Vpr drives massive cellular proteome remodelling in HIV-1 infection

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Running title: Global effects of HIV Vpr on the cellular proteome.

Abstract

Viruses target host proteins for degradation to enhance their replication and transmission, and identifying these targets has provided key insights into the host-pathogen interaction. Here, we use complementary unbiased mass spectrometry-based approaches to dissect the widespread proteome remodelling seen in HIV-1 infected T-cells. Remarkably, the HIV accessory protein Vpr is both necessary and sufficient to cause the vast majority of these changes. This protein regulation required recruitment of the DCAF1/DDB1/CUL4 E3 ubiquitin ligase complex and the substrate binding surfaces of Vpr, but was mostly independent of Vpr mediated cell cycle arrest. Combined approaches of pulsed-Stable Isotope Labelling with Amino Acids in Cell Culture (SILAC) and immunoprecipitation-mass spectrometry (IP-MS) identified at least 38 cellular proteins directly targeted for degradation by Vpr. Thus, whilst other HIV-1 accessory proteins downregulate a small number of specific host factors, Vpr degrades multiple protein targets, causing systems-level changes to the cellular proteome. Depletion of a subset of the novel cellular targets identified in this study, including KIF18A/B, ZNF512B and ESCO2, was conserved across Vpr variants from diverse primate lentiviral lineages, confirming their biological importance *in vivo*. Further, antagonism of multiple novel Vpr targets identified here can explain previously described cellular Vpr phenotypes such as modulation of NF-κB signalling, premature chromatid segregation, and cell cycle arrest.

Significance Statement

HIV-1 encodes four 'accessory proteins', required for replication *in vivo* but not *in vitro*. The functions of three of these proteins are well characterised – they degrade a small number cellular proteins, that reflect the critical pathways HIV must antagonise to replicate within the host. The fourth accessory protein, Vpr, is much less understood. Here we show that unlike the other accessory proteins, Vpr causes hundreds of changes to the cellular proteome, by directly degrading at least 38 proteins. In fact, almost all protein-level changes that occur in an HIV infected cell require Vpr. These complex changes explain why understanding the function of Vpr has been problematic, and provide a dramatically different new context for existing and future studies of Vpr.

Introduction

The HIV-1 'accessory proteins' Vif, Vpr, Nef and Vpu deplete host proteins in infected cells, and are required for viral replication *in vivo*[1-3]. We previously used unbiased quantitative proteomics to map temporal changes in cellular protein abundance during HIV infection of CEM-T4 T-cells, and identify novel targets of Vpu (SNAT1), Nef (SERINC3/5) and Vif (PPP2R5A-E)[4, 5]. Nonetheless, known accessory protein targets only account for a tiny fraction of all protein changes observed

41 during HIV infection(5). Since a single accessory protein, Vif, is sufficient to drive global remodelling

42 of the cellular phosphoproteome(5), we hypothesised that undiscovered targets of the final

43 accessory protein, Vpr, might explain a proportion the remaining protein-level changes.

Results

Vpr is required for global proteome changes in HIV infected cells.

We compared total proteomes of uninfected cells with cells infected with either WT HIV or an HIV

Vpr deletion mutant (HIV ΔVpr) at an infectious MOI of 1.5 (**Fig. 1a**), resulting in approximately 75%

infection (**Fig. 1b**). Data from this experiment are available, together with the other proteomics

datasets presented here, in **Supplementary Table 1**. As expected, amongst the 7,774 quantitated

proteins, we observed widespread changes in cells infected with wild-type HIV (**Fig. 1c** left panel).

Together with known Nef, Vpu and Vif, targets, we saw depletion of previously reported Vpr targets

including HLTF(6, 7), ZGPAT(8), MCM10(9), UNG(10), TET2(11), MUS81 and EME1(12). DCAF1, part of

the ligase complex used by Vpr to degrade targets was also depleted, consistent with a previous

report (13).

In HIV ΔVpr infection (**Fig. 1c**, right panel), depletion of Nef, Vpu and Vif targets was maintained.

Remarkably, as well as abolishing depletion of known Vpr targets, almost all of the previously

uncharacterised protein changes were also reduced or abolished. Whilst 1,944 proteins changed

significantly (q<0.01) in WT HIV-infected cells, only 41 protein changes retained significance when

cells were infected with HIV ΔVpr. Principle component analysis confirmed that cells infected with

ΔVpr virus share more similarity on the proteome level with uninfected cell than with cells infected

with WT virus (**Fig. 1d**).

Incoming Vpr protein alone drives massive cellular proteome remodelling.

Since Vpr enhances expression of other viral proteins(14, 15) (**Fig 1c**), differences between WT and

ΔVpr viruses could potentially be explained by secondary changes in expression levels of these

proteins, or different rates of progression of WT and ΔVpr viral infections. To eliminate these

confounders, we repeated our proteomic analysis using cells exposed to lentiviral particles lacking or

bearing Vpr in the presence of reverse transcriptase inhibitors (RTi), thus excluding all *de novo* viral

protein expression (**Fig. 2a**). Cells were exposed to these viral particles at an infectious MOI of 0.5,

determined in the absence of RTi.

Strikingly, changes induced by Vpr-containing viral particles phenocopied the Vpr-dependent

changes seen in HIV infection (**Fig. 2b**), with a high degree of correlation (**Fig. 2c**). Taking both

experiments together, Vpr is therefore both necessary and sufficient for the significant (q<0.01)

depletion of at least 302 proteins, and the upregulation of 413 – highlighted in blue and red,

respectively (**Fig. 2c**). This is a stringent false discovery rate and, in practice, the number of Vpr-

dependent changes is almost certainly even higher. Where antibodies were available, we confirmed

a proportion of these changes by immunoblot (**Supplementary Fig. S1**).

Cellular proteome remodelling requires interaction with DCAF1 and cellular substrates.

Vpr is found in all primate lentiviruses, but its function or functions remain controversial.

Nonetheless, in all phenotypic descriptions, Vpr activity is dependent on the interaction between

Vpr and the DCAF1/DDB/Cul4 ligase complex, recruitment of which results in degradation of known

Vpr targets through the ubiquitin-proteasome system. The Q65 residue of Vpr is required for the
interaction with DCAF1(16), and we therefore compared proteome changes caused by a Q65R Vpr
mutant with changes caused by WT Vpr. As expected, Q65R Vpr was almost completely inactive (**Fig.**
2d,e,).

We recapitulated this finding by comparing the effects of WT Vpr in control cells, or cells depleted of
DCAF1 using RNAi (**Fig. 2f**). All changes were reduced in magnitude in the DCAF1 knockdown cells
(**Fig. 2g**), which showed an approximately 50% reduction in levels of DCAF1 (**Supplementary Fig. 2**).
As with depletion of known Vpr targets, extensive Vpr-dependent proteomic remodelling is
dependent on the interaction between Vpr and DCAF1.

Like Q65, residues E24, R36, Y47, D52 and W54 of Vpr are required for the recruitment and
degradation of previously reported Vpr targets, and are thought to form the substrate binding
surface(7, 17). In particular, Y47, D52 & W54 are hypothesized to be crucial to a proposed DNA
mimicking motif used to bind the known Vpr target UNG2(17). Accordingly, the $Vpr_{E24R, R36P}$ and
Vpr_{W54R} mutants were somewhat attenuated in their ability to cause proteome remodelling, and a
triple mutant, $Vpr_{Y47A, D52A, W54R}$, was defective for almost all Vpr-dependent protein changes (**Fig. 2d,e**
see also **Supplementary Fig. 3**).

Vpr causes G2/M arrest in cycling cells, but the mechanism for this is contentious(18, 19), as is the
connection, if any, to the replicative advantage Vpr provides *in vivo*. Previous datasets have
identified proteins increased or depleted during different phases of the cell cycle or in G2/M
arrested cells(20, 21) (**Supplementary Fig. 4**). As expected, regulation of the cyclin family of proteins
during the G2 and M phases of cell is recapitulated by Vpr (**Supplementary Fig. 4b**). Whilst some
changes in protein levels induced by Vpr may therefore be explained by the effects of cell cycle
arrest, proteins regulated by cell cycle in these datasets only account for a small fraction of Vpr-
dependent changes (**Supplementary Fig. 4a,c,d**).

Further, residue S79 of Vpr is specifically required for Vpr-dependent cell cycle arrest(22), confirmed
by our finding that Vpr_{S79A} was unable to cause cell cycle arrest (**Fig 2d** and **Supplementary Fig. 3**).
Additionally, Vpr_{Q65R} and $Vpr_{Y47A, D52A, W54R}$ mutants are also unable to cause G2/M arrest, while
$Vpr_{E24R, R36P}$ has an intermediate phenotype, and Vpr_{W54R} caused G2/M arrest at wild type levels.
Strikingly, most Vpr-dependent protein changes were also observed with the Vpr_{S79A} mutant (**Fig.**
2d,e), and are therefore independent of G2/M cell cycle arrest. The presence or absence of G2/M
arrest was also a poor correlate of proteomic remodelling caused by the other mutants. Cell cycle
arrest therefore only explains a minority of Vpr-dependent changes.

Identifying direct targets for Vpr mediated degradation.
Cellular proteins may be regulated directly or indirectly. We previously proposed candidate direct
Vpr targets by identifying proteins downregulated during WT HIV infection with similar temporal
expression profiles to UNG and HLTF[5]. As predicted, most of these proteins were significantly
reduced in abundance by Vpr in this study (**Supplementary Fig. 5**). Strikingly, analysis of the 302
proteins depleted by Vpr (but not the proteins increased by Vpr) revealed a profound enrichment
(>60%) for proteins that reside in the nucleus, and bind nucleic acid (**Supplementary Fig. 6**).
Previously reported direct Vpr targets are all nuclear proteins, and Vpr associates with DNA binding
proteins such as UNG via a substrate-binding surface that mimics DNA (17). Rather than targeting a

small number of cellular proteins for degradation, Vpr may therefore have a much wider range of
direct cellular targets, and this mechanism of substrate recruitment suggests a plausible structural
explanation.

To identify proteins targeted directly by Vpr, we first adopted a co-immunoprecipitation approach
(**Supplementary Fig. 7a**). Factors specifically co-immunoprecipitated in the presence of Vpr are
expected to include direct Vpr targets and, accordingly, were enriched for proteins depleted (rather
than increased) in the presence of Vpr (**Supplementary Fig. 7b,d,e**). Nonetheless, the co-IP was
dominated by DCAF1, a stable binding partner of Vpr, identified with a signal intensity 2 orders of
magnitude greater than all other proteins (**Supplementary Fig. 7c**). This mismatch suggests why MS-
IP may be more successful in identifying cellular components of stable accessory protein complexes,
rather than cellular targets degraded by accessory proteins, which interact transiently and in
competition with each other (23, 24).

We therefore adopted an alternative, pulsed SILAC approach to identify host proteins specifically
destabilised within 6 hrs of exposure to Vpr (**Fig. 3a**). Since proteins are fully labelled prior to
exposure to Vpr, differences in abundances of labelled proteins between conditions exclusively
reflect changes in protein degradation rates. This technique is directly analogous to a traditional
pulse-chase experiment using radiolabelled methionine/cysteine, but allows a global, unbiased
analysis of potential cellular targets(25).

Six hours after exposure to Vpr, the stability of most proteins was unchanged (**Fig. 3b**). However, a
subset of proteins depleted by Vpr were already destabilised, consistent with Vpr-dependent
proteasomal degradation. These 27 proteins, including HLTF, are therefore very likely to represent
direct targets for Vpr-mediated depletion (**Fig. 3c**). After 24 hours of exposure to Vpr, changes in
protein stability reflected overall changes in protein abundance caused by Vpr in other experiments
(**Fig. 3b**), including proteins with increased as well as decreased stability. These changes are
therefore indicative of both direct and indirect Vpr targets.

Combining these two orthogonal approaches, we have identified 38 direct targets for Vpr mediated
degradation (Fig. 3d). Vpr is both necessary and sufficient for depletion of these proteins, which are
either bound by Vpr, or destabilised within 6 hours of Vpr exposure (or both). This list very likely
underestimates the true number of direct Vpr targets, as several known targets of Vpr behaved
appropriately, but beyond the statistical cut-offs used to derive this table (**Supplementary Table 2**).
It is also limited to proteins expressed in this T-cell model.

Conservation of Vpr targets across primate lentiviruses.
Targeting of key cellular proteins such as BST2 or the APOBEC3 family is conserved across multiple
lentiviral lineages, demonstrating the *in vivo* selective advantage of these interactions. We therefore
tested a diverse panel of lentiviral Vpr proteins for shared activity with the NL4-3 Vpr variant used in
all the experiments above. We included Vpr variants from primary isolates of HIV-1 from two distinct
cross-species transmissions from apes to humans (Group M and Group O), in addition to a closely
related SIVcpz variant. We also tested Vpr variants from divergent primate lineages, including HIV-2,
SIVsmm, SIVagm and SIVrcm (**Fig. 4a** and **Supplementary Fig. 8**). Since depletion of some substrates
switches between Vpr and Vpx, in lineages bearing this accessory gene, we also included a Vpx
variant from HIV-2.

Extensive Vpr-dependent remodelling of the cellular proteome was conserved across the HIV-
1/SIVcpz lineage (**Fig. 4b**,**c**). Vpr variants from other lineages showed a narrower set of changes, but
some proteins, particularly those most heavily depleted by HIV-1, were targeted by Vpr variants
across multiple lineages (**Fig. 4b,c,d**). Depletion of selected proteins for which commercial antibody
reagents were available was confirmed by immunoblot of cells transduced with an overlapping panel
of Vpr variants (**Fig. 4e**). Conserved targets of direct Vpr-mediated degradation (highlighted in **Fig.**
4d and **Supplementary Fig. 8c**) are likely to provide an *in vivo* replicative advantage for all primate
lentiviruses, while depletion of others depends on HIV-1/SIVcpz specific factors or are species
specific.

While none of the identified HIV-1 Vpr targets were degraded by Vpx, we did identify a shared ability
of Vpx and SIVagm Vpr to deplete TASOR, a critical component of the Human Silencing Hub (HuSH)
complex(26) (**Fig 4f**). This represents only the second known target of Vpx, in addition to
SAMHD1(27). We have previously shown that the HuSH complex mediates position-dependent
transcriptional repression of a subset of lentiviral integrations, and antagonism of HuSH is able to
potentiate HIV reactivation in the J-LAT model of latency(26). As predicted, Vpx-VLPs phenocopied
the effect of RNAi-mediated TASOR depletion on reactivation of the HuSH-sensitive J-LAT clone A1
(**Fig. 4g**).

Most primate lentiviruses can be categorised into 5 lineages (**Supplementary Fig. 8a**), of which two
encode Vpx which degrades SAMHD1. Two lineages lack Vpx, but use Vpr to degrade SAMHD1, while
the HIV-1/SIVcpz lineage lacks SAMHD1 antagonism(28). We considered that TASOR antagonism
may follow the same pattern, and thus tested Vpx proteins from both Vpx bearing lineages, and
representative Vpr variants from lineages that use Vpr to degrade SAMHD1. All of these proteins
were able to deplete TASOR in Vpx/Vpr transduced cells (**Fig. 4h**). Antagonism of SAMHD1 and
TASOR therefore follow the same pattern. Whilst this manuscript was in preparation, two other
groups independently discovered Vpx-mediated depletion of TASOR(29, 30), and the role of HuSH
antagonism in lentiviral infection is the subject of ongoing investigation.

Discussion
Proteomic analyses of cells infected with viruses from different families have revealed widespread
and varied changes to the cellular proteome (5, 31-33). While these changes are presumed to be
multifactorial, in the case of HIV-1 infection, the majority can be attributed to the action of a single
viral protein, Vpr, a surprising result that may be mirrored in other systems. Mechanistically,
depletion of proteins with nucleic acid binding properties is consistent with known structural
determinants of Vpr substrate recruitment. From the functional viewpoint, while HIV-1 has three
accessory proteins (Vpu, Nef and Vif) to aid viral replication and counteract host defences in the late
stages of the viral life cycle, Vpr is the only HIV-1 accessory protein specifically packaged in virions.
Multiple targets may therefore be required both to protect incoming virions from cellular factors,
and to prime newly infected cells for productive viral replication.

Despite its importance *in vivo*, an *in vitro* viral replication phenotype is often absent in T-cell
infection models(34). Nonetheless, expression of Vpr in T-cells causes cell cycle arrest(35, 36), cell
death(36), transactivation of the viral LTR(35), enhancement or antagonism of crucial signalling
pathways including NFAT(37) and NF-κB(38-40), disruption of PARP1 localisation(37, 40), defects in
chromatid cohesion(41) and induction of the DNA damage response(42, 43). Nonetheless, the

molecular mechanisms underpinning these phenomena have remained elusive. Our data now reveal
how diverse Vpr-dependent cell biological phenotypes, at least some of which can be segregated(36,
37), may be underpinned by dysregulation of multiple different proteins. Critically, knockdown or
inhibition of numerous proteins depleted by Vpr have been independently associated with these
effects (summarised in **Supplemental Table 3**). Antagonism of multiple proteins results in the same
phenotype, with synergistic or redundant effects, while depletion of other single proteins can
phenocopy more than one Vpr associated phenotype.

Thus, Vpr degrades multiple cellular targets, resulting in global remodeling of the host proteome,
and labyrinthine changes to different cellular pathways. This explains why its effects on viral
replication are complex and remain poorly understood, why the functional consequences of
individual Vpr targets identified and studied in isolation have proved elusive, and why the search for
a single, critical Vpr target has been problematic.

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Author Contributions

223 EJDG, JCW, NJM & PJL conceived and planned the experiments. EJDG, JCW, AS & AN carried out the
224 experiments. EJDG, JCW, NJM & PJL wrote the manuscript with input from all authors.

Experimental Procedures

NL4-3 molecular clones

pNL4-3-dE-EGFP (derived from the HIV-1 molecular clone pNL4-3 but encoding Enhanced Green
Fluorescent Protein (EGFP) in the *env* open reading frame (ORF), rendering Env non-functional) was
obtained through the AIDS Reagent Program, Division of AIDS, NIAD, NIH: Drs Haili Zhang, Yan Zhou,
and Robert Siliciano(44)and the complete sequence verified by Sanger sequencing. The ΔVpr mutant
was generated by cloning three stop codons into the Vpr open reading frame, immediately after the
overlap with Vif to prevent interference with that gene:
WT Vpr ORF sequence
ATGGAACAAGCCCCAGAAGACCAAGGGCCACAGAGGGAGCCATACAATGAATGGACACTAGAGCTTTTAGAGGAA
ΔVpr ORF sequence
ATGGAACAAGCCCCAGAAGACCAAGGGCCACAGAGGGAGCCATACAATGAATGGACACTAGAGCTTTAATAGTAA

Viral stocks

VSVg-pseudotyped NL4-3-dE-EGFP HIV viral stocks were generated by co-transfection with pMD.G
(VSVg) as previously described(5). NL4-3-dE-EGFP HIV viral stocks were titred by
infection/transduction of known numbers of relevant target cells under standard experimental
conditions followed by flow cytometry for GFP and CD4 at 48 hr to identify % infected cells.
Single Vpr and Vpx proteins were expressed in a modified dual promotor pHRSIN(45) vector in
which Vpr or Vpx expression is driven by the rous sarcoma virus (RSV) promotor, and Emerald GFP
expression is driven by the ubiquitin promotor. Virus was generated by co-transfection with p8.91
and pMD.G in 293T as previously described(5). Infectious MOI was normalised by infection in the

absence of reverse transcription (RTi) inhibitors, which were included where specified (see below).

The panel of Vpr and Vpr proteins used are detailed in **Supplementary Table 4**. Amino acid

sequences were codon optimized and synthesized as double stranded DNA (IDT), inserted into the

empty vector construct by Gibson assembly, and confirmed by sanger sequencing.

CEM-T4 T-cell infections

CEM-T4 T-cells were infected with concentrated NL4-3-dE-EGFP or pHRSIN lentiviral stocks by

spinoculation at 800 ×g for 1 h in a non-refrigerated benchtop centrifuge in complete media

supplemented with 10 mM HEPES. Where reverse transcription treatment was specified (RTi), cells

were incubated with zidovudine (10 μM) and efavirenz (100 nM) (AIDS Reagent Program, Division of

AIDS, NIAD, NIH) for 1 hr prior to spinoculation, and inhibitors maintained at these concentrations

during subsequent cell culture. For MS experiments, cells were subject to dead cell removal

(magnetic dead cell removal kit, Miltenyi). Subsequent sample preparation, TMT labelling, and MS

are described in the **supplementary methods**.

Pulsed Stable isotope labelling with amino acids in cell culture (Pulsed-SILAC)

For SILAC labelling, CEM-T4 T-cells were grown for at least 7 cell divisions in SILAC RPMI lacking

lysine and arginine (Thermo Scientific, Thermo Fisher Scientific, UK) supplemented with 10% dialysed

FCS (Gibco, Thermo Fisher Scientific), 100 units/ml penicillin and 0.1 mg/ml streptomycin, 280 mg/L

proline (Sigma, UK) and medium (K4, R6; Cambridge Isotope Laboratories, Tewksbury, MA) or heavy

(K8, R10; Cambridge Isotope Laboratories) $^{13}C/^{15}N$-containing lysine (K) and arginine (R) at 50 mg/L.

At 0 h, cells were washed in media containing only light ($^{12}C /^{14}N$) lysine and arginine and were

maintained in this media for the duration of the experiment. Additional detail on MS methods is

available in the **supplementary methods**

Mass spectrometry Immunoprecipitation (MS-IP)

CEM-T4 T-cells were lysed in 1 % NP-40. Lysates were pre-cleared with IgG-Sepharose (GE

Healthcare, UK) and incubated for 3 hr at 4°C with anti-HA coupled to agarose beads (Sigma EZview

Red Anti-HA Affinity Gel). After washing in 0.5% NP-40, samples were eluted with 0.5 mg/ml HA

peptide at 37°C for 1 hr. Additional detail on MS methods is available in the **supplementary**

methods. Proteins defined as co-immunoprecipitating with Vpr were detected with at least 3

peptides in the Vpr condition, not identified in the control condition, and were present in <20% of

MS-IP available in the Crapome(46) database http://crapome.org/.

Antibodies

Antibodies against the following proteins were used for immunoblot, by manufacturer: TASOR

(HPA006735) - Atlas. BBX (A303-151A), HLTF (A300-230A), RALY (A302-070A), ZNF512B (A303-234A)

- Bethyl. SMN1/2 (2F1) - Cell signalling. ESCO2 (NB100-87021) - Novus. UNG2 (2C12) - Origene. Vpr

(51143-I-AP) – Proteintech. CCNB1 (SC-245), ZGPAT (SC-51524) – Santa Cruz. β-actin (AC74) – Sigma.

p24 (ab9071), VCP (ab11433) – Abcam. Anti-CD4-AF647 (clone OKT4; BioLegend) and anti-CD271

(NGFR)-APC (clone ME20.4, Biolegend) were used for flow cytometry. The following secondary

antibodies were used: goat anti-mouse-HRP and anti-rabbit-HRP (immunoblot, Jackson

ImmunoResearch, West Grove, PA).

J-LAT reactivation experiments.

JLAT A1 cells were transduced with Cre recombinase, NL4-3 Vpr or HIV-2 ROD Vpx within a pHRSIN IRES NGFR vector(47). 24 h after transduction, cells were treated with 2 ng/ml TNFα (PeproTech, 300-01A). After an additional 24 h cells were stained with anti-NGFR APC and analysed for APC and GFP expression by flow cytometry. Cells were gated for NGFR+ cells to exclude non-transduced cells. Flow cytometry data was acquired on a BD FACSCalibur.

Statistical analysis

Anova and Fisher's exact test analysis were carried out as described in figure legends using Graphpad Prism (v7.04). Statistical analysis of proteomics datasets is described in detail in **supplementary methods,** briefly TMT multiplexed proteomics datasets were analysed using a moderated T-test analysis with Benjamini-Hochberg correction(48), carried out using R (v3.3.1)(49). Significance B values for pulsed SILAC analysis were calculated using Perseus(50).

Data availability

In addition to **Supplementary Table 1**, which includes data from all of the proteomics experiments carried out here, proteomics data have been deposited to the ProteomeXchange Consortium via the PRIDE(51) partner repository with the dataset identifier PXD01029.

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Figure legends

Fig. 1. Proteomic analysis of the effect of Vpr in HIV infection. a, Graphical summary of the HIV and
ΔVpr HIV infection TMT experiment. **b,** FACS plots showing the quantification of infection in an
example replicate for each of the three conditions. **c,** Scatterplots displaying pairwise comparisons
between WT, ΔVpr and mock-infected cells. Each point represents a single protein, with HIV proteins
and host proteins of interest highlighted with different symbols (see key). **d,** Principle component
analysis of the samples in this experiment.

Fig. 2. Analysis of the nature of Vpr mediated proteome remodelling.

a, Graphical summary of the Vpr viral particle TMT experiment. **b,** Scatterplot displaying pairwise
comparison between cells exposed to empty or Vpr bearing viral particles. **c,** Scatterplot comparing
pairwise comparisons from two proteomics experiments, demonstrating the effect of Vpr in the
context of HIV-1 infection (x axis, as shown in **Fig. 1a**) or through cellular exposure to Vpr protein
alone (y axis, as shown in **Fig. 2a**). **d**, scatterplots showing the pairwise comparison between each
Vpr mutant tested and empty vector control, with defined groups of 302 Vpr depleted and 413
increased proteins highlighted in blue and red respectively. **e**, Heatmap showing the behaviour of
the 100 proteins most depleted by Vpr particles (blue) and increased (red) within the defined highly
modulated subsets. Colour indicates the $\log_2$ fold change of each protein in each condition
compared to empty particle treatment. **f,** Graphical summary of the DCAF1 KD experiment. **g,**
Scatterplots showing the pairwise comparison between the 6 or 24 h timepoint with the 0 h
condition for each sh-transduced cell line.

Fig. 3. Identifying direct targets for Vpr mediated decay.

a, Graphical summary of the pulsed SILAC experiment. **b,** Scatterplots showing the changes to
protein stability of proteins after 6 or 24 hours of exposure to Vpr bearing lentivirus compared to
control lentivirus, with defined groups of 302 Vpr depleted (blue) and 413 increased (red) proteins
highlighted. **c,** Expanded view of proteins degraded within 6 hours of Vpr exposure. Significantly
degraded (Sig.B<0.01) proteins are highlighted in gold. Previously described Vpr targets HLTF,
MUS81 and ZGPAT are shown in purple. **d,** Graphical summary of the direct targets for Vpr mediated
degradation. Proteins highlighted in purple are previously described Vpr targets, proteins with red
text were predicted as potential Vpr targets based on their temporal profile of depletion in
Greenwood & Matheson, 2016(5).

Fig. 4. Identification of proteome changes conserved between human and primate lentiviral Vpr
lineages. a, Graphical summary of the TMT experiment testing conservation of Vpr functions. **b**,
Scatterplots showing the pairwise comparison between each Vpr tested and empty vector control
with defined groups of 302 Vpr depleted (blue) and 413 increased (red) proteins highlighted. **c,**
Heatmap showing the behaviour of the 100 proteins most depleted by Vpr particles (blue) and
increased (red) within the defined highly modulated subsets. Colour indicates the $\log_2$ fold change of
each protein in each condition compared to empty vector virus transduction. **d,** Bar chart showing
the significantly Vpr depleted group showing profound (more than 50%) depletion in more than one
lineage, of the four lineages tested (HIV-1/SIVcpz, HIV-2/SIVsmm, SIVagm, SIVrcm). Gold bars
indicate proteins identified as direct targets for Vpr mediated degradation, DCAF1, known to interact
with multiple lineages, is highlight in purple. **e**, Immunoblot of example known, non-conserved and
conserved targets of Vpr mediated depletion. N.B. The HIV-2 Vpr is a primary isolate HIV-2 Vpr
(7312a), while the proteomics experiment included HIV-2 ROD Vpr. **f,** Scatterplots showing the
pairwise comparison between each Vpr tested and empty vector control with HuSH complex
components highlighted. **g**, Bar graph of GFP percentage positive of JLAT-A1 cells after transduction
with control (Cre recombinase), Vpr or Vpx proteins and treatment with TNFα. Mean and SEM of
three biological replicates per condition are shown. p-values determined by ordinary one-way
ANOVA with Bonferroni comparison between Vpr/Vpx treatment and control treated cells. **h,**
Immunoblot of TASOR in cells transduced with a panel of Vpx and Vpr proteins.

Figure 1

Figure 2

Figure 3

ND: Not detected in this experiment
NS: Degraded with Sig.B >0.01

Figure 4

Supplementary Figure & Table legends

Supplementary Fig. 1. Example proteins modulated by Vpr

a, Scatterplots displaying pairwise comparisons between WT, ΔVpr and mock-infected cells. Vpr depleted proteins identified in this work are highlighted in blue, UNG, ZGPAT and HLTF are previously identified targets for Vpr mediated degradation, shown in purple, while CCNB1 is increased by Vpr (red). **b,** Scatterplot displaying pairwise comparison between cells exposed to empty or Vpr bearing viral particles. **c,** Scatterplot comparing pairwise comparisons from two proteomics experiments, demonstrating the effect of Vpr in the context of HIV-1 infection (as shown in **Fig.1a**, x-axis) or through cellular exposure to Vpr protein alone (**Fig. 2a**, y-axis). **d,** Bar charts showing the Vpr mediated changes in protein abundance in both proteomics experiments of the proteins highlighted in this figure. **e,** Immunoblot of proteins highlighted in this figure.

Supplementary Fig. 2. Effect of DCAF1 Knockdown on Vpr modulated proteins.

Scatterplots displaying pairwise comparison between Sh-Control and Sh-DCAF1 cells, with defined groups of 302 Vpr depleted (blue) and 413 increased (red) proteins highlighted. DCAF1 is highlighted in purple.

Supplementary Fig. 3. Additional details of the Vpr WT and Mutant experiment in Fig. 2.

a, Immunoblot of purified virus preparations used to infect cells for the proteomics experiment displayed in **Fig 2a**. **b,** Bar chart showing the average scaled abundance of matrix, capsid and integrase peptides detected in the cell lysate by MS. Bars show mean and standard deviation. **c,** 7-AAD stain of cells exposed to empty vector, or Vpr wild type or Vpr mutants. Gate shows the percentage of cells with 4n DNA content.

Supplementary Fig. 4. Cell cycle regulation of Vpr modulated proteins.

a, Ly, 2015 contains a proteomic analysis of NB4 cells treated with RO-3306 cells arrested in G2/M with the PLK1 inhibtor RO-3306. Scatterplot showing the pairwise comparison of abundance of proteins isolated from RO-3306 treated vs mock treated cells. Groups of proteins defined in the current study of 302 Vpr depleted (blue) and 413 increased (red) proteins are highlighted, indicating the behaviour of these proteins in NB4 cells arrested at G2/M.

b, Correlation of the Vpr mediated change in cyclin abundance in the present study (x-axis), with RO-3306 mediated changes in NB4 cells in Ly, 2015. Changes in cyclin abundance in HIV infection are assumed to be secondary to cell cycle arrest, and thus this correlation indicates the concordance between effects secondary to cell cycle arrest between the two datasets.

c, Pie charts showing the overlap between changes in the present study and changes induced by G2/M arrest in Ly, 2015. Left panel shows the behaviour of all proteins quantified in both the present study (**Fig.1a** and **Fig.2a**) and Ly, 2015, i.e. a total of 1643 proteins were quantified in both datasets, of which 1100 proteins did not significantly change in G2/M arrest, 260 proteins were significantly depleted in G2/M arrested cells, and 283 proteins were significantly increased in G2/M arrested cells. Middle panel shows the behaviour the defined group of 302 Vpr depleted proteins. I.e. of 302 proteins, a total of 90 proteins were detected in Ly, 2015, 58 of which did not significantly change in G2/M arrest, 18 were significantly depleted in G2/M arrest and 14 were significantly increased in G2/M arrest. † Indicates the fraction in each case where the change induced by cell

cycle arrest is in the same direction as the effect of Vpr, i.e. the fraction for which cell cycle arrest
could explain the Vpr mediated protein changes. Right panel shows the behaviour of the defined
group of 413 Vpr increased proteins.

d, Fischer, 2016, define lists of 115 proteins whose expression peaks in G1/S phase and 174 proteins
whose expression peaks in G2/M phase. Pie-charts show the overlap between these lists and (left)
all proteins detected in the present study, (middle) proteins defined as being depleted by Vpr, and
(right) proteins defined as being increased by Vpr. As in the proteomics dataset, there is some
enrichment of proteins with peak expression in G2/M within Vpr increased proteins, and some
enrichment of proteins with peak expression in G1/S in Vpr depleted proteins, consistent with some
effects being secondary to cell cycle arrest, but these effects are in the minority.

Supplementary Fig. 5. Vpr mediated depletion of proteins predicted to be Vpr targets based on
their temporal profile in HIV-1 infection.

Scatterplots displaying pairwise comparisons between WT, ΔVpr and mock-infected cells (left and
middle, as in **Fig.1c**) or between Vpr viral particle and empty viral particle treated cells (right, as in
Fig.2b). Highlighted are a group of 13 proteins were identified in Greenwood & Matheson, 2015(5),
as having a highly similar temporal profile of HIV mediated depletion as that of known Vpr targets
UNG and HLTF.

Supplementary Fig. 6. Gene ontology enrichment within Vpr modulated proteins.

a, All significant (FDR q<0.05) enriched gene ontology molecular function terms with (left) Vpr
depleted and (right) Vpr increased proteins. Minimally redundant terms of interest are highlighted in
bold. **b,** All Significant (FDR q<0.05) enriched gene ontology cellular compartment terms with (top)
Vpr depleted and (bottom) Vpr increased proteins.

Supplementary Fig. 7. MS-IP approach to identify direct targets for Vpr mediated degradation.

a, Graphical summary of the MS-IP experiment. MLN4924 is a pan-Cullin inhibitor. **b,** 20 most
abundant proteins identified by Co-IP determined by unique peptides. Proteins falling within the
defined list of 302 Vpr depleted and 413 Vpr increased proteins are highlighted in blue and red
respectively. Cul4A, which is neither depleted or increased, but is predicted to co-IP with Vpr, is
shown in black. **c,** The same 20 proteins with signal intensity rather than peptide number shown. **d,**
Pie chart indicating the overlap between the proteins co-immunoprecipitated with Vpr and the
defined list of 302 Vpr decreased (blue) and 413 Vpr increased proteins (red), and proteins detected
but falling into neither list (grey). **e,** Bar chart showing the enrichment of Vpr depleted and Vpr
increased proteins within proteins co-immunoprecipitated with Vpr compared to the expected
numbers of proteins that would be co-immunopreciptated from each group by chance. p-value
indicates a Fisher's exact test of a 2x2 contingency table (Vpr depleted/increased, identified by co-
IP/not identified), indicating that the two criteria are significantly linked.

Supplementary Fig. 8. Additional information relating to expanded panel of primate lentiviral Vpr
and Vpx varients.

a, Phylogenetic tree of primate lentiviruses based on an alignment of Vif nucleic acid sequences,
with 5 major lineages of primate lentiviruses labelled. Information on Vpr and Vpx activity based on
a selected number of isolates tested in each lineage in Lim, 2012(28) **b** 7-AAD stain of cells
transduced with empty vector or Vpr/Vpx proteins. Gate shows the percentage of cells with 4n DNA
content. **c,** Scatterplots displaying pairwise comparisons between Vpr/Vpx transduced cells and

empty vector. Labelled proteins are direct targets for Vpr mediated degradation that are depleted by
Vpr varients from at least 3 different lineages.

Supplementary table 1. Interactive database of protein changes in the datasets presented here.

Supplementary table 2. Behaviour of previously described Vpr targets in these datasets

Supplementary table 3. Connections between Vpr depleted proteins and known Vpr phenotypes
Underlined proteins have been identified here as direct targets for Vpr mediated depletion.

Supplementary table 4. Vpr and Vpx variants tested.

Supplementary Fig.1

Supplementary Fig.2

Sh-DCAF1 vs Sh Cntrl

DCAF-1

Log$_{10}$ intensity

Log$_2$ (fold change)

-2   -1   0   1   2

Supplementary Fig.3

a

Purified Virus

IB: Vpr
Antibody binding may be affected by presence of amino acid changes.

b

Cell Lysate

Scaled ppeptide abunfance

Gag-Pol
peptide abundance

c

Empty vector
27%

DCAF-1 binding mutant

G2 arrest mutant

Substrate binding mutants

WT
43%

Q65R
24%

S79A
26%

E26R, R36P
33%

W54R
43%

Y47A, D52A, W54R
27%

7-AAD

Supplementary Fig. 6

a

GO: Molecular Function

b

GO:Cellular Compartment

a

✕ Predicted Vpr target group in Greenwood & Matheson, 2016

Supplementary Fig. 4

a   Ly, 2015, Proteomics in G2/M arrested cells using PLK1 inhibitor RO-3306

b

RO-3306 vs Mock

-Log$_2$ (q value)

q<0.05
q>0.05

Log$_2$ (fold change)

Cyclins

r^2=0.81
P=0.01

Log$_2$(RO-3306 VS Mock)

Log$_2$ (HIV-1 WT / ΔVpr)

c

All Quantified — 260, 283, 1100

Vpr depleted — 18 †, 14, 58

Vpr increased — 7, 24 †, 42

- Significantly depleted in G2/M arrested cells
- Significantly increased in G2/M arrested cells
- Not significantly changed by G2/M arrest

d   Fischer, 2016 - Transcriptional anlalysis

All Quantified — 102, 160, 6657

Vpr depleted — 14 †, 3, 285

Vpr increased — 12, 37 †, 364

- Peak G1/S
- Peak G2/M
- Not identified as peaking in either phase

Supplementary Fig.7

Supplementary Fig.8

Supplementary Table 1 - example

Enter **gene name** here ↓

KIF18B

	Gene ID found	Single ID?	Unique peptides
WT/ΔVpr (Fig.1a)	Yes	Yes	13
VLP experiment (Fig 2a)	Yes	Yes	5
shDCAF experiment (Fig 2)	Yes	Yes	16
Pulsed SILAC 6 h (Fig.3)	Yes	Yes	8
Pulsed SILAC 24 h (Fig.3)	Yes	Yes	6
MS-IP (Supplementary Fig.7)	Not found	Not found	Not found
Vpr/Vpx varients (Figure 4a)	Yes	Yes	11

Instructions and notes for use

Use this sheet to explore how indiviudal proteins of interest behave in the datasets presented in this work.

Enter the <u>gene name</u> of interest above and graphs will be populated on the right.

If no data is found, you may not be using the correct gene name (e.g. must enter BST2, not Tetherin or BST-2).

Proteins identified with fewer than three petpides may have less accurate quantifiction. Proteins quantified with fewer than three peptides are excluded from downstream analysis unless assayed in triplicate, but the data is included here.

Where a gene is represented by >1 UniProt ID (fragments, isoforms and variants), 'Single ID?' column above will read the number of accessions related to that gene name within that dataset- graphs will still be populated but other isoforms should be checked manually in the accompanying datasets. Number of protein isoforms, unique peptdies, and the presence and absence of proteins vary across the datasets.

Here, each Uniprot accession is associated only with a single gene name. Where a one Uniprot accession is normally associated with more than one gene, only the first gene is searchable - e.g. SMN1 and SMN2 share a uniprot accession, and are only searchable as SMN1.

WT and ΔVpr infection (Fig.1a)

Comparison	Log2 (Fold change)	q-value
WT vs Mock	-1.22	4.1E-06
ΔVpr vs Mock	0.11	2.1E-01
WT vs ΔVpr	-1.34	4.4E-06

Viral particles (Fig. 2a)

Comparison	Log2 (Fold change)	q-value
WT vs Mock	-1.84	9.6E-05

Sh-DCAF1 (Fig. 2f)

Pulsed-SILAC (Fig. 3a)

IP-MS (Supplementary Fig. 7a)

Vpr / Vpx panel, (Fig. 4a)

Supplementary Table 2

Accession	Gene	Vpr necessary	Incoming Vpr sufficient	Degraded within 6 h	Co-IP	In direct target list (Fig. 3d)?
Q14527	HLTF	Yes	Yes	Yes	-	Yes
Q7L590	MCM10	Yes	Yes	ND	-	No - Not detected in 6 hour pulse SILAC or IP
Q8N5A5	ZGPAT	Yes	Yes	Yes	-	Yes
Q96AY2	EME1	Yes	Yes	NS	-	No - depleted but with a Sig.B value of >0.01 in the pulsed SILAC experiment, not detected in IP
Q96NY9	MUS81	Yes	Yes	Yes	-	Yes
Q6N021	TET2	Yes	ND	ND	-	No - Not detected in incoming Vpr experiment (Fig. 2a)
P13051	UNG	Yes	Yes	NS	-	No - depleted but with a Sig.B value of >0.01 in the pulsed SILAC experiment. Detected in the Co-IP but with a single peptide

Supplementary Table 3

RNAi depletion or chemical inhibition of these Vpr depleted proteins:	Results in this Vpr associated phenotype:
ESCO2(48), KIF18A(49), HASPIN(50), GNL3L(51), NUSAP1(53), KIF20A(54), PHF8(55), MCM10(56), WT1(57), RECQL5(58)	Cell cycle arrest at G2/M
SMN1(60), DDX20(61), RIOK3(62), SENP6(63)	Enhancement/stimulation of NF-κB signalling
GNL3L(64), CCNT1(65), PINX1(66), WRN(67)	Inhibition of NF-κB signalling
ESCO2(48), HASPIN(68), CDCA5(69)	Premature chromatid segregation.

Supplementary Table 4

Vpr Species	Genbank Accession	Data presented in:
HIV-1 NL4-3	AF324493.2(70)	All figures.
HIV-1 98BR004 (Clade C)	AAK31002.1(71)	Proteomics experiment (Fig. 4a-d), I.B. (Fig.4e)
HIV-1 BCF09 (Group O)	CAA75954.1	Proteomics experiment (Fig. 4a-d)
SIVcpzPtt MB897	ABU53019.1(72)	Proteomics experiment (Fig. 4a-d), I.B. (Fig.4e)
SIVrcm 02CM8081	ADK78264.1(73)	Proteomics experiment (Fig. 4a-d), I.B. (Fig.4e)
SIVagm Sab92018	ADO34202.1(74)	Proteomics experiment (Fig. 4a-d), I.B. (Fig.4e), I.B. (Fig. 4h)
SIVsmm E660	ANT86736.1(75)	Proteomics experiment (Fig. 4a-d), I.B. (Fig.4e)
HIV-2 ROD	CAA28911.1(76)	Proteomics experiment (Fig. 4a-d)
HIV-2 7312a	AAL31354.1	I.B. (Fig.4e), I.B. (Fig. 4h)
SIVmus 01CM1239	ABO61047.1(77)	I.B. (Fig.4e), I.B. (Fig. 4h)

Vpx

Species	Genbank Accession	Data presented in:
HIV-2 ROD	AAB00766.1(76)	Proteomics experiment (Fig. 4a-d)
HIV-2 7312a	AAL31353.1	I.B. (Fig. 4h)
SIVrcm Ng411	AAK69676.1(78)	I.B. (Fig. 4h)
SIVmnd-2 5440	AAO22477.1 (79)	I.B. (Fig. 4h)

 Supplementary methods

Gene ontology enrichment analysis

Analysis was carried out using Panther(80), using the web interface at: http://pantherdb.org/. Lists

of proteins highly significantly depleted or increased by Vpr were compared to a background list of

proteins quantified in the two experiments used to define those lists.

7-AAD staining

Cells were fixed in ice cold 70% ethanol for at least 30 minutes, washed with PBS and stained in

25ug/ml 7-AAD for 15 minutes before acquisition on a BD FACSCalibur.

Phylogenetic tree of Vif sequences.

An existing nucleic acid sequence alignment of 191 representative Vif sequences from HIV-1, HIV-2

and SIVs from 22 primate species was downloaded from:

https://www.hiv.lanl.gov/content/sequence/NEWALIGN/align.html

A tree was generated using the percentage identity average distance in jalview(81) and visualised in

Figtree:

http://tree.bio.ed.ac.uk/software/figtree/

10 sequences from 5 primate species not falling into the 5 highlighted linages are not shown.

Sample Preparation for Mass spectrometry

Samples were prepared using three different methods depending on the experiment. Initial infection

experiment was by SDC-FASP. VLP and shRNA experiments were by PreOmics NHS-iST sample

preparation Kit. pSILAC and MS-IP experiments were by SP3.

SDC-FASP

Samples prepared essentially according to the protocol in Leon *et al*(82). Briefly samples were lysed

in 50mM TEAB (pH8.5) 2% SDS, reduced and alkylated with TCEP/Iodoacetamide, quantified by BCA

assay. 50ug of each sample was diluted with TEAB/8M urea for loading onto 30kDa ultrafiltration

devices. Samples were washed 3 times with 500uL urea buffer and 3 times with digestion buffer

(TEAB/0.5% sodium deoxycholate) before resuspending in 50uL digestion buffer containing 1ug

trypsin and incubating overnight at 37 degrees. After digestion samples were spun through the filters

and filters washed with 50uL TEAB. SDC was removed by acidification and two phase partitioning with

ethyl acetate before vacuum drying and labelling with TMT reagents according to the manufacturer's

instructions.

PreOmics iST

Samples lysed in kit lysis buffer and quantified by BCA assay. 25ug of each sample was digested

essentially according to manufacturer's instructions, scaling volumes for a digestion of 25ug total

protein.

SP3

Samples were lysed in 50mM TEAB (pH8.5) 2% SDS (MS-IPs were adjusted to 2% SDS), reduced and
alkylated with TCEP/Iodoacetamide before digestion using the SP3 method(83). Briefly, carboxylate
modified paramagnetic beads are added to the sample and protein is bound to the beads by
acidification with formic acid and addition of acetonitrile (ACN, final 50%). The beads are then washed
sequentially with 100% ACN, 70% Ethanol (twice) and 100% ACN. 10-20uL TEAB (Triethylammonium
bicarbonate) pH8 and 0.1% Sodium deoxycholate (SDC) is then added to the washed beads along with
trypsin. Samples were then incubated overnight at 37 degrees with periodic shaking at 2000rpm. After
digestion, peptides are immobilised on beads by addition of 200-400uL ACN and washed twice with
100uL ACN before eluting in 19uL 2% DMSO and removing the eluted peptide from the beads.

Off-line high pH reversed-phase (HpRP) peptide fractionation

For whole cell proteome samples HpRP fractionation was conducted on an Ultimate 3000 UHPLC
system (Thermo Scientific) equipped with a 2.1 mm × 15 cm, 1.7µ Aqcuity BEH C18 column (Waters,
UK). Solvent A was 3% ACN, Solvent B was 100% ACN, solvent C was 200 mM ammonium formate (pH
10). Throughout the analysis solvent C was kept at a constant 10%. The flow rate was 400 µL/min and
UV was monitored at 280 nm. Samples were loaded in 90% A for 10 min before a gradient elution of
0–10% B over 10 min (curve 3), 10-34% B over 21 min (curve 5), 34-50% B over 5 mins (curve 5)
followed by a 10 min wash with 90% B. 15 s (100 µL) fractions were collected throughout the run.
Peptide containing fractions were orthogonally recombined into 24 fractions (i.e. fractions 1, 25, 49,
73, 97 combined) and dried in a vacuum centrifuge. Fractions were stored at −80°C prior to analysis.

Mass spectrometry

Data were acquired on an Orbitrap Fusion mass spectrometer (Thermo Scientific) coupled to an
Ultimate 3000 RSLC nano UHPLC (Thermo Scientific). HpRP fractions were resuspended in 20 µl 5%
DMSO 0.5% TFA and 10uL injected. Fractions were loaded at 10 µl/min for 5 min on to an Acclaim
PepMap C18 cartridge trap column (300 um × 5 mm, 5 um particle size) in 0.1% TFA. After loading a
linear gradient of 3–32% solvent B was used for sample separation over a column of the same
stationary phase (75 µm × 50 cm, 2 µm particle size) before washing at 90% B and re-equilibration.
Solvents were A: 0.1% FA and B:ACN/0.1% FA. 3h gradients were used for whole cell proteomics
samples, 1h gradients for MS-IPs.

An SPS/MS3 acquisition was used for TMT experiments and was run as follows. MS1: Quadrupole
isolation, 120'000 resolution, 5e5 AGC target, 50 ms maximum injection time, ions injected for all
parallelisable time. MS2: Quadrupole isolation at an isolation width of m/z 0.7, CID fragmentation
(NCE 35) with the ion trap scanning out in rapid mode from m/z 120, 8e3 AGC target, 70 ms maximum
injection time, ions accumulated for all parallelisable time. In synchronous precursor selection mode
the top 10 MS2 ions were selected for HCD fragmentation (65NCE) and scanned out in the orbitrap at
50'000 resolution with an AGC target of 2e4 and a maximum accumulation time of 120 ms, ions were
not accumulated for all parallelisable time. The entire MS/MS/MS cycle had a target time of 3s.
Dynamic exclusion was set to +/−10 ppm for 90 s, MS2 fragmentation was trigged on precursor ions
5e3 counts and above. For MS-IPs, MS2 instead used HCD fragmentation (NCE 34) and a maximum
injection time of 250ms and had a target cycle time of 2s. For pSILAC MS1 was acquired at 240'000
resolution.

Data processing and analysis

For TMT labelled samples data were searched by Mascot within Proteome Discoverer 2.1 in two
rounds of searching. First search was against the UniProt Human reference proteome (26/09/17), the
HIV proteome and compendium of common contaminants (GPM). The second search took all
unmatched spectra from the first search and searched against the human trEMBL database (Uniprot,
26/09/17). The following search parameters were used. MS1 Tol: 10 ppm, MS2 Tol: 0.6 Da. Enzyme:
Trypsin (/P). MS3 spectra were used for reporter ion based quantitation with a most confident
centroid tolerance of 20 ppm. PSM FDR was calculated using Mascot percolator and was controlled at
0.01% for 'high' confidence PSMs and 0.05% for 'medium' confidence PSMs. Normalisation was
automated and based on total s/n in each channel. Protein/peptide abundance was calculated and
output in terms of 'scaled' values, where the total s/n across all reporter channels is calculated and a
normalised contribution of each channel is output. Proteins/peptides satisfying at least a 'medium'
FDR confidence were taken forth to statistical analysis in R. This consisted of a moderated T-test
(Limma) with Benjamini-Hochberg correction for multiple hypotheses to provide a q value for each
comparison(84). MS-IPs were submitted to a similar search workflow with quantitative data being
derived from MS1 spectra via proteome discover minora feature detector node. For pSILAC
experiments data were processed in MaxQuant and searched using Andromeda with similar search
parameters(85). MaxQuant output was uploaded into Perseus for calculation of significance B(86).
Where conditions were not carried out in triplicate, downstream analysis was limited to proteins
identified with at least 3 unique peptides.

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