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Selective clearance of the inner nuclear membrane protein emerin by vesicular

transport during ER stress

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Abstract

The inner nuclear membrane (INM) is a subdomain of the endoplasmic reticulum (ER) that is gated by the nuclear pore complex. It is unknown whether proteins of the INM and ER are degraded through shared or distinct pathways in mammalian cells. We applied dynamic proteomics to profile protein half-lives and report that INM and ER residents turn over at similar rates, indicating that the INM's unique topology is not a barrier to turnover. Using a microscopy approach, we observed that the proteasome can degrade INM proteins *in situ*. However, we also uncovered evidence for selective, vesicular transport-mediated turnover of a single INM protein, emerin, that is potentiated by ER stress. Emerin is rapidly cleared from the INM by a mechanism that requires emerin's LEM domain to mediate vesicular trafficking to lysosomes. This work demonstrates that the INM can be dynamically remodeled in response to environmental inputs.

Introduction

The biogenesis of roughly one-third of the cell's proteome takes place within the endoplasmic reticulum (ER) network. The ER is contiguous with the nuclear envelope (NE) membrane, a double bilayer membrane that defines the boundary of the nucleus. The NE is punctuated by nuclear pore complexes (NPCs) which control transport between the nuclear and cytoplasmic compartments. The outer nuclear membrane (ONM) and the bulk ER membrane network have a similar protein composition, including ribosomes that can be seen associated with the ONM. The inner nuclear membrane (INM), in contrast, is cloistered away from the bulk ER network by the NPC (Fig. 1A). Proteomic analyses suggest that hundreds of proteins are selectively concentrated at the INM(Schirmer, Florens, Guan, Yates, & Gerace, 2003), and mutations to these proteins cause a broad array of rare pathologies(Schreiber & Kennedy, 2013).

As the INM is devoid of ribosomes and translocation machinery, INM proteins must be synthesized in the ONM/ER and transported into the INM. Proteins concentrate at the INM by mechanisms including diffusion followed by stable binding to a nuclear structure,

such as chromatin or the nuclear lamina, or signal-mediated import through the

NPC(Katta, Smoyer, & Jaspersen, 2014). Transport across the NPC is a major kinetic

barrier to accumulation of proteins at the INM(Boni et al., 2015; Ungricht, Klann,

Horvath, & Kutay, 2015). While mechanisms of INM targeting have been extensively

studied, it is less clear how INM proteins are targeted for degradation if misfolded,

damaged, or mistargeted.

Protein folding is inefficient, and newly synthesized proteins often become terminally

misfolded and require degradation(Hegde & Zavodszky, 2019). Mature proteins also

become damaged or misfolded over time and require selective degradation and

replacement. Within the ER membrane network, the major degradation pathway is ER-

associated degradation, or ERAD. ERAD is initiated by poly-ubiquitination of a target

protein by an E3 ubiquitin ligase, followed by extraction from the membrane and

proteolysis by proteasomes in the cytosol(Hegde & Zavodszky, 2019). Flux through

ERAD helps to maintain organelle homeostasis and cell function by clearing damaged,

misfolded, or mislocalized proteins.

Recent work in *S. cerevisiae* has identified a small number of ubiquitin ligases that

target INM-localized proteins for degradation by ERAD, but the mammalian homologs

remain elusive, perhaps because of the massive expansion of the E3 ubiquitin ligase

family in recent evolution(Deshaies & Joazeiro, 2009). Degradation of mammalian INM

proteins also appears to rely on activity of the proteasome and on the ERAD ATPase

p97(Tsai, Zhao, Turner, & Schlieker, 2016), suggesting that mammalian INM proteins

may be subject to ERAD. However, we lack a broad understanding of the lifetimes of

INM proteins in this compartment and the pathways used for their degradation within

mammalian cells.

We sought to understand features of INM protein turnover in mammalian cells, and

applied both proteome-wide and targeted candidate approaches to address this

question. Here we show that the LEM domain protein emerin (EMD) is a rapidly

degraded constituent of the INM. We use EMD as a model for dissecting INM protein

turnover pathways and demonstrate that EMD is subject to both proteasome-dependent

and lysosome-dependent modes of degradation. We report that both misfolded and

normally folded variants of EMD are selectively exported from the INM and ER during

acute ER stress by vesicular transport through the secretory pathway and delivery to

the lysosome. These findings indicate that the INM sub-compartment senses and

responds to ER stress.

Results

Trends in protein turnover across the NE / ER membrane network

We first used a dynamic proteomic approach to understand trends in protein turnover

across ER sub-compartments. Since the nucleus is entirely disassembled during mitosis

in mammalian cells, we chose a system that would allow us to profile protein turnover in

the absence of cell division. We made use of the C2C12 myoblast culture system, which

can be induced to irreversibly differentiate into myotubes by serum

withdrawal(D'Angelo, Raices, Panowski, & Hetzer, 2009). We subjected these non-

dividing mouse muscle myotubes to a pulse-chase timecourse using s̲table i̲sotope

l̲abeling in c̲ell culture (SILAC) (Ong & Mann, 2007) for timepoints ranging from 1 to 3

days (Fig. 1B, see Methods). Crude nuclear extracts were prepared and analyzed by

mass spectrometry, and the ratio of "old" ($^{13}C_6$-Lys, $^{15}N_4$ + $^{13}C_6$-Arg-labeled) to "new"

($^{12}C_6$-Lys, $^{14}N_4$ + $^{12}C_6$-Arg-labeled) protein was quantified at the peptide level over time;

peptides that passed stringent quality control filters were retained for estimation of half-

lives by a linear regression fitting method(Dörrbaum, Kochen, Langer, & Schuman,

2018)(see Methods). We evaluated 1677 proteins and predicted half-lives over a wide

range, from less than a day to greater than 15 days (Fig. 1E, Table S3). Linear

regression performs well when a line can be fit with high fidelity and a non-zero slope is

detectable; these conditions were generally met for proteins with predicted half-lives

ranging from 1 to 8 days. We observed more frequent deviations in linearity at the low

extreme (predicted $t^{1/2}$ <1 day) and slopes approaching zero at the high extreme

(predicted $t^{1/2}$ > 8 days) (Figure 1 – figure supplement 1). We expect that these factors

limit the precision of half-life determination below 1 day and above 8 days from our 3-

day timecourse. The median turnover rate that we observed (2.4 days) corresponds well

with previous analyses in non-dividing mammalian cell cultures(Cambridge et al., 2011).

We observed some extremes in protein stability that are consistent with previous

reports; for example, the long-lived nuclear pore complex component Nup160(Toyama

et al., 2013) was in the top 10% of predicted half-lives, with a calculated half-life of

approximately 18 days (Fig. 1C, F, Table S1). Near the other extreme, we observed that

the enzyme topoisomerase 2α (Topo2α) had a predicted half-life in the bottom 10%, of

less than 1 day (Fig. 1D, F). This is consistent with this enzyme's known regulation by

ubiquitination and proteolysis(Gao et al., 2014).

Having established this framework, we then quantified the turnover kinetics of known

inner nuclear membrane (INM) proteins. For this analysis, we focused on proteins

whose preferential enrichment in this membrane compartment had been experimentally

verified; we identified ten such proteins in our dataset (see Table S1) and determined

their half-lives (see Methods). We observed half-lives for these proteins ranging from

8.8 days (nurim) to 1.5 days (emerin) (Fig. 1G). While very little is known about nurim's

function, its intrinsic biophysical properties may contribute to its long half-life: nurim

contains six transmembrane domains, is extremely insoluble(Hofemeister & O'Hare,

2005), and diffuses very slowly within the INM(Rolls et al., 1999). Emerin (EMD) is a

founding member of the LEM domain family of INM proteins with essential functions in

muscle development(Brachner & Foisner, 2011). Unlike nurim, EMD is a small (~25

kDa), single-pass, tail-anchored transmembrane protein that diffuses freely through the

NPC and enriches at the INM by virtue of its affinity for lamin A(Vaughan et al., 2001).

Given the INM's status as a restricted sub-compartment of the ER, we reasoned that it

might be possible that INM proteins would be generally less accessible to protein

turnover than ER membrane proteins. Alternatively, similarly effective turnover in both

Figure 1. Proteomic analysis of nuclear envelope protein half-lives in C2C12 myotubes.

Figure 1. Dynamic proteomic analysis of inner nuclear membrane protein turnover. (A) Diagram of the ER with associated ribosomes, the NE composed of the ONM and INM, the NPCs, and the underlying nuclear lamina. INM proteins are synthesized in the ER, pass through the NPC, and enrich at the INM. (B) Overview of dynamic SILAC labeling experimental design. C2C12 mouse myoblasts were cultured for 5 population doublings in medium containing $^{13}C_6$-lysine and $^{13}C_6$, $^{15}N_4$-arginine to completely label the proteome. After 3 days of culturing under differentiating conditions to generate non-dividing myotubes, cultures were switched to chase medium containing ^{12}C-lysine and ^{12}C, ^{14}N-arginine for 1 to 3 days. Nuclear extracts were prepared at day 0, day 1, day 2, and day 3 for proteomic identification. (C,D) Representative peptide scans for a slowly degraded protein (Nup160) and (D) for a rapidly degraded protein (Topo2α) at the starting and ending points of the experiment outlined in (B). (E) Histogram of calculated half-lives for 1677 proteins with a median half-life of 2.4 days. (F) Features of nuclear proteome turnover. Median turnover behavior of 1677 proteins detected in at least three timepoints with at least one peptide (black line) with 1 standard deviation (gray); compared to turnover of the slowly exchanged protein Nup160 (black) and the rapidly exchanged protein Topo2α (blue). Error bars indicate SEM. (G) Calculated half-lives of 10 *bona fide* INM proteins, ranging from slowly degraded (nurim, purple) to rapidly degraded (emerin, green); 12 nuclear envelope transmembrane proteins (NETs) identified as NE residents by subtractive proteomics (see Schirmer, 2003); and 112 ER membrane proteins. ns indicates lack of statistical significance by Mann-Whitney test. Error bars indicate SEM. (H) There is no significant correlation between extraluminal domain size of INM proteins and their half-lives. See also Source Data 1-2, Supplementary Files 1-3, and Figure 1 – figure supplement 1.

compartments might support the possibility that turnover can occur *in situ* at the INM.

ER membrane proteins were well represented in our dataset, as a significant proportion

of ER membranes remain attached to and co-purify with nuclei(Schirmer et al., 2003).

We could thus query whether INM proteins exhibited distinct turnover kinetics from

membrane proteins of the bulk ER by comparing INM and ER transmembrane protein

half-lives. We also compared *bona fide* INM proteins to proteins that had been identified

as preferentially associated with either the inner or outer bilayer of the nuclear envelope

(NE) membrane by comparative proteomics(Schirmer et al., 2003), termed NE

transmembrane proteins (NETs). Altogether, these analyses indicate that INM proteins

do not exhibit unique turnover kinetics as a protein class, compared to ER membrane

proteins in general or to the overlapping designation of NETs (Fig. 1G).

The size of INM proteins determines whether a protein must rely on signal-mediated

transport through the NPC(Katta et al., 2014), and live imaging assays indicate that INM

proteins with larger nucleoplasm-facing domains move more slowly across the NPC

barrier(Boni et al., 2015; Ungricht et al., 2015). If transit across the NPC and out of the

INM were a prerequisite for turnover in the bulk ER, we reasoned that turnover

efficiency would also exhibit some dependence on protein size, because of the

relationship between protein size and transport efficiency between the two

compartments. The short half-life and small size of EMD is in line with this possibility.

Our dataset of INM proteins included four single-pass INM and six multi-pass INM

proteins, with total size of extraluminal domains ranging from 40 amino acids to 733

amino acids (Table S5). If export out of the NPC were a prerequisite for INM protein

turnover, we reasoned that half-life should increase as the bulk of nucleoplasm-facing

domains increases. We found no evidence for such a correlation (Fig. 1H). We infer

from this analysis that other factors distinct from monomeric protein size regulate

protein turnover rate. This indicates that for INM proteins, export out of the INM is not a

rate-limiting step for protein turnover. Rather, this is consistent with evidence in *S.*

cerevisiae(Foresti, Ruggiano, Hannibal-Bach, Ejsing, & Carvalho, 2013; Khmelinskii,

Blaszczak, Pantazopoulou, Fischer, Omnus, Le Dez, Brossard, Gunnarsson, Barry,

Meurer, Kirrmaier, Boone, Huber, Rabut, Ljungdahl, & Knop, 2014a) and in mammalian

cells(Tsai et al., 2016)that turnover of INM proteins can take place *in situ* at the INM.

Recombination-induced tag exchange confirms INM protein lifetimes

We observed a wide range of half-lives for INM proteins in our proteomic analyses (Fig.

1G), with the polytopic INM protein nurim turning over most slowly and the single-pass

INM protein EMD turning over most rapidly. To directly visualize these relative

differences in protein stability, we used recombination-induced tag exchange (RITE)

(Toyama et al., 2019; Verzijlbergen et al., 2010) (Fig. 2A) to perform a microscopy-

based pulse-chase experiment. We expressed either nurim or EMD in a cassette

encoding two C-terminal epitope tags separated by LoxP sites and by a stop codon,

such that the resulting transcript will encode a protein that will be C-terminally tagged

with the first tag. Upon adenoviral introduction of Cre recombinase, the RITE cassette is

recombined to remove the first tag and position the second tag downstream of the open

reading frame, so that all newly synthesized mRNA encodes a protein marked with the

second tag.

Figure 2. RITE analysis of INM proteins enables visualization of proteasome-dependent turnover.

Figure 2. RITE analysis of INM proteins corroborates protein turnover determined by proteomics. (A) Schematic of recombination-induced tag exchange (RITE) expression cassette for visualizing protein turnover using Cre recombinase-mediated tag switching. (B-C) RITE timecourses of nurim-RITE (B) and EMD-RITE (C) in quiescent C2C12 cells. Maximum intensity projections of confocal z-series shown. (D) Diagram of emerin domain organization and position of EDMD-linked deletion mutant (EMDΔ95-99) within the lamin-binding domain. (E-G) RITE timecourses of nurim-RITE (E), EMD-RITE (F), and EMDΔ-RITE (G) with or without 1 day of cotreatment with the proteasome inhibitor MG132 (right panels). Single confocal z-slices shown. (H) Quantification of normalized intensity of old NE-localized RITE-tagged protein in maximum intensity projections of confocal z series acquired across the conditions shown in (E-G). Bars indicate average values with error bars indicating SEM for N > 42 cells per condition from 2 independent experiments. **** indicates p-value < 0.0001 (by t-test) for comparison between untreated and treated conditions. Scale bar, 10 μm. See also Figure 2 – figure supplement 1.

This enables simultaneous tracking of older and newer pools of protein that were

synthesized before and after Cre addition, respectively (Toyama et al., 2019;

Verzijlbergen et al., 2010). Using this approach, we visualized the rate of decline in the

fluorescence intensity of "old" myc-tagged nurim or EMD over several days in quiescent

C2C12 cells. Consistent with our proteomic observations, we observed that RITE-

tagged nurim decayed significantly more slowly than RITE-tagged EMD at the NE (Fig.

2B-C, H).

The RITE system allows unambiguous dissection of the fates of maturely folded protein

as well as nascent, newly synthesized protein. Recent work in yeast(Foresti et al., 2013;

Khmelinskii, Blaszczak, Pantazopoulou, Fischer, Omnus, Le Dez, Brossard,

Gunnarsson, Barry, Meurer, Kirrmaier, Boone, Huber, Rabut, Ljungdahl, & Knop,

2014a) and in mammalian cells(Tsai et al., 2016) strongly suggests that INM proteins

are subject to proteasome-mediated degradation via the ERAD pathway. The RITE

system provides a means to distinguish the effects of proteasome inhibition on maturely

folded proteins by inhibiting the proteasome after RITE tag switching, and monitoring

the effects on maturely folded proteins. Mature nurim-RITE decreases only modestly

within 2 days of tag switching, but co-incubation with the proteasome inhibitor MG132

for 1 day causes accumulation of nurim-RITE through the NE and ER (Fig. 2E, H).

Maturely folded EMD-RITE diminishes significantly at the NE within 2 days of tag

switching but is partially stabilized at the NE in the presence of MG132 (Fig. 2F, H). This

indicates that mature, INM-localized proteins can be degraded in a proteasome-

dependent pathway *in situ* at the INM. Notably, abundant proteasomes have been

observed along the INM in cryo-EM studies and could possibly engage with substrate

there(Albert et al., 2017). This is also consistent with a recent report that an unstable

INM protein mutant accumulates within the nucleus of mammalian cells when the

proteasome is inhibited(Tsai et al., 2016).

Identification of a model substrate for dissecting INM protein turnover

In order to gain more insight into the pathways that control INM protein turnover in

mammalian cells, we chose to focus on EMD for its relatively fast turnover rate (Fig. 1G,

Table S1) and for the variety of disease-linked mutations to EMD that appear to

influence protein stability(Fairley, Kendrick-Jones, & Ellis, 1999). Loss-of-function

mutations to EMD cause Emery-Dreifuss muscular dystrophy (EDMD) (Bonne &

Quijano-Roy, 2013). In some cases, EDMD-linked mutations cause loss of detectable

EMD protein without affecting mRNA levels, suggesting that these mutations might

cause misfolding and degradation of EMD(Fairley et al., 1999). We sought to identify

such an EDMD-linked EMD variant for use as a model substrate for dissecting INM

protein turnover. We selected a small in-frame deletion (Δ95-99) within EMD's lamin-

binding domain (Fig. 2D) that had been previously shown to localize to the NE when

ectopically expressed(Fairley et al., 1999). Consistently, when we expressed either

EMD-GFP or EMDΔ95-99-GFP in C2C12 cells, we observed similar enrichment at the

NE (Figure 2 – figure supplement 1). Further, both protein variants exhibited identical

residence times at the NE as assayed by fluorescence recovery after photobleaching

(FRAP) analysis (Figure 2 – figure supplement 1). Directly monitoring the stability of

EMDΔ95-99 by RITE tagging indicates that it disappears from the NE faster than wild

type EMD (Fig. 2G), but is also stabilized at the NE by proteasome inhibition (Fig. 2G-

H). These observations indicate that EMDΔ95-99 is an unstable EMD variant that

resides within the INM. We next moved to dissect that pathway(s) involved in EMDΔ95-

99 degradation.

Proteasome-dependent and proteasome-independent modes of emerin clearance

Misfolded ER resident proteins are cleared by the <u>ER</u>-<u>a</u>ssociated <u>d</u>egradation (ERAD)

pathway. ERAD clients are marked for degradation by ubiquitination, extracted from the

ER membrane by the ATPase enzyme p97, and degraded by the proteasome in the

cytosol(Ruggiano, Foresti, & Carvalho, 2014). INM proteins may also be targeted to an

arm of the ERAD pathway in mammalian cells (Tsai et al., 2016), and our data indicates

that multiple INM proteins are stabilized *in situ* by proteasome inhibition. However,

ubiquitin ligase(s) that recognize INM-localized substrates in mammalian cells have not

been identified.

To sensitively probe factors that influence INM protein stability, we tracked the stability

of GFP-tagged EMD variants. When *de novo* protein synthesis was blocked by

cycloheximide (CHX), we observed rapid loss of EMDΔ95-99-GFP within 4-8 hours (Fig.

3A-B) while wild type EMD remained stable (Figure 3 – figure supplement 1). This loss

is blunted by co-treatment with the proteasome inhibitor MG132 (Fig. 3A, third panel),

consistent with our observations that INM protein turnover is slowed by proteasome

inhibition using the RITE system (Fig. 2E-G). If EMDΔ95-99-GFP is directed to the

proteasome through ERAD, inhibition of earlier steps in this pathway should similarly

cause accumulation of EMDΔ95-99-GFP. Indeed, pharmacological inhibition of p97 with

the drug eeyarestatin I(Wang, Li, & Ye, 2008) causes modest accumulation of EMDΔ95-

99 and of higher molecular weight species, a similar effect to proteasome inhibition itself

(Fig. 3B). In contrast, the drug kifunensine, which prevents ERAD targeting of misfolded

glycosylated proteins(Fagioli & Sitia, 2001), has no effect on EMDΔ95-99-GFP levels as

would be expected given the lack of glycosylation sites within EMD's small luminal

domain (Fig. 3B).

E3 ubiquitin ligases transfer ubiquitin to ERAD substrates, and each E3 ligase exhibits

preference for a small number of substrates. A few E3 ligases have been implicated in

ERAD of INM-localized substrates in yeast, including Doa10 and Asi1(Khmelinskii,

Blaszczak, Pantazopoulou, Fischer, Omnus, Le Dez, Brossard, Gunnarsson, Barry,

Meurer, Kirrmaier, Boone, Huber, Rabut, Ljungdahl, & Knop, 2014b). MARCH6 is a

 mammalian ortholog of Doa10(Zattas, Berk, Kreft, & Hochstrasser, 2016). Mammalian

Figure 3. Acute ER stressors destabilize mutant emerin protein levels.

Figure 3. Acute stressors destabilize mutant emerin protein levels. (A) C2C12 cells stably expressing EMDΔ-GFP and treated with DMSO vehicle control, CHX alone, CHX and MG132, or MG132 alone for 8 hours. All images were acquired using the same laser power and detector gain settings. Single confocal z slices shown. (B) Western blot analysis of protein levels in C2C12 cells stably expressing EMDΔ-GFP and treated with DMSO vehicle, the translation inhibitor CHX, the proteasome inhibitor MG132, the p97 ATPase inhibitor eeyarestatin, or the glycosylation trimming inhibitor kifunensine for the time periods shown. α-tubulin shown as loading control. (C) Western blot analysis of U2OS cells stably expressing EMDΔ-GFP and doxycycline-inducible RNAi targeting the E2 ubiquitin ligases UBE2G1 and UBE2G2 and treated with DMSO vehicle control (-) or with doxycycline (+) for 48 hours. Free GFP indicates RNAi induction. α-tubulin shown as loading control. (D) Western blot detection of EMDΔ-GFP levels in cells treated with DMSO vehicle, or co-treated with CHX and the ER stress inducer THG for the time periods shown. α-tubulin shown as loading control. (E) C2C12 cells stably expressing EMDΔ-GFP and treated with vehicle control or with THG for the time periods shown. Insets show nuclei in the same ~50 μm field of view stained with Hoechst. All images acquired using the same laser power and detector gain settings; single confocal z slices shown. (F) Quantification of total NE-localized GFP fluorescence in maximum intensity projections of confocal z slices acquired across the conditions shown in (E) for N > 410 cells per condition. (G) Diagram of emerin domain organization and the sequence of an inserted C-terminal glycosylation sequence derived from the opsin protein, with glycosylation acceptor site marked (*). (H) Analysis of EMDΔ-GFP* glycosylation state in cells subjected to treatment with DMSO vehicle control or CHX and THG cotreatments for the times indicated. Red arrowhead indicates EndoH-sensitive glycosylated state of EMDΔ-GFP*; orange arrowhead indicates EndoH-resistant states of EMDΔ-GFP*; black arrowhead indicates deglycosylated EMDΔ-GFP*. α-tubulin shown as loading control. Numbers to left of blots indicate molecular weights in kDa. Scale bars in micrographs indicate 10 μm. See also Figure 3 – figure supplement 1, 2, and 3.

orthologs of Asi1 have not been identified. Based on iterative sequence homology

analysis through the MetaPhORs database(Pryszcz, Huerta-Cepas, & Gabaldón, 2010)

we identified two possible Asi1 homologs: Rnf26 and CGRRF1. We depleted MARCH6,

Rnf26, and CGRRF1 with short interfering RNA (siRNA), but observed no effect on

EMDΔ95-99 protein levels (Figure 3 – figure supplement 2), suggesting that these

ligases do not catalyze EMD turnover, or alternatively that multiple E3 ligases are

redundant in this process. Importantly, the broad group of ERAD-implicated E3 ligases

rely on a handful of E2 ubiquitin conjugating enzymes for ubiquitin transfer. These E2

ligases – four in mammals – thus represent a key control point for ERAD(Christianson,

Olzmann, Shaler, Sowa, Bennett, Richter, Tyler, Greenblatt, Wade Harper, et al.,

2011b; Leto et al., 2019). We targeted these four E2 ubiquitin ligases by siRNA

transfection (Figure 3 – figure supplement 2) and a subset of these by inducible RNAi

using a potent microRNA-based system (Fellmann et al., 2013) and analyzed the

effects on EMDΔ95-99-GFP levels. To our surprise, knockdown of UBE2G1, UBE2G2,

UBE2J1, and UBE2J2 either did not stabilize or instead decreased EMDΔ95-99-GFP

levels (Fig. 3C; Figure 3 – figure supplement 2). This finding suggests that when ERAD

is perturbed, EMD variants can be cleared by an alternative pathway.

Emerin is subject to rapid stress-dependent clearance from the ER and NE

Global inhibition of ERAD places profound protein folding stress on the ER membrane

network and induces the unfolded protein response (UPR) (Christianson, Olzmann,

Shaler, Sowa, Bennett, Richter, Tyler, Greenblatt, Harper, et al., 2011a). We considered

whether direct induction of ER stress was sufficient to accelerate the turnover of

EMDΔ95-99-GFP. We tested the effect of the ER stressor thapsigargin (THG), which

disrupts ER homeostasis by causing release of Ca2+ from the ER lumen, on EMDΔ95-

99 protein stability. Compared to CHX treatment alone (Figure 3 – figure supplement 1),

THG co-treatment further destabilized EMDΔ95-99-GFP (Fig. 3D). Strikingly, when we

tracked EMDΔ95-99 protein localization by time-lapse microscopy (Fig. 3E), it became

apparent that NE localization of EMDΔ95-99 significantly decreases within 2 hours of

THG treatment, concomitant with accumulation in a perinuclear membrane

compartment that morphologically resembles the Golgi apparatus. By 8 hours after THG

administration, EMDΔ95-99 was undetectable (Fig. 3E-F). These data suggest that

under conditions of ER stress, EMDΔ95-99 is cleared from the NE/ER membrane

network by transport out of the ER and eventual disposal of the protein in a post-ER

compartment.

Acute ER stress reroutes emerin through the secretory pathway

We took several approaches to test the possibility that EMDΔ95-99 leaves the NE/ER

network during ER stress. Firstly, we made use of the characteristic sugar modifications

that occur as cargoes progress through the secretory pathway to determine whether

EMDΔ95-99 accesses post-ER compartments. Since the short lumenal domain of EMD

lacks a glycosylation consensus site, we engineered the glycosylation site from the

opsin protein(Bulbarelli, Sprocati, Barberi, Pedrazzini, & Borgese, 2002) (SSNKTVD)

onto the lumen-facing C terminus of EMDΔ95-99. If EMDΔ95-99 is retained in the ER,

all of its N-linked glycans should remain sensitive to the trimming enzyme Endo H. On

the other hand, if EMDΔ95-99 exits the ER, its N-linked glycans will be elaborated with

further modifications so that Endo H can no longer trim them. These glycosylation states

can be detected as progressive increases in molecular weight, and can be completely

removed by incubation with the enzyme PNGase F. This engineered variant, EMDΔ95-

99-GFP*, localizes normally to the NE and also disappears from the NE upon ER stress

induction (Figure 3 – figure supplement 3). In unstressed cells, EMDΔ95-99-GFP* is

predominantly observed in an Endo H-sensitive glycosylation state (Fig. 3H, red

arrowhead), with a minor pool of Endo H-resistant protein (Fig. 3H, orange arrowhead).

In contrast, EMDΔ95-99-GFP* shifts progressively to a higher molecular weight, Endo

H-resistant state over 2 to 4 hours of co-treatment with CHX and THG. This indicates

that ER stress induction increases the proportion of EMDΔ95-99 that exits the NE/ER

and samples post-ER compartments.

Upon ER stress induction, EMDΔ95-99-GFP accumulates in a perinuclear domain that

resembles the Golgi apparatus (Fig. 3E). We evaluated the extent of colocalization of

EMDΔ95-99-GFP with the medial Golgi resident protein giantin in untreated cells and

cells that had been treated with THG for 2-4 hours (Fig. 4A-C). In untreated cells,

EMDΔ95-99-GFP was not detectable in the Golgi, but THG treatment rapidly induced

Golgi colocalization as NE-localized EMDΔ95-99 levels decreased (Fig. 4A-C).

Comparing GFP fluorescence intensity in the Golgi *versus* the NE over time revealed

that ER stress induces significant enrichment of EMDΔ95-99-GFP in the Golgi

accompanied by loss from the NE within 2 hours (Fig. 4D).

EMDΔ95-99 could be delivered to the Golgi by vesicular transport from the ER.

Transport between the ER and the Golgi is mediated by packaging of cargoes into

COP-coated vesicles (Barlowe & Miller, 2013), a process which can be inhibited by the

drug brefeldin A (BFA). BFA acts by disrupting COPI vesicle formation, leading to the

collapse of the Golgi into the ER membrane network (Chardin & McCormick, 1999). To

test whether clearance of EMDΔ95-99-GFP from the NE/ER requires vesicle-mediated

ER-to-Golgi transport, we co-incubated cells expressing EMDΔ95-99-GFP with THG

and BFA. Strikingly, co-treatment with BFA nearly quantitatively reversed loss of

EMDΔ95-99-GFP from the NE (Fig 4E-F). Taken together with the time-dependent

enrichment of EMD variants in the Golgi apparatus (Fig. 4A-C), and the time-dependent

accumulation of more complex N-glycosylated variants of EMDΔ95-99-GFP* (Fig. 3H),

this indicates that under ER stress, EMD variants can be cleared from both the NE and

ER by vesicular transport through the Golgi.

Figure 4. Stress-induced clearance of mutant emerin from the NE and ER involves the secretory pathway

Figure 4. Stress-induced clearance of mutant emerin from the ER and NE involves the secretory pathway. (A-C) Representative confocal slices of cells stably expressing EMDΔ-GFP, treated with DMSO or THG for the indicated times and costained for giantin to mark the Golgi (magenta). All images were acquired using the same laser power and detector gain settings. (A'-C') Are contrast-adjusted to show relative levels of EMDΔ-GFP in NE and Golgi. Dotted lines mark positions of linescans in (A''-C''). (D) Quantification of GFP fluorescence intensity abundance ratio in Golgi *versus* NE in single, non-contrast-adjusted z slices over THG treatment timecourse. Columns indicate average with error bars indicating SEM for N > 37 cells from 2 independent experiments. **** indicates p-value < 0.0001 compared to untreated (by t-test). (E-F) Representative confocal slices of cells stably expressing EMDΔ-GFP (F) after 16 hours of treatment with DMSO vehicle control, THG, BFA, or co-treatment with THG and BFA. All images were acquired using the same laser power and detector gain settings. Insets show nuclei in the same ~50 μm field of view stained with Hoechst. (E) Quantification of GFP fluorescence intensity at the NE in maximum intensity projections of confocal z series acquired across the conditions represented in (F). Columns indicate average with error bars indicating SEM for N > 386 cells from 3 independent experiments. **** indicates p-value < 0.0001 compared to untreated (by t-test). Scale bars in micrographs indicate 10 μm. See also Figure 4 – figure supplement 1.

While vesicle-mediated transport is the major pathway by which proteins move from the ER and onward through the secretory pathway, alternative modes of removing protein from the ER exist, in particular during ER stress. Recent evidence indicates that the ER can undergo autophagy under various conditions, including acute ER stress(Smith et al., 2018). To evaluate the possibility that EMDΔ95-99-GFP could be engulfed and removed from the NE and ER by autophagosomes, we tested the ability of the PI3K inhibitor KU55933 to reverse EMDΔ95-99-GFP loss. PI3K signaling promotes the formation of isolation membranes that engulf autophagic cargo (Farkas, Daugaard, & Jäättelä, 2011; Klionsky et al., 2016). We observed that cotreatment with KU55933 during acute ER stress could not prevent loss of EMDΔ95-99-GFP from the NE/ER (Fig. 5A-C), in contrast to the ability of BFA treatment to rescue EMD loss. This indicates that vesicle-mediated transport to the Golgi and not autophagic engulfment mediates EMDΔ95-99-GFP's exit from the ER during stress.

Proteins in post-ER compartments can be degraded by vesicle-mediated traffic to the lysosome(Saftig & Klumperman, 2009). To investigate whether the lysosome was the eventual destination of EMDΔ95-99-GFP after ER export, we co-incubated cells expressing EMDΔ95-99-GFP with THG and bafilomycin A1 (Baf A1), which impairs

 lysosome acidification and thus slows protein degradative processes within lysosomes.

Figure 5. Mutant emerin trafficking is dependent on lysosomal but not autophagosomal function.

Figure 5. Mutant emerin trafficking is dependent on lysosomal but not autophagosomal function. (A) Representative confocal slices of cells stably expressing EMDΔ-GFP after 8 hours of treatment with DMSO vehicle control, THG, co-treatment with THG and BFA, or co-treatment with THG and KU55933. Insets show nuclei in the same field of view stained with Hoechst. (B) Quantification of NE-localized GFP fluorescence intensity in maximum intensity projections of confocal z series acquired across the conditions shown in (A). Columns indicate average and error bars indicate SEM for N > 56 cells from 3 independent experiments. **** indicates p-value < 0.0001 compared to untreated (by t-test). (C) Diagram of processes perturbed by KU55933, BFA, and Baf A1 treatment. (D-F) Representative confocal slices of C2C12 cells stably expressing EMDΔ-GFP and costained for LAMP1 after treatment with DMSO vehicle control (D), Baf A1 (E), or co-treatment with THG and Baf A1 (F) for the indicated times. (D'-F') Insets show GFP-LAMP1 colocalization within ~15 μm field of view demarcated by dashed rectangles in (D-F). (G) Analysis of EMDΔ-GFP* glycosylation state in cells subjected to treatment with DMSO vehicle control or THG and Baf A1 cotreatments for the times indicated. Red arrowhead indicates EndoH-sensitive glycosylated state of EMDΔ-GFP*; orange arrowhead indicates EndoH-resistant states of EMDΔ-GFP*; black arrowhead indicates deglycosylated EMDΔ-GFP*. α-tubulin shown as loading control. Numbers to left of blots indicate molecular weights in kDa. Scale bars in micrographs indicate 10 μm.

Under these conditions, we observed complete translocation of EMDΔ95-99-GFP out of

the NE and ER and into numerous vesicles that are decorated with the lysosomal

marker LAMP1 (Fig. 5F). Notably, bafilomycin A1 alone did not trap EMDΔ95-99-GFP

in lysosomes (Fig. 5E), indicating that ER stress potentiates exit from the NE/ER and

lysosomal accumulation. This indicates that the eventual destination of EMDΔ95-99-

GFP after export from the NE/ER network is the lysosome.

If EMDΔ95-99 arrives at the lysosome by trafficking through the secretory pathway, this

should be accompanied by the accumulation of Endo H-resistant N-glycosylation

modifications on our engineered reporter EMDΔ95-99-GFP*. Indeed, we observe that

the majority of EMDΔ95-99-GFP* exists as an Endo H-sensitive species in unperturbed

cells (Fig. 5G, red arrowhead), but shifts progressively to a higher molecular weight,

Endo H-resistant state over 2 to 4 hours of co-treatment with THG and Baf A1 (Fig. 5G,

orange arrowhead). This indicates that EMDΔ95-99 traverses the secretory pathway

before being delivered to the lysosome.

Emerin transiently accesses the plasma membrane during ER stress

A possible route from the early secretory pathway to the lysosome could involve

anterograde transport following the "bulk flow" of the secretory pathway, through the

Golgi and into vesicles destined for the plasma membrane (PM). There, mislocalized

proteins may be selectively endocytosed and trafficked to lysosomes for degradation

through retrograde transport(Saftig & Klumperman, 2009). To explore this possibility, we

performed antibody uptake assays in cells expressing EMDΔ95-99-GFP under

homeostatic or stressed conditions. EMD is a tail-anchored protein with its final C-

terminal amino acids facing the ER lumen; the C-terminal GFP tag will thus face the

extracellular space if EMDΔ95-99-GFP accesses the PM (Fig. 6A). We tested whether

EMDΔ95-99's GFP tag is accessible to an anti-GFP antibody applied to the surface of

intact cells. In untreated cells, a small amount of EMDΔ95-99-GFP (Fig. 6B-D) is

accessible to an anti-GFP antibody, but not to an anti-myc antibody, indicating that

EMDΔ95-99 is not completely restricted to intracellular membrane compartments under

homeostatic conditions. Importantly, the signal from the anti-GFP antibody is specific to

cells that express a GFP fusion protein (Fig. 6D-E). Upon induction of ER stress by

THG, the amount of PM-accessible EMDΔ95-99-GFP rapidly increases within 2-4

hours, and begins to taper off within 6 hours. This implies that ER stress induces the

export of EMDΔ95-99-GFP from the NE/ER to the PM as well as its internalization.

Importantly, the GFP antibody signal is visible within intracellular puncta, consistent with

EMDΔ95-99-GFP:antibody conjugates being rapidly internalized into vesicles after PM

delivery. Based on the timescale when the levels of EMDΔ95-99-GFP begin to

significantly decrease at the NE (Fig. 3E-F), increase in the Golgi (Fig. 4A-D), transit

through the PM (Fig. 6) and accumulate in lysosomes (Fig. 5F), we infer that EMDΔ95-

99-GFP is transported through the secretory pathway to the PM, then internalized and

delivered to lysosomes for degradation.

Figure 6. Emerin traffics through the plasma membrane upon ER stress

Figure 6. Mutant emerin traffics through the plasma membrane upon ER stress. (A) Schematic of antibody uptake assay experimental design. If emerin accesses the plasma membrane (PM), it will be detected by anti-GFP antibody (green), which will bind the surface-exposed GFP tag. (B) Uptake of anti-GFP antibody (magenta) by cells stably expressing EMDΔ-GFP and treated with DMSO vehicle control or THG for 2, 4, or 6 hours. Cells were incubated with anti-GFP antibody for the final hour of these treatment periods before fixation and imaging. (C) Control demonstrating lack of uptake of anti-myc antibody by cells stably expressing EMDΔ-GFP and treated with THG for 2 hours. (D) Quantification of internalized antibody signal in EMDΔ-GFP expressing cells. Columns indicate average and error bars indicate SEM for N > 235 cells from 3 independent experiments. **** indicates p-value < 0.0001 (t-test) compared to untreated. (E) Control demonstrating lack of uptake of anti-GFP antibody by untreated C2C12 cells that do not express a GFP fusion protein. WGA is used to define cell boundaries. All images were acquired using the same laser power and detector gain settings. Scale bars in micrographs indicate 10 μm. See also Figure 6 – figure supplement 1.

Other INM proteins do not undergo stress-dependent clearance

Our findings indicate that EMDΔ95-99 is subject to proteasome-dependent turnover at the INM (Fig. 2G-H; Fig. 3A-B), but can also be rapidly removed from the INM and ER membrane network and targeted for degradation during ER stress. This raises the possibility that additional INM proteins are susceptible to stress-dependent degradation.

To address this, we tested the response of additional INM proteins to ER stress

induction by THG, to ER export blockage by BFA, and to lysosomal maturation

blockage by Baf A1. We selected proteins with distinct topologies and half-lives,

including the long-lived polytopic INM protein nurim and the less stable single-pass

transmembrane protein Sun2 (see Fig. 1H, Table S5). Prolonged treatment with THG

modestly decreased nurim protein levels and significantly decreased Sun2 protein

levels (Fig. 7A-B, D), likely as a consequence of translational inhibition caused by ER

stress(Harding, Zhang, & Ron, 1999). Consistent with this interpretation, the sensitivity

of these two proteins tracks with the relative differences in their half-lives (Table S5);

nurim has a half-life of ~9 days, while Sun2 has a half-life of ~3 days in non-dividing

cells. Importantly, however, co-incubation with THG and BFA had no effect on either the

subcellular localization or abundance of nurim or Sun2 (Fig. 7A-B, D), indicating that

loss of these proteins is not mediated by ER export. Further, neither protein leaves the

NE/ER to accumulate in lysosomes when lysosome acidification is blocked by Baf A1

(Fig. 7A', B').

We next asked whether wild type EMD was also subject to this pathway. Similarly to

EMDΔ95-99, NE-localized EMD-GFP decreases when stress is induced by THG, but

remains stable when stress induction by THG is accompanied by secretory pathway

disruption by BFA (Fig. 7C). ER stress also induces EMD-GFP to enrich in the Golgi

(Figure 4 – figure supplement 1) and access the plasma membrane (Figure 6 – figure

supplement 1). EMD-GFP also accumulates in perinuclear puncta that are likely

lysosomes when cells are co-incubated with THG and Baf A1 (Fig. 7C'). We again

engineered an opsin glycosylation site onto the C-terminus of EMD-GFP in order to

track movement of EMD through membrane compartments. EMD-WT-GFP* localizes to

the NE and responds similarly to ER stress and secretory pathway blockage (Figure 7 –

figure supplement 1). As we observed with EMDΔ95-99, EMD-WT-GFP* exists

predominantly in an Endo H-sensitive modification state in unstressed cells (Fig. 7E-F,

red arrowheads). Higher molecular weight, Endo H-resistant species increase in

abundance when cells are coincubated with THG and CHX (Fig. 7E, orange arrowhead)

or with THG and Baf A1 (Fig. 7F, orange arrowhead). We thus conclude that wild type

EMD is subject to the same stress-induced lysosomal degradation pathway as

EMDΔ95-99. However, when EMD-GFP's response to THG is tracked over time, it is

clear that displacement of wild type EMD from the NE proceeds significantly more

slowly than displacement of EMDΔ95-99 (Fig. 8B, D). This indicates that stress-

dependent trafficking out of the INM is selective to variants of EMD, and that intrinsic

features of EMD control its clearance from the NE/ER and targeting into lysosomes.

Figure 7. Emerin, but not other INM proteins, undergoes stress-dependent clearance from the NE/ER.

Figure 7. Emerin, but not other INM proteins, undergoes stress-dependent clearance from the NE and ER and accesses lysosomes. (A-C) Representative confocal slices of cells stably expressing NRM-GFP (A), Sun2-GFP (B), or EMD-GFP (C) after 16 hours of treatment with DMSO vehicle control, THG, or co-treatment with THG and BFA. Insets show nuclei in the same ~50 μm field of view stained with Hoechst. (A'-C') Representative confocal slices of cells co-treated with THG and Baf A1. All images were acquired using the same laser power and detector gain settings. (D) Quantification of GFP fluorescence intensity at the NE in maximum intensity projections of confocal z series acquired across conditions represented in (A-C). Columns indicate average and error bars indicate SEM for N > 690 cells from 3 independent experiments. **** indicates p-value < 0.0001 compared to untreated (t-test). (E-F) Analysis of EMD-WT-GFP* glycosylation state in cells subjected to treatment with DMSO vehicle control or THG and CHX (E) or THG and Baf A1 (F) cotreatments for the times indicated. Red arrowhead indicates EndoH-sensitive glycosylated state of EMDΔ-GFP*; orange arrowhead indicates EndoH-resistant states of EMDΔ-GFP*; black arrowhead indicates deglycosylated EMDΔ-GFP*. α-tubulin shown as loading control. Numbers to left of blots indicate molecular weights in kDa. Scale bars in micrographs indicate 10 μm. See also Figure 7 – figure supplement 1.

A signal within emerin's LEM domain is required for stress-dependent export

Why are EMD variants selectively targeted for stress-dependent clearance from the INM

and ER? We considered functional domains that might be involved in responding to ER

stress. EMD is a tail-anchored protein with a ~10 amino acid tail that protrudes into the

ER lumen (Fig. 3A). This short sequence lacks any known motifs for engaging with

proteins within the ER lumen. EMD's nucleoplasmic domain includes an N-terminal LEM

domain and an internal lamin A-binding region (Fig. 3A). Emerin relies on lamin A for

targeting to the INM(Vaughan et al., 2001) but we noted that in *Imna* -/- MEFs, EMD-

GFP remained stably expressed even while mislocalized to the

peripheral ER (Figure 8 – figure supplement 2). The small deletion within EMDΔ95-99

falls within the lamin A-binding domain, but does not appear to affect the protein's

affinity for the lamina as judged by FRAP (Figure 2 – figure supplement 1), even though

this variant responds more potently than wild type EMD to ER stress (Fig. 8D). Taken

together, these observations indicate that dissociation from the lamina is not sufficient to

promote clearance of EMD from the NE/ER membrane system.

We next evaluated whether interactions mediated by the LEM domain could contribute

to stress-dependent EMD export. The LEM domain (Fig. 3A) is a protein fold that binds

with high affinity to the soluble nucleoplasmic protein BAF (Lee et al., 2001). We deleted

this domain and queried the effects on EMD localization and trafficking. When

expressed within unperturbed cells, EMDΔLEM exhibited normal enrichment in the NE

(Fig. 8C), consistent with its ability to bind the lamina independently of the LEM domain.

However, we observed that this mutant was less responsive than other EMD variants to

ER stress induction; NE-localized EMDΔLEM was clearly detectable over several hours

of THG treatment and was significantly less sensitive than full-length EMD to ER stress

(Fig. 8C-E). We surmise that the eventual loss of EMDΔLEM results from translational

inhibition resulting from ER stress(Harding et al., 1999) and degradation by alternative

pathways. Consistent with the interpretation that the LEM domain mediates post-ER

trafficking, co-incubation of EMDΔLEM-expressing cells with THG and BFA or Baf A1

each had no effect on protein levels or localization (Fig. 8F-H). These results suggest

that without the LEM domain, EMD does not access post-ER compartments. To directly

evaluate this, we generated a glycosylation-reporting variant, EMDΔLEM-GFP*, with a

glycosylation consensus site at the lumenal C terminus. In contrast to variants of EMD

with an intact LEM domain, EMDΔLEM-GFP* accumulates only Endo H-sensitive

modifications and remains equivalently Endo H-sensitive during ER stress and

lysosome blockage (Fig. 8I-J, red arrowheads). Altogether, these data indicate that a

signal within emerin's LEM domain enables selective export from the ER under stress

conditions.

Figure 8. A signal within emerin's LEM domain is required for stress-dependent clearance from the NE/ER

Figure 8. A signal within emerin's LEM domain is required for stress-dependent clearance from the NE and ER (A) Diagram of emerin domain organization with N-terminal LEM domain deletion indicated (amino acids 1-45). (B-C) Representative confocal slices of C2C12 cells stably expressing EMD-WT-GFP (B) or EMD∆LEM-GFP (C) after treatment with DMSO vehicle control or THG for the indicated times. Insets show nuclei in the same ~50 µm field of view stained with Hoechst. (D) Quantification of EMD∆YEESY-GFP (as also shown in Figure 3F), EMD-WT-GFP, and EMD∆LEM-GFP fluorescence intensity at the NE in maximum intensity projections of confocal z series acquired across the timecourse shown in (B-C). Columns indicate average and error bars indicate SEM for N > 146 cells from 3 independent experiments. **** indicates p-value < 0.0001 compared to untreated (t-test). (E) Western blot of EMD∆LEM-GFP in cells treated with DMSO vehicle control or co-treated with THG and CHX for the indicated times. (F-G) Representative confocal slices of C2C12 cells stably expressing EMD∆LEM-GFP after treatment with (F) DMSO vehicle control, THG, THG + BFA, or (G) THG + Baf A1. (H) Quantification of GFP fluorescence intensity at the NE across the conditions shown in (F). Columns indicate average and error bars indicate SEM for N > 776 cells from 3 independent experiments. **** indicates p-value < 0.0001 compared to untreated (t-test). (I-J) Analysis of EMD-∆LEM-GFP* glycosylation state in cells subjected to treatment with DMSO vehicle control or THG and CHX (I) or THG and Baf A1 (J) cotreatments for the times indicated. Red arrowhead indicates EndoH-sensitive glycosylated state of EMD∆LEM-GFP*; black arrowhead indicates deglycosylated EMD∆LEM-GFP*. α-tubulin shown as loading control. Numbers to left of blots indicate molecular weights in kDa. Scale bars in micrographs indicate 10 µm. See also Figure 8 – figure supplement 1 and 2.

Discussion

In this work, we applied a dynamic proteomic strategy to define organelle-wide trends in

protein turnover across the NE/ER membrane network in mammalian cells. While the

INM is separated from the bulk ER by the selective barrier of the NPC, we observe no

difference in global protein turnover rates between the ER and INM compartments or

any correlation between INM protein size and turnover kinetics. This, along with specific

visualization of mature INM proteins by RITE tagging and microscopy (Fig. 2) and

previous studies(Tsai et al., 2016), suggests that turnover of INM proteins can be

effectively achieved *in situ*.

Moving forward with the rapidly turned over INM protein EMD as a model substrate for

dissecting INM protein turnover, we identified an even less stable, EDMD-linked variant

of EMD as an ideal substrate for sensitively probing INM protein turnover pathways. We

noted that turnover of maturely folded EMD and EMD∆95-99 exhibits proteasome

dependence at the INM (Fig. 2F-H; Fig. 3A), while nascent EMD∆95-99 accumulates in

multiple cellular compartments when the proteasome is inhibited (Fig. 3A, fourth panel).

Taken together, these observations lead us to infer that mature EMD variants and
potentially other INM proteins can be turned over *in situ* at the INM by a pathway that
terminates in proteasomal degradation, while immature EMD variants (and potentially
other INM proteins) are also subject to co-translational quality control that terminates in
proteasomal degradation. As proteasomal inhibition and p97 inhibition each stabilize
EMDΔ95-99 (Fig. 3B), we expect that EMDΔ95-99 is an ERAD client under some
conditions.
530
Surprisingly, however, we also find that EMD can be selectively shunted to an
alternative turnover pathway under conditions of acute ER stress. This pathway is
rapidly induced by ERAD blockage or by pharmacological induction of acute ER protein
folding stress (Fig. 3) and requires ER export (Fig. 3, 4). Notably, changes to EMDΔ95-
99 localization and levels are apparent at a timescale shorter than the normal half-life of
EMDΔ95-99, within 2-4 hours of ER stress induction. Based on the transient
appearance of EMDΔ95-99 at the PM (Fig. 6) and its accumulation in lysosomes (Fig.
5), we conclude that EMD transits through the secretory pathway and is then
internalized into lysosomes. While our data indicate that a significant proportion of EMD
leaves the NE/ER during ER stress, we cannot rule out the possibility that ERAD-
mediated degradation of some proportion of EMD takes place within the NE/ER network
in parallel to the lysosome-mediated pathway that we have identified. Nonetheless, this
dynamic and selective removal of an INM protein is quite surprising and is inconsistent
with models of the INM as a terminal depot for its resident proteins.
545
Our findings have some intriguing parallels to the fate of a misfolded variant of the GPI-
anchored prion protein, PrP, during ER stress (Satpute-Krishnan et al., 2014). PrP is
normally targeted to the PM, but a misfolded variant is retained within the ER by
persistent association with protein folding chaperones. Similarly to what we observe for
an INM protein, ER stress induces the rapid export of misfolded PrP through the
secretory pathway, followed by transit through the PM and internalization and delivery to
lysosomes for degradation. This mode of clearance has been referred to as r̲apid E̲R
s̲tress-induced e̲xpor̲t, or RESET(Satpute-Krishnan et al., 2014).

There are several notable contrasts between PrP's export from the peripheral ER and

EMD's export from the INM and ER. For instance, the topologies of PrP and EMD are

quite disparate. As a GPI-anchored protein, misfolded PrP faces the lumen of the ER,

and an interaction between PrP and Tmp21, a sorting adaptor for luminal proteins,

controls RESET(Satpute-Krishnan et al., 2014). Misfolded PrP remains associated with

additional luminal ER-derived proteins during its transit through the secretory pathway,

and these associations appear to enable recognition of misfolded PrP at the cell surface

for internalization (Zavodszky & Hegde, 2019). In contrast, EMD is a tail-anchored

protein, and interactions mediated by EMD's nucleoplasmic-facing LEM domain (Fig. 8)

control its stress-dependent clearance. We do not yet know whether EMD remains

associated with other proteins as it transits through the secretory pathway, or what role

those associations might play in targeting EMD for degradation.

PrP and EMD also exhibit distinct subcellular localization when not undergoing RESET.

Misfolded PrP is retained in the ER network until RESET is initiated, while EMD is

enriched in the INM and associated with the nuclear lamina. Importantly, EMD is small

enough (~25 kDa) to diffuse freely across the NPC, meaning that it may release INM-

localized binding partners and sample the ER with some frequency. This spatial

separation between EMD's normal site of enrichment and its site of ER export may

explain the longer timescale of RESET for EMD (2-4 hours) compared to ER-localized

misfolded PrP (~1 hour) (Satpute-Krishnan et al., 2014).

Finally, PrP and EMD variants exhibit clear differences in selectivity for the RESET

pathway. Only misfolded, ER-retained mutants of PrP are subject to RESET. On the

other hand, both wild type EMD (Fig. 7) and a less stable disease-linked variant

(EMDΔ95-99) are subject to stress-dependent clearance, although EMDΔ95-99 is more

rapidly cleared from the NE and ER. Both EMD variants appear functional until ER

stress is induced, as judged by their localization and affinity for the INM (Fig. 3, Figure 2

– figure supplement 1). This suggests that clearance of EMD from the NE/ER is not

strictly contingent on protein misfolding.

Figure 9. Model.

Figure 9. Competition model for emerin sorting via its LEM domain competitively binding to BAF or to the ER export machinery.

We find that selective, stress dependent clearance of EMD depends on its 45-amino

acid LEM domain. LEM domains bind dynamically to the small soluble protein BAF,

which exists in both nuclear and cytoplasmic pools(Shimi et al., 2004). While

glycosylation reporters indicate that EMD variants also exit the NE/ER with some

frequency under homeostatic conditions (Fig. 3H, Fig. 7E-F), this is completely

abolished by deletion of the LEM domain (Fig. 8). One model that could explain the

dichotomy between LEM-mediated BAF binding and LEM-mediated ER export is that

BAF and ER export-promoting factor(s) bind competitively to the same surface of EMD's

LEM domain (Fig. 9). It could be that acute ER stress is relayed to EMD via a structural

reorganization or post-translational modification that disrupts the LEM:BAF interface. It

is possible that this system could be used to rapidly remove EMD in response to ER

stress and potentially other physiological stressors. This could in turn rapidly inhibit the

normal functions of EMD at the INM, including participating in mechanosensitive

signaling pathways(Guilluy et al., 2014) and contributing to the scaffolding of

heterochromatic domains at the nuclear periphery(Demmerle, Koch, & Holaska, 2013).

Overall, our findings indicate that the INM can be rapidly remodeled in response to

environmental stimuli, and that the function of the INM protein EMD may be dynamically

controlled by integration of environmental inputs via its LEM domain.

Notably, muscular dystrophy and cardiomyopathy diseases are caused by loss-of-

function mutations to EMD, many of which further destabilize the protein(Bonne &

Quijano-Roy, 2013; Fairley et al., 1999). We find evidence that a muscular dystrophy-

linked EMD variant (EMD⊿95-99) is more rapidly degraded under acute stress

conditions, suggesting that an overzealous response to ER stress could contribute to

the pathogenesis of EDMD. EMD is broadly expressed(Uhlen et al., 2015), but

mutations predominantly affect muscle tissues. Intriguingly, skeletal muscle undergoes

significant ER stress both during development and during normal function(Deldicque,

Hespel, & Francaux, 2012). We speculate that these features of muscle physiology may

make muscle-localized EMD mutants especially vulnerable to ER stress-induced

degradation.

Key Resources Table				
Reagent type (species) or resource	**Designation**	**Source or reference**	**Identifiers**	**Additional information**
gene (*Mus musculus)*	emerin		NCBI RefSeq NM_007927	
Gene (*Mus musculus*)	nurim		NCBI RefSeq NM_134122	
Gene (*Mus musculus*)	Sun2		NCBI RefSeq NM_001205346	
cell line (*Mus musculus)*	C2C12	ATCC	CRL-1772	
cell line (*Homo sapiens*)	U-2-OS	ATCC	HTB-96	

Recombinant DNA reagent (plasmid)	pQCXIB vector	Addgene	Campeau et al., 2009	Retroviral construct for stable expression
Recombinant DNA reagent (plasmid)	Myc/FLAG RITE vector	Toyama et al., JCB 2019		Lentiviral contruct for stable expression of RITE-tagged protein
Recombinant DNA reagent (plasmid)	pQCXIB emerin-GFP	This paper		Retroviral construct for stable expression
Recombinant DNA reagent (plasmid)	pQCXIB emerin-D95-99-GFP	This paper		Retroviral construct for stable expression
Recombinant DNA reagent (plasmid)	pQCXIB emerin-DLEM-GFP	This paper		Retroviral construct for stable expression
Recombinant DNA reagent (plasmid)	pQCXIB emerin-GFP-SSNKTVD	This paper		Retroviral construct for stable expression
Recombinant DNA reagent (plasmid)	pQCXIB emerin-Δ95-99-GFP-SSNKTVD	This paper		Retroviral construct for stable expression
Recombinant DNA reagent (plasmid)	pQCXIB emerin-ΔLEM-GFP-SSNKTVD	This paper		Retroviral construct for stable expression
Recombinant DNA reagent (plasmid)	pQCXIB Sun2-GFP	This paper		Retroviral construct for stable expression

Recombinant DNA reagent (plasmid)	pQCXIB nurim-GFP	This paper		Retroviral construct for stable expression
Recombinant DNA reagent (plasmid)	Emerin-RITE	This paper		Lentiviral contruct for stable expression of RITE-tagged protein
Recombinant DNA reagent (plasmid)	Nurim-RITE	This paper		Lentiviral contruct for stable expression of RITE-tagged protein
Recombinant DNA reagent (plasmid)	Emerin-Δ95-99-RITE	This paper		Lentiviral contruct for stable expression of RITE-tagged protein
Antibody	Rabbit polyclonal anti-emerin	Santa Cruz Biotechnology	Sc-15378	WB (1:1000)
Antibody	GFP	Abcam	ab290	Ab uptake (1:500); WB (1:1000)
Antibody	Mouse monoclonal anti-FLAG	Sigma-Aldrich	F1804	IF (1:1000)
Antibody	Mouse monoclonal anti-Myc	Cell Signaling	2233	IF (1:1000); Ab uptake (1:500)
Antibody	Mouse monoclonal anti-tubulin	Sigma-Aldrich	T5168	WB (1:2500)
Antibody	giantin	BioLegend	PRB-114C	IF (1:1000)

Antibody	LAMP1	Abcam	ab24170	IF(1:100)
Other	Alexa-647 WGA	Life Technologies	W32466	IF (5 ug/ml)
Commercial assay or kit	PNGase F	NEB	P0704	
Commercial assay or kit	Endo H	NEB	P0702	
Chemical compound, drug	Thapsigargin	Thermo Fisher	T7459	Used at 100 nM
Chemical compound, drug	MG132	Cayman Chemical	1211877-36-9	Used at 10 uM
Chemical compound, drug	Bafilomycin A1	BioViotica	BVT-0252	Used at 100 nM
Chemical compound, drug	Brefeldin A	Tocris	1231	Used at 2.5 uM
Chemical compound, drug	Leupeptin	Sigma-Aldrich	L5793	Used at 125 uM
Chemical compound, drug	cycloheximide	Sigma-Aldrich	C-7698	Used at 200 ug/ml
Other	$^{13}C_6$-Lysine	Cambridge Isotopes	CLM-2247	
Other	$^{13}C_6$, $^{15}N_4$-Arginine	Cambridge Isotopes	CNLM-539	
Other	Lysine / arginine free DMEM	Thermo Fisher	88364	
Other	Dialyzed fetal bovine serum	Thermo Fisher	26400044	

Other	Hoechst stain	Molecular Probes	H1399	Used at 10 ug/ml
Recombinant DNA reagent (plasmid)	UBE2G1 miR-E LT3GEPIR	Knott et al., 2014		TGCTGTTGACA GTGAGCGAAAG ACAGCTGGCAG AACTCAATAGT GAAGCCACAGA TGTATTGAGTT CTGCCAGCTGT CTTCTGCCTAC TGCCTCGGA
Recombinant DNA reagent (plasmid)	UBE2G2 miR-E LT3GEPIR	Knott et al., 2014		TGCTGTTGACA GTGAGCGAACC GGGAGCAGTTC TATAAGATAGT GAAGCCACAGA TGTATCTTATAG AACTGCTCCCG GTCTGCCTACT GCCTCGGA
Recombinant DNA reagent (plasmid)	UBE2J1 miR-E LT3GEPIR	Knott et al., 2014		TGCTGTTGACAGT GAGCGAAAGGTT GTCTACTTCACCA GATAGTGAAGCCA CAGATGTATCTGG TGAAGTAGACAAC CTTCTGCCTACTG CCTCGGA
Recombinant DNA reagent (plasmid)	MARCH6 miR-E LT3GEPIR	Knott et al., 2014		TGCTGTTGACAGT GAGCGACTGGAT CTTCATTCTTATTT ATAGTGAAGCCAC AGATGTATAAATA AGAATGAAGATCC AGCTGCCTACTGC CTCGGA
Software, algorithm	Fiji	https://fiji.sc/		
Software, algorithm	RStudio	https://rstudio.com/		

Materials and Methods

SILAC labeling

SILAC labeling was performed as a pulse-chase(Ong & Mann, 2007). Proliferating

C2C12 mouse myoblasts were subcultured for >5 population doublings in culture

medium containing stable heavy isotopes of lysine and arginine ($^{13}C_6$-Lysine, $^{13}C_6$, $^{15}N_4$-

Arginine) to completely label the cellular proteome. Cells were grown in SILAC-

formulated DMEM lacking lysine and arginine and supplemented with 20% dialyzed

FBS, penicillin/streptomycin, and SILAC amino acids. Complete label incorporation was

verified by LC-MS/MS. Myoblasts were then grown to confluency and switched to

differentiation medium containing heavy isotopes for 5 days to induce myotube

differentiation. Differentiation medium contained SILAC DMEM, 2% dialyzed FBS,

penicillin/streptomycin, and SILAC amino acids. Media was refreshed every other day.

After differentiation, the mature myotube culture was switched to low serum

differentiation medium containing the normal isotopes of lysine and arginine: $^{12}C_6$-

Lysine, $^{12}C_6$, $^{14}N_4$-Arginine for 1-3 days.

Crude nuclear extracts were prepared similarly to previous work(Buchwalter & Hetzer,

2017; Schirmer et al., 2003). Cells were harvested by scraping into PBS, then swollen in

hypotonic lysis buffer (10 mM potassium acetate, 20 mM Tris acetate pH 7.5, 0.5 mM

DTT, 1.5 mM MgCl2, and protease inhibitors), followed by mechanical lysis through a

25-gauge needle and syringe. The nuclei were pelleted and the supernatant (containing

cytosol) was decanted. Nuclei were then resuspended in buffer containing 10 mM Tris

pH 8.0, 10% sucrose, 1 mM DTT, 0.1 mM MgCl2, 20 ug/ml DNase I, and 1 ug/ml

RNase I. After nuclease treatment, nuclei were layered on top of a 30% sucrose

cushion and pelleted. Crude nuclei were then extracted in 10 mM Tris pH 8, 1% n-octyl

glucoside, 400 mM NaCl, and 1 mM DTT, and extracts and pellets were prepared

separately for liquid chromatography-mass spectrometry.

LC-MS/MS

Samples were denatured in 8M urea/100 mM TEAB, pH 8.5; reduced with TCEP;

alkylated with chloroacetamide; and digested overnight with trypsin. Digestion was

quenched with 5% formic acid. Detergent was removed from pulse-labeled SILAC

samples with SCX tips (EMD Millipore). Samples were run on a Thermo Orbitrap Fusion

Tribrid MS/MS with CID fragmentation. The digest was injected directly onto a 30 cm,

75 um ID column packed with BEH 1.7 um C18 resin. Samples were separated at a flow

rate of 200 nl/min on a nLC 1000. Buffer A and B were 0.1% formic acid in water and

acetonitrile, respectively. A gradient of 1-25% B over 160 min, an increase to 35% B

over 60 min, an increase to 90% B over another 10 min and a hold at 90%B for a final

10 min of washing was used for a total run time of 240 min. The column was re-

equilibrated with 20 ul of buffer A prior to the injection of sample. Peptides were eluted

directly from the tip of the column and nanosprayed into the mass spectrometer by

application of 2.5 kV voltage at the back of the column. The Orbitrap Fusion was

operated in data dependent mode. Full MS1 scans were collected in the Orbitrap at

120K resolution with a mass range of 400 to 1500 m/z and an AGC target of 4e. The

cycle time was set to 3 s, and within this 3 s the most abundant ions per scan were

selected for CID MS/MS in the ion trap with an AGC target of 1e and minimum intensity

of 5000. Maximum fill times were set to 50 ms and 100 ms for MS and MS/MS scans,

respectively. Quadrupole isolation at 1.6 m/z was used, monoisotopic precursor

selection was enabled, charge states of 2-7 were selected and dynamic exclusion was

used with an exclusion duration of 5 s.

Analysis of proteomic data

Peptide and protein identification, quantification, and analysis were performed with

Integrated Proteomics Pipeline (IP2) (Integrated Proteomics Applications;

www.integratedproteomics.com). Tandem mass spectra were extracted from raw files

using RawConverter(He, Diedrich, Chu, & Yates, 2015) and searched with

ProLUCID(Xu et al., 2015) against the mouse UniProt database (ID). The search space

included all fully tryptic and half-tryptic peptide candidates. Carbamidomethylation on

cysteine was allowed as a static modification. Data were searched with 50 ppm

precursor ion tolerance and 600 ppm fragment ion tolerance. Data were filtered to 10

ppm precursor ion tolerance post-search. Identified proteins were filtered using

DTASelect(Tabb, McDonald, & Yates, 2002) and utilizing a target-decoy database

strategy to control the false discovery rate to 1% at the protein level.

Census2(Park et al., 2014) was used for quantitative analysis of SILAC-labeled

peptides. Peptides were subjected to stringent quality control criteria before inclusion in

half-life determination analyses. Firstly, any peptide with a profile score < 0.8 was

discarded. Secondly, peptides were filtered based on the extent of correlation between

the heavy and light chromatograms, which is quantified as a regression score in

Census. Peptides with extreme area ratios (less than 0.111 or greater than 9) were

retained only if their regression score was > 0. Peptides with intermediate area ratios

(between 0.111 and 9) were retained only if their regression score was > 0.8.

Half-life calculation

For estimation of protein half-lives, we restricted our analysis to peptides that were

detected in at least 3 timepoints. 1685 proteins passed this criterion with at least 1

peptide; individual peptides and protein-level data are reported in Tables S1 and S2,

respectively. Area ratio values were transformed into % old values using the following

equation:

%old = 100* (1/(1+ AR))

And individual peptides were fit to a line corresponding to the following equation:

Ln(%old) = kt + a

Individual peptide fits with r^2 > 0.8 and values of k < 0 were retained for protein-level

estimation of half-life. The slope of the fit for all peptides detected were averaged to

produce an average value and standard deviation at the protein level. These average

slope values were converted to half-life estimates using the equation below.

T1/2 = - ln(2)/k

These values are reported in Table S3 for 1677 proteins. While calculated half-lives

range from ~0.33 days to ~30 days, we note that half-lives at either extreme should be

considered rough estimates of protein stability. For illustration, we have included

example fits for proteins in Figure S1 with predicted half-lives of 0.5 day, 1 day, 2 days,

4 days, 8 days, and 16 days. Linear regression predicts half-life well under conditions

where a line can be fit with high fidelity and a non-zero slope is detectable. We note the

good performance and clear distinctions in slope for proteins with predicted half-lives

ranging from 1 to 8 days, and observed more frequent deviations in linearity at the low

extreme (predicted T1/2 <1 day) and slopes approaching zero at the high extreme

(predicted T1/2 > 8 days). We expect that these factors limit the precision of half-life

determination below 1 day and above 8 days from a 3-day timecourse. Shorter or longer

timecourses would be required to investigate turnover at these timescales.

The TMHMM server(Krogh, Larsson, Heijne, & Sonnhammer, 2001) was used to define

the positions of transmembrane domains in INM proteins and infer extraluminal domain

sequences.

Plasmid construction

All emerin constructs are based on the emerin sequence from mouse (Uniprot ID

O08579); all nurim constructs based on the nurim sequence from mouse (Uniprot ID

Q8VC65); and all Sun2 constructs based on the Sun2 sequence from mouse (Uniprot

ID Q8BJS4). Emerin, Sun2, and nurim were each C-terminally tagged with GFP by

stitching PCR(Heckman & Pease, 2007), where each open reading frame was amplified

with the start codon included and the stop codon omitted, while GFP was amplified with

its start codon omitted and stop codon included. Primersets were designed with

overhangs including homology between each ORF and GFP, so that a second round of

PCR with flanking primers and the first two PCR products used as templates generates

an ORF-GFP fusion. EMDΔ95-99 was generated by Quickchange mutagenesis of the

emerin-GFP sequence followed by sequence verification. EMDΔLEM-GFP was

constructed by stitching PCR of emerin nucleic acid sequence 136-777 corresponding

to residues 46-258 of emerin protein with the stop codon omitted. A new ATG start

codon was introduced by PCR, and the C-terminal GFP tag introduced by stitching

PCR. All ORFs were introduced into the pQCXIB vector(Campeau et al., 2009) for

retroviral delivery and constitutive expression under a CMV promoter by Gateway

cloning.

INM-RITE tag plasmids were constructed as described in(Toyama et al., 2019). ORFs

of interest were introduced into the FLAG/myc-RITE or myc/FLAG-RITE plasmid

backbones, then the entire ORF-RITE construct was amplified and recombined into a

pDONR207 Gateway entry vector, followed by recombination into the pQCXIB retroviral

vector for constitutive mammalian expression.

Glycosylation reporter plasmids were constructed by introducing a 21 base-pair

sequence encoding the glycosylation acceptor site SSNKTVD within a 3' PCR primer for

amplification of EMD-WT-GFP, EMDΔYEESY-GFP, and EMDΔLEM-GFP. The resulting

PCR product was inserted into the pQCXIB vector by Gateway cloning. Sequence

verified clones were used for stable cell line generation.

UBE2G1, UBE2G2, UBE2J1, and MARCH6 miR-E inducible RNAi plasmids were

constructed as described in(Fellmann et al., 2013). Validated shRNA sequences with

the highest score for targeting mouse UBE2G1, UBE2G2, UBE2J1, and MARCH6 were

selected from the shERWOOD database (www.sherwood.cshl.edu), and ~100 bp

oligonucleotides with the corresponding sequence were synthesized. This sequence

was amplified by PCR using degenerate primers with XhoI and EcoRI restriction sites.

The PCR was digested with XhoI and EcoRI, gel purified, and ligated into the

LT3GEPIR lentiviral vector for doxycycline-inducible RNAi expression with GFP reporter

fluorescence. The LT3GEPIR vector was the kind gift of Johannes Zuber.

Cell line generation

GFP-tagged cell lines were generated in C2C12 mouse myoblasts. Low-passage

C2C12 cells were obtained from ATCC, and identity was validated by a functional

assay: cells were grown to confluency, switched to low serum medium for several days,

and evaluated for the formation of multinucleated myotubes. Parallel cultures of C2C12

cells were infected with virus encoding GFP fusion proteins. 293T cells were transfected

with delivery vectors and viral packaging vectors for retroviral or lentiviral production.

Conditioned media were collected 48-72 hours after transfection and applied to low-

passage C2C12 cells in the presence of polybrene. Integrated clones were selected

using the relevant antibiotic selections for each vector backbone. Fluorescent cell

populations were isolated by FACS. The resulting stable GFP-expressing C2C12 cell

lines were tested to verify the absence of mycoplasma contamination. miR-E RNAi cell

lines were generated in U2OS cells. U2OS cells were obtained from ATCC and were

periodically tested for mycoplasma contamination. EMDΔ95-99-GFP was introduced by

retroviral infection and FACS sorted as described above. miR-E RNAi expression

vectors were then introduced into these stable cell lines by lentiviral infection.

RITE tag switching

RITE tag switching experiments were performed in quiescent C2C12 cells stably

expressing RITE-tagged INM proteins. C2C12s were grown in Ibidi chamber slides and

induced to enter quiescence as previously described(K. Zhang, Sha, & Harter, 2010) by

growing C2C12 myoblasts to ~75% confluence, washing twice in warm PBS, and

switching to quiescent medium (DMEM without methionine, 2% FBS, and pen-strep).

Cells were maintained in quiescent medium for 3 days with media changes every other

day before initiation of RITE timecourses. To induce tag exchange, concentrated

adenovirus expressing Cre recombinase was added to the culture medium. Tag

switching was initiated at the indicated timepoints such that the entire slide containing

all time points could be fixed, stained, imaged, and quantified in parallel. To quantify

loss of "old" RITE-tagged protein over time, intensity per unit area of the "old" tag was

quantified across all conditions. Background measurements were taken from cell-free

regions of the imaging dish and subtracted from all signals as a background correction.

All signals were then normalized to the day 0 timepoint (no tag switch).

Antibody uptake assays

For antibody uptake assays, cells were pre-treated with drugs for the indicated times,

then incubated in medium containing antibody, drug, and 125 μM leupeptin for 1 hour

before fixation in paraformaldehyde and staining. Cells were stained with Alexa Fluor-

conjugated secondary antibody to visualize internalized primary antibody:GFP

conjugates. Cell surfaces were stained with Alexa Fluor-conjugated WGA; the WGA

signal was used as a guide for outlining individual cells and quantifying internalized

antibody fluorescence.

Preparation of protein lysates and Western blotting

Cells were washed in PBS, then lysed directly in plates in PBS lysis buffer (PBS

supplemented with 1% Triton-X-100, 0.1% SDS, and protease inhibitors). Cells were

further lysed by passage through a 25-gauge needle. Protein concentrations were

quantified by BCA assay, and ~20 ug of total protein was loaded per lane of 4-12%

gradient gels (Invitrogen). Blots were incubated with emerin antibody (1:1000) or alpha-

tubulin antibody (1:5000) followed by IR Dye-conjugated secondary antibodies (1:5000)

for multiplexed detection on the Odyssey imaging system.

Microscopy and image analysis

Cells were grown in Ibidi culture chambers, treated as indicated, and fixed in 4% PFA

for 5 minutes, then permeabilized in IF buffer (PBS, 0.1% Tx100, 0.02% SDS, 10 mg/ml

BSA) before staining with Hoechst DNA dye. Wells were rinsed in PBS before imaging

on a Zeiss LSM 710 scanning confocal microscope with a 63 x 1.4 NA objective.

Images shown are single confocal slices. All image quantification was performed on

maximum intensity projections of z-series with ImageJ. To quantify NE-localized protein

levels, the DNA stain was used as a mask, and all GFP fluorescence within that mask

was quantified.

For lysosomal staining, cells were prepared as described(Castellano et al., 2017) with

the following modifications. Following fixation in 4% PFA for 5 minutes, cells were rinsed

in PBS, then permeabilized in freshly prepared 0.1% digitonin in PBS for 10 minutes at

4C. Cells were rinsed again in PBS, then blocked in 2% goat serum in PBS for 30

minutes before staining with LAMP1 antibody (1:100 in 2% goat serum) for 1-2 hours at

RT. Cells were rinsed again in PBS, then stained with Alexa Fluor-conjugated

secondary antibody and Hoechst DNA stain for 1 hour at RT.

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1051
1052 **Supplemental Figures**
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Figure 1 - figure supplement 1. Half life fit examples

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1056 **Figure 1 – figure supplement 1.** Example half life fits. Examples of half-life fits for
1057 proteins with predicted half-lives of 0.5 days (A), 1 day (B), 2 days (C), 4 days (D), 8
1058 days (E), and 17 days (F).
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Figure 2 - figure supplement 1.
Identification of a disease-linked emerin mutant with normal localization and NE residence time

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Figure 2 – figure supplement 1. Identification of a disease-linked emerin mutant with
normal NE localization. (A) EMDΔ95-99-GFP (EMDΔ-GFP) has normal localization at
the NE (B) and normal residence time at the NE, based on fluorescence recovery after
photobleaching timecourse at the NE (C,D).

Figure 3 - figure supplement 1

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Figure 3 – figure supplement 1. Localization and stability of a disease-linked emerin
variant. (A-B) C2C12 cells stably expressing EMDΔ-GFP (A) or EMD-WT-GFP (B) and
treated with DMSO vehicle control, CHX alone, CHX and MG132, or MG132 alone for 8
hours. All images were acquired using the same laser power and detector gain settings.
Single confocal z slices shown. Scale bar, 10 μm. (C-D) Western blot analysis of EMDΔ-
GFP (C) or EMD-WT-GFP (D) protein levels after treatment with CHX for the indicates
times.

Figure 3 - figure supplement 2. siRNA-mediated E2 or E3 ubiquitin ligase knockdowns do not stabilize emerin variants.

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Figure 3 – figure supplement 2. siRNA-mediated E2 or E3 ubiquitin ligase
knockdowns do not stabilize EMDΔ-GFP. (A-B) EMDΔ-GFP protein levels do not
change in C2C12 cells stably expressing EMDΔ-GFP and transfected in duplicate with
50 nM RNAi targeting the E3 ubiquitin ligases Rnf26, CGRRF1, MARCH6, or a
scrambled control (A), or targeting the E2 ubiquitin conjugating enzymes UBE2G1,
UBE2G2, UBE2J1, and UBE2J2, or MARCH6 (B). (C) qPCR quantification of RNAi
knockdown efficiency for conditions shown in (A-B). (D) EMDΔ-GFP protein levels either
decrease or do not change in U2OS cells stably expressing EMDΔ-GFP and induced to
express a miR-E RNAi cassette targeting the E3 ubiquitin ligase MARCH6 or the E2
ubiquitin conjugating enzyme UBE2J1 for 48 hours. Free GFP is also expressed from
this cassette and indicates RNAi expression. miR-E RNAis used were from a validated
set described in (Knott et al., Mol Cell 2014).

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Figure 3 – figure supplement 3. Glycosylation reporter variants are destabilized by ER
stress and recovered by BFA treatment. Glycosylation reporter variant of EMDΔ-GFP
localizes normally to the NE and responds to ER stress induced by THG and secretory
pathway disruption caused by BFA (A-B). (C) Pattern of glycosylation modifications in
DMSO vehicle control treated cells or cells treated with THG for 2-4 hours. A larger
proportion of EMDΔ-GFP becomes Endo H-resistant during acute ER stress.

Figure 4 - figure supplement 1

Figure 4 – figure supplement 1. Colocalization of emerin with the Golgi. (A-B)
Representative confocal slices of cells stably expressing EMD-WT-GFP, treated with
DMSO or THG for the indicated times and costained for giantin to mark the Golgi
(magenta). All images were acquired using the same laser power and detector gain
settings. Dotted lines mark positions of linescans shown in (B). (C) Quantification of
GFP fluorescence intensity abundance ratio in Golgi versus NE in single, non-contrast-
adjusted z slices over THG treatment timecourse. Columns indicate average with error
bars indicating SEM for N > 47 cells from 2 independent experiments. **** indicates p-
value < 0.0001. Scale bars in micrographs indicate 10 μm.

Figure 6 - figure supplement 1

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Figure 6 – figure supplement 1. Access of emerin to the plasma membrane. (A)
Uptake of anti-GFP antibody (magenta) by cells stably expressing EMD-WT-GFP and
treated with DMSO vehicle control or THG for the indicated times. Cells were incubated
with anti-GFP antibody for the final hour of the treatment period before fixation and
imaging. (B) control demonstrating lack of uptake of anti-myc antibody by cells stably
expressing EMD-WT-GFP and treated with THG for 2 hours. (D) Quantification of
internalized antibody signal in EMD-WT-GFP expressing cells. Columns indicate
average and error bars indicate SEM for N > 66 cells from 2 independent experiments.
**** indicates 2-value < 0.0001 (t-test) compared to untreated.
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Figure 7 - figure supplement 1. glycosylation reporter variants are destabilized by ER stress and recovered by BFA treatment.

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1130 **Figure 7 – figure supplement 1**. Glycosylation reporter variants are destabilized by ER
1131 stress and recovered by BFA treatment. (A-B) Glycosylation reporter variant of EMD-
1132 WT-GFP localizes normally to the NE and responds to ER stress induced by THG and
1133 secretory pathway disruption caused by BFA.
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Figure 8 - figure supplement 1

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1138 **Figure 8 – figure supplement 1.** Stability of EMDΔLEM-GFP over time of
1139 cycloheximide treatment. Western blot detection of EMDΔLEM-GFP protein levels in
1140 cells treated with DMSO vehicle control or CHX for the indicated times.

Figure 8 - figure supplement 2. emerin is mislocalized to the ER but not degraded in lmna -/- MEFs.

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1142 **Figure 8 – figure supplement 2.** Emerin is mislocalized to the ER, but not degraded in
1143 *lmna -/-* MEFs. (A) representative immunostaining of WT MEFs or of *lmna -/-* MEFs with
1144 lamin A antibody (red) and Hoechst (blue). (B) Representative immunofluorescence of
1145 EMD-GFP stably expressed in WT MEFs (top panel) or *lmna -/-* MEFs (bottom panel).
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1147 **Source Data 1.** Filtered peptide data for half life calculations. Peptide turnover data for
1148 all peptides passing quality control filters. See R script and Methods for details.
1149
1150 **Source Data 2.** Filtered protein data for half life calculations. Filtered and averaged
1151 protein turnover data. See R script and Methods for details.
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1153 **Supplementary File 1.** Results of half life fits passing quality filters.
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1155 **Supplementary File 2.** Complete list of half life fits.
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1157 **Supplementary File 3.** Half lives and protein topology data. Selected data related to
1158 Figure 1G-H.