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Selective clearance of the inner nuclear membrane protein emerin by vesicular

transport during ER stress

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Abstract

Proteins of the inner nuclear membrane (INM) participate in nuclear positioning and

genome organization. The 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. By imaging the INM protein emerin, we observed that the proteasome can

degrade INM proteins *in situ*. However, we also uncovered evidence for selective,

vesicular transport-mediated turnover during 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. Ribosomes associated with translocon channels

feed nascent proteins into the ER. The lumen of the ER is enriched with folding

chaperones that promote the effective maturation of newly synthesized proteins.

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). Mutations to INM 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 may

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 vesicular transport-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. 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(DaposAngelo, 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) (Fig. S1). 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 Tables S1-S5.

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 at the INM, 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 a protein will be expressed in cells with the first tag immediately

downstream of the open reading frame. Upon adenoviral introduction of Cre

recombinase, the first tag is removed by recombination and the second tag is positioned

immediately downstream of the open reading frame, so that all newly synthesized

protein carries the second tag. This enables simultaneous tracking of older and newer

pools of protein that were synthesized before and after Cre addition, respectively (Toya

Figure 2. RITE analysis of INM proteins corroborates protein turnover determined by proteomics.

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. (B-C) RITE timecourses of nurim-RITE (B) and emerin-RITE (C) in quiescent C2C12 cells. (D) Quantification of normalized intensity of old RITE-tagged protein over the timecourses shown in (B-C). Points indicate average values with error bars indicating SEM for N > 153 cells per condition from 2 independent experiments. **** indicates p-value < 0.0001 (by t-test) for comparison between old nurim and emerin levels. (E) Treatment of quiescent C2C12 cells expressing emerin-RITE for 1 day with the proteasome inhibitor MG132. (F) Induction of RITE tag switch by Cre recombinase administration for 2 days (left) or for 1 day followed by Cre and MG132 coincubation for 1 day. (G) Quantification of intensity of old RITE-tagged emerin in the NE across the conditions shown in (E-F). Columns indicate average and error bars indicate SEM for N > 128 cells from

ma 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-D).

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 protein and on nascent unfolded or misfolded proteins. When quiescent cells

expressing EMD-RITE were subjected to proteasome inhibition by MG132 for 1 day,

extensive accumulation of EMD-RITE was observed throughout the NE/ER network

(Fig. 2E). Since INM proteins are synthesized in the bulk ER and become enriched at

the INM upon proper folding and engagement with binding partners, we infer from this

that a proportion of newly synthesized EMD is degraded in a proteasome-dependent

manner in the peripheral ER. On the other hand, if proteasome inhibitor was

administered after RITE tag switching, a partial stabilization of maturely folded EMD at

the NE was observed (Fig. 2F, G). This indicates that mature, INM-localized EMD 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. 3A) that had been previously shown to localize to the NE when

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

EMD or EMDΔ95-99 in C2C12 cells, we observed similar enrichment at the NE (Fig.

S2B). Further, both protein variants exhibited residence time at the NE as assayed by

fluorescence recovery after photobleaching (FRAP) analysis (Fig. S2). However, when

de novo protein synthesis was blocked by cycloheximide (CHX), we observed rapid loss

of EMDΔ95-99 within 4-8 hours (Fig. 3B, 3D) while wild type EMD remained stable (Fig.

3C). 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 ER-associated degradation (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). We noted that treatment with the

proteasome inhibitor MG132 caused widespread accumulation of EMDΔ95-99 and EMD

throughout the NE/ER membrane network, cytoplasm, and nucleoplasm (Fig. 2E; 3B-C,

fourth panels) and accumulation of higher molecular weight forms of EMDΔ95-99 that

could be poly-ubiquitinated species (Fig. 3D). The widespread accumulation of EMD

throughout intracellular compartments upon proteasome inhibition suggests that newly

synthesized EMD variants are co-translationally degraded by the proteasome. Notably,

as a tail-anchored protein, EMD is post-translationally inserted into the ER membrane

and may be subject to quality control at this key step in biogenesis. Consistent with this,

we observe that non-membrane-associated and higher molecular weight forms of

EMD∆95-99 accumulate upon proteasome inhibition (Fig. S3).

Figure 3. Effects of proteasomal inhibition and ERAD disruption on emerin protein levels.

Figure 3. Effects of proteasomal inhibition and ERAD disruption on emerin protein levels. (A) Diagram of emerin domain organization and position of EDMD-linked in-frame deletion mutant (EMD∆95-99) within the lamin-binding domain. (B-C) Representative confocal slices of cells stably expressing EMD∆-GFP (B) or EMD-WT-GFP (C) and treated with DMSO vehicle control, CHX alone, CHX and MG132, or MG132 alone for 8 hours; scale bar, 10 μm. All images were acquired using the same laser power and detector gain settings. (D) Western blot analysis of protein levels in C2C12 cells stably expressing EMD∆-GFP and treated with DMSO vehicle, the translation inhibitor CHX, or the proteasome inhibitor MG132 for the time periods shown. α-tubulin shown as loading control. (E) Western blot analysis of C2C12 cells stably expressing EMD∆-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.

Conversely, we observed that mature wild type EMD accumulates gradually at the INM

when the proteasome is inhibited (Fig. 2F, G), and that EMD variants are modestly

stabilized at the INM in cells co-treated with the translation inhibitor CHX and MG132

(Fig. 3B-C, third panels). This could indicate that INM-localized EMD variants are

cleared by ERAD, which terminates in targeting to the proteasome. Indeed,

pharmacological inhibition of the ERAD ATPase p97 with the drug eeyarestatin I(Wang,

Li, & Ye, 2008) causes modest stabilization of EMDΔ95-99 and accumulation of higher

molecular weight species (Fig. 3D). In contrast, the drug kifunensine, which prevents

ERAD targeting of misfolded glycosylated proteins(Fagioli & Sitia, 2001), has no effect

on EMD levels as would be expected given the lack of glycosylation sites within EMD's

small luminal domain (Fig. 3D).

If EMD variants are subject to ERAD, inhibition of earlier steps in the ERAD pathway

should similarly cause accumulation of EMD variants. Ubiquitin is conferred to ERAD

substrates by E3 ubiquitin ligases, which each exhibit preference for a small number of

substrates. A few E3 ubiquitin 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 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 (Fig. S4A), indicating 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 (Fig. S3B-C) and a subset of these by

inducible RNAi using a potent micro RNA-based system (Fellmann et al., 2013) (Fig.

3E; Fig. S3D) and analyzed the effects on EMDΔ95-99 levels. To our surprise,

knockdown of UBE2G1, UBE2G2, UBE2J1, and UBE2J2 either did not stabilize or

instead decreased EMDΔ95-99 levels (Fig. S3, Fig 3E). This finding suggests that when

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

Figure 4. Rapid clearance of emerin variants from the NE and ER during folding stress

Figure 4. Rapid clearance of emerin variants from the NE and ER during folding stress. (A) Western blot analysis of C2C12 cells stably expressing EMDΔ-GFP and treated with DMSO vehicle control (-), tunicamycin (+), or thapsigargin (+) for 24 hours. (B-C) Timecourse of thapsigargin treatment and effects on GFP fusion protein levels. Representative confocal slices of C2C12 cells stably expressing EMDΔ-GFP (B) or EMD-WT-GFP (C) after treatment with DMSO vehicle control or with thapsigargin (THG) for the indicated time periods. Insets show nuclei in the same ~50 µm field of view stained with Hoechst. All images were acquired using the same laser power and detector gain settings. (D) Quantification of NE-localized GFP fluorescence intensity over THG treatment timecourse. Columns indicate average and error bars indicate SEM for N > 393 cells from 4 independent experiments. **** indicates p-value < 0.0001 compared to untreated (by t-test).

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 EMD∆95-99. We tested the effects of the ER stressor tunicamycin, which interferes with glycosylation and thus with protein folding, or the stressor thapsigargin, which disrupts ER homeostasis by causing release of Ca2+ from the ER lumen, on EMD∆95-99 protein levels. Treatment with either thapsigargin or tunicamycin potently decreased EMD∆95-99 protein levels within 24 hours (Fig 4A).

We tracked EMD∆95-99 protein localization by time-lapse microscopy in cells treated with thapsigargin (Fig. 4B). Within 2 hours of treatment, NE localization of EMD∆95-99 was significantly decreased, and its accumulation in a perinuclear membrane compartment, likely the Golgi apparatus, became apparent. By 8 hours after thapsigargin administration, EMD∆95-99 was undetectable (Fig. 4B, D). We next asked whether wild type EMD was also subject to this pathway; similarly to EMD∆95-99, we observed a time-dependent decrease of NE-localized protein, concomitant with accumulation in a perinuclear compartment and followed by eventual disappearance of the protein. Compared to EMD∆95-99, displacement of wild type EMD from the NE proceeded significantly more slowly (Fig. 4C-D). These data suggest that under conditions of ER stress, EMD variants are cleared from the NE/ER membrane network by transport out of the ER and eventual disposal of the protein in a post-ER compartment.

Stress-dependent clearance of emerin involves trafficking through the secretory pathway

Time-lapse imaging (Fig. 4B-C) suggested that in a rapid response to acute ER stress, EMD variants traffic out of the NE/ER and concentrate in a perinuclear compartment. Based on localization and morphology, we surmised that this compartment was the Golgi apparatus. To test this, we evaluated the extent of colocalization of EMD variants

Figure 5. Emerin is trafficked out of the ER under ER stress

Figure 5. Emerin is trafficked out of the ER under ER stress. (A-B) 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. Dotted lines mark positions of linescans in (C). All images were acquired using the same laser power and detector gain settings, but selected images contrast-adjusted in bottom panel to show relative levels of EMDΔ-GFP in NE and Golgi. (D) Representative confocal slices of cells stably expressing EMD-GFP, treated with DMSO or THG for the indicated times and costained for giantin to mark the Golgi. Dotted lines mark positions of linescans in (E). (F) Quantification of GFP fluorescence intensity abundance ratio in Golgi *versus* NE 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). (G-H) Representative confocal slices of cells stably expressing EMDΔ-GFP (G) or EMD-WT-GFP (H) after 16 hours of treatment with DMSO vehicle control, THG, or co-treatment with THG and brefeldin A (BFA). Insets show nuclei in the same ~50 μm field of view stained with Hoechst. (I) Quantification of GFP fluorescence intensity at the NE across the conditions represented in (G-H). 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).

with the medial Golgi resident protein giantin in untreated cells and cells that had been

treated with THG for 2-4 hours (Fig. 5A-E). In untreated cells, EMDΔ95-99 did not

enrich in the Golgi, but THG treatment rapidly induced Golgi colocalization as NE-

localized EMDΔ95-99 levels decreased (Fig. 5A-C). Wild type EMD exhibited some

occupancy in the Golgi under basal conditions that gradually increased upon ER stress

(Fig. 5D-E). Comparing GFP fluorescence intensity in the Golgi *versus* the NE over time

revealed that ER stress rapidly induces significant enrichment of EMDΔ95-99 in the

Golgi over the NE within 2 hours, while wild type EMD becomes enriched in the Golgi

with slower kinetics (Fig. 5F). This indicates that, during ER stress, EMD variants are

cleared from the NE/ER by a pathway that involves transport to the Golgi, on a more

rapid timescale for EMDΔ95-99 and on a slower timescale for wild type EMD.

Anterograde transport from the ER to the Golgi is mediated by packaging of cargoes

within vesicles coated by the COPII vesicle formation machinery(Barlowe & Miller,

2013), a process which can be inhibited by the drug brefeldin A (BFA). To test whether

EMD is a client of COPII-mediated ER-to-Golgi transport, we co-incubated cells

expressing EMD or EMDΔ95-99 with thapsigargin and BFA. Strikingly, co-treatment with

BFA reversed loss of EMD and EMDΔ95-99 from the NE (Fig 5G-H); under these

conditions, protein levels were maintained to nearly the same extent as those observed

in untreated cells (Fig. 5I). Taken together with the time-dependent enrichment of EMD

variants in the Golgi apparatus (Fig. 5A-F), this indicates that under ER stress, EMD

variants can be cleared from both the NE and ER by vesicular transport through the

Golgi.

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 EMD variants could be engulfed and removed

from the NE and ER by autophagosomes, we tested the ability of the PI3K inhibitor

KU55933 to reverse EMD loss. PI3K signaling promotes the formation of isolation

membranes that engulf autophagic cargo, and KU55933 inhibits this(Farkas, Daugaard,

& Jäättelä, 2011; Klionsky et al., 2016). We observed that cotreatment with KU55933

during acute ER stress could not prevent loss EMD variants from the NE/ER (Fig. 6A-

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 EMD'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 EMD variants after ER export, we co-incubated cells expressing

EMD or EMDΔ95-99 with thapsigargin and bafilomycin A1 (Baf A1), which impairs

lysosome acidification and thus slows protein degradative processes within lysosomes.

Under these conditions, we observed complete translocation of both EMD and

EMDΔ95-99 out of the NE and ER and into perinuclear puncta that are likely lysosomes

based on their size, number, and location (Fig. 6E-F). This indicates that the eventual

destination of EMD variants after clearance from the stressed NE/ER network is the

lysosome.

Figure 6. Emerin trafficking is dependent on lysosomal but not autophagosomal function.

Figure 6. Emerin trafficking is dependent on lysosomal but not autophagosomal function. (A-B) Representative confocal slices of cells stably expressing EMDΔ-GFP (A) or EMD-WT-GFP (B) 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. (C) Quantification of NE-localized GFP fluorescence intensity across the conditions shown in (A-B). 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). (D) Diagram of processes perturbed by KU55933, BFA, and Baf A1 treatment. (E-F) Representative confocal slices of cells stably expressing EMDΔ-GFP (E) or EMD-WT-GFP (F) after treatment with DMSO vehicle control, THG, or co-treatment with THG and Baf A1 for the indicated times. Insets show nuclei in the same ~50 µm field of view stained with Hoechst.

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 EMD or EMDΔ95-99 under homeostatic or stressed conditions. EMD is a tail-anchored protein with its final C-terminal amino acids facing the ER lumen; when C-terminally tagged, the tag will face the extracellular space if EMD accesses the PM (Fig. 7A). We tested whether EMD's GFP tag is accessible to an anti-GFP antibody applied to the surface of intact cells. In untreated cells, low amounts of EMDΔ95-99 (Fig. 7B-D) or EMD (Fig. 7E-G) are accessible to an anti-GFP antibody, but not to an anti-myc antibody, indicating that EMD variants are not completely restricted to intracellular membrane compartments under homeostatic conditions. Upon induction of ER stress by THG, the amount of PM-accessible EMD variants rapidly increases within 2-4 hours, and begins to taper off within 6 hours. This implies that ER stress induces the export of EMD variants from the NE/ER to the PM. Importantly, the GFP antibody signal is visible within intracellular puncta, consistent with EMD-GFP:antibody conjugates being rapidly internalized into vesicles after PM delivery. Based on the timescale when the levels of GFP-tagged EMD variants begin to significantly decrease at the NE (Fig. 4B-D), increase in the Golgi (Fig. 5A-F), transit through the PM (Fig. 7) and accumulate in lysosomes (Fig. 6E-F), we infer

400   that EMD variants are transported through the secretory pathway to the PM, then

401   internalized and delivered to lysosomes for degradation.

Figure 7. Emerin traffics through the plasma membrane upon ER stress

Figure 7. 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 or (C) anti-myc control antibody by cells stably expressing EMDΔ-GFP and treated with DMSO vehicle control or 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) Uptake of anti-GFP antibody or (F) anti-myc control antibody by cells stably expressing EMD-WT-GFP and treated with DMSO vehicle control or THG for 2 hours. (G) 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 p-value < 0.0001 (t-test) compared to untreated. All images were acquired using the same laser power and detector gain settings. Scale bar, 10 μm.

Other INM proteins do not undergo stress-dependent clearance

Our findings indicate that EMD is subject to proteasome-dependent turnover at the INM (Fig. 2F, G; Fig. 3B-D), 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. 8A-C), 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. 8A-C), indicating that they are not subject to stress-dependent ER export and degradation. Further, neither protein leaves the NE/ER to accumulate in lysosomes when lysosome acidification is blocked by Baf A1 (Fig. 8D, E). This indicates that stress-dependent trafficking out of the INM is selective, and that intrinsic features of EMD control its clearance from the NE/ER and

426   targeting into lysosomes.

Figure 8. Other INM proteins do not undergo stress-dependent clearance from the NE or access lysosomes.

Figure 8. Other INM proteins do not undergo stress-dependent clearance from the NE and ER or access lysosomes. (A-B) Representative confocal slices of cells stably expressing NRM-GFP (A) or Sun2-GFP (B) 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. (C) Quantification of GFP fluorescence intensity at the NE across selected conditions represented in (A-B). 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). (D-E) Representative confocal slices of cells stably expressing NRM-GFP (D) or Sun2-GFP (E) after 16 hours of co-treatment with THG and BAF A1. All images were acquired using the same laser power and detector gain settings.

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

Why is EMD 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 glycosylation sites or other clear 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 (Fig. S5). This indicates 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. 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. 9A),

consistent with its ability to bind the lamina via remaining intact protein domains.

However, we observed that this mutant was less responsive than wild-type EMD to ER

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

THG treatment (Fig. 9A-C) and was significantly less sensitive than full-length EMD to

ER stress (Fig. 9C). We surmise that the eventual loss of EMDΔLEM is due to

translational inhibition resulting from ER stress(Harding et al., 1999). 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. 9D-E). Altogether, this indicates that a signal within emerin's

LEM domain actively contributes to its selective export from the ER under stress

conditions.

Figure 9. A signal within emerin's LEM domain is required for RESET

Figure 9. A signal within emerin's LEM domain is required for stress-dependent ER export. (A-B) Representative confocal slices of C2C12 cells stably expressing EMD-WT-GFP (A) or EMDΔLEM-GFP (B) 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. (C) Quantification of GFP fluorescence intensity at the NE across the timecourse shown in (A-B). 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). (D) Representative confocal slices of C2C12 cells stably expressing EMDΔLEM-GFP after treatment with DMSO vehicle control, THG, THG + BFA, or THG + Baf A1. (E) Quantification of GFP fluorescence intensity at the NE across the conditions shown in (D). 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). (F) Competition model for emerin sorting via its LEM domain competitively binding to BAF or to the ER export machinery.

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 noted that turnover of maturely folded EMD exhibits proteasome dependence at the INM (Fig. 2F), while nascent EMD rapidly accumulates throughout multiple cellular compartments when the proteasome is inhibited (Fig. 2E; Fig. 3B-C, fourth panels). Taken together, these observations lead us to infer that mature EMD 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 (and potentially other INM proteins) is also subject to co-translational quality control that terminates in proteasomal degradation. As proteasomal inhibition and p97 inhibition each stabilize EMD (Fig. 3D), we propose that EMD is an ERAD client under some conditions.

Surprisingly, however, we also find that the INM protein 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. 3E, Fig. 4) and requires COPII-mediated export out of the ER (Fig. 5). Notably, changes to EMD localization and levels are apparent within 2-4 hours of ER stress induction, which is significantly earlier than the timescale required for full activation of the unfolded protein response (UPR) by ER stress (Calfon et al., 2002). Based on the transient appearance of EMD at the PM (Fig. 7) and its accumulation in perinuclear puncta after lysosomal inhibition (Fig. 6), we infer that EMD transits through

the secretory pathway and is then internalized into lysosomes. 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.

A recent description of the fate of a misfolded variant of the GPI-anchored prion protein,

PrP, during ER stress has some intriguing parallels to our findings(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 was termed rapid ER

stress-induced export, 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 topology of PrP and EMD are

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

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

RESET(Satpute-Krishnan et al., 2014). In contrast, EMD is a tail-anchored protein, and

interactions mediated by EMD's nucleoplasmic-facing LEM domain (Fig. 9) control its

stress-dependent clearance.

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 (Fig. S2). 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 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 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, Fig. S2). This

suggests that clearance of EMD from the NE/ER is not strictly contingent on protein

misfolding.

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). One model that

could explain the dichotomy between LEM-mediated BAF binding and LEM-mediated

ER export is that BAF and an ER export-promoting factor bind competitively to the same

surface of EMD's LEM domain (Fig. 9F). 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 (EMDΔ95-99) is more rapidly degraded under acute stress

conditions, suggesting that over-sensitization to ER stress could contribute to EMD-

linked diseases. 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.

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 and cell line generation

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.

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.

miR-E oligonucleotide sequences:

UBE2G1:

TGCTGTTGACAGTGAGCGAAAGACAGCTGGCAGAACTCAATAGTGAAGCCACAGA

TGTATTGAGTTCTGCCAGCTGTCTTCTGCCTACTGCCTCGGA

UBE2G2:

TGCTGTTGACAGTGAGCGAACCGGGAGCAGTTCTATAAGATAGTGAAGCCACAGA

TGTATCTTATAGAACTGCTCCCGGTCTGCCTACTGCCTCGGA

UBE2J1:

TGCTGTTGACAGTGAGCGAAAGGTTGTCTACTTCACCAGATAGTGAAGCCACAGAT

GTATCTGGTGAAGTAGACAACCTTCTGCCTACTGCCTCGGA

MARCH6:

TGCTGTTGACAGTGAGCGACTGGATCTTCATTCTTATTTATAGTGAAGCCACAGAT

GTATAAATAAGAATGAAGATCCAGCTGCCTACTGCCTCGGA

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.

Antibodies and reagents

Myc antibody 9B11 (Cell Signaling)

FLAG antibody M2 monoclonal (Sigma-Aldrich)

GFP antibody polyclonal rabbit (ab290, Abcam)

Emerin antibody polyclonal rabbit (sc-15378, Santa Cruz Biotech)

Alexa 647-WGA (Life Tech)

Giantin antibody polyclonal rabbit (PRB-114C, BioLegend)

These drugs were used at the following concentrations: cycloheximide (200 ug/ml), MG132 (10 uM) thapsigargin (0.1 uM), tunicamycin (2 ug/ml), brefeldin A (2.5 uM), bafilomycin A1 (100 nM), KU55933 (2 uM).

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Figure S1. Half life fit examples

A. Troponin C (P19123),
T1/2 = 0.5 days

y = -1.472x + 4.687
R^2 = 0.9876

B. Map1a(Q9QYR6),
T1/2 = 1.0 days

y = -0.6365x + 4.518
R^2 = 0.9987

C. Calsequestrin 1 (O09165),
T1/2 = 2.0 days

y = -0.3324x + 4.540
R^2 = 0.9564

D. Srp68 (Q8BN21),
T1/2 = 4.0 days

y = -0.2781x + 4.576
R^2 = 0.9985

E. MCUb (Q810S1),
T1/2 = 8.0 days

y = -0.090x + 4.585
R^2 = 0.9972

F. Importin 11 (Q8K2V6),
T1/2 = 17.0 days

y = -0.036x + 4.587
R^2 = 0.9270

Figure S2. Identification of a disease-linked emerin mutant with normal localization and NE residence time

Figure S3. Accumulation of non-membrane-associated higher molecular weight EMD species upon proteasome inhibition

Figure S4. siRNA-mediated E2 or E3 ubiquitin ligase knockdowns do not stabilize emerin variants.

Figure S5. emerin is mislocalized to the ER but not degraded in lmna -/- MEFs.

Supplemental Figure Legends

Figure S1. Examples of half-life fits for proteins with predicted half-lives of 0.5 days (A), 1 day (B), 2 days (C), 4 days (D), 8 days (E), and 17 days (F).

Figure S2. Identification of a disease-linked emerin variant (A) with normal localization (B) and normal residence time at the NE (C,D).

Figure S3. Accumulation of non-membrane-associated higher molecular weight EMD species upon proteasome inhibition. C2C12 cells stably expressing EMDΔ-GFP were treated with proteasome inhibitor (MG132) for the indicated times, then subjected to Triton-X-114 fractionation to separate hydrophobic/membrane-associated proteins from hydrophilic/soluble proteins. Anti-EMD antibody was used to detect endogenous EMD (mostly hydrophobic) and exogenous EMDΔ-GFP, which is present in both fractions and accumulates in higher molecular weight, soluble species upon proteasome inhibition.

Figure S4. siRNA-mediated E2 ubiquitin-conjugating enzyme or E3 ubiquitin ligase knockdowns do not stabilize emerin variants. (A-B) EMDΔ-GFP protein levels do not change in C2C12 cells stably expressing EMDΔ-GFP that were 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 (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.

Figure S5. Emerin is mislocalized to the ER, but not degraded in *lmna -/-* MEFs. (A) representative immunostaining of WT MEFs or of *lmna -/-* MEFs with lamin A antibody (red) and Hoechst (blue). (B) Representative immunofluorescence of EMD-GFP stably expressed in WT MEFs (top panel) or *lmna -/-* MEFs (bottom panel).