

# **A 2D-Difference Gel Electrophoresis Strategy For Redox Proteomics**

**Hong-Lin CHAN**

**DEPARTMENT OF BIOCHEMISTRY AND  
MOLECULAR BIOLOGY  
UNIVERSITY COLLEGE LONDON  
GOWER STREET, LONDON**

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## **ABSTRACT**

Post-genomic biomedical science requires quantitative proteomics. In most cases this involves differential protein expression analysis using matched pairs of simultaneously detectable labelling reagents for specific protein amino acids. In this thesis the development and optimisation of a novel cysteine labelling strategy, that is based on the use of iodoacetyl derivatives of Cy3 and Cy5 (ICy3/5) and 2D-difference gel electrophoresis (2D-DIGE) is described. The differentially labelled samples are separated on a single 2D gel and detected by multi-wavelength fluorescence scanning. The method is used to analyse standard proteins and then cell lysates to define the stoichiometry, sensitivity and specificity of this labelling technique. A comparative study of this new proteomic ICy dye protocol with the current NHS-Cy dye labelling system and methods that employ commonly used protein staining methods is described. The method is then used for cysteine labelling of proteins in non-reduced, denatured biological samples allowing accurate monitoring and sensitive detection of redox-dependent thiol modifications and expression level changes. The method is shown to be compatible with the use of MALDI mass spectrometry to identify proteins by analysis of trypsinised ICy labelled peptide digests. Using parallel sample analysis within single gels, the ICy-dye reagents were used to detect redox-, ErbB-2- and growth factor-dependent changes in a human mammary luminal epithelial cell system which was exposed to hydrogen peroxide or to growth factor stimulation. The conventional lysine labelling 2D-DIGE technique was also used in parallel to assess the new ICy labelling strategy for determination of the effects of oxidative stress on protein isoform levels. This study has revealed the identity of proteins involved in the response to oxidative stress and growth factor stimulation in the context of ErbB-2 growth factor receptor over-expression. In addition, this labelling strategy was also used to detect changes in thiol reactivity that follow the UV irradiation of plasma proteins as part of a study designed to evaluate the effect of UV disinfection on plasma product safety for clinical use.

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1. **Chan,H.L.**, Gharbi,S.; Gaffney,P.; Cramer,R.; Waterfield,M.D.; Timms,J.F. Proteomic analysis of redox- and ErbB2-dependent changes in mammary luminal epithelial cells using cysteine- and lysine-labelling 2D-DIGE. *Proteomics* (2005) Vol. 5 June 14 **in press**.
2. White,S.L.; Gharbi,S.; Bertani,M.F.; **Chan,H.L.**; Waterfield,M.D.; Timms,J.F. Cellular responses to ErbB-2 overexpression in human mammary luminal epithelial cells: comparison of mRNA and protein expression. *Br. J. Cancer* (2004) (90) Vol. 1, 173-181.
3. Application of cysteine labelling 2D-DIGE to analyse changes in plasma fractions following UV irradiation. **In preparation**.

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## ABBREVIATIONS

### Chemicals and reagents

CCB	colloidal coomassie blue
CHAPS	(3-[(3-cholamidopropyl)dimethylammonio]-1-propanesulfonate)
CHCA	$\alpha$ -cyano-4-hydroxycinnamic acid
Cy2	3-(4-carboxymethyl)phenylmethyl)-3'-ethyloxacarbocyanine halide <i>N</i> -hydroxy-succinimidyl ester
Cy3	1-(5-carboxypentyl)-1'-propylindocarbocyanine halide <i>N</i> -hydroxysuccinimidyl ester
Cy5	1-(5-carboxypentyl)-1'-methylindodicarbocyanine halide <i>N</i> -hydroxysuccinimidyl
ddH <sub>2</sub> O	double deionised water
DCF	dichlorofluorescein
DCFH	dichlorofluorescein
DHB	2, 5-dihydroxybenzoic acid
DMSO	dimethyl sulfoxide
DTNB	5, 5'-dithiobis (2-nitrobenzoic acid)
DTT	dithiothreitol
EDTA	ethylenediaminetetraacetic acid
FCS	foetal calf serum
H <sub>2</sub> O <sub>2</sub>	hydrogen peroxide
HEPES	N-[2-hydroxyethyl]piperazine-N'[2-ethanesulphonic acid]
IAM	iodoacetamide
ICy3	N-(6-iodoacetamidohexyl)-N'-propyl Cy3 iodide
ICy5	N-(6-iodoacetamidohexyl)-N'-methyl Cy5 iodide
NaCl	sodium chloride
NHS	N-hydroxy succinimidyl
NP-40	Nonidet P-40
PBS	phosphate-buffered saline
SDS	sodium dodecyl sulphate

TBS	tris buffered saline
TCEP	tris-carboxy ethyl phosphine
TFA	trifluoroacetic acid
TNB <sup>2-</sup>	2-nitro-5-thiobenzoate
Tris	tris-(hydroxymethyl)aminomethane

### **Software and instrumentation**

BVA	biological variation analysis
CCD	charge-coupled device
CID	collision-induced dissociation
DIA	difference in-gel analysis
ESI	electrospray ionisation mass spectrometry
MS	mass spectrometry
MS/MS	tandem mass spectrometry
MALDI	matrix assisted laser desorption/ionisation
PMF	peptide mass fingerprinting
PMT	photomultiplier tube
PSD	post source decay
TOF	time of flight

### **General**

1DE	one-dimensional gel electrophoresis
2DE	two-dimensional gel electrophoresis
Ab	antibody (mAb: monoclonal Ab; pAb: polyclonal Ab)
CDK	cyclin dependent kinase
DIGE	difference gel electrophoresis
DNA	deoxyribonucleic acid
ECL	enhanced chemiluminescence
FACS	fluorescence activated cell sorting
FRET	fluorescence resonance energy transfer
HMLEC	human mammary luminal epithelial cell

HRP	horseradish peroxidase
ICAT	isotope coded affinity tags
IEF	isoelectrofocusing
IP	immunoprecipitation
IPG	immobilised pH gradient
kDa	kilodalton
kVh	kilovolt hours
m/z	mass-to-charge ratio
MD-LC	multi-dimensional liquid chromatography
PAGE	polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis
PEM	protein expression map
ppm	parts per million
PVDF	polyvinylidene fluoride
RNA	ribonucleic acid
SD	standard deviation
Vhr	volt hours

#### **Protein, enzymes, growth factors and inhibitors**

APC	amyloid P component
AR	amphiregulin
ATM	ataxia telangiectasia mutated protein
BpVphen	potassium bisperoxo(1, 10-phenanthroline)oxovanadate
BSA	bovine serum albumin
BTC	betacellulin
CK	cytokeratin
$\alpha$ -Crys	bovine $\alpha$ -crystallin
EGF	epidermal growth factor
EGFR	epidermal growth factor receptor
EPR	epiregulin
ErbB-2	erythroblastosis B-2
ErbB-3	erythroblastosis B-3

ErbB-4	erythroblastosis B-4
G3PDH	glyceraldehyde 3-phosphate dehydrogenase
GAP	GTPase activating protein
GEP	GDP/GTP exchange protein
GLUT1	glucose transporter 1
GSSG	glutathione disulphide
GST	<i>S. japonicum</i> glutathione S-transferase
HB-EGF	heparin-binding EGF
HIF-1 $\alpha$	hypoxia-inducible transcription factor-1 $\alpha$
JAK	Janus kinase
LPS	lipopolysaccharide
LT	SV40 large T antigen
MAPK	mitogen activated protein kinase
MxA	interferon induced resistance protein
Myo	horse myoglobin
NADPH	5,10-methylenetetrahydrofolate reductase
NRG-1	neuregulin-1
NRG-2	neuregulin-2
NRG-3	neuregulin-3
NRG-4	neuregulin-4
Ova	chicken ovalbumin
Pak1	p21-activated kinase
PI3K	phosphatidylinositol 3-kinase
PTB	protein tyrosine binding domain
PTP	protein tyrosine phosphatase
PTK	protein tyrosine kinase
Prxn	peroxiredoxin
Ras	retrovirus-associated DNA sequence
Rb	retinoblastoma protein
RBP	retinol binding protein
RhoGDI	rho-GDP-dissociation inhibitor



RNS	reactive nitrogen species
ROS	reactive oxygen species
SAP	serum amyloid P component
SH2	src homology-2 domain
SH3	src homology-3 domain
STAT	signal transducers and activators of transcription
SV40	simian virus 40
TGF $\alpha$	transforming growth factor- $\alpha$
TPI	triosephosphate isomerase
VEGF	vascular endothelial growth factor

# Chapter 1 INTRODUCTION

## 1.1 Overview on proteomics

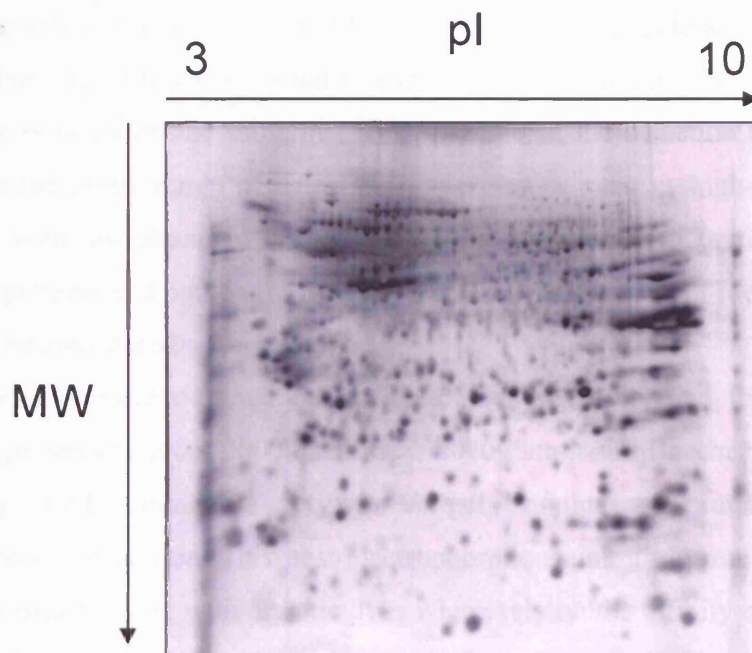
After the human genome was sequenced, the understanding of protein function has become the most important issue in the post-genomic era and proteomics is the field uses protein analysis tools to globally study the behaviours of gene products. Proteomics has benefited from the development of accurate high-throughput technologies allowing global protein analysis. Despite the fact that the main techniques used in proteomic analysis were developed in the early 1970s (Kenrick and Margolis, 1970), this new terminology, proteomics, was first mentioned in 1994 at a “2-D Electrophoresis” Symposium held in Siena, Italy. The study of the proteome represents the large-scale analysis of proteins expressed in a genome. Differential proteome analysis is the comparison of protein expression profiles between two or more samples on a large scale. It was mainly in the 1990s, with the emergence of high-sensitivity analytical chemistry for protein identification using mass spectrometry, that the field of proteomics really became useful for biological studies. Major improvements in mass spectrometry have replaced the former method of choice for protein identification by Edman degradation, an approach which although powerful, was time consuming and required larger amounts of sample. The field of proteomics has rapidly developed and the study of the proteome now includes methods that evaluate not only changes in protein expression between biological samples, but also the examination of protein-protein interactions, activity status, post-translational modifications and protein sub-cellular localization on a large scale.

### 1.1.1 Principles of two-dimensional gel electrophoresis

The most commonly used approach for the study of proteomics is a combination of two-dimensional gel electrophoresis (2DE) for protein separation with detection by staining or protein labelling and mass spectrometry for protein identification. Two-dimensional polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis (2D-PAGE) was first developed in the early 1970s (Kenrick *et al.*, 1970) and was optimised using denaturing isoelectrofocusing (Klose and

Spielmann, 1975;O'Farrell, 1975;Scheele, 1975). The technique was greatly improved with the development of immobilised pH gradient (IPG) gels, which gave increased protein resolution in the first dimension (Bjellqvist et al., 1982). Subsequently, pre-cast IPG strips were made commercially available, making 2D-PAGE a more reproducible technique which could be easily applied by many users. Moreover, with the application of highly sensitive mass spectrometry techniques, 2D-PAGE became even more widely used for proteomic analysis.

The main challenge of 2D-PAGE is to achieve high-resolution protein separation and detection in order to provide pure samples for mass spectrometric analysis and for high-sensitivity differential protein expression analysis. In principle, 2DE relies on the separation of proteins in the first dimension according to their charge and then in the second dimension according to their relative molecular weight (Figure 1-1). In the first dimension, denatured proteins are separated by isoelectrofocusing (IEF) in a pH gradient and focus when they acquire a zero net charge at their isoelectric point (pI). Proteins are then separated in the second dimension according to their mass by conventional SDS-PAGE. Full descriptions of current methodologies and optimised techniques have been reported (Rabilloud et al., 1994a;Gorg et al., 1999;Gorg et al., 2000a). In order to reduce the complexity in protein samples and the problem of multiple proteins migrating at the same coordinates, the use of narrow range IPG strips (Gorg *et al.*, 1999;Westbrook et al., 2001a) and large format gels (Klose, 1999) are utilised for improved separation of larger amounts of protein sample. In addition, improvements have been made in the solubilisation of proteins using detergents that are compatible with isoelectrofocusing and gel electrophoresis, thereby, providing a means to increase sample loading and improve the resolution of membrane proteins (Rabilloud *et al.*, 1994a;Rabilloud, 1998;Rabilloud et al., 1999;Herbert, 1999). Different sample application methods can also be performed to improve the entry of proteins into the first dimension. For example, cup-loading has made possible the analysis of up to 1 mg of proteins loaded on to an IPG-strip (Hanash et al., 1991).



**(Figure 1-1) Two-dimensional electrophoresis.** Protein samples (epithelial cell lysates) are separated by isoelectric focusing (IEF) electrophoresis according to the isoelectric point of the proteins and then separated by SDS-polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis according to their molecular weight.

Despite the benefits of 2DE for global protein expression analysis, the technique suffers from several drawbacks. Most notable is the poor resolution of basic proteins (Figure 1-1). These proteins represent a large fraction of the proteome and include membrane, nuclear proteins and other positively charged proteins that are poorly resolved due to the inadequate buffering by ampholytes at basic pHs and also because of a loss of reductive capacity and concentration (electro-endo-osmosis) resulting in spurious disulphide bond reformation and protein precipitation. This can be partially remedied by using stronger detergents, high pH range IPG strips, and additives such as isopropanol and DTT to improve protein solubility. Thus, for maximal resolution several different 2DE gels must be run to separate the acidic and basic fractions of the proteome, although this is often not a practical solution.

After electrophoretic separation, it is necessary to detect and quantitate proteins in order to select proteins of interest for identification. The challenge is to achieve the detection of the complete proteome and to visualise and accurately quantitate the low- as well as high-abundance proteins on the same gel. This means that the detection method used has to cover a broad linear range of detection. Other issues such as high-abundant spots co-migrating with low-abundant ones masking the detection of potentially regulated low-abundant proteins and compatibility of the stain with downstream identification methods must also be considered.

Several reviews have outlined the different methods of choice for detection of gel-separated proteins (Patton, 2000; Rabilloud, 2000; Patton and Beechem, 2002). The most commonly used approaches rely on in-gel staining of proteins subsequent to electrophoretic separation. This post-electrophoretic staining of proteins can be achieved by noncovalent staining with organic dyes which rely on the affinity between the dye and proteins. For instance, protein staining with a coomassie brilliant blue (CCB R-250) solution in methanol and acetic acid is commonly used. Although this method is rapid and provides a uniform staining of proteins across gels, it is relatively insensitive with a detection limit of 100-200 ng. In addition, the method requires the extensive destaining of gels, which can create variations in background staining from gel-to-gel. This method has been further improved with the use of colloidal coomassie blue G-250 (CCB G-250), a dimethylated form of CCB used in an acidic solution containing ammonium sulphate (Neuhoff et al., 1988). The limit of detection of colloidal CCB G-250 staining is around 10-20 ng. Another advantage of colloidal coomassie blue staining is that it does not require de-staining of the gels compared to conventional CCB staining, providing increased reproducibility in protein detection from gel-to-gel. Both CCB R-250 and colloidal CCB G-250 are commonly used for the analysis of abundant proteins or those that have been overexpressed for post-translational modification analysis, since these dyes are compatible with downstream mass spectrometric analysis as they can be easily removed (Scheler et al., 1998).

The most commonly used high sensitivity detection method relies on the precipitation of silver with proteins under acidic or alkaline conditions, a method that can show up to 50-fold higher sensitivity compared with conventional CCB R-250 staining. With such

approaches, gels are usually fixed and washed in order to remove excess SDS or salts which can react with silver and produce a high background. Numerous silver staining protocols have been described, although the most sensitive approach uses aldehyde-based fixatives which interfere with subsequent protein identification by mass spectrometry or Edman sequencing due to covalent cross-linking of proteins to the gel preventing efficient elution and due to heterogeneous protein modification by the aldehyde. Other silver staining methods have been developed to overcome these problems which do not use such harsh fixatives (Shevchenko et al., 1996; Yan et al., 2000). However, these methods provide less sensitivity in protein detection as only surface staining of gels is achieved. A major problem with these silver staining methods is that staining from gel-to-gel tends to be variable since it is not an end-point staining method. In addition, some proteins show a higher affinity for silver staining than others, making it a poor quantitative approach (Rabilloud et al., 1994b; Lopez et al., 2000). Thus, although silver staining is a sensitive method, it is not really suitable for accurate differential expression analysis by gel-to-gel comparison.

So-called reverse staining has also been applied for protein visualisation, using potassium chloride, zinc chloride or copper chloride. These methods rely on the precipitation of salts, which occurs faster in the gel areas with no proteins. Therefore this method stains the gel only, leaving proteins as transparent spots which can be viewed with appropriate back illumination. The most sensitive reverse staining uses zinc chloride-imidazole where 10 to 20 ng of protein has been detected (Ortiz et al., 1992; Castellanos-Serra et al., 1999). Although this method is rapid, the extent of reverse staining is not fixed and the reverse image tends to fade quickly. In addition, the linear range of detection is limited (Castellanos-Serra *et al.*, 1999) and so zinc chloride-imidazole staining is also unsuitable for quantitative proteomic analyses.

The most promising protein visualisation methods use fluorescent dyes which can be detected under a standard 300 nm UV light or using an imaging device equipped with the appropriate lasers and wavelength filters. The main advantage in the use of fluorescent stains is that fluorescence gives a very broad and linear dynamic range of detection. This greatly enhances protein quantitation of biological samples where protein abundance can range over seven or eight orders of magnitude. Hydrophobic dyes such as 1, 8-ANS (1-

anilinonaphthalene 8-sulfonate) and bis-ANS (bis (8-p-toluidino-1-naphthalenesulfonate)) have been used and display a sensitivity level similar to conventional CCB R-250 (Hartman and Udenfriend, 1969;Pina et al., 1985;Horowitz and Bowman, 1987). Nile red staining was more recently described as a hydrophobic probe interacting with SDS-protein complexes in the gel (Daban et al., 1991;Daban, 2001). Consequently, this method requires the use of low concentrations of SDS for the gel electrophoresis to avoid increased fluorescent background. The method shows good sensitivity and detection of as little as 10 ng of protein has been reported. However, the stain is relatively insoluble in water (Daban, 2001).

More recently, Molecular Probes developed a panel of fluorescent dyes, the SYPRO®dyes (Steinberg et al., 1996;Steinberg et al., 2000;Berggren et al., 2002). The SYPRO Orange, Red and Tangerine dyes also interact with SDS-protein complexes similarly to Nile red dye and the sensitivity reported was similar, although these dyes are more water-soluble. Two transition metal chelate stains have also been developed, SYPRO Ruby and SYPRO Rose stains. The most attractive for use in quantitative proteomics is SYPRO Ruby, a ruthenium-based metal chelate stain showing high sensitivity down to 1 ng of protein (Lopez *et al.*, 2000;Berggren *et al.*, 2002). The fluorophore reacts directly with proteins via lysine, arginine and histidine residues, enabling the sensitive and specific detection of all gel-separated proteins (Patton, 2000). Importantly, this method was shown to be compatible with downstream mass spectrometric analysis (Steinberg *et al.*, 2000;Gharbi et al., 2002). SYPRO Ruby staining is also rapid and is performed in a single step followed by minimal washing to remove excess dye, and is an end-point stain allowing consistent staining from gel-to-gel. Consequently, SYPRO Ruby staining represents a considerable improvement in the detection of gel-separated proteins for proteomic analysis, although gel-to-gel variation still remains an obstacle for both statistical and accurate differential analysis.

Amongst all the detection methods described, fluorescence labelling appears to be the best method due to its high sensitivity and wide linear dynamic range. Historically, the main method for visualisation of fluorescently labelled proteins required the use of UV trans-illumination and direct visual detection. However, many fluorophores are excited optimally outside the UV range and detection systems have been developed which use

specific lasers for excitation. A single laser source cannot provide the appropriate excitation over the entire wavelength range of different fluorophores and so some devices use a broadband visible light source in combination with narrow band filters enabling the selection of a specific wavelength adequate for each fluorophore of interest. Similarly, the detection device can be equipped with a selection of emission filters, allowing the detection of fluorescence emission for a range of different fluorophores. Several types of detectors can be used, such as a cooled charged-coupled device (CCD) or photomultiplier tube (PMT), as exemplified by the 2920 2D-MasterImager and Typhoon 9400, respectively. These devices, commercialised by GE Healthcare (U.K.), enable optimal excitation and detection of a broad range of fluorescent dyes and were used in the work presented in this thesis. The 2920 2D-MasterImager fluoroimager has a high intensity xenon arc lamp source equipped with filter wheels enabling the selection of narrow range wavelengths and is combined with a cooled CCD camera providing sensitive detection of fluorescent signals. Using this device, the gel is scanned directly between glass plates using edge illumination. The Typhoon 9400 relies on a multiple laser source and photomultiplier detection device providing improved fluorescent detection and high image resolution.

Protein detection can also be achieved by covalent labelling pre- or post-electrophoretic separation. Perhaps the most sensitive covalent labelling method used prior to electrophoresis is radioactive labelling which provides the widest linear dynamic range of detection. Radiolabelling is mainly accomplished by incorporation of radioactive metabolites during the growth of cells. For instance,  $^3\text{H}$ ,  $^{35}\text{S}$ ,  $^{32}\text{P}$  or  $^{33}\text{P}$  can be incorporated into proteins by addition of growth media containing isotopically labelled nutrients. Proteins can also be radiolabelled post-lysis for example by *in vitro* kinase assay or through the use of radiolabelled protein tags, such as alkylating agents. Radiolabelled proteins are then detected in-gel by exposure to film (autoradiography) or using a phosphorimager. The latter imaging method provides a wider dynamic range than autoradiography enabling better quantitative analysis. However, concerns remain as to the effects of addition of radioactive compounds to cells. Indeed, DNA damage can occur, as well as elevation of p53 levels leading to cell cycle arrest and apoptosis. Another important issue and drawback in the use of radioactive compounds is their



hazardous nature and their higher cost. Limitations in the use of radioactive compounds now represents a high priority for many laboratories and finding alternative methods is favoured.

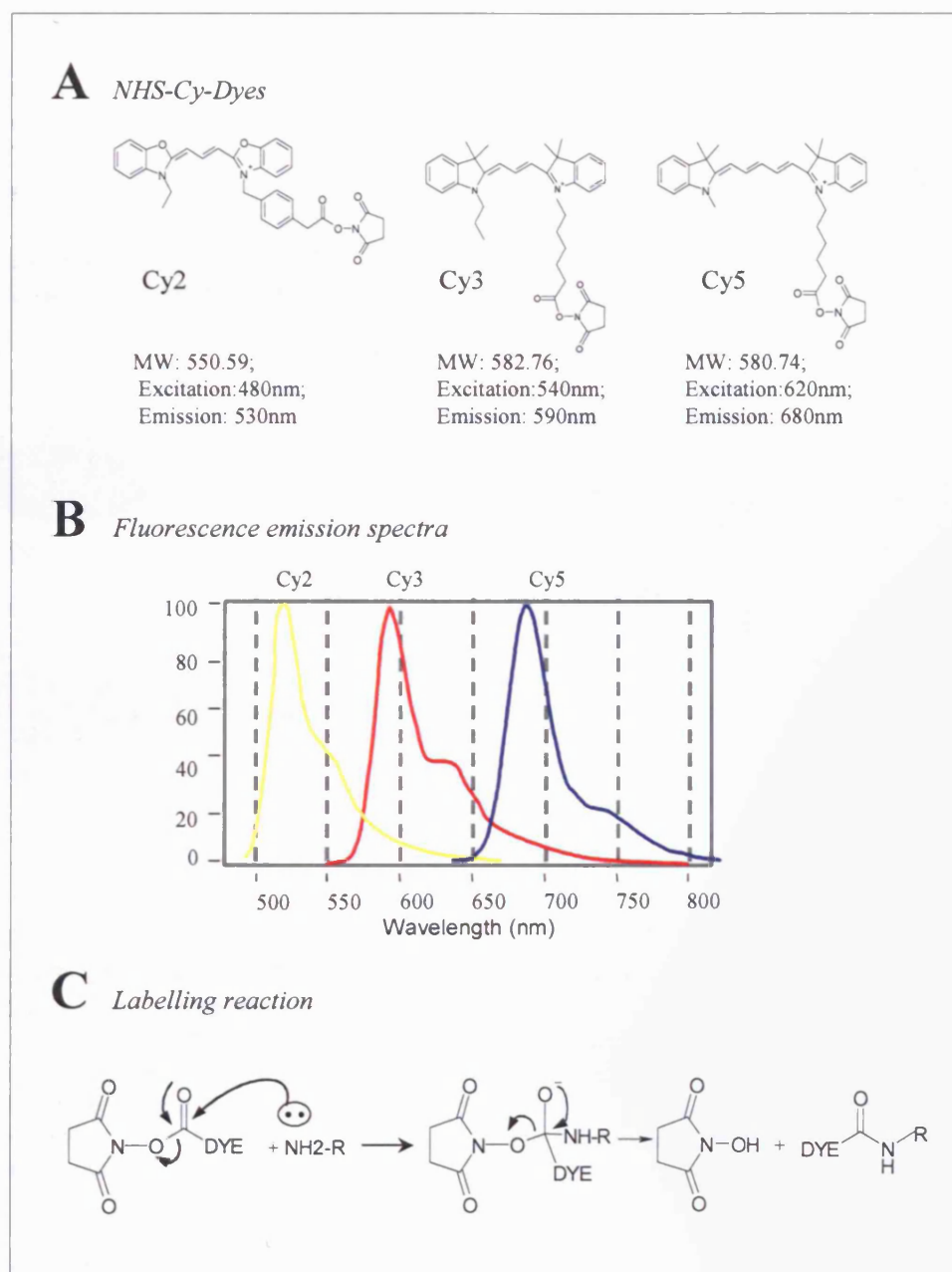
Fluorescent tags have also been used to covalently label proteins. Most covalent labelling has been performed on gel-separated proteins, and several fluorophores, such as fluorescamine, fluorescein isocyanate, N-(7-di-methylamino-4-methylcoumarinyl) maleimide and dansyl chloride, have been used for this purpose. Dyes such as 5-(4, 6-dichlorotriazin) amino fluorescein, monobromobimane, 2-methoxy-2, 4-diphenyl-3 (2H) furanone (MDPF) and dansyl chloride have also been used for covalent labelling prior to gel electrophoresis, although low sensitivity and poor resolution on 2DE gels was reported (as reviewed in (Patton, 2000; Rabilloud, 2000)). Indeed, the major problem faced was that most of the dyes possess a charge which affects the electrophoretic properties of proteins. In addition, covalent protein modification can also dramatically affect the ability to subsequently identify the proteins by mass spectrometry.

Unlu *et al.* recently described a new covalent lysine labelling approach for differential protein detection, known as difference gel electrophoresis (DIGE) (Unlu *et al.*, 1997b). A combination of two fluorescent cyanine protein tags, were used together enabling differential labelling of two samples prior to their electrophoretic separation on the same 2D gel. Cyanine dyes were first described by Mujumdar *et al.* (Mujumdar *et al.*, 1989; Mujumdar *et al.*, 1993). These fluorophores have a structure which can be modified to create a panel of reactive fluorescent tags. The dyes developed by Unlu *et al.* are N-hydroxy-succinimidyl (NHS)-ester derivatives of the fluorescent cyanines 3 and 5 (NHS-propyl-Cy3, NHS-methyl-Cy5) (Figure 1-2A). A third cyanine dye, NHS-Cy2 is now commercially available and all three dyes have distinct and non-overlapping excitation and emission spectra (Figure 1-2B) enabling their specific detection with a multi-wavelength fluorescent detection device. Using these dyes, proteins are covalently labelled on lysine  $\epsilon$ -amino groups ( $\epsilon$ -NH<sub>2</sub>-lys) by nucleophilic attack resulting in the loss of the NHS group (Figure 1-2C). The advantage of using lysine labelling is that almost all proteins contain at least one lysine residue and so most proteins can be labelled. The labelling reaction appears to be specific for  $\epsilon$ -NH<sub>2</sub>-lys lysine groups, although the NHS-ester could also react with the N-terminal  $\alpha$ -amino groups of proteins ( $\alpha$ -NH<sub>2</sub>-Nterm).

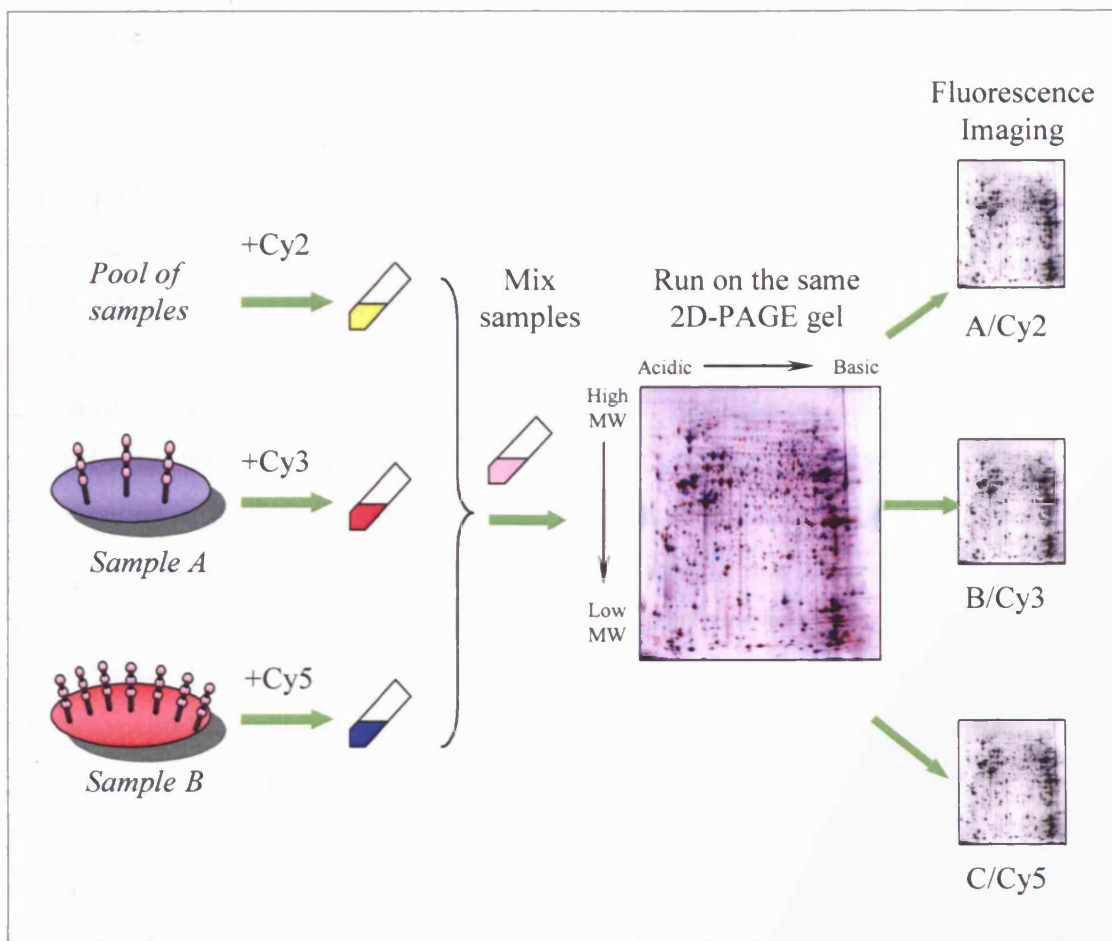
Conceptually, the dyes should be mass and charge matched and the dye modification should not perturb the electrophoretic mobility of labelled proteins. For this reason, the size of the aliphatic chain (Figure 1-2A) was originally modulated to maintain a similar molecular weight between each dye and the dyes possess a positive charge which matches the positively charged amino groups they modify. Low stoichiometry labelling conditions were established for covalent labelling without adversely affecting protein mobility, but keeping the sensitivity of detection high and linear over a wide dynamic range. This approach was then further optimised and commercialised by GE Healthcare and the method was originally evaluated and applied by Tonge et al. and Gharbi et al. (Tonge et al., 2001;Gharbi *et al.*, 2002). Tonge et al. used the NHS-cyanine dyes Cy2, Cy3 and Cy5 to label liver homogenates from pools of untreated and paracetamol-treated mice and separated these labelled liver proteins by 2DE. After normalisation of the individual fluorescent images, quantitative protein differences were determined between the samples from replicate gels. A number of the significantly changing features was identified by mass spectrometry and some of these identified proteins could be rationalised based on available information on the mechanism of paracetamol hepatotoxicity. Gharbi et al. also evaluated this technique using a model cell system to study the effects of ErbB-2 overexpression, an oncogenic receptor tyrosine kinase implicated in breast cancer progression. A Cy2-labelled pool of samples was used as a standard and run on all gels for comparison with the Cy3- and Cy5- labelled sample pairs for improved cross-gel quantitative analysis (Figure 1-3). Decyder software (GE HealthCare) was used to distinguish clear statistical differences in protein expression over time and between the cell lines. This internal standard method was also subsequently described by Alban et al. (Alban et al., 2003).

### **1.1.2 Problems and limitations of current two-dimensional gel based proteomics**

As mentioned previously, 2DE-based proteomic studies are somewhat limited since only a fraction of the proteome can be visualised (Corthals et al., 2000). One of the limitations is in protein separation due to the physico-chemical properties of proteins. Very basic or hydrophobic proteins, such as membrane proteins, are not well separated in the first



**(Figure 1-2) Characteristics of the NHS-Cy-dyes.** (A) Structure of the NHS-Cyanine dyes. Cy2, 3-(4-carboxymethyl)phenylmethyl)-3'-ethyloxacarbocyanine halide *N*-hydroxy-succinimidyl ester; Cy3, 1-(5-carboxypentyl)-1'-propylindocarbocyanine halide *N*-hydroxysuccinimidyl ester, Cy5; 1-(5-carboxypentyl)-1'-methylindodicarbocyanine halide *N*-hydroxysuccinimidyl. Each dye has a similar molecular weight and single positive charge matching the charge of the modified primary amino group. (B) Each dye displays a distinct emission spectra enabling the individual detection of differentially labelled proteins at the appropriate wavelength without overlap of signals. (C) The dyes have an *N*-hydroxysuccinimidyl ester reactive group triggering covalent interaction with the primary amine groups of lysine residues or the N-terminus.



**(Figure 1-3) The principle of NHS-CyDye Lysine-labelling 2D-difference gel electrophoresis (2D-DIGE).** Up to three samples can be covalently labelled with a distinct fluorescent cyanine dye (Cy2, Cy3 or Cy5) which are mixed prior to protein separation by 2DE. Proteins are visualised by fluorescence imaging using a multi-wavelength fluorescence detection device generating three single, but directly super-imposable images of the three samples analysed. In this scheme, Cy2 is used to label a pool of all samples and used as an internal standard on every gel to aid spot matching and provide more accuracy in quantitation.

dimension or are poorly transferred to the second dimension. It may also be difficult to detect low molecular weight proteins as they are more difficult to stain. It is estimated that of the tens of thousands of genes expressed in a human cell, only a small fraction can be routinely resolved and visualised on a 2DE gel. This subset of proteins represents the most highly abundant and soluble proteins. Moreover, each protein expressed may have different splice variants, proteolysis products or be post-translationally modified, therefore increasing the number of protein features which are resolved. Thus the number

of different gene products is much higher than the ~3 thousand protein products that are routinely detected by 2DE. The dynamic range of expression of proteins is also very high in biological samples, extending over seven or eight orders of magnitude, with a small proportion of the most abundant proteins making up a high percentage of the total mass, and potentially masking the low abundance proteins (Wilkins et al., 1996). According to theoretical studies, to analyse a protein expressed at 1000 copies/cell, it would be necessary to load 10 mg of total lysate, assuming that proteins can be visualised at the low nanogram level on a gel. Since high loading precludes high-resolution separation, the lower copy number proteins will be masked or not detected on an average 2DE gel stained with the most sensitive stain. Gygi *et al.* showed in previous work that the combination of 2DE and mass spectrometry only detected the most abundant proteins in the yeast *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* (Gygi et al., 2000). In a small genome such as the yeast genome, it is possible to estimate the level of expression of a protein according to its propensity to use only one of several codons to incorporate a specific amino acid into the polypeptide chain. This is known as codon bias. According to this estimation, proteins which are largely expressed appear to have a higher codon bias ( $>0.2$ ). The authors evaluated the protein abundance based on codon bias and showed that the majority of proteins visualised on a 2DE and identified by MALDI-TOF-MS, were proteins expressed at high copy number. This study inferred the need for the development of different techniques which could make possible the detection of low-abundance proteins, for instance using pre-gel enrichment techniques such as sub-cellular fractionation or using liquid-chromatography fractionation for enrichment. Thus, the most important issue in the use of 2D-DIGE, and other 2DE-based separation methods, remains the limitations in proteome coverage. Due to the wide dynamic range in protein expression of biological samples, proteomic analyses favour the characterisation of highly abundant proteins with masking of potentially important changes in low-abundant proteins. Therefore, highly abundant proteins such as heat shock proteins or cytokeratins are often cited as targets of differential protein expression, although these proteins may still represent important markers in biological processes and disease. Improvements in 2DE analysis have enabled increased sample loads, protein solubility and separation through the use of narrow-range pH strips (Gorg et al., 2000b; Westbrook et al., 2001b),

whilst sample pre-fractionation via liquid chromatography (Cooper et al., 2004), or the isolation of organelles and sub-proteomes can increase detection and sensitivity of a subset of proteins when combined with conventional gel-based methods (Bardel et al., 2002; Schirmer and Gerace, 2002). Protein separation and analysis have also been improved using non-gel based methods such as chromatographic separation coupled to mass spectrometric analysis. For instance, multi-dimensional protein identification technology (MudPIT) (Washburn et al., 2001), which can be coupled to differential isotope tagging methods such as SILAC (Ong et al., 2002; Blagoev et al., 2003) for quantitation have received a lot of attention lately and appear to be applicable for in vivo incorporation of specific amino acids into all mammalian proteins and capable of using as quantitative proteomic analysis of different cell culture systems.

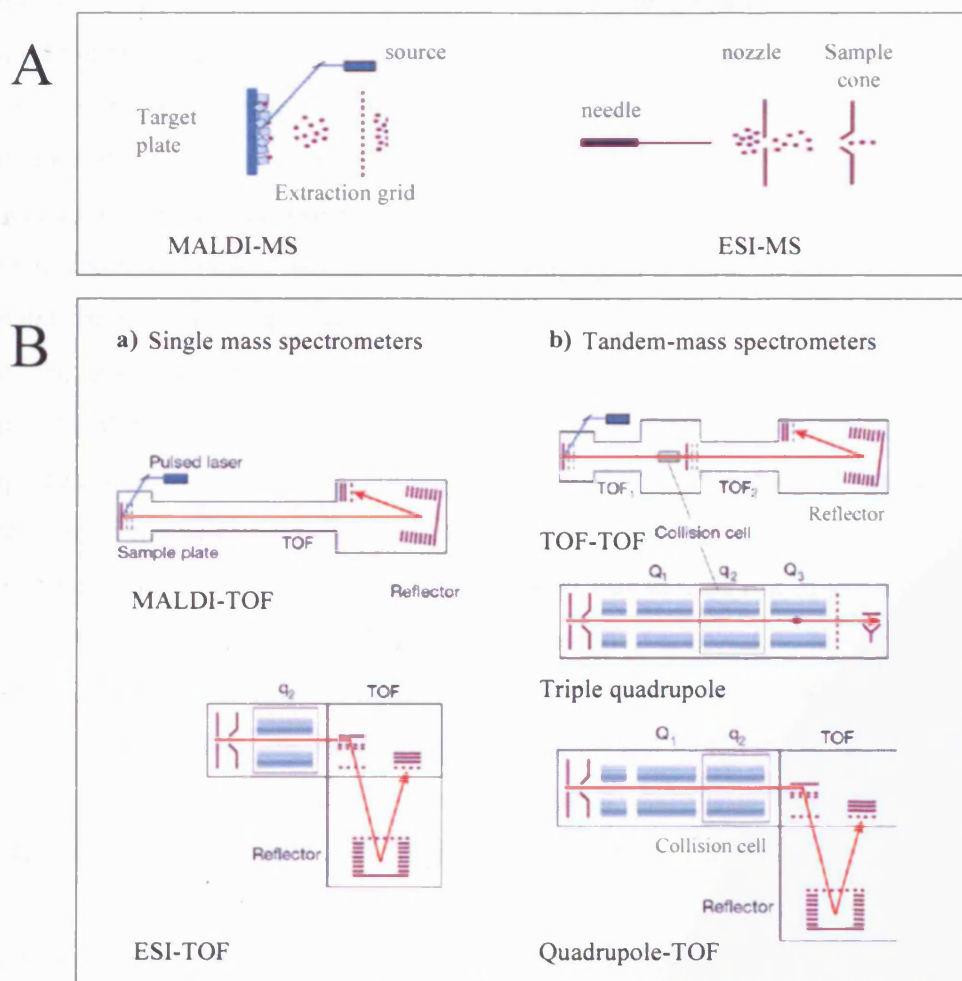
A further disadvantage of conventional 2DE-based analysis of differential protein expression is its variability and hence only semi-quantitative nature. Indeed, even minor variations in temperature, polymerization, current, or batch-to-batch variation in the IPG strips used can cause variations between and within multiple gel runs. Although various proteomic studies have shown successful results in the comparison of multiple samples and enabled the identification of various protein targets (Lewis et al., 2000; Benvenuti et al., 2002; Chen et al., 2002), these kind of studies are labour intensive as many replicate gels need to be run, and complex and time consuming image analysis is required for statistical validity. In addition, commonly used staining methods such as silver stain are non-end point methods and protein detection is somewhat variable from gel-to-gel, obligating the need for comparison of many replicate gels.

The ability to run different samples on the same gel such as in 2D-DIGE, so that proteins are subjected to the same physical microenvironments during gel electrophoresis is therefore a huge technical advance. Covalent labelling with the set of fluorescent Cy dye tags described by Unlu et al. (Unlu *et al.*, 1997b) and further developed and evaluated by Tonge et al. and Gharbi et al. (Tonge *et al.*, 2001; Gharbi *et al.*, 2002), therefore represents an attractive tool for improved reproducibility for the comparison of multiple samples. Moreover, fluorescence detection using this method offers a high sensitivity and broader linear dynamic range for improved quantitation of biological samples.

### 1.1.3 Mass spectrometry in proteomics

Mass spectrometry is an analytical tool allowing the determination of the mass of a molecule with high accuracy. Mass spectrometers are composed of an ion source where the sample is applied, a mass analyser which measures the mass-to-charge ratio ( $m/z$ ) of ionised particles and a detector. The two major types of approach used in the study of proteins and peptides are matrix-assisted laser-desorption/ionisation mass spectrometry (MALDI-TOF-MS) (Karas and Hillenkamp, 1988) and electrospray ionisation mass spectrometry (ESI-MS) (Whitehouse et al., 1985; Fenn et al., 1989) which rely on distinct methods of ionisation (Figure 1-4). MALDI-TOF-MS relies on ions generated from a solid phase using laser pulses. The sample is usually applied in a matrix solution that facilitates the ion formation by absorption of photon energy from a laser source (Figure 1-4A, left). The most commonly used matrices for protein/peptide analysis are 2, 5-dihydroxybenzoic acid (DHB) and  $\alpha$ -cyano-4-hydroxycinnamic acid (CHCA). ESI-MS generates ions from a liquid phase. The sample, in a solvent mixture is directly sprayed into the mass spectrometer where an electrostatic field is formed between the capillary and the walls of the mass spectrometer. As the droplets form and travel, they evaporate and the resulting charged particles enter into the gas phase (Figure 1-4A, right). Both ionisation methods can be performed either in the positive or negative ion mode, although typically for peptide mass analysis, ionisation scans are performed in the positive ion mode. Each ion is separated in the mass spectrometer according to its  $m/z$  ratio and several mass analysers have been developed for improved ion separation, resolution and mass accuracy. For protein/peptide sample analysis, these include single time-of-flight (TOF) methods (Figure 1-4B, left) and tandem-mass spectrometers such as TOF-TOF, triple quadrupole, or quadrupole-TOF (Figure 1-4B, right).





(Figure 1-4) Principles of mass spectrometry and instrumentation (adapted from(Aebersold *et al.*, 2003)). (A) Two main ionisation methods can be applied for protein identification and characterisation. These are matrix assisted laser desorption/ionisation mass spectrometry (MALDI-TOF-MS) and electrospray ionisation mass spectrometry (ESI-MS). (B) Several mass analysers have been developed and they can be combined for improved mass resolution and sensitivity.

Protein identification by mass spectrometry can be carried out by peptide mass mapping using MALDI-TOF MS or by further peptide fragmentation to generate sequence data using tandem mass spectrometry (MS/MS). Peptide mass mapping, also called peptide mass fingerprinting (PMF), has been the common method of choice for proteomic analysis (Henzel *et al.*, 1993;James *et al.*, 1993;Mann *et al.*, 1993;Yates, III *et al.*, 1993). A protein of interest usually separated by methods such as 2DE is first picked from gels and then proteolysed using a specific protease to generate a peptide mixture.

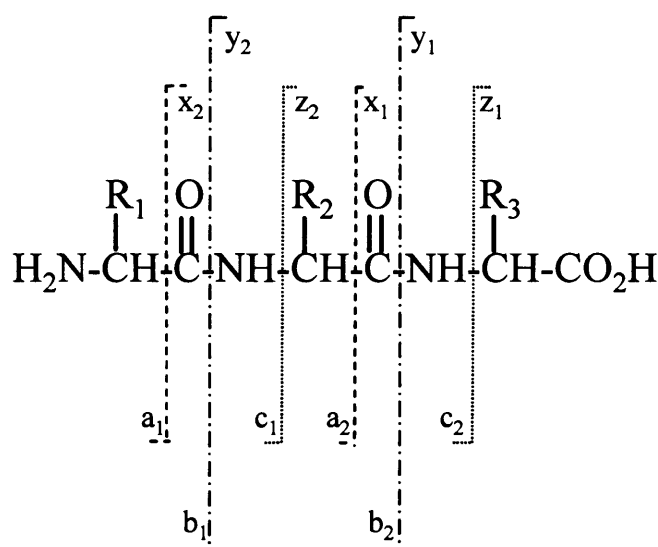


Subsequently, the masses of the peptides in the mixture are accurately measured in a mass spectrometer. The list of peptide masses is then matched against theoretical masses for all known proteins using a database search. Several databases can be used which contain theoretical protein cleavages according to the enzyme of choice and possible post-translational modifications and known chemical modifications. A list of potential matches is given and ranked according to a scoring system depending on the probability of a match being real. Confidence in the identification then depends on the species studied, the mass and *pI* of the protein observed on a gel, the number of peptides matching the theoretical masses, the mass accuracy of detection, the protein sequence coverage reached, the number of missed cleavages during the proteolysis process and also the type of modifications observed, which reflects the process of sample handling. Protein identification by peptide mass fingerprinting was carried out in this study and its application is further described in Chapters 2, 4, 5 and 6.

The MALDI-TOF-MS ionisation method generates predominantly singly charged ions  $[M+H]^+$  and mass spectra are therefore easier to interpret in terms of the peptide mass profile. The other method of choice for protein/peptide analysis is peptide fragmentation by tandem mass spectrometry (MS/MS). In addition to accurate information on the sequence of a peptide and thus the identification of a protein, tandem mass spectrometry is also an important tool for the analysis of post-translational modifications, such as glycosylation, phosphorylation or acetylation. In tandem mass spectrometry, selected parent peptide ions are selected and fragmented in the mass spectrometer to generate daughter ions with the loss of amino acids (Biemann and Scoble, 1987; Hunt et al., 1987; Wilm et al., 1996). Two main approaches have been used for this fragmentation, post source decay (PSD) in a MALDI-TOF-MS instrument, and collision-induced dissociation (CID) in an ESI-MS/MS instrument. The common principle of these methods is that peptide ions will fragment along the peptide backbone of the molecule at high energy, inducing the formation of a series of smaller daughter ions. According to the bond fragmented, the ions are given an annotation as shown in Figure 1-5. Generally, the ions most likely to be generated are the “b” and “y” ion series, which represent fragmentations at the amino bond from the N- and C- terminus, respectively (Figure 1-5). In MS/MS, peptide mixtures are first analysed in the mass analyser and selected parent

ions of interest are focused and fragmented in a collision cell, where the necessary energy is provided through collision with inert gas molecules. The resulting daughter ions are subsequently analysed in a second mass analyser with the sequence of “b” and “y” ions resulting from the loss of a single amino acid per peptide backbone allowing partial sequence to be deduced by comparison of masses in the series. Again, the list of fragments is matched against a database of theoretical fragmentation patterns, although manual interpretation of data is often needed for improved confidence in the analysis.

Tremendous progress has been made in recent years in the development of optimised instrumentation for increased mass accuracy, sensitivity, yield of detection and automation. The size of instruments has also decreased and several mass analysers have been combined, providing elaborate and compact analytical instruments for high sensitivity and high-resolution biological mass spectrometry. In addition, high-throughput automation is constantly pushing the detection and identification limits further, allowing a promising future for global proteomic analyses.



(Figure 1-5) Representation of the fragment ions generated from a peptide by MS/MS (from (Biemann, 1990)). A series of daughter ions is generated upon fragmentation at high collision energy. According to the ionisation method applied, the fragment ion pattern will vary. Commonly, in a collision-induced dissociation, the bond most likely to fragment will be the amino bond, therefore generating mainly b and y ions. On the other hand, in post-source decay (PSD), other ions are observed such as a and x ions.

## **1.2 Cell signalling and cancer**

In multi-cellular organisms, cells have to communicate with each other in order to control their proliferation, differentiation, survival and to perform diverse physiological functions. Cells release and receive signals to induce these different states of growth either by direct cell-to-cell interaction or via secreted molecules. This communication is elicited through so-called signalling molecules such as transmembrane receptors that are embedded in the cell membrane and which can activate intracellular signal transduction cascades which ultimately lead to gene activation or repression and a cellular response. According to the specificity, strength and duration of the signal received, the cell will proliferate, differentiate, change shape, migrate, enter into growth arrest or undergo apoptosis. Signalling pathways are of great complexity and although major routes have been elucidated, the spatio-temporal organisation and components of intracellular machinery are still poorly understood (reviewed in (Hunter, 2000)). Although a large number of proteins are involved in specific signalling event, this can be simplified somewhat by their classification according to their protein structure or functional domain content. Indeed, the major events dominating signal transduction involve cascades of protein-protein or protein-lipid interactions that occur through specific domains, although these interactions can be regulated by post-translational modifications such as phosphorylation. Many protein interaction domains have been classified such as the SH2, PTB, SH3, LIM and PDZ domains, and have been shown to play a central role in many diverse signalling pathways (Pawson, 1995).

These complex signalling networks are highly regulated and alterations of the normal intracellular signals can lead to the development of diseases such as cancer. It is now known that a series of genetic mutations is required for the progressive conversion of normal human cells into cancerous cells. Hanahan and Weinberg have proposed a model of tumourigenesis, whereby several physiological conditions are required by cells before they become tumourigenic (Hanahan and Weinberg, 2000). These are self-sufficiency in growth signals, insensitivity to growth-inhibitory signals, evasion of programmed cell death (apoptosis), limitless replicative potential, sustained angiogenesis, and tissue invasion and metastasis. In proliferative signalling pathways for example, numerous

proto-oncogenes or tumour suppressors have been identified, the mutation of which cause amplification of signalling or loss of negative regulation resulting in over-proliferation and eventual tumour formation. Unlike normal cells, which tightly regulate extracellular ligand levels, receptor expression and secondary signalling molecules, cancer cells often lose the ability to regulate these signalling events. For example, overexpression of RTKs (Libermann et al., 1985), mutation of Ras (Marshall, 1996) or the overexpression of PI3K (phosphatidylinositol 3-kinase) (Sulis and Parsons, 2003) are thought to lead to cell transformation.

RTKs (receptor tyrosine kinases) are able to bind extracellular mitogenic growth factors and transduce these growth signals to intracellular second messengers to directly regulate specific gene expression. Many different RTKs can activate common pathways such as the Ras/Raf/MAPK (mitogen activated protein kinase) signalling pathway, the PI3K/Akt signalling pathway and the Jak/STAT (Janus kinase/ signal transducers and activators of transcription) signalling pathways that lead to increased E2F and Myc mediated transcription and subsequent proliferation (Bell and Ryan, 2005).

In contrast to the highly complex signalling molecular network, most mitogenic signals converge on a small number of nuclear proteins that regulate cell-cycle progression and gene expression. One of these proteins is the retinoblastoma protein (pRb), which inhibits cell cycle progression in resting cells, but following mitogen stimulation is phosphorylated by cyclin/CDK (cyclin dependent kinase) complexes, releasing its inhibition of the E2F family of transcription factors to induce the expression of genes involved in traversing the G1 to S phase transition of the cell cycle (Sherr and McCormick, 2002; Bell and Ryan, 2004). Many intracellular factors can regulate the function of pRb which is inactivated in the vast majority of human cancers (Sherr *et al.*, 2002). In addition, viral oncoproteins such as the E7 protein of human papilloma virus (Dyson et al., 1989) or SV40 large T antigen (Jha et al., 1998) can inhibit pRb function and lead to cellular immortalisation and tumour formation.

Another well characterised tumour suppressor is p53, the most frequently mutated and inactivated gene in human cancer (Ryan et al., 2001). p53 exists at low levels in normal cells, but when stabilised and activated by various forms of cellular stress or DNA damage, it can activate genes such as p21, inducing cell cycle arrest and

Bax/PUMA/NOXA to induce apoptosis. In addition, Mdm2, a negative regulator of p53, mediates the degradation of p53 via ubiquitination (Kubbutat et al., 1997) and the E6 protein of human papilloma virus also binds to and induces ubiquitin-mediated proteolysis of p53 (Scheffner et al., 1990). Thus, inactivation of p53 is a major determinant of cellular transformation.

Tumour cells also need to overcome a hypoxic environment in order to survive and hypoxia-inducible factor 1 $\alpha$  (HIF-1 $\alpha$ ) is a major factor that activates a wide variety of genes responsible for angiogenesis and glucose metabolism (Bardos and Ashcroft, 2004). HIF-1 $\alpha$  has been observed to be upregulated in many human cancers including breast cancer and is closely correlated with patient mortality (Harris, 2002). Indeed, many signalling defects associated with cancer have been shown to increase HIF-1 $\alpha$  activity, including aberrant signalling by ErbB-2 overexpression (Laughner et al., 2001), PI3K & MAPK (Fukuda et al., 2002), Src (Jiang et al., 1997) and loss of p53 function (Ravi et al., 2000).

Although several markers of cancer progression are already well characterised, there is still a need to better understand the function of these molecules and their relationship with other cellular components. Indeed, attempting to target one signalling molecule of a pathway needs to be done with caution as such an approach often neglects other signalling processes which may be affected. Therefore, in order to better understand the molecular mechanisms associated with tumourigenesis, it is necessary to identify all affected components and to characterise the changes in as much detail as possible. This is one of the aims of proteomics and other global screening methods.

### **1.2.1 The ErbB receptor tyrosine kinase family**

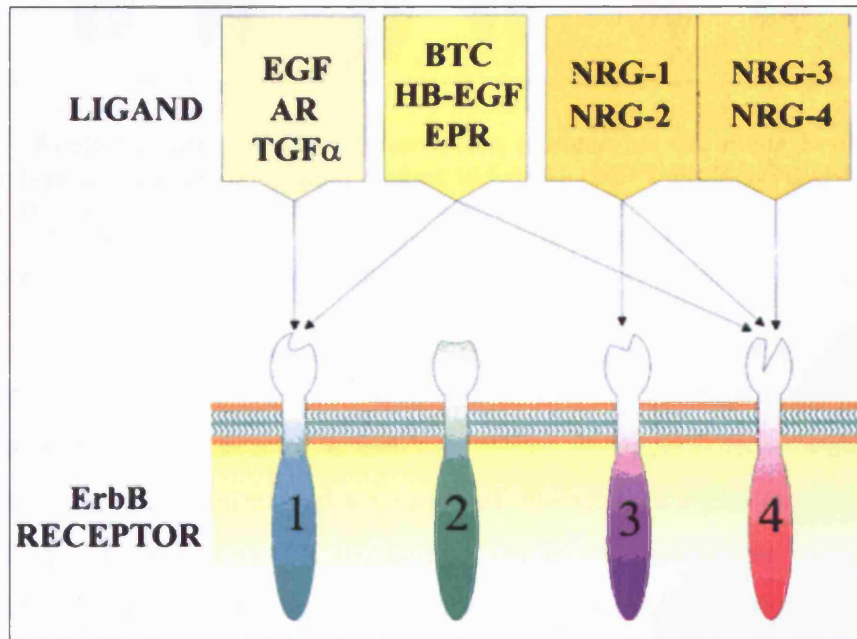
As previously mentioned, one of the major mechanisms used to mediate transmembrane signalling is the ligand induced tyrosine phosphorylation of receptors that generate intracellular binding motifs for interaction with downstream signalling molecules. A large family of receptor tyrosine kinases (RTK) have been identified and characterised (Schlessinger, 2000). These receptors can be classified into 14 different sub-groups according to their structural organisation. They generally share a single transmembrane hydrophobic domain that connects an extracellular ligand binding domain and an

intracellular kinase domain. Signal transfer requires the binding of specific ligands to the extracellular domain, which induces preferential dimerisation of receptor molecules and activation of the tyrosine kinase activity. This results in auto-phosphorylation and cross-phosphorylation of specific tyrosine residues in the cytoplasmic domains and tyrosine phosphorylation of specific signalling molecules that induce a complex series of downstream signalling events, ultimately resulting in the regulation of diverse cellular processes such as proliferation, differentiation and cell motility through regulated gene expression, protein turnover, localisation and changes in enzyme activity status. RTKs also play an important role in development as shown by gene knock-out studies (Lee et al., 1995; Chan et al., 2002) and are known to play a role in the progression of major diseases particularly cancers (Schlessinger, 2000; Zwick et al., 2002).

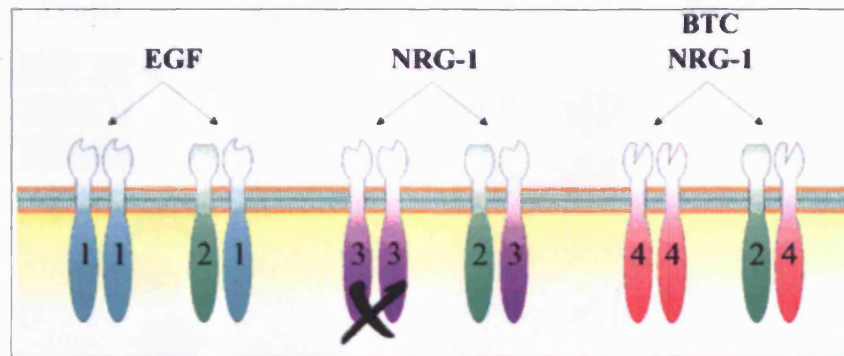
One of the best-studied sub-families of RTKs is the epidermal growth factor receptor (EGFR) family. The ErbB receptor tyrosine kinase family is composed of four members: ErbB1/HER1 (EGF receptor), ErbB-2/HER2, ErbB3/HER3 and ErbB4/HER4. Each of these receptors can bind a specific subset of ligands (Peles and Yarden, 1993; Riese and Stern, 1998; Olayioye et al., 2000b; Yarden *et al.*, 2001). These ligands are the epidermal growth factor (EGF)-related peptides, which fall into three main groups according to receptor specificity: EGF, amphiregulin (AR) and transforming growth factor- $\alpha$ , which specifically bind to EGFR (ErbB-1); betacellulin, epiregulin and heparin binding EGF-like growth factor which bind to both the EGFR and ErbB-4 receptors, and the Neu differentiation factors or heregulins (Hrg) which are specific ligands for the ErbB-3 and ErbB-4 receptors. The ErbB-2 receptor has no known ligands (Figure 1-6).

Each receptor of the EGFR family has the ability to be activated by homodimerisation upon ligand binding, but heterodimers with other members of the ErbB family appear to be preferred. Several studies have shown that the way in which the receptors dimerise within a particular cell type, determines the specificity of downstream signalling events (Riese *et al.*, 1998). Importantly, although the ErbB-2 receptor does not itself have a specific ligand, it is the preferred heterodimerisation partner for the other ErbB family members (Tzahar et al., 1996; Graus-Porta et al., 1997). It has also been reported to form homodimers in ErbB-2 overexpressing cell systems, and could therefore lead to constitutive, ligand-independent signalling (Lindberg et al., 2002). In addition, ErbB-2

heterodimerisation with ErbB-3 is required for signalling, since ErbB-3 receptors lack intrinsic tyrosine kinase activity (Guy et al., 1994; Kim et al., 1998) (Figure 1-7). Thus, the specificity of signalling in a particular cell type is determined by a combination of factors: the presence of a specific ligand, the availability of co-receptors for dimerisation and the surface expression level of the dimerisation partners.



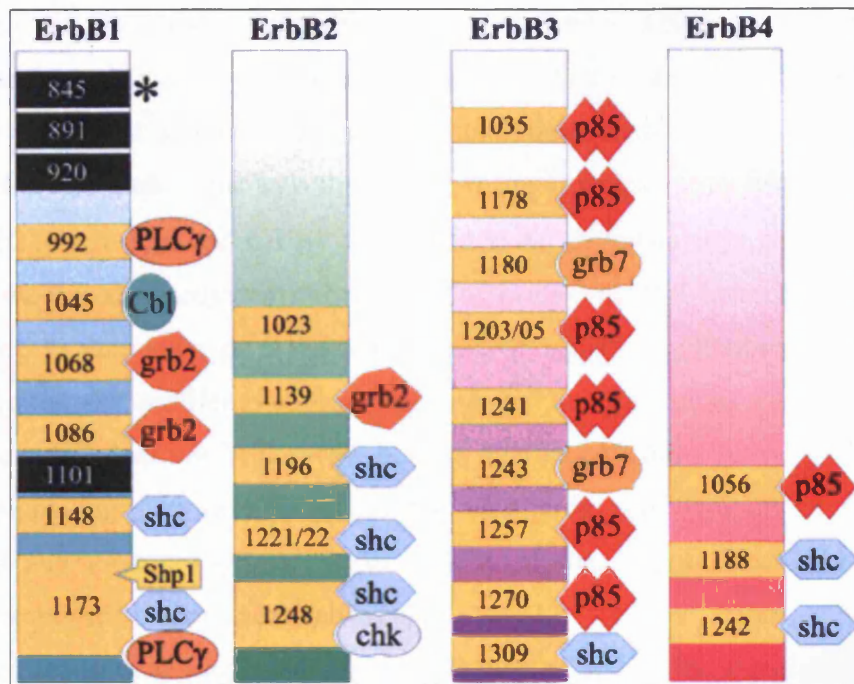
(Figure 1-6) Binding specificities of the EGF-related peptide growth factors (from (Olayioye *et al.*, 2000a)). There are four types of ligands that bind ErbB family receptors. EGF, amphiregulin (AR) and transforming growth factor- $\alpha$  (TGF- $\alpha$ ) bind ErbB1; betacellulin (BTC), heparin-binding EGF (HB-EGF) and epiregulin (EPR) bind ErbB1 and ErbB4; neuregulin-1 (NRG-1) and neuregulin-2 (NRG-2) bind ErbB3 and ErbB4; and neuregulin-3 (NRG-3) and neuregulin-4 (NRG-4) bind ErbB4.



(Figure 1-7) ErbB-2 is the preferred dimerization partner for the other ErbB receptors (from (Olayioye *et al.*, 2000a)). Ligand binding to ErbB-1 (EGF), ErbB-3 (NRG-1) or ErbB-4 (NRG-1, BTC) induces the formation of receptor homodimers and ErbB-2-containing heterodimers. ErbB-3 homodimers do not signal (indicated by the X), since the receptor has impaired kinase activity. Only some of the possible ligand–receptor-induced combinations are indicated.

Each receptor possesses a number of shared and distinct phosphorylation sites which are phosphorylated following receptor activation. These phosphorylated tyrosine residues are essential for the recruitment and activation of downstream signal molecules such as those involved in PI3K and MAPK signalling. The consensus tyrosine phosphorylation sites of each ErbB family members has been determined and the substrates which are recruited to these specific sites identified (reviewed by (Weiss and Schlessinger, 1998; Olayioye *et al.*, 2000b; Yarden *et al.*, 2001) (Figure 1-8). Three main classes of substrates are recruited by activated ErbB receptors (Figure 1-8): adaptor proteins, including Shc, Grb2, Grb7 and Gab1; kinases, such as phosphatidylinositol 3-kinase (PI3K) through its p85 subunit, Src and Chk and tyrosine phosphatases, such as Shp1 and Shp2. All ErbB receptors possess at least one docking site for the recruitment of Shc, which binds via its protein tyrosine binding (PTB) domain or its src homology-2 (SH2) domain and which is additionally able to recruit the adaptor Grb2 (Shoelson, 1997). However, other effector proteins are more specific, and for instance EGFR is the only ErbB member able to recruit the E3 ubiquitin ligase c-Cbl or Shp1. In addition, ErbB-3 possesses six known phosphorylation sites able to recruit the regulatory subunit of PI3K, p85, via its SH2 domains and is therefore thought to be the most potent activator of downstream PI3K signalling (Cantley *et al.*, 1991; Songyang *et al.*, 1993).



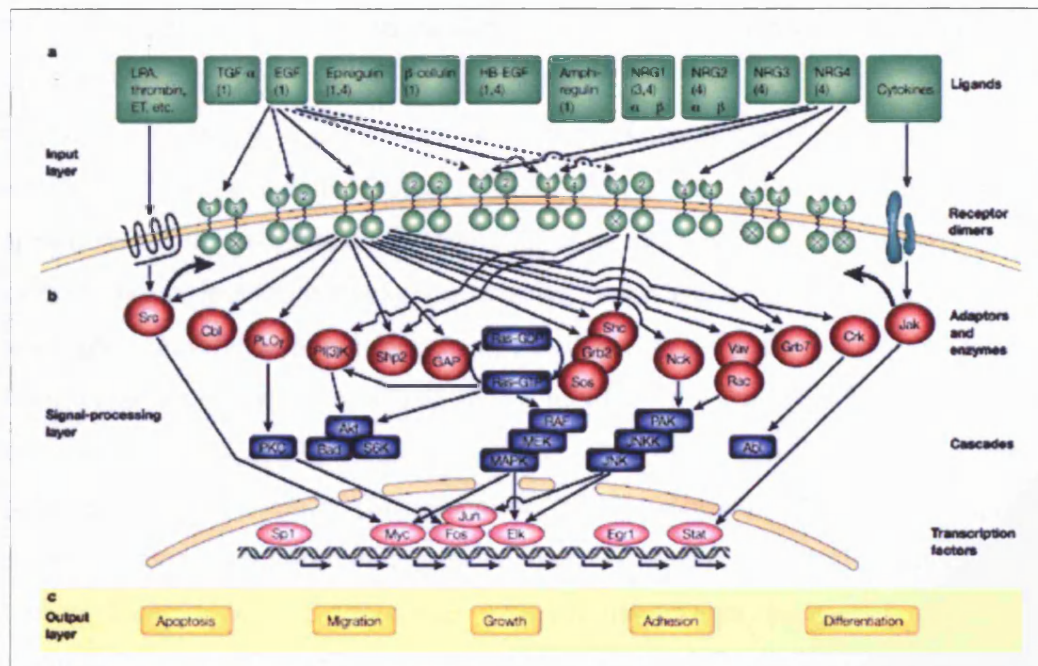


(Figure 1-8) Summary of known ErbB family consensus phosphotyrosine residues and reported recruitment of signalling molecules (from (Olayioye *et al.*, 2000a)). Autophosphorylation sites are shown in yellow and Src kinase phosphorylation sites are shown in black.

This diversity in recruitment, together with preferential heterodimerisation reveals the complexity of the signalling that can be generated through the activation of this family of receptor tyrosine kinases. As shown in Figure 1-9, many of the recruited molecules are also receptor substrates and/or substrates for recruited kinases such as Src. The recruitment and activation of effector proteins is an important step in the initiation of various downstream signalling cascades. For example, two of these signal cascades include the mitogen-activated protein kinase (MAPK) and the PI3K pathways (Neve *et al.*, 2002). Both of them display distinct activation profiles in response to growth factor treatment (such as HRG or EGF), with obvious differences in both the intensity and duration of signal output. Through inhibition of each of these pathways it is apparent that each pathway is necessary, yet insufficient alone, to stimulate proliferation. Each pathway regulates distinct subsets of essential cell cycle regulators and integration of these signal networks is required for the timely expression of these components, which culminates in cell cycle progression. The MAPK pathway is activated downstream of the

ErbB family members via the recruitment of Shc, Grb2 and SOS (an exchange factor required for the activation of the small GTPase Ras). In turn, activated Ras at the plasma membrane can recruit and activate a kinase signalling cascade consisting of Raf, MEK, ERK and Rsk that leads to the activation of downstream transcription factors such as AP-1, Elk-1/p62TCF, c-Myc and C/EBP $\beta$  (Johnson et al., 1996; Olayioye et al., 2001). The PI3K pathway is also activated downstream of ErbB-3/ErbB-2 heterodimer formation thus leading to activation of Akt/PKB dependent signalling (Vanhaesebroeck et al., 1997), required for proliferation, survival and cellular migration. Furthermore, each signalling cascade does not work alone, but can interact with other pathways (such as the cytokine signalling pathway) to affect the amplitude and duration of the signals transmitted and therefore determine the quality of the output signal and hence the biological response of a particular cell type.

Importantly, ErbB signalling is rapidly down-regulated and so the signals they generate are transient. This has been shown to involve the recruitment of protein phosphatases such as PTP-1B resulting in receptor dephosphorylation and so inhibition or knock-out of PTP-1B leads to the sustained activation of RTKs such as EGFR and PDGFR (Ostman and Bohmer, 2001; Haj et al., 2003). In addition, receptor down-regulation occurs by rapid endocytosis via clathrin coated-pits and subsequent intracellular degradation (Sorkin and Waters, 1993; Sorkina et al., 2002). This process appears to be tightly controlled and varies for each ErbB receptor. For example, EGFR is rapidly endocytosed and degraded via the ubiquitin-proteasome pathway, due to its ability to recruit c-Cbl, a ubiquitin E3 ligase (Levkowitz et al., 1998; Levkowitz et al., 1999), whilst ErbB-2 appears to have impaired ligand-mediated endocytosis (Sorkin *et al.*, 1993; Baulida et al., 1996; Levkowitz *et al.*, 1999).



(Figure 1-9) The ErbB signalling network (from (Yarden *et al.*, 2001)). This figure summarises the complexity of the ErbB signalling network. It can be described as several layers of activation. From an array of specific ligands, ErbB receptors are activated in combinations of dimers subsequently leading to the recruitment of various specific and overlapping effector proteins. Kinase activation enables further cascade activation of signalling molecules. Amongst those, the best studied pathways activated downstream of the ErbB family members are the mitogen-activated protein kinase (MAPK) pathway via the recruitment of Shc, Grb2 and Sos and the phosphatidylinositol 3-kinase (PI3K) pathway leading to the activation of Akt and S6Kinase. The next layer of this cascade activation results in the activation of specific transcription factors such as Myc, activated protein-1 (AP-1) (consisting of Jun, Fos), and Elk leading to gene expression and ultimately the alteration of cellular phenotype.

### 1.2.2 Role of ErbB receptor expression in cancer

EGFR was the first ErbB receptor to be cloned (Ullrich *et al.*, 1984), has been found to be overexpressed in several different types of human cancer such as non-small cell lung carcinoma, bladder, cervical and ovarian cancers and in squamous cell carcinomas of the head and neck (Nicholson *et al.*, 2001). Increased EGFR signalling due to overexpression is thought to play a critical role in tumourigenesis. Several tyrosine kinase inhibitors have been developed in order to specifically target this receptor for prospective therapies, such as the compound ZD1839 (Iressa) (Ciardiello, 2000), or the monoclonal antibody directed against EGFR, cetuximab (C225) (Baselga, 2001). These

EGFR targeted therapies were both designed for preventing the activation of the receptor (Overholser et al., 2000).

ErbB-2 is known to be a potent activator of downstream signalling in response to a variety of EGF family ligands (Wang and Hung, 2001). Moreover, ErbB-2 also plays an important role in the progression of some human cancers. Specifically, ErbB-2 has been reported to be an important marker in invasive breast cancer (Bange et al., 2001) and through gene amplification and its protein overexpression has been observed in 10% to 30% of invasive breast cancers and in 40 to 60% of intraductal breast carcinomas (Slamon et al., 1987). ErbB-2 overexpression is also correlated with the reduced survival of patients with breast cancer (Slamon *et al.*, 1987). Thus, ErbB-2 protein expression level can therefore be a useful diagnostic marker. For this reason, breast cancer research has been focused on the molecular and cellular events associated with ErbB-2 overexpression and in determining its role in cancer progression.

### **1.2.3 Cellular model of ErbB-2 dependent breast cancer**

In the study for new-targeted therapies against cancers, the use of cancer cell models can be advantageous as it enables the accurate and reproducible study of the various properties of human cancer mechanisms. Despite clinical cancer biopsies obtained from patients more accurately reflecting the real state of the illness, these samples are usually very heterogeneous, difficult to purify and often cannot be obtained in sufficient quantities for study. The prerequisite for a good cancer cell model is that it should mimic to the best extent the biological behaviour of an *in situ* cancer. However, this criterion is not always evident as model cancer cell systems are prone to genetic instability during culture, and lack the appropriate cellular or tissue environment. For a single disease, multiple models can be used, however, there is no perfect model and the most appropriate way to choose the model for study is carefully matching it to the experimental question that is being asked.

Many breast cancer cell lines such as SKBr3 BT474 and the SUM cell lines have been derived from pleural effusions of patients with metastatic disease, therefore they represent more the final stages of the tumour and thus little is known about the earlier stages of tumour formation. In contrast, cell lines can be derived from the modification

of normal cells allowing the study of early events in cancer development. It is now well understood that for a normal cell to be transformed into a cancerous cell, several genetic events need to occur (Hanahan *et al.*, 2000). Thus, to efficiently convert normal primary cells into tumourigenic cells, the alteration of several oncogenes or tumour suppressors needs to be carried out (Land *et al.*, 1983). For example, the expression of the simian virus 40 (SV40) large T antigen (LT) can be used to immortalised primary human epithelial or fibroblast cells, which can then be transformed in conjunction with ectopic activation of the telomerase catalytic subunit (*hTERT*) and an oncogenic allele of *H-ras* (Hahn *et al.* 1999).

In the present study, a cellular model of breast cancer was chosen to investigate the role of ErbB-2 overexpression in cellular transformation and signalling. Stamps *et al.* developed an immortalised luminal epithelial cell line, HB4a, derived from reduction mammaplasty tissue of a normal subject by flow-sorting (Stamps *et al.*, 1994). As most breast cancers arise from the luminal epithelium of the mammary gland (Bartek *et al.*, 1991), this cell type is ideal for the study of the early stages of breast cancer. Indeed, the cells display several markers of the luminal epithelial cell type and have a characteristic luminal epithelial cellular morphology in culture. These cells were immortalised with a temperature-sensitive mutant of SV40 large T antigen (ts A58-U19) (Jat and Sharp, 1989). This process of immortalisation involves the sequestration and inactivation of the tumour suppressor proteins pRb and p53 by the SV40 large T antigen. These proteins normally block the cell cycle, and also act as sensors of cell damage inducing cell cycle arrest and apoptosis, given the appropriate stimuli.

In order to better understand the role of ErbB-2 overexpression in transformation, this model human mammary luminal epithelial cell system was engineered to stably overexpress ErbB-2 (Harris *et al.*, 1999). In detail, HB4a cell lines were stably transfected with a human ErbB-2 cDNA construct and clones were selected by fluorescence activated cell sorting (FACS) based on the level of surface ErbB-2 expression they showed. A panel of cell lines was generated which overexpressed various levels of ErbB-2 (Harris *et al.*, 1999). In this thesis, the parental cell line, HB4a and one of the ErbB-2 overexpressing clones, C3.6, were used to establish the differential protein expression profile relating to ErbB-2 overexpression. The C3.6 clone has been

shown to overexpress surface levels of ErbB-2 similar to those observed in breast cancers (Harris *et al.*, 1999). The C3.6 cells display an altered morphology compared to HB4a indicating a loss of cell-to-cell contact inhibition. In addition, the ErbB-2 overexpressing cell lines were shown to display an increased proliferative capacity and showed enhanced growth responsiveness to EGF and Hrg $\beta$ 1, growth factors that are specific for EGFR and ErbB-3, respectively. The C3.6 cells were also found to display an increase in anchorage-independent growth, as measured by their ability to form colonies on soft agar. However, these cells can not form tumours after inoculation into nude or SCID mice, showing that they do not display the phenotype of a fully transformed cell line (Harris *et al.*, 1999). This system is currently being used in our laboratory for biochemical, proteomic and microarray analyses in an attempt to establish the cellular defects associated with ErbB-2 overexpression.

This model cell system was also used to study the effect of ErbB-2 overexpression on mitogenic signalling and cell cycle progression (Timms *et al.*, 2002). This work showed that the C3.6 and HB4a cells were able to activate downstream signalling via the MAPK and the PI3K signalling pathways in response to EGF and Hrg $\beta$ 1 treatment and that the ErbB-2 overexpressing cells had enhanced MAPK signalling, but not PI3K signalling. In addition, both EGF and Hrg $\beta$ 1 could induce myc, cyclin D1, cdk6 and cyclin E, known activators of the cell cycle, and this effect was more prominent in the ErbB-2 overexpressing cells. The cell cycle inhibitor p27<sup>kip</sup> was also suppressed in the C3.6 cells, which has been previously shown in other models of ErbB-2 overexpression (Lane *et al.*, 2000; Lenferink *et al.*, 2001). These combined changes induced an increase in cdk2 activity that promotes more rapid progression through the cell cycle. Together, this prior work showed that this cellular model is a valid system for the study of breast cancer and was therefore used here to examine the effects of ErbB-2 overexpression on overall protein expression and on the response of luminal epithelial cells to oxidative stress.

### **1.3 Stress Signalling, ROS and redox regulation**

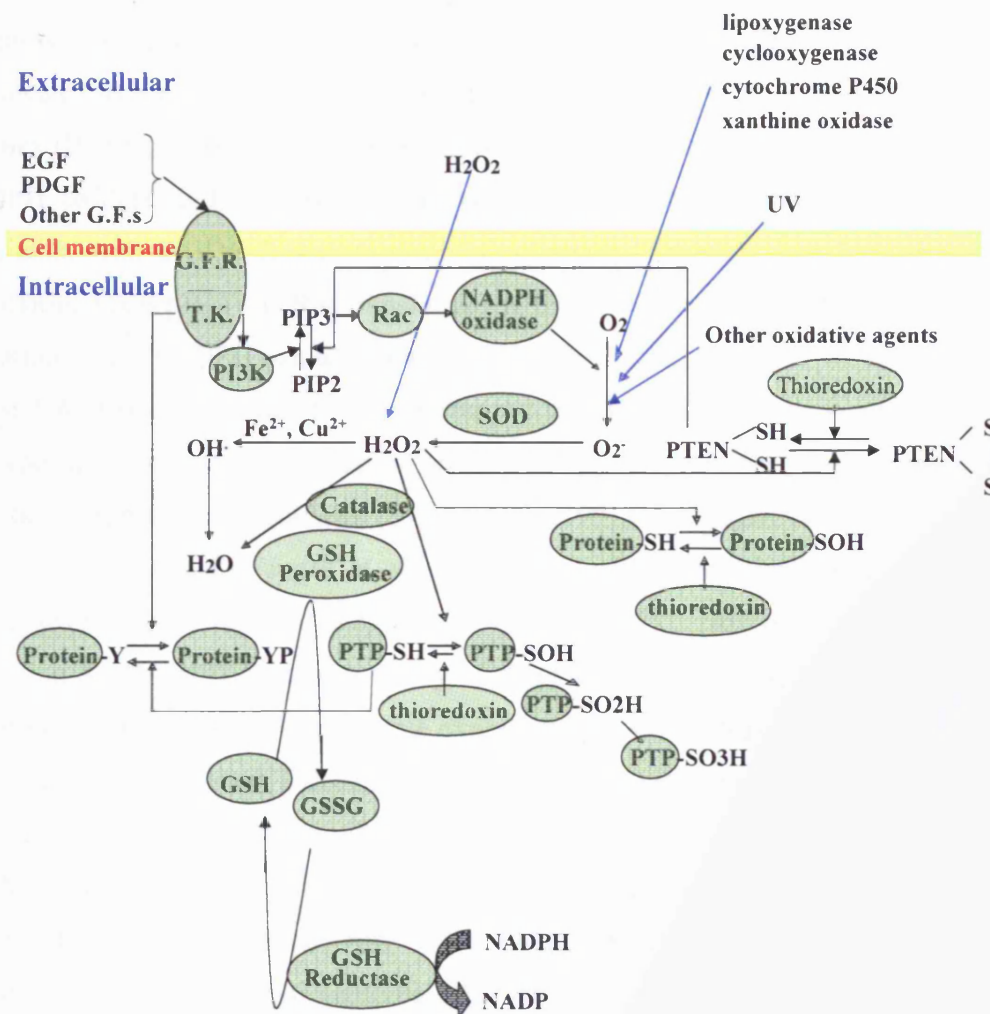
Originally, reactive oxygen species (ROS) were recognised as products of the mammalian host defence mechanism, and early studies focused on the characterisation of the so-called respiratory burst in neutrophils (SBARRA and KARNOVSKY, 1959) and



the role of the NADPH oxidase complex, which is now recognised as a primary source of intracellular ROS (Babior, 1999). Apart from this defensive role in phagocytic cells, ROS have also been shown to play a role in cell signalling in many diverse biological systems. Indeed, ROS can induce programmed cell death (apoptosis) or necrosis, induce or suppress the expression of many genes and activate/inactivate cell signalling cascades, such as the mitogen-activated protein kinase pathways (Torres and Forman, 2003). Moreover, ROS are believed to play a pivotal role in aging, degenerative diseases, immuno-defence and cancer. Based on these reasons, it is important to study the roles and mechanisms of cellular ROS.

### **1.3.1 Formation of cellular Reactive Oxygen Species (ROS)**

ROS are species of oxygen which are in a more reactive state than molecular oxygen, and in which the oxygen is reduced to varying degrees. ROS comprise several species such as hydrogen peroxide ( $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$ ), the hydroxyl radical ( $\cdot\text{OH}$ ), superoxide ( $\cdot\text{O}_2^-$ ) and singlet oxygen ( $\cdot\text{O}$ ).  $\cdot\text{O}_2^-$  can be generated by the action of such enzymes as NADPH oxidase, lipoxygenase, cyclooxygenase, cytochrome P450 or through UV irradiation and can be converted into  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$  and  $\text{O}_2$  by the action of superoxide dismutases (SOD) (Figure 1-10).  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$  can be also further converted to  $\cdot\text{OH}$  (a very reactive ROS) in the presence of  $\text{Fe}^{2+}$ . ROS have been widely reported to play an important role in promoting apoptosis and tumourigenesis. For example, ROS have been shown to induce apoptotic proteins, whereas antioxidants inhibited this apoptotic effect (Rollet-Labelle et al., 1998; Tanaka et al., 1998). However, ROS-induced tumourigenesis has been linked to oxidative DNA damage through the generation of the DNA oxidative product 8-oxo-deoxyguanosine, a highly mutagenic agent (Floyd, 1990). ROS are also thought to contribute to cancer through interference with various signal cascade systems including pathways involving nuclear transcription factor kappa B (NF $\kappa$ B), activated protein-1 (AP-1), phospholipase A2 (PLA2), mitogen-activated protein kinases (MAPKs), Akt and Jun kinase (Guyton et al., 1996a; Bae et al., 1997; Musonda and Chipman, 1998; Manna et al., 1998) (see 1.3.3).



(Figure 1-10) Metabolic pathways and mechanisms of cellular ROS production and its effect on cellular proteins.

Several enzymes are able to produce ROS; the most important of these is NADPH oxidase. NADPH oxidase was first discovered in neutrophils, which following stimulation with microorganisms undergo a respiratory burst, with the release of superoxide ions into the phagosome (Babior, 1999). In resting cells, NADPH oxidase is a heterodimeric plasma membrane-associated protein complex consisting of two polypeptides, p22-phox and gp91-phox, which together make up the flavocytochrome b<sub>558</sub>. gp91-phox contains a FAD group and two haem groups, which together comprise an electron transfer module which enables the transfer of electrons from cytosolic NADPH to molecular oxygen. However, no NADPH oxidase activity is seen in resting cells and



other components of the enzyme must be recruited. These cytoplasmic components are p47-phox, p67-phox and p40-phox. Upon stimulation, these polypeptides are translocated to the inner surface of the plasma membrane to form a fully active enzyme complex (Babior, 1999). Two small GTPases, Rap and Rac/p21, are also associated with NADPH oxidase and are involved in its activation. Rac in the resting state is in association with a GDP-dissociation inhibition factor, Rho-GDI, but upon stimulation, dissociation takes place and Rac translocates to the plasma membrane where it aids in the activation of the NADPH oxidase complex (Bokoch, 2000).

Whilst NADPH oxidase was first characterized in neutrophils, it is also present in other cell types that have no role in host defence. For example, NADPH oxidase components have been reported in fibroblasts (Meier et al., 1991), mesangial cells (Radeke et al., 1991), endothelial cells (Jones et al., 1996), osteoclasts (Steinbeck et al., 1994) and chondrocytes (Hiran et al., 1997; Moulton et al., 1997). However, the rate of ROS generation by NADPH oxidase in many of these cell types is very low compared with that in neutrophils, but such a disparate expression pattern for this enzyme implies a role other than in host defence. Indeed, recent work suggests it may play a more general role in signal transduction (Torres *et al.*, 2003).

Another source of ROS is xanthine oxidoreductase or xanthine oxidase (Harrison, 2002) (Figure 1-10). This molybdenum- and iron-containing flavoprotein catalyses the oxidation of hypoxanthine to xanthine and then to uric acid. Molecular oxygen is the oxidant, and products include superoxide and H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>. This enzyme can also produce NO<sup>•</sup>, suggesting that it might have a dual role in cellular signalling.

The electron transport system of mitochondria also produce ROS. Electron transport through the mitochondrial respiratory chain is extraordinarily efficient, and normally the vast majority of O<sub>2</sub> is consumed. However, 1–2% of electrons are leaked to generate <sup>•</sup>O<sub>2</sub><sup>−</sup> in reactions mediated by coenzyme Q and ubiquinone and its complexes. Thus, mitochondria are believed to be a major site of ROS production *in vivo* (Boveris and Chance, 1973). Similarly electron transport in the endoplasmic reticulum generates <sup>•</sup>O<sub>2</sub><sup>−</sup> by the leakage of electrons from NADPH cytochrome P450 reductase (Cross and Jones, 1991). Finally, <sup>•</sup>O<sub>2</sub><sup>−</sup> is also generated by lipoxygenase, cyclooxygenase and UV

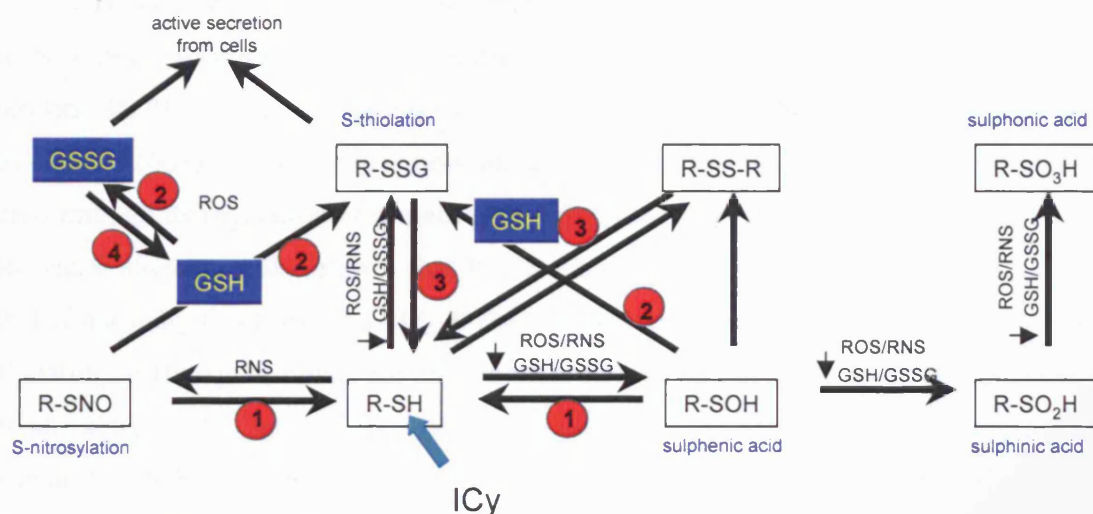
irradiation of molecular O<sub>2</sub>, whilst cells may also be exposed to extracellular sources of ROS (Figure 1-10).

### 1.3.2 ROS-dependent protein modifications

Several chemical moieties have been found to be potential regulators of cellular redox status. One of these, the free thiol group (RSH) of cysteine residues is a potent nucleophilic agent and can undergo a number of redox-induced modifications under physiological conditions. Oxidative modifications of RSH groups other than disulphide formation include the formation of the sulfenic acid (RSOH), sulfinic acid (RSO<sub>2</sub>H) and sulfonic acid (RSO<sub>3</sub>H) depending upon the oxidative capacity of the oxidant ((Schafer and Buettner, 2001) and see Figure 1-10). Oxidation of RSH groups to sulfinic and sulfonic acids is irreversible under physiologic conditions, whilst sulfenic acids were thought to exist only as transient intermediates (Hamann et al., 2002). Recently however, it has been shown that the formation of relatively stable protein sulfenates can occur, and that these intermediates may play a role in the regulation of biochemical pathways and in cellular physiology (Willett and Copley, 1996). For example, the crystal structure of the flavoprotein NADH peroxidase revealed that the protein possesses an active site cysteine in the form of a sulfenic acid (Yeh et al., 1996). It was proposed that stabilization of the active site Cys-SOH was derived from electronic interaction with the flavin moiety, coupled with weak interactions with other active site proximal residues. In another example, the protein tyrosine phosphatase (PTP-1B) was shown to be inhibited by exposure to relatively low concentration of hydrogen peroxide, and that this inhibition was due to formation of Cys-SOH at the catalytic Cys residue ((Denu and Tanner, 1998) and (Figure 1-10)). Moreover, this Cys-SOH could be shown *in vitro* to be subject to glutathionylation, which protected the Cys-SOH from further oxidation to sulfinic or sulfonic acids (Lee et al., 1998) (Figure 1-11).

The cellular redox buffer glutathione (GSH) is present within most cells at a millimolar concentration and acts as a first line of defense to detoxify ROS (Kosower and Kosower, 1978). Glutathione peroxidase catalyzes the reduction of ROS via the oxidation of the GSH thiol to glutathione disulphide (GSSG) and then the GSSG is restored to GSH by GSH reductase, an enzyme which uses NADPH for reducing potential (Meister, 1994)

and (Figure 1-10). In addition, glutathione peroxidase can reduce ROS via the oxidation of the reduced cysteine on various proteins to form mixed disulphides (RSSG) and RSSG is restored to RSH by protein disulphide isomerase, glutaredoxin or thioredoxin (Arscott et al., 2000) (Figure 1-11). The antioxidative molecule, thioredoxin, is a small multifunctional protein that has a redox active disulphide within the conserved active site sequence (Holmgren, 1989a; Nakamura et al., 1997). Thioredoxin is capable of reducing some ROS, including  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$ , as well as reducing oxidized proteins (Mitsui et al., 1992). Oxidized thioredoxin is in turn restored to its reduced form by thioredoxin reductase which uses NADPH as a source of electrons. In addition, all cells possess the protective enzymes, catalase which can degrade  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$  to  $\text{O}_2$  plus  $\text{H}_2\text{O}$ . Another family of enzymes, the peroxiredoxins (Prxns) are required to reduce intracellular peroxides and have been shown to suppress tumour formation (Neumann et al., 2003). In humans, the family consists of 6 members, comprising the classical cytosolic 2-Cys peroxiredoxins (Prxns 1-5) and the 1-Cys, Prxn-6. The 2-Cys Prxns contain a redox-sensitive cysteine at the active site (Choi et al., 1998) and another conserved cysteine (Hirotsu et al., 1999; Declercq et al., 2001). The active site cysteine is oxidized to cysteine sulfenic acid (Choi *et al.*, 1998) or to a disulphide with the other conserved cysteine (Chae et al., 1994) when peroxide levels are reduced. In order to complete the enzymic catalytic cycle, the peroxiredoxins are reduced back to their active thiol form via the thioredoxin/thioredoxin reductase system (Chae *et al.*, 1994). Very recently, 2-Cys Prxn has been found to play a signalling related role in yeast where it regulates the peroxide induced oxidation and activation of a stress-activated MAP kinase (Sty1) by forming an intermolecular disulphide bridge (Veal et al., 2004).



**(Figure 1-11) Thiol-dependent redox modifications.** Cellular thiol containing proteins can be modified to different oxidative states which can be reversible or irreversible reactions. The reversible redox regulations are always enzyme-dependent. These redox regulatory reactions involve the following catalytic enzymes: peroxiredoxins/thioredoxin, glutathione peroxidase/glutathione S-transferase, protein disulphide isomerase/glutaredoxin/thioredoxin and glutathione reductase which are responsible for catalysing the indicated reactions 1, 2, 3 and 4, respectively.

### 1.3.3 Redox regulation of cellular signalling

ROS are ideally suited to be signalling molecules as they are small and can diffuse quickly through cells. Moreover, there are a number of mechanisms for ROS production, some of which are rapid and controllable. In addition, ROS can be also rapidly removed through various mechanisms. Many studies have indicated a role for ROS in the induction or inhibition of cell proliferation, in the activation or inhibition of apoptosis and in the induction of necrosis at high concentrations (Gamaley and Klyubin, 1999).

Reversible protein phosphorylation is a key biochemical event in many cell signalling pathways and numerous studies have shown that ROS can significantly affect this protein phosphorylation process. For example, several reports have shown that the proteins Erk1/2, Akt, p38 and JNK are activated by H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> in animal cells (Fialkow et al., 1994; Guyton et al., 1996b; Blanc et al., 2003; Ruffels et al., 2004), leading to the modulation of gene expression. Importantly, H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> has been shown to inhibit phosphatases by the direct oxidation of the active site cysteine in these molecules

(Sullivan et al., 1994;Wu et al., 1998). For example, the protein-tyrosine phosphatase 1B (PTP-1B) which can regulate the phosphorylation state of signalling proteins was found to be a target of  $H_2O_2$  in cells. Modification of the catalytic cysteine residue by  $H_2O_2$  renders PTP1B inactive leading to increased tyrosine phosphorylation (Lee and Esselman, 2002). Thus,  $H_2O_2$  is now recognized as a secondary signalling molecule in cells through its regulation of protein phosphorylation (Barrett et al., 1999;Finkel, 2000). Recent studies have also shown that PTEN plays an important role in redox signalling. PTEN normally functions as a  $PIP_3$  3'-phosphatase which negatively modulates the PI3K signalling pathway to inhibit the proliferation of cells and promote apoptosis (Maehama et al., 2001) and (Figure 1-10). It was shown that cysteine-124 in the active site of human PTEN is a target for exogenous oxidants (such as  $H_2O_2$ ) and forms a disulphide bridge with Cys-71 (Lee et al., 2002). Moreover, when cells are stimulated with peptide growth factors (such as EGF or PDGF), part of the cellular pool of PTEN was found to be transiently oxidised to the inactive form (Kwon et al., 2004). It was suggested that this was due to the generation of endogenous  $H_2O_2$  through the activation of the PI3K pathway and subsequent NADPH oxidase via Rac1 activation. Thus, activation of PI3K by growth factors might not be sufficient to accumulate enough  $PIP_3$  for downstream signalling due to the antagonistic activity of PTEN and  $H_2O_2$  might be needed to inhibit PTEN activity to permit  $PIP_3$  accumulation. Since PTEN is a known tumour suppressor, the modulation of PTEN by ROS could be one mechanism by which ROS promotes survival and proliferation of cancer cells (Figure 1-10).

ROS can induce gene expression, and many studies have shown that the expression of a wide range of genes is regulated by oxidative stress (Allen and Tresini, 2000). For example, addition of  $H_2O_2$  to cells stimulates expression of transcription factors such as c-fos, c-jun (AP-1), c-myc, myb and Ets (Amstad et al., 1990;Nose et al., 1991;Myrset et al., 1993;Wasylyk and Wasylyk, 1993;Rao et al., 1996) and results in activation of NF- $\kappa$ B through dissociation of the factor from its inhibitor I $\kappa$ -B (Schreck et al., 1991). Thus, by activating various transcription factors, ROS have the potential to affect the expression of many genes. This response, at least in part, appears to play a cytoprotective role since many ROS induced genes are redox protective enzymes such as GST, catalase and thioredoxin reductase. Whilst these transcription factor activation events are likely to

be due to activation of upstream signalling pathways, perhaps due to protein and lipid phosphatase inhibition, some mechanisms of transcription factor activation by ROS appear to be more direct. For example, STAT pathways in animal cells are activated by  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$  (Simon et al., 1998), showing how  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$  can transduce its message directly into the nuclei of cells. In yeast, the peroxidatic cysteine of Gpx3 was found to directly induce the activation of the transcriptional factor Yap1 in response to  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$  through the transient formation of an intermolecular disulphide bond with Yap1 (Delaunay et al., 2002). Also, 2-Cys Prxn regulates the peroxide induced oxidation and activation of a stress-activated MAP kinase (Sty1) by forming an intermolecular disulphide bridge in yeast (Veal et al., 2004).

Extracellular growth factors can transduce signals into cells through different signalling pathways using RTKs, serine/threonine kinases, phospholipases,  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  and other mechanisms (see Section 1.1). Similarly, when cells are exposed to ROS, signals are transferred through many of the same signalling pathways (Kamata and Hirata, 1999). Oxidants can activate RTKs (Aslan and Ozben, 2003) and downstream signalling molecules such as MAP kinases (Torres *et al.*, 2003), Ras (Lander et al., 1995), PI-3 kinase and Akt (Park et al., 2004), protein kinase C (PKC) (Inoguchi et al., 2003), phospholipase C (Gonzalez-Pacheco et al., 2002) and molecules involved in  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  signalling (Mikoshiba, 1997). The activation of phospholipase- $\gamma$  by oxidative stress increases the cytosolic  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  levels by altering the flux from intracellular  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  pools, such as the ER or the extracellular space (Poli et al., 2004). In turn a number of transcription factors become activated, thereby affecting gene expression (Rahman et al., 2004).

It is through their effects on signalling that ROS molecules appear to play the roles of secondary messengers. Indeed cells activated by extracellular stimuli, are known to produce ROS, which in turn modulate diverse signalling pathways. Thus, there is a cross-talk between signalling systems and the cellular redox state (Poli *et al.*, 2004). The current model for ROS production as secondary messengers is that receptor tyrosine kinases activated by growth factors cause the activation of PI3K, the product of which, namely  $\text{PtdIns}(3,4,5)\text{P}_3$ , then bind to the PH domain of guanine nucleotide exchange factors (GEFs) (e.g. Sos, Vav1 and  $\beta\text{Pix}$ ) and stimulate the GDP-GTP exchange activity of GEFs. The activated GEF can convert Rac1-GDP to Rac1-GTP, which binds directly

to and recruit components of membrane-bound NADPH oxidase. Thus, the activated NADPH oxidase can promote the electron transfer from NADPH to molecular oxygen and subsequently mediate the production of superoxide anions ( $O_2^-$ ) (Bae *et al.*, 1997; Bae *et al.*, 2000; Di-Poi *et al.*, 2001; Price *et al.*, 2002; Park *et al.*, 2004). These superoxide anions ( $O_2^-$ ), or  $H_2O_2$  produced by superoxide dismutase, can then activate signalling kinases through unknown mechanisms, possibly through phosphatase inhibition or direct activation by peroxidases, leading to the activation of downstream transcription factors which then regulate gene expression to promote cell survival and proliferation (Guyton *et al.*, 1996b). Conversely, other studies have shown that oxidative stress promotes apoptosis (Curtin *et al.*, 2002) and can occur through the production of ceramide (Verheij *et al.*, 1996) that can activate JNK (Ishikawa *et al.*, 1997) and p53 (Yin *et al.*, 1998). Thus, the role of ROS in inducing cell death or survival is uncertain and the end effects rely on the cross-talk and balanced regulation of many signalling pathways.

With regard to tumour development, ROS have been considered as DNA-damaging agents that increase the mutational rate and promote oncogenic transformation (Jackson and Loeb, 2001). In addition, an elevated oxidative status has been found in many types of cancer cells, with ROS activating signalling cascades that induce and maintain the oncogenic phenotype (Behrend *et al.*, 2003). ROS may also lead to the stabilisation and activation of HIF-1 $\alpha$ , a transcription factor controlling tumour angiogenesis under normoxic or hypoxic conditions via the p42/p44 MAPK pathway (Richard *et al.*, 1999). Interestingly, the elimination of excessive ROS by chemical (Mukhopadhyay-Sardar *et al.*, 2000) or enzymatic (Lam and Reprecht, 1994) antioxidants decreases the tumorigenicity of various types of cancer cells, possibly offering new strategies for cancer therapy. One of the antioxidant enzymes with anti-tumour activity is the mitochondrial protein, MnSOD, which has been shown to retard the growth of tumours when overexpressed in rat glioma cells and human oral carcinoma cells (Zhong *et al.*, 1996; Liu *et al.*, 1997). Moreover, MnSOD expression is found to be lowered in cancer cells compared with normal control cells (Oberley and Oberley, 1988). This infers that tumour cells have the capacity to produce more superoxide radical, the substrate for MnSOD and this may be a general characteristic of tumour cells.

## 1.4 Redox proteomics

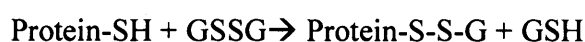
A wealth of knowledge exists, which indicates that ROS play critical roles in regulating cell behavior through the modification of protein molecules (Moran et al., 2001). However, compared with the knowledge accumulated from extensive proteomic studies on phosphorylation, relatively little is known about the extent of redox modifications of proteins. As outlined above, reactive oxygen species (ROS) and reactive nitrogen species (RNS) cause various types of chemical modifications to proteins. Such modifications are often irreversible (sulphonation, carbonylation, nitration or protein-protein cross-linking), are associated with permanent loss of protein function and may lead to the accumulation, degradation or aggregation of the damaged or modified proteins. Some modifications are reversible (S-nitrosylation or glutathionylation), and appear to play a role in protecting cysteines from irreversible oxidation and in regulating the redox status of cells (Ghezzi and Bonetto, 2003). In the following paragraphs, the techniques available for identifying proteins based on their redox status is described, in particular methods for identifying changes in the thiol-disulphide chemistry of cysteine residues and for identifying protein glutathionylation.

Most redox studies have made use of maleimide or iodoacetyl derivatives of fluorescent or biotinylated reagents which react with free thiol groups to covalently tag the protein. Such reagents include: monobromobimane (Berggren et al., 2001), (4-iodobutyl) triphenyl-phosphonium (Lin et al., 2002), maleimidobutyrylbisbiotin (Garant et al., 1999), Oregon green maleimide (Essex et al., 2001), N-biotinoylaminoethyl methanethiosulfonate (Ennion and Evans, 2002), N-biotinoyl-N-(maleimidihexanoyl) hydrazine (Hare and Lee, 1989), fluorescein-5-maleimide (Birge et al., 1991), N-(biotinoyl)-N-(iodoacetyl) ethylenediamine (Kim et al., 2000), NEM-biotin (Lind et al., 2002) and N-(6-(biotinamido)hexyl)-39-(29-pyridyldithio) propionamide (Jaffrey et al., 2001a) and maleimide derivatives (Yamamoto and Sekine, 1978; Jaffrey et al., 2001b). Since oxidation of a thiol would prevent its labelling by these reagents, they can be used in comparative 2DE studies to detect loss of free thiols due to oxidation. To detect disulphides, one approach has been to block all free thiols with iodoacetamide or NEM, then to reduce the disulphides and detect the new free thiols with the thiol reactive reagents described above. In addition, by using different reductants, the specific form of



oxidation (thiolation, S-nitrosylation or glutathionylation) has been inferred. For example, ascorbate can reduce S-NO (Jaffrey *et al.*, 2001a), whilst thioredoxin can be used to reduce protein disulphide bonds (Yano *et al.*, 2001).

Formation of mixed disulphides in cell systems can occur by sulfhydryl oxidation or by thiol-disulphide exchange (e.g. glutathionylation). The reactions below show the formation of a mixed disulphide:



Whilst intra- or intermolecular disulphides can be reduced by thioredoxin, the glutathionylated disulphide complexes (Protein-S-S-G) are reduced by glutaredoxins (Holmgren, 1989b). Many proteins including enzymes, transcription factors and cytoskeletal proteins have been identified as glutathionylated proteins and the activity of some of these appears to be regulated by glutathionylation (Cotgreave and Gerdes, 1998; Klatt and Lamas, 2000). Although glutathionylation often occurs during oxidative stress, many proteins may be glutathionylated under normal physiological conditions. In fact, the amount of glutathione present as a mixed disulphide with proteins is 20-30 nmol/g in liver tissue (approximately 4-6% of total protein) (Brigelius *et al.*, 1983). Several methods have been used to identify glutathionylated proteins in living cell systems. One method involves metabolically labelling cells with <sup>35</sup>S-cysteine in the presence of high concentrations of cycloheximide (Rokutan *et al.*, 1991). This technique allows labelling of the intracellular GSH pool, but avoids the incorporation <sup>35</sup>S-cysteine into newly synthesized proteins. Labelled cell lysates can then be resolved by 2DE for further analysis. Another method to analyse glutathionylated proteins is by alkylation of free thiols with NEM, specific reduction of protein-glutathione mixed disulphides by glutaredoxin and then labelling the newly formed thiols with NEM-biotin. Proteins can then be enriched by affinity purification and analysed by 2DE (Lind *et al.*, 2002). Glutathionylated proteins have also been enriched on GSH or GSNO-sepharose columns (Klatt *et al.*, 2000) and have been detected by immunostaining with specific antibodies (Wang *et al.*, 2001).

S-nitrosylation of proteins is also an important mechanism of redox regulation and is a means by which NO can modulate the activity of proteins (Jaffrey *et al.*, 2001a). This modification is reversible and can be reduced *in vitro* by ascorbic acid, GSH (Kashiba-Iwatsuki *et al.*, 1997) or thioredoxin (Nikitovic and Holmgren, 1996). S-nitrosylation of proteins has been detected by blocking free thiols with methanethiosulfonate, which cannot react with nitrosothiols; then nitrosothiols are reduced to thiols with ascorbate and the newly formed thiols are derivatized with a biotinylated thiol reagent for detection by immunoblotting of 2D gels (Jaffrey *et al.*, 2001a).

ROS-mediated protein carbonylation is an important marker of oxidative damage. Carbonyl groups may be introduced into a protein at different sites and its extent has been correlated with neurodegenerative diseases and aging (Stadtman and Berlett, 1997; Butterfield and Kanski, 2001). Protein carbonylation occurs via direct oxidation of the protein backbone leading to fragmentation producing polypeptides with an N-terminal alpha-ketoacyl amino acid residue (Stadtman *et al.*, 1997) which can be detected in a colorimetric assay using 2, 4-dinitrophenylhydrazine (DNPH) (Levine *et al.*, 1990).

The nitration of tyrosine residues to form 3-nitrotyrosine (3-NT) is the most studied case of protein nitration and is considered as a marker of irreversible protein modification by peroxynitrite (Beckman, 1996). Increased levels of 3-NT have been shown in various diseases such as Alzheimer's disease, Parkinson's disease and atherosclerosis and can be detected by immunoblotting with specific anti-3-NT antibodies (Ye *et al.*, 1996).

## **1. 5 Aims of this study**

The aim of this study was to develop a method to detect cysteine-labelling changes for use in protein expression profiling and to apply 2D-DIGE to study redox regulation of proteins. In order to apply the cysteine specific ICy dye technique to 2D-DIGE, it was first necessary to establish the optimal labelling conditions (temperature, denaturant, reductant and so on) using standard proteins and total cell lysate samples. After optimising these labelling conditions, the cysteine labelling strategy would then be used to probe for targets of cellular oxidative stress ( $H_2O_2$  treatment) in human luminal epithelial cells expressing normal levels of the receptor tyrosine kinase ErbB-2 and a derivative overexpressing this receptor. These experiments would therefore test the effects of

overexpression of an oncogenic RTK on redox stress responses which may be linked to tumour progression. It is expected that any changes in labelling are caused either by differential protein expression or from the exchange of reactive thiol groups into higher oxidative states that prevent reactivity with the ICy dyes. Proteins displaying differential labelling would then be picked from 2D gels for identified by MALDI-TOF-MS with further validation of changes, carried out by 1-D and 2-D immunoblotting. In addition, identification of labelled peptides by MS would be used to identify sites of modifications. Finally, the cysteine labelling 2D-DIGE strategy will be applied to the study of EGF induced alteration in thiol reactivity and to study the effects of UV on thiol reactivity in purified human serum samples.

## **Chapter 2: MATERIALS AND METHODS**

All chemicals, solvent and reagents were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich Company Ltd., UK, unless otherwise stated.

### **2.1 Cy dyes**

The NHS-Cyanine dyes (Cy2, Cy3, Cy5) were purchased from GE Healthcare. Subsequently NHS-Cy3/Cy5 and ICy3/ICy5 were synthesised “in-house” by Dr. P. Gaffney (Appendix A). Cyanine dye stock solutions of 1 mM in dimethyl formamide (DMF) could be kept at -20°C for at least 4 months without loss of labelling efficiency. Cyanine dye dilutions for labelling were made fresh in DMF and kept in the dark and on ice prior to use.

### **2.2 Tissue Culture**

#### **2.2.1 Cell Growth**

HB4a, C3.6 and other clones derived from the HB4a cell line, were obtained from Dr. M. O'Hare as described (Harris *et al.*, 1999). They were maintained in 1640 RPMI media containing 10% (v/v) foetal calf serum (FCS), supplemented with L-glutamine (2 mM), streptomycin (100 µg/ml), penicillin (100 IU/ml) (all purchased from Gibco-Invitrogen Corp. , UK), insulin (5 µg/ml) and hydrocortisone (5 µg/ml) in tissue culture dishes at 37°C in a 10% CO<sub>2</sub> humidified incubator. Cells were passaged when they reached 70 to 80% confluence by trypsinisation according to standard procedures.

Stocks of luminal epithelial cells were stored in liquid nitrogen and new batches of low passage cells were used after 25 passages in order to avoid potential genetic drift, which can occur during prolonged passaging of cells. For freezing, trypsinised cells were pelleted and resuspended in 10% (v/v) DMSO in 90% (v/v) FCS. Cells were slowly taken to -70°C in a propanol container and then transferred to liquid nitrogen for long-term storage. Rapid thawing was carried out in a 37°C water bath and excess DMSO was removed by centrifugation prior to plating. Cells were allowed to recover for three passages prior to sampling.

### **2.2.2 Cell treatment with EGF and hydrogen peroxide**

For EGF treatment, cells were first serum-starved in 0.1% (v/v) FCS in 1640 RPMI media supplemented with L-glutamine (2 mM), hydrocortisone (5 µg/ml) and antibiotics for 48 hours. They were then treated with 1 nM (6 ng/ml) of EGF (R&D system) for 15 min.

For hydrogen peroxide treatment, cells in 10 cm dishes at ~80% confluence were treated with hydrogen peroxide (H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>) at 0.5 mM final concentration by addition to the growth media. Cells were harvested after the indicated times.

## **2.3 Sample preparation**

### **2.3.1 Labelling of standard proteins**

Standard proteins used in this study were: bovine serum albumin (BSA); chicken ovalbumin (Ova); *S. japonicum* glutathione S-transferase (GST); bovine α-crystallin (α - Crys) A and B chains; and horse myoglobin (Myo). All proteins were from Sigma except GST, which a gift from Dr. Ivan Gout (LICR). It was expressed in *E. coli* and purified on glutathione sepharose beads according to standard procedures. Standard proteins were solubilised in denaturing ICy 2D lysis buffer (4% (w/v) CHAPS, 8 M urea, 10 mM Tris-HCl, pH 8.3, 1 mM EDTA) as an equimolar mixture containing 2 pmol of each protein. Labelling with ICy3/5 was carried out at the indicated dye to protein ratios for 1 h on ice in the dark, after which the samples were reduced with dithiothreitol (DTT) at 65 mM prior to gel analysis. In some cases, samples were first reduced with DTT, acetone precipitated and resolubilised in 2D lysis buffer prior to ICy labelling. For NHS-Cy dye labelling, routinely, standard proteins prepared in denaturing NHS-Cy dye 2D lysis buffer (8 M urea, 2 M thiourea, 4% (w/v) CHAPS, 0.5% NP-40 (w/v), 10 mM Tris-HCl pH 8.3) were “minimally” labelled with dye to protein ratios of normally 4 pmol of dye/µg of protein unless otherwise stated. Labelling was performed on ice in the dark for 1 h and reactions were quenched with a 20-fold molar excess of free lysine to dye for 10 min on ice in the dark.

### **2.3.2 Labelling of total cell lysates**

Cells were washed twice in 0.5X PBS (Invitrogen), drained well and lysed in ICy 2D lysis buffer (see above) without reductant. Samples were homogenized by passage through a 25-gauge needle (6 times) and insoluble material removed by centrifugation (13,000 rpm/10 min/4°C). Protein concentration was determined using the Coomassie Protein Assay Reagent (Pierce). Typically, 2 µl of protein sample is mixed in 200 µl of the assay reagent, followed by measuring the absorbance at 595 nm. The sample concentration is further calculated by comparing the values from standard proteins. For labelling, extracts were labelled with 80 pmol/µg of ICy3/5 on ice in the dark for 1 h and reactions quenched with DTT at a final concentration of 65 mM. For NHS-Cy labelling, 4 pmol/µg of dye were used, and reactions were quenched with a 20-fold molar excess of lysine to dye, prior to addition of DTT. For 2D-DIGE redox experiments, cells were lysed in the presence of ICy dye for rapid labelling and to limit post-lysis thiol modification. Since ICy dye interferes with the protein assay, protein concentrations were determined on replica lysates not containing dye. Test samples (control or H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> treated) were labelled with ICy5 and mixed with an equal amount of ICy3-labelled standard pool, prepared by mixing equal amounts of protein from all samples. Experiments were also performed where the dye labelling was swapped. Volumes were adjusted to 350 µl with lysis buffer containing DTT (65 mM final) and carrier Ampholines/Pharmalytes (50/50 V/V) (GE HealthCare) (pH 3-10) added to a final concentration of 2%. Labelled samples were mixed prior to protein separation by gel electrophoresis. All gels were cast and run at the same time.

### **2.4 One- and Two-dimensional Gel Electrophoresis**

Cy dye-labelled proteins in Laemmli sample buffer (50 mM Tris pH 6.8, 10% (v/v) glycerol, 2% SDS (w/v), 0.1% (w/v) bromophenol blue) were separated by 1DE according to standard procedures, except that samples in urea-containing buffer were not boiled and low-fluorescence glass plates were used. For 2D SDS-PAGE, 18 cm, non-linear pH 3-10 Immobilised pH gradient (IPG) strips (GE HealthCare) were rehydrated with Cy-labelled samples in the dark at room temperature overnight, in a reswelling tray according to the manufacturer's guidelines. Isoelectric focusing was performed on a

Multiphor II (GE HealthCare) apparatus for a total of 80 kVh at 20 °C. Strips were equilibrated for 10 min in 50 mM Tris-HCl pH 6.8, 6M urea, 30% (v/v) glycerol and 2 % (w/v) SDS containing 65 mM DTT and then for 10 min in the same buffer containing 240 mM iodoacetamide (IAM). Equilibrated IPG strips were then transferred onto 1.5 mm thick 18 X 20 cm 12% polyacrylamide gels cast between low-fluorescence glass plates. In some experiments, gels were bonded to the inner surface of one plate at casting by pre-treatment with bind-silane solution (80% ethanol, 2% acetic acid, 0.08% Plus One Bind-Silane (GE HealthCare)) according to the manufacturer's protocol. Strips were overlaid with 0.5% (w/v) low-melting point agarose in running buffer with bromophenol blue. Gels were run in Protean II tanks (BioRad) at 10 mA per gel at 10°C until the dye front had run off the bottom. All steps were carried out in a dedicated clean room.

## **2.5 Detection of Dye-labelled Proteins**

1DE and 2DE were scanned between low-fluorescence glass plates using either a CCD-based 2920 2D Master Imager with PixCel software or a Typhoon™ 9400 multicolour fluorescence scanner using ImageQuant software (both (GE HealthCare)). Excitation and emission wavelengths used are shown in Table 2.1. The exposure time (2D Master Imager™) or photomultiplier tube voltage (Typhoon™) was adjusted on each channel (Cy2, Cy3 and Cy5) for preliminary low-resolution scans (1000 µm) to give maximum pixel values within 10% for each Cy image but below the saturation level. These settings were then used for high-resolution (100 µm) scans. Images were exported as tif files for image analysis.

## **2.6 Image analysis**

Images were curated and analysed using Melanie IV (Swiss Institution of Bioinformatics) or DeCyder™ software (GE Healthcare). Differences were also detected by overlaying pseudo-coloured images in Adobe Photoshop (Adobe Systems Inc.) which were used for display purposes only. For DeCyder analysis, the DIA module was first used to define spot boundaries and to measure normalised spot volumes of ICy3- and ICy5-labelled features for calculation of difference ratios for samples run on the same gel. Features resulting from non-protein sources (e.g. dust particles and scratches) were filtered out as

much as possible using the exclusive filter based on low-area, volume and shape. The BVA mode of DeCyder was then used to match all pair-wise image comparisons from DIA for comparative cross-gel statistical analysis. User intervention was required at this stage to set landmarks on gels for accurate cross-gel matching and to match as many spots as possible. Comparison of test spot volumes with the corresponding standard spot volumes gave a standardised abundance for each matched spot and values were averaged across triplicates for each experimental condition and data plotted graphically within BVA. Stastical analysis was performed and spots displaying a  $\geq 1.5$  average-fold increase or decrease in abundance and with  $p$  values  $< 0.05$  from a student T-test were selected for analysis.

	<b>Excitation (nm)</b>	<b>Emission (nm)</b>
<b>Cy2</b>	<b>480</b>	<b>530</b>
<b>Cy3/ICy3</b>	<b>540</b>	<b>590</b>
<b>Cy5/ICy5</b>	<b>620</b>	<b>680</b>
<b>CCB</b>	<b>620</b>	<b>680</b>

**(Table 2-1) Excitation and emission wavelengths used for the detection of each cyanine dye and Colloidal Coomassie blue stain.**

## **2.7 Protein-staining**

Silver staining and colloidal Coomassie blue G-250 staining (CCB) were used to visualise gel separated Cy dye-labelled proteins. For silver staining of non-bonded gels, a mass spectrometry-compatible method was used (Shevchenko *et al.*, 1996). Briefly, gels were fixed for  $>3$  h in fix solution (40 % methanol, 7.5 % (v/v) acetic acid) and washed twice for 15 min each in ddH<sub>2</sub>O. Gels were sensitised in 0.02% (w/v) sodium thiosulphate for 1 min and washed twice in ddH<sub>2</sub>O for 1 min each. Gels were then incubated for 30 min in 0.15% (w/v) silver nitrate at 4°C and washed twice in ddH<sub>2</sub>O for 1 min each before developing in 2% (w/v) sodium carbonate with 0.02% (v/v)



formaldehyde. Staining was quenched with 5% (v/v) acetic acid and gels were stored in 1% (v/v) acetic acid at 4°C for spot picking and MS.

For CCB staining, a modified version of the protocol by (Neuhoff *et al.*, 1988) was used. Bonded gels were fixed in 35% (v/v) ethanol with 2% (v/v) phosphoric acid for >3 h on a shaking platform and washed three times for 30 min each in ddH<sub>2</sub>O. They were then incubated in 34% (v/v) methanol, 17% (w/v) ammonium sulphate and 3% (v/v) phosphoric acid for 1 h prior to the addition of 0.5 g/L Coomassie G-250 (Merck) and left to stain for 2-3 days. No destaining step was required. Post-stained gels were imaged on a BioRad GS-800 calibrated densitometer (silver and CCB) or Typhoon™ 9400 scanner using the red laser and no emission filters (CCB).

## **2.8 Spot Picking and In-gel Digestion**

Post-stained images were matched with Cy dye images using DeCyder or Melanie IV software and a pick list of coordinates created for spots of interest relative to a pair of reference markers fixed to the glass plates at casting. Spots were excised using an Ettan automated spot picker (GE HealthCare) with a 2 mm picking head from gels submerged under 1-2 mm of ddH<sub>2</sub>O. Spots were collected in 96-well plates, drained and stored at -20°C prior to MS analysis. In some experiments, spots were picked without post-staining using coordinates from the ICy-labelled image.

For in-gel digestion, gel pieces were washed three times in 50% acetonitrile, dried in a SpeedVac for 10 min, reduced with 10 mM DTT in 5 mM ammonium bicarbonate pH 8.0 (AmBic) for 45 min at 50°C and then alkylated with 50 mM IAM in 5 mM AmBic for 1 h at room temperature in the dark. Gel pieces were then washed three times in 50% acetonitrile and vacuum-dried before reswelling with 50 ng of modified trypsin (Promega) in 5 mM AmBic. The pieces were then overlaid with 10 µl of 5 mM AmBic and trypsinised for 16 h at 37°C. Supernatant was collected and peptides were further extracted twice with 5% trifluoroacetic acid in 50% acetonitrile and the supernatants pooled. Peptide extracts were vacuum-dried and resuspended in 5 µL ddH<sub>2</sub>O and stored at -20°C prior to MS analysis.

## **2.9 Protein Identification by MALDI-TOF-MS**

Matrix-assisted laser desorption/ionization (MALDI) MS with peptide mass mapping was used for protein identification. Typically, 0.5  $\mu$ l of the tryptic digest was mixed with 1  $\mu$ l of matrix solution (saturated aqueous 2, 5-dihydroxybenzoic acid) and spotted onto a sample target plate and dried. MALDI mass spectra were acquired using an Ultraflex TOF/TOF mass spectrometer (Bruker Daltonics) in the reflector mode. The mass spectrometer was calibrated using a standard mixture of peptides (calibration mixture 2 from the Sequazyme kit, Applied Biosystems). Internal calibration of each spectrum was carried out using the trypsin autolysis peaks at  $m/z$  842.51 and  $m/z$  2211.10. Prominent peaks in the mass range  $m/z$  500-5000 were used to generate a peptide mass fingerprint which was matched against the updated NCBI database using Protein Prospector version 3.4.1 MS-Fit (University of California, San Francisco, USA) and Mascot (Matrix Sciences Ltd. ). A positive identification was accepted when a MOWSE score value of a protein is higher than the threshold MOWSE value ( $p < 0.05$ ) with mass error of  $\pm 50$  ppm allowing 1 missed cleavage and a minimum of 6 peptide masses matched to a particular protein. The protein hit also had to be in agreement with the molecular weight of the detected gel spot and the searched masses of Cy dye labelled motifs and be the human sequence.

## **2.10 Immunoblotting**

Immunoblotting was used to validate expression differences and protein identities where antibodies were available. Briefly, cell extracts were separated by 1DE or 2DE and electro-blotted onto polyvinylidene fluoride membrane (Immobilon P, Millipore) in a transfer tank using transfer buffer (195 mM glycine, 25 mM Tris, 20% (v/v) methanol). Membranes were blocked for 1h with 5% (w/v) low fat milk in Tris buffered saline (50 mM Tris pH 8, 150 mM NaCl) with 0.1% Tween-20 (TBS-T). Membranes were incubated for  $\geq 1$  h in primary antibody solution in TBS-T. All of antibodies used in this thesis listed in Table 2-2. Membranes were washed in TBS-T (3X 10 min) and then probed with the appropriate horseradish peroxidase-coupled secondary antibody (GE HealthCare). After further washes in TBS-T, immunoprobed proteins were visualised using enhanced chemiluminescence (PerkinElmer Life Sciences Inc). Films were

scanned on a BioRad GS-800 densitometer and matched to ICy dye images using Adobe Photoshop.

Primary antibody	molecular weights (rainbow markers)	company	monoclonal/poly clonal	working conc. for WB
14-3-3 $\sigma$ (Ab-1)	28	Oncogene	rab pAb	1:2000
Akt	60	CST/NEB	rab pAb	1:2000
Akt anti-phospho(Ser473)	60	Cell Signaling Technology	mo mAb	1:2000
Cyclophilin A	19	Upstate	rab pAb	1:5000
Cytokeratin 10	59	Progen	mo mAb	1:2000
Cytokeratin 6	53	Sunhil Lakhani	mo mAb	1:10000
Cytokeratin 7	51	Progen	mo mAb	1:10000
GST (B-14) sc-138	26	St Cruz	mo mAb	1:2000
HSP-27	27	Stressgen Biotech.	mo mAb	1:3000
HSP-60	60	Stressgen Biotech.	mo mAb	1:10000
HSP-70	70	sigma	mo mAb	1:10000
Ly-Rho GDI	28	St Cruz	goat pAb	1:1000
MEK1/2	45	CST/NEB	rab pAb	1:2000
MEK1/2 (anti-phospho Ser217/221)	45	CST/NEB	rab pAb	1:2000
Mn SOD	20	Upsate	rab pAb	1:2000
p38 MAPK	38	CST/NEB	rab pAb	1:2000
p38 MAPK (anti-phosphoT180/Y182)	38	CST/NEB	rab pAb	1:1000
PDI	57	Stressgen Biotech.	rab pAb	1:5000
Peroxioredoxin 2	29	Ewald Schroder	rab pAb	1:5000
Peroxioredoxin 6	25	Ewald Schroder	rab pAb	1:5000
Peroxioredoxin Kit (I-VI)	17-27	Lab Frontier	rab pAb	all 1:2000
Phospho-tyrosine, clone 4G10	N/A	UBI	mo mAb	1:5000
Prohibitin	30	LAB VISION	mo mAb	1:5000
Ran (Gor)	24	Gorlich Lab	rab pAb	1:20000
SAPK/JNK	54	CST/NEB	rab pAb	1:2000
SAPK/JNK( anti-phosphoT183/Y185)	54	CST/NEB	rab pAb	1:1000
TCP-1 beta	57	Stressgen Biotech.	rat mAb	1:5000

(Table 2-2) List of antibodies used in this thesis for the validation of differential protein expression analysis.

## 2.11 Quantitative determination of free thiols (Ellman's test)

Measurement of free thiols was determined using the Ellman test (Riddles et al., 1979) with minor modifications. Briefly, DTNB buffer was prepared by dissolving 40 mg of DTNB (5, 5'-dithiobis-2-nitrobenzoate) in 10 ml of 0.1 M sodium phosphate buffer (pH 8.0) i.e. 10 mM final concentration. 100  $\mu$ l of each freshly prepared sample were diluted with 2800  $\mu$ l of 0.1 M sodium phosphate buffer (pH 8.0) and 100  $\mu$ l of 10mM DTNB reagent added and left to incubate at RT in the dark for 15 min and then the absorbance

measured at 412 nm using a 1 cm cuvette in spectrophotometer CE-2041 (CECIL Co. ). For preparing a reference solution, 100  $\mu$ l of DTNB buffer was added to 2900  $\mu$ l of 0.1 M sodium phosphate buffer (pH 8.0) and the absorbance measured. The concentration of sulphydryl groups was calculated using the following equation;  $[SH] = [A_{412}(\text{sample}) - A_{412}(\text{reference})] / 13650$ .

## **2.12 Cell proliferation assay (MTT assay)**

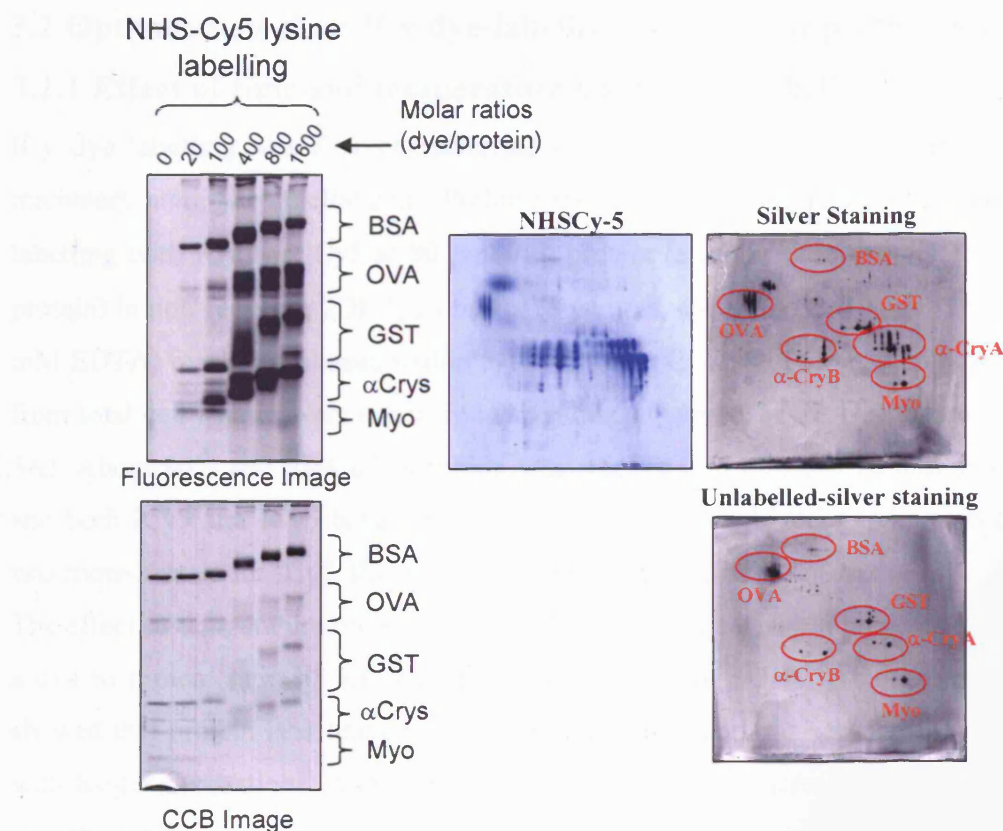
HB4a and C3.6 cells growing exponentially were chosen for trypsinisation and counted using a haemocytometer. Cells (200  $\mu$ l/well) were seeded into 96-well plates at  $2.5 \times 10^4$  and  $1 \times 10^4$  cells/ml for HB4a and C3.6, respectively, to control for the faster growth of the C3.6. The cultures were then incubated for 24 h before treated with 0.5 mM  $H_2O_2$  for 20, 60, 240, 480 and 720 min or left untreated. After removal of the medium, 50  $\mu$ l of MTT working solution (1 mg/ml) (Sigma) was added to the cells in each well, followed by a further incubation at 37 °C for 4 h. The supernatant was carefully removed, 100  $\mu$ L of DMSO was added to each well and the plates vibrated for 20 min. The absorbance of samples was then measured at a wavelength of 540 nm in multiplate reader (Molecular Devices) and data plotted using Excel (Microsoft Co.).

## **Chapter 3 OPTIMISATION AND CHARACTERISATION OF CYSTEINE LABELLING 2D-DIGE**

### **3.1 Introduction**

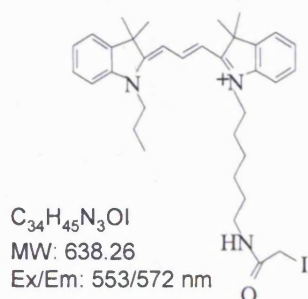
Global differential protein expression analysis is a powerful tool for defining protein changes between two or more cellular states and has been used to identify proteins involved in various diseases and cellular functions. Traditionally, 2DE has been used for large-scale protein separation and comparison of protein expression across different biological samples. In conventional 2DE, gel-separated features are visualised mainly using post-electrophoretic staining methods such as silver staining, coomassie blue staining or non-covalent fluorescent staining. However, many protein detection methods have problems such as poor linear dynamic range of detection (silver staining and coomassie blue staining), variable staining from gel to gel (silver stain) or are hazardous to use (metabolic radio isotope labelling). To overcome these problems, Unlu and co-workers described a novel strategy for differential protein expression analysis using covalent modification of protein lysine residues with fluorescent tags (Unlu *et al.*, 1997b). In their original study, this new approach allowed the direct comparison of two samples on the same 2D gel through differential labelling with spectrally distinct fluorescent dyes. This strategy produced directly superimposable images to facilitate comparison of spot intensities and eliminate gel-to-gel variation. Another advantage of this strategy was that these fluorescent tags have a broader linear dynamic range of detection that is superior to non-fluorescent protein detection methods such as silver staining or coomassie blue staining (Patton, 2000). Therefore, the use of these covalent fluorescent dyes should increase the sensitivity of detection, as well as allowing accurate quantification of low-abundance and high-abundance proteins in the same gel. This methodology was later commercialised by GE Healthcare as difference gel electrophoresis (DIGE) which was evaluated in two published studies (Tonge *et al.*, 2001; Gharbi *et al.*, 2002). This lysine labelling strategy uses three fluorescent dyes (NHS-Cy3, -Cy5 and -Cy2) to label experimental samples. A Cy2-labelled pool of all samples is typically used as an internal standard which is run on all gels for comparison with Cy3- and Cy5-labelled test sample pairs to facilitate cross-gel quantitative analysis.

This labelling strategy uses a low dye to protein stoichiometry (4 pmol dye/ $\mu$ g protein) to reduce alterations in electrophoretic mobility and to prevent losses due to sample insolubility. Figure 3-1 shows the heterogeneous labelling of standard proteins using NHS Cy dye lysine labelling at increasing dye to protein ratio. As more protein is labelled, multiple molecular weight isoforms appear, which would complicate 2D spot patterns. Thus, the sensitivity of the minimal labelling method is limited and has been reported to be lower than conventional silver staining (Tonge *et al.*, 2001; Patton *et al.*, 2002). Furthermore, as only approximately 4% of protein is labelled, the other 96% runs with a slightly higher mobility during SDS-PAGE (~500 Da). For low molecular weight proteins, this creates a problem for spot excision for MS analysis; therefore, post-staining and further spot matching between the fluorescent image and the post-stained image are required. To facilitate direct spot picking and to improve sensitivity, it would be preferable to label an alternative, less prevalent amino acid residue at higher stoichiometry. One such amino acid is cysteine, which has the chemistry amenable to chemical modification through reaction with its thiol group. Although fluorescent biotinylated or radiolabelled thiol alkylating reagents have been used in various studies, their potential as DIGE reagents had not yet been realized and so the primary goal of this project was to develop a 2D-DIGE strategy for optimal labelling of free thiol groups. Toward this goal, Dr. Piers Gaffney (Imperial College London) synthesized a pair of iodoacetylated derivatives of the fluorescent cyanine dyes, termed ICy3 and ICy5 (Figure 3-2 and see Appendix A). These dyes are spectrally distinct, but charge and size matched allowing specific fluorescence detection of differentially labelled, but co-migrating proteins on the same 2DE. Since the target of the ICy dyes is the thiol group of cysteine residues and because these alkylating reagents should not be able to label oxidized forms of the thiol group, these dyes also have potential use as probes to monitor changes in cysteine thiol oxidation in response to oxidative stress or growth factor induced ROS production. In this chapter, a description of the optimisation and characterisation of ICy cysteine labelling is presented. A workflow is established for further application in the examination of proteomic changes in a model system of ErbB-2 dependent breast cancer.

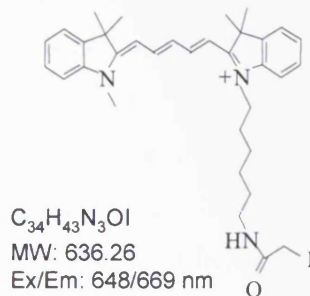


**(Figure 3-1) NHS-Cy dye labelling at increasing dye to protein ratios.** Labelling of a standard mixture of proteins at increasing molar ratios of NHS-Cy5 dye to standard proteins. An equimolar mixture (2 pmol each for 1DE; 200 pmol each for 2DE (dye to protein ratio 5 : 1)) of BSA, Ova, GST,  $\alpha$ -Crys A/B and Myo in 2D lysis buffer was labelled at the indicated molar ratios for 1 h on ice. Reactions were quenched with free lysine and proteins resolved by 12% 1DE (left panels) and 2DE (middle and right panels). Also the corresponding coomassie blue stained 1DE and the silver stained 2DE are shown in the bottom left and right panels, respectively.

**ICy3**



**ICy5**



**(Figure 3-2) Structure of the matched ICy3 and ICy5 iodoacetylated cyanine dyes.** Chemical formulas, molecular weights and excitation/emission wavelengths are shown. (The synthesis of these reagent is outlined in Appendix A).

## **3.2 Optimisation of an ICy dye-labelling strategy for proteomics**

### **3.2.1 Effect of time and temperature on ICy dye-labelling**

ICy dye labelling was first characterised on standard proteins and total lysates from mammary luminal epithelial cells. Preliminary 1D-SDS-PAGE experiments revealed that labelling with ICy3 or ICy5 at 80 pmol/μg protein (a molar ratio of ~5:1 for a 60 kDa protein) in non-reducing 2DE lysis buffer (8 M urea, 4% CHAPS, 10 mM Tris pH 8.3, 1 mM EDTA) reached a plateau within 5-10 min at 0 °C. Two of the ICy3/5 labelled bands from total cell lysates were quantified using ImageQuant 5.2 (GE Healthcare) (Figure 3-3A). About 80% and 95% of saturation was reached in 5 min and 10 min, respectively, and both ICy3 and ICy5 behaved with the same labelling kinetics. Although the signal was more intense for ICy5, these images were not normalised.

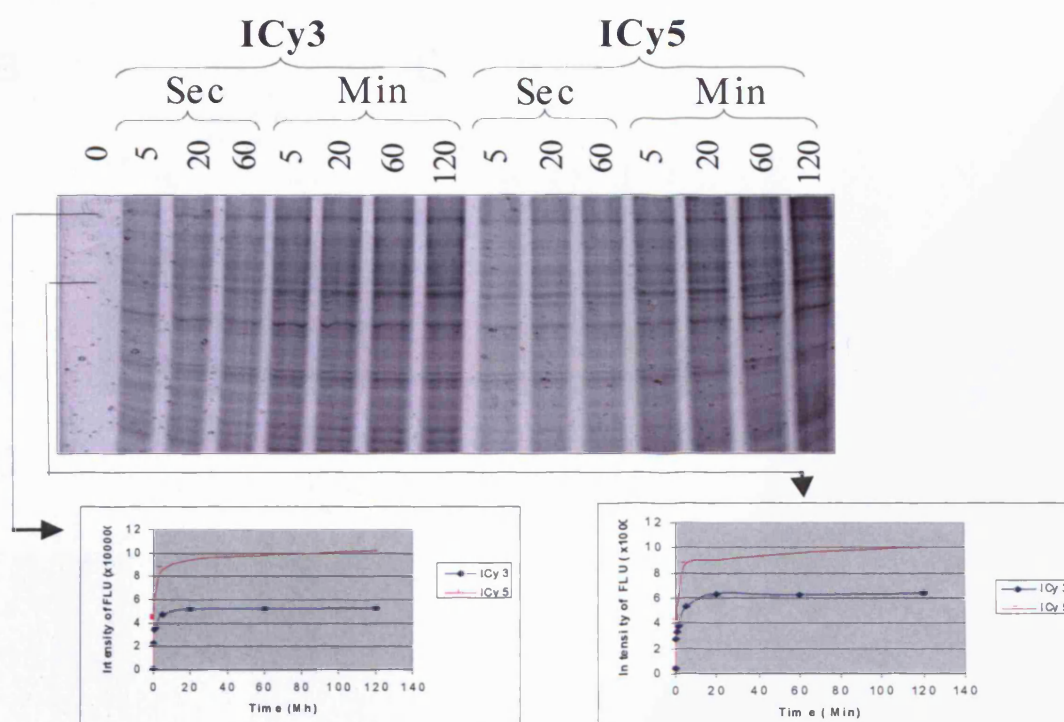
The effect of temperature on ICy dye labelling was investigated in total cell lysates using a dye to protein ratio of 5:1 over a timecourse (Figure 3-3B). This experiment again showed that protein labelling occurred within minutes, and did not increase significantly with longer incubations. Although incubation at 30°C did increase the overall labelling slightly, temperature appears not to be a major factor that can improve of labelling. Since lower temperatures are preferable to reduce potential side reactions (eg. carbamylation from the breakdown products of urea in the buffer), a temperature of 0°C was chosen for all future ICy-dye labelling experiments.

### **3.2.2 Effect of denaturants and reductants on ICy dye-labelling**

Denaturants are reagents that alter proteins by unfolding their tertiary structure. In an ICy dye labelling experiment, it is expected that overall labelling will be increased if proteins are first denatured. To test this, labelling was compared using 8 M urea/4% CHAPS as a denaturant versus 1% CHAPS alone (native) (Figure 3-3C). The result indicated that more intense labelling was achieved in buffers containing urea. In addition, a different pattern of bands was observed in the two conditions with fewer bands in the native labelling conditions. This experiment also shows that significant numbers of cellular proteins possess reduced thiols which can be detected under denatured and native conditions. This raises the possibility that the dyes could be used to probe for changes in thiol accessibility due to protein association and dissociation following a test stimulus in



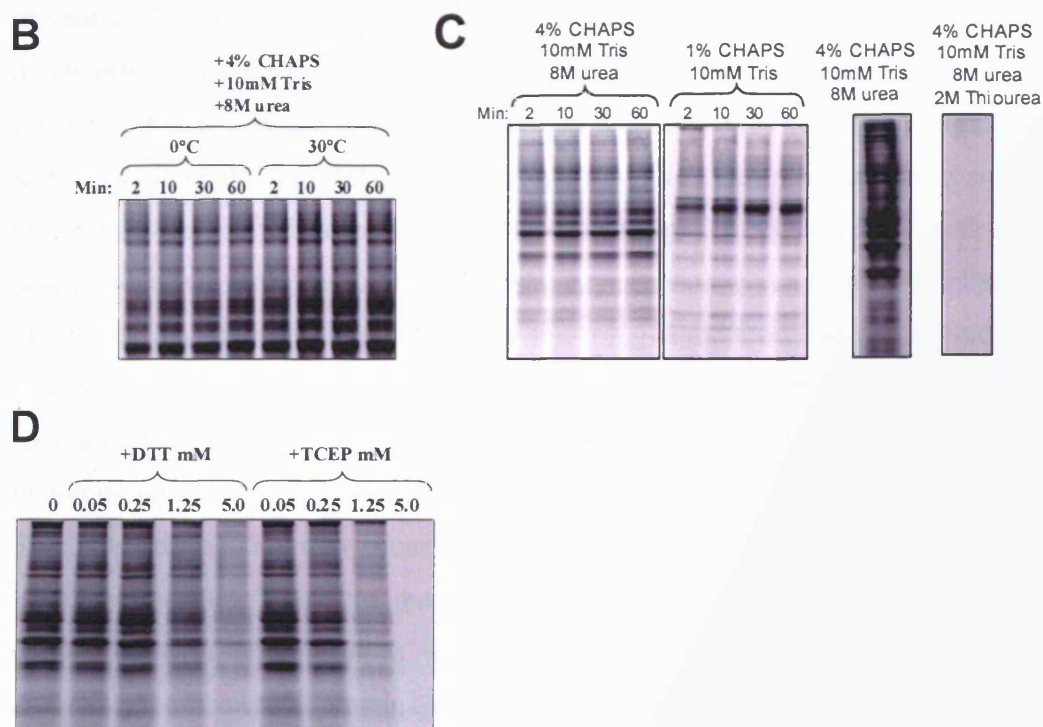
addition to monitoring protein level or thiol oxidation. Thiourea, another denaturant that has been used to improve protein solubility in 2DE experiments, significantly interfered with labelling efficiency (right panel of Figure 3-3C). This is likely to result from reaction of the ICy dye with thiourea, as reported for other alkylating agents (Galvani et al., 2001) and would decrease the amount of reactive ICy dye available for protein labelling.



**(Figure 3-3A) Optimisation of ICy dye protein labelling.** The kinetics of ICy dye labelling. HB4a cells were lysed in 4%CHAPS/10mM Tris(pH 8.3)/ 8M urea and then labelled with 80 pmol of ICy dye per  $\mu\text{g}$  of protein on ice for the indicated times. After quenching with 65mM DTT, 10  $\mu\text{g}$  of each ICy dye labelled lysate was loaded and analysed by 1DE and fluorescence imaging.

The effect of commonly used reductants on labelling was also investigated. The addition of reductants in 2DE samples is used to reduce disulphide bonds between peptide chains enabling the analysis of single peptide, but also to prevent the formation of mixed disulphide induced precipitation. However, the reductant will also compete with protein for ICy dye alkylation prior to labelling. Therefore, finding an optimal concentration of reductant is important in determining optimal labelling conditions. In the case of adding

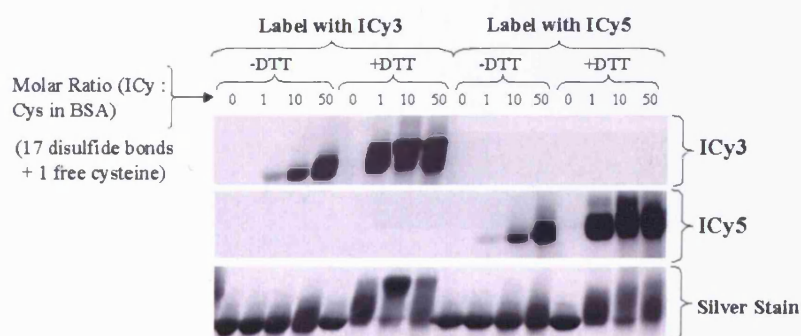
DTT to the labelling buffer, as expected the higher the concentration of DTT the lower the labelling efficiency between protein and ICy dye (Figure 3-3D). This phenomenon was found to be even worse in labelling buffer containing tris-carboxy ethyl phosphine (TCEP) and may be due to TCEP dramatically lowering the pH of the buffer thus inhibiting the labelling reaction. It is important to note that concentrations of reductants that do not significantly inhibit labelling are unlikely to fully reduce proteins in a cell lysate.



**(Figure 3-3B, C and D) Optimisation of ICy dye protein labelling.** **(B)** Effect of temperature on ICy dye labelling. Total cell lysates were prepared in 4%CHAPS/10mM Tris buffer (pH 8.3) containing 8M urea. An estimated dye to protein molar ratio of 5:1 (80 pmol dye/ $\mu$ g protein) was used for labelling at 0°C and 30°C over a time course. Proteins (10  $\mu$ g) were resolved by 12% 1DE and fluorescent images captured. **(C)** Comparison of denatured versus native labelling. HB4a cell lysates in 2D lysis buffer (left panel) with or without 2M thiourea (right panel) or in 1% CHAPS/10 mM Tris pH 8.3 (middle panel) were labelled with ICy3 at 80 pmol/ $\mu$ g for the indicated times, and quenched by addition of Laemmli sample buffer. Proteins (10  $\mu$ g) were resolved by 12% 1DE and fluorescent images captured. **(D)** Effect of reductants on ICy dye labelling. Total cell lysates in 4%CHAPS/10mM Tris (pH 8.3)/8M urea buffer were labelled with 80 pmol dye/ $\mu$ g protein for 1 hr at 0°C in the presence of the indicated concentrations of DTT or TCEP. Protein (10  $\mu$ g) was resolved by SDS-PAGE and labelling monitored by fluorescent imaging.

### 3.2.3 Effect of pre-reduction on ICy dye-labelling

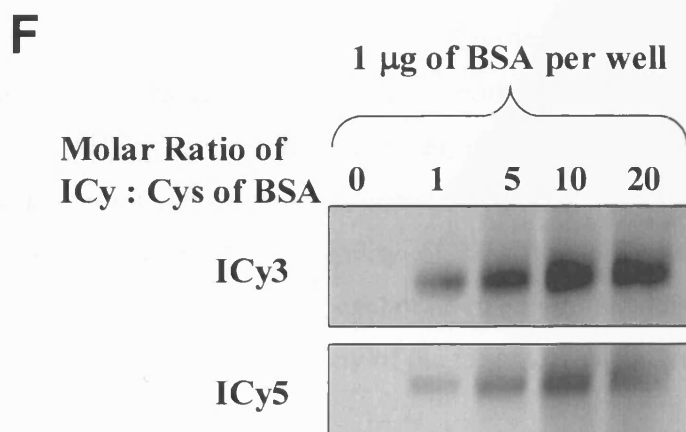
A previous study showed that saturated labelling of thiols with an alkylating reagent could be achieved by first reducing samples, and then removing the reductant prior to labelling (Smolka et al., 2001). Briefly, DTT was applied to reduce disulphide bonds and then the reduced protein was precipitated with cold ethanol, acetone and acetic acid to remove DTT prior to ICy dye labelling. This modified method was applied to a standard protein, BSA, which has one free thiol and 17 disulphides (Figure 3-3E). Reduced BSA protein could be highly labelled with dye even at low dye to cysteine ratios (1:1) and much better than the control without DTT at higher dye to cysteine ratios. The BSA protein shifted to a higher molecular weight as dye molecules became conjugated to it, as shown by silver staining. However, complete saturation was never achieved since not all the protein was shifted to the highest molecular weight. Also, protein recovery from the precipitation was variable among individual experiments which would be undesirable for 2D expression profiling. In addition, the smearing of the modified protein indicates that there is a heterogeneous mixture of dye-labelled species which would over-complicate spot patterns. Furthermore, precipitation of protein-dye complexes was also apparent at higher molar ratios of dye to cysteine which resulted in a loss of protein (lane 8, Figure 3-3E). This precipitation may occur as a result of the increased hydrophobicity of multiply labelled molecules. Therefore, pre-reduction of samples for ICy-dye labelling was not the chosen route in future studies where the dyes were optimized for redox proteomic analysis rather than total protein expression.



**(Figure 3-3E) Optimisation of ICy dye protein labelling.** Effect of pre-reduction on ICy3 and ICy5 dye labelling. The BSA standard was reduced with 65mM DTT, precipitated with EtOH/Acetone to remove DTT then resuspended in 4%CHAPS/10mM Tris (pH 8.3)/8M urea buffer and labelled with ICy dye at the indicated molar ratios of ICy3 or ICy5 to the number of cysteines in BSA, of which there are 35.

### 3.2.4 Optimisation of the dye to protein ratio for ICy dye-labelling

In order to apply the ICy dye technique in labelling, establishing an optimal molar ratio of dye to protein is crucial. To assess this, different molar ratios of ICy dye to BSA were used for the labelling reaction. The results (Figure 3-3F) together with previous data indicate that a molar ratio of dye to protein between 5:1 and 10:1 is optimal for "saturation" labelling of non-reduced BSA with either ICy3 or ICy5. As estimation of the free thiol content of cell lysates made using Ellman's reagent (see Appendix B) showed that there were ~6 mol/mol of free thiol/ protein in total cell lysates, a result made using the average molecular weight of a human protein which was then calculated to be 48 kDa, by averaging the predicted molecular weights of all known human sequences in the SwissProt/ TrEMBL & NCBI databases accessed using the international protein index (IPI) (calculated by Richard Jacob, LICR, UCL)(<http://www.ebi.ac.uk/IPI>). Thus, the ratio of dye to thiol used is roughly equal to 1. However, higher dye to protein ratios resulted in significant precipitation of labelled proteins. Therefore, a 5:1 ratio (i.e. ~80 pmol dye per  $\mu\text{g}$  of protein) was chosen for future labelling experiments.



**(Figure 3-3F) Optimisation of ICy dye protein labelling.** Saturation test of ICy3 and ICy5. Different molar ratios of ICy dyes to the number of cysteines on BSA were applied for the labelling reaction. A mixture of equal amounts of ICy3 and ICy5 labelled BSA (1  $\mu\text{g}$ ) of each was resolved by SDS-PAGE and fluorescence images captured.



### **3.3 Characterisation of ICy dye-labelling**

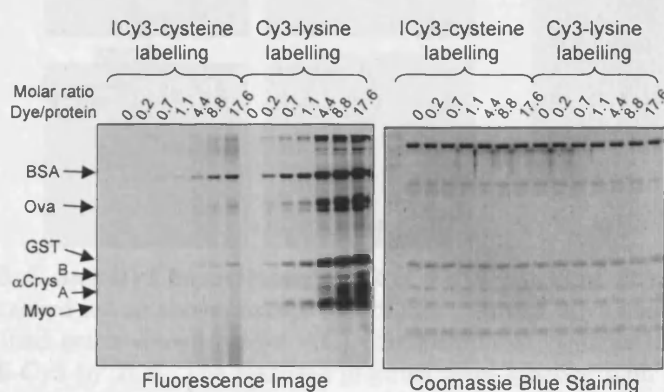
#### **3.3.1 Comparison of cysteine- and lysine-labelling of standard proteins**

Following the previous study to determine the optimal molar ratio of dye to protein for ICy dye labelling, additional standard proteins with different number of free cysteines and different molecular weights were selected to examine the efficiency of labelling and to compare this with the lysine labelling method using the NHS-Cy dyes. An equimolar mixture of standard proteins was prepared containing: BSA - 1 free thiol/17 disulphides; Ova - 4 free thiols/1 disulphide; GST - 4 free thiols;  $\alpha$ -Crys A chain - 1 free thiol;  $\alpha$ -Crys B chain - no thiols; and Myo - no thiols. The protein mixture was labelled at increasing dye to protein ratios in a non-reducing, 2DE ICy lysis buffer. Proteins containing free thiols were labelled with ICy dye, although  $\alpha$ -Crys A chain could only be seen at extended scan time (Figure 3-4A). However, the fluorescence intensities varied between proteins. For example, GST with 4 free thiols was detected at higher intensity than Ova, also with 4 free thiols, whilst BSA with one free thiol was labelled to the greatest extent. Since these samples were denatured in 8 M urea, this data suggests that free cysteine thiols have variable reactivity for the dyes or that these samples are already partially oxidised. In support of this, an Ellman's test was performed (see Appendix B), which indicated that BSA contains 0.61 mol/mol free thiol/protein, ovalbumin 1.67 mol/mol and  $\alpha$ -Cryst 0.53 mol/mol. Although this does suggest partial oxidation, it cannot account for the differences in labelling between the standards, indicating that free cysteine thiols do indeed have variable reactivity for the dyes even in 8 M urea. Although alkylation should be specific for thiol groups, the possibility of labelling on reactive lysine groups, particularly at higher dye concentrations, cannot be ruled out. In addition, it appeared that saturation labelling was not reached for any of the targets, even at dye to protein ratios of 1600:1 (Figure 3-4B).

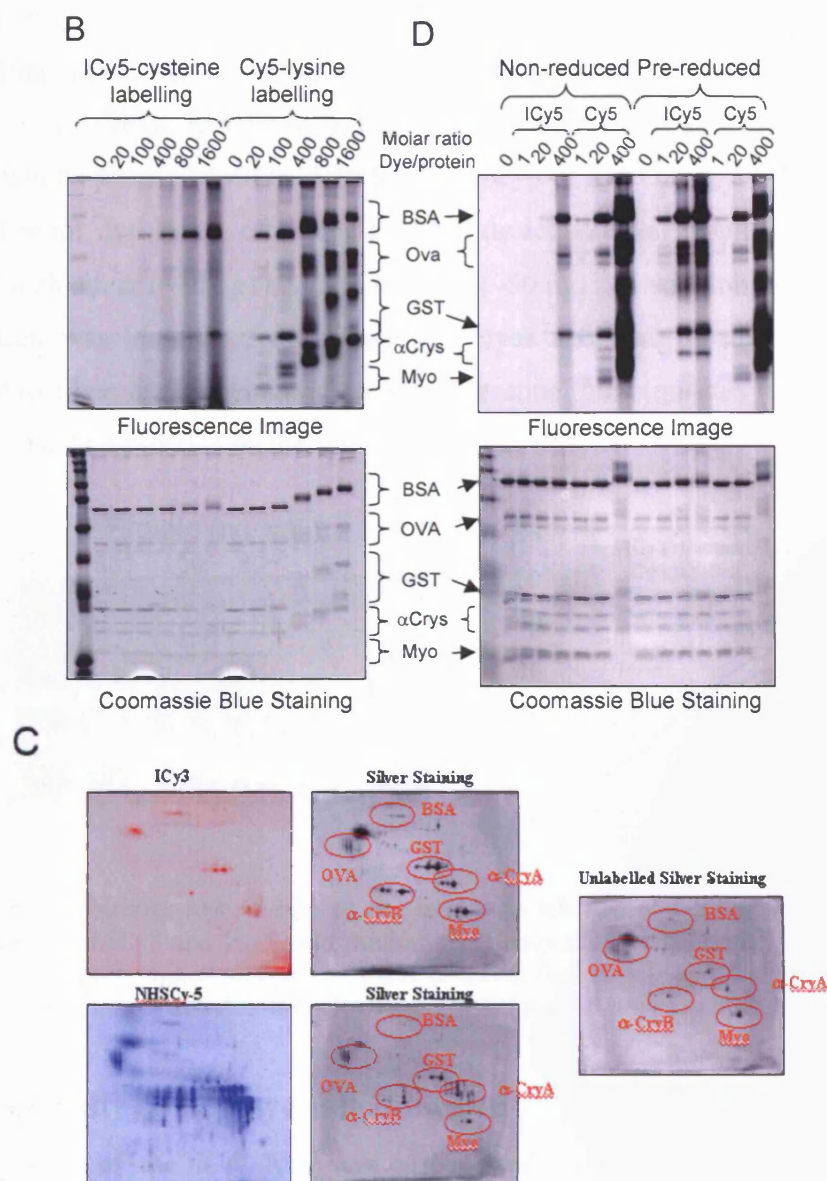
Under these non-reduced conditions, lysine labelling was more sensitive than cysteine labelling, but resulted in significant and heterogeneous molecular weight increases to all proteins (at ratios >5:1), presumably as more dye molecules react with the greater number of lysines on each protein (Figure 3-4A and B). 2DE gel analysis of the samples labelled at ratios of 5:1 generated a higher isoform complexity of lysine- versus cysteine-labelled proteins (Figure 3-4C). For example, unlabelled and cysteine-labelled  $\alpha$ -Crys A chain

ran as 3 isoforms on 2DEs, whereas at least 12 lysine-labelled isoforms were detected. These results obviously reflect the relative numbers of lysine and cysteine residues in target proteins, but indicate the advantage of stoichiometric cysteine labelling, which for most proteins would generate only a minimal number of labelled isoforms. Despite the charge on ICy dyes, there was no apparent shift in pI when comparing dye-labelled and unlabelled standards. Importantly, there was significant protein precipitation at higher dye to protein ratios using both labelling strategies, evidenced by higher MW precipitation in the gels. For this reason, an optimal dye to protein ratio of 5 to 1 was used for further 2D-DIGE optimisation to avoid unwanted protein loss, but to still provide a reasonable level of sensitivity for the detection of free thiol-containing proteins.

Labelling was also examined after pre-reduction of disulphide bonds with DTT, which was removed by acetone precipitation and resuspension of proteins prior to labelling. For these reduced samples, ICy labelling became more extensive as free thiols were made available for labelling and as expected these alternations did not affect lysine-labelling (Figure 3-4D). The data also indicated that GST and  $\alpha$ -Crys A chain may indeed be partially oxidised, since they were detected at higher sensitivity after reduction, despite containing free thiols only. Heterogeneous labelling was apparent and protein recovery from the precipitation was variable, and so only the analysis of free thiol-containing proteins was pursued.



**(Figure 3-4A) Characterisation of ICy dye labelling.** Labelling of a standard mixture of proteins at increasing molar ratios of ICy3 or NHS-Cy3 to protein. An equimolar mixture (2 pmol each) of BSA, Ova, GST,  $\alpha$ -Crys A/B and Myo in 2D lysis buffer was labelled at the indicated molar ratios for 1 h on ice. Reactions were quenched with DTT for ICy dye or free lysine for NHS-Cy dye and proteins resolved by 12% 1DE after addition of Laemmli sample buffer containing  $\beta$ -mercaptoethanol. The resulting fluorescent image is shown in the left panel and the corresponding colloidal coomassie blue stained gel is shown in right panel.

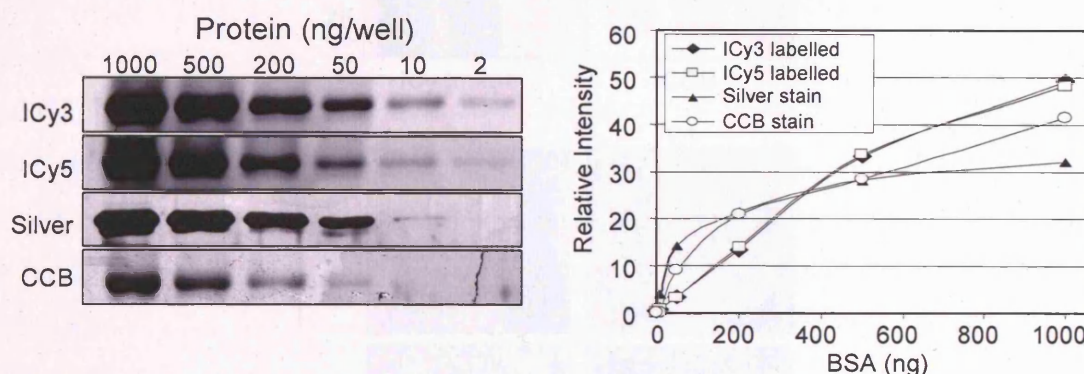


**(Figure 3-4 B, C and D) Characterisation of ICy dye labelling.** **(B)** Labelling of the standard mixture was carried out as above, except that higher ratios of ICy5 and NHS-Cy5 were used. A CCB post-stained gel is shown below. **(C)** Comparison of cysteine labelling ICy-3 and lysine labelling NHS-Cy5 by 2DE. The standard proteins were labelled with a 5-fold molar excess of ICy3 or NHS-Cy5 without reductant and were resolved on pH 3-10, 12% 2D gels. Unlabelled sample was also run for comparison, and gels were post-stained with silver to visualise proteins. **(D)** Effect of pre-reduction on ICy and NHS-Cy dye labelling. The standards were labelled with ICy5 or NHS-Cy5 at the indicated dye:protein ratios without reductant, or after reduction with 65 mM DTT. DTT was removed prior to labelling by acetone precipitation of proteins and resuspend in 2D lysis buffer. A CCB post-stained gel is shown below.



### 3.3.2 Sensitivity of ICy dye-labelling

The sensitivity of ICy labelling of BSA was next compared with MS-compatible silver staining (Shevchenko *et al.*, 1996) and colloidal Coomassie blue G-250 (CCB) staining (Neuhoff *et al.*, 1988). Results in Figure 3-5 show that as little as 2 ng of this single free thiol-containing protein could be detected with ICy3 or ICy5 using a 5:1 molar excess of dye (~80 pmol dye to  $\mu\text{g}$  of protein). This detection level result is better than that achieved with silver (~10 ng) or CCB staining (~50 ng). In addition, the dynamic range of detection was identical for the two ICy dyes and was broader and more linear compared to silver or CCB staining; these are essential pre-requisites for quantifying low and high abundant proteins on the same 2D-DIGE gels.



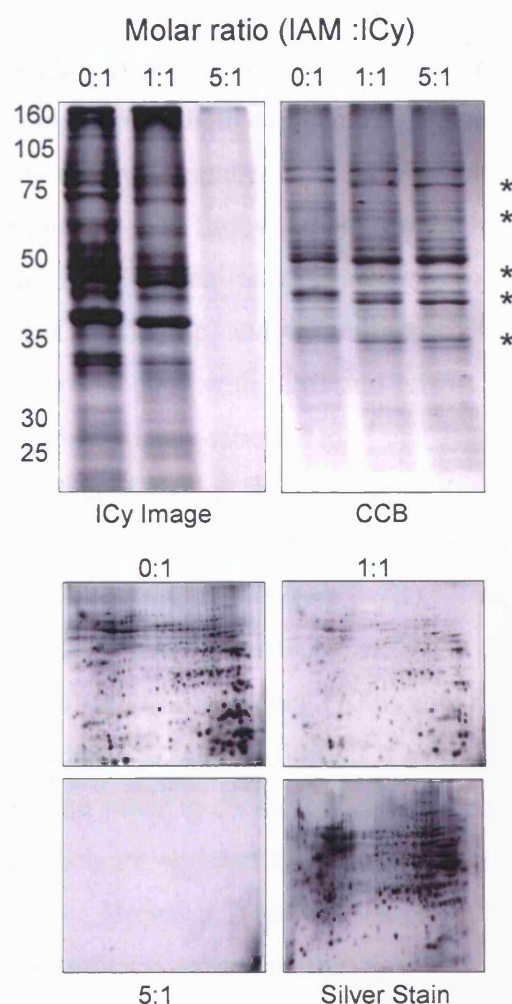
(Figure 3-5) Sensitivity test of ICy dyes. BSA was labelled at a 5:1 molar ratio (~80 pmol dye/ $\mu\text{g}$  protein) of ICy3 and ICy5, and the indicated amounts of labelled BSA resolved on a 1D gel. Gels were post-stained with either CCB or silver (left panel) and relative band intensities from fluorescent images and densitometry were plotted against protein amounts (right panel).

### 3.3.3 Specificity of ICy dye-labelling

The specificity of the ICy dyes was also tested by competition experiments using iodoacetamide (IAM). Non-reduced lysates from a human epithelial cell line were treated with 80 and 400 pmol IAM per  $\mu\text{g}$  protein or left untreated, and then labelled with ICy dye at 80 pmols/ $\mu\text{g}$  protein. Proteins were resolved by 1DE and 2DE and fluorescence images compared (Figure 3-6). As expected, the results show that IAM is an effective competitor for reagent in ICy-labelling, since no protein labelling could be detected when a 5-fold molar excess of IAM was used. Given the known reactivity of IAM for thiol groups, this shows that the ICy dyes specifically react with reduced protein



thiols. Moreover, this is supported by the previous data showing that DTT effectively inhibits protein labelling when present in the labelling mixture.

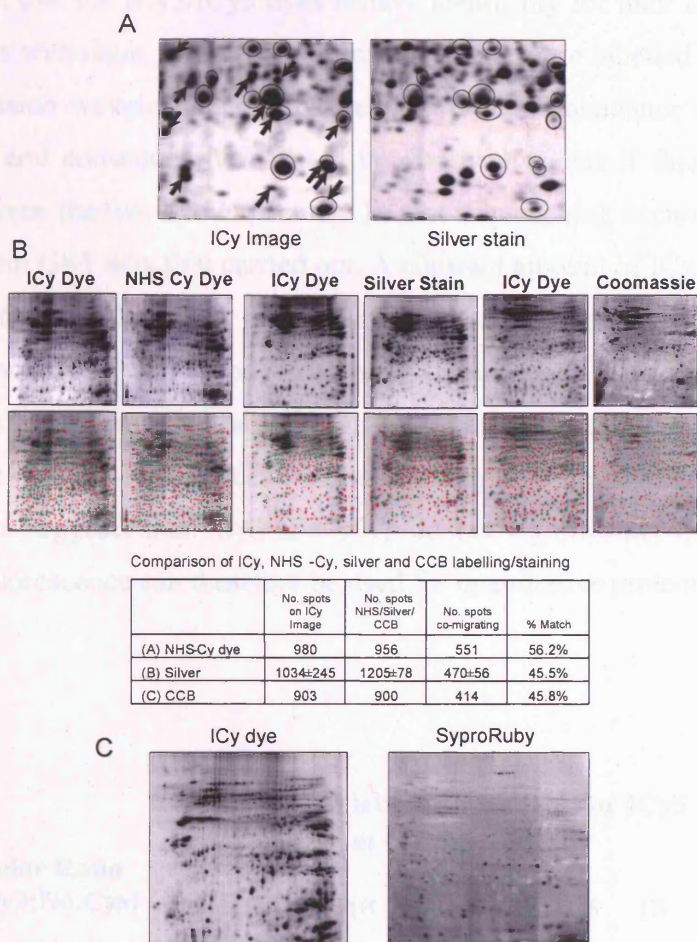


**(Figure 3-6) Specificity of labelling assessed by competition with IAM.** Total cell lysate (HB4a) was pre-treated with IAM at 0, 80 and 400 pmol/ $\mu$ g, and then labelled with 80 pmol/ $\mu$ g of ICy3 or ICy5. Samples were separated by 1DE (10  $\mu$ g; upper panel) and 2DE (50  $\mu$ g; lower panel), and fluorescent images captured at the same PMT voltage. Gels were post-stained with CCB and silver, respectively. The “\*” symbols indicate significant shifts in protein mobility after ICy dye labelling.

### **3.3.4 Co-migration of ICy dye-labelled proteins with NHS dye-labelled, colloidal coomassie blue and silver-stained proteins in 2D gels**

Comparison of 2-D ICy images of cell lysates with the composite silver-stained images showed that a significant number of protein features were detected at a higher sensitivity with fluorescence ICy-labelling than with silver staining (Figure 3-7A). Whilst the total number of spots detected was similar, a number of spots labelled with the dye pair did not comigrate. To explore this phenomenon further and to test the labelling properties of the ICy dyes for 2D-DIGE application, a detailed 2DE analysis was carried out comparing ICy dye labelling with NHS-Cy labelling, and with silver, CCB and Sypro Ruby post-staining. Total cell lysates were labelled with ICy3 and NHS-Cy5 and separated on the same 2D gel. In addition, replicated ICy-labelled total cell lysate samples were run on gels and post-stained with silver, CCB or Sypro Ruby. Spots were matched across images using Melanie software. The matched spots were marked with green tags and the unmatched ones were labelled with red tags (figure 3-7B). This analysis revealed that similar numbers of protein features could be detected with ICy dyes (903-1034 spots) as with NHS lysine labelling (956) and CCB-staining (900); with silver staining performing slightly better ( $1205 \pm 78$ ). Interestingly, only ~50% of ICy-labelled features co-migrated with features detected using the other methods. This difference is partly attributed to proteins lacking free thiols which are revealed by the other staining/labelling methods or proteins that silver-stain poorly. However, since the total number of detected spots was similar, it is likely that a significant subset of proteins with reactive thiols are only detectable by ICy labelling (as implied from Figure 3-7A) which indicates an important advantage in sensitivity for detection of free thiol containing proteins by this method. However, there is a further level of complexity in that the ICy dyes are positively charged, such that labelled proteins may shift to more basic pIs. In contrast, if saturation labelling could be reached, all of the labelled protein should shift to their maximum pIs without heterogenous charge chains but this is probably not the case. It is noteworthy that SyproRuby post-staining yielded poor images and intense ICy-labelled features appeared as 'inverse spots' on a high background (Figure 3-7C). Thus, ICy dye labelling appears to interfere with SyproRuby staining, despite the fact that these reagents interact with different protein residues (cysteine residues in the case of the ICy dyes, but lysine and

arginine residues in the case of SyproRuby). A possible explanation for this interference may be that the ICy dye fluorescence may quench the SyproRuby signal.

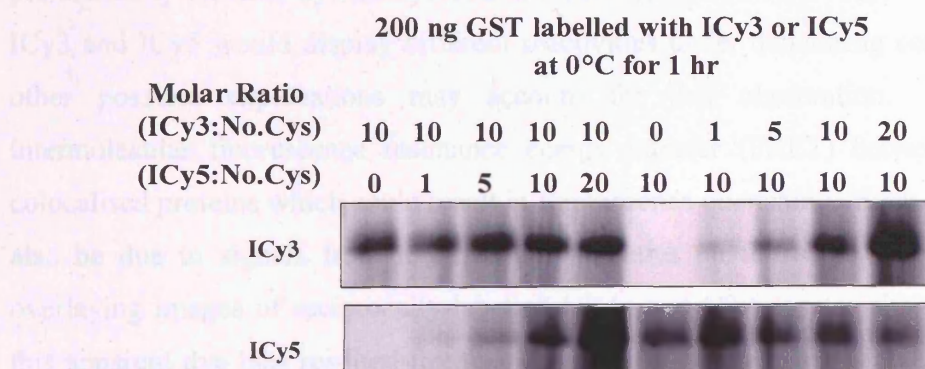


**(Figure 3-7) Comparison of co-migrating spot-intensities.** (A) HB4a cell lysate (200  $\mu$ g) was labelled with 16 nmol of ICy3 (80 pmol/ $\mu$ g) and separated by 2DE and the gel post-stained with silver for comparison of spot migration. ‘Landmark’ features are circled and arrows indicate features detected with higher intensity by ICy labelling. (B) Comparative 2DE analysis of ICy and NHS-Cy labelling, silver and CCB. HB4a cell lysates (200  $\mu$ g) were labelled with ICy3 and NHS-Cy5 in the ratios of 80 pmol/ $\mu$ g and 4 pmol/ $\mu$ g respectively, and then separated on the same 2D gel. Replicate ICy-labelled samples were also resolved by 2DE and subsequently post-stained with silver or CCB. Images were analysed with Melanie IV software and gel spots matched to the corresponding NHS-Cy-labelled or silver-stained or CCB-stained spots on each gel (marked with green tags). In contrast, the unmatched ones were marked with red tags. Total numbers of spots were taken for each detection method, and the number of co-migrating spots and the % match calculated. The ICy3-silver stained pair was repeated three times and average spot numbers  $\pm$  the standard deviations are shown. All of the “thumbnail” images in (B) are presented in Appendix H as enlarged images. (C) Images of the ICy dye and SyproRuby post-stained gel are shown.



### 3.3.5 Examination of differential labelling and dye bias

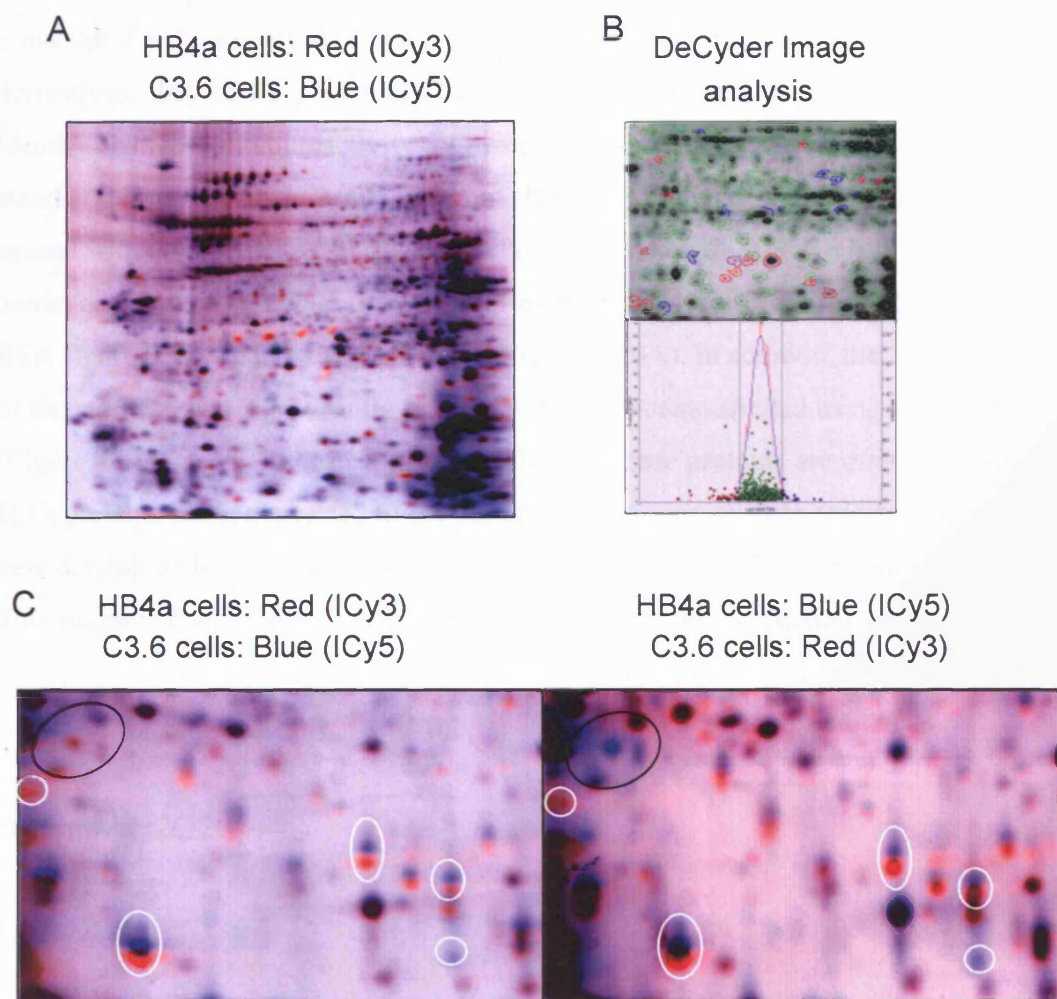
It is important that the ICy3/ICy5 dyes behave identically for their optimised use in 2D-DIGE. In this technique, two different protein samples are labelled with dyes that have different emission wavelengths, so that relative protein abundance can be compared in the same gel and consequently it would be disadvantageous if fluorescence quenching occurred between the two dye molecules. To test if quenching occurs, dual labelling of a standard protein GST was first carried out. A constant amount of ICy3 labelled GST (dye to protein ratio of 10:1) was mixed with the same amount of GST labelled with increasing amounts of ICy5 and *vice versa* (Figure 3-8). The results show that the fluorescence signal from ICy3 labelled GST was not significantly affected by increasing the proportion of ICy5-labelled GST in the labelling mixture. The reverse was also true. This data thus suggests that ICy3 and ICy5 do not significantly quench one another's signals and fluorescence can therefore be used for quantitative proteomic analysis.



**(Figure 3-8) Quench test between ICy3 and ICy5.** A constant amount of ICy3 labelled GST (dye to protein ratio of 10:1) was mixed with the same amount of GST labelled with increasing amounts of ICy5. The reciprocal labelling experiment was also performed

### 3.3.6 Preferential labelling by ICy3 and ICy5

Having established conditions for 2DE labelling, the performance of the ICy dyes for 2D-DIGE experiments was next assessed. Initially, a comparison was made of ICy3-labelled lysates of HB4a, an immortalised human mammary luminal epithelial cell line, with ICy5-labelled lysates from the C3.6 cell line, which is an ErbB-2 overexpressing derivative of HB4a (Figure 3-9A). Many high-intensity ICy-labelled protein features were detected (700-800 spots) indicating that a significant number of cellular proteins and isoforms possess reduced, reactive thiols in these exponentially growing epithelial cells. Some charge trains were also observed at higher MWs. Since the ICy dyes are positively charged, these basic shift charge trains may reflect partial labelling of proteins with multiple reactive thiols. Importantly, clear differences in the expression of some proteins indicating ErbB-2 dependent expression changes were apparent between the cell lines (see Chapter 4). To test and control for differences in labelling by ICy3 and ICy5, lysate from the same cells (HB4a) was labelled with ICy3 and ICy5 and the mixed samples separated by 2DE. Image comparison, using DeCyder software, suggested that a small subset of proteins (8% over a 1.5-fold threshold; 1% over a 2-fold threshold) were preferentially labelled by one dye over the other (Figure 3-9B). Since it is unlikely that ICy3 and ICy5 would display different reactivities under denaturing conditions, several other possible explanations may account for this observation. These include intermolecular fluorescence resonance energy transfer (FRET) between the dyes on colocalised proteins which could result in fluorescence quenching. Such quenching could also be due to signals from multiple dye moieties on the same molecule. However, overlaying images of reciprocally-labelled HB4a and C3.6 lysates showed that most of this apparent dye bias resulted from separation of ICy3- and ICy5-labelled proteins into doublets (specifically in the 25-30 kDa range), with the ICy3-labelled proteins migrating faster than those labelled with ICy5 (Figure 3-9C). Although this apparent dye bias would be problematic for 2D-DIGE analysis, it is important to note that in further 2D-DIGE experiments (Chapters 4, 5 and 6), these "false" differences will be automatically filtered out by labelling test samples with the same ICy dye and running them against a standard pool of all samples labelled with the other dye, as used for the NHS-Cy dyes (Gharbi *et al.*, 2002; Alban *et al.*, 2003).

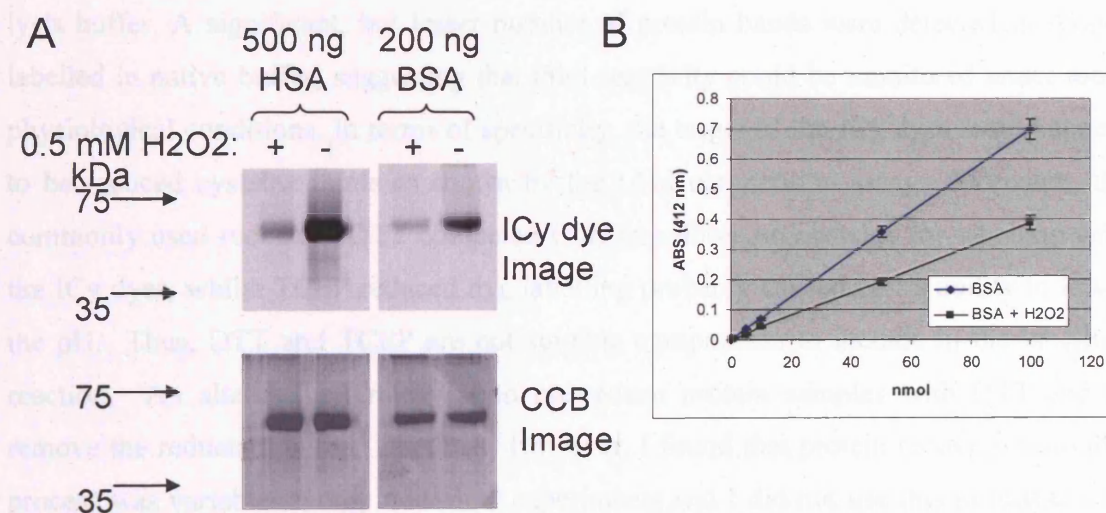


**(Figure 3-9) Differential ICy3 and ICy5 labelling.** (A) HB4a and C3.6 cell lysates were labelled with ICy3 and ICy5, respectively. The samples were mixed and resolved by 2DE. Images were captured at the appropriate excitation and emission wavelengths and pseudo-coloured (HB4a in red; C3.6 in blue) and overlaid in Adobe Photoshop. (B) Analysis of preferential ICy dye labelling. The same lysate was labelled with ICy3 and ICy5 and the sample were mixed and resolved by 2DE and analysed using DeCyder DIA software with a 1.5 fold cut-off applied for changes in abundance. A section of the image and spot statistics are shown. Green denotes no significant difference between co-migrating spots, whilst blue and red denote increased and decreased intensity, respectively, above the threshold. (C) Dye bias and spot splitting revealed by reciprocal labelling. HB4a and C3.6 lysates were reciprocally labelled with ICy3 and ICy5, mixed appropriately and resolved by 2DE. Images were captured, pseudo-coloured and overlaid in Adobe Photoshop for comparison. Black-circled spots represent real differences between HB4a and C3.6 cells whilst white-circled spots indicate dye bias and spot splitting in the 25-30 kDa range of the gels.



### 3.3.7 Initial investigation of the effects of oxidation on ICy dye labelling

Since the ICy dyes specifically label reduced cysteinyl thiol groups and not their oxidised derivatives, they could potentially be used in redox proteomic studies, for example to identify changes in thiol reactivity following oxidative stress. To test this application, the standard proteins, human serum albumin (HSA) and bovine serum albumin (BSA) were treated with 0.5 mM  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$  for 20 min and then labelled with ICy dye and compared to the untreated labelled proteins. The results demonstrated that  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$  treatment of HSA or BSA significantly reduces ICy labelling (Figure 3-10A). In addition, the free thiol content of treated BSA was significantly reduced (~50%) as demonstrated using the Ellman's test (Figure 3-10B). This indicates that free thiols on these proteins are directly modified by  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$  perhaps being converted to the sulfenic, sulfinic or sulfonic acid forms, or forming new disulphide bonds that prevent efficient reaction of ICy dye with the target proteins. This suggests that the ICy dyes can be used to monitor thiol-oxidation status.



**(Figure 3-10) Effect of  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$  on thiol reactivity of standard proteins.** (A) The indicated amount of standard proteins (HSA and BSA) in urea lysis buffer were treated with 0.5mM  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$  for 20 min or left untreated. Samples were labelled with ICy dye, resolved by 1DE, detected by fluorescence scanning and post-stained with CCB. (B) Ellman's test of thiol content. The indicated amounts of BSA or 0.5mM  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$ -treated BSA in 2.9 ml of 0.1 M sodium phosphate buffer (pH 8.0) were prepared and 100  $\mu\text{l}$  of 0.01 M DTNB (Ellman's reagent) in sodium phosphate buffer added. The mixture were left to stand in the dark for 15 min and then the absorbance measured at 412 nm

### 3.4 Conclusions

The goal of this project was to develop an alternative fluorescent labelling strategy to improve on the existing 2D-DIGE expression profiling technology. Thus instead of labelling lysine residues at low stoichiometry, the target was to label cysteine thiols at higher stoichiometry to improve sensitivity without adversely affecting protein solubility or migration behaviour in 2DEs. In addition, it was assessed whether these dyes could be used to probe for inducible changes in the reactivity of protein thiols, allowing one to monitor redox modification events such as disulphide bond formation/breakage, glutathionylation, S-nitrosylation or oxidation to the sulphenic (RSOH), sulphinic (RSO<sub>2</sub>H) and sulphonic (RSO<sub>3</sub>H) acids and to investigate changes in thiol accessibility in native samples caused by protein association or dissociation.

In this chapter, I present a description of the optimisation and characterisation of cysteine labelling using the ICy dyes. It was shown that ICy3/5 labelling of protein lysate was rapid and that saturation was reached within 5-10 min in non-reducing, denaturing 2DE lysis buffer. A significant, but lesser number of protein bands were detected in lysates labelled in native buffer, suggesting that thiol reactivity could be monitored under more physiological conditions. In terms of specificity, the target of the ICy dyes would appear to be reduced cysteine thiols as shown by the IAM competition assay. Moreover, the commonly used reductant DTT competed with free thiols on proteins for labelling with the ICy dyes, whilst TCEP reduced dye labelling probably caused by its ability to lower the pH. Thus, DTT and TCEP are not suitable components to include in the labelling reaction. An alternative strategy is to pre-reduce protein samples with DTT and to remove the reductant before labelling. However, I found that protein recovery from this process was variable among individual experiments and I did not use this in further 2D-DIGE experiments. I found that ICy dye labelling could detect as low as 2 ng or less of BSA protein using a 5:1 molar excess of dye to protein which was better than the silver (~10 ng) or CCB (~20 ng) detection methods. In addition, the dynamic range of detection of the ICy dyes was broader and more linear compared to silver and CCB staining and was identical for the two ICy dyes; these were essential pre-requisites for quantifying low and high abundant proteins on the same 2DE. As for dye to protein ratio in labelling, 80 pmol of dye per µg of total cell lysate which was chosen for 2D-DIGE



experiments gave a reasonably high sensitivity of labelling without compromising sample solubility or resulting in heterogeneous labelling and formation of over-complex spot patterns.

Comparison of 2DE ICy images of cell lysates with the composite silver-stained images also revealed that a significant number of protein features could be detected with higher sensitivity using ICy-labelling. Co-migration of ICy labelled spots with silver-stained or CCB-stained spots were 45.5% and 45.8%, respectively. Although some proteins may not stain well with silver or CCB and some proteins do not contain free thiols, the data suggest detect thiol-containing proteins at higher sensitivity than with silver and CCB stains. In addition, I showed that many cellular proteins in epithelial cells possess reduced thiols under exponential growth conditions. My study of the reproducibility of labelling with ICy3 versus ICy5 showed that a small percentage of protein features displayed apparent dye bias when the same sample was labelled with ICy3 and ICy5. This was mostly due to splitting of some spots in the 25-30 kDa region, with the ICy3-labelled pool migrating faster in the pair (Figure 3-9C). This effect could be caused by slightly different affinities of SDS for the Cy3 and Cy5 labelled moieties on the protein, thereby affecting their migration in gels. Although a potential problem, this apparent dye bias was overcome when test samples were labelled with one dye and compared to a reference sample labelled with the other dye as in the procedure used for the NHS Cy dyes (Gharbi *et al.*, 2002; Alban *et al.*, 2003).

In summary, the results in this chapter demonstrate the conditions and the properties of using ICy dyes for protein labelling and expression profiling in 2D-DIGE. The application of the cysteine labelling 2D-DIGE technique for analysis of redox regulation and growth factor stimulation of HB4a and C3.6 cells and UV irradiation-induced thiol changes in plasma samples are discussed in the following Chapters.

## **Chapter 4 CYSTEINE LABELLING 2D-DIGE TO PROBE FOR CELLULAR TARGETS OF OXIDATION**

### **4.1 Introduction**

The iodoacetylated Cy dyes whose utility for 2D-DIGE was described in the previous chapters react with the reduced thiol groups on proteins which can be the targets for oxidation by ROS. These modifications have been shown to be biologically important (see introduction) and their study is relevant to current proteomics in biomedical research. Since the ICy dyes do not react with the oxidised forms of the thiol groups, these reagents should be useful as probes for experiments designed to accurately monitor changes in cysteine oxidation and for the identification of cellular targets of oxidation in response to oxidative stress or growth factor-induced ROS production. This use of the ICy dye 2D-DIGE strategy to study this area of biology is a major aim of this thesis.

In the previous Chapter, the characterisation and optimisation of cysteine labelling using ICy3/5 dyes was reported (Chapter 3). However, its real usefulness as a proteomic technique needed to be tested in a biological context. Thus, ICy dye 2D-DIGE cysteine labelling was used to probe protein targets of oxidative stress following H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> treatment of human mammary luminal epithelial cells. This study was also designed to investigate the effects of overexpression of the oncogenic receptor tyrosine kinase ErbB-2 on the stress response, and also to allow the simultaneous assessment of basal proteomic changes which are caused by ErbB-2 overexpression. This analysis was carried out by 2D-DIGE comparison of a parental breast luminal epithelial cell line HB4a and an ErbB-2 overexpressing derivative, C3.6 (detailed in Chapter 1) in the absence and presence of exogenous H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>. It was expected that changes in labelling would be caused either by differential protein expression or from the conversion of reactive thiol groups to higher oxidative states that cannot react with the ICy dyes. The identities of differentially labelled proteins were then determined by MALDI-TOF-MS and peptide mass fingerprinting of excised and trypsinised gel pieces. Furthermore, the biochemical changes of some of the identified proteins were validated by 1D and 2D immunoblotting.

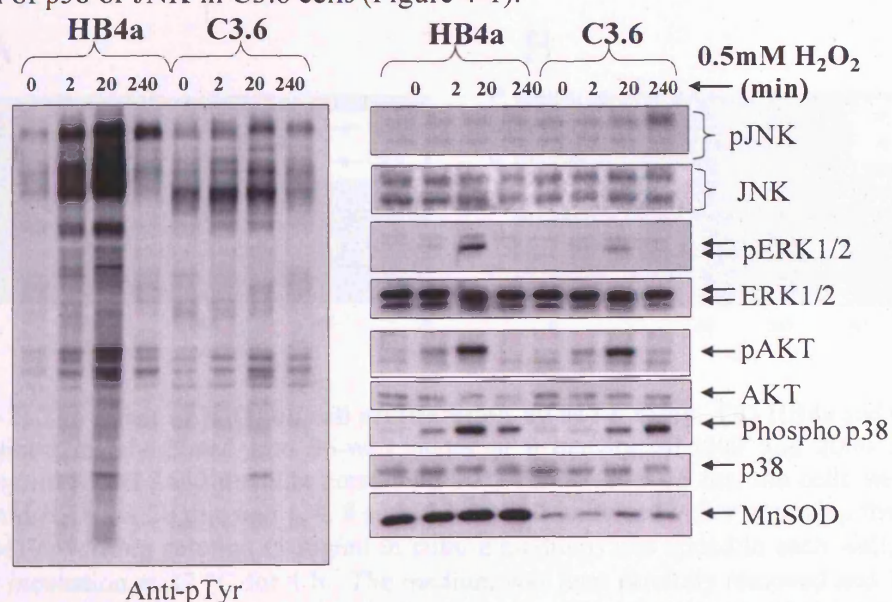
## **4.2 The effect of H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> treatment on HB4a and C3.6 cells**

As H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> is a major form of ROS in cells (Rhee et al., 2003), it was chosen here as a model ROS to treat HB4a and C3.6 cells and to investigate changes in protein expression, thiol oxidation and intracellular signalling. First of all, treatment conditions were determined that would induce an oxidative stress response in HB4a and C3.6 cells following hydrogen peroxide treatment. According to some signalling studies which have used H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> treatment of human or epithelial cells, a concentration range between 0.1 mM and 1 mM H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> was used to elicit a cellular response (Nishida et al., 2000; Kim et al., 2002; Fratelli et al., 2002; Barnouin et al., 2002; Zhang et al., 2003; Garg and Chang, 2003; Kim et al., 2003a; Kim et al., 2003b; Pelaia et al., 2004; Young et al., 2004). Initially, HB4a or C3.6 cells were treated with high concentrations of hydrogen peroxide (10 mM) which lead to rapid cell death with most the cells detaching from the substratum after 20 minutes. In contrast, low concentrations of hydrogen peroxide (10 µM) did not stimulate a significant cellular response (such as Akt, p38, JNK stimulations) for the phosphorylated and activated forms of these signalling kinases (data not shown). A concentration of 0.5 mM H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> was therefore chosen and was found to stimulate cellular signalling without causing immediate cell death.

Immunoblotting was used to monitor protein tyrosine phosphorylation, since this protein modification has been reported to be affected by ROS due to inhibition of phosphotyrosine phosphatases. In agreement with previous work in other cell systems, H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> produced a robust, but transient increase in total tyrosine phosphorylation (Figure 4-1). Interestingly, more proteins were tyrosine phosphorylated to a greater degree in the HB4a cells than in C3.6 cells, suggesting that ErbB-2 can affect this response. The stress-activated protein kinase, p38, was found to be more rapidly activated after hydrogen peroxide treatment of HB4a cells than of C3.6 cells, whilst H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>-induced JNK activation was only apparent in the C3.6 cells at longer times. In addition, both the ERK and PI3K pathways were activated, with ERK1/2 activation being more intense in the HB4a cells and Akt activation similar in both cell types (Figure 4-1). Interestingly, MnSOD, which generates cellular hydrogen peroxide from superperoxide, exhibited lower expression in the C3.6 cells. Together these observations indicate that ErbB-2

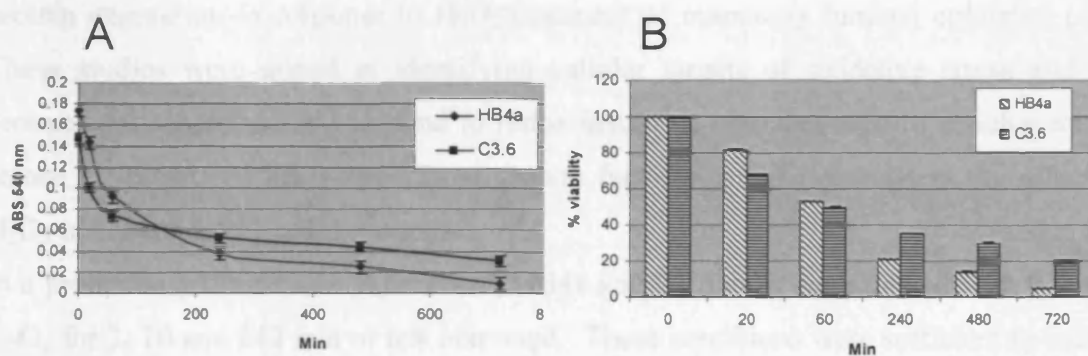
overexpression affects proliferative and survival signalling in response to oxidative stress, although the details of this mechanism are unclear.

The effects of H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> on cell proliferation were next examined using an MTT assay (Figure 4-2). This assay is a quantitative colorimetric method for determining cell number and viability. It utilises the yellow tetrazolium salt MTT as a substrate, which is metabolised by the mitochondrial respiratory chain enzyme, succinate dehydrogenase, to yield a purple formazan reaction product in actively proliferating cells. Comparison of the value to control cells provides a relative increase in cellular proliferative activity. Conversely, in cells that were undergoing apoptosis or necrosis, MTT conversion was decreased, reflecting the loss of cell proliferation. Using this assay, the proliferation of both the HB4a and C3.6 cells was decreased following hydrogen peroxide treatment. The results (Figure 4-2) show that approximately 80%, 50% and 30% of proliferative activity was maintained after treatment with 0.5 mM of H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> for 20, 60 and 240 min, respectively. Interestingly, the C3.6 cells retained their proliferative capacity better than HB4a at longer timepoints suggesting that ErbB-2 dependent signalling plays a role in providing cellular resistance to redox stress. This may be linked to the previously observed delayed activation of p38 or JNK in C3.6 cells (Figure 4-1).



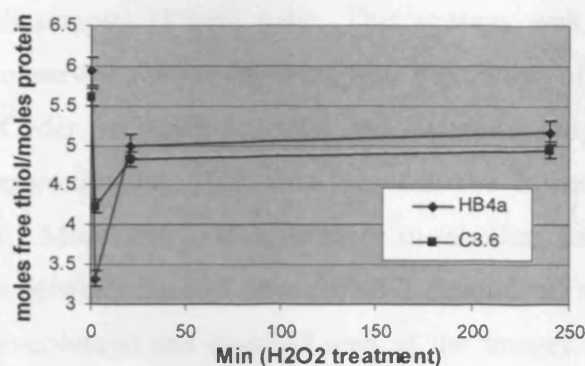
**(Figure 4-1) Effect of hydrogen peroxide treatment on signalling events in HB4a and C3.6 cells.** Total cell lysates were prepared from HB4a and C3.6 cells treated with 0.5 mM hydrogen peroxide for the indicated times. Total proteins (30 µg) were separated by SDS-PAGE, electrophoretically transferred to Immobilon P membrane (Millipore) and probed with specific antibodies to the indicated proteins and phosphorylation motifs.

On a gross scale, the free thiol content of the HB4a and C3.6 cells prior to H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> treatment was similar with approximately 6 moles of free thiols per mole of protein as measured using Ellman's reagent (Appendix B). Hydrogen peroxide has found to induce a significant drop in the cellular free thiol content of both cell types; the free thiol content dropping by 45% and 23% in HB4a cells and C3.6 cells, respectively, within 2 min of treatment (Figure 4-3). Following this drop, the free thiol content recovered to approximately 80% in both cell lines after 20 min. This result likely indicates a loss of reduced glutathione (GSH) in the cells which acts as a "buffer" to neutralise the influx of H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>, but also presents the oxidation of free thiols on proteins. The recovery may be due to the regeneration of GSH by glutaredoxin or reduction of oxidised protein thiols by peroxiredoxins. Importantly, these results show that ErbB-2 affects the cellular response to H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>, seemingly providing more resistance through the provision of greater anti-oxidant activity. This may explain the overall higher survival rate of C3.6 cells (Figure 4-2) and the delayed activation of the ERK and p38 MAPK pathways (Figure 4-1). To explore these differences further, and to identify cellular targets of oxidative stress, ICy dye 2D-DIGE was used to study H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> treated HB4a and C3.6 cells.



**(Figure 4-2) The effect of H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> on cell proliferation by MTT assay.** (A) HB4a and C3.6 cells were triplicately plated into 96-well plates at a density of 5000 and 2000 cells/well, respectively, in RPMI 1640 medium containing 10% FBS. After 36 hrs, the cells were treated with 0.5 mM H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> for 20 min and 1, 4, 8 and 12 hr or left untreated. After removing the medium, 50  $\mu$ l of MTT working solution (1 mg/ml in culture medium) was added to each well, followed by further incubation at 37 °C for 4 h. The medium was then carefully removed and 100  $\mu$ L of DMSO was added and the plates shaken for 20 min. The absorbance of the samples was measured at a wavelength of 540 nm in a multiplate reader and values plotted against time. (B) Plot of % viability versus time. % viability was calculated as the ratio of the absorbance at each timepoint versus the untreated sample.





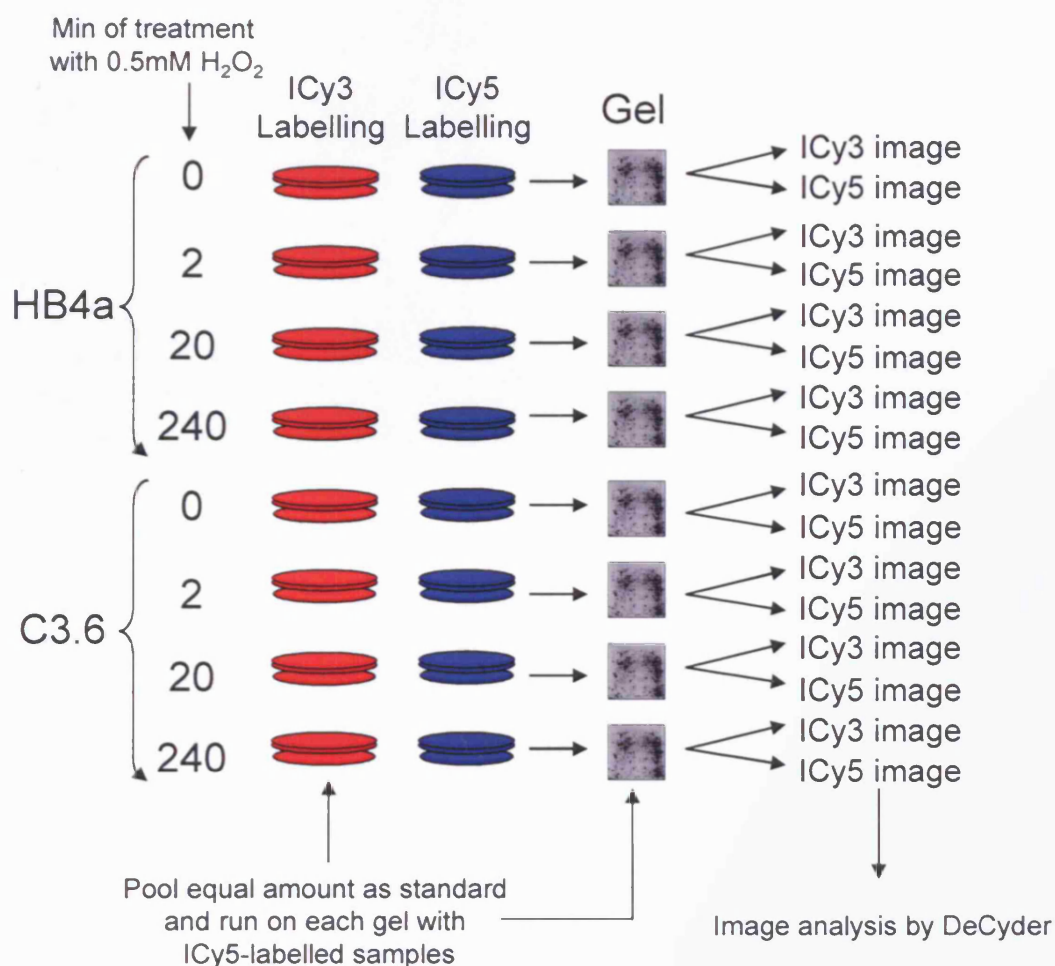
(Figure 4-3) Quantitative determination of free thiols (Ellman test). Lysates from untreated and H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> treated HB4a and C3.6 cells for the indicated times were freshly prepared and 200 µg of total protein assayed for thiol content as described above.

### 4.3 Differential protein expression and thiol-reactivity analysis using ICy 2D-DIGE

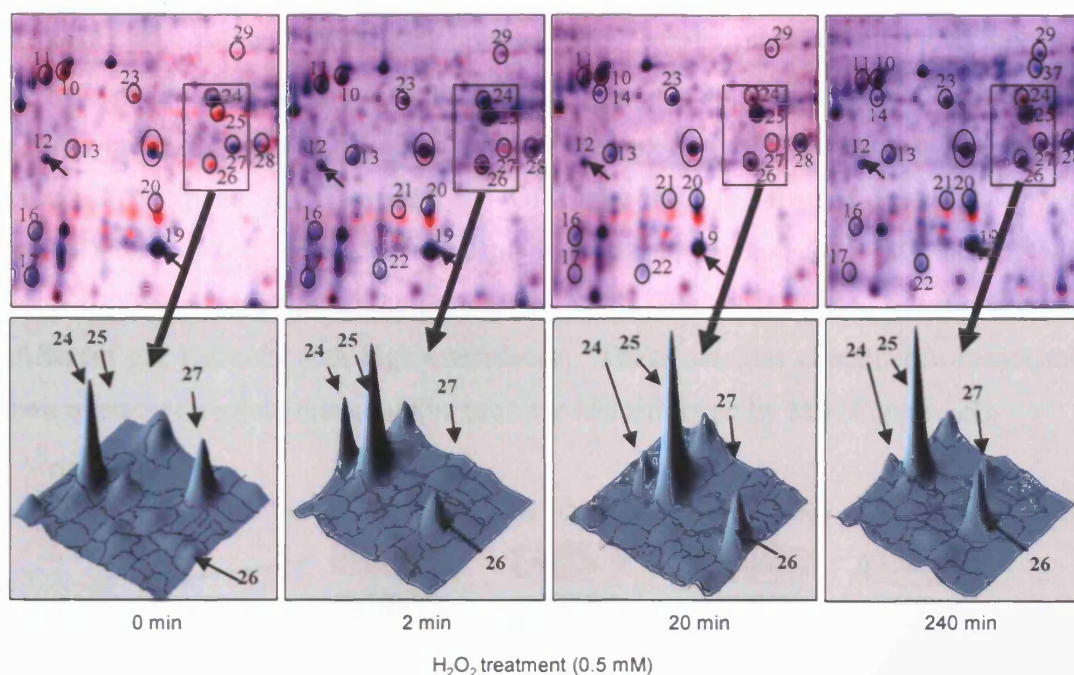
The cysteine labelling strategy outlined in Chapter 3 was applied in a detailed 2D-DIGE and MALDI-TOF-MS analysis to accurately identify changes in thiol reactivity and protein expression in response to H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> treatment of mammary luminal epithelial cells. These studies were aimed at identifying cellular targets of oxidative stress and the protective mechanisms that respond to redox insult. It was also used to simultaneously screen for targets of ErbB-2-mediated growth factor signalling and assess the effect of H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> treatment on the redox response.

In a preliminary timecourse experiment, HB4a and C3.6 cells were treated with 0.5 mM H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> for 2, 20 and 240 min or left untreated. These conditions were sufficient to induce an increase in total cellular tyrosine phosphorylation (likely through inhibition of protein tyrosine phosphatases), and trigger activation of the p38 stress-activated protein kinase, ERK1/2 and Akt signalling pathways (Figure 4-1). Duplicate cultures of treated cells were lysed under non-reducing, denaturing conditions in the presence of ICy3 and ICy5 (80 pmol/µg protein) to rapidly label proteins and limit post-lysis redox modifications. Samples were then reduced with DTT prior to 2DE separation. Individual ICy5-labelled samples were run with an equal load of an ICy3-labelled standard pool consisting of an

equal mixture of all samples (Figure 4-4). This strategy was used to control for the apparent dye bias observed for the labelling and separation of some proteins. Image analysis using DeCyder software revealed the dynamic range of detection of the experiments was approximately 1000 fold between the lowest and highest-abundant proteins in the gels. More than 100 differences in labelling using a  $\geq 1.5$ -fold cut off, were observed both between the cell lines (ErbB-2 dependent) and in response to  $H_2O_2$  treatment. A pseudo-coloured and overlaid area of the images for the C3.6 samples is shown for each timepoint in Figure 4-5. Of particular note,  $H_2O_2$  treatment for only 2 min reduced the labelling of a number of proteins, suggestive of rapid thiol modifications that block ICy-dye-labelling (eg. Spots 24 and 27 in Figure 4-5), rather than changes in protein expression *per se*. Such modifications could include disulphide bond formation, modification by glutathionylation or oxidation to the sulphenic (R-SOH) acid. Since the latter modification is generally unstable, a disulphide may be formed with a nearby thiol or the RSOH may be further oxidized to the sulphinic (R-SO<sub>2</sub>H) or sulphonic (R-SO<sub>3</sub>H) acid forms of the thiol. In some cases, the change in ICy dye labelling recovered over time, indicating reversible modification, perhaps through the activation of redox defence mechanisms. A number of proteins also showed rapid increases in labelling (eg. Spots 25 and 26 in Figure 4-5), suggesting generation of new thiol groups, for example through scission of disulphide bonds, or through labelling of isoforms generated after redox-dependent shifts in *pI*, as reported for the peroxiredoxins (Wagner et al., 2002; Rabilloud et al., 2002a). Some of these observations may explain the dramatic changes in free thiol content that occur within 2 min of hydrogen peroxide treatment (Figure 4-3) and the activation of cellular signal pathway (Figure 4-1).





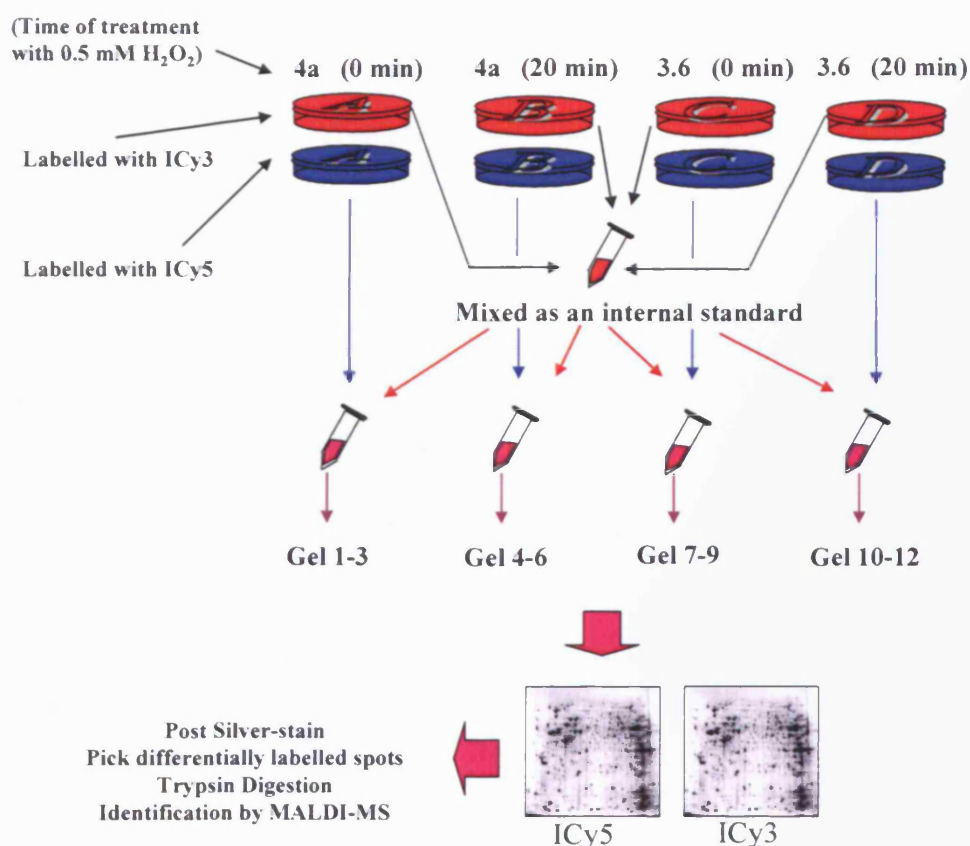


(Figure 4-5) Use of ICy3/5 cysteine-labelling 2D-DIGE to monitor thiol reactivity in response to  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$  treatment of mammary luminal epithelial cells. The top images indicate merged 2D fluorescence images of standard pool (red/ICy3/mixture of all samples) vs.  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$ -treated samples (blue/ICy5) showing differential labelling with time. The lower images show enlarged 3D fluorescence profiles of the boxed areas showing some of the changes in detail.

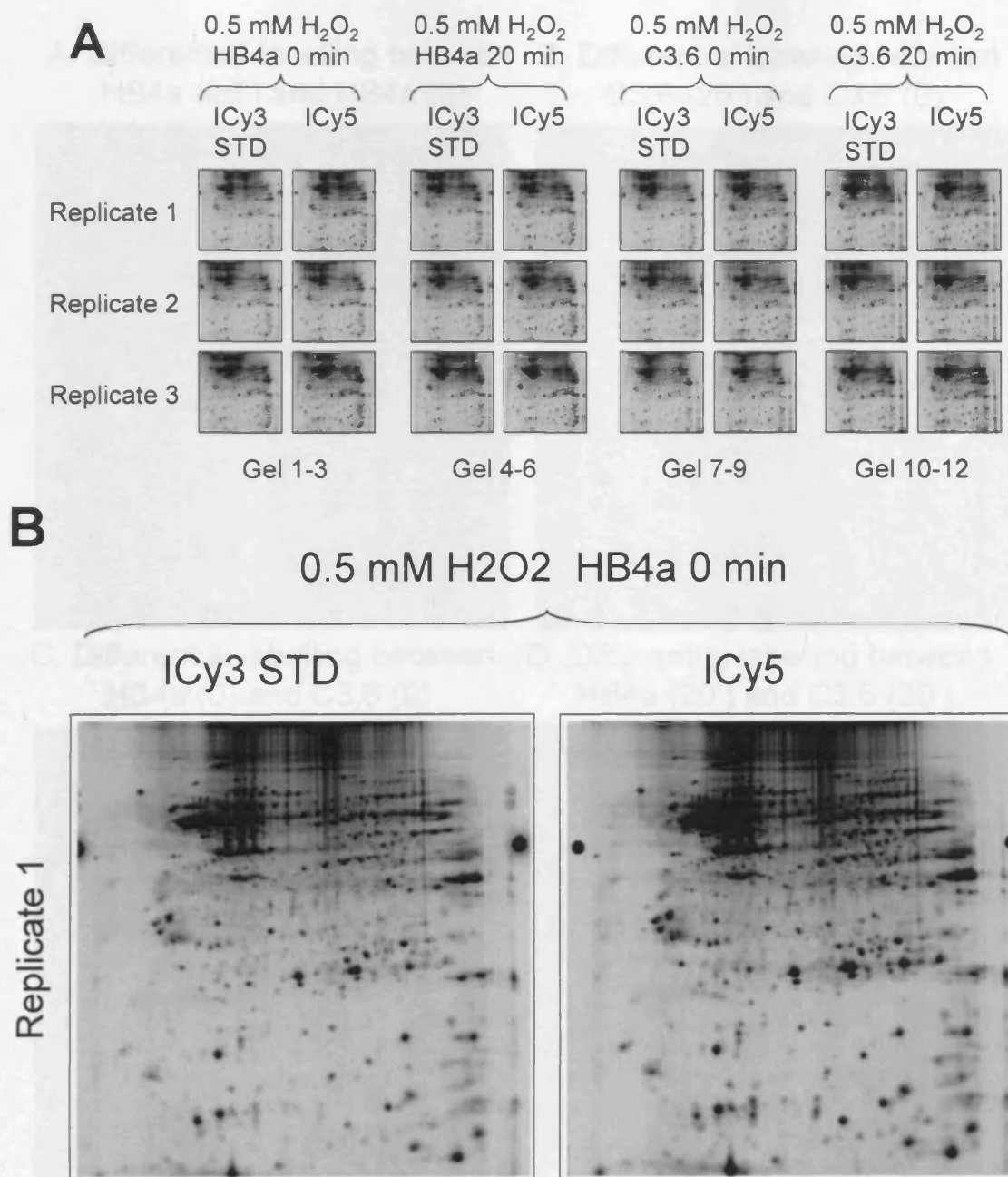
#### 4.4 Application of cysteine-labelling 2D-DIGE to study peroxide-dependent and ErbB-2-dependent changes in thiol-reactivity

The experiment in the previous section (section 4.3) was performed on single samples of cultured cells for each peroxide treatment condition. However, for statistical validation, analysis of multiple samples for each experimental condition is essential. Thus, the 0 min and 20 min timepoints were chosen for a more detailed statistical analysis of thiol labelling in human mammary luminal epithelial cells (HB4a) and ErbB-2 overexpressing partners (C3.6). Each condition was run in triplicate and 2-D gels were analysed using DeCyder software. Gels were then post-stained with silver-stained or CCB stained. Protein features of interest were picked for identification using MALDI-MS. The labelling strategy is outlined in Figure 4-6 and the 24 fluorescent images obtained are shown in Figure 4-7. This experiment was repeated twice. In one of these experiment the ICy3/5 labelling was reversed, and CCB used as a post-stain instead of silver. In the

other, spots of interest were excised from unstained gels, using the coordinates of the fluorescent spots, rather than the post-stained spots. Similar changes in ICy3/5 labelling were observed in these 3 experiments. In one experiment, 126 significant changes in labelling were identified ( $>1.5$ -fold up or down regulated;  $p < 0.05$ ; the statistics used here is discussed in Appendix J) (Figure 4-8). Of these, 51 were peroxide-dependent and 90 were ErbB-2 dependent, with 15 changes displaying dual dependency. Post-staining with silver or CCB and matching to the corresponding fluorescent images allowed picking of 89 different gel features with high confidence. These samples contained a reasonable amount of stained protein that could be used for identification by MS (Figure 4-9).



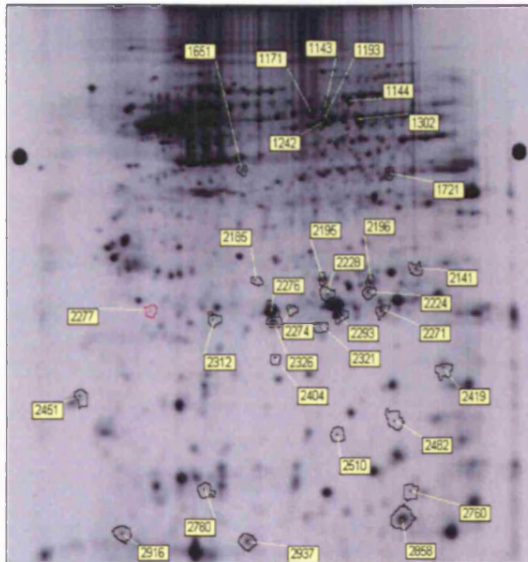
**(Figure 4-6) Strategy for ICy3/5 cysteine-labelling 2D-DIGE to monitor oxidant-dependent and ErbB-2 dependent thiol reactivity changes in HB4a and C3.6 cells.** Untreated HB4a and C3.6 cells or cells treated with 0.5 mM for 20 min were lysed in the presence of ICy3 and ICy5 and incubated for labelling. Equal amount of the ICy3 labelled samples were mixed as an internal standard and run against the individual untreated or hydrogen peroxide treated samples. Each individual sample was run triplicate against the standard pool and a statistical analysis performed using Decyder BVA software. Gels were post-stained with silver or CCB and the spots of interest were excised for in-gel digestion and subsequent MALDI-TOF-MS analysis.



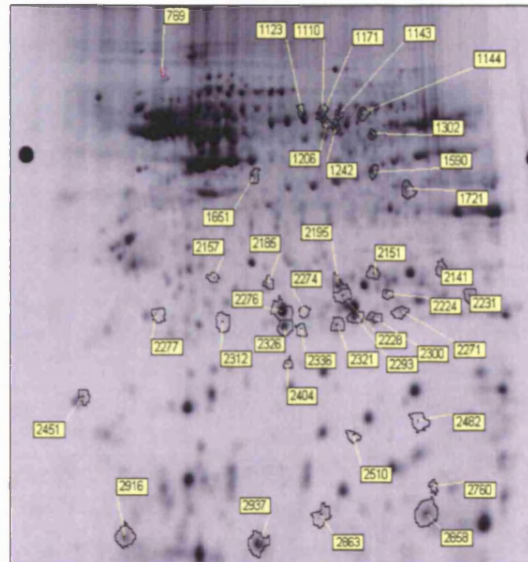
(Figure 4-7) Representation of the experimental design and images obtained in the study of thiol reactivity in HB4a and C3.6 cells in response to 0.5 mM H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> treatment. (A) Randomly growing HB4a and C3.6 cells were treated with 0.5 mM H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> for 20 min and compared to untreated samples. Equal amounts of ICy3 labelled lysates were mixed as an internal standard pool and run against ICy5 labelled hydrogen peroxide-treated or untreated samples. Samples were run in triplicate to assess reproducibility and for statistical analysis of changes. This represents 12 gels with 24 images generated. Gel images were processed using the BVA module of DeCyder software. 2 representative enlarged images are shown in (B).



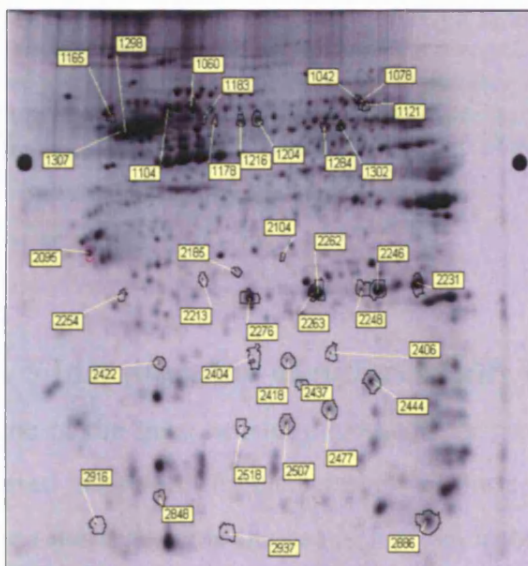
A. Differential labelling between HB4a (20') and HB4a (0)



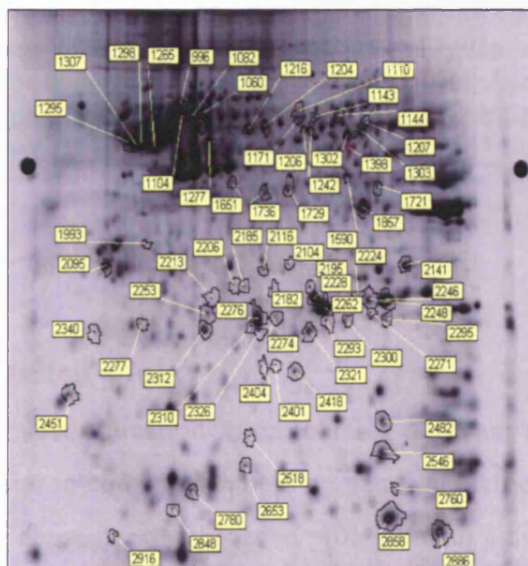
B. Differential labelling between C3.6 (20') and C3.6 (0)



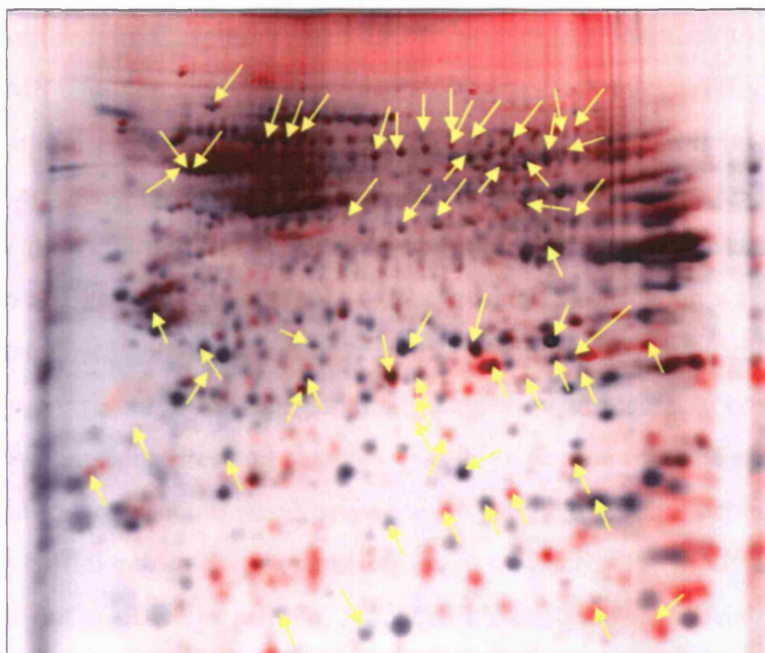
C. Differential labelling between HB4a (0) and C3.6 (0)



D. Differential labelling between HB4a (20') and C3.6 (20')



(Figure 4-8) Visualisation of spots that display changes in cysteine thiol labelling with  $H_2O_2$  treatment and between HB4a vs. C3.6 cells. Representative ICy dye images of  $H_2O_2$  treated/untreated HB4a and C3.6 cells are shown. Protein features with altered ICy-labelling are labelled with a spot identity number.



**(Figure 4-9) Master gel image of ICy3 labelled standard pool and its corresponding silver stained image.** The image shown is a merged image of ICy3 labelled HB4a/C3.6 cell lysate pool (red spots) and the image of its corresponding silver stained gel (black spots) created using Adobe Photoshop software. The arrows indicate the aligned features between significant differentially labelled spots and the silver-stained spots. These spots (89) were picked for identification.

#### 4. 5 Identification of differentially labelled spots

One of the most sensitive methods for protein identification in proteomics relies on gel based mass spectrometry. Improved mass spectrometers and sample preparation methods now make possible the use of low femtomole amounts of gel-loaded proteins with a high probability of successful identification. Several approaches are used for protein MS-identification, with the most commonly used method being peptide mass mapping using matrix assisted-laser desorption/ionisation-mass spectrometry (MALDI-TOF-MS) and database searching (Chapters 1 and 2).

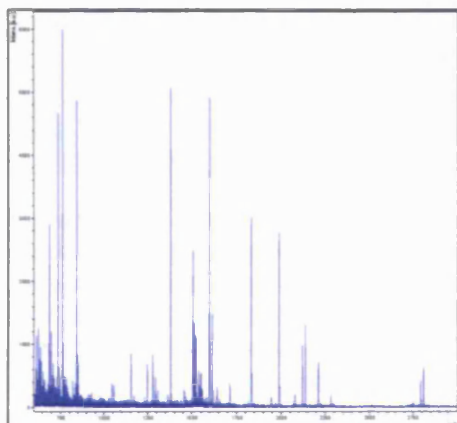
In this work, a modified porcine trypsin was used to generate tryptic peptides from gel-

separated proteins. This enzyme efficiently cleaves at the C-terminal side of lysine and arginine residues without giving rise to any autolysis peaks. Proteins were digested (procedure described in Chapter 2) and the tryptic digest mixture was analysed by MALDI-TOF-MS using an Ultraflex instrument (Bruker Daltronics). Fifty one out of the 89 proteins of interest (57%) gave well resolved spectra with high signal-to-noise ratios and high mass accuracy (within  $\pm 50$  ppm) and consequently the picked proteins were identified with high confidence. A typical example of a peptide mass spectrum with database search results is shown in Figure 4-10. Protein identification was carried out on samples from triplicate gels and from the repeat experiments. Many of the same protein identifications were found in the repeated analysis, giving an increased confidence in the validity of the protein identities and changes. However, for the other 38 spots of interest, the signals were low or spectral peaks were poorly resolved and the peptide fingerprints did not provide sufficient protein sequence coverage to identify the protein. This problem may be caused by insufficient sample, inadequate extraction of special peptides (e.g. hydrophobic peptides), the lack of tryptic sites, or post-translational modification of the proteins. In these cases the proteins could not be identified, despite repeat picking, digestion and peptide mass fingerprinting.

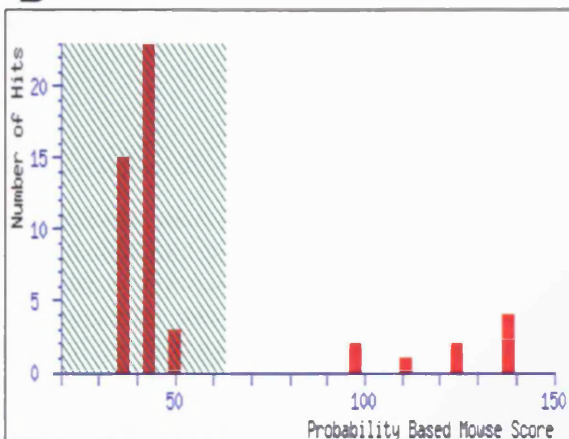
Identification of differentially labelled features from unstained gels was also attempted using automated picking methods based on coordinates derived from the fluorescent images alone. Although the picking accuracy was good (confirmed by re-scanning of gels), only ~40% of the features could be identified with confidence. Of the samples that could not be identified, they generally generated low intensity spectra, implying that there was insufficient material in these spots. Thus, whilst detection of these low-abundance thiol-containing proteins was possible using the ICy dyes, the steps in the processing for MALDI-TOF analysis were insufficiently sensitive to detect the digested proteins. This would be due to the labelling of very reactive thiols on protein species expressed at low levels and affinity purification strategies could be used to enrich them.



A



B



CSM4		Mass: 18229	Score: 133	Expect: 3.9e-09	Queries Matched: 20
peptidylprolyl isomerase (EC 5.2.1.8) A - human					
Observed	Mr(expt)	Mr(calc)	Delta	Start	End
696.32	695.31	695.35	-0.04	77	82
705.33	704.33	704.37	-0.04	38	44
737.34	736.33	736.35	-0.02	32	37
763.33	762.32	762.32	-0.00	50	55
913.49	912.48	912.55	-0.07	126	133
1055.60	1054.59	1054.53	0.06	20	28
1154.61	1153.60	1153.57	0.04	83	91
1247.64	1246.63	1246.62	0.01	155	163
1278.64	1277.63	1277.57	0.05	134	144
1294.58	1293.57	1293.57	0.00	134	144
1310.54	1309.54	1309.56	-0.03	134	144
1379.81	1378.80	1378.75	0.05	20	31
1505.79	1504.79	1504.74	0.05	132	144
1515.84	1514.83	1514.79	0.04	119	131
1521.76	1520.75	1520.73	0.02	132	144
1537.74	1536.73	1536.73	0.00	132	144
1598.83	1597.83	1597.74	0.09	56	69
1614.82	1613.81	1613.73	0.08	56	69
1831.96	1830.95	1830.90	0.05	77	91
1946.06	1945.05	1944.99	0.06	2	19

C

Acc. #: [IP0100419585](#) Species: TREMBL Q71V99 Name: SWISS-PROT P62937  
 Acc. #: [REFSEQ NP\\_066953](#) Species: ENSEMBLE ENSP00000335257, ENSP00000284889 TAX\_ID=9606 CYCLOPHILIN  
 Index: [38871](#) MW: 17972 Da pI: 7.7

m/z	MH <sup>+</sup>	Delta	Modifications	Start	End	Missed	Database
Submitted	Matched	ppm				Cleavages	Sequence
737.3382	737.3582	-27		32	37	0	(K)TAENFR (A)
1154.6106	1154.5734	32		83	91	0	(K)EEDENFILK (H)
1278.6359	1278.5822	42		134	144	0	(K)EGMNTVEAMER (F)
1294.5775	1294.5771	0.27	1Met-ox	134	144	0	(K)EGMNTVEAMER(F)
1310.5429	1310.5721	-22	2Met-ox	134	144	0	(K)EGMNTVEAMER(F)
1379.8057	1379.7575	35		20	31	1	(R)VSPFLADKVPK (I)
1505.7938	1505.7456	32		132	144	1	(K)VKEGMNTVEAMER (F)
1515.8377	1515.7960	28		119	131	1	(K)TEWLDGKHVVFGK (V)
1521.7580	1521.7405	11	1Met-ox	132	144	1	(K)VKEGMNTVEAMER(F)
1537.7373	1537.7354	1.2	2Met-ox	132	144	1	(K)VKEGMNTVEAMER(F)
1614.8188	1614.7409	48	1Met-ox	56	69	0	(R)IPGFMCQGGDFTR(H)
1831.9612	1831.9118	27		77	91	1	(R)SIYGEKFEDENFILK (H)

The matched peptides cover **44%** (73/164AA's) of the protein.  
 Coverage Map for This Hit (MS-Digest index #): [38871](#)

D

Index Number: 38871

Acc. #: [IP1PI00419585.3](#) Species: TREMBL Q71V99 Name: SWISS-PROT P62937

Acc. #: [REFSEQ NP NP 066953](#) Species: ENSEMBL ENSP00000335257, ENSP00000284889 TAX\_ID=9606 CYCLOPHILIN A

pI of Protein: 7.7

Protein MW: 17972

Amino Acid Composition: A8 C3 D8 E11 F15 G22 H4 I10 K13 L7 M5 N9 P6 Q3 R7 S10 T12 V8 W1 Y2

1	11	21	31	41	51	61	71	
EVNPTVTFDI	TADDEPLGRV	SPFLPADKVP	KTAENFRALS	TGEKGFQYKG	SSFHRIIPGF	MCQGGDFTRH	NGTGGRSIYG	
81	91	101	111	121	131	141	151	
EKFEDENFIL	KHTGPGILSH	ANAGPNTNGS	QFFICTAKTE	WLDGKHVVF6	KVKEGHNIVE	AMERFGSRNG	KTSKKITISD	
161								
CGQL								

(Figure 4-10) Typical mass spectra and database searching for protein identification by peptide mass fingerprinting. Proteins were picked and proteolysed with trypsin (Chapter 2). The peptide mixture generated was then analysed by matrix-assisted laser-desorption/ionisation-MS (MALDI-TOF-MS). (A) A typical mass spectrum was acquired on an Ultraflex TOF/TOF mass spectrometer (Bruker Daltonics). The list of peptide masses was searched against the NCBI theoretical peptide fragment database (updated NCBI nr. 3.24.2003 or Swiss-prot) using Mascot and Protein Prospector. (B) Peptide mass mapping was performed by database searching using Mascot (Matrix Science) with a probability score higher than the threshold value (62 in this case) meaning the hit is highly significant. (C) Protein Prospector (version 3.4.1) MS-Fit search tool (UCSF, USA). The search criteria allowed a +/- 50 ppm mass error and up to 1 missed cleavage. Identical search parameters were used for all MS searches. (D) Representation of protein coverage, where in the case analysed (Cyclophilin A), the matched peptides represent 44% of the sequence of the protein.

Table 4-1A shows the 25 of the 51 identified proteins which displayed peroxide-dependent changes in ICy labelling and includes 10 isoforms which also showed some ErbB-2 dependency at the fold cut-offs used. Table 4-1B shows the 26 identified proteins displaying ErbB-2-dependent differences alone (i.e. C3.6 vs. HB4a). Some isoforms (such as chaperonin containing TCP1- $\beta$  and cytokeratin 13) formed charge trains that could be induced by labelling of a number of thiols and implying that saturation labelling was not achieved in this experiment. The migration of all of the identified features are shown in a master gel in Figure 4-11A. Proteins located in the high molecular weight, acidic region of the gel are shown in a zoomed-in area of the figure (Figure 4-11B). Examples of some these changes are represented graphically in Figure 4-12. It is important to note that all proteins identified contain at least one free cysteine thiol, which helps to validate the specificity of this labelling technique.



A

Average fold-difference <sup>†</sup> and *p*-value

Spot No.	Protein Name	% Cov	Mowse Score	Est. mass	Est. pI	Pred. Mass	Pred. pI	Accession No.	4a(20') to 4a(0)	<i>P</i> -value	3,6(20') to 3,6(0)	<i>P</i> -value	3,6(0') to 4a(0)	<i>P</i> -value	3,6(20') to 4a(20')	<i>P</i> -value	Function
769	BIP protein <sup>a</sup>	35	105/64	72000	5.1	70932	5.2	6470150	1.49	0.18	1.71	0.0051	-1.08	0.69	1.06	0.63	Protein folding
1123	Chaperonin containing TCP1- $\alpha$	27	72/64	60000	6.7	60344	5.8	135538	-1.6	0.004	-1.09	0.45	1.12	0.59	1.65	0.0082	Protein folding
1242	Chaperonin containing TCP1- $\beta^a$	50	123/64	55000	6.8	57489	6	5453603	-1.88	0.0012	-1.06	0.52	1	0.96	1.77	0.0026	Protein folding
1206	Chaperonin containing TCP1- $\beta^b$	50	127/64	55000	6.7	57489	6	5453603	N.A.	N.A.	1.55	0.0056	N.A.	N.A.	1.55	0.0082	Protein folding
1110	Chaperonin containing TCP1- $\gamma$	36	88/64	57000	6.6	60403	6.1	20455521	-1.5	0.013	-1.1	0.31	1.09	0.73	1.48	0.0035	Protein folding
1144	Chaperonin containing TCP1- $\zeta$	43	124/64	56000	7.2	58025	6.2	730922	-1.91	0.0000016	1.01	1	-1.31	0.0018	1.47	0.013	Protein folding
1143	Cytokeratin 10	28	69/64	58000	6.9	58827	5.1	4557697	-1.74	0.013	-1.34	0.029	1.1	0.0048	1.43	0.0077	Cytoskeleton
2276	Glutathione S-transferase $\pi$	55	68/64	25000	6.4	24678	5.7	121746	-1.61	0.00052	-1.27	0.011	-1.78	0.00043	-1.4	0.0018	Regulation of cellular redox state
2253	Glutathione S-transferase $\pi$ chain A	54	71/64	25000	5.7	23225	5.4	494066	-1.55	0.031	-1.45	0.015	-1.7	0.023	-1.59	0.0074	Regulation of cellular redox state
2049	Glyceraldehyde-3-phosphate DH <sup>a</sup>	42	124/64	35000	9	36054	8.6	120649	1.53	0.0038	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	Glycolysis
1088	HSP-73 <sup>a</sup>	46	88/64	70000	6	70898	5.4	123648	-1.84	0.0056	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	Protein folding
2482	Peptidyl-prolyl cis-trans isomerase A <sup>a</sup>	65	94/64	15000	8	17881	7.8	13937981	16.19	5.4E-08	7.36	0.00003	1.09	0.046	-2.01	0.00000048	Protein folding/conformation
1536	Peroxiredoxin 1 <sup>a</sup>	34	68/64	23000	8.6	22111	8.3	548453	4.82	0.0039	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	Cellular protection from oxidative stress
1603	Peroxiredoxin 2 <sup>a</sup>	33	107/64	20000	6	21892	5.7	2507169	14.67	0.000089	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	Cellular protection from oxidative stress
2274	Peroxiredoxin 3 (antioxidant protein 1)	33	138/64	26000	6.4	27693	7.7	2507171	2.76	0.016	7.37	0.000013	-2.13	0.047	1.25	0.009	Cellular protection from oxidative stress
2510	Peroxiredoxin 5, chain A <sup>a</sup>	44	138/64	17000	7.2	16900	7	15826629	3.42	0.0011	2.15	0.00052	1.32	0.039	-1.21	0.032	Cellular protection from oxidative stress
2195	Peroxiredoxin 6 (antioxidant protein 2)	68	113/64	26000	6.9	25035	6	1718024	-2.74	0.016	-2.19	0.011	1.35	0.008	1.69	0.026	Cellular protection from oxidative stress
2228	Peroxiredoxin 6 (antioxidant protein 2)	59	98/64	27000	7	25035	6	1718024	3.69	0.0004	4.58	0.0000005	-1.43	0.046	-1.15	0.011	Cellular protection from oxidative stress
2157	Prohibitin	44	68/64	30000	5.6	29804	5.6	4505773	2.69	0.0062	2.95	0.0012	-1.1	0.039	1	0.012	Growth/proliferation suppression
1563	Proteasome $\beta$ 2 subunit <sup>a</sup>	38	71/64	22000	7.5	22836	6.5	1709762	-2.27	0.0000093	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	ATP/ubiquitin-dep. proteolysis
2271	RAN small GTPase	57	104/64	25000	7.6	24423	7	5453555	-5.55	0.0059	-3.97	0.013	-1.3	0.026	1.07	0.032	Nucleo-cytoplasmic transport
2141	Signal recognition particle receptor $\beta$ subunit	33	66/64	29000	8.1	29651	9.2	20141812	2.88	0.00016	1.68	0.00064	-1.05	0.55	-1.81	0.00045	SRP-association with membrane
1302	Splice isoform of Glutaryl-Co A DH	36	87/64	50000	7.3	47356	8.6	2492631	-1.54	0.00026	-1.35	0.048	-6.43	0.000042	-5.63	0.000006	Oxidative metabolism
2224	Triosephosphate isomerase <sup>a</sup>	51	80/64	28000	7.4	26539	6.5	136060	-2.85	0.014	-3.68	0.0037	1.37	0.069	1.06	0.83	Glycolysis

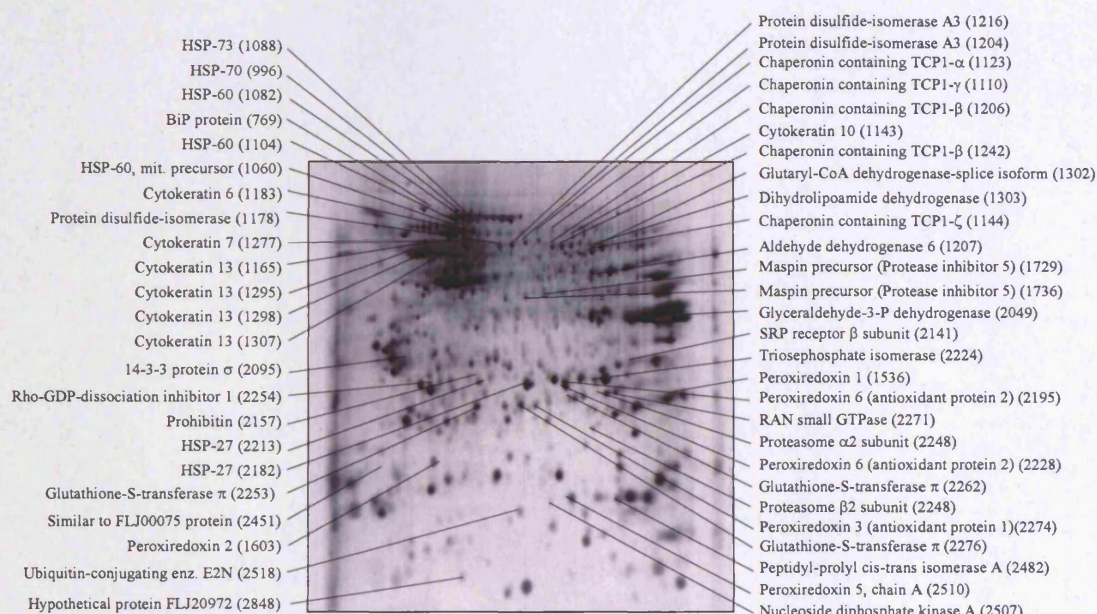
B

Average fold-difference † and p-value

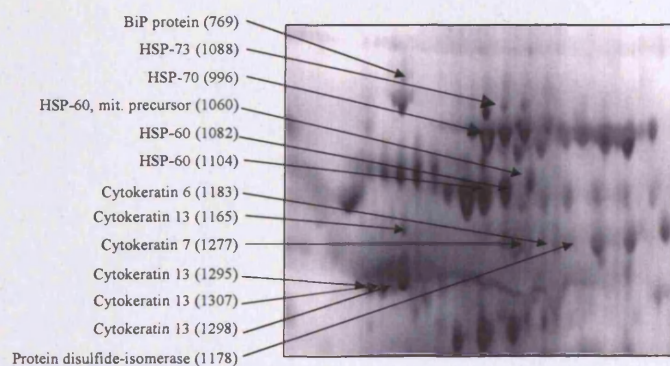
Spot No.	Protein Name	% Cov	Mowse Score	Est. mass	Est. pI	Pred. Mass	Pred. pI	Accession No.	4a(20') to 4a(0)	P-value	3.6(20') to 3.6(0)	P-value	3.6(0) to 4a(0)	P-value	3.6(20') to 4a(20')	P-value	Function
2095	14-3-3 protein $\alpha$	31	91/65	30000	4.6	27774	4.7	5454052	1.01	0.85	-1.15	0.11	-1.71	0.00014	-2	0.00087	Growth regulation
1207	Aldehyde dehydrogenase 6	25	76/64	54000	7.4	56010	6.6	4502041	-1.41	0.0008	-1.12	0.16	1.43	0.0013	1.81	0.0026	Detox. of aldehydes
1183	Cytokeratin 6	53	100/64	55000	6.1	53501	5.4	14318422	1.04	0.76	1.11	0.35	1.6	0.014	1.72	0.036	Cytoskeleton
1277	Cytokeratin 7 <sup>a</sup>	54	98/64	55000	6.1	51335	5.4	20178293	-1.25	0.01	-1.16	0.00012	1.45	0.000065	1.67	0.00058	Cytoskeleton
1307	Cytokeratin 13	48	137/64	50000	4.9	49587	4.9	24234696	-1.05	0.01	-1.13	0.01	4.15	0.0000039	3.87	0.000098	Cytoskeleton
1298	Cytokeratin 13	45	221/64	50000	4.8	49587	4.9	24234696	-1.01	0.93	-1.11	0.21	3.17	0.000069	2.88	0.00031	Cytoskeleton
1295	Cytokeratin 13	31	102/64	50000	4.9	49587	4.9	24234696	1.3	0.016	-1.06	0.016	5.54	0.0001	4.03	0.00073	Cytoskeleton
1165	Cytokeratin 13	39	116/64	55000	4.9	49587	4.9	24234696	1.05	0.012	1.04	0.012	2.29	0.024	2.28	0.0064	Cytoskeleton
1303	Dihydropyrimidine dehydrogenase	42	110/64	54000	7.5	54151	7.6	118674	-1.04	0.77	1.18	0.22	-1.84	0.000044	-1.51	0.018	Regulation of cellular redox state
2282	Glutathione S-transferase $\alpha$	67	74/64	26000	7.2	24678	5.7	121746	-1.47	0.0034	-1.12	0.00078	-2.36	0.00000085	-1.8	0.00065	Regulation of cellular redox state
2182	HSP-27 <sup>a</sup>	46	115/64	27000	6.6	22783	6	4504517	-1.31	0.0043	-1.46	0.0011	2.51	0.0023	2.25	0.0082	Protein folding
2213	HSP-27 <sup>a</sup>	25	67/60	27000	6.1	22783	6	4504517	1.37	0.0038	-1.12	0.009	6.42	0.000091	4.2	0.029	Protein folding
1104	HSP-60	32	140/64	60000	5.4	61055	5.7	129379	-1.26	0.09	-1.05	0.45	-1.89	0.000019	-1.58	0.023	Protein folding
1060	HSP-60, mitochondrial precursor <sup>a</sup>	26	81/64	57000	5.7	61213	5.7	129379	1.11	0.0034	-1.07	0.009	-1.53	0.00046	-1.82	0.00008	Protein folding
1082	HSP-60, mitochondrial precursor <sup>a</sup>	40	127/63	57000	5.4	61213	5.7	4504521	-1.03	0.037	-1.04	0.037	-1.77	0.000016	-1.76	0.0012	Protein folding
996	HSP-70 <sup>a</sup>	44	160/64	71000	5.4	70899	5.4	5729877	1.1	0.55	-1.13	0.33	-1.44	0.00015	-1.79	0.028	Protein folding
1736	Maspin precursor (protease inhibitor 5)	41	67/64	41000	6.6	42229	5.8	453368	-1.28	0.0008	1.08	0.18	1.48	0.0014	2.04	0.0000041	Growth/Proliferation suppression
1729	Maspin precursor (protease inhibitor 5)	56	75/64	41000	6.7	42229	5.8	547892	-1.07	0.053	1.09	0.12	1.4	0.003	1.64	0.00003	Growth/Proliferation suppression
2507	Nucleoside diphosphate kinase A	44	77/64	16000	6.6	17149	5.8	127981	1.27	0.1	-1.05	0.15	1.89	0.0049	1.42	0.00078	Nucleotide metabolism
2248	Proteasome alpha 2 subunit	32	63/60	26000	7.4	25899	6.9	4506181	1.13	0.069	1.07	0.68	-2	0.00013	-2.12	0.0033	ATP/ubiquitin-dep. Proteolysis
1204	Protein disulfide-isomerase A3 precursor <sup>a</sup>	37	261/64	55000	6.5	56783	6	2507461	-1.28	0.00038	-1.23	0.00062	1.57	0.000032	1.64	0.000002	Disulfide bond formation/protein folding
1216	Protein disulfide-isomerase A3 precursor <sup>a</sup>	34	79/64	56000	6.3	56783	6	2507461	-1.09	0.013	-1.02	0.0094	1.56	0.00012	1.66	0.000028	Disulfide bond formation/protein folding
1178	Protein disulfide-isomerase ER60 precursor	25	78/64	56000	6.2	56680	6.1	1085373	1.12	0.0021	-1.04	0.0031	1.57	0.0013	1.34	0.0018	Disulfide bond formation/protein folding
2254	Rho-GDP-dissociation inhibitor 1	31	86/64	27000	5	23207	5	4757768	1.33	0.019	-1.07	0.028	2.01	0.011	1.41	0.017	Inact. of NADPH oxidase/small GTPases
2518	Ubiquitin-conjugating enzyme E2N	55	114/64	16000	6.4	17138	6.1	2501432	1.01	0.00018	1.13	0.0046	1.74	0.0023	1.94	0.00046	Ubiquitin conjugation

**(Table 4-1) Identification of differentially labelled/expressed proteins.** (A) Proteins displaying H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>-induced differential labelling in normal (HB4a) and ErbB-2-overexpressing (C3.6) human mammary luminal epithelial cells. (B) Proteins displaying differential labelling between HB4a and C3.6 luminal epithelial cells. Proteins were identified by MALDI-TOF peptide mass mapping (see Materials and Methods (Chapter 2)).<sup>a</sup>Proteins identified in two or more independent experiments. Proteins appearing more than once in the tables were identified as isoforms with different p/s. The % coverage of analysed peptides, the MOWSE score from Mascot searches and the significance threshold score, the estimated mass and pI (from gels), the predicted mass and pI (from the database) and the NCBI gene identifier (Accession Number) are shown for each protein. MS spectra, MOWSE score histograms, matching peptides and sequence coverage for all proteins are shown in Appendix C.<sup>†</sup>Average fold-differences from DeCyder analysis show abundance ratios for treated HB4a cells versus untreated (4a(20') to 4a(0)), treated C3.6 cells versus untreated (3.6(20') to 3.6(0)), untreated C3.6 versus untreated HB4a (3.6(0) to 4a(0)) and treated C3.6 versus treated HB4a (3.6(20') to 4a(20')). Proteins displaying an average fold-difference of  $\geq 1.5$ -fold up (+) or down (-) regulation between pairs of conditions where  $p < 0.05$  and spots matched in all images are shaded grey. N. A. not analysed. Functions were ascribed from the NCBI database and literature searches.

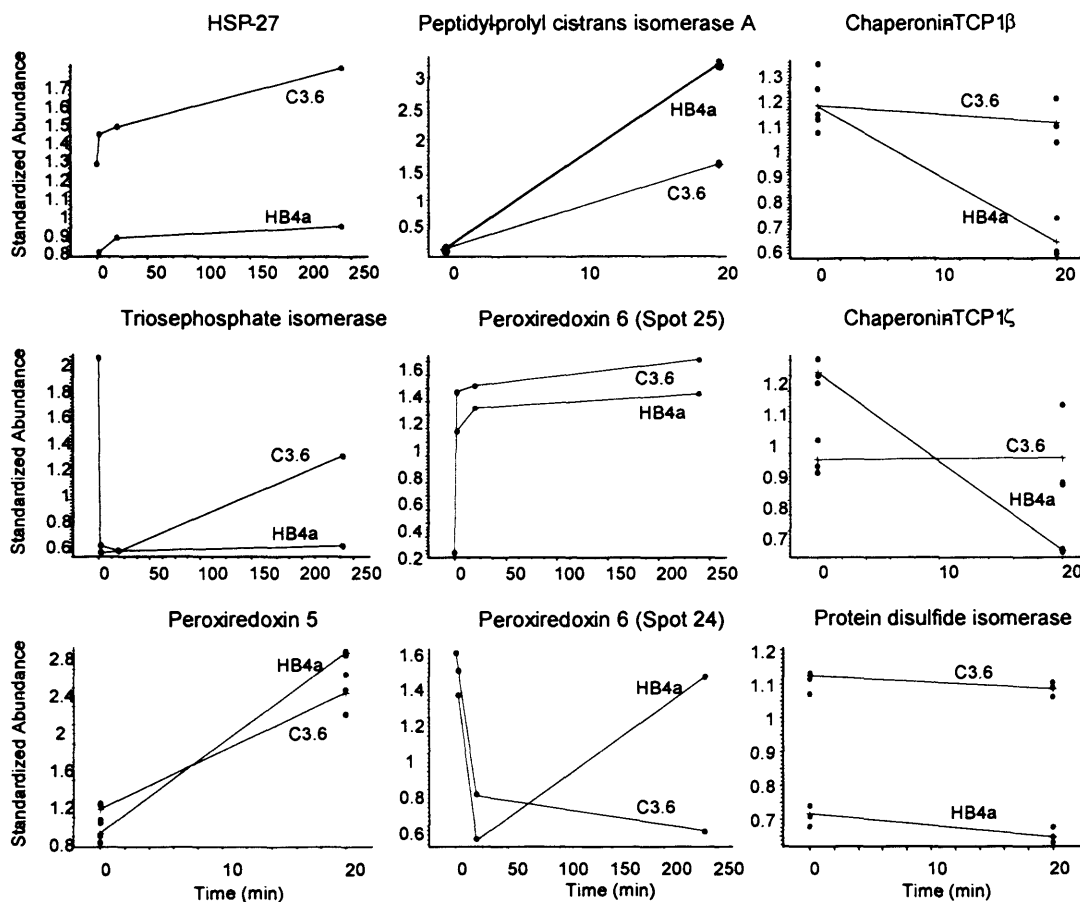
A



B



(Figure 4-11) 2DE migration of proteins identified by MALDI-TOF-MS displaying  $H_2O_2$ -induced differential labelling and/or ErbB-2 dependent differential expression (see Table 4-1). (A) A silver-stained image of a representative gel is shown. (B) An enlarged image of the high molecular weight acidic region is shown.



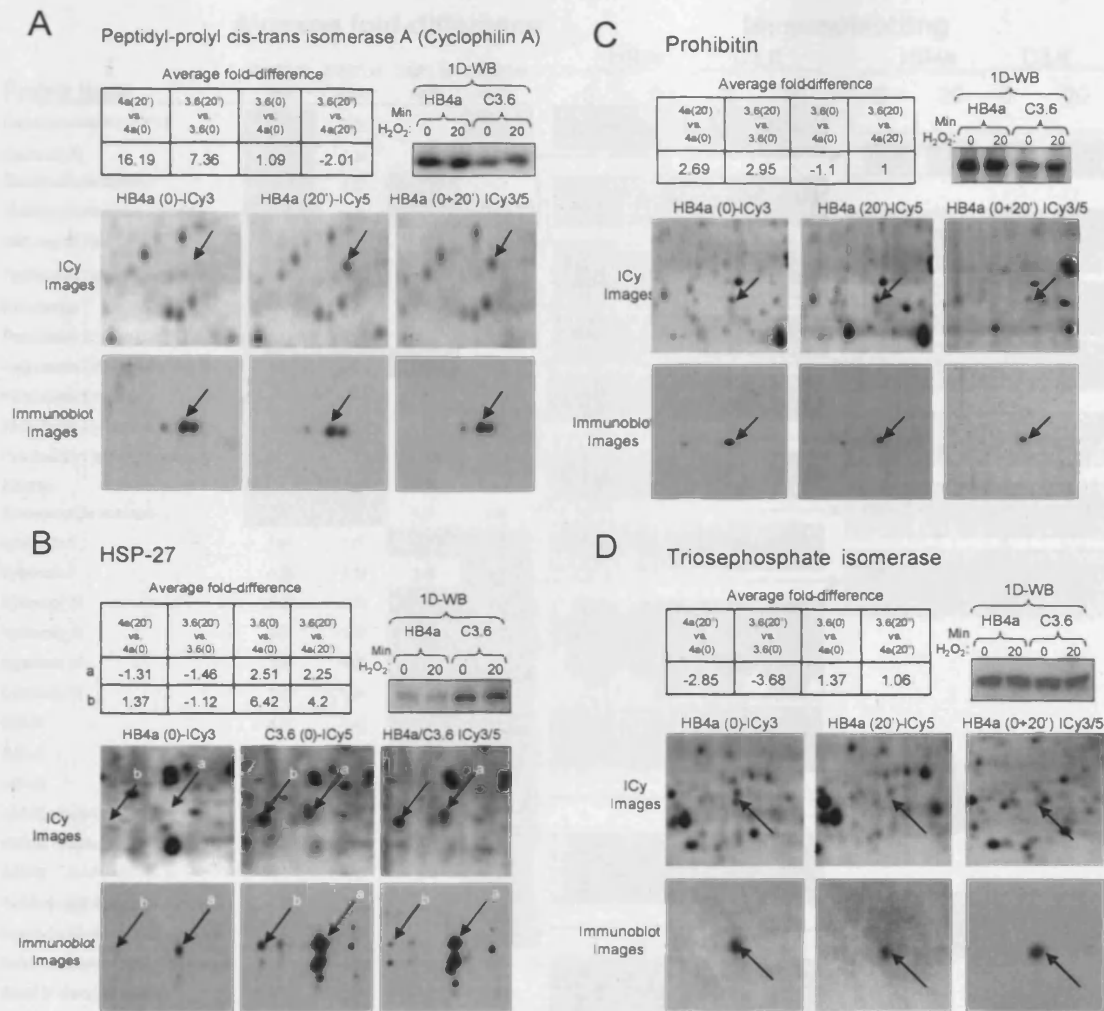
**(Figure 4-12) Examples of proteins displaying altered labelling following  $H_2O_2$  treatment and/or differential expression between normal (HB4a) and ErbB-2 overexpressing (C3.6) cell lines.** Proteins were identified from gels by MALDI-TOF-MS as described in Materials and Methods (Chapter 2). Graphs were derived from DeCyder image analysis where the standardised abundance is the ratio of the volume of a test gel feature versus the volume of the corresponding internal standard gel feature. Triplicate data points are shown for the 0 and 20 min experiments with lines joining the average values, whilst single data points are shown from the preliminary timecourse experiment.

Proteins differentially labelled or expressed in response to  $H_2O_2$  fell into several functional groups. Firstly, molecular chaperones were highly representative. Heat shock protein 73/hsc70, the ER chaperone BiP/Grp78, peptidyl-prolyl cis-trans isomerase A (cyclophilin A/CypA), signal recognition particle receptor  $\beta$  subunit (SR $\beta$ ) and the chaperonin-containing T-complex protein 1 (TCP1) subunits  $\alpha$ ,  $\beta$ ,  $\gamma$  and  $\zeta$ , are all known

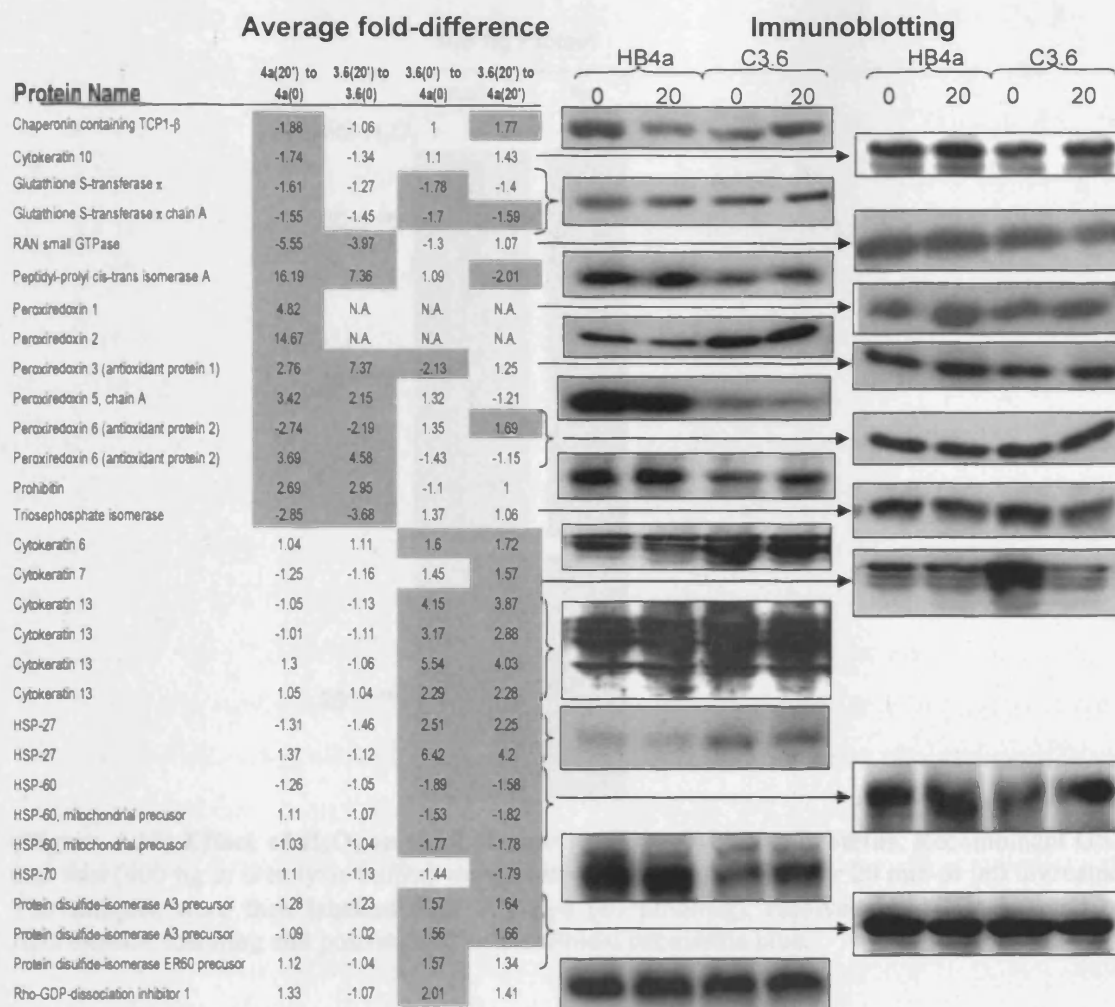


to be involved in processes such as ATP-dependent protein folding, protein transport, degradation of incorrectly folded polypeptides and prevention of aggregation of newly synthesised polypeptides. ICy labelling of these individual proteins were both increased and reduced by H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> treatment depending on the particular protein (Table 4-1A). CypA showed the greatest increase in labelling in response to H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>. Immunoblotting was used to reveal that this was not due to altered protein expression, although the differential labelling between cell lines did appear to result from a change in protein expression (Figure 4-13A and Figure 4-14).

Reassuringly, a number of the identified proteins have known roles as cellular redox regulators. This includes two isoforms of glutathione S-transferase  $\pi$ , in which labelling was both reduced after H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> treatment and in the C3.6 cells. Again, no significant changes in protein expression level were detected by 1D immunoblotting (Figure 4-14), which was suggestive of a mechanism involving direct oxidative modification. In support of this, a reduction in ICy labelling of recombinant GST protein was observed after treatment with H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>, although a specific site of modification could not be identified by MS (Figure 4-15 and see later). There also appeared to be a shift in the molecular weight of the H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>-treated sample that might be due to oxidation changing the charge and therefore the mobility of the protein. Five of the six known mammalian peroxiredoxin (Prxn) family members were also identified as targets of H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>-induced redox stress in the human luminal epithelial cell system. The Prxns are antioxidant enzymes that function by reducing hydroperoxides that have been implicated in redox-regulation of cell signalling (Wood et al., 2003). ICy dye labelling of 2DE isoforms which corresponded to Prxn1, 2, 3, 5 and 6 was increased after H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> treatment, whilst the level of another isoform of Prxn6 was reduced (Table 4-1A and Figure 4-12). 1D immunoblotting showed that overall, Prxn expression did not correlate well with ICy labelling; Prxn1 and 3 levels were increased slightly by H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> treatment in HB4a cells in agreement with the ICy dye labelling results; whereas Prxn2 decreased in HB4a cells and Prxn5 and 6 levels were unaffected (Figure 4-14). These results infer that the labelling changes are not only due to changes in protein level, but also due to changes in the reactivity of thiols within these proteins.

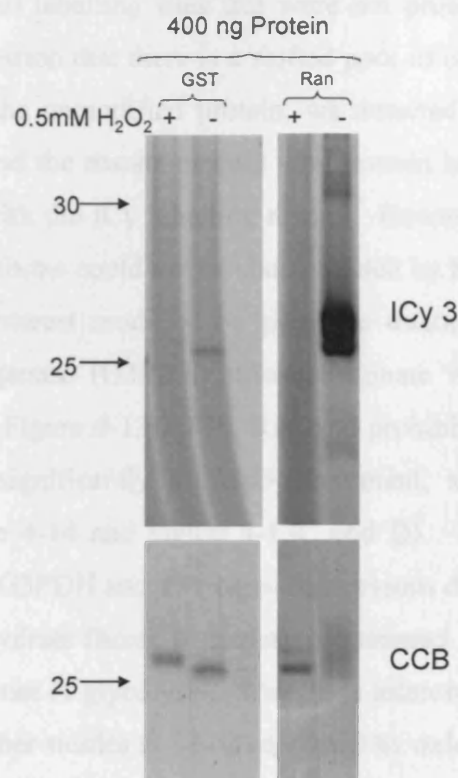


**(Figure 4-13) Validation of differential labelling/expression by 1D and 2D immunoblotting.** Expression of selected targets was analysed by 1D and 2D immunoblotting using specific antibodies. 2D blots of lysates from untreated and H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>-treated HB4a cells and a mixed lysate are shown aligned with the corresponding ICy dye fluorescence images. Average-fold differences are taken from Table 4-1A. Results are shown for **(A)** Peptidyl-prolyl cis-trans isomerase A (CypA) **(B)** Hsp27 **(C)** Prohibitin **(D)** Triosephosphate isomerase (TPI).



**(Figure 4-14) Validation of differential labelling/expression by 1D-immunoblotting.** Protein expression in total cell lysates from  $H_2O_2$ -treated/untreated HB4a and C3.6 cells is compared by 1D-SDS-PAGE and immunoblotting with specific antibodies. The protein expression profiles are compared with the ICy dye labelling ratios from the 2D-DIGE experiment.





**(Figure 4-15) Effect of  $H_2O_2$  on thiol reactivity of recombinant proteins.** Recombinant GST and Ran (400 ng in urea lysis buffer) were treated with 0.5mM  $H_2O_2$  for 20 min or left untreated. The samples were then labelled with ICy dye (80 pmol/ $\mu$ g), resolved by 1DE, detected by fluorescence scanning and post-stained with colloidal coomassie blue.

All Prxns contain an active-site cysteine which is oxidized to a sulfenic acid by the peroxide substrate which is then converted back to the free thiol via various mechanisms include intra- and inter-molecular disulphide bond formation and reduction by the thioredoxin system. Previous data have shown that Prxn cysteines can be over-oxidised to sulphinic or sulphonic acids, resulting in their detection as proteins with an acidic shift on 2D gels (Wagner *et al.*, 2002; Rabilloud *et al.*, 2002a). Whilst it is expected that  $H_2O_2$ -dependent oxidation of Prxn active-site cysteines would block ICy labelling, we hypothesise that the increased labelling observed may occur as a result of labelling of other free thiols (present in all Prxns) on a *pI*-shifted pool of oxidised protein. However, one could also envisage that Prxns may be partially oxidised in resting cells, and that activation of cellular antioxidant mechanisms leads to their complete reduction and the

creation of additional labelling sites that were not present prior to oxidative insult. In support of the suggestion that there is a shifted pool of oxidised peroxiredoxin which can be separated from the unmodified protein, we detected 2 isoforms of peroxiredoxin 6. These hypotheses and the results explain why protein levels seen in immunoblotting do not correlate well with the ICy labelling results. However, the nature of the differences between the two isoforms could not be characterised by MALDI-TOF-MS.

Other proteins of interest modified by peroxide treatment included glyceraldehyde 3-phosphate dehydrogenase (G3PDH), triosephosphate isomerase (TPI), prohibitin, and Ran (Table 4-1 and Figure 4-13). TPI, Ran and prohibitin expression levels were found not to be altered significantly by H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> treatment, suggesting that direct oxidative modification (Figure 4-14 and Figure 4-13C and D). The observed modulation of the glycolytic enzymes G3PDH and TPI supports previous data showing that oxidative stress can redirect carbohydrate fluxes to generate increased reducing power in the form of NADPH at the expense of glycolysis. Thus, it is interesting that these two proteins have been identified in other studies as being regulated by oxidative stress (Shenton and Grant, 2003). Prohibitin can prevent cellular proliferation by binding to the Rb protein thus promoting suppression of E2F-mediated transcription, and it has been implicated in cell cycle regulation, senescence, immortalization and tumourigenesis (reviewed in (McClung et al., 1995)). Its oxidative modification may therefore have profound effects on cellular proliferation, which was found to be reduced in these cells by H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> treatment. The small GTPase Ran is known to play a critical role in active nuclear transport (Quimby and Dasso, 2003), and its modification may adversely affect protein localisation or be part of a redox protective mechanism. In support of the concept that direct oxidative modification of Ran take place, reduced ICy dye labelling of recombinant Ran protein was observed after treatment with H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> (Figure 4-15) which was in agreement with the observed 2D-DIGE results. SRβ is also a small GTPase involved in targeting of nascent polypeptides to the endoplasmic reticulum translocation machinery (Connolly and Gilmore, 1989). Thus, my results suggest that GTPases could be novel targets of oxidative stress and the impact of redox modification of these enzymes on protein localisation and processing merits further analysis.

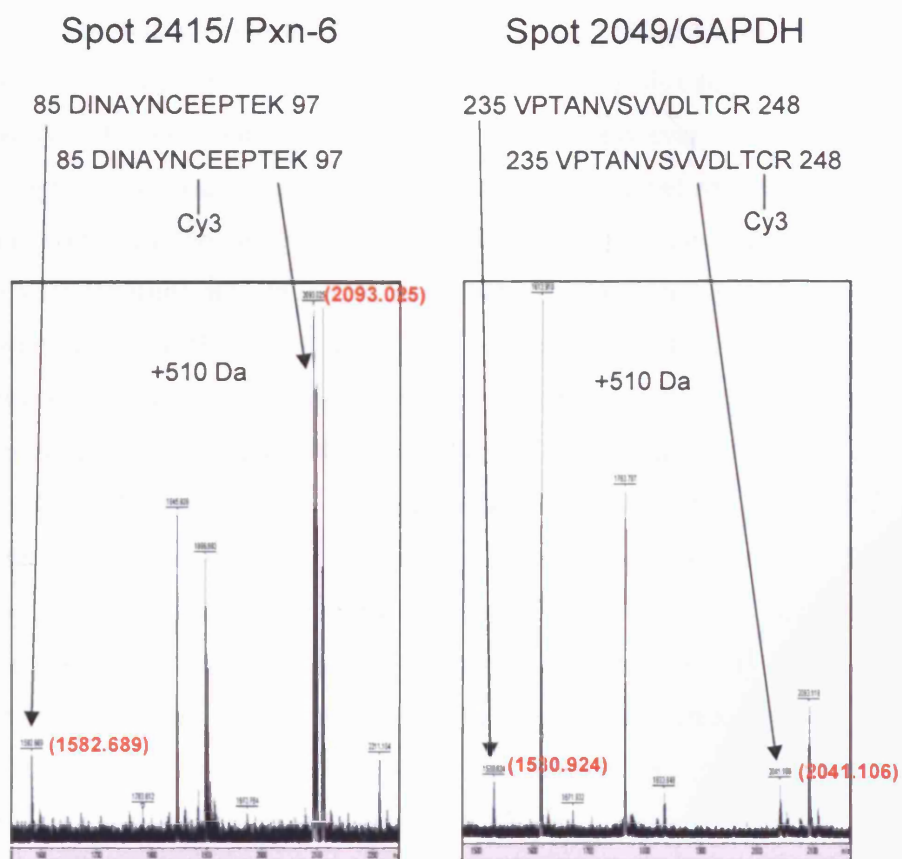
The experimental strategy used here also allowed simultaneous comparison of the effects of ErbB-2 overexpression on the proteome of luminal epithelial cells exposed to oxidative stress. In my experiment, 26 gene products were identified (representing 36 isoforms) that were significantly up- or down-regulated ( $>1.5$ -fold;  $p < 0.05$ ) in untreated or  $H_2O_2$ -treated normal versus ErbB-2 overexpressing cells (Table 4-1B). The differential modulation of several molecular chaperones was observed, suggesting that ErbB-2 overexpression may alter protein folding/processing and influence the stress response. For example, multiple isoforms of Hsp27 and PDI/ERp60 were up-regulated in the C3.6 cells and these were found to be moderately affected (1.2-1.5-fold) by  $H_2O_2$ . Hsp60 and Hsp70 were down-regulated but unaffected by  $H_2O_2$  and TCP1- $\alpha$ , TCP1- $\beta$ , SR $\beta$  and CypA showed both robust ErbB-2- and  $H_2O_2$ -dependent regulation (Table 4-1, Figures 4-12 and 4-13 and 4-14). Although the functional consequences of these changes are unclear, several of these stress-response proteins have been shown to be dysregulated in human cancer and appear to alter the response of tumour cells to immune surveillance, anticancer drugs and oxidative stress (reviewed in (Sarto *et al.*, 2000b)). In support of our data, Hsp27 is overexpressed in invasive ductal carcinomas of the breast (Sarto *et al.*, 2000b) and protects cells against oxidative stress through p38-dependent phosphorylation and cytoskeletal modulation (Dalle-Donne *et al.*, 2001). Interestingly, CypA contains only free thiols, and so the increased labelling observed suggests that a more complex mechanism of redox modulation. One possibility is that  $H_2O_2$  may cleave a disulphide bond between CypA and another protein. In support of this, CypA has been shown to bind to and promote the antioxidant activity of the peroxiredoxins (Lee, 2001). The modulation of these molecular chaperones by  $H_2O_2$  is likely to affect protein folding and may trigger the unfolded protein response (UPR) that modulates expression of ER chaperones such as BiP/Grp78 and the protein disulphide isomerase PDI/ERp60. Thus  $H_2O_2$  may allow cells to tolerate the accumulation of unfolded proteins (Lee, 2001). It is of interest that BiP/GRP78 has been shown to play an important role in the UPR by providing cytoprotection from  $H_2O_2$  in a mechanism involving activation of ERK1/2 signalling (Hung *et al.*, 2003). In correlating with previous blotting results,  $H_2O_2$  was found to activate the ERK 1/2 signalling in the HB4a and C3.6 cell system.

Isoforms of several redox regulatory proteins (GST $\pi$ , Prxn3, Prxn6, Rho-GDP-dissociation inhibitor 1 (RhoGDI1) and dihydrolipoamide dehydrogenase) were also altered by ErbB-2 overexpression, although data from 1D immunoblotting of total protein expression did not particularly agree with that from ICy labelling data. Again, this indicates that direct oxidative modification which does not alter protein abundance. However, the presence of differentially labelled multiple isoforms cannot be resolved by 1DE so the effect on isoform distribution could not be observed. Dysregulated expression (mostly up-regulation) of Prxns has been observed in human cancers, including breast cancer. Such changes have been connected with a protective role against anti-tumour agents and oxidants, and have even been reported to promote cell proliferation and tumour progression (Noh et al., 2001; Shen and Nathan, 2002). Whilst changes in Prxn expression and redox signalling may contribute to the hyperproliferative phenotype observed in the C3.6 cells (Timms *et al.*, 2002), down-regulation of 14-3-3 $\sigma$ , a negative regulator of cell proliferation (Table 4-1B) could also have an important effect. Indeed, and in agreement with our findings, 14-3-3 $\sigma$  expression has been shown to be down-regulated in a significant proportion of primary breast carcinomas examined (Vercoutter-Edouart et al., 2001), and it is tempting to speculate that ErbB-2 overexpression may directly cause this down regulation.

RhoGDI functions to inhibit the activity of the Rho-family of small GTPases by directly preventing the exchange of GDP for GTP by guanine exchange factors (GEFs), by preventing intrinsic and RhoGAP mediated GTP hydrolysis and by keeping Rho/Rac in the cytoplasm (Adra et al., 1997). Thus, RhoGDI can inhibit cell motility by inhibiting the activity of Rho proteins. RhoGDI overexpression has been shown to increase the estrogen receptor transcription level (Su et al., 2001) and the expression of the estrogen receptor directly inhibits breast cancer cell motility and invasion (Lazennec et al., 2001). These studies suggest that RhoGDIs play an important role in cancer cell motility. The data here in (Table 4-1) show that the observed increased labelling of RhoGDI in the HB4a cells with no significant difference in protein level measured by immunoblotting (Figure 4-14). Thus, ErbB-2 signalling could control cell motility via a mechanism involving the altered thiol accessibility of RhoGDI.

#### **4.6 Identification of ICy dye labelled residues by MALDI-TOF-MS**

It was reasoned that it would be possible to identify the specific sites of cysteine redox modification by identifying peptides that were labelled with ICy dye. Therefore all MS database searches were conducted with the inclusion of the ICy3 (510 Da) and ICy5 (508 Da) modification. However, this search revealed only a few modified peptides with high confidence. Two of the examples were Prxn6 and GAPDH, which were labelled at Cys90 and Cys246, respectively (Figure 4-16). Whilst these are not the active site cysteines of these redox-sensitive enzymes (Lind *et al.*, 2002; Wood *et al.*, 2003), they are accessible to labelling, corroborating our theory of how the labelling of some protein isoforms can be increased (i.e. an oxidation-dependent shift in pI with labelling of the shifted form at additional sites). It is important to note that the unlabelled forms of these peptides were also identified, suggesting that labelling is sub-stoichiometric or that the dye moiety was lost during ionisation. The poor recovery of labelled peptides in general may possibly be due to their lowered solubility and hence inefficient extraction of peptides from gel pieces. In support of this, other work in the laboratory showed that model peptides labelled in solution performed well in MALDI-TOF MS. Further refinements to the extraction procedures were carried out including extraction of peptides from gel pieces using higher percentages of acetonitrile (50% or 70%), and trifluoroacetic acid (5% or 10%), with or without sonication. However, these different extraction strategies did not improve the ability to identify dye-labelled peptides.



**(Figure 4-16) Identification of ICy3-modified cysteine residues by MALDI-TOF-MS.** MALDI-TOF-MS spectra are shown for ICy3-modified peptides of Prxn6 and GAPDH from the ICy 2D-DIGE analysis. The molecular weights of ICy3-modified peptides are 510 Da higher than the corresponding unmodified peptides.

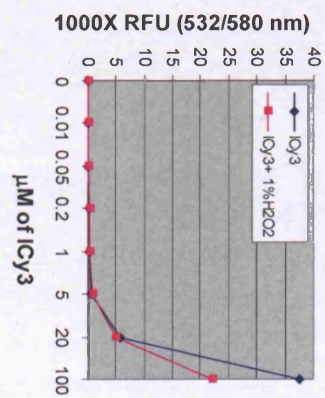
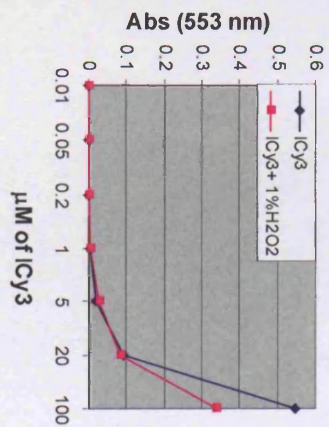
#### **4.7 Effect of H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> on dye integrity**

As part of the 2D-DIGE analytical strategy, gels were post-stained with silver, which was subsequently removed prior to in-gel digestion and MS analysis using 1% H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> treatment (approximately 300 mM) (Gharahdaghi et al., 1999). However, 1% H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> (300 mM) treatment might also oxidise and damage the dyes on labelled proteins leading to problems in identifying labelled peptides by MS. Based on this hypothesis, the effect of H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> on ICy3/5 labelling was investigated. Firstly, the indicated concentration of ICy3 and ICy5 were treated with 1% H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> at room temperature for 10 min, the duration used for removing silver stain prior to in-gel digestion. Subsequently, the absorbance at 553 and 648 nm were recorded for the ICy3 samples and ICy5 samples, respectively (Figure 4-17A). Similarly, the fluorescence excitation/emission wavelengths of 532/580 nm and 633/680 nm were used to detect fluorescence from the ICy3 and ICy5 samples, respectively. Both measurements indicated that 1% H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> caused damage to ICy3, reducing its absorbance and fluorescence emission by approximately 40%. ICy5 was more severely affected and only 10-20% of the ICy5 signal remained after treatment. MALDI-TOF-MS analysis of the H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>-treated dyes indicated that the 636 Da ICy5 signal nearly disappears, whilst the 638 Da signal of ICy3 was no significant change after H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> treatment (Figure 4-17B). According to these observations, the process of silver destaining to improve MALDI-TOF-MS identifications of proteins damages the ICy molecules, presumably through oxidation and breakage of the ring structure of these dyes and would lead to loss of observable dye-modified peptides. For this reason, this step was omitted in subsequent analyses or CCB post-staining was used instead. It is important to note that the concentration of H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> used for destaining is >600 times higher than that used for induction of oxidative stress in cells, such that damage to the dyes in lysates would not occur.

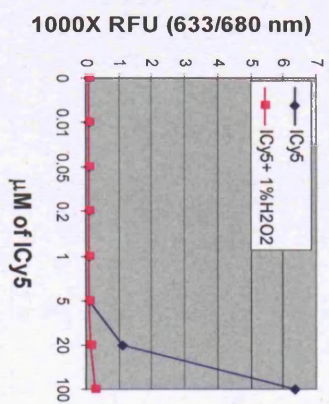
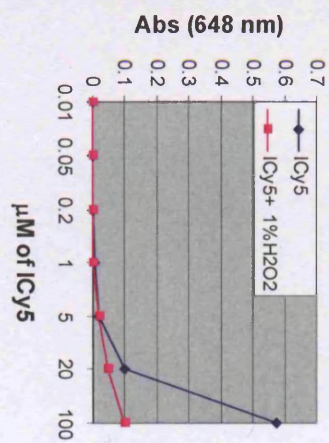


A

ICy3

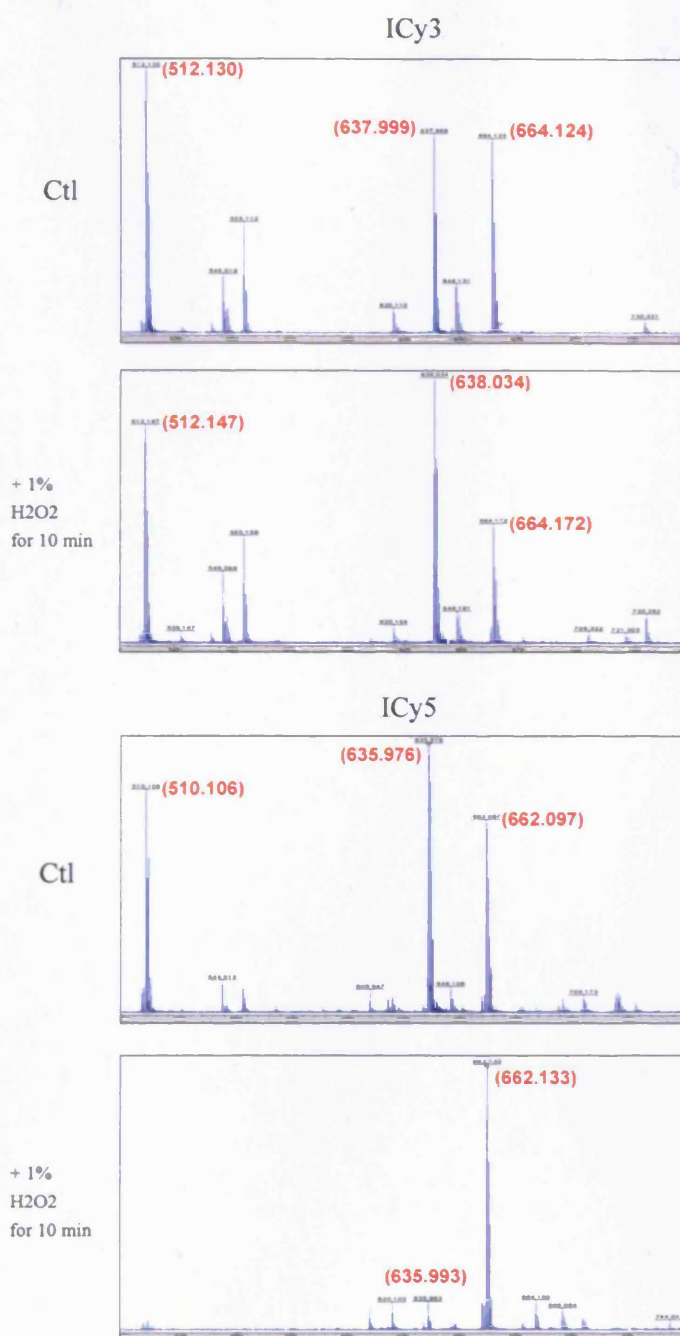


ICy5





B

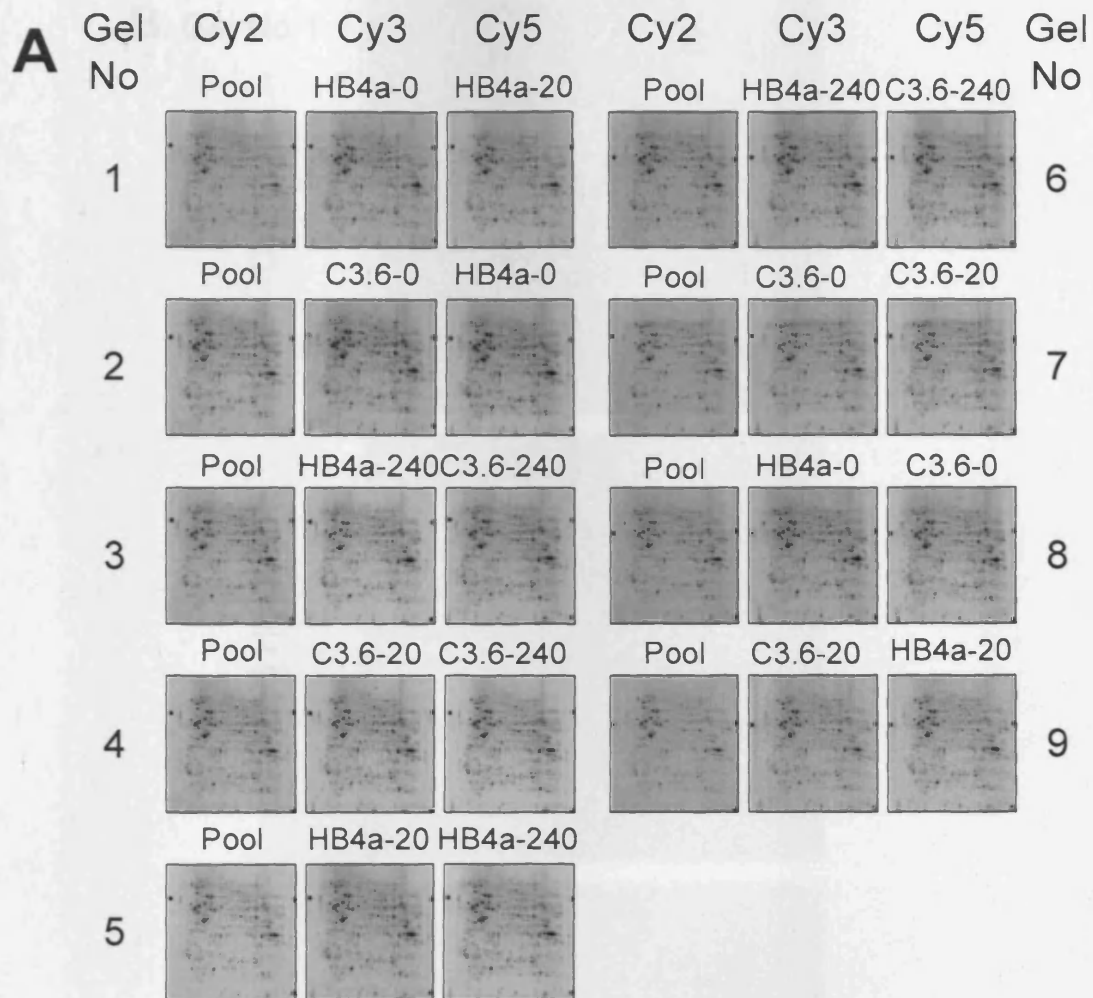


**(Figure 4-17) The Effect of H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> on ICy3 and ICy5 integrity.** (A) 60  $\mu$ l of the indicated concentrations of ICy3 and ICy5 were treated with 1% H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> at room temperature for 10 min or left untreated. The absorbance at 553 and 648 nm were recorded for ICy3 and ICy5 samples, respectively. The fluorescence of the H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>-treated and untreated dyes were measured at excitation/emission wavelengths of 532/580 nm and 633/680 nm for ICy3 and ICy5, respectively. (B) 1 pmol of ICy3 and ICy5 were treated with 1% H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> at room temperature for 10 min. After mixing with 1  $\mu$ l of DHB matrix, spectra were acquired by MALDI-TOF-MS on an Ultraflex instrument calibrated with Calmix 2.

#### **4.8 Analysis of H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>-induced and ErbB-2 dependent protein changes by NHS-lysine labelling 2D-DIGE.**

According to the previous cysteine 2D-DIGE analysis (Table 4-1), two differentially labelled isoforms of peroxiredoxin 6 were observed that are likely to represent different oxidative states; one reduced form and one oxidized (sulfenic/sulfinic/sulfonic) form. In order to corroborate this and other findings, lysine 2D-DIGE was applied to analyses changes in protein level due to oxidative stress.

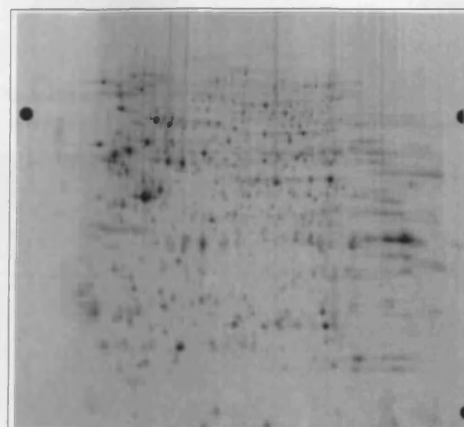
Thus, a minimal-NHS-Cy dye lysine labelling 2D-DIGE experiment was performed where triplicate cultures of HB4a and C3.6 cells were treated with 0.5 mM H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> for 20 and 240 minutes or left untreated. This experimental design would allow the simultaneous examination of significant changes due to ErbB-2 overexpression and H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> treatment, and provide gels for the excision of protein spots for MS identification. Three biological triplicate sets of samples were run on 9 gels using a Cy2-labelled standard consisting of a mixture of all samples, and 27 fluorescent images were captured (Figure 4-18). DeCyder BVA analysis showed 138 significant changes in labelling across the different conditions (>1.5-fold up or down regulated;  $p < 0.05$ ) (Figure 4-19). Of these, 117 could be aligned to corresponding CCB stained spots (Figure 4-20) and 53 (45%) of them were identified by MALDI-TOF-MS representing 38 gene products (Table 4-2). The other 64 (55%) could not be identified due to low sequence coverage or low MS signals. Comparison between the ICy and NHS-Cy dye-labelling approaches revealed 18 common identities, representing isoforms of 11 individual gene products. In most cases, these displayed the same direction of altered expression, indicating that the ICy dyes were detecting changes in abundance for these proteins.



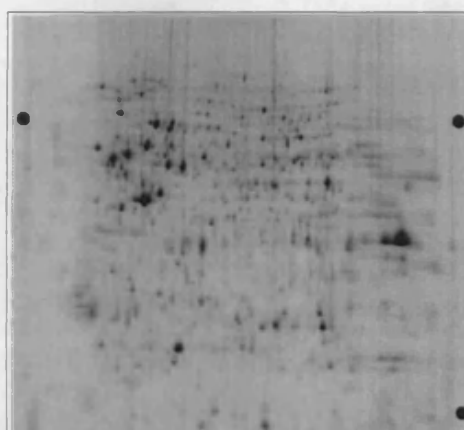
(Figure 1-10) Representation of the experimental design and images obtained in the analysis of the gelatinase response to HB4a. Treatment of HB4a and C3.6 cells using HB4a-Cy 311-DHGE. (a) Randomly growing cells and C3.6 cells were seeded with 0.1 ml of HB4a for 20 and 240 h, and subjected to the treatment protocol. Lysates were prepared and labeled with HB4a-Cy2 or HB4a-Cy3 and compared in an internal standard-experimenting protein aliquots of each sample labeled with HB4a-Cy2. Samples were run in separate 16-lane gels and 16 lanes were analyzed. The experiment 2 gels with 32 lanes generated. Gel images were obtained using the 1DPA module of DeCyder software. Six of the image sets in (A) are shown in 200% magnification enlarged images.

**B. Gel No 1**

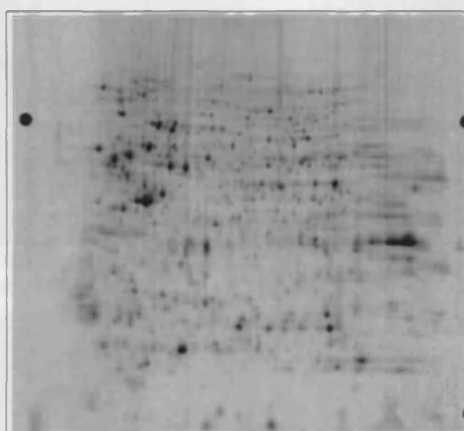
Cy2 Pool



Cy3 HB4a-0



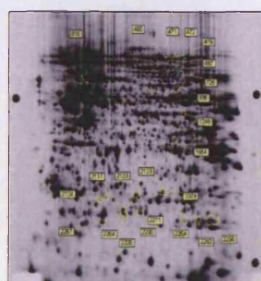
Cy5 HB4a-20



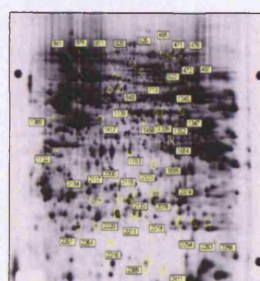
**(Figure 4-18) Representation of the experimental design and images obtained in the analysis of the proteomic response to  $H_2O_2$  treatment in HB4a and C3.6 cells using NHS-Cy 2D-DIGE.** (A) Randomly growing HB4a and C3.6 cells were treated with 0.5 mM  $H_2O_2$  for 20 and 240 min and compared to the untreated samples. Lysates were prepared and labelled with NHS-Cy3 or NHS-Cy5 and compared to an internal standard representing pooled aliquots of each sample labelled with NHS-Cy2. Samples were run in triplicate for statistical analysis and to assess reproducibility. This represents 9 gels with 27 images generated. Gel images were processed using the BVA module of DeCyder software. One of the image sets in (A) are shown in (B) with representative enlarged images.



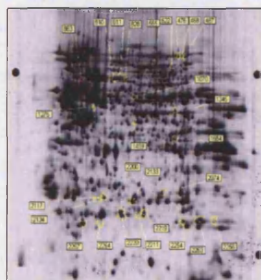
A. Differential labelling between  
HB4a (20) and HB4a (0)



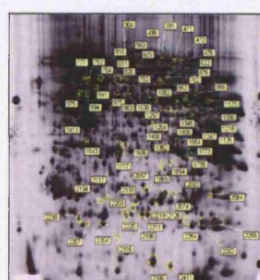
B. Differential labelling between  
HB4a (240) and HB4a (0)



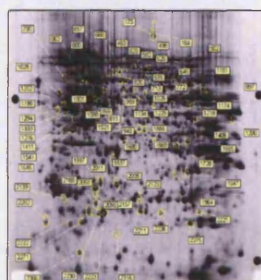
C. Differential labelling between  
C3.6 (20) and C3.6 (0)



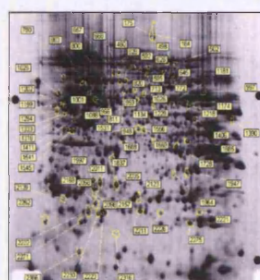
D. Differential labelling between  
C3.6 (240) and C3.6 (0)



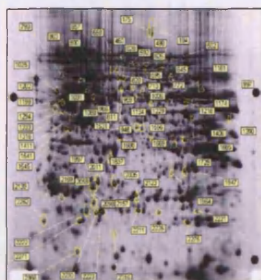
E. Differential labelling between  
C3.6 (0) and HB4a (0)



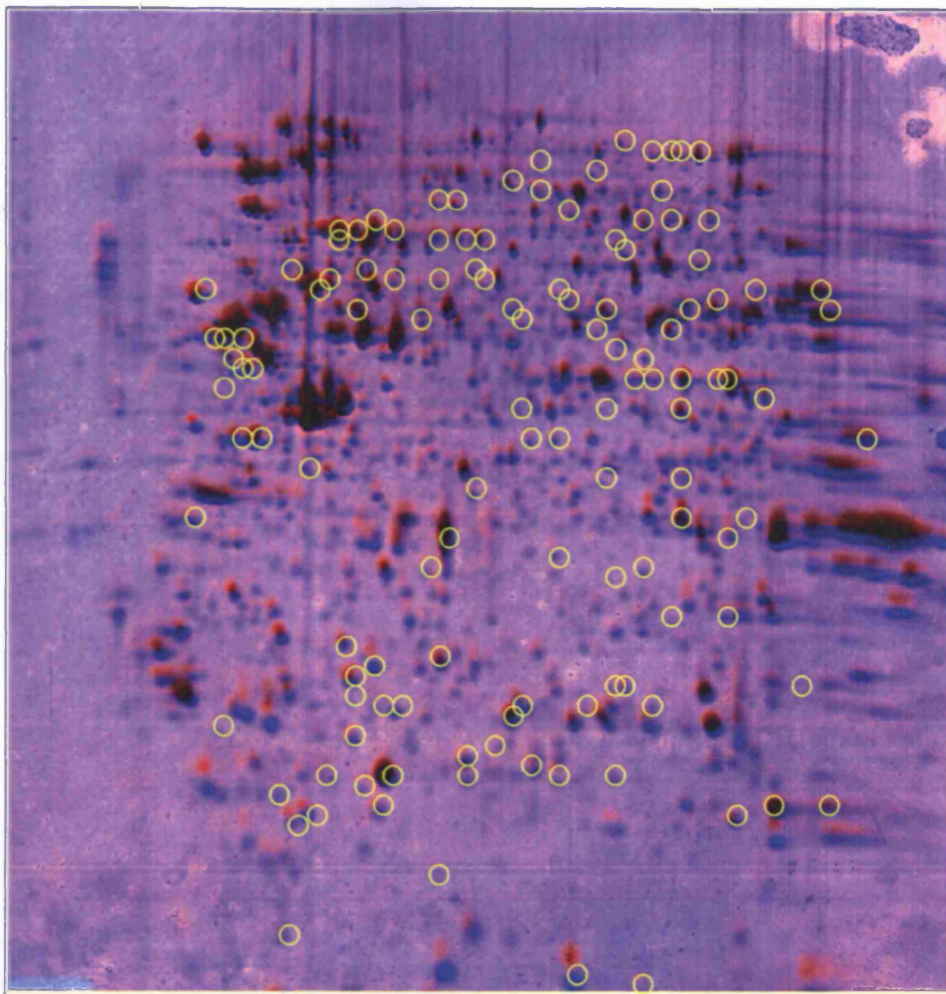
F. Differential labelling between  
C3.6 (20) and HB4a (20)



G. Differential labelling between  
C3.6 (240) and HB4a (240)



**(Figure 4-19) Differential protein expression in HB4a vs. C3.6 cells and H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>-induced differences.** Representative Cy dye images of H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> treated/non-treated HB4a and C3.6 cells are shown. Protein features with altered expression across the time course or between cell lines are labelled with the master spot identity numbers. All of the images in this figure are presented in Appendix I with representative enlarged images.



**(Figure 4-20) Master gel image of NHS-Cy2 labelled standard pool and its corresponding colloidal coomassie blue stained image.** The image shown is a merged image of the NHS-Cy2 labelled HB4a/C3.6 cell lysate pool (red) and the corresponding colloidal coomassie blue stained gel (blue) created using Adobe Photoshop software. The yellow circled spots indicate aligned differentially labelled spots that were excised for further identification.



A

Average fold-difference<sup>†</sup> and *p*-value

Spot No.	Protein Name	% Cov	Mowse Score	Est. mass	Est. pl	Pred. Mass	Pred. pl	Accession No.	4a(20') to 4a(0)	<i>P</i> -value	4a(240') to 4a(0)	<i>P</i> -value	3.6(20') to 3.6(0)	<i>P</i> -value	3.6(240') to 3.6(0)	<i>P</i> -value	Function
391	2-OGDH	27	104/64	110000	7.2	114601	8	1352618	-1.03	0.79	-1.15	0.17	1	0.98	-1.52	0.0015	TCA cycle enzyme/Oxidative metabolism
1123	Cytokeratin 6A	30	104/64	60000	8	59914	8.1	46812692	1.13	0.014	1.53	0.0011	1.07	0.0081	1.66	0.00021	Cytoskeleton
1090	Dihydrolipoyl dehydrogenase	35	100/64	55000	7.6	54713	7.6	51095146	-1.09	0.2	-1.35	0.038	-1.11	0.12	-1.67	0.0017	Component of pyruvate dehydrogenase
471	Elongation factor 2 <sup>a</sup>	13	67/64	95000	7.1	96246	6.4	119172	5.09	0.021	4.39	0.00013	5.55	0.00002	3.53	0.000098	Protein synthesis
472	Elongation factor 2 <sup>a</sup>	21	75/66	95000	7.2	96246	6.4	119172	3.19	0.0089	2.53	0.000026	3.12	0.0011	2.7	0.0018	Protein synthesis
476	Elongation factor 2 <sup>a</sup>	37	157/64	95000	7.3	96246	6.4	119172	2.24	0.031	1.67	0.0007	2.23	0.00036	1.62	0.0023	Protein synthesis
468	Elongation factor 2 <sup>a</sup>	27	83/64	95000	7.4	96246	6.4	119172	-1.34	0.028	-1.25	0.01	-1.5	0.011	-1.28	0.025	Protein synthesis
487	Elongation factor 2 <sup>a</sup>	39	169/64	95000	7.5	96246	6.4	119172	-2.48	0.00085	-2.25	0.00013	-3.27	0.000059	-2.93	0.000056	Protein synthesis
1345	Enolase alpha <sup>a</sup>	41	125/64	47000	7.3	47481	7	29792061	1.34	0.033	1.46	0.0042	1.52	0.0062	1.94	0.0016	Glycolysis
1347	Enolase alpha <sup>a</sup>	76	228/64	47000	7.5	47481	7	29792061	-1.15	0.028	-1.59	0.0012	-1.26	0.014	-1.82	0.00099	Glycolysis
994	HSP-60	57	247/64	60000	5.5	61187	5.7	31542947	1.07	0.48	-1.07	0.5	-1.1	0.36	-1.89	0.0012	Protein folding
764	HSP-70 protein 9B <sup>a</sup>	66	317/64	70000	6	73920	5.9	24234688	-1.09	0.015	-1.22	0.015	-1.11	0.021	-1.78	0.00018	Protein folding
777	HSP-70 protein 9B <sup>a</sup>	31	118/64	70000	5.6	73920	5.6	24234688	1.06	0.71	1.38	0.07	-1.01	0.92	1.7	0.0018	Protein folding
713	HSP-71	55	204/64	70000	6.5	71082	5.7	16741727	1.19	0.063	1.57	0.0038	-1.15	0.0036	-1.2	0.007	Protein folding
1777	Lactate dehydrogenase B <sup>a</sup>	56	236/64	37000	6	36801	5.7	49259212	-1.04	0.0047	-1.4	0.005	-1.1	0.0017	-1.74	0.00085	Glycolysis (regeneration of NADH)
725	Lamin A/Ca	57	206/24	70000	8	70903	8.6	27436948	-1.58	0.017	-1.28	0.15	-1.43	0.0027	-1.44	0.00078	Nuclear protein for mitosis
863	L-plastin <sup>a</sup>	56	245/64	70000	5.5	70815	5.2	4504965	-1.43	0.000045	-1.34	0.011	-2.64	0.0001	-1.4	0.0038	Actin binding protein
503	NRAS-related protein	32	115/64	85000	6.5	80046	6.2	16356661	-1.03	0.62	-1.21	0.025	-1.03	0.8	-1.54	0.0051	Ras oncoprotein
2256	Peroxisredoxin 1 <sup>a</sup>	75	183/64	23000	8.5	22324	8.3	32455266	-4.91	0.027	-5.83	0.00034	-6.54	0.000072	-9.83	0.00000026	Cellular protection from oxidative stress
2263	Peroxisredoxin 1 <sup>a</sup>	74	157/64	23000	8.3	22324	8.3	32455266	5.17	0.014	4.77	0.00019	5.64	0.000077	6.17	0.000059	Cellular protection from oxidative stress
2267	Peroxisredoxin 2 isoform b	37	73/64	20000	5.5	16036	6.1	33188452	11.71	0.0058	9.38	0.000026	8.57	0.00032	8.8	0.00032	Cellular protection from oxidative stress
2264	Peroxisredoxin 2 <sup>a</sup>	58	190/64	22000	5.8	21892	5.7	2507169	-9	0.0014	-4.14	0.0001	-8.15	0.00015	-7.39	0.0000044	Cellular protection from oxidative stress
2211	Peroxisredoxin 3 isoform b	28	84/64	26000	7	25839	7	32483377	-4.03	0.00056	-4.11	0.00012	-3.04	0.0000037	-3.83	0.000000088	Cellular protection from oxidative stress
2123	Peroxisredoxin 6 <sup>a</sup>	82	160/64	27000	6.2	25035	6	1718024	-1.85	0.0073	-1.74	0.0011	-1.41	0.0017	-1.01	0.0048	Cellular protection from oxidative stress
2133	Peroxisredoxin 6 <sup>a</sup>	47	87/64	27000	6	25035	6	1718024	9.54	0.0082	9.19	0.000063	12.42	0.00005	13.9	0.000036	Cellular protection from oxidative stress
2074	Phosphoglycerate mutase 1	53	102/64	28000	7	28931	6.8	49456447	-1.82	0.00021	-1.73	0.00056	-3.77	0.000021	-3.97	0.00005	Glycolysis
2076	Phosphomannomutase 2	35	71/64	28000	6.5	28406	6.4	4557839	-1.48	0.012	-1.51	0.0089	-1.42	0.0052	-1.55	0.018	Protein glycosylation
1352	Sorting nexin 5	43	100/64	47000	6.8	47072	6.3	23111047	1.19	0.0018	2.08	0.000027	1.26	0.017	2.5	0.000063	Intracellular trafficking
762	TNFR 1 asso. proteins	43	162/64	70000	8.3	70618	8	1082886	-1.13	0.0099	-1.33	0.0093	1.04	0.012	-2.11	0.0014	Cytokine involved inflammatory

B

Average fold-difference <sup>†</sup> and p-value

Spot No.	Protein Name	% Cov	Mowse Score	Est. mass	Est. pI	Pred. Mass	Pred. pI	Accession No.	3.6 (0') to 4a(0')	P-value	3.6 (20') to 4a(20')	P-value	3.6 (240') to 4a(240')	P-value	Function
1202	Cytokeratin 13A	45	161/64	50000	5	49898	4.9	24234696	1.63	0.000071	1.54	0.0016	1.79	0.0000079	Cytoskeleton
1316	Cytokeratin 17 <sup>a</sup>	54	219/64	40000	5	40520	4.9	47939651	2.36	0.0036	2.05	0.019	2.37	0.00095	Cytoskeleton
1541	Cytokeratin 19	44	161/64	45000	4.8	44079	5	417200	-1.56	0.0062	-1.6	0.0041	-1.43	0.008	Cytoskeleton
1545	Cytokeratin 19 <sup>a</sup>	82	325/64	45000	4.9	44079	5	417200	-1.61	0.00089	-1.82	0.0001	-1.61	0.001	Cytoskeleton
1088	FK506-binding protein 4	35	65/64	52000	5.8	52057	5.4	4503729	-1.65	0.00067	-1.51	0.047	-1.89	0.0017	Immuno-regulation/protein folding (PPIase)
2221	Flavin reductase (NADPH)	55	65/64	24000	8	22219	7.1	32891807	-1.57	0.0095	-1.29	0.19	-1.32	0.009	Protection from oxidative stress/iron metabolism
1406	Fumarate hydratase	43	114/64	50000	8.5	54773	8.8	32880021	1.63	0.0028	1.63	0.0005	1.5	0.0027	TCA cycle enzyme
1294	Rb-binding protein p46 <sup>b</sup>	44	142/64	50000	5	48132	5.2	4506439	-1.73	0.00095	-2.35	0.011	-3.41	0.023	Suppression of proliferation
2223	Glutathione S-transferase pi	69	179/64	25000	5.5	24678	5.7	121746	-1.94	0.00054	-2.05	0.00033	-1.84	0.00014	Regulation of cellular redox state
800	HSP-70	52	136/64	70000	6	70263	5.6	32879973	-1.57	0.0018	-1.77	0.00044	-1.92	0.0015	Protein folding
713	HSP-71	55	204/64	70000	6.5	71082	5.7	16741727	2.07	0.00032	1.51	0.00039	1.1	0.16	Protein folding
2366	Human eIF1 <sup>a</sup>	50	75/60	16000	5.5	16433	5.1	7546515	1.51	0.013	1.62	0.00071	1.67	0.00079	Protein synthesis
1688	Isocitrate dehydrogenase 3	30	78/64	40000	6.5	40022	6.5	5031777	1.67	0.0013	1.63	0.0062	1.31	0.0051	TCA cycle enzyme
863	L-plastin <sup>a</sup>	60	260/64	70000	5.5	70815	5.2	4504965	3.32	0.000038	1.79	0.00024	3.19	0.00045	Actin bundling protein
592	Mito. Inner memb. Protein <sup>a</sup>	29	84/64	85000	7	84026	6.1	12803209	1.5	0.0074	1.47	0.00049	1.33	0.0017	Unknown
657	Myxovirus resistance protein 1	39	122/64	75000	6	75886	5.6	21619147	-4.88	0.0078	-7.99	0.00041	-8.86	0.0066	Anti-viral protein/IFN-induced
668	Myxovirus resistance protein 1	55	222/64	75000	6.3	75886	5.6	21619147	-10.01	0.000026	-6.7	0.00055	-12.92	0.000024	Anti-viral protein/IFN-induced
2211	Peroxiredoxin 3 isoform b	28	84/64	26000	7	25839	7	32483377	1.74	0.0017	2.3	0.0021	1.87	0.00056	Cellular protection from oxidative stress
2123	Peroxiredoxin 6	82	160/64	27000	6.2	25035	6	1718024	-1.99	0.0035	-1.51	0.00017	-1.16	0.073	Cellular protection from oxidative stress
1025	Protein disulfide-isomerase	63	236/64	57000	4.8	57117	4.8	1085373	-1.51	0.0078	-1.58	0.00053	-1.41	0.0072	Disulfide bond formation/protein folding
1411	Thioredoxin domain containing 4	32	87/64	45000	5	47297	5	37183214	-1.73	0.0042	-2.21	0.00037	-2.06	0.0021	Protection from oxidative stress/protein folding
1134	Trp-tRNA synthetase isoform b	26	67/64	50000	6.3	48852	6	47419920	-1.67	0.0012	-1.59	0.0002	-1.7	0.0021	Protein synthesis
1001	Ub-specific protease 14	37	123/64	60000	5.6	61317	5.6	30583205	-1.59	0.00028	-1.68	0.0026	-1.54	0.0059	Unknown

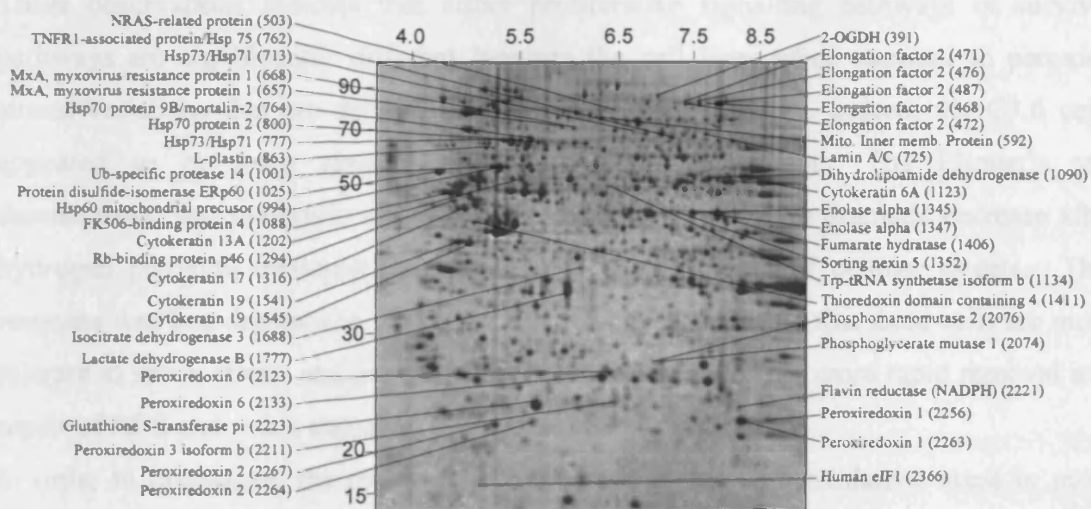


**(Table 4-2) Identification of H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>- and ErbB-2-dependent differentially expressed proteins.** **(A)** Proteins displaying H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>-induced differential labelling in normal (HB4a) and ErbB-2-overexpressing (C3.6) human mammary luminal epithelial cells. **(B)** Proteins displaying differential labelling between HB4a and C3.6 luminal epithelial cells. Proteins were identified by MALDI-TOF peptide mass mapping (see Materials and Methods (Chapter 2)). \*Proteins identified in two or more independent experiments. Proteins appearing more than once in the tables were identified as isoforms with different p/s. The % coverage of analysed peptides, the MOWSE score from Mascot searches and the significance threshold score, the estimated mass and pI (from gels), the predicted mass and pI (from the database) and the NCBI gene identifier (Accession Number) are shown for each protein. MS spectra, MOWSE score histograms, matching peptides and sequence coverage for all proteins are shown in Appendix D. †Average fold-differences from DeCyder analysis show abundance ratios for treated HB4a cells versus untreated (4a(240') and 4a(20') versus 4a(0)), treated C3.6 cells versus untreated (3.6(240') and 3.6(20') versus 3.6(0)) and C3.6 versus HB4a at each timepoint(3.6(0') to 4a(0'), 3.6(20') to 4a(20') and 3.6(240') to 4a(240')). Proteins displaying an average fold-difference of  $\geq 1.5$ -fold up (+) or down (-) regulation between pairs of conditions where  $p < 0.05$  and spots matched in all images are shaded grey. N. A. not analysed. Functions were ascribed from the NCBI database and literature searches.

The lysine labelling results showed that 30 of the 53 identified proteins displayed peroxide-dependent changes (Table 4-2A) and the other 23 ErbB-2-correlated changes (Table 4-2B). All of the identified features are shown in Figure 4-21. As expected, 7 of the 23 ErbB-2- correlated proteins were matched with those from a previous analysis of these cell lines from our laboratory (Gharbi *et al.*, 2002) where a similar lysine labelling 2D-DIGE and MALDI-TOF-MS was used to identify ErbB-2 correlated differential expression. These proteins include myxovirus resistance protein 1, HSP-70, L-plastin, ubiquitin carboxyl hydrolase 14, FK506-binding protein 4 and cytokeratin 17. Whilst a higher overlap of identifications might be expected from these two studies, differences in gel resolution, the fact that not all differentially expressed features were identified and the way the cells were grown (serum-starved in the previous study versus grown in the presence of serum in this study) may account for the low overlap.

The differentially expressed proteins identified by NHS-Cy labelling and MS were again involved in redox regulation, protein folding, proliferative suppression, glycolysis and the cytoskeleton, suggesting that these cellular functions are the major targets of redox stress and ErbB-2 overexpression. In addition, four citrate (TCA) cycle enzymes were modulated, including dihydrolipoamide dehydrogenase, which possesses a redox-active disulphide bond at its active site, and four proteins involved in protein synthesis. Importantly, Prxns 1, 2, 3 and 6 were again identified and three (Prxn-1, Prxn-2 and Prxn-6) were identified in doublet spots (Figure 4-21 and Table 4-2A). Interestingly, all of the basic spots of the doublets became less intense and the acidic spots more intense after hydrogen peroxide treatment. Since MALDI-TOF-MS and database searching gave high confidence hits for both proteins in the spot pairs, this shows that the difference in intensity between the two spots is due to a post-translational modification. The study of Wagner *et al.* and Rabilloud *et al.* (Wagner *et al.*, 2002; Rabilloud *et al.*, 2002b) also found doublets for the Prxns by 2DE and MALDI-TOF-MS which changed in a similar manner to that observed here following oxidative stress. Further analysis showed that the basic spot is the native Prxn while the acidic spot corresponded to the sulfinic or sulfonic form of each Prxn. Thus, we can infer that the basic spots in the doublet of Prxn-1, Prxn-2 and Prxn-6 are the native forms of the enzymes and that the acidic spots in the doublet correspond to the sulfenic, sulfinic or sulfonic forms. In addition, elongation factor 2 and

enolase alpha also existed as multiple isoforms, where the more acidic isoforms were up-regulated by H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> treatment, suggesting that both of them may be oxidized and shifted in *pI*. It is likely that such modifications would affect protein translation and glycolysis, respectively. Differences were also detected in the response of several proteins isoforms to H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> in the two cell lines. These included Hsp73/71, Prxn-6 and L-plastin (Table 4-2A); differences which are likely to reflect their altered abundance in the ErbB-2 overexpressing cells (Table 4-2B). In summary, these data show the complexity of the response of epithelial cells to redox stress and the effect that ErbB-2 overexpression has on these responses.



(Figure 4-21) 2DE migration of proteins identified by MALDI-TOF-MS displaying H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>-induced and/or ErbB-2 dependent differential expression (see Table 4-2). An NHS-Cy-dye image is shown with the identified proteins.

## 4.9 Conclusions

In experiments to assess the response of epithelial cells to oxidative stress and ErbB-2 overexpression, the activation of certain signalling molecules was firstly examined. The results demonstrated that the responses between HB4a and C3.6 cells to hydrogen peroxide were significantly different. More proteins and a greater degree of tyrosine phosphorylation were observed in the HB4a versus C3.6 cells. Moreover, the stress protein kinase, p38, was fully activated in 5 minutes after H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> treatment in HB4a, but not until 20 minutes in C3.6 cells. Both the MAP kinase and PI3Kinase pathways were activated after H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> treatment in both cell lines. Interestingly, MnSOD, which generates cellular hydrogen peroxide from superoxide, exhibited lower expression in the C3.6 cells. These observations indicate that either proliferative signalling pathways or survival pathways are significantly different between the cell lines when exposed to peroxide stress, variations that are derived from ErbB-2 overexpression. Indeed, the C3.6 cells appeared to be more resistant to H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>-induced cell death. The Ellman's test demonstrated that the levels of total free thiols in cells display a dramatic decrease after hydrogen peroxide treatment, consistent with the oxidation of cellular targets. This response was less dramatic in the C3.6 cells, which may indicate that these cells are more tolerant to redox stress, and have developed mechanisms for the more rapid removal and repair of ROS and redox damage.

In order to investigate the molecular changes associated with oxidative stress in more detailed, lysine and cysteine 2D-DIGE were used for expression profiling and to examine changes in thiol reactivity. This work showed that DIGE analysis could provide a sensitive, accurate and quantitative analysis of differential protein regulation in this model cell system. Reproducible and significant differences were detected both between the parental and ErbB-2 overexpressing cell lines and in responses to hydrogen peroxide treatment.

Cysteine labelling 2D-DIGE using iodoacetylated versions of the Cy dyes (ICy dyes) under non-reduced conditions, was employed to probe for targets of cellular oxidative stress (H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> treatment) in HB4a and C3.6 cells. Firstly, a timecourse of H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> treatment was carried out in the two cell lines revealing multiple differential ICy labelling between cell lines and with H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> treatment. Notably, very rapid (within 2 minutes) changes in

labelling were observed, indicative of thiol oxidation rather than changes in protein expression. A more detailed study using a 20 minute exposure to hydrogen peroxide was then carried out and proteins identified by MALDI-TOF-MS. In this study, the number of spots that could be matched between all gels was high, showing the reproducibility of the 2D-DIGE method. These experiments also showed the compatibility of ICy dye covalent labelling with subsequent identification by MALDI-TOF-MS, although some proteins could not be identified in most cases due to low protein abundance. Thus, whilst changes in thiol reactivity could be detected at a high level of sensitivity, the proteins could not be identified because of limitations in the sample preparation steps for MS. In one of three repeat experiments, the results showed that 126 gel features were significantly differentially labelled with a  $> 1.5$  fold-increases or decreases in labelling ( $P < 0.05$ ) between the cell lines or in response to  $H_2O_2$  treatment. 89 of these changes could be matched to their corresponding silver stained spots and these were picked from gels for MS identification. So far, 51 proteins have been identified using MALDI-TOF-MS. These identified proteins have functions in protein folding, redox regulation, cytoskeleton, proliferation and nuclear transport. In addition, 26 of these identified proteins were ErbB-2-dependent, such as Hsp-27, and some of them are related to the biological functions in cancer cell such as maspin precursor (protease inhibitor 5).

To validate the changes observed by DIGE, some of the proteins of interest were further investigated by 1-D and 2-D immunoblotting. The levels of many of the identified proteins did not correlate with the changes seen for ICy dye labelling, supporting the notion that  $H_2O_2$  was acting by inducing changes in thiol reactivity instead of altering the protein level. However, the limited dynamic range of ECL used for immunodetection and the lack of resolution of differentially charged isoforms by 1DE; made it difficult to correlate the data well. All of the proteins identified contain at least 1 free cysteinyl thiol group, demonstrating the specificity of labelling. However, very few ICy labelled peptides could be identified by MALDI-TOF-MS. This is possibly caused by the low solubility of dye-labelled peptides, the low efficiency of peptide extraction or the loss of the ICy dye label during ionization.

Modifications of cysteine residues can induce an increase or decrease in ICy dye labelling. The absence or reduction in labelling could be caused by glutathionylation or

oxidise cysteines to sulfenic, sulfinic or sulfonic forms/ the form of disulphides. In contrast, the gain or increase in labelling could have been induced by breakage of disulphides or by peroxide-induced shifts in *pI* and labelling of non-oxidised thiols on the *pI* shifted proteins. Support for the latter was seen in results from the lysine-labelling 2D-DIGE experiments where doublet spots for peroxiredoxins/ elongation factor 2/ enolase were found with the sulfinic/sulfonic acid forms of the proteins migrating to more acidic *pI* but still amenable to ICy dye labelling on additional sites. Finally, the identification of unique and shared gene products using both lysine labelling and cysteine labelling strategies helps to better define the biological changes associated with H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> stress and ErbB-2 overexpression and demonstrates the usefulness of 2D-DIGE for the study of post-translational modifications. However, in the absence of a 100% hit rate for MS protein identifications, it is still difficult to compare the relative contributions of changes in abundance versus changes in thiol reactivity using these methods.

## **Chapter 5 APPLICATION OF CYSTEINE-LABELLING 2D-DIGE AS A PROBE FOR GROWTH FACTOR DEPENDENT CHANGES IN THIOL ACCESSIBILITY AND OXIDATION**

### **5.1 Introduction**

In the previous chapter, the potential of the cysteine-labelling 2D-DIGE method was shown in an analysis the cellular targets of oxidative stress and ErbB-2 overexpression. In this chapter, the utility of the 2D-DIGE strategy for the analysis of EGF-induced changes in thiol reactivity and accessibility is assessed. As previously described, the ErbB receptor family of receptor tyrosine kinases is responsible for transferring extracellular stimuli in the form of growth factors to downstream intracellular signalling events.

The recruitment and activation of effector proteins to the receptor is an important step in the initiation of various downstream signalling cascades. This process involves a series of protein-protein interactions which include hydrophobic interactions, ionic interactions, covalent bond formation/breakage and hydrogen bond formation/breakage. It is possible that thiol accessibility could change during the process of signal transduction if specific thiol groups are located at the interface between interacting proteins. Thus, by labelling cysteinyl thiols with the ICy dye reagents under native conditions, it may be possible to monitor the dissociation and association of protein complexes, for example, in response to mitogen treatment. Thus, the work in this chapter was aimed at testing whether this strategy was feasible. It has also been shown that cysteinyl thiol groups play important roles in signal transduction through covalent changes in their oxidative status (Chapter 1). Indeed, a growing body of evidence suggests that endogenously generated  $H_2O_2$  is required for growth factor signalling (see Introduction) (Lee et al., 2000; Park *et al.*, 2004; Kwon *et al.*, 2004). Thus, the second aim of this work was to establish whether mitogen stimulation produces changes in the redox status of proteins and to identify these targets using ICy dye 2D-DIGE and MS.

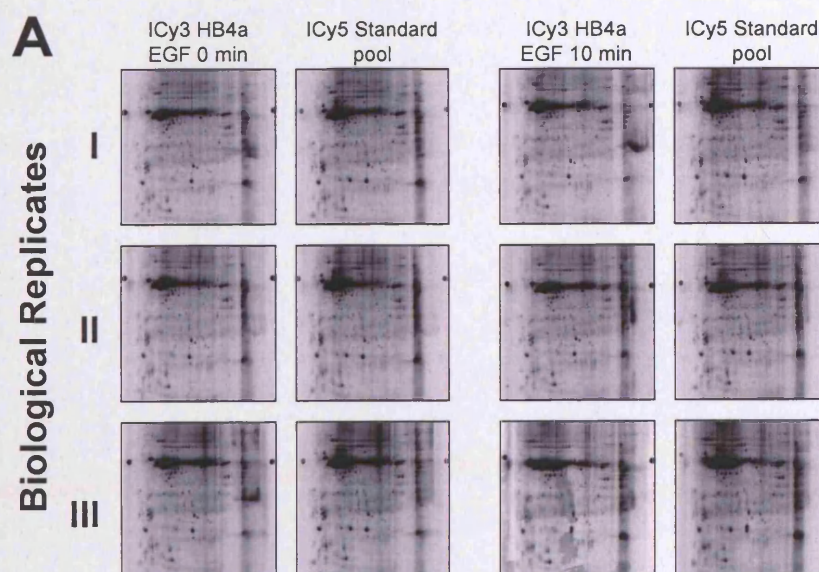


## **5.2 ICy dye differential labelling under native conditions and identification of EGF-induced changes**

In order to apply cysteine labelling 2D-DIGE to study potential changes in thiol accessibility, native protein labelling conditions were developed. The normally used urea ICy dye labelling buffer replaced by a Nonidet P-40 (NP-40) lysis and labelling buffer (1% NP-40/10mM Tris pH 8.0/1 mM EDTA), which contains a mild non-ionic detergent that has minimal effect in the conformation of proteins. Experiments were performed to compare serum-starved HB4a cells with EGF-stimulated cells. A timepoint of 10 min was chosen to examine immediate growth factor signalling events and 1 nM EGF was used. This concentration is known to robustly stimulate mitogenic signalling events in these cells (Timms *et al.*, 2002). Cells were grown and treated in triplicate and lysed in the presence of ICy dye. ICy3- labelled individual samples were run against an equal load of ICy5-labelled standard pool consisting of an equal mixture of all 6 samples. Subsequently, urea-containing buffer was added and the samples reduced to improve sample solubility prior to 2DE. Although the resulting 2D images could still be scanned and analysed by DeCyder, there appeared to be an appreciable level of precipitation and aggregation of proteins/dyes particularly across the gel in the 50-60 kDa region and fewer spots could be resolved by this native 2D-DIGE labelling compare with denaturing 2D-DIGE (Figure 5-1). Two independent experiments were run with 6 gels and 12 fluorescent images were captured in each. In one of these experiments, 10 significant changes in labelling were identified ( $>1.3$  fold up or down regulated;  $p < 0.05$ ) (Figure 5-2A and B). Post-staining with colloidal coomassie blue or silver and matching of the patterns to the corresponding fluorescent images allowed the picking of 6 gel features with confidence (Figure 5-2C), and 3 proteins were identified by MALDI-TOF peptide mass mapping with a mass accuracy set at  $\pm 50$  ppm (Figure 5-3). These 3 proteins were aldehyde reductase, annexin IV and peroxiredoxin 6. All of these proteins contained at least one cysteine in their protein sequence and displayed reduced ICy dye labelling following EGF treatment. This may suggest that these proteins are interacting with other proteins to protect their free thiols or are the targets of EGF-induced generation of oxidants.

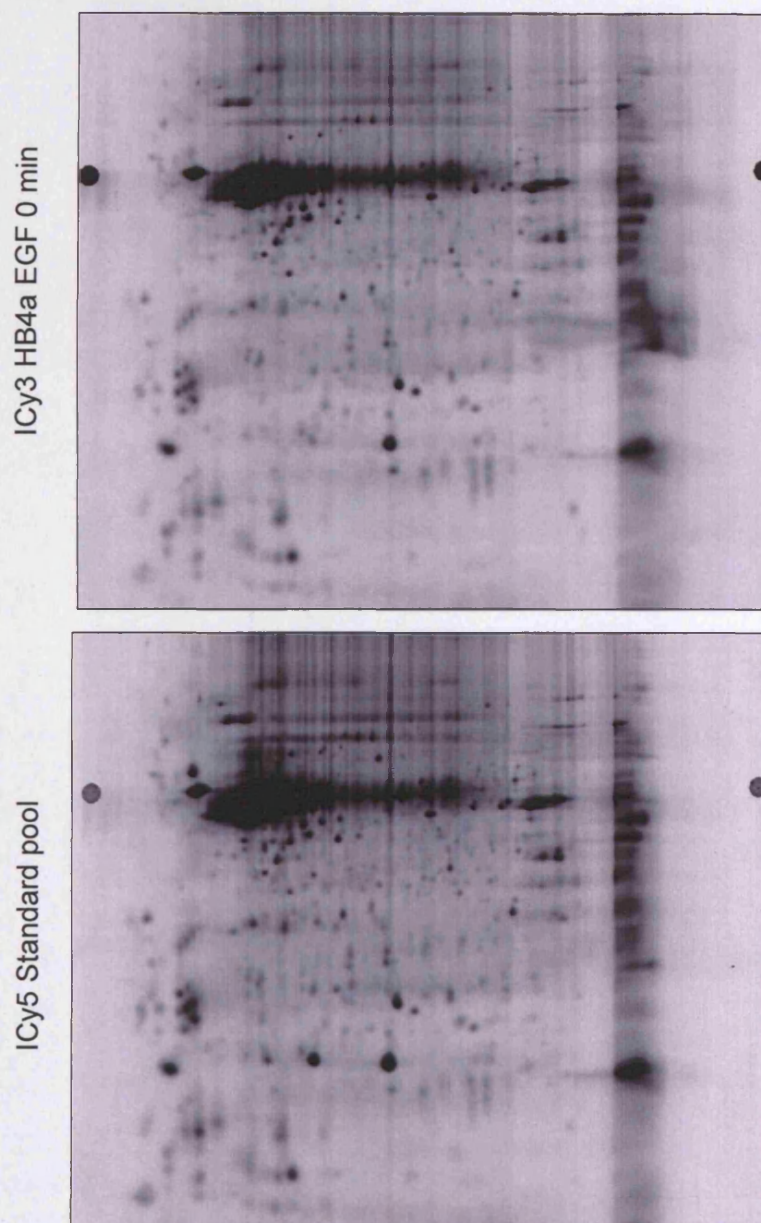
Of note, the post-staining did not produce the apparent precipitation or aggregation in the 50-60 kDa region (Figure 5-2C), therefore, it must be a dye labelling phenomena and possibly due to the aggregation of dyes induced by NP-40 buffer.

This significant precipitation/dye aggregation problem resulted in the loss of some labelled features from the DeCyder analysis. Therefore, an extension of this study was performed using ICy labelling buffer with urea instead of NP-40 to compare EGF treated versus untreated HB4a total cell lysates. Under these denaturing conditions, potential EGF- induced changes in intermolecular accessibility would no longer be observed, however, EGF-induced thiol oxidative changes can still be investigated. The experimental design was the same as the previous experiment and ICy3-labelled EGF treated/untreated samples were run with against an equal load of ICy5-labelled standard pool consisting of an equal mixture of all samples. The precipitation problem was significantly improved and seven changes in labelling were determined by DeCyder analysis with the criteria of >1.3 fold up or down regulation with  $p < 0.05$  (Figure 5-4). Only two changes were found with a 1.5 fold cut-off (data not shown). Post-staining with colloidal coomassie blue stain and matching to the corresponding fluorescent images allowed picking of three gel features with confidence (Figure 5-4B), and two proteins were identified by MALDI-TOF peptide mass mapping (Figure 5-4). These two proteins were Rho-GDP dissociation inhibitor (GDI) and peroxiredoxin 6. Both of them displayed reduced ICy dye labelling after EGF treatment.

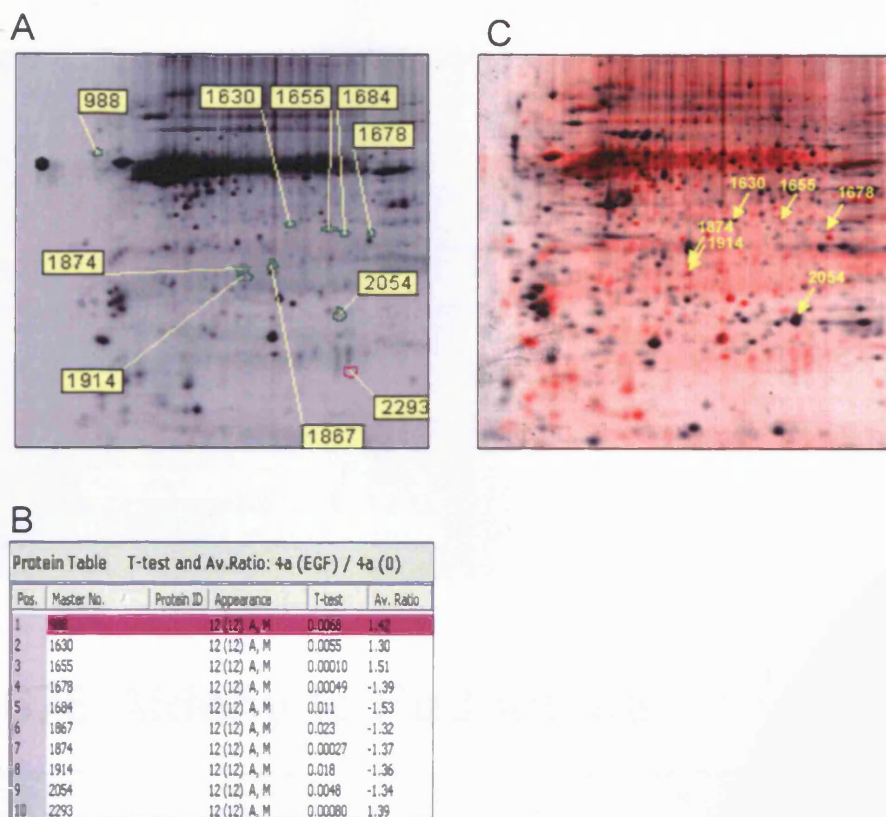




## B Biological Replicates I

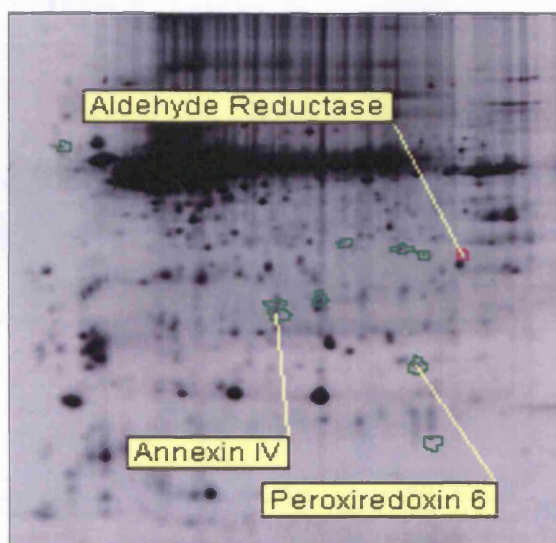


**(Figure 5-1) Representation of the experimental design in the study of the thiol reactivity in HB4a cells in response to 1 nM EGF treatment using ICy dye labelling under native conditions.** (A) Serum-starved HB4a cells were treated with 1nM EGF for 10 min or left untreated. Equal amounts of ICy5 labelled cell lysates (in 1% NP-40 native buffer) were mixed as an internal standard pool and run against ICy3-labelled lysates from untreated and EGF treated cells. Samples were run in triplicate as biological replicates for statistical analysis and to assess reproducibility. This represents 6 gels with 12 images generated. Gel images were processed using the BVA module of DeCyder software. All of the images in this figure are also presented in Appendix L with representative enlarged images. One of the image sets in (A) is shown in (B) as representative enlarged images.



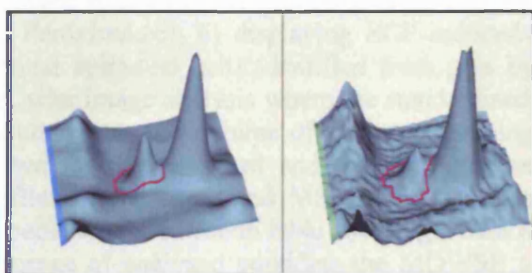
**(Figure 5-2) Visualisation of differential thiol reactivity in EGF treated versus untreated HB4a cells labelled under native conditions. (A) Representative ICy dye image of EGF treated treated samples. Protein features displaying altered expression levels ( $> 1.3$  fold) after EGF-treatment are labelled with a spot identity number. (B) Table showing the 10 differentially labelled protein spots with average fold change and T-test  $p$ -values. (C) The image is a merged image of the ICy5-labelled standard pool (red spots) with the image of its corresponding silver stained gel (black spots). The arrows indicate the aligned features between differentially labelled spots and the corresponding silver-stained spots. These spots were picked for identification by MALDI-TOF MS.**

**A**

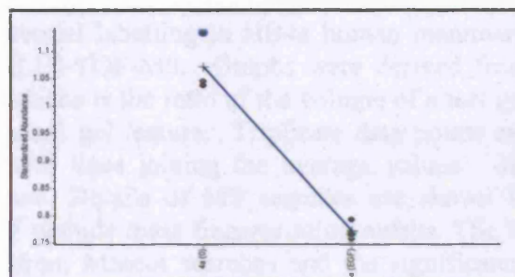


**B**

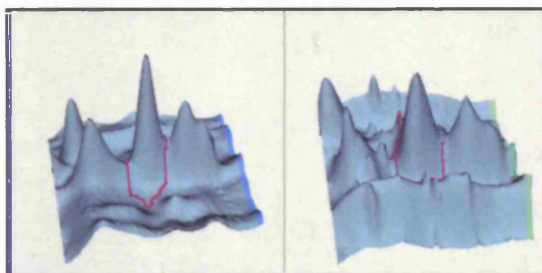
## I. 1678 Aldehyde Reductase



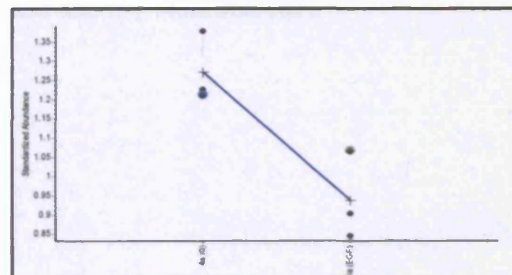
EGF 0 min    EGF 10 min



## II. 1914 Annexin IV

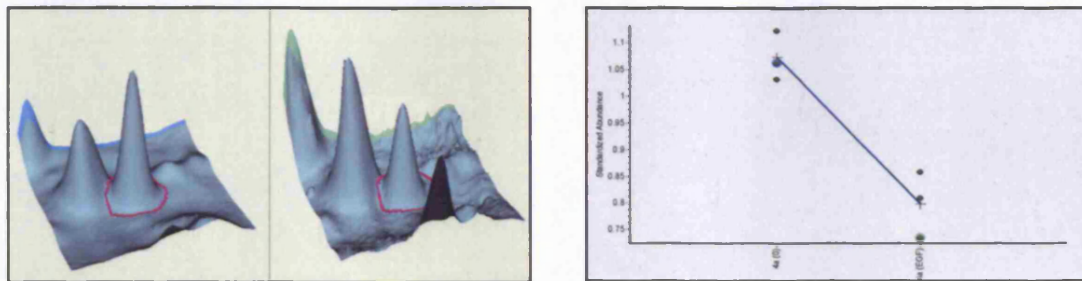


EGF 0 min    EGF 10 min





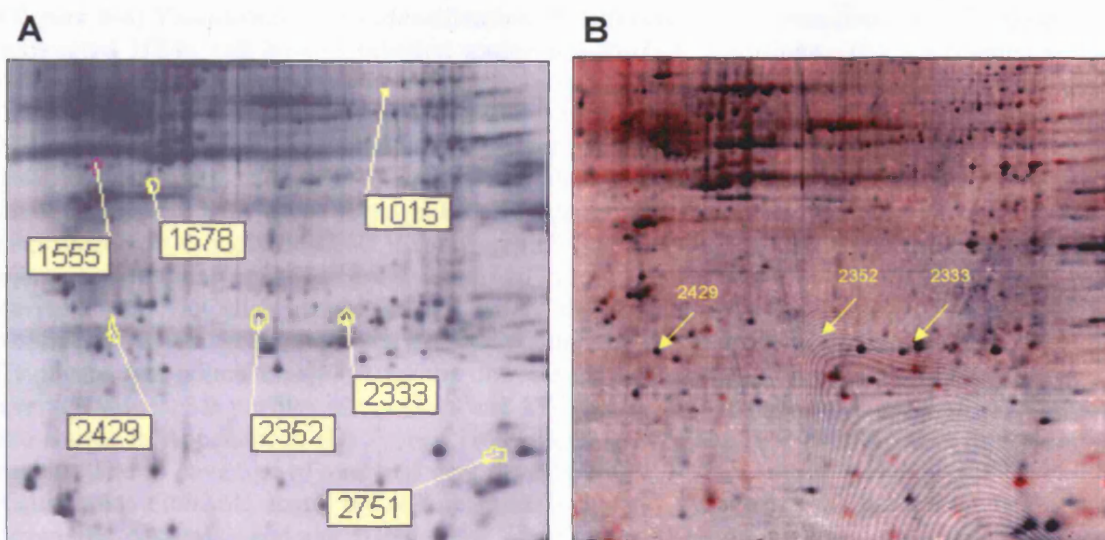
### III. 2054 Pxn 6



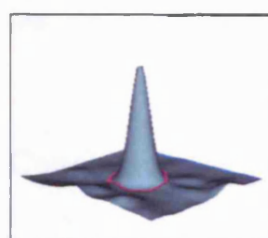
**C**

Spot No.	Protein Name	% Cov	Mowse Score	Est. mass	Est. pI	Pred. Mass	Pred. pI	Accession No.	Average fold-difference <sup>†</sup> and p-value		Function
									HB4a EGF(10 <sup>-7</sup> )	P-value	
1678	Aldehyde Reductase	47	138/64	36000	7.5	36573	6.3	113600	-1.39	0.00049	NADPH-dependent reduction of a variety of aldehydes
1914	Annexin IV	71	285/64	32000	5.6	36085	5.8	1703319	-1.36	0.018	Ca/phospholipid binding; membrane fusion; exocytosis
2054	Peroxiredoxin 6 (antioxidant protein 2)	79	160/64	25000	7	25035	6	1718024	-1.34	0.0048	Cellular protection from oxidative stress

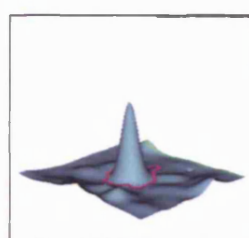
**(Figure 5-3) 2DE migration and identification of proteins displaying EGF-induced differential labelling.** (A) An ICy-dye image of a representative gel shows the positions of aldehyde reductase, annexin IV and peroxiredoxin 6. (B) Proteins (aldehyde reductase, annexin IV, Peroxiredoxin 6) displaying EGF-induced differential labelling in HB4a human mammary luminal epithelial cells identified from gels by MALDI-TOF-MS. Graphs were derived from DeCyder image analysis where the standardised abundance is the ratio of the volume of a test gel feature versus the volume of the corresponding standard gel feature. Triplicate data points are shown for the untreated and treated experiments with lines joining the average values. 3D profiles of the spots and MS spectra are also shown. Details of MS searches are shown in Appendix E. (C) Protein table showing MALDI-TOF peptide mass fingerprinting results. The % coverage of analysed peptides, the MOWSE score from Mascot searches and the significance threshold score, the estimated mass and pI (from gels), the predicted mass and pI (from the database) and the NCBI gene identifier (Accession Number) are shown for each protein. <sup>†</sup>Average fold-differences from DeCyder analysis show abundance ratios for EGF treated HB4a cells versus untreated (4a(10<sup>-7</sup>) versus 4a(0)). Proteins displaying an average fold-difference of  $\geq 1.3$ -fold up (+) or down (-) regulation where  $p < 0.05$  and spots matched in all images are shaded grey. Functions were ascribed from the NCBI database and literature searches.



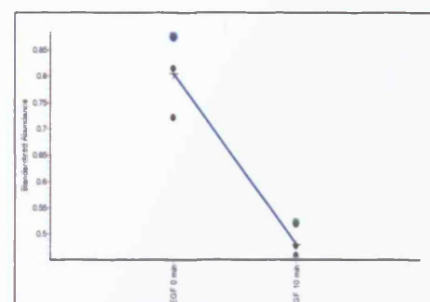
**C Spot 2333 Pxn 6**



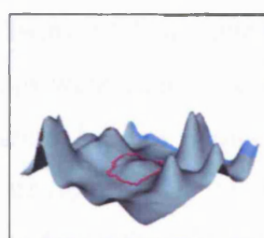
EGF 0 min



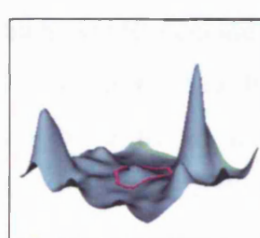
EGF 10 min



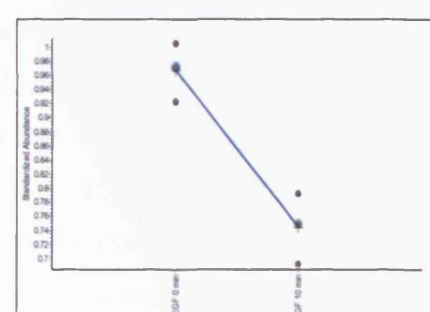
**Spot 2429 Rho-GDI**



EGF 0 min



EGF 10 min



**D**

Spot No.	Protein Name	% Cov	Mowse Score	Est. mass	Est. pI	Pred. Mass	Pred. pI	Accession No.	Average fold-difference <sup>†</sup> and p-value			Function
									HB4a EGF(10-0)	P-value		
2333	Peroxiredoxin 6 (antioxidant protein 2)	65	127/64	25000	7	25035	6	1718024	-1.65	0.0017		Cellular protection from oxidative stress
2429	Rho-GDP dissociation inhibitor (GDI)	41	77/64	24000	5.5	23207	6	4757768	-1.3	0.0049		Inactivation of NADPH oxidase/small GTPase



**(Figure 5-4) Visualisation and identification of differential thiol reactivity in EGF treated or untreated HB4a cell lysates labelled under denaturing conditions.** (A) Representative ICy dye image of EGF-treated HB4a cell lysate. Protein features with altered expression levels ( $> \pm 1.3$  folds;  $p < 0.05$ ) are indicated. (B) Merged image of ICy5 labelled EGF treated and untreated HB4a cell standard pool (red spots) and the corresponding colloidal coomassie blue stained gel image (black spots). The arrows indicate the aligned features of the significantly differentially labelled spots. These spots were picked for identification by MALDI-TOF-MS. (C) Proteins (Peroxiredoxin 6 and Rho-GDI) displaying EGF-induced differential labelling in HB4a human mammary luminal epithelial cells identified from gels by MALDI-TOF-MS. Graphs were derived from DeCyder image analysis where the standardised abundance is the ratio of the volume of a test gel feature versus the volume of the corresponding standard gel feature. Triplicate data points are shown for the untreated and treated experiments with lines joining the average values. 3D profiles of the spots and MS spectra are also shown. Details of MS searches are shown in Appendix F. (D) Protein table showing MALDI-TOF peptide mass fingerprinting results. The % coverage of analysed peptides, the MOWSE score from Mascot searches and the significance threshold score, the estimated mass and pI (from gels), the predicted mass and pI (from the database) and the NCBI gene identifier (Accession Number) are shown for each protein. <sup>†</sup>Average fold-differences from DeCyder analysis show abundance ratios for EGF treated HB4a cells versus untreated (4a(10') versus 4a(0)). Proteins displaying an average fold-difference of  $\geq 1.3$ -fold up (+) or down (-) regulation where  $p < 0.05$  and spots matched in all images are shaded grey. Functions were ascribed from the NCBI database and literature searches.

### 5.3 Conclusions

In this chapter, peroxiredoxin 6, aldehyde reductase and annexin IV were identified as proteins that display reduced thiol accessibility or reactivity after EGF treatment. This may be due to changes in its association of the proteins with other intracellular molecules following EGF treatment, which would occlude reactive thiol groups or because these groups were directly oxidised in response to EGF. However, it is also possible that these proteins become degraded or move to an insoluble compartment following EGF stimulation. Under denaturing labelling conditions, Rho-GDI and peroxiredoxin 6 also showed significant reductions in thiol reactivity, suggesting that cysteine residues in both of these proteins are covalently modified via an EGF receptor-dependent pathway.

Aldehyde reductase is an NADP(H)-dependent oxidoreductase implicated in the pathogenesis of various diabetic complications (Yabe-Nishimura, 1998). The enzyme is rate limiting in the polyol pathway, where glucose is converted to sorbitol by aldehyde reductase, followed by NAD<sup>+</sup> dependent conversion to fructose by sorbitol dehydrogenase. Under conditions of hyperglycemia, the stimulation of the polyol

pathway leads to an overflow of the products and the depletion of  $\text{NADP}^+$  and  $\text{NAD}^+$  in cells. The resulting increase in the  $\text{NADH}/\text{NAD}^+$  ratio in these cells leads to a condition similar to hypoxia (Williamson et al., 1993). Thus, numerous aldehyde reductase inhibitors are being developed as possible agents for diabetic complications. A study from Nishinaka and Yabe-Nishimura showed that intracellular hydrogen peroxide can up-regulate the gene expression of aldehyde reductase (Nishinaka and Yabe-Nishimura, 2001) and it is known that hydrogen peroxide can be induced by EGF stimulation via Rac and Rho dependent pathways (Lee *et al.*, 2000). These findings imply that aldehyde reductase could be regulated by EGF at the transcription level via generation of endogenous  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$  and could also be modified to a higher oxidative status by hydrogen peroxide at the post-translational level. Indeed, Cys-298 of aldehyde reductase has been reported as a potential redox-sensitive active site cysteine (Srivastava et al., 2003). Both of these may explain the decrease in ICy dye labelling of aldehyde reductase after EGF treatment. This finding warrants further investigation, particularly the effect of EGF on the polyol pathway, although this work is beyond the scope of this thesis.

The annexins are a family of closely related calcium- and membrane-binding proteins expressed in most eukaryotic cell types. Twelve annexin subfamilies have been identified in vertebrates which all have similar biochemical functions. The annexins participate in the regulation of membrane organisation and membrane traffic and the regulation of ion ( $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ ) passage across membranes and hence  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  concentrations within cells (Hayes and Moss, 2004; Moss and Morgan, 2004). Annexin VI has been shown to specifically inhibit EGF-dependent  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  influx through the plasma membrane and  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  release from intracellular stores (Fleet et al., 1999). Annexins I & II have been identified as major substrates for the tyrosine kinase activity associated with the EGF receptor and their reactivity appears to be controlled by phosphorylation following growth factor stimulation (Rothhut, 1997). In addition, annexin II was recently identified as an oxidant-sensitive protein in HeLa cells. This study showed that oxidants from exogenous  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$  or generated in response to extracellular growth stimuli increased the incorporation of a glutathione into a reactive cysteine of annexin II (Sullivan et al., 2000). A more recent study demonstrated that reversible glutathionylation could regulate annexin phospholipid and F-actin binding activity (Caplan et al., 2004). Taken together, these studies suggest

that the annexins are subject to complex regulation and modification by receptor tyrosine kinases, such as the EGF receptor, and oxidants such as EGF-induced hydrogen peroxide and could have play an important role in cross-talk between growth factor and  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  signalling. Using cysteine labelling 2D-DIGE, it was demonstrated that there was a EGF induced decrease in ICy labelling of annexin IV. By analogy to Annexin II, this is likely to be as a result of glutathionylation of the active site cysteines in response to EGF-induced oxidant production, which would block ICy dye labelling.

Rho-GTPases regulate many cellular processes including growth and differentiation, vesicular transport, reactive oxygen species production, apoptosis, cytoskeletal dynamics and cellular motility (Bishop and Hall, 2000). The regulators for these Rho-GTPases can mainly be classified into three groups: GDP/GTP exchange factors (GEFs) which stimulate the conversion of Rho proteins from the GDP-bound form to the activated GTP-bound form; GTPase activating proteins (GAPs) which stimulate the conversion GTP to GDP conversion to inactive Rho-proteins and Rho GDP dissociation inhibitors (RhoGDIs) which bind to the GDP-bound forms of Rho proteins (Rho, Rac and Cdc42) and inhibits GDP dissociation (Van Aelst and D'Souza-Schorey, 1997). Rho-GDI is also involved in the translocation of Rho, Rac and Cdc42 between the cytosol and the membrane (Takai et al., 1993). In addition, recent studies indicate that phosphorylation of Rho-GDI by p21-activated kinase (Pak1) mediates its dissociation from Rac (DerMardirossian et al., 2004) and the Pak1 can interact with the Grb2 adapter protein coupling Rac activation with EGF signalling (Puto et al., 2003). In the work presented here, Rho-GDI displayed reduced labelling following EGF treatment, suggesting that the single cysteine in Rho-GDI is oxidised by indirect signalling from EGFR. This oxidation may occur via EGF-induced hydrogen peroxide in a feedback loop and the oxidation event could be one mechanism by which Rho-GDI function is regulated.

Peroxiredoxin 6, which is involved in the defence against cellular oxidative stress, can scavenge peroxides and can also reduce peroxidised membrane phospholipids. Thus, peroxiredoxin 6 can protect cells against oxidant-induced plasma membrane damage, thereby playing an important role in cellular defense against oxidant stress (Manevich et al., 2002). From the data in this chapter (Figure 5-3 and Figure 5-4), peroxiredoxin 6 was identified as being differentially labelled under both native and denaturing (urea)

conditions inferring that the changes in thiol reactivity of the Prxn-6 are derived from covalent modification (such as forming the sulfenic, sulfinic or sulfonic acid) rather than the changes in non-covalent association of cysteine accessibility. This is highly likely, since Prxn-6 was also identified as a proximal target of H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>-elicited redox stress in the previous chapter and has been reported to become oxidised following oxidant treatment (Wagner *et al.*, 2002). In addition, the study of Bae *et al.* indicated that EGF can induce the generation of H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> (Bae *et al.*, 1997). This infers that the reduced labelling of Prxn-6 following EGF treatment is likely to occur as a result of oxidation of the thiol group. Importantly, the preferred hypothesis for EGF dependent modification of Prxn-6 is that EGF stimulates the generation of low concentrations of hydrogen peroxide which oxidises the active site cysteine in Prxn-6.

In this chapter, native denatured labelling of the cysteine thiol in proteins was used for studying thiol accessibility and cellular redox regulation following EGF stimulation. In two independent experiments using triplicate samples, only a small number of features were detected that displayed significant changes. One possible reason for this observation could be the use of a sub-optimal labelling buffer that leads to the aggregation of dyes which generate a strong background and mask a subset of labelled features for analysis. Another possible reason could be that the modifications that occur on proteins of lower abundance cannot be detected by this method. It must be considered also that EGF induced H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> production will be much lower than exogenously added H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> as 0.5 mM, this would induce less protein labelling by ICy dye because only a subset of the protein was modified by oxidation.

## **Chapter 6 Application of cysteine labelling 2D-DIGE to analyse changes in plasma fractions following UV irradiation**

### **6.1 Introduction**

In the previous chapters, the potential utility of cysteine labelling 2D-DIGE for the identification of cellular targets of oxidative stress and EGF-induced changes in thiol accessibility and modification has clearly demonstrated. In this chapter, the utility of this technique for studying the effects of UV irradiation on cysteine thiol modifications in purified human plasma fractions is presented. Transmission of viruses in human sera represents a considerable risk for humans, particularly when the serum is used for the production of pharmaceutical products such as vaccines and blood clotting agents. Therefore, procedures for inactivating different viruses or bacteria in these products are mandatory. Conventional disinfection techniques that have been used for pathogen inactivation include solvent-detergent treatment (Wainwright, 2002b) and ultra-violet irradiation (Wainwright, 2002a). However, it is possible that such treatments may also damage the protein components of these blood products affecting their potency.

In this work, a human plasma fraction developed by Baxter Healthcare (Vienna, Austria) was used to evaluate the potential of cysteine labelling 2D-DIGE on detecting UV irradiation induced changes. This chromatographically-purified fraction known as FIBA is being developed for use as a blood clotting agent for haemophilics and for use after serious injury. Baxter Healthcare developed a large-scale UV-C irradiation strategy to disinfect any pathogen in these preparations since this method has been shown to remove various viruses with high clearance rates (Kurth et al., 1999). However, some reports indicate that UV treatment can modify the thiol groups of proteins. For example, UV irradiation induces a change of thiol reactivity of crystallin and the cleavage of heavy chain subfragment 1 of myosin (Grammer et al., 1988; El'chaninov and Fedorovich, 1990). These thiols are all related to protein activity. The aim of the work presented here was to determine if thiol reactivity is altered in the purified plasma fraction following

exposure to different doses of UV-C treatment. In addition, we wanted to identify which plasma proteins are the targets of UV irradiation induced damage.

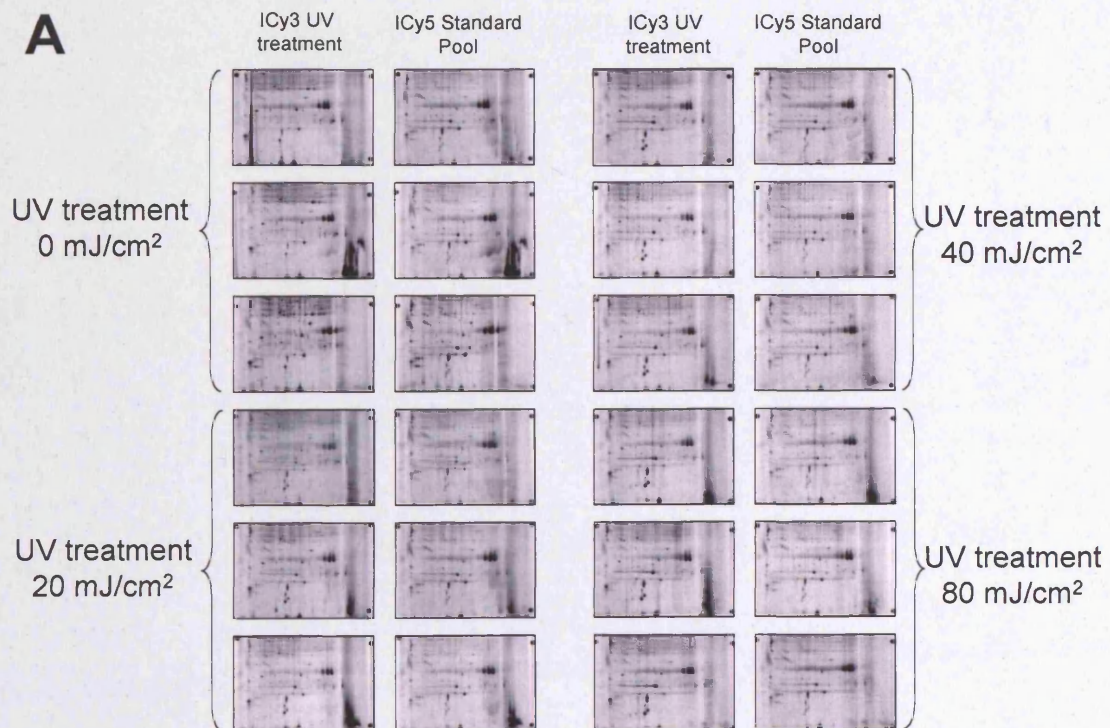
## **6.2 Identification of differentially expressed/labelled plasma proteins following UV-irradiation**

Cysteine labelling 2D-DIGE was applied to study the effect of UV irradiation on thiol reactivity in a purified fraction of human plasma. Labelling with ICy dyes was carried out on denatured, non-reduced samples prepared in ICy urea labelling buffer. Experiments were performed on samples subjected to UV irradiation doses of 0 mJ/cm<sup>2</sup>, 20 mJ/cm<sup>2</sup>, 40 mJ/cm<sup>2</sup> and 80 mJ/cm<sup>2</sup>, in triplicate (Figure 6-1). ICy3 labelled individual samples were run on 2D gels with an equal load of ICy5-labelled standard pool, consisting of an equal mixture of all samples. Although hundreds of protein features can be separated well by 2D-DIGE, poor focusing of some abundant proteins was observed in this experiment (Figure 6-1 and 6-2). This might be caused by the plasma samples containing buffer components (NaHCO<sub>3</sub> + NaCl) which interfere with the isoelectric focusing.

Twenty-nine protein spots displaying significant changes in labelling between the treated and untreated samples were identified (>1.5 fold up or down regulated; p<0.05) with a large degree of overlap in their regulation at the different UV doses (Figure 6-2). Post-staining with colloidal coomassie blue and matching to the corresponding fluorescent images allowed picking of 17 gel features with confidence (Figure 6-3). The fewer number of post-stainable matching spots might be caused by low abundance proteins that cannot be detected by CCB staining but which contain reactive thiol groups. In addition, the positively charged ICy dye may induce pI shift in dye-labelled proteins which would dilute the signal if labelling is sub-stoichiometric (see discussion in Chapters 3 and 4). 13 of these 17 proteins were identified by MALDI-TOF peptide mass mapping using a mass accuracy of +/- 50 ppm (Figure 6-4). These 13 protein isoforms represented 7 different gene products. These gene products were actin, ALB protein (a human albumin fragment in serum with a molecular weight of 48 kDa), complement component C4, kininogen precursor, prethrombin 2, retinol-binding protein and serum amyloid P component. The 3-D spot images, the standardised protein levels and the MALDI-TOF-MS spectra of

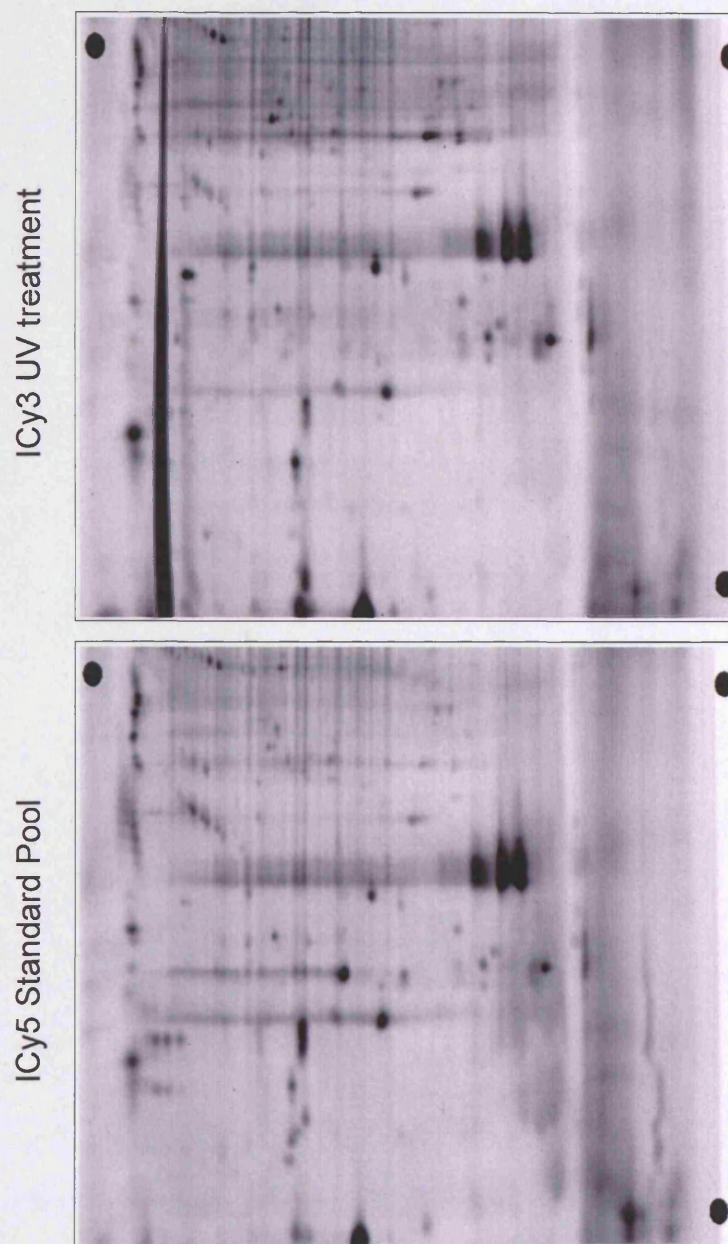


these proteins are shown in Figure 6-5. Of these proteins, kininogen precursor, multiple isoforms of serum amyloid P component and retinol binding protein displayed an increase in labelling in response to UV irradiation; conversely, actin, ALB protein, complement component C4 and prethrombin 2 showed a decrease in labelling in response to UV irradiation (Figure 6-5). Interestingly, several of the proteins showed dose-dependent changes. These data suggest that the blockage of free thiols due to disulphide bond formation/oxidation and the breakage of disulphide bonds/reduction may occur as a result of UV-C irradiation.

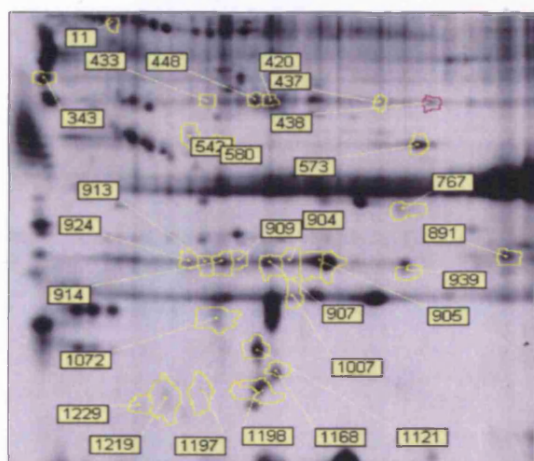




## B. UV treatment (0 mJ/cm<sup>2</sup>)



**(Figure 6-1) Representation of the experimental design in the study of the thiol reactivity of plasma fractions in response to different doses of UV-C irradiation. (A)** Plasma fractions were treated with 20, 40 and 80 mJ/cm<sup>2</sup> of UV-C irradiation and compared to the untreated samples. Equal amounts of ICy5 labelled plasma samples were mixed as an internal standard pool and run against the untreated and UV-treated samples labelled with ICy3. Samples were run in triplicate for statistical analysis to assess reproducibility. Thus 12 gels were run with 24 images generated. Gel images were processed using the BVA module of DeCyder software to identify significant changes in protein isoform abundance/ ICy labelling. One of the image sets in **(A)** are shown in **(B)** with representative enlarged images.



$P < 0.05$ ; Spot Volumes  $> 50000$   
Average fold difference  $> 1.5$  or  $< -1.5$  fold

20 / 0 (20 changes)

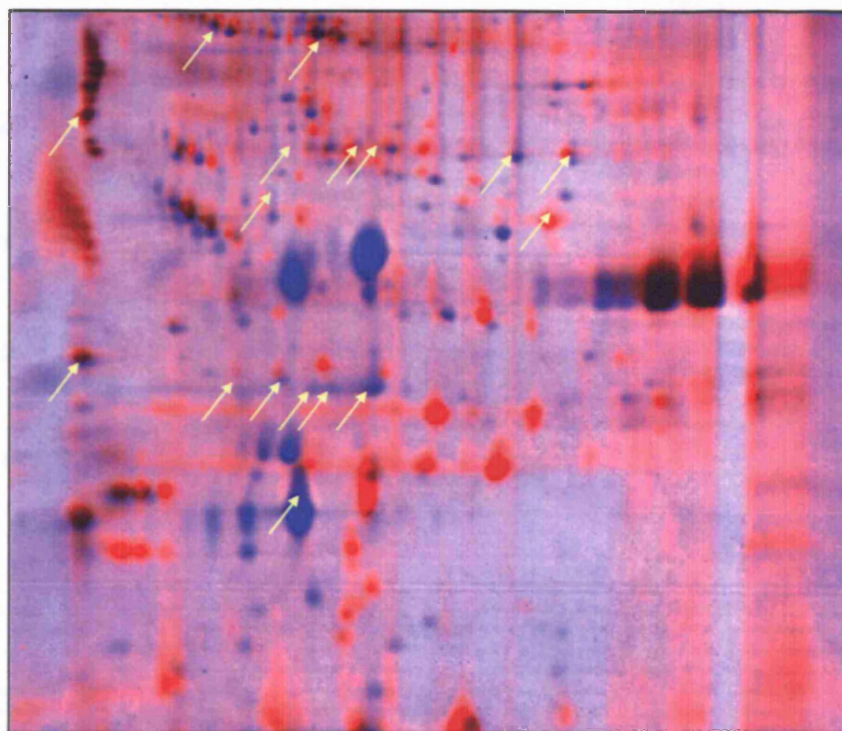


80 / 0 (29 changes)    40 / 0 (23 changes)

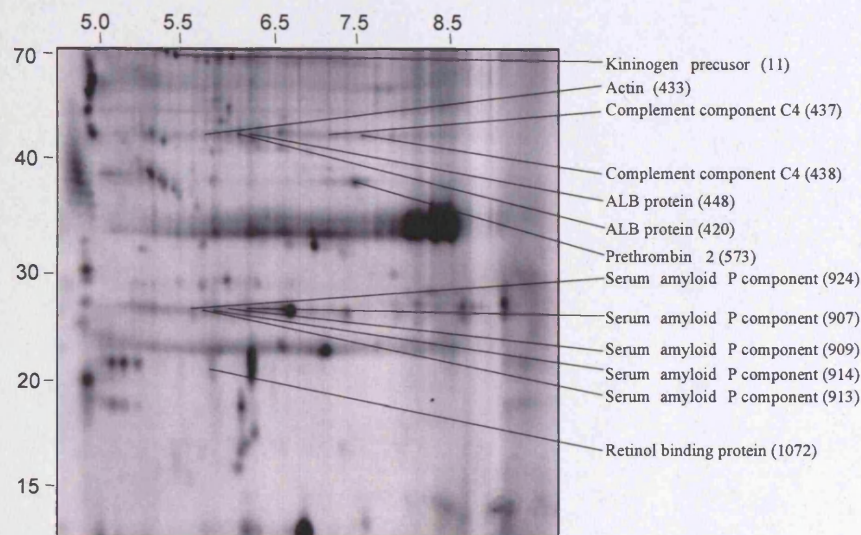
Master No.	(20/0)	p-value	(40/0)	p-value	(80/0)	p-value
1168	14.33	0.0048	22.61	0.0028	25.56	0.0026
1198	15.89	8.8E-07	22.82	3.4E-05	23.82	4.00E-06
905	7.47	1.2E-05	10.49	4.1E-05	15.24	1.80E-05
904	4.31	0.0053	8.26	0.0012	15.13	0.00048
1197	8.43	0.0016	11.33	0.00015	14.39	0.00049
909	4.4	0.018	6.58	0.0068	13.41	0.0025
924	3.87	0.0024	6.2	0.00075	9.8	0.00031
914	3.26	0.0047	5.96	0.00067	9.5	0.00031
1219	2.03	0.011	2.74	0.04	9.08	0.0024
907	2.58	0.0058	3.86	0.0013	5.89	0.00049
1005	2.23	0.0092	3.35	0.0019	4.79	0.00063
1072	1.87	0.0015	2.26	0.0006	4.09	8.90E-05
939	2.13	0.035	2.81	0.017	3.98	0.0056
913	1.67	0.007	2.02	0.021	2.75	0.0067
343	2.21	0.00034	2.01	0.0011	2.32	0.00024
11	1.61	0.0059	1.75	0.003	2.13	0.0013
580	1.52	0.0025	1.38	0.0024	1.67	0.0016
542	1.39	0.02	1.2	0.059	1.62	0.0054
1007	1.28	0.09	1.4	0.014	1.57	0.0047
891	-1.13	0.34	-1.25	0.048	-1.57	0.0025
1121	1.26	0.59	1.05	0.69	-1.63	0.0049
573	-1.15	0.0047	-1.5	0.00075	-1.74	3.50E-05
433	-1.7	0.0059	-1.81	0.003	-1.78	0.0069
767	-1.42	0.019	-1.53	0.011	-1.79	0.0033
420	-1.33	0.038	-1.57	0.0012	-1.86	0.00026
448	-1.2	0.0051	-1.49	0.0009	-1.88	0.0002
1229	-1.21	0.48	-1.96	0.0082	-2.03	0.023
437	-3.99	0.0036	-3.47	0.0051	-3.55	0.0043
438	-7.11	0.00048	-5.65	0.00087	-6.22	0.00082

**(Figure 6-2) Visualisation of differential thiol labelling in UV-treated versus untreated plasma fractions.** A representative ICy dye image of a UV treated plasma fraction is shown. Protein features with altered labelling ( $> \pm 1.5$  fold up or down) across the time course are labelled with their spot identity number (top left). The table shows the average fold difference in labelling intensity between the treated samples and the untreated sample for 29 spots matched across all gels with  $p$ -values from the applied T-test. Green shaded values are  $> 1.5$  fold up or down regulated. The Venn diagram shows the number of spots and their co-regulation between each exposure and the untreated sample.





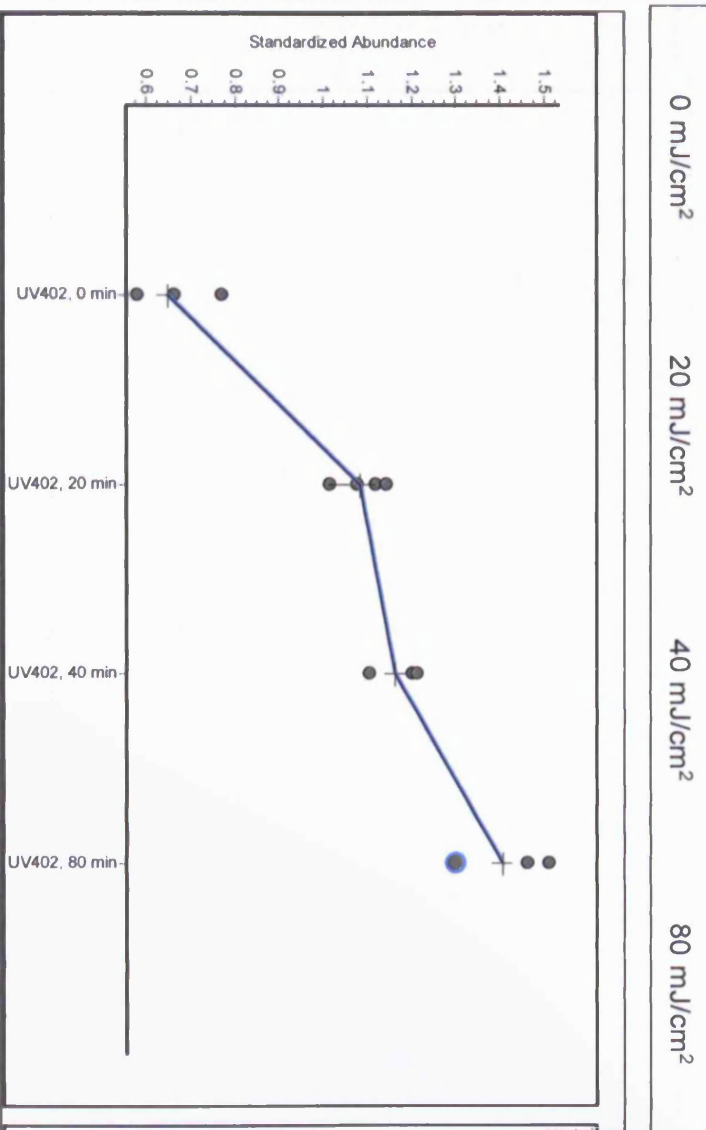
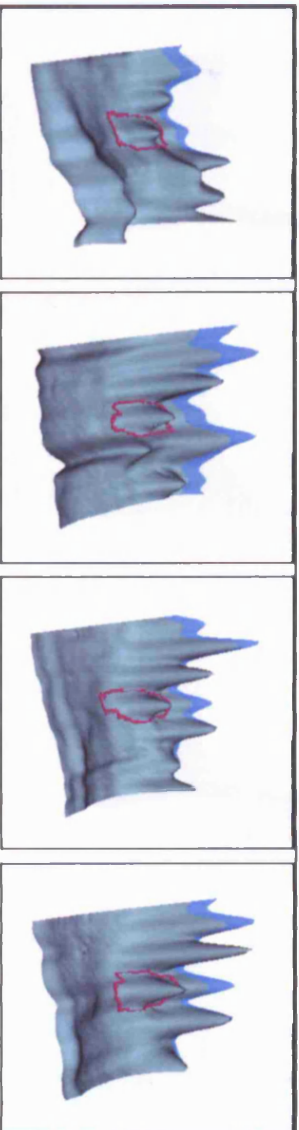
**(Figure 6-3) Master gel image of ICy5 labelled standard pool and its corresponding colloidal coomassie blue stained image.** The image shown is an aligned image of the internal standard pool labelled with ICy5 (red spots) and the image of its corresponding colloidal coomassie blue stained gel (blue spots). The arrows indicate the aligned features of significant differentially labelled spots and the corresponding colloidal coomassie blue-stained spots. These spots were picked from gels for identification by MALDI-TOF-MS.



Average fold-difference <sup>†</sup> and p-value													
Spot No.	Protein Name	% Cov	Mowse score	Est. mass	Est. pI	Pred. Mass	Pred. pI	Accession No.	UV (200 mJ/cm <sup>2</sup> ) P-value	UV (400 mJ/cm <sup>2</sup> ) P-value	UV (800 mJ/cm <sup>2</sup> ) P-value	Function	
433	Actin	42	92/64	43000	5.5	42188	5.4	156759	-1.7	0.0059	-1.81	0.003	0.0069 cytoskeleton protein
420	ALB protein	53	181/64	45000	6	47361	6	27692693	-1.33	0.038	-1.57	0.0012	-1.86 0.00026 similar to human serum albumin
448	ALB protein	31	90/64	45000	5.9	48664	6	27692693	-1.2	0.0051	-1.49	0.0009	-1.68 0.0002 similar to human serum albumin
437	Complement component C4	35	90/64	46000	7	48037	5.8	40737308	-3.99	0.0036	-3.47	0.0051	-3.55 0.0043 complement protein
438	Complement component C4	39	113/64	46000	7.5	48037	5.8	40737308	-7.11	0.00048	-5.65	0.00087	-6.22 0.00082 complement protein
11	Kininogen precursor	35	81/64	70000	5.5	71945	6.3	125507	1.61	0.0059	1.78	0.003	2.13 0.0013 Blood coagulation
573	Prethrombin 2	46	94/64	35000	7.5	34245	8.3	808450	-1.15	0.0047	-1.5	0.00075	-1.74 0.00035 Blood coagulation
1072	Retinol binding protein	75	103/64	21000	5.5	20959	5.3	230284	1.87	0.0015	2.26	0.0006	4.09 0.00089 Transporting vitamin A from liver to vitamin A dependent tissue
907	Serum Amyloid P component, chain A	39	90/64	24000	6	23358	6.1	576259	2.58	0.0058	3.86	0.0013	5.89 0.00049 chaperone; chromatin degradation control
909	Serum Amyloid P component, chain A	39	107/64	24000	5.8	23358	6.1	576259	4.4	0.018	6.58	0.0068	13.41 0.00025 chaperone; chromatin degradation control
913	Serum Amyloid P component, chain A	39	112/64	24000	5.6	23358	6.1	576259	1.67	0.007	2.02	0.021	2.75 0.0067 chaperone; chromatin degradation control
914	Serum Amyloid P component, chain A	33	70/64	24000	5.7	23358	6.1	576259	3.28	0.0047	5.98	0.00067	9.5 0.00031 chaperone; chromatin degradation control
924	Serum Amyloid P component, chain A	39	78/64	24000	5.5	23358	6.1	576259	3.87	0.0024	6.2	0.00075	9.8 0.00031 chaperone; chromatin degradation control

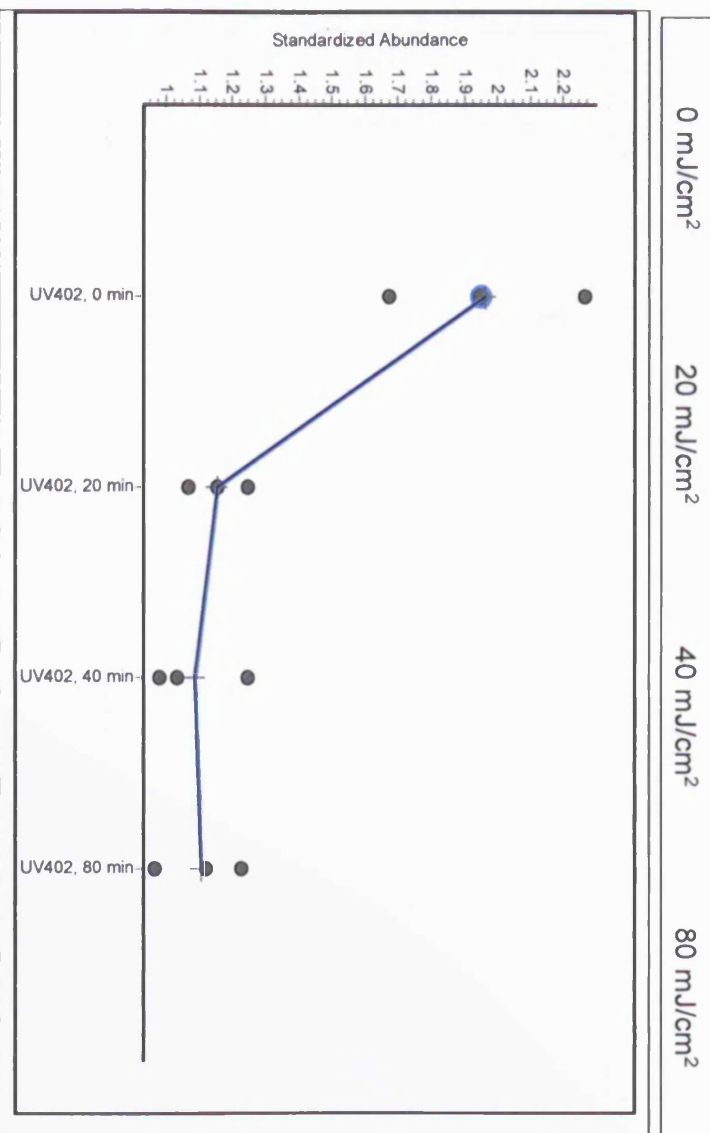
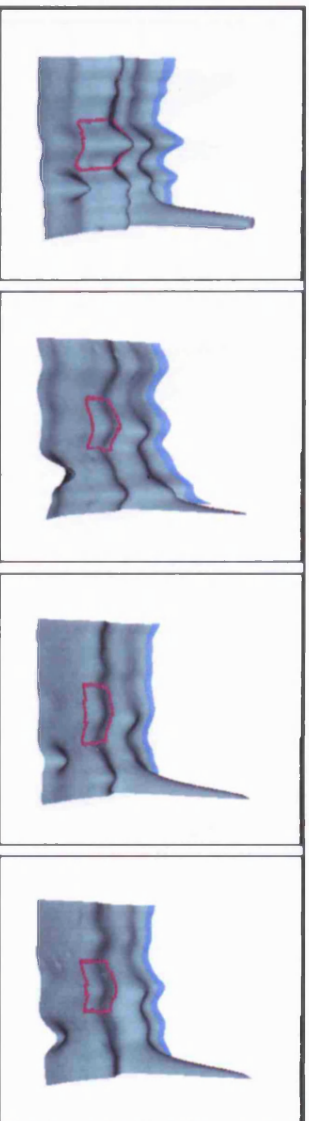
(Figure 6-4) 2DE migration of proteins identified by MALDI-TOF-MS displaying UV-induced changes in thiol labelling. A representative ICy-dye image is shown displaying proteins with UV-induced differential labelling. UV-induced differentially labelled proteins were identified from gels by MALDI-TOF-MS as described in Materials and Methods. Protein table showing MALDI-TOF peptide mass fingerprinting results. The % coverage of analysed peptides, the MOWSE score from Mascot searches and the significance threshold score, the estimated mass and pI (from gels), the predicted mass and pI (from the database) and the NCBI gene identifier (Accession Number) are shown for each protein. MS spectra, MOWSE score histograms, matching peptides and sequence coverage for all proteins are shown in Appendix G. The criteria for inclusion was an average fold-difference of  $\geq 1.5$ -fold up (+) or down (-) regulation where  $p < 0.05$  and spots were matched across all 12 images.

## A. Kininogen precursor (11)

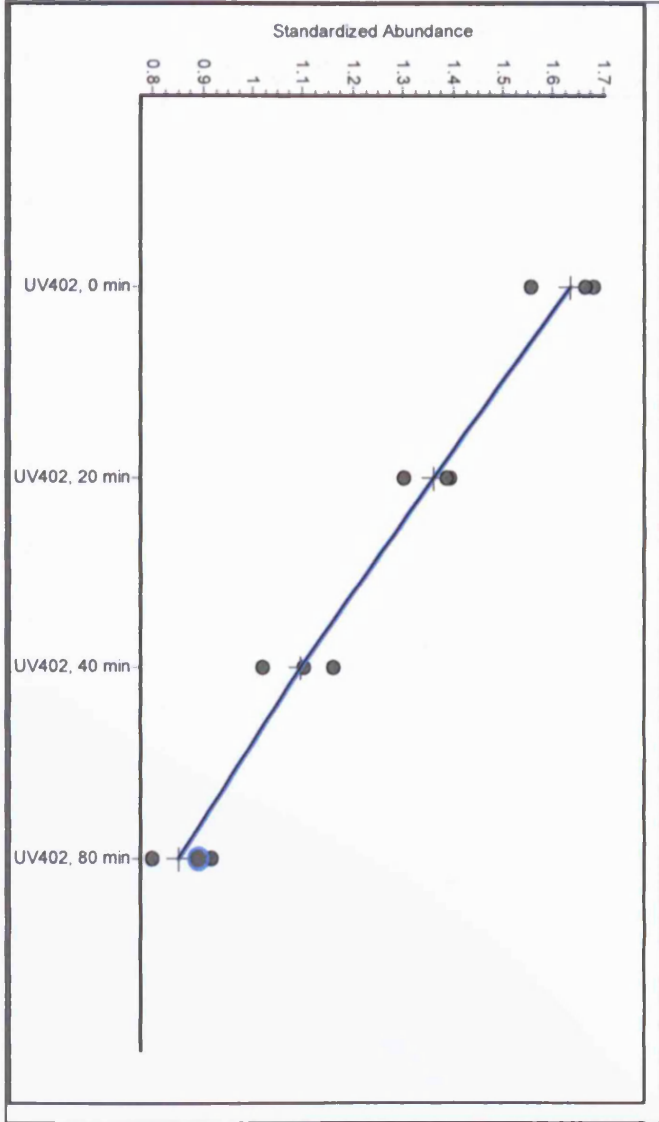
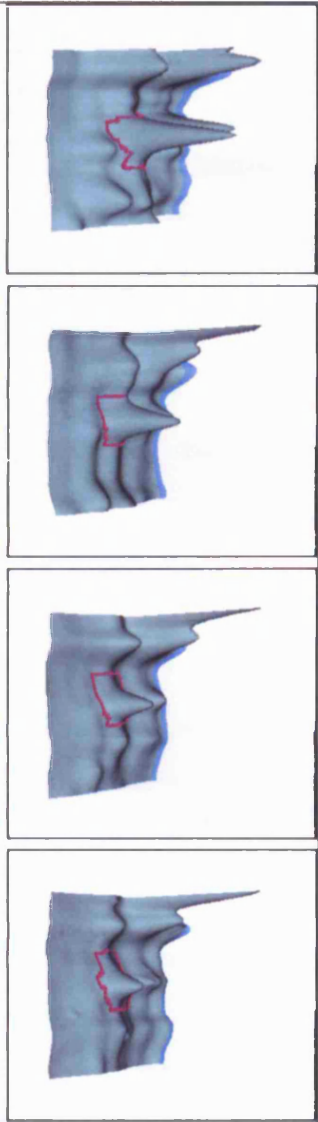




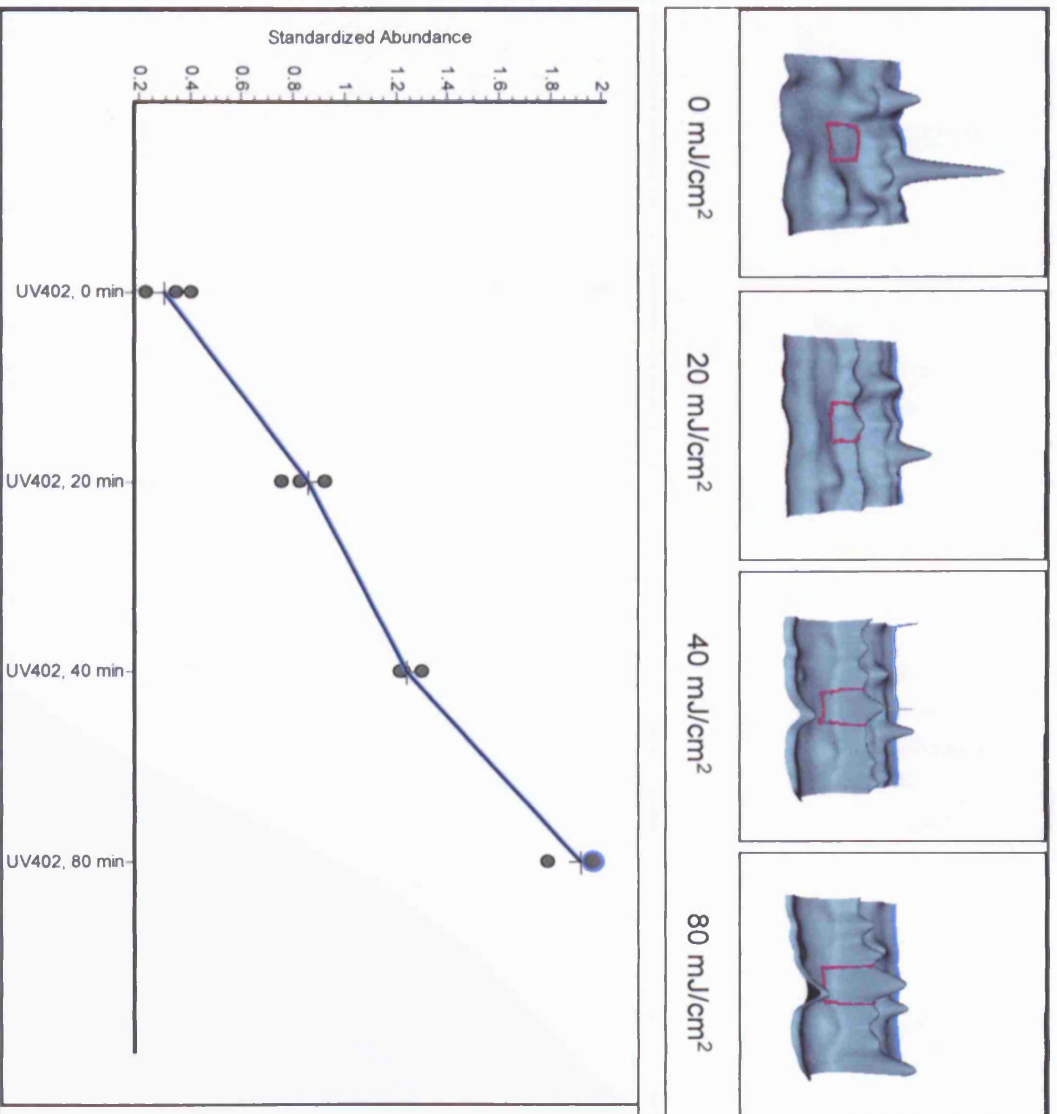
## B. Actin (433)



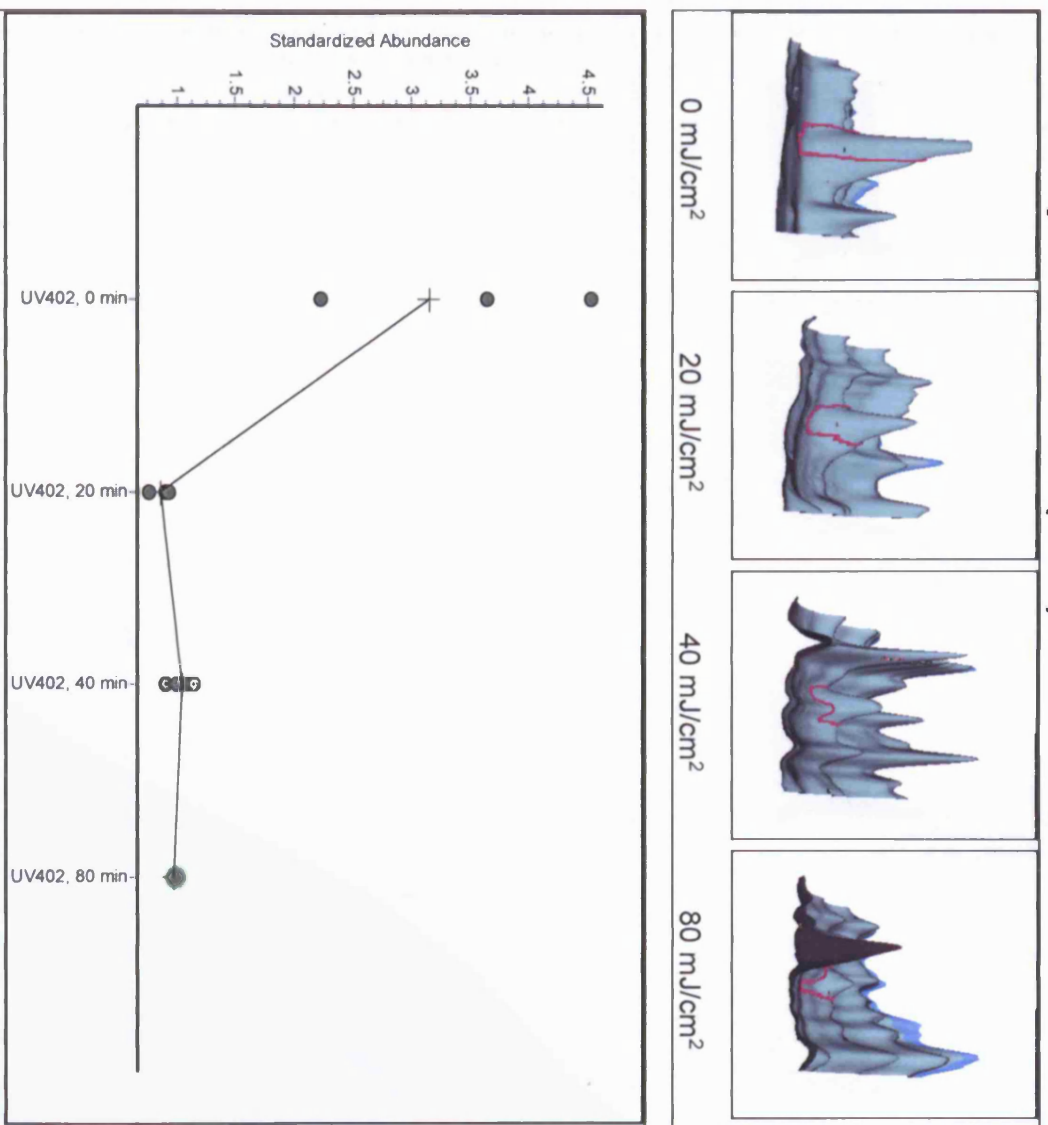
**C. ALB protein (448)**



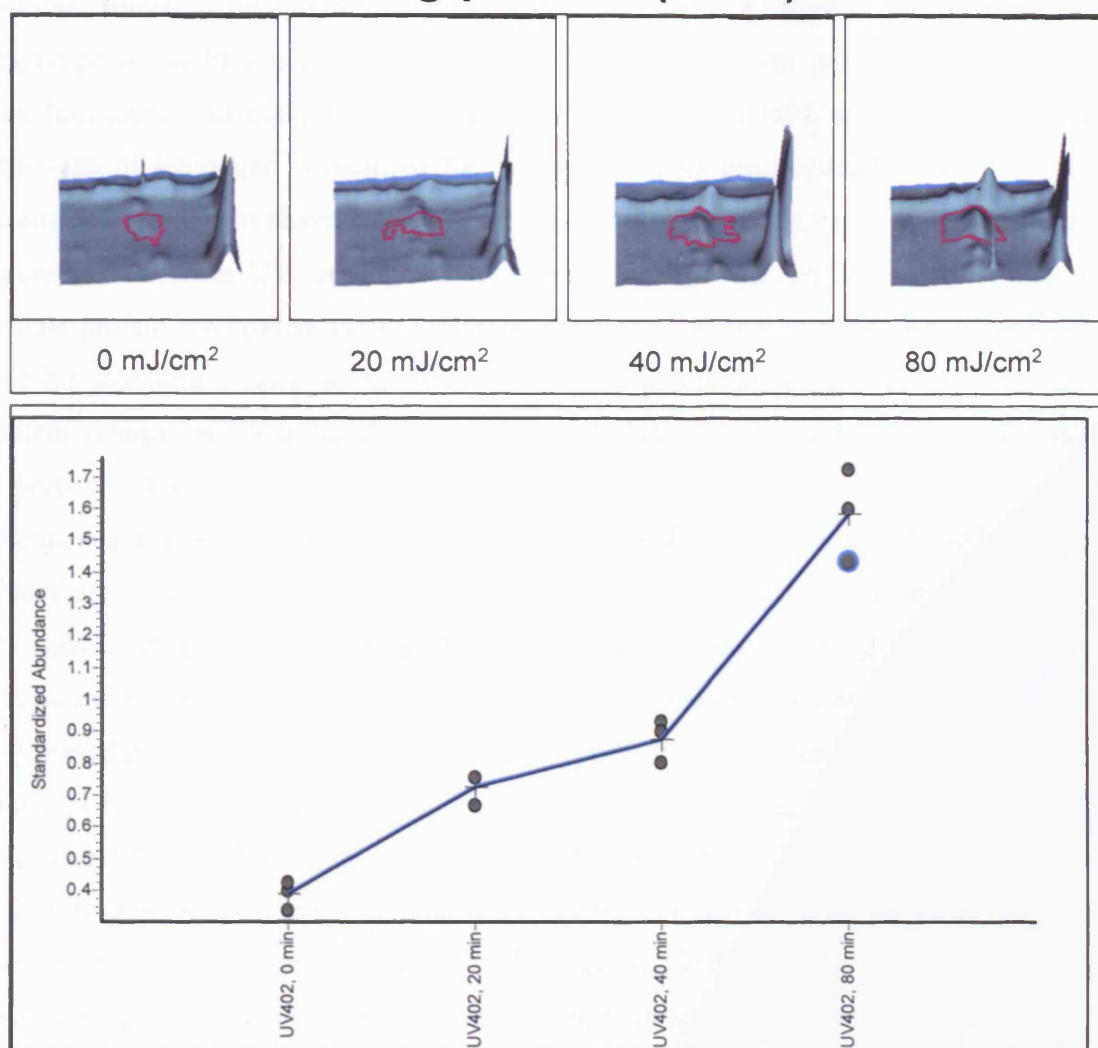
## D. Serum Amyloid P (907)



## E. Complement C4 (437)



## F. Retinol binding protein (1072)



(Figure 6-5) Examples of protein isoforms identified by MALDI-TOF-MS displaying UV-induced thiol labelling changes. Proteins (Kininogen precursor (A), Actin (B), ALB protein (C), Serum Amyloid P component (D), Complement C4 (E) and Retinol binding protein (F)) display UV-induced differential labelling in plasma fractions and were identified from gels by MALDI-TOF-MS. Examples of 3D-images of spots are shown for the untreated (0 mJ/cm<sup>2</sup>) and treated (20, 40 and 80 mJ/cm<sup>2</sup>) samples. Graphs were derived from DeCyder image analysis where the standardised abundance is the ratio of the volume of a test gel feature versus the volume of the corresponding standard gel feature. Triplicate data points are shown for spots from the untreated and treated samples with lines joining the average values. MS searches are shown in Appendix G.

Kininogen is a thiol protease inhibitor synthesised in the liver and secreted into the plasma, where it complexes with prekallikrein and factor XI (Renne et al., 2002). After cleavage by kallikrein or factor XIIa, the mature kininogen protein comprising 626 residues forms a disulphide-linked two subunit protein (Shariat-Madar et al., 2002). This cleavage of kininogen is required for expression of its procoagulant activity, which is contained in the light chain. Here, ICy labelling of kininogen displayed a dose-responsive increase following UV irradiation, suggesting that the disulphide bridges within the whole protein are broken due to UV irradiation, thus increasing the free thiols available for ICy labelling (Figure 6-5A). This is the first time that kininogen has been found as a potential target of UV-induced damage, although further studies are required to assess the effects of UV on its function.

Actin is a major component of eukaryotic cells with mainly contractile and structural functions. The 2D-DIGE results showed a decrease in labelling of actin following UV exposure. It is the major constituent of the cytoskeleton, forming filaments that are regulated by many intracellular signalling pathways and that interact with numerous intracellular proteins (Pollard and Cooper, 1986). Some studies have also shown that actin is found on the cell surface, in the extracellular matrix, and in serum and other biological fluids (Rohr and Mannherz, 1978;Owen et al., 1978;Thorstensson et al., 1982;Accinni et al., 1983;Moroianu et al., 1993). Normally, actin is released into the serum as a consequence of cell death and/or necrosis and is cleared from the circulation by the vitamin D-binding protein (Goldschmidt-Clermont et al., 1986). Monomeric actin binds to the vitamin D-binding protein through actin's C-terminal region although the intracellular cleavage of actin results in fragments that do not bind and therefore are not cleared as rapidly from the serum (Goldschmidt-Clermont *et al.*, 1986). There are no reports of the direct modification of serum actin by UV irradiation and so the results of the study here appear to be novel. Nevertheless, there is one report indicating that one of the major targets of UV-induced alterations intracellularly is the actin molecule (Maekawa et al., 1996) suggesting that serum actin could possibly be modified in a similar way. Since actin contains an odd number of cysteine residues, this implies that at least one free thiol exists that could be accessible for UV-induced modification. Such a



modification may explain the decrease in cysteine labelling after UV irradiation (Figure 6-5B).

Serum albumin is one of the major serum transport proteins which include serum albumin, fetoprotein, vitamin D-binding protein and afamin (Schoentgen et al., 1986; Haeffliger et al., 1989; Lichenstein et al., 1994). Albumin is the most abundant protein in serum. It binds water, cations, fatty acids, hormones, bilirubin and drugs and regulates the osmotic pressure of blood (Minton, 1995). Recent studies indicate that UV-irradiation of a BSA solution in the presence of cysteine can alter the protein secondary structure of BSA. Moreover, UV irradiation also induced changes in albumin's binding ability (Samoilova et al., 1987). These reports suggest that the cysteine residues on albumin can be modified by UV irradiation and may induce changes in the physiological function of the protein. The result from this work indicates that the serum albumin protein exhibits a UV-C dose-dependent reduction in cysteine labelling suggesting that the free thiol in this protein has been oxidised (Figure 6-5C). The observation of peroxide-induced oxidation of human serum albumin shown in Figure 3-11 supports such a mechanism and may explain the thiol reactivity changes seen under UV irradiation.

Amyloid P component (AP) was first discovered as a glycoprotein present in all amyloid deposits in all types of amyloidosis, and was later found to be identical to the normal circulating plasma glycoprotein, serum amyloid P component (SAP) (de Haas, 1999). SAP belongs to the family of pentraxins, a superfamily of plasma proteins characterised by their pentameric assembly and calcium-dependent ligand binding. It has been reported to bind to glycosaminoglycans, especially heparin, heparin sulfate and dermatan sulfate, to mannose terminated glycans, and to glycans with preterminal galactose residues (Emsley et al., 1994c). In addition, native SAP is apparently the only protein from serum that shows calcium-dependent binding to DNA and chromatin at physiological pH and ionic strength (Pepys et al., 1994; Emsley et al., 1994b). SAP also plays an important role in pathogen defence in serum and has been shown to bind to lipopolysaccharide (LPS) which is the major component of the outer membrane of Gram-negative bacteria (Preston et al., 1996; de Haas et al., 1998). A structural study showed that native SAP contains two cysteines which are linked by an intramolecular disulphide bond (Thompson and Enfield, 1978; Emsley et al., 1994a). Since serum amyloid P component was identified in the

plasma fractions as a protein whose reactive thiol content was increased by UV irradiation (Figure 6-5D). This implies that UV-C exposure breaks the intramolecular disulphide bond and increase the content of available cysteines for ICy labelling.

Components of the complement system form a large family of glycoproteins that have important functions in the immune response and host defence (Goldman et al., 1982). They are proteolytically activated by cleavage at specific sites to form A- and B-fragments (Ogata et al., 1989). The proteins are highly hydrophilic, with a mainly alpha-helical structure held together by disulphide bridges (Gennaro et al., 1986). In this study, UV irradiation resulted in a significant reduction in the labelling of complement C4 protein (Figure 6-5E). Previous work by Livden et al. showed that complement C4 levels were significantly reduced under UV treatment for 4 weeks and it is tempting to speculate that the reduced labelling of complement C4 could be caused by the degradation of the protein in response to UV treatment.

Finally, Serum Retinol Binding Protein (RBP) is the major retinol transporter in plasma, binding a single all-trans-retinol molecule as its physiological ligand. RBP is synthesised in hepatic parenchymal cells, where the apoprotein is loaded with retinol. Subsequently, the retinol-RBP complex is released into plasma and associates with transthyretin forming the main transporting complex (Wolf, 1992). 85-90% of plasma RBP carries bound retinol (Blaner, 1989). RBP-mediated retinol transport facilitates the transfer of insoluble retinol from storage sites to peripheral tissues, with the synthesis of RBP regulating retinol release from the liver and controlling the specificity of its uptake by target cells (Newcomer, 1995a). In addition, it has been shown that RBP protects bound retinol from oxidation (Newcomer, 1995b). RBP-target-cell interaction is important for its biological function: RBP is recognised by a cell-surface receptor, releasing retinol, and losing its affinity for transthyretin. The resulting apo-RBP is filtered by the kidney, reabsorbed and catabolised (Wolf, 1992; Sundaram et al., 1998). Interestingly, the amino acid sequence of RBP contains 6 cysteines which form 3 disulphide bonds without any free thiols in the native protein (Rask et al., 1987). In addition, the substitution of these cysteines with serines induces decreased affinity for retinol and disturbs the 3D structure of the protein (Reznik et al., 2003). As with kininogen and serum amyloid P, the ICy dye labelling of RBP progressively increased with increasing UV doses (Figure 6-5F),

consistent with the generation of free thiol groups. Again, a likely explanation is that the disulphide bridges within RBP are broken due to UV irradiation, thus, increasing the free thiol content for ICy dye labelling.

### **6.3 Conclusions**

In this chapter, UV-treated human plasma fractions provided by Baxter Healthcare were subjected to cysteine 2D-DIGE and MALDI-TOF-MS analysis. The aim was to investigate the effect of UV-C on plasma proteins particularly its effect on thiol oxidation and may be useful for understanding the possible drawbacks of UV disinfection of serum products. By means of cysteine 2D-DIGE, 29 protein features out of 1461 were confidently identified as UV-induced changes due to alterations in thiol reactivity or protein content of the samples. Seventeen gel features were aligned to coomassie blue stained gels and accurately picked for in-gel digestion and MALDI-TOF-MS identification and 13 of these were identified with confidence. The changes observed were classified into two groups, those displaying increased ICy dye labelling and those with decreased labelling. None of the changes were biphasic. Two serum transport proteins, serum amyloid P component (SAP) and retinol binding protein (RBP), and the coagulant-related factor, kininogen were found to display dose-dependent increases in labelling. One of the possible mechanisms for this could be the UV-induced breakage of disulphide bonds and exposure of pairs of free cysteine thiols for ICy dye labelling. Structural studies of SAP and RBP support this hypothesis as all of the cysteines in the two native proteins form disulphide bonds. The only mechanism for ICy dye labelling to take place therefore is the reduction of the disulphide bonds to generate free available thiols. As the formation/breakage of disulphide bonds may adversely alter the biological activity of proteins, the evaluation of the modifications of serum amyloid P, retinol binding protein and kininogen must be considered in preparations of blood derived products.

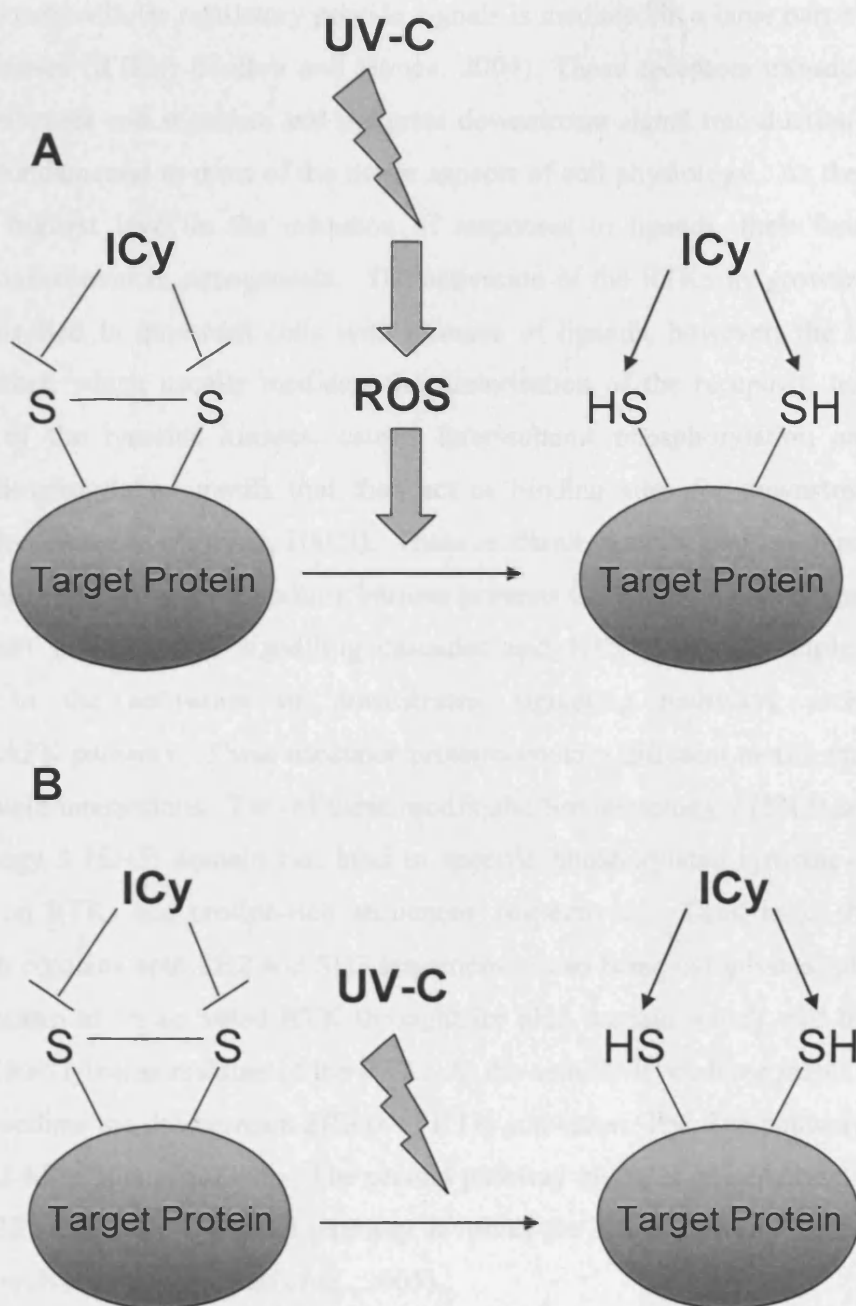
In contrast, the serum carrier protein ALB, the cytoskeleton protein actin, the host defense protein complement C4 and the coagulant factor prethrombin 2 all showed decreased ICy dye labelling with UV-treatment. Possible mechanisms to explain this are that the proteins could be degraded by UV as reported by Livden et al. (Livden et al.,

1987) or available free thiols are modified by UV-induced ROS to form the sulfenic, sulfinic or sulfonic forms of cysteines (Schafer *et al.*, 2001) which would both reduce labelling. These modifications might also exert the irreversible loss of protein activity and need to be evaluated before preparing UV-irradiated blood products for therapeutic use.

In this 2D-DIGE study, numerous SAP isoforms were identified in a charge train with all isoforms showing increase ICy dye labelling with increasing UV dose. This charge train might be caused by poor focusing or by labelling of multiple isoforms of SAP. As SAP contains only 2 cysteines, the ICy labelled protein would not generate more than 2 shifted isoforms indicating the formation of the charge train is not only due to labelling-induced *pI* shifts, but also contributed by uncharacterised isoforms of SAP. It is worth mentioning that a lysine 2D-DIGE analysis was also carried out to compare changes in protein abundance between untreated and UV-treated (80 mJ/cm<sup>2</sup>) samples. This analysis revealed two consistent differences in repeat experiments, where the abundance of two protein isoforms was increased by an average of 2.75 and 10.1 fold, respectively. These isoforms represented very low-abundance species and could not be identified by MALDI-TOF-MS. Importantly, they ran at very different *pI*s and molecular weight than the isoforms displaying differential ICy labelling and are therefore unlikely to represent any of the isoforms identified here. These data suggest that UV induces specific changes in the thiol chemistry of proteins rather than changes in the abundance of the whole proteins or their degraded products. There are two hypotheses to explain the UV-C-induced reduction of disulphide bonds. One of these is that UV-C generates ROS to reduce the disulphide bond (Figure 6-6A). The other hypothesis is the disulphide bond absorbs the energy directly from UV-C and then the reduction event occurs (Figure 6-6B). The wavelength of UV-C ranges from 200 nm to 280 nm which overlaps with the absorbance spectra of DNA and RNA, but has little effect on protein (Chin *et al.*, 1995). Therefore, a ROS mediated disulphide bond reduction model is the preferred mechanism.

## Chapter 7-DISCUSSION AND FUTURE PROSPECTS

The studies of cell differentiation, proliferation, apoptosis, growth and survival in response to environmental stimuli is a rapidly growing area of research. The study of the role of reactive oxygen species (ROS) in cell differentiation and survival is a rapidly growing area of research. The study of the role of ROS in cell differentiation and survival is a rapidly growing area of research.



**(Figure 6-6) Possible mechanisms for UV induced ICy dye labelling.** (A) Indirect UV-C induces the breakage of disulphide bond due to the formation of ROS. (B) Direct UV-C induces the breakage of disulphide bond.

## Chapter 7-DISCUSSION AND FUTURE PROSPECTS

The control of cell differentiation, proliferation, apoptosis, growth and migration in response to extracellular regulatory peptide signals is mediated in a large part by receptor tyrosine kinases (RTKs) (Holbro and Hynes, 2004). These receptors transduce signals across membranes and stimulate and integrate downstream signal transduction pathways which are fundamental to most of the major aspects of cell physiology. As the receptors are at the highest level in the initiation of responses to ligands, their functions are frequently taken over in oncogenesis. The activation of the RTKs by growth factors is tightly controlled in quiescent cells with absence of ligands, however, the binding of growth factors, which usually mediates the dimerisation of the receptors, leads to the activation of the tyrosine kinases, causes inter-subunit phosphorylation and creates tyrosine phosphorylation motifs that then act as binding sites for downstream signal mediators (reviewed in (Arteaga, 2002)). These mediator proteins play an important role in intracellular signalling by recruiting various proteins to specific locations, providing a link between molecules of signalling cascades and RTKs. For example, Grb2 is important in the activation of downstream signalling pathways such as the Ras/Raf/MAPK pathway. These mediator proteins contain different motifs that mediate protein-protein interactions. Two of these motifs, the Src homology 2 (SH2) domain and Src homology 3 (SH3) domain can bind to specific phosphorylated tyrosine-containing sequences on RTKs and proline-rich sequences, respectively. Thus, as in the case of Grb2 which contains both SH2 and SH3 sequences, it can bring cytoplasmic proteins via its SH3 domain to an activated RTK through its SH2 domain which will bind to the phosphorylated tyrosine residues of the RTK. At the cellular level, three major signalling pathways mediate the downstream effects of RTK activation. The first pathway involves the Ras-Raf-MAP kinase pathway. The second pathway involves phosphatidylinositol 3-kinase (PI3K) and Akt. The third pathway involves the stress-activated protein kinase pathway, involving Jak/Stat (Bell *et al.*, 2005).

Because of the critical roles of RTKs in cellular signalling processes, their catalytic activity is under tight control. This is achieved by several mechanisms, which can be briefly summarised as follows: the phosphorylation state of a RTK can be controlled by



the activation of opposing signals such as protein tyrosine phosphatases (Hunter, 1995). Ligand-binding can lead to removal of receptors from the cell surface by endocytosis (Waterman and Yarden, 2001) and RTKs can be degraded following ubiquitination (Shtiegman and Yarden, 2003).

The critical position of the receptor at the top of the signal transduction cascade, means that alterations in expression levels, mutations of the receptor itself or loss of receptor - modifying enzymes, can lead to altered cellular functions and can therefore drive deregulated cell growth and contribute to the process of transformation (review in (Nicholson *et al.*, 2001)). Indeed, many oncogenes, which were discovered because of their altered function or expression in cancers or because they were related to viral oncogenes encode RTKs (Baserga, 1994). The era of genomics has extended the definition of those RTKs through gene sequencing projects and many RTKs are now known to be mutated or overexpressed in human cancers (Blume-Jensen and Hunter, 2001;Cox et al., 2005). The deregulation of the RTKs can also be caused by increased stimulation of RTKs through autocrine growth factor loops (Deuel et al., 1983;Sizeland and Burgess, 1992). Recent reports also indicate the increased RTK activity can be mediated by deletion or point mutation of the RTKs (Paez et al., 2004;Mason et al., 2004;Singh et al., 2005). For example, v-erbB, the oncogenic counterpart of EGFR, transduced as the viral oncogene of avian erythroblastosis virus. The mechanism of v-ErbB activation involves deletion of its ligand-binding domain, resulting in a truncated receptor (Downward et al., 1984). Another example is the neu transforming gene, the rat homologue of ErbB-2/HER2, which was identified as having a specific mutation in its transmembrane domain that was found to be responsible for its oncogenic potential and the constitutive activation of the kinase (Bargmann and Weinberg, 1988). These investigations suggest that these RTKs would be potential targets for human cancer therapy and according to the mechanism of RTK activation, many possible strategies can be used for therapeutic purpose. These include the design of antagonists for preventing ligands binding to RTKs (Sebti and Hamilton, 2000), the design of antibodies against RTKs (Glennie and Johnson, 2000), the design of kinase inhibitors for RTKs (Garrett and Workman, 1999), the design of inhibitors for preventing adaptor protein signalling (Garbay et al., 2000) and the design of inhibitors for preventing receptor dimerisation

(Berezov et al., 2002a) For example, the humanised monoclonal anti-ErbB-2 antibody Trastuzumab (Herceptin) can bind to the extracellular domain of ErbB-2 and lead to down-regulation of ErbB-2 by inducing receptor internalisation (Kumar et al., 1991) whilst small molecule EGFR tyrosine kinase inhibitors such as Gefitinib have been developed for non-small cell lung carcinoma therapy (Wakeling et al., 1996). Moreover, peptides of 12-30 amino acids which were derived from the potential extracellular dimerisation surface of ErbB receptors can inhibit ErbB-2 dimerisation and growth of cells overexpressing these receptors (Berezov et al., 2002b). However, the development of cancers is not only due to simple mutations or overexpression, but also the contribution of the deregulation of many biomolecules. The additional molecular abnormalities might reduce the therapeutic effect. Thus, combined treatment with different target-specific agents is necessary.

Proteomic technologies provide a powerful tool for the detailed comparison of proteins from cells under different growth conditions and have been applied to evaluate the effect of cancer therapies. For example, a proteomic method combining SDS-PAGE, chromatography and mass spectrometry has been used to profile the cellular targets affected by the action of the EGFR kinase inhibitor gefitinib and the results generated can help rational design of drugs (Brehmer et al., 2005). In addition, the ErbB receptor families have been intensively pursued as therapeutic targets owing to the large number of cancer patients whose tumours show aberrant ErbB family expression. Indeed, the ErbB-2 receptor has been shown to be overexpressed in 25 to 30% of invasive breast cancers and provides a useful marker for therapy. This is the reason why the model cell lines HB4a and its ErbB-2 overexpressing partner, C3.6 cells, were used to study cancer cell signalling in this thesis. Thus, proteomic techniques which can analyse the global changes of gene products and signalling molecules on a large scale are powerful tools to explore cancer-related signalling and to identify potential therapeutic candidates.

Studies on ErbB-2 have mostly focused on its proliferative and anti-apoptotic signalling capabilities which have been shown to promote tumourigenesis. However, there is very little information about the relationship between ErbB-2 signalling and cellular ROS, which can be induced by growth factor stimulation and may play a secondary messenger role in normal and cancer cells. With this in mind, another purpose of this study was to

examine the effects of ErbB-2 overexpression on the cellular response to oxidative stress. This study was thus aimed at elucidating the effects of ErbB-2 overexpression and H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>-induced oxidative stress on protein levels and post-translational modifications using a combination of proteomic and biochemical analysis.

Several techniques have been used for proteomic differential expression studies, involving gel-based and non-gel based approaches (see Introduction). In this study, the recently developed technique of 2D-DIGE analysis was employed. This protein tagging and detection method uses a panel of matched fluorescent dyes to compare different samples on the same 2D gel, thus providing increased experimental reproducibility and accuracy for statistical analysis of differential protein expression between biological samples. In addition, given the wider linear dynamic range of fluorescence detection, this technique provides a better strategy for carrying out global expression profiling compared to conventional methods. The original 2D-DIGE methodology uses three N-hydroxysuccinimidyl (NHS) ester-derivatives of the cyanine dyes (NHS-Cy2, -Cy3 and -Cy5) for covalent labelling of protein primary amino groups (i. e. lysine  $\epsilon$ -amino and N-terminal  $\alpha$ -amino groups). In this procedure, differentially labelled samples are mixed and separated on the same 2D gels generating directly super-imposable 2DE images for quantitative analysis (Unlu *et al.*, 1997b). In 2D-DIGE expression profiling, one dye (e.g. Cy2) is used to label an internal standard pool of all samples which is run on every gel against the Cy3 and Cy5 labelled test samples (Gharbi *et al.*, 2002; Alban *et al.*, 2003). The fluorescence signal from each protein feature (Cy3 or Cy5 labelled) is then compared with the co-migrating standard feature (Cy2 labelled) on each gel to give a standardised abundance ratio that can be averaged across replicate samples and compared between different samples to allow identification of significant changes. NHS-Cy dye lysine labelling is typically carried out under conditions that limit modification to an estimated 3-5% of total protein (minimal labelling). This low stoichiometry is essential to avoid sample insolubility and heterogeneous multiple labelling in the molecular weight dimension. Overlabelling of lysine may also block tryptic cleavage sites, hindering the downstream identification of labelled proteins by mass spectrometry.

In order to improve the sensitivity of the NHS-Cy dye minimal labelling technique, labelling of a less prevalent amino acid at higher stoichiometry would be required. Such

an amino acid is cysteine which can be labelled through alkylation of its thiol group. To this end, a pair of iodoacetylated derivatives of the fluorescent cyanine dye was synthesised by our collaborator Dr. Piers Gaffney (LICR and now at Imperial College London). These reagents are charge- and size-matched, making it possible to carry out accurate protein expression profiling based on cysteinyl thiol labelling 2D-DIGE. In addition, cysteinyl thiols are targets of stress-induced oxidative modification, then these reagents were used to monitor such modifications, based on the fact that the iodoacetyl dyes would no longer react with oxidised thiol groups. Thus, the cysteine labelling dyes developed and described in this thesis were used to monitor changes in the redox status of protein thiols in response to specific stimuli, such as oxidants (Chapter 4), growth factors (Chapter 5) or UV irradiation (Chapter 6), as well as to examine changes in protein expression.

Initially, protein labelling using the ICy dyes was characterised and optimised for use in 2D-DIGE analysis (Chapter 3). These experiments showed that the ICy labelling is rapid under non-denaturing or denaturing conditions and that the protein solubility at high stoichiometry is better than with lysine labelling. The sensitivity of the ICy labelling is higher than the corresponding silver and CCB stains, though only 50% of the ICy-labelled protein features could be aligned to post-stained silver or CCB features. This difference is partly attributed to non free thiol-containing proteins which can not be detected by cysteine labelling strategy or proteins that silver-stain/ CCB stain poorly. Study of the dye to protein ratio optimum for labelling showed that 80 pmol of dye per  $\mu\text{g}$  of total cell lysate, which was chosen for 2D-DIGE experiments, gave a reasonably high sensitivity of labelling without compromising sample solubility or resulting in heterogeneous labelling and formation of over-complex spot patterns. Moreover, different thiols appeared to display different labelling reactivities although labelling was specific for free thiol groups. This could be caused by incompletely denaturation of proteins or by the adjacent peptide sequences that interfere the dye accessibility. Apparent dye bias was observed in a small group of labelled proteins over 25-30 kDa molecular weight range. One hypothesis for this could be that SDS could interact differently with the two differentially labelled protein pools and affect their migration in gels. However, this could be overcome by using the internal standard labelling strategy.

Importantly, ICy dye labelling was compatible with MS analysis used to identify the differentially labelled proteins of interest. Thus, an optimised workflow was established for the analysis of protein expression profiles and redox-dependent thiol modifications.

Compared to the conventional NHS-lysine labelling strategy of 2D-DIGE, a drawback for the ICy dyes used here is the potential *pI* shift of ICy-labelled proteins caused by the positive charge on the dyes. Although such shifts were not formerly proved, this charge difference may lead to the loss of accurate experimental *pI* information which can help in the validation of MS search results. In addition, given the likely sub-stoichiometric labelling, dye-dependent shifts are likely to dilute the total amount of protein available for MS-identification and could partly explain why the “hit” rate for identification of differentially ICy labelled proteins was rather low. Since ICy dye labelling under non-reducing conditions is not completely dependent on protein amount, but rather reveals the total amount of free thiol groups that are affected by changes in thiol reactivity, a validation step such as immunoblotting or lysine-labelling 2D-DIGE is required to discriminate the labelling differences caused by altered thiol reactivity versus altered protein expression.

During the course of this work, a study based on the use of a pair of maleimide Cy dyes for cysteine 2D-DIGE labelling was reported by Shaw et al (Shaw et al., 2003). These dyes were recently commercialized by GE Helthcare for cysteine thiol “saturation” labelling of denatured and reduced samples. The evaluation of this labelling strategy showed improved sensitivity and dynamic range for the technique over the commercial minimal labelling method based on lysine labelling dyes (Shaw *et al.*, 2003). This analytical strategy was recently applied in two separate studies to identify proteomic changes in rare samples; between laser micro-dissected normal intestinal epithelium and adenoma (Kondo et al., 2003) and between differentially sorted murine bone marrow cell populations displaying distinct chemotactic responses (Evans et al., 2004). Comparison of the ICy dye labelling strategy used in this study with that for the maleimide Cy dyes revealed some similar findings, including increased sensitivity of detection of thiol-containing proteins, increased protein precipitation at high labelling ratios, altered 2DE spot patterns compared with minimal lysine labelling, a similar dynamic range of detection (~5000) and some apparent dye bias. However, there are notable differences

between the two strategies. The maleimide dyes were used for labelling of all cysteine-containing proteins in pre-reduced samples for sensitive expression profiling, whereas the focus here was to label non-reduced samples with a view to following redox-dependent thiol-reactivity. This is likely to affect the reactivity and extent of labelling. As such, we opted to use a lower dye to protein ratio and did not see the appreciable sample losses due to precipitation that was reported by Shaw *et al* (Shaw *et al.*, 2003). The labelling of fully reduced samples for ICy dye 2D-DIGE has yet to be explored. It is also worth noting that the maleimide dyes are sulphonated to give them a net neutral charge, and so they have the advantage that they should not alter the *pI* of labelled proteins, unlike the ICy dyes, where potential *pI* shifts will add complexity to the analysis. The other significant difference is that the current study used iodoacetyl derivatives of Cy3 and Cy5 as opposed to maleimides, on the basis of their expected greater reactivity. This should allow efficient labelling at lower temperatures, thereby reducing the risk of protein modification by the breakdown products of urea in the lysis buffer.

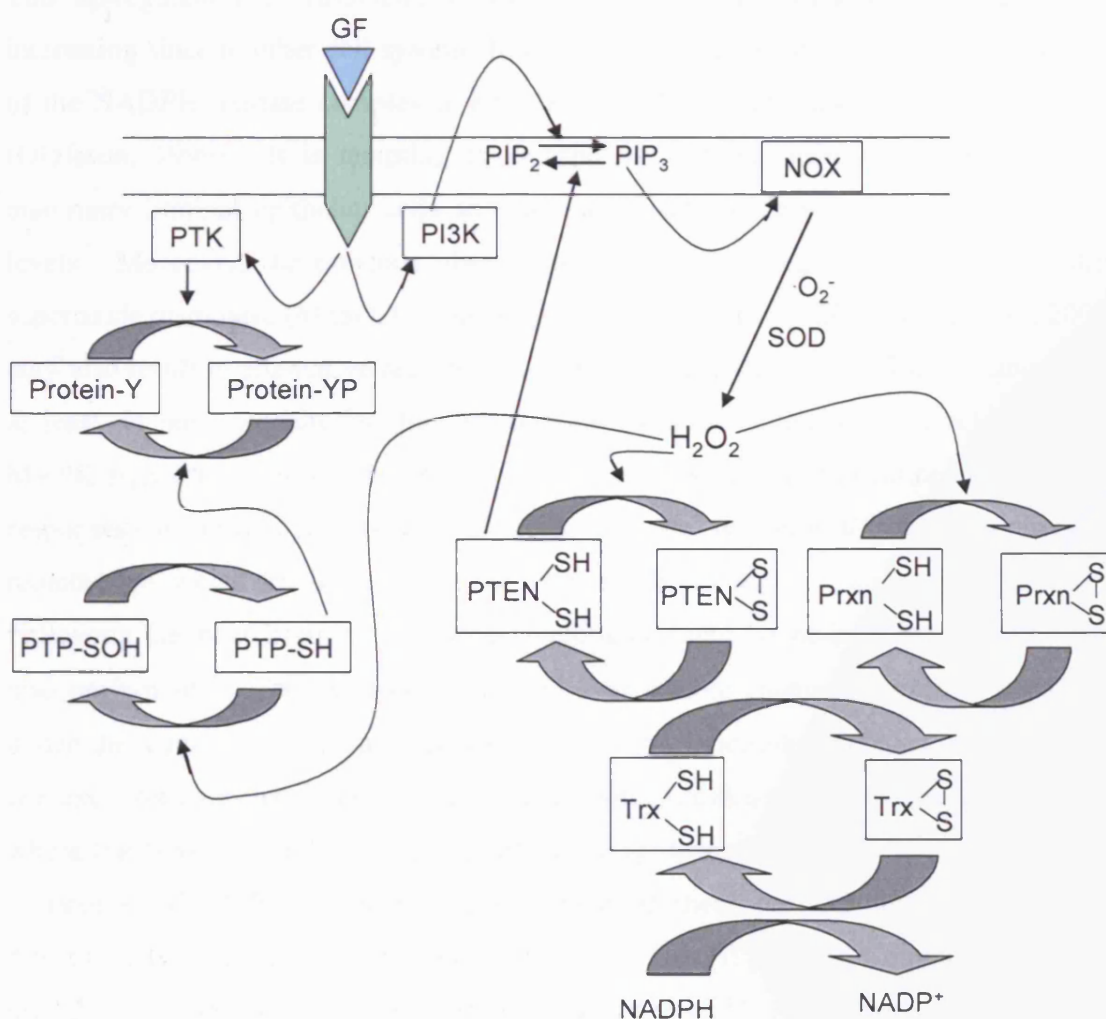
Although sample solubility is a problem when high stoichiometric labelling of either cysteine or lysine is carried out, we show that there is a distinct analytical advantage to be gained from labelling the lower-occurrence cysteine residues. This advantage was evident for example, in the reduction of heterogeneous labelling and the ability to monitor redox-dependent thiol modifications simultaneously. It is worth noting that our recent calculations predict that around 95% of all human open reading frames encode a cysteine-containing protein (R. Jacobs, unpublished data). Although a proportion of these would not be accessible to alkylation, our data showed significant labelling of free thiols in denatured, non-reduced lysates, with around 5% of the detectable proteins found to be susceptible to changes in labelling in response to oxidative stress. Since free/reactive thiol groups play important roles in enzyme catalysis and protein function, their redox modification is likely to alter protein function or oxidant-dependent signal transduction. Given the importance of oxidative stress in human disease, further studies should be undertaken to assess the functional significance of these modifications and to assess their role in cytoprotection, induced cellular damage and signalling.

In this thesis, the cysteine-labelling 2D-DIGE strategy was used to study the effects of H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> and ErbB-2 overexpression in a model cell system consisting of immortalised



HMLECs and to relate these changes to the early stages of breast cancer progression and the response to oxidative stress. These cell lines are an appropriate cell type to use, since most breast cancers arise from the luminal epithelium. In addition, the C3.6 cells were shown to overexpress surface levels of ErbB-2 similar to those observed in certain breast cancers (Harris *et al.*, 1999). The intracellular signalling pathways triggered by hydrogen peroxide were first examined. In agreement with previous studies (Caselli *et al.*, 1998; Kwon *et al.*, 2004), cellular phospho-tyrosine levels were increased in both the HB4a and C3.6 cells after hydrogen peroxide treatment supporting the notion that H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> inhibits the activity of protein tyrosine phosphatases (PTP) by oxidising the free thiol cysteines of their active sites. Interestingly, more proteins were tyrosine phosphorylated and to a greater degree in the HB4a cells versus the C3.6 cells, indicating that ErbB-2 overexpression can affect the response to cellular oxidative stress. A model of the signalling role of H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> in growth factor stimulated cells is shown in Figure 7-1. The concentrations of free thiols in HB4a and C3.6 cells were reduced by 45% and 23%, respectively, after hydrogen peroxide treatment for 2 min, then recovered to ~80 % of the basal level after 20 min in both cell lines. This implies that C3.6 cells have a higher tolerance for peroxide and a more efficient mechanism for its removal which is somehow dependent upon ErbB-2 overexpression. In support of this, HB4a cells activated more rapid and stronger signalling responses, such as p38 activation, than the C3.6 cells. Thus, the C3.6 defence mechanisms would appear to act upstream of these signalling events and could remove H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> before these signalling events are activated. Cells were further compared by cysteine 2D-DIGE and fifty-one proteins with significant differential labelling were identified by MALDI-TOF-MS. It is important to note that all proteins identified contain at least one free cysteine thiol, validating the labelling specificity. Those identified proteins that were differentially labelled or expressed in response to hydrogen peroxide fell into three main functional groups that included molecular chaperones, cellular redox regulators and metabolic enzymes. The experimental strategy used also allowed simultaneous detection of proteins that were correlated with ErbB-2 overexpression in luminal epithelial cells. These ErbB-2 overexpression-related proteins included cytoskeletal proteins, molecular chaperones, redox regulatory proteins and

proliferation regulatory proteins. Importantly, some of the identified targets were differentially regulated by both  $H_2O_2$  treatment and ErbB-2 overexpression.



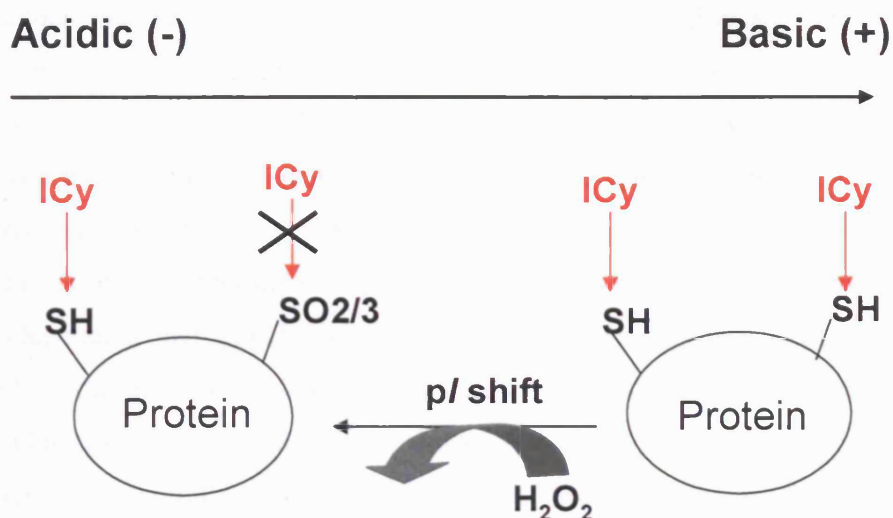
**(Figure 7-1) Mechanisms for the production, signalling and removal of  $H_2O_2$  in growth factor-stimulated cells.** Stimulation of cells with a growth factor induces the activation of PI3K which catalyses the conversion of  $PIP_2$  to  $PIP_3$ .  $PIP_3$  can activate the NADPH oxidase (NOX) complex, which results in the production of  $O_2^-$  that can be converted to  $H_2O_2$  through the action of SODs. The  $H_2O_2$  mediates the inactivation of PTPs, PTEN and Prxs by modification of their active site cysteines to form Cys-SOH or intra-/inter-molecules disulphides. The oxidised PTEN and Prxs are regenerated by the cellular thioredoxin system.

The results from this study support the concept that ErbB-2 overexpression has diverse effects on the response of cells to oxidative stress through the regulated expression and activity of redox-sensitive enzymes and also through changes in stress-inducible proteins. The up-regulation of RhoGDI1 in the ErbB-2 overexpressing cells is particularly interesting since in other cell systems Rho-GDI has been shown to modulate recruitment of the NADPH oxidase complex to Rho-family GTPases for superoxide ion generation (Olofsson, 1999). It is tempting to extrapolate that this interaction also occurs in mammary luminal epithelial cells and may alter superoxide ion production and H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> levels. Moreover, the previous observation of the down-regulation of mitochondrial superoxide dismutase (MnSOD) in the C3.6 cells (Gharbi *et al.*, 2002; White *et al.*, 2004), may also result in alternative regulation of intracellular H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> levels. These changes may at least, in part, account for the altered H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>-inducible activation of Erk1/2 and p38 MAPK signalling in this cell system, which in turn has direct implications on the stress responses of normal versus tumour cells and the response to chemotherapy and radiotherapy which are likely to alter the redox status of cells.

Following the identification of cysteine-labelling changes, lysine-labelling 2D-DIGE was also performed to identify H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>- and ErbB-2-dependent changes in protein expression under the same conditions and to compare the two labelling strategies in a biological context. As expected, there was an overlap with previous work from our laboratory where the HB4a and C3.6 cell proteomes were compared by lysine labelling 2D-DIGE (Gharbi *et al.*, 2002). In both cases, most of these proteins displayed the same directionality of up- or down-regulation in C3.6 versus HB4a cells. Comparison between the ICy and NHS-Cy dye analysis technologies revealed 11 individual gene products that were common to both methods and most of these displayed similar changes in labelling. This data confirms that the ICy dyes could detect changes in the abundance for these proteins, whilst the identification of unique gene products by each method shows the usefulness of applying both labelling strategies in better defining the proteomic changes associated with peroxide stress and ErbB-2 overexpression. Despite this, it is still difficult to discern the relative contributions of changes in protein abundance versus changes in thiol reactivity using the ICy dye labelling method alone and therefore, other

strategies are needed to discriminate between the two. Toward this end, 1D and 2D immunoblotting were applied. In most cases, changes in abundance were not detected, indicating the labelling changes were due to thiol modifications that block (e.g. formation of sulphinic acid or disulphide bonds) or enhance labelling (formation of free thiols or breakage of disulphide bonds). On the other hand, the proteins with changes both in abundance and in labelling mean that their gene expression are regulated by H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> or ErbB-2 overexpression.

Of the protein isoforms identified by both labelling methods, peroxiredoxins 1, 2 and 6 were identified as doublet spots with differing pI's by lysine labelling. Notably, the more basic spots in these doublets were all shown to be down-regulated after peroxide treatment, whilst the more acidic spots were up-regulated. A similar observation has been reported (Wagner *et al.*, 2002; Rabilloud *et al.*, 2002b) and was found to be due to oxidation of the active site cysteine thiols of these proteins. Such shifts provide an explanation for the observed differential labelling by the ICy dyes. Figure 7-2 explains a possible model for pI shift-induced differential labelling. Briefly, hydrogen peroxide oxidises a specific free thiol cysteine of a multi-cysteine protein and induces the acidic-shift of the protein. When ICy labelling is performed, the remaining free thiols of the pI shifted protein and the original protein are both labelled resulting in the increased detection of the shifted isoform and decreased detection of the original isoform due to changes in abundance. This model is made more valid by the fact that Prxns 1, 2, and 6 also possess free thiols in addition to the reactive site thiol, which is the presumed target of H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>-dependent oxidation. Elongation factor 2 and enolase alpha also existed as multiple isoforms, where the more acidic isoforms were up-regulated by peroxide treatment, suggesting that they may also be oxidised and shifted in pI. These modifications may affect protein activity and warrant further investigation. It should be noted, however, that the dyes may also shift labelled proteins to more basic isoforms, thus, complicating the pattern of detected isoforms, although such dye-induced shifts were not formally proven.



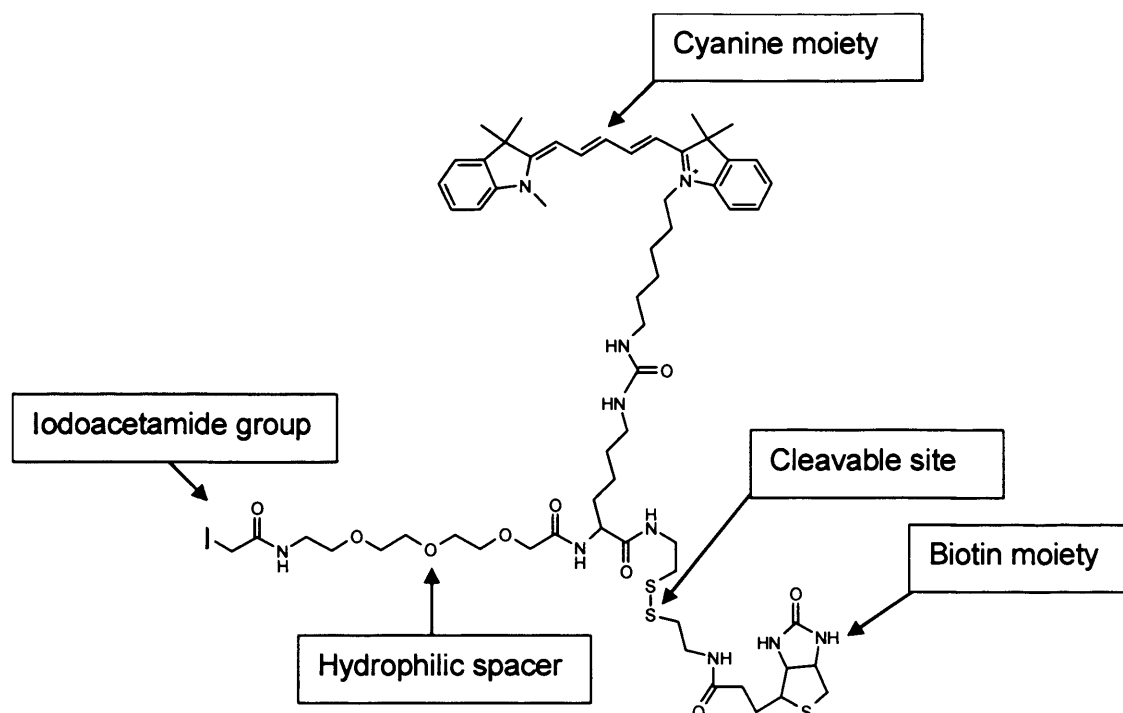
(Figure 7-2) A possible model for pI shift induced differential ICy dye labelling.

The data from 2D-DIGE protein expression profiling of the model human luminal epithelial cell system presented here was compared to other published proteomic studies of breast and other cancers and some correlations in the datasets were observed. Several of the identified proteins have been shown to be differentially regulated in various human cancers and could therefore play important roles in the processes associated with human luminal epithelial cell transformation. For example, Hsp27 showed a significant increase in abundance in the C3.6 cells compared to the HB4a cells. This chaperone protein has been implicated in various cellular processes including stress response and apoptosis and has been reported to be overexpressed in various human cancers (Sarto et al., 2000a) including breast ductal carcinoma (Wulfschuhle et al., 2002). L-plastin is a member of the plastin family of actin-bundling proteins. Although it was thought to be specific to haemopoietic cell lineages, it has been found overexpressed in malignant human solid tumours (Lin et al., 1993; Park et al., 1994). L-plastin is known to regulate cell adhesion and motility (Otsuka et al., 2001) and its deregulated expression has been correlated with cancer invasion and metastasis (Zheng et al., 1999). Indeed, cancer cells transfected with an antisense L-plastin gene were shown to display suppression of *in vivo* tumour invasion in nude mice. Since L-plastin upregulation was observed in the C3.6 cells, it may thus

contribute to ErbB-2-dependent tumour invasion. Cytokeratin17 which is overexpressed in squamous cell carcinomas has been shown to be a highly sensitive and specific immunohistochemical marker for premalignant and malignant transformation in the larynx (Cohen-Kerem et al., 2004). The observation of increased cytokeratin 17 in the ErbB-2 overexpressing cells again supports the notion that it may be involved in ErbB-2-dependent malignancy. Thus, the current study using 2D-DIGE can be used for the identification of important putative protein targets that have potential regulatory roles in ErbB-2-dependent cell transformation. The proteomic approach undertaken here has provided crucial preliminary information regarding the effects of ErbB-2 overexpression in a cellular model, giving rise to many interesting hypotheses which should be followed up on and which could provide new insights into the molecular mechanisms associated with cancer progression.

Although ICy3/5 labelling could be used to specifically and sensitively detect free thiol groups in proteins and investigate redox regulations in cells, it appeared that some low-abundance, differentially expressed/labelled proteins were not amenable to mass spectrometric identification due to insufficient material. Thus, in the future, enrichment strategies should be employed to try and identify these proteins. This could include the uses of zoom gels or sub-cellular fractionation to increase the loading and analysis of proteome subsets. However, proteins could also be labelled with affinity-tagged cysteine dyes, to enable enrichment of only labelled protein prior to 2DE. Our laboratory has recently synthesised such dyes containing a biotin group on the opposite arm to the iodoacetamide group and they should allow for recovery of purified labelled protein using immobilised streptavidin with improved recovery through the use of a cleavable linker (Figure 7-3). Conditions are currently being optimised in our laboratory for the use of these reagents for 2D-DIGE and subsequent protein identification by mass spectrometry.





**(Figure 7-3) The structure of an affinity-tagged cleavable cysteine label (IBCCy3).**

In general, the 2D-DIGE analysis in this thesis represents a new technique to help understand ErbB-2 dependent cellular transformation and how ErbB-2 affects redox responses. However, further work beyond the scope of this study should be carried out to characterise how the identified changes affect cell behaviour, cellular signalling or cell morphology. For example, one question would be whether oxidation of RanGTPase affects nucleo-cytoplasmic transport. This could be achieved by proteins known to be transported by Ran using immunofluorescence. Others experiments would use RNAi-mediated knockdown to alter the expression of specific proteins of interest (Cullen, 2002; Famulok and Verma, 2002). This strategy could be applied to this model cell system to examine the effects of particular proteins on cell proliferation and survival in the absence or presence of oxidative stress. As an inverse strategy, overexpression of the proteins of interest (such as peroxiredoxin 6) could also be tested for effects on cell proliferation and survival, following exposure to oxidative stress.

One of the important issues in redox studies is to look for the breakage or formation of disulphide bonds. Whilst the ICy dye strategy used here must be detecting such events,

an alternative reverse labelling strategy could be applied to more directly assess disulphide formation/breakage. Basically, protein samples from ROS treated cells would be harvested under anaerobic conditions in lysis buffer containing an alkylating agent such as iodoacetic acid (IAA). Those cellular proteins that had not encountered ROS in the cell will become irreversibly alkylated on their free thiol groups by IAA. In contrast, any protein in which free thiol cysteines have been oxidised in response to the ROS stimulation will be resistant to alkylation. Following reduction with DTT, all of the reversible ROS-modified proteins will now possess free thiols for labelling. This technique has been used to study the reversible oxidation and inactivation of proteins including protein tyrosine phosphatases (Meng et al., 2002; Baty et al., 2002). An advantage of this methodology is that it was suitable for conducting in-gel protein activity assays to test the effect of oxidation of PTP activity. Thus, the ICy dyes could be used for this reverse labelling strategy in the future.

The usefulness of the ICy dye labelling strategy was further tested by applying it to examine EGF-induced changes in thiol labelling. Native and denatured protein labelling were both performed to study potential EGF-induced thiol accessibility and reactivity changes of proteins. There were few significant changes observed in these experiments, suggesting that alterations in the accessibility of cysteinyl thiols and the redox modification of protein thiols do occur, however, the dissociation/association of protein complexes or the redox regulation of cellular cysteines is not the dominant mechanism of regulation following EGF treatment. Instead, EGF stimulation predominately induces downstream signalling or regulates cell functions by mechanisms such as phosphorylation of mediators through kinase action. Nevertheless, the importance of the EGF signalling related dissociation/association of protein complexes and redox regulation cannot be neglected. Notably, Prxn-6 was identified as being differentially labelled under both native condition and denaturing condition suggesting that the changes in thiol reactivity of the Prxn-6 are caused by covalent modification (redox reaction) rather than by cysteine accessibility. Furthermore, this redox modification of Prxn-6 could be that EGF stimulates the generation of low concentrations of intracellular  $H_2O_2$  which oxidises the active site cysteine of Prxn-6 in cells (see Chapter 5).

In a different application, ICy 2D-DIGE was used to investigate UV-C induced changes in thiol reactivity in human plasma fractions. Although UV-C irradiation did not induce significant effects on the blood clotting functions of the fractions (data from Baxter Healthcare), it did indeed induce thiol reactivity changes in the purified plasma proteins in this study. The possible mechanisms for these could involve UV induced breakage of disulphide bonds or direct modification of free thiols by UV-C induced ROS. Future studies would aim to identify the nature of these modifications, try to assess how they affect protein function and find out why those identified proteins are more easily modified by UV-C than the other proteins. More important than evaluation of loss of bio-reactivity or change of the structure of these proteins is the question of whether the potential toxicity of these modified proteins presents a danger to patients.

In summary, cysteine-labelling 2D-DIGE using the ICy dyes has been optimised and evaluated for differential proteomics in this thesis. Using MS, their application has been shown in the identification of targets of cellular oxidative stress (Chapter 4), to study growth factor-induced thiol reactivity (Chapter 5) and to determine UV-C-induced thiol reactivity changes (Chapter 6). In future, cysteine-labelling 2D-DIGE could be applied to study other systems and diseases where oxidative stress is thought to play a role. For example, this system could be applied to study ischemic reperfusion-injury in cardiac cells (Ambrosio et al., 1992; Molyneux et al., 2002; Leducq et al., 2003) or to study protein targets of radiation ( $\chi$ -ray/ $\gamma$ -ray)-induced intracellular oxidative stress that cause DNA damage and apoptosis (Nakano and Shinohara, 1994; Risom et al., 2003). In conclusion, the cysteine-labelling 2D-DIGE provides an MS-compatible and reproducible technique for identifying significant differences in the expression and redox modification of free thiol-containing proteins in multiple biological samples. This was achieved by labelling cysteine thiol groups with a matched pair of fluorescent alkylating agents.

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## Appendix A--Synthesis of Cy dyes

The following describes the synthesis of NHS-Cy3/5 & ICy3/5 dyes which was carried out by Dr. Piers Gaffney (Imperial College London).

NHS ester-derivatives of the fluorescent cyanine dyes Cy3 and Cy5 (NHS-Cy3 and NHS-Cy5) for lysine labelling were synthesized in-house following a modified version of the published protocol (Unlu et al., 1997a), and are structurally identical to the commercially available NHS-Cy dyes. Briefly, Cy carboxylic acids were prepared from the reactions of **1** and **2** (Figure 1A), and these converted to the corresponding NHS-Cy reagents. To optimise yields and ensure compound purity, each of the reported intermediates for NHS-Cy preparation was purified before commencing the next step, instead of carrying through crude material. However, in our hands, the published preparation of **1b** gave poor and variable yields; an alternative preparation, that has worked reliably for several phenylimido indoline Cy3 and Cy5 precursors, is described for **1a**. Also, in our hands, the published preparation of **2** gave material significantly contaminated with 1-[6-hexanoyl(6-hexanoic acid)]-2-methylene-3,3-dimethyl indolinium bromide. We have overcome this by alkylating 2,3,3-trimethyl indolenine with a 6-bromohexanoate silyl ester. The iodoacetyl versions of Cy3 and Cy5 (ICy3 and ICy5) were synthesised via the illustrated route starting with the reaction of **1** and **3** (Fig. 1A) and their structures are shown in Fig. 1B. All Cy dyes were made as stock solutions in anhydrous 99.8% *N,N*-dimethylformamide and stored at -20 °C.

All reverse phase (RP) chromatography used 100 ml silanised silica, Merck (cat. no. 1.07719). Normal phase thin layer chromatography (TLC) was run on glass-backed silica gel 60 F<sub>254</sub>, Merck (cat. no. 1.05715) and RP thin layer chromatography (RPTLC) was run on glass-backed silica gel 60 F<sub>254</sub>S, Merck (cat. no. 1.15388).

### **2-[4-(Phenylimido)butenylidene]-1, 3, 3-trimethyl indoline, 1a**

2-Methylene-1, 3, 3-trimethyl indoline (0.177 ml, 1.0 mmol) and malonaldehyde dianil hydrochloride (0.354 g, 1.5 mmol) were dissolved in DMF (1 ml) and to this was added TFA (0.084 ml, 1.1 mmol). The mixture was heated at 90 °C for 4.5 h then cooled to RT. The reaction was diluted with water (50 ml, plus a little dil. HCl) and applied directly to

a RP column. The column was first eluted with a gradient of MeCN - H<sub>2</sub>O, containing 1% sat. NaHCO<sub>3</sub>, then MeOH; the product, contaminated with dianil, eluted at the end of the gradient. The appropriate fractions were combined and the organic solvents evaporated under reduced pressure. The aqueous residue was acidified and re-chromatographed on a RP column eluted with a gradient of MeCN - H<sub>2</sub>O, containing 0.5% 4M HCl; the product eluted at 35 - 50% MeCN. The appropriate fractions were combined, neutralised with NaHCO<sub>3</sub> and the organic solvents evaporated under reduced pressure. Brine was added to the resultant aqueous solution and the product extracted into CHCl<sub>3</sub> (4 x 30 ml). The combined organic layers were dried (Na<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub>) and evaporated to dryness to give the *title compound* as a deep orange/yellow gum (**1a**, 0.185 g, 61%). RPTLC, MeCN - H<sub>2</sub>O - AcOH (75 : 14.9 : 0.1) *R<sub>f</sub>* 0.27.

#### **1-(6-Hexanoic acid)-2-methylene-3,3-dimethyl indolinium bromide, 2**

First 6-bromo-*tert*-butyl dimethylsilyl hexanoate was prepared: 6-bromohexanoic acid (7.941 g, 40.7 mmol) was taken up in THF (100 ml) to which was added Et<sub>3</sub>N (6.81 ml, 1.2 eq.). Dropwise addition of *tert*-butyl dimethylsilyl chloride (6.136 g, 40.7 mmol) followed, with vigorous stirring, and the reaction continued for 1 h. The suspension was then filtered, rinsing the salts with dry ether, and the filtrate evaporated to dryness to give crude 6-bromo-*tert*-butyl dimethylsilyl hexanoate (12.781 g) which was used without further purification. 2,3,3-Trimethyl indolenine (2.258 g, 14.2 mmol) was dissolved in 6-bromo-*tert*-butyl dimethylsilyl hexanoate (6.574 g, 21.3 mmol, 1.5 eq.) and the mixture stirred at 100 °C overnight. The next day the reaction was allowed to cool when lightly coloured crystals formed in the dark red gummy mother liquor. The mixture was mobilised by the addition of a little DCM (*ca.* 5 ml) then diluted by the gradual addition of EtOAc (100 ml) with constant swirling. The solids were filtered off, rinsing with more EtOAc, to give the *title compound* as a pale pink powder (**2**, 0.777 g). The filtrate was evaporated to dryness and taken up in MeOH (20 ml) to which was added TFA (0.163 ml, *ca.* 0.1 per silyl ester). After 1 h the solvent was stripped off and the EtOAc precipitation repeated to give a second crop of the *title compound* (**2**, 0.755 g, total *ca.* 30%).

### **1-(6-Azidohexyl)-2-methylene-3, 3-dimethyl indoline, 3**

2, 3, 3-Trimethyl indoleneine (3.20 ml, 20 mmol) was dissolved in 1, 2-dichlorobenzene (40 ml) and to this was added 1, 6-dibromohexane (9.24 ml, 60 mmol). The stirred reaction was heated at 110 °C overnight and the next day the solvent was stripped off *in vacuo* (oil pump, oil bath 60 °C) to leave a dark lilac oil. This residue was dissolved in CHCl<sub>3</sub> (100 ml), washed with dilute hydrobromic acid (20 ml 48% HBr + 180 ml water) and the aqueous layer was extracted with further CHCl<sub>3</sub> (2 x 50 ml). The combined organic layers were dried (MgSO<sub>4</sub>) and evaporated to dryness leaving a dark oil (8.00 g). To the residue were added DCM (100 ml) then silanised silica (100 ml) and the solvent stripped off *in vacuo*. The silica was placed in a large sinter funnel and washed with H<sub>2</sub>O - MeCN - AcOH (500 ml, 74 : 25 : 1 v/v/v). The filtrate was concentrated on a rotary evaporator, basified with Na<sub>2</sub>CO<sub>3</sub> (aq.), then saturated with NaCl. This was extracted into CHCl<sub>3</sub> (4 x 50 ml), dried (MgSO<sub>4</sub>) and the solvent evaporated to give crude 1-(6-bromohexyl)-2-methylene-3, 3-dimethyl indoline (3.71 g) which was used without further purification.

The crude bromide was dissolved in DMF. To this solution was added NaN<sub>3</sub> (2.28 g, 3 eq.) and the reaction was stirred vigorously for 2 days at RT. The solution was then diluted with water (200 ml), buffered with a little NaHCO<sub>3</sub> (aq.), then saturated with NaCl. The turbid solution was extracted with EtOAc (200 ml) and the organic layer was washed with NaHCO<sub>3</sub> (aq.) then brine. The aqueous layers were combined and extracted with further EtOAc (100 ml). This organic layer was also washed with NaHCO<sub>3</sub> (aq.) then brine. The combined organic layers were washed with water, containing a little NaHCO<sub>3</sub> (3 x 100 ml), and finally brine. This was dried (MgSO<sub>4</sub>) and the solvent evaporated to give the crude *title compound* (**3**, 3.272 g, *ca.* 57%). The neat oil decomposes significantly overnight, even at -20 °C.; it may be stored for months in the fridge in acidified chloroform (3 g in 50 ml CHCl<sub>3</sub> plus 2 ml AcOH).

### ***N*-(6-Azidohexyl)-*N'*-methyl Cy5 chloride, 4a, and *N*-(6-azidohexyl)-*N'*-propyl Cy3 chloride, 4b**

1-(6-Azidohexyl)-2-methylene-3, 3-dimethyl indoline (**3**, 0.376 g, 1.32 mmol) and 2-[4-(phenylimido)butenylidene]-1, 3, 3-trimethyl indoline (**1a**, 0.401 g, 1.33 mmol) were

dissolved in acetic anhydride (2.5 ml). After stirring for 30 min the solvent was evaporated under high vacuum and the residue applied to a RP column. This was eluted with a gradient of MeCN - H<sub>2</sub>O, containing 1% AcOH; the product eluted in 60 - 70% MeCN. The appropriate fractions were combined and the solvent evaporated at reduced pressure. The residue was taken up in CHCl<sub>3</sub> and washed with a mixture of brine and NaHCO<sub>3</sub> (aq.). The aqueous layers were washed with further CHCl<sub>3</sub> (3 or 4 times), until the colour was almost completely extracted, the combined organic layers were dried (Na<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub>) and evaporated to dryness to give *N*-(6-azidohexyl)-*N'*-methyl Cy5 chloride (**4a**, 0.538 g, 77%). TLC, pre-dip plate, MeOH - CHCl<sub>3</sub> - AcOH (10 : 89.9 : 0.1) *R*<sub>f</sub> 0.37; RPTLC, MeCN - H<sub>2</sub>O - AcOH (80 : 19.9 : 0.1) *R*<sub>f</sub> 0.27. Similarly, 1-(6-azidohexyl)-2-methylene-3, 3-dimethyl indoline (**3**, 0.381 g, 1.34 mmol) and 2-[2-(phenylimido)ethylidene]-1-propyl-3, 3-dimethyl indoline (**1b**, 0.418 g, 1.37 mmol) were reacted in acetic anhydride (2.5 ml). After RP chromatography and extraction, this gave *N*-(6-azidohexyl)-*N'*-propyl Cy3 chloride (**4b**, 0.533 g, 73%). TLC, pre-dip plate, MeOH - CHCl<sub>3</sub> - AcOH (10 : 89.9 : 0.1) *R*<sub>f</sub> 0.15; RPTLC, MeCN - H<sub>2</sub>O - AcOH (70 : 29.9 : 0.1) *R*<sub>f</sub> 0.15.

***N*-(6-Aminohexyl)-*N'*-methyl Cy5 iodide, **5a**, and *N*-(6-aminohexyl)-*N'*-propyl Cy3 iodide, **5b****

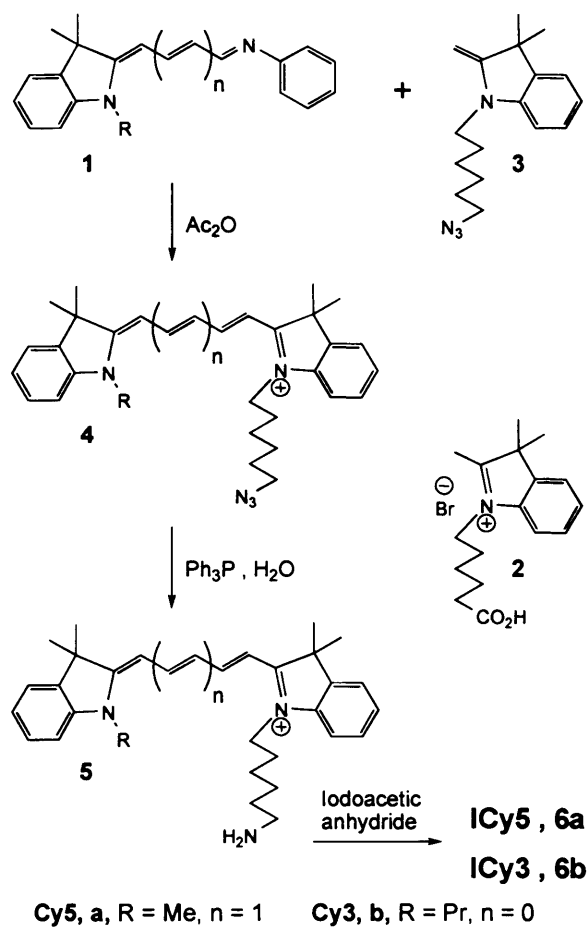
*N*-(6-Azidohexyl)-*N'*-methyl Cy5 chloride (**4a**, 0.264 g, 0.50 mmol) was dissolved in THF (4 ml). To this solution was added triphenyl phosphine (0.199 g, 0.76 mmol) then water (1 ml) and the reaction was stirred overnight in the dark. The following day the solvent was stripped off and the residue was applied to a RP column. This was eluted with a gradient of MeCN - H<sub>2</sub>O, containing 1% AcOH; the product eluted in 30 - 50% MeCN. The appropriate fractions were combined and the solvent evaporated at reduced pressure. The residue was taken up in CHCl<sub>3</sub> and washed with a mixture of KI (50% aq.) and a little NaHCO<sub>3</sub>. The aqueous layers were washed with further CHCl<sub>3</sub> (2 or 3 times), until the colour was almost completely extracted, the combined organic layers were dried (Na<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub>) and evaporated to dryness to give *N*-(6-aminohexyl)-*N'*-methyl Cy5 iodide (**5a**, 0.214 g, 72%). TLC, pre-dip plate, MeOH - CHCl<sub>3</sub> - AcOH (10 : 89.9 : 0.1) *R*<sub>f</sub> 0.07. Similarly, *N*-(6-azidohexyl)-*N'*-propyl Cy3 chloride (**4b**, 0.261 g, 0.49 mmol) was reacted

with triphenyl phosphine (0.196 g, 0.75 mmol) in THF (4 ml) and water (1 ml). After RP chromatography and extraction, this gave *N*-(6-aminohexyl)-*N'*-propyl Cy3 iodide (**5b**, 0.291 g, 99%). TLC, pre-dip plate, MeOH - CHCl<sub>3</sub> - AcOH (10 : 89.9 : 0.1) *R*<sub>f</sub> base-line.

***N*-(6-Iodoacetamidohexyl)-*N'*-methyl Cy5 iodide, 6a, and *N*-(6-iodoacetamidohexyl)-*N'*-propyl Cy3 iodide, 6b**

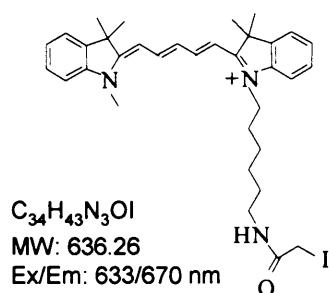
*N*-(6-Aminohexyl)-*N'*-methyl Cy5 iodide (**5a**, 0.150 g, 0.25 mmol) was evaporated from dry MeCN (3 x 2 ml), the residue was taken up in DCM (0.75 ml) and to this was added iodoacetic anhydride (0.099 g, 0.31 mmol, 1.2 eq.). The reaction was stirred for 2 h then the solvent was evaporated. The residue was taken up in CHCl<sub>3</sub> and washed with KI (50% aq.), containing a little NaHCO<sub>3</sub>, dried (Na<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub>) and evaporated to dryness. This material (0.210 g) was triturated with EtOAc and evaporated to dryness to give the crude product (0.188 g). This material is contaminated with iodoacetic acid/anhydride: crude product (0.072 g) was applied to a RP column which was eluted with a gradient of MeCN - H<sub>2</sub>O, containing 0.5% KI (50% aq.) and 10 drops/100ml dil. H<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub> (20% aq.); the product eluted in 65 - 70% MeCN. The appropriate fractions were combined and the MeCN evaporated under reduced pressure. The aqueous solution was extracted with CHCl<sub>3</sub> (4 x 20 ml), the combined extracts dried (Na<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub>) and evaporated to dryness to give pure *N*-(6-iodoacetamidohexyl)-*N'*-methyl Cy5 iodide (**6a**, 0.052 g). TLC, pre-dip plate, MeOH - CHCl<sub>3</sub> - AcOH (10 : 89.9 : 0.1) 0.23. Similarly, *N*-(6-Aminohexyl)-*N'*-propyl Cy3 iodide (**5b**, 0.163 g, 0.27 mmol) was reacted with iodoacetic anhydride (0.110 g, 0.31 mmol, 1.2 eq.) in DCM (0.5 ml). Initial work-up gave the crude product (0.211 g). After RP chromatography (0.056g) of this material gave the pure *N*-(6-iodoacetamidohexyl)-*N'*-propyl Cy3 iodide (**6b**, 0.046 g). TLC, pre-dip plate, MeOH - CHCl<sub>3</sub> - AcOH (10 : 89.9 : 0.1) 0.15.

**A**

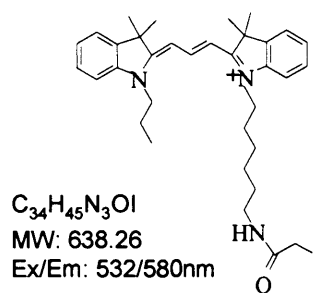


**B**

**ICy5, 6a**



**ICy3, 6b**



**(Appendix A) Synthesis and structure of the iodoacetyl cyanine dyes.** (A) Scheme for synthesis of ICy3 and ICy5. (B) ICy5 and ICy3 (compounds 6a and 6b respectively from the synthetic scheme) showing chemical formulas, molecular weights and the excitation/emission wavelengths used for detection.

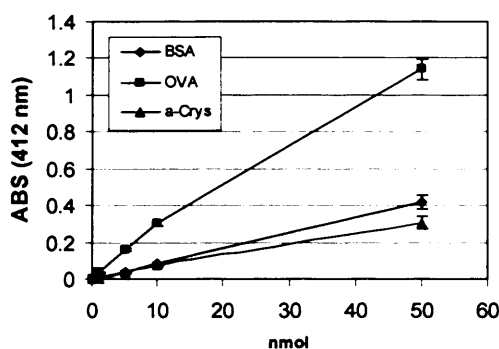
## **Appendix B--Quantitative determination of free thiol content in standard proteins and in total cell lysates**

Free thiol groups can be determined with Ellman's reagent (Zahler and Cleland, 1968). Aliphatic sulphydryls can cleave the disulphide-bridge of DTNB (5, 5'-dithiobis (2-nitrobenzoic acid)). The resulting  $\text{TNB}^{2-}$  (2-nitro-5-thiobenzoate) anion has a bright yellow colour, whilst DTNB has a faint yellowish colour. Thus,  $\text{TNB}^{2-}$  has a distinct spectrometric property for detection. The advantages of this reagent are that it is water-soluble, it may be used at neutral pH with few side reactions and its reaction with thiols is fast. The reagent has been used not only in the study of thiol chemistry, but also for the analysis of biological samples and in enzymology for many years (Brocklehurst et al., 1972; Gergel' and Cederbaum, 1997; Riener et al., 2002). According to the examination of ICy cysteine-labelling of standard proteins presented in Figure 3-4 of this thesis, the fluorescence intensities of the ICy-labelled standards did not correlate with the number of free thiols on the proteins, even though they were present at equimolar amounts. Therefore, Ellman's tests were performed to determine the free thiol number in each standard protein. The results showed that 0.61, 1.67 and 0.53 mol/mol of free thiols were present in BSA (1 free thiol), Ova (4 free thiols) and  $\alpha$ -Crys (1 free thiol), respectively (Figure Appendix B1). This suggests that these standard proteins were all partially oxidised before performing the labelling test. However, these values alone cannot explain the variable fluorescence intensities between these labelled standards. Thus, it would appear that labelling does not depend upon thiol content alone, but also on the reactivity and/or accessibility of specific thiol groups.

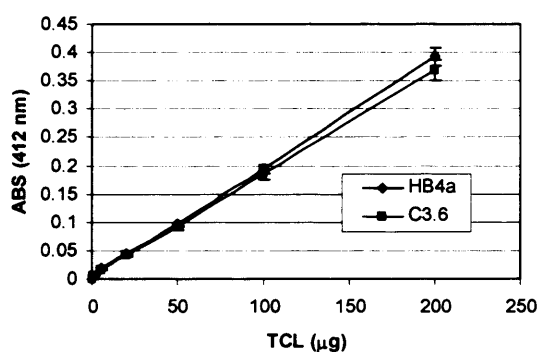
In sections (3.2.4) and (4.2), Ellman's reactions were also applied for determining the average free thiol number per protein molecule from human luminal epithelial cells. For this, 200  $\mu\text{g}$  of cell lysate was diluted to 900  $\mu\text{l}$  with sodium phosphate buffer and an absorbance (412nm) of 0.4 units was obtained for the HB4a lysate using the Ellman's reagent (Figure Appendix B2). It is important to note that the absorbance was linear over a whole range of different lysate amounts. According to the equation ( $[\text{SH}] = [\text{A412 (sample)} - \text{A412 (reference)}] / 13650$ ), 27 nmols of thiol groups were present in this sample. The average molecular weight of a human protein, was then calculated to be 48



kDa, by averaging the predicted molecular weights of all known human sequences in the SwissProt/ TrEMBL & NCBI databases accessed using the international protein index (IPI) (calculated by Richard Jacob, LICR, UCL). Thus, 200 µg of cell lysate is approximately equal to 4.2 nmol of protein molecules and so there were 6.4 moles free thiol/ mol of protein.



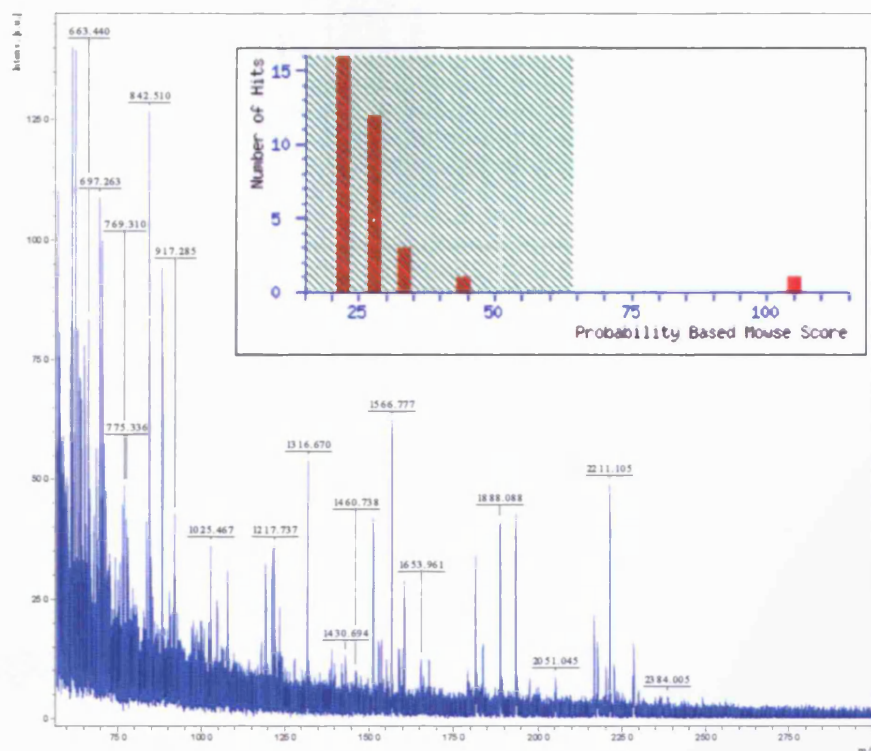
**(Figure Appendix B1) Quantitative determination of free thiol content in standard proteins (BSA, OVA and α-Crys).** 100 µl of standard proteins (BSA, OVA and α-Crys) were prepared at the indicated molar amounts and diluted with 100 µl of 0.01 M DTNB (Ellman's reagent) and 2800 µl of 0.1 M sodium phosphate buffer (pH 8.0). The mixture was incubated in the dark for 15 min and then the absorbance measured at 412 nm in a 1 cm cuvette. A reference solution was prepared containing 100 µl of 0.01 M DTNB and 2900 µl of 0.1 M sodium phosphate buffer (pH 8.0) and the absorbance measured. The concentration of sulphhydryl groups was calculated using the following equation;  $[SH] = [A_{412}(\text{sample}) - A_{412}(\text{reference})] / 13650$ .



**(Figure Appendix B2) Quantitative determination of free thiols (Ellman test).** (A) HB4a and C3.6 cell lysates were freshly prepared in ICy lysis buffer and the protein concentration determined. The indicated amounts of total protein in 100 µl were then diluted with 2900 µl of 0.1 M sodium phosphate buffer (pH 8.0) containing DTNB (Ellman's reagent) at a final concentration of 0.33 mM. Samples were mixed well, and incubated in the dark at room temperature prior to measurement of the absorbance at 412 nm.

## Appendix C--Spectra, MOWSE scores, matched peptide and sequence coverage of identified proteins (Table 4-1)

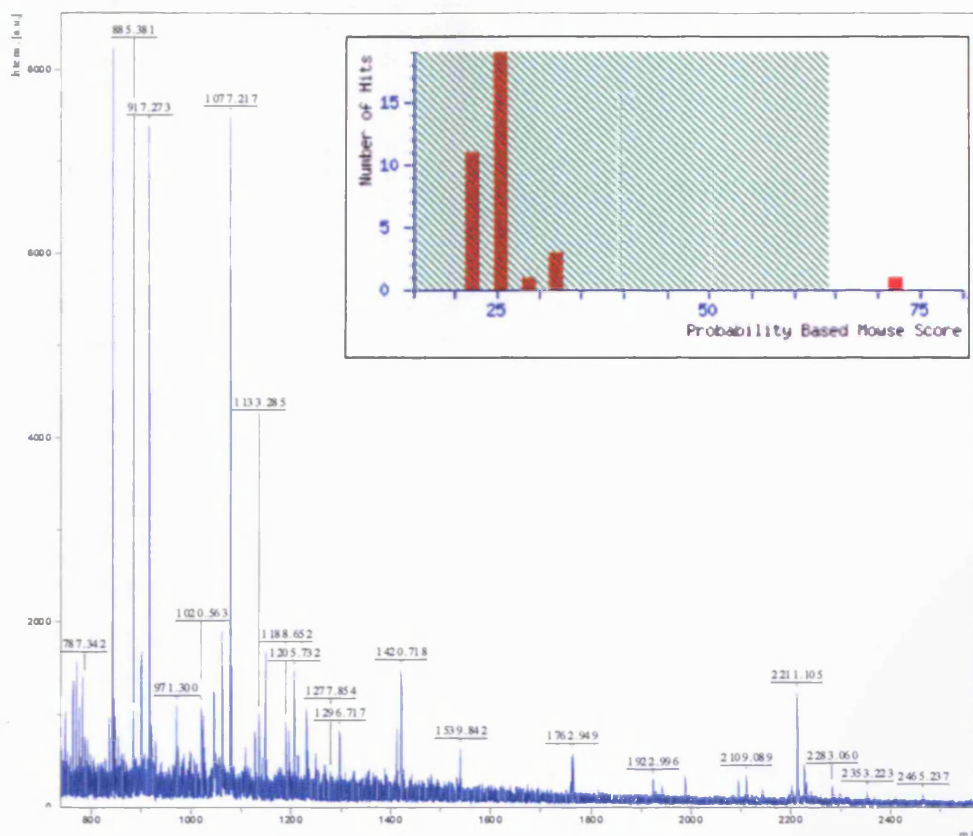
### Spot 769 Bip Protein



Start - End	Observed	Monoisotopic	Delta	Mass Sequence
50 - 60	1570.60	1570.60	0.00	0 R.VELIANDQGNR.I
61 - 74	1566.78	1565.77	-0.00	0 R.IVSYVAFTPEER.L
102 - 113	1630.65	1629.60	0.00	0 R.VENDESVQGLR.H
124 - 130	1604.90	1603.86	0.00	0 R.TEPTIQQVIGGQTK.Y
139 - 152	1536.81	1535.82	0.00	0 R.YFAPRIANVLTN.H
159 - 159	1530.80	1531.79	0.00	0 R.YFAPRIANVLTN.H Oxidation (M)
163 - 163	1540.63	1539.63	0.00	1 R.HQYVAGVLR.H
166 - 197	1533.62	1532.61	-0.01	0 R.HQYVAGVLR.H Oxidation (M)
200 - 206	997.51	996.51	0.00	0 R.ALSIQGAS.I
307 - 329	2167.81	2164.81	0.00	0 R.IEISTTQSDVETLR.A
325 - 336	1510.81	1511.80	0.00	1 R.AQVIELNHLPS.S
325 - 336	1520.76	1521.76	0.00	1 R.AQVIELNHLPS.S Oxidation (M)
354 - 367	1660.74	1659.73	-0.01	0 R.SDIDETLVQSTLR.I
440 - 464	1036.66	1035.65	-0.01	0 R.SQIFSTASDQPTVLR.V
463 - 474	1191.63	1190.62	-0.01	0 R.VYDHRPLTK.D
473 - 492	1934.81	1933.80	-0.01	0 R.HHHLSTYLVQIPAP.S
528 - 532	1316.61	1315.60	-0.01	1 R.HLITITMQLG.L
597 - 596	637.26	636.25	-0.01	0 R.EYDNR.A

1	NKLSLVAAML	LLLSAARAE	EDKKEDVGTV	VGIDLGTYS	CVGVFKNGRV
51	EIILANDQGNR	ITPSYVAFT	EGERLIGDAA	KNQLTSNPEN	TVFDAKRLIG
101	RTWMDPSVQQ	DIKFLPFKV	EKKYKRYIQV	DIGGGQTKY	APEEISANVL
151	THQKETAZAY	LGKKVTHAV	TVPAYFNDAQ	RQATKDAGTI	AGLVHVRIRN
201	EPTAAAIAYG	LDKREGEKNI	LVFDLGGGT	DVSLLTIDNG	VFEVVATNGD
251	THLGGEDFDQ	RVMEHFILY	KKKTGKDVRF	DNRAVQKLRR	EVEKAKRLS
301	SQHQARIEIE	SPYEGEDFSE	TLTRAKFEEL	NMDLFRSTHK	PVQKVLDS
351	LKKSDEIDEIV	LVGGSTRIPK	IQQLVKEFFN	GKEPSRGINP	DEAVAYGAIV
401	QAGVLSGDQD	TGDLVLLDVC	PLTLGIETVG	GVMTKLIPRN	TVVPTKKSQI
451	PSIASDHPPT	VTIKVYEGER	PLTKDMDLIG	TFDLTGIPPA	PRGVPIEVT
501	FEIDVNGILR	VTAEDKGTGN	KMKITITMDQ	MRLTPEELER	HVNDAEKFAE
551	EDKKLKERID	TRNELESYAY	SLKNQIGDKE	KLGGKLSSED	KETHEKAVEE
601	KIEWLESHQD	ADIEDFKAKK	KELEEIVQPI	ISKLYGSAGP	PPTGEEDTAE
651	KDEL				

## Spot 1123 Chaperonin containing TCP1- $\alpha$



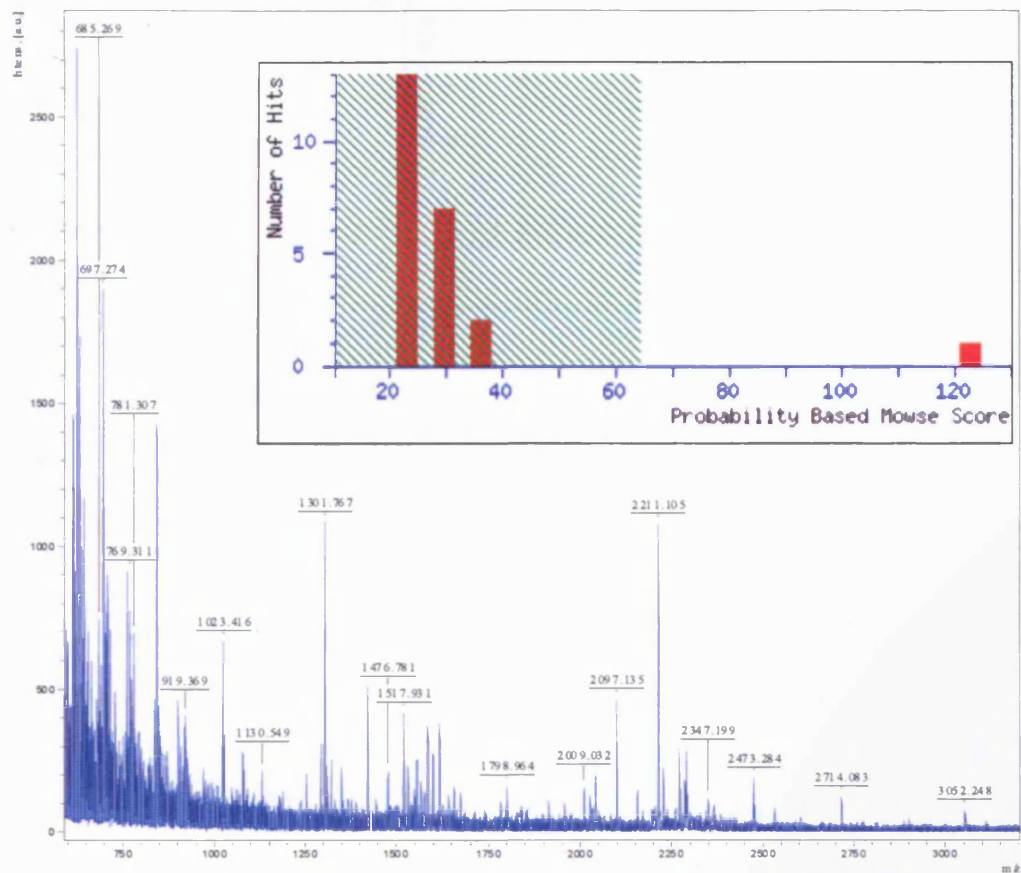
Start - End	Observed	Mr(expt)	Mr(calc)	Delta	Miss	Sequence
64 - 73	1106.65	1105.65	1105.61	0.03	0	K.LLEVEHPAAK.V
85 - 102	1814.94	1813.93	1814.00	-0.07	0	K.EVGDDGTSVVIIAAELLK.N
112 - 122	1229.70	1228.69	1228.66	0.03	0	K.INPTSVISGYR.L
131 - 145	1762.95	1761.94	1761.89	0.05	0	R.YINENLIVMTDELGR.D
190 - 199	1146.64	1145.63	1145.64	-0.01	0	R.YPVNSVMILK.A
234 - 243	1194.65	1193.64	1193.61	0.03	0	K.IACLDPSLQK.T
248 - 264	1923.00	1921.99	1922.08	-0.09	1	K.LGVQVVTDPKLDQIR.Q
444 - 466	2353.22	2352.22	2352.29	-0.07	0	R.SLLVIPMTLAVMAAQDSTDLVAK.L
469 - 480	1411.74	1410.73	1410.66	0.07	0	R.AFHNEAQVMPER.K
469 - 481	1539.84	1538.83	1538.76	0.08	1	R.AFHNEAQVMPERK.N
500 - 510	1188.65	1187.64	1187.65	-0.01	0	K.QAGVFPTIVK.V
516 - 526	1205.73	1204.73	1204.68	0.04	0	K.FATEAAITILR.I

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1  MEGPLSVFGD RSTGETIRSQ NVMAAASIAN IVKSSLGPGV LDKHLVDDIG
51 DVTITNDGAT ILKLEVEHP AAKVLCCLAD LQDKVEGDDT TSVVIIAAEL
101 LKNADLVKQ KINPTSVISG YRLACKEAVR YINENLIVMT DELGRDCLIN
151 AAKTSMSSKI IGINDDFFAN MVVDVLAIAK YTDIRGQPRY PVNSVMILKA
201 HGRSQHESHL ISGYALNCVV GSQGHPKRIV NAKIACLDPS LQKTKHKLGV
251 QVVITDPEKL DQIRQRESDI TKERIQILA TGANVILTTG GIDHCLKYF
301 VEAGAMAVRR VLKRDCLKRIA KASGATILST LANLEGEETF EAANLGQAEZ
351 VVQERICDDE LILIKNTRAR TSASIIIRGA NDFMCDENER SLHDALCVVK
401 RVLESKSVVP GGGAVEAALS IYLENYATSM GSREQLAIAE FARSLLVIPN
451 TLAVMAAQDS TDLVAKLRAP HNEAQVMPER KNLKWIGLDL SNGKPRDNKQ
501 AGVFPTIVK VKSLKFATEA AITILRIDDL IKLHPESKDD KHGSYEDAVH
551 SGALND

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## Spot 1242 Chaperonin containing TCP1- $\beta$



Start	End	Observed	Mr(expt)	Mr(calc)	Delta	Miss	Sequence
25	39	1517.93	1516.92	1516.89	0.04	0	R.LTSFIGAIGDLVK.S
72	88	1798.96	1797.96	1797.94	0.02	1	K.HIGVDNPAARVLVMSR.V
89	118	2288.16	2287.16	2287.15	0.00	0	R.VGDEVDGTTSTVLAALLR.E
119	138	1419.76	1418.75	1418.81	-0.07	1	K.HNPQTIIAGWR.E
120	130	1291.73	1290.72	1290.72	0.00	0	K.HNPQTIIAGWR.E
154	169	1781.97	1780.96	1780.91	0.04	1	K.FRQDLNLIAGTTLSK.L
181	188	878.54	869.54	869.53	0.00	0	K.LAVEAVLR.L
191	202	1251.70	1250.70	1250.70	-0.00	0	K.GSGMLEAINIK.K
204	222	2041.07	2040.06	2040.04	0.02	1	K.LGGSLADSYLDEGFLDNR.I
284	292	1130.53	1129.54	1129.55	-0.00	0	K.HGICFIHR.Q
322	341	2097.14	2096.13	2096.12	0.01	0	R.LALVTGGEIASTFDHPELV.L
350	373	1936.10	1935.09	1935.07	0.02	0	K.LINFSQVALGEACTIVLR.G
388	401	1554.81	1553.80	1553.82	-0.02	0	R.SLMDALCVLAQTVK.D
388	404	1912.99	1911.99	1911.98	0.00	1	R.SLMDALCVLAQTVKSR.Y
444	465	2347.20	2346.19	2346.19	0.00	0	R.HLPQTIIADHAGTDSADLVAGLR.A
444	465	2363.11	2362.10	2362.10	-0.00	0	R.HLPQTIIADHAGTDSADLVAGLR.A Oxidation (R)
486	488	1546.67	1545.66	1545.68	-0.02	0	R.AAHKIGHTTALDNR.E Oxidation (R)
481	499	2009.03	2008.03	2008.02	0.01	0	R.EGTIGDMAILGITESTFQVK.R
501	515	1582.98	1581.97	1581.91	0.07	0	R.QVLLSAAEAEEVILR.V

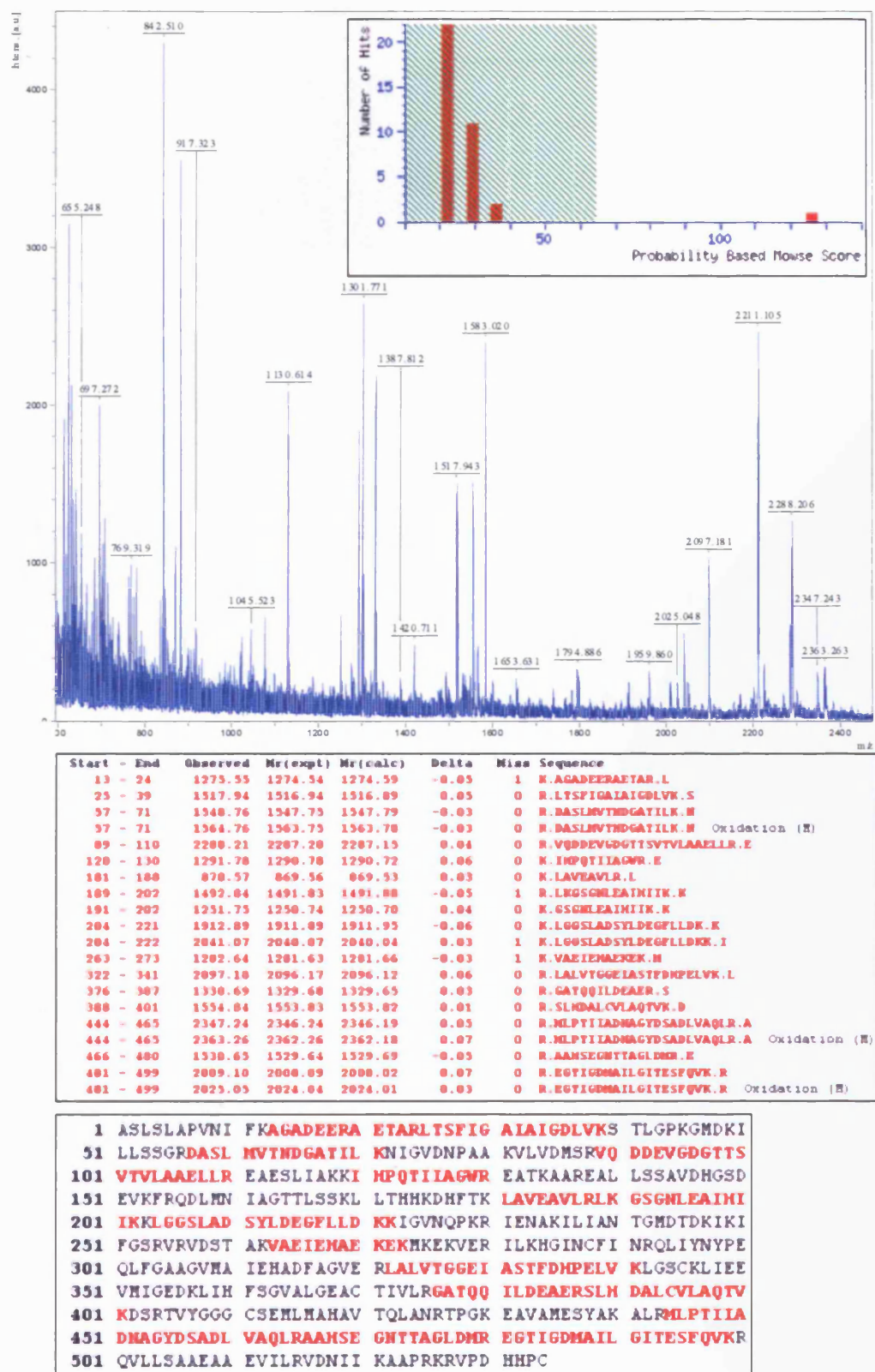
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1  ASLSLAPVNI  FKAGADEERA  ETARLTSFIG  AIAIGDLVKS  TLGPKGMDKI
51  LLSSGRDASL  MVTNDGATIL  KNIGVDNPAA  KVLVDMSRVQ  DDEVGDGTT
101  VTVLAAELLR  EAESLIAKKI  HPQTIIAGWR  EATKAAREAL  LSSAVDHGSD
151  EVKFRQDLMN  IAGTTLSKSL  LTHHKDHFTK  LAVEAVLRLE  GSGMLEAINI
201  IKKLGGSLAD  SYLDEGFLD  KKIGVNQPKR  IENAKILIAN  TGMDTDKIKI
251  FGSRVRVDST  AKVAEIEHAE  KEKMKEKVER  ILKHGINCFI  NRQLIYNYPE
301  QLFGAAGVMA  IEHADFAGVE  RLALVTGGEI  ASTFDHPELV  KLGSCKLIIE
351  VMIGEDKLIH  FSGVALGEAC  TIVLRGATQQ  ILDEAERSLH  DALCVLAQTV
401  KDSRTVYGGG  CSEMLMAHAV  TQLANRTPGK  EAVAMESYAK  ALRHLPTIIA
451  DNAGYDSADL  VAQLRAAHSE  GNTTAGLDMR  EGTIGDMAIL  GITESTFQVKR
501  QVLLSAAEAA  EVILRVDNII  KAAPRKRPVD  HHPC

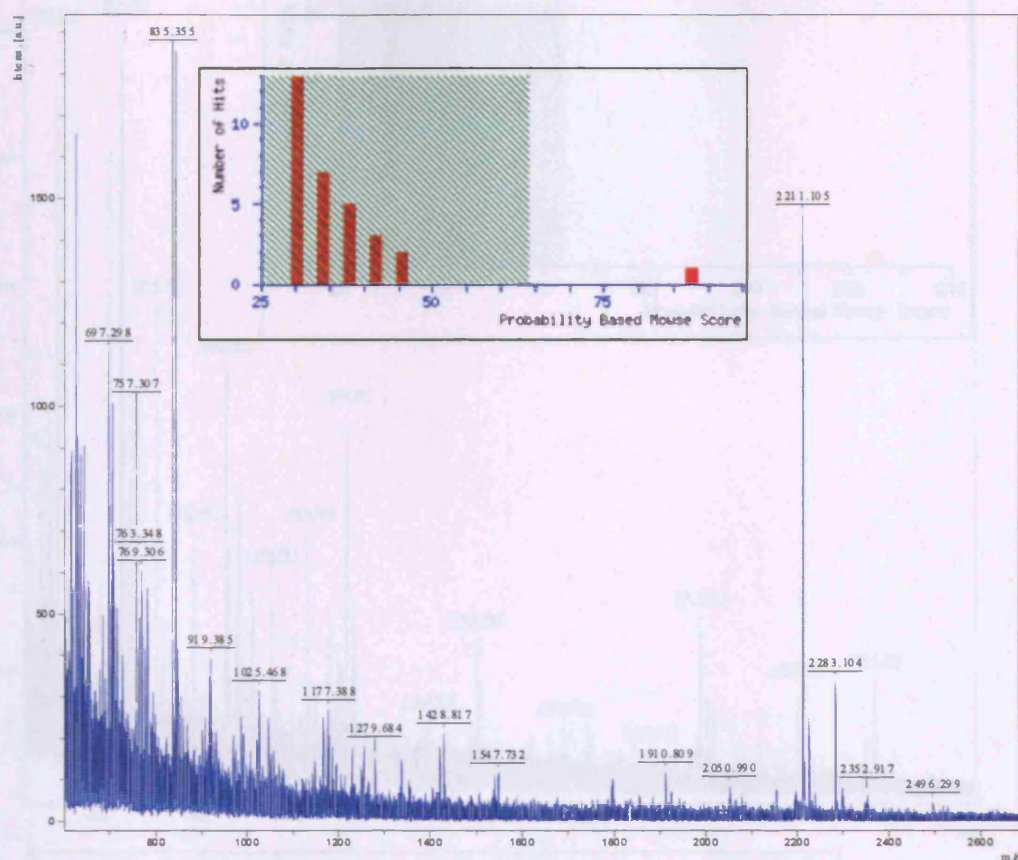
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## Spot 1206 Chaperonin containing TCP1- $\beta$



## Spot 1110 Chaperonin containing TCP1- $\gamma$



Start - End	Observed	Mr(expt)	Mr(calc)	Delta	Miss	Sequence
21 - 31	1129.54	1129.53	1129.63	-0.09	1	R.KVQSGNINAAK.Y
69 - 78	1129.58	1119.58	1119.60	-0.11	8	R.EIQVQHAAK.S
69 - 85	1952.97	1951.96	1952.01	-0.06	1	R.EIQVQHAAKSHIETSR.Y Oxidation (R)
79 - 85	835.36	834.35	834.43	-0.08	0	K.SHIETSR.Y
129 - 138	1106.59	1105.59	1105.57	0.02	0	K.ALDIMISTLK.K
129 - 139	1234.67	1233.67	1233.66	0.00	1	K.ALDIMISTLK.I
160 - 181	1547.73	1546.73	1546.70	-0.06	0	R.WSLACHIALDAVK.N
204 - 216	1428.82	1427.81	1427.74	0.07	0	K.IPGGIEEDSCVLR.G
230 - 240	1279.68	1278.68	1278.71	-0.03	0	R.IVLLDSSELYK.K
290 - 266	2025.82	2024.82	2024.93	-0.11	1	K.GESQTDIEITREDFYR.I
295 - 306	1403.73	1402.72	1402.70	0.02	0	K.GISMLAGHTLNR.A
295 - 306	1419.70	1418.70	1418.70	-0.00	0	K.GISMLAGHTLNR.A Oxidation (R)
331 - 353	2496.30	2495.29	2495.32	-0.03	1	R.IVSRPEELREDFGTGALLIR.K
355 - 370	1949.85	1948.84	1947.89	0.15	1	K.IGDFTYTFITDCKDPK.A
420 - 438	1337.60	1336.59	1336.62	-0.03	0	K.ANTQVEQWYR.A
420 - 438	1353.59	1352.58	1352.62	-0.04	0	K.ANTQVEQWYR.A Oxidation (R)
439 - 449	1166.72	1165.71	1165.68	0.03	0	R.AVAQALEVIPR.Y
450 - 461	1333.63	1332.63	1332.60	-0.06	0	R.TLIQNCGASTI.L
492 - 502	1254.67	1253.66	1253.70	-0.04	0	K.ELGIWEPLAVK.L
500 - 518	1105.64	1104.63	1104.71	-0.00	0	K.TAVTAVLIIR.I

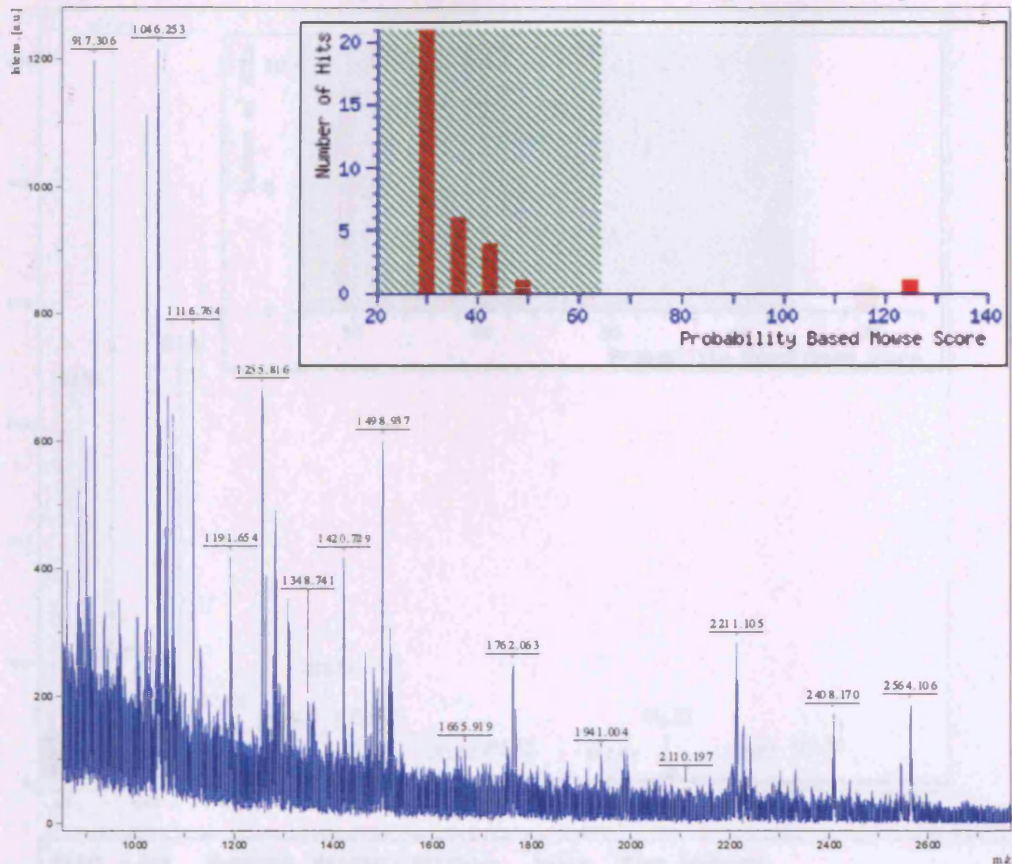
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1  MHGHRPVLVL  SQNTKRESGR  KVQSGNINAA  KTIADIIRTC  LGPKSMNKKL
51  LDPNGGIVMT  NDGNAILREI  QVQHAAKSH  IEISRTQDEE  VGDGTTSVII
101 LAGENLSVAE  HFLEQQMHPT  VVISAYRKAL  DDMISTLKKI  SIPVDISDSD
151 MMLNIINSSI  TTKAISRWSS  LACHIALDAV  KMVQFEENGR  KEIDIKKYAR
201 VEKIPGGIIE  DSCVLRGVHI  NKDVTHPRNR  RYIKNPRIVL  LDSSELYKKG
251 ESQTDIEITR  EEDFTRILQM  EEEYIQQLCE  DIIQLKPDVV  ITEKGISDLA
301 QHYLMRANIT  AIRRVKTDN  NRIARACGAR  IVSRPEELRE  DDVGTGAGLL
351 EIKKIGDEYF  TFITDCKDPK  ACTILLRGAS  KEILSEVERN  LQDAMQVCRN
401 VLLDPQLVPG  GGASENAVAH  ALTEKSKANT  GVEQWPYRAV  AQALEVIPRT
451 LIQNCGASTI  RLLTSLRAKH  TQNCETWGV  NGETGTLVDM  KELGIWEPLA
501 VKLQTYKTAV  ETAVLLLRID  DIVSGHKKKG  DDQSRQGGAP  DAGQE

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## Spot 1144 Chaperonin containing TCP1- $\zeta$

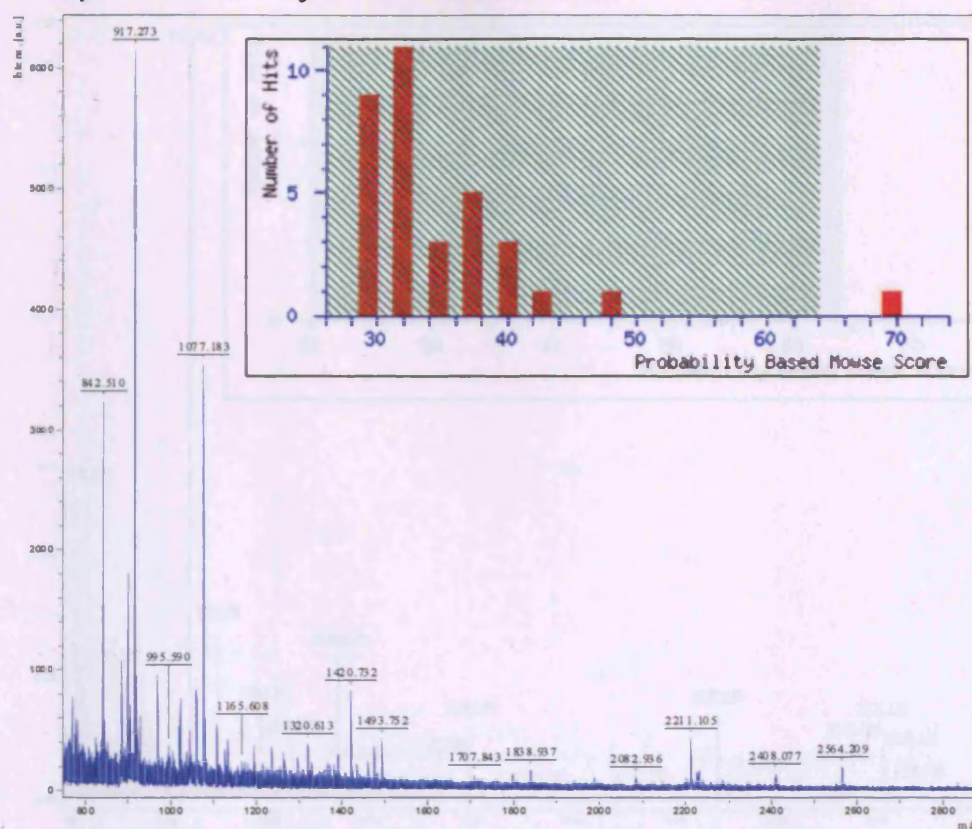


Start	End	Observed	Mr(expt)	Mr(calc)	Delta	Miss Sequence
14	26	1255.82	1254.81	1254.78	0.10	0 R.AQAALAVNISAAR.G
27	33	800.43	799.42	799.46	-0.03	0 R.GLQVLR.Y
44	56	1340.74	1347.73	1347.74	-0.01	1 K.HLVSGAGDINK.T.D Oxidation (M)
70	102	2544.43	2543.42	2543.33	0.09	0 K.VATAQDDITGDDTSMVLIIGELLK.Q
120	136	1076.64	1075.63	1075.59	0.04	0 K.ALQFLEEVK.V
150	178	2206.78	2205.27	2205.23	0.05	0 K.VHAEIADVLTEAVVDSILAIR.K
179	193	2110.20	2109.19	2109.02	0.17	1 K.KQDFIDLFMIHIDMK.H
240	249	1191.63	1190.63	1190.56	0.09	0 K.YEVHSGFTYK.S
240	254	1763.89	1762.88	1762.82	0.07	1 K.YEVHSGFTYSAEK.E
271	276	743.47	742.46	742.50	-0.03	1 K.KIIEIK.R
279	293	1665.92	1664.91	1664.82	0.09	1 K.VGDSGKGFVVIK.K
286	293	904.51	903.51	903.52	-0.01	0 K.GPVVIK.K
294	305	1262.75	1261.74	1261.66	0.09	0 K.GIDPFSLDAIK.E
306	312	757.42	756.42	756.45	-0.03	0 K.EGVALR.R
317	321	705.30	704.29	704.34	-0.05	1 R.RHNER.L
317	321	721.27	720.26	720.33	-0.07	1 R.RHNER.L Oxidation (M)
350	363	704.36	703.35	703.42	-0.06	0 K.FYIEK.C
380	386	840.49	839.48	839.49	-0.01	0 K.HYLIQIK.D
391	397	758.42	757.41	757.44	-0.04	1 R.DGLRAVK.H
431	447	1760.13	1767.12	1767.03	0.09	0 K.AQLGVQAFADALLIIPK.V
448	463	1762.06	1761.06	1760.93	0.12	0 K.VLAQHSQFDLQETLVK.I

1	AVKTLNPKAE	VARAQAALAV	NISAARGLQD	VLRTNLGPKG	TMKHLVSGAG
51	DIKLTKDGNV	LLHEMQIQHP	TASLIAKVAT	AQDDITGDDT	TSNVLIIIGEL
101	LKQADLYISE	GLHPRIITEG	FEAAKEKALQ	FLEEVKVSRE	MDRETLIDVA
151	RTSLRLTKVHA	ELADVLTEAV	VDSILAIIKQ	DEPIDLFMIE	IDEMKHKSET
201	DTSLIRGLVL	DHGARHPDMK	KRVEDACILT	CNVSLYEYKT	EVNSGFFYKS
251	AEEREKLVKA	ERKFIEDRVK	KIIEIKRKVC	GDSDKGFVVI	NQKGIDPFSL
301	DALSKEGIVA	LRRAKRRNME	RLTLACGGVA	LNSFDDLSPD	CLGHAGLVYE
351	YTLGEEKFTF	IEKCNNPRSV	TLLIKGPNKH	TLTQIKDAVR	DGLRAVKNAI
401	DDGCVVPGAG	AVEVAMAEAL	IKHKPSVKGR	AQLGVQAFAD	ALLIIPKVLA
451	QNSGFDLQET	LVKIQAEHSE	SGQLVGVDLN	TGEPMVAAEV	GVWDNYCVKK
501	QLLHSCTVIA	TNILLVDEIM	RAGMSSLKG		



# Spot 1143 Cytokeratin 10

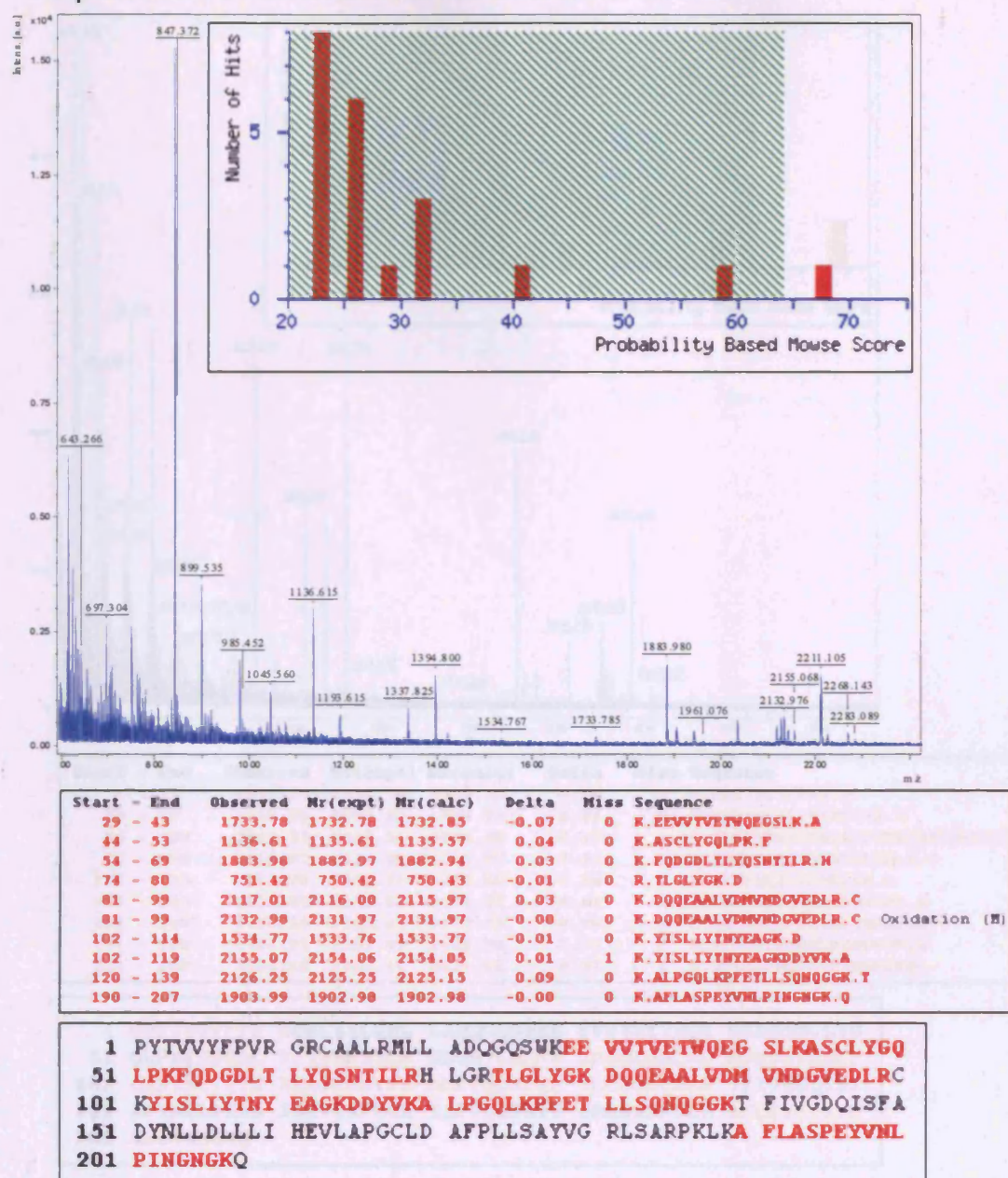


Start - End	Observed	Mr(expt)	Mr(calc)	Delta	Miss Sequence
41 - 59	1707.84	1706.84	1706.76	0.07	0 K.GSLGGGFSSGGFSGGSFSR.G
60 - 86	2342.99	2341.98	2341.98	0.01	0 R.GSSGGGCFGGSSGGYGGGCGGSFR.G
166 - 177	1381.69	1380.69	1380.64	0.05	0 R.ALEESNYELECK.I
178 - 184	995.59	994.58	994.51	0.07	1 K.IKEWYEK.N
208 - 228	2367.47	2366.46	2366.26	0.21	0 K.MQILMLTTDNANILLQIDNAR.L
236 - 245	1234.68	1233.67	1233.67	-0.00	1 R.LKYENEVALR.Q
323 - 333	1365.73	1364.72	1364.63	0.09	0 R.SQYEQLAEQNR.K
323 - 334	1493.75	1492.74	1492.73	0.02	1 R.SQYEQLAEQNRK.D
371 - 386	1797.00	1796.00	1796.00	-0.01	0 R.NVQALEIELQSQLALK.Q
387 - 399	1390.78	1389.77	1389.67	0.10	0 K.QSLEASLAETGR.Y
423 - 439	2082.94	2081.93	2081.96	-0.03	0 R.AETECQNTYQQLLDIK.I
440 - 450	1434.73	1433.72	1433.76	-0.04	1 K.IRLENEIQTYR.S
442 - 450	1165.61	1164.60	1164.58	0.02	0 R.LENEIQTYR.S

1	MSVRYSSSKH	YSSSRSGGGG	GGGGCGGGGG	VSSLRISSSK	GSLGGGFSSG
51	GFSGGSFSRG	SSGGGCFGGG	SGGYGGLGGF	GGGSFRGSYG	SSSFGGSYGG
101	SFSGGSFSGG	SFSGGSFSGG	GFSGGGFSGG	FGGGFGGDGG	LLSGNEKVTH
151	QNLNDRLAS	LDKVRALLES	NYELEGGIKE	WYEKHGNSHQ	GEPRDYSKYY
201	KTIDDLKNQI	LMLTTDNANI	LLQIDNARLA	ADDFRLKYEN	EVALLRQSVFA
251	DINGLRRVLD	ELTLTKADLE	MQIESLTEEL	AYLKKNHHEE	MKDLRNVSTG
301	DVNVEHNAAP	GVDLTQLLNN	MRSQYEQLAE	QNRKDAEAF	NEKSKELTTE
351	IDNNIEQISS	YKSEITELRR	NVQALEIELQ	SQLALKQSL	ASLAETEGRY
401	CVQLSQIAQ	ISALEEQQLQ	IRAETECQNT	EYQQLLDIKI	RLENEIQTYR
451	SLLEGESSG	GGGRGGGSG	GGYGGGSSG	GSSGGGYGG	HGGSSGGYG
501	GGSSGGGSSG	GGYGGGSSG	GHGGSSSGGY	GGSSGGGGG	GYGGSSGGG
551	SSSGGGYGG	SSSGGHKSS	SGSVGESSK	GPRY	

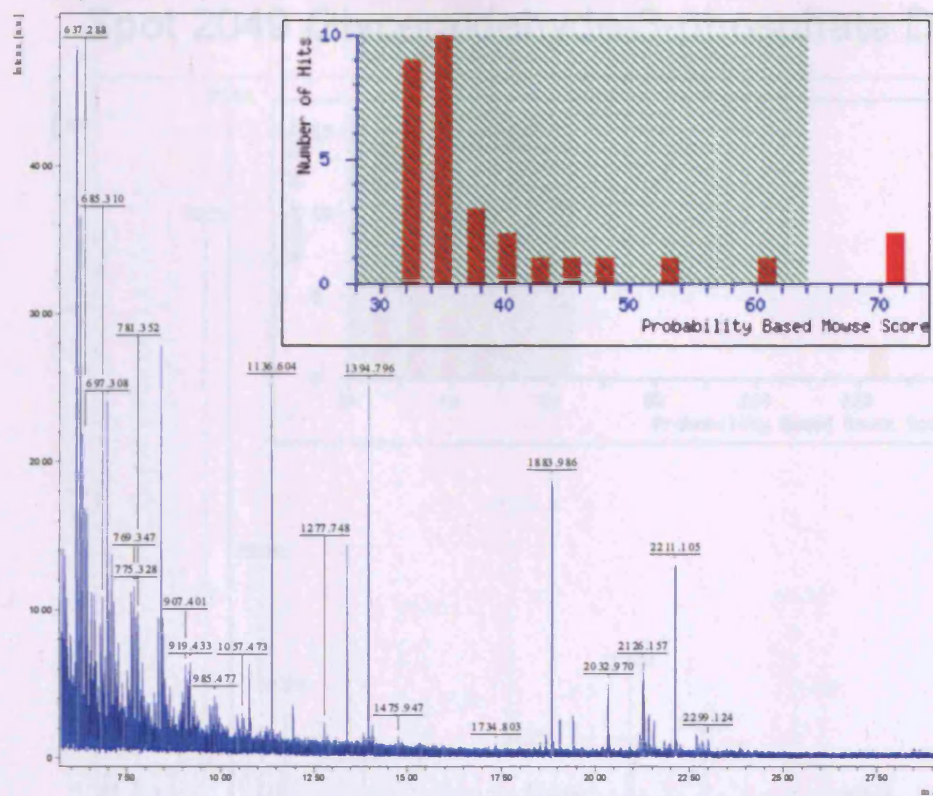


## Spot 2276 Glutathione S-transferase $\pi$





## Spot 2253 Glutathione S-transferase $\pi$

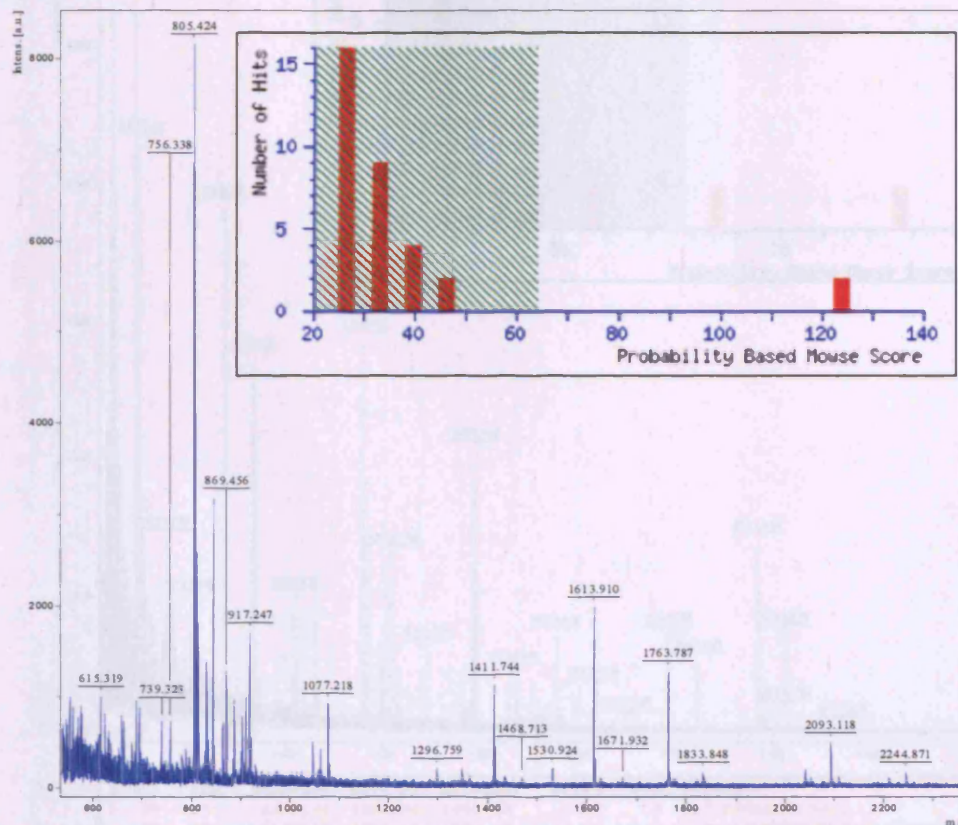


Start - End	Observed	Mr(expt)	Mr(calc)	Delta	Miss	Sequence
1 - 11	1337.78	1336.78	1336.72	0.06	0	- .PPYTVVYFPVR.C
55 - 70	1883.99	1882.98	1882.94	0.04	0	K.FQDGDLYQSNTILR.H
75 - 100	2849.21	2848.21	2848.39	-0.18	1	R.TLGLYGKDQQAALVDMVNDGVEDLR.C
82 - 100	2117.07	2116.06	2115.97	0.09	0	K.DQQAALVDMVNDGVEDLR.C
101 - 115	1765.78	1764.78	1764.88	-0.10	1	R.CKYISLIYTYEAGK.D
103 - 120	2155.02	2154.01	2154.05	-0.04	1	K.YISLIYTYEAGKDDYVK.A
121 - 140	2126.16	2125.15	2125.15	-0.00	0	K.ALPGQLKPFETLLSQNGGK.Y
191 - 208	1904.01	1903.01	1902.98	0.02	0	K.AFLASPEYVNLPIGNGK.Q
191 - 209	2032.12	2031.11	2031.04	0.07	1	K.AFLASPEYVNLPIGNGKQ.-

1 PPYTVVYFPV RGRCAALRHL LADQQGSUKE EVVTVETUQE GSKASCLYG  
 51 QLPKFQDGDLYQSNTILR HLGRITLGLYG KDQQAALVD MVNDGVEDLR  
 101 CKYISLIYTN YEAGKDDYVK ALPGQLKPFETLLSQNGGK TFIVGDQISF  
 151 ADYNLLDLLL IHEVLAPGCL DAFPLLSAYV GRLSARPKLK AFLASPEYVN  
 201 LPINGNGKQ



## Spot 2049 Glyceraldehyde-3-phosphate DH

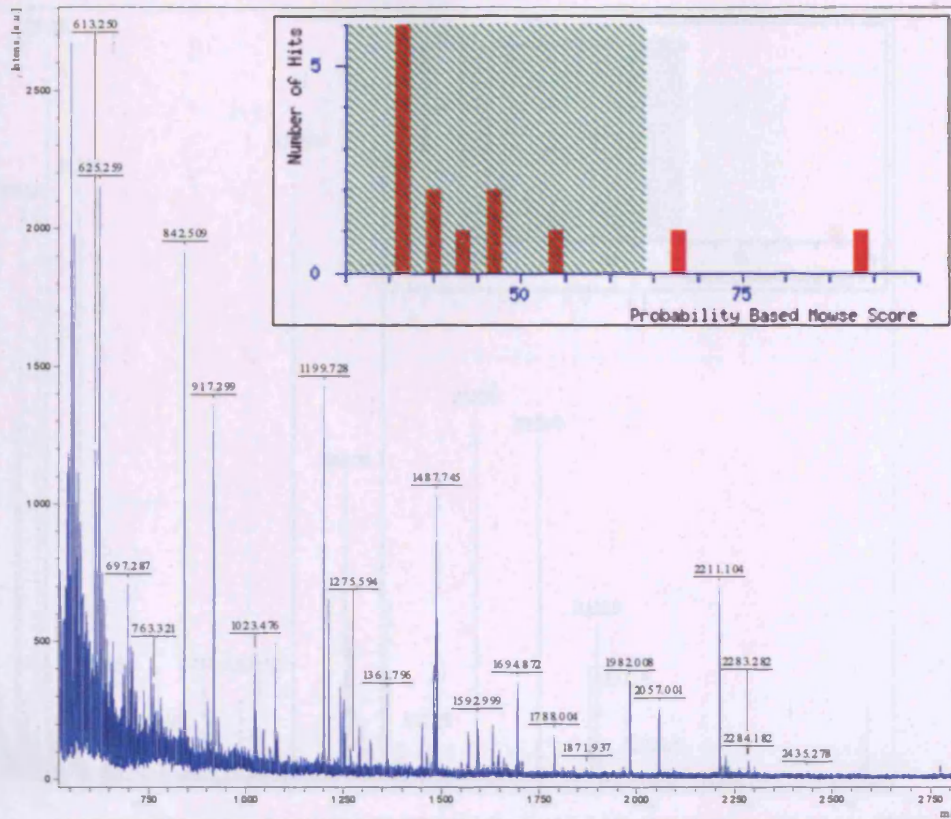


Start - End	Observed	Mr(expt)	Mr(calc)	Delta	Miss	Sequence
6 - 13	805.42	804.42	804.42	-0.01	0	K.VGVNGFGR.I
21 - 27	694.30	693.29	693.34	-0.05	0	R.AAFNSGK.V
56 - 61	688.32	687.31	687.37	-0.06	0	K.FHGTVK.A
67 - 80	1613.91	1612.90	1612.89	0.01	0	K.LVINGNPITIFQER.D
67 - 84	2041.11	2040.10	2040.10	-0.00	1	K.LVINGNPITIFQERDPSK.I
100 - 117	909.44	908.43	908.48	-0.05	0	K.AGALQGGAK.R
140 - 145	739.32	738.32	738.35	-0.04	0	K.YDNSLK.I
146 - 162	1833.85	1832.84	1832.91	-0.07	0	K.IISHASCTTNCLAPLAK.V
201 - 215	1411.74	1410.74	1410.78	-0.05	0	R.GALQNIIPASTGAAK.A
220 - 227	869.46	868.45	868.58	-0.05	0	K.VIPELNGK.L
228 - 234	811.38	810.38	810.41	-0.03	0	K.LTGMAFR.V Oxidation (M)
235 - 248	1530.92	1529.92	1529.79	0.13	0	R.VPTANVSVDLTCR.L
255 - 260	781.35	780.34	780.40	-0.06	1	K.YDDIKK.V
264 - 271	829.40	828.39	828.43	-0.04	0	K.QASEGPLK.G
310 - 323	1763.79	1762.78	1762.88	-0.02	0	K.LISWYDNEFGYSNR.V

1 MGKVKVGVNG FGRIGRLVTR AAFNSGKVDI VAINDPFIDL NYMVYMFQYD  
 51 STHGK**FHGT**V KAENGKLVIN GNPITIFQER **DPSK**IKWGDA GAELYVESTG  
 101 VFTTMEK**AGA** HLQGGAKRVI ISAPSADAPM FVMGVNHEKY **DNSLKIISNA**  
 151 **SCTTNCLAPL** AKVIHDNFGI VEGLMTTVHA ITATQKTVDG PSGKLURDGR  
 201 **GALQNIIPAS** TGAAKAVGKV IPELNGKL**TG** MAFRVPTANV **SVVDLTCRLE**  
 251 KPAKY**DDIKK** VVK**QASEG**PL KGILGYTEHQ VVSSDFNSDT HSSTFDAGAG  
 301 IALNDHFVKL **ISWYDNEFGY** SNRVVDLMAH MASKE



## Spot 1088 HSP-73

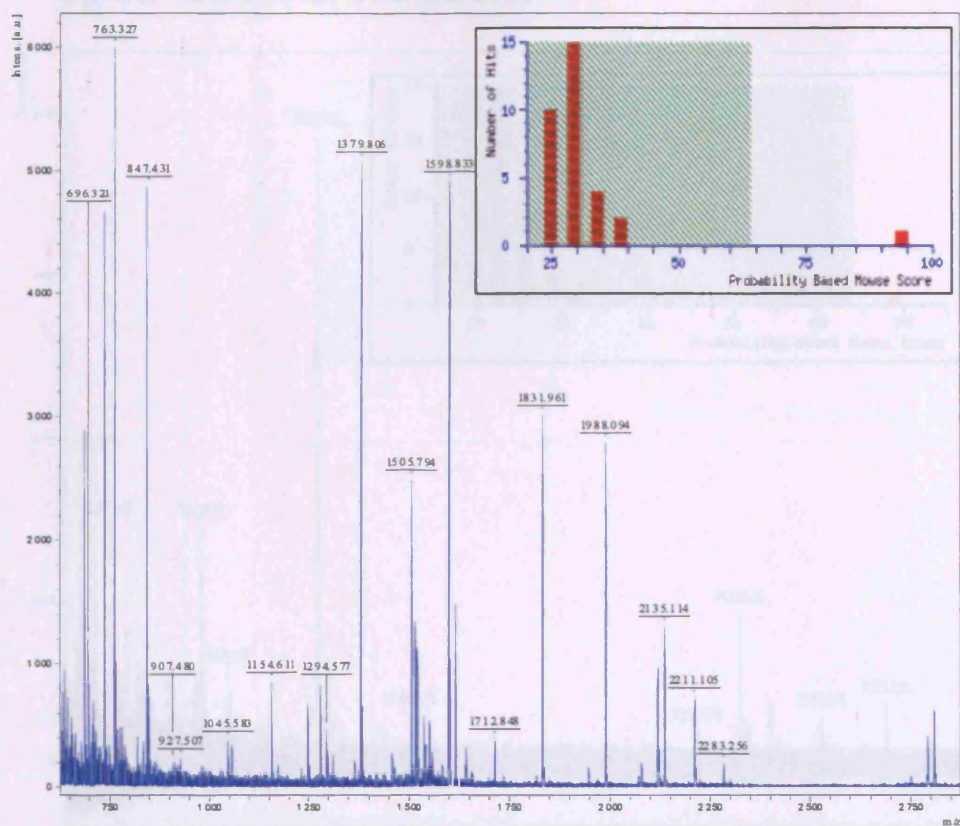


Start - End	Observed	Mr(expt)	Mr(calc)	Delta	Miss	Sequence
37 - 49	1487.74	1486.74	1486.69	0.04	0	R.TYPSYVAFTDTER.L
57 - 71	1663.76	1664.75	1664.78	-0.03	0	K.HQVAMNPTNTVPAK.R Oxidation (H)
113 - 126	1632.82	1631.82	1631.78	0.04	0	K.SFYXPEEVSSNVLTK.M Oxidation (H)
127 - 137	1268.68	1267.67	1267.65	0.02	1	K.NKKEIAEAYLQK.Y Oxidation (H)
138 - 155	1902.01	1901.00	1900.99	0.01	0	K.IVTHAVVTVPAYFMDSQ.R
160 - 171	1199.73	1198.72	1198.67	0.05	0	K.DAGTIAGLNVLR.I
172 - 187	1659.93	1658.92	1658.89	0.04	0	R.IINEPTAAAAYGLDK.K
172 - 188	1700.00	1707.00	1706.98	0.01	1	R.IINEPTAAAAYGLDK.V
221 - 236	1691.74	1690.74	1690.72	0.02	0	K.STAGDTHLGGEDFDNR.M
237 - 246	1251.66	1250.65	1250.61	0.04	0	R.HVNHPIAEFK.R Oxidation (H)
252 - 257	705.35	704.34	704.33	0.01	0	K.DISEMK.R
263 - 271	835.39	834.38	834.40	-0.02	1	R.TACERAK.R
300 - 311	1480.79	1479.78	1479.75	0.04	1	R.ARFEELNADLFR.G
302 - 311	1253.67	1252.67	1252.61	0.06	0	R.FEELNADLFR.G
326 - 342	1838.06	1837.05	1837.01	0.04	1	K.LDKSQINDIVLVGGSYR.I
346 - 357	1450.77	1449.76	1449.80	-0.03	1	K.IQKLLQDFEYK.E
349 - 357	1081.55	1080.55	1080.56	-0.02	0	K.LLQDFEYK.E
362 - 384	2268.19	2259.18	2259.14	0.04	0	K.SINPDEAVAYGAAVQAAILSGDK.S
424 - 447	2774.56	2773.55	2773.32	0.23	0	K.QTQTFTTYSNHPGVLIQVYGER.A
494 - 508	763.32	762.31	762.39	-0.07	1	K.STHKEKK.I
540 - 550	1319.60	1318.59	1318.59	0.00	0	K.NSLESYAFHKK.A Oxidation (H)

1	NSKGPVAGID	LGTTYSYCVGV	FQHGKVEIIA	NDQGNRTTPS	YVAFTDTERL
51	IGDAARKQVA	NHPTINTVEDA	KRLIGRRFDD	AVVQSDNKHU	PFEVNDAGR
101	PKVQVEYKGE	TKSYYPEEVS	SNVLTHQGEI	AEAYLQKTVT	NAVVTVPAYF
151	MDSQRQATKD	AGTIAGLNVLR	RIINEPTAAA	IAYGLDKKVG	AERNVLFDL
201	GGGTDFVSI	LIEDGIFEVK	STAGDTHLGG	EDFDNRHVN	FIAEFKREHK
251	KDISEMKRAV	RLRYACERA	KRTLSSSTQA	SIEIDSLYEG	IDFYTSITPA
301	RFEELNADLFR	RGTLDPVEKA	LRAKLDKSK	INDIVLVGGS	TRIPKIQKLI
351	QDFEYKELN	KSINPDEAVA	YGAAVQAAIL	SGDKSENVQD	LLLLDVTPLS
401	LGIEITAGGVH	TVLIKRNNTI	PTKQTQTFTT	YSDNHPGVLI	QVYGERANT
451	KDNLLKQYE	LTGIPPAPRG	VPOIEVTFDI	DANGILNVSA	VDKSTGKERK
501	ITITNDKGR	SKEDIERHVQ	EAEKYKAED	KQDKVSSKN	SLESYAFHKK
551	ATVEDEKLQ	KINDEKQKI	LDKCNELIN	LDKQNTAEKE	EFEHQQKELE
601	KVCNPIITKL	YQSAGGHPGG	NPGGFPGGGA	PPSGGASSGP	TIEEVD



## Spot 2482 Peptidyl-prolyl cis-trans isomerase A

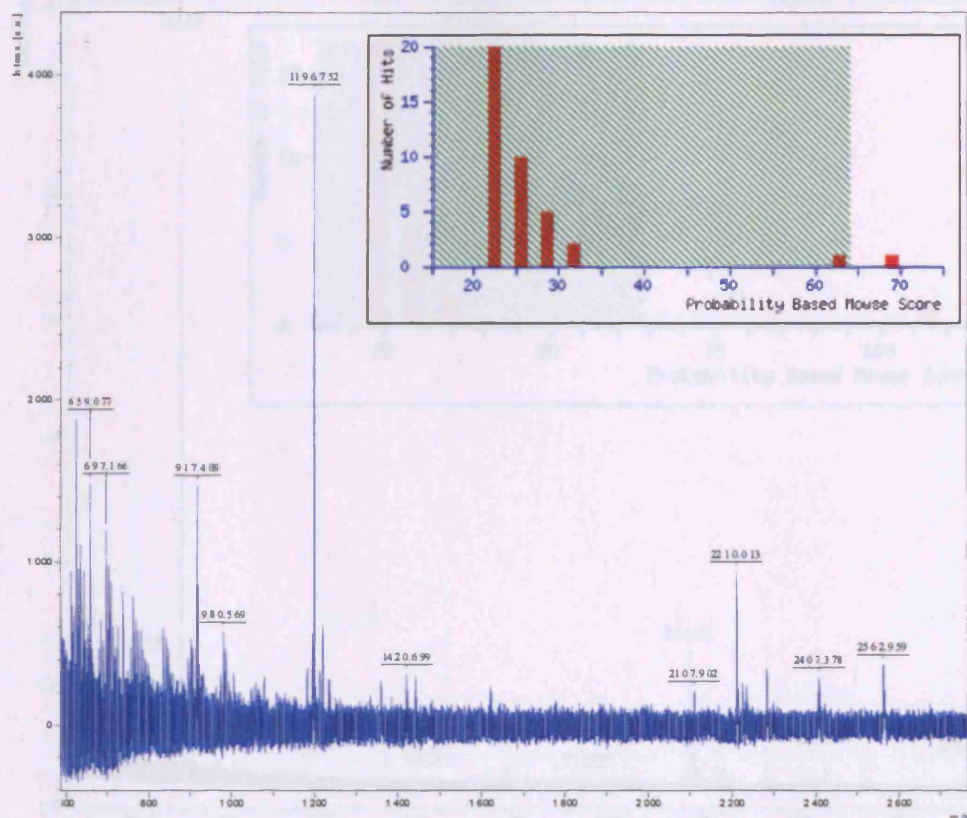


Start - End	Observed	Mr(expt)	Mr(calc)	Delta	Miss	Sequence
1 - 10	1946.06	1945.05	1944.99	0.06	0	- VNPTVFFDIAVDGEPLGR.V
19 - 30	1379.81	1378.80	1378.75	0.05	1	R.VSFELFADKVPK.Y
31 - 36	737.34	736.33	736.35	-0.02	0	K.TAENFR.A
49 - 54	763.33	762.32	762.32	-0.00	0	K.GSCFHR.I
55 - 68	1614.82	1613.81	1613.73	0.08	0	R.IIPGFMCGGDFTR.N Oxidation (M)
76 - 90	1831.96	1830.95	1830.98	0.05	1	K.SIYGKPFEDENFILK.N
82 - 90	1154.61	1153.60	1153.57	0.04	0	K.FEDENFILK.N
118 - 130	1515.84	1514.83	1514.79	0.04	1	K.TENLDGKQVVFCK.V
131 - 143	1505.79	1504.79	1504.74	0.05	1	K.VKEGNIIVEAMER.F
131 - 143	1521.76	1520.75	1520.73	0.02	1	K.VKEGNIIVEAMER.F Oxidation (M)
131 - 143	1537.74	1536.73	1536.73	0.00	1	K.VKEGNIIVEAMER.F 2 Oxidation (M)
133 - 143	1278.64	1277.63	1277.57	0.05	0	K.EGNIIVEAMER.F
133 - 143	1294.58	1293.57	1293.57	0.00	0	K.EGNIIVEAMER.F Oxidation (M)
133 - 143	1310.54	1309.54	1309.56	-0.03	0	K.EGNIIVEAMER.F 2 Oxidation (M)
154 - 164	1247.64	1246.63	1246.62	0.01	1	K.KITLADCGQLE.-

1 VNPTVFFDIA VDGEPLGRVS FELFADKVPK TAENFRALST GEKGFYKGS  
 51 CFHRIIPGFM CQGGDFTRHN GTGGKSIYGE KPFEDENFILK HTGPGILSMA  
 101 NAGPNTNGSQ FFICTAKTEW LDGKQVVFCK VKEGNIIVEA MERFGSRNGK  
 151 TSKKITIADC GQLE



## Spot 1536 Peroxiredoxin 1

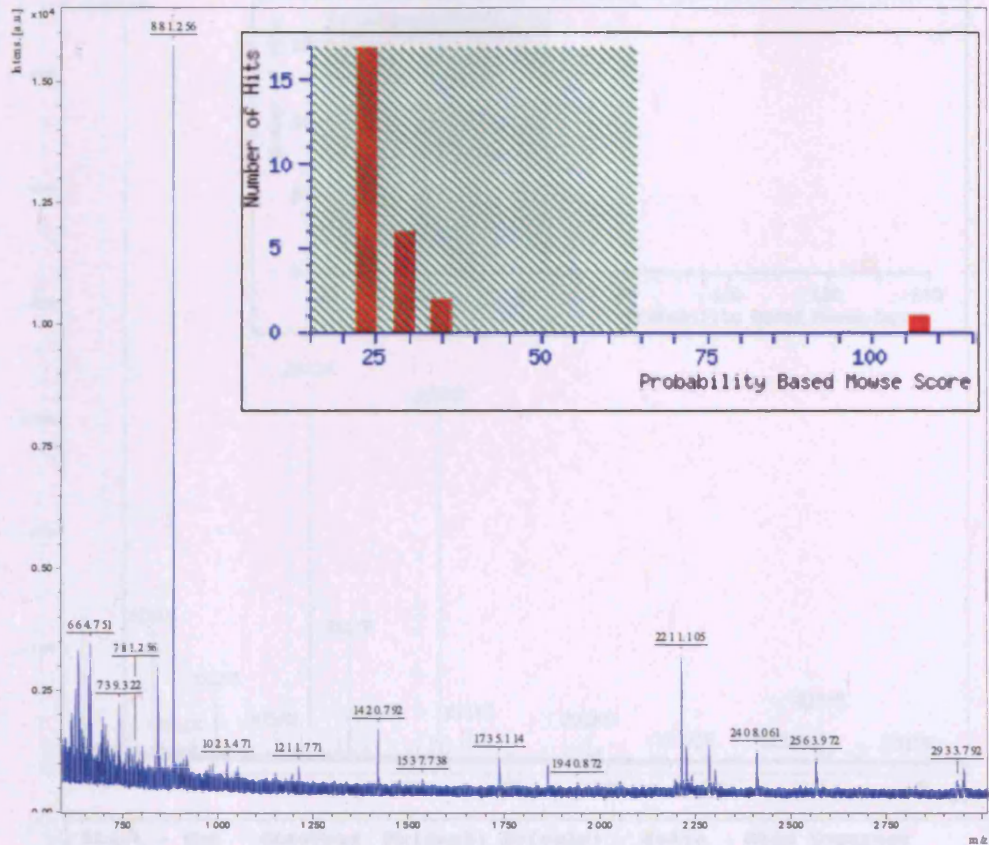


Start - End	Observed	Mr(expt)	Mr(calc)	Delta	Miss	Sequence
8 - 16	980.60	979.59	979.52	0.06	0	K.IGHAPNFK.A
121 - 128	894.47	893.47	893.42	0.04	0	K.ADEGISFR.G
129 - 136	920.48	919.47	919.50	-0.03	0	R.GLFIIDDK.G
129 - 140	1359.92	1358.92	1358.79	0.13	1	R.GLFIIDDKGILR.Q
152 - 158	819.36	818.35	818.41	-0.06	0	R.SVDETLR.L
152 - 168	1996.99	1995.99	1996.03	-0.04	1	R.SVDETLRLVQAFQFTDK.H
169 - 190	2407.38	2406.38	2406.16	0.21	0	K.NGEVCPAGWKPGSDTIKPDVQK.S

1 MSSGNAK**IGH PAPNFK**ATAV MPDGQFKDIS LSDYKGKYVV FFFYPLDFTF  
 51 VCPTEIIAFS DRAEEFKKLN CQVIGASVDS HFCHLAUVNT PKKQGGLGPM  
 101 NIPLVSDPKR TIAQDYGVLK **ADEGISFRGL FIIDDKGILR** QITVNDLPVG  
 151 **RSVDETLRLV QAFQFTDKHG** EVCPAGWKPG **SDTIKPDVQK** SKEYFSKQK



Spot 1603 Peroxiredoxin 2

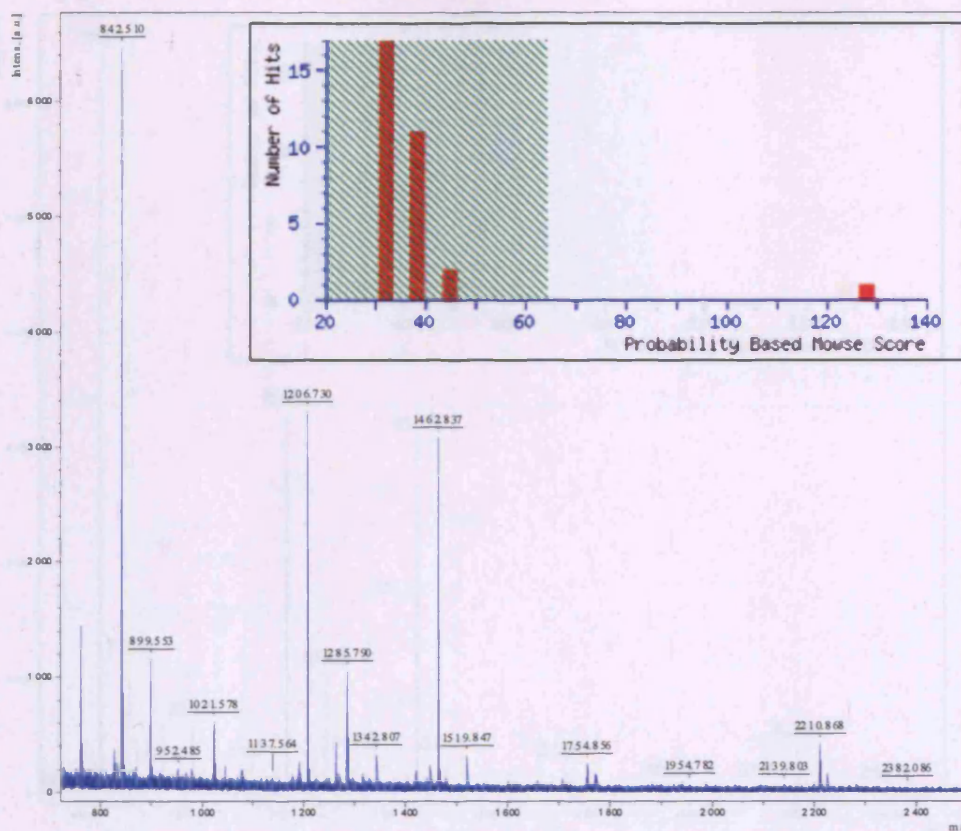


Start - End	Observed	Mr(expt)	Mr(calc)	Delta	Miss	Sequence
1 - 7	706.30	705.29	705.32	-0.03	0	- .MASGNAR.I
8 - 16	972.64	971.63	971.54	0.09	0	R.IGKPAPDFK.A
17 - 26	978.55	977.54	977.52	0.02	0	K.ATAVVDGAFK.E
17 - 29	1334.75	1333.74	1333.72	0.01	1	K.ATAVVDGAFKEVK.L
110 - 119	1179.74	1178.73	1178.63	0.10	1	R.RLSEGYGLK.T
111 - 119	1023.47	1022.46	1022.53	-0.06	0	R.LSEGYGLK.T
120 - 127	924.49	923.48	923.43	0.04	0	K.TDEGIAYR.G
128 - 135	862.42	861.41	861.50	-0.08	0	R.GLFIIDGK.G
140 - 150	1211.77	1210.76	1210.67	0.10	0	R.QITVNDLPVGR.S

1 MASGNARIGK PAPDFKATAV VDGAFKEVKL SDYKGRYVVL FFYPLDFTFV  
51 CPTETIAFSN RAEDFRKLGC EVLGVSVD SQ FNHLAWINTP RKEGGLGPLN  
101 IPLLGDVTRR LSEGYGLKT DEGIAYRGLF IIDGKGVL RQ ITVNDLPVGR  
151 SVDEALRLVQ AFQYTDHGE VCPAGWKPGS DTIKPNVDDS KEYFSKHN



## Spot 2274 Peroxiredoxin 3

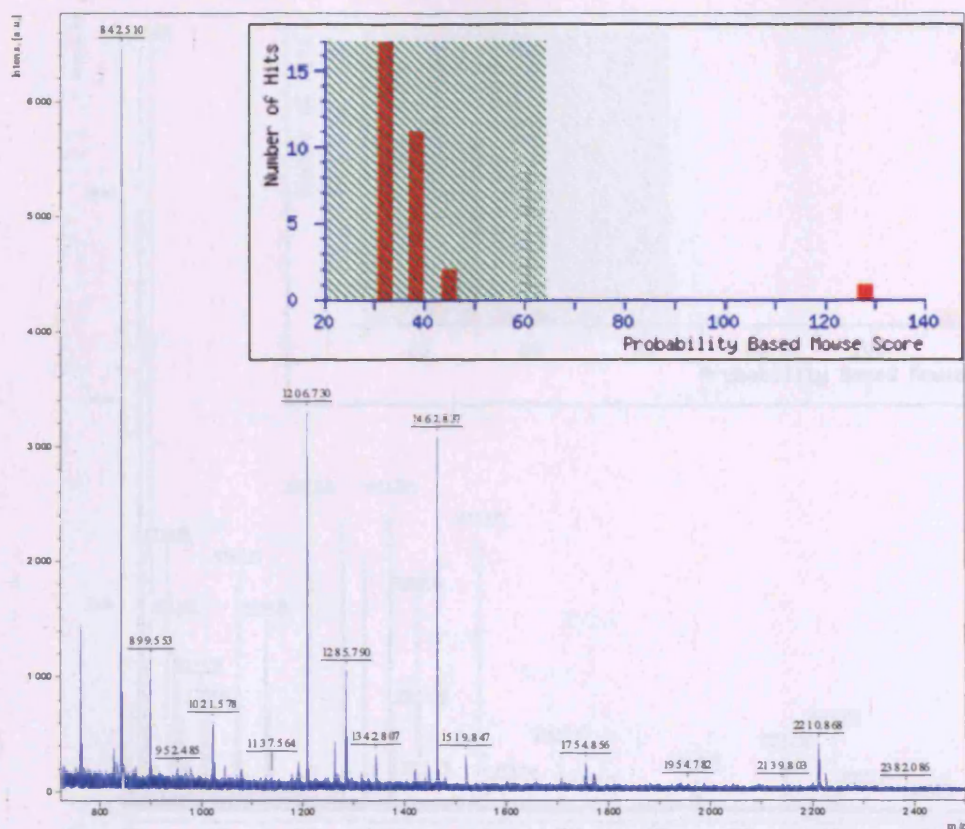


Start - End	Observed	Mr(expt)	Mr(calc)	Delta	Miss	Sequence
1 - 7	706.30	705.29	705.32	-0.03	0	-MASGNAR.I
8 - 16	972.64	971.63	971.54	0.09	0	R.ICKPAPDFK.A
17 - 26	978.55	977.54	977.52	0.02	0	K.ATAVVDGAFK.E
17 - 29	1334.75	1333.74	1333.72	0.01	1	K.ATAVVDGAFKEVK.L
110 - 119	1179.74	1178.73	1178.63	0.10	1	R.RLSEYGVLK.T
111 - 119	1023.47	1022.46	1022.53	-0.06	0	R.RLSEYGVLK.T
120 - 127	924.49	923.48	923.43	0.04	0	K.IDEGIAYR.G
128 - 135	862.42	861.41	861.50	-0.08	0	R.GLPIIDGK.G
140 - 150	1211.77	1210.76	1210.67	0.10	0	R.QITVNDLPVGR.S

1 MASGNARIGK PAPDFKATAV VDGAFFKEVKL SDYKGYVVL FFYPLDFTFV  
 51 CPTETIAFSN RAEDFRKLGC EVLGVSVD SQ FNHLAWINTP RKEGGLGPLN  
 101 IPLLGDVTRR LSEYGVLT DEGIAYRGLP IIDGKGVLRQ ITVNDLPVGR  
 151 SVDEALRLVQ AFQYTDHGE VCPAGWKPGS DTIKPNVDDS KEYFSKHN



## Spot 2510 Peroxiredoxin 5



Start - End	Observed	Mr(expt)	Mr(calc)	Delta	Miss Sequence
1 - 10	1057.55	1056.54	1056.62	-0.08	1 - MAAVGRLLR.A
74 - 83	1021.58	1020.57	1020.52	0.05	0 K.GTAVVNGEFK.D
74 - 91	1954.78	1953.77	1953.97	-0.19	1 K.GTAVVNGEFKDLSDDFK.G
84 - 91	952.49	951.48	951.45	0.02	0 K.DLSLDDFK.G
84 - 93	1137.56	1136.56	1136.57	-0.01	1 K.DLSLDDFKGK.Y
150 - 166	1753.84	1752.83	1752.92	-0.09	0 K.NGGLGHNNIALSDLYK.Q
150 - 166	1769.93	1768.92	1768.91	0.01	0 K.NGGLGHNNIALSDLYK.Q Oxidation (H)
171 - 184	1462.84	1461.83	1461.78	0.05	0 R.DYGVLLGSGGLALR.G
185 - 196	1285.79	1284.78	1284.74	0.04	0 R.GLFIIDPNCVIK.H
197 - 207	1206.73	1205.72	1205.65	0.07	0 K.NLSVNDLPVGR.S
208 - 214	833.43	832.43	832.43	-0.00	0 R.SVEETLR.L
249 - 253	714.32	713.31	713.34	-0.02	0 K.EYFQK.V

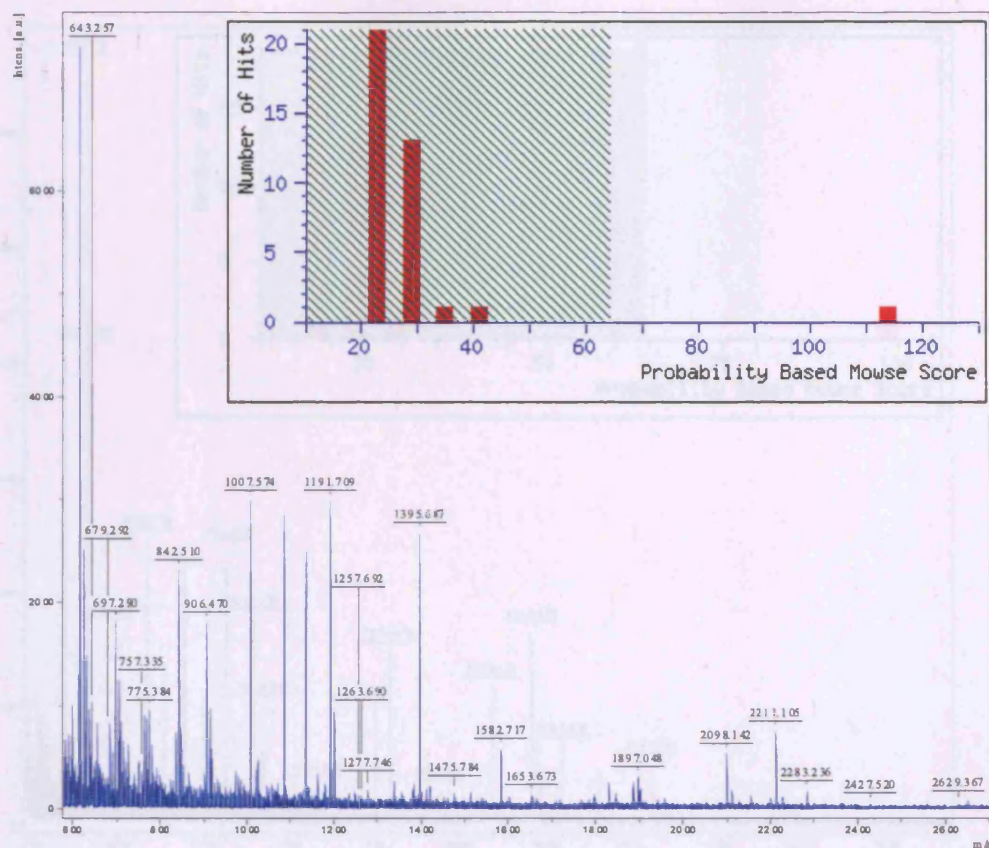
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1 MAAVGRLLR ASVARHVSAT PWGISATAAL RPAACGRSL TNLCSGSSQ
51 AKLFSTSSSC HAPAVTQHAP YFKGTAVVNG EFKDLSLDDE KGKYLVLFFY
101 PLDFTFVCPT EIVAFSDKAN EFHDVNCEVV AVSVDSHFSH LAWINTPRKN
151 GGLGHNNIAL LSDLYKQISR DYGVLLGSG LALRGLFIID PNGVIKHLVS
201 NDLPVGRSVE ETLRLVKAFQ YVETHGEVCP ANWTPDSPTI KPSPAASKEY
251 FQKVNQ

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## Spot 2195 Peroxiredoxin 6

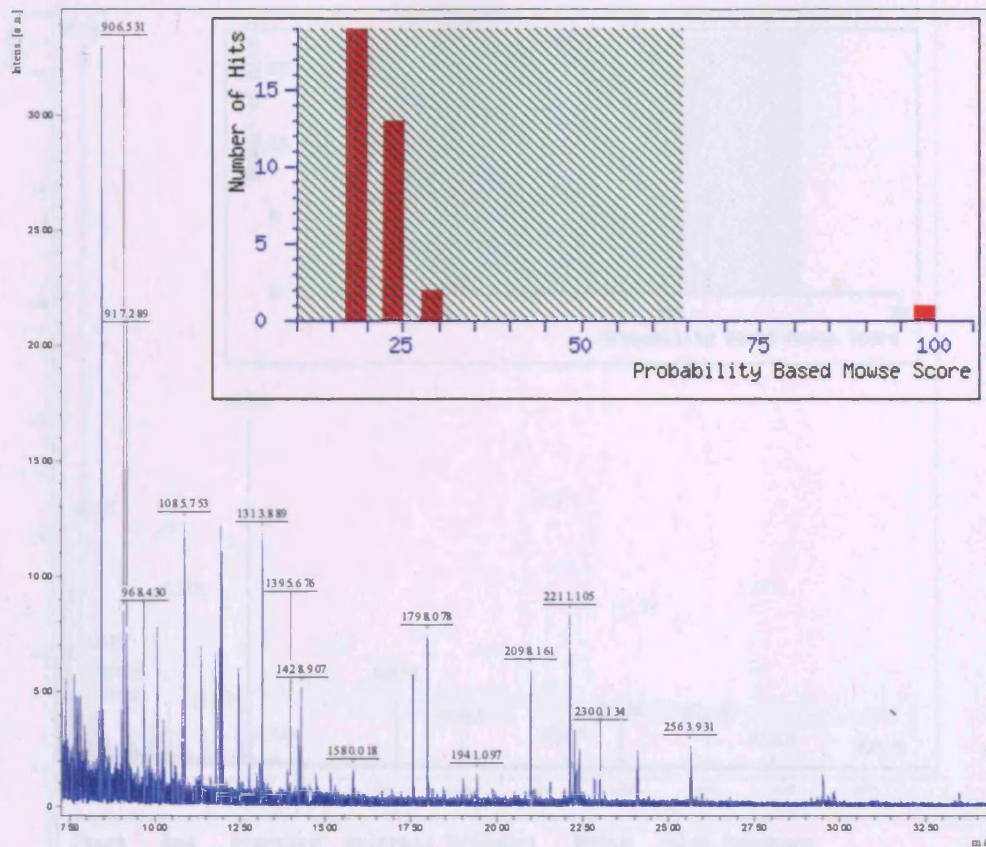


Start - End	Observed	Mr(expt)	Mr(calc)	Delta	Miss	Sequence
1 - 21	2099.14	2097.14	2097.09	0.05	0	PGGLLLGDVA PNFEANTTVGR.I
41 - 52	1395.69	1394.60	1394.65	0.03	0	R.DFTPVCTTELGR.A
53 - 62	1045.58	1044.50	1044.60	-0.02	1	R.AAKLAPEFAK.R
67 - 83	1097.05	1096.04	1096.00	0.04	0	K.LIALSIDSVEDHLAWSK.D
84 - 96	1582.72	1581.71	1581.66	0.05	0	K.DINAYNCEETEK.L
97 - 105	1085.61	1084.61	1084.59	0.02	0	K.LPFFITDDR.H
108 - 121	1512.82	1511.82	1511.83	-0.01	0	R.ELAILLQMLDPAEK.D
108 - 124	1885.01	1884.00	1883.99	0.01	1	R.ELAILLQMLDPAEKDEK.G
108 - 124	1900.93	1899.92	1899.99	-0.07	1	R.ELAILLQMLDPAEKDEK.G Oxidation [M]
132 - 148	1007.57	1006.57	1006.55	0.02	0	R.VVVFVGPDK.K
132 - 141	1135.68	1134.67	1134.64	0.03	1	R.VVVFVGPDK.L
144 - 154	1191.71	1190.70	1190.67	0.04	0	K.LSILYPTATGR.H
155 - 161	906.47	905.46	905.46	0.00	0	R.NFEILR.V
162 - 172	1200.75	1199.75	1199.71	0.03	0	R.VVISLQLTAEK.R
162 - 173	1356.80	1355.79	1355.81	-0.02	1	R.VVISLQLTAEK.R.V
174 - 181	915.47	914.47	914.49	-0.02	0	R.VATPVWK.D
182 - 198	1829.90	1828.89	1828.88	0.01	0	K.DGDSVMVLPPIPEEAK.K
182 - 198	1845.84	1844.84	1844.87	-0.04	0	K.DGDSVMVLPPIPEEAK.K Oxidation [M]
182 - 198	1957.94	1956.93	1956.97	-0.04	1	K.DGDSVMVLPPIPEEAK.L

**1** PGGLLLGDVA PNFEANTTVG RIRFHDFLGD SWGILFSHPR DFTPVCTTEL  
**51** GRAAKLAPEF AKRNVKLIAL SIDSVEDHLA WSKDINAYNC EEPTEKLPFP  
**101** IIDDRNRELA ILLGMLDPAE KDEKGMPTVA RVVFVFGPDK KLKLSILYPA  
**151** TIGRNFDEIL RVVISLQLTA EKRVATPVDW KDGD SVMVLP TIPEEEAKKL  
**201** FPKGVTTELK PSGKKYLRYT PQP



## Spot 2228 Peroxiredoxin 6

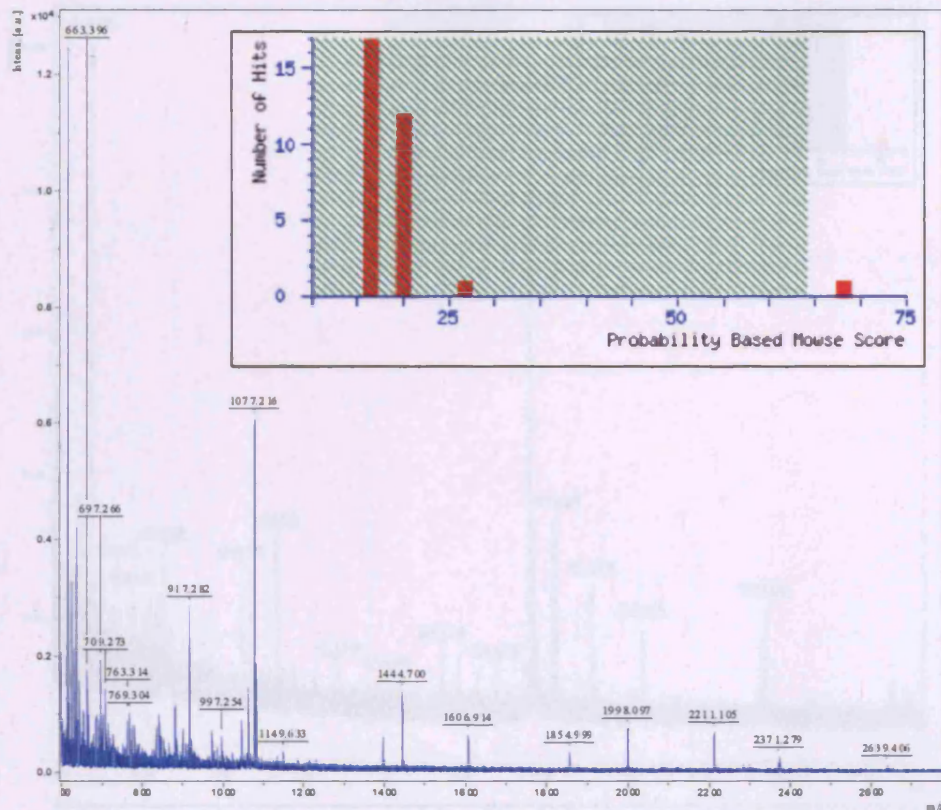


Start - End	Observed	Mr(expt)	Mr(calc)	Delta	Miss Sequence
1 - 21	2098.16	2097.15	2097.89	0.07	0 -.PGGLLLGDVAPNFEANTTVGR.I
22 - 40	2300.13	2299.13	2299.16	-0.04	1 R.IRFHDFLGDSWGILFSMPR.D
41 - 52	1395.68	1394.67	1394.65	0.02	0 R.DFTPVCTTELGR.A
41 - 55	1665.88	1664.88	1664.82	0.06	1 R.DFTPVCTTELGRAAK.L
67 - 83	1897.04	1896.03	1896.00	0.03	0 K.LIALSIDSVEDHLAWSK.D
106 - 121	1799.01	1798.00	1797.97	0.04	1 R.NRELAILLGMLDPAEK.D Oxidation (M)
108 - 121	1528.87	1527.86	1527.82	0.04	0 R.EIAILLGMLDPAEK.D Oxidation (M)
132 - 140	1007.61	1006.60	1006.55	0.05	0 R.VVTFVGPDK.K
162 - 172	1200.71	1199.70	1199.71	-0.01	0 R.VVISLQLTAEK.R
182 - 198	1845.87	1844.86	1844.87	-0.01	0 K.DGD SVMVLP TIPEEEAK.K Oxidation (M)

**1** PGGLLLGDVA PNFEANTTVG RIRFHDFLGD SWGILFSMPR DFTPVCTTEL  
**51** GRAAKLAPEF AKRNVKLIAL SIDSVEDHLA WSKDINAYNC EEPTEKLPPF  
**101** IIDDRNRELA ILLGMLDPAE KDEKGMPVTA RVVTFVGPDK KLKLSILYPA  
**151** TTGRNFDEIL RVVISLQLTA EKRVPATPVDW KDGD SVMVLP TIPEEEAKKL  
**201** FPKGVTTELK PSGKKYLYRT PQP



## Spot 2157 Prohibitin



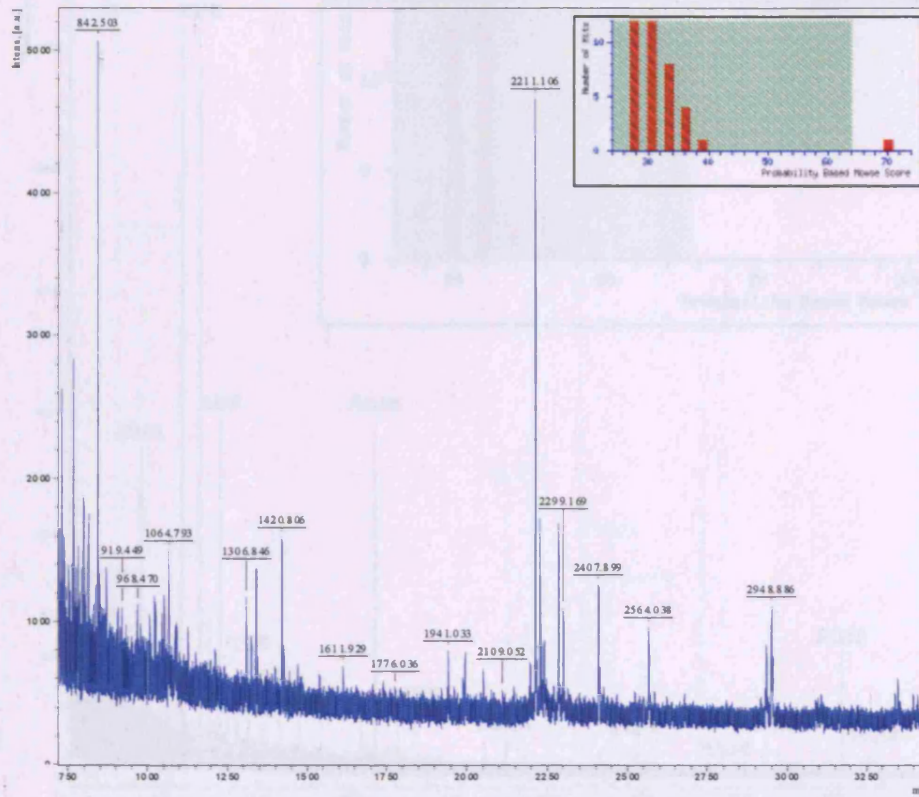
Start - End	Observed	Mr(expt)	Mr(calc)	Delta	Miss	Sequence
12 - 35	2371.28	2370.27	2370.24	0.03	0	K.FGLALAVAGGVVNSALYNVDAGHR.A
94 - 105	1396.89	1395.89	1395.84	0.05	0	R.ILFRPVASQLPR.I
106 - 117	1444.70	1443.69	1443.65	0.04	0	R.IFTSIGEDYDER.V
106 - 128	2639.41	2638.40	2638.37	0.02	1	R.IFTSIGEDYDERVLPSTTEILK.S
134 - 143	1149.63	1148.63	1148.58	0.04	0	R.FDAGELITQR.E
220 - 239	1998.10	1997.09	1997.08	0.01	0	K.AELIANSLATAGDGLIELR.K
240 - 253	1606.91	1605.91	1605.84	0.07	1	R.KLEAAEDIAVQLSR.S
256 - 272	1855.00	1853.99	1854.03	-0.03	0	R.NITYLPAGQSVLLQLPQ.-

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1  MAAKVFESIG KFGALAVAG GVVNSALYNV DAGHRAVIFD RFRGVQDIVV
51 GEGTHFLIPW VQKPIIFDCR SRPRNVPVIT GSKDLQNVNI TLRILFRPVA
101 SQLPRIFTSI GEDYDERVLP SITTEILKSV VARFDAGELI TQRELVSQV
151 SDDLTERAAT FGLILDDVSL THLTFGKEFT EAVEAKQVAQ QEAEARARFVV
201 EKAEQQKKA IISAEGDSKA AELIANSLAT AGDGLIELRK LEAAEDIAVQ
251 LSRSPNITYL PAGQSVLLQL PQ
  
```



## Spot 1563 Proteasome $\beta$ 2 subunit



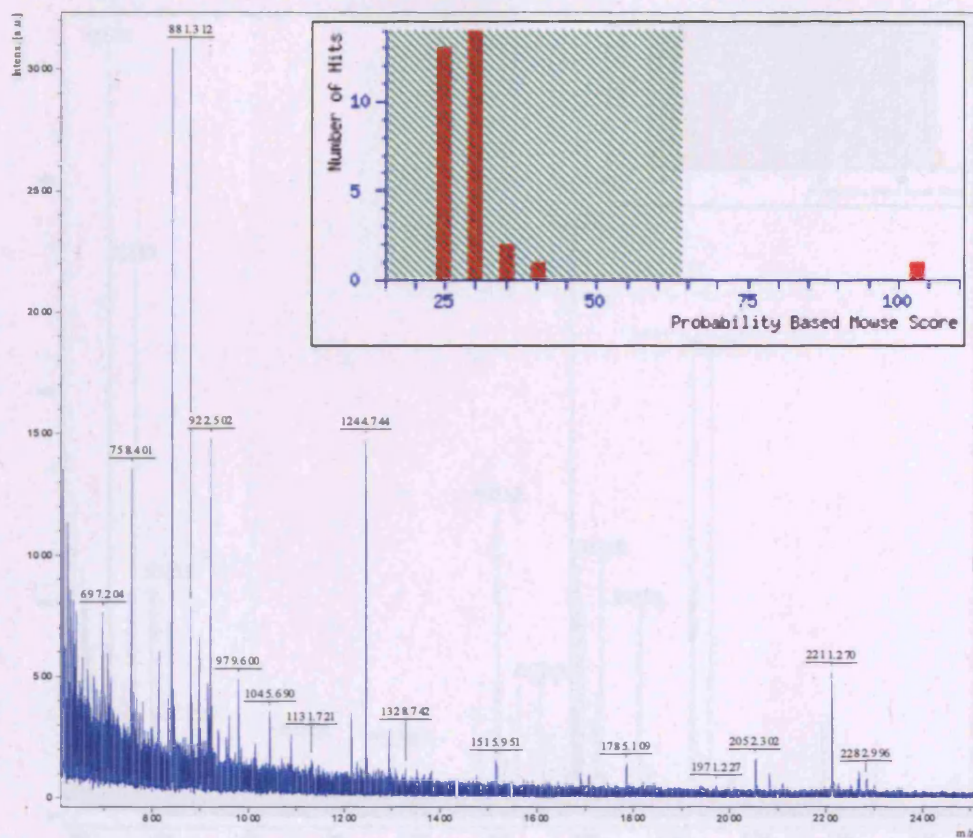
Start - End	Observed	Mr(expt)	Mr(calc)	Delta	Miss	Sequence	
1 - 19	2155.07	2154.06	2154.07	-0.01	0	-MEYLIQIQGPDYVLVASDR.V	Oxidation (N)
69 - 85	1898.81	1897.81	1897.91	-0.10	1	K.MRNGYELSPAAANFTR.R	
71 - 85	1611.93	1610.92	1610.77	0.15	0	R.NGYELSPAAANFTR.R	
146 - 153	1000.58	999.57	999.50	0.07	0	R.YYTPFISR.E	
154 - 161	985.50	984.49	984.57	-0.08	1	R.ERAVELLR.K	
163 - 169	919.45	918.44	918.45	-0.01	0	K.CLEELQK.R	
171 - 181	1306.85	1305.84	1305.74	0.09	0	R.FILNLPTFSVR.I	
171 - 185	1776.04	1775.03	1775.03	-0.01	1	R.FILNLPTFSVRIIDK.N	

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1 MEYLIQIQGP DYVLVASDRV AASNIVQMKD DHDKMFKMSE KILLLCVGEA
51 GDTVQFAEYI QKNVQLYKMR NGYELSPTAA ANFTRNLAD CLRSRTPYHV
101 NLLLAGYDEH EGPALYYMDY LAALAKAPFA AHGYGAFLTL SILDRYYTPT
151 ISRERAVELL RKCLEELQKR FILNLPTFSV RIIDKNGIHD LDNISFPKQG
201 S

```

## Spot 2271 RAN small GTPase particle receptor β



Start - End	Observed	Mr(expt)	Mr(calc)	Delta	Miss	Sequence
13 - 23	1015.58	1014.57	1014.57	0.00	0	K.LVLVGDGGTUK.Y
30 - 37	960.51	959.50	959.47	0.03	0	R.MLTGEFEK.K
38 - 38	1088.61	1087.60	1087.57	0.03	1	R.MLTGEFEK.Y
39 - 56	2052.30	2051.29	2051.10	0.20	0	K.YVATLQVEVNPVHTNR.G
57 - 71	1689.98	1688.98	1688.85	0.13	1	R.GPIKFNVDYTAGQE.F
77 - 95	2267.10	2266.09	2266.04	0.05	0	R.DGYIIQAQCAIDQDVTSR.V Oxidation (M)
100 - 106	922.50	921.49	921.46	0.04	0	K.VVPNWR.D
111 - 127	1971.23	1970.22	1970.03	0.19	1	R.VCENIPIVLCGNKVDIK.D
135 - 140	758.40	757.39	757.42	-0.03	0	K.SIVFNR.K
143 - 152	1214.70	1213.69	1213.60	0.09	0	K.MLQYYDISAK.S

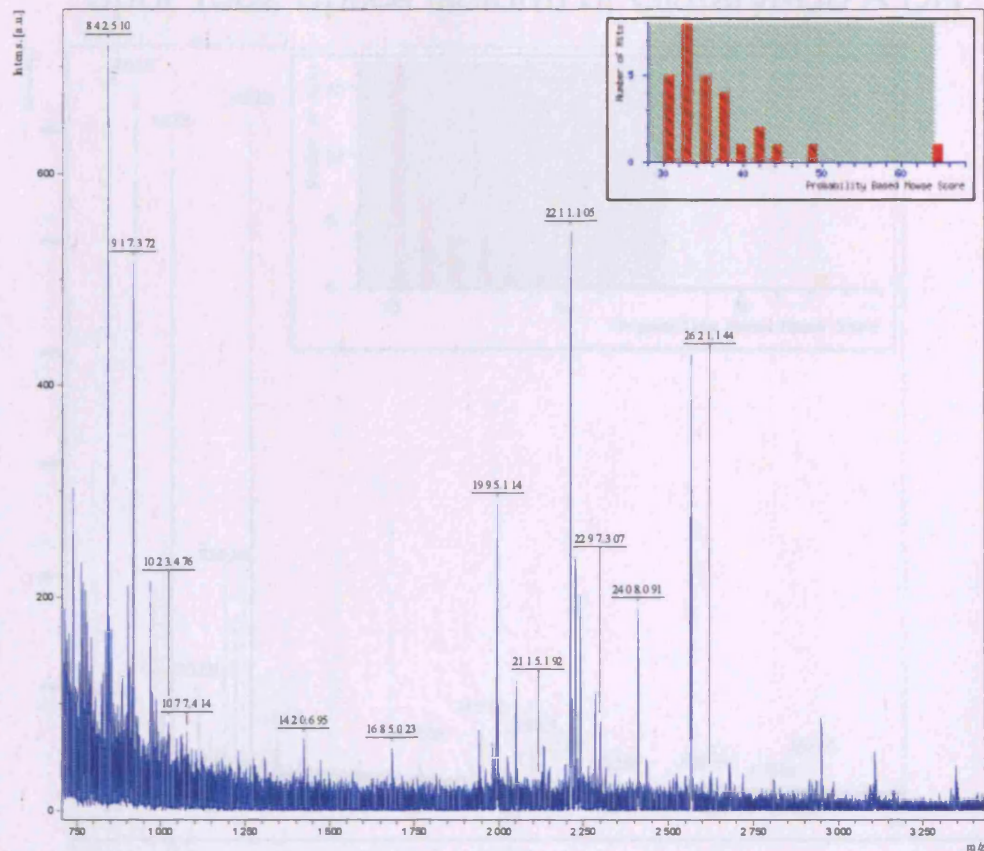
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1  MAAQGEPQVQ FKLVLVGDGG TKTTFVKRH LTGEFEKKYV ATLGVEVHPL
51 VFHTNRRPIK FNVWDTAGQE KFGGLRDGYI IQAQCAIMF DVTSRVTYKN
101 VPPNWRDLVR VCENIPIVLC GNKVDIKDRK VKAKSIVFNR KKNLQYYDIS
151 AKSNYNFEKP FLWLARKLIG DPNLEFVAMP ALAPPEVVM PALAAQYEHD
201 LEVAQTALP DEDDDL

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## Spot 2141 Signal recognition particle receptor $\beta$



Start - End	Observed	Mr(expt)	Mr(calc)	Delta	Mass Sequence	
0 - 27	2051.22	2050.21	2050.02	-0.19	1 R.RVADGGGAGGTYQPTDLTR.Q	
0 - 27	2051.16	2050.15	2050.02	-0.13	1 R.RVADGGGAGGTYQPTDLTR.Q	
84 - 98	835.49	834.48	834.50	-0.02	0 R.LLTGLYR.D	
151 - 170	2297.31	2296.30	2296.20	-0.10	1 R.EVKDVAEFLYQVLIDSNGLK.N	
151 - 170	2313.16	2312.15	2312.20	-0.05	1 R.EVKDVAEFLYQVLIDSNGLK.N	Oxidation (M)
154 - 170	1940.95	1939.95	1940.00	-0.05	0 K.DVAEFLYQVLIDSNGLK.N	
182 - 188	776.34	775.33	775.39	-0.06	0 K.QDIAMAK.S	
192 - 199	999.60	998.59	998.50	-0.02	0 K.LIQQLEK.E	
200 - 205	745.42	744.41	744.41	0.00	0 K.ELNLR.V	
206 - 227	2145.25	2144.24	2144.11	-0.13	1 R.VYRSAAPSTLDSSTAPAQLGK.K	
206 - 227	2144.96	2143.96	2144.11	-0.15	1 R.VYRSAAPSTLDSSTAPAQLGK.K	

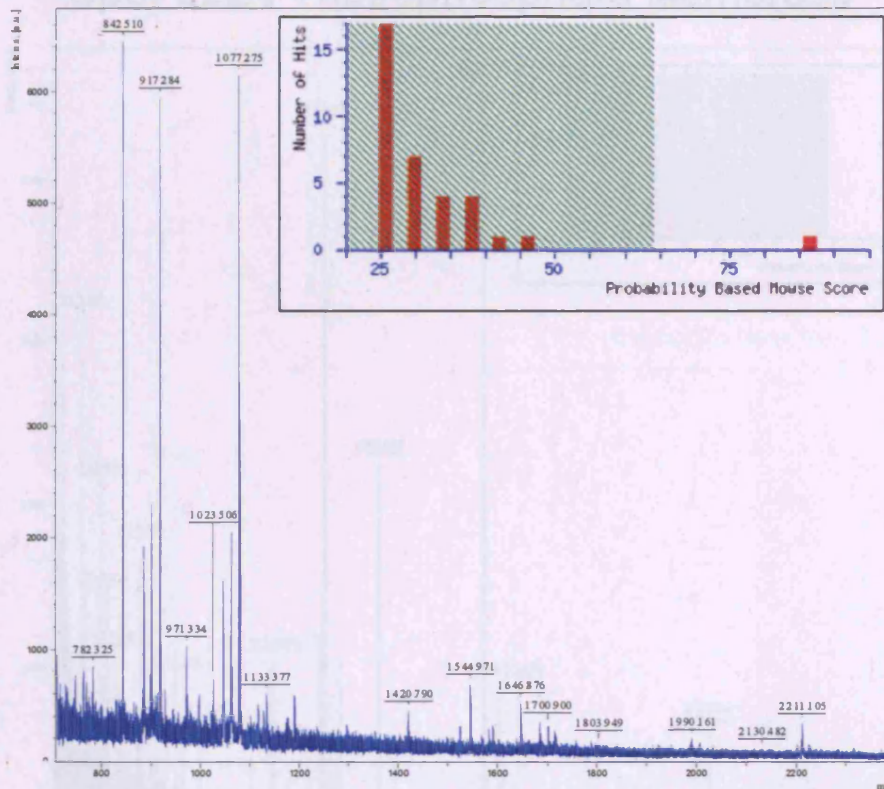
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1 MASADSRVA DGGGAGGTFQ PYLDTLRQEL QQDPTLLSV VVAVLAVLLT
51 LVFWKLIRSR RSSQRAVLLV GLCDSGKTL FVRLLTGLYR DTQTSITDSC
101 AVYRVNNNRG NSLTLLDLPG HESLRQLFLE RFKSSARATV FVVDAAAFQR
151 EVKDVAEFLY QVLIDSNGLK NTPSFLIACN KQDIAMAKSA KLIQQQLEKE
201 LNTLRVYRSA APSTLDSST APAQLGKKGK EFESQLPLK VEFLECSAKG
251 GRGDVGSADI QDLEKULAKI A

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## Spot 1302 Splice isoform of Glutaryl-Co A DH



Start - End	Observed	Mr(expt)	Mr(calc)	Delta	Miss Sequence
1 - 9	988.56	987.55	987.56	-0.01	1 - MALRGVSVR.L
5 - 13	986.65	985.65	985.60	0.04	1 R.GVSVRLSR.G
79 - 88	1196.76	1195.75	1195.72	0.03	1 R.LMPRILLANR.N
79 - 88	1212.72	1211.71	1211.72	-0.01	1 R.LMPRILLANR.N Oxidation (M)
95 - 111	1802.04	1801.03	1800.95	0.08	0 R.EIISEMGEIGVLGPTIK.G Oxidation (M)
112 - 128	1700.90	1699.89	1699.84	0.06	0 K.GYGCAVSSVAYGLLAR.E
112 - 132	2227.97	2226.96	2227.11	-0.14	1 K.GYGCAVSSVAYGLLARELER.V
203 - 210	883.39	882.38	882.44	-0.06	0 K.SYTLNGTK.T
211 - 227	2007.09	2006.08	2006.01	0.07	0 K.TWITNSPMADLFVVAR.C
211 - 227	2023.06	2022.05	2022.00	0.05	0 K.TWITNSPMADLFVVAR.C Oxidation (M)
228 - 234	909.28	908.27	908.35	-0.08	0 R.CEDGCIR.G
235 - 243	1030.53	1049.53	1049.57	-0.04	1 R.GFLEKGR.G
235 - 243	1066.61	1065.60	1065.56	0.04	1 R.GFLEKGR.G Oxidation (M)
241 - 249	944.47	943.46	943.50	-0.04	1 K.GMRGLSAPRI
295 - 313	2108.18	2107.17	2107.03	0.14	0 R.YGIAWGLGASEFCLHAR.Q
329 - 335	871.56	870.55	870.53	0.02	1 R.NQLIQKK.L
336 - 355	2225.23	2224.23	2224.17	0.06	0 K.IADMLTEITLGLHACLQLGR.L

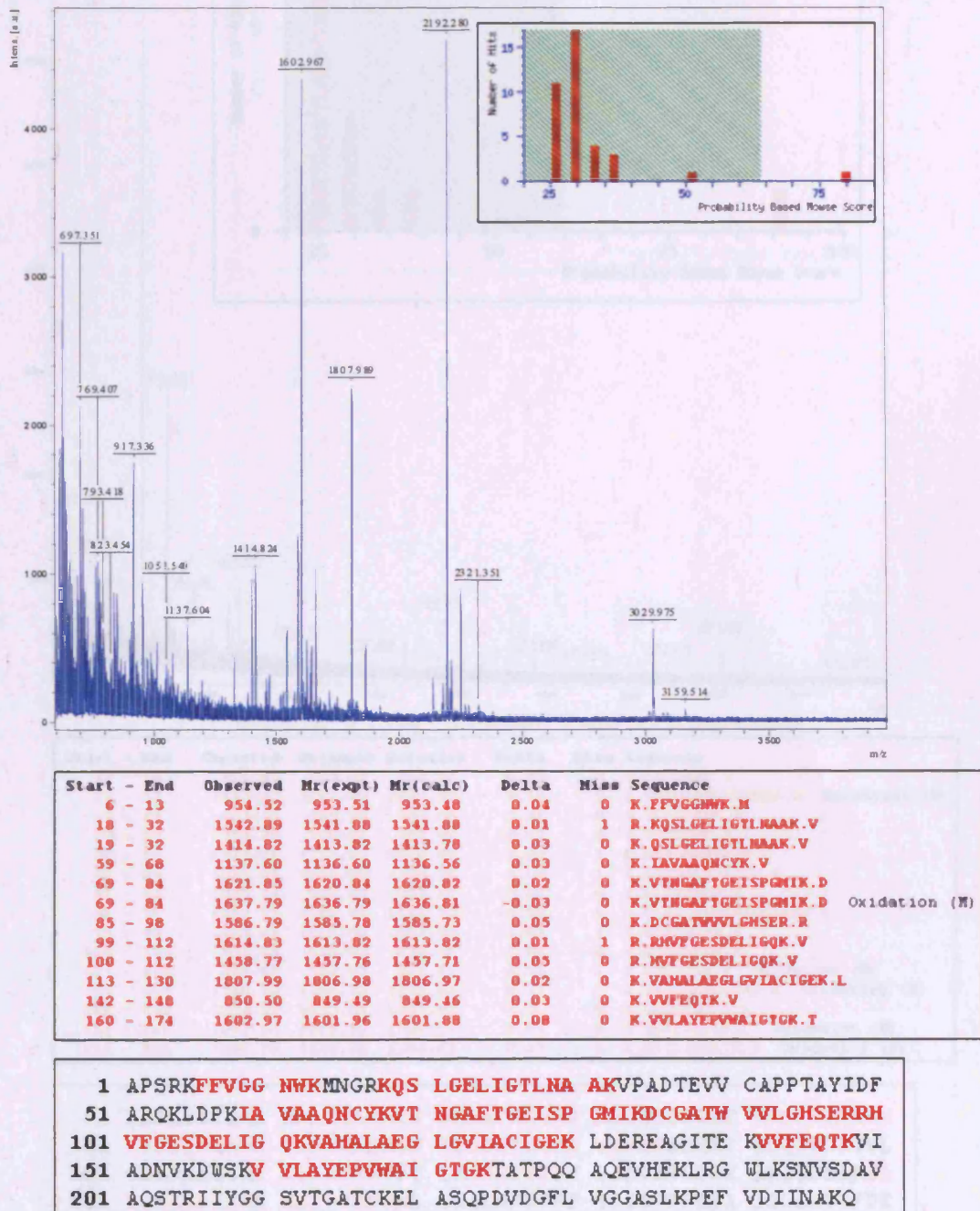
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1 MALRGVSVRL LSRGPGLHVL RTWVSSAAQT EKAGRTQSQL AKSSRPEFDW
51 QDPLVLEEQL TTDEILIRDT FRTYCQERLM PRILLANRNE VFHREIISEM
101 GELGVLGPTI KGYGCAGVSS VAYGLLAREL ERVDSGYRSA MSVQSSLVMH
151 PIYAYGSEEQ RQKYLPLAK GELLGCFGLT EPNSGSDPSS METRAHYNSS
201 NKSYYTLNGTK TWITNSPMAD LFVVARCED GCIRGFLEK GMRGLSAPRI
251 QGKFSLRASA TGMIIIMDGE VPEENVLPGA SSLGGPFGLC NNARYGIAWG
301 VLGASEFCLH TARQYALDRM QFGVPLARNQ LIQKKLADML TEITLGLHAC
351 LQLGRLLKDD KAAPEMVSLI KRNNCGKALD IARQARDMLG NGGISDEYHV
401 IRHAMNLEAV NTYEGTHDIH ALILGRAITG IQAFTASK

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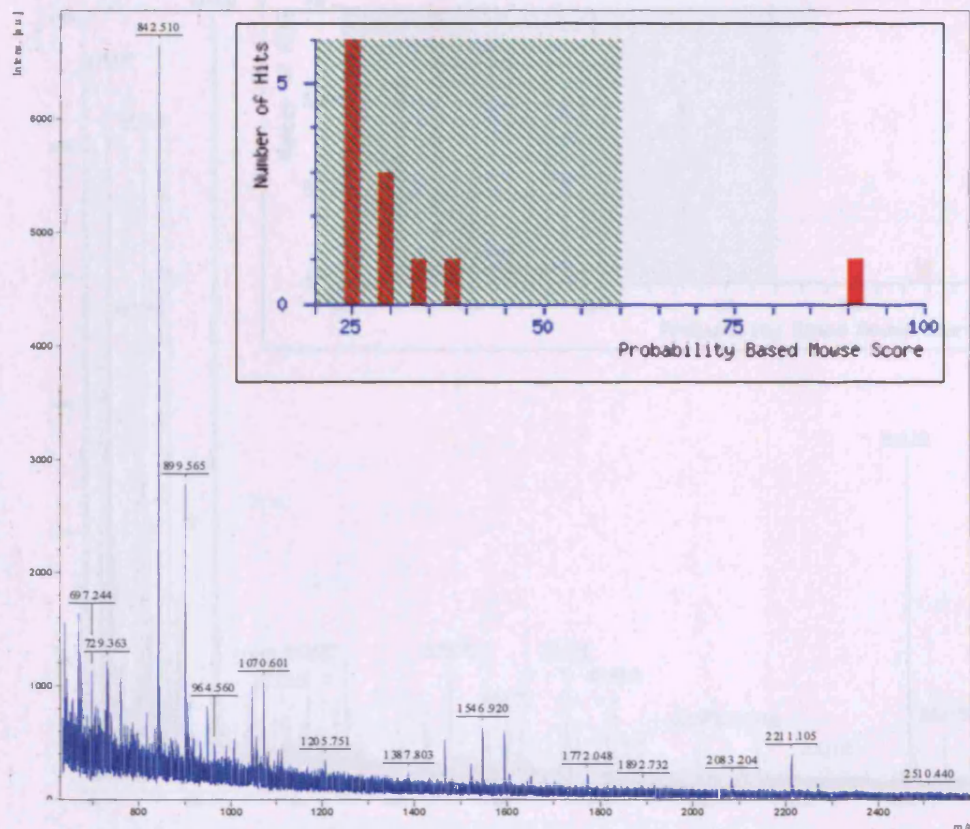


## Spot 2224 Triosephosphate isomerase





## Spot 2095 14-3-3 protein $\sigma$



Start - End	Observed	Mr(expt)	Mr(calc)	Delta	Miss	Sequence
12 - 18	816.45	815.45	815.41	0.03	0	K.LAEQAER.Y
19 - 32	1605.87	1604.86	1604.72	0.14	1	R.YEDMAAFMKGAVER.G Oxidation (M)
42 - 49	907.53	906.52	906.52	0.01	0	R.NLLSVAYK.N
50 - 56	729.36	728.36	728.39	-0.04	0	K.VVGGQR.A
50 - 60	1213.70	1212.69	1212.65	0.04	1	K.VVGGQRAWR.V
57 - 68	1387.80	1386.80	1386.76	0.03	1	R.AAWRVLSSIEQK.S
61 - 68	903.56	902.55	902.51	0.04	0	R.VLSSIEQK.S
61 - 77	1892.73	1891.72	1891.90	-0.18	1	R.VLSSIEQKSNEEGSEER.G
78 - 85	1005.49	1004.48	1004.50	-0.03	1	K.GPEVREYR.E
110 - 117	834.38	833.37	833.35	0.02	0	K.EAGDAESR.V
123 - 129	948.45	947.45	947.42	0.03	1	K.MKGDYR.Y Oxidation (M)
149 - 160	1386.78	1385.77	1385.65	0.13	1	R.SAYQAMDISKR.E Oxidation (M)
161 - 169	1054.59	1053.59	1053.53	0.06	0	K.EMPPTNPIR.L
161 - 169	1070.60	1069.59	1069.52	0.07	0	K.EMPPTNPIR.L Oxidation (M)
215 - 224	1205.75	1204.74	1204.65	0.10	0	K.DSTLIQLLR.D Oxidation (M)

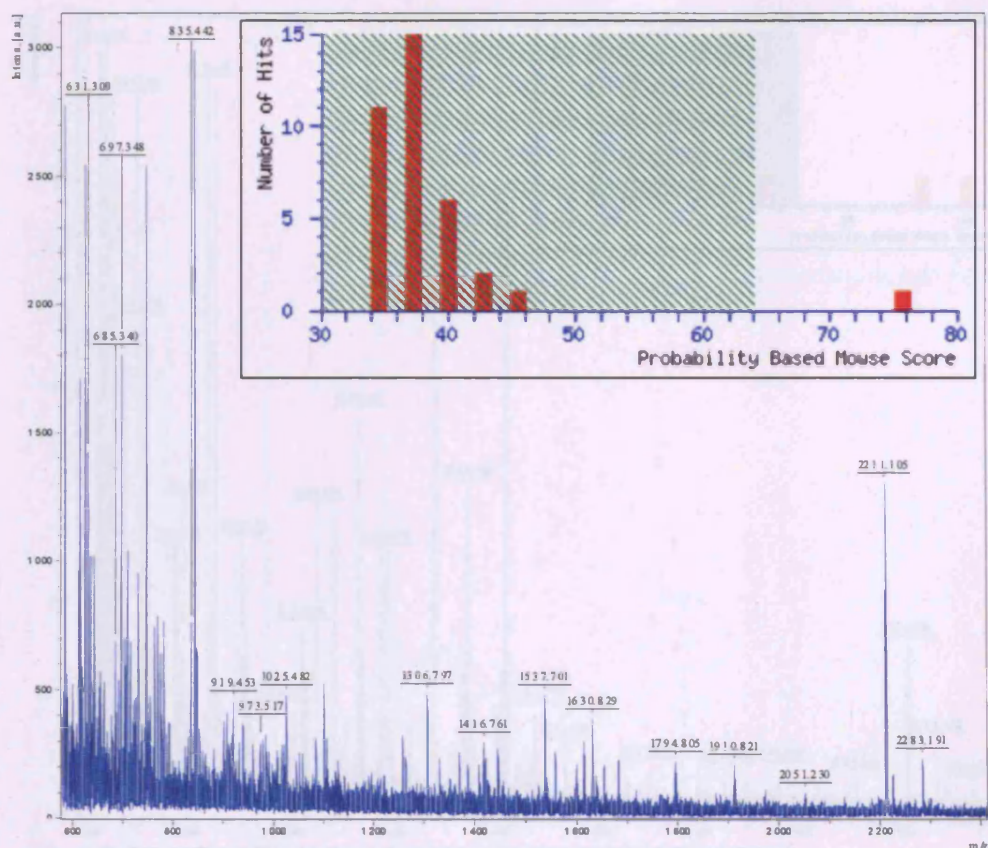
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1 MERASLIQKA KLAEQAERYE DMAAFMKGAV EKGEELSCEE RNLLSVAYKN
51 VVGGQRAAWR VLSSIEQKSN EEGSEEKGPE VREYREKVVET ELQGVCDTVL
101 GLLDSHLIKE AGDAESRVFY LMKGDYRY LAEVATGDDK KRIIDSARSA
151 YQEAMDISKK EMPPTNPIRL GLALNFSVFH YEIANSPEEA ISLAKTTFDE
201 AMADLHTLSE DSYKDSTLIM QLLRDNLTLW TADNAGEEGG EAPQEPQS

```



## Spot 1207 Aldehyde dehydrogenase 6



Start - End	Observed	Mr(expt)	Mr(calc)	Delta	Miss	Sequence
34 - 44	1416.76	1415.75	1415.68	0.07	0	K.IFINNEWESK.S
99 - 109	1306.80	1305.79	1305.74	0.05	0	R.LLHQLADLVER.D
143 - 150	957.49	956.48	956.44	0.04	0	R.YFAGWADK.I
155 - 167	1537.70	1536.69	1536.72	-0.03	0	K.TIPTDDHVVCFTR.H
320 - 332	1630.83	1629.82	1629.80	0.02	0	R.VFVEEQVYSEFVR.R
340 - 350	1257.68	1256.67	1256.69	-0.02	1	K.KRPVGDPPDVK.Y
341 - 350	1129.64	1128.63	1128.59	0.04	0	K.RPVGDPPDVK.Y
407 - 421	1681.96	1680.96	1680.98	-0.03	1	R.IAKEEIFGPVQPILK.F
410 - 421	1369.88	1368.88	1368.77	0.11	0	K.EEIFGPVQPILK.F
424 - 431	973.52	972.51	972.56	-0.05	1	K.SIEEVIKR.A
432 - 446	1558.79	1557.79	1557.77	0.02	0	R.ANSTDYGLTAAVFTK.N
482 - 487	637.32	636.31	636.26	0.05	0	K.MSGNGR.E Oxidation (N)
488 - 501	1614.78	1613.77	1613.78	-0.01	0	R.ELGEYALAEYTEVK.T
507 - 512	643.31	642.31	642.33	-0.03	1	K.LGDKNP.-

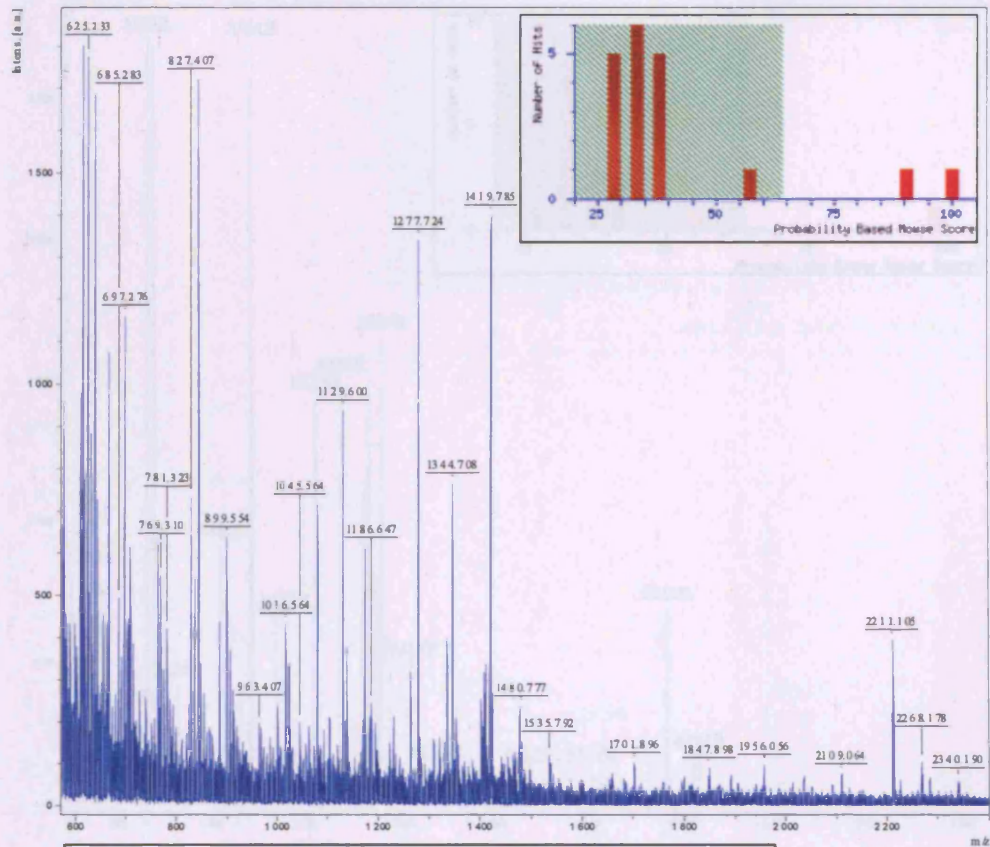
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1 MATANGAVEN QPDPGKPPAL PRPIRNLEVK FTKIFINNEW HESKSGKKFA
51 TCNPSTREQI CEVEEGDKPD VDKAVEAAQV AFQRGSPWRR LDALSRGRLL
101 HQLADLVERD RATLAALETH DTGKPFLLHAF FIDLEGCI RT LRYFAGWADK
151 IQGKTIPTDD NVVCFTRHEP IGVCGAITPW NFPLLNLVWK LAPALCCGNT
201 MVLKPAEQTP LTALYLGSLI KEAGFPPGVV NIVPGFGPTV GAAISSHPQI
251 NKIAFTGST E VGKLVEAAS RSNLKRVTLE LGGKNPCIVC ADADLDLAVE
301 CAHQGVFFNQ GQCCTAASRV FVEEQVYSEF VRRSVEYAKK RPYGDPPDVK
351 TEQGPQIDQK QFDKILELIE SGKKEGAKLE CGGSAMEDKG LFIKPTVFSE
401 VTDNMRIAKE EIFGPVQPIL KFKSIEEVIK RANSTDYGLT AAVFTKNLKD
451 ALKLASALES GTVWINCYN A LYAQAPFGGF KMSGNGRELG EYALAEYTEV
501 KTVTIKLGDK NP

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## Spot 1183 Cytokeratin 6

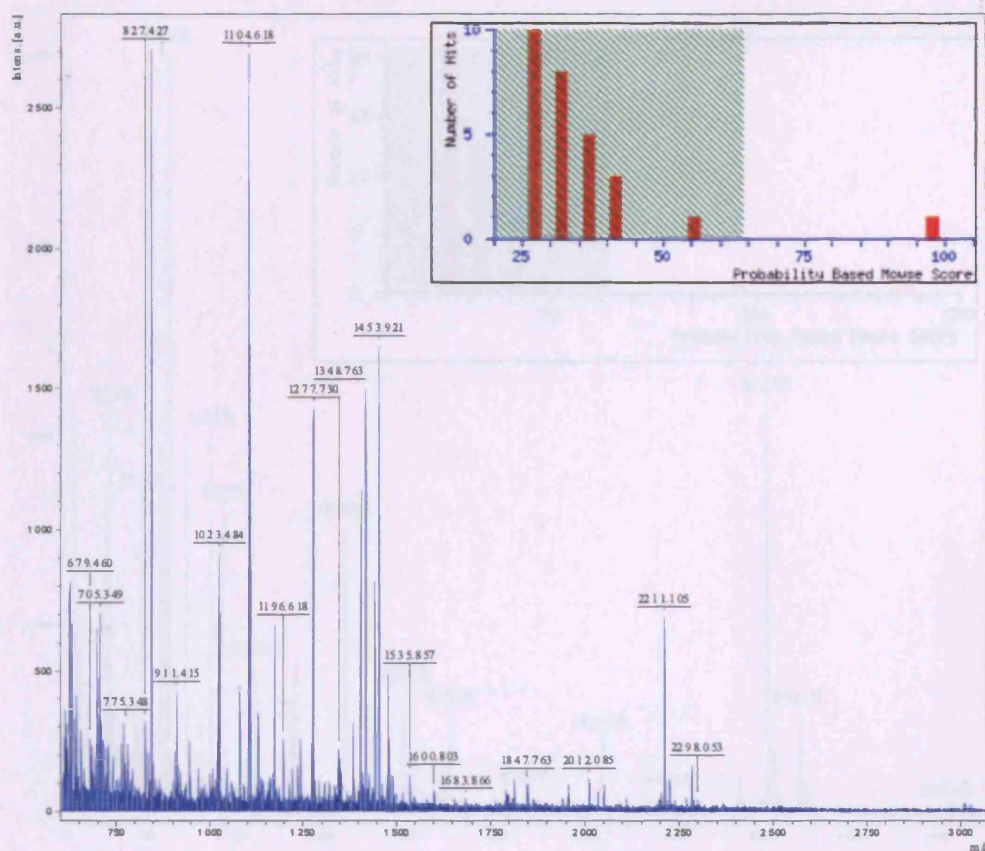


Start	End	Observed	Mr (exp)	Mr (calc)	Delta	Mass	Sequence
85	53	911.79	910.38	910.41	-0.04	0	R-STYSPQSR-I
56	61	978.42	969.43	969.42	-0.01	0	R-LSSKPSR-V
62	69	984.55	975.55	975.58	-0.03	0	R-VSSKPSR-Q
123	129	827.41	826.40	826.43	-0.03	0	R-FASFDIK-V
138	138	1161.63	1160.63	1160.63	-0.00	1	R-VKFLQGMK-M
139	138	906.43	905.42	905.46	-0.04	0	R-FLKQGM-M
171	179	1045.56	1044.56	1044.59	0.01	0	R-QLETGQEK-L
180	187	2014.18	2013.13	2013.05	0.08	1	R-AKLDAIADAEQVWVW-M
208	218	1352.72	1351.71	1351.67	0.04	0	R-TTHNEFVLKK-K
208	219	1480.78	1479.77	1479.76	0.01	1	R-TTHNEFVLKK-D
208	219	1496.72	1495.72	1495.76	-0.04	1	R-TTHNEFVLKK-D Oxidation (R)
235	246	1419.79	1418.78	1418.74	0.04	0	R-LEGLTDEIFLQ-G
255	273	2106.06	2106.06	2106.01	0.05	0	R-ELQSGQSTPPVLMHSL-S
255	273	2120.61	2120.60	2120.60	0.00	0	R-ELQSGQSTPPVLMHSL-S Oxidation (R)
274	285	1310.71	1310.70	1310.66	0.04	0	R-SLMDGIIATVLA
294	294	1070.52	1070.51	1070.50	0.01	0	R-AQYDIAAD-S
310	316	900.50	900.50	900.56	-0.03	0	R-LQAEIIEGL-S
330	363	1344.71	1343.70	1343.67	0.03	0	R-ALEDAIADAEQVWVW-M
350	360	1956.06	1955.05	1955.03	0.02	1	R-ALEDAIADAEQVWVW-M
363	373	1129.60	1128.59	1128.61	-0.02	1	R-GLAIEDAMN-L
384	390	819.45	818.45	818.41	0.04	1	R-AQYDIAAD-S
384	390	834.37	834.36	834.40	-0.04	1	R-AQYDIAAD-S Oxidation (R)
394	402	1153.50	1152.57	1152.53	0.07	0	R-EYQELMVF-L
394	402	1168.50	1168.49	1168.54	-0.05	0	R-EYQELMVF-L Oxidation (R)
403	413	1277.72	1276.72	1276.70	0.01	0	R-LALDIEIATVLA
403	414	1405.70	1404.70	1404.68	-0.01	1	R-LALDIEIATVLA
494	504	1175.69	1174.68	1174.63	0.06	0	R-LVSSSPVLR--

1	FSPSRISAW	FGPPASTPAS	TMSIRVTQKS	YKVSTSGPRA	FSSRSYTSGP
51	GSRISSSSFS	RVGSSNPRGG	LGGGYGGAGC	HGGITAVTVN	QSLLSPLVLE
101	VDPNIAQVRT	QEKEQIKTLN	NKFASFDIKV	RFLEQQMKHL	ETKWSLLQQQ
151	KTARSNDNN	FESYINNLR	QLETGQEK	KLEAELGDMQ	GLVEDFKNKY
201	EDEINKRTEM	EMEFVLKKD	VDEAYENKVE	LESRLGLTD	EINFLRLYE
251	EEIRELQSQI	SDTSVVLSD	MSRSLDMSI	IAEVKAQYED	IANRSRAEAE
301	SHYQIKYEEL	QSLAGKHGDD	LRRTKTEISE	MNRNISRLQA	EIEGLKQORA
351	SLEAAIADAE	QRGELAIKDA	MAKLSELEAA	LQRAKQDMAR	QLREYQELNN
401	VKLALDIEIA	TYRKLEGE	SRLESQGMN	SIHTKTTSGY	AGGLSSAYGG
451	LTSPGLSYSL	GSSFGSGAGS	SSFSRTSSSR	AVVVKKIETR	DGKLVSSESD
501	VLPK				



## Spot 1277 Cytokeratin 7



Start - End	Observed	Mr(expt)	Mr(calc)	Delta	Miss Sequence
53 - 64	1104.62	1103.61	1103.57	0.04	0 R.SAYGCPVQAGIR.E
78 - 86	1014.56	1013.55	1013.51	0.04	0 R.LDADPSLQR.V
102 - 108	827.43	826.42	826.42	-0.00	0 K.PASFIDK.V
111 - 117	906.44	905.44	905.46	-0.03	0 R.FLEQQHK.L
111 - 122	1490.76	1489.75	1489.81	-0.06	1 R.FLEQQHKLLEK.W
123 - 130	1045.58	1044.58	1044.56	0.02	0 R.WYLLQEK.E
137 - 149	1442.84	1441.83	1441.79	0.04	0 R.LPDIFEAQIAGLR.D
150 - 167	1953.97	1952.96	1953.03	-0.07	1 R.GGLEALQVDGGRLAEIR.S
168 - 177	1213.59	1212.58	1212.53	0.05	0 R.SMQDVEDFK.N Oxidation (M)
180 - 190	1220.71	1219.70	1219.64	0.06	0 R.YAAEHEFVVLK.K
180 - 199	1348.76	1347.76	1347.74	0.02	1 H.YAAEHEFVVLK.D
215 - 226	1418.73	1417.72	1417.72	0.00	0 K.VDALNDEINFLR.T
234 - 273	2239.02	2238.01	2238.11	-0.09	1 R.SLDLDGIIEVKAQYERNAK.C Oxidation (M)
332 - 348	1812.96	1811.95	1811.96	-0.01	1 K.LEAAIAEAERGIALK.D
354 - 363	1106.62	1105.61	1105.60	0.01	0 K.QEELEAALQK.A
364 - 365	1305.76	1304.75	1304.73	0.02	1 K.QEELEAALQK.K
364 - 370	835.39	834.38	834.40	-0.02	1 R.AKQDNAR.Q Oxidation (M)
374 - 382	1126.57	1125.57	1125.54	0.03	0 R.EYQELMSVK.L
374 - 382	1142.53	1141.53	1141.53	-0.01	0 R.EYQELMSVK.L Oxidation (M)
383 - 393	1277.73	1276.72	1276.70	0.02	0 K.LALDIEIATYR.K
393 - 394	1405.77	1404.76	1404.80	-0.04	1 K.LALDIEIATYR.L

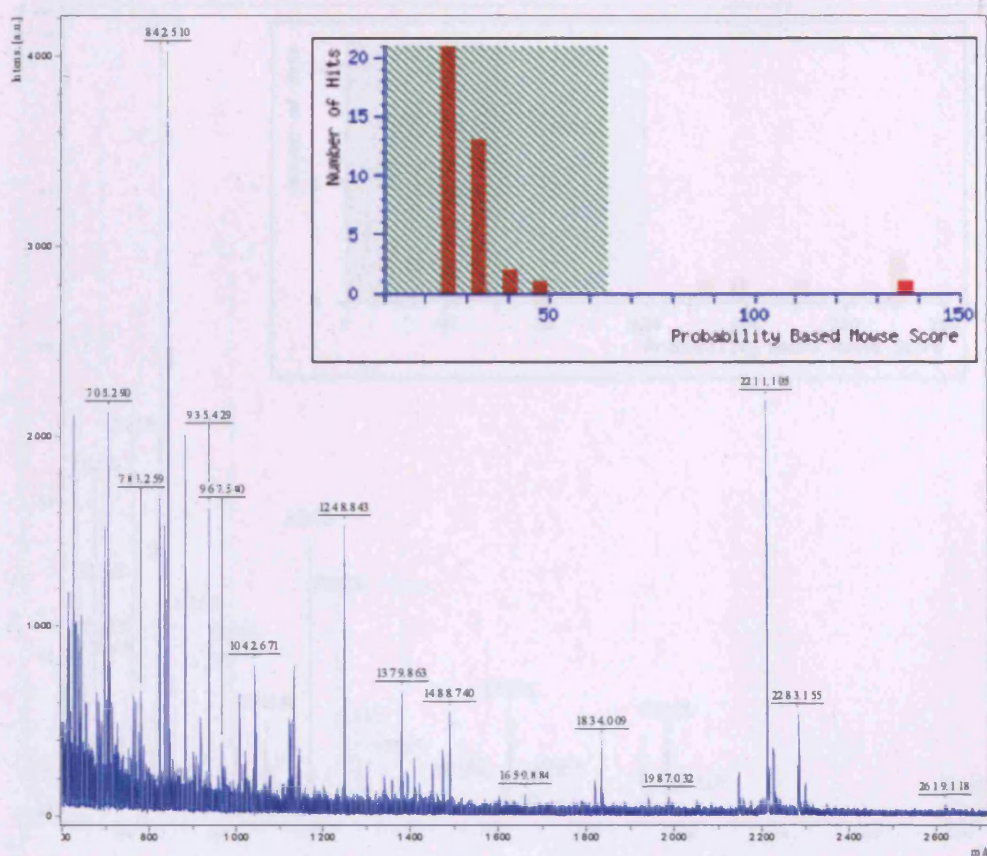
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1 MSIHFSPPVF TSSAASFGR GAQVRLSSAR PGGLGSSSLY GLGASRPVA
51 VRSAYGCPVG AGIREVTINQ SLLAPLRDA DPSLQVRQE ESEQIKTLNN
101 KPAFIDKVR FLEQQHKLLE TKWYLLQEK SAKSSRLPDI FEAQIAGLRG
151 QLEALQVDGG RLEAELRSMQ DVVEDFKNKY EDEINRRTA ENEFVVLKDD
201 VDAAYNSKVE LEAKVDALND EINFLRTLNE TELTELQSQI SDTSVVLSDM
251 NSRSLDLGI IAEVKAQYEE NAKCSRAEAE AWYQTKPETL QAQAGKHGDD
301 LRNTRNEISE MNRATQRLQA EIDNIKNQRA KLEAAIAEAE ERGELALKDA
351 RAKQEELEAA LQRAKQDNAR QLREYQELMS VKLALDIEIA TYRKLLEGE
401 SRLAGDVGVA VNISVMNSTG GSSSGGGIGL TLGGTMGSNA LSFSSSAGPG
451 LLKAYSIRTA SASRRSARD

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## Spot 1307 Cytokeratin 13



Start - End	Observed	Mr(expt)	Mr(calc)	Delta	Miss	Sequence
3 - 27	2147.02	2146.02	2145.95	0.07	0	R.LQSSASTGGGFGGSCQLGGGR.G
106 - 114	1120.65	1119.64	1119.53	0.11	0	K.ITDQMLNDL.L Oxidation (M)
115 - 121	823.43	822.42	822.45	-0.03	0	R.LASYLK.V
124 - 135	1301.76	1300.76	1300.65	0.10	0	R.ALEAAADLEVK.I
136 - 142	967.54	966.53	966.54	-0.01	1	K.IEDWHLK.Q
143 - 150	871.45	870.45	870.42	0.03	0	K.QSPASPER.D
151 - 157	935.43	934.42	934.41	0.01	0	R.DYSPYK.T
166 - 175	1144.69	1143.68	1143.62	0.05	0	K.ILATIEMNR.V
176 - 184	1042.67	1041.66	1041.58	0.08	0	R.VILEIDMAR.L
185 - 191	835.39	834.39	834.47	-0.04	0	R.LAVDDFR.I
223 - 240	2157.02	2156.01	2156.00	0.01	0	K.TDLEMQIESLNEELAYDK.K
249 - 272	2619.12	2618.11	2618.26	-0.15	0	K.EFSHQVVGQVWENDATPGIDLH.V
291 - 299	1132.57	1131.56	1131.50	0.06	0	R.DAEWFNAK.S
300 - 318	2052.06	2051.05	2051.02	0.03	1	K.SAEINKEVSTNYAMIQSK.Y
319 - 326	1017.53	1016.53	1016.56	-0.04	1	K.TEITELRR.Y
327 - 342	1010.15	1017.14	1016.96	0.18	0	R.TLQGLETELQSLSNK.A
327 - 342	1034.01	1033.00	1032.96	0.05	0	R.TLQGLETELQSLSNK.A Oxidation (M)
379 - 389	1445.71	1444.70	1444.56	0.14	0	R.SHECQDEYK.H
396 - 406	1379.06	1378.06	1378.72	0.14	1	K.TELEQLATYR.S
398 - 406	1122.68	1121.67	1121.57	0.10	0	R.LEQLATYR.S
416 - 429	1400.02	1407.01	1407.68	0.13	0	K.NIGFPSSAGSVSPR.S Oxidation (M)

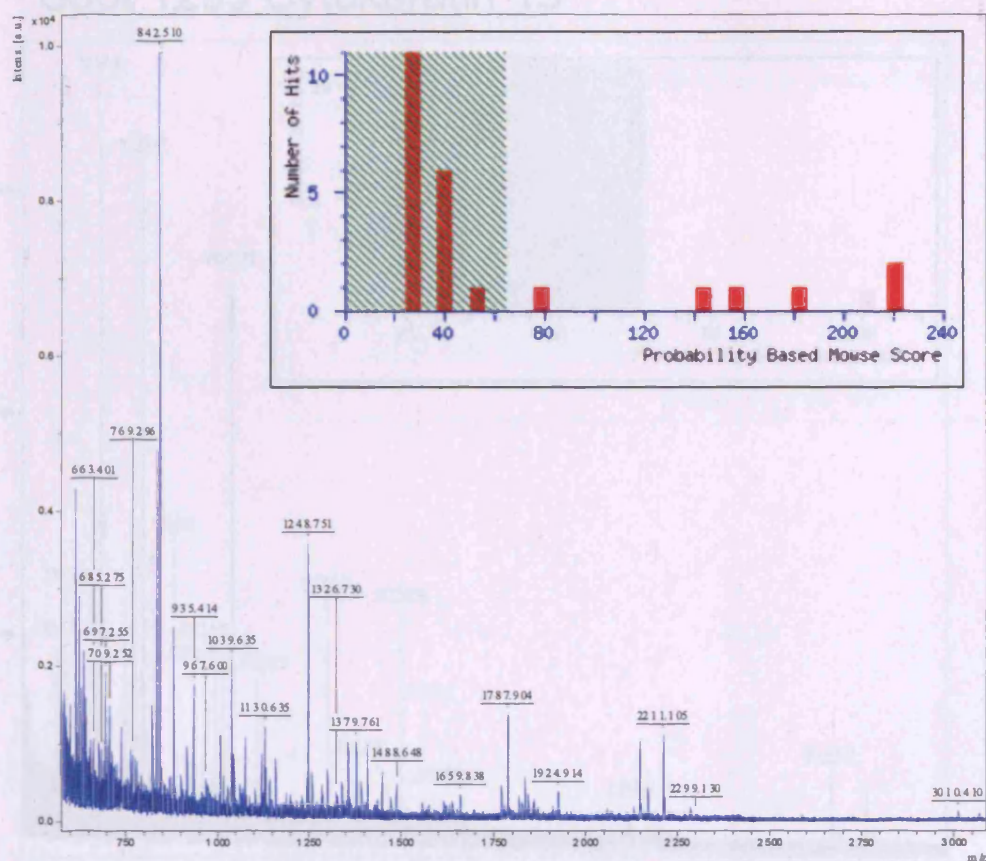
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1  MSLRLQSSA SYGGGFGGGS CQLGGGRGVS TCSTRFVSGG SAGGYGGGVS
51 CGFGGGADSG FGGGYGGGLG GGYGGGLGGG FGGGFAGGFV DFGACDGGLL
101 TGNKIKITQN LNDRLASYLE KVRALEEANA DLEVKIRDWH LKQSPASPER
151 DYSPYYKTIE ELRDKILTAT IENNRVILEI DNARLAVDDF RLKYENELAL
201 RQSV EADING LRRVDELTL SKTDLEMQIE SLNEELAYDK KNHEEENKEF
251 SHQVVGQVW ENDATPGIDL TRVLAEMREQ YEANAERNRR DAEWFNAKS
301 AELNKEVSTN TAMIQTSKTE ITELRRITLQ LEIELQSQLS NKAGLENTVA
351 ETECRYALQL QQIQLLISSI EAQLSELRS EECNQNEYKH LLDIKYRLEQ
401 EIATYRSLLE GQDARNIGFP SSAGSVSPRS TSVTTTSSAS VTTTSSASGR
451 RTSDVRRP

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## Spot 1298 Cytokeratin 13



Start	End	Observed	Mr (exp)	Mr (calc)	Delta	Miss	Sequence
5	27	2146.99	2145.90	2145.95	0.03	0	R.LQSSSASTGGGFGGGS CQLGGGRGVS
106	114	1120.59	1119.50	1119.53	0.04	0	R.IYHQRLNDL Oxidation (H)
106	121	1909.03	1908.02	1907.90	0.04	1	R.IYHQRLNDLASYLK.V
106	121	1924.91	1923.91	1923.97	-0.07	1	R.IYHQRLNDLASYLK.V Oxidation (H)
115	121	822.43	822.43	822.45	-0.02	0	R.LASTLEK.V
115	123	1070.65	1071.65	1071.62	0.03	1	R.LASTLEK.V
124	135	1301.63	1300.62	1300.65	-0.03	0	R.ALEAGNLEVK.I
143	157	1707.90	1706.90	1706.02	0.00	1	R.QSPASPERDTPYK.Y
151	157	935.41	934.41	934.41	-0.00	0	R.DYSPYK.Y
164	184	2160.27	2167.26	2167.20	0.06	1	R.ILTATYIENRVILEIDHAR.L
176	184	1042.63	1041.62	1041.50	0.04	0	R.VILEIDHAR.L
185	191	835.42	834.42	834.42	-0.01	0	R.LAVDDDF.L
192	201	1248.75	1247.74	1247.69	0.06	1	R.LKYENELAL.Q
194	201	1007.55	1006.54	1006.51	0.03	0	R.LKYENELAL.Q
202	212	1201.67	1200.67	1200.61	0.06	0	R.QSVEADIMQL.R
202	213	1357.76	1356.75	1356.71	0.04	1	R.QSVEADIMQL.R
214	222	1017.59	1016.50	1016.50	0.01	0	R.VLDELTLK.Y
273	287	1025.90	1024.89	1024.85	0.04	1	R.VLAENDEQTEAMER.H
273	287	1041.91	1040.90	1040.84	0.06	1	R.VLAENDEQTEAMER.H Oxidation (H)
273	287	1057.76	1056.76	1056.84	-0.00	1	R.VLAENDEQTEAMER.H 2 Oxidation (H)
327	342	1033.97	1032.96	1032.96	0.00	0	R.VLAENDEQTEAMER.H Oxidation (H)
343	355	1449.70	1448.69	1448.64	0.03	0	R.KAGLENTVAETK.Y
396	406	1379.76	1378.75	1378.72	0.03	1	R.TLQLELQSLK.A
398	406	1122.60	1121.59	1121.57	0.02	0	R.LEQELATYK.S
416	429	1392.76	1391.75	1391.69	0.06	0	R.HIQFPSSAGSVSPR.S
416	429	1400.71	1407.70	1407.68	0.02	0	R.HIQFPSSAGSVSPR.S Oxidation (H)

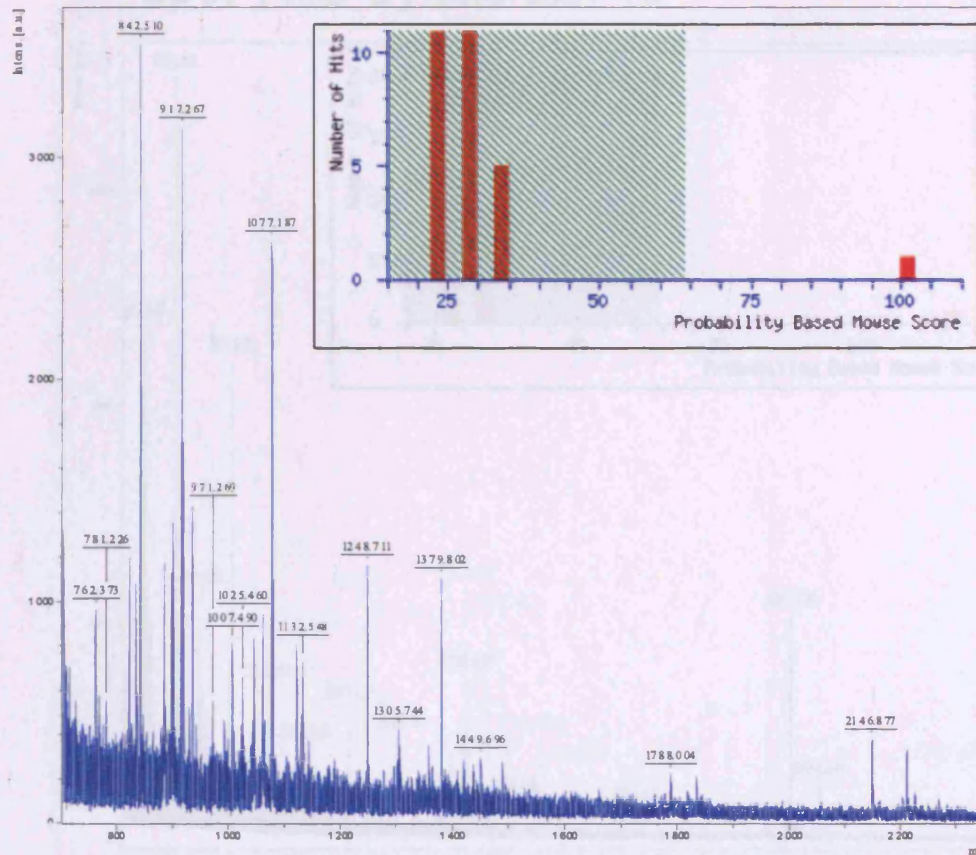
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1  MSLRLQSSSA SYGGGFGGGS CQLGGGRGVS TCSTRFVSGG SAGGYGGGV
51  CGFGGGADSG FGGGYGGGLG GGYGGGLGGG FGGGFAGGPV DFGACDGGLL
101 TGNEKITHQN LNDRLASYLE KVRALREANA DLEVKIRDVH LKQSPASPER
151 DYSPPYKIE ELRDKILTAT IENRVILEI DHARLAVDDF RLKYENELAL
201 RQSVLEADING LRRVLDELTL SKTDLENQIE SLNEELAYHK KNHEEENKEF
251 SNQVVGQVNV ENDATPGIDL TRVLAENREQ YEAMAEARNR DAEWFHAKS
301 AELNKEVSTN TANIQTSKTE ITELRRTLQG LEIELQSQLS HKAGLENTVA
351 ETECRYALQL QQIQGLISSI EAQLSELRS EECNQEQYKH LLDIKTRLEQ
401 ELATYRSLL EGDARMIGFP SSAGSVSPRS TSVTTTSSAS VTTTSSASGR
451 RTSDVRRP

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## Spot 1295 Cytokeratin 13

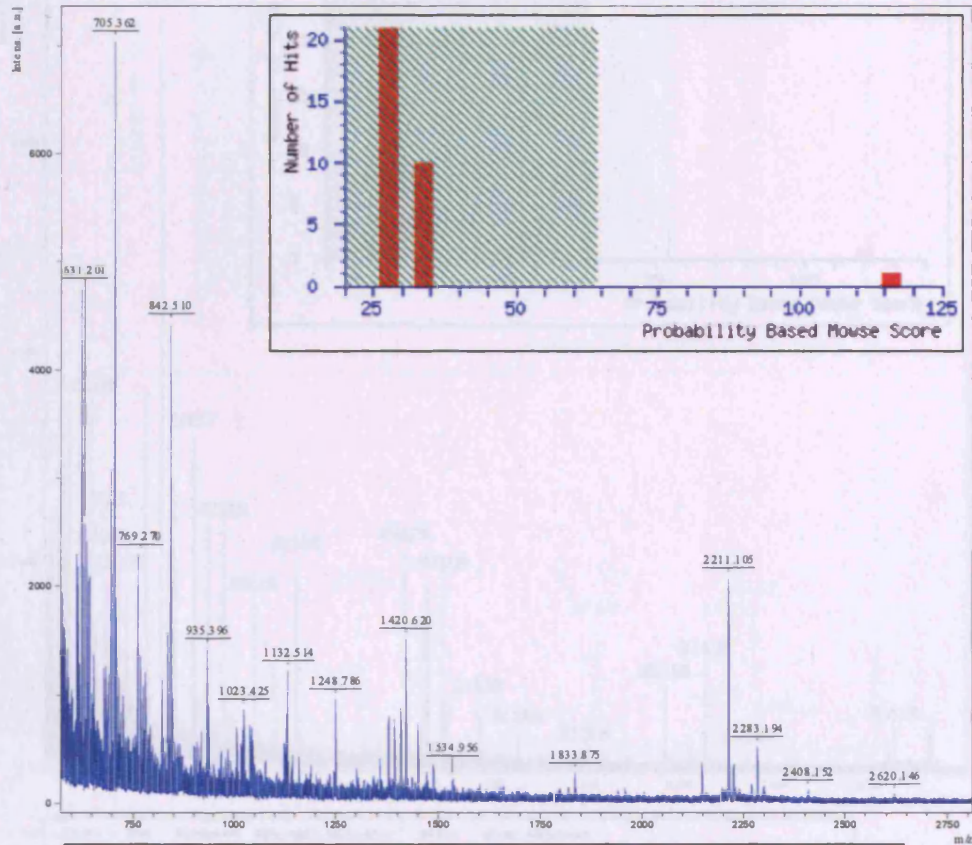


Start - End	Observed	Mr(expt)	Mr(calc)	Delta	Miss	Sequence
5 - 27	2146.88	2145.87	2145.93	-0.08	0	R.LQSSASVGGGFGGGSCQLGGGR.G
124 - 135	1301.67	1300.66	1300.65	0.01	0	R.ALEENADLEVK.I
151 - 157	935.40	934.39	934.41	-0.02	0	R.DYSPYYK.Y
176 - 184	1042.58	1041.58	1041.58	-0.01	0	R.VILEIDNAR.L
185 - 191	835.43	834.43	834.42	0.00	0	R.LAVDDFR.L
192 - 201	1248.71	1247.70	1247.69	0.02	1	R.LKYENELALR.Q
194 - 201	1007.49	1006.48	1006.51	-0.03	0	K.YENELALR.Q
202 - 213	1357.72	1356.71	1356.71	0.00	1	R.QSVLEADINLRR.V
291 - 299	1132.55	1131.54	1131.50	0.04	0	R.DAEWFNAK.S
327 - 342	1817.97	1816.97	1816.96	0.01	0	R.YLQGLETELQSQLSMK.A
327 - 342	1834.00	1833.00	1832.96	0.04	0	R.YLQGLETELQSQLSMK.A
343 - 355	1449.70	1448.69	1448.66	0.03	0	K.AGLENTVAETECR.Y
398 - 406	1122.58	1121.58	1121.57	0.01	0	R.LEQEIATYR.S
416 - 429	1408.74	1407.73	1407.68	0.05	0	K.MIGPPSSAGSVSPR.S

1 MSRLQSSA SYGGFGGGS CQLGGGRGVS TCSTRFVSGG SAGGYGGGVS  
 51 CGFGGGADSG FGGGYGGGLG GGYGGGLGGG FGGGFAGGFV DFGACDGGLL  
 101 TGNEKITHQN LNDRLASYLE KVR**ALEENADLEV**KIRDWH LKQSPASPER  
 151 **DYSPYYKTIE** ELRDKILTAT IENNR**VILEIDNAR**LALRQ  
 201 **RQSVLEADING** LRRVLDLTL SKTDLENQIE SLNEELAYMK KNHEEENKEF  
 251 SNQVVGQVNV EMDATPGIDL TRVLAENREQ YEANAERNR **DAEWFNAKS**  
 301 AELNKEVSTN TANIQTSKTE ITELRR**ILQL** **LEIELQSQLS** MKAGLENTVA  
 351 **ETECRYALQL** QQIQGLISSI EAQLSELRS MECONQEYKM LLDIKTR**LEQ**  
 401 **EIATYRSLL** EQDARN**MIGFP** **SSAGSVSPRS** TSVTTTSSAS VTITSNASGR  
 451 RTSDVRRP



## Spot 1165 Cytokeratin 13



Start - End	Observed	Mr(calc)	Mr(calc)	Delta	Miss Sequence
5 - 27	2146.99	2145.98	2145.99	0.03	0 R.LQSSASTGGGFGGSCQLGGGR.G
115 - 121	873.48	872.40	872.43	-0.03	0 R.LASTYK.V
174 - 135	1381.67	1380.66	1380.63	0.01	0 R.ALEXANADLVK.I
136 - 142	967.46	966.45	966.54	-0.09	1 R.IRDWHLK.Q
151 - 157	933.48	934.39	934.41	-0.02	0 R.DYSPYK.T
176 - 184	1042.63	1041.62	1041.58	0.04	0 R.VILKIDHAR.L
192 - 201	1248.79	1247.78	1247.69	0.09	1 R.LKYEDELALR.Q
202 - 212	1281.56	1280.55	1280.61	-0.06	0 R.QSVEADINGLR.R
202 - 213	1357.69	1356.68	1356.71	-0.03	1 R.QSVEADINGLR.V
214 - 222	1017.61	1016.60	1016.58	0.03	0 R.VLDLTLK.Y
279 - 287	1126.54	1125.53	1125.48	0.06	0 R.EQYMAER.N
291 - 299	1132.51	1131.51	1131.50	0.01	0 R.DAEYMAER.S
306 - 325	2268.24	2267.24	2267.13	0.11	1 K.EVSTIAMIQTSKTEITELR.R Oxidation (R)
327 - 342	1817.86	1816.85	1816.96	-0.11	0 R.TLQGLIELQSLSNK.A
327 - 342	1833.88	1832.87	1832.96	-0.09	0 R.TLQGLIELQSLSNK.A Oxidation (R)
343 - 355	1449.78	1448.78	1448.66	0.12	0 K.AGLENTVAETK.Y
396 - 406	1379.88	1378.88	1378.72	0.08	1 K.TLEQIATYR.S
398 - 406	1122.65	1121.64	1121.57	0.07	0 R.LEQIATYR.S
416 - 429	1392.76	1391.75	1391.69	0.07	0 R.HIGPPSSAGSVSPR.S
416 - 429	1408.71	1407.70	1407.68	0.02	0 R.HIGPPSSAGSVSPR.S Oxidation (R)

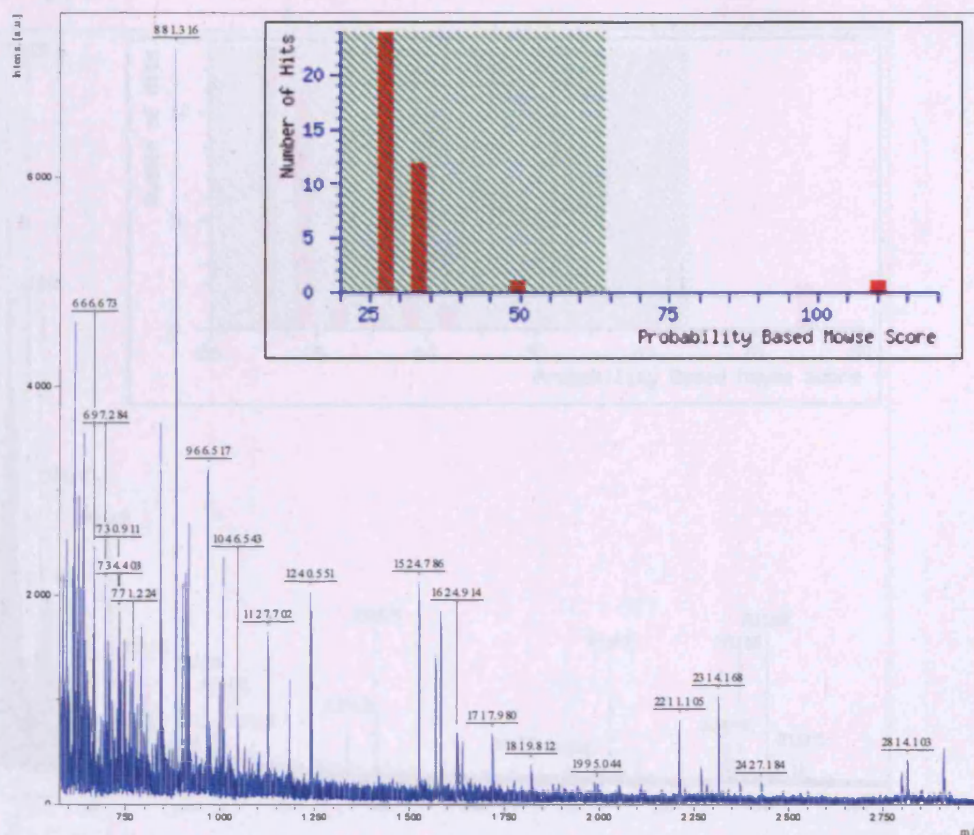
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1  MSLRLQSSSA SYGGGFGGGS CQLGGGRGVS TCSTRFVSGG SAGGYGGGVS
51  CGFGGGADSG FGGGYGGGLG GGYGGGLGGG FGGGFAGGFV DFGACDGGLL
101 TGNEKITMQN LNDRLASYLE KVRALLEANA DLEVKIRDWH LKQSPASPER
151 DYSPYKTIE ELRDKILTAT IENNRVILEI DNARLAVDDF RLKYENELAL
201 RQSVEADING LRRVLDELTL SKTDLEMQIE SLNEELAYMK KNHEEEMKEF
251 SNQVVGQVNV EMDATPGIDL TRVLAEMREQ YEAMAERNRR DAEWFHAKS
301 AELNKEVSTN TAMIQTSKTE ITELRRTLQG LEIELQSLS MKAGLENTVA
351 ETECRYALQL QQIQGLISSI EAQLSELRS MECQNQEYKM LLDIKTRLEQ
401 EIATYRSLL EGDAMIGFP SSAGSVSPRS TSVTTTSSAS VTTTSNASGR
451 RTSDVRRP

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## Spot 1303 Dihydrolipoamide DH



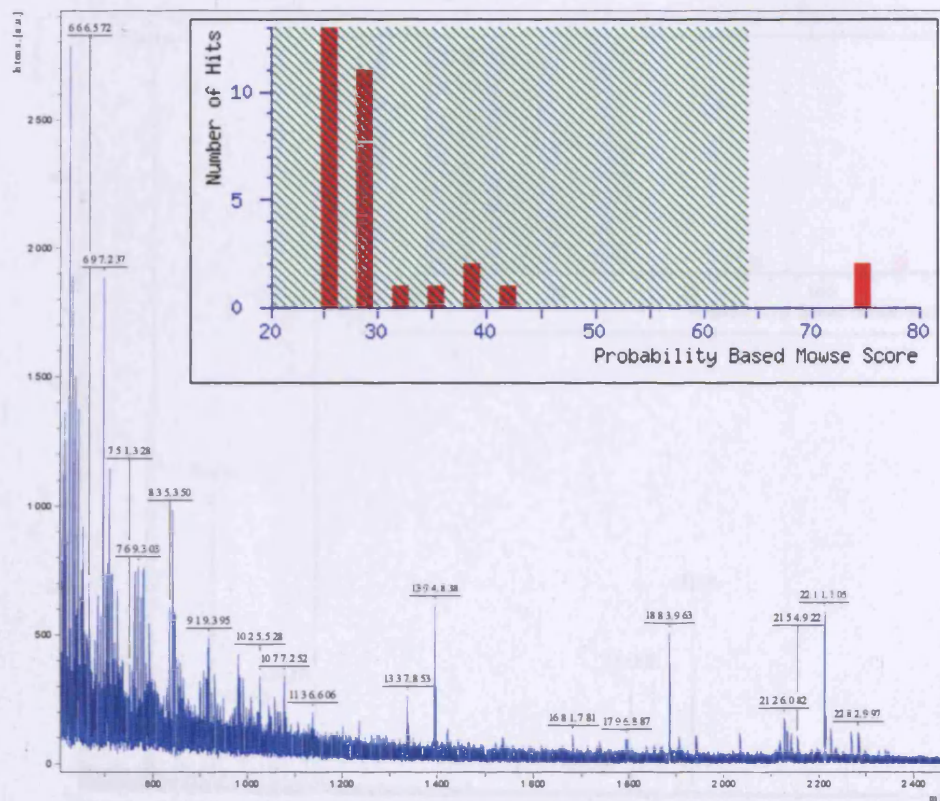
Start - End	Observed	Mr(expt)	Mr(calc)	Delta	Miss Sequence
60 - 66	734.40	733.40	733.41	-0.02	0 K.AAQLQK.Y
67 - 72	749.34	748.34	748.38	-0.04	0 K.TVCIK.N
73 - 88	1819.01	1818.00	1818.06	-0.06	0 K.HETLGGTCLNVGCIPK.A
105 - 109	595.25	594.24	594.28	-0.04	0 K.DFASR.G
110 - 117	928.39	918.38	919.44	-0.06	0 R.GIHESEVR.L
118 - 117	936.47	935.46	935.44	0.02	0 R.GIHESEVR.L Oxidation (H)
133 - 143	1127.70	1126.69	1126.65	0.04	0 K.ALTOGIAHLFK.Q
147 - 155	972.44	971.43	971.52	-0.09	0 K.VVHVHYGR.I
167 - 177	1164.59	1163.58	1163.55	0.04	0 K.ADGQTQVIDTK.N
216 - 234	1986.18	1985.17	1985.08	0.09	0 K.HAVVILGACVIGVLSVVGK.L Oxidation (H)
268 - 267	1046.54	1045.54	1045.60	-0.07	1 K.HFQRIQR.Q
295 - 300	1533.75	1532.74	1532.77	-0.03	1 K.SDAKIDVSTEARSGGK.A
299 - 300	1146.53	1145.53	1145.59	-0.07	0 K.IDVSTKASGGK.A
301 - 315	1717.98	1716.97	1716.05	0.08	0 K.AEVIICDVLIVCIQR.R
316 - 320	648.37	647.36	647.38	-0.01	0 R.HPTTK.N
321 - 334	1567.84	1566.83	1566.83	0.01	0 K.HLGLRELGIKIDPR.G
347 - 365	1979.00	1977.99	1978.07	-0.08	0 K.IPHIYAIQDVVAGVPLANK.A
347 - 365	1995.04	1994.04	1994.07	-0.03	0 K.IPHIYAIQDVVAGVPLANK.A Oxidation (H)
405 - 417	1581.00	1580.79	1580.76	0.04	1 K.SEEQLKEEIEYK.V
421 - 428	909.48	908.47	908.45	0.02	0 K.FPPAANSR.A
483 - 495	1524.79	1523.78	1523.73	0.05	0 R.VYHAPTLSEAFK.R
496 - 505	1007.53	1006.52	1006.51	0.01	0 R.LAMLAASFGK.S

```

1  MQSWSRVYCS LAKRGHFNRI SHGLQGLSAV PLRTYADQPI DADVTVIGSG
51  PGGYVAAIKA AQLGFKTVCI EKMETLGGTC LNVGCIPSKA LLNNSHYHH
101 AHGKDFASRG IEMSEVRLNL DKHNEQKSTA VKALTGGIAH LFKQNKVVHV
151 NGYGKITGKN QVTATKADGG IQVIDTKNIL IATGSEVTPF PGITIDEDTI
201 VSSTGALSLK KVPEKVVVIG AGVIGVELGS VWQRLGADVT AVEFLGHVGG
251 VGIDNEISKV FQRILOKQGF KFKLNTKVTG ATKKSDGKID VSIEAASGGK
301 AEVITCDVLL VCIGRRPYTK NLGLEELGIE LDPRGRIPVN TRFQTKIPNI
351 YAIQDVVAGP MLANKAEDEG IICVEGMAGG AVHIDYNCVP SVIYTHPEVA
401 VVGKSEEQLK EEGIEYKVGK FPPAANSRAK TNADTDGMVK ILGQKSTDRV
451 LGAHILGPGA GEMVNEAALA LEYGASCEDI ARVCHAMPTL SEAFREANLA
501 ASFGKSNF

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## Spot 2262 Glutathione S-transferase $\pi$

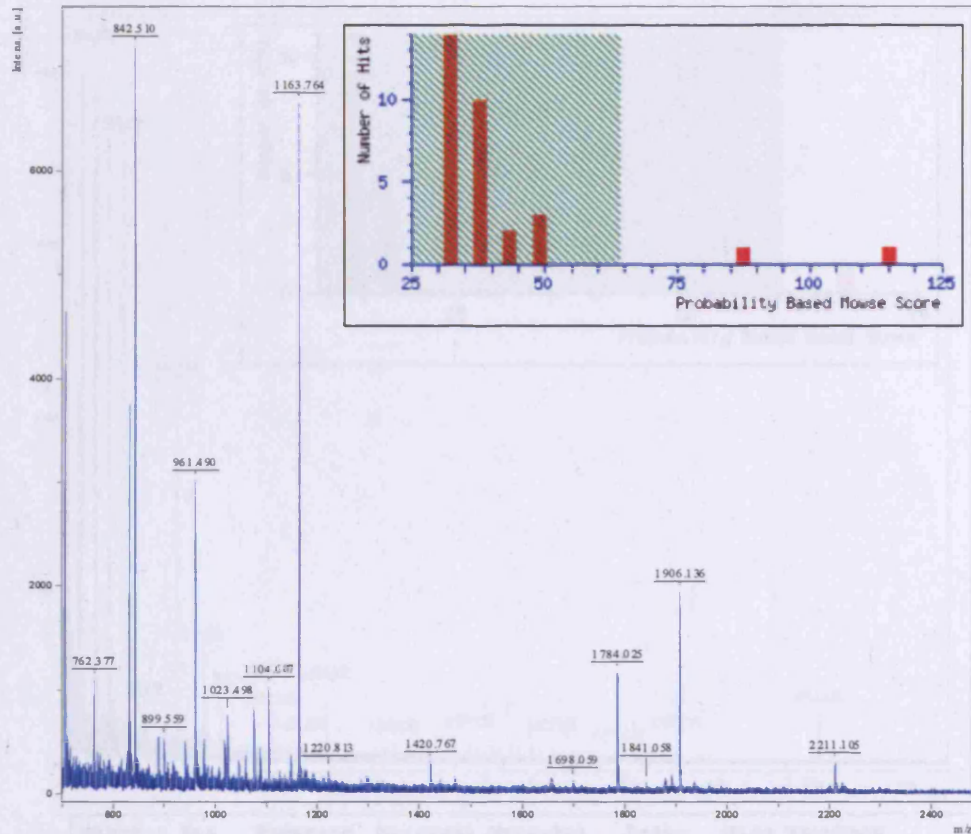


Start - End	Observed	Mr(expt)	Mr(calc)	Delta	Miss Sequence	
1 - 14	1681.78	1680.77	1680.88	-0.11	1 - .MPPYTVVYTFVRGR.C	
2 - 12	1337.85	1336.85	1336.72	0.13	0 M.PPYTVVYFFVR.G	
31 - 45	1733.84	1732.84	1732.85	-0.02	0 K.EEVTVETWQEGSLK.A	
46 - 55	1136.61	1135.60	1135.57	0.03	0 K.ASCLYGQLPK.F	
56 - 71	1883.96	1882.96	1882.94	0.01	0 K.FQDGLTYQSNTILR.N	
72 - 82	1214.64	1213.63	1213.69	-0.07	1 R.HLGRILGLYCK.D	
83 - 101	2116.90	2115.89	2115.97	-0.08	0 K.DQQAALVDMVNDGVEDLR.C	
83 - 101	2132.87	2131.86	2131.97	-0.11	0 K.DQQAALVDMVNDGVEDLR.C	Oxidation (M)
104 - 121	2154.92	2153.91	2154.05	-0.14	1 K.YISLIYTHYEAGKDDYK.A	
122 - 141	2126.08	2125.07	2125.15	-0.08	0 K.ALPGQLKPFETLLSQNQGGK.Y	
192 - 209	1903.92	1902.91	1902.98	-0.08	0 K.AFLASPEYVMLPINGNGK.Q	

1 MPPYTVVYFP VRGRCAALRM LLADQGQSWK EEVTVETWQ EGSLKASCLY  
 51 GQLPKFQDGD LTLYQSNTIL RMLGRILGLY GKDQQAALV DMVNDGVEDL  
 101 RCKYISLIYT NYEAGKDDYV KALPGQLKPF ETLLSQNQGG KTFIVGDQIS  
 151 FADYNLLDLL LIHEVLAPGC LDAFPLLSAY VGRLSARPKL KAFLASPEYV  
 201 MLPINGNGKQ



## Spot 2182 HSP-27



Start - End	Observed	Mr(expt)	Mr(calc)	Delta	Miss	Sequence
6 - 12	831.53	830.52	830.50	0.02	0	R.VPFSLLR.G
13 - 20	961.49	960.48	960.45	0.04	0	R.GPSWDPFR.D
21 - 27	960.49	959.48	959.42	0.06	0	R.DWYPHSR.L
80 - 89	1075.65	1074.64	1074.57	0.07	0	R.QLSSGVSEIR.H
97 - 112	1784.02	1783.02	1782.92	0.10	0	R.VSLDVMHFAPDELTVK.T
124 - 136	1655.79	1654.78	1654.74	0.03	1	K.HEERQDENGYSR.C
128 - 136	1104.61	1103.60	1103.50	0.10	0	R.QDENGYSR.C
172 - 188	1906.14	1905.13	1904.98	0.14	0	K.LATQSNEITIPVTFESR.A
189 - 198	941.52	940.51	940.50	0.01	0	R.AQLGPEAAK.S

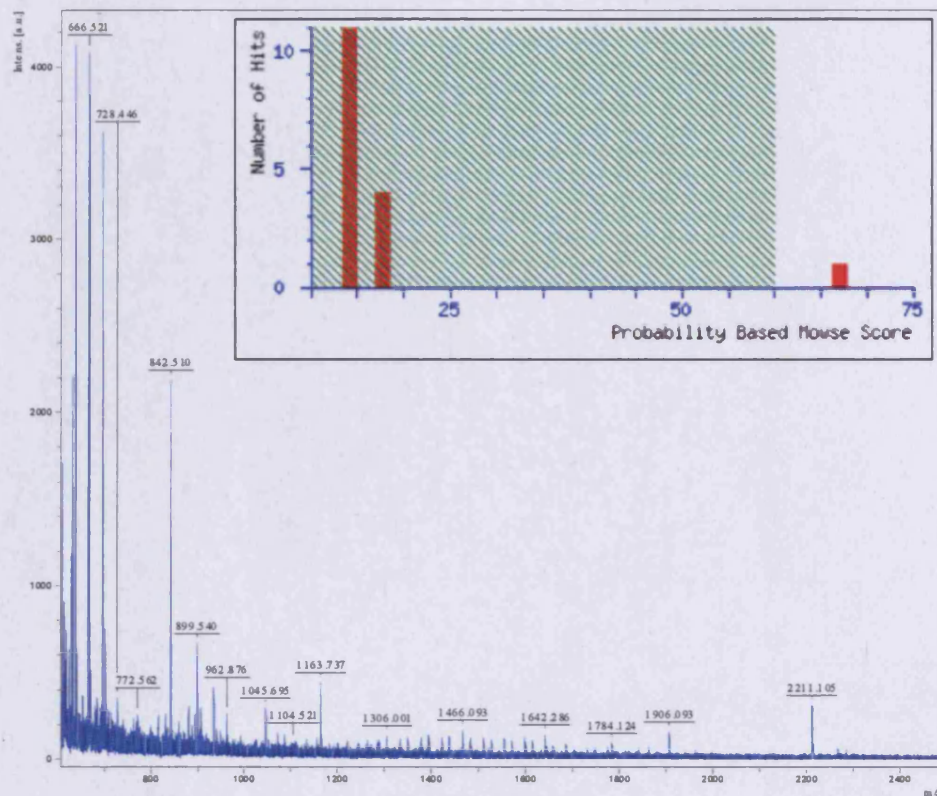
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1 MTERRVPFSL LRGPSWDPFR DWYPHSRLFD QAFGLPRLPE EWSQWLGGSS
51 WPGYVRPLPP AAIESPAVAA PAYSRALSRLQ LSSGVSEIRH TADRWRVSLD
101 VNHFADELTVKTKDGVVEI TGKHEERQDE HGYISRCFTR KYTLPPGVDP
151 TQVSSSLSPE GTLTVEAPMP KLATQSNEIT IPVTFESRAQ LGGPEAAKSD
201 ETTAAK

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## Spot 2213 HSP-27



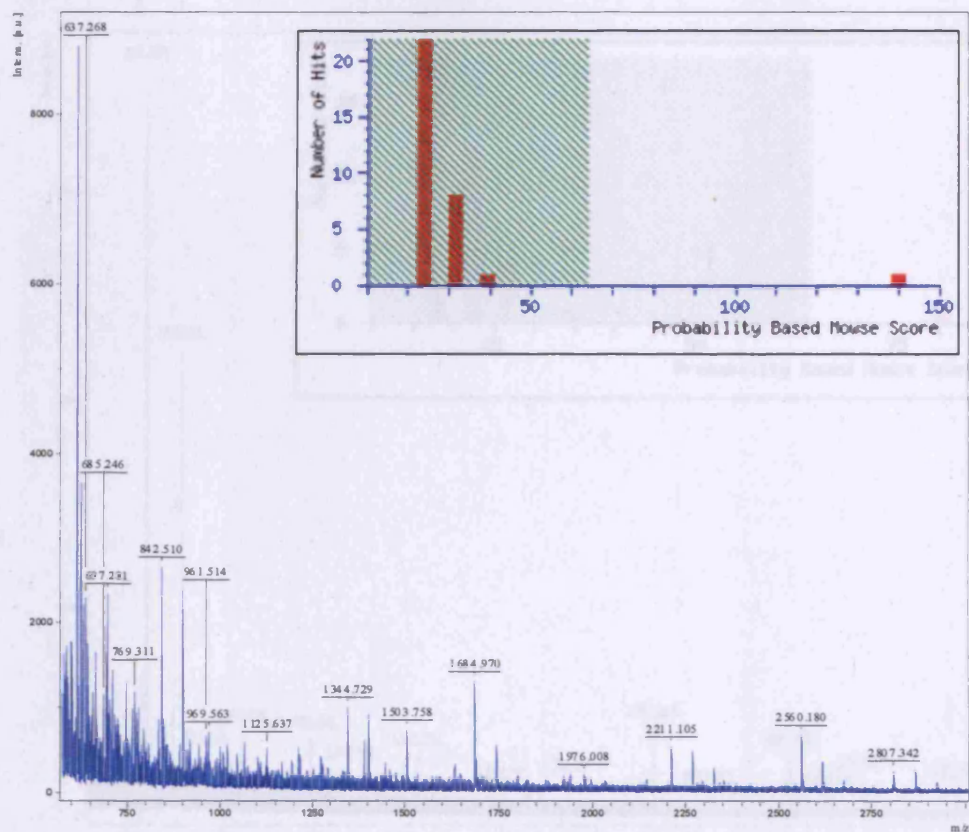
Start - End	Observed	Mr(expt)	Mr(calc)	Delta	Miss	Sequence
5 - 12	987.53	986.52	986.60	-0.08	1	R.RVPFSLLR.G
6 - 12	831.47	830.47	830.50	-0.04	0	R.VPFSLLR.G
6 - 20	1773.97	1772.96	1772.94	0.02	1	R.VPFSLLRGPSWDPR.D
13 - 20	961.45	960.44	960.45	-0.00	0	R.GPSWDPR.D
21 - 27	960.48	959.47	959.42	0.04	0	R.DWYPHSR.L
28 - 37	1163.74	1162.73	1162.61	0.12	0	R.LFDQAFGLPR.L
128 - 136	1104.52	1103.51	1103.50	0.01	0	R.QDEHGYISR.C
172 - 188	1906.09	1905.09	1904.98	0.10	0	K.LATQSNEITIPVTFESR.A
189 - 198	941.50	940.50	940.50	-0.00	0	R.AQLGGPEAAK.S

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1  MTERRVPFSL  LRGPSWDPR  DWYPHSRLFD  QAFGLPRLPE  EWSQLGGSS
51  WPGYVRPLPP  AAIESPAVAA  PAYSRALSQ  LSSGVSEIRH  TADRWRVSLD
101 VNHFAPELDT  VKTKDGVVEI  TGKHEERQDE  HGYISRCFTR  KYTLPPGVDP
151 TQVSSSLSP  GTLTVEAPMP  KLATQSNEIT  IPVTFESRAQ  LGGPEAAKSD
201 ETAAK

```

## Spot 1104 HSP-60

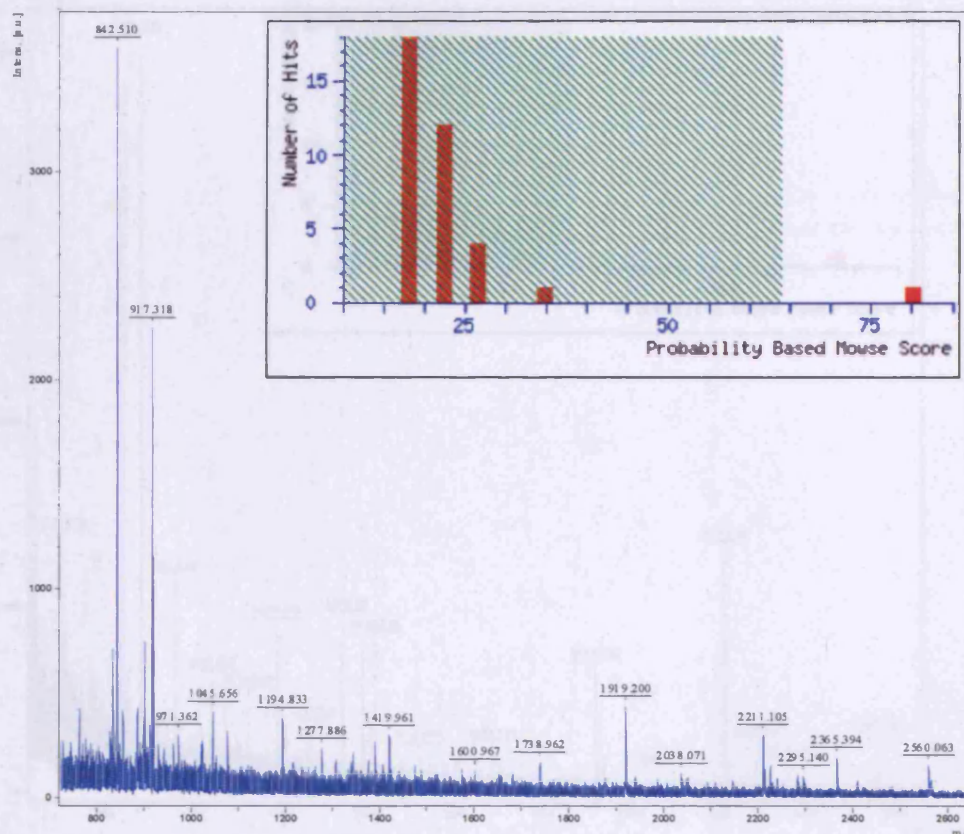


Start	End	Observed	Mr (exp)	Mr (calc)	Delta	Mass Sequence
39	37	920.50	927.49	927.49	0.00	1 K.DVKGADAR.A
38	38	2143.17	2144.16	2144.12	0.04	0 R.AJLQGVLLAAGAVVMEPE.G 2 Oxidation (H)
61	72	1344.73	1343.72	1343.71	0.01	0 R.VIIEQSWGS.V
97	121	2560.10	2559.17	2559.94	-0.07	0 R.LVQPMNTEKAGDTTATVLA.S
122	130	1000.51	1007.53	1007.53	-0.02	1 R.SIAANGDK.I
134	141	855.45	854.45	854.46	-0.01	0 R.GAMPVEI.R
206	210	1504.77	1503.76	1503.75	0.01	0 K.TLNLEDVQPH.F
206	221	1922.99	1921.99	1921.95	0.04	1 K.TLNLEDVQPH.F.G
206	221	1922.99	1927.90	1921.94	-0.04	1 K.TLNLEDVQPH.F.G Oxidation (H)
222	233	1300.72	1300.72	1300.70	0.02	0 R.VIIEQSWGS.V
251	268	1919.13	1918.12	1918.06	0.06	0 R.ISSIQSVPA.L
291	301	1153.72	1150.71	1152.76	-0.03	1 R.LVQPMNTEKAGDTTATVLA.S
302	309	833.40	832.39	832.38	0.01	0 K.AGPGDN.R
302	319	941.31	940.31	940.40	0.01	1 K.AGPGDN.R
345	352	844.52	843.51	843.51	0.00	0 K.VGVIVT.N
345	358	1638.00	1639.07	1639.00	-0.07	1 K.VGVIVT.N.G
345	359	1646.90	1645.09	1645.90	-0.01	1 K.VGVIVT.N.G Oxidation (H)
390	396	842.60	842.67	842.50	-0.03	1 K.LNEDVQPH.F
406	417	1232.64	1232.63	1232.59	0.04	0 K.VGVIVT.N
421	429	960.40	959.47	959.50	-0.03	0 R.VIIEQSWGS.V
430	446	1604.97	1603.06	1603.00	0.06	0 R.AGPGDN.R
463	470	941.01	940.00	940.01	-0.01	1 K.VIIEQSWGS.V
502	493	1215.64	1214.64	1214.65	-0.02	0 K.LVQPMNTEKAGDTTATVLA.S

1	MLRLPTVFRQ	MRPVSRLVAP	HLTRAYAKDV	KFGADARALM	LQGVLLADA
51	VAVTMGPKGR	TVIEQSWGS	PKVTKDGTV	AKSIDLKDKY	KNIGAKLVQD
101	VAHNTNEEAG	DGTTATVLA	RSIAKEGFEK	ISKAMPVEI	RRGVMLAVDA
151	VIAELKKQSK	PVTTPEEIAQ	VATISANGDK	EIGNIISDAM	KKVGRKGVIT
201	VKDGKTLNDE	LEIEGQKFD	RGYISPYFIN	TSKGQCEFO	DAYVLLSEKK
251	ISSIQSVPA	LEIANARPK	LVIIAEDVDG	EALSTLVNLR	LKVGLQVVAV
301	KAPGFGDNRK	NQLKDHAIA	GGAVFGEEGL	TLNLEDVQPH	DLGRVGEVIV
351	TKDDAMLLKG	KGDRAQIEKR	IQEIIIEQLDV	TTSEYEKEKL	NERLAKLSDG
401	VAVLKVGGS	DVEVNEKKDR	VTDALNATRA	AVEEGIVLGG	GCALLRCIPA
451	LDSLTPANED	QKIGIEIIR	TLKIPANTIA	KHAGVEGSLI	VEKIMQSSSE
501	VGVDAMAGDF	VNHVEKGIID	PTKVVRTALL	DAAGVASLLT	TAEVVTEIP
551	KEEKDPGNGA	HGGNGGGHGG	GNY		



## Spot 1060 HSP-60



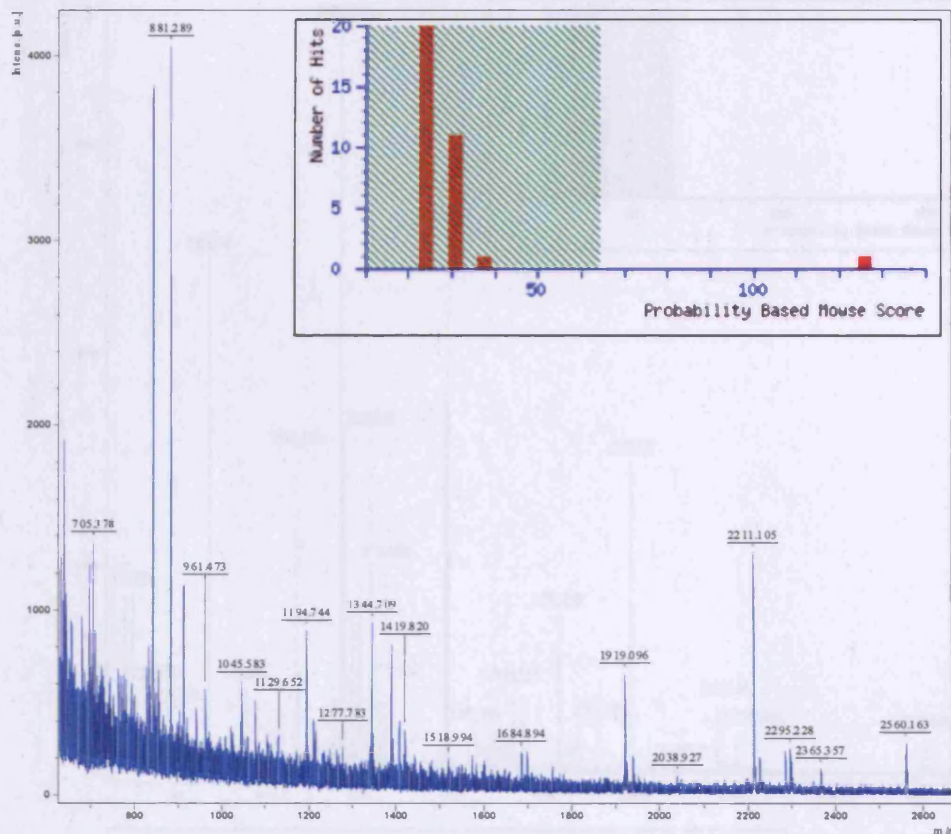
Start	End	Observed	Mr(expt)	Mr(calc)	Delta	Miss Sequence
134	141	855.44	854.43	854.46	-0.03	0 K.GANPVEIR.R
142	156	1600.97	1599.96	1599.90	0.06	1 R.RGVMLAVDAVIAELK.K Oxidation (M)
206	221	1930.91	1937.91	1937.94	-0.03	1 K.TLNDELEIIEGHVDR.G Oxidation (M)
237	249	1601.70	1600.69	1600.74	-0.05	0 K.CEPQDAYVLLSEN.K
269	290	2365.39	2364.39	2364.33	0.06	0 R.KPLVITIAEDVDGEALSTLVLR.L
291	301	1153.75	1152.75	1152.76	-0.01	1 R.LKVLQVVAVK.A
293	301	912.59	911.50	911.50	-0.09	0 K.VGLQVVAVK.A
302	309	833.38	832.37	832.30	-0.01	0 K.APGFGDNR.K
371	387	2038.07	2037.06	2037.02	0.05	0 R.IQEIIQLDVTTSEYK.E
371	389	2295.14	2294.13	2294.15	-0.02	1 R.IQEIIQLDVTTSEYK.E.L
390	396	843.51	842.50	842.50	0.01	1 K.LNERLAK.L
463	470	941.65	940.64	940.61	0.03	1 K.IGIEIIR.Y
474	481	844.50	843.49	843.49	0.01	0 K.IPAMTIAK.H

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1  MLRLPTVFRQ  MRPVSRVLAP  HLTRAYAKDV  KFGADARALM  LQGVDLLADA
51  VAVTMGPKGR  TVIIEQSWGGS  PKVTKDGVTV  AKSIDLKDKY  KNIGAKLVQD
101 VANNTNEEAG  DGTTTATVLA  RSIAGEFKEK  ISKGANPVEI  RRGVMLAVDA
151 VIAELKKQSK  PVTTPPEIAQ  VATISANGDK  EIGNIISDAM  KKVGRKGVIT
201 VKDGKTLNDE  LEIIEGHKFD  RGYISPYFIN  TSKGQKCEPQ  DAYVLLSEKK
251 ISSIQSIVPA  LEIANAHKRP  LVITIAEDVDG  EALSTLVLR  LKVLQVVAV
301 KAPGFGDNRK  NQLKDMAIAT  GGAVFGEEGL  TLNLEDVQPH  DLGKVGIVIV
351 TKDDAMLLKG  KGDKAQIEKR  IQEIIQLDV  TTSEYEKEKL  NERLAKLSDG
401 VAVLKVGGS  DVEVNEKKDR  VTDALNATRA  AVEEGIVLGG  GCALLRCIPA
451 LDSLTANED  QKIGIEIIR  TLKIPAMTIA  KNAGVEGSLI  VEKIMQSSSE
501 VGYDANAGDF  VNMVEKGIID  PTKVVRTALL  DAAGVASLLT  TAEVVVTEIP
551 KEEKDPGMGA  HGGMGGGMG  GHF

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# Spot 1082 HSP-60



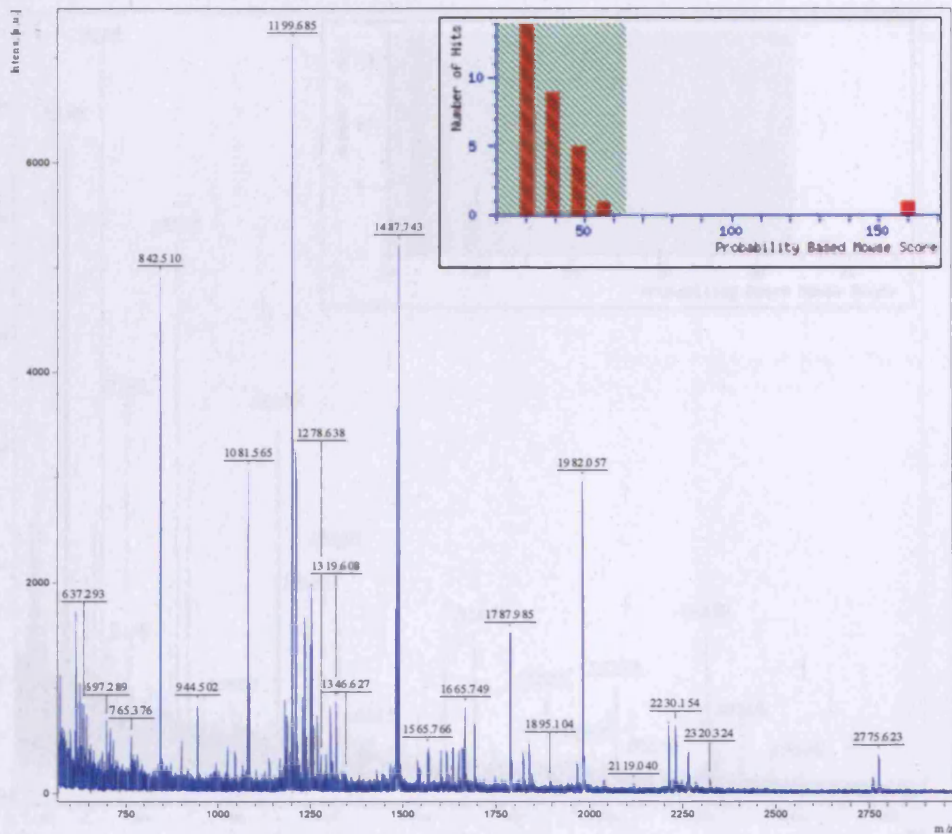
Start - End	Observed	Mr(expt)	Mr(calc)	Delta	Miss	Sequence
61 - 72	1344.71	1343.70	1343.71	-0.01	0	R.TVIEQSWGSPK.V
97 - 121	2560.16	2559.16	2559.24	-0.09	0	K.LVQDVANHTNEEAGDGTITATVLAH.S
134 - 141	855.44	854.43	854.46	-0.03	0	K.GANPVEIR.R
143 - 157	1572.96	1571.95	1571.90	0.05	1	R.GVHLAVDAVIAELKK.Q Oxidation (M)
206 - 221	1938.97	1937.96	1937.94	0.02	1	K.TLHDELEIIEGQKFD.R Oxidation (M)
222 - 233	1389.74	1388.74	1388.70	0.04	0	R.GYISPYTINTSK.G
237 - 249	1601.81	1600.80	1600.74	0.06	0	K.CEFQDAYVLLSEK.K
251 - 260	1919.10	1918.09	1918.06	0.03	0	K.ISSIQTIVPALEIAHAHR.K
269 - 290	2365.36	2364.35	2364.33	0.02	0	R.KPLVITAEVDVGEALSTLVLR.L
293 - 301	912.58	911.58	911.58	-0.00	0	K.VGLQVAVK.A
302 - 309	833.40	832.39	832.38	0.01	0	K.APGFGDKR.K
302 - 310	961.47	960.47	960.48	-0.01	1	K.APGFGDKR.N
371 - 389	2295.23	2294.22	2294.15	0.07	1	R.IQEIIQLDVTTSEYEKEK.L
397 - 405	901.53	900.53	900.53	-0.00	0	K.LSDGVAVK.V
430 - 446	1684.89	1683.89	1683.90	-0.01	0	R.AAVEEGIVLGGCALLR.C
463 - 470	941.59	940.59	940.61	-0.02	1	K.IGIEIIEK.T
482 - 493	1215.60	1214.59	1214.65	-0.06	0	K.MAGVEGSLIVEK.I

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1  HLRLPTVFRQ  HRPVSRVLAP  HLTRAYAKDV  KFGADARALM  LQGVDELLADA
51  VAVTHGPKGR  TVIEQSWGS  PKVTKDGVTV  AKSIDLKDKY  KNIGAKLVQD
101 VANHTNEEAG  DGTITATVLA  RSIKEGFEEK  ISKGANPVEI  RRGVHLAVDA
151 VIAELKKQSK  PVTTPPEEIAQ  VATISANGDK  EIGNIISDAN  KKVGRKGVIT
201 VKDGKTLNDE  LEIEGQKFD  RGYISPYFIN  TSKGQRCFQ  DAYVLLSEKK
251 ISSIQTIVPA  LEIAHAHRKP  LVIAEDVDG  EALSTLVLR  LKVGLQVAV
301 KAPGFGDKRK  NQLKDHAIAT  GGAVFGEEGL  TLNLEDVOPH  DLGKVGIVIV
351 TKDDAMLLKG  KGDKAQIEKR  IQEIIQLDV  TTSEYEKEKL  NERLAKLSDG
401 VAVLKVGGS  DVEVNEKKDR  VTDALNATPA  AVEEGIVLGG  GCALLRCIPA
451 LDSLTAPANED  QKIGIEIIEK  TLKIPAMTIA  MAGVEGSLI  VEKINQSSSE
501 VGYDAMAGDF  VNHVEKGIID  PTKVVRTALL  DAAGVASLLT  TAEVVVTEIP
551 KEEKDPGNGA  HGGMGGGNGG  GHF

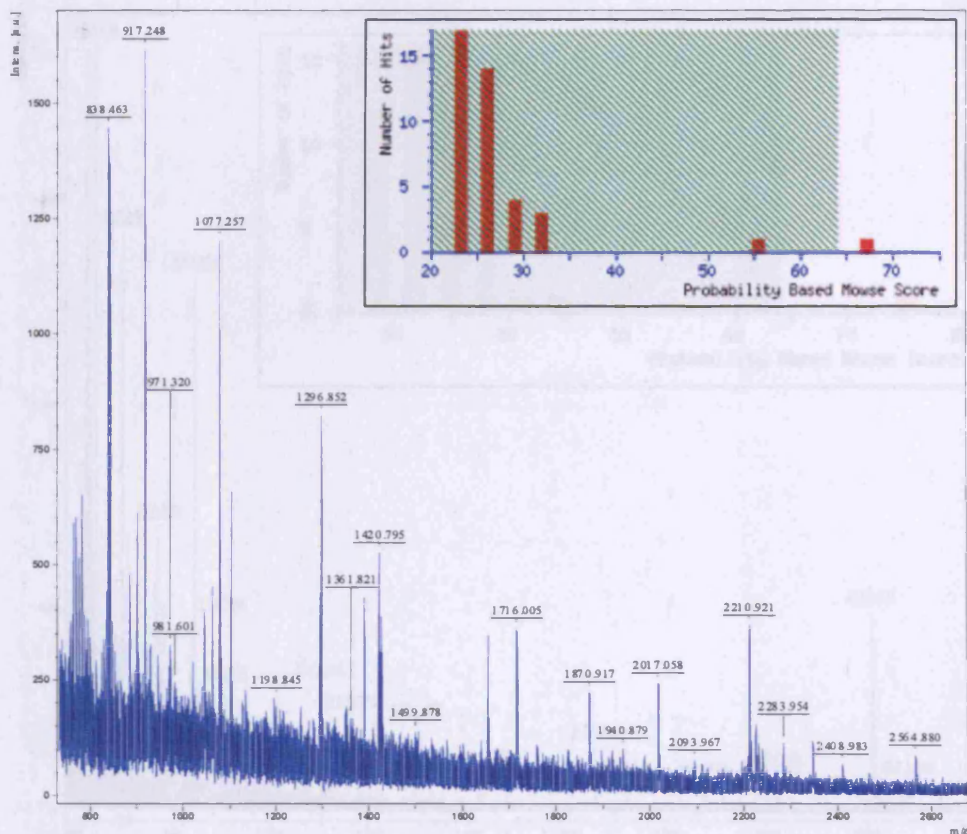
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[illegible]



## Spot 1736 Maspin precursor



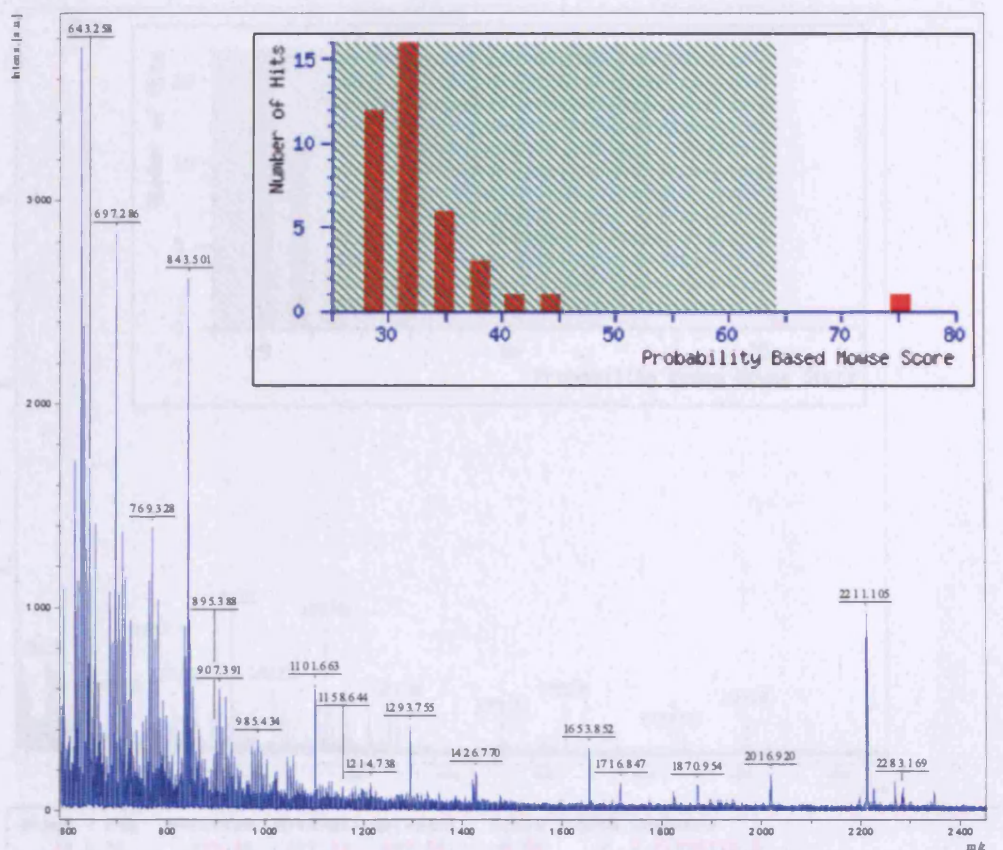
Start - End	Observed	Mr(expt)	Mr(calc)	Delta	Miss	Sequence
2 - 22	2239.99	2238.99	2239.09	-0.11	0	H.GQNSMDALQLANSFAVDLPK.Q
53 - 69	1870.92	1869.91	1869.92	-0.01	0	K.GDTANEIGQVLHFENVK.D
70 - 84	1653.94	1652.93	1652.80	0.13	0	K.DVPFGFQTIVSDVMK.L
85 - 92	944.34	943.34	943.50	0.03	0	K.LSSFYSLK.L
143 - 163	2346.04	2345.04	2345.08	-0.04	0	K.DLTDGHFENILADNSVNDQTK.I
164 - 170	1739.01	1738.00	1737.96	0.04	1	K.ILVVMAAYTVGQMK.K
221 - 229	1101.70	1100.69	1100.62	0.07	0	K.IIELPFQNK.H
230 - 239	1214.79	1213.79	1213.69	0.10	0	K.MLSMFILLPK.D Oxidation (N)
254 - 273	2222.07	2221.06	2222.03	-0.16	0	K.QLNSESLSQWTNPSTMAK.V Oxidation (N)
300 - 316	1917.89	1916.87	1916.81	0.06	0	K.NIPSEDYSDFSQSEYK.G
300 - 316	1934.00	1932.99	1932.80	0.18	0	K.NIPSEDYSDFSQSEYK.G Oxidation (N)
327 - 343	2017.06	2016.05	2015.95	0.10	0	K.VCLEIYEDGGDSIEVPGAR.I
351 - 364	1716.01	1715.00	1714.87	0.13	0	K.DELNADHPFIYIIR.M
370 - 376	838.46	837.46	837.47	-0.02	0	R.NIIFPGK.F

```

1  MGQNSMDALQ LANSFAVDL FKQLCEKEPL GNVLFSPICL STSLSLAQVG
51 AKGDTANEIG QVLHFENVKD VPFGEFQTIVS DVNKLSSFYS LKLIKRLYVD
101 KSLNLSTEFI SSTKRPYAKE LETVDFKDKL EETKGQINNS IKDLTDGHFE
151 NILADNSVND QTKILVVNAA YFVGKWKMKF PESETKECPF RLNKTDTKPV
201 QMMNVMEATFC MGNIDSINCK IIELPFQNKH LSMFILLPKD VEDESTGLEK
251 IEKQLNSESLSQWTNPSTMA NAKVKLSIPK FKVEKNIDPK ACLENLGLKH
301 IFSEDTSDFS GMSETKGVAL SNVIHKVCLE ITEDGGDSIE VPGARILQHK
351 DELNADHPFI YIIRHNKTRN IIFPGKFCSP

```

## Spot 1729 Maspin precursor



Start - End	Observed	Mr(expt)	Mr(calc)	Delta	Miss	Sequence
48 - 64	1870.93	1869.95	1869.92	0.03	0	K.GDTANEICQVLHFNVK.D
88 - 87	944.48	943.47	943.50	-0.03	0	K.LSSFYSLK.I
97 - 189	1426.77	1425.76	1425.74	0.03	0	K.SLHLSTEFISSTR.R
138 - 138	2346.15	2345.14	2345.08	0.06	0	K.DLTDGHEMILADHSVNDQTK.I
159 - 170	1293.76	1292.75	1292.75	-0.00	0	K.ILVVMAAYTVGK.W
159 - 173	1738.99	1737.99	1737.96	0.02	1	K.ILVVMAAYTVGQKQK.K
182 - 189	1063.48	1062.47	1062.53	-0.06	1	K.ECPFRLNK.T
216 - 224	1101.66	1100.66	1100.62	0.03	0	K.IIELPFQKQK.H
223 - 234	1198.64	1197.64	1197.69	-0.06	0	K.HLSMFILLPK.D
223 - 234	1214.74	1213.73	1213.69	0.04	0	K.HLSMFILLPK.D Oxidation (M)
249 - 268	2222.98	2221.97	2222.03	-0.05	0	K.QLNSESLSQWTHPSTMAKAK.V Oxidation (M)
295 - 311	1917.99	1916.98	1916.81	0.17	0	K.HIPSEDYSPFGHSETK.G
295 - 311	1917.78	1916.77	1916.81	-0.04	0	K.HIPSEDYSPFGHSETK.G
295 - 311	1933.00	1932.87	1932.80	0.06	0	K.HIPSEDYSPFGHSETK.G Oxidation (M)
322 - 340	2016.92	2015.91	2015.95	-0.03	0	K.VCLEITEDGGDSIEVPGAR.I
346 - 359	1715.08	1714.87	1714.87	0.01	0	K.DELNADHPFIYIIR.H
365 - 371	838.47	837.46	837.47	-0.01	0	R.HIIPTGK.F
365 - 375	1329.66	1328.66	1328.66	-0.00	1	R.HIIPTGKFCSP.-

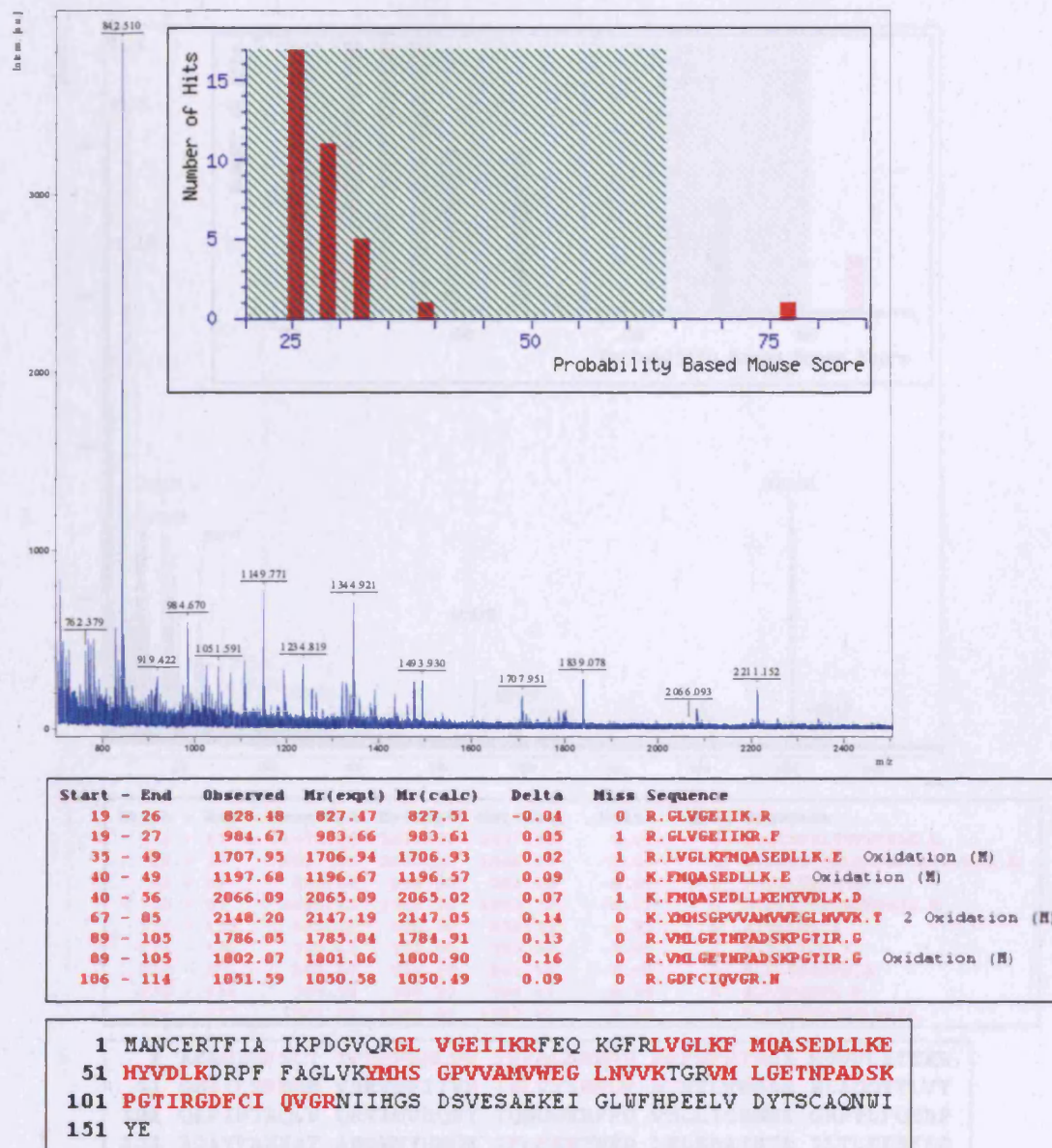
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1 MDALQLANSA FAVDLFRQLC EKEPLGNVLF SPICLSTSLA LAQVGAKGDT
51 ANEIGQVLHF ENVKDIPFGF QTVTSDVNKL SSFYSLKLIK RLYVDKSLNL
101 STEFISSTRK PYAKELETVD FKDKLEETKG QINNSIKDLT DGHFENILAD
151 NSVNDQTKIL VVMAAYTVGK WKKKFPESST KECPPRLNKT DTKPVQMHNN
201 EATFCHGNID SINCKIIELP FQNKQLSMFI LLPKDVEDS TGLEKIEKQL
251 NSESLSQWTH PSTMANAKVK LSIPKFKVEK MIDPKACLEN LGLKHIFSED
301 TSDFGHSET KGVALSNVIH KVCLEITEDG GDSIEVPGAR ILQHKDELHA
351 DHPFIYIIRH NKTRNIIFPG KFCSP

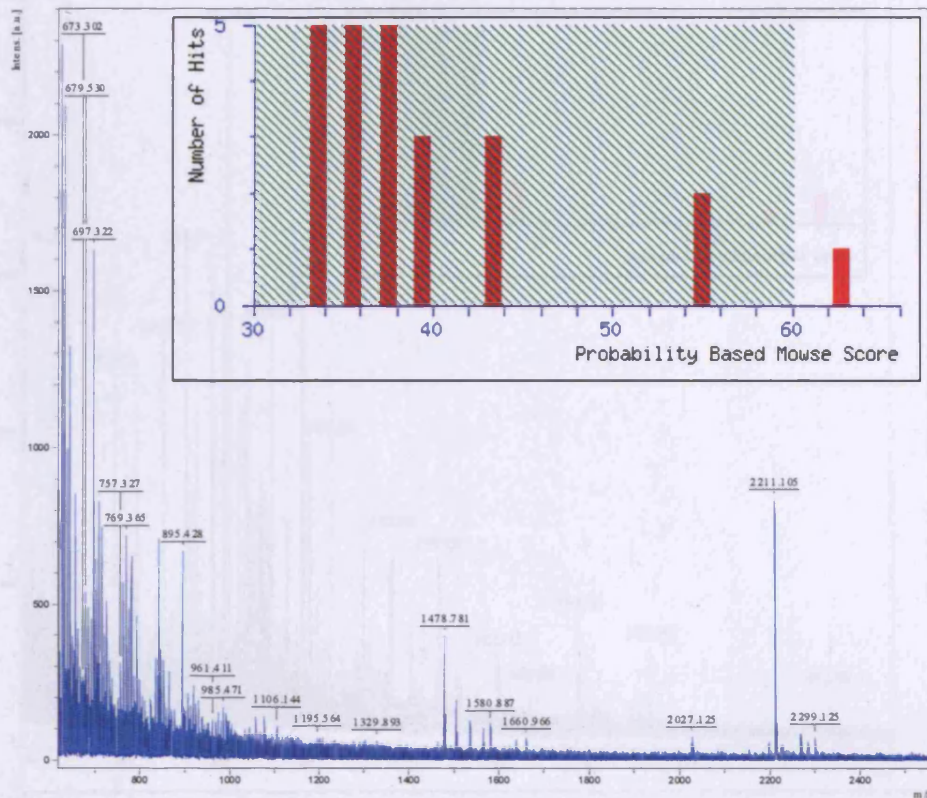
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## Spot 2507 Nucleoside diphosphate kinase A



## Spot 2248 Proteasome alpha 2 subunit



Start - End	Observed	Mr(expt)	Mr(calc)	Delta	Miss	Sequence
4 - 17	1478.78	1477.77	1477.71	-0.07	0	R.GYSFSLTTFSPSGK.L
18 - 38	2027.13	2026.12	2026.15	-0.03	0	K.LVQIEYALAAVAGGAPSVGIK.A
53 - 59	895.43	894.42	894.44	-0.02	0	K.SILYDER.S
70 - 83	1564.75	1563.74	1563.75	-0.01	0	K.HIGLVYSQMGPDYR.V
171 - 175	637.31	636.30	636.35	-0.05	0	K.TFLEK.R
171 - 176	793.41	792.40	792.45	-0.05	1	K.TFLEKR.Y
219 - 226	943.54	942.53	942.55	-0.02	1	R.RLTPTVEK.D
220 - 226	787.38	786.37	786.45	-0.08	0	R.LTPTVEK.D
220 - 233	1504.83	1503.82	1503.82	0.00	1	R.LTPTVEKDYLAAIA.-

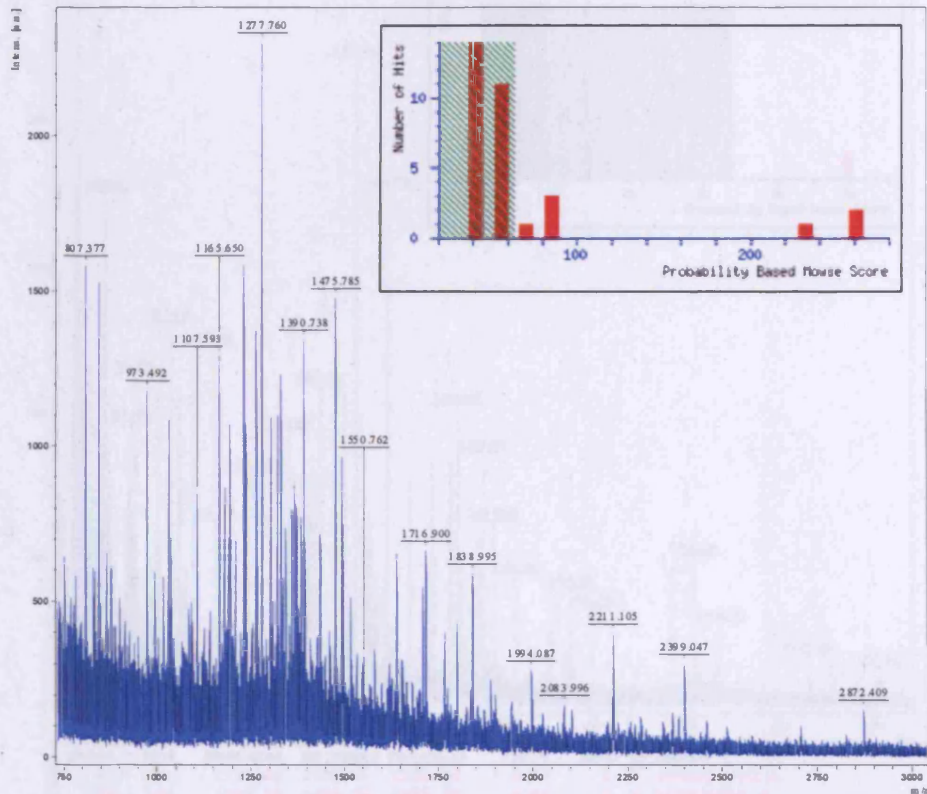
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1 AERGYSFSLT TFSPSGKLVQ IEYALAAVAG GAPSVGIKAA NGVVLATEKK
51 QKSILYDERS VHKVEPITKH IGLVYSQMGPDYRVLVHRAR KLAQQYYLVY
101 QEPIPTAQLV QRVASVMQEQY TQSGGVRPFG VSLICGWNE GRPYLFQSDP
151 SGAYFAWKAT ANGKNYVNGK TFLEKRYNED LELEDAIHTA ILTLKESFEG
201 QMTEDNIEVG ICNEAGFRRL TPTEVKDYLAAIA

```



## Spot 1204 Protein disulfide-isomerase A3 precursor



Start - End	Observed	Mr(expt)	Mr(calc)	Delta	Miss	Sequence
21 - 38	1994.09	1993.08	1992.96	0.12	0	R.LVAASDVLELITDDNFESR.I
63 - 73	1191.65	1190.64	1190.59	0.05	0	R.LAPEYEAAATR.L
105 - 119	1652.83	1651.82	1651.76	0.07	1	K.IFRDGEAGAYDGPR.T
174 - 183	1179.66	1178.65	1178.58	0.07	1	K.AASHLRDHYR.F
259 - 271	1619.82	1618.82	1618.78	0.04	0	K.DLLIAYYDVDEK.H
297 - 304	877.47	876.46	876.40	-0.02	0	K.LNFVAVSR.K
336 - 344	1172.60	1171.60	1171.53	0.06	0	K.FVMQEEFSR.D
352 - 363	1515.87	1514.86	1514.75	0.11	1	R.FLQDYFDGHLKR.Y
380 - 395	1833.04	1832.03	1831.90	0.13	0	K.VVAENFDEIVNENK.D
434 - 448	1680.69	1679.68	1679.75	-0.06	0	K.MDATANDVPSFYEV.R Oxidation (R)
449 - 460	1341.71	1340.70	1340.68	0.02	0	R.GPPTIYFSPANK.K
462 - 466	599.44	598.43	598.38	0.05	1	K.LNPKK.Y
472 - 482	1370.82	1369.81	1369.69	0.12	0	R.ELSDFISYLQR.E
483 - 496	1579.92	1578.91	1578.83	0.09	0	R.EATNPPVIQEEKPK.K
483 - 497	1707.84	1706.83	1706.92	-0.09	1	R.EATNPPVIQEEKPK.K

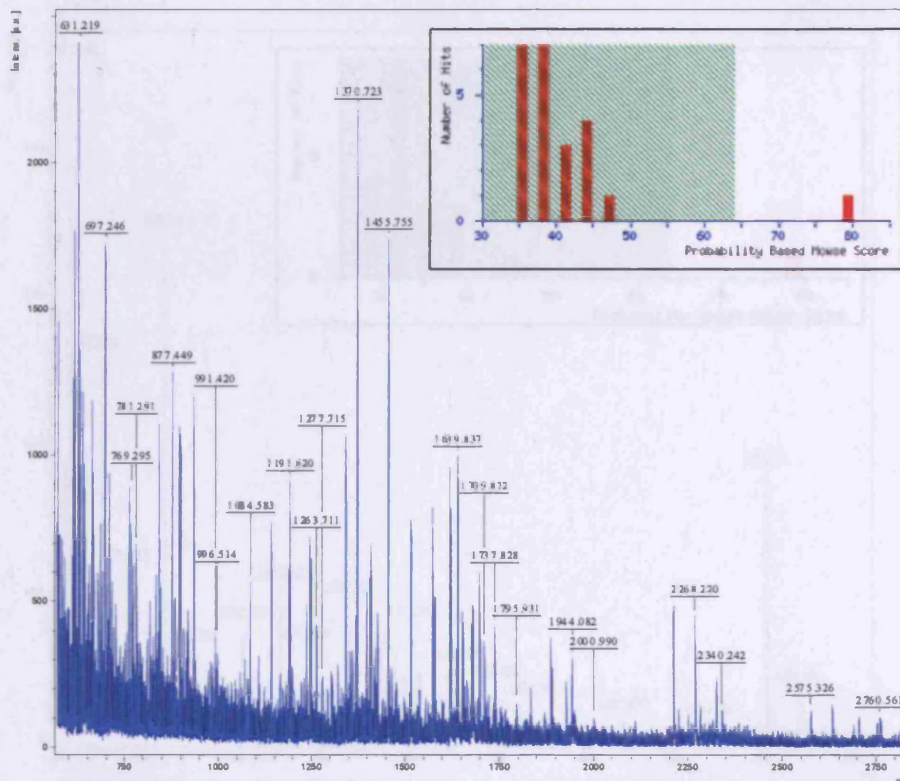
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1 MRLRRLLALFP GVALLLAAGR LVAASDVLEL TDDNFESRIS DTGSAGLMLV
51 EFFAPWCGHC KRLAPEYEAA ATRLKGIIVPL AKVDCTANTN TCNKYGVSGY
101 PTLKIFRDGE EAGAYDGPR ADGIVSHLKK QAGPASVPLR TEEFKKFIS
151 DKDASIVGFF DDSFSEAHSE FLKAASNLRD NYRFAHTNVE SLVNEYDDNG
201 EGIILFRPSH LTNKFEDKTV AYTEQKMTSG KIKKFIQENI FGICPHNTD
251 NKDLIQGKDL LIAYYDVDEY KNAKGSNYWR NRVNMAKKF LDAGHKLNEA
301 VASRKTPSHE LSDFGLESTA GEIPVVAIRT AKGEKFMQEE EFSRDGKALE
351 RFLQDYFDGN LKRYLKSEPI PESNDGPVKV VVAENFDEIV NENKDVLEIE
401 FYAPWCGHCK NLEPKYKELG EKLSKDPNIV IAKMDATAND VPSFYEVGRF
451 PTIYFSPANK KLNPKKYEGG RELSDFISYL QREATNPPVI QEEKPKKKKK
501 AQEDL

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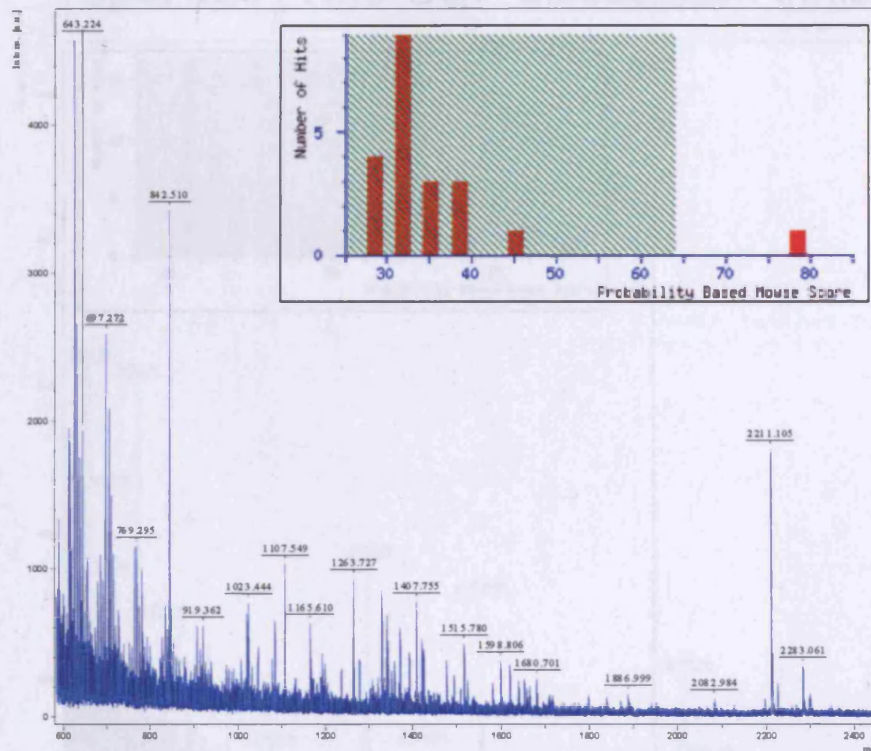
## Spot 1216 Protein disulfide-isomerase A3 precursor



Start - End	Observed	Nr(expt)	Nr(calc)	Delta	Miss	Sequence
63 - 73	1191.62	1190.61	1190.59	0.02	0	R.LAPEYEAAAT.R.L
95 - 104	1084.58	1083.50	1083.56	0.02	0	K.YGVSGYPTLK.I
105 - 119	1652.82	1651.81	1651.76	0.05	1	K.IFRDGEAGAYDGPR.Y
108 - 119	1236.59	1235.58	1235.51	0.08	0	R.DGEAGAYDGPR.Y
215 - 226	1427.73	1426.72	1426.70	0.02	1	K.FEDKTVAYTEPK.H
297 - 304	877.45	876.44	876.48	-0.04	0	K.LHFVAVSR.K
306 - 329	2575.33	2574.32	2574.30	0.02	0	K.TFSMELSDFGLESTAGEIPVVAIR.Y
336 - 344	1172.48	1171.47	1171.53	-0.06	0	K.FVMQEEFSR.D
336 - 344	1188.56	1187.55	1187.53	0.02	0	K.FVMQEEFSR.D Oxidation (M)
352 - 362	1359.67	1358.67	1358.65	0.02	0	R.FLQDYFDGMLK.R
352 - 363	1515.78	1514.78	1514.75	0.03	1	R.FLQDYFDGMLK.Y
367 - 379	1368.63	1367.63	1367.66	-0.03	0	K.SEPFESNDGPVK.V
388 - 395	1833.01	1832.01	1831.90	0.11	0	K.VVVAENFDEIVNENK.D
434 - 448	1664.80	1663.79	1663.75	0.04	0	K.MDATAMVPSPEVR.G
434 - 448	1680.84	1679.84	1679.75	0.09	0	K.MDATAMVPSPEVR.G Oxidation (M)
449 - 460	1341.70	1340.69	1340.60	0.02	0	R.GFPYIFSPANK.K
472 - 482	1370.72	1369.72	1369.69	0.03	0	R.ELSDFISYLQR.E
483 - 496	1579.84	1578.84	1578.83	0.01	0	R.EATHPPVIQEEKPK.K

1	NRLRLALFP	GVALLAAAR	LAAASDVLEL	TDNFESRIS	DTGSAGMLV
51	EFFAPUCGHC	KRLAPEYEAA	ATRLKGIVPL	AKVDCTANTN	TCNKYGVSGY
101	PTLKIPRDGE	EAGAYDGPR	ADGIVSHLKK	QAGPASVPLR	TEEFKKFIS
151	DKDASIVGFF	DDSFSEAHSE	FLKAASNLRD	NYRFANTNVE	SLVNEYDDNG
201	EGIILFRPST	LTNKFEDKTV	AYTEPKHTSG	KIKKFIQWNI	FGICPHNTD
251	NKDLIQKDL	LIAYYDVDE	KNAGSNYWR	NRVMVAKKF	LDAGHKLMEFA
301	VASRKTFSE	LSDFGLESTA	GEIPVVAIR	AKGEKFMQEE	FSRDGKALE
351	RFLQDYFDG	LKRYLKSEPI	PESNDGPVK	VVAENFDEIV	NMENKDVLI
401	FYAPWCGHCK	NLEPKYKELG	EKLKSDPNIV	IAKMDATAM	VPSPEVRGF
451	PTIYFSPANK	KLNPKKYEGG	RELSDFISYL	QREATNPPVI	QEEKPKKKK
501	AQEDL				

## Spot 1178 Protein disulfide-isomerase ER60 precursor

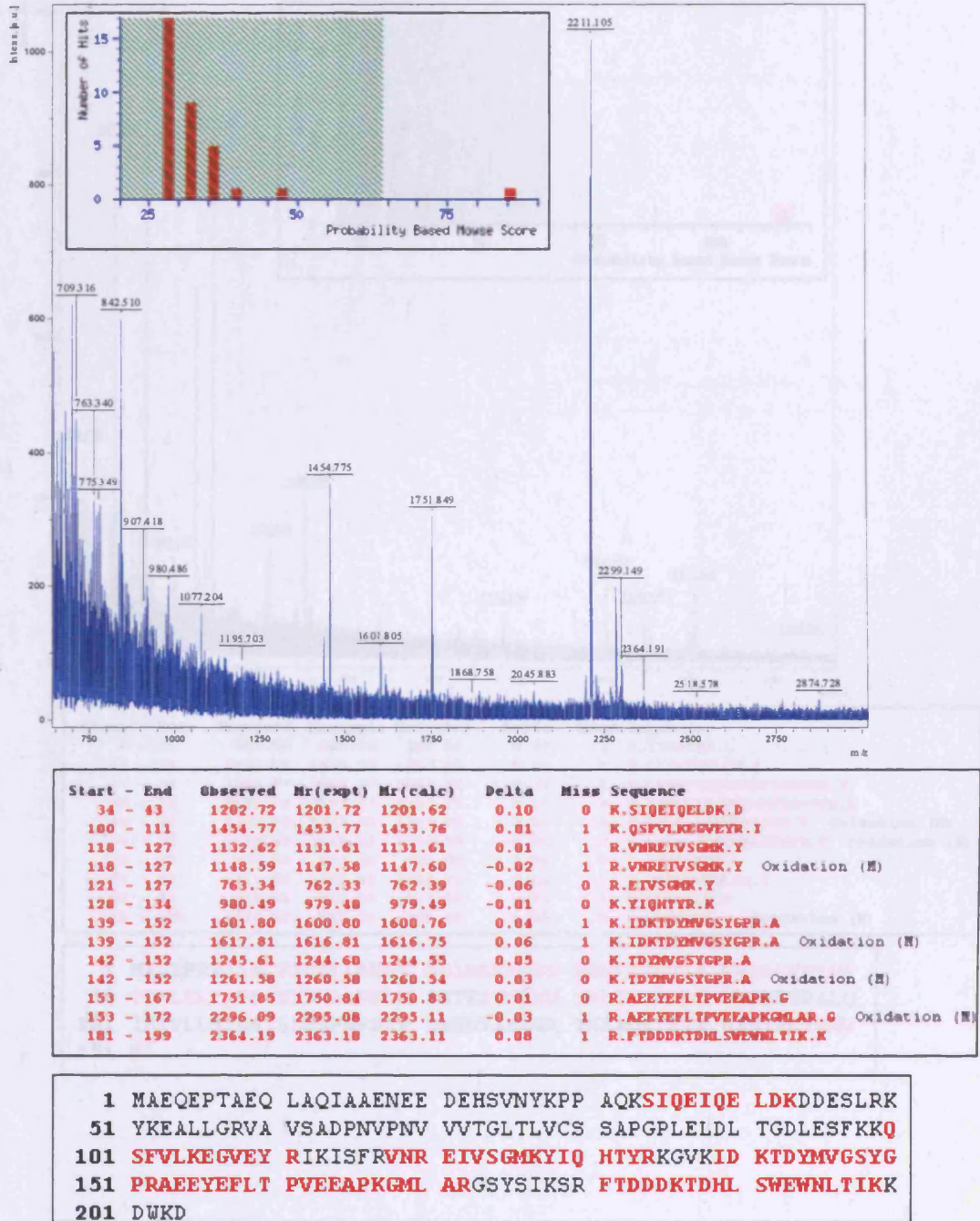


Start - End	Observed	Mr(expt)	Mr(calc)	Delta	Miss	Sequence
63 - 73	1191.62	1190.61	1190.59	0.01	0	R.LAPEYEAAATR.L
95 - 104	1084.57	1083.56	1083.56	0.00	0	K.YGVSGYPTLK.I
105 - 119	1652.84	1651.83	1651.76	0.07	1	K.IFRDGEZAGAYDGR.Y
259 - 271	1619.79	1618.79	1618.78	0.01	0	K.DLLIAYDVDYEK.N
352 - 363	1515.78	1514.77	1514.75	0.02	1	R.FLQDYFDGNLKR.Y
434 - 448	1664.83	1663.82	1663.75	0.07	0	K.NDATAADVSPYEV.R.G
434 - 448	1680.70	1679.69	1679.75	-0.05	0	K.NDATAADVSPYEV.R.G Oxidation (M)
449 - 460	1341.68	1340.67	1340.68	-0.00	0	R.GPTIYFSPANK.K
472 - 482	1370.70	1369.69	1369.69	0.00	0	R.ELSDFIISYLQR.E
483 - 496	1579.82	1578.81	1578.83	-0.01	0	R.EATMPPVIQEEKPK.K

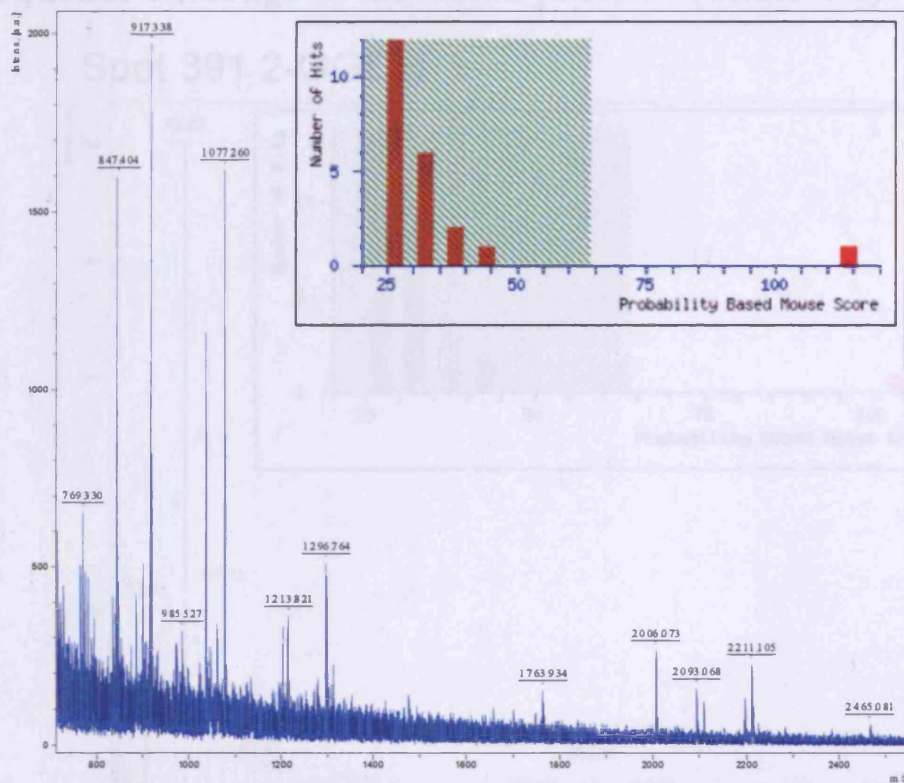
1	MRLLRLALFP	GVALLAAAR	LAAASDVLEL	TDNFESRIS	DTGSAGLEML
51	EFFAPVCGHC	KRLAPEYEA	ATRLKGIVPL	AKVDCTANTN	TCKYGVSGY
101	PTLKIFRDGE	EAGAYDGR	ADGIIVSHLKK	QAGPASVPLR	TEEEFKKFI
151	DKDASIVGFF	DDSFSEAHSE	FLKAASNLRD	NYRFANTNVE	SLVNEYDNG
201	EGILFRPSH	LTKNFEDKTV	AYTEPKHTSG	KIKKFIQNI	FGICPHNTE
251	NKDLIQGKDL	LLIAYDVDYE	KNAGGSNYUR	NRVHVAKKF	LDAGEKLNPF
301	VASRKTFPSHE	LSDFGLESTA	GEIPVVAIRT	AKGEKFMQE	EFSRDGKALI
351	RFLQDYFDGN	LKRYLKSEPI	PESNDGPVKV	VVAENFDEIV	NNENKDVLI
401	FYAPVCGHCK	NLEPKYKELG	EKLKDPNIV	IARDATAADV	VPSPYEVGR
451	PTIYFSPANK	KLNPCKYEGG	RELSDFIISYL	QREATMPPVI	QEEKPKKKK
501	AQEDL				



## Spot 2254 Rho-GDP-dissociation inhibitor 1



## Spot 2518 Ubiquitin-conjugating enzyme E2N



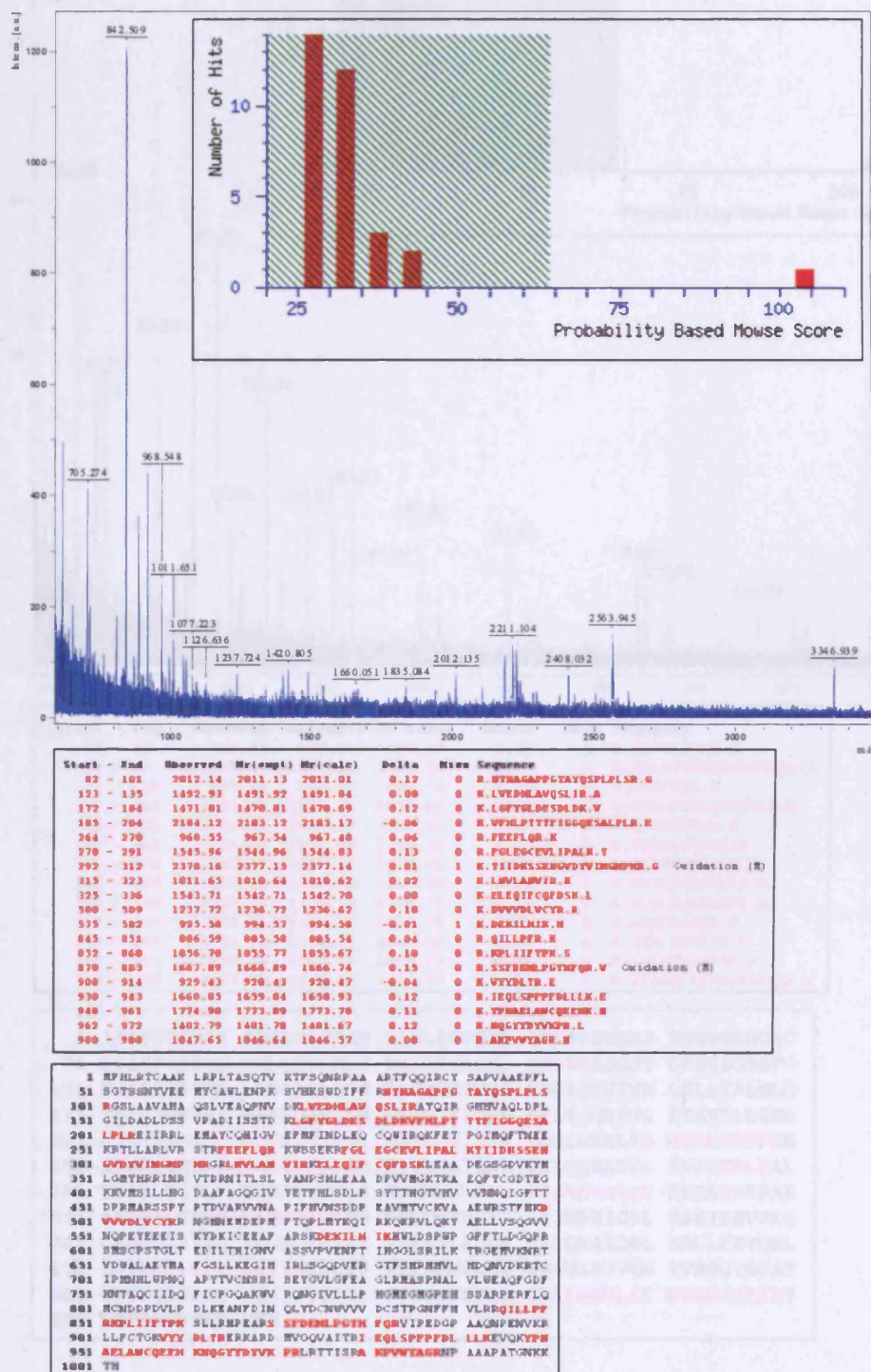
Start - End	Observed	Mr(expt)	Mr(calc)	Delta	Miss Sequence
8 - 14	887.56	886.55	886.52	0.03	1 R.IIKETQR.L
15 - 24	1036.70	1035.69	1035.63	0.06	0 R.LLAEPVPGIK.A
15 - 33	2006.07	2005.07	2005.05	0.02	1 R.LLAEPVPGIKAEFDESNAK.Y
34 - 53	2196.24	2195.23	2195.07	0.16	0 R.YFHVVIAGPQDSPFEGGK.L
54 - 68	1763.93	1762.93	1762.89	0.04	0 K.LELFLPEEYFMAAPK.V Oxidation (M)
54 - 70	2019.05	2018.04	2018.05	-0.01	1 K.LELFLPEEYFMAAPK.R Oxidation (M)
75 - 82	985.53	984.52	984.50	0.02	0 K.IYGPVNDK.L
75 - 85	1311.83	1310.82	1310.71	0.12	1 K.IYGPVNDKLR.I
86 - 92	874.54	873.53	873.50	0.03	0 R.ICLDILK.D
146 - 152	854.39	853.38	853.40	-0.02	0 R.IYAMNMI.- Oxidation (M)

1 MAGLPRIIK ETQRLAEPV PGIKAEPDES NARYFHVVIAGPQDSPFEGG  
 51 TFKLEFLPE EYPMAAPKVR FMTKIYHPNV DKLGRIKLDI LKDKWSPALQ  
 101 IRTVLLSIQA LLSAPNPDDP LANDVAEQVK TNEAQAIETA RAWTRLIYAMN  
 151 NI



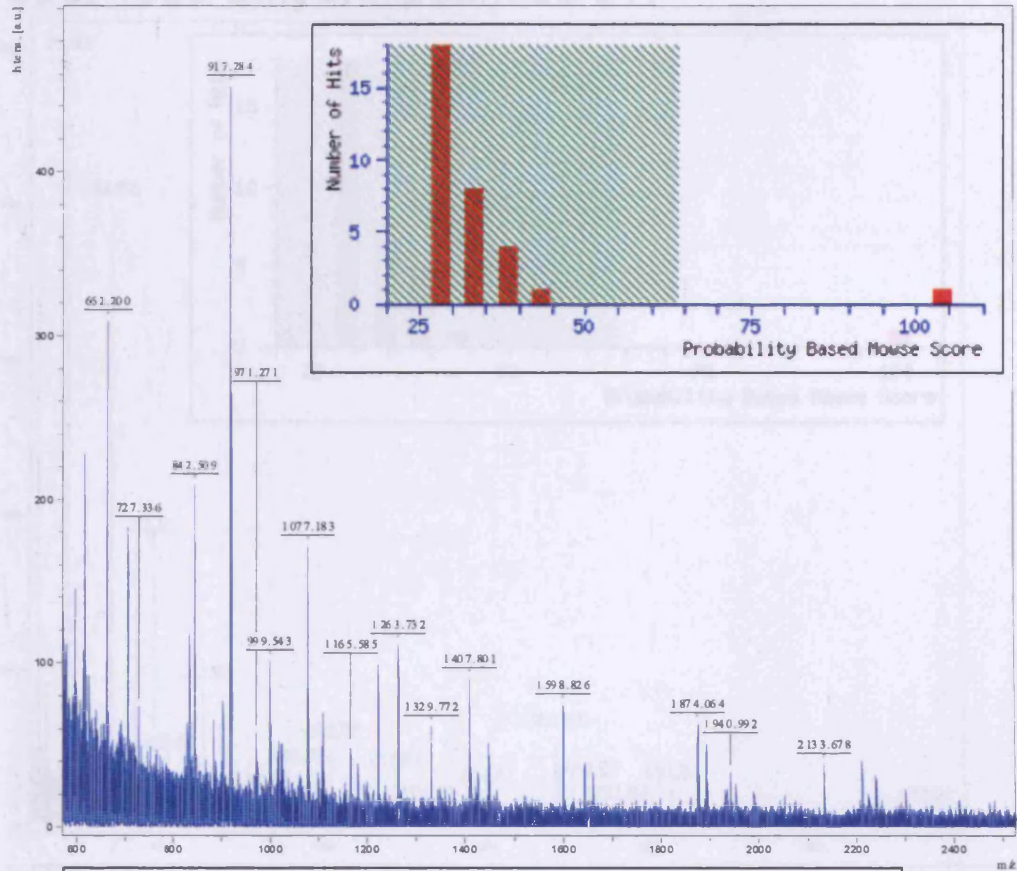
## Appendix D--Spectra, MOWSE scores, matched peptide and sequence coverage of identified proteins (Table 4-2)

### Spot 391 2-OGDH





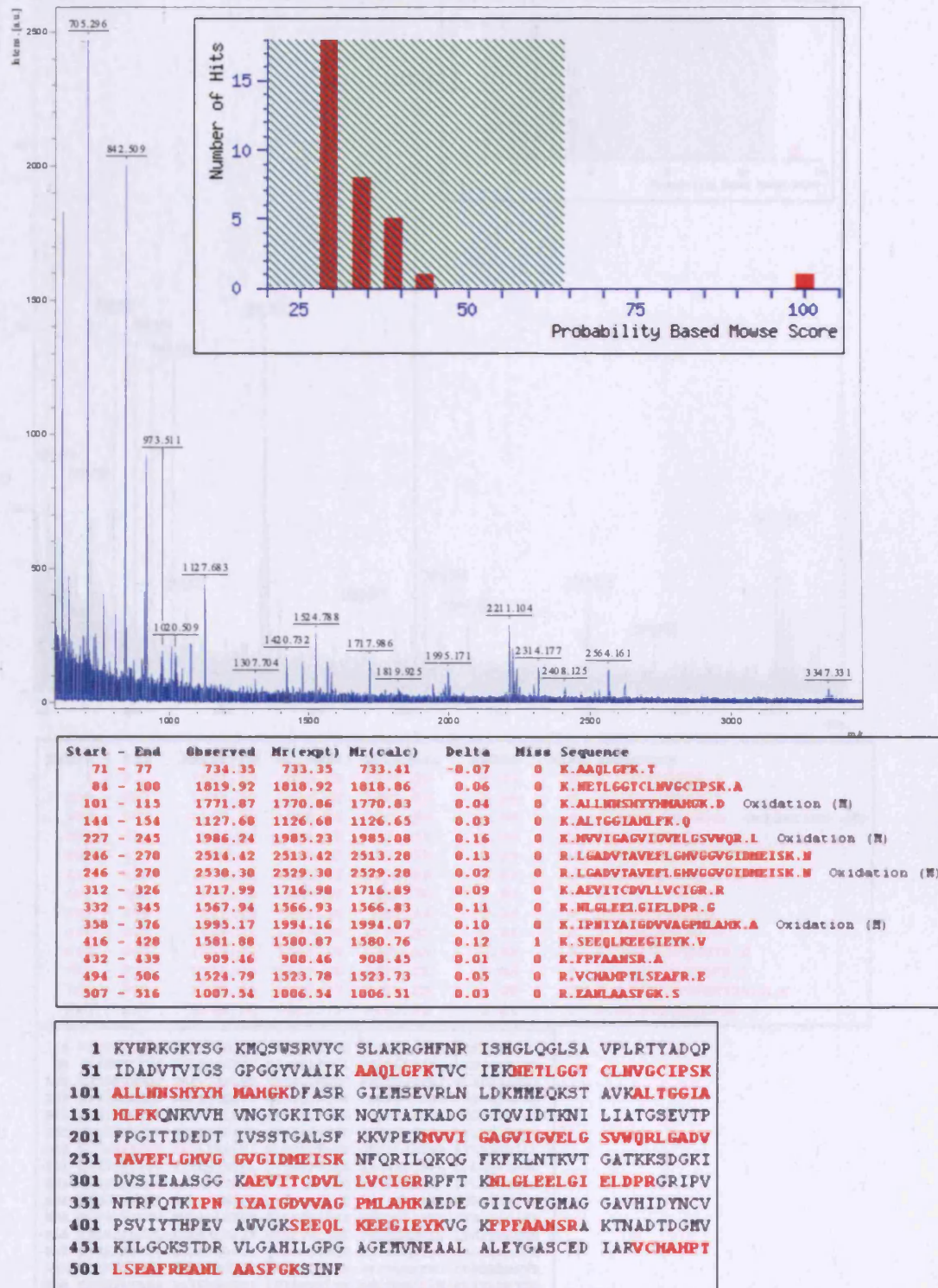
## Spot 1123 Cytokeratin 6A



Start - End	Observed	Mr(expt)	Mr(calc)	Delta	Miss Sequence
59 - 67	881.47	880.46	880.47	-0.00	0 R.SLYGLGSK.R
69 - 85	1398.83	1397.82	1397.73	0.07	0 R.ISIGGGSCAISGGYSR.A
173 - 179	827.43	826.42	826.42	0.00	0 K.FASFDK.V
207 - 221	1891.02	1890.81	1889.96	0.05	0 R.QHLEPLFEQYINHL.R
223 - 231	1016.51	1015.50	1015.53	-0.03	0 R.QLDSIVGER.G
240 - 249	1181.60	1180.59	1180.54	0.05	0 R.QMDLVEDFK.N
260 - 270	1222.68	1221.67	1221.62	0.05	0 R.TAAHEFVTLK.K
287 - 298	1407.80	1406.79	1406.70	0.09	0 K.ADTLYDEINFLR.A
326 - 337	1329.77	1328.76	1328.72	0.05	0 R.MLDLSIIAEVK.A
338 - 346	1107.58	1106.57	1106.54	0.04	0 K.AQYEEIAQR.S
359 - 368	1165.59	1164.58	1164.58	0.00	0 K.YEELQVTAGR.N
455 - 465	1263.73	1262.73	1262.69	0.04	0 K.LALDVELATYR.K
533 - 549	1447.82	1446.82	1446.77	0.05	0 R.AIGGGLSSVGGGSSTIK.Y

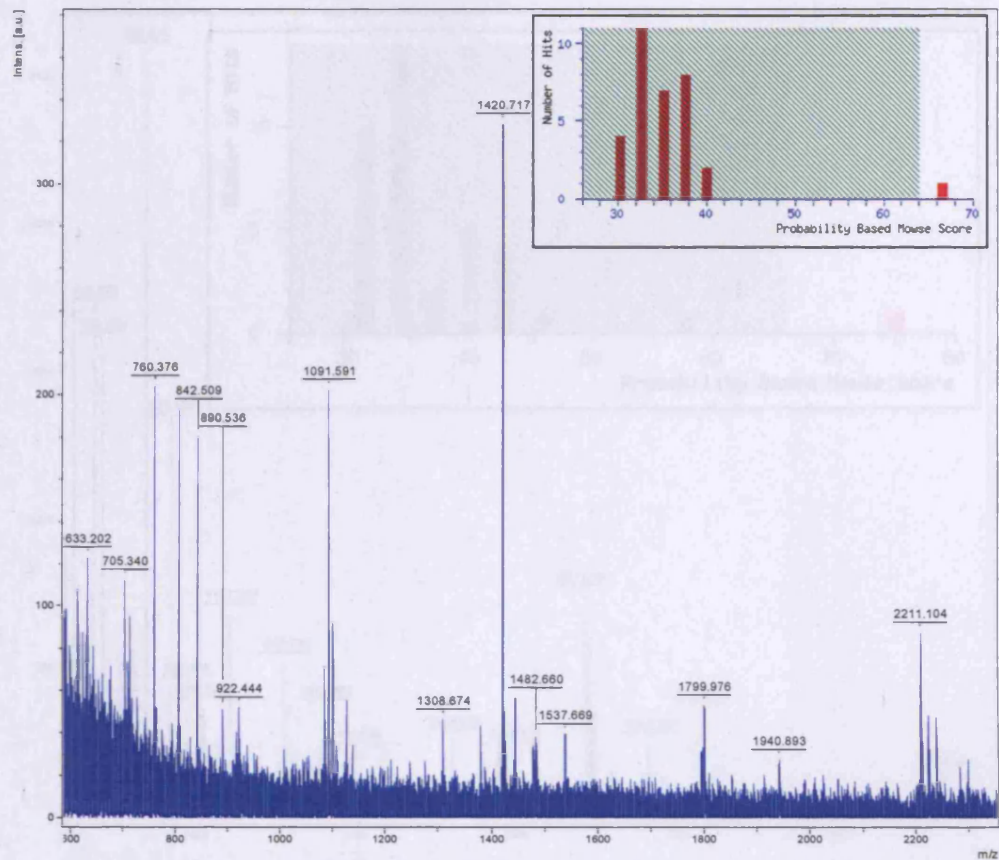
1	ASTSTTIRSH	SSSRRGFSAN	SARLPGVSR	GFSSVSRS	RGSGGLGGAC
51	GGAGFGSRSL	YGLGGSKRIS	IGGGSCAISG	GYGSRAGGSY	GFGGAGSGFG
101	FGGGAGIGFG	LGGGAGLAGG	FGGPGFPVCP	PGGIQEVTVN	QSLTPLNLQ
151	IDPTIQRVRA	EEREQIKTLN	NKFASFDKV	RFLEQQNKVL	ETKVTLLQE
201	GTKTVRQMLE	PLFEQYINHL	RRQLDSIVGE	RGRDSELRG	MQDLVEDFKN
251	KYEDEINKRT	AAHEFVTLK	KVDAAYHNK	VELQAKADTL	TDEINFLRAL
301	YDAELSQHQT	HISDTSVVL	MDNNRMLDLD	SIIAEVKAQY	EEIAQRSRAE
351	AESWYQTKYE	ELQVTAGRHG	DDLNTKQEI	AEINRMIQRL	RSEIDHVKKQ
401	CANLQAAIAD	AEQGEHALK	DAKNKLEGL	DALQKAKQDL	ARLLKEYQEL
451	MNVKLALDVE	IATYRKLLG	EECRNLNGEV	QVNISSVVS	TVSSGYGGAS
501	GVGSGGLGGLG	GSSYSYGSL	GVGGGFSSSS	GRAIGGGLSS	VGGGSSTIKY
551	TTTSSSRKS	YKH			

## Spot 1090 Dihydrolipoamide DH





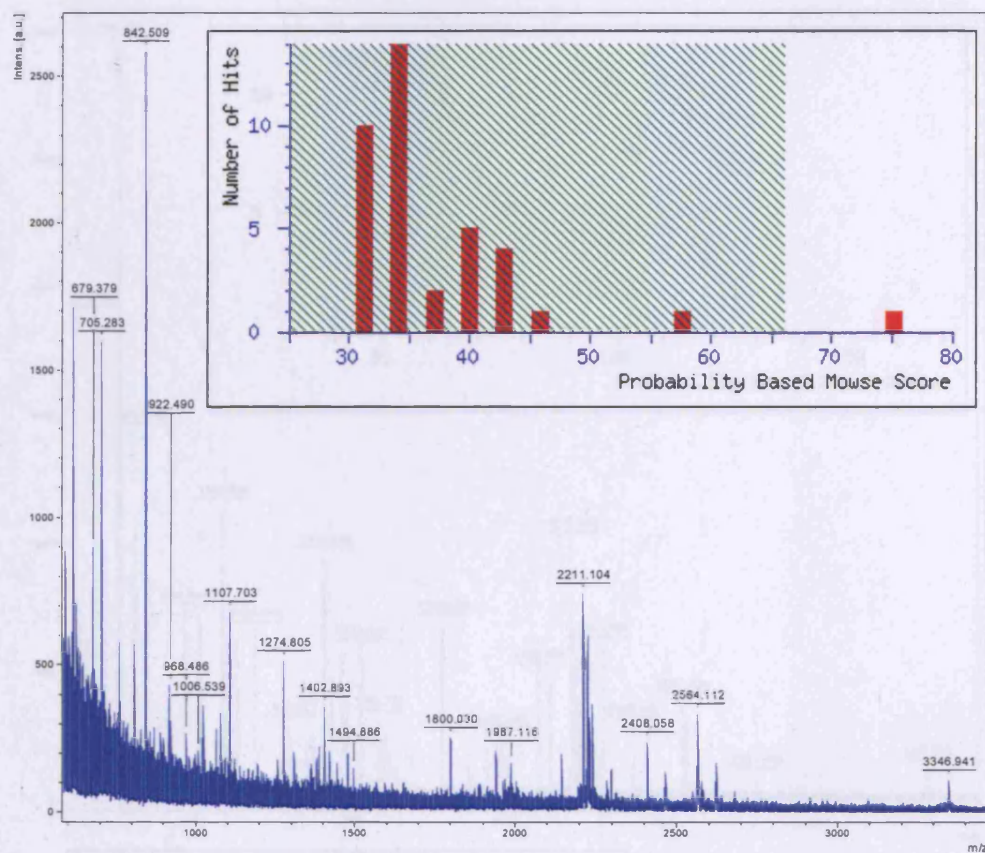
## Spot 471 Elongation factor 2



Start - End	Observed	Mr(expt)	Mr(calc)	Delta	Miss	Sequence
1 - 9	1091.59	1090.58	1090.58	0.01	0	-.VNFTVDQIR.A
299 - 307	1084.59	1083.58	1083.54	0.04	0	K.VFDAIMNFK.K
299 - 307	1100.54	1099.54	1099.54	-0.00	0	K.VFDAIMNFK.K Oxidation (M)
308 - 313	705.34	704.33	704.37	-0.04	1	K.KEETAK.L
409 - 414	760.38	759.37	759.37	-0.00	0	R.FYAFGR.V
415 - 425	1107.66	1106.65	1106.63	0.02	0	R.VFSGLVSTGLK.V
498 - 505	890.54	889.53	889.50	0.03	0	K.FSVSPVVR.V
572 - 579	922.44	921.44	921.46	-0.02	0	K.SDPVVSRY.E
638 - 646	1138.51	1137.50	1137.51	-0.01	0	K.YEWDVAEAR.K
676 - 687	1308.67	1307.67	1307.65	0.02	0	K.DSVVAGFQWATK.E
727 - 738	1378.66	1377.66	1377.71	-0.05	0	R.CLYASVLTAQPR.L
785 - 800	1799.98	1798.97	1798.89	0.08	0	K.AYLPVNESFGFTADLR.S
845 - 857	1444.78	1443.77	1443.76	0.01	1	K.EGIPALDNFLDKL.-

1	VNFTVDQIRA	IMDKKANIRN	HSVIAHVDHG	KSTLTDSLVC	KAGIIASARA
51	GETRFTDTRK	DEQERCITIK	STAIISLFYEL	SENDLNFIQK	SKDGAGFLIN
101	LIDSPGHVDF	SSEVTAAALRV	TDGALVVVDC	VSGVCVQTET	VLQQAIAERI
151	KPVLHMKKMD	RALLELQLEP	EELYQTFQRI	VENNVNIIIST	YGEGESGPMG
201	NIMIDPVLGT	VGFGSGLHGW	AFTLRQFAEM	YVAKFAARGE	GOLGPAERAR
251	KVEDHMKKLG	GDRYFDPANG	KFSKSATSPE	GKKLPRTFCQ	LILDPIFKVF
301	DAIDNFKKEE	TAKLIEKLDI	KLDSSEKDKKE	GKPLLKAVNR	RULPAGDALL
351	QMITIHLPSF	VTAQKYRCEL	LYEGPPDDEA	AMGIKSCDPK	GPLNMYISKM
401	VPTSDKGRFY	AFGRVFSGLV	STGLKVRING	PNYTPGKKED	LYLKPIQRTI
451	LHMGRVVEPI	EDVPCGNIVG	LVGVDQFLVK	TGTITTFEHA	HNHRVHKFSV
501	SPVVRVAVEA	KNPADLPKLV	EGLKRLAKSD	PHVQCIIIES	GEHIIAGAGE
551	LHLEICLKDL	EEDHACIPIK	KSDPVVSRYE	TVSEESNVLC	LSKSPNKHNR
601	LYMKARPPFD	GLAEDIDKGE	VSARQELKQR	ARYLAERYEW	DVAEARKIWC
651	FGPDGTGPNI	LTDITKGQVY	LNEIKDSVVA	GFQWATKEGA	LCEENNRGVR
701	FDVHDTVTLHA	DAIHRGGGQI	IPATARRCLYA	SVLTAQPRLM	EPIYLVEIQC
751	PEQVVGGIYG	VLNRKRGHVF	EESQVAGTPM	FVVKAYLPVM	ESFGFTADLR
801	SNTEGGAFFQ	CVFDHWQILP	GDPFDNSSRP	SQVVAETRRK	KGLKEGIPAL
851	DNFLDKL				

## Spot 472 Elongation factor 2

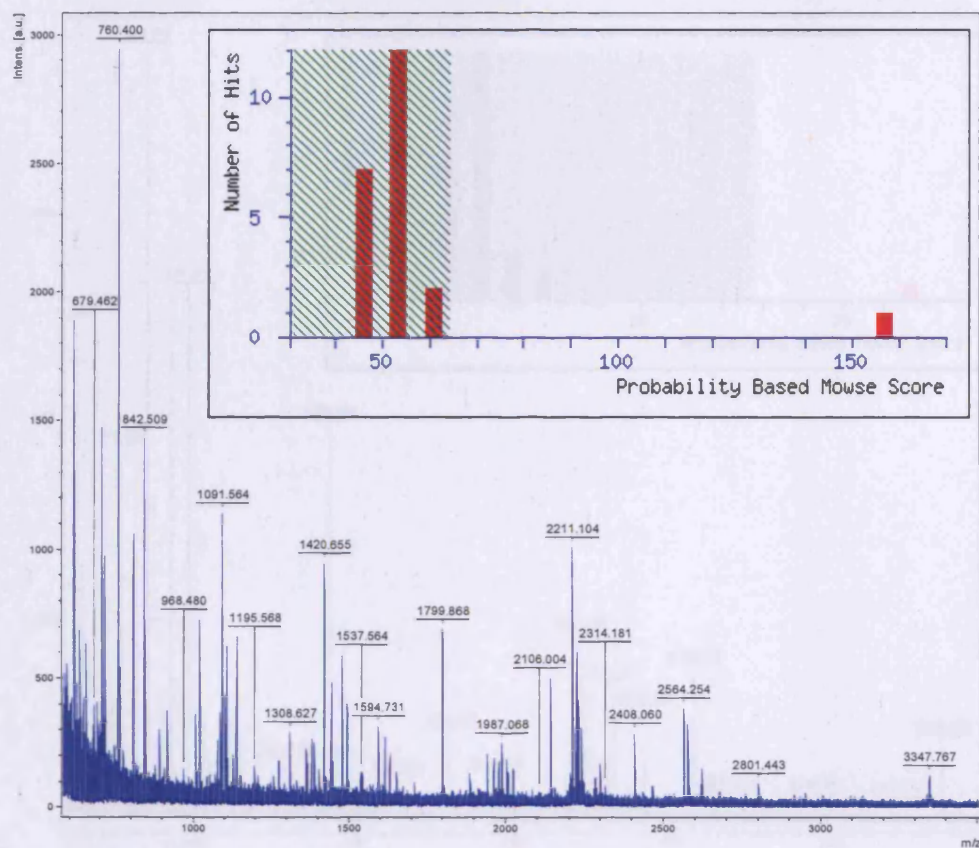


Start - End	Observed	Mr(expt)	Mr(calc)	Delta	Miss	Sequence
20 - 31	1307.72	1306.71	1306.65	0.07	0	R.NMSVIAHVDHGK.S
120 - 143	2576.18	2575.17	2575.30	-0.13	0	R.VTDGALVVVDCVSGVCVQTETVLR.Q
287 - 298	1494.89	1493.88	1493.80	0.08	0	R.TFCQLILDPIFK.V
299 - 307	1084.65	1083.64	1083.54	0.10	0	K.VFDAIDMFK.K
400 - 408	1006.54	1005.53	1005.49	0.04	1	K.MVPTSDKGR.F Oxidation (M)
409 - 414	760.37	759.36	759.37	-0.01	0	R.FYAFGR.V
413 - 423	1107.70	1106.70	1106.63	0.06	0	R.VFSGLVSTGLK.V
438 - 448	1402.89	1401.89	1401.80	0.09	1	K.KEDLYLKPIQR.T
439 - 448	1274.80	1273.80	1273.70	0.09	0	K.EDLYLKPIQR.T
498 - 505	890.53	889.52	889.50	0.02	0	K.FSVSPVVR.V
572 - 579	922.49	921.48	921.46	0.03	0	K.SDPVVSYR.E
605 - 624	2143.16	2142.15	2142.07	0.08	1	K.ARPFPDGLAEDIDKGEVSAR.Q
667 - 675	1063.63	1062.62	1062.57	0.05	0	K.GVQYLNEIK.D
727 - 738	1378.82	1377.81	1377.71	0.10	0	R.CLYASVLTQPR.L
767 - 784	1962.01	1961.01	1960.97	0.03	0	R.GHVFEESQVAGTPEFVVK.A
785 - 800	1800.03	1799.02	1798.89	0.13	0	K.AYLPVNESFGFTADLR.S

1	VNFTVDQIRA	IMDKKANIRN	MSVIAHVDHG	KSTLTDSLVC	KAGIIASARA
51	GETRFTDTRK	DEQRCITIK	STAI SLFYEL	SENDLNFIRQ	SKDGAGFLIN
101	LIDSPGHVDF	SSEVTAAALRV	TDGALVVVDC	VSGVCVQTET	VLRQAIAERI
151	KPVLNNKMD	RALLEQLQEP	EELYQTFQRI	VENNVNIIST	YGESEGPFG
201	NINIDPVLGT	VGFSGGLHGW	AFTLRQFAEM	VYAKFAAKGE	QQLGPAERAK
251	KVEDHKKLW	GDRYFDPANG	KFSKSATSPE	GKKLPRTFCQ	LILDPIFKVF
301	DAIDMFKKEE	TAKLIEKLDI	KLDSKDKKE	GKPLKAVMR	RULPAGDALL
351	QMITIHLPS	VTAQKYRCEL	LYEGPPDDEA	AMGKSCDPK	GPLHMYISRM
401	VPTSDKGRFY	AFGRVFSGLV	STGLKVRING	PNTYTPGKED	LYLKPIQRTI
451	LHMGRYVEPI	EDVPCGNIVG	LVGVDQLVK	TGTITTFEHA	HNHRVHKFSV
501	SPVVVAVAEA	KNPADLPKLV	EGLKRLAKSD	PMVQCIIIES	GEHIIAGAGE
551	LHLZICLKD	EEDHACIPIK	KSDPVVSYRE	TVSEESNVL	LSKSPNKNR
601	LYHKARPPD	GLAEDIDRGE	VSARQELKQR	ARYLAEKYEW	DVAEARKIUC
651	FGPDGTGPNI	LTDITKGVQY	LNEIKDSVVA	GFOVATKEGA	LCEENRGRV
701	FDVHDVTLHA	DAIHRRGGQI	IPITARRCLYA	SVLTQAPRLM	EPIYLVETQC
751	PEQVVGGIY	VLNRRKSHVF	EESQVAGTPE	FVVKAYLPVN	ESFGFTADLR
801	SNITGGQAFQ	CVFDFHWQILP	GDPFDNSSRP	SQVVAETRRK	KGLKEGIPAL
851	DNFLDKL				



## Spot 476 Elongation factor 2

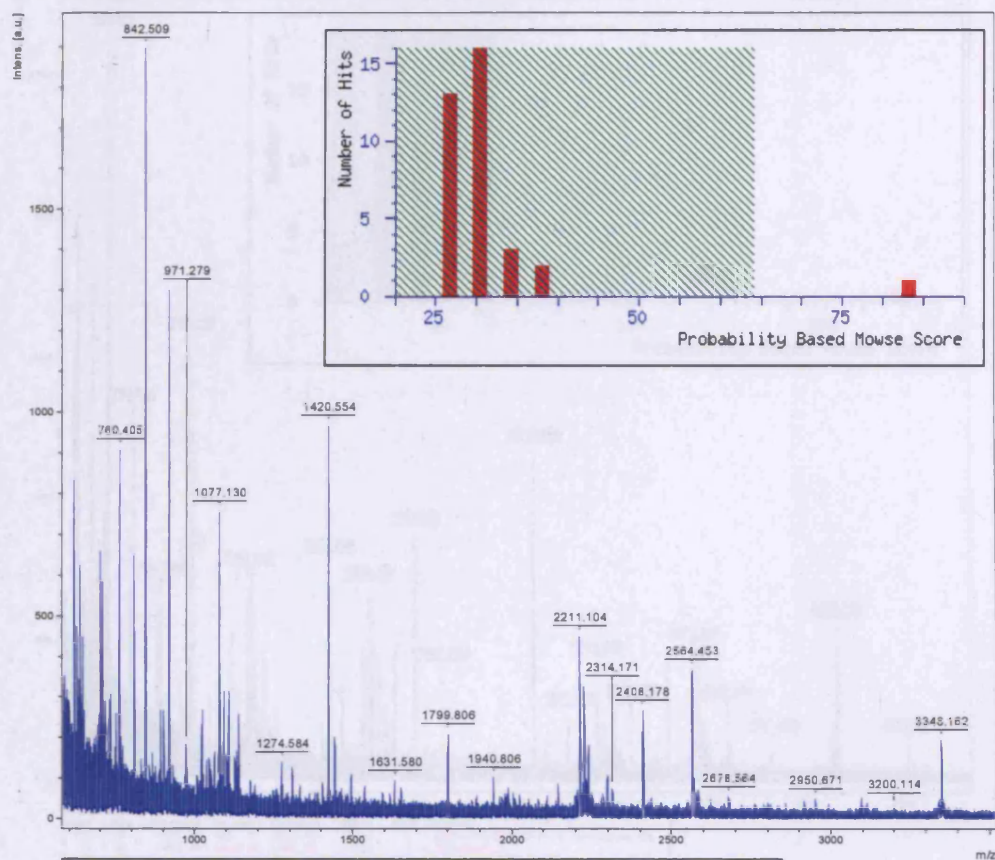


Start	End	Observed	Mr(mag)	Mr(mag)	Delta	Mass Sequence
1	9	1091.56	1090.56	1090.56	-0.02	1 - VMTVDQIR.A
61	70	1291.63	1290.63	1290.63	0.02	1 - DEQCRII.K
93	119	1801.84	1800.84	1800.84	0.03	1 - LIDSPGHVDF.SSEVTAALRV
162	179	2229.89	2219.89	2219.13	-0.06	1 - RALLEQLQLEP.EELYQTFQRI
239	248	1813.46	1812.45	1812.45	-0.04	1 - GQGLPAER.A
258	263	774.42	773.41	773.42	-0.01	1 - RLVNDR.Y
319	363	646.31	645.30	645.32	-0.02	1 - LKQSLV.Y
387	398	1494.73	1493.74	1493.80	-0.03	1 - YFGLIPFV.V
397	407	2376.27	2375.26	2375.32	0.06	1 - YFGLIPFV.V
399	407	1084.52	1083.52	1083.54	-0.02	1 - YFGLIPFV.V
399	407	1108.53	1107.53	1107.54	-0.02	1 - YFGLIPFV.V
398	413	703.33	704.34	704.37	-0.03	1 - RLVNDR.Y
398	413	1093.87	1092.86	1092.89	-0.03	1 - RLVNDR.Y
400	408	1004.48	1003.47	1003.49	-0.02	1 - RLVNDR.Y
400	414	759.48	759.39	759.37	0.02	1 - RLVNDR.Y
413	425	1187.63	1186.62	1186.63	-0.02	1 - RLVNDR.Y
438	448	1403.72	1401.71	1401.80	-0.09	1 - RLVNDR.Y
439	448	1774.88	1773.87	1773.70	-0.03	1 - RLVNDR.Y
436	480	2759.32	2758.31	2758.43	0.09	1 - RLVNDR.Y
482	494	1613.71	1611.70	1611.74	-0.06	1 - RLVNDR.Y
482	494	1631.74	1630.73	1630.73	-0.02	1 - RLVNDR.Y
490	503	890.49	889.48	889.50	-0.02	1 - RLVNDR.Y
580	593	1594.73	1593.72	1593.74	-0.02	1 - RLVNDR.Y
605	618	1543.74	1542.73	1542.77	-0.04	1 - RLVNDR.Y
603	624	2143.13	2142.12	2142.07	0.06	1 - RLVNDR.Y
638	644	1138.52	1137.51	1137.51	-0.01	1 - RLVNDR.Y
676	687	1308.63	1307.62	1307.63	-0.03	1 - RLVNDR.Y
727	738	1778.66	1777.65	1777.71	-0.06	1 - RLVNDR.Y
767	784	1961.95	1960.94	1960.97	-0.03	1 - RLVNDR.Y
767	784	1977.94	1976.94	1976.97	-0.03	1 - RLVNDR.Y
783	800	1799.87	1798.86	1798.89	-0.03	1 - RLVNDR.Y
845	857	1444.74	1443.73	1443.76	-0.03	1 - RLVNDR.Y

1	VMTVDQIR.A	INDKANIRN	MSVIAHVDEG	KSTLTDSLVC	KAGIIASARA
51	GETRFTDTRK	DEQCRII.K	STAIISLPHYEL	SENDLNFIKQ	SKDGAGFLIN
101	LIDSPGHVDF	SSEVTAALRV	TDGALVVVDC	VSGVCVQTET	VLRQAIARI
151	KPVLMHNMKD	RALLEQLQLEP	EELYQTFQRI	VENNVNVIIST	YGESESHPHG
201	NIMIDPVLGT	VGFGSLHGW	AFTLKQFAEN	YVAKFAARGE	GQLGPAERAK
251	KVEDHMKGLW	GDRYFDPAAG	KFSKSATSPE	GKPLPRTPCQ	LILDPIPKVF
301	DAIDMFKKEE	TAKLIEKLDI	KLDSKDDEK	GKPLKAVNR	RULPAGDALL
351	QNTIHLPS	VTAGKYRCEL	LYEGPPDEA	AMGKSCDPK	GPLNHYISKM
401	VPTSDKGRFY	AFGRVSGLV	STGLMVRING	PNTYTKKED	LYLXPIQRTI
451	LHNGRYVEPI	EDVPCGNIVG	LVGVDPFLVK	TGTTITFEHA	HMRVMKTSV
501	SPVVRVAVEA	KNPADLPKLV	EGLKRLAKSD	PHVQCIIEES	GEHIIAGAGE
551	LHLEICLKDL	EEDHACIPIK	KSDPVVSYRE	TVSEESNVL	LSKSPNKHNR
601	LYHKARPPFD	GLAEDIKGE	VSARQELKQR	ARYLAETKEW	DVAEARKIWC
651	FGPDGTGPNI	LTDITRGVQY	LNEIKDSVVA	GFQWATKEGA	LCEENMRGVR
701	PDVHDVTLHA	DAIHRGGGQI	IPTARRCLYA	SVLIAQPRLM	EPIVLVEIQ
751	PEQVVGGIYG	VLNKRGRHVF	EESQVAGTPH	FVVKAYLPVN	ESFGFIADLR
801	SNITGGQAFPQ	CVFDHQUILP	GDPPDNSSRP	SQVVAETRRK	KGLKEGIPAL
851	DNFLDKI				



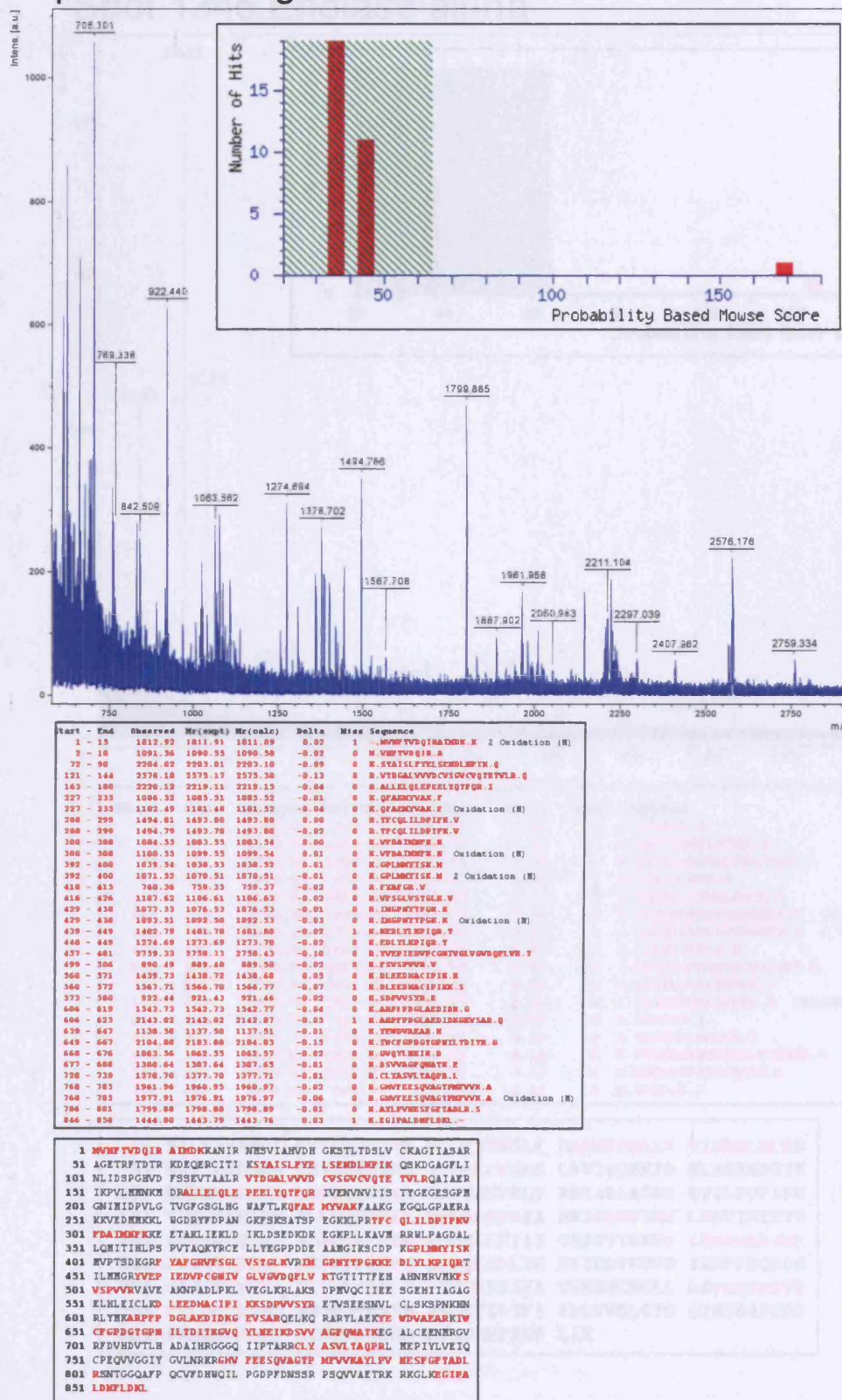
## Spot 468 Elongation factor 2



Start	End	Observed	Mr(expt)	Mr(calc)	Delta	Miss Sequence
1	9	1091.30	1090.50	1090.58	-0.08	0 -VMTVDQIR.A
162	179	2220.14	2219.13	2219.15	-0.02	0 R.ALLELQLEPEELVQTFQR.I
287	298	1494.67	1493.66	1493.80	-0.14	0 R.TFCQLILDPIK.V
287	307	2576.57	2575.56	2575.32	0.24	1 R.TFCQLILDPIKVFDAIDHFK.E Oxidation (H)
299	307	1084.46	1083.45	1083.54	-0.09	0 K.VFDADHFK.E
299	307	1108.46	1099.45	1099.54	-0.09	0 K.VFDADHFK.E Oxidation (H)
308	313	705.38	704.37	704.37	0.00	1 K.KKETAK.L
368	383	2023.87	2022.86	2022.89	-0.03	0 R.CELLYEGFPDDEAAMGK.S Oxidation (H)
400	408	1006.41	1005.41	1005.49	-0.09	1 K.NVPSIDHGR.F Oxidation (H)
409	414	760.40	759.40	759.37	0.03	0 R.FEAFGR.V
415	425	1107.55	1106.54	1106.63	-0.10	0 R.VVSGLVSTGLK.V
426	437	1332.64	1331.63	1331.70	-0.07	1 K.VRMGPHYTECK.K
439	448	1274.58	1273.58	1273.70	-0.13	0 K.EDLYLKPQIR.T
439	455	2109.14	2108.13	2108.11	0.02	1 K.EDLYLKPQIRTIHMR.Y 2 Oxidation (H)
481	494	1615.69	1614.68	1614.76	-0.07	0 K.TGTTTTFHAAMGR.V
498	505	890.45	889.44	889.50	-0.06	0 K.FSVSPVVR.V
605	624	2143.84	2142.83	2142.87	-0.04	1 K.AMPFPDGLAEDIDKGVSAK.Q
638	646	1138.43	1137.44	1137.51	-0.07	0 K.YEMVVAEAK.E
647	675	1063.48	1062.47	1062.57	-0.10	0 K.GVQVLEIK.D
676	687	1308.65	1307.64	1307.65	-0.01	0 K.DSVIACQWATK.E
767	784	1961.95	1960.94	1960.97	-0.03	0 R.GHWTEESQVAGTSPVVK.A
767	784	1977.99	1976.98	1976.97	0.02	0 R.GHWTEESQVAGTSPVVK.A Oxidation (H)
785	880	1799.81	1798.80	1798.89	-0.09	0 K.AYLPVNESEGTADLR.S

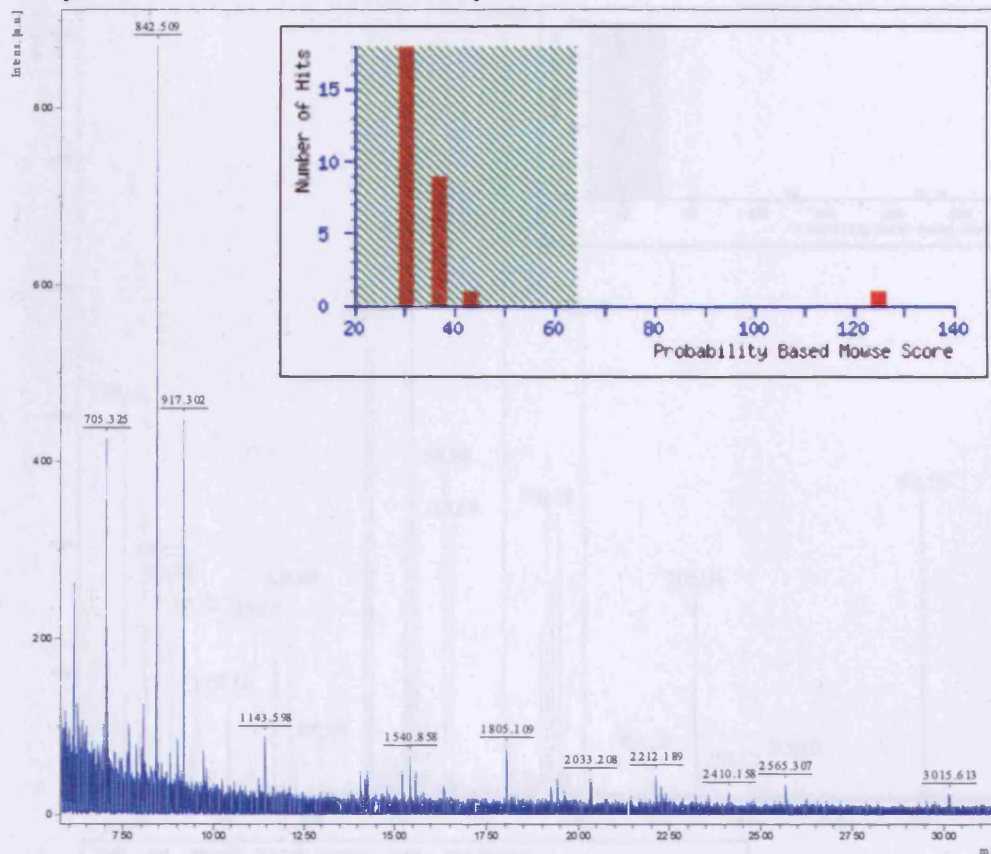
1	VMTVDQIR.A	IMDKKANIRN	MSVIAHVDHG	KSTLTDSLVC	KAGIIASARA
51	GETRFTDTRK	DEQERCITIK	STAI SLFYEL	SENDLNFIQK	SKDGAGFLIN
101	LIDSPGHVDF	SSEVTAALRV	TGALVVVDC	VSGVCVQTE	VLRQAIARI
151	KPVLHNNKND	RALLELQLEP	EELYQTFQRI	VENVNVIIST	YGESGPMG
201	NIMIDPVLGT	VGFGSLHGW	AFTLKQFAEM	YVAKFAAKE	GQLGPAERAK
251	KVEDNNKRLV	GDRYFDPANG	KFSKSATSPE	GKLPRTFCQ	LILDPIKVF
301	DAIDHFKKEE	IAKLEKLDI	KLDSKDKKE	GKPLKAVER	RULPAGDALL
351	QMITIHLPS	VTAQKYRCEL	LYEGFPDDEA	AMGKSCDPK	GPLNHYISRM
401	VPTSDKGRFY	AFGRVFSGLV	STGLKVRING	PHYTPGKED	LYLKPQIRTI
451	LMGCRYVEPI	EDVPCGNIVG	LVGVQFLVK	TGTTTTFENA	HMMRVHKEFSV
501	SPVVYVAEIA	KNPADLPKL	EGLKRLAKSD	PHVQCIIIES	GEHIIAGAGE
551	LELEICLKD	EEDHACIPIK	KSDPVVSIRE	TVSEESNVLC	LSKSPNKHNR
601	LYHKARFPFD	GLAEDIDKGE	VSARQELRQR	ARYLAERKYE	DVAEARKIYC
651	FGPDGTGPMI	LTDITKGVQY	LWEIKDSVVA	GFQWATKEGA	LCEENHRGVR
701	FDVMDVTILH	DAIHRGGGQI	IPARRCLYA	SVLTAQPRIM	EPIYLVEIQC
751	PEQVVGGIY	VLNRRKGHVF	EESQVAGTPE	FVVKAYLPVN	ESFGFTADLR
801	SNTGGQAFPO	CVFDHUGILP	GDPFDNSSRP	SQVVAETRRK	KGLKEGIPAL
851	DNFLDKL				

## Spot 487 Elongation factor 2





## Spot 1345 Enolase alpha



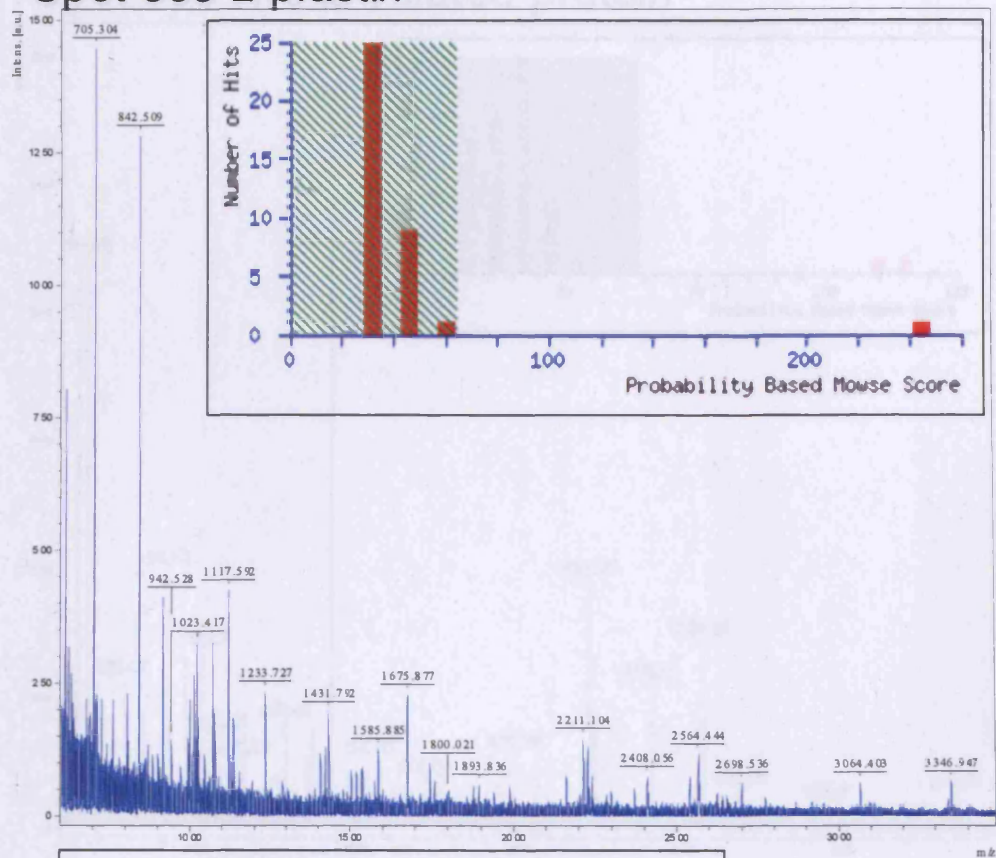
Start - End	Observed	Mr(expt)	Mr(calc)	Delta	Miss	Sequence
9 - 14	766.38	765.37	765.37	0.01	0	R.EIFDSR.G
15 - 27	1406.75	1405.75	1405.71	0.04	0	R.GMPTVEVDLETSK.G
32 - 49	1805.11	1804.10	1803.94	0.17	0	R.AAVPSGASTGIYEALRL.D
71 - 79	899.56	898.55	898.55	0.00	0	K.TIAPALVSK.K
105 - 119	1519.94	1518.94	1518.82	0.11	0	K.FGAKAILGVSLAVCK.A
162 - 178	1924.09	1923.08	1922.97	0.10	0	K.LAMQEFMILPVGAANFR.E
162 - 178	1940.13	1939.12	1938.97	0.15	0	K.LAMQEFMILPVGAANFR.E
183 - 192	1143.60	1142.59	1142.61	-0.02	0	R.IGAEVYHILK.N
202 - 220	1960.97	1959.96	1959.92	0.04	0	K.DATNVGDEGGFAPNILENK.E
239 - 252	1540.86	1539.85	1539.78	0.07	0	K.VVIGHDVAASEFFR.S
239 - 252	1556.02	1555.01	1555.77	0.04	0	K.VVIGHDVAASEFFR.S
256 - 261	800.36	799.35	799.38	-0.02	0	K.YDLDFK.S
269 - 280	1425.75	1424.74	1424.72	0.02	0	R.YISPDQLADLYK.S
306 - 325	2033.21	2032.20	2032.05	0.13	0	K.FTASAGIQVVGDDLTVTNPK.R
343 - 357	1633.97	1632.97	1632.81	0.15	0	K.VNQIGSVTESLQACK.L
406 - 411	806.49	805.49	805.44	0.04	0	K.YNQLLR.I

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1  SILKIHAREI FDSRGNPTVE VDLFTSKGLF RAAVPSGAST GIYEALRLD
51  NDKTRYMGKG VSKAVEHINK TIAPALVSKK LNVTEQEKID KLNIEHDGTE
101 NKSIFGANAI LGVSLAVCKA GAVEKGVPLY RHIALLAGNS EVILPVPAPFN
151 VINGGSHAGN KLAMQEFMIL PVGAANFREA MRIGAEVYHIN LKNVIKEKYG
201 KDATNVGDEG GFAPNILENK EGLELLKTAI GKAGYTDKVV IGHVDVAASEF
251 FRSGKYDLDF KSPDDPSRYI SPDQLADLYK SFIKDYPVVS IEDPFDQDDW
301 GAWQKFTASA GIQVVGDDLT VTNPKRIAKA VNEKSCNCLL LKVNQIGSVT
351 ESLQACKLAQ ANGWGVNVSH RSGETEDTFI ADLVVGLCTG QIKTGAPCRS
401 ERLAKYNQLL RIEEELGSKA KFAGRNFRNP LAK

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## Spot 863 L-plastin



Start	End	Observed	Mr (exp)	Mr (calc)	Delta	Mass	Sequence
21	30	2161.04	2160.04	2160.00	0.01	0	R. VDTGNGYIS FHELNDLFKA
40	49	1187.59	1116.50	1116.17	0.01	0	R. AACLPFGYR
52	60	1877.00	1876.07	1876.05	0.03	0	R. EITVNLMAI GGLDQGRIS
72	80	1893.04	1892.03	1892.00	0.01	0	R. EITVNLMAI GGLDQGRIS
69	76	980.54	987.53	987.31	0.02	0	R. IGFADIELSR
124	132	1154.64	1153.63	1153.30	0.04	0	R. KAFVWIMR
124	143	2225.16	2224.16	2224.04	0.12	1	R. KAFVWIMR
166	170	1592.03	1591.02	1591.74	0.00	0	R. IGFADIELSR
166	170	1510.02	1517.02	1517.74	0.00	0	R. IGFADIELSR
236	244	1231.73	1232.72	1232.00	0.04	0	R. IGFADIELSR
265	273	1010.63	1011.63	1011.64	0.01	0	R. IGFADIELSR
264	272	1040.64	1040.63	1040.62	0.01	0	R. IGFADIELSR
264	294	994.55	993.54	993.51	0.03	0	R. IGFADIELSR
290	309	1431.79	1430.70	1430.70	0.03	0	R. IGFADIELSR
310	320	1743.00	1742.09	1742.09	0.04	0	R. IGFADIELSR
310	320	1750.00	1750.07	1750.05	0.02	0	R. IGFADIELSR
368	377	1125.63	1124.62	1124.60	0.03	0	R. IGFADIELSR
369	378	1401.03	1400.04	1400.70	0.00	0	R. IGFADIELSR
374	393	1739.20	1738.20	1738.21	0.04	0	R. IGFADIELSR
402	412	1207.71	1206.70	1206.43	0.00	0	R. IGFADIELSR
413	433	2347.14	2346.13	2346.39	-0.00	0	R. IGFADIELSR
433	441	1136.65	1135.64	1135.63	0.01	1	R. IGFADIELSR
435	441	885.06	884.05	884.05	0.00	0	R. IGFADIELSR
442	449	947.55	941.52	941.52	-0.01	0	R. IGFADIELSR
456	466	1537.02	1536.01	1536.70	0.05	1	R. IGFADIELSR
473	480	1673.00	1674.07	1674.05	0.04	0	R. IGFADIELSR
502	515	1534.04	1533.04	1533.00	0.03	0	R. IGFADIELSR
516	530	1000.02	1700.01	1700.02	0.00	0	R. IGFADIELSR
535	547	847.51	841.50	841.47	0.00	0	R. IGFADIELSR
546	570	2690.54	2697.57	2697.00	0.04	0	R. IGFADIELSR
585	591	811.44	810.43	810.41	0.03	0	R. IGFADIELSR
597	610	1585.00	1584.00	1584.04	0.04	0	R. IGFADIELSR

1	MARGSVSDZEE	MHELREAFKA	VDTGNGYIS	FHELNDLFKA	ACLPFGYR
51	FEITVNLMAI	GGLDQGRIS	FDEFIKIFHG	LKSTDVAKFT	RKAINKKEGI
101	CAIGGTSEQS	SVGTQHSYSE	EERYAFVWVI	NGALEHDDPC	RHVIPNPNT
151	NDLFNAVGDG	IVLCRMHLS	VPTIDERTI	NKKKLTPTFTI	QENLNALNS
201	ASAIGCHVNV	IGAEDLKEKG	PYLVLGLLWQ	VIKIGLPADI	ELSRHPLA
251	LLREGESLED	LWKLSPPELL	LRVANYHLEN	AGCNKIGHTS	TDIKSKAYY
301	MLLEQVAPKO	DEEGVPAVVI	BMSGLREKDD	IQRACENLQQ	AERLGCGRQV
351	TATDVVRGNP	KLHAFIAML	FHRYPALMKP	EQHDIWDGAL	EGETREERTY
401	PMHNSLSQW	PRVNDLYSDL	SDALVIFQLY	EKIKVFPDWN	RVMKPPYKPL
451	GGNKKQLENC	NYAVELGKQ	AKTSLVGIGG	QDLMEGRHTL	TLALIUQLER
501	RYTLNILEZI	GGGQKVHDDI	IVWVWNYLIR	FAEKSSSSIS	PKDPKISTSL
551	PVLGLIRAIQ	PGSINYDLIK	TENLNDDKEL	NNAKYALISA	RKIGARVYAL
601	PEDLVEVMPK	NVNTVFACLM	GKGRKRV		

## Appendix J: Statistical treatment of DeCyder data in this thesis

Statistical analysis is an essential process what is used to determine the reliability of data obtained using DeCyder gel analysis. In general, to compare mean differences between two groups of data that have some correlations, one can run an independent samples student t-test. In contrast, when comparing means of 3 or more variables, the Analysis of variance (ANOVA) test is suitable for making this comparison and is used to replace multiple t-tests. In this thesis, although one or more than one triplicate test groups are being compared to triplicate control groups, the statistical analysis in was performed between two groups at a time (e.g. when comparing a hydrogen peroxide treated to non-treated HB4a cells) to test the significance. This strategy prevents the exclusion of some spots of interest that can happen when using ANOVA, where the differences are not consistent across all groups of conditions. For example, the identified proteins such as Lamin, flavin reductase, HSP-71 and peroxiredoxin 6 in Table 4-2 would be omitted in an ANOVA analysis used to look for H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> AND cell-line specific changes. Thus, the student t-test was chosen and applied in all 2D-DIGE experiments.

As Students t-test provides a method to make statistical comparisons of the means from two different groups, all protein identification tables in this thesis show a series of labelling/expression changes between two individual treatment comparisons (e.g. comparison of plasma fractions exposed to UV 80 mJ/cm<sup>2</sup> versus 0 mJ/cm<sup>2</sup>; UV 40 mJ/cm<sup>2</sup> versus 0 mJ/cm<sup>2</sup>; UV 20 mJ/cm<sup>2</sup> versus 0 mJ/cm<sup>2</sup> in Chapter 6). The experimental t-test values are calculated by using the following equations:

$$t_{\text{exp}} \text{ value} = |X_A - X_B| / S_{AB} \times (1/n_A + 1/n_B)^{1/2}$$

where  $X_A$  and  $X_B$  are the means of A and B groups, respectively;  $S_{AB}$  is the standard deviation of used values;  $n_A$  and  $n_B$  are the number of measurements in group A and group B, respectively.

The  $t_{\text{exp}}$  value can be compared with the  $t_{\text{theo}}$  (theoretical) value, which corresponds to the given degrees of freedom  $N$  ( $N = n_A + n_B - 2$ ), and the confidence level chosen. Tables of  $t_{\text{theo}}$  values can be found in statistical textbooks. If  $t_{\text{exp}} > t_{\text{theo}}$  then the  $H_0$  (null hypothesis



i.e. any differences, discrepancies, or suspiciously outlying results are purely due to random and not systematic errors) can be rejected. An erroneous rejection of  $H_0$  constitutes a type 1 error (i.e. false positive), whereas an erroneous acceptance of  $H_0$  constitutes a type 2 error (i.e. false negative).

All significance tests provide results within a predefined confidence level % (CL%). Confidence levels normally used are 90%, 95% and 99%, with 95% being the most popularly used value in biological analyses. A CL of 95% means that in the case of rejecting  $H_0$ , there is a 95% or more certainty that the result is true, i.e. a  $< 0.05$  chance of a false positive. In addition, a CL of 95% is generally considered as a compromise between two types of errors due to decreasing CL to 90% significantly increase the type 1 error, while increasing CL to 99% obviously increases the type 2 error.

The  $p$ -value is the probability of a type 1 error happening and this value provides information for the user to judge the acceptance or the rejection of the null hypothesis  $H_0$ . For example, using a CL of 95% is the criteria for acceptance in one statistical analysis which means the probability of a type 1 error happening is 5% i.e.  $p = 0.05$ . While an experimental  $p$ -value of 0.09 means that  $H_0$  must be retained otherwise there is a higher risk of accepting a high probability of a type 1 error occurring.

All protein identification tables in this thesis which show expression/labelling changes as average ratios between two conditions include the  $p$ -value for those comparisons. Protein features were selected for identification where  $p$ -values were less than 0.05 and average fold-changes were  $> +$  or  $- 1.5$  fold (except  $+ or - 1.3$  in the EGF stimulation experiments in Chapter 5). However, in a few cases (such as Lamin, flavin reductase, HSP-71 and peroxiredoxin 6 in Table 4-2), not all of the  $p$ -values of each comparison fulfilled the  $p < 0.05$  criteria. For these cases, the average ratios of expression/labelling changes together with  $p$ -values are still listed in the tables.

## PUBLICATIONS

1. **Chan,H.L.**, Gharbi,S.; Gaffney,P.; Cramer,R.; Waterfield,M.D.; Timms, J.F. Proteomic analysis of redox- and ErbB2-dependent changes in mammary luminal epithelial cells using cysteine- and lysine-labelling 2D-DIGE. *Proteomics* (2005) Vol. 5 in press
2. White,S.L.; Gharbi,S.; Bertani,M.F.; **Chan,H.L.**; Waterfield,M.D.; Timms,J.F. Cellular responses to ErbB-2 overexpression in human mammary luminal epithelial cells: comparison of mRNA and protein expression. *Br. J. Cancer* (2004) (90) Vol. 1, 173-181.

REGULAR ARTICLE

# **Proteomic analysis of redox- and ErbB2-dependent changes in mammary luminal epithelial cells using cysteine- and lysine-labelling two-dimensional difference gel electrophoresis**

*Hong-Lin Chan<sup>1</sup>, Severine Gharbi<sup>1</sup>, Piers R. Gaffney<sup>2</sup>, Rainer Cramer<sup>1</sup>, Michael D. Waterfield<sup>1</sup> and John F. Timms<sup>1</sup>*

































# Cellular responses to ErbB-2 overexpression in human mammary luminal epithelial cells: comparison of mRNA and protein expression

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SL White<sup>1</sup>, S Gharbi<sup>1</sup>, MF Bertani<sup>1</sup>, H-L Chan<sup>1</sup>, MD Waterfield<sup>1</sup> and JF Timms<sup>\*,1</sup>









