



의학박사 학위논문

The Role of SENP2 in Metabolism of Brown Adipose Tissue

갈색지방조직에서 SENP2의 대사적 역할 규명

February 2023

서울대학교 대학원 내과학

최 훈 지

The Role of SENP2 in Metabolism of Brown Adipose Tissue

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Submitting a Ph.D. Dissertation of Medicine

October 2022

Graduate School of Seoul National University Internal Medicine Major

Confirming the Ph.D. Dissertation January 2023

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Abstract

Brown adipose tissue (BAT) is a metabolically active endocrine organ. Activation of BAT contributes to increased energy expenditure through systemic glucose and lipid utilization. SENP2 is a post-translational protein modifier that is involved in regulation of metabolism in different tissues. How SENP2 may modulate BAT activity has not been elucidated yet.

Here, I demonstrate that SENP2 is involved in effective adaptive thermogenesis by increasing the transcriptional activity of UCP1. BAT-specific *Senp2* knockout (*Senp2*-BKO, *Ucp1*-Cre; *Senp2*^{t/f}) mice showed normal adipogenesis and growth. These mice were, however, intolerant to acute cold exposure and were more insulin resistant in response to high fat diet than controls. Mechanistically, knockdown of *Senp2* in brown adipocytes resulted in reduced levels of *Ucp1* and *Cidea* through SUMOylation of PGC-1 α and ERR α . Specifically, deSUMOylation of ERR α enhanced the synergistic effect of ERR α /PGC-1 α complex.

Collectively, these results suggest that SENP2 is intimately involved in modulating the activity of BAT through deSUMOylation of ERR α /PGC-1 α complex, especially ERR α . Activation of BAT through SENP2 may be a potential therapeutic target in ameliorating metabolic stress.

Keyword: Brown adipose tissue, SENP2, metabolism, UCP1, ERR α , PGC-1 α Student Number: 2019-38931

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Chapter 1. The Role of SENP2 in Brown Adipose Tissue

1. Introduction

Recently, brown adipose tissue (BAT), a thermogenic fat that dissipate energy as heat, has garnered much attention as a therapeutic target for metabolic diseases [1, 2]. Ample evidence that supports the presence of metabolically active BAT in adult humans have generated enthusiasm [3–8], as activated BAT not only contributes to non-shivering thermogenesis (NST), but also increases energy expenditure by increasing the utilization of free fatty acids and glucose. In a retrospective study that reviewed 52,487 patients with or without detected BAT activity on ¹⁸F-FDG positron emission tomography-computed tomography scans, propensity score matched analysis revealed lower prevalence of cardiometabolic diseases in individuals with active BAT [9].

SUMO (small ubiquitin-related modifier) is a reversible posttranslational protein modifier [10-12]. The exquisiteness of this enzyme comes from the enigmatic consequence of SUMOylation and SUMOvlation deSUMOvlation. process closely resembles ubiquitylation in that it requires an enzymatic cascade that involves activation of a mature SUMO protein, conjugation, and transfer which is catalyzed by E3 ligases [13]. While ubiquitylation typically results in degradation, SUMOylation may induce alteration in cellular localization, activity, or stability of proteins depending on the target. SUMO proteins can be deSUMOylated by SUMOspecific proteases (SENPs) - namely, SENP1, 2, 3, 5, 6, and 7 in mammals – with different substrate species and cellular location.

Of these, SENP2 undertakes eminent metabolic roles in different organs. In skeletal muscle, SENP2 increases fatty acid oxidation (FAO) via deSUMOylation of peroxisome proliferator activated receptor (PPAR) proteins. By recruiting deSUMOylated

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PPAR δ and PPAR γ to the promoters of FAO associated enzymes i.e., carnitine palmitoyl transferase-1 (CPT1b) and long-chain acyl-CoA synthetase 1 (ACSL1), HFD-induced obesity was ameliorated in the transgenic mice with muscle specific SENP2 overexpression [14]. In pancreatic β cells, SENP2 deSUMOylates dynamin-related protein 1 (DRP1) to increase DRP1 phosphorylation, and in turn improves mitochondrial function and insulin secretion upon metabolic stress [15].

Previous studies have demonstrated the effect of SENP2 in the early stages of adipogenesis in BAT and white adipose tissue (WAT) [16, 17]. However, SENP2 is highly expressed in adipose tissue not only in the early stages of development but also in mature adult stage [18]. We recently demonstrated that in WAT, SENP2 is intimately involved not only during the process of adipogenesis but also in maintaining white adipocyte identity through stabilization of C/EBP β [18]. Specifically, when *Senp2* was knocked out from both BAT and WAT using *Adipoq* (encoding adiponectin)-Cre (*Senp2*-aKO), browning was induced in WAT, exerting a beneficial effect on whole-body metabolism.

Intriguingly, while the metabolic phenotype was improved in the *Senp2*-aKO owing to the browning of WAT, whitening of BAT was observed upon HFD feeding. White-like unilocular adipocytes outnumbered the typical multilocular brown adipocytes when the mice were fed with HFD, suggesting that BAT of HFD-fed *Senp2*-aKO mice are not able to efficiently utilize lipid during energy overload. However, no study has yet investigated the metabolic effect of SENP2 in mature BAT.

In this study, I have generated BAT-specific knockout mice using *Ucp1*-Cre (*Senp2*-BKO) to address the metabolic role of SENP2 in BAT. I examined the phenotypes both at basal condition and in the context of HFD. As heat production is the principal function of BAT, thermogenic response was also inspected during acute cold exposure.

2. Methods and Materials

Mice

All animal experiments in this study were performed in compliance with protocols approved by the Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee (IACUC) at Seoul National University Bundang Hospital (IACUC No. 20-2011-C1AO, IRB number 3520160103). Mice bearing a LoxP-flanked *Senp2* allele (*Senp2*^{flox/+} mice) were generated by the inGenious Targeting Laboratory (Stony Brook, NY, USA). *Ucp1*-Cre transgenic mice were purchased from Jackson Laboratory. Brown adipose tissue *Senp2* conditional knockout mice was generated by serially crossing *Senp2*^{f/f} mice with *Ucp1*-Cre transgenic mice.

Experiments were conducted using 12-24-week-old male mice. Unless otherwise specified, mice were housed at 22-24°C, maintained on a 12-hour light/dark cycle, and had *ad libitum* access to standard pelleted chow or high-fat diet (HFD; 58 kcal% fat with sucrose, D12331; Research Diets, New Brunswick, NJ, USA) and water. Body weight was measured weekly, and food and water intake were calculated by weighing the food/water given and remaining. For mice fed with HFD, HFD was started in 8-week-old mice and were continued for 12 weeks. Body composition was assessed by dual-energy X-ray absorptiometry (DXA), LUNAR Prodigy scanner with software version 8.10 (GE Healthcare, PA, USA). Oxygen consumption, carbon dioxide production, heat production, and locomotor activity were measured using Comprehensive Lab Animal Monitoring System (CLAMS; Columbus Instruments, Columbus, OH, USA).

Acute cold exposure

For cold exposure experiments, mice were placed in 4°C chamber and core body temperature was measured using rectal probe attached to a digital thermometer. Mice had free access to

water only and were sacrificed immediately after 6 hours of cold exposure for analysis.

Glucose and insulin tolerance test

For glucose tolerance test (GTT), mice fasted for 16 hours were intraperitoneally (IP) injected with glucose (2 and 1 g/kg body weight for mice fed with chow diet and HFD, respectively). For insulin tolerance test (ITT), mice fasted for 6 h were IP injected with human insulin (1 U/kg body weight). Blood glucose levels were measured at 0, 15, 30, 60, and 120 minutes from tail vein using OneTouch Ultra glucometer (LifeScan, Milpitas, CA, USA).

Laboratory parameters

Serum insulin level was assessed with Mouse Ultrasensitive Insulin ELISA kit (ALPCO, NH, USA) using 25 μ L and 5 μ L serum for mice fed with chow diet and HFD, respectively. Triacylglycerol (TG) levels (Cayman Chemical, Ann Arbor, MI, USA) and free fatty acid (FFA) levels (BioVision, CA, USA) were determined by colorimetric assays.

RNA Sequencing

Total RNA of the BAT was isolated using RNeasy mini kit (QIAGEN, Hilden, Germany) according to the manufacturer's protocol. RNA-Seq libraries were prepared by TruSeq Stranded mRNA LT Sample Prep Kit (Illumina). The libraries were sequenced, and the reads were aligned to mouse transcriptome (UCSC gene) and genome (mm10) references, respectively, using HISAT2 version 2.1.0 and Bowtie2 2.3.4.1. Trimming tasks for illumina paired-end and single ended data of each sample's FASTQ files was performed using Trimmomatic 0.38. Transcript assembly was performed using the StringTie program and RLE normalization was processed after filtering the genes with low quality. Specifically, genes with more than 50% of 0 read counts were excluded from the

analysis. From the read counts and Transcripts Per Kilobase Million (TPM), differential gene expression analysis was performed with DESeq2 R statistical package using the criteria of $|\log 2$ fold change $| \geq 2$ and nbinomWaldTest raw P < 0.05. Gene Set Enrichment Analysis (GSEA) were utilized to retrieve Gene Ontology (GO) and Kyoto Encyclopedia of Genes and Genomes (KEGG) pathway data.

Western blot analysis

Tissues and cells were lysed in 20 mM pH 7.4 Tris-HCl, 1 0 mM Na₄P₂O₇, 100 mM NaF, 2 mM Na₃VO₄, 1% NP-40 buffer supplemented with protease inhibitor (10 μ g/ μ l aprotinin, 10 μ g/ μ l luepeptin and 1 mM PMSF). The lysates were sonicated two times for 15 seconds each, and the supernatant was collected and quantified after removing cell debris by centrifugation (13,000 rpm for 30 min at 4°C). A total of 5 µg BAT proteins were separated on the SDS-PAGE. Separated proteins were transferred onto nitrocellulose membrane (Whatman, Dassel, Germany). The membrane was blocked with 5% skim milk in Tween20-Trisbuffered saline for 1 hour at room temperature and incubated with the specific primary antibody for overnight at 4°C. Membranes were probed with specific antibodies and bands were visualized by enhanced chemiluminescence (Pierce, IL, USA).

Histological analysis

Tissues were harvested and fixed with 4% paraformaldehyde (Biosesang, Gyeonggi-do, Korea) overnight at 4°C, dehydrated, paraffin-embedded, and sectioned prior to hematoxylin and eosin (H&E) staining. Paraffin-embedded sections of brown and white adipose tissues were subjected to immunohistochemistry staining with PLIN 1 (Santa Cruz, CA, USA) and UCP1 (1:100, Abcam, Cambridge, UK) antibodies according to the manufacturer's instructions. Images were acquired using Upright microscope (NIKON, ECLPSE Ci-L, NY, USA) and diameters of lipid droplets were measured using Leica software.

Statistical analysis

All animal experiments were repeated at least twice and reproduced. Statistical analyses were performed using IBM SPSS Statistics (version 28.0; IBM Corp., Armonk, NY) and R, version 4.1.2 (The R Foundation for Statistical Computing, Vienna, Austria) (https://www.R-project.org). All data are represented as mean \pm s.e.m. unless otherwise specified. Unpaired Student's t-tests were used for two-group comparisons. One-way ANOVA followed by the Tukey's test was used for multiple-group comparisons. The statistical parameters and mouse numbers used per experiment are specified in the figure legends. P < 0.05 was considered to be significant throughout the study.

3. Results

Loss of SENP2 in mature BAT does not affect adipogenesis

To elucidate the metabolic role of SENP2 in brown adipocytes *in vivo*, Cre/loxP system was used to generate BAT-specific *Senp2* knockout mouse (*Senp2*-BKO). Specifically, exon 3 of *Senp2* was deleted by breeding the *UCP1*-Cre driver strain with a *Senp2*^{t/f} mouse strain (Figure 1). When compared to the $Senp2^{t/f}$ littermates, the expression of *Senp2* was selectively and markedly reduced in BAT of the *Senp2*-BKO, without affecting other members of *Senp* family in BAT (Figure 2A, B).

In the mice fed with standard chow diet, both the control groups and the *Senp2*–BKO mice showed similar patterns of food and water intake (Figure 3A). There was no difference in the body weight nor in the body composition (Figure 3B, C). The respiratory and metabolic parameters were also similar between the groups (Figure 4A, B, C). When examined at 12–weeks of age, BAT as well as other organs including inguinal WAT, epididymal WAT, and liver were morphologically similar, and their mass did not differ between the two groups (Figure 5A, B). Histological analysis showed typical multilocular lipid droplets in the BAT of both groups (Figure 6).

The gene expression profile showed similar levels of *Fabp4* and *Pparg*, implying a similar extent of adipogenesis between the two groups (Figure 7). The levels of *Ucp1* and *Cidea* were slightly decreased in *Senp2*-BKO mice, although *Ucp1* narrowly eluded statistical significance (P = 0.053).



Figure 1. Generation of Senp2-BKO mouse

Senp2 brown adipocyte specific-knockout mice (Senp2-BKO) were generated by mating $Senp2^{flox/flox}$ with Ucp1-Cre transgenic mice (Jackson lab). Specifically, a targeting vector was generated using a BAC clone (C57BL/6, RPC23:255D9 clone) containing an 8.36 kb fragment of Senp2 genomic DNA. Six independent $Senp2^{flox/+}$ embryonic stem cell clones were identified and injected into C57BL/6 blastocysts to generate chimeric mice. The chimeric mice were bred with wild type C57BL/6 mice for germline transmission. Heterozygous mice were then crossed with Flipper mice expressing flp-recombinase in the germline (Jackson lab, USA) to delete the FRT-flanked Neo cassette to create the desired $Senp2^{flox/+ allele}$.



Figure 2. Expression of Senp2 in Senp2^{f/f} and Senp2-BKO mice Fig 2A. Expression of Senp2 in adipose tissues and liver. Senp2 was selectively knocked out in brown adipose tissue (BAT). Fig 2B. Expression of Senp family in Senp2^{f/f} and Senp2-BKO mice. ***, P < 0.005



Figure 3. *Senp2*-BKO and *Senp2*^{t/t} mice on standard chow diet Fig 3A. Average food and water intake in mice fed with standard

chow diet (n = 6-8)

Fig 3B. Body weights of $Senp2^{f/f}$ and Senp2-BKO mice on standard chow diet (n = 5-8)

Fig 3C. Fat mass and lean tissue of $Senp2^{i/f}$ and Senp2-BKO mice on standard chow diet (n = 5-8), measured with Bruker's minispec Body Composition Analyzer



Figure 4. Metabolic cage study

Mice fed with standard chow diet were placed into individual cages in the Comprehensive Laboratory Animal Monitoring System (CLAMS) for 3 days (n = 5-8).

Fig 4A. Volume oxygen (O_2) consumption rates

Fig 4B. Volume carbon dioxide (CO_2) production rates

Fig 4C. Respiratory exchange ratio (RER)





Fig 5A. Representative photograph of brown adipose tissue (BAT), heart, liver, inguinal white adipose tissue (iWAT), gastrocnemius (GM), and epididymal white adipose tissue (eWAT) of *Senp2*^{f/f} and *Senp2*-BKO mice at 12-weeks. A 1 cc syringe is included for comparison of size.

Fig 5B. Organ weight was expressed as percentage of body weight (n = 5-8).



Figure 6. Representative hematoxylin and eosin (H&E) staining of BAT, iWAT and eWAT from $Senp2^{/f}$ and Senp2-BKO mice after standard chow diet



Figure 7. Gene expression profile of BAT in $Senp2^{t/t}$ and Senp2-BKO mice fed with standard chow diet

qPCR analysis demonstrates decreased expression of *Senp2* and *Cidea. Ucp1* narrowly eluded statistical significance. Mann-Whitney U test was used for comparison. *P < 0.05, ***P < 0.001

Senp2-BKO is metabolically distinguishable from Senp2th in transcriptome analysis

Many transcription factors are recognized as SUMOylation targets. SENP2 is predominantly located in the nucleus, capable of regulating activities of a number of transcription factors through deSUMOylation [19]. Whereas the direct target protein levels of SENP2 remain unaltered, expression of numerous genes can be regulated by SENP2.

To evaluate the metabolic role of Senp2 in BAT on a genomewide level, I analyzed the global transcriptional changes associated with metabolism by performing RNA-sequencing in the BAT of $Senp2^{t/f}$ and Senp2-BKO mice fed with standard chow diet. Of the 8 samples, 4 from each group, one sample from the Senp2-BKO group was an obvious outlier when visualized with the correlation matrix, hierarchical clustering, and multidimensional scaling for all samples (Figure 8A, B, C, D). The transcriptome analysis of BAT was nicely separated after excluding the outlier, and thus subsequent analysis was performed using 4 samples from the $Senp2^{t/f}$ and 3 samples from the Senp2-BKO group (Figure 9A, B, C, D).

There were 17,817 expressed genes in the processed data and a total of 3,679 genes were differentially expressed: 1,845 upregulated and 1,834 downregulate genes. A KEGG enrichment analysis revealed that these differentially expressed genes were most significantly related to pathways regarding metabolism, thermogenesis, p38 mitogen-activated protein kinase (MAPK) signaling pathway, fatty acid metabolism, PPAR signaling pathway, and oxidative phosphorylation (Figure 10A, B).

1 6





Fig 8A. Correlation matrix for all samples

Fig 8B. Hierarchial clustering. Euclidean distance was used for distance metrics and complete linkage was used as a linkage method. Fig 8C. Principal component analysis of RNA-seq data revealed an outlier.

Fig 8D. Volcano plot between *Senp2*^{f/f} and *Senp2*-BKO mice groups N_cont1, N_cont2, N_cont3, N_cont4 are from the *Senp2*^{f/f} mice and N_KO1_re, N_KO2, N_KO3, and N_KO4 are from the *Senp2*-BKO mice group. N_KO1_re sample was prepared at a different timepoint due to the substandard RNA quality.





Fig 9A. Correlation matrix for selected samples (N = 4 for the $Senp2^{f/f}$ group and N = 3 for the Senp2-BKO mice group)

Fig 9B. Hierarchial clustering. Euclidean distance was used for distance metrics and complete linkage was used as a linkage method. **Fig 9C.** Principal component analysis of RNA-seq data

Fig 9D. Volcano plot between *Senp2*^{f/f} and *Senp2*-BKO mice groups N_cont1, N_cont2, N_cont3, N_cont4 are from the *Senp2*^{f/f} mice and N_KO1_re, N_KO2, N_KO3, and N_KO4 are from the *Senp2*-BKO mice group. N_KO1_re sample excluded considering the batch effect.







100

60

20

100

80

60

40

20

0

20

n

Acat2 -Acat2 -Acaa1b -Acat5 -Cpt1a -Acb51 -

Figure 10. Differentially expressed genes in the BAT of $Senp2^{//f}$ and Senp2-BKO mice

Fig 10A. Comparing top Gene Ontology (GO) Kyoto Encyclopedia of Genes and Genomes (KEGG) terms associated with *Senp2*-responsive genes in BAT. Enrichment analysis was performed using differentially expressed genes in BAT between *Senp2*^{//f} and *Senp2*-BKO mice groups.

Fig 10B. Heatmap of top GO KEGG annotation terms in BAT between *Senp2*^{t/f} and *Senp2*-BKO mice groups.

Senp2-BKO mice exhibit insulin resistance upon HFD feeding

Mice fed with standard chow diet showed comparable blood glucose levels between the groups, both at fed and fasting state (Figure 11A, B). *Senp2*-BKO mice exhibited similar glucose intolerance and insulin resistance when compared with $Senp2^{/f}$ littermates (Figure 12A, B).

When mice were fed with HFD, however, the random glucose started to diverge at 12 weeks (Figure 13). *Senp2*-BKO mice exhibited increased systemic glucose intolerance when IP-GTT was performed at 13 weeks of HFD (Figure 14A). *Senp2*-BKO mice were more insulin resistant on the IP-ITT performed at 14 weeks than controls (Figure 14B), despite no difference in body weight or fat portion (Figure 15A, B).

As seen in the BAT of *Senp2*-aKO mice, a mixed population of unilocular and multilocular adipocytes were observed in the BAT of *Senp2*-BKO mice fed with HFD, suggesting diminished BAT function in response to SENP2 deficiency (Figure 16). BAT activity is associated with a healthy metabolic profile including enhanced insulin sensitivity. Therefore, the above findings are indicative of loss of multilocular organization as well as deteriorated BAT function in *Senp2*-BKO mice in response to dietary overload.



Figure 11. Serum glucose levels of $Senp2^{/t}$ and Senp2-BKO mice fed with standard chow diet

Fig 11A. Random glucose of $Senp2^{f/f}$ and Senp2-BKO mice in fed state (N = 6-8)

Fig 11B. Fasted glucose of $Senp2^{f/f}$ and Senp2-BKO mice (N = 6-8)





Fig 12A. Glucose tolerance test of $Senp2^{f/f}$ and Senp2-BKO mice (N = 5-8)

Fig 12B. Insulin tolerance test of $Senp2^{//f}$ and Senp2-BKO mice (N = 5-8)



Figure 13. Random glucose of $Senp2^{f/f}$ and Senp2-BKO mice fed with high fat diet (HFD) (N = 5-10)





Fig 14A. Glucose tolerance test of $Senp2^{//f}$ and Senp2-BKO mice at 13 weeks of HFD feeding (N = 5-10)

Fig 14B. Insulin tolerance test of $Senp2^{i/f}$ and Senp2-BKO mice at 14 weeks of HFD feeding (N = 5-10)





Mice were fed with HFD from the age of 8 weeks

Fig 15A. Body weights of $Senp2^{f/f}$ and Senp2-BKO mice on HFD (n = 5-10)

Fig 15B. Fat mass and lean mass of $Senp2^{t/f}$ and Senp2-BKO mice fed with HFD for 14 weeks (n = 5-10)



Figure 16. Representative H&E, UCP1 immunohistochemistry (IHC), and Perilipin 1 IHC staining of BAT from $Senp2^{t/t}$ and Senp2-BKO mice after HFD feeding for 14 weeks

Senp2-BKO mice are intolerant to acute cold exposure

Adaptive thermogenesis is the most prominent feature of BAT. I next asked whether the subtle decrease of thermogenic marker expression at baseline and structural alterations in the BAT of *Senp2*-BKO mice during HFD feeding were also linked to compromise in BAT function during thermogenic demand. To this end, I assessed the thermogenic capacity of *Senp2*^{f/f} and *Senp2*-BKO mice in response to acute cold exposure.

There was no difference in the rectal temperature of $Senp2^{i/f}$ and Senp2-BKO mice at ambient temperature both at fed and fasted status (Figure 17A), When mice were exposed to 4°C, however, both groups of mice initially maintained body temperature by shivering, but this response was abolished after 2-3 hours (Figure 17B). $Senp2^{i/f}$ mice were capable of maintaining core body temperature through non-shivering thermogenesis whereas Senp2-BKO mice were severely cold intolerant from three hours of acute cold exposure.

Cold-activated BAT displayed marked increase in expression of genes related to thermogenesis in control mice (Figure 18). Intriguingly, in *Senp2*-BKO mice, the extent of thermogenic gene induction was repressed compared to littermate controls. Similar patterns of activation in thermogenic program upon acute cold exposure were observed in the BAT of *Senp2*-aKO, despite the variation in the extent of *Ucp1* and *Ppargc1a* induction levels (Figure 19).

Taken together, BAT deficient of *Senp2* display defective adaptive thermogenesis as a consequence of inadequate upregulation of thermogenic genes in BAT.


Figure 17. Core body temperature of 12–15 weeks old $Senp2^{f/f}$ and Senp2-BKO mice fed with standard chow diet Fig 17A. Core body temperature of $Senp2^{f/f}$ and Senp2-BKO mice at fed and fasted status at ambient temperature (n = 5-8)

Fig 17B. Core body temperature of $Senp2^{f/f}$ and Senp2-BKO mice during acute cold exposure at 4°C for 6 hours (n = 5-8)





Data are presented as mean ± s.e.m; one-way ANOVA followed by *post hoc* Tukey' s test was used for comparison.

Only the *P* value for the $Senp2^{f/f}$ (cold) and Senp2-BKO (cold) mice groups are annotated in the figure for simplicity. *** P < 0.001



Figure 19. Levels of thermogenic genes were augmented on acute cold exposure and the difference was diverged between the $Senp2^{t/f}$ and Senp2-aKO (Adipoq-Cre) mice groups (N = 5-8)

Data are presented as mean ± s.e.m; one-way ANOVA followed by *post hoc* Tukey' s test was used for comparison.

Only the *P* value for the $Senp2^{f/f}$ (cold) and Senp2-aKO (cold) mice groups are annotated in the figure for simplicity. *** P < 0.001

4. Discussion

Thermogenesis in BAT is principally controlled by norepinephrine, which is released from sympathetic nerve terminals in response to cold exposure or dietary stimuli [20]. This β adrenergic receptor signaling leads to increase in cyclic adenosine monophosphate (cAMP) and protein kinase A (PKA)-mediated activation of intracellular events including activation of Ucp1, triglyceride hydrolysis, and fatty acid oxidation. Although the main substrate that activates BAT thermogenesis is considered to be fatty acid, systemic glucose utilization is concomitantly increased in parallel with UCP1 activation through AMP kinase activation [21]. In this study, I have revealed that despite comparable phenotypes of Senp2^{f/f} and Senp2-BKO mice fed with standard chow diet, metabolic profiles such as cold tolerance and insulin sensitivity were much inferior in the Senp2-BKO mice when exposed to acute cold exposure or HFD-feeding.

I investigated the BAT specific role of SENP2 using the Cre-LoxP system. There was no difference between the groups regarding intrascapular BAT mass, expression of genes related to adipogenesis, and histological analysis, suggesting that Senp2 knockout using Ucp1-Cre did not affect adipogenesis in BAT. In a previous report by Liang et al., conditional BAT-specific SENP2 knockout mice had suppressed brown adipocyte differentiation via disinhibition of Necdin [17]. In the study, myogenic factor 5 (Myf5) – Cre was employed to knockout Senp2 in contrary to our study in which Ucp1-Cre was used. When we used Adipoq-Cre to knock out *Senp2* in both brown and white adipose tissues, not only was the size of BAT considerably smaller than their littermate $Sen d^{2/f}$ mice, but dysfunctional histology was also observed, with lower density of multilocular clusters of intracellular lipid droplets [18]. It is recognized that brown adipocytes are derived from a *Myf5*-expressing progenitors [22], indicating that by using *Myf5*- Cre, *Senp2* was knocked out in the very early stage of development. The generation of brown adipocytes in BAT starts as early as E10 and finishes by E16 when detected with the AdipoChaser mouse model based on adiponectin promoter [23], but expression UCP1 is BAT specifically induced at E19 in mice [24]. Therefore, it can be safely concluded that by using *Ucp1*-Cre, targeted *Senp2* gene deletion on mature BAT was attainable.

However, while deletion of Senp2 in mature BAT did not adversely impact adipogenic differentiation or energy expenditure, mice deficient of Senp2 demonstrated defect in metabolism, especially when exposed to cold stimuli or HFD. It has been reported that UCP1 is essential in confined conditions, i.e., for adaptive adrenergic non-shivering thermogenesis [25]. UCP1ablated mice had similar body weight and the metabolic rates at both 30°C and at 18°C compared to controls, although UCP1ablated mice were devoid of adrenergically induced non-shivering thermogenetic actions. In another report that studied noncanonical thermogenic mechanism, Prdm16 transgenic (Tg) mice and Prdm16 Tg \times Ucp1^{-/-} mice displayed similar core body temperature at baseline compared to their respective littermates without *Prdm16* overexpression but were more capable of maintaining their body temperature under cold conditions [26]. These mice had improved insulin sensitivity in the GTT and ITT at 11 weeks of HFD, but this enhanced glucose disposal was not observed under a standard chow diet. Collectively, thermogenins such as UCP1 is dispensable at subthermoneutral (22-26°C) or thermoneutral (30°C) conditions on balanced intake of energy sources. In the same line, it can be argued that the genuine virtue of BAT and BAT-associated markers from SENP2 arises upon metabolic stress. As considerable amount of metabolically active BAT is also present in adult humans and that metabolic stress is induced by western dietary pattern characterized by high daily intake of carbohydrates and saturated fats, the metabolic role of SENP in BAT in the defense against obesity should be revitalized.

This study has several limitations. The RNA seq results

performed with mice housed at ambient temperature revealed dissimilarity in gene clusters involved in metabolism and thermogenesis. Considering that the subtle reduction of Ucp1 and Cidea gene and slight increase in Elov13 in the qPCR analysis was remarkably amplified on acute cold exposure, however, it would be informative and desirable to perform RNA seq with the activated BAT. As some of the cold-induced genes, i.e., Ppargc1a and Esrra, were not different between the groups at baseline but were repressed in the BAT of Senp2-BKO compared to controls upon cold stimuli, analyzing the transcriptome profile after cold exposure would reveal interesting pathways that emphasize the upregulation of thermogenic genes. Also, although UCP1 is the key thermogenin involved in the canonical thermogenic mechanism and regulation of the glucose homeostasis in BAT, UCP1-independent thermogenic mechanisms have been identified [27, 28]. These include creatinesubstrate cycling and ATP-dependent Ca²⁺ cycling thermogenesis in beige adipocytes [26, 29]. BAT could also secrete brown adipokines, or batokines, which positively regulate systemic metabolism [30–34]. Nonetheless, I have primarily concentrated on the UCP1-dependent signaling pathway in interpreting the changes in adaptive thermogenesis and glucose homeostasis in $Senp2^{t/t}$ and Senp2-BKO mice in this study. In the next section, I focused on elucidating the possible mechanisms of which SENP2 could be involved in regulating the expression of UCP1.

Chapter 2. Mechanism of SENP2 in BAT Metabolism

1. Introduction

In the previous section, I have corroborated the role of SENP2 in BAT metabolism. While SENP2 deficiency resulted in modest reduction of *Ucp1* and *Cidea* in standard chow diet-fed mice at ambient temperature, the effect SENP2 was largely augmented upon metabolic stress: HFD and acute cold exposure.

It is well established that in response to cold stimuli, adaptive thermogenesis of brown adipose tissue is regulated by activation of β 3 adrenergic receptor through the cAMP signaling cascade [35]. In the course of cAMP signaling mechanism, MAPK serves as a central mediator in the transcription of *Ucp1* gene by phosphorylating transcription regulators that directly act at the *Ucp1* promoter, i.e., activating transcription factor 2 (ATF-2) and cAMP-responsive element binding protein (CREB). Activation of ATF-2 by p38 MAPK as well as p38 MAPK per se additionally increases the expression of PPARy coactivator 1α (PGC-1 α , encoded by *Ppargc1a*), a key regulator of energy metabolism [36]. The prominence of PGC-1 α cannot be emphasized enough, functioning as a master transcriptional coregulator of energy metabolism including not only adaptive thermogenesis but also mitochondrial biogenesis. oxidative phosphorylation, and fattv acid elongation/degradation [37-39]. These pleiotropic actions of PGC- 1α are orchestrated through interaction with several nuclear receptor targets: namely, PPAR γ , PPAR α , nuclear respiratory factor (NRF)-1, NRF-2, liver X receptor (LXR) and estrogenrelated receptor α (ERR α) [39-45].

ERR α is an orphan receptor of which the role is underappreciated [46, 47]. It is known to exert synergistic effect with the coactivation of PGC-1 α to activate *Ucp1* and Sirtuin 3 (*Sirt3*) gene transcription as well as inducing mitochondrial biogenesis [48-51]. Both ERR α and PGC-1 α are SUMOylated proteins, and their levels are increased upon cold exposure [52]. Mouse deficient on all forms of ERRs show defect in adaptive thermogenesis, however no study has yet revealed how regulation of ERR α activity by post-translational modification may affect BAT.

Here, I aimed to identify the potential *in vitro* mechanisms of how SENP2 deficiency may downregulate the levels of *Ucp1* and *Cidea* in brown adipocytes, particularly focusing on the coactivation of ERR α and PGC-1 α .

2. Methods and Materials

Cell culture

Mouse brown preadipocytes (a kind gift from Dr. Shingo Kajimura, Beth Israel Deaconess Medical Center and Harvard Medical School, Boston, MA, USA) were maintained in high glucose Dulbecco's Modified Eagle's Medium (DMEM) (Sigma Aldrich, St. Louis, MO, USA) supplemented with 10% fetal bovine serum (FBS) and 100 U/mL Penicillin-Streptomycin (ThermoFisher, Waltham, MA, USA) at 37°C in a humidified atmosphere with 5% CO₂. Differentiation of brown adipocytes was induced by treating 95% confluent preadipocytes with DMEM containing 10% FBS and 1% penicillin-streptomycin, 0.5 µM rosiglitazone, 1 nM T3, 850 nM insulin, 125 nM indomethacin, 2 µg/ml dexamethasone, and 0.5 mM isobutylmethylxanthine. Two days after induction, cells were switched to maintenance medium containing 10% FBS and 1% penicillin-streptomycin, 1 nM T3, and 850 nM insulin. Mouse brown adipocytes were fully differentiated 6 days after inducing differentiation.

Reverse siRNA transfection

To enhance transfection efficiency without interfering with adipogenesis, target genes were knocked down on day 4 of brown preadipocyte differentiation using reverse siRNA transfection method and were harvested on day 6. Lipofectamine RNAiMAX (Invitrogen, Waltham, MA, USA) and siRNA were diluted separately in serum free DMEM, and 250 μ L of each reagent was added to gelatin-coated 12-well cell culture plates to be incubated for 25 minutes at room temperature. The final concentrations of lipofectamine RNAiMAX and siRNA were 2.5 μ L/mL and 50 nM, respectively.

During incubation, cells were detached with 0.05% Trypsin-

EDTA (#25300054, GIBCO, Grand Island, NY, USA) for 2 minutes, centrifuged (3,000 rpm, 5 min), and resuspended in the culture medium containing 2 nM T3 and 1,700 nM insulin. On top of the pre-incubated siRNA-RNAiMAX complex, 500 μ L of the cell suspension were added. The final concentrations of T3 and insulin were the same as the maintenance media. The replated cells were further cultured for 2 days without changing media and were harvested for analysis.

Oil Red O staining

Fully differentiated brown adipocytes were washed once with PBS and fixed with 10% paraformaldehyde for 15 minutes. The cells were washed with distilled water for two times and 100% propylene glycol (Sigma-Aldrich) was added and suctioned out after 5 minutes. Subsequently, cells were stained with Oil-Red-O solution (0.5% in propylene glycol, O1516, Sigma-Aldrich) for 30 minutes at ambient temperature. The cells were washed with 85% propylene glycol solution for 3 minutes, washed twice with distilled water, and the stained samples were visualized with light microscope.

Immunofluorescent staining

Fully differentiated adipocytes were stained with 100 nM MitoTracker Red FM (Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA, USA) for 30 min to label mitochondria. Cell nuclei were then counterstained with 300 nM of DAPI stain solution. The fluorescent signal was observed using a confocal microscope (LSM 510META, Carl Zeiss, Oberkochen, Germany).

RNA preparation and real-time PCR

Total RNA was isolated from cells using TRIzol (Invitrogen) according to the manufacturer's instructions. RNA samples were reverse-transcribed using the High Capacity cDNA Reverse Transcription Kits (Applied Biosystems, Waltham, MA, USA): 10 μ L of 100 ng/ μ L RNA was mixed with 2 μ L of 10X RT buffer, 2 μ L of 10X RT random primers, 0.8 μ L of 25X dNTP mix (100 mM), 1 μ L of MultiScribe Reverse Transcriptase (50 U/ μ L), and 1 μ L of RNase inhibitor (20 U/ μ L). Reverse transcription was performed by incubating the mixture at 25°C for 10 minutes, 37°C for 120 minutes, followed by 85°C for 5 minutes. Real-time PCR was carried out in 96-well plates using TaqMan Master Mix reagents and a TaqMan ABI PRISM 7000 sequence detector system (Applied Biosystems). 36B4 RNA was used as an endogenous control. Analysis was performed in duplicates and repeated at least three times.

	Forward	Reverse			
Senp2	5' CAG TCT CTA CAA	5' CCA GAA GGG GCC			
	TGC TGC CAG 3'	ACA TTC 3'			
Ucp1	5' ACT GCC ACA CCT	5' CTT TGC CTC ACT			
	CCA GTC ATT 3'	CAG GAT TGG 3'			
Cidea	5' TGA CAT TCA TGG	5' GGC CAG TTG TGA			
	GAT TGC AGA C 3'	TGA CTA AGA C 3'			
Elovl3	5' TTC TCA CGC GGG	5' GAG CAA CAG ATA			
	ТТА ААА АТG G 3'	GAC CAC 3'			
Dio2	5' CAG TGT GGT GCA	5' TGA ACC AAA GTT			
	CGT CTC CAA TC 3'	GAC CAC CAG 3'			
Pparg	5' GGA AGA CCA CTC	5' GTA ATC AGC AAC			
	GCA TTC CTT 3'	CAT TGG GTC A 3'			
Ppara	5' TGT CGA ATA TGT	5' AAT CTT GCA GCT			
	GGG GAC AA 3'	CCG ATC AC 3'			
Ppargc1a	5' ACC TGA CAC AAC	5' TCT CAA GAG CAG			
	GCG GAC AG 3'	CGA AAG CG 3'			
Prdm16	5' CAG CAC GGT GAA	5' GCG TGC ATC CGC			
	GCC ATT C 3'	TTG TG 3'			
Necdin	5' CAC TTC CTC TGC	5' ATC GCT GTC CTG			
	TGG TCT CC 3'	CAT CTC AC 3'			

Table	1.	List	of	the	primers	used	for	aPCF	R
I UDIO	֥	100	U 1	0110	primer o	abou	101	4-0-	

Farra	5' GCA GGG CAG TGG	5' CCT CTT GAA GAA			
LSITA	GAA GCT A 3'	GGC TTT GCA 3'			
Fabp4	5' GGG GCC AGG CTT	5' GGA GCT GGG TTA			
	СТА ТТС С 3'	GGT ATG GG 3'			
Adiponectin	5' CGA TTG TCA GTG	5' CAA CAG TAG CAT			
	GAT CTG ACG 3'	CCT GAG CCC T 3'			
Citrate	5' CCC CTG CCT GAG	5' GCC AAG ACA CCT			
synthase	GGC TTA T 3'	GTT CCT CTG T 3'			
Cox7a1	5' CAG CGT CAT GGT	5' AGA AAA CCG TGT			
	CAG TCT GT 3'	GGC AGA GA 3'			
Cox8b	5' CTC CCC CCT ATC	5' ACT ATG GCT GAG			
	CTG CGG CTG 3'	ATC CCC ACA 3'			
Nrf1	5' GGC AAC AGT AGC	5' GTC TGG ATG GTC			
	CAC ATT GGC T 3'	ATT TCA CCG C 3'			
Mfn1	5' CCA GGT ACA GAT	5' TTG GAG AGC CGC			
	GTC ACC ACA G 3'	ТСА ТТС АСС Т 3'			
	5' GTG GAA TAC GCC	5' CAA CTT GCT GGC			
1/11112	AGT GAG AAG C 3'	ACA GAT GAG C 3'			
0	5' TCT CAG CCT TGC	5' TTC CGT CTC TAG			
Opar	TGT GTC AGA C 3'	GTT AAA GCG CG 3'			
Drp1	5' GCG AAC CTT AGA	5' CAG GCA CAA ATA			
	ATC TGT GGA CC 3'	AAG CAG GAC GG 3'			
Fig 1	5' GCT GGT TCT GTG	5' GAC ATA GTC CCG			
FISI	TCC AAG AGC A 3'	СТБ ТТС СТС Т 3'			
β actin	5' GAA GCT GTG CTA	5' GGA GGA AGA GGA			
	TGT TGC TCT 3'	TGC GGC A 3'			
<i>36B4</i>	5' GCT TCA TTG TGG	5' TGC GCA TCA TGG			
	GAG CAG ACA 3'	ТGT TCT TG 3'			
Cytochrome	5' CAT TTA TTA TCG	5' TGT TGG GTT GTT			
b	CGG CCC TA 3'	TGA TCC TG 3'			
100	5' CTC AAA GAT TAA	5' TTT ACG GTC AGA			
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Quantification of the mitochondrial (mt)DNA copy number

Genomic DNA was extracted from differentiated brown adipocytes. Specifically, cells were harvested with 300 μ L of cell lysis buffer (QIAGEN, Hilden, Germany) and 1.5 μ L of proteinase K (Cat. No. 19131, QIAGEN, Hilden, Germany) and were lysed at 50°C for 2 hours. After vortexing, 100 μ L of protein precipitation solution (Qiagen) was added, centrifuged at 13,000 rpm, 4°C for 5 minutes, and supernatants were mixed with the 400 μ L of isopropyl alcohol for genomic DNA isolation. Genomic DNA was diluted to final concentrations of 10 ng/mL with DEPC treated water. The mtDNA copy number was amplified using primer for the mitochondrial ND1 gene and normalized to genomic DNA by amplification of the cytochrome b gene.

Measurement of oxygen consumption

Oxygen consumption rate (OCR) was measured using a Seahorse XF24 extracellular flux analyzer (Agilent). The cultured brown adipocytes were detached with 0.05% Trypsin-EDTA (#25300054, GIBCO, Grand Island, NY, USA) on day 4 of differentiation, reverse-transfected with nonsense siRNA (siNS) or siSENP2 as described previously and seeded in a XF24 V7 cell culture microplates (Seahorse Bioscience) to be incubated for two days.

For the measurement of OCR, the basal respiration was assessed in untreated cells for 20 minutes. ATP turnover was calculated in response to 1.5 μ L oligomycin (No. 11342, Cayman chemical, MI, USA) injection for 20 minutes. The maximum respiratory capacity was assessed for 30 minutes after the stimulation by 2.5 μ M carbonyl cyanide 4-(trifluoromethoxy) phenylhydrazone (FCCP) (Sigma-Aldrich). Finally, mitochondrial respiration was blocked by adding both 2.5 μ M rotenone (Sigma) and 1.25 μ M antimycin A (Wako), and the residual OCR was considered as nonmitochondrial respiration. Proton leak was calculated by subtracting the nonmitochondrial respiration components of basal respiration from the ATP turnover rate.

Measurement of citrate synthase activity

Citrate synthase (CS) activity was measured using the BioVision's Citrate Synthase Activity Assay Kit according to the manufacturer's protocol. Cultured brown adipocytes were harvested with 100 μ L ice cold CS assay buffer. Supernatants were collected after cells were centrifuged at 10,000 g for 5 minutes. A total of 10 μ L sample was used and the volume was adjusted to 50 μ L with CS assay buffer. The reaction mix was prepared by mixing 43 μ L of CS assay buffer, 5 μ L of CS developer, and 2 μ L of CS substrate mix for each sample. Immediately after adding 50 μ L of the reaction mix to each well, absorbance was measured at OD 412 nm in kinetic mode at 25°C for 40–60 minutes. Citrate synthase activity was calculated by measuring the slope of the graph in the linear range during the reaction time.

Transient transfection and Luciferase reporter assay

COS-7 cells were seeded at 12-well plates the day before transfection. COS-7 cells were transfected with the reporter plasmid UCP1-luciferase (0.3 μg), RSV-βgal (0.1 μg), UBC9 (0.1 μ g), pFLAG-SUMO1 (0.1 μ g), and the indicated amount of expression vectors of HA-ERRa (0.025 µg), HA-FLAG-PGC1a $(0.05 \ \mu g)$, and SENP2 $(0.1 \ \mu g)$. The expression vectors were mixed with 2.5 μ L of Plus reagent (Invitrogen) in 50 μ L of serum free DMEM and were incubated for 15 minutes at room temperature. After additional 15 minutes of incubation upon adding 50 µL of serum free DMEM containing 2.5 µL of Lipofectamine reagent (Invitrogen), the complex was treated to the cells with 400 μ L of serum free DMEM. The media was changed to DMEM supplemented with 10% FBS 3 hours later. Cells were harvested 24 hours after transfection using 150 µL of reporter lysis buffer (Promega), and the luciferase activity was determined using 50 µL of the lysates with the Lumat LB 9507 Ultra Sensitive Tube Luminometer

(Berthold, Bad Wildbad, Germany).

Luciferase activity was normalized by β -galactosidase activity. For β -galactosidase activity, 10 µL of lysate was mixed with 3 µL of 100X MgCl2 (0.1M MgCl2, 4.5 M β -mercaptoethanol), 66 µL of 1X O-nitrophenyl- β -D-galactosidase and 201 µL of 0.1 M sodium phosphate (pH 7.5) in a 96 well plate. β -galactosidase activity was measured by spectrophotometry at 420 nm (VersaMax; Molecular devices, Sunnyvale, CA, USA) 25 minutes later.

3. Results

Senp2 knockdown on day 4 does not affect adipogenesis of brown adipocyte

To determine the effect of SENP2 in mature brown adipocytes, mRNA levels of adipogenic transcription factors as well as BAT specific genes were measured during brown preadipocyte differentiation. Gene expression of *Fabp4* increased from day 2 of differentiation and were significant from day 3, serving a role as an adipogenesis marker (Figure 20). The levels of *Ucp1* started to rise from day 3–4 and continued to rise during differentiation.

On siRNA-mediated *Senp2* gene silencing on day 4 of differentiation, the levels of *Fabp4* did not differ compared to the controls (Figure 21A, B). The extent of lipid droplet formation was similar between the groups when examined by light microscope and oil red O staining, suggesting that knockdown of *Senp2* on day 4 did not interfere with adipogenesis (Figure 22).

Genes related to mitochondrial biogenesis, fusion, and fission were not changed by *Senp2* knockdown, and the mtDNA copy number in the siSENP2 treated brown adipocytes was analogous to the controls (Figure 23A, B). Similar staining intensity was seen when labelled with a mitochondrion-selective probe which accumulates in active mitochondria (Figure 24).

I also investigated the mitochondrial function. There was no difference in the extent of citrate synthase enzyme activity between the groups (Figure 25). When cellular oxygen consumption rate was analyzed, the basal OCR and maximal respiration rate were slightly reduced than controls with a trend that approached significance (Figure 26). These results demonstrate that suppressing *Senp2* on day 4 of differentiation does not impair adipogenesis, mitochondrial biogenesis or activity *in vitro*.





Brown preadipocytes were differentiated according to protocol. *Fabp4* levels started to rise from day 2 of differentiation. Levels of *Ucp1* and *Cidea* were significant from day 3–4 and reached maximum level on day 6. Levels of the mRNA level of each gene in the undifferentiated brown preadipocytes was set to 1.





Senp2 was knocked down through reverse transfection during day 4 of differentiation. Cells were harvested two days after. mRNA levels of *Ucp1*, *Cidea*, and *Pparg* decreased upon *Senp2* suppression. *** *P* < 0.001

Fig 21A. Schematic representation of brown adipocyte differentiation and gene knock-down.

Fig 21B. qPCR analysis of genes involved in adipogenesis and thermogenesis upon *Senp2* knock-down. *** *P* < 0.001



Figure 22. Brown adipocytes transfected with siNS or siSENP2 on day 4 are morphologically similar on examination by light microscope (Left, \times 200) or Oil Red O staining (Right, \times 100) on day6 of differentiation





Fig 23A. Genes related to mitochondria biogenesis, fusion/fission were unchanged by *Senp2* knockdown

Fig 23B. Similar mtDNA levels in brown adipocytes treated with siNS or siSENP2



Figure 24. *Senp2* knockdown does not result in change of mitochondrial mass

Brown adipocytes transfected with siNS or siSENP2 were stained with MitoTrackertm Red FM to detect mitochondria. Cell nuclei were counterstained with DAPI. Scale bar = $25 \mu m$.





Citrate synthase activity was measured as a surrogate for a quantitative enzyme for the presence of intact mitochondria. Repeated measures ANOVA followed by *post hoc* Tukey's test was used for comparison (P = 0.224 between the groups)





Seahorse assay was performed with brown adipocytes transfected with siNS or siSENP2. Oxygen consumption rates (OCR) values were normalized by total protein amount (μ g). n = 10 for each. Representative result from at least three independent experiments. * P < 0.05

Ucp1 is downregulated upon SENP2 knockdown

Suppression of *Senp2*, however, resulted in decreased mRNA levels of thermogenic genes. Notably, the levels of *Ucp1* and *Cidea* were consistently downregulated compared to its counterparts at mRNA levels (Figure 21B). *Senp2* knocked-down cells exhibited decreased levels of proton leak under basal conditions, indicative of decreased *Ucp1* levels (Figure 26).

To determine which transcription factor may be associated with the reduction in *Ucp1* levels upon *Senp2* knockdown, siRNAs of *Ppargc1a, Esrra, Pparg*, and *Ppara* were concurrently transfected with siSENP2 on day 4 of differentiation (Figure 27A, B). Simultaneous knockdown of genes recognized as SUMOylation targets in conjunction with *Senp2* completely abolished the effect of *Senp2* on the expression of *Ucp1* and *Cidea*, with the exception of *Ppara*. Notably, downregulation of *Pparg* markedly reduced the level of *Fabp4*, indicating that *Pparg* knockdown impairs adipogenesis even when transfected on day 4 of differentiation. Knockdown of other genes did not affect adipogenesis. Considering that *Senp2* knockdown reduced the levels of *Ucp1* and *Cidea* without inhibiting adipogenesis, these results collectively suggest that ERR α and PGC-1 α may be potential targets in controlling *Ucp1* transcription levels by *Senp2*.





Designated siRNAs were treated with siNS or siSENP2 on day 4 of differentiation using reverse transfection method. Cells harvested on day 6 were subjected for qPCR. Total siRNA amount was set to 100 nM. ns, non-significant, *P < 0.05, ***P < 0.001 by one-way ANOVA and ## P < 0.01 by two-way ANOVA followed by Tukey Test

Fig 26A. Effective gene silencing of respective siRNA knockdown Fig 26B. mRNA levels of *Ucp1*, *Cidea*, and *Fabp4* levels in response to concomitant siRNA knockdown with siSENP2

Transcriptional activation of the Ucp1 gene by ERR α and PGC-1 α

To investigate the mechanism by which deSUMOylation enhances *Ucp1* promoter activity, I searched for *cis*-regulatory elements in the *Ucp1* promoter region. *Ucp1* promoter contains a 220-bp enhancer region in the 5-flanking sequence of the *Ucp1* gene that encompasses several *cis*-acting elements of which the sequence is highly conserved between species [53-55].

Within the complex enhancer region 2.5 kb upstream in the *Ucp1* promoter sequence, I identified a PPAR response element (PPRE), and a sequence potentially capable of binding ERR α (Figure 28). The 3.2-kb *Ucp1*-Luc promoter was introduced into COS-7 cells with PPAR γ /RXR α and ERR α expression vectors alone or in combination with an expression vector for PGC-1 α and luciferase activity was measured. Interestingly, transfection of PPAR γ /RXR α , ERR α , and PGC-1 α alone induced a modest induction of *Ucp1* gene expression, whereas the combination of ERR α and PGC-1 α transfected (Figure 29B).



Figure 28. Schematic representation of the *cis*-regulatory regions of *Ucp1* gene

A 3.2-kb *Ucp1*-Luc promoter incorporating both the 220-bp complex enhancer and the proximal promoter region was used for all assays. The complex enhancer region located at 2.5-kb upstream of the transcription start site contains *cis*-acting regulatory sequences that play a critical role in *Ucp1* regulation. These regulatory sequences include PPRE, ERRE, and cAMP responsive elements (CRE).



Figure 29. ERRa/PGC-1a transcriptionally activates Ucp1

The effect of ERR α , PGC-1 α , PPAR α /RXR α , alone or in combination with PGC-1 α were examined by analyzing the activity of the *Ucp1* reporter gene.

Luciferase activity of the pcDNA transfected cells was set to 1 and others were expressed as their relative values.

Fig 29A. Cotransfection of ERRα (100 ng) and PGC-1α (100 ng) markedly induces *Ucp1* activity

Fig 29B. Transfection of ERRα (50 ng or 100 ng) in combination of PGC-1α (50 ng, 100 ng, or 200 ng) proportionally induces *Ucp1* activity. *** *P* for trend < 0.001

Senp2 enhances the transcriptional activation of Ucp1 gene

To verify the effect of SUMOylation on the concerted action of ERR α and PGC-1 α , an expression vector encoding SUMO fused to the N-terminus of ERR α (SUMO-ERR α) was constructed. Cotransfection of SUMO-ERR α along with the PGC-1 α was less effective in increasing the *Ucp1* promoter activity (Figure 30A). On the other hand, overexpression of SENP2 in COS-7 enhanced the *Ucp1* promoter activity upregulated by the cotransfection of ERR α and PGC-1 α (Figure 30B). Collectively, these data indicate that deSUMOylation of the ERR α /PGC-1 α complex contributes to the increased activity and in turn, *Ucp1* gene expression.

Both ERR α and PGC-1 α can be SUMOylated [56, 57]. We have previously verified that the Lys¹⁴ but not Lys⁴⁰² residue is the major site of SUMOylation for ERR α and that PGC-1 α is deSUMOylated only by SENP2 and not by other isoforms of SENP enzymes (Figure 31). To this end, ERR α and PGC-1 α expression vectors that contain lysine-to-arginine mutation at the major SUMO conjugation site were generated: ERR α K14R and PGC-1 α K183R. Note that transfection of both the wild type and the mutant expression vectors were expressed to similar levels in a concentration-dependent manner (Figure 32). Transfection of wild type ERR α with PGC-1 α K183R did not further augment the luciferase activity compared to that from wild type PGC-1 α . When ERR α K14R was cotransfected wild type PGC-1 α , however, further increase in the luciferase activity was observed (Figure 33). Together, these results suggest that SENP2 regulates the activity of UCP1 promoter through improving the activity of ERR α through deSUMOylation.



Figure 30. SUMOylation of ERR α /PGC-1 α negatively regulates Ucp1 expression

The effect of ERR α SUMOylation and deSUMOylation by SENP2 were examined by analyzing the activity of the *Ucp1* reporter gene. Luciferase activity of the pcDNA transfected cells was set to 1 and others were expressed as their relative values.

SUMO and UBC9, a SUMO conjugation enzyme, were co-expressed (100 ng, both) to amplify the synergistic effect of ERR α /PGC-1 α .

Fig 30A. Co-transfection of SUMO-ERR α /PGC-1 α (25 ng and 50 ng, respectively) resulted in lower luciferase activity level compared to the ERR α /PGC-1 α (25 ng and 50 ng, respectively) in wild form (N = 4). *** *P* < 0.001 in Tukey's post hoc analysis in one-way ANOVA

Fig 30B. COS-7 cells were transfected with ERR α /PGC-1 α (10 ng and 50 ng, respectively) and increasing amounts of SENP2 expression vector (0, 25, 50 ng) and luciferase activity was measured 24 hours later (N = 5). *** *P* for trend < 0.001



Figure 31. ERR α and PGC-1 α are deSUMOylated by SENP2

COS-7 cells transiently transfected with ERR α or PGC-1 α with SUMO1 and SENPs (SENP1, SENP2, SENP3, and SENP2 C548S) were harvested 24 hours later and the SUMOylated form was analyzed by immunoblotting.

Fig 31A. PGC-1α can be SUMOylated and is deSUMOylated only by SENP2 (Figure from Jung Eun Min's thesis with permission, 2012)Fig 31B. ERRα can be SUMOylated and is deSUMOylated only by SENP2

Fig 31C. Lysine 14 is the major SUMOylation site of ERR α and can be deSUMOylated by SENP2



Figure 32. Mutation of SUMOylation site inhibits SUMOylation

COS-7 cells transiently transfected with ERR α , PGC-1 α , and their respective mutant expression vectors that contain lysine-to-arginine mutation at the major SUMO conjugation site at increasing concentrations.

SUMO and UBC9 were co-transfected (100 ng, both) to amplify the SUMOylation response.

The cells were harvested 24 hours later and the SUMOylated form was analyzed by immunoblotting.

Fig 32A. SUMO band of wild type ERR α and its absence in the ERR α K14R

Fig 32B. PGC-1 α and its mutant form PGC-1 α K183R showing same major band intensity at increasing amount of transfection



Figure 33. DeSUMOylation of ERRa enhances Ucp1 activity

COS-7 cells transiently transfected with wild or mutant types of ERR α or PGC-1 α . There was no difference in the Ucp1 activity with the PGC-1 α wild type or PGC-1 α K183R, but the relative luciferase activity increased when ERR α K14R was transfected instead of ERR α wild type.

4. Discussion

We have previously demonstrated that *Cidea* promoter activity is significantly increased by co-transfection of ERR α and PGC-1 α (unpublished data). Because ERR α and PGC-1 α are intimately associated with *Ucp1* activity and suppressing ERR α or PGC-1 α simultaneously with *Senp2* abolished the effect of siSENP2 in additionally decreasing the level of *Ucp1* or *Cidea*, I hypothesized these may be the SUMOylated proteins of which could be accountable for regulating *Ucp1* through SENP2. To this end, transient transfection of expression vectors to COS-7 cells followed by luciferase assay was performed, and I uncovered an analogous mechanism that SENP2 contributed to increasing the UCP1 activity presumably through deSUMOylation of ERR α in the ERR α /PGC-1 α complex.

From this mechanistic study, it can be postulated that in the BAT of the *Senp2*–BKO group, SUMOylated form of ERR α /PGC–1 α complex was inefficient in augmenting UCP1 upon cold stimuli *in vivo*. Notably, *Ucp1* transcription was increased in proportion to the expression levels of ERR α and PGC–1 α . While both ERR α and PGC–1 α increased in response to cold stimuli *in vivo*, the extent of increase for both ERR α and PGC–1 α was much higher in the *Senp2*^{t/t} group than *Senp2*–BKO.

One possible mechanism involves the activation of CREB. The PGC-1 α gene possesses a binding site for CREB (for mice, -146) to -129; in human, -133 to -116) [58]. Increased cAMP levels in response to cold stimuli lead to activation of the CREB by phosphorylation, which in turn enhances the expression of PGC-1 α . In a study by Liang et al., deSUMOylation of CREB by SENP2 reduced its interaction with serine/threonine protein phosphatase 2A (PP2A), thereby increasing the level of activated. phosphorylated CREB (pCREB) [17]. In another study by Hatting et al., inhibition of PP2A with okadaic acid effectively rescued pCREB

dephosphorylation to increase CREB-dependent expression of UCP1 [59]. Taken together, these results suggest that SENP2 deSUMOylates CREB to decrease the dephosphorylating action of PP2A, and in turn, enhances the expression of PGC-1 α to increase UCP1 upon acute cold exposure.

The Esrra promoter contains a multiple steroid hormone response element half-sites (MHRE) (23-bp nucleotides (5-GTGACCTTCATTCGGTCACCGCA-3) and а 11-bp (5 -GTGACCTTGAG-3)), which is specifically bound by ERR α [60, 61]. This is a functional ERRE that can act as an autoregulatory element for the synergistic activation of the *Esrra* promoter by binding of the ERR α /PGC-1 α complex [61]. Therefore, it can be postulated that deficiency of SENP2 repressed the UCP1 activation in response to cold stimuli by at least two independent mechanisms: SUMOylation of ERR α /PGC-1 α complex *per se*, and decreasing the increment of PGC-1 α following dephosphorylation of pCREB and in turn downregulating the autoregulatory feed-forward loop.

Unlike in white adipocytes where SENP2 is highly expressed at day 2 of differentiation but are nearly abrogated by day 6 of full differentiation [16], SENP2 is expressed at high levels in brown adipocytes not only in early stages of adipogenesis but also at full maturation. Thereby, while SENP2 is involved in adipogenesis for both white and brown adipocytes, I postulated that there may be a role that SENP2 undertakes regarding BAT function and activity at a later time frame. When *Senp2* was knocked down on day 4 of differentiation, the ability to fully differentiate into mature brown adipocytes was conserved, as with the *Ucp1*–Cre *Senp2*–BKO mice. The levels of *Ucp1* and *Cidea* were downregulated by *Senp2* knockdown, but unstimulated cells were phenotypically similar when mitochondrial function was assessed, in line with the *in vivo* data.

Unfortunately, unlike the *in vivo* model where the characteristics of activated BAT was appreciably better in the $Senp2^{t/t}$ control mice in comparison to the Senp2-BKO, equivalent response was not simulated by treating the brown adipocytes with adrenergic agents. By treating CL316,243 compound which is a β 3-

adrenergic receptor agonist, norepinephrine, or forskolin to increase cAMP levels, both the brown adipocytes transfected with siNS or siSENP2 had Ucp1 or Cidea upregulated to the similar extent, when assessed at different drug concentrations and time points (data not shown). The precise reason for the discrepancy between the *in vivo* and *in vitro* data is obscure. A plausible explanation is that while BAT is a highly innervated tissue, brown adipocytes are denervated and the organ crosstalk is absent in the microenvironment. For instance, in the study by Liu et al., liverspecific SENP2 knockout mice had elevated FGF21 level which in turn increased the O_2 consumption of the BAT [62]. Fully differentiated brown adipocyte cell line was morphologically similar to that from BAT with high expression levels of *Ucp1*, but some of the classical BAT markers such as *Elov13* and *Dio2* were detected at a very low level in *in vitro* setting. Furthermore, as aforementioned, several other noncanonical pathways of adaptive thermogenesis may be involved that encompasses the effect of SENP2.

With these caveats in mind, I herein report that SENP2 is crucial in maintaining the healthy metabolic phenotype of BAT. ERR α and PGC-1 α are pivotal transcriptional regulators that control Ucp1 and Cidea in response to cold or dietary stimuli, and both its activity and expression are influenced by SENP2. Activating BAT is an appealing target to ameliorate metabolic diseases. No approaches to activate BAT directly with pharmacologic agents such as β 3 adrenergic receptor agonists or protonophoric compounds, i.e., 2,4-dinitrophenol, have yet been successful with unexpected toxicity. Posttranslational regulation of *Ucp1* through targeting the ERR α /PGC-1 α complex by SENP2 may be a potential therapeutic target in combating metabolic derangement caused by metabolic stress.
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국문 초록

갈색지방조직은 최근 대사적으로 주목받고 있는 내분비 기관이다. 갈색지방조직은 기존에 잘 알려진 비오한 열생산을 통한 체온 유지 외에 도, 에너지 소모량을 증가시키고 여분의 에너지가 체내에 축적되는 것을 막아주는 등 대사적으로 좋은 역할을 하는 것으로 밝혀졌다. 최근 성인 에서도 갈색지방조직의 존재가 확인됨에 따라, 갈색지방조직을 활성화시 키기 위한 다양한 노력이 시도되고 있다. SENP2는 단백질 번역 후 변 형에 관여하는 효소로 구체적으로는 SUMO를 제거해줌으로써 다양한 단백질의 활성 정도를 조절한다. SENP2가 기관에 따라 대사적으로 중 요한 역할을 하는 것은 기존 연구를 통하여 많이 밝혀왔으나, 갈색지방 조직에서의 대사적 역할에 대한 연구는 미비한 실정이다.

본 연구에서 Ucp1-Cre를 이용하여 갈색지방조직 특이적으로 Senp2 유전자를 제거하였으며(Senp2-BKO), 정상 대조군과(Senp2^{ff}) 비교하여 그 표현형을 관찰하였다. Senp2-BKO 마우스는 Senp2^{ff} 마우 스와 비교하였을 때, 상온에서 일반 식이를 진행하였을 때 체중이나 혈 당 등 대사적인 지표에서 차이를 보이지 않았으나, 고지방 함유식을 13 주 이상 섭취할 경우 체중이나 지방량의 차이를 보이기 전에 인슐린 저 항성이 나빠지는 결과를 보였다. 또한 일반 식이를 진행한 마우스에서도, 저온 노출 실험 진행 시 3시간 이후부터는 Senp2-BKO 마우스에서 비 오한 열생산이 효율적으로 작용하지 못하여 중심부 체온 유지가 잘 되지 않는 점을 반복적으로 확인하였다.

저온 노출 실험을 진행한 쥐의 갈색지방조직 유전자 발현을 확인하 였을 때, 대조군 마우스에서는 *Ucp1, Cidea*와 같은 열생산에 관여하는 유전자가 큰 폭으로 증가하였으나, *Senp2*-BKO 마우스의 경우 해당 유 전자가 상온에서의 발현 정도 대비 적은 폭으로 증가하였기에, 이를 통 해 SENP2가 갈색지방조직의 활성화에 기여한다는 점을 추론할 수 있었 다.

분자생물학적인 기전을 확인하기 위하여 갈색지방세포주를 분화시켜

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분화 단계 별 유전자 발현을 확인하였다. 갈색지방조직의 분화 마커로 사용되는 Fabp4의 경우 분화 2일차부터 증가하여 3-4일 차에는 분화 가 완료된 세포에서와 비슷한 정도의 발현을 보였으나, Ucp1과 Cidea의 경우 분화 4일 차부터 증가하여 6일차에 발현이 최대치가 되었다. 이에 갈색지방세포 분화 4일차에 siRNA를 이용하여 유전자 발현을 저해하였 으며, 분화 6일차에 유전자 발현을 확인한 결과 siSENP2를 처리한 세 포에서 대조군 세포 대비 Fabp4 유전자 발현 정도는 같으며 Ucp1과 Cidea가 감소하는 것을 확인하였다. 이를 통해, 갈색지방세포 분화 4일 차에 siRNA를 이용하여 Senp2 발현을 억제할 시 Ucp1-Cre를 이용한 동물 모델에서와 마찬가지로 갈색지방조직의 분화에는 영향을 미치지 않 으면서 열생산과 관련된 유전자의 발현 정도를 저해한다는 점을 확인할 수 있었다.

본 실험실에서는 기존에 SENP2가 ERR α와 PGC-1α를 통해 Cidea의 발현을 조절할 수 있다는 점을 확인한 바 있다. 금번 연구를 통 해 *Ucp1* 프로모터 영역에도 ERRα이 결합할 수 있는 부위가 있는 것 을 확인하였으며, COS-7 세포를 이용한 transient transfection 및 luciferase assav를 통하여, 마찬가지로 ERR a 이 PGC-1 a 과 함께 결 합하였을 때 Ucp1 활성이 극대화되는 것을 확인하였다. ERRα 전사인 자에 SUMO를 결합시킬 경우 Ucpl을 활성화시키는 정도가 감소하였으 며, 반대로 ERRα/PGC-1α 복합체에 SENP2를 넣어줄 경우 농도 의 존적으로 Ucp1 활성이 증가됨을 알 수 있었다. ERRα에서 SUMO가 붙 고 SENP2에 의해 작용하는 Lysine 14번과, PGC-1α에서 SENP2의 작용 위치로 알려진 Lysine 183번을 각각 Arginine으로 치환하였을 때, PGC-1α 돌연변이에 의해서는 Ucp1 활성이 유의미하게 변화하지 않 았으나, ERR α 돌연변이에 의해서는 Ucp1 활성이 소폭 증가하는 것이 확인되었다. 이를 통해 SENP2가 ERR α의 Lysine 14번 자리를 탈수모 화시키는 것이, 갈색지방조직에서 Ucp1 활성을 높게 유지하는데 중요한 기전임을 알 수 있었다. 추가적인 기전에 연구는 현재 진행 중이다.

이를 통해 SENP2는 갈색 지방 조직에서 대사적인 활성을 조절하는

중요한 효소임을 밝혀내었으며, 실험을 통해 그 기전을 일부 증명하였다. 추후 SENP2가 대사 질환의 치료에 있어서 갈색 지방 조직을 활성화시 키는데 중요한 후보 물질로 활용되기를 기대하는 바이다. 감사의 글

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학위 논문을 심사하는 과정에서 연말 귀중한 시간을 내어 건설적인 조언을 해주신 김종일 교수님, 조영민 교수님, 이혁준 교수님, 그리고 김 하일 교수님께 감사드립니다.

저에게는 너무나 큰 의미가 있는 연구였고, 보람찬 학위 과정이었습 니다. 본 연구를 시작으로 앞으로도 훌륭한 의학 박사로 정진하고 의학 계에 기여할 수 있도록 노력하겠습니다.

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