

Closing a gap in the nuclear envelope

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The nuclear envelope (NE) ensures nucleo-cytoplasmic compartmentalization, with trafficking of macromolecules across this double membrane controlled by embedded nuclear pore complexes (NPCs). The NE and associated proteins are dismantled during open mitosis and reestablishment of this barrier during mitotic exit requires dynamic remodeling of endoplasmic reticulum (ER) membranes and coordination with NPC reformation, with NPC deposition continuing during subsequent interphase. In this review, we discuss recent progress in our understanding of NE reformation and nuclear pore complex generation, with special focus on work implicating the endosomal sorting complex required for transport (ESCRT) membrane remodeling machinery in these events.

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Introduction

The cell nucleus is enclosed in a specialized double membrane called the nuclear envelope (NE). The outer nuclear membrane (ONM) displays continuity with the endoplasmic reticulum (ER) and provides connections to the cell cytoskeleton [1]. The inner nuclear membrane (INM) is a more isolated membrane environment, harboring a set of unique proteins and a meshwork of intermediate filaments called lamins that line the nuclear face of the INM and together form the nuclear lamina [2,3]. Both membranes are joined at annular junctions that are occupied by nuclear pore complexes (NPCs), large multisubunit channels that span the NE to control exchange of nuclear and cytosolic molecules

[4,5]. Besides establishing nucleo-cytoplasmic compartmentalization, it has become clear that the NE and associated proteins as well as NPCs play important functions in a variety of chromatin-associated processes, such as establishment of chromosome territories, transcriptional regulation, DNA replication and DNA damage response [4,6,7]. It is therefore not surprising that compromised NE functions are linked to ageing and disease, including hereditary pathologies and cancer [8–11].

In metazoan cells, the NE breaks down during every cell division at onset of mitosis, enabling mitotic spindle microtubules to connect to kinetochores. After chromosomes have segregated, the NE and NPCs are reassembled during mitotic exit to generate functional sealed nuclei in the nascent daughter cells [12,13]. In this review we will highlight recent progress in studies of NE reformation with a special focus on the emerging role of the endosomal sorting complex required for transport (ESCRT) machinery.

Nuclear envelope dynamics during cell division

Nuclear envelope breakdown (NEBD) is initiated by membrane pulling forces exerted by microtubules (MTs) [14], but is spearheaded by mitotic kinases such as CDK1-Cyclin B1, Aurora B and PLK1 [13,15–17] that trigger extensive phosphorylation of numerous NE proteins, NPC components, lamins and INM proteins. This culminates in disruption of protein interactions, nuclear lamina integrity and connection of INM proteins to the condensing chromosomes [3,13,17,18]. Consequently, nuclear membranes together with their associated transmembrane proteins reorganize into the mitotic ER, which is excluded from the area occupied by chromosomes and the mitotic spindle by controlling contacts between ER membranes and MTs [19–24]. The structural organization of the mitotic ER is matter of debate with diverging results possibly due to the use of different cell lines and sample preparation methods. Both sheet-to-tubule reorganization [24–26] and a mitotic ER consisting mainly of sheets with a fraction of tubules have been observed [27–29].

Following anaphase onset, cells need to incorporate all chromosomes within a single nucleus and re-establish the interphase identity of their nuclear compartment [13,30,31*,32]. This involves reversal of hyper-phosphorylation of mitotic kinase substrates in a process involving inactivation (CDK1) or translocation (PLK1, Aurora B) of

mitotic kinases and the recruitment of the counteracting protein phosphatases PP1 and PP2A [33–37].

Reassembly of the nuclear envelope — membranes and nuclear pore complexes

NE reformation and reassembly of NPCs are key to re-establish nucleo-cytoplasmic compartmentalization. Recruitment of membranes derived from the mitotic ER is thought to be initiated at the rims of the chromatin discs, and several models have been put forward regarding the conformation of the ER structures that form the NE. According to the structure of the mitotic ER that was observed, ER tubules are proposed to organize in a network surrounding the chromatin discs and to flatten into sheets and expand [18,22,25]. Other studies have instead observed ER sheets that contact chromatin and expand on the surface of chromatin discs [18,29]. In cell-free systems, formation of a closed NE requires membrane fusion activity of factors such as Atlastin GTPases and SNAREs [38–40], although studies in living cells are needed to determine their direct contribution. NE reassembly and expansion of nuclear membranes on the surface of chromatin discs additionally involves ER shaping by proteins such as Reticulons and DP1/REEP protein family members [25,41–43], as well as attraction to the chromatin surface via INM proteins, such as Lamin B receptor (LBR) and Lamina-associated polypeptide 2 (Lap2 β), but also transmembrane nucleoporins POM121 and NDC1 [44]. Transmembrane NE proteins can dock directly to the DNA through basic extraluminal domains, or are recruited via chromatin factors such as heterochromatin protein 1 (HP1) or barrier-to-autointegration factor (BAF), that bind LBR and LAP2-emerin-MAN1 (LEM)-domain containing proteins, respectively [45–47].

During early steps of anaphase prior to membrane recruitment, post-mitotic nuclear pore re-assembly is initiated by chromatin binding of the nucleoporin ELYS/MEL28 [48,49]. ELYS constitutes the anchoring and recruitment factor for the NUP107-160 complex, also called Y-complex, the constituent of the nuclear pore cytoplasmic and nucleoplasmic ring [49,50,51*,52]. Together, they function as seeds for the recruitment of the transmembrane nucleoporins POM121 and NDC1, followed by the rest of the approximately thirty different nucleoporins that make up a mature NPC consisting of hundreds of proteins [50]. Underlining their importance in defining sites of NPC formation, depletion of ELYS or the Y-complex results in the formation of a closed pore-free NE [53,54]. In contrast to the post-mitotic pathway of NPC assembly, *de novo* insertion of nuclear pores during interphase proceeds much slower [55] and does not rely on ELYS [56]. Instead, it has been proposed that several nucleoporins including NUP153 recognize or induce INM curvature and recruit the Y-complex and transmembrane nucleoporins to scaffold NPC assembly [50,56,57*,58*].

ESCRTs control nuclear envelope sealing during mitotic exit

The different models for NE reformation predict the requirement for annular membrane fission to seal the NE into a continuous double membrane. Recent work has shed light on this long-standing question by uncovering a central role for the ESCRT-III membrane remodeling machinery (Box 1) in this process. Canonically, cytosolic ESCRT-III monomers polymerize into filaments lining the inside of membrane annuli and critically rely on activity of the AAA+ ATPase VPS4 to orchestrate topologically similar membrane fission events in an ever expanding range of cellular processes [59,60]. Considering the topology, ESCRT-III and VPS4 provided excellent candidates for regulation of NE sealing.

Indeed, ESCRT-III subunits have been shown to display a punctate localization pattern at chromatin discs in a brief interval (4 min) during the anaphase-to-telophase transition in human cells [61**]. Initially, ESCRT-III foci can be detected at the rims of chromatin discs, but are observed progressively towards the core region of the mitotic spindle attachments as nuclear membranes expands across the chromatin disc during mitotic exit [61**,62**]. Electron tomography has shown that the main ESCRT-III filament constituent CHMP4B localizes to the inside of nucleo-cytoplasmic channels in the reforming NE [62**]. Together with the recruitment of other ESCRT-III subunits and the requirement for VPS4, this points towards a central role for ESCRT-III in constriction and sealing of NE annuli (Box 1; Figure 1). Accordingly, perturbation of ESCRT-III function at the NE increases the number of unsealed membrane foci and results in compromised nucleo-cytoplasmic compartmentalization [61**,62**]. Even though these experiments make a strong case for the essential role of ESCRTs in NE sealing, they do not prove sufficiency, and it remains possible that downstream factors are required to complete annular fission. Arguing against this, elegant work using giant unilamellar vesicles (GUVs) and recombinant ESCRT subunits has shown that the ESCRT machinery is sufficient to induce membrane fission and formation of intraluminal vesicles *in vitro* [63]. Disruption of ESCRT-III dynamics by depletion of CHMP2A or VPS4 induced the formation of DNA damage foci at the NE [61**]. Further experiments will be needed to determine whether these foci stem from unsealed NE and reactive oxygen stress (ROS) damage or DNA herniation [9,64], or whether they are a consequence of torsional stress on the NE and underlying chromatin [65] upon unchecked CHMP4B accumulation.

ESCRT-III is prominently enriched at sites of intersection between nuclear membranes and MT bundles attached to the chromatin disc, with its recruitment coinciding with lateral MT severing [61**]. But is ESCRT-III acting exclusively at membrane annuli that

Box 1 ESCRT-III in membrane fission

The endosomal sorting complex required for transport (ESCRT)-III proteins, or CHMPs (for charged multivesicular body proteins, or, chromatin modifying proteins) constitute an evolutionarily conserved protein family encompassing 12 members in humans (CHMP1A-7 and the related protein IST1 [60,89]). CHMPs function by orchestrating topologically similar membrane fission events, classically in the formation of intraluminal vesicles in multivesicular endosomes, virus budding from the plasma membrane and cytokinetic abscission. Recent years have seen an astonishing explosion in ESCRT-III functions to include plasma membrane repair, neuron pruning, and nuclear envelope sealing [59].

ESCRT-III assembly

ESCRT-III proteins exist as small soluble monomers locked in an auto-inhibitory state with the C-terminal regulatory region folded back on the N-terminal helical core domain ($\alpha 1$ - $\alpha 4$; exemplified by CHMP4B in Figure to Box 1). Activation of ESCRT-III requires membrane association and binding to the ESCRT-II-CHMP6 nucleation complex, causing conformational changes that liberate the core domain for polymerization and formation of ESCRT-III filaments that line the inside of membrane necks [89]. Bro1 domain proteins such as ALIX have been proposed to function as alternative nucleators and although they indeed recruit CHMP4 paralogs *in vivo* and *in vitro* [90,91], it remains to be elucidated whether they directly nucleate or rather stabilize ESCRT-III filaments [92].

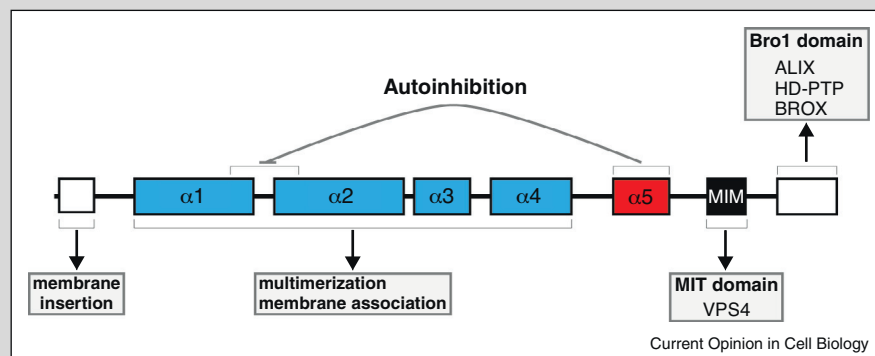
CHMP4B is the main constituent of ESCRT-III filaments, and it recruits CHMP2/3 that can convert flat CHMP4B spirals to 3-dimensional tubular filaments, with CHMP1 and IST1 the most downstream subunits recruited [61*,93]. Different ESCRT-III subunits have been shown to polymerize in a variety of structures, including linear filaments, spirals, tubes or domes *in vitro* [93–98]. However, what morphology they adopt in physiological settings and whether individual filaments are composed of different CHMP family members to form heteropolymeric filaments, or whether they constitute an assembly of individual homopolymeric filaments remains unclear [60,93,96,99*].

Upon activation, exposure of C-terminal elements regulates recruitment of a number of effector proteins through MIT-interacting motifs (MIMs) [94]. This short motif bestows individual CHMPs with remarkable selectivity for microtubule interaction and trafficking (MIT) domain-containing effectors, including kinases (ULK3 [84]) and AAA+ ATPases involved in microtubule severing (Spastin [60]) or ESCRT-III filament remodeling and membrane fission (VPS4 [89]).

ESCRT-III membrane association and constriction

ESCRT-III functions at regions of complex membrane architecture, involving both negative and positive curvature inside membrane necks. Based on structural evidence, it has been proposed that the upstream ESCRT-I complex bridges the positive curvature found at the rim of the membrane neck [100]. This targets the convex membrane interaction surface of the Y-shaped ESCRT-II-CHMP6 nucleator complex to negative curvature [101] with possible additional targeting by N-myristoylation of CHMP6 [102].

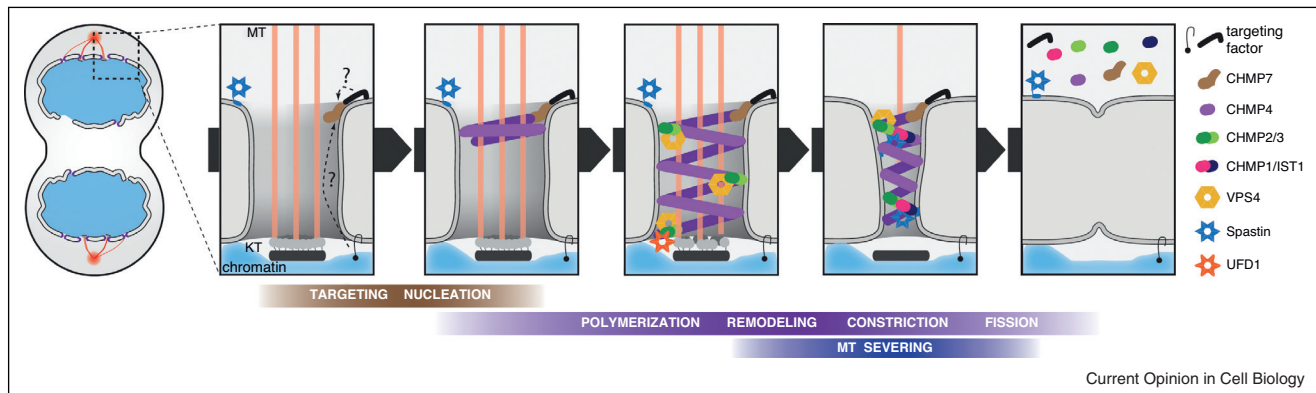
Upon nucleation, polymerizing ESCRT-III subunits establish extensive contacts with membranes through basic surfaces on their core domain [103*,104], and CHMP4B possesses an additional N-terminal amphipathic helix that inserts in regions of positive membrane curvature [103*] (Figure to Box 1). Subsequent recruitment of VPS4 by several ESCRT-III subunits plays a central role in the remodeling of ESCRT-III filaments [60,89,105,106] (Figure 1). However, how this translates to membrane constriction and fission remains to be conclusively established, with *in vitro* filament architectures and microscopy analyses leading to models involving ESCRT-III spirals, whorls, domes, or sliding elements [99*,107]. To add to the complexity, this dynamic process is subject to extensive regulation by signaling pathways, as exemplified by cytokinetic abscission checkpoint signaling where Aurora B and ULK3 dependent regulation of CHMP4C and IST1 controls ESCRT-III function in the presence of chromatin bridges, likely via restraining the activity of VPS4 [69,70,83,84].



are intersected by MTs? Interestingly, mitotic slippage experiments showed that the number of observable ESCRT-III foci was dramatically reduced during NE reformation in the presence of the MT depolymerizing drug nocodazole. This could be taken to indicate a role for ESCRTs specifically at NE-MT intersections, although it could also reflect a difference in ESCRT-III recruitment kinetics or quantity at sites lacking MT impediments.

With a striking analogy to cytokinetic abscission, the ESCRT-III-like subunit IST1 was found to recruit cytosolic and ER-associated isoforms of the MT severing AAA+ ATPase Spastin to chromatin discs (Figure 1). Perturbation of ESCRT-III function delays MT severing and vice versa, perturbation of Spastin function delays completion of ESCRT-III dependent NE sealing. This suggests that ESCRT-III could coordinate membrane

Figure 1



Model for ESCRT-III function during nuclear envelope reformation. During late anaphase, CHMP7 is targeted through unknown mechanisms to sites of microtubule (MT)-nuclear envelope (NE) intersections, and possibly also at MT-free annuli. CHMP7 activation nucleates CHMP4 polymerization, followed by recruitment of CHMP2/3 and VPS4 and finally IST1-dependent recruitment of Spastin. CHMP2 recruitment depends on UFD1 that could additionally contribute by extraction of Aurora B through the p97-UFD1-NPL4 complex. VPS4-dependent ESCRT-III filament remodeling in concert with Spastin-mediated MT severing drives membranes constriction and fission. It should be stressed that it remains unresolved whether ESCRT-III nucleation is initiated from the outer or inner nuclear membrane. Abbreviations: KT, kinetochore.

sealing with removal of MT filaments that impede annular membrane fission. Importantly though, disruption of ESCRT-III or Spastin only mildly affects MT severing, highlighting the existence of independent functionalities that control spindle disassembly during mitotic exit such as kinetochore-based detachment [66,67], other MT severing enzymes [68] or mechanical MT buckling [67].

With none of the canonical upstream regulators of ESCRT-III found to be required, such as upstream ESCRTs and Bro1 domain proteins [61^{••}], how are ESCRT-III proteins recruited to and activated at the NE? Interestingly, a direct interaction between the key downstream ESCRT-III subunit CHMP2A and the UFD1 subunit of the p97 complex was identified and proposed to mediate recruitment of CHMP2A to the reforming NE [62^{••}]. Since the p97-UFD1-NPL4 complex has previously been implicated in NE reformation as well as extraction of chromatin-bound Aurora B during mitotic exit, it is conceivable that UFD1 integrates these established functions with direct regulation of ESCRT-III function during NE sealing (Figure 1 [69–73]). However, since this study did not relate UFD1 function to upstream recruitment of the CHMP4B subunit, it remains unclear whether UFD1 function extends beyond CHMP2A. A tight reciprocal regulation of UFD1 and ESCRT-III functions would be expected in order to preclude uncontrolled CHMP4B polymerization, as observed in the absence of CHMP2A and its effector VPS4 [61^{••},62^{••}].

Interestingly, the poorly characterized ESCRT-III like-protein CHMP7 localizes to NE holes (Vietri, Campsteijn, Stenmark, unpublished data) and was found to be

essential for CHMP4B recruitment [61^{••}], indicating that it presents a key regulator of ESCRT-III filaments at the reforming NE (Figure 1). Although CHMP7 function remains to be explored, its domain composition resembles that of established ESCRT-III nucleating complexes (Box 1), consisting of an ESCRT-II-like winged helix and a CHMP6-like ESCRT-III core domain [74]. Considering its ability to directly bind to CHMP4B [75], it is tempting to speculate that CHMP7 could function as an ESCRT-III filament nucleator. Whether CHMP7 architecture is sufficient to target ESCRT-III to membrane annuli or whether this entails additional factors for recruitment and activity, such as LEM domain proteins, curvature sensing proteins or regulators, remains to be elucidated [35,36,41,76^{••}].

ESCRTs and nuclear pore complexes

Recent work has raised the question whether ESCRT-III activity at the NE extends beyond telophase NE sealing to NPC assembly and quality control. In budding yeast, VPS4 and core ESCRT-III components were shown to genetically interact with various NPC components, as well as the INM LEM domain protein HEH2 and the NPC assembly and NE liquidity regulator APQ12 [76^{••},77]. Furthermore, Snf7p (the yeast homolog of CHMP4B) was found to associate with Heh2p and colocalize at the NE. In yeast mutant strains with perturbed NPC assembly (*pom152Δ*) or in *snf7Δ* or *vps4Δ* strains, a fraction of NPCs clustered in a single focus at the NE, coined 'SINC' (for storage of improperly assembled NPCs). These data highlight a functional interaction between ESCRT-III and NPCs, although the nature of this intersection remains unclear. The authors propose a model where ESCRT-III clears misassembled NPCs from the NE, possibly by intraluminal vesicle budding

[76^{••}], analogous to a previous report on ESCRT-dependent nuclear egress of Epstein-Barr virus (EBV) [78]. Whereas this scenario is conceivable for early NPC intermediates, it is more difficult to envision for clearance of defective NPCs that span the NE. In the absence of mechanistic data, other functional models such as ESCRT-III dependent membrane resealing at sites of misassembled NPCs are also plausible [79]. It would be interesting to explore the involvement of p97-UFD1-NPL4 as well as CHMP7 in this ESCRT-III functionality, with CHMP7 shown to genetically interact with APQ12 [74].

Whereas this work links ESCRTs to NPC biogenesis during interphase, ESCRT-III does not colocalize with NPC markers or affect overall NPC dynamics during mitotic exit in human cells [61^{••},62^{••}]. This could be taken to indicate that such function is species-specific, is restricted to interphase or is detectable only upon severe perturbation of NPC assembly. In this light it is interesting to note that depletion of NPC subunits can result in a dramatic delay in completion of cytokinesis [80,81], with partial knockdown of NUP153 shown to induce Aurora B-dependent abscission checkpoint signaling [82]. The abscission checkpoint is thought to signal via Aurora B-dependent phosphorylation of CHMP4C to restrict VPS4 activity, and as such directly impinges on ESCRT-III function in the intercellular bridge [69,70,83,84]. Considering the mechanistic and temporal overlaps, it will be of interest to explore whether this signaling cascade affects ESCRT-III functions at the NE during mitotic exit, and as such connects ESCRT-dependent roles in NE closure with NPC integrity.

Conclusions

The reformation of the NE during mitotic exit requires interplay between a variety of proteins regulating membrane dynamics and fusion events, and is tightly coordinated with NPC assembly as well as chromosome movement and decondensation [13,18,85]. Despite impressive progress over the last years, many questions remain regarding membrane dynamics during NE reformation. The discovery of ESCRT-III proteins as regulators of post-mitotic NE sealing adds a key new membrane modulator to the playing field. Further work is needed to unravel ESCRT-III functions during mitotic exit, its regulation by the established mitotic machineries and its intersection with cytokinetic abscission. The intriguing links between ESCRT-III and NPCs during mitosis [82] and interphase [79] also warrant further mechanistic exploration. Indeed, additional interphase ESCRT-III functions at the NE should now be considered, extending to resealing of NE ruptures and budding events as well as micronuclear integrity [9,86,87^{••}]. Considering the defects observed at the NE during ageing, cancer and in laminopathies [8–11,88], dissecting ESCRT-dependent membrane

dynamics in these phenomena could prove central to understanding their etiology.

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