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Glycosylation of the intestinal peptide transporter: structure and function

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"Der Preis des Erfolges ist Hingabe, harte Arbeit und unablässiger Einsatz für das, was man erreichen will."

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Summary

The intestinal peptide transporter PEPT1 (SLC15A1), a prototype member of the protoncoupled oligopeptide transporter family (POT), mediates H+-coupled electrogenic epithelial influx of di- and tripeptides derived from luminal protein breakdown in the gut. In addition to its nutritional role, PEPT1 as a high-capacity/low-affinity transporter also participates in the intestinal transport of pharmacologically active compounds, such as ß-lactam antibiotics, angiotensin converting enzyme inhibitors or other peptidomimetic drugs. Western blot analyses performed with protein isolates of mouse intestine revealed the existence of alternative PEPT1 glycoforms. In small intestine, PEPT1 exhibits a molecular mass of ~95 kDa, while in colon the transporter appears with a higher molecular mass of about ~105 kDa. Enzymatic deglycosylation studies performed with PNGaseF uniformly reduced the PEPT1 mass in both gut segments to ~65 kDa. Starting from this observation, the experiments described here assessed the functional significance of N-glycans for PEPT1 transport activity. Using a targeted mutagenesis approach, putative N-glycosylation sites in murine PEPT1 (mPEPT1) were disrupted and mutant transporters heterologously expressed in Xenopus laevis oocytes. Consecutive or combined replacement of six asparagine residues (N) at positions N50, N406, N439, N510, N515 and N532 by glutamine (Q) resulted in a stepwise or complete decrease of the mPEPT1 mass from initially ~95 kDa to about 65 kDa in oocytes. Electrophysiology revealed all glycosylation-deficient transporters to be functional with comparative plasma membrane abundance in oocytes. Remarkably, mutant transporter N50Q exhibited a twofold decrease in affinity for the dipeptide glycyl-sarcosine (Gly-Sar) and a 2.5-fold rise in maximal inward currents compared to the wild-type transporter. Elevated maximal transport currents were also recorded with the substrates cefadroxil and tri-L-alanine. Interestingly, current recordings for outward directed transport of Gly-Sar and the cytosolic substrate affinity in mutant N50Q were also twofold higher than in wild-type transporters. Tracer flux studies performed with [14C]-Gly-Sar confirmed the reduction in extracellular substrate affinity and showed a markedly enhanced maximal transport rate for mutant transporter N50Q, suggesting that it is indeed the transport capacity that is elevated. This rise in N50Q maximal transport rate was shown to be a general phenomenon, not species-specific and not a result of a different protein membrane density. In order to understand how glycans attached to N50 affect the transport characteristics with a gain of maximal transport rate when removed, the protein structure and membrane topology were examined more closely. With reference to available crystal structures of prokaryotic PEPT1 homologues, N50 is located in a short extracellular loop connecting transmembrane domain 1 and 2. Both helices are part of the first of two 6-helical bundles (N- and C-terminal half) that mediate in a cooperative manner substrate transport. Based on the experimental findings in oocytes, demonstrating that neither the surface density of mutant transporter N50Q was changed, nor the ion conductance

was altered, one can assume that N-glycosylation at N50 constraints the movement of the N-terminal bundle during the mPEPT1 transport cycle. This was corroborated by the finding that a substitution of the N-glycan mass at sequon N50 (~3-5 kDa) by MTSEA-biotin caused in dependence of its molecular mass and size an increase in Gly-Sar affinity and concurrently a decrease in maximal inward currents. In turn, the absence of a glycan mass at glycosylation site N50 appeared to accelerate the PEPT1 turnover rate, resulting in considerably higher inward current recordings and cytosolic substrate concentrations. Although there is evidence for intra- and interspecies differences in protein glycosylation, very little is known about organspecific glycoforms and their biological function. The findings described here that small and large intestine exhibit disparate glycosylation leading to a different glycan mass of the same backbone protein is novel. While the aberrant mPEPT1 glycoforms did not reveal any different transport characteristics, preliminary studies with model proteases suggest that a more extensive glycosylation could provide an increased proteolytic stability.

Zusammenfassung

Der intestinale Peptidtransporter PEPT1 (SLC15A1), als der bedeutendste Vertreter in der Familie der H⁺-abhängigen Peptidtransporter (POT), vermittelt die elektrogene Aufnahme von Di- und Tripeptiden aus dem Verdau der Nahrungsproteine ins Darmepithel. PEPT1 repräsentiert ein Transportsystem mit hoher Kapazität und relativ niedriger Affinität für die Mehrzahl der Substrate. Neben der Aufnahme von Aminosäuren in Peptidform vermittelt PEPT1 auch die intestinale Resorption von pharmakologisch aktiven Substanzen, beispielsweise ß-Laktamantibiotika, diversen ACE-Hemmern Peptidomimetika. Western Blot Analysen haben gezeigt, dass PEPT1 im Mäusedarm in unterschiedlichen Glykoformen vorliegt. Während PEPT1 im Dünndarm eine Proteinmasse von etwa ~95 kDa aufweist, zeigt sich im Dickdarm eine Masse von ~105 kDa. Enzymatische Deglykosilierung mittels PNGaseF reduzierte in beiden Darmabschnitten die Masse auf ~65 kDa. Auf der Grundlage dieser Beobachtung ergab sich die generelle Frage zur Bedeutung der *N*-Glykane für das Transportverhalten von PEPT1. Mit Hilfe der zielgerichteten Mutagenese wurden potenzielle N-Glykosilierungsstellen des murinen PEPT1 Transporters (mPEPT1) eliminiert und die rekombinanten Proteine heterolog in Xenopus laevis Oozyten exprimiert. Ein simultaner Austausch von sechs Asparaginen in den N-gebundenen Glykosilierungsstellen N50, N406, N439, N510, N515 und N532 durch Glutamin resultierte in einer Absenkung der PEPT1 Proteinmasse von anfänglich ~95 kDa auf etwa 65 kDa in Oozyten. Elektrophysiologische Untersuchungen und Flux-Studien lieferten den Nachweis, dass eine sukzessive Elimination der mPEPT1 N-Glykosilierungsstellen weder einen Einfluss auf die Proteindichte in der Oozytenmembran, noch auf die Funktion - mit Ausnahme einer Mutante – besitzt. Mutante N50Q zeigte einen markanten Abfall der Affinität für das Dipeptid Glycyl-Sarcosin (Gly-Sar) und eine 2.5-fache Erhöhung der maximalen Einwärtsströme im Vergleich zum Wildtyp Protein. Eine vergleichbare Erhöhung der maximalen Einwärtsströme war auch für die Substrate Cefadroxil und Tri-L-Alanin nachweisbar. Ebenso verdoppelten sich die auswärtsgerichteten Transportströme von Mutante N50Q nach Beladung der Oozyten mit Gly-Sar sowie deren zytosolische Affinität gegenüber dem Wildtyp. Aufnahmestudien mit radioaktiv markiertem [14C]-Gly-Sar bestätigten den Abfall der Substrataffinität für den Einwärtstransport und die markante Steigerung der Transportrate. Ein gleichartiger Befund ließ sich für das humane Protein erheben. Basierend auf der Kristallstruktur homologer prokaryotischer PEPT1 Transporter befindet sich N50 in einer kleinen extrazellulären Schleife, die die Transmembrandomänen 1 und 2 miteinander verbindet. Beide Transmembrandomänen sind Bestandteil eines von insgesamt zwei spiralförmig angeordneten Gebinden, die jeweils 6 Helices umfassen (N- und C-terminales Bündel) und vermutlich kooperativ den Substrattransport bewerkstelligen. Da in N50Q-Transportern weder die Expressionsstärke, noch die Ionenleitfähigkeit in Oozyten verändert war, war zu vermuten, dass die Glykanstruktur an N50 die Beweglichkeit des N-terminalen helikalen Bündels während des Transportzykluses einschränkt. Diese Annahme wurde dadurch erhärtet, dass eine Substitution der Glykan Masse an Sequon N50 (~3-5 kDa) durch MTSEA-Biotin mit steigender Molekülmasse und -größe zu einem Anstieg der Substrataffinität, bei einem kontinuierlichen Rückgang der maximalen Einwärtsströme, führte. Im Gegenzug bewirkte die Entfernung der Glykan-Masse eine deutliche Steigerung des Transportstroms und der zytosolischen Substratkonzentration. Obwohl es Hinweise auf Unterschiede in der Art und dem Umfang der Glykosilierung von Membranproteinen zwischen Spezies und auch innerhalb einer Spezies gibt, ist bislang nur wenig über organspezifische Glykosilierungen und deren biologischen Konsequenzen bekannt. Nach Pilotstudien mit den unterschiedlichen PEPT1-Glykan-Varianten erhöht eine extensivere Glykosilierung die proteolytische Stabilität des Transporters, während sich die Transportfunktion nur unwesentlich verändert.

Introductory remark

Parts of this work have already been published in:

Stelzl T, Baranov T, Geillinger KE, Kottra G, Daniel H. Effect of N-glycosylation on the transport activity of the peptide transporter PEPT1. Am J Physiol Gastrointest Liver Physiol. 2016; 310(2):G128-G141.

Stelzl T, Geillinger-Kästle KE, Stolz J, Daniel H. Glycans in the intestinal peptide transporter PEPT1 contribute to function and protect from proteolysis. Am J Physiol Gastrointest Liver Physiol. 2017; 312(6):G580-G591.

1. Introduction

1.1. Glycosylation - the most prevalent post-translational protein modification

Post-translational protein modification (PTM) constitutes the most important mechanism in regulating various intracellular processes in living organisms such as cellular differentiation [1], protein degradation [1] and cell signaling [3, 4]. PTM is an enzyme-mediated chemical modification of proteins after translation and represents a highly efficient instrument to increase the proteome diversity [5]. To date, more than 400 types of PTMs have been documented and approximately 87.000 PTMs have been empirically confirmed by biochemical and biophysical analyses [6].

The most frequently observed PTMs are glycosylation, phosphorylation, acetylation and methylation. Glycosylation in the cellular secretory pathway is considered to be the most important and complex post-translational protein alteration found in eukaryotic systems [7, 8, 9, 10]. It encompasses the enzyme-directed covalent attachment of carbohydrate moieties to the surface of proteins, lipids, steroids or other organic molecules [7]. It is estimated that more than 50% of plasma-membrane and secreted proteins in humans undergo glycosylation [11, 12], while approximately 2% of the human genome (250-500 glycogenes) encodes for proteins involved in protein glycosylation [13]. The process of glycosylation is highly ordered and conserved along all living animals ranging from archaea and eubacteria to eukaryotes [9]. Although protein glycosylation per se is similar in bacteria, fungi, plants and mammals, a great diversity in carbohydrate structures and the type of sugar-amino-acid linkage to glycoproteins prevails [14]. Distinct glycosylation patterns are primarily related to variations in the enzyme repertoire involved in glycan biosynthesis and processing [15]. So far, five major classes of protein glycosylation have been characterized and categorized with respect to the linkage of a carbohydrate to a non-carbohydrate moiety within oligopeptides. Altogether, 13 different monosaccharides bound to 8 distinct amino-acid sites, resulting in 41 sugar-amino acid combinations, were found to participate in glycoprotein formation [10].

1.1.1. Glycoprotein biosynthesis and structure

The individual glycosylation types described so far (Fig. 1) comprise glypiation [16], phosphoglycosylation [17, 18], C-mannosylation [19, 20, 21], O-glycosylation [23, 24] and N-glycosylation [22, 23, 25, 26]. In the process of glypiation, proteins are covalently modified by en bloc attachment of a glycosylphosphatidylinositol (GPI) anchor to the carboxy terminus of a nascent polypeptide chain by a transamidase complex in the lumen of the endoplasmic reticulum (ER) [27, 28, 29]. GPI anchors are synthesized on the cytoplasmic side of the ER membrane and flipped into the ER lumen [30] and are generally composed of a phosphoethanolamin protein anchor, a conserved glycan core structure (Man₃-GlcN) with variable side-chains and a phosphatidylinositol linked by a phosphodiester bond to the cell membrane [31]. GPI-linkage of proteins is frequently found in integral cell surface glycoproteins of eukaryotes and archaea [32] and is implicated with apical and systematic targeting of proteins involved in cell signaling and receptor mediated signal transduction to lipid-raft domains within the plasma membrane [33, 34, 35, 36].

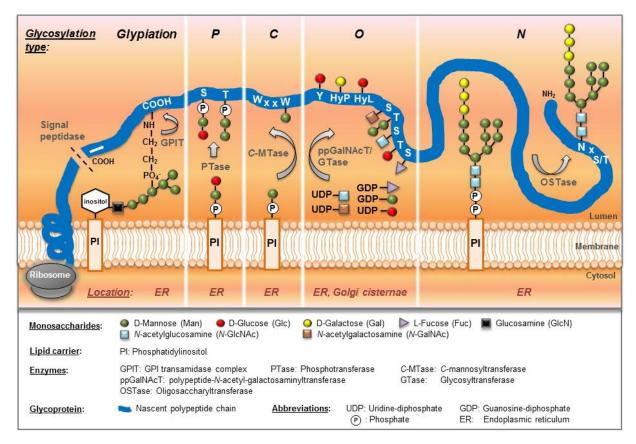


Fig.1: Schematic representation of the different types of protein glycosylation.

Individual glycan acceptor sites of a nascent polypeptide chain (blue line) are marked as COOH (carboxy terminus); S: serine; T: threonine; Y: tyrosine; HyP: hydroxyproline or HyL: hydroxylysine. In C- and N-glycosylation, the attachment of glycans to a nascent polypeptide in the ER requires the presence of specific consensus sequences (W-x-x-W and N-x-S/T; W: tryptophan; N: asparagine; x: variable amino acid). See text for further explanations. The illustration was adapted and modified from [76].

Protein phosphoglycosylation (P-glycosylation) was first described by Gustafson et al. in 1980 for the slime mold Dictyostelium discoideum [37]. This type of post-translational protein modification is limited to parasites and characterized by linkage of glycans to serine or threonine residues in a peptide backbone via phosphodiester bonds [17]. Comparable to N-glycosylation, prefabricated phosphoglycans, anchored in the ER membrane by phosphatidylinositol (PI), are transferred en bloc by a phosphotransferase (PTase) to the nascent protein. Proteophosphoglycans for example of Leishmania have been identified to promote host colonization and infection [38] and provide protection against the host's immune system [39].

C-glycosylation, characterized in 1994 by Hofsteenge et al. [40], implies the linkage of the α-mannosyl residue of dolichol phospho-mannose with the C-2 of a tryptophan indole ring by C-mannosyltransferase (C-MTase). In contrast to N- and O-glycosylation, functional amino acid groups do not participate in the formation of a C-C glycopeptide bond. So far, C-mannosylation has been detected in a multitude of mammalian proteins including polypeptides of the complement system [41], RNase2 [42, 43], the cytokine receptor IL-12 [44] or the thrombopoietin receptor c-MpI [45]. However, the function of protein C-glycosylation has not been fully clarified yet.

In the most abundant form of O-glycosylation, the mucin-type O-linked glycosylation, N-acetylgalactosamine (N-GalNAc) is transferred by a polypeptide-N-acetyl-galactosaminyltransferase (ppGalNAcT) in the Golgi complex from an activated sugar (UDP-GalNAc) to the hydroxyl group of serine (S) or threonine (T) residue of a protein backbone [46]. Following translocation to the trans-Golgi, the N-GalNAc-S/T structure is extended by N-acetylglucosamine (N-GlcNac), N-acetylgalactosamine (N-GalNAc) and galactose (Gal) and subjected to further post-translational modification.

Resulting glycoproteins, also designated as mucins, are mainly produced in epithelial goblet or mucous cells of the gastrointestinal, tracheobronchial and reproductive tract [47, 48], where they constitute a protective barrier against physical, chemical or microbial injuries to epithelial cells. Beside mucin-type glycans, non-mucin O-glycans, carrying different types of initiating sugars and glycoprotein attachment sites, have been specified [46]. While O-GalNAcylation mainly occurs on secreted proteins, cytosolic and nuclear proteins are mainly O-GlcNAcylated at S/T residues [49]. Several fibrinolytic and coagulation factors were identified to carry O-linked fucose [50], while numerous glycoproteins of the vertebrate nervous system additionally contain O-linked mannose, glucose, galactose and xylose [51]. Apart from serine or threonine as O-glycan acceptor sites, hydroxyproline linkage to arabinose or galactose was found to predominate in plants [52], and galactose or glucose binding to hydroxylysine or tyrosine in collagenous proteins [53]. From a general perspective, protein O-glycosylation has a prominent role in gene regulation [54], cell growth, proliferation and apoptosis [55, 56, 57]. The protein N-glycosylation pathway has hitherto been extensively studied in mammals [58] and yeasts [59] and implies the co-translational attachment of glycans to the amide group of an asparagine residue (N) within an N-x-S/T oligopeptide consensus motif (x denotes every amino acid except proline) [60, 61]. With less frequency, N-glycosylation was found to occur also at N-x-C and N-G-G-T consensus sequences [62]. A variety of glycoproteins, including growth factors, cytokines, hormones, coagulation factors, plasma and matrix proteins, membrane receptors, as well as numerous enzymes, are N-glycosylated [63]. This broad diversification reflects the widespread involvement in multiple biological processes and complicates a strict classification of N-linked glycan function. A number of congenital

disorders of N-glycosylation, which originate from enzymatic defects in the biosynthesis or degradation of N-glycans, have been identified that are characterized by severe malfunctions of various organ systems. These diseases demonstrate the importance of N-glycosylation for cellular mechanisms controlling health and disease states [64, 65, 66].

Protein N-glycosylation starts with the addition of a 14-mer glycan precursor structure (Glc₃Man₉GlcNAc₂) from membrane anchored dolichol phosphate to the nascent protein in the ER lumen [67]. Following sugar hydrolysis and correct folding, the trimmed glycoproteins carrying the Man₉GlcNAc₂ structure [68, 69], are transported from the ER to the Golgi apparatus. There, a stepwise glycan processing by cisterna-specific glycosyltransferases and glycosidases occurs [69].

To date, the existence of approximately 90 glycosyltransferase families, comprised of more than 7200 members, has been reported [70, 71]. Mature glycans can be categorized into three groups: high mannose, hybrid and complex type [72]. All classes have a tri-mannosyl core structure (Man₃GlcNAc₂) in common. While in high mannose type glycans the core structure is extended by 2-6 mannose units (Man₅₋₉GlcNAc₂), in complex glycans mannose residues apart from the core structure are replaced by *N*-GlcNAcs.

Hybrid type glycans constitute a combination of high-mannose and complex type glycans. These comprise at least three mannose residues and a single N-GlcNAc at a non-reducing mannose. In mammals, hybrid and complex N-glycans are frequently decorated with fucose $\alpha(1\rightarrow 6)$ linked to the core GlcNAc and terminal sialic acids [73], while in plants and invertebrates $\alpha(1\rightarrow 3)$ fucose linkage prevails [74]. In addition, N- and O-linked glycans are most often capped with specific sugars such as N-GalNAc, sialic acid, fucose or galactose, which play an important role in cell recognition and glycoprotein interaction. In contrast to O-linked glycans that lack a core saccharide structure and incorporate only 3-6 monosaccharide residues, N-glycosylation is far more complex due to an increased N-glycan branching, length and higher variability in the glycan composition (12-25 monosaccharide residues) [75].

1.1.2. Significance of protein glycosylation

The highly complex process of protein glycosylation is neither encoded by the genome, nor template-driven or random [77]. In mammals, roughly 700 proteins are supposed to form the glycan repertoire [78]. Among all post-translational modifications, glycosylation is the most extensive source of protein micro- and macroheterogeneity. Microheterogeneity denotes the diversity in glycan structures at a given glycosylation site [79, 48], while macroheterogeneity refers to the variability in the number of potential glycosylation sites ("variable glycosylation site occupancy") [80, 81]. With regard to micro- and macroheterogeneity, individual glycoproteins can appear in different glycoforms. While sharing an identical amino acid backbone, glycan moieties attached to particular glycosylation sites can vary significantly [82]. The origin of intra- and inter-individual protein glycosylation heterogeneity [83, 77] is mainly due to differences in the expression, regulation or activity of cellular glycosyltransferases and glycan-processing enzymes [66, 83].

Dynamic changes in the glycosylation pattern of surface or secreted glycoproteins mainly occur during cell growth and differentiation [85], aging [86, 87] or in diseased states, such as cancer [88]. Among numerous environmental parameters, inter alia growth factors, metabolites, hormones or the cellular energy supply, but also the presence of pathogens, is considered to trigger aberrant glyco-phenotypes [89, 90, 91]. Differential glycosylation does not only expand the functional protein diversity, but also affects physical, biochemical and pharmaceutical properties of glycoproteins.

In recent years, the production of therapeutic proteins and the field of metabolic glycoengineering considerably expanded the knowledge in understanding the role of glycans on proteins [92]. Glycan structures have been recognized to direct protein folding and affect protein conformation as well as stability during and after protein synthesis [93, 94]. In particular, high mannose and free N-glycans of a complex and high-mannose type are supposed to act as "glycan chaperones" triggering protein folding in the endoplasmic reticulum [95]. Due to their amphiphilic nature, glycans have the capability to improve protein solubility and prevent protein aggregation [96, 97, 98].

Glycosylation has further been implicated to modulate protein thermostability and increase the conformational rigidity against pH denaturation [93, 99]. Protein stabilizing effects of glycans were also detected with respect to auto- and proteolysis [100]. In this context, surface glycan structures were shown to act as a protective "coat" preserving the underlying peptide backbone from proteolytic cleavage by masking potential protease cleavage sites [100, 102]. Additionally, N-glycans were detected to fend protease digestion. This is achieved by high affinity binding to solvent-exposed aromatic amino acid residues of proteases, inactivating catalytic enzyme activity by steric hindrance [103]. In this way, glycosylation exerts a considerable influence on the lifetime and turnover of glycoproteins [104]. Targeted modification of therapeutic proteins by insertion of additional N-glycosylation sites, aiming to increase the content of sialic acid containing oligosaccharides, appeared to increase the half-life of individual recombinant human therapeutic proteins tremendously [105, 106, 107]. Hyperglycosylation of recombinant proteins is often associated with an extended serum half-life, increased proteolysis resistance and thermal stability with respect to corresponding non-glycated protein forms [108].

Intracellular targeting and sorting of newly synthesized or recycled glycoproteins is crucial to sustain the physiological function of polarized cells. In this context, specific N-linked oligosaccharides have been identified to act as apical sorting signals for membrane proteins [109, 110, 111]. Although the mechanism of glycoprotein sorting hasn't been fully clarified yet,

it is hypothesized that N- and O-glycans either interact with hitherto unknown receptors that mediate an apical vesicular protein transport or stabilize a proteinaceous conformation required for a trans-Golgi protein export via protein oligomerization [112, 113, 114]. Molecular interactions between single proteins or receptors and ligands are well known to be modulated by glycosylation. Quite often, glycans serve as molecular "on and off" switches selectively regulating and tuning protein activities [77, 63]. Glycosylation was also shown to participate in receptor-ligand-recognition, -binding and -activation [115, 116, 117]. In this respect, glycosylation-dependent interactions are also of importance in the activation and regulation of the innate and adaptive immune response [118].

Individual oligosaccharide structures, in particular terminal sialic acid and galactose-α(1,3)galactose, are highly antigenic and were shown to trigger immunogenic reactions [119, 120, 121]. Terminal sugar moieties and their modifications, rather than other oligosaccharide units, were identified to be primarily deterministic for the immunomodulatory properties and the function of glycans [122]. Approaches to increase protein stability by glycosylation for improved delivery and efficacy of therapeutic proteins and even targeting of a glucose transporter for peptide delivery via a glucose moiety attached, have been described [123, 124].

1.2. The proton-coupled solute carrier family SLC15

The oligopeptide transporter 1 (PEPT1) belongs to the solute carrier 15 (SLC15) protondependent oligopeptide transporter family (POT or also referred to as PTR: peptide transport family; TC 2.A.17). There is growing interest in this apical membrane protein since PEPT1 is known to be a key transporter for the absorption of peptidomimetic drugs from the gut [125, 126, 127, 128]. The SLC15 family in mammals comprises PEPT1 and PEPT2, and the peptide/histidine transporters PHT1 and PHT2 [129].

The highly conserved and well-defined gene family of POT transporters has members in bacteria, fungi and plants [130] and mediates primarily the cellular uptake of amino acids, small peptides and peptoid drugs (Table 1). The first member of the SLC15 transporter family, PEPT1, was isolated and cloned in 1994 from the intestine of rabbit [131]. Over years, homology screening and molecular cloning lead to transporters from numerous vertebrate species including humans, mice and rats [132, 133, 134, 135, 136].

Functional analysis and even cloning of PEPT1 or PEPT1-like transporters was hitherto performed from birds (chicken, turkey) [137, 138], fish (zebrafish, Atlantic salmon, European seabass, Antarctic icefish) [139, 140, 141, 142], worms (Caenorhabditis elegans) [143, 144], flies (Drosophila melanogaster) [145], bacteria (Escherichia coli, Lactococcus lactis, Shewanella oneidensis, Streptococcus thermophilus, Geobacillus kaustophilus) [146, 147, 148, 149, 150, 151, 152, 153, 154] and yeasts (Saccharomyces cerevisiae) [154].

Table 1: The SLC15 proton-coupled oligopeptide transporter family

Gene family	Transporter synonyms	Transport type/ Coupling ion	Predominant substrates	Localization (mRNA/protein)
SLC15A1	PEPT1 PECT1	cotransport/H+	di-/tripeptides, β-lactam antibiotics, 5-aminolevulinic acid, ACE inhibitors, renin inhibitors, anticancer drugs, bestatin, amino ester prodrugs	intestine, bile duct, kidney (pars convoluta), pancreas, liver, reproductive system, stomach, lung, skeletal muscle
SLC15A2	PEPT2	cotransport/H+	di-/tripeptides, β-lactam antibiotics, 5-aminolevulinic acid, ACE inhibitors, renin inhibitors, anticancer drugs, bestatin, amino ester prodrugs	kidney (pars recta), lung, central and enteric nervous system, spleen, mammary gland, heart, liver, skeletal muscle, reproductive organs, pancreas
SLC15A3	PHT2 PTR3 OCTP	cotransport/H+	di-/tripeptides, L-histidine, carnosine	lung, spleen, thymus, intestine, liver, heart, brain, adrenal gland, placenta, leukocytes, skeletal muscle, kidney, intestine
SLC15A4 PHT1 cotransport/H+ PTR4		di-/tripeptides, L-histidine, carnosine	intestine, brain, eye, lung, lymphatic system, spleen, skeletal muscle, kidney, heart, liver, stomach, pancreas, reproductive system, thymus	

References for Table 1 include: [171, 172, 173, 174, 175, 176, 130, 177, 178, 179, 180, 163, 181,174]

1.2.1. Localization and functional relevance of SLC15 transporters

Mammalian SLC15 family members are found in a variety of cell types and organs (**Table 1**). However, current knowledge on physiological and pharmacological functions is primarily limited to the intestine, kidney and brain. Common to all SLC15 peptide transporters expressed in the intestine and kidney, is their participation in the absorption and conservation of diet-derived peptides [155]. In this sense, the primarily role of peptide transport is the provision of nitrogen and amino acids required for cellular metabolism and growth [156, 157].

PEPT1 is abundantly expressed in differentiated intestinal epithelial cells with distinct localization in the villus tip of enterocytes [158]. Along the crypt-villus axis, PEPT1 is not detectable in crypts or mucus-secreting goblet cells [159, 160]. In humans and rodents, membrane abundance of PEPT1 reveals a steady decrease from proximal to distal gut unidirectional to a higher luminal peptide concentration and absorptive capacity within the upper intestinal tract [161, 162, 163]. Highest PEPT1 mRNA and protein levels were reported

for duodenum, jejunum and ileum, while PEPT1 shows absence in proximal colon and marginal expression in distal colon [164]. PEPT1 is further detected in brush border membranes of epithelial cells of S1 segments of the proximal tubule in kidney [165], where it has a role in plasma peptide catabolism and where it may mediate the lysosomal export of peptides into the cytosol for further enzymatic hydrolysis [166, 167, 168, 169, 170]. Expression in lysosomal membranes of exocrine pancreas and liver also suggested an involvement of PEPT1 in lysosomal peptide exfiltration [168, 169].

Unlike PEPT1, the high-affinity and low-capacity peptide transporter PEPT2 is not localized in intestinal epithelial cells, but plays a predominant role in renal peptide reabsorption [182, 183]. PEPT2 is also strongly expressed in the central nervous system and considered to accomplish the export of peptides or peptide-like drugs from the cerebrospinal fluid, thereby suggested to contribute to neuropeptide homeostasis [184, 185].

The histidine/peptide co-transporters PHT1 and PHT2, primarily cloned from a rat brain cDNA library and sharing about 30% amino acid sequence identity to PEPT1 and PEPT2, are unique, as these carriers transport beside di- and tripeptides also free L-histidine [186, 187, 130]. Although PHT1 and PHT2 exhibit gastrointestinal expression, their functional role in intestinal peptide absorption is still unknown [175]. PHT1, classified as a high-affinity transporter, is further present in the central nervous system and supposed to participate in the clearance of neuropeptides and in the histamine homeostasis in the brain [187]. A more recent study attributed PHT1 a role in the age-dependent trafficking of peptides, peptidomimetics and L-histidine in the brain [188]. In contrast, PHT2 was highly expressed in the lymphatic system and was localized in intracellular vesicles of phagocytic immune cells. Within the endosomal cell compartment, PHT2 is supposed to participate in the activation and regulation of the innate immune system via toll-like receptors [186, 189].

1.2.2. Nutritional and pharmacological role of the peptide transporter PEPT1

As dietary proteins enter the digestive system (~70-100 g in a westernized diet per day) they are enzymatically processed into smaller polypeptides and free amino acids for absorption by enterocytes in the small intestine [190]. Early work suggested that the peptide absorption capacity may be larger than for the absorption of amino acids [191]. While the uptake of free amino acids into mammalian enterocytes is mediated by a variety of group specific amino acid transporters (cationic, anionic, neutral), translocation of short-chain peptides is accomplished by one peptide-specific transport system [192]. Due to the high activity level of membranebound peptide hydrolases, it was long time assumed, that dietary protein absorption only occurs in form of free amino acids [193]. However, several studies in patients with genetic disorders of amino acid transport, such as in Hartnup disease or Cystinuria, have shown that the "affected" amino acids are absorbed normally when provided as peptides [194, 195, 196, 197]. These findings validated the long-prevailing hypothesis that considerably portions of short-chain peptides can circumvent hydrolysis and pass the epithelium as small peptides in intact form. Intestinal absorption of di- and tripeptides is exclusively mediated by the H⁺-dependent oligopeptide symporter PEPT1 [198]. This electrogenic, high capacity and low affinity transporter (apparent affinity range $K_m = 0.2$ -10 mM) is highly expressed in differentiated intestinal epithelial cells with distinct localization in the plasma membrane of the villus tips [199, 179, 158] (**Fig. 2**). For substrate translocation, PEPT1 uses an inwardly directed proton electrochemical gradient ($\Delta\mu_H$) as driving force [201]. The inside negative transmembrane electric potential difference of intestinal epithelial cells ($\Delta\Psi$ ~-60 mV) and a pH gradient between the luminal surface of enterocytes (~pH 6.1-6.8) and the cytoplasm (~pH 7.0-7.2) constitute the proton-motive force for energizing uphill transport of solutes into mammalian cells [202, 203, 204, 205].

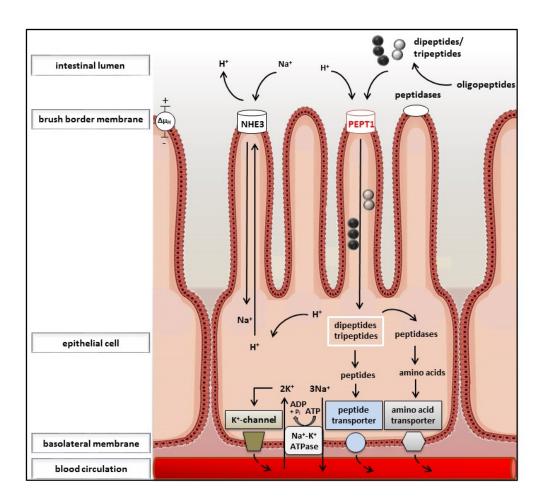


Fig. 2: Intestinal peptide absorption mediated by PEPT1.

In the process of digestion, dietary proteins are hydrolyzed by luminal enzymes of the stomach and pancreas to oligopeptides. Inside the small intestine, brush border membrane-bound aminopeptidases hydrolyze passing oligopeptides to amino acids and smaller peptides. While free amino acids are absorbed from the intestinal lumen into enterocytes by specific amino-acid transporters, the proton-dependent peptide transporter PEPT1 exclusively mediates the import of di- and tripeptides in symport with H⁺. PEPT1 transport is energized by an inwardly directed proton gradient (Δμ_H: proton electrochemical gradient), maintained by the activity of an apical Na⁺/H⁺ exchanger (NHE3), which in turn is energized by a basolateral Na⁺-K⁺-ATPase. Inside the cell, peptides mostly undergo further hydrolysis by cellular proteases and enter the blood circulation as amino acids via different amino acid efflux systems. Intact peptides exit the basolateral membrane probably by a putative, not yet identified peptide transporter.

To maintain an extra- to intracellular H+-gradient after cellular H+/peptide import and to compensate the intracellular acid load, a pH controlled apical Na⁺/H⁺ antiporter (NHE3) transports H⁺ in exchange of Na⁺ into the gut lumen [206]. NHE3 activity is driven by an intracellular Na*-gradient established by a basolateral Na*-K*-ATPase. Upon reaching the cell interior, the vast majority of naturally occurring peptides are hydrolyzed by cytosolic peptide hydrolases to free amino acids and released into the bloodstream via basolateral amino acid transporters (e.g. TAT1, LAT2) [207]. Non-hydrolysable substrates are suspected to enter the portal circulation via a not yet characterized basolateral peptide transport system that most likely operates also proton-independent [208, 209, 210, 211, 212, 213].

PEPT1 mediated transport was shown to be highly dependent on the membrane potential and the external pH with respect to its substrate affinity and transport rate [214]. Under physiologic conditions, electroneutral proton/cation exchangers generate a slightly acidic microclimate (> pH 6.25 and < 6.75) at the brush border membrane of enterocytes [215]. This microclimate pH favors PEPT1-driven intestinal peptide transport, reaching its optimum in dependency of the substrates net charge at pH 6.0-6.5 [216], with a preference of PEPT1 for the transport of neutral and cationic peptides [217]. Acidification of the extracellular pH shifts the PEPT1 transport rate for the benefit of acidic peptides, while alkalization intensifies the transport of basic peptides [218].

With regard to the stoichiometry of the proton-driven PEPT1 transport, proton-substrate coupling ratios of 1:1 for neutral and basic dipeptides and 2:1 for acidic peptides were proposed [217, 219, 220]. According to various studies, anionic peptides are transported in their neutral or charged form, the latter being transiently protonated prior to translocation through PEPT1 (stoichiometric ratio 2 H+:1 peptide). Cationic peptides are preferentially transported in their deprotonated form rather than charged. In comparison to anionic and neutral peptides, PEPT1 exhibits low affinity for cationic peptides [214, 217]. A more recent study by Parker et al. [221] that was performed with a prokaryotic PEPT1 homologue, suggested a proton-substrate stoichiometry of 4:1 up to 5:1 for dipeptides, and 3:1 for tripeptides. There have been speculations that the different proton coupling ratios could originate from an adaptation of the PEPT1 binding site to the transport of a vast diversity of substrates (**Table 1**).

Besides di- and tripeptides (up to 400 possible di- and 8000 tripeptides), PEPT1 was shown to recognize numerous peptidomimetics and nonpeptidic compounds as substrates. Amongst these are ß-lactam antibiotics of the cephalosporin and penicillin classes [125, 222], angiotensin-converting enzyme (ACE) inhibitors [178, 223], the antineoplastic drug bestatin [223, 224], alafosfalin [225], amino-acid conjugated antiviral drugs [225, 228], L-DOPA and artificial peptides as the non-hydrolysable model dipeptide glycyl-sarcosine (Gly-Sar) [214]. Moreover, δ-aminolevulinic acid and ω-amino fatty acids are well-known PEPT1 substrates [230]. Although the presence of a peptide bond is not a fundamental requirement for

a substrate to be transported by PEPT1/2 [231], high-affinity substrates (affinity constants < 0.5 mM) still have to meet several essential structural features. These include: (i) size larger than a single amino acid and smaller than a tetrapeptide; (ii) a free N-terminal α-amino group (NH₃⁺) in L-configuration; (iii) an acidic C-terminal group (e.g. a carboxy group, phosphoric acid group or arylamide); (iv) the carbonyl group of the peptide bond in trans-configuration (peptide bond can be replaced by a thiocarbonyl group but not by a -CH₂-NH-group); (v) molecular distance between carboxyl carbon and amino nitrogen > 500 pm and < 635 pm; (vi) no cyclization of the N- and C-terminus in dipeptides (backbone cyclization); (vii) N-terminal prolin reduces affinity due to N-alkylation; (viii) presence of bulky side-chains increase the affinity; (ix) high hydrophobicity; (x) L-L-stereoselectivity [232, 233, 234, 235].

1.2.3. Structural and functional characterization of murine PEPT1

Beyond their functional similarities such as substrate multispecificity, proton-coupled oligopeptide transporters also share similar structural features. With regard to the membrane topology of the murine PEPT1 transporter (mPEPT1), POT family members are supposed to contain 12 transmembrane domains (TMD) connected by six extracellular and five intracellular loops with N- and C-terminal ends facing the cytoplasmic site (Fig. 3). Hydropathy plot analysis by Kyte-Doolittle indicates the presence of a large extracellular domain (~202 bp) between TMD 9 and 10, which is believed to be a unique structural feature of PEPT1 and PEPT2 transporters in higher organisms [236, 136].

The PEPT1 transporter gene of mouse is localized on chromosome 14 (Gene ID: 56643) and encodes a full length cDNA of 3128 bp with an open reading frame of 2130 bp and a protein length of 709 amino acids (UniProtKB ACNO: AF205540) [144]. The murine PEPT1 gene spans about 38 kb and consists of 22 introns and 23 exons, while each of the exons 3-8, 11, 14-15 and 21-23 encodes a single TMD. The core protein of mPEPT1 is predicted with a molecular mass of 78.56 kDa (UniProtKB ACNO: Q9JIP7) and an isoelectric point of 8.11. At the amino acid level, the mPEPT1 protein shares 48% identity (65% similarity) to mPEPT2 and 85% identity (90% similarity) to human PEPT1 (hPEPT1), respectively 49% identity (65% similarity) to human PEPT2 (hPEPT2).

The promoter region of mPEPT1 (UniProtKB ACNO: AF205832) contains a TATA box-like sequence (5'CAATAAATA 3'; -805 to -813 bp) and three GC-rich regulatory elements (positions -88; -322; -352) [136]. GC-rich boxes are potential binding sites for the transcription factor SP1, which is known to modulate basal PEPT1 transcription [237]. In addition, putative binding sites for the transcription activators/regulators AP-1, Jun-B, c-Myb, c-Myc, GATA-1 and nuclear factor NF-E1 can be found within 1500 bp upstream of the transcription start [136]. The promoter region of mPEPT1 further includes a homeobox Cdx-2 transcription factor binding domain (-795 to -812 bp). Cdx2 has been considered to be a transcriptional master-regulator of cell proliferation, differentiation and PEPT1 expression in the intestine [238]. Moreover, the promoter region of mPEPT1 incorporates a single amino acid-responsive element (AARE: -431 bp to -437 bp) that was shown to regulate PEPT1 expression in response to substrate availability.

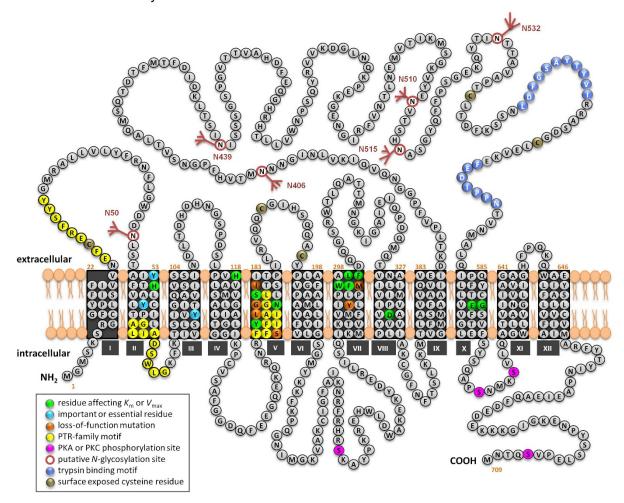


Fig. 3: Secondary structure model of the murine peptide transporter 1 (mPEPT1).

From hydropathy analysis, it can be deduced that the PEPT1 transporter consists of 12 transmembrane domains (TMD) with inwardly facing NH_2 - and COOH-termini. A unique structural feature of PEPT1 is the large extracellular hydrophilic loop between TMD 9 and 10 comprising five putative *N*-glycosylation sites (N406, N439, N510, N515, N532). All protein domains and amino acid residues identified by chimera studies and mutagenesis approaches to be important for PEPT1 function, are highlighted. The figure was modified from Stelzl *et al.* (2016, p. G129) [239]

A more specific analysis of the mPEPT1 transporter sequence reveals the presence of three conserved PTR family sequence motifs within the first 180 amino acids, composed of an ExxERFxYY (TMD1), a PTR_1 (TMD 2/3: GxxxADxxxG) and a PTR_2 (TMD 5: FSxxYxxxNxG) signature [148]. Insertions of mutations within these regions have been demonstrated to inactivate PTR transporters [240]. Besides, mPEPT1 carries consensus sequences for a cAMP-dependent protein kinase A (S252, S617), a protein kinase C (S613, S707) and several predicted canonical *N*-linked glycosylation sites within the first and fifth extracellular domain [136]. Recently, two conserved trypsin binding sites within the large extracellular loop were identified in mammalian PEPT1/2 transporters [242]. Since the loop domain is absent

in prokaryotic POT members, it has long been assumed to be insignificant for PEPT1 function. On current reckoning, trypsin interaction may serve to concentrate specifically arginine and lysine reach peptides in proximity to the transport pore in PEPT1 thereby increasing their absorption rate.

For a better understanding of the protein structure-activity relationship, studies employing chimera combined with site-directed mutagenesis- and computer modeling-approaches have been conducted. Various H+-cotransporters are known to contain conserved histidyl residues essential for the catalytic activity of the carriers. With regard to PEPT1, H57 has been identified to be of fundamental importance for function [243, 244, 245, 246, 252]. There is some evidence that H57 serves as principal proton-binding site, while the adjacent tyrosines Y56, Y64 and Y91 probably stabilize the positive charge of the protonated or unprotonated H57 by their phenolic side chains [245, 255]. However, it is possible that protonated H57 (TMD1) binds to the carboxyl-terminus of the substrate, while residue H121 (TMD4) most probably participates in substrate recognition and binding [246, 245].

The application of the substituted cysteine mutagenesis method (SCAM) contributed substantially to uncover the topology of PEPT1 and to deduce structure function relationships. In this context, the alpha-helical transmembrane segments 5 and 7 were identified to form a part of the PEPT1 aqueous substrate translocation channel [249, 250]. Thereby, the exofacial half of TMD5 forms an amphipathic α-helix, while the cytoplasmic half appears highly solvent accessible. Since an exchange of Y167, N171, S174 by cysteine within this domain is not tolerated, an involvement of TMD5 in substrate binding is conceivable. Opposed to TMD5, TMD7 exhibits solvent accessibility over the entire length with a gradual increase towards the cytoplasmic half. Therefore, it was speculated that the extracellular end of TMD7 might shift following substrate binding, thereby regulating channel gating [250]. Since cysteine mutation of F293, L296 and F297 (extracellular half TMD7) in hPEPT1 considerably reduced Gly-Sar uptake activity in HEK293 cells, this region is supposed to hold a structural or functional role. SCAM analysis further disclosed that a cysteine exchange of S164, L168, G173 and I179 (TMD5) and Y287, M292 (TMD7) in hPEPT1 is associated with an incorrect folding or trafficking of the mutant transporters to the plasma membrane in transiently transfected HEK293 cells [250]. Mutagenesis of W294E (TMD7) and G594C, E595L/C (TMD10) did not affect protein trafficking in oocytes, but rather generated a non-functional transporter [251, 247, 248] indicating that TMDs 5, 7, 10 could interfere with the substrate transport. Based on preceding SCAM analyses, W294 (TMD7) was ascribed a dominating role in maintaining the structural integrity of the PEPT1 transporter [250].

From coexpression studies using a non-functional W294F rabbit PEPT1 (rbPEPT1) mutant with normal membrane insertion, in combination with the rbPEPT1 wild-type transporter, there is evidence that rbPEPT1 might act as multimer, most probably as homomultimer in oocytes [251]. R282 (TMD7) in rbPEPT1 and hPEPT1 was also attributed a central role in proton binding and appears to form a salt bridge with D341 (TMD8) thereby maximizing the efficiency of substrate transport [253, 247, 250, 255]. In that regard, it was noticed that mutation of R282 to glutamate in rbPEPT1 switches the PEPT1 transport behavior from proton-driven to facilitated [253]. Since R282 is absent in the murine PEPT1 transporter (K282), it is currently unclear, whether a charged pair interaction is maintained by K282 and D341.

Although there is no three-dimensional protein structure of a mammalian peptide transporter available yet, many structural features can be deduced from crystallized bacterial homologues. In 2011, the first crystal structure of a PTR transporter was obtained from Shewanella oneidensis (PEPT_{so}) [150], followed by the structures from Streptococcus thermophilus (PEPT_{St}) [151], Geobacillus kaustophilus (GkPOT) [256], a second PTR transporter from Shewanella oneidensis (PEPT_{so2}) [256] and Escherichia coli (YbgH) [257]. Although these bacterial POT members share less than 20% overall amino acid identity with the mammalian PEPT1 transporter, they show a high level of sequence conservation within the transmembrane domains and the peptide binding site (~80% identity) [240, 258].

All POT members exhibit the canonical MFS fold comprised of 12 TMDs, while TMD1-6 form a N-terminal and TMD7-12 a C-terminal bundle (Fig. 4). Both halves are arranged in a "V" like structure, related by a pseudo two-fold symmetry axis running perpendicular to the membrane plane [259, 150]. In contrast to mammalian POTs, prokaryotic transporters contain two additional TMDs (HA and HB) located within the cytoplasmic loop connecting the N- and Cbundle [150] with currently unknown function.

POT transporters operate via the rocker-switch mode. This is characterized by alternating access to the central binding cavity from the intra- or extracellular milieu, which is controlled by a sophisticated gating mechanism [260]. So far, distinct spatial conformations of POT transporters have been identified and classified as inward open, occluded and outward open, while each state can be further sub-divided in ligand-bound and ligand-free (Fig. 5). Aside from common structural features, POT members are proposed to operate through a conserved mechanism. In the initial state of proton-coupled peptide transport, the empty carrier is arranged in an outward open or inward open conformation and allows extra- or intracellular solutes and protons to access the binding site (apo-state). In the outward open configuration, an intracellular gate is formed by close packing of TMD4-5 and TMD10-11, stabilized by a distal salt-bridge formed between TMD4 and 10 (PEPT_{St}: K126 and E400) [240, 152]. According to electrophysiological measurements that aimed to identify the transport mechanism of hPEPT1, H⁺ binding precedes substrate loading [261].

In the crystal structure of PEPT_{so}, a large central hydrophilic cavity (approximate dimension 13 x 12 x 11Å; Å = 0.1 nm) and a minor cone shaped extracellular directed hydrophobic cavity (16 x 8 x 8 Å) have been identified [240]. While the peptide binding-site was detected at the apex of the central cavity, the smaller cavity is assumed to participate in proton translocation or binding.

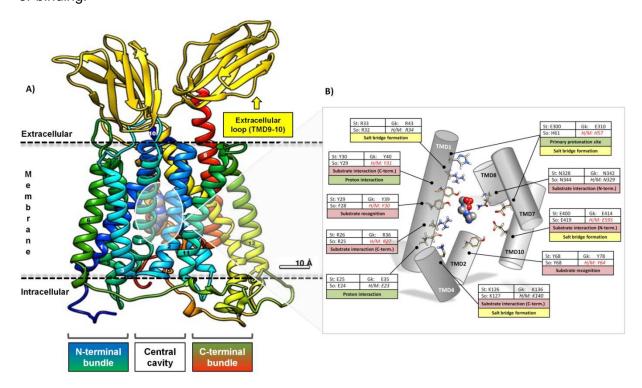


Fig. 4: Three-dimensional protein structure prediction of mPEPT1.

- (A) Starting from the query protein sequence of mPEPT1 (UniProtKB ACNO: Q9JIP7), a full-length three-dimensional structure model was generated with I-TASSER [264, 265, 266] and superimposed on crystallized PTR structures of *Shewanella oneidensis* (PDB: 4TPJ, 4LEP), *Streptococcus thermophilus* (PDB: 4D2B, 4D2D), and *Geobacillus kaustophilus* (PDB: 4IKW) applying the UCSF Chimera v. 1.10.2 software [267]. The mPEPT1 3D protein model is viewed perpendicular to the membrane with a tri-L-alanine in the central binding cavity. The N-terminal bundle is formed by TMD1-6 (blue/green), while the C-terminal bundle is composed of TMD7-12 (greenish yellow/red). The big extracellular loop connecting TMD9 and 10 is depicted as gold-colored ribbon structure. The 12 predicted transmembrane helices are numbered with 1-12.
- **(B)** Zoomed-in view of the central cavity obtained from crystallization of PepT_{St}. TMDs are illustrated as cylinders around the substrate tri-L-alanine (center). Side chains essential for the transport activity are labeled with equivalent residue numbers for PEPT_{St}, GkPOT and PEPT_{so}. Corresponding amino acid residues present in the human/murine PEPT1 (H/M) transporter are listed in italic letters and marked in red when experimental data were available (redrawn and modified from [240]). A full protein sequence alignment is depicted in **Appendix Fig. V**.

Based on comparative analyses of bacterial POT members, E300 (H7) serves as primarily protonation site in PEPT_{St} and facilitates the entry of peptides into the central binding cavity (**Fig. 5**) [152].

Moreover, the conserved PTR ExxERFxYY motif (TMD1, Y30) and K126 (TMD4) in PEPT_{St} are assumed to play a central role in proton binding [153, 151]. Conserved histidine residues within TMD1 and 2 (Y29, Y68) of PEPT_{St} were observed to interact with the peptide and appear to be main determinants of substrate recognition and specificity [262].

In GkPOT, E310 (TMD10) is likely to act as principal proton binding site (**Fig. 4B**), while in mammals, H57 (TMD2) has been identified as primary protonation site [263]. Upon peptide binding (ligand-bound state), the energy released is supposed to evoke a conformational change of the transporter, resulting in close packing of TMD1-2 against TMD7-8 and closing of the extracellular gate (ligand-bound occluded state) [240].

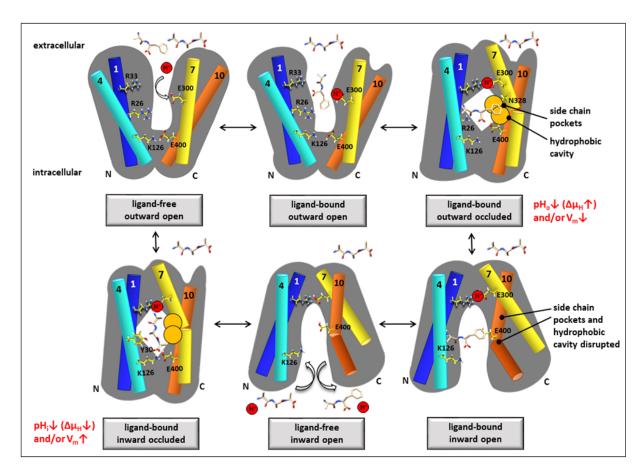


Fig. 5: Bidirectional transport mechanism of POT transporters.

By crystallization of bacterial POT homologues, specific transporter configurations comprising an outward open, ligand-bound occluded (PEPT_{so}: PDB 2XUT) and inward open state (GkPOT: PDB 4IKZ, 4IKV, 4IKX; PEPT_{st}, 4APS; PEPT_{so2}: 4LEP) could be determined. Following proton and peptide binding to a ligand free open PEPT_{st} carrier, the transporter most likely re-orientates to an occluded state preceding substrate release into the interior/exterior of the cell. See text for further explanations (illustration was adapted from [152]). Protons are marked with a red circle and the tripeptide tri-L-alanine and the dipeptide alanylphenylalanine are depicted as substrates. Figure abbreviations: PEPT_{st}: PEPT1 homologue from *Streptococcus thermophilus*; pH_o: external pH; $\Delta\mu_{H}$: proton electrochemical gradient change; V_{m} : transmembrane potential; \uparrow increase; \downarrow decrease.

This rotational motion is reinforced by proximal and distal salt bridge interactions (PepT_{St}: R33/E300, R53/E312) [151]. It is expected that the proton and substrate binding interrupts a distal salt bridge situated between TMD4 and 10 (PEPT_{St}: K126/E400), thereby promoting a gradual separation of TMD4-5 from TMD10-11 [240]. In conjunction with the extracellular gate closure and the formation of a salt bridge interaction between R33 and E300 in PEPT_{St}, the proton is presumably released from E300 and is expected to trigger a conformational change that provokes channel opening (open conformation). Reorientation of the empty transporter likely happens via re-pairing of a distal salt bridge [151].

1.3. Aim of the project

In the light of previous studies that aimed to assess the distribution and expression of PEPT1 in the intestine of mice, it became evident that the transporter exhibits a different molecular mass in the upper and lower intestine [164]. Western blot analysis clearly demonstrated an apparent PEPT1 mass of around ~95 kDa in small intestine and a distinct mass increase to ~105 kDa towards colon. Based on present scientific knowledge, it stands to reason that this PEPT1 mass shift emerges from variations in post-translational protein modification, in particular different glycosylation.

Against this background, the principal objectives of this project were to evaluate the glycosylation status of the murine PEPT1 transporter (mPEPT1), to identify individual glycosylation sites and explore the significance of glycans with regard to the PEPT1 transport activity.

For this purpose, heterologous expression of PEPT1-variants in Xenopus laevis oocytes, in combination with a site-directed mutagenesis approach, was performed. To define the type of PEPT1 glycosylation, co-injection experiments by use of specific glycosylation inhibitors were conducted in oocytes. Western blot analysis revealed that mPEPT1 is highly N-glycosylated. Thereupon, a precise identification of mPEPT1 N-glycosylation sites was carried out and potential *N*-glycosites were systematically eliminated by targeted mutagenesis. To unequivocally determine N-glycosylation site occupancy, mutant transporters were analyzed for mobility shifts by immunoblotting. Additionally, glycosylation-deficient carriers were characterized for cell surface expression densities and function in oocytes on application of immunohistochemical, radiotracer flux and electrophysiological measurements.

To assess the nature of the glycans in mPEPT1, attempts were made to characterize individual oligosaccharides also on a structural level. For this purpose, mPEPT1 glycosylation mutant transporters were expressed in murine intestinal epithelial cells via retroviral transfection and N-glycan structures of membrane protein immunoprecipitates analyzed by mass spectrometry. For establishing a relationship between glycan structures and biological functions, the specific role of N-linked glycans in protecting mPEPT1 from proteolytic degradation within the gastrointestinal tract was also examined in the Xenopus laevis oocyte model system.

2. Results

2.1. PEPT1 transporter expression in mouse gut

2.1.1. Intra- and extraintestinal PEPT1 detection

PEPT1 is known to be expressed at high levels throughout the intestinal tract of mammals. mRNA transcript profiling revealed that gene expression levels of PEPT1 are highest in small intestine (jejunum > ileum > distal colon > duodenum > proximal colon) [268, 269] and this largely agrees with findings from immunolocalization studies [162, 164]. As shown in **Fig. 6A**, PEPT1 protein presence was confined to the brush border membrane of epithelial cells.

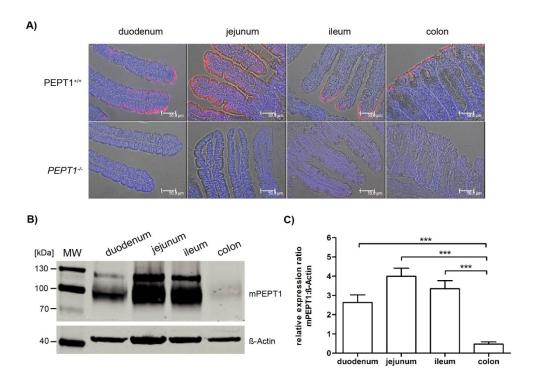


Fig. 6: Immuno-histochemical detection and quantitation of PEPT1 in the intestine of C57BL/6N mice.

- (A) Representative immunostainings of intestinal sections (6 μm) generated from PEPT1+/+ and *PEPT1*-/- mice. PEPT1+/+ mice uniformly showed mPEPT1 expression in the brush border membrane of epithelial cells (red fluorescence signal). *PEPT1*-/- mice stained negative for PEPT1. Cell nuclei were counterstained with DAPI and fluorescence visualized with a Leica DMI4000B fluorescence microscope using the Leica Application suite LAS AF Lite v. 2.6.3 at 40-fold magnification.
- **(B)** Representative immunoblot illustrating the intestinal PEPT1 expression in a male, 8 week old C57BL/6N mouse. Membrane protein was purified from selected gut segments and stained for mPEPT1 (~95 kDa) and ß-Actin (42 kDa). Upcoming protein signal at ~120 kDa resulted from non-specific antibody binding.
- **(C)** Densitometric quantification of the mPEPT1 expression in the intestine of C57BL/6N mice revealed highest transporter densities for jejunum, ileum and duodenum. In colonic tissue, PEPT1 abundance was lowest. Data are indicated as mean \pm SEM of five male, 8 week old C57BL/6N mice on a chow diet. Statistical analysis was performed by one-way ANOVA with Bonferroni's multiple comparison test. Statistical differences are indicated as *** P < 0.001.

In duodenum and ileum, PEPT1 was almost exclusively detected at mature villus tips, while in jejunum the transporter was also found along the entire villus length. Crypt cells uniformly stained negative for PEPT1. Western blot analyses of intestinal protein extracts generated from C57BL/6N mice were consistent with immunostainings and provided clear evidence for a

diminished transporter expression in colon (**Fig. 6B**). PEPT1 quantification in the intestine of C57BL/6N mice (**Fig. 6C**) demonstrated highest expression in jejunum (100%), and declining protein levels for duodenum (-34%), ileum (-16%) and colon (-88%). Apart from the intestine, high concentrations of PEPT1 were also reported for the S1 segments of kidney and bile duct epithelial cells [180, 159, 165].

Western blot analysis performed to visualize PEPT1 expression in kidney and liver of mice revealed a non-specific fluorescence signal in kidney (~115 kDa) and total absence of PEPT1 in liver, irrespective of the mouse strain probed (**Fig. 7A**). In contrast, PEPT1 was clearly detectable in duodenum and colon of C57BL/6N and *PEPT2*-- mice (**Fig. 7B**). *PEPT1*-- control mice did not exhibit intestinal PEPT1 expression.

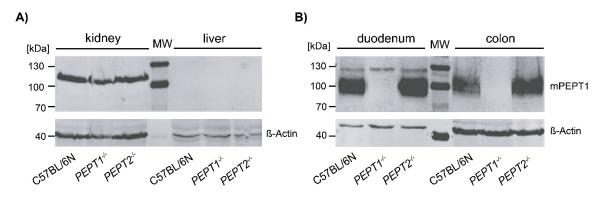


Fig. 7: Immunoblot detection of PEPT1 in kidney, liver and intestine of mice.

- (A) Expression analysis of PEPT1 in kidney delivered unspecific fluorescence signals (~115 kDa) for C57BL/6N, *PEPT*^{-/-} and *PEPT2*^{-/-} mice. No PEPT1 expression was observed in liver.
- **(B)** PEPT1 (~100 kDa) was detected in duodenum and colon of C57BL/6N and *PEPT2*. mice. However, in duodenum an additional unspecific band with a size of ~120 kDa emerged. The presence of this fluorescence signal in *PEPT*. mice suggested a non-specific antibody binding within the duodenum. ß-Actin (42 kDa) was used as loading control for all tissues analyzed.
- (A/B) Representative mice investigated were all male, 22-24 week of age and on a chow diet. Membrane protein concentrations applied per lane of a 10% SDS-acrylamide gel were 6 µg in duodenum, 40 µg in colon, 70 µg in kidney and 40 µg in liver.

2.1.2. Mouse strain dependent variation in intestinal PEPT1 expression

There is currently no evidence that the expression of intestinal membrane transporters is similar in mouse strains of different genetic backgrounds. For a more detailed view, intestinal protein extracts of C57BL/6N, C57BL/6J, PEPT1+/+, 129Sv/S6, AKR/J and germfree C57BL/6N mice were analyzed with regard to PEPT1 inter-strain expression differences (**Figs. 8A-D**). Overall, the experiments performed disclosed comparable PEPT1 protein levels among all mouse strains examined, as well as individual gut segments probed. At the same time, neither an impact of the gender, nor any dietary effects on PEPT1 expression rates could be observed.

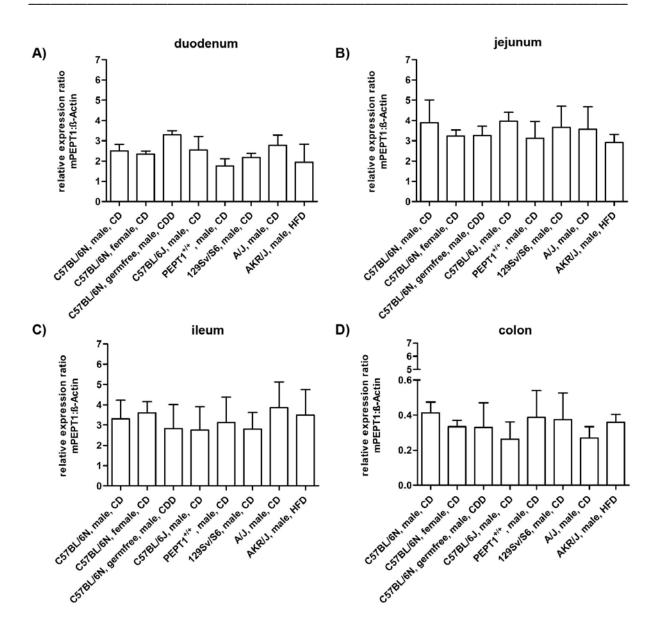


Fig. 8: Quantification of PEPT1 expression in the intestine of different mouse strains.

In direct comparison, the relative PEPT1 expression ratios between duodenum (A), jejunum (B), ileum (C) or colon (D) of C57BL/6N, C57BL/6J, PEPT1*/+, 129Sv/S6, AKR/J, A/J mice were not found to be significantly different within individual tissues. Data are indicated as mean ± SEM of four male or female, 8 week old mice on either chow- (CD), chemical defined- (CDD) or high fat (HFD)-diet post-weaning. Statistical analyses were performed by 1-way ANOVA with Bonferroni's multiple comparison test.

2.1.3. Variation of the intestinal PEPT1 protein mass

Western blot analysis performed with membrane protein isolates from small and large intestine of mice disclosed distinct PEPT1 mass differences in dependence of the expression site. While in duodenum PEPT1 exhibited an apparent molecular mass of ~95 kDa, in colon a mass increase to ~110 kDa was recorded (**Fig. 9**). In this context, it was also noted that this variation in the transporters mass is not specific for a single mouse strain, as C57BL/6N, C57BL/6J, PEPT1^{+/+}, 129Sv/S6, A/J and AKR/J mice all exhibited virtually the same intestinal PEPT1 mass shift. Looking at the results by category, neither the mouse gender, age (C57BL/6N mice at the age of 8 or 40 weeks), nor the diet (chow-, chemical defined-, high fat-diet) were

associated with observed changes in the PEPT1 transporters mass. Besides, varying mPEPT1 protein masses were also recorded between small and large intestine of germfree C57BL/6N mice.

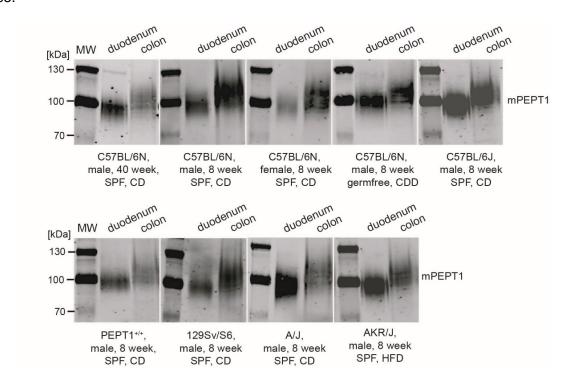


Fig. 9: PEPT1 protein mass variation in the intestine of mice.

Western blot analysis of intestinal membrane protein isolates generated from 8 week old C57BL/6N, C57BL/6J, PEPT1*/+, 129Sv/S6, A/J and AKR/J mice and 40 week old C57BL/6N mice uniformly demonstrated the existence of a PEPT1 mass shift between duodenum and colon. In small intestine, PEPT1 exhibited a transporter mass of ~95 kDa, while in colon the protein mass was increased to ~105 kDa. This mass variation could be observed for different mouse strains, independent of the mouse gender (male and female C57BL/6N mice) or diet (CD = chow diet; CDD = chemical defined diet; HFD = high fat diet). Investigation of germfree C57BL/6N mice revealed a similar colonic upward shifting of the mPEPT1 mass as compared to conventional raised animals (SPF = specific pathogen free). Parts of the illustration were modified from Stelzl *et al.* (2016, p. G130) [239].

2.2. Post-translational PEPT1 modification

2.2.1. PEPT1 glycosylation analysis

Eukaryotic proteins, either secreted or membrane bound, are commonly *N*- or *O*-glycosylated. Previous mass-spectrometric analysis by Wollscheid *et al.* [271] identified PEPT1 as a cell surface glycoprotein. Based on genome screening for presence of putative glycosylation sites [272, 205], *N*-glycosylation of PEPT1 appeared as highly likely.

Assuming that the observed intestinal PEPT1 mass variations resulted from aberrant protein glycosylation, the transporter was screened for the predominate type of glycosylation. Therefore, *X. laevis* oocytes were co-injected with mPEPT1 wild-type cRNA and the specific *N*-glycosylation inhibitor tunicamycin [273], respectively the *O*-glycosylation inhibitor benzyl-2-acetamido-2-deoxy-α-D-galactopyranoside (benzyl-α-GalNAc) [274]. The oocytes were subsequently analyzed for variations in the transporters mass by Western blot. Tunicamycin, a nucleoside antibiotic derived from *Streptomyces lysosuperficus* competitively inhibits the

activity of the enzyme GlcNAc-phosphotransferase (GPT) that catalyzes the initial step of protein *N*-glycosylation by transfer of *N*-acetylglucosamine-1-phosphate to dolichol phosphate [122]. The glycoside benzyl-α-GalNAc acts as receptor for glycosyltransferases that prolong GalNAc chains and thereby form benzyl oligosaccharides, which in turn act as competitive inhibitors within the *O*-glycosylation pathway [275, 276, 277].

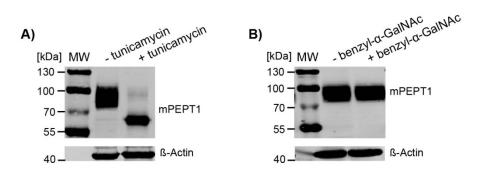


Fig. 10: Determination of the PEPT1 glycosylation type.

Western blot analysis performed with total protein isolates of *X. laevis* oocytes heterologously expressing the mPEPT1 wild-type transporter in presence of the *N*-glycosylation inhibitor tunicamycin (**A**) or the *O*-glycosylation inhibitor benzyl-2-acetamido-2-deoxy-α-D-galactopyranoside (benzyl-α-GalNAc) (**B**). It turned out that tunicamycin co-injection reduced the mPEPT1 protein mass in oocytes from initially ~95 kDa to ~65 kDa, while benzyl-α-GalNAc co-injection did not visibly change the transporters mass. In all experiments, β-Actin (42 kDa) served as a loading control.

The analyses clearly suggested that mPEPT1 is highly *N*-glycosylated when expressed in oocytes. This was reflected by a strong decline in the PEPT1 mass (~-35 kDa) in presence of tunicamycin (**Fig. 10A**), while the *O*-glycosylation inhibitor did not alter the transporters mass (**Fig. 10B**).

Upon confirmation of PEPT1 *N*-glycosylation, additional enzymatic deglycosylation experiments were performed with murine intestinal membrane protein extracts (**Fig. 11**). Treatment with Peptide-*N*-glucosidase F (PNGaseF), an amidase cleaving between asparagine residues and the innermost *N*-acetylglucosamines (GlcNAc) of high mannose, complex and hybrid type *N*-linked oligosaccharides, reduced the mPEPT1 mass in small intestine by ~35 kDa (initial size ~95 kDa) as shown in **Fig. 11A**, and in the large intestine by ~45 kDa (initial size ~105 kDa) (**Fig. 11B**).

In oocytes heterologously expressing mPEPT1 wild-type transporters, PNGaseF treatment decreased the transporters mass from initially ~95 kDa to ~65 kDa (**Fig. 11C**). Removal of *N*-glycans with EndoH, an endoglycosidase cleaving within the chitobiose core of high mannose and some hybrid type oligosaccharides, did not change the intestinal PEPT1 mass. Conversely, when expressed in oocytes, EndoH treatment reduced the transporters mass by ~10 kDa in comparison to the untreated control (~95 kDa). Regardless of the proteins origin, simultaneous mPEPT1 deglycosylation with PNGaseF and EndoH delivered similar results as obtained by single treatment with PNGaseF. Also a combined use of EndoH and neuraminidase, the latter being an exoglycosidase that removes terminal sialic acids

and thereby improves EndoH oligosaccharide accessibility, had no further significant effects on the transporters mass.

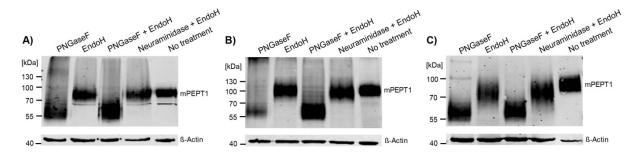


Fig. 11: Enzymatic deglycosylation of mPEPT1 expressed in mouse gut and X. laevis oocytes.

Treatment of murine intestinal protein isolates with PNGaseF decreased the mPEPT1 mass from initially ~95 kDa to ~65 kDa in jejunum (A) and from ~105 kDa to ~65 kDa in colon (B). In *X. laevis* oocytes the mPEPT1 mass dropped from ~95 kDa without treatment to ~65 kDa after PNGaseF digestion (C). Neither the incubation of intestinal membrane protein extracts with EndoH, nor in combination with PNGaseF or Neuraminidase, affected the PEPT1 transporters mass. By contrast, EndoH reduced the mPEPT1 mass by approximately ~10 kDa in oocytes (C). Addition of Neuraminidase did not visibly change the mPEPT1 transporter mass in protein isolates of mouse, whereas in oocytes observed mass reductions presumably emanated from EndoH treatment. In all experiments \(\mathcal{B}\)-Actin (42 kDa) was used as a loading control. Figs. 11A-B were adopted from Stelzl *et al.* (2016, p. G130) [239].

2.2.2. Elucidation of PEPT1 glycosylation motifs

To identify mPEPT1 glycosylation sites, a targeted protein sequence screening was performed for putative *N*-glycosylation sites using the NetNGlyc 1.0 platform [278]. Overall, mPEPT1 (UniProtKB ACNO: Q9JIP7) was found to contain 35 asparagine residues, eight of which (N50, N112, N354, N406, N439, N510, N515, N532) were located within an N-x-S/T sequon lacking proline in central position (**Table 2**).

Asparagine position (UniProtKB ACNO: Q9JIP7)	Sequon	Predicted PEPT1 location	NetNGlyc potential prediction	NetNGlyc agreement result*)
50	NLS	extracellular	0.563	+
112	NGS	extracellular	0.146	
354	NFT	intracellular	0.443	-
406	NMT	extracellular	0.645	+
439	NIS	extracellular	0.533	+
510	NVT	extracellular	0.755	+++
515	NAS	extracellular	0.376	-
532	NTT	extracellular	0.469	-

Table 2: Prediction results of mPEPT1 N-glycosylation sites with the NetNGlyc platform

For further investigation, the six asparagine residues N50, N406, N439, N510, N515 and N532 were selected according to the attributes: 1. Location within an N-x-S/T sequon;

^{*)} This column describes a potential score for predicted *N*-glycosylation sites that is based on the averaged output of nine neural networks of the NetNGlyc platform [278]. Predictions indicating positive sequon occupancy are marked with "+" (+: potential > default threshold of 0.5, +++: potential > 0.75), while the probabilities for non-glycosylated sites are indicated with "-" (-: potential < 0.5, ---: potential < 0.32). The table was adopted from Stelzl *et al.* (2016, p. G131) [239].

2. N-x-S/T- motif located in an extracellular PEPT1 domain (**Fig. 12**); 3. N-x-S/T sequon with a high *N*-glycosylation probability score. Since N112 showed the lowest prediction score with 0.146 of all sequons to be *N*-glycosylated, and N354 was identified to be most likely situated in an intracellular protein domain, these motifs were excluded from further analyses.

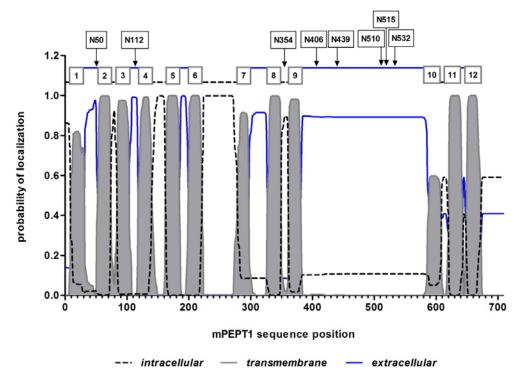


Fig. 12: Topology prediction for the mPEPT1 transporter.

Membrane spanning domains of mPEPT1 were predicted with the TMHMM v. 2.0 platform [279] on the basis of a hidden Markov model. PEPT1 is supposed to consist of 12 transmembrane helices (grey curves and numbered boxes), connected by intracellular (dotted black lines) or extracellular (blue lines) domains. An executive summary of the most probable spatial arrangement of mPEPT1 is depicted in the upper part of the figure, including the location of predicted putative *N*-glycosylation sites. According to the TMHMM model, N50, N112, N406, N439, N510, N515 and N532 are located in extracellular protein domains and accessible for glycosylation. N354 is most likely positioned intracellularly and was therefore excluded from further analysis.

2.3. Site-directed removal of PEPT1 N-glycosylation sites

In succession to the *in silico* screening for putative mPEPT1 *N*-glycosylation sites, selected N-x-S/T sequons were modified by site-directed mutagenesis (**Table 3**).

Table 3: Sequence positions of mPEPT1 asparagine (N)	residues modified by mutagenesis
--	----------------------------------

Putative mPEPT1 N-glycosite	Protein sequence*)	Amino acid exchange $N \rightarrow Q/G$		
N50	⁻⁴² RNFLGWDD N LSTAIYHT ⁵⁸⁻	AAT → CAA/GGC		
N406	-398 KVLNIGNN N MTVHFPGN 414-	$AAC \to CAG$		
N439	-431 DIDKLTSI N ISSSGSPG 447-	$AAC \rightarrow CAA$		
N510	-502 KMSGKVYE N VTSHNASG ⁵¹⁸ -	$AAC \rightarrow CAA$		
N515	-507 VYENVTSH N ASGYQFFP 523-	$AAC \rightarrow CAA$		
N532	-524 SGEKQYTI N TTAVAPTC ⁵⁴⁰ -	$AAC \to CAA$		

[&]quot;) Numbers indicate the amino acid positions within the mPEPT1 protein sequence (UniProtKB ACNO: Q9JIP7). The table was adapted from Stelzl et al. (2016, p. G129) [239].

To specifically suppress *N*-glycosylation, asparagine residues N50, N406, N439, N510, N515 and N532 within mPEPT1 *N*-glycosites were replaced by glutamine (Q) or glycine (G) and mutant transporters heterologously expressed in *X. laevis* oocytes. Thereafter, variations in the transporters mass were visualized by immunoblotting (**Figs. 13A-B**) and higher resolution fluorescent imaging of the Western blot membranes (**Fig. 13C**). The deletion of single asparagine residues within the putative *N*-glycosylation sites only marginally decreased the

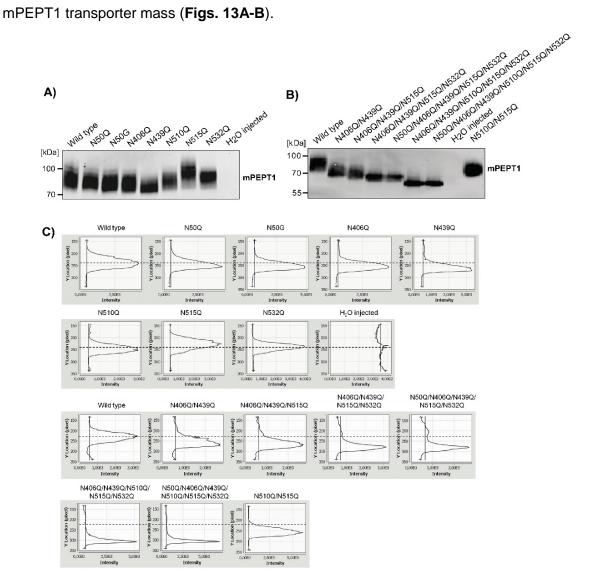


Fig. 13: Immunoblots of mPEPT1 N-glycosylation mutant transporters expressed in X. laevis oocytes.

- **(A)** Following deletion of putative mPEPT1 *N*-glycosylation sites, the protein mass was visualized by immunoblotting and subsequent high resolution imaging **(C)**. While the wild-type transporter exhibited an apparent mass of ~95 kDa, disruption of single N-x-S/T sequons slightly reduced the mPEPT1 mass in mutants N50Q, N406Q, N439Q. Disruption of glycosite N515 even resulted in a mPEPT1 mass increase to ~98 kDa. In mutants N510Q and N532Q, the mPEPT1 mass did not differ from wild-type. **(B)** Transporters lacking several *N*-glycosylation motifs exhibited significantly greater mPEPT1 mass changes towards single mutant carriers. The most striking reduction was observed for the sextuple mutant N50Q/N406Q/N439Q/N510Q/N515Q/N532Q, accompanied by a nearly ~35 kDa lower PEPT1 mass compared to wild type.
- **(C)** High resolution imaging of immunoblots using the LI-COR imaging software Image Studio Lite (v. 3.1, LI-COR Biosciences, Bad Homburg, Germany) revealed distinct changes in the location of the maximal fluorescence intensity for individual *N*-glycosylation deficient mPEPT1 transporters. While mPEPT1 wild type exhibited strongest fluorescence at ~240 pixel (marked with a dashed line), single mutant transporters revealed slight deviations in the location of the maximal fluorescence. In the sextuple mutant N50Q/N406Q/N439Q/N510Q/N515Q/N532, the sharp fluorescence signal detected in the immunoblot and reflected by a very narrow protein band and steep bell-shaped curve, even dropped to ~310 pixel.

 Figs. 13A-C were adopted from Stelzl *et al.* (2016, pp. G131-132) [239].

In a direct comparison to wild type (~95 kDa), the molecular mass of mutant transporters N50Q and N50G, N406Q, N439Q and N510Q was approximately ~2-5 kDa lower. Disruption of the N-glycosylation site N515 even resulted in a PEPT1 mass increase of about +5-10 kDa, while replacement of N532 by glutamine did not affect the transporters mass. Sequential disruption of multiple N-glycosylation sites generated an increasing, substantial mPEPT1 protein mass decline. In mutant transporter N406Q/N439Q/N510Q/N515Q/N532Q, with a lack of all N-glycosylation sites positioned within the large extracellular loop connecting helix 9 and 10, the PEPT1 mass dropped from ~95 kDa to ~65 kDa. Additional replacement of N50 did not generate any further changes in the transporters mass.

2.3.1. Significance of *N*-glycosylation for the PEPT1 transport activity

The two-electrode voltage clamp (TEVC) technique is a common and validated method for investigating the activity of ion channels, receptors and transporters heterologously expressed in X. laevis oocytes [280, 281, 282, 283]. Since PEPT1 is rheogenic [218], its functionality can be assessed by TEVC. It has been shown that the pH optimum of PEPT1 is variable between species and highly dependent on the charge of the transported substrate, ranging from pH 5.0 to pH 6.5 for neutral peptides [138, 217]. Voltage recordings along rising substrate concentrations [S] allow the calculation of the kinetic parameters K_m and I_{max} based on least square fitting of substrate induced currents to the Michaelis-Menten equation (I = I_{max} x [S] / K_m + [S]). The half activation constant K_m thereby determines the transporters apparent substrate affinity, while I_{max} is a measure of the maximal inward current recordings.

2.3.1.1. Two-electrode voltage clamp analysis (TEVC) with glycyl-sarcosine as a substrate

TEVC experiments were conducted with oocytes heterologously expressing *N*-glycosylation deficient versions of the mPEPT1 transporter. To compensate for variations in transporter expression between different oocytes and oocyte batches, inward currents were normalized to transport currents of 1-O-methyl-alpha-D-glucopyranoside (alpha-MDG), a non-metabolizable analogue of glucose [284] and a substrate for a co-expressed sodium-glucose dependent transporter 1 (SGLT1) [205]. The SGLT1 carrier is a co-transporter that carries with high affinity glucose and galactose in symport with sodium ions across the brush border membrane of the intestinal epithelium and is therefore also rheogenic [285].

Average inward currents elicited by 1 mM alpha-MDG at pH 6.5 in the range of 300-600 nA were defined as threshold level for sufficient transporter expression and consideration of oocytes. Superfusion with the non-hydrolysable dipeptide glycyl-sarcosine (Gly-Sar) in a concentration range of 0.3-10 mM [286] at pH 6.5, revealed large variations in the apparent affinity constants and maximal velocities for individual mPEPT1 glycosylation-deficient transporters at a membrane potential of -60 mV (**Fig. 14, Table 4**). Although it appeared that the normalized K_m and I_{max} -values followed a very similar trend (**Figs. 14A-B**).

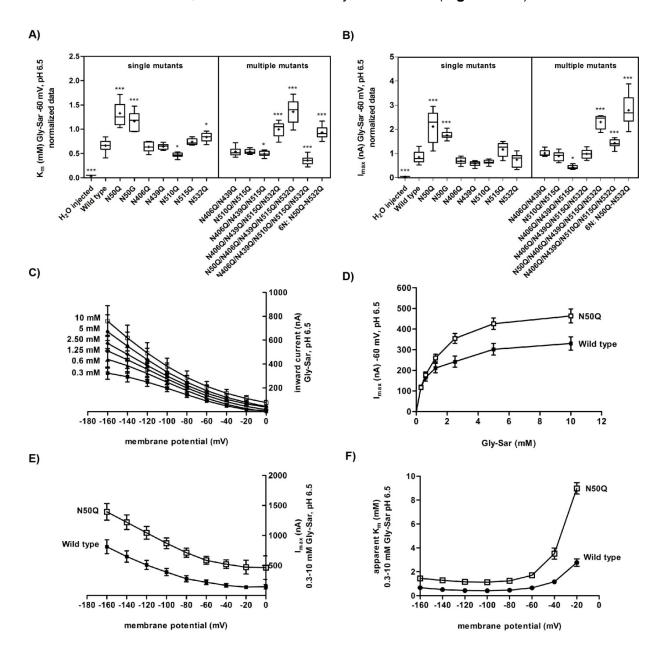


Fig. 14: TEVC analysis of mPEPT1 N-glycosylation mutant transporters with Gly-Sar as a substrate.

- (A-B) Apparent affinity constants (A) and maximal inward currents (B) of mPEPT1 wild type and N-glycosylation deficient mutant transporters for the model substrate Gly-Sar in a concentration range of 0.3-10 mM (pH 6.5) at -60 mV. All values were normalized to inward currents of 1 mM alpha-MDG (pH 6.5) and indicated as median \pm min/max (mean indicated with "+") of 10-30 oocytes. Statistical analysis: One-way ANOVA with Dunnett's posttest; confidence interval 95% (* P < 0.05, *** P < 0.001) versus wild type mPEPT1.
- **(C)** Inward currents recorded by TEVC in *X. laevis* oocytes heterologously expressing the mPEPT1 wild-type transporter revealed within a membrane potential range of 0 to -160 mV a steady current rise with increasing Gly-Sar concentrations (0.3-10 mM, pH 6.5). Each data point represents the mean of 10-15 oocytes ± SEM.
- **(D)** Comparison of averaged compensation currents recorded in *X. laevis* oocytes for Gly-Sar (0.3-10 mM, pH 6.5) at -60 mV in mPEPT1 wild type and the N50Q mutant transporter. At a concentration of 10 mM Gly-Sar, both transporters reached plateau phase, signaling saturation of peptide transport. Each data point represents the mean of 10 oocytes ± SEM. Figs. 14A-D were adopted from Stelzl *et al.* (2016, p. G134) [239].
- **(E-F)** Progression of I_{max} **(E)** and K_m -values **(F)** determined for Gly-Sar in a concentration of 0.3-10 mM at pH 6.5 within a membrane potential range of 0 to -160 mV. Data are depicted as mean \pm SD of 10-15 oocytes.
- (C-F) All data were evaluated without normalization to alpha-MDG evoked inward currents.

In accordance with previously reported K_m -values of 0.70 mM for mouse [136] and 1.1 mM for human PEPT1 [180, 287], kinetic analyses of the mPEPT1 wild-type transporter delivered an apparent K_m of 0.66 \pm 0.12 mM and an I_{max} of 0.85 \pm 0.21 nA for Gly-Sar at -60 mV and pH 6.5.

Replacement of asparagine residues at positions 406, 439 and 515 did not significantly change the K_m or I_{max} . Interestingly, amino acid exchange at position N532 caused a slight decrease in Gly-Sar substrate affinity ($K_{m(N532Q)} = 0.84 \pm 0.09$ mM) without altering I_{max} ($I_{max(N532Q)} = 0.74 \pm 0.24$ nA). For mutant N510Q, the substrate affinity increased by 30% ($K_{m(N510Q)} = 0.47 \pm 0.05$ nA), while I_{max} remained nearly unchanged ($I_{max(N510Q)} = 0.64 \pm 0.08$ nA). Noticeably, mutant transporters N50Q and N50G both revealed about two times lower Gly-Sar affinities ($K_{m(N50Q)} = 1.33 \pm 0.23$ mM, $K_{m(N50G)} = 1.17 \pm 0.18$ mM), coinciding with an almost identical increase in I_{max} ($I_{max(N50Q)} = 2.11 \pm 0.60$ nA, $I_{max(N50G)} = 1.76 \pm 0.14$ nA) in comparison to wild type.

A similar pattern was seen for the two PEPT1 transporters N50Q/N406Q/N439Q/N515Q/N532Q and N50Q/N406Q/N439Q/N510Q/N515Q/N532Q, both of which contained an N50Q exchange. While K_m -values increased by 1.4-2-fold, maximal inward currents tripled ($K_{m(N50Q/N406Q/N439Q/N515Q/N532Q)} = 1.36 \pm 0.23$ mM, $K_{m(6N)} = 0.93 \pm 0.13$ mM; $I_{max(N50Q/N406Q/N439Q/N515Q/N532Q)} = 2.30 \pm 0.23$ nA, $I_{max(6N)} = 2.79 \pm 0.59$ nA).

Table 4: Apparent affinity constants (K_m) and maximal inward currents (I_{max}) at -60 mV determined for mPEPT1 mutant transporters with Gly-Sar

Transporter	K _m (mM)	<i>P</i> -values K _m	I _{max} (nA)	<i>P</i> -values I _{max}	Ratio I _{max} /K _m
Wild type	0.66 ± 0.12	-	0.85 ± 0.21	-	1.29 ± 0.09
N50Q	1.33 ± 0.23	† <i>P</i> < 0.001	2.11 ± 0.60	† <i>P</i> < 0.001	1.59 ± 0.18
N50G	1.17 ± 0.18	† <i>P</i> < 0.001	1.76 ± 0.14	† P < 0.001	1.50 ± 0.12
N406Q	0.64 ± 0.10	$^{ns}P = 0.999$	0.69 ± 0.13	$^{ns} P = 0.855$	1.08 ± 0.04
N439Q	0.64 ± 0.05	$^{ns} P = 1.000$	0.58 ± 0.10	$^{ns} P = 0.209$	0.91 ± 0.09
N510Q	0.47 ± 0.05	* P = 0.012	0.64 ± 0.08	$^{ns} P = 0.508$	1.36 ± 0.03
N515Q	0.74 ± 0.06	$^{ns} P = 0.797$	1.17 ± 0.27	$^{ns} P = 0.137$	1.58 ± 0.24
N532Q	0.84 ± 0.09	*P=0.039	0.74 ± 0.24	$^{ns} P = 0.987$	0.88 ± 0.20
N406Q/N439Q	0.56 ± 0.09	$^{ns} P = 0.210$	1.02 ± 0.12	$^{ns} P = 0.863$	1.82 ± 0.08
N510Q/N515Q	0.54 ± 0.04	$^{ns} P = 0.211$	0.89 ± 0.19	^{ns} <i>P</i> = 1.000	1.65 ± 0.23
N406Q/N439Q/N515Q	0.49 ± 0.05	* P = 0.040	0.43 ± 0.07	* P = 0.011	0.88 ± 0.06
N406Q/N439Q/N515Q/N532Q	1.00 ± 0.14	† <i>P</i> < 0.001	0.99 ± 0.18	$^{ns} P = 0.963$	0.99 ± 0.04
N50Q/N406Q/N439Q/N515Q/N532Q	1.36 ± 0.23	† <i>P</i> < 0.001	2.30 ± 0.23	† P < 0.001	1.69 ± 0.12
N406Q/N439Q/N510Q/N515Q/N532Q	0.36 ± 0.08	† <i>P</i> < 0.001	1.43 ± 0.15	† <i>P</i> < 0.001	3.97 ± 0.49
N50Q/N406Q/N439Q/N510Q/N515Q/N532Q	0.93 ± 0.13	† <i>P</i> < 0.001	2.79 ± 0.59	† <i>P</i> < 0.001	3.00 ± 0.34

Data are presented as mean \pm SD of 10-15 oocytes. All TEVC experiments were performed with Gly-Sar in a concentration range of 1-10 mM at pH 6.5. Kinetic parameters were determined after normalization of transport currents evoked by PEPT1 to inward currents generated by alpha-MDG. Statistical significance was calculated for K_m and I_{max} by 1-way ANOVA with Dunnett's posttest versus mPEPT1 wild type with a confidence interval of 95%. *P*-values are indicated as P < 0.05, P < 0.001, ns = not significant. Table 4 was adopted and modified from Stelzl *et al.* (2016, p. G134) [239].

In mutant transporter N406Q/N439Q/N515Q/N532Q the substrate affinity diminished by 40% $(K_{m(N406Q/N439Q/N515Q/N532Q)} = 1.0 \pm 0.14 \text{ mM})$ compared to the wild type, while I_{max} was not affected. Additional insertion of N510 reduced the K_m by half $(K_{m(N406Q/N439Q/N515Q/N535QQ)} =$ 0.36 ± 0.08 mM) and increased I_{max} on a similar scale (I_{max} = 1.43 ± 0.15 nA).

Due to the high inward currents occurring in mutant transporters with an N50Q exchange, it was analyzed whether a Gly-Sar concentration of 10 mM was sufficient to saturate PEPT1-mediated transport. Although this concentration proved to be adequate (Figs. 14C-D), all TEVC measurements were carefully repeated and extended to higher Gly-Sar concentrations of up to 40 mM. The analysis of these data did not reveal significant differences between K_m- and I_{max}-values determined for lower (10 mM) or higher (40 mM) Gly-Sar concentrations (data not shown). Focusing on mPEPT1 wild type, a steady inward current rise was observed for increasing Gly-Sar concentrations without prior data normalization in dependence of the membrane potential (Fig. 14C). In this respect, superfusion of the mPEPT1 wild-type transporter with 10 mM Gly-Sar evoked inward currents of 213 ± 116 nA at -60 mV, rising to 760 nA ± 365 nA at -160 mV. Visualization of I_{max}-values for Gly-Sar concentrations of 0.3-10 mM at -60 mV displayed saturation kinetics for mutant transporter N50Q (Fig. 14D). Average I_{max}-values determined with 10 mM Gly-Sar at -60 mV were 464 ± 130 nA for N50Q and 330 \pm 107 nA for the wild type.

Maximal velocities determined for PEPT1 wild type and the N50Q transporter showed a continuous increase within a steadily decreasing membrane potential from 0 to -160 mV (Fig. 14E). I_{max}-values in wild type increased from 220 nA ± 133 nA at -60 mV to 812 nA ± 414 nA at -160 mV. In N50Q, an I_{max} rise from 586 nA \pm 202 nA at -60 mV to 1394 nA \pm 414 nA at -160 mV was recorded. Apparent affinity constants showed a consistent course within the membrane potential range of -60 to -160 mV, while mutant N50Q constantly exhibited a 2-3-times lower Gly-Sar affinity than the wild type (Fig. 14F).

2.3.1.2. TEVC studies with cefadroxil as a substrate

In addition to Gly-Sar, PEPT1 transport of the cephalosporin antibiotic cefadroxil was analyzed by TEVC. In its zwitterionic state at pH 6.5 [288], cefadroxil exhibits the strongest PEPT1 binding and highest transport rates [289, 290]. For rabbit PEPT1, a cefadroxil affinity constant of 1.1 ± 0.3 mM was reported by Boll et al. [291].

Kinetic parameters determined for *N*-glycosylation deficient mPEPT1 transporters in presence of cefadroxil (1-20 mM) appeared quite evenly distributed (Figs. 15A-B, Table 5). The K_m-values at -60 mV and pH 6.5 were within a narrow range of ~1.5 to ~2.5 mM. A different N406Q/N439Q/N515Q/N32Q behavior was found for the mutants and N50Q/N406Q/N439Q/N515Q/N32Q. With K_m -values of $K_{m(N406Q/N439Q/N515Q/N32Q)} = 4.19 \pm 0.000$ 0.34 mM and $K_{m(N50Q/N406Q/N439Q/N515Q/N32Q)}$ = 4.21 ± 0.28 mM, both transporters exhibited a markedly lower substrate affinity than the wild type ($K_{m(WT)} = 1.64 \pm 0.18$ mM).

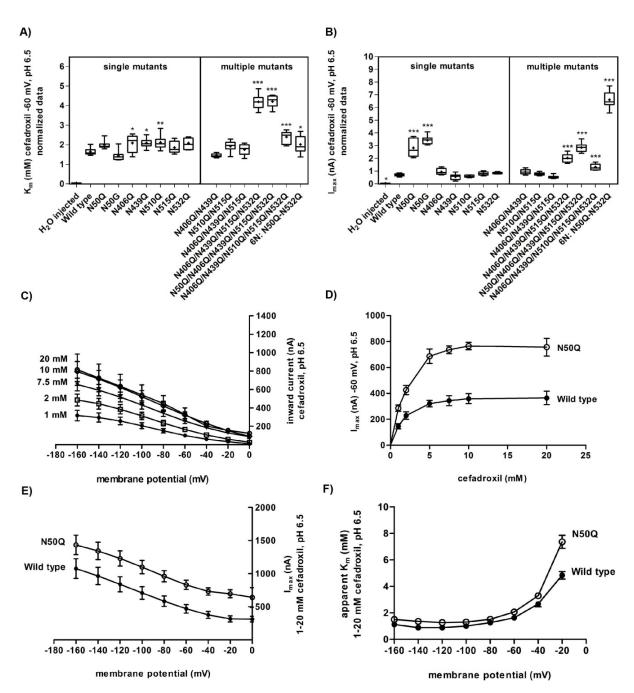


Fig. 15: Kinetic analysis of mPEPT1-mediated transport of cefadroxil in oocytes.

- (A-B) Apparent affinity constants (A) and maximal velocities (B) of mPEPT1 wild type and N-glycosylation deficient mutant transporters determined for cefadroxil in a concentration range of 1-20 mM (pH 6.5) at -60 mV. All values were normalized to inward currents of 1 mM alpha-MDG (pH 6.5) and depicted as median \pm min/max (mean indicated with "+") of 10-30 oocytes. Statistical analysis was performed by one-way ANOVA with Dunnett's posttest versus wild type mPEPT1 (* P < 0.05, ** P < 0.01, *** P < 0.001). Figs. 15A-B were adopted from Stelzl *et al.* (2016, p. G135) [239].
- **(C)** Inward current recordings in *X. laevis* oocytes heterologously expressing the mPEPT1 wild-type transporter revealed a steady current rise with lowering of the membrane potential from 0 to -160 mV and increasing cefadroxil concentrations (1-20 mM, pH 6.5). Each data point represents the mean of 10-15 oocytes ± SEM.
- **(D)** Comparison of averaged compensation currents recorded in *X. laevis* oocytes for cefadroxil (1-20 mM, pH 6.5) at -60 mV in the mPEPT1 wild type and N50Q transporter. In presence of 10 mM cefadroxil, I_{max} -values of both transporters reached a plateau, signaling saturation of the transport activity. Each data point represents the mean of 15 oocytes \pm SEM.
- **(E-F)** Progression of I_{max} **(E)** and K_m -values **(F)** determined for cefadroxil in a concentration range of 1-20 mM at pH 6.5 and a membrane potential of 0 to -160 mV. Data are depicted as mean \pm SD of 10-15 oocytes.
- (C-F) For the data presented, no normalization to alpha-MDG currents was applied.

The average maximal velocity recorded for wild type was 0.70 ± 0.10 nA at -60 mV, whereas for both single N50 mutant transporters, the I_{max} was found to be 4-5-times higher ($I_{max(N50Q)}$ = 2.82 ± 0.64 nA; $I_{\text{max}(N50G)} = 3.42 \pm 0.29$ nA). Similarly, mutants N406Q/N439Q/N515Q/N532Q, N50Q/N406Q/N439Q/N515Q/N532Q and N406Q/N439Q/N510/N515Q/N532Q revealed a 2-4-fold rise in inward currents as compared to wild type. The greatest increase in I_{max} was observed for the sextuple mutant 6N, exceeding with an average of 6.62 ± 0.65 nA maximal inward transport currents of the wild type by more than ninefold.

Kinetic analysis as a function of concentration- and membrane potential-dependent antibiotic transport (Figs. 15C-E) revealed that saturation of the transport occurred at cefadroxil concentrations above 10 mM. Once a steady state was reached, the I_{max}-values stabilized without prior data normalization at 362 \pm 141 nA in the wild type and at 761 \pm 108 nA in N50Q. Membrane hyperpolarization resulted in a significant increase of I_{max} in the wild-type transporter from 470 ± 202 nA at -60 mV to 1077 ± 471 nA at -160mV and in mutant N50Q from 831 \pm 168 nA at -60mV to 1434 \pm 360 nA at -160 mV (**Fig. 15E**). Apparent affinity constants proved to be rather insensitive to membrane potential changes (Fig. 15F).

Table 5: Apparent affinity constants (K_m) and maximal inward currents (I_{max}) at -60 mV determined for mPEPT1 mutant transporters with cefadroxil

Transporter	K _m (mM)	<i>P</i> -values K _m	I _{max} (nA)	<i>P</i> -values I _{max}	Ratio I _{max} /K _m
Wild type	1.64 ± 0.18	-	0.70 ± 0.10	-	0.43 ± 0.01
N50Q	1.99 ± 0.19	^{ns} <i>P</i> = 0.110	2.82 ± 0.64	† <i>P</i> < 0.001	1.42 ± 0.46
N50G	1.44 ± 0.25	^{ns} P = 0.625	3.42 ± 0.29	† <i>P</i> < 0.001	2.38 ± 0.63
N406Q	2.08 ± 0.40	* P = 0.024	0.94 ± 0.22	ns $P = 0.462$	0.45 ± 0.02
N439Q	2.08 ± 0.22	* P = 0.017	0.56 ± 0.20	$^{ns} P = 0.953$	0.27 ± 0.07
N510Q	2.04 ± 0.21	‡ P = 0.004	0.59 ± 0.07	ns $P = 0.990$	0.29 ± 0.01
N515Q	1.85 ± 0.28	ns <i>P</i> = 0.608	0.80 ± 0.13	ns $P = 0.995$	0.43 ± 0.01
N532Q	2.07 ± 0.26	^{ns} P = 0.290	0.86 ± 0.05	$^{ns} P = 0.888$	0.42 ± 0.03
N406Q/N439Q	1.46 ± 0.09	^{ns} P = 0.719	0.94 ± 0.16	ns P = 0.426	0.64 ± 0.07
N510Q/N515Q	1.92 ± 0.25	^{ns} P = 0.253	0.79 ± 0.10	$^{ns} P = 0.999$	0.41 ± 0.05
N406Q/N439Q/N515Q	1.73 ± 0.27	$^{ns} P = 0.989$	0.54 ± 0.11	$^{ns} P = 0.873$	0.31 ± 0.02
N406Q/N439Q/N515Q/N532Q	4.19 ± 0.34	† P < 0.001	2.03 ± 0.29	† <i>P</i> < 0.001	0.48 ± 0.03
N50Q/N406Q/N439Q/N515Q/N532Q	4.21 ± 0.28	† P < 0.001	2.85 ± 0.33	† <i>P</i> < 0.001	0.68 ± 0.04
N406Q/N439Q/N510Q/N515Q/N532Q	2.37 ± 0.27	† P < 0.001	1.31 ± 0.21	† <i>P</i> < 0.001	0.55 ± 0.03
N50Q/N406Q/N439Q/N510Q/N515Q/N532Q	1.99 ± 0.39	* P = 0.026	6.62 ± 0.65	† <i>P</i> < 0.001	3.33 ± 0.34

Data are presented as mean ± SD of 10-15 oocytes. All TEVC experiments were performed with cefadroxil in a concentration range of 1-20 mM at pH 6.5. Kinetic parameters were determined after normalization of transport currents evoked by PEPT1 to inward currents generated by alpha-MDG. Statistical significance was calculated for K_m- and I_{max}-values by 1-way ANOVA with Dunnett's posttest versus mPEPT1 wild type. P-values are indicated as $^{\circ}$ P < 0.05, † P < 0.01, † P < 0.001, ns = not significant.

2.3.1.3. TEVC experiments with tri-L-alanine as a substrate

Besides dipeptides and antibiotics, PEPT1 also transports in a stereospecific manner a wide range of tripeptides with highest affinities for those containing L-amino acids [292]. Therefore, the electrogenic characteristics of the PEPT1 transport of tri-L-alanine as a representative tripeptide was examined by TEVC (**Fig. 16**).

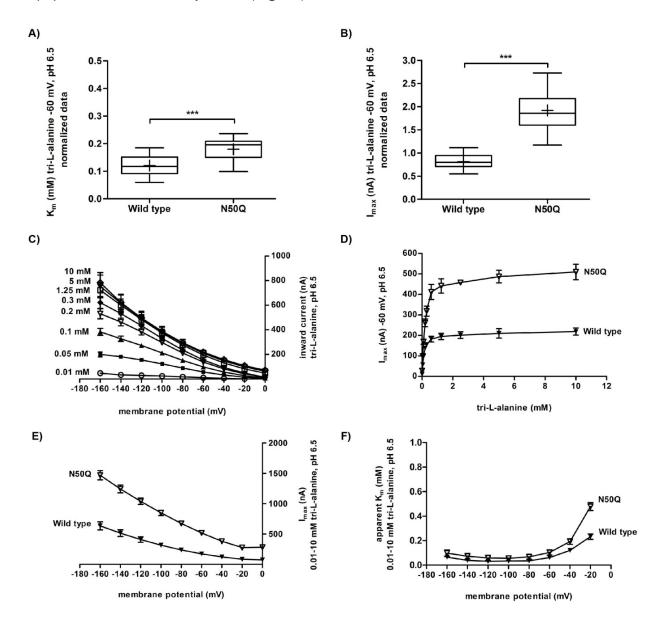


Fig. 16: Kinetic analysis of tri-L-alanine transport in mPEPT1 wild type and mutant transporter N50Q.

- (A-B) Apparent affinity constants (A) and maximal velocities (B) of mPEPT1 wild type and mutant transporter N50Q determined with 0.01-10 mM tri-L-alanine at pH 6.5 and -60 mV. All values were normalized to inward currents of 1 mM alpha-MDG (pH 6.5) and indicated as median ± min/max (mean indicated with "+") of 5-15 oocytes. Statistical analysis: Two-tailed t-test (*** P < 0.001). Figs. 16A-B were adopted from Stelzl *et al.* (2016, p. G136) [239].
- **(C)** Inward currents recorded by TEVC in *X. laevis* oocytes heterologously expressing the mPEPT1 wild-type transporter revealed within a membrane potential range of 0 to -160 mV a steady current rise with increasing tri-L-alanine concentrations (0.01-10 mM, pH 6.5). Each data point represents the mean of 5-8 oocytes ± SEM.
- **(D)** Comparison of averaged compensation currents recorded in *X. laevis* oocytes for tri-L-alanine (0.01-10 mM, pH 6.5) at -60 mV in the mPEPT1 wild type and the N50Q transporter. A concentration of 10 mM tri-L-alanine appeared sufficient to saturate peptide transport in both transporters. Data are illustrated as mean of 5 oocytes ± SEM.
- (E-F) Progression of I_{max} (E) and K_m -values (F) determined for tri-L-alanine in a concentration range of 0.01-10 mM at pH 6.5 at different membrane potentials. Data are depicted as mean \pm SD of 5-8 oocytes.
- (C-F) None of the presented data was normalized to the inward currents of alpha-MDG.

Normalized apparent affinity constants determined for tri-L-alanine at a membrane potential of -60 mV and pH 6.5 were 0.12 ± 0.03 mM in the mPEPT1 wild type and 0.18 ± 0.04 mM in the N50Q transporter (**Fig. 16A**). An inhibition constant (K_i) of 0.20 ± 0.01 mM at pH 6.0 for [¹⁴C]-Gly-Sar uptake in Caco-2 cells was reported for tri-L-alanine by Knütter *et al.* [178]. In accordance with the loss of the substrate affinity, the maximal inward currents of the mutant

transporter N50Q ($I_{max(N50Q)} = 1.92 \pm 0.40$ nA) as shown in **Fig. 16B**, were more than twice as high as in wild type ($I_{max(WT)} = 0.81 \pm 0.14$ nA). Inward currents increased with hyperpolarization and increasing tri-L-alanine concentrations (**Figs. 16C and E**).

In the absence of normalization, the saturation kinetics gave I_{max} values of 219 \pm 30 nA for mPEPT1 wild type, respectively 510 \pm 76 nA for mutant transporter N50Q at -60 mV (**Fig. 16D**). Apparent affinity constants were only slightly influenced by the membrane potential, which varied between 0.12-0.07 mM in the wild type and 0.2-0.10 mM in the transporter N50Q within the membrane potential range of -40 to -160 mV (**Fig. 16F**).

2.3.1.4. Mutational analysis of human versus murine PEPT1

Among mPEPT1 *N*-glycosylation deficient mutant transporters, all variants carrying an amino-acid exchange of asparagine N50 exhibited uniformly markedly increased transport currents. To assess whether this was exceptional for the murine transporter, the human orthologue (hPEPT1), which also contains the N50 glycosylation site (**Appendix Fig. V**), was analyzed analogously to mPEPT1 using the TEVC technique (**Fig. 17**).

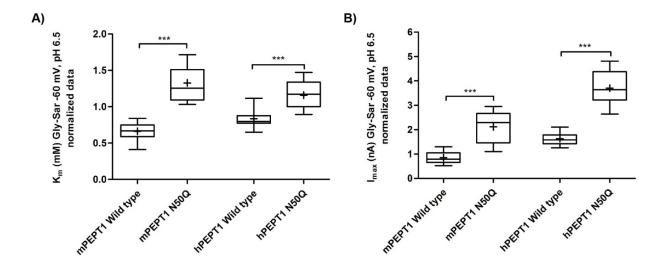


Fig. 17: Comparative kinetic analysis of mouse and human PEPT1 in oocytes.

Affinity constants (A) and maximal inward currents (B) determined at -60 mV for the mPEPT1 wild type and N50Q transporter in contrast to corresponding human orthologs. TEVC experiments were performed with Gly-Sar in a concentration range of 0.3-40 mM at pH 6.5. All values were normalized to inward currents of 1 mM alpha-MDG (pH 6.5) and are indicated as median \pm min/max (mean indicated with "+") of 15 oocytes. Statistical analysis: Two-tailed unpaired t-test (*** P < 0.001) versus corresponding wild- type transporter.

A direct comparison of the apparent affinity constants determined for the mouse and human PEPT1 wild-type transporters ($K_{m(mPEPT1 WT)} = 0.7 \pm 0.1 \text{ mM}$; $K_{m(hPEPT1 WT)} = 0.8 \pm 0.1 \text{ mM}$) showed no significant differences (Fig. 17A). The apparent K_m obtained for the human PEPT1 transporter was very similar to that previously reported for Caco-2 cells ($K_m = 1.1 \pm 0.1 \text{ mM}$) and for oocytes (K_m =1.5 ± 0.3 mM) [287, 288]. The N50Q mutant of the human transporter showed a similar decrease in Gly-Sar affinity ($K_{m(mPEPT1\ N50Q)} = 1.3 \pm 0.2$ mM, $K_{m(hPEPT1\ N50Q)} =$ 1.2 ± 0.2 mM) as was previously found for N50 mutants of murine PEPT1. In both PEPT1 species, the loss of substrate affinity was associated with a remarkable increase in I_{max}, rising from 0.9 ± 0.2 nA in mPEPT1 wild type to 2.1 ± 0.6 nA in mPEPT1 mutant N50Q (Fig. 17B), and from 1.6 ± 0.2 nA in hPEPT1 wild type to 4.1 ± 1.4 nA in the corresponding N50Q mutant.

2.3.1.5. Serial mutational exchange of asparagine N50 and effects of the pH

The investigations so far consistently showed a decrease in substrate affinity for PEPT1 transporters harbouring an N50Q exchange, in correlation with a significant increase in maximal inward currents. Taking into account the possibility of an amino-acid specific effect, besides N50Q, the transporters N50G, N50K and N50D were generated and characterized at a functional level by TEVC. Since the PEPT1-mediated peptide transport is known to be strongly pH dependent and is associated with maximal Gly-Sar transport rates in presence of high extracellular proton concentrations [136, 293], electrophysiological analyses were performed also at differing pH values. As acidification and alkalization of the medium or even the intracellular compartment could also affect the active glucose transport [294], the normalization for alpha-MDG evoked currents was omitted in these electrophysiological investigations. Gly-Sar affinity constants determined for the mPEPT1 wild-type transporter at -60 mV increased with rising pH (Figs. 18A/C-E, Table 6).

Table 6: Apparent affinity constants (K_m) and maximal inward currents (I_{max}) for mPEPT1 N50 mutant transporters with Gly-Sar at varying pH

	Affinity constant (K _m) in mM (mean ± SD) at -60 mV					
Transporter	pH 5.5	pH 6.5	pH 7.5	pH 5.5	pH 6.5	pH 7.5
Wild type	0.20 ± 0.05	0.63 ± 0.27	2.10 ± 0.20	566.71 ± 176.68	307.54 ± 135.80	302.22 ± 79.04
N50Q	0.45 ± 0.08	1.42 ± 0.33	3.83 ± 0.56	614.43 ± 178.81	665.59 ± 138.75	1005.14 ± 167.25
N50G	0.32 ± 0.06	1.09 ± 0.21	4.09 ± 0.53	749.54 ± 228.61	902.37 ± 102.39	1225.06 ± 148.88
N50K	0.55 ± 0.09	0.93 ± 0.13	1.72 ± 0.24	1094.70 ± 179.81	947.16 ± 146.36	880.02 ± 186.14
N50D	0.24 ± 0.03	0.68 ± 0.11	1.37 ± 0.38	835.04 ± 30.58	604.63 ± 110.05	537.38 ± 23.54

Apparent affinity constants and maximal inward currents determined for Gly-Sar (concentration range of 0.3-40 mM) at -60 mV in oocytes expressing the mPEPT1 wild type, N50Q, N50G, N50K or N50D transporter at pH values of pH 5.5, pH 6.5 and pH 7.5. Data are expressed as mean ± SD of 30-40 oocytes from a single donor frog.

At a pH of 5.5, an apparent K_m of 0.20 \pm 0.05 mM, at pH 6.5 of 0.63 \pm 0.27, and at pH 7.5 of 2.10 \pm 0.20 mM was obtained, while the maximal velocities were largely unaffected by the pH, amounting to 567 \pm 177 nA at pH 5.5 and 302 \pm 79 nA at pH 7.5 and -60 mV (**Figs. 20B/F, Table 6**). In comparison, both mutant transporters N50Q and N50G revealed a significantly greater increase in the K_m at -60 mV with progressive alkalization of the medium (**Figs. 20A/C-**

E, Table 6). Over the entire pH range, the substrate affinities were on average 50% lower in mutants than in the wild type, while the maximal velocities of these transporters followed a similar trend.

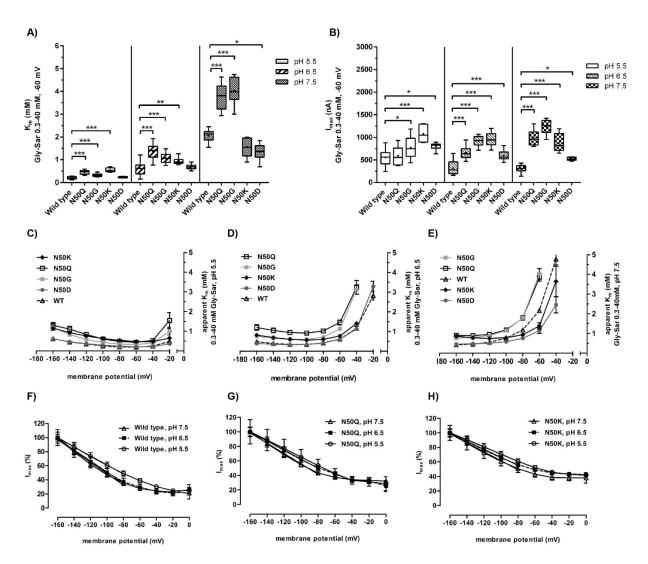


Fig. 18: Gly-Sar transport kinetics of mPEPT1 N50 mutant transporters at varying pH.

Apparent affinity constants **(A)** and maximal inward currents **(B)** determined by TEVC at -60 mV for Gly-Sar (0.3-40 mM) at varying pH values (pH 5.5, pH 6.5 and pH 7.5). Data are expressed as median \pm min/max (mean indicated with "+") of 30-40 oocytes from a single donor frog. Statistical analysis was performed for individual pH values by 1-way ANOVA with Dunnett's multiple comparison test with reference to the mPEPT1 wild-type transporter. Statistical significance is depicted with * P < 0.05, ** P < 0.01, *** P < 0.001.

(C-E) Course of average K_m -values determined within a membrane potential range of -20 to -160 mV for Gly-Sar (0.3-40 mM) at pH 5.5, 6.5 and 7.5.

(F-H) Gly-Sar evoked inward currents in dependence of the pH and membrane potential, representative for the mPEPT1 wild type, N50Q and N50K transporter (distribution of I_{max} in N50G and N50D transporters was comparable with N50Q and N50K; data not shown). I_{max} -values were normalized against the currents recorded at -160 mV. **(C-H)** Data are depicted as mean \pm SD of five oocytes.

Shifting the pH from pH 5.5 to 7.5 increased the I_{max} of mutant transporter N50Q by ~390 nA, respectively ~475 nA in N50G at -60 mV (**Figs. 18B/G**). Substitution of the nonpolar asparagine N50 by a charged amino acid was also accompanied by a decline in Gly-Sar affinity as shown for the mutants N50K and N50D at pH 5.5 and pH 6.5 at -60 mV (**Figs. 18A/C-E**). At pH 5.5, however, the K_m of N50K ($K_{m(N50K, pH 5.5)} = 0.55 \pm 0.09$ mM) was about 2.8-times higher than in wild-type. Likewise, the K_m of N50D was increased by 1.2-times ($K_{m(N50D, pH 5.5)} = 0.24 \pm 0.03$ mM). At pH 6.5, the apparent K_m -value of N50K was 0.93 \pm 0.13 mM and that of N50D was 0.68 \pm 0.11 mM at -60 mV. This loss in Gly-Sar affinity was accompanied by a significant decrease in Gly-Sar transport capacity from pH 5.5 to 6.5. As a result, the I_{max} of transporter N50K diminished by ~150 nA and that of N50D by ~230 nA (**Figs. 18B/H, Table 6**). At pH 7.5, both transporters N50K and N50D exhibited a 1.2-fold, respectively 1.5-fold higher substrate affinity than the wild type. In contrast, the maximal velocity determined for mutant N50K was 880 \pm 186 nA and for mutant N50D 537 \pm 24 nA.

2.3.1.6. Replacement of PEPT1 amino acid residue serine 52 by alanine

N-glycosylation of proteins normally occurs at specific N-x-S/T acceptor sites. In order to exclude the possibility that the kinetic changes observed after mutation can be attributed to the specific amino acid exchange of the asparagine at N50, the amino acid residues S/T at the third sequon position were specifically altered by mutagenesis. For this purpose, the amino acid serine at position 52 was replaced by alanine and the mutant transporter analyzed by TEVC (**Fig. 19**). The measurements revealed a decreased Gly-Sar affinity for the mPEPT1 transporter S52A ($K_{m(S52A)} = 1.27 \pm 0.22$ mM) with respect to the wild type ($K_{m(WT)} = 0.66 \pm 0.12$ mM) (**Fig. 19A**).

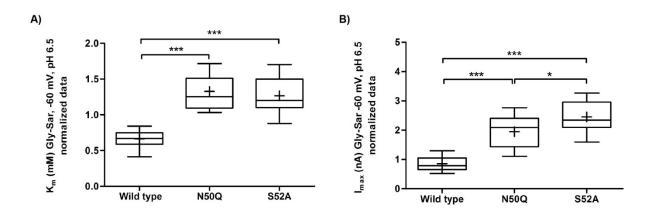


Fig. 19: Kinetic parameters of mPEPT wild type, N50Q and S52A transporter in oocytes for Gly-Sar.

Michaelis-Menten constants (A) and maximal transport capacities (B) determined for the mPEPT1 wild type, N50Q and S52A mutant transporter in presence of Gly-Sar (0.3-40 mM) at -60 mV and pH 6.5. All data were normalized to inward currents of 1 mM alpha-MDG as substrate for the co-expressed mSGLT1 transporter. Values are depicted as median \pm min/max (mean indicated with "+") of 10-16 oocytes from two different donor frogs. Statistical analysis was performed by 1-way ANOVA with Dunnett's multivariate comparison (* P < 0.05, *** P < 0.001).

Compared to N50Q ($K_{m(N50Q)} = 1.33 \pm 0.23$ mM), the Gly-Sar affinity of S52A proved to be almost identical. In terms of transport capacity, the I_{max} of N50Q ($I_{max(N500)} = 1.95 \pm 0.53$ nA) and S52A ($I_{max(S52A)} = 2.45 \pm 0.50$ nA) was twice that of the wild type ($I_{max(WT)} = 0.85 \pm 0.21$ nA) (Fig. 19B).

2.3.1.7. Effects of tunicamycin on the PEPT1 transport activity

Since co-injection of the N-glycosylation inhibitor tunicamycin reduced the mPEPT1 protein mass from ~95 kDa to ~65 kDa in oocytes, it was assumed that resulting mass changes could have severe effects on the transport behavior of PEPT1. However, TEVC experiments carried out with oocytes heterologously expressing the wild-type transporter revealed a slight but significant reduction in Gly-Sar affinity from 0.65 ± 0.09 mM to 0.75 ± 0.11 mM after tunicamycin treatment (Fig. 20A), while the transport capacity increased slightly from 436.64 ± 118.27 nA to 564 ± 95 nA (**Fig. 20B**).

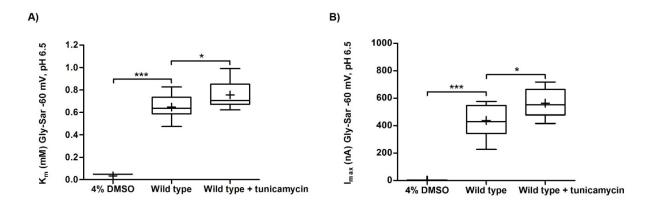


Fig. 20: The effects of tunicamycin on PEPT1 transport kinetics.

Apparent affinity constants (A) and maximal inward currents (B) recorded for Gly-Sar (0.3-40 mM) at pH 6.5 and -60 mV in oocytes heterologously expressing the mPEPT1 wild-type transporter. Oocytes injected with 4% dimethyl sulfoxide (DMSO), as the solvent for tunicamycin, served as a negative control. All data are expressed as median ± min/max ("+" as an indicator for the mean) of 18-20 oocytes and measurements provided without data normalization. Statistical analysis was Performer by 1-way ANOVA with Dunnett's multivariate comparison to the mPEPT1 wild-type transporter (* P < 0.05, *** P < 0.001). Figs. 20A-B were adopted from Stelzl et al. (2016, p. G135) [239].

2.3.2. Impact of N-glycosylation on the PEPT1 protein density in cellular membranes

In order to establish a correlation between an increased transport capacity and an enhanced protein surface expression rate, individual mPEPT1 N-glycosylation deficient mutant transporters were specifically studied for their expression levels within the plasma membrane of Xenopus oocytes. Therefore, the membrane capacitance as a marker for the plasma membrane surface area in oocytes [295], was examined electrophysiologically.

In addition, PEPT1 surface expression was assessed by biotinylation with the membrane impermeable reagent EZ-Link® Sulfo-NHS-LC-Biotin (Fig. 21). The results of electrophysiological capacitance measurements showed little differences in membrane surface areas detected in oocytes expressing the various glycosylation variants (**Fig. 21A**). With capacitance values ranging from 235 \pm 15 nF to 255 \pm 52 nF, the *N*-glycosylation deficient mPEPT1 transporters did not significantly differ from wild type.

In contrast, uninjected oocytes exhibited a significantly lower capacitance (182 \pm 27nF) than oocytes expressing the wild-type protein (234 \pm 41 nF). Similarly, the quantification of PEPT1 levels in the plasma membrane of oocytes by surface biotinylation did not show any substantial differences in the protein expression levels between the individual transporters analyzed (**Fig. 21B**).

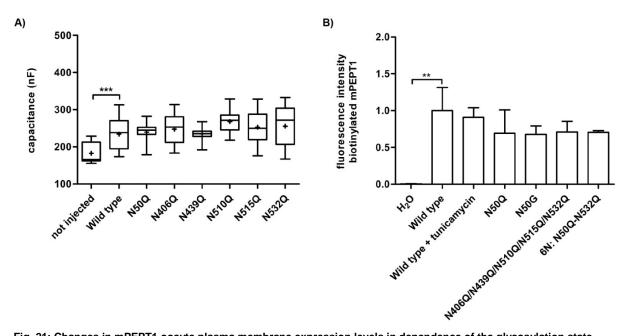


Fig. 21: Changes in mPEPT1 oocyte plasma membrane expression levels in dependence of the glycosylation state.

- **(A)** Electrophysiological capacitance measurements were performed with oocytes in a perfusion chamber in presence of 20 mM Gly-Sar at pH 6.5. A high capacitance thereby correlates with an increased transporter plasma membrane expression rate. Data are depicted as median ± min/max (mean indicated with "+") of 25-30 oocytes of three donor frogs.
- **(B)** Densitometric quantification of the mPEPT1 surface expression by biotinylation did not show any variations in the protein density between single *N*-glycosylation deficient transporters. In water-injected control occytes, no mPEPT1 expression was detected. Biotinylation experiments were performed with 20 occytes each of five donor frogs. Data are expressed as mean ± SEM. Fig. 21B was adopted from Stelzl *et al.* (2016, p. G132) [239].
- (A-B) Statistical analysis was performed by 1-way ANOVA with Dunnett's posttest versus wild-type mPEPT1 as reference. Statistical significance is indicated as ** P < 0.01 and *** P < 0.001.

2.3.3. PEPT1 transport characteristics assessed by radiotracer flux studies

To assess whether the high maximal currents detected in PEPT1 N50 mutants are caused by altered proton conductance or indeed represent higher transport capacities, [14 C]-Gly-Sar flux studies were performed (**Fig. 22**). Oocytes expressing the PEPT1 transporter N50Q showed a significantly higher Gly-Sar transport rate of 4.47 \pm 0.32 pmol/min/oocyte for a Gly-Sar concentration of 50 mM compared to wild-type transporters with 2.32 \pm 0.30 pmol/min/oocyte, as shown in **Fig. 22A**. Tunicamycin co-injection slightly increased the maximal [14 C]-Gly-Sar uptake rates in oocytes expressing the wild type PEPT1 to 2.59 \pm 0.21 pmol/min/oocyte.

Apparent K_m -values increased from 0.82 \pm 0.19 mM in wild type to 2.92 \pm 0.37 mM in N50Q and to 1.26 \pm 0.12 mM in tunicamycin-treated oocytes. Competition of tracer influx by presence of a tenfold excess of Glycyl-Glutamine (Gly-Gln) (**Fig. 22B**) caused a reduction in tracer uptake by 82% in N50Q and by 57% in the wild-type transporter. After tunicamycin injection, Gly-Gln reduced the Gly-Sar uptake of PEPT1 wild type in oocytes by 79%.

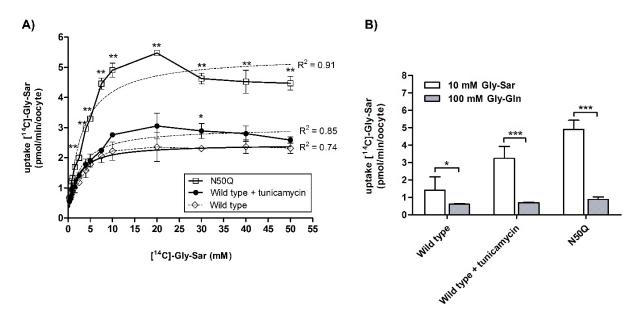


Fig. 22: [14C]-Gly-Sar flux studies in X. laevis oocytes heterologously expressing mPEPT1.

- (A) Oocytes expressing the mPEPT1 wild type transporter with or without tunicamycin co-injection and the N50Q mutant transporter were incubated with [14 C]-Gly-Sar solution (0.3-50 mM) for 10 min, followed by the determination of intracellular radioactivity with a liquid scintillation counter. All values are depicted as mean \pm SEM of 5 oocytes and counts were corrected for basal radioactivity observed in water-injected control oocytes (data not shown). Statistical analysis: One-way ANOVA with Dunnett's multiple comparison (* P < 0.05, ** P < 0.01) versus the mPEPT1 wild-type transporter.
- **(B)** To determine the specificity of [14 C]-Gly-Sar transport, uptake of labeled Gly-Sar was measured in presence of the competitive inhibitor Glycyl-Glutamine (Gly-Gln) in 10-fold excess. In presence of Gly-Gln (pH 6.5), a significant reduction of [14 C]-Gly-Sar uptake was observed in oocytes expressing the wild type, respectively N50Q transporter. Data are expressed as mean \pm SD of five oocytes. Statistical analysis was performed by two-tailed unpaired t-test (* P < 0.05, *** P < 0.001). Fig. 22 was taken from Stelzl *et al.* (2016, p. G137) [239].

2.3.4. Reverse substrate transport in the PEPT1 mutant transporter N50Q

A bidirectional substrate transport activity was shown peviously for PEPT1 by Kottra and Daniel [296]. In accordance to preceding tracer influx studies, the export of Gly-Sar was assessed in oocytes expressing the mPEPT1 wild type and mutant transporter N50Q (**Fig. 23**). Gly-Sar efflux was measured by loading oocytes with increasing amounts of substrate. Since stage IV oocytes have a cytosolic pH between 7.4 and 7.7 [217, 297, 298], there is no significant proton gradient when an extracellular pH of 7.5 is used. Under these conditions, the outwardly directed PEPT1 transport current primarily depends on the membrane potential and occurs at a membrane potential more positive than +20 mv [296]. Taking into account that the mean aqueous volume of oocytes amounts to ~410 nl [296, 299], injection of 9.2 nl of a 1 M Gly-Sar solution raises the cytosolic concentration to approximately 22 mM. Consequently, injection of 59.8 nl brings the intracellular Gly-Sar concentration to ~127 mM.

In oocytes expressing the PEPT1 wild type transporter, microinjection of Gly-Sar to a final concentration of 22 mM generated outward currents of 303 ± 72 nA within 6 min (Fig. 23A), respectively 782 ± 87 nA in presence of a cystosolic Gly-Sar concentration of 127 mM. In comparison, outward current recordings for N50Q were on average 1.5-2.5 times higher (713 ± 190 nA at 22 mM Gly-Sar, 1156 ± 136 nA at 127 mM Gly-Sar) (Fig. 23B). Maximal outward currents (I_{max[out]}) determined for the mPEPT1 wild-type transporter increased from 363 \pm 62 nA after 1 min to 968 \pm 270 nA after 6 min.

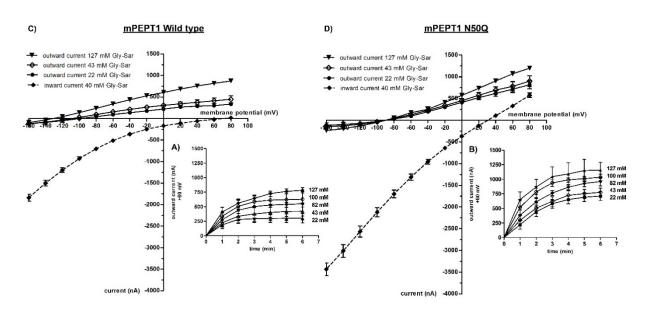


Fig. 23: Electrophysiological recordings of Gly-Sar efflux in oocytes.

(A-B) Current-voltage relations (I-V) of Gly-Sar-induced outward currents in oocytes expressing the mPEPT1 wild type (A) or mutant transporter N50Q (B). Following oocyte injection with 1M Gly-Sar (pH 7.5) to an intracellular concentration of 22 to 127 mM, reverse substrate transport was determined by recording the outward currents at +60 mV over a period of 6 min. (C-D) Comparative analysis of inward currents evoked by oocyte superfusion with 40 mM Gly-Sar (pH 7.5) (dashed lines) in contrast to outward currents generated 6 min after microinjection of Gly-Sar (solid black lines) to cytosolic concentrations of 22 mM, 43 mM and 127 mM. Current flows for the mPEPT1 wild type and N50Q transporter are shown within a membrane potential range of -160 to +80 mV.

(A-D) All data are depicted as mean values ± SEM of 20-30 oocytes and were corrected for transport currents recorded in waterinjected oocytes. Fig. 23 was taken from Stelzl et al. (2017, p. G583) [270].

Accordingly, the I_{max[out]} of the mutant transporter N50Q rose from 663 ± 156 nA (1 min) to 1263 \pm 146 nA (6 min). At any time, the $I_{max[out]}$ of the mutant N50Q exceeded that of the wild type by 40 to 60%. In the period of 3 to 6 min, the mPEPT1 wild-type transporter showed a steady decrease in the intracellular Gly-Sar affinities ($K_{m[out, 3 min]} = 39.9 \pm 2.3$ mM; $K_{m[out, 6 min]}$ = 54.25 ± 3.4 mM). In contrast to its extracellular Gly-Sar affinity determined at a value of 2.10 \pm 0.20 mM at pH 7.5 (**see Table 6**), intracellular affinities were $19_{(3 \text{ min})}$ - $26_{(6 \text{ min})}$ -times lower. Conversely, in the mutant transporter N50Q the intracellular K_m-values gradually decreased between 3 and 6 min after injection ($K_{m[out, 3 min]} = 29.82 \pm 1.7$ mM, $K_{m[out, 6 min]} = 20.95 \pm 1.7$ 2.1 mM). In view of an apparent extracellular K_m of 3.83 \pm 0.56 mM at pH 7.5 (**Table 6**), intracellular Gly-Sar affinities were about 5-8-fold lower. In presence of a cytosolic Gly-Sar concentration of 43 mM, oocytes expressing the mPEPT1 wild-type transporter exhibited outward currents of 410 ± 153 nA at +60 mV 6 min post-injection (Fig. 23C). In contrast, the superfusion of oocytes with 40 mM Gly-Sar generated average inward currents of 513 ± 153 nA at -60 mV, thus exceeding outward currents by about 20% (Fig. 23D). At the same time, outward currents detected for N50Q (+60 mV: 780 ± 187 nA) were 1.7-times lower than the inward currents (Fig. 23D). This analysis thus showed that both the inward as well as the outward transport currents of N50Q were increased by a factor of 2-2.5 versus the wild-type protein.

2.3.5. Targeted exchange of PEPT1 N-glycans by MTSEA-biotin

Electrophysiological and tracer flux studies have shown a clear proof that a lack of N-glycosylation at sequon N50 significantly increased the PEPT1 transport activity. In contrast, attachment of N-glycans to sequon N50 appeared to delay the PEPT1 turnover rate.

To assess whether specifically the glycan or its mass caused this effect, membrane impermeable MTSEA-biotin derivatives (Appendix Fig. VII) were covalently linked to free thiol groups of cysteine residues selectively replacing asparagine residues within mPEPT1 glycosylation sites. Based on previous protein analyses, the N-glycan mass attached to sequon N50 was estimated to be around 3-5 kDa. A cysteine labelling with MTSEA-biotin of varying molecular masses (MTSEA-biotin = 381.52 g/mol [~0.38 kDa]; MTSEA-biotin-X = 494.68 g/mol [~0.49 kDa]; MTSEA-biotin-XX = 607.70 g/mol [~0.61 kDa]) was performed. It is worth mentioning that the various forms of MTSEA-biotin were comparable in weight to oligosaccharides containing 2, 3 or 4 hexoses.

Firstly, the mPEPT1 asparagine 50 was replaced by cysteine (N50C), thereby blocking the N-glycosylation of this sequon. In order to ensure site-specific N50C biotin coupling, five further cysteine residues, which are most likely exposed to the cell exterior, were exchanged by serine residues (C25S, C189S, C197S, C540S, C566S) (Appendix Fig. IV-A).

heterologous After expression of the mPEPT1 cysteine substitution mutants C25S/C189S/C197S/C540S/C566S N50C/C25S/C189S/C197S/C540S/C566S and X. laevis oocytes, the transporters were labeled with MTSEA-biotin-X and the transport kinetics studied electrophysiologically (Fig. 24). In the C25S/C189S/C197S/C540S/C566S transporter, a significant change in transport activity was observed. The transporter showed proper membrane targeting (Annex Fig. I), but displayed a decrease in substrate affinity from 0.66 ± 0.12 mM in wild type to 14.49 ± 1.13 mM (Fig. 24A), whereas the maximal transport velocity versus the wild type increased from 330 ± 107 nA to 2714 ± 382 nA (Fig. 24B). MTSEA-biotin-X labeling of mutant C25S/C189S/C197S/C540S/C566S had no additive effects. Further exchange of residue N50 by cysteine increased the K_m to 18.34 ± 3.97 mM, while the I_{max} ($I_{max(N50C/C25S/C189S/C197S/C540S/C566S)}$ = 2569 ± 325 nA) was quite comparable to the C25S/C189S/C197S/C540S/C566S transporter.

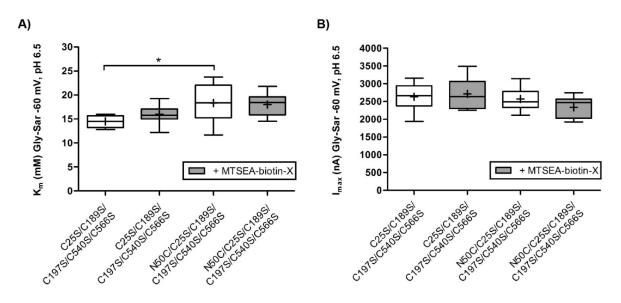


Fig. 24: Gly-Sar transport kinetics of PEPT1 cysteine substitution mutants. Apparent affinity constants (A) and maximal inward currents (B) determined at -60 mV by TEVC for the mPEPT1 cysteine substitution mutants C25S/C189S/C197S/C540S/C566S and N50C/C25S/C189S/C197S/C540S/C566S. TEVC experiments were performed with Gly-Sar (0.3-40 mM) at pH 6.5. Oocytes treated with 2 mM MTSEA-biotin-X for 15 min before the measurement are highlighted in grey. (A-B) Values are presented as median \pm min/max (mean indicated with "+") of 10-15 oocytes. Statistical analyses were performed by using the Student's t-test (* P < 0.05).

A total exchange of the prediced cell surface-exposed cysteine residues markedly affected the PEPT1 transport characteristics. Consequently, cysteine residues localized towards the mPEPT1 surface were retained unchanged, whilst only one further cysteine was inserted in place of asparagine N50. Electrophysiological measurements revealed only marginally changed Gly-Sar transport kinetics for this N50C mutant compared to the wild-type protein (Fig. 25). Similar to mPEPT1 N50Q, the mutant N50C had a significantly lower Gly-Sar affinity and a considerably higher maximal transport velocity at -60 mV than the wild type (**Table 7**). Furthermore, it was found that MTSEA-biotinylation did not substantially affect Gly-Sar transport activity in mPEPT1 wild type or mutant transporter N50Q. In contrast, biotinylation of oocytes expressing the N50C mutant revealed significantly changed Gly-Sar transport characteristics in dependence of the biotin mass attached (Fig. 25, Table 7). N50C labeling with MTSEA-biotin increased the Gly-Sar binding affinity by 13% and the labeling with a higher MTSEA-biotin mass significantly further enhanced the substrate binding affinity by a total of 22% for MTSEA-biotin-X, respectively 23% for MTSEA-biotin-XX (Fig. 25A, Table 7). N50C labeling with an increasing biotin mass caused a steady decline in the corresponding maximal inward currents at -60 mV. Modification with MTSEA-biotin reduced average inward Gly-Sar currents by 12%, respectively by 27% with MTSEA-biotin-X or even by 36% with MTSEA-biotin-XX (Fig. 25B, Table 7).

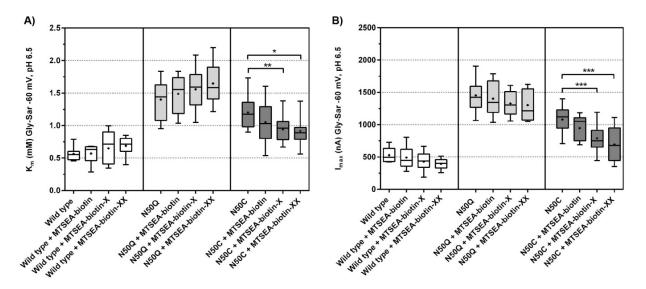


Fig. 25: Site-specific mPEPT1 biotinylation mimics glycosylation in oocytes.

Apparent affinity constants **(A)** and maximal velocities **(B)** determined by TEVC for the mPEPT1 wild type and mutant transporters N50Q and N50C following biotinylation with 2 mM MTSEA-biotin, MTSEA-biotin-X or MTSEA-biotin-XX for 15 min in presence of Gly-Sar (0.3-40 mM) at pH 6.5. Inward transport currents of non-biotinylated transporters were recorded as a reference. Regardless of biotinylation, no transport was observed in water-injected oocytes (data not shown). **(A-B)** Data are depicted as median \pm min/max (mean indicated with "+") of 15-20 oocytes of 4 independent measurements. Statistical analysis was performed by 1-way ANOVA with Dunnett's multiple comparison versus the corresponding untreated controls (* P < 0.05, ** P < 0.01, *** P < 0.001). Fig. 25 was adopted and modified from Stelzl *et al.* (2017, p. G586) [270].

Table 7: Apparent affinity constants (K_m) and maximal inward currents (I_{max}) at -60mV following mPEPT1 MTSEA-biotinylation

Transporter and treatment	Affinity constant (K _m) in mM (mean ± SD)	Maximal velocity (I _{max}) in nA (mean ± SD)		
Wild type	0.56 ± 0.10	528.38 ± 108.67		
Wild type + MTSEA-biotin	0.57 ± 0.14	491.38 ± 162.81		
Wild type + MTSEA-biotin-X	0.65 ± 0.24	427.69 ± 128.61		
Wild type + MTSEA-biotin-XX	0.69 ± 0.14	395.30 ± 80.06		
N50Q	1.40 ± 0.29	1452.28 ± 247.21		
N50Q + MTSEA-biotin	1.49 ± 0.28	1402.39 ± 244.88		
N50Q + MTSEA-biotin-X	1.56 ± 0.30	1328.29 ± 178.11		
N50Q + MTSEA-biotin-XX	1.65 ± 0.29	1301.42 ± 226.94		
N50C	1.20 ± 0.23	1080.70 ± 215.60		
N50C + MTSEA-biotin	1.05 ± 0.33	947.34 ± 181.81		
N50C + MTSEA-biotin-X	0.94 ± 0.17	788.35 ± 198.97		
N50C + MTSEA-biotin-XX	0.92 ± 0.23	694.08 ± 254.90		

Apparent affinity constants and maximal inward currents determined by TEVC for Gly-Sar (concentration range of 0.3-40 mM) at pH 6.5 and -60 mV in oocytes expressing the mPEPT1 wild type, N50Q and N50C transporters following biotinylation. Data are expressed as mean \pm SD of 15-20 oocytes of 4 independent measurements.

Notwithstanding cysteine modification with MTSEA-biotin derivatives, inward current recordings for the PEPT1 wild type, N50Q and N50C transporter appeared to be highly voltage dependent (**Figs. 26A-C**). This was reflected by a continuously rising current flow with a gradual reduction of the membrane potential to -160 mV. To verify MTSEA-biotin binding to accessible surface-exposed PEPT1 cysteine residues, Western blot analysis was performed with oocytes heterologously expressing selected PEPT1 transporters (Wild type, N50Q, N50C)

before and after MTSEA-biotinylation (**Fig. 26D**). Immunoblotting of biotinylated plasma membrane proteins showed a positive staining for mPEPT1, while labeled water-injected oocytes did not provide a fluorescence signal.

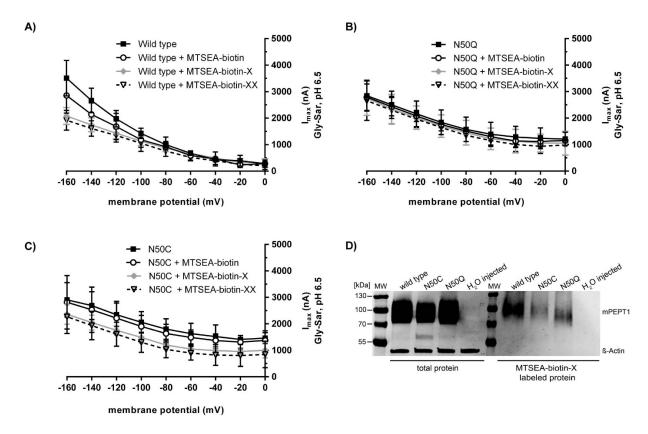


Fig. 26: Effects of MTSEA-biotin labeling on PEPT1 Gly-Sar transport kinetics.

(A-C) Maximal Gly-Sar induced inward transport currents as a function of the membrane potential. Representative I_{max} -values calculated for biotin-labeled and unlabeled oocytes (n = 6-8) expressing the mPEPT1 wild type (A) and mutant transporters N50Q (B) and N50C (C) within a membrane potential range of 0 to -160 mV. Figs. 26A-C were adopted and modified from Stelzl *et al.* (2017; G586) [270].

(D) Representative Western blot analysis of total protein extracts generated from *X. laevis* oocytes heterologously expressing the mPEPT1 wild type, N50Q and N50C transporter prior and after MTSEA-biotin-X labeling. For biotinylation, 60 oocytes were incubated in 2 mM MTSEA-biotin solution for 15 min and labeled plasma membrane proteins purified with streptavidin-agarose. PEPT1 detection in immunoblots with an anti-rat PEPT1 polyclonal IgG antibody revealed specific fluorescence signals for all transporters analyzed. Since H₂O injected oocytes stained negative for PEPT1, this provided evidence for the specific covalent attachment of MTSEA-biotin-X to surface exposed cysteine residues of the PEPT1 transporter. Beta-Actin (42 kDa) was used as a loading control, respectively as indicator for a successful protein purification process.

2.4. PEPT1 glycan analysis

2.4.1. Functional PEPT1 expression in ModeK and PTK6 cells

Protein glycosylation is well known to vary among species, organ- or cell-types. Based on the assumption that the *N*-glycosylation machinery of ectothermic amphibians, such as *X. laevis*, might differ considerably from those in mammals, PEPT1 was also expressed in murine intestinal cells. ModeK cells, a non-carcinogenic small intestinal epithelial cell line and PTK6 cells, the colonic equivalent, were retroviral transfected with mPEPT1 wild type and selected *N*-glycosylation deficient mutant transporters (**Fig. 27**).

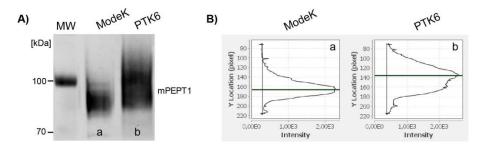


Fig. 27: Immunoblot of the mPEPT1 wild-type transporter expressed in ModeK and PTK6 cells.

(A) Western blot analysis of membrane protein extracts prepared from ModeK and PTK6 cells expressing the mPEPT1 wild-type transporter containing a C-terminal HA tag. While mPEPT1 expressed in ModeK cells exhibited an apparent mass of ~95 kDa (a), expression in PTK6 cells revealed an increase in the transporters mass to ~100 kDa (b). (B) High resolution imaging of the immunoblot with the LI-COR imaging software Image Studio Lite (v. 3.1, LI-COR Biosciences, Bad Homburg, Germany) confirmed the existence of an mPEPT1 mass difference between ModeK (a) and PTK6 cells (b). In ModeK cells, a maximal fluorescence signal was detected at ~168 pixel (marked with a black line) for mPEPT1, whereas in PTK6 cells, a shift to ~138 pixel arose. Fig. 27 was adopted from Stelzl et al. (2017, p. G585) [270].

To facilitate the subsequent PEPT1 protein purification from these cells, all transporters were C-terminally fused with a hemagglutinin (HA) epitope tag. Following *in vitro* expression, immunoblots revealed a similar mass shift for PEPT1 in transfected cells, as previously observed between small and large intestine of mice. While ModeK cells exhibited a PEPT1 mass of ~90-95 kDa, a mass increase of ~10 kDa was recorded for PTK6 cells. Transport studies performed with ModeK and PTK6 cells equally showed a 15-20% higher [14 C]-Gly-Sar uptake rate, when the mPEPT1 wild-type transporter was expressed without epitope tag (ModeK_(WT - HA tag) = 8.00 ± 0.74 nmol/g protein/min, PTK6_(WT - HA tag) = 7.14 ± 0.10 nmol/g protein/min) (**Figs. 28A-B**).

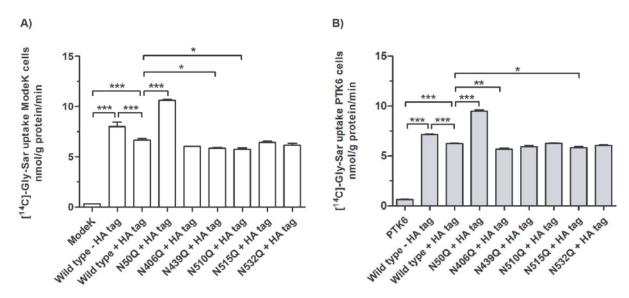


Fig. 28: [14C]-Gly-Sar flux studies with ModeK and PTK6 cells expressing mPEPT1.

[14 C]-Gly-Sar flux studies performed with ModeK and PTK6 cells expressing single mPEPT1 glycan-knockout mutants followed a similar trend. Insertion of a C-terminal HA tag equally decreased the Gly-Sar uptake rates of the mPEPT1 wild-type transporter in ModeK and PTK6 cells by 15-20%. Deletion of N50 increased the [14 C]-Gly-Sar uptake rate by 60-66% versus the corresponding wild-type controls. ModeK cells expressing the mPEPT1 mutant transporters N439Q and N510Q exhibited a 10-14% lower Gly-Sar upake rate than the wild type. In PTK6 mutant transporters N406Q and N515Q, the [14 C]-Gly-Sar inward transport was reduced by 6-10%. All experiments were performed in triplicate and values are expressed as mean \pm SD. Data were corrected for mPEPT1 expression differences between individual mutant transporters. Statistical analysis was performed by one-way ANOVA with Dunnett's multiple comparison test (* P < 0.05, ** P < 0.01, *** P < 0.001).

In line with immunoblots which had provided convincing evidence that ModeK and PTK6 cells originally do not express PEPT1 (data not shown), it was found that the tracer uptake in non-transfected cells was negligibly small.

Similar to the [14C]-Gly-Sar transport in *Xenopus* oocytes, the expression of single mPEPT1 N-glycosylation deficient transporters carrying a C-terminal HA tag revealed the highest Gly-Sar uptake rates for the mutant transporter N50Q with 10.59 ± 0.18 nmol/g protein/min in ModeK and 9.48 ± 0.22 nmol/g protein/min in PTK6 cells. In comparison, the Gly-Sar transport activity of corresponding wild-type transporters was 60-66% lower (ModeK_(WT + HA tag) = 6.66 \pm 0.25 nmol/g protein/min, PTK6_(WT+HA tag) = 6.21 ± 0.11 nmol/g protein/min). [14C]-Gly-Sar uptake rates determined for mutant transporters N406Q, N439Q, N510Q, N515Q, N532Q in ModeK, respectively PTK6 cells, provided nearly identical rates.

2.4.2. Mass-spectrometric glycoprotein profiling of ModeK cells

Purification and enrichment of the target glycoprotein constitutes the most important step in N-glycoprofiling. Initial approaches to immunoprecipitate PEPT1 from murine intestine with an in-house generated anti-mPEPT1 antibody (custom-made Pineda, Berlin, Germany) did not lead to success by virtue of a weak antigen binding affinity and a target protein release during the purification process. The same was valid for a commercial PEPT1 antibody (Abnova, Taipei City, Taiwan) specially developed for protein precipitation experiments. To overcome these obstacles, N-glycosylation-deficient mPEPT1 transporters were retroviral transfected into ModeK and PTK6 cells (Fig. 29).

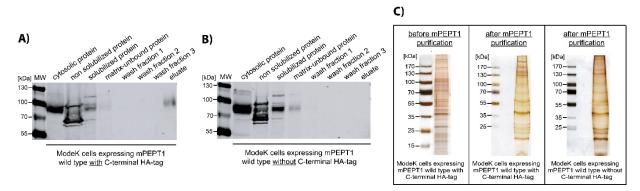


Fig. 29: Immunoprecipitation of mPEPT1 expressed in ModeK cells.

PEPT1 immunoprecipitation performed with an anti-HA affinity matrix (Roche, Mannheim, Germany) in ModeK cells expressing the wild-type transporter with HA tag proved to be rather specific. Following cell lysis and protein purification, a strong PEPT1 signal (~95 kDa) was detected in Western blots (in the eluate) (A). By contrast, PEPT1 was absent in eluates of ModeK cells expressing the wild-type transporter without HA tag (B). Although immunoprecipitation considerably concentrated cellular membrane proteins (C), silver staining of polyacrylamide gels after SDS electrophoresis identified a multitude of proteins co-eluting from the anti-HA affinity matrix with a similar mass as mPEPT1.

To facilitate the subsequent purification of the target proteins using an anti-HA affinity matrix (Roche, Mannheim, Germany), mPEPT1 transporters were C-terminally HA-tagged. To monitor the specificity of PEPT1 purification, the transporter was additionally expressed devoid of the C-terminal affinity tag. Western blot analysis of immunoprecipitates obtained from ModeK cells expressing the mPEPT1 wild-type transporter disclosed a specific separation of the target protein in presence of the epitope tag (Figs. 29A-B). Subsequent silver staining of immunoprecipitates, however, revealed the presence of numerous proteins co-eluting with mPEPT1 (Fig. 29C). In this regard, there were no differences in protein staining between the immunoprecipitates obtained from ModeK cells expressing the mPEPT1 wild-type transporter with or without the HA tag. Thus, six gel slices in the mass range of PEPT1 were excised for further protein bioanalysis by LC-MS/MS.

From a subsequent tryptic in-gel digest, a total of 715 proteins were detected (Fig. 30A). The most abundant proteins were trypsin and keratins as endogenous and human contaminants. Although mPEPT1 was captured by mass spectrometry (protein ranking position 173 with 17% PEPT1 sequence coverage) the protein content was quite low (< 1%). This was aggravated by the fact that none of the identified peptides comprised a putative mPEPT1 N-glycosylation site (Fig. 30B). Therefore, glycan release from peptides by PNGaseF treatment and subsequent structural glycan analysis was not possible.

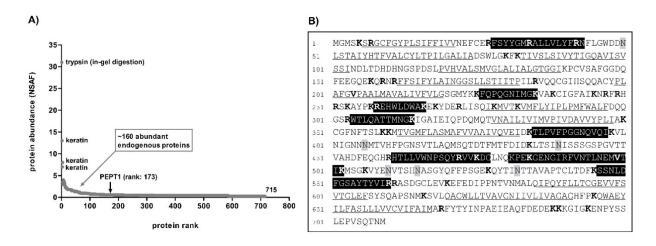


Fig. 30: LC-MS/MS analysis of ModeK immunoprecipitates.

LC-MS/MS analysis performed with immunoprecipates generated from ModeK cells expressing the mPEPT1 wild-type transporter with HA tag from silver-stained gel fragments confirmed the presence of PEPT1 (A). With an overall quantity of 715 identified proteins, the abundance of PEPT1 was very low (< 1%). Strongest represented proteins were trypsin (deriving from in-gel digestion) and keratins. Sequence coverage of proteins analyzed by peptide mass fingerprinting (B) was 17% for mPEPT1 (marked with a black beam). Additional markings: K/R = trypsin cleavage sites; N = asparagine residue within mPEPT1 N-glycosylation sites; putative transmembrane domains in accordance with the UniProtKB database are underlined.

2.4.3. Impact of diet and housing conditions on the intestinal glycosylation pattern in mice

While tissue-specific differences in protein glycosylation are known, there is little information on the relative abundance of *N*-linked glycoproteins along the entire mouse gut. In this context, the intestinal epithelial N-glycome of mouse was examined more closely by MALDI-TOF-MS technique and in dependence of different diets and housing conditions.

In conventionally raised C57BL/6N mice (CV) on a chow diet (CD), populated by the most diverse microbial community of all mouse strains regarded, a strong regional distribution of individual glycan classes emerged (**Fig. 31**). The total amount of glycans detected in small intestine (**Fig. 31A**), mainly composed of complex type glycans (73%), surpassed the levels of colon on average by 98% (**Fig. 31B**).

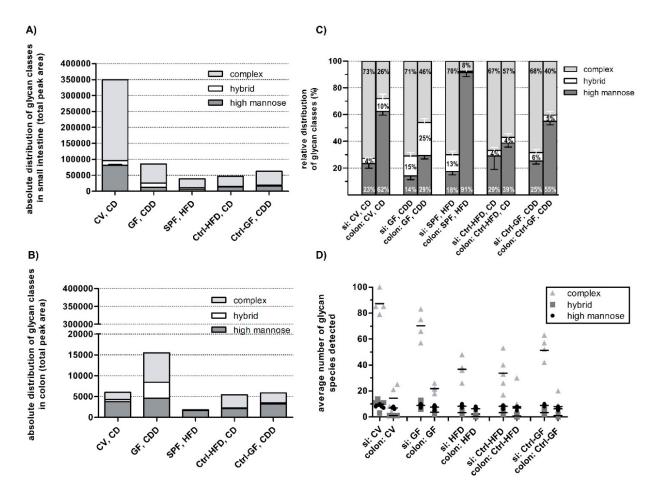


Fig. 31: Variation of the glycosylation pattern between small and large intestine of mice.

The absolute distribution of glycan classes, which was determined as the sum of peak areas for individual glycan classes, revealed a higher abundance of *N*-glycans in small intestine (**A**) against the colon (**B**). Regarding their relative distribution (**C**), mainly complex type glycans were present in small intestine, while in colon, a high prevalence of high mannose type glycans was found. With respect to the number of identified glycans species (**D**), the diversity of complex type *N*-glycans in small intestine was much wider than in colon. (**A-D**) Bars represent mean values ± SEM of glycan classes identified in n = 4-5 animals per treatment group. Abbreviations: **CV**, **CD** = conventional raised mice (CV) on chow diet (CD); **GF**, **CDD** = germfree mice (GF) on a chemical defined diet (CDD); **SPF**, **HFD** = mice raised under specific pathogen free (SPF) conditions and fed a high fat diet (HFD) and **Ctrl** = control animals. More detailed information on glycome profiling data and a categorical data comparison of individual glycan species is given in **Annex Fig. II**.

As compared to the CV mice, the proportion of glycans detected in small intestine of C57BL/6N germfree (GF) and C57BL/6N mice on a high fat diet (HFD), was considerably lower (-75-90%). At the same time, GF mice on a chemical defined diet (CDD) revealed 2.5-fold, respectively 8.5-fold higher colonic glycan levels than their CV or HFD littermates.

With regard to the relative distribution of glycan classes between small and large intestine (**Fig. 31C**) a distinct pattern was observed. Independent of the mouse strain, housing condition

or diet, mostly complex glycans dominated in small intestine, replaced by high mannose type glycans in colon. Hybrid glycans represented only a minor fraction and were present in both gut segments. A comparative analysis on species level (Fig. 31D) revealed a great diversity of complex type glycans. While in small intestine of CV and GF mice an average of 87 ± 8, respectively 73 ± 10 individual complex glycan species were detected, the levels almost halved under a HFD (37 ± 7 species). Complex type glycans detected in small and large intestine of CV and GF mice shared an average identity of 32-40%, whereas in HFD mice it was about 12%.

The profile of high mannose type glycans, with an average of 6-8 detected species and 80-90% homology, resembled between experimental groups and individual gut segments. The class of hybrid type glycans was clearly more widespread in small intestine (3-8 species) than in colon (1-3 species). In contrast to complex or high mannose type glycans, the intestinal hybrid glycan species differed strongly. While in CV mice the dissimilarity of hybrid type glycans between small and large intestine was about 95%, the diversity in HFD and GF mice was considerably lower (GF: 50%; HFD: 75%). An overall view on the distribution of glycans classes among individual experimental groups revealed a greater diversity from small intestine compared to the colon. This was also reconfirmed by a hierarchical cluster analysis, demonstrating distinct glycosylation patterns for individual gut segments and animal models analyzed (Appendix Figs. IIA-C).

2.5. N-glycosylation of PEPT1 and resistance towards proteolysis

There is evidence that site-selective protein glycosylation enhances the stability of proteins and resistance against proteolysis [300]. Through steric hindrance, glycans are supposed to protect the peptide backbone from proteolytic degradation and consequently enhance the half-life of proteins [301]. According to a recent analysis conducted by Beale et al. [242], the large extracellular loop of the mammalian peptide transporter probably acts as a trypsin binding site. It was hypothesized that this anchoring mechanism could serve to increase the local peptide concentration around PEPT1, thereby promoting the uptake of certain peptides.

Since the large loop of PEPT1 contains five of the six N-glycans, it was examined to which extent the glycosylation protects PEPT1 from cleavage by proteases including trypsin. The proteolytic stability of PEPT1 was assessed in oocyte membrane extracts, which were treated with different proteases, followed by gel separation, Western transfer and quantification of the target protein.

In silico prediction of trypsin cleavage sites using the PeptideCutter tool provided by the Swiss Institute of Bioinformatics [302], detected a total of 54 sites within the mPEPT1 wildtype carrier (Appendix Fig. IV-B). During subsequent experiments, trypsin degradation rates for individual mPEPT1 glycan-variants tested proved to be quite similar (Fig. 32A).

Within 10 min of incubation, the PEPT1 protein levels decreased by ~47% in the wild type and similar rates were also found for the N50Q, N406Q/N439Q/N510Q/N515Q/N532Q and the N50Q/N406Q/N439Q/N510Q/N515Q/N532Q transporter. This degradation occurred almost completely within the first minute of trypsin treatment, without any differences between protein variants.

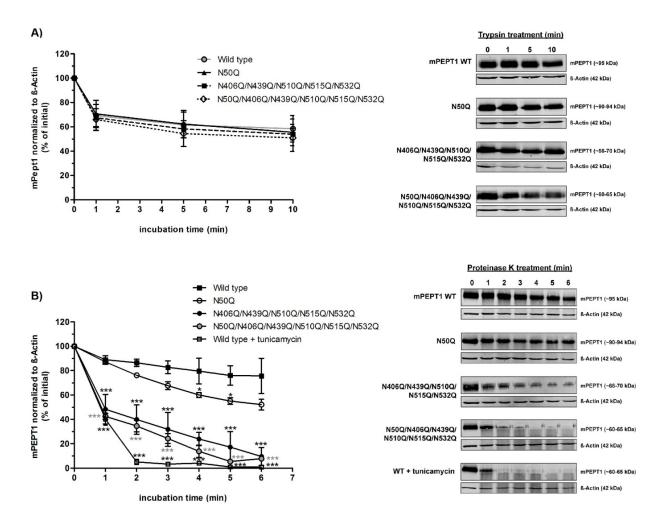


Fig. 32: Resistance of mPEPT1 to proteolytic degradation.

Significance of *N*-glycosylation on PEPT1 protection from proteolysis was assessed by trypsin **(A)** and proteinase K **(B)** treatment of membrane protein isolates generated from *Xenopus* oocytes expressing the mPEPT1 wild-type transporter or selected glycan variants. Following protease treatment, protein extracts were subjected to Western blot analysis and mPEPT1 expression levels quantified densitometrically using the LI-COR imaging software Image Studio Lite (v. 3.1, LI-COR Biosciences, Bad Homburg, Germany)

(A-B) To evaluate the PEPT1 breakdown rate, the fluorescence intensities of protease-treated and untreated cell extracts were compared. Therefore, the fluorescence intensity of the PEPT1 target protein detected in untreated isolates was set to 100% and changes in PEPT1 fluorescence due to the treatment expressed as a percentage of the untreated control.

(A-B) All data are indicated as mean \pm SEM of \geq 15 oocytes out of six oocytes batches. Statistical analyses were performed using the Student's t-test (* P < 0.05, *** P < 0.001). Fig. 32 was taken from Stelzl *et al.* (2017, p. G587) [270].

For proteinase K, 384 putative cleavage sites were predicted in mPEPT1 [302] (**Appendix Fig. IV-B**). Densitometric quantification of mPEPT1 protein levels after treatment with proteinase K revealed the potency of *N*-linked glycans to protect mPEPT1 from proteolytic cleavage (**Fig. 32B**). With only 33% protein loss over 6 min, the wild-type transporter displayed a high stability against proteinase K, while the non-glycosylated PEPT1 variant was degraded to 95%.

Intermediate values were found for N50Q lacking five sequons (-15% protein after 6 min) and for the N406Q/N439Q/N510Q/N515Q/N532Q transporter (60% reduced protein levels after 6 min). Injection of the N-glycosylation inhibitor tunicamycin significantly increased the sensitivity of the mPEPT1 wild-type protein towards proteinase K cleavage, accompanied by an almost complete protein breakdown within 2 min of incubation.

3. Discussion

3.1. Effects of diet, sex, and mouse genetics on the intestinal PEPT1 expression

Wuensch *et al.* [164] reported from a systematic assessment of PEPT1 expression in small intestine and colon of mice (C57BL/6N; *Pept1*^{-/-}) that the molecular mass of mPEPT1 differs between individual bowel segments. While PEPT1 usually exhibits an apparent molecular mass of about ~95 kDa in small intestine, its mass increased in colon to ~105 kDa, likely as a result of tissue-specific differences in glycosylation.

In the present work, this was re-examined in view to PEPT1 molecular mass variations and expression patterns along individual gut sections in mice of different genetic background, gender, age, feeding or housing conditions. Immunolocalization studies revealed uniformly PEPT1 expression in the apical membrane of enterocytes within small intestine (duodenum, jejunum, ileum) and colon of PEPT1+/+ mice, while PEPT1-/- deficient mice exhibited no PEPT1 expression. The densitometric quantification of PEPT1 in male, 8 week old C57BL/6N mice showed highest transporter densities in the jejunum and ileum and significantly lower levels within duodenum and colon. These findings are largely consistent with the results from Wuensch *et al.* [164], demonstrating highest PEPT1 transcript and protein levels for duodenum > jejunum > ileum and only marginal expression for distal colon of C57BL/6 mice. In a similar study performed by Jappar *et al.* [162] that assessed the relationship between intestinal PEPT1 expression and transport activity, the highest PEPT1 mRNA transcript and protein levels were detected in the jejunum, ileum and duodenum of wild-type mice. Negligibly PEPT1 expression was observed in the distal colon, with complete absence in the proximal colon. It also appeared that the transport rate followed the expression level.

For PEPT1 expression in colon, controversial findings have been reported and this may be related to some developmental regulation of expression [138, 181]. Shen *et al.* [181] showed that PEPT1 was detectable in the colon of rats only during the first week of life (day 1 to 5). In the studies described here, PEPT1 could be unequivocally detected in colon of mice, regardless of the sex of the animal, genetic background or age. In this respect, it should be noted that colon was considered as a whole and no further differentiation in proximal and distal segments was made. However, our previous investigations had already confirmed that PEPT1 is expressed and localized in the distal colon and rectum also of rats as well as in human samples [164]. Quantification of PEPT1 protein levels within murine intestine of two-month-old mice with different genetic background (C57BL/6N, C57BL/6J, PEPT1+/+, 129Sv/S6, A/J, AKR/J) showed uniformly highest transporter abundance in the jejunum, following in descending order by ileum, duodenum, and colon. It was noteworthy that the PEPT1 expression did not significantly differ within individual gut segments between the different

mouse strains analyzed, nor was a gender or diet effect observed. A sexual dimorphism in the peptide absorption capacity has been reported in birds. In female low weight White Plymouth Rock chicken, intestinal PEPT1 expression appeared at day of hatch compared to males with expression seven days post hatch [303, 304]. Female birds are metabolically more active and assumed to prepare earlier for reproduction, resulting in an earlier PEPT1 expression peak [305]. Beyond, PEPT1 transport levels in chicken are influenced by several factors, inter alia the genetics, age and sex.

Although present study may have missed to detect any developmental differences between male and female mice, the findings match with those of Lu and Klaasen [306] and also do not provide evidence of gender differences in the PEPT1 mRNA tissue distribution between male and female C57BI/6 mice or Sprague-Dawley rats at an age of 8 weeks.

There is evidence that the nutritional status and diet may affect intestinal levels of PEPT1. A diet rich in protein (50% casein) was found to increase the PEPT1 mRNA abundance and the transport activity in rats [241]. According to a study by Hindlet et al. [307], 4 week feeding of male wild type C57BL/6J mice with a high fat diet (5320 kcal/kg containing 36% lard fat) reduced the mPEPT1 mRNA levels by 50% and the protein levels by 30% in jejunum. This was closely related to the secretion of leptin hormone from the gastric mucosa into the gut lumen. It became clear that low circulating levels of leptin temporary promote PEPT1 trafficking from a cytoplasmic pool to the plasma membrane of enterocytes, followed by subsequent activation of PEPT1 mRNA expression [308]. Conversely, high levels of leptin, as commonly found in high fat diet-induced obesity mouse models, have been demonstrated to decrease PEPT1 activity and transporter expression [307].

AKR/J and C57BL/6J are inbred strains susceptible to develop diet-induced obesity. According to a study by Rossmeisl et al. [309], AKR mice fed for 8 weeks a high fat diet developed a markedly increased insulin resistance associated with significantly increased plasma insulin levels and triglyceride accumulation in non-adipose tissues, comparable to the prediabetic phase in type 2 diabetes in humans. It has been known for some time that insulin not only regulates blood glucose levels, but also affects the expression and regulation of PEPT1 in a gender-dependent manner [310, 311]. Low systemic insulin concentrations have been shown to lower the protein levels of PEPT1 in male rats [310]. Physiologic plasma insulin levels have been reported to stimulate PEPT1 trafficking from a preformed cytoplasmic pool into the brush border membrane without affecting PEPT1 gene expression in Caco-2 cells [312].

The studies presented here did not provide evidence of any dietary effects, such as of a high fat diet on PEPT1 expression in the intestine of AKR/J mice, which could be the result of an antagonistic interaction between the insulin and leptin signaling. In agreement with the former study by Wuensch et al. [164] conducted in germfree C57BL/6N mice (12 weeks of age), the absence of a commensal microbiota in the gut did not affect the intestinal PEPT1 expression when compared to conventionally raised littermates. Germfree animals also consistently revealed a protein mass of approximately ~95 kDa in small bowel sections, while colonic PEPT1 appeared with a mass of ~105 kDa. This region-specific PEPT1 mass difference appeared to be highly conserved among genetically distinct mouse inbred strains and was recognized as being independent of the sex, age, diet or housing condition.

3.2. Intestinal PEPT1 mass variation - a result of aberrant protein glycosylation

In silico prediction of potential mPEPT1 post-translational modification sites, based on selective screening for GPI anchoring- as well as C-, O-, N-glycosylation motifs, provided evidence that *O*- and *N*-glycosylation contribute to observed intestinal PEPT1 mass variations. Murine PEPT1 protein sequence analysis for serine- and threonine-rich tandem repeats using the NetOGlyc platform scored two hits for mucin-type O-glycosites for residues S699 and S700 (prediction scores 0.71 and 0.78). Due to their close proximity to the C-terminus of mPEPT1, these putative GalNAc-O-S binding sites are most likely directed towards the cell cytoplasm and are therefore probably not glycosylated. The NetNGlyc server provided a total of 35 matches, with eight asparagine residues (N50, N112, N354, N406, N439, N510, N515, N532) positioned within an N-x-S/T consensus motif.

The experimental validation of in silico prediction results by immunostaining revealed in all cases that mPEPT1 can traffic proper into the plasma membrane of oocytes when expressed heterologously in the presence of selective N- and O-glycosylation inhibitors. The Western blot analysis also revealed a significant reduction of ~35 kDa in the apparent mPEPT1 mass of ~95 kDa after tunicamycin co-injection. In contrast, benzyl-α-GalNac did not affect the mPEPT1 mass. These findings imply that mPEPT1 is highly N-glycosylated (at least in the X. laevis oocyte expression system). Based on a predicted non-glycosylated core protein mass of 78.56 kDa for mPEPT1 (UniProtKB ACNO: Q9JIP7), it can be assumed that at least ~16 kDa of the transporters mass in oocytes consist of covalently attached N-glycans.

Oocytes from X. laevis frogs are widely used as a heterologous expression system to study and characterize transport systems and receptors of mammalian origin, bacteria, yeasts or plants [313, 314, 315, 316, 131]. A major advantage of oocytes is their ability to perform a variety of post-translational protein modifications comparable to those of mammals [317]. So far, there is little evidence of the existence of glycosylation differences between ectothermic (e.g. African claw frogs) and endothermic organisms. However, there are reports that the N-linked oligosaccharide structures of an oligomeric rat prostatic binding protein (PBP) differ when expressed in rats or oocytes [317]. Mous et al. found that the polypeptide chain C₃ of PBP in oocytes contains beside N-acetylglucosamine and mannose rather glucose, galactose and fucose residues. Parallels were also described for rat immunoglobulins synthesized in oocytes [318]. Similar to PBP, an incorporation of L-fucose in heavy-chain antibodies was observed.

To detect possible N-glycosylation differences among species, enzymatic deglycosylation studies were simultaneously performed with protein extracts prepared from mouse intestine and oocytes heterologously expressing the mPEPT1 wild-type transporter. It turned out that the mass of mPEPT1, in its denaturated state, was virtually identical between murine small intestine and oocytes (~95 kDa). PNGaseF treatment to release N-linked oligosaccharides of a high mannose, hybrid and complex type from the glycoprotein, reduced the mPEPT1 mass in jejunum and oocytes equally from ~95 kDa, respectively ~105 kDa in colon, to ~65 kDa. This implies that the non-glycosylated mPEPT1 protein mass is about ~65 kDa. EndoH, which cleaves the chitobiose core of high mannose and some hybrid oligosaccharides of N-linked glycoproteins, did not visibly alter the PEPT1 protein mass in intestinal extracts. In contrast, a slightly lower PEPT1 protein mass of ~-10 kDa emerged in oocytes. A release of N-acetyl-neuraminic acids by neuraminidase, used in combination with EndoH to improve EndoH accessibility, did neither in mouse intestine nor in oocytes evoke a further mPEPT1 mass change. These findings suggest that the types of N-linked glycans attached to mPEPT1 may differ qualitatively between species, but that the amount of glycans carried by PEPT1 is similar.

3.3. Similarities, differences and possible causes for divergent PEPT1 glycosylation

Overall, the results of present study indicate the existence of an inter-species variation in mPEPT1 glycosylation. PEPT1 expressed in mouse intestine most likely carries oligosaccharides of a predominantly complex type. In contrast, mPEPT1 expressed in oocytes comprises either exclusively high-mannose or hybrid type glycans or a heterogeneous combination of both. With respect to intra-species variations in the PEPT1 mass, N-glycanase treatment of intestinal protein extracts equally reduced the transporters mass to ~65 kDa irrespective of the gut segment probed. This confirmed initial assumption that the PEPT1 mass difference between small and large intestine of mouse originates from differential protein glycosylation, rather than being the result of an alternative pre-mRNA splicing.

Although it is rather rare to observe, it is not uncommon for a glycoprotein to exist in different glycoforms under physiological conditions [319]. Within the SLC transporter family, tissue specific glycosylation differences were also reported for the neutral amino acid transporter B⁰AT1 (SLC6A19). In Western blot analysis, B⁰AT1 was detected in brush border membrane vesicles of mouse kidney with an apparent molecular weight of about ~60 kDa, while in the intestine a migration to ~65 kDa was detected [320]. In addition, the ammonia transporter RhBG was found to exhibit distinct mass differences between stomach, kidney, liver and individual gut segments in C57BL/6 mice [321, 322, 323]. Similar to intestinal mPEPT1, RhBG of rat kidney appears to be expressed in varying glycoforms within different regions of the same organ [324]. In renal cortex, the molecular weight of RhBG appears higher (~53 kDa) than in the inner or outer medulla (both around ~50 kDa). The issue thus arises of identifying which factors particularly affect protein glycosylation.

A possible explanation of the variation of the intestinal PEPT1 glycosylation pattern may result from changes in the N-glycosylation site occupancy. Estimates suggest that only ~70% of N-x-S/T sequons in proteins are actually glycosylated, while remaining sequons serve as variable sites or remain unglycosylated [325, 326, 327, 328]. In this context, there is evidence from kinetic and expression studies in yeasts and HeLa cells that the oligosaccharyltransferase enzyme complex (OST), especially its subunit STT3-A, is of significant importance for the sitespecific attachment of N-glycan structures in proteins [329, 330]. It has been shown that OST isoforms containing the STT3-A complex often tend to skip the glycosylation of N-x-S sequons in mammals [330]. When looking more closely at the STT3-A tissue specific mRNA expression levels in mouse (Gene Atlas MOE430, gcrma; probeset: 1450841_at), this subunit appears to be higher expressed in small intestine than in colon. It is therefore likely that the lower PEPT1 mass observed in proximal intestine of mice results from the skipping of single glycan acceptor sites by STT3_A.

Since glycans are synthesized in a coordinated manner by glycosyltransferases, glycosidases and other glycan processing enzymes, the cellular enzyme repertoire - as well as its activity significantly shape a proteins glycoprofile [331]. Experience shows that the presence of several glycan structures correlates with the expression level of individual glycosyltransferases involved in their biosynthesis [332]. It is also well known that intestinal glycosyltransferases are developmentally regulated, region-specific and susceptible to changes by the endogenous microbiome [333]. In vitro experiments have shown that different environmental factors can significantly alter the glycosylation pattern of a protein. In this context, for example, low glucose levels have been shown to reduce sequon occupancy in murine myeloma cells [334]. Even with poor cellular oxygen supply and at a low pH, changes in glycosyltransferase activities were observed [335, 336]. In view of the complexity of the digestive tract, the obvious differences in PEPT1 glycosylation appear to result from the interplay of several factors within this system. However, with an almost identical mass of PEPT1 in germfree and conventional raised mice, the microbiota appears to play only a minor role in modulating glycosyltransferase activities or in the degradation of glycoconjugates [337].

3.4. Naturally occurring PEPT1 glycoforms

Whether there exists one dominating or multiple PEPT1 glycoforms can in essence not be answered, because the majority of available data are from gene expression analysis and only very few studies provide data on the PEPT1 protein mass.

While in the present work a mPEPT1 mass of ~95 kDa was consistently found in small intestine, other studies report lower molecular weights of ~80 kDa, ~78 kDa, ~70 kDa [338, 339, 340]. These differences in relative mPEPT1 mobility are essentially attributable to divergent SDS-PAGE acrylamide concentrations used in individual analyses. Jejunal brush border membrane vesicles prepared from male Sprague-Dawley rats were shown to express PEPT1 with an apparent mass of ~90 kDa [338, 341, 342]. This corresponds to the findings on the mPEPT1 mass after retroviral transfection in ModeK cells, a non-carcinogenic small intestinal cell line derived from C3H mice [343, 344]. Interestingly, mPEPT1 expression in PTK6 cells [345], the colonic equivalent to ModeK cells, revealed a comparable PEPT1 mass shift to around ~100 kDa as observed in murine gut. Protein expression profiling in beagle dogs [346] disclosed in small intestine and liver a PEPT1 mass of ~78 kDa, and a slight mass increase in the colon. Retroviral transfection of hPEPT1 into mouse liver delivered a PEPT1 mass of ~100-110 kDa [347].

All efforts in the present work to identify the PEPT1 transporter mass in murine liver and kidney failed, likely because of the low transporter abundance in these tissues. However, Rubio-Aliaga et al. [348] previously reported a PEPT1 mass in murine kidney of about ~75 kDa and, more recently, Chan et al. [349] of ~78 kDa in human embryonic kidney cells HEK-293. In human pancreatic cancer cells, PEPT1 was detected in multiple glycoforms within the size range of 90 -120 kDa [350]. However, it should be noted that in a diseased state such as cancer, N-glycosylation of proteins is known to be dysregulated and often accompanied by enhanced N-glycan branching, sialylation and fucosylation [351]. As a result, tumor cells are generally of limited use to determine the glycosylation status of a protein in a normal cell. However, it was found that the protein mass of PEPT1 when expressed in the human colorectal carcinoma cell line Caco-2, which exhibits after differentiation characteristics of small intestinal cells [352], did not differ significantly from the small intestine of mice (data not show).

3.5. PEPT1 mass changes associated with the inhibition of *N*-glycosylation

To define the role of N-glycans for the PEPT1 transport activity, putative N-glycosylation sites were sequentially disrupted and the proteins examined by immunoblot analysis and the functional changes assessed by TEVC and tracer flux studies.

Murine PEPT1 carries eight putative N-glycosylation sites (N-x-S/T). Acceptor sites containing proline in center position (x) - which is known to block core glycosylation [353] - as well as sequons located in intracellular protein domains and motifs with a low N-glycosylation prediction score (< 0.3), were neglected. The six asparagine N50, N406, N439, N510, N515 and N532 of remaining sequons were exchanged for glutamine by virtue of its minimal structural variation.

Targeted disruption of N50, N406 and N439 was accompanied by a marked reduction of the mPEPT1 protein mass, whereas the mutations N510Q and N532Q did not significantly alter the transporters mass. It should not be concluded that the sequons around N510 and N532 are not N-glycosylated, since disruption of single sequons can trigger the glycan modification on other glycosites. As shown by Tanaka et al. [354] for the organic anion transporter OAT1, simultaneous replacement of asparagine residues in sequons can provoke an oligosaccharide transfer onto previous neglected downstream acceptor sites. There is also evidence from a study by Bulleid et al. [355] that the disruption of a single N-x-S/T site in the tissue-type plasminogen-activator serine protease evokes the glycosylation of a variable sequon. This is possibly caused by altered folding of the nascent polypeptide chain, resulting in a buried glycan acceptor site that becomes inaccessible to the action of the oligosaccharyltransferase. There are indications that N-x-T sequons are more likely N-glycosylated than N-x-S sequons [356, 62, 327]. A closer look at the consensus sequences around the asparagine's N510 and N532 shows that both sequons carry a threonine in the third position, which reinforces the assumption that both mPEPT1 glycosylation motifs actually carry an N-glycan.

Regarding the multiple mutants N50Q/N406Q/N439Q/N515Q/N532Q and N50Q/N406Q/N439Q/N510Q/N515Q/N532Q, respectively N406Q/N439Q/N515Q and N406Q/N439Q/N515Q/N532Q, a PEPT1 mass difference of ~3-10 kDa was found in the Western blot, which also indicates that both sequons N510 and N532 are N-glycosylated. Single disruption of glycosylation site N515 even caused an increase in the mPEPT1 mass. The observation that there exists a mass shift between mutant transporters N50Q/N406Q/N439Q/N515Q/N532Q N50Q/N406Q/N439Q/N510Q/N515Q/N532Q and suggests the presence of N-glycans at sequon N515. Based on the previous findings, it seems likely that due to the loss of the glycosylation motif N515, either sequon N532 or a variable-site is more glycosylated, resulting in an increase in the mPEPT1 mass. The removal of all six glycosylation sites (6N) resulted in a reduction of the protein mass by ~35 kDa. Furthermore, the sextuple mutant showed a marked change in its migration pattern, accompanied by an increased mobility and much sharper protein band, which is presumably due to altered detergent binding [357]. With respect to the sextuple mutant, the inhibition of PEPT1 glycosylation by tunicamycin caused an identical reduction in the protein mass in oocytes and thus coincided with the results from the treatment of murine intestinal brush border membrane extracts with PNGase F.

3.6. The importance of *N*-glycosylation for PEPT1 transport activity

Electrophysiology is frequently used to characterize rheogenic transporters [358, 359, 360]. Mutant mPEPT1 proteins lacking single or multiple glycosylation sites were found at similar expression levels in oocyte membranes, so that the proteins could also be studied on a functional level (Appendix Fig. I). Tunicamycin injection, which is known to induce endoplasmic reticulum stress via the intracellular accumulation of non-correctly folded proteins [361, 362], also did not affect the targeting of PEPT1 to the plasma membrane in oocytes.

As reported by Fei et al. [136], mPEPT1 mediated substrate transport in oocytes proved to be sensitive to the membrane potential, pH dependent and obeyed Michaelis-Menten-type kinetics. Comparable with human and rabbit PEPT1 [261], the inward currents generated by mPEPT1 at saturating Gly-Sar concentrations were voltage-dependent over a membrane potential range of 0 to -160 mV. Kinetic analysis of the mPEPT1 wild-type transporter delivered an apparent K_m of 0.66 \pm 0.12 mM for Gly-Sar (0.3-10 mM at pH 6.5, -60 mV) which corresponds quite well with a K_m of ~0.7 mM determined by Fei et al. [136] at pH 5.5 and -60 mV in oocytes. For hPEPT1, Michaelis-Menten constants in the range of K_m ~0.7-1.5 mM (-50 mV, pH 5-6) in oocytes [261, 288] and around 1.1 mM (at pH 6.0) in human extrahepatic cholangiocarcinoma SK-ChA-1 and Caco-2 cells [178, 180] were reported.

TEVC analysis of mPEPT1 and hPEPT1 N-glycosylation mutant transporters revealed distinct kinetic changes in Gly-Sar transport for all transporters lacking N-glycosylation site N50. This always resulted in a significant reduction in the Gly-Sar affinity, along with a simultaneous increase in the maximal transport velocity. For mutant transporters N532Q and N406Q/N439Q/N515Q/N532Q lower K_m values were found than in wild type, while the I_{max} remained unchanged. Conversely, the transporters N510Q, N406Q/N439Q/N515Q and N406Q/N439Q/N510Q/N515Q/N532Q exhibited increased Gly-Sar affinities, which was partly associated with an elevated Imax.

The reasons for these changes in transport kinetics remain a matter of speculation and might be related to variations in the N-glycosylation site occupancy or variable sequon glycosylation associated with the lack of single N-glycosites. Cognizant that N-glycans also direct protein folding, altered transport kinetics of individual N-glycosylation mutant transporters might also be linked to minor changes in the native protein structure as a consequence of impaired glycosylation.

That the gain of function (maximal transport rate) observed for N50 mutant transporters is a general phenomenon and not confined to Gly-Sar was proven with cefadroxil and tri-L-alanine as substrates. In accordance with Boll et al. [291], cefadroxil evoked inward currents in oocytes expressing individual mPEPT1 N-glycosylation deficient transporters appeared highly concentration- and voltage-dependent and followed saturation kinetics. Compared to an apparent affinity constant of 1.1 ± 0.3 mM (pH 6.5) proposed for cefadroxil in rbPEPT1 [291], the average K_m determined for the mPEPT1 wild-type transporter was with 1.64 ± 0.18 mM at pH 6.5 and -60 mV on a similar scale.

For tri-L-alanine, no electrophysiological data on PEPT1 transport kinetics are available. Based on in vitro radiotracer flux studies, tri-L-alanine was classified as high-affinity PEPT1 substrate/inhibitor (K_{m/i} < 0.5 mM) [178, 179, 235]. In accordance with these findings, a low concentration of ~2.5 mM tri-L-alanine (pH 6.5, -60 mV) was sufficient to saturate the transporter. In summary, a very similar trend in transport kinetics was observed for all substrates used.

Since the electrophysiology can only assess currents as a function of substrate load, this can lead to a misinterpretation in the examination of mutant proteins. High transport currents could easily represent a proton leak characterized by an undesired proton/charge flow through an alternate pathway. In the case of the mPEPT1 mutants, this could be excluded since tracer flux studies using Gly-Sar unequivocally revealed a very similar transport behavior with a reduction in substrate affinity and a significant increase in flux rate for N50Q mutants.

3.7. Characterization of PEPT1 N-glycosylation site N50

The exchange of asparagine N50 for glutamine or glycine resulted in a severe reduction in the mPEPT1 substrate affinity, along with a simultaneous increase in the maximal transport velocity and this was also found for the human protein. In mPEPT1, the residue N50 was additionally replaced by the charged amino acids lysine and glutamate, which lead to interesting pH-dependent changes in the apparent Gly-Sar binding affinity, while the I_{max} was less affected.

Further investigations showed that this effect is not species-specific, since the kinetic behavior of human PEPT1, comprising an identical N50Q exchange, was equivalent to murine PEPT1. This raised the question, whether these changes in transport kinetics could arise from the inserted mutation at the N50 position. For clarification, the mPEPT1 residue N50 was additionally replaced by the charged amino acids lysine and glutamate. Repeated TEVC measures revealed pH-dependent changes in the apparent Gly-Sar binding affinity for nearly all mutant PEPT1 transporters (N50Q, N50G, N50K, N50D), while the I_{max} turned out to be less sensitive to external pH modifications (pH 5.5 / pH 6.5 / pH 7.5).

This is consistent with [3H]-Gly-Sar uptake studies performed in Caco-2 cells by Irie et al. [218], demonstrating that a lowering of the extracellular pH from pH 7.5 to 5.5 gradually increased the transport activity and substrate affinity of the human peptide transporter 1. According to Kottra et al. [296], transport currents of electrogenic cotransporters are relatively insensitive to the external pH, but increase with an initial nonlinear behavior within the membrane potential range of 0 to -80 mV, followed by a linear rise in I_{max} between -80 and -160 mV. In a corresponding transport study conducted with rbPEPT2 by Chen et al. in oocytes [363], it was observed that transport currents evoked by the zwitterionic substrates Gly-Lys and Gly-Leu do not longer obey the Michaelis-Menten relationship following hyperpolarization at a pH lower than 6.5. In current investigation, this did not apply for the substrate Gly-Sar, which is to 91% neutral within the pH range of 5.0-7.4 [218]. According to Kottra and Daniel [296], rbPEPT1 binding affinities in oocytes exhibit a pronounced dependence on the external pH, increase with hyperpolarization and become independent of the membrane potential at pH 5.5. With regard to the normalized maximal inward currents determined for the mPEPT1 wild type and individual N50 mutant carriers (N50Q, N50G, N50K, N50D), there is also evidence for a pH insensitivity of I_{max}, whereas a strong dependence of I_{max} on the membrane potential emerged.

Previous studies have demonstrated that PEPT1 can operate in a bidirectional mode and mediates even proton-coupled export of peptides at proper membrane voltage conditions [296, 360, 365, 366]. Injection of the hydrolysis resistant substrate Gly-Sar into oocytes expressing rabbit PEPT1 to an intracellular Gly-Sar concentration of 22 mM was found to generate outward currents of 463 ± 43 nA at +60 mV and pH 7.5, while superfusion of oocytes with 20 mM Gly-Sar evoked inward currents of 487 ± 43 nA at -60 mV and pH 7.5 [360]. This implies that the bidirectional transport of PEPT1 is symmetric in absence of a nominal pH gradient and that the transport direction is exclusively determined by the membrane potential and the asymmetry of substrate affinities on both sites [294].

For mPEPT1 wild type and mutant transporter N50Q, inward current recordings in the presence of 40 mM Gly-Sar (-60 mV, pH 7.5) were on average 70-80% higher than corresponding outward currents registered at +60 mV. This could derive from asymmetric binding affinities for inward and reverse transport directions. K_m-values calculated for mPEPT1 in presence of saturating Gly-Sar concentrations in the current study showed similar differences as previously described for rabbit PEPT1 [296]. In mPEPT1 wild-type transporters, the cytosolic Gly-Sar affinity was almost 26-fold lower, or rather five-fold in the mPEPT1 mutant transporter N50Q, compared to the corresponding substrate binding affinity for the inward mode.

Similar asymmetric binding affinities have also been reported for a variety of other transporters, including the glycine transporter GLYT1, the GABA-transporter GAT1 and the Na⁺-glucose cotransporter SGLT1 [367, 368, 369]. A lower substrate binding affinity in PEPT1 on the cytosolic side is particularly important for the release of the substrate from the protein following translocation across the plasma membrane [360]. The re-orientation of the empty PEPT1 carrier, driven by re-protonation from the cell exterior, is considered as the rate-limiting step

in the PEPT1 transport cycle [364, 370, 288]. It has been speculated that PEPT1 substrate binding pockets accommodating the amino and carboxy-termini of substrates are asymmetric [371, 365]. It is quite conceivable that an inhibition of N-glycosylation at sequon N50 causes a conformational change within the PEPT1 substrate-binding pocket, which affects the affinity in both transport directions.

However, the major elevation in maximal transport rate and transport currents in N50 mutants is hard to explain. It could be excluded that these changes originate from an additional ion conductance and that the protein densities in oocyte membranes are different. Cell-surface biotinylation experiments in combination with electrophysiological capacitance measurements revealed no significant differences in the plasma-membrane expression levels between mPEPT1 wild type and N-glycosylation mutant transporters in oocytes. This all corroborates that N50 mutant proteins indeed have a higher transport capacity, which was also observed for the N50Q transporter when transfected in ModeK and PTK6 cells.

3.8. Towards a mechanistic understanding of PEPT1 glycosylation at sequon N50

One of the key questions is whether the kinetic changes in the N50 mutant transporters are directly linked to a lack of N-glycans on the surface of PEPT1. There are some reasons for caution when interpreting the outcome of present studies, as there are indications that exofacial loops with a size lower than 30 residues are inefficiently or often not at all glycosylated [372]. Moreover, it has been shown that sequons located < 14 residues from a TMD are not used by the oligosaccharyltransferase in vertebrates [373].

Regarding the mPEPT1 N-glycosylation site N50, the extracellular domain between TMD1 and 2 comprises 32 residues, while the distance of sequon N50 from TMD2 is only 1-3 amino acids with respect to the predicted mPEPT1 topology model. However, there are also arguments suggesting that the sequon around mPEPT1 N50 is actually glycosylated. Glycosylation sites located in the first loop of a transmembrane protein are most efficiently glycosylated, while non-glycosylated sites are frequently positioned toward the C-terminus [372]. In addition, glycosylated sequons are considered to be of higher preservation than non-glycosylated sites. On closer inspection of the mPEPT1 sequons N50, N406, N439, N510, N515 and N532, a high degree of conservation over species can be observed (Appendix Fig. III).

Comparison of protein sequences from fifty different vertebrates showed that the sequens N50 and N439, with 58-60% percent, are most strongly conserved. While N50 is predominantly found in mammals, birds and reptiles, N439 is mainly preserved in mammals. With a conservation of 44-46% and 30% co-occurrence, sequons N510 and N515 are strongly represented in mammals. The sequons N406 and N532 showed a smaller prevalence of while no effect was observed for N439.

10-20% in mammals. In light of these findings, it appears that some glycosylation sites are much more conserved than others, which implies that some sequons may be of greater importance. Although the protein sequence alignment showed that N50 and N439 are positioned in the two most conserved glycosylation motifs, the studies clearly demonstrated that only removal of the N-glycosylation site N50 significantly altered PEPT1 transport kinetics,

An in silico comparative homology modeling approach based on data from prokaryotic SLC15 members [153, 240] suggests the presence of a small extracellular cavity adjacent to N50 formed by the arrangement of the six N- and C-terminal helical bundles. Docking of a two-antennary complex carbohydrate structure to PEPT1 binding site N50 revealed no steric clashes and assumes that this sequon is in a highly accessible region (Appendix Fig. VI). Residue N50 was also replaced by cysteine, which is known to covalently react with MTSEA-biotin in dependence of its extracellular accessibility [374]. The main goal was to create an "artificial glycan" by attaching an MTSEA-biotin to the introduced cysteine residue. To increase the specificity of biotin binding to N50C, all naturally occurring and predicted mPEPT1 surface exposed cysteine residues were replaced by serine. However, this drastically changed the functional characteristics of the transporter. Based on in silico disulfide bond predictions (Appendix Table IV-A), mPEPT1 residues C25, C197 and C566 are likely to form a covalent bond with the cysteines C9, C89, C540. Assuming that the cysteine residues C9 and C89 are located in TMDs 1 and 3, and C566 within the large extracellular loop domain connecting TMD 9 and 10, the observed changes in mPEPT1 transport kinetics appear to be an effect of the inserted mutation. According to the SIFT algorithm, which predicts the effects of a missense mutation on protein function, serine is not tolerated at amino acid positions 25 and 197 and could sterically affect the mPEPT1 protein conformation (Appendix Table IV-B). The significant alteration in mPEPT1 transport function observed in the cysteine-deficient transporters would confirm this approach, while an additional N50C exchange or MTSEA-biotin labeling did not cause any further changes.

The electrophysiological characterization of MTSEA-biotin treated oocytes expressing this N50C mutant showed a significant gain in Gly-Sar affinity at -60 mV, with simultaneous decrease of I_{max} in dependence of the MTSEA-biotin mass, respectively the length of the MTSEA-biotin spacer arm attached (Appendix Fig. VII). In contrast, MTSEA-biotin labeling of mPEPT1 wild type and mutant transporter N50Q only modestly altered the kinetic parameters. Thus, its seems quite conceivable that the presence of an additional extracellular mass at sequon N50, such as an MTSEA-biotin or an N-linked glycan (determined in immunoblots with a mass of 1-5 kDa), mitigates the mPEPT1 transport cycle.

Another protein, for which a similar glycan-mediated effect with direct influence on its biological activity was shown, is bovine pancreatic ribonuclease [375]. This enzyme, which catalyzes the hydrolysis of 3'-, 5'-phosphodiester bonds of ribonucleic acids [376], occurs in a mixture of a non-glycosylated form called RNAse A and various glycoforms, collectively referred to as RNAse B. In RNAseB, the single glycosylation site (N34) is modified by oligomannose type N-glycans consisting of two units of N-acetylglucosamine and 5-9 mannose residues. Treatment of RNAse B with exoglycosidase allows the generation of protein glycoforms with fewer mannose residues, which are an ideal tool for investigating the relationship of glycosylation to activity [375]. Rudd and co-workers showed that the hydrolytic activity of RNAse A exceeds that of RNAse B by more than threefold [375]. It was also found that the enzymatic activity of RNAse B decreased continuously as the mannose content and glycan mass increased [375, 377].

Based on the structures of bacterial PEPT1 homologues, the sequon around N50 is placed between TMD 1 and 2, just above the membrane projecting into the extracellular space. Glycans attached to N50 would thus be in close proximity to the membrane surface, and this may limit necessary movements of amino-terminal TMDs in the PEPT1 transport cycle. The removal of the glycans could thus increase the mobility of the protein and significantly enhance the substrate turnover rate. It is known that membrane domains 1 and 2 contribute to the substrate binding and translocation pore and therefore changes in substrate affinity, as shown for all N50 variants, are not unexpected. This is consistent with the finding that extracellular substrate affinities in all mPEPT1 mutant transporters with a loss of N50 glycosylation were decreased, which could mean that the rates of substrate binding and the release from the central binding pocket are much faster.

It is a quite rare finding that the elimination of N-glycosylation sites increases the intrinsic activity of proteins such as transporters or enzymes. In most cases, glycoprotein deglycosylation leads to a markedly reduced activity, stability or altered protein binding. Examples, where deglycosylation resulted in an increased protein activity, include the lecithincholesterol acetyltransferase (LCAT). It was shown that the enzyme activity of LCAT, which catalyzes the formation of cholesteryl ester from cholesterol and contains a total of four putative N-glycosylation sites (N20, N84, N272, N384) [379], doubled, when glycosylation of seguon N384 was prevented by mutagenesis [380]. Another example where the removal of a single glycan led to a significant change in the activity of an enzyme is the endothelial lipase (EL). Human endothelial lipase, which is involved in lipoprotein metabolism [381, 382], has been shown to contain four glycosylation sites (N62, N118, N375, 473) occupied by complex type N-glycans [383, 384]. Preventing N-glycosylation at N62 markedly increased the phospholipase activity in reconstituted HDL particles. This increase was sixfold for apolipoprotein E and 24-fold for apolipoprotein A-1 containing HDL particles. Based on comparative protein structure analyses, the particular glycosylation sites N118 of LCAT and

N62 of EL were found in immediate vicinity of the enzyme's catalytic domain [385]. Therefore, it is believed that single N-glycans may hinder the access of the substrate to the active site of the enzyme by steric hindrance, which could also be valid for mPEPT1 N-glycans attached to sequon N50.

3.9. Biological importance of PEPT1 glycosylation

As the present work shows, the majority of N-linked glycans in mPEPT1 are located within the large extracellular domain connecting TMD9 and 10 (ECD₉₋₁₀) and comprise a total mass of ~30-35 kDa, but apparently have no significance for PEPT1 function. This is per se not surprising, as a recent study by Beale et al. [242] confirmed that the large extracellular loop does not play a role for transport, since all eukaryotic proteins of the SLC15 family lack this loop but have similar characteristics as the mammalian proteins. Recent studies with the crystallization of the large loop by expression in Escherichia coli [242] suggests the structural arrangement of the ECD₉₋₁₀ in two immunoglobulin-like folds, stabilized by two conserved salt bridge interactions (N574-K398, N476-R490).

It is well known that N-glycans have strong influence on a proteins conformation by forming hydrophobic interactions or hydrogen bonds with the polypeptide backbone and thus increase the proteolytic resistance of a protein [386]. A model glycoprotein that has been extensively studied with respect to the stabilizing effects of glycosylation towards self-degradation and proteolysis by external proteases is subtilisin. The glycoconjugation of subtilisin, a serineendopeptidase from Bacillus lentus [387, 388], was shown to significantly increase the proteins stability against autoproteolysis and resistance to proteolytic attack by other proteases such as pepsin [389]. There is some evidence from Yamaguchi et al. [390] that free complex and high mannose type glycans can bind with high-affinity to solvent-exposed aromatic amino acid residues on proteases and thus can sterically hinder enzyme binding. In the case of bovine pancreatic RNAse A and α-lactalbumin, it was observed that the presence of free N-glycans significantly reduced the proteolytic activities of trypsin and chymotrypsin [391].

In assessing whether N-linked glycans in mPEPT1 could also play a critical role in protecting the protein backbone from proteolysis, oocyte membranes containing various protein mutants were subjected to proteolysis using proteinase K. This clearly showed that the glycans confer an increased stability towards proteinase K cleavage. In contrast to the mPEPT1 wild type, which was completely resistant to proteinase K digestion, the partially glycosylated mPEPT1 variants were significantly more susceptible to proteolysis. The majority of the predicted proteinase K cleavage sites (n = 95) were found within the large loop ECD₉₋₁₀, which also hosts most N-glycosites (Appendix Fig. IV-B). It is therefore not surprising that proteolytic resistance of mPEPT1 decreases rapidly in the absence of these "loop" protective N-glycans when

exposed to proteinase K. Regardless of the mPEPT1 N-glycosylation state, no apparent differences in the susceptibility of the transporter to trypsin cleavage were observed. 40% of the predicted trypsin cleavage sites were found for extracellular domains with the majority of them (~30%) located in the large loop. Referring to the peptide-sequence database DBToolkit, the trypsin cleavage of human proteins usually produces an average of 61 peptides per protein, which corresponds roughly to the in silico trypsin digestion data predicted for mPEPT1 [392, 393]. The low overall rate of mPEPT1 trypsinolysis is not due to trypsin autolysis since trypsin was stabilized in all experiments by the addition of calcium. It is therefore more likely that under moderate denaturing conditions, a high proportion of arginine and lysine cleavage sites in mPEPT1 are either missed or inaccessible to trypsin. The rapid degradation of about 40% of the PEPT1 transporter during the first minute of trypsin exposure may originate from different orientations of membranes containing the mPEPT1 proteins. PEPT1 transporters sealed in closed inside-out vesicles or open lamellar membrane fractions may be more prone to tryptic cleavage when proteases have access to cytosolic protein domains. PEPT1 protein located in right-side-out vesicles, which are believed to constitute about 60%, appears much better protected from proteolysis.

Unfortunately, all attempts to obtain a pure mPEPT1 protein isolate for a detailed glycan analysis were unsuccessful. Nonetheless, N-glycan profiling, combined with a cluster analysis of mouse intestinal tissue samples, showed a region-specific pattern of intestinal mPEPT1 N-glycosylation dominated by high concentrations of complex N-glycans in small intestine and high mannose type glycans in colon. This is in contrast to the region-specific glycosylation pattern observed for mPEPT1, whereby a more complex protein glycosylation in colon is assumed.

On the basis of current knowledge, the region-specific glycosylation in the intestine is so far unique for PEPT1, as other transporters in mice, inter alia SGLT1, GLUT1, NHE3 and DRA, showed no evidence of a variation in the protein mass in the intestine. This raises the question of whether the differences in intestinal PEPT1 glycosylation may be associated with a different role that the N-glycans might play in individual gut segments. When comparing the mPEPT1 mass in small intestine and colon, it becomes obvious that the PEPT1 glycosylation increases parallel to the thickness of the intestinal mucus layer. The murine small intestine is covered by a single ~20-30 µm loose, viscoelastic and penetrable mucus layer formed by heavily O-glycosylated mucins, in contrast to a two-layered (~150-200 µm) up to ~50 µm thick physically impenetrable inner mucus coat in colon [394].

The results obtained indicate that the large loop in PEPT1 becomes more N-glycosylated in the colon and that this extracellular domain - which is not required for transport has a function, which has not yet been identified. It is not clear whether the loop, with an extended mass of approximately ~35 kDa through the glycans, projects into the stratified inner mucus layer in the large intestine. The ability of N-glycans to modulate receptor-activation, -function and regulate signal transduction is well-known [66]. It could be speculated that mPEPT1 with its carbohydrate residues serves as a receptor for microorganisms or viruses or other hitherto unknown ligands.

3.10. The intestinal N-glycome in mice

The intestinal glycome is notably shaped by external environmental and nutritional factors and is highly susceptible to genetic, physiological and pathophysiological modifications [395]. In recent years, glycoprofiling emerged as an important tool for the identification of glycan biomarkers for diseases such as cancer, diabetes, cardiovascular-, congenital-, immunological-, and infectious-disorders [396]. Despite considerable progress in structural glycomics, there is little information on the N-glycoprofile of the gastrointestinal tract, while the mucosal O-glycosylation is relatively well-understood [47]. The specific knowledge of the intestinal N-glycosylation is currently limited to a few membrane proteins including the Cl⁻/HCO₃⁻ exchanger SLC26A3 [397], the Na⁺/H⁺ exchanger NHE-3 [398], the proton-coupled amino acid transporter 1 (PAT1) [399], the Na⁺-dependent glucose transporter 1 (SGLT1) [400], the sodium-dependent vitamin C transporters (hSVCT1 and hSVCT2) [401], the chloride channel CFTR [402] and the NOX1/NADPH oxidase [403].

N-glycans identified in the intestine of mice in the current study all showed a region-specific pattern characterized by a more intense N-glycosylation in small intestine and reduced glycan levels in colon. This finding is consistent with the published data from the Consortium for Functional Glycomics (CFG), which also detected high-mass N-glycans over a mass range of 3250 m/z to 5000 m/z by MALDI-MS analysis in small intestine and a N-glycan mass-to-charge ratio of 1500 to 3250 m/z in the colon of C57/BL6 mice. The intestinal N-glycome, however, appeared to be subject to many variables. For instance, glycan structures present on glycoproteins or mucins are determined by the repertoire and activity of various glycosyltransferases. It is known that glycosyltransferases exhibit tissue- and cell-specific expression profiles and that their activity is strongly dependent on the availability of nucleotide activated sugars as the donor substrates for protein glycosylation [404]. In that respect, it was also noted that intestinal glycosylation of mucin depends on the interplay between genetics (enzyme polymorphisms), endogenous (e.g. hormones) and extrinsic factors, such as the diet or microbiota [405]. In a representative study from Lin et al. [406], an increase in α_{1,2}-fucosyltransferase expression and activity in duodenal microvilli after oral feces administration in germfree mice was shown. It emerged that the $\alpha_{1,2}$ -fucosyltransferase activity is site-specifically upregulated upon contact with indigenous bacteria or after inoculation of Bacteroides thetaiotaomicron.

In the present study, an increased level of hybrid type N-glycans was detected in small intestine (15%) and colon (25%) of germfree mice compared to a colonized control group (hybrid type N-glycans in small intestine: 6% versus colon: 5%). This may also be the result of a lacking degradation of host glycans by the gut microbiota.

An immunofluorescence approach by Freitas et al. [407], however, showed that germfree mice possess most of the glycosyltransferases required for intestinal protein glycosylation as mice with a complex gut microbiota, although large differences in the glycosylation pattern exist between germfree (GF) and conventional raised mice (CV). It was found that the glycan structures GlcNAcβ(1,4), Fucα(1,2)Galβ1 and 4GlcNAc differ quantitatively and qualitatively within the intestine of GF and CV mice [407]. Also a higher NeuAcα(2,3)Gal-sialidase expression was detected in colonocytes of GF mice [408]. This was accompanied by a change in the localization and trafficking of glycan bearing structures in columnar cellular compartments in colonized GF mice [407]. Therefore, it seems highly probable that individual glycosyltransferases are partially inactivated in CV mice and get reactivated in presence of bacterial-derived signals from the lumen.

And as shown herein, dietary factors also affect the intestinal N-glycome. Of all the experimental groups, mice raised in an open facility exhibited the highest diversity in small intestinal complex N-glycan species, while an inverse relationship was found for colon. This may reflect a higher bacterial abundance and diversity in non-SPF mice [409] and a better adaptation to the degradation of mucin glycoproteins and the intestinal epithelial glycocalyx. According to Gupta et al. [410], mice fed for 21 days with a high protein diet (30%) exhibited significantly reduced sialic acid and total hexose levels in the brush border membrane of enterocytes. Negatively charged polysialic acids are well known to contribute to the formation of a protective electrostatic shield with anti-adhesive properties over epithelial cells and protect glycoproteins from proteolytic degradation by bacteria [411]. At present, it is not clear which factors lead to an increased N-glycan diversity in the small intestine of non-SPF mice. It may simply be an effect initiated by bacteria or via fermentation due to the activation of glycosyltransferases by butyrate [412]. As the current studies showed, animals fed a high fat diet had significantly higher levels of high mannose type glycans in colon than their corresponding control group on a chemical defined diet.

A number of studies suggest that a change in microbial communities after a high fat intake could be responsible for observed intestinal glycome variations in rodents [413, 414]. 16S rDNA profiling and metagenomic analysis of stool samples from mice fed a high fat diet consistently showed a decrease in intestinal bacterial populations of the phylum Bacteroidetes and a significant increase in members of the phyla Firmicutes and Proteobacteria [415, 416]. De Wit et al. [417] reported that a diet rich in saturated fatty acids, such as from palm oil,

promotes Firmicutes in the microbiome, which comprises at least 250 genera with the capacity to convert indigestible dietary polysaccharides to short-chain fatty acids. Although the Firmicutes enterotype encodes fewer carbohydrate-cleaving enzymes than Bacteroidetes, individual Firmicutes spp. express high levels of ABC transport systems for the uptake of di- and oligosaccharides [418]. There are reports that a high fat diet can promote goblet cell depletion, thereby lowering the intestinal mucus production and thickness in rodents [419, 420]. It thus seems that a decreased availability of dietary polysaccharides under a high fat diet, in combination with effects on the outer mucus layer, may result in an enhanced bacterial degradation of host N-glycans to ensure an adequate nutrient supply to enteric bacteria. It may be speculative, but an enhanced proteolytic breakdown of complex-type host glycans under a high fat diet in colon could be responsible for the N-glycome shift towards high mannose type *N*-glycans.

However, for the oligosaccharides in the glycocalyx and this the glycans in PEPT1 - predominantly in its large loop - no experimental evidence was found that the microbiota shapes the glycans by removing sugar residues from the membrane glycoprotein. This is best explained by the fact that the inner mucus layer, which in essence is sterile [421], protects the glycoproteins from bacterial attack. However, it is to be noted that proteases are capable of penetrating the glycocalyx, and therefore glycan structures as protective shields can provide only limited protection against the inactivation of proteins by hydrolysis.

3.11. Conclusion and future perspective

The carbohydrate side chains of glycoproteins have tissue-, organ-, and species-specific structures, which arise from differences in the glycosylation machinery of individual cells. However, the presence of distinct protein glycoforms within the same organ, as it was found for mPEPT1 between individual gut sections in mice, is extremely rare. This of course raises the question of whether this heterogeneity in mPEPT1 glycosylation is of biological importance. Through systematic analysis of glycan-deficient mutants of the intestinal peptide transporter, this study provided unprecedented insights into the physiological relevance of *N*-glycosylation of the protein. The totality of data obtained in this study show that elimination of individual N-glycosylation sites within mPEPT1 sequons N406, N439, N510, N515Q, N532 did not alter either the membrane expression nor the overall transport kinetics of the proteins.

However, site-directed mutagenesis of asparagine N50 into glutamine resulted in a twofold reduced substrate affinity and a 2.5-fold increased maximal bidirectional mPEPT1 transport capacity for Gly-Sar. As suggested by additional studies, this is probably due to the removal of "extra weight" of the glycan located in the first extracellular transmembrane domain that needs to be moved during a conformational change in the transport cycle. It may also be that the conformational change of the protein is retarded by steric hindrance from the N-glycan

attached. What remains an interesting but unexplained finding is the different glycan mass of PEPT1, depending on whether the transporter is expressed in small intestine or in the distal colon. Unfortunately, all efforts to obtain a pure mPEPT1 isolate required for a structural glycan analysis were unsuccessful. Since protein glycosylation is dictated by the expression and activity of glycosyltransferases, the assessment of the glycosyltransferase repertoire of small intestinal enterocytes and colonocytes seems to be worthwhile. In particular, the *N*-acetyl-glucosaminyltransferases II to V and galactosyltransferase, which are the key enzymes in the synthesis of complex-type oligosaccharides in the intestine, are particularly interesting targets. Although mPEPT1 showed a remarkable intrinsic proteolytic stability against trypsin, it was shown that glycans provide protection against proteolysis by proteinase K. As for the large loop in PEPT1 – that hosts most glycans – an additional function, such as a receptor for viruses or other ligands is proposed. Whole cell-ligand binding assays may help to identify the corresponding interaction partner. Upon a successful crystallization of a mammalian PEPT1, the three-dimensional protein structure would provide the opportunity to identify potential ligands also by computational approaches.

4. Materials and Methods

4.1. Materials

4.1.1. Chemicals

Acetic acid, Rotipuran 100% (AA)

Acetonitrile (ACN)

Acrylamide; Rotiphorese® Gel 30 (37.5:1) Acrylamide 30% Rotiphorese® Gel A Agarose (Roti®garose) NEEO Ultra

Albumin fraction V (BSA) Ammoniumpersulfate (APS)

Anti-HA Affinity Matrix

Alpha-D-GalNAc-1 (O-glycosylation inhibitor)

Bisacrylamide 2% Rotiphorese® Gel B

Bromophenol Blue sodium salt

Calcium chloride

Calcium nitrate tetrahydrate

Cefadroxil

Chloracetamide (CAA) Citric acid monohydrate

Collagen A

Colloidal Coomassie G250 Diethylpyrocarbonate (DEPC) Dihydrobenzoic acid (DHB) Dimethylsulfoxide (DMSO)

Dimethylsulfoxide dry (DMSO, dry)

Dithiothreitol (DTT) DNA loading dye 6x

N-Dodecyl-ß-D-maltoside (DDM) Endoglycosidase H (Endo H)

Ethanol 99 %

Ethidium bromide solution (1%, 10 mg/ml) Ethylenediamine-tetraacetic acid salt (EDTA)

EDTA Titriplex® III (EDTA-Na₂)

Ethylenediaminetetraacetic acid (EGTA)

EZ-Link® Sulfo-NHS-LC-Biotin

Formaldehyde 37% Formic acid (FA) Gentamycin sulfate Glacial acetic acid

Roth, Karlsruhe, Germany

Rathburn Chemicals, Walkerburn, UK

Roth, Karlsruhe, Germany Roth, Karlsruhe, Germany Roth, Karlsruhe, Germany

AppliChem, Darmstadt, Germany Serva, Heidelberg, Germany Roche, Mannheim, Germany

Sigma-Aldrich, Taufkirchen, Germany

Roth, Karlsruhe, Germany

Sigma-Aldrich, Taufkirchen, Germany

Roth, Karlsruhe, Germany VWR, Darmstadt, Germany

Sigma-Aldrich, Taufkirchen, Germany

Merck, Darmstadt, Germany Merck, Darmstadt, Germany Biochrom, Berlin, Germany

Sigma-Aldrich, Taufkirchen, Germany

Roth, Karlsruhe, Germany

Sigma-Aldrich, Taufkirchen, Germany

Roth, Karlsruhe, Germany

Sigma-Aldrich, Taufkirchen, Germany

Roth, Karlsruhe, Germany

Fermentas, St. Leon-Rot, Germany Sigma-Aldrich, Taufkirchen, Germany New England Biolabs, Frankfurt, Germany

VWR, Darmstadt, Germany Roth, Karlsruhe, Germany Roth, Karlsruhe, Germany Merck, Darmstadt, Germany Roth, Karlsruhe, Germany Pierce, Rockford, USA Roth, Karlsruhe, Germany Merck, Darmstadt, Germany Roth, Karlsruhe, Germany

Roth, Karlsruhe, Germany

Glucose monohydrate VWR, Darmstadt, Germany
Glycerol Merck, Darmstadt, Germany
VWR, Darmstadt, Germany
VWR, Darmstadt, Germany

Glycoletherdiaminetetraacetic-acid (EGTA)

Roth, Karlsruhe, Germany
Glycyl-L-glutamine (Gly-Gln)

Evonik, Essen, Germany

Glycyl-sarcosine (Gly-Sar) Sigma-Aldrich, Taufkirchen, Germany

HEPES Pufferan® Roth, Karlsruhe, Germany
Igepal® CA-630 Sigma-Aldrich, Taufkirchen, Germany

Isoflurane Baxter, Unterschleißheim, Germany

Isol-RNA Lysis Reagent 5 PRIME, Hilden, Germany
Isopropanol (2-Propanol) Roth, Karlsruhe, Germany
Luria-Bertani medium Roth, Karlsruhe, Germany
Magnesium chloride VWR, Darmstadt, Germany
Wagnesium sulfate bentahydrate VWR Darmstadt Germany

Magnesium sulfate heptahydrate VWR, Darmstadt, Germany Magnesium sulfate VWR, Darmstadt, Germany

2-(N-morpholino)-ethanesulfonic acid (MES)

Roth, Karlsruhe, Germany

2-Mercaptoethanol

Roth, Karlsruhe, Germany

Methanol Merck, Darmstadt, Germany

Methyl iodide Sigma-Aldrich, Taufkirchen, Germany

MTSEA-biotin Biotium, Hayward, USA
MTSEA-biotin-X Biotium, Hayward, USA
MTSEA-biotin-XX Biotium, Hayward, USA
Mounting medium DAKO, Via Real, USA

3-(N-morpholino)-propanesulfonic acid (MOPS)

Roth, Karlsruhe, Germany

Nonidet P40

US Biological, Salem, USA

Nuclease-free water Fermentas, St. Leon-Rot, Germany
Paraplast X-TRA® Sigma-Aldrich, Taufkirchen, Germany
Paraformaldehyde Sigma-Aldrich, Taufkirchen, Germany

Polybrene® Santa Cruz Biotechnology, Dallas, USA

Poly(ethyleneglycol) (PEG)

Phenylmethylsulfonyl fluoride (PMSF)

Potassium acetate

Potassium chloride

Potassium phosphate monobasic

VWR, Darmstadt, Germany

VWR, Darmstadt, Germany

VWR, Darmstadt, Germany

VWR, Darmstadt, Germany

Protease Inhibitor Cocktail (cOmplete[™], mini, EDTA-free) Roche, Mannheim, Germany

RNAseZAP® Sigma-Aldrich, Taufkirchen, Germany Roti®-Mount FluorCare mounting medium Roth, Karlsruhe, Germany

Rotiszint® eco plus scintillation mixture

Roth, Karlsruhe, Germany

Silver nitrate Sigma-Aldrich, Taufkirchen, Germany Skimmed milk powder PrimaVita GmbH, Lüneburg, Germany

Sodium acetate Merck, Darmstadt, Germany

Sodium bicarbonate

Sodium chloride

Sodium citrate tribasic dihydrate

Sodiumdodecylsulphate (SDS)

Sodium hydroxide

Sodium phosphate dibasic

Sodium pyruvate Sodium thiosulfate Streptavidin-agarose

Tetramethylethylenediamine (TEMED)

Tricaine

Trifluoroacetic acid (TFA)

Tri-L-alanine

Triethylammonium bicarbonate (TEAB)

Tris hydrochloride

Trypsin Inhibitor from soybean

Tunicamycin (*N*-glycosylation inhibitor)

Tris(hydroxymethyl)aminomethane (TRIS)

Triton™ X-100 TWEEN® 20

Urea, Ultra pure

Xylene

VWR, Darmstadt, Germany

Roth, Karlsruhe, Germany

Merck, Darmstadt, Germany

Roth, Karlsruhe, Germany

Roth, Karlsruhe, Germany

VWR, Darmstadt, Germany

Sigma-Aldrich, Taufkirchen, Germany

Roth, Karlsruhe, Germany

Sigma-Aldrich, Taufkirchen, Germany

Roth, Karlsruhe, Germany

Sigma-Aldrich, Taufkirchen, Germany

Sigma-Aldrich, Taufkirchen, Germany

Bachem, Bubendorf, Switzerland

Sigma-Aldrich, Taufkirchen, Germany

Sigma-Aldrich, Taufkirchen, Germany

Sigma-Aldrich, Taufkirchen, Germany

AppliChem, Darmstadt, Germany

Sigma-Aldrich, Taufkirchen, Germany

Sigma-Aldrich, Taufkirchen, Germany

Serva, Heidelberg, Germany

MP Biomedicals, Santa Ana, USA

Roth, Karlsruhe, Germany

4.1.2. Buffers and solutions

All buffers were prepared with filtered double distilled water (ddH2O) from a water purification installation (Millipore, Schwalbach, Germany).

Preparation of chemical competent E. coli

•	TSS-buffe	r, pH 6.5			
	85	%	(w/v)	LB-medium	
	10	%	(v/v)	Polyethylene glycol 6000)
	5	%	(v/v)	DMSO	
	50	mM		Magnesium chloride	(Mw: 95.21 g/mol)

Buffer was adjusted to pH 6.5 and sterile filtrated

Plasmid isolation by alkaline lysis (FlexiPrep)

•	Solution I				
	0.10	М		TRIS (1 M)	(Mw: 121.14 g/mol)
	10	%	(v/v)	EDTA (0.10 M)	(Mw: 372.24 g/mol)
	80	%	(v/v)	ddH ₂ O	
	400 μg/	ml RNAs	e A was added b	pefore use	
	Solution II				
	0.20	М		Sodium hydroxide	(Mw: 39.99 g/mol)
	5	%	(v/v)	SDS (20%)	(Mw: 288.37 g/mol)
	95	%	(v/v)	ddH₂O	
	Solution III				
	1.67	М		Potassium acetate (5 M)	(Mw: 98.15 g/mol)
	16.43	%	(v/v)	Acetic acid	
	40.71	%	(v/v)	ddH₂O	

Protein extraction

PBS + 0.05%

	PBS pl	1 7.4 supplemente	d with 10 mM PMSF	(Mw: 174.19 g/mol)
•	Phosphate	-buffered saline (1	IxPBS), pH 7.4	
	0.14	mM	Sodium chloride	(Mw: 58.44 g/mol)
	2.70	mM	Potassium chloride	(Mw: 74.55 g/mol)
	10	mM	Na₂HPO₄	(Mw: 141.96 g/mol)
	1.80	mM	KH ₂ PO ₄	(Mw: 136.09 g/mol)

TWEEN® 20

(Mw: 10227.54 g/mol)

•	ı	Protein	lysis	buffer	for	tissue

 2.40	mM		TRIS	(Mw: 121.14 g/mol)
200	mM		Sodium chloride	(Mw: 58.44 g/mol)
2	μM		EDTA	(Mw: 372.24 g/mol)
8	%	(v/v)	Glycerol	(Mw: 92.02 g/mol)
1.25	mM		DTT	(Mw: 154.20 g/mol)
2	mM		PMSF	(Mw: 174.19 g/mol)

• Protein lysis buffer for X. laevis oocytes

	•		•	
_	20	mM	HEPES	(Mw: 238.30 g/mol)
	10	mM	Potassium chloride	(Mw: 74.55 g/mol)
	1.50	mM	Magnesium chloride	(Mw: 95.21 g/mol)
	1	mM	Dithiothreitol	(Mw: 154.25 g/mol)
	24	mM	PMSF	(Mw: 174.19 g/mol)

Polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis

Laemmli sample buffer (4x)

125	mM		TRIS	(Mw: 121.14 g/mol)
8	%	(w/v)	SDS	(Mw: 288.37 g/mol)
20	%	(v/v)	Glycerol	(Mw: 92.09 g/mol)
0.40	%	(w/v)	Bromophenol blue	(Mw: 691.94 g/mol)
20	%	(v/v)	ß-Mercaptoethanol	(Mw: 78.13 g/mol)

SDS-PAGE stacking gel buffer, pH 6.8

140	mM		TRIS	(Mw: 121.14 g/mol)
0.11	%	(w/v)	SDS	(Mw: 288.37 g/mol)

SDS-PAGE separating gel buffer, pH 8.8

1.12	M	TR	IS (Mw: 121.14 g/mol)
0.30	%	(w/v) SD	S (Mw: 288.37 g/mol)

SDS-PAGE stacking gel (volume for a 10x7.5 cm gel)

1.70	ml	Stacking gel buffer	
0.30	ml	Acrylamide (30%)	
12.50	μl	APS (10%)	(Mw: 229.20 g/mol)
2.50	μl	TEMED	(Mw: 116.20 g/mol)

10% SDS-PAGE resolving gel (volume for a 10x7.5 cm gel)

1.50	ml	Separating gel buffer	
1.50	ml	ddH₂O	
1.50	ml	Acrylamide (30%)	
50	μl	APS (10%)	(Mw: 229.20 g/mol)
2.50	μl	TEMED	(Mw: 116.20 g/mol)

Biotinylation of X. laevis oocytes

Quenching buffer

100	mM	Glycine in PBS (pH 8.0)	(Mw: 75.07 g/mol)

Biotinylation lysis buffer, pH 7.6

1	%	(v/v)	Triton™ X-100	
150	mM		Sodium chloride	(Mw: 58.44 g/mol)
20	mM		TRIS hydrochloride	(Mw: 157.60 g/mol)
5	mM		PMSF	(Mw: 174.19 g/mol)

RNA agarose-gel

■ 1% RNA-formaldehyde agarose-gel (volume for a 9x11 cm gel)

0.80	g	Agarose
65	ml	ddH₂O
The aga	rose was dissolved by heating	g in the microwave before addition of:
6.60	ml	Formaldehyde (37%)
8	ml	10x MOPS buffer

■ 1% RNA-formaldehyde agarose-gel (volume for a 9x11 cm gel)

			30. ,
C	0.80	g	Agarose
6	S5	ml	ddH ₂ O
Т	Γhe agar	ose was dissolved by heating	g in the microwave before addition of:
6	6.60	ml	Formaldehyde (37%)
8	3	ml	10x MOPS buffer

10x MOPS buffer, pH 7.0

41.80	g	MOPS	(Mw: 209.30 g/mol)
800	ml	DEPC-H ₂ O	
The pH	value was adjust	ed to pH 7.0 before addition of:	
16.60	ml	•	e pH 5.2 in DEPC-H₂O

■ DEPC-H₂O

1 I ddH₂O was incubated overnight with 0.10% (v/v) DEPC in the dark with stirring and autoclaved at 121°C for 20 min

X. laevis oocyte preparation and storage

Barth storage solution, pH 7.4

- u 010.	age celation, pri	***	
96	mM	Sodium chloride	(Mw: 58.44 g/mol)
2	mM	Potassium chloride	(Mw: 74.55 g/mol)
2.20	mM	Magnesium chloride	(Mw: 95.21 g/mol)
2.49	mM	Calcium chloride	(Mw: 119.98 g/mol)
5	mM	HEPES	(Mw: 238.30 g/mol)
2.60	mM	TRIS	(Mw: 121.14 g/mol)
The p	H was adjusted to	pH 7.4 before autoclaving and addition	n of:
5	mM	Sodium pyruvate	(Mw: 110.04 g/mol)
0.10	g/l	Gentamycin sulfate	(Mw: 575.64 g/mol)

•	ORII-solution	calcium-free,	pH 7	.4
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83	mM	Sodium chloride	(Mw: 58.44 g/mol)
2	mM	Potassium chloride	(Mw: 74.55 g/mol)
1	mM	Magnesium chloride	(Mw: 74.55 g/mol)
10	mM	HEPES	(Mw: 238.30 g/mol)

The buffer was autoclaved at 121 °C for 20 min

Standard Barth-solution for TEVC measurements, pH 5.5 / 6.5 / 7.5

		, .	
 88	mM	Sodium chloride	(Mw: 58.44 g/mol)
1	mM	Potassium chloride	(Mw: 74.55 g/mol)
0.80	mM	MgSO ₄ x 7 H ₂ O	(Mw: 246.47 g/mol)
0.40	mM	Calcium chloride	(Mw: 110.98 g/mol)
0.30	mM	Calcium nitrate x 4 H ₂ O	(Mw: 236.15 g/mol)
2.40	mM	Sodium bicarbonate	(Mw: 84.01 g/mol)
10	mM	HEPES	(Mw: 283.30 g/mol)

The buffer was autoclaved and the pH adjusted before use

<u>Immunohistochemistry</u>

Citrate buffer, pH 6.0

0.10	mM	Citric acid monohydrate	(Mw: 210.10 g/mol)
0.12	mM	Trisodium citrate x 2 H ₂ O	(Mw: 294.10 g/mol)

DNA gel electrophoresis

Tris-acetate-EDTA (TAE) electrophoresis buffer (50x), pH 7.6

40	mM	TRIS	(Mw: 121.14 g/mol)
20	mM	Glacial acetic acid	(Mw: 60.05 g/mol)
1	mM	EDTA disodium salt	(Mw: 372.24 g/mol)

Buffer tracer flux studies

MES-Tris Buffer (MTB), pH 6.0

140	mM	Sodium chloride	(Mw: 58.44 g/mol)
5.40	mM	Potassium chloride	(Mw: 74.55 g/mol)
1.77	mM	Calcium chloride x 2 H ₂ O	(Mw: 147.02 g/mol)
0.80	mM	MgSO ₄ x 7 H ₂ O	(Mw: 246.48 g/mol)
5	mM	Glucose	(Mw: 180.16 g/mol)
27	mM	MES	(Mw: 195.20 g/mol)

The pH was adjusted to pH 6.0 and the buffer sterile filtrated

Igepal lysis buffer, pH 8.0

50	mM		TRIS	(Mw: 121.14 g/mol)
140	mM		Sodium chloride	(Mw: 58.44 g/mol)
1.50	mM		MgSO ₄ x 7 H ₂ O	(Mw: 246.48 g/mol)
0.50	%	(w/v)	Igepal CA-630	(Mw: 294.43 g/mol)

Immunoprecipitation

PBS containing 1% DDM	•	PBS	conta	ining	1%	DDM
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PBS pH 7.4 n-Dodecyl-ß-D-maltoside (Mw: 510.62 g/mol) (w/v)

Before use, a Protease Inhibitor Cocktail was added

Lysis buffer (Roche, Mannheim, Germany)

50	mM		TRIS pH 7.5	(Mw: 121.14 g/mol)
150	mM		Sodium chloride	(Mw: 58.44 g/mol)
0.10	%	(v/v)	Nonidet P40	(Mw: 640 g/mol)

Before use, a Protease Inhibitor Cocktail was added

SDS-PAGE stacking gel (volume for a 10x7.5 cm gel)

1.91	ml	Stacking gel buffer	
0.42	ml	Acrylamide (30%)	
162.50	μl	Bisacrylamide (2%)	
12.50	μl	APS 10%	(Mw: 229.20 g/mol)
6	μl	TEMED	(Mw: 116.20 g/mol)

SDS-PAGE 10% resolving gel (volume for a 10x7.5 cm gel)

		.5 5 (
1.48	ml	Separating gel buffer	
1.56	ml	ddH_2O	
1.66	ml	Acrylamide (30%)	
250	μl	Bisacrylamide (2%)	
33	μl	APS (10%)	(Mw: 229.20 g/mol)
6	μl	TEMED	(Mw: 116.20 g/mol)

Electrophoresis sample buffer

20	mM		TRIS pH 7.5	(Mw: 121.14 g/mol)
2	mM		EDTA disodium salt	(Mw: 372.23 g/mol)
5	%	(w/v)	SDS	(Mw: 288.37 g/mol)
0.02	%	(w/v)	Bromophenol blue	(Mw: 669.96 g/mol)
20	%	(v/v)	Glycerol	(Mw: 92.02 g/mol)
200	mM		DTT	(Mw: 154.25 g/mol)

Silver staining according to Blum et al. [422]

Fixing solution

40	%	(v/v)	Ethanol
10	%	(v/v)	Acetic acid
50	%	(v/v)	ddH₂O

Washing solution

30	%	(v/v)	Ethanol	
70	%	(v/v)	ddH₂O	

• R	Reduction				
	0.02	%	(w/v)	Sodium thiosulfate	(Mw: 158.11 g/mol)
	99.98	%	(v/v)	ddH₂O	
· S	Silver stain	ing solution			
	0.20	%	(w/v)	Silver nitrate	(Mw: 169.87 g/mol)
	99.80	%	(v/v)	ddH₂O	
• D	Developer				
	3	%	(w/v)	Sodium carbonate	(Mw: 105.99 g/mol)
	0.05	%	(v/v)	Formaldehyde (37%)	
	96.50	%	(v/v)	ddH₂O	
• s	Stop solutio	on			
•	1.46	%	(w/v)	EDTA-Na ₂ x 2 H ₂ O	(Mw: 372.24 g/mol)
	98.54	%	(v/v)	ddH ₂ O	

Coomassie staining

 Coomassie staining solutio 	•	Coomassie	staining	solution
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0.25	%	(w/v)	Coomassie G250	(Mw: 854.02 g/mol)
50	%	(v/v)	Methanol	
10	%	(v/v)	Acetic acid	
40	%	(v/v)	ddH₂O	

•	Destainin	a solution
	Destaillii	u solution

_	Destairing	g Solution			
	10	%	(v/v)	Methanol	
	10	%	(v/v)	Acetic acid	
	80	%	(v/v)	ddH ₂ O	

Gel ladders

GeneRuler™ DNA Ladder Mix Thermo Scientific, Schwerte, Germany PageRuler™ Plus Prestained Protein Ladder Thermo Scientific, Schwerte, Germany

Radiotracer

[Glycine-1-¹⁴C]-glycylsarcosine ([¹⁴C]-Gly-Sar) GE Healthcare, Munich, Germany

Specific activity: 56 mCi/mmol Volume activity: 1 mCi/ml

Kit systems

Anti-HA Affinity Matrix Roche, Mannheim, Germany mMessage mMachine® T7 Transcription Kit Thermo Scientific, Schwerte, Germany NuPage® LDS sample buffer (4x) Thermo Scientific, Schwerte, Germany ProFection® Mammalian Transfection System Promega, Mannheim, Germany Protein Assay Dye Concentrate Bio-Rad, Hercules, USA

QuikChange Lightning Multi Site-Directed

Mutagenesis Kit

RevertAid First Strand cDNA Synthesis Kit

RNeasy Mini Kit

Wizard® SV Gel and PCR Clean-Up System

Agilent, Santa Clara, USA

Thermo Scientific, Schwerte, Germany

Qiagen, Hilden, Germany

Promega, Mannheim, Germany

4.1.3. Enzymes

Collagenase A

Endoglycosidase H

HotStarTaq Plus DNA Polymerase

Neuraminidase

Peptide-N-Glycosidase F (PNGase F)

Phusion® High-Fidelity PCR Polymerase

Protease K

Restriction enzymes (FastDigest® enzymes):

FD EcoRV, FD Xhol, FD Bsp119I,

FD Sall, FD Notl

Hpy 188I, Mael, Spel, Dpnl

RNAse A

Trypsin from bovine pancreas (proteolysis)

Trypsin-EDTA 0.05% (dissociation of adherent cells)

Trypsin Gold (in-gel digestion)

T4 DNA Ligase

Roche, Mannheim, Germany

NEB, Frankfurt, Germany

Qiagen, Hilden, Germany

NEB, Frankfurt, Germany

NEB, Frankfurt, Germany

NEB, Frankfurt, Germany VWR, Darmstadt, Germany

Thermo Scientific, Schwerte, Germany

Fermentas, Amherst, USA

Qiagen, Hilden, Germany

Sigma-Aldrich, Taufkirchen, Germany

PAA Laboratories, Etobicoke, USA

Promega, Madison, USA

Promega, Mannheim, Germany

4.1.4. Cell culture media and supplements

ModeK cells

Dulbecco's Modified Eagle Medium (DMEM)

(high glucose with L-glutamine)

1% Fetal bovine serum

0.10% Penicillin-streptomycin

Sigma-Aldrich, Taufkirchen, Germany

Biochrom, Berlin, Germany

Sigma-Aldrich, Taufkirchen, Germany

ModeK selective medium

Dulbecco's Modified Eagle Medium (DMEM)

(high glucose with L-glutamine)

1% Fetal bovine serum

0.10% Penicillin-streptomycin

10 μg/ml Blasticidin

Sigma-Aldrich, Taufkirchen, Germany

Biochrom, Berlin, Germany

Sigma-Aldrich, Taufkirchen, Germany

Invivogen, San Diego, USA

PlatE cells

Dulbecco's Modified Eagle Medium (DMEM)

(high glucose with L-glutamine and pyruvate)

1% Fetal bovine serum Biochrom, Berlin, Germany

0.10% Penicillin-streptomycin Sigma-Aldrich, Taufkirchen, Germany

Sigma-Aldrich, Taufkirchen, Germany

1 µg/ml Puromycin Invivogen, San Diego, USA 10 µg/ml Blasticidin Invivogen, San Diego, USA

PlatE cells for transfection

Dulbecco's Modified Eagle Medium (DMEM)

(high glucose with L-glutamine and pyruvate) Sigma-Aldrich, Taufkirchen, Germany

1% Fetal bovine serum Biochrom, Berlin, Germany

Sigma-Aldrich, Taufkirchen, Germany 0.10% Penicillin-streptomycin

Freezing medium PlatE cells

70% Dulbecco's Modified Eagle Medium (DMEM)

(high glucose with L-glutamine) Sigma-Aldrich, Taufkirchen, Germany

10% DMSO Serva, Heidelberg, Germany 20% Fetal bovine serum Biochrom, Berlin, Germany

Freezing medium ModeK/PTK6 cells

90% Fetal bovine serum Biochrom, Berlin, Germany 10% DMSO Serva, Heidelberg, Germany

PTK6 cell medium

RPMI 1640 Sigma-Aldrich, Taufkirchen, Germany

5% Fetal bovine serum Biochrom, Berlin, Germany

1% Antibiotic-antimycotic Sigma-Aldrich, Taufkirchen, Germany Thermo Scientific, Schwerte, Germany 1% Insulin-transferrin selenium A

PTK6 selection medium

RPMI 1640 Sigma-Aldrich, Taufkirchen, Germany

Biochrom, Berlin, Germany 5% Fetal bovine serum

1% Antibiotic-antimycotic Sigma-Aldrich, Taufkirchen, Germany 1% Insulin-transferrin selenium A Thermo Scientific, Schwerte, Germany

Invivogen, San Diego, USA 10 µg/ml Blasticidin

4.1.5. Nutrient media

Luria-Bertani agar (LB-agar) Roth, Karlsruhe, Germany Luria-Bertani liquid medium Roth, Karlsruhe, Germany

SOC-medium

2% (w/v) Tryptone BD Biosciences, Heidelberg, Germany 0.50% (w/v) Yeast extract BD Biosciences, Heidelberg, Germany 10 mM (w/v) Sodium chloride Roth, Karlsruhe, Germany 2.50 mM (v/v) Potassium chloride (1 M) VWR, Darmstadt, Germany 10 mM (v/v) Magnesium chloride (1 M) VWR, Darmstadt, Germany 10 mM (v/v) Magnesium sulfate (1 M) VWR, Darmstadt, Germany Autoclaving buffer before addition of sterile-filtered 20 mM (v/v) Glucose monohydrate (1 M) VWR, Darmstadt, Germany

4.1.6. Antibiotics

Ampicillin Roth, Karlsruhe, Germany

Antibiotic-antimycotic Sigma-Aldrich, Taufkirchen, Germany

Blasticidin Invivogen, San Diego, USA Gentamycin sulfate Roth, Karlsruhe, Germany

Sigma-Aldrich, Taufkirchen, Germany Penicillin-streptomycin

Puromycin Invivogen, San Diego, USA

4.1.7. Antibodies

Primary Antibodies

Anti-rat PEPT1 (Animal 2), Isotype: polyclonal rabbit IgG (affinity purified)

Antigen: C-terminus of rat PEPT1: NH2-CVGKENPYSSLEPVSQTNM-COOH

(94% sequence identity with mouse PEPT1)

Dilution for Western blot: 1:5000, Immunofluorescence: 1:1000

Distributor: Custom made (Pineda, Berlin, Germany)

<u>mPEPT1 (PAB5917)</u>, Isotype: polyclonal rabbit IgG (immunoprecipitation)

Antigen: Synthetic peptide of the N-terminus of SLC15A1

Distributor: Abnova, Taipei City, Taiwan

HA-Probe (Y-11), Isotype: polyclonal rabbit IgG

Antigen: Peptide within the influenza hemagglutinin (HA) protein

Dilution for Western blot: 1:1000

Distributor: Santa Cruz Biotechnology, Dallas, USA

Actin (C11)-sc1615, (Isotype: polyclonal goat IgG)

Antigen: C-terminus of human &-Actin

Dilution for Western blot: 1:2000

Distributor: Santa Cruz Biotechnology, Dallas, USA

Anti-mouse SGLT1 (M-19), Isotype: polyclonal goat IgG (affinity purified)

Antigen: C-terminus of mouse SGLT-1: NH2-CWSLRNSKEERIDLDA-CONH2

Dilution for Western blot: 1:5000

Distributor: Santa Cruz Biotechnology, Dallas, USA

Secondary Antibodies

IRDye® 680RD Donkey anti-Rabbit IgG (H+L)

Dilution in Western blots: 1:12000

Distributor: LI-COR Biosciences, Lincoln, USA

IRDye® 800CW Donkey anti-Goat IgG (H+L)

Dilution in Western blots: 1:12000

Distributor: LI-COR Biosciences, Lincoln, USA

IRDye® 800CW Streptavidin

Dilution in Western blots: 1:10000

Distributor: LI-COR Biosciences, Lincoln, USA

DAPI (4'6-diamidino-2'-phenylindole dihydrochloride)

Dilution in Immunofluorescence: 1:1000 Distributor: Invitrogen, Darmstadt, Germany

AffiniPure donkey anti-rabbit IgG Cy™3-conjugated

Dilution in Immunofluorescence: 1:500

Distributor: Jackson ImmunoResearch, Newmarket, UK

4.1.8. Equipment and consumables

Equipment

Sartorius Research R180D1 Analytic balance Autoclave Wolf Sanoclav LaS-4-20-ECZ

Auto-Nanoliter injector **Drummond Nanoject II**

Centrifuges Eppendorf Centrifuge 5417R/5415R

Beckman Coulter™ Allegra™ 64R

Hettich Rotina 420R

Jouan A14/B4i

Allegra® 64R

Chart Recorder Kipp & Zonen BD41

Schott KL 1500 electronic Cold light source

CO₂ incubator Binder CB210 Electrophoresis chamber Peglab 40-0911 **Embedding station** Microm AP280

Electrode-Puller Zeitz DMZ-Universal Puller

Freezer -80°C Skadi® Ultra Low Freezer DF8517GL

Ice machine Scotsman AF100 Incubator Jouan oven E55EL Laboratory balance Kern EW 3000-2M

Heidolph MR 3001/MR3000 Laboratory shaker with heating plate

Ika RCT basic

Mettler PJ3000 Lab weighing

Laminar flow Hera Safe KS12 Safe Flow 1.2 BioAir

Light microscope A. Krüss optronic MSZ5000 Liquid scintillation counter PerkinElmer, Waltham, USA

LTQ Orbitrap XL™ Thermo Scientific, Schwerte, Germany

MALDI-target MTP 384, polished steel TF Bruker Daltonics, MA, USA MALDI-TOF ultrafleXtreme™ Bruker Daltonics, MA, USA

KINEMATICA Polytron PT™ 1600E Mechanical homogenizer

FastPrep-24™ MP Biomedicals

Microscope Leica DMI4000B Microtome Microm HM 3555 Microwaves **AEG Micromat Alaska** NanoLC-Ultra 1D+ HPLC system Eksigent, Dublin, USA

BD Clay AdamsTM Nutator Mixer Orbital shaker

InoLab® WTW AK M-PC/5 pH meters

WTW pH 720

Gilson Pipetman (P2-P1000) **Pipettes**

Platform shaker Heidolph Titramax 1000 with heating module

BioRad Power Pac 200/300 Power supply

Protein electrophoresis chamber BioRad Mini-Protean® 3 system

Shaker orbital Miniature Shaker KM2, Edmund Bühler GmbH

Edmund Bühler EB TH30 Shaker with incubation hood

Thermocycler Biometra® T1/T3 Thermocycler

Thermomixer Eppendorf ® Thermomixer Compact

Thermo printer Mitsubishi P91E

Two electrode voltage clamp systems Turbo Tec-03x, npi electronic GmbH

Turbo Tec-05 npi electronic GmbH

Transilluminator Herolab UVT-20M

Dr. Hielscher GmbH UP200S Ultrasonic processor

BioDoc-IT®, LTF UV imaging system Vacuum concentrator Jouan RC 10.10 Univapo 150 ECH

Vesiprep™ DL, Supelco Vacuum manifold BioRad Power Pac HC™ Voltage devices

VWR Mini Vortexer™ Vortexer

Heidolph PM3001

Vortex Genie® 2 with microtube foam insert

BD Biosciences, Heidelberg, Germany

Microm SB80 Water bath

GFL 1004

Water installation TKA X-CAD

LI-COR Odyssey® 9120 Infrared Imaging Western blot scanner

System

Wine cabinet Liebherr WKSw 4700 10H

Consumables

Conical Falcon Tubes 15 ml/50 ml

Blotting membrane Protran®, 0.45 µm GE Healthcare, Freiburg, Germany

Bond Elut™ LRC-SCX (100 mg), Varian Agilent, Santa Clara, USA

Cell culture flasks and culture plates TPP Techno Plastic Products.

Trasadingen, Switzerland

TPP, Trasadingen, Switzerland Cell scraper

Cover slips (24x50 mm) Roth, Karlsruhe, Germany

Cuvettes PS Sarstedt, Nümbrecht, Germany

Fat Pencil PAP PEN Kisker Biotech, Steinfurt, Germany Microtome

Gel-Blotting-Paper 195 g/cm², GB46 Hartenstein, Würzburg, Germany

Glass beads (Ø 0.25-0.5 mm) Roth, Karlsruhe, Germany

Glas slides (Superfrost) Menzel, Braunschweig, Germany

Gloves Semperit, Wien, Austria

Microtom blades SEC35 Microm, Walldorf, Germany Petri dishes 92x16 mm Sarstedt, Nümbrecht, Germany Pipette tips Sarstedt, Nümbrecht, Germany Plastic syringe 1 ml Norm-Ject® Henke-Sass, Tuttlingen, Germany

Reaction tubes:

0.50 m l/ 1.50 ml / 2 ml Eppendorf, Hamburg, Germany 0.20 ml Kisker Biotech, Steinfurt, Germany SCX Empore Cation 47 mm extraction disks, Supelco Sigma-Aldrich, Taufkirchen, Germany

Sep-Pak® Vac 3cc tC18 cartridges (200 mg) Waters, Eschborn, Germany

Serological pipettes Sarstedt, Nümbrecht, Germany Sterican 24'G needle B. Braun, Melsungen, Germany

Sterile filter Midisart® 0.45 µM Merck Millipore, Darmstadt, Germany

Tissue Cassettes Roth, Karlsruhe, Germany

Whatman Filter, Grade 595 Whatman Int. Ltd., Maidstone, UK

4.1.9. Software and analysis programs

CellWorks, v. 5.1/5.1.1 npi electronic GmbH, Tamm, Germany DeepView v. 4.1 SIB Swiss Institute of Bioinformatics.

Lausanne, Switzerland

Distiller, v. 2.4.0.0 Matrix Science, Boston, USA FlexAnalysis, v. 3.3 Bruker Daltonics, Billeria, USA Gene-E, v. 3.0.204 Broad Institute, Cambridge, UK GraphPad Prism, v. 4.01 GraphPad Software, La Jolla, USA Leica LAS AF Lite, v. 2.6.3 Leica Microsystems, Germany LI-COR Image Studio[™] Lite, v. 3.1.4 LI-COR Biosciences, Lincoln, USA Mascot search engine, v. 2.4 Matrix Science, Boston, USA Scaffold, v. 3.3 Proteome Software, Oregon, USA

SnapGene, v. 2.8 GSL Biotech LLC, Chicago, USA

UCSF Chimera, v. 1.10.2 University of California, San Francisco, USA AutoDockVina, v. 1.1.2 The Scribbs Research Institute, La Jolla, USA

Online platforms

Clustal Omega EMBL-EBI, Cambridge, UK

(http://www.ebi.ac.uk/Tools/msa/clustalw2/)

GLYCAM Web - carbohydrate builder Complex Carbohydrate Research Center,

(http://www.glycam.org) University of Georgia, USA

GPI-SOM Institute of Cell Biology, University of Bern

(http://gpi.unibe.ch/)

I-TASSER University of Michigan, USA (http://zhanglab.ccmb.med.umich.edu/I-TASSER/)

Jalview, v. 2.8

(http://www.jalview.org)

KinasePhos 2.0

(http://www.kinasePhos2.mbc.nctu.edu.tw/)

NetCGlyc 1.0 server NetN-Glc 1.0 server

(http://www.cbs.dtu.dk/services/NetCGlyc/)

NetOGlyc 4.0 server

(http://www.cbs.dtu.dk/services/NetOGlyc/)

PeptideCutter ExPASy

(http://web.expasy.org/peptide_cutter/)

PROVEAN

(http://provean.jcvi.org/index.php)

SIFT-Sorting Intolerant From Tolerant

(http://sift.bii.a-star.edu.sg/)

SCRATCH protein predictor-Dlpro

(http://scratch.proteomics.ics.uci.edu/)

TMHMM server, v. 2.0 (http://www.cbs.dtu.dk)

Universal Protein Resource catalog (UniProtKB)

(http://www.uniprot.org)

University of Dundee, Scotland, UK

Institute of Bioinformaics,

National Chiao Tung University, Taiwan CBS, Technical University of Denmark CBS, Technical University of Denmark

CBS, Technical University of Denmark

SIB, Swiss Institute of Bioinformatics,

Lausanne, Switzerland

J. Craig Venter™ Institute, La Jolla, USA

GIS Genome Institute of Singapore

Institute for Genomics and Bioinformatics,

University of California, Irvine,

CBS, Technical University of Denmark

Consortium: EMBL-EBI (UK), SIB

(Switzerland), PIR (USA)

4.2. Methods

4.2.1. Site-directed mutagenesis

4.2.1.1 RNA isolation and cDNA synthesis

Preceding mutagenesis, RNA was isolated from small intestinal mucosa scrapings of male C57BL/6N mice. 100 mg frozen tissue was lysed in 1 ml Isol-RNA Lysis Reagent (5 PRIME, Hilden, Germany) and mechanically homogenized. Cell debris were separated by centrifugation at 18000 rcf for 5 min and 4°C and discarded. The supernatants obtained were collected, mixed with 200 µl chloroform and thoroughly vortexed. After incubated for 5 min on ice, the supernatant solutions were centrifuged at 18000 rcf for 15 min at 4°C. Following phase separation, the RNA containing upper phase was mixed with an equal volume of ice cold 100% ethanol, vigorously shaken by hand and transferred to an RNeasy Mini Kit spin column (Qiagen, Hilden, Germany). Further RNA purification was performed according to the manufacturer's instructions. 2.5 µg RNA was reverse transcribed into cDNA with a RevertAid First Strand cDNA Synthesis Kit (Thermo Scientific, Schwerte, Germany) to a final concentration of 125 ng/µl.

4.2.1.2. Targeted PEPT1 mutagenesis

Site-directed mutagenesis for targeted disruption of putative PEPT1 N-glycosylation sites was performed by polymerase-chain reaction (PCR) with cDNA as a template. Therefore, two megaprimers incorporating specific amino acid exchanges (Table 8) were amplified by the use of four oligonucleotides. Flanking primers thereby encompassed the start- and stop-codon of PEPT1 (mPEPT1: ACNO UniProtKB Q9JIP7; hPEPT1: ACNO UniProtKB P46059) expanded by specific restriction sites. Complementary overlapping intra primers carried centrally located selected amino acid modifications. All PCR reactions were performed in a Biometra thermocycler using oligonucleotide specific annealing temperatures and Phusion® High-Fidelity DNA Polymerase (New England Biolabs, Frankfurt, Germany) (Tables 12, 14-16). Amplification products were separated on a 1.5% DNA agarose-gel containing 1% ethidium bromide and detected by ultraviolet light. Size correct DNA bands were excised and gel slices purified with a Wizard® SV Gel and PCR Clean Up system (Promega, Mannheim, Germany). Generated megaprimers were fused with Phusion® polymerase at 25°C annealing temperature and coupling of DNA strands confirmed by gel electrophoresis. Paired megaprimers were subcloned into the pCRII TOPO 3'end rPEPT2 vector via the restriction sites XhoI and EcoRV, respectively Sall and Bsp119l (Fisher Scientific, Schwerte, Germany), into the pMXs vector. Vectors and inserts with identical 5' protruding sticky ends were purified with a Wizard® SV Gel and PCR Clean-Up system (Promega, Mannheim, Germany) and ligated with a T4 DNA-ligase (Promega, Mannheim, Germany) for 4 h at room temperature prior to E. coli transformation. Positive transformands were screened by colony PCR with the HotStarTag Plus polymerase (Qiagen, Hilden, Germany) using the oligonucleotides M13_F and Rab-PEPT2-3´B3601_R (pCRII TOPO 3'end rPEPT2 vector) or pMXs-MCS_F and pMXs-MCS_R (pMXs vector) (Tables 11 and 13). DNA fragment size was visualized by gel electrophoresis and positive E. coli transformands inoculated in LB-broth for subsequent plasmid isolation. Site-directed mutagenesis of mPEPT1 cysteine residues C25, C189, C197, C540 and C566 was performed with a QuikChange Lightning Multi SiteDirected Mutagenesis Kit (Agilent Technologies, Santa Clara, United States) in accordance to the manufacturer's protocol.

4.2.1.3. DNA oligonucleotides

Table 8: Oligonucleotides used for site-directed mutagenesis

Mutation	Mega- primer	Oligonucleotide (Thermo Scientific, Offenbach, DE)	Oligonucleotide sequence (5´→3´)	Tm (°C)	Annealing temperature (°C)	Amplicon size (bp)
mPEPT1 wild type		mPEPT1_org_F ^{a)}	TAT <u>CTCGAG</u> ATGGGGATGT CCAAGTCTCGGGG	72.1		
		mPEPT1_org_R ^{b)}	ATA <u>GGGCCCGATATC</u> TCAC ATATTTGTCTGTGAGACTGG TTCCAATG	75.9	62	2154
N50Q	MP1	mPEPT1_N50Q_F	CTGGGACGAC CAA CTCTCC ACGG	63.5	62	1993
	MP2	mPEPT1_N50Q_R	CCGTGGAGAG TTG GTCGTC CCAG	63.5	72	160
N50G	MP1	mPEPT1_N50G_F	CTGGGACGACG GGC TCTCC ACGG	69.2	60	1993
	MP2	mPEPT1_N50G_R	CCGTGGAGAGCCCGTCGTC CCAG	69.2	60	160
N50K	MP1	mPEPT1_N50K_F	CTGGGACGAC AAG CTCTCC ACGG	63.7	62	1993
	MP2	mPEPT1_N50K_R	CCGTGGAGAG CTT GTCGTC CCAG	63.7	72	160
N50D	MP1	mPEPT1_N50D_F	CTGGGACGACGATCTCTCC ACGG	63.6	62	1993
	MP2	mPEPT1_N50D_R	CCGTGGAGAGATCGTCGTC CCAG	63.6	72	160
N50C	MP1	mPEPT1_N50C_F	CTGGGACGAC TGT CTCTCC ACGG	61.7	62	1993
	MP2	mPEPT1_N50C_R	CCGTGGAGAGACAGTCGTC CCAG	61.7	72	160
S52A	MP1	mPEPT1_S52A_F	CTGGGACGACAATCTC GCC ACGG	66.2	62	1993
	MP2	mPEPT1_S52A_R	CCGT GGC GAGATTGTCGTC CCAG	66.2	72	160
N406Q	MP1	mPEPT1_N406Q_F	GAACATCGGAAACAAT CAG ATGACCGTGCA	68.6	62	931
	MP2	mPEPT1_N406Q_R	TGCACGGTCAT CTG ATTGTT TCCGATGTTC	68.6	62	1129
N439Q	MP1	mPEPT1_N439Q_F	GACAAGCTGACAAGCATA C AA ATATCTTCCTC	61.7	72	834
	MP2	mPEPT1_N439Q_R	GAGGAAGATATTTGTATGC T TG TCAGCTTGTC	61.7	72	1328
N510Q	MP1	mPEPT1_N510Q_F	GAAAGTATATGAA CAA TCACCAGTCAC	53.7	56	616
	MP2	mPEPT1_N510Q_R	GTGACTGGTGAC TTG TTCAT ATACTTTC	53.7	56	1542
N515Q	MP1	mPEPT1_N515Q_F	TCACCAGTCAC CAA GCCAG CGGCTA	67.2	72	599
	MP2	mPEPT1_N515Q_R	TAGCCGCTGGC TTG GTGAC TGGTGA	67.2	72	1556

Mutation	Mega- primer	Oligonucleotide (Thermo Scientific, Offenbach, DE)	Oligonucleotide sequence (5´→3´)	Tm (°C)	Annealing temperature (°C)	Amplicon size (bp)
N532Q	MP1	mPEPT1_N532Q_F	GCAGTACACAATA CAA ACC ACGGCGGT	64.5	72	550
	MP2	mPEPT1_N532Q_R	ACCGCCGTG GTT TGTATTG TGTACTGC	64.5	72	1607
C25S		mPI_C25S_F	CTTCATCGTGGTCAATGAGT TC <u>TCTGA</u> AAGATTCTCCTAC TATGGC	80.3	65	6831
C189S		mPI_C189S_F	CTCAGAGTTCAACAG <u>TCCG</u> <u>GA</u> ATCCACAGTCAAC	79.2	65	6831
C197S		mPI_C197S_F	AGAGTTCAACAGTCCGGAA TCCACAGTCAACAAGCTAG TTACCCACTGGCCTTCGG	97.1	65	6831
C540S		mPI_C540S_F	CCACGGCGGTGGCACCA <u>AC</u> TAGTCTAACTGATTTTAAAT CTTC	80.2	65	6831
C566S		mPI_C566S_F	CTACGTGATCCGAAGGGCG AGTGATG <u>GATC</u> CCTGGAAG TGAAGGAATTTGAAGAC	86.5	65	6831
hPEPT1 wild type		hPEPT1_org_F ^{c)}	TAT <u>CTCGAG</u> GCCGCCATGG GAATGTCCAAATC	73.6	64	2422
		hPEPT1_org_R ^{d)}	ATA <u>GATATC</u> TCACATCTGTT TCTGTGAATTGGCCCC	67.4	64	2133
hPEPT1 N50Q	MP1	hPEPT1_N50Q_F	CTGGGATGAT CAA CTGTCC ACCGC	63.3	64	1990
	MP2	hPEPT1_N50Q_R	GCGGTGGACAG TTG ATCAT CCCAG	63.3	64	167
mSGLT1 wild type		mSGLT1_PCRII_F	TATA <u>CTCGAG</u> CTCGTC GCCACCGC	65.0	65	2026

a,b/c,d) Flanking primers used for generation of individual megaprimers (MP). Amino acids modified by site-directed mutagenesis are indicated in bold letters and restriction sites are underlined (Xhol: 5' CTCGAG 3'; EcoRV: 5' GATATC 3'; Apal: 5' GGGCCC 3'; Hpy188l: 5' TCNGA 3'; Kpn21: 5' TCCGGA 3'; Mael: 5' CTAG 3'; Spel: 5' ACTAGT 3'; Dpnl: 5' GATC 3')

Table 9: DNA oligonucleotides for HA-tagging of mPEPT1

Label	Oligonucleotide sequence (5´→3´)	Tm (°C)	Annealing temperature (°C)	Amplicon size of the vector with insert (bp)	
mPEPT1 wild type with C-t	erminal HA-tag subcloned in pMXs ve	ector			
mPEPT1-pMXs-Bsp119I_F	TAT <u>TTCGAA</u> ATGGGGATGTCCAA GTCTCGGGG ^{a)}	62.1	62		
mPEPT1_org-HA-tag_R	ATA <u>GTCGAC</u> TTA <i>AGCATAATCTG GAACATCATATGGATA</i> CATATTTG TCTGTGAGACTGGTTC ^{b)}	75.8	62	2175	
mPEPT1 wild type without C-terminal HA-tag subcloned in pMXs vector					
mPEPT1-pMXs-Bsp119I_F	TA <u>TTTCGAA</u> ATGGGGATGTCCAA GTCTCGGGG	62.1	62	2180	
mPEPT1-pMXs-Sall_R	TAT <u>GTCGAC</u> TCACATATTTGTCTG TGAGACTGGTTCCAATG	71.0	62	2100	

^{a)} Restriction sites of *Bsp119l*: 5´TTCGAA 3´ and *Sall*: 5´GTCGAC 3´ are underlined

Table 10: Vector and sequencing primers

Label	Oligonucleotide sequence (5´→3´)	Tm (°C)	Annealing temperature (°C)	Amplicon size of the vector with insert (bp)	Amplicon size of the vector without insert (bp)
pCRII TOPO 3 end rPEPT2	vector				
M13_F	GTAAAACGACGGCC AGT	50.4	50	0054	224
Rab-PEPT2-3'B3601_R	CTTGGAAGACAAAGT GACAGAG	48.3	50	2351	
mPEPT1 Sequ-2805_F	CGATCAGTTTGAAGA GGGTCAG	53.0	50	4007	440
Rab-PEPT2-3 B3601_R	CTTGGAAGACAAAGT GACAGAG	48.3	50	1827	140
pMXs vector					
pMXs-MCS_F	GGATCTTGGTTCATT CTCAAGC	52.1	60	2396	257
pMXs-MCS_R	GCATCGCATTGTCTG AGTAGG	52.4	60	2000	231

4.2.1.4. PCR reaction components and cycling conditions

Table 11: Temperature program for HotStarTaq Plus DNA Polymerase

Cycle step	Temperature	Time	Cycles	
Initial denaturation	95°C	5 min	1	
2. Denaturation	94°C	1 min		
3. Annealing	Primer T _m (°C)	1 min	25-30x (step 2-4)	
4. Extension	72°C	1 min/kb DNA	(Step 2-4)	
5. Final extension	72°C	10 min	1	

b) Italic letters mark the C-terminal HA-tag encoded by the nine amino acids 5´YPYDVPDYA 3´

Component	Stock conc.	Final conc.	Volume per 50 µl reaction
Phusion HF buffer	5x	1x	10 μΙ
Forward Primer	20 μΜ	0.5 μΜ	1.25 µl
Reverse Primer	20 μM	0.5 μΜ	1.25 µl
dNTPs	10 mM	0.2 mM	1 μΙ
Phusion DNA polymerase	1 U/µl	0.02 U/µl	0.5 μΙ
RNase-free water	-	-	34 µl
Template DNA	125 ng/µl	-	2 μΙ

Table 13: PCR reaction composition using HotStarTaq Plus DNA Polymerase

Component	Stock conc.	Final conc.	Volume per 25 µl reaction
CoralLoad PCR Buffer	10x	1x	2.5 μΙ
Forward Primer	20 μM	0.4 μΜ	0.5 μΙ
Reverse Primer	20 μΜ	0.4 μΜ	0.5 μΙ
dNTPs	10 mM	0.2 mM	0.5 μΙ
HotStarTaq Plus DNA Polymerase	20 U/μI	2.5 U/reaction	0.13 μΙ
RNase-free water	-	-	19.88 µl
Template DNA	125 ng/µl	-	1 μΙ

Table 14: 2-step temperature protocol for the amplification of megaprimers with Phusion® **High-Fidelity DNA Polymerase**

Cycle step	Temperature	Time	Cycles
Initial denaturation	98°C	30 sec	1
2. Denaturation	98°C	10 sec	28x
Annealing + Extension	72°C	2 min	(step 2-3)
4. Final extension	72°C	10 min	1

Table 15: 3-step temperature protocol for the amplification of megaprimers with Phusion® **High- Fidelity DNA Polymerase**

Cycle step	Temperature	Time	Cycles	
Initial denaturation	98°C	30 sec	1	
2. Denaturation	98°C	10 sec		
3. Annealing	Primer T _m (°C)	30 sec	28x (step 2-4)	
4. Extension	72°C	30 sec/kb	(0.00 2 4)	
5. Final extension	72°C	10 min	1	

Table 16: Temperature program for the megaprimer fusion PCR using Phusion® High-Fidelity **DNA Polymerase**

Cycle step	Temperature	Time	Cycles	
Initial denaturation	98°C	1 min	1	
2. Denaturation	98°C	1 min		
3. Annealing	25°C	2 min	30x (step 2-4)	
4. Extension	72°C	2.5 min	(Step 2-4)	
5. Final extension	72°C	10 min	1	

4.2.1.5. Preparation of chemical competent *E. coli*

An overnight-culture of E. coli (NEB5a; New England Biolabs, Frankfurt, Germany) was prepared in Luria-Bertani (LB) medium with agitation at 200 rpm (Edmund Bühler EB TH30; Hechingen, Germany) at 37°C. The following day, 1 ml bacterial suspension was reinoculated in 100 ml LB broth and regrown under vigorous shaking at 37°C to an optical density of 0.375 at 600 nm. The suspension was cooled for 20 min on ice and centrifuged at 4300 rcf for 5 min at 4°C. Pelleted bacteria were gently resuspended in 10 ml cold TSS-buffer. Aliquots of 100 µl competent E. coli were snap frozen in liquid nitrogen and stored at -80°C. Prior to further use, E. coli transformation efficiency was detected by transformation of a pUC19 vector (NEB, Frankfurt, Germany).

4.2.1.6. *E. coli* transformation

Transformation of plasmid DNA into competent E. coli was performed by a short heat pulse at 42°C for 30 sec in a heating block (Eppendorf® Thermomixer Compact). Bacterial transformands were recovered in presence of 1 ml prewarmed SOC-medium for 1 h at 37°C while shaking (200 rpm; Edmund Bühler EB TH30; Hechingen, Germany) and spread on LB-plates containing 100 μg/ml ampicillin.

4.2.1.7. Purification of plasmid DNA from *E. coli*

Plasmids were purified form 2 ml *E. coli* overnight cultures grown in LB-broth with 100 μg/ml ampicillin. All purification steps were in accordance to the instructions provided by the FlexiPrep Kit from GE Healthcare (GE Healthcare Life Sciences, Buckinghamshire, England). Isolated plasmids were control digested and sequence accuracy of DNA inserts confirmed by sequencing (GATC Biotech, Konstanz, Germany).

4.2.2. Vectors

4.2.2.1. Xenopus laevis expression vector pCRII TOPO 3' end rPEPT2

For heterologous expression of mPEPT1 mutant proteins in the X. laevis model, the mammalian expression vector pCRII TOPO 3' end rPEPT2 was used. In advance, this vector derived from the pCRII-TOPO (Invitrogen, San Diego, USA) vector was modified by insertion of a poly-A tail of rabbit PEPT2 (rPEPT2) at its 3' end to improve heterologous protein expression. The vector map and vector sequence are listed in Annex Fig. VIII-A.

4.2.2.2. Retroviral transduction vector pMXs

Gene transfer into murine intestinal cell lines ModeK and PTK6 was performed using the retroviral expression vector pMXs (kindly provided by Prof. Dr. M. Klingenspor, Molecular Nutritional Medicine, TUM). PEPT1 wild type and N-glycosylation deficient mutant transporters, C-terminal fused with an HA epitope tag, were inserted in the pMXs vector via the attached restriction sites Sall and Bsp119l. More detailed information on the pMXs vector sequence is provided in Annex Fig. VIII-B.

4.2.3. Protein expression systems

4.2.3.1. Xenopus laevis oocytes

X. laevis maintenance and oocyte harvest procedures were approved by the local authority for animal care in research (Regierung von Oberbayern, approval no. 55.2-1-54-2532.3-64-11).

4.2.3.1.1. Generation of cRNA

cRNA synthesis was performed with the mMESSAGE mMACHINE® T7 kit (Ambion, Darmstadt, Germany) according to the manufacturer's instructions. Following phenol-extraction and ethanol precipitation, 2 µg linearized DNA was transcribed into cRNA and adjusted to a final concentration of 1 μg/μl. Prior to Xenopus oocytes microinjection, all cRNA preparations were evaluated for size and integrity on a 1% agarose-formaldehyde gel and stored at -80°C until further use.

4.2.3.1.2. Oocyte preparation and injection

X. laevis oocytes were collected from frogs previously anaesthetized with 0.7 g/l 3-aminobenzoic acid ethyl ester (Sigma-Aldrich, Missouri, USA). Removal of the follicular epithelium from oocytes was performed by treatment with 2.5 mg/ml of collagenase A (Roche, Mannheim, Germany) for 90 min in calcium-free ORII solution, followed by a brief wash in Barth-solution. Separated and sorted oocytes (stage V/IV) were stored overnight at 17°C in a Barth-solution containing 5 mM pyruvate and 0.2 mM gentamycin. After injection of 36.8 nl cRNA (concentration 1 µg/µl), consisting of mPEPT1 wild type, respectively N-glycosylation deficient mPEPT1 transporters and/or murine sodium glucose transporter 1 (mSGLT1) in a ratio of 1:1, oocytes were incubated for maximal protein expression over a period of 3-4 days at 17°C. Control oocytes were injected with water. For tunicamycin treatment, mPEPT1 wildtype cRNA (18.4 nl) was co-injected with 50 µg/ml tunicamycin (Sigma-Aldrich, Missouri, USA) dissolved in 4% DMSO in water. DMSO injected oocytes served as a control [423]. The O-glycosylation inhibitor alpha-D-GalNAc-1 was dissolved in methanol (stock solution: 10mg/ml) and injected a final concentration of 2.5 ng per oocyte, corresponding to tunicamycin.

4.2.3.1.3. Enzymatic proteolysis

To assess the effect of glycosylation on the proteolytic stability of PEPT1, wild type and N-glycosylation deficient transporters were exposed to the proteases trypsin and proteinase K. For this purpose, total protein extracts were prepared from oocytes, consciously avoiding the use of protease inhibitors. 15 µg total protein was digested with 20 unit trypsin (Sigma-Aldrich, Taufkirchen, Germany) freshly dissolved in 1M HCL and 2 mM CaCl₂ (pH 3) for 10 min, respectively 0.0025 µg/µl proteinase K (VWR, Darmstadt, Germany) for 6 min at ambient temperature. Proteolytic enzyme activity was stopped by adding trypsin-inhibitor (Sigma-Aldrich, Taufkirchen, Germany) to a final concentration of 2 mM, respectively 5 mM PMSF. After incubation with the proteases, proteins were separated by SDS-PAGE, followed by Western blotting with the anti-PEPT1 serum.

4.2.3.1.4. Surface biotinylation of oocytes with EZ-Link® Sulfo-NHS-LC-Biotin

Biotinylation of oocytes was performed according to Harris et al. [424] and Li et al. [425] with slight modifications. 20 cRNA injected oocytes were stored in Barth-solution for 30 min in the absence of antibiotics. After a short rinse in PBS (pH 7.4), oocytes were incubated with 0.5 mg/ml membrane impermeable EZ-Link® Sulfo-NHS-LC-Biotin (Pierce, Rockford, USA) solution (in PBS, pH 8.0) for 15 min. Cells were washed with PBS and residual biotin trapped by incubation with 1 ml quenching buffer (100 mM glycine in PBS, pH 7.4) for 20 min on ice. The buffer solution was removed and oocytes lysed in lysis buffer (supplemented with 0.5 mM PMSF) for 30 min at ambient temperature. Decomposed and solubilized oocytes were centrifuged for 15 min at 14000 rcf (4°C) and supernatants collected. 200 µg total protein of the supernatant was transferred to 50 µl of streptavidin-agarose (Sigma-Aldrich, Taufkirchen, Germany) which had previously been activated with 1 ml lysis buffer and shaken overnight (Vortex Genie® 2 with microtube foam insert; speed level 2) at 4°C. Biotin-streptavidin-agarose complexes were washed with cold PBS and mixed with SDS-PAGE sample buffer before heating to 95°C for 5 min to break down biotin-streptavidin bonds. Biotinylated membrane proteins were transferred to SDS-PAGE and visualized by Western-Blot with a dye-labeled streptavidin detection system (LI-COR Biosciences, Bad Homburg, Germany, antibody dilution 1:50000).

4.2.3.1.5. MTSEA-biotin labeling of oocytes

Occytes were biotinylated with either 2-((biotinoyl)amino)ethyl-methanethiosulfonate (MTSEA-biotin; Biotium, Hayward, USA) or MTSEA-biotin capped with ethylenediamine (MTSEA-biotin-X and MTSEAbiotin-XX). These reagents are impermeable to the cell membrane and covalently react with surface exposed sulfhydryl groups in proteins. 12-70 oocytes expressing individual PEPT1 transporters were incubated in 2 mM MTSEA-biotin solution (MTSEA-biotin stock solutions: 100 mM in DMSO) dissolved in PBS (pH 7.4) for 15 min at room temperature. Cells were washed five times with Barth-solution and used either for electrophysiological transport studies or for Western blot analysis. To detect MSTEAbiotin labeling of PEPT1 cysteine residues in immunoblots, 500 µg total protein extract from oocytes was purified with 50 µl streptavidin-agarose. Prior to protein immobilization overnight at 4°C under gentle agitation (Vortex Genie® 2 with microtube foam insert, speed level 2), the agarose was washed with 1 ml biotinylation lysis buffer (pH 7.6) in order to remove the sodium azide of the storage solution. After streptavidin binding, agarose beads were centrifuged at 5000 rcf for 1 min at 4°C and supernatants discarded. The streptavidin-agarose was four times washed with cold PBS buffer and proteins eluted with 20 µl Laemmli sample buffer (4x) by heating at 95°C for 5 min. Cell lysates were transferred to SDS-PAGE.

4.2.3.1.6. Paraffin embedding of oocytes

Occytes expressing mature membrane transporters (5-6 occytes) were transferred from the Barthsolution to 4% paraformaldehyde (PFA; dissolved in Barth-solution; pH 7.4) and incubated with gentle stirring (BD Clay AdamsTM Mixer; speed level 2) for 2 h at 4°C. After fixation, the PFA was replaced by 70% ethanol followed by overnight incubation at 4°C. The next day, the oocytes were dehydrated in an ascending series of alcohol (80%, 96% (2x) and 100 % ethanol (3x)) for 20 min at 45°C

(Heidolph Titramax 100, 200 rpm). Subsequent clearing in 100% xylene (2x), the oocytes were transferred to preheated (58°C) liquid Paraplast X-TRA® medium and embedded in histology cassettes. For histological examination, oocyte sections of 5 µm thickness were prepared with a Leica microtome. Before immunostaining, the oocyte sections were dried at 37°C for 3-4 h and stored at 4°C.

4.2.3.1.7. Immunostaining

The oocyte paraffin sections were deparaffinized in xylene (10 min) and rehydrated in serial dilutions of ethanol (100%, 2x5 min; 100%, 1x2 min; 96%, 2x2 min; 80%, 1x2 min). After rinsing the slides for 3 min in running tap water, antigen retrieval was performed in citrate buffer using the citrate-microwave method (heating at 800 W for 35 min). Cooled sections were blocked in 5% skim milk for 30 min prior to incubation overnight with a primary anti-rat PEPT1 antibody (dilution 1:1000). The antibody was removed, slides briefly rinsed in PBS and sections incubated with an AffiniPure donkey anti-rabbit IgG Cy[™]3-conjugated (dilution 1:500 in ddH₂O) secondary antibody in conjunction with the fluorescent DNA marker DAPI (dilution 1:1000 in ddH₂O). Two hours after the incubation, the oocyte sections were washed with PBS and sealed with mounting media and glass coverslips. The paraffin sections were analyzed by fluorescence microscopy on a Leica DMI4000B microscope.

4.2.3.2. Murine intestinal epithelial cell lines ModeK and PTK6

4.2.3.2.1. Retroviral transduction

In vitro expression of N-glycosylation deficient mPEPT1 mutant transporters in non-carcinogenic cell lines of murine small intestine (ModeK) and colon (PTK6) was accomplished by retroviral transduction. Retrovirus production was achieved by transfection of an ecotropic Platinum cell line (Plat-E) with the retroviral transfection vector pMXs. Prior transfection, cell culture plates were coated with collagen A (Biochrom, Berlin, Germany), thoroughly washed with PBS (pH 7.4) and Plat-E cells (P34) seeded in a density of 9.99x105 cells per well of a 6-well tissue culture plate. Continuous Plat-E cultures were cultivated in DMEM medium supplemented with 1 µg/ml puromycin and 10 µg/ml blasticidin. Post-transfection, antibiotics were replaced by 1% penicillin-streptomycin. Six hours after Plat-E seeding, cells were transfected with pMXs vectors carrying N-glycosylation defective PEPT1 transporter constructs. Transfection was performed with the ProFection® Mammalian Transfection System (Promega, Mannheim, Germany) with slight variations. Therefore, 5 µg vector was mixed with 15 µl calcium chloride (2M) and filled up to 120 µl with deionized nuclease-free water. The solution was stirred in 120 µl 2x HEPES-buffered saline (2x HBS buffer pH 7.1: 50mM HEPES pH 7.1, 280 mM NaCl, 1.5 mM Na₂HPO₄), incubated for 30 min at room temperature and slowly dripped onto the Plat-E cells. Sixteen hours post-transfection, the cell medium containing the retroviruses was removed and filtered using a syringe filter unit of cellulose acetate (pore size 0.45 µm). Cleared retrovirus lysates were stored at -80°C until further use. Meanwhile, residual Plat-E cells were supplied with fresh media and incubated for additional 16 h at 37°C. On two consecutive days, the retroviral supernatants were recovered, filtrated and stored before rejection of the Plat-E cells. For retroviral transduction, 7.5x10⁴ ModeK (P33) or PTK6 cells (P44) per well of a six well culture plate were seeded and recovered overnight. Subsequently, the culture medium was renewed and supplemented with 3 µg/ml polybrene.

After incubation at 37°C for 1 h, 1 ml of filtrated retrovirus lysate was added per well of ModeK/PTK6 cells. Following 20 h incubation at 37°C, the culture medium was replaced by selection media containing 10 μg/ml blasticidin. The cells were further cultivated in 75 cm² culture flasks and passaged after reaching 80% confluence. For passaging, cells were detached with 2 ml 0.05% prewarmed trypsin-EDTA solution (5 min at 37°C) and trypsinization was stopped by addition of 5 ml culture medium. Following centrifugation at 2500 rcf for 3 min, cells were resuspended in 5 ml medium and 200 µl cell suspension transferred to a new 75 cm² culture flask pre-filled with 15 ml fresh medium. For immunoprecipitation experiments, 1 ml of cell suspension was transferred into 150 cm² culture flasks which were previously filled with 30 ml of fresh medium. In tracer flux studies 1 ml cell suspension was seeded per well of a six well-plate filled with 3 ml culture medium to reach confluence the next day.

4.2.4. Protein analysis

4.2.4.1. Extraction of membrane proteins from animal tissue

Mice were anesthetized in a sealed chamber containing isoflurane and euthanized by cervical dislocation. The collected intestine was rinsed with ice-cold PBS buffer (pH 7.4) and divided into intestinal sections. The gut segments were snap frozen in liquid nitrogen and preserved at -80°C. For crude membrane protein isolation, frozen gut samples were ground in liquid nitrogen using a mortar and pestle. 50 mg of tissue was mixed with 500 µl cold protein lysis buffer supplemented with 2 mM protease inhibitor PMSF. Samples were mechanical homogenized (KINEMATICA Polytron™ PT 1600E; speed level 2, duration 10 sec) and treated with ultrasound (Dr. Hielscher GmbH UP200S; 5 sound waves with amplitude 35). Cellular debris were removed by centrifugation for 3 min at 3000 rcf and 4°C, while the total protein extracts were prepared by centrifugation at 33000 rcf for 1 h at 4°C. Crude membrane proteins were resuspended in cell lysis buffer and protein contents determined spectrophotometrically.

4.2.4.2. Isolation of membrane proteins from cultured cells

Confluent grown cells (75 cm² culture flask or 9 cm² culture dishes) were aspirated from media and washed with cold PBS (pH 7.4). Adhering cells were scraped off in presence of PBS containing 1 mM PMSF and centrifuged at 4400 rcf for 2 min at 4°C. Separated cells were resuspended in PBS-PMSF solution and lysed by passing through a 2 ml syringe with a 24G' cannula. Following centrifugation at 3000 rcf for 3 min at 4°C, the total protein fraction was separated by high-speed centrifugation at 30000 rcf at 4°C for 1 h. Pelletized membrane proteins were resuspended in PBS-PMSF solution and protein yields quantified by the assay of Bradford.

4.2.4.3. Total protein extraction from *Xenopus laevis* oocytes

X. laevis oocytes (n = 20-30; 3-4 days post-cRNA injection) were mixed with 100 µl lysis-buffer supplemented with 0.1 mM DTT (stock solution 100mM in ddH₂O) and 1 mM PMSF. Oocytes were kept on ice, mechanically homogenized (KINEMATICA Polytron™ PT1600E; speed level 2, duration 2x10 sec) and spun at 20800 rcf for 1 min at 4°C. The supernatant was transferred to fresh reaction vessels and repeatedly spun for 2 min. Total cellular protein was aspirated by avoiding the transfer of the floating fat fraction or cellular debris. Protein extracts were stored at -80°C until further use.

4.2.4.4. Protein quantification assay

The protein concentrations were determined by the method of Bradford et al. [426] using a commercial available Bradford Assay reagent (Bio-Rad, München, Germany). Thereto, 200 µl Bio-Rad Protein Assay dye was mixed with 799 µl sterile ddH₂O and 1 µl protein sample in 1 ml cuvettes of 1 cm path length (Sarstedt, Nümbrecht, Germany). Following 10 min incubation at room temperature, the proteininduced absorbance shift of Coomassie® Brilliant Blue G-250 was analyzed photometrically at a wavelength of 600 nm and protein concentrations determined with reference to a pre-established albumin calibrator curve (2-40 mg/ml).

4.2.4.5. Enzymatic protein deglycosylation studies

Deglycosylation studies were performed with protein extracts prepared from mouse tissue or X. laevis oocytes. 10-15 μg protein was treated with the glycosidase PNGaseF, EndoH or neuraminidase either individually or in combination according to the manufacturer's specifications (NEB, Frankfurt, Germany). Alterations in the target protein mass were visualized by SDS-Page and Western blot analysis.

4.2.4.6. Western blotting

Immunoblotting was performed with a Mini-Protean® 3 electrophoresis system from Bio-Rad (Bio-Rad Laboratories GmbH, Munich, Germany). 15-30 µg isolated protein was mixed with 4x Laemmli buffer and size fractionated on a 10% SDS-acrylamide gel over 1-3 h at 120-160 V. Protein transfer to nitrocellulose membranes (Whatman, Maidstone, UK) was performed in a wet electroblotting system (Bio-Rad Laboratories GmbH, Munich, Germany) at 0.36 A for 25 min. Membranes were blocked with 1% BSA (AppliChem, Darmstadt, Germany) in PBS buffer for 1 h, followed by an overnight staining with antibodies for mPEPT1 (custom-made Pineda, Berlin, Germany, dilution 1:5000) and ß-Actin (Santa Cruz, Dallas, USA, dilution 1:2000). After washing with PBS-T buffer, membranes were stained with IRDye®-labeled secondary antibodies provided by LI-COR (LI-COR Biosciences, Bad Homburg, Germany; dilution 1:12000). Fluorescence signals were recorded with an Odyssey® infrared imaging system (LI-COR Biotechnology, Bad Homburg, Germany) and the intensities were quantified with the Image Studio[™] Lite software provided by LI-COR.

4.2.5. Electrophysiological experiments in Xenopus laevis oocytes

4.2.5.1. Two-electrode voltage clamp experiments

Two-electrode voltage clamp (TEVC) experiments were performed according to Amasheh [214] and Kottra et al. [296], as described previously by Stelzl et al. (2016; G129) [239]. Oocytes were placed in an open chamber and continuously superfused with Barth-solution (flow rate 3 ml/min) in the absence or presence of glycyl-sarcosine (Gly-Sar, 0.3-40 mM in Barth-solution), cefadroxil (1-20 mM in Barth-solution) or tri-L-alanine (0.05-10 mM in Barth-solution). Current and potential electrodes backfilled with 0.5 mM KCl and an electrode resistance between 1-3 MΩ were used to voltage clamp the oocytes to a membrane potential of -60 mV. The current flow was calculated from the difference between baseline after rinsing oocytes with Barth-solution and reaching the plateau-phase in the presence of substrate. Current-voltage (I-V) relations were recorded with a Tec-03 amplifier (npi electronic GmbH, Tamm, Germany) for the duration of 100 ms in the potential range of +80 to -160 mV. Data acquisition was performed with CellWorks (v. 5.1; npi electronic GmbH, Tamm, Germany). Transport currents were normalized to currents generated by 1 mM alpha-MDG (pH 6.5) as the substrate for mSGLT1. This correction was performed to compensate for fluctuations in gene expression levels between individual oocytes and oocyte batches. After normalization of inward transport currents, kinetic constants K_m (mM) and I_{max} (nA) were calculated by least-squares fits to the Michaelis-Menten equation.

4.2.5.2. Capacitance measurements

Electrophysiological capacitance (C_m) measurements were performed according to Mertel et al. [427] and Schmitt et al. [428]. Oocytes expressing single membrane transporters were clamped to a membrane potential of -60 mV and subjected to short current jumps induced by depolarizing and hyperpolarizing paired ramps. Based on six consecutive current jump intervals per oocyte, the C_m was recorded at saturated Gly-Sar concentrations of 20 mM at pH 6.5.

4.2.5.3. Transient outward current recordings

Electrophysiological assessment of reverse substrate transport was performed according to Kottra et al. [360] as previously described by Stelzl et al. (2017; G582) [270]. In short, oocytes were injected with rising volumes (9.2-59.8 nl) of 1 M Gly-Sar (pH 7.5) dissolved in 1 mM ethylene glycol-bis(2aminoethylether)-N',N',N',N'-tetraacetic acid in water (EGTA; Sigma-Aldrich, Taufkirchen, Germany). 30 sec post-injection, I-V relations were recorded over a period of 6 min in intervals of 30 sec. Outward currents were recorded at positive membrane potentials (+20 to +80 mV), while inward directed currents were detected in the negative membrane potential range from -20 mV to -160 mV. For current recordings without normalization to co-expressed mSGLT1, an outlier analysis was performed. According to the formula $z_i = (x_i - M)/SD$, a z-score was computed for individual datasets (x_i is the original value, M is the mean and SD the standard deviation). Values with a z-score \pm 1.5 or beyond were considered as outlier. Electrophysiological data are presented as mean ± SEM or median ± min/max (a "+" inside the bar marks the mean value) of 10-30 oocytes from at least two oocytes batches.

4.2.6. Tracer flux studies

4.2.6.1. [14C]-Gly-Sar uptake in Xenopus laevis oocytes

Oocytes expressing the mature PEPT1 transporters (n = 10) were incubated in 200 µl [14C]-Gly-Sar solution (0.3 to 50 mM) (56 Ci/mol, 17.8 mM; custom-synthesized by GE Healthcare, Munich, Germany; ratio of labeled to unlabeled substrate 1:10) for 10 min at room temperature. The radioactive solution was aspirated and oocytes thoroughly washed with Barth-solution (pH 7.4). Single oocytes were transferred into scintillation vials, excess liquid removed, and oocytes dissolved in 200 µl 20% SDS in water for 2-3 h at 50°C with shaking (500 rpm; Heidolph® Titramax 1000). After addition of 3 ml scintillation cocktail (Rotiszint eco plus, Roth, Germany), radioactivity was determined in a Tri-Carb 2810 liquid scintillation counter (PerkinElmer, Waltham, USA). The total radioactivity in oocytes was calculated at time point zero and corrected for radiation of water-injected oocytes.

4.2.6.2. [14C]-Gly-Sar uptake in cells

Following retroviral transduction, ModeK (P30-35) and PTK6 (P40-45) cells were grown to confluence in six well culture plates. Cells from a single well were used to quantify the total protein content. Thereto, cells were scraped off in presence of 500 µl PBS (pH 7.4) and sonicated (Dr. Hielscher GmbH UP200S; 12 sound waves with amplitude 50). Cell debris was separated by centrifugation and the protein concentration of the supernatant was quantified by Bradford assay. Cells from remaining wells were washed with 1 ml MES-Tris buffer (MTB; pH 6.0) and incubated with 500 µl [14C]-Gly-Sar solution (final concentration [14C]-Gly-Sar: 6 μM per well) for 10 min at 37°C while shaking (200 rpm; Heidolph® Titramax 1000). At the end of incubation, the uptake solution was removed and cells washed twice with 1 ml MTB buffer. After exposure to 1 ml Igepal buffer (pH 8.0), detached cells were transferred to scintillation vials and radioactivity measured in presence of 3 ml scintillator in a Tri-Carb 2810 liquid scintillation counter (PerkinElmer, Waltham, USA). Radioactive counts of 1 ml Igepal lysis buffer in scintillator were used for background corrections.

4.2.7. Immunoprecipitation

4.2.7.1. Purification of HA-tagged PEPT1 from ModeK cells

ModeK (P35) and PTK6 cells (P45) expressing individual mPEPT1 transporter constructs C-terminally fused to an HA-tag were grown to confluence in 75 cm² culture flasks. Adherent cells from ten culture flasks (each with a surface area of 150 cm²) were thoroughly rinsed with PBS (pH 7.4) and scraped off in presence of PBS supplemented with 1 mM PMSF. Following centrifugation at 2700 rcf for 2 min at 4°C, supernatants were discarded and cell pellets resuspended in 500 µl PBS with 1% DDM and protease inhibitor (Roche, Mannheim, Germany; 1x conc.). The suspension was passed ten times through a 24G' gauge needle connected to a 1 ml Norm-Ject® syringe and cell debris removed at low-speed centrifugation at 3000 rcf for 3 min at 4°C. 20 µl of the supernatant (aliquot A1) containing total cellular protein was prior to immunoprecipitation retained for Western blot analysis. Residual cell extract was centrifuged for 2 h at 20000 rcf and 4°C. The resulting cytosolic protein fraction was retained (aliquot A2) and pelletized membrane proteins dissolved in 100 µl solubilization buffer for 1 h at 4°C on a vortex mixer attached to a foam stand (Vortex Genie® 2; speed level 2). Solubilized membrane proteins were separated from non-solubilized proteins by centrifugation at 30000 rcf for 45 min and 4°C. Precipitated non-solubilized proteins were dissolved in 50 µl PBS and transferred to Western blot (aliquot A3). The protein content of the solubilized membrane protein fraction (aliquot A4) was determined by Bradford assay and 4.5 mg protein coupled to 100 µl Anti-HA Affinity Matrix (Roche, Mannheim, Germany) for 90 min at 4°C on an orbital shaker (BD Clay Adams™ Nutator Mixer; speed level 2). The matrix was settled by centrifugation at full speed for 10 sec at 4°C and aliquots of the supernatant (aliquot A5) retained for immunoblotting. Subsequent three washings with 1 ml cold lysis buffer (aliquots A6-A8), bound protein was eluted from the matrix by addition of 50 µl

electrophoresis buffer (4x Laemmli sample buffer) and heating for 5 min at 95°C. The released protein was transferred to SDS-Page (aliquot 9). ModeK cells expressing mPEPT1 wild-type transporter without C-terminal HA-fusion tag were used as a negative control in all immunoprecipitation experiments.

4.2.7.2. In-gel protein detection by silver staining

Immunoprecipitated PEPT1 was identified by conventional Western blot analysis and polyacrylamide gel silver staining. For the latter approach, immunoprecipitates were separated with a Mini-Protean® 3 electrophoresis system from Bio-Rad (Bio-Rad Laboratories GmbH, Munich, Germany) by the use of polyacrylamide gels comprised of 10% acrylamide and 0.1% bis-acrylamide. Upon completion of the electrophoretic separation (1 h at 160 V), polyacrylamide gels were silver stained according to the method of Blum et al. [422] and target proteins excised for further analyses.

4.2.7.3. Coomassie staining of protein gels

To visualize proteins in polyacrylamide gels, Coomassie staining was performed. Following electrophoretic separation by SDS-PAGE, gels were washed twice with ddH₂O followed by Coomassie staining for 3 h at room temperature under gentle agitation (Miniature Shaker KM2, Edmund Bühler GmbH, 200 rpm). The gels were then rinsed three times with ddH₂O for 5 min and incubated overnight in destaining solution.

4.2.7.4. Proteomics by LC-MS/MS analysis

All proteomics and glycomics studies were performed in co-operation with the Chair of Proteomics and Bioanalytics, Technical University Munich (Prof. Dr. B. Küster, Dr. H. Hahne) as a part of a Master's Thesis (M. Sc. R. Berger).

4.2.7.4.1. Mouse models

4.2.7.4.1.1. PEPT1 expression analysis

For protein expression analyses, C57BL/6N, C57BL/6J, PEPT1+/+, 129Sv/S6, A/J, and AKR/J mice at the age of 8 weeks were used. Beyond, tissues of transgenic mice lacking the peptide transporter 1 (PEPT1-/-, aged 8 and 22-24 weeks) [338] or 2 (PEPT2-/-, aged 22-24 weeks) [429], were analyzed. If not otherwise stated, animals were fed a chow diet (Ssniff, V1534-0). Germfree C57BL/6N mice were given post-weaning a chemical defined diet (CDD; Ssniff, S5745-E702) and AKR/J mice a high fat diet for 4 weeks. All animals had free access to drinking water, were fed ad libitum and kept with 12:12 h light-dark cycle. Germfree mice were kindly provided by Prof. Dr. D. Haller (Chair of Nutrition and Immunology, Technical University Munich), 129Sv/S6, A/J and AKR/J mice were donated by Prof. Dr. M. Klingenspor (Chair of Molecular Nutritional Medicine, Technical University Munich).

4.2.7.4.1.2. Glycome profiling

Table 17: Feeding and housing conditions of mouse strains used for glycomic analyses

Mouse strain	Age (months)	Housing condition	Housing condition Diet		Abbreviation*)
C57BL/6N	~2.5-8	Open facility, Conventional (CV)	Chow diet (CD) (Ssniff, V1534-0)	4	CV, CD
C57BL/6N	4.5	Specific pathogen free (SPF)			SPF, HFD
C57BL/6N	4.5	SPF	Standard chow diet (Ssniff, S5745-E702)	5	SPF, CD (= Ctrl-HFD)
C57BL/6N	3	Germfree (GF)	Chemical defined diet (CDD) (Ssniff, S5745-E702)	4	GF, CDD
C57BL/6N	3	SPF	CDD (Ssniff, S5745-E702)	5	CDD, SPF (= Ctrl-GF)

^{*)} The abbreviations used are: CF = conventional raised; SPF = specific pathogen free; GF = germ free; CD = chow diet; HFD = high fat diet; Ctrl-HFD = control animals for HFD mice; Ctrl-GF = control animals for GF mice

4.2.7.4.1.3. Animal diets

Table 18: Mouse diet composition

Component	Chow diet (CD)*) (Ssniff, V1534-0)	High fat diet (HFD)*) (Ssniff, S5745-E712)	Germfree-/SPF diet (CDD)*) (Ssniff, S5745-E702)
Carbohydrates [kJ%]	58	34	64
Fat [kJ%]	9	48	13
Protein [kJ%]	33	18	23
Metabolizable energy [MJ/kg]	12.8	19.8	15.3
Crude fibre/cellulose [%]	4.9	5	5
Sugar [%]	4.7	6.1	6.1
Maltodextrin [%]	-	5.6	5.6
Saccharose [%]	-	5	5

^{*)} The abbreviations used are: CD = chow diet; HFD = high fat diet; CDD = chemical defined diet

4.2.7.4.2. Processing of mouse tissue

Immediately after sacrifice of laboratory mice, the gut was removed. Intestinal segments (small intestine and colon) were separated, rinsed with cold PBS containing 1x concentrated protease inhibitor and snap frozen in liquid nitrogen. For further processing, gut samples were grinded in presence of liquid nitrogen by avoiding thawing. 50 µg tissue was mixed with 500 µl lysis buffer and an equal volume of glass beads added prior to homogenization with a FastPrep system (FastPrep-24™ MP Biomedicals; three strokes with 20 sec per cycle; in-between homogenization, samples were cooled on ice). Following centrifugation at 3000 rcf for 3 min, cell lysates were separated from the beads and subjected to a repeated centrifugation for removal of cellular debris. Before mass spectrometric analysis, cell lysates were mixed with NuPAGE® LDS sample buffer (4x conc.), reduced with 10 mM DTT (incubation 45 min at 56°C) and alkylated with 55 mM CAA for 30 min at room temperature. Following LDS-PAGE electrophoresis, gels were stained with colloidal Coomassie, followed by an in-gel tryptic protein digestion according to Shevchenko et al. [430].

4.2.7.4.3. LC-MS/MS measurement

The nanoflow LC-MS/MS analysis was performed with a NanoLC-Ultra 1D+ HPLC system (Eksigent, Dublin, USA) coupled to an LTQ Orbitrap XL™ ETD Hybrid Ion trap-Orbitrap mass spectrometer (Thermo Scientific, Schwerte, Germany). Prior to sample injection, tryptic peptides were dissolved in 0.1% formic acid (FA). Analytes were concentrated on a trap column (Reprosil-Gold, Dr. Maisch: 100 µmi.d x 2 cm, packed with 5 µm C18 resin) at a flow rate of 5 µl/min in 0.1% FA (100% in HPLC grade water). After 10 min of loading, the peptides were transferred to an analytical column (ReproSil-PUR C18-AQ, 3 µm particle size, 75x40 cm, Dr. Maisch) and separated for 110 min by a 2% - 35% gradient of 0.1% FA dissolved in 100% acetonitrile at a flow rate of 300 nl/min. Mass spectrometric analysis was performed in the data-dependent mode with automatic switching between Orbitrap-MS (MS 1) and Orbitrap-MS/MS (MS 2). Precursor masses selected for MS 2 were dynamically excluded from fragmentation for 10 sec. Full scan MS spectra of ionized peptides (from m/z 400 to 5400) were acquired in the Orbitrap with a resolution of r = 60.000. For internal calibration, the ion signal of polydimethylcyclosiloxane (PCM) generated in electrospray ionization from ambient air (Si(CH₃)₂O)6H⁺: m/z = 445.120025) was used. Tandem mass spectra were acquired using collision-induced dissociation (CID). MS peaks were analyzed with Distiller (v. 2.4.0.0, Matrix Science Ltd., London UK) and resulting peak lists matched against the UniProtKB proteome sequence database (Mascot search engine v. 2.4).

4.2.7.4.4. Glycomics of mouse gut by MALDI-TOF analysis

Homogenized intestinal tissue was lysed in 8 M urea / 50 mM TEAB (supplemented with cOmplete™ Mini Protease Inhibitor Cocktail, 1x conc.; Roche, Mannheim, Germany) previous protein reduction and alkylation (see chapter 4.2.7.4.2). Following a double in-solution tryptic protein digestion at 37°C with trypsin Gold according to the manufacturer's instructions (trypsin stock solution: 1 µg/µl in 50 mM AA; working solution: 20 µg/µl in 40 mM NH₄HCO₃ / 10% ACN), peptides were purified with activated (ACN) and re-equilibrated (0.1% FA) Sep-Pak®-cartridges (Sep-Pak® tC18 3 cc Vac 200 mg; Waters, Eschborn, Germany). Glycopeptides were eluted with 0.1% FA in 80% ACN and dried under vacuum. Dehydrated extracts were dissolved in 50 mM TEAB and deglycosylated with PNGaseF (4 units PNGaseF per 500 μg initial protein) overnight at 37°C with shaking. For glycan purification, acidified samples (~pH 3) were transferred to Sep-Pak®-cartridges (previously activated / re-equilibrated) following a consecutive glycan release with 5% and 10% AA. To remove remaining peptides, the obtained glycan fractions were additionally transferred to SCX columns (Agilent, Santa Clara, USA; activated with methanol and reequilibrated with 0.5% FA) and the flow-through dried under vacuum. To check the abundance and quality of the glycans, samples were spotted on the MALDI target with DHB (20 mg/ml in 30% ACN and 0.1% TFA). For further processing, the samples were converted into Na+-salts using Empore SCX extraction discs (Sigma-Aldrich, Taufkirchen, Germany). After column activation with methanol, and the addition of 1 M NaOH and column re-equilibration with ddH2O, aqueous samples (resuspended in ultra pure water) were loaded. Following centrifugation, the eluates were dried in a vacuum concentrator prior to glycan methylation in dry DMSO (1:1 v/v of DMSO and methyl iodide) for 30 min at 4°C. For the glycan analysis, samples were mixed with the DHB-matrix, spotted onto the MALDI target, and crystallized overnight. Mass spectra were acquired in the positive ion reflectron mode on an ultrafleXtreme™ MALDI-TOF mass spectrometer (Bruker Daltonics, Billerica, MA, USA) with an integrated 1 kHz smartbeam-IITM MALDI laser. The external calibration was performed for each spectrum using PAS standard peptides as described by Maier et al., [431] and the "cubic enhanced" calibration function. Mass spectra were analyzed using the flexAnalysis software (v. 3.3, Bruker Daltonics, Billerica, USA). Glycan compositions were assigned by synchronization with a human glycan library constructed by Kronewitter et al. [432] and adapted to the mouse species. Peaks that could not be assigned to glycans within this list were identified by a web-based search (Expasy GlycoMod tool).

4.2.8. In silico PEPT1 protein analyses

The protein sequence of murine PEPT1 (UniProtKB ACNO: Q9JIP7) was analyzed for putative protein kinase A and C phosphorylation sites with the KinasePhos v. 2.0 online platform [433]. Putative PEPT1 glycosylation sites for mucin-type mannosyl-O-glycosylation were detected with the NetOGlyc v. 4.0 server [434], C-glycosylation with the NetCGlyc v. 1.0 server [435] and GPI-anchor signals with the GPI-SOM platform [436].

Multiple protein sequence alignments with bacterial PEPT1 homologues were performed with Clustal Omega [437, 438]. PEPT1 transmembrane helices were predicted with the TMHMM v. 2.0 server [279, 439].

PEPT1 protein models were generated with the automated protein structure homology-modelling platform I-TASSER [440, 441, 442, 443] and visualized with the UCSF Chimera v. 1.10.2 software [444, 445]. Protein-carbohydrate docking was implemented with AutoDock Vina v. 1.1.2 [446]. 3D glycan structures were obtained from the online accessible GLYCAM oligosaccharide library (Woods Group, Complex Carbohydrate Research Center, University of Georgia, USA).

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List of Abbreviations

Α ampere

ACNO accession number

alpha-MDG 1-O-methyl-alpha-D-glucopyranoside

bp base pair(s) °C degree Celsius CD chow diet

CDD chemical defined diet

cDNA complementary deoxyribonucleic acid

 C_m capacitance conc. concentration

cRNA complementary RNA C-terminus carboxy-terminus

Ctrl control CV conventional

DDM n-Dodecyl-β-D-maltoside DNA deoxyribonucleic acid

dNTP deoxynucleotide triphosphate

ECD extracellular domain E. coli Escherichia coli for example e.g.

ER endoplasmic reticulum

Fig. figure Fuc fucose Gal galactose GF germfree

GkPOT POT transporter of Geococcus kaustophilus

Glc glucose

GLP-1 glucagonlike peptide 1 Gly-Sar glycyl-sarcosine

GPI glycosylphosphatidylinositol

h hour(s)

HA tag hemagglutinin tag **HFD** high fat diet hPEPT1 human PEPT1

maximal evoked current I_{max} I-V voltage-current relationship

kDa kilo Dalton

Michaelis-Menten constant K_{m}

Μ molar (mol/l) Man mannose milligram mg min minute(s) ml milliliter millimolar mM mPEPT1 mouse PEPT1

mRNA messenger deoxyribonucleic acid

μg

 $\Delta \mu_H$ μl

μΜ

MS mass spectrometry mV millivolt mW molecular weight number of samples n nΑ nanoampere nF nano-Farad N-GalNAc N-acetylgalactosamine *N*-GlcNAc N-acetylglucosamine N-terminus amino-terminus **ORF** open reading frame **PAGE** polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis **PCR** polymerase chain reaction PEPT1/2 peptide transporter 1/2 PEPT1^{-/-} PEPT1-knockout PEPT1 of Shewanella oneidensis PEPT1_{So/So2} PEPT1_{St} PEPT1 of Streptococcus thermophilus negative logarithm of the molarity of H+ pН PHT peptide/histidine transporter Ы phosphatidylinositol pΙ isoelectric point pmol picomole POT/PTR proton-dependent oligopeptide transporter ppGalNAcT polypeptide-N-acetyl-galactosaminyltransferase **PTase** phosphotransferase PTM post-translational protein modification rbPEPT1 rabbit PEPT1 relative centrifugal force rcf **RNA** ribonucleic acid rPEPT1 rat PEPT1 rounds per minute rpm RT room temperature **SCAM** substituted cysteine mutagenesis method SD standard diet SD second SEM standard error of mean SGLT1 sodium glucose transporter 1 SLC solute carrier SPF specific pathogen free Tab table Tm melting temperature **TMD** transmembrane domain Tri-L-alanine trialanine; Ala-Ala-Ala maximal velocity V_{max} WT wild type X. laevis Xenopus laevis

microgram

microliter

micromolar

proton electrochemical gradient

Abbreviations of the standard amino acids

Amino acid	Abbreviation (3-letter code)	Abbreviation (1-letter code)	Structure	Side chain property	pK and pl values ^{*)}	
Alanine	Ala	А	5	hydrophobic	pK _{s1} : 2.33 pK _{s3} : -	pK _{s2} : 9.87 pl: 6.11
Arginine	Arg	R	X	basic	pK _{s1} : 1.82 pK _{s3} : 12.48	pK _{s2} : 8.99 pl: 10.76
Asparagine	Asn	N	THE	polar	pK _{s1} : 2.10 pK _{s3} : -	pK _{s2} : 8.84 pl: 5.41
Aspartic acid	Asp	D	F	acidic	pK _{s1} : 1.99 pK _{s3} : 3.90	pK _{s2} : 9.90 pl: 2.85
Cysteine	Cys	С	*	hydophobic	pK _{s1} : 1.92 pK _{s3} : 8.33	pK _{s2} : 10.78 pl: 5.05
Glutamic acid	Glu	E	KY	acidic	pK _{s1} : 2.10 pK _{s3} : 4.07	pK _{s2} : 9.47 pl: 3.15
Glutamine	Gln	Q	L	polar	pK _{s1} : 2.17 pK _{s3} : -	pK _{s2} : 9.13 pl: 5.65
Glycine	Gly	G	*	hydrophobic	pK _{s1} : 2.35 pK _{s3} : -	pK _{s2} : 9.78 lp: 6.06
Histidine	His	н	*	basic	pK _{s1} : 1.80 pK _{s3} : 6.04	pK _{s2} : 9.33 pl: 7.60
Isoleucine	lle	I	X	hydrophobic	pK _{s1} : 2.32 pK _{s3} : -	pK _{s2} : 9.76 pl: 6.05
Leucine	Leu	L	****	hydrophobic	pK _{s1} : 2.33 pK _{s3} : -	pK _{s2} : 9.74 pl: 6.01
Lysine	Lys	К	Till	basic	pK _{s1} : 2.16 pK _{s3} : 10.79	pK _{s2} : 9.78 pl: 9.60
Methionine	Met	М	540	hydrophobic	pK _{s1} : 2.13 pK _{s3} : -	pK _{s2} : 9.28 pl: 5.74
Phenylalanine	Phe	F	在東	hydrophobic	pK _{s1} : 2.16 pK _{s3} : -	pK _{s2} : 9.18 pl: 5.49
Prolin	Pro	Р		hydrophobic	pK _{s1} : 2.95 pK _{s3} : -	pK _{s2} : 10.65 pl: 6.30
Serine	Ser	S	A	polar	pK _{s1} : 2.19 pK _{s3} : -	pK _{s2} : 9.21 pl: 5.68
Threonine	Thr	Т	A Company	polar	pK _{s1} : 2.09 pK _{s3} : -	pK _{s2} : 9.10 pl: 5.60
Tryptophan	Trp	W	4	hydrophobic	pK _{s1} : 2.43 pK _{s3} : -	pK _{s2} : 9.44 pl: 5.89
Tyrosine	Tyr	Y	JAN.	polar	pK _{s1} : 2.20 pK _{s3} : 10.13	pK _{s2} : 9.11 pl: 5.64
Valine	Val	V	**	hydrophobic	pK _{s1} : 2.29 pK _{s3} : -	pK _{s2} : 9.74 pl: 6.00

^{*)}Data are derived from [447].

Appendix

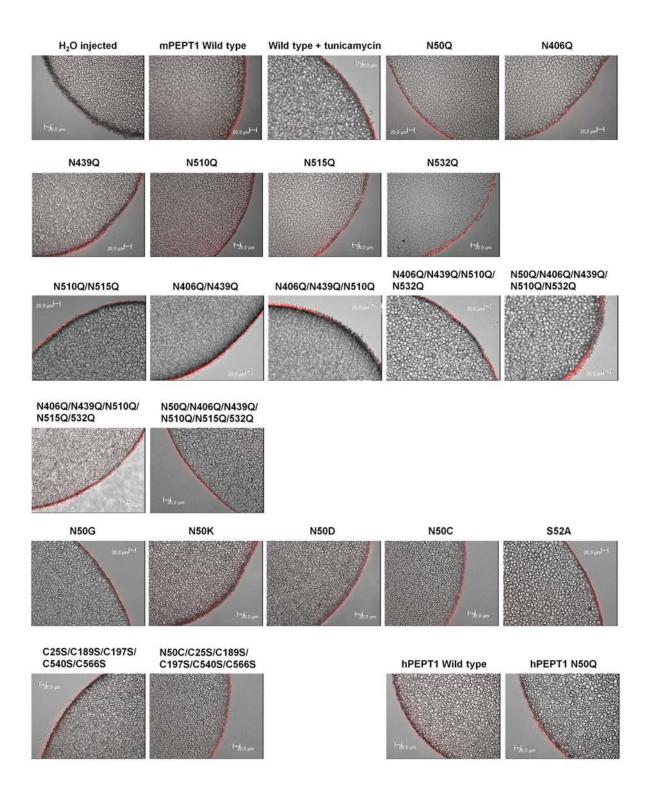


Fig. I: Immunostaining of mPEPT1 mutant transporters heterologously expressed in Xenopus laevis oocytes.

Oocyte sections with a thickness of 6 µm were stained for mPEPT1 by incubation with an anti-mPEPT1 primary antibody (custom made PINEDA, Berlin, Germany, dilution 1:1000) and a Cy3-conjugated secondary antibody (AffinyPure donkey anti-rabbit IgG CyTM 3-conjugated, Jackson ImmunoResearch, Newmarket, UK, dilution 1:500). Fluorescent signals of stained cells were detected with a Leica DMI4000B fluorescence microscope at 40-fold magnification using the Leica Application suite LAS AF Lite v. 2.6.3. A red fluorescent signal within the plasma membrane indicated the specific expression of mPEPT1. Water-injected control oocytes stained negative for mPEPT1 and hPEPT1 (not shown). Fig. I was adopted and modified from Stelzl *et al.* (2016; p. G133) [239].

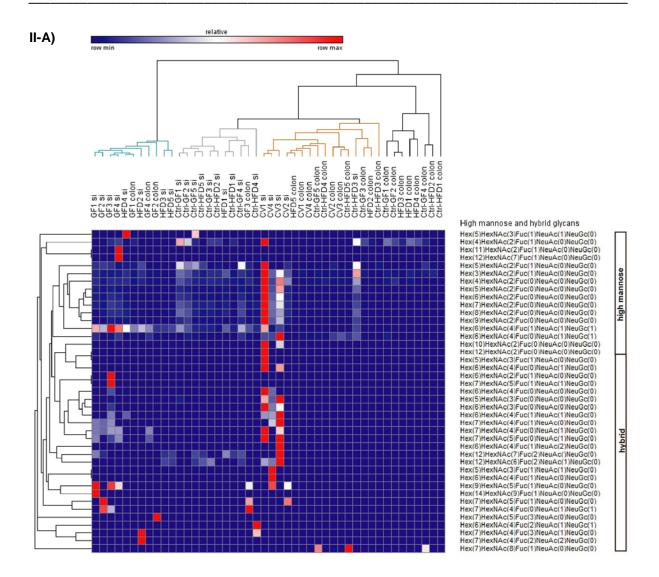
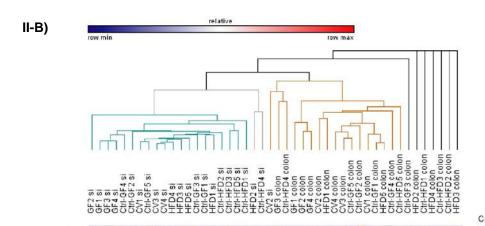
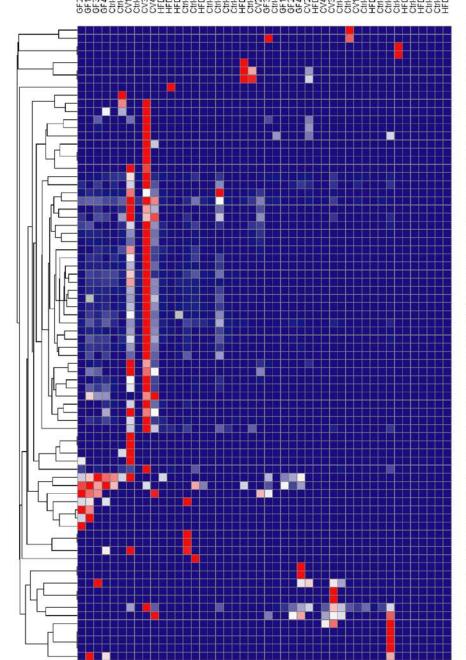


Fig. II-A-C: Hierarchical cluster analysis of the N-glycan profile derived from mouse intestine.

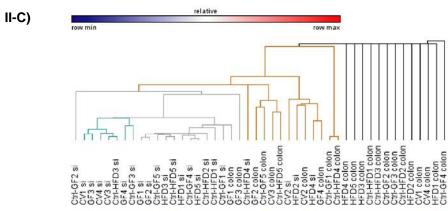
Heat maps generated from hierarchical clustering of N-linked glycan species identified by MALDI-TOF analysis in the intestine of mice kept under different housing and feeding conditions. The abbreviations used are: si = small intestine; c = colon, GF = germfree; CV = conventional raised; Ctrl = control animal; HFD = high fat diet; numbers designate individual animals. Heat maps were generated with the GENE-E analysis platform (provided by the Broad-Institute) and distances computed using one-minus Pearson correlation. A blue color code features glycans with low abundance, while strongly represented glycans are marked in red. Monosaccharide codes: Hex = hexose; HexNAc = N-acetylglucosamine/N-acetylgalactosamine; Fuc = fucose; NeuAc = N-acetylneuraminic acid; NeuGc = N-glycolylneuraminic acid.

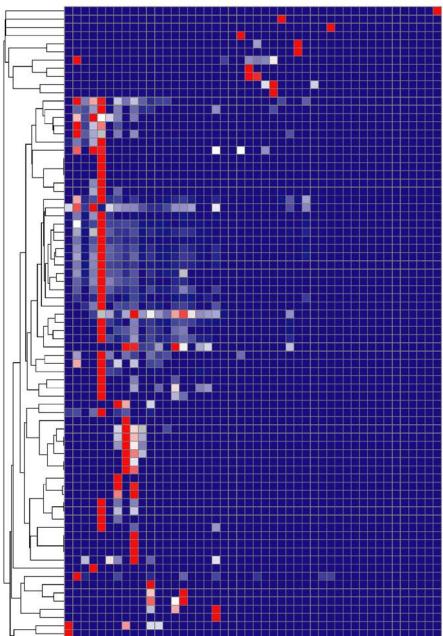




Complex glycans (part 1)

Hex(5)HexNAc(6)Fuc(0)NeuAc(2)NeuGc(0) Hex(7)HexNAc(6)Fuc(1)NeuAc(0)NeuGc(0) Hex(5)HexNAc(6)Fuc(2)NeuAc(0)NeuGc(0) Hex(5)HexNAc(6)Fuc(3)NeuAc(1)NeuGc(0) Hex(6)HexNAc(5)Fuc(4)NeuAc(0)NeuGc(0) Hex(4)HexNAc(4)Fuc(3)NeuAc(1)NeuGc(0) Hex(4)HexNAc(4)Fuc(3)NeuAc(1)NeuGc(0)
Hex(3)HexNAc(9)Fuc(2)NeuAc(1)NeuGc(0)
Hex(5)HexNAc(7)Fuc(1)NeuAc(0)NeuGc(0)
Hex(6)HexNAc(7)Fuc(1)NeuAc(0)NeuGc(0)
Hex(6)HexNAc(6)Fuc(0)NeuAc(0)NeuGc(0)
Hex(6)HexNAc(6)Fuc(0)NeuAc(1)NeuGc(1)
Hex(3)HexNAc(7)Fuc(0)NeuAc(1)NeuGc(1)
Hex(7)HexNAc(7)Fuc(0)NeuAc(0)NeuGc(0)
Hex(6)HexNAc(6)Fuc(3)NeuAc(0)NeuGc(0)
Hex(6)HexNAc(6)Fuc(3)NeuAc(0)NeuGc(0)
Hex(6)HexNAc(6)Fuc(1)NeuAc(1)NeuGc(0)
Hex(4)HexNAc(6)Fuc(0)NeuAc(1)NeuGc(0)
Hex(4)HexNAc(6)Fuc(0)NeuAc(1)NeuGc(0)
Hex(4)HexNAc(6)Fuc(0)NeuAc(1)NeuGc(0)
Hex(4)HexNAc(6)Fuc(0)NeuAc(1)NeuGc(0)
Hex(5)HexNAc(6)Fuc(0)NeuAc(1)NeuGc(0)
Hex(5)HexNAc(6)Fuc(0)NeuAc(1)NeuGc(0)
Hex(5)HexNAc(6)Fuc(0)NeuAc(1)NeuGc(0)
Hex(5)HexNAc(6)Fuc(0)NeuAc(1)NeuGc(0)
Hex(5)HexNAc(6)Fuc(0)NeuAc(0)NeuGc(2) Hex(S)HexNAc(4)Fuc(0)NeuAc(0)NeuGc(2)
Hex(S)HexNAc(4)Fuc(1)NeuAc(2)NeuGc(0)
Hex(3)HexNAc(3)Fuc(1)NeuAc(0)NeuGc(0)
Hex(3)HexNAc(3)Fuc(1)NeuAc(0)NeuGc(0)
Hex(3)HexNAc(5)Fuc(0)NeuAc(0)NeuGc(0)
Hex(3)HexNAc(5)Fuc(1)NeuAc(0)NeuGc(0)
Hex(6)HexNAc(6)Fuc(1)NeuAc(0)NeuGc(0)
Hex(6)HexNAc(6)Fuc(1)NeuAc(0)NeuGc(0)
Hex(6)HexNAc(6)Fuc(1)NeuAc(0)NeuGc(0)
Hex(6)HexNAc(6)Fuc(1)NeuAc(0)NeuGc(0)
Hex(6)HexNAc(6)Fuc(1)NeuAc(1)NeuGc(0)
Hex(6)HexNAc(6)Fuc(0)NeuAc(1)NeuGc(0)
Hex(4)HexNAc(6)Fuc(0)NeuAc(1)NeuGc(0)
Hex(5)HexNAc(6)Fuc(0)NeuAc(1)NeuGc(0)
Hex(6)HexNAc(6)Fuc(0)NeuAc(1)NeuGc(0)
Hex(6)HexNAc(6)Fuc(0)NeuAc(1)NeuGc(0)
Hex(6)HexNAc(6)Fuc(0)NeuAc(1)NeuGc(0)
Hex(6)HexNAc(6)Fuc(0)NeuAc(1)NeuGc(0)
Hex(6)HexNAc(6)Fuc(0)NeuAc(1)NeuGc(0)
Hex(6)HexNAc(6)Fuc(0)NeuAc(1)NeuGc(0) Hex(5)HexNAc(4)Fuc(0)NeuAc(0)NeuGc(2) Hex(S)HexNAc(6)Fuc(0)NeuAc(2)NeuGc(0)
Hex(6)HexNAc(7)Fuc(0)NeuAc(1)NeuGc(0)
Hex(6)HexNAc(7)Fuc(1)NeuAc(1)NeuGc(0)
Hex(6)HexNAc(7)Fuc(1)NeuAc(1)NeuGc(0)
Hex(6)HexNAc(7)Fuc(1)NeuAc(1)NeuGc(0)
Hex(5)HexNAc(7)Fuc(1)NeuAc(2)NeuGc(0)
Hex(5)HexNAc(6)Fuc(1)NeuAc(2)NeuGc(0)
Hex(6)HexNAc(6)Fuc(1)NeuAc(1)NeuGc(0)
Hex(4)HexNAc(6)Fuc(1)NeuAc(1)NeuGc(0)
Hex(4)HexNAc(6)Fuc(2)NeuAc(1)NeuGc(0)
Hex(4)HexNAc(6)Fuc(1)NeuAc(2)NeuGc(0)
Hex(4)HexNAc(6)Fuc(1)NeuAc(2)NeuGc(0)
Hex(4)HexNAc(6)Fuc(1)NeuAc(2)NeuGc(0)
Hex(5)HexNAc(6)Fuc(1)NeuAc(0)NeuGc(0)
Hex(5)HexNAc(6)Fuc(1)NeuAc(0)NeuGc(0)
Hex(5)HexNAc(6)Fuc(1)NeuAc(0)NeuGc(0) Hex(S)HexNAc(6)Fuc(1)NeuAc(0)NeuGc(0)
Hex(6)HexNAc(6)Fuc(1)NeuAc(1)NeuGc(0)
Hex(7)HexNAc(6)Fuc(0)NeuAc(1)NeuGc(0)
Hex(7)HexNAc(6)Fuc(1)NeuAc(1)NeuGc(0)
Hex(7)HexNAc(6)Fuc(1)NeuAc(1)NeuGc(0)
Hex(5)HexNAc(7)Fuc(0)NeuAc(1)NeuGc(0)
Hex(7)HexNAc(7)Fuc(0)NeuAc(1)NeuGc(0) Hex(7)HexNAc(7)Fuc(0)NeuAc(1)NeuGc(0)
Hex(S)HexNAc(6)Fuc(1)NeuAc(1)NeuGc(0)
Hex(S)HexNAc(6)Fuc(1)NeuAc(2)NeuGc(0)
Hex(3)HexNAc(6)Fuc(1)NeuAc(2)NeuGc(0)
Hex(3)HexNAc(6)Fuc(0)NeuAc(0)NeuGc(0)
Hex(5)HexNAc(5)Fuc(0)NeuAc(0)NeuGc(0)
Hex(5)HexNAc(7)Fuc(2)NeuAc(0)NeuGc(0)
Hex(5)HexNAc(7)Fuc(2)NeuAc(1)NeuGc(1)
Hex(5)HexNAc(4)Fuc(2)NeuAc(1)NeuGc(1)
Hex(5)HexNAc(4)Fuc(2)NeuAc(1)NeuGc(0)
Hex(5)HexNAc(4)Fuc(2)NeuAc(1)NeuGc(0)
Hex(5)HexNAc(4)Fuc(2)NeuAc(1)NeuGc(0)
Hex(6)HexNAc(6)Fuc(2)NeuAc(1)NeuGc(0)
Hex(6)HexNAc(6)Fuc(4)NeuAc(1)NeuGc(0)
Hex(5)HexNAc(6)Fuc(4)NeuAc(0)NeuGc(0)
Hex(6)HexNAc(6)Fuc(4)NeuAc(0)NeuGc(0)NeuGc(0)
Hex(6)HexNAc(6)Fuc(4)NeuAc(0)NeuGc(0)Neu Hex(5)HexNAc(8)Fuc(3)NeuAc(0)NeuGc(0)
Hex(3)HexNAc(8)Fuc(3)NeuAc(0)NeuGc(0)
Hex(6)HexNAc(6)Fuc(0)NeuAc(3)NeuGc(0)
Hex(6)HexNAc(6)Fuc(0)NeuAc(3)NeuGc(0)
Hex(5)HexNAc(6)Fuc(2)NeuAc(2)NeuGc(0)
Hex(6)HexNAc(5)Fuc(2)NeuAc(2)NeuGc(0)
Hex(6)HexNAc(6)Fuc(2)NeuAc(2)NeuGc(0)
Hex(6)HexNAc(6)Fuc(2)NeuAc(2)NeuGc(0)
Hex(6)HexNAc(6)Fuc(2)NeuAc(2)NeuGc(0)
Hex(6)HexNAc(6)Fuc(2)NeuAc(2)NeuGc(0)
Hex(6)HexNAc(6)Fuc(2)NeuAc(1)NeuGc(0)
Hex(6)HexNAc(6)Fuc(2)NeuAc(0)NeuGc(0)
Hex(6)HexNAc(6)Fuc(2)NeuAc(0)NeuGc(0)
Hex(6)HexNAc(6)Fuc(2)NeuAc(0)NeuGc(0)
Hex(6)HexNAc(6)Fuc(2)NeuAc(0)NeuGc(0)
Hex(6)HexNAc(6)Fuc(2)NeuAc(0)NeuGc(0)
Hex(6)HexNAc(6)Fuc(2)NeuAc(0)NeuGc(0)
Hex(6)HexNAc(6)Fuc(2)NeuAc(0)NeuGc(0)
Hex(6)HexNAc(6)Fuc(2)NeuAc(1)NeuGc(0)





Complex glycans (part 2)

Hex(4)HexNAc(8)Fuc(3)NeuAc(0)NeuGc(2)
Hex(7)HexNAc(6)Fuc(0)NeuAc(1)NeuGc(1)
Hex(5)HexNAc(7)Fuc(2)NeuAc(2)NeuGc(0)
Hex(7)HexNAc(7)Fuc(3)NeuAc(1)NeuGc(1) HeX(7)HeXIAC(7)Fuc(3)NeuAc(1)NeuGc(0) Hex(6)HeXIAc(6)Fuc(2)NeuAc(3)NeuGc(0) Hex(6)HeXIAc(6)Fuc(2)NeuAc(3)NeuGc(0) Hex(6)HeXIAc(6)Fuc(3)NeuAc(1)NeuGc(0) Hex(6)HeXIAc(6)Fuc(3)NeuAc(1)NeuGc(0) Hex(6)HeXIAc(6)Fuc(2)NeuAc(2)NeuGc(0) Hex(io) HexthAc() Fluc(3)NeuAc(1)NeuGc(0)
Hex(5)HexthAc(7)Fuc(3)NeuAc(1)NeuGc(0)
Hex(7)HexthAc(6)Fuc(3)NeuAc(4)NeuGc(1)
Hex(5)HexthAc(7)Fuc(1)NeuAc(1)NeuGc(1)
Hex(5)HexthAc(7)Fuc(2)NeuAc(1)NeuGc(1)
Hex(7)HexthAc(7)Fuc(1)NeuAc(1)NeuGc(0)
Hex(5)HexthAc(6)Fuc(5)NeuAc(1)NeuGc(0) Hex(s) HexthAc(s) Fuc(s) NeuAc(1) NeuGc(1) Hex(G) HexthAc(6) Fuc(0) NeuAc(4) NeuGc(0) Hex(6) HexthAc(6) Fuc(1) NeuAc(3) NeuGc(0) Hex(6) HexthAc(6) Fuc(1) NeuAc(3) NeuGc(0) Hex(6) HexthAc(8) Fuc(0) NeuAc(3) NeuGc(0) Hexi(6)HexiNaci8)Fuci0)NeuAci3)NeuGci0)
Hexi(4)HexiNaci6)Fuci(2)NeuAci4)NeuGci11
Hexi(4)HexiNaci6)Fuci(2)NeuAci4)NeuGci11
Hexi(4)HexiNaci6)Fuci(2)NeuAci1)NeuGci10
Hexi(6)HexiNaci6)Fuci1)NeuAci1)NeuGci01
Hexi(6)HexiNaci6)Fuci1)NeuAci1)NeuGci01
Hexi(7)HexiNaci6)Fuci1)NeuAci1)NeuGci01
Hexi(4)HexiNaci6)Fuci1)NeuAci1)NeuGci10
Hexi(4)HexiNaci6)Fuci1)NeuAci1)NeuGci01
Hexi(4)HexiNaci6)Fuci1)NeuAci1)NeuGci10
Hexi(5)HexiNaci6)Fuci1)NeuAci2)NeuGci10
Hexi(5)HexiNaci6)Fuci1)NeuAci2)NeuGci01
Hexi(5)HexiNaci6)Fuci1)NeuAci2)NeuGci01
Hexi(5)HexiNaci6)Fuci3)NeuAci0)NeuGci20 Hex(s) InextNac()/Fuc(s)NeuAc(s)NeuGc(2)
Hex(s)HextNac(s)Fuc(s)NeuAc(s)NeuGc(2)
Hex(s)HextNac(s)Fuc(s)NeuAc(s)NeuGc(2)
Hex(s)HextNac(s)Fuc(s)NeuAc(s)NeuGc(1)NeuGc(1)
Hex(s)HextNac(s)Fuc(s)NeuAc(s)NeuGc(1)
Hex(4)HextNac(s)Fuc(s)NeuAc(s)NeuGc(2) Hex(4)HextIAc(9)Fuc(2)NeuAc(0)NeuGc(2)
Hex(4)HextIAc(9)Fuc(2)NeuAc(1)NeuGc(2)
Hex(5)HextIAc(8)Fuc(3)NeuAc(0)NeuGc(2)
Hex(5)HextIAc(8)Fuc(2)NeuAc(1)NeuGc(2)
Hex(5)HextIAc(9)Fuc(2)NeuAc(1)NeuGc(1)
Hex(5)HextIAc(9)Fuc(2)NeuAc(2)NeuGc(1)
Hex(5)HextIAc(3)Fuc(0)NeuAc(2)NeuGc(1)
Hex(10)HextIAc(3)Fuc(0)NeuAc(4)NeuGc(4)
Hex(4)HextIAc(5)Fuc(1)NeuAc(4)NeuGc(0)
Hex(6)HextIAc(7)Fuc(5)NeuAc(2)NeuGc(0)
Hex(6)HextIAc(1)Fuc(1)NeuAc(2)NeuGc(1)
Hex(4)HextIAc(3)Fuc(3)NeuAc(0)NeuGc(1) Hex(6)HextNAc(10)Fuc(1)NeuAc(2)NeuGc(1)
Hex(4)HextNAc(9)Fuc(3)NeuAc(0)NeuGc(3)
Hex(6)HextNAc(11)Fuc(2)NeuAc(3)NeuGc(1)
Hex(7)HextNAc(11)Fuc(2)NeuAc(2)NeuGc(1)
Hex(6)HextNAc(6)Fuc(2)NeuAc(2)NeuGc(1)
Hex(5)HextNAc(6)Fuc(1)NeuAc(1)NeuGc(1)
Hex(5)HextNAc(6)Fuc(3)NeuAc(1)NeuGc(1)
Hex(4)HextNAc(6)Fuc(3)NeuAc(1)NeuGc(0)
Hex(6)HextNAc(10)Fuc(3)NeuAc(1)NeuGc(0)
Hex(6)HextNAc(10)Fuc(3)NeuAc(1)NeuGc(0)
Hex(5)HextNAc(10)Fuc(3)NeuAc(1)NeuGc(0)
Hex(5)HextNAc(10)Fuc(3)NeuAc(1)NeuGc(0)
Hex(6)HextNAc(11)Fuc(3)NeuAc(1)NeuGc(0)
Hex(6)HextNAc(11)Fuc(3)NeuAc(2)NeuGc(0)
Hex(6)HextNAc(11)Fuc(3)NeuAc(2)NeuGc(0) Hex(6)HexNAc(11)Fuc(3)NeuAc(2)NeuGc(0) Hex(6)HexNAc(8)Fuc(2)NeuAc(2)NeuGc(0) Hex(5)HexNAc(8)Fuc(2)NeuAc(2)NeuGc(0) Hex(5)HexNAc(16)Fuc(5)NeuAc(2)NeuGc(0) Hex(6)HexNAc(6)Fuc(5)NeuAc(2)NeuGc(0) Hex(6)HexNAc(8)Fuc(2)NeuAc(2)NeuGc(0) Hex(6)HexNAc(8)Fuc(2)NeuAc(2)NeuGc(0)
Hex(9)HexNAc(11)Fuc(1)NeuAc(2)NeuGc(0)
Hex(5)HexNAc(10)Fuc(3)NeuAc(1)NeuGc(2)
Hex(5)HexNAc(1)Fuc(2)NeuAc(2)NeuGc(0)
Hex(7)HexNAc(7)Fuc(4)NeuAc(2)NeuGc(0)
Hex(8)HexNAc(11)Fuc(1)NeuAc(2)NeuGc(0)
Hex(8)HexNAc(11)Fuc(1)NeuAc(2)NeuGc(0)
Hex(7)HexNAc(3)Fuc(2)NeuAc(2)NeuGc(0)
Hex(7)HexNAc(3)Fuc(2)NeuAc(3)NeuGc(0)
Hex(7)HexNAc(3)Fuc(2)NeuAc(3)NeuGc(0)
Hex(7)HexNAc(3)Fuc(1)NeuAc(1)NeuGc(0)
Hex(7)HexNAc(3)Fuc(1)NeuAc(1)NeuGc(0)
Hex(6)HexNAc(1)Fuc(1)NeuAc(2)NeuGc(1)
Hex(7)HexNAc(1)Fuc(1)NeuAc(2)NeuGc(1)
Hex(7)HexNAc(1)Fuc(1)NeuAc(1)NeuGc(1) Hex(is) Hextrac(11) Puc(2) NeuAc(2) NeuGc(2) Hex(77)HextALc(77)Fuc(17)NeuAc(4) NeuGc(0) Hex(7)HextALc(7)Fuc(3) NeuAc(3) NeuGc(1) Hex(6)HextALc(7)Fuc(2) NeuAc(11) NeuGc(10) Hex(6)HextALc(7)Fuc(2) NeuAc(2) NeuGc(11) Hex(7)HextALc(7)Fuc(2) NeuAc(3) NeuGc(11)

Table II-A: Mean values (\pm SEM) of the absolute and relative distribution of N-glycan classes detected in the intestine of different mice strains in glycome profiling

	small intestine				colon	
	absolute distribution (total peak area ± SEM)	relative distribution in % (± SEM)	average glycan species (± SD)	absolute distribution (total peak area ± SEM)	relative distribution in % (± SEM)	average glycan species (± SD)
CV (n = 4)						
high mannose	81519.25 ± 2730.82	23.28 ± 3.35	8 ± 1	3744.75 ± 105.15	62.35 ± 2.81	7 ± 1
hybrid	14213.50 ± 86.19	4.06 ± 0.23	10 ± 4	579.00 ± 18.98	9.64 ± 3.28	1 ± 0
complex	254368 ± 207.37	72.66 ± 0.25	87 ± 8	1682.00 ± 3.47	28.01 ± 0.21	15 ± 9
GF (n = 4)						
high mannose	12160.00 ± 343.03	14.20 ± 2.82	9 ± 1	4571.75 ± 120.53	29.47 ± 2.64	8 ± 2
hybrid	12840 ± 329.67	14.99 ± 2.57	9 ± 3	3826.50 ± 108.42	24.67 ± 2.83	4 ± 1
complex	60645 ± 49.24	70.81 ± 0.08	73 ± 10	7115 ± 8.24	45.86 ± 0.12	22 ± 3
HFD (n = 5)						
high mannose	6839.60 ± 176.85	17.53 ± 2.59	8 ± 1	1656.40 ± 49.22	91.31 ± 2.97	6 ± 1
hybrid	4876.20 ± 128.08	12.50 ± 2.63	3 ± 1	17.40 ± 0.57	0.96 ± 3.28	1 ± 1
complex	27299.40 ± 31.93	69.97 ± 0.12	37 ± 7	140.20 ± 0.40	7.73 ± 0.28	2 ± 3
Ctrl-HFD (n =5)						
high mannose	13613.40 ± 1363.28	29.08 ± 10.01	8 ± 1	2092.00 ± 64.82	38.70 ± 3.10	7 ± 1
hybrid	1966.20 ± 43.80	4.20 ± 2.23	3 ± 1	238.00 ± 6.18	4.40 ± 2.60	1 ± 1
complex	31232.40 ± 34.24	66.72 ± 0.11	34 ± 12	3076.20 ± 3.71	56.90 ± 0.12	8 ± 12
Ctrl-GF (n = 5)						
high mannose	15836.20 ± 347.74	25.31 ± 2.20	9 ± 1	3240.20 ± 87.71	55.01 ± 2.71	6 ± 1
hybrid	3943.00 ± 96.06	6.30 ± 2.44	3 ± 2	267.00 ± 7.69	4.53 ± 2.88	1 ± 1
complex	42796.80 ± 40.08	68.39 ± 0.09	51 ± 8	2382.80 ± 4.76	40.46 ± 0.20	8 ± 6

mPEPT1:	N 50	N406	N439	N510/N515	532
Q9JIP7 Mouse:	-48 DDNLSTA	-404 NNNMTVH	-437 SINISSS	-508 YENVTSHNASGY	-530 TINTT-AV
Mammals:					
P51574 Rat:	-48 DDDLSTA	-404 NNDMAVY	-437 SINVSSP	-508 YENVTSHSASNY	-530 TINTT-EI
G3GS68 Hamster:	-51 DDDLSTA	-364 DNNMTVY	-397 SINISSP	-468 FENIPTNNASSY	-490 TINGT-EI
G5C353 Naked mole rat:	-48 DDDLSTA	-404 NDNVTSV	-437 SINVSSP	-507 YEDVTSHNASEY	-529 TISST-EF
H0UVZ1 Guinea pig:	-48 DDDLSTA	-404 NNNIIVS	-436 SINVSSP	-507 YEDVTSYNASEY	-529 TVSST-EF
I3M8D4 Squirrel:	-48 DDNLSTA	-404 NDNMNIS	-437 SINISST	-507 FENITSHSASKY	-529 IVNST-EI
P36836 Rabbit:	-48 DDNLSTV	-404 SENMIIS	-435 SINITSG	-506 YEHIASYNASEY	-528 TVSSA-GI
P46059 Human: H2RA14 Chimpanzee:	-48 DDNLSTA -48 DDNLSTA	-404 NNTMNIS -404 NNTMNIS	-436 RINISSP -436 SINISSP	-507 YANISSYNASTY -507 YANISSYSASTY	-529 TISST-EI -529 TISST-EI
H2NK71 Orangutan:	-48 DDNLSTA	-404 NSTMNIS	-437 SINISSP	-507 YANISSYNVSKY	-529 TISST-EI
A0A096MPU1 Baboon:	-54 DDNMSTA	-410 NNTMNIS	-443 SINISSP	-517 YANVSSNNASNY	-539 TISST-EI
A0A0D9RY57 Green monkey:	-39 DDNMSTA	-395 NNTMTIS	-428 SINISSP	-498 YANVSSNNASNY	-520 RISST-EL
G1R8P2 Gibbon:	-48 DDNLSTA	-404 NNTMNIS	-437 SINISSP	-507 YANISSYNVSKY	-529 TISST-EI
G3RG12 Gorilla:	-46 DDNLSTA	-405 NNTMNIS	-438 SINISSP	-508 YANISSYNASTY	-530 TISST-EI
F7IDR3 Marmoset: F7H3Q3 Rhesus macaque:	-50 DDNLSTA -48 DDNMSTA	-409 NNNMSIS -404 NTTMNIS	-442 SINISSP -437 SINISSP	-512 FANISSYNASTY -506 YANVSSNNASNY	-534 TIDST-EL -529 TISST-EL
A5D7E5 Bovine:	-48 NDNLGTA	-404 DSNMTVS	-435 SINISST	-506 YNNVSSHNASEY	-528 TINSP-EI
F6SG69 Horse:	-47 DDNLSTA	-403 NNSMNIS	-434 SINISST	-505 YVNVTSHSASEY	-527 TINST-EI
F1RP40 Pig:	-47 NDNLSTA	-403 NNSMSVS	-436 SINISSA	-506 YIDVTSHNASAY	-528 IVHSP-EI
V9HXF3 Goat:	-48 NDNLGTA	-403 NNSMTVS	-433 SINISST	-506 YNNVSGHNASEY	-528 TINSP-EI
Q9BDH7 Sheep:	-48 NDNLGTA -73 DDNLSTA	-403 NNSMTVS	-433 SINISST -461 SINISST	-506 YNNVSGHNASEY	-528 TINSP-EI
J9P5W2 Dog: M3WLG5 Cat:	-48 DDNLSTA	-428 NGAMNVS -405 NDNMTVY	-461 SINISST -437 SINISST	-531 YVNVTSHNASEY -508 YVNVTSHNASEY	-553 TISSTQQI -530 TLSPTQQT
G3SX47 African elephant:	-48 DDNLSTA	-404 SNGVNVS	-437 NISISSN	-507 YDNVTSHDASKY	-529 KISST-EI
G1LBT7 Giant panda:	-48 DDNLSTA	-404 NSSMTVS	-436 SINISSP	-507 YVNVTSHNASEY	-529 TISSTQQI
G3VLJ5 Tasmanian devil:	-48 EDNVATA	-435 NESLRAN	-466 YVNITYG	-535 YSNISSYEASDY	-556 LVS-G
F7EJN7 Opossum:	-48 NDNLSTA	-404 NENLTAY	-437 NINISFG	-506 YLNIAPKNASDY	-529 EIK-G
G1NSB0 Little brown bat: M3YJ40 Ferret:	-48 DDNLSTA -48 DDNLSTA	-404 SNNMTIY -392 NSKMTAS	-436 SINISSP -425 SINISSP	-507 YEDVTSYNASTY -495 YVNVTSHNASEY	-529 TLSSL-EI -517 TINSTQQI
F7BBU0 Duckbill platypus:	-48 NDNLSTA	-404 QESMNVI	-435 YVVISTA	-506 FQDVLPRNASEY	-528 MINDK
				_	
Birds:					
F1P0K5 Chicken:	-85 DDNFSTA	-410 DSNANVT	-444 SVMVNFG	-516 FGILEETSISNY	-538 IVI
G1NPV9 Common turkey:	-54 DDNLSTA	-412 NSNANVT	-447 SVIINFG	-517 FGILEETSISNY	-540 IVI
H0ZLB3 Zebra finch: U3I719 Mallard:	-40 EDNFATA -49 DDNFSTA	-395 SVPATVQ -405 ADNARVT	-430 SLNIASG -440 HVVVAYG	-501 FGELQPLSVSNY -511 FGELTTLSATNY	-523 TINA -533 IVV
U3JP72 Flycatcher:	-56 EDNFATA	-408 QIPATVQ	-442 SAHISAA	-514 FGELDPLSVTNY	-536 TISV
A0A093P9V1 Adelie penguin:		-398 TDNATVW	-432 SFNITSG	-504 FGTLASLSGSNY	-523 ITA
A0A091NXX7 Sea-eagle:	-42 DDNLSTA	-398 TNDATVQ	-432 SLNIASG	-504 FGTLMPLSASNY	-526 IVA
Fishes:					
GSF7091Grace com:	-55 DNDT cmm	-411 KTSLPVL	-435VSVG	-508 LGFLSPLEGSSY	-530 TIG
G8FZQ9 Grass carp: Q804I3 Icefish:	-55 DNDLSTT -56 DDDFSTT	-411 KTSLPVL -412 STPLDVR	-435LLG	-508 LGFLSPLEGSSY -511 FGNIPTNDMSTY	-530 TIG
A8IF50 Rockfish	-59 DDDLATS	-414 SNQVTVT	-448VSIG	-515 FGLIESFYYSNY	-537 TNKVHHTI
W5U8I4 Catfish:	-57 DDDLATS	-413 SAQLQVN -411 STSLPVV	-450	-510IWFIGSLGY	-532 AMDRI
Q7SYE4 Zebrafish: H3ARN1 Coelacanth:	-55 DDDLSTT -48 DEDLSTA	-405 NSQANVT	-445ISAG -439 KLQVSYQ	-507HADPLDASVY -506 FENVTSSSATNY	-529 TIF -528 SL
K7ZRZ0 Eel:	-56 DDDTATS	-410 SSQLEIT	-447T	-511 FGVIAPSSVSNY	-533 TLT
A8YV68 Atlantic cod:	-55 DDDLAIT	-411 GATVDVS	-441DI	-506IPSMKMSKY	-526 DIQ
Reptiles:					
K7F535 Turtle:	-54 DDNLSTA	-410 TDVAKVD	-444 NVIISYG	-515 FGHVNNFSATNY	-537 VVAF
G1KST4 Chameleon:	-65 DDNLSTA	-421 NDKVTAN	-458 NVVIING	-529 FPYVSFFSATNY	-551 TIH
V8NSZ0 King cobra:	-51 DDNLSTA		-372 NIDISYI	-438 FGELRNFSVSNY	-460 IVK
Amphibians:					
F6YGU9 Xenopus tropicalis:	-43 DDNLATV	-399 TKDLNVT	-434 TFAYGTN	-505 LGQLMPLQISNY	-527 EVF
	-32 DENLSTT	-377 RGELIVE	-416 DFNVELT	-489 VSA-RRGDVSNY	-506 SLC
Others:					
Q21219 C. elegans:	-80 TDSQSTI	-443 ETDCTIT	-494 TYDLSYD	-566 FDPCNPRHPADF	-636 LLNTPKDV

Fig. III: Genome-wide evolutionary conservation of mPEPT1 N-glycosylation sites.

A protein sequence alignment of mPEPT1 in 50 individual vertebrate species was performed to obtain a more accurate impression of the preservation of individual glycosylation sites (marked with a grey box). It was found that the sequons N50, N439, N510 and N515 are most strongly conserved. The glycosylation motifs around N50 and N439 showed 58-60% conservation in mammalian species and birds. With 30% co-occurrence, glycosites N510 and N515 were predominantly preserved in mammals. Sequons N406 and N532 were significantly less conserved with 10 and 20%. Protein alignment was implemented with Clustal Omega provided by the UniProtKB platform [437, 438]. Protein sequences chosen for alignment were selected according to the criteria:

1. Assignment to the group of peptide transporter; 2. Protein sequence > 600 bp; 3. Sequence identity to mPEPT1 > 50%. Fig. III was adopted from Stelzl et al. (2016; p. G138) [239].

In silico analyses of the mPEPT1 transporter

	TMD1 20 C25 40 60 TMD2
mPEPT1:	MGMSKSRGCFGYPLSIFFIVVNEFGERFSYYGMRALLVLYFRNFLGWDDNLSTAIYHTFVALCYLTPILG
<pre>pred_sa:</pre>	76323434533100000000001100100100100000012104243220111000100100210230
_	90 TMD3 110 TMD4 130
mPEPT1:	${\tt ALIADSWLGKFKTIVSLSIVYTIGQAVISVSSINDLTDHDHNGSPDSLPVHVALSMVGLALIALGTGGIK}$
<pre>pred_sa:</pre>	00100010011000000000220020001000000132443323302000000010111101000110
	160 TMD5 180 C189 C197 TMD6
mPEPT1:	pcvsafggdqfeegqekqrnrffsifylainggsllstiitpilrvqq@gihsqqa@yplafgvpaalma
<pre>pred_sa:</pre>	000000001044744421110001000001001200000001032 5 4223420 0 0000000000000
	230 250 270
mPEPT1:	VALIVFVLGSGMYKKFQPQGNIMGKVAKCIGFAIKNRFRHRSKAYPKREHWLDWAKEKYDERLISQIKMV
pred sa:	002000200132023330622000100000000122134344631643412331314135410300000
	TMD7 300 320 TMD8 340
mPEPT1:	TKVMFLYIPLPMFWALFDQQGSRWTLQATTMNGKIGAIEIQPDQMQTVNAILIVIMVPIVDAVVYPLIAK
<pre>pred_sa:</pre>	0100001000000000000201100200210113013130100000000
	370 390 N406 1
mPEPT1:	CGFNFTSLKKMTVGMFLASMAFVVAAIVQVEIDKTLPVFPGGNQVQIKVLNIGNNMTVHFPGNSVTLAQ
<pre>pred_sa:</pre>	273602100000001000010000000010224312123362201000000010201000000010010
	N439 460 480
mPEPT1:	MSQTDTFMTFDIDKLTSINISSSGSPGVTTVAHDFEQGHRHTLLVWNPSQYRVVKDGLNQKPEKGENGIR
<pre>pred_sa:</pre>	001111013311630320 101121121110123033332222201221111002222233233121001
	N510 N515 N532 C540 550
mPEPT1:	FVNTLNEMVTIKMSGKVYE <mark>N</mark> VTSH <mark>N</mark> ASGYQFFPSGEKQYTI <mark>N</mark> TTAVAPT <mark>C</mark> LTDFKSSNLDFGSAYTYVIR
<pre>pred_sa:</pre>	0111222211010323221 0232 1332220333223110 23231221 03231111100100000000
	C566 580 TMD10 600 620 TMD11
mPEPT1:	RASDGCLEVKEFEDIPPNTVNMALQIPQYFLLTCGEVVFSVTGLEFSYSQAPSNMKSVLQAGWLLTVAVG
<pre>pred_sa:</pre>	21222 2333314424411000000010000000000000000000
	650 TMD12 670 690
mPEPT1:	NIIVLIVAGAGHFPKQWAEYILFASLLLVVCVIFAIMARFYTYINPAEIEAQFDEDEKKKGIGKENPYSS
<pre>pred_sa:</pre>	00000001003133100000000000000000011022244544535345454455345643354
	709
mPEPT1:	LEPVSQTNM
pred sa:	354454565

Fig. IV-A: mPEPT1 solvent accessibility prediction.

The relative solvent accessibility of amino acid residues within mPEPT1 (ACNO: Q9JIP7) was predicted with I-TASSER in the context of PEPT1 homology modeling. Based on the program "solve", the solvent accessibility scores for mPEPT1 (pred_sa) were predicted in a range of 0 (=buried residue) to 9 (=highly exposed residue). Protein transmembrane domains are marked in grey (according to the UniProtKB database), putative N-glycosylation sites are marked in red and surface exposed cysteine residues are shown in black.

Table IV-A: mPEPT1 disulfide bond prediction

Predicted disulfide bond*)	Cysteine_1 position	Cysteine_2 position
1	C594	C566
2	C189	C197
3	C594	C661
4	C9	C25

^{*)}Disulfide bond formation in mPEPT1 (ACNO: Q9JIP7) was predicted with DIpro v. 2.0 provided by the SCRATCH Protein Predictor platform [448]. A total of 12 cysteine residues were analyzed and the predicted disulfide bond formation was ordered from the high-probability to the low-probability.

Table IV-B: In-silico mPEPT1 missense mutation prediction

Amino acid position	Substitutions predicted to be tolerated (SIFT)	Substitutions predicted to be intolerant (SIFT)	Amino acid substitution	PROVEAN prediction (score)
N50	N, D	m, I, w, v, f, I, c, y, r, p, q, a, t, h, k, e, s, g	N50Q	deleterious (-3.11)
N406	h, I, v, I, g, r, Q, P A, N, K, T, S, E, D	w, y, f, c, m	N406Q	neutral (-0.89)
N439	c, w, p, D, M, e, k, q, g, r, s, I, a, T, V, N, L, f, H, Y	-	N439Q	neutral (-2.02)
N510	w, c, m, F, H, p,y, I, g, V, L, r, t, Q, D, A, k, N, S, E	-	N510Q	neutral (-1.73)
N515	I, h, Y, v, I, p, R, T, Q, A, S, K, E, D, G, N	w, f, c, m	N515Q	neutral (-1.85)
N532	w, c, M, p, I, g, D, N, H, Q, R, V, t, F, L, K, e, S, a, y	-	N532Q	neutral (-0.75)
C25	С	y, w, v, t, s, r, q, p, n, m, l, k, l, h, g, f, e, d, a	C25S	deleterious (-9.73)
C189	m, y, I, d, h, v, p, I, C, t, n, e, g, s, a, Q, r, K	w, f	C189S	deleterious (-7.65)
C197	С	y, w, v, t, s, r, q, p, n, m, l, k, l, h, g, f, e, d, a	C197S	deleterious (-9.64)
C540	I, y, h, d, g, v, P, L, e, a, s, Q, N, T, r, K, C	w, m, f	C540S	deleterious (-3.45)
C566	W, m, C, p, I, r, Q, V, h, f, k, e, I, t, a, y, G, D, S, N	-	C566S	deleterious (-2.59)

Functional consequences of amino acid substitutions in mPEPT1 (ACNO: Q9JIP7) were predicted with the SIFT (Sorting Intolerant From Tolerant) [449, 450, 451, 452, 453] and PROVEAN (Protein Variation Effect Analyzer) platforms [454, 455]. The SIFT prediction is based on the conservation of amino acid residues in sequence alignments derived from closely related sequences (\$\Sigma\$ 53) identified with PSIBLAST and Dirichlet distribution in the UniProt-TrEMBL database. Amino acid substitutions located at conserved alignment positions are expected to be less tolerated. The SIFT amino acid color code is: nonpolar residue; uncharged polar residue; basic residue; acidic residue. Capital letters indicate amino acids appearing in the alignment, lower case letters arise from predictions. The PROVEAN prediction is based on the similarity change of the query sequence following amino acid exchange to a set of related protein sequences (∑ 120 sequences; a PROVEAN score of ≤ -2.5 predicts the protein variant to have a "deleterious" effect, while a PROVEAN score of > -2.5 predicts the variant to have a "neutral" effect.

Trypsin: Σ 54 cleavage sites

Position of cleavage site within mPEPT1: 5 7 27 34 42 80 82 157 159 161 185 224 225 235 238 245 247 249 251 253 257 258 266 268 272 278 282 303 314 350 359 360 384 398 434 460 472 475 484 490 502 506 527 545 560 561 570 616 645 669 688 689 690 694

Proteinase K: Σ 375 cleavage sites

Position of cleavage site within mPEPT1: 10 12 14 16 17 18 19 20 21 23 24 26 28 30 31 35 36 37 38 39 40 41 44 45 47 51 53 54 55 56 58 59 60 61 62 64 65 66 68 69 71 72 73 74 77 78 81 83 84 85 87 89 90 91 92 93 96 97 98 100 103 106 107 118 120 122 123 124 127 129 130 131 132 133 134 136 139 143 145 146 151 152 153 156 162 163 165 166 167 168 169 170 175 176 178 179 180 181 183 184 186 191 196 198 200 201 202 204 206 207 208 210 211 212 213 214 215 216 217 218 223 226 232 236 237 240 242 243 244 248 254 255 259 261 262 264 265 267 269 271 273 274 277 280 281 283 285 286 287 288 290 293 294 295 296 297 304 305 306 308 309 310 315 317 318 319 320 327 328 330 331 332 333 334 335 337 339 340 342 343 344 345 347 348 349 353 355 356 358 362 363 366 367 368 371 372 373 374 375 376 377 378 380 381 382 385 386 388 389 395 397 399 400 402 408 409 411 416 417 418 419 424 426 427 429 430 432 435 436 438 440 448 449 450 451 452 455 456 462 463 464 465 466 471 473 474 478 483 486 489 491 492 494 495 497 499 500 501 507 508 509 511 512 516 519 521 522 526 529 530 531 533 534 535 536 537 539 541 542 544 549 551 554 555 556 557 558 559 562 567 568 569 571 572 573 575 579 580 583 584 586 589 590 591 592 593 596 597 598 599 601 602 604 605 606 608 611 618 619 621 623 624 625 626 627 628 629 632 633 634 635 636 637 638 640 643 647 648 649 650 651 652 653 654 656 657 658 659 660 662 663 664 665 666 668 670 671 672 673 674 677 678 679 680 681 683 685 687 692 695 698 701 702 704 707

Fig. IV-B: In-silico prediction of mPEPT1 protease cleavage sites.

Predictions for putative trypsin and proteinase K cleavage sites in mPEPT1 were performed with the PeptideCutter online platform provided by ExPasy [302]. Extracellular mPEPT1 (ACNO: Q9JIP7) motifs are grey-marked according to the UniProtKB predictions.



Fig. V: Comparative analysis of mammalian and crystallized bacterial PEPT1 homologues.

Multiple sequence alignment of crystallized bacterial POT homologues from Shewanella oneidensis (PepTso and PepTso2; ACNO: Q8EKT7 and Q8EHE6), Streptococcus thermophilus (PepT_{st}; ACNO: Q5M4H8), Geococcus kaustophilus (GkPOT; ACNO: Q5KYD1), Escherichia coli (YbgH; ACNO: P75742) with PEPT1 from rabbit (rbPEPT1; ACNO: P36836), human (hPEPT1; ACNO: P46059) and mouse (mPEPT1; ACNO: Q9JIP7). Individual amino acids assigned a specific functional role are color-coded blue, while distinct non-conserved residues within this regions are marked with different colors. Putative N-glycosylation sites examined for the murine PEPT1 transporter are highlighted in red (N50, N406, N439, N510, N515, N532). The grey-shaded areas denote transmembrane-helices identified in S. oneidensis (TMD1-12) (according to Newstead et al. [150]), while predicted TMDs in mPEPT1 (UniProtKB) are additionally underlined. The alignment was performed with Clustal Omega provided by EMBL-EBI.

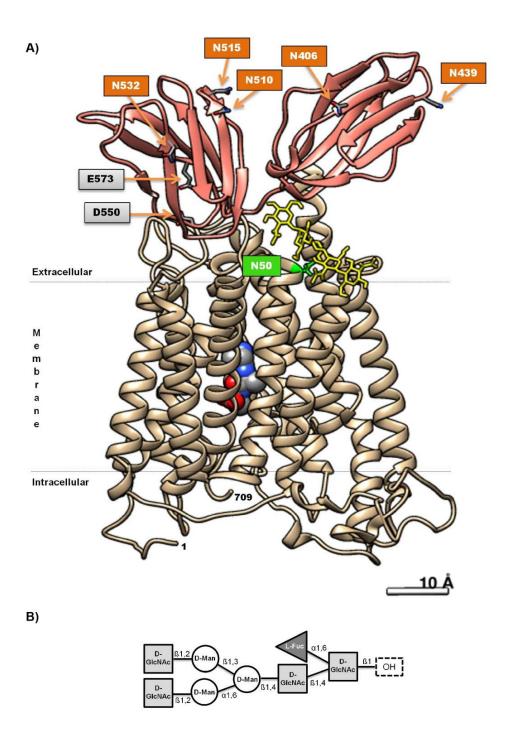


Fig. VI: Structural model of monoglycosylated mPEPT1.

(VI-A-B) Predicted tertiary structure of mPEPT1 (VI-A) carrying the two-antennary complex *N*-glycan D-GlcNAc-β1-2D-Man-α1-6[D-GlcpNAc-β1-2D-Man-α1-3]D-Man-β1-4D-GlcNAc-β1-4[L-Fuc-α1-6]D-GlcpNac-1 (VI-B) at sequon N50. Residue N50 is highlighted in green and the complex oligosaccharide structure marked in yellow. Putative *N*-glycosylation sites located within the ECD₉₋₁₀ of mPEPT1 (orange boxes) and trypsin binding sites (grey boxes) are numbered accordingly. The mPEPT1 ribbon model was generated with I-TASSER [264, 265, 266] and superimposed on crystallized PTR structures of *Shewanella oneidensis* (PDB: 4TPJ, 4LEP), *Streptococcus thermophilus* (PDB: 4D2B, 4D2D) *Geobacillus kaustophilus* (PDB: 4lKW) and the ECD₉₋₁₀ of mPEPT1 (PDB: 5A9D) applying the UCSF Chimera v. 1.10.2 software [267]. The complex glycan structure was obtained from the GLYCAM database and protein:carbohydrate docking was performed with AutoDock Vina. The mPEPT1 3D protein model is viewed perpendicular to the membrane with a tri-L-alanine in the central binding cavity.

Chemical structures of MTSEA-biotin derivatives

A) MTSEA-biotin:

Chemical name: (2-((biotinoyl)amino)ethylmethanethiosulfonate)

Molecular formula: C₁₃H₂₃N₃O₄S₃
Molecular weight: 381.52 g/mol

Structural formula:

HN NH
H
O
$$H$$
O
 H
O

B) MTSEA-biotin-X:

Chemical name: (2-((6-(biotinoyl)amino)hexanoyl)amino)ethylmethanethiosulfonate);

MTSEA-biotincap

Molecular formula: C₁₉H₃₄N₄O₅S₃
Molecular weight: 494.68 g/mol
Structural formula:

C) MTSEA-biotin-XX:

Structural formula:

Chemical name: (2-((6-(i6-biotinoyl)amino)hexanoyl)amino)hexanoyl)amino)ethyl-

methanethiosulfonate);

MTSEA-biotincapcap

Molecular formula: $C_{25}H_{45}N_5O_6S_3$ Molecular weight: 607.70 g/mol

Fig. VII: Chemical structures of MTSEA-biotin derivatives used for labeling of mPEPT1 transporters.

MTSEA-biotin labeling of cell surface thiols in the mPEPT1 transporter was performed with MTSEA-biotin (VII-A), MTSEA-biotin-X (VII-B) and MTSEA-biotin-XX (VII-C), which differ in their spacer length between the biotin moiety and the thiol-reactive head group.

Cloning vectors

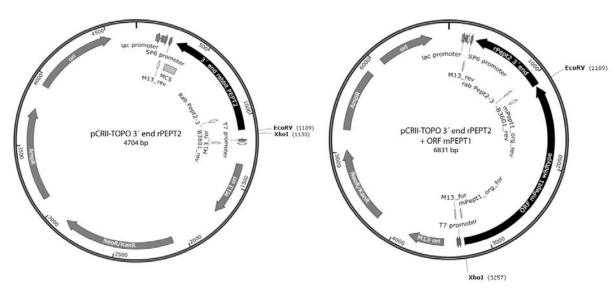


Fig. VIII-A: Vector maps and sequence of pCRII-TOPO 3'end rPEPT2

[A]:	lac promoter	(143-174	bp)
[B]:	SP6 promoter	(239-257	bp)
[C]:	polyA-tail rPEPT2 3'end	(294-1097	bp)
[D]:	ORF mPEPT1 wild type	(1119-3248	bp)
[E]:	T7 promoter	(3288-3306	bp)
[F]:	M13 ori	(3471-3851	bp)
[G]:	NeoR/KanR	(4219-5013	bp)
[H]:	AmpR	(5229-5888	bp)
[I]:	Ori	(6062-6650	bp)

(1 bp)AGCGCCCAATACGCAAACCGCCTCTCCCCGCGCGTTGGCCGATTCATTAATGCAGCTGGCACGACAGGTTTCCCGACTGGAAAGCGGG CAGTGAGCGCAACGCAATTAATGTGAGTTAGCTCACTCATTAGGCACCCCAGGC<[A]TTTACACTTTATGCTTCCGGCTCGTATGTTG[A]>T ATTCTGCAGATATCTGCCCT<[D]TCACATATTTGTCTGTGAGACTGGTTCCAATGAAGAATACGGGTTTTCCTTTCCTATGCCCTTTTTCTTC TCATCCTCATCAAACTGTGCTTCAATCTCTGCTGGGTTGATGTAGGTGTAGAATCGAGCCATGATGGCGAATATCACGCAGACCACCAGAAGCA AAGCCAGCCTGCCTGAAGCACGGACTTCATGTTAGACGGAGCCTGGGAATAAGAGAACTCCAGTCCTGTGACAGAGAAGACCACCTCGCCGCAG GGTTCCACACTAGAAGGGTGTGCCGGTGACCCTGCTCAAAATCATGAGCTACTGTGGTGACTCCTGGGGATCCAGAGGAAGATATGTTTATGCT AGCGTCCACAATGGGGACCATGATGACAATCAAGATGGCATTCACCGTCTGCATCTGGTCCGGCTGAATTTCAATTGCTCCAATTTTCCCATTCATGGTCGTTGCTGCAGTGTCCATCTGGAACCCTGCTGGTCAAACAAGGCCCAGAACATGGGGAGTGGGATGTACAGGAACATCACCTTCGTGA

AAACCTGTTTTTGATGGCAAAACCAATGCACTTGGCCACTTTGCCCATGATGTTGCCCTGGGGCTGGAACTTCTTGTACATCCACTGCCAAGGA CCCTCTTCAAACTGATCGCCACCAAACGCAGACACACAGGGCTTGATTCCTCCTGTACCAAGGGCTATCAGGGCCAGGCCAACCATGGACAGTG $\tt CTACGTGCACGGGAAGGCTGTCAGGACTGCCATTGTGGTCGTGGTCTGTGAGGTCATTAATTGAGCTCACCGAGATGACTGCTTGTCCAATCGT$ GTAGACGATGGATAGTGAAACAATTGTCTTGAACTTCCCCAGCCACGAGTCTGCGATCAGAGCTCCAAGAATTGGAGTCAGGTAGCAGAGGGCA ACGAACGTATGGTAAATGGCCGTGGAGAGATTGTCGTCCCAGCCGAGGAAGTTCCTGAAGTACAGAACCAGGAGTGCTCGCATGCCATAGTAGG AGAATCTTTCACAGAATTCATTGACCACGATGAAGAAGATGCTCAACGGGTAACCGAAGCAACCCCGAGACTTGGACATCCCCAT[D]>TGTGG GAATTGCCAGCTGGGGCGCCCTCTGGTAAGGTTGGGAAGCCCTGCAAAGTAAACTGGATGGCTTTCTTGCCGCCAAGGATCTGATGGCGCAGGG GATCAAGATCTGATCAAGAGACAGGATGAGGATCGTTTCGCATGATTGAACAAGATGGATTGCACGCAGGTTCTCCGGCCGCTTGGGTGGAGAG AGTATCCATCATGGCTGATGCAATGCGGCGGCTGCATACGCTTGATCCGGCTACCTGCCCATTCGACCACCAAGCGAAACATCGCATCGAGCGA ${\sf GACCGCTTCCTCGTGCTTTACGGTATCGCCGCTCCCGATTCGCAGCGCATCGCCTTCTATCGCCCTTCTTGACGAGTTCTTCTGAAATTGAAAAAG$ ${\tt GAAGAGTATGACTATTCACCTTTTCCCTTTTTTGCGGCATTTTTGCCTCTCTTTTTTGCTCACCCAGAAACGCTGGTG}$ AAGAACGTTTTCCAATG<[G]ATGAGCACTTTTAAAGTTCTGCTATGTGATACACTATTATCCCGTATTGACGCCGGGCAAGAGCAACTCGGTC GGGCCAGATGGTAAGCGCTCCCGTATCGTAGTTATCTACACGACGGGGGAGTCAGGCAACTATGGATGAACGAAATAGACAGATCGCTGAGATAG GACCGAGCGCAGCGAGTCAGTGAGCGAGGAAGCGGAAG (6831 bp)

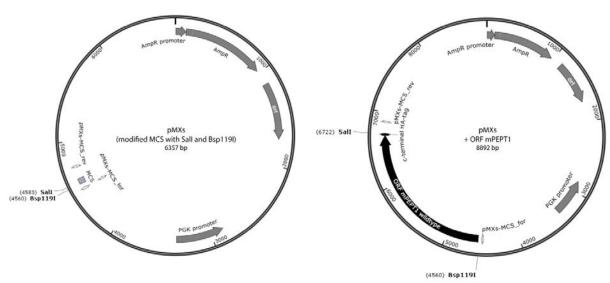


Fig. VIII-B: Vector maps and sequence of pMXS.

[A]:	AmpR	(114-974	bp)
[B]:	Ori	(1138-1726	bp)
[C]:	PGK promoter	(2864-3363	bp)
[D]:	ORF mPEPT1 wild type	(4565-6691	bp)
E):	C-terminal HA-tag	(6692-6718	bp)

(1 bp)GAAATGTG [A] CGCGGAACCCCTATTTGTTTATTTTTCTAAATACATTCAAATATGTATCCGCTCATGAGACAATAACCCTGATAAA ${\tt GCTCACCCAGAAACGCTGGTGAAAGTAAAAGATCCTGAAGATCAGTTGGGTGCACGAGTGGGTTACATCGAACTGGATCTCAACAGCGGTAAGA}$ ${\tt TCCTTGAGAGTTTTCGCCCCGAAGAACGTTTTCCAATGATGAGCACTTTTAAAGTTCTGCTATGTGGCGCGGTATTATCCCGTATTGACGCCGG}$ $\tt CGACGATACAAGTCAGGTTGCCAGCTGCCGCAGCAGCAGCAGCACCACGAGTTCTGCACAAGGTCCCCCAGTAAAATGATATACATACATTACATTACATA$ GAGCCCGCCCCGGACCCACCCCTTCCCAGCCTCTGAGCCCAGAAAGCGAAGGAGCAAAGCTGCTATTGGCCGCTGCCCCAAAGGCCTACCCGC $\tt GGGGGAACTTCCTGACTAGGGGGAGGAGTAGAAGGTGGCGCGAAGGGGCCACCAAAGAACGGAGCCGGTTGGCGCCTACCGGTGGATGTGGAATGTGAATGTAATGTAATGTGAATGTGAATGTGAATGTGAATGTGAATGTAATGTGAATGTGAATGTAATGTAATGTAATGTAATGTAATGTAATGA$

ACCC[C]>GGTAGAATTTGCTCGACGTGAGGCTCCGGTGCCCGTCAGTGGCCAGAGCGCACATCGCCCACAGTCCCCGAGAAGTTGGGGGGGAGG GGTCGGCAATTGAACCGGTGCCTAGAGAAGGTGGCGCGGGGTAAACTGGGAAAGTGATGTCGTGTACTGGCTCCGCCTTTTTCCCGAGGGTGGG GGAGAACCGTATATAAGTGCAGTAGTCGCCGTGAACGTTCTTTTTCGCAACGGGTTTGCCGCCAGAACACAGGTAAGTGCCGTGTGTGGTTCCC ${\tt GCGGGCCTGGCCTCTTTACGGGTTATGGCCCTTGCGTGCCTTGAATTACTTCCACCTGGCTGCAGTACGTGATTCTTGATCCCGAGCTTCGGGTTACGTGATTCTTGATCCCGAGCTTCGGGTTACGTGATTCTTGATCCCGAGCTTCGGGTTACGTGATTCTTGATCCCGAGCTTCGGGTTACGTGATTCTTGATCCCGAGCTTCGGGTTACGTGATTCTTGATCCCGAGCTTCGGGTTACGTGATTCTTGATCCCGAGCTTCGGGTTACGTGATTCTTGATCCCGAGCTTCGGGTTACGTGATTCTTGATCCCGAGCTTCGGGTTACGTGATTCTTGATCCCGAGCTTCGGGTTACGTGATTCTTGATCCCGAGCTTCGGGTTACGTGATTCTTGATCCCGAGCTTCGGGTTACGTGATTCTTGATCCCGAGCTTCGGGTTACGTGATTCTTGATCCCGAGCTTCGGGTTACGTGATTCTTGATCCCGAGCTTCGGGTTACGTGATTCTTGATCCTGGGTTACGTGATTCTTGATCCCGAGCTTCGGGTTACGTGATTCTTGATCTTGATCTCGAGCTTGATTCTTGATCTCGAGCTTGATTACTTCCACCTGGCTGCAGTACGTGATTCTTTGATCCCGAGCTTCGGGTTACGTGATCTTCAATTACTTCCACCTGGCTTGCATTCTTGATCCCAGGCTTCGGGTTACGTGATCTTCAATTACTTCAATTACTTCCACCTGGCTTGATTACTTCAATTACTTCCACCTGGCTTGATTCTTTGATCCACCTGGCTTGATTACTTCAATTACTTCAATTACTTCAATTACTTCCACCTTGATTACTTCAATTACAATTACTTCAATTACAATTACAATTAATTACTTCAATTACAATTAATTACTTCAATTACAATACAATTACAATACAATTACAATACAATACAAT$ ${\tt CACAGTCAACAAGCTTGTTACCCACTGGCCTTCGGGGTTCCAGCGGCTCTCATGGCTGTTGCCCTAATTGTGTTTTGTCCTTGGCAGTGGAATGT}$ ATATCCCAAGAGGAGCACTGGCTGGACTGGGCTAAAGAGAAATACGACGACGGCTCATCTCACAGATTAAGATGGTCACGAAGGTGATGTTC GTGGAAATCGATAAAACTCTTCCAGTCTTCCCTGGTGGAAATCAAGTCCAAATTAAGGTCTTGAACATCGGAAACAATAACATGACCGTGCATT CTCTGGATCCCCAGGAGTCACCACAGTAGCTCATGATTTTGAGCAGGGTCACCGGCACACCCTTCTAGTGTGGAACCCCAGTCAATACCGTGTG GTAAAAGATGGTCTTAACCAAAAGCCAGAGAAAGGGGAGAACGGAATCAGGTTTGTCAACACCCTTAACGAGATGGTCACCATCAAAATGAGTG GGAAAGTATATGAAAATGTCACCAGTCACAACGCCAGCGGCTACCAGTTCTTCCCTTCTGGCGAAAAGCAGTACACAATAAACACCACGGGGG GGCACCAACCTGTCTAACTGATTTTAAATCTTCCAACCTTGACTTTGGCAGCGCGTATACCTACGTGATCCGAAGGGCGAGTGATGGCTGCCTG GTGATATTCGCCATCATGGCTCGATTCTACACCTACATCAACCCAGCAGAGATTGAAGCACAGTTTGATGAGGATGAGAAAAAAGGGCATAG GAAAGGAAAACCCGTATTCTTCATTGGAACCAGTCTCACAGACAAATATG[D]><[E]TATCCATATGATGTTCCAGATTATGCT[E]>TAAGT GACCCTGGAAGGTGCCACTCCCACTGTCCTTTCCTAATAAAATGAGGAAATTGCATCGCATTGTCTGAGTAGGTGTCATTCTATTCTGGGGGGGT GGGCGCCTAGAGAAGGAGTGAGGGCTGGATAAAGGGAGGATCGAGGCGGGGTCGAACGAGGAGGTTCAAGGGGGAGAGACGGGGCGGATGGAGG TAAAGGTTGGCCATTCTGCAGAGCAGAGGTAACCCAACGTCTCTTCTTGACATCTACCGACTGGTTGTGAGCGATCCGCTCGACATCTTTCCAATGCTGCAGCAGACAAGACGCGCGCGCGCGCTTCGGTCCCAAACCGAAAGCAAAAATTCAGACGGAGGCGGAACTGTTTTAGGTTCTCGTCTC $\tt CCCCGAAGTCCCTGGGACGTCTCCCAGGGTTGCGGCCGGGTGTTCCGAACTCGTCAGTTCCACCACGGGTCCGCCAGATACAGAGCTAGTTAGC$ $\tt CCCTCCCAAGGACAGGCGACCACAAGTCGGATGCAACTGCAAGGGGTTTATTGGATACACGGGTACCCGGGCGACTCAGTCAATCGGAGGA$ $\tt CTGGCGCCGAGTGAGGGGTTGTGGGCTCTTTTATTGAGCTCGGGGAGCAGAAGCGCGCGAACAGAAGCGAGAAGCGAACTGATTGGTTAGTT$ ${\tt ACCATCTGTTCTTGGCCCTGAGCCGGGGCAGGAACTGCTTACCACAGATATCCTGTTTTGGCCCATATTCAGCTGTTCCATCTGTTCTTGGCCCT}$ ${\tt GAGCCGGGGCAGGAACTGCTTACCACAGATATCCTGTTTGGCCCATATTCAGCTGTTCCATCTGTTCCTGACCTTGATCTGAACTTTTCTATTC}$ TTTCGGG (8892 bp)

Erklärung

Hiermit versichere ich, dass ich die vorliegende Arbeit,

Glycosylation of the intestinal peptide transporter: structure and function

selbständig verfasst und keine anderen als die angegebenen Quellen und Hilfsmittel benutzt habe. Die den benutzten Quellen wörtlich und inhaltlich entnommenen Stellen sind als solche kenntlich gemacht.

Diese Arbeit hat in gleicher oder ähnlicher Form noch keiner anderen Prüfungsbehörde vorgelegen.

Moosburg, den 29.08.2017

Tamara Stelzl

List of Scientific Publications

- 2017: Stelzl T, Geillinger-Kästle KE, Stolz J, Daniel H. Glycans in the intestinal peptide transporter PEPT1 contribute to function and protect from proteolysis. Am J Physiol Gastrointest Liver Physiol. 2017; 312(6):G580-G591.
- 2016: **Stelzl T**, Baranov T, Geillinger KE, Kottra G, Daniel H. Effect of N-glycosylation on the transport activity of the peptide transporter PEPT1. Am J Physiol Gastrointest Liver Physiol. 2016; 310(2):G128-G141.
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Selected oral presentations and poster contributions

2015: Göttinger Transporttage 2015 - Göttingen, Germany

2014: Nestlé Research Center - Lausanne, Switzerland

2013: Science Camp at Monastery of Seeon - Seeon-Seebruck, Germany

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