Elys deficiency constrains Kras-driven tumour burden by amplifying oncogenic stress

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ABSTRACT

The nucleoporin ELYS, encoded by *AHCTF1*, is a large multifunctional protein with essential roles in

nuclear pore assembly and mitosis. Using a zebrafish model of hepatocellular carcinoma, in which the

expression of an inducible mutant *kras* transgene *(kras^{G12V})* drives hepatocyte-specific hyperplasia and

liver enlargement, we show that reducing *ahctf1* gene dosage by 50% markedly shrinks tumour

burden, while non-hyperplastic tissues are unaffected. We demonstrate that *ahctf1* heterozygosity

impairs nuclear pore formation, mitotic spindle assembly and chromosome segregation, leading to

DNA damage and activation of TP53-dependent and independent mechanisms of cell death and cell

cycle arrest. This selective vulnerability of cancer cells to mild disruption of Elys function uncovers a

novel synthetic lethal interaction between *ahctf1* and *kras* mutations that could be exploited

therapeutically. Heterozygous expression of both *ahctf1* and *ranbp2*, or treatment of heterozygous

ahctf1 larvae with the nucleocytoplasmic transport inhibitor, Selinexor, completely blocked *kras^{G12V}*-

driven hepatocyte hyperplasia, revealing promising avenues for combinatorial treatments.

INTRODUCTION

Synthetic lethality is the term used to describe the death of cells in response to co-existing disruptions

in two different genes, neither of which is lethal alone. The phenomenon has emerged as a promising

tool for cancer drug development[1]. The advantage of the approach lies in its capacity to induce the

death of a vulnerable cell population, such as oncogene-expressing cancer cells, while healthy cells

are unaffected. The approach has been validated in the clinic by the use of poly(adenosine

diphosphate [ADP]-ribose) polymerase (PARP) inhibitors to treat tumours carrying mutations in the

breast cancer susceptibility genes, *BRCA1/BRAC2*[2], and its success has fuelled the search for other

clinically relevant pairwise combinations. Particular effort has been directed towards identifying genes

whose partial loss of function confers synthetic lethality in cancer cells containing hitherto

'undruggable' oncogene targets, such as mutant *KRAS*[3,4]. In this paradigm, the interacting gene is not

mutated in cancer nor oncogenic in its own right; however, its function is essential to maintain the

tumourigenic state, inspiring the concept of non-oncogene addiction[5].

In this paper, we tested whether *AHCTF1* exhibits the properties of a mutant *KRAS* synthetic lethal

interacting gene. *AHCTF1* encodes ELYS, a 252 kDa multidomain nucleoporin that was first discovered

in mouse development where it was shown to be required for the proliferation and survival of inner

mass cells[6]. Since then, ELYS has been studied in many model systems, including in a zebrafish

development mutant (ti262)[7], where we and others showed that homozygous inheritance of an ENU-

induced nonsense mutation in *ahctf1* disrupted nuclear pore formation and caused catastrophic levels

of cell death in highly proliferative cell compartments, such as the intestinal epithelium, while

relatively quiescent tissues survived and remained healthy[8,9].

As well as being a structural component of nuclear pore complexes (NPCs), ELYS is essential for their

formation at the end of mitosis[10-12]. NPCs are huge (110 MDa) multi-subunit complexes comprising at

least 30 different nucleoporins (Nups) in an octameric array[13]. They form cylindrical channels in the

nuclear envelope (NE) and regulate nucleocytoplasmic transport and intracellular localisation of large

(>40 kDa) molecules. In the absence of ELYS, the NE is re-built at the end of mitosis, but this occurs

without NPC formation, precluding mRNAs and many proteins from moving in and out of the nucleus.

By providing a platform for NPC re-assembly at the end of mitosis (Fig. 1a,b), ELYS restores

nucleocytoplasmic trafficking, and thereby facilitates entry into the nucleus of proteins such as G1 and

S phase cyclin-dependent kinases that are required for DNA replication and cell cycle progression (Fig.

1c). Also in G1/S phase, ELYS regulates transcription and DNA replication by reversible binding to

components of the SWI/SNF 80 chromatin remodeller complex, PBAP, and the DNA replication origin

licensing system, MCM2-7, respectively (Fig. 1d-f)[11,12,14,15].

At the end of G2, the cell has grown to a critical size and is prepared for M phase (Fig. 1g). The NE

breaks down (NEBD) and NPCs are disassembled (Fig. 1h). Whereas most Nups disperse throughout

the cytoplasm and the endoplasmic reticulum (ER)[16,17], ELYS, together with components of the

Nup107-160 complex and RANBP2, play an important role in prophase by binding to the kinetochores

of recently replicated sister chromatids where they contribute to microtubule recruitment and spindle

assembly (Fig. 1i)[18-20]. At telophase, when the chromatids are fully separated, the spindle and

kinetochores dissolve and ELYS becomes tethered to thousands of sites on chromatin through its C-

terminal chromatin binding region where it promotes chromatin decondensation[15,21]. In G1, the N-

terminal half of ELYS provides a scaffold to bind the Nup107-160 complex and other ER-associated

Nups, thereby coupling the initiation of NPC assembly with euchromatin formation, restoration of

nucleocytoplasmic transport and transcription[11,22,23] and completing the cycle depicted in Fig. 1.

Given this diversity of functions throughout the cell cycle, it is not surprising that ELYS is an Achilles'

heel of highly proliferative cells[8,9], and this prompted us to ask whether this vulnerability extrapolates

to cancer cells *in vivo*. To do this, we employed a highly tractable zebrafish model of hepatocellular

carcinoma (HCC) in which hepatocyte hyperplasia and liver enlargement are driven by an inducible,

hepatocyte-specific *EGFP-kras^{G12V}* transgene[24]. In this study, we used two-photon microscopy to

accurately quantitate liver volume in the presence and absence of a single nonsense mutation in one

allele of the *ahctf1* locus[8,9]. Remarkably, we observed a pronounced reduction in tumour burden in

response to this mild (50%) reduction in *ahctf1* gene dosage, while the rest of the animal was

unaffected. We further show that this selective vulnerability of oncogenic *kras^G12V*-expressing liver

cancer cells to *ahctf1* heterozygosity possesses the hallmarks of a synthetic lethal interaction that may

be exploited therapeutically.

RESULTS

***ahctf1* heterozygosity reduces tumour burden in a zebrafish *kras^G12V*-driven model of hepatocellular**

carcinoma

In the zebrafish *kras^G12V*-driven HCC model, the doxycycline-induced expression of a single *EGFP-*

kras^G12V transgene (genotype denoted *TO(kras^G12V)^T/+*) between 2-7 days post-fertilisation (dpf) leads

to the accumulation of a constitutively active, EGFP-tagged oncogenic form of Kras specifically in

hepatocytes[24] (Fig. 2a). This forced expression of *EGFP-kras^G12V* causes hepatocyte hyperplasia and a

substantial increase in liver volume that can be quantified by two-photon microscopy. To investigate

the requirement for Elys in this cancer setting, we introduced a mutant *ahctf1* allele (containing a

nonsense mutation at codon 1319) from a zebrafish development mutant (*flo*[ti262])[7] into the genome

of this model. This resulted in a 57% reduction in *ahctf1* mRNA expression in *ahctf1^+/-* larvae at 7 dpf

(Fig. 2b), indicating that the premature codon encoded by the nonsense mutation triggers nonsense

mediated decay rather than expression of a truncated Elys protein.

To determine the effect of *ahctf1* heterozygosity (and other treatments) on normal liver cells, we used

a control transgenic line, denoted *2-CLiP* (2-_C_olour _Li_ver _P_ancreas), in which hepatocytes express

dsRed fluorescence but no oncogenic transgene[25]. Mean liver volume in this model at 7 dpf was 1.95

x 10^6 ± 4.99 x 10^4 μm^3 and did not change in response to *ahctf1* heterozygosity (Fig. 2c,d), consistent

with previous observations that *ahctf1* heterozygotes develop normally, reach sexual maturity, and

exhibit a normal lifespan[9]. In the *TO(kras^G12V)^T/+* model, induced expression of oncogenic Kras^G12V^ leads

to hepatocyte hyperplasia and a striking (4.1-fold) increase in liver volume to 7.97 x 10^6 ± 1.21 x 10^5

μm^3, an increment of 6.02 x 10^6 μm^3 over the course of 5 d of dox treatment. Remarkably, the potency

of this strong oncogenic $kras^{G12V}$ signal was pared back by $ahctf1$ heterozygosity (down to $5.92 \times 10^6 \pm$

8.83×10^4 µm³), equating to a 35% reduction in excess liver volume. These data demonstrate that a

50% reduction in $ahctf1$ gene dosage markedly restricts tumour burden in livers expressing oncogenic

$kras^{G12V}$, while having no effect on normal livers. Thus, mildly disrupted $ahctf1$ expression is a selective

vulnerability of cancer cells.

Robust and persistent overexpression of RAS oncoproteins is frequently associated with oncogene-

induced stress comprising defects in DNA replication, DNA damage and genome instability. In the

presence of wildtype TP53, this damage is limited by activation of TP53 transcription pathways that

induce cell cycle arrest, senescence and apoptosis. To determine whether expression of $kras^{G12V}$

causes oncogene-induced stress and Tp53 activation in our model, we measured the levels of Tp53

protein in pooled lysates of micro-dissected $TO(kras^{G12V})^{+/+}$ and $TO(kras^{G12V})^{T/+}$ livers and the remains

of the larvae (Fig. 2e,f). No Tp53 signal was obtained from non-$kras^{G12V}$-expressing livers or the body

remains after liver removal. We detected a weak Tp53 signal in extracts of $ahctf1^{+/+};TO(kras^{G12V})^{T/+}$

livers, indicating that expression of the $kras^{G12V}$ oncogene alone elicited a weak Tp53 response. In

contrast, a much stronger Tp53 signal (>3.5-fold) was detected in $ahctf1^{+/-};TO(kras^{G12V})^{T/+}$ livers,

demonstrating a more severe level of stress in heterozygous $ahctf1$ hepatocytes expressing oncogenic

$kras^{G12V}$ than occurs in hepatocytes that are WT for $ahctf1.$

Loss of Tp53 function enhances $kras^{G12V}$-driven liver enlargement, which is partially alleviated by

$ahctf1$ heterozygosity

To test whether activation of the Tp53 pathway was involved in reducing the volume of $kras^{G12V}$-

expressing livers on a heterozygous $ahctf1$ background, we repeated the experiment in the absence

of Tp53 function. Here, we utilised the zebrafish $tp53^{e7}$ or $tp53^{M214K}$ allele, which changes a conserved

amino acid residue within the Tp53 DNA-binding domain corresponding to a mutational hotspot in

human cancer, producing a transactivation-dead Tp53 variant[26]. Abrogating Tp53 function by

homozygous expression of this allele (denoted $tp53^{m/m}$) in $ahctf1^{+/+};TO(kras^{G12V})^{T/+}$ larvae supported a

further large increase (82%) in liver volume ($1.25 \times 10^7 \pm 1.10 \times 10^5$ μm^3) compared to livers on the

tp53$^{+/+}$ background (Fig. 2g,h) (Supplementary Fig. 1-3), demonstrating that Tp53 function normally

restrains tumour growth and liver enlargement in this model. Interestingly, the increase in liver

volume was significantly blunted (35% reduction) on a heterozygous *ahctf1* background, despite the

absence of functional Tp53.

ahctf1 heterozygosity triggers cell death in _TO(kras^{G12V})$^{T/+}$_ hepatocytes through Tp53-dependent and independent mechanisms

We previously showed that Tp53 protein was upregulated in the livers of *(kras^{G12V})$^{T/+}$* larvae on a

heterozygous *ahctf1* background (Fig. 2e). To determine whether this activated a Tp53-dependent cell

death response, we utilised a transgenic line, Tg(*actb2:SEC-Hsa.ANXA5-mKate2,cryaa:mCherry*)[uq24rp]

(hereafter denoted *Annexin 5-mKate*) that constitutively expresses a fusion protein comprising

Annexin 5 and the far-red fluorophore mKate[27]. This fusion protein gives rise to discrete fluorescent

puncta in cells undergoing apoptosis by binding to phosphatidylserine that is normally inaccessible on

the inner leaflet of the plasma membrane but is exposed as the membrane breaks down.

Annexin 5 fluorescent puncta were sparsely distributed (1.5 puncta per 10^{-5} μm^3) throughout the livers

of *ahctf1$^{+/+}$;tp53$^{+/+}$;TO(kras^{G12V})$^{T/+}$* larvae demonstrating that expression of *kras^{G12V}* alone is associated

with low levels of cell death (Fig. 3a,b). However, the number of Annexin 5 fluorescent objects was

3.5-fold higher (5.2 puncta per 10^{-5} μm^3) in the livers of *ahctf1$^{+/-}$;tp53$^{+/+}$;TO(kras^{G12V})$^{T/+}$* larvae

demonstrating that the reduction in tumour burden caused by *ahctf1* heterozygosity is due, at least

in part, to an increase in cell death (Fig. 3a,b left two columns). These results were recapitulated when

the cleaved, (active form) of caspase 3 was used as an alternative marker of apoptosis (Supplementary

Fig. 4). That cell death in hyperplastic hepatocytes is largely dependent on Tp53 function was

demonstrated by negligible apoptosis in the livers of *ahctf1$^{+/+}$;tp53$^{m/m}$;TO(kras^{G12V})$^{T/+}$* larvae (Fig. 3a,b

right two columns). When this experiment was repeated on a heterozygous *ahctf1$^{+/-}$* background, we

observed a 17.6-fold increase in the abundance of Annexin 5 fluorescent puncta compared to livers

on a WT *ahctf1* background. However, overall, there were significantly fewer Annexin 5 puncta in

heterozygous *ahctf1* hepatocytes on *tp53^{m/m}* background compared to those expressing WT *tp53*.

Collectively, these data identify a novel synthetic lethal interaction between *kras^{G12V}* and one mutated

allele of *ahctf1* that is mediated, at least in part, by Tp53.

We showed that the elevated level of Tp53 protein observed in *ahctf1^{+/-};TO(kras^{G12V})^{T/+}* livers,

compared to *ahctf1^{+/+};TO(kras^{G12V})^{T/+}* livers (Fig. 2e,f), was transcriptionally active by the upregulated

(4.7-fold) mRNA expression of a canonical Tp53 target gene, *mdm2* (Fig. 3c). This prompted us to

quantify the mRNA expression levels of a suite of Bcl2 family genes that regulate intrinsic

(mitochondrial) apoptosis (Fig. 3c). Direct Tp53 transcriptional targets, *pmaip1* (aka *noxa*) and *bbc3*

(aka *puma*), were both upregulated by >6.5-fold in *ahctf1^{+/-};tp53^{+/+};TO(kras^{G12V})^{T/+}* livers compared to

ahctf1^{+/+};tp53^{+/+};TO(kras^{G12V})^{T/+} livers. mRNAs encoding the other BH3-only apoptosis effector

proteins, Bim, Bid, Bik and Bad, and the pro-apoptotic executioner protein, Bax were also increased in

ahctf1^{+/-};tp53^{+/+};TO(kras^{G12V})^{T/+} livers compared to *ahctf1^{+/+};tp53^{+/+};TO(kras^{G12V})^{T/+}* livers. Meanwhile,

transcripts encoding Bcl2 and Bclxl pro-survival proteins were significantly downregulated by *ahctf1*

heterozygosity. In the absence of Tp53 function, *ahctf1* heterozygosity still increased the expression

of these pro-apoptotic transcripts, albeit less markedly. All these data are consistent with induction

of Tp53 target genes playing a major role in the cell death response to *ahctf1* heterozygosity in

kras^{G12V}-expressing livers. Notwithstanding this, we observed some residual cell death concomitant

with reduced tumour burden in *ahctf1* heterozygotes, even in the absence of Tp53 function.

ahctf1 heterozygosity restricts DNA replication in _TO(kras^{G12V})^{T/+}_ hepatocytes

To explore whether the reduction in liver enlargement we observe in *ahctf1^{+/-};TO(kras^{G12V})^{T/+}* larvae

also involves impaired cell cycle progression, we used an EdU incorporation assay to identify cells in S

phase (Fig. 4a). We observed 32% EdU-positive cells in the enlarged livers of

ahctf1^{+/+};tp53^{+/+};TO(kras^{G12V})^{T/+} larvae and >20% EdU-positive cells (32% reduction) in the livers of

ahctf1^{+/-}; tp53^{+/+};TO(kras^{G12V})^{T/+} larvae (Fig. 4b,c). In Tp53 deficient larvae, liver volume was markedly

increased as expected (Fig. 4b) and there was a doubling in the percentage of EdU-positive cells (63%

compared to 32%) (Fig. 4c). *ahctf1* heterozygosity reduced liver volume in both Tp53 proficient and

deficient larvae (Fig. 4b), consistent with Fig. 2, and reduced the percentage of EdU-positive cells in

both Tp53 proficient (22% compared to 32%) and Tp53 deficient larvae (53% compared to 63%) (Fig.

4c). These data indicate that the overall reduction in liver tumour burden we observe in response to

ahctf1 heterozygosity is due to a combination of fewer cells undergoing DNA replication and more

cells undergoing apoptosis.

To investigate the molecular mechanisms underlying this observation, we performed RT-qPCR analysis

of the negative cell cycle regulators, *cdkn1a* and *cdkn2a/b* in the presence and absence of Tp53. We

found that *cdkn1a* and *cdkn2a/b*, encoding p21 and p16^{Ink4a} respectively, were upregulated in *ahctf1$^{+/-}$*

;tp53$^{+/+}$;TO(kras^{G12V})$^{T/+}$ livers compared to *ahctf1$^{+/+}$;tp53$^{+/+}$;TO(kras^{G12V})$^{T/+}$* livers (Fig. 4d). For *cdkn1a*,

this response to *ahctf1* heterozygosity was partially dependent on intact Tp53 function. In contrast,

the level of *cdkn2a/b* mRNA expression was increased in response to *ahctf1* heterozygosity in

tp53$^{+/+}$;TO(kras^{G12V})$^{T/+}$ livers, but there was no response to *ahctf1* heterozygosity in *tp53$^{m/m}$* livers,

consistent with *cdkn2a/b* expression being regulated solely by Tp53.

To determine how *ahctf1* heterozygosity reduces tumour burden in the absence of Tp53, we

investigated the impact of *ahctf1* heterozygosity on the expression of *tp53* family members, *tp63* and

tp73. *tp63* and *tp73* mRNA expression levels were up-regulated by 3.0-fold and 2.3-fold, respectively,

in heterozygous *ahctf1*, *tp53$^{+/+}$;TO(kras^{G12V})$^{T/+}$* livers, compared to WT *ahctf1* livers. While *tp63* and

tp73 transcripts were upregulated in the absence of *tp53* (*tp53$^{m/m}$*) for both *ahctf*1 genotypes, their

levels were significantly higher in *ahctf1* heterozygotes. Taken together, the data in Figs. 3 and 4

suggest that *ahctf1* heterozygosity constrains *kras^{G12V}*-driven hepatocyte hyperplasia and liver

enlargement by activating Tp53 transcriptional programs that induce cell cycle arrest and cell death.

Furthermore, the beneficial effect of *ahctf1* heterozygosity to reduce tumour burden persists in the

absence of functional Tp53, due to compensatory increases in the levels of *tp63* and *tp73*.

ahctf1 heterozygosity disrupts the abundance of nuclear pore complexes in $TO(kras^{G12V})^{T/+}$ hepatocytes.

To determine how *ahctf1* heterozygosity leads to Tp53 activation, we examined the integrity of some of the essential processes in which the Elys protein plays a role. As depicted in Fig. 1, Elys fulfils many distinct functions during the cell cycle. Starting with post-mitotic nuclear pore assembly (Fig. 1a), we used Airyscan confocal laser-scanning microscopy to look at the abundance and distribution of NPCs in thick sections of liver (200 μm) stained with an antibody (mAb414) that recognises FG-repeat Nups (Nup358, 214, 153 and 62) in mature NPCs. Non-*kras^{G12V}* expressing hepatocytes exhibited fluorescent puncta corresponding to NPCs at the nuclear rim with negligible staining in the cytoplasm, a pattern that was unaffected by *ahctf1* genotype (Fig. 5a; left two columns). Upon induction of expression of the $TO(kras^{G12V})^{T/+}$ transgene, fluorescence intensity was markedly increased in the presence of wildtype *ahctf1* (Fig 5a, third column) and there was an increase in the ratio of nuclear:cytoplasmic staining (Fig 5b). However, fluorescence intensity at the nuclear rim was diminished in *ahctf1* heterozygotes, concomitant with the appearance of puncta in the cytoplasm (Fig. 5a, fourth column; arrows), leading to a 21% reduction in the ratio of nuclear:cytoplasmic fluorescence intensity (Fig. 5b).

To determine the abundance of NPCs, we analysed images acquired at the nuclear surface (Fig. 5c). The pattern and density of fluorescent puncta observed at the nuclear surface of non-*kras^{G12V}* expressing hepatocytes was not affected by *ahctf1* genotype (Fig. 5c; left two columns). The expression of the *kras^{G12V}* transgene in the presence of wildtype *ahctf1* resulted in 59% more fluorescent puncta/NPCs at the nuclear surface of hyperplastic hepatocytes, which was reduced by 20% in response to *ahctf1* heterozygosity (Fig. 5c, d; right two columns). Induced *kras^{G12V}* expression also produced a 28% increase in nuclear volume compared to non-*kras^{G12V}* expressing cells (Fig. 5e), and this increase was reduced to 13% by *ahctf1* heterozygosity. Together, these data indicate that hyperplastic hepatocytes expressing the *kras^{G12V}* oncogene contain more abundant nuclear pores and larger nuclei than their non-*kras^{G12V}* expressing counterparts, properties that are likely to enhance the trafficking of mRNAs and proteins in and out of the nucleus to support the transcriptional and

translational needs of rapidly cycling cancer cells. However, *ahctf1* heterozygosity reduced NPC

density in *kras^{G12V}*-hepatocytes, potentially restricting the efficiency of nucleocytoplasmic trafficking.

***ahctf1* heterozygosity impairs mitotic spindle assembly and chromosome segregation in**

***TO(kras^{G12V})$^{T/+}$* hepatocytes**

Next, we examined the impact of reduced Elys expression on spindle formation and chromosome

segregation (Fig. 1b). We assessed these features in cryosections of liver using α-tubulin and DAPI to

stain microtubules and chromatin, respectively. Metaphase cells in *ahctf1$^{+/+}$;TO(kras^{G12V})$^{T/+}$* livers

exhibited normal bipolar spindle formation followed by complete chromosome segregation during

anaphase (Fig. 6a). In contrast, metaphase cells in *ahctf1$^{+/-}$;TO(kras^{G12V})$^{T/+}$* hepatocytes displayed

abnormal multipolar spindles and misaligned chromosomes (Fig. 6b). Proper chromosome

segregation was disrupted with multiple anaphase bridges formed. While the distribution of cells

observed at different mitotic stages was similar in *ahctf1$^{+/+}$* and *ahctf1$^{+/-}$* hepatocytes (Fig. 6c), mitotic

abnormalities were observed in 50% of *ahctf1$^{+/-}$;TO(kras^{G12V})$^{T/+}$* hepatocytes during metaphase and

anaphase but not at all in *ahctf1$^{+/+}$;TO(kras^{G12V})$^{T/+}$* hepatocytes (Fig. 6d). Taken together, these data

suggest that hyperplastic hepatocytes require a full complement of *ahctf1* expression to maintain

proper cell division.

***ahctf1* heterozygosity causes DNA damage in *TO(kras^{G12V})$^{T/+}$* hepatocytes**

So far, our results demonstrate that a 50% decrease in *ahctf1* expression has multiple impacts in

TO(kras^{G12V})$^{T/+}$ hepatocytes, including disrupted NPC assembly, impaired mitotic spindle assembly and

incomplete chromosome segregation, consistent with oncogene-induced stress. As several of these

defects can converge to produce DNA damage, we looked for evidence of DNA damage by staining

cryosections of liver with DAPI and γ-H2AX to mark DNA double-stranded breaks (Fig. 7a,b). We found

that only 1% of *ahctf1$^{+/+}$;TO(kras^{G12V})$^{T/+}$* hepatocyte nuclei were positive for γ-H2AX (Fig. 7c). This was

increased by 6-fold in *ahctf1$^{+/-}$;TO(kras^{G12V})$^{T/+}$* hepatocyte nuclei.

Collectively, these data show that the proper functioning of diverse cellular processes in hyperplastic

hepatocytes depends on wildtype levels of *ahctf1* expression. We show that heterozygous expression

of *ahctf1* in mutant Kras-fuelled cancer cells leads to multiple insufficiencies that combine to amplify

oncogene-induced stress and cause DNA damage, in so doing providing a stimulus to activate Tp53

and transcriptional programs that trigger cell cycle arrest and apoptosis.

Combinatorial approaches can completely restrict *kras^G12V*-driven liver hyperplasia

Having determined that heterozygous *ahctf1* mutation is effective in restricting *kras^G12V*-driven

hepatocyte hyperplasia and liver enlargement, we investigated the potential of targeting cancer via

another nucleoporin, Ranbp2, in our zebrafish model of HCC. RANBP2 (also known as NUP358) is a

major component of the cytoplasmic filaments of NPCs, where it functions in numerous transport

pathways. Like ELYS, RANBP2 also plays non-canonical roles outside of the NPC, including in mitotic

progression and the maintenance of genome integrity[28-30,31].

We identified our zebrafish *ranbp2* mutant in a transgene assisted ENU-mutagenesis screen for

mutations affecting endodermal organ morphogenesis[32] and showed, using whole genome

sequencing and homozygosity mapping[33,34], that the underlying mutation was a nonsense mutation in

ranbp2 (Supplementary Fig. 5). Like several other mutants we identified in this screen[8,35,36], mutant

ranbp2 larvae exhibit morphological deficiencies in proliferative compartments, including the

developing intestinal epithelium, craniofacial complex and eye (Supplementary Fig. 5).

We found that *ranbp2* heterozygosity alone or in combination with *ahctf1* heterozygosity did not

impact on liver volume in *2-CLiP* larvae (Fig. 8a,b). In *TO(kras^G12V)^T/+* larvae, liver volume was increased

3.8-fold, as observed previously, and the excess liver volume was reduced by 38% and 13% by the

introduction of a single mutation in *ahctf1* and *ranbp2*, respectively (Fig. 8b). Remarkably, we found a

striking synergistic benefit of trans heterozygosity in *ranbp2^+/-;ahctf1^+/-;TO(kras^G12V)^T/+* larvae, to the

extent that liver volume was no longer distinguishable from that of normal *2-CLiP* livers. These results

show that cancer cells are highly susceptible to combinatorial targeting of Nup function and that it

may be possible to exploit this vulnerability to produce highly beneficial outcomes without impacting

negatively on healthy tissues.

To examine this concept in a therapeutic context, we assessed the effect of Selinexor, a selective

inhibitor of nuclear export (SINE) in our $kras^{G12V}$-driven liver hyperplasia model. Selinexor is an XPO1

(exportin) inhibitor with FDA approval for the treatment of refractory or relapsed multiple myeloma

and diffuse large B-cell lymphoma and is in clinical trials for several other cancers, including HCC[37,38].

While we observed no reduction in liver volume in *2-CLiP* larvae exposed to 0.10-2.00 µM Selinexor

from 5 to 7 dpf (Fig. 8c,d) (Supplementary Fig. 6), $ahctf1^{+/+};TO(kras^{G12V})^{T/+}$ larvae exhibited a dose-

dependent reduction in liver volume when exposed to Selinexor. Strikingly, liver volume was reduced

even further in the context of *ahctf1* heterozygosity, such that at a 1.00 µM dose of Selinexor, $kras^{G12V}$-

driven hepatocyte hyperplasia was completely blocked and liver volume was indistinguishable from

that of normal, non-hyperplastic *2-CLiP* larvae (Fig. 8c,d). These results indicate that XPO1 inhibition

is an effective suppressor of growth and proliferation in our model of mutant Kras-driven HCC, and

that its impact can be reinforced by a concomitant reduction in Elys function.

We next examined whether there was any clinical rationale for developing Nup inhibitors for the

purpose of cancer treatment. We analysed the gene expression data of 372 HCC patients in the TCGA

liver hepatocellular carcinoma (LIHC) dataset collated in the cBioPortal for Cancer Genomics[39,40] for

AHCTF1 and other genes encoding components of the NUP107-160 complex (Supplementary Table 3).

In a striking result, we found that the median overall survival of patients with high mRNA expression

of components of the NUP107-160 complex, including ELYS is 21.70 months, whereas the survival of

patients with low expression of mRNAs encoding NUP107-160 components is markedly extended to

81.73 months (Fig. 8e). Since the 372 samples in the LIHC dataset were profiled across 19 sequencing

plates that could cause batch effects and unwanted variation, we determined the integrity of this

result by performing ANOVA tests to assess the effects of individual sequencing plates on the

expression of genes encoding components of the NUP107-160 complex (Supplementary Fig. 7). These

analyses revealed that differences in gene expression observed between samples were largely

unaffected by unwanted variation between sequencing plates. This clinical observation supports our

proposition that ELYS and potentially other Nups would be useful targets for cancer treatment.

DISCUSSION

In this paper we show that *ahctf1* heterozygosity markedly reduces tumour burden in a genetically engineered zebrafish model of HCC. Several factors indicate that this model provides a clinically relevant platform for the study of human HCC and the discovery of new therapeutic strategies[24]. Firstly, RAS/RAF/MAPK signalling is almost always hyper-activated in human HCC[41]. Secondly, the progressive accumulation of histopathologic features including irregular nuclei, cytoplasmic vacuolation and increased vascularisation that are characteristic of tumour progression in HCC are reproduced in the zebrafish model[42]. Thirdly, comparative transcriptomic analysis reveals that the gene expression profile exhibited by oncogenic *kras*^{G12V} hepatocytes isolated from larval zebrafish strongly resembles that of early-stage human HCC, with elevated expression of RAS/RAF/MAPK target genes such as *FGFR4, ETV4, EPHA2, DUSP6* and *SPRY* and DNA damage response genes *GADD45B, CCND1* and *H2AX1*[43].

Our results with this *in vivo* model of HCC compliment a growing body of evidence that carcinogenesis places persistently high demands on essential cellular genes, including those required for proper nuclear pore function, creating a vulnerability that may be therapeutically targeted without causing adverse effects on normal tissue[44,45]. For example, Sakuma *et al*. used siRNAs targeting 28 out of 32 Nup genes, to reduce the abundance of mature NPCs in the human melanoma-derived cell line, A375[44]. Focusing on two Nups exhibiting a severe reduction in NPC density, this study showed that NUP160 and NUP93 are essential for NPC assembly and that inhibiting this process results in cell death. Moreover, they found that cancer cells exhibited heightened susceptibility to inhibition of NPC assembly compared to human pulmonary fibroblasts and a normal cell line derived from retinal pigmental epithelium (RPE1), which instead underwent reversible cell cycle arrest. The differential sensitivity between cancer cells and normal cells to NPC assembly inhibition is consistent with reports that quiescent cells in normal tissues generally maintain low levels of Nup expression and may exist for many years with the same set of assembled NPCs[46,47].

That *AHCTF1* might play a role in *RAS*-fuelled cancer cells was first indicated in a genome-wide RNAi

screen carried-out in human colorectal cancer-derived DLD1 cells[3]. Since then, a collection of genome-

wide CRISPR knockout screens has shown that *AHCTF1* is essential for the survival of 786/789 human

cancer cell lines[48,49] (Supplementary Table 3). While these data show that *AHCTF1* is indispensable for

virtually all cancer cell lines, *AHCTF1* expression is severely and irreversibly depleted in this *in vitro*

setting (>90%), and there is no read-out of how this degree of knockdown impacts on healthy cells.

We believe our *in vivo* experiments are more informative, not only because they show that a 50%

reduction in *ahctf1* gene dosage markedly reduces tumour burden but also because they show that

this is achieved without a detrimental impact on healthy cells.

Mutations in *TP53*, or amplification/overexpression of its negative regulators *MDM2*/*MDM4*, occur in

30% of HCC cases[50]. This is very relevant to our study because we show that a prominent response to

ahctf1 heterozygosity in our *in vivo* HCC model is accumulation of DNA damage and activation of Tp53.

We therefore wondered whether the potential therapeutic effect of inhibiting ELYS function in a

clinical cancer setting would be diminished in tumours lacking functional TP53 protein. To address this

question, we studied the impact of *ahctf1* heterozygosity in our *in vivo* HCC model on a homozygous

tp53 mutant background. We found that *ahctf1* heterozygosity still produced a 24% reduction in

tumour burden and induced cell death in the complete absence of Tp53 function, leading us to

consider whether the loss of Tp53 function was compensated for by increased *tp63* and/or *tp73*

expression. These genes encode Tp53 family proteins that share considerable structural homology

with Tp53, particularly within the DNA binding domain, and they can activate common and distinct

sets of target genes to produce cell cycle arrest, senescence and apoptosis[51,52]. For example, in

response to DNA damage, Tp63 induces senescence and apoptosis in the same way as Tp53, via

transcriptional induction of *cdkn1a*, *bbc3* and *pmaip1*[53]. We found that *ahctf1* heterozygosity

upregulated *tp63* and *tp73* expression by 3.0-fold and 2.3-fold, respectively, and that this was further

enhanced by homozygous *tp53* mutation. These results suggest a mechanism through which *ahctf1*

heterozygosity achieves a reduction in tumour burden in the absence of Tp53 function. Since *TP63*

and *TP73* are rarely mutated in cancer[54], we think that inhibition of ELYS function is likely to produce

a beneficial effect on tumour growth, even in patients harbouring *TP53* mutations.

Dysregulation of nucleocytoplasmic transport is a common feature in a broad spectrum of cancers,

usually arising from altered expression of nuclear pore components and/or nuclear transport

receptors[55]. For example, overexpression of POM121, a transmembrane NPC component, enhances

the nuclear import of the pro-proliferation transcription factors, E2F1, MYC and AR, and increases the

therapeutic resistance of prostate cancer[56]. Similarly, the nuclear transport receptor XPO1 is

frequently overexpressed in cancers, including HCC, and in this case leads to mis-localisation and

inactivation of tumour suppressor proteins[38,57]. As a result, numerous selective inhibitors of nuclear

export (SINEs) have been developed, including Selinexor (KPT-330), which has advanced through

clinical trials and received FDA approval for the treatment of relapsed or refractory multiple myeloma

and diffuse large B-cell lymphoma[37]. We found that Selinexor treatment in our zebrafish HCC model

produced a dose-dependent reduction in tumour burden. Moreover, this therapeutic effect was

strongly augmented by *ahctf1* heterozygosity, suggesting that new drugs targeting the ELYS protein

could be combined effectively with drugs that target nucleocytoplasmic transport. We also exploited

the genetic tractability of our zebrafish HCC model to show that trans heterozygosity of *ahctf1*, *ranbp2*

delivers a synergistic reduction in liver volume/tumour burden, bringing it back to the volume of non-

hyperplastic livers. Notably, non-*TO(kras^{G12V})* livers were completely unaffected by *ahctf1*, *ranbp2*

trans heterozygosity, indicating a three-way synthetic lethal interaction in cancer cells that may be

possible to recapitulate with combinatorial drug treatments.

The dynamic and diverse functions of ELYS require its binding to Nups and many other proteins,

including components of kinetochore and replicative licensing complexes, as well as binding to

chromatin in various states of condensation. The molecular topology of the ELYS protein and the

structural basis for its diverse protein-protein and protein-chromatin interactions are hitherto poorly

defined. Crystal structures of ELYS have shown that the β-propeller and α-helical domains in the N-

terminal half of the ELYS protein bind to NUP160, and cryo-electron microscopy reveals the

association of the ELYS C-terminal peptide with nucleosomes[21,58]. However, further high-resolution

structural characterization is required to advance our molecular understanding of the extent to which

discrete domains within the ELYS protein contribute to its various interactions, and to reveal

opportunities to inhibit such regions for the purpose of disabling ELYS function therapeutically. It is

possible that the topology of ELYS lacks features that would facilitate high affinity binding with small

drug-like molecules, as has been suggested for other Nups with scaffolding properties[44]. However,

rapidly emerging technological advances in drug development are likely to provide alternative

strategies to target the ELYS protein. For example, carefully controlled proteasomal degradation of

proteins that participate in the oncogenic process using proteolysis targeting chimeras (PROTACs) is a

rapidly advancing field in cancer therapy[59]. This approach depends on the availability of a ligand/probe

to direct the PROTAC to the targeted protein, but this need not be a druggable site of protein-protein

or protein-chromatin interaction, as is the case for small molecules designed to disrupt the function

of the protein. In parallel, emerging small molecule RNA-targeting technology is on course to permit

direct modulation of the abundance of specific RNA transcripts for a variety of clinical purposes[60]. In

summary, we believe our *in vivo* cancer studies provide a strong and feasible rationale for targeting

ELYS for the treatment of a broad spectrum of cancers and suggest potential avenues for effective

combinatorial treatments.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Zebrafish maintenance and strains

Zebrafish were maintained at 28°C on a 12 h light/12 h dark cycle. The mutant lines *ahctf1*[ti262] and

tp53[M214K/M214K] (also known as *tp53*[e7/e7] and referred to herein as *tp53*[m/m]) have been described

previously[7,26]. Tg(*fabp10:dsRed, ela3l:GFP*)[gz12], hereafter referred to as *2-CLiP*, expresses dsRed in the

liver and GFP in the exocrine pancreas but carries no oncogenic transgenes or mutations[25]. The

Tg(*fabp10:rtTA2s-M2;TRE2:EGFP-kras*[G12V])[gz32] line referred to as *TO(kras*[G12V])[T/+] and the cell death

reporter line, Tg(*actb2:SEC-Hsa.ANXA5-mKate2,cryaa:mCherry*)[uq24rp] were described previously[24,27].

The *ranbp2*[s452] mutant line was generated in the Liver[plus] ENU mutagenesis screen[32], and its genetic

and morphological characterization is presented in this paper.

Inducing hepatocyte hyperplasia in transgenic zebrafish

To induce *kras*[G12V] expression, *TO(kras*[G12V])[T/+] embryos were treated with 20 µg/mL doxycycline

(Sigma, #D9891) at 2 dpf in E3 medium (5 mM NaCl, 0.17 mM KCl, 0.33 mM CaCl$_2$, 0.33 mM MgSO$_4$)

with 0.003% 1-Phenyl-2-thiourea (PTU; Sigma, #P7629) to suppress pigmentation. E3 medium was

changed at 5 dpf and fresh doxycycline (final conc. 20 µg/mL) added. For the Selinexor experiments,

the drug (final concentration 0.10-2.00 µM) (Karyopharm) or 0.001% DMSO (vehicle control) was

added at 5 dpf. Morphological and molecular analyses were performed at 7 dpf. To quantitate liver

volume, larvae were anaesthetized with benzocaine (200 mg/L) and mounted in 1% agarose. Image

acquisition was performed using an Olympus FVMPE- RS multiphoton microscope with a 25x objective

and Olympus FV30-SW software. Excitation wavelengths for GFP and RFP were 840 nm and 1100 nm,

respectively. For volumetric analysis of whole livers, z-stacks with step-size 2 µm, were imported into

ImageJ or Imaris software.

Genotyping

Genomic DNA (gDNA) was extracted from whole zebrafish larvae by incubation at 95°C in 50 μL of 50 mM sodium hydroxide (NaOH) for 20 min, followed by neutralization with 5 μL of 1 M Tris-HCl (pH 8.0). Primer sequences for genotyping are listed in Supplementary Table 1.

mRNA expression analysis

Total RNA was extracted from independent pools of micro-dissected zebrafish livers using the RNeasy Micro Kit (QIAGEN, #74004). RNA integrity was assessed by a High Sensitivity RNA ScreenTape assay (Agilent, #5067-5579) on a 2200 TapeStation. cDNA was generated from 1-10 μg RNA using the Superscript III First Strand Synthesis System (Invitrogen, #18080051) and oligo(dT) priming according to the manufacturer's instructions. RT-quantitative PCR (RT-qPCR) was performed using a SensiMix SYBR kit (Bioline, #QT605-05) on an Applied Biosystems ViiATM7 Real-Time PCR machine. Expression data were normalized by reference to *hrpt1*, *b2m* and *tbp*. LinRegPCR V11.0 was used for baseline correction, PCR efficiency calculation and transcript quantification analysis[61]. Relative expression levels were calculated by the $2^{-\Delta\Delta Ct}$ method and all results were expressed as the mean ± SEM of three independent pools of biological replicates. Primer sequences are listed in Supplementary Table 2.

Western blot analysis

Pooled micro-dissected zebrafish livers were lysed in RIPA buffer (20mM Hepes, pH 7.9, 150mM NaCl, 1mM MgCl2, 1% NP40, 10mM NaF, 0.2mM Na3VO4, 10mM β-glycerol phosphate) supplemented with cOmplete Proteinase Inhibitor (Roche, #11836170001) and PhosTOP phosphatase inhibitors (Roche, #04906837001). Samples were incubated for 30 min on ice and the extracts cleared by centrifugation at 13,000 rpm for 20 min at 4°C. The protein concentration of samples was determined by BCA protein assay (Thermo Fisher Scientific, #23227). 25 μg of protein per lane were resolved on NuPAGE Novex Bis-Tris 4-12% polyacrylamide gels (Invitrogen, #NP0321BOX) and transferred onto nitrocellulose blotting membranes (Amersham Protran, #10600003). Membranes were blocked with 5% BSA in PBS for 1 h at RT and incubated with primary antibodies 1:500 Anti-p53 (9.1) mouse mAb (Abcam,

#ab77813) overnight at 4°C and 1:1000 Anti-GAPDH (14C10) Rabbit mAb (Cell Signalling Technology,

#2118) for 1 h at RT. Secondary antibodies: Goat anti-mouse HRP (Dako, #P0447) and Goat anti-Rabbit

HRP (Dako, #P0448), were used at 1:5000 and incubated with membranes for 1 h at RT. Signals were

developed using Amersham ECL Western Blotting Detection Kit (Cytiva, # RPN2108) and imaged on a

Chemidoc Touch (Biorad). Relative protein quantitation was calculated based on normalized

integrated intensity.

Cell death analysis

To assess apoptosis, 7 dpf *TO(kras^{G12V});Annexin 5-mKate* zebrafish larvae were fixed in 4%

paraformaldehyde (PFA) overnight at 4°C and livers isolated by micro-dissection. Image acquisition

was performed using a Zeiss LSM 880 microscope with a 20x objective and ZEN software. Excitation

wavelengths for mKate and GFP were 560 nm and 900 nm, respectively. Liver volume was quantified

and 3D segmentation of Annexin 5-mKate signals were performed in ImageJ.

Cell cycle analysis

EdU incorporation was used to assess the percentage of cells in S phase of the cell cycle. Briefly, live

zebrafish larvae (7 dpf) were incubated at 28°C in 2 mM EdU (Invitrogen, #C10340) in E3 medium for

2 h followed by a further incubation in fresh E3 medium for 1 h. Larvae were euthanised using

benzocaine (1000 mg/L; Sigma, #PHR1158) prior to removal of the liver by micro-dissection. EdU

labelling was carried out using the Click-iT Edu Alexa Fluor 647 (AF647) imaging kit (Invitrogen,

#C10340), according to the manufacturer's instructions. The livers were co-stained with Hoechst

33342 (Thermofisher, #62249). Image acquisition was performed using an Olympus FVMPE-RS

multiphoton microscope with excitation wavelengths of 950 nm for Hoechst 33342 dye and 1160 nm

for AF647 (Thermofisher, #A21235). The number of Hoechst 33342 and EdU positive cells was

quantified using Arivis Vision4D software.

Nuclear pore analysis

Larvae fixed in 4% PFA overnight at 4°C were embedded in 4% low melting temperature agarose and transverse sections collected at 200 μm intervals using a vibrating microtome (Leica VT 1000S). Sections were blocked with 1% BSA in PBS/0.3% Triton X-100 and incubated with a 1:750 dilution of mAb414 (Abcam, #ab24609) at 4°C overnight. Sections were then incubated with 1:500 anti-mouse AF647 and Hoechst 33342 at room temperature for 1 h. Sections were mounted and imaged using a Zeiss LSM880 Fast Airyscan Confocal microscope with a 63x objective. 3D segmentation of cells was performed in ImageJ using EGFP signal for *TO(kras^{G12V})$^{T/+}$* larvae or F-actin stained with 1:200 rhodamine phalloidin for *TO(kras^{G12V})$^{+/+}$* larvae . An outline was drawn around the nuclear periphery and segmented using the Hoechst signal. mAb414 fluorescence intensity was calculated for the nuclear periphery and for the cytoplasm. NPC density was calculated by finding maxima for mAb414 at the nuclear surface of 5 nuclei per liver.

Cryosectioning and immunofluorescence microscopy analysis

Dissected livers were fixed in 4% PFA overnight at 4°C and washed with PBS/0.1% Tween 20 before incubation in 30% sucrose in PBS overnight at 4°C. Livers were aligned in a tissue mould, embedded in OCT and frozen on dry ice. The livers were sectioned at 10 μm intervals using a Thermofisher Scientific Microm HM550 cryostat. Sections were washed with PBS before blocking with 10% FCS in PBS/0.3% Triton X-100. Incubation with primary antibodies was performed at 4°C overnight, while incubation with secondary antibodies was performed at room temperature for 1 h. Antibodies used in this work were: 1:2000 α-Tubulin DM1A (CST, #3873), 1:1000 γ-H2AX (gift of James Amatruda), 1:250 cleaved caspase 3 (CST, #9664), 1:500 anti-rabbit AF647 (Thermofisher scientific, #A31573) and 1:500 anti-mouse AF647 (Thermofisher, #A21235). Prolong Diamond Antifade reagent with DAPI (Thermofisher #P36962) was used for slide mounting. A Zeiss LSM880 Fast Airyscan Confocal microscope with a 63x objective was used for image acquisition and ImageJ for image analysis.

Statistical analysis

Data are expressed as mean ± SEM unless indicated otherwise and the number of biological replicates

indicating samples from individual animals/livers, or pools of individual animals/livers for each

experiment are stated in the figure legends. P-values were calculated using Student's *t*-tests (two-

tailed, followed by Welch's correction) when comparing two groups, and by ANOVA followed by

Tukey's post-hoc test when comparing multiple groups. The effect of Selinexor treatment on liver

volume was analysed by linear regression, regressing liver volume against Selinexor concentration. All

analysis was performed using GraphPad Prism V7.03 (GraphPad software) and p-values ≤ 0.05 were

considered statistically significant.

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COMPETING INTERESTS

The authors declare no competing financial interests.

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AUTHORS' CONTRIBUTIONS

KM, KD, JKH conceived and designed the experiments; KM, KD, KS, BH, CS, GB, RM, ATP, TH, EO, DYRS,

ZG, JKH developed the methodology; KM, KD, FG, LW, KS, BH, CS, GB, RM, ATP, JKH acquired and

analysed the data; KM, KD and JKH wrote the manuscript; KD, JKH supervised the study; JKH acquired

the funding.

DATA AVAILABILITY

The datasets generated and/or analysed during the current study are available in the cBioPortal

Cancer Genomics database (http://www.cbioportal.org).

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703

Fig. 1 Elys plays critical roles at several stages of the cell cycle.

705   Elys is a central player in multiple diverse cellular processes far beyond its canonical role in nuclear

706   pore re-assembly at the end of mitosis **(a, b)**. **c.** Elys restores nucleocytoplasmic trafficking allowing

707   import of cyclin-dependent kinases (CDKs) required for cell cycle progression. **d-g.** Elys plays an active

708   role in genome regulation through its direct interactions with components of large molecular

709   machineries including chromatin remodellers such as PBAP that favour transcription and the MCM2-

710   7 components of the DNA replication origin licensing system. **h.** After cell growth in G2, the nuclear

711   envelope breaks down and NPCs are disassembled upon entry into mitosis. **i.** Elys relocalizes to

712   kinetochores where it contributes to microtubule attachment and spindle formation.

713

Fig. 2 *ahctf1* heterozygosity reduces liver volume in a zebrafish *kras^{G12V}*-driven model of hepatocellular carcinoma in both Tp53 proficient and deficient larvae.

a. Protocol for doxycycline induction of $TO(kras^{G12V})^{T/+}$ expression in developing zebrafish larvae. **b.** RT-qPCR analysis of *ahctf1* mRNA levels in pooled micro-dissected livers (n=3 biological replicates). **c.** Representative three-dimensional reconstructions of *2-CLiP* and $TO(kras^{G12V})^{T/+}$ livers of the indicated

ahctf1 genotype. Scale bar 25 μm. **d.** Impact of *ahctf1* heterozygosity on liver volume in *2-CLiP* and

TO(kras^{G12V})$^{T/+}$ larvae (n≥20). **e.** Representative western blot of Tp53 protein signals in lysates of

TO(kras^{G12V})$^{T/+}$ larvae of the indicated *ahctf1* genotype. **f.** Quantification of Tp53 protein levels

normalised by reference to the Gapdh loading control (n=3 independent experiments). **g.**

Representative three-dimensional reconstructions of *TO(kras^{G12V})$^{T/+}$* livers of the indicated *ahctf1* and

tp53 genotypes. Scale bar 25 μm. **h.** Impact of *ahctf1* heterozygosity and homozygous *tp53* mutation

on liver volume in *2-CLiP* and *TO(kras^{G12V})$^{T/+}$* larvae (n≥20). Data are expressed as mean ± SEM.

Significance was calculated using a Student's t-test or one-way ANOVA with Tukey's multiple

comparisons test.

Fig. 3 ***ahctf1*** **heterozygosity increases cell death in *TO(kras^{G12V})^{T/+}* hepatocytes in both Tp53 proficient and deficient larvae.**

a. Representative maximum intensity projection images of Annexin 5-mKate fluorescence (white puncta), indicating cells undergoing apoptosis in *TO(kras^{G12V})^{T/+}* livers of the indicated *ahctf1* and *tp53* genotypes. Scale bar 25 μm. **b.** Quantification of the density of Annexin 5 fluorescent foci in *TO(kras^{G12V})^{T/+}* livers of the indicated *ahctf1* and *tp53* genotypes (n≥11). **c.** RT-qPCR analysis of the specified mRNAs in *TO(kras^{G12V})^{T/+}* micro-dissected livers of the indicated *ahctf1* and *tp53* genotypes

738   (n=3 biological replicates). Data are expressed as mean ± SEM. Significance was calculated using a one-

739   way ANOVA with Tukey's multiple comparisons test.

Fig. 4 *ahctf1* heterozygosity restricts DNA replication in *TO(kras^{G12V})^{T/+}* hepatocytes.

a. Representative maximum intensity projection images of EdU incorporation (white puncta) into *TO(kras^{G12V})^{T/+}* livers of the indicated *ahctf1* and *tp53* genotypes. Scale bar 25 μm. **b.** Impact of *ahctf1* heterozygosity and homozygous *tp53* mutation on liver volume in *2-CLiP* and *TO(kras^{G12V})^{T/+}* larvae (n≥17). **c.** Quantification of the percentage of EdU positive nuclei per Hoechst 33342 positive nuclei (n≥25). **d.** RT-qPCR analysis of mRNA expression of the cell cycle regulators, *cdkn1a* and *cdkn2a/b* and

748   **e.** *tp63* and *tp73* in *TO(kras^{G12V})$^{T/+}$* micro-dissected livers of the indicated *ahctf1* and *tp53* genotypes

749   (n=3 biological replicates). Data are expressed as mean ± SEM. Significance was assessed using a one-

750   way ANOVA with Tukey's multiple comparisons test.

Fig. 5 *ahctf1* heterozygosity disrupts nuclear pore complexes in *TO(kras^{G12V})^{T/+}* hepatocytes.

a. Representative Airyscan imaging of liver sections stained with mAb414 (white) marking FG-Nups, Hoechst 33342 (cyan) marking DNA, and rhodamine phalloidin (magenta) marking the F-actin cytoskeleton in non-*TO(kras^{G12V})*-expressing cells or EGFP-Kras^{G12V} (magenta) marking the cell membrane in *TO(kras^{G12V})*-expressing cells of the indicated *ahctf1* and *TO(kras^{G12V})* genotypes. Arrows

in right hand panel point to mAb414/FG-nucleoporin staining in the cytoplasm. Scale bar 2 μm. **b.**

Quantification of mean nuclear/cytoplasmic fluorescence intensity of mAb414 staining after 3D

segmentation and morphological filtering of nuclear and cytoplasmic areas (n>18). **c.** Representative

Airyscan images of mAb414 staining at the nuclear surface of sections of the indicated *ahctf1* and

TO(kras^{G12V}) genotype. Scale bar 1 μm**. d.** Quantification of nuclear pore density (n≥25). **e.**

Quantification of nuclear volume (n≥25). Data are expressed as mean ± SEM. Significance was assessed

using a one-way ANOVA with Tukey's multiple comparisons test.

Fig. 6 ***ahctf1*** **heterozygosity impairs mitotic spindle assembly and chromosome segregation in** ***TO(kras^{G12V})^{T/+}*** **hepatocytes.**

a. Representative Airyscan imaging of liver cryosections stained with α-tubulin antibody (magenta) marking spindle microtubules and DAPI (cyan) marking DNA in mitotic cells of *TO(kras^{G12V})^{T/+}* larvae on a wildtype *ahctf1^{+/+}* background. **b.** Mitotic cells in liver cryosections of *TO(kras^{G12V})^{T/+}* larvae on a

772 heterozygous *ahctf1$^{+/-}$* background exhibit multiple defects, including multipolar spindles, misaligned

773 chromosomes and anaphase bridges (arrows). Scale bar 2 μm. **c.** Distribution of cells observed at

774 different mitotic stages (n=92 livers, 326 mitotic cells) **d.** Quantification of the percentage of mitotic

775 hepatocytes exhibiting an aberrant phenotype (n=14-57).

Fig. 7 *ahctf1* heterozygosity leads to accumulation of DNA double-strand breaks in *TO(kras^{G12V})^{T/+}*

hepatocytes.

a. Representative Airyscan imaging of cryosections of liver from *ahctf1^{+/+};TO(kras^{G12V})^{T/+}* larvae stained

with γ-H2AX antibody (white) marking DNA double-strand breaks, DAPI (cyan) marking DNA and EGFP-

Kras^{G12V} (magenta) marking the cell membrane. Scale bar 5 μm. **a'.** Inset of γ-H2AX positive nuclei in

ahctf1^{+/+};TO(kras^{G12V})^{T/+} hepatocytes. Scale bar 2 μm. **b.** Representative images of cryosections of liver

from *ahctf1^{+/-};TO(kras^{G12V})^{T/+}* larvae. Scale bar 5 μm. **b'.** Inset of γ-H2AX positive nuclei in cryosections

of liver from *ahctf1^{+/-};TO(kras^{G12V})^{T/+}* larvae. Scale bar 2 μm. **c.** Quantification of the percentage of

hepatocytes positive for γ-H2AX (n≥31). Data are expressed as mean ± SEM. Significance was

calculated using a Student's t-test.

Fig. 8 Combined approaches completely restrict *kras^{G12V}*-driven liver hyperplasia.

a. Representative three-dimensional reconstructions of livers from *2-CLiP* and *TO(kras^{G12V})^{T/+}* larvae of

the indicated *ahctf1* and *ranbp2* genotypes. Scale bar 25 μm. **b.** Impact of *ahctf1* heterozygosity and

ranbp2 heterozygosity on liver volume in *2-CLiP* and *TO(kras^{G12V})^{T/+}* larvae (n≥30). Significance was

calculated using a one-way ANOVA with Tukey's multiple comparisons test. **c.** Representative three-

dimensional reconstructions of *TO(kras^{G12V})$^{T/+}$* livers of the indicated *ahctf1* genotype treated with

DMSO or 2.00 µM Selinexor from 5-7 dpf. **d.** Dose-dependent impact of Selinexor treatment (0.10-

2.00 µM) on liver volume in *2-CLiP* (grey), *ahctf1$^{+/+}$;TO(kras^{G12V})$^{T/+}$* (blue) and *ahctf1$^{+/-}$;TO(kras^{G12V})$^{T/+}$*

(purple) larvae (n≥20). Data are expressed as mean ± SEM. Significance was calculated by linear

regression analysis. **e.** Overall survival of HCC patients with mRNA expression z-scores >2 for one or

more Nup107-160 complex components (red line; 63 cases); median overall survival 21.70 months.

Overall survival of HCC patients with mRNA expression z-scores <-2 for one or more Nup107-160

complex components (blue line; 45 cases); median overall survival 81.73 months. Data from the TCGA

LIHC dataset (total 372 samples) available in the cBioPortal for Cancer Genomics. **f.** Schematic

depiction of two of the processes disrupted by mild depletion of Elys protein. **g.** Accumulation of DNA

damage and activation of Tp53 transcription programs. **h**. Cell death and cell cycle arrest of

hyperproliferative oncogene-expressing cancer cells.