Novel determinants of NOTCH1 trafficking and signaling in breast epithelial cells

Francis M. Kobia[1,*,+], Luis Castro e Almeida[1], Francesca Carminati[1], Adrian Andronache[2], Francesco Lavezzari[1], Mark Wade[2&] and Thomas Vaccari[1,*]

[1]Dipartimento di Bioscienze, Università degli Studi di Milano, Via Giovanni Celoria, 26, 20133 Milano, Italy

[2]Center for Genomic Science of IIT@SEMM, Fondazione Istituto Italiano di Tecnologia (IIT), Milan, Italy., via Adamello 16, 20139, Milano, Italy

*Corresponding authors: Thomas Vaccari, email: thomas.vaccari@unimi.it, Francis Kobia, email: fkobia@associates.mku.ac.ke

+Current address: Mount Kenya University, Department of Research and Innovation, Thika, Kenya

&Current address: Astex Pharmaceuticals, Cambridge, UK

Abstract

The evolutionarily conserved Notch pathway controls cell–cell communication during development and in adult metazoans. It influences cell fate decisions, cell proliferation and cell differentiation, and contributes to the maintenance of normal tissue homeostasis. Consequently, misregulation of the Notch pathway is associated with a wide range of diseases, including congenital disorders and cancers with little to no cure. Signaling by Notch receptors is regulated by a complex set of cellular processes that include maturation and trafficking to the plasma membrane, endocytic uptake and sorting, lysosomal and proteasomal degradation, and ligand-dependent and independent proteolytic cleavages. We devised assays to follow quantitively the lifetime of endogenous human NOTCH1 receptor in breast epithelial cells in culture. Based on such analysis, we executed a high-content screen of 2749 human genes for which modulatory compounds exist, to identify new regulators of Notch signaling activation that might be amenable to pharmacologic intervention. We uncovered 39 new NOTCH1 genetic modulators that affect different steps of NOTCH1 cellular dynamics. In particular, we find that *PTPN23* and *HCN2* act as positive NOTCH1 regulators by promoting endocytic trafficking and NOTCH1 maturation in the Golgi apparatus, respectively, while *SGK3* serves as a negative regulator that can be modulated by pharmacologic inhibition. Our findings might be relevant in the search of new strategies to counteract pathologic Notch signaling.

Key words

Notch signaling; intracellular trafficking; Notch trafficking; cell communication

Abbreviations

ADAM: A disintegrin and metalloproteinase; ANK: Ankyrin repeats; APP: amyloid precursor protein; BafA1: Bafilomycin A1; CHX: cycloheximide; CSL: CBF1, Suppressor of Hairless, Lag-1; DAPI: 4',6-diamidino-2-phenylindole; DAPT: N-[(3,5-difluorophenyl)acetyl]-L-alanyl-2-phenyl]glycine-1,1-dimethylethyl ester; DMEM: Dulbecco's modified eagle medium; DMSO:

dimethyl sulfoxide; DSL: Delta/Serrate/Lag2; EDTA: ethylenediaminetetraacetic acid; EGTA:

ethylene glycol tetraacetic acid; EGF: epidermal growth factor; EGFR: epidermal growth factor

receptor; ESCRT: endosomal sorting complexes required for transport; esiRNA:

endoribonuclease-prepared siRNAs; ER: endoplasmic reticulum; GA: Golgi apparatus; GSI:

gamma (γ)-secretase inhibitor; HCS: high content screen; HCN2: hyperpolarization-activated

cyclic nucleotide-gated channel 2; HES1: hes family bHLH transcription factor 1; HEY1: hes

related family bHLH transcription factor with YRPW motif 1; HRP: horse radish peroxidase; IF:

immunofluorescence; KD: knockdown; MGV: mean gray value; N1FL: NOTCH1 full length;

N1ICD: NOTCH1 intracellular domain; ns: not significant; NT: Non-targeting; N1TM: NOTCH1

transmembrane; OTP: ON TARGET plus; PFA: paraformaldehyde; PM: plasma membrane;

pNDRG1: phospho-N-myc downstream regulated gene 1; PSENEN: presenilin enhancer gamma

secretase subunit; PTPN23: protein tyrosine phosphatase non-receptor type 23; RTN3: reticulon

3; S1: Notch cleavage site 1; S2: Notch cleavage site 2; S3: Notch cleavage site 3; SGK3:

serum/glucocorticoid regulated kinase family member 3; siRNA: short interfering RNA; Su(Dx):

supressor of deltex; TGN46: TGOLN2 (trans-golgi network protein 2); V-ATPase: vacuolar H^+

ATPase; w/o: washout; λ-PPA: lambda phosphatase.

Introduction

The evolutionarily conserved Notch pathway is a form of direct cell–cell communication

that is extensively deployed in the regulation of multiple cellular functions during development and

in adults. It influences cell fate decisions, cell proliferation and cell differentiation, and contributes

to the maintenance of normal tissue homeostasis in both invertebrate and vertebrate metazoans

[1–3]. Because of such broad function, loss or gain of Notch function is associated with several

congenital disorders [4] and cancers (Aster et al., 2017).

Upon synthesis in the endoplasmic reticulum (ER), Notch proteins are processed at site

S1 by Furin in the TGN (Trans Golgi Network), the distal portion of Golgi apparatus (GA). Such

cleavage generates the mature receptors exposed on the cell surface that are held together by

Ca^{2+} coordination within the heterodimerization domain (HD; see Fig. 1A for a schematic of human

NOTCH1) [5,6]. Once at the cell surface, Notch receptor activation can be initiated by binding the

Delta/Serrate/Lag2 (DSL) family of Notch ligands that are present on the surfaces of adjacent

signal-sending cells [7]. Following ligand binding, the receptors undergo two activating proteolytic

cleavages; the first one is extracellular and is executed by ADAM10 at site S2 [8]. The second is

intracellular and is mediated at site S3 by the γ-secretase complex [9–11] (see Fig. 1A for a

schematic of human NOTCH1). These cleavages generate the transcriptionally competent NICD

(Notch Intracellular Domain) which translocates to the nucleus and activates the expression of

Notch target genes [12]. In addition, Notch signaling activation may occur through non-canonical

means on the endosomal surface, with or without stimulation by ligands [13,14].

As a membrane-tethered transcription factor, the Notch signaling output is not only

controlled by ligands, ADAM metalloproteases, the γ-secretase complex and the CSL

transcriptional complex, but also through intracellular trafficking [2,12,15–18]. Indeed, loss or

modulation of various activities occurring at membranes positively or negatively impact signaling

in both model organisms and humans. These activities include glycosylation enzymes [19–21],

internalization regulators such as Dynamin [22], and ubiquitin ligases such as Dx (Deltex) [23–

27], Su(Dx) (suppressor of Deltex)/AIP4/ITCH in mammals [28,29], and NEDD4 [17,30]. In

addition, components of the endo-lysosomal system, such as Endosomal Sorting Required for

Transport (ESCRT) proteins [31–33] or the vacuolar-ATPase (V-ATPase) pump are required for

endocytic Notch trafficking and signaling [34–40]. It is plausible that numerous other factors, yet

to be identified and characterized, contribute to fine tune Notch liberation from membranes

signaling by harnessing the intracellular trafficking machinery. Thus, aiming to improve knowledge

of Notch receptor trafficking and to identify novel genes that control Notch trafficking and

signaling, here we combine quantitative immunofluorescence, RNA interference, and automated

microscopic imaging to describe the kinetics of endogenous NOTCH1 export to the plasma

membrane (PM), and its endocytic uptake and lysosomal clearance in human epithelial mammary

gland cells in culture. Finally, we screen to identify novel modulators of Notch trafficking and

signaling.

Materials and methods

Cell culture

MCF10A cells (ATCC, Cat #: CRL-10317) were cultured in DMEM/F12 (ThermoFisher

Scientific, Cat #: 11320033) supplemented with 5% Horse Serum (ThermoFisher Scientific, Cat

#: 16050122), 10 mg/ml insulin (Merck Life Sciences, Cat #: 11376497001), 0.5 mg/ml

Hydrocortisone (Merck Life Sciences, Cat #: H0888-5G), 100 ng/ml cholera toxin (Merck Life

Sciences, Cat #: C8052-2MG) and freshly added 20 ng/ml EGF (Vinci-Biochem, Cat #: 90201-3).

The MCF10A-RbpJk-Luc Notch signaling reporter cell line, which carries a luciferase gene under

the control of a Notch promoter, was maintained under antibiotic selection in normal MCF10A

medium supplemented with puromycin (Vinci-Biochem, Cat #: AG-CN2-0078-M100) at a final

concentration of 2 mg/ml.

Compounds and chemicals

Where indicated, cells were treated with the following compounds and/or chemicals at

indicated concentrations. γ-secretase inhibitor: DAPT (Santa Cruz Biotechnology, Cat #: sc-

201315), V-ATPase inhibitor: BafA1 (Santa Cruz Biotechnology, Cat #: sc-201550), SGK3

inhibitor: VPS34-IN1 (Selleckchem, Cat #: S7980). Stock solutions of the compounds were

prepared in cell culture grade DMSO (EuroClone, Cat #: EMR385250). λ-phosphatase (λ-PPA)

along with 10X λ-PPA reaction buffer and 10X $MnCl_2$) was purchased from Santa Cruz

Biotechnology (Cat #: sc-200312A). EGTA was purchased from Santa Cruz Biotechnology (Cat

#: sc-3593D).

EGTA stimulation of Notch cleavage, nuclear translocation and signaling

Notch signaling activation was stimulated by Ca^{2+} depletion [6]. For short-term Ca^{2+} removal, EGTA was added at a final concentration of 10mM for up to 30 minutes, while for extended periods, EGTA was used at a final concentration of 2.5mM for 2–4 hours, followed by downstream assays.

Immunofluorescence

Immunofluorescence (IF) was performed on cells grown on coverslips. For IF staining, cells were fixed for 10 minutes with 4% PFA at room temperature. They were then rinsed thrice with PBS 1X and then permeabilized for 10 minutes with 0.1% triton-PBS 1X or with 0.01% saponin in PBS. They were then incubated in 3% BSA in PBS 1X blocking solution or in 0.01% saponin in PBS for 30 minutes and then incubated with primary antibody dissolved in the appropriate blocking solution for 1 hour at room temperature. Excess antibody was washed off by rinsing 3 times with PBS 1X, 5 minutes each. Samples were then incubated in secondary antibody diluted in the appropriate blocking solution for 1 hour at room temperature followed by 3 washes using PBS 1X, 5 minutes per wash. The following primary antibodies were used: rat anti-full length NOTCH1, 5B5 monoclonal antibody (Merck Life Sciences, Cat #: SAB4200024) at 1:300, Goat anti-EEA1 (Santa Cruz, Cat #: sc-6415) at 1:150, Rabbit anti-GIANTIN (Covance, Cat #: PRB-114C) at 1:1000, mouse anti-EGFR 108 (hybridoma, ATCC) at 1:500, rabbit anti-Reticulon3 (RTN3; generous gift from Dr. Sara Sigismund, IEO, Milan) at 1:300, rabbit anti-TGN46 (Proteintech, Cat #:13573-1-AP) at 1:300, and rabbit anti-LAMP1 (Merck Life Sciences, Cat #: L1418) at 1:200 (requires permeabilization with saponin). Cell surface membranes were marked with phalloidin (Merck Life Sciences, Cat #: P5282) at 1:100 and the nuclei counterstained with DAPI (Merck Life Sciences, Cat #: D9542) at 1:1000. Confocal image acquisition was done using a Leica TCS SL confocal system. Where noted, digital images were processed using Photoshop or ImageJ software without biased manipulation.

ImageJ was used for quantitative analysis of IF images following spatial image calibration

based on imaging scale bars. To assess colocalization in co-stained samples, imaging channels

were first separated using the split channel function of ImageJ. To quantify NOTCH1

accumulation in the Golgi in HCN2- and SGK3-silenced conditions, and the accumulation of

NOTCH1 and EGFR in the Golgi and endoplasmic reticulum (ER) upon EGTA treatment,

ImageJ's freehand selection tool was used to trace regions of interest (ROIs) based on Giantin,

TGN46, or RTN3 signals. The ROIs were then saved and transferred onto the NOTCH1 and

EGFR channels using the ROI manager tool. Next, the areas (μm^2) and integrated densities

(IntDens) of the ROIs were measured to determine organelle (GA) size and the signal intensities

of NOTCH1 and EGFR (in the GA and ER), respectively. To quantify the levels of NOTCH1 and

EGFR at the PM, ImageJ's freehand tool was used to mark ROIs covering the area between the

inner and outer sides of the PM based on the NOTCH1 and EGFR cell surface signal. The IntDens

within the ROIs was then measured to determine NOTCH1 and EGFR levels at the PM. To

measure whole cell levels of NOTCH1/EGFR, whole-cell ROIs were created by tracing the outer

side of the PM based on the NOTCH1 and EGFR signals, followed by IntDens measurement to

determine the levels of NOTCH1 and EGFR in whole cells. The proportions (%) of NOTCH1 and

EGFR in each compartment were determined by applying the following formula in their respective

channels: % IntDens = (ROI IntDens ÷ whole cell ROI IntDens) × 100. At least 5 ROIs, in at least

five images were analyzed. The number of endolysosomal puncta, NOTCH1- and EGFR-positive

puncta, and the rate of NOTCH1 colocalization with EEA1 (early endosomes) and LAMP1 (late

endosomes/lysosomes) in *PTPN23*- and *SGK3*-silenced samples, as well as the rate of NOTCH1

and EGFR colocalization with LAMP1 in Bafilomycin (BafA1)-treated cells were determined as

follows. First, ImageJ's freehand tool was used to trace the cytoplasmic area between the edge

of the nucleus and the inner side of the PM on merged (NOTCH1+DAPI+EEA1,

NOTCH1+DAPI+LAMP1, or EGFR+DAPI+LAMP1) composite images. The ROIs were then

saved and transferred onto the respective single channels using the ROI manager tool. The

number of NOTCH1-, EGFR-, EEA1-, or LAMP1-positive puncta was then determined using

ImageJ's ComDet v.0.5.5 plugin (DOI: https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.6546038) after empirically

determining the spot detection thresholds for each channel. For spot (puncta) detection, the

intensity threshold was set at 4 and colocalization determined using a maximum distance of 2

pixels between colocalized spots. To determine the rate of colocalization with the organelle

markers, the NOTCH1 or EGFR channels were merged the EEA1 or LAMP1 channels to generate

composite images and the ComDet plugin used to determine the rate of puncta colocalization. At

least 5 ROIs, in at least 5 images were analyzed.

Western blot analyses

For western blot analyses, cells were scraped into 1 ml of the media they had been

cultured in, transferred into prechilled 1.5 ml Eppendorf tubes, and placed on ice. They were then

centrifuged at full speed (14,000 rpm) for 5 minutes at 4°C and the pellets rinsed once with ice-

cold PBS 1X. Unless indicated otherwise, cell pellets were then lysed by resuspension in 60 µl

ice-cold RIPA buffer (ThermoFisher Scientific, Cat. #: 89901) supplemented with a protease

inhibitor cocktail (Merck Life Sciences, Cat #: 11697498001). They were then vortexed for 10

seconds, incubated on ice for 15 minutes, cleared by centrifugation at full speed for 20 minutes

at 4°C, and the supernatants transferred into fresh 1.5 ml Eppendorf tubes on ice. Protein

concentrations were quantified using a BCA protein assay kit (ThermoFisher Scientific, Cat #:

233225) following manufacturer guidelines. Next, for each sample, 20 µg of the protein lysate

were mixed with 7.5 µl of 4X Laemmli sample buffer (Bio-Rad Laboratories, Cat #: 1610747)

containing 10% β-mercaptoethanol (Bio-Rad, Cat #: 1610710) and the volume topped up to 30 µl

using distilled water. Depending on target protein molecular weight, the samples were then

resolved on precast 4–20% Criterion™ TGX Stain-Free™ polyacrylamide gels (Bio-Rad, Cat #:

5678094) or 7.5% stain-free gels (Bio-Rad, Cat #: 4568024 or 5678024) polyacrylamide gels

using 1X Tris/Glycine SDS running buffer (Bio-Rad, Cat #: 1610732). Proteins were then

transferred onto 0.2 µm nitrocellulose membranes using Trans-Blot® Turbo™ Mini Nitrocellulose

Transfer Packs (Bio-Rad, Cat #: 1704158EDU) on a Trans-Blot Turbo TM Transfer System (Bio-

Rad, Cat #: 1704150). Protein transfer was then visualized using 0.1 % Ponceau S solution (w/v)

in 5% acetic acid (Merck Life Sciences, Cat #: P7170-1L) and imaged. The membranes were then

washed using 1X TBS (Bio-Rad, Cat #: 1706435) containing 0.1% Tween-20 (Bio-Rad, Cat #:

1610781) – TBST, for 15 minutes and then blocked with 5% skimmed milk (Merck Millipore, Cat

#: 70166) in TBST for 3 hours. Membranes were then incubated overnight at 4°C in the following

primary antibodies: rabbit anti-cleaved NOTCH1 (Val 1744) at 1:1000 (Cell signaling technology,

Cat #: 4147S), rabbit anti-NOTCH1 (D1E11) XP® at 1:1000 (Cell signaling technology, Cat #:

3608S), mouse anti-Vinculin at 1:5000 (Bio-Rad, Cat #: MCA4665GA), mouse anti-β-actin at

1:5000 (Merck Life Science, Cat #: A-5441), or rabbit anti-Phospho-NDRG1 (Thr346) (D98G11)

XP® at 1:1000 (Cell signaling technology, Cat #: 5482). Membranes were then washed thrice with

TBST (5 minutes/wash) at room temperature and then incubated with HRP-conjugated goat anti-

rabbit IgG (H + L) (Bio-Rad, Cat #: 170-6515) or goat anti-mouse IgG (H + L) (Bio-Rad, Cat #: 170-

6516), both at 1:5000, for one hour at room temperature. They were then washed thrice with

TBST (5 minutes/wash) at room temperature and signal developed for one minute using Clarity™

Western ECL substrate (Bio-Rad, Cat #: 1705060) or Clarity Max Western ECL Substrate (Bio-

Rad, Cat #: 1705062). They were then imaged on a ChemiDoc MP imaging system (Bio-Rad).

Band intensities were quantified using Image Lab software (Bio-Rad) followed by statistical

analysis and graph visualization using GraphPad Prism.

Lambda phosphatase (λ-PPA) treatment

For the λ-PPA assay, two types of RIPA lysis buffer were used – RIPA supplemented with

protease (phenylmethylsulfonyl fluoride and 1 tablet of 1X cOmplete mini protease inhibitor

cocktail, EDTA-free) and phosphatase (sodium fluoride and sulfur monoxide) inhibitors, and RIPA

supplemented with protease inhibitors only (phenylmethylsulfonyl fluoride and 1 tablet of 1X

cOmplete mini protease inhibitor cocktail, EDTA-free). The first lysis buffer (containing phosphatase inhibitors) was used as a negative control for phosphatase treatment. MCF10A cells were harvested, lysed in the appropriate ice-cold RIPA buffer (with or without phosphatase inhibitor), and protein quantified as described in section 2.5. Next, for each sample (protein concentration: 1 µg/µl), 25 µg of protein (25 µl) were subjected to λ-PPA treatment following manufacturer instructions. Briefly, 0.5 µl of λ-PPA (20,000 U) were added into each tube (containing 25 µl of the sample), along with 3.2 µl of 10X λ-PPA buffer and 3.2 µl of 10X MnCl$_2$ (final volume: 32 µl). The samples were then mixed by gently flicking the tube and incubated for 30 minutes at 30°C. Next, 10.75 µl of 4X Laemmli loading buffer were added into each sample, followed by western blotting using the antibody against the γ-secretase-cleaved (Val1744) NOTCH1 intracellular domain (N1ICD).

Cycloheximide treatment and assessment of NOTCH1 protein stability

Where indicated, after gene knockdown for 72 hours, MCF10A cells were treated with 10 µM cycloheximide (CHX) to block protein synthesis or an equal volume of DMSO (vehicle) for 4 hours. Cells were then harvested, lysed, and protein concentration quantified as described in section 2.5. To assess NOTCH1 protein stability, 20µg of the protein lysate per sample were subjected to western blot analysis using the antibody against full length NOTCH1 (N1FL) and transmembrane NOTCH1 (N1TM), as well as the antibody against the γ-secretase-cleaved N1ICD. Band intensities were then analyzed on GraphPad Prism to determine the differences between the levels of N1FL, N1TM, and N1ICD in the CHX-treated vs untreated cells.

Gene silencing

Gene knockdowns were performed in 384-well plate format. Each gene/well was targeted with a pool of four distinct siRNAs against different sequences of the respective target transcript. Each of the 10 libraries was knocked down in 6 replicates. Three of the replicates were subjected to EGTA stimulation while the other 3 were left unstimulated. For siRNA transfection, cells were

always maintained at less than 6 passages and trypsinized for transfection while at 60%–80%

confluence. All siRNA transfections were done in black 384-well, tissue culture treated optical

plates (Corning, Cat #: 3712), using the reverse transfection method. Briefly, desired siRNAs were

diluted in Optimem (ThermoFisher Scientific, Cat #: 51985-042) at a concentration of 50 nM,

complexed with 0.12 µl of Lipofectamine™ RNAiMAX Transfection Reagent (ThermoFisher

Scientific, Cat #: 13778500) per 20 µl of Optimem-siRNA solution for 20 minutes at room

temperature, and 20 µl of the complex dispensed into each 384 well. Where indicated, esiRNA

was used at a final concentration of 50 nM. Cells were suspended at a density of 35 cells/µl in 2X

MCF10A cell culture media and 20 µl of the cell suspension (700 cells) added into each well

(containing 20 µl of the transfection complex) to obtain a final siRNA concentration of 25 nM. The

2X medium was prepared using each component of the medium at double its standard

concentration. Double the concentration of EGF shown in section 2.1 was added fresh into the

cells before they were added into the wells. Cells were then cultured for 72 hours as described in

section 2.1, in a SteriStore™ automated incubator (HighRes Biosolutions). All solutions were

dispensed using the Freedom EVO automated liquid handler system (Tecan).

To stimulate NOTCH1 activation, at the end of the 72 hours of gene knockdown, 3 plates

from each library were treated with EGTA for 2 hours to stimulate Notch cleavage. To do this, 10

µl of fresh media containing 12.5 mM EGTA was directly added into the wells to a final

concentration of 2.5 mM EGTA per well, and a final volume of 50 µl/well. The NoEGTA stimulation

plates received 10 µl of sterile water. The plates were then incubated for 2 hours at 37°C and

then fixed with 2% PFA for 15 minutes at room temperature. Fixation was done by adding 50 µl

of 4% PFA directly into the wells. Solutions were dispensed into the wells using a Multidrop™

Combi Reagent Dispenser (ThermoFisher Scientific).

Automated immunofluorescence analyses

Automated immunostaining for high content screening (HCS) was performed using a

Biotek EL406 washer/dispenser equipped with a 192-tube aspiration manifold. The solution was

removed from the wells and the cells rinsed once with 1X PBS. Cells were permeabilized with

0.05% triton in 1% BSA blocking solution for 1 hour at room temperature followed by a single

wash with 1X PBS. Cells were then incubated for 1 hour at room temperature with the anti-

NOTCH1 primary antibody (Merck Life Sciences, Cat #: SAB4200024) diluted at 1:350 in 1% BSA

blocking solution. The primary antibody solution was then removed, and the plates washed twice

with 1X PBS. Next, the cells were incubated for 1 hour with 1% BSA blocking solution containing

DAPI at 1:4,500 (Merck Life Sciences, Cat #: D9542), phalloidin at 1:350 (Merck Life Sciences,

Cat #: P5282), and Alexa Fluor 488 anti-rat secondary antibody at 1:400 (ThermoFisher Scientific,

Cat #: A21208). They were then washed thrice with 1X PBS before imaging. Where imaging could

not be performed immediately, the immunostained cells were stored at 4°C for not more than 48

hours prior to image acquisition.

Automated image acquisition

The 384-well plates were scanned using an automated Olympus Scan^R (Tokyo, Japan)

microscope equipped with a Hamilton arm for plate handling. Eight fields of view and three

emission fluorescent channels (DAPI, phalloidin, and Alexa 488), were acquired for each well

using a 20X objective. Imaging data were annotated and transferred to the Isilon infrastructure

and network software and indexed by plate barcode for storage. In the annotation each well was

assigned information regarding the date of the experiment, the gene knocked down, the sub-

genomic library the knocked down gene belongs to, and the treatment (EGTA vs NoEGTA).

Images were then uploaded to the Columbus server (PerkinElmer), where they could be accessed

for visual examination and automated analysis.

High content screen image analysis

An in-house Acapella (PerkinElmer) image analysis script was developed and used for

batch image analysis and to quantitatively describe a set of phenotypic features. All analyzed

images were first subjected to background correction and exclusion of unevenly illuminated

images. Background correction was done separately for each channel. DAPI, which was used to

mask the nuclei and phalloidin, which labeled cell surfaces, were used for cell segmentation.

Segmentation was performed using a modified version of the watershed algorithm, which allowed

the inversion of phalloidin channel images so as to display high pixel intensities in the cell and

low intensities along the cell membrane, allowing application of the watershed approach to identify

cell boundaries. This algorithm also detects and excludes regions of the image fields not covered

by cells. Once the cells, their membranes, and corresponding nuclei were detected, each cell was

segmented into the nucleus based on DAPI staining, the membrane based on phalloidin signal,

and the cytosol (region between the nuclei and cell surface membrane). Cells that were adjacent

to field of view borders, those deemed to be too small or too big, those with saturated pixel

intensities or those that were improperly segmented, were excluded from downstream image

analysis. To exclude out-of-focus images, we used boxplot statistics on the distribution of intensity

contrast values (on the DAPI channel) of all nuclei detected in the entire well. Using the first and

the third quantiles of this distribution, we estimated the lower inferior fence (LIF) using the 95%

confidence interval. For each field of view, we next established the number of nuclei presenting a

contrast lower than the LIF and classified fields in which >50% of the nuclei failed to cross the LIF

threshold as being out of focus. Data analysis on the EGTA stimulated plates was performed

independently of the corresponding non EGTA-treated plates. For each gene (well), the

parameters of interest were quantified and reported as z-score values [41].

Candidate gene selection for validation

For each library plate, candidate genes from the EGTA and the NoEGTA conditions were

considered to affect respective parameters if their knockdown shifted the z-score positively or

negatively, the further the shift, the stronger the phenotype. The main parameters quantified were,

a) cell viability (QC1_NoOfAnalysedCells), b) Overall Notch intensity in the cell (N4_CellNotch),

c) nuclear Notch intensity (N1_NucNotch), d) cell surface membrane Notch intensity

(N3_MembNotch), and e) Notch accumulation in intracellular compartments

(N5_PercentOfCellsWithSpots & N9_NoOfSpotsPerCell).

Generation of the stable Notch signaling reporter cell line, MCF10A-RbpJk-Luc

A Notch pathway transcriptional output reporter cell line was generated by infecting

MCF10A cells with Cignal Lenti RBP-Jk Reporter (luc) lentiviral particles (Qiagen, Cat #: CLS-

014L) following manufacturer instructions. This reporter system carries an inducible RBP-Jk-

responsive firefly luciferase reporter as well as a puromycin resistance gene that permits the

selection of cells that stably integrate the reporter construct. To isolate stably infected single cell

clones, the cells were counted and serially diluted in order to have a final concentration of 2.5

cells/ml. Next, 200μl of the cell suspension were seeded onto four 96-well plates so as to have

0.5 cells/well. The cell culture medium was changed twice a week and in the second week the

cells were examined for single cell clones. Each of the healthiest looking clones, but with a slightly

different cell morphology relative to normal MCF10A cells were selected, transferred onto 48-well

plates, grown while observing the growth characteristics, and then transferred into 6-well plates

after reaching 70%–80% confluence. Eventually each single cell clone population was split into

two wells of a 6-well plate and frozen after reaching 70%–80% confluence, followed by long term

storage in liquid nitrogen. Each clone was then tested using a luciferase assay for Notch signaling

inducibility using EGTA. The two best clones with the widest Notch signaling induction assay

window, measured as the ratio between basal luciferase activity (in the absence of EGTA) to

activated luciferase activity (in the presence of EGTA), clone 1 and clone 13, were selected for

further characterization.

To assess the ability to activate and control the Notch pathway in the stable Notch reporter

cell lines, MCF10A-RbpJk-Luc single cell clones were seeded on white, opaque, flat-bottomed 96

well plates (Merck Life Sciences, Cat #: CLS3362-100EA) at 9,000 cells, in 100 µl of medium and

grown overnight. Notch signaling was then stimulated by adding 11 µl of media supplemented

with 25 mM EGTA into each well to reach a final concentration of 2.5 mM EGTA in 111 µl of

medium. The cells were then incubated with EGTA for 2 hours to allow Notch signaling activation

and resulting luciferase synthesis. The luciferase assay was then performed by adding 9 µl of

fresh medium containing 6.6 mM of D-luciferin into each well to have a final concentration of 500

µM D-luciferin per well, in a final volume of 120 µl per well. The cells were then incubated for 2

hours after which luminescence readings were taken on a Promega Glomax multimode plate

reader. To assess the ability to block Notch signaling activation in the reporter cell line, we

silenced *NOTCH1*, *PSENEN,* and *ADAM10* for 72 hours using siRNA (Dharmacon) before Notch

signaling activation and the luciferase assay. To account for reductions in cell proliferation upon

gene silencing, a cell viability assay was performed after the luciferase assay by adding 12 µL of

resazurin (Merck Life Sciences, Cat #: TOX8-1KT) and the cells incubated for an additional 2

hours followed by fluorescence reading on a Promega Glomax multimode plate reader.

Secondary screen for signaling activity

Relevant genes were knocked down in MCF10A-RbpJK-Luc Notch signaling reporter

cells, on white opaque 384-well plates (Corning, Cat #: 3712) followed by luciferase/proliferation

assays using 500 µM D-luciferin and 2.5% resazurin after 72 hours. Where indicated EGTA was

used at a final concentration of 2.5 mM. Briefly, a mix of D-luciferin+resazurin was prepared

immediately before the experiment by dissolving D-luciferin and resazurin in normal MCF10A

cells media at a concentration 3.6X higher than the desired final concentration. Where EGTA-

stimulated Notch activation was desired, a mix of D-luciferin+resazurin+EGTA was prepared by

including EGTA at a concentration 3.6X higher than its desired final concentration. Next, 15 µl of

the appropriate solution of Notch luciferase assay mix was added into each well of the 384-well

plate and the cells incubated for 4 hours in normal conditions. To assess Notch signaling output

(luminescence) and cell viability (resazurin fluorescence), luminescence and fluorescence were

read on a PHERAstar BMG LABTECH microplate reader.

Statistical analyses

All experimental data were analyzed on GraphPad Prism. All data represent at least 3

independent replicates and are shown in graphs as individual values, mean ± SD, or normalized

values. Statistical differences between two groups were evaluated using unpaired two-tailed

Student's t-tests, with *, **, ***, ****, and ns indicating $p < 0.05$, $p < 0.01$, $p < 0.001$, $p < 0.0001$, and

not significant, respectively. Data and statistical analyses for the screen were done as described

in section 2.11.

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Author contributions

FMK and TV designed the study. FMK, LCA, FC and FL conducted the experiments. AA

performed the computational analyses of the screening data. MW coordinated the execution of

the HCS screen. TV wrote the manuscript with the help of FMK and LCA.

Results

Canonical NOTCH1 signaling in human MCF10A cells

Knowledge about Notch signaling dynamics is a prerequisite to investigating factors that

control signaling by modulating its trafficking to subcellular compartments. MCF10A cells, derived

from non-transformed human breast epithelial cells [42], express Notch signaling pathway ligands

and receptors including *NOTCH1*, *NOTCH2*, and *NOTCH3*, while *NOTCH4* is not detectable [34].

Immuno-localization with an antibody that recognizes the intracellular domain of NOTCH1, shows

that endogenous NOTCH1 is localized on the cell surface of confluent MCF10A cells (Fig. 1B).

As expected, efficient knockdown (KD) of key components of the Notch signaling pathway, such

as *ADAM10* (encoding the S2 cleavage metalloprotease) and *PSENEN* (encoding a γ-secretase

component necessary for S3 cleavage) in MCF10A cells prevented the translocation of

endogenous NOTCH1 into the nucleus upon EGTA-mediated Ca^{2+} chelation (Fig. 1B–C;

materials and methods). Consistent with this, *NOTCH1*, *ADAM10* or *PSENEN* depletion

significantly suppressed EGTA-stimulated Notch signaling, when measured in MCF10A cells

stably expressing the Notch activation reporter RBPj-luc (Fig. 1D).

We previously observed that the S3-cleaved NOTCH1 intracellular domain (N1ICD) is

visible in western blots as a band doublet around the 120 kDa region [34] (Fig. 1E). We suspected

that the slightly higher molecular weight band of the doublet may represent the N1ICD that is

phosphorylated and destined for proteasomal degradation, while the lower molecular weight band

represents newly generated N1ICD that has not been phosphorylated [43–45]. Indeed, in extracts

of cells treated with the γ-secretase inhibitor DAPT to block the production of N1ICD, we observed

the presence of the upper band only (Fig. 1E). To test if the upper band of the N1ICD doublet was

indeed phosphorylated, we harvested proteins from unstimulated MCF10A cells, or from cells

stimulated with EGTA for 10 minutes to induce N1ICD generation, or from cells stimulated with

EGTA for 10 minutes and then returned to normal medium for 1.5 hours. We then treated the

lysates with or without λ-phosphatase (λ-PPA) [46]. λ-PPA treatment resulted in a minor downshift

of the N1ICD in extracts stimulated with EGTA for 10 minutes and in a large downshift in those in

which the EGTA had been washed out for 1.5 hours after stimulation, indicating that N1ICD is

progressively phosphorylated shortly after S3 cleavage (Fig. 1F). Together, these data indicate

that MCF10A cells are endowed with an endogenous pool of plasma membrane-localized

NOTCH1 that can be canonically activated in a S2 and S3-dependent fashion to promote target

gene transcription before being phosphorylated.

Dynamics of NOTCH1 receptor trafficking in MCF10A cells

To study the dynamics of endogenous NOTCH1 trafficking, we first treated MCF10A cells

with the V-ATPase inhibitor BAfA1 for 4 hours to block lysosomal protein degradation. As

previously observed [34], while most of NOTCH1 is localized to the plasma membrane (PM) in

control-treated cells, NOTCH1 accumulates in an slightly expanded LAMP1-positive lysosomal

compartments in BafA1-treated cells. A similar pattern of localization is observed for EGFR (Fig.

2A, quantified in A'). These data indicate that in unstimulated conditions endogenous NOTCH1

localization represents the steady state of a receptor that is continuously trafficked to lysosomes

for degradation.

Because new synthesis of NOTCH1 is expected to compensate for its rapid lysosomal

degradation, we studied NOTCH1 exocytic trafficking relative to EGFR. Consistent with

continuous secretory trafficking of newly synthesized NOTCH1, we observe that in untreated cells

an intracellular pool of NOTCH1 and EGFR colocalizes with the endoplasmic reticulum marker

RTN3 (Reticulon-3; Fig. 2B). We reasoned that Ca^{2+} chelation, in addition to triggering shedding

of the extracellular portion of Notch, when prolonged, is known to lead to exhaustion of the

intracellular Ca^{2+} stores and membrane fusion arrest [47,48]. Indeed, 4 hours treatment with

2.5mM EGTA results in clearing of the PM of existing NOTCH1 molecules and to accumulation

of most NOTCH1 and EGFR in a RTN3-positive compartment (Fig. 2B; note that EGFR is still

visible at the cell surface). This experiment highlights a strategy for controlling the release of

NOTCH1 and tracking its trafficking to the PM.

To time endogenous NOTCH1 and EGFR trafficking from the ER to the cell surface, we

washed out the EGTA-containing media after the 4-hour treatment with fresh complete medium

(w/o). We then subjected the cells to immunolabeling for NOTCH1, EGFR, and Giantin, a marker

of the Golgi apparatus (GA). Interestingly, we observe that an intracellular pool of NOTCH1 and

EGFR colocalizes with Giantin. Treating the cells with EGTA for 4 hours caused accumulation of

most NOTCH1, EGFR in the ER, as well as alteration of Giantin localization (Fig. 2C, quantified

in C'). Strikingly, both NOTCH1 and EGFR almost exclusively localized in the GA upon 1 hour

w/o, indicating that NOTCH1 and EGFR trafficking is rapidly resumed after EGTA w/. A 4-hour

w/o fully restored NOTCH1 localization to the GA, while EGFR localization to the GA did not

normalize. In contrast, A 4-hour w/o fully restored EGFR localization to the cell surface, while that

of NOTCH1 required longer (Fig. 2C, quantified in C'). These data reveal time-resolved kinetics

of NOTCH1 and EGFR secretion from the ER to the GA, and to the PM, and indicate that the bulk

of the NOTCH1 pool progresses from the ER to GA and from GA to the cell surface in about 4

hours. Slight differences between trafficking of NOTCH1 and EGFR suggest that the two

receptors might possess distinct trafficking and processing requirements. Our analyses of the

timing of endogenous NOTCH1 and EGFR secretory trafficking are consistent with the timing of

endocytic degradation obtained by limiting lysosomal activity with BafA1 treatment and suggest

that in MCF10A cells NOTCH1 and EGFR molecules possess a limited lifespan of about 8 hours.

High-content screening identifies 51 novel potential modulators of intracellular NOTCH1

localization

The limited lifespan of endogenous NOTCH1 in MCF10A cells predicts that perturbation

of genes that control NOTCH1 steady state localization might significantly alter signaling. Thus,

we tested whether the activity of 2749 human genes with known or predicted small compound

inhibitors belonging to different functional categories (see Supplemental file 1) is required for

correct NOTCH1 localization in MCF10A cells. To this end, we reverse transfected cells on 10

arrayed plates containing individual pools of silencing RNAs (siRNA) targeting the human genes

and controls in unstimulated cells (Fig. 3A). To identify genes that are also important for NOTCH1

nuclear localization upon signaling activation, we subjected duplicate plates to EGTA stimulation.

We then stained cells with an antibody that recognizes the cytoplasmic portion of NOTCH1. The

cells were counterstained with DAPI and phalloidin to visualize nuclei and cell cortices,

respectively (Fig. 3B). We devised an automated high content image analysis pipeline to identify

factors that when silenced affected NOTCH1 subcellular localization by altering receptor amounts

on the cell surface, in the cytoplasm, or in the nucleus (Fig 3B). In such primary screen, we

identified 231 potential modulators of NOTCH1 localization (Fig. 4A; Supplemental File 2). We

then retested the positive hits using a custom-made plate containing 231 pools of esiRNA, a gene-

silencing reagent comprised of a heterogeneous mixture of numerous siRNA targeting each gene

[49] identified in the primary screen. This validation screen yielded 73 hits (Fig. 4B). Only 51 of

them confirmed the effects observed in the primary screen. Of these, the majority (44/51)

increased the intracellular pool of NOTCH1 either in unstimulated (NoEGTA, 36 hits) or in

stimulated conditions (+EGTA, 8 hits), while a minority altered both PM and intracellular NOTCH1

or increased nuclear NOTCH1 (Fig. 4C; Supplemental File 3). Representative example of hits

belonging to each phenotypic category are shown is Supplemental Fig. 1.

Modulation of NOTCH1 localization and signaling by *PTPN23*

Considering the role of endocytosis in the regulation of Notch localization, to validate HCS

hits, we began from *PTPN23*, one of the 8 identified genes that have been previously associated

with regulation of endo-lysosomal trafficking (16% of the 51 hits: *CPA2, CTSE, MLC1, PIK3C2G,*

PTPN23, TINAGL1, ZNRF1, ZNRF2). *PTPN23* encodes HD-PTP, a ubiquitous nonreceptor

tyrosine pseudophosphatase that has been involved extensively in endosomal sorting,

multivesicular body formation (MVB) and ESCRT activity [50,51]. Automated analysis of HCS IF

images revealed that relative to control cells in which NOTCH1 mainly resided at the PM, *PTPN23*

KD MCF10A cells exhibited marked intracellular NOTCH1 accumulation, which appeared as

puncta (Supplemental Fig. 2A). We reasoned that *PTPN23* depletion might interfere with

NOTCH1 endosomal trafficking or sorting. To identify the compartment in which the NOTCH1

accumulated, we co-stained cells with antibodies against NOTCH1 and the endo-lysosomal

markers EEA1 or LAMP1, which identify early endosomes and lysosomes, respectively. Efficient

depletion of *PTPN23* (Supplemental Fig. 2B) led to significant expansion of the cytoplasmic pool

of puncta positive for EEA1, LAMP1, and NOTCH1 (Fig. 5A, quantified in A'). Quantitative

analysis also revealed that the NOTCH1 that accumulated upon *PTPN23* depletion mainly resided

in puncta positive for EEA1 (Fig. 5A'). Taken together, these data indicated that *PTPN23* depletion

might interfere with early to late endosomal trafficking, thereby trapping NOTCH1 mostly in early

endosomes.

We next evaluated how loss of *PTPN23* might affect Notch processing and signaling.

Western blot analysis revealed a marked reduction of both N1FL and N1TM upon *PTPN23* KD

(Fig. 5B) but surprisingly, the levels of N1ICD were not significantly altered, both in unstimulated

and stimulated conditions (Fig. 5C). To assess the effect of *PTPN23* depletion on Notch signaling,

we measured Notch-mediated RBPj-luc expression and found that when compared with control

cells, *PTPN23* silencing significantly suppressed Notch signaling in unstimulated conditions but

not in the presence of EGTA (Fig. 5D). Similar observations were obtained when measuring *HES1*

expression by quantitative reverse transcription PCR (RT-qPCR) (Fig 5E). Because reduced

biosynthetic N1FL levels could also result from low *NOTCH1* transcription, we also measured

NOTCH1 mRNA levels and found that upon *PTPN23* depletion, *NOTCH1* expression levels were

mildly but significantly reduced (Fig 5F). These data indicate that *PTPN23* is required for NOTCH1

sorting into MVBs and for sustaining Notch expression and basal signaling and illustrate the

screen's ability to identify novel modulators of NOTCH1 trafficking and signaling.

HCN2 silencing traps NOTCH1 in an enlarged GA and suppresses Notch signaling

Automated analysis of HCS IF images identified 4 genes encoding channels (*CACNB4,*

TRPM7, HCN2, and *MLC1*) that upon KD in unstimulated conditions, caused cytosolic NOTCH1

accumulation (out of a total of 44 hits, a 9.1% enrichment; Supplemental file 3). Of these, *HCN2*

KD led to the most striking phenotype, with strong NOTCH1 accumulation in the perinuclear space

when compared with mock-silenced (non-targeting/NT) controls (Supplemental Fig. 3A). To test

if NOTCH1 accumulated in the perinuclear GA, we knocked down *HCN2* (Supplemental Fig. 3B)

and co-stained for NOTCH1 and the GA protein GIANTIN. Confocal analysis confirmed the

perinuclear NOTCH1 localization observed in the HCS images and revealed an expansion of the

Giantin-positive GA and increased localization of NOTCH1 in such compartment, when compared

to control cells (Fig. 6A, quantified in A'). Additionally, the analysis revealed that when compared

with the control, *HCN2* silencing markedly reduced cell surface NOTCH1 levels (Fig 6A, quantified

in A'), suggesting that HCN2 silencing might interfere with trafficking of newly made NOTCH1 to

the cell surface. To assess this, we compared NOTCH1 and EGFR localization upon *HCN2* KD

and 4-hour EGTA treatment. Both NOTCH1 and EGFR mostly failed to return to the PM after 1

or 4-hour w/o (Supplemental Fig. 4A; quantified in A'), indicating that both receptors do not traffic

efficiently to the PM in the absence of HCN2. Relative to mock silencing, *HCN2* depletion also led

to alteration of the TGN with loss of TGN46 and slight elevation of Golgin-97 (Fig 6B, quantified

in B').

Next, we extended the analysis of *HCN2* KD to Notch signaling output. *HCN2* depletion

significantly reduced expression of a Notch signaling reporter in unstimulated cells and limited the

expression of the NOTCH1 target gene, *HES1*, relative to controls (Fig. 6C–D). Consistent with

these observations, Western blot analysis revealed that when compared with the control, *HCN2*

silencing markedly reduced the levels of N1ICD both in the absence and presence of EGTA (Fig.

6E). Intriguingly, Western blot analysis of the levels of the S1 substrate, N1FL, revealed the

opposite trend, with *HCN2* KD elevating N1FL levels relative to the control (Fig. 6F; Supplemental

Fig. 3D). In contrast, the levels of N1TM, the S2-processed form of NOTCH1, were reduced in

HCN2 KD cells, when compared with controls (Fig. 6F). Together, these findings suggest that

HCN2 is required to support a TGN organization that allows NOTCH1 S1 processing, PM delivery

and signaling.

SGK3 silencing elevates cytosolic NOTCH1 levels

Automated image analysis identified 5 kinases that when silenced, interfered with

NOTCH1 localization (*DCK, EIF2AK1, MASTL, PIK3C2G, SGK3* (corresponding to 9.8% of 51

hits; Supplemental File 3). Of these, *SGK3* might regulate Notch receptor stability based on

previous findings that SGK3 targets NDRG1 for FBW7-mediated proteasomal degradation [52],

a process that also limits N1ICD stability [53]. Moreover, the SGK3 paralog, SGK1, has previously

been reported to negatively modulate Notch signaling by targeting NOTCH1 for proteasomal

degradation [54]. Automated HCS image analysis revealed that relative to mock silencing,

efficient *SGK3* KD causes marked NOTCH1 accumulation in the cytosol (Supplemental Fig. 5).

To validate this observation, we silenced *SGK3* and analyzed the cells by confocal microscopy

after co-staining with antibodies against GOLGIN-97, EEA1 and LAMP1, to mark the early TGN,

early endosomes, and lysosomes, respectively. This analysis confirmed the presence of elevated

intracellular NOTCH1 levels but revealed no significant difference in its colocalization with the

Golgin-97-, EEA1- and LAMP1-positive compartments (Fig. 7A-B, quantified in A'-B'). We also

observed a significant elevation of EEA1 and LAMP1 puncta, suggesting that SGK3 might

regulate the endocytic compartment.

Given the diffused accumulation of NOTCH1 observed upon *SGK3* silencing, we

wondered whether this correlated with elevated NOTCH1 processing and signaling levels. We

first tested which NOTCH1 form accumulated upon *SGK3* KD and found that *SGK3* depletion

leads to elevated N1FL, N1TM, and N1ICD levels in both unstimulated and stimulated conditions

(Fig. 7C–D). We next used the Notch signaling reporter cell line MCF10A-RbpJk-Luc and

observed that when compared with the control, silencing *SGK3* caused significantly higher Notch

signaling output upon EGTA stimulation (Fig. 7E). Although signaling did not differ significantly in

unstimulated *SGK3*-silenced MCF10A-RbpJk-Luc cells when compared to mock silencing, RT-

qPCR analysis revealed that *SGK3* KD in MCF10A cells significantly upregulated the expression

of the Notch signaling targets *HEY1,* but not HES1. Depletion lead also to a slight transcriptional

elevation of NOTCH1 (Fig. 7F–H).

The observation that depleting *SGK3* in MCF10A cells leads to elevated N1ICD levels

made us wonder whether SGK3 reduction might impair N1ICD degradation. To test this

possibility, we silenced *SGK3* and then treated the cells with cycloheximide (CHX) to block protein

synthesis or with DMSO as a negative control. Because blocking the synthesis of new proteins

would allow cells to turn over proteins that had been present before CHX addition, we reasoned

that if SGK3 is required for efficient N1ICD degradation, upon CHX treatment *SGK3*-depleted

cells would exhibit elevated N1ICD levels when compared with control cells. Western blot analysis

using antibodies against N1FL and N1ICD revealed that *SGK3* silencing caused marked increase

in the levels of N1FL and N1ICD when compared with control. However, N1FL and N1ICD levels

were markedly decreased in both control and *SGK3* KD cells upon CHX treatment (Fig. 7I),

indicating that SGK3 is not required for N1ICD destabilization. Finally, to assess whether SGK3

contributed directly or indirectly to N1ICD phosphorylation, we silenced *SGK3* in MCF10A cells

and then performed the λ-PPA assay. This analysis revealed that in *SGK3* KD cells, accumulated

N1ICD was still phosphorylated, and that phosphorylation could be erased by treating the cell

extracts with λ-PPA (Fig. 7J), indicating that SGK3 is not required for N1ICD phosphorylation.

Taken together, these data indicate that SGK3 negatively regulates NOTCH1 levels and signaling

indirectly by a mechanism other than control of N1ICD stability and/or degradation.

Pharmacologic SGK3 inhibition elevates N1ICD levels and Notch signaling

To explore whether SGK3 modulation of NOTCH1 could be controlled pharmacologically,

we examined the effect of VPS34-IN1, a well characterized SGK3 inhibitor [55,56]. We first tested

if VPS34-IN1 can effectively block SGK3 activity in MCF10A cells. Because we were unable to

directly evaluate SGK3 phosphorylation upon treatment of cultured cells with VPS34-IN1, we

evaluated the phosphorylation levels of NDRG1, a known SGK3 substrate [52,57]. SGK3 can be

activated by stimulating the cells with growth factors, such as IGF1 and EGF [58–60]. Thus, we

stimulated control or VPS34-IN1-treated cells with EGF to promote NDRG1 phosphorylation.

Strikingly, EGF failed to elicit NDRG1 phosphorylation in VPS34-IN1-treated cells and erased the

basal low level of NDRG1 phosphorylation in unstimulated cells (Fig 8A), indicating that treatment

with VPS34-IN1 potently blocks SGK3 activity in cultured MCF10A cells.

Next, to determine if pharmacologic VPS34-IN1 treatment reproduces the effects of *SGK3*

silencing on NOTCH1, we treated MCF10A cells with VPS34-IN1 and measured N1ICD levels.

Western blot analysis revealed that relative to mock treatment, VPS34-IN1 significantly elevated

the levels of N1ICD (Fig 8B). To establish whether VPS34-IN1 treatment also elevates Notch

targets, we examined the expression levels of *HEY1* by RT-qPCR. This analysis revealed that

when compared with control cells, *HEY1* levels were significantly higher in VPS34-IN1-treated

cells (Fig. 8C). Taken together, these data indicate that as with *SGK3* silencing, pharmacologic

VPS34-IN1 treatment elevates NOTCH1 levels and promotes Notch signaling.

A secondary screen using a Notch reporter identifies 39 new modulators of NOTCH1

localization that affect signaling output

To systematically determine the impact of the modulators of NOTCH1 trafficking on Notch

signaling, we individually silenced with esiRNA the 231 primary hits in MCF10A-RbpJk-Luc cells

with or without EGTA stimulation and measured signaling output. We included *PTPN23* and *SGK3*

as positive controls since their positive contribution to unstimulated signaling and negative

contribution to stimulated signaling had been assessed during the validation of the NOTCH1

localization screen. As expected, *PTPN23* and *SGK3* depletion reproduced previous evidence.

Focusing on the validated 51 genes that affect localization in the secondary screen, the analysis

identified 39 depletions (76.5% of the total) that altered Notch signaling by at least 30%, with 21

modulating signaling in unstimulated conditions only, 8 in stimulated conditions only, and 10 in

both conditions (Fig. 9A–C; Supplemental File 3). Of the 39 depletions, 30 led to reduced signaling

(9 of which also in stimulated conditions), while 9 led to increased signaling (8 of which in

stimulated conditions (Fig 9D). The NOTCH1 localization phenotypic classes of the 39 depletions

are reported in Fig. 9D, while information about signaling modulation by the set of 231 siRNA of

the primary screen is included in Supplemental File 2. This approach led to the identification of

several new positive and negative regulators of Notch signaling that require further

characterization.

Discussion

NOTCH1 activity in MCF10A cells has been mostly characterized using transfection of

activated forms [61,62]. Here, we have shown that in MCF10A cells is possible to activate

endogenous NOTCH1 using a short pulse of Ca^{2+} chelation that destabilizes the NOTCH1 HD

domain leading to S2 and S3 cleavage, as previously reported for a variety of different cell types

[6,63–65]. Interestingly, we find that confluent MCF10A cells possess a low level basal S3

cleavage and that, upon S3 cleavage NOTCH1 is rapidly phosphorylated, an event that has been

described to lead to proteasomal degradation of NICD. Whether such basal S3 cleavage depends

on transactivation among neighboring cells, considering that MCF10A cells also express

NOTCH1 ligands [34], or whether it is a cell autonomous occurrence due to intracellular ligand-

independent activation remains to be determined.

By means that inhibit lysosomal degradation, we also have determined that trafficking of

endogenous NOTCH1 in MCF10A cells occurs similarly to what has been reported *in vivo* in

epithelial imaginal discs of *Drosophila melanogaster* [66]. Interestingly, upon inhibition of

lysosomal degradation, endogenous NOTCH1 and EGFR not only accumulate in lysosomes but

are also depleted from the PM, suggesting that some coordination of new synthesis and/or ER to

PM trafficking with clearance might exist. Transit kinetics indicate that NOTCH1 traffics from the

ER to the GA in less than 1 hour and from the GA to PM in as little as 3 hours. These times

suggest that on average the half-life of each NOTCH1 molecule is only approximately 4 hours, a

time comparable to previous *in vivo* findings using *Drosophila* Notch [67]. Such half-life is also

compatible with the two main events described during NOTCH1 secretion, namely receptor

glycosylation and S1 cleavage by Furin [68,69].

Because the half-life of NOTCH1 is very limited, we posited that genetic perturbations

could result in visible changes in NOTCH1 localization. Such possibility suggested that high

throughput determination of steady-state NOTCH1 localization could uncover new genes that are

important for NOTCH1 localization and associated events of activation, as well as new genes that

regulate trafficking or compartment organization in MCF10A cells. We identified 51 putative genes

that alter NOTCH1 localization of which 39 resulted in modulation of signaling. We validated hits

with an alternative set of reagents to exclude the possibility of off target or nonspecific effects.

Most of the identified genes are expressed in MCF10A cells according to recent RNAseq analyses

[70,71]. While some of the candidate genes, especially those obtained upon EGTA stimulation,

might be the result of indirect or combined effects with the transient extracellular Ca^{2+} depletion

used to activate signaling, 31, the vast majority, have been identified in unstimulated conditions,

indicating that tight NOTCH1 trafficking regulation is crucial for determining basal levels of

signaling. Interestingly, among these 31 basal signaling genes, 30 are required to promote RbpJk

transcriptional activity, while only *CALM2* appeared to negatively regulate signaling. These data

suggest that sustaining high Notch turnover enables basal signaling. Also, all 3 genes that we

have best characterized alter the distribution of markers of trafficking compartments, indicating

that the effect on NOTCH1 trafficking and signaling of the identified candidate genes is likely to

be indirect and mediated be supporting correct organization of trafficking compartments.

Several phenotype-based genome-wide Notch screens have been performed *in vivo*, in

animal models such as *Drosophila* [72–75] and in cellular systems [76,77]. Strikingly, paralogs of

12 genes out of the 51 that we have identified have been previously identified as modulators of

Notch phenotypes in previous screens (*CACNB4, CALM2, CIB2, CMPK1, CTSE, MAP3K12,*

PIK3K2CG, PTPN23, TRPM7, USP36, UFD1L, ZNRF1), suggesting that some of the candidates

might play a conserved function and might be validated in *in vivo* models.

Among genes that we have identified, some have previously been associated with

regulation of the mTOR pathway (*CIB2, MASTL, MC1R, SGK3, ZNRF1, ZNRF2*). ZNRF1 appears

to be required for EGFR sorting to late endosomes, a prerequisite for lysosomal degradation and

signaling termination [78]. In contrast, ZNRF2 has been found to regulate mTOR signaling at

lysosomes [79]. Also, the calcium and integrin binding protein 2 encoded by the gene *CIB2*, which

we found here as a negative regulator of NOTCH1, is a negative regulator of mTOR signaling in

the mouse retinal pigmented epithelium [80]. Similarly, the MASTL kinase regulates mTOR [81]

and EGFR [82]. Finally, as a NOTCH1 modulator we have found MC1R (Melacortin 1 receptor),

which in melanocytes contributes to pigmentation by regulating the TFEB paralog MITF, among

other pathways. Interestingly, agonists of MC1R are reported to modulate Notch signaling in

synovial fibroblast in models of arthritis [83], suggesting that coregulation of Notch and the

MC1R/MITF pathway might exist.

We have characterized the activity of *SGK3* as a negative regulator of NOTCH1

expression and signaling. *SGK3* encodes a PI3K-dependent endosome-localized

serine/threonine kinase with similar substrate specificity to AKT, a kinase acting upstream of

mTOR widely involved in tumorigenesis [83]. All forms of NOTCH1 accumulate in *SGK3* depleted

cells and we have excluded that SGK3 directly phosphorylates N1ICD. Thus, SGK3 is likely to

act indirectly on NOTCH1. Because SGK3 has been proposed to promote mTOR activation in

endo-lysosomal compartments, an interesting possibility is that mTOR and NOTCH1 might be

alternatively regulated. Interestingly, resistance to mTOR inhibition in breast cancer cells is

mediated by hVPS34 and SGK3, defining an AKT independent mTOR activation pathway [84].

Considering that inhibition of Notch activity on TNBCC abrogates *SGK3* expression [85], a

Notch/SGK3 regulatory loop might exist in breast cells, that will be further investigated in future.

Finally, it will be important to test whether SGK3 acts as a negative regulator in contexts in which

NOTCH1 acts as a tumor suppressor, such as during skin tumorigenesis [86].

The relocalization of NOTCH1 to early endosomes upon *PTPN23* KD matches earlier

observations in human cells that indicate that PTPN23 resides on early endosomes and that its

depletion causes EGFR accumulation in EEA1-positive endosomes [87]. The activity of PTPN23

on endocytic trafficking and ESCRT function is well documented [50,88,89]. However, we find

that NOTCH1 signaling activity upon *PTPN23* KD is slightly reduced, yet the loss of ESCRT

components usually enhances Notch signaling [31,33,66,90]. Considering that *PTPN23* has been

described as a tumor suppressor as is the case of ESCRT genes, and that loss of PTPN23

contributes to mammary tumorigenesis by altering endocytic trafficking of cancer-relevant

cargoes [91,92], it will be important in the future to understand whether Notch alteration

contributes to tumorigenesis initiated by loss of *PTPN23* in contexts in which Notch acts as a

tumor suppressor, as well as to further dissect the mechanistic relationship between Notch and

PTPN23.

In addition to *PTPN23* and *SGK3,* five other identified genes have been associated with

breast tumorigenesis (*GPCR, GPR125, MET, NUDT5, TINAGL1*). In fact, the gastrin-releasing

peptide receptor, a G protein couple receptor (GPCR) encoded by *GRPR* is an established marker

of prostate and breast cancers [93,94]. Loss of *TINAGL1* encoding the tubulointerstitial nephritis

antigen-like 1, a secreted basement membrane inactive peptidase, has been identified as a

marker of poor breast cancer prognosis [95] and appears to negatively regulate Integrin and

EGFR signaling in triple negative breast cancer [96]. In addition, the NUDIX hydrolase type 5

encoded by *NUDT5* is an ADP-ribose pyrophosphatase and nucleotide metabolizing enzyme

involved in regulation of AKT in breast cancer [97]. It generates nuclear ATP to fuel chromatin

remodeling, gene expression, and proliferation [98]. Also, *GPR125* encodes a GPCR that

regulates epithelial polarity [99] and is associated with poor outcome in breast cancer [100].

Finally, *MET,* which encodes the hepatocyte growth factor receptor (HGFR), is a proto-oncogenic

receptor tyrosine kinase found to be coregulated with Notch in physiologic as well as several

pathologic conditions, including in gastric and breast cancer cells [101–105]. These combined

studies warrant further characterization of the identified candidate genes in breast cancer cells.

A few genes that we have isolated in the screen have been previously involved in

regulation of Notch signaling (*ADORA1, CALM2, JAK3, MAP3K12, PLAU, TRPM7*). Inhibition of

adenosine A1 receptor encoded by *ADORA1* has been recently implicated in Notch dependent

signaling in lung cancer cells [106]. Also, Notch signaling activation triggers JAK3 ubiquitination

and degradation [107]. In addition, NOTCH1 activates *PLAU* encoding the urokinase-type

plasminogen activator, a secreted ECM enzyme, in migrating mouse keratinocytes [108].

Some of the identified genes that have previously been associated with Notch signaling

appear connected with cation regulation, even if we identified the vast majority in unstimulated

conditions (*CALM2, HCN2, MAP3K12, TRPM7*). A case in point is that of *TRPM7,* encoding the

transient receptor potential melastatin-related 7, a divalent Ca^{2+} and Mg^{2+} channel fused with a

functional serine/threonine-protein kinase that is widely overexpressed in breast cancer (reviewed

by [109]. Remarkably, *TRPM7* has been described as a potent inducer of Notch activation during

glial tumorigenesis [110,111]. Intriguingly, Mg^{2+} supplementation during osteogenesis appears to

activate NOTCH1 signaling, a phenomenon reverted by TRPM7 inhibition [112]. In addition, the

Caenorhabditis elegans homolog of MAP3K12 (also called DLK), a Ca^{2+} activated MAP kinase

involved in trafficking and signaling regulation that we identified [113,114], has been shown to

repress Notch signaling by activating autophagy in neurons [115]. Finally, the calmodulin-

encoding *CALM2* and CaMKIV activity have been reported to enhance NOTCH1 activity in

osteoclasts and prostate cancer cells [116,117], while calmodulin-dependent serine protein

kinase (CASK) does that in pancreatic cancer cells [118], and cardiovascular development [119].

This evidence suggests that changes in intracellular cation regulation might fine tune extracellular

and/or cytoplasmic Notch activation.

Our observation that expression of *HCN2* encoding the hyperpolarization-activated cyclic

nucleotide-gated channel 2 in MCF10A is required to support post-GA trafficking of NOTCH1 as

well as its S1 cleavage suggest that inhibition of HCN2 might reduce the oncogenic effects of

NOTCH1 when mutations do not liberate it from membranes. We observed a major alteration of

TGN morphology upon *HCN2* depletion in MCF10A cells. This suggest that GA trafficking to the

TGN might be supported by HCN2, thus leading to correct Furin cleavage of NOTCH1.

Importantly, recent data indicate that HCN2 is expressed in MCF10A cells and that it is

overexpressed in triple negative breast cancer cells. In the latter, inhibition or depletion of HCN2

leads to misregulation of intracellular Ca^{2+} regulation and ER stress [120]. This evidence suggests

that analysis of HCN2 inactivation in breast cancer, in particular the triple negative type that is

defined by elevated Notch activity (reviewed in [121]), could be beneficial.

In addition to these genes, we also identified as modifiers two genes that encode the

deubiquitinating enzymes (DUBs) USP36 and USP39. Silencing both leads to intracellular

accumulation of NOTCH1. However, *USP36* appears to promote signaling, while *USP39*

represses it. USP39, which does not possess deubiquitinating activity and is present in the

nucleus as a splicing factor [122,123], has been found to be in complex with the γ-secretase

component, Nicastrin, in large-scale proteomics of human cells [124]. USP36 is nucleolar and is

involved in ribosome biogenesis [125,126]. In contrast, in flies, USP36 represses autophagy [127]

and has been shown to control H2B ubiquitination and chromatin regulation leading to repression

of Notch signaling [128]. This evidence suggest that these DUBs could be involved in a conserved

network of Notch signaling regulation occurring in the nucleus.

Overall, the genes isolated in our screen expand the repertoire of factors regulating

intracellular trafficking and NOTCH1 localization and signaling. They also represent potential new

drug targets that may be relevant to breast tumorigenesis and other Notch-associated

pathologies.

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Fig. 1: Manipulation of endogenous NOTCH1 signaling in MCF10A cells. **(A)** The NOTCH1 (N1) full length receptor (N1FL) is composed of the N1 extracellular domain (N1ECD) and of the N1 transmembrane domain (N1TM). The N1ECD contains several EGF-like repeats, some of which are binding sites for Notch ligands as well as the negative regulatory region (NRR), which includes the Lin12/Notch Repeats (LNR) and the heterodimerization domain (HD). The N1ICD and N1ECD portions of Notch receptors are produced by Furin cleavage occurring at the S1 site during trafficking to the trans-Golgi network (TGN). N1ICD and N1ECD are non-covalently held together by Ca^{2+} at the HD. Ca^{2+} depletion causes ADAM10 and γ-secretase to sequentially cleave the receptor at S2 and S3 sites. This leads to the release in the cytoplasm of the N1 intracellular domain (N1ICD), which translocates to the nucleus. N1ICD contains the RBP-J-kappa-associated module (RAM), ankyrin repeats (ANK), nuclear localization signals (NLS), and the proline (P), glutamic acid (E), serine (S) and threonine (T) – PEST domain, which limits NICD half-life. **(B)** Immunofluorescence reveals that EGTA treatment relocates most endogenous NOTCH1 from the cell surface to the nucleus and this is inhibited by silencing *ADAM10* or *PSENEN*. **(C)** siRNA against *ADAM10* or *PSENEN* effectively deplete their mRNA. **(D)** The Notch reporter cell line, MCF10A-RbpJk-Luc, reports strong EGTA-induced Notch signaling, and this effect is markedly suppressed by silencing *NOTCH1, PSENEN* or *ADAM10*. **(E)** Western blot analysis of MCF10A cell extracts using an antibody against S3-cleaved N1 shows that unstimulated cells express low levels of N1ICD, which appears as a doublet. γ-secretase inhibition for 3 hours (DAPT) markedly reduces basal levels of the N1ICD lower band. **(F)** Western blot analysis of MCF10A lysates indicates that λ-phosphatase (λ-PPA) treatment leads to disappearance of the upper band of the N1ICD doublet, indicating that it corresponds to a phosphorylated N1CD form. *** and **** indicate p <0.001 and p <0.0001, respectively.

Fig. 2: Endocytic and exocytic endogenous NOTCH1 receptor trafficking in MCF10A cells. (**A**) Confocal sections of MCF10A cells treated and immunolabeled as indicated. Upon BafA1 treatment, plasma membrane (PM) localization of both NOTCH1 and EGFR is reduced and both receptors accumulate in LAMP1-positive compartments (arrows; quantified in A'). (**B**) Confocal sections of MCF10A cells treated and immunolabeled as indicated. 4-hour EGTA treatment depletes NOTCH1 from the PM and strongly accumulates it in a RTN3-positive compartment (yellow arrow), whereas EGFR remains on the PM (red arrow). In unstimulated cells, a pool of both NOTCH1 and EGFR is visible in the RTN3-positive compartment (white arrow). (**C**) Confocal sections of MCF10A cells treated and immunolabeled as indicated. An intracellular pool of NOTCH1 and EGFR colocalizes with the Golgi apparatus (GA) marker, GIANTIN (white arrow). Compared with non-EGTA treated cells, 4-hour EGTA treatment causes diffused NOTCH1 and EGFR accumulation in the cytosol, with some EGFR remaining on the PM (green arrows). The Giantin signal is also diffused consistent with an expected fragmentation of the GA. EGTA washout (w/o) for 1 hour causes all NOTCH1 and most EGFR signal to localize in the GA (red arrows). EGTA w/o for 4 hours or overnight (ON) restores normal intracellular distribution of NOTCH1 and EGFR (quantified in C'; *, **, ***, ****, ns indicate p <0.05, p <0.01, p <0.001, p <0.0001, and not significant, respectively).

Fig. 3: High content screen pipeline and image analysis strategy. **(A)** The primary screen was performed on MCF10-A cells in a 384-well format. Genes belonging to a subset of the human genome, were knocked down in 6 replicate plates for 72 hours by RNAi along with the listed controls. In a duplicate experiment, cells were stimulated with EGTA. Control wells were distributed in the plates as shown. NT: non-targeting KD – cells were transfected with non-targeting siRNA. No siRNA: cells received RNAiMAX only. Pos ctrl (positive control) – cells were transfected with siRNA against *PSENEN*. Transfection pos ctrl: cells were transfected with siRNA against *PLK1* (Polo-like kinase 1) as a cytotoxic indicator of transfection efficiency. Outer wells (yellow) were filled with media to prevent evaporation in experimental wells. **(B)** To assess endogenous NOTCH1 localization, cells in plates were subjected to automated IF and DAPI/phalloidin labeling to demarcate nuclei and the cell cortex, respectively. The script steps of the image acquisition and analysis developed in-house are as follows: (1) The nuclei were segmented based on DAPI signal. (2) The cell surface was segmented using the phalloidin signal and overlaid on the NOTCH1 channel (3) to quantify levels of cell surface NOTCH1 (4) and the area between the cell cortex and the nuclei was used to determine levels of cytoplasmic NOTCH1 (5). (6) The phalloidin mask was also used to count cells and establish cell-to-cell boundaries. (7) Nuclear size was used as a readout of cell viability as compact, pycnotic nuclei identify dead cells. Using such a pipeline, each gene KD was defined by its effects on the amount of NOTCH1 at the cell cortex, in the cytoplasm or in the nucleus.

Fig. 4: Schematics of the primary and secondary screens and of the candidate genes classification process.
(A) A total of 2749 genes were silenced in the primary screen. Candidates that when compared with controls led to marked cytotoxicity, did not affect intracellular NOTCH1 (**N1**) localization, or caused general loss of NOTCH1 signal, were excluded from further analysis (orange, blue, and light blue circles, respectively). A total of 231 genes that altered intracellular NOTCH1 localization were identified (green). 117 did so in unstimulated condition, 63 upon EGTA stimulation and 51 in both conditions. **(B)** The 231 candidates underwent secondary screening. 73 of the 231 led to changes in NOTCH1 localization but only 51 genes reproduced the primary screen phenotypes. **(C)** Of these 51, 38 affected NOTCH1 trafficking in the unstimulated No EGTA condition, 13 altered NOTCH1 trafficking in the stimulated +EGTA condition.

Fig. 5: Analysis of NOTCH1 localization and signaling activity upon *PTPN23* silencing. (A) Confocal sections of MCF10A cells treated and immunolabeled as indicated. *PTPN23* silencing causes marked increase in the number of EEA1, LAMP1, and NOTCH1 (N) puncta, as well as accumulation of intracellular NOTCH1 positive puncta, which mostly colocalize with EEA1 (arrows; quantified in A'). **(B–C)** Western blot analyses indicate that *PTPN23* depletion reduces the levels of N1FL and N1TM but does not alter N1ICD levels with or without EGTA. Note that levels of N1ICD in unstimulated and EGTA stimulated cells are not comparable in C, due to different detection methods (see materials and methods). **(D-F)** The Notch reporter cell line MCF10A-RbpJk-Luc and RT-qPCR analysis reveal that *PTPN23* depletion suppresses basal Notch signaling. *, ***, ****, and ns indicates $p < 0.05$, $p < 0.001$, $p < 0.0001$, and not significant, respectively.

Fig. 6: Analysis of NOTCH1 localization and signaling activity upon *HCN2* silencing. **(A)** Confocal sections of MCF10A cells treated and immunolabeled as indicated. *HCN2* silencing causes marked NOTCH1 accumulation in the Giantin-positive compartment while significantly reducing cell surface NOTCH1 (N1) levels (quantified in A'). **(B)** Confocal sections of MCF10A cells treated and immunolabeled as indicated. *HCN2* silencing markedly depletes the TGN46-positive TGN compartment but not the Golgin-97-positive TGN compartment (quantified in B'). **(C–D)** The Notch reporter cell line, MCF10A-RbpJk-Luc and RT-qPCR analysis reveal that *HCN2* silencing suppresses basal Notch signaling. **(E)** Western blot analyses indicate that *HCN2* depletion reduces both basal and EGTA-stimulated N1ICD levels. Note that levels of N1ICD in unstimulated and EGTA stimulated cells are not comparable in C, due to different detection methods (see materials and methods). **(F)** Western blot analysis indicates that *HCN2* silencing results in marked accumulation of N1FL. *, **, ****, and ns indicate p <0.05, p <0.01, p <0.0001, and not significant, respectively.

Fig. 7: Analysis of NOTCH1 localization and signaling activity upon *SGK3* silencing. (A) Confocal sections of MCF10A cells treated and immunolabeled as indicated. *SGK3* silencing causes NOTCH1 (N1) accumulation in the cytoplasm without apparent co-localization with EEA1 or Golgin-97 (quantified in A'). **(B)** Confocal sections of MCF10A cells treated and immunolabeled as indicated. The accumulated N1 upon *SGK3* silencing does not colocalize with LAMP1 (quantified in B'). **(C–D)** Western blot analyses show that *SGK3* depletion causes strong accumulation of all forms of the NOTCH1 receptor. Note that levels of N1ICD in unstimulated and EGTA stimulated cells are not comparable in C, due to different detection methods (see materials and methods). **(E)** The Notch reporter cell line MCF10A-RbpJk-Luc reveals that *SGK3* silencing enhances Notch signaling in EGTA-stimulated cells. **(F–H)** RT-qPCR analysis reveals that *SGK3* depletion enhances basal expression of HEY1 and NOTCH1. **(I)** Western blot analyses indicate that SGK3 does not destabilize N1ICD or N1FL. **(J)** Western blot analyses of lysates treated with λ-phosphatase (λ-PPA) showed that similar to controls, most of the N1ICD that accumulates upon

SGK3 silencing is phosphorylated. *, **, ***, ****, and ns indicate p <0.05, p <0.01, p <0.001, p <0.0001, and not significant, respectively.

Fig. 8: Pharmacologic SGK3 inhibition elevates γ-secretase-derived N1ICD and Notch signaling. Western blot analysis reveals that serum-starved, VPS34-IN1-treated, MCF10A cells fail to phosphorylate the SGK3 target NDRG1 upon EGF treatment. **(B)** Western blot analysis reveals that pharmacologic VPS34-IN1 treatment enhances N1ICD levels. **(C)** RT-qPCR analysis shows that pharmacologic VPS34-IN1 treatment significantly enhances the expression of the Notch target gene HEY1. ** indicates p <0.01.

Fig. 9: A secondary screen using a Notch reporter identifies 39 new signaling modulators. (A–B) MCF10A-RbpJk-Luc Notch reporter assay identifies 39 candidates that affect Notch signaling. **(C)** Of the 39, 30 suppress Notch signaling while 9 enhance Notch signaling. **(D)** Classification of the 39 candidates by their effect on intracellular NOTCH1 (N1) localization and/or levels.

Supplemental Fig. 1: Representative images of the Notch phenotypic classes. High content screening (primary screen) widefield images of MCF10A cells treated and immunolabeled as indicated. Genes were grouped into the indicated classes based on their effect on intracellular NOTCH1 (N1) localization in NoEGTA or EGTA conditions.

Supplemental Fig. 2: Effects of *PTPN23* silencing. (A) A high content screening widefield image of MCF10A cells treated and immunolabeled as indicated. *PTPN23* silencing causes marked accumulation of NOTCH1-positive puncta. **(B)** RT-qPCR analysis indicates effective *PTPN23* depletion. **** indicates p <0.0001.

Supplemental Fig. 3: Effects of *HCN2* silencing. (A) A high content screening widefield image of MCF10A cells treated and immunolabeled as indicated. *HCN2* silencing causes marked NOTCH1 accumulation in the perinuclear region. **(B)** RT-qPCR analysis indicates effective *HCN2* depletion. **(C)** The Notch reporter cell line MCF10A-RbpJk-Luc reveals that *HCN2* silencing suppresses Notch signaling in No EGTA and EGTA conditions. **(D)** Western blot analysis indicates that *HCN2* silencing enhances N1FL levels in EGTA conditions. *, **, ***, and **** indicate p <0.05, p <0.01, p <0.001, and p <0.0001, respectively.

Supplemental Fig. 4: NOTCH1 secretion dynamics upon *HCN2* KD. (A) Confocal sections of MCF10A cells treated and immunolabeled as indicated. Quantification in A'; *, **, ****, and ns indicate p <0.05, p <0.01, p <0.0001, and not significant, respectively.

Supplemental Fig. 5: Effects of *SGK3* silencing. (A) A high content screening widefield image of MCF10A cells treated and immunolabeled as indicated. *SGK3* silencing causes marked NOTCH1 accumulation in the cytoplasm. **(B–C)** RT-qPCR and Western blot analyses indicate effective *SGK3* depletion. **** indicates p <0.0001.