Prediction of O-glycosylation of mammalian proteins: specificity patterns of UDP-GalNAc:polypeptide *N*-acetylgalactosaminyltransferase

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The specificity of the enzyme(s) catalysing the covalent link between the hydroxyl side chains of serine or threonine and the sugar moiety N-acetylgalactosamine (GalNAc) is unknown. Pattern recognition by artificial neural networks and weight matrix algorithms was performed to determine the exact position of *in vivo* O-linked GalNAc-glycosylated serine and threonine residues from the primary sequence exclusively. The acceptor sequence context for O-glycosylation of serine was found to differ from that of threonine and the two types were therefore treated separately. The context of the sites showed a high abundance of proline, serine and threonine extending far beyond the previously reported region covering positions -4 through +4 relative to the glycosylated residue. The O-glycosylation sites were found to cluster and to have a high abundance in the N-

INTRODUCTION

Glycosylation serves a wide variety of functions in biology [1] and is involved in recognition [2], oncogenesis [3,4], and development [5]. Experimental biochemical analysis of potential Oglycosylation sites in glycoproteins at serine or threonine residues is difficult and time consuming, since it requires solid-phase Edman degradation [6]. The knowledge of the structure and function of O-glycosylated proteins could be improved if the exact location of their carbohydrate part could be deduced directly from the primary sequence. Computational prediction may therefore lead to a better understanding of O-glycosylated proteins in general. The sequence specificities of N- and O-linked glycosylation differ markedly. For N-linked glycosylation, the specificity of the enzyme can be formulated as the consensus triplet sequence Asn-Xaa-Ser/Thr, where Xaa can be any residue except proline [7]. Not all consensus triplets are actually glycosylated [8], but all known N-linked glycosylation sites are found within this triplet sequence [9]. This makes prediction of Nlinked glycosylation from the primary sequence less problematic. The situation is far more complex for O-linked glycosylation since at least seven classes of O-linked glycosylation can be defined: (a) mucin type, where an N-acetylgalactosamine is α -1linked to the side chain of serine or threonine residues in secreted or membrane-bound glycoproteins (for recent reviews see [10,11]); (b) intracellular type, where a single N-acetylglucosamine is β -1-linked to serine or threonine in nucleoplasmic and cytoplasmic glycoproteins (for a recent review see [12]); (c) proteoglycan type, where a xylose core (Gal-Gal-Xyl) is linked to serine in proteoglycan glycoproteins [13,14]; (d) collagen type, where galactose is linked to hydroxylysine in collagen [15]; (e) terminal part of the protein. The sites were also found to have an increased preference for three different classes of β -turns. No simple consensus-like rule could be deduced for the complex glycosylation sequence acceptor patterns. The neural networks were trained on the hitherto largest data material consisting of 48 carefully examined mammalian glycoproteins comprising 264 O-glycosylation sites. For detection neural network algorithms were much more reliable than weight matrices. The networks correctly found 60–95% of the O-glycosylated serine/threonine residues and 88–97% of the non-glycosylated residues in two independent test sets of known glycoproteins. A computer server using E-mail for prediction of O-glycosylation sites has been implemented and made publicly available. The Internet address is NetOglyc@cbs.dtu.dk.

clotting factor type, where either fucose or a glucose core (Xyl-Glc or Xyl-Xyl-Glc) is linked to serine in factor VII and IX, protein Z and others [16,17]; (f) fungal type, where mannose is linked to serine or threonine in yeast and fungal glycoproteins [18]; and (g) plant type, where arabinose is linked to hydroxy-proline and galactose to serine in plant glycoproteins [19].

The enzymes initiating the biosynthesis of O-linked glycosylation by transfer of monosaccharides to specific acceptor residues are type specific. Since it is likely that acceptor specificities of these glycosyltransferases differ [6], the present analysis has been limited to the first most common group. Mucin-type O-linked glycosylation has no unique consensus acceptor sequence [20,21]. This becomes apparent by inspection of the mucin-type Oglycosylated sequences in Table 1. However, a few rules of thumb have been formulated: proline occurs at increased frequency at positions -1 and +3 relative to the glycosylation site, as found by Wilson et al. [20]. Glycoproteins are, however, also rich in this motif at non-glycosylated sites [20]. Elhammer et al. [22] extended this by in vitro experiments using bovine colostrum transferase and matrix statistics on a data set of 196 glycosylation sites. They found that a high abundance of not only proline, but also serine and threenine, at all positions from -4 to +4favoured glycosylation. Gooley et al. [23] have proposed the sequence motif Xaa-Pro-Xaa-Xaa, where one Xaa only is a glycosylated threonine. However, O-glycosylation of threonine which is not associated with proline also occurs [23].

Pisano et al. [24] have suggested three tetrapeptide sequence motifs for O-glycosylation of threonine: Xaa-Pro-Xaa-Xaa, Thr(g)-Xaa-Xaa-Xaa [where Thr(g) and one Xaa only are glycosylated threonine residues], and, Xaa-Xaa-Thr(g)-Xaa, (where Xaa represents lysine or arginine). For serine the proposed

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Table 1 (a), training set

Entry	O-site sequence	Ref.	Entry	O-site sequence	Ref.	Entry	O-site sequence	Ref.
Position	54321-0+12345		Position	54321-0+12345		Position	54321-0+12345	
GFHUC (P)	MW S TRSPN	[55]	LEUK_HUMAN (S)	S T TAVQT	[60]	PLHU (P)	EELAP T APPEL	[72]
glycophorin C	MWS T RSPNS		Leukosialin	ST T AVQTP		plasmin		
- human	MWSTR S PNSTA	1 I	- human	TTAVQ T PTSGE		- human		
	TRSPN S TAWPL			AVQTP T SGEPL				
	RSPNS T AWPLS			VQTPT S GEPLV		PLMN_PIG (S)	TTPPP T SGPTY	[72]
	TAWPL S LEPDP			GEPLV S TSEPL		plasmin		
	DPGMA S ASTTM			EPLVS T SEPLS		- porcine		
	GMASA S TTMHT			PLVST S EPLSS				
	MASAS T TMHTT			TSEPL S SKMYT		ICHU2 (P)	AP T SSSTK	[73]
	ASAST T MHTTT			SEPLS S KMYTT		interleukin 2		
	STTMH T TTIAE			SSKMY T TSITS		- human		
	TTMHT T TIAEP			SKMYT T SITSD		KOURDU (D)		
	TMHTT T IAEPD			KMYTT S ITSDP		KGHUH1 (P)	IKEET T VSPPH	[74]
	PDPGM S GWPDG			YTTSI T SDPKA		kininogen HMW I	SEDST T PSAQT	
GFHUE (P)	····S S TTGVA	[24]		PKADS T GDQTS		- human	QTQEK T EGPTP	
glycophorin A	SS T TGVAM			ALPPS T SINEG			KTEGP T PIPSL	
human	SST T GVAMH			TYQEV S IKMSS			AKPGV T VTFSD	
	GVAMH T STSSS	1		VSIKM S SVPQE			SDLIA T MMPPI	
	VAMHT S TSSSV			SVPOE T PHATS			MMPPI S PAPIQ	
	AMHTS T SSSVT			ETPHA T SHPAV			IPDIQ T DPNGL	
	MHTST S SSVTK			TPHAT S HPAVP			SEINP T TOMKE	
	TSSSV T KSYIS			TGGTI T TNSPE		KNUL BOVIN(S)	PODEL T LOVEC	[75]
	SSVTK S YISSQ		1	GGTIT T NSPET		KNH1_BOVIN (S)	EGPVV T AQYEC MKTEG S TTVSL	1/31
	TKSYI S SQTND			A T VSLET		kininogen HMW I - bovin		l
	YISSO T NDTHK			TVSLE T SKGTS	1	11WIW 1 - 00VIII	KTEGS T TVSLP	
	THKRD T YAATP		ALCI HUMANI	PCPVP S TPPTP	1611		TEGST T VSLPH	
	DTYAA T PRAHE	1	ALC1_HUMAN (S)		[61]	1	VSLPH S AMSPV	
	RAHEV S EISVR		Ig alpha-1 chain	TPPTP S PSTPP			EDSTT S SAQTQ	
	EVSEI S VRTVY		- human.	PTPSP S TPPTP			QTQEK T EETTL	
000000	EISVR T VYPPE	1.00		TPPTP S PSCCH			KTEET T LSSLA	
05273 (S)	IPHQI S SKLPT	[56]		PTPSP S CCHPR			PGVAI T FPDFQ	
lycophorin	PHQIS S KLPTQ				1633		SDLIA T VMPNT	
dog	SSKLP T QAGFI		ALC_MOUSE (S)	LDVNC S GPTPP	[62]		TVMPN T LPPHT	
	QAGFI S TEDPS		Ig Alpha				IPDIQ T EPNSL	
	AGFIS T EDPSF		chain C			A29789 (S)	S SVPGE	1961
	DPSFN T PSTRE		- mouse					[76]
	TREDP S GTMYQ		50000		1423	mucin	S S VPGES]
GFHOE (P)	Q T IATGS	[57]	DHHU (P)	PKAQA S SVPTA	[63]	(fragment) - sheep	SVPGE S ATPQQ PGESA T PQQPG	
lycophorin HA	-QTIA T GSPPI		Ig delta chain C	KAQAS S VPTAQ	1	- sincep	QPGAL S ESTTQ	
horse	TIATG S PPIAG		- human	ASSVP T AQPQA	1		GALSE S TTQLP	
	PPIAG T SDLST		- numan	SLAKA T TAPAT Lakat T Apatt			ALSES T TOLPG	
	GTSDL S TITSA						-	1
	TSDLS T ITSAA			TTAPA T TRNTG Tapat T RNTGR		· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	LSEST T QLPGV QLPGV T GTSAV	
	DLSTI T SAATP LSTIT S AATPT		1	TAPAT I RAIGR	1		PGVTG T SAVTG	1
			FQHUGM (P)	-ADAR C DODOM	[64]		GVTGT S AVTGS	1
	ITSAA T PTFTT ATPTF T TEQDG		granulocyte-macrophage	-APAR S PSPST PARSP S PSTQP	1041		GTSAV T GSEPG	
GFPGE (P)	T ETPVT	[58]	colony-stimulating	RSPSP S TOPWE			SAVIG S EPGLP	
		1.201	- human			1	EPGLP S TGVSG	
Blycophorin	TETPV T GEQGS TGEQG S ATPGN		- 1011001	SPSPS T QPWEH			PGLPS T GVSGL	
pig			EDO HUMANI (S)		1651	l l		
	EQGSA T PGNVS		EPO_HUMAN (S) erythropoietin	PPDAA S AAPLR	[65]	1	PSTGV S GLPGT	1
	NVSNA T VTAGK		- human		1 I		SGLPG T	I
	SNATV T AGKPS GKPSA T SPGVM		- 196113601		1 I	NBHUA2 (P)	V T LSPKD	(77)
	KPSAT S PGVM		KTHUB(P)	QDSSS S KAPPP	[66, 67]	Leucine rich	I LOPKD	1 '''
	TIKNT T AVVQK		choriogonadotropin	KAPPP S LPSPS	100,071	aipha 2 gp		1
			beta chain	SLPSP S RLPGP		- human		1
FUR PAT (S)	VVQKE T GVPES ENLPN T MTMLP	[59]	- human	RLPGP S DTPIL		10,110,001		I
EUK_RAT (S) eukosialin		1.271	- 10111001	KUPGP S DIPIL	I I	LPHUC3 (P)	PEVRP T SAVAA	[78]
	LPNTM T MLPFT		CTHUP(P)	DEQPL T ENPRK	[68, 69]		LEVAL I SAVAA	1 1/01
rat	TMLPF T PNSES PFTPN S ESPST			DEQPL T ENPRK	[[00,09]	apolipoprotein C-III		1
			corticotropin		1	- human		
	TPNSE S PSTSE NSESP S TSEAL		- human	l	1 1	KQHU (P)	QFVHV S ESFPH	179
	SESPS T SEAL	1	A16604 (S)		[70]	tissue kallikrein	PGFNM S LLENH	'' ^{''}
	ESPST S EALS		kappa casein	KIIIP T INTIA ATVEP T PAPAT		- human	EPENF S FPDDL	1
	TSEAL S TYSSI		- human	TPAPA T EPTVD			STEAT 3 FFUEL	
	SEALS T YSSIA		- 10111001	PATEP T VDSVV	1 1	HEMO_HUMAN (S)	T PLPPT	[77]
	ALSTY S SIAT-		1	VDSVV T PEATT		hemopexin	'''''''	1 '''
	LSTYS S IAT	1		TPEAT T ESIIT	1 I	- human		1
	YSSIA T	1	1	TESII T STPET	i I	- 100110001		
		I	1	SIITS T PETPT	I I	BOHUS (P)	RPVLP T QSAHD	[80]
	SSGVA S DPPVT	1	1		1 1		REVUE L QSARD	1 1001
		1 1		TVAVP T TSA		sex steroid binding	1	1
	PPVTI T NPATS		1	VAVPT T SA		protein - human		
	ITNPA T SS	1					4000 F 0000-	1 101 -
	TNPAT S S	1	CASB_BOVIN(S)	FAQTQ S LVYPF	[71]	HCHU (P)	-GPVP T PPDNI	[81,1
	NPATS S		beta casein	PPLTQ T PVVVP		a-1-microglobulin	QEEEG S GGGQL	1
	A T GSLGP		- bovine	LSLSQ S KVLPV				1021
	ATG S LGPSK					MBBOB (PIR)	IVTPR T PPPSQ	[83]
	GSLGP S KETHG		PLBO (P)	ESSPL S TERMD	[72]	myelin basic	1	1
	ETHGL S ATIA-		plasmin			protein - bovine		1
	HGLSA T IA	· I	- bovine	1	1 1	1	1	

tetrapeptide sequence motif is: Ser(g)-Xaa-Xaa-Xaa, (where Xaa represents one glycosylated serine residue). These motifs account for all glycosylations within glycophorin A [24] and 16 out of 18 sites in bovine casein [6]. However, these motifs are also quite

frequent at non-glycosylated sites which limits their predictive value (see below).

O'Connell et al. found that positions -6, -1 and +3 were of particular significance [25]. By *in vitro* glycosylation of model

Table 1 (b), test set

	Low Sim. test set			High Sim. test set	
Entry	O-site sequence	Ref.	Entry	O-site sequence	Ref.
Position	54321-0+12345		Position	54321-0+12345	Ref.
NBHUIA (P)	DKVRA T RTVVK	(84)			
	DRIVER I MITTE	1041			
platelet gp.			LMP1_HUMAN (S)	EODRP S PTTAP	(101
Ib a.chain			lysosome	DRPSP T TAPPA	1.0.
- human		185, 861		RPSPT T APPAP	
WOHU (P)	QTQPV T SQPQP	[65, 60]	associated	PPAPP S PSPSP	
a 2 HS gp.	NEAVP T PVVDP		membrane		
- human	TVVQP S VGAAA		glycoprotein	APPSP S PSPVP	
ITHUC1 (P)	GKVAT T VISKM	[87, 88]		PSPSP S PVPKS	
complement	ILEVS S LPTTN				
C1 inhibitor	PTTNS T TNSAT				1
- human	ITANT T DEPTT	1 1			
	TDEPT T QPTTE	1			
	TTQPT T EPTTQ				
	TTEPT T QPTIQ		LMP2_HUMAN (S)	DKDKT S TVAPT	[101]
LITH_HUMAN (S)	- PEAQ T ELPQA	[89]	lysosome	KDKTS T VAPTI	
lithostathine			associated	STVAP T INTTV	
- human		i i	membrane	APTIH T TVPSP	
APE_HUMAN (S)	RVRAA T VGSLA	1901	glycoprotein	PTIHT T VPSPT	
apolipoprotein E				HTTVP S PTTTP	
- human				TVPSP T TTPTP	
JXHU (P)	ERLAG T ESPVR	191, 921		VPSPT T TPTPK	
transferrin receptor				PSPTT T PTPKE	1
- human				PTTTP T PKEKP	
IVHUA2 (S)	OGVGV T ETPLM	1931			1
interferon a2	QUILLE DIFLE		TTAB_HUMAN (S)	DWGLP S PSPSP	[102
- human		1 1	platelet M.	PSPSP S PIHPA	1
	PGVGL T PSAAO	1941	glycoprotein IIB	10101 0 11	i i
TNFB_HUMAN (S)	POVGL I PSANQ	[**1	grycoprotein inb		
lymphotoxin (TNF)		1951			
MMMSND (P)	DYDLV T SHLGL	1 [20]			
nidogen	VPRIL S PGYEA	1			
- mouse	PGYEA T ERPRG				
	PRGVP T ERTRS				[103
	VPTER T RSFQL		GLP_MACFU (S)	S S TTVPA	
	PPCLS T VAPPI		glycophorin	SS T TVPAT	
	GPVVP T AVIPL		macaca	SST T VPATH	
A25093 (P)	PALQP T QGAMP	96	fuscata	TTVPA T HTSSS	
granulocyte colony				VPATH T SSSSL	
stim, f human			1	PATHT S SSSLG	1.1
ENV_MLVFR (S)	PVSNS T PTMIS	[97]		ATHTS S SSLGP	
knob protein	TPTMI S PSPTP			THTSS S SLGPE	
gp71 - mouse	TMISP S PTPTQ			HTSSS S LGPEQ	
	ISPSP T PTQPP			PEQYV S SQSND	
	PSPTP T OPPPA			EQYVS S QSNDK	
	QALNL T NPDKT			SNDKH T SDSHP	
	TNPDK T QECWL			SDSHP T PTSAH	
ILS HUMAN (S)	IP T EIPTS	[98]		SHPTP T SAHEV	
interleukin 5				SAHEV T TEFSG	
- human				AHEVT T EFSGR	
GHU2 (P)	VSTPP T VLPDN	1991		VTTEF S GRTHY	l I
insulin-like	SIFF I VEFDA			EFSGR T HYPPE	1
		1			
growth factor II	SRAYP T PLRSK	11001			l
TTHUAP (P)	SRAIP T PLRSK	'''''			I
thyrotropin					I
chain A		1			L

peptides from von Willebrand factor using bovine colostrum GalNAc-transferase, O'Connell et al. [26] found that amino acid substitutions with alanine, proline, isoleucine, asparagine or glutamic acid at positions +3, -2, -3 reduced O-glycosylation, as did substitution with a charged residue at position -1. O'Connell et al. could not glycosylate a serine residue in a peptide derived from the *in vivo* glycosylated human erythropoietin. If serine was substituted with threonine, the peptide was glycosylated.

From these findings O'Connell et al. speculated that separate serine- and threonine-specific GalNAc-transferases may exist [26]. However, GalNAc-transferases from bovine colostrum [22] and pig submaxillary glands [27] were recently shown to be able to glycosylate serine as well as threonine residues.

Using a purified GalNAc-transferase from pig submaxillary glands on model peptides from erythropoietin or pig mucin, Wang et al. [27] found that the residues adjacent to the serine or threonine strongly influenced the glycosylation. Testing the effects of all possible substitutions at all sites, by synthesizing putative acceptor peptides and testing their activity with a purified GalNAc-transferase, would be a formidable task [27]. This motivates the development of a sequence-based tool to point out likely acceptor peptides.

Originally our aim was to use a modified version of a recently developed statistical method for analysing broad specificities of enzymes [28]. The goal was to predict, from the primary sequence alone, whether specific serine and threonine residues in a glycoprotein are O-glycosylated or not. This matrix method, however, used the sequence context around glycosylated residues only. Information in sequence contexts of non-glycosylated serines and threonines is consequently lost.

In addition we have therefore applied artificial neural network algorithms, which have recently been used with success in predicting protein secondary structure from primary sequence [29–34] and human mRNA donor and acceptor sites from the pre-mRNA sequence [35]. Neural networks are capable of including the negative information from the non-glycosylated sequences and can reproduce even highly complex and nonlinear sequence patterns [36].

Thus, two independent statistical tools were applied, together with a carefully selected data set of *in vivo* mucin-type Oglycosylated proteins. The validity of the prediction methods was assessed by tests on two different data sets of novel glycoproteins with known sequence and glycosylation assignments, which were not used when generating the methods.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Sequence data selection criteria

All proteins with a carbohydrate assigned to either serine or threonine were extracted from the 1994 versions of SWISS-PROT (Rel. 29) and PIR (Rel. 41.00) databases [37,38].

In SWISS-PROT all protein entries with a CARBOHYD assignment for a serine or threonine in the feature table were extracted. Sites with feature table information listed as POTENTIAL, PARTIAL, BY SIMILARITY, PROBABLE were discarded. Entries with FUCOSE, GLCNAC, GLUCOSAMINE, GLYCOSAMINOGLYCAN, MANNOSE, OLIGOMANNOSIDIC, N-ACETYLGLUCOSAMINE, N-ACETYLLACTOSAMINIC, XYLOSE(2)-GLUCOSE or XYLOSE-GLUCOSE were also excluded.

In PIR all protein entries with a 'binding-site carbohydrate (Ser) status Experimental' or 'binding-site carbohydrate (Thr) status Experimental' were extracted. Assignments with 'status predicted' were excluded.

This crude extract constituted 221 glycoproteins with known sequence and O-glycosylation sites. In the case of copies of the same sequence only one was kept. All non-mammalian glycoproteins were excluded. Furthermore, all proteins which did not have a GalNAc sugar moiety linked to serine or threonine were excluded. Nuclear and cytoplasmic glycoproteins, coagulation factors and proteoglycans were thereby removed from the data set.

Importantly, all examples were extensively checked for sequence and assignment errors by consulting the original references listed in Table 1. The errors found can be divided into two groups. One group comprises sites described in the literature as being glycosylated, but with no assignments in the databases. Another group contains sites in the databases which could not be verified by the original references. A small group consists of glycoproteins which have been revised recently.

One example is glycophorin A, which earlier was thought to contain 15 O-glycosylation sites [39] and do so in PIR (entry GFHUE). However, glycophorin A has recently been revised to contain 16 O-glycosylation sites [24].

A list of the glycoprotein entries, which were revised according to the literature, is given in Table 2. In general the information from the databases was reliable for glycosylated residues, but caution should be taken before concluding that a given serine or threonine was not glycosylated if not listed in the feature table as being so. An example is the leukosialin family where the two SWISS-PROT entries: LEUK_ HUMAN and LEUK_RAT, have 25 and 24 'CARBOHYD' assignments respectively, but probably contain approx. 80 Oglycosylation sites [2]. In order to eliminate sites which are O-glycosylated, but not assigned in the database, we therefore presented these proteins as the smaller fragments used during sequencing.

Though it still is debated whether the initial addition of GalNAc to the peptide is located late in the transitional elements of the endoplasmic reticulum, or in the *cis*-Golgi cisternae [10,11], it is generally believed that O-glycosylation is a post-translational event. The signal peptide, transmembrane and cytoplasmic domains of membrane proteins will consequently never be presented to the luminally located GalNAc-transferase. Therefore the serines and threonines in these domains can never be mucin-type O-glycosylated. The glycoprotein sequences used were truncated accordingly, in order not to dilute the true non-glycosylated sequence contexts with irrelevant information.

A few glycosylation sites in recently published glycoproteins were extracted directly from the literature. The corresponding sequences were found in the database and assigned according to the reference (Table 2).

In order not to bias the data set with identical sequence contexts, the sequence similarity between the glycosylation sites was quantified by computing the number of identical residues between all pairs in a 9-residue window. Examples with identical residues from position -4 to +4 were excluded. Finally, all non-glycosylated sequence windows were compared with the glycosylated sequences; no conflicts were found.

The final yield was 48 unique mammalian glycoproteins containing 161 *in vivo* O-glycosylated threonine residues, 103 *in vivo* O-glycosylated serine residues and 2065 non-glycosylated threonine/serine residues. This data set, which to our knowledge is the largest presented to date, was the empirical basis for the analysis.

Similarity within the glycosylated sequences

The predictive performance of any data-driven algorithm will depend on the degree of similarity between the test sequence, and the sequences used when developing the method. Therefore, in

Entry	Protein	Revision performed	Ref.	
GFHUC (P)	Glycophorin C	12 O-glyc. sites, revised to 14 sites	[55]	
KNH1-BOVIN (S)	Kininogen HMW I – bovine	1 O-glyc. site, revised to 12 sites	[75]	
GFHUE (P)	Glycophorin A – human	15 O-glyc. sites, revised to 16 sites	[24]	
JXHU (P)	Transferrin receptor	No O-glyc. sites, revised to 1 site	[91]	
IVHUA2 (S)	Interferon alpha 2 – human	No O-glyc. sites, revised to 1 site	[93]	
PLMN-PIG (S)	Plasmin – porcine	No O-glyc. sites, revised to 1 site	[72]	
TTHUAP (P)	Thyrotropin/gonadotropin alpha chain – human	No O-glyc. sites, revised to 1 site	[100]	
LMP1-HUMAN (S)	Lysosome-associated membrane glycoprotein	No O-glyc. sites, revised to 6 sites	[101]	
LMP2-HUMAN (S)	Lysosome-associated membrane glycoprotein	No O-glyc. sites, revised to 10 sites	[101]	
MBBOB (P)	Myelin basic protein – bovine	No O-glyc. sites, revised to 1 site	[83]	
IGHU2 (P)	Insulin-like growth factor II – human	No O-glyc. sites, revised to 1 site	[99]	
MMMSND (P)	Nidogen – mouse	No O-glyc. sites, revised to 7 sites	[95]	
FQHUGM (P)	Granulocyte-macrophage colony-stimulating factor	No O-glyc. sites, revised to 4 sites	[64]	
A25093 (P)	Granulocyte colony-stimulating factor - human	No O-glyc. sites, revised to 1 site	[96]	

Table 2 Corrected and revised glycoproteins in the database

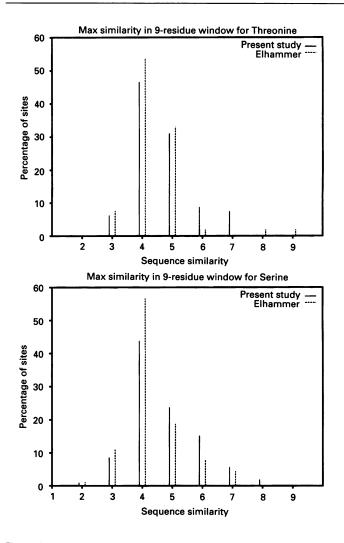


Figure 1 Distribution of the maximal local similarity within the present data set, computed as the number of identical residues in 9-residue windows of the glycosylated sequences

 $({\bf a})$ Serine, $({\bf b})$ threonine. The data set of Elhammer et al. [22] is shown for comparison (dashed lines).

order to compare our predictive performance with the earlier method of Elhammer et al. [22], we compared the degree of similarity within our data set to the degree of similarity within the data used by Elhammer et al. Comparing the complete sequences is not relevant, since it is the local similarity around glycosylated sites which is of primary importance in determining whether or not the sites are glycosylated. Instead, we counted the number of identical residues around glycosylation sites in the 9residue windows used by Elhammer et al. This local similarity was computed for glycosylated serine and threonine sequence windows in our data set and compared with the data set of Elhammer et al. [22]. The majority of sites had four identical residues in a 9-residue window, see Figure 1. Around 2% of the glycosylated threonine windows in the data set of Elhammer and colleagues were identical, biasing this data set slightly. Otherwise the similarity distributions are comparable.

Selection of independent test sets

In order to test the accuracy of our prediction schemes, 18 of the most recently published O-glycosylated proteins, which were not 805

included in the data used by Elhammer et al., were selected as test proteins. These were used neither during training of the networks, nor during calculation of the weights of the matrices, and were consequently unknown to both methods. The test set was divided into two subsets with 14 proteins (34 sites) with low similarity to the training set, and a set of four proteins (36 sites) with high similarity to the training set, see Table 1. This separation was made in order to determine the degree of prediction accuracy that could be expected on a given novel protein sequence.

Quantification of sequence information content

When a large set of sequences is aligned, the Shannon information measure [40,40a] can be used to quantify the randomness of each column. The information content I was computed by the formula:

$$I(i) = \log_2 20 + \sum_{L=1}^{20} p_i^L \log_2 p_i^L$$
(1)

where p_i^L was the frequency of a particular amino acid L at position *i*. The unit of information was bits/amino acid. The information content may be displayed in the form of sequence logos [41]. Instead of histograms or curves showing the variation of the information content, the amino acid symbols themselves are used to represent the value of I at a given position. The sum of the height of the letters indicates the value of I and the height of each letter its frequency at the position. This powerful visualization approach makes it much easier to comprehend the numerical variation in comparison with many more conventional methods.

Neural network algorithms

We used a data-driven neural network algorithm, with one layer of hidden units, and adjusted the weights according to the method described by Rumelhart et al. [42]. Hence each neuron (unit), besides those in the input layer, calculates a weighted sum of its inputs and passes this sum through a sigmoidal function to produce the output:

$$O = \sigma\left(\sum_{n=1}^{N} w_n I_n - t\right) \tag{2}$$

where N is the number of neurons in a layer, I_n the *n*th input to the neuron and w_n the weight of this input. σ was the sigmoidal function $\sigma(x) = 1/[1 + \exp(-x)]$, and t its threshold.

We trained the network on experimentally determined relations between amino acid compositions surrounding glycosylated and non-glycosylated serine and threonine residues. Using a steepest descent method, the purpose of the training is to adjust the weights and thresholds in the network to quantitatively minimize the error between the prediction and the experimentally determined assignment.

We used a symmetric input window of amino acids, ranging from three amino acids (covering the two amino acids flanking the serine/threonine site) to 49 (24 amino acids on each side of the glycosylated serine/threonine). Neural networks with 0 to 15 hidden units were evaluated for prediction performance. A small network with a window of three residues, and with three hidden units, is shown in Figure 2. Other details of the training procedure may be found elsewhere [35].

To find the best network we tested the performance of different

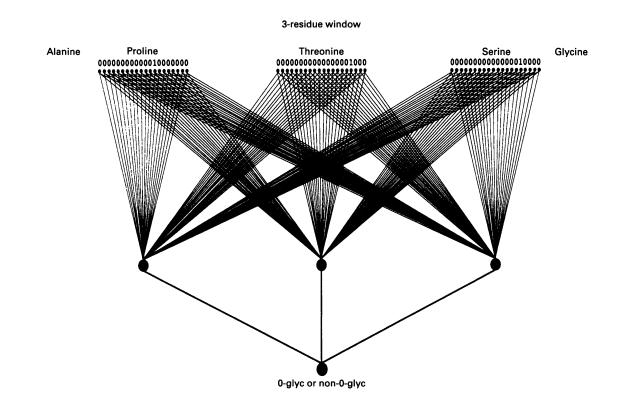


Figure 2 A neural network with three hidden units covering a window of three residues (proline, threonine, serine) is shown

If the value of the output neuron is above the threshold, the central residue is predicted to be O-glycosylated. Network architectures with window sizes from 3 to 49 and 0 to 15 hidden units were evaluated.

network architectures (different numbers of units in the input and in the hidden layer) by training on 34 glycosylated proteins as described above and testing the performance of the network on the remaining proteins, using the correlation coefficient C[35,43] as quality measure. This measure is more relevant than merely measuring the percentage of correctly predicted residues, as approximately 90% of the residues are non-glycosylated. Hence a network which classifies all threonines or serines as nonglycosylated will be 90% correct, but not of much use.

$$C = \frac{P_x N_x - N_{fx} P_{fx}}{\sqrt{(N_x + N_{fx})(N_x + P_{fx})(P_x + N_{fx})(P_x + P_{fx})}}$$
(3)

In this equation P_x is the number of true positives (experimentally determined glycosylated, predicted glycosylated), N_x the number of true negatives (experimentally non-glycosylated), predicted non-glycosylated), P_{fx} the number of false positives (experimentally non-glycosylated), and N_{fx} the number of false negatives (experimentally glycosylated), and N_{fx} the number of false negatives (experimentally glycosylated), predicted non-glycosylated). The correlation coefficients were obtained as the average over 10 networks with different initialization of the weights.

Matrix method

A matrix method was also used to predict glycosylation sites. We investigated different revisions of the method developed by Poorman et al. [28] and used by Elhammer et al. [22], to predict O-glycosylation sites. The method uses the relative abundance of amino acids surrounding serine and threonine sites $s_{i,j} = (N_{i,j}^P/N^T)/(N_{i,j}^T/N^T)$, where $N_{i,j}^T$ and $N_{i,j}^P$ are the total number of amino acids *i* at site *j* and the number at glycosylated sites,

respectively. The total numbers of amino acids and glycosylated sites are given by N^{T} and N^{TP} , respectively. The predicted probability *h* that a given site is glycosylated is calculated (using the relevant value of *i* for each *i*) as:

$$h = \frac{\prod_{j=1}^{w} 1 + (s_{i,j} - 1)(1 - q_{i,j})}{42 + \prod_{j=1}^{w} 1 + (s_{i,j} - 1)(1 - q_{i,j})}$$
(4)

where W is the size of the window, $q_{i,j}$ the probability that the frequency of amino acid *i* at site *j* in all windows and the corresponding frequency in the glycosylated windows are equal. The probabilities $q_{i,j}$ are calculated by the library routine 'betai' [44] taking as the standardized normal deviate [45]:

$$\frac{N_{i,j}^{P}/N^{TP} - N_{i,j}^{T}/N^{T}}{\sqrt{fg(1/N^{TP} + 1/N^{T})}}$$
(5)

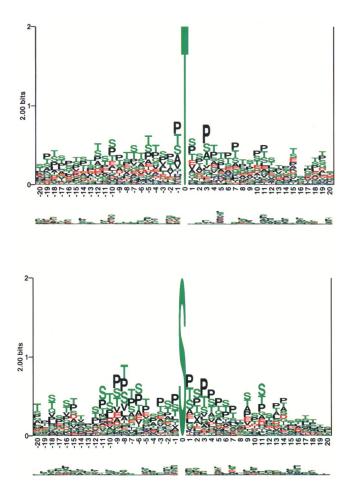
where $f = (N_{i,j}^{P} + N_{i,j}^{T})/(N^{TP} + N^{P})$ and g = 1 - f.

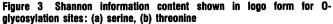
We revised the method used by Elhammer et al. [22] in three ways. (a) We weighted the relative frequencies by the probability that the difference is in fact genuine. This was done because some of the frequencies calculated were based on very few examples, and random fluctuations in the number of observed examples could thus bias the method. Poorman et al. [28] deal with this problem by setting $N_{i,j}^P = 1/2$ or 1/4 if $N_{i,j}^P$ vanishes, depending on the frequency of the amino acid at the given position in the reference distribution. (b) To estimate the frequency of the different amino acids around non-glycosylated sites we used the amino acid distribution in the complete training set, or the distribution around serine or threonine residues only, or the frequencies used by Elhammer et al. of the different amino acids determined by Nakashima et al. [46] for a broad set of globular, but not necessarily glycosylated proteins. (c) We used relatively large window sizes also, in order to determine the window size with the best predictive performance. The correlation coefficient was used to choose the best cutoff value for h, separating the positive sites from the negative.

RESULTS

Mucin-type O-linked glycosylation is clustered and frequent near the N-terminus

Sequence logos of the glycosylated sequences were prepared *ad* modus Schneider [41], see Figure 3. The logos reflect the bias in the distribution of residues surrounding glycosylation sites. The size of the symbols reflects the patterns of *in vivo* acceptor specificity of the GalNAc-transferase(s) catalysing O-linked glycosylation. The logos demonstrate that the high abundance of threonine, serine and proline in the context of O-glycosylation extends upstream beyond position -4 and downstream beyond





All sites were aligned at the glycosylated/non-glycosylated serine and threonine residues (position 0). Logos for glycosylated (upper) and non-glycosylated (lower) serine sites and threonine sites are shown. The height of each column reflects the bias in the distribution of residues surrounding glycosylation sites. The size of a residue letter reflects the frequency of that residue on that position. The height of the central serine/threonine has been scaled to magnify the context and is thus non-informative. The neutral and hydrophobic in black. The sequence context around non-glycosylated serine and threonine sites in the lower part of the graphs is seen to be much more random.

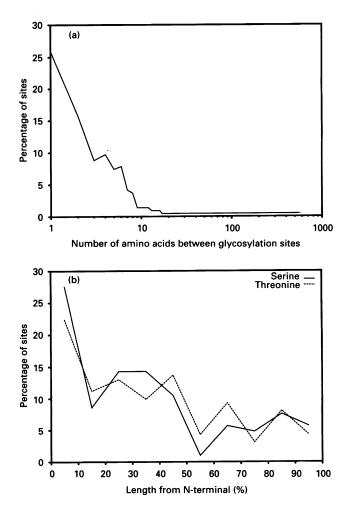


Figure 4 (a) The linear sequence distance in residues between Oglycosylation sites and (b) the distribution of distances from the N-terminal to the O-glycosylation site in percent of the full length of the protein

(a) Note that 25% of the sites have another glycosylation site as neighbour, and the majority of sites was a distance of less than 10 residues to the next O-glycosylation site, demonstrating the high degree of clustering of O-glycosylation sites. (b) 25% of the O-glycosylation sites are located within the first 10% of the protein.

position +4. This abundance pattern was specific for glycosylated sites, since it was not found in the non-glycosylated sequences (seen in lower part of graphs). The abundance of proline at positions -1 and +3, originally reported by Wilson et al. [20], is especially evident for glycosylated threonine residues. It may be observed that the glycosylation signal for threonine differs from the signal of serine glycosylation.

The O-glycosylation signal is seen to be considerably less well defined than the consensus triplet of N-linked glycosylation. Certain residues are rarely seen in close proximity of the glycosylation sites. We never found cysteine in position -2 to +2, nor tryptophan in position -1 or +1 relative to glycosylated threonines, although they were found frequently in the non-glycosylated sequences. This indicates that O-glycosylation at threonine is disfavoured in proximity to disulphide bridges and very large side chains, possibly because of steric hindrance. Methionine, aspartic acid and asparagine were also very rarely found juxtaposed to the O-glycosylated residue.

We also computed the distance between the sites in order to estimate the degree of clustering. As shown in Figure 4 more than

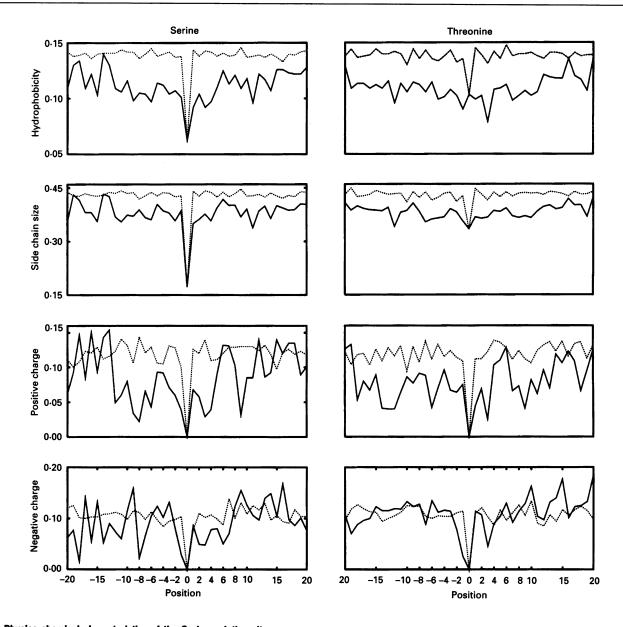


Figure 5 Physico-chemical characteristics of the O-glycosylation sites

They were aligned with the glycosylated threonine or serine at the central position 0. The distribution of hydrophobicity [54], normalized side-chain size (normalized van der Waals volume; glycine = 0, tryptophan = 1), and charge. Averaged values were computed for both glycosylated and non-glycosylated (dashed) sequence contexts.

25% of the sites have another O-glycosylation site as neighbour, and for 15% of the sites only one residue is interposed. We found that 25% of the sites were located within the first 10% of the protein length, meaning that O-glycosylation is abundant near the N-terminus of the protein.

Physicochemical properties of O-glycosylation sites

We examined the difference in averaged hydrophobicity, sidechain size, and charge between the O-glycosylated versus the non-glycosylated sequences, see Figure 5.

On average the hydrophobicity of the glycosylated sites was lower than for the non-glycosylated sites, which confirms that Oglycosylation is unambiguously found on the protein surface. The side-chain size was generally smaller in the glycosylated sites, probably due to steric hindrance of the GalNAc-transferase by very large side chains. The average values of positive charge (arginine, histidine, and leucine) were lower for the glycosylated sites when compared with the non-glycosylated sites. If the GalNAc-transferase itself has a net positive charge in or near the active site, electrostatic repulsion could be one of the factors determining the acceptor specificity. The presence of negative charge (aspartate and glutamate) was only significantly lowered at position -1, most clearly in the case of threonine. No difference was found at position +1. O'Connell et al. found that substitution at position -1 by a charged residue decreased O-glycosylation [26].

Conformational preference of O-glycosylation sites

We examined the secondary structure preference of glycosylated sequences compared with non-glycosylated sequences. The α -helix preference was lower for the glycosylated sequences com-

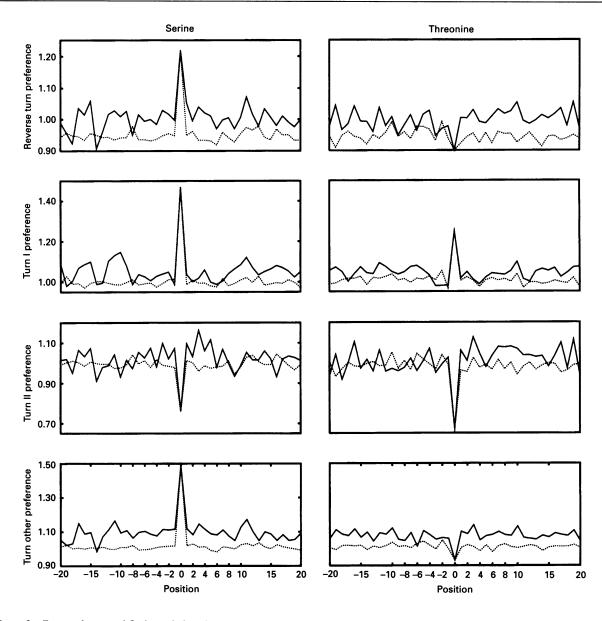


Figure 6 Turn preference of O-glycosylation sites

They were aligned with the glycosylated threonine or serine at the central position 0. Averaged values were computed for both glycosylated and non-glycosylated (dashed) contexts.

pared with the non-glycosylated, as was also the case for β strand (data not shown). However, the reverse-turn preference was clearly enhanced for the glycosylated sequences. We therefore examined the preference for several different types of turns, see Figure 6.

The analysis was based on the turn preferences of different amino acids computed in [47,48]. They used the classification of Richardson [49], who defined seven categories: type I, II, I', II', VIa, VIb and a miscellaneous category IV. Wilmot and Thornton [47] also defined an additional class VIII. However, they had only sufficient data to perform a statistical analysis on type-I and -II turns. The remaining turns were combined to give a nonspecific turn data set (other turns). We observed an increased preference of the glycosylated sequences for all three of these turn categories when compared with the non-glycosylated sequences. The most prominent difference was observed for class I and for other turns in which the most prevalent turn types were IV and VIII.

We conclude that there is a significant difference in the secondary structure preference of the glycosylated sites versus the non-glycosylated sites. Glycosylated sequences can be characterized as having low preference for α -helix and β -strand and high preference for reverse turns.

Predictive performance of neural network algorithms

The predictive performance of the networks was strongly dependent on the window size, as shown in Figure 7. We observed correlations at a longer range far beyond what has been reported previously. The other main observation was that a separation of the threonine and serine examples was beneficial as an increase in

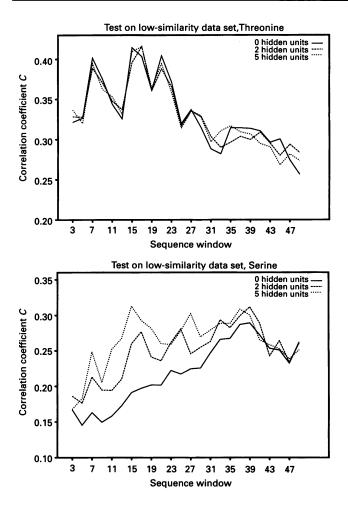


Figure 7 Predictive performance of the neural network method, quantified by the correlation coefficient as function of window size

performance occurred when predictions were carried out separately.

For threonine, the performance variation as a function of window size on the low-similarity test set is shown in Figure 7. The optimal window size was 17 residues with eight residues symmetrically on each side of the glycosylated threonine. This indicates that correlations exist between certain amino acids eight residues away from the glycosylated residue. This is also indicated by the high abundance of serine, threonine, proline and alanine at these distances (Figure 3). In the work of Elhammer et al. an optimal window size of nine residues was found; in Figure 7 this is clearly seen to be suboptimal.

The problem of predicting glycosylated threeonines is not highly non-linear, as networks with 0, 3, 5, 7, 9, 11, and 13 hidden units have comparable performance (data not shown). A network with five hidden units was slightly better than the other configurations. With this network architecture we obtained a maximal correlation coefficient of 0.42, corresponding to finding 67% of the glycosylated threeonines and 88% of the nonglycosylated threeonines in the low-similarity test set (Table 3). On this novel test set the matrix method of Elhammer et al. [22] had a lower correlation coefficient of 0.35, and percentages of 59% and 88% respectively. For the high-similarity test set the

Table 3 Predictive performance of the methods for prediction of Oglycosylation

Values for the network method were computed as the average over 10 training runs with different initializations. Two independent test sets are evaluated, a low-similarity test set of 34 0-glycosylation sites and a high-similarity test set of 36 0-glycosylation sites.

Method	Test set	Low serine	Low threonine	High serine	High threonine
Neural ne	twork				
Correlation coefficient C		0.33	0.42	0.70	0.88
Glyc-sites (%)		60.0	66.8	75.0	95.0
Non-glyc-sites (%)		96.6	88.4	96.7	96.6
Elhammer	matrix				
Correlation coefficient C		0.14	0.35	0.63	0.73
Glyc-sites (%)		60.0	58.6	75.0	85.0
Non-glyc-sites (%)		83.9	87.8	94.7	93.3
Our matrix	x				
Correlation coefficient C		0.33	0.33	0.64	0.80
Glyc-si	tes (%)	40.0	48.3	62.5	85.0
Non-glyc-sites (%)		98.6	90.7	97.4	96.2

maximal network correlation coefficient was 0.88, corresponding to finding 95% of the glycosylated threonines and 96% of the non-glycosylated threonines. For these values the matrix method of Elhammer gave 0.73, 85% and 93% respectively.

For serine, a window of 15 residues (seven on each side of the glycosylated serine) gave the optimal correlation coefficient. However, a window of 39 residues was nearly as good. This indicates the existence of correlations between distant residues in the sequence, and reaffirms that the acceptor sequence pattern for serine differs from that of threonine.

Table 3 reports the performance values (C, percentages of correctly predicted glycosylated residues and non-glycosylated residues) on the low-similarity test set: 0.33, 60% and 97% respectively. The Elhammer matrix gave 0.14, 60% and 84%. On the high-similarity test set we obtained 0.70, 75% and 97%, respectively; and (Elhammer) 0.63, 75% and 95%.

The problem of predicting glycosylated serine residues is more non-linear, as networks with hidden units performed significantly better than linear networks without hidden units. The linear network with 0 hidden units had a performance comparable with the matrix method of Elhammer et al.

Overall, it was more difficult to predict glycosylated serines than glycosylated threonines. This could either reflect the higher degree of non-linearity in the serine prediction, or it could be due to the poorer statistical representation of glycosylated serines compared with threonines (103 sites versus 161 sites). For both cases the window size of nine residues used by Elhammer et al. [22] is seen to be suboptimal for the predictive performance (Figure 7).

Prediction performance of weight matrix algorithms

For the matrices, increased performance was also found when treating serine and threonine residues separately. Curves of similar shape as in Figure 7, were obtained with the matrix method, albeit with a somewhat lowered performance in comparison with the networks equipped with hidden units. This means that we have confirmed the long-range correlations found, especially for serine, by two independent methods.

Besides varying the window size, we investigated a number of other possible ways of increasing the performance of the method,

The figure displays two parts: (a) threonine, and (b) serine. On each plot the performance of several network configurations are shown.

Table 4 Predictive performance of the proposed sequence motifs for GalNAc-transferase

The occurrences of the motifs at glycosylated sites (Thr/Ser-glyc) and non-glycosylated (Thr/Ser non-glyc) sites were counted in the complete data set of 48 0-glycosylated proteins. Some sites fit more than one motif.

A. Proposed sequence motif (ref.)	Thr-glyc	Thr non-glyc
Xaa-Pro-Xaa-Xaa, where one Xaa is a glycosylated threonine [23]	79	161
Thr(g)-Xaa-Xaa-Xaa, where one Xaa and Thr(g) is a glycosylated threonine [24]	36	224
Xaa-Xaa-Thr(g)-Xaa, where one Xaa is either arginine/lysine [24]	18	191
B. Proposed sequence motif (ref.)	Ser-glyc	Ser non-glyc
Ser(g)-Xaa-Xaa-Xaa, where Ser(g) is a glycosylated serine and Xaa is a serine [24]	46	327

but none of the variations described in the Materials and methods section led to a substantial increase in performance.

Limited predictive performance of proposed motifs

The proposed motifs of Gooley et al. [23] and Pisano et al. [24] fit a reasonable fraction of the glycosylated residues in the 48 O-glycosylated proteins (Table 4), but the predictive value of the motifs is limited since the motifs are also found at many non-glycosylated sites. A maximal correlation coefficient of 0.27 was found for the first motif in Table 4, Xaa-Pro-Xaa-Xaa. No other motif gave better results. This is well below the performance level of Elhammer's method.

DISCUSSION

If, as proposed recently [6], more than one GalNAc-transferase exists with different but overlapping specificities, how can one be sure that only one enzyme with a well-defined specificity is isolated during the purification process? This may explain the diversity of findings using *in vitro* glycosylation of synthetic model peptides with purified GalNAc-transferases.

All O-linked glycosylations have been predicted to be located within β -turns either in the second or the third position of the turn [50]. Synthetic peptides, which are O-glycosylated *in vitro*, adopt a β -turn as shown by circular dichroism by Hollosi et al. [51]. The specificity of the GalNAc-transferase could therefore be defined as the amino acid sequence which is able to adopt and/or stabilize an exposed β -turn.

If O-glycosylation is a post-translational process [11] taking place after N-glycosylation, folding and oligomerization, Oglycosylation is limited to residues present at the surface of the protein. This is in fact the case for the few examples of Oglycosylated proteins present in the Brookhaven Protein Data Bank. O-glycosylation may therefore be strongly influenced by the local conformation [52] and tertiary structure [53] of the protein.

The sequences fulfilling these structural demands may well be so complex that no simple consensus-like rule accounting for all known sites can be defined. Solving the conundrum of acceptor specificity for UDP-GalNAc: polypeptide *N*-acetylgalactosaminyltransferase therefore probably involves giving up the simplistic view of finding simple sequence rules. This does not necessarily mean that the location of O-glycosylation cannot be predicted from the primary sequence, provided the proper statistical tool and a sufficient amount of examples of *in vivo* glycosylation sites are available.

The earlier proposed motifs [23,24] account for a fraction of O-glycosylated threonines, but are non-specific as they are also present at many non-glycosylated sites, thus limiting their predictive value.

Analysing 264 O-glycosylation sites, we found a high frequency of serine, threonine, proline, alanine and valine residues extending up to 20 residues upstream and downstream relative to the Oglycosylated threonine or serine. This extends the result of Elhammer et al. [22] who found an increased frequency of serine, threonine and proline in the region covering positions -4through +4.

This does not mean that proline, serine and threonine favour glycosylation at all these positions, but probably reflects that these residues have different positional preferences in the various types of reverse turns. When all glycosylated sequences are aligned relative to the glycosylated residue, proline, serine and threonine will be abundant on nearly all positions, as shown in Figure 3.

We have shown that the acceptor sequence context of glycosylated serine residues is much harder to recognize computationally than that of threonine residues. Using neural networks we have shown that the former problem is non-linear, while the latter is linearly separable. This is consistent with the experimental difficulties in glycosylation of serine sites as compared with threonine sites, e.g. Elhammer et al. found that bovine GalNActransferase glycosylates threonine 35 times faster than serine [22].

In agreement with Wilson et al. [20] we found an increased frequency of proline at positions -1 and +3 relative to both glycosylated serine and threonine residues. However, for glycosylated serine residues, positions +1, -8 and -9 also had a significantly increased frequency of proline, threonine and serine. One may speculate that proline in positions -1 and +1 functionally acts as a 'gating' residue favouring O-glycosylation and inhibiting N-glycosylation, because it contradicts the extended consensus sequence Asn-Xaa-Ser/Thr-Xaa, where Xaa can be any residue except proline.

The glycosylation patterns can, with advantage, be recognized using neural networks and a large and verified database of *in vivo* O-glycosylated proteins. Using the neural network technique we were able to predict the position of 60–75% of the glycosylated serines and 67–95% of the glycosylated threonines, exclusively from the primary sequence. This is better than any other available method. A key problem is the presence of many buried negative sites in the data set, which would probably be glycosylated if they were exposed on the surface of the protein and were thereby accessible to the GalNAc-transferase. Adding a reliable prediction of surface exposure and of β -turn positioning will presumably lead to enhanced prediction performance.

E-mail server publicly available

Sequences in single-letter amino acid code of 80 characters per line should be put into a file and mailed to the Internet address NetOglyc@cbs.dtu.dk. Mail the word 'help' to receive information about sequence format. The prediction of the networks will be returned immediately.

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