Identification of SUMO targets required to maintain human stem cells in the pluripotent

state.

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Running title: SUMO targets in human induced pluripotent stem cells

Abbreviations

bFGF - basic fibroblast growth factor

ESCs - embryonic stem cells

FACS - fluorescence activated cell sorting

GGK – GlyGly-Lys branched peptide

hESCs – human embryonic stem cells

hiPSCs – human induced pluripotent stem cells

LIF - leukemia inhibitory factor

mESCs – mouse embryonic stem cells

Abstract

To determine the role of SUMO modification in the maintenance of pluripotent stem cells

we used ML792, a potent and selective inhibitor of SUMO Activating Enzyme. Treatment of

human induced pluripotent stem cells with ML792 initiated changes associated with loss of

pluripotency such as reduced expression of key pluripotency markers. To identify putative

effector proteins and establish sites of SUMO modification, cells were engineered to stably

express either SUMO1 or SUMO2 with TGG to KGG mutations that facilitate GlyGly-K

peptide immunoprecipitation and identification. A total of 976 SUMO sites were identified

in 427 proteins. STRING enrichment created 3 networks of proteins with functions in

regulation of gene expression, ribosome biogenesis and RNA splicing, although the latter

two categories represented only 5% of the total GGK peptide intensity. The remainder have

roles in transcription and chromatin structure regulation. Many of the most heavily

SUMOylated proteins form a network of zinc-finger transcription factors centred on TRIM28

and associated with silencing of retroviral elements. At the level of whole proteins there

was only limited evidence for SUMO paralogue-specific modification, although at the site

level there appears to be a preference for SUMO2 modification over SUMO1 in acidic

domains. We show that SUMO is involved in the maintenance of the pluripotent state in

hiPSCs and identify many chromatin-associated proteins as bona fide SUMO substrates in

human induced pluripotent stem cells.

Introduction

Pluripotent cells display the property of self-renewal and have the capacity to

generate all of the different cells required for the development of the adult organism. The

pluripotent state is defined by a specific gene expression programme driven by expression

of the core transcription factors OCT4, SOX2 and NANOG that sustain their own expression

by virtue of a positive, linked autoregulatory loop, while activating genes required to

maintain the pluripotent state and repressing expression of the transcription factors for

lineage specific differentiation (1). Once terminally differentiated, somatic cell states are

remarkably stable, however, forced expression of key pluripotency transcription factors that

are highly expressed in embryonic stem cells (ESCs), including OCT4, SOX2 and NANOG,

leads to reprogramming back to the pluripotent state (2-4). Under normal circumstances

the efficiency of reprogramming is very low and it is clear that there are roadblocks to

reprogramming designed to safeguard cell fates (5,6). The Small Ubiquitin like Modifier

(SUMO) has emerged as one such roadblock and reduced SUMO expression decreases the

time taken and increases the efficiency of reprogramming in mouse cells (7-9). Three SUMO

paralogues, known as SUMO1, SUMO2 and SUMO3 are expressed in vertebrates. Based on

almost indistinguishable functional and structural features SUMO2 and SUMO3 are

collectively termed SUMO2/3 and share about 50% amino acid sequence identity with

SUMO1. SUMO proteomics studies have revealed very high numbers of cellular SUMO

substrates (see (10) for a review) and as a consequence SUMO can influence a wide range of

biological processes. However, the proportion of the total the cellular pool of a protein that

is SUMOylated varies greatly. There are rare examples of almost constitutively SUMOylated

proteins such as the Ran GTPase RanGAP1 (11), although the majority of substrates have

such low modification stoichiometry that identification from purified SUMO conjugates

using Immuno-Blotting is close to the detection limit (for review see (12)). Conjugation of

SUMO to protein substrates is mechanistically similar to that of ubiquitin conjugation but is

carried out by a completely separate enzymatic pathway. SUMOs are initially translated as

inactive precursors that require a precise proteolytic cleavage, carried out by a set of SUMO

specific proteases (SENPs), to expose the terminal carboxyl group of a Gly-Gly sequence that

ultimately forms an isopeptide bond with the ε–amino group of a lysine residue in the

modified protein. The hetrodimeric E1 SUMO Activating Enzyme (SAE1/SAE2) uses ATP to

adenylate the C-terminus of SUMO, before forming a thioester with a cysteine residue in a

second active site of the enzyme and releasing AMP. SUMO then undergoes a transthioation

reaction on to a cysteine residue in the only E2 SUMO conjugating enzyme Ubc9. Assisted by

a small group of E3 SUMO ligases, including the PIAS proteins, RanBP2 and ZNF451 the

SUMO is transferred directly from Ubc9 onto target proteins (13). Modification of target

proteins may be short-lived, with SUMO being removed by a group of SENPs. Together this

creates a highly dynamic SUMO cycle where the net SUMO modification status of proteins is

determined by the rates of SUMO conjugation and deconjugation (12). Preferred sites of

SUMO modification conform to the consensus ψKxE, where ψ represents a large

hydrophobic residue (14,15). A conjugation consensus is present in the N-terminal sequence

of SUMO2 and SUMO3 and thus permits self-modification and the formation of SUMO2/3

chains (16). As a strict consensus is absent from SUMO1, it does not form chains as readily

as SUMO2/3 (12). Once linked to target proteins SUMO allows the formation of new

protein-protein interactions as the modification can be recognised by proteins containing a

short stretch of hydrophobic amino acids termed a SUMO interaction motif (17).

Stem cell lines are an excellent model to study the mechanisms that control self-

renewal and pluripotency. Mouse ESCs have been widely used for these studies as the cells

can also be used in mice for *in vivo* studies. However, they display different characteristics

from human ESCs. Mouse ESCs require leukemia inhibitory factor (LIF) and bone

morphogenetic protein (BMP) signalling to maintain their self-renewal and pluripotency

(18,19). In contrast LIF does not support self-renewal and BMPs induce differentiation in

human ESCs (20-22). The maintenance of the pluripotent state of hESCs requires basic

fibroblast growth factor (bFGF, FGF2) and activin/nodal/TGF-b signalling along with

inhibition of BMP signalling (23,24). These differences may reflect the particular

developmental stages at which ESC lines are established *in vitro* from mouse and human

blastocysts, or may be due to differences in early embryonic development (25). As hESCs are

derived from embryos their use is limited, but human Induced Pluripotent Stem Cells (hiPSC)

can be derived by reprogramming normal somatic cells and display most of the

characteristics of hESCs (2) and are now widely used to study self-renewal and pluripotency

in humans.

To determine the role of SUMO modification in hiPSCs we made use of ML792, a

highly potent and selective inhibitor of the SUMO Activating Enzyme (26). Treatment of

hiPSCs with this inhibitor rapidly blocks SUMO modification allowing endogenous SUMO

proteases to strip SUMO from targets. When used over the course of 48 hours hiPSCs

treated with ML792 lose the majority of SUMO conjugation but show no large-scale changes

to the cellular proteome nor loss of viability, although markers of pluripotency are reduced.

Decreased expression of selected pluripotency markers seems to be a consequence of

SUMO removal from key targets rather than large scale changes to the proteome. SUMO

site proteomic analysis of hiPSCs reveals extensive SUMO modification of proteins involved

in transcriptional repression, RNA splicing and ribosome biogenesis. At the protein level

most proteins do not appear to display SUMO paralogue-specific modification, while at the

site level there is clear evidence of SUMO paralogue specificity. This site-specific selectivity

appears, at least in part, to be influenced by proximal amino acids, with generally acidic

domains being preferentially modified by SUMO2.

Experimental procedures

Antibodies and inhibitors. Rabbit antibodies TRIM28 (4124S, 4123S), CTCF (3418S), OCT4A

(2890S), SOX2 (23064S), NANOG (3580S), KLF4 (12173S) and mouse antibodies against TRA-

1-60 (4746T), TRA-1-81(4745T), SSEA-4 (4755T) and SMA (D4K9N) were from Cell Signalling

Technology. The anti-SALL4 (ab29112), anti-TRIM24 (ab70560), anti-NOP58 (ab155556),

anti-TRIM24 (ab70560), anti-NESTIN (ab196908) were from Abcam. Mouse antibody against

α-Tubulin was from Bethyl Laboratories, mouse anti-LaminA/C antibody was from Sigma

(SAB4200236), rabbit anti-mCherry (PA5-34974), rabbit anti-TRIM33 (PA5-82152) and

mouse anti-HIS (34650) were from Invitrogen and Qiagen respectively. Anti-CYTOKERATIN17

was a gift from R. Hickerson (University of Dundee). Sheep antibodies against SUMO1,

SUMO2 (27) and chicken antibodies against PML (28) were generated in-house. Secondary

antibodies conjugated with HRP and Alexa fluorophores were from Sigma and Invitrogen,

respectively. ML792 (1644342-14-2), MG132 (474787) and N-ethylmaleimide (E3876) were

from Sigma Aldrich. Protease Inhibitor cocktail (11836170001) was from Roche. Propidium

iodide and DAPI were from Life Technologies.

Cloning. SUMO1-KGG-mCherry and SUMO2-KGG-mCherry PiggyBac expression vectors were

generated by GATEWAY cloning. Briefly, SUMO1, SUMO2 and mCherry fragments were PCR

amplified using the following resources: 6His SUMO1 T95K (300nt) from pSCAI88 and 6His

SUMO2 T90K (300nt) from pSCAI89 with a common forwards primer (5'-

CACCatgcatcatcatcatcatcatgct-3') and set of specific mCherry fusing primers (5'-

TCACCATACCCCCCTTTTGTTCCTG-3' and 5'-TCACCATACCTCCCTTCTGCTGCT-3'); mCherry

from pRHAI4 CMV-OsTIR1-mCherry2-PURO (700 nt) with a set of common overlapping

oligos (5'-GGTATGGTGAGCAAGGGCG-3' and 5'-TTATTACTTGTACAGCTCGTCCATG-3').

Subsequently, PCR fragments were fused together using overlap extension PCR and TOPO

cloned into pENTR™/D-TOPO™ (Invitrogen) and verified by DNA sequencing. The assembled

SUMO1-KGG-mCherry and SUMO2-KGG-mCherry sequences were then sub-cloned from the

pENTR vector into the destination PiggyBac GATEWAY expression vector paPX1 (gift from A.

Dady UUniversity of Dundee)) using LR clonase (ThermoFisher Scientific).

Human Induced pluripotent stem cells (hiPSCs) culture and transfection protocols. Human

ESC lines (SA121 and SA181) were obtained from Cellartis / Takara Bio Europe. All work with

hESCs was approved by the UK Stem cell bank steering committee (Approval reference:

SCSC17-14). Human iPSC lines were obtained from Cellartis / Takara Bio Europe (ChiPS4) or

the HipSci consortium (bubh3, oaqd3, ueah1 and wibj2). Cell lines were maintained in TESR

medium (29) containing FGF2 (Peprotech, 30 ng/ml) and noggin (Peprotech, 10 ng/ml) on

growth factor reduced geltrex basement membrane extract (Life Technologies, 10 µg/cm^2)

coated dishes at 37°C in a humidified atmosphere of 5% CO_2 in air. Cells were routinely

passaged twice a week as single cells using TrypLE select (Life Technologies) and replated in

TESR medium that was further supplemented with the Rho kinase inhibitor Y27632 (Tocris,

10 µM). Twenty four hours after replating Y27632 was removed from the culture medium.

To make SUMO1-KGG-mCherry and SUMO2-KGG-mCherry expressing stable cell lines,

ChiPS4 cells were transfected using a Neon electroporation system (Thermo Fisher

Scientific) with 10 µl tips. Briefly, ChiPS4 cells were dispersed to single cells as described

above then 1x10^6 cells were collected by centrifugation at 300xg for 2 minutes and

resuspended in 11 µl of electroporation buffer R containing 1 µg of either paPX1-SUMO1-

KGG-mCherry or paPX1-SUMO2-KGG-mCherry PiggyBac expression vectors along with 0.2

µg of Super PiggyBac transposase (System Biosciences). Electroporation was performed at

1150 V, 1 pulse, 30 mSec and cells plated in mTESR containing Y27632. 5 days after

electroporation, mCherry positive cells were positively selected by fluorescence activated

cell sorting (FACS) using an SH800 cell sorter (Sony). Monoclonal cell lines were prepared

from the bulk sorted population by plating at low density on geltrex coated dishes and

individual clones picked using 3.2 mm cloning discs (Sigma Aldrich) soaked in TrypLE select.

Cell lines were then expanded and analysed to check for expression of mCherry and His-

SUMO1/2.

Flow cytometry for cell cycle assessment and pluripotency markers. For cell cycle analysis

and staining for pluripotency markers ChiPS4 cells were harvested using standard

procedures, washed and fixed with ice cold 70% ethanol or 4% PFA for the analysis of cell

cycle or NANOG staining respectively. Next cells were stained with propidium iodide or anti-

NANOG primary antibody, followed by Alexa 488 conjugated secondary antibody and

analysed by flow cytometry using Canto analyser (Becton Dickson). Data was then analysed

using FlowJo 10.

Immunofluorescence, Cell Painting assay and high content microscopy. For IF assays

ChiPS4 cells were seeded on μ-Slide 8 Well (Ibidi) or 96 well plates suitable for High Content

Microscopy (Nunc). Standard IF procedure was used where appropriate. Briefly, following

treatments cells were washed with PBS, fixed with 4% formaldehyde, blocked in 5% BSA in

PBS-T and incubated with primary and Alexa conjugated secondary antibodies. Cell Painting

was performed as descibed by Bray et al. (30). Imaging and subsequent analysis was

performed using IN Cell Analyzer systems (GE Healthcare) and Spotfire (Tibco).

Protein sample preparation and Western blotting (WB). ChiPS4 were maintained in a

stable culture as described before and treated with inhibitors for a stated time and dose,

usually 400nM ML792 was used for 24h or 48h. For WB cells were washed with PBS +/+ and

directly lysed in an appropriate volume of 2x Laemmli buffer (approximately 200 μl of buffer

was used per 0.5x10^6 cells) (LD; [4% SDS; 20% Glycerol; 120mM 1 M Tris-Cl (pH 6.8); 0.02%

w/v bromophenol blue]) and subsequently sonicated using Bioruptor Twin (Diagenode).

Protein content was assessed using BCA Protein Assay (ThermoFisher Scientific) and for

most purposes 15 μg of total protein was loaded per lane on SDS-Page gel (NuPage 4-12%

polyacrylamide, Bis-Tris with MOPS buffer). Proteins were transferred to PVDF membrane

using iBlot™ 2 Gel Transfer Device (Invitrogen). Membranes were blocked for 1h in 5% milk

in TBS-T and incubated overnight with primary antibodies and 1h with secondary HRP

conjugated antibodies before being developed using enhanced chemiluminescence

(ThermoFisher Scientific) and exposed to film.

NiNTA purification. Cells were washed with PBS and scraped in PBS containing 1mM N-

ethylmaleimide. The cells were then collected by centrifugation at 300 xg for 5 minutes and

the pellets weighed. An aliquot of the cells was lysed in 1.2x NuPage sample buffer

(ThermoFisher Scientific) for analysis by Western blotting. The remaining cell pellets

(approximately 2 g) were lysed with 5x the pellet weight of lysis buffer (6 M guanidine-HCl,

100 mM sodium phosphate buffer (pH 8.0), 10 mM Tris-HCl (pH 8.0), 10 mM imidazole and

5 mM 2-mercaptoethanol). DNA was sheared by sonication using a probe sonicator (3min,

35% amplitude, 20sec pulses, 20sec intervals on ice and the samples centrifuged at 4000

rpm for 15min at 4°C to remove insoluble material). The protein concentration of the lysate

was determined using BCA assay and 6.5mg of total protein from each sample was then

incubated overnight at 4˚C with 50 µl of packed pre-equlibrated Ni-NTA agarose beads.

After the overnight incubation the supernatant was removed and the beads were washed

once with 10 resin volumes of lysis buffer, followed by 1 wash with 10 resin volumes of 8 M

urea, 100 mM sodium phosphate buffer (pH 8.0), 10 mM Tris-HCl (pH 8.0), 10 mM imidazole

and 5 mM 2-mercaptoethanol, and then 6 washes with 10 resin volumes of 8 M urea, 100

mM sodium phosphate buffer (pH 6.3), 10 mM Tris-HCl (pH 8.0), 10 mM imidazole and 5

mM 2-mercaptoethanol. Proteins were eluted from Ni-NTA agarose beads with 125 µl 1.2x

NuPAGE sample buffer for SDS-PAGE.

Mass Spectrometry based proteomics and quantitative data analysis

Three proteomic experiments are described in this study;

(1)   Changes in total proteome of ChiPS4 cells during ML792 treatment

ChiPS4 cells were either DMSO treated (0 hours condition), or treated with 400nM ML792

for 24 hours or 48 hours. Four replicates of each condition were prepared. Crude cell

extracts were made to a protein concentration of between 1 and 2 mg/ml by addition of

1.2x NuPAGE sample buffer to PBS washed cells followed by sonication. For each replicate

25⬚g protein was fractionated by SDS-PAGE (NuPage 10% polyacrylamide, Bis-Tris with

MOPS buffer— Invitrogen) and stained with Coomassie blue. Each lane was excised into

four roughly equally sized slices and peptides were extracted by tryptic digestion (31)

including alkylation with chloroacetamide. Peptides were resuspended in 35 µL 0.1% TFA

0.5% acetic acid and 10uL of each analysed by LC-MS/MS. This was performed using a Q

Exactive mass spectrometer (Thermo Scientific) coupled to an EASY-nLC 1000 liquid

chromatography system (Thermo Scientific), using an EASY-Spray ion source (Thermo

Scientific) running a 75 µm x 500 mm EASY-Spray column at 45ºC. A 240 minute elution

gradient with a top 10 data-dependent method was applied. Full scan spectra (m/z 300–

1800) were acquired with resolution R = 70,000 at m/z 200 (after accumulation to a target

value of 1,000,000 ions with maximum injection time of 20 ms). The 10 most intense ions

were fragmented by HCD and measured with a resolution of R = 17,500 at m/z 200 (target

value of 500,000 ions and maximum injection time of 60 ms) and intensity threshold of

$2.1x10^4$. Peptide match was set to 'preferred', a 40 second dynamic exclusion list was

applied and ions were ignored if they had unassigned charge state 1, 8 or >8. Data analysis

used MaxQuant version 1.6.1.0 (32). Default setting were used except the match between

runs option was enabled, which matched identified peaks among slices from the same

position in the gel as well as one slice higher or lower. The uniport human proteome

database (downloaded 24/02/2015 - 73920 entries) digested with Trypsin/P was used as

search space. LFQ intensities were required for each slice but LFQ normalization was

switched off. Manual LFQ normalization was done by calculating the relative LFQ intensity

compared to average LFQ intensity for each protein found in the same slice across all 12

samples. For each peptide sample this gave a list of sample LFQ/average LFQ values from

which the median was used to normalize all protein LFQ intensities in that sample. The final

protein LFQ intensity per lane (and therefore protein sample) was calculated by the sum of

normalized LFQ values for that protein intensity in all four slices. Downstream data

processing used Perseus v1.6.1.1 (33). Proteins were only carried forward if an LFQ intensity

was reported in all four replicates of at least one condition. Zero intensity values were

replaced from log2 transformed data (default settings) and outliers were defined by 5% FDR

from Student's t-test using an S0 value of 0.1. A summary of these data can be found in

Supp. Data. 1. The mass spectrometry proteomics data have been deposited to the

ProteomeXchange Consortium via the PRIDE (34) partner repository with the dataset

identifier PXD025867.

(2)   Characterisation of ChiPS4 cells stably expressing 6His-SUMO1-KGG-mCherry and

6His-SUMO2-KGG-mCherry.

Crude cell extracts were prepared in triplicate from parental ChiPS4 cells, ChiPS4-6His-

SUMO1-KGG-mCherry and ChiPS4-SUMO2-KGG-mCherry types and fractionated by SDS-

PAGE as described above. Samples were prepared and analysed almost identically to

experiment 1; gels were sectioned into four slices per lane, tryptic peptides prepared,

peptides analysed by LC-MS/MS, and the resultant raw data processed by MaxQuant. The

only exceptions were the inclusion of a second sequence database containing the two 6His-

SUMO-KGG-mCherry constructs, and the use of MaxQuant LFQ normalization. Two

MaxQuant runs were performed; the first aggregating all slices per lane into a single output

("by lane"), and the second considering each slice separately ("by slice"). The former was

used to determine cell-specific changes in protein abundance from the proteinGroups.txt

file, and the latter used the peptides.txt file to monitor differences in abundance of SUMO-

specific peptides between samples, to infer overexpression levels. For the whole cell protein

abundance analysis only proteins with data in all three replicates of at least one condition

were carried forward. In Perseus zero intensity values were replaced from log2 transformed

data (default settings) and outliers were defined by 5% FDR from Student's t-test using an

S0 value of 0.1. A summary of these data can be found in Supp. Data. 2.

The mass spectrometry proteomics data have been deposited to the ProteomeXchange

Consortium via the PRIDE (34) partner repository with the dataset identifier PXD023241.

(3)   Identification of SUMO1 and SUMO2 modified proteins from ChiPS4 cells.

Two repeats of this experiment were performed using approximately $0.5x10^8$ cells of

ChiPS4-6HisSUMO1-KGG-mCherry and ChiPS4-6HisSUMO2-KGG-mCherry per replicate.

Samples were taken at different steps of the protocol to assess different fractions. These

were; crude cell extracts, NiNTA column elutions and GlyGly-K immunoprecipitations. The

last being the source of SUMO-substrate branched peptides. The whole procedure was

carried out as described previously (35). In brief, crude cell lysates were prepared of which

approximately 100ug was retained for whole proteome analysis as described for

experiments 1 and 2 above. The remaining lysate (~20 mg protein) was used for NiNTA

chromatographic enrichment of 6His-SUMO conjugates. Elutions from the NiNTA columns

were digested consecutively with LysC then GluC, of which 7% of each was retained for

proteomic analysis and the remainder for GlyGly-K immunoprecipitation. The final enriched

fractions of LysC and LysC/GluC GG-K peptides were resuspended in a volume of 20L for

proteomic analysis. Peptides from whole cell extracts were analysed once by LC-MS/MS

using the same system and settings as described for experiments 1 and 2 above except a

180 minute gradient was used with a top 12 data dependent method. NiNTA elution

peptides were analysed identically except a top 10 data dependent method was employed

and maximum MS/MS fill time was increased to 120ms. GG-K immunoprecipitated peptides

were analysed twice. Firstly, 4uL was fractionated over a 90 minute gradient and analysed

using a top 5 data dependent method with a maximum MS/MS fill time of 200ms. Secondly,

11L of sample was fractionated over a 150 minute gradient and analysed using a top 3

method with a maximum MS/MS injection time of 500ms. Data from WCE and NiNTA

elutions were processed together in MaxQuant using Trypsin/P enzyme specificity (2 missed

cleavages) for WCE samples and LysC (3 missed cleavages), or LysC+GluC_D/E (considering

cleavage after D or E and 8 missed cleavages) for NiNTA elutions. GlyGly (K) and phospho

(STY) modifications were selected. The human database and sequences of the two

exogenous 6His-SUMO-KGG-mCherry constructs described above were used as search

space. In all cases every raw file was treated as a separate 'experiment' in the design

template such that protein or peptide intensities in each peptide sample were reported,

allowing for manual normalization. Matching between runs was allowed but only for

peptide samples from the same cellular fraction (WCE, NiNTA elution or GG-K IP), the same

or adjacent gel slice, the same protease and the same LC elution gradient. For example,

spectra from adjacent gel slices in the WCE fraction across all lanes were matched, and

spectra from all GG-K IPs that were digested by the same enzymes were matched.

Normalization followed a similar method as described above where 'equivalent' peptide

samples (ie. those from the same gel slice or 'equivalent' peptide samples) from different

replicates were compared with one another. For each protein or peptide common to all

equivalent peptide samples the intensity in that sample relative to the average across all

equivalent samples was calculated. The median of that relative intensity in each peptide

sample was used to normalize all protein or peptide intensities from that sample. The final

total protein or peptide intensity per replicate was calculated by the sum of all normalized

intensities in samples derived from that replicate. It is important to note that peptide

samples derived from SUMO1 and SUMO2 cells were considered equivalent for

normalization purposes, which assumes largely similar abundances of proteins or peptides

between cell types. Zero intensity values were replaced from log2 transformed data

(Perseus default settings) and outliers were defined by 5% FDR from Student's t-test using

an S0 value of 0.1. A summary of these data can be found in Supp. Data. 3.

The mass spectrometry proteomics data have been deposited to the ProteomeXchange

Consortium via the PRIDE (34) partner repository with the dataset identifier PXD023257.

Bioinformatic analysis of the SUMO site proteomics. 429 proteins identified with at least

one SUMO1 or SUMO2 modification site were uploaded to STRING (36) for network

analysis. Only proteins associated by a minimum STRING interaction score of 0.7 (high

confidence) were included in the final network. Disconnected nodes were removed.

Selected groups of functionally related proteins were resubmitted to STRING create smaller

sub-networks. These were visualised in Cytoscape v 3.7.2 (37) allowing the graphical display

of numbers of sites identified and total GG-K peptide intensity into the protein networks.

RNA preparation and real-time quantitative PCR (RT-qPCR). Total RNA was extracted using

RNeasy Mini Kit (Qiagen) and treated with the on-column RNase-Free DNase Set (Qiagen)

according to the manufacturer's instructions. RNA concentration was then measured using

NanoDrop and 1μg of total RNA per sample was subsequently used to perform a two-step

reverse transcription polymerase chain reaction (RT-PCR) using random hexamers and First

Strand cDNA Synthesis Kit (ThermoFisher Scientific). Each qPCR reaction contained PerfeCTa

SYBR Green FastMix ROX (Quantabio), forward and revers primer mix (200 nM final

concentration) and 6 ng of analysed cDNA and was set up in triplicates in MicroAmp™ Fast

Optical 96-Well or 384-Well Reaction Plates with Barcodes (Applied Biosystems™). The

sequences of primers used were as follows: NANOG (hNANOG_FOR624

ACAGGTGAAGACCTGGTTCC; hNANOG_REV722 GAGGCCTTCTGCGTCACA), SOX2 (hSOX2

_FOR907 TGGACAGTTACGCGCACAT; hSOX2_REV1121 CGAGTAGGACATGCTGTAGGT),

OCT4A (hOCT4A_FOR825 CCCACACTGCAGCAGATCA and hOCT4A_REV1064

ACCACACTCGGACCACATCC),   KLF4   (hKLF4_FOR1630   GGGCCCAATTACCCATCCTT   and

hKLF4_REV1706   GGCATGAGCTCTTGGTAATGG),   TBP   (hTBP_FOR896

TGTGCTCACCCACCAACAAT;   hTBP_REV1013   TGCTCTGACTTTAGCACCTGTT).   Data   were

collected using QuantStudio™ 6 Flex Real-Time PCR Instrument and analysed using a

corresponding software (Applied Biosystems™). Relative amounts of specifically amplified

cDNA were calculated using TBP amplicons as normalizers.

Experimental Design and Statistical Rationale All proteomics analyses used a label-free

quantitation method employing either triplicate or quadruplicate cell cultures (biological

replicates). Biological replicates were individual cell cultures grown and treated separately

from one-another but originally derived from a single cell line culture just prior to the

experiment. For example, comparisons between different cell lines took individual large-

scale cultures for each cell line and split the cells equally among replicate culture dishes.

Once these had grown to appropriate levels of confluence they were treated as described.

Intensity data from multiple mass spectrometry runs of the same peptide sample (technical

replicates) were normalized against other samples from the same mass spectrometry run

and then quantitative data from identical peptide samples aggregated together by

summation prior to statistical analyses. Protein or peptide outliers were determined by two-

samples student's t-tests in pairwise comparisons. Specific FDR and S0 values for filtering

are described for each experiment above.

Results

Inhibition of SUMO modification leads to decreased expression of pluripotency markers in

hiPSCs. The pluripotent state in hESCs and hiPSCs is controlled by a network of transcription

factors and other chromatin-associated proteins that determine the chromatin environment

of key genes (1). To understand the role of SUMO modification in the maintenance of

pluripotency in hiPSCs we used ML792 (26) a potent and selective inhibitor of SUMO

Activating Enzyme (SAE). This inhibitor has been reported to block proliferation of cancer

cells, particularly those overexpressing Myc (26), but has not been evaluated in hiPSCs. To

address the role of SUMO modification in hiPSCs, ChiPS4 cells were treated with ML792 in a

series of time-course and dose-response experiments. We determined that 400nM ML792

was the lowest concentration that effectively reduced SUMO modification after 4 hrs

treatment with minimal effects on cell viability. We restricted our analyses to ML792

treatment times that did not exceed 48 hrs, such that the early effects of SUMO

modification inhibition could be evaluated. Microscopic examination revealed that ML792

treatment caused morphological changes with the ChiPS4 cells becoming larger and flatter

(Fig. 1a). The rate of proliferation was unchanged after 24 hrs but was slightly reduced after

48 hrs (Fig. 1b). DNA staining of the cells and analysis by flow cytometry indicated that the

cell cycle distribution after 24hrs was unaltered by ML792 treatment but after 48 hrs

displayed an increased proportion of cells in G2 phase and cells with increased DNA content

suggesting endoreplication (Fig. 1c). Western blot analysis revealed a loss of high molecular

weight SUMO1 and SUMO2 conjugates and concomitant increase in free SUMOs in ChiPS4

cells (Fig. 1d). This is likely to be a consequence of the rapid removal of SUMO from

modified proteins by SUMO specific proteases (SENPs). Analysis of the protein levels of key

pluripotency markers indicated that while the levels of OCT4 and SOX2 were unchanged,

inhibition of SUMOylation resulted in a decrease in the protein level of NANOG (Fig. 1d).

This appeared to be a consequence of reduced transcription as determination of mRNA

levels by reverse transcriptase quantitative polymerase chain reaction (RT-qPCR) after

ML792 treatment demonstrated a reduction in *NANOG* mRNA. This was also apparent for

KLF4, but consistent with the Western blotting results, the levels of *OCT4* and *SOX2* mRNA

were unchanged (Fig. 1e).

Inhibition of SUMO modification induces phenotypic changes but not large scale

proteomic changes in hiPSC. To further investigate the nature and causes of the observed

morphological changes induced by the inhibition of SUMO modification, ChiPS4 cells were

treated with ML792 for 48h and analysed by phenotypic screening using a cell painting assay

(30) (Fig. 2a). Principle component analysis (PCA) indicated that there are clear differences

between cells treated with ML792 for 48h and untreated or vehicle (DMSO) treated cells.

The main differences were found to occur in the nuclear compartment (Fig. 2a). Feature

extraction identified changes in the global size (Area of nuclei) and shape (Nuclei form

factor) of the nucleus and the structure of the nucleolus (Nuclei: FITC texture correlation)

(Fig. 2a). These findings were validated using traditional immunofluorescence (IF)

approaches (Fig. 2b). Consistent with previously presented data, NANOG expression as well

as the size and shape of the nucleus are both affected by ML792 treatment. NOP58 was

used as a marker of the nucleolus, which undergoes a dramatic increase in size and shape

(Fig. 2b). As expected, the classic punctate nuclear localisation pattern of SUMO1 and

SUMO2 is altered by their deconjugation from substrates, becoming more diffuse and less

tightly associated with the nucleus (Fig. 2b).

To evaluate the effect of inhibition of SUMO modification on the global proteome in

hiPSCs, total protein extracts were prepared from ChiPS4 cells either untreated or treated

with ML792 for 24 or 48 hours and analysed by label-free quantitative proteomics. Data for

4741 proteins was obtained (see Supp. Data File 1). Consistent with SUMO conjugation

being critical for pluripotency, known pluripotency markers were modestly but significantly

reduced during 24 h and 48 h ML792 exposure (Fig. 2c). However, overall protein

abundance changes compared at both time-points showed little evidence for large-scale

shifts (Fig. 2d), with few functionally related proteins undergoing coordinated regulation

according to STRING: Linker histones appeared to be reduced in abundance after 48 hours,

but not 24 hours (Fig. 2d) and proteins from the gene ontology group 'Collagen-associated

extracellular matrix' had members both up and down-regulated (Supplementary Data file 1).

Alone these data do not appear to provide an obvious link between the morphological

changes induced by SUMO inhibition and underlying protein abundance changes. This

implies that it is an accumulation of multiple small protein abundance changes effected by

or in addition to deSUMOylation of key regulators, that explains the consequences of

ML792 treatment on hiPSCs.

Generation of hiPSC lines for SUMO proteomic analysis. Our data suggest an important

role for SUMO in maintaining the pluripotent state of hiPSCs. Given that previous studies of

SUMOylation have typically focused on somatic cells, it was important to establish the

SUMOylome of hiPSCs to identify candidate proteins that either directly or indirectly

contribute to the observed phenotype. We adapted a proteomic approach that allows sites

in proteins modified by SUMO1 and SUMO2/3 to be identified (38). To enable this analysis

in hiPSCs the ChIPS4 cell line was engineered to stably express 6His-SUMO-mCherry

constructs for either SUMO1 or SUMO2 (Fig. 3a, b) that incorporated the TGG to KGG

mutations to facilitate GlyGly-K peptide immunoprecipitation and identification as described

previously (38). As mCherry is linked to the C-terminus of SUMO the expressed fusion

protein will be processed by endogenous SUMO proteases to expose the C-terminal GlyGly

sequence for conjugation and release free mCherry. Single cell clones were selected based

on the expression of free mCherry and the level of SUMO paralogue expression (Fig. 3c).

Clones selected for SUMO site proteomic experiments were extensively characterised to

ensure that the exogenous SUMO was functional and that the cells retained their

pluripotency. Western blotting indicated that His-tagged SUMO-KGG paralogues were

conjugated to substrates in response to heat shock (Supplementary Fig. 1). Cells expressing

SUMO1-KGG and SUMO2-KGG had normal cell cycle profiles (Supplementary Fig. 2a),

expressed levels of pluripotency markers comparable to wild type ChIPS4 cells

(Supplementary Fig. 2b, c) and retained the ability to differentiate into endoderm, ectoderm

and mesoderm (Supplementary Fig. 2d). Analysis of the whole cell proteomes (Fig. 3d) of

ChIPS4 cells expressing SUMO1-KGG and SUMO2-KGG identified the expected exogenous

mCherry, SUMO1 and SUMO2 peptides (Fig. 3e) while peptides common to both

endogenous and exogenous SUMOs showed both types were conjugated to substrates at

roughly similar levels (Fig. 3f). Importantly, the engineered cell lines did not show large-scale

differences from parental cells in their expressed proteomes (Fig. 3g, h, see also

Supplementary Data File 2). Together these data indicate that expression of SUMO mutants

did not disrupt the normal pluripotent state or differentiation potential of ChIPS4 cells.

Identification of SUMO1 and SUMO2 targets in hiPSCs. The workflow for the identification

of SUMO1 and SUMO2 targets incorporates proteomic analysis at three levels

(Supplementary Fig. 3a). This involved analysis of whole cell extracts to monitor total

protein levels, analysis of nickel affinity purified proteins to identify SUMO modified

proteins and analysis of GG-K immunoprecipitations to define sites of SUMO modification.

SUMO1/SUMO2 comparisons can be made at the site level because after LysC digestion

both mutants leave the same GG-K adduct on substrates (Supplementary. Fig. 3b), and so

intensity comparisons can be used to infer preference for SUMO type at the site level. The

experiment was conducted twice in triplicate and PCA indicated that replicates performed

at the same time displayed a high degree of clustering (Supplementary Fig. 3c). PCA also

indicated clear differences between SUMO1 and SUMO2 as well as between experiments

carried out at different times (Supplementary Fig. 3c). This is likely to be a reflection of the

precise growth state of the cells when the experiment was conducted. Very few total

protein abundance differences between SUMO1 and SUMO2 cell were consistent to both

experimental runs, but there were substantial and consistent differences between SUMO1

and SUMO2 at both nickel affinity purifications and at the site level (Supplementary Fig. 3d).

Across the two experimental runs and aggregating the data for SUMO1 and SUMO2 a total

of 976 SUMO sites were identified in 427 proteins. Approximately 84% of these had already

been described in at least one of four large-scale SUMO2 site proteomics studies totalling

49768 unique sites of non-stem cell origin (see Supplementary Data file 3) (Fig. 4a). DNA

methyl transferase 3B (DNMT3B) and the key embryonic stem cell transcription factor SALL4

were among a small group of proteins with at least three novel sites in this study (Fig. 4a).

Although peptide intensity is a relatively imprecise proxy for abundance, it has been

successfully used for SUMO-substrate branched peptides to separate high occupancy from

low occupancy sites (39). For our data total GG-K peptide intensity suggests SALL4 is among

the most modified SUMO substrate in hiPSCs and contains 17 sites of modification (Fig. 4b).

DNMT3B contains 12 sites and is also among the most abundantly modified substrates,

while the methyl DNA binding protein MBD1 contains 8 sites and is also in the top cohort of

substrates by modified peptide intensity (Fig. 4b). Transcription intermediary factors 1 α

and 1 β (TRIM24 and TRIM28) are also both highly modified substrates. The boundary and

chromatin isolation factor CTCF is heavily modified with SUMO, consistent with a role for

SUMO in chromatin architecture (Fig. 4b). There is also evidence for extensive SUMO chain

formation as the branch points from SUMO2/3 chains are amongst the most abundant GG-K

peptides (Fig. 4b). Strikingly, the SUMOylated forms of a number of these nuclear substrates

could be detected directly in total whole cell lysates from control ChiPS4 cells, but not

ML792 treated hiPSCs (Fig. 4c), implicating SUMO as a major regulator of the total pool of

these proteins. STRING enrichment analysis of the 427 modified proteins created a network

consisting of 3 broad clusters that could be categorised as having functions in ribosome

biogenesis, RNA splicing, and regulation of gene expression (Fig. 4d). Despite forming

extensive protein networks (Fig. 5a, b), proteins involved in ribosome biogenesis and RNA

splicing represented only approximately 5% of the total GGK peptide intensity (Fig. 4b

insert). Most of the remainder have roles in transcription and chromatin structure or are

closely linked to these functions (Fig. 5c-h). There is a prominent network of zinc-finger

transcription factors, closely associated with TRIM28 (Fig. 5c) which contains many of the

most heavily SUMOylated proteins identified. The TRIM-ZNF-SUMO axis may play a key role

in silencing retroviral elements and this may be particularly important in hiPSCs (40).

Histone proteins themselves form a small cluster of SUMO substrates (Fig. 5d) which STRING

positioned in the centre of the gene regulation region of the whole network (Fig. 4c). The

transcriptional regulators themselves form a bipolar network (Fig. 5e) with the smaller sub-

cluster consisting mainly of apparently weakly modified ribosomal proteins and the larger

sub-cluster containing many heavily modified chromatin associated proteins. Strikingly,

many members of chromatin remodelling complexes such as PRC2 (Fig. 5f), BAF (Fig. 5g) and

NURD (Fig. 5h) are among this group. Together these networks and clusters of proteins

provide multiple direct and indirect links between SUMO and chromatin structure

regulation.

Differences between SUMO1 and SUMO2 at the protein and acceptor site level. The

proteomic experimental design allowed quantitative comparisons between SUMO1 and

SUMO2 at multiple stages of the purification process (Supplementary Fig. 3a):

SUMO1/SUMO2 ratios from crude IPS cell extracts shows there to be few differences (0.03%

significant) at the whole proteome level (Fig. 6a). There are also surprisingly few differences

(7.8% significant) between NiNTA purifications from the two cell types (Fig. 6a). Exceptions

include the well-documented SUMO1 substrate RanGAP1, along with TRIM24 and TRIM33

which all appear to show similar levels of SUMO1 preference (Fig. 6a). In contrast, over half

of the GGK-containing peptides quantified in both experimental runs and both cell lines

showed large and significant difference between SUMO1 and SUMO2 cells (Fig. 6a). Extreme

examples of SUMO1 preferential sites include not only RanGAP1 K524, but also TRIM33

K776, NFRKB K359, PNN K157, TFPT K216 and two sites in TOP1 (K117 & K134) (Fig. 6a).

Conversely, TRIM28 contains two of the most SUMO2-preferntial sites at K507 and K779,

and lysines 48 and 63 from ubiquitin also seems to be among the extreme SUMO2 acceptors

(Fig. 6a). In the context of whole proteins, three key proteins in our dataset, SALL4, TRIM24

and TRIM33 show largely SUMO1 preferential modification, while TRIM28 and CTCF show

apparent preference for SUMO2 (Fig. 6b, c). This was broadly confirmed by Western-blot

analysis from NiNTA purifications (Fig. 6d), although in some cases the degree of preference

was not as striking as expected. Significantly, Western-blot analysis of NiNTA purifications

confirmed the SUMO2-modified form of CTCF to be more abundant than SUMO1, but both

the modified and unmodified forms of CTCF were purified (Fig. 6d). Thus, it seems likely that

large amounts of unmodified CTCF obscured the SUMO2 preference in the NiNTA

purification proteomic data. This effect may be rare, but highlights potential weaknesses in

proteomics studies when using relatively low-stringency purifications such as 6His/Ni-NTA

pull downs.

Preference for SUMO2 modification in regions of higher negative charge. The proteomic

data reveal many multiply modified proteins to have a strong overall SUMO paralog

selection. TOP1, TRIM33, ZNF462 and ZNF532 all contain multiple SUMO1-specific sites, and

conversely, DNMT3a, CHD4, ubiquitin and SUMOs 2 and 3 themselves have a majority of

SUMO2-specific sites (Supplementary Fig. 4). However, a number of substrates such as

GTF2I, SAFB2 and MGA (Supplementary Fig. 4) have a mixture of sites showing varied SUMO

type preference. This broad range of site-specific SUMO paralogue preference raises the

question of how specificity is determined. By averaging the SUMO1/SUMO2 peptide

intensity ratio data over the two experimental runs we ranked 739 sites by paralogue

preference from SUMO1 to SUMO2 (Fig. 7a). Not all sites could be included for sequence

analysis as sites close to protein N or C termini lacked amino acids in their sequence

windows. Sequence logos of the top and bottom 123 sites (one sixth of total) shows broadly

similar motifs for SUMO1 and SUMO2 sites (Fig. 7b), with both showing the characteristic

ψKxE motif. However, outside the consensus SUMO2 sites are more prone to D or E in the -2

position than SUMO1 sites, and a significant number of SUMO1 sites have P in +3 (Fig. 7b).

More generally, D/E residues are more enriched within the 21 residue sequence windows of

SUMO2 than SUMO1. This is confirmed by sequence window charge analysis (Fig. 7c) which

shows acceptor lysine residues preferentially modified with SUMO2 over SUMO1 are more

likely to be embedded in a sequence that is net negatively charged at pH7.4 than those

showing SUMO1 preference. This trend is also generally progressive across the spectrum of

site-specific SUMO paralogue selection (Supplementary. Fig. 5a-e). For some proteins where

SUMO paralogue preference varies in different regions of the sequence, this coincides with

local charge variations consistent with SUMO2 preference in acidic domains. SALL4, CHD4

and SAFB (Fig. 7d) show that sites preferentially modified by SUMO2 were generally

negatively charged while SUMO1-preferential modification took place in regions of the

protein of that were more positively charged.

Discussion

Our studies highlight an important role for SUMO in maintaining the pluripotent

state of ChIPS4 hiPSCs. Using a potent and highly specific inhibitor of the E1 SUMO

Activating Enzyme ML792 (26) we blocked de novo SUMO modification which allowed

endogenous SUMO specific proteases to remove SUMO from previously modified proteins.

In this way ML792 treatment effectively deSUMOylated cellular proteins. In response to 48h

of 400nM ML792 exposure ChIPS4 cells showed reduced pluripotency and underwent

dramatic morphological changes, particularly to nuclear structure and size. Over the same

period of time there appeared to be few large-scale changes to the cellular proteome,

implying that the consequences of loss of SUMOylation in hiPSCs primarily involves

functional changes to factors critical for nuclear structure and function, probably followed

by multiple modest protein abundance changes, which together lead to the observed

phenotype. Candidates for these SUMOylated factors were identified by SUMO site

proteomic analysis. The major network that accounted for the bulk of SUMO modification

sites was associated with negative regulation of gene expression. At the heart of this

network is TRIM28, the histone methyl transferase SETDB1 and the Chromobox silencer

CBX3. ChIP-seq derived locations of TRIM28, SETDB1 and CBX3 indicate that they are

associated with retroviral elements (41). These proteins along with SUMO have previously

been shown to function in HERV silencing in mouse ES cells (40,42) and adult human cells

(43,44) and this is consistent with our proteomic analysis that indicates that all three of

these proteins are heavily SUMO modified (Fig. 4). The TRIM28 co-repressor functions by

interacting with DNA bound Kruppel type Zinc finger proteins and these proteins are also

identified as being SUMO modified in our proteomic studies and are part of the large

TRIM28 centric network of SUMO modified proteins. It is also suggested that a number of

developmental genes are repressed by TRIM28/KRAB-ZNFs through H3K9me3 and de novo

DNA methylation of their promoter regions (45), thus making TRIM28/ZNFs a crucial link in

maintenance of pluripotency in human stem cells. These data are consistent with the wide

distribution of SUMO on chromatin (46-49) and with a very different distribution in murine

fibroblasts and embryonic stem cells (9). Recently Theurillat et al.(50) reported a SUMO site

proteomic analysis of mouse embryonic stem cells. In this case the method used allowed

analysis of endogenous SUMO2 but not SUMO1 modification sites. The number of sites

identified in this study was rather similar (608 SUMO2 sites in 350 proteins) to that reported

here (976 SUMO1 plus SUMO2 sites in 427 proteins), as were the major functional

networks. However, the precise targets identified were very different, with only SALL4 of

the top 20 mouse ES cell specific proteins being present in the top 50 (based on peptide

intensity) SUMO modified proteins in human stem cells reported here (Fig. 4b). Such

differences presumably reflect the differences between mESCs and hiPSCs and the

developmental stages which these cells represent. While the mouse cells were established

from blastocysts the human cells are derived by reprogramming normal somatic cells (25).

Analysis of the SUMO proteome of the ChIPS4 hiPSCs shows that well-defined

groups of protein are modified. Aside from the TRIM28/ZNF network mentioned above,

proteins involved in "ribosome biogenesis" and "splicing" are SUMO modified and this likely

impacts on the normal growth and self-renewal of the hiPSCs. However, the largest network

of proteins falls into the category of "negative regulation of transcription", with many

chromatin remodellers, chromatin modification and DNA modification enzymes identified as

SUMO substrates. Thus, SUMO modification is likely to play an important role in maintaining

pluripotency of hiPSCs by repressing genes that either disrupt pluripotency or drive

differentiation.

During our analysis we also found that a large proportion of modification sites

displayed a clear preference for either SUMO1 or SUMO2, and that this seems to be

influenced by the charge distribution around the acceptor lysine. Specifically, lysines within

acidic domains are more likely to be modified by SUMO2 than SUMO1. While this is by no

means a strict rule, these data suggest site-level SUMO paralog selection is at least in part

defined by the electrostatic environment of the acceptor lysine. Intriguingly, structures of

Ubc9 in complex with either SUMO1 or SUMO2 (51) show significant charge deviation

between the two paralogues close to the active site of the E2 enzyme (Supplementary Fig.

6), potentially implicating the SUMO molecule itself in site-selection. It is important to note

however, that in spite of the clear variety of site-level SUMO paralogue preference, most

proteins display little overall SUMO preference when considering the total cellular pool

together, meaning examples of entirely SUMO1 or SUMO2/3 modified proteins are probably

rare. Understanding the differences between SUMO1 and SUMO2/3 in terms of site-

selectivity and downstream functional outcomes will likely be critical in gaining a full

understanding of the role of SUMOylation in all higher eukaryotic cell types.

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Author Contributions

B.M. cloned expression vectors, generated cell lines, designed and performed most experiments using hiPSCs and interpreted data. ML performed NiNTA purifications and Western blotting analyses. L.D. was in charge of cell culture, cell line derivation and quality control and was consulted over experimental design. M.H.T consulted over proteomic experimental design, acquired and processed MS data and conducted bioinformatic and statistical analyses. E.B. performed bioinformatic analysis of the structural data. B.M., M.H.T., L.D., and R.T.H. contributed to data analysis. B.M., R.T.H., M.H.T. and L.D. wrote the paper. R.T.H. conceived the project.

Data availability

Data underlying all Figures and Supplementary Figures are available in the source data file.

Source data for proteomics experiments are deposited in PRIDE as described in the Methods

section. All other data are available from the corresponding authors on reasonable request.

Supplementary data files

This article contains supplemental data including following supplementary data files:

Supplementary data file 1. Summary of the quantitative data from the proteomics

experiment to study changes to the cellular proteome during ML792 treatment of ChiPS4

cells.

Supplementary data file 2. Summary of the quantitative data from the proteomics

experiment to study differences in the cellular proteome among wild type ChiPS4 cells and

cells expressing 6His-SUMO1-KGG-mCherry or 6His-SUMO2-KGG-mCherry.

Supplementary data file 3. Summary of the quantitative data from the proteomics

experiment to identify SUMO1 and SUMO2 targets from ChiPS4 cells.

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Figure Legends

Figure 1. Inhibition of SUMO modification leads to loss of hiPSCs pluripotency.

A. ChiPS4 cells were treated with SUMO E1 activating enzyme inhibitor ML792 (400 nM) or

DMSO vehicle for the indicated time and analysed for morphology, using phase contrast

microscopy (scale bar = 100 μm). **B.** ChIPS4 cells were seeded at a standard density of $3x10^5$

cells/cm^2 in triplicate and either DMSO or 400nM ML792 treated for the indicated

durations. Cells were harvested using TrypleSelect and counted. Data are plotted as a mean

(line) ± SEM of individual replicates (dots) n=3. Statistical significance was calculated with t-

tests corrected for multiple comparisons using Holm-Sidak's method (* p<0.05 significantly

different from the corresponding DMSO control) **C.** Crude cell extracts taken from cells

incubated at the indicated time-points with 400nM ML792 were analysed by Western

blotting to determine conjugation levels of SUMO1, SUMO2/3 and abundance of key

pluripotency markers NANOG, SOX2 and OCT4. Anti-Actin western blot was used as a

loading control. Asterisk (*) indicates free SUMO1 or SUMO2/3. **D.** Cells were collected as in

B, fixed, stained with propidium iodide (PI) and analysed by flow cytometry. Plots are a

representative of three independent experiments. **E.** Cells were treated with ML792 and

after the indicated time total RNA was extracted. mRNA levels of NANOG, OCT4, SOX2 and

KLF4 were determined by quantitative PCR. Relative mRNA expression levels normalized to

TBP were plotted as means ± SEM of four independent experiments. **p <0.01; *** p

<0.001; **** p <0.0001 significantly different from the corresponding value for untreated

control (two-way ANOVA followed by Sidak's multiple comparison test).

Figure 2. Inhibition of SUMO modification causes morphological changes but does not

trigger large-scale proteome changes in hiPSCs.

A. Cell painting analysis. ChIPS4 cells were treated with PBS, DMSO vehicle or 400 nM

ML792 for 48 h. Cells were then stained, fixed and analysed using high content microscopy.

The experiment was performed three times in 8 replicates per condition. Information

extracted from Cell Painting analysis was focused on subcellular compartments most

affected by ML792 treatment. Most variation between treatments and controls in principal

component analysis was captured by PC1. Selected graphs represent quantitation of

individual measures contributing to the difference observed in principal component

analysis: area of nuclei; nuclei form factor (size and shape of nucleus); nuclei FITC texture

correlation (size of nucleolar structures). **B.** ChIPS4 cells were treated for 48 h with DMSO

vehicle or 400 nM ML792, fixed and stained with DAPI (blue), anti-SUMO1 or anti-SUMO2

(red) and anti-NANOG or anti-NOP58 (green) antibodies. Immunofluorescence (IF) images

were obtained using Leica SP8 confocal microscope and a 60x water lens. All images contain

25 μm scale bar. **C.** Crude extracts from hiPSCs treated in triplicate with ML792 for 24h or

48h or not (0h) were analysed by label-free proteomics and the change in protein

abundance of detected pluripotency markers (n=14) was calculated as % of 0h intensity.

Paired t-test p values are indicated. Average reduction is 13.2% (24h) and 25.7% (48h). **D.**

Scatter plot of Log_2 24h/0h and log_2 48h/0h abundance change for the entire 4741 protein

whole cell proteomic dataset. Extreme outliers are indicated. All identified core and linker

histones are represented by coloured markers others are in grey. Linker histones were

identified by STRING analysis as a functionally related group of proteins that are significantly

reduced in abundance at 48h compared with 0h. Core histone proteins are indicated for

reference.

Figure 3. ChiPS4 cell lines engineered for SUMO1 and SUMO2 site proteomic analysis.

A. Overview of the principles behind the SUMO-mCherry construct design and the utility of the expressed proteins for SUMO site proteomic analysis in CHiPS4 cells. The C-terminal mCherry protein used for cell selection is cleaved away from 6His-SUMO by endogenous SUMO proteases allowing conjugation to substrate proteins. **B.** Scheme representing the piggyBac construct design used for generation of ChiPS4 cell lines expressing 6His-SUMO1-KGG-mCherry or 6His-SUMO2-KGG-mCherry. **C.** Flow cytometry analysis of single cell clones using mCherry expression levels to infer SUMO expression levels. **D.** Coomassie stained SDS-PAGE gel fractionating whole cell protein extracts from parental CHiPS4 cells (WT) and the selected 6His-SUMO-KGG-mCherry clones prepared in triplicate. This was used to monitor SUMO overexpression levels using proteomic analysis and each lane was excised into 4 sections allowing differentiation between conjugated (slices A-C) and unconjugated (Slice D) SUMO forms. **E.** Peptide intensity data from slices A-D for two peptides each from 6His-SUMO1-KGG (left) and 6His-SUMO2-KGG (centre) that are unique to the exogenous constructs. Data for 20 mCherry peptides are also shown (right). **F.** Peptide intensity data from slices A-C for four peptides from SUMO1 (left) and three from SUMO2 (right) that are common to both the endogenous and exogenous forms of the proteins. **G.** Quantitative data from 3863 proteins identified from the gel shown in D were compared by principal component analysis. **H.** Numerical ratio and unpaired student's t-test results comparing WT parental cells with 6His-SUMO1-KGG-mCherry cells (left), and WT with 6His-SUMO2-KGG-mCherry cells (right). Outliers (red markers) were defined in Perseus by 5% FDR with an S0 value of 0.1 (78 outliers from WT vs SUMO1 cells and 64 from WT vs SUMO2 cells). Gene names from extreme outliers are indicated.

Figure 4. Functions of SUMO1 and SUMO2 targets in hiPSCs.

A. 976 SUMO sites were identified from 6His-SUMO1-KGG and 6His-SUMO2-KGG IPS cells,

of which 155 were novel compared with previous high-throughput SUMO site proteomics

studies (See Supplementary Data File 2). Proteins with three or more novel sites are

highlighted. **B.** Summary of the top 50 SUMO substrates by total SUMO1+SUMO2 GGK-

peptide intensity for all identified sites. Gene names are shown with numbers of sites in

brackets. Bars are colour coded by category shown in panel C. Insert shows contribution to

total GGK peptide intensity of proteins from the categories shown in C (note categories are

not mutually exclusive). **C.** STRING interaction network of the 427 IPS SUMO substrates.

Only high confidence interactions were considered from 'Text mining', 'Experiments' and

'Databases' sources. Network PPI enrichment p-value $<1.0 \times 10^{-16}$. Nodes are coloured by

functional or structural group as indicated. **D.** Immunoblot analysis of ChIPS4 cells treated

with the SUMO E1 conjugating enzyme inhibitor ML792 or DMSO for 48h. Total protein

extracts were probed with anti-TRIM28, anti-TRIM24, anti-CTCF, anti-DNMT3b, anti-SALL4,

anti-TRIM33 and anti-tubulin or anti-Lamin A/C antibodies (loading controls). SUMO-

modified species above the band for unmodified proteins (*), reduce with ML792

treatment.

Figure 5. Networks of functionally related SUMO substrates in hiPSCs.

A-E. Detailed protein interaction networks derived from the broad categories shown in Fig.

3C. Node shade is proportional to $\log_{10}$ total GGK peptide intensity and border thickness

indicates numbers of sites found. **F-H** shows data for selected chromatin remodelling

complexes. Grey nodes were not identified in the present study but included to complete

complexes. TRIM proteins were included in C to link more zinc-finger proteins in the

network.

Figure 6. SUMO paralogue preference at the site level in hiPSCs is influenced by proximal

acidic residues.

A. Scatter plots of $\log_2$ SUMO1/SUMO2 ratio and $-\log_{10}$ student's t-test p-value for proteins

or peptides detected in the different cellular fractions. Red markers were found to be

significantly different in both experimental runs. Selected outliers are indicated. Numbers of

significantly differing proteins or peptides compared to the entire set of proteins or

peptides quantified are shown. **B.** Schematic presentations of selected proteins found to

have high total GG-K peptide intensities in the present study. Site positions are indicated by

number. SUMO preference is represented by colour and GGK peptide intensity by the size of

the site node (see key). Site node border line thickness represents number of experiments in

which it was found to show a significant SUMO preference. Protein nodes are labelled with

the gene name and are colour is based on SUMO preference calculated by total GGK

peptide intensity from SUMO1 cells/total from SUMO2 cells. Edges linking sites to proteins

are angled relative to their position in the linear protein sequence with first and last

residues at the top of the protein node. **C.** Summary of log2 SUMO1/SUMO2 intensity

measured in each of the three cellular fractions analysed. § - No data acquired. **D.**

Immunoblot analysis of whole cell extracts (input) and NiNTA purifications from SUMO1 and

SUMO2 cells either treated or not with 400nM ML792. * - Position of unmodified protein in

NiNTA purifications.

Figure 7. Validation of SUMOylation status of abundant SUMO substrates in ChIPS4 cells.

A. Log$_2$ SUMO1/SUMO2 ratio versus rank of ratio for 738 GG-K containing peptides that

could be numerically compared between SUMO1 and SUMO2 samples. Top and bottom

1/6th (123 sites) by ratio are selected to represent SUMO paralogue-preferential sites

(coloured) with the remainder marked in grey. **B.** pLogos (52) for the 123 SUMO1 or SUMO2

specific sites as shown in part C using the human proteome as background. Two analyses

were performed using the entire 21 residue window (left), and the 17 residue window of

the same sequences without the 4 residue SUMO consensus motif (right). The position of

the consensus sequence region is boxed with a dashed line (left) or shown by a dotted line

(right). **C**. Comparison between SUMO1 and SUMO2-preferential sites for predicted net

charge at pH7.4 of the amino-acid region encompassing -10 to +10 residues around the

acceptor lysine. Charge predicted using Isoelectric Point Calculator tool (53)**. D.** Schematic

presentations summarising site-specific SUMOylation data, and predicted sequence charge

distribution for SALL4, CHD4 and SAFB2. Net charge at each amino acid position in the

sequence (left) was calculated for sequence windows of sizes from 5 to 100 residues as

indicated in the key (see M&M for details). SUMO conjugation sites and 21 residue

sequence windows are shown (right).

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1010

A

CTRL ■ DMSO 48 h ■ ML792 48 h

B

DAPI NANOG SUMO1   DAPI NOP58 SUMO2

DMSO 48 h

ML792 48 h

C

Pluripotency markers
(DNMT3B, PODXL, UTF1, BRIX1,
SALL4, DPPA4, POU5F1, SOX2,
CD9, GRB7, GAL, DPPA2, GDF3, TDGF1)

$p<0.0001$
$p=0.0034$

% 0h intensity

ML792 [h]

D

Log$_2$ 48h/0h

Log$_2$ 24h/0h

APBEC3B & OPTN
ARG2& GUF1
PRAME
ACTN4
CA8
EXOC7
TNFRSF10B
PCBP2
HMOX1
HNRNPK
JADE1 PRSS8 FILIP1
UHRF1BP1
MND1

Core histones
Histone H2A type 1A
Histone H2A.V/Z
Histone H2B type 1B/1J/1O/2E/3B
Histone H2B type 1C/D/E/F/G/H/I/K/L/M/N/2F
Histone H3
Histone H2A
Histone H2A type 2A/C
Histone H3.2
Histone H2A type 1D/H/J
Histone H4
Histone H2A type 1B/C/E/3
Histone H3
Histone H2A type 2B

Linker histones
Histone H1.4
Histone H1.5
Histone H1.0
Histone H1.1
Histone H1.2
Histone H1x
Histone H1.3

A

Known sites* (821) — New sites (155) — Others (131)

DNMT3B (8)
ZNF532 (8)
SALL4 (5)
ZMYND8 (5)
ZNF106 (5)
DDX21 (4)
ZNF462 (4)
ZSCAN10 (4)
ZNF687 (3)

C

ChiPS4
48h treatment

	DMSO	ML792
250
150
100
50

WB: anti-TRIM28 | WB: anti-TRIM24 | WB: anti-CTCF | WB: anti-DNMT3b | WB: anti-SALL4 | WB: anti-TRIM33

WB: anti-tubulin

WB: anti-Lamin A/C

B

Total GGK peptide intensity

0.E+00   2.E+10   4.E+10

GTF2I (12)
SUMO3 (2)
ZNF462 (22)
TRIM28 (8)
ZNF687 (13)
SALL4 (17)
DNMT3B (12)
ZBTB9 (5)
MBD1 (8)
ZMYM4 (13)
BRD8 (5)
TRIM24 (5)
MGA (19)
TOP1 (5)
SUMO2 (2)
SAFB2 (11)
L3MBTL2 (4)
NPM1 (9)
CTCF (5)
NOP58 (6)
ZNF106 (26)
TOP2A (13)
HIST1H2BC (2)
RREB1 (3)
ZMYND8 (22)
TRIM33 (3)
NPIPB2 (1)
ZNF644 (12)
ZMYM2 (13)
WIZ (11)
ZNF532 (16)
UBB (3)
TCOF1 (2)
BEND3 (6)
HNRNPM (2)
SAP18 (1)
RSF1 (6)
SUMO1 (6)
CHD4 (11)
CD3EAP (2)
POLR3D (5)
ZNF451 (6)
SRBD1 (3)
SP3 (2)
RPL13 (2)
NACC1 (2)
PBRM1 (3)
DNM1 (2)
RANGAP1 (1)
ZMYM1 (2)

Sum GG-K peptide intensity

Others (178)
Negative regulation of gene expression (142)
Zinc-finger, C2H2 type (62)
Chromatin Assembly (17)
Ribosome Biogenesis (50)
RNA splicing (44)

D

GOBP: RNA splicing
(44 proteins - 3.8 e-16)

GOBP: Negative regulation of gene expression
(140 proteins - 4.3 e-42)

GOBP: Ribosome Biogenesis
(50 proteins - 6.0 e-27)

GOBP: Chromatin Assembly
(17 proteins - 3.9 e-6)

Pfam: Zinc-finger, C2H2 type
(62 proteins - 6.5 e-18)