N-Glycosylation, a major co- and post-translational event in the synthesis of proteins in eukaryotes, is unknown in aquatic photosynthetic microalgae. In this paper, we describe the N-glycosylation pathway in the diatom Phaeodactylum tricornutum. Bio-informatic analysis of its genome revealed the presence of a complete set of sequences potentially encoding for proteins involved in the synthesis of the lipid-linked Glc3Man9GlcNAc2-PP-dolichol N-glycan, some subunits of the oligosaccharyltransferase complex, as well as endoplasmic reticulum glucosidases and chaperones required for protein quality control and, finally, the α-mannosidase I involved in the trimming of the N-glycan precursor into Man-5 N-glycan. Moreover, one N-acetylglucosaminyltransferase I, a Golgi glycosyltransferase that initiates the synthesis of complex type N-glycans, was predicted in the P. tricornutum genome. We demonstrated that this gene encodes for an active N-acetylglucosaminyltransferase I, which is able to restore complex type N-glycans maturation in the Chinese hamster ovary Lec1 mutant, defective in its endogenous N-acetylglucosaminyltransferase I. Consistent with these data, the structural analyses of N-linked glycans demonstrated that P. tricornutum proteins carry mainly high mannose type N-glycans ranging from Man-5 to Man-9. Although representing a minor glycan population, paucimannose N-glycans were also detected, suggesting the occurrence of an N-acetylglucosaminyltransferase I-dependent maturation of N-glycans in this diatom.

Microalgae are a group of aquatic photosynthetic microorganisms that are so diverse that they have been gathered in a “paraphylum.” Among these microalgae, diatoms belong to the heterokont group and are responsible for approximately 40% of marine primary productivity (1, 2). Despite their physiological relevance in the marine ecosystem, molecular and cellular processes in diatom remain widely unknown. For example, so far, little is known about secretion, post-translational modifications, and intracellular trafficking of proteins in diatoms. Diatom species are usually classified into two major groups, the bi/multipolar centrics and the pennates. Recently, the genome of a pennate diatom, Phaeodactylum tricornutum, became available (3) revealing a wealth of information about diatom biology. Access to this data (Joint Genome Institute, Walnut Creek, CA), together with the fact that P. tricornutum is easy to culture in vitro and can be genetically transformed (4, 5), provides the opportunity to perform comparative genomic studies and to dissect biosynthetic pathways.

N-Glycosylation is a major co- and post-translational modification in the synthesis of proteins in eukaryotes. N-Glycan processing occurs in the secretory pathway and is essential for glycoproteins destined to be secreted or integrated in the membranes. In this process, a Man9GlcNAc2-PP-dolichol oligosaccharide intermediate is assembled by the stepwise addition of monosaccharides to dolichol pyrophosphate on the cytosolic face of the endoplasmic reticulum (ER). This intermediate is then extended in the lumen of the ER until a Glc3Man9GlcNAc2-PP-dolichol N-glycan precursor is completed (6). This precursor is transferred by the oligosaccharyltransferase (OST) multisubunit complex onto the asparagine residue of the consensus Asn-Xaa-Ser/Thr sequences of a target nascent protein (6). The precursor is then deglucosylated/reglucosylated to ensure the quality control of the neosynthetized protein through the interaction with ER-resident chaperones such as calnexin and calreticulin. These ER events are crucial for the proper folding of the secreted proteins and are highly conserved in the eukaryotes investigated so far (7).
In contrast, evolutionary adaptation of N-glycan processing in the Golgi apparatus has given rise to a large variety of organism-specific complex structures that allow the protein to carry out diverse glycan-mediated biological functions. α-Mannosidase I (α-Man I) located in the early compartment of the Golgi apparatus (Cis cisterna) first degrades the oligosaccharide precursor into high mannose type N-glycans ranging from Man₉GlcNAc₂ (Man-9) to Man₆GlcNAc₂ (Man-5). N-Acetylglucosaminyltransferase I (GnT I) then transfers the first N-acetylgalactosamine (GalNAc) residue on the α(1,3)-mannose arm of Man₆GlcNAc₂, enabling the initiation of the synthesis of multiple structurally different complex type N-glycans. Following GnT I action, α-mannosidase II (α-Man II) and N-acetylglucosaminyltransferase II (GnT II) give rise to the synthesis of the core GlcNAc₂Man₆GlcNAc₂, which is finally matured into organism-specific complex N-glycans by transfer of various monomers by characteristic glycosyltransferases. GnT I and thus the GnT I-dependent maturation of N-glycans appeared during evolution at the same period as metazoans (8). Complex type N-glycans were demonstrated to be engaged in crucial steps of the development of pluricellular organisms (8–11). For instance, GnT I-null embryos of mice die at ~10 days after fertilization, indicating that complex N-glycans are required for morphogenesis in mammals (9, 10). Similarly, inactivation of the GnT I in worm and fly reduces their viabilities (8, 11). In plants, Arabidopsis cgl mutant, defective in GnT I activity, was demonstrated to grow normally in standard culture conditions (12). However, these plants exhibited a strong phenotype in salt-induced stress conditions, for example, suggesting a role for mature plant N-glycans in the synthesis of multiple structurally different complex type N-glycans. Although major data regarding protein N-glycosylation have been established in yeast and higher eukaryotes, nothing is known on N-glycan biosynthesis and structures in microalgae. In this paper, we describe the N-glycosylation pathway in the diatom P. tricornutum. We also demonstrate that the predicted GnT I from P. tricornutum is able to complement the biosynthesis of complex type N-glycans in the CHO Lec1 mutant, which is defective in its endogenous GnT I. To the best of our knowledge, this is the first functional characterization of a N-glycan glycosyltransferase from microalgae.

**EXPERIMENTAL PROCEDURES**

*Materials—TRizol reagent, anti-V5 antibodies, α-minimum essential medium, FBS, genetin, and pcDNA3.1/V5-His-TOPO TA kit were purchased from Invitrogen. Silica membrane spin column and RNAeasy mini kit were obtained from Qiagen. RQ1 DNase was from Promega (Charbonnieres-les-bains, France). A high capacity cDNA reverse transcription kit and 2× Power SYBR® Green I PCR Master Mix, Sequazyme™ peptide mass standards kit, as well as the Voyager DE-Pro MALDI-TOF instrument, were from Applied Biosystems (Foster City, CA). CHO K1 (wild type) and CHO Lec1 cell lines were obtained from American Type Culture Collection (Manassas, VA). Nucleofactor device was from Amaza (Köln, Germany). Pierce BCA protein assay kit and Extensor Hi-Fidelity PCR enzyme mix were purchased from Thermo Scientific (Rockford, IL). Pepsin, jack bean α-mannosidase proteomic grade, α-t-fucosidase from bovine kidney, 2,5-dihydroxybenzoic acid, 1,2-diamino-4,5-methylene dioxybenzene (DMB), UDP-D-glucosylgalactose, 2-aminoethylamine (2-AB), β(1,4)-galactosyltransferase from bovine milk, and Nonidet P40 (Igepal CA-630) were obtained from Sigma-Aldrich. Biotinylated lectins such as phytohemagglutinin E and L, Ricinus communis agglutinin 120 (RCA 120), Erythrina cristata galli agglutinin, and peanut agglutinin were from Vector Laboratories Inc. (Burlingame, CA). Concanavalin A and streptavidin-horseradish peroxidase conjugate were from GE Healthcare. An ECL revelation kit was purchased from Amersham Biosciences. Antibodies directed against core anti-β(1,2)-xylose and core α(1,3)-fucose were from AgriSera (Vännäs, Sweden). Peptide N-glycosidase F (PNGase F), peptide N-glycosidase A (PNGase A), and Endoglycosidase H (Endo H) were from Roche Applied Science. C18 column (C18 monomeric S/N E000930–10–2) and C18 cartridge were from Varian Inc. (Palo Alto, CA). Carbograph cartridges were from Alltech/Grace Davison Discovery Sciences (Templemars, France). NanoDrop® ND-1000 was from Thermo Fisher (Illkirch, France). Mx3000PTM Q-PCR system was from Stratagene (La Jolla, CA). Fastprep 24 device and 50-ml BigL Lysing tubes were purchased from MP Biomedicals (Ickirch, France).

*In Silico Genome Analysis—In the P. tricornutum genome, annotation of genes involved in the N-glycan pathway was carried out by BLASTP or TBLASTN analyses with genomic sequences from Homo sapiens, Mus musculus, Arabidopsis thaliana, Drosophila melanogaster, Saccharomyces cerevisiae, Physcomitrella patens, Medicago truncatula, Zea mays, Nicotiana plumbaginifolia, and Orzya sativa. Searches for signal peptides and cell localization/targeting of mature proteins were done using Signal P, Signal-BLAST, and Target P. Transmembrane domains were predicted using TMHMM, TOPPRED, and HMMTOP. Pfam domains were identified using Pfam (Wellcome Trust Sanger Institute, Cambridge, UK). The phylogenetic tree was drawn using the Phylogeny.fr platform (17) and following three steps: (i) complete sequences were aligned with ClustalW (v2.0.3) (18); (ii) after alignment, ambiguous regions (i.e. containing gaps and/or poorly aligned) were removed with Gblocks (v0.91b) (19); and (iii) the phylogenetic tree was built using the maximum likelihood method implemented in the PhyML program (v3.0 aLRT) (20, 21). Graphical representation and edition of the phylogenetic tree were performed with TreeDyn (v198.3) (22). Thirty-one sequences were selected from the CAZy GT13 glycosyltransferase family (23) or retrieved from the JGI database. Origin and accession numbers for the different GnT I protein sequences are as follows: A. thaliana, MGAT1_ARATH; Bos taurus, Q5E914_BOVIN; Caenorhabditis elegans, MGAT1_CAEL; Cricetulus griseus, P70680_CRIGR; Danio rerio (1), A0JM2K2_DANRE; D. rerio (2), Q6FE41_DANRE; D. melanogaster, Q60GL7_DROME; Glycine max, C6T9Z3_SOYBN; H. sapiens, MGAT1_HUMAN; Mesocricetus auratus, Q9QWX4_MESAU; M. musculus, MGAT1_
MOUSE; Nicotiana tabacum, Q8VX3D_TOBAC; Oryctolagus cuniculus, MGAT1_RABIT; O. sativa, Q8RW24_ENDRA; Populus trichocarpa, B9HPX2_POPTR; P. patens, Q8L5D3_PHYPA; Pongolabelli, Q5R831_PONPY; Rattus norvegicus, MGAT1_RAT; Salmo salar, B5X2V8_SALSA; Schistosoma mansoni, C4Q417_SCHMA; Solanum tuberosum, Q8VX56_SOLTU; Sorghum bicolor, C5YS64_SORB1; Sus scrofa, Q0KKC2_PIG; Xenopus laevis, Q90W56_XENA; and Z. mays, B6TLH4_MAIZE. The GenBank accession number for *Triticum aestivum* was ABT33168. The JGI accession numbers were: Micromonas pusilla CCMP1545 (jgi/MicpuC2/32201);*Emiliania huxleyi* (jgi/Emilhu1/460566);*Fragilariopsis cylindrus* (jgi/Fracly1/189180); and*Thalassiosira pseudonana* (jgi/Thaps3/1600). 

Microalgal Strain and Culture Conditions—The strain of *P. tricornutum* P.t1.8.6 (CCAP1055/1) was grown in batch culture using 2-liter flat-bottomed flasks. The nutritive medium used for this experiment consisted of natural seawater method using 2-liter flat-bottomed flasks. The nutritive medium used for this experiment consisted of natural seawater treated with RQ1 DNase to avoid DNA contamination and presented the following mutations: Gln-130 Arg; Val-148 → Ile; Gly-159 → Ser; Lys-196 → Glu; Val-337 → Ala; and Asn-422 → Tyr (GenBank Bankit 1370344). CHO Lec1 mutant cells were transfected by electroporation with this construct. The cells were trypsinized (0.05%), trituated in α-minimum essential medium containing 10% FBS, pelleted by centrifugation, and resuspended in 100 μl of solution V for nucleofection by an Amaza Nucleofector device set to program U-016 with the linearized pcDNA3.1/V5-His-TOPO-GnT I and 500 μg of sterile sonicated salmon sperm DNA. Then the transfection was followed by repetitive rounds of limiting dilution of cells in 400 μml−1 of geneticin for selection. CHO wild type and CHO Lec1 mutant were grown in α-minimum essential medium supplemented with 10% FBS at 37 °C in a humidified incubator with an atmosphere of 5% CO2. CHO Lec1 mutant complemented with *P. tricornutum* GnT I was grown in the same conditions with 600 μgml−1 of geneticin.

Real Time Quantitative PCR Experiments—Total RNA was extracted from cells using the TRizol method and then treated with RQ1 DNase to avoid DNA contamination and finally purified using the RNeasy mini kit. cDNA templates for PCR amplification were synthesized from 350 ng of total RNA using the High Capacity cDNA reverse transcription kit. Quantitative PCR was performed using Power SYBR® Green I PCR master mix in a final volume reaction of 25 l. All of the reactions were performed following the instructions of the manufacturer with 5 μl of diluted cDNA (1/10) and 0.1 μl of specific primers. Quantitative measurements were performed in duplicate with a Stratagene Mx3000P™ Q-PCR system. The cycling parameters were one cycle of 10 min at 95 °C, followed by 40 cycles of 30 s at 95 °C and 60 s at 60 °C. The results were represented as the relative gene expression normalized to reference genes encoding for ribosomal protein small subunit 30 S and histone H4 (26). Specific primers for the catalytic domain of the *P. tricornutum* GnT I gene (GNT1-Q-Fwd, 5′-CGTGACATCGCCTCCTTACT-3′; and GNT1-Q-Rev, 5′-TTGCCGCTCTTGGAATTTACC-3′) were designed using the Primer3Plus program. The relative GnT I gene expression analysis was performed using the method already described (27, 28) where the comparative Ct method (29) and standard curve method were combined to calculate RNA molar ratio between the target and housekeeping genes (28).

**Expression of *P. tricornutum* GnT I in CHO Cells**—Genomic DNA was extracted from *P. tricornutum* cell pellets as described in Ref. 30. The GnT I gene was amplified from *P. tricornutum* genomic DNA using primers 5′-ATGCGTGTGGAACGTAC-3′ and 5′-TCTTTTCCGTCGAAATG-3′ and Extensor Hi-Fidelity PCR enzyme mix. Then this GnT I gene was cloned according to the supplier’s instructions in the pcDNA3.1/V5-His-TOPO vector, leading to the expression of the *P. tricornutum* GnT I fused with the V5 epitope under the control of the T7 promoter. This construction pcDNA3.1/V5-His-TOPO-GnT I was sequenced and presented the following mutations: Gln-130 → Arg; Val-148 → Ile; Gly-159 → Ser; Lys-196 → Glu; Val-337 → Ala; and Asn-422 → Tyr (GenBank Bankit 1370344). CHO Lec1 mutant cells were transfected by electroporation with this construct. The cells were trypsinized (0.05%), triturated in α-minimum essential medium containing 10% FBS, pelleted by centrifugation, and resuspended in 100 μl of solution V for nucleofection by an Amaza Nucleofector device set to program U-016 with the linearized pcDNA3.1/V5-His-TOPO-GnT I and 500 μg of sterile sonicated salmon sperm DNA. Then the transfection was followed by repetitive rounds of limiting dilution of cells in 400 μml−1 of geneticin for selection. CHO wild type and CHO Lec1 mutant were grown in α-minimum essential medium supplemented with 10% FBS at 37 °C in a humidified incubator with an atmosphere of 5% CO2. CHO Lec1 mutant complemented with *P. tricornutum* GnT I was grown in the same conditions with 600 μgml−1 of geneticin.

**Extraction of Proteins from *P. tricornutum*—**Two g of lyophilized *P. tricornutum* cells were lysed in 750 mM Tris-HCl pH 8 buffer containing 15% (w/v) of sucrose, 2% (v/v) of β-mercaptoethanol, and 1 mM phenylmethylsulfonyl fluoride (extraction buffer). The cell lysate was done in a 50-ml BigD Lysing tube and assisted by the Fastprep 24 (15 times 30 s at 6 ms−1). The mixture was then centrifuged at 4 °C for 5 min at 4,000 × g. The pellet was washed once with 10 ml of extraction buffer and spun again at 4 °C for 5 min at 4,000 × g. The resulting supernatants were pooled prior to centrifugation at 15,000 × g for 30 min at 4 °C. The supernatant was then dialyzed against water for 48 h at 4 °C prior to lyophilization. Protein quantification was then performed using the Pierce BCA protein assay kit and bovine serum albumin as protein standard. Proteins from green onion were prepared in parallel and used as a positive control for affino- and immunodetection analyses.

**Immunoblotting and Affinoblotting Analysis**—Fifty μg of total protein extract from *P. tricornutum* were separated by SDS-PAGE using a 12% polyacrylamide gel. The proteins were transferred onto nitrocellulose membrane and stained with Ponceau Red to control the transfer efficiency. Affinodetections were carried out as described previously (31) using concanavalin A or biotinylated lectins such as phytohemagglutinin E and L and *E. crista galli* agglutinin, RCA 120, and peanut agglutinin. Biotinylated lectins were detected using

*Functional Characterization of the *P. tricornutum* GnT I*
streptavidin coupled with horseradish peroxidase, and concanavalin A was directly detected by horseradish peroxidase. Final developments of the blots were obtained using 4-chloro-1-naphthol or ECL as substrate. Immunodetections were performed using specific core β(1,2)-xylose and core α(1,3)-fucose antibodies as reported previously (32). Oxidation of the glycan moiety of glycoproteins was carried out on the blots using sodium periodate according to (33). Immunodetection with anti-V5 antibodies was performed following the instructions of the supplier for dilution of the antibody and revelation (ECL kit).

Deglycosylation by PNGase F or Endo H—For deglycosylation with PNGase F, 0.5 mg of proteins was dissolved in 2 ml of a 0.1 M Tris-HCl buffer, pH 7.5, containing 0.1% SDS. The sample was then heated for 5 min at 100 °C for protein denaturation. After cooling down, 2 ml of 0.1 M Tris-HCl buffer, pH 7.5, containing 0.5% Nonidet P-40 were added to the sample. Digestion was performed with 10 units of PNGase F for 24 h at 37 °C. For deglycosylation by Endo H, 0.5 mg of protein extract was dissolved in 1% SDS and denatured by heating for 5 min at 100 °C. The sample was then diluted five times in 500 μl of 150 mM sodium acetate buffer, pH 5.7, and incubated overnight at 37 °C with 10 milliunits of Endo H. Finally, proteins digested from either PNGase F or Endo H were precipitated by the addition of 4 volumes of ethanol overnight at −20 °C, separated by SDS-PAGE, and affinodetected with concanavalin A as reported previously (31).

In Vitro Galactosylation—The in vitro galactosylation was performed by treating 50 μg of protein at 37 °C for 24 h with 50 milliunits of β(1,4)-galactosyltransferase from bovine milk in 1 ml of 100 mM sodium cacodylate buffer, pH 6.4, supplemented with 5 μM of UDP-galactose and 5 μmol of MnCl₂ (34). The sample was then freeze-dried. Proteins and glycoproteins were separated by SDS-PAGE and electroblotted onto nitrocellulose membrane. Glycoproteins were then affinodetected using biotinylated RCA 120 lectin (34).

Sialic Acid Analysis—Two mg of proteins were treated as described (35). Then the sample was submitted to DMB derivatization according to Ref. 36. DMB derivatives were separated by high performance liquid chromatography using a C18 column and detected by fluorescence using excitation and emission wavelengths of 373 and 448 nm, respectively (37). Neu5Ac was also coupled to DMB and used as a standard.

Isolation of N-linked Glycans from P. tricornutum—For N-glycan profiling, both PNGase A and PNGase F were used. In contrast to PNGase F, PNGase A is able to release N-linked oligosaccharides carrying a fucose α(1,3)-linked to the proximal glucosamine residue (38). Proteins (above 13 mg) were denatured with 2 ml of 10 mM HCl, pH 2.2. After neutralization with 1 M ammonium hydroxide, the solution was heated for 5 min at 100 °C and lyophilized. Glycopeptides were then deamidated overnight at 37 °C with 1.5 milliunits of PNGase A in a 50 mM sodium acetate buffer, pH 5.5. N-Glycans released by either PNGase A or F were purified by successive elutions through a C18 and a Carbograph cartridges according to Ref. 39.

Isolation of N-linked Glycans from CHO Cells—Cells from wild type CHO and CHO Lec1 mutant and CHO Lec1 GnT I complemented cells were lysed by sonication (four times for 20 s) in 1 ml of 100 mM Tris-HCl buffer, pH 7.5, SDS 0.1%. After centrifugation at 100 × g, proteins from the supernatant were deamidated by PNGase F as described above, and then N-glycans were purified as already mentioned. Then N-glycan samples were concentrated and finally analyzed by MALDI-TOF mass spectrometer.

Preparation and Exoglycosidase Digestion of 2-AB Oligosaccharides—N-Glycans were labeled with 2-AB using the protocol described in Ref. 40. After incubation at 60 °C for 2 h, 2-AB-labeled N-glycans were purified by paper chromatography according to (41). The 2-AB-labeled N-glycans were finally analyzed by MALDI-TOF mass spectrometry before and after jack bean α-mannosidase or α-1-fucosidase treatments following the principle described in Ref. 39. For the α-mannosidase digestion, 2.5 μl of 2-AB labeled N-glycans were incubated with 1 μl of water and 214 milliunits of enzyme for 48 h at 37 °C. The α-1-fucosidase from bovine kidney was desalted prior to use and resuspended in 40 μM of sodium acetate, pH 5.5. Then 80 milliunits of enzyme was incubated with 2.5 μl of 2-AB labeled glycans at 37 °C for 48 h. Both digested samples were freeze-dried and resuspended in 10 μl of water, 0.1% TFA prior to mass spectrometry analysis.

MALDI-TOF Mass Spectrometry Analysis—Mass spectra were acquired on a Voyager DE-Pro MALDI-TOF instrument equipped with a 337-nm nitrogen laser. Mass spectra were performed in the reflector delayed extraction mode using 2,5-dihydroxybenzoic acid. This matrix, freshly dissolved at 5 mg/ml in 70:30 acetone-water, 0.1% TFA, was mixed with the water solubilized oligosaccharides in a ratio 1:1 (v/v). These spectra were recorded in a positive mode, using an acceleration voltage of 20,000 V with a delay time of 100 ns. They were smoothed once and externally calibrated using commercially available mixtures of peptides and proteins. In this study, the spectra were externally calibrated using des-Arg¹-bradykinin (904.4681 Da), angiotensin I (1,296.6853 Da), Glu¹-fibrinopeptide B (1,570.6774 Da), and ACTH₁₈₋₃₉ (2,465.1989 Da). Laser shots were accumulated for each spectrum, at least 5000 laser shots. The mass accuracy obtained is 0.011% on average, which is in agreement with the specifications of the instrument used in this study.

RESULTS

In Silico Analysis of the P. tricornutum Genome Revealed a Set of Genes Encoding for Proteins Involved in the N-Glycosylation Pathway—In eukaryotes, the N-glycan biosynthetic pathway can be divided into three steps: (i) the synthesis of...
**Functional Characterization of the P. tricornutum GnT I**

![Diagram of N-Glycosylation pathway in P. tricornutum based on bioinformatic analysis of the genome database.](image)

Sequences of the N-glycosylation pathway identified in the *P. tricornutum* genome are numbered in **bold** type. Glc, glucose; PP-Dol, dolicholpyrophosphate; Man, mannose; GlcNAc, N-acetylglucosamine; ALG, asparagine linked glycosylation.

The **Glc₃Man₉GlcNAc₂-PP-dolichol precursor** and its transfer by the OST onto asparagine residues of nascent polypeptides entering the lumen of the rough ER; (ii) deglucosylation/re-glycosylation of the precursor N-glycan in the ER, allowing the interaction with chaperones responsible for proper folding and oligomerization; and finally (iii) maturation in the Golgi apparatus of the high mannose type N-linked oligosaccharides into complex type N-glycans. Based on sequence homologies, we identified in the genome of *P. tricornutum* a set of putative sequences that are likely involved in the different steps of the N-glycan biosynthesis and maturation (Fig. 1 and Table 1). Most of these identified genes have expressed sequence tag support (Fig. 1 and Table 1).

All of the genes encoding for enzymes involved in the biosynthesis of dolichol pyrophosphate-linked oligosaccharide on the cytosolic face and in the lumen of the ER were identified in the genome of *P. tricornutum* (Fig. 1 and Table 1). The sequences and topologies of the predicted proteins are highly similar to the corresponding asparagine-linked glycosylation (ALG) orthologs described in other eukaryotes (42), except for ALG 10, for which a *P. tricornutum* candidate sequence was not clearly identified. Putative transferases, which enabled catalyzation of the formation of dolichol-activated mannose and glucose, were also found. Those two activated sugars are required for the elongation steps arising in the ER lumen. In addition to sequences involved in the biosynthesis of the dolichol pyrophosphate-linked oligosaccharide, two putative genes encoding for orthologs of the STT3 catalytic subunit of OST multisubunit complex were identified (Table 1). These multi-spanned sequences, sharing 34 and 37%, respectively, of identities with *A. thaliana* and *H. sapiens* STT3 subunits, contain the conserved WWDYG domain required for the STT3 transferase activity (43).

Genes encoding for polypeptides involved in the quality control of proteins in the ER were also found in the *P. tricornutum* genome. Indeed, α and β subunits of α-glucosidase II were identified. The α subunit contains the characteristic DMNE sequence (44) and a C-type lectin domain involved in mannose binding (45). A putative UDP-glucose: glycoprotein glucosyltransferase and a calreticulin, two molecules ensuring the quality control of the glycoproteins in the ER, are also predicted. Calreticulin is a soluble Ca²⁺-binding protein of the ER lumen involved in the retention of incorrectly or incompletely folded proteins. Putative *P. tricornutum* calreticulin exhibits more than 50% of identity with orthologs from *N. plumbaginifolia* (56%) and *A. thaliana* (53%). Structurally, the *P. tricornutum* calreticulin contains the three specific domains required for its biological function: a N-terminal domain of ~180 amino acids, a central domain of ~70 residues containing three repeats of an acidic 17-amino acid motif, and a C-terminal domain rich in acidic and lysine residues, both responsible for Ca²⁺ binding (46). *P. tricornutum* calreticulin also exhibited a predicted signal peptide and a C-terminal YDEF tetrapeptide that may ensure its retention in the ER as HDEL, KDEL, or YDEL signals that are known to play this function in higher eukaryotes (47–49).

In regard to Golgi enzymes involved in N-glycan biosynthesis, *P. tricornutum* genome contains two sequences encoding for proteins that belong to the glycosylhydrolase family GH47 that catalyze the hydrolysis of the terminal α(1,2)-mannose residues of high mannose type N-glycans. The first predicted sequence (sequence 52346) encodes for a protein sharing 32 and 30%, respectively, of identity with MNS4 and MNS5 from *A. thaliana*, which were characterized as being ER degradation-enhancing mannosidases (50). The second sequence (Fig. 1 and Table 1) encodes for a protein sharing 35 and 34%, respectively, of identity with MNS1 and MNS2, two *A. thaliana* α-Man I located in the Golgi apparatus and able to perform the trimming of Man-9 into Man-5 (50, 51). Furthermore, this putative *P. tricornutum* mannosidase exhibits the three conserved catalytic motifs of α-Man I, the threonine residue of the motif III, and the two cysteine residues (Cys-301 and Cys-333) essential for the
mnnanose activity (51, 52). A signal anchor is also predicted in the N-terminal part of the protein as required for a type II transmembrane protein (Table 1). Moreover, there is some expressed sequence tag supporting an expression for this enzyme in *P. tricornutum* (Table 1).

In addition, one putative GnT I and one putative α-Man II were also identified in *P. tricornutum* genome (Table 1). These enzymes are involved in the N-glycan maturation into complex oligosaccharides by transferring a terminal GlcNAc on the α(1,3)-mannose arm of Man-5 and then removing the two mannose residues located on the α(1,6)-mannose arm. The putative GnT I sequence is predicted to be a typical type II membrane protein. Its cytoplasmic tail contains three basic amino acids that could promote ER exit as demonstrated for *A. thaliana* (53). This sequence also possesses a luminal part sharing 37% of identity with the rabbit GnT I (Fig. 2). From the crystal structure of this mammalian transferase, 22 amino acid residues in the catalytic domain were shown to form direct or water-mediated interactions with the UDP-GlcNAc nucleotide sugar and the Mn$^{2+}$ ion (54, 55). Fourteen of these residues are strictly identical in the *P. tricornutum* GnT I, whereas the other residues are closely conserved (Fig. 2). Moreover, the SQD motif, which has been demonstrated to be important because this motif interacts with the uracil ring of the donor substrate, is also present in the *P. tricornutum* GnT I sequence (54). This conserved motif is present in all GnT I characterized so far (55). The EDD motif that is a variation of the canonical acidic metal-binding DXD motif is conserved in the *P. tricornutum* sequence. This motif has been demonstrated to have critical interaction with UDP-GlcNAc and the metal ion in rabbit GnT I (55).

The predicted α-Man II consisted of a large protein containing the three Pfam domains of CAZY GH38 glycosylhydrolases and the conserved residues involved in Zn$^{2+}$ binding in the catalytic site of *D. melanogaster* α-Man II (59, 60).

In eukaryotes, α(1,3)- and α(1,6)-fucosyltransferases transfer fucose residues onto the proximal GlcNAc unit of the N-linked glycan core. In *silico* analysis of the *P. tricornutum* genome revealed the presence of three genes encoding for putative fucosyltransferases (FucT). These candidates exhibit the appropriate type II membrane protein topology (Table 1) and 23% (sequence 46109), 28% (sequence 46110), and 25% (sequence 54559), respectively, of identity with *A. thaliana* FucTA. These FucT candidates exhibited the motifs I and II of α(1,3)-FucT (61, 62), the SNC(G/A)A(R/H)N sequence, specific for plant and *D. melanogaster* α(1,3)-FucT (63–65), as well as the CXXC motif located at the C-terminal sequence involved in the formation of disulfide bonds (66). A putative type II xylosyltransferase is also predicted in the genome. This sequence shares 24% of identity with the luminal part of *A. thaliana* β(1,2)-xylosyltransferase involved in the transfer of a β(1,2)-xylose residue onto the β-Man of the N-glycan core (67, 68). Nevertheless, in the absence of reported motifs specific for β(1,2)-xylosyltransferase activity, the involvement of this putative transferase in *P. tricornutum* N-glycan pathway remains highly hypothetical. Searches for sequences encoding other N-glycan-maturing transferases, such as *N*-acyt glycosaminyltransferases ranging from GnT II to GnT VI that allow the formation of polyantennary N-glycans or sialyltransferases, did not reveal any ortholog in the *P. tricornutum* genome.

### Table 1

References of predicted proteins involved in the N-glycan biosynthesis and quality control of secreted proteins in *P. tricornutum*

| Protein number | Gene location | Predicted protein function | Length | EST | SP/SA | TMD | Pfam |
|----------------|---------------|----------------------------|--------|-----|-------|------|------|
| 9724           | chr_2:964854–966112 | GlcNAc-P-transferase ALG 7 440 | N | Y | 9 | PF09535 |
| 9427           | chr_1:864467–864835 | β(1,4):GlcNAcT ALG 13 170 | N | Y | 0 | PF04101 |
| 14444          | chr_13:95429–95971 | (β1,4):GlcNAcT ALG 14 180 | Y | N | 2 | PF08660 |
| 14002          | chr_13:187916–189201 | β(1,4):ManT ALG 1 448 | Y | N | 2 | PF00534 |
| 22554          | chr_18:299673–301001 | α(1,3):ManT ALG 2 503 | Y | N | 1 | PF00534 |
| 54621          | chr_11:102045–103589 | α(1,2):ManT ALG 11 433 | Y | Y | 4 | PF00534 |
| 10976          | chr_4:589262–590525 | α(1,3):ManT ALG 3 414 | Y | Y | 9 | PF05208 |
| 44574          | chr_4:946634–947670 | α(1,2):ManT ALG 9 556 | Y | N | 10 | PF03901 |
| 44425          | chr_4:509561–511432 | α(1,2):ManT ALG 12 581 | Y | Y | 6 | PF03901 |
| 44117          | chr_3:1027730–1029328 | α(1,3):GlcT ALG 6 532 | Y | Y | 11 | PF03155 |
| 44905          | chr_5:604679–606258 | α(1,3):GlcT ALG 8 436 | Y | Y | 9 | PF03155 |
| 45980          | chr_8:845268–846314 | P-Dol GlcT ALG 5 348 | Y | Y | 1 | PF00535 |
| 19705          | chr_6:554632–555416 | P-Dol ManT (DPM1) 236 | Y | N | 0 | PF00535 |
| 55197          | chr_30:46605–50076 | OST (STT3 subunit) 911 | Y | Y | 10 | PF02516 |
| 55198          | chr_30:50287–53582 | OST (STT3 subunit) 894 | Y | Y | 10 | PF02516 |
| 50836          | chr_5:359528–361787 | α-Glc II, subunit α 712 | Y | N | 0 | PF01055 |
| 54169          | chr_3:489007–491615 | α-Glc II, subunit β 803 | Y | N | 0 | PF07915 |
| 41172          | chr_28:129840–131182 | Calreticulin 421 | Y | Y | 0 | PF00262 |
| 54787          | chr_14:637216–637863 | UDP-glucose:glycoprotein glucosyltransferase 499 | Y | N | 0 | PF06427 |
| 1815           | bd_32 × 35:113900–116119 | α-Man I 666 | Y | Y | 1 | PF01532 |
| 54844          | chr_16:89066–90505 | α-Man I 444 | Y | Y | 1 | PF03071 |
| 52248          | chr_14:60509–61027 | α-Man II 1498 | Y | N | 1 | PF01074 |
| 54599          | chr_10:692088–693836 | α(1,3):FucT 481 | Y | Y | 1 | PF00852 |
| 46109          | chr_9:288291–290659 | α(1,3):FucT 770 | Y | Y | 1 | PF00852 |
| 46110          | chr_9:291303–293777 | α(1,3):FucT 718 | Y | Y | 1 | PF00852 |
tein extract using probes specific for glycan epitopes. As illustrated in Fig. 3A, some *P. tricornutum* proteins were affinodetected by concanavalin A, a lectin specific for high mannose sequences (69). This affinodetection was largely suppressed upon treatment with Endo H or PNGase F (Fig. 3B), two enzymes able to cleave N-glycans. In contrast, affinodetections with *E. crista galli* agglutinin, peanut agglutinin, or phytohemagglutinin E and L, four lectins specific for the lactosamine motif, the gal \( 1 \),3-GalNAc epitope, the bisected di-triantenary complex type N-glycans, and tri- and tetraantennary complex type N-glycans, respectively, did not show anything (data not shown). Immunodetections with antibodies raised against plant glycoepitopes (32) were then carried out (Fig. 3A). Antibodies specific for xylose epitope (1,2)-linked to the core Man \(_3\)GlcNAc \(_2\) did not detect proteins from *P. tricornutum*, whereas proteins from green onion used as positive control were labeled (Fig. 3A). In contrast, total proteins were weakly immunodetected using core-\( \alpha \)(1,3)-fucose antibodies (Fig. 3A). These signals disappeared after oxidation of the proteins with sodium periodate, revealing that antibody recognition involved a glycan sequence (data not shown).

To investigate the presence in *P. tricornutum* proteins of complex glycans carrying terminal GlcNAc, we treated the protein extract with a \( \beta \)(1,4)-galactosyltransferase, an enzyme able to transfer a galactose residue onto terminal GlcNAc residues, and then analyzed by affinoblotting the resulting protein preparation with RCA 120, a lectin that binds specifically to Gal \( 1 \),4-GlcNAc sequences (34). In contrast to a plant-derived IgG used as a positive control of galactose transfer, no signal was detected in *P. tricornutum* sample after this treatment (Fig. 3C), thus indicating that this diatom does not exhibit terminal GlcNAc onto its proteins at detectable level (0.5 \( \mu \)g). Moreover, the presence of N-acetylneuraminic acid (Neu5Ac), the main sialic acid found in mammals, was investigated by coupling to DMB (37) and analysis of the resulting DMB derivatives by liquid chromatography. Although low intensity peaks were detected by fluorescence, none of them co-migrated with a standard of DMB-Neu5Ac (data not shown).
To investigate their detailed N-glycan structures, N-glycans were released from proteins by PNGase A treatment (31). The resulting N-glycans were then coupled to 2-AB (40, 41) to facilitate their detection and analysis by MALDI-TOF mass spectrometry. As illustrated in Fig. 4A, major ions correspond to (M + H)⁺ adducts of 2-AB derivatives of Hexose₅–₉GlcNAc₂. Other minor ions were also detected in the mass spectral profile with m/z values corresponding to Hexose₄₋₆GlcNAc₂ oligosaccharides. Moreover, the ion at m/z 1199 was assigned to Hexose₃DeoxyhexoseGlcNAc₂ N-linked glycan. The pool of glycans was then submitted to exoglycosidase digestions. The oligosaccharide mixture was converted to HexoseGlcNAc₂ and HexoseDeoxyHexoseGlcNAc₂ upon a treatment with jack bean α-mannosidase (Fig. 4B), demonstrating the presence of α-linked mannoside residues in PNGase A-released N-glycans. Furthermore, a treatment of the sample with α-L-fucosidase resulted in the suppression of ion at m/z 1199 (not shown). As a consequence, main ions detected in MALDI-TOF mass spectrum (Fig. 4A) were assigned to high mannose N-glycans ranging from Man-5 to Man-9, and minor ions were assigned to Man-3, Man-4, and Man₃FucGlcNAc₂. To investigate the location of the fucose residue onto the core N-glycan in this later N-glycan, proteins were submitted to a deglycosylation experiment by PNGase F, a deglycosylating enzyme that is not able to cleave N-linked oligosaccharides harboring a fucose α(1,3)-linked to the proximal glucosamine residue (38). The ion assigned to Man₃FucGlcNAc₂ was not observed in the mass spectrum,
indicating that this glycan carries a core α(1,3)-fucose residue (Fig. 4C).

Putative P. tricornutum GnT I Gene Is Able to Complement the Deficiency in N-Glycan Maturation in CHO Lec1 Mutant—Bio-informatic analysis of P. tricornutum genome revealed a gene potentially encoding for a GnT I glycosyltransferase. The expression of this gene was monitored in a continuous culture over a 1-month period by real time quantitative PCR. The relative gene expression was normalized to two reference genes encoding for ribosomal protein small subunit 30 S and histone H4 that have been recently described as appropriate housekeeping genes for real time quantitative PCR in P. tricornutum (26). The results show that P. tricornutum GnT I is steadily expressed in standard culture conditions over 32 days (Fig. 5A).

To demonstrate that this putative transferase is able to transfer in vivo a GlcNAc residue onto the proteins carrying Man-5 N-linked glycans, the P. tricornutum GnT I (GenBank™ accession number 1370344) was expressed in fusion with a V5 tag into CHO Lec1 mutant deficient in its endogenous GnT I (16). On the basis of the immunodetection of the V5 epitope, CHO transformants were found to efficiently express the recombinant GnT I. Two transformants (2 and 4) were selected for N-linked glycan analysis (Fig. 5B). Proteins from these two clones, from the wild type CHO and from the CHO Lec1 mutant, were isolated, and their N-linked glycans were released by treatment with PNGase F. As illustrated in Fig. 6A, MALDI-TOF mass spectrum of N-glycans released from the CHO Lec1 mutant showed that it accumulates high mannose type N-glycans, contrasting with the wild type CHO cell exhibiting both high mannose and complex type N-glycans (Fig. 6B).

In Fig. 6C, glycoproteins from the complemented line (clone 4) displayed both high mannose oligosaccharides and a complete set of complex type N-glycans identical to the one observed in wild type CHO cells (Fig. 6B). The same N-glycan profile was obtained with clone 2 (data not shown). This demonstrates that the expression of the P. tricornutum GnT I was able to restore the biosynthesis of complex N-glycans in the mammalian cell mutant.

DISCUSSION

Bio-informatic analysis of the P. tricornutum genome revealed the presence of a completed set of sequences potentially encoding for proteins involved in the synthesis of the lipid-linked Glc₃Man₃GlcNAc₂-PP-dolichol N-glycan, the subunits of the OST complex that catalyze its transfer onto the asparagine residues of target proteins, as well as ER glucosidases and chaperones (6, 7). This suggests that this diatom possesses the ER machinery required for glycoprotein quality control previously characterized for other eukaryotes (71). The genome analysis also revealed the presence of one Golgi mannosidase I involved in the trimming of the N-glycan precursor into Man-5 high mannose type N-glycan (50, 51). Consistent with these sequence predictions, two lines of biochemical evidence strongly suggest that proteins from the P. tricornutum Pt 1.8.6 strain are mainly N-glycosylated by high mannose type oligosaccharides. First, proteins from this strain are affinodetected by concanavalin A, a lectin specific for high mannose sequences. This detection is largely suppressed upon treatment with Endo H or PNGase F, two deglycosylating enzymes specific for N-linked glycans. Furthermore, affinodetection with other glycan-specific probes, as
Functional Characterization of the *P. tricornutum* GnT I

*P. tricornutum* GnT I complements N-glycan maturation deficiency in CHO Lec1 mutant. MALDI-TOF mass spectra of glycans N-linked to proteins extracted from CHO cells. A, CHO Lec1 mutant; B, CHO wild type; and C, transformant 4 of CHO Lec1 mutant complemented with *P. tricornutum* GnT I gene. Man-4 to Man-9 are the high mannos type N-glycans Man$_n$GlcNAc$_2$ to Man$_n$GlcNAc$_2$ 70). Black square, GlcNAc; gray circle, Man; white circle, Gal; gray triangle, fucose.

well as a search for sialic acids, were unsuccessful. Second, MALDI-TOF mass spectrometry of the N-glycan population released by PNGase A allowed the detection of Hexose$_{5–9}$GlcNAc$_2$ oligosaccharides, sensitive to an α-mannosidase treatment, as major oligosaccharide species. We concluded that proteins from the *P. tricornutum* mainly carry Man-5 to Man-9 high mannos type N-glycans. Other minor glycans species i.e. Man-3, Man-4, and Man$_4$FucGlcNAc$_2$ carrying a fucose α(1,3)-linked to the proximal glucosamine residue were also detected. The presence of this later sequence corroborates the weak detection of core α(1,3)-fucose epitopes on Western blot, potential product of the putative FucT sequences predicted in the *P. tricornutum* genome.

In eukaryotes, the first steps of the N-glycan processing into complex N-glycans are controlled by GnT I, α-Man II, and GnT II. The resulting core N-glycan is modified by the action of a wide variety of glycosyltransferases giving rise to mature N-linked glycans involved in various biological processes (8–11). Putative GnT I and α-Man II are predicted in the *P. tricornutum* genome. We mainly focused on GnT I characterization because this transferase is the first enzyme initiating the complex type maturation of oligosaccharides N-linked to secreted proteins. In standard culture conditions, we demonstrated that the gene encoding this putative transferase is expressed. However, no glycan carrying terminal GlcNAc residues has been detected on *P. tricornutum* proteins by either a galactosyltransferase assay or by MALDI-TOF mass spectrometry analysis of the PNGase A-released oligosaccharides. Therefore, the in vivo activity of this putative GnT I was investigated by expressing the full-length protein in CHO Lec1 mutant lacking its endogenous GnT I activity (16). Wild type-like N-glycosylation profiles were detected in transformed cell lines, thus demonstrating that the putative GnT I from this diatom was able to restore the biosynthesis of complex type N-glycans in GnT I-null CHO cells. This shows that the *P. tricornutum* gene encodes for a protein able to perform in vivo the processing of oligomannosides into complex type N-glycans, thus corresponding to a GnT I activity. To our knowledge, this work is the first functional characterization of a microalgal N-glycan glycosyltransferase. These data also suggest that both the targeting and the retention mechanism of Golgi enzymes are conserved between mammals and diatoms.

A search for putative GnT I was carried out in genomes of species belonging to the three main microalgal lineages, i.e. *Viridiplantae*, *Heteroconta*, and *Haptophyta* of the phylogenetic tree. Genes encoding for putative GnT I were identified in two other heterokonts, i.e. *F. cylindrus* and *T. pseudonana*, as well as in the haptophyte *E. huxleyi*. Search for GnT I in *Viridiplantae* only revealed one sequence in *M. pusilla* and not in other species (Fig. 7). The microalgal GnT I complete sequences share ~25% of identity with plant and mammal GnT I. *Heteroconta* and *Haptophyta* GnT I are gathered in a distinct lineage that could be clearly separated from other GnT I as seen in the phylogenetic tree (Fig. 7). So far, the processing of N-linked glycans into complex oligosaccharide has been mainly described in multicellular higher eukaryotes such as animals and land plants and has been demonstrated to be required for normal morphogenesis in animals (9, 10). Our results show that this key Golgi transferase is also involved in the processing of N-linked glycans in unicellular microalgal species.

Mainly high mannos type N-glycans were detected on *P. tricornutum* proteins, which suggests that GnT I possesses a limited in vivo impact on glycans N-linked to secreted proteins of this diatom. No glycan carrying terminal GlcNAc residue has been detected onto *P. tricornutum* proteins. However, although representing a minor glycan population, small size N-glycans Man-3 and Man-4, as well as Man$_4$FucGlcNAc$_2$ were detected in the *P. tricornutum* N-glycan mass profile. These glycans, named paucimannose structures, have been previously found in invertebrates and plants and result from the degradation of GlcNAc-terminated complex glycans (GlcNAcMan$_{2–4}$GlcNAc$_2$) by N-acetylgalactosaminidases after their biosynthesis in the Golgi apparatus. Indeed, in
the GnT I-dependent pathway, GlcNAcMan$_3$GlcNAC$_2$, the product of GnT I (Fig. 1), is successively converted in the Golgi apparatus into GlcNAcMan$_4$GlcNAC$_2$ and then into GlcNAcMan$_3$GlcNAC$_2$ by action of the $\alpha$-Man II and then into GlcNAcMan$_3$FucGlcNAC$_2$ by $\alpha$-FucT. Elimination of terminal GlcNAC by $\alpha$-N-acetylglucosaminidases in the secretory system or in compartments where proteins accumulate can then degrade these oligosaccharides into Man-3, Man-4, and Man$_3$FucGlcNAC$_2$. Such a processing was demonstrated in insect cells (72), C. elegans (73), and plants (74). Two putative processing $\beta$-N-acetylglucosaminidases belonging to the CAZy glycosylhydrolase GH20 family are predicted in the P. tricornutum genome (sequences 49563 and 45073). These glycosidases share 43 and 36%, respectively, of identity with DmFDL, a $\beta$-N-acetylglucosaminidase from Drosophila that is able to specifically hydrolyze a GlcNAC residue located onto the $\alpha$(1,3)-antenna of N-glycans giving rise to paucimannose oligosaccharides (75, 76). Taken together, these data suggest that such processing may also occur in diatoms.

The biochemical characterization of the core-modifying FucTs and of the processing $\alpha$-N-acetylglucosaminidases are currently studied. The N-glycosylation patterns of proteins from P. tricornutum grown in different conditions are currently under investigation to study this major post-translational modification in relation to pleomorphism and/or stress environmental conditions and the function of complex N-glycans in the diatom physiology.

Acknowledgments—We thank C. Bowler (ENS, Paris) and the Joint Genome Institute for giving priority access to the P. tricornutum genome. Authors also thank S. Calbo (INSERM U905, University of Rouen), C. Loutelier-Bourhis (CNRS UMR614, University of Rouen), C. Rihouey (CNRS UMR 6522, University of Rouen), and R. Kaas (Laboratoire Physiologie et Biotechnologies des Algues, Nantes, Institut Français de Recherche pour l’Exploitation de la Mer) for technical help and advice as well as Margot Lerouge for help with producing figures. We thank J.-C. Mollet, A. Driouich, and S. Calbo (University of Rouen) for critical readings of our manuscript.

REFERENCES
1. Nelson, D. M., Treguer, P., Brzezinski, M. A., Leynaert, A., and Queguiner, B., (1995) Global al. Biogeochem. Cycles 9, 359–372
2. Raven, J. A., and Waite, A. M. (2004) New Phytologist 162, 45–61
Functional Characterization of the P. tricornutum GnT I

Gallet, F., Maftah, A., Julien, R., and Macher, B. A. (2000) J. Biol. Chem. 275, 24237–24245
67. Strasser, R., Mucha, J., Mach, L., Altmann, F., Wilson, I. B., Glössl, J., and Steinkellner, H. (2000) FEBS Lett. 472, 105–108
68. Pagny, S., Bouissonnie, F., Sarkar, M., Follet-Gueye, M. L., Driouich, A., Schachter, H., Faye, L., and Gomord, V. (2003) Plant J. 33, 189–203
69. Faye, L., and Chrispeels, M. J. (1985) Anal. Biochem. 149, 218–224
70. Vitale, A., and Chrispeels, M. J. (1984) J. Cell Biol. 99, 133–140
71. Banerjee, S., Vishwanath, P., Cui, J., Kelleher, D. J., Gilmore, R., Robbins, P. W., and Samuelson, J. (2007) Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U.S.A. 104, 11676–11681
72. Altmann, F., Schwihla, H., Staudacher, E., Glössl, J., and März, L. (1995) J. Biol. Chem. 270, 17344–17349
73. Zhang, W., Cao, P., Chen, S., Spence, A. M., Zhu, S., Staudacher, E., and Schachter, H. (2003) Biochem. J. 372, 53–64
74. Varki, A., Cummings, R. D., Esko, J. D., Freeze, H. H., Stanley, P., Marth, J. D., Bertozzi, C. R., Hart, G. W., and Etzler, M. E. (2009) Proteomics 9, 5398–5399
75. Leónard, R., Rendic, D., Rabouille, C., Wilson, I. B., Préat, T., and Altmann, F. (2006) J. Biol. Chem. 281, 4867–4875
76. Geisler, C., Aumiller, J. J., and Jarvis, D. L. (2008) J. Biol. Chem. 283, 11330–11339