**Nuclear assembly in giant unilamellar vesicles encapsulating *Xenopus* egg extract**

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**Abstract**

The reconstitution of a cell nucleus in a lipid bilayer-enclosed synthetic cell makes great strides in bottom-up synthetic biology. In this study, we propose a method for assembling a nucleus in giant unilamellar vesicles (GUVs). To induce reconstitution of the nucleus, we utilise interphase egg extract of African clawed frogs *Xenopus laevis*, known as a biochemically controllable cell-free system capable of transforming an added sperm chromatin into a nucleus *in vitro*. We enhanced GUV-formation efficiency by the inverted emulsion method through incorporating prolonged waiting time and adding chloroform into lipid-dispersed oil, facilitating subsequent nuclear assembly reactions in the GUVs. Characterisation of nucleus-like structures formed in the GUVs revealed the presence of dense DNA and accumulated GFP-NLS in the structure, indicative of functional nuclear import. Immunostaining further validated the presence of nuclear pore complexes on the surfaces of these nucleus-like structures. Moreover, we observed a positive correlation between sizes of GUV and nucleus-like structure/nucleus. Our approach provides insights into nuclear assembly in lipid bilayer-enclosed cell-like confinement and becomes a platform for constructing artificial cellular systems that closely mimic eukaryotic cells.

## Introduction

Cell nucleus serves as a crucial subcellular compartment in eukaryotic cells, responsible for overseeing the maintenance of genetic materials and orchestrating their functions. Recent advancements in bottom-up synthetic biology have focused on constructing or integrating cell-like functional subcellular compartments in synthetic cells [1-5]. These efforts aim to replicate the functions of natural subcellular compartments such as photosynthesis in chloroplasts [6-8], mitochondrial respiration [9-11], and spatial organisation of gene expression reactions in the nucleus [12-13]. Among various eukaryotic subcellular compartments, the nucleus stands out as a central element in the regulation of eukaryotic cellular processes. Constructing the nucleus in synthetic cells encapsulated with a lipid bilayer represents a significant stride towards developing artificial eukaryotic cellular structures [14]. Reconstitution of natural cell nucleus has previously been achieved in bulk solution [15-17], microfluidic devices [18,19], and water-in-oil emulsions [20-22], by utilising egg extracts of the African clawed frog *Xenopus laevis*. The 'interphase' egg extract of *Xenopus laevis* is known as a biochemically manipulable cell-free system, capable of transforming sperm chromatin into a nucleus *in vitro* [15-17]. However, the challenge of assembling the nucleus in a lipid bilayer-enclosed confinement remains unmet. While encapsulation of an unspecified type of the egg extract into lipid bilayer-enclosed confinement has previously been reported [23], the typical yield in encapsulation of the interphase egg extract is low. This low yield can be attributed to the reported destabilisation of the lipid bilayer in the presence of *Xenopus* egg extract [24], highlighting the challenge of achieving stability in the lipid membrane surrounding the egg extract. Thus, stabilising the lipid bilayer could significantly improve the efficiency of encapsulation and enable the reconstitution of a nucleus in cell-like confinement enclosed with a lipid membrane.

In this study, we reconstitute a cell nucleus in giant unilamellar vesicles (GUVs). To accomplish the assembly of a nucleus in GUVs, we confine interphase egg extract of *Xenopus laevis* supplemented with *Xenopus* sperm chromatin by the inverted emulsion method. We incorporate an extended waiting time as a parameter to enhance GUV yield, based on the finding that the formation of a lipid monolayer at the oil-water interface, a crucial step in the inverted emulsion method, often requires a prolonged period [25]. Additionally, we introduce chloroform into our lipid-dispersed oil, following reported procedures that involve adding organic solvents to promote GUV formation by aggregating lipids and improving their adsorption rate at the oil-water interface [26]. Using GUVs formed by encapsulating the interphase egg extract, we induce nuclear assembly reactions in the GUVs. To confirm nuclear reconstitution, we first identify the functionality of the nuclear membrane by a nuclear import assay. Then, we conduct molecular confirmation of the nuclear membrane by immunostaining, and quantitatively characterise the nuclear assembly events and geometric features of the formed GUVs and nuclei.

**Results**

**Formation of GUVs encapsulating *Xenopus* egg extract**

To improve the encapsulation of *Xenopus* interphase egg extract (see 'Methods' for details on the preparation of *Xenopus* interphase egg extract and sperm chromatin) into GUVs by the inverted emulsion method, we assessed the impact of implemented waiting time ($\tau$: duration of waiting time; $\tau = 0/60/120$ min) and added chloroform ($\Delta$: relative volume of added chloroform to the lipid-dispersed oil; $\Delta = 0/5/10\%$) (Fig. 1; see 'Methods' for details on the intra-GUV nuclear assembly protocol). Representative confocal micrographs of the formed GUVs are shown in Fig. 2a. At $\tau = 0$ min and $\Delta = 0\%$, we observed that the number and size of GUVs encapsulating the egg extract were notably small, unlike the GUVs encapsulating a typical dilute aqueous solution shown in Supplementary Fig. 1.

Meanwhile, we found an increasing trend in the number of GUVs encapsulating the egg extract with prolonged waiting time and higher volumes of added chloroform. These observations suggest that GUV-formation via the inverted emulsion method can be enhanced by implementing prolonged waiting time and adding chloroform to lipid-dispersed oil.

**Fig. 1: Three-step protocol for the assembly of a cell nucleus in GUVs.**

**a** Preparation of *Xenopus* interphase egg extract. Sperm chromatin is added to the egg extract prior to encapsulation into GUVs. **b** Encapsulation of sperm chromatin-added interphase egg extract into GUVs by the inverted emulsion method. Lipid monolayers are formed at the interfaces between water and oil phases. The formation of a lipid monolayer at the interfaces is enhanced by incubating the interfaces for the duration of the waiting time ($\tau$) and adding chloroform in a volume ($\Delta$) into lipid-dispersed oil. Centrifugal force ($F_c$) allows the egg extract emulsions surrounded by a lipid monolayer to pass through a lipid monolayer formed at the interface between the oil phase and the outside water phase, transforming them into GUVs. **c** Induction of nuclear assembly reactions in GUVs by incubation at 22/23°C for 90 min.

To evaluate the impact of implemented waiting time and added chloroform on i) the number of GUVs

formed, ii) the encapsulation of *Xenopus* interphase egg extract, and iii) the diameter of GUVs

produced by the inverted emulsion method, we performed image segmentation of GUVs and computed

these parameters from the micrographs (see 'Methods' for details on the image segmentation and

computation of parameters). The number of GUVs plotted in Fig. 2b exhibited consistent increases

with higher volumes of added chloroform (e.g., from 119 GUVs to 857 GUVs at $\tau = 120$ min), while

the relationship between the number of GUVs and increased waiting time was less consistent

(Supplementary Fig. 2). Similarly, we observed a consistent rise of the proportion of GUVs

encapsulating the GFP-dispersed egg extract with higher volumes of added chloroform (e.g., from

~38% to ~77% at $\tau = 120$ min), as shown in Fig. 2c, with no significant change observed in relation to

prolonged waiting time (Supplementary Fig. 3). Raw values of mean GFP intensity in the GUV lumen

and background used for computing the parameters in Fig. 2c and Supplementary Fig. 3 are shown in

Supplementary Fig. 4. Next, the violin plot of GUV diameter revealed that the majority of GUVs had

diameters below 5 μm, as seen in Fig. 2d. The number of GUVs larger than 5 μm notably increased

with higher volumes of added chloroform, as depicted in Fig. 2e, whereas only a slight increase was

observed with increased waiting time (Supplementary Fig. 5). We did not see significant changes in

the proportion of GUVs whose diameter was larger than 5 μm in GUVs formed under each condition,

in relation to both waiting time and chloroform (Supplementary Fig. 6). These results suggest that the

implementation of prolonged waiting time and the addition of chloroform increase i) the number of

GUVs formed by the inverted emulsion method, ii) the proportion of GUVs encapsulating the egg

extract in the observed GUVs, and iii) the number of relatively large GUVs in the population, although

statistically significant improvements in these parameters were primarily associated with increased

chloroform volume.

**Fig. 2: Formation of GUVs encapsulating *Xenopus* interphase egg extract.**

**a** Representative micrographs of GUVs encapsulating the sperm chromatin-added interphase egg extract formed by the inverted emulsion method. $\tau$ denotes duration of waiting time and $\Delta$ denotes added volume of chloroform to the lipid-dispersed oil. Magenta is lipid membrane (RhPE) and green is GFP dispersed in the egg extract. An inset enclosed within a white box depicts a zoom-in of a typical GUV formed at $\tau = 0$ min and $\Delta = 0\%$. Scale bar: 10 μm. **b** The number of GUVs found (10 micrographs per plot, $N = 3$). **c** Proportion of GUVs with mean GFP intensity higher than the computed threshold in the observed GUVs (10 micrographs per plot, $N = 3$). **d** The diameter of GUVs (sum of $N = 3$ with 10 micrographs per each). **e** The number of GUVs with diameter larger than 5 μm (10 micrographs per plot, $N = 3$). In panels b-c and e, one-way ANOVA followed by a *post-hoc* Tukey-Kramer multiple comparison test was performed. See 'Methods' for the details on statistical analysis and Supplementary Tables 1-3 for the summary of statistics.

**Formation of nucleus-like structures in GUVs**

To initiate nuclear assembly reactions in GUVs encapsulating sperm chromatin-added *Xenopus* interphase egg extract, GUVs formed under various waiting time and chloroform conditions were incubated at 22ºC (or 23ºC) for 90 min. A nuclear import assay utilising GFP fused with a nuclear localisation signal derived from simian vacuolating virus 40 (GFP-NLS; see 'Methods' for details on the preparation of GFP-NLS).) was conducted as the primary means of identifying nucleus assembly, following established protocols in water-in-oil emulsions [20-22]. In this assay, GFP-NLS is expected to be transported into the nucleus if a functional nuclear membrane with nuclear pore complexes is assembled on the surface as illustrated in Fig. 1c, while passive dispersion of GFP without the NLS-peptide is anticipated in the GUV lumen. Hereafter, the former condition is denoted as 'NLS(+)', and the latter as 'NLS(-)'. Representative micrographs of these GUVs in the top row of Fig. 3a and Supplementary Fig. 7 demonstrated that GFP clearly accumulated at the same location in the GUVs under the NLS(+) condition, suggesting active nuclear import of GFP-NLS into the assembled nucleus. In contrast, GFP was homogeneously dispersed in the GUVs containing dense DNA under the NLS(-) condition, albeit with a slight accumulation of GFP lacking the NLS-peptide at the same location as dense DNA observed in several confocal micrographs of GUVs in NLS(-) samples (Supplementary Fig. 8). These confocal micrographs indicate successful assembly of nucleus-like structures in GUVs.

**Immunostaining of nuclear pore complexes on nuclear membrane**

To verify the presence of a nuclear membrane on the surface of nucleus-like structures formed in GUVs (top row of Fig. 3a and Supplementary Fig. 7), we conducted immunostaining of nuclear pore complexes (NPCs) using NPC antibodies (mAb414) [27,28]. GUVs containing a nucleus-like structure were fixed with 2.0% glutaraldehyde and stained with mAb414-Alexa Fluor 594 (mAb414-AF594; see 'Methods' for the details on immunostaining). Confocal micrographs of the GUVs are shown in

the top row of Fig. 3b and Supplementary Fig. 9. As a positive control experiment, we conducted

immunostaining of nuclei formed in the bulk form of sperm chromatin-added *Xenopus* interphase egg

extract using the same procedure, as depicted in the bottom row of Fig. 3b and Supplementary Fig. 10.

These confocal micrographs confirmed accumulations of mAb414-AF594 signals at the periphery of

nucleus-like structures in the GUVs, as well as at the periphery of nuclei formed in the bulk extract.

Manual inspection of the micrographs revealed that more than 15% of nucleus-like structures showed

the presence of NPCs on their surfaces (28 nucleus-like structures among the 169 structures fixed,

immunostained, and inspected in total). The rest of nucleus-like structures exhibited overstaining of

their interior by mAb414-AF594 (Supplementary Fig. 11). These immunostaining results indicate the

presence of a nuclear membrane on the surfaces of a certain number of nucleus-like structures observed,

thus confirming the successful reconstitution of the nucleus in the GUVs.

**Fig. 3: Formation of nucleus-like structures in GUVs and immunostaining of nuclear pore complexes.**

**a** GUVs after incubation for nuclear assembly reactions. RhPE: Lipid membrane, SYTO 41: nucleic acids (mainly DNA) stain. NLS(+): GFP with attached nuclear localisation signals (NLS); NLS(-): GFP without NLS peptide. See Supplementary Figs. 7-8 for additional examples. **b** A GUV containing a nucleus-like structure fixed with 2% glutaraldehyde and immunostained with mAb414-AF594 (top), and a nucleus formed under bulk condition, fixed and immunostained similarly (bottom). Arrow heads indicate GUV membrane (magenta) and nucleus-like structure (green). See Supplementary Figs. 9-10 for additional examples. Scale bar: 10 μm.

**Quantitative characterisation of nucleus-like structures in GUVs**

To characterise nucleus-like structures containing DNA and GFP-NLS accumulated through nuclear import (top row of Fig. 3a and Supplementary Fig. 7), we analysed fluorescence in GUVs formed under each of NLS(+) and NLS(-) conditions and incubated for nuclear assembly reactions. We first defined C1 and C2 compartments in GUVs containing a nucleus-like structure carrying dense DNA (Fig. 4a) and extracted the mean fluorescence intensity in C1 and C2 compartments (Supplementary Fig. 12). We then computed the ratio of the fluorescence intensity (Fig. 4b-c). The violin plot of SYTO 41 intensity ratio showed similar distributions and mean values of approximately 2.3 under both NLS(+) and NLS(-) conditions, in Fig. 4b (See Supplementary Table 4 for statistics). In contrast, the distributions of GFP intensity ratio appeared significantly different ($p < 0.01$) between the two conditions (see Supplementary Table 5 for statistics), with mean values of approximately 1.6 for NLS(+) and 1.2 for NLS(-), as seen in Fig. 4c. These results suggest: 1) the presence of dense DNA in the C1 compartment, and 2) significantly higher accumulation of GFP-NLS in the C1 compartment under NLS(+) condition than NLS(-) condition.

To evaluate the impact of waiting time and chloroform addition on the formation of nucleus-like structures in GUVs, we quantified structures containing both dense DNA and accumulated GFP-NLS. 'Nucleus-like compartments' (NLCs) were defined as C1 compartments having significantly higher GFP intensity than C2 compartments, determined by a threshold GFP intensity ratio of ~1.5 (Fig. 4c; see 'Methods' for the details on the definition and identification of NLCs). Successful formation of NLC-containing GUVs occurred when both waiting time and chloroform volume were non-zero (Fig. 4d). Increasing chloroform volume proportionally increased the number of NLC-containing GUVs under both $\tau = 60$ and 120 min conditions. Extension of waiting time did not significantly affect the proportion of NLC-containing GUVs (Supplementary Fig. 13). At $\tau = 120$ min and $\varDelta = 10\%$,

approximately 1.4% of the GUVs contained an NLC. These results indicate that prolonged waiting

time and chloroform addition promote the formation of NLCs in GUVs, especially with higher

chloroform volumes.

To assess the impact of the GUV size on the successful formation of NLCs and nuclei confirmed by

immunostaining, we calculated the diameter of GUVs observed under the condition of $\tau = 120$ min

and $\Delta = 10\%$. The resulting violin plot showed a statistically significant difference ($p < 0.001$) between

all combinations of GUVs containing an NLC, GUVs without NLC, and GUVs containing a nucleus

(see Supplementary Table 7 for statistics) as plotted in Fig. 4e. The mean diameter of GUVs containing

an NLC was 6.4 μm, that of GUVs without NLC was 5.0 μm, and that of GUVs containing a nucleus

was 10.2 μm as indicated with green bars in Fig. 4e. In addition, we plotted the diameters of GUVs

containing an NLC (grey dots) and a nucleus (magenta triangles) against observed diameters of NLCs

and the nuclei and found a positive correlation between GUV volume and NLC and nucleus volume

(correlation coefficient: $\rho \sim 0.93$, power law fit result: $y = 0.086\ x^{1.18}$), as shown in Fig. 4f. The

corresponding NLC-to-GUV volume ratio and nucleus-to-GUV ratio were approximately 0.27 for

NLCs and 0.25 for nuclei, as shown in Fig. 4g. These results suggest three points: 1) NLC formation

and nucleus formation are more likely to occur in larger GUVs within the observed diameter range, 2)

the size of NLCs and nuclei tends to increase with the size of GUVs within the observed volume range,

and 3) the volume ratio between NLC and GUV and that between nucleus and GUV have similar

distributions.

**Fig. 4: Quantitative analysis of NLCs and nuclei formed in GUVs.**

**a** Definition of internal compartments in a GUV. **b** Ratio of SYTO 41 intensity between C1 and C2 compartments in GUVs. $N = 182$ for NLS(+), $N = 193$ for NLS(-). **c** Ratio of GFP intensity between C1 and C2 compartments. The threshold of GFP-accumulation is mean + 3SD of NLS(-), indicated with a black dashed line (threshold value: 1.5). **d** Proportion of NLC-containing GUVs in the observed GUVs. Error bar denotes mean ± SD (partially omitted where the bar fell below zero). **e** Diameter of GUVs at $\tau = 120$ min and $\varDelta = 10\,\%$. GUVs containing an NLC are denoted as 'w/ NLC', GUVs without NLC as 'w/o NLC', and GUVs containing a nucleus as 'w/ nucleus'. $N = 193$ for w/ NLC and w/o NLC, $N = 28$ for w/ nucleus. **f** Volumes of GUVs containing an NLC and that of NLCs are plotted with grey dots. Volumes of GUVs containing a nucleus are plotted in magenta triangles. The green line is a result of power fit ($y = 0.086\,x^{1.18}$). $N = 222$ for NLCs, $N = 28$ for nuclei. **g** Ratio of the volume of NLCs and nuclei to the volume of the GUVs. In panels b-c and e, magenta bars indicate the median ± quartile, while a green bar indicates the mean. In panels b-c and e, a two-sample t-test was performed. In panels d and g, Wilcoxon rank sum test was performed. In panel e, a Kruskal-Wallis test followed by *post-hoc* multiple comparisons using Bonferroni correction was performed. See 'Methods' for the details on statistical analysis and Supplementary Tables 4-8 for the summary of statistics.

**Discussion**

In this study, we achieved the reconstitution of the cell nucleus in GUVs formed by the inverted emulsion method. Implementation of prolonged waiting time and addition of chloroform into lipid-dispersed oil improved the number of GUVs formed by the inverted emulsion method and the proportion of GUVs encapsulating sperm chromatin-added *Xenopus* interphase egg extract in the observed GUVs (Fig. 2). We found the formation of numerous nucleus-like structures in the GUVs demonstrating their nuclear import capability (Fig. 3a and Supplementary Fig. 7). Moreover, we confirmed the presence of nuclear pores on their surfaces (Fig. 3b), hence the presence of a nuclear membrane, by investigating through immunostaining of nuclear pore complexes. Furthermore, we identified an increase in the assembly frequency of nucleus-like compartments (NLCs), particularly along with an increase of added chloroform volume, as seen in Fig. 4d, and discovered a positive correlation between the size of GUVs and the size of internal NLCs and nuclei (Fig. 4f).

In our investigation, we noted that the implementation of waiting time and the addition of chloroform not only increased the number of GUVs encapsulating the egg extract but also enabled the formation of GUVs encapsulating a high concentration of the egg extract (Supplementary Fig. 4). We hypothesise that implemented waiting time and added chloroform in lipid-dispersed oil enhance the adsorption of lipid molecules at the oil-water interface and facilitate the formation of GUVs with more stable lipid membranes by the inverted emulsion method [25,26]. As a result, leakage of the encapsulated egg extract from the interior of the GUVs could have been reduced owing to the increased stability of the GUV-membrane, while the internal solution of GUVs formed by the inverted emulsion method normally experiences dilution of the internal content [29,30], as demonstrated in Supplementary Figs. 1 and 4. Provided that the probability of the nuclear assembly event decreases through the diminishment of required molecules by the extract leakage, the higher concentration of the egg extract

in GUVs could have contributed to the observed increase in NLC formation (Fig. 4d and

Supplementary Fig. 13).

In general, chloroform is deliberately eliminated from lipid-dispersed oil through evaporation as it is

widely considered harmful to biochemical reactions embedded in GUVs [30-32]. On the other hand,

recent investigations employing the inverted emulsion method have demonstrated successful induction

of gene expression reactions [29] and the bundle formation of cytoskeletal proteins [33-36] in GUVs

under conditions where chloroform was deliberately added into the lipid-dispersed oil. These studies

suggest that chloroform may have limited impact on biochemical reactions in GUVs, at least at the

concentrations utilised in these studies. Therefore, we adopted chloroform concentrations in our lipid-

dissolved oil ($\Delta = 5/10$ %) consistent with those used in previous studies, leading to the formation of

the numerous egg extract-encapsulating GUVs (Fig. 2) and successful nuclear and NLC assembly in

the GUVs (Figs. 3, 4d-g and Supplementary Figs. 7, 9, 13).

The reconstitution of cell nuclei under micro-metre-scale three-dimensional confinement has

previously relied on water-in-oil emulsions, where the confirmation of assembled nuclei was achieved

only through a nuclear import assay [20-22]. In contrast, our approach involves encapsulating the egg

extract in a lipid bilayer of GUVs and reconstitutes a nucleus in the GUVs. The semi-permeability of

the lipid bilayer allowed the exchange of molecules between the inside and outside of the GUVs, while

essentially isolating the internal solution from the outer environment in confinement. This setup

enabled the characterisation of nucleus-like structures in an additional approach, similarly to previous

studies of *in vitro* nuclei formed in the bulk extract. We first identified the formation of nucleus-like

structures in GUVs by a nuclear import assay (Fig. 3a) and additionally conducted their molecular

characterisation through immunostaining (Fig. 3b). Our findings, indicating that only approximately

17% of NLCs carried nuclear pore complexes on their surfaces, highlight the significance of GUV

encapsulation in providing a more comprehensive understanding of *in vitro* nuclei formed under

confinement in GUVs.

We obtained several insights into size. First, we observed a significantly higher mean diameter of 10.2

μm for GUVs containing a nucleus, as shown in Fig. 4e, compared to the mean diameter of GUVs with

or without NLC. We consider that this discrepancy may be attributed to an unidentified effect of the

immunostaining procedure developed in this study but not necessarily a prerequisite for nuclear

assembly to occur. Furthermore, we confirmed a proportional relationship between the volume of

GUVs and that of NLCs and nuclei (Fig. 4f), where the evaluated power-law exponent fitted to 1.18.

This exponent is larger than the known exponents (0.7-0.9) between cell volume and nucleus volume

in various natural cells [37], resulting in a relatively higher nuclear-to-cytoplasmic (N/C) volume ratio

in these GUVs compared to many natural cells (Fig. 4g). We attribute this high N/C ratio to the large

volumes of sperm chromatin encapsulated in the GUVs. Additionally, we discovered that the size range

of GUVs containing an NLC and nucleus spanned approximately 1 to 16 μm, consistent with reported

dimensions of GUVs encapsulating *Xenopus* egg extract of unspecified types [24]. In contrast, we

confirmed the presence of larger emulsions in the lipid-dispersed oil just before the phase transfer

procedure in the inverted emulsion method (Supplementary Fig. 15). These observations might be

linked to instances of GUV rupture arising from the inverted emulsion method [31,38,39]. Lastly, we

found that a significant subset of the formed GUVs exhibited sizes smaller than the standard

dimensions of *Xenopus laevis* sperm chromatin (approximately 10 μm along the long axis), suggesting

the potential encapsulation of partial sperm chromatin fragments within the GUVs smaller than 10 μm.

Considering the broader applicability of the proposed protocol, it is anticipated that the protocol could

facilitate the complete encapsulation of arbitrarily long DNA molecules, including those at a genome-

scale. To achieve such encapsulation, it might be necessary to investigate methods for handling long

DNA molecules to prevent fragmentation due to physical forces or to develop techniques for sorting

GUVs to ensure the complete encapsulation of target DNA.

Taken together, this study has enabled the reconstitution of cell nuclei in GUVs, opening a range of

potential applications. Firstly, it may facilitate the investigation of the interaction between the cell

cortex and nuclear assembly [23], which has likely been hindered by the absence of cell cortex

anchoring proteins at the boundary of water-in-oil emulsions [40]. Moreover, the established protocol

holds promise for evolving into a method for transplanting artificial chromosomes into various

eukaryotic cells, integrating with artificial chromosome/genome technologies [41-44] and GUV-cell

fusion techniques [45,46]. For chromosome transplantation, further optimisation of lipid adsorption to

the oil-water interface and investigation into phase transfer conditions in the inverted emulsion method

might be necessary to form large GUVs encapsulating DNA of arbitrary size. Finally, we believe that

the reconstituted cell nuclei in GUVs will serve as a powerful tool for constructing artificial cellular

systems closely mimicking eukaryotic cells in bottom-up synthetic biology research.

**Methods**

**Preparation of interphase egg extract and sperm chromatin of the frog *Xenopus laevis***

Interphase egg extract was prepared as described previously [47] with modifications as follows: to

convert the cell cycle stage of the egg extract from mitosis into interphase, unfertilised eggs were

crushed using KMH (100 mM KCl, 2.5 mM $MgCl_2$, 20 mM HEPES-KOH at pH 7.7) containing 1 mM

$CaCl_2$ rather than a calcium-ionophore treatment; to completely separate the egg extract from insoluble

material (e.g., actin filaments and mitochondria), crude egg extract isolated by the initial centrifugation

was diluted in KMH (10% volume of the original extract), and then clarified by another round of

centrifugation at 45,000×g. Sperm chromatin was prepared as described previously [47]. In every

preparation of the egg extract and sperm chromatin, their quality was evaluated by monitoring nuclear

assembly in the bulk format (Fig. 3b and Supplementary Fig. 10) and in water-in-oil emulsions

(Supplementary Fig. 14) under a fluorescence microscope.

### Preparation of GFP-NLS

GFP-NLS in Fig. 3 and Supplementary Figs. 1, 9-11, was prepared by following a standard protocol

[48]. GFP-NLS used in other sections of this paper was prepared by Dr. Yuki Hara by following a

similar standard protocol. Briefly, *Escherichia coli* BL21 (DE3) cells were transformed with a pGEX

vector containing a GFP-NLS gene. The cells were incubated in four 250 mL aliquots of LB medium

at 30°C with shaking at 250 RPM until $OD_{600} \sim 0.8$. 1 mM IPTG was added, and the cultures were

further incubated for 5 h. The cells were harvested by centrifugation, and the pellets were stored at -

80°C until next day. On the following day, the frozen cell pellets were resuspended in PBS lysis buffer

(consisting of PBS pH 7.2 and 1% Triton X-100) and lysed by gentle sonication. Then, the lysate was

centrifuged at $12,000 \times g$, 4°C for 15 min. The supernatant was collected and mixed with a 50:50 slurry

of glutathione-Sepharose beads in chilled PBS lysis buffer. The bead-cell mix was incubated at 4°C to

trap proteins on the beads. Then, the beads were washed with ice-cold PBS containing protease

inhibitors and loaded into a disposable chromatography column. Trapped GST-GFP-NLS was eluted

with ice-cold 50 mM Tris-HCl (pH 8.0) containing 20 mM reduced glutathione. Molecular weight of

the collected GST-GFP-NLS was confirmed by polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis. Throughout this

study, GST-GFP-NLS is referred to as 'GFP-NLS'.

### Intra-GUV nuclear assembly protocol

365    To achieve reconstitution of cell nuclei in GUVs, we designed an experimental protocol as illustrated

366    in Fig. 1. Briefly, the protocol consists of three steps: 1) preparation of *Xenopus* interphase egg extract

supplemented with sperm chromatin, 2) formation of GUVs encapsulating the sperm chromatin-added interphase egg extract by the inverted emulsion method, and 3) induction of nuclear assembly reactions in the formed GUVs. In the first step, the sperm chromatin-added egg extract was prepared for *in vitro* nuclear assembly reactions [15-17] as depicted in Fig. 1a. In the second step, GUVs encapsulating the egg extract were formed at a chilled temperature by the inverted emulsion method [25] with two modifications to the conventional protocol: i) implementing prolonged waiting time and ii) adding chloroform into lipid-dispersed oil to facilitate the formation of GUVs encapsulating the egg extract as illustrated in Fig. 1b. In the third step, the GUVs were incubated at 22-23°C to initiate the assembly of interphase nuclei within them as depicted in Fig. 1c.

**Formation of GUVs encapsulating *Xenopus* interphase egg extract**

The lipid-dispersed oil (lipid-oil) was prepared using the following procedure. 1-palmitoyl-2-oleoyl-glycero-3-phosphocholine (POPC) at a concentration of 25 mg mL$^{-1}$ in chloroform, and 1,2-dioleoyl-sn-glycero-3-phosphoethanolamine-N-(lissamine rhodamine B sulfonyl) ammonium salt (RhPE) at 1 mg mL$^{-1}$ in chloroform, both purchased from Avanti Polar Lipids (USA), were taken to a disposable glass bottle with a screw top (Laboran, As One, Japan). The chloroform was evaporated in a desiccator for 30-60 min using a vacuum pump. Mineral oil (M5904, Sigma Aldrich) was then immediately added to the bottle. The final composition of the lipid-oil was 2.5 mM of POPC with 0.1% (mole percent) RhPE in mineral oil. For the GUVs in immunostaining experiment, RhPE was not added. Subsequently, chloroform ($\varDelta$ = 0/5/10% depending on the experimental condition) was added using a disposable pipette. The screw top was tightly closed, and a strip of adhesive tape was attached to ensure sealing. The lipid-oil was sonicated at 60°C for 1 h and stored at room temperature until use. In all experiments, the lipid-oil was consumed within a week after preparation. The lipid-oil was sonicated at 60°C for 1 h before each use.

GUVs were formed by the inverted emulsion method [25] according to the following protocol. First, two 1.5 mL disposable tubes and a 2.0 mL disposable centrifuge tube were prepared. 150 μL of egg lysis buffer (250 mM sucrose, 10 mM HEPES-KOH pH 7.7, 50 mM KCl, 2.5 mM MgCl$_2$, and 1 mM dithiothreitol) [49] was added to each of the 1.5 mL tubes, and 1.0 mL of lipid-oil was added to the 2.0 mL centrifuge tube. All tubes were then placed on ice. Next, 25 μL of frozen *Xenopus* interphase egg extract stored at -80°C was thawed on ice. Subsequently, 0.5 μL of energy mix (50 mM ATP, 50 mM MgCl$_2$, 10 mM phosphocreatine, 100 μg mL$^{-1}$ creatine kinase, pH 7.5 adjusted with NaOH) and 0.5 μL of GFP-NLS (3.4 mg mL$^{-1}$ for experiments in Figs. 2, 3a top, 4d-f and Supplementary Figs. 3-4, 7-8, 13-14, 16-17 and 11.1 mg mL$^{-1}$ for experiments in Figs. 3b, 4b-c and Supplementary Figs. 1, 9-12, 15) for NLS(+) condition or GFP (7.7 mg mL$^{-1}$ for experiments in Figs. 3a bottom and 3b bottom, 4b-c, Supplementary Figs. 8, 12; purchased from Chromotek, Germany) for NLS(-) condition were added to the thawed egg extract. This mixture was briefly vortexed and spun down. Subsequently, 0.5 μL of thawed *Xenopus* sperm chromatin was added on ice and the extract was mixed by gently pipetting four times. 25 μL of this extract mix was then added to 1 mL of chilled lipid-oil in the 2.0 mL centrifuge tube. Additionally, 150 μL of lipid-oil was layered on top of the egg lysis buffer in the two 1.5 mL tubes on ice. These three tubes were incubated on ice for the designated duration of waiting time ($\tau$ = 0/60/120 min).

Following the incubation of the oil-water interface on ice, the mixture of lipid-oil and the egg extract was vortexed for 1 min at 3,200 RPM using a Vortex-Genie 2 (Scientific Industries, Inc.). 500 μL of the vortexed mixture of the egg extract in lipid-oil was immediately layered on top of each of the chilled lipid-oil layers in the 1.5 mL tubes. The two 1.5 mL tubes were centrifuged at 9,000×$g$, 4°C for 30 min. During this centrifugation, a new 1.5 mL tube filled with 1 mL of the egg lysis buffer was

prepared and chilled on ice. Subsequently, the centrifuged tubes were collected, and the formed GUVs

in the bottom pellet were transferred into 1 mL of the chilled egg lysis buffer in a 1.5 mL tube by

piercing the side wall of the pellet in the tube with a syringe needle and applying air pressure from the

open top of the tube using an index finger. Finally, the collected GUVs dispersed in the egg lysis buffer

were vortexed briefly and kept on ice until further experiment.

**Induction of nuclear assembly reactions**

Nuclear assembly in GUVs encapsulating sperm chromatin-added *Xenopus* interphase egg extract was

conducted by incubating the formed GUVs dispersed in the egg lysis buffer either on a tube rack at

23°C or on a block incubator set at 22°C for 90 min. Note that all GUVs encapsulating the egg extract

formed by our inverted emulsion method were incubated for nuclear assembly reactions before

fluorescence staining and microscopy.

Nuclear assembly under bulk condition was performed by the following procedure. Firstly, the frozen

egg extract, energy mix, GFP-NLS, and sperm chromatin were thawed on ice. Subsequently, 1 μL of

energy mix and 1 μL of GFP-NLS were added to 50 μL of the thawed egg extract in a 0.5 mL tube.

This egg extract was vortexed briefly, spun down, and placed on ice immediately. Then, 1 μL of sperm

chromatin was added to the egg extract. This egg extract was gently pipetted four times, spun down

briefly, and placed back on ice immediately. The 0.5 mL tube containing the extract mix was then

placed on a block incubator set at 22°C and incubated for 90 min to induce nuclear assembly reactions

in the bulk egg extract.

**Fluorescence staining and preparation of glass slide samples for microscopy**

GUVs encapsulating the egg extract dispersed in the egg lysis buffer were centrifuged at 200×*g* for 5

min at room temperature. The supernatant was carefully removed, and the sample volume was reduced

to 140 μL. For fluorescence staining of DNA, 0.14 μL of 5 mM SYTO 41 (Thermo Fisher Scientific)

was added to the sample by a 1,000× dilution. Subsequently, the stained GUVs were briefly vortexed

and transferred into the open well of a Frame-Seal chamber (SLF1201, Bio-Rad) attached to a BSA-

coated glass slide. The chamber was immediately sealed with a No.1 glass coverslip coated with BSA.

To facilitate microscopy, the glass slide sample was immediately inverted so that the No.1 coverslip

faced downward, allowing the GUVs to settle towards the bottom surface prior to microscopy.

**Microscopy**

An inverted microscope (IX71, Olympus) equipped with an oil immersion objective (PlanApoN 60×,

1.45 NA, Olympus), fluorescence filters (460/80 nm, 520/35 nm, and 617/73 nm Bright-Line single-

bandpass filters, Semrock, USA), a laser combiner (405/488/561 nm, ALC5000, Andor Technology,

UK), a spinning disk confocal unit (CSU-X1, Yokogawa, Japan), and an EM-CCD camera (iXon X3,

Andor Technology, UK) was used for all micrographs in the main text of this paper. Imaging sequences

were programmed and executed using iQ2 software (Andor Technology, UK).

**Immunostaining of nuclear pore complexes on nuclear membranes**

Immunostaining of nuclear pore complexes (NPCs) on the nuclei formed in the bulk form of the egg

extract and in GUVs encapsulating the egg extract was conducted as follows.

For fixing nuclei formed in bulk form of the egg extract, 50 μL of the nuclei-containing egg extract

was first mixed with 150 μL of the egg lysis buffer and pipetted gently. 200 μL of fixation solution

(4% glutaraldehyde in 80 mM KCl and 10 mM Tris-HCl pH 7.7) was added, and the tube was

immediately placed on ice and incubated for 1 h. After the incubation, the fixed nuclei were transferred

to a 1.5 mL tube filled with 1 mL of quenching solution (10 mM Tris-HCl pH 7.7, 250 mM sucrose,

50 mM KCl, 1% BSA) on ice. The sample was centrifuged at $200 \times g$, 4°C for 5 min, and the supernatant

was gently removed. The sample was then centrifuged again, and the supernatant was removed down

to 100 μL. To stain NPCs on the membrane of the fixed nuclei, 1 μL of 0.5 mg mL$^{-1}$ mAb414-AF594

was added and gently mixed by pipetting. The fixed nuclei with mAb414-AF594 were incubated on

ice overnight. On the next day, the sample was centrifuged at $200 \times g$, 4°C for 5 min. The supernatant

was removed down to 100 μL, and 0.1 μL of 5 mM SYTO 41 was added for DNA staining. The entire

volume of the immunostained nuclei was enclosed in a Frame-Seal chamber between a No.1 glass

coverslip and a glass slide, both of which were coated with BSA.

The fixation of nuclei formed in GUVs encapsulating the egg extract was performed in the following

procedure. The GUVs were centrifuged at $200 \times g$, 4°C for 5 min, and the supernatant was removed

down to 100 μL. The tube containing the GUVs was placed on ice, and 100 μL of the fixation solution

was added. After 1 h of incubation on ice, the fixed GUVs were mixed with 1 mL of quenching solution

and centrifuged at $200 \times g$ for 5 min at 4°C. The supernatant was removed, and the volume was reduced

to 100 μL. The quenching and washing of the fixed GUVs were repeated once, and the sample volume

was adjusted to 100 μL. The fixed GUVs with NPC-antibodies were then incubated on ice overnight.

The following day, the sample was centrifuged at $200 \times g$, 4°C for 5 min, and the supernatant was

reduced to 140 μL. 0.14 μL of 5 mM SYTO 41 was added for DNA staining, and the immunostained

GUVs were enclosed in a Frame-Seal chamber between a No.1 glass coverslip and a glass slide, both

of which were coated with BSA.

**Image segmentation of GUVs**

Image segmentation of GUVs on acquired micrographs was performed using *cellpose 2.0* [50,51] implemented in Python. The envelopes of GUVs were primarily segmented using a built-in model ('CP'), and the quality of the segments was manually inspected and corrected on the graphical user interface (GUI) of *cellpose 2.0*.

**Number, internal GFP intensity, and diameter of GUVs**

The analysis of GUV fluorescence using above generated segment masks was performed in MATLAB. The number of GUVs was determined by computing the number of segments. The mean GFP intensity in the GUVs, denoted as $I_{GFP}$, was computed by extracting intensity values in the GFP channel using the segmentation mask and taking their mean. The diameter of the GUVs was defined as the reduced diameter of each circle having a corresponding area of individual segments. To determine the mean GFP intensity in the background of each micrograph, three arbitrary rectangular regions with at least 1,056 pixels were carefully selected in the background of each micrograph. The corresponding mean GFP fluorescence intensity was computed for each rectangular region, and the average of the three means was calculated. The threshold of GFP encapsulation in Supplementary Figs. 4 and 17 was defined by mean + 3SD of the mean GFP intensity in each background.

**Exclusion of GUVs containing aggregated GFP**

GUVs containing aggregated GFP were manually excluded from the dataset used to compute the proportion of GUVs encapsulating the GFP-dispersed egg extract in the observed GUVs (Fig. 2c and Supplementary Fig. 3). This exclusion aimed to mitigate artifacts in the computed proportion arising from GFP aggregation in three-dimensional space. This issue was observed in all micrographs acquired

after completing the entire protocol of nuclear assembly in GUVs (Fig. 1). Since the GUVs in the

micrographs of Fig. 2 had already undergone 23ºC incubation for nuclear assembly reactions, several

GUVs in the acquired micrographs exhibited positive indications of nuclear import by GFP-NLS

within them. Theoretically, the mean GFP intensity computed from a confocal micrograph of such

GUVs with aggregated GFP always yielded a higher mean GFP intensity than a confocal micrograph

of GUVs without GFP aggregation even if the same amount of GFP was encapsulated. Consequently,

the mean GFP intensity of the GUVs containing the aggregation did not precisely reflect the

concentration of GFP encapsulated in the GUV. Because the purpose of the analysis in Fig. 2c was to

evaluate GFP encapsulation in the GUVs, we considered the inclusion of data from GUVs carrying

such aggregated GFP inadequate and excluded the GUVs from this specific analysis in Fig. 2c and

Supplementary Fig. 3. The same parameter computed from data including the GUVs containing

aggregated GFP is shown in Supplementary Fig. 16. Additionally, raw GFP intensity values in the

GUV lumen and the background of these GUVs are plotted in Supplementary Fig. 17. Comparisons

between plots excluding the GUVs containing aggregated GFP (Fig. 2c and Supplementary Figs. 3-4)

and those including them (Supplementary Figs. 16-17) indicate only minor changes.

**Definition and identification of NLCs in GUVs**

To differentiate between C1 compartments (Fig. 4a) containing a significantly high level of GFP-NLS

from those with a lower level, we set a threshold for the GFP intensity ratio, as indicated by the dashed

line in Fig. 4c. This threshold was determined as the mean + 3SD of the GFP intensity ratio under

NLS(-) conditions (dashed line in Fig. 4c). We used this threshold to interpret accumulation of GFP-

NLS in C1 compartment: if the ratio exceeded the threshold, it indicated GFP-NLS accumulation.

Utilising this threshold, we defined a 'nucleus-like compartment' (NLC) as a C1 compartment with a

GFP intensity ratio higher than the threshold.

To identify NLCs in GUVs, GUVs containing dense DNA (C1 compartment in Fig. 4a) were initially identified in micrographs through manual inspection. Subsequently, the envelopes of the GUVs and their internal C1 compartments were manually segmented in RhPE and SYTO41 channels using the interactive *drawfreehand* function in MATLAB. Mean intensity values of SYTO 41 signals in the C1 and C2 compartments were then computed using the segment masks. Similarly, mean GFP intensities in the C1 and C2 compartments were computed using the same segment masks. Next, the ratio of mean intensities in the C1 and C2 compartments was computed for both the SYTO 41 and GFP channels. The threshold for the GFP intensity ratio was determined based on the above definition (computed threshold: ~1.5). Furthermore, to ensure the encapsulation of DNA and GFP-NLS in the NLCs, the mean fluorescence intensity of both SYTO 41 and GFP in the background (Supplementary Fig. 12) was calculated. This computation was done by extracting three arbitrary rectangular regions from the background, each containing at least 1,517 pixels. The mean fluorescence intensity of each region was computed, and the average of these three mean values was taken.

**Proportion and size of GUVs containing an NLC**

All confocal micrographs of GUVs encapsulating the egg extract after 90 min incubation at 22°C were manually examined, and NLCs were identified following their definition. The number of identified NLCs at each waiting time and chloroform condition was divided by the total number of GUVs found in all micrographs inspected for NLCs. For computing the total number of GUVs in the micrographs inspected for NLC formation, image segmentation using built-in 'CP' model of *cellpose 2.0* in Python was performed. While raw segments generated with this 'CP' model often require correction of their shapes to increase the reliability in successive computation of parameters such as fluorescence intensity using the segments, the number of GUVs is generally accurate. Thus, we only checked

whether unwanted artifacts (segments) were included in the segment masks or not by manual

inspection.

The diameter of GUVs containing an NLC and that of GUVs not containing an NLC at $\tau = 120$ min

and $\varDelta = 10\%$ shown in Fig. 4d were computed in the following procedure. Since accurate manual

image segmentation of GUVs containing an NLC was conducted when NLCs were identified, only the

segments of GUVs without NLC in the same number were collected from two micrographs randomly.

Using the segments of these GUVs, the reduced diameter was computed from their segment area.

**Statistical analysis**

In the statistical analysis depicted in Fig. 2b-c and 2e, as well as Supplementary Figs. 2-3, 5-6, and 16,

we conducted one-way ANOVA followed by *post-hoc* Tukey-Kramer multiple comparison tests,

focusing either on the duration of waiting time or the added volume of chloroform. For the statistical

analysis conducted in Fig. 4b-c, we first confirmed the normality of each dataset using the Lilliefors

test, followed by a two-sample t-test. In the statistical analysis shown in Fig. 4d and 4g, and

Supplementary Fig. 13, we employed the Wilcoxon rank sum test. For the statistical analysis in Fig.

4e, a Kruskal-Wallis test followed by a *post-hoc* multiple comparison test with Bonferroni's correction

was performed. For all analyses, resultant *p*-values were rounded to the first significant digit and

annotated using the conventional method: 'n.s.' (not significant) for $p > 0.05$, '*' for $p \leq 0.05$, '**' for

$p \leq 0.01$, and '***' for $p \leq 0.001$. The details of all statistical analyses are summarised in

Supplementary Tables 1-16.

**Data availability**

Data supporting the results of this study are available from the corresponding authors upon request.

**Code availability**

582 The code used for the simulation is available from the corresponding authors upon request.

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**Contributions**

All authors contributed the design of the research. S.Takamori conducted all experiments, with the exception of the preparation of *Xenopus* egg extract and demembranated sperm chromatin, which were performed by M.S. and K.S.. S.Takamori carried out all data analysis and drafted the initial manuscript. All authors contributed to the interpretation of the data and editing of the manuscript.

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**Competing interests**

The authors declare no competing interests.

**Additional information**

**Supplementary information** The online version contains supplementary material available at URL.