Ki67 regulates nuclear lipid accumulation at the chromosomal periphery to facilitate chromosome individualization during mitosis

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Abstract

A hallmark of eukaryotic species is having distinct numbers of chromosomes surrounded by a nuclear envelope to separate nuclear transcription and RNA processing from cytosolic translation. In animal and plant cells undergoing open mitosis, the nuclear envelope disintegrates before the chromosomes divide into two daughter cells. To ensure faithful genome inheritance, chromosome individualization is involved in partitioning the fully condensed sister chromatids during mitosis. Ki67, a surfactant-like protein that forms a repulsive molecular brush around each pair of fully condensed sister chromatids during early mitosis, mediates chromosome individualization in vertebrates. Using a modified expansion microscopy methodology called TT-ExM for high-sensitivity and super-resolution imaging of proteins, lipids, and nuclear DNA, we found that intranuclear lipids in COS-7 cells not only are enriched at the chromosome periphery but are also excluded from the chromosome interior in a Ki67-dependent manner. Together with nuclear lipids, Ki67 forms the "chromosomal envelope" that mediates chromosome individualization. The transition from nuclear envelope to chromosomal envelope ensures continued separation of genetic material from cytoplasmic material during open mitosis.

Introduction

Lipids are key biomolecules that form the structures of cell membranes and serve as signaling molecules to regulate cellular responses. In the nucleus, neutral and polar lipids are found in the nuclear envelope (NE), nucleolus, and nuclear matrix [1-3]. These lipids can be synthesized *de novo* in the inner nuclear membrane and nuclear matrix or they can be synthesized first at the endoplasmic reticulum connected to the NE and are then transported into the nucleus [4-7]. Some nuclear lipids form droplets that serve as nucleolar scaffolding structures, splicing speckles, and DNA repair foci [8-10]. In addition to serving as structural components, nuclear lipids also participate in a variety of biological functions, including in transcriptional regulation [11-13], signaling [10, 12, 14], the DNA damage response [10, 14], and protein storage [15, 16]. Therefore, nuclear lipids have multiple activities.

Ki67 is a giant nuclear protein comprising 3256 amino acids and it is a well-known marker of cell proliferation [17]. The subnuclear distribution of Ki67 changes significantly during the cell cycle [18]. Ki67 is concentrated in the nucleolus and in some punctate structures during interphase, but it relocates to transparent gel-like structures surrounding condensed chromosomes (termed the perichromosomal layer or chromosomal periphery) during mitosis [18-21]. Based on analyses of Ki67, the perichromosomal layer is thought to isolate (or individualize) sister chromatid pairs from other pairs and to promote efficient interactions with the mitotic spindle during mitosis [22]. Ki67 also excludes the cytoplasm from condensed chromosomes during mitosis [23].

The perichromosomal layer mostly originates from the nucleolus [20, 24]. When a cell enters mitosis, the nucleolus dissipates and its components relocate to cover the surface of mitotic chromosomes [20, 24]. In addition to Ki67, other nucleolar components, including nucleolin and ribosomal RNA, are present in the perichromosomal layer [25-27]. Although the nucleolus also

contains lipids [10, 28, 29], it is currently unclear if nucleolar lipids also relocate to the

perichromosomal layer and contribute to its biological functions. Thus, whether nuclear lipids are

present or even enriched at the perichromosomal layer remains an intriguing and important

question.

Expansion microscopy (ExM) is a super-resolution imaging technology that physically

expands biological samples by a factor of four or greater, thereby improving the spatial resolution

of optical microscopy [30-33]. The biological sample is first embedded in a hydrogel and then

physically crosslinked within it, before undergoing protease digestion so that the biological sample

expands isotropically with the hydrogel when it is placed in water [30, 31]. Since its original

description, many variations of the ExM protocol have been developed to achieve a resolution

comparable to those of electron microscopy, including iterative expansion microscopy (iExM) [34],

pan-ExM [35], and iterative ultrastructure expansion microscopy (iU-ExM) [36]. However, concerns

have arisen regarding the use of these iterative methods to visualize membranes or lipid-containing

subcellular structures due to their use of strong lytic and denaturing reagents such as sodium

dodecyl sulfate (SDS) and/or sodium hydroxide (NaOH) [34-36].

To visualize both proteins and lipids of cultured mammalian cells at a super-resolution

scale, we recently established a modified protocol called TT-ExM that involves application of

trypsin and tyramide signal amplification (TSA) technologies. We have demonstrated previously

that trypsinization retains convincing fluorescent signals in ExM [32, 33]. A combination of a biotin-

conjugated lipid, i.e., biotin-DHPE (N-(Biotinoyl)-1,2-dihexadecanoyl-sn-glycero-3-

phosphoethanolamine), and TSA technology clearly labeled the membranes and lipid-containing

structures of cells, including mitochondria, the nuclear envelope (NE), endoplasmic reticulum,

Golgi apparatus, lipid-containing vesicles in the cytoplasm, and lipid-containing foci in the

nucleolus [32]. Notably, we have shown that our system reveals the localization of intranuclear lipid

components at the perichromosomal layer of mitotic chromosomes [32]. Accordingly, we speculate

that nuclear lipids are involved in the formation of the perichromosomal layer. In this report, we

deploy TT-ExM to illustrate the ultrastructural organization of the perichromosomal layer by

revealing the distributions of lipids and Ki67 during the cell cycle. Our results indicate that Ki67

regulates nuclear lipids at the perichromosomal layer and also cooperates with them to isolate or

individualize the various sister chromatid pairs during mitosis.

Results

Application of TT-ExM to observe lipid-containing structures and chromosomes

We used Biotin-DHPE and tyramide-Alexa fluor-555 in TT-ExM to label and visualize nuclear

lipids in COS-7 cells [32]. After crosslinking to a hydrogel and trypsinization, the sample swells

upon immersion in water. PicoGreen, an ultrasensitive green-fluorescent nucleic acid dye for

double-stranded DNA, was used to outline nuclear chromosomal DNA. As previously described

[32], after 4-fold expansion, both cytoplasmic components and nuclear structures of COS-7 cells

expanded isotropically, regardless of their cell cycle stages (**Figure 1A** before expansion **vs. 1B**

after expansion). Lipid-containing structures in the cytoplasm, nuclei (e.g., NEs), and nucleoli

were clearly labeled by biotin-DHPE (**Figure 1B**), confirming the feasibility of deploying biotin-

DHPE in TT-ExM to reveal cellular lipid structures. Notably, biotin-DHPE signals were present

in the peripheral regions of mitotic chromosomes (**Figure 1B**, middle magnified inset), suggesting

the presence of lipids in the perichromosomal layer. All images shown in Figure 1 were viewed

using a Zeiss LSM700 confocal laser scanning microscope.

Next, we applied a Zeiss LSM980 confocal laser scanning microscope with an AiryScan 2

area detector to acquire super-resolution images of COS-7 cells stained with 4',6-diamidino-2-

phenylindole (DAPI). DAPI is a blue fluorescent DNA stain for which fluorescence is enhanced

~20-fold upon binding to AT-enriched regions of double-stranded DNA. To quantify the

fluorescence signals, we drew a perpendicular line across the chromosome periphery of sister

chromatid pairs that had fully condensed during mitosis and performed a line scan analysis of

DAPI signals along that line (**Figure 2A**). The expansion index of TT-ExM was determined by

comparing the average diameter of fully condensed sister chromatid pairs (**Figure 2B**). Our results

show that the average diameters before and after expansion were 1.4 μm and 4.9 μm, respectively,

representing an expansion index of 3.5 (**Figure 2C**). Since the LSM980 microscope with AiryScan

2 has a resolution of approximately 90-120 nm, we estimate that the resolution of our TT-ExM

protocol is 25-34 nm after 3.5-fold expansion [33]. Under the same conditions, counterstaining with

PicoGreen revealed the highly condensed chromosome axis in the middle of each sister chromatid

(indicated by white arrows in **Figure 2D,** right panel). Notably, the surfaces of most, if not all,

individual chromatids during mitosis did not appear smooth, supporting that fully-folded

chromosomal loops could be observed under our super-resolution conditions (indicated by white

asterisks in **Figure 2D**, right panel). These results indicate that TT-ExM is suitable for isotropic

expansion of biological macromolecules (e.g., mitotic chromosomes), allowing us to accurately

observe the ultrastructures of organelles and subcellular components under an optical microscope.

Dynamic distribution of nuclear lipids during mitosis

Ki67 acts in organizing the perichromosomal layers [23, 27]. A previous study has shown that Ki67

proteins form a 90-nm-thick perichromosomal layer [22]. Since TT-ExM has a resolution as high as

25-34 nm (**Figure 2**), we applied it to analyze the distribution of lipid components in the

perichromosomal layers. In addition to biotin-DHPE, we dual-stained the cells with an anti-Ki67

antibody (**Figure 3**) and an anti-phosphatidylserine (PS) antibody (**Figure 4**), respectively. The

phosphoethanolamine (PE) in biotin-DHPE is a neutral glycerophospholipid, whereas PS is an

anionic glycerophospholipid. Immunofluorescence signals of anti-PS antibodies specifically

localize in epichromatin throughout the cell cycle and are associated with nucleosome core

histones [37]. In fixed and permeabilized cells, epichromatin can be identified by co-

immunolocalization of Ki67 with staining signals of particular anti-nucleosome or anti-PS

antibodies [38].

We observed that the immunofluorescence signals of biotin-DHPE indeed overlapped with

those of Ki67 at perichromosomal layers during prometaphase and metaphase (**Figure 3A**). As

mitosis progressed into anaphase and telophase, we detected enhanced biotin-DHPE

immunofluorescence signals in the chromosomal interior regions. These results indicate that

DHPE-labeled nuclear components (e.g., nuclear lipids) had migrated from the perichromosomal

layers toward chromosomal cores as mitosis progressed (**Figure 3A**).

To quantify the movement of the biotin-DHPE signals toward the chromosomal interior,

we performed line scanning as described in Figure 2 to determine the ratio between the lowest

biotin-DHPE signal within chromosomes and the biotin-DHPE signal at chromosome edges, i.e.,

the inner/edge ratio of DHPE signal (**Figure 3B**). Our results show that this ratio is less than 0.4

during prometaphase and metaphase, but increases to ~0.5 and ~0.6 for anaphase and telophase,

respectively (**Figure 3C**). By quantifying average global Ki67 immunofluorescence signals in

mitotic cells, we also detected that intracellular Ki67 levels decline as mitosis progresses from

prometaphase to telophase (**Figure 3D**). Given that we uncovered a significant negative correlation

between intracellular Ki67 protein levels and the inner/edge ratio of DHPE signals (**Figure 3E**),

we speculate that Ki67 may prevent DHPE-labeled nuclear components (e.g., nuclear lipids) from

moving into chromosomal interiors during prometaphase and metaphase, thereby promoting

chromosome individualization.

Perichromosomal lipid composition and layer organization

Consistent with the previous study [37], we also found that PS immunoreactivity specifically

localized in epichromatin after specimen expansion (**Figure 4A**, upper). Z-projection images

revealed that PS signal specifically occurred on the surface of the mitotic chromosome cluster

during prometaphase (**Figure 4A**, lower). This pattern differs from that of biotin-DHPE signals,

which surrounded the mitotic chromosomes (**Figure 4A and 4B**). However, biotin-DHPE signals

overlapped with the PS signals within the epichromatin region (**Figure 4B**). Our line scan analysis

indicated that the peak of PS signals was closer to the edge of mitotic chromosomes compared to

the peak of biotin-DHPE signals (**Figure 4C**). Taken together, these results indicate that, in

addition to PS, other lipid components are also enriched around chromosomes.

We also analyzed the relative positions of the signal peaks for Ki67 and biotin-DHPE.

Similar to our comparison of PS and biotin-DHPE, we found that the peak of Ki67 signals was

closer to the edge of mitotic chromosomes compared to the peak of biotin-DHPE signals (**Figure**

4D, 4E). Thus, the DHPE-labeled lipid layer appears to be located outside of the Ki67 layer of the

perichromosomal zone. This scenario is consistent with our hypothesis that Ki67 may prevent

inward movement of lipid components into the interior of mitotic chromosomes.

169   **Ki67 knockdown causes chromosome aggregation, slows cell cycle progression, and alters**

170   **the pattern of the microtubule array**

171   To further confirm the role of Ki67 in controlling lipid distribution across chromosomes and the

172   perichromosomal layer, we studied the effect of Ki67 knockdown in COS-7 cells. To establish and

173   characterize Ki67 knockdown, we designed a plasmid expressing an artificial miRNA, Ki67-miR,

174   to downregulate endogenous Ki67 in COS-7 cells. Immunostaining and immunoblotting revealed

175   that Ki67-miR significantly reduced Ki67 protein levels in COS-7 cells relative to the control

176   construct Ctrl-miR (**Figure 5A-5C**). Consistent with previous studies [22, 23], Ki67 knockdown

177   prompted mitotic chromosome collapse and aggregation (**Figure 5A**, as revealed by DAPI

178   counterstaining). Quantification analysis revealed that the area occupied by chromosomes was

179   diminished in Ki67 knockdown cells compared to cells expressing Ctrl-miR (**Figure 5D**). These

180   results demonstrate that we had successfully knocked down Ki67 and impaired the spatial

181   arrangement of mitotic chromosomes in COS-7 cells.

182   Ki67 knockdown also delayed the progress of mitosis. First, we applied nocodazole to

183   arrest control or Ki67 knockdown COS-7 cells at prometaphase (**Figure 5E**, left panel). After

184   washing away nocodazole and allowing the cells to recover for 15, 30, or 60 minutes, we then

185   counted the numbers of COS-7 cells at different stages of mitosis (i.e., prometaphase, metaphase,

186   anaphase, and telophase). Within 15 minutes of washing away nocodazole, more than 30% of the

187   control cells progessed from prometaphase into metaphase. By comparison, only 10% of the Ki67

188   knockdown cells entered metaphase under the same treatment (**Figure 5E**). Furthermore, less than

189   10% of Ctrl-miR- and Ki67-miR-expressing cells remained in prometaphase 60 minutes after

190   nocodazole had been washed away, with ~40% of the Ctrl-miR-expressing cells entering telophase.

191   In contrast, only 20% of Ki67-miR-expressing cells progressed to telophase. We detected a slight

increase in the percentages of Ki67 knockdown cells in metaphase and anaphase (**Figure 5E**,

right). Therefore, Ki67 knockdown delays mitotic progression.

In addition to chromosomes, we also monitored microtubule patterns in cells expressing

Ki67-miR. Since microtubule patterns change during the different stages of mitosis, we focused

on the microtubule array in early prometaphase for our comparison (**Figure 6**). At this stage of

mitosis, microtubules form a star-like pattern in the center of the chromosome cluster. We observed

microtubule filaments extending from the center to the periphery of the chromosome cluster in

control COS-7 cells (**Figure 6A**, upper). However, mitotic chromosomes collapsed in Ki67-miR-

expressing cells, so although microtubules still formed a star-like pattern in the center of the

chromosome cluster of those cells, the star-like pattern was smaller and more irregular than for

control counterparts (**Figure 6A**, lower). To quantify the differences, we performed Sholl analysis

[39] to analyze the complexity of microtubules in early prometaphase of control and Ki67

knockdown cells (**Figure 6B**). Our Sholl analysis revealed that the number of intersections was

greatly reduced in Ki67 knockdown cells (**Figure 6C**), i.e., less than 50% of that enumerated for

control cells (**Figure 6D**). We further counted all microtubule filament tips to represent the total

number of microtubule filaments in each array, which revealed ~50% fewer microtubule tips in

Ki67 knockdown cells compared to control cells (**Figure 6E**). Thus, Ki67 knockdown induces

microtubule array abnormalities during mitosis.

Consequently, Ki67 is critical for chromosome elongation and individualization during

mitosis, both of which are required for microtubule attachment to chromosomes to enable mitotic

progression.

Ki67 knockdown promotes lipid invasion into condensed chromosomes

Lastly, we applied our Ki67 knockdown system to investigate if Ki67 is involved in the inward

movement of lipids into the chromosome interior during mitosis. Since we detected biotin-DHPE

signals as being lowest within condensed chromosomes during prometaphase compared to other

mitotic stages (**Figure 3**), we solely analyzed the effects of Ki67 knockdown during prometaphase.

Given that our miR expression construct coexpresses green fluorescent protein (GFP), we used

GFP signal to identify transfected cells in culture (**Figure 7A**). Next, we performed line scans to

determine biotin-DHPE signals across chromosomes and the perichromosomal layer. GFP signal

was included as a control (**Figure 7B, 7C**). We found that the GFP inner/edge ratio was identical

(~0.2) for cells expressing either Ctrl-miR or Ki67-miR (**Figure 7D**), indicating that GFP

distribution is insensitive to Ki67 knockdown. In terms of biotin-DHPE signals, the ratio for

control cells was ~0.28, whereas this ratio increased to 0.34 for Ki67 knockdown cells (**Figure**

7D), indicating that Ki67 regulates lipid invasion into condensed chromosomes during mitosis.

Discussion

Here, we have applied a super-resolution fluorescence imaging system, i.e., TT-ExM [32, 33], to reveal

the dynamic distribution of nuclear lipids during the cell cycle, showcasing the involvement of

nuclear lipids in how Ki67 acts in chromosome individualization. Our study also provides three

lines of evidence that Ki67 regulates the distribution of nuclear lipids on the outer surface and/or

interior of condensed chromosomes. First, although Ki67 and nuclear lipids intermingle in the

perichromosomal layer, our application of TT-ExM super-resolution imaging enabled us to dissect

the layer organization at the chromosomal periphery, revealing that nuclear lipids or lipid-

containing materials are enriched outside of Ki67. Therefore, Ki67 may act as a barrier to prevent

nuclear lipids from moving into chromosomal interiors. Second, the enrichment of nuclear lipids

at the chromosomal periphery is negatively correlated with total Ki67 protein levels during mitosis.

Third, Ki67 knockdown results in nuclear lipids invading the interior of mitotic chromosomes,

confirming that Ki67 regulates the distribution of nuclear lipids during the cell cycle.

How does Ki67 regulate the distribution of nuclear lipids at the periphery of condensed

chromosomes? It has been suggested previously that Ki67 may serve as a surface-active agent

(surfactant) to mediate the individualization of sister chromatid pairs [22] and to exclude the

cytoplasm from fully condensed chromosomes [23]. Although the respective mechanisms remain

unclear, it is reasonable to speculate that nuclear lipids enriched at the chromosomal periphery

likely cooperate with Ki67 to facilitate the individualization of sister chromatid pairs during

mitosis. The general physicochemical features of Ki67 provide clues to the functional interplay

between Ki67 and nuclear lipids. Like many surfactants, Ki67 has an amphiphilic structure. The

long N-terminal domain of Ki67 is excluded from chromatin, whereas its short C-terminal LR

domain displays strong attraction to chromatin [22]. Moreover, the chromosome separation function

of Ki67 is not attributable to a specific protein domain, but is correlated with the size and net

charge of truncation mutants that lack secondary structure [22]. Thus, the amphiphilic molecular

structure of Ki67 may disperse nuclear lipids or lipid-containing components via a liquid-liquid

phase transition mechanism, resulting in their accumulation at the chromosomal periphery.

Consistent with this supposition, our TT-ExM super-resolution imaging revealed that Ki67 forms

numerous tiny granules on the surface of mitotic chromosomes, rather than presenting a smooth

and continuous thin layer (**Figure 3A**). These tiny Ki67-positive granules intermingle with lipid-

containing nuclear components on the outer surface of mitotic chromosomes (**Figure 3A**).

Accordingly, we suggest that Ki67 proteins and these lipid-containing components collectively

form a perichromosomal layer that mediates the individualization of sister chromatid pairs during
mitosis.

Since the lipid-containing nuclear components also display amphiphilic characteristics, it
is also plausible that Ki67 and the lipid-containing components may function redundantly, at least
partially, thereby explaining several interesting observations. First, Ki67 is not an essential protein
but is a cell proliferation marker, with Ki67 knockout cells still proliferating under cultured
conditions [22]. Second, to date, Ki67 homologs have only been detected in vertebrates [40]. Proteins
homeologous to Ki67 have not been identified or characterized in any other non-vertebrate
eukaryotes. Our results indicate that nuclear lipids exert a novel role in isolating or individualizing
condensed sister chromatid pairs during mitosis of cultured mammalian cells. It would be
interesting to investigate further if nuclear lipids in non-vertebrate organisms also exhibit similar
functions.

Our results are consistent with previous reports [37, 38] showing that PS is mainly present in
epichromatin or on the outer surface of condensed chromosomes during mitosis (**Figure 4**). Using
biotin-DHPE, we show that nuclear lipids or lipid-containing components accumulate around the
periphery of entire chromosomes during mitosis (**Figure 4**). Mammalian nuclei contain a variety
of lipids, including PS, phosphatidylinositol, cholesterol, free fatty acids, diacylglycerol, and
sphingolipids [41]. Further investigations are needed to reveal if all these lipids or specific types of
lipids are enriched around the periphery of condensed chromosomes.

Lastly, our findings herein may provide a new perspective on mitosis in general. The NE,
which comprises two lipid bilayers, is a highly regulated membrane barrier that separates the
nucleus from the cytoplasm in eukaryotes. Depending on the organism and cell type, the NE
remains intact during closed mitosis or disassembles during open mitosis before chromosome

segregation. Closed mitosis occurs in many (but not all) fungi and is considered the most ancient

mechanism of eukaryotic cell division. In contrast, animals and plants undergo open mitosis, which

appears to have evolved independently several times [42]. A few fungi (e.g., the fission yeast

Shizosaccharomyces japonicus and the corn smut fungus *Ustilago maydis*) undergo semi-open

mitosis, in which the NE does not disassemble completely [43]. As yet, it is not fully understood why

open mitosis prevails in animals and plants, but not in fungi. The results from this study reveal that

Ki67 and nuclear lipids constitute a thin "chromosome envelope" around each sister chromatid

pair, with the transition from "nuclear envelope" to "chromosome envelope" enabling continued

isolation of genetic material from cytoplasmic material, thereby ensuring the individualization of

sister chromatid pairs, the formation of star-like microtubule arrays, and proper chromosome

segregation.

Methods

Antibodies and reagents

Rabbit polyclonal HSP90 was a kind gift from Dr. Chung Wang (Institute of Molecular Biology,

Academia Sinica). Commercially available antibodies and chemicals used in this report are as

follows: rat monoclonal Ki67 (SolA15, #14-569882, 1:2000 for immunoblotting, 1:500 for TT-

ExM, Invitrogen); mouse monoclonal phosphatidylserine (PS) (1H6, 05-719, 1:200 for TT-ExM,

Sigma-Aldrich); rabbit polyclonal α-Tubulin (ab18251, 1:500, Abcam); chicken polyclonal GFP

(ab13970, 1:1000 for TT-ExM, Abcam); mouse monoclonal GFP (JL-8, 632381, 1:2000 for

immunoblotting, Clontech); Alexa Fluor-488-, 555- and 647-conjugated secondary antibodies

(Invitrogen); Nocodazole (M1404, Sigma-Aldrich); DAPI (D1306,1:1000, Invitrogen); PicoGreen

(P11495, 1:1000, ThermoFisher). Reagents used for DHPE TT-ExM are as follows: N-(Biotinoyl)-

1,2-dihexadecanoyl-snglycero-3-phosphoethanolamine, triethylammonium salt (Biotin-DHPE)

(60022, 0.1mg/ml, Biotium); VECTASTAIN ABC-HRP Kit, peroxidase (standard), (PK-4000, Vector

Laboratory); Alexa fluor-555-conjugated tyramide (B40955, 1:100, Invitrogen); Amplification diluent

(FP1050, PerkinElmer); 6-((acryloyl)amino)hexanoic acid (Acryloyl-X, SE, A-20770,

ThermoFisher); Sodium acrylate (408220, Sigma-Aldrich); Acrylamide (A9099, Sigma-Aldrich);

N, N'-methylenebisacrylamide, (1551624, ThermoFisher); Ammonium persulfate, (APS, A9164,

Sigma-Aldrich); N,N,N,,N,-Tetramethylethylenediamine (TEMED, T7024, Sigma-Aldrich); 4-

Hydroxy-TEMPO (176141, Sigma-Aldrich); Sodium chloride (3624-69, J.T.Baker); Trypsin-

EDTA solution, 0.05% (25300-054, Gibco).

316 Plasmid construction

To generate the Ki67-miR knockdown constructs, an artificial miRNA was designed using

BLOCK-iT™ RNAi Designer (https://rnaidesigner.thermofisher.com/rnaiexpress/). According to

the ranking score, the top miRNA (nucleotide residues 3296-3319,

AAGAGCTTGCCTGATACAGAA) was chosen and cloned into pcDNA6.2-GW/EmGFP vector.

A control vector (pcDNA6.2–GW/EmGFP-miR, Invitrogen) expressing a scrambled miRNA [44]

predicted to not target any gene in mammalian genomes was used as the negative control in our

knockdown experiments.

325 COS-7 culture and nocodazole treatment

The monkey COS-7 fibroblast-like cell line (ATCC, CRL-1651) was maintained in DMEM

supplemented with 10% FBS, 1% penicillin/streptomycin and 2 mM glutamine. For mitotic cell cycle

analysis, cells were treated with 50 nM nocodazole for 6 h to synchronize the cell cycle in

prometaphase. Media were then washed out and the cells were allowed to recover for 15, 30, or 60

min to re-enter the mitotic cycle. Mitotic stages were identified based on chromosome patterning.

Transfection and immunoblotting of COS-7 cells

COS-7 cells were transfected with the indicated plasmids using PolyJet (SL100688, SignaGen

Laboratories) according to the manufacturer's instructions. For Ki67 knockdown analysis, the

transfection period was extended to 2 days to enhance knockdown efficiency. For immunoblotting

analysis, cells were washed with PBS twice and lysed directly with SDS sample buffer. Total cell

lysates were separated by means of SDS-PAGE and analyzed by immunoblotting.

Immunofluorescence analysis

Regular immunostaining was performed as described previously [44]. Briefly, cells were washed

with phosphate-buffered saline (PBS) and fixed with 4% paraformaldehyde (PFA) and 4% sucrose

in PBS for 10 min, followed by permeabilization with 0.2% Triton X-100 in PBS for 15 min at

room temperature. After blocking with 10% bovine serum albumin (BSA), the cells were incubated

with primary antibodies diluted in PBS containing 3% BSA and 0.1% horse serum at 4 °C

overnight. After washing with PBS several times, the cells were incubated with secondary

antibodies conjugated with Alexa Fluor-488, -555 or -647 (Invitrogen) and DNA dye for 2 h at

room temperature.

Lipid staining

Lipid labeling using biotin-DHPE [32] was performed before regular immunostaining. The cells were

washed with PBS and then treated with 0.1 mg/ml biotin-DHPE in 50% ethanol overnight at room

temperature. To detect biotin-DHPE, an equal amount of reagents A and B in the Vectastin ABC-

HRP kit (Vector Laboratory) was mixed in TBS (1:50 dilution) for at least 30 min. After washing

with PBS several times, the biotin-DHPE-labeled cells were incubated with premixed ABC

solution for 1 h. After washing with PBS, Alexa fluor-555-conjugated tyramide was diluted (1:50)

in amplification diluent and applied to the cells for 15 min. Following extensive washing, the

biotin-DHPE-stained cells were then deemed ready for regular immunostaining.

TT-ExM

Immunostained COS-7 cells, prepared as described above, were subjected to TT-ExM [32, 33]. After

staining, the cells were washed with PBS three times and then incubated with 0.1 mg/ml Acryloyl-

X, SE in PBS overnight at 4 °C. After washing three times with PBS, the coverslip with stained

cells was placed on acrylamide solution (with the cell-attached side facing down) at 37 °C for 2 h

for gelation. After gelation was completed, the hydrogel was immersed in trypsin digestion

solution (0.05 % volume dilution: 2 μl trypsin-EDTA solution in 4 ml low salt digestion buffer),

and then incubated at room temperature for at least 20 h with gently shaking. The digested hydrogel

was transferred to a 10-cm dish filled with excess Milli-Q water for free expansion for 2 h. The

expanded samples were then imaged at room temperature using an LSM980 laser scanning

confocal microscope equipped with Airyscan 2 multiplex mode SR-4Y. An LD LCI Plan-

Apochromate 40X/1.2 Imm Corr DIC M27 objective was used for Z-series image acquisition.

Analyses of DHPE invasion, chromosomal layer patterning and chromosome area

To quantify the immunoreactivities of DHPE signals in the intrachromosomal area, line scanning

was performed using the ImageJ/Fiji software. A 3 μm-wide line across the chromosome or

perichromosomal layer was drawn to quantify DHPE signals. The intersection of biotin-DHPE

signal and the chromosome boundary was set as a ratio of 1. The lowest ratio of biotin-DHPE was

identified as the lipid level in the intrachromosomal area. Ten individual chromosomes per cell

were quantified and averaged. For chromosomal layer analysis, post-expanded and LSM980-

acquired images were subjected to line scanning analysis across the perichromosomal layer. Line

histograms were used to exhibit the distribution pattern of pericromosomal components. Five

individual chromosomes per cell were quantified and averaged. For chromosome area analysis,

the area occupied by chromosomes was quantified based on DAPI signals using ImageJ/Fiji.

Analysis of microtubule organization

To analyze microtubule organization, cells were stained with α-tubulin to identify microtubule

filaments and then assessed by means of Sholl analysis (ImageJ/Fiji) [44, 45] to examine the extension

pattern of tubule filaments and to count the numbers of intersections. Total numbers of

intersections and microtubule filament tips were counted to represent microtubule organization.

Quantification and statistical analysis

To avoid potential personal bias, all data were collected and analyzed blindly by having other lab

members relabel the samples. For each experiment, 10 cells were randomly collected from at least

two independent experiments for quantification. To analyze DHPE invasion into the chromosomal

area, line scanning analysis was performed at each mitotic stage using the ImageJ/FIJI software.

To analyze microtubule organization, Sholl analysis was performed in the ImageJ/FIJI software to

calculate numbers of microtubule filaments and their distribution patterns. Two-group

comparisons were analyzed with two-tailed unpaired Student's *t*-test. For more than two group

comparisons, a one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) with Bonferroni's multiple comparison

post-hoc test was performed.

Declarations

Ethics approval and consent to participate

Not applicable.

Consent for publication

All authors have read and approved of its submission to this journal.

Availability of data and materials

All relevant data are within the paper and its Supporting information files. The file of Supplemental

Table S1 contains the numerical data for all figures. Supplemental Table S2 contains all statistical

results. Supplemental Figure S1 contains uncropped blots of **Figure 5B**.

Competing interests

The authors declare no conflicts of interest.

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Authors' contributions

Conceptualization: YPH, TFW; Funding acquisition: YPH, TFW; Investigation: HTH, UTTW, BCC, YPH; Methodology: HTH, UTTW, BCC, YPH, TFW; Project administration: YPH, TFW; Supervision: YPH, TFW; Visualization: HTH, YPH; Writing – original draft: HTH, YPH, TFW; Writing – review and editing: HTH, UTTW, BCC, YPH, TFW. All of the authors read and approved the manuscript.

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Figures and Figure Legends

Figure 1. TT-ExM reveals the distribution of lipids and DNA throughout the cell cycle.

COS-7 cells were subjected to TT-ExM with staining using biotin-DHPE and PicoGreen. Images were acquired using an LSM700 confocal microscope. (**A**) Confocal images of cells before expansion (Pre-Ex). (**B**) Confocal images of cells after expansion (Post-Ex). Different stages of the cell cycle are shown. Arrows indicate the biotin-DHPE signals located in the nucleolus during interphase. The enlarged chromosome segment shows the enriched biotin-DHPE signals at the

549   perichromosomal layers during anaphase. Arrowheads indicate the reforming nuclear envelope

550   after telophase. Scale bars: (**A**) 20 μm; (**B**) whole cells: 20 μm; enlarged segment: 8 μm.

Figure 2. Chromosomal DNA expands isotropically in prometaphase.

COS-7 cells were subjected to TT-ExM using PicoGreen or DAPI for DNA staining. Images were acquired using an LSM980 confocal microscope with an Airyscan2 detector. (**A**) Representative images of mitotic chromosomes in prometaphase before and after expansion. Yellow lines are examples of the perpendicular line drawn for line scanning analysis. (**B**)-(**C**) Quantification of chromosome diameters in Pre-Ex and Post-Ex cells. Light grey and blue blocks indicate the regions of two adjacent chromosomes for measurement. Expansion was determined to be 3.5-fold. (**D**) Confocal images of PicoGreen signals in entire Post-Ex cells and enlarged chromosome segments.

560 PicoGreen signal revealed likely chromosome axes displaying a denser DNA signal (arrows), as

561 well as chromosomal loops (asterisks). Scale bars: (**A**) pre-Ex: 1 μm; post-Ex: 5 μm; (**B**) whole

562 cells: 10 μm; enlarged segment: 2.5 μm.

Figure 3. Distribution patterns of Ki67 and biotin-DHPE signals during mitosis.

COS-7 cells were subjected to TT-ExM and stained using biotin-DHPE, Ki67 antibody and DAPI.

Images at different mitotic stages were acquired using an LSM980 confocal microscope with

Airyscan2. (**A**) Confocal images of entire cells and enlarged chromosome segments at different

stages of mitosis: Prometa (prometaphase); Meta (metaphase); Ana (anaphase); Telo (telophase).

The original regions of the enlarged images are indicated only in the rightmost panels. (**B**) Line

scanning analysis of biotin-DHPE distribution across the perichromosomal layer and chromosome.

Yellow lines indicate the regions analyzed in the two examples, Ex1 and Ex2. Lower panel: The

results of line scanning analysis on Ex1 and Ex2. The red open circles indicate the intersection of

biotin-DHPE signal and the chromosome boundary, which was set as a ratio of 1. The lowest ratio

of biotin-DHPE was identified as the relative lipid level in the chromosome interior. (**C**) Ratio of

the biotin-DHPE signal in the intrachromosomal area to that at the periphery. The ratio was lower

in prometaphase and metaphase, but increased in anaphase and telophase. (**D**) Relative levels of

total Ki67 immunoreactivity, which clearly declined during telophase. (**E**) Negative correlation of

the biotin-DHPE ratio and Ki67 signal intensity. The sample size "N" indicates the number of

examined cells. The data represent mean ± SEM and individual data points are also shown. All

data were collected from at least two independent experiments. ** $P < 0.01$; *** $P < 0.001$; one-

way ANOVA. Scale bars: (**A**) whole cells: 10 μm; enlarged segment: 1 μm; (**B**) 2 μm.

Figure 4. Relative distribution patterns of Ki67, biotin-DHPE and PS.

COS-7 cells were subjected to TT-ExM and stained using antibodies recognizing Ki67 and phosphatidylserine (PS), as well as for biotin-DHPE and DAPI. Images of cells in prometaphase and metaphase were acquired using an LSM980 microscope with an AiryScan2 detector. (**A**) Confocal images of lipid components (biotin-DHPE and PS) during prometaphase. Upper: Single section. Lower: Z-projection. Biotin-DHPE was distributed throughout cells and covered the entire chromosomes. PS was only located in regions of epichromatin. (**B**)-(**C**) Distribution of biotin-DHPE and PS. (**D**)-(**E**) Distribution of biotin-DHPE and Ki67. (**B**), (**D**) Representative confocal images. The 10X enlarged images of the insets at regions of epichromatin in the whole-cell images are shown in the rightmost panels. (**C**), (**E**) The results of line scanning. Upper: an example of the

595   line scanning result. Lower: the relative positions of the peaks of biotin-DHPE signals. The peaks

596   of PS and Ki67 signals at the chromosome edge are set as 0. Biotin-DHPE signals are always

597   present at the outer part of perichromosomal layer relative to the PS and Ki67 signals. The sample

598   size "N" indicates the number of examined cells in prometaphase and metaphase. Scale bars: (**A**)

599   10 μm; (**B**), (**D**) whole cells: 5 μm; enlarged segment: 0.5 μm.

Figure 5. Ki67 knockdown alters chromosome structure and delays mitotic progress.

COS-7 cells were transfected with Ki67-miR or Ctrl-miR and then stained with Ki67 antibody and

DAPI. Since miR constructs coexpress GFP, GFP signals were used to label transfected cells.

Images were acquired using an LSM700 confocal microscope. (**A**) Representative confocal images

in prometaphase. Ki67 signal intensity (**C**) and chromosome areas (**D**) were analyzed for

transfected cells. (**B**) The knockdown effect of Ki67-miR. Whole-cell extracts were collected and

immunoblotted with Ki67 antibody to detect endogenous Ki67 protein levels. GFP and HSP90 are

loading controls. (**C**) The relative Ki67 signals in Ki67-miR- and Ctrl-miR-expressing cells. (**D**)

Loss of Ki67 reduces chromosome area. (**E**) Ki67 knockdown delays progress of mitosis. Cells

were treated with 50 nM nocodazole for 6 h to synchronize the cell cycle at prometaphase. After

removing nocodazole, the cells were allowed to recover for 15, 30 or 60 mins before being

harvested for immunostaining. Mitotic stages were determined according to chromosome

patterning. The sample sizes (N) of independent preparations (**C**) or examined cells (**D**, **E**) are

indicated in the panels. In (**E**), total cell numbers were collected from three independent

experiments. The data represent mean ± SEM and individual data points are also shown. All data

were collected from at least two independent experiments. * $P < 0.05$; ** $P < 0.01$; *** $P < 0.001$;

two-tailed unpaired Student's t-test. Scale bars: (**A**) 5 µm.

Figure 6. Loss of Ki67 disturbs microtubule organization.

COS-7 cells were transfected with Ki67-miR or Ctrl-miR plasmids and stained with Ki67 and α-tubulin (for microtubule) antibodies and DAPI. Images were acquired using an LSM700 confocal microscope. (**A**) Confocal images of microtubule filaments during prometaphase. Representative images of Crtl-miR- and Ki67-miR-expressing cells are shown. (**B**)-(**E**) Quantification of microtubule organization by Sholl analysis. (**B**) Representative images of Sholl analysis. (**C**) The distribution of numbers of intersections. (**D**) Total numbers of intersections. (**E**) Total numbers of microtubule filament tips. The sample size "N" indicates the number of examined cells. The data

represent mean ± SEM and individual data points are also shown. All data were collected from

two independent experiments. *** $P < 0.001$; two-tailed unpaired Student's t-test. Scale bars: **(A)**

5 µm.

Figure 7. Lipid distribution is altered by Ki67 knockdown.

COS-7 cells were transfected with Ki67-miR or Ctrl-miR plasmids and then stained with biotin-

DHPE, Ki67 antibody and DAPI for TT-ExM. An LSM980 microscope with an AiryScan2 detector

was used to acquire images of the cells in prometaphase. (**A**) Representative confocal images. (**B**)-

(**D**) Line scanning analysis reveals a change in biotin-DHPE distribution. The yellow lines indicate

the regions subjected to line scanning. GFP serves as a control that is insensitive to Ki67

knockdown. The sample size "N" indicates the number of examined cells. The data represent mean

± SEM and individual data points are also shown. All data were collected from at least two

dependent experiments. ** $P < 0.01$; two-tailed unpaired Student's *t*-test. Scale bars: (**A**) 10 μm;

(**B**) 5 μm.