

Enrichment strategies for phosphoproteomics: state-of-the-art

Barbora Salovska^{1,2,*}, Ales Tichy^{1,2}, Martina Rezacova¹, Jirina Vavrova² and Eva Novotna²

¹Department of Medical Biochemistry, Faculty of Medicine in Hradec Kralove, Charles University in Prague, Hradec Králové, Czech Republic, e-mail: salob5aa@lfhk.cuni.cz

²Department of Radiobiology, Faculty of Military Health Sciences, University of Defence, Hradec Kralove, Czech Republic

* Corresponding author

MIP	molecularly imprinted polymer
MOAC	metal oxide affinity chromatography
MS	mass spectrometry
NTA	nitriloacetic acid
PTMs	post-translational modifications
pS	phosphoserine
pT	phosphothreonine
pY	phosphotyrosine
RPLC	reversed phase liquid chromatography
SAX	strong anion-exchange chromatography
SCX	strong cation-exchange chromatography

Abstract

Protein phosphorylation is a key regulator in many biological processes, such as homeostasis, cellular signaling and communication, transcriptional and translational regulation, and apoptosis. The defects in this tightly controlled reversible post-translational modification have been described to contribute to genesis and progression of various diseases, emphasizing the importance of a systematic research of this phenomenon. Although considerable effort has been devoted to improving the analysis of phosphorylation by mass spectrometry, which is currently the method of choice to study protein phosphorylation, the detection and identification of phosphorylation sites remains challenging because of the low abundance and low ionization efficacy of phosphoproteins in comparison with nonphosphorylated proteins. To overcome this obstacle, different enrichment strategies for phosphorylated peptides/proteins have been established and optimized for subsequent mass spectrometry analysis. In this review, we will give an overview of the methods currently available for the enrichment of phosphorylated proteins and peptides including immunoprecipitation, chemical derivatization and affinity enrichment techniques.

Keywords: metal oxide affinity chromatography; phosphopeptide enrichment; phosphoproteomics.

Abbreviations

BSA	bovine serum albumin
DHB	2,5-dihydroxybenzoic acid
ERLIC	electrostatic repulsion hydrophilic interaction chromatography
HAP	hydroxyapatite chromatography
HILIC	hydrophilic interaction chromatography
IDA	imidoacetic acid
IMAC	immobilized metal affinity chromatography
LC	liquid chromatography
LPD	liquid phase deposition

Introduction

The human genome involves approximately 30,000 protein-coding genes; the human proteome contains several million different protein effectors. This is due to alternative splicing of genes and post-translational modifications (PTMs). Several hundred PTMs are currently known, among them protein phosphorylation is the most studied and one of the most important in nature (Pinkse and Heck 2010).

Protein phosphorylation is a transient, reversible PTM, which is involved in many cellular processes including homeostasis, cellular signaling and communication, proliferation, differentiation, metabolism, transcriptional and translational regulation, degradation of proteins and cell survival (Cohen 2002). It is one of the most widespread regulatory mechanisms; it has been estimated that more than 50% of the proteins in mammalian cells are phosphorylated at some point during their life time (Reinders and Sickman 2005). Four types of phosphorylation are known: O-phosphorylation which occurs on serine, threonine and tyrosine residues, N- (Knezevic et al. 2000), S- (Weigt et al. 1995) and acyl- (Sanders et al. 1989) phosphorylation which are far less common and occur on histidine, lysine, cysteine, aspartic and glutamic residues. In eukaryotic cells phosphorylation on serine, threonine and tyrosine residues is considered to be predominant (Sickmann and Meyer 2001). Phosphorylation also occurs on histidine residues; a total of 6% of the total phosphorylation in eukaryotes consists of phosphohistidine residues (Matthews 1995). Nevertheless, phosphohistidine residues are not normally observed in proteins due to rapid hydrolysis of the phosphoryl group under acidic conditions (Hultquist 1968). The distribution proportions of phosphoserine (pS), phosphothreonine (pT) and phosphotyrosine (pY) sites were reported for the first time in 1980 by Hunter and Sefton who determined them in chicken cells as 92.19%, 7.77% and 0.03%, respectively (Hunter and Sefton 1980). Since then, several studies have been performed, e.g., a study on HeLa cells, which showed that the distribution proportions of pS, pT and phosphotyrosine pY sites were 86.4%, 11.8%

and 1.8% (Olsen et al. 2006) or a study performed on the same cell line reported by Chen et al. (2011b), with 84.98%, 14.26% and 0.76%, respectively. Additionally, in *Arabidopsis thaliana*, a popular model organism in plant biology and genetics, relative abundances of pS, pT and pY were estimated to be 85%, 10.7% and 4.3% (Sugiyama et al. 2008). This indicates that there are substantial differences in distribution proportions mainly due to various methodical approaches and dynamic range of particular phosphoproteome used in a given study. Cellular protein phosphorylation events are site-specific; they often occur at multiple sites within a protein and it has been established that more than 100,000 phosphorylation sites may exist in the human proteome (Zhang et al. 2002). Some of them are always quantitatively phosphorylated, whereas others are only transiently phosphorylated up to 0.5% (Reinders and Sickman 2005).

Phosphorylation is mediated by protein kinases, which compose one of the largest enzyme superfamilies in higher eukaryotes (Manning et al. 2002). It has been estimated that 2–3% of all eukaryotic genes are coding protein kinases (Manning et al. 2002). The reverse reaction, dephosphorylation, is mediated by protein phosphatases. Tight cooperation of protein kinases and protein phosphatases is essential for regulation of biological processes in a cell and dysregulation of these processes has been described to contribute to genesis and progression of cancer and other diseases (Blume-Jensen and Hunter 2001). The dysregulation is mostly induced by mutations in genes coding protein kinases, overexpression of kinases or defects in negative regulatory mechanisms. Technological advances in the recent past led to the development of phosphoproteomic approaches that allow researchers to identify aberrantly activated signaling pathways and determine the appropriate therapeutic targets that can be, for example, specifically targeted by small molecule kinase inhibitors (reviewed in Harsha and Pandey 2010).

Mass spectrometry (MS) is currently the method of choice to describe dynamic changes in protein phosphorylation. We covered in detail various MS approaches of phosphoproteomic analysis in our previous work (Tichy et al. 2011). Nevertheless, the MS analysis of phosphoproteins is still complicated because of the relatively low abundance of phosphorylated proteins in eukaryotic cells. Also, the ionization efficiency is often described as a reason for difficulties in phosphopeptide identification. It was suggested that ionization efficiencies and therefore signals of phosphopeptides in MS are lower compared with their nonphosphorylated analogs (Craig et al. 1994, Liao et al. 1994). Steen et al. (2006) tested the ionization/detection efficiencies of the synthetic peptide/phosphopeptide pairs by using online liquid chromatography (LC) electrospray ionization MS. In this study, it was shown that the statement about lower ionization efficiency is not valid in general and it is highly dependent on the MS instrumentation used in the particular study. The authors concluded that phosphopeptides are difficult to identify in phosphoprotein digests because of the substoichiometric nature of phosphorylation, not because of their low ionization efficiencies.

Phosphorylation is a very dynamic process, the phosphorylation sites on proteins might vary and thus any phosphoprotein can exist in several different phosphorylated forms. Additionally, most of the techniques used for the study of protein

phosphorylation have a limited dynamic range. Hence, major phosphorylation sites might be identified easily, whereas minor sites might be difficult to detect. The complications caused by low ionization efficiency and low abundance of phosphorylated proteins and peptides can be reduced by phosphospecific enrichment prior to their characterization by MS. The separation of phosphorylated peptides from nonphosphorylated can be performed either on the protein level or on the peptide level.

Tyrosine phosphorylated proteins can be enriched with the immunoprecipitation with phosphotyrosine specific antibodies that have been employed successfully in some studies (Blagoev et al. 2004, Rush et al. 2005, Schumacher et al. 2007). Although antibodies against specific phosphorylated motifs in phosphothreonine and phosphoserine have been used in some studies (Grønberg et al. 2002, Zhang et al. 2002), immunoprecipitation is not capable for enriching of phosphoserine- and phosphothreonine-containing proteins. Phosphoproteins can also be precipitated using lanthanum ions (Pink et al. 2011, Verma et al. 2011). Protein kinases can be specifically captured with immobilized low-molecular weight inhibitors, e.g., bisindolylmaleimide compounds used by Brehmer and his colleagues (2004). Commercial kits for the enrichment of phosphoproteins, e.g., Phosphoprotein Purification Kit (QIAGEN, Hilden, Germany; Holland et al. 2011) or Thermo Scientific Pierce Phosphoprotein Enrichment Kit (Thermo Fischer Scientific, Rockford, IL, USA; Nilsson et al. 2010) are also available and used for phosphoprotein enrichment.

Many methods for the enrichment of phosphopeptides have been developed so far. However, any one of them is not able to yield comprehensive information about the phosphoproteome of complex biological samples. Therefore, the approaches described thereafter are often combined to obtain complete information about the phosphopeptide pool in cells, biofluids, etc. Phosphopeptide enrichment techniques comprise chemical derivatizations, affinity enrichment methods and some alternative methods, e.g., barium (Ruse et al. 2008) and calcium (Zhang et al. 2007) precipitation. An interesting approach for identification of protein kinases substrates was presented in 2009 when phosphospecific antibody against a peptide library that represented the mitogen-activated protein kinases (MAPKs) consensus phosphorylated motif was developed. Immunoprecipitation with this antibody led to identification of 449 candidate substrates for MAPKs and 82 specific phosphorylation sites in 34 proteins including a novel phosphorylation site (Ser-447) discovered in δ -catenin (Edbauer et al. 2009).

The affinity enrichment methods are a large group of chromatographic techniques exploiting the typical properties of phosphopeptides, which allows them to interact with the chromatographic resin in a different way from nonphosphopeptides. These methods include IMAC (immobilized metal affinity chromatography), MOAC (metal oxide affinity chromatography), HAP (hydroxyapatite chromatography), SCX (strong cation-exchange chromatography) and SAX (strong anion-exchange chromatography), HILIC (hydrophilic interaction chromatography) and ERLIC (electrostatic repulsion hydrophilic interaction chromatography). This review gives an overview of the methods currently available for the enrichment of phosphorylated proteins and peptides (Table 1).

Table 1 An overview of the main methods used in phosphoproteomics.

Method	Principle	References
SCX	Interaction between positively charged peptides and negatively charged column resin ($\text{pH} < 3$)	Beausoleil et al. (2004), Gruhler et al. (2005), Benschop et al. (2007)
SAX	Interaction between negatively charged peptides and positively charged column resin	Nühse et al. (2003), Wu et al. (2009)
IEF	Differences in pI values of more acidic phosphopeptides and less acidic nonphosphorylated peptides	Maccarrone et al. (2006), Xu et al. (2007), Chen et al. (2010)
HILIC	Partitioning between a water-enriched layer of stagnant eluent which hydrates the polar stationary phase and a relatively hydrophobic bulk eluent; retention time of an analyte increases with the increasing polarity of the peptide	Gilar et al. (2005), McNulty and Annan (2008), Albuquerque et al. (2008)
ERLIC	Combination of the electrostatic attraction with hydrophilic interactions	Chen et al. (2011b), Chien et al. (2011)
IMAC	Affinity of positively charged metal cations (Fe^{3+} , Al^{3+} , Ga^{3+} , Zr^{4+} or Co^{2+}) to negatively charged phosphopeptides at acidic pH	Bodenmiller et al. (2007), Liang et al. (2007)
MOAC	Affinity of metal oxides (TiO_2 , ZrO_2) for phosphate ions at acidic pH	Wu et al. (2007), Sugiyama et al. (2008), Li et al. (2009), Montoya et al. (2011)
Chemical modification	- β -Elimination and Michael addition reaction - Phosphoramidate chemistry (PAC)	Goshe et al. (2001), Oda et al. (2001), Arrighini et al. (2006) Zhou et al. (2001), Lansdell and Tepe (2004), Tao et al. (2005)

Chemical modifications

In chemical derivatization techniques, the phosphorylated residues are chemically altered with an affinity tag that is selectively captured. Most of the methods exploit the lability of phosphate groups on serine and threonine residues under alkaline conditions. In the presence of strong bases, e.g., NaOH or Ba(OH)₂, the phosphoserine and phosphothreonine residues undergo the β -elimination reaction to form dehydroalanine or dehydrobutyric acid, respectively, which serve as Michael acceptors. This reaction is followed by Michael addition reaction with different nucleophiles such as ethanedithiol (Goshe et al. 2001, 2002, Oda et al. 2001, Poot et al. 2006), dimethylaminoethanethiol (Steen and Mann 2002) or mercaptoethylpyridine (Arrigoni et al. 2006) that can be linked to an affinity tag (e.g., biotin; Oda et al. 2001) or immobilizing agent (e.g., dithiopyridine resin; Thaler et al. 2003). The major drawbacks of methods relying on a β -elimination reaction are associated with nonspecific labeling of cysteines and O-glycosylated peptides and inability of p-Tyr residues to undergo the β -elimination. The nonspecific labeling could, however, be reduced by blocking the sulfhydryl group of cysteines by alkylation or oxidation or by performing enzymatic deglycosylation in the case of O-glycosylated peptides.

Another covalent enrichment technique is the carbodiimide catalyzed condensation reaction with excess amine to form phosphoramidate (i.e., phosphate that has an NR₂ instead of an OH group). In comparison with the β -elimination chemistry, this approach is also capable for the enrichment of tyrosine-phosphorylated peptides. Zhou et al. (2001) presented this method in a multistep approach (six steps), where cystamines attached to phosphate groups by a condensation reaction were further reduced to form free sulfhydryl groups that provided the attachment of phosphopeptides to a solid phase by reacting with iodoacetyl groups immobilized on glass beads. Although the final yield is only approximately 20% due to considerable sample loss, this approach is very selective providing contaminant-free phosphopeptides. Tao et al. (2005) applied this chemistry in a simpler procedure including the methylation of the carboxyl groups, the condensation reaction with a dendrimer (synthetic polyamine) in the presence of carbodiimide and imidazole, and finally the acid hydrolysis of the phosphoramidate bonds among phosphopeptides and the dendrimer. This method provides higher recovery of phosphopeptides than previous approaches; however, wider utilization of it is hampered by extremely slow conversion during the carbodiimide catalyzed condensation step. Another approach suitable for phosphorylated serine, threonine and tyrosine peptides that included chemical derivatization was presented in 2004. Carboxylic groups were protected by methylation and the peptide mixture was subjected to the reaction with α -diazo functionalized resin, which resulted in the formation of a covalent phosphopeptide-resin bond that was later cleaved with acid hydrolysis (Lansdell and Tepe 2004).

SCX, SAX, IEF, HILIC and ERLIC

In strong cation exchange (SCX) chromatography, peptides are retained on a column on the basis of the interaction between positively charged peptide groups and negatively charged column resin. Under acidic conditions (pH<3) tryptic peptides become positively charged by protonation at the N termini and side chains of arginine, lysine and histidine, whereas carboxyl groups and the C termini become neutrally charged. Phosphoryl groups stay negatively charged at low pH and thus peptides containing phosphoryl groups have lower affinity for the negatively charged resin. Hence, phosphopeptides are eluted in the earlier fractions during SCX fractionation (Grimsrud et al. 2010). SCX was originally known as a component of multidimensional protein identification technology for shotgun proteomics (MudPIT; Washburn et al. 2001, Wolters et al. 2001). In 2004, SCX was initially described for phosphopeptide enrichment of HeLa cell nuclear phosphoproteins (Beausoleil et al. 2004). Since then, SCX has been exploited as a prefractionation method before IMAC (Villén et al. 2007, Gruhler et al. 2005, Swaney et al. 2009, Stone et al. 2011, Zhou et al. 2011) and titanium dioxide (TiO₂) enrichment (Benschop et al. 2007, Wu et al. 2007, Lemeer et al. 2008a,b, Lee et al. 2009) and also as a single method for phosphopeptide enrichment after combined cleavage with trypsin and Lys-N (Gauci et al. 2009, Taouatas et al. 2009).

Strong anion exchange (SAX) chromatography is a method of peptides separation that is based on the level of negative charges and thus can retain more acidic peptides than SCX; the use of SAX for phosphopeptide enrichment should not result in serious loss of phosphopeptides. Another significant advantage of using SAX for phosphoproteome analysis is that SAX has the ability to fractionate phosphopeptides. In 2003, Nühse et al. successfully used SAX chromatography with salt gradient elution as a prefractionation step before IMAC for the identification of plasma membrane phosphoproteins (Nühse et al. 2003). More recently, SCX, SAX and reversed phase liquid chromatography (RP-LC) with pH gradient elution were combined in the Yin-yang multidimensional liquid chromatography tandem mass spectrometry method (MDLC-MS/MS; Dai et al. 2007). The Yin-yang MDLC-MS/MS approach in combination with SILAC was further used for the quantification of phosphoproteome changes during adipocyte differentiation (Wu et al. 2009).

SAX was shown to be complementary with the Fe³⁺-IMAC method; however, in comparing these two techniques, more peptides, especially monophosphorylated, were identified by the SAX approach than by the Fe³⁺-IMAC method. Enrichment and fractionation of phosphopeptides by SAX was then applied to phosphoproteomics analysis of human liver tissue (Han et al. 2008). A similar conclusion was made when SAX chromatography was compared with the method combining SCX and TiO₂ enrichment (Dai et al. 2009). AFET (anion exchange followed by flow-through enrichment with titanium dioxide) is a phosphopeptide identification strategy where SAX is used as the first step for the separation and the enrichment of phosphopeptides that is online coupled with

LC-MS/MS. In this approach, the flow-through fraction from SAX chromatography is further enriched with TiO_2 chromatography to obtain more comprehensive phosphoproteome of the studied cell line (Nie et al. 2010).

Isoelectric focusing (IEF) was also presented as a method of phosphopeptide enrichment that exploits the difference in pI values of more acidic phosphopeptides and less acidic nonphosphorylated peptides (Maccarrone et al. 2006, Xu et al. 2007). A recent study introduced new methodology that includes the separation of proteins by IEF, phosphopeptides enrichment with IMAC and analysis by LC-MS/MS for mapping of the phosphoproteome in the human prostate cell line LNCaP (Chen et al. 2010).

HILIC has been more commonly used for small polar solutes (e.g., pharmaceuticals, saponins, urea, aminoglycoside antibiotics, glucosinolates, sugars and glycans, folic acid and its metabolites, nicotine and its metabolites, glycoalkaloids) than for peptides fractionation. The retention of an analyte is believed to be caused by partitioning between a water-enriched layer of stagnant eluent which hydrates the polar stationary phase and a relatively hydrophobic bulk eluent, with mobile phase usually being 10–40% water in acetonitrile. Naturally, the retention time of an analyte increases with the increasing polarity of the peptide (Alpert 1990). The mechanism was discussed in detail by Hemström and Irgum (2006). Gilar et al. (2005) showed that HILIC has the highest degree of orthogonality to RP-LC of all commonly used peptides fractionation techniques, which probably reflects their different mechanisms of actions. More recently, McNulty and Annan (2008) used HILIC as a first dimension separation for 2D LC proteomics for investigation of HeLa cells phosphopeptides. Applying this approach, they identified more than 700 novel phosphorylation sites in HeLa cells phosphoproteome. Additionally, they revealed that HILIC performed before IMAC enrichment (HILIC-IMAC) dramatically improved the selectivity of IMAC, whereas HILIC performed after IMAC enrichment (IMAC-HILIC) was found to be less beneficial for the selectivity of IMAC. The authors of that study stated that the fractions provided by hydrophilicity-based separation contained peptides with the same polarity ensuring very effective competition between peptides and phosphopeptides within these fractions for IMAC binding sites (McNulty and Annan 2008). Contrary to this statement, Albuquerque et al. (2008) performed IMAC enrichment before HILIC prefractionation followed by RP-LC-MS/MS with very satisfactory results; thousands of phosphopeptides ($n=8764$) from yeast phosphoproteome were identified.

The newest chromatographic approach developed especially for the enrichment and fractionation of phosphopeptides is ERLIC which combines the electrostatic attraction with hydrophilic interactions to selectively capture phosphopeptides. At low pH (pH 2) phosphate groups still retain their negative charge, whereas carboxyl groups become neutrally charged and basic amino groups positively charged. Phosphate groups are electrostatically bound to the column; nevertheless, their affinity is not sufficient to overcome electrostatic repulsion from the positively charged amino groups. Thus, hydrophilic interactions of the phosphate group should

be enhanced by using high concentrations of an organic solvent (e.g., 70% acetonitrile; Alpert 2008). In a current study performed on HeLa cells, SCX, HILIC and ERLIC based fractionation methods were combined for phosphopeptides separation prior to sequencing by RP-LC-MS/MS. A total of 9069 unique phosphopeptides were identified with only 1697 unique phosphopeptides (18.7%) found in all fractionation methods, which indicated that these three techniques are complementary and can be combined for more comprehensive phosphoproteome analysis (Chen et al. 2011b). Chien et al. (2011) introduced an IMAC step following ERLIC separation to reduce the abundance of the nonphosphorylated (mostly highly acidic) peptides in eluted fraction and subsequent RP-LC-MS/MS for phosphoproteomic characterization of Marek's disease virus-infected chicken embryonic fibroblast (CEF) cells.

Immobilized metal affinity chromatography (IMAC)

IMAC was originally used for the fractionation of proteins that was based on the affinity of histidine and cysteine residues to the IMAC resin (Porath et al. 1975); however, in 1986 Andersson and Porath, for the first time, demonstrated the binding of phosphoproteins and phosphoamino acids to ferric ions immobilized on an iminodiacetate-agarose gel (Andersson and Porath 1986). Since then, the IMAC technique has been further extended and widely used for enrichment of phosphopeptides prior to MS analysis.

IMAC exploits the high affinity of positively charged metal cations (Fe^{3+} , Al^{3+} , Ga^{3+} , Zr^{4+} or Co^{2+}) to negatively charged phosphopeptides. Metal ions are chelated to nitriloacetic acid or imidoacetic acid coated surfaces to form the IMAC materials. So far, several types of matrices, including polymer beads (Qi et al. 2010), the inner wall of capillaries (Xue et al. 2009) and monoliths (Dong et al. 2007, Zhang et al. 2011) have been employed for metal ion immobilization. The enrichment of phosphopeptides appears to be dependent on the type of metal ions, pH value, ionic strength and organic phase (reviewed in Thingholm et al. 2009).

The major drawback of this method is a high level of nonspecific binding of nonphosphorylated proteins containing multiple acidic amino acid residues that co-elute with the phosphopeptides during the enrichment of highly complex peptide samples. This problem may be solved by O-methylesterification of the free carboxylic groups on acidic amino acids residues in peptide under acidic conditions (Ficarro et al. 2002) or by decreasing the pH resulting in protonation of the carboxyl groups on the highly acidic amino acid residues which reduces nonspecific binding (Posewitz and Tempst 1999). Another approach to increase the efficiency of IMAC is the prefractionation of the peptide samples by various methods (described thereinbefore). In addition, the IMAC method has some other disadvantages. It was reported that IMAC is more selective for multiphosphorylated peptides than monophosphorylated peptides, as multiply phosphorylated peptides are more strongly bound to the IMAC

resin (Ficarro et al. 2002). The technique is also affected by various buffers, detergents and other reagents that are used in biochemical and cell biological procedures. Therefore, prepurification steps are necessary prior to IMAC enrichment (Bai and Wang 2009).

Bodenmiller et al. (2007) compared three phosphopeptide isolation methods: phosphoramidate chemistry, IMAC and TiO₂ enrichment. Among these methods, IMAC was the most specific and led to the identification of the most phosphopeptides (n=555, n=8 nonphosphorylated peptides). TiO₂ enrichment was the least specific with 366 phosphopeptides identified and 96 nonphosphopeptides nonspecifically bound. In addition, 2,5-dihydroxybenzoic acid (DHB) further decreased the efficiency of TiO₂ enrichment with only 156 phosphopeptides identified. Nevertheless, it is important to mention that the comparison was done with a specific setup and by a specific laboratory. More results are needed to confirm or to confute these conclusions suggesting that IMAC is more specific than TiO₂ enrichment. Liang et al. (2007) applied iTRAQ labeling of phosphopeptide standard mixtures to quantitatively evaluate IMAC and MOAC resins. The results indicated that Fe³⁺ coated magnetic beads reached the same efficiency for phosphopeptide enrichment as TiO₂ coated magnetic beads and chromatographic TiO₂ spheres (Titansphere, GL Sciences, Torrance, CA, USA).

SIMAC (sequential elution from IMAC) strategy was designed to separate monophosphorylated and multiple phosphorylated peptides from complex biological samples. Monophosphorylated peptides were eluted from the IMAC resin using an acidic solution (1% TFA, 20% acetonitrile), while multiphosphorylated peptides were subsequently eluted under basic conditions (ammonia water, pH 11.3). The acidic eluent was further enriched using TiO₂ chromatography to sequester the pool of monophosphorylated peptides from acidic nonphosphorylated peptides (Thingholm et al. 2008). A similar procedure that involved TiO₂ enrichment of non-retained fractions from IMAC was used for the characterization of human T lymphocytes phosphoproteome (Carrascal et al. 2008). Another study used the combination of IMAC and TiO₂ enrichment to produce a large data set with only a small degree of overlap between these two methods suggesting the complementary nature of these methods (Wilson-Grady et al. 2008). Some of recent phosphoproteomic studies applying IMAC were mentioned thereinbefore in context with the prefractionation chromatographic methods. Other studies used IMAC enrichment without any prefractionation followed by LC-MS/MS. For instance, Chen et al. (2011a) studied the phosphoproteome of human prostate cancer specimens obtained from tissue depository to evaluate the phosphoproteomic analysis for the investigation of cancer-relevant phosphoproteins from archived tumor specimens to search for a prostate cancer biomarker.

Metal oxide/hydroxide affinity chromatography (MOAC)

MOAC is one of the most powerful and promising approaches that have appeared in recent years. Metal oxides have been

shown to have affinity for phosphate ions at acidic pH; the mechanism of phosphate-metal oxide interaction is based on ion-exchange where metal oxide acts as a Lewis acid, whereas the phosphopeptide group acts as a Lewis base (Matsuda et al. 1990, Ikeguchi and Nakamura 1997, Tani and Suzuki 1997).

The nature of this interaction implicates that phosphopeptides are most effectively enriched under low pH conditions. In experiments, a pH range of 2–3 is used to prevent nonspecific binding of nonphosphorylated proteins, where carboxyl groups are protonated and cannot bind to metal oxide. It has been established that especially nonphosphorylated peptides containing greater proportions of aspartic and glutamic acid bind nonspecifically (Klemm et al. 2006). Therefore, various additives have been used to increase binding specificity. Namely, trifluoroacetic acid or formic acid for pH control, acetonitrile (50–70%) to prevent hydrophobic interactions with the sorbent, and different monocarboxylic or dicarboxylic acids that are supposed to compete for binding sites with nonphosphorylated peptides; however, they do not decrease the binding affinity of phosphopeptides as they are stronger Lewis bases. The first of these presented was DHB (Larsen et al. 2005); nevertheless, lactic acid (Sugiyama et al. 2007), glutamic acid (Wu et al. 2007) or ammonium glutamate (Yu et al. 2007) have also been reported to be advantageous. The concentration of these additives might have a strong influence on the nature of phosphopeptides that are observed. Using high concentration during the binding step may improve specificity, but more weakly bound phosphopeptides could be lost, especially monophosphorylated peptides. Another approach how to minimize the level of nonspecifically bound peptides is chemical derivatization before the enrichment, e.g., methylesterification of peptides (Ficarro et al. 2002, Simon et al. 2008). A variety of pH conditions during the binding or the elution step have been employed to optimize the protocol for enrichment on MOAC resins (Simon et al. 2008, Park and Maudsley 2011).

Two different strategies have been described to enrich phosphopeptides using MOAC. The most widely followed experimental approach is the offline strategy. Metal oxide particles may be embedded in pipette tips and the enrichment proceeds during multiple passing of the peptide solution through the sorbent or mixed and incubated with proteins in a microtube, which may be more favorable because of the longer contact time of the sample with the particles. The second is the online strategy, which does not allow so much flexibility in the protocol in comparison with the offline strategy but has other undeniable advantages, e.g., higher sensitivity and automation. With the online strategy the metal oxides are integrated into the LC-MS system in the form of precolumns (e.g., Pinkse et al. 2004, Cantin et al. 2007).

A variety of metal oxides have been used for phosphopeptide enrichment to date, including TiO₂, zirconium dioxide (ZrO₂) (Kweon and Håkansson 2006), aluminum hydroxide (Wolschin and Weckwerth 2005), gallium oxide (Li et al. 2008), iron oxide (Lee et al. 2008), niobium pentoxide (Ficarro et al. 2008), tin dioxide (Leitner et al. 2009, 2010), hafnium oxide (Rivera et al. 2009) and tantalum oxide (Qi

et al. 2009); however, most of the phosphoproteomic studies have been based on TiO₂ enrichment.

Titanium dioxide (TiO₂) enrichment

TiO₂ enrichment is the most popular metal oxide resin used for phosphopeptide enrichment because of its outstanding enrichment behavior and commercial availability (e.g., Titansphere, GL Sciences). TiO₂ is highly selective to preferentially bind phosphopeptides in suitable conditions during sample loading, rinsing and peptide elution. The great advantage of TiO₂ enrichment is that TiO₂ is more robust and tolerant towards many reagents normally utilized in biochemical and cell biological procedures in comparison with conventional IMAC which is severely affected by various buffers, detergents and other low molecular molecules. In addition, various detergents were shown to enhance the efficiency of TiO₂ enrichment (Jensen and Larsen 2007).

This method was introduced in 2004 as a novel promising strategy for the selective phosphopeptide enrichment prior to 2D-nano-LC-ESI-MS/MS alternative to IMAC (Pinkse et al. 2004). In that setup, TiO₂ was used in the form of an online TiO₂ precolumn coupled to a reversed phase capillary column, loading solution containing 0.1 M acetic acid and the elution was performed with ammonium bicarbonate (pH 9.0). Phosphorylated peptides were successfully enriched; nevertheless, nonphosphorylated peptides were also retained on the TiO₂ precolumn. As it was estimated that the retention of nonphosphorylated peptides was caused by their acidic nature, the use of various “nonphosphopeptide excluders” in loading and washing solutions for TiO₂ has been examined.

In 2005, Larsen and his coworkers investigated the effect of different aromatic carboxylic acids and aliphatic carboxylic acids in loading buffer. DHB and other substituted aromatic carboxylic acids (salicylic acid, phthalic acid) followed by monofunctional carboxylic aromatic and aliphatic acids (benzoic acid, cyclohexanecarboxylic acid, phosphoric acid, trifluoroacetic acid and acetic acid) showed the best efficacy in inhibition of adsorption of nonphosphorylated peptides (Larsen et al. 2005). DHB was also found to be the most potent additive in a study by Yu et al. (2009). These results suggest the importance of a hydroxyl group in *ortho* position on a benzene ring that is probably more relevant for reducing the nonspecific peptide binding than a hydroxyl group in *meta* position, probably because the interactions between substituted aromatic carboxylic acids and the surface of TiO₂ are based on a coordination bond that forms a chelating bidentate (Dobson and McQuillan 2000).

By contrast, Sugiyama et al. (2007) reported that DHB added to loading buffer decreased the number of phosphopeptides identified in the LC-ESI-MS system, probably because DHB was eluted at the same time range as phosphopeptides and the suppression of phosphopeptide ionization occurred. In addition, DHB caused various problems within this system, e.g., column clogging, precipitation around the orifice and loss of sensitivity over time. They also compared the effect of hydroxy acids (DHB, glycolic acid, lactic acid, malic

acid, tartaric acid, hydroxypropanoic acid) in the loading buffer on phosphopeptide enrichment with various MOAC tips. Among the hydroxy acids used, lactic acid and hydroxypropanoic acid were the most effective for TiO₂ and ZrO₂ enrichment. Furthermore, aliphatic hydroxy acids are hydrophilic enough to be removed during the desalting step and thus they did not appear to affect the LC-MS system, as described in the case of DHB.

Jensen and Larsen (2007) further examined the effect of hydroxy acids, namely phthalic, glycolic, oxalic, lactic, gallic and citric acids. Among these compounds, 1 M glycolic acid was shown to be the most advantageous for the minimization of nonspecific absorption of acidic nonphosphorylated peptides without effect on the binding of phosphopeptides to TiO₂. Contrary to their results, Aryal and Ross (2010) found that the addition of glycolic acid to the loading solution reduced the specificity towards phosphopeptides. A possible explanation of this discordance is variability in properties of titania that was used for the particular study. It was shown that structure and retention properties of titania are strongly dependent on the calcination temperature of the beads (Tani et al. 2002) and thus can differ from one study to another.

The optimized protocol for TiO₂ enrichment presented by Wu et al. (2007) included the addition of glutamic acid in the sample loading buffer as an effective nonphosphopeptide excluding agent. Other investigations showed that loading buffer consisting of a combination of high concentrations of 1-octanesulfonic acid and low concentrations of DHB also improved the selectivity for phosphopeptides without affecting the LC-MS system, as also observed when DHB was used as a nonphosphopeptide excluder alone (Mazanek et al. 2007). This protocol was further optimized with the addition of heptafluorobutyric acid (Mazanek et al. 2010).

Peptide-to-TiO₂ ratio was also investigated as a substantial factor for the selectivity of phosphopeptide enrichment. The optimum ratio for HeLa cell lysate was from 1:2 to 1:8 (mass/mass); less or more TiO₂ beads decreased the selectivity. Interestingly, multiple phosphorylated peptides were identified by deficient TiO₂ beads, whereas with the increasing beads dosage, the monophosphorylated peptides became dominant (Li et al. 2009). Similar findings were obtained for acute myeloid leukemia (AML) cell line P31 (Montoya et al. 2011).

Recently, the TiO₂ enrichment method has been further improved by developing and using various nanoparticles, nanocomposites and microspheres. For example, nanotitanium dioxide composites were synthesized from TiO₂ nanoparticles via photopolymerization in the presence of a diacrylate crosslinker. The enrichment efficacy of these nanocomposites was determined to be two to five times larger compared to 5 μm TiO₂ particles. Moreover, crosslinking of the TiO₂ nanoparticles helps to prevent loss of the particles from the packed cartridges during washing procedures (Liang et al. 2006). Lin and coworkers deposited a thin TiO₂ layer onto the inner surface of a capillary column by the LPD (liquid phase deposition) technique. This TiO₂ nanoparticle-deposited capillary column was then applied offline with MALDI-TOF MS or online with ESI-QTOF MS and nano-LC-ESI-

MS/MS and a good capability for enriching of phosphopeptides was demonstrated, i.e., phosphopeptides from α -casein were detected in a mixture of tryptic peptides from α -casein and bovine serum albumin (BSA) at the femtomole level (Lin et al. 2008). Mesoporous nanostructured TiO_2 clusters were also exploited for selective separation of phosphopeptides. TiO_2 nanocrystals were first self-assembled and then further modified to form submicrometer clusters with relatively uniform mesoscale pores and a hydrophilic and negatively charged surface that enhanced the water dispersibility of the clusters. The incorporation of various components that further facilitate the separation of phosphopeptides, e.g., superparamagnetic nanocrystals, was demonstrated to be feasible because of the self-assembly process (Lu et al. 2010). The affinity material particles could also be immobilized on MALDI plates. The on-plate enrichment for subsequent MALDI-MS analysis has been shown to have some advantages in comparison with the conventional resin-based techniques such as minimal sample handling and thus lower sample loss (e.g., Qiao et al. 2007).

Zirconium dioxide (ZrO_2) enrichment

The utilization of ZrO_2 enrichment for phosphopeptide isolation prior to MS analysis was first demonstrated by Kweon and Håkansson (2006). The selectivities for phosphopeptides of microtips filled with ZrO_2 and TiO_2 microtips were compared, and both ZrO_2 and TiO_2 were highly specific for phosphopeptides. Nevertheless, ZrO_2 provided more selective enrichment for monophosphorylated peptides, whereas TiO_2 was more selective for multiphosphorylated peptides (Kweon and Håkansson 2006). The observed difference in binding selectivity of ZrO_2 and TiO_2 is probably due to the fact that ZrO_2 is a stronger Lewis acid than TiO_2 under acidic conditions, together with different coordination numbers of zirconia and titania in crystalline forms (7 and 6, respectively; Kweon and Håkansson 2006). Contrary to that report, no obvious affinity difference towards singly and multiple phosphorylated peptides was observed when ZrO_2 nanoparticles were used. Compared with microparticles, nanoparticles have a higher surface area and thus provide higher sample capacity (Zhou et al. 2007). As in the case of TiO_2 , the ZrO_2 enrichment method has been further improved by using various loading, washing and elution conditions and by preparing different ZrO_2 containing microspheres, nanoparticles and nanocomposites. Sugiyama and coworkers (2007) examined the effect of various hydroxy acids (β -hydroxypropanoic, DHB, glycolic, lactic, malic and tartaric acids) in the loading solution, and among them the β -hydroxypropanoic acid was shown to be the most effective nonphosphopeptide excluder. Lo et al. (2007) presented iron oxide nanocomposites of magnetic particles coated with zirconia with high surface-to-volume ratio improving the trapping capacity and reducing the time required for enrichment; phosphopeptides could be enriched by pipetting the sample with the particles for only 30 s. In addition, magnetic property enabled easy isolation by application of an external magnetic field. Li et al. (2007) prepared $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4/\text{ZrO}_2$ core shell microspheres with well-defined core

shell structure and higher selectivity than ZrO_2 coated magnetic particles (no core shell structure) described previously. Furthermore, $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4/\text{ZrO}_2$ core shell microspheres were more selective in comparison with commercially available IMAC material (PHOS-select iron affinity beads, Sigma, St. Louis, MO, USA). In 2009, mesoporous ZrO_2 nanomaterial with very large surface areas and many surface sites which provide higher loading capacity for binding of phosphate groups than microparticles and nanoparticles was first applied for phosphopeptide enrichment (Nelson et al. 2009). However, mesoporous ZrO_2 has some disadvantages including its thermal instability and hence mesoporous silica microspheres coated with zirconia layer were synthesized to improve its thermal stability. Owing to the interactions of metal oxide and silica support, the physical-chemistry properties of metal oxide differ greatly to the bulk crystalline metal oxides and enable high phosphopeptide recovery, especially for multiphosphorylated peptides, which was shown to be even higher than that of the widely used commercial TiO_2 microparticles (Wan et al. 2010).

Hydroxyapatite enrichment

Ceramic hydroxyapatite based enrichment is a new method presented in 2010 (Mamone et al. 2010), which was shown to be employable for both phosphoproteins and phosphopeptides enrichment and also for on-particle tryptic digestion (Pinto et al. 2010). Hydroxyapatite is a crystalline form of calcium phosphate with a chemical formula $\text{Ca}_{10}(\text{PO}_4)_6(\text{OH})_2$, which was originally used for the separation of proteins (Tiselius et al. 1956) and nucleic acids (Bernardi 1969). Binding between hydroxyapatite crystal surface that contains positively charged Ca^{2+} ions and negatively charged PO_4^{3-} groups occurs by the complexing of protein carboxyls or phosphates with Ca^{2+} ions. The specificity of hydroxyapatite enrichment for phosphopeptides is based on the fact that phosphogroups of the protein bind more strongly with Ca^{2+} than carboxyl groups (Gorbunoff 1984). The HAP method was compared with the TiO_2 technique and it was shown that HAP enrichment increased specificity towards multiphosphorylated peptides by reducing the amount of monophosphorylated peptides and nonphosphorylated peptides (Mamone et al. 2010).

Molecularly imprinted polymers (MIPs)

MIPs can also be exploited to target phosphorylated peptides. A phosphate-selective molecularly imprinted polymer has been prepared using 1-allyl-2-urea as a functional monomer and a diphenylphosphate template. The imprinted polymer exhibited high binding ability and selectivity for phosphate, with 70% phosphate recovery (Kugimiya and Takei 2008). Recently, phosphotyrosine MIP-based receptors have been developed using two urea-based monomers and an N,O-protected p-Tyr template. These receptors have been demonstrated to have high selectivity, sensitivity and affinity for peptides containing the imprinted amino acid (pTyr) and hence could be used to

capture pTyr-containing peptides at the femtomole level in the presence of four orders of magnitude higher concentrations of other nonphosphorylated or pSer/Thr-phosphorylated peptide fragments (Helling et al. 2011).

Conclusion

In recent years, the advances made in MS technologies have spurred the progress of phosphoproteomics. The development of new methods for phosphoproteomics research is motivated by the importance and omnipresence of protein phosphorylation in nature. The characterization of cellular networks and signal transduction via phosphorylation and dephosphorylation is essential to understand both physiological and pathological cellular processes. Although the potential for phosphopeptide enrichment and rapid analysis has improved dramatically over the past few years, a comprehensive description of phosphoproteome is still a great challenge for many researchers. The combinations of enrichment techniques or the utilization of a variety of prefractionation techniques prior to phosphopeptide enrichment are employed to obtain more complete information about the phosphopeptide pool in real samples. Furthermore, the application of proteases other than the most used trypsin such as Lys-N could be promising. Nevertheless, further improvements in enrichment techniques are necessary to achieve the truly comprehensive and thus reproducible experiments, to improve sensitivity to allow researchers to work with only small amounts of starting material, and also to simplify and speed up phosphoproteomic analysis that is often very time-consuming.

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