Loss of N-glycanase 1 alters transcriptional and translational regulation in K562 cell lines

William F. Mueller *,[†], Petra Jakob^{*,†}, Han Sun[‡], Sandra Clauder-Münster^{*}, Sonja Ghidelli-Disse[§], Diana
 Ordonez^{*}, Markus Boesche[§], Marcus Bantscheff[§], Paul Collier^{*}, Bettina Haase^{*}, Vladimir Benes^{*}, Malte
 Paulsen^{*}, Peter Sehr^{*}, Joe Lewis^{*}, Gerard Drewes³, Lars M. Steinmetz^{*,*,‡}
 **European Molecular Biology Labs, Genome Biology Unit, Heidelberg, Germany Meyerhofstrasse 1, Heidelberg, Germany, 69117*

<u>william.mueller@embl.de</u>; ^{*}lars.steinmetz@embl.de [‡]Stanford University, Stanford, USA

Stanford, CA, 94305 Stanford, CA, 94305 [§]Cellzome GmbH, a GlaxoSmithKline Company Meyerhofstrasse 1, Heidelberg, Germany, 69117 [†]These authors contributed equally

- 15 Abstract — N-Glycanase 1 (NGLY1) deficiency is an ultra-rare, complex and devastating neuromuscular disease. Patients display multi-organ symptoms including developmental delays, 16 movement disorders, seizures, constipation and lack of tear production. NGLY1 is a 17 deglycosylating protein involved in the degradation of misfolded proteins retrotranslocated from 18 19 the endoplasmic reticulum (ER). NGLY1-deficient cells have been reported to exhibit decreased deglycosylation activity and an increased sensitivity to proteasome inhibitors. We show that the 20 loss of NGLY1 causes substantial changes in the RNA and protein landscape of K562 cells and 21 22 results in downregulation of proteasomal subunits, consistent with its processing of the 23 transcription factor NFE2L1. We employed the CMap database to predict compounds that can modulate NGLY1 activity. Utilizing our robust K562 screening system, we demonstrate that the 24 25 compound NVP-BEZ235 (Dactosilib) promotes degradation of NGLY1-dependent substrates, concurrent with increased autophagic flux, suggesting that stimulating autophagy may assist in 26 clearing aberrant substrates during NGLY1 deficiency. 27
 - 28

1

2

8

9

10

11 12

13

14

29 Running Title – Influence of NGLY1 in K562 cells

30 Total Character count – 69,046 (including spaces), 58,645 (excluding spaces)

- 31 Keywords autophagy / deglycosylation / NFE2L1 / NGLY1 deficiency / NRF1
- 32 Corresponding author:
- 33 Lars M. Steinmetz, European Molecular Biology Labs, Genome Biology Unit
- 34 Meyerhofstrasse 1, Heidelberg, Germany, 69117
- 35 *Phone:* +49 6221 3889
- 36 lars.steinmetz@embl.de
- 37

I. INTRODUCTION

38 N-glycanase 1 (NGLY1) is a highly conserved deglycosylase known to function as part of the 39 endoplasmic reticulum associated degradation (ERAD) pathway, facilitating protein surveillance and 40 the clearance of misfolded proteins (Suzuki et al. 2016). A lack of NGLY1 function leads to improper 41 processing of ERAD substrates and is hypothesized to result in the aggregation of partially 42 glycosylated, partially degraded intermediates, however this has not been shown in a human cell line 43 (Huang et al. 2015). Under normal conditions, deglycosylation of N-linked asparagine residues is 44 accompanied by their conversion to aspartic acid by cleaving a bond between the beta-aspartyl glycosamine linkage and the amino acid side chain (Suzuki et al. 2016). In 2012, a patient was first 45 described with a mutation in the NGLY1 gene (Need et al. 2012). Multiple similar patients have since 46 47 been described, establishing NGLY1 deficiency as a monogenic loss-of-function rare disease (Need et 48 al. 2012; Enns et al. 2014; Caglayan et al. 2015; Heeley and Shinawi 2015; Lam et al. 2017; van Keulen et 49 al. 2019).

50

The NGLY1-mediated amino acid conversion via deglycosylation can act as a protein processing step for multiple factors. For example, it facilitates the conserved maturation process of the NFE2L1 transcription factor. NGLY1 also acts on the degradation of ER resident proteins like the sterol biosynthesis factor HMGR (Leichner *et al.* 2009; Koizumi *et al.* 2016; Lehrbach and Ruvkun 2016; Tomlin *et al.* 2017; Lehrbach *et al.* 2019). NFE2L1 is a necessary proteotoxic stress sensor, triggering proteasome subunit transcription as part of the proteasome bounce-back response (Radhakrishnan *et al.* 2010). It has also been shown to trigger glutathione metabolism when cells are under oxidative stress (Kong *et al.* 2018). Most recently, NGLY1 deficiency was shown to adversely affect mitochondrial function and biogenesis through an unexplained mechanism that also could result in an increase in cytokine signaling (Kong *et al.* 2018; Yang *et al.* 2018).

61

62 The body of data around NGLY1 has resulted in proof-of-concept experiments for two possible 63 therapeutic avenues to treat patients with NGLY1 deficiency. The first possible treatment option for 64 some clinical phenotypes may be the inhibition of endo-N-acetylglucosaminidase (ENGase). ENGase is 65 another cytosolic enzyme that hydrolyzes glycans, but canonically acts downstream of NGLY1 after removal of the glycans from the peptide (Suzuki et al. 2002). An increase in accumulation of NGLY1-66 67 dependent substrates in an NGLY1-deficient cell line was rescued by the knockdown (KD) of ENGase in 68 the same line (Huang *et al.* 2015). This suggests that the partially deglycosylated peptides processed by 69 ENGase are more toxic than the fully glycosylated peptides remaining when neither ENGase and 70 NGLY1 are present. In support of this, a double ENGase-NGLY1 KD approach was found to rescue 71 lethality of NGLY1 KD mice on an organismal level, but did not alleviate all mouse phenotypes (Fujihira 72 et al. 2017).

73

The second possible therapy for NGLY1 deficiency involves NFE2L1 and related factors or pathways. NFE2L1 is closely related to NFE2L2, a transcription factor that regulates oxidative stress pathways and also activates proteasomal transcription (Kwak *et al.* 2003). Activation of NFE2L2 is another possible treatment option and has been shown to rescue small body size phenotypes in fly larva and worm models of NGLY1 deficiency (lyer *et al.* 2019). While multiple compounds have been found that modulate NFE2L2 activity, NFE2L2-targeted therapy would have to overcome significant clinical

hurdles and be very carefully managed as mutations that cause constitutive activation of NFE2L2 also contribute to disease (Cuadrado *et al.* 2019; Huppke *et al.* 2017). While both therapeutic avenues have experimental evidence, it is unclear if a single treatment will ameliorate the downstream effects of both; clearing accumulated proteins may not rescue NFE2L1 processing and alternative activation of NFE2L1 target genes may not clear accumulated proteins. Due to a lack of human experimental systems, it is also unclear what the downstream effects of NGLY1 loss are.

86

87 To learn more about NGLY1 deficiency in a human cell model, we edited the NGLY1 gene in a human myelogenous leukemia cell line, K562. We performed whole transcriptome, whole proteome, and 88 thermal proteome profiling (TPP) analysis on K562 cells lacking NGLY1 to determine the genes and 89 90 pathways influenced by its loss of function (Fig 1, Supplementary figures EV1 and EV2) (Franken et al. 2015). We show that our K562 cell model faithfully replicates previously discovered molecular 91 92 phenotypes related to NFE2L1 signaling. Multiple genes related to protein aggregation are differentially regulated on both the protein and transcript level. The expression changes in K562s cells 93 94 correlate with an increase in protein aggregation. Using the identified set of differentially expressed 95 genes in K562 cell lines, we queried a comparative transcriptome drug-expression database to identify 96 compounds that similarly or oppositely alter the transcriptome (Lamb et al. 2006). Using these 97 identified compounds, we show that the K562 NGLY1-deficient system we established is functional for high-throughput FACS screening. From the results of that screen, we identified Dactosilib (NVP-98 99 BEZ235), a dual mTOR/PI3K inhibitor that increases the degradation of NGLY1 substrate proteins likely through an increase in autophagic flux (Maira et al. 2008). We also identified PAC-1, a zinc chelating 100 101 caspase inhibitor possibly acting on NGLY1 through competitive chelation of zinc (Putt *et al.* 2006).

102

FIGURE 1



105 Figure 1: Workflow for the application of multi-omic data to drug screening in NGLY1 KD K562 cell

106 lines.

107

104

109 K₅6₂ cells were transfected with two single guide RNAs (sgRNAs) targeting exon 1 and 3 (p₃06_gRNA 110 Puro, GFP) of NGLY1 and Cas9 plasmid (<u>lentiCas9-Blast</u>) by Nucleofection according to the 111 manufacturer's protocol (Nucleofector, Lonza) (Morgens *et al.* 2017). LentiGuide-Puro (Addgene 112 plasmid #52963) and lentiCas9-Blast (Addgene plasmid #52962) were gifts from Feng Zhang (Sanjana 113 *et al.*). Positive transfected cells, as determined by GFP expression, were selected and enriched with 114 Puromycin (4 µg/µl) and Blasticidin (3.5 µg/µl) for 15 days. NGLY1 KD was confirmed in the cell 115 population by western blotting using the anti-NGLY antibody from Sigma.

116

108

- 117 Exon 1: gRNA_2: CTTGGAGGCCTCCAAAA
- 118 Exon 3: gRNA_1: TCTGCTACTTCTCTCA
- 119

Single GFP negative cells, negatively selected for loss of the plasmid, were sorted into a 96 well plate and expanded. NGLY1 KD clones were confirmed by Sanger sequencing. Two positively edited clonal lines that had growth rates similar to that of wild type were selected to undergo whole genome sequencing. Libraries were prepared using the Illumina TruSeq protocol following the manufacturer's directions. After confirmation of the targeted mutations and a lack of evidence for significant off target effects, two lines were chosen for further experiments (see associated genome sequencing data). (Smits, *et al.* 2019)

127

128 Deglycosylation Dependent Venus reporter cell lines

SS-C-Venus and SS-C-ddVenus reporter sequences were introduced into a modified pRetro-IRES vector (Clontech), expressing mCherry driven by the IRES (Grotzke, Lu, and Cresswell 2013). The pRetroX-IRES-mCherry was created by amplifying the mCherry sequence from pCMV-mCherry-C3 (Clontech) using PJ221 forward primer and PJ222 reverse primer (Table 1). The PCR product was cut with Xhol and

BmgBI enzymes and replaced the DsRed sequence which was cut from pRetroX-IRES-dsRed using Xhol
 enzyme and BmgBI enzyme.

135

The SS-C-Venus sequence was amplified with the primer PJ181 and PJ219 from plasmid pcDNA-SS-C-Venus, SS-C-ddVenus sequence was amplified with the primer PJ181 and PJ227 from plasmid pcDNA-SS-C-ddVenus (Grotzke, Lu, and Cresswell 2013). Both reporter sequences were cloned into the MCS with Not1 and BamH1 to give rise to pRetro-IRES-mCherry C3-SS-C-Venus and pRetro-IRES-mCherry C3-SS-C-ddVenus.

141

These plasmids were used to stably integrate the SS-C-Venus and SS-C-ddVenus reporter in the K562
WT cell line, in the NGLY1 KD clone 15 and NGLY1 KD clone 20 by viral transduction according to
Clontech's manual. Positive transduced cells were sorted by mCherry fluorescence.

145

146 Prior to analysis, cells were washed twice with PBS + 2% FCS, resuspended in the same, strained through a 40 µM filter, and incubated with 0.5 µg/ml DAPI for live/dead detection on ice until analysis. 147 FACS analysis was carried out on a BD LSR Fortessa measuring Venus fluorescence with 50 mW 488nm 148 149 excitation paired with a 530/30 nm band pass filter; mCherry fluorescence was measured with 75 mW 561 nm excitation paired with a 610/20 nm band pass filter. Live single cells were selected by exclusion 150 of DAPI positive cells utilizing 20 mW 355 nm excitation paired with a 450/50 nm band pass filter. The 151 geometric mean of the Venus and mCherry signal was used to compute the Venus/mCherry ratio. 152 Analysis was carried out using FlowJo 10.1r7 software, Treestar. Raw .fcs data files and analysis are 153 154 available upon request and at flowrepository.org: FR-FCM-Z2GJ and FR-FCM-Z2GK.

155

156 **RTA\Delta-V5 reporter cell lines**

157 K₅62 WT and NGLY1 KD cells were transfected with the pEF/myc/ER- RTA reporter sequence (Kim *et al.* 2006; Tanabe *et al.* 2006; Huang *et al.* 2015) using the Nucleofector 4D device for electroporation 159 according to the manufacturer's protocol. Cells were selected using G418 treatment at a concentration 160 of 0,8 mg/ml for 14 days.

161

162 RNA extraction, library preparation, and data analysis

163 RNA was extracted with Trizol according to manufacturer's protocol used to create RNA-seq libraries
 164 using the manufacturers specifications in the Illumina TruSeq Kit protocol.

165

Transcriptome sequencing was performed on single clones expanded populations of clone 15 and clone 166 167 20, each with 2 replicates, as well as 4 wild type cell lines. Raw reads were checked for sequencing quality by FastQC (vo.11.5) before alignment to human genome reference GRCh37 using STAR 168 (v2.5.1b), with a gene annotation file downloaded from the ENSEMBL database (v75) (Hunt *et al.* 2018; 169 170 Dobin and Gingeras 2015). The gene expression matrix was counted using *featureCounts* (-p -t exon -Q 255, v1.4.6) and differentially expressed genes were tested with the negative binomial generalized 171 linear model in DESeq2 (v1.10.1), using Wald test and FDR adjusted p-value < 0.05 (Love, Huber, and 172 173 Anders 2014). GO enrichment analysis was performed on these significant genes using *Gorilla* (Eden et al. 2009). Protein-protein interaction networks were constructed with annotation from the STRING 174 database (Szklarczyk et al. 2019). Transcription factors targeting NGLY1 and the significantly 175 deregulated genes were extracted from the Factorbook annotation of the ENCODE project (ENCODE 176 Project Consortium 2012). Compounds targeting NGLY1 were predicted based on the differentially 177 178 expressed genes in our cells as well as treatment response measurements on multiple cell lines in the 179 CMap/LINCS project (Lamb et al. 2006). Data is available at ArrayExpress under the accession E-MTAB-180 8876.

182 Proteomic Sample processing and LC-MS/MS analysis

Samples were pre-fractionated with an off-line UltiMate 3000 LPG LC system (Thermo Fisher 183 Scientific), using a basic pH reverse phase separation. Whole cell lysates were fractionated and pooled 184 into 25 fractions. Of these, initially 11 fractions were measured over 120 minutes on a reverse phase LC 185 gradient, online-injected into a Q Exactive MS instrument (Thermo Fisher Scientific), and data was 186 187 generated for MS₂ applying top10, HCD fragmentation, peptide matching, exclusion of isotopes and dynamic exclusion of precursors. TMT reporter and peptide fragment (amino acid sequence) 188 information was generated in one spectrum and calculated/analyzed/reported by an in-house written 189 190 software. Database search was done using a Mascot server and the human IPI database. Analysis was 191 carried out on a Q Exactive Plus or Q Exactive HF (both Thermo Fisher Scientific) mass spectrometers 192 coupled to UltiMate 3000 RSLC Nano LC systems (Thermo Fisher Scientific).

193

Sample preparation for Thermal proteome profiling (TPP) was performed as previously described 194 (Savitski et al. 2014). The sample preparation for whole cell expression profiling was performed as 195 follows: Cells were resuspended in lysis buffer (2% SDS, 50 mM Tris-HCl, pH 7.4) and heat treated for 3 196 min at 95°C. Afterwards the samples were diluted 1:1 with 50 mM Tris-HCl, pH 7.4 and Benzonase 197 198 (Sigma-Aldrich E1014) was added at 2 U/µL. Incubation for 30 min at 37°C was followed by another addition of Benzonase at 1 U/µL and incubation for 45 min at 37°C. The protein extract was cleared 199 200 from cell debris by centrifugation at 20 000xg for 20 min, the supernatant was snap frozen in liquid nitrogen and stored at -80°C until further use. 201

202

Gel-based protein separation, peptide labeling, sample pre-fractionation, LC-MS/MS analysis (using Q-Exactive and Fusion Lumos mass spectrometers), protein identification and quantification was performed as previously described (Savitski *et al.*, 2018). Data is available upon request and in Supplementary Files 2 and 3.

207

208 Immunoblotting (αNGLY1 and αSNCA)

To obtain total protein lysates, cells were harvested, pelleted and resuspended in protein lysis 209 buffer at ~30,000 cells/µl, incubated for 30 min at room temperature followed by 95°C for 10min. 210 211 Protein content was assessed by Pierce[™] BCA Protein Assay Kit (Thermo Fisher Scientific) of 1:10 dilutions according to protocol. Protein lysates were heated for 10 min at 70°C in NuPage 212 LDS sample buffer, ThermoFisher, supplemented with 4% 2-Mercaptoethanol. 15 - 25 µg total 213 protein was loaded per lane on a NuPAGE 4-12% Bis-Tris Protein Gel (Thermo Fisher 214 Scientific) and protein separation was facilitated in 1x MOPS running buffer for 50 min at 170 V. 215 216 Precision Plus Protein[™] Dual Color Standards (BioRad) was loaded for size control. Proteins were blotted onto a methanol-activated Immobilon-PSQ PVDF membrane (Millipore, 0.2 µm 217 pore size) in 1x transfer buffer for 90 min at 400 mA, 4°C. Subsequently, the membrane was 218 219 blocked for one hour at room temperature in TBST including 3% (w/v) non-fat dry milk (BioRad). and incubated overnight at 4°C with 0.05 µg/ml polyclonal αNGLY1 (1:1000 dilution, Sigma-220 Aldrich, HPA036825, lot no. B101923) in TBST including 3% (w/v) bovine serum albumin 221 (Sigma-Aldrich). The membrane was extensively washed in TBST and incubated with polyclonal 222 goat-α-rabbit-IgG-HRP (abcam, ab97051) diluted 1:10,000 in TBST/3% milk for an hour at room 223 224 temperature. After washing the blot was developed using Clarity ECL (BioRad) as substrate and 225 the ChemiDoc Touch (BioRad) for luminescence detection.

226

To re-probe, antibodies were released from the membrane by 15 min incubation with Restore[™]
PLUS Western Blot Stripping Buffer (Thermo Fisher Scientific), after which the membrane was
washed extensively with TBST and re-blocked as before.

230

For the detection of GAPDH, the membrane was incubated for one hour at room temperature with
 polyclonal αGAPDH (abcam, ab9485, lot no. GR192141-1) diluted 1:2500 in TBST with 3% milk. For the

detection of V5, the membrane was incubated over night at 4°C with αV5 (Invitrogen, R960-25), 1:1000
in TBST/3% milk. For washing steps, incubation with secondary antibody, repeated washing, and
developing were performed as described above.

236

In the case of αSNCA, the protein gel was run in 1x NuPAGE MES SDS Running Buffer (Thermo Fisher
Scientific). After blotting, the proteins were crosslinked to the membrane during 30 min incubation at
room temperature in 0.4% paraformaldehyde (Thermo Fisher Scientific) in PBST. Monoclonal antibody
against alpha-synuclein (abcam, ab138501, clone MJFR1) was diluted 1:5,000 in PBST/ 3% (w/v) non-fat
dry milk.

242

Buffers and solutions used for immunoblotting included the following: protein lysis buffer (25 mM Tris pH 8.3-8.5, 2% SDS, 20% Glycerol, 1x Complete, EDTA-free (Roche), 0,05 KU Benzonase (Sigma), reducing loading buffer (NuPage LDS sample buffer (4x) ThermoFisher, NP0008, add 4% 2-Mercaptoethanol), MOPS running buffer (50 mM MOPS, 50 mM Tris Base, 0.1% SDS, 1 mM EDTA, pH 7.7), transfer buffer (25 mM Tris Base, 192 mM Glycine, 20% MeOH; TBST: 10 mM Tris, 150 mM NaCl, 0.05% Tween-20), and PBST (137 mM NaCl, 2.7 mM KCl, 10 mM Na2HPO4, 1.8 mM KH2PO4, 0.1% Tween-20).

250

251 Cell Culture

252 Cells were maintained in DMEM (Gibco, 41965-039) with 10% FCS and supplemented with Puromycin 253 ($4 \mu q/\mu l$) and Blasticidin (3.5 $\mu q/\mu l$) at a confluence between 20% and 80%.

254

255 Compounds and plate preparation

256 Forty-eight compounds were purchased from Selleckchem, and 43 of them solved at 10 mM in DMSO 257 (Table 2). Compounds CP466722 and PIK-90 were solved at 0.75 mM in DMSO, Geneticin and

Chloroquine Phosphate were solved at 10 mM in water and NVP-BEZ235 was solved at 10 mM in DMF. 258 100 μ l of the stock compound solutions were manually transferred into a 96 well Matrix tube/rack 259 system for further liquid handling using a robotic system. An 11-fold 1:3-serial dilution of the 260 compounds was prepared from the stock solution in 384-well pp-plates (Greiner 781280) in pure solvent 261 262 to ensure solubility of the compounds in this step. The peptide Z-VAD-fmk (N-Benzyloxycarbonyl-Val-Ala-Asp(O-Me) fluoromethyl ketone solved at 10 mM in DMSO was diluted similarly and applied as 263 standard to each plate. Three microliter of the serially diluted compounds were transferred to another 264 384 well pp-plate and 72 µl of cell culture medium (DMEM + 10% FCS) added with a FlexDrop 265 (PerkinElmer) bulk dispenser resulting in 8x concentrated 11-fold 1:3 serial dilution starting at 400 μ M 266 (30 µM for the 0.75 mM stock) in medium and 4% solvent. Finally, 5 µl of this compound dilution in 267 268 medium was transferred to clear 384 well TC-plates (Greiner 781182) and white 384 well TC-plates (PerkinElmer 6007689). The assay plates were sealed with aluminum cover foil and stored at -20°C. 269

270

271 Screening assay

The assay plates containing the 5 μ l of serially diluted compounds were thawed, and 35 μ l of reporter 272 cells were added with a MultiDrop bulk dispenser (ThermoFisher), resulting in an 11-fold 1:3 serial 273 274 dilution starting at 50 µM (3.75 µM for the 0.75 mM stock) in medium containing 0.5% solvent. The assay plates were incubated for 24 hours at 37°C before adding 1 μ l of 200 μ M proteasome inhibitor 275 MG-132 (Sigma M7449), with an additional 6 hours of incubation at 37°C. The clear assay plates were 276 used for FACS analysis of the reporter fluorescence. Toxicity of the compounds to the cells was 277 determined in the white cell culture plates by adding 20 µl of ATPLite 1step (PerkinElmer 6016731) with 278 279 the MultiDrop bulk dispenser and measuring the luminescence in an Envision plate reader (PerkinElmer). 280

281

282 Bortezomib Sensitivity Assay

283 Cells were seeded at a density of 0.5 Mio cells per ml in DMEM and incubated with concentrations 284 between o and 400 nM of Bortezomib for 24 hours. The readout was done with ATPLite 1step 285 (PerkinElmer 6016731).

286

287 **Proteostat Dye Assay**

The Proteostat Dye (Enzo ENZ-51023-KP050) was used according to manufacturer's protocol. For microscopy, Lab-Tek dishes were coated with poly-L-lysine-hydrobromide (Sigma P6282) before adding cells.

291

292 Analysis by flow cytometry

293 Analysis was carried out as in Tomlin et al 2017. Briefly, cells were washed twice with PBS + 2% FCS, resuspended in the same, strained through a 40 μ M filter, and incubated with 0.5 μ g/ml DAPI for 294 live/dead detection on ice until analysis. FACS analysis was carried out on a BD LSR Fortessa measuring 295 Venus fluorescence with 50 mW 488 nm excitation paired with a 530/30 nm band pass filter; mCherry 296 297 fluorescence was measured with 75 mW 561 nm excitation paired with a 610/20 nm band pass filter. Live single cells were selected by exclusion of DAPI positive cells utilizing 20 mW 355 nm excitation, 298 299 paired with a 450/50 nm band pass filter. Similar settings were used to analyze the cells on an Intellicyt IQue Screener, exciting DAPI by a 405 nm 50 mW laser. The geometric mean of the Venus and mCherry 300 301 signal was used to compute the Venus/mCherry ratio. Comparison of treatments between WT and KD (clone 20) cell lines was used to illustrate compound effects. Hits were considered compounds that 302 altered YFP signal by at least 75% percent inhibition compared to control or compounds with multiple 303 304 concentrations with effects greater than two standard deviations from the plate mean for the 305 experimental cell type.

306

III. DATA AVAILABILITY

As mentioned in the above Materials and Methods, cell lines, reagents, and data are available upon 308 request or in the mentioned supplementary files or repositories with the corresponding accession 309 310 numbers. File S1 contains descriptions of all supplementary material as well as all supplementary figures and discussion. Specifically, proteomics data from whole expression proteomics and TPP is 311 312 available upon request or in Supplementary Files 2 and 3, raw .fcs data files and analysis are available upon request and at flowrepository.org: FR-FCM-Z2GJ and FR-FCM-Z2GK, and transcript analysis data 313 is available ArrayExpress under the accession E-MTAB-8876. Tables S1 and S2 contain the processed 314 315 transcriptomic and proteomic data used for the figures in the paper.

- 316
- 317

IV. RESULTS

We used K562 chronic myeloid leukemia cells to study NGLY1 deficiency because these cells are easy to 318 319 handle, simple to manipulate, and express endogenous NGLY1 at a relatively high level (Uhlen et al. 320 2015). To create NGLY1-deficient cells, we transfected cells with plasmids expressing Cas9 and gRNAs targeting exons 1 and 3 of the NGLY1 gene (Fig 1A). Successfully transfected cells were selected using 321 GFP expression as a marker, separated by FACS, and grown in clonal populations. These clonal 322 323 populations were selected for growth rates similar to wild type and lack of NGLY1 expression via 324 western blot analysis (Fig 2A). Targeted mutations were verified using Sanger and whole genome 325 sequencing (WGS, Methods).

326

To determine the effect of NGLY1 mutations on NGLY1 activity, we took advantage of the deglycosylation-dependent, NGLY1 activity requiring, Venus (ddVenus) reporter developed in the Cresswell Lab (Grotzke *et al.* 2013). To have a protein expression control, we modified this reporter to contain mCherry protein expressed downstream of the Venus molecule using the EMCV IRES (Fig 1D) (Jang *et al.* 1988). This tandem reporter system was used to measure NGLY1 activity in NGLY1 knock down (KD) cells. Using this system, we found our KD cells achieved a ~2.5-fold average reduction of

ddVenus fluorescence, reflecting a decrease in NGLY1 activity due to the CRISPR-Cas9 mediated mutation of the gene (Fig 2B-C). Upon treatment of our cells with Z-VAD-FMK, a known NGLY1 inhibitor, we saw a small reduction in NGLY1 activity. This suggests that our two clonal lines are knockdowns or mutants with some residual activity, not complete knockouts. This is likely due to a small amount of exon skipping that occurs due to the editing in exon 3 (Smits *et al.* 2019). This amount of NGLY1 was not detectable via western blot analysis (Fig 2A).

339

One of the endogenous targets of NGLY1 in mammalian cells is the transcription factor NFE2L1 (Tomlin 340 et al. 2017; Lehrbach et al. 2019). NFE2L1 is ubiquitously expressed in human tissues and is involved in 341 the transcriptional control of proteasome bounce back (Y. Zhang and Xiang 2016). It is processed in the 342 343 ER and translocated to the cytosol, where it is deglycosylated by NGLY1 and cleaved by DDI1. Upon 344 proteasome inhibition, it accumulates and is shuttled to the nucleus to activate proteasome subunit transcription. This mechanism is responsible for the sensitization of NGLY1-deficient systems to 345 proteasome inhibition (Lehrbach and Ruvkun 2016; Tomlin *et al.* 2017; Lehrbach *et al.* 2019). In line with 346 this, we exposed our K562 cell lines to increasing concentrations of Bortezomib (a proteasome 347 inhibitor) and observed that NGLY1 KD K562 cells were ~2-fold more sensitive to treatment than 348 349 controls (Fig 2D) (Albanell and Adams 2002).

Figure 2



352

353 Figure 2: Characterization of NGLY1-deficient K562 lines.

(A) Western blot analysis of K562 cell lines used in this paper. (B) Flow readout and gating for the
analysis of K562 cell lines used in this paper. Data was used to calculate geometric means for the Venus
to mCherry ratio. (C) Average geometric mean of the Venus to mCherry signal for all lines used in the
paper. (D) Dose response of NGLY1-deficient K562 lines to Bortezomib. 95% confidence interval shown
as shading on the graph.

Having established that our NGLY1-deficient system is consistent with previously observed phenotypes, we set out to characterize novel biology associated with NGLY1 deficiency. We harvested whole cell mRNA and protein fractions and performed RNA-seq and LC-MS/MS analyses to determine transcriptional and translational processes that are influenced by NGLY1 (Fig 3A). The ultimate goal of this analysis was to determine pathways that might reveal intermediate phenotypes or traits suitable for screening or prediction of compounds that could influence NGLY1 biology.

366

We found that there was a broad transcriptional influence, as well as a more subtle proteomic influence, 367 of NGLY1 deficiency on K562 cells. There were ~1950 transcripts (or 9%) that were differentially 368 expressed (1094 upregulated and 856 downregulated in comparison to WT) compared to 183 proteins 369 370 (or 3%) that were differentially expressed, Fig 3A, Supplementary Tables S1 and S2). Expression of NGLY1 was reduced in the KD cell lines approximately 2-fold on both the RNA and protein level. We 371 372 first looked for links to previously established NGLY1 related transcriptional activity. Consistent with 373 previous reports, multiple proteasomal genes were moderately downregulated in the K562 cell line (Tomlin et al. 2017). This downregulation was not significant for all proteasome genes and was not 374 significant on the protein level (Fig 3B). In general, overlap of our dataset and genes previously shown 375 376 to be bound by NFE2L1 in K562 cells was low (Souza and de Souza 2012). GO analysis did not reveal 377 proteasome subunit genes as enriched, unless we focused our enrichment analysis on genes that were 378 differentially expressed on the transcript-level and not differentially expressed on the protein level (Fig 3C). Further pathway analysis on protein or transcript datasets (gene set enrichment or GO) did not 379 reveal conclusive results (Fig EV1). Multiple growth assays were used to probe possible phenotypes for 380 381 screening, but no culture conditions used resulted in significantly different growth between WT and KD 382 cell lines, aside from proteasome inhibition.

383

There were 59 genes whose protein and transcript levels were either both significantly increased, or 384 both significantly decreased in the RNAseg and LC-MS/MS analyses (Fig 3A, points in purple). This set 385 of genes contains NGLY1. We did not find a significant category or gene set that was enriched in this 386 set. SNCA, the gene coding for alpha-synuclein and one of the major proteins involved in aggregate 387 388 formation in Parkinson's disease (Cookson 2010), was the most upregulated gene in both our RNA and protein datasets. Two other genes related to alpha-synuclein were found to be upregulated, LRRK2 and 389 390 FBXO₂. Transcript levels of LRRK₂, a kinase highly associated with Parkinson's disease, were also 391 upregulated (Cookson 2010). FBXO2 levels were also upregulated, but to a lower extent. FBXO2 has been implicated in familial forms of Parkinson's disease. 392







-5.0

-2 5

0 RNA transcript log 2 fold change

Figure 3: Overlapping correlative analysis of transcripts and proteins detected in NGLY1-deficient 396

5.0

25

K562 cell lines. (A) Fold changes of transcripts and proteins differentially expressed in K562 NGLY1-397

ò

ż

4

6

deficient lines. Colors, as described in the key, correspond to the dataset in which they were found to 398 399 be differentially expressed. HGNC Gene symbols have been labeled for the most significantly differentially expressed, as determined by a combination of p-value and fold change. (B) Highlight of 400 401 proteasome subunit gene transcript expression in K562 NGLY1-deficient lines, this gene set (colored in 402 blue) displays a shift toward lower expression in NGLY1-deficient lines. Red points depict the transcripts that were called differentially expressed only on the transcript level. Grey points are all 403 expressed genes. (C) Proteasome subunit genes were identified as significantly enriched 404 405 downregulated transcripts. X-axis is the number of genes found in the GO category. Numerals after the bar graph represent the ratio of significant genes to total expressed genes in that GO category 406

407 We set out to determine if protein aggregation was observable in our K562 cells. While it has been hypothesized that NGLY1 deficiency causes protein aggregation, there is minimal evidence to support 408 this idea (Need et al. 2012; Huang et al. 2015). Our finding that SNCA RNA and protein expression is 409 increased in NGLY1 KD cells prompted us to determine if this was directly linked to NGLY1 expression. 410 411 We tested whether restoration of NGLY1 expression in these cells would reset SNCA expression. To validate that these tagged proteins are active we rescued NGLY1 expression with both C- or N-412 terminally DYK (FLAG)-tagged recombinant protein and tested activity using the ddVenus FACS assay, 413 414 finding that both constructs rescue NGLY1 activity (Fig 4A & B). Accordingly, rescue of NGLY1 415 expression with a C- or N-terminally DYK-tagged recombinant protein decreased SNCA expression 416 back to levels similar to that of WT K562 cells.

417

Having linked expression of an aggregation-prone protein to NGLY1, we then tested for protein aggregation in the NGLY1-deficient K562 cells using the Proteostat protein aggregation dye (Enzo BioSciences). We found that there was a trend toward increased staining of protein aggregation in K562 NGLY1-deficient cells. This trend could be reversed by over-expression of NGLY1 (Fig 4C and D). This finding suggests that the protein aggregation effect of NGLY1 deficiency can be reversed though rescue of NGLY1 expression. We were unable to show that the aggregates included alpha-synuclein.

Figure 4

NGLY1 rescueWTKDWTKD...N-tagC-tagN-tagC-tagNGLY1.......GAPDH........GAPDH........GAPDH........

A. Western blot of NGLY1 deficient K562 lysate

B. N- or C-terminally DYK tagged NGLY1 is active and rescues activity in NGLY1 deficient K562s



D. Proteostat signal in NGLY1 deficient K562 cells

кb

Rescue

wт

C. Protein aggregation staining in NGLY1 deficient K562 cells, untreated





Figure 4: Correction of NGLY1-deficient phenotypes in K562 cell lines by exogenous expression of a DYK-tagged NGLY1 protein. (A) Western blot analysis of NGLY1-deficient K562 cell lines expression plasmid-based N- or C-terminally tagged NGLY1. Antibodies probed are labeled along the left side of the figure along with corresponding kDa mol. weight markers. The same protein lysates were loaded on two gels. (B) FACS analysis of NGLY1-deficient K562 cell lines expression plasmid-based N- or Cterminally tagged NGLY1. Results were quantified, averaged, and graphed. (C) Immunofluorescent staining of NGLY1-deficient K562 cell lines with DAPI (blue) and Proteostat (red). (D) Quantification of

- 434 Proteostat staining of NGLY1-deficient K562 cells by flow cytometry analysis. Rescued lines include
- 435 both C and N terminally tagged NGLY1.

436 To determine if our data could predict putative drug targets that rescue gene expression changes identified or that modulate NGLY1 activity, we input the top 100 significantly differentially regulated 437 transcripts into the CMap database and produced a list of 30 candidate compounds that were found to 438 have a similar or inverse transcriptional profiles upon compound treatment (Lamb et al. 2006). We 439 440 hypothesized that these compounds could have corrective or exacerbatory effects on our K562 NGLY1deficient system acting through transcriptional mechanisms. To this list of 30 compounds, we added 441 compounds that had previously been predicted to stabilize NGLY1 and compounds that had been used 442 443 as dietary supplements by NGLY1 patients (Table 2, (Srinivasan et al. 2016)).

444

We assayed these 48 compounds using high-throughput FACS and a plate reader screening with an 11-445 446 points dilution curve, testing each compound for its effect on cellular viability (ATPlite) and NGLY1 447 activity (ddVenus reporter) in duplicate. From our list of 48 compounds, one compound was found to 448 increase ddVenus signal, but this was a false positive due to the intrinsic autofluorescence of the 449 compound matching that of the ddVenus reporter (enzastaurin). No compounds were found that rescued NGLY1 activity (i.e. increased ddVenus signal in the KD cell lines, Supplementary Fig EV3). 450 Proteasome inhibitors increased ddVenus signal slightly but were also toxic, decreasing ATPlite signal 451 452 considerably. We hypothesized that this was due to increased half-life of ddVenus and the minimal amount of active NGLY1 present due to incomplete KD since deglycosylation is required for 453 fluorescence to accumulate. While our NGLY1 KD cell lines had a small amount of ddVenus signal, no 454 compound mediated decreases in ddVenus signal in the KD cells were identified as significant. 455

456

The assay did identify 6 compounds that seemed to inhibit ddVenus signal. Those 6 compounds decreased ddVenus signal in the WT cell lines by 50% or greater in least two treatment concentrations, maintained cellular viability above 50%, and exhibited some dose response in at least two concentrations (Fig 5A). These compounds were used in small scale dose-response follow up

461 experiments using the same methods and compound concentrations used in the 48 compound screen. The follow up ATPlite and ddVenus fluorescence detection experiments were repeated with the 6 462 ddVenus signal reducing compounds, of those 6, only 2 reduced ddVenus signal below 50% and 463 maintained cellular viability above 50% (Fig 5B and C). The two compounds that validated in both high 464 465 and low-throughput assays are NVP-BEZ235 (a known PI3K/mTOR dual inhibitor (Maira et al. 2008)) and PAC-1 (a Zinc chelating caspase inhibitor (Putt et al. 2006)). It should be mentioned that AZD-8055, 466 an mTOR inhibitor, showed ddVenus signal reduction but also reduced cellular viability at similar 467 concentrations (Fig EV₄). 468

469

470 Inhibition of NGLY1 had been shown to adversely impact cancer cells, however the ddVenus reporter 471 could be inhibited through alterations to its translation, translocation, or degradation through another means (Tomlin et al. 2017; Zolekar et al. 2018). To determine if NVP-BEZ235 or PAC-1 were acting 472 directly on NGLY1 or causing indirect effects known to impact ERAD reporters, we used another 473 NGLY1-dependent ERAD substrate, a modified ricin toxin A (RTA Δ tagged with V5) (Grotzke *et al.* 2013; 474 Huang *et al.* 2015). In our hands, expression of the RTA Δ -V5 substrate in NGLY1-deficient K562 cells 475 lead to an accumulation of signal by Western blot analysis (Fig 5D), with no consistent discernible 476 477 change in molecular weight. Our inability to detect a difference in molecular weight in RTA^Δ between 478 KD and WT lines is likely due to the activity of ENGase (Huang et al. 2015). We treated RTAΔ-V5-479 expressing NGLY1-deficient K562 cells, as well as WT K562 cells, under the hypothesis that treatment with PAC-1 or NVP-BEZ235 would exacerbate this increase in signal through inhibition of NGLY1 or 480 ERAD. However, treatment with NVP-BEZ235 and PAC-1 seemed to cause a decrease in RTAΔ-V5 481 482 signal (Fig 5D). To determine if this effect correlated with an increase in autophagic flux, as suggested 483 by mTOR/PI3K targeting previously observed in NVP-BEZ235, we looked at the modification of LC3 to LC3-II over time due to compound exposure (Maira et al. 2008). We saw a consistent decrease in the 484 485 level of RTAΔ-V5 signal in response to treatment with NVP-BEZ235, but not with PAC-1. The PAC-1

- treated V5 signal seems to only visually decrease after 12 hours of treatment in WT cells, or 24 hours in
 KD cells. This may be indicative of an indirect mechanism. We observed that loss of RTAΔ-V5 occurred
 simultaneously with an increase in the proportion of LC3-II to LC3 upon treatment with NVP-BEZ235,
 but not PAC-1, suggesting that an increase in autophagy could be responsible for the decrease in RTAΔV5 upon treatment with NVP-BEZ235 (Fig 5E).



Figure 5: Drug treatment of NGLY1-deficient and WT K562 cell lines. (A) Treatment of WT K562 cells 494 with 48 compounds, plotted by assay and concentration to visualize compounds that were not toxic but 495 still inhibited ddVenus fluorescence. Each point represents a single concentration and are colored by 496 497 compound if they decreased ATPlite signal by more than 50% or if they reduced ddVenus signal to the 498 level of the NGLY1 KD line control. (B) Dose response curve for NVP-BEZ235 and PAC-1 treatment of WT and KD NGLY1 K562 cells, exemplative of a positively confirmed hit from the screen. (C) ATP 499 measurement of the dose response curve for NVP-BEZ235 and PAC-1 treatment of WT and KD NGLY1 500 K562 cells. (D) Western blot analysis of RTAΔ-V5 expression levels after NVP-BEZ235 and PAC-1 501 treatment of WT and KD NGLY1 K562 cells for 5 hours and 24 hours treatment at 15 μM for PAC-1 and 502 503 0.5 μM for NVP-BEZ235. Exemplative blot from 3 repeated experiments. (E) Western blot analysis of 504 autophagic flux due to NVP-BEZ235 and PAC-1. Time course treatment of WT K562 cells in the presence of compound. (F) Fluorescent signal of Venus and ddVenus at multiple time points in WT and 505 506 KD lines.

507 Modulation of mTOR can alter protein synthesis, to make sure that our reporter would not be significantly influenced by treatment with NVP-BEZ235 at the concentrations or time points used in our 508 509 assays we used a control reporter that is deglycosylation independent (Venus) to look at protein synthesis of the reporter (Ma and Blenis 2009). Both the ddVenus and Venus reporters are upstream of 510 511 an IRES driving expression of a mCherry protein. After 4 to 24 hours of treatment, there was almost no 512 change or only a slight reduction in the fluorescence signal from the Venus reporter, normalized to the cap-independent mCherry expression (Fig 5F), suggesting that at the treatment with NVP-BEZ235 at 513 the concentrations used did not have a large impact on the translation of the reporter and that the 514 changes in abundance observed are not due to translational inhibition. Collectively these data suggest 515 that activation of autophagy clears substrate or protein accumulation due to NGLY1 deficiency. 516

- 517
- 518
- 519

V. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

520 We generated and profiled a novel NGLY1-deficient cell model that can be used to study NGLY1 biology and for high throughput screening of NGLY1 activity. We found that this system is consistent 521 522 with previous observations of NGLY1 deficiency, showing decreased expression of proteasome subunits and increased protein aggregation. Using the expression profile from that system, we 523 524 identified a compound, Dactosilib (NVP-BEZ235), that induces autophagy and likely does not inhibit 525 NGLY1 activity directly. This increased autophagic flux acts as a compensatory increase in a parallel degradation pathway that can rescue the accumulation of proteins, and possibly NGLY1 dependent 526 substrates. Notably, we also found several proteins implicated in the pathology of Parkinson's disease 527 that were expressed at higher levels in NGLY1 KD cells. 528

529

530 Dactosilib is currently in clinical trials for cancer (albeit with significant side effects) but has been shown 531 to be protective in mouse models of neurodegenerative disease (Bellozi *et al.* 2016; Wise-Draper *et al.*

532 2017). The loss of autophagy in dopaminergic neurons is thought to represent a key mechanism in 533 neurodegenerative diseases such as Parkinson's disease, manifested by increased LRRK2 activity 534 blocking autophagy, and the accumulation of SNCA in Lewy bodies (Schapira and Tolosa 2010). Study 535 of other autophagy inducers, other NGLY1 substrates, other proteins that accumulate in NGLY1 536 deficient states, and related phenotypes could lead to small compound therapies for NGLY1 deficiency 537 provided that substrate accumulation is found to be causative for clinical phenotypes.

538

It is unlikely that the increase in NGLY1 substrate degradation through autophagy rescues NFE2L1 539 540 processing and sensitivity to proteasome inhibition. If NFE2L1 cannot be post-translationally modified by NGLY1, it will not be able to activate proteasome bounce-back (Lehrbach et al. 2019). Removal of 541 542 proteins that accumulate in NGLY1 deficient cells, like NFE2L1, cannot restore their transcriptional activity, but may be able to help in other ways. There are connections between NGLY1 and mTOR 543 544 through NFE₂L₁, but the extent to which an increase in autophagic flux will rescue NGLY₁ deficiency is 545 limited by the degradability of accumulated proteins (possibly NGLY1 substrates) in the autophagosome and the likely inability of autophagy to properly post-translationally modify NGLY1 546 substrates and allow their re-entry into the cytoplasm (Zhang and Manning 2015). Like inhibition of 547 548 ENGase or activation of NFE₂L₂, activation of autophagy will likely not rescue all molecular or clinical phenotypes of NGLY1 deficiency, but will only rescue those phenotypes that are related to protein 549 550 aggregation.

551

NGLY1 is a zinc-requiring enzyme (Lee *et al.* 2005). Our discovery that NGLY1 is possibly inhibited by zinc chelation treatment with PAC-1 presents another mechanism, like the complementation of proteasome inhibition, for chemical treatment of NGLY1 for cancer. However, due to the odd kinetics of NGLY1 target degradation that we observe in our treatment time course, further validation will be necessary.

558 The multi-omic phenotypes observed due to the loss of functional NGLY1 were not directly indicative of specific pathways in this study. This may be because NGLY1 seems to act as an early cytosolic step in 559 glycan metabolism and proteostasis of glycoproteins, so may signal multiple pathways through 560 multiple currently unidentified targets (Suzuki *et al.* 2016). Multiple types of stress have been linked to 561 562 NGLY1-deficient systems: oxidative stress was linked to NGLY1 deficiency through mitochondrial malfunction (Kong et al. 2018), proteotoxic stress was linked through abnormal cytosol in patient liver 563 564 biopsies and reporter protein accumulation in detergent insoluble aggregates (Need *et al.* 2012; Huang et al. 2015). Our data show that the canonical stress pathways associated with these systems are not 565 enriched at steady state in the K562 system. However, when perturbed (as observed through 566 proteasome inhibitor treatment) the deficits of the system were revealed, consistent with previous 567 568 reports that linked NFE2L1 processing to NGLY1 activity (Tomlin et al. 2017). An NFE2L1-related signal (downregulation of proteasome subunits) was evident in the set of differentially expressed transcripts 569 that were not differentially regulated on the protein level. This is consistent with sufficient steady state 570 571 proteostasis that only becomes problematic once the system is challenged. Our data suggest that 572 NGLY1 deficiency will have a larger effect on systems that are more sensitive to proteotoxic, oxidative, 573 or mitochondrial stress.

574

575

5	7	6
<u>٦</u>	1	h

VI. Acknowledgements

577	We are grateful to Hannah	Pflaumer, and the EMBL	FACS, Chemical,	Proteomics, and Gene core
	5			•

578 facilities for expert technical assistance. This study would not have been possible without a grant from

- 579 the Grace Science Foundation.
- 580

VII. Author contributions

581 The paper was conceived of and designed by WFM, PJ, and LMS, and was written by WFM and PJ.

582 Experimental design, data collection, data analysis, and significant intellectual contributions by WFM,

583 PJ, HS, SCM, SGD, PC, BH, PS, VB, MP, GD. Experimental design, data collection, and data analysis by

584 DO, MB, MB, JL.

- 585 VIII. Conflict of interest
- 586 The authors declare no conflicts of interest.
- 587
- 588

References

- 589 Albanell, J., and J. Adams, 2002 Bortezomib, a proteasome inhibitor, in cancer therapy: From concept to clinic. Drugs of the Future 27: 1079.
- Bellozi, P. M. Q., I. V. de A. Lima, J. G. Dória, É. L. M. Vieira, A. C. Campos *et al.*, 2016 Neuroprotective effects of the anticancer drug NVP-BEZ235 (dactolisib) on amyloid-β 1-42 induced neurotoxicity and memory impairment. Sci. Rep. 6: 25226.
- 592 Caglayan, A. O., S. Comu, J. F. Baranoski, Y. Parman, H. Kaymakçalan *et al.*, 2015 NGLY1 mutation causes neuromotor impairment, intellectual disability, and neuropathy. Eur. J. Med. Genet. 58: 39–43.
- 594 Cookson, M. R., 2010 The role of leucine-rich repeat kinase 2 (LRRK2) in Parkinson's disease. Nat. Rev. Neurosci. 11: 791–797.
- 595 Cuadrado, A., A. I. Rojo, G. Wells, J. D. Hayes, S. P. Cousin *et al.*, 2019 Therapeutic targeting of the NRF2 and KEAP1 partnership in chronic diseases. Nat. Rev. Drug Discov. 18: 295–317.
- 597 Dobin, A., and T. R. Gingeras, 2015 Mapping RNA-seq Reads with STAR. Curr. Protoc. Bioinformatics 51: 11.14.1–19.
- 598 Eden, E., R. Navon, I. Steinfeld, D. Lipson, and Z. Yakhini, 2009 GOrilla: a tool for discovery and visualization of enriched GO terms in ranked gene lists. BMC Bioinformatics 10: 48.
- 600 ENCODE Project Consortium, 2012 An integrated encyclopedia of DNA elements in the human genome. Nature 489: 57–74.
- 601 Enns, G. M., V. Shashi, M. Bainbridge, M. J. Gambello, F. R. Zahir *et al.*, 2014 Mutations in NGLY1 cause an inherited disorder of the endoplasmic reticulumassociated degradation pathway. Genet. Med. 16: 751–758.

Franken, H., T. Mathieson, D. Childs, G. M. A. Sweetman, T. Werner *et al.*, 2015 Thermal proteome profiling for unbiased identification of direct and indirect drug targets using multiplexed quantitative mass spectrometry. Nat. Protoc. 10: 1567–1593.

- Fujihira, H., Y. Masahara-Negishi, M. Tamura, C. Huang, Y. Harada *et al.*, 2017 Lethality of mice bearing a knockout of the Ngly1-gene is partially rescued by the additional deletion of the Engase gene. PLOS Genetics 13: e1006696.
- 607 Grotzke, J. E., Q. Lu, and P. Cresswell, 2013 Deglycosylation-dependent fluorescent proteins provide unique tools for the study of ER-associated degradation. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U. S. A. 110: 3393–3398.

- 609 Heeley, J., and M. Shinawi, 2015 Multi-systemic involvement in NGLY1-related disorder caused by two novel mutations. Am. J. Med. Genet. A 167A: 816– 820.
- Huang, C., Y. Harada, A. Hosomi, Y. Masahara-Negishi, J. Seino *et al.*, 2015 Endo-β-N-acetylglucosaminidase formsN-GlcNAc protein aggregates during
 ER-associated degradation in Ngly1-defective cells. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences 112: 1398–1403.
- 613 Hunt, S. E., W. McLaren, L. Gil, A. Thormann, H. Schuilenburg *et αl.*, 2018 Ensembl variation resources. Database 2018.
- 614 Huppke, P., S. Weissbach, J. A. Church, R. Schnur, M. Krusen *et al.*, 2017 Activating de novo mutations in NFE2L2 encoding NRF2 cause a multisystem disorder. Nature Communications 8.:
- 616 Iyer, S., J. D. Mast, H. Tsang, T. P. Rodriguez, N. DiPrimio *et al.*, 2019 Drug screens of NGLY1 deficiency in worm and fly models reveal catecholamine, NRF2 and anti-inflammatory-pathway activation as potential clinical approaches. Disease Models & Mechanisms 12: dmm040576.
- 618 Iyer, S., J. D. Mast, H. Tsang, T. P. Rodriguez, N. DiPrimio *et al.* Drug screens of NGLY1 Deficiency worm and fly models reveal catecholamine, NRF2 and anti-inflammatory pathway activation as clinical approaches.
- 620 Jang, S. K., H. G. Kräusslich, M. J. Nicklin, G. M. Duke, A. C. Palmenberg *et al.*, 1988 A segment of the 5' nontranslated region of encephalomyocarditis virus RNA directs internal entry of ribosomes during in vitro translation. J. Virol. 62: 2636–2643.
- 622 Kadowaki, H., and H. Nishitoh, 2013 Signaling pathways from the endoplasmic reticulum and their roles in disease. Genes 4: 306–333.
- wan Keulen, B. J., J. Rotteveel, and M. J. J. Finken, 2019 Unexplained death in patients with NGLY1 mutations may be explained by adrenal insufficiency.
 Physiol Rep 7: e13979.
- 625 Kim, I., J. Ahn, C. Liu, K. Tanabe, J. Apodaca et al., 2006 The Png1-Rad23 complex regulates glycoprotein turnover. J. Cell Biol. 172: 211–219.
- 626 Kong, J., M. Peng, J. Ostrovsky, Y. J. Kwon, O. Oretsky *et al.*, 2018 Mitochondrial function requires NGLY1. Mitochondrion 38: 6–16.
- 627 Kwak, M.-K., N. Wakabayashi, J. L. Greenlaw, M. Yamamoto, and T. W. Kensler, 2003 Antioxidants enhance mammalian proteasome expression through the Keap1-Nrf2 signaling pathway. Mol. Cell. Biol. 23: 8786–8794.
- 629 Lamb, J., E. D. Crawford, D. Peck, J. W. Modell, I. C. Blat *et al.*, 2006 The Connectivity Map: using gene-expression signatures to connect small molecules, genes, and disease. Science 313: 1929–1935.
- 631 Lam, C., C. Ferreira, D. Krasnewich, C. Toro, L. Latham *et al.*, 2017 Prospective phenotyping of NGLY1-CDDG, the first congenital disorder of deglycosylation. Genet. Med. 19: 160–168.
- 633 Lee, J.-H., J. -H. Lee, J. M. Choi, C. Lee, K. J. Yi *et al.*, 2005 Structure of a peptide:N-glycanase-Rad23 complex: Insight into the deglycosylation for denatured glycoproteins. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences 102: 9144–9149.
- 635 Lehrbach, N. J., P. C. Breen, and G. Ruvkun, 2019 Protein Sequence Editing of SKN-1A/Nrf1 by Peptide:N-Glycanase Controls Proteasome Gene Expression. 636 Cell 177: 737–750.e15.
- 637 Lehrbach, N. J., and G. Ruvkun, 2016 Proteasome dysfunction triggers activation of SKN-1A/Nrf1 by the aspartic protease DDI-1. Elife 5.:
- 638 Leichner, G. S., R. Avner, D. Harats, and J. Roitelman, 2009 Dislocation of HMG-CoA reductase and Insig-1, two polytopic endoplasmic reticulum proteins, en route to proteasomal degradation. Mol. Biol. Cell 20: 3330–3341.
- 640 Love, M. I., W. Huber, and S. Anders, 2014 Moderated estimation of fold change and dispersion for RNA-seq data with DESeq2. Genome Biol. 15: 550.
- 641 Ma, X. M., and J. Blenis, 2009 Molecular mechanisms of mTOR-mediated translational control. Nat. Rev. Mol. Cell Biol. 10: 307–318.
- 642 Maira, S.-M., F. Stauffer, J. Brueggen, P. Furet, C. Schnell *et al.*, 2008 Identification and characterization of NVP-BEZ235, a new orally available dual phosphatidylinositol 3-kinase/mammalian target of rapamycin inhibitor with potent in vivo antitumor activity. Mol. Cancer Ther. 7: 1851–1863.
- 644 Morgens, D. W., M. Wainberg, E. A. Boyle, O. Ursu, C. L. Araya *et al.*, 2017 Genome-scale measurement of off-target activity using Cas9 toxicity in highthroughput screens. Nat. Commun. 8: 15178.
- 646 Need, A. C., V. Shashi, Y. Hitomi, K. Schoch, K. V. Shianna *et al.*, 2012 Clinical application of exome sequencing in undiagnosed genetic conditions. J. Med. 647 Genet. 49: 353–361.
- 648 Putt, K. S., G. W. Chen, J. M. Pearson, J. S. Sandhorst, M. S. Hoagland *et al.*, 2006 Small-molecule activation of procaspase-3 to caspase-3 as a personalized anticancer strategy. Nat. Chem. Biol. 2: 543–550.
- Radhakrishnan, S. K., C. S. Lee, P. Young, A. Beskow, J. Y. Chan *et al.*, 2010 Transcription factor Nrf1 mediates the proteasome recovery pathway after proteasome inhibition in mammalian cells. Mol. Cell 38: 17–28.
- 652 Sanjana, N. E., O. Shalem, and F. Zhang Improved vectors and genome-wide libraries for CRISPR screening.
- 653 Savitski, M. M., F. B. M. Reinhard, H. Franken, T. Werner, M. F. Savitski *et al.*, 2014 Tracking cancer drugs in living cells by thermal profiling of the proteome. Science 346: 1255784.
- 655 Savitski, M. M., N. Zinn, M. Faelth-Savitski, D. Poeckel, S. Gade *et al.*, 2018 Multiplexed Proteome Dynamics Profiling Reveals Mechanisms Controlling 656 Protein Homeostasis. Cell 173: 260–274.e25.
- 657 Schapira, A. H. V., and E. Tolosa, 2010 Molecular and clinical prodrome of Parkinson disease: implications for treatment. Nature Reviews Neurology 6: 309– 317.
- 659 Smits, A. H., F. Ziebell, G. Joberty, N. Zinn, W. F. Mueller *et al.* Biological Plasticity Rescues Target Activity in CRISPR Knockouts.
- 660 Souza, N. de, and N. de Souza, 2012 The ENCODE project. Nature Methods 9: 1046–1046.
- 661 Srinivasan, B., H. Zhou, S. Mitra, and J. Skolnick, 2016 Novel small molecule binders of human N-glycanase 1, a key player in the endoplasmic reticulum associated degradation pathway. Bioorganic & Medicinal Chemistry 24: 4750–4758.
- 563 Suzuki, T., C. Huang, and H. Fujihira, 2016 The cytoplasmic peptide:N-glycanase (NGLY1) Structure, expression and cellular functions. Gene 577: 1–7.

- 664 Suzuki, T., K. Yano, S. Sugimoto, K. Kitajima, W. J. Lennarz *et al.*, 2002 Endo-beta-N-acetylglucosaminidase, an enzyme involved in processing of free oligosaccharides in the cytosol. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U. S. A. 99: 9691–9696.
- Szklarczyk, D., A. L. Gable, D. Lyon, A. Junge, S. Wyder *et al.*, 2019 STRING v11: protein-protein association networks with increased coverage, supporting functional discovery in genome-wide experimental datasets. Nucleic Acids Res. 47: D607–D613.
- 668 Tanabe, K., W. J. Lennarz, and T. Suzuki, 2006 A cytoplasmic peptide: N-glycanase. Methods Enzymol. 415: 46–55.
- 669 Tomlin, F. M., U. I. M. Gerling-Driessen, Y.-C. Liu, R. A. Flynn, J. R. Vangala *et al.*, 2017 Inhibition of NGLY1 Inactivates the Transcription Factor Nrf1 and Potentiates Proteasome Inhibitor Cytotoxicity. ACS Cent Sci 3: 1143–1155.
- 671 Uhlen, M., L. Fagerberg, B. M. Hallstrom, C. Lindskog, P. Oksvold *et al.*, 2015 Tissue-based map of the human proteome. Science 347: 1260419–1260419.
- 672 Wise-Draper, T. M., G. Moorthy, M. A. Salkeni, N. A. Karim, H. E. Thomas *et al.*, 2017 A Phase Ib Study of the Dual PI3K/mTOR Inhibitor Dactolisib (BEZ235) 673 Combined with Everolimus in Patients with Advanced Solid Malignancies. Target. Oncol. 12: 323–332.
- 674 Yang, K., R. Huang, H. Fujihira, T. Suzuki, and N. Yan, 2018 N-glycanase NGLY1 regulates mitochondrial homeostasis and inflammation through NRF1. The 675 Journal of Experimental Medicine 215: 2600–2616.
- 676 Zhang, Y., and B. D. Manning, 2015 mTORC1 signaling activates NRF1 to increase cellular proteasome levels. Cell Cycle 14: 2011–2017.
- 677 Zhang, Y., and Y. Xiang, 2016 Molecular and cellular basis for the unique functioning of Nrf1, an indispensable transcription factor for maintaining cell homoeostasis and organ integrity. Biochemical Journal 473: 961–1000.
- 679 Zolekar, A., V. J. T. Lin, N. M. Mishra, Y. Y. Ho, H. S. Hayatshahi *et al.*, 2018 Stress and interferon signalling-mediated apoptosis contributes to pleiotropic anticancer responses induced by targeting NGLY1. Br. J. Cancer 119: 1538–1551.

Table1: Primer list				
Primer Name	Primer Sequence			
PJ221	ACCACGGGGACGTGGTTTTCCTTTGAAAAACACGATGATAATATGGTGAGCAAGGGCGAGGAGG			
PJ222	CTTTTATTTATCCTCGAGCATTCTAAGCTCGTCCATGCCGCCG			
PJ181	CCAGTGTGGTGGAATTCTGCAGATATCCAGC			
PJ227	GGCATCGCCCTCtcctaccggtGGATCCCGGGTTTAAACGGGCCCCC			
PJ219	ccggtaggccGGATCCGCTGATCAGCGGGTTTAAACGGGCCCC			

Table 2: Compound List

Drug	CAS#
Epicatechin	490-46-0
N-acetyl Asparagine	233-716-7
Antimycin A	1397-94-0
Oligomycin A	579-13-5
Rotenone	83-79-4
AZD-8055	1009298-09-2
BMS-536924	468740-43-4
CA-074 methyl ester	147859-80-1
Calpeptin	117591-20-5
Chloroquine Phosphate	50-63-5
CP466722	1080622-86-1
Enzastaurin (LY317615)	170364-57-5
L-690488	142523-14-6
NVP-BEZ235	915019-65-7
PAC-1	315183-21-2
PIK-90	677338-12-4
Temsirolimus	162635-04-3
Aza-cytidine	320-67-2
Ataluren	775304-57-9
Geneticin (G418)	108321-42-2
AG-957	140674-76-6
BO2-inhibits-RAD51	1290541-46-6
Bortezomib	179324-69-7
Carfilzomib	868540-17-4
Cerulenin	17397-89-6
Devazepide	103420-77-5
EMF-bca1-16	1917-65-3
Exemestane	107868-30-4
MLN-2238 (Ixazomib)	1072833-77-2
Moteleukast Sodium	151767-02-1
Nimodipine	66085-59-4
Parthenolide	20554-84-1
Radicicol	12772-57-5
RS-I-002-6 (Isoleucinol)	24629-25-2
Sulfacetamide Sodium	127-56-0
Tanespimycin	75747-14-7
Thapsigargin	67526-95-8
Valproate	99-66-1
VER-155008	1134156-31-2
Arbutin (corrected)	497-76-7
Fludeoxyglucose	29702-43-0
Glucoronamide	3789-97-7
Inosine	292853-81-7
Maltose	133-99-3
Miglustat	72599-27-0
N-Isopropylphtalimide	304-17-6
Sucralose	56038-13-2
Voglibose	83480-29-9

Drug	Cell Line	EC50	Std. Deviation	Assay	Log EC50
AntimycinA	wt	NA	NA	ddVenus	0
AntimycinA	kd	NA	NA	ddVenus	0
Rotenone	wt	2,05557	2,27569	ddVenus	0,312932271
Rotenone	kd	0,73507	0,76239	ddVenus	-0,133671302
NVP-BEZ235	wt	0,006398 6	0,0014126	ddVenus	-2,193915038
NVP-BEZ235	kd	0,025122 4	0,009361	ddVenus	-1,599938874
AZD	wt	0,049556 3	0,0239019	ddVenus	-1,304901127
AZD	kd	0,085778 2	0,0352372	ddVenus	-1,066623071
PAC1	wt	5,27945	1,64344	ddVenus	0,722588681
PAC1	kd	4,14018	0,66796	ddVenus	0,617019223
Parthenolide	wt	NA	NA	ddVenus	0
Parthenolide	kd	NA	NA	ddVenus	0
CA-074	wt	16,83075	2,13067	ddVenus	1,226103469
CA-074	kd	2,10127	0,68073	ddVenus	0,32248186
AntimycinA	wt	0,002893 5	0,0025987	ATPlite	-2,538576513
AntimycinA	kd	0,007407 4	0,0226061	ATPlite	-2,130334203
Rotenone	wt	0,39387	2,07059	ATPlite	-0,404647097
Rotenone	kd	NA	NA	ATPlite	0
NVP-BEZ235	wt	0,017874	0,014463	ATPlite	-1,747778246
NVP-BEZ235	kd	0,041157	0,034059	ATPlite	-1,385556289
AZD	wt	0,05974	0,048151	ATPlite	-1,223734782
AZD	kd	0,120691	0,086374	ATPlite	-0,918325114
PAC1	wt	1,630012	0,83039	ATPlite	0,212190802
PAC1	kd	NA	NA	ATPlite	0
Parthenolide	wt	28,2028	57,457	ATPlite	1,450292228
Parthenolide	kd	8,52	5,5991	ATPlite	0,930439595
CA-074	wt	7,19504	3,68349	ATPlite	0,857033213
CA-074	kd	8,630157	5,317583	ATPlite	0,936018696

Table 3: EC50 Values for Compounds in WT and KD cell lines for ATPlite and Deglycosylation assays