

1 **Mitonucleons formed during differentiation of Ishikawa**
2 **endometrial cells generate vacuoles that elevate monolayer**
3 **syncytia: Differentiation of Ishikawa Domes, Part 1**

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13 Abstract

14 In 1998, we published a paper (Fleming et.al, 1998) describing some aspects of
15 Ishikawa endometrial epithelial cell differentiation from monolayer cells into cells
16 forming fluid-filled hemispheres called domes. The process begins with the
17 dissolution of membranes within discrete regions of the monolayer. Nuclei from fused
18 cells aggregate and endogenous biotin in particulate structures assumed to be
19 mitochondria increase throughout the resulting syncytium. Endogenous biotin is also
20 the distinguishing feature of a membrane that surrounds aggregates of multiple nuclei
21 in a structure called a mitonucleon. The current paper includes additional
22 observations on structural changes accompanying Ishikawa differentiation. Vacuoles
23 form in the heterochromatin of the mitonucleon and within the biotin-containing
24 double membrane surrounding heterochromatin. With the formation of vacuoles, the
25 mitonucleon can be seen to rise along with the apical membrane of the syncytium in
26 which it formed. The small vacuoles that form within the heterochromatin result in
27 structures similar to “cells with optically clear nuclei” found in some cancers. The
28 second larger vacuole that forms within the membrane surrounding the
29 heterochromatin transforms the cell profile to one that resembles “signet ring” cells
30 also observed in some cancers. Eventually the membrane surrounding the massed
31 heterochromatin, generated three to four hours earlier, is breached and previously
32 aggregated nuclei disaggregate. During this process heterochromatin in the
33 mitonucleons undergoes changes usually ascribed to cells undergoing programmed cell
34 death such as pyknosis and DNA fragmentation (Fleming, 2016b). The cells do not die;
35 instead chromatin filaments appear to coalesce into a chromatin mass that gives rise
36 to dome-filling nuclei by amitosis during the final three to four hours of the 20 hour
37 differentiation (Fleming, 2016c).

38 Introduction

39 Endometrial epithelial cells lining the uterine cavity proliferate and differentiate in
40 response to the hormones estradiol and progesterone in preparation for implantation
41 of a fertilized egg in humans. More than 30 years ago, researchers including this
42 author, began working with cultures of human endometrial epithelia hoping that some
43 aspects of this process could be studied *in vitro* (Fleming, 1999).

44 Endometrial cancer cell lines retain some of the characteristics of their *in vivo*
45 counterparts and have the distinct advantages of predictability and ready availability
46 for experimentation. But some cell lines retain more of the organ appropriate
47 characteristics than other lines and that proved to be true for the Ishikawa line.
48 Started from a well-differentiated adenocarcinoma and found to contain estradiol and
49 progesterone receptors (Nishida et al. 1985) the cells were shown capable of

50 functions characteristic of normal endometrial cells such as enhanced proliferation in
51 response to estradiol and tamoxifen (Holinka et al., 1986a). Holinka and colleagues
52 also demonstrated that placental alkaline phosphatase became elevated in these cells
53 in response to hormones (1986b). Having received these cells from Dr. Erlio Gurpide's
54 laboratory through Dr. Chris Holinka, we discovered their capacity to form fluid-filled
55 multicellular hemispheres and decided to study what we believed might be an
56 example of epithelial differentiation.

57 To characterize the process we needed to find conditions that predictably resulted in
58 dome formation (Fleming, 1995), determine what factors enhanced the process
59 (Fleming et al. 1998), look for the synthesis of new proteins (Fleming et al. 1995;
60 Fleming 1999), and finally examine the structural changes underlying differentiation.

61 Progesterone and a large factor in fetal calf serum stimulate dome formation in
62 confluent monolayers of Ishikawa cells, with dimethyl sulfoxide (DMSO) and fatty
63 acids enhancing the process (Fleming et al. 1995; 1998; 1999). The process occurs
64 over a 16 to 20 hour period starting with the formation of syncytia in the first 4 to 6
65 hours when stimulating factor contained in fetal bovine serum is added to confluent,
66 quiescent monolayers. The development of elevated predomes from syncytia occurs
67 over the next 6 to 8 hours, and finally mature domes appear after 4 to 6 more hours.
68 Clones could be isolated that made more and larger domes including a clone that
69 routinely extended domes into everted gland-like structures (Fleming et al., 1998;
70 Fleming, 1999; Fleming 2016c).

71 The early research demonstrated a role for mitochondria whose numbers increase
72 dramatically in newly formed syncytia. The most unexpected involvement of
73 endogenous biotin was its presence in membranes that envelop aggregated syncytial
74 nuclei early in the differentiation in transient structures we have called mitonucleons.
75 But endogenous biotin associated with nuclei had actually also been discovered for
76 nuclei of some biopsied cancer tissues (Tsujimoto, Noguchi, and Taki, 1991; Yokoyama
77 et al., 1993; Tanaka et. al., 1998; Gamachi et al. 2003). It turns out that the process
78 of differentiation being studied in Ishikawa cells relates not only to what occurs in
79 cycling endometrium but also may explain the apparent presence of nuclear
80 endogenous biotin in some cancers. This paper explores the possible significance of
81 endogenous biotin linked to mitochondrial carboxylases in mitonucleons in
82 differentiating Ishikawa cells.

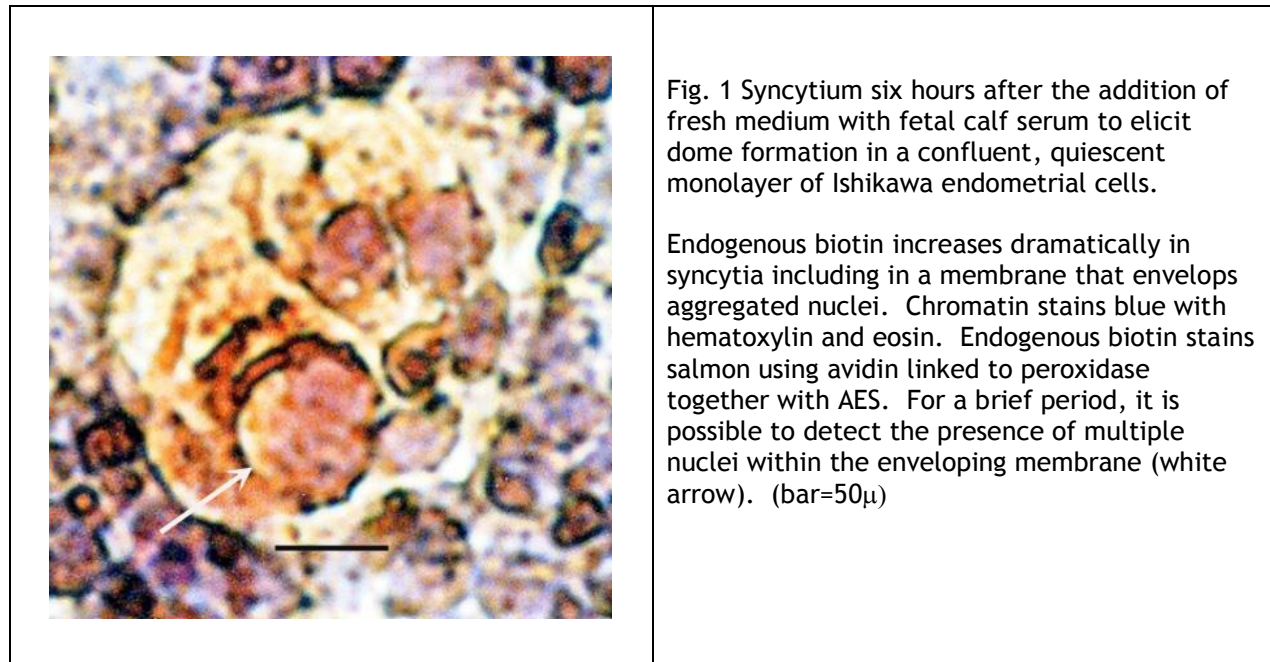
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86 Results and Discussion

87 Fig. 1 shows a syncytium formed in an Ishikawa monolayer in response to the stimulus
 88 to differentiate (Fleming, 1995). Levels of stainable endogenous biotin (salmon), not
 89 detectable when fusion initially occurs, increase dramatically in syncytia and
 90 ultimately characterize a membrane that envelops nuclear aggregates in transient
 91 structures (Fleming et.al. 1998) called mitonucleons (Fleming, 2014). Initially, it is
 92 possible not only to detect multiple nuclei within the mitonucleon, but even to
 93 approximate the number. As few as 4 and as many as 10 individual nuclei have been
 94 seen within mitonucleons.



95

96 Relatively rapidly, the mitonucleon becomes opaque so that individual nuclei can no
 97 longer be detected as shown in fig.2, suggesting that a second membrane, at least,
 98 has been elaborated around the structure. The chromatin will become compressed
 99 between the double membrane and the apical membrane of the syncytium as a
 100 vacuole within the double membrane grows in size. The “nucleus-like” mitonucleon
 101 stains maroon, the salmon stain of endogenous biotin in the enveloping membranes
 102 overlaying the blue hematoxylin stain of the enveloped heterochromatin.

103 The involvement of mitochondria in this differentiation adds to a growing list of
 104 functions for these organelles shown to be more than ovoid powerhouses over the last
 105 20 years. They have been shown to be diverse with regard to size, structure,
 106 placement in the cell, extent of polarization and perhaps even functions (VanBlerkom
 107 et al., 2002; Liesa, Palacin, Zorzano, 2009; Wang et al., 2012). Mitochondria have

108 been shown to be involved in apoptosis (Karbowski and Youle, 2003) and it is
109 theorized that the perinuclear positioning of mitochondria may be relevant to the
110 quality of “stemness.” (Bavister, 2006; Lonergan and Bavister, 2007; Rehman, 2010)
111 Subplasmalemma mitochondria have also been identified in mouse oocytes
112 (VanBlerkom et al. 2002) Finally, in cells treated with microtubule-active drugs
113 researchers observed “perinuclear clustering of mitochondria i.e. mitochondria
114 encircling the aggregated chromatin of the nucleus that had lost the nuclear
115 membrane” (Kedzior et. al. 2004) These effects may be related to what has been
116 observed during Ishikawa differentiation, although there is no mention of a membrane
117 enveloping multiple nuclei as is true for the mitonucleons that form during Ishikawa
118 differentiation.

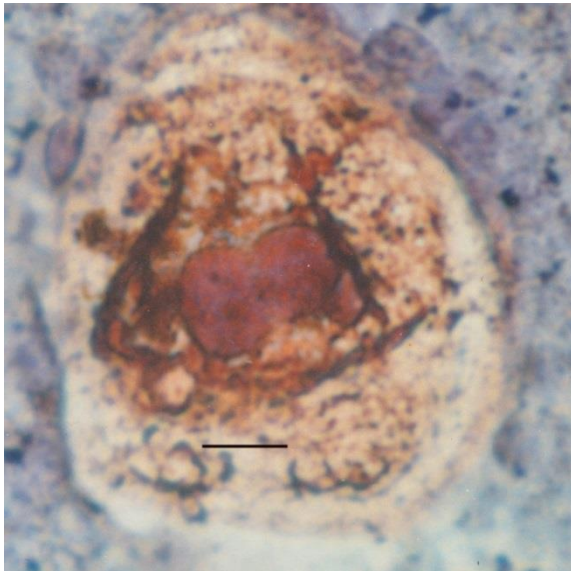


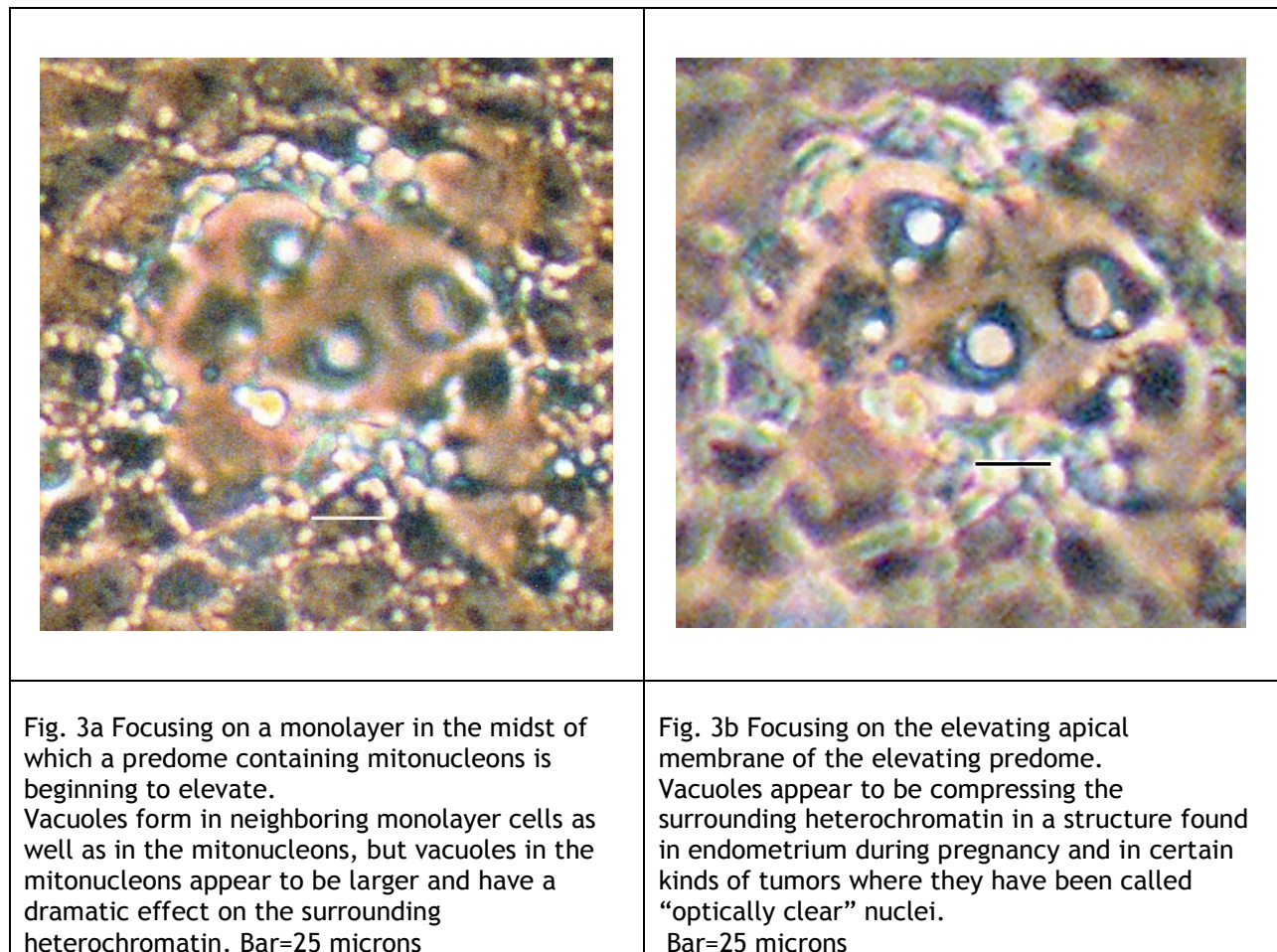
Fig. 2 Aggregated nuclei in multiple mitonucleons elevating with the apical membrane.

The mitonucleon structure becomes opaque due most probably to the elaboration of a second membrane around each of the nuclear aggregates. Mitonucleons together with apical membrane of the syncytium begins to elevate. Plane of focus for mitonucleon is above that of the monolayer.
Bar = 50 microns

119

120 On the other hand, numerous reports of membranes generated from mitochondria do
121 exist. These include vesicles that form in HeLa cells and appear to participate in
122 communication within the cell (Neuspiel et al 2008; Andrade-Navarro MA, Sanchez-
123 Pulido L, McBride HM., 2009; Sugiura A. et al., 2014), as well as mitochondrial outer
124 membranes that form autophagosomes in starved rat kidney cells (Hailey et al.,
125 2010). Ding and collaborators have shown that, following administration of an
126 electron transport uncoupler, whole mitochondria can become spheres engulfing
127 various cytosolic components including other mitochondria (Ding et.al. 2012). And, in
128 an intriguing result from non-differentiating Ishikawa cells, it was recently shown that
129 a membrane staining for biotin can also envelop chromosomes under certain
130 circumstances in Ishikawa monolayers. (Fleming, 2014)

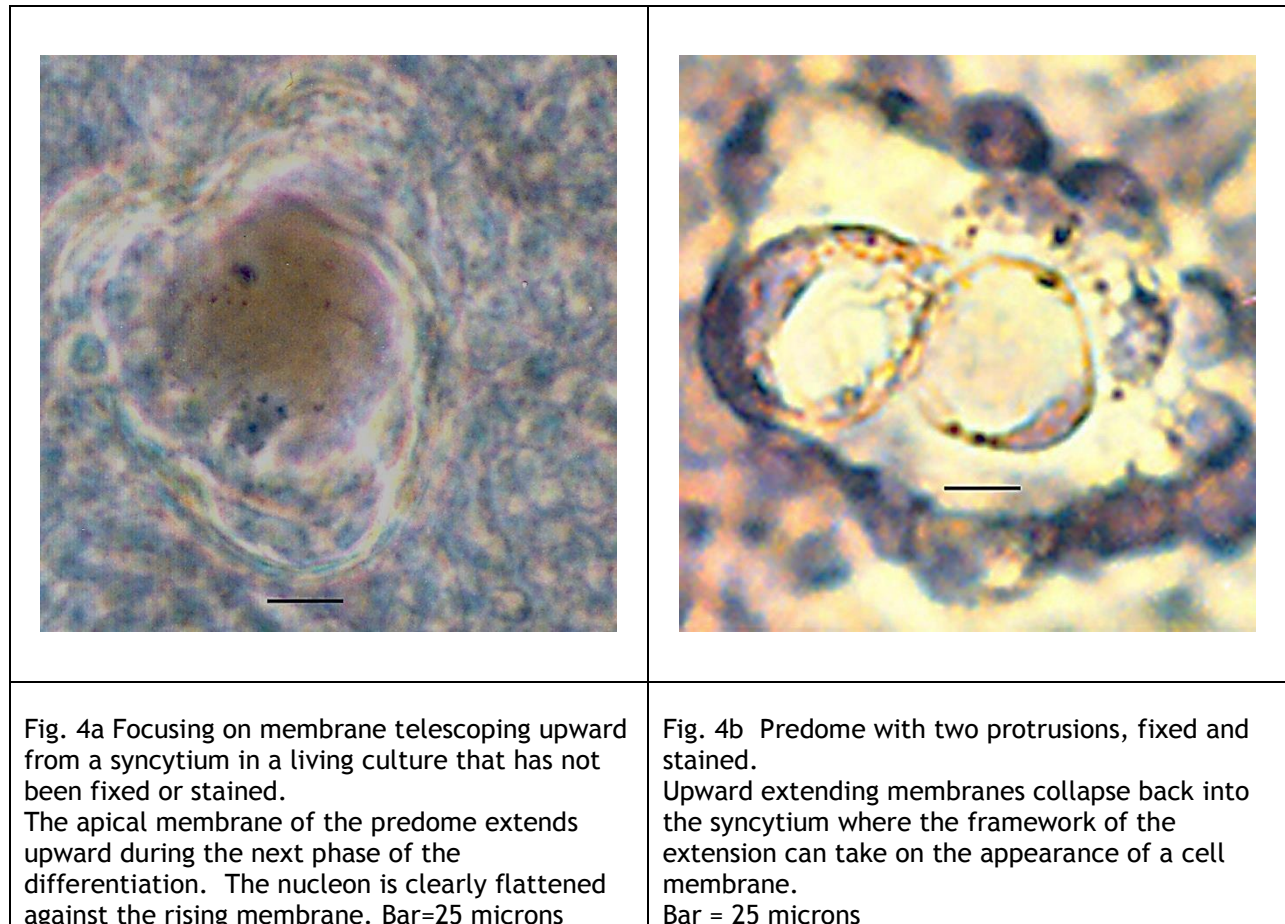
131 Within 2 to 3 hours, the mitonucleons begin to elevate with the syncytial apical
 132 membrane as shown in fig. 2. Three to four mitonucleons in the center of the
 133 syncytium only come into sharp focus above the monolayer, surrounded by apparent
 134 “folds” indicating that the elevation may have been higher before the structure was
 135 fixed and stained. The pervasiveness of mostly particulate material staining for
 136 endogenous biotin throughout the syncytium is also clear at this stage of the
 137 differentiation. Fig. 3 shows that the heterochromatin of elevating mitonucleons
 138 contains vacuoles. This photomicrograph was taken of a living culture and the
 139 vacuoles only come into focus above the plane of the monolayer cells, indicating
 140 elevation of the syncytium. The vacuoles are occluded when enveloping membranes
 141 are stained for endogenous biotin as in fig. 2.



142

143 As the bubble-like vacuoles enlarge within and compress the heterochromatin, the
 144 resulting structure (fig.3) comes to resemble “optically clear nuclei” identified in
 145 normal tissue (Mazur MT, Hendrikson MR, Kempson RL, 1983) as well as in cancer, and
 146 found to be associated with endogenous biotin. Such structures have been of interest

147 to oncologists since Hapke and Dehner (1979) first identified them in a papillary
 148 carcinoma of the thyroid. Aside from the “odd” look of vacuolated nuclei, Yokoyama
 149 and his colleagues (1993) reported the surprising result that endogenous biotin,
 150 thought to localize exclusively to mitochondria, could be found associated with
 151 optically clear nuclei. In a thorough review of tissues containing optically clear
 152 nuclei, Gamachi and his colleagues (2002) showed not only that endogenous biotin
 153 could be detected in 27 samples of tissue containing optically clear nuclei, but also
 154 demonstrated that the endogenous biotin is specifically associated with
 155 mitochondrial enzymes, pyruvate carboxylase and propionyl carboxylase. These
 156 otherwise unexpected results make sense if optically clear nuclei in cancerous tissues,
 157 as well as those that form in endometrium in response to pregnancy (Mazur MT,
 158 Hendrikson MR, Kempson RL, 1983), arise in the manner of the structures shown in
 159 fig. 1, that is to say nuclei become enveloped by membranes containing mitochondrial
 160 carboxylases and perhaps other mitochondrial proteins.



161

162 Additionally, a large central vacuole begins to form within the double membrane
 163 elaborated around the aggregated nuclei compressing the heterochromatin even

164 further against the elevating apical membrane (fig. 4a). This vacuole appears to be
 165 responsible for significant elevation of the apical membrane, the full extent of which
 166 can only be appreciated by focusing above the monolayer in unfixed, living cultures.
 167 Even then, it is clear that the boundaries of the protrusion are not all in focus. The
 168 protrusions collapse if the predome is fixed and stained as in fig.4b. The collapsed
 169 vacuole looks like the annulus of a “ring” whose signet stone is the heterochromatin,
 170 now quite pyknotic.

171 The other prominent feature of the “rings” in fig. 4b includes dark particulate
 172 structures, contained within the double membrane surrounding the vacuole. Similar
 173 structures can be observed in fig 4a, outside of, but accompanying the nucleon
 174 compressed against the elevating apical membrane. Subsequent deployment of
 175 microtubule-like structures (Fleming, 2015b) suggests that these may be centriole-like
 176 structures. While only a single protrusion can be detected in fig. 4a, multiple
 177 protrusions, seen in fig 4b, are more the rule than the exception. It appears that
 178 each mitonucleon is capable of generating a vacuole that will elevate a portion of the
 179 apical membrane.

180 The fixed and stained predome in fig. 5 provides insight into how mitonucleons
 181 disassemble. The membrane protrusion on the left in fig. 6 resembles the protrusions
 182 in fig. 4b, except that at least three pyknotic nuclei appear to make up the “signet
 183 stone” suggestive that the nuclear aggregate formed several hours earlier is coming
 184 apart. Numerous particulate nucleoli-sized structures can be observed in the space

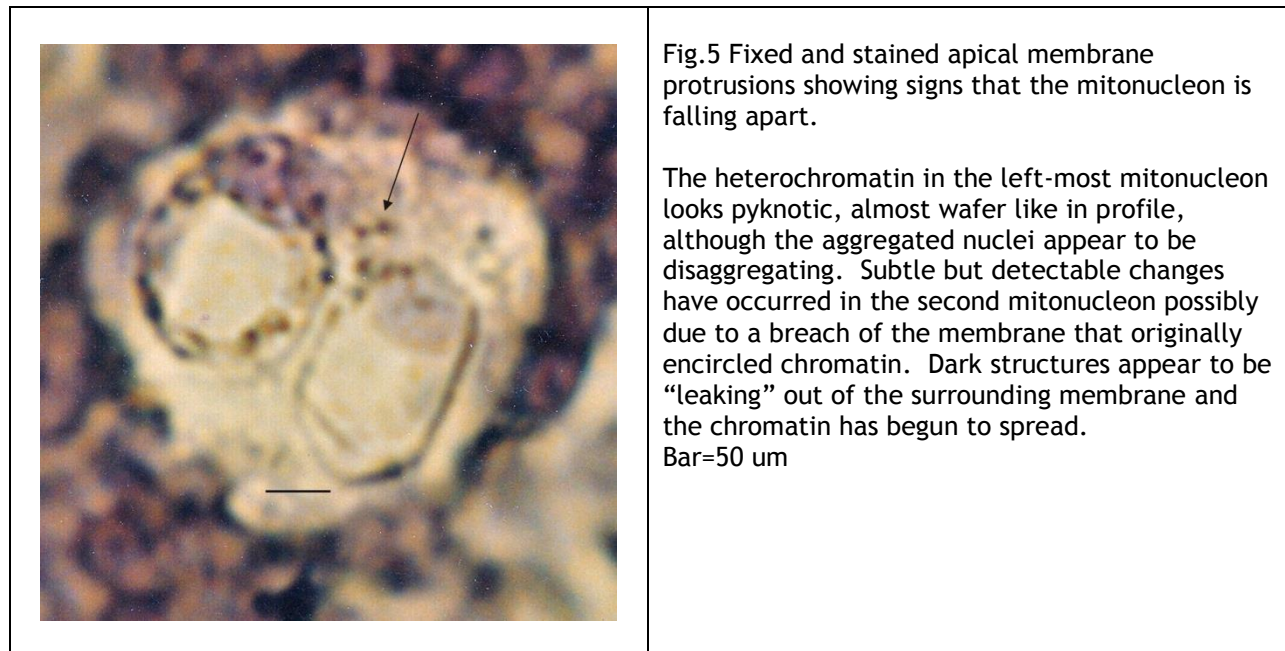


Fig.5 Fixed and stained apical membrane protrusions showing signs that the mitonucleon is falling apart.

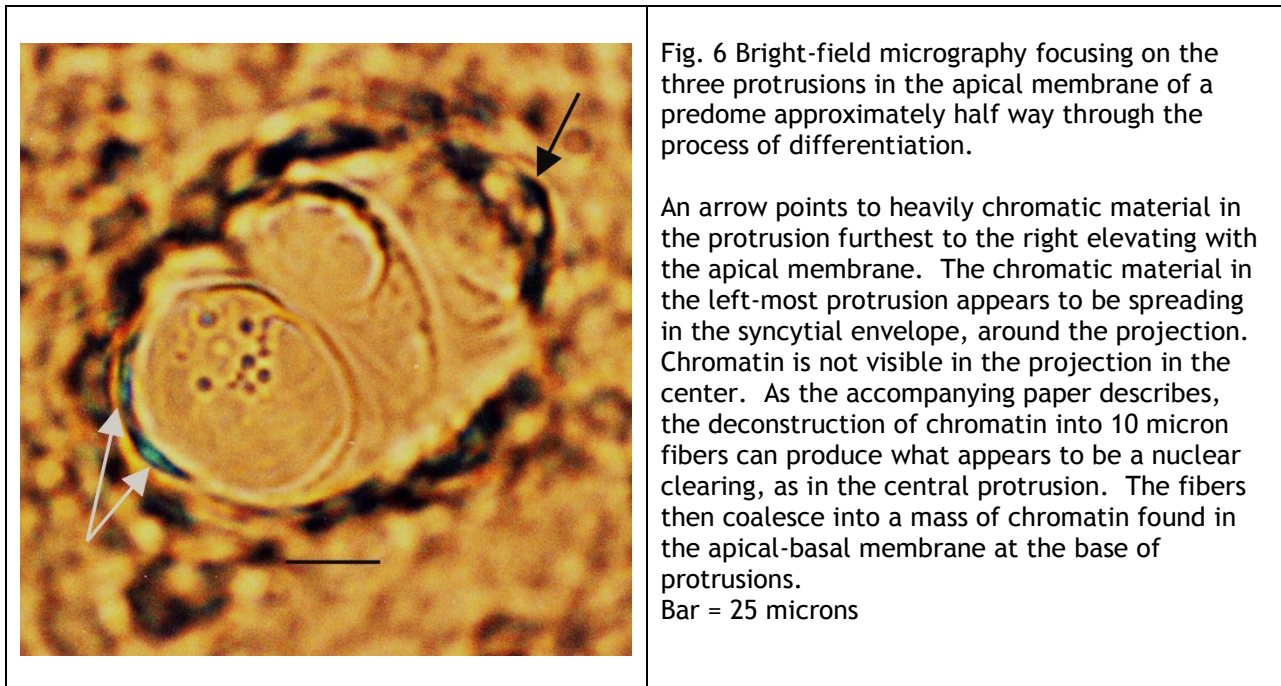
The heterochromatin in the left-most mitonucleon looks pyknotic, almost wafer like in profile, although the aggregated nuclei appear to be disaggregating. Subtle but detectable changes have occurred in the second mitonucleon possibly due to a breach of the membrane that originally encircled chromatin. Dark structures appear to be “leaking” out of the surrounding membrane and the chromatin has begun to spread.
 Bar=50 um

185

186 between the inner and outer vacuolar membranes. While in the neighboring
 187 mitonucleon, those structures are leaking into the syncytial cytoplasm (arrow) as the
 188 mitonucleon double membrane begins to break down.

189 The chromatin also appears to be “spreading” out from its pyknotic state, suggestive
 190 of critical changes in the chromatin as the enveloping membrane that stained for
 191 endogenous biotin disassembles. The fate of the chromatin in these structures is
 192 discussed in the accompanying paper (Fleming, 2015b).

193



194

195 Bright field micrography of an unfixed structure allows visualization of the surfaces of
 196 the predome protrusions resulting from mitonucleon activity. Protrusions early on are
 197 characterized by dense heterochromatin moving up with the apical membrane, and
 198 flattened against it by the central vacuole (black arrow in fig 6). In the left-most
 199 protrusion in fig. 5, by contrast, a mass of spreading refractive chromatin (white
 200 arrows) formerly confined in a mitonucleon appears to be spreading, resembling the
 201 mass of chromatin that forms following fragmentation of disaggregated nuclei
 202 (Fleming, 2016b). The fact that nothing can be seen in the middle protrusion may
 203 indicate that this is the stage in differentiation when chromatin is deconstructed into
 204 10nm fibers (Fleming, 2016b) It is tempting to speculate that the punctile
 205 discontinuities in the protrusion itself are involved in the accumulation of fluid under
 206 the structure. The mitonucleons in fig. 5 appear to be at three different stages. The

207 mitonucleon on the right, intact and elevated is the earliest stage. The mitonucleon
208 in the middle may be at the stage of chromatin deconstruction. The 10nm filaments
209 characteristic of that stage come together once again at the base of apical membrane
210 protrusions, which appears to be what is being seen in profile in the protrusion to the
211 far left. A complete description of those stages can be found in the second paper of
212 this series (Fleming 2015b)

213 **Commonality of structures in differentiating endometrial epithelia and** 214 **in cancer tissue**

215 Structures closely resembling those derived from mitonucleons in differentiating
216 Ishikawa cells are frequently observed in cancer tissue. More than one term has been
217 used to describe vacuolated nuclei resembling structures in fig. 2 including optically
218 clear, ground glass or empty nuclei. It was suggested that these structures might
219 serve as a diagnostic criterion for papillary carcinoma of the thyroid gland more than
220 30 years ago (Hapke MR, Dehner, LP, 1979) The structures have since been found in
221 many other cancers of which the following are representative: colonic tubular
222 adenocarcinoma (Sasaki et al. 1999), ovarian borderline endometrioid tumor (Li et.al.
223 2002), pancreatoblastoma (Hasegawa et al., 2003), and adenocarcinoma of the gall
224 bladder (Kimura et.al. 2005).

225 Another cell structure associated with cancer is the “signet ring cell.” More than 2800
226 references are listed in the Medline data base as relevant to the descriptor “signet
227 ring cell carcinoma,” from many different organs including stomach, colon, lung, and
228 ovary, with the earliest reference discussing their appearance in bladder cancer
229 (Rosas-Uribe and Luna, 1969). Some cancers are even named for this particular cell
230 structure such as signet-ring cell melanoma (Grilliot, Goldblum, Liu; 2012) and signet
231 ring cell carcinoma of the testis (Williamson et al., 2012)

232 On the other hand papers have also appeared reminding pathologists that not all
233 signet ring cells are neoplastic (Iezzoni and Mills, 2001). In Ishikawa differentiation,
234 these structures are derived sequentially from mitonucleons. An obvious question
235 then is why haven’t mitonucleons per se been identified in tissue cross sections. One
236 possible reason is that the structures are relatively non-descript without the vacuoles.
237 Their dense chromatin and meager cytoplasm may look like “small cells” or even
238 “bare nuclei” (Wright, Leiman, Burgess; 1998).

239 The sequential appearance of “optically clear nuclei” followed by “signet ring cells”
240 in differentiating Ishikawa epithelia cells demonstrates that these structures
241 represent morphological stages in a differentiation program for epithelial cells. Such
242 a possibility would not, of course, be obvious from visual micro-inspection of a tumor
243 at a single point in time, the necessary approach when cancerous tissue is excised. It

244 has actually been understood for some time that tumors can be classified as poorly or
245 well- differentiated and that the prognosis of the latter is usually better than that of
246 the former. A preponderance of cells with optically clear nuclei or of signet ring cells
247 in a biopsy may represent gradations between poorly and well differentiated.

248 **Membrane elevation during Ishikawa Differentiation**

249 The physiologically significant event during the first 10 hours of Ishikawa dome
250 differentiation is the elevation of syncytia containing mitonucleons. Vacuole
251 formation appears to be the driving force. The rapid rise and fixation-dependent
252 collapse of the apical protrusion suggests that the central vacuole is filled with
253 material readily generated and easily dispersed such as a gas. The simplest, albeit
254 unorthodox, explanation is that the mitochondrial-like membranes enveloping
255 aggregated nuclei contain the metabolic enzymes necessary to generate CO₂, and are
256 oriented so that CO₂ accumulates both within the nuclear compartment and within
257 the double membrane surrounding the aggregated nuclei. The stimulus to
258 differentiate was found to be most effective when delivered with fresh medium to a
259 quiescent monolayer, which, of course, contains glucose. It is useful to note that
260 numerous vacuoles also appear to be generated in surrounding cells but not into
261 heterochromatin, rather at the borders of the cells that are not differentiating (an
262 example of that can be seen in fig. 3a)

263 Gas vesicles, commonplace in planktonic microorganisms such as cyanobacteria where
264 they facilitate vertical migrations (Walsby, 1994), are not generally a feature of
265 animal cells. But that does not mean that gasses could not build up in an unusual
266 structure such as the mitonucleon. Furthermore the century-old dogma that all
267 lipophilic gasses, such as CO₂, are so highly soluble in lipid bilayers that they always
268 move freely in and out of cell membranes is being refined as a result of some clever

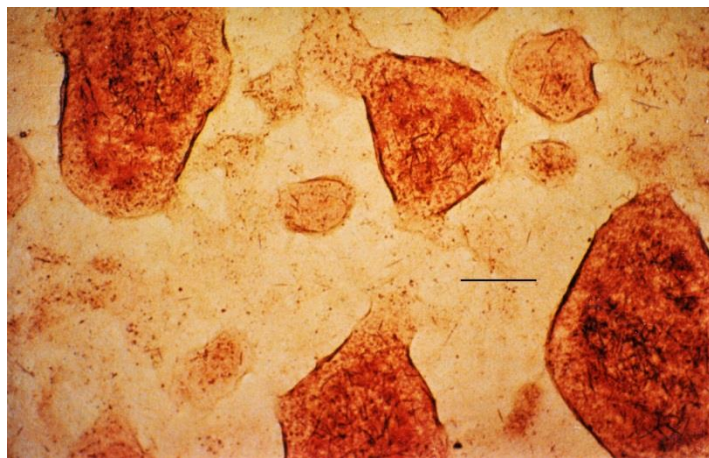


Fig. 7 Mature domes four days after the addition of fetal calf serum under conditions that stimulate dome formation.

As long as the domes are elevated, they stain brightly, although not uniformly, for endogenous biotin associated with mitochondrial carboxylases. Perhaps these are vanguard mitochondria.
Bar = 100 microns

269 experimentation as reviewed by Endeward et al. (2014). Approximately 2 decades
270 ago, research using a single stomach gland demonstrated that while CO₂ was
271 transported across basal membranes as rapidly as might be predicted by the theory of
272 “free movement,” transport across the apical membrane (Waisbren et al. 1994) was
273 at least two orders of magnitude slower. Similarly, Endeward and Gros (2013)
274 demonstrated that CO₂ permeability for guinea pig colon membrane is more than 100
275 times slower than CO₂ permeability for human red cells. Subsequent research has
276 begun to unravel the significance of cholesterol in diminishing CO₂ transport through
277 membranes, as well as the effects of proteins, particularly the water channel protein
278 aquaporin 1, on the permeability of CO₂ through membranes (Itel et.al. 2012).
279 Nakhoul et al. (1998) demonstrated that aquaporin-1 (AQP-1), which facilitates
280 transport of H₂O across a membrane (Preston et. al. 1992), also affects CO₂
281 permeability in *Xenopus* oocytes leading to the controversial proposition that protein
282 gas channels such as aquaporin 1 facilitate exchange of CO₂ with H₂O. Similar
283 reports have appeared based on other systems (Talbot et. al. 2015).

284 Several other aquaporins have been found, although it is still debated whether they
285 have a physiological significance. The system being proposed for dome formation
286 might provide an example of significance. Do some of the cavities that form in vivo
287 start out as gas-filled cavities with aquaporins facilitating the exchange of gas for
288 fluid? Even with the dissolution of the mitonucleons, mature domes continue to
289 contain significant amounts of endogenous biotin, linked to carboxylases (Fleming,
290 1998), and lying close to the apical membrane surface so that domes stain brightly as
291 in fig. 7. The abundant staining diminishes when domes collapse. This fact could be
292 explained if CO₂ generation provides for ongoing refreshment of dome fluid in
293 exchange for that CO₂. The loss of stainability and the flattening of domes appear to
294 occur at the same time, although it is important to note that wholesale death of the
295 cells, as might be evident by holes in the monolayer, is not seen. The organelles
296 responsible for the staining may be similar to “vanguard mitochondria” which have
297 been shown to occupy a circumferential domain immediately subjacent to the plasma
298 membrane (Van Blerkom and Davis, 2006) in mouse, as well as human, oocytes where
299 they are believed to have specialized function early development, perhaps during
300 blastocyst formation.

301 Two different kinds of vacuolization are seen early in dome differentiation and have
302 been described in this paper: small vacuoles that form in the enveloped
303 heterochromatin itself and a large vacuole forming within the double layer of the
304 mitonucleon membrane. Two well-known cell types, frequently but not exclusively
305 found in cancer, are cells with optically clear nuclei and signet ring cells whose
306 profiles are characterized by these two kinds of vacuoles. Additionally, research
307 describes a phenomenon in excised human tissue prepared for light microscopy called

308 “pseudolipomatosis” a name that describes variably sized optically clear spaces first
309 found in colon cross sections by Snover et al. (1985) The name arises from the fact
310 that although the vacuoles look to be filled by lipids, they are not. It has been
311 assumed that they are artefactually introduced during tissue preparation. Deshmukh-
312 Rane and Li-cheng Wu (2009) looked for, and found, such vacuoles in 100% of the 50
313 specimens of endometrial tissue they examined. Our results suggest that the vacuoles
314 may, like vacuolization in differentiating Ishikawa cells, be of some physiological
315 importance.

316 The results suggesting a physiological role for vacuolization in differentiating Ishikawa
317 cells raise some interesting question. Do any gasotransmitters, short-lived in aqueous
318 solutions, mix with CO₂? Does building pressure in the central vacuole contribute to
319 chromatin pyknosis or to the break-down of the mitonucleon double membrane? What
320 is the effect of the release of CO₂ upon breakdown of the mitonucleon? Does the
321 mixing of significant amounts of CO₂ with fluid elevate the pH for a short period of
322 time and lead to chromatin fragmentation? Buoyancy and cavity formation are
323 essential to the differentiation of domes described in this paper and gas vacuoles, not
324 previously considered relevant to mammalian cells may be involved. Furthermore,
325 the biochemistry of gas vacuoles may turn out to be interesting beyond buoyancy and
326 cavity formation.

327 **Materials and Methods**

328 Ishikawa cells were cultured (Fleming 1995) in phenol red-free, Minimum Essential
329 (MEM) supplemented with 2 mM glutamine, 100U/ml penicillin, 0.1 mg/ml
330 streptomycin, and .25 mg amphotericin B (GIBCO, Grand Island, NY). The cells,
331 obtained from Dr. Erlio Gurpide at Mt. Sinai Hospital in New York, were originally
332 derived from an endometrial adenocarcinoma line developed by Nishida et al. (1985),
333 who demonstrated the presence of receptors for both estradiol and
334 progesterone. Cells seeded at an approximate density of 5×10^5 cells/cm², were
335 grown for 1 -2 weeks in MEM containing 5% calf serum (CS), and then transferred to
336 medium containing 1% calf serum. Cultures left in MEM with 1% CS could survive for
337 an additional 3-5 days with little proliferation. Assays for dome formation were done
338 in confluent cultures, although differentiation has been observed to occur, to a
339 limited extent, in nonconfluent cultures.

340 Differentiation was initiated with the addition of 10-15% fetal bovine serum (FBS).
341 Multiple dishes were fixed and stained for biotin and/or for chromatin at different
342 times during differentiation. Structures were viewed using an Olympus inverted stage
343 microscope at powers of 100X, 200X and 400X. As indicated in the text,
344 differentiating structures were sometimes examined, and pictures taken without
345 fixing and staining the cultures.

346 Other photomicrographs were taken of cells fixed by adding 4% paraformaldehyde in
347 phosphate buffered saline (PBS) to the culture dish. After 10 min, the cells were
348 washed gently four times with 5-10 ml PBS. A solution of 1% Triton X-100 was added to
349 the cells to permeabilize the membrane. Again after 5 min, the culture was washed
350 with successive changes of PBS. After washing, cells were exposed to a 1:200 dilution
351 of Extravidin-conjugated horse-radish peroxidase (HRP) (Sigma) for 30 min. After
352 further washing, a solution of 3-amino-9-ethylcarbazole (AEC), prepared by dissolving
353 20 mg of AEC in 2.5 ml of dimethylformamide and diluting with 47.5 ml of 50 mM
354 potassium acetate adjusted to pH 5.0, was added to the cells together with .25%
355 H₂O₂. This solution was incubated at 37°C for 45 min to allow color to develop. The
356 AEC solution was removed, and the cultures were examined and then stored in the
357 presence of PBS at 4°C. If avidin linked to peroxidase is not added to the cultures,
358 there is no reaction. If avidin without peroxidase is added first to the cultures,
359 followed by avidin-linked to peroxidase, staining is not observed. Staining does not
360 occur if avidin-HRP is not added to the cultures prior to AEC indicating that an
361 endogenous peroxidase is not responsible for the staining. To ensure that avidin was
362 reacting with biotin, we stained domes using streptavidin linked to horseradish
363 peroxidase as well as primary antibody to biotin and secondary antibody-linked to
364 horseradish peroxidase. Staining occurred under all circumstances, indicating that
365 avidin does indeed react with biotin that is endogenously present in the cell in
366 significant amounts.

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