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 Current Opinion in
**Genetics
& Development**

Building silent compartments at the nuclear periphery: a recurrent theme

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In eukaryotes, the genetic material is stored in the nucleus, which is enclosed in a double lipid bilayer, the nuclear envelope (NE). It protects the genome from physical stress and separates it from the rest of the cell. On top of this physical function, growing evidence shows that the nuclear periphery contributes to the 3D organization of the genome. In turn, tridimensional organization of chromatin in the nuclear space influences genome expression. Here we review recent findings on the function of this physical barrier in gene repression and latest models on how silent subnuclear compartments at the NE are built in yeast as well as in the nematode *C. elegans* and mammalian cells; trying to draw parallels between the three systems.

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Current Opinion in Genetics & Development 2013, **23**:xx–yy

This review comes from a themed issue on **Genome architecture and expression**

Edited by **Genevieve Almouzni** and **Frederick Alt**

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<http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.gde.2012.12.001>

The NE is one of the most obvious locations to characterize inside the nucleus; it has therefore very often been used as a stable landmark or reference point to quantify genes and chromosomes locations inside the nuclear lumen. The NE is pierced with pores; megadalton-size multiprotein complexes that regulate exchange between the cytoplasm and the nucleoplasm [1]. A growing body of evidence strongly argues that the NE has not only a structural role, but also contributes to the 3-dimensional organization of the genome and to its transcriptional regulation.

During mitosis, metazoan cells disassemble and reform their NE as well as the meshwork of intermediate filaments forming the nuclear lamina underlying the NE [2]. Both structures are crosslinked together by a number of proteins inserted in the nuclear membranes. The lamina

provides rigidity to the NE and serves as a platform for the binding of a large number of lamin-associated proteins and specific silent epigenomic domains. Many mutations in lamins have severe consequences for the organism: they are responsible for a wide range of human diseases, most of them surprisingly tissue-specific although lamins are expressed ubiquitously. Altogether, this suggests a role of the lamina and NE in regulation of transcription [3]. Lamins and the nuclear lamina are not present in all organisms: budding yeast, like most organisms with a closed mitosis, lacks a lamina. Several proteins homologous to lamin-associated proteins in metazoan are however found inserted into the NE and contribute to chromatin anchoring [4]. Furthermore, the nuclear periphery is also associated with chromatin loci and shares similar transcriptional features from yeast to humans suggesting a functional parallel among eukaryotes.

Indeed, chromatin is non-homogeneously distributed inside the nucleus, as shown by early microscopic observations using chromatin stains or later using electron microscopy [5,6]. In particular, most of the darkly stained chromatin (heterochromatin) is found around the nucleoli or at the nuclear periphery interrupted with euchromatin at nuclear pores. As a first approximation, heterochromatin is rather compact and transcriptionally silent, whereas the more open euchromatin contains transcriptionally active genes. Although no condensed chromatin is observed in yeast using EM, perinuclear clusters of silent chromatin are present, making peripheral heterochromatin localization a conserved feature of nuclear organization across budding yeast, nematodes, flies and mammalian cells [7]. This conservation raises the question of whether NE association of heterochromatin is a cause or consequence of its silent state.

This chicken or egg question was directly addressed by artificially relocating genes toward the nuclear rim first in yeast and later in mammalian cells [8–12]. In budding yeast, it was clearly shown that perinuclear tethering favors the silencing of genes flanked by specific *cis*-acting elements [8]. In mammalian cells, the results are somehow variable because of the different experimental systems, but similar conclusions were drawn: the nuclear periphery is not refractory to gene transcription, but can modulate the activity of certain genes [13,14]. Hence, parts of the nuclear periphery constitute a specific environment, a nuclear subcompartment repressive for transcription. The repressive nature of the nuclear periphery could be either owing to repressive activities such

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as histone modifiers anchored in the NE or arise from the juxtaposition of NE-anchored heterochromatin, leading to the local concentration of silencing factors. Hereafter we explore these two models in different experimental systems and try to derive common functional principles. While yeast telomeres provide a well-characterized example of a functional compartment, more recent studies have now started to uncover the molecular machinery involved in targeting and tethering heterochromatin to the nuclear lamina in metazoans.

Lessons from budding yeast: perinuclear anchoring and heterochromatin clustering generate repressive compartments

In budding yeast, computational studies suggest that the higher-order organization of the genome is determined to a large extent by physical properties of the chromatin fiber [15–17]. In these studies, the yeast genome is modeled as 16 randomly configured flexible polymer chains confined in a sphere of two micrometers of diameter representing the nucleus. Although these models differ in many ways they all had to include the tethering of centromeres and telomeres at the nuclear periphery to account for the 3-D organization of the genome observed *in vivo* by microscopy or by chromosome conformation capture [18]. Thus, perinuclear anchoring is a key determinant of interphase chromosome architecture that requires specific interactions. In haploid cells, heterochromatin is composed of 32 telomeres and the two cryptic mating type loci (*HM* loci). Inside the nucleus, it clusters into 3 to 8 foci enriched for Silent Information Regulators (SIRs), the silent chromatin proteins of budding yeast [19]. These perinuclear telomeres generate a zone that favors SIR-mediated repression and prevents promiscuous effects on a distinct subset of promoters in the nuclear interior [8,20]. Indeed, artificial tethering of a reporter gene to the nuclear periphery favors the establishment of silent chromatin [8]. Importantly, this is strictly dependent on flanking *cis*-acting elements, capable of recruiting SIRs as well as on the presence of telomere clusters and SIR foci at the nuclear periphery [8,20,21]. Hence, transcriptional repression does not reflect position *per se*, but access to local high concentrations of SIRs. Consistent with these findings, impairing telomere anchoring releases SIRs from the NE, thereby enhancing repression at internal loci and derepressing telomere-proximal genes [20,22].

At the molecular level, silencing is nucleated at the subtelomeric TG1–3 repeats by the binding of the transcription factor Rap1 that contains binding sites for the silencing factors Sir3 and Sir4 at the C terminus end [23] (Figure 1a, Nucleation). At other sites, recruitment of the SIR complex is mediated by other DNA binding proteins, which like Rap1 have other functions in the cell such as Orc1 and Abf1, at *HM* loci [24] and Ume6 at the *PAU* subtelomeric genes [25]. Intriguingly, recent data

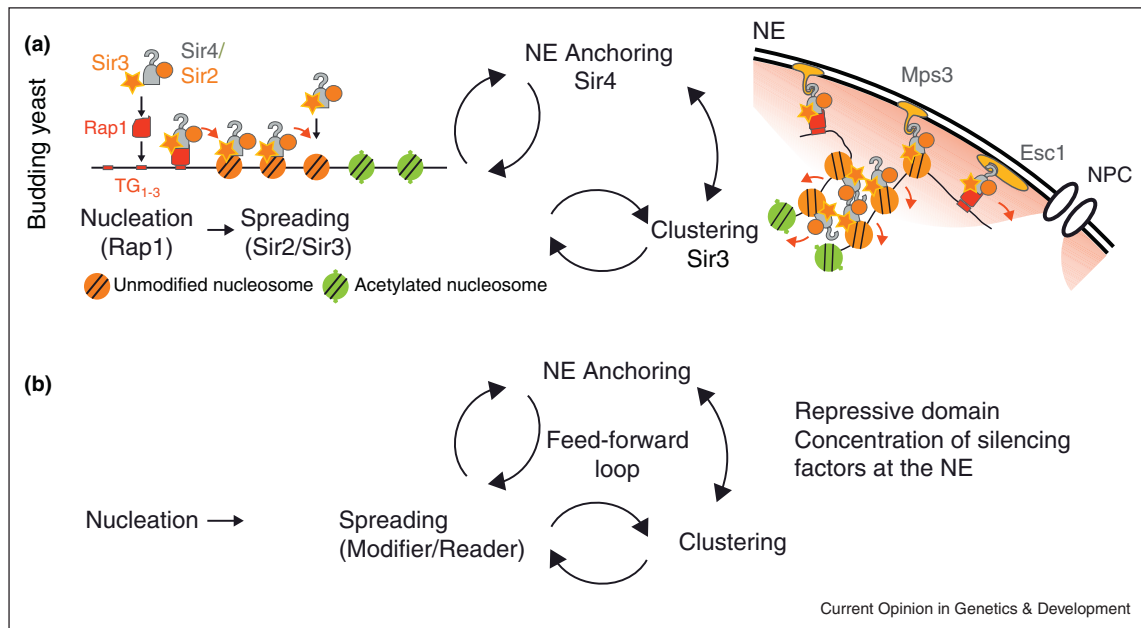
indicate that proteins tightly bound to DNA could favor the recruitment of the SIR complex apparently owing to the difficulty of the replication machinery to progress through tight DNA protein complexes [26]. Although in this case, the molecular links leading to the recruitment of the silencing complex remain to be deciphered, it raises the interesting possibility that replication ‘stress’ contribute to the establishment of transcriptional silencing.

Once nucleated, heterochromatin enters a self-reinforcing feed-forward loop that constitutes spreading of the silencing complex along the chromatin fiber, its anchoring at the nuclear envelope as well as clustering mediated by *trans*-interaction that leads to the creation of a silent subnuclear compartment at the NE (Figure 1a).

Silent chromatin spreading involves the heterodimerization of Sir4 with Sir2, a NAD-dependent histone deacetylase that catalyzes the deacetylation of histone H4 tails, generating a preferred binding site for Sir3 [27]. This leads to the spreading of the SIR complex from sites of nucleation over a 2–3-kb subtelomeric region that results in the transcriptional repression of subtelomeric genes [4] (Figure 1a, Spreading). Anchoring to the NE is achieved and maintained via interaction between Sir4 and the yeast specific NE associated protein Esc1 or the SUN domain integral membrane protein Mps3 (Figure 1a, Anchoring) [28–30]. Similarly, other telomere-associated proteins are also able to anchor at the NE independently of Sir4 [4]. Clustering requires crosslinking factors that can bridge silent telomeres together to create a subnuclear compartment. Both Sir3 and Sir4 harbor a dimerization domain that could crosslink silenced telomeres together [31–36] and Sir3 was recently shown to be limiting for telomere clustering [37**] (Figure 1a, Clustering). Importantly the Sir3 ability to promote telomere clustering can be separated from the formation of heterochromatin. This argues that the clustering of heterochromatin regions does not arise from the aggregation of this type of chromatin but from specific protein–protein interactions.

Thus, the SIR2/3/4 complex has the ability to self-propagate on chromatin, anchor it to the nuclear periphery (through Sir4 and other telomeric factors) and mediate clustering of SIR bound chromatin (through Sir3). It is important to note that both clustering and perinuclear tethering of telomere can occur independently from the spreading of the SIR complex and thus from gene silencing [30,37**,38,39]. Reciprocally, silencing can be achieved at wild type *HM* loci in the absence of both clustering and anchoring [40]. However, in subtelomeric regions, SIR concentration is limiting for spreading and silencing cannot be separated from telomere clustering in this case. The formation of subnuclear compartments with locally high concentrations of silencing factors appears thus essential for silencing at these sites. The bifunctional roles of Sir3 and Sir4 in silencing and respectively clustering and

Figure 1



Building silent compartments at the nuclear rim. **(a)** In budding yeast, the clustering of silent chromatin loci, including the 32 telomeres and silent mating type loci, generate repressive compartments mainly found close to the nuclear envelope (NE) in between the nuclear pore complexes (NPC). Repressed chromatin (in orange) is generated by the recruitment of the SIR complex comprising Sir2, Sir3, and Sir4. At telomeres, this nucleation event is achieved by the transcription factor Rap1 that binds the telomere TG repeats and interacts with Sir3 and Sir4. Sir4 heterodimerizes with the NAD⁺ dependent histone deacetylase Sir2, which deacetylates H4 histone tails from neighboring nucleosomes, thus generating binding sites for Sir3. The SIR complex thus spreads over a 2–3-kb subtelomeric region leading to the transcriptional repression of subtelomeric regions. Anchoring is achieved by Sir4 and other telomeric proteins that bind the NE associated proteins Esc1 and Mps3 (in yellow), while clustering is achieved by Sir3 that bridges telomeres probably through self-interaction in its C-terminus. **(b)** General principles leading to the formation of repressive compartments emerge from studies in yeast, nematodes and mouse. These involve the recruitment of repressive complexes combining three features: (1) the ability to anchor chromatin to the nuclear envelope through interaction with nuclear envelope associated proteins (anchoring in yellow); (2) the property to spread along the chromatin fiber through the association of a histone modifier and a histone reader (orange) specific to the same mark (spreading); (3) the capacity to bridge chromatin fibers through protein–protein interactions (clustering). The combination of these three features creates a positive reciprocal loop (feed-forward loop) that leads to the concentration of silencing factors at the nuclear periphery: both anchoring and clustering can increase the local concentration of heterochromatin factors spreading along the chromatin fiber. This in turn, increases the number of anchoring and bridging factors associated with the chromatin fibers thus reinforcing their clustering and anchoring. Entry into this feed-forward loop requires a nucleation event that is not always identified but in specific cases is achieved by specific DNA binding protein (in red).

anchoring provide a mechanism for the self-establishment and propagation of a silent compartment. Given that SIR proteins are limiting for the spread of heterochromatin, both clustering and anchoring activities allow the increase in local concentration of SIR factors, which in turn, favors SIR complex spread into flanking chromatin, extending repression, and reinforcing clustering and anchoring. Such a mechanism (Figure 1b, feed-forward loop) may apply to other chromatin-based compartments with other functions and in other organisms. Indeed, some of these principles have been recently proposed to be at play in metazoans (see below).

Dynamics of chromatin association at the nuclear periphery and differentiation in metazoans

The use of genome-wide molecular techniques like chromatin immunoprecipitation or damID facilitated characterization of DNA sequences associated with the

nuclear lamina (LADs = lamin associated domains), in various species [41–43,44^{**}]. Lamina-proximal chromatin is indeed, on an average, transcriptionally less active and accordingly harbors somewhat more of the classical H3K9 and H3K27 silent histone methylation marks [41–43,44^{**}]. During development, peripheral as well as centromeric heterochromatin significantly increases, as defined by EM; EM is not able to capture heterochromatin in Embryonic Stem Cells (ESCs), although pericentric regions show dense DAPI staining and Heterochromatin Protein 1 accumulation (HP1), suggesting a different heterochromatic state in ESCs [45–48]. Heterochromatin also progressively appears *in vitro* during differentiation of ESCs into neural progenitors and neuroblasts. Surprisingly, LADs quantified by damID appear remarkably stable upon *in vitro* differentiation of mouse ESCs or in fibroblasts with different heterochromatin distributions [49^{**}]. Microscopy experiments suggested earlier that chromatin is globally in a

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more plastic state in ESCs than in differentiated cells [48,50]. The differential mobility of lamin-associated chromatin might thus explain the observed difference between EM and damID studies [49]. LADs conservation also suggests the existence of a backbone chromosome architecture, either sequence or activity dependent. This backbone structure is present in all cell types studied by damID, nevertheless, it can be modulated, as alternative organizations have been observed; for example in rod cells (cells channeling light in the eye to the photoreceptors) of nocturnal mammals, where heterochromatin accumulates toward the nuclear center as cells differentiate [51].

In nematodes, step-wise methylation of histone H3K9 targets repetitive heterochromatin at the nuclear envelope

To uncover factors involved in heterochromatin perinuclear anchoring, a genetic approach was used in *C. elegans* using a model of peripheral repetitive heterochromatin. In nematodes, which lack centromeres, all autosomes show enrichment for silent chromatin marks (H3K9 and H3K27 methylations) on the outer thirds of chromosomes (arms) relative to the inner third (center) [42,52]. These outer thirds are also located closer to the NE, thus are similar to mammalian LADs [44,53]. Addressing to the NE seems to be sequence-dependent since chromosome arm translocation to a chromosome center retained its association with the nuclear lamina [53]. However, many repetitive transgene arrays are packaged into heterochromatin that recapitulates perinuclear anchoring of endogenous heterochromatin arguing that high repeat density is the determinant of heterochromatin formation in nematodes [54,55]. It is noteworthy that this perinuclear heterochromatin is not completely refractory to transcription as a number of transgene arrays containing housekeeping promoters are expressed at the NE, although they are repressed to a certain point, especially in the germline [54,56].

A genetic screen revealed that histone H3 lysine 9 methylation marks target repetitive heterochromatin to the NE [44^{••}]. Two enzymes are involved in H3K9 methylation in worms: MET-2, a mammalian SETDB1 homolog, is a cytoplasmic enzyme which monomethylates and dimethylates non-nucleosomal histones and SET-25, that contains a SET domain which is homologous to mammalian G9a, is a nuclear enzyme and primarily trimethylates nucleosomes formed with histones monomethylated and dimethylated by MET-2 (Figure 2a, Nucleation). This system is reminiscent of pericentric heterochromatin in mammalian cells, where non-nucleosomal histones are monomethylated by SETDB1 and Prdm3/16 [57–59], loaded through an unknown mechanism onto satellite repeats of the genome before additional methylation by SUV39H. Propagation of the methylation state of mammalian pericentric heterochromatin during replication was proposed to depend on SETDB1, the mammalian MET-2 homolog. SETDB1, in complex with monomethylated H3K9, HP1 α and the

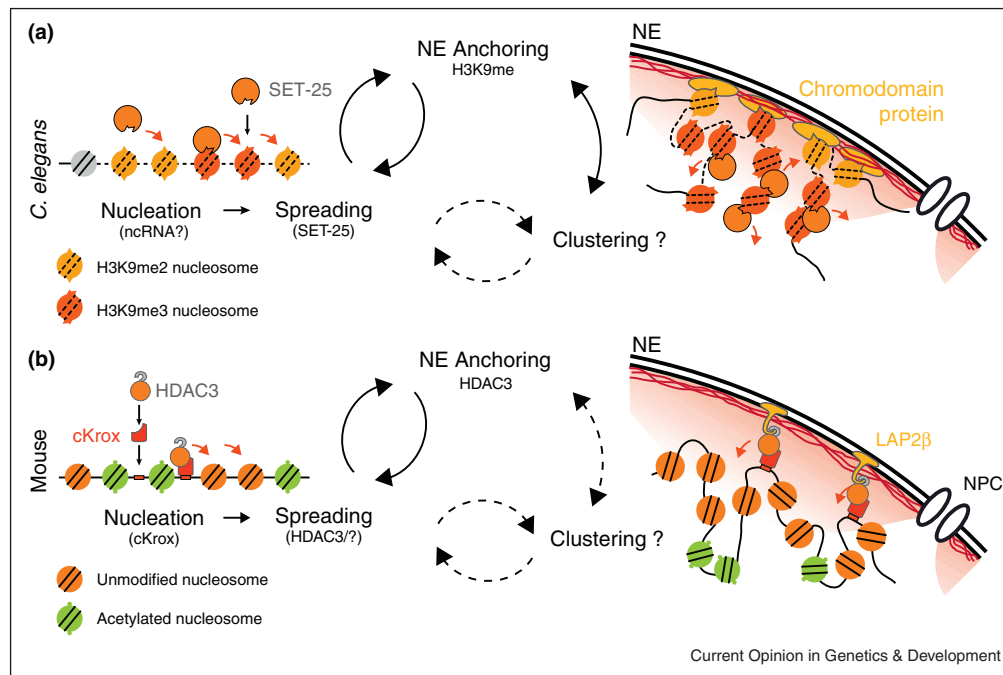
histone chaperone CAF1, is found at pericentric heterochromatin during its replication. There, it could direct packaging of newly replicated pericentric repeats into monomethylated H3K9 nucleosomes before further methylation by the H3K9 methyltransferases SUV39H [58].

The nucleation event for heterochromatin formation in both worms and mammals is not clear, as methylated and non methylated histones are present in the non nucleosomal form: the methylated forms are either targeted to package repetitive DNA or loaded and demethylated/replaced in non-repetitive regions. In a similar fashion to *S. pombe* centromeres, a line of clues point toward the role of non-coding RNA in initiating heterochromatinization in *C. elegans*: genomic regions targeted by siRNA acquire H3K9 trimethylation [60^{••},61^{••}]; *set-25* (the H3K9 trimethylase) and *hpl-2* (one of *C. elegans* HP1 homolog) have been implicated in heritable gene silencing [62[•]]. H3K9 methylation could be attracted by repetitions of transposons and retroelements that may produce ncRNA [53], which, in turn could be recognized by HP1, as in fission yeast and mammals [63–66].

Once primed for silencing, the feed-forward loop for heterochromatin silencing/anchoring has many similarities to the yeast SIR system. First, spreading of methylation is achieved by SET-25 which trimethylates H3K9me2 and localizes through its non-catalytic domain to H3K9me3, locally enriching for H3K9 trimethylation activity (Figure 2a, Spreading). Anchoring is mediated by H3K9 methylated chromatin which binds a peripherally located chromodomain protein (Figure 2a, Anchoring; A. Gonzalez-Sandoval, B.D. Towbin, S.M. Gasser, personal communication). The crosslinking factors involved in clustering heterochromatin are not known, although HPL-1, one of the two homologs of HP1 in worms, colocalizes with SET-25, but is not essential for SET-25 compartment formation [44^{••}]. Notably in mammalian cells, absence of H3K9 monomethylation by Prdm3/16 also has profound effects on heterochromatin integrity, centromeric major satellite silencing as well as nuclear shape, suggesting that similar pathways are at play for perinuclear heterochromatin targeting [59[•]].

However, there exists a functional redundancy since other pathways seem to be involved in H3K9 methylation for perinuclear targeting. In double *set-25/met-2* mutant worms in which H3K9 methylation is below detection level, telomeres remain anchored at the nuclear rim [44^{••}]. Moreover, repetitive chromatin, randomly located in these mutant embryos relocates to the NE once cells have differentiated [44^{••}]. This suggests that redundant systems lead to peripheral relocation of heterochromatin. On the opposite, in wild-type worms, activation of developmentally regulated promoters leads to the relocation of repetitive arrays from the nuclear rim to the nuclear center [54]. Hence, for some promoters, transcriptional status can

Figure 2



In metazoans, heterochromatin is usually found plastered against the inner face of the nuclear envelope (NE), which is cross-linked to a network of intermediate filaments, the nuclear lamina (in red) interrupted by nuclear pore complexes (NPCs). **(a)** In *C. elegans*, repetitive heterochromatin is enriched in the repressive histone mark H3K9me2 (orange nucleosomes) and H3K9me3 (red nucleosomes) through a yet unknown nucleation event. The spreading of H3K9me3 is achieved by SET-25 which trimethylates H3K9me2 and localizes to H3K9me3 through its non-catalytic domain, locally enriching for H3K9 trimethylation activity (Figure 2a, Spreading). Anchoring is mediated by H3K9 methylated chromatin [43], which binds a peripherally located chromodomain protein (in yellow). The crosslinking factors involved in clustering heterochromatin are not known. **(b)** In mouse, LADs, spanning the developmentally regulated *IgH* and *Cyp3a* loci contain multiple LAS (LAD associated sequences in red) enriched for a GAGA motif recognized by cKrox, which interacts with HDAC3 and the INM protein Lap2 β (in yellow). HDAC3 is proposed to function both as an adaptor for lamina association as well as a transcriptional corepressor via its histone deacetylase activity [67**].

overcome 'default' targeting of repetitive sequence to the nuclear rim.

Lamina associated sequences mediate attachment to the nuclear envelope and transcriptional silencing in mouse cells

In mouse cells, an alternative approach to characterize factors involved in perinuclear heterochromatin formation was to dissect LAD sequences spanning the developmentally regulated *IgH* and *Cyp3a* loci. When ectopically inserted, these LADs are able to autonomously direct a nucleoplasmic locus to the periphery, as well as repress transcription of a reporter gene [67**]. Serial deletions of these sequences identified binding sites for the cKrox transcription factor as essential for the relocation activity, proposing it as nucleation sequence for heterochromatin silencing (Figure 2b, Nucleation by cKrox). Thus, as in budding yeast, a DNA binding protein with other transcriptional regulation activities in the cell can also nucleate heterochromatin. cKrox interacts with a protein complex composed of LAP2 β (a lamin interacting protein) and HDAC3, a histone deacetylase, parts of a feed-forward loop similar to the ones observed in yeast and *C. elegans* [67**,68]

(Figure 2b). Other redundant pathways are also likely at play given that not all LADs contain cKrox binding sites, and since even for this specific LAD, knock-down of HDAC3 or cKrox detached the LAD in at most 40% of the cells from the nuclear periphery [67**]. This suggests however a general mechanism of chromatin re-location to the NE and de-acetylation (Figure 2b). The mechanism of heterochromatin spreading beyond the immediate vicinity of the cKrox binding sites remains unknown. A prime candidate with spreading/anchoring features is here again heterochromatin protein 1: HP1 is able to spread via its interaction with SUV39H which trimethylates H3K9 and bind the product of the reaction, that is, trimethylated H3K9. Moreover, HP1 interacts with the Lamin B Receptor (LBR) located at the NE [69] and HP1 has a dimerization domain, which could be used for crosslinking and clustering heterochromatin [70]. Interestingly, a similar transcription factor dependent model of heterochromatin formation has been proposed for major satellite repeats in mouse cells [71].

Conclusions and perspectives

Building silent compartments at the nuclear rim seems to obey a similar logic in all experimental systems studied,

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although fine details vary. Heterochromatin formation starts with a nucleation event from which a spreading mechanism allows linear progression of heterochromatin along the chromatin fiber, thanks to the association of a histone modifier and a histone reader. Anchoring at the NE of silenced chromatin locally increases the concentration of silencing factors and maximizes probability of encounter with other silent genomic regions. Finally *trans* interactions created by bridging factors further strengthen silencing power by compaction and crosslinking. This will lead to the local concentration of silencing factors at the nuclear periphery making this area of the nucleus favorable for gene repression through a local *trans*-effect. Indeed, histone-modifiers attached to chromatin or to the NE can modify chromatin located nearby, ‘spraying’ in *trans* in addition to ‘spreading’ in *cis*. Although the general principles seem to emerge, the molecular details remain to be clarified in each specific system.

Interestingly, perinuclear silent compartments favor silencing within at the nuclear periphery and segregate silencing factors away from the rest of the (active) genome avoiding promiscuous silencing. Other compartments not associated with the NE could mechanistically behave similarly: genomic nucleolus-associated domains (NADs) [72,73], polycomb bodies grouping several Pc-regulated genes [74], centromeres [47]... However, among the nuclear landmarks, NE has the specificity to be at the interface with the cytoplasm. Understanding whether and how NE proteins bridging chromatin to cytoskeletal components convey mechanical force from the cytoplasm to perinuclear chromatin is an exciting challenge for the future.

Combining measurements of protein affinities and activities *in vivo* along with simulations of chromatin behavior based on polymer dynamics will allow further understanding of the biochemical and biophysical principles and prerequisites for the assembly of subnuclear compartments. This should allow designing gain of function experiments to test these models. Future challenges will be to decipher the regulation of the formation and dynamics of these compartments during cell cycle, upon differentiation or in response to environmental stimuli. Entry points into the feed-forward loops leading to the formation of these compartments also remain to be identified in many instances. Finally, the contribution of these compartments toward normal function and pathogenic states needs further investigation.

Acknowledgements

We thank Stephanie Kueng and Rahul Sharma for critical comments on the manuscript and Susan Gasser for communication of results before publication. The Meister laboratory is funded by the Swiss National Foundation (SNF assistant professor grant PP00P3_133744) and the University of Bern; the Taddei laboratory by CNRS, Institut Curie, ANR and an ERC starting grant [210508].

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