A genome-wide CRISPR screen reconciles the role of N-linked glycosylation in galectin-3 transport to the cell surface

3

Sarah E. Stewart^{1*}, Sam A. Menzies^{2*}, Stephanie J. Popa¹, Natalia Savinykh³,
 Anna Petrunkina Harrison³, Paul J. Lehner², Kevin Moreau^{1#}

6

University of Cambridge Metabolic Research Laboratories, Wellcome Trust-Medical
 Research Council Institute of Metabolic Science, University of Cambridge, Cambridge, U.K

9 2. Department of Medicine, Cambridge Institute for Medical Research, Cambridge10 Biomedical Campus, Hills Road, Cambridge CB2 0XY, UK

NIHR Cambridge BRC Cell Phenotyping Hub, Department of Medicine, University of
 Cambridge, UK

13

^{*}Co-first authors; [#]Lead author; for correspondence: KM: <u>km510@cam.ac.uk</u>

15

16 Summary statement

Using a CRISPR screen, we identified important genes that regulate the cell surfacelocalization of Galectins and clarified the role of the glycosylation in Galectin secretion.

19

20 Abstract

Galectins are a family of lectin binding proteins expressed both intracellularly and 21 extracellularly. Galectin-3 (Gal-3) is expressed at the cell surface, however, Gal-3 lacks a 22 signal sequence and the mechanism of Gal-3 transport to the cell surface remain poorly 23 understood. Here, using a genome-wide CRISPR/Cas9 forward genetic screen for regulators 24 of Gal-3 cell surface localization we identified genes encoding glycoproteins, enzymes 25 involved in N-linked glycosylation, regulators of ER-Golgi trafficking and proteins involved 26 in immunity. The results of this screening approach lead us to address the controversial role 27 of N-linked glycosylation in the transport of Gal-3 to the cell surface. We find that N-linked 28 glycoprotein maturation is not required for Gal-3 transport from the cytosol to the 29 extracellular space, but is important for cell surface binding. Additionally, secreted Gal-3 is 30

predominantly free and not packaged into extracellular vesicles. These data support a
 secretion pathway independent of N-linked glycoproteins and extracellular vesicles.

33

34 Introduction

Galectins are an evolutionarily conserved family of β -galactose-binding proteins. There are 15 members, all of which contain a carbohydrate-recognition domain (CRD). Family members can be divided into three categories: (i) prototypic single CRD galectins that can form homodimers; (ii) the galectins that contain two tandem repeat CRDs, and (iii) galectin-3 which is a chimeric protein containing a single CRD and a disordered N-terminal region that facilitates oligomerization (Elola, Blidner, Ferragut, Bracalente, & Rabinovich, 2015).

Galectins belong to the leaderless class of proteins (defined by the absence of signal 42 peptides and transmembrane domains) that function both in the cytoplasm and outside the 43 cell. Their function in the cytoplasm include roles in cell growth, apoptosis, the cell cycle and 44 cellular immunity (Boyle & Randow, 2013; Liu & Rabinovich, 2005; Nabi, Shankar, & 45 Dennis, 2015; Rabinovich, Rubinstein, & Fainboim, 2002). When galectins are outside the 46 cell, they are known to be retained to the extracellular leaflet of the plasma membrane, 47 typically through their binding to N-linked glycans and core O-linked glycans on 48 glycosylated proteins and lipids. From there, they modulate many cellular 49 processes including endocytosis, migration and adhesion (Elola et al., 2015; Lakshminarayan 50 et al., 2014; Mazurek et al., 2012; Xin, Dong, & Guo, 2015). In addition, galectins are also 51 found in the serum where they regulate the activity of immune cells (Rabinovich, Rubinstein 52 et al. 2002). 53

Interestingly, Gal-3 is detected at high levels in cardiac patients where it is used as a marker for cardiovascular disease and heart failure (Jagodzinski et al., 2015; Medvedeva, Berezin, Surkova, Yaranov, & Shchukin, 2016). Similarly, elevated levels of galectin-1 (Gal-1) are associated with poor prognosis in many cancers including melanoma, lung, bladder and head cancers (Thijssen, Heusschen, Caers, & Griffioen, 2015).

The mechanism of galectin secretion remains controversial. As mentioned above, galectins lack a signal peptide and do not enter the classical ER/Golgi secretory pathway (Hughes, 1999; Nickel, 2003) and their secretion is not blocked by drugs that inhibit the classical secretory pathway such as brefeldin A and monensin (Lindstedt, Apodaca,
Barondes, Mostov, & Leffler, 1993; Sato, Burdett, & Hughes, 1993).

64 Currently, three major mechanisms have been proposed to explain the unconventional 65 secretion of leaderless proteins: (i) direct translocation across the plasma membrane either 66 through a transporter or by auto-transportation as in the case of FGF2; (ii) The engulfment 67 into extracellular vesicle (exosome and microvesicle), and (iii) the capture into a membrane 68 bound compartment such as secretory autophagosome, a late endosome or CUPS (Hughes, 69 1999; Nickel & Rabouille, 2009; Nickel & Seedorf, 2008).

Evidence is lacking for a mechanism involving direct translocation of galectins across 70 the membrane. In particular, a transporter is yet to be identified and the auto-transportation by 71 72 pore formation is also lacking (Hughes, 1999; Nickel & Rabouille, 2009; Nickel & Seedorf, 2008; Rabouille, 2017). Galectin secretion via microvesicles or exosomes, collectively 73 termed extracellular vesicles (EVs) has been proposed (Cooper & Barondes, 1990; Mehul & 74 Hughes, 1997; Sato et al., 1993; Seelenmeyer, Stegmayer, & Nickel, 2008). Indeed, Gal-3 75 76 and Gal-1 are recruited to the cytoplasmic leaflet of the plasma membrane where they are secreted in microvesicles generated by plasma membrane budding (Cooper & Barondes, 77 1990; Mehul & Hughes, 1997). However, contrasting reports show that Gal-1 secretion is not 78 reduced when plasma membrane blebbing is inhibited (Seelenmeyer et al., 2008). 79 Furthermore, secretion in EVs does not explain how galectins are subsequently delivered to 80 the cell surface, although the EVs may be disrupted in the extracellular space to release Gal-3 81 (Mehul & Hughes, 1997). It has also been proposed that Gal-1 is directly transported across 82 the plasma membrane while coupled to glycoproteins or lipids on the inner leaflet of the 83 membrane of the secretory vesicles. Indeed, Gal-1 secretion requires a functional CRD for 84 cell surface localisation, and binding to glycoproteins proteins or glycolipids may recruit 85 galectins to the inner leaflet of the plasma membrane and mediate transport across the 86 membrane to the cell surface (Seelenmeyer et al., 2005). However, Chinese hamster ovary 87 (CHO) cells lacking the ability to glycosylate glycoproteins efficiently secrete Gal-1 (Cho & 88 Cummings, 1995), suggesting that the glycans do not play a role in the secretion. Therefore, 89 not only the mechanism of galectin secretion from the cell remains elusive, but also the role 90 of glycosylation in the secretion process. 91

What is better established, however, is that moieties of N-linked glycoproteins and lipids that are exposed to the extracellular leaflet of the plasma membrane are important for restricting galectins to the cell surface of cells after their secretion and prevent them to diffuse in the extracellular medium. For instance, exogenous purified Gal-1, -3 and -8 only
bind to the cell surface when N-linked glycosylation pathways are intact and N-linked
glycans expressed at the cell surface (Patnaik et al., 2006).

To identify key regulators of Gal-3 cell surface localization (the sum of both its secretion and its retention) and clarify the role of glycosylation in either, we performed a genome-wide CRISPR/Cas9 forward genetic screen. The most significantly enriched genes identified in the screen encodes glycoproteins, enzymes involved in N-linked glycan maturation and proteins regulating ER-Golgi trafficking.

We focused on the role of two genes identified in the CRISPR screen that encode 103 proteins essential for N-linked glycosylation. When N-linked glycosylation was disrupted the 104 level of Gal-3 on the cell surface decreased. This was not due to a disruption of Gal-3 105 secretion from the cytosol to the extracellular space, as free Gal-3 was detected in the 106 107 medium. This demonstrates that N-linked glycosylation is not required for secretion of Gal-3, but is essential for cell surface binding. These data support a model where N-linked 108 glycosylation is not required for secretion of Gal-3 to the extracellular space. 109 Furthermore, we tested the role of EVs in Gal-3 secretion but we conclude that they are not 110 involved. 111

112

113 **Results**

114 A genome-wide screen identifies genes required for galectin-3 cell surface localization

Due to the limited knowledge about Gal-3 trafficking from the cytosol to the cell 115 surface and its regulation, we set out to identify genes required for cell surface localization of 116 Gal-3. At steady state suspension HeLa cells (sHeLa) express Gal-3 on their surface (figure 117 S1A) and there is a small proportion detectable in the medium (figure S1B). To be found on 118 the outer leaflet of cell surface, Gal-3 must be secreted from the cytosol through an 119 unconventional protein trafficking pathway. Therefore, we performed a genome-wide 120 CRISPR/Cas9 forward genetic screen in sHeLa and enriched for cells with decreased cell 121 surface Gal-3 (figure 1A). To ensure optimal screening parameters, sHeLa cells stably 122 expressing Cas9 nuclease (sHeLa-Cas9) were analysed for Gal-3 surface expression by flow 123 cytometry. Gal-3 surface expression was largely homogenous; however, the small population 124 of Gal-3 negative cells were removed in a pre-clear cell sort to optimize screening 125 parameters. The resulting population (approximately 1×10^8 cells) was then transduced with 126

the GeCKO v2 sgRNA library, containing 123,411 guide RNAs targeting 19,050 genes, at a 127 multiplicity of infection of approximately 0.3 (Shalem et al., 2014; Timms et al., 2016). 128 Untransduced cells were removed through puromycin selection and rare cells that had 129 reduced cell surface Gal-3 were enriched by two rounds of fluorescence activated cell sorting 130 (FACS) (figure 1A and 1B). The sgRNA abundance of the enriched population was 131 quantified by deep sequencing and compared to the control unsorted population (figure 1C) 132 (Konig et al., 2007; Timms et al., 2016). Strikingly the most significantly enriched genes 133 identified in this screen coded for Golgi enzymes involved in N-linked glycosylation or 134 proteins regulating ER-Golgi transport (figure 1C and D). These include solute carrier family 135 35 member A2 (SLC35A2), mannosyl (alpha-1,3-)-glycoprotein 136 beta-1,2-Nacetylglucosaminyltransferase (MGAT1), mannosidase alpha class 1A member 2 (MAN1A2) 137 and component of oligomeric Golgi complex 1 (COG1) (figure 1C and 1D and table S1). To 138 further analyze the function of the genes identified in this screen we applied bioinformatic 139 pathway analysis to the 200 most enriched genes (Huang da, Sherman, & Lempicki, 2009a, 140 2009b). This analysis showed that of the genes with known function many genes coded for 141 glycoproteins such as Integrin Subunit Beta 3 (ITGB3), Laminin Subunit Beta 2 (LAMB2) 142 and basigin (CD147), or proteins involved in the transport of glycoproteins within the Golgi 143 144 and to the cell surface including ADP-ribosylation factor 1 (ARF1) and ADP-ribosylation factor 1 Like GTPase 3 (ARL3) and proteins with roles in immunity including NLR Family 145 Pyrin Domain Containing 2 (NLRP2) and Tripartite Motif Containing 5 and 34 (TRIM5, 146 TRIM34) (table 1). Interestingly, several proteins identified in this screen are known Gal-3 147 interactors either on cell surface such as the integrins, laminins and CD147 or in the cytosol 148 for the TRIMs (Chauhan et al., 2016; Priglinger et al., 2013). 149

No core ER proteins or enzymes required for N-linked glycosylation upstream of the 150 151 Golgi were identified in the screen. Furthermore, not all subunits of the COG family were identified. sgRNAs targeting Gal-3 itself were also not enriched in the screen. Analysis of the 152 control unsorted population shows that the screen was not saturating and 7% of the sgRNA in 153 the library were not present and around 20% showed a coverage of less than 200 cells/sgRNA 154 (data not shown). Five sgRNAs targeting Gal-3 were efficiently represented, yet these cells 155 were not enriched during the screen. This may indicate that these guides were not effective at 156 157 targeting Gal-3 or Gal-3 deletion is lethal or decreased cell growth Another explanation for the lack of Gal-3 sgRNA enrichment is that Gal-3 secreted by other surrounding cells is able 158 to bind to the surface of Gal-3 null cells, masking the effect of the knockout in our FACS 159

assay. This scenario could also affect other knockout cells, where the sgRNA targets key
regulators of Gal-3 secretion but glycosylated binding partners on the cell surface are
unaffected. However, some of the hits identified in the screen such as TRIM34, TRIM5,
ARHGAP30 and ARHGAP9 are not known to regulate the glycosylation pathway. Therefore,
it remains unclear why Gal-3 was not enriched in this screen.

Additionally, we did not identify genes previously linked to unconventional secretion 165 such as LC3, GABARAP, GRASP55 and ESCRT components (table S1) (for review, (Nickel 166 & Rabouille, 2009; Rabouille, 2017). To further confirm that autophagy, the GRASP55 and 167 the ESCRT pathways do not regulate cell surface localization of Gal-3, we used LC3 and 168 GABARAP knockout cells (figure S2A), GRASP55 esiRNA (figure S2B) and a Vps4 169 dominant negative mutant (figure S2C). In all cases the cell surface expression of Gal-3 170 remained unaffected, further verifying the absence of these genes in the CRISPR/Cas9 171 forward genetic screen. 172

173

174 N-linked glycosylation is required for cell surface binding but not galectin secretion

Since it remains controversial whether glycosylation is required for galectin 175 trafficking to the cell surface, we determined if defective N-linked glycosylation decreased 176 Gal-3 trafficking to the cell surface or if N-linked glycoproteins are simply required for Gal-3 177 cell surface binding. Tunicamycin blocks the transfer of N-acetylglucosamine-1-phosphate 178 from UDP-N-acetylglucosamine to dolichol phosphate, the first step in N-linked 179 glycosylation (figure 2A) and was used to inhibit glycosylation in sHeLa cells. Cells were 180 treated with increasing concentrations of tunicamycin to inhibit N-linked glycosylation and 181 the level of cell surface Gal-3 was assessed by flow cytometry. Cell surface Gal-3 decreased 182 as the concentration of tunicamycin increased (figure 2B). Propidium iodide was used to 183 measure cell viability and cells remained viable at all tunicamycin concentrations (figure 2B, 184 right). In agreement with the results of the CRISPR screen, this shows that a reduction in N-185 linked glycosylation (and thus complex glycans at the cell surface) decreases cell surface 186 Gal-3. 187

To investigate whether N-linked glycosylation is required for transport of Gal-3 from the cytosol to the extracellular space, the supernatant of sHeLa cells treated with tunicamycin was analysed by western blotting. In this assay, if N-linked glycosylation is indeed required for Gal-3 transport there should be a reduction in the level of Gal-3 in the supernatant

compared to untreated cells. Conversely, if N-linked glycosylation is only required for cell 192 surface binding and not for secretion, there should be an increase in free Gal-3 measured in 193 the supernatant. Western blotting showed a concentration dependent increase of Gal-3 in the 194 supernatant after tunicamycin treatment (figure 2C). A similar trend was observed for Gal-1 195 (figure 2C, left). The effectiveness of tunicamycin treatment was confirmed by assessing the 196 relative expression of the ER resident protein BiP (GRP78), where increased expression 197 indicates ER stress (figure 2C). Actin and Annexin A2 were used as negative controls, with 198 low levels detectable in the supernatant upon tunicamycin treatment (figure 2C). These 199 200 results support the suggestion that Gal-3 and Gal-1 require N-linked glycans to bind to the cell surface (Patnaik et al., 2006). These data also suggest that secretion of galectins from the 201 cytosol to the extracellular space is independent of N-linked glycosylation. 202

203

N-linked glycan maturation mediated by MGAT1 and SLC35A2 is required for Gal-3 cell surface binding but not secretion

The use of tunicamycin to block N-linked glycosylation provides proof of principle 206 but there may be confounding factors due to off target effects. Therefore, to validate the 207 findings of the CRISPR screen and investigate the role of N-linked glycan maturation we 208 209 targeted MGAT1 and SLC35A2; two genes that were highly enriched in the screen and are known to be specifically required for N-linked glycosylation (figure 1C and 1D). In the cis-210 Golgi MGAT1 adds N-acetylglucosamine to the sugar backbone of glycoproteins, initiating 211 complex N-linked glycosylation (figure 1D). SLC35A2 acts later in the trans-Golgi, 212 transporting UDP-galactose into the trans-Golgi network for addition onto glycoproteins 213 (figure 1D). 214

We generated MGAT1 and SLC35A2 CRISPR knockout cell lines using guide RNAs 215 from an independent CRISPR/Cas9 library (Wang et al., 2015). This provides an additional 216 control for off-target effects as the guide RNAs differed from those used in our original 217 CRISPR screen. Single cell cloning, using FACS, was carried out to obtain knockout clones 218 for MGAT1 and SLC35A2 (figure S3). To evaluate the presence of CRISPR induced 219 mutations in either MGAT1 or SLC35A2 genes, the targeted region of the gene was 220 amplified and sequenced. Alignments and Tracking of Indels by Decomposition (TIDE) 221 analysis confirmed that MGAT1 and SCL35A2 contain CRISPR induced insertions and 222 deletions (figure S3) (Brinkman, Chen, Amendola, & van Steensel, 2014). MGAT1 and 223 SLC35A2 clones contained a combination of homozygous and compound heterozygous 224

deletions likely to disrupt gene function (figure S3). As a positive control, additional MGAT1 and SLC35A2 clones that expressed cell surface Gal-3 to a similar level as untargeted cells (Gal-3 positive) were isolated; these contained no insertions or deletions in the targeted region (figure S3).

CRISPR induced deletions led to a loss of target protein expression in both MGAT1 229 clones and SLC35A2 clones, assessed by western blotting (figure 3A). MGAT1 and 230 SLC35A2 protein levels are similar to wild type in the Gal-3 positive clones (figure 3A). 231 MGAT1 and SLC35A2 are both essential for N-linked glycosylation, so defective 232 glycosylation would be expected on all N-linked glycoproteins. To assess this, lysosomal 233 associated membrane protein-2 (LAMP-2) glycoforms were analysed by western blotting. 234 MGAT1 and SLC35A2 deficient clones expressed a lower molecular weight form of LAMP-235 2 compared to wild type and Gal-3 positive sHeLa cells (Figure 3A). This indicates that there 236 are fewer mature N-linked glycans added to LAMP-2 when MGAT1 or SLC35A2 are absent. 237

To confirm that the loss of MGAT1 and SLC35A2 leads to a decrease in the 238 expression of Gal-3 on the cell surface, as identified in the initial CRISPR screen, we 239 assessed cell surface Gal-3 using flow cytometry. Gal-3 positive clones expressing MGAT1 240 and SLC35A2 were indeed positive for Gal-3 at a comparable level to wild type sHeLa 241 (figure 3B). Likewise, MGAT1 and SLC35A2 deficient clones obtained from the Gal-3 242 negative population showed a marked reduction in the expression of Gal-3 (figure 3B). 243 Therefore, the Gal-3 negative phenotype seen by flow cytometry can be attributed to 244 CRISPR-mediated knockout of MGAT1 and SLC35A2, further validating the original 245 CRISPR screen. 246

To assess whether loss of MGAT1 or SLC35A2 impacts the transport of Gal-3 from 247 the cytosol to the extracellular space, we analysed Gal-3 secretion by western blotting. Our 248 results show that in both MGAT1 and SLC35A2 deficient cells, Gal-3 is readily detected in 249 the extracellular medium (figure 3C). Furthermore, in MGAT1 and SLC35A2 deficient cells 250 there was an increase in the relative amount of Gal-3 in the supernatant compared to the wild 251 type sHeLa control (figure 3C). This was not seen in the Gal-3 positive wild type clones, 252 which remained similar to wild type sHeLa (figure 3C). Gal-1 also showed a similar trend in 253 SLC35A2 knockout cells (figure S3). Therefore, a lack of N-linked glycosylation due to 254 MGAT1 or SLC35A2 deficiency leads to reduced galectin binding to the cell surface and an 255 increase in galectin in the supernatant. This is indicative of a binding defect and not a 256 reduction in secretion. 257

258

259

CHO glycosylation mutants also efficiently secrete galectins

To further assess the role of N-linked glycosylation in the transport of galectins to the cell surface and their secretion, several well characterized CHO cell lines with glycosylation defects were used to validate our data (Stanley, 1989). These include an MGAT1 loss of function mutant (Lec1), an SLC35A2 loss of function mutant (Lec8) and an MGAT1 and SLC35A2 loss of function double mutant (Lec3.2.8.1) (Stanley, 1989). The aberrations in the N-linked glycans produced from each cell line are depicted in figure 4A.

These cell lines were previously used to analyze galectin-glycan binding specificity, 266 demonstrating that N-linked glycans are the major ligand for Gal-1, -3 and -8 binding at the 267 cell surface (Patnaik & Stanley, 2006). These mutant CHO lines were used here to further 268 assess Gal-3 and Gal-1 cell surface binding and secretion. Flow cytometry analysis of Gal-3 269 expression on the surface of CHO cells showed that MGAT1 (Lec1) and SLC35A2 (Lec8) 270 single loss of function mutant lines, as well as the MGAT1/SLC35A2 (Lec3.2.8.1) double 271 mutant line all exhibited a decrease in the level of Gal-3 detectable on the cell surface 272 273 compared to the wild type (Pro5) (figure 4A). This phenotype was reversed in an MGAT1 rescue cell line, confirming that the loss of Gal-3 on the surface is due to the loss of function 274 mutation in the MGAT1 gene (figure 4B) (Chen & Stanley, 2003; Kumar & Stanley, 1989). 275 Western blotting analysis showed that Gal-3 was secreted by MGAT1 (Lec1) and SLC35A2 276 (Lec8) loss of function cells as expected (figure 4C). Furthermore, the level of Gal-3 277 detectable in the medium is substantially higher than the wild type (Pro5) CHO and MGAT1 278 rescue cell lines (figure 4C). This was also evident when Gal-1 secretion was assessed (figure 279 4C). These data are consistent with results obtained in sHeLa lines and further confirms that 280 N-linked glycosylation is not required for Gal-3 secretion. 281

282

283 Secreted Gal-3 is primarily free and not packaged into extracellular vesicles

Thus far, we have shown that N-linked glycan maturation is not required for the transport of Gal-3 from the cytosol to the extracellular space and is a regulatory element that retains galectins at the cell surface. Next, we set out to investigate whether secreted Gal-3 is free in the medium or packaged into EVs. There is conflicting data in the literature as to whether galectins are secreted via EVs (Cooper & Barondes, 1990; Mehul & Hughes, 1997; Sato et al., 1993; Seelenmeyer et al., 2008). To investigate this, the medium from wild type,

MGAT1 or SCL35A2 deficient cells was collected and subjected to differential 290 centrifugation. Briefly, cells were removed at 300g, then the cell debris was removed at 291 3000g and EVs pelleted at 100,000g. The supernatant and EV pellets were separated after 292 centrifugation at 100,000g and each assessed for Gal-3 by western blot. The data show 293 similar levels of Gal-3 in the medium after removing EVs at 100,000g, indicating that the 294 majority of the secreted Gal-3 is free and not packaged in vesicles (figure 5A and B). Gal-3 is 295 detectable in the 100,000g EV pellet of all cell lines, although the levels were somewhat 296 variable, and there was a small increase in the amount of both actin and Gal-3 detected in the 297 EV pellets from MGAT1 deficient clones (figure 5A and B). It is important to note that the 298 EV pellets are 50x concentrated compared to the supernatant samples (figure 5A and B). To 299 assess the composition of the 100,000g pellet further, we analysed the tetraspanin CD63 300 which is known to be enriched in exosomes (Escola et al., 1998). The 100,000g pellet was 301 CD63 positive and therefore contained some exosomes (figure 5A and B). Due to impaired 302 glycosylation CD63 runs as a smaller form in the MGAT1 and SLC35A2 deficient EVs 303 (figure 5A and B). The lack of glycosylation on CD63 seems to affect the antibody detection 304 and the naked non-glycosylated form it detected better than the glycosylated form. Therefore, 305 it is difficult to comment on the relative levels of CD63 in the EV pellets of the MGAT1 and 306 307 SLC35A2 compared to the wild type controls. However, we believe that the lack of MGAT1 or SLC35A2 does not affect the formation or level of EVs. 308

We also assessed whether Gal-3 secreted from CHO MGAT1 (Lec1), SLC35A2 309 (Lec8) and MGAT1/SLC35A2 double (Lec3.2.8.1) mutant cell lines is also free and not 310 packaged into EVs. In agreement with the sHeLa MGAT1 and SLC35A2 deficient cells, the 311 312 levels of Gal-3 secreted from the CHO MGAT1 (Lec1), SLC35A2 (Lec8) and MGAT1/SLC35A2 double (Lec3.2.8.1) mutant lines remained unchanged after a 100,000g 313 centrifugation step (figure 5C). There was a small increase in the level of Gal-3 and actin 314 detectable in the EV pellets of MGAT1 (Lec1), SLC35A2 (Lec8) and MAGT1/SLC35A2 315 double (Lec3.2.8.1) mutants compared to wild type (Pro5) and rescue lines (figure 5C). This 316 may also be reflected in the MGAT1 deficient cells but is not the case for SLC35A2 which 317 was more variable (figure 5A and B). Therefore, any differences in level of EVs secreted is 318 trivial and is unlikely to significantly contribute to the levels of secreted Gal-3. Due to 319 320 differences in the species of the cells we were unable to evaluate CD63 in the EV pellets of CHO. Together these results show that Gal-3 associated with EVs comprises a small 321

proportion of the total secreted Gal-3 and therefore cannot be the primary route for traffickingoutside the cell.

324

N-linked glycoproteins are required for the recruitment of intracellular Gal-3 to damaged lysosomal membranes

Gal-3 has important roles in regulating cell death and immunity, and is recruited to 327 endolysosomes, lysosomes and phagosomes in response to induced organelle damage and 328 damage due to bacterial infection (Aits et al., 2015; Feeley et al., 2017; Maejima et al., 2013; 329 Paz et al., 2010). In addition, Gal-3 interacts with TRIM16 to coordinate autophagy to protect 330 against cell damage and bacterial invasion (Chauhan et al., 2016). Recruitment to lysosomes 331 or Shigella disrupted phagosomes is dependent on Gal-3 binding to N-linked glycans, as 332 shown using a Gal-3 CRD mutant and CHO MGAT1 mutant (Lec1) cells respectively (Aits 333 et al., 2015; Paz et al., 2010). Therefore, N-linked glycans are not only important for cell 334 surface localisation of Gal-3 but are also central for the recruitment of Gal-3 to damaged 335 lysosomes. To further characterize our MGAT1 and SLC35A2 deficient sHeLa cell lines, we 336 337 assessed the ability of Gal-3 to redistribute from the cytosol to the membrane of leaky lysosomes (Maejima et al., 2013). To do so we expressed green fluorescent protein (GFP) 338 fused to Gal-3 in wild type, MGAT1 and SLC35A2 deficient sHeLa lines. All cell lines were 339 then treated with L-Leucyl-L-Leucine methyl ester (LLOMe) to induce lysosomal leakiness 340 and we assessed the recruitment of GFP-Gal-3 to the site of damage by immunofluorescence 341 (Maejima, Takahashi et al. 2013). In wild type cells, GFP-Gal-3 is efficiently redistributed 342 from the cytosol to the site of lysosomal damage, colocalizing with LAMP-2 positive puncta 343 (figure 6A). However, in MGAT1 and SLC35A2 deficient cells the recruitment of GFP-Gal-3 344 to LAMP-2 positive damaged lysosomes are reduced (figure 6A). We also assessed 345 recruitment of LC3, as damage to lysosomes should initiate autophagy to degrade the 346 dysfunctional organelle (Maejima et al., 2013). As expected, in wild type cells treated with 347 LLOMe GFP-Gal-3 positive puncta were also mRFP-LC3 positive (figure 6B). In the 348 MGAT1 and SLC35A2 deficient cells recruitment of GFP-Gal-3 to mRFP-LC3 positive 349 damaged lysosomes is impaired (figure 6B). This further confirms that N-linked glycan 350 maturation is required for the recruitment of Gal-3 to damaged lysosomes and 351 autophagosomes, essential for cellular homeostasis and defense. 352

353

354 **Discussion**

Cell surface expression of galectins is essential for cellular homeostasis. Despite 355 having important functions in the extracellular space, the mechanism of galectin secretion 356 357 remains unclear. Galectins do not enter the classical secretory pathway, as they do not contain a signal peptide and their secretion is not affected by drugs that block this pathway (Hughes, 358 1999). Therefore, they must exit the cell though an unknown unconventional protein 359 trafficking pathway. Currently there is limited data available to explain the mechanisms of 360 galectin trafficking from the cytosol to the extracellular space and current theories are 361 controversial. Here we applied a genome-wide CRISPR screen using the GeCKO v2 library 362 to identify regulators of Gal-3 cell surface localisation. Following mutagenesis and enriching 363 for cells with reduced Gal-3 expression at the cell surface, many genes coding for 364 glycoproteins or proteins required for N-linked glycan maturation were identified. While this 365 screen returned many important regulators of Gal-3 it is apparent that the screen was not 366 saturating. As discussed in the results section, sequencing data from the control unsorted 367 population shows that the screen was not saturating. However, five sgRNAs targeting Gal-3 368 were efficiently represented in the control unsorted population, yet these cells were not 369 enriched during sorting. One explanation for this is that there is free Gal-3 in the medium, 370 secreted by surrounding cells, that binds to the surface of Gal-3 deficient cells masking their 371 Gal-3 negative phenotype. This could also mask other important hits where secretion of Gal-3 372 is impaired but glycosylation is normal. Unfortunately, we were not able to assess the levels 373 of Gal-3 in the medium and therefore do not know if this explains the lack of Gal-3 sgRNA 374 enrichment. Moreover, there are hits identified in this screen that are not known to regulate 375 376 glycosylation (such as TRIM34, TRIM5, ARHGAP30 and ARHGAP9), which should also be masked in this scenario. Additionally, we did not detect any ER proteins required for 377 glycosylation, upstream of the Golgi, which is somewhat surprising. Loss of these proteins 378 may be lethal or decrease cell proliferation. It is also important to note that the most 379 significantly enriched genes identified by the screen may not be those most important for 380 mediating Gal-3 surface localisation, it may simply be that they survive well and are 381 therefore enriched better than others. 382

Although the screen was not saturating, the results obtained here are consistent with the literature as Gal-3 is known to bind to N-linked glycans present on the cell surface (Patnaik et al., 2006). This is also consistent with the notion that Gal-3 requires N-linked glycans to facilitate trafficking from the cytosol to the cell surface (Seelenmeyer et al., 2005).

However, this is controversial and it was important to establish whether glycoproteins 387 carrying N-linked sugar moieties are required for transport of Gal-3 from the cytosol to the 388 extracellular space. Using tunicamycin and two different MGAT1 and SLC35A2 mutant cell 389 lines we demonstrate that Gal-3 cell surface binding is dependent on the expression of 390 complex N-linked glycans, however, Gal-3 is efficiently secreted in the absence of N-linked 391 glycans. The secretion of both Gal-3 and Gal-1 was unperturbed in the absence of N-linked 392 glycosylation, clearly demonstrating that their secretion is independent of both the classical 393 secretory pathway and any pathway requiring complex glycoproteins and lipids for transport. 394

The role of EVs in galectin secretion has been controversial, with conflicting reports 395 in the literature (Cooper & Barondes, 1990; Mehul & Hughes, 1997; Sato et al., 1993; 396 Seelenmeyer et al., 2008). Here, we demonstrate that transport of Gal-3 from the cytosol to 397 the extracellular space is not primarily mediated by EVs in sHeLa and CHO cell lines. Due to 398 the increased levels of Gal-3 detectable in the medium, MGAT1 and SLC35A2 deficient cells 399 provide an excellent system for assessing whether extracellular Gal-3 is packaged into EVs. 400 Using differential centrifugation, we show that the vast majority of Gal-3 detected in the 401 medium is free and soluble, indicating Gal-3 is not packaged into extracellular vesicles. 402 These data support an EV independent pathway for Gal-3 trafficking to the cell surface and 403 secretion into the extracellular space. 404

It has previously been shown that Gal-3 is redistributed from the cytosol to 405 glycoproteins on the luminal membrane of damaged endolysosomes/phagosomes (Aits et al., 406 2015; Feeley et al., 2017; Maejima et al., 2013; Paz et al., 2010). Once associated with the 407 membrane of the damaged organelle, Gal-3 stimulates autophagy to clear the threat (Maejima 408 et al., 2013). Furthermore, it has been shown that Gal-3 is recruited to Shigella containing 409 phagosomes in wild type CHO cells but not MGAT1 (Lec1) mutant CHO cells (Paz et al., 410 2010). Given these previous data we tested the MGAT1 and SLC35A2 deficient sHeLa cells 411 in this context. As expected, Gal-3 recruitment to damaged lysosomes is impaired in the 412 MGAT1 and SLC35A2 cell lines. These data, shown by us and others, may explain why 413 414 people with congenital disorders of glycosylation (CDG) suffer from recurrent infections, reviewed (Albahri, 2015; Grunewald, Matthijs, & Jaeken, 2002; Monticelli, Ferro, Jaeken, 415 Dos Reis Ferreira, & Videira, 2016). CDG are rare genetic disorders where glycosylation of 416 multiple proteins are deficient or defective due to mutations in the glycosylation pathway; 417 these mutations can occur in COG1, MGAT1 and SLC35A2 genes among many others 418 (Albahri, 2015; Grunewald et al., 2002). CDG cause a range multiple organ malfunctions, in 419

almost all cases the nervous system is affected and symptoms include developmental 420 disabilities, ataxia hypotonia, hyporeflexia and immunological defects (Albahri, 2015; 421 Grunewald et al., 2002; Monticelli et al., 2016). It is becoming increasingly apparent that 422 patients with immunological defects are more likely to have mutations in resident ER and 423 Golgi enzymes (Monticelli et al., 2016). Consistent with this, our data and previous data from 424 Paz and colleagues suggest that patients with certain forms of CDG could have a reduced 425 ability to sense bacterial or viral entry in the cytosol due to a lack of galectin recruitment to 426 the site of infection (Paz et al., 2010). 427

Together these data demonstrate that galectin cell surface binding and secretion are 428 two distinct events. This is consistent with previous studies, which have shown that Gal-3 429 secretion is unaffected by disruptions in the secretory pathway (Cho & Cummings, 1995; 430 Lindstedt et al., 1993; Sato et al., 1993). Exactly which domains or sequences are essential 431 for mediating galectin secretion are also controversial. It has been shown that the flexible N-432 terminal domain on Gal-3 is important for secretion, however, this flexible N-terminal 433 domain is absent in other galectins (Menon & Hughes, 1999). Therefore, if there is a common 434 unconventional secretory pathway utilized by the galectin family, it would be somewhat 435 surprising if this was located in the only domain that is not conserved across the galectin 436 family. In contrast, other studies have found that the CRD is essential for the effective 437 secretion of Gal-1 (Seelenmeyer et al., 2005). However, in our hands the CRD mutant Gal-3 438 (R186S), which is unable to bind GlcNAc, did not show any defects in Gal-3 secretion 439 compared to the wild type (figure S5)(Salomonsson et al., 2010). It is possible that there are 440 differences in the requirements for secretion between galectin family members, but this 441 442 would be very surprising as the galectins are highly similar and common transport mechanism would be expected. 443

Regardless of the exact mechanism, it may be expected that galectins are not secreted via the conventional secretory pathway as their ligand (complex carbohydrates) is a major component of the lumen of the ER and Golgi. If galectins had to move through the ER and Golgi they would come into contact with their ligand, bind and potentially interrupt the movement of other proteins through the secretory pathway. Therefore, having a separate pathway for trafficking galectins to the cell surface is an excellent way of ensuring that they only meet their ligands where required.

Finally, hundreds of genetic disorders that result from deficiencies in different glycosylation pathways have been described, including several neurological diseases such as 453 autism, epilepsy and CDG (Freeze, Eklund, Ng, & Patterson, 2015). Additionally, cancer 454 cells are known to deeply alter the glycosylation pathway inducing hypo- or hyper-455 glycosylation (Pinho & Reis, 2015). As such, it would be interesting to study whether the 456 alterations in several signaling pathways described in these diseases are associated with a 457 dysregulation of cell surface galectins given the important role of galectins in signal 458 transduction and cell to cell interactions.

459

460 Materials and methods

461 Cell culture

Suspension HeLa cells were cultured in DMEM D6546 (Molecular Probes) plus 10% fetal bovine serum (FBS), 2 mM L-glutamine and 100 U ml⁻¹ penicillin/streptomycin in 5% CO₂ at 37°C. LC3 and GABARAP knockout HeLa cells were cultured as described (Nguyen et al., 2016). Lec cells (CHO), obtained from Pamela Stanley (Albert Einstein College of Medicine), were cultured in MEM alpha, nucleosides (Molecular Probes, 22571038) plus 10% FBS and 100 U ml⁻¹ penicillin/streptomycin in 5% CO₂ at 37°C.

468

469 Antibodies and reagents

Antibodies: rat polyclonal anti-Galectin-3 (Biolegend; 125408; WB: 1/2,000), rat polyclonal 470 anti-Galectin-3 conjugated to Alexa Fluor647 (Biolegend; 125402; FC: 1/100), rabbit 471 polyclonal anti-Galectin-1 (a generous gift from Walter Nickel, Heidelberg University; WB: 472 1/500), mouse monoclonal anti-Annexin A2 (BD Biosciences; 610071; WB: 1/1,000), rabbit 473 polyclonal anti-Actin (Sigma; A2066; WB: 1/2,000), rabbit polyclonal anti-BiP (Abcam; 474 ab21685: WB: 1/1,000), mouse monoclonal anti-LAMP2 (Biolegend; 354302; WB: 1/1,000; 475 IF: 1/100), rabbit polyclonal anti-SLC35A2 (Cambridge Bioscience; HPA036087; WB: 476 1/500), rabbit polyclonal anti-MGAT1 (Abcam; ab180578; WB: 1/1,000), mouse monoclonal 477 anti-human CD63 (Thermo Fisher Scientific; 10628D; WB: 1:500), rabbit polyclonal anti-478 GFP (Clontech; 632592; WB: 1/2,000), rabbit polyclonal anti-LC3B (Novus Biologicals; 479 NB100-2220; WB: 1/2,000), rabbit polyclonal anti-GABARAP (Abgent; AP1821a; WB: 480 1/1,000), monoclonal anti-CD29 (BD Biosciences; Clone 18/CD29; WB: 1/2,000) and rabbit 481 polyclonal anti-GRASP55 (Proteintech; 10598-1-AP; WB: 1/1,000). 482

Reagents: tunicamycin (New England Biolabs; 12819), L-Leucyl-L-leucine methyl ester
(Sigma-Aldrich; L7393), propidium iodide solution (Biolegend; 421301), QuickExtract DNA
extraction solution (Epicenter; QE0905T), Herculase II fusion DNA polymerase (Agilent;
600675). Oligonucleotides for MGAT1 and SLC35A2 CRISPR targeting and sequencing
were synthesized from Sigma-Aldrich (table S2). MISSION esiRNA against GRASP55 was
from Sigma-Aldrich (EHU056901).

489

490 Plasmids

pSpCas9(BB)-2A-GFP (PX458) was a gift from Feng Zhang (Addgene plasmid # 48138),
Galectin-3 vector, pEGFP-hGal3, and mRFP-LC3 were a gift from Tamotsu Yoshimori
(Addgene plasmid # 73080 and # 21075 respectively) (Maejima et al., 2013), LentiCas9Blast was a gift from Feng Zhang (Addgene plasmid # 52962), Vps4 wild type and EQ
mutant were a gift from Colin Crump (Crump, Yates, & Minson, 2007).

496

497 CRISPR screen

The Cas9 nuclease was stably expressed in suspension HeLa cells by lentiviral transduction 498 (Sanjana, Shalem, & Zhang, 2014). Approximately 1×10^8 cells were then transduced with the 499 GeCKO v2 sgRNA library (Addgene cat#1000000047, kindly deposited by Prof. Feng Zhang 500 (Shalem et al., 2014)) at a multiplicity of infection of around 0.2. Untransduced cells were 501 removed from the library through puromycin selection (1 mg ml⁻¹) commencing 48 h after 502 transduction. Rare cells that had lost cell surface Galectin-3 were then enriched by sequential 503 504 rounds of FACS, with the first sort taking place 7 days after transduction with the sgRNA library and the second sort a further 14 days later. Genomic DNA was extracted (Puregene 505 Core Kit A, Qiagen) from both the sorted cells and an unselected pool of mutagenized cells. 506 sgRNA sequences were amplified by two rounds of PCR, with the second round primers 507 containing the necessary adaptors for Illumina sequencing (table S2). Sequencing was carried 508 out using a 50 bp single-end read on an Illumina HiSeq2500 instrument using a custom 509 primer binding immediately upstream of the 20 bp variable segment of the sgRNA. The 3' 510 end of the resulting reads were trimmed of the constant portion of the sgRNA, and then 511 mapped to an index of all of the sgRNA sequences in the GeCKO v2 library using Bowtie 2. 512

The resulting sgRNA count tables were then analyzed using the RSA algorithm using the default settings (Rivest, Shamir, & Adleman, 1978).

515

516 **Bioinformatics pathway analysis**

The first 200 hits identified in the CRISPR screen were loaded to the analysis wizard of the DAVID Bioinformatics Resources 6.8 to perform a pathway analysis (Huang da et al., 2009a, 2009b). According to the algorithm only those genes with known function are included in the pathway analysis and hence not all genes will appear in the tabulated results (table 1).

521

522 CRISPR-mediated gene disruption

For CRISPR/Cas9-mediated gene disruption, oligonucleotides (Sigma-Aldrich; table S2) for 523 top and bottom strands of the sgRNA were annealed, and then cloned into the Cas9 524 expression vector pSpCas9(BB)-2A-GFP (PX458) (Addgene plasmid # 48138, kindly 525 deposited by Feng Zhang) as previously described (Ran et al., 2013). Transfected cells were 526 sorted for GFP fluorescence and clones were isolated by FACS based on a loss of cell surface 527 Galectin-3. Gene disruption was verified by collecting genomic DNA from clonal lines with 528 QuickExtract DNA extraction solution and amplifying the CRISPR/Cas9 targeted region with 529 primers flanking at least 200 base pairs either side of the expected cut site (table S2). PCR 530 products were sequenced by Sanger sequencing. Insertions and deletions analysed by 531 sequence alignment and Tracking of Indels by DEcomposition (TIDE) (Brinkman et al., 532 2014). In addition to using the TIDE web tool, the R code was kindly provided by Prof van 533 Steensel, to analyse clones containing deletions larger than 50 base pairs. 534

535

536 Flow cytometry

Cells were washed once with serum-free medium, incubated at 4°C for 30 min with an antiGalectin-3 antibody conjugated to Alexa Fluor647, washed again and analysed on a
FACSCalibur (BD) equipped with lasers providing 488nm and 633nm excitation sources.
Alexa Fluor647 Fluorescence was detected in FL4 detector (661/16 BP). For sorting, cells
were immunostained as above and FACS was carried on an Influx cell sorter (BD) or Aria-

Fusions (BD) equipped with lasers providing 488 nm and 640 nm excitation sources. Alexa
Fluor647 Fluorescence was detected in 670/30 BP detector on Influx and the Aria Fusion.

544

545 Fluorescence and immunofluorescence microscopy

For immunofluorescence microscopy, cells were cultured on coverslips, fixed with 4% paraformaldehyde in PBS for 5 min and permeabilized with 0.1% Triton X100 in PBS for 5 min. Coverslips were incubated with primary antibodies for 2 h, washed three times with PBS, and incubated with secondary antibodies for 30 min. Samples were mounted using ProLong Gold antifade reagent with DAPI (4,6-diamidino-2-phenylindole; Invitrogen) and observed using a Leica SP8 laser confocal microscope.

552

553 **Immunoblotting**

All samples were resolved by 12% SDS-polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis (PAGE) and 554 transferred to polyvinylidene difluoride membranes for blotting. Membranes were blocked 555 with 5% (w/v) skim milk powder in PBS containing 0.1% Tween-20 (PBS-Tween) for 30 556 min at room temperature. Membranes were then probed with an appropriate dilution of 557 primary antibody overnight at 4°C. Membranes were washed three times in PBS-Tween 558 559 before incubation in diluted secondary antibody for 1 h at room temperature. Membranes were washed as before and developed with ECL (Amersham ECL Western Blotting 560 Detection Reagent RPN2106 for the detection of proteins in the cell lysates or Cyanagen, 561 Westar XLS100 for the detection of proteins in the secreted fractions) using a Bio Rad Chemi 562 Doc XRS system. Membranes were stripped with Restore plus (ThermoFisher Scientific, 563 46430) as per manufactures' instructions. 564

565

566 Secretion assay

To measure the secretion of galectins, cells were washed with serum-free medium and incubated for 24 h for sHeLa or 48 h for CHO (Lec). For sHeLa, serum-free medium was DMEM plus 2 mM L-Glutamine. For CHO (Lec), serum-free medium was EX-CELL® 325 PF CHO (Sigma-Aldrich, C985Z18). Cell supernatants were then collected, centrifuged at

300g to remove potential remaining cells, either filtered at 0.22 μ m or centrifuged at 3000 g 571 to remove cell debris, mixed with sample buffer (50 mM Tris-HCl pH 6.8, 2% SDS (w/v), 572 0.1% Bromophenol Blue, 10% Glycerol and 100 mM DTT) and boiled at 100°C for 5 min. 573 Cell pellets were lysed in lysis buffer (20 mM Tris-HCl pH 6.8, 137 mM NaCl, 1 mM EDTA, 574 1% Triton X-100 and 10% Glycerol) at 4°C for 10 min, insoluble material removed by 575 centrifugation at 10,000 g for 10 min 4°C. Sample buffer was added and cell lysate were 576 samples boiled added (as above). Cell lysates and cell supernatants were then subjected to 577 SDS-PAGE. Densitometry was performed in Image J and the difference in the levels of 578 secreted Gal-3 were calculated in each cell line using the following equation: (Gal-3 in 579 supernatant/Gal-3 in lysate). These values were then used to calculate the fold change relative 580 to the control cells. 581

582

583 **Removal of extracellular vesicles**

Cells were processed as described for the secretion assay except after the 3,000g 584 centrifugation step the medium was collected and centrifuged at 100,000g for 60 min at 4°C. 585 After each centrifugation step a sample of the medium was collected for western blotting. 586 The extracellular vesicle pellet was resuspended in a small volume of non-reducing sample 587 buffer (50 mM Tris-HCl pH 6.8, 2% SDS (w/v), 0.1% Bromophenol Blue, and 10% 588 Glycerol). Half of the EV pellet sample was taken and DTT added to achieve a final 589 590 concentration of 100 mM. All samples were boiled and resolved by SDS-PAGE. The entire concentrated EV pellet sample was loaded on two gels (reduced and non-reduced) for each 591 sample due to the small scale of the assay. Therefore the EV pellet is 50x more concentrated 592 than the equivalent supernatant. 593

594

595 Statistical analysis

Significance levels for comparisons between groups were determined with a two sampleStudents *t*- test.

598

599

600 Author contributions

S.E.S., S.J.P. and K.M. performed all the experiments in the laboratory of K.M., except for
the preparation of the CRISPR lentiviral library, the lentivirus infection and the identification
of the hits, which was performed by S.A.M. in the laboratory of P.J.L. A.P.H. and N.S. have
conducted preliminary experiments to optimise the sorting protocol, and N.S. performed cell
sorting in the NIHR Cambridge BRC Cell Phenotyping Hub under the direction of A.P.H.
S.E.S. and K.M. wrote the paper with comments from all the authors.

607

608 Acknowledgements

We thank Walter Nickel for Galectin-1 antibody, Michael D'Angelo for his help and expertise with CRISPR/Cas9 INDEL analysis, Bas van Steensel for providing the TIDE R code, Matt Castle for R code expertise, Nuno Rocha for his help with CRISPR cloning method, Pamela Stanley for Lec CHO cell lines, Feng Zhang for CRISPR library and px458 vector, Tamotsu Yoshimori for pEGFP-Galectin3 and pmRFP-LC3, Michael Lazarou for the LC3 and GABARAP knockout cells, Colin Crump for the Vps4 vectors.

615

616 Funding

This work has received support from a Wellcome Trust Strategic Award [100574/Z/12/Z] and MRC Metabolic Diseases Unit [MRC_MC_UU_12012/5] for SS and KM, a Wellcome Trust Principal Research Fellowship to PJL (101835/Z/13/Z), a Wellcome Trust PhD studentship to SAM and SJP, and support from the National Institute for Health Research (Cambridge Biomedical Research Centre/ BioResource for NS and APH.

622

623 Competing interests

The authors declare no competing financial interests.

625

626 **References**

- Aits, S., Kricker, J., Liu, B., Ellegaard, A. M., Hamalisto, S., Tvingsholm, S., . . . Jaattela, M. (2015). Sensitive
 detection of lysosomal membrane permeabilization by lysosomal galectin puncta assay. *Autophagy*,
 11(8), 1408-1424. doi:10.1080/15548627.2015.1063871
- Albahri, Z. (2015). Congenital Disorders of Glycosylation: A Review. American Journal of Pediatrics, 1(2), 6-28.
- 631 Boyle, K. B., & Randow, F. (2013). The role of 'eat-me' signals and autophagy cargo receptors in innate 632 immunity. *Curr Opin Microbiol, 16*(3), 339-348. doi:10.1016/j.mib.2013.03.010
- Brinkman, E. K., Chen, T., Amendola, M., & van Steensel, B. (2014). Easy quantitative assessment of genome
 editing by sequence trace decomposition. *Nucleic Acids Res, 42*(22), e168. doi:10.1093/nar/gku936
- Chauhan, S., Kumar, S., Jain, A., Ponpuak, M., Mudd, M. H., Kimura, T., . . . Deretic, V. (2016). TRIMs and
 Galectins Globally Cooperate and TRIM16 and Galectin-3 Co-direct Autophagy in Endomembrane
 Damage Homeostasis. *Dev Cell*, 39(1), 13-27. doi:10.1016/j.devcel.2016.08.003
- Chen, W., & Stanley, P. (2003). Five Lec1 CHO cell mutants have distinct Mgat1 gene mutations that encode
 truncated N-acetylglucosaminyltransferase I. *Glycobiology*, *13*(1), 43-50. doi:10.1093/glycob/cwg003
- 640 Cho, M., & Cummings, R. D. (1995). Galectin-1, a beta-galactoside-binding lectin in Chinese hamster ovary 641 cells. II. Localization and biosynthesis. *J Biol Chem*, *270*(10), 5207-5212.
- Cooper, D. N., & Barondes, S. H. (1990). Evidence for export of a muscle lectin from cytosol to extracellular
 matrix and for a novel secretory mechanism. *J Cell Biol, 110*(5), 1681-1691.
- 644 Crump, C. M., Yates, C., & Minson, T. (2007). Herpes simplex virus type 1 cytoplasmic envelopment requires
 645 functional Vps4. *J Virol, 81*(14), 7380-7387. doi:10.1128/JVI.00222-07
- Elola, M. T., Blidner, A. G., Ferragut, F., Bracalente, C., & Rabinovich, G. A. (2015). Assembly, organization and
 regulation of cell-surface receptors by lectin-glycan complexes. *Biochem J, 469*(1), 1-16.
 doi:10.1042/BJ20150461
- Escola, J. M., Kleijmeer, M. J., Stoorvogel, W., Griffith, J. M., Yoshie, O., & Geuze, H. J. (1998). Selective
 enrichment of tetraspan proteins on the internal vesicles of multivesicular endosomes and on
 exosomes secreted by human B-lymphocytes. J Biol Chem, 273(32), 20121-20127.
- Feeley, E. M., Pilla-Moffett, D. M., Zwack, E. E., Piro, A. S., Finethy, R., Kolb, J. P., . . . Coers, J. (2017). Galectin-3
 directs antimicrobial guanylate binding proteins to vacuoles furnished with bacterial secretion
 systems. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A*. doi:10.1073/pnas.1615771114
- Freeze, H. H., Eklund, E. A., Ng, B. G., & Patterson, M. C. (2015). Neurological aspects of human glycosylation
 disorders. *Annu Rev Neurosci, 38*, 105-125. doi:10.1146/annurev-neuro-071714-034019
- Grunewald, S., Matthijs, G., & Jaeken, J. (2002). Congenital disorders of glycosylation: a review. *Pediatr Res,* 52(5), 618-624. doi:10.1203/00006450-200211000-00003
- Huang da, W., Sherman, B. T., & Lempicki, R. A. (2009a). Bioinformatics enrichment tools: paths toward the
 comprehensive functional analysis of large gene lists. *Nucleic Acids Res, 37*(1), 1-13.
 doi:10.1093/nar/gkn923
- Huang da, W., Sherman, B. T., & Lempicki, R. A. (2009b). Systematic and integrative analysis of large gene lists
 using DAVID bioinformatics resources. *Nat Protoc*, 4(1), 44-57. doi:10.1038/nprot.2008.211
- Hughes, R. C. (1999). Secretion of the galectin family of mammalian carbohydrate-binding proteins. *Biochim Biophys Acta*, 1473(1), 172-185.
- Jagodzinski, A., Havulinna, A. S., Appelbaum, S., Zeller, T., Jousilahti, P., Skytte-Johanssen, S., . . . Salomaa, V.
 (2015). Predictive value of galectin-3 for incident cardiovascular disease and heart failure in the
 population-based FINRISK 1997 cohort. *Int J Cardiol, 192*, 33-39. doi:10.1016/j.ijcard.2015.05.040
- Konig, R., Chiang, C. Y., Tu, B. P., Yan, S. F., DeJesus, P. D., Romero, A., . . . Chanda, S. K. (2007). A probabilitybased approach for the analysis of large-scale RNAi screens. *Nat Methods, 4*(10), 847-849.
 doi:10.1038/nmeth1089
- Kumar, R., & Stanley, P. (1989). Transfection of a human gene that corrects the Lec1 glycosylation defect:
 evidence for transfer of the structural gene for N-acetylglucosaminyltransferase I. *Mol Cell Biol, 9*(12),
 5713-5717.
- Lakshminarayan, R., Wunder, C., Becken, U., Howes, M. T., Benzing, C., Arumugam, S., . . . Johannes, L. (2014).
 Galectin-3 drives glycosphingolipid-dependent biogenesis of clathrin-independent carriers. *Nat Cell Biol, 16*(6), 595-606. doi:10.1038/ncb2970
- Lindstedt, R., Apodaca, G., Barondes, S. H., Mostov, K. E., & Leffler, H. (1993). Apical secretion of a cytosolic
 protein by Madin-Darby canine kidney cells. Evidence for polarized release of an endogenous lectin by
 a nonclassical secretory pathway. *J Biol Chem, 268*(16), 11750-11757.

- Liu, F. T., & Rabinovich, G. A. (2005). Galectins as modulators of tumour progression. *Nat Rev Cancer*, 5(1), 29 41. doi:10.1038/nrc1527
- Maejima, I., Takahashi, A., Omori, H., Kimura, T., Takabatake, Y., Saitoh, T., . . . Yoshimori, T. (2013). Autophagy
 sequesters damaged lysosomes to control lysosomal biogenesis and kidney injury. *EMBO J, 32*(17),
 2336-2347. doi:10.1038/emboj.2013.171
- Mazurek, N., Byrd, J. C., Sun, Y., Hafley, M., Ramirez, K., Burks, J., & Bresalier, R. S. (2012). Cell-surface galectin 3 confers resistance to TRAIL by impeding trafficking of death receptors in metastatic colon
 adenocarcinoma cells. *Cell Death Differ, 19*(3), 523-533. doi:10.1038/cdd.2011.123
- Medvedeva, E. A., Berezin, II, Surkova, E. A., Yaranov, D. M., & Shchukin, Y. V. (2016). Galectin-3 in patients
 with chronic heart failure: association with oxidative stress, inflammation, renal dysfunction and
 prognosis. *Minerva Cardioangiol, 64*(6), 595-602.
- Mehul, B., & Hughes, R. C. (1997). Plasma membrane targetting, vesicular budding and release of galectin 3
 from the cytoplasm of mammalian cells during secretion. *J Cell Sci, 110 (Pt 10)*, 1169-1178.
- Menon, R. P., & Hughes, R. C. (1999). Determinants in the N-terminal domains of galectin-3 for secretion by a
 novel pathway circumventing the endoplasmic reticulum-Golgi complex. *Eur J Biochem, 264*(2), 569 576.
- Monticelli, M., Ferro, T., Jaeken, J., Dos Reis Ferreira, V., & Videira, P. A. (2016). Immunological aspects of
 congenital disorders of glycosylation (CDG): a review. J Inherit Metab Dis, 39(6), 765-780.
 doi:10.1007/s10545-016-9954-9
- Nabi, I. R., Shankar, J., & Dennis, J. W. (2015). The galectin lattice at a glance. *J Cell Sci, 128*(13), 2213-2219.
 doi:10.1242/jcs.151159
- Nguyen, T. N., Padman, B. S., Usher, J., Oorschot, V., Ramm, G., & Lazarou, M. (2016). Atg8 family
 LC3/GABARAP proteins are crucial for autophagosome-lysosome fusion but not autophagosome
 formation during PINK1/Parkin mitophagy and starvation. *J Cell Biol*, 215(6), 857-874.
 doi:10.1083/jcb.201607039
- Nickel, W. (2003). The mystery of nonclassical protein secretion. A current view on cargo proteins and
 potential export routes. *Eur J Biochem, 270*(10), 2109-2119.
- Nickel, W., & Rabouille, C. (2009). Mechanisms of regulated unconventional protein secretion. *Nat Rev Mol Cell Biol, 10*(2), 148-155. doi:10.1038/nrm2617
- 710Nickel, W., & Seedorf, M. (2008). Unconventional mechanisms of protein transport to the cell surface of711eukaryotic cells. Annu Rev Cell Dev Biol, 24, 287-308. doi:10.1146/annurev.cellbio.24.110707.175320
- Patnaik, S. K., Potvin, B., Carlsson, S., Sturm, D., Leffler, H., & Stanley, P. (2006). Complex N-glycans are the
 major ligands for galectin-1, -3, and -8 on Chinese hamster ovary cells. *Glycobiology*, *16*(4), 305-317.
 doi:10.1093/glycob/cwj063
- Patnaik, S. K., & Stanley, P. (2006). Lectin-resistant CHO glycosylation mutants. *Methods Enzymol, 416*, 159 182. doi:10.1016/S0076-6879(06)16011-5
- Paz, I., Sachse, M., Dupont, N., Mounier, J., Cederfur, C., Enninga, J., . . . Sansonetti, P. (2010). Galectin-3, a
 marker for vacuole lysis by invasive pathogens. *Cell Microbiol*, *12*(4), 530-544. doi:10.1111/j.14625822.2009.01415.x
- Pinho, S. S., & Reis, C. A. (2015). Glycosylation in cancer: mechanisms and clinical implications. *Nat Rev Cancer*,
 15(9), 540-555. doi:10.1038/nrc3982
- Priglinger, C. S., Szober, C. M., Priglinger, S. G., Merl, J., Euler, K. N., Kernt, M., . . . Hauck, S. M. (2013).
 Galectin-3 induces clustering of CD147 and integrin-beta1 transmembrane glycoprotein receptors on
 the RPE cell surface. *PLoS One*, 8(7), e70011. doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0070011
- Rabinovich, G. A., Rubinstein, N., & Fainboim, L. (2002). Unlocking the secrets of galectins: a challenge at the
 frontier of glyco-immunology. *J Leukoc Biol*, *71*(5), 741-752.
- Rabouille, C. (2017). Pathways of Unconventional Protein Secretion. *Trends Cell Biol*, 27(3), 230-240.
 doi:10.1016/j.tcb.2016.11.007
- Ran, F. A., Hsu, P. D., Wright, J., Agarwala, V., Scott, D. A., & Zhang, F. (2013). Genome engineering using the
 CRISPR-Cas9 system. *Nat Protoc, 8*(11), 2281-2308. doi:10.1038/nprot.2013.143
- Rivest, R. L., Shamir, A., & Adleman, L. (1978). A method for obtaining digital signatures and public-key
 cryptosystems. *Commun. ACM, 21*(2), 120-126. doi:10.1145/359340.359342
- Salomonsson, E., Carlsson, M. C., Osla, V., Hendus-Altenburger, R., Kahl-Knutson, B., Oberg, C. T., . . . Leffler, H.
 (2010). Mutational tuning of galectin-3 specificity and biological function. *J Biol Chem*, 285(45), 35079 35091. doi:10.1074/jbc.M109.098160
- Sanjana, N. E., Shalem, O., & Zhang, F. (2014). Improved vectors and genome-wide libraries for CRISPR
 screening. *Nat Methods*, *11*(8), 783-784. doi:10.1038/nmeth.3047

- Sato, S., Burdett, I., & Hughes, R. C. (1993). Secretion of the baby hamster kidney 30-kDa galactose-binding
 lectin from polarized and nonpolarized cells: a pathway independent of the endoplasmic reticulum Golgi complex. *Exp Cell Res, 207*(1), 8-18. doi:10.1006/excr.1993.1157
- Seelenmeyer, C., Stegmayer, C., & Nickel, W. (2008). Unconventional secretion of fibroblast growth factor 2
 and galectin-1 does not require shedding of plasma membrane-derived vesicles. *FEBS Lett, 582*(9),
 1362-1368. doi:10.1016/j.febslet.2008.03.024
- Seelenmeyer, C., Wegehingel, S., Tews, I., Kunzler, M., Aebi, M., & Nickel, W. (2005). Cell surface counter
 receptors are essential components of the unconventional export machinery of galectin-1. *J Cell Biol*,
 171(2), 373-381. doi:10.1083/jcb.200506026
- Shalem, O., Sanjana, N. E., Hartenian, E., Shi, X., Scott, D. A., Mikkelsen, T. S., . . . Zhang, F. (2014). Genomescale CRISPR-Cas9 knockout screening in human cells. *Science*, 343(6166), 84-87.
 doi:10.1126/science.1247005
- Stanley, P. (1989). Chinese hamster ovary cell mutants with multiple glycosylation defects for production of
 glycoproteins with minimal carbohydrate heterogeneity. *Mol Cell Biol*, *9*(2), 377-383.
- Thijssen, V. L., Heusschen, R., Caers, J., & Griffioen, A. W. (2015). Galectin expression in cancer diagnosis and
 prognosis: A systematic review. *Biochim Biophys Acta*, 1855(2), 235-247.
 doi:10.1016/j.bbcan.2015.03.003
- Timms, R. T., Menzies, S. A., Tchasovnikarova, I. A., Christensen, L. C., Williamson, J. C., Antrobus, R., . . .
 Lehner, P. J. (2016). Genetic dissection of mammalian ERAD through comparative haploid and CRISPR
 forward genetic screens. *Nat Commun*, *7*, 11786. doi:10.1038/ncomms11786
- Wang, T., Birsoy, K., Hughes, N. W., Krupczak, K. M., Post, Y., Wei, J. J., ... Sabatini, D. M. (2015). Identification
 and characterization of essential genes in the human genome. *Science*, *350*(6264), 1096-1101.
 doi:10.1126/science.aac7041
- Xin, M., Dong, X. W., & Guo, X. L. (2015). Role of the interaction between galectin-3 and cell adhesion
 molecules in cancer metastasis. *Biomed Pharmacother, 69*, 179-185.
 doi:10.1016/j.biopha.2014.11.024
- 764

765 **Figure legends**

Figure 1. A CRISPR/Cas9-mediated genetic screen identifies genes required for cell surface localization of Gal-3.

A. Schematic view of the CRISPR/Cas9 screen in suspension HeLa (sHeLa) cells to identify 768 genes required for Gal-3 cell surface localisation. Cells were transduced with a lentiviral 769 sgRNA library (sgRNA transduction indicated by colors in the nucleus) and cells that were 770 successfully transduced were selected for with puromycin. After selection, the population 771 was split into two, one half was sorted by FACS to enrich for cells that have less Gal-3 on the 772 surface (Gal-3 is represented by small orange shapes on the cell surface) and the other was 773 not sorted to represent the entire library. After two rounds of enrichment, the DNA from both 774 the enriched population and the unsorted library was harvested and enriched sgRNAs were 775 identified by sequencing. Targeted genes were then plotted according to their relative 776 enrichment. 777

B. CRISPR-mediated mutagenesis was performed on sHeLa cells using the GeCKO v2
 sgRNA library, and rare cells with decreased surface Gal-3 expression were selected by two

sequential rounds of FACS. Cell surface Gal-3 was measured on live cells using an anti-Gal-3 antibody conjugated to Alexa Fluor647.

C. Plot illustrating the hits from the CRISPR screen. The RSA algorithm was used to identify
the significantly enriched genes targeted in the selected cells. The most significantly enriched
genes are labelled.

D. Schematic view of the N-linked glycosylation pathway within the Golgi. Genes identified
to be important for Gal-3 surface localisation by the CRISPR screen are highlighted in red,
and those chosen for further study (MAGT1 and SLC35A2) are shown in bold.

788

Figure 2. Tunicamycin decreases cell surface Gal-3 while increasing the level of Gal-3 in the medium.

A. Schematic representation of tunicamycin inhibition of N-linked glycosylation.
Tunicamycin blocks the transfer of N-acetylglucosamine-1-phosphate from UPD-Nacetylglucosamine to dolichol phosphate, the first step in N-linked glycosylation.

B. Tunicamycin reduces cell surface localization of Gal-3. sHela cells were treated with increasing concentrations of tunicamycin diluted in serum-free medium for 24 h. Cell surface Gal-3 was measured on live cells using an anti-Gal-3 antibody conjugated to Alexa Fluor647, cell viability was also assessed by flow cytometry using propidium iodide. Unstained cells are shown in grey. Quantification is shown on the right. Error bars represent \pm s.e.m. from biological replicates (n = 3); * p<0.05 using a two sample Students *t*- test comparing each tunicamycin concentration to untreated cells.

C. Tunicamycin increases the levels of Gal-3 in the culture supernatant. Western blotting analysis of cell lysates and supernatants of sHeLa cells treated with increasing concentrations of tunicamycin (24 h at 37°C in serum-free medium). Note that the tunicamycin treatment was efficient as seen by increased level of BiP and decreased level of CD29. Quantification is shown on the right. Error bars represent \pm s.e.m. from biological replicates (n = 3); * p<0.05 using a two sample Students *t*- test comparing each tunicamycin concentration to untreated cells.

808

Figure 3. MGAT1 and SLC35A2 knockout abrogates Gal-3 cell surface binding but not secretion.

A. Western blotting analysis of MGAT1 and SLC35A2 deficient sHeLa. Cell lysates were assessed for either MGAT1 or SLC35A2 protein levels after CRISPR/Cas9 targeting and single cell cloning based on Gal-3 surface expression. Lysosomal associated protein 2 (LAMP2) was also assessed to analyse defects in glycosylation and actin was used as a loading control.

B. Cell surface localization of Gal-3 is decreased in MGAT1 and SLC35A2 deficient suspension HeLa cells measured by flow cytometry. Cell surface Gal-3 was measured on live cells using an anti-Gal-3 antibody conjugated to Alexa Fluor647. Gray line: no antibody; black: untransfected; pink: sgMGAT1 positive clone; blue: sgMGAT1 negative clone 1; green: sgMGAT1 negative clone 2. The same respective colours are used for sgSLC35A2 in the lower panels.

C. Gal-3 is secreted from MGAT1 and SLC35A2 deficient sHeLa cells. Wild type, positive 822 control and negative clones for MGAT1 (left) and SLC35A2 (right) cells were incubated in 823 serum-free medium for 24 h and the cells and medium then assessed by western blot. Gal-3 824 was assessed in the lysate and medium (supernatant), actin was used as a loading control and 825 control for cell lysis. Exposure times are indicated to allow relative comparisons between 826 blots to illustrate the large increase in Gal-3 in the supernatant compared to actin. 827 Quantification for MGAT1 (right; green) and SLC35A2 (left; orange) is shown at the bottom. 828 Error bars represent \pm s.e.m. from biological replicates (n = 3); * p < 0.05 using a two sample 829 Students *t*- test comparing each cell line to wild type cells. 830

831

Figure 4. MGAT1 and SLC35A2 mutation in CHO Lec cells reduces Gal-3 cell surface binding but does not affect secretion.

A. Gal-3 cell surface localization is decreased in MGAT1 and SLC35A2 mutant CHO lines. Cell surface Gal-3 was measured on live MGAT1 (Lec1), SLC35A2 (Lec8) and double mutant (Lec3.2.1.8) CHO Lec cells compared to wild type (Pro5) cells by flow cytometry using an anti-Gal-3 antibody conjugated to Alexa Fluor647. Gray line: no antibody; dark brown: wild type; red: mutants. Predicted N-linked glycans for each cell line are shown on the histograms. Sugar symbols: purple triangle, fuctose; green circle, mannose; orange circle, galactose; blue square, N-acetylglucosamine; pink trapezoid, sialic acid. Quantification is shown on the right. Error bars represent \pm s.e.m. from biological replicates (n = 3); * p<0.05 using a two sample Students *t*- test comparing each mutant CHO line to wild type (Pro5) cells.

B. Gal-3 cell surface localization is rescued in MGAT1 rescue CHO Lec cells measured by flow cytometry. Gal-3 was measured as per A. Gray line: no antibody; dark brown: wildtype; red: mutants; purple: rescue. Quantification is shown on the right. Error bars represent ±s.e.m. from biological replicates (n = 3); * p<0.05 using a two sample Students *t*- test comparing the MGAT1 mutant and rescue lines to wild type (Pro5) cells.

C. Gal-3 is secreted from MGAT1 and SLC35A2 mutant CHO Lec cells. Wild type (Pro5), 849 MGAT1 (Lec1), MGAT1 rescue, SLC35A2 mutant (Lec8) and the double mutant 850 (Lec3.2.8.1) were incubated in EX-CELL® 325 PF CHO for 48 h and cells and medium were 851 assessed by western blot. Gal-3, Gal-1 and actin were analysed in the cell lysates and medium 852 853 (supernatant). Exposure times are indicated to allow the lysates and supernatants to be compared. Quantification is shown on the right. Error bars represent \pm s.e.m. from biological 854 replicates (n = 3); * p<0.05 using a two sample Students *t*- test comparing each mutant CHO 855 cell line to wild type (Pro5) cells. 856

857

Figure 5. Secreted Gal-3 is predominantly soluble and not packaged in extracellular vesicles.

A. Soluble Gal-3 is secreted from MGAT1 deficient sHeLa cells. Wild type, positive control 860 and negative clones for MGAT1 deficient cells were incubated in serum-free medium for 24 861 h. The cells were collected and lysed whereas the medium was subjected to differential 862 centrifugation at 300g, 3000g and 100,000g. A sample of the medium was collected after 863 each centrifugation step. Gal-3 was assessed in the lysate, the entire 100,000g EV pellet and 864 medium (supernatant). Actin was used as a loading control and control for cell lysis. 865 Exposure times are indicated for comparison. The 100,000g EV pellets were also analysed by 866 western blot for levels of glycosylated and non-glycosylated CD63. 867

B. Soluble Gal-3 is secreted from SLC35A2 deficient sHeLa cells. Wild type, positive control
and negative clones for SLC35A2 deficient cells were incubated in serum-free medium for 24
h. Samples were treated as described in panel A.

C. Secreted Gal-3 from MGAT1 and SLC35A2 mutant CHO Lec cells is soluble. Wild type
(Pro5), MGAT1 (Lec1), MGAT1 rescue, SLC35A2 mutant (Lec8) and the double mutant
(Lec3.2.8.1) were incubated in EX-CELL® 325 PF CHO for 48 h and cells and medium
collected. The cells, 100,000g EV pellet and medium were processed as in A above. Gal-3
and actin were analysed by western blot and exposure times are indicated for comparison.
CD63 was not analysed in this experiment as it does not cross-react with hamster CD63.

877

Figure 6. Recruitment of GFP-Gal3 to damaged lysosomes is reduced in MGAT1 and SLC35A2 deficient cells.

A. Wild type (control), MGAT1 deficient (clone 1) or SLC35A2 deficient (clone 1) sHeLa transiently expressing GFP-Gal-3 for 24 h were treated with 1 mM L-Leucyl-L-Leucine methyl ester (LLOMe) for 3 h. Cells were fixed with PFA, permeabilised with Triton X100 and subjected to immunocytochemistry using an anti-LAMP2 antibody, then processed to confocal microscopy. Bars: 10 um. The intensity of LAMP2 and Gal-3 signals measured using ImageJ in a minimum of 20 cells per condition is shown on the right.

B. Wild type (control), MGAT1 deficient (cl1) or SLC35A2 deficient (cl1) sHeLa transiently expressing GFP-Gal-3 and mRFP-LC3 for 24 h were treated with 1 mM LLOMe for 3 h. Cells were fixed with methanol and processed to confocal microscopy. Bars: 10 um. Colocalization (Pearson's coefficient) between Gal-3 and LC3 is shown on the right. Error bars represent \pm s.e.m. from individual cells (n > 20); * p < 0.05 using a two sample Students *t*test.

892

893

894

895

Category	Count
Glycoproteins ADAM10, ABCC3, CD302, CD33, FRAS1, NDST2, NHLRC3, APLP2, ARTN, CTNND2, CLCA1, CHRM4, C2, DSG3, FAP, FGF17, GABRA1, GIF, HS6ST2, HIST1H2BD, ITGB3, IL17D, LAMB2, LUM, MAN1A2, MPZL3, NPR1, OLFML2A, OR2S2, OR51B6, OR51G2, PHYHIP, PRL, PCDHB6, SLC36A4, SLC39A9, SLC6A7, SUSD3, TOR1a, TMED10	40
Golgi apparatus/Golgi membrane ADAM10, ARF1, ARL3, NDST2, COL4A3BP, COG1, COG3, COG5, MAN1A2, MGAT1, PACS1, SAR1A, SLC35A2, TMED10, TMEM165, UNC50	16
Cell junction ARF1, KIAA1462, CTNND2, CHRM4, DSG3, DLG2, FAP, GABRA1, ITGB3, TOR1A	10
Protein transport ARF1, ARL3, COG1, COG3, COG5, NXT2, SAR1A, TMED10, UNC50	9
Cell adhesion CD33, KIAA1462, CTNND2, DSG3, FAP, ITGB3, LAMB2, MPZL3, PCDHB6	9
Immunity NLRP2, TIRAP, C2, DCSTAMP, LRMP, MAP3K5, TRIM5	7
Protein phosphorylation ADAM10, COL4A3BP, DGUOK, MAP3K5, NPR1, OOEP, STK38	7
GTPase activation DEPDC5, ELMOD2, RAP1GDS1, ARHGAP30, ARHGAP9, TBC1D22A	6
Congenital disorders of glycosylation COG1, COG5, SLC35A2, TMEM165	4

Table 1. Pathway analysis of the 200 most significantly enriched genes identified in the
genome-wide CRISPR screen for Gal-3 cell surface localisation.

Figure 1. A CRISPR/Cas9-mediated genetic screen identifies genes required for cell surface localization of Gal-3



Figure 2. Tunicamycin decreases cell surface Gal-3 while increasing the level of Gal-3 in the medium.



0 0.1 1 5 Tunicamycin (ug/ml)

Figure 3. MGAT1 and SLC35A2 knockout abrogates Gal-3 cell surface binding but not secretion.



Figure 4. MGAT1 and SLC35A2 mutation in CHO Lec cells reduces Gal-3 cell surface binding but does not affect secretion.



Figure 5. Secreted Gal-3 is predominatly soluble and not packaged in extracellular vesicles.



Figure 6. Recruitment of GFP-Gal3 to damaged lysosomes is reduced in MGAT1 and SLC35A2 deficient cells.



Figure S1. Gal-3 localisation in cytosol, cell surface and supernatant.



Figure S2. LC3, Vps4 and GRASP55 do not regulate cell surface Gal-3.





Figure S3. Generation of MGAT1 and SLC35A2 knockout sHeLa cells using CRISPR/Cas9.



Figure S4. Gal-1 is secreted from SLC35A2 deficient sHeLa.



Figure S5. Gal-3 R186S mutant does not have a secretion defect.



Table S1. Enriched genes identified in the genome-wide CRISPR screen for Gal-3 cell surface localisation

See excel file attached

Table S2. primers used in this study

Name	Oligonucleotide sequence 5'-3'	Application
MGAT1 sgRNA	GATGGGGAAGAGCTCAGCCG	sgRNA for CRISPR/Cas9 knockout
MGAT1_F	GGCGAGGAAATCTCGGTCAT	Amplification forward primer
MGAT1_R	CCTCACCCGGGAAGTGATTC	Amplification and sequencing reverse primer
SLC35A2 sgRNA	GGCAGATGCCAACATGGCAG	sgRNA for CRISPR/Cas9 knockout
SLC35A2_F	TCAGAATGTTCTCTTCCCCGC	Amplification and sequencing forward primer
SI C35A2 B	TTCCTGACTCGCACCTGATG	Amplification reverse primer
CRISPR screen analysis		
sgRNA_outer_F	GCTTACCGTAACTTGAAAGTATTTCG	Forward PCR1 primer
sgRNA outer R	GTCTGTTGCTATTATGTCTACTATTCTTTCC	Reverse PCR1 primer
	AATGATACGGCGACCACCGAGATCTACACTC	
P5-sgRNA_inner_F	TCTTGTGGAAAGGACGAAACACCG	Forward PCR2 primer with Illumina P5
	CAAGCAGAAGACGGCATACGAGATACATCG	·
	GTGACTGGAGTTCAGACGTGTGCTCTTCCGA	
P7-index-sgRNA_inner_R	TCTTCTACTATTCTTTCCCCTGCACTGT	Reverse PCR2 primer with Illumina P7 and index
Illumina sequencing		
primer	ACACTCTCTTGTGGAAAGGACGAAACACCG	Custom sgRNA sequencing primer