Nucleus softens during herpesvirus infection

Aapo Tervonen[1,2,¶], Visa Ruokolainen[1,¶], Simon Leclerc[1], Katie Tieu[3], Sébastien Lyonnais[4], Henri Niskanen[5], Jian-Hua Chen[6], Alka Gupta[1], Minna U Kaikkonen[5], Carolyn A Larabell[6], Delphine Muriaux[4,7], Salla Mattola[1], Daniel E Conway[3], Teemu O Ihalainen[2], Vesa Aho[1,&], Maija Vihinen-Ranta[1,&].

[1]Department of Biological and Environmental Science, Nanoscience Center, University of Jyväskylä, Jyväskylä, Finland.

[2]BioMediTech, Faculty of Medicine and Health Technology, Tampere University, Tampere, Finland.

[3]Department of Biomedical Engineering, The Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio, USA.

[4]CEMIPAI, UAR3725, CNRS, Université de Montpellier, Montpellier, France.

[5]A.I. Virtanen Institute for Molecular Sciences, University of Eastern Finland, 70211 Kuopio, Finland.

[6]Molecular Biophysics and Integrated Bioimaging Division, Lawrence Berkeley National Laboratory, Berkeley, California, USA.

[7]UMR 9004 CNRS, IRIM (Institut de Recherche en Infectiologie de Montpellier), Université de Montpellier, Montpellier, France.

*Corresponding authors:

E-mail: maija.vihinen-ranta@jyu.fi (MVR), vesa.p.aho@jyu.fi (VA)

[¶]These authors contributed equally to this work.

[&]These authors also contributed equally to this work.

Abstract

Nuclear mechanics is remodeled not only by extracellular forces but also by internal modifications, such as those induced by viral infections. During herpes simplex virus type 1 infection, the nuclear structures undergo drastic reorganization, but little is known about how nuclear mechanobiology changes as a result. We show that the nucleus softens dramatically during the infection. To understand the phenomenon, we used advanced microscopy and computational modeling. We discovered that the enlarged viral replication compartment had a low biomolecular density, partially explaining the observed nuclear softening. The mobility of the nuclear lamina decreased, which suggests increased rigidity and an inability to induce softening. However, computational modeling supported by experimental data showed that reduced outward forces, such as cytoskeletal pull and intranuclear osmotic pressure acting both on and within the nucleus, can explain the decreased nuclear stiffness. Our findings reveal that during infection, the nucleus is subject to changes in multiple mechanical forces, leading to decreased nuclear stiffness.

Author Summary

DNA viruses take over the host cell nucleus, inducing dramatic structural modifications. There is currently very little knowledge of how the progression of viral infection modifies the mechanical properties of the nucleus, which are essential for various cellular processes, including gene expression and cell migration. Here, we show that the nucleus softens when herpesvirus infection progresses. We discovered that the viral replication compartment established in the central parts of the nucleus had a low biomolecular density, which may contribute to the nuclear softening. The shape and motion of the nuclear lamina suggested that it became more rigid, indicating that another mechanism was involved in the decreased

48 elasticity. Our mechanical simulations and experiments showed that a reduction in outward

49 forces, such as actin cytoskeleton pull or osmotic pressure, is the most likely factor in the

50 nuclear softening. Our study provides new insights into the effects of DNA viruses on the

51 mechanics of host cell nuclei, significantly expanding the knowledge of viral infection

52 mechanobiology.

Introduction

Mechanical forces have an essential role in many cellular functions. Cells sense and react to

external forces, which can lead to various responses, such as changes in gene expression and

cell differentiation [1,2]. Cells also generate intracellular forces, for example, to regulate cell

shape and motion [3]. The forces are transmitted via cytoskeletal filaments and can be conveyed

into the nucleus and to the chromatin via transmembrane proteins in the nuclear envelope (NE).

In herpes simplex virus type 1 (HSV-1)-infected cells, expansion of the viral replication

compartment (VRC) and virus-induced manipulation of nuclear structure and functions most

likely lead to changes in the mechanical properties of the nucleus. However, little is known

about the details of these changes.

The main mechanical components of the nucleus are the NE, with its underlying nuclear

lamina, and the chromatin [4,5]. Structural changes in the organization of the NE, chromatin,

or both often regulate nuclear stiffness [6,7]. The nuclear lamina, a 14-nm-thick filamentous

network associated with the inner nuclear membrane [8], mainly comprises intermediate

filament lamins divided into A/C and B types [9]. It reinforces the NE, connects to the

cytoskeleton via the linker of the nucleoskeleton and cytoskeleton (LINC) complex, and

interacts with the lamina-associated domains (LADs) of the chromatin [10–12]. The nuclear

lamina, especially A-type lamins, has been shown to respond structurally to mechanical forces,

and the amount of lamins is co-regulated by tissue rigidity [13,14]. Furthermore, reorganization

of the lamina can change the ability of the nucleus to resist deformations and large strains [15].

The rigidity of chromatin, another regulator of nuclear stiffness, is modulated by changes in its

compaction state [15–18] and by the chromatin crosslinker HP1α [19]. DNA damage and the

LAD connections also contribute to the mechanical strength of the nuclei [7,20]. In addition,

osmotic pressure in the nucleus has been suggested to affect its mechanical response [21]. Not

only intranuclear components, but also cytoskeleton-mediated forces regulate nuclear

mechanics. It has been shown that a force on the LINC complex protein nesprin-1 causes the

nucleus to stiffen [22], and suppression of another LINC complex protein SUN2 results in

nuclear softening [23].

Viral infections can cause drastic changes in nuclear function and structure. HSV-1 infection

leads to the formation and expansion of spherical, membraneless VRCs for viral DNA

replication and progeny capsid assembly [24–26], which is accompanied by reorganization of

the host chromatin toward the nuclear periphery [27,28]. The VRC formation in HSV-1 and

another herpesvirus, human cytomegalovirus, infection has properties similar to liquid-liquid

phase separation. However, other compartmentalization mechanisms might also be included

[29–31]. The substantial chromatin condensation toward the nuclear periphery regulates the

diffusion of newly formed capsids through the chromatin to the NE [32–36], where the first

step of nuclear egress, viral primary envelopment through the inner nuclear membrane, is

assisted by the viral nuclear egress complex and the disintegration of the nuclear lamina [37–

39].

In this study, we analyze HSV-1 infection-induced changes in the nuclear biomechanics of host

cells by using various experimental methods, including atomic force microscopy (AFM),

fluorescence lifetime imaging microscopy (FLIM), volume electron microscopy (EM), and

cryo-soft X-ray tomography (SXT), as well as by using computational modeling. Our data

show that the nuclei become softer as the infection progresses, while the nuclear structure

undergoes profound changes and the nuclear lamina is modified. The modeling and

experimental data suggest that, in addition to these changes, cytoskeletal pull on the nucleus

and osmotic pressure also contribute to the softening.

Results

Nuclear stiffness decreases as the infection proceeds

To analyze how HSV-1 infection alters nuclear stiffness, we measured the mechanical response

of Vero cell nuclei to compressive force using AFM [40]. The nuclei were subjected to

indentation by a spherical tip of the AFM cantilever. The measurement of the bending of the

cantilever with a known spring constant provides the force applied to the nucleus (Figs 1A and

1B, see also S1 Movie), which allows quantification of its elastic modulus, i.e., nuclear stiffness

[41,42]. The measurements were conducted in intact cells, so although almost all the volume

under the tip was occupied by the nucleus, thin layers of cytoplasm remained above and below

the nucleus.

There was a large variation in the stiffness of noninfected cell nuclei, with values ranging from

200 to 3,000 Pa. Compared to noninfected cells, the mean stiffness during the infection was

lower at 4 hours post infection (hpi) and kept decreasing until 8 hpi, when Young's modulus

was only about one fourth of the noninfected cell value (Fig 1C). Finally, there was a minor

recovery at 10 hpi.

Our findings show that the progression of HSV-1 infection softens the nucleus. To understand

this phenomenon, we next studied how the infection modifies the mechanical components of

the nucleus, such as chromatin and the nuclear lamina.

Fig 1. Nuclear stiffness decreases in HSV-1 infection. (A) Schematic side view of an atomic

force microscope (AFM) cantilever with a colloidal probe over the nuclear region of a cell. **(B)**

Brightfield microscopy images of an infected cell underneath the AFM cantilever at 8 hpi. The

nuclear periphery is demarcated by a dotted white line. Infected Vero cells were identified by

the presence of ICP4 by epifluorescence. See also S1 Movie. Scale bar, 10 μm. **(C)** AFM

analysis of nuclear stiffness performed on noninfected and HSV-1 ICP4-EYFP-infected cells

at 4-5, 8, and 10 hpi (n=28, 16, 13, and 13, respectively). The error bars show the standard

deviation. Statistical significance was determined using Tukey's test, and the significance

values are denoted as **** ($p < 0.0001$), *** ($p<0.001$), or ** ($p < 0.01$). Nonsignificant

differences ($p \geq 0.05$) are not labeled.

The molecular density of the nuclear center decreases in the infection

In the lytic HSV-1 infection, the nuclear import of viral genomes is followed by the emergence

of distinct punctate VRCs at early infection (1–5 hpi) [43]. Later in infection (8–12 hpi), the

growth and fusion of the VRC foci result in an enlarged VRC, marginalization of host cell

chromatin adjacent to the nuclear envelope, and expansion of the nuclear volume [27,28,44].

SXT imaging and analysis of infected mouse embryonic fibroblast (MEF) cells showed that

biomolecular density, quantified by the linear absorption coefficient (LAC), in the central areas

of the infected cell nuclei occupied by the VRC (Figs 2A and 2B, see also S2 Movie) was lower

than that in the euchromatin areas of the noninfected cells (Fig 2C). The mean LAC values

were 0.30, 0.25, and 0.24 μm^{-1} for noninfected cells and infected cells at 4 and 8 hpi,

respectively. Notably, the density of the perinuclear chromatin in infected cells remained

similar to the density of the heterochromatin in noninfected cells, with the mean LAC value of

0.33 μm^{-1} for every infection time point (Fig 2D).

To further study the three-dimensional distribution and organization of chromatin in the

nucleoplasm of MEF cells, we used focused ion beam scanning electron microscopy (FIB-

SEM) and the ChromEM chromatin labeling method [45]. This approach confirmed the

presence of dense chromatin near the NE in infected cells at 8 hpi (Fig 2E). Notably, finger-

like protrusions of dense chromatin towards the center of the nucleus were less pronounced in

infected cells. However, small and dense chromatin aggregates were still detected in the central

area of the nucleus where the VRC and viral capsids were located (Figs 2F and 2G, see also S3

Movie). This can be cellular chromatin remaining in the VRC region or replicated viral

genomes [46]. The ChromEM labeling can detect viral DNA, as shown by the intense labeling

of DNA-containing capsids (S1 Fig).

In summary, the enlarged low-density region emerging during HSV-1 infection had a lower

biomolecular density than euchromatin in the central parts of noninfected cell nuclei. The

density decreased as the infection proceeded, which might have implications for the nuclear

softness during the infection. The marginalized chromatin of the infected cell was not denser

than the control cell heterochromatin.

Fig 2. The enlarged viral replication compartment has a low biomolecular density. (A)

Cryo-soft X-ray (SXT) tomography ortho-slices of noninfected (NI) and infected mouse

embryonic fibroblast (MEF) cells at 8 hpi. Molecular densities are presented in a continuous

grey scale representing linear absorption coefficient values ranging from 0.1 to 0.4 μm^{-1}

(calibration bar). Scale bars, 2 μm. **(B)** Cross-sections of 3D SXT reconstructions of a noninfected and an infected cell. The high-density region (heterochromatin) is shown in blue, the low-density region (euchromatin) in yellow, the viral replication compartment (VRC/euchromatin) area in green, and the cytoplasm in grey. See also S2 Movie. Quantitative analysis of linear absorption coefficient (LAC) of the **(C)** low-density and **(D)** high-density region in noninfected and infected cells at 4 and 8 hpi (n=6). **(E)** Representative cross-sections of focused ion beam scanning electron microscopy (FIB-SEM) images of noninfected and infected MEF cells at 8 hpi. The viral capsid (arrows) and nuclear pore complexes (arrowheads) are shown. Scale bars, 0.5 μm. See also S3 Movie. **(F)** Reconstruction of chromatin fiber thickness and **(G)** chromatin density as a function of the distance from the nuclear envelope in noninfected and infected cells. The color scale in **(F)** indicates high and low chromatin thickness (yellow-blue), and in **(G)** high and low density (yellow-blue). The error bars show the standard deviation. Statistical significance was determined using Tukey's test, and the significance values are denoted as * (p<0.05). Nonsignificant differences (p ≥ 0.05) are not labeled.

The nuclear lamina motion decreases and the nuclear membrane tension increases in the infection

Since the nuclear lamina is an essential mechanical structure for the nucleus, we used lamin A/C chromobody to assess differences in the nuclear lamina shape and motion in noninfected and infected living Vero cells [47]. We hypothesized that the mechanical stiffness of the nuclear lamina is linked to its shape and mobility, and that an increase (or decrease) in internal pressure would cause the nucleus to bulge (or wrinkle).

To analyze the lamina shape, it was segmented, skeletonized, and discretized. Local regions of

positive and negative curvature with respect to the nuclear interior were then quantified (Fig

3A). The proportion of negative curvature regions was smallest at 8 hpi, but the change was

not statistically significant (Fig 3B). Next, the extent of lamina fluctuations was analyzed by

taking the maximum intensity projection of the segmented and skeletonized lamina over the

time series and calculating its area (Fig 3C). The motion of the nuclear lamina, quantified as

the area covered by the lamina skeleton during the time series and normalized by the length of

the lamina, was significantly smaller at 8 hpi than in noninfected cells (Fig 3D). This shows

that the motion of the lamina decreases in infection, indicating higher tension or reduced

mechanical dynamics. Finally, nuclear membrane tension was measured by the ER Flipper-TR

probe and FLIM [48]. Changes in the fluorescence lifetime indicated increased tension in the

NE at 12 hpi compared to noninfected cells, although at 8 hpi the membrane tension was similar

to that in the noninfected cells (Figs 3E and 3F).

Finally, we analyzed the significance of lamins in the infection-induced nuclear growth in Vero

cells by using overexpression of A-type lamins and the presence of truncated and farnesylated

lamin A protein, progerin [49]. Confocal microscopy showed that the progression of infection

and overexpression of lamin A/C increased nuclear volume, whereas the presence of progerin

reduced it (S2 Fig).

Fig 3. The motion of the nuclear lamina decreases in infection. (A) Nuclear lamina labeled

by lamin A chromobody, skeletonization of the lamina, and discretized lamina points showing

regions of positive (green) and negative curvature (red) in infected Vero cells at 8 hpi. **(B)** The

fraction of negative curvature points for noninfected cells and cells imaged 8 and 12 hpi (n=19,

22, and 17, respectively). **(C)** A zoom-in of the nuclear lamina, showing its motion and

maximum intensity projection of the skeleton during 24.8 s. Scale bars, 5 μm. **(D)** Nuclear

lamina mobility, measured as the area covered by the skeleton during one minute for

noninfected cells and cells imaged 8 and 12 hpi (n=19, 22, and 17, respectively). **(E)** Nuclear

envelope (NE) tension analysis by fluorescence lifetime imaging microscopy (FLIM) of

noninfected and HSV-1 17+ wild-type virus-infected Vero cells at 12 hpi using fluorescence

lifetime-reporting membrane tension probe ER Flipper-TR. A fast FLIM image presented in a

pseudocolor scale representing average photon arrival times in each pixel, ranging from 2.0 to

2.6 ns (calibration bar). Representative cells with average lifetime distribution, segmented NE

(red) around the Hoechst signal (grey), and average lifetime at the NE region are shown. Scale

bar, 10 μm. **(F)** The longer lifetime component of the ER Flipper probe, responsive to the

membrane tension, in noninfected and infected cells at 8 and 12 hpi (n=51, 58, and 59,

respectively). The error bars show the standard deviation. Statistical significance was

determined using Tukey's test, and the significance values are denoted as * ($p<0.05$) or ****

($p<0.0001$). Nonsignificant differences ($p \geq 0.05$) are not labeled.

SUN2 expression decreases in infection

The nuclear lamina is one of the significant determinants of the mechanical behavior of the

nucleus. Thus, to explore the transcriptional activity of lamina-associated proteins during

infection, we performed global run-on sequencing (GRO-Seq) in Vero cells. The gene ontology

analysis (GO) of GRO-Seq data according to the PANTHER classification system for the GO

biological process (http://www.pantherdb.org) identified three main categories: protein

localization to the NE (GO:0090435), nuclear migration (GO:0007097), and NE organization

(GO:0006998) (Figs 4A and 4B, see also S1 Table).

At 4 hpi, the genes encoding lamins A/C and B2 were upregulated compared to noninfected

control cells, whereas at 8 hpi, the genes encoding lamins B1 and B2 were downregulated.

Notably, transcription of SUN2, one of the essential proteins of the LINC complex and the key

regulator of nucleus-cytoskeleton connections [50], was strongly downregulated at 8 hpi. The

zinc metallopeptidase STE24 (ZMPSTE24), a protein needed during the preprocessing of

lamin A [51], was upregulated at 4 and 8 hpi. This protein has a potent antiviral activity,

inhibiting the replication of many enveloped DNA and RNA viruses [52,53]. At 4 and 8 hpi,

torsin-1A-interacting protein 1 (TOR1AIP1, also known as LAP1), a protein involved in the

connection between the nuclear membrane and the nuclear lamina [54,55], was upregulated.

The downregulation of SUN2 at 8 hpi could decrease overall interactions between SUN2 and

LINC complex components, including nesprin family proteins encoded by SYNE 1–4 genes

[56]. The clustering of genes (https://string-db.org/) (Fig 4C and S1 Table) confirmed an

interaction between SUN2 and lamin A/C, which further interacted with lamin B2. In addition,

lamin A/C interacted with the upregulated TOR1AIP1.

Consistent with the GRO-seq data, western blot analysis showed that HSV-1 infection

downregulated SUN2 expression at 8 hpi and, especially, at 12 hpi compared to noninfected

cells. Our results are consistent with previous studies indicating a decrease in SUN2 protein

levels at late stages of HSV-1 infection [57]. Protein expression levels of lamin A at 8 and 12

hpi were not significantly different from those of noninfected cells. The infection led to a slight

downregulation of lamin B2 expression at 8 and 12 hpi, although this was not statistically

significant (Figs 4D and 4E, see also S3 Fig). Altogether, our findings show that progression

of infection led to downregulation of the key regulator of cytoskeleton–nucleus force

transmission, the LINC complex protein SUN2, but did not significantly alter the expression

of nuclear lamina proteins.

Fig 4. The amount of SUN2 decreases in infection. Global run-on sequencing (GRO-seq)

analysis of nascent RNA levels of nuclear lamins and lamin-associated proteins in infected

Vero cells at 4 and 8 hpi. **(A)** GO term classification for lamin-associated processes and **(B)**

regulation of proteins. The color scale indicates upregulation (green-blue), downregulation

(orange-red), or low change of gene transcription (vertical stripes) compared to noninfected

control cells. **(C)** The genes encoding for lamins and lamin-associated proteins (square nodes)

and cellular interactor proteins not associated with lamins (circular nodes) are shown. The

upregulated (green-blue) or downregulated (red-orange) transcripts in response to the infection

are visible together with unregulated interacting transcripts (grey). The node size correlates

with the logarithmic fold change (logFC) of regulation, and the thickness of black lines between

the nodes is proportional to the interaction in the STRING database (https://string-db.org/). **(D)**

Representative western blots showing the expression of SUN2, lamin A, and lamin B in

288   noninfected and infected cells at 8 and 12 hpi. Viral ICP4 was used as an infection marker. **(E)**

289   Quantitative analysis of western blots (n = 4). The error bars show the standard deviation.

290   Statistical significance was determined using Tukey's test, and the significance values are

291   denoted as ** ($p<0.01$) or * ($p<0.05$). Nonsignificant differences ($p \geq 0.05$) are not labeled.

Computational modeling of nuclear mechanics

Our experimental data indicated that the nuclear lamina becomes less mobile, which suggests

that the NE becomes stiffer during the infection. However, AFM indentation measurements

suggested that nuclear stiffness decreases during the infection. To understand this seeming

contradiction, we built a computational model of the nucleus to simulate scenarios that could

lead to the observed changes. The main model assumptions are: (1) the mechanical properties

of the nucleus are governed by the nuclear envelope, including nuclear lamina, chromatin, and

outward forces, representing actin cytoskeleton pull on the nucleus and osmotic pressure

difference; (2) viscous changes in the nuclear structures occur on a time scale too slow to affect

the fast AFM measurement; and (3) the VRC is soft and does not interfere with the AFM

measurement.

The model consisted of two components that determine the main mechanical properties of the

nucleus: the NE, which is considered to include the nuclear lamina, and chromatin. The NE

was modeled as a thin 3D triangulated shell, and 46 separate polymers inside the shell

represented the chromatin. Furthermore, connections between the two, the LADs, and transient

cross-links within the chromatin were included in the model. Additionally, an outward force

was included to represent the combined effects of outward cytoskeletal forces on the NE and

osmotic pressure. The NE in the model includes all the mechanics related to changes in nuclear

surface area, while the chromatin and outward forces together describe the mechanics

associated with nuclear volume. Initial simulations indicated that both the nuclear area- and

volume-related components contribute to the total nuclear stiffness. Finally, to model the VRC,

another shell, similar to the NE, was added inside the nucleus and grown to an appropriate size

to marginalize the chromatin towards the periphery (Fig 5A and S4 Movie). Model parameters

for the noninfected nucleus were taken from the literature or fitted by replicating the AFM

experiments (S5 Movie). The developed model has certain limitations. Combining the

cytoskeletal pull and osmotic pressure into the outward forces reduces the ability of the model

to predict the specific cause of the decreased outward force. Additionally, the model does not

distinguish between heterochromatin and euchromatin, so it cannot describe the mechanical

differences between them. However, adding these features would increase the number of

unknown parameters that need to be estimated, thereby reducing the usability of the model.

To study nuclear mechanics during HSV-1 infection, various model parameters were iteratively

adjusted to observe their impact on simulated AFM results. Based on the observed low

molecular density (Figs 1A-1C), we hypothesized that the VRC is very soft and therefore

disregarded its mechanical role in the infected cell AFM simulations. Additionally, we

postulated that most of the changes seen in Young's modulus were due to the morphological

and structural alterations of the nucleus rather than the cytoplasm. First, we examined the

effects of changes in nuclear volume and height on the simulated AFM results while keeping

everything else constant (Fig 5B, see also S2 Fig). While there was no change in the simulated

Young's moduli between the noninfected and 8 hpi similar-sized nuclei, the increase in the

nuclear size at 12 hpi led to a significant increase in the simulated stiffness compared to the

noninfected nuclei. Next, we simulated the effect of chromatin marginalization on the

simulated Young's moduli and found no significant change (Fig 5C). Finally, we investigated

the importance of lamina-chromatin tethering by simulating the 8 hpi nuclei with and without

LADs. We found that the omission of LADs significantly reduced Young's modulus (Fig 5D). However, this decrease in stiffness was relatively minor compared to the experimentally observed change between noninfected and 8 hpi nuclei. Therefore, since these changes in the nucleus could not explain the experimentally observed reduction in nuclear stiffness, other mechanical changes must occur during HSV-1 infection.

To understand the changes in nuclear mechanics that could reduce nuclear stiffness, we focused on two key changes: decreased outward force and lamina disintegration (Fig 5E). The first change involves a decrease in cytoskeletal force on the nucleus via the LINC complexes or an osmotic pressure difference between the cytoplasm and the nucleus. The second change, lamina disintegration, a phenomenon observed during HSV-1 infection, was implemented by reducing the mechanical strength of a given percentage of connections in the lamina, without altering the number of LADs. Decrease in the outward forces had the most significant effect, as shown by the reduction of the simulated Young's moduli (Fig 5F). Lamina disintegration was generally insignificant when the outward forces were high, but became more important at lower outward force strengths. Thus, our computational data suggested that outward forces, including cytoskeletal forces and osmotic pressure, had the most prominent effect on nuclear stiffness.

Next, we used the model to study whether the experimentally observed increase in NE membrane tension during the infection can co-occur with decreased outward forces and disintegration of the lamin network. We found that tension in the nuclear membrane is affected by both lamina disintegration and the decrease in outward forces (Fig 5G). Lamina disintegration increased nuclear membrane tension, whereas a reduction in outward forces decreased it. The increase in membrane tension during lamina disintegration can be explained by a larger share of the outward forces acting on the membrane rather than on the lamina.

Importantly, these results show that the combined effects of lamina disintegration and reduced

outward forces can lead to a constant or increased NE membrane tension during infection.

Furthermore, we compared the distribution of lamina tension in the NE as the lamina was

disintegrated (Figs 5H and 5I). There were more local high-tension spots on the top surface of

the nucleus as the lamina disintegrated, which led to an overall increase in the nuclear lamina

tension. In all cases, the tension was higher on the sides of the nucleus (Fig 5H), which is

explained by the absence of an actin cap to counteract the outward nuclear forces in these

regions. Taken together, the simulation results indicate that the decrease in nuclear stiffness

during HSV-1 infection is a consequence of reduced cytoskeletal forces and osmotic pressure,

rather than of lamina disintegration. Also, reduced nuclear stiffness can coincide with increases

in nuclear membrane and local lamina tension. Lastly, based on our assumptions and

simulations, chromatin marginalization did not affect the nuclear stiffness during the infection.

Fig 5. Changes in mechanical parameters alter the nuclear stiffness. (A) The setup for the computational model shows a noninfected and an infected cell nucleus. The nuclear envelope (black line), chromatin polymers (blue), envelope-chromatin and chromatin-chromatin connections (red lines), and the viral replication compartment (green line) are shown. **(B)** Simulated Young's moduli for the noninfected (NI) and infected cells (8 and 12 hpi), **(C)** for the infected nuclei (8 hpi) without and with chromatin marginalization close to the nuclear envelope, and **(D)** for the infected nuclei with and without lamina-associated domains (LADs) (n=24). **(E)** Simulation of two changes in the nuclear mechanical parameters: lamina disintegration and decrease in the outward forces. **(F)** Simulated Young's moduli as a function of parameters in infected cell nuclei at 8 hpi (n=8). Significances are shown in S4 Fig. **(G)** Normalized membrane tension as a function of lamina disintegration and outward forces (n=8). Significances are shown in S4 Fig. **(H)** Representative examples of lamina forces with no lamina disintegration and disintegration of 20% and 50%. **(I)** The sum of normalized lamina forces on the top surface of the nuclei without or with 20% or 50% disintegration (normalized to the mean value with no disintegration) (n=8). The error bars show the standard deviation. Statistical significances were determined using Tukey's test (b, i) or Student's t-test (c, d), and the significance values are denoted as **** ($p < 0.0001$) or * ($p < 0.05$). Nonsignificant differences ($p \geq 0.05$) are not labeled.

Intranuclear cytoskeletal pulling forces and cell-substrate contact area decrease in infection

Our computational modeling indicated that decreases in cytoskeletal pulling forces and osmotic pressure reduce nuclear softness. Previous studies have shown that suppressing the LINC complex protein SUN2 alters nuclear mechanical properties, leading to nuclear softening [23]. Consistent with our studies, the infection-induced decrease in SUN2 has been detected in HSV-

1 and human cytomegalovirus infections [57,58]. Nuclear Ca^{2+} ions are connected to the shape

regulation of the nucleus [59], nuclear translocation [60], and chromatin compaction [61].

Here, to monitor virus-induced nuclear changes and to verify the reliability of the model, we

performed experimental validation of mechanical force on the LINC complex and of nuclear

Ca^{2+} levels during infection.

First, we analyzed the effect of HSV-1 infection on the mechanical forces transmitted through

the cytoskeleton to the nucleus. Here, we used a nesprin FRET tension sensor with a phasor

approach to FLIM to measure the force on the LINC complex [62]. These studies indicated that

the cytoskeletal pulling force of the nucleus was significantly lower in infected Vero cells at 8

and 12 hpi compared to noninfected cells (Figs. 6A and B, see also S5 Fig). This demonstrates

that the mechanical linkage of the cytoskeleton to the nucleus is altered in infection, and the

LINC complex forces decrease.

Next, we labeled cells for beta actin and measured their contact areas to the substrate in

noninfected and infected cells. The analysis revealed that the cell contact area was reduced

during infection (Figs 6C and D). This supports the idea that a decrease in outward forces due

to reduced actin cytoskeleton pull occurs during the infection.

Finally, we measured nuclear Ca^{2+} concentration using phasor analysis for FLIM of single-

molecule calcium biosensor G-Ca-FLITS [63,64]. The data show that nuclear Ca^{2+}

concentration is lower in infected Vero cells at 8 and 12 hpi than in noninfected cells (Figs 6E

and F, see also S6 Fig). Altogether, the reduced nuclear Ca^{2+} concentration suggests that

chromatin compaction may decrease in infection, which probably affects nuclear mechanics.

Figure 6. Cytoskeletal forces on the nucleus decrease in infection. (A) The nesprin tension

FRET sensor analysis of the cytoskeletal pulling force in noninfected and infected Vero cells

at 8 and 12 hpi. FRET donor fluorescence intensity (grey) and nesprin tension, quantified from

the donor lifetime (S5 Fig), divided into low (yellow) and high (blue) tension regions at the

segmented nuclear envelope. Scale bar, 5 μm. **(B)** The percentage of high tension regions in

the segmented nuclear membrane in noninfected (NI) and infected cells at 8 and 12 hpi (n=31,

39, and 31, respectively). **(C)** Sum projection of beta-actin immunolabeled noninfected and

infected cells at 4, 8, and 12 hpi. Scale bar, 10 μm. **(D)** The measurement of the area covered

by noninfected and infected cells at 4, 8, and 12 hpi (n = 11, 24, 14, and 25, respectively). **(E)**

Phasor FLIM analysis of calcium concentration using a single-molecule calcium biosensor in

noninfected and infected Vero cells at 8 and 12 hpi. The calcium concentration in the nucleus

divided into low (yellow) and high concentration (blue) regions according to each pixel´s

fluorescence lifetime distribution in the phasor plot (S6 Fig). Scale bar, 5 μm. **(F)** The

percentage of high calcium concentration regions of the total nuclear region in noninfected

cells and infected cells at 8 and 12 hpi (n=31, 37, and 31, respectively). The error bars show

the standard deviation. Statistical significance was determined using Tukey's test, and the

significance values are denoted as **** ($p<0.0001$), ** ($p<0.01$), or * ($p<0.05$). Nonsignificant

differences ($p \geqslant 0.05$) are not labeled.

Discussion

Previous studies on isolated nuclei have shown that nuclear stiffness increases after the nuclear

injection of the HSV-1 genome [65]. Our data shows that this is a transitory phenomenon or

specific to isolated nuclei since the progression of the infection in living cells led to nuclear

softening. The observed softening could be explained by changes in nuclear structure caused

by the enlarged VRC at the center of the nucleus, changes in the nuclear lamina and chromatin,

a decrease in the external pull from the cytoskeleton, or a decrease in osmotic pressure.

The progression of HSV-1 infection leads to an enlarged nuclear VRC, and at the late stages

of infection, the VRC can occupy one-third of the nuclear volume [28]. Our SXT results

indicate that the VRC region is less dense than the euchromatin region in noninfected cells and

the marginalized chromatin in infected cells. This shows that HSV-1 infection forms an

expanded low-density nuclear center surrounded by chromatin. It has been demonstrated that

particle density is proportional to stiffness in many materials, such as collagen-based hydrogels

[66,67]. While other factors, such as crosslink density between hydrogel fibers [68], also

influence stiffness, the lower density of the VRC may indicate lower stiffness than chromatin

and contribute to nuclear softening during infection. It has remained unclear how the infection

and the enlarged VRC affect intranuclear ion and osmotic concentration. Modeling has stated

that nuclear osmotic pressure is proportional to the macromolecular concentration [69,70].

Thus, the reduced macromolecular concentration in the VRC region likely contributes to

regulating nuclear stiffness by decreasing osmotic pressure.

One of the major regulators of nuclear stiffness is the nuclear lamina associated with peripheral

heterochromatin, particularly lamins A and C [10,12,13,71–74]. Studies with lamin A/C-

deficient yeast cells have shown that chromatin tethering to the nuclear membrane increases

the mechanical stiffness of the NE, and untethering of the chromatin leads to a softer nucleus

[7]. In HSV-1 infection, nuclear softness may be altered by virus-induced modification of the

nuclear lamina. Herpesvirus infection does not change the expression of lamins, but results in

local dispersion of the nuclear lamina by phosphorylation and redistribution of lamins A/C and

B. Various viral proteins and kinases (UL13, UL34, ICP34.5, and Us3) mediate these processes

[39,75–78]. We showed how the mobility of the nuclear lamina decreases in infection,

suggesting a possible increase in its tension or rigidity. However, it cannot be ruled out that

infection-induced changes in the microtubules might also play a role in NE mobility [7]. Our

simulations showed that the effect of lamina disintegration alone was not significant on

simulated nuclear stiffness. Still, it became relevant when the outward forces, described as the

combined effect of cytoskeletal pulling forces and osmotic pressure on the NE, were reduced.

Finally, we showed that nuclear membrane tension increases at late infection, coinciding with

nuclear volume expansion. This could be explained by earlier studies showing that nuclear

swelling induces mechanical stretching forces that elevate membrane tension [79]. Membrane

tension could also be affected by changes in lipid deformation during the formation of the viral

egress complex [80]. Our simulations showed that the disintegration of the lamina led to

increased membrane tension even when outward forces were reduced, because more of the

outward forces were subjected to the membrane rather than to the lamina.

Our simulations were conducted to explain the experimental softening of the nucleus. They

indicated that a reduction in outward forces led to the most significant decrease in nuclear

stiffness, suggesting this could be the primary mechanism underlying the experimentally

observed change in nuclear stiffness during the infection. The outward forces described the

combined effects of cytoskeletal forces on the NE and osmotic pressure in the nucleus. Nuclear

elasticity is partly regulated by the cytoskeletal tension mediated by the LINC complex, which

links the nucleo- and cytoskeleton [10,74,12]. Our data showed that the force transmission from

the cytoskeleton to the nucleus is altered in HSV-1 infection. First, we observed that SUN2

expression decreases during HSV-1 infection. Suppressing LINC protein SUN2 changes the

mechanical properties of the nucleus and causes nuclear softening [23]. In macrophages, a

deficiency of SUN1 and SUN2 proteins causes a decrease in nuclear size and an increase in

nuclear elasticity [81]. SUN2 is a short-lived protein with a degradation half-life of 240 min

[82], and temporal proteomics analysis has confirmed the reduced amount of SUN2 at late

HSV-1 infection [57]. This most likely regulates the mechanical properties of the nucleus and

reduces nuclear stiffness as the infection progresses. However, it cannot be the sole effector,

since nuclear stiffness is already lower at 4 hpi, when SUN2 has not yet been downregulated.

SUN2 depletion also modifies the NE double membrane and the perinuclear space [82,83].

Second, we showed that tension on nesprin proteins decreases in the infection. It is known that

the force on the LINC complex can directly affect nuclear elasticity, and a decrease in the

cytoskeletal pull softens the nucleus [22,23]. Additionally, it is known that HSV-1 rearranges

the actin cytoskeleton via cofilin-1 [84]. Finally, we observed that the cell-substrate contact

area decreased during infection, supporting the observed reduction in cytoskeletal tension [85].

Together, the downregulation of SUN2, the observed decrease in cell-substrate contact area,

and the reduced force on the LINC complex indicate that the cytoskeletal pulling force on the

nucleus was reduced.

The subdiffusive capsid motion in the nucleus is restricted by chromatin marginalized toward

the NE. However, later in infection, the chromatin barrier becomes more permissive, and the

probability of capsids entering the chromatin increases [33]. The mechanical changes that we

observed might partly explain this phenomenon. Specifically, downregulation of the SUN

protein has been shown to reduce chromatin condensation [86]. In HSV-1 infection, decreased

SUN2 expression could facilitate the progression of infection and the nuclear egress of HSV-

1 capsids, possibly by remodeling chromatin and NE organization [87]. The recent

cytomegalovirus data show that changes in LINC-complex-mediated microtubule

mechanotransduction lead to reorganization of both hetero- and euchromatin [88]. Moreover,

nuclear chromatin compaction is also regulated by Ca^{2+} ion concentration. At low calcium

levels, the negative charges of DNA remain partially unneutralized, leading to more expanded

fibrous chromatin [61]. The lower calcium concentration that we observed during infection

may therefore trigger local remodeling and decondensation of chromatin and possibly affect

chromatin dynamics, which could explain the facilitated capsid diffusion through the chromatin

during the nuclear egress of viral capsids. The decreasing calcium concentration also suggests

that intranuclear osmotic pressure may decrease during infection. However, calcium is only

one of the many ions and molecules that affect osmotic pressure, and we cannot make

conclusions based solely on it. Moreover, due to the NLS-tagged sensor we used, we cannot

assess the difference in calcium concentration between the nucleus and the cytoplasm.

In summary, herpesvirus infection and the emergence of enlarged, low-density VRCs lead to

changes in nuclear volume, organization of chromatin and the nuclear lamina, and the

connections to the cytoskeleton. Virus-induced nuclear deformation alters the nuclear

environment and triggers changes in the intrinsic forces acting on the nucleus (Fig 7).

Altogether, these profound changes cause nuclear softening. Our simulations show that the

measured changes in the nuclear lamina and size have a relatively minor effect on stiffness

compared to nucleocytoplasmic forces, namely cytoskeletal-nuclear connections and osmotic

pressure. While the reorganization of the lamina is known to be essential for the nuclear egress

of new HSV-1 viral capsids, the role of the predicted reduction in nucleocytoplasmic forces

during infection remains elusive. Changes in the osmotic balance between the nucleus and the

cytoplasm can, for example, originate from changes in nuclear transport, which HSV-1-

induced changes in the nuclear pore function could cause [89]. These emerging insights shed

new light on the virus-induced fundamental remodeling of nuclear organization and

mechanobiology, and their impact on the progression of HSV-1 infection.

Fig 7. Virus-induced changes in mechanical forces regulating nuclear stiffness. HSV-1 infection leads to extensive changes in nuclear organization and mechanical forces. **(A)** The infection results in an enlarged nuclear viral replication compartment, a low-density area surrounded by a condensed chromatin layer. **(B)** Changes in the organization and mobility of the nuclear lamina accompany the increase in nuclear volume and height. **(C)** Nuclear stiffness is affected by cytoskeletal pull. The key regulator of cytoskeletal tension of the nucleus, LINC complex protein SUN2, is strongly downregulated in infection, and nesprin tension decreases together with the cell-substrate contact area. Viral infection alters the mechanical properties of the nucleus and leads to nuclear softening.

Materials and Methods

Cells and viruses

Mouse embryonic fibroblast cells (MEF, ATCC® CRL-2991™) and African green monkey kidney cells (Vero, ATCC® CCL-81™) were grown in Dulbecco's modified Eagle medium (DMEM) supplemented with 10% fetal bovine serum, L-glutamine, and penicillin-streptomycin (Gibco-Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA) at 37 °C in the presence of 5% CO_2. HA-tagged progerin, a truncated form of lamin A [90], was expressed in Vero cells using adenovirus [91]. Lamin A adenovirus was used to overexpress wild-type lamin A in Veros. Lamin A adenovirus (based on RefSeq BC014507) was purchased from Vector Biolabs and used as previously described [91]. The cells were infected 4, 8, or 12 hours before imaging and measurements with the wild-type 17+ strain, EYFP-ICP4 (vEYFP-ICP4 [92]), or VP26-mCherry virus (HSV1(17$^+$)Lox-CheVP26 [93–95]) at a multiplicity of infection of 5.

Atomic force microscopy (AFM)

Force spectroscopy AFM experiments were performed on noninfected and infected Vero cells at 4, 8, and 10 hpi using a NanoWizard 4 XP instrument (JPK BioAFM, Bruker Nano GmbH, Berlin, Germany) mounted on an inverted microscope (Nikon Ti-U, Nikon Instruments Europe B.V., Amsterdam, the Netherlands) equipped with a standard monochrome CCD camera (ProgRes MFCool, Jenoptik, Jena, Germany). Fluorescence imaging was performed using wide-field illumination (Intensilight Hg lamp, Nikon) with a 100X objective (Nikon CFI Apo VC, 1.4 NA, oil immersion) and the appropriate filter cube for EYFP. A software module (DirectOverlay, JPK Bio-AFM, Bruker Nano GmbH, Berlin, Germany) calibrated the tip position with the optical image. Nanomechanical measurements were performed in spectroscopy mode using a 6.62 μm probe (CP-PNPL-SiO-C from SQube, mean cantilever spring constant $k_{cant} = 0.06$ N/m). Before each set of acquisitions, the sensitivity and spring constant of the cantilever were calibrated (thermal noise method). The measurements were

performed in buffered culture medium at 37°C under 5% CO2, with a relative setpoint of 2 nN,

a Z-length of 12 μm, and a constant extension velocity of 1 μm/s. The center of the nucleus of

a cell was visualized by fluorescence, and ten successive force curve measurements were taken.

Raw data were cleaned manually by removing any aberrant contact points, and each force curve

was fitted with a Hertz model to calculate Young's modulus using JPK data Processing

software (7.0.181). The average pressing depth ranged from 0.9 μm (noninfected) to 3.3 μm

(10 hpi), as analyzed by randomly selecting about 50% of cells at each infection time point.

This reflects the decrease in nuclear stiffness that occurs during the infection. The average

measures were plotted by cell (one point is one cell) after filtering out outliers (z-score>3).

Cryo-soft X-ray tomography (SXT) of suspended cells in capillaries

MEF cells were seeded into culture flasks (Corning, Corning, NY) and infected with HSV-1

vEYFP-ICP4 at an MOI of 5 for 4 and 8 hours at 37°C. Noninfected and infected cells were

detached with trypsin-EDTA, pelleted by centrifugation (300x*g*), and washed with PBS. Cells

were then fixed with glutaraldehyde (0.5%) and paraformaldehyde for 10 minutes at RT and

35 minutes at 4°C (4%, cat. No. 15713-S; Electron Microscopy Sciences, Hatfield, PA),

washed once with PBS, pelleted by centrifugation (300x*g*), re-suspended in the PBS buffer,

filtered, loaded into thin-walled cylindrical borosilicate glass capillaries (Hilgenberg GmbH,

Hilgenberg, GER, Cat. No. 4023088), and then vitrified by quickly plunging them into liquid-

nitrogen-cooled (~90 K) liquid propane. SXT tomographic data were collected by full-rotation

imaging with a soft X-ray microscope (XM-2) in the National Center for X-ray Tomography

at the Advanced Light Source (http://www.als.lbl.gov) of Lawrence Berkeley National

Laboratory (Berkeley, CA). Cells were kept in a stream of liquid-nitrogen-cooled helium gas

to avoid radiation damage during data collection. For each data set, 180° rotation tomographs

(1 projection image per 2° angle) were collected [96,97]. Projection images were aligned by

tracking fiducial markers and reconstructed using automatic reconstruction software [98]. The

high- and low-density chromatin was segmented using histogram-based separation into two

classes in Dragonfly (Comet Technologies Canada Inc., Montreal, Canada).

Focused Ion Beam Scanning Electron Microscopy (FIB-SEM)

The volume imaging data set of MEF cells with enhanced chromatin contrast was generated

using FIB-SEM. MEFs, noninfected or HSV-1 infected at an MOI of 5 for 8 h, were processed

for imaging as described earlier [99]. The Chrom EM method was used to enhance the contrast

of DNA [45]. The deposition of the osmiophilic polymer of diaminobenzidine, specifically on

the DNA, was carried out using the fluorescent emission of DRAQ5. For this, the cells were

placed on a cooled stage of a Leica DM IL LED microscope and exposed to 620 ± 30 nm light

in the presence of diaminobenzidine, inducing its local polymerization over DRAQ5-bound

DNA. The cells were treated with osmium tetroxide, followed by dehydration in a graded series

of ethanol and embedding in resin. One set of cells was thin-sectioned and then poststained

with 2% uranyl acetate and lead citrate. Another set of cells was coated with platinum. The

sections were imaged using a Jeol JEM-1400HC transmission electron microscope with an

Olympus SIS Quemesa bottom-mounted CCD camera (80 kV). The datasets were acquired in

a Zeiss Crossbeam 500 using backscattered and secondary electron signals. The area of interest

was exposed using a milling beam (0.7 nA at 30 kV) and imaged with a scanning electron beam

(0.31 or 0.50 nA, 1.5 or 1.6 keV). The milling and scanning process of the cell cross-section

produced an image volume with a voxel size of 2.5 x 2.5 x 5 nm^3. The datasets were collected

and aligned using Zeiss Atlas 5 software with a 3D tomography module. Microscopy Image

Browser [100] was used to segment the capsids, chromatin, and the NE. The chromatin

segmentation was done semi-automatically using MIB (https://mib.helsinki.fi/) and cleaned

using iterative intensity-based erosion. The local thickness of the chromatin was measured in

ImageJ (https://imagej.net/imagej-wiki-static/Local_Thickness) using Python; local maxima

were identified, and the local thickness value was extracted. The distance of these local maxima

to the NE was then calculated using the Euclidean distance transform.

Confocal imaging and analysis

Wild-type Vero cells, Vero cells expressing HA-tagged progerin, or Vero cells overexpressing

wild-type lamin A were grown on glass coverslips for microscopy to analyze nuclear volume.

The cells were infected with HSV-1 EYFP-ICP4 and fixed at 8 and 12 hpi with 4% PFA, and

DNA was labeled with DAPI. Viral EYFP-ICP4 was boosted with an anti-GFP antibody. Cells

were embedded into VECTASHIELD® PLUS Antifade Mounting Medium (H-1900) (Vector

Laboratories). The cells were imaged using a Leica SP8 confocal microscope with a UPLSAPO

63x oil immersion objective (NA 1.35). DAPI (Invitrogen) was excited with a 405 nm diode

laser, and a 410-439 nm band-pass filter was used to detect fluorescence. EYFP was excited

with a 488 nm laser, and the fluorescence was collected with a 519-540 nm bandpass filter.

Lamin A/C was excited with a 653 nm laser, and fluorescence was collected with a 661-839

nm filter. Stacks of 1024 x 1024 pixels were collected with a 120 nm/pixel pixel size in the x-

and y- directions and 400 nm in the z-direction. The nuclei were segmented using the minimum

cross-entropy threshold algorithm [101] for the DAPI channel.

For analyses of the nuclear intensity of lamins, Vero cells infected with HSV-1 EYFP-ICP4

and fixed at 8 and 12 hpi were labeled with antibodies against lamin A/C (mouse monoclonal

antibody MAb; ab8984, Abcam, Cambridge, UK) and Lamin B1 (rabbit polyclonal antibody,

rAb; ab16048, Abcam). The primary antibodies were followed by goat anti-rabbit or anti-

mouse Alexa 546- (lamin A/C) and 647- (lamin B1) conjugated secondary antibodies (Thermo

Fisher Scientific, Waltham, MA, USA). DNA was labeled with Hoechst 1:10000 in PBS for

10 min. Cells were embedded into VECTASHIELD® PLUS Antifade Mounting Medium (H-

1900) (Vector Laboratories). The immunolabeled cells were imaged using a Leica TCS SP8

FALCON laser scanning confocal microscope (Leica Microsystems, Mannheim, Germany).

Alexa 546 and Alexa 647 were excited with 557 nm and 653 nm wavelengths of pulsed white

light laser (80 MHz), respectively. The emission detection range was 568-648 nm for Alexa

546 and 663-776 nm for Alexa 647. DAPI was excited with a 405 nm diode laser, and emission

between 415-495 nm was detected. Laser powers for all channels were fixed. Stacks of 1024 x

1024 pixels were collected with 120 nm/pixel in the x- and y- directions and 240 nm in the z-

direction. The nuclei were segmented using a minimum cross-entropy threshold algorithm

[101] for the DAPI channel. The total nuclear intensity was calculated for the pixels belonging

to the segmented nucleus, and the intensity near the NE was calculated by using only pixels

having an Euclidean distance of 1 µm or less from the NE.

The distribution and mobility of lamins were imaged in living noninfected and HSV-1

mCherry-infected (8 and 12 hpi) Vero cells transfected with lamin A/C-Chromobody-GFP2

(Proteintech, Manchester, UK) by electroporation using Neon Transfection System (Thermo

Fischer Scientific) with 1150 V and two pulses with a width of 20 ms. Before imaging, the

cells were labeled with 1 µM Hoechst 33342. During the imaging with Leica SP8 Falcon, using

Leica HC PL APO CS2 1.2NA 63X water immersion objective, Hoechst was excited with 405

nm laser, 1% laser power and the emission collected between 412-475 nm (HyD), the lamin

A/C-Chromobody-GFP2 was excited with a 488 nm wavelength of white light laser, 10% laser

power and the emission was collected between 495-560 nm (HyD), and the mCherry channel

was excited using 587 nm, 10% laser power and emission was collected between 594-800 nm

(HyD). The image size was 296 x 296 pixels with a 100 nm pixel size in the x- and y-directions

and the imaging speed was bidirectional 1000 Hz with two sequences (1. Hoechst, 2. GFP and

mCherry), resulting in 3.2 frames per second for 60 seconds. The lamina was analyzed by first

removing its translational and rotational motion. The lamina was skeletonized at each time

point, and the maximumintensity projection of the skeletons was taken. The area of the

maximum intensity projection was calculated and divided by its length. The curvature was

defined by discretizing the nuclear lamina using 16-pixel (1.6 μm) long line segments and

calculating the angles between consecutive segments.

To measure the contact area of the cells during the infection, ICP4-EYFP-infected cells were

labeled using a mouse Anti-beta Actin antibody ([mAbcam 8226], Abcam). The contact area

of the cells during the infection was analyzed by taking the sum projection of the actin channel

along the z-direction, thresholding the sum projection using the minimum cross-entropy

algorithm [101], and calculating the area of the segmented region.

Fluorescence lifetime imaging and analysis

Nuclear membrane tension was analyzed by FLIM using fluorescent membrane tension probe

ER Flipper-TR® (Spirochrome) in noninfected and HSV-1 17+ wt infected live Vero cells at 8

and 12 hpi. Measurements were performed with a Leica SP8 Falcon using Leica HyD SMD

detectors and a Leica HC PL APO CS2 1.2NA 63X water immersion objective. The ER Flipper

probe was used at 1 μM, and the cells were also labeled with Hoechst 33342 at 1 μM. One

plane at the center of the nucleus, where the nuclear edges were clearly visible, was first

acquired with 405 nm excitation and 415-465 nm emission to visualize DNA with Hoechst.

Immediately after, the ER Flipper was imaged using 477 nm excitation and 550-650 nm

emission, and line accumulation of 16. The scanning speed was 200 Hz, the repetition rate was

80 MHz, and the image size was 328x328 pixels with 81x81nm/pixel for both Hoechst and ER

Flipper imaging. For tension analysis, pixel binning of 3 was used, resulting in approximately 500-1500 photons per pixel. After binning, a pixel-wise two-component fitting was performed, and the longer component, corresponding to membrane tension, was extracted. Using the Hoechst data, a 486 nm wide ring just outside the cellular DNA was used as a mask to obtain the nuclear membrane area from the tension data. The mean of the longer ER Flipper lifetime along the NE was calculated for each cell.

Pcdna nesprin TS, a gift from Daniel Conway (Addgene plasmid #68127; http://n2t.net/addgene:68127; RRID: Addgene #68127), was used to measure the amount of cytoskeleton tension towards the nucleus, reported by FRET, across the nuclear envelope. The Vero cells were transiently transfected by electroporation using the Neon Transfection System (Thermo Fischer Scientific) with two 1150 V pulses of 20 ms width, and grown overnight on a 35 mm live-imaging glass-bottom dish (Ibidi) in an antibiotic-free medium. The next day, or the day after, the cells were mock-infected and infected with HSV-1 VP26-mCherry, and imaged at 8hpi and 12hpi using a Leica SP8 Falcon at 37°C and 5% CO_2, with a Leica HC PL APO CS2 1.2NA 63X water immersion objective. Before starting the imaging, the medium was changed to one without phenol red and containing 1 μM Hoechst 33342. All imaging was conducted approximately between 30 minutes before and 30 minutes after the designated time points, and the mock-infected cells were imaged in between the two time points. Mock-infected and infected cells were made from the same set of transfected cells for two biological replicates, and a third biological replicate of mock-infected cells was imaged for more n. From each imaged cell, first a reference image was taken from Hoechst (excitation 405nm, 1% laser power, emission 415-473nm, PMT), nesprin TS donor (excitation 470nm, 3% laser power, emission 485-500nm, HyD photon counting), nesprin TS acceptor (excitation 514nm, 3% laser power, emission 520-580nm, HyD photon counting) and mCherry (excitation 580nm, 3% laser

power, emission 600-700nm, HyD photon counting) in four sequences, after which the FLIM-

FRET data was acquired for the nesprin TS donor channel for 1 minute using frame repetition

at the speed of 700 Hz and 80MHz pulse rate. Only cells with >50 photons per pixel at the NE

were included in the analysis, as they provided a precise phasor cloud distribution without

significant background contribution using the LAS X wavelet filter. On the other hand, cells

with >1500 photons in the brightest pixel were excluded as the data was dominated by the high

FRET of overexpressed non-bound nesprin TS. A pixel size of 69 nm (x,y), an image size of

360 (x,y) pixels, and a pinhole of 1 airy unit were used. An ROI for the NE was generated by

automatic thresholding of nesprin TS FLIM or intensity data, or by manually drawing the NE

in ImageJ. The data were divided into low- and high-FRET pixels at the NE, which inversely

reports for high and low tension, respectively. A FRET efficiency threshold of 10% was used

for the division. The number of pixels with low and high FRET at the NE was quantified for

each cell, inversely representing the tension between the nucleus and cytoskeleton. A

description of the phasor FLIM-FRET analysis workflow is presented in the S5 Fig.

To measure intranuclear calcium concentration, we used 3xnls-G-Ca-FLITS, a gift from Dorus

Gadella (Addgene plasmid #191463; http://n2t.net/addgene:191463; RRID: Addgene

#191463). The Vero cells were transiently transfected by electroporation using the Neon

Transfection System (Thermo Fischer Scientific) with two 1150 V pulses of 20 ms width, and

grown overnight on a 35mm live-imaging glass-bottom dish (Ibidi) in an antibiotic-free

medium. The next day, or the day after, the cells were mock-infected and infected with HSV-

1 VP26-mCherry, and imaged at 8hpi and 12hpi using Leica SP8 Falcon at 37°C and 5% CO_2

and Leica HC PL APO CS2 1.2NA 63X water immersion objective. Before starting the

imaging, the medium was changed to one without phenol red and containing 1 µM Hoechst

33342. All imaging was conducted approximately between 30 minutes before and 30 minutes

after the designated time points, and the mock-infected cells were imaged in between the two

time points. Mock-infected and infected cells were generated from the same set of transfected

cells, with two biological replicates. The FLIM data were acquired by exciting the G-Ca-FLITS

biosensor with a 474 nm laser at 3% power and 40 MHz repetition rate, for 1 minute at the

speed of 1800 Hz. For increased photon detection rate, the emission spectrum was divided into

two HyDs, first detecting 490nm-534nm and second 540-580nm, resulting in >400 photons per

pixel. The 5 nm gap in the detection spectrum was because a PMT detector is placed in between

the two HyDs in the system. Simultaneously to acquiring the G-Ca-FLITS FLIM data, Hoechst

33342 (excitation 405, laser power 0.5%, emission 415-490nm, PMT) and mCherry (excitation

586 nm, laser power 3%, emission 600-700nm, HyD) were acquired in separate sequences. A

pixel size of 68 nm (x,y), an image size of 306 pixels (x,y), and a 1 Airy unit pinhole size were

used. First, a control experiment was conducted with transfected noninfected cells, in which,

during live FLIM acquisition, the medium was supplemented with 5X ionomycin (From

APExBIO kit 2061). From this experiment, a calibration phasor FLIM line spanning low-to-

high calcium concentrations could be generated, confirming the expected sensor function.

Next, the phasor analysis of the biosensor FLIM data of noninfected and infected cells showed

a clear lifetime difference along the ionomycin calibration experiment. Phasor cursors were

drawn for these lifetime species to quantify nuclear pixels into high- or low-calcium

concentration groups according to their fluorescence lifetime. The ratio of high and low-

calcium concentration pixels for each nucleus was quantified. The phasor analysis of the G-

Ca-FLITS FLIM data is further described in S6 Fig.

Global Run-On and sequencing (GRO-seq)

GRO-seq analysis was performed as described previously [99]. Briefly, to prepare nuclei, noninfected and infected Vero cells (at 4 and 8 hpi) were swollen, and the nuclei were collected and stored at -80°C. The preparation of GRO-Seq libraries followed the previously described protocol [99,102]. The library quantification was performed using a Qubit fluorometer (Thermo Fisher Scientific) and prepared for 50 bp single-end sequencing on an Illumina HiSeq 2000 platform (GeneCore, EMBL Heidelberg, Germany). The raw sequencing reads were assessed by the FastQC tool (http://www.bioinformatics.babraham.ac.uk/projects/fastqc/) and the FastX toolkit (http://hannonlab.cshl.edu/fastx_toolkit/). GRO-seq reads were aligned to the ChlSab1.1 genome using the bowtie-0.12.7 software [103]. The best alignment was obtained with up to two mismatches and up to three locations per read. Differentially expressed genes were detected using ChlSab1.1.95.gtf coordinates, and the RNA.pl workflow of HOMER 4.3 and edgeR v3.2.2 were used for analysis. Genes were considered differentially expressed using the following cutoffs: log2 fold change 0.585, RPKM 0.5 in at least one sample, and adjusted p-value of 0.05. GRO-seq reads were mapped to the Human Protein Atlas (https://www.proteinatlas.org/) to identify lamins and nuclear lamina-related proteins. The interaction of these proteins was further mapped using the String database (https://string-db.org/) by selecting experimentally shown interactions using a threshold of 500. The non-interacting proteins were identified in the same String database, provided they interact with at least one detected protein. The resulting graph was generated in Python using the networkx package and then manually adjusted.

Western blot

0.7×10^6 Vero cells were plated on 5 cm cell culture dishes, grown over night, and infected the next day with HSV-1 17+ wt (MOI 5). Noninfected and infected cells (8 hpi and 12 hpi)

weredetached by scraping. Scraped cells were collected in 1 ml of cold PBS and centrifuged at

2,000 x g for 5 min to pellet the cells. Cell pellets were resuspended in Laemmli sample buffer

containing 2.5% 2-mercaptoethanol (Bio-Rad Laboratories) in PBS and heated at 95 °C for 10

minutes. Protein standards (Bio-Rad Laboratories) and 15 µl of samples were loaded onto 4–

20% Mini Protean TGX Stain-Free gels (Bio-Rad Laboratories), and run at 100 V for 80

minutes. Total protein stain in the gels was activated for 5 min, and the gels were imaged to

detect the protein standards. Proteins were blotted onto 0.2 µm low fluorescence PVDF

membranes with the Trans-Blot Turbo RTA Transfer Kit (Bio-Rad Laboratories) and Trans-

Blot Turbo Transfer-System (Bio-Rad Laboratories). Blots and gels were imaged to verify

protein transfer. After acquiring the total protein stain for each blot the membranes were

blocked for 5 minutes in EveryBlot Blocking Buffer (Bio-Rad Laboratories, USA) and probed

with primary antibodies against SUN2 (ab124916, Abcam), Lamin A (ab26300,

AbcamPredicted band size: 74 kDa), Lamin B (ab16048, Abcam), and HSV-1 ICP4 (ab6514,

Abcam). Primary antibodies were detected using fluorophore-conjugated secondary antibodies

goat anti-mouse IgG StarBright Blue 520 and goat anti-rabbit IgG StarBright Blue 700 (Bio-

Rad Laboratories). Gels and immunoblots were imaged with the Bio-Rad ChemiDoc MP

Imaging System. Total band intensities for predicted-sized bands were quantified using Image

Lab 6.1 software (Bio-Rad Laboratories).

829   Computational modeling

The developed computational model described the nucleus as an NE, including the nuclear

lamina, and chromatin components in three dimensions. The main model assumptions were:

(1) the mechanical properties of the nucleus are dictated by the nuclear envelope, chromatin,

and outward forces, including actin cytoskeleton prestress and osmotic pressure difference; (2)

no changes in the mechanical properties occur during the short AFM measurement; and (3) the

VRC has low density and has no effect on the AFM measurement. The NE was triangulated

into a viscoelastic shell, and self-avoiding polymer chains were used to model the chromatin.

Furthermore, additional interactions were defined to describe various connections, such as

LADs between chromatin and the lamina, and between different parts of the chromatin. The

herpesvirus VRC was described as a single coherent entity within the nucleus. It was

represented similarly to the NE as a triangulated shape that repulses the chromatin as it grows.

The model was simulated by calculating a force affecting each vertex originating from various,

usually Hookean, interactions and moving them using the damped equation of motion:

$$\gamma \vec{v}_i + \sum_j c_{ij} \left(\vec{v}_i - \vec{v}_j \right) = \vec{F}_i + \eta,$$

where γ is the system viscosity, $\vec{v}_i$ is the velocity of vertex i, c_{ij} is the friction between vertices

i and j, $\vec{F}_i$ is the total force affecting vertex i, and η is the random thermal motion. The equation

was solved using the conjugate gradient method, and the vertex movements were computed

using the forward Euler method.

To simulate the AFM experiments, a cantilever with properties mirroring those of the one used

in the experiments was used to push down on the nucleus, and the resulting force and

indentation depth data were used to calculate the Young's modulus using the Hertz model. The

computational model was implemented using Julia programming language (v1.10.2), and the

model and the parameters are described in more detail in S1 Text. The code is available on

GitHub   (https://github.com/atervn/nuclear_mech)   and   Zenodo

(https://zenodo.org/records/14512358). The data fitting for the Hertz model was done using

Matlab (The MathWorks Inc, R2021a, Natick, Massachusetts) and 3D visualization using

ParaView [104].

Data availability

861 The authors declare that the GRO-Seq data were deposited into the Gene Expression Omnibus

862 database under accession number GSE243613 and are available

863 at https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/geo/query/acc.cgi?acc=GSE243613. All other relevant data

864 are in the manuscript and its supporting information files.

Acknowledgments

We thank the staff of the National Center for X-ray Tomography (NCXT) and Advanced Light

Source (Lawrence Berkeley National Laboratory, Berkeley, CA) for providing cryo-SXT

experiments. We also thank Helena Vihinen from the Electron Microscopy Unit (University of

Helsinki, Institute of Biotechnology, Helsinki Institute of Life Science, Helsinki, Finland) for

preparing and imaging FIB-SEM samples and Elina Mäntylä for preparing the GRO-Seq

samples.

References

1. Uhler C, Shivashankar GV. Regulation of genome organization and gene expression by
nuclear mechanotransduction. Nat Rev Mol Cell Biol. 2017 Dec;18(12):717–27.

2. Carley E, Stewart RM, Zieman A, Jalilian I, King DE, Zubek A, et al. The LINC complex
transmits integrin-dependent tension to the nuclear lamina and represses epidermal
differentiation. eLife. 10:e58541.

3. Versaevel M, Grevesse T, Gabriele S. Spatial coordination between cell and nuclear shape
within micropatterned endothelial cells. Nat Commun. 2012 Feb 14;3:671.

4. Lammerding J. Mechanics of the nucleus. Compr Physiol. 2011 Apr;1(2):783–807.

5. Moore HM, Vartiainen MK. F-actin organizes the nucleus. Nat Cell Biol. 2017 Nov
29;19(12):1386–8.

6. Pajerowski JD, Dahl KN, Zhong FL, Sammak PJ, Discher DE. Physical plasticity of the
nucleus in stem cell differentiation. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A. 2007 Oct
2;104(40):15619–24.

7. Schreiner SM, Koo PK, Zhao Y, Mochrie SGJ, King MC. The tethering of chromatin to
the nuclear envelope supports nuclear mechanics. Nat Commun. 2015 Jun 15;6:7159.

8. Turgay Y, Eibauer M, Goldman AE, Shimi T, Khayat M, Ben-Harush K, et al. The
molecular architecture of lamins in somatic cells. Nature. 2017 Mar 9;543(7644):261–4.

9. Vahabikashi A, Adam SA, Medalia O, Goldman RD. Nuclear lamins: Structure and
function in mechanobiology. APL Bioeng. 2022 Mar;6(1):011503.

10. Lammerding J, Schulze PC, Takahashi T, Kozlov S, Sullivan T, Kamm RD, et al. Lamin
A/C deficiency causes defective nuclear mechanics and mechanotransduction. J Clin
Invest. 2004 Feb;113(3):370–8.

11. Gruenbaum Y, Foisner R. Lamins: nuclear intermediate filament proteins with
fundamental functions in nuclear mechanics and genome regulation. Annu Rev Biochem.
2015;84:131–64.

12. Dahl KN, Kahn SM, Wilson KL, Discher DE. The nuclear envelope lamina network has
elasticity and a compressibility limit suggestive of a molecular shock absorber. J Cell Sci.
2004 Sep 15;117(Pt 20):4779–86.

13. Swift J, Ivanovska IL, Buxboim A, Harada T, Dingal PCDP, Pinter J, et al. Nuclear lamin-
A scales with tissue stiffness and enhances matrix-directed differentiation. Science. 2013
Aug 30;341(6149):1240104.

14. Ihalainen TO, Aires L, Herzog FA, Schwartlander R, Moeller J, Vogel V. Differential
basal-to-apical accessibility of lamin A/C epitopes in the nuclear lamina regulated by
changes in cytoskeletal tension. Nat Mater. 2015 Dec;14(12):1252–61.

15. Stephens AD, Banigan EJ, Adam SA, Goldman RD, Marko JF. Chromatin and lamin A
determine two different mechanical response regimes of the cell nucleus. Mol Biol Cell.
2017 Jul 7;28(14):1984–96.

16. Stephens AD, Liu PZ, Banigan EJ, Almassalha LM, Backman V, Adam SA, et al.
Chromatin histone modifications and rigidity affect nuclear morphology independent of
lamins. Mol Biol Cell. 2018 Jan 15;29(2):220–33.

17. Stephens AD, Liu PZ, Kandula V, Chen H, Almassalha LM, Herman C, et al.
Physicochemical mechanotransduction alters nuclear shape and mechanics via
heterochromatin formation. Mol Biol Cell. 2019 Aug 1;30(17):2320–30.

18. Mazumder A, Roopa T, Basu A, Mahadevan L, Shivashankar GV. Dynamics of
chromatin decondensation reveals the structural integrity of a mechanically prestressed
nucleus. Biophys J. 2008 Sep 15;95(6):3028–35.

19. Strom AR, Biggs RJ, Banigan EJ, Wang X, Chiu K, Herman C, et al. HP1α is a chromatin
crosslinker that controls nuclear and mitotic chromosome mechanics. Elife. 2021 Jun
9;10:e63972.

20. Dos Santos Á, Cook AW, Gough RE, Schilling M, Olszok NA, Brown I, et al. DNA
damage alters nuclear mechanics through chromatin reorganization. Nucleic Acids Res.
2021 Jan 11;49(1):340–53.

21. Deviri D, Safran SA. Balance of osmotic pressures determines the nuclear-to-cytoplasmic
volume ratio of the cell. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A. 2022 May 24;119(21):e2118301119.

22. Guilluy C, Osborne LD, Van Landeghem L, Sharek L, Superfine R, Garcia-Mata R, et al.
Isolated nuclei adapt to force and reveal a mechanotransduction pathway within the
nucleus. Nat Cell Biol. 2014 Apr;16(4):376–81.

23. Yue X, Cui J, Sun Z, Liu L, Li Y, Shao L, et al. Nuclear softening mediated by Sun2
suppression delays mechanical stress-induced cellular senescence. Cell Death Discov.
2023 May 17;9(1):167.

24. Kobiler O, Weitzman MD. Herpes simplex virus replication compartments: From naked
release to recombining together. PLoS Pathog. 2019 Jun;15(6):e1007714.

25. Church GA, Dasgupta A, Wilson DW. Herpes simplex virus DNA packaging without
measurable DNA synthesis. J Virol. 1998 Apr;72(4):2745–51.

26. Heming JD, Conway JF, Homa FL. Herpesvirus Capsid Assembly and DNA Packaging.
Adv Anat Embryol Cell Biol. 2017;223:119–42.

27. Monier K, Armas JC, Etteldorf S, Ghazal P, Sullivan KF. Annexation of the
interchromosomal space during viral infection. Nat Cell Biol. 2000 Sep;2(9):661–5.

28. Aho V, Mäntylä E, Ekman A, Hakanen S, Mattola S, Chen JH, et al. Quantitative
Microscopy Reveals Stepwise Alteration of Chromatin Structure during Herpesvirus
Infection. Viruses. 2019 Oct 11;11(10):935.

29. McSwiggen DT, Hansen AS, Teves SS, Marie-Nelly H, Hao Y, Heckert AB, et al.
Evidence for DNA-mediated nuclear compartmentalization distinct from phase
separation. Elife. 2019 May 7;8:e47098.

30. Seyffert M, Georgi F, Tobler K, Bourqui L, Anfossi M, Michaelsen K, et al. The HSV-1
Transcription Factor ICP4 Confers Liquid-Like Properties to Viral Replication
Compartments. Int J Mol Sci. 2021 Apr 24;22(9):4447.

31. Caragliano E, Bonazza S, Frascaroli G, Tang J, Soh TK, Grünewald K, et al. Human
cytomegalovirus forms phase-separated compartments at viral genomes to facilitate viral
replication. Cell Rep. 2022 Mar 8;38(10):110469.

32. Aho V, Myllys M, Ruokolainen V, Hakanen S, Mäntylä E, Virtanen J, et al. Chromatin
organization regulates viral egress dynamics. Sci Rep. 2017 Jun 16;7(1):3692.

33. Aho V, Salminen S, Mattola S, Gupta A, Flomm F, Sodeik B, et al. Infection-induced
chromatin modifications facilitate translocation of herpes simplex virus capsids to the
inner nuclear membrane. PLoS Pathog. 2021 Dec;17(12):e1010132.

34. Bosse JB, Hogue IB, Feric M, Thiberge SY, Sodeik B, Brangwynne CP, et al. Remodeling
nuclear architecture allows efficient transport of herpesvirus capsids by diffusion. Proc
Natl Acad Sci U S A. 2015 Oct 20;112(42):E5725-5733.

35. Lewis HC, Kelnhofer-Millevolte LE, Brinkley MR, Arbach HE, Arnold EA, Sanders S,
et al. HSV-1 exploits host heterochromatin for nuclear egress. J Cell Biol. 2023 Sep
4;222(9):e202304106.

36. González-Almela E, Castells-Garcia A, Le Dily F, Merino MF, Carnevali D, Cusco P, et
al. Herpes simplex virus type 1 reshapes host chromatin architecture via transcription
machinery hijacking. Nat Commun. 2025 Jun 19;16(1):5313.

37. Simpson-Holley M, Baines J, Roller R, Knipe DM. Herpes simplex virus 1 U(L)31 and
U(L)34 gene products promote the late maturation of viral replication compartments to
the nuclear periphery. J Virol. 2004 Jun;78(11):5591–600.

38. Bigalke JM, Heuser T, Nicastro D, Heldwein EE. Membrane deformation and scission by
the HSV-1 nuclear egress complex. Nat Commun. 2014 Jun 11;5:4131.

39. Bjerke SL, Roller RJ. Roles for herpes simplex virus type 1 UL34 and US3 proteins in
disrupting the nuclear lamina during herpes simplex virus type 1 egress. Virology. 2006
Apr 10;347(2):261–76.

40. Schäpe J, Prausse S, Radmacher M, Stick R. Influence of lamin A on the mechanical
properties of amphibian oocyte nuclei measured by atomic force microscopy. Biophys J.
2009 May 20;96(10):4319–25.

41. Hobson CM, Kern M, O'Brien ET, Stephens AD, Falvo MR, Superfine R. Correlating
nuclear morphology and external force with combined atomic force microscopy and light
sheet imaging separates roles of chromatin and lamin A/C in nuclear mechanics. Mol Biol
Cell. 2020 Jul 21;31(16):1788–801.

42. Hobson CM, Falvo MR, Superfine R. A survey of physical methods for studying nuclear
mechanics and mechanobiology. APL Bioeng. 2021 Dec;5(4):041508.

43. Kobiler O, Brodersen P, Taylor MP, Ludmir EB, Enquist LW. Herpesvirus replication
compartments originate with single incoming viral genomes. mBio. 2011;2(6):e00278-
11.

44. Chang L, Godinez WJ, Kim IH, Tektonidis M, de Lanerolle P, Eils R, et al. Herpesviral
replication compartments move and coalesce at nuclear speckles to enhance export of
viral late mRNA. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A. 2011 May 24;108(21):E136-144.

45. Ou HD, Phan S, Deerinck TJ, Thor A, Ellisman MH, O'Shea CC. ChromEMT:
Visualizing 3D chromatin structure and compaction in interphase and mitotic cells.
Science. 2017 Jul 28;357(6349):eaag0025.

46. Jacob RJ, Morse LS, Roizman B. Anatomy of herpes simplex virus DNA. XII. Accumulation of head-to-tail concatemers in nuclei of infected cells and their role in the generation of the four isomeric arrangements of viral DNA. J Virol. 1979 Feb;29(2):448–57.

47. Wang Y, Sherrard A, Zhao B, Melak M, Trautwein J, Kleinschnitz EM, et al. GPCR-induced calcium transients trigger nuclear actin assembly for chromatin dynamics. Nat Commun. 2019 Nov 21;10(1):5271.

48. Goujon A, Colom A, Straková K, Mercier V, Mahecic D, Manley S, et al. Mechanosensitive Fluorescent Probes to Image Membrane Tension in Mitochondria, Endoplasmic Reticulum, and Lysosomes. J Am Chem Soc. 2019 Feb 27;141(8):3380–4.

49. De Sandre-Giovannoli A, Bernard R, Cau P, Navarro C, Amiel J, Boccaccio I, et al. Lamin a truncation in Hutchinson-Gilford progeria. Science. 2003 Jun 27;300(5628):2055.

50. Crisp M, Liu Q, Roux K, Rattner JB, Shanahan C, Burke B, et al. Coupling of the nucleus and cytoplasm: role of the LINC complex. J Cell Biol. 2006 Jan 2;172(1):41–53.

51. Babatz TD, Spear ED, Xu W, Sun OL, Nie L, Carpenter EP, et al. Site specificity determinants for prelamin A cleavage by the zinc metalloprotease ZMPSTE24. J Biol Chem. 2021;296:100165.

52. Fu B, Wang L, Li S, Dorf ME. ZMPSTE24 defends against influenza and other pathogenic viruses. J Exp Med. 2017 Apr 3;214(4):919–29.

53. Stott-Marshall RJ, Foster TL. Inhibition of Arenavirus Entry and Replication by the Cell-Intrinsic Restriction Factor ZMPSTE24 Is Enhanced by IFITM Antiviral Activity. Front Microbiol. 2022;13:840885.

54. Serrano JB, da Cruz E Silva OAB, Rebelo S. Lamina Associated Polypeptide 1 (LAP1) Interactome and Its Functional Features. Membranes (Basel). 2016 Jan 15;6(1):8.

55. Luithle N, de Bos JU, Hovius R, Maslennikova D, Lewis RT, Ungricht R, et al. Torsin ATPases influence chromatin interaction of the Torsin regulator LAP1. Elife. 2020 Dec 15;9:e63614.

56. Wang N, Tytell JD, Ingber DE. Mechanotransduction at a distance: mechanically coupling the extracellular matrix with the nucleus. Nat Rev Mol Cell Biol. 2009 Jan;10(1):75–82.

57. Soh TK, Davies CTR, Muenzner J, Hunter LM, Barrow HG, Connor V, et al. Temporal Proteomic Analysis of Herpes Simplex Virus 1 Infection Reveals Cell-Surface Remodeling via pUL56-Mediated GOPC Degradation. Cell Rep. 2020 Oct 6;33(1):108235.

58. Procter DJ, Furey C, Garza-Gongora AG, Kosak ST, Walsh D. Cytoplasmic control of intranuclear polarity by human cytomegalovirus. Nature. 2020 Nov;587(7832):109–14.

59. Itano N, Okamoto S ichi, Zhang D, Lipton SA, Ruoslahti E. Cell spreading controls endoplasmic and nuclear calcium: a physical gene regulation pathway from the cell surface to the nucleus. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A. 2003 Apr 29;100(9):5181–6.

60.　Miyano T, Suzuki A, Konta H, Sakamoto N. Hyperosmotic Stress Promotes the Nuclear
Translocation of TFEB in Tubular Epithelial Cells Depending on Intracellular Ca2+
Signals via TRPML Channels. Cell Mol Bioeng. 2025 Feb;18(1):39–52.

61.　Phengchat R, Takata H, Morii K, Inada N, Murakoshi H, Uchiyama S, et al. Calcium ions
function as a booster of chromosome condensation. Sci Rep. 2016 Dec 2;6:38281.

62.　Arsenovic PT, Ramachandran I, Bathula K, Zhu R, Narang JD, Noll NA, et al. Nesprin-
2G, a Component of the Nuclear LINC Complex, Is Subject to Myosin-Dependent
Tension. Biophys J. 2016 Jan 5;110(1):34–43.

63.　van der Linden FH, Mahlandt EK, Arts JJG, Beumer J, Puschhof J, de Man SMA, et al.
A turquoise fluorescence lifetime-based biosensor for quantitative imaging of
intracellular calcium. Nat Commun. 2021 Dec 9;12(1):7159.

64.　Linden FH van der, Thornquist SC, Beek RM ter, Huijts JY, Hink MA, Jr TWG, et al. A
green lifetime biosensor for calcium that remains bright over its full dynamic range. eLife.
2025 Jan 1;14.

65.　Evilevitch A, Hohlbauch SV. Intranuclear HSV-1 DNA ejection induces major
mechanical transformations suggesting mechanoprotection of nucleus integrity. Proc Natl
Acad Sci U S A. 2022 Mar 1;119(9):e2114121119.

66.　Ashby MF, Bréchet YJM. Designing hybrid materials. Acta Materialia. 2003 Nov
25;51(19):5801–21.

67.　Kreger ST, Bell BJ, Bailey J, Stites E, Kuske J, Waisner B, et al. Polymerization and
matrix physical properties as important design considerations for soluble collagen
formulations. Biopolymers. 2010 Aug;93(8):690–707.

68.　Sarrigiannidis SO, Rey JM, Dobre O, González-García C, Dalby MJ, Salmeron-Sanchez
M. A tough act to follow: collagen hydrogel modifications to improve mechanical and
growth factor loading capabilities. Materials Today Bio. 2021 Mar 1;10:100098.

69.　Finan JD, Chalut KJ, Wax A, Guilak F. Nonlinear osmotic properties of the cell nucleus.
Ann Biomed Eng. 2009 Mar;37(3):477–91.

70.　Zheng S, Li Y, Shao Y, Li L, Song F. Osmotic Pressure and Its Biological Implications.
Int J Mol Sci. 2024 Mar 14;25(6):3310.

71.　Lammerding J, Fong LG, Ji JY, Reue K, Stewart CL, Young SG, et al. Lamins A and C
but not lamin B1 regulate nuclear mechanics. J Biol Chem. 2006 Sep 1;281(35):25768–
80.

72.　Neelam S, Chancellor TJ, Li Y, Nickerson JA, Roux KJ, Dickinson RB, et al. Direct force
probe reveals the mechanics of nuclear homeostasis in the mammalian cell. Proc Natl
Acad Sci U S A. 2015 May 5;112(18):5720–5.

73.　Broers JLV, Peeters EAG, Kuijpers HJH, Endert J, Bouten CVC, Oomens CWJ, et al.
Decreased mechanical stiffness in LMNA-/- cells is caused by defective nucleo-
cytoskeletal integrity: implications for the development of laminopathies. Hum Mol
Genet. 2004 Nov 1;13(21):2567–80.

74. Gruenbaum Y, Foisner R. Lamins: nuclear intermediate filament proteins with
fundamental functions in nuclear mechanics and genome regulation. Annu Rev Biochem.
2015;84:131–64.

75. Reynolds AE, Liang L, Baines JD. Conformational changes in the nuclear lamina induced
by herpes simplex virus type 1 require genes U(L)31 and U(L)34. J Virol. 2004
Jun;78(11):5564–75.

76. Mou F, Forest T, Baines JD. US3 of herpes simplex virus type 1 encodes a promiscuous
protein kinase that phosphorylates and alters localization of lamin A/C in infected cells. J
Virol. 2007 Jun;81(12):6459–70.

77. Takeshima K, Maruzuru Y, Koyanagi N, Kato A, Kawaguchi Y. Redundant and Specific
Roles of A-Type Lamins and Lamin B Receptor in Herpes Simplex Virus 1 Infection. J
Virol. 2022 Dec 21;96(24):e0142922.

78. Leach NR, Roller RJ. Significance of host cell kinases in herpes simplex virus type 1
egress and lamin-associated protein disassembly from the nuclear lamina. Virology. 2010
Oct 10;406(1):127–37.

79. Enyedi B, Jelcic M, Niethammer P. The Cell Nucleus Serves as a Mechanotransducer of
Tissue Damage-Induced Inflammation. Cell. 2016 May 19;165(5):1160–70.

80. Thorsen MK, Lai A, Lee MW, Hoogerheide DP, Wong GCL, Freed JH, et al. Highly
Basic Clusters in the Herpes Simplex Virus 1 Nuclear Egress Complex Drive Membrane
Budding by Inducing Lipid Ordering. mBio. 2021 Aug 31;12(4):e0154821.

81. Jiao S, Li C, Guo F, Zhang J, Zhang H, Cao Z, et al. SUN1/2 controls macrophage
polarization via modulating nuclear size and stiffness. Nat Commun. 2023 Oct
12;14(1):6416.

82. Krshnan L, Siu WS, Van de Weijer M, Hayward D, Guerrero EN, Gruneberg U, et al.
Regulated degradation of the inner nuclear membrane protein SUN2 maintains nuclear
envelope architecture and function. Elife. 2022 Nov 1;11:e81573.

83. Jiao S, Li C, Guo F, Zhang J, Zhang H, Cao Z, et al. SUN1/2 controls macrophage
polarization via modulating nuclear size and stiffness. Nat Commun. 2023 Oct
12;14(1):6416.

84. Xiang Y, Zheng K, Ju H, Wang S, Pei Y, Ding W, et al. Cofilin 1-mediated biphasic F-
actin dynamics of neuronal cells affect herpes simplex virus 1 infection and replication. J
Virol. 2012 Aug;86(16):8440–51.

85. Mih JD, Marinkovic A, Liu F, Sharif AS, Tschumperlin DJ. Matrix stiffness reverses the
effect of actomyosin tension on cell proliferation. J Cell Sci. 2012 Dec 15;125(Pt
24):5974–83.

86. Gilbert HTJ, Mallikarjun V, Dobre O, Jackson MR, Pedley R, Gilmore AP, et al. Nuclear
decoupling is part of a rapid protein-level cellular response to high-intensity mechanical
loading. Nat Commun. 2019 Sep 12;10(1):4149.

87. Cruz-Palomar K, Hawkins J, Vandal C, Quenneville J, Gagnon É, Lippé R. SUN2 Modulates the Propagation of HSV-1. J Virol. 2022 May 11;96(9):e0045322.

88. Rosencrance CD, Walsh D. Microtubule mechanotransduction refines cytomegalovirus interactions with and remodeling of host chromatin. Nat Commun. 2025 Aug 13;16(1):7507.

89. Wild P, Senn C, Manera CL, Sutter E, Schraner EM, Tobler K, et al. Exploring the nuclear envelope of herpes simplex virus 1-infected cells by high-resolution microscopy. J Virol. 2009 Jan;83(1):408–19.

90. Datta S, Snow CJ, Paschal BM. A pathway linking oxidative stress and the Ran GTPase system in progeria. Mol Biol Cell. 2014 Apr;25(8):1202–15.

91. Danielsson BE, Peters HC, Bathula K, Spear LM, Noll NA, Dahl KN, et al. Progerin-expressing endothelial cells are unable to adapt to shear stress. Biophys J. 2022 Feb 15;121(4):620–8.

92. Everett RD, Sourvinos G, Orr A. Recruitment of herpes simplex virus type 1 transcriptional regulatory protein ICP4 into foci juxtaposed to ND10 in live, infected cells. J Virol. 2003 Mar;77(6):3680–9.

93. Sandbaumhüter M, Döhner K, Schipke J, Binz A, Pohlmann A, Sodeik B, et al. Cytosolic herpes simplex virus capsids not only require binding inner tegument protein pUL36 but also pUL37 for active transport prior to secondary envelopment. Cell Microbiol. 2013 Feb;15(2):248–69.

94. Ivanova L, Buch A, Döhner K, Pohlmann A, Binz A, Prank U, et al. Conserved Tryptophan Motifs in the Large Tegument Protein pUL36 Are Required for Efficient Secondary Envelopment of Herpes Simplex Virus Capsids. J Virol. 2016 Jun 1;90(11):5368–83.

95. Buch A, Müller O, Ivanova L, Döhner K, Bialy D, Bosse JB, et al. Inner tegument proteins of Herpes Simplex Virus are sufficient for intracellular capsid motility in neurons but not for axonal targeting. PLoS Pathog. 2017 Dec;13(12):e1006813.

96. Loconte V, Chen JH, Cortese M, Ekman A, Le Gros MA, Larabell C, et al. Using soft X-ray tomography for rapid whole-cell quantitative imaging of SARS-CoV-2-infected cells. Cell Rep Methods. 2021 Nov 22;1(7):100117.

97. Chen JH, Vanslembrouck B, Loconte V, Ekman A, Cortese M, Bartenschlager R, et al. A protocol for full-rotation soft X-ray tomography of single cells. STAR Protoc. 2022 Mar 18;3(1):101176.

98. Parkinson DY, Knoechel C, Yang C, Larabell CA, Le Gros MA. Automatic alignment and reconstruction of images for soft X-ray tomography. J Struct Biol. 2012 Feb;177(2):259–66.

99. Leclerc S, Gupta A, Ruokolainen V, Chen JH, Kunnas K, Ekman AA, et al. Progression of herpesvirus infection remodels mitochondrial organization and metabolism. PLoS Pathog. 2024 Apr;20(4):e1011829.

100. Belevich I, Joensuu M, Kumar D, Vihinen H, Jokitalo E. Microscopy Image Browser: A
Platform for Segmentation and Analysis of Multidimensional Datasets. PLoS Biol. 2016
Jan;14(1):e1002340.

101. Li CH, Lee CK. Minimum cross entropy thresholding. Pattern Recognition. 1993 Apr
1;26(4):617–25.

102. Kaikkonen MU, Niskanen H, Romanoski CE, Kansanen E, Kivelä AM, Laitalainen J, et
al. Control of VEGF-A transcriptional programs by pausing and genomic
compartmentalization. Nucleic Acids Res. 2014 Nov 10;42(20):12570–84.

103. Langmead B, Trapnell C, Pop M, Salzberg SL. Ultrafast and memory-efficient alignment
of short DNA sequences to the human genome. Genome Biol. 2009;10(3):R25.

104. Ahrens JP, Geveci B, Law C. ParaView: An end-user tool for large-data visualization. In:
Visualization Handbook. Elsevier; 2005. p. 717–31.

1162

1163

1164

1165

1166

1167

1168

1169

1170

1171

1172

1173

1174

1175

1176

1177

Supporting Information

1179

S1 Fig. Distribution of nuclear chromatin and viral DNA in full capsids. Representative

transmission electron microscopy images of **(A)** a noninfected and **(B)** an infected MEF cell at

8 hpi. ChromEM labeling was used to enhance DNA contrast. **(C)** Full viral capsids with DNA

staining are shown. White squares show the magnified nucleoplasm and a full capsid. Scale

bars, 2 μm (A, B) and 0.2 μm (C).

1185

1186

S2 Fig. Overexpression of lamin A enhances nuclear growth. (A) Representative confocal

images of noninfected and HSV-1 EYFP-ICP4-infected Vero cells at 8 and 12 hpi together

with Vero cells overexpressing lamin A (lmna) and expressing progerin (prog). Lamin A/C

was labeled with lamin A/C antibody (red), EYFP-ICP4 (green) shows the localization of the

VRC, and the chromatin was labeled with Hoechst 33342 (grey). Quantitative analysis of **(B)**

the volume and **(C)** the height of the nucleus in noninfected (NI) and infected cells (n=53, 48,

53, 40, 36, 42, 52, 35, and 67 for the bars from left to right). The error bars show the standard

deviation. Statistical significance was determined using Tukey's test, and the significance

values are denoted as **** ($p < 0.0001$), ** ($p < 0.01$), or * ($p < 0.05$). Only values of the same

time point or treatment were statistically compared. Nonsignificant differences ($p \geq 0.05$) are

not labeled.

1198

1199

1200 **S3 Fig. Expression of SUN2, lamin A, and lamin B**. Western blot of noninfected and infected

1201 (8 and 12 hpi) Vero cell lysates were analyzed for total protein and SUN2 **(A)**, LMNA **(B)**, or

1202 LMNB1 **(C)**. An antibody against ICP4 was used as a marker for viral infection. Each set of

1203 noninfected and infected lysates represents a replicate experiment (n = 4).

1204

1205

1206

S4 Fig. Statistical significances between simulations. Simulation case numbers and statistical

significances between simulations presented in Figure 6 for **(A)** Young's moduli (6F) and **(B)**

nuclear envelope membrane tension (6G). Statistical significances were determined using the

Games-Howell test. The significance values are denoted as $p<0.01$, $p<0.05$, or ns (not

significant).

1212

1213

S5 Fig. Tension sensor analysis of the mechanical forces transmitted to the nucleus. (A)

Phasor plot analysis of the Nesprin TS donor fluorophore mTFP1 measured in noninfected and

infected cells shows a lifetime distribution from 2.65ns to 2.71ns. (**B**) Phasor distribution of

mTFP1 from FLIM measurement of noninfected and infected cells. The FRET trajectory was

generated using LAS X (4.5.0) phasor analysis tool by setting the donor-only lifetime to 2.71

ns based on mTFP1 measurements, by locating the autofluorescence from non-transfected

cells, and by adjusting the background contribution to ensure the trajectory passes through the

measured phasor clouds. The division between low FRET/high tension (red phasor cursor at

2.47ns) and high FRET/low tension (cyan phasor cursor at 2.01ns) was set to 10% FRET

efficiency (yellow phasor cursor). The pixels at the nuclear envelope (NE) of the measured

cells were divided into low or high FRET areas according to their lifetime distribution in the

phasor plot, and their relative amount was quantified. (**C**) An acceptor bleaching experiment to

validate the Nesprin TS working in our system. FRET at the NE decreases after bleaching the

acceptor from the area shown by the yellow box in a living cell.

1228

1229

1230

S6 Fig. Detection of nuclear Ca^{2+} concentration using G-Ca-FLITS biosensor. (A) Phasor

plot of the phasor distribution of live FLIM imaging of 3xnls-G-Ca-FLITS transfected cells.

The phasor cloud in native cell state starts approximately from s=0.5, g=0.5 (top-center) and

moves diagonally towards down-right during ionomycin treatment, confirming the expected

shorter lifetime in high calcium concentration. (B) The calibration line (rainbow), generated

according to the ionomycin measurement, demonstrated longer lifetime (cyan cursor) in

infected cells than in noninfected cells (red cursor). This indicated reduced calcium

concentration in infected cells. (C) Phasor distribution of noninfected and infected nuclei

1239 lifetime, and their division between low calcium (longer lifetime cyan phasor cursor set to 3.71

1240 ns) and high calcium (shorter lifetime red phasor cursor set to 3.46 ns). (**D**) The pseudo-colored

1241 spatial distribution of pixels with high and low calcium concentration according to their

1242 lifetime distribution in the phasor plot in representative non-infected and 8 hpi nuclei.

1243

1244

1245

1246

1247 **S1 Movie. AFM analysis of nuclear stiffness.** Animation of AFM imaging of infected Vero

1248 cells at 4 hpi (left). Retraction curves of four measurements showing the force (deflection)

1249 versus cell height in living cells, retraction (cyan) and extension (blue) curves, and contact

1250 points (arrows) are shown (right). The vertical red line shows the progression of the

1251 measurement.

1252

1253 **S2 Movie. Infection-induced changes of the nucleus.** Animation of cryo-soft X-ray (SXT)

1254 tomography imaging data of noninfected (NI) and infected MEF cells at 8 hpi. The high- (blue)

1255 and low-density chromatin (yellow), as well as the viral replication compartment (VRC, green),

1256 are shown.

1257

1258 **S3 Movie. Chromatin organization in the nuclear periphery is altered in infection.**

1259 Animation of focused ion-beam scanning electron microscopy (FIB-SEM) imaging data of

1260 noninfected and infected MEF cells at 8 hpi. The color bar indicates high and low chromatin

1261 thickness (yellow-blue). The nuclear envelope (cyan) and viral capsids (grey) are shown.

1262

S4 Movie. Remodeling of nuclear organization during the growth of the viral replication compartment. Expansion of VRC as the infection proceeds. The chromatin is shown in blue, VRC in green, lamina-associated domains (LADs) of the chromatin and chromatin crosslinks in cyan, and the NE in grey.

S5 Movie. Simulated AFM measurement of the infected cell. AFM measurement of the nuclear stiffness of an infected cell. The effect of the colloidal probe of the cantilever (white) over the nucleus is presented. The cell membrane and cytoplasm are not presented. The chromatin is shown in blue, the lamina-associated domains (LADs) of the chromatin and chromatin crosslinks in green, and the NE in grey. The VRC located in the central region of the nucleus is not shown.

S1 Table. Transcription of nuclear lamins and lamin-associated proteins is regulated in response to viral infection. The table presents the results of GRO-seq analysis showing upregulated (green-blue) or downregulated (red-orange) lamins and lamin-associated protein genes in infected Vero cells at 4 and 8 hpi.

S1 Text. Description of the model and the parameters. A detailed description of the model assumptions, equations, solution method, atomic force microscopy simulations and analysis, the fitting process, and the parameter values.