1 **Human parainfluenza virus infection remodels the host cell glycome**

2 Plabon Kumar Das[1], Larissa Dirr[1], Benjamin Bailly[1], Patrice Guillon[1], Arun Everest-Dass[1] and
3 Mark von Itzstein[1].

4 [1]Institute for Biomedicine and Glycomics, Griffith University, Gold Coast Campus,
5 Queensland 4222, Australia.

6 Abstract

Human parainfluenza virus type 3 (HPIV-3) remains a major cause of respiratory illness
particularly among young children, the elderly and immunocompromised individuals. Despite
significant efforts in therapeutic discovery research, there is neither an effective antiviral nor a
vaccine available against HPIV-3. Host cell glycosylation is known to play a pivotal role in
virus entry and replication. While some host glycan-based cellular receptors for HPIV-3 have
been identified, the dynamics of the host-cell glycome upon HPIV-3 infection has never been
studied. Herein, we report the first mass spectrometry-based study that provides direct insight
into the remodelling of the human lung adenocarcinoma cell (A549) glycome upon HPIV-3
infection. Our results reveal significant remodelling of host-cell glycome, including increased
expression of oligomannose and reduced expression of sialylated complex-type *N*-glycans. In
addition, we observed altered *O*-glycan expression, with upregulation of core 1 and
downregulation of core 2 type structures in infected cells compared to mock-infected controls.
HPIV-3 infection also led to distinct remodelling of glycosphingolipid glycans. Together, these
findings present the first evidence that HPIV-3 infection alters host-cell glycome, offering new
insights into the virus' impact on host-cellular processes.

Keywords: respirovirus, host-cell glycome, mass spectrometry, glycome remodelling.

Introduction

Human parainfluenza viruses (HPIVs) are among the most common causes of respiratory tract infections in children under the age of five, the elderly, and immunocompromised individuals, often resulting in high mortality rates[1]. The most common clinical manifestations reported for HPIV infections include colds, croup, bronchiolitis, bronchitis, and pneumonia. HPIV infections account for 40% of paediatric hospitalizations for lower respiratory tract infection and 75% of croup cases across the world, annually[1]. Despite the significant health burden posed by HPIV infections, neither antiviral drugs nor vaccines are currently available. The infection begins in the nose and oropharynx and then spreads to the lower respiratory tract in severe cases, with ciliated epithelial cells of both the upper and lower respiratory tracts being the primary targets of HPIVs[2,3]. There are four major serotypes of HPIV, designated as serotype 1 to serotype 4. HPIV-3 is the most prevalent HPIV subtype worldwide, including Australia, causing seasonal outbreaks in spring mostly after influenza outbreaks[4]. Regardless of serotypes, cell surface carbohydrates (glycans) play an important role in the life cycle of HPIVs[1]. Glycans, carbohydrate-based biopolymers linked by glycosidic bonds, are present in all living organisms. They play significant roles in biology, including maintaining the cell's physical and structural integrity, contributing to the formation of extracellular matrix, mediating signal transduction, assisting in protein folding, and facilitating infection by pathogens[5]. In particular, glycans play numerous roles in viral pathogenesis, including as host cell receptors for adhesion of the virus particle (e.g. influenza virus)[6], protection of the antigenic epitope of viral glycoproteins from the host immune response (e.g. human immunodeficiency virus)[7], and subversion of the immune response by acting as an antibody decoy (e.g. Lassa virus)[8]. Like influenza viruses, HPIV-3 recognizes sialic acids on the host cell via its haemagglutinin-neuraminidase (HN) protein. The neuraminidase activity of the HN protein enables the virus to remove sialic acid residues from glycoproteins and glycolipids on the host cell surface, thereby aiding the release of new virus particles from the infected host-cell[9]. While the important role of glycans for entry and release of HPIV is known, the dynamics of the host-cell glycome expression upon infection remains to be determined.

Recent advancements in chromatography, ionization techniques and mass spectrometry have significantly enhanced our ability to characterize glycans through relatively user-friendly workflows and high-throughput methodologies[10]. Liquid chromatography (LC), employing porous graphitized carbon (PGC) as a stationary phase, coupled with electrospray ionization (ESI) tandem mass spectrometry (PGC-LC-ESI-MS/MS) can separate and detect the structural

isomers of glycans based on their retention time and fragmentation pattern[11]. Using the
PGC-LC-ESI-MS/MS-based workflow, we aimed to characterize the dynamics of the host-cell
glycome—including N-, O-, and glycosphingolipid (GSL) glycans—during HPIV-3 infection
in a human lung epithelial cell model (A549 cells).

Based on our findings, our study supports the notion that there is an extensive
remodelling of the host-cell glycome upon HPIV-3 infection at the measured timepoints of
24 h and 48 h. Notably, a significant increase in oligomannose-type and a concomitant decrease
in sialylated complex-type N-glycans was observed post-infection. HPIV-3 infection also led
to increased expression of core 1 and decreased expression of core 2 type O-glycans compared
to mock-infected cells. These alterations in N-glycan and O-glycans were accompanied by a
significant modulation of GSL glycans in HPIV-3 infected cell. Our findings demonstrate that
HPIV-3 remodels the host-cell glycome, providing a comprehensive characterization of this
remodelling event and offering new insights into HPIV-3 pathogenesis.

Experimental procedures

Cell culture, virus and infection assays

Human lung adenocarcinoma epithelial cells (A549; ATCC, CCL-185) were
maintained in Dulbecco's Modified Eagle Medium (DMEM) (Gibco, Cat. no. 10313021) media
supplemented with 5% foetal bovine serum (FBS, Gibco, Cat. no. 10099141), 1%
Antibiotic-Antimycotic (100X, Gibco, Cat. no. 15240062), 1% MEM Non-essential Amino
Acid (100X, Sigma, Cat. no. M7145), 1% L-Glutamine 200 mM (100X, Gibco, Cat. no.
25030081) and incubated at 37 °C in a humidified chamber containing 5% CO_2. Human
parainfluenza virus type 3 (HPIV-3 JS), genetically modified to incorporate green fluorescent
protein (GFP), was obtained from ViraTree (Product # P323). Virus propagation was performed
in Rhesus monkey kidney epithelial (LLC-MK2; ATCC, CCL-7) cells using DMEM media
supplemented with 1% Antibiotic-Antimycotic, 1% MEM Non-essential Amino Acid, 1%
L-Glutamine (DMEM$_{inf}$) at 35 °C in a humidified chamber containing 5% CO_2. Approximately
2 million A549 cells were seeded in a 75 cm^2 flask 48 h prior infection. Cells were washed 2
times with phosphate buffer saline (PBS) and 5 times with DMEM$_{inf}$. Cell monolayer was
infected with HPIV-3 for 1 h at 35 °C and 5% CO_2, with multiplicity of infection (MOI) of 3
in triplicates. The mock-infected control was treated the same way as their infected counterpart
except for adding viral inoculum. Both infected and mock-infected cells were incubated for 24
h and 48 h at 35 °C in a humidified chamber containing 5% CO_2.

 Protein and glycosphingolipid (GSL) extraction

Cell culture media from both infected and mock-infected control were collected and
mixed with 5 volumes of ice-cold $(CH_3)_2CO$ (Sigma-Aldrich, Cat no. 650501) before storing
at -20 °C overnight to precipitate secreted proteins. Infected and mock-infected cells were first
washed four times with PBS to remove any residual media, including viral progeny. The cells
were then detached with a scrapper and lysed in 1X cold RIPA lysis buffer (Thermo Fisher,
Cat. no. 89900) supplemented with 1X protease inhibitor (Roche, cat. no. 11697498001). The
mixture was incubated overnight at 4 °C, followed by sonication for 30 min in an ultrasound
sonicator (VEVOR Ultrasonic Cleaner). Proteins and glycosphingolipids from cell lysates were
extracted through standard chloroform, methanol, and water extraction method described
elsewhere[12]. Briefly, 550 µL of chloroform (Sigma-Aldrich, Cat no. 1.02445) were added to
each sample and sonicated for 15 min, followed by addition of 350 µL of methanol (Merck,
Cat. no. 1.06035). The cell lysates were incubated at room temperature for 15 min with gentle
shaking, followed by centrifugation at 3000 x g for 20 min. Upper phase containing
glycosphingolipid were transferred to clean tubes. A mixture of 400 µL of chloroform/methanol
(2:1) and 400 µL of methanol/water (1:1) was added to the pellets and vortexed vigorously.
The mixture was sonicated again for 15 min followed by centrifugation at 3000 x g for 20 min.
Upper phase was collected and added to the previous collected sample. An additional 400 µL
methanol/water (1:1) mixture was added to the initial chloroform/methanol (2:1) phase and the
separation steps were repeated. Proteins were pelleted, by adding 750 µL methanol to the lower
phase, followed by centrifugation at 10000 x g for 20 min. The supernatant containing lipids
were combined with previously collected upper aqueous phase and subsequently dried using a
speed vac concentrator (Thermo Scientific; Savant SPD131DDA). The protein pellets were
air-dried and then resuspended in 100 µL 8 M urea. The secreted protein samples were
centrifuged at 5000 x g for 40 min to pellet the proteins. Supernatant was decanted and the
protein pellets were resuspended in 100 µL 8 M urea. Bicinchoninic acid (Thermo-Fisher, Cat.
no. 23227) assay was performed to quantify the proteins. Proteins were reduced and alkylated
by adding dithiothreitol (25 mM final concentration) at 60 °C for 1 h and Iodoacetamide
(50 mM final concentration) (Merck, Cat. no. 16125), for 30 min in dark at room temperature.

Release of N- *and* O-*glycans*

The glycomics workflow, including the release, reduction, desalting, and PGC clean-up
of *N-*, *O-*, and GSL glycans from protein and lipid samples, was performed according to a

previously published protocol[13], unless otherwise stated. Dot blotting of proteins on

polyvinylidene fluoride (PVDF) membrane (0.45 µm pore size, Millipore, Cat. no.05317) was

performed before the release of *N*-, and *O*-glycans. PVDF membrane was first activated with

ethanol (Merck, Cat. no. 459828). Approximately 30 µg of proteins were spotted on the

membrane. Protein spots were stained using direct Blue (Sigma-Aldrich, Cat. no. 212407),

excised, and transferred to a flat bottom polypropylene 96-well plate (Merck, Cat. no.

CLS3364), blocked with 1% (w/v) polyvinylpyrrolidone (Sigma-Aldrich, Cat no. PVP40) in

50% (v/v) methanol and washed 3 times with 100 µL ultrapure water (Sigma-Aldrich, Cat no.

1.15333). The *N*-glycans were then released using PNGase F (1000 units for each reaction)

(New England Biolabs, Cat. no. P0709L) for 16 h at 37 °C. The released *N*-glycans were

collected after agitation of the sealed plate on a shaker. The PVDF membrane wells were then

washed with 2 × 20 µL of water and collated with previously collected *N*-glycans.

Subsequently, 10 µL of 100 mM ammonium acetate (pH 5) was added to the collected

N-glycans, followed by incubation at room temperature for 1 h. The samples were then dried

under vacuum and kept in the freezer until further use.

To release the *O*-glycans from the same PVDF membrane spot, 2.5 µL of MeOH was

added to each spot to pre-wet them. About 50 µL 0.5 M $NaBH_4$ in 100 mM KOH was added in

each well and the plate was sealed with parafilm to prevent evaporation. Then the plate was

incubated for 18 h at 50 °C. The reaction was neutralized with 5 µL glacial CH_3COOH.

Purification and enzymatic release of GSL glycans

Purification of GSLs was performed according to a previously described method[14]. In

brief, the dried aqueous and lipid-containing phases were resuspended in 100 µL of MeOH for

30 min on a shaker, followed by the addition of 100 µL of H_2O. Then, the sample was loaded

onto a tC18 RP cartridge (Waters, Cat. no. WAT036820), that was preconditioned with 1 mL

of chloroform/MeOH (2:1; v/v), 1 mL of MeOH and 2 mL of MeOH/H_2O (1:1; v/v). After the

addition of the sample, the cartridge was washed with 2 mL of MeOH/H_2O and the elution was

performed with 2 mL of MeOH and 2 mL of chloroform and MeOH (2:1; v/v). The combined

eluate was dried under vacuum and stored at -20 °C until further use. The enzymatic release of

the GSL head group was performed by following manufacturer's instructions (New England

Biolabs, Cat. no. P0773S). In brief, the dried GSLs were resuspended in 36 µL of H_2O, 4 µL

of EGCase I reaction buffer and 2 µL of EGCase I enzyme. The reaction mixture was then

incubated at 37 °C for 36 h. The separation and purification of the released glycans from the

were performed on tC18 RP cartridge, which was preconditioned with 2 mL of MeOH and 2

mL of H_2O. After loading the sample, the cartridge was washed twice with 200 µL of H_2O. The

flowthrough containing the released glycans, along with the column washes, was collected and

dried under vacuum.

Reduction of N-*glycans and GSL glycans*

164 The Glycans were reduced by adding 25 µL of 1 M $NaBH_4$ (Sigma-Aldrich, Cat. no.

165 213462) in 100 mM KOH (Sigma-Aldrich, Cat. no. 757551), through incubation at 50 °C for

166 3 h. Three microliters of glacial CH_3COOH (Merck, Cat. no. 5.33001.0050) was added to

167 quench the reaction.

Desalting of reduced glycans

Reduced *N*-, *O*-, and GSL glycans were desalted using cation exchange. The columns

were self-packed with 25 µL of strong cation-exchange resin (50W-X8) slurry (BIO-RAD, cat.

no. 1421451) in MeOH onto a ZipTip C_{18} resin tip. The columns were preconditioned

sequentially with 3×50 µL of 1 M HCl (Sigma-Aldrich, cat. no. 320331), 3×50 µL of MeOH,

and 3×50 µL of ultrapure water. The samples were applied to the preconditioned columns,

and the original sample tube was rinsed with 50 µL of ultrapure water, which was then added

to the column. The glycans were subsequently eluted with 2×50 µL aliquots of ultrapure water.

The eluted glycans were then dried and treated with 4×100 µL of MeOH to remove the borate

salt.

PGC clean-up of N-, O- *and GSL glycans*

Carbon material was removed from the carbograph SPE cartridge (BGB Analytik AG,

cat. no. SPU-5122423) and a slurry was prepared with a concentration of 50 mg/mL in

methanol. About 25 µL of the slurry was loaded into a ZipTip with 0.6 µL C18 resin. The

columns were pre-conditioned with 3×50 µL of 0.1% CF_3COOH (Sigma-Aldrich, cat. no.

302031) and 3×50 µL of 90% CH_3CN (Sigma-Aldrich, cat. no. 1.00029), 0.1% CF_3COOH.

The glycan samples were loaded in 50 µL of 0.1% CF_3COOH. Finally, the samples were eluted

with 50 µL of 50% CH_3CN, 0.1% CF_3COOH. The eluted glycans were then dried using a speed

vac concentrator (Thermo Scientific; Savant SPD131DDA) and stored at -20 °C until further

use.

PGC-LC-ESI-MS/MS of released N- *and* O- *and GSL glycans*

The PGC-LC-ESI-MS/MS glycomics analysis was performed using an amaZon speed ion trap (IT-MS, Bruker, Bremen, Germany) linked to an Ultimate 3000 UHPLC system (Dionex/Thermo). Five microliters of glycan sample were injected by the autosampler and separated using an analytical PGC column (Hypercarb™ PGC Column, Thermo Fisher Scientific, 3 μm particle size, inner diameter 1 mm x 30 mm, maintained at 45 °C). Ten millimolar NH_4HCO_3 was used as buffer A and 70% Acetonitrile in 10 mM NH_4HCO_3 was used as solvent B in the mobile phase. The flow rate was set at 15 μL/min for *N-*, *O-*, and GSL glycans. The gradient system used to separate the *N*-glycans was as follows: 1% B at 0 min; 14% B at 6 min; 25% B at 25 min; 70% B at 45 min; 98% B at 50 min; 1% B at 51 min; 1% B at 65 min. *O-* and GSL glycans were separated using the following gradient: 1% B at 0 min; 25% B at 25 min; 70% B at 45 min; 98% B at 47 min; 1% B at 51 min; 1% B at 65 min. Eluted glycans were then ionised using ESI in negative ion mode and detected with an ion-trap mass analyser. A *m/z* range of 460–1,800 was set for data-dependent precursor scanning. The collision induced dissociation (CID) fragmentation was used as the fragmentation method where the five most intense precursors of each MS scan were selected for tandem MS. Capillary voltage was set at 3.3 kV, with nitrogen drying gas flow rate 6 L/min at 8.70 psi nebulizer pressure. An ICC target of 70,000 and maximum accumulation time of 100 ms were used. Smart parameter setting (SPS) was set to 1200 *m/z*.

Glycan structure determination and relative quantitation

The MS data was manually analysed using Compass Data analysis version 4.4 (Bruker Daltonics) and then quantitated with Skyline version 22.2[15]. Monosaccharide compositions were determined using the Glycomod tool available on the Expasy[16] with a mass tolerance of 0.5 Da. The glycan structures were assigned manually from the tandem mass spectra and characterized with the GlycoWorkbench version 2.1[17]. The fragmentation spectra were also further matched with UniCarb KB to confirm all the structures[18]. Normalised relative intensities of individual glycan structures were calculated in Microsoft Excel and using GraphPad Prism, and to perform statistical analysis

Statistical analysis

All the experiments were done in triplicates, and statistical analysis was performed in GraphPad Prism (version 9). *P* values were calculated by performing an unpaired two-tailed

Welch's *t*-test at 95% confidence level. Data visualization was performed in R Studio, with
final figure preparation and refinement done in Adobe Illustrator.

Glycan Representation

Glycan structures were visualized by cartoons generated using GlycoWorkbench
Glycans were depicted according to the Consortium for Functional Glycomics (CFG) notation:
N-acetylglucosamine (*N*; blue square), fucose (F; red triangle), mannose (H; green circle),
galactose (H; yellow circle), *N*-acetylneuraminic acid (S; purple diamond), and
N-glycolylneuraminic acid (Sg; light blue diamond).

Results

HPIV-3 infection triggers significant changes in N-*glycan expression in the host cell*

We hypothesized that viral infection could alter glycan expression in host cells, which
may influence processes such as progeny virion release, cell–cell and cell–matrix interactions,
and overall cell signalling. To study the impact of infection on host-cell glycosylation, we
analysed *N*-glycan expression of cell-extracted and secreted proteins from both mock-infected
and HPIV-3 infected A549 cells, at 24 h and 48 h timepoints post-infection. In total, 70
N-glycan species (including structural and compositional isomers) were observed across
infected and mock-infected cells, varying from 5 to 17 monosaccharides. The glycan species
were manually interpreted and validated based on the existence of specific fragment ions in
their MS/MS spectra[19]. The identified *N*-glycans were grouped based on structural features
(oligomannose, complex sialylated, complex neutral, hybrid, and paucimannose). Relative
abundances of each glycan species from infected and mock-infected cells were statistically
analysed. The differential expression of *N*-glycans in infected and mock-infected cells is
provided in Figure 1a-c.

*Figure 1: **HPIV-3 infection modulates expression of N-glycans on cell-extracted proteins.** a) Heatmap representing the relative abundance of significantly altered N-glycans before and 24 h post-infection. b) Differential expression of all major types of N-glycans on infected and mock-infected cells at 24 h post-infection. c) Altered expression of oligomannose-type and sialylated complex-type N-glycans at 24 h and 48 h timepoints post-infection. n=3, *P<0.05, **P<0.01, ***P<0.001, ns: not significant, unpaired Welch's t-test. N: N-Acetyl Hexosamine; H: Hexose; F: Fucose; S: N-Acetyl Neuraminic Acid; h.p.i: hours post-infection.*

In the context of total *N*-glycan composition, we observed that sialylated complex-type *N*-glycans and oligomannose-type glycans were the most abundant, comprising more than 90% of total *N*-glycans detected in both mock-infected and HPIV-3 infected A549 cells. We observed a significantly higher expression of oligomannose-type *N*-glycans (from 21.87% ± 1.50% in mock-infected to 26.87% ± 2.18% in infected cells) at 24 h post-infection (Figure 1b). We also observed diverse sialylated structures ranging from mono-sialylated biantennary to tri-sialylated tri-antennary complex glycans. HPIV-3 infection resulted in significant reduction of sialylated complex-type *N*-glycans in infected cells, decreasing from 75.85% ± 1.47% in mock-infected to 68.90% ± 1.81% in infected cells (Figure 1b). To identify if the altered expression of glycans in infected cells is stable, we analysed the glycan expression also at 48 h post-infection. Notably, similar changes in both oligomannose-type and sialylated complex-type *N*-glycans were also observed at 48 h post-infection. For example, an approximately 5% increase in oligomannose-type and a 7% decrease in sialylated

complex-type *N*-glycans were detected in infected cells (Figure 1c). Moreover, we saw a subtle,

yet statistically significant, increase (∼1.5%) in the expression of complex neutral-type

N-glycans upon 24 h and 48 h post-infection. Two other major glycan types, hybrid and

paucimannose, remained unchanged during infection at 24 h and 48 h.

Cell secreted proteins play important roles in maintaining cell communication and

signalling, and glycans that decorate these secreted proteins are key to these interactions[20].

Considering these important roles, we analysed the glycans released from secreted proteins of

both infected and mock-infected cells and compared their relative abundances (Figure 2a).

Figure 2: **HPIV-3 infection modulates expression of N-glycans on secreted proteins.** *a) Heatmap represents the relative abundance of significantly altered* N-*glycans before and at 24 h post-infection. b) Differential expression of all major types of* N-*glycans in infected and mock-infected cells at 24 h post-infection. c) Altered expression of oligomannose-type and sialylated complex-type* N-*glycans at 24 h and 48 h post-infection. n=3, *P<0.05, **P<0.01, ns: not significant, unpaired Welch's t-test.* N: N-*Acetyl Hexosamine; H: Hexose; F: Fucose; S:* N-*Acetyl Neuraminic Acid; h.p.i: hourss post-infection.*

The *N*-glycome composition of secreted proteins differed slightly from that of cell-extracted

proteins. Approximately 90% of *N*-glycans on secreted proteins were processed from

oligomannose to sialylated complex-type structures, whereas cell-extracted proteins contained

about 70-74% sialylated complex-type *N*-glycans. However, in agreement with *N*-glycans on

cellular proteins, expression of sialylated complex-type glycans was decreased from

91% ± 1.08% in mock-infected control to 78.44% ± 3.66% in HPIV-3 infected cells (24 h

post-infection). We also observed a significant increase of ∼11% in oligomannose-type glycans

in response to viral infection (24 h post-infection) (Figure 2b). Notably, these changes were

nearly twice as pronounced as those observed in cell-extracted proteins, which showed a 7%

decrease in sialylated complex-type and a 5% increase in oligomannose-type N-glycans.

Likewise, HPIV-3 infection also modulated the N-glycome composition of secreted proteins at

48 h post-infection. The level of oligomannose-type glycans was augmented by more than 12%,

whereas the expression of sialylated complex-type N-glycans was reduced by more than 15%

on secreted proteins collected from HPIV-3 infected cells compared to mock-infected control

(Figure 2c). The complex neutral type comprised of 1% to 2% of the total secreted protein

N-glycome in mock-infected cells. However, the expression of this glycan type was observed

to be doubled at both 24 h and 48 h post-infection (Figure 2b). There were no significant

changes observed in relative intensities of hybrid and paucimannose-type N-glycans on

secreted proteins after infection irrespective of the time points (Figure 2b).

Differential expression of oligomannose and sialylated complex-type N-*Glycans at the individual glycan level*

Next, we examined whether changes in oligomannose and sialylated complex-type

N-glycans followed a similar pattern at the level of individual glycan species. A detailed

analysis enabled us to identify that, although overall abundance of oligomannose-type

N-glycans increased from the mock-infected control (21.87% ± 1.50%) to infected cells

(26.87% ± 2.18%), not all oligomannose species exhibited a similar trend. We observed that

individual oligomannose species were either increased or remained constant post-infection

(Figure S1, S2). Oligomannose glycans containing 5 to 9 mannose units were identified across

infected and mock-infected cells. Of these, both isomers of Man 8, one isomer of Man 9, Man

6, Man 7 and Man 9 Glc 1 were increased at 24 h post-infection on cell-extracted proteins

(Figure S1a). Likewise, each isomer of Man 7 to Man 9 was upregulated, whereas others

remained constant after 48 h of infection when compared to the mock-infected control

(Figure S2a). This trend was consistent for secreted proteins both at 24 h and 48 h

post-infection, as at least one isomer from Man 6 to Man 9 was significantly elevated (Figure

S1b & S2b). We also detected a range of sialylated structures, from mono-sialylated

bi-antennary to tri-sialylated tri-antennary complex-type N-glycans, on both cell-extracted and

secreted proteins. Using a PGC-LC-ESI-MS/MS workflow to enable the separation of isomers

based on their corresponding retention time, we found that the majority of the sialylated

structures displayed multiple isomeric forms (Table S1). Overall, there was an approximately
7% reduction in sialylated complex-type *N*-glycans in infected cells compared to their
mock-infected counterparts on the cell-extracted proteins. However, this overall decrease did
not apply uniformly to all sialylated complex-type *N*-glycan species, as some were
downregulated while others were either upregulated or remained unchanged in infected cells
(Figure S3 to S8). For example, singly sialylated bi-antennary structures with (N4H5F1S1) and
without core fucose (N4H5S1), along with some doubly, triply sialylated bi-antennary
(N4H5F1S2) and tri-antennary (N5H6S3) structures were found to be upregulated in infected
cells (Figure S3). On the other hand, structural isomers of the singly sialylated bi-antennary
structures with the composition of N4HS5F1S1, along with doubly and triply sialylated bi-
antennary (N4H5F1S2) and tri-antennary (N5H6F1S3) *N*-glycans were downregulated upon
HPIV-3 infection (Figure S4). These diverse changes in the expression of sialylated
complex-type *N*-glycans were detected across cell-extracted and secreted proteins, regardless
of post-infection time points (Figure S5-S10). Together, these findings highlight that HPIV-3
infection results in selective remodelling of both oligomannose and sialylated complex-type *N*-
glycans, with distinct changes observed at the level of individual glycan species.

HPIV-3 infection modulates expression of sialic acid isomers on N-*glycans*

HPIV-3 binds to sialylated glyco-epitopes on host cells via its HN protein to initiate
infection and later uses the same protein's neuraminidase activity to cleave sialic acids
(Neu5Ac), enabling the release of newly formed virions[22]. Considering this, we hypothesize
that HPIV-3 infection could directly affect the expressions of glycans terminating in Neu5Ac.
Structural isomers of sialylated complex-type *N*-glycan species arise from the linkage of
Neu5Ac to the terminal galactose via either an α2,3 or α2,6 glycosidic bonds on each antenna
of the glycan. Previous studies suggest that α2,3- and α2,6-linked Neu5Ac residues on
galactose serve as receptors for HPIV-3, with the viral HN neuraminidase showing a preference
for α2,3-linked Neu5Ac-containing glycans over their α2,6-linked counterparts[22]. Such
differential recognition and cleavage specificity suggest that HPIV-3 may selectively modulate
sialylation patterns during infection. Although sialic acid linkage isomers can be definitively
characterized using linkage-specific neuraminidases, the linkage of structurally simple glycans
bearing a single sialic acid residue can also be inferred based on their retention behaviour on
PGC column, as demonstrated in previously published studies[23–25]. We observed three potential
isomers of bi-antennary complex *N*-glycans with *m/z* 965.8^{2-} (N4H5S1). In agreement with
previous studies, the first two structures eluting closely on the PGC column are arm isomers of

an α2,6-linked mono-sialylated complex-type *N*-glycan, whereas the third structure, eluting 6 minutes later than the first two, represents an α2,3-linked isomer of the same composition (N4H5S1)[23]. Comparing the relative abundance of these species, we found that HPIV-3 infection results in a significantly lower expression of the α2,3-linked isomer in both cell-extracted and secreted proteins, irrespective of post-infection time points (Figure 3a & 3b). On the other hand, the α2,6-linked isomer of the same *N*-glycan composition was increased in infected cells when compared to the mock-infected control (Figure 3c & 3d).

*Figure 3: **Differential expression of α2,3- and α2,6-linked isomers of mono-sialylated complex-type N-glycan (N4H2S1) in infected vs. mock-infected cells:** (a) α2,3 on cell-extracted proteins, (b) α2,3 on secreted proteins, (c) α2,6 on cell-extracted proteins, (d) α2,6 on secreted proteins at 24 h and 48 h post-infection. n=3, *P<0.05, **P<0.01, ***P<0.001, unpaired Welch's t-test. CEP: Cell extracted proteins; SP: Secreted proteins. h.p.i: hours post-infection.*

 Alterations in O-*glycan profiles induced by HPIV-3 infection*

Since we identified significant modulation of the host-cell *N*-glycome upon HPIV-3

infection, we pondered if the *O*-glycome of host cell could also be altered. Like *N*-glycans,

O-glycans also have a wide range of roles in the viral replication cycle, such as facilitating viral

entry by acting as co-receptors and regulating viral navigation at the cell surface to assist virion

progeny egress[26]. Changes in the *O*-glycan profile because of HPIV-3 infection could

significantly affect the diverse and multifaceted functions mediated by *O*-glycans. To address

this open question, we investigated *O*-glycan expression at 24 h and 48 h timepoints

post-infection in both cell-extracted and secreted proteins. The profiling of *O*-glycans was

carried out essentially as described for the *N*-glycans. In total, 9 *O*-glycans structures including

structural isomers were detected in cell-extracted proteins from infected and mock-infected

A549 cells. The *O*-glycome of A549 cell is comprised of core 1 and core 2 type glycans with

core 2 type the most abundant (from 67% to 93% across mock-infected and infected cells). A

distinctive *O*-glycan profile was found on infected cell-extracted proteins when compared to

their mock-infected counterpart (Figure 4).

Figure 4: ***HPIV-3 infection modulates expression of*** O-***glycans on cell-extracted and secreted proteins.*** *a) Heatmap*
represents the relative abundance of significantly altered O-*glycan species on cell-extracted proteins before and 24 h after*
infection. b) Differential expression of two major core types on cell-extracted proteins at 24 h and 48 h post-infection. c)
Heatmap represents the significantly altered O-*glycan species on secreted proteins before and 24 h post-infection. d)*
*Differential expression of two major core types on secreted proteins at 24 h and 48 h post-infection. n=3, *P<0.05, **P<0.01,*
****P<0.001, ns: not significant, unpaired Welch's t-test. N:* N-*Acetyl Hexosamine; H: Hexose; F: Fucose; S:* N-*Acetyl*
Neuraminic Acid; h.p.i: hours post-infection.

We observed that core 2 type O-glycans from host cell-extracted proteins were downregulated

upon HPIV-3 infection at 24 h post-infection timepoint, reducing from $82.17\% \pm 2.20\%$ in

mock-infected cells to $70.90\% \pm 3.23\%$ in infected cells (Figure 4b). Moreover, the

downregulation of the core 2 type was compensated by an approximately 12% increase of

core 1 type in infected cells. A similar response was observed at 48 h post-infection. Next, we

sought to determine if the expression of O-glycans on secreted protein are also altered upon

HPIV-3 infection. A moderate decrease, from $90.10\% \pm 1.78\%$ in mock-infected to

$85.91\% \pm 1.78\%$ in infected cells, of secreted protein core 2 type glycans and a corresponding

increase, from $9.93\% \pm 1.78\%$ in mock-infected to $14.10\% \pm 1.77\%$ in infected cells, of

secreted protein core 1 type glycans was found at 24 h timepoint post-infection (Figure 4d).

The same trend was found at 48 h timepoint post-infection (Figure 4d).

Interestingly, upon investigating individual O-glycan species, we observed a similar

pattern of infection-induced alterations across cell-extracted and secreted proteins irrespective

of post-infection time points. For example, the expression of the di-sialylated core 2 species on

cell-extracted proteins, characterized by an m/z of 665.2^{2-} (composed of N2H2S2), was reduced

by approximately three-fold, with a ~27% and 47% decrease at the 24 h and 48 h timepoints

post-infection, respectively in infected cells (Figure 5a and 5b). In contrast, the mono-sialylated

core 2 glycan [N2H2S1(a)] showed a remarkable increase in expression of ~26% and 37% at

24 h and 48 h timepoints post-infection, respectively upon infection (Figure 5a and 5b).

*Figure 5: **HPIV-3 triggers modulated O-glycan expression in infected and mock-infected cells.** Relative abundance of all the significantly altered O-glycan species on cell-extracted proteins at a) 24 h, and b) 48 h post-infection. Relative abundance of all the significantly altered O-glycan species on secreted protein at c) 24 h, and d) 48 h post-infection. n=3, *P<0.05, **P<0.01, ***P<0.001, ns: not significant, unpaired Welch's t-test. N: N-Acetyl Hexosamine; H: Hexose; S: N-Acetyl Neuraminic Acid.*

This trend was similarly observed for secreted proteins, independent of the post-infection timepoint (Figure 5c and 5d). Moreover, a structural isomer of the same composition [N2H2S1(b)] was reduced upon infection across cell-extracted and secreted proteins (Figure 5a-d). Interestingly, a core 1 type doubly-sialylated O-glycan, with a composition of N1H1S2, was found to be significantly elevated in infected cells for both cell-extracted and secreted proteins at each post-infection timepoint (Figure 5a-d). We observed a slightly favourable expression of core 1 type O-glycans compared to core 2 type, along with altered expression of glycans carrying specific sialylated glyco-motifs in response to infection. These changes were consistent for glycans released from both cell-extracted and secreted proteins, regardless of post-infection time points.

 HPIV-3 infection induces remodelling of glycosphingolipid (GSL)-associated glycans

GSL glycans represent a significant portion of the host glycome and are primarily

located on the cellular plasma membrane, where their sugar moieties are exposed to the external

environment[14]. These glycans are involved in various biological processes, including

infections[27]. Some viruses (e.g HPIV-3[22], HIV[28], Polyomavirus[29]) are historically known to

utilize GSL glycans in their life cycle. However, no studies have reported host cell GSL glycan

dynamics in response to parainfluenza viral infection. To characterize GSL glycans, GSLs were

extracted from both infected and mock-infected cells before the enzymatic release of the

glycans from the head groups, which were then analysed by PGC-LC-ESI-MS/MS. In total, 12

GSL glycan species were detected, and the relative intensities of each glycan species were

compared between infected and mock-infected control. The structure of some of the GSL

glycans could only be partially resolved in this study due to the absence of informative

fragment ions in tandem MS, and the lack of *exo*-glycosidase digestion in our study. Therefore,

there were no GSL glycans class wide comparison made between infected and mock-infected

controls. However, major alterations have been detected at the individual glycan level in

infected cells (Figure 6).

*Figure 6: **HPIV-3 infection triggers altered expression of GSL glycans.** Relative expression of all the significantly altered*
*GSL glycan species at a) 24 h, and b) 48 h post-infection. n=3, *P<0.05, **P<0.01, ***P<0.001, ns: not significant, unpaired*
Welch's t-test. N: N-Acetyl Hexosamine; H: Hexose; S: N-Acetyl Neuraminic Acid.

Gangliosides containing one and two Neu5Ac residues were the most abundant GSL glycan

types in A549 cells followed by the neo(lacto)-series. The GSL glycan, comprised of H2S1

(GM3), appeared to be increased in expression from $14.0\% \pm 0.84\%$ in mock-infected cells to

$17.66\% \pm 1.01\%$ in infected cells, 24 h post-infection (Figure 6a). The increased expression of

GM3 remained stable even at 48 h timepoint post-infection (Figure 6b). Another ganglioside

comprised of N1H3S2 (GD1a), the most abundant GSL glycan in A549 cells, was reduced in

expression from $34.02\% \pm 1.57\%$ in mock-infected cells to $31.44\% \pm 0.27\%$ in infected cells,

at 24 h timepoint post-infection. A similar trend was observed at 48 h timepoint post-infection

despite the change not being statistically significant. Additionally, several other GSL glycan

species were also observed to be altered in response to HPIV-3 infection. Two partially resolved

isomers with the composition of H3N1S1 (presumably sialylated neo(lacto)-series or GM1

gangliosides) showed an opposite trend to each other upon infection. The changes were more

prominent at 48 h timepoint post-infection when compared to the mock-infected control.

Interestingly, a previous study reported that the sialylated neo(lacto)-series, with the same

composition, is recognised by HPIV-3 using a solid-phase binding assay[22]. Higher expression

of one of the H3N1S1 isomers in infected cells could be attributed to the reduced expression

of GD1 (H3N1S2), as HPIV-3 HN mediated sialic acid cleavage from GD1 glycan would

potentially generate a glycan with the composition of H3N1S1, thereby contributing to overall

increase of that species upon infection. Furthermore, the expression of GD3 (H2S2) was found

to be elevated only at 24 h timepoint post-infection and no significant change was observed at

48 h timepoint post-infection. A precursor glycan, belonging to either gangliosides or

neo(lacto)-series, with composition of H3N1 was found to be elevated at both 24 h and 48 h

timepoints post-infection.

Discussion

Every cell in nature is decorated with a dense layer of carbohydrates (glycans)

covalently linked to proteins or lipids, forming the glycocalyx. These glycans form the

foundation of a universal biological language known as the glycome, playing active roles in

numerous cellular processes[21]. However, microorganisms such as viruses exploit these cell

surface resident glycans by using them as receptors or co-receptors. Additionally, viruses take

advantage of the host-cell glyco-machinery to decorate their own surface proteins with glycans,

acting as protective shields to evade the host immune response[25,26]. During human evolution,

viruses along with other pathogens such as bacteria and parasites have co-evolved with their

human host and consequently have actively participated in the remodelling of the human cell

glycome[32]. For instance, it is widely accepted that evolutionary pressure from pathogens played

a significant role in the loss of certain carbohydrates, such as *N*-glycolylneuraminic acid

(Neu5Gc) and α-Gal, in human[33,34].

To date, only a few studies have described the changes in host-cell glycosylation upon

viral infection and the role of an altered glycome expression in triggering innate immune

response[6,35,36]. For example, a lectin microarray based study has suggested a significant

increase of oligomannose-type glycans in ferret lung upon influenza virus infection, which was

further found to be associated with disease severity[6]. More recently, several studies on

SARS-CoV-2 infection observed an altered glycosylation profile on antibodies against the viral

spike protein with lower fucosylation and sialylation, that ultimately affects the effector

functions of antibodies[35,36]. However, these studies either did not employ more sensitive

techniques like mass spectrometry or focused solely on the glycosylation of antibody (IgG)

against viral protein, rather than examining the glycosylation of infected host-cells. To the best

of our knowledge, there is no reported study on the host-cell glycome response to HPIV-3

infection. Thus, we employed a highly sensitive mass spectrometry technique coupled with

porous graphitized carbon liquid chromatography to reveal the global glycosylation (*N*-, *O*- and

GSL glycans) changes of HPIV-3-infected cells. Our analysis revealed an approximately 5%

to 12% increase of oligomannose-type *N*-glycans on cell-extracted and secreted proteins, both

at 24 h and 48 h post-infection timepoints. This increase may reflect a host cellular response to

infection-induced activation of the unfolded protein response (UPR), as has been proposed in

other viral systems, such as influenza infection in the ferret lung[6]. The UPR is a

well-characterized cellular stress mechanism that is activated when unfolded or misfolded

proteins accumulate in the endoplasmic reticulum (ER), disrupting protein homeostasis[37]. In

response, the cell initiates UPR signalling to restore ER function by enhancing the folding

capacity of the ER, reducing protein translation, and promoting the degradation of misfolded

proteins[37]. One important hallmark of UPR activation is the increase in oligomannose-type

N-glycans, which are essential intermediates in the early stages of protein glycosylation and

folding[6,38]. These glycans are particularly important for the quality control of nascent

glycoproteins, as they interact with ER-resident chaperones such as calnexin and calreticulin[38].

This interaction ensures that only properly folded proteins proceed along the secretory pathway,

while misfolded proteins are retained and targeted for ER-associated degradation (ERAD)[32].

In the context of HPIV-3 infection, we observe an increase in oligomannose-type glycans which

may reflect a host-cellular response to the stress placed on the ER to fold both viral and cellular

proteins. Viral infection frequently disrupts ER homeostasis, not only due to synthesis of viral

proteins but also through inflammation-induced oxidative stress and altered calcium

signalling[39,40]. As a result, the host cell may ramp up UPR signalling to maintain protein

homeostasis—not only for its own proteins, such as membrane receptors, transporters, or

immune-modulatory proteins, which are critical for cellular survival and antiviral responses—
but also for the proper folding and processing of viral proteins[41,42]. Together, our findings
support the hypothesis that the increased abundance of oligomannose-type *N*-glycans is driven
by UPR-mediated adaptation aimed at preserving ER function and protein quality control
during HPIV-3 infection. However, direct evidence for UPR activation in our system is still
lacking. Future studies employing transcriptomics or proteomics analysis, particularly
monitoring UPR markers such as BiP/GRP78, CHOP, and XBP1 splicing, will be essential to
confirm whether the UPR pathway is indeed engaged in HPIV-3-infected cells and driving the
observed glycomic changes[6]. Furthermore, the increased expression of oligomannose-type
N-glycan was accompanied by overall reduction of sialylated complex-type glycans on
cell-extracted and secreted proteins, irrespective of post-infection time points. We hypothesize
that the elevated expression of oligomannose-type *N*-glycans contributes to the downregulation
of sialylated complex-type *N*-glycans through two potential mechanisms. First, the
accumulation of oligomannose structures may saturate the glycosylation machinery within the
Golgi apparatus, thereby limiting the processing capacity for downstream glycan maturation.
Second, as the biosynthesis of complex-type *N*-glycans requires the prior trimming of
oligomannose precursors, excessive levels of these unprocessed glycans may reduce the
availability of appropriately processed substrates necessary for complex glycan formation[5].
Future studies incorporating transcriptomic and proteomic analysis will benefit from evaluating
the expression levels of Golgi-resident mannosidases and glycosyltransferases to confirm
whether elevated oligomannose levels contribute to the reduction in complex-type *N*-glycan
expression[6,43]. These studies, together with the existing glycomic data, may determine whether
the reduction in complex-type *N*-glycan expression upon HPIV-3 infection is caused by limited
substrate availability, as complex glycan synthesis requires the prior trimming of
oligomannose, or by saturation of the glycosylation machinery due to an overload of
oligomannose substrates.

Moreover, we were able to identify α2,3- and α2,6-linked isomers with the composition
of N4H5S1, based on chromatographic separation, together with MS fragmentation[23].
Interestingly, HPIV-3 infection leads to a lower expression of *N*-glycans containing α2,3-linked
sialic acid and an increase of its α2,6-linked counterpart, with the same composition (N4H5S1).
A previous study found that HPIV-3 utilizes α2,3- and α2,6-linked *N*-acetylneuraminic acid
(Neu5Ac) to galactose as receptors, with a higher HPIV-3 HN neuraminidase activity observed
for α2,3-linked Neu5Ac[22]. Thus, the downregulation of α2,3-linked sialylated isomeric

glycans, in this instance, could be attributed to the HPIV-3 HN neuraminidase activity,
mediating the cleavage of receptor glycans at the end of each viral replication cycle[44].
Furthermore, we hypothesize that higher expression of α2,6-linked isomer of N4H5S1 in
infected cells could be a consequence of the α2,3-linked sialic acid trimming of N4H5S2
(Figure S4, S6, S8, S10), as the HPIV-3 HN-mediated cleavage of N4H5S2 glycan would
potentially generate glycan with the composition of HN4H5N1. To confirm the intrinsic role
of HN protein on the reduction of sialylated *N*-glycans it would be interesting to treat infected
cells with a specific inhibitor to HN protein[45]. Moreover, as glycan biosynthesis is a sequential
enzymatic process, the modulation of sialylated complex-type *N*-glycans expression could also
be the result of virus infection-mediated changes in enzyme expression related to glycan
biosynthesis[21]. A bulk RNA-seq analysis of infected and mock-infected cells might enable us
to identify the expression profiles of enzymes involved in glycan biosynthesis, thereby
uncovering potential mechanisms underlying the observed changes in *N*-glycans upon
infection.

The impact of HPIV-3 infection in the host-cell *O*-glycome is significant and we have
observed that there is a significant reduction of core 2 type as well as a higher expression of
core 1 type *O*-glycans across host cell-extracted and secreted proteins. A recent study also
described an approximately 2.5-fold downregulation of core 2 *N*-acetylglucosamine transferase
(GlcNAcT) enzyme upon HPIV-3 infection on A549 cells[43]. We propose that the reduction of
core 2 type *O*-glycans could be the result of downregulation of the core 2
β1,6-*N*-acetylglucosaminyltransferase (Core 2 GlcNAc-T) enzyme that acts on core 1 type to
make core 2 type *O*-glycans. Furthermore, concomitant with the observed down regulation of
core 2 type *O*-glycans upon HPIV-3 infection, we also detected a down-regulation of doubly
sialylated core 2 type glycans with a corresponding higher expression of singly sialylated
core 2 type structures in infected cells. Similar for the downregulation of α2,3-linked sialylated
isomeric *N*-glycans, we infer that the reduction of doubly sialylated core 2 type structures is
caused by the neuraminidase activity of the HPIV-3 HN protein which subsequently results in
the upregulation of similar glycans with one less Neu5Ac[46]. Again, to verify the specific role
of the HPIV-3 HN protein in the reduction of doubly-sialylated *O*-glycans, it would be valuable
to treat infected cells with a specific inhibitor of the HN protein[45] and determine the expression
of doubly-sialylated *O*-glycans. Nonetheless, these changes may have profound implications
for host-cell glycosylation profiles, influencing immune responses and potentially contributing
to the pathogenesis of the virus[6,43].

GSL glycans significantly contribute to the formation of cellular glycome and some
viruses including HPIV-3 are known to exploit GSL glycans in their life cycle[22]. In our analysis,
gangliosides account for approximately 60% of the total GSL glycan population in A549 cells,
underscoring their dominance in the glycan landscape of the respiratory epithelium. HPIV-3
triggers altered expression of gangliosides glycans including GM1, GM3, and GD3, which are
often implicated in viral replication cycle[27]. These gangliosides have been previously
implicated in modulating viral replication, either by serving as entry cofactors or by influencing
intracellular signalling pathways essential for viral propagation[47,48]. For example, GM1 serves
as entry receptors for simian virus 40 (SV40)[49], while GM3 plays a dual role in cell
physiology[50] and viral pathogenesis, including facilitating influenza virus infection by
modulating membrane dynamics and virus-host interactions[51]. Furthermore, GM3 has been
shown to regulate cell proliferation and differentiation by modulating receptor tyrosine kinases
such as epidermal growth factor receptor (EGFR)[52]. During viral infection, these signalling
pathways are often hijacked to support viral replication and suppress host antiviral
responses[53,54]. GD3 ganglioside is also implicated in viral infection, particularly those affecting
nervous system[55]. Altogether, changes in ganglioside expression during HPIV-3 infection
might represent either a viral adaptation to enhance conditions for its replication, or a host-cell
mechanism to manage the infection.

The second most common type of GSL glycans detected in A549 cells was the
neo(lacto)-series. A previous study reported a sialylated neo(lacto)-series glycan as a potential
receptor for HPIV-3[22]. In our study we found a potential sialylated neo(lacto)-series glycan was
downregulated upon HPIV-3 infection. We hypothesize that the cleavage of sialic acid,
mediated by HPIV-3 HN, may contribute to the reduction of sialylated neo(lacto)-series
glycans on HPIV-3 infected cells. Furthermore, few other glycans, which were not recognised
as binding factors, have also been found to be altered after HPIV-3 infection in our study. We
hypothesize a similar receptor specificity analysis using altered GSL glycans (GM1, GM3,
GD3) could potentially identify few other GSL glycans as binding factors.

Conclusion

Using advanced mass spectrometry-based glycomics, we investigated HPIV-3–induced
alterations in the glycome of A549 human lung epithelial cells. Our analysis revealed
approximately 116 distinct glycan species in both HPIV-3–infected and mock-infected cells,
highlighting the complexity and diversity of the host-cell glycome. Importantly, this study

provides the first experimental evidence that HPIV-3 infection induces marked alterations in
the host cell glycome—spanning all three major glycan types (*N*-, *O*-, and glycosphingolipid
glycans). These alterations suggest that HPIV-3 infection significantly remodels the host cell
surface and secretory glycan landscape, potentially influencing key biological processes such
as virus-host interactions, immune recognition, and intracellular signalling. Furthermore, our
analytical approach provides a valuable platform for characterizing virus-induced glycomic
changes and can be readily adapted to study other respiratory viruses, e.g., influenza virus,
thereby paving the way for a better understanding of the roles of glycans in viral pathogenesis.

Acknowledgement

This research was partially funded by Griffith University International Postgraduate
Research Scholarship (GUIPRS) and Griffith University Postgraduate Research Scholarship
(GUPRS) (P.K.D). We gratefully acknowledge funding from the National Health and Medical
Research Council (NHMRC) (MvI., APP1047824 & GNT1196520) and a Peter Doherty
Biomedical Early Career Fellowship (L.D., GNT1157150). We thank Dr. Thomas Litfin and
Anuk Indraratna for assisting in data visualization.

Author contributions

623   Conceptualisation: P.K.D., L.D., B.B., P.G., A.E.D, M.v.I.; methodology: P.K.D., P.G.,
624 A.E.D.; investigation: P.K.D.; analysis: P.K.D.; writing—original draft: P.K.D.; writing—
625 review and editing: L.D., P.G., B.B., A.E.D., M.v.I.; funding acquisition: L.D., M.v.I.

Abbreviations,

HPIV: Human parainfluenza virus

HN: haemagglutinin-neuraminidase

H.p.i: Hour's post-infection

CEP: Cell extracted protein

SP: Secreted protein

HN: *N*-Acetyl Glucosamine

H: Hexose

dH: Deoxyhexose

Man: Mannose

N: *N*-Acetyl Neuraminic Acid

G: *N*-glycolylneuraminic Acid

GSL: Glycosphingolipids

PGC: Porous graphitized carbon

ESI: Electrospray ionization

CID: Collision induced dissociation.

Reference

1.   Branche, A. R. & Falsey, A. R. Parainfluenza Virus Infection. *Semin. Respir. Crit.*

Care Med. **37**, 538–554 (2016).

2.   Castleman, W. L., Northrop, P. J. & McAllister, P. K. Replication of parainfluenza

type-3 virus and bovine respiratory syncytial virus in isolated bovine type-II

alveolar epithelial cells. *Am. J. Vet. Res.* **52**, 880–885 (1991).

3.   Wl, C., Pj, N. & Pk, M. Replication of parainfluenza type-3 virus and bovine

respiratory syncytial virus in isolated bovine type-II alveolar epithelial cells. *Am.*

J. Vet. Res. **52**, (1991).

4.   Saha, S., Grimwood, K., Lambert, S. B., Sarna, M. & Ware, R. S. Parainfluenza

Virus Infection in an Australian Community-based Birth Cohort. *Pediatr. Infect.*

Dis. J. **39**, e284 (2020).

5.   Reily, C., Stewart, T. J., Renfrow, M. B. & Novak, J. Glycosylation in health and

disease. *Nat. Rev. Nephrol.* **15**, 346–366 (2019).

6.   Heindel, D. W. *et al.* Glycomic analysis of host response reveals high mannose as

a key mediator of influenza severity. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U. S. A.* **117**, 26926–

26935 (2020).

7.   Quiñones-Kochs, M. I., Buonocore, L. & Rose, J. K. Role of N-Linked Glycans

in a Human Immunodeficiency Virus Envelope Glycoprotein: Effects on Protein

Function and the Neutralizing Antibody Response. *J. Virol.* **76**, 4199–4211 (2002).

8.   Watanabe, Y., Bowden, T. A., Wilson, I. A. & Crispin, M. Exploitation of

glycosylation in enveloped virus pathobiology. *Biochim. Biophys. Acta Gen. Subj.*

1863, 1480–1497 (2019).

9.   Dirr, L. *et al.* The catalytic mechanism of human parainfluenza virus type 3

haemagglutinin-neuraminidase revealed. *Angew. Chem. Int. Ed Engl.* **54**, 2936–

2940 (2015).

10. Tabang, D. N., Ford, M. & Li, L. Recent Advances in Mass Spectrometry-Based

Glycomic and Glycoproteomic Studies of Pancreatic Diseases. *Front. Chem.* **9**,

(2021).

11. Ashwood, C., Lin, C.-H., Thaysen-Andersen, M. & Packer, N. H. Discrimination

of Isomers of Released N- and O-Glycans Using Diagnostic Product Ions in

Negative Ion PGC-LC-ESI-MS/MS. *J. Am. Soc. Mass Spectrom.* **29**, 1194–1209

(2018).

12. Zhang, T. *et al.* Differential O- and Glycosphingolipid Glycosylation in Human

Pancreatic Adenocarcinoma Cells With Opposite Morphology and Metastatic

Behavior. *Front. Oncol.* **10**, 732 (2020).

13. Jensen, P. H., Karlsson, N. G., Kolarich, D. & Packer, N. H. Structural analysis of

N- and O-glycans released from glycoproteins. *Nat. Protoc.* **7**, 1299–1310 (2012).

14. Wang, D. *et al.* Glycosphingolipid-Glycan Signatures of Acute Myeloid Leukemia

Cell Lines Reflect Hematopoietic Differentiation. *J. Proteome Res.* **21**, 1029–

1040 (2022).

15. MacLean, B. *et al.* Skyline: an open source document editor for creating and

analyzing targeted proteomics experiments. *Bioinformatics* **26**, 966–968 (2010).

16. Cooper, C. A., Gasteiger, E. & Packer, N. H. GlycoMod--a software tool for

determining glycosylation compositions from mass spectrometric data.

Proteomics **1**, 340–349 (2001).

17. Ceroni, A. *et al.* GlycoWorkbench: A Tool for the Computer-Assisted Annotation

of Mass Spectra of Glycans. *J. Proteome Res.* **7**, 1650–1659 (2008).

18. Campbell, M. P. & Packer, N. H. UniCarbKB: New database features for

integrating glycan structure abundance, compositional glycoproteomics data, and

disease associations. *Biochim. Biophys. Acta* **1860**, 1669–1675 (2016).

19. Everest-Dass, A. V., Abrahams, J. L., Kolarich, D., Packer, N. H. & Campbell, M.

P. Structural Feature Ions for Distinguishing *N-* and *O-* Linked Glycan Isomers

by LC-ESI-IT MS/MS. *J. Am. Soc. Mass Spectrom.* **24**, 895–906 (2013).

20. Crouch, L. I. *et al.* The role of glycans in health and disease: Regulators of the

interaction between gut microbiota and host immune system. *Semin. Immunol.* **73**,

101891 (2024).

21. Schjoldager, K. T., Narimatsu, Y., Joshi, H. J. & Clausen, H. Global view of human

protein glycosylation pathways and functions. *Nat. Rev. Mol. Cell Biol.* **21**, 729–

749 (2020).

22. T, S. *et al.* Receptor specificities of human respiroviruses. *J. Virol.* **75**, (2001).

23. M, A. *et al.* Specific glycosylation of membrane proteins in epithelial ovarian

cancer cell lines: glycan structures reflect gene expression and DNA methylation

status. *Mol. Cell. Proteomics MCP* **13**, (2014).

24. Young, C. *et al.* In-House Packed Porous Graphitic Carbon Columns for Liquid

Chromatography-Mass Spectrometry Analysis of N-Glycans. *Front. Chem.* **9**,

653959 (2021).

25. Jl, A., Mp, C. & Nh, P. Building a PGC-LC-MS N-glycan retention library and

elution mapping resource. *Glycoconj. J.* **35**, (2018).

26. Olofsson, S., Bally, M., Trybala, E. & Bergström, T. Structure and Role of O-

Linked Glycans in Viral Envelope Proteins. *Annu. Rev. Virol.* **10**, 283–304 (2023).

27. Aerts, J. M. F. G., Artola, M., van Eijk, M., Ferraz, M. J. & Boot, R. G.

Glycosphingolipids and Infection. Potential New Therapeutic Avenues. *Front.*

Cell Dev. Biol. **7**, 324 (2019).

28. Lingwood, C. A. & Branch, D. R. The role of glycosphingolipids in HIV/AIDS.

Discov. Med. **11**, 303–313 (2011).

29. Taube, S., Jiang, M. & Wobus, C. E. Glycosphingolipids as Receptors for Non-

Enveloped Viruses. *Viruses* **2**, 1011–1049 (2010).

30. Bagdonaite, I. & Wandall, H. H. Global aspects of viral glycosylation.

Glycobiology **28**, 443–467 (2018).

31. Feng, T. *et al.* Glycosylation of viral proteins: Implication in virus–host interaction

and virulence. *Virulence* **13**, 670–683 (2022).

32. Markine-Goriaynoff, N. *et al.* Glycosyltransferases encoded by viruses. *J. Gen.*

Virol. **85**, 2741–2754 (2004).

33. Singh, S. *et al.* Loss of α-gal during primate evolution enhanced antibody-effector

function and resistance to bacterial sepsis. *Cell Host Microbe* **29**, 347-361.e12

(2021).

34. Altman, M. O. & Gagneux, P. Absence of Neu5Gc and Presence of Anti-Neu5Gc

Antibodies in Humans—An Evolutionary Perspective. *Front. Immunol.* **10**, 789

(2019).

35. Larsen, M. D. *et al.* Afucosylated IgG characterizes enveloped viral responses and

correlates with COVID-19 severity. *Science* **371**, eabc8378 (2021).

36. Chakraborty, S. *et al.* Proinflammatory IgG Fc structures in patients with severe

COVID-19. *Nat. Immunol.* **22**, 67–73 (2021).

37. Read, A. & Schröder, M. The Unfolded Protein Response: An Overview. *Biology*

10, 384 (2021).

38. Wong, M. Y. *et al.* XBP1s activation can globally remodel N-glycan structure

distribution patterns. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci.* **115**, E10089–E10098 (2018).

39. Victor, P., Sarada, D. & Ramkumar, K. M. Crosstalk between endoplasmic

reticulum stress and oxidative stress: Focus on protein disulfide isomerase and

endoplasmic reticulum oxidase 1. *Eur. J. Pharmacol.* **892**, 173749 (2021).

40. Carreras-Sureda, A., Pihán, P. & Hetz, C. Calcium signaling at the endoplasmic

744   reticulum: fine-tuning stress responses. *Cell Calcium* **70**, 24–31 (2018).

745   41. Slaine, P. D. *et al.* Thiopurines Activate an Antiviral Unfolded Protein Response

746   That Blocks Influenza A Virus Glycoprotein Accumulation. *J. Virol.* **95**,

747   10.1128/jvi.00453-21 (2021).

748   42. Rufo, N., Garg, A. D. & Agostinis, P. The Unfolded Protein Response in

749   Immunogenic Cell Death and Cancer Immunotherapy. *Trends Cancer* **3**, 643–658

750   (2017).

751   43. Blanco-Melo, D. *et al.* Imbalanced Host Response to SARS-CoV-2 Drives

752   Development of COVID-19. *Cell* **181**, 1036-1045.e9 (2020).

753   44. Amonsen, M., Smith, D. F., Cummings, R. D. & Air, G. M. Human Parainfluenza

754   Viruses hPIV1 and hPIV3 Bind Oligosaccharides with α2-3-Linked Sialic Acids

755   That Are Distinct from Those Bound by H5 Avian Influenza Virus Hemagglutinin.

756   *J. Virol.* **81**, 8341–8345 (2007).

757   45. Guillon, P. *et al.* Structure-guided discovery of potent and dual-acting human

758   parainfluenza virus haemagglutinin-neuraminidase inhibitors. *Nat. Commun.* **5**,

759   5268 (2014).

760   46. Amonsen, M., Smith, D. F., Cummings, R. D. & Air, G. M. Human Parainfluenza

761   Viruses hPIV1 and hPIV3 Bind Oligosaccharides with α2-3-Linked Sialic Acids

762   That Are Distinct from Those Bound by H5 Avian Influenza Virus Hemagglutinin.

763   *J. Virol.* **81**, 8341 (2007).

47. Das, A. *et al.* Gangliosides are essential endosomal receptors for quasi-enveloped

and naked hepatitis A virus. *Nat. Microbiol.* **5**, 1069–1078 (2020).

48. Mazzon, M. & Mercer, J. Lipid interactions during virus entry and infection. *Cell.*

Microbiol. **16**, 1493–1502 (2014).

49. Tsai, B. *et al.* Gangliosides are receptors for murine polyoma virus and SV40.

EMBO J. **22**, 4346–4355 (2003).

50. Nojiri, H., Takaku, F., Terui, Y., Miura, Y. & Saito, M. Ganglioside GM3: an acidic

membrane component that increases during macrophage-like cell differentiation

can induce monocytic differentiation of human myeloid and monocytoid leukemic

cell lines HL-60 and U937. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci.* **83**, 782–786 (1986).

51. Vrijens, P. *et al.* Influenza virus entry via the GM3 ganglioside-mediated platelet-

derived growth factor receptor β signalling pathway. *J. Gen. Virol.* **100**, 583–601

(2019).

52. Coskun, Ü., Grzybek, M., Drechsel, D. & Simons, K. Regulation of human EGF

receptor by lipids. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U. S. A.* **108**, 9044–9048 (2011).

53. Ryu, J.-S. *et al.* Ganglioside GM3 Up-Regulate Chondrogenic Differentiation by

Transform Growth Factor Receptors. *Int. J. Mol. Sci.* **21**, 1967 (2020).

54. Fan, Y., Sanyal, S. & Bruzzone, R. Breaking Bad: How Viruses Subvert the Cell

Cycle. *Front. Cell. Infect. Microbiol.* **8**, 396 (2018).

55. Cutillo, G., Saariaho, A.-H. & Meri, S. Physiology of gangliosides and the role of

antiganglioside antibodies in human diseases. *Cell. Mol. Immunol.* **17**, 313–322

(2020).