

Localization, proteomics, and metabolite profiling reveal a putative vesicular transporter for UDP-glucose

Cheng Qian¹, Zhaofa Wu^{2,3,6}, Rongbo Sun^{2,3,6}, Huasheng Yu^{2,3,4}, Jianzhi Zeng^{2,3,4}, Yi Rao^{2,3,4,5}, Yulong Li^{2,3,4,5*}

¹School of Life Sciences, Tsinghua University, 100084 Beijing, China

²State Key Laboratory of Membrane Biology, Peking University School of Life Sciences, 100871 Beijing, China

³PKU-IDG/McGovern Institute for Brain Research, 100871 Beijing, China

⁴Peking-Tsinghua Center for Life Sciences, 100871 Beijing, China

⁵Chinese Institute for Brain Research, Beijing 100871, China

⁶These authors contribute equally to this work

*e-mail: yulongli@pku.edu.cn

Abstract

Vesicular neurotransmitter transporters (VNTs) mediate the selective uptake and enrichment of small molecule neurotransmitters into synaptic vesicles (SVs) and are therefore a major determinant of the synaptic output of specific neurons. To identify novel VNTs expressed on SVs (thus identifying new neurotransmitters and/or neuromodulators), we conducted localization profiling of 361 solute carrier (SLC) transporters tagging with a fluorescent protein in neurons, which revealed 40 possible

23 candidates through comparison with a known SV marker. We parallelly performed
24 proteomics analysis of immunoisolated SVs and identified 7 transporters in overlap.
25 Ultrastructural analysis confirmed one of the transporters, SLC35D3, localized to SVs.
26 Finally, by combining metabolite profiling with a radiolabeled substrate transport assay,
27 we identified UDP-glucose as the principal substrate for SLC35D3. These results
28 provide new insights into the functional role of SLC transporters in neurotransmission
29 and improve our understanding of the molecular diversity of chemical transmitters.
30

Introduction

The release of extracellular signaling molecules by secretory vesicles is a strategy used by a wide range of cell types and tissues and plays an essential role under both physiological and pathological conditions (Burgoyne and Morgan, 2003). A key step in the process is the accumulation of the respective signaling molecules into the secretory vesicles by specific transporter proteins. In the nervous system, vesicular neurotransmitter transporters (VNTs) such as VGLUT and VGAT (which transport glutamate and GABA, respectively) are essential for the transport of small molecule neurotransmitters into synaptic vesicles (SVs). These selective transporters determine the category, amount, and transport kinetics of neurotransmitters, thereby establishing the molecular basis of the underlying chemical neurotransmission (Blakely and Edwards, 2012). All VNTs identified to date belong to the Solute Carrier (SLC) superfamily of membrane transport proteins, the second-largest group of membrane proteins in the human proteome, with more than 400 members spanning 65 subfamilies (<http://slc.bioparadigms.org/>) (Hediger et al., 2013). Strikingly, approximately 30% of these 400 transporters are either uncharacterized or orphan transporters (Cesar-Razquin et al., 2015; Perland and Fredriksson, 2017), providing the opportunity to identify novel VNTs and their cognate substrates, thus identifying new neurotransmitters and/or neuromodulators.

The physiological role of transporter proteins is closely coupled to their subcellular localization; however, to date localization profiling of transporters—particularly SLC transporters, including which are expressed on secretory organelles in primary cells—

have not been systematically studied. Tagging a protein of interest with a fluorescent protein is a widely used strategy for localization profiling (Chong et al., 2015; Huh et al., 2003; Simpson et al., 2000), and this approach offers an effective strategy for screening large numbers of targeted proteins. In addition, the development of mass spectrometry (MS)–based proteomics coupled with subcellular fractionation has made it possible to examine the subcellular spatial distribution of the proteome both rapidly and efficiently (Andersen et al., 2003; Christoforou et al., 2016; Itzhak et al., 2016; Orre et al., 2019), including the SV proteome (Laek et al., 2015; Takamori et al., 2006). Immunoisolation of SVs, followed by proteomic analysis using high-sensitivity MS, provides a specific and efficient method for characterizing the molecular anatomy of SVs (Boyken et al., 2013; Gronborg et al., 2010) including endogenous SLC transporters.

Electron microscopy (EM) is the gold standard to obtain ultrastructural information since it offers the vastly superior resolution (on the order of 1 nm in biological samples) compared to the resolution of optical imaging (on the order of 200-300 nm) (Fernandez-Suarez and Ting, 2008). Moreover, using a genetically encoded tag for EM overcomes certain limitations associated with classic immuno-EM labeling methods, which require specific antibodies and penetration of those antibodies. APEX2, an enhanced variant of ascorbate peroxidase, is a highly efficient proximity-based EM tag (Lam et al., 2015) suitable for determining the subcellular localization of proteins of interest.

Identifying the molecular function of an orphan transporter is an essential step

toward understanding its biological function. However, using the classic radiolabeled substrate transport assay to deorphanize transporters is a relatively low-throughput approach, particularly given the virtually unlimited number of chemicals that can be tested. On the other hand, metabolite profiling using MS is a high-throughput method for knowing the content metabolites (Chantranupong et al., 2020; Nguyen et al., 2014; Vu et al., 2017) that can offer insights into candidate substrates. Thus, combining metabolite profiling together with the radiolabeled substrate transport assay will likely yield new insights into the molecular function of orphan transporters.

The nucleotide sugar uridine diphosphate glucose (UDP-glucose) plays an essential role in glycosylation in both the endoplasmic reticulum and the Golgi apparatus (Moremen et al., 2012). Interestingly, the release of UDP-glucose into the extracellular space was detected previously using an enzyme-based method (Lazarowski et al., 2003). Subsequent experiments with 1231N1 cells (an astrocytoma cell line) showed that the release of UDP-glucose requires both Ca^{2+} signaling and the secretory pathway, as the release was inhibited by the Ca^{2+} chelator BAPTA and the Golgi apparatus blocker brefeldin A (Kreda et al., 2008).

Nucleotide sugars are transported into subcellular organelles by the SLC35 family, which contains 31 members, including 20 orphan transporters (Caffaro and Hirschberg, 2006; Ishida and Kawakita, 2004; Song, 2013). Importantly, the level of nucleotide sugars released by cells can be manipulated by changing the expression of SLC35 transporters; for example, knocking out an SLC35 homolog in yeast decreased the release of UDP-*N*-acetyl-galactosamine, whereas overexpressing human SLC35D2 in

airway epithelial cells increased UDP-*N*-acetyl-galactosamine release (Sesma et al., 2009). However, whether UDP-glucose is transported by a SLC35 transporter located on secretory organelles is currently unknown.

In this study, we screened 361 SLC members using localization profiling and identified 40 candidate vesicular transporters. In parallel, we performed proteomics analyses of immunoisolated SVs from mouse brain samples and found that 7 transporters overlapped, including the orphan SLC35 subfamily transporters SLC35D3, SLC35F1, and SLC35G2. Further ultrastructural analysis using APEX2-based EM confirmed that the SLC35D3 traffics to SVs. Finally, we combined metabolite analysis and the radiolabeled substrate transport assay in subcellular organelles and identified UDP-glucose as the principal substrate of SLC35D3.

Results

Identification of a subset of SLC35 proteins as putative vesicular transporters using localization screening of SLC transporters

To identify new candidate vesicular transporters, we performed localization screening of SLC transporters (Figure 1). First, we created a cloning library containing 361 human SLC family members fused in-frame with the red fluorescent protein mCherry; we then systematically co-expressed individual SLC-mCherry construct with EGFP-tagged synaptophysin (SYP-EGFP) to label SVs in cultured rat cortical and hippocampal neurons, revealing the localization of SLC transporters (Figure 1A,B). Of the 223 SLC transporters that trafficked to neurites, 134 showed overlap with SYP-

EGFP and were analyzed further by quantifying the co-localization ratio between the red and green fluorescent signals (Figure 1A,E). As expected, known synaptic vesicular transporters such as VGLUT and the vesicular acetylcholine transporter (VACHT) had relatively high co-localization ratio with SYP-EGFP (50-80% co-localization) (Figure 1C,E), whereas markers of non-vesicular organelles such as the Golgi apparatus, endoplasmic reticulum, and mitochondria had relatively low co-localization ratio (10-20%) (Figure 1D,E). Setting a threshold at the colocalization ratio for VGLUT3—a well-known vesicular transporter—revealed a total of 40 candidate vesicular transporters (Figure 1E and Supplementary Table S1). Among these candidates, a subset of SLC35 transporters, including SLC35D3, SLC35F1, and SLC35G2, had a co-localization ratio of approximately 70% with SYP-EGFP (Figure 1E,F). In contrast, other members of the same subfamily such as SLC35A1, SLC35E1, and SLC35E2, localized primarily to organelles in the soma and had relatively low co-localization ratio (10%-20%) (Figure 1E,G). Together, these results indicate that putative vesicular transporters, including a subset of SLC35 family members, localize to neuronal SVs.

Proteomics analysis of SVs reveals novel vesicular transporters

To probe the proteome including the vesicular transporters presented in SVs, we immunoisolated intact SVs from fractionated mouse brain samples and used western blot analysis and high-performance liquid chromatography (HPLC)-MS to analyze the proteome (Figure 2A). Using a specific antibody against SYP to isolate SVs, we found

a number of SV markers present in the anti-SYP samples but not in samples obtained using a control IgG (Figure 2B); as an additional control, the postsynaptic marker PSD-95 was not detected in either the anti-SYP sample or the control IgG sample in western blotting. Moreover, using EM we directly observed SVs on the surface of anti-SYP beads but not control IgG beads (Figure 2C), confirming that the anti-SYP beads selectively isolate SVs.

Next, we performed HPLC-MS analysis and found high reproducibility among repeated trials in both the anti-SYP and control IgG samples (Supplementary Figure S1). We further analyzed the relatively abundant proteins (LFQ intensity $>2^{20}$, without immunoglobulin) that were significantly enriched in the anti-SYP sample compared to the control sample (Figure 2D). The proteins enriched in the anti-SYP sample covered more than 60% of the 110 proteins in the SV proteome listed in the SynGO database (Koopmans et al., 2019), including known VNTs, vesicular ATPase subunits, and a number of other SV markers (Figure 2D-F). Conversely, only 8.0% and 2.2% of the proteins in the mitochondrial and Golgi apparatus proteome, respectively, were present in the anti-SYP sample (Figure 2F), indicating minimal contamination by these organelles; as an additional control, we found very little overlap between the proteins in the anti-SYP sample and the entire mouse proteome in the UniProt database (Bateman et al., 2019).

We then focused on SLC transporters and identified 20 SLC transporters, including SLC35D3, SLC35F1, and SLC35G2, among the SV-associated proteins (Supplementary Table S2). The abundance of these three transporters was similar to

known VNTs, including VACHT and the monoamine transporter VMAT2 (Figure 2G), even though VACHT was below the threshold for significance ($p>0.05$). Comparing the putative vesicular transporters identified in our localization screen with the SLC transporters identified in the SV proteome revealed a total of seven transporters present in both datasets, including the three SLC35 family members (i.e., SLC35D3, SLC35F1, and SLC35G2) identified above (Figure 2H). The other four transporters were previously reported to localize to SVs including the choline transporter SLC5A7 (Ferguson et al., 2003; Nakata et al., 2004; Ribeiro et al., 2003), the proline transporter SLC6A7 (Crump et al., 1999; Renick et al., 1999), the neutral amino acid transporter SLC6A17 (Fischer et al., 1999; Masson et al., 1999), and the zinc transporter SLC30A3 (Wenzel et al., 1997).

Localization of SLC35D3 to SVs revealed by EM

To further verify the vesicular localization of one of the three SLC35 candidates, SLC35D3, we used APEX2-based labeling (Lam et al., 2015) coupled with EM (Figure 3A). We first validated this strategy by transfecting cultured rat neurons with Mito-APEX2 to label mitochondria and found two distinct populations based on electron density (Figure 3B); as an additional control, we found only one population of SVs in non-transfected neurons (Figure 3C). Importantly, neurons transfected with either VGLUT1-APEX2 (Figure 3D) or SLC35D3-APEX2 (Figure 3E) had two distinct populations of SVs based on electron density, demonstrating that SLC35D3 localizes to SVs in cultured neurons.

Deorphanization of SLC35D3 using metabolite profiling combined with a radiolabeled substrate transport assay

To search for the cognate substrate corresponding to the orphan vesicular transporter SLC35D3, we used metabolite profiling, based on the assumption that overexpressing the transporter will enrich its cognate substrate in organelles. In our analysis, we intentionally focused on nucleotide sugars present in mammals as possible substrates, as the SLC35 transporter family has been reported to transport these molecules (Figure 4A) (Caffaro and Hirschberg, 2006; Ishida and Kawakita, 2004; Song, 2013). By optimizing a hyperPGC column-based HPLC strategy coupled with selected reaction monitoring in MS (Garcia et al., 2013), we successfully detected a range of nucleotide sugars (Figure 4B). Next, we used the deorphanization strategy shown in Figure 4C. Firstly, we measured nucleotide sugars in untransfected control cells, finding all known nucleotide sugars (Figure 4D,E). To test the sensitivity of this deorphanization strategy, we generated a stable cell line overexpressing EGFP-tagged SLC35A2 (Supplementary Figure S2A), which is known to transport the nucleotide sugars including UDP-galactose and UDP-*N*-acetyl-galactosamine (Ishida et al., 1996; Segawa et al., 2002; Sun-Wada et al., 1998). Profiling the relative abundance of specific nucleotide sugars in organelles prepared from control cells and SLC35A2-overexpressing (SLC35A2OE) cells revealed a >100% increase in the substrate UDP-galactose in SLC35A2OE organelles (Figure 4F,G and Supplementary Figure S2B). Interestingly, we also detected 60% higher levels of both UDP-glucose

and UDP-glucuronic acid in SLC35A2OE cells, indicating two previously unknown substrates of the SLC35A2 transporter; in contrast, we found that the SLC35A2 substrate UDP-*N*-acetyl-galactosamine did not appear to be enriched in SLC35A2OE cells, possibly due to limitations in separating UDP-*N*-acetyl-glucosamine and UDP-*N*-acetyl-galactosamine in our HPLC-MS setup (Figure 4F,G). We then used this same strategy to search for substrates of the orphan vesicular transporter SLC35D3 using SLC35D3-overexpressing (SLC35D3OE) cells (Supplementary Figure S2A). Our analysis revealed a 40% increase in UDP-glucose and a 30% increase in CMP-sialic acid in SLC35D3OE organelles compared to control organelles (Figure 4H,I and Supplementary Figure S2B), suggesting that these two nucleotide sugars might be substrates of the SLC35D3 transporter.

Metabolite profiling can detect the effects of both direct transport activity and indirect changes in the abundance of metabolites due to the overexpression of transporters; thus, we also conducted an uptake assay with radiolabeled nucleotide sugars in order to measure the transport activity (Figure 5A). We found that cells expressing the SLC35A2 transporter had significantly increased uptake of both the previously known substrate UDP-galactose and the newly identified substrate UDP-glucose compared to control cells (Figure 5B), validating our deorphanization strategy combining metabolite profiling and the radiolabeled transport assay. Importantly, cells expressing human SLC35D3 had a nearly 1-fold increase in UDP-glucose transport, but no significant change in the transport of UDP-galactose or UDP-*N*-acetyl-glucosamine; similar results were obtained from the cells expressed the mouse

SLC35D3 (Figure 5B). Thus, UDP-glucose is a promising substrate of SLC35D3.

Characterization of the transport properties of SLC35D3

Next, we characterized the transport of UDP-glucose by SLC35D3. To study the substrate specificity of SLC35D3, we performed a competition assay in which we applied a 100-fold higher concentration of non-radiolabeled substrate together with radiolabeled UDP-glucose in the transport assay. We found that non-radiolabeled UDP-glucose—but not the structurally similar UDP-*N*-acetyl-galactosamine—virtually eliminated the transport of radiolabeled UDP-glucose (Figure 5C). In addition, several other UDP-sugars partially inhibited transport activity, possibly by competing with UDP-glucose on the transporter's substrate-binding pocket. Interestingly, CMP-sialic acid did not reduce the transport of UDP-glucose (Figure 5C), even though this nucleotide sugar was increased—albeit to a lesser extent than UDP-glucose—in the organelles of cells expressing SLC35D3 (see Figure 4I), indicating that CMP-sialic acid may not be a direct substrate of SLC35D3 but may have been indirectly increased on its abundance as shown by metabolite profiling.

We also measured the time course and dose dependence of UDP-glucose transport by SLC35D3, revealing a time constant of 2.9 min (Figure 5D) and a K_m value of 0.87 μM (Figure 5E). Lastly, we examined the role of the electrochemical proton gradient on SLC35D3 activity, as this gradient has been reported to drive the activity of known VNTs (Edwards, 2007; Van Liefferinge et al., 2013). We therefore applied a variety of pharmacological inhibitors and measured UDP-glucose transport

by SLC35D3 (Figure 5F). We found that *N*-ethylmaleimide (NEM), FCCP (carbonyl cyanide-4-(trifluoromethoxy) phenylhydrazone), and nigericin significantly reduced UDP-glucose transport in SLC35D3-expressing cells (Figure 5G), suggesting that the electrochemical proton gradient contributes—at least in part—to the driving force. Taken together, these data support the notion that SLC35D3 is a nucleotide sugar transporter, with UDP-glucose as its primary substrate.

Discussion

Here, we report the identification and characterization of three novel SLC35 transporters localized to SVs using a combination of localization profiling, proteomics profiling, and EM. Using metabolite profiling combined with a radiolabeled substrate transport assay, we also found that one of these novel vesicular transporters—SLC35D3—is a UDP-glucose transporter. These data indicate the existence of a novel neuronal vesicular transporter of the nucleotide sugar UDP-glucose (Figure 6).

Our localization screening strategy revealed a series of vesicular transporter candidates in neurons, a cell type which has tightly regulated secretory vesicles. However, these transporters may also play a physiological role in regulated secretory organelles such as lysosomes and endosomes in non-neuronal secretory cells.

It is important to note that some VNTs may have been below the detection limit of enriched proteins in our SV proteomics approach. For example, the vesicular nucleotide transporter SLC17A9 has been reported to play a role in vesicular ATP release (Sawada et al., 2008), but was not identified in our proteomics analyses of

SVs, consistent with reports by other groups (Gronborg et al., 2010; Takamori et al., 2006). Similarly, our analysis did not identify SLC10A4, another vesicular transporter (Larhammar et al., 2014). Therefore, studies regarding these low-abundance transporters may require more robust strategies such as enriching specific SVs from VNT-expressing brain regions, using specific antibodies against VNTs, or generating transgenic mice expressing biochemical labels on specific VNTs.

Combining metabolite profiling with a radiolabeled substrate transport assay is a powerful tool for identifying and characterizing transporter substrates (Nguyen et al., 2014; Vu et al., 2017). Here, we show that this strategy can indeed be effective for studying orphan vesicular transporters located on secretory organelles.

SLC35D3 is expressed primarily in striatal neurons that project to the substantia nigra and the globus pallidus externa in the brain (Lobo et al., 2006), and mice with a recessive mutation in the *SLC35D3* gene have decreased motor activity, impaired energy expenditure, and develop obesity (Zhang et al., 2014). Thus, an important question for future studies is how SLC35D3 and its substrate UDP-glucose play a role in these circuits.

Interestingly, previous studies regarding G protein-coupled receptors (GPCRs) found that UDP-sugars, including UDP-glucose, could serve as the ligand of the purinergic receptor P2Y14 (Chambers et al., 2000; Freeman et al., 2001), indicating that nucleotide sugars may function as extracellular signaling molecules, a notion supported by the fact that the P2Y14 receptor is widely expressed in a variety of brain regions and cell types (Chambers et al., 2000; Lee et al., 2003; Zeisel et al., 2018).

The P2Y₁₄ receptor is coupled primarily to the Gai protein (Chambers et al., 2000; Inoue et al., 2019), which does not elicit an excitatory downstream calcium signal. Thus, whether the P2Y₁₄ receptor plays a role in SLC35D3-expressing neurons is an interesting question that warrants investigation.

Methods

Animals

Postnatal 0-day-old (P0) Sprague-Dawley rats (Beijing Vital River Laboratory) and adult (P42-56) wild-type C57BL/6J (Beijing Vital River Laboratory) were used in this study. All animals were raised in a temperature-controlled room with a 12h/12h light-dark cycle, and all animal procedures were performed using protocols approved by the Animal Care and Use Committees at Peking University.

Molecular biology

DNA fragments were cloned using PCR amplification with primers (TsingKe Biological Technology) containing 30 bp of overlap. The fragments were then assembled into plasmids using Gibson assembly (Gibson et al., 2009). All plasmid sequences were verified using Sanger sequencing (TsingKe Biological Technology). For the localization studies in cultured neurons, the open-reading frames (e.g., SLC-mCherry, SLC-APEX2, SYP-EGFP, organelle marker-EGFP, etc.) were cloned into the N3 vector under the control of the CAG promoter. To generate stable cell lines expressing various SLC35 transporters, we generated the pPacific vector containing a 3' terminal repeat,

the CAG promoter, a P2A sequence, the *puromycin* gene, and a 5' terminal repeat; the genes of interest were then cloned into a modified pPiggyBac (namely pPacific) vector using Gibson assembly. Two mutations (S103P and S509G) were introduced in pCS7-PiggyBAC (ViewSolid Biotech) to generate a hyperactive piggyBac transposase for generating the stable cell lines.

Preparation and fluorescence imaging of cultured cells

HEK293T cells were cultured at 37°C in 5% CO₂ in DMEM (Gibco) supplemented with 10% (v/v) fetal bovine serum (Gibco) and 1% penicillin-streptomycin (Gibco). For transfection, cells in 6-well plates were incubated in a mixture containing 1 µg DNA and 3 µg PEI for 6 h, and fluorescence imaging was performed after the generation of a stable cell line.

Rat cortical neurons were prepared from P0 Sprague-Dawley rat pups (Beijing Vital River Laboratory). In brief, cortical neurons were dissociated from dissected rat brains in 0.25% trypsin-EDTA (GIBCO), plated on 12-mm glass coverslips coated with poly-D-lysine (Sigma-Aldrich), and cultured at 37°C in 5% CO₂ in Neurobasal medium (Gibco) containing 2% B-27 supplement (Gibco), 1% GlutaMAX (Gibco), and 1% penicillin-streptomycin (Gibco). After 7-9 days in culture, the neurons were transfected with SLC-mCherry, SYP-EGFP, organelle markers, or SLC-APEX2, and fluorescence imaging was performed 2-4 days after transfection.

Cultured cells were imaged using an inverted Ti-E A1 confocal microscope (Nikon) equipped with a 40×/1.35 NA oil-immersion objective, a 488-nm laser, and a 561-nm

laser. During fluorescence imaging, the cells were either bathed or perfused in a chamber containing Tyrode's solution consisting of (in mM): 150 mM NaCl, 4 mM KCl, 2 mM MgCl₂, 2 mM CaCl₂, 10 mM HEPES, and 10 mM glucose (pH 7.4).

Localization imaging data of SLC-mCherry fluorescence overlapping with SYP-EGFP puncta were firstly manually selected by three researchers in a double-blind fashion. The selected SLC-mCherry images were further quantified to obtain a co-localization ratio with SYP-EGFP using the modified *in silico* Puncta Analyzer tool, as described previously (Kimura et al., 2007).

Western blot

Protein lysates were denatured by the addition of 2x sample buffer followed by 70°C treatment for 10 min. Samples were resolved by 10% SDS-PAGE, transferred for 1 hr at room temperature at 25 V to NC membranes, and analyzed by immunoblotting. Membranes were firstly stained by Ponceau S staining followed by washing with TBST and blocking with 5% non-fat milk prepared in TBST for 1 hr at room temperature. Membranes were then incubated with primary antibodies in 5% non-fat milk TBST overnight at 4°C, followed by washing with TBST three times, 10 min each. Membranes were incubated with the corresponding secondary antibodies in 5% non-fat milk for 2 hr at room temperature. Membranes were then washed three more times, 10 min each, with TBST before being visualized using chemiluminescence. Antibodies used were polyclonal rabbit anti-VGLUT1 (135302; Synaptic Systems), polyclonal rabbit anti-VGLUT2 (135402; Synaptic Systems), monoclonal mouse anti-SYP

(101011; Synaptic Systems), polyclonal rabbit anti-SYP (5461; Cell Signaling Technology), monoclonal mouse anti-VAMP2 (104211; Synaptic Systems), monoclonal mouse anti-PSD95 (75-028; NeuroMab).

Proteomics analysis of SVs

Thirty minutes prior to use, 5 µg of antibody was conjugated to 50 µl Protein G M-280 dynabeads at room temperature in KPBS buffer containing (in mM): 136 KCl and 10 KH₂PO₄ (pH 7.25). The brain was removed from an adult (P42-56) C57BL/6J mouse, homogenized using a ball-bearing homogenizer (10-µm clearance) in 3 ml ice-cold KPBS, and centrifuged at 30,000g for 20 min. The supernatant (input) containing the SVs was collected and incubated with antibody-conjugated dynabeads for 1 hr at 0°C for immunoisolation. Dynabead-bound SVs were washed 3 times with KPBS and eluted by incubating the samples with SDS-PAGE sample loading buffer. The SV samples were heated for 10 min at 70°C, centrifuged for 2 min at 14,000 rpm, and the supernatants were transferred to clean tubes. The protein samples were then subjected to SDS-PAGE for western blotting and HPLC-MS, respectively.

The resolved proteins in SDS-PAGE were digested and extracted from the gel pieces using acetonitrile containing 0.1% formic acid (FA). The samples were then dried in a vacuum centrifuge concentrator at 30°C and resuspended in 10 µl 0.1% FA.

Using an Easy-nLC 1200 system, 5 µl of sample was loaded at a rate of 0.3 µl/min in 0.1% FA onto a trap column (C18, Acclaim PepMap 100 75 µm x 2 cm; Thermo Fisher Scientific) and eluted across a fritless analytical resolving column (C18, Acclaim

PepMap 75 μm x 15 cm; Thermo Fisher Scientific) with a 75-min gradient of 4% to 30% LC-MS buffer B at 300 nl/min; buffer A contained 0.1% FA, and buffer B contained 0.1% FA and 80% acetonitrile.

The peptides were directly injected into an Orbitrap Fusion Lumos (Thermo Fisher Scientific) using a nano-electrospray ion source with an electrospray voltage of 2.2 kV. Full scan MS spectra were acquired using the Orbitrap mass analyzer (m/z range: 300–1500 Da) with the resolution set to 60,000 (full width at half maximum, or FWHM) at $m/z = 200$ Da. Full scan target was $5e5$ with a maximum fill time of 50 ms. All data were acquired in profile mode using positive polarity. MS/MS spectra data were acquired using Orbitrap with a resolution of 15,000 (FWHM) at $m/z = 200$ Da and higher-collisional dissociation (HCD) MS/MS fragmentation. The isolation width was 1.6 m/z .

Electron microscopy

Antibody conjugated dynabeads were pelleted by centrifugation and subsequently resuspended in 1.5% agarose in 0.1 M phosphate buffer (PB, pH 7.4). Small agarose blocks were cut out, fixed overnight at 4°C using 4% glutaraldehyde in 0.1 M PB at pH 7.4, followed by post-fixation of 1% osmium tetroxide for 1 hr and treatment of 0.25% uranyl acetate overnight at 4°C. The samples were then dehydrated in a graded ethanol series (20%, 50%, 70%, 80%, 90%, 95%, 100%, 100%) at 8 min per step and then changed to propylene oxide for 10min. The cells were then infiltrated in Epon 812 resin using a 1:1 ratio of propylene oxide and resin for 4hr, followed by 100% resin

twice at 4 hr each; finally, the beads were placed in fresh resin and polymerized in a vacuum oven at 65°C for 24 hr. After polymerization, ultrathin sections were cut and stained with lead citrate.

For APEX2 based EM labeling, the procedure was adapted from previous study (Martell et al., 2012). Transfected neurons were firstly fixed with 2% glutaraldehyde in 0.1 M PB at room temperature, quickly placed on ice, and incubated on ice for 45-60 min. The cells were rinsed with chilled PB twice at 5 min each before adding 20 mM glycine to quench any unreacted glutaraldehyde. The cells were then rinsed three times with PB at 5 min each. Freshly prepared solution containing 0.5 mg/ml 3,3'-diaminobenzidine (DAB) tetrahydrochloride and 10 mM H₂O₂ was then added to the cells. After 5-10 min, the reaction was stopped by removing the DAB solution and rinsing three times with chilled PB at 5 min each. The cells were then incubated in 2% osmium tetroxide in 0.1 M PB combined with 0.1 M imidazole (pH 8.0) for 30 min in a light-proof box. The cells were then rinsed six times with water at 5 min each and then incubated in 2% (w/v) aqueous uranyl acetate overnight at 4°C. The cells were rinsed six times with water at 5 min each, and then dehydrated in a graded ethanol series (20%, 50%, 70%, 80%, 90%, 95%, 100%, 100%) at 8 min per step, and then rinsed once in anhydrous ethanol at room temperature. The cells were then infiltrated in Epon 812 resin using a 1:1, 1:2, and 1:3 (v/v) ratio of anhydrous ethanol and resin for 1 hr, 2 hr, and 4 hr, respectively, followed by 100% resin twice at 4 hr each; finally, the cells were placed in fresh resin and polymerized in a vacuum oven at 65°C for 24 hr.

The embedded cells were cut into 60-nm ultrathin sections using a diamond knife

and imaged using a FEI-Tecnaï G2 20 TWIN transmission electron microscope operated at 120 KV.

Organelle fractionation

Stable cell lines grown in two 15-cm dishes were washed twice with either ice-cold KPBS (for metabolite detection) or sucrose buffer containing 0.32 M sucrose and 4 mM HEPES-NaOH (pH 7.4) (for the uptake assay), and then gently scraped and collected into 1 ml of the corresponding buffer. The cells were then homogenized using a ball-bearing homogenizer (10- μ m clearance). The homogenate was centrifuged at 13,000g for 10 min to remove the nuclei and cellular debris. The resulting supernatant was centrifuged at 200,000g for 25 min. For metabolite profiling, the pellet was washed 3 times in ice-cold KPBS, and the metabolites were extracted in 80% methanol, freeze-dried, and stored at -80°C. For the transport assay, the pellet was resuspended in uptake assay buffer containing 0.32 M sucrose, 2 mM KCl, 2 mM NaCl, 4 mM MgSO₄, and 10 mM HEPES-KOH (pH 7.4), aliquoted, and stored at -80°C.

Targeted metabolite profiling

Samples were analyzed using a TSQ Quantiva Ultra triple-quadrupole mass spectrometer coupled with an Ultimate 3000 UPLC system (Thermo Fisher Scientific) equipped with a heated electrospray ionization probe. Chromatographic separation was achieved using gradient elution on a Hypercarb PGC column (2.1 \times 100 mm, 1.7 μ m, Thermo Fisher Scientific). Mobile phase A consisted of 5 mM ammonium

bicarbonate dissolved in pure water, and mobile phase B consisted of 100% acetonitrile. A 25-minute gradient with a flow rate of 250 μ l/min was applied as follows: 0-1.2 min, 4% B; 1.2-19 min, 4-35% B; 19-20 min, 35-98% B; 20-22 min, 98% B; 22-25 min 4% B. The column chamber and sample tray were kept at 45°C and 10°C, respectively. Data were acquired using selected reaction monitoring in negative switch ion mode, and optimal transitions are reported as the reference. Both the precursor and fragment ion fractions were collected at a resolution of 0.7 FWHM. The source parameters were as follows: spray voltage: 3000 V; ion transfer tube temperature: 350°C; vaporizer temperature: 300°C; sheath gas flow rate: 35 arbitrary units; auxiliary gas flow rate: 12 arbitrary units; collision induced dissociation (CID) gas pressure: 1.5 mTorr.

Uptake assay

For the radiolabeled substrate transport assay, 20 μ g of the membrane fraction was incubated with the indicated concentration of radiolabeled substrate at 37°C for 5 min (unless otherwise). The reaction was terminated using the same volume of ice-cold assay buffer. The samples were then trapped on a 0.7- μ m GF/F glass fiber filter (Whatman) and washed twice. The radioactivity retained on the filter was measured using liquid scintillation.

Quantification and statistical analysis

Imaging data from cultured cells were processed using ImageJ software (NIH). SV

proteomics data were analyzed using MaxQuant_1.6.10.43 (MPI). The metabolite profiling data were analyzed and quantified using Xcalibur version 3.0.63 (Thermo Fisher Scientific). Sequence data for generating the phylogenetic tree were analyzed by MEGA-X. All summary data are presented as the mean \pm s.e.m., and group data were compared using the Student's *t*-test; **p*<0.05, ***p*<0.01, ****p*<0.001, and n.s., not significant (*p*>0.05).

Data and software availability

The custom-written programs will be provided upon request to the corresponding author, Yulong Li (yulongli@pku.edu.cn).

Acknowledgments

This work was supported by the Beijing Municipal Science & Technology Commission (Z181100001318002), grants from the Peking-Tsinghua Center for Life Sciences, and grants from the State Key Laboratory of Membrane Biology at Peking University School of Life Sciences.

We thank the Proteomics Core in National Center for Protein Sciences at Peking University, particularly Dong Liu for providing technical assistance. We thank Shitang Huang for helping with the radioactive transport assay. We also thank the Metabolomics Facility at Technology Center for Protein Sciences in Tsinghua University, particularly Xueying Wang and Li'na Xu, for providing technical assistance.

Author contributions

Y.L. and Y. R. supervised the project. C.Q., Z.W., R.S., H.Y., and J.Z. designed and performed the localization screen of SLCs in cultured neurons. Z.W. designed and performed the immunoisolation of SVs and western blotting. C.Q. designed and performed the SV proteomics analysis. R.S. designed and performed electron microscopy experiments. C.Q. designed and performed the deorphanization of SLC35 experiments. All authors contributed to the data interpretation and analysis. C.Q. and Y.L. wrote the manuscript with input from all other authors.

References

- Andersen, J.S., Wilkinson, C.J., Mayor, T., Mortensen, P., Nigg, E.A., and Mann, M. (2003). Proteomic characterization of the human centrosome by protein correlation profiling. *Nature* 426, 570-574.
- Bateman, A., Martin, M.J., Orchard, S., Magrane, M., Alpi, E., Bely, B., Bingley, M., Britto, R., Bursteinas, B., Busiello, G., *et al.* (2019). UniProt: a worldwide hub of protein knowledge. *Nucleic Acids Res* 47, D506-D515.
- Blakely, R.D., and Edwards, R.H. (2012). Vesicular and Plasma Membrane Transporters for Neurotransmitters. *Csh Perspect Biol* 4.
- Boyken, J., Gronborg, M., Riedel, D., Urlaub, H., Jahn, R., and Chua, J.J.E. (2013). Molecular Profiling of Synaptic Vesicle Docking Sites Reveals Novel Proteins but Few Differences between Glutamatergic and GABAergic Synapses. *Neuron* 78, 285-297.
- Burgoyne, R.D., and Morgan, A. (2003). Secretory granule exocytosis. *Physiological reviews* 83, 581-632.
- Caffaro, C.E., and Hirschberg, C.B. (2006). Nucleotide sugar transporters of the golgi apparatus: From basic science to diseases. *Accounts Chem Res* 39, 805-812.
- Cesar-Razquin, A., Snijder, B., Frappier-Brinton, T., Isserlin, R., Gyimesi, G., Bai, X.Y., Reithmeier, R.A., Hepworth, D., Hediger, M.A., Edwards, A.M., *et al.* (2015). A Call for Systematic Research on Solute Carriers. *Cell* 162, 478-487.
- Chambers, J.K., Macdonald, L.E., Sarau, H.M., Ames, R.S., Freeman, K., Foley, J.J., Zhu, Y., McLaughlin, M.M., Murdock, P., McMillan, L., *et al.* (2000). A G protein-coupled receptor for UDP-glucose. *Journal of Biological Chemistry* 275, 10767-10771.
- Chantranupong, L., Saulnier, J.L., Wang, W.G., Jones, D.R., Pacold, M.E., and Sabatini, B.L. (2020). Rapid purification and metabolomic profiling of synaptic vesicles from mammalian brain. *Elife* 9.
- Chong, Y.T., Koh, J.L.Y., Friesen, H., Duffy, K., Cox, M.J., Moses, A., Moffat, J., Boone, C., and Andrews, B.J. (2015). Yeast Proteome Dynamics from Single Cell Imaging and Automated Analysis. *Cell* 161, 1413-1424.
- Christoforou, A., Mulvey, C.M., Breckels, L.M., Geladaki, A., Hurrell, T., Hayward, P.C., Naake, T., Gatto, L., Viner, R., Arias, A.M., *et al.* (2016). A draft map of the mouse pluripotent stem cell spatial proteome. *Nature*

Communications 7.

Crump, F.T., Fremeau, R.T., and Craig, A.M. (1999). Localization of the brain-specific high-affinity L-proline transporter in cultured hippocampal neurons: Molecular heterogeneity of synaptic terminals. *Mol Cell Neurosci* 13, 25-39.

Edwards, R.H. (2007). The neurotransmitter cycle and quantal size. *Neuron* 55, 835-858.

Ferguson, S.M., Savchenko, V., Apparsundaram, S., Zwick, M., Wright, J., Heilman, C.J., Yi, H., Levey, A.I., and Blakely, R.D. (2003). Vesicular localization and activity-dependent trafficking of presynaptic choline transporters. *Journal of Neuroscience* 23, 9697-9709.

Fernandez-Suarez, M., and Ting, A.Y. (2008). Fluorescent probes for super-resolution imaging in living cells. *Nature Reviews Molecular Cell Biology* 9, 929-943.

Fischer, J., Bancila, V., Mailly, P., Masson, J., Hamon, M., El Mestikawy, S., and Conrath, M. (1999). Immunocytochemical evidence of vesicular localization of the orphan transporter Rxt1 in the rat spinal cord. *Neuroscience* 92, 729-743.

Freeman, K., Tsui, P., Moore, D., Emson, P.C., Vawter, L., Naheed, S., Lane, P., Bawagan, H., Herrity, N., Murphy, K., *et al.* (2001). Cloning, pharmacology, and tissue distribution of G-protein-coupled receptor GPR105 (KIAA0001) rodent orthologs. *Genomics* 78, 124-128.

Garcia, A.D., Chavez, J.L., and Mechref, Y. (2013). Sugar nucleotide quantification using multiple reaction monitoring liquid chromatography/tandem mass spectrometry. *Rapid Commun Mass Sp* 27, 1794-1800.

Gibson, D.G., Young, L., Chuang, R.Y., Venter, J.C., Hutchison, C.A., 3rd, and Smith, H.O. (2009). Enzymatic assembly of DNA molecules up to several hundred kilobases. *Nat Methods* 6, 343-345.

Gronborg, M., Pavlos, N.J., Brunk, I., Chua, J.J.E., Munster-Wandowski, A., Riedel, D., Ahnert-Hilger, G., Urlaub, H., and Jahn, R. (2010). Quantitative Comparison of Glutamatergic and GABAergic Synaptic Vesicles Unveils Selectivity for Few Proteins Including MAL2, a Novel Synaptic Vesicle Protein. *Journal of Neuroscience* 30, 2-12.

Hediger, M.A., Clemencon, B., Burrier, R.E., and Bruford, E.A. (2013). The ABCs of membrane transporters in health and disease (SLC series): Introduction. *Molecular Aspects of Medicine* 34, 95-107.

Huh, W.K., Falvo, J.V., Gerke, L.C., Carroll, A.S., Howson, R.W., Weissman, J.S., and O'Shea, E.K. (2003). Global analysis of protein localization in budding yeast. *Nature* 425, 686-691.

Inoue, A., Raimondi, F., Kadji, F.M.N., Singh, G., Kishi, T., Uwamizu, A., Ono, Y., Shinjo, Y., Ishida, S., Arang, N., *et al.* (2019). Illuminating G-Protein-Coupling Selectivity of GPCRs. *Cell* 177, 1933-+.

Ishida, N., and Kawakita, M. (2004). Molecular physiology and pathology of the nucleotide sugar transporter family (SLC35). *Pflug Arch Eur J Phy* 447, 768-775.

Ishida, N., Miura, N., Yoshioka, S., and Kawakita, M. (1996). Molecular cloning and characterization of a novel isoform of the human UDP-galactose transporter, and of related complementary DNAs belonging to the nucleotide-sugar transporter gene family. *Journal of Biochemistry* 120, 1074-1078.

Itzhak, D.N., Tyanova, S., Cox, J., and Borner, G.H.H. (2016). Global, quantitative and dynamic mapping of protein subcellular localization. *Elife* 5.

Kimura, S., Noda, T., and Yoshimori, T. (2007). Dissection of the autophagosome maturation process by a novel reporter protein, tandem fluorescent-tagged LC3. *Autophagy* 3, 452-460.

Koopmans, F., van Nierop, P., Andres-Alonso, M., Bymes, A., Cijssouw, T., Coba, M.P., Cornelisse, L.N., Farrell, R.J., Goldschmidt, H.L., Howrigan, D.P., *et al.* (2019). SynGO: An Evidence-Based, Expert-Curated Knowledge Base for the Synapse. *Neuron* 103, 217-+.

Kreda, S., Seminario-Vidal, L., Heusden, C.v., and Lazarowski, E. (2008). Thrombin-promoted release of UDP-glucose from human astrocytoma cells. *British journal of pharmacology* 153, 1528-1537.

Laek, M., Weingarten, J., and Volkandt, W. (2015). The synaptic proteome. *Cell Tissue Res* 359, 255-265.

571 Lam, S.S., Martell, J.D., Kamer, K.J., Deerinck, T.J., Ellisman, M.H., Mootha, V.K., and Ting, A.Y. (2015). Directed
572 evolution of APEX2 for electron microscopy and proximity labeling. *Nature methods* 12, 51-54.

573 Larhammar, M., Patra, K., Blunder, M., Emilsson, L., Peuckert, C., Arvidsson, E., Rönnlund, D., Preobraschenski, J.,
574 Birgner, C., and Limbach, C. (2014). SLC10A4 is a vesicular amine-associated transporter modulating dopamine
575 homeostasis. *Biological psychiatry*.

576 Lazarowski, E.R., Shea, D.A., Boucher, R.C., and Harden, T.K. (2003). Release of cellular UDP-glucose as a potential
577 extracellular signaling molecule. *Mol Pharmacol* 63, 1190-1197.

578 Lee, B.C., Cheng, T., Adams, G.B., Attar, E.C., Miura, N., Lee, S.B., Saito, Y., Olszak, I., Dombkowski, D., Olson, D.P.,
579 *et al.* (2003). P2Y-like receptor, GPR105 (P2Y14), identifies and mediates chemotaxis of bone-marrow
580 hematopoietic stem cells. *Genes Dev* 17, 1592-1604.

581 Lobo, M.K., Karsten, S.L., Gray, M., Geschwind, D.H., and Yang, X.W. (2006). FACS-array profiling of striatal
582 projection neuron subtypes in juvenile and adult mouse brains. *Nature neuroscience* 9, 443-452.

583 Martell, J.D., Deerinck, T.J., Sancak, Y., Poulos, T.L., Mootha, V.K., Sosinsky, G.E., Ellisman, M.H., and Ting, A.Y.
584 (2012). Engineered ascorbate peroxidase as a genetically encoded reporter for electron microscopy. *Nature*
585 *Biotechnology* 30, 1143-+.

586 Masson, J., Riad, M., Chaudhry, F., Darmon, M., Aidouni, Z., Conrath, M., Giros, B., Hamon, M., Storm-Mathisen,
587 J., Descarries, L., *et al.* (1999). Unexpected localization of the Na⁺/Cl⁻-dependent-like orphan transporter, Rxt1,
588 on synaptic vesicles in the rat central nervous system. *Eur J Neurosci* 11, 1349-1361.

589 Moremen, K.W., Tiemeyer, M., and Nairn, A.V. (2012). Vertebrate protein glycosylation: diversity, synthesis and
590 function. *Nature Reviews Molecular Cell Biology* 13, 448-462.

591 Nakata, K., Okuda, T., and Misawa, H. (2004). Ultrastructural localization of high-affinity choline transporter in
592 the rat neuromuscular junction: Enrichment on synaptic vesicles. *Synapse* 53, 53-56.

593 Nguyen, L.N., Ma, D.L., Shui, G.H., Wong, P.Y., Cazenave-Gassiot, A., Zhang, X.D., Wenk, M.R., Goh, E.L.K., and
594 Silver, D.L. (2014). Mfsd2a is a transporter for the essential omega-3 fatty acid docosahexaenoic acid. *Nature* 509,
595 503-+.

596 Orre, L.M., Vesterlund, M., Pan, Y.B., Arslan, T., Zhu, Y.F., Woodbridge, A.F., Frings, O., Fredlund, E., and Lehtio, J.
597 (2019). SubCellBarCode: Proteome-wide Mapping of Protein Localization and Relocalization. *Mol Cell* 73, 166-+.

598 Perland, E., and Fredriksson, R. (2017). Classification Systems of Secondary Active Transporters. *Trends in*
599 *Pharmacological Sciences* 38, 305-315.

600 Renick, S.E., Kleven, D.T., Chan, J., Stenius, K., Milner, T.A., Pickel, V.M., and Fremeau, R.T. (1999). The mammalian
601 brain high-affinity L-proline transporter is enriched preferentially in synaptic vesicles in a subpopulation of
602 excitatory nerve terminals in rat forebrain. *Journal of Neuroscience* 19, 21-33.

603 Ribeiro, F.M., Alves-Silva, J., Volkhardt, W., Martins-Silva, C., Mahmud, H., Wilhelm, A., Gomez, M.V., Rylett, R.J.,
604 Ferguson, S.S.G., Prado, V.F., *et al.* (2003). The hemicholinium-3 sensitive high affinity choline transporter is
605 internalized by clathrin-mediated endocytosis and is present in endosomes and synaptic vesicles. *J Neurochem*
606 87, 136-146.

607 Sawada, K., Echigo, N., Juge, N., Miyaji, T., Otsuka, M., Omote, H., Yamamoto, A., and Moriyama, Y. (2008).
608 Identification of a vesicular nucleotide transporter. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences* 105, 5683-
609 5686.

610 Segawa, H., Kawakita, M., and Ishida, N. (2002). Human and Drosophila UDP-galactose transporters transport
611 UDP-N-acetylgalactosamine in addition to UDP-galactose. *Eur J Biochem* 269, 128-138.

612 Sesma, J.I., Esther, C.R., Kreda, S.M., Jones, L., O'Neal, W., Nishihara, S., Nicholas, R.A., and Lazarowski, E.R. (2009).
613 Endoplasmic reticulum/golgi nucleotide sugar transporters contribute to the cellular release of UDP-sugar
614 signaling molecules. *Journal of Biological Chemistry* 284, 12572-12583.

- Simpson, J.C., Wellenreuther, R., Poustka, A., Pepperkok, R., and Wiemann, S. (2000). Systematic subcellular localization of novel proteins identified by large-scale cDNA sequencing. *Embo Rep* 1, 287-292.
- Song, Z. (2013). Roles of the nucleotide sugar transporters (SLC35 family) in health and disease. *Molecular aspects of medicine* 34, 590-600.
- Sun-Wada, G.H., Yoshioka, S., Ishida, N., and Kawakita, M. (1998). Functional expression of the human UDP-galactose transporters in the yeast *Saccharomyces cerevisiae*. *Journal of Biochemistry* 123, 912-917.
- Takamori, S., Holt, M., Stenius, K., Lemke, E.A., Grønborg, M., Riedel, D., Urlaub, H., Schenck, S., Brügger, B., Ringler, P., *et al.* (2006). Molecular anatomy of a trafficking organelle. *Cell* 127, 831-846.
- Van Liefferinge, J., Massie, A., Portelli, J., Di Giovanni, G., and Smolders, I. (2013). Are vesicular neurotransmitter transporters potential treatment targets for temporal lobe epilepsy? *Frontiers in Cellular Neuroscience* 7.
- Vu, T.M., Ishizu, A.N., Foo, J.C., Toh, X.R., Zhang, F.Y., Whee, D.M., Torta, F., Cazenave-Gassiot, A., Matsumura, T., Kim, S., *et al.* (2017). Mfsd2b is essential for the sphingosine-1-phosphate export in erythrocytes and platelets. *Nature* 550, 524-+.
- Wenzel, H.J., Cole, T.B., Born, D.E., Schwartzkroin, P.A., and Palmiter, R.D. (1997). Ultrastructural localization of zinc transporter-3 (ZnT-3) to synaptic vesicle membranes within mossy fiber boutons in the hippocampus of mouse and monkey. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America* 94, 12676-12681.
- Zeisel, A., Hochgerner, H., Lönnerberg, P., Johnsson, A., Memic, F., van der Zwan, J., Haring, M., Braun, E., Borm, L.E., La Manno, G., *et al.* (2018). Molecular Architecture of the Mouse Nervous System. *Cell* 174, 999-+.
- Zhang, Z., Hao, C.J., Li, C.G., Zang, D.J., Zhao, J., Li, X.N., Wei, A.H., Wei, Z.B., Yang, L., He, X., *et al.* (2014). Mutation of SLC35D3 Causes Metabolic Syndrome by Impairing Dopamine Signaling in Striatal D1 Neurons. *Plos Genet* 10.

Figure 1. Localization profiling of SLC family members reveals candidate vesicular transporters

(A) Top: Schematic diagram of the localization profiling strategy. Red and green fluorescent signals were collected using confocal microscopy imaging of cultured rat neurons co-expressing mCherry-tagged SLC proteins and EGFP-tagged synaptophysin (SYP-EGFP). Bottom: Sequential steps used for the localization profiling. Two rounds of screening revealed a total of 40 out of 361 screened SLC transporters as candidate vesicular transporters.

(B) Representative images of neurons expressing SLC X-mCherry transporters (red) and SYP-EGFP (green). Scale bars: 10 μ m.

(C) Representative images of neurons expressing three known vesicular SLC transporters (red) and SYP-EGFP (green), with magnified views. White arrowheads indicate co-localization. Scale bars: 10 μ m.

(D) Representative images of neurons expressing three non-vesicular organelle markers (red) and SYP-EGFP (green), with magnified views. Scale bars: 10 μ m.

(E) Summary of the co-localization ratio between 134 proteins and SYP-EGFP. Dark gray bars represent known vesicular transporters, magenta bars represent SLC35 transporters, light gray bars represent non-vesicular organelle markers, and white bars represent the SLC transporters screened in this study. The threshold indicated by the vertical dashed line was defined as the co-localization ratio between VGLUT3 and SYP-EGFP. n = at least 3 neurons each.

(F,G) Representative images of neurons expressing vesicular (F) and non-vesicular

(G) SLC35 transporters (red) and SYP-EGFP (green), with magnified views. White arrowheads indicate co-localization. Scale bars: 10 μ m.

Figure 2. Proteomics profiling of SVs identifies novel putative vesicular SLC transporters

(A) Schematic diagram depicting the strategy for proteomics profiling of SVs immunisolated from fractionated mouse brain homogenates.

(B) Top: western blot analysis of the indicated protein markers for SVs and the postsynaptic marker PSD-95 in the input fraction (supernatant after centrifugation of whole brain lysates), the anti-SYP immunisolated sample, and the control IgG sample. Bottom: Ponceau staining of the membrane, showing the total proteins.

(C) Electron microscopy images of anti-SYP beads (top) and control IgG beads (bottom), with magnified views. Arrowheads indicate immunisolated SVs. Scale bars: 500 nm and 100 nm (magnified views). The bottom-left panel shows the quantification of the number of SVs attached to the indicated beads.

(D) Left: volcano plot depicting the proteins detected using SV proteomics. The blue dashed box indicates anti-SYP-enriched proteins using thresholds set at $p < 0.05$ and LFQ intensity $> 2^{20}$. $n = 3$ biological replicates. Right: magnified view of the anti-SYP-enriched proteins. Representative SV markers are shown in black, V-ATPase subunits are shown in purple, and known vesicular transporters are shown in red.

(E) Venn diagram showing the overlap between anti-SYP-enriched proteins (blue) and the known SV proteome based on the SynGO database (red).

(F) Summary of the percentage of overlap between anti-SYP–enriched proteins and the SV proteome (from the SynGO database), Golgi apparatus proteins (from UniProt), mitochondrial proteins (from UniProt), and the entire mouse proteome (from UniProt). (G) Summary of the SLC transporters identified using SV proteomics. Classic VNTs are shown in red, and SLC35 transporters are shown in magenta. The horizontal dashed line indicates the threshold at $p=0.05$. (I) Venn diagram showing the overlap between the vesicular transporters identified using localization profiling (yellow) and the vesicular transporters identified using proteomics profiling of SVs (blue). The three candidate SLC35 transporters are shown in magenta.

Figure 3. Validation of the vesicular localization of SLC35D3 using electron microscopy

(A) Schematic diagram depicting the APEX2-based labeling strategy for studying ultrastructural localization. (B-E) Representative EM images (left) and distribution of organelle darkness (right) of mitochondria in cultured rat neurons transfected with Mito-APEX2 (B), SVs in non-transfected neurons (C), and SVs in neurons transfected with either VGLUT1-APEX2 (D) or SLC35D3-APEX2 (E), with magnified views of the dashed boxes from panel E. The blue arrows and red arrowheads indicate organelles with low (light) and high (dark) electron density, respectively. Scale bars: 500 nm.

Figure 4. The targeted metabolite profiling reveals putative substrates of SLC35D3

(A) Phylogenetic tree of the SLC35 transporter family and known corresponding substrates. SLC35A2 and SLC35D3 are shown in blue and green, respectively.

(B) Left: representative HPLC-MS trace showing 5 μ M of the indicated nucleotide sugars. The inset shows the linear correlation between the UDP-glc standard and MS ion intensity ($R^2=0.997$). Right: molecular structures of the UDP-sugars UDP-glc, UDP-gal, UDP-glcNAc, and UDP-galNAc, with differences shown in the gray dashed boxes.

(C) Schematic diagram depicting the strategy for detecting metabolites in organelles and in whole cells.

(D) Representative traces of the indicated nucleotide sugars detected in control (SLC35A2KO) cells, with a magnified view at the right.

(E) Summary of the relative abundance of the indicated nucleotide sugars measured in control cells and cells overexpressing SLC35D3. $n = 5$ and 3 biological samples, respectively.

(F-G) Representative extracted ion chromatograms of specific nucleotide sugars (F) and summary of their relative abundance (G) in organelles isolated from control cells (gray) and cells overexpressing SLC35A2 (blue). N.D.: not detectable. $n = 3$ per group.

(H-I) Representative extracted ion chromatograms of specific nucleotide sugars (F) and summary of their relative abundance (G) in organelles isolated from control cells (gray) and cells overexpressing SLC35D3 (green). N.D.: not detectable. $n = 3$ per

group.

Figure 5. Validation and characterization of the UDP-glucose transport activity of SLC35D3

(A) Schematic diagram depicting the transport assay using organelles isolated from HEK293T cells.

(B) Summary of the transport of [^3H]-UDP-glc, [^3H]-UDP-gal, and [^3H]-UDP-glcNAc (500 nM each) in control (SLC35A2KO) cells and in cells overexpressing mouse SLC35D3 (mSLC35D3), human SLC35D3 (hSLC35D3), or human SLC35A2 (hSLC35A2); n = 3 experiments each.

(C) Competition assay measuring [^3H]-UDP-glc (500 nM) transport in the presence of the indicated non-labeled compounds (at 50 μM) in cells expressing SLC35D3; the data are expressed relative to mock cells, in which solvent was applied instead of a non-labeled compound; n = 3 experiments each.

(D) Time course of [^3H]-UDP-glc transport measured in cells expressing SLC35D3, relative to baseline. The data were fitted to a single-exponential function.

(E) Dose-response curve for [^3H]-UDP-glc transport in cells expressing SLC35D3, relative to the corresponding baseline values. The data were fitted to Michaelis–Menten kinetics equation.

(F) Schematic diagram depicting the proton gradient driving vesicular transporters, with specific inhibitors shown.

(G) Summary of [^3H]-UDP-glc transport measured in cells expressing SLC35D3,

expressed relative to mock cells, in which solvent was applied; n = 3 experiments each.
NEM, *N*-ethylmaleimide (0.2 mM); FCCP, carbonyl cyanide-4-(trifluoromethoxy)
phenylhydrazone (50 μM); Nig, Nigericin (5 μM); Baf, bafilomycin A1 (100 nM); Val,
valinomycin (20 μM).

Figure 6. Working model depicting SLC35D3 as a UDP-glucose transporter on SVs

SLC35D3 is a vesicular transporter which potentially mediate transport of UDP-glucose into SVs. UDP-glucose may function as a signaling molecule through a GPCR namely P2Y14.

Supplementary Figure S1. Repeatability of the proteomic data (related to Figure 2)

Scatterplots showing the correlation between independent biological trials.

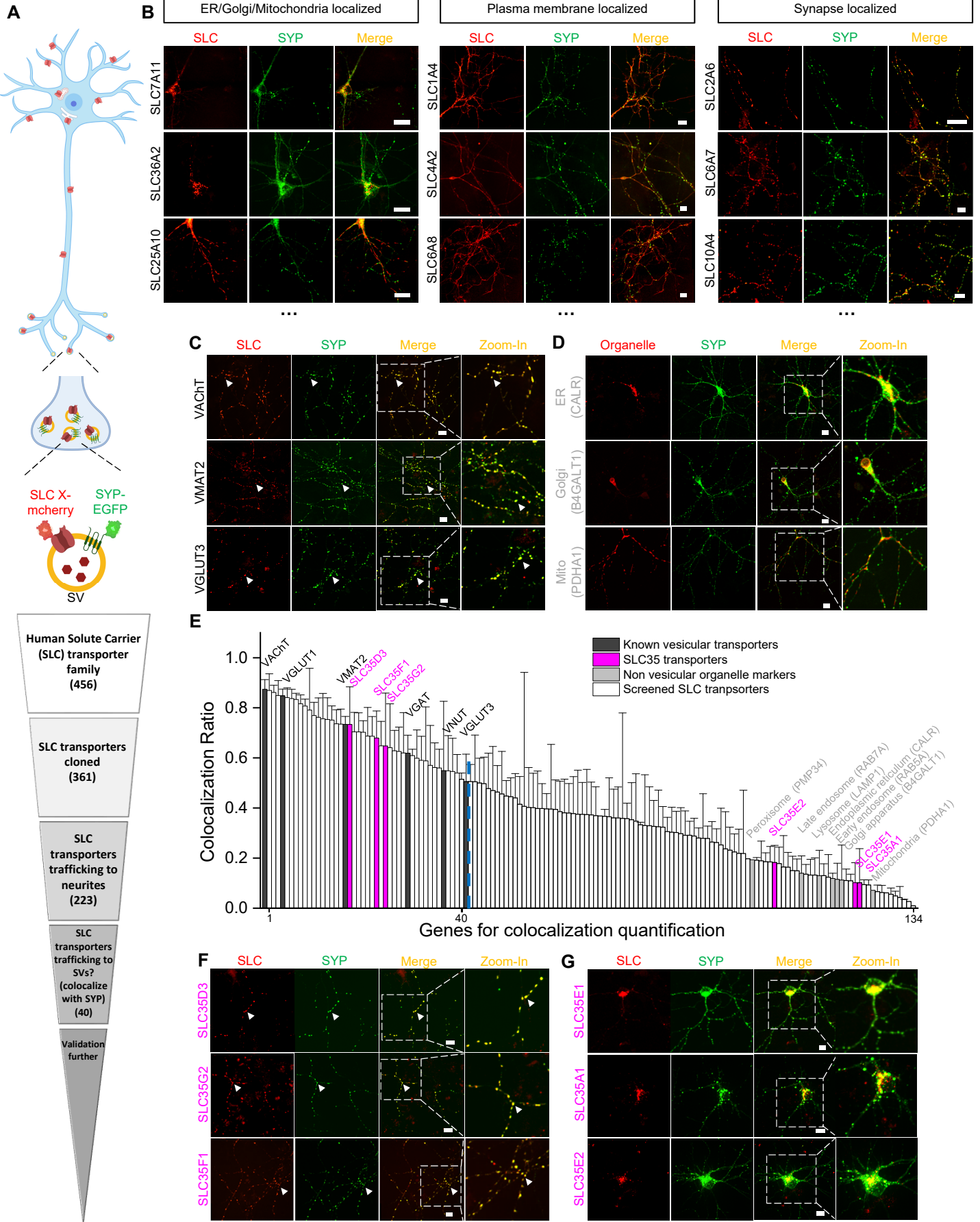
Supplementary Figure S2. Additional analysis of metabolite profiling (related to Figure 4)

(A) Representative brightfield (BF) and fluorescence (GFP) images of control (SLC35A2KO) cells and cells overexpressing EGFP-tagged SLC35A2 (SLC35A2-EGFP) or SLC35D3 (SLC35D3-EGFP). Scale bar: 10 μm.

(B) Representative full traces (left) and expanded views (right) of nucleotide sugars detected in organelles isolated from control cells (top) and from cells overexpressing

770 SLC35A2-EGFP (SLC35A2OE) or SLC35D3-EGFP (SLC35D3OE).

771



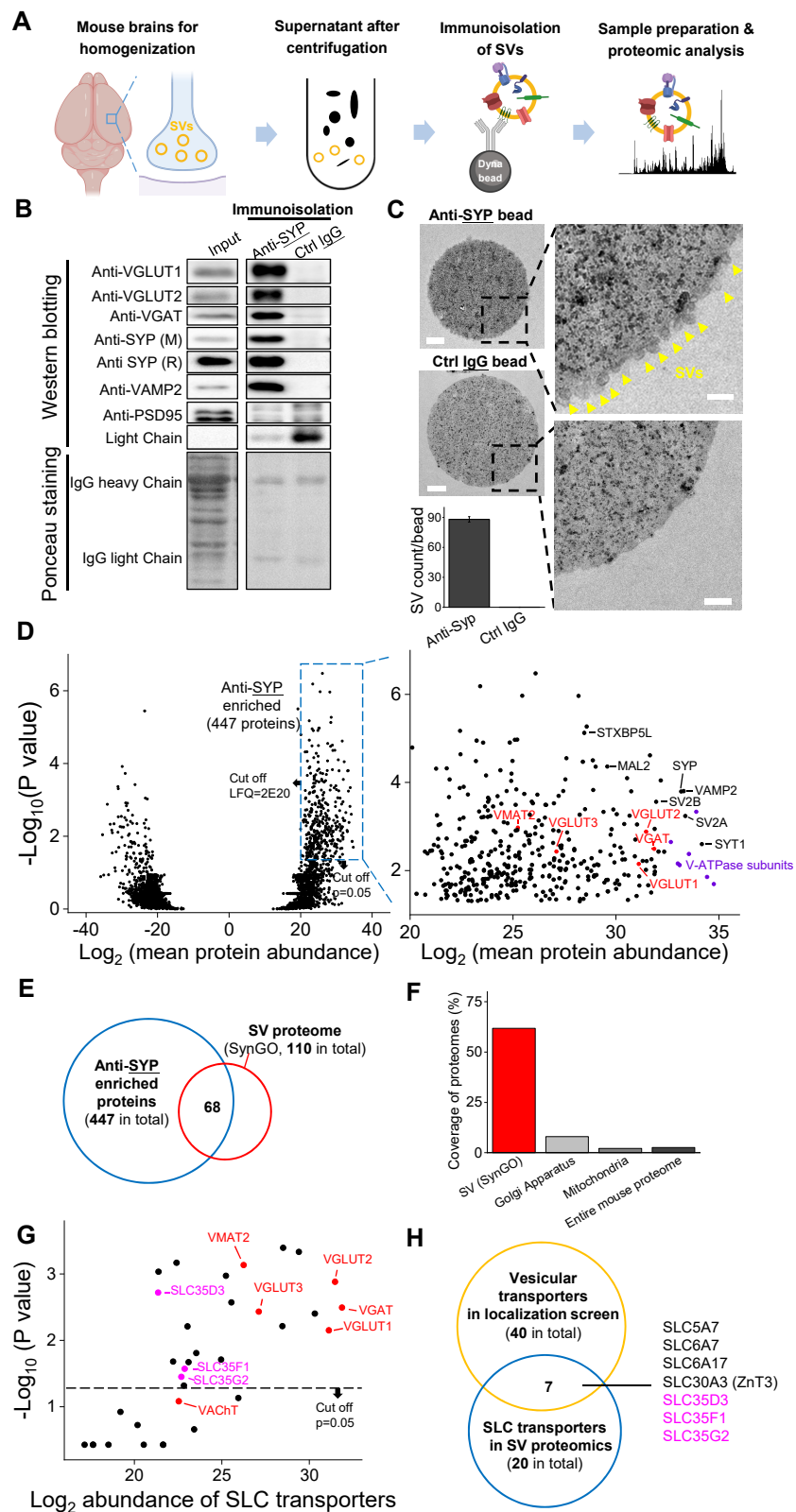
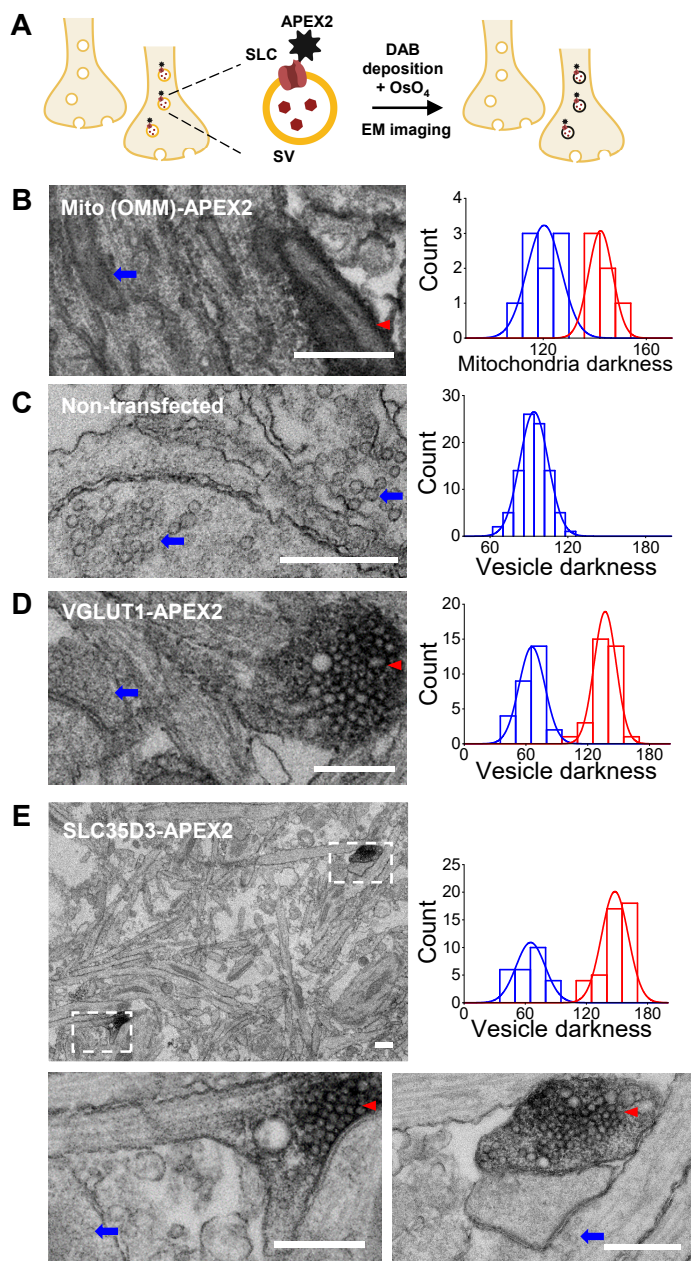


Figure 2. Proteomics profiling of SVs identifies novel putative vesicular SLC transporters



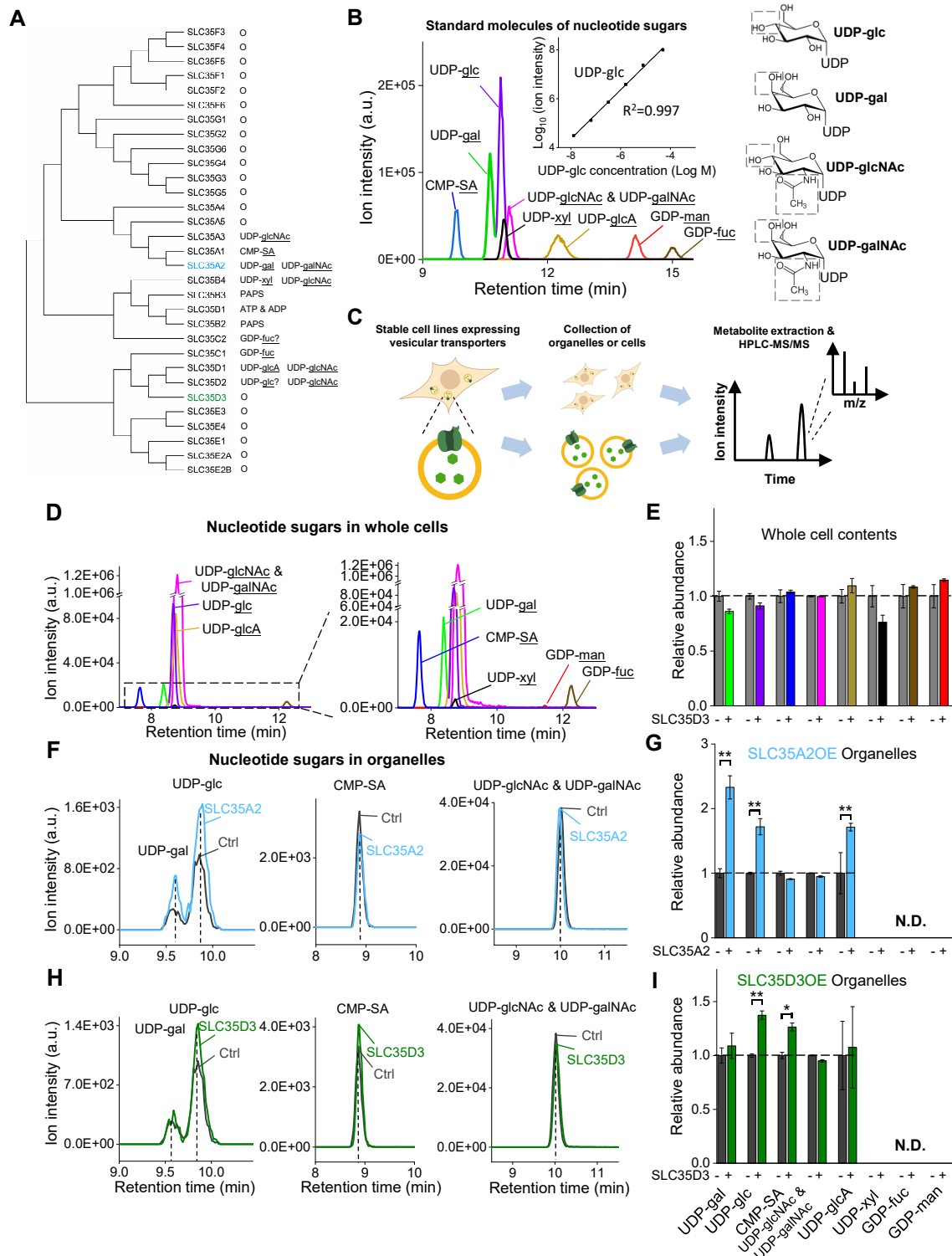


Figure 4. The targeted metabolite profiling reveals putative substrates of SLC35D3

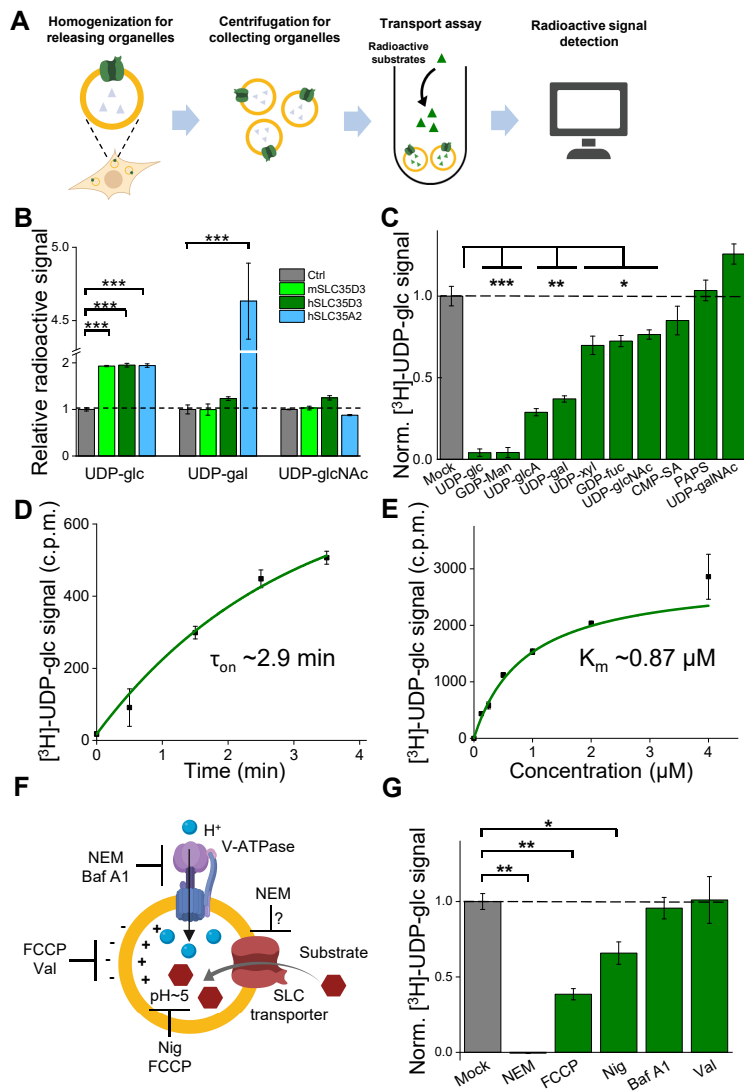


Figure 5. Validation and characterization of the UDP-glucose transport activity of SLC35D3

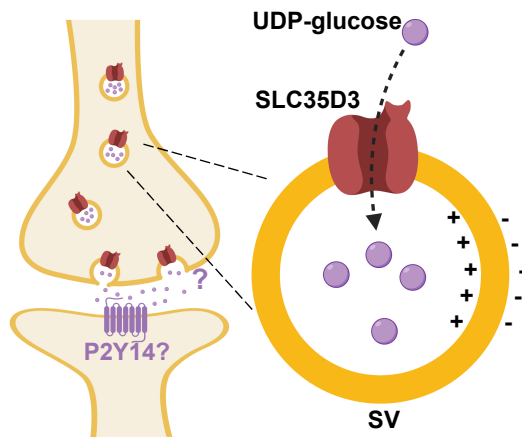
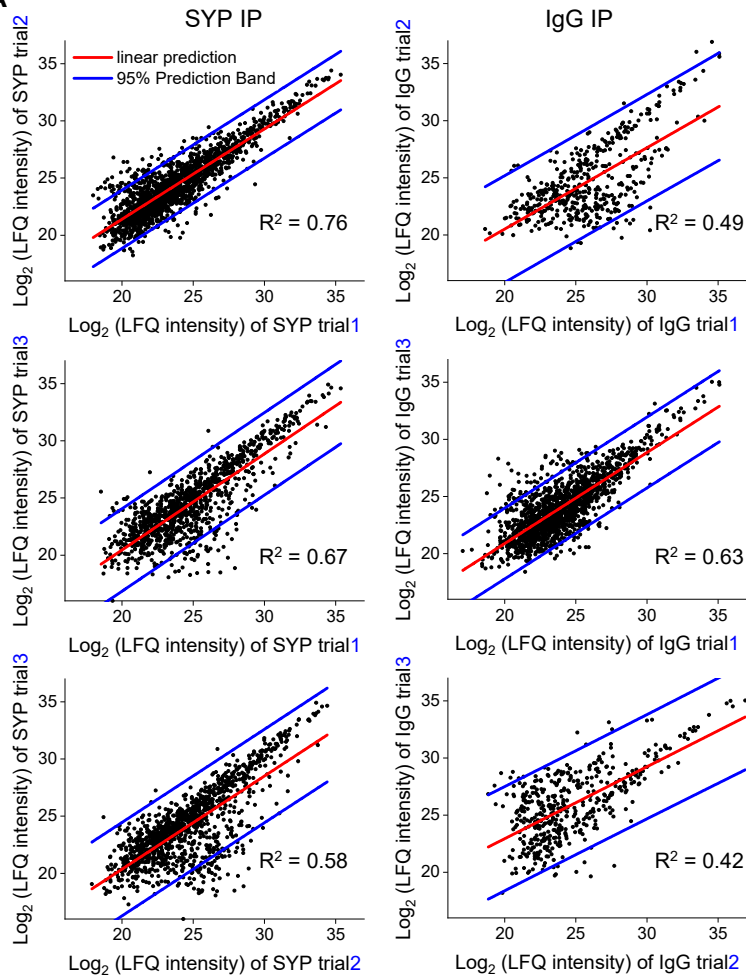
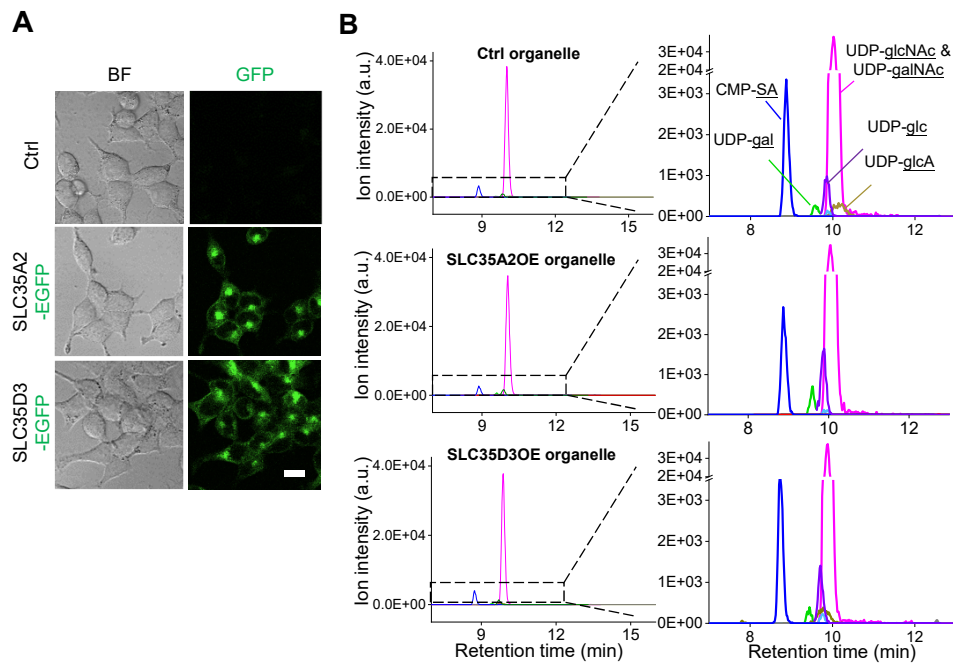


Figure 6. Working model depicting SLC35D3 as a UDP-glucose transporter on SVs

A



Supplementary Figure S1. Repeatability of the proteomic data (related to Figure 2)



Supplementary Figure S2. Additional analysis of metabolite profiling (related to Figure 4)

Family	Transporter
Facilitative GLUT transporter family	SLC2A6
Sodium glucose cotransporter family	SLC5A3
	SLC5A7
	SLC5A12
Sodium- and chloride-dependent neurotransmitter transporter family	SLC6A7
	SLC6A14
	SLC6A17
Cationic amino acid transporter/glycoprotein-associated family	SLC7A4
Na ⁺ /H ⁺ exchanger family	SLC9A1
Sodium bile salt cotransport family	SLC10A4
Folate/thiamine transporter family	SLC19A3
Organic anion transporter family	SLC21A9
Organic cation/anion/zwitterion transporter family	SLC22A6
	SLC22A24
Mitochondrial carrier family	SLC25A13
	SLC25A40
Multifunctional anion exchanger family	SLC26A11
Zinc efflux family	SLC30A3
Nucleoside-sugar transporter family	SLC35A2
	SLC35A3
	SLC35B1
	SLC35B4
	SLC35C1
	SLC35D2
	SLC35D3
	SLC35E4
	SLC35F1
	SLC35F2
	SLC35F3
	SLC35F6
	SLC35G2
Proton-coupled amino acid transporter family	SLC36A3
System A and System N sodium-coupled neutral amino acid transporter family	SLC38A4
	SLC38A6
Metal ion transporter family	SLC39A5
Basolateral iron transporter family	SLC40A1
MgtE-like magnesium transporter family	SLC41A2
Na ⁺ -independent, system-L-like amino acid transporter family	SLC43A3
Heme transporter family	SLC48A1
Riboflavin transporter family	SLC52A3

Supplementary table 1. Vesicular transporters identified in SLC localization profiling, related to Figure 1

Family	Transporter	Reported	Ref
Vesicular glutamate transporter	SLC17A6 (VGLUT2)	Yes	Known vesicular transporters
	SLC17A7 (VGLUT1)	Yes	
	SLC17A8 (VGLUT3)	Yes	
Vesicular amine transporter	SLC18A2 (VMAT2)	Yes	
	SLC18A3 (VACHT)	Yes	
Vesicular inhibitory amino acid transporter	SLC32A1 (VGAT)	Yes	
Zinc efflux family	SLC30A3 (ZNT3)	Yes	<i>Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences</i> 93.25 (1996): 14934-14939.
Facilitative GLUT transporter	SLC2A3	Yes	<i>The Journal of Neuroscience</i> : (2010):2-12.
	SLC2A13	Yes	<i>Cell</i> 127.4 (2006): 831-846
Cationic amino acid transporter/glycoprotein-associated	SLC7A14	Yes	<i>Cell</i> 127.4 (2006): 831-846
Na ⁺ /Ca ²⁺ exchanger	SLC8A1	Yes	<i>The Journal of Neuroscience</i> : (2010):2-12.
	SLC8A2	Yes	<i>The Journal of Neuroscience</i> : (2010):2-12.
Na ⁺ /H ⁺ exchanger	SLC9A7	Transport activity reported	<i>Nature neuroscience</i> 14.10 (2011): 1285.
Sodium- and chloride-dependent neurotransmitter transporter	SLC6A7	Yes	<i>Journal of Neuroscience</i> 19.1 (1999): 21-33.
	SLC6A17	Yes	<i>Molecular pharmacology</i> 74.6 (2008): 1521-1532.
	SLC6A1	No	<i>Journal of Biological Chemistry</i> 284.13 (2009): 8439-8448.
Heavy subunits of the heteromeric amino acid transporter	SLC3A2	No	
Bicarbonate transporter	SLC4A10	No	
Sodium glucose cotransporter	SLC5A7	No	
Electroneutral cation-coupled Cl cotransporter	SLC12A7	No	
	SLC12A6	No	
	SLC12A9	No	
Type III Na ⁺ -phosphate cotransporter	SLC20A2	No	
Organic cation/anion/zwitterion transporter	SLC22A17	No	
Nucleoside-sugar transporter	SLC35D3	No	
	SLC35F1	No	
	SLC35G2	No	

Supplementary table 2. SLC transporters enriched in immunoisolated synaptic vesicles, related to Figure 2