Inhibition of HIV infection by structural proteins of the inner nuclear membrane is

associated with reduced chromatin dynamics

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# Equal contribution

Abstract

The Human Immunodeficiency Virus (HIV) enters the nucleus to establish infection. The

nuclear envelope is a physical barrier for HIV. The role of nuclear pore components in

promoting HIV infection is well established. In contrast, the role of other proteins of the nuclear

envelope is much less understood. SUN1 and SUN2 are inner nuclear membrane proteins that

connect the nuclear Lamin proteins to the cytoskeleton. Increased levels of SUN1 or SUN2

proteins potently restrict HIV infection through an unresolved mechanism. Here, we identify a

strain-specific antiviral activity of SUN1 and SUN2 against HIV-1 and HIV-2 that we leverage

to investigate the cellular basis of the antiviral effect. SUN1 preferentially restricts HIV-1 in

macrophages and HeLa cells. This specificity maps to the nucleoplasmic domain of SUN

proteins, which associates with Lamin A/C and participates to the DNA damage response. We

find that etoposide, a DNA-damaging drug, stimulates infection. Inhibition of ATR, which

induces a DNA damage response, also enhances HIV-1 infection. The proviral effect of ATR

inhibition on infection requires the Vpr gene in HIV-1. Depletion of endogenous Lamin A/C,

which sensitize cells to DNA damage, also enhances HIV-1 infection in HeLa cells. SUN1

over-expression neutralizes these proviral effects, while the antiviral effect of SUN2 is rescued

by etoposide treatment. Finally, we show that inhibition of HIV-1 infection by over-expressed

SUN proteins and endogenous Lamin A/C is associated with reduced internal movements of

chromatin and reduced rotations of the nucleus. Altogether, the results highlight distinct

antiviral activities of SUN1 and SUN2 and they reveal an emerging role of nuclear movements

and the DNA damage response in the control of HIV infection by structural components of the

nuclear envelope.

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Introduction

Successful infection of cells by HIV requires that the virus actively passes through the physical barrier of the nuclear envelope. Nuclear entry of HIV is coordinated with completion of reverse transcription and selection of integration sites (Dharan et al., 2020; Schaller et al., 2011). The capsid protein of HIV engages multiple interactions with nuclear pore complex (NPC) components and associated proteins such as Cyclophilin A to achieve this coordination (Yamashita and Engelman, 2017).

In the nuclear envelope, in addition to NPC proteins, SUN proteins located in the inner nuclear membrane of nucleus impact HIV infection (Bhargava et al., 2018). SUN1 and SUN2 are integral proteins of the inner nuclear envelope of somatic cells. They play essential roles in the maintenance of genomic stability and the resolution of DNA damage (Lawrence et al., 2016; Lei et al., 2012). SUN proteins possess a Lamin-binding domain at their N-terminus located in the nucleoplasm. Lamins are intermediated filament proteins that assemble the nuclear lamina, a dense meshwork contributing to mechanical protection, organization of chromatin domains and recruitment of DNA repair factors (Burke and Stewart, 2013; Gonzalo, 2014). At their C-terminus, SUN proteins interact with Nesprins in the perinuclear space. Nesprins are large integral proteins of the outer nuclear membrane (Burke and Stewart, 2013). Nesprins have multiple interactions with cytoskeletal proteins, enabling a dynamic anchoring of the nucleus within the cells.

SUN2 was first identified as an antiviral factor against HIV-1 in the context of a cDNA screen (Schoggins et al., 2011). Subsequent studies confirmed and extended the antiviral viral effect of SUN1 and SUN2 over-expression on HIV-1 and HIV-2 infection (Donahue et al., 2016; Lahaye et al., 2016; Luo et al., 2018; Schaller et al., 2017). SUN1 and SUN2 over-expression limits the level of HIV-1 nuclear import as assessed by 2-LTR circles levels in U87MG, CHME and HEK293A cells (Donahue et al., 2016; Luo et al., 2018; Schaller et al., 2017), leading to

reduced viral integration. Nanotubes of HIV-1 capsid and nucleocapsid proteins produced *in*

vitro pull down SUN1 and SUN2 proteins from cell lysates (Schaller et al., 2017).

The role of endogenous SUN2 in HIV-1 infection has been examined in several studies but this

has not reached a consensus (Donahue et al., 2017; Lahaye et al., 2016; Schaller et al., 2017;

Sun et al., 2018). Three studies concurred with a requirement for SUN2 in HIV-1 infection in

primary CD4+ T cells, in monocyte-derived dendritic cells and in THP-1 cells, although the

strength of this requirement varies between cell type (Donahue et al., 2017; Lahaye et al., 2016;

Schaller et al., 2017). A fourth study obtained contradicting results and proposed that

endogenous SUN2 instead limits HIV infection at the level of LTR expression (Sun et al.,

2018). SUN2 is also implicated in the effects of Cyclophilin A (CypA) on HIV-1 infection. In

HeLa cells, SUN2 over-expression abrogates the sensitivity of HIV-1 capsid mutant N74D to

Cyclophilin A inhibition (Lahaye et al., 2016). In primary CD4+ T cells and murine bone-

marrow derived dendritic cells, one study found that endogenous SUN2 is required for the

Cyclophilin A-dependent steps of HIV infection (Lahaye et al., 2016), while another study did

not observe this effect in primary CD4+ T cells (Donahue et al., 2017). We initially proposed

that HIV depends on a sweet-spot of SUN2 protein expression (hormesis), and that too little or

too much expression impairs infection, not necessarily through the same mechanism (Lahaye

et al., 2016). This notion fits well with the structural role of the LINC complex in nuclear

architecture. Noteworthily, endogenous SUN2 level varies with the extent of T cell activation

(Sun et al., 2018). It is thus conceivable that variable experimental conditions between studies,

particularly using sensitive primary immune cells, could account for the variable effects of

endogenous SUN2 on HIV infection. Our understanding of the antiviral effect of SUN1 is less

advanced. In HEK293A cells, the antiviral effect of SUN1 over-expression requires Cyclophilin

A interaction with HIV-1 capsid protein (Luo et al., 2018). In THP-1 cells, endogenous SUN1

is not required for HIV-1 infection (Schaller et al., 2017).

The strong antiviral effect of SUN protein over-expression on HIV infection exploits one or

several points of weakness in the viral replication cycle. The cellular mechanisms by which

elevated levels of SUN protein expression block HIV infection are not known. Intriguingly,

SUN2 over-expression is associated with alternation of the nuclear envelope shape, suggesting

that SUN proteins might interfere with HIV infection through a perturbation of the integrity of

the nucleus (Donahue et al., 2016; Lahaye et al., 2016). However, it has not been possible so

far to explain how SUN proteins are perturbing cellular and nuclear physiology to impact HIV.

Results

SUN1 and SUN2 proteins demonstrate HIV strain-specific antiviral effects

To gain insights in SUN1- and SUN2-mediated antiviral effects on the early steps of HIV

infection, we first performed a comparative assessment of the antiviral effect of SUN1 and

SUN2 on HIV infection in primary cells. To this end, we over-expressed SUN1 and SUN2 in

primary monocyte-derived macrophages (MDMs) using lentiviral vectors (**Figure 1A**). In order

to focus on the early phase of infection, cells were infected using single-round HIV-1 and HIV-

2 encoding GFP in the place of *Nef*. SUN1 and SUN2 induced an antiviral effect on HIV-1 and

HIV-2 (**Figure 1B**). Unexpectedly, HIV-1 was preferentially inhibited by SUN1, while HIV-2

was preferentially inhibited in SUN2 (**Figure 1B**). In MDMs, HIV-1 infection is sensitive to

Cyclosporin A (CsA). Both SUN1 and SUN2 neutralized the CypA-dependency of HIV-1

infection on MDM. We analyzed the progression of HIV-1 and HIV-2 infection in the context

of SUN protein expression using RT-qPCR on viral DNA species. For HIV-1, both SUN1 and

SUN2 reduced the level of integrated viral DNA (**Figure 1C**). However, SUN1 reduced the

total amount of viral DNA, while SUN2 reduced the level of 2-LTR circles. CsA reduced the

total amount of viral DNA in control cells and there was no additional reduction following SUN

protein expression. For HIV-2, SUN1 and SUN2 significantly reduced 2-LTR circles only.

These experiments indicate that SUN1 and SUN2 have strain-specific antiviral effects and that

they modify different steps of viral infection.

We similarly over-expressed SUN1 and SUN2 in HeLa cells (**Figure 1D**). HIV-1 was

preferentially inhibited by SUN1 while HIV-2 was preferentially inhibited by SUN2,

recapitulating the situation in MDMs (**Figure 1E, 1F**). In HeLa cells, HIV-1 WT is not sensitive

to CsA, but HIV-1 CA N74D is, similar to HIV-1 WT in MDM (De Iaco and Luban, 2014).

We thus used this mutant to address the relationship between antiviral effect of SUN and CsA

sensitivity. Both SUN1 and SUN2 neutralized CsA sensitivity of HIV-1 CA N74D in HeLa

cells (**Figure 1G, 1H**). We next measured the levels of HIV-1 DNA species. SUN1 and SUN2

reduced the levels of integrated HIV-1 DNA, and this effect was more pronounced for SUN1

(**Figure S1A**). Similar to MDM, SUN1 significantly inhibited the level of total viral DNA while

the levels of 2-LTR circles were not significantly reduced. In contrast, SUN2 did not impact

the level of total viral DNA, but reduced the level of 2-LTR circles. We thus focused on HeLa

cells for additional experiments aiming at characterizing the strain-specific inhibition of SUN1

and SUN2.

Strain-specific antiviral activity maps to the nucleoplasmic domain of SUN proteins

Cell-cell communication factors of innate immunity, such as interferons and cGAMP, can

contribute to antiviral effects on top of cell-intrinsic restriction factors. Using a co-culture of

SUN1/2-expressing cells and control cells expressing a fluorescent marker (TagRFP657), we

found that the strain-specific effect of SUN1 and SUN2 on HIV-1 and HIV-2 infection is

entirely cell-intrinsic in HeLa cells (**Figure 2A**). To determine if SUN1 and SUN2 induced an

antiviral state at the cell-intrinsic level through expression of other antiviral genes, we

performed a transcriptomic analysis of SUN1 and SUN2 over-expressing cells. Strikingly, we

could not detect any differentially expressed gene in this dataset, aside from SUN1 and SUN2

themselves (**Figure S1B**). Next, we generated chimeras between SUN1 and SUN2 to map the

strain-specific antiviral effect (**Figure 2B, 2C**). We found that the N-terminal nucleoplasmic

domains of SUN1 and SUN2 confer strain-specificity (**Figure 2D, 2E**). These results establish

that SUN1 and SUN2 exert a cell-intrinsic HIV-strain specific antiviral effect on HIV infection,

that maps to the nucleoplasmic domain of SUN proteins.

Antiviral effect of SUN proteins at the nuclear envelope

We next sought to study how SUN1 and SUN2 impact cells to inhibit HIV infection. Electron

microscopy analysis revealed that both SUN1 and SUN2 over-expression induced deep

invaginations of the nuclear envelope, that were more pronounced with SUN2 (**Figure 3A**).

This raised the possibility that alteration of the shape of the nucleus could be responsible for

the antiviral effect. To test this, we asked if the antiviral effect of SUN occurs at nuclear

envelope, or whether it is the results of cytosolic accumulation of SUN proteins. SUN proteins

anchor the nucleus in cells by interaction with the KASH domain of cytosolic Nesprin proteins

within the perinuclear space. Expression of the isolated KASH domain (SR-KASH) functions

as a dominant negative by disrupting the SUN-Nesprin interaction and displacing Nesprins

from the nuclear envelope (Starr et al., 2003). We co-expressed SR-KASH with SUN proteins

(**Figure 3B**). We found that co-expression of spectrin repeat-KASH (SR-KASH) construct

partially rescued the antiviral effect on SUN1 and SUN2 on HIV-1 infection (**Figure 3C**).

These results support the notion that SUN proteins have an antiviral activity at the nuclear

envelope.

Interplay between SUN proteins, HIV infection and the DNA damage response

As a next step, we attempted to characterize the cellular processes affected by elevated SUN

proteins. SUN1 and SUN2 are required to limit the accumulation of DNA damage in cells (Lei

et al., 2012). Since HIV infection is a DNA-damaging event, we considered the possible

interplay between SUN proteins, HIV infection and the DNA damage response. We examined

the level of γH2AX, an early marker of the DNA damage response. At baseline, we did not

detect modification of γH2AX levels upon SUN1 or SUN2 expression (**Figure 4A, 4B**). To

induce DNA damage, we selected etoposide, a topo-isomerase II inhibitor. Interestingly, SUN1,

but not SUN2, significantly limited the levels of induced γH2AX after etoposide treatment

(**Figure 4A, 4B**). To explore the potential link between DNA damage and infection, we infected

HeLa cells in the presence of etoposide for the first 4 hours of the experiment. However, etoposide gradually induces apoptosis of treated cells, as part of its chemotherapeutic effect (Rello-Varona et al., 2006), which hampered our ability to detect viable cells to measure infection after 48 hours. To circumvent this caveat, we cultured cells in the presence of the caspase inhibitor Q-VD-Oph. Q-VD-Oph did not prevent γH2AX induction by etoposide treatment (**Figure 4C**). Etoposide treatment increased HIV-1 infection by 2-fold on average (**Figure 4D**). HIV-2 infection was also increased but significantly at only one dose of etoposide tested, and with a smaller fold change. Next, we combined SUN expression with etoposide to determine the epistatic relationship between DNA damage induction and SUN expression on the level of HIV infection. Here, we used a higher MOI to observe the antiviral effect of SUN proteins. The increased induced by etoposide treatment on control cells was consistently observed across experiments. Interestingly, SUN1 abrogated the proviral effect of etoposide treatment, and in sharp contrast, etoposide treatment rescued cells from the antiviral effect of SUN2 (**Figure 4E, 4F**). Thus, SUN1, which restricts HIV-1 more than SUN2, operates downstream of DNA damage induction, while SUN2 impacts infection upstream of DNA damage.

DNA damage induction by ATR inhibition and role of HIV-1 Vpr

Next, we look for a different approach to induce DNA damage that would be functionally linked to the nuclear envelope. ATR is a DNA damage sensor and functions as a checkpoint at the nuclear envelope in response to mechanical stress (Kumar et al., 2014). ATR inhibition heightens DNA damage in cells (Foote et al., 2018). Furthermore, in HIV-1, expression of the accessory protein Vpr causes DNA damage and activates ATR (Roshal et al., 2003), although the relevance of this effect in the context of virion-packaged Vpr is unknown. Considering the significance of ATR at the nuclear envelope and its relationship with Vpr, we asked if DNA

damage induction by ATR inhibition, SUN and Vpr are functionally related. We inhibited ATR

using AZD6738, a next-generation inhibitor with improved specificity (Foote et al., 2018). As

expected, ATR inhibition increased the levels of γH2AX in HeLa cells (**Figure 5A**). We next

infected HeLa cells with p24-normalized and sucrose-cushion purified stocks of the HIV-1

single-round virus and its HIV-1 vpr-deficient (vpr-) counterpart. ATR inhibition increased

HIV-1 infection in HeLa cells by 2-fold, similar to etoposide treatment (**Figure 5B, left panel**).

Concomitant SUN protein over-expression inhibited HIV-1 infection, and abrogated the

proviral effect of ATR inhibition, again similar to the etoposide treatment. Unexpectedly, the

titer of the p24-normalized HIV-1 vpr- was slightly higher than the HIV-1 wild-type counterpart

in HeLa cells, and HIV-1 vpr- was insensitive to ATRi (**Figure 5B, right panel**). However,

HIV-1 vpr- remained fully sensitive to the antiviral effect of SUN protein expression. In sum,

this data supports the idea that increased DNA damage favors HIV-1 infection of HeLa cells,

and that SUN1 operates downstream of this to block infection. Intriguingly, this data also

revealed that sensitivity to ATR inhibition is a HIV-1 vpr phenotype in single-round infection

of HeLa cells.

Endogenous Lamin A/C limits HIV-1 infection in HeLa cells

We sought to further explore the relationship between infection, DNA damage and structure of

the nuclear envelope. We searched for an orthogonal approach to perturb the nuclear envelope

structure and the DNA damage response. Lamin A/C expression is required to maintain a

regular nuclear shape (Lammerding et al., 2004) and to protect from DNA damage (Singh et

al., 2013). We knocked-down expression of Lamin A/C side-by-side with SUN protein over-

expression (**Figure 6A**). Both compromised the regularity of the nuclear envelope shape

(**Figure 6B**). To quantify this effect, we measured solidity index as a shape descriptor of the

nucleus: solidity values close to 1 indicate smoothly convex nuclei while lower values

correspond to deformed, lobulated nuclei, presenting concave invaginations. SUN proteins and

Lamin A/C knock-down all increased nuclear envelope deformation, and this effect was less

pronounced for SUN1 (**Figure 6C**). The levels of endogenous SUN and Lamin A/C proteins

were not reciprocally affected, confirming an independent alteration of the nuclear regularity

(**Figure 6A**). After infection, Lamin A/C knock-down unexpectedly increased HIV-1 infection

levels by 1.6-fold, while HIV-2 infection was not affected (**Figure 6D**). This shows that

endogenous Lamin A/C limits HIV-1 infection in HeLa cells. However, the increase in nuclear

envelope shape irregularities does not explain the effects of Lamin A/C depletion and SUN

protein expression on HIV infection. Given this opposite effect of SUN expression and Lamin

A/C knock-down on HIV-1 infection, we examined if the antiviral effect of SUN proteins

requires endogenous lamins. We knocked-down Lamin A/C, Lamin B1 and Lamin B2 and co-

expressed SUN proteins (**Figure 6E**). Viable Lamin B1-depleted HeLa cells could not be

maintained in culture. Lamin A/C depletion enhanced HIV-1 infection as above, and Lamin B2

depletion had no effect (**Figure 6F**). SUN proteins maintained their antiviral effect irrespective

of the level of the Lamin A/C and Lamin B2. This shows that the effect of elevated levels of

SUN proteins is dominant on the effect of Lamin A/C depletion on HIV-1 infection.

Next, we examined the level of γH2AX after etoposide treatment and Lamin A/C depletion.

Treatment with a high dose of etoposide (500 μM) for 24 hours induced an increase of γH2AX

level in wild-type HeLa cells, while a lower dose (50 μM) had no impact at this time point

(**Figure 6G**). In the absence of Lamin A/C, HeLa cells became hyper-sensitive to etoposide

treatment (**Figure 6G**). Thus, the increase in HIV-1 infection observed after Lamin A/C

depletion correlates with an increased sensitivity to DNA damage. Altogether, these results

establish a functional correlation between the effect of SUN protein and endogenous Lamin

A/C on HIV-1 infection and on the cellular response to DNA damage induced by an exogenous

compound.

Elevated SUN proteins do not alter NPC density, passive import or cell stiffness

We next sought to identify the endogenous mechanisms that delineate the effects of elevated

SUN proteins and endogenous Lamin A/C depletion on infection. We characterized biophysical

and structural parameters in SUN-expressing cells. HIV-1 enters the nucleus through the NPC.

We identified NPC using Nup153 on tangential confocal sections of the nuclear envelope by

microscopy (**Figure S2A**). Over-expression of SUN proteins did not alter the density of the

NPC at the nuclear envelope (**Figure S2B**). To determine if the NPC functionality was impaired

by SUN protein over-expression, we measured passive diffusion through the NPC using a

Fluorescence Recovery After Photobleaching (FRAP) assay on ubiquitous GFP. SUN proteins

had no impact on the rate of recovery of nuclear GFP (**Figure S2C, Movie 1**). Lamin A/C

depletion reduces stiffness of the nuclear, resulting in a floppy nucleus (Lammerding et al.,

2004). To determine if SUN proteins expression induced the opposite to match the effects on

infection, we measured stiffness using a microfabricated device that pushes cells through a

constricted space by applying a fixed liquid pressure. While we confirmed that Lamin A/C

depleted cells have reduced stiffness, expression of SUN proteins had no impact on this

parameter (**Figure S2D**).

HIV-1 infection requires movement of the chromatin

Next, we turned our attention to the endogenous state of chromatin. We performed live-imaging

of cells with a DNA stain after SUN expression or Lamin A/C depletion. We visually noticed

that the behavior of the nuclei was different between conditions: SUN1 and SUN2 appeared to

lock the nucleus in place, while nuclei of Lamin A/C-depleted cells appeared highly dynamic

(**Figure 7A, Movies 2–6**). We first asked whether the extent of chromatin movement inside the

nuclei was altered. We isolated movies of single nuclei and performed a registration step to

normalize X-Y positions and angle, therefore suppressing general nuclei displacement and

rotation. We next measured chromatin movement in the registered nuclei by performing a

particle image velocimetry (PIV) analysis. Strikingly, SUN1 and SUN2 over-expression

reduced the displacement of chromatin over time, and this effect was more pronounced with

SUN1, while Lamin A/C depletion had the converse effect (**Figure 7B, S3A**). HeLa cells also

exhibited seemingly random rotation of their nuclei, at various speeds and frequencies. Using

the same dataset, we measured the rotation of the whole nucleus relative to the cytoplasm. We

corrected the translational displacement of nuclei by registration and measured the angle of

rotation over time using a custom-made analysis script (**Movie 7**). SUN1 and SUN2 reduced

the average speed of nuclear rotation and the fraction of time spent rotating above a threshold

of 1° (**Figure 7C, S3B**). The rotation of Lamin A/C-depleted nuclei was visibly higher than

controls, but could not be reliably quantified due to the high levels of chromatin displacement

that hampered the ability to set reference points. Overall, these results indicate that the impact

of SUN and Lamin A/C proteins on HIV-1 infection is associated with the movement of

chromatin within the cells.

Discussion

Our findings reveal that SUN1 and SUN2, though paralogs, have distinct effects on HIV infection. SUN1 overexpression is more efficient at inhibiting HIV-1 than SUN2. Meanwhile, SUN2 shows a preferential antiviral activity against HIV-2. An analysis of the viral step being impacted by the two proteins also reveals a discrepancy between the two: while both SUN1 and SUN2 over-expression reduces the level of integrated HIV-1 DNA, SUN1 also inhibits total viral DNA amount while SUN2 reduces the levels of 2-LTR circles, a hallmark of nuclear entry. We also reveal that SUN1 and SUN2 differ in their response to DNA damage and its impact on HIV infection. SUN1 limits the response to etoposide as measured by the levels γH2AX, while SUN2 enhances it. Strikingly, etoposide largely rescues the antiviral effect of SUN2 over-expression on HIV-1, while SUN1 is resistant to this effect. This result suggests that SUN1 and SUN2 may differ in the ways in which they establish interactions and functions within the nucleus, in line with previously reports showing non-redundant effects of SUN1 and SUN2 (Lei et al., 2009; Liu et al., 2007).

Etoposide treatment also enhances the infection by HIV-1 by two-fold in HeLa cells in the absence of SUN protein over-expression, while HIV-2 is largely unaffected. Such proviral effect of DNA damage has been previously observed in conditions of integrase inhibition (Ebina et al., 2012; Koyama et al., 2013). In contrast, it was previously reported that etoposide treatment inhibits HIV-1 infection in monocyte-derived macrophages (Mlcochova et al., 2018). We speculate that this is explained by the presence of a SAMHD1-dependent block in this cell type induced by etoposide in macrophages, but not in HeLa cells.

Similar to etoposide, ATR inhibition also enhances HIV-1 infection by 2-fold. The lack of requirement for ATR in HIV infection is consistent with prior studies (Ariumi et al., 2005; DeHart et al., 2005). Interestingly, the effect of ATR inhibition requires the presence of the Vpr gene in HIV-1. As a virus-encoded gene, Vpr has be shown to induce an ATR-dependent G2

arrest of the cell cycle (Zimmerman et al., 2006). Using purified and p24-normalized virus

preparations, we made the unexpected observation that the Vpr-deficient virus is actually as

infectious as the wild-type virus stimulated with ATR inhibition. In other words, in this

asynchronous system of single-round infection of HeLa cells, the presence of the Vpr gene

appears to provide a counter-intuitive two-fold reduction in infectivity of the virus, which is

alleviated by ATR inhibition. However, Vpr has been associated with an enhanced expression

for the viral LTR during G2 arrest (Goh et al., 1998). We speculate that in terms of viral

replicative fitness, the reduction in single-round infectivity entailed by Vpr is cancelled out by

this proviral effect of Vpr during G2 arrest. Of note, both SUN1 and SUN2 over-expression

inhibit HIV-1 infection irrespective of ATR inhibition. In contrast, etoposide rescues the

antiviral effect of SUN2 on HIV-1, raising the possibility that ATR itself might play a role in

the rescue of the SUN2 antiviral effect.

Multiple lines of evidence from our work indicate that the structure of the nuclear envelope

impacts HIV infection. The ability of SR-KASH to partially rescue the antiviral effects of SUN

proteins indicates that the LINC complex, which is located at the nuclear envelope, is involved.

Despite the important morphological changes induced by SUN protein expression, we did not

observe any change at the level of gene expression, suggesting that any SUN-mediated effect

on the nucleus and, subsequently, on HIV infection is post-transcriptional. ATR is enriched at

the nuclear envelope during S phase and upon mechanical stretching, two processes that

increase nuclear envelope stress (Kumar et al., 2014). ATR-deficient cells exhibit deformed

nuclei, reminiscent of Lamin A/C depletion or SUN protein overexpression (Kidiyoor et al.,

2020). Vpr over-expression was previously shown to induce herniations of the nuclear envelope

associated with defects in the nuclear lamina (de Noronha et al., 2001). We also find that

endogenous Lamin A/C has an antiviral effect, in agreement with a previous study (Sun et al.,

2018).

We examined several effects of SUN protein over-expression and endogenous Lamin A/C on

nuclear shape, stiffness, NPC distribution and function, and chromatin dynamics. The effects

on HIV-1 infection match the effects of the proteins on chromatin dynamics: decreased HIV-1

infection is associated with a decreased chromatin motility inside the nucleus, and decreased

rotation of the nucleus relative to the cytoplasm. In contrast, HIV-2 infection is more

susceptible to SUN2 than SUN1, and it is not affected by Lamin A/C depletion. Overexpresion

of SUN2 deforms nuclei more than SUN1 but internal chromatin dynamics and nuclear rotation

are less impacted. This strain specificity could be linked to a different dependency on host

factors between HIV-1 and HIV-2 (Braaten and Luban, 2001). SUN and Lamin proteins have

been previously linked to chromatin mobility and nuclear rotation (Ji et al., 2007; Lottersberger

et al., 2015; Oza et al., 2009; Ranade et al., 2019). Interestingly, nuclear rotation is required for

optimal infection by another nuclear-invading virus, HCMV (Procter et al., 2018). This rotation

is required to promote spatial chromatin segregation that favors viral gene expression (Procter

et al., 2018). We propose that HIV-1 infection requires nuclear rotation and chromatin

movements for optimal integration and subsequent viral expression.

Our results highlight the interplay between HIV infection, structural proteins of the nuclear

envelope and the DNA damage response. Nuclear rotation and chromatin dynamics emerge as

potentially important factors that control HIV infection. Future studies will be required to

address the underlying molecular mechanisms, which we anticipate will require the use of

biophysical approaches. It will also be important to examine these mechanisms in the frame of

the diversity of lentiviruses, and its relevance for viral replication and innate immune sensing

mechanisms in primary target cells.

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Figure Legends

Figure 1 Distinct antiviral activities of SUN1 and SUN2 against HIV-1 and HIV-2

(A) Detection of SUN1, SUN2 and actin in MDMs transduced with mTagBFP-2A control, SUN1 or SUN2 lentivectors (representative of n = 3).

(B) Left, viral titers as infectious units (i.u.) per mL based on percentages of GFP$^+$ MDMs 48 hours after infection with serial dilutions of HIV-1 or HIV-2 encoding GFP in Nef and pseudotyped with VSV-G, with or without 2 μM CsA (n = 9 donors, paired RM ANOVA one-way on Log-transformed titers with Sidak post-test, line at mean). Right, ratios of titer fold changes (FC) control over SUN1 (SUN1 FC) or control over SUN2 (SUN2 FC).

(C) Detection of HIV-1 total DNA, 2-LTR circles DNA and integrated DNA by RT-qPCR at 24 hours after infection with HIV-1 or HIV-2 (dilution factor: 0.17) of MDMs transduced with mTagBFP-2A control, SUN1 or SUN2 lentivectors. Reverse transcriptase inhibitors Azidothymidine (AZT; 24 μM) and Nevirapine (NVP; 10 μM) were added during infection when indicated (n=4 donors, paired RM ANOVA one-way with Sidak post-test, line at mean ± SEM).

(D) Detection of SUN1, SUN2 and actin in HeLa cells transduced with mTagBFP-2A control, SUN1 or SUN2 lentivectors.

(E) GFP expression in BFP-positive HeLa cells transduced with mTagBFP-2A control, SUN1 or SUN2 lentivectors, 48 hours after infection with indicated dilutions of HIV-1 and HIV-2 (representative data from one experiment at the indicated dose of virus).

(F) Left, Viral titers based on percentages of GFP$^+$ cells after infection with serial dilutions of virus as in **(E)** (n = 6, paired RM ANOVA one-way on Log-transformed titers, with Dunnet's post-test, line at mean). Right, ratios calculated as in **(B)**.

(G) Percentage of GFP$^+$ in BFP$^+$ HeLa cells transduced with mTagBFP-2A control, SUN1 or

SUN2 lentivectors, 48 hours after infection with serial dilutions of HIV-1 or HIV-1 CA N74D,

with or without treatment with 2 µM of CsA (n = 3 independent experiments).

(H) Viral titers as in (G) (n = 3, paired RM ANOVA one-way on Log-transformed titers with

Sidak's post-test, line at mean).

Ctrl = control, *p < 0.05, ***p < 0.001, ****p < 0.0001; ns, not statistically significant.

Figure 2 Mapping of the strain-specific antiviral activity of SUN proteins

(A) mTagBFP-2A Ctrl, mTagBFP-2A-SUN1 and mTagBFP-2A-SUN2 expressing HeLa cells

were co-cultured at a 1:1 ratio with HeLa cells expressing TagRFP657-2A and infected with

serial dilutions of HIV-1 and HIV-2. Titers were calculated based on percentage of GFP$^+$ cells

48 hours post-infection dilutions within the indicated populations (n=3 independent

experiments, paired RM ANOVA one-way on Log-transformed titers with Sidak's post-test,

line at mean).

(B) Schematic representation of chimeric proteins between full-length SUN1 (red) and SUN2

(blue). Amino-acid residues retained in hybrid proteins are indicated within brackets.

(C) Detection of SUN1, SUN2 and actin in HeLa cells transduced with the indicated mTagBFP-

2A lentivectors. Two antibodies targeting SUN2 that recognize different epitopes within the

protein were used.

(D) Percentage of GFP$^+$ in BFP$^+$ HeLa cells transduced with the indicated mTagBFP-2A

lentivectors, 48 hours after infection with serial dilutions of HIV-1 or HIV-2 (n=3 independent

experiments).

(E) Viral titers based on percentages of GFP$^+$ cells shown in **(D)** (n=3, paired RM ANOVA

one-way with Sidak's post-test, line at mean).

Ctrl = control, *p < 0.05, **p < 0.01, ***p < 0.001, ****p < 0.0001; ns, not statistically significant.

Figure 3 SUN proteins inhibit HIV infection at the nuclear envelope

(A) Representative electron micrograph showing nuclei in control, SUN1 and SUN2 overexpressing HeLa cells (scale: 10, 2 and 5 μm respectively).

(B) Detection of SUN1, SUN2, GFP and actin in HeLa cells transduced with TagRFP657-expressing control, SUN1 or SUN2 lentivectors, combined with control GFP or SR-KASH DN fused to GFP expressing lentivectors. The same lysates were loaded onto two separate membranes, the housekeeping control is shown for both.

(C) Top, percentage of BFP$^+$ within tagRFP657$^+$ HeLa cells 48 hours after infection with serial dilutions of HIV-1 encoding BFP in the place of Nef, pseudotyped with VSV-G. Bottom, viral titers based on percentages of BFP$^+$ cells (n=3, paired RM ANOVA one-way on Log-transformed titers, with Sidak's post-test, line at mean ± SEM).

Ctrl = control, *p < 0.05, **p < 0.01, ***p < 0.001; ns, not statistically significant.

Figure 4 Interplay between HIV-1 infection, SUN protein and the DNA damage response

(A) Viability and γH2AX intracellular staining in HeLa cells transduced with mTagBFP-2A control, SUN1 or SUN2 lentivector, 24 hours after treatment with 500 μM of etoposide or 1% DMSO as control (representative experiment from n = 3).

(B) Quantification of γH2AX$^+$ HeLa cells treated as in **(A)** (n=4, paired RM ANOVA one-way with Sidak's post-test, line at mean).

(C) Quantification of γH2AX$^+$ HeLa cells 24 hours after a 4-hour treatment with 5 μM, 50 μM etoposide or corresponding DMSO control. 50 μM of Q-VD-Oph were present throughout the experiment (n=3, paired RM ANOVA one-way with Sidak's post-test, line at mean ± SEM).

(D) Top, percentage of GFP$^+$ HeLa cells 48 hours after infection with two dilutions of HIV-1 or HIV-2, treated as in **(C)**. Cells were treated and infected simultaneously, the drugs and the

virus were washed out at 4 hours post-treatment/infection. 50 μM of Q-VD-Oph were

maintained throughout the experiment. Bottom, viral titers based on percentages of GFP$^+$ cells

(n=3, paired RM ANOVA one-way with Sidak's post-test, line at mean).

(E) Quantification of γH2AX$^+$ HeLa cells, transduced with mTagBFP-2A control, SUN1 or

SUN2 lentivectors, 4 hours after treatment with 50 μM of etoposide or corresponding DMSO

control (n=3, paired RM ANOVA one-way with Sidak's post-test, line at mean ± SEM).

(F) Left, percentage of GFP$^+$ cells in BFP$^+$ HeLa cells expressing control, SUN1, SUN2

lentivectors and treated as in **(E)**, 48 hours after infection with purified HIV-1 env-nef-,

expressing GFP in the place of Nef and pseudotyped with VSV-G. Right, GFP+ percentages at

viral dilution 0.02 (n=3, experimental pairs are indicated; RM ANOVA two-way test,

uncorrected Fischer' LSD). 50 μM of Q-VD-Oph were maintained throughout the experiment.

Ctrl = control, hpt = hours post treatment, $^*p < 0.05$, $^{**}p < 0.01$, $^{***}p < 0.001$, $^{****}p < 0.0001$; ns,

not statistically significant.

Figure 5 DNA damage induction by ATR inhibition stimulates HIV-1 infection in a Vpr-

dependent manner

(A) Top, γH2AX intracellular staining in mTagBFP-2A control HeLa cell line, 24 hours after

treatment with either 1 μM of AZD6738 or 0.01% DMSO (representative experiment). Bottom,

quantification of specific γH2AX staining as geometric mean fluorescence intensity (GeoMFI)

of the antibody signal divided by the GeoMFI of the isotype control (n=4, paired t-test, $^*p <$

0.05, line at mean ± SEM).

(B) Viral titers based on percentages of GFP$^+$ cells, within BFP$^+$ HeLa cells expressing Ctrl,

SUN1 or SUN2 lentivector, with or without treatment with 1 μM of AZ6738, 48 hours after

infection with serial dilutions of purified, p24-normalized, HIV-1 env-nef- or HIV-1 env-nef-

vpr- encoding GFP in the place of Nef, pseudotyped with VSV-G (n=3, paired RM ANOVA

one-way with Sidak's post-test, line at mean ± SEM).

Ctrl = control, hpt = hours post treatment, *p < 0.05, ***p < 0.001, ns, not statistically significant.

Figure 6 Interplay between HIV-1 infection, Lamin A/C protein and the DNA damage

response

(A) Detection of SUN1, SUN2, Lamin A/C and actin in HeLa cells transduced with mTagBFP-

2A control, SUN1 or SUN2 lentivectors, negative control LacZ (shLACZ) or lamin A/C

(shLMNA) targeting shRNA-encoding lentivectors.

(B) Nuclei of HeLa cells lines as in (A) visualized on fixed cells using SiR-DNA dye. Images

show signal from an individual, central confocal plane, scale bar is at 10 μm.

(C) Solidity index of nuclei as in **(B)**. Legend indicates total number of nuclei analyzed per cell

line (representative of n=2 experiments, one on fixed cells and one with live imaging). Unpaired

ANOVA one-way with Sidak's, line at median.

(D) Viral titers based on percentages of GFP+ HeLa cells lines from **(A)** after infection with

serial dilutions of HIV-1 and HIV-2 (n=3, paired RM ANOVA one-way with Sidak's post-test,

line at mean).

(E) Detection of SUN1, SUN2, Lamin A/C, Lamin B2 and actin in HeLa cells co-transduced

with mTagBFP-2A control, SUN1 or SUN2 lentivectors and with LacZ, lamin A/C or lamin

B2 (shLMNB2) targeting shRNA-encoding lentivectors.

(F) Viral titers based on percentages of GFP+ HeLa cells as shown in **(E)** after infection with

serial dilutions of HIV-1 and HIV-2 (n=3, paired RM ANOVA one-way with Sidak's post-test,

line at mean).

(G) Quantification of γH2AX$^+$ HeLa cells transduced with either a LacZ or lamin A/C targeting shRNA lentivector, 24 hours after treatment with indicated doses of etoposide or DMSO control (n=3, line at mean ± SEM).

Ctrl = control, hpt = hours post treatment, $^*p < 0.05$, $^{**}p < 0.001$, $^{***}p < 0.001$, $^{****}p < 0.0001$; ns, not statistically significant.

Figure 7 SUN protein overexpression and endogenous Lamin A/C limit movements of the chromatin

(A) Particle Image Velocimetry (PIV) of DNA within nuclei of HeLa cells transduced with mTagBFP-2A control, SUN1 or SUN2 lentivectors, negative control LacZ or lamin A/C targeting shRNA-encoding lentivectors. PIV is shown for individual representative nuclei of each cell line, top panels show overall flow and bottom panels show individual vectorial displacements between two consecutive frames corresponding to two minutes of imaging. Scale bar corresponds to 5 μm. Reference color scale for pixel displacement per time frame is shown on left.

(B) Quantification of DNA displacement as μm/min from images as in **(A)**. Results are shown for one experiment from n = 2. Left, unpaired ANOVA one-way with Sidak's post-test, line at mean. Right, unpaired student t-test, line at mean.

(C) Quantification of nuclear rotation speed as degrees/minute (top) and rotation duration as fraction of total time spent rotating over a threshold of 1° (bottom) in HeLa cells transduced with mTagBFP-2A control, SUN1 or SUN2 lentivectors and imaged as in **(A)**. Results are shown for one experiment from n = 2. Unpaired ANOVA one-way with Sidak's (top) or Turkey's (bottom) post-test, line at mean.

Ctrl = control, $^*p < 0.05$, $^{**}p < 0.01$, $^{****}p < 0.0001$; ns, not statistically significant.

Supplemental Material

Figure S1 HIV-1 DNA quantification and gene expression analysis of SUN-overexpressing cells

(A) Detection of HIV-1 total DNA, 2-LTR circles DNA and integrated DNA by RT-qPCR at 24 hours after infection (dilution factor: 0.1) of HeLa cells transduced with mTagBFP-2A control, SUN1 or SUN2 lentivectors. AZT (24 μM) was added during infection when indicated (n=3, paired RM ANOVA one-way with Turkey's post-test, line at mean ± SEM).

(B) Differential gene expression in SUN1 (Left) and SUN2 (Right) overexpressing cells over control cells (FC, fold change; FDR, false discovery rate). Over-expressed SUN2 was codon-optimized, rendering it sub-optimal for probe-based detection.

Ctrl = control, $^*p < 0.05$, $^{**}p < 0.001$, $^{***}p < 0.001$; ns, not statistically significant.

Figure S2 Analysis of NPC density, passive nuclear import and cellular stiffness of SUN-overexpressing cells

(A) Left, confocal imaging of NUP153 staining in HeLa cells. Right, blow-up or region of interest and detection of individual of NPC (red) using "Find Maxima" function. A representative nucleus of cells overexpressing mTagBFP-2A-SUN2 is shown.

(B) Quantification of NPC density per $μm^2$ in nuclei from HeLa cells transduced with mTagBFP-2A control, SUN1 or SUN2 lentivectors, imaged and analyzed as in **(A)** (total number of nuclei analyzed per cell line are indicted, n=1 experiment; un-paired ANOVA one-way with Sidak's post-test, line at mean).

(C) Passive diffusion from the cytoplasm to the nucleus measured by FRAP, in HeLa cells transduced with mTagBFP-2A control, SUN1 or SUN2 lentivectors and a lentivector encoding GFP. Top, representative layout of a photobleached control HeLa cell: imaging starts at t = 0 after high intensity laser exposure and ends at t = 80 seconds, when fluorescence in the nucleus

has been recovered (scale bar: 5 μm). Bottom left: GFP intensity recovery over time (s). For each individual cell, the background intensity was subtracted and intensity was normalized to 0 at t0 after photobleaching while the max intensity reached during the course of each measurement was set to 1. Curves show mean and standard deviation per time point across indicated number of cells per condition. Bottom right, hillslopes for each cell were calculated via non-linear regression fit (total number of nuclei analyzed per cell line are indicated, n=1 experiment; un-paired ANOVA one-way with Dunnett's post-test, line at mean ± SEM).

(D) Measurement of nuclear rigidity. Left, representative image showing tagBFP-2A-Ctrl HeLa cells stained with SiR-DNA and going through microchannels under externally-applied pressure. The green arrow indicates the elongation of SiR-DNA staining within the channel, which is measured over time as a readout for nuclear rigidity. Right, quantification of nuclear rigidity across HeLa cell lines described in **(6A)** over time (the number of nuclei measured per cell line is indicated within brackets, n = 3 independent experiments).

Ctrl = control, ns, not statistically significant.

Figure S3 SUN protein over-expression and endogenous Lamin A/C limit movements of the chromatin, second experiment.

(A) Quantification of DNA displacement as μm/min from images as in Figure 7B, second experiment. Top, unpaired ANOVA one-way with Sidak's post-test, line at mean. Bottom, unpaired student t-test, line at mean.

(B) Quantification of nuclear rotation speed as degrees/minute (top) and rotation duration as fraction of total time (bottom) spent rotating over a threshold of 1°, as in Figure 7C, second experiment. Unpaired ANOVA one-way with Sidak's (top) or Turkey's (bottom) post-test, line at mean.

Ctrl = control, $^*p < 0.05$, $^*p < 0.01$ $^{***}p < 0.001$, $^{****}p < 0.0001$; ns, not statistically significant.

Movie 1 Passive diffusion from the cytoplasm to the nucleus measured by FRAP.

Representative movie of a HeLa cell overexpressing mTagBFP-2A-Ctrl and ubiquitous GFP lentivectors. Immediately prior to imaging, high intensity 488 nm laser was directed to a small region within the nucleus to bleach the GFP signal within this compartment. Imaging of the whole cell starts at $t = 0$ immediately after bleaching. Recovery of the GFP signal in the nucleus is observed as GFP diffuses back in from the cytoplasm until equilibrium is obtained. One frame was taken every 2 seconds.

Movies 2 Quantification of chromatin dynamics in mTagBFP-2A-overexpressing control HeLa cells.

Chromatin dynamics assessed by PIV. The analysis was performed on live confocal imaging of DNA staining using SiR-DNA. An image was taken every 2 minutes. The left panel shows registration of the object (one nucleus) across 10 time frames while the right panel shows the flow of pixel clusters (interrogation windows) within the object, across consecutive time frames. Warmer colors indicate high levels of displacement while cold colors indicate more static regions. Scale bar corresponds to 5 μm.

Movie 3 Quantification of chromatin dynamics in mTagBFP-2A-SUN1-overexpressing HeLa cells.

Analysis was performed as for Movie 2.

Movie 4 Quantification of chromatin dynamics in mTagBFP-2A-SUN2-overexpressing HeLa cells.

Analysis was performed as for Movie 2.

Movie 5 Quantification of chromatin dynamics in HeLa cells expressing a control shRNA

against LacZ.

Analysis was performed as for Movie 2.

Movie 6 Quantification of chromatin dynamics in HeLa cells expressing a shRNA against

Lamin A/C.

Analysis was performed as for Movie 2.

Movie 7 Measurement of nuclear rotation in a HeLa cell.

The analysis was performed on live confocal imaging of DNA staining using SiR-DNA. An

image was taken every 2 minutes, for a total duration of 60 minutes. The angle was measured

in reference to an image containing 2 fixed points (one at the center and one on the edge of the

nucleus). In this example, HeLa overexpressing mTagBFP-2A control are shown.

Materials and methods

<u>Constructs</u>

The plasmid constructs for lentiviral expression and HIV infection used in this study are listed

in **Table 1**. pTRIP-SFFV-tagBFP-2A-SUN1 Dharmacon was generated by overlapping PCR

cloning from commercially bought cDNA (MGC cDNA cloneID: 40148817) into pTRIP-

SFFV-tagBFP-2A (Cerboni et al., 2017). pTRIP-SFFV-tagBFP-2A-ntSUN2 was generated by

overlapping PCR mutagenesis from pLX304-SUN2 (Lahaye et al., 2016) into pTRIP-SFFV-

tagBFP-2A with concomitant introduction of silent mutations that are not targeted by SUN2

shRNA 4 and 5 (respectively GCCTATTCAGACGTTTCACTTT to

ACCGATCCAAACTTTCCATTTC and GAGGAAATCCAGCAACATGAAG to

ACGCAAGAGTTCTAATATGAAA). pTRIP-SFFV-tagBFP-2A-SUN1 Dharmacon (1-298)-

ntSUN2 (220-717) and pTRIP-SFFV-tagBFP-2A-ntSUN2 (1-219)-SUN1 Dharmacon (299-

785) were generated by overlapping PCR cloning from the full-length constructs. pTRIP-

SFFV-tagRFP657-2A-SUN1 and pTRIP-SFFV-tagRFP657-2A-ntSUN2 were generated via

restriction enzyme digestion from the tagBFP expressing vectors and ligation into pTRIP-

SFFV-TagRFP657-2A backbone. HIV-GFP env-nef- was generated by PCR-mediated

insertion of the Vpr+Vif+Vpu+ cassette from NL4-3 into HIV-GFP (Manel et al., 2010). HIV-

GFP env-nef-vpr- was generated by overlapping PCR mutagenesis from HIV-GFP env-nef-,

introducing a frameshift mutation within *vpr,* after the codon corresponding to amino-acid I63

(gaattc to gaaTTAAttc). HIV-mTagBFP2 and HIV-2 ROD9 ΔenvΔnef mTagBFP2+ were

obtained via overlapping PCR mutagenesis, replacing GFP with the mTagBFP from pTRIP-

SFFV-mTagBFP-2A.

<u>Cells</u>

GHOST (GHOST X4R5), 293FT and HeLa cells were cultured in DMEM with Glutamax, 10%

fetal bovine serum (FBS) (Corning), and penicillin-streptomycin (Gibco). Human peripheral

blood mononuclear cells (PBMCs) were isolated from buffy coats from normal human donors

(approved by the Institut National de la Santé et de la Recherche Médicale ethics committee)

using Ficoll-Paque PLUS (GE). CD14$^+$ cells were isolated by a positive selection with anti-

human CD14 magnetic beads (Miltenyi) from PBMCs. To obtain macrophages (MDMs),

CD14$^+$ cells were cultured in RPMI with Glutamax, 5% FBS (Eurobio), 5% human serum

(Sigma), Penicillin-Streptomycin, Gentamicin (50 μg/ml, GIBCO) and HEPES (GIBCO) in the

presence of recombinant human M-CSF (Miltenyi) at 50 ng/ml. Fresh media was added at day

5 or 6, and cells were treated/infected at day 9, after detachment via incubation with StemPro

Accutase Cell Dissociation Reagent (Gibco) for 30 minutes at 37°C. Drug treatments performed

on cultured cells are listed in **Table 2**.

<u>Virus production</u>

Viral particles were produced by transfection of 293FT cells in 6-well plates with 3 μg DNA

and 8 μl TransIT-293 Transfection Reagent (Mirus Bio) per well. For VSV-G pseudotyped

SIVmac virus-like particles (VLPs), 0.4 μg CMV-VSVG and 2.6 μg pSIV3$^+$ was used. For

VSV-G pseudotyped HIV-1 and HIV-2 GFP or BFP-reporter viruses, 0.4 μg CMV-VSVG and

2.6 μg HIV DNA was used. For over-expression or sh-RNA mediated knock-down, 0.4 μg

CMV-VSVG, 1 μg psPAX2 and 1.6 μg of lentivector of interest were combined. One day after

transfection, media was removed, cells were washed once, and 3 ml per well of RPMI medium

with Glutamax, 10% FBS (Gibco), PenStrep (Gibco), 50μg/ml Gentamicin (Gibco) and 0.01 M

HEPES (Gibco) were added. Viral supernatants were harvested 1 day later, filtered using

0.45 μm pore filters, used fresh or aliquoted and frozen at −80°C. When required, the virus was

purified and concentrated on a 20% sucrose cushion in PBS in Ultra Clear Centrifuge tubes

(Beckman Coulter), via ultracentrifugation at 4°C at 31,000 x g in a SW32Ti swinging bucket

rotor (Beckman Coulter). Viral pellets were then resuspended in complete medium at a 100-

fold concentration compared to crude. Viral titers were measured on GHOST cells (titration as

previously described (Manel et al., 2010) or using HIV-1 p24 ELISA (XpressBio). ELISA

absorbance acquisitions were acquired on a FLUOstar OPTIMA (BMG Labtech) and data were

analyzed and exported to Excel with MARS Data Analysis Software (BMG Labtech).

<u>Cell Transduction for protein overexpression or knockdown</u>

HeLa cells were counted and seeded in 6-well plates on the day prior to transduction. Purified

virus was added at a 2:1 volume ratio on medium containing protamine at a final concentration

of 1 µg/ml. CD14$^+$ monocytes were seeded in 10-cm dishes in the presence of 50 ng/ml M-CSF

to induce differentiation into macrophages and transduced with purified SIVmac VLPs and

lentiviruses carrying vector of interest, mixed at a 1:1 ratio. Human serum was added at day 1

post transduction. Transductions of monocytes was performed in the presence of protamine at

a final concentration of 1 µg/ml. HeLa cells were washed once in PBS and passaged at 48 hours

post transduction with or without 2 µg/ml of puromycin. For MDMs, medium was replaced at

day 5-6 post transduction. Over-expression was assessed by quantification of fluorescent

reporter signal via flow cytometry on a BD FACSVerse flow cytometer. Both over-expression

and protein knock-down were confirmed by Western Blotting at day of experiment.

<u>Cell infection</u>

HeLa, GHOST and MDMs (day 8-9 post transduction) were seeded and infected in the presence

of 1 µg/ml of protamine with serial dilutions of frozen viral stocks in a BSL-3 laboratory. Virus

was removed at 48 hours post-infection, cells were washed, harvested, stained for viability

using Fixable Viability Dye eFluor 780 in PBS where required, fixed in 1% paraformaldehyde

(PFA; Electron Microscopy Sciences) and analyzed for GFP or BFP positivity via flow

cytometry on a BD FACSVerse flow cytometer. Viral titers were calculated based on seeded

cell number and the percentages of infected cells, within the linear range of infection.

<u>HIV DNA quantification</u>

HeLa cells and MDMs were infected as described, with the addition of infected wells treated

with RT inhibitors as negative control. For this purpose, either 24 µM of AZT (Sigma) or 10

µM of NVP (Sigma) were used. After 24 hours, cells were washed in PBS and harvested. Total

DNA was extracted from cell pellets using NucleoSpin Tissue (Macherey-Nagel) kit, as per

manufacturer's protocol. Real-time PCR analysis was performed as previously described

(Lahaye et al., 2013). Each sample was measured in triplicate for all primers. For beta-globin,

primers were bglobin-f and bglobin-r. Cycling conditions were 1x 95°C for 5'; 35x 95°C for

10'', 65°C for 20'' (50°C for beta-globin) and 72°C for 30''. Relative concentrations of total

DNA (Late RT), 2-LTR circles and integrated viral DNA were calculated relative to beta-globin

using the ΔCt method. The primers used are listed in **Table 3**.

<u>Western Blotting</u>

0.5 to 1 million cells were lysed in 100 µL of RIPA buffer (50mM Tris HCl, 150mM NaCl,

0.1% SDS, 0.5% DOC, 1% NP-40, Protease inhibitor (Roche; 1187358001)). Lysis was

performed on ice for 30'. Lysates were cleared by centrifugation at 8000 g for 8 minutes at 4°C,

20 µl of Laemmli 6x (12% SDS, 30% Glycerol, 0.375M Tris-HCl pH 6.8, 30% 2-

mercaptoehtanol, 1% bromophenol blue) was added and samples were boiled at 95°C for 15'.

Cellular protein lysates were resolved on Criterion or 4%–20% Bio-Rad precast SDS-PAGE

gels and transferred to PVDF membranes (Bio-Rad). Membranes were saturated and proteins

were blotted with antibodies in 5% non-fat dry milk, PBS 0.1% Tween buffer. ECL signal

generated via Clarity Western ECL substrate (Bio-Rad) was recorded on the ChemiDoc-XRS

or ChemiDoc Touch Bio-Rad Imager. Data was analyzed and quantified with the Image Lab

software (Bio-Rad). The antibodies used in this study are listed in **Table 4**.

<u>Live Confocal Imaging</u>

For live imaging, HeLa cells were plated either in a glass bottom FuoroDish (World Precision

Instruments) or in a glass-bottom Cellview Cell Culture Dish with 4 compartments (Greiner

Bio-One), on the day prior to experiments. One hour before imaging, cells were incubated with

1 μM of SiR-DNA (Tebu Bio), directly in the culture medium, at 37°C. Images of cells were

acquired with a Leica DmI8 inverted microscope equipped with an SP8 confocal unit using a

20x dry objective (NA=0.75, pixel size was fixed to 0.284 μm). Imaging was performed in an

on-stage incubator chamber at 37°C, with 5% CO_2. An image per condition was taken every 2

minutes, unless specified otherwise.

Image analysis was performed using Fiji software (Schindelin et al., 2012). For chromatin

dynamics analysis, a homemade macro was first used to do segmentation of each nucleus on

the movie and identify them using the 3D object counter. Particle Image Velocimetry (PIV)

analysis was then performed on SiR-DNA staining using the PIV plug-in (Tseng et al., 2012).

PIV is a basic optic flow analysis, that divides each image of a stack in small clusters of pixels

(interrogation windows) and measures the displacement of each cluster between pairs of

consecutive frames. The cross-correlation then generates a pattern of "movements" within the

nucleus that are color-coded based on the amplitude of the vector corresponding to the

displacement of each cluster. An in-house script was used to first align each individual nucleus,

then measure and average SiR-DNA displacements over the ten first time points. Red shades

indicate higher amplitudes of displacement while violets correspond to quasi-immobile

clusters. For nuclear rotation analysis, a macro was used to measure rotation angles across the

first 30 frames. Briefly, individual nuclei were first aligned using a translation transformation

of the MultiStackReg plug-in (Brad Busse, Stanford), then they were aligned using the rotation

transformation and the transformation was applied to a reference image containing 2 fixed

points (one at the center and one on the edge) to measure the rotation. A threshold of 1

degree/minute was used to define rotating nuclei. The percentage of rotation time and the

average velocity was then computed.

<u>Confocal Immunofluorescence Imaging</u>

For immunofluorescence, HeLa cells were grown overnight onto 12 mm glass coverslips

(Thermo Scientific) placed in 6-well plates. Cells were fixed with 4% PFA for 20 minutes at

room temperature. Coverslips were washed multiple times with PBS and quenched with 0.1M

Glycine in PBS(Life Technologies) for 10 minutes at room temperature. Coverslips were then

blocked with PBS, 0.2% (w/v) BSA (Euromedex), 0.05% (w/v) Saponin from quillaja bark

(SIGMA) for 30 minutes at room temperature. Cells were stained overnight with anti-NUP153

antibody at 2 μg/mL (1:50 dilution) or with Normal Rabbit IgG Isotype Control at

corresponding concentration of the primary antibody, in PBS, 0.2% (w/v) BSA, 0.05% (w/v)

Saponin + 10% goat serum (Sigma), at 4°C in a humidified chamber. The following day, cells

were washed multiple times and incubated with the secondary antibody Alexa Fluor 546 goat

anti-rabbit IgG (H+L) (Invitrogen; 1:200 dilution in PBS-BSA-Saponin) in the presence of 1

μM of SiR-DNA for 2 hours in the dark, at room temperature. Coverslips were washed multiple

times in PBS-BSA-Saponin and finally rinsed once in distilled water. Coverslips were mounted

onto glass slides using Fluoromount G (eBioscience) mounting medium. The slides were finally

dried at 37°C for 1h and stored at 4°C. Cells were imaged with a Leica DmI8 inverted

microscope equipped with an SP8 confocal unit using an oil immersion 63x objective (NA=1.4)

with applied Type F Immersion Liquid (Leica).

Fluorescence Recovery After Photobleaching

Cells were seeded at 2.5 x 10^5 cells/dish in a glass bottom FuoroDish (World Precision

Instruments) on the day prior to the experiment. Cells were imaged with a Leica DmI8 inverted

microscope equipped with an SP8 confocal unit using a 20x dry objective (NA=0.75). Imaging

was performed in an on-stage incubator chamber at 37°C, with 5% CO_2. Two independent

modules were used in a sequential manner: one for bleaching, one for imaging the signal

recovery. During the application of the bleaching module, the 488 laser was focused at an

intensity of 5% and with a gain of 0.1% on to an area within the nucleus of each cell at maximum

zoom for 20 seconds. Immediately afterwards, the first sequence was manually cancelled, the

resolution was optimized, imaging area was restored to the whole cell for the second sequence.

The laser power was set for optimal imaging level and images of the whole cell were acquired

for 3 min circa at the rate of one image every 2.2 seconds.

Intracellular staining for flow cytometry

Cell surface staining was performed in PBS, 1% BSA (Euromedex), 1mM EDTA (GIBCO),

0.01% NaN3 (AMRESCO) (FACS Buffer) at 4°C. Viability staining (Live-Dead) with Fixable

Viability Dye eFluor 780 was performed in PBS at 4°C. Cells were resuspended in FACS

Buffer prior to final acquisition. Intracellular staining of γH2AX was performed using the

FOXP3/Transcription Factor Staining Buffer Set (eBioscience) as per manufacturer's protocol.

Cells were resuspended in FACS Buffer prior to final acquisition. All flow cytometry

acquisitions were performed on the FACSVerse (BD) using the FACSSuite software (BD) and

analyzed on FlowJo v10. The antibodies used are listed in **Table 4**.

Electron Microscopy

Cells were seeded at 5 x 10^4 cells/well in a 24w plate onto sterile 12 mm glass coverslips

(Thermo Scientific) and left to adhere overnight. The following morning, cells were washed in

PBS and were fixed using 2% glutaraldehyde in 0.1 M cacoldylate buffer, pH 7.4 for 1h, post

fixed for 1h with 2% buffered osmium tetroxide, dehydrated in a graded series of ethanol

solution, and then embedded in epoxy resin. Images were acquired with a digital camera

Quemesa (SIS) mounted on a Tecnai Spirit transmission electron microscope (FEI Company)

operated at 80kV.

<u>Micropipette aspiration microscopy</u>

Prior to harvest, HeLa cell lines were incubated with 1µM SiR-DNA dye from Tebu Bio for

1h30 at 37°C in cell culture medium. Cells were washed, harvested and resuspended at a

concentration of $5x10^6$ cells/mL in sterile 3% BSA in PBS-0.2% FBS. Cells were subjected to

the experimental conditions as described (Davidson et al., 2019).

<u>Microarray Gene Expression (Affymetrix)</u>

Total RNA was extracted from 10^6 HeLa cells using NucleoSpin RNA and adjusted to 50

ng/µL. A WT PLUS amplification and labeling protocol was conducted with 100 ng of total

RNA. Samples passed the quality control with a high score. The Affymetrix analysis was

performed by the NGS platform at Institut Curie using the Human Gene 2.0 ST chip. Human

Gene 2.0ST array were scanned using a Genechip 7G scanner, according to the supplier's

protocol. Micro-array analyses were processed with R using packages from Bioconductor. The

quality control was performed using ArrayQualityMetrics package without detecting any

outlier among the experiment. Data was normalized using the Robust Multi-Array Average

algorithm from the Oligo package. Annotation of the probes was done using the hugene20

annotation data (chip hugene20sttranscriptcluster) from Bioconductor. Differential gene-

expression analysis was performed with Limma. The accession number for the raw data files is

NCBI GEO: GSE162019.

<u>Statistical Analysis</u>

Statistical analyses were performed in Prism 7 or 8 (GraphPad Software) as indicated in the

figure legends.

Supplementary Tables

Table 1: Plasmids used in this study

Plasmid Name	Purpose	Insert/ Target/ Components	Reporter / Selection	Source or Identifier
pTRIP-SFFV-tagBFP-2A	Overexpression	/	BFP	(Cerboni et al., 2017)
pTRIP-SFFV-TagRFP657-2A	Overexpression	/	RFP657	This study
pTRIP-SFFV-EGFP	Overexpression	/	GFP	(Lahaye et al., 2016)
pTRIP-CMV-EGFP-2A	Overexpression	/	GFP	
pTRIP-SFFV-tagBFP-2A-SUN1	Overexpression	SUN1	BFP	This study (MGC cDNA cloneID: 40148817)
pTRIP-SFFV-tagBFP-2A-NtSUN2	Overexpression	SUN2	BFP	This study
pTRIP-SFFV-tagBFP-2A-SUN1 Dharmacon (1-298)-ntSUN2 (220-717)	Overexpression	SUN1-SUN2	BFP	This study

pTRIP-SFFV-tagBFP-2A-NtSUN2 (1-219)-SUN1 Dharmacon (299-785)	Overexpression	SUN2-SUN1	BFP	This study
pTRIP-SFFV-TagRFP657-2A-SUN1 Dharmacon	Overexpression	SUN1	RFP657	This study (MGC cDNA cloneID: 40148817
pTRIP-SFFV-TagRFP657-2A-ntSUN2	Overexpression	SUN2	RFP657	This Study
pTRIP-SFFV-EGFP-SR-KASH	Overexpression	SR-KASH	GFP	This study
pLKO1puro-shLACZ shRNA sequence: GCGATCGTAATCACCCGAGTG	Knock-down	LacZ	Puromycin	pLKO.1 clone ID TRCN0000072229
pLKO.1-Puro-LMNA sh2 shRNA sequence: GAAGCAACTTCAGGATGAGAT	Knock-down	Lamin A/C	Puromycin	pLKO.1 clone ID TRCN0000061835
pLKO.1-Puro-LMNB2 sh5 shRNA sequence:	Knock-down	Lamin B2	Puromycin	pLKO.1 clone ID TRCN0000072422

CTACAAGTTCACGCC CAAGTA				
pCMV-VSVG	Expression	VSV-G	/	(Manel et al., 2010)
psPAX2	Packaging vector	/	/	(Manel et al., 2010)
HIVGFP (NL4-3 strain)	Infection	Vif-, Vpr-, Vpu-, Env-, Nef-	GFP in Nef	(Manel et al., 2010)
HIVGFP N74D	Infection	Vif-, Vpr-, Vpu-, Env-, Nef-, CA mutation N74D	GFP in Nef	(Lahaye et al., 2016)
HIVGFP env-nef-	Infection	Vif+, Vpr+, Vpu+, Env-, Nef-	GFP in Nef	This study
HIVGFP env- nef- vpr-	Infection	Vif+, Vpr-, Vpu+, Env-, Nef-	GFP in Nef	This study
HIV-mTagBFP2 (NL4-3 strain)	Infection	Vif-, Vpr-, Vpu-, Env-, Nef-	BFP in Nef	This study

HIV-2 ROD9 ΔenvΔnef mTagBFP2+	Infection	Vif+, Vpr+, Vpx+, Env-, Nef-	BFP in Nef	This study
HIV-2 ROD9 ΔenvΔnef GFP	Infection	Vif+, Vpr+, Vpx+, Env-, Nef-	GFP in Nef	(Manel et al., 2010)
pSIV3+	Helper plasmid		/	(Mangeot et al., 2000)

827   Table 2: Drugs used in cell culture in this study

Name	Description	Cat. Reference	Company	Final Concentration
Cyclosporin A	Inhibits CypA-CA interaction	S2286	Selleckchem	2 μM
AZT	Reverse transcriptase inhibitor	A2169	Sigma	24 μM
NVP	Reverse transcriptase inhibitor	SML0097	Sigma	10 μM
Etoposide	Topoisomerase II inhibitor	E1383	Sigma	5, 50 or 500 μM
Q-VD-Oph	Pan-caspase inhibitor	S7311	Selleckchem	50 μM
AZD6738	ATR inhibitor	S7693	Selleckchem	1 μM

DMSO	Diluent	BDH1115	VWR Chemicals	adjusted

830 Table 3: Primers used for HIV DNA species Real Time Quantitiative PCR

Strain	Amplification	Primer name	Sequence	Annealing
Human	Beta-globin	bglobin-f	CCCTTGGACCCAGAGGTTCT	50°C
Human	Beta-globin	bglobin-r	CGAGCACTTTCTTGCCATGA	50°C
HIV-1	Total DNA (Late RT)	hiv1-3'U3-fwd	GCATGGAATGGATGACCCTGAGA	65°C
HIV-1	Total DNA (Late RT)	hiv1-psi-rev2	CGTCGAGAGATCTCCTCT GGCTTTA	65°C
HIV-1	2-LTR circles	Junct4 -fwd	CAGTGTGGAAAATCTCTA GCAGTACTG	65°C
HIV-1	2-LTR circles	hiv1-psi-rev2	CGTCGAGAGATCTCCTCT GGCTTTA	65°C
HIV-1	Integrated DNA round 1	alu1	GCCTCCCAAAGTGCT GGGATTACAG	65°C
HIV-1	Integrated DNA round 1	hiv1-psi-rev2	CGTCGAGAGATCTCCTCT GGCTTTA	65°C

HIV-1	Integrated DNA round 2	hiv1-f2	CTGGGAGCTCTCTGGCTAACTA	65°C
HIV-1	Integrated DNA round 2	hiv1-r2	AACAGACGGGCACACTACTT	65°C
HIV-2	Total DNA (Late RT)	hiv2-3'U3-fwd	GAAGGGATGTTTT ACCATTTAGTTA	65°C
HIV-2	Total DNA (Late RT)	hiv2-psi-rev	GTTCCAAGACTTCTCAGTCTTCTT C	65°C
HIV-2	2-LTR circles	hiv2-R-fwd	GTTCTCTCCAGCACTAGCAGGTA	65°C
HIV-2	2-LTR circles	hiv2-3'U3-rev	TAACTAAATGGTA AAACATCCCTTC	65°C
HIV-2	Integrated DNA round 1	alu1	GCCTCCCAAAGTGCT GGGATTACAG	65°C
HIV-2	Integrated DNA round 1	hiv2-r1	AAGGGTCCTAACAGACCAGGGTC T	65°C
HIV-2	Integrated DNA round 2	hiv2-f2	GCAGGTAGAGCCTGGGTGTTC	65°C
HIV-2	Integrated DNA round 2	hiv2-r2	CAGGCGGCGACTAGGAGAGAT	65°C

833   Table 4: Antibodies used in this study for Western Blot, Confocal Imaging and Flow

834   Cytometry

Antibody target	Cat. Reference	Company	Application
Actin	MAB1501 Clone C4	Sigma	WB (1:5000)
Vinculin	V9264	Sigma	WB (1:5000)
SUN1	ab124770	Abcam	WB (1:1000)
SUN2	HPA001209	Atlas antibodies	WB (1:1000)
SUN2	ABT272	Millipore	WB (1:1000)
Lamin A/C	SAB4200236	Sigma	WB (1:1000)
Lamin B2	ab8983 clone LN43	Abcam	WB (1:1000)
NUP153	HPA027896	Sigma	IF (1:50)
SiR-DNA staining	SC007	Tebu Bio	Live imaging (1μM)
H2AX p-S139	562377 Clone N1-431	BD	Coupled to PE; FACS (1:100)
Mouse IgG1 κ **isotype control**	554680 Clone MOPC-21	BD	Coupled to PE; FACS (1:100)
Rabbit-IgG (H+L)	A-11010	Invitrogen	Alexa Fluor 546 for IF (1:200)
Rabbit-IgG	7074S	Ozyme	Conjugated to HRP for WB (1:10000)
Mouse IgG	7076S	Ozyme	Conjugated to HRP for WB (1:10000)

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Figure 1

Figure 2

Figure 3

Figure 4

Figure 5

A

Ctrl HeLa

B

Figure 6

Figure 7

A

Ctrl   SUN1   SUN2   shLacZ   shLMNA

Piexl displacement / time frame

B

Avergae displacement (μm/min)

0.5
0.4
0.3
0.2
0.1
0.0

****
*

Ctrl n = 25   SUN1 n = 39   SUN2 n = 34

0.5
0.4
0.3
0.2
0.1
0.0

*

shLacZ n = 18   shLMNA n = 51

C

Rotation Speed Degrees/min

**
ns

Ctrl n = 45   SUN1 n = 44   SUN2 n = 47

Fraction of time in rotation

1.0
0.8
0.6
0.4
0.2
0.0

****
****

Ctrl   SUN1   SUN2

Figure S1

Figure S2

Figure S3