View Online / Journal Homepage / Table of Contents to duratesue

Molecular BioSystems

Interfacing chemical biology with the -omic sciences and systems biology

www.molecularbiosystems.org

Volume 8 | Number 12 | December 2012 | Pages 3091-3348

RSCPublishing

ISSN 1742-206X

PAPERHong-Lin Chan et al.High glucose-induced proteome alterations in retinal pigmented epitheliumcells and its possible relevance to diabetic retinopathy



1742-206X(2012)8:12;1-W

Molecular BioSystems

Cite this: Mol. BioSyst., 2012, 8, 3107-3124

www.rsc.org/molecularbiosystems

PAPER

High glucose-induced proteome alterations in retinal pigmented epithelium cells and its possible relevance to diabetic retinopathy[†]

You-Hsuan Chen, Jing-Yi Chen, Yi-Wen Chen, Szu-Ting Lin and Hong-Lin Chan*

Received 13th August 2012, Accepted 20th September 2012 DOI: 10.1039/c2mb25331c

Diabetic retinopathy can cause poor vision and blindness. Previous research has shown that high blood glucose weakens retinal capillaries and induces glycoxidation. However, the detailed molecular mechanisms underlying the effects of high blood glucose on development of diabetic retinopathy have yet to be elucidated. In this study, we cultured a retinal pigmented epithelium cell line (ARPE-19) in mannitol-balanced 5.5 mM, 25 mM, and 100 mM D-glucose media, and evaluated protein expression and redox-regulation. We identified 56 proteins that showed significant changes in protein expression, and 33 proteins showing significant changes in thiol reactivity, in response to high glucose concentration. Several proteins that are involved in signal transduction, gene regulation, and transport showed significant changes in expression, whereas proteins involved in metabolism, transport, and cell survival displayed changes in thiol reactivity. Further analyses of clinical plasma specimens confirmed that the proteins lamin B2, PUMA, WTAP, ASGR1, and prohibitin 2 showed type 2 diabetic retinopathy-dependent alterations. In summary, in this study, we used a comprehensive retinal cell-based proteomic approach for the identification of changes in protein expression and redox-associated retinal markers induced by high glucose concentration. Some of the identified proteins have been validated with clinical samples and provide potential targets for the prognosis and diagnosis of diabetic retinopathy.

1. Introduction

The retina is a light-sensitive nerve layer that can construct images of objects at the back of the eye. This specialized tissue is supplied with oxygen and nutrients from adjacent tiny blood vessels. Retinopathy is a retinal disease that occurs in approximately 25% of diabetic patients.^{1,2} Diabetic retinopathy can cause poor vision and blindness because high blood glucose weakens retinal capillaries, leading to the leakage of blood into surrounding spaces. This bleeding can also cause scar formation, potentially leading to retinal detachment and disconnection from the wall of the eye. The detailed underlying molecular mechanisms and diagnostic biomarkers of diabetic retinopathy have yet to be fully elucidated.3-7

Hyperglycemia is a common feature of diabetes mellitus and is characterized by the modification of amino groups on proteins with monosaccharides. This reaction modifies the structure and function of proteins through the formation of advanced glycation end products and the generation of reactive oxygen species (ROS) in a process called glycoxidation.⁸

The glycated proteins interact with membrane receptors, resulting in induction of intracellular oxidative stress, activation of a panel of protein kinases, and proinflammatory status.⁹⁻¹² Excess glucose-induced oxidative stress also promotes the development of diabetic complications, leading to tissue damage.13

Several chemical groups have been found to be potential targets of ROS in cells. One of these, the free thiol group (RSH) of cysteine residues is a potent nucleophilic agent and is able to 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, sulfinic acid and sulfonic acid, depending upon the oxidative capacity of the oxidant.¹⁴ Oxidation of RSH groups to sulfinic and sulfonic acids is an irreversible reaction under physiologic conditions and induces loss of biological functions of proteins.15,16

Two-dimensional gel electrophoresis (2-DE) is one of the most widely used proteomic separation techniques which has often been employed for the analysis of differentially expressed proteins in biological samples.^{17,18} However, 2-DE and the methods commonly used for in-gel protein visualization are inherently variable and many replicate gels must be run before significant differences in protein expression can be ascribed accurately. Moreover, these protein visualization strategies often have narrow linear dynamic ranges of detection, making them

Institute of Bioinformatics and Structural Biology & Department of Medical Sciences, National Tsing Hua University, No.101, Kuang-Fu Rd. Sec.2, Hsinchu, 30013, Taiwan. E-mail: hlchan@life.nthu.edu.tw; Fax: +886-3-5715934; Tel: +886-3-5742476 † Electronic supplementary information (ESI) available. See DOI:

^{10.1039/}c2mb25331c

unsuitable for the analysis of biological samples where protein copy numbers vary enormously. A significant improvement in the ability to use gel-based methods for protein quantification and detection was achieved with the introduction of 2D-difference gel electrophoresis (2D-DIGE), which can aid in co-detection of several biological samples on the same 2-DE gel, so reducing gel-to-gel variation.^{19–23}

This study evaluated changes in retinal protein expression associated with high glucose concentration using lysineand cysteine-labeling 2D-DIGE.^{24,25} Combined strategies of MALDI-TOF MS and clinical specimen analysis further confirmed the changes in protein expression and redox-associated retinal markers induced by high glucose concentrations. Our results indicated potential targets for the prognosis and diagnosis of diabetic retinopathy. To our knowledge, this is the first study to report the effects of high glucose concentration on protein expression and redox regulation in retinal pigmented epithelium cells and to associate these findings with diabetic retinopathy.

2. Materials and methods

2.1 Chemicals and reagents

Generic chemicals were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich (St. Louis, USA), while reagents for lysine-2D-DIGE were purchased from GE Healthcare (Uppsala, Sweden). The synthesis of the ICy3 and ICy5 dyes has been previously reported.^{26,27} All primary antibodies were purchased from GeneTex (Hsinchu, Taiwan) and anti-mouse, and anti-rabbit secondary antibodies were purchased from GE Healthcare (Uppsala, Sweden). All the chemicals and biochemicals used in this study were of analytical grade.

2.2 Cell lines and cell cultures

The ARPE-19 cell lines were purchased from the American Type Culture Collection (Manassas, VA) and maintained in Dulbecco's Modified Eagle's medium (DMEM) supplemented with 10% (v/v) fetal calf serum (FCS), L-glutamine (2 mM), streptomycin (100 μ g mL⁻¹), and penicillin (100 IU mL⁻¹) (all from Gibco-Invitrogen Corp., UK). ARPE-19 cells were incubated at 37 °C in 5% CO₂.

For cell culturing at differential glucose concentrations, the cultures were exposed to D-glucose at a final concentration of 25 and 100 mM (corresponding to 2 h after meal plasma glucose levels of diabetic patients, ²⁸ respectively) and compared with cultures exposed to 5.5 mM D-glucose as control (corresponding to fasting plasma glucose levels of diabetes-free people).^{29,30} To exclude the possible effects of hyperosmotic stress, mannitol was used to balance the differential glucose concentrations according to a previous report.³¹ After exposure for at least 3 weeks, the monolayer cultures were used for further analysis.

2.3 MTT cell viability assay

ARPE-19 cells maintained in mannitol-balanced 5.5 mM, 25 mM and 100 mM glucose, respectively, for at least 3 weeks were trypsinized, counted using a haemocytometer and

5000 cells per well were seeded into 96-well plates. The culture was then incubated in mannitol-balanced 5.5 mM, 25 mM and 100 mM glucose for 24 h followed by removal of the medium. 50 μ L of MTT working solution (1 mg mL⁻¹) (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 μ L of DMSO was added to each well and the plates were shaken for 20 min. The absorbance of samples was then measured at a wavelength of 540 nm in a multi-well plate reader. Values were normalized against the untreated samples and were averaged from 8 independent measurements.

2.4 Flow cytometry analysis for apoptosis detection

An annexin-V/propidium iodide (PI) double assay was performed using the Annexin V, Alexa Fluor[®] 488 Conjugate Detection kit (Life technologies). Following ARPE-19 growth in differential glucose concentration media, cells were trypsinized from culture dish and washed twice with cold PBS. ARPE-19 cells (10^6) were resuspended in 500 µL binding buffer and stained with 5 µL Alexa Fluor 488 conjugated annexin V according to the manufacturer's instructions. 1 µL 100 µg mL⁻¹ propidium iodide (PI) was added and mixed gently to incubate with cells for 15 min at room temperature in the dark. After the incubation period, samples were subjected to FCM analysis for 1 h using BD Accuri C6 Flow Cytometry (BD Biosciences, San Jose, CA). The data were analyzed using Accuri CFlow[@] and CFlow Plus analysis software (BD Biosciences).

2.5 Assay for endogenous reactive oxygen species using DCFH-DA

ARPE-19 cells maintained in mannitol-balanced 5.5 mM, 25 mM and 100 mM glucose, respectively, for at least 3 weeks were trypsinized, counted using a haemocytometer and 10 000 cells per well were seeded into multiple 24-well plates. The culture was then incubated in mannitol-balanced 5.5 mM, 25 mM and 100 mM glucose for 24 h. After two washes with PBS, cells were treated with 10 μ M of 2,7-dichlorofluorescin diacetate (DCFH-DA; Molecular Probes) at 37 °C for 20 min, and subsequently washed with PBS. Fluorescence was recorded at an excitation wavelength of 485 nm and emission wavelength of 530 nm.

2.6 Sample preparation for total cellular protein and thiol reactivity analysis

For total cellular protein analysis, cells were washed in chilled $0.5 \times PBS$ and scraped in 2-DE lysis buffer containing 4% w/v CHAPS, 7 M urea, 2 M thiourea, 10 mM Tris–HCl, pH 8.3, 1 mM EDTA. Lysates were homogenized by passage through a 25-gauge needle 10 times, insoluble material was removed by centrifugation at 14100 g for 30 min at 4 °C, and protein concentrations were determined using Coomassie Protein Assay Reagent (BioRad). Protein samples were labeled with *N*-hydroxy succinimidyl ester-derivatives of the cyanine dyes Cy2, Cy3 and Cy5. Briefly, 150 µg of protein sample was minimally labeled with 375 pmol of either Cy3 or Cy5 for comparison on the same 2-DE. To facilitate image matching and cross-gel statistical comparison, a pool of all samples was

also prepared and labeled with Cy2 at a molar ratio of 2.5 pmol Cy2 per μ g of protein as an internal standard for all gels. Thus, the triplicate samples and the internal standard could be run and quantified by multiple 2-DE. The labeling reactions were performed in the dark on ice for 30 min and then quenched with a 20-fold molar ratio excess of free L-lysine to dye for 10 min. The differentially Cy3- and Cy5-labeled samples were then mixed with the Cy2-labeled internal standard and reduced with dithiothreitol for 10 min. IPG buffer, pH 3–10 nonlinear (2% (v/v), GE Healthcare) was added and the final volume was adjusted to 450 μ L with 2D-lysis buffer for rehydration. All samples were run in triplicate against the standard pool.

For redox DIGE analysis, cells were lysed in 2-DE buffer (4% w/v CHAPS, 8 M urea, 10 mM Tris-HCl pH 8.3 and 1 mM EDTA) in the presence of ICy3 or ICy5 (80 pmol mg^{-1} protein) on ice to limit post-lysis thiol modification. Test samples were labeled with the ICv5 dye and mixed with an equal amount of a standard pool of both samples labeled with ICy3. Since ICy dyes interfered with the protein assay, protein concentrations were determined on replica lysates not containing dye. Lysates were left in the dark for 1 h followed by labeling with Cy2 to monitor the protein level. The reactions were quenched with DTT (65 mM final concentration) for 10 min followed by L-lysine (20-fold molar ratio excess of free L-lysine to Cy2 dye) for a further 10 min. Volumes were adjusted to 450 µL with buffer plus DTT and IPG buffer for rehydration. All samples were run in triplicate against the standard pool.

The rehydration process was performed with immobilized non-linear pH gradient (IPG) strips (pH 3-10, 24 cm) which were later rehydrated by CyDye-labeled samples in the dark at room temperature overnight (at least 12 hours). Isoelectric focusing was then performed using a Multiphor II apparatus (GE Healthcare) for a total of 62.5 kV h at 20 °C. Strips were equilibrated in 6 M urea, 30% (v/v) glycerol, 1% SDS (w/v), 100 mM Tris-HCl (pH8.8), 65 mM dithiothreitol for 15 min and then in the same buffer containing 240 mM iodoacetamide for another 15 min. The equilibrated IPG strips were transferred onto 26×20 cm 12.5% polyacrylamide gels casted between low fluorescent glass plates. The strips were overlaid with 0.5% (w/v) low melting point agarose in a running buffer containing bromophenol blue. The gels were run in an Ettan Twelve gel tank (GE Healthcare) at 4 Watt per gel at 10 °C until the dye front had completely run off the bottom of the gels. Afterward, the fluorescence 2-DE were scanned directly between the low fluorescent glass plates using an Ettan DIGE Imager (GE Healthcare). This imager is a charge-coupled device-based instrument that enables scanning at different wavelengths for Cy2-, Cy3-, and Cy5-labeled samples. Gel analysis was performed using DeCyder 2-D Differential Analysis Software v7.0 (GE Healthcare) to co-detect, normalize and quantify the protein features in the images. Features detected from non-protein sources (e.g. dust particles and dirty backgrounds) were filtered out. Spots displaying a γ 1.5 average-fold increase or decrease in abundance or spots displaying a γ 1.3 average-fold increase or decrease in thiol reactivity with a p-value < 0.05 were selected for protein identification.

2.7 Protein staining

Colloidal coomassie blue G-250 staining was used to visualize CyDye-labeled protein features in 2-DE. Bonded gels were fixed in 30% v/v ethanol, 2% v/v phosphoric acid overnight, washed three times (30 min each) with ddH₂O and then incubated in 34% v/v methanol, 17% w/v ammonium sulphate, 3% v/v phosphoric acid for 1 h, prior to adding 0.5 g per liter coomassie blue G-250. The gels were then left to stain for 5–7 days. No destaining step was required. The stained gels were then imaged on an ImageScanner III densitometer (GE Healthcare), which processed the gel images as .tif files.

2.8 In-gel digestion

Excised post-stained gel pieces were washed three times in 50% acetonitrile, dried in a SpeedVac for 20 min, reduced with 10 mM dithiothreitol in 5 mM bicarbonate pH 8.0 for 45 min at 50 °C and then alkylated with 50 mM iodoacetamide in 5 mM ammonium bicarbonate for 1 h at room temperature in the dark. The 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 ammonium bicarbonate. The pieces were then overlaid with 10 μ L of 5 mM ammonium bicarbonate and trypsinized for 16 h at 37 °C. Supernatants were collected, peptides were further extracted twice with 5% trifluoroacetic acid in 50% acetonitrile and the supernatants were pooled. Peptide extracts were vacuum-dried, resuspended in 5 μ L ddH₂O, and stored at -20 °C prior to MS analysis.

2.9 Protein identification by MALDI-TOF MS

For protein identification, extracted peptides were subjected to peptide mass fingerprinting (PMF) using MALDI-TOF MS. Briefly, 0.5 µL of a trypsin digested protein sample was mixed with 0.5 μ L of a matrix solution containing α -cyano-4-hydroxycinammic acid at a concentration of 1 mg mL⁻¹ of 50% ACN/0.1% TFA (v/v), spotted onto an anchorchip target plate (Bruker Daltonics) and dried. The peptide mass fingerprints were acquired using an Autoflex III mass spectrometer (Bruker Daltonics) in reflector mode and the raw data were analyzed with FlexAnalysis acquisition software (version 3.0, Bruker Daltonics). The algorithm used for spectral annotation was SNAP (Sophisticated Numerical Annotation Procedure). The following metrics were used: peak detection algorithm: SNAP; signal to noise threshold: 25; relative intensity threshold: 0%; minimum intensity threshold: 0; maximal number of peaks: 50; quality factor threshold: 1000; SNAP average composition: averaging; baseline subtraction: median; flatness: 0.8; median level: 0.5. The spectrometer was also calibrated with a peptide calibration standard (Bruker Daltonics) and internal calibration was performed using trypsin autolysis peaks at m/z 842.51 and m/z 2211.10 (MS BioTools version 3.0, Bruker Daltonics). Peaks in the mass range of m/z 800–3000 were used to generate a peptide mass fingerprint that was searched against the Swiss-Prot/TrEMBL database (2010 12, 515203 sequence entries) using Mascot software v2.3.00 (Matrix Science, London, UK). The following parameters were used: Homo sapiens; tryptic digest with a maximum of 1 missed cleavage; carbamidomethylation of cysteine, partial protein

N-terminal acetylation, partial methionine oxidation, partial modification of glutamine to pyroglutamate, ICy3 (C34 H44 N3 O) and ICy5 (C34 H42 N3 O) and a mass tolerance of 50 ppm. Identifications were accepted based on significant MASCOT scores (P < 0.05), spectral annotation and observed *versus* expected molecular weight and pI on 2-DE.

The classification of the biological functions and sub-cellular locations of these identified proteins are further determined based on a Swiss-Prot search (http://www.uniprot.org/) and KEGG pathway (http://www.genome.jp/kegg/) analysis.

2.10 Plasma sample collection and purification

Thirty donors in a single hospital (Chiayi Christian Hospital, Chiavi, Taiwan) were enrolled in the study. Those included in the study were divided into diabetic retinopathy patients (n = 15) and healthy donors (n = 15) with similar ages (50-60 years old). The criteria to assess the presence or absence of diabetic retinopathy were based on the pathological diagnosis and guidelines proposed by the World Health Organization. Diabetic retinopathy individuals were selected with significant retinopathy occurrence more than 5 years after diabetes diagnosed with ages between 50 and 60 years old. In contrast, healthy individuals were selected for healthy donors without diagnosed retinopathy and diabetes with ages between 50 and 60 years old. This study was approved by the Institutional Research Board and carried out according to the Helsinki Declaration Principles. Written informed consent was collected from all participating subjects.

2.11 Immunoblotting

Immunoblotting was used to validate the differential expression of mass spectrometry identified proteins. Cells were lysed with a lysis buffer containing 50 mM HEPES pH 7.4, 150 mM NaCl, 1% NP40, 1 mM EDTA, 2 mM sodium orthovanadate, 100 µg mL⁻¹ AEBSF, 17 µg mL⁻¹ aprotinin, 1 µg mL⁻¹ leupeptin, 1 µg mL⁻¹ pepstatin, 5 µM fenvalerate, 5 µM BpVphen and 1 µM okadaic acid prior to protein quantification with a Coomassie Protein Assay Reagent (BioRad). Protein samples (30 µg) were diluted in Laemmli sample buffer (final concentrations: 50 mM Tris pH 6.8, 10% (v/v) glycerol, 2% SDS (w/v), 0.01% (w/v) bromophenol blue) and separated by 1D-SDS-PAGE following standard procedures. After electroblotting separated proteins onto 0.45 µm Immobilon P membranes (Millipore), the membranes were blocked with 5% w/v skimmed milk in TBST (50 mM Tris pH 8.0, 150 mM NaCl and 0.1% Tween-20 (v/v)) for 1 h. Membranes were then incubated in primary antibody solution in TBS-T containing 0.02% (w/v) sodium azide for 2 h. Membranes were washed in TBS-T (3 \times 10 min) and then probed with the appropriate horseradish peroxidase-coupled secondary antibody (GE Healthcare). After further washing in TBS-T, immunoprobed proteins were visualized using an enhanced chemiluminescence method (Visual Protein Co.).

2.12 Immunofluorescence

For immunofluorescence staining, cells were plated onto coverslips (VWR international) for overnight incubation. The cells were fixed with PBS containing 4% (v/v) *para*-formaldehyde

for 25 min, washed three times with PBS, and followed by permeabilization in PBS containing 0.2% (v/v) Triton X-100 for 10 min. Coverslips were rinsed and blocked in PBS containing 5% (w/v) BSA for 10 min before incubation with primary antibodies diluted in 2.5% BSA/PBS for 1 h. After three washings with PBS, samples were incubated with the appropriate fluorescently labeled secondary antibodies diluted in 2.5% BSA/PBS for 1 h. Coverslips were then washed three times with PBS and at least twice with ddH₂O before mounting in Vectashield mounting medium (Vector Lab). Coverslip edges were sealed with nail polish onto glass slides (BDH) and then dried in the dark at 4 °C. For image analysis, cells were imaged using a Zeiss Axiovert 200 M fluorescent microscope (Carl Zeiss Inc., Germany). The laser intensities used to capture images were not saturated. Images were exported as .tif files using the Zeiss Axioversion 4.0 and processed using Adobe Photoshop V.7.0 software.

3. Results

3.1 High glucose concentration induces changes in protein expression in the retinal pigmented epithelium cell line ARPE-19

To evaluate the effects of high glucose concentration on the expression of retinal pigmented epithelium cell proteins, we cultured ARPE-19 cells in mannitol-balanced 5.5 mM, 25 mM,

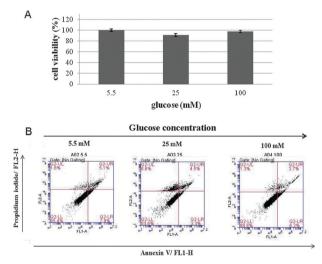


Fig. 1 Effect of glucose concentration on cell viability and cell apoptosis in ARPE-19. (A) MTT-based viability assays were performed on ARPE-19 cell cultures, following 3 weeks at different glucose concentrations (5.5 mM, 25 mM and 100 mM glucose). Paired Student t-test has been used for the statistical analysis of the experimental results. Values were normalized against untreated samples and are the average of 3 independent measurements \pm the standard deviation. (B) 10⁶ different glucose concentrations cultured ARPE-19 cells were incubated with Alexa Fluor 488 and propidium iodide in 1x binding buffer at room temperature for 15 min, and then stained cells were analyzed by flow cytometry to examine the effect of different glucose concentrations on apoptosis in APRE-19 cells. Annexin V is presented on the x-axis as FL1-H, and propidium iodide is presented on the y-axis as FL2-H. LR quadrant indicates the percentage of early apoptotic cells (Annexin V positive cells), and UR quadrant indicates the percentage of late apoptotic cells (Annexin V positive and propidium iodide positive cells).

Downloaded on 31 October 2012 Published on 21 September 2012 on http://pubs.rsc.org | doi:10.1039/C2MB25331C Table 1 Alphabetic list of identified differentially expressed proteins after 2D-DIGE coupled with MALDI-TOF mass spectrometry analysis of ARPE-19 cells maintained in mannitol-balanced 5.5 mM. 25 mM and 100 mM glucose

5.5 mM, 25 m	5.5 mM, 25 mM and 100 mM glucose											
Swiss- No. prot No.	Protein name	w <i>M</i> Id		No. match. Cov. peptide (%)	ov. Dore	25 mM/ 5.5 M ^a	T -test	$100 \text{ mM}/{5.5 \text{ mM}^a}$ T-test	$\frac{1}{T}$ -test	Subcellular location	Functional ontology	Match peptide sequences
1111 Q86TM9		5.87 68	509	5 12	58/56	1.36	0.11	1.78	0.01	Secretion	Neuron transmission	R.AVLQSGAPNGPWATVGMGEA RR.R.K.TPGGPVSAFLGIPFAEPPM
1229 Q86TM9	1229 Q86TM9 Acetylcholinesterase	5.87 68	68 209 7/14	4 14	74/56	2.99	0.01	2.38	0.0026	Secretion	Neuron	
551 P27144	Adenylate kinase isoenzyme 4	8.41 25	25 336 4/9	21	71/56	1	0.97	-1.66	0.032	transmission Mitochondrion Metabolism	transmission Metabolism	
874 P02511	Alpha-crystallin B chain	6.76 20	20 146 6/33	33 34	56/56	1.59	0.14	1.87	0.0095	Cytoplasm	Visual	GFFK.1 MDIAIHHPWIR.R;R.RPFFPFHSPS dd t
287 P08758 478 Q9Y6Q5	Annexin A5 5 AP-1 complex subunit mu-2	4.94 35 8.22 48	35971 4/11 48192 4/6	11 11	57/56 58/56	1.3 1.42	$0.24 \\ 0.00071$	$1.7 \\ -1.22$	$0.044 \\ 0.0012$	Membrane Cytoplasm	system Coagulation Transport	R.SEIDLFNIR.K.K.FITIFGTR.S K.ILQEYITQQSNKLETGK.S;M.SA
78 P07306	Asialoglycoprotein receptor	5.28 33	33 735 5/13	3 16	64/56	-1.52	0.032	-1.29	0.09	Plasma	Protein	SAVFILDVK.G R.WVCETELDK.A;K.QFVSDLR.S
607 Q9BXH1		9.09 20	20 691 5/16	6 27	65/56	1.27	0.17	1.77	0.014	Mitochondrion Cell death	uranicking r Cell death	R.WPGGPRSRPR.G; R.QEGSSPEPVEGLAR.D
1118 Q9NZS5	of apoptosis/PUMA Cell division protein kinase	5.45 92	92.821 6/13	3 6	64/56	1.05	0.99	-1.56	0.022	Nucleus	Cell cycle	R.SPPRPPR.E; R.ISAEDGLK.H
870 095813	LLB Cerberus	7.7 30	30 577 4/9	18	69/56	1.56	0.081	1.59	0.013	Secretion	Signal	
1102 Q9NX63		8.48 26	26421 4/5	5 17	59/56	1.27	0.076	1.51	0.028	Mitochondrio	transduction I Cytoskeleton	Utansqueuon INLCFOR.C Mitochondrion Cytoskeleton R.ERAAANEQLTR.A; K.ILQCYRENTHQTLK.C
374 Q14204	protein 3 Cytoplasmic dynein 1 heavy chain 1	6.01 53 4809		14/17 3	71/56	1.63	0.00071	1.46	0.01	Cytoplasm	Cytoskeletor	Cytoskeleton K.LFRSLAMTKPDR.Q;R.DLEASIA DVK F
416 P15924 986 P33981	Desmoplakin Desmoplakin Dual specificity protein kinase	6.44 334 021 8.41 97 980		21/37 7 7/13 8	63/56 58/56	-1.66 2.12	0.0016 0.096	$-1.57 \\ -1.3$	0.0045 0.65	Cytoplasm Nucleus	Cytoskeletor Cell cycle	Cytoskeleton R.MSQLEVK.E;K.RQVQNLVNK.S Cell cycle M.ESEDLSGR.E; K.QWQSKR.K
449 Q6UWE	Q6UWE0 E3 ubiquitin-protein ligase	5.7 84	84 567 5/11	11 6	60/56	-1.87	0.0013	-1.67	0.0031	Cytoplasm	Protein	R.MEQLMSITQEETESLR.R; B_VOETTPAAD_T
1136 Q6UWE	LKSALWI 1136 Q6UWE0 E3 ubiquitin-protein ligase T DSAMI	5.7 84	84 567 6/23	23 8	57/56	-1.03	0.6	-2.97	0.0017	Cytoplasm	uegrauauon Protein deerodotion	R.WELLDAAR.I R.MEQLMSITQEETESLR.R;R.VQE
137 Q96EB1		8.75 47	47014 5/10	8 0	59/56	1.69	0.12	2.51	0.041	Nucleus	uegrauauon Gene	K.SNVTSFQR.R; V VNIVSBLTEV V
30 Q96J88	Epithelial-stromal interaction	9.9 36	36942 5/8	3 12	58/56	-1.57	0.0096	-1.45	0.0021	Cytoplasm	Cell	K.WKEQNR.A; R.EHQQYK.T
725 075955	Protein 1 Flotillin-1	7.08 47	47 544 6/14	4 21	64/56	1.24	0.051	1.66	0.0091	Plasma	Protein	R.GEAEAFAIGAR.A;K.AEAFQLY
335 Q14192	Four and a half LIM domains	7.8	34166 6/17	19	71/56	1.55	0.02	1.61	0.055	Nucleus	Cell growth	VEAAQLUMLLEN.L K.GSSWHETCFICHR.C;R.QWHND
761 Q16595	Frataxin	8.8 23	23 235 7/34	34 36	73/56	1.75	$2.60 imes 10^{-05}$	¹⁵ –1.3	0.0051	Mitochondrion Biosynthesis	1 Biosynthesis	R.AVAGLLASPSPAQAQTLTR.V;K. Devyt mnit dv. s
1186 Q6ZVF9		7.52	83 357 5/7	5	57/56	1.42	0.11	-1.72	0.019	Plasma	Neurite	R.SQRTSNR.E;K.KQLGADSK.L
239 P04406	Glyceraldehyde-3-phosphate dehydrogenase	8.51 36	36 201 7/25	25 23	79/56	1.14	0.73	1.64	0.043	Cytoplasm	Glycolysis	K.VGVNGFGR.I;K.LTGMAFR.V

Downloaded on 31 October 2012 Published on 21 September 2012 on http://pubs.rsc.org | doi:10.1039/C2MB25331C

Table 1 (continued)

Suries-			No. match	ΩO.	C	75 mM/		100 m M		Subcellular	Emetional	
No. prot No.	Vo. Protein name	$pI = M_W$	peptide	e (%) e	Score 5	5.5 M ^a	T-test	$5.5 \text{ mM}^a T-\text{test}$	T-test	location	ontology	Match peptide sequences
588 Q9UC36		5.98 22 826	5/24	24	69/56	1.27	0.013	1.83	0.0002	Cytoplasm	Protein	R.GPSWDPFR.D;K.LATQSNEITIP
280 O00422		9.38 17 607	5/14	37	63/56 -	-1.56	0.0069	-1.53	0.0019	Nucleus	folding Gene	VIFESR.A K.EPEKPIDREK.T;R.KGTDDSMTL
613 P13645	subunit SAP18 5 Keratin. tvne I cvtoskeletal 10	5.13	12/34	18	102/56	1.06	0.4	2.06	0.0012	Cvtoplasm	regulation Cvtoskeleton	QSQK.F dr.vldeltltk.a:K.Seitelrr.n
545 Q99612				12	67/56 -	-2.15	0.036	-4.16	0.0024	Nucleus	Gene	K.IILAREK.K;R.CFSRSDHLALHM V D
52 Q03252	52 Lamin-B2	5.29 67762	11/34	16	58/56 -	-1.68	0.0017	-1.6	0.0024	Nucleus	Cytoskeleton	N.N. 1 R.EELKEAR.M,K.LALDMEINAYR V I
928 P19105	5 Myosin regulatory light chain	4.67 19839	4/19	29	56/56	1.3	0.17	1.74	0.0011	Cytoplasm	Cytoskeletoi	Cytoskeleton R.NAFACFDEEATGTIQEDYLR.E;
1063 Q9Y2I1		5.04 168 292	8/14	٢	62/56	1.5	0.013	1.72	0.0131.72	Endosome	Signal	
354 Q9UJ68		8.22 26410	4/9	15	57/56	1.29	0.12	1.53	0.0028	Cytoplasm	transduction Redox	
570 P30041	reductase 11 Peroxiredoxin-6	6 25133	5/18	29	77/56	1.68	0.0056	1.6	0.0094	Cytoplasm	regulation Redox	;K.HHVNGNR.T M.PGGLLLGDVAPNFEANTTVGR.
11UN60 23		9.38 31100	4/13	14	58/56 -	-1.53	0.0019	-1.42	0.044	Peroxisome	regulation Fatty acid	I;K.FHDFLGDSWGILFSHPK.D R.VNSLAPGPISGTEGLR.R;R.HLF
863 P30086	reductase 86 Phosphatidylethanolamine-	7.01 21 158	4/11	29	59/56	1.44	0.1	1.59	0.025	Cytoplasm	degradation Cell	CPDLLR.D K.NRPTSISWDGLDSGK.L;R.YVW
531 P18669	binding protein 1 9 Phosphoglycerate mutase 1	6.67 28 900	5/27	31	72/56	1.55	0.0054	1.35	0.011	Cytoplasm	signaling Metabolism	LVY EQDRPLK.C R.SYDVPPPPMEPDHPFYSNISK.D;
1059 Q10471		8.63 65433	7/13	11	58/56 -	-1.6	0.014	-1.56	0.028	Golgi	Biosynthesis	
594 Q15007	,	5.12 44388	7/16	15	70/56	1.06	0.4	2.06	0.0012	apparatus Nucleus	Gene	SGSAGIINYQR.R R.TSGSGFHR.E;R.ENILVMRLATK
764 Q5GLZ8		1 5.8 119913	5/11	5	57/56 -	-1.94	0.00017	-1.69	0.0118	Cytoplasm	regulation Protein	
1183 P07737	ligase HERC4 7 Profilin-1	8.44 15126	3/8	26	57/56	1.6	0.0076	1.25	0.081	Cytoplasm	degradation Cytoskeletor	_
73 Q8WXW		5.77 90 035	7/12	6	58/56 -	-1.53	0.037	-1.22	0.026	Cytoplasm	Cell	APTENVTVTK.T K.TNQEIDQLRNASR.E;K.QLTETY
1200 Q99623	ing lactor 1 23 Prohibitin-2	9.83 33 276	ell	16	57/56 -	-1.33	0.13	-1.71	0.028	signaling Mitochondrion Cell growth	signaling 1 Cell growth	EEDK.K M.AQNLKDLAGR.L .b ivita dnii vi ni odesete G
114 Q8W1	114 Q8WUDI Ras-related protein Rab-2B	7.68 24227	4/7	25	63/56 -	-1.62	0.006	-1.81	0.0022	Plasma	Protein	, MTYAYLFKYIIIGDTGVGK.S;R.Q
1067 P62070	¹⁰ Ras-related protein R-Ra2	5.74 23613	5/14	24	58/56	1.41	0.071	1.51	0.0025	membrane Plasma	Uramcking Signal	
236 P48443		7.55 51 580	5/10	8	60/56	1.14	0.73	1.64	0.043	membrane Nucleus	Gene Gene	K.ADLDHQK.Q K.SELGCLR.A;K.CLEHLFFFK.L
490 P48443		7.55 51 580	4/8	٢	57/56 -	-1.18	0.3	-1.78	0.011	Nucleus	regulation Gene	K.SELGCLR.A;K.YPEQPGR.F
572 P48443		7.55 51 580	6/17	8	57/56 -	-1.97	0.0025	-1.7	0.0027	Nucleus	regulation Gene	K.CLVMGMK.R;.MYGNYSHFMK.
658 P48443		7.55 51 580	5/13	8	63/56 -	-1.75	0.0057	-1.53	0.021	Nucleus	regulation Gene	F K.CLVMGMK.R; K.YPEQPGR.F
1145 P48443	KXK-gamma 3 Retinoic acid receptor RXR-gamma	7.55 51580	5/15	8	- 92/09	-1.35	0.1	-1.56	0.028	Nucleus	regulation Gene regulation	K.SELGCLR.A; K.CLVMGMK.R

	doi:10.1039/C2MB2533
Downloaded on 31 October 2012	ublished on 21 September 2012 on http://pubs.rsc.org do

(continued)
Table 1

No.	Swiss- prot No.	Swiss- No. prot No. Protein name	pI M_W	No. match. peptide	1. Cov. de (%)	Score	No. match. Cov. 25 mM/ peptide (%) Score 5.5 M ^a 7-test	T-test	$100 \text{ mM}/5.5 \text{ mM}^a$	100 mM/ 5.5 mM ^a <i>T</i> -test	Subcellular location	Functional ontology	Match peptide sequences
347	3MSY9D	347 Q9Y5M8 Signal recognition particle	9.17 29912 4/6	12 4/6	17	62/56	62/56 -1.5	0.027	-1.66	-1.66 $6.20 \times 10^{-05} \text{ ER}$	⁰⁵ ER	Protein	IK.QDIAMAKSAK.L;K.VEFLECSA
268	Q9BX26	268 Q9BX26 Synaptonemal complex	9.01 177 239 9/12	39 9/12	Г	67/56	67/56 1.31 0.094	0.094	1.52	1.52 0.019	Nucleus	cell cycle	K.VYAHQMVR.T;K.LYLLNTTK.L
83	Q9BV79	Q9BV79 Trans-2-enoyl-CoA reductase 8.99 40744 6/11	8.99 407	44 6/11	13	78/56	78/56 -1.26 0.03	0.03	-1.51	-1.51 0.0041	Mitochondrion Fatty acid	n Fatty acid	K.SLGAEHVITEEELR.R;R.GFWLS
495	495 Q13595	Transformer-2 protein homolog alpha	11.27 32726 6/19	26 6/19	23	59/56	59/56 -1.65	0.01	-1.97	-1.97 0.0059	Nucleus	Gene regulation	QWANN.D R.AHTPTPGIYMGRPTHSGGGG GGGGGGGGGGGR.R; B. CCCMSTRED V
909)HVN(Q	606 Q9NVH6 Trimethyllysine dioxygenase	7.64 50113 8/28	13 8/28	15	61/56	61/56 1.84 0.0081	0.0081	1.95	1.95 0.0007	Mitochondrio	n Biosynthesis	Mitochondrion Biosynthesis R.WYTAHR.T;R.RPENEFWVKLKP
296	Q96IK2	296 Q96IK2 Tropomyosin alpha-1 chain	4.69 32746 12/44	46 12/44	28	88/56	1.73	0.18	2.01	2.01 0.023	Cytoplasm	Cytoskeletor	Cytoskeleton K.MEIQEIQLKEAK.H;R.KLVIIESD
719	0Y0H0Y0	719 Q9H0Y0 Ubiquitin-like-conjugating	5.35 25718 3/4	18 3/4	13	62/56	62/56 -1.68 0.0024	0.0024	-1.44	0.019	Cytoplasm	Protein domodotion	
573	573 P11172	Uridine 5'-monophosphate synthase	6.81 52 645 5/10	45 5/10	8	57/56	1.44 0.051	0.051	1.68	0.01	Cytoplasm	Biosynthesis	Biosynthesis K.RGSDIIIVGR.G;K.SGLSSPIYIDL R.G
^a Av	erage rati	a Average ratio of differential expression ($p < 0.05$) between ARPE-	< 0.05) betw	een ARPi		aintaine	d in 5.5 r	nM, 25 mN	1 and 100 1	nM glucose c	9 maintained in 5.5 mM, 25 mM and 100 mM glucose concentrations calculated from triplicate gels.	lculated from	triplicate gels.

and 100 mM glucose media for at least 3 weeks. We then performed MTT and apoptotic assays. Results indicated that the ARPE-19 cells showed nonsignificant differences in viability and apoptosis among the 3 culture conditions (Fig. 1A and B). We then evaluated protein expression in the ARPE-19 cells, and identified 1369 protein spots and 111 protein features that displayed differential expression among the 3 conditions (\geq 1.5-fold changes; p < 0.05). We used MALDI-TOF MS to identify proteins in 56 of these features (Table 1, Fig. 2 and 3). The differentially expressed proteins were predominantly located in the cytoplasm, nuclei, and mitochondria, and function in signal transduction, gene regulation, and transport (Fig. 4 and Table 1).

To further verify the upregulation or downregulation of the identified proteins, we performed immunoblot analysis of proteins modulated by high glucose concentrations (25 mM and 100 mM) and compared them with proteins in control cells (5.5 mM glucose) (Fig. 5). We used specific antibodies against peroxinredoxin 6, GAPDH, lamin-B2, tropomyosin 1, prohibitin 2, and HSP-27. As shown in Fig. 5, 2D-DIGE analysis provided further evidence of changes in protein expression in response to glucose treatment (Table 1).

3.2 Clinical validation of findings using diabetic retinopathy plasma specimens

We analyzed diabetic retinopathy plasma specimens using immunoblotting and ELISA to confirm the clinical relevance of proteomic analysis findings. Results indicated that levels of 20 kDa p53 upregulated modulator of apoptosis (PUMA) and 44 kDa pre-mRNA-splicing regulator (WTAP) levels were increased significantly in the plasma of diabetic retinopathy patients compared to plasma from healthy donors. These proteins might, therefore, provide potential candidates for the diagnosis of diabetic retinopathy. Levels of 68 kDa lamin B2, 34 kDa asialoglycoprotein receptor 1 (ASGR1), and 33 kDa prohibitin 2 were decreased significantly in the plasma of patients with diabetic retinopathy, compared to plasma from healthy controls. These findings were consistent with data from 2D-DIGE and MALDI-TOF MS, and further suggested that the identified proteins could potentially be used as indicators of diabetic retinopathy (Fig. 6 and ESI⁺).

3.3 Redox proteomic analysis of high glucose-induced cysteine modifications in ARPE-19 proteins

High glucose concentrations reportedly induce ROS, which weaken the retinal capillaries and cause leakage of blood into the surrounding space. Although cellular antioxidant reactions can balance low ROS concentrations, the accumulation of ROS induces modifications in biomolecules such as lipids, DNA, and proteins. The reduced thiol group of cysteine residues is a potent nucleophilic agent that undergoes a number of oxidative modifications leading to loss of protein function (see "Introduction"). To optimize conditions for the monitoring of oxidative stress-induced protein modifications, we used DCF fluorescence to detect high glucose-induced ROS production. Results showed that high glucose concentrations increased ROS production in ARPE-19 cells (Fig. 7). We then applied recently developed redox 2D-DIGE methodology

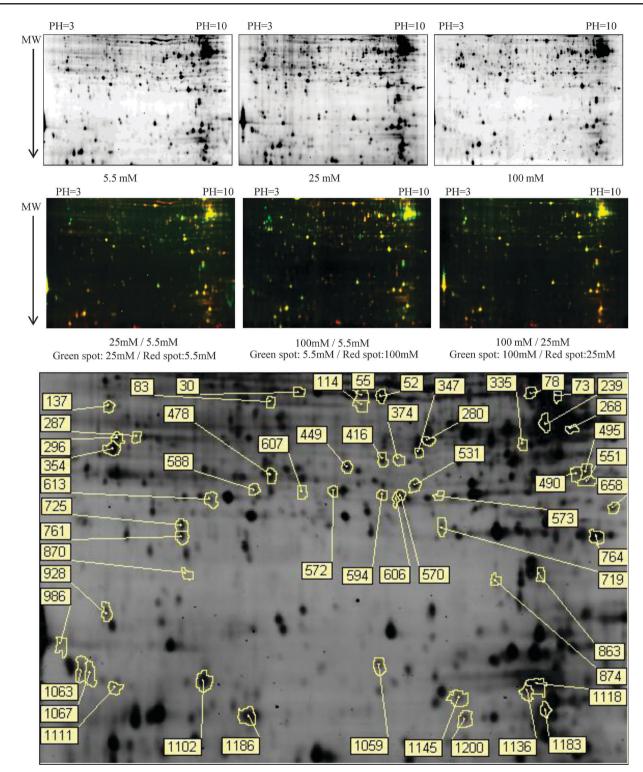


Fig. 2 2D-DIGE analysis of high glucose-dependent differentially expressed proteins in ARPE-19 cells. ARPE-19 cells maintained in 5.5 mM, 25 mM and 100 mM glucose were lysed and arranged for a triplicate 2D-DIGE experiment. Protein samples (150 µg each) were labeled with Cy-dyes and separated using 24 cm, pH 3–10 non-linear IPG strips. 2D-DIGE images of ARPE-19 incubated in 5.5 mM, 25 mM and 100 mM glucose at appropriate excitation and emission wavelengths were pseudo-colored and overlaid with ImageQuant Tool (GE Healthcare). The differentially expressed identified protein features are annotated with spot numbers.

using iodoacetylated cyanine (ICy) dyes to evaluate changes in protein thiol reactivity induced by high glucose levels. We compared ARPE-19 cells cultured in high glucose concentrations (25 mM and 100 mM) with ARPE-19 cells cultured in 5.5 mM glucose. These cells were lysed in the presence of ICy5 in triplicate. Individual ICy5-labeled samples were then run on 2-DE against an equal load of ICy3-labeled standard pool comprising an equal mixture of three sample types to aid

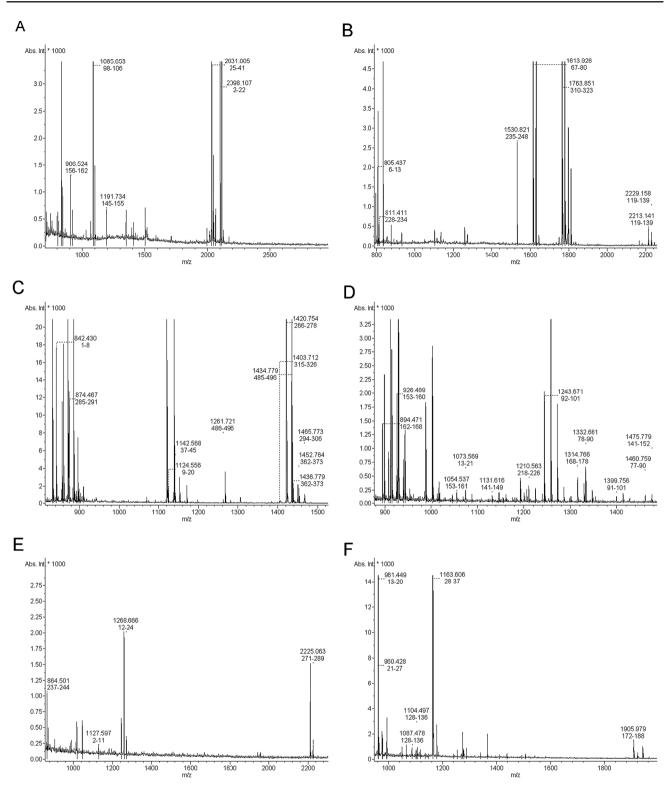


Fig. 3 Peptide mass fingerprinting of differentially expressed proteins ((A) peroxinredoxin 6 (B) GADPH (C) lamin-B2 (D) tropomyosin 1 (E) prohibitin 2 (F) HSP-27). Mass spectra were acquired on an Autoflex TOF/TOF mass spectrometer (Bruker Daltonics). Peptides contributing to protein identifications were marked with m/z values and sequence locations on proteins were searched against the Swiss-Prot/TrEMBL database (2010_12, 515203 sequence entries) using Mascot software v2.3.00 (Matrix Science, London, UK).

in spot matching and to improve the accuracy of quantification (Fig. 8). The ICy5-labeled samples were subsequently labeled with lysine labeling Cy2 dye as an internal protein level control which was used to normalize the corresponding ICy5/ICy3 signals (Table 2). We detected 2074 protein features, of which 408 displayed statistically significant changes in labeling, in response to high glucose concentrations. Comparison of our saturated cysteine-labeling 2D-DIGE images with the images

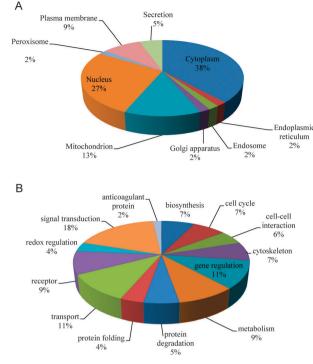


Fig. 4 Percentage of differentially expressed proteins identified by 2D-DIGE/MALDI-TOF MS for ARPE-19 cells incubated in 5.5 mM, 25 mM and 100 mM glucose according to their sub-cellular locations (A) and biological functions (B). The classification of the biological functions and sub-cellular locations of these identified proteins is done based on a Swiss-Prot search and KEGG pathway analysis.

obtained using the minimal lysine-labeling strategy revealed that precipitation increased significantly in proteins in the >75 kDa molecular weight range. The presence of ICy dye-modified cysteines in higher molecular weight proteins might have caused the observed increases in precipitation. We then performed poststaining with CCB, and matched stains with fluorescence images to select 152 gel features. We identified 33 of these features as unique gene products using MALDI-TOF peptide mass fingerprinting (Table 2). All of the identified proteins contained at least one cysteine (searched from Swiss-Prot database). Because the ICy dyes target reduced cysteinyl thiols, these results suggested that high glucose concentration modified the oxidative status of some of these thiol groups. We classified these identified proteins according to their subcellular locations and biological functions: 53% of the proteins were cytosolic, 13% were endoplasmic reticulum proteins, 13% were nuclear proteins, 9% were mitochondrial proteins, 6% were secreted proteins, and 6% were located in plasma membranes. The identified proteins were predominantly involved in metabolism (25%), transport (18%) and cell apoptosis (12%) (Fig. 9).

4. Discussion

In this study, we evaluated high glucose-induced changes in protein expression and thiol reactivity in retinal pigmented epithelium cells using lysine- and cysteine-labeling 2D-DIGE, respectively. Fifty-six proteins showed differential expression in ARPE-19 cells cultured in high glucose concentrations compared with control ARPE-19 cells. The majority of the proteins exhibited glucose concentration-dependent changes in expression in ARPE-19 cells cultured in 5.5 mM, 25 mM, and 100 mM glucose. However, almost 25% of the identified proteins, including frataxin, failed to display glucose concentration-dependent changes in expression in 100 mM glucose. This suggested that very high glucose concentrations might activate as yet unidentified mechanisms to reverse high glucose-induced changes in protein expression.

Previous *in vitro* studies have shown that high glucose concentrations induce the production of superoxide radicals through the autooxidation of glucose.^{19,20} Studies have also reported an increase in protein oxidation products in the blood of diabetic patients. The most extensively investigated markers of protein oxidation are protein carbonyl groups leading to the formation of the oxidized side chains of lysine, proline, arginine, and threonine residues.^{24–26} Cysteine is also highly susceptible to ROS-induced oxidation.²⁴ Our redox-proteomic results indicated that long-term incubation of cultured retinal pigmented epithelium cells to high glucose concentrations results in the oxidation of thiol groups on cysteine residues. This further evidenced that these cellular proteins are the intracellular targets of gluco-oxidation.

When analyzing changes in thiol reactivity in response to high glucose levels, we identified 33 proteins showing redox changes in the cysteine residues of specific proteins. These findings suggested that high glucose-induced oxidative stress disturbed the normal redox balance in ARPE-19 cells, leading to the redox modulation of specific proteins. The ICy labeling results supported the hypothesis that high glucose concentrations induces the formation of free thiols in certain proteins through the breakage of disulfide bonds, which increases ICy dye labeling. In addition, high glucose concentrations-induced ROS or protein-derived peroxides might then directly oxidize thiol groups to form the sulfenic, sulfinic, or sulfonic acid forms of cysteine, leading to decreased ICy dye labeling. These thiol modifications have been reported to disturb normal protein function.³² Our results suggested that high glucose concentrations induce changes in protein expression and redox, which modify cell physiology and might contribute to the development of diabetic retinopathy.

In this study, we identified that proteins involved in redox regulation (peptide methionine sulfoxide reductase, peroxiredoxin-6, glutathione S-transferase Mu 5, and inducible NO synthase) and protein folding (heat shock protein β -1 (HSP27), heat shock 70 kDa protein 5, heat shock 70 kDa protein 9, and heat shock cognate 71 kDa protein) display increased expression or altered thiol reactivity in high glucose concentrations. Heat shock proteins are molecular chaperones that protect cells from harmful conditions by reducing the concentrations of denatured or unfolded proteins. The accumulation of damaged and misfolded proteins following exposure to toxic stimuli is a major cause of cell death.³³ Physiological and environmental stresses, including high glucose concentration-induced oxidative stress, upregulate the expression of heat shock protein 70 families and HSP27. Barutta et al.³⁴ reported that HSP27 is phosphorylated by the stress response protein p38 in hyperglycemic conditions. In addition,

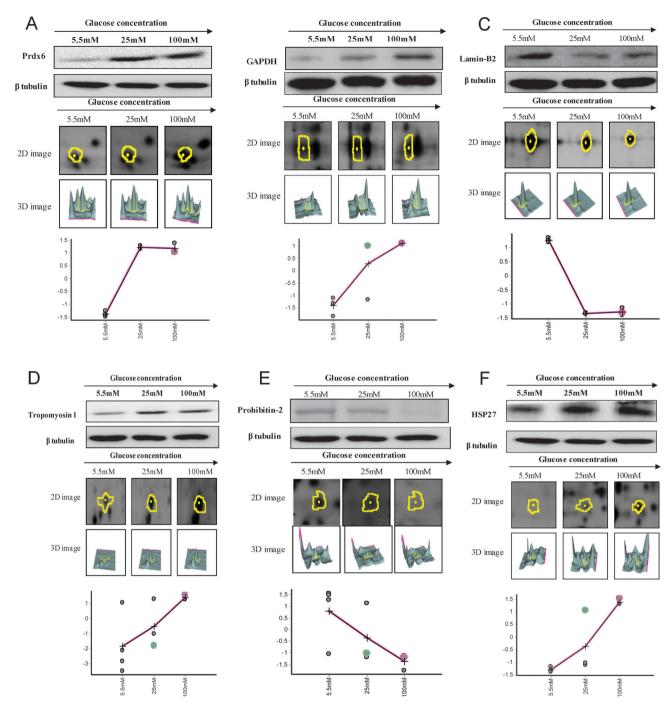


Fig. 5 Representative immunoblotting analyses and 2D-DIGE images for selected differentially expressed proteins ((A) peroxinredoxin 6 (B) GADPH (C) lamin-B2 (D) tropomyosin 1 (E) prohibitin 2 (F) HSP-27) identified by 2D-DIGE/MALDI-TOF MS for ARPE-19 cells incubated in 5.5 mM, 25 mM and 100 mM glucose. The levels of identified proteins, peroxinredoxin 6, GADPH, lamin-B2, tropomyosin 1, prohibitin 2 and HSP-27, in ARPE-19 cells maintained in 5.5 mM, 25 mM and 100 mM glucose were confirmed by immunoblot (top panels). β -Tubulin was used as loading control in this study. The levels of these intracellular proteins were also visualized by fluorescence 2-DE images (middle top panels), three-dimensional spot images (middle bottom panels) and protein abundance map (bottom panels).

heat shock protein 70 families are induced by cellular stresses and hyperglycemia in a diabetic nephropathy rat model. Our results indicated that high glucose concentrations upregulate the expression of heat shock and redox-regulating proteins in retinal pigmented epithelium cells, and influence their thiol reactivity. Further analyses using redox proteomic strategies confirmed the involvement of the identified proteins in protein folding and redox regulation in ARPE-19 cells. Glutathione S-transferase Mu 5, inducible NO synthase, and heat shock protein families all showed increased labeling in high glucose levels, suggesting that high glucose concentrations directly modulate the functions of these proteins by generating new free thiol groups.

Specific upregulation of heat shock proteins suggests the increased expression of unfolded proteins in the endoplasmic

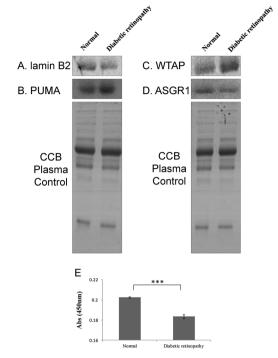


Fig. 6 Representative immunoblotting and ELISA analysis of lamin B2, PUMA, WTAP, ASGR1 and prohibitin 2 in plasma from type 2 diabetic patients with retinopathy and healthy donors. Plasma samples from 15 type 2 diabetic patients and 15 healthy donors were run in a pool. 20 μ g of plasma samples were loaded and resolved by SDS-PAGE, followed by either immunoblotting with (A) lamin B2, (B) PUMA, (C) WTAP and (D) ASGR1 antibodies or staining with colloidal coomassie Blue G-250 as a loading control. (E) 50 μ g of plasma samples were coated onto each well of a 96-well plate for ELISA analysis against prohibitin 2 and the absorbance was measured at 450 nm using a Stat Fax 2100 microtiterplate reader. Paired Student *t*-test has been used for the statistical analysis of the experimental results. *** Signifies a *p*-value of ≤ 0.001 .

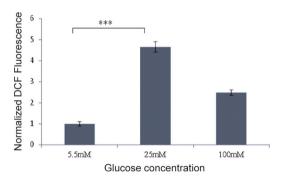


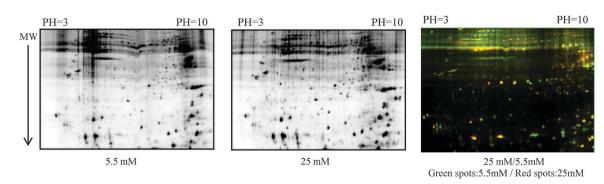
Fig. 7 Effect of high glucose on ARPE-19 ROS production. DCFHbased intracellular ROS production assays were performed where 10 000 ARPE-19 cells cultured in 5.5 mM, 25 mM and 100 mM glucose for at least 3 weeks were plated into 96-well plates in medium containing 10% FBS. After overnight incubation in 5.5 mM, 25 mM and 100 mM glucose, the cells were treated with 10 µM of DCFH-DA at 37 °C for 20 min and the fluorescence images was recorded at excitation and emission wavelengths of 485 nm and 530 nm, respectively. Paired Student *t*-test has been used for the statistical analysis of the experimental results. *** Signifies a *p*-value of ≦0.001.

reticulum (ER), which is associated with ER stress.³⁵ Several previous studies have identified ER stress in diabetes,

observing increased levels of ER stress markers such as GRP94, CHOP, and BiP in a diabetic mouse model³⁶ and in pancreatic β cells of type 2 diabetic patients.³⁷ The ER plays a role in regulating intracellular calcium (Ca²⁺) concentrations. Endoplasmic reticulum stress might contribute to Ca^{2+} release from the ER and stimulate mitochondrial disruption, which then influences cell survival.³⁸ In this study, we observed that high glucose concentrations disrupted heat shock 70 kDa protein 5 (GRP78), an ER chaperone protein responsible for maintaining the correct folding of ER proteins, causing ER stress. This mechanism might explain changes in the expression of Ca²⁺-dependent proteins (such as annexin A5) in ARPE-19 cells treated with high glucose concentrations compared with control cells. Protein kinase C (PKC) is a member of the family of protein kinases that is involved in controlling the phosphorylation of downstream target proteins. Previous studies have reported that diacylglycerol and Ca²⁺ signaling activate PKC.^{39,40} To investigate the hypothesis that increased Ca²⁺, deriving from high glucose concentration-induced ER stress and phosphorylation of downstream targets, stimulates PKC, we performed immunostaining and immunoblotting analysis of phospho-PKC substrates. We identified that multiple PKC substrates increased phosphorylation in ARPE-19 cells cultured in 25 mM and 100 mM glucose compared with cells cultured in 5.5 mM glucose. Most of these phospho-PKC substrates were nuclear rather than cytosolic (Fig. 10).

In this study, we further observed the downregulation of proteins responsible for intracellular protein degradation, including E3 ubiquitin–protein ligase LRSAM1, E3 ubiquitin–protein ligase HERC4, and ubiquitin-like-conjugating enzyme ATG10. The ubiquitin pathway eliminates misfolded ER proteins in cells and plays an important role in physiological adaptation to ER stress. Defects in the ubiquitin system might, therefore, contribute to the accumulation of misfolded or unfolded ER proteins and cause ER stress.⁴¹

Our findings also indicated the downregulation of prohibitin (PHB) in ARPE-19 cells treated with high glucose concentrations. Prohibitin is a ubiquitously expressed protein that exhibits diverse functions at different cellular locations. It is predominantly located in the inner membrane of mitochondria, and functions as a chaperone protein that stabilizes mitochondrial DNA and maintains mitochondrial morphology.⁴² In the study by Merkwirth et al., PHB knockdown reduced the mitochondrial membrane potential significantly and abrogated complex I activity.⁴³ Schleicher et al. also suggested that the absence of PHB results in excess ROS formation, indicating that PHB might play an important role in the removal of ROS and maintenance of cell survival.⁴⁴ Prohibitin is also involved in transcriptional regulation, which is essential for cell proliferation and cell cycle regulation in the nucleus.⁴⁵ The PI3K/AKT pathway phosphorylates PHB on Thr258 and stimulates the MAPK pathway to promote cell proliferation. Phosphorylation of PHB on Thr258 contributes to the feedback that activates the PI3K/AKT pathway, leading to mitogenesis.46 Our study suggested the down-regulation of PHB in retinal pigmented epithelium cells in response to high glucose concentrations, which rendered the cells unable to alleviate high glucose-induced mitochondrial oxidative stress, leading to the destabilization of mitochondria. Also, the study



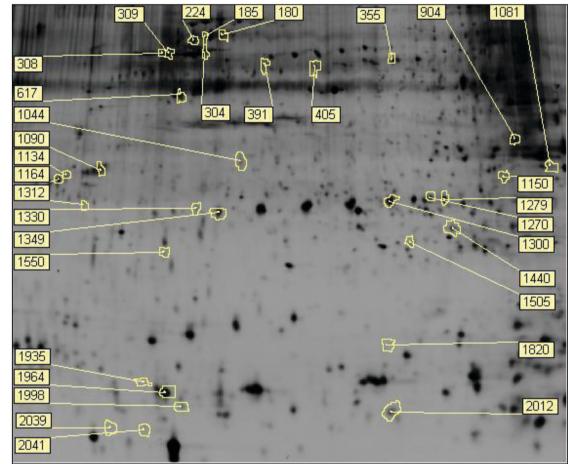


Fig. 8 Redox 2D-DIGE analysis of high glucose-induced differential cysteine-modification in ARPE-19 cells. Lysates from ARPE-19 cells cultured in 5.5 mM and 25 mM glucose for at least 3 weeks were subjected to redox 2D-DIGE analysis as described in Materials and Methods. 2-DE-proteome map of ARPE-19 cultured in mannitol-balanced 5.5 mM and 25 mM glucose are displayed. The differentially labeled protein features are annotated with spot numbers.

also proposed that down-regulation of PHB might disturb both MAPK and PI3K/AKT pathways, resulting in the reduction of cell proliferation.

Most cell junction proteins are plasma membrane-embedded transmembrane proteins; therefore, it is generally difficult to isolate them for biochemical analysis such as 2D-DIGE analysis. In this study, we identified that high glucose concentrations downregulated the transmembrane junction protein desmoplakin. This suggested that disruption of desmoplakin might play an important role in high glucose concentrationinduced dysfunction of junctions in retinal pigmented epithelium cells. To our knowledge, our study is the first to associate desmoplakin with retinopathy. Inducible NO synthase (iNOS), which is expressed after cell activation and produces NO for physiological function, reportedly breaks down tight junctions in rat retinal pigmented epithelium cells through nitrosative/ oxidative stress.^{47,48} During our analyses, we identified the involvement of iNOS in redox modification at cysteine residues. High glucose concentrations might, therefore, activate iNOS and disrupt tight junctions to induce vessel leakage. Rho proteins play major roles in modulating cytoskeletal actin rearrangements in human retinal pigment epithelial cells.^{49,50} The key regulator for Rho activity is Rho GTPase-activating protein, which is one of the cellular targets of the high glucose

Downloaded on 31 October 2012 Published on 21 September 2012 on http://pubs.rsc.org | doi:10.1039/C2MB25331C **Table 2** Differential cysteine labeled proteins identified by ICy 2D-DIGE and MALDI-TOF MS. Proteins displaying high glucose-induced differential labeling of cysteines using ICy dyes were identified by MALDI-TOF peptide mass mapping analysis. Proteins with thiol reactivity displaying an average fold-difference of ≥ 1.3 -fold where p < 0.05 and spots matched in all images are shaded

No. pr					No. match. C	Cov.	25	mM/5.5 M	Subcellular	Functional	
	prot No.	Protein name	μ	$M_{\rm W}$	peptides ('	(%) S	core (C	ys/lys) ^a	Score (Cys/lys) ^a location	ontology	Match peptide sequences
1550 P1	P17516	Aldo-keto reductase family 1	6.46	6.46 37442	7/10 1	12 60	66/56 1	1.8	Cytoplasm	Biotransformation	Biotransformation M.DPKYQR.V;MDPKYQR.V
405 Q ⁶ 1150 P ⁶	Q9BPW4 P00505	tein L4 minotransferase	7.78 9.14	39 254 47 886	6/8 1 5/11 1	10 5 5	57/56 1 59/56 1	1.44 1.8	Secreted Mitochondrion	Lipid transport Fatty acid	R.SAELTASR.L; R.SAELTASR.L R.DDNGKPYVLPSVR.K; R.IGASFLQR.F
1964 Q	Q96HG5		5.29	42 0 5 2		20 6		1.46	Cytoplasm		K.QEYDESGPSIVHR.K; K.QEYDESGPSIVHR.K
1300 QG	Q9BV35	t-binding mitochondrial	6.85	52 573	11/27 1		73/56 –1	-1.55	Mitochondrion	Transport	R.GLYRGIAPNFMK.V;R.GLYRGIAPNFMK.V
391 Q	Q86WG3	ġ	4.54 8 81	46 625	5/6 0/11 1	9 0 1 0 1 0	63/56 2 68/56 2	2.86 2.07	Mitochondrion	Transport Drotain	M.GTTEATLR.M; R.MENVDVK.E b 1 0.6546562700000001 GB V·K CIBCOVVVS
	ACTIVIO		0.01	000 111				.0.2	Cytupiasiii	degradation	N.LQAURUEW IDDIMAFALUN. V, N.CINCQV V V3
2041 PC	P09382	tin-1	5.34				59/56 1	1.67	Secreted	Cell growth	K.DSNNLCLHFNPR.F;K.DGGAWGTEQR.E
	P46439	Glutathione S-transferase Mu 5 6.9	6.9					1.45	Cytoplasm	Redox regulation	R.SQWLNEKFK.L;K.CLDAFLNLKDFISR.F
	P46439	1 S	6.9	25829	~			1.68	Cytoplasm	Redox regulation	R.LCYDPDFEKLKPK.Y; K.CLDAFLNLKDFISR.F
17 A/71	r04400	Giyceraidenyde-3-pnospnate dehvdrogenase	10.0	107.05	1 6/c	1/	1 00/01	1.34	Cytopiasm	GIACOLYSIS	V. VUVINUFUK.I; N. LVIINUNFIIIFUEK.D
1270 PC	P04406	e-3-phosphate	8.57	36201	5/13 2	20 6	65/56 1	1.44	Cytoplasm	Glycolysis	R.VIISAPSADAPMFVMGVNHEK.Y;K.LTGMAFR.V
355 Q	Q96EZ5	srase 25 family	5.7	67 890	5/7	9 6	60/56 1	1.34	Endoplasmic	Cell adhesion	R.VVDAVDGWMLNSSAIR.N;R.HQFLMELK.Q
309 PI	P11021	member 3 Heat shock 70 kDa protein 5	5.07	72 402 13/22		27 98	98/56 1	1.92	reticulum Endoplasmic	Protein folding	R.VEIIANDQGNR.I; K.ITITNDQNR.L
308 P1	P11021	Heat shock 70 kDa protein 5	5.07	72 402 18/2	ŝ	27 1:	150/ 2	2.27	reticulum Endoplasmic	Protein folding	R.IINEPTAAAIAYGLDKR.E;
									reticulum		K.VTHAVVTVPAYFNDAQR.Q
224 Q	Q9UC56	Heat shock 70 kDa protein 9	5.87	73 920	6/9	ۆ 6	64/56 1	1.42	Endoplasmic reticulum	Protein folding	K.SDIGEVILVGGMTR.M; K SDIGEVII VGGMTR M
185 P1	P11142	ock cognate 71 kDa	5.37	71 082	8/19 1	15 80	80/56 2	2.42	Endoplasmic	Protein folding	R.FEELNADLFR.G; K.SQIHDIVLVGGSTR.I
	760110		200	71011				01	Cuton loss	Ductoin folding	
1440 Q	0911D42	Inducible NO svnthase	8 2 2 8 2 2 8 2 2 8	22 820	2/11 8/12		1 92/5/ 66/56 1	1.49 1 4	Cytoplasm Cytoplasm	Protein folding Redox regulation	R.GPSWDFFR.D;R.DWTPHSK.L R FDVVPI VI OANGR D-R FCAFAHDIDOK I
	P07476		4.62	68 851		9 9 9 9		1.37	Cytoplasm	Cytoskeleton	R.EMEENFAVEANYQDTIGR.L;
1044 O	O96033	Molybdopterin synthase sulfur carrier subunit	4.36	9806	3/5 3	30 59	59/56 1	1.4	Cytoplasm	Biosynthesis	K.MALDIEJATTK.K. R.SETISVPQEIK.A; K.SAEITGVR.S
	P30304	M-phase inducer phosphatase 1	6.49	59734	7/15	9 5	59/56 1	1.37	Nucleus	Cell cycle	R.MLSSNER.D;K.ESTNPEK.A
1505 Q	Q8NFW8	N-acylneuraminate cvtidvlvltransferase	8.16	49 033	8/5			1.34	Nucleus	Biosynthesis	R.WSEIQK.G;K.GAATSVSNPR.G
2039 P3	P35398	OR-alpha	5.97	64306	6/8	8		33	Nucleus	Gene regulation	R.COHCR.L;R.M0000R.D
1164 Q8	Q8WUD1	Ras-related protein Rab-2B	7.68	24427	5/17 2			1.39	Plasma membrane	Protein trafficking	
1312 Q	Q6ZS82	in signal-	6.84	25474	4/5 1	18 5′	57/56 1	1.3	Plasma	Signal	K.ALAAILFGAVLLAAVALAVCVAK.L;
1090 Q:	Q52LW3	ing 9-binding protein Rho GTPase-activating protein 6.32 143 514	6.32		6/8	5 6:	65/56 1	1.3	membrane Cytoplasm	transduction Signal	M.AKEECK.A R.EILAQLR.T;K.HLNSSQPSGFGPANSLEDVVR.L

(continued
Ч
e

Table 2 (continued)	(pənu									
Swiss-				No. match. Cov.	Cov.	25	i mM/5.5 M	25 mM/5.5 M Subcellular	Functional	
No. prot No.	No. prot No. Protein name	p <i>I</i>	$M_{\rm W}$	peptides	(%)	Score (C	p $I M_W$ peptides (%) Score (Cys/lys) ^a location	location	ontology	Match peptide sequences
1820 P57772	Selenocysteine-specific elonga- 8.61 65890 5/5 tion factor	8.61	65 890	5/5	10	10 62/56 1.48	1.48	Cytoplasm	Biosynthesis	R.LAFHGILLHGLEDR.N; K.AGQATEGHCPR.Q
2012 P51817	Serine/threonine-protein kinase 6.36 41 041 6/12	6.36	41 041	6/12	18	58/56 1.95	1.95	Cytoplasm	Cell signaling	K.VMSIPDVIR.L;M.EAPGLAQAAAAESDSRK.V
1349 O75461	Transcription factor E2F6	5.35	5.35 31 996 4/8	4/8	15	56/56	1.5	Nucleus	Cell cycle	M.SQQRPAR.K;K.DCAQQLFELTDDK.E
1935 Q01995	Transgelin	8.87	22 653 4/10	4/10	18	58/56	1.55	Cytoplasm	Cytoskeleton	K.HVIGLQMGSNR.G;K.DMAAVQR.T
904 P60174	Triosephosphate isomerase	6.45	26938 9/20	9/20	42	95/56	1.8	Cytoplasm	Glycolysis	K.VVLAYEPVWAIGTGK.T
1081 P11441	Ubiquitin-like protein 4A	8.71	8.71 17823 4/6	4/6	26		5.33	Cytoplasm	Protein	K.LNVPVRQQR.L;R.LASRFLHPEVTETMEK.G
^{<i>a</i>} Average fold-c	differences of triplicate samples run	lion dif	ferent ge	ls from De(Cyder ar	ialysis sł	now labeling	t changes on free	thiol group of cyst	^a Average fold-differences of triplicate samples run on different gels from DeCyder analysis show labeling changes on free thiol group of cysteine residues for ARPE-19 cells maintained in 25 mM glucose
versus in 5.5 mN.	4 glucose. In here, ICy5 signals wer	re used	to moni	tor cysteine	-labelin	g alterat	ions against	ICy3 signals use	ed as internal stand	versus in 5.5 mM glucose. In here, ICy5 signals were used to monitor cysteine-labeling alterations against ICy3 signals used as internal standard, followed by normalized with protein expression changes.
NHS-Cy2 was 1	NHS-Cy2 was used to label lysine residues on proteins (to monitor protein expression changes) and was used to normalize ICy3 signals used as internal standard.	oteins	(to moni	tor protein	express	ion char	iges) and w	as used to norm	alize ICy3 signals 1	ised as internal standard.

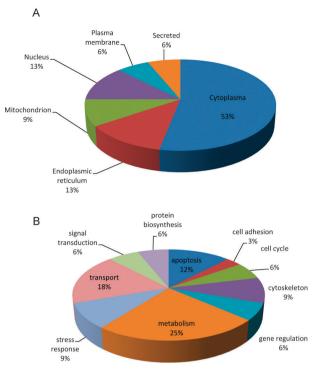


Fig. 9 Distribution of differential ICy-labeled proteins between 25 mM glucose and 5.5 mM glucose incubated ARPE-19 cells according to (A) subcellular location and (B) biological function. The classification of the biological functions and sub-cellular locations of these identified proteins are based on a Swiss-Prot search and KEGG pathway analysis.

concentration-induced redox-modulated proteins identified in this study.⁵¹ Defective Rho GTPase-activating protein might, therefore, influence the morphology of retinal pigment epithelium cells and mediate their detachment. Similarly, galectin-1 is reportedly involved in retinal cell adhesion to the photoreceptor through interaction with β -galactoside residue-containing glycoconjugates in the interphotoreceptor matrix.52 High glucose concentration-induced ROS might modulate galectin-1 activity through the redox modification of its cysteine residues. Impaired galectin-1 might then disrupt the adhesion of retinal cells, leading to serious retinopathy such as macular edema.

The retinoid X receptor (RXR) belongs to a family of nuclear receptors that are activated by retinoic acid and play important roles as ligand-driven transcription factors in fundamental biological processes such as glucose homeostasis. The RXR can form functional heterodimers with several other nuclear receptors such as the retinoic acid receptor and the vitamin D receptor.⁵³ Singh et al. identified that oxidative stress/JNK signaling mediates high glucose concentrationinduced suppression of the RXR/retinoic acid receptor complex in cardiomyocytes.⁵⁴ Reducing oxidative stress can restore RAR/RXR signaling and protect cardiomyocytes from hyperglycemia.⁵⁵ In a mouse model, RXR maintained the normal function and survival of retinal pigmented epithelium cells and prevented loss of viability by shortening and disorganizing their outer segments and reducing light responses.⁵⁶ Our data indicated that high glucose concentrations down-regulated

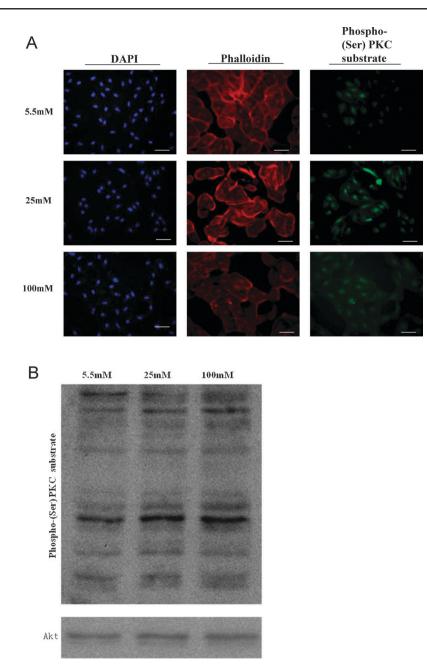


Fig. 10 Immunofluorescence and immunoblotting analysis of the activation of Phospho-(Ser) PKC substrates for ARPE-19 cells incubated in 5.5 mM, 25 mM and 100 mM glucose (A) ARPE-19 cells incubated in 5.5 mM, 25 mM and 100 mM glucose for at least 3 weeks on cover slips were fixed and stained with Phospho-(Ser) PKC substrates, Phalloidin and DAPI. Each set of fields were taken using the same exposure, and images are representative of 6 different fields. Scale bar = $50 \mu m$. (B) ARPE-19 cell lysates from the same growth conditions were immunoblotted with *anti*-Phospho-(Ser) PKC substrates antibody.

RXR expression in human retinal pigmented epithelium cells and, in turn, might suppress RAR/RXR signaling and the interactions between RXR and other nuclear receptors. Accordingly, high glucose attenuates the protective ability of RXR and reduces the cell viability of retinal epithelial cells against hyperglycemia.

Glyceraldehyde-3-phosphate dehydrogenase (GAPDH) is a tetramer that catalyzes a key reaction in the glycolytic pathway. It is also one of the critical redox-sensitive proteins that has an active cysteine sulfhydryl site and is susceptible to ROS.^{57–61} Our redox-proteomics results indicated that high

glucose concentration-induced ROS indeed contribute to the redox-modification of GAPDH and, in turn, block the glycolytic pathways. Thus, high glucose-induced oxidative stress can redirect carbohydrate fluxes to generate increased reducing power in the form of NADPH through the pentose phosphate pathway at the expense of glycolysis.

The four proteins (lamin B2, PUMA, WTAP and ASGR1) identified by immunoblotting and one protein (prohibitin 2) identified by ELISA have shown differential expression in clinical plasma, suggesting that these proteins are potential disease markers for diabetic retinopathy (Fig. 6). Importantly, all of

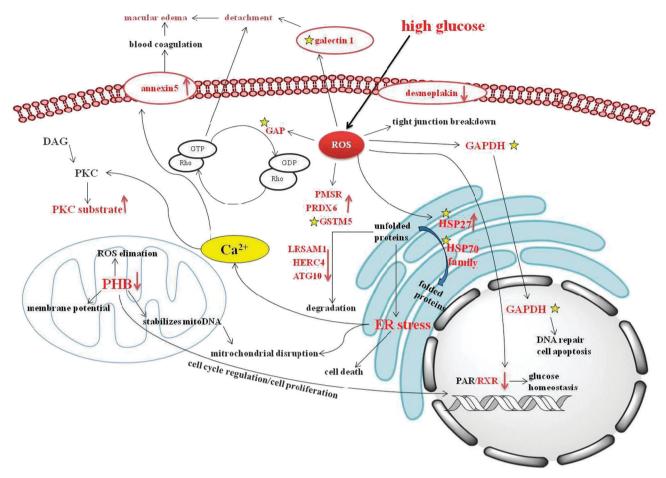


Fig. 11 The hypothetical mechanisms of high glucose-induced differential protein expression and redox-modification in ARPE-19 cells.

these proteins have not been reported as markers for diabetic retinopathy, further implying that these proteins might not only be evaluated as disease markers for the disease, but elucidate the detail mechanisms in diabetic retinopathyassociated regulations. Further investigation shows that the combinations of these identified proteins have not yet been described as markers for other diseases. Accordingly, the combination of these identified proteins could be evaluated as diabetic retinopathy specific markers.

In summary, in this study, we performed comprehensive proteomic analysis of retinal pigmented epithelium cells cultured in various concentrations of glucose. We identified differentially expressed proteins, and developed a novel redox proteomic strategy for monitoring redox-modulated proteins in retinal ARPE-19 cells, following their treatment with high glucose concentrations. We identified high glucose concentration-modulated proteins that participate in several cellular responses including metabolism, cell apoptosis, signal transduction, gene regulation and transport. Our study results indicated the presence of an entire network of proteins in retinal cells exposed to high glucose concentrations, which might play roles in the development of diabetic retinopathy (Fig. 11). Comparison of plasma specimens from type 2 diabetic retinopathy patients with those from healthy donors confirmed the changes in expression of 5 proteins (lamin B2, PUMA, WTAP, AGPR1, and prohibitin 2) in diabetic retinopathy. Our findings indicate potential markers of diabetic retinopathy that are suitable for early-stage evaluation of disease prognosis. The identified proteins might also represent potential targets for treatment of hyperglycemiainduced retinopathy.

Declaration of competing interests

The authors confirm that there are no conflicts of interest.

Abbreviations

- 1-DE one-dimensional gel electrophoresis
- 2-DE two-dimensional gel electrophoresis
- Ab antibody
- CCB colloidal coomassie blue
- CHAPS 3-[(3-cholamidopropyl)-dimethylammonio]-
- 1-propanesulfonate)
- ddH₂O double deionized water
- DIGE differential gel electrophoresis
- DTT dithiothreitol
- FCS fetal calf serum
- IP-WB immunoprecipitation-immunoblotting
- MALDI-TOF MS

matrix assisted laser desorption ionization-time of flight mass spectrometry

NP-40 Nonidet P-40

ROS reactive oxygen species

RSH free thiol group

TFA trifluoroacetic acid

Acknowledgements

This work was supported by NSC grant (100-2311-B-007-005) from National Science Council, Taiwan, and toward wordclass university project (100N2051E1), NTHU Booster grant (99N2908E1) and Nano- and Micro-ElectroMechanical Systemsbased Frontier Research on Cancer Mechanism, Diagnosis, and Treatment grant from National Tsing Hua University, Taiwan.

References

- 1 H. Dorchy and D. Toussaint, Rev. Med. Brux., 1984, 5, 319–331.
- 2 D. M. van Reyk, M. C. Gillies and M. J. Davies, *Redox Rep.*, 2003, 8, 187–192.
- 3 A. W. Stitt, Invest. Ophthalmol. Visual Sci., 2010, 51, 4867–4874.
- 4 F. Gelisken and F. Ziemssen, Ophthalmologe, 2010, 107, 773-786.
- 5 R. Ehrlich, A. Harris, T. A. Ciulla, N. Kheradiya, D. M. Winston and B. Wirostko, *Acta Ophthalmol.*, 2010, 88, 279–291.
- 6 T. N. Crawford, D. V. Alfaro, III, J. B. Kerrison and E. P. Jablon, *Curr. Diabetes Rev.*, 2009, **5**, 8–13.
- 7 A. Girach and H. Lund-Andersen, Int. J. Clin. Pract., 2007, 61, 88–97.
- 8 P. Gillery, Ann. Biol. Clin., 2006, 64, 309-314.
- 9 S. F. Yan, R. Ramasamy and A. M. Schmidt, J. Mol. Med., 2009, 87, 235–247.
- 10 E. Boulanger, J. L. Wautier, P. Dequiedt and A. M. Schmidt, *Nephrol. Ther.*, 2006, 2(Suppl 1), S8–S16.
- 11 H. Vlassara, Diabetes Metab. Res. Rev., 2001, 17, 436-443
- 12 H. Zill, R. Gunther, H. F. Erbersdobler, U. R. Folsch and V. Faist, Biochem. Biophys. Res. Commun., 2001, 288, 1108–1111.
- 13 H. Yang, X. Jin, L. C. Wai Kei and S. K. Yan, *Clin. Chem. Lab Med.*, 2011, **49**, 1773–1782.
- 14 F. Q. Schafer and G. R. Buettner, *Free Radic. Biol. Med.*, 2001, **30**, 1191–1212.
- 15 J. C. Lim, H. I. Choi, Y. S. Park, H. W. Nam, H. A. Woo, K. S. Kwon, Y. S. Kim, S. G. Rhee, K. Kim and H. Z. Chae, *J. Biol. Chem.*, 2008, 283, 28873–28880.
- 16 C. Jacob, A. L. Holme and F. H. Fry, Org. Biomol. Chem., 2004, 2, 1953–1956.
- 17 B. R. Herbert, J. L. Harry, N. H. Packer, A. A. Gooley, S. K. Pedersen and K. L. Williams, *Trends Biotechnol.*, 2001, 19, 3–9.
- 18 T. Rabilloud, Electrophoresis, 1994, 15, 278-82.
- 19 P. H. Hung, Y. W. Chen, K. C. Cheng, H. C. Chou, P. C. Lyu, Y. C. Lu, Y. R. Lee, C. T. Wu and H. L. Chan, *Mol. BioSyst.*, 2011, 7, 1990–1998.
- 20 H. L. Huang, H. W. Hsing, T. C. Lai, Y. W. Chen, T. R. Lee, H. T. Chan, P. C. Lyu, C. L. Wu, Y. C. Lu, S. T. Lin, C. W. Lin, C. H. Lai, H. T. Chang, H. C. Chou and H. L. Chan, *J. Biomed. Sci.*, 2010, **17**, 36.
- 21 T. C. Lai, H. C. Chou, Y. W. Chen, T. R. Lee, H. T. Chan, H. H. Shen, W. T. Lee, S. T. Lin, Y. C. Lu, C. L. Wu and H. L. Chan, *J. Proteome Res.*, 2010, 9, 1302–1322.
- 22 Y. W. Chen, H. C. Chou, P. C. Lyu, H. S. Yin, F. L. Huang, W. S. Chang, C. Y. Fan, I. F. Tu, T. C. Lai, S. T. Lin, Y. C. Lu, C. L. Wu, S. H. Huang and H. L. Chan, *Funct. Integr. Genomics*, 2011, **11**, 225–239.
- 23 H. C. Chou, Y. W. Chen, T. R. Lee, F. S. Wu, H. T. Chan, P. C. Lyu, J. F. Timms and H. L. Chan, *Free Radic. Biol. Med.*, 2010, **49**, 96–108.
- 24 H. C. Chou, Y. C. Lu, C. S. Cheng, Y. W. Chen, P. C. Lyu, C. W. Lin, J. F. Timms and H. L. Chan, J. Proteomics, 2012, 75, 3158–3176.
- 25 C. L. Wu, H. C. Chou, C. S. Cheng, J. M. Li, S. T. Lin, Y. W. Chen and H. L. Chan, J. Proteomics, 2012, 75, 1991–2014.

- 26 H. L. Chan, P. R. Gaffney, M. D. Waterfield, H. Anderle, M. H. Peter, H. P. Schwarz, P. L. Turecek and J. F. Timms, *FEBS Lett.*, 2006, **580**, 3229–3236.
- 27 H. L. Chan, S. Gharbi, P. R. Gaffney, R. Cramer, M. D. Waterfield and J. F. Timms, *Proteomics*, 2005, **5**, 2908–2926.
- 28 H. Candiloros, S. Muller, N. Zeghari, M. Donner, P. Drouin and O. Ziegler, *Diabetes Care*, 1995, 18, 549–551.
- 29 S. H. Saydah, M. Miret, J. Sung, C. Varas, D. Gause and F. L. Brancati, *Diabetes Care*, 2001, 24, 1397–1402.
- 30 X. Jouven, R. N. Lemaitre, T. D. Rea, N. Sotoodehnia, J. P. Empana and D. S. Siscovick, *Eur. Heart J.*, 2005, 26, 2142–2147.
- 31 L. Cai, W. Li, G. Wang, L. Guo, Y. Jiang and Y. J. Kang, *Diabetes*, 2002, **51**, 1938–1948.
- 32 P. Ghezzi, V. Bonetto and M. Fratelli, *Antioxid. Redox Signaling*, 2005, 7, 964–972.
- 33 M. Rohde, M. Daugaard, M. H. Jensen, K. Helin, J. Nylandsted and M. Jaattela, *Genes Dev.*, 2005, 19, 570–582.
- 34 F. Barutta, S. Pinach, S. Giunti, F. Vittone, J. M. Forbes, R. Chiarle, M. Arnstein, P. C. Perin, G. Camussi, M. E. Cooper and G. Gruden, *Am. J. Physiol. Renal Physiol.*, 2008, **295**, F1817–F1824.
- 35 K. Mori, Tanpakushitsu Kakusan Koso, 1999, 44, 2442-2448.
- 36 A. A. Sadighi Akha, J. M. Harper, A. B. Salmon, B. A. Schroeder, H. M. Tyra, D. T. Rutkowski and R. A. Miller, *J. Biol. Chem.*, 2011, **286**, 30344–30351.
- 37 K. Kitiphongspattana, C. E. Mathews, E. H. Leiter and H. R. Gaskins, J. Biol. Chem., 2005, 280, 15727–15734.
- 38 K. Nakamura, E. Bossy-Wetzel, K. Burns, M. P. Fadel, M. Lozyk, I. S. Goping, M. Opas, R. C. Bleackley, D. R. Green and M. Michalak, J. Cell Biol., 2000, 150, 731–740.
- 39 Y. Akita, J. Biochem., 2002, 132, 847-852.
- 40 Z. Naor, S. Shacham, D. Harris, R. Seger and N. Reiss, *Cell Mol. Neurobiol.*, 1995, **15**, 527–544.
- 41 Y. Ye, Essays Biochem., 2005, 41, 99-112.
- 42 C. Osman, C. Merkwirth and T. Langer, J. Cell Sci., 2009, 122, 3823–3830.
- 43 C. Merkwirth and T. Langer, *Biochim. Biophys. Acta*, 2009, **1793**, 27–32.
- 44 M. Schleicher, B. R. Shepherd, Y. Suarez, C. Fernandez-Hernando, J. Yu, Y. Pan, L. M. Acevedo, G. S. Shadel and W. C. Sessa, *J. Cell Biol.*, 2008, **180**, 101–112.
- 45 A. M. Czarnecka, C. Campanella, G. Zummo and F. Cappello, *Cancer Biol. Ther.*, 2006, 5, 714–720.
- 46 E. K. Han, T. Mcgonigal, C. Butler, V. L. Giranda and Y. Luo, Anticancer Res., 2008, 28, 957–963.
- 47 J. C. Zech, I. Pouvreau, A. Cotinet, O. Goureau, B. Le Varlet and Y. de Kozak, *Invest. Ophthalmol. Visual Sci.*, 1998, **39**, 1600–1608.
- 48 E. C. Leal, A. Manivannan, K. Hosoya, T. Terasaki, J. Cunha-Vaz, A. F. Ambrosio and J. V. Forrester, *Invest. Ophthalmol. Visual Sci.*, 2007, 48, 5257–5265.
- 49 J. Lee, M. Ko and C. K. Joo, J. Cell Physiol., 2008, 216, 520-526.
- 50 Y. Zheng, H. Bando, Y. Ikuno, Y. Oshima, M. Sawa, M. Ohji and
- Y. Tano, *Invest. Ophthalmol. Visual Sci.*, 2004, **45**, 668–674. 51 S. Y. Moon and Y. Zheng, *Trends Cell Biol.*, 2003, **13**, 13–22
- 52 F. Uehara, N. Ohba and M. Ozawa, *Invest. Ophthalmol. Visual Sci.*, 2001, **42**, 2164–2172.
- 53 G. Allenby, M. T. Bocquel, M. Saunders, S. Kazmer, J. Speck, M. Rosenberger, A. Lovey, P. Kastner, J. F. Grippo and P. Chambon, *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U. S. A.*, 1993, **90**, 30–34.
- 54 A. B. Singh, R. S. Guleria, I. T. Nizamutdinova, K. M. Baker and J. Pan, J. Cell Physiol., 2011, 227, 2632–2644.
- 55 R. S. Guleria, R. Choudhary, T. Tanaka, K. M. Baker and J. Pan, J. Cell Physiol., 2011, 226, 1292–1307.
- 56 M. Mori, D. Metzger, S. Picaud, C. Hindelang, M. Simonutti, J. Sahel, P. Chambon and M. Mark, *Am. J. Pathol.*, 2004, 164, 701–710.
- 57 S. Azam, N. Jouvet, A. Jilani, R. Vongsamphanh, X. Yang, S. Yang and D. Ramotar, *J. Biol. Chem.*, 2008, **283**, 30632–30641.
- 58 A. E. Brodie and D. J. Reed, Arch. Biochem. Biophys., 1990, 276, 212–218.
- 59 R. C. Cumming, N. L. Andon, P. A. Haynes, M. Park, W. H. Fischer and D. Schubert, *J. Biol. Chem.*, 2004, 279, 21749–21758.
- 60 L. Zheng, R. G. Roeder and Y. Luo, Cell, 2003, 114, 255-266.
- 61 Z. Dastoor and J. L. Dreyer, J. Cell Sci., 2001, 114, 1643-1653.