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Single-subunit oligosaccharyltransferases of *Trypanosoma brucei* display different and predictable peptide acceptor specificities.

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ABSTRACT

Trypanosoma brucei causes African trypanosomiasis and contains three full-length oligosaccharyltransferase (OST) genes; two of which, TbSTT3A and TbSTT3B, are expressed in the bloodstream form of the parasite. These OSTs have different peptide acceptor and lipidlinked oligosaccharide donor specificities and trypanosomes do not follow many of the canonical rules developed for other eukaryotic *N*-glycosylation pathways, raising questions as to the basic architecture and detailed function of trypanosome OSTs. Here, we show by bluenative gel electrophoresis and stable isotope labelling in cell culture proteomics that the TbSTT3A and TbSTT3B proteins associate with each other in large complexes that contain no other detectable protein subunits. We probed the peptide acceptor specificities of the OSTs in vivo using a transgenic glycoprotein reporter system and performed glycoproteomics on endogenous parasite glycoproteins using sequential endoglycosidase-H and peptide-N-glycosidase-F digestions. This allowed us to assess the relative occupancies of numerous *N*-glycosylation sites bv N-glycans endoglycosidase-H resistant originating from Man₅GlcNAc₂-PP-dolichol transferred by TbSTT3A, and endoglycosidase-H sensitive N-glycans originating from Man₉GlcNAc₂-PP-dolichol transferred bv TbSTT3B. Using machine learning we assessed the features that best define TbSTT3A and TbSTT3B substrates in vivo and built an algorithm to predict the types of N-glycan most likely to predominate at all the putative Nglycosylation sites in the parasite proteome. Lastly, molecular modelling was used to suggest why TbSTT3A has a distinct preference for sequons containing and/or flanked by acidic amino acid residues. Together, these studies provide insights into how a highly divergent eukaryote has re-wired protein N-glycosylation to provide protein sequence-specific N-glycan modifications. Data are available via ProteomeXchange with identifiers PXD007236, PXD007267 and PXD007268.

INTRODUCTION

The tsetse-fly transmitted protozoan parasite Trypanosoma brucei and its close relatives are responsible for human and animal African trypanosomiasis. The animal-infecting bloodstream forms of these organisms depend on surface coats made of glycosylphosphatidylinositol (GPI) anchored and N-glycosylated variant surface glycoprotein (VSG) to evade the innate host immune system (1) and the acquired immune system through antigenic variation (2). Further, they express many less abundant glycoproteins such as their novel receptors transferrin (3-5),novel а lysosomal/endosomal protein called p67 (6), the so-called invariant surface glycoproteins (ISGs) invariant endoplasmic reticulum (7)and glycoproteins (IGPs) (8), the Golgi/lysosmal glycoprotein tGLP-1 (9), the membrane-bound

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histidine acid phosphatase TbMBAP1 (10), the flagellar adhesion zone glycoproteins Fla1 and Fla2 (11) and others. While some of these are bloodstream form specific glycoproteins (VSGs, ISGs. TbMAP1. transferrin receptors), others are common to the tsetse midgut-dwelling procyclic form of the parasite. Further, procyclic form parasites also express unique glycoproteins, notably the abundant GPI-anchored procyclins some of which are N-glycosylated (12,13), and the partially characterised high-molecular weight glycoconjugate (14,15). Many of the N-glycan structures expressed by T. brucei have been solved and these include conventional oligomannose and biantennary complex structures as well as paucimannose and extremely unusual 'giant' poly-N-acetyl-lactosamine (poly-LacNAc) containing complex structures in the bloodstream form of the parasite (16-19). In contrast, only oligomannose N-glycans have been structurally described in wild type procyclic trypanosomes(12,20).

The unusual repertoire of *T. brucei* bloodstream form *N*-glycans and the original observation by Bangs and colleagues that EndoH-resistant *N*-glycans appear immediately following protein synthesis (21) and not following transport to the Golgi apparatus, has stimulated our group to study the fundamentals of protein *N*-glycosylation in this divergent eukaryotic pathogen.

Protein N-glycosylation is believed to be a ubiquitous post-translational modification among the eukaryotes, with the canonical model based primarily on extensive studies in mammalian cells and the yeast Saccharomyces cerevisiae, reviewed in (22,23). In this canonical model, there are a number of tenets that include: (i) The mature lipidlinked oligosaccharide (LLO) donor and preferred substrate for oligosaccharyltransferases (OSTs) is Glc₃Man₉GlcNA₂-PP-dolichol. (ii) The OSTs are hetero-oligomers of 8 or 9 distinct subunits. (iii) The OSTs may fall into two classes (A and B) according to their subunit composition with different peptide acceptor specificities. (iv) The UDP-glucose: ER enzyme glycoprotein glucosyltransferase (UGGT) operates on triantennary Man₉₋₇GlcNA₂ structures with a complete a-branch, but not on bi-antennary structures. (v) The action of Golgi mannosidase II is a pre-requisite for the conversion of oligomannose to complex N-glycans. (vi) The enzymes GnTI and GnTII have strict acceptor substrate specificities, operating on Man₅GlcNA₂ and GlcNAcMan₃GlcNA₂, respectively. However, none of these tenets apply to N-glycosylation in the protozoan parasite Trypanosoma brucei where: (i) The largest LLO is Man₉GlcNA₂ (24,25) and where different OSTs preferentially transfer either this structure or bi-antennary Man₅GlcNA₂ (25-28) (ii) There is no evidence for OST subunits other than the catalytic SST3 subunits in T. brucei or the related parasites Trypanosoma cruzi and the Leishmania (26,28-32). (iii) OST sub-classes and their peptide acceptor specificities (which are more disparate in T. brucei than for other eukaryotes) are defined only by their STT3 components (28). (iv) The parasite UGGT works efficiently on all structures (bi- and tri-antennary) with an intact A-branch (33). (v) Golgimannosidase II is absent, preventing the conversion form the oligomannose series to the complex series of N-glycans (25). (vi) The parasite GnTI and GnTII BGlcNAc-transferases have different specificities to canonical GnTIs and GnTIIs and belong to a different GT family (34,35).

Here, we: (i) Directly address the oligomeric states of T. brucei STT3 subunits. (ii) Look for evidence for any non-canonical OST subunits in addition to the TbSTT3s. (iii) Probe the peptide acceptor specificities of TbSTT3A (Tb927.5.890) and *Tb*STT3B (Tb927.5.900) using a reporter glycoprotein expression system and by glycoproteomics. (iv) Use machine learning to predict which putative N-glycosylation sites in bloodstream form T. brucei will be modified by TbSTT3A or TbSTT3A.

RESULTS

Blue native gel electrophoresis of in situ tagged TbSTT3A suggests it is present in high weight molecular complexes. To enable immunoprecipitation of TbSTT3A, the 3'-end of the endogenous gene in a heterozygote cell line (TbSTT3A/B/C^{+/-}) was in situ tagged with a sequence encoding a C-terminal HA₃ epitope. Transfected cells were cloned and analysed by Southern blotting to confirm correct insertion of the tag (Figure S1A). To check that the tag did not impair the function of *Tb*STT3A, the glycosylation of VSG221 was analysed in these cells. VSG221 receives different types of glycan at the two Nglycosylation sequons in the protein; EndoHresistant Man₅GlcNAc₂ at N263 and EndoH-Man₉GlcNAc₂ at sensitive N428 (17, 28).Following PNGaseF and EndoH treatment the

typical digestion pattern for wild-type VSG221 was seen also for the transgenic cells (Figure S1B), showing that C-terminally tagged TbSTT3A-HA₃ is functional. Subsequently, cells were lysed under mild conditions (0.5% digitonin on ice for 30 min) and the clarified cell lysates were incubated with anti-HA mouse antibody, followed by magnetic beads coupled to protein G. The pull-out eluates were analysed by SDS-PAGE and Western blotting using an anti-HA antibody. As expected, epitope tagged TbSTT3A-HA₃ was detected running just below the position of the 75 kDa molecular weight marker in the TbSTT3A-HA₃ pull-out, whereas no band was seen in the wildtype cell pull-out (Figure 1A). However, when same eluates were analysed by blue native gel electrophoresis and anti-HA Western blotting, a smear (specific for the *Tb*STT3A-HA₃ cell line) was detected between 700 and 1200 kDa, suggesting that TbSTT3A is present in large complexes (Figure 1B).

SILAC proteomics shows TbSTT3A and TbSTT3B form hetero-oligomeric complexes without other subunits. Since the results from the blue native gel electrophoresis suggested TbSTT3A is present in high molecular weight complexes, we carried out pull-out experiments using stable isotope labelling in cell culture (SILAC). For this experiment, wild-type and transgenic parasites (expressing *Tb*STT3A-HA₃) were grown under identical conditions for eight cell divisions, except that the transgenic TbSTT3A-HA₃ cell line was grown in "heavy medium" containing stable isotope-labelled Lys and Arg (R_6K_4) , whereas the wild-type cells were grown in "light medium" containing unlabelled Lys and Arg (R_0K_0). The transgenic *Tb*STT3A-HA₃ and the wild-type cells were harvested, washed, counted, mixed together in a 1:1 ratio and lysed in 0.5 % digitonin buffer. Anti-HA antibodies and protein G magnetic beads were used to pull-out the TbSTT3A-HA₃ tagged protein, and any binding partners, and the bead eluate was processed to tryptic peptides for LC-MS/MS analysis. In this kind of SILAC experiment, TbSTT3A-HA₃ and any proteins specifically associated with it can be distinguished from nonspecific contaminant proteins by the isotope ratios of their tryptic peptides. Thus, TbSTT3A-HA₃ and true associated protein peptides will have heavy/light isotope ratios, high whereas contaminant proteins will have approximately equal heavy/light isotope ratios (Figure 2A). The data set from the experiment was used to search a *T. brucei* predicted protein database using MaxQuant software. Each protein was displayed on a plot of the Log_{10} value of the intensities of the unique peptides of that protein (y axis) and the Log_2 value of the heavy to light isotope ratios of the same peptides (x axis) (Figure 2B). The *Tb*STT3A-HA₃ (bait) protein had the highest heavy/light ratio (14 : 1), closely followed by *Tb*STT3B (10 : 1). Only three other proteins were significantly enriched (orange crosses, Figure 2B). However, these were only marginally (1.5-fold) enriched hits that are not known to localise to the ER.

The *Tb*STT3A-HA₃ cell line was further modified by the *in-situ* tagging of the remaining TbSTT3B allele, to yield a cell line expressing C-terminally TbSTT3B-MYC₃. MYC₃-tagged Α complementary SILAC experiment, using in situ TbSTT3B-MYC₃ tagged bait and an anti-MYC pull-out, produced similar result to the TbSTT3A-HA₃ pull-out, with *Tb*STT3A being the only obvious binding partner for TbSTT3B-MYC₃ (Figure 2C). In this case, there was one other significant protein hit (orange cross, Figure 2C), corresponding to a glucose transporter, but this was different from those seen in (Figure 2B) and also unlikely to be an ER component.

Taken together, these data suggest that TbSTT3A and TbSTT3A form hetero-oligomeric complexes, with no other candidate subunits, although we cannot rule out the presence of low-affinity subunits that might be lost during immunoprecipitation.

The data for the SILAC proteomics experiments can be found at ProteomeXchange under entry PXD007236.

Co-immunoprecipitation of *Tb***STT3A-HA**₃ **and** *Tb***STT3B-MYC**₃. The result from the SILAC pull-out experiments suggested that *Tb***STT3A** is in a complex with *Tb***STT3B** and to further test this hypothesis immunoprecipitation (IP) experiments were performed. Cells from the double-tagged cell line were harvested, washed and lysed in 0.5 % digitonin and *Tb***STT3A-HA**₃ or *Tb***STT3B-MYC**₃ was captured from the lysate using anti-HA or anti-MYC magnetic beads. Subsequently, the tagged proteins were detected by Western blotting using anti-HA and anti-MYC antibodies. Wild type cell lysates (containing no HA or MYC tagged genes) were used as a control. The results from the co-IP experiments are shown in (Figure

3). As expected, no bands in the region of TbSTT3A-HA₃ or TbSTT3B-MYC₃ were seen in the IPs from the control wild-type lysates (Figure 3, lanes 1, 3, 5 and 7). Also, as expected, TbSTT3A-HA₃ and TbSTT3B-MYC₃ were detected in the homologous anti-HA IP / anti-HA blot (Figure 3, lane 2) and anti-MYC IP / anti-MYC blot (Figure 3, lane 8). Significantly, TbSTT3B-MYC₃ can be seen to co-IP with TbSTT3A-HA₃ (Figure 3, lane 6) and TbSTT3A-HA₃ (Figure 3, lane 4), confirming their physical association predicted by the SILAC experiment.

In these experiments, the anti-HA IP / anti-HA Western blot signal for TbSTT3A-HA₃ is much stronger than the anti-MYC IP / anti-MYC Western blot signal for TbSTT3B-MYC₃. While some of this difference may be due to relative antibody affinities, it is also consistent with the higher expression of TbSTT3A in wild-type bloodstream form trypanosomes at both the mRNA and protein levels (28,36). The co-IP data suggest that a significant proportion of the total TbSTT3B-MYC₃ appears in the TbSTT3A-HA₃ IP (Figure 3, compare lanes 6 and 8), whereas only a minority of TbSTT3A-HA₃ appears in the TbSTT3B-MYC₃ IP (Figure 3, compare lanes 2 and 4). These data suggest that there may be some weight molecular complexes high made exclusively, or almost exclusively, of TbSTT3A whereas all, or most, of the TbSTT3B is present in complexes containing TbSTT3A.

Probing peptide acceptor substrate specificities of TbSTT3A and TbSTT3A using a reporter glycoprotein expression system. TbSTT3A is responsible for co-translational transfer of biantennary Man₅GlcNAc₂ predominantly to Nglycosylation sequons containing and/or flanked by acidic amino acids, whereas TbSTT3B catalyses post translational transfer of triantennary $Man_9GlcNAc_2$ to the remaining sterically accessible sequons (28). To improve our understanding of the acceptor peptide specificity in T. brucei, an in vivo assay was established using an artificial reporter glycoprotein, based on the TbBiPN system described in (37). TbBiPN is a non-glycosylated truncated version of TbBiP, retaining its N-terminal signal peptide but lacking its C-terminal ER retention peptide, which enters the ER and is eventually secreted out of the cell via the Golgi apparatus. A pLEW82 expression plasmid (38) was modified to contain the TbBiPN open reading frame fused to a 3'-sequence into which we could insert additional sequences, via AvrII and MfeI restriction sites, immediately upstream of a C-terminal HA₃ epitope tag. This construct was used to introduce sequences encoding a single reporter *N*-glycosylation sequon, flanked by five amino acid residues on each side. These TbBiP*N*-[XXXXX<u>NXT</u>XXXX]-HA₃ constructs were transformed into bloodstream form trypanosomes to express the reporter glycoprotein.

We first validated the in vivo reporter assay by introducing TEGLLNATDEIAL and TILKSNYTAEPVR into the TbBiPN construct and expressing them in T. brucei. The former sequence (with a pI of 3.42) is found in VSG MITat1.8 and is known, in that context, to receive exclusively biantennary Man₅GlcNAc₂ from *Tb*STT3A (39), whereas the latter (with a pI of 8.3) is found in the ESAG6 subunit of the transferrin receptor and is known not to be recognised and modified by TbSTT3A and, therefore, receives exclusively triantennary Man₉GlcNAc₂ from TbSTT3B (5). Aliquots of trypanosome lysates expressing these constructs were treated with and without EndoH or PNGaseF, followed by SDS-PAGE gel and Western blotting with anti-HA antibodies. The endoglycosidase EndoH can only triantannary Man₉GlcNAc₂ digest glycans transferred by TbSTT3B, whereas PNGaseF can digest both Man₉GlcNAc₂ and biantennary Man₅GlcNAc₂ transferred by *Tb*STT3A. Thus, distinct digestion patterns, depending on what type(s) of glycan(s) are bound to the sequon asparagine, can be visualised by Western blotting. The in vivo reporter assay faithfully recapitulated the experimental data for the VSG MITat1.8 and ESAG6 glycosylation sites. with TEGLLNATDEIAL- and TILKSNYTAEPVRcontaining *Tb*BipN glycoproteins occupied predominantly by EndoH-resistant and EndoHsensitive glycans, respectively (Figure S2).

Next, we investigated how each position flanking and within the sequon affects *Tb*STT3A recognition and transfer. First, the neutral sequence AAAAA<u>NAT</u>AAAAA (pI 6.01) was introduced into the reporter glycoprotein. For this construct, the majority (about 93% as measured by quantitative Licor imaging of the upper and lower bands of the EndoH-digests) of the anti-HA binding signal was sensitive to EndoH (Figure 4A, lane 1; Table 1). One aspartic acid was then introduced in all eleven possible positions, yielding peptides with the same pI value (3.10), and the proportion of the reporter glycoprotein processed by *Tb*STT3A (and therefore resistant to EndoH) was measured (Figure 4A, lanes 2 and 3; Table 1). The quantitative data, derived from two technical replicates of three biological replicates (Table 1), are summarised in (Figure 4B). From these data, it can be seen that the aspartic acid scan across the different positions leads to variation in recognition and glycan transfer by *TbSTT3A*; with the two positions immediately flanking the Asn residue apparently having the greatest influence and with residues *N*-terminal to the glycosylation sequon having greater influence to those C-terminal to the sequon.

Probing endogenous peptide acceptor substrate specificities of TbSTT3A and TbSTT3B by glycoproteomics. The glycoproteomics data from (28)were reprocessed and significantly augmented by combing them with data derived from the experiments outlined in Experimental Procedures. These experiments assess whether the endogenous trypanosome N-glycosylation sites are occupied by EndoH-sensitive oligomannose glycans (originating from the action of *Tb*STT3B) or by EndoH-resistant paucimannose and/or complex glycans (originating from the action of TbSTT3A).

Parasites were osmotically lysed to release >90% of the VSG coat as soluble form VSG (sVSG), through the action of the endogenous GPI-specific phospholipase C (40,41). The recovered cell ghosts, containing majority of the non-VSG cellular glycoproteins, were solubilized, denatured and S-alkylated. This preparation was then processed in two ways. In one approach the intact glycoproteins were first affinity purified using immobilized ricin (RCA120) and Concanavalin-A (ConA) lectins. The enriched glycoproteins were then sequentially digested with EndoH and PNGaseF (the latter in the presence of $H_2[^{18}O]$), and digested with Lys-C and trypsin. In the other approach the denatured and S-alkylated proteins were first digested with Lys-C and trypsin and the glycopeptides were trapped with ricin (RCA_{120}) and ConA and subsequently digested with EndoH and PNGaseF (the latter in the presence of $H_2[^{18}O]$). In both cases, the resulting peptides were analysed by LC-MS/MS and the data used to search the T. brucei predicted protein database allowing for the possible presence of Asn-N-GlcNAc residues, the product of EndoH cleavage, and/or for the conversion of Asn residues into ¹⁸O]Asp residues, the product of PNGaseF cleavage. These data, and reprocessed data from Izquierdo et al. (28), are shown in (Supplementary Table S1). Peptides containing Asn-N-GlcNAc and/or [¹⁸O]Asp within an Asn-X-Ser/Thr sequon that were detected ≥ 3 times were assigned as being predominantly TbSTT3A or TbSTT3B substrates when the proportion of the [¹⁸O]Asp feature was ≥ 0.8 and ≤ 0.4 , respectively (Supplementary Table S2). We then analysed the amino acid frequencies immediately adjacent to Nglycosylation sequons of the assigned TbTT3A and TbTT3B substrates using WebLogo (42). The enrichment of negatively charged residues is the most striking feature of the TbSTT3A substrates (Figure 5A) along with a bias towards Thr over Ser in the sequon +2 position. Conversely, the TbSTT3B substrates are relatively enriched for positively charged residues upstream of the sequon but show no preference for Thr over Ser in the +2position (Figure 5B). The data were also analysed by the two-sample logo visualization method (43), which compares two input peptide sequence lists against each other, highlighting features that predominate in each. This suggests enrichment for negatively charged amino acids, especially at positions -6, - 3, +6 and +7 for the TbSTT3A substrates and a preference for hydrophobic and positively charge amino acids in the -1 to -5 positions of the TbSTT3B substrates (Figure 5C).

The reprocessed data of (19) can be found at ProteomeXchange under entry PXD007237 and the new glycoproteomics data under PXD007238.

Building a glycosylation site predictor for T. brucei using machine learning. Machine learning has been successfully used in biological research to infer the peptide recognition specificities of, for example, protein kinases, phosphatases and SH2 domains (44). The first step of machine learning consists in transforming peptide sequences into biochemical features such as charge, hydrophobicity and relative positions. These features, organized in a machine-readable template, are than evaluated by artificial intelligence algorithms to highlight which amino acid properties of a peptide sequences are the most important in determining substrate recognition. We therefore decided to apply a machine learning approach to further leverage our glycoproteomics and glycoprotein reporter data and build an ensemble of prediction algorithms to assign putative N-glycosylation sites in the predicted T. brucei proteome. This ensemble algorithm (Voting Classifier) averages the outputs of a Random Forest classifier (RF), an Extra Tree Classifier (ETC) and a Support Vector Machine (SVM) classifier to predict which putative N-glycosylation sites will more likely be modified by TbSTT3A or TbSTT3B. The RF, ETC and SVM classifiers all weigh the features derived from the upstream (aminoterminal) side of the glycosylation sequon more than the features extracted from the downstream (carboxy-terminal) side (Supplementary Figure S3A-C). Moreover, the RF, ETC and SVM classifiers all preferentially use the cumulative negative charge upstream of the glycosylated asparagine, and the hydrophobicity of the upstream and downstream, peptide to discriminate between TbSTT3A and TbSTT3B substrates (Figure S4). We could detect a core of 5 important features shared by the three classifiers, namely the charge at pH 7.3 and the isoelectric point for the sequon ± 10 amino acid residues, the cumulative charge upstream the modified asparagine with a window of 13 and 16 amino acids and the bonus score derived from the aspartic acid scanning experiment described in (Figure 4), see Experimental Procedures. A list of putative N-glycosylation sites and the Voting Classifier predictions are shown in (Supplementary Table S3). We performed a twosample logo visualization on the output (Figure 5D). As expected, the trends in plot are similar to those generated from the glycoproteomics data alone (Figure 5C).

Molecular modelling. Although TbSTT3C (Tb927.5.910) has not been studied in this paper because it is not expressed at detectable levels in bloodstream form T. brucei, data from its heterologous expression in yeast suggests that its peptide acceptor specificity is much more similar to TbSTT3A than TbSTT3B (28,45). To try to rationalise the preferences of TbSTT3A and TbSTT3C for acceptor sequons containing and/or flanked by negatively charged amino acid residues, we built molecular models of TbSTT3A, TbSTT3B and TbSTT3C using Phyre2 (46) based on the Campylobacter lari PglB structure (47). The predicted models were aligned with the PglB structure using PDBeFold (48) and the binding pockets of TbSTT3A and TbSTT3B were visualized with Chimera (49). Next, we looked for basic amino acid residues that were conserved in TbSTT3A and TbSTT3C that were different in TbSTT3B (Figure S6). Of these, the active site proximal residue 397 is particularly interesting as it contains a His residue in *Tb*STT3B but an Arg residue in *Tb*STT3A and *Tb*STT3C. Arginine has a flexible and strongly basic guanidinium cation side chain that could conceivably interact with acidic amino acid residues at or close to the NXS/T glycosylation sequon in the active site. Position 406 contains an Arg residue in *Tb*STT3A and *Tb*STT3C (in place of a neutral Gly residues in *Tb*STT3B) that could also conceivably interact with sequon-adjacent anionic residues in the acceptor peptide. Such ionic interactions between the acceptor peptide and the enzyme surface might increase the efficiency of substrate recognition and glycosylation of sequons containing and/or flanked by acidic amino acids.

DISCUSSION

Although the T. brucei genome does not encode for any indentifiable OST subunits, other than three intact and one truncated TbSTT3, we decided to investigate whether there might be novel noncanonical T. brucei OST subunits. Precedents for kinetoplastid-specific subunits of otherwise conserved cellular machineries include clathrinassociating proteins and endocytic components (50,51), exocyst components (52), nuclear pore complex and nuclear lamina components (53,54) and subunits of the GPI transamidase (55). Bluenative gel electrophoresis of gently solubilised epitope-tagged endogenous TbSTT3A showed that it is present in high-molecular weight complexes, but quantitative SILAC proteomics of tagged TbSTT3A and TbSTT3B pull-outs showed that while these are mutual binding partners (confirmed by co-immunoprecipitation), no other subunits could be found by these methods. The lack of non-canonical or canonical T. brucei OST subunits (other than the STT3 catalytic subunits) is consistent with the ease with which T. brucei and other kinetoplastid STT3s can be functionally expressed in other eukaryotes, like S. cerevisiae and Pichia pastoris (29,31,32,56). Nevertheless, the blue-native gel and co-immunoprecipitation experiments show that, at least in the native environment of a bloodstream form trypanosome. TbSTT3A associates with itself and with the lessabundant TbSTT3B to form complexes with apparent molecular weights of between 600 kDa and 1.2 MDa. The nature of these complexes remains to be determined but has implications for how and whether TbSTT3s associate with the parasite translocon complex and how they access

nascent glycoprotein sequons during and/or following protein translocation. The dimer/oligomer nature of yeast OST subunits, including Stt3, has been previously described (57).

To probe *Tb*STT3 peptide acceptor substrate specificities. we developed an artificial glycoprotein reporter system, based on a truncated version of TbBiP (37) fused to a single glycosylation sequon flanked by five variable residues on either side. Constructs were expressed in bloodstream form T. brucei and their products assayed for the relative proportions of Nglycosylation by TbSTT3A and TbSTT3B. With this we able to recapitulate the preferential Nglycosylations of native peptide acceptor sequences. We then applied the system to analyse the N-glycosylation of an artificial 13-mer sequence (AAAAANATAAAAA) into which we sequentially introduced a single D residue in all 11 possible A sites. The data clearly confirmed that the presence of an acidic amino acid proximal to the sequon significantly increased its Nglycosylation by TbSTT3A, with the -1 and +1positions relative to the N-glycosylated Asn residue having the greatest effect and the positions N-terminal to the sequon having a greater effect than those C-terminal to the sequon.

We then created a richer glycoproteomics dataset than we previously reported (28) by combining two alternative approaches: (i) Glycoprotein enrichment by lectin affinity chromatography, followed by trypsin digestion and sequential EndoH and PNGaseF digestion and (ii) Tryptic glycopeptide enrichment by lectin affinity chromatography, followed by trypsin digestion and sequential EndoH and PNGaseF digestion. In both cases, the PNGaseF digestion step was performed in $H_2[^{18}O]$ to distinguish between PNGaseF-mediated Asn deamidation and nonenzymatic deamidation during sample preparation and handling. These data were combined with reprocessed raw data from (28) to provide quantitative data on TbSTT3A and TbSTT3B Nglycosylation of 141 unique N-glycosylation sites. Logo plots confirmed the enrichment of acidic amino acid residues (Asp and Glu) surrounding TbSTT3A N-glycosylated sequons, the general depletion of hydrophobic residues and the selective depletion of basic residues (Arg and Lys) N-terminal to the sequon.

We also used hypothesis-free machine learning techniques to identify features that predispose sequons to be preferentially modified by TbSTT3A or TbSTT3B and, finally, combined these features and parameters derived from the experimental reporter glycoprotein data to develop a Voting Classifier prediction algorithm. This predictor was then applied to all the putative Nglycosylation sequons in the T. brucei proteome to predict those sites preferentially modified by TbSTT3A (leading to paucimannose and/or complex N-glycan occupancy) or TbSTT3B (leading to oligomannose N-glycan occupancy) in bloodstream form trypanosomes. Two-sample logo plot analysis of the output (a total of 1,291 predicted occupied N-glycosylation sites) largely echoes the experimental glycoproteomic and reporter glycoprotein data and implies that the TbSTT3A N-glycosylation sites are enriched for acidic residues and depleted of basic and hydrophobic residues, with the effects of these features more profound to the N-terminal side and within the sequon than to the C-terminal side of the sequon.

It is important to note that available pulse-chase data (21,58) suggest that TbSTT3A modifies VSG glycoproteins co-translationally, whereas TbSTT3B can act post-translationally (25) and that TbSTT3A and TbSTT3B knockdown data suggest that *Tb*STT3B is able to modify *Tb*STT3A sites, but not vice versa (28). Thus, all or most the aforementioned TbSTT3A versus TbSTT3B sequon selectivity features are dictated by the peptide/sequon acceptor specificity of TbSTT3A and not TbSTT3B, which appears to be able to utilise sequons in almost any amino acid sequence context. This property of TbSTT3B could be particularly useful from a biotechnological point of view to boost the efficient N-glycosylation of glycoproteins recombinant in eukaryotic expression systems. It also nicely explains why trypanosomes can transition from expressing a rich mixture oligomannose of and paucimannose/complex *N*-glycans in the bloodstream form parasite (16,18,19) to predominantly oligomannose N-glycans in the procyclic form of the parasite (12,20) by simply down-regulating the expression of TbSTT3A, as observed at both the mRNA (28,59) and proteinlevels (36,60,61).

The results reported here and in (45) are consistent with the mechanisms of resistance in *T. brucei* to certain toxic lectins and carbohydrate-binding small molecules reported in an interesting series of studies (62-64). These workers demonstrated that the parasites could escape the effects of these trypanocidal agents, all of which bind principally to oligomannose N-glycans, by either switching to the expression of a VSG type that naturally does not carry oligomannose N-glycans or by supressing the expression of TbSTT3B. In this way, the parasites effectively exchange oligomannose for puacimannose and complex N-glycans that are poor ligands for the trypanocides.

Interestingly, TbSTT3A and TbSTT3B are found in tandem array in the trypanosome genome, together with a preceding truncated TbSTT3 pseudogene and followed by a full-length *Tb*STT3C gene that is more similar to *Tb*STT3B than to TbSTT3A. However, TbSTT3C is not significantly expressed in bloodstream form or procyclic form of the parasite (28,36,59-61). Nevertheless, transgenic expression of TbSTT3C in S. cerevisiae clearly shows that it is a functional OST with a similar preference for sequons flanked by acidic amino acids to TbSTT3A but an LLO donor specificity like TbSTT3B (28) and (45).Amino acid sequence alignment of TbSTT3A, B and C and molecular modelling building, based on the Campylobacter lari PglB structure (47) was performed. The models suggest that the presence of a large, flexible and highly positively charged Arg residue sidechain (R397) very close to the active site of the enzyme in TbSTT3A and TbSTT3C, compared to a His residue in TbSTT3B, may play a role in the selectivity of TbSTT3A and TbSTT3C for sequons containing and flanked by acidic Asp and Glu residues. TbSTT3A and TbSTT3C also contain Arg residues in place of neutral Q567 and G406 residues in TbSTT3B, locations close enough to the active site to potentially interact with sequonflanking anionic residues. The accompanying paper (45) elegantly addresses the issues of peptide acceptor and LLO donor specificities of all three *Tb*STT3s by heterologous expression of each and chimeras thereof in various yeast mutants. That paper concludes that the region containing R397 and R406 in TbSTT3A and TbSTT3C controls peptide acceptor specificity, and this is consistent with our suggestions from molecular modelling.

There are similarities and differences between the multi-subunit mammalian STT3A- and STT3B-based OSTs and the single subunit *Tb*STT3A and *Tb*STT3B OSTs of *T. brucei*: (i) In both, the STT3A OSTs operate co-translationally and get the first option to glycosylate a given sequen,

whereas the STT3B OSTs can operate posttranslationally on what is left (25,65). (ii) In both, the OSTs show differences in peptide acceptor substrate specificity. However, in T. brucei this is controlled by the physicochemical properties of the amino acids surrounding the acceptor sequon, whereas in mammalian cells this is controlled by the position of the sequon relative to the Cterminus of the protein (66) or proximity to the signal-peptide cleaved N-terminus of the protein and to cysteine residues (67-69). The latter appears to relate to the presence of the mutually redundant MagT1 or TUSC3 thioredoxin-like oxidoreductase subunits (equivalent to the yeast Ost3 and Ost6 subunits) in the STT3B OST that may form mixed disulphides with the sequon proximal cysteine residues and thus increase residence time with the STT3B OST (69,70). A role for oxidoreductase activities of Ost3 and Ost6 in yeast OST acceptor site specificity was also previously (71,72). In this regard, it is worth noting that TbSTT3B and TbSTT3C contain a CXC motif (absent in *Tb*STT3A) that are predicted from the C. lari OST structure to be proximal to the acceptor peptide (47). Such CXC sequences can have a disulphide isomerase activity (73) that might conceivably increase the acceptor substrate range of TbSTT3B and TbSTT3C. (iii) Whereas both STT3A and STT3B OSTs prefer the mature Glc₃Man₉GlcNAc₂-PP-dolichol LLO donor, the T. brucei OSTs have distinct LLO donor specificities such that the presence of the ALG12-dependent cbranch of the conventional (but glucose-free) triantennary Man₉GlcNAc₂-PP-dolichol LLO is required by TbSTT3B but not tolerated by *Tb*STT3A (27) and (45). An important consequence of this differential LLO specificity is that, because Golgi mannosidase II activity is also absent in T. brucei, N-glycans derived from TbSTT3B glycosylation cannot be processed to paucimannose or complex structures, which must instead be derived exclusively from TbSTT3A glycosylation.

In summary, the two simultaneously operating acceptor substrate- and donor substrate-specific *N*-glycosylation systems of bloodstream form *T*. *brucei* have been further characterized in this paper. While no canonical OST subunits, other than catalytic STT3 subunits, could be found the parasite genome, we can now confirm that there are no non-canonical subunits either. Instead, *Tb*STT3A and *Tb*STT3B appear form multimeric high-molecular weight complexes containing either *Tb*STT3A alone or *Tb*STT3A and

TbSTT3B. Further insights into the peptide acceptor specificity of TbSTT3A have been provided and an algorithm has been generated to predict, proteome-wide, which OST will likely operate on which putative *N*-glycosylation site. Taken together with the unusual specificities of T. brucei UGGT, GnTI and GnTII enzymes described in the introduction (19,34,35), and the apparent absence of a regulated ER unfolded protein response (19,74), we may conclude that protein *N*-glycosylation and downstream processing in this divergent eukaryote is worthy of note, and that its unusual features may provide therapeutic possibilities.

EXPERIMENTAL PROCEDURES

Cultivation of *Trypanosomes.* Bloodstream form *Trypanosoma brucei*, genetically modified to express T7 polymerase and the tetracycline repressor protein (38), were cultured in HMI-9T medium (75) supplemented with 10 % fetal calf serum, 2 mM GlutamaxTM (Invitrogen) and 56 μ M 1-thioglycerol (in place of 2-mercaptoethanol) and 2.5 μ g/ml G418 antibiotic at 37 °C in a 5% CO₂ incubator. Other antibiotics used, as appropriate, were hygromycin (4 μ g/ml), puromycin (2.5 μ g/ml), phleomycin (0.1 μ g/ml) and tetracycline (0.5 μ g/ml). SILAC labelling, using dialysed fetal calf serum, was performed in HMI11-SILAC media, as described in (36). L-Arginine U–¹³C₆ and L-Lysine 4,4,5,5-²H₄ (R₆K₄) were purchased

from Cambridge Isotope Labs. genetically Generation of modified trypanosomes with in situ tagged TbSTT3A-HA₃ and TbSTT3B-MYC₃. The *Tb*STT3A,B,C^{-/+} heterozygote described in (28) was used for Cterminal HA₃ in-situ tagging of the remaining TbSTT3A allele using a pMOTagH4 plasmid and C-terminal MYC₃ in-situ tagging of the remaining TbSTT3B allele using a pMOTag4M4 plasmid (76). For the pMOTagH4 plasmid, the 1328-bp from the C-terminus of TbSTT3A and the 1057-bp 3' UTR downstream of the gene orf were PCRamplified from genomic DNA using Kod Hot Start polymerase with primers 5'ataagtatctcgagcaagtttgcttgccccgttcg-3' 5'and ataagtaactcgagctcgctctgaaaatacaggttttcgacttcgtaa

tggaaccgcttcgct-3' and 5'ataagtatggatccccacatcgtttcaatcgccgc-3' and 5'ataagtaaggatccactcacaatcgtgcttacagcc-3' as forward and reverse primers, respectively. The PCR products were cloned into the plasmid using the XhoI and BamHI (underlined). A TEV restriction site was included downstream of the orf of TbSTT3A (italics). The construct was linearized before being transfected into the TbSTT3A,B,C^{-/+} heterozygote cell line and transfected cells were selected by addition of hygromycin. The pMOTag4M4 plasmid was ordered from Genescript. It included 1032-bp from the Cterminus of TbSTT3B, located upstream of the MYC₃ epitope in the plasmid. The plasmid also included 835-bp of the 3' UTR of TbSTT3B which were located downstream of the blasticidin resistance gene in the plasmid. The construct was linearized before being transfected into the *Tb*STT3A,B,C^{-/+} ; *Tb*STT3A-HA₃ heterozygote cell line and transfected cells were selected by addition of blasticidin.

SDS-PAGE and Western blotting. Reducing SDS-PAGE was run using pre-cast Novex Bis-Tris gels with MOPS running buffer (Invitrogen). Proteins were transferred to nitrocellulose using an iBlot system (Invitrogen) and stained with Ponceau S (Sigma) before being blocked in 50 mM TrisHCl, 0.15 M NaCl, 0.05 % Tween 20, 0.25 % BSA, 0.05 % Na and 2 % fish skin gelatin pH 7.4 for 20 min. The membrane was then incubated for 30 min with primary antibody in a 50 ml Falcon tube followed by washing using a SnapID system (Millipore). Subsequently, the labelled secondary antibody was incubated for 30 min followed by a washing step. The blots were imaged using an ODYSSEY® SA near infrared imager (LI-COR Biosciences). Secondary LI-COR antibodies (IRDye-800CW goat anti-mouse 1:15000 or IRDye-680RD donkey anti mouse 1:20000) were used to bind the primary mouse anti-HA and anti-MYC antibodies.

Blue native gels and Western blotting. Blue Native gel electrophoresis was run using components from the Native Page kit (Invitrogen). The protocol was followed to the manufacturer's instructions except that no G-250 was added to the sample buffer and the 1x NativePage Light Cathode buffer was diluted 1:4 in 1x running buffer to reduce Coomassie interference of the post-blotting LiCor imaging.

Immunoprecipitation. Cells cultures (100 ml) were grown to log phase (approximately 2.5×10^6 cells/ml) and lysed for 30 min on ice in 0.5%

digitonin, 50 mM Tris-HCl pH6.8, 20 mM EDTA plus the protease inhibitors 0.8 mM PMSF, 0.1 mM TLCK, and 1 x EDTA-free protease inhibitor cocktail (Roche). Subsequently, the lysate was centrifuged (4°C, 11000g, 15 min) and the supernatant was moved to a new tube. Protein G magnetic beads, pre-washed in lysis buffer, were added to the lysate (30 min, 4°C) and captured to absorb nonspecific binding components. The lysate was moved to a new tube followed by incubation for 1 h with anti-HA or anti-MYC antibody (1 µg/ml) at 4°C followed by fresh prewashed magnetic beads. The beads were captured and washed twice with 1 ml of lysis buffer and once with 10 mM Tris-HCl pH6.8, 4 mM EDTA, 0.1 % digitonin containing the same protease inhibitors. Proteins were eluted from the beads in 30 µl reducing SDS-sample buffer with heating (100°C for 10 min). The eluted proteins where subsequently separated by SDS-PAGE.

SILAC proteomics. Heavy and light labelled cells were harvested separately (15 min, 800 g, 4 °C) and washed and resuspended in trypanosome dilution buffer (20 mM Na₂HPO₄, 2 mM NaH₂PO₄, 80 mM NaCl, 5 mM KCl, 20 mM glucose) for cell counting. The cells were mixed 1 : 1 before undergoing immunoprecipitation, as described above. The eluted proteins in 25 µl reducing SDS sample buffer were S-alkylated with 5 µl 300 mM iodoacetamide (30 min, dark) and loaded on Novex NUPAGE 4-12% Bis Tris gel and run at 200 V using MOPS buffer until the proteins had migrated about 2 cm into the gel (visualised by Simply Blue Safe Stain, Thermo Fisher). The protein-containing region of the gel was excised and subjected to in-gel trypsin digestion and aliquots of the extracted peptides were analysed on an LTQ-Orbitrap Velos Pro mass spectrometer coupled with a Dionex Ultimate 3000 RS HPLC system (Thermo Fisher). The sample peptides were loaded at 5 μ L/min onto a trap column (100 μ m × 2 cm, PepMap nanoViper C18 column, 5 µm, 100 Å, Thermo Scientific) equilibrated in 98% buffer A (2% acetonitrile and 0.1% formic acid (v/v)) and 2% buffer B (80% acetonitrile and 0.08% formic acid (v/v)). The trap column was washed for 3 min at the same flow rate and then switched in-line with a Thermo Scientific resolving C18 column (75 μ m × 50 cm, PepMap RSLC C18 column, 2 µm, 100 Å). The peptides were eluted from the column at a constant flow rate of 300 nl/min with a linear gradient from 98% buffer A to 40% buffer B in 128 min, and then to 98% buffer B by 130 min. LTQ-Orbitap Velos Pro was used in data dependent mode. A scan cycle comprised an MS1 scan (m/z range from 335-1800) in the Orbitrap (resolution 60,000) followed by 15 sequential data-dependant collision induced dissociation MS2 scans (the threshold value was set at 5000 and the minimum injection time was set at 200 ms).

Glycoproteomics. The protein-based approach was based on the methodiology described in (28). Cells were harvested by centrifugation and osmotically lysed at 3.5 x10⁸ cells/ml for 5 min at 37 °C in the presence of 0.1 µM 1-chloro-3tosylamide-7-amino-2-heptone (TLCK), 1mM benzamidine, 1mM phenyl-methyl sulfonyl fluoride (PMSF), 1 µg/ml leupeptin, 1 µg/ml aprotinin and Phosphatase Inhibitor Mixture II (Calbiochem). Cell ghosts from a total of 3.5×10^9 trypanosomes, enriched for non-VSG cellular glycoproteins, were collected by centrifugation $(16,000 \text{ g}, 15 \text{ min}, 4^{\circ}\text{C})$ and solubilised in 250 µl of detergent buffer (4% SDS, 0.1 M DTT, 0.1 M Tris-HCl, pH 7.5) using probe sonication for 30 s before and after heating to 85°C for 20 min. Salkylation was performed by mixing with 250 µl of 8 M urea, 0.5 M iodoacetamide (IAA), 0.1 M Tris-HCl, pH 8.5, for 1 h, room temperature, in the dark. Unreacted IAA was quenched by the addition of 10 µl of the detergent buffer. After centrifugation (16,000 x g, 15 min) the supernatant was transferred to a filtration device with a 30 kDa molecular cut-off (Sartorius) and the majority of the detergent was removed by diafiltration with 8 M urea, 0.1 M Tris-HCl, pH 8.5 followed by lectin binding buffer (1 mM CaCl₂, 1 mM MnCl₂, 150 mM NaCl in 40 mM Tris-HCl, pH 7.4). An aliquot (400 µg protein) was mixed with 150 µl packed volume of ricin (RCA₁₂₀)-agarose beads (Vector Laboratories) and rotated gently for 2 h. The beads were washed with lectin binding buffer and eluted with 300 µl of the same buffer containing 30 mg/ml lactose and 30 mg/ml galactose (Sigma-Aldrich) in 40 mM Tris-HCl, pH 7.4. After overnight incubation, the supernatant containing the eluted glycoproteins were collected by centrifugation (10,000 x g for 10 min). ConAcoupled agarose beads (0.15 ml packed volume, Vector Laboratories) was added to the recovered supernatant from the RCA120 pull-down and incubated at 4 °C for overnight. The beads were washed with lectin binding buffer and eluted with 300 µl of 0.5 M methyl-alpha-D-mannopyranoside (Sigma) in 40 mM Tris-HCl, pH 7.4. After gentle rotation for 2 h the supernatant containing glycoproteins were recovered by centrifugation.

The RCA₁₂₀ and ConA eluted glycoproteins were mixed, transferred to a 30 kDa filter, the buffer exchanged with 25 mM ammonium acetate, pH 5.5, and subjected to digestion with 180 mU endoglycosidase H (EndoH, Roche Applied Sciences) overnight at 37 °C. The EndoH released glycans were removed by centrifugation and the remaining material was exchanged into 40 mM ammonium bicarbonate buffer in $H_2[^{18}O]$ (Sigma), and subsequently digested with 100 units of Nglycosidase F (PNGaseF, Roche) dissolved in $H_2[^{18}O]$. PNGaseF in the presence of $H_2[^{18}O]$ converts Asn to [¹⁸O]Asp with a mass increment of 2.9890 Da that can be readily distinguished from spontaneous deamidation (mass increment of 0.9858 Da). After overnight incubation at 37 °C, the PNGaseF released glycans were removed by centrifugation and the deglycosylated proteins were diafiltered into 40 mM ammonium bicarbonate and subsequently digested with a mixture of 1:100 (enzyme: substrate) Lys-C and 1:20 trypsin (Roche) at 37 °C for 48 h. The peptides were collected by centrifugation through the filter, dried in Speedvac and desalted using Zip Tip C18 micro column (10 µl, Merck Millipore) prior liquid chromatography tandem mass spectrometry (LC-MS/MS).

An alternative (glyco)peptide-based approach was also performed, based on the method of (77). An aliquot of the denatured and S-alkylated sample (400 µg) was first digested on a 10 kDa filter with a mix of Lys-C and trypsin, as described above. The (glyco)peptides were collected by centrifugation through the filter in lectin binding buffer and were mixed with lectin solution containing a mixture of ConA and RCA120 resulting in mixtures of (glyco)peptides and lectins with a mass proportion of 1:2. After gentle rotation for 2 h the mixtures were transferred to a 30 kDa filter, the lectin-captured glycopeptides were diafiltered into 25 mM ammonium acetate, pH 5.5, and subjected to EndoH digestion. After overnight incubation at 37°C, the EndoH released peptides (Asn N-GlcNAc residue) were collected by gentle centrifugation. The peptides containing EndoH resistant glycans still bound to lectins were diafiltered into 40 mM ammonium bicarbonate buffer in H₂[¹⁸O] and digested with PNGaseF overnight at 37°C. The de-glycosylated peptides were collected by centrifugation, mixed with the EndoH released fraction, dried in a Speedvac and desalted using ZipTip C18 prior LC-MS/MS, which was performed as described above.

LC-MS/MS analysis and data processing. For glycoproteomics, the LC was performed on a fully automated Ultimate U3000 Nano LC System (Dionex) fitted with a C18 trap- (PepMap nanoViper, Thermo Scientific) and resolving columns (PepMap RSLC) with inner diameters of 100 and 75 µm and lengths of 2 and 50 cm, respectively. Mobile phases consisted of 0.1% formic acid (Sigma) in 2% acetonitrile (Merck, Darmstadt Germany) for solvent A and 0.08% formic acid in 80% acetonitrile for solvent B. Samples were loaded in solvent A. A linear gradient was set as follows: 0% B for 5 min, then a gradient up to 40% B in 122 min and to 98% B in 10 min. A 20 min wash at 98% B is used to keep the column sensitive and prevent carryover, and a 20-min equilibration with 2% B completed the gradient. The LC system was coupled to an LTQ-Orbitrap Velos mass spectrometer (Thermo Scientific) equipped with an Easy spray ion source and operated in positive ion mode. The spray voltage was set to 2 kV, and the ion transfer tube at 250 °C. The full scans were acquired in a Fourier transform MS mass analyser that covered an m/zrange of 335-1800 at a resolution of 60 000. The MS/MS analysis were performed under datadependent mode to fragment the top 15 precursors using collision induced dissociation (CID). A normalised collision energy of -35 eV, an isolation width of m/z 2.0, an activation O value of 0.250, and a time of 100 ms were used. The raw files were converted to mgf format by MSConvert software from ProteoWizard (proteowizard.sourceforge.net). The searches were carried out against the T. brucei 927 annotated proteins database (v.8.0, downloaded from TriTrypDB (78), www.tritrypdb.org/) using Mascot software (v.2.4.0, Matrix Science Inc., Boston, MA). The search parameters for Mascot software were set as follows: peptide tolerance, 5 ppm; MS/MS tolerance, 0.5 Da; enzyme, trypsin; one missed cleavage allowed; and fixed carbamidomethyl modifications of cysteines. Oxidation of methionine, N-acetylglucosamine modification of Asn and deamidation of Asn to Asp containing a single ¹⁸O atom (2.9890 Da mass increase) are used as variable modifications.

Dataset Extraction. We extracted from the mascot result files all the peptides with an ionscore >20. From this we selected 350 glycosylated sites with a deamidation (Asn to [18 O]Asp conversion) or Asn-*N*-HexNAc modification embedded in the N.^P[ST] consensus. The list was used to count the number of times (>=3) that these changes were detected for each peptide. To increase the number of modified peptides we decided to re-process a previously published work in our laboratory (28). This dataset was researched with the same mascot parameters and database used for this publication. This made it possible to include 14 new peptides preferentially HexNac modified and compile a list of 186 peptides used for the next phase of machine learning implemented in python with the scikitlearn package (79).

The data set reported here and that from (28) identified 170 common and 180 and 155 unique glycosylation sites, respectively (Fig S1A). To check the consistency of the two datasets, we selected 92 peptides that were observed >= 4 times in both datasets and plotted the frequencies of the Asn-N-HexNAc and Asn to [¹⁸O]Asp modifications. The two datasets had a good correlation ($r^2 = 0.83$) (Fig S1B). However, the experimental procedures used to generate the 2009 dataset (i.e., without the use of H218O) cannot discriminate between the spontaneous nonenzymatic deamidation of asparagine to aspartic acid versus the PNGaseF-mediated deamidation produced during the cleavage of the N-glycan. From the linear regression, we could deduce that deamidation contributed non-enzymatic а significant amount (about 18%) of the total deamidation seen in the 2009 dataset (Fig S1B). For this reason, we only used Asn-N-HexNAc containing (TbSTT3B substrate) peptides (with a frequency of ≥ 0.6) from this dataset to augment our machine learning training set.

Machine Learning. The deamidation proportion (DP) was computed for each peptide as (DC / DC + HC) where DC is the Deamidation Count (i.e., the number of times a peptide with $[^{18}O]Asp$ is detected) and HC is the HexNAc Count (i.e., the number of times a peptide with Asn-N-HexNAc is detected). This score was used to classify each peptide as preferentially deamidated (score>0.8 n=70) or preferentially HexNac modified (score<0.3% n=56). This dataset was used to extract sequence based feature from 10 amino acids before and after the glycosylated asparagine with the ASAP package in Python (80). We also added some in-house features derived from the knowledge of the TbSTT3A recognition and transfer experiment reported in (Figure 4B and Table 1). To this end we created 'Bonus Features' for each residue position probed in that experiment based on the increased transfer efficiency observed when that site is occupied by an Asp (or, by inference, a Glu residue). We also included a 'Bonus All' feature that summed all of the bonus scores for the peptide when it contained more than one Asp and/or Glu residue and a 'Bonus Max' feature that selected only the highest bonus score in such cases. Finally, we also created 'Bonus Presence D' and 'Bonus Presence E' features that simply recorded the presence or absence of Asp or Glu, respectively, at each residue location. We then developed three machine learning algorithms: a random forest classifier (RFC), an extra tree classifier (ETC) and a support vector machine classifier (SVM). The predictors were used to extract the importance of all the features and to rank the features with recursive feature elimination and cross-validated selection of the best number of features (RFECV methodology). The selected features were used to train the three machine learning algorithms (RFC, ETC, SVM) that were further optimized using a Bayesian global optimization with Gaussian processes (https://github.com/fmfn/BayesianOptimization). The optimized machine learning algorithms were combined in a voting classifier to produce our final predictor. The ability of the developed classifiers (RFC, ETC, SVM and Voting Classifier) to discriminate between the deamidated or HexNac modified peptides was assessed with the area under the curve (AUC) of the receiver operating characteristic (ROC) curve. The AUC score was computed 100 times with a five-fold cross validation, using each time a different random split of the original dataset (Figure S5).

CONFLICTS OF INTEREST: The authors declare that they have no conflicts of interest with the contents of this article.

AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS: M.A.J.F. conceived and coordinated the study. A.J., L.A., and M.A.J.F. designed the experiments. A.J. performed the biochemical, SILAC proteomic and molecular modelling experiments. L.A. performed the glycoproteomic experiments. M.T. performed the bioinformatic analyses and designed the machine–learning experiments.

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FIGURE LEGENDS:

Figure 1. Denaturing and blue native gel electrophoresis of *Tb***STT3A-HA3.** SDS-PAGE and anti-HA Western blotting (panel A) or blue native gel electrophoresis and anti-HA Western blotting (panel B) of anti-HA/protein G magnetic bead pull-outs from digitonin lysates of wild-type (lane 1) and *in situ Tb*STT3A-HA3 tagged (lane 2) bloodstream form trypanosomes.

Figure 2. Overview of the SILAC pull-out experiment and plot of proteomics data. Panel A: Overview of the SILAC experiment. Wild-type bloodstream form cells were grown in light (R₀K₀) medium, and cells expressing in situ-tagged TbSTT3A-HA₃ were labelled with heavy (R₆K₄) medium. The cells were mixed 1:1 and *Tb*STT3A-HA₃ was enriched by affinityselection on anti-HA magnetic beads. Peptides from TbSTT3A-HA₃ and genuine binding proteins have high heavy/light isotope ratios, whereas those from contaminants will have ratios close to 1:1 ($Log_2 = 0$). Panel B: Results from the *Tb*STT3A SILAC pull-out experiment. The plot shows the Log_2 of the heavy-to-light isotope ratio (x axis) versus the Log_{10} value of the intensities of the peptides belonging to each protein that was detected (y axis). The black curves (marked sigma 3) represent three standard deviations from the mean. Proteins plotted in orange have a heavy-to-light ratio above the sigma 3 cut off and are significantly enriched. TbSTT3A-HA₃ (bait) and *Tb*STT3B (both annotated) were shown to be highly enriched and are highlighted in red. Panel C: Results from the TbSTT3B-MYC₃ SILAC pull-out experiment. The plot is the same as in panel B except that *in situ*-tagged *Tb*STT3B-MYC₃ was used as bait. Again, TbSTT3A and TbSTT3A (both annotated and highlighted in red) were significantly enriched.

Figure 3. Co-immunoprecipitation of *Tb*STT3A and *Tb*STT3B. Digitonin lysates from wild type cells (lanes 1, 3, 5 and 7) and *Tb*STT3A-HA₃ and *Tb*STT3B-MYC₃ double *in-situ* tagged cells (lanes 2, 4, 6 and 8) were subjected to IP and Western blotted with anti-HA or anti-MYC antibodies, as indicated. The red rectangles highlight the bands corresponding to *Tb*STT3A-HA₃ (lanes 2 and 4) and *Tb*STT3B-MYC₃ (lanes 6 and 8).

Figure 4. *In vivo* assay of TbSTT3A substrate specificity. Panel A: The constructs described in (Table 1) were expressed in bloodstream form trypanosomes and the resulting TbBiP*N*-[XXXXX<u>NXT</u>XXXX]-HA₃ reporter glycoproteins were visualised in cell lysates by SDS-PAGE and anti-HA Western blotting. Representative examples are shown for the sequences indicated (lanes 1-3). The proportions of the anti-HA signals that were sensitive (lower bands)

and resistant (upper bands) to EndoH were quantified and are reported in (Table 1). Panel B: Summary of the quantitative data from (Table 1) showing the influence of replacing single neutral Ala residues with an acidic Asp residue at each possible position.

Figure 5. Glycoproteomic data logos and predictor. The amino acid frequencies of the preferentially deamidated (A) or preferentially HexNAc modified peptides (B) identified by mass spectrometry are visualized with the WebLogo web service. The Two Sample logo web service was used to visualize the amino acids enriched (upper part) or depleted (lower part) in the sequences of the preferentially deamidated peptides identified by mass spectrometry (C) or predicted by the machine learning algorithm (D) by using the preferentially HexNAc modified peptides as negative sample.

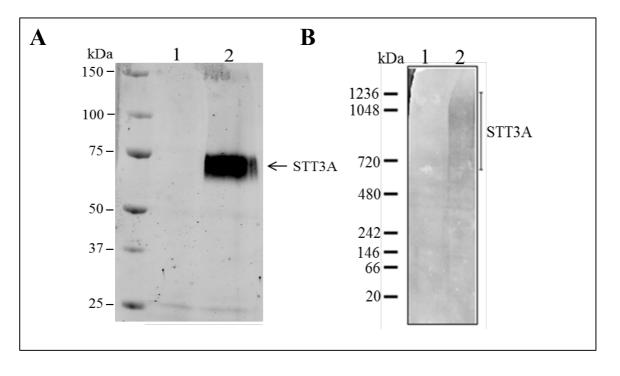
Figure 6. Molecular models of the active sites of *Tb*STT3A and *Tb*STT3B. Molecular models of the predicted active sites of *Tb*STT3A (panel A) and *Tb*STT3B (panel B) with an acceptor peptide (GDQ<u>NAT</u>) based on the crystal structure of *C. lari* PglB (Lizak et al., 2011). Of note are the residues in red: Arg397 in *Tb*STT3A (His397 in *Tb*STT3B) and Arg406 in *Tb*STT3A (Gly406 in *Tb*STT3B), where the guanidinium cations of the Arg sidechains could interact with acidic residues at or close to the acceptor peptide sequen.

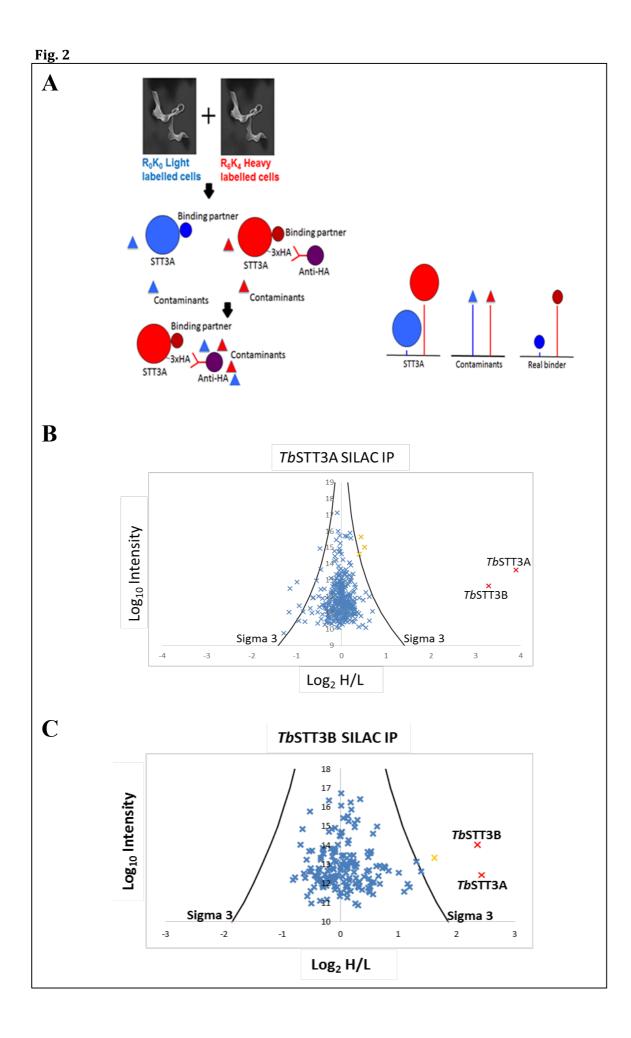
Name	Sequence	pI	% EndoH-resistant
			(% STT3A transfer) ^a
Alanine control (Ala)	AAAAA <u>NAT</u> AAAAA	6.01	6.8±3.7
D -5	D AAAA <u>NAT</u> AAAAA	3.10	34.4±6.1
D -4	A D AAA <u>NAT</u> AAAAA	3.10	44.8±8.9
D -3	AADAA <u>NAT</u> AAAAA	3.10	36.9±2.6
D -2	AAADA <u>NAT</u> AAAAA	3.10	36.5±7.2
D -1	AAAA D NATAAAAA	3.10	70.5±1.1
D +1	AAAAA <u>NDT</u> AAAAA	3.10	61.0±11.3
D +3	AAAAA <u>NAT</u> DAAAA	3.10	24.0±2.7
D +4	AAAAA <u>NAT</u> A D AAA	3.10	16.4±4.8
D +5	AAAAA <u>NAT</u> AA D AA	3.10	21.6±4.4
D +6	AAAAA <u>NAT</u> AAA D A	3.10	27.2±5.8
D +7	AAAAA <u>NAT</u> AAAA D	3.10	10.7±3.1

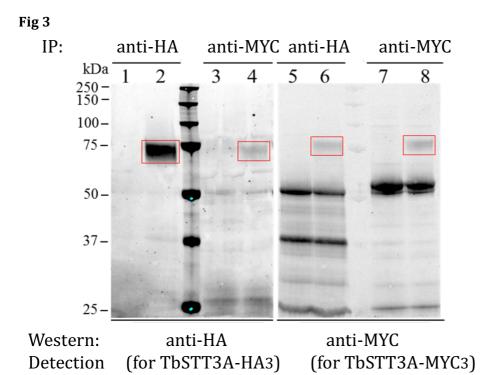
Table 1. Effect of aspartic acid on glycosite recognition by *Tb*STT3A.

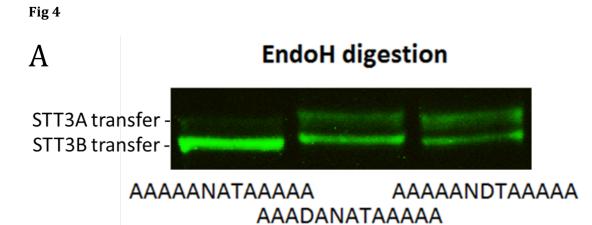
^aThese mean and standard deviation of the mean figures are based on n=8 from two technical replicates of 3 biological replicates.



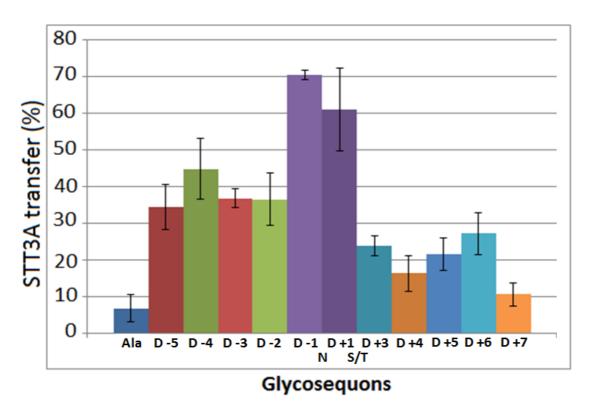




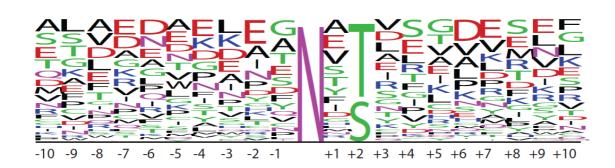




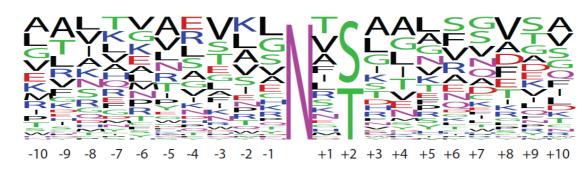
В

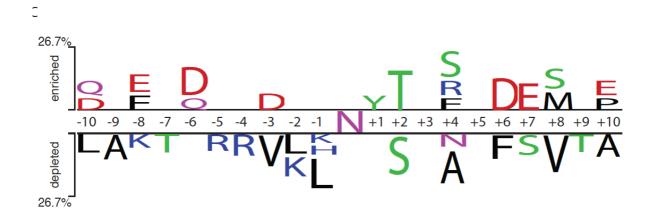


А



В





C

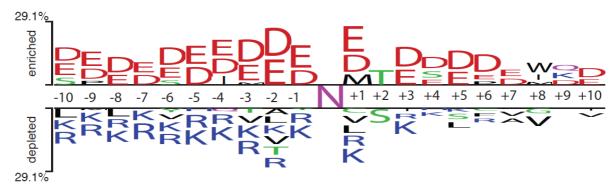
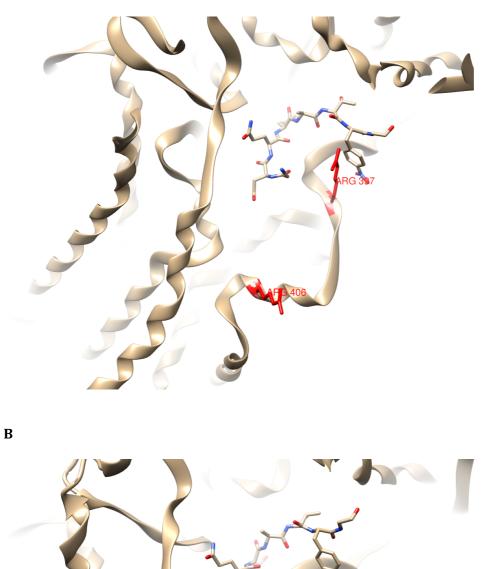


Fig 6



T

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Single-subunit oligosaccharyltransferases of Trypanosoma brucei display different and predictable peptide acceptor specificities.

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