)

Fluorescence intensities of EGFP–Imp-α1 (green), RAD51 (red), and DAPI (blue) in MN are

measured along with the X-Y line in F.

Figure 8. Schematic illustrating how importin α serves as an undescribed molecular marker

for characterizing the MN state.

Importin α (Imp-α) is present in euchromatin of MN within human cancer cells. Its ability to

interact with a variety of nuclear proteins, including those involved in chromatin regulation,

suggests that it shapes the unique state of MN. Furthermore, certain proteins, such as RAD51, can

be excluded from such compartmentalization. Taken together, these findings suggest that

importin α plays a crucial role in regulating chromosome instability and cell fate in cancer cells.

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