ARTICLE IN PR

Biotechnology Advances xxx (2013) xxx-xxx



Contents lists available at ScienceDirect

Biotechnology Advances



journal homepage: www.elsevier.com/locate/biotechadv

Research review paper 1

Available online xxxx

Intact cell/spore mass spectrometry

Keywords:

Biotyping

Identification

Fungi

MALDI

Mildew

Peptide

Protein

Yeasts

Taxonomy

Identification of fungal microorganisms by MALDI-TOF 9

mass spectrometry 3

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ABSTRACT

Matrix-assisted laser desorption/ionization time-of-flight mass spectrometry (MALDI-TOF MS) has emerged as a 26 reliable tool for fast identification and classification of microorganisms. In this regard, it represents a strong chal- 27 lenge to microscopic and molecular biology methods. Nowadays, commercial MALDI systems are accessible for 28 biological research work as well as for diagnostic applications in clinical medicine, biotechnology and industry. 29 They are employed namely in bacterial biotyping but numerous experimental strategies have also been devel- 30 oped for the analysis of fungi, which is the topic of the present review. Members of many fungal genera such 31 as Aspergillus, Fusarium, Penicillium or Trichoderma and also various yeasts from clinical samples (e.g. Candida 32 albicans) have been successfully identified by MALDI-TOF MS. However, there is no versatile method for fungi 33 currently available even though the use of only a limited number of matrix compounds has been reported. Either 34 intact cell/spore MALDI-TOF MS is chosen or an extraction of surface proteins is performed and then the resulting 35 extract is measured. Biotrophic fungal phytopathogens can be identified via a direct acquisition of MALDI-TOF 36 mass spectra e.g. from infected plant organs contaminated by fungal spores. Mass spectrometric peptide/protein 37 profiles of fungi display peaks in the m/z region of 1000–20 000, where a unique set of biomarker ions may ap- 38 pear facilitating a differentiation of samples at the level of genus, species or strain. This is done with the help of a 39 processing software and spectral database of reference strains, which should preferably be constructed under the 40 same standardized experimental conditions.

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Abbreviations: AFST, antifungal susceptibility testing; CA, caffeic acid; CHCA, α-cyano-4-hydroxycinnamic acid; DHB, 2,5-dihydroxybenzoic acid; FA, ferulic acid; HABA, [2-(4-hydroxyphenylazo)]benzoic acid; IC/IS, intact cell or intact spore; IGS, intergenic spacer; ITS, internally transcribed spacer; LSU, large subunit; MALDI-TOF, matrix-assisted laser desorption/ionization time-of-flight; MS, mass spectrometry; SA, sinapinic acid; SSU, small subunit; TFA, trifluoroacetic acid.

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0734-9750/\$ - see front matter © 2013 Published by Elsevier Inc. http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.biotechadv.2013.11.002

Please cite this article as: Chalupová J, et al, Identification of fungal microorganisms by MALDI-TOF mass spectrometry, Biotechnol Adv (2013), http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.biotechadv.2013.11.002

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	Acknowledgments

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1. Introduction

65 Microfungi are described as a group of eukaryotic organisms such as 66 molds, rusts and yeasts plus fungi-like microorganisms (belonging to 67 the taxonomic ranks Protista, Chromista and Myxomycota), which are 68 no longer classified in the kingdom Fungi. A broad spectrum of these microorganisms with miscellaneous ecology, physiology and morphology 69 70 covers important producers of enzymes, organic acids, pharmaceuticals, alcohols or antibiotics. Many of them also synthesize harmful toxins caus-71 72ing human and animal diseases. As natural recyclers of organic plant material, fungal plant pathogens have a negative impact on agriculture 73 74 (Bennett, 1998; Cannon and Sutton, 2004; Santos et al., 2010). Studies on fungal organisms are complicated because of an inadequate compre-75 hension of the whole fungal speciation connected with population biolo-76 gy, ecology, evolution and phylogeny. As regards to the detection of 77 human/animal and plant mycoses and identification of the causal agents, 78 79 standard biological methods become insufficient in many cases. They are 80 often time consuming and tend to fail.

Since the advent of mass spectrometry (MS), numerous identifica-81 tion methods for microorganisms based on profiling of cell surface 82 proteins have been described. They include namely the intact cell or 83 84 intact spore mass spectrometry (IC/IS MS), but also rely on an initial 85 extraction of proteins by acidified solvents (Welham et al., 2000) or 86 with the help of a bead beating prior to the MS analysis (Hettick 87 et al., 2008a, 2008b). MS measurements with bacterial cells evolved hand in hand with the development of MS itself (Meuzelaar and 88 89 Kistemaker, 1973). Matrix-assisted laser desorption/ionization timeof-flight mass spectrometry (MALDI-TOF MS) has emerged as one of 90 the most reliable tools for fast and easy identification, differentiation 91and classification of microorganisms. IC/IS MALDI-TOF MS operates 9293 with unique mass spectrometric profiles (fingerprints) acquired by the desorption of specific peptide/protein biomarkers from the cell/spore 94 surface of a particular pathogen (Fenselau and Demirev, 2001). Based 95 on results and experience gained in bacterial identification, IC/IS 96 MALDI-TOF MS has also been introduced for a differentiation of micro-97 98 scopic fungi. Contrary to bacteria, fungal cells are larger in size and their cell wall is more rigid. It is usually based on glucans and chitin, rarely 99 100 on glucans and cellulose (in the distinct phylogenetic lineage of 101 fungi-like Oomycota). Mannoproteins are also major cell wall components, especially in yeasts (Carlile et al., 2001). Taking this into 102 103 consideration, modified approaches had to be developed as regards to the procedure of sample preparation, selection of a proper matrix 104 compound, sample deposition techniques etc. 105

A review article describing characterization of filamentous fungi by 106 MALDI-TOF MS appeared in 2010 (Santos et al., 2010) but the text natu-107 108 rally does not cover yeast analysis. More recently, Havlicek et al. (2012) 109 summarized current trends in MS-based microbial diagnostics with a special focus on the instrumentation (fungi were included but only marginal-110ly). In 2013, two comprehensive reviews appeared (Clark et al., 2013; 111 Posteraro et al., 2013), which emphasized the use of MALDI-TOF MS for 112 113 the analysis of fungi in clinical microbiology laboratories. However, other applications than those related to medicine were not included. 114 The present review deals with MALDI-based identification of fungi in var-115 ious branches of science and diagnostics. Standard biological methods of 116 determining fungal species are briefly discussed together with their limi-117 tations, which provide a space to be filled up with mass spectrometric 118 strategies. There are first attempts of fungal identification mentioned to-119 gether with a further progress illustrated on specific examples. A special 120 attention has been paid to potential applications in biotechnology, medi-121 122 cine and phytopathology.

2. Biological methods of fungal strains identification

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The main goal in all fields of diagnostics is to identify the origin of a 124 human, animal or plant disease in such a way, which is fast, reliable and 125 effective. Basic methods for the detection of fungal pathogens are based 126 on host specificity, disease symptoms and microscopic characters. Al- 127 though the host specificity and disease symptoms can preliminary 128 help to estimate a causal agent, signs usually change during the disease 129 progression and thus they can give unclear information (Carlile et al., 130 2001; Doohan, 2005). Because of considerable variability in fungal 131 morphology, microscopy still remains an indispensable tool for identi- 132 fying individual species. Microscopic techniques, which are commonly 133 used for this purpose, include observation and evaluation of different in- 134 fectious structures and reproductive organs (sexual and asexual spores) 135 as regards to the color, shape and surface. Together with light microscopy, 136 scanning electron microscopy can be used to reduce the rate of misdiag- 137 nose. Evaluation of different shapes of spores (e.g. spherical, oval, ovate, 138 with or without papillae) or various branching of spore-carrying struc- 139 tures (monopodial, sympodial, dichotomous) requires experts and spe- 140 cialists with a practice in identification of fungal agents (Sedlář et al., 141 2009). In certain cases, fungi are isolated and grown in culture media, 142 which brings the possibility of evaluating physiological characteristics 143 such as colony color or growth rate (Santos et al., 2010). For example, 144 yeasts show a limited morphology, which complicates their identifica- 145 tion. On the other hand, yeast cells produce many metabolites, which 146 can be used for biochemical tests and metabolomic profiling. Immuno- 147 logical aspects are taken into account in many cases when no morpholog- 148 ical characters are visible. Pathogens can be identified and quantified 149 using species-specific antibodies coupled with a fluorescent dye or 150 enzyme. Enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay was applied for the detec- 151 tion of mycelium of a rice spoilage agent Humicola lanuginosa. Similarly, 152 Botrytis cinerea was found in grape juice (Carlile et al., 2001). However, 153 immunological methods work reliably only at the genus level and 154 sometimes it may be difficult and expensive to generate the required 155 antibodies. 156

Molecular biology methods are highly specific. They benefit from a 157 variability in DNA sequences, which allows determining and differentiat- 158 ing closely related species or strains and detect pathogens at early stages 159 of host infection with no visible signs. Specific genetic features such as 160 host resistance can also be recognized (McCartney et al., 2003). In con- 161 trast to the morphology-based examinations, these methods are inde- 162 pendent of operator's experience. The existence of conserved genes on 163 one side and different DNA sequence regions, which are unique for indi- 164 viduals, on the other side makes this approach suitable for analyzing both 165 common and different phylogenetic features. Data derived from ribosom- 166 al DNA (rDNA) sequences are often used for classification and identifica- 167 tion of fungi. From this point of view, 18S ("small subunit", SSU), 5.8S and 168 28S ("large subunit", LSU) gene sequences coding for ribosomal RNA are 169 interesting (Martin and Rygiewicz, 2005). Their significance for fungal 170 identification are the following: 1) the 18S gene has varied enough dur- 171 ing evolution and can help to determine the taxonomic kingdom and re- 172 veal the phylogenetic aspects and relationships of fungal classes; 2) the 173 28S gene is more variable and it has been used in classification at levels 174 from genus to phylum; 3) the 5.8S gene does not contain much informa- 175 tion but is still useful, e.g. for the identification of ascomycetes, basidiomy- 176 cetes and zygomycetes. The regions between the 18S, 5.8S and 28S genes 177 on rDNA are not highly conserved and constitute internally transcribed 178 spacers 1 and 2 (ITS1 and 2), respectively, while regions beyond the 179 rDNA genes are known as externally transcribed spacer and intergenic 180 spacer (IGS), the latter separating rDNA copies. By amplification of the 181

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