

The Dual Origin of *Toxoplasma gondii* N-Glycans[†]

Estelle Garénaux,[‡] Hosam Shams-Eldin,[§] Frederic Chirat,[‡] Ulrike Bieker,[§] Jörg Schmidt,[§] Jean-Claude Michalski,[‡] René Cacan,[‡] Yann Guérardel,^{*,‡} and Ralph T. Schwarz^{‡,§}

Unité de Glycobiologie Structurale et Fonctionnelle, UMR 8576 CNRS, Université des Sciences et Technologies de Lille, 59655 Villeneuve d'Ascq cedex, France, and Institut für Virologie, AG Parasitologie, Philipps-Universität Marburg, Hans-Meerwein-Strasse 2, 35043 Marburg, Germany

Received June 11, 2008; Revised Manuscript Received September 19, 2008

ABSTRACT: N-Linked glycosylation is the most frequent modification of secreted proteins in eukaryotic cells that plays a crucial role in protein folding and trafficking. Mature N-glycans are sequentially processed in the endoplasmic reticulum and Golgi apparatus through a pathway highly conserved in most eukaryotic organisms. Here, we demonstrate that the obligate intracellular protozoan parasite *Toxoplasma gondii* independently transfers endogenous truncated as well as host-derived N-glycans onto its own proteins. Therefore, we propose that the apicomplexan parasite scavenges N-glycosylation intermediates from the host cells to compensate for the rapid evolution of its biosynthetic pathway, which is primarily devoted to modification of proteins with glycosylphosphatidylinositols rather than N-glycans.

In eukaryotes, asparagine-linked glycosylation (ALG) is initiated in the endoplasmic reticulum (ER) membrane by the synthesis of lipid-linked oligosaccharides, the dolichol-pyrophosphate-oligosaccharide (DolPPOS)¹ (Figure 1A) (1–5). The precursor oligosaccharide Glc₃Man₉GlcNAc₂-PP-Dol is assembled in a stepwise manner by the sequential actions of specific glycosyltransferases (ALG1–ALG14) and glycosidases. The five first mannose residues are transferred from GDP-Man to the chitobiose core, leading to the original structure Man₅GlcNAc₂. After the oligosaccharide is flipped to the luminal side of the ER (6, 7), four other mannose residues are attached, provided by Dol-P-Man and three glucose residues from Dol-P-Glc. The complete oligosaccharide moiety (Glc₃Man₉GlcNAc₂) is then transferred to selected asparagines of the nascent proteins on the consensus motif Asn-X-Ser/Thr (Figure 1A). This central reaction is catalyzed by the hetero-oligomeric protein oligosaccharyltransferase (OST) complex (8), which contains a catalytic subunit, STT3 (9, 10).

Whereas many reports are available concerning N-glycosylation in free-living organisms, information regarding obligate intracellular parasites is still fragmentary. The data concerning ALG genes in several eukaryotic organisms suggest that database mining may allow the prediction of DolPPOS structures synthesized by any organism (11). This bioinformatic approach has been verified in several unicel-

lular organisms such as *Trypanosoma cruzii*, *Tetrahymena thermophila*, and *Leishmania major*. Interestingly, the capacity of classical O-linked and N-linked glycosylations appears to be greatly reduced in some species exhibiting an obligate intracellular lifestyle; for example, the apicomplexan parasite *Plasmodium falciparum* contains low levels of N-glycosylation capability (12–14), and two microsporidian species, *Encephalitozoon cuniculi* and *Antonosporea locustae*, seem to have lost the ability to synthesize N-linked glycans through the secondary losses of several key enzymes of the N-glycosylation pathway (15, 16). Similar to *P. falciparum*, glycosylphosphatidylinositol (GPI) anchors represent the major carbohydrate modification of proteins in *T. gondii* (17, 18, 14). *T. gondii* is a coccidian parasite found worldwide that infects a wide range of warm-blooded vertebrates and has emerged as an important opportunistic pathogen for immunocompromised persons. For example, co-infection with HIV often leads to fatal encephalitis (19–21). *T. gondii* shares common features with other apicomplexan parasites and represents a promising model for the study of the biosynthesis and role of glycans in the apicomplexa. The first direct biochemical evidence of N-glycosylation of the proliferative-stage, tachyzoite, glycoprotein gp23 provided impetus for the study of N-glycosylation in *T. gondii* (22). Furthermore, it was recently reported that N-glycosylation is essential for successful infection (23, 24). It is noteworthy that the lack of solid structural data represents a major obstacle to deciphering glycoconjugate metabolism using bioinformatic tools. *T. gondii* clearly expresses a functional STT3p (25); however, genome analysis indicates that orthologs of ALG3, ALG9, and ALG12 are absent. These correspond to the set of luminal mannosyltransferases that use Dol-P-Man as the sugar donor [Table S1 of the Supporting Information (11, 23); <http://www.toxodb.org/toxo/home.jsp>], indicating a profound modification in the N-glycan biosynthetic pathway of the parasite. Thus, on the basis of the presence of a specific subset of orthologous ALG genes, *T.*

[†] This research was supported by CNRS (Centre National de la Recherche Scientifique), Deutsche Forschungsgemeinschaft, Bonn, and PROCOPE of DAAD/Egide (to R.T.S. and Y.G.).

^{*} To whom correspondence should be addressed. E-mail: yann.guerardel@univ-lille1.fr. Telephone: +33(0)320336347. Fax: +33(0)320436555.

[‡] Université des Sciences et Technologies de Lille.

[§] Philipps-Universität Marburg.

¹ Abbreviations: GPI, glycosylphosphatidylinositol; DolPPOS, dolichol-pyrophosphate-oligosaccharide; ER, endoplasmic reticulum; OST, oligosaccharyltransferase; Man, mannose; Glc, glucose; GlcNAc, N-acetylglucosamine; MS, mass spectrometry.

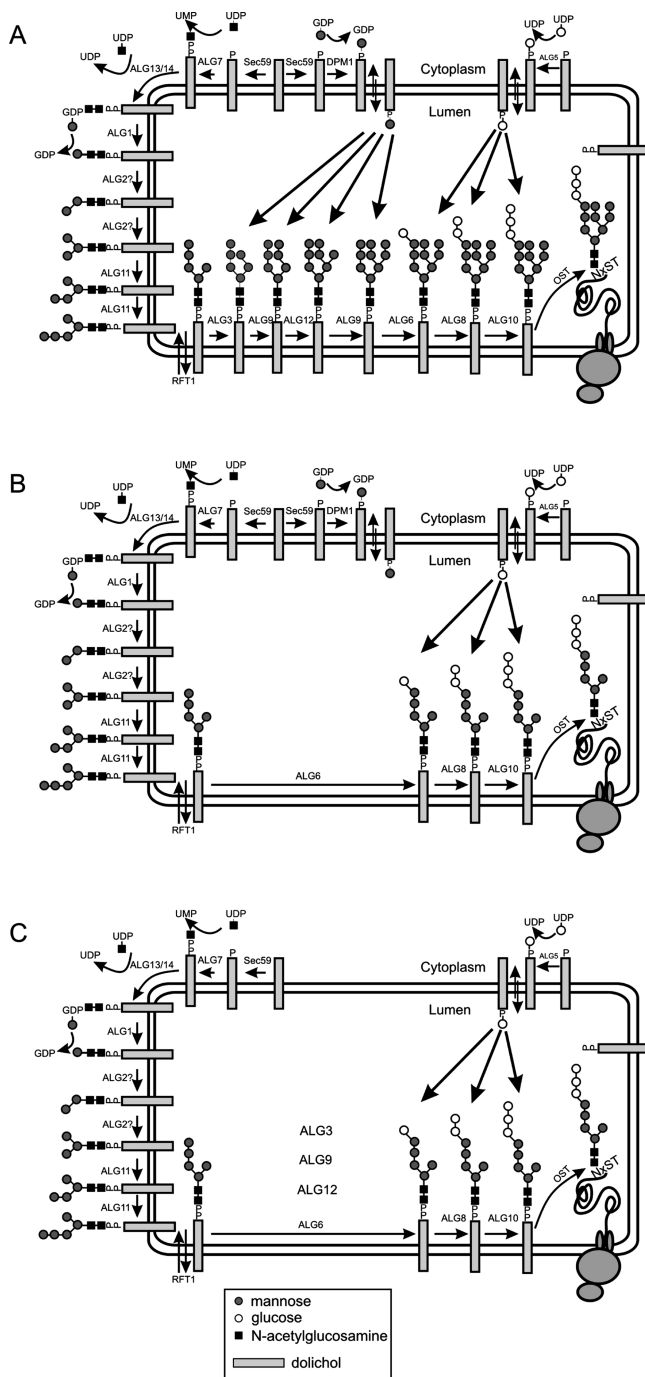


FIGURE 1: Inventory of ALG glycosyltransferase genes and predicted dolichol-linked *N*-glycans in (A) classical mammalian cells, (B) *Toxoplasma gondii*, and (C) the CHO B3F7 mutant cell line.

gondii possesses the enzymatic equipment for the biosynthesis of truncated $\text{Glc}_3\text{Man}_5\text{GlcNAc}_2\text{-PP-Dol}$, but not complete $\text{Glc}_3\text{Man}_9\text{GlcNAc}_2\text{-PP-Dol}$ oligosaccharide precursors (Figure 1B). Luk and colleagues recently suggested that *N*-glycans in *T. gondii* differ from classical oligomannosyl-type structures and could correspond to $\text{Glc}_3\text{Man}_5\text{GlcNAc}_2$ (23). However, until now, the exact nature of oligosaccharides transferred onto nascent parasite proteins has been unknown.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Cell and Parasite Cultures. *T. gondii* grown in African green monkey kidney cells (Vero cells, ATCC CCL-81),

human foreskin fibroblasts (HFF, ATCC CRL-1635), CHO Pro-5, and CHO B3F7 were cultured in DMEM (Gibco BRL), supplemented with 10% FCS (Gibco), 2 mM glutamine, 100 units/mL penicillin, and 0.1 mg/mL streptomycin. Parasites (5×10^7) were added to confluent monolayer of cells (175 cm^2), harvested after being cultivated for 72 h, and liberated from their host cells using a Mixer Mill homogenizer (Retsch). The suspension was run through a 20 mL glass wool column to remove cellular debris. The purity of the tachyzoite suspension was monitored microscopically. Cell lines and parasites were routinely tested for *Mycoplasma* contamination. To control the efficiency of parasite purification, *T. gondii* cells grown in CHO B3F7 liberated from their host cells were mixed with homogenized Vero cells, and the mixture was purified using glass-wool columns as described previously.

Strains and Media. The *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* and *Escherichia coli* strains used in this work were YPH 499 (Mat a; *ura* 3-52; *lys* 2-801amber; *ade* 2-101ochre; *trp* 1-63; *his* 3-200; *leu* 2-1) (Stratagene) and *E. coli* strain XL1-blue (Stratagene), which was used for subcloning and other standard recombinant DNA procedures. *S. cerevisiae* strains were grown in YPAD medium [1% (w/v) Bacto yeast extract, 2% (w/v) Bacto peptone, 2% (w/v) dextrose, and 4 mg/L adenine] or SD medium (0.17% Bacto yeast nitrogen base, 0.5% ammonium sulfate, and 2% dextrose) containing the nutritional supplements necessary to complement strain auxotrophs or allow selection of transformants. YPH499-HIS-GAL-ALG7 was maintained on SGR medium (4% galactose, 2% raffinose, 0.17% Bacto yeast nitrogen base, and 0.5% ammonium sulfate) in which dextrose is replaced with galactose and raffinose as a source of carbohydrates. *E. coli* strains were grown in LB medium.

Extraction of Glycoproteins and Preparation of *N*-Glycans. Collected *T. gondii* (10^9 parasites) or cells were homogenized by ultrasonic treatment at 4 °C. Lipids were extracted by sequential extraction with 20 volumes of a chloroform/methanol mixture (2:1, v/v) and then with a chloroform/methanol/water (40:20:3) solution. Delipidated homogenates were suspended in a solution of 6 M guanidinium chloride and 5 mM ethylenediaminetetraacetic acid (EDTA) in 0.1 M Tris-HCl (pH 8) and agitated for 4 h at 4 °C. Dithiothreitol was then added to a final concentration of 20 mM and incubated for 5 h at 37 °C, followed by the addition of iodoacetamide to a final concentration of 50 mM and further incubation overnight in the dark at room temperature. The reduced and alkylated sample was dialyzed against water at 4 °C for 3 days and lyophilized. The recovered protein samples were then sequentially digested with TPSK-treated trypsin overnight at 37 °C, in 50 mM ammonium bicarbonate buffer (pH 8.4), and with chymotrypsin. Crude peptides and glycopeptides were loaded onto a C18 Sep-Pak cartridge. Glucan polymers and other hydrophilic contaminants were washed off with 5% aqueous acetic acid, and the bound peptides and glycopeptides were eluted with a step gradient of 20, 40, and 60% 1-propanol in water. Eluted fractions were pooled, dried down, and then incubated with *N*-glycosidase F (Roche, Basel, Switzerland) overnight at 37 °C in 50 mM ammonium bicarbonate buffer (pH 8.4). Released *N*-glycans were separated from peptides and glycopeptides using the same C18 Sep-Pak procedure. Pooled propan-1-ol fractions were then digested with *N*-glycosidase

A from almond (0.5 milliunits, Calbiochem) in 50 mM ammonium acetate buffer (pH 5) at 37 °C overnight. The *N*-glycans that were released were likewise separated from the peptides by the same C18 Sep-Pak procedure.

Chemical Derivatization. For MALDI-MS analyses, the glycan samples were permethylated using the NaOH/dimethyl sulfoxide slurry method (26). The permethyl derivatives were then extracted in chloroform and repeatedly washed with water.

Coupling Oligosaccharides with 2-Aminopyridine. After hydrolysis, oligosaccharides were reductively aminated with 2-aminopyridine at the reducing end (27). Then, to remove excess reagent and purify 2-PA oligosaccharides, two methanol solutions (75 and 85%) were successively added to the reaction mixture and dried under a nitrogen stream. After addition of 1 mL of water, the pH was adjusted to 10 by adding NH₄OH (25%). The aqueous phase was washed 10 times with chloroform to eliminate excess 2-AP. The aqueous phase was then transferred into a clean tube and pH-neutralized with glacial acetic acid before lyophilization. Finally, derivatized oligosaccharides were purified by solid phase extraction (SPE) onto a C18 Sep-Pack column.

Mannosidase Treatment of 2-Aminopyridinylated *N*-Glycans. 2-PA-coupled PNGase F-released oligosaccharides were digested with α -mannosidase from *Aspergillus saitoi* (GKX5009 Glyko). Each sample was treated with α -(1,2)-mannosidase in 100 mM sodium acetate and 2 mM Zn²⁺ (pH 5.0) and incubated overnight at 37 °C. The mixture was finally applied on a C18 Sep-Pak column to purify 2-aminopyridinylated oligosaccharides.

MS Analyses of Glycans. For MALDI time-of-flight (MALDI-TOF) MS glycan profiling, native compounds in water were mixed 1:1 with a 2,5-dihydroxybenzoic acid (DHB) matrix (10 mg/mL in a 50:50 MeOH/water mixture), spotted on the target plate, and dried under vacuum. Data acquisition was performed manually on a Voyager instrument (Applied Biosystems) operated in the reflectron mode. Laser shots were accumulated until a satisfactory signal-to-noise ratio was achieved when combined and smoothed.

Extraction of Lipid-Linked Oligosaccharides. Extractions were performed according to ref 28. Briefly, cell pellets were extracted with 2 mL of a chloroform/methanol/H₂O solution (3:2:1). After centrifugation, the upper phase and proteins were extracted twice with 1.5 mL of the theoretical lower phase (70 mL of MeOH, 5 mL of 4 mM MgCl₂, and 430 mL of chloroform). Then proteins were washed four times with 3 mL of the theoretical upper phase (240 mL of MeOH, 225 mL of H₂O, 9.4 mL of 100 mM MgCl₂, and 15 mL of CH₂Cl₂). After pellets had been partially dried, Dol-PP-OS were extracted with 1.5 mL of a CH₂Cl₂/MeOH/H₂O (10:10:3, v/v) mixture. Dried Dol-PP-OS were released by mild acid treatment (0.1 M HCl in tetrahydrofuran at 50 °C for 2 h). Released oligosaccharides were dried under a stream of nitrogen and purified on a carbograph column (Alltech carbograph SPE column).

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The Complementation by *Tg*-alg7 in the *ALG7*-Deficient *S. cerevisiae* Conditional Mutant Strain Suggests the Presence of a Functional Set of *ALG* Enzymes in *T. gondii*. The alg7 gene encodes GlcNAc-1-P transferase that initiates

biosynthesis of *N*-glycan precursors. Therefore, as an initial step toward an evaluation of genetic regulation of the *T. gondii* *N*-glycosylation, the alg7 gene homologue from *T. gondii* was identified. Initially, a 338 bp fragment of putative *T. gondii* alg7 was identified by a BLAST search of the EST database (<http://www.toxodb.org/toxo/home.jsp>) using the sequences of known orthologs from other organisms. This was subsequently used to screen a *T. gondii* Lambda ZAP cDNA library, and a clone containing a 1503 bp open reading frame predicted to encode a 54 kDa type III transmembrane protein was isolated (EMBL Data Bank accession entry AJ436993). The deduced protein sequence is 36.3 and 43% identical to amino acid sequences of the *S. cerevisiae* and *Homo sapiens* homologue proteins, respectively. Furthermore, the putative *T. gondii* alg7 gene was able to complement a conditional lethal yeast mutant (Figure S1 of the Supporting Information), strongly indicating that it encodes a functional GlcNAc-1 transferase. Additionally, in an attempt to inactivate the alg7 locus, we modified the disruption construct TUB5/CAT (28) that contains a chloramphenicol acetyltransferase (CAT) expression cassette. The regions flanking the CAT cassette in the 5' and 3' positions were replaced with 1.2 and 2.8 kb DNA fragments, respectively, derived from the untranslated 5' and 3' sequences of the ALG7 locus. After selection, chloramphenicol-resistant clones were further analyzed by PCR. Every PCR-tested clone was false-positive (data not shown). We thus assumed that disrupting ALG7 may be lethal for the parasite, suggesting that *N*-glycosylation is essential for *T. gondii*'s life cycle. The fact that *T. gondii* possesses genes encoding at least two key enzymes responsible for the initiation of DolPPOS precursor biosynthesis (ALG7) and the transfer of the final products to nascent proteins (STT3) (25) strongly suggests that the parasite exhibits a functional, although possibly truncated, *N*-glycosylation pathway.

Analysis of DolPPOS from *T. gondii* Contradicts *In Silico* Prediction. In a first approach, to evaluate the independent ability of *T. gondii* to synthesize *N*-glycans, we performed experiments on isolated *T. gondii*. In that case, our attempts to analyze DolPPOS by MS were negative, due to very small quantity of isolated material. We also observed that [³H]mannose and methionine incorporation were virtually absent compared with that in normal cells. We then chose to analyze intracellular parasites in parallel to their host cells. The presence of the *de novo* glycosylation pathway in the parasite was confirmed after specific extraction of DolPPOS (29), hydrolysis of the oligosaccharide moiety, and profiling by mass spectrometry (MS). We observed differences between the DolPPOS profiles of the parasite and those of its host cells. Whereas the profile of DolPPOS oligosaccharide moieties from control African green monkey kidney epithelial (Vero) cells is characterized by prominent Man₈GlcNAc₂, Man₉GlcNAc₂, and Glc₁₋₃Man₉GlcNAc₂ (Figure 2A and Table 1), *T. gondii* tachyzoites exhibit a simpler pattern containing only Hex₈GlcNAc₂ and Hex₉GlcNAc₂ (Figure 2B and Table 1). Surprisingly, the presence of precursors with more than eight hexoses does not correlate with the gene repertoire of the parasite, whose genome is likely to lack a number of genes required for the biosynthesis of *N*-glycan (Figure 1B).

The *N*-Glycosylation Profile of *T. gondii* Is Host Cell-Dependent. To reconcile our apparently contradictory ob-

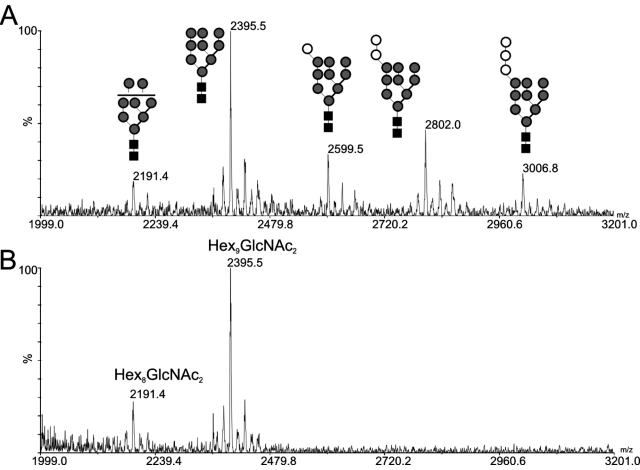


FIGURE 2: MALDI-TOF MS comparison of DolPPOS acid-hydrolyzed released oligosaccharides from (A) Vero cells and (B) *T. gondii* grown in Vero cells.

Table 1: DolPPOS Acid-Hydrolyzed Released Oligosaccharides from Vero Cells and *T. gondii* Grown in Vero Cells and a Summary of Permethyated Compounds Observed by MS in Vero Cells and *T. gondii* Grown in Vero Cells

signal (m/z)	composition	Vero	<i>T. gondii</i>
1783	Hex ₆ GlcNAc ₂	✓	
1987	Hex ₇ GlcNAc ₂	✓	
2191	Hex ₈ GlcNAc ₂	✓	✓
2395	Hex ₉ GlcNAc ₂	✓	✓
2599	Hex ₁₀ GlcNAc ₂	✓	
2802	Hex ₁₁ GlcNAc ₂	✓	
3006	Hex ₁₂ GlcNAc ₂	✓	

servations, we defined the nature of the final *N*-glycan biosynthetic products using a glycomic approach, releasing glycans from the total pool of proteins from *T. gondii* grown in different host cells and analyzing their distribution using mass spectrometry. Control Vero and HFF cells exhibit major oligomannosyl-type structures as well as minor hybrid and complex-type *N*-glycans (Figure 3A, Figure S2 of the Supporting Information, and Table 2). We did not identify sialylated *N*-glycans, although their presence was suggested

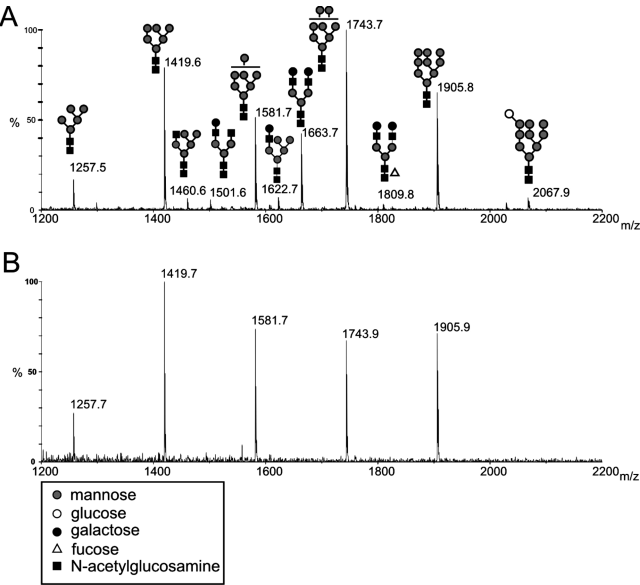


FIGURE 3: MALDI-TOF MS comparison of native PNGase F-released oligosaccharides from (A) Vero cells and (B) *T. gondii* grown in Vero cells.

Table 2: Summary of Native and 2-AP Derivative Compounds Observed by MS in Vero Cells and *T. gondii* Grown in Vero Cells

native (m/z)	2-PA (m/z)	composition	Vero	<i>T. gondii</i>
933	1011	Man ₃ GlcNAc ₂ , Na ⁺	✓	✓
1079	1157	(Fuc)Man ₃ GlcNAc ₂ , Na ⁺	✓	
1095	1173	Hex ₁ Man ₃ GlcNAc ₂ , Na ⁺	✓	✓
1257	1335	Hex ₂ Man ₃ GlcNAc ₂ , Na ⁺	✓	✓
1419	1497	Hex ₃ Man ₃ GlcNAc ₂ , Na ⁺	✓	✓
1460	1538	GlcNAcMan ₅ GlcNAc ₂ , Na ⁺	✓	
1501	1579	GlcNAc ₂ Man ₃ GlcNAc ₂ , Na ⁺	✓	
1581	1659	Hex ₄ Man ₃ GlcNAc ₂ , Na ⁺	✓	✓
1622	1700	GalGlcNAcMan ₅ GlcNAc ₂ , Na ⁺	✓	
1663	1741	Gal ₂ GlcNAc ₂ Man ₃ GlcNAc ₂ , Na ⁺	✓	
1743	1821	Hex ₅ Man ₃ GlcNAc ₂ , Na ⁺	✓	✓
1809	1887	FucGal ₂ GlcNAc ₂ Man ₃ GlcNAc ₂ , Na ⁺	✓	
1905	1983	Hex ₆ Man ₃ GlcNAc ₂ , Na ⁺	✓	✓
2012	2090	FucGal ₂ GlcNAc ₃ Man ₃ GlcNAc ₂ , Na ⁺	✓	
2028	2106	Gal ₃ GlcNAc ₃ Man ₃ GlcNAc ₂ , Na ⁺	✓	
2067	2145	Hex ₇ Man ₃ GlcNAc ₂ , Na ⁺	✓	✓
2174	2252	FucGal ₃ GlcNAc ₃ Man ₃ GlcNAc ₂ , Na ⁺	✓	

by GC analysis, but evidenced several sialylated glycosphingolipids (data not shown). It has been recently established that micronemal proteins from *T. gondii* bind specifically sialylated oligosaccharides (30). We assume that those gangliosides likely correspond to membrane compounds recognized by *T. gondii* during invasion. This comes as no surprise since gangliosides are particularly abundant in mammalian cell membranes and play a key role in a variety of essential cellular processes (31).

In contrast to host cells, tachyzoites grown in Vero cells were found to lack complex-type *N*-glycans (Figure 3B and Table 2). Similar results were obtained with *T. gondii* cultivated in HFF cells (Figure S2B of the Supporting Information). Indeed, MS profiling exclusively revealed oligomannosylated type *N*-glycans ranging from Man₃HexNAc₂ to Man₉HexNAc₂ that are typically observed in mammalian cells. The presence of high-mannose-type glycans (more than six mannose residues) on parasitic proteins is again in contradiction with bioinformatic predictions, leaving in question the origin of these compounds.

To address this discrepancy, we cultivated tachyzoites in a CHO mutant cell line deficient in Dol-P-Man synthase, B3F7 (31). These cells synthesize Glc₁₋₃Man₅GlcNAc₂-PP-Dol, instead of the classical Glc₁₋₃Man₉GlcNAc₂-PP-Dol lipidic precursors, and transfer truncated Glc₃Man₅GlcNAc₂ onto their newly synthesized proteins [Figure 1C (32)]. Accordingly, the *N*-glycosylation profile of the host B3F7 cell line is dominated by truncated Man₃GlcNAc₂ to Man₅GlcNAc₂ as well as complex-type *N*-glycans that are likely to result from the trimming and processing of Glc₃Man₅GlcNAc₂ (Figure S3A of the Supporting Information and Figure 4C) (33). Then, a set of signals with *m/z* values corresponding to Hex₆₋₈HexNAc₂ were tentatively attributed to glucosylated Glc₁₋₃Man₅GlcNAc₂ based on genomic data. Both *T. gondii* and B3F7 cells are expected to synthesize similar truncated glycans as a result of the deficiency in different activities. Indeed, B3F7 cells are deficient in Dol-P-Man synthase, whereas *T. gondii* lacks Dol-P-Man using luminal mannosyltransferases. If the synthesis of Man₉GlcNAc₂ observed in *T. gondii* grown in Vero and HFF cells was the result of the complementation of parasite-deficient ALG3, ALG9, and ALG12 enzymatic activities by the host cell, we would then also find this glycan in *T. gondii* grown in B3F7 cells. However, *N*-glycan

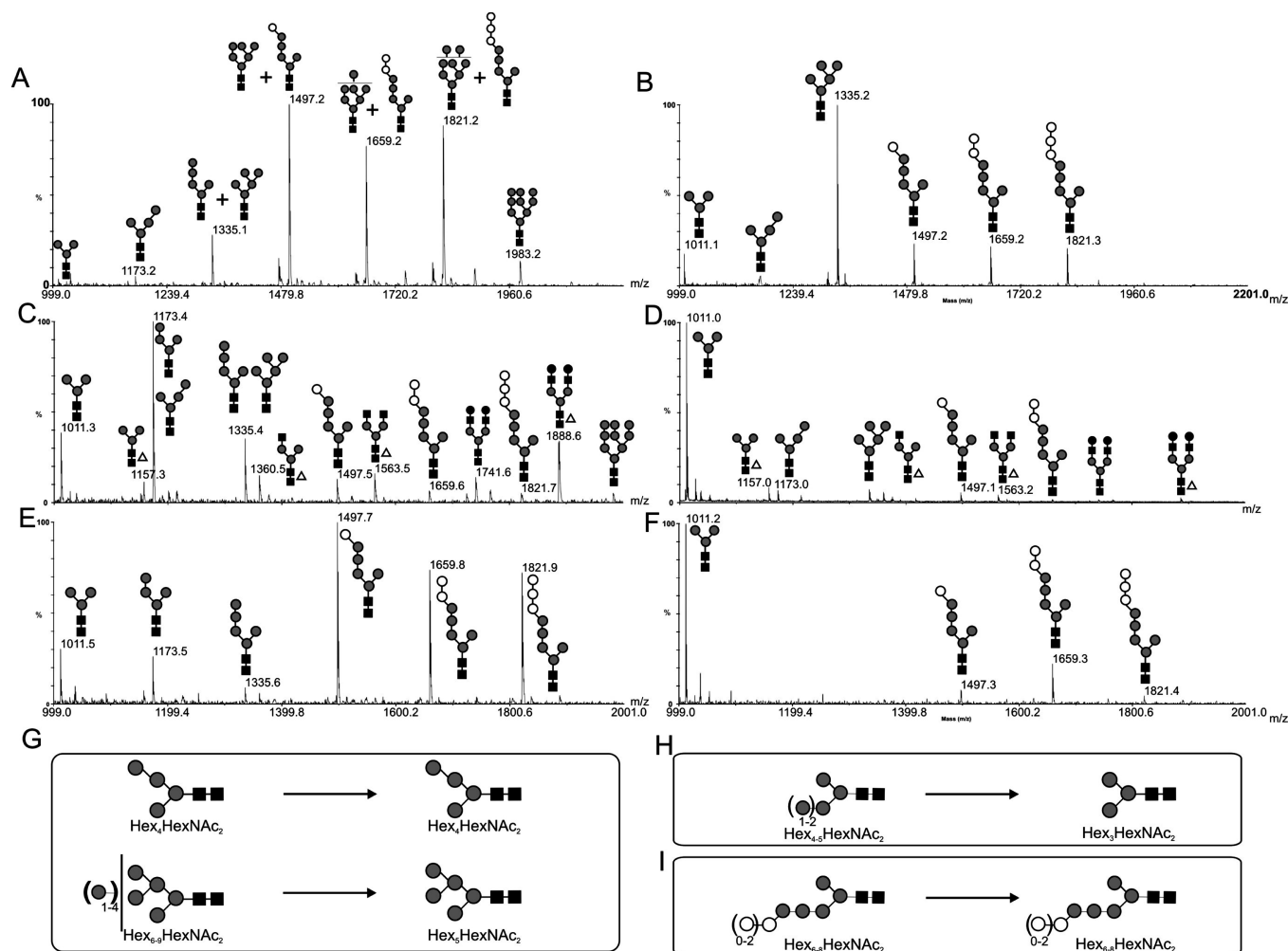


FIGURE 4: MS profiles of oligosaccharides released from proteins of (A and B) *T. gondii* grown in Vero cells, (C and D) B3F7 cells, (E and F) *T. gondii* grown in B3F7 cells (A, C, and E) before and (B, D, and F) after *A. saitoi* exomannosidase digestion. Susceptibility to *A. saitoi* exomannosidase digestion of (G) branched Golgi-derived oligomannosyl types, (H) ER-derived *N*-glycans, and (I) ER-derived linear truncated *N*-glycans. Oligosaccharides were analyzed by MALDI-TOF MS after derivatization as 2PA oligosaccharides.

profiling demonstrates that *T. gondii* grown in B3F7 mutant cells synthesize oligosaccharides varying from Hex₃GlcNAc₂ to Hex₈GlcNAc₂, but not Hex₉GlcNAc₂ (Figure 4E and Figure S3B of the Supporting Information). Furthermore, we never observed any complex-type *N*-glycans in the parasite, regardless of the host cell in which it had been grown. The specific absence of Hex₉GlcNAc₂ signals in *T. gondii* grown in B3F7 cells compared with other host cells established that parasite glycosylation capacities were somehow dependent on the host. However, the parasite does not use its host enzymatic repertoire to complement its own incomplete repertoire. On the basis of the known mammalian glycosyl-transferase repertoire, the Hex₅–HexNAc₂ signals observed in Vero and HFF cells are classical branched mature *N*-glycans derived from the trimming of Glc₃Man₉GlcNAc₂, while in B3F7 cells, they correspond to truncated Glc_{0–3}Man₅GlcNAc₂. It is noteworthy that the mutant (B3F7) is not completely deficient in DolPMan synthase activity as minute, but measurable, amounts of Man₉GlcNAc₂ were also detected.

T. gondii Grown in B3F7 Cells Exclusively Synthesize Glucose-Containing Biantennary *N*-Glycans. Finally, to assess the relative contributions of the parasite and host cells to *T. gondii* *N*-glycosylation, we looked for the precise origin

of the protozoan *N*-glycans in various host cells. The exquisite specificity of *A. saitoi* exomannosidase toward the $\alpha(1-2)$ linkage permits differentiation of the Golgi degradation products (Figure 4G) from the linear ER-related compounds (Figure 4H) and the glucose-containing truncated glycans (Figure 4I). The efficiency of this enzymatic treatment was evaluated by MS using a standard mixture of high-mannose-type chains ranging in size from Man₆GlcNAc₂ to Man₉GlcNAc₂. This demonstrated that glycans ranging from Man₇GlcNAc₂ to Man₉HexNAc₂ were almost quantitatively degraded to branched Man₅HexNAc₂ and residual Man₆GlcNAc₂ (Figure S4 of the Supporting Information). On the other hand, Man₄GlcNAc₂ and Man₅GlcNAc₂ from tachyzoites grown in B3F7 cells were completely degraded to Man₃GlcNAc₂ by enzymatic treatment (Figure 4E,F). This indicated that these two oligosaccharides are ER-derived compounds. Furthermore, resistance of Hex₆GlcNAc₂, Hex₇GlcNAc₂, and Hex₈GlcNAc₂ to mannosidase activity, as well as the absence of a branched Man₅GlcNAc₂ degradation product, establishes that these compounds are Glc_{1–3}Man₅GlcNAc₂ truncated glycans. *N*-Glycan samples were digested twice to rule out the possibility of partial degradation. Then, identical results were obtained from several independent parasite productions. Altogether, these

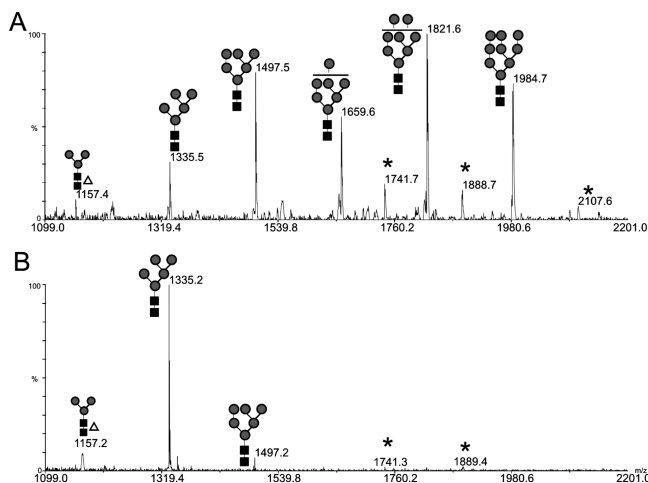


FIGURE 5: Susceptibility of Vero cell-derived *N*-glycans to *A. saitoi* exomannosidase digestion. MS profiles of 2-AP-derivatized oligomannosyl-type *N*-glycans (A) before and (B) after mannosidase digestion. Asterisks denote complex-type *N*-glycans.

data strongly suggest that *N*-glycans from *T. gondii* grown in B3F7 cells correspond to $\text{Glc}_{1-3}\text{Man}_5\text{GlcNAc}_2$ truncated glycans.

A similar strategy confirmed that truncated *N*-glycans represent also the major type of glycosylation in B3F7 cells (Figure 4C,D). It also established the presence of small amounts of branched glycans, not observed in *T. gondii*. These are certainly the result of a residual Dol-P-Man synthase activity in B3F7 cells, as suggested by the presence of a $\text{Man}_9\text{GlcNAc}_2$ signal. Taken together, these data establish that *T. gondii* transfers truncated *N*-glycans onto newly synthesized proteins. However, considering that both parasite and B3F7 mutant cells potentially synthesize identical truncated *N*-glycans, we cannot determine at this stage if parasite truncated *N*-glycans are genuinely synthesized by the parasite or scavenged from the host cells.

T. gondii Synthesizes Truncated *N*-Glycans and Scavenges Oligomannosyl *N*-Glycans from Host Cells. To establish the origin of parasitic *N*-glycans, we re-evaluated the structure of *T. gondii* *N*-glycans grown in Vero cells by using mannosidase. As expected, mannosidase treatment of Vero cell-derived *N*-glycans eliminated $\text{Man}_{7-9}\text{GlcNAc}_2$, confirming that all mature *N*-glycans are indeed Golgi-modified products (Figure 5). As observed with the standard *N*-glycans (Figure S4 of the Supporting Information), their complete degradation generated a prominent branched $\text{Man}_5\text{GlcNAc}_2$ and a minor $\text{Man}_6\text{GlcNAc}_2$. In contrast, $\text{Hex}_{7-9}\text{GlcNAc}_2$ isolated from *T. gondii* grown in Vero cells was partially resistant to digestion by mannosidase, indicating the presence of truncated $\text{Glc}_{1-3}\text{Man}_5\text{GlcNAc}_2$ glycans (Figure 4A,B). However, the concomitant marked increase in the level of branched $\text{Man}_5\text{GlcNAc}_2$ and the disappearance of $\text{Hex}_9\text{GlcNAc}_2$ clearly indicate the presence of branched $\text{Man}_{6-9}\text{GlcNAc}_2$, as well. To confirm that the $\text{Hex}_9\text{GlcNAc}_2$ signal originated from *T. gondii* rather than from a host cell contaminant, we mixed parasites released from B3F7 cells with homogenized Vero cells and analyzed the resulting *N*-glycan profile. This analysis revealed the absence of $\text{Hex}_9\text{GlcNAc}_2$, thereby indicating that any contamination from host cells is below the level of detection (Figure S5 of the Supporting Information).

CONCLUSION

Analyses of *N*-glycans extracted from tachyzoites grown in different host cells clearly demonstrated that the parasite is able to synthesize and transfer truncated glucosylated biantennary *N*-glycans to parasite proteins (23, 25), in a host-independent manner. These results are in agreement with *in silico* prediction of the *T. gondii* glycosyltransferase pathway (11, 23).

However, when grown in Vero and HFF cells, *T. gondii* also transfers classical *N*-glycans identical to those of its host cells, as indicated by the presence of Golgi-derived oligomannosylated types. These glycans are not synthesized by the parasite through functional complementation of the incomplete *T. gondii* glycosyltransferase pathway by host cell enzymes, since parasites grown in B3F7 cells (which still maintain this activity) do not synthesize mature *N*-glycans. Therefore, we hypothesize that *T. gondii* scavenges DolPPPOS from its host cell in a nonspecific manner and subsequently transfers its oligosaccharidic moieties onto its own newly synthesized proteins, as evidenced by the presence of functional STT3 (25). Once transferred, the destiny of these glycans remains unclear; however, they seem to undergo very limited processing in contrast to mammalian cells. Indeed, although B3F7 mutant cells extensively process the $\text{Glc}_{1-3}\text{Man}_5\text{GlcNAc}_2$ precursor glycans toward $\text{Man}_4\text{GlcNAc}_2$ and complex types, proteins from *T. gondii* grown in these cells mainly harbor $\text{Glc}_{1-3}\text{Man}_5\text{GlcNAc}_2$. This is in good agreement with the apparent lack of most proteins involved in the quality control of newly synthesized proteins in *T. gondii* (34).

To the best of our knowledge, this represents the first documented example of the scavenging of glycan intermediates from the host cell by an intracellular parasite. In a similar way, *T. gondii* has been shown to mobilize selected host lipids to fulfill its high metabolic requirements during proliferation (35–37). These exchanges could be facilitated by the close association of the parasitophorous vacuole membrane with the host endoplasmic reticulum, where the early steps of *N*-glycan biosynthesis take place. From an evolutionary perspective, it is noteworthy that the absence of Dol-P-Man-dependent mannosyltransferase activities in the *N*-glycosylation pathway is counterbalanced by the synthesis of very large quantities of GPI-type glycosylation (38). Considering the postulated common evolutionary origin of ALG enzymes and PIG enzymes involved in the biosynthesis of phosphatidylinositol glycans (39), one may postulate that Dol-P-Man-dependent mannosyltransferases could have rapidly evolved for the exclusive synthesis of GPI in *T. gondii*. The presence of such enzymes in apicomplexan protozoa is in agreement with this hypothesis (40). The opportunity for the parasite to use *N*-glycan precursors synthesized by the host could then have lifted the selective pressure to maintain an intact reticular *N*-glycosylation pathway, acting as a powerful drive for the evolution of glycosylation machinery in intracellular obligatory parasites.

ACKNOWLEDGMENT

We thank Dr. P. Denny (Durham University, Durham, U.K.) for careful reading of the manuscript. We also acknowledge the expert help of Ms. Melanie Sauer.

SUPPORTING INFORMATION AVAILABLE

Five figures (Figure S1–S5) and their corresponding legends and one table (Table S1). This material is available free of charge via the Internet at <http://pubs.acs.org>.

REFERENCES

- Wirth, D. F., Lodish, H. F., and Robbins, P. W. (1979) Requirements for the insertion of the Sindbis envelope glycoproteins into the endoplasmic reticulum membrane. *J. Cell Biol.* 81 (1), 154–162.
- Schwarz, R. T., and Datema, R. (1982) The lipid pathway of protein glycosylation and its inhibitors: The biological significance of protein-bound carbohydrates. *Adv. Carbohydr. Chem. Biochem.* 40, 287–379.
- Kornfeld, R., and Kornfeld, S. (1985) Assembly of asparagine-linked oligosaccharides. *Annu. Rev. Biochem.* 54, 631–664.
- Lehle, L., Eiden, A., Lehnert, K., Haselbeck, A., and Kopetzki, E. (1995) Glycoprotein biosynthesis in *Saccharomyces cerevisiae*: ngd29, an N-glycosylation mutant allelic to och1 having a defect in the initiation of outer chain formation. *FEBS Lett.* 370 (1–2), 41–45.
- Helenius, A., and Aebi, M. (2004) Roles of N-linked glycans in the endoplasmic reticulum. *Annu. Rev. Biochem.* 73, 1019–1049.
- Snider, M. D., Sultzman, L. A., and Robbins, P. W. (1980) Transmembrane location of oligosaccharide-lipid synthesis in microsomal vesicles. *Cell* 21 (2), 385–392.
- Snider, M. D., and Robbins, P. W. (1982) Transmembrane organization of protein glycosylation. Mature oligosaccharide-lipid is located on the luminal side of microsomes from Chinese hamster ovary cells. *J. Biol. Chem.* 257 (12), 6796–6801.
- Kelleher, D. J., Kreibich, G., and Gilmore, R. (1992) Oligosaccharyltransferase activity is associated with a protein complex composed of ribophorins I and II and a 48 kd protein. *Cell* 69 (1), 55–65.
- Zufferey, R., Knauer, R., Burda, P., Stagljar, I., te Heesen, S., Lehle, L., and Aebi, M. (1995) STT3, a highly conserved protein required for yeast oligosaccharyl transferase activity *in vivo*. *EMBO J.* 14 (20), 4949–4960.
- Parodi, A. J. (2000) Protein glucosylation and its role in protein folding. *Annu. Rev. Biochem.* 69, 69–93.
- Samuelson, J., Banerjee, S., Magnelli, P., Cui, J., Kelleher, D. J., Gilmore, R., and Robbins, P. W. (2005) The diversity of dolichol-linked precursors to AsN-linked glycans likely results from secondary loss of sets of glycosyltransferases. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U.S.A.* 102 (5), 1548–1553.
- Dieckmann-Schuppert, A., Bender, S., Odenthal-Schnittler, M., Bause, E., and Schwarz, R. T. (1992) Apparent lack of N-glycosylation in the asexual intraerythrocytic stage of *Plasmodium falciparum*. *Eur. J. Biochem.* 205 (2), 815–825.
- Dieckmann-Schuppert, A., Bause, E., and Schwarz, R. T. (1994) Glycosylation reactions in *Plasmodium falciparum*, *Toxoplasma gondii*, and *Trypanosoma brucei* probed by the use of synthetic peptides. *Biochim. Biophys. Acta.* 1199 (1), 37–44.
- Gowda, D. C., Gupta, P., and Davidson, E. A. (1997) Glycosylphosphatidylinositol anchors represent the major carbohydrate modification in proteins of intraerythrocytic stage *Plasmodium falciparum*. *J. Biol. Chem.* 272 (10), 6428–6439.
- Katinka, M. D., Duprat, S., Cornillot, E., Metenier, G., Thomar, F., Prensier, G., Barbe, V., Peyretailade, E., Brottier, P., Wincker, P., Delbac, F., El Alaoui, H., Peyret, P., Saurin, W., Gouy, M., Weissenbach, J., and Vivares, C. P. (2001) Genome sequence and gene compaction of the eukaryote parasite *Encephalitozoon cuniculi*. *Nature* 414 (6862), 450–453.
- Taupin, V., Garenaux, E., Mazet, M., Maes, E., Denise, H., Prensier, G., Vivares, C. P., Guerardel, Y., and Metenier, G. (2007) Major O-glycans in the spores of two microsporidian parasites are represented by unbranched manno-oligosaccharides containing α -1,2 linkages. *Glycobiology* 17 (1), 56–67.
- Striepen, B., Zinecker, C. F., Damm, J. B. L., Melgers, P. A. T., Gewig, G. J., Koolen, M., Vlieghehart, J. F. G., Dubremetz, J. F., and Schwarz, R. T. (1997) Molecular structure of the low molecular weight antigen of *Toxoplasma gondii*: A glucose α 1–4-N-acetylgalactosamine makes free glycosyl-phosphatidylinositols highly immunogenic. *J. Mol. Biol.* 266, 797–813.
- Zinecker, C. F., Striepen, B., Geyer, H., Geyer, R., Dubremetz, J. F., and Schwarz, R. T. (2001) Two glycoforms are present in the GPI-membrane anchor of the surface antigen 1 (P30) of *T. gondii*. *Mol. Biochem. Parasitol.* 116 (2), 127–135.
- Neuen-Jacob, E., Figge, C., Arendt, G., Wendtland, B., Jacob, B., and Wechsler, W. (1993) Neuropathological studies in the brains of AIDS patients with opportunistic diseases. *Int. J. Legal Med.* 105 (6), 339–350.
- Klaren, V. N., and Kijlstra, A. (2002) Toxoplasmosis, an overview with emphasis on ocular involvement. *Ocul. Immunol. Inflammation* 10 (1), 1–26.
- Kravetz, J. D., and Federman, D. G. (2005) Toxoplasmosis in pregnancy. *Am. J. Med.* 118 (3), 212–216.
- Odenthal-Schnittler, M., Tomavo, S., Becker, D., Dubremetz, J. F., and Schwarz, R. T. (1993) Evidence for N-linked glycosylation in *T. gondii*. *Biochem. J.* 291, 713–721.
- Luk, F. C., Johnson, T. M., and Beckers, C. J. (2008) N-linked glycosylation of proteins in the protozoan parasite *Toxoplasma gondii*. *Mol. Biochem. Parasitol.* 157 (2), 169–178.
- Fauquenoy, S., Morelle, W., Hovasse, A., Bednarczyk, A., Sliomanny, C., Schaeffer, C., Van Dorsselaer, A., and Tomavo, S. (2008) Proteomics and glycomics analyses of N-glycosylated structures involved in *Toxoplasma gondii*-host cell interactions. *Mol. Cell. Proteomics* 7 (5), 891–910.
- Shams-Eldin, H., Blaschke, T., Anhlan, D., Niehus, S., Muller, J., Azzouz, N., and Schwarz, R. T. (2005) High-level expression of the *T. gondii* STT3 gene is required for suppression of the yeast STT3 gene mutation. *Mol. Biochem. Parasitol.* 143 (1), 6–11.
- Ciucanu, I., and Kerek, F. (1984) A simple and rapid method for the permethylation of carbohydrates. *Carbohydr. Res.* 131, 209–217.
- Hase, S. (1994) High-performance liquid chromatography of pyridylaminated saccharides. *Methods Enzymol.* 230, 225–237.
- Dzierszinski, F., Mortuaire, M., Cesbron-Delauw, M. F., and Tomavo, S. (2000) Targeted disruption of the glycosylphosphatidylinositol-anchored surface antigen SAG3 gene in *Toxoplasma gondii* decreases host cell adhesion and drastically reduces virulence in mice. *Mol. Microbiol.* 37 (3), 574–582.
- Villers, C., Cacan, R., Mir, A. M., Labiau, O., and Verbert, A. (1994) Release of oligomannoside-type glycans as a marker of the degradation of newly synthesized glycoproteins. *Biochem. J.* 298 (Part 1), 135–142.
- Blumenschein, T. M., Friedrich, N., Childs, R. A., Sauros, S., Carpenter, E. P., Campanero-Rhodes, M. A., Simpson, P., Chai, W., Koutroukides, T., Blackman, M. J., Feizi, T., Soldati-Favre, D., and Matthews, S. (2007) Atomic resolution insight into host cell recognition by *Toxoplasma gondii*. *EMBO J.* 26 (11), 2808–2820.
- Todeschini, A. R., and Hakomori, S. I. (2008) Functional role of glycosphingolipids and gangliosides in control of cell adhesion, motility, and growth, through glycosynaptic microdomains. *Biochim. Biophys. Acta* 1780 (3), 421–433.
- Cacan, R., Villers, C., Bélard, M., Kaiden, A., Krag, S. S., and Verbert, A. (1992) Different fates of the oligosaccharide moieties of lipid intermediates. *Glycobiology* 2 (2), 127–136.
- Duvet, S., Chirat, F., Mir, A. M., Verbert, A., Dubuisson, J., and Cacan, R. (2000) Reciprocal relationship between α 1,2 mannosidase processing and reglucosylation in the rough endoplasmic reticulum of Man-P-Dol deficient cells. *Eur. J. Biochem.* 267, 1146–1152.
- Banerjee, S., Vishwanath, P., Cui, J., Kelleher, D. J., Gilmore, R., Robbins, P. W., and Samuelson, J. (2007) The evolution of N-glycan-dependent endoplasmic reticulum quality control factors for glycoprotein folding and degradation. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U.S.A.* 104 (28), 11676–11681.
- Coppens, I., Sinai, A. P., and Joiner, K. A. (2000) *Toxoplasma gondii* exploits host low-density lipoprotein receptor-mediated endocytosis for cholesterol acquisition. *J. Cell Biol.* 149 (1), 167–180.
- Charron, A. J., and Sibley, L. D. (2002) Host cells: Mobilizable lipid resources for the intracellular parasite *Toxoplasma gondii*. *J. Cell Sci.* 115 (15), 3049–3059.
- Coppens, I., and Joiner, K. A. (2001) Parasite host cell interactions in toxoplasmosis: New avenues for intervention. *Expert Rev. Mol. Med.* 2001, 1–20.
- Tomavo, S., Dubremetz, J. F., and Schwarz, R. T. (1992) Biosynthesis of glycolipid precursors for glycosylphosphatidylinositol membrane anchors in a *Toxoplasma gondii* cell-free system. *J. Biol. Chem.* 267 (30), 21446–21458.
- Oriol, R., Martinez-Duncker, I., Chantret, I., Mollicone, R., and Codogno, P. (2002) Common origin and evolution of glycosyltransferases using Dol-P-monosaccharides as donor substrate. *Mol. Biol. Evol.* 19 (9), 1451–1463.
- Delorenzi, M., Sexton, A., Shams-Eldin, H., Schwarz, R. T., Speed, T., and Schofield, L. (2002) Genes for glycosylphosphatidylinositol toxin biosynthesis in *Plasmodium falciparum*. *Infect. Immun.* 70 (8), 4510–4522.