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1 Review

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2 Gel-based methods in redox proteomics \overrightarrow{x}

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O339 1. Introduction

 Cellular oxidants were once considered primarily harmful entities that damage cellular biomolecules to cause dysfunction. However, accumulating evidence suggests a role of oxidants in the normal func- tioning of the healthy cell. The transduction of an oxidant signal into a biological response can be mediated in several ways, one of which involves them chemically reacting with protein cysteine residues to 46 induce their oxidation. Cysteine thiol $(-SH)$ groups can undergo a variety of disparate redox reactions depending upon the species and concentrations of oxidants they come into contact with. However, not all thiol groups are susceptible to modification under the redox conditions that can exist in the cellular environment. Low pKa thiols 51 that ionise to the thiolate anion $(-S^-)$ state at physiological pH are particularly predisposed to oxidative post-translational modifica- tions. Therefore, the likelihood of a thiol being susceptible to oxida- tion, which in turn enables the redox-regulation of protein function, will depend upon its specific local environment within the protein (as this determines its pKa), together with its proximity and accessibility to cellular oxidants. A number of different post-translational oxidative

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2013 Background: The key to understanding the full significance of oxidants in health and disease is the develop- 17 ment of tools and methods that allow the study of proteins that sense and transduce changes in cellular 18 redox. Oxidant-reactive deprotonated thiols commonly operate as redox sensors in proteins and a variety 19 of methods have been developed that allow us to monitor their oxidative modification. 20 Scope of the review: This outline review specifically focuses on gel-based methods used to detect, quantify and 21 identify protein thiol oxidative modifications. The techniques we discuss fall into one of two broad categories. 22 Firstly, methods that allow oxidation of thiols in specific proteins or the global cellular pool to be monitored 23 are discussed. These typically utilise thiol-labelling reagents that add a reporter moiety (e.g. affinity tag, 24 O2 fluorophore, chromophore), in which loss of labelling signifies oxidation. Secondly, we outline methods 25 that allow specific thiol oxidation states of proteins (e.g. S-sulphenylation, S-nitrosylation, S-thionylation 26 and interprotein disulphide bond formation) to be investigated. Major conclusions: A variety of different gel-based methods for identifying thiol proteins that are sensitive to 28

oxidative modifications have been developed. These methods can aid the detection and quantification of thiol 29 redox state, as well as identifying the sensor protein.

General significance: By understanding how cellular redox is sensed and transduced to a functional effect by 31 protein thiol redox sensors, this will help us better appreciate the role of oxidants in health and disease. This 32 article is part of a Special Issue entitled Current methods to study reactive oxygen species — Pros and cons. 33 © 2013 Published by Elsevier B.V. 34

> modifications can occur such as S-sulphenylation, S-nitrosylation and 58 disulphide-modified proteins, as shown in [Fig. 1.](#page-1-0) Many thiol oxida- 59 tive modifications are reversible, usually by reducing enzymes such 60 as thioredoxin or glutaredoxin [1,2]. Irreversible modifications, 61 such a sulphinic and sulphonic acids are often considered in terms 62 of damage. However, it has been shown that in at least one case, a 63 sulphinylated form of 2-cysteine peroxiredoxin can be reduced by 64 the ATP-dependent protein sulphiredoxin [\[3\].](#page--1-0) 65

> Defining how cellular redox changes alter proteins by affecting crucial 66 thiol residues will help us understand the role of cysteine-targeted oxida- 67 tion in the control of cellular functions. Consequently, a number of differ- 68 ent methods have been developed that allow detection, quantification 69 and often identification of protein thiol redox state. Some methods also 70 allow the identification of the cysteine residue where the redox modifica- 71 tion occurs. This review focuses on gel-based methods that can be used to 72 investigate protein thiol oxidative modifications. The mass of 73

2. Thiol-tagging methods 74

Reduced thiols in proteins can be chemically derivatised using 75 a number of readily commercially available compounds, such as 76 N-ethylmaleimide (NEM), iodoacetamide (IAM), iodoacetic acid (IAA) 77 and thiosulphates. These chemicals can have restricted accessibility to 78 some protein thiols, preferentially labelling only those on the surface. 79 However, labelling the protein under denaturing conditions (e.g. in 80)

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Fig. 1. Outline of potential thiol modifications. Protein thiols that are exposed to oxidation can form a variety of intermediates, nitrosothiols, sulphenic acid. These intermediates may be converted into more stable states such as inter- or intra-protein disulphides. These types of modifications are reversible, however longer exposure to oxidation can lead to irreversible modifications, such as sulphinic and sulphonic acid formation.

 the presence of SDS) renders interior thiols accessible [4]. The reaction 82 between thiols and maleimide-based compounds, such as NEM, occurs 83 by addition reactions across the double bonds of these commonly used reagents [\[5\].](#page--1-0) NEM reacts with cysteine over a wider pH range [6], though it is not fully selective for thiol side-chains as it can also react with tyrosine, histidine, methionine and lysine residues. IAM and IAA have less reactivity with tyrosine, histidine, methionine and lysine and therefore are more thiol-selective [4]. Despite the increased selec- tivity of IAA and IAM, NEM has been shown to be more effective at alkylating thiols [\[6\]](#page--1-0). Similarly, the reaction between NEM and thiols is much faster than the reaction with IAA and IAM. This may be of impor- tance in sample preparation as a longer incubation time for alkylation will result in oxidation or thiol disulphide exchange occurring in sam-ples [\[6\]](#page--1-0).

 Biotin, fluorophores, radiophores or polyethylene glycol (PEG) can be chemically combined with NEM, IAM and IAA to generate thiol-reactive compounds that enable detection and quantification. For example, PEG-maleimide will react with a thiol to increase the mass of the protein. A variety of PEG-maleimide derivatives that add different masses (e.g. 5, 100 10 or 20 kDa) per thiol it reacts with are commercially available. Proteins can subsequently be resolved by SDS-PAGE and then monitored on Western blots using an antibody to a specific protein of interest. Proteins with oxidised thiols will not incorporate PEG-maleimide and conse- quently will be detected at a lower molecular weight than the same pro- tein with reduced thiols that will react with the probe. The degree of shift will depend upon the number of modified thiols and the weight of the tag used [\[5\]](#page--1-0). Fluorescent or radioactive reporter moieties have also been combined with thiol reactive compounds to try and identify oxidised thiols. Under oxidising conditions when protein thiols may be- come oxidised, less of these reporter molecules are incorporated and this can be routinely monitored using commonly available detection methods [\[7\].](#page--1-0)

113 Biotinylated IAM (BIAM) and biotinylated NEM (Bt-NEM) have both 114 been commonly used to label protein thiols. BIAM-labelling preferential-115 ly reacts with protein thiolates, a chemical feature that has been utilised in the development of a method that selectively labels protein cysteines 116 that are oxidant sensitive. This BIAM-labelling method is carried out at 117 pH 6 (or lower) to promote the full protonation of the majority of thiols 118 which typically have a higher pKa [8]. Thus most reduced protein thiols 119 will not label with BIAM as it reacts selectively with those in the reactive 120 thiolate state. However, low pKa oxidant-reactive thiols will still be par- 121 tially deprotonated at low pH. As oxidants also preferentially react with 122 these low pKa thiols, low pH BIAM-labelling provides a method that al- 123 lows oxidant-sensitive thiols to be selectively studied. This theoretically 124 Q4 overcomes a generic problem with methods that use loss of thiol label- 125 ling to monitor oxidative stress, namely that most thiols are not oxidant 126 sensitive. Thus, practically it is difficult to detect oxidation of the rela- 127 tively few oxidant-reactive protein thiols against a very high back- 128 ground because of the abundance of non-redox active thiols. The loss 129 of BIAM-labelling, indexed on Western blots using streptavidin-HRP, 130 indicates protein thiol oxidation. The biotin tag also enables the purifi- 131 cation of proteins susceptible to oxidation using avidin-based affinity 132 matrices and their identification using LC–MS/MS. 133

3. Tag-based methods for detecting specific forms of protein thiol 134 **oxidation** 135

Most of the tag-based methods described in the previous section 136 detect cysteine oxidation by loss of labelling due to thiol modification. 137 However, identifying an oxidant-induced loss of signal is challenging, 138 particularly against a high background signal (due to protein thiols 139 that are not sensitive to oxidation being labelled). An alternate, po- 140 tentially better approach would be to identify modified thiols by a 141 gain of signal. In this way, alkylating (or tagging) reagents may be 142 used to block any unmodified thiols prior to reversal of the thiol mod- 143 ification and subsequent labelling of the free thiol. For example, NEM 144 or IAM may be used to block all free thiols in a cell lysate prior to re- 145 moval of the unincorporated alkylation reagent, before the selective 146 reduction of the oxidative modification to generate a free thiol. This re- 147 duced thiol can then be subsequently labelled to aid with identification. 148

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