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Phosphoproteomic analysis of the human pathogen

Trypanosoma cruzi **at the epimastigote stage**

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Abstract

Trypanosoma cruzi is the etiologic agent of Chagas disease, which affects millions of people in Latin America and has become a public health concern in the United States and areas of Europe. The possibility that kinase inhibitors represent novel anti-parasitic agents is currently being explored. However, fundamental understanding of the cell signaling networks requires the detailed analysis of the involved phosphorylated proteins. Here, we have performed a comprehensive mass spectrometry (MS)-based phosphorylation mapping of phosphoproteins from *T. cruzi* epimastigote forms. Our liquid chromatography (LC)-tandem MS (MS/MS, MS/MS/MS, and multistage activation) analysis has identified 237 phosphopeptides from 119 distinct proteins. Furthermore, 220 phosphorylation sites were unambiguously mapped: 148 on serine, 57 on threonine, and 8 on tyrosine. In addition, immunoprecipitation and Western blotting analysis confirmed the presence of at least seven tyrosinephosphorylated proteins in *T. cruzi*. The identified phosphoproteins were subjected to Gene Ontology, InterPro, and BLAST analysis, and categorized based on their role in cell structure, motility, transportation, metabolism, pathogenesis, DNA/RNA/protein turnover, and signaling. Taken together our phosphoproteomic data provide new insights into the molecular mechanisms governed by protein kinases and phosphatases in *T. cruzi*. We discuss the potential roles of the identified phosphoproteins in parasite physiology and drug development.

Keywords

Cell Signaling; Chagas disease; Drug targets; Phosphoproteome; Trypanosoma cruzi

1 Introduction

Chagas disease or American trypanosomiasis is one of the most prevalent tropical illnesses with an estimated 11 million people infected and approximately 120 million people living in high risk areas. Chagas disease is a major public health problem in Latin America, where up

CONFLICT OF INTEREST

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to 50,000 people may die every year due to complications in the acute or chronic phases of the disease [1,2]. In addition, due to the migration of chronically infected, asymptomatic people from endemic areas and lack of screening in blood banks, Chagas disease has become a public health concern in United States and certain areas of Europe, such as Catalonia [3,4].

Chagas disease is caused by the protozoan parasite *Trypanosoma cruzi*, which is naturally transmitted by hematophagous Reduviidae insects, popular known as kissing bugs. The parasite, however, may also be transmitted congenitally or via blood transfusion or organ transplantation [1]. The *T. cruzi* life cycle comprises two stages in the insect vector and two stages in the human host. In the insect vector, epimastigote forms replicate in the midgut, whereas in the more distal portion of the gut, they are transformed into infective metacyclic trypomastigotes under nutritional stress. These metacyclic forms are expelled together with the insect's excreta during a bloodmeal, and reach the host bloodstream through the bite wound or exposed ocular or oral mucosa. Inside the host, the parasite can infect different types of nucleated cells, where they immediately escape the parasitophorous vacuole and differentiate into amastigote forms, which reproduce freely in the cytoplasm by binary fission. After several divisions, amastigotes transform into trypomastigote forms, which are eventually released into the extracellular milieu and reach the bloodstream, where they can be taken up by the infect host cells or an insect vector, thus completing the natural life cycle [5].

The treatment of Chagas disease is currently restricted to two drugs, nifurtimox and benznidazole, which have limited efficacy and cause severe side effects [6,7]. In addition, there is no human vaccine against *T. cruzi* [8,9]. Therefore, there is a critical need to develop new therapeutic strategies for preventing or treating Chagas disease.

In line with the current interest in protein kinases as molecular targets for the treatment of a variety of diseases [10–13], the possibility that kinase inhibitors represent novel anti-parasitic agents is currently being explored [14]. Reversible protein phosphorylation is a key mechanism for the regulation of major biological processes including proliferation and differentiation. Approximately 2% of the *T. cruzi* genome encodes protein kinases, suggesting a major regulatory role in controlling parasite development and function [15]. A comparative study of the kinomes of trypanosomatids showed that *T. brucei*, *T. cruzi*, and *Leishmania major* have 176, 190, and 199 protein kinase genes, respectively [15,16]. Of these kinases, approximately 12% are unique to trypanosomatids [15,16]. Among the protein phosphatases, *T. brucei*, *T. cruzi*, and *L. major* have 78, 86, and 88 genes, respectively. About 40% of these phosphatase genes were atypical with no clear orthologs in other eukaryote genomes [17]. Taken all together, the significant differences between *T. cruzi* and host-cell protein kinases suggest that parasite specific inhibition can be achieved and, therefore, may represent a viable therapeutic approach to control Chagas disease.

Despite the importance of protein phosphorylation in many cellular processes, few studies have identified phosphorylation sites in trypanosomatid proteins. Recently, proteomic analysis of promastigote and amastigote forms of *Leishmania donovani* identified 73 phosphoproteins with diverse biological functions, however the specific phosphorylation sites (or phosphosites) were not identified [18]. Another proteomic study in *L. donovani* was able to identify 18 phosphosites from 16 distinct phosphopeptides [19]. However, to our knowledge the only phosphorylation site thus far determined in a *T. cruzi* protein is serine phosphorylation of the linker histone H1 [20]. In order to gain insight into the signaling networks that govern parasite function, we analyzed the phosphoproteome of *T. cruzi* at the non-infective, insect-derived epimastigote stage. We have chosen to initially perform the analysis of this stage, instead of the three other stages (i.e., metacyclic trypomastigote, amastigote, and trypomastigote), to better standardize the *T. cruzi* phosphoproteomic methodology, using a parasite form that can be obtained in large amounts in cell-free medium. Total epimastigote lysate was digested with

trypsin, followed by the enrichment of phosphopeptides by strong-cation exchange (SCX) and immobilized metal-affinity chromatography (IMAC), and analysis by tandem LC-MS. Here, we show a comprehensive phosphorylation mapping study and discuss the potential roles of the identified phosphoproteins in parasite physiology and drug development.

2 Materials and Methods

2.1 Cell culture and protein extraction

T. cruzi epimastigotes (Y stain) were grown in liver infusion tryptose medium containing 10% fetal bovine serum at 28°C for 3–4 days [21]. The parasites were harvested and washed 3 times with phosphate-buffered saline (PBS), pH 7.4. Epimastigotes (2.4×10^{10}) were lysed with 3 ml 8 M urea, 400 mM NH₄HCO₃, containing phosphatase inhibitor cocktail (Sigma-Aldrich), by vigorous vortexing for approximately 5 min. Disulfide bonds were reduced with 5 mM dithiothreitol for 15 min at 50° C, and the free thiol groups were alkylated with 10 mM iodoacetamide for 30 min at room temperature and protected from light. Protein content was measured by the Micro BCA assay (Pierce), according to the manufacturer's protocol.

2.2 Trypsin Digestion

After BCA quantification, an equivalent of 10 mg total protein extract was diluted to 10 ml with 100 mM NH_4HCO_3 and digested with 100 µg sequencing-grade trypsin (Promega) for 24 h at 37°C. After the digestion, peptides were acidified by adding 100 μl formic acid (FA) and desalted in a C18 cartridge (DSC-18, Supelco, Sigma-Aldrich). The cartridge was activated with 4 ml methanol and equilibrated with 4 ml 0.05% trifluoroacetic acid (TFA). After loading and washing with 4 ml 0.05% TFA, the sample was eluted with 2 ml 80% ACN/0.05% TFA and dried in a vacuum centrifuge (Vacufuge, Eppendorf).

2.3 Strong Cation-Exchange (SCX) Chromatography

SCX fractionation was performed with 100 μl POROS HS 50 resin (Applied Biosystems) placed in a SPE support cartridge. After equilibrating the column with 25% ACN/0.5% FA (SCX buffer), the samples were loaded and eluted with 1 ml 0, 10, 20, 30, 40, 50, 60, 70, 80, 90, 100, 150, 250, and 500 mM NaCl dissolved in SCX buffer. The fractions were dried in a vacuum centrifuge, dissolved in 200 μl 0.05% TFA, desalted in POROS R2 50 ziptips as described by Jurado *et al*. [22], and dried again.

2.4 Immobilized Metal-Affinity Chromatography (IMAC)

Fifty microliters of IMAC resin (PHOS Select Iron Affinity Gel, Sigma-Aldrich) was washed 2X with 450 μl 0.25 M acetic acid/30% ACN (IMAC buffer). Each fraction from SCX chromatography was redissolved in 100 μl IMAC buffer and incubated with the resin for 60 min with constant shaking. After the incubation, the resin was loaded onto ziptips, washed 5X with 100 μl IMAC buffer and eluted 2X with 100 μl 5% TFA/45% ACN. Samples were dried in a vacuum centrifuge prior to LC-MS analysis.

2.5 Liquid Chromatography-Mass Spectrometry (LC-MS)

Following IMAC purification each fraction was redissolved in 30 μl 0.05% TFA and 8 μl were used for each injection. The peptides were loaded in a C18 trap column (0.25 μl, Opti-Pak, Optimized Technologies) coupled to a nanoHPLC system (NanoLC-1DPlus, Eksigent). The separation was carried in a capillary reverse phase (RP) column (Acclaim, 3 μm C18, 75 μm \times 25 cm, LC Packings, Dionex) in a gradient of 2–33.2% ACN/0.1% FA for 120 min. The eluted peptides were analyzed online in a linear ion trap mass spectrometer (LTQ XL/ETD, Thermo Fisher Scientific). The five most abundant ions were submitted to data-dependent collision-induced dissociation (CID) MS/MS, multistage activation (MSA), or MS/MS/MS

fragmentation before being dynamically excluded for 2 min. The CID was set to 40% normalized collision energy. The MSA was set at −98.0, −49.0, and −32.6 Thompson (Th) relative to the precursor ion, and MS/MS/MS scans were triggered by the appearance of phosphate neutral loss (-98.0 , -49.0 , and -32.6 Th) in the MS² scan event.

2.6 Bioinformatics analysis

MS/MS spectra were converted to DTA files using Bioworks (v3.3.1, Thermo Fisher Scientific) with the following criteria: peptide masses from 800 to 3500 Da, at least 15 ions, and a minimum of 10 counts. TurboSequest searches were done against the forward and reverse *T. cruzi,* bovine, human keratin, and porcine trypsin sequences (total 191,762 sequences, downloaded on March 17th, 2008, from GenBank). The parameters for database search were: fully trypsin digestion; up to 1 missed cleavage site; 2 Da for peptide mass tolerance; 1 Da for fragment mass tolerance; cysteine carbamidomethylation (+57 Da) as fixed modification; and methionine oxidation (+16 Da) and serine, tyrosine and threonine phosphorylation (+80 Da for MS/MS and −18 Da for MS/MS/MS) as variable modifications. The datasets were filtered with DCn \geq 0.05, peptide probability \leq 0.1, and Xcorr of 1.5, 2.2, and 2.7 (2.8 only for MS/ MS/MS data) for singly-, doubly-, and triply-charged peptides, respectively. All phosphopeptide spectra were carefully examined for diagnostic b and y fragments to determine the exact modification site. For phosphorylation sites that could not be determined, the all possible modified amino acid residues were indicated by lower cap and the number of phosphate groups in parenthesis. The phosphorylation motifs were searched using Phosida phosphorylation site database [\(http://www.phosida.com/](http://www.phosida.com/)) [23]. All valid phosphoproteins were submitted to Gene Ontology (GO), Blast (*e*-value ≤ 1e-5) and InterPro annotations using Blast2go algorithm (February 11th, 2009, <http://www.blast2go.de/>) [24].

2.7 Immunoprecipitation and Western blot analysis

An equivalent of 1.2×10^9 epimastigote cells were solubilized in Triton lysis buffer (10 mM Tris-HCl (pH 7.6), 5 mM EDTA (pH 8.0), 50 mM NaCl, 30 mM $Na_4P_2O_7$, 50 mM NaF, 1 mM Na3VO4, 1% Triton X-100) containing 1 mM phenylmethylsulfonyl fluoride, 5 μg/ml aprotinin, 2 μg/ml leupeptin, 1 μg/ml pepstatin A, and clarified by centrifugation (16,000 × g, 10 min, 4°C). The supernatants were rotated with 10 μg of anti-phosphotyrosine monoclonal antibody (4G10, Upstate) for 2 h at $4 \degree C$. The immune complex was captured by incubation with protein A-Sepharose beads (Rockland Immunochemicals), for 1 h at 4°C. The beads were then washed 3 times with cold lysis buffer and eluted by boiling in 2x SDS sample buffer (50 mM Tris-HCl (pH 6.8), 100 mM dithiothreitol, 2% SDS, 0.02% bromophenol blue, 10% glycerol, pH 6.8). Samples were resolved by 10% SDS-PAGE and transferred to PVDF membrane (Amersham Biosciences, GE Healthcare Life Sciences). After blocking with 1% BSA, the membrane was incubated overnight with anti-phosphotyrosine monoclonal antibody (4G10, Upstate), followed by 2 h incubation with horseradish peroxidase-conjugated goat antimouse IgG $(H+L)$ (KPL), and visualized by using enhanced chemiluminescence reagent (ECL) and X-ray film (Phenix Research Products).

3 Results and Discussion

3.1 Phosphopeptide enrichment and phosphorylation site mapping

The identification of phosphoproteins can be limited due to their low abundance and the low stoichiometry of phosphorylation. In order to map the phosphorylation sites in *T. cruzi* proteins, whole epimastigote extracts were digested with trypsin, fractionated by SCX chromatography, and the resulting phosphopeptides enriched using IMAC. The enriched fractions were analyzed by LC-MS/MS, phosphate neutral loss-triggered LC-MS/MS/MS, or LC-MSA. It is well documented that MS/MS fragmentation of phosphopeptides results in a strong neutral loss of the phosphate group [25]. In many cases, the resulting spectra do not provide sufficient

fragments to determine the phosphopeptide sequences. To circumvent this problem, neutral loss-triggered MS/MS/MS [26] and MSA (also known as pseudo-MS³) [27] were developed. To increase the phosphoproteome coverage, we applied all three dissociation strategies that resulted in the identification of similar numbers of non-phosphorylated peptides (Table 1). However, the MSA approach led to the identification of more phosphopeptides (n=160) as compared to the MS/MS (n=51) or MS/MS/MS (n=84) approach (Table 1,Supplementary Figures 1–3). In addition, only 17 peptides were sequenced using all three MSn acquisition regimens (Fig. 1), indicating that these regimens are complementary. It is noteworthy that the MS/MS/MS regimen led to an increased false-discovery rate (FDR), thus the Xcorr threshold had to be increased to validate the sequences. Two recent reports have compared the use of MS/MS, MS/MS/MS, and MSA for the analysis of phosphopeptides using high resolution mass spectrometers (Orbitrap-MS or FT-ICR-MS) for the first MS stage [28,29]. On the one hand, Villen *et al.* showed no significant differences in the number of phosphopeptides identified and performance to locate the modification sites using all three methods of fragmentation [29]. On the other hand, Ulintz *et al.* reported that the MSA method outperformed the two other strategies [28]. The results shown herein indicate that indeed MSA had a superior performance compared to the other MSn strategies. These results suggest that the MSA-provided higher quality spectra [27] are more crucial for the analysis of phosphopeptides when lower resolution data is recorded in the first MS stage.

In our analyses, 237 phosphopeptides were sequenced from 221 phosphorylation sites in 119 proteins from *T. cruzi* (Table 1, Supplementary Table 1). Of those 221 newly identified phosphorylation sites, 148 (65.5%) were on serine, 57 (25.2%) on threonine, and 8 (3.5%) on tyrosine (Table 1). Eight phosphorylation sites could not be assigned to specific amino acid residues, 7 on serine or threonine and 1 on serine or tyrosine (Table 1). From the identified phosphoproteins, approximately 40% had multiple phosphorylation sites (Table 1, Supplementary Table 1). The identification of these phosphoproteins further supports the notion that kinase-mediated signal transduction pathways are important in the regulation of parasite biological processes. Unlike metazoa and yeast, which utilize regulated transcription factors to direct the expression of certain genes, trypanosomatids indiscriminately transcribe most genes in large polycistronic units, thus emphasizing the critical role of posttranslational modifications (PTM) in the regulation of *T. cruzi* proteins.

3.2 Annotation of phosphorylation motifs

The specificity of protein kinases is determined by the amino acid residues adjacent to the phosphosite and is termed the consensus phosphorylation motif. To determine the potential kinase(s) responsible for modification of the identified phosphosites, the phosphorylation motifs were annotated using the Phosida search algorithm [15]. The most abundant motifs are those from CAMK2 (13.9%), CK1 (11.1%), PKA (8.71%), CK2 (7.7%), GSK3 (7.0%), ERK (5.9%), and CDK1 (4.2%) (Table 2). Fifty-seven (19.9%) phosphorylation sites did not match any known motif (Table 2), which may be due to kinases with undetermined specificity or atypical kinases that might only be present in trypanosomatids [15,16]. As expected, there was a significant amount of redundancy among the identified motifs; therefore, more motifs $(n=287)$ were present compared to phosphorylation sites $(n=221)$. In these cases, it is probable that specificity is achieved by different spatial and temporal expression of the kinase(s). Intriguingly, a number of tyrosine-kinase phosphorylation motifs (ALK, SRC, and EGFR) were identified (Table 2). A key difference between host and parasite kinomes is the absence of receptor-linked and cytoplasmic tyrosine kinases in trypanosomatids [15]; however, the presence of protein-tyrosine phosphatases indicates that tyrosine phosphorylation is a key regulatory mechanism in *T. cruzi* [17]. It has been proposed that atypical tyrosine kinases such as Wee1 and dual-specificity kinases such as the DYRKs and CLKs, which are all present in the *T. cruzi* genome, are responsible for this activity [15].

To determine whether any motif was over- or under-represented, the distribution of motifs of epimastigote phosphoproteome was compared to that of the entire *T. cruzi* database. The CAMK2, ERK, and CDK1 motifs were significantly over-represented ($p < 0.01$ by Fisher's exact test), whereas the CK1, NEK6, PLK1, and ALK motifs were under-represented ($p < 0.01$) (Table 2).

3.3 Functional categorization of identified phosphoproteins

Of 119 sequenced phosphoproteins, 68 (57%) were annotated in the GenBank database as hypothetical proteins, making it difficult to infer their biological function (Table 3). Therefore, we submitted all identified phosphoproteins to automated Blast, InterPro and Gene Ontology (GO) analysis (see Material and Methods for details). Since the majority of *T. cruzi* sequences were compiled in 2005 with the completion of the genome project [30], new entries in the GenBank database could help in the annotation of the identified sequences. Indeed, Blast analysis resulted in the annotation of 21 sequences previously described as hypothetical proteins (Table 3, Supplementary Table 2). In addition, InterPro analysis resulted in 74 entries, 25 of which were previously annotated as hypothetical proteins (Table 3, Supplementary Table 3). Finally, GO analysis generated 69 annotations, 22 of which were previously annotated as hypothetical proteins (Table 3, Supplementary Table 4). Taken together, Blast, InterPro and GO analyses, assigned 35 (51%) of the 68 hypothetical sequences to a predicted biological function (Table 3). The overall function of the identified phosphoproteins is discussed in more detail in the following subsections.

3.3.1 Gene ontology analysis—The overall functional distribution of the identified phosphoproteins, as determined by GO analysis (Supplementary Tables 4–5), is shown in Figure 2. The majority of proposed functions involved molecular interactions with proteins, nucleic acid, nucleotide, ions, and lipids. Enzymatic or catalytic activity and transport functions were also prevalent (Fig. 2, Supplementary Tables 4–5). The most abundant cellular components were intracellular, membrane bound, and localized in organelles (Fig. 2, Supplementary Tables 4–5). For the biological process category, a large proportion of the phosphoproteins were related to metabolism and other physiological processes. There were also proteins related to cell reproduction, development, differentiation and death, cell communication, response to stimulus, and locomotion (Fig. 2, Supplementary Tables 4–5). Overall, GO analysis further illustrates that protein phosphorylation is a significant regulatory mechanism governing a variety of *T. cruzi* biological functions.

3.3.2 Signaling transduction-related proteins—Signal transduction pathways are highly dynamic protein networks that integrate information from various stimuli. Sixteen of the identified proteins are proposed to be cell signaling modulators. Of these, six (37.5%) are classified as either protein kinases or phosphatases by Blast, InterPro, or GO analysis (Table 3), suggesting a number of signaling pathways are active. Indeed, calcium-binding proteins such as calmodulin and EF-hand domain-containing phosphoproteins were identified. Consistent with these observations, 13.9% of the phosphorylation motifs were characterized as CAMK2 consensus sites, indicating Ca^{2+} might play an important role in the regulation of many processes in *T. cruzi* physiology. Interestingly, a number of WD40 domain-containing phosphoproteins were identified. WD40 domain is an amino acid repeat with conserved tryptophan and aspartic acid residues [31]. This repeat has been shown to bind to phosphoserine/threonine and to act as a adaptor motif to anchor ubiquitin ligase, thus playing an important role in phosphorylation-dependent protein degradation pathways [32]. WD40 repeats are also present in several proteins from *Chlamydomonas reinhardtii* intraflagellar transport system [31], indicating that these proteins might also be involved in phosphorylation/ ubiquitination-regulated cellular trafficking. Taken together, we have established a functional

relationship between the proposed signaling molecules that provides unique insights into parasite biology with relevance to future drug development.

3.3.3 Cytoskeleton, flagellum, and trafficking proteins—Fifteen of the identified phosphoproteins were annotated as cytoskeleton, flagellum, and trafficking proteins (Table 3). In mammalian sperm, hyperactivated motility is mediated by Ca^{2+} [33]; however, it remains unclear whether the same phenomenon occurs in trypanosomatid flagellum. The presence of Ca2+ sensors in *Trypanosoma sp*. flagellum, such as calmodulin and flagellar calcium-binding protein (FCaBP), suggest that this phenomenon does occur in these protozoa [33–35]. We found that one paraflagellar rod protein (PAR1b) and one protein with orthologs in mammalian sperm are phosphorylated in a CAMK2 consensus motif, supporting the role of Ca^{2+} -mediated protein phosphorylation in the regulation of motility in trypanosomes. In agreement with this data, tyrosine phosphorylation was recently shown to be enriched in *T. brucei* flagellum [36].

3.3.4 Transporters—We found 8 transporters in our analysis, 3 ABC, 1 acetate- and 4 iontransporters. The ABC transporters are widely correlated with multidrug resistance from bacteria to humans [37]. The *T. cruzi* genome has 33 ABC transporter genes [38]. Two ABCrelated transporters (tcpgp1 and tcpgp2) were characterized in *T. cruzi*, but their expression was not correlated with the efflux of nifurtimox or benznidazole [37]. Lara *et al.* proposed that the heme uptake by epimastigotes was dependent on ABC transporters [39]. More research is necessary to elucidate the ABC transporter functions in drug resistance, nutrient uptake, and metabolic secretion, and the role of phosphorylation in these processes.

3.3.5 DNA, RNA, and protein turnover—We have found two phosphoproteins with functions corresponding to nucleosome and chromatin assembly (i.e., histone H2B, nucleosome assembly protein). Marques Porto et al. showed by 32P-labeling the phosphorylation of *T. cruzi* histone H1 and H2B [40]. Although we have previously mapped the phosphorylation of histone H1 and now report herein the phosphorylation of histone H2B, the phospho-histone H1 was not detected in the current analysis. This could be because the phosphopeptide derived from histone H1 has an acetylated N-terminus and several miscleaved sites by trypsin digestion [20], thus they were not considered in current our analysis. Identification of heterogeneous nuclear ribonucleoprotein H/F, ATP-dependent RNA helicase, and pab1 binding protein (poly-A binding) suggests phosphorylation-mediated signal transduction pathways play a key role in *T. cruzi* RNA synthesis, processing, and degradation. Additionally, identification of protein synthesis modulators such as translation elongation factor and tRNA synthase as well as protein folding and processing modulators such as calpain indicates that phosphorylation may play a role in the regulation of these processes in *T. cruzi*.

3.3.6 Metabolism—Among the metabolic proteins, we identified enzymes involved in the late stages of the glycolytic pathway (i.e., pyruvate phosphate dikinase and pyruvate dehydrogenase E1 alpha subunit) (Table 3). Two phosphoproteins involved in nucleotide synthesis (i.e., ribose-phosphate pyrophosphokinase and phosphoribosylpyrophosphate synthetase) were also identified. These results suggest that these highly active metabolic pathways may be controlled at least in part by phosphorylation, thus feeding the machinery responsible for parasite cell growth and proliferation.

3.3.7 Pathogenesis—Although epimastigotes are noninfective forms, we found several proteins known to be related to pathogenesis of *T. cruzi*. For instance, five phosphoproteins belonging to two protein families (i.e., *trans*-sialidase (TS) and dispersed gene family (DGF)) were identified (Table 3). TS is a well known virulence factor [41] and comprises a protein superfamily (TS/gp85) encoded by about 1400 genes in *T. cruzi* genome [30]. Members of the

TS/gp85 superfamily have the enzymatic activity to transfer sialic acid residues from the host to parasite glycoconjugates, which is related to protection against the host immune response [42]. Other members have been related to host cell recognition and invasion to protect the parasite from the host complement system [43]. DGF protein 1 is a multigene family that was recently shown to be expressed on the surface of bloodstream trypomastigotes [44]. DGF protein 1 was also reported to be *N*-glycosylated [45]. Here, we show that members of this family are also phosphorylated. The InterPro annotation suggests a pectin-lyase fold/virulence factor function, but its role in *T. cruzi* virulence yet remains to be elucidated (Table 3).

3.3.8 Proteins with other functions—A number of the phosphoproteins identified in our analysis seem to bind ions and other proteins; however, their exact functions are unknown. In addition, several of the identified phosphoproteins are from the retrotransposon hot spot (RHS) family. RHS is encoded by a large multigene family localized mainly in telomeric regions of trypanosomal chromosomes, and it is believed to be involved in gene duplication of multigene families, including virulence factors such as mucins and TS/gp85 glycoproteins [46,47]. The finding that several members of RHS family are phosphorylated suggests that these gene products may be highly active, which accelerates gene duplication and evolution [46,47]. This might explain the high divergence and differences in virulence between *T. cruzi* strains and phylogenetic lineages [47,48].

3.4 Analysis of phosphotyrosine proteome

It has previously been estimated that 30% of all eukaryotic proteins contain covalently bound phosphate at any given time [49]. Furthermore, the proportion of pSer, pThr, and pTyr was recently reported in HeLa cells to be approximately 86.4%, 11.8%, and 1.8%, respectively [50]. The rarity of phosphorylation on tyrosine residues suggests there is a higher gain in signaling pathways because they are more tightly regulated. A genome-wise prediction of protein kinases of trypanosomatid parasites (*T. cruzi*, *T. brucei,* and *Leishmania major*) has shown that these protozoa lack typical tyrosine kinases; however, the presence of tyrosine phosphorylated proteins has been reported by a number of research groups [51,52]. Das et al. showed that the major *T. brucei* tyrosine-phosphorylated protein is a nuclear RNA-binding protein (Nopp44/46) [51]. Recently, Nett et al. described the tyrosine phosphoproteome of *T. brucei* procyclic forms, where they mapped the tyrosine-phosphorylation sites of 34 proteins. Using anti-phosphotyrosine antibodies and immunofluorescence microscopy these authors showed that the tyrosine phosphorylated proteins were mostly localized at the basal body, flagellum, and nucleolus, indicating that tyrosine phosphorylation may play a central role in guiding signaling molecules to specific parasite locations. In *T. cruzi*, a 175-kDa protein is tyrosine-phosphorylated upon contact with the host cells, but the identity and the function of this protein during host cell invasion remains unknown [52].

As described above, our MS/MS analysis identified 8 tyrosine phosphorylation sites from 6 distinct proteins: protein kinase (glycogen synthase kinase 3, GSK3); tyrosine aminotransferase; mitochondrial DNA polymerase I protein D; and three hypothetical proteins (EAN84292.1, EAN94368.1, and EAN95748.1) (Table 1 and Supplementary Table 1). The Figure 3A illustrates the identification of the tyrosine phosphorylated peptide LSPSEPNVAYpICSR from protein kinase GSK3. Initially, we observed an intense fragment corresponding to the neutral loss of phosphoric acid at m/z 788.38 ([M − H₃PO₄ + 2H]²⁺). After detailed analysis of remainder MS/MS fragments, we unambiguously mapped the phosphorylation to the Tyr10. Phosphorylation of Ser2, Ser4, or Ser13 was discarded based on the identification of fragment series b_{3-5} and b_{8-9} (for Ser2 and Ser4) and y_{2-4} (for Ser13). Furthermore, the presence of fragment series y_{5-10} corroborates the phosphorylation on Tyr10. Contrary to what has been reported for triple-quadrupole [53] and Q-TOF [54] mass

spectrometers, intense neutral loss of the phosphate group from tyrosine phosphopeptides was previously observed by positive-ion mode MS/MS fragmentation in ion-trap instrument [25].

To further investigate tyrosine phosphorylation in *T. cruzi*, we performed an immunoprecipitation experiment using a monoclonal anti-phosphotyrosine antibody (see Material and Methods for details). Indeed, Western blotting analysis revealed 7 distinct tyrosine-phosphorylated proteins; p250, p150, p90, p55, p50, p45, and p35, which were assigned names according to their relative molecular masses (Fig. 3B). Interestingly, except for the p250, the predicted molecular masses of the tyrosine phosphorylated proteins identified by MS/MS seemed to closely correspond to those of the phosphoproteins detected by Western blotting: protein kinase (GSK3) (40.4 kDa), tyrosine aminotransferase (46.1 kDa), mitochondrial DNA polymerase I protein D (26.1 kDa), EAN84292.1 (103 kDa), EAN94368.1 (61.3 kDa), and EAN95748.1 (60 kDa). However, since other PTMs could alter the relative mobility of proteins on SDS-PAGE, the identity of the phosphorylated proteins observed on Western blot could not be inferred. Also, the low abundance of these proteins on the SDS-PAGE (as assessed by Coomassie blue staining) precluded their identification by LC-MS/MS.

The identification of GSK3 phosphorylation at Y187 suggests that this signaling pathway is important in *T. cruzi* biology. This enzyme is conserved throughout evolution; however, the parasite sequences are slightly truncated (353–355 residues) compared to the human, mouse, and *Arabidopsis thaliana* GSK orthologs (410–420 residues) (Supplementary Fig. 4). The amino acid sequence alignment also shows that *T. cruzi* GSK3 Y187 (arrow) is conserved in each of the included species (Supplementary Fig. 4). The corresponding tyrosine residue in human GSK3 (Y216) is in the "activation loop" of this kinase and its phosphorylation is critical for GSK3 catalytic activity [55, 56]. The significant proportion of GSK3 consensus phosphorylation sites (Table 2) further supports the presence of activated GSK3 in *T. cruzi*. Taken together, our results support the role of GSK3 in *T. cruzi* physiology and a selective inhibitor to this enzyme could potentially be used as an anti-parasitic agent. Indeed, GSK3 has been targeted for the development of selective drugs against *Plasmodium ssp.* and trypanosomatids [57, 58].

4 Concluding remarks

In this study, we have successfully mapped 237 phosphopeptides from 119 distinct proteins of epimastigote forms of *T. cruzi*. The results indicate that propagation of cell-signaling cascades by protein kinases and phosphatases play an important role in *T. cruzi* physiological processes, including cell motility, metabolism, ion transport, differentiation, and survival. We are currently analyzing the phosphoproteomes of other developmental stages of *T. cruzi* to expand the fundamental knowledge of the mechanisms regulating this medically relevant protozoan parasite. In addition to contributing to the understanding of the molecular aspects of *T. cruzi* biology, the information presented here will aid in the development of potential kinase-directed therapeutic strategies to treat Chagas disease.

Supplementary Material

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SDS-PAGE

sodium dodecyl sulfate-polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis

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Figure 1.

Venn diagram of *T. cruzi* phosphopeptides identified by MS/MS, MS/MS/MS, and MSA analyses.

Nakayasu et al. Page 15

Figure 2.

Gene ontology analysis. GO analysis was performed using Blast2GO algorithm. The representative categories for molecular function, cellular component, and biological process are shown in the graph. For the complete list, see Supplementary Tables 4 and 5.

Nakayasu et al. Page 16

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Figure 3.

(A) MS/MS spectrum of the tyrosine-phosphorylated peptide LSPSEPNVAYpICSR from glycogen synthase kinase 3 (GSK3). Matched b and y fragments are indicated. **(B)** Western blotting analysis of tyrosine phosphorylated proteins in *T. cruzi*. Epimastigote extracts were subjected to anti-phosphotyrosine immunoprecipitation and separation by 10% SDS-PAGE. After blocking with BSA, the membrane was probed with the anti-phosphotyrosine antibody, followed by detection with horseradish peroxidase conjugated anti-mouse IgG and chemiluminescent reagent. Arrows denote *T. cruzi* tyrosine phosphorylated proteins. Brackets denote immunoglobulin G heavy (IgG HC) and light chains (IgG LC).

Proteomics. Author manuscript; available in PMC 2009 September 28.

Nakayasu et al. Page 18

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Statistics of phosphoproteome analysis of Trypanosoma cruzi epimastigote forms. Table 1 Statistics of phosphoproteome analysis of Trypanosoma cruzi epimastigote forms.

Table 2

Distribution of kinase specific motifs in *T. cruzi.*

** p* < 0.01 by Fisher's exact test.

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Functional categorization of identified phosphoproteins of Trypanosoma cruzi epimastigotes. Functional categorization of identified phosphoproteins of Trypanosoma cruzi epimastigotes.

Blast Analysis

Blast Analysis

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Blast Analysis

Blast Analysis

diphosphokinase activity, nucleotide

biosynthetic process

Blast Analysis

Blast Analysis

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Blast Analysis

Blast Analysis

NIL D> > ..+b>: NA) >...

