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Rapid determination of AB₅ enterotoxins using membrane electrospray ionization mass spectrometry



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ABSTRACT

Toxigenic bacterial pathogens play important role in enteric infections which remain a major cause of morbidity around the world. Although many methods have been reported for detection of enterotoxins, rapid analyses of AB₅ enterotoxins on protein-level in real samples is still challenging. A rapid quantitative method was developed in this study to determine bacterial AB₅ enterotoxins targeting at their unique peptides using membrane electrospray ionization mass spectrometry (MESI-MS). Precursor/production pairs of peptides HDDGYVSTSISLR (HR), TPNSIAAISMEN (TN), MASDEFPSMCPADGR (MR) and AVNEESQPECQITGDRPVIK (AK) unique to enterotoxins Ctx, LT, Stx1 and Stx2 respectively were used for both toxin identification and quantitative analysis. The methodologies were validated including sensitivity, accuracy, precision and recovery in detection of simulated real samples. Larger scaled real sample detections with statistical analysis demonstrated that target peptides in developed enterotoxins analyses method are reliable.

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1. Introduction

Enteric infections remain a major cause of morbidity around the world, which represent a notable economic burden due to medical expense, reduce of productivity and decrease in quality of life. Bacterial pathogens, which produce the AB₅ toxins, occupy an important position in enteric infections [1]. AB₅ toxins are so termed owning to that they comprise a catalytic A-subunit accounting for interference in essential host functions, and a pentameric B-subunit that mediates the receptor recognition [2].

AB₅ toxins are deployed by different categories of diarrheogenic organism, each of which has their own specific AB₅ toxin, such as Cholera toxin (Ctx) produced from Vibrio cholera, classic Shiga toxin (Stx) produced from Shigella dysenteriae, heat labile enterotoxin (LT) produced from enterotoxigenic Escherichia coli (ETEC)

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and (Stx1 and Stx2) produced from Shigatoxigenic E. coli (STEC) [3]. Although AB₅ toxins share the homology structural architecture, they recognize distinct glycan receptors located on the cell surface and differ with cellular catalytic activities. Ctx and LT specifically bind the ganglioside GM1 expressed mainly on the epithelial cell membrane of the small intestine and causing ion dysregulation of infected cells, which could induce severe copious watery diarrhea resulting in life-threatening dehydration and electrolyte imbalance [4,5]. Stx, including Stx1 and Stx2, show affinity with glycosphingolipid Gb₃ expressed on the surface of the microvascular or kidney endothelium and causing cytotoxicity for endothelial cells, which also elicit serious gastrointestinal diseases involving diarrhea and hemorrhagic colitis, along with life-threatening sequelae such as hemolytic-uremic syndrome (HUS) and thrombotic thrombocytopenic purpura [6]. Every year, AB₅ toxins related infections affect millions of people and cause more than a million deaths [7]. For these reasons, there is an increasing demand for detection of AB₅ toxins in clinical samples.

Current clinical diagnostic methods mainly focused on determination of AB5 enterotoxins' coding genes. For instance, the polymerase chain reaction (PCR) ranging from multiplex PCR to real-time quantitative PCR [8,9]; and the DNA hybridization assays [10]. Moreover, there are also a large number of methods target-

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ing AB₅ toxin protein. Some are based on immunoassays, such as enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay (ELISA) [11], microfluidic biosensor [12] and liposome PCR (LPCR) immunoassay [13]; the other are novel technologies under development such as localized surface plasmon resonance (LSPR) [14] and mass spectrometry (MS) [15] and so on. MS is a powerful tool with multiple advantages, such as high sensitivity, high resolution and small sample consumption. The chromatography-mass spectrometry method allows qualitative and quantitative analyses of trace amount analytes, which has been widely used in many ways [16,17].

Many methods have been reported to quantitatively detect enterotoxins on protein level by liquid chromatography tandem mass spectrometry, such as Staphylococcal enterotoxins A, Staphylococcal enterotoxins B and toxic shock syndrome toxin-1 in biological, food and water samples [18-23]. A comparative study of UPLC-MS/MS and ELISA methods for identification and quantification of Staphylococcal enterotoxins in milk and shrimp samples confirmed that the two methods showed good coherence [21]. However, it is time-consuming in both sample preparation and chromatography separation processes. With the developments of ambient ionization technologies, direct sample analysis in an open environment is allowed for MS analysis. Techniques, such as direct analysis in real-time (DART) [24], desorption electrospray ionization (DESI) [25], paper spray ionization (PS) [26], etc. [27-31], could achieve direct analyte detections in complex matrices with minimized sample handling process.

Previously, membrane electrospray ionization (MESI) was developed in our group [31], in which membrane was applied for three-dimensional molecule separation in real-time. As an ambient ionization technique, MESI-MS could not only achieve sensitive biomolecule quantitation, but also minimize the sample handling process. In this study, an analytical method was developed to detect Ctx, LT, and Stx (Stx1 and Stx2) in human faecal and serum samples using MESI-MS. This rapid method can be potentially coupled with portable MS and used in field investigation of outbreaks in the future.

Table 1Strains used in this study.

Bacterial origin	Strain No.	Toxin detected	Source
Toxigenic V. cholerae	VC995 VC1119 VC1283 VC2448 VC4480 VC7258	Ctx Ctx Ctx Ctx Ctx Ctx Ctx Ctx	China CDC, Beijing, China China CDC, Beijing, China
Non-toxigenic V. cholerae	VUN54 VC235 VC2113 VC5524 VC5528 VC197	ND ^a ND ND ND ND ND	China CDC, Beijing, China China CDC, Beijing, China
ETEC	ET002 ET007 ET011 ET019 ET036 10407	LT LT LT LT LT LT	China CDC, Beijing, China China CDC, Beijing, China China CDC, Beijing, China China CDC, Beijing, China China CDC, Beijing, China ATCC
STEC	ST011 ST012 ST033 ST039 ST046 ST004 ST004 ST005 ST017 ST049 ST056 EDL933	Stx1 Stx1 Stx1 Stx1 Stx2 Stx2 Stx2 Stx2 Stx2 Stx2 Stx2 Stx2	China CDC, Beijing, China China CDC, Beijing, China ATCC
Non-toxigenic <i>E. coli</i>	A127 A137 A144 JM109 BL21	ND ND ND ND	China CDC, Beijing, China China CDC, Beijing, China China CDC, Beijing, China Takara Biotech Co. Ltd., Dalian, China Takara Biotech Co. Ltd., Dalian, China

^a ND, not detected.

2. Materials and methods

2.1. Bacterial strains and chemical reagents

Bacteria strains were all provided by Chinese CDC (Beijing, China), and detailed information on strains and primers were given in Tables 1 and 2. Shigatoxins-1 and 2 were purchased from Toxin Technology, Inc. (FL, USA); urea, dithiothreitol (DTT), iodoacetamide (IAA), NH4HCO3, KH2PO4, K2HPO4 and NaCl were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich (MO, USA); sequencing-grade modified trypsin was purchased from Promega (WI, USA); tryptone, yeast extract, HPLC-grade formic acid (FA) and methanol (MeOH) were purchased from Fisher Scientific (NJ, USA); Amicon Ultra Centrifugal Filter (3 kDa) were purchased from Merck Millipore (Darmstadt, Germany); Quick StartTM Bradford Protein Assav Kits (#500-0204) were ordered from Bio-Rad Laboratories (Shanghai, China); pure water was purchased from Wahaha (Hangzhou, China); filter papers were purchased from Beijing Chemical Company (Beijing, China); dialysis membrane (molecular weight cut-off (MWCO) 3.5 and 8–14 kDa) was purchased from Ebioeasy Co., Ltd. (Shanghai, China). Human faeces and serum were provided by healthy volunteers in accordance with the requirements of medical ethics. Four synthesized peptides (HR, HDDGYVSTSISLR; TN, TPNSIAAISMEN; MR, MASDEFPSMCPADGR; AK, AVNEESQPECQIT-GDRPVIK) with purity >95%, assessed by MALDI-TOF MS and HPLC, were obtained from Pepmic Co., Ltd. (Suzhou, China).

2.2. Bacterial culture and protein digestion

Bacteria strains used in this study, including toxigenic *Vibrio cholerae*, non-toxigenic *V. cholerae*, enterotoxigenic *E. coli* (ETEC), Shigatoxigenic *E. coli* (STEC) and non-toxigenic *E. coli*, were cultured in Luria-Bertani (LB) medium at 37 °C with constant shaking. Fresh LB medium was inoculated with each kind of bacteria from the culture in the exponential phase (OD₆₀₀ = 0.6) of growth.

After the overnight cultivation, the bacterial cultures were centrifuged at $3000 \times g$ for 10 min at 4 °C, and the cell free supernatants were concentrated by ultrafiltration with ultra-centrifugal filters at $5000 \times g$ for 20 min at 4 °C. Protein concentrations of the condensed supernatants were then determined by the Bradford assay. Microwave-assisted protein digestion was carried out [32]. Briefly, the protein samples were dissolved in 50 µL of 50 mM NH₄HCO₃ and reduced for 5 min at 95 °C in 50 mM NH₄HCO₃ containing 5 mM DTT and then alkylated for 30 min in the dark by adding 15 mM IAA. Sequencing-grade modified trypsin was added at an enzyme/substrate ratio of 1:50 (w/w) and allowed to digest the proteins in a domestic microwave for 15 min at 700 W.

2.3. PCR detection of the enterotoxins' coding gene

Bacteria strains were confirmed for *ctx*, *lt stx*1 and *stx*2 genes carrying by the PCR assay, and primers (Table 2) were selected according to published methods [33,34]. The PCR process was carried out as follows: pre-denaturation at 94 °C for 5 min, 30 cycles

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