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A versatile mass spectrometry-based method to both identify kinase client-relationships and characterize signaling network topology

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Abstract

While more than a thousand protein kinases (PK) have been identified in the *Arabidopsis thaliana* genome, relatively little progress has been made towards identifying their individual client proteins. Herein we describe the use of a mass spectrometry-based *in vitro* phosphorylation strategy, termed Kinase Client assay (KiC assay), to study a targeted-aspect of signaling. A synthetic peptide library comprising 377 *in vivo* phosphorylation sequences from developing seed was screened using 71 recombinant *A. thaliana* PK. Among the initial results, we identified 23 proteins as putative clients of 17 PK. In one instance protein phosphatase inhibitor-2 (AtPPI-2) was phosphorylated at multiple-sites by three distinct PK, casein kinase 1-like 10, AME3, and a Ser PK-like protein. To confirm this result, full-length recombinant AtPPI-2 was reconstituted with each of these PK. The results confirmed multiple distinct phosphorylation sites within this protein. Biochemical analyses indicate that AtPPI-2 inhibits type 1 protein phosphatase (TOPP) activity, and that the phosphorylated forms of AtPPI-2 are more potent inhibitors. Structural modeling revealed that phosphorylation of AtPPI-2 induces conformational changes that modulate TOPP binding.

Keywords

mass spectrometry; kinase; phosphorylation; protein-protein interaction; phosphatase inhibitor; signaling network

Introduction

Reversible protein phosphorylation, catalyzed by the coordinated activities of protein kinases (PK) and phosphatases (PP), has been critical to the evolution of complex signaling networks. Both coarse and fine-control of PK and PP activities are essential for regulating the phosphorylation-state of a large repertoire of client proteins, which in turn control

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cellular processes¹⁻³. It has been estimated that over 30% of the eukaryotic proteome is phosphorylated, suggesting this is one of the most prevalent type of post-translational regulation⁴. The *Arabidopsis thaliana* genome encodes 1029 PK (both confirmed and predicted), which is proportionally double the number predicted for the human genome⁵. If the specificity of a signal transduction pathway is determined by kinase-mediated phosphorylation of discreet motifs within specific client-proteins, then elucidating the cohort of PK-client relationships is critical to any systematic study.

Advances in mass spectrometry (MS) coupled with the increasing availability of annotated genome sequences have allowed the routine identification of thousands of PK-clients manifested as *in vivo* phosphorylation sites. Integrating these large phospho-proteomic datasets with public sequence databases in repositories such as P³DB (<http://digbio.missouri.edu/p3db>), which includes sequence data from 31,019 phospho-peptides within 10,499 protein sequences derived from five plant species, facilitates comparative analyses of homologous phosphorylation events within related organisms⁶. The *A. thaliana* kinome comprises 1029 PK genes, while a total of 3906 phosphorylation sites have been deposited in P³DB indicating a multiplicity of PK-client relationships. Defining these relationships is an essential prelude to understanding the diverse roles in cellular and subcellular signaling, but doing so remains a daunting task^{7, 8} and is one the grand challenges facing biologists. To date only a small percentage of these relationships have been defined^{5, 7, 9}, and clearly an improved experimental strategy is warranted.

Identifying PK-clients *in vivo* is a both laborious and challenging endeavor, and is even more so in the absence of background information. *In vitro* approaches can provide preliminary data, which then allows a focus on subsequent validation. A high-throughput method, based on the combination of chemical genetics plus expression of a single epitope-tagged protein, was used to identify yeast PK-clients⁷. Difficulties in applying this strategy to more complex eukaryotes include the availability, maintenance, and use of multiple different cell lines. There has been some success using arrayed-protein chips¹⁰ or bead-immobilized PK¹¹ to identify PK-clients. Feilner *et al.* used a chip containing 1690 non-redundant proteins to screen potential clients for two *A. thaliana* mitogen-activated protein kinases (MAPK)¹². They identified respectively, 48 and 39 potential clients for MPK3 and MPK6. Another strategy, which employs a semi-degenerate peptide-array screen coupled with position-specific scoring matrices, followed by *in silico* database querying, has been used to identify potential clients for four *A. thaliana* PK⁵. Alternatively, targeting synthetic peptides derived from analysis of *in vivo* phosphorylation sites, in a chip-based screen, allows a better focus that also serves to validate MS-based phosphorylation site assignments¹³. Each of these methods has utility for identification of PK-clients, however the need for further validation of the interactions with native proteins and for identification of the specific phosphorylation-site(s) and phosphorylation preferences at each site remain significant limitations.

Individual proteins can be clients of multiple PK. Therefore any strategy aimed at both identification of PK-client relationships and definition of signaling network topology must include quantitative analysis of phosphorylation-site specificity¹⁴. Herein we describe the application of a quantitative medium-throughput, label-free, MS-based screen to identify kinase-client relationships in developing *A. thaliana* seeds using a library of 377 synthetic peptides, representing previously identified phosphorylation sites in developing seed of *A. thaliana* and *Brassica napus*. Prior proof-of-concept studies validated use of this screen for analysis of multi-site phosphorylation^{15, 16}, allowing us to also interpret results in terms of phosphorylation-site preference and thus to extend our characterization to include aspects of signaling-network topology.

Materials and Methods

Synthetic peptide library

Based on the results obtained from *in vivo* phosphoproteomic analysis of developing *A. thaliana* and *B. napus* seeds¹⁷, a library (PEP screen, Sigma, St. Louis, MO, USA) consisting of 377 synthetic 10 to 20-mer peptides was designed (Table S1). Stock solutions were prepared by dissolving the peptides in 80% (v/v) dimethylformamide in water to a final concentration of 8 mM. Samples from the stock solutions were then diluted into the KiC assay^{15, 16}. These synthetic peptides were then used as the basis for an integrated experimental strategy for identification of kinase-client proteins (Figure 1).

Selection of seed-expressed PK

Three different criteria were used in selection of the PK to be analyzed. Firstly, expression of PK-encoding genes was monitored using the ATH1 Affymetrix microarray data¹⁸, from 5, 7, 9, 11, and 13-days after flowering (DAF); those which showed at least 1.1-fold change between the DAF were included. Secondly, the PK-encoding genes highly expressed during seed development (3–4 DAF, 7–8 DAF, 13–14 DAF, and 18–19 DAF) relative to expression in floral buds, leaves, ovules, roots, seedlings, and stems (<http://estdb.biology.ucla.edu/genechip/>) were included. Thirdly, the PK-encoding genes expressed during development of *A. thaliana* seeds were identified among the At GenExpress microarray data available at the PlantsP website (<http://plantsp.genomics.purdue.edu>) and also included.

The *A. thaliana* ecotype Col-0 plants were grown under standard greenhouse long-day (16 h) conditions (22 °C, 50% relative humidity, 144 $\mu\text{mol photons m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$). Total RNA was isolated from young siliques using the RN easy Mini Kit (Qiagen, Valencia, CA), and cDNAs were synthesized using M-MLV reverse transcriptase (Promega, Madison, WI, USA). The coding regions for each protein were amplified using Pfu polymerase (Stratagene, Santa Clara, CA, USA), plus either PK- (Table S2) or client-specific (Table S3) primers. Purified PCR products were directionally cloned into the Champion pET200 TOPO vector (Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA, USA) according to the manufacturer's protocol. All constructs were sequenced to verify that no changes had been introduced during amplification.

Recombinant protein expression and purification

For recombinant protein expression, *Escherichia coli* strain BL21 Star (DE3) were transformed by heat-shock. After induction of heterologous protein expression by addition of IPTG to 0.5–1.0 mM, cells were grown with continuous shaking (200 rpm) for 4 h at 37 °C or overnight at 18 °C, depending upon the PK. Cells were harvested by centrifugation at $6,000 \times g$ for 15 min. Cell pellets were suspended in 50 mM NaH_2PO_4 , pH 8.0, containing 300 mM NaCl, and 10 mM imidazole, then broken by three passages through a French pressure cell at 12,000 psi. Cell debris were removed by centrifugation at $10,000 \times g$ for 15 min at 4 °C. Supernatants were loaded onto Ni-NTA affinity columns (Qiagen, Valencia, CA, USA) and, after washing, bound proteins were eluted with 250 mM imidazole-HCl, pH 8.0, containing 50 mM NaH_2PO_4 , and 0.3 M NaCl. Eluted His₆-proteins were dialyzed overnight to remove the imidazole, then stored in 10mM Tris-HCl, pH 7.5 containing 1 mM DTT and 50% (v/v) glycerol at –20 °C until used. Purity of the PK and client proteins was evaluated by SDS-PAGE using 13% (T) gels.

Protein kinase assay

The *in vitro* kinase assay was conducted using recombinant PK (Table S2) plus either a mixture of synthetic peptides or selected full-length client proteins. The KiC assay has been

previously described^{15, 16}, and was used with minor modifications (1 h, 37 °C, shaking at 500 rpm). Reactions typically contained a mixture of 100 different peptides, each at a final concentration of 4.5 μM. In the cases of CPKs, reactions additionally contained 0.2 mM CaCl₂. The full-length client proteins were assayed at a 2:1 ratio with PK, and reactions were extended to 3 h.

Protein phosphatase assay

The phosphoprotein-phosphatase activity of λ PP was estimated by using pNPP as an artificial substrate¹⁹. Both λ PP (10 μl, 150 ng) and AtPPI-2 (10 μl, 0–700 ng) were diluted in assay buffer containing 50 mM Tris-HCl, pH 7.5, containing 1 mM EDTA, 2 mM MnCl₂, 0.5 mg/mL BSA, and 0.1% 2-mercaptoethanol. The λ PP was preincubated with AtPPI-2 at 30°C for 10 min, followed by addition of pNPP (20 mM, Fluka) in assay buffer followed by incubation for an additional 20 min. Reactions were stopped by adding 150 μl of 0.5 M EDTA, pH 8.0, followed by measuring the A₄₀₅. All the assays were done at least in triplicate and results are means ± SD for three individual experiments.

Mass spectrometry

Prior to MS analysis, freeze dried-peptides were dissolved by adding 40 μL of 0.1% formic acid. Samples were loaded into v-bottom 96-well plates which were then placed onto a pre-chilled 10 °C auto-sampler. Ten μl of each sample were analyzed using a Finnigan Surveyor liquid chromatography (LC) system attached to either a stand-alone LTQ-XL or a LTQ Orbitrap XL ETD mass spectrometer (Thermo Fisher, San Jose, CA). During LC, peptides were bound to a C8 Captrap (MichromBioresources, Auburn, CA, USA), eluted with an acetonitrile gradient, and then separated using a “Magic C18” (200 Å, 5 μ bead, MichromBioresources) fused silica column (10 cm × 150 μm, Polymicro Technologies, Phoenix, AZ). Each column was pre-equilibrated with a gradient of 95% to 5% acetonitrile in 0.1% formic acid prior to MS analysis to clear the C18 matrix of unwanted ions.

Analysis of the synthetic peptide screen was performed using a stand-alone LTQ-XL. Instrument settings were described previously^{15, 20} except the gradient was increased to 1–40% acetonitrile. Analysis of the recombinant protein kinase client assays was performed using a LTQ Orbitrap XL ETD. Full length-proteins were digested with sequencing grade trypsin (Promega, Madison, WI). Tryptic peptides were fragmented using either collision induced dissociation (CID) or “decision tree” methods, which utilizes both CID and ETD during a single sample analysis²¹.

Nano-spray ionization source parameter settings were: ion spray voltage (kV), 2.10; capillary temperature (°C), 250; capillary voltage (v), 36; and tube lens (v), 90. Precursor masses were scanned with the analyzer set to FTMS; mass range, normal; resolution, 60,000 or 100,000; scan type, positive mode; data type, centroid; and a scan range of 200–2,000 m/z. The 10 most abundant ions from the precursor scan were selected for subsequent fragmentation using the ion trap-analyzer, normal mass range, normal scan rate, and centroid data type. Charge-state screening and monoisotopic precursor-selection modes were enabled. Unassigned charge states and masses with a charge state of +1 were not analyzed. The CID data-dependent scan settings included: collision energy 35 kV, default charge state +2, isolation width 2.0 m/z, activation time of 30 milliseconds (msec), and multistage activation was disabled. Dynamic exclusion was enabled with a repeat count of 3, repeat duration of 30 msec, exclusion list size 50–100, and exclusion duration of 30 msec. Data-dependent ions fragmented with ETD had an exclusion mass width of 10 ppm. Decision tree settings were previously described²¹(Swaney *et al.*, 2008). The reagent ion source settings including temperature, emission current, energy level, and CI pressure were 160°C, 50μA,

–70V, and 17.5psi, respectively. The activation time was 100 msec and supplemental activation mode was enabled.

Bioinformatic analysis

The raw MS files were searched against a decoy database consisting of the random complement of the sequences comprising the peptide library, using SEQUEST algorithms (Proteome Discoverer 1.0, Thermo Fisher). Instrument and search parameters settings have been previously described^{15, 20}. For recombinant kinase-client assays, a composite target decoy database was constructed based upon all full length kinases and client protein sequences. The search parameters were: mass type, average precursor plus fragment; dynamic modifications, phosphorylation of Ser/Thr/Tyr (+79.9799 Da) and oxidation of Met (+15.9994 Da), and the static modification, of Cys-carboxyamidomethylation. Additional parameters included two missed tryptic cleavage sites; an absolute threshold of 1000; a minimum ion count of 10; mass range, 200–2000, and a precursor and fragment ion tolerance of 1000 ppm and 1Da, respectively.

Identification data were evaluated using the XCorr function of SEQUEST, and phosphorylation-site localization was accomplished using phospho *RS* (Proteome Discoverer, v. 1.0.3, Thermo Fisher). The XCorr values for each charge state were set to default, and no decoy hits were allowed. Peptide mass deviation was 10 ppm and a setting of two peptides/protein was used to further filter the data. For final validation, each spectrum was inspected manually and accepted only when the phosphopeptide had the highest pRS site probability, pRS score, XCorr value and site-determining fragment ions allowed unambiguous localization of the phosphorylation site. Phosphopeptides with a pRS score 50 and/or a pRS site probability of 55% were accepted.

Modeling of native and mutant AtPPI-2

For the target protein AtPPI-2 (At5g52200), MUFOLD was used to predict the local structure and the solvent accessibility of the target, then used to scan PDB to obtain the target/template alignments. The best templates are 2O8G_I, 2O8A_I and 2O8A_J. The best target/template alignments cover almost 84% target residues, however only 26% of the aligned residues from the templates have structure information. Thus, MUFOLD was used to search and evaluate fragmentary structures which fit the target in the terms of sequence, local structure, and similarity of solvent accessibility, and which also fit the templates in terms of structure. Fragments from 1Z5U_A, 1YA9_A, and 2DFS_A were selected. The structural constraints from both templates and fragments were used with MUFOLD to build the target model, then applied in a multi-layer evaluation approach including molecular dynamics ranking and consensus quality assessment to select the near-native predicted model^{22, 23}. For analysis of the modified sequences, the Ser residue at position 140 was changed to the P-Ser-mimics Glu or Asp.

Results

Identification of client proteins for seed-expressed kinases

Among the 377 synthetic peptides used as clients for 71 seed specific recombinant PK, a total of 23 peptides were phosphorylated by 17 PK (Table 1); several PK phosphorylated more than one peptide (Table S4). The 17 PK that were active in our *in vitro* assay include two members of the casein kinase family (At3g23340 and At5g67380), one receptor-like cytoplasmic kinase (At3g55450), two LAMMER-family kinases (At4g24740 and At4g32660), and 12 CPK or CPK-like (At5g04870, At4g23650, At2g17290, At5g19450, At1g35670, At2g31500, At5g66210, At3g19100, At5g24430, At2g17530, At4g35500 and At5g22840) kinases (Table 1). The 23 peptides that were phosphorylated in the KiC assay

are derived from a wide range of proteins including a protein phosphatase inhibitor (A5g52200), cytochrome P450 (At3g30290), aquaporin (At2g37180), chaperonin (At4g25580) and transcription factor (AT4G38900) (Table 1). All of these proteins have previously been reported to be phosphorylated *in vivo* (P³DB).

Peptides GDFDADsDDEIVLVPK (At4g17060), GIADYSASPDVKsER (At3g16310), and ITGNFPAsKLSQDLQR (At5g61140) were phosphorylated at a single site and by a single recombinant PK while peptides TSLHStRtVPLVPW (At1g02410), IGEIENRstFLLAVK (At3g25690), AEVtVtRsYMLMFPR (At3g30290) and KTPNLGGPsMKsMSGGNL (At3g16760) were phosphorylated at two sites by a single PK (Table 1). A total of nine client peptides were phosphorylated either at a single or multi-sites by two different PKs. In most of the cases, the same family PK shared common clients and phosphorylated at the same residues. For instance, peptide KPKIAIAsVFGNDSDED correspond to D111/G-patch protein (At5g26610) is phosphorylated at the same Ser residues by both the CK1-like 10 (At3g23340) and CK1A (At5g67380) (Table 1). Our results indicate that clients of the same family PK's overlap extensively (Table 1). There were also instances where a single peptide was a client of multiple groups of PK's. The best example of this is peptide IHDDDDDEGsLsPRGGR corresponding to AtPPI-2 (At5g52200), which was phosphorylated by CK1-like 10, AME3, and a Ser-PK-like protein (Table 1).

Validation of the peptide-based KiC assay results

It is important that the results obtained with synthetic peptides be validated using full-length proteins as clients. We have begun to address this point by focusing on AtPPI-2, which is a putative client for three PKs (Table 1). After heterologous expression, the full-length recombinant protein was purified (Figure S1), and the KiC assay was repeated with the recombinant kinases and AtPPI-2 followed by MS analysis (Figure 1). While agreement among the *in vivo* phospho-proteomic dataset, the *in vitro* peptide results, and the *in vitro* full-length recombinant client protein results was not perfect, ultimately it was all-encompassing. Most of the synthetic peptides were multi-site phosphorylated. The most extreme example has three phosphorylation sites (Table S4). Multi-site phosphorylation is not, however, unusual in terms of cellular signaling. In some instances of multi-step signaling networks, a “primed phosphorylation mechanism” is necessary where “residue X” must be phosphorylated as a prelude to subsequent phosphorylation of “residue A” which is the functional site of regulation/signaling ²⁴.

In most cases, the phosphorylation sites observed *in vitro* were the same as those identified *in vivo* (Table S4). There were, however, a few exceptions involving synthetic peptides based upon the *B. napus* phospho-proteomic results where a phosphorylation site that had been identified *in vivo* could not be detected during MS analysis of the native protein. For instance, recombinant AME3 was able to phosphorylate Ser residues in the *B. napus*-based synthetic peptide IHDDDDDEGsLsPRGGR corresponding to PPI-2 protein but not the single Ser residue in the related *A. thaliana* peptide TPYHPMDDDGSLSPR using purified recombinant protein. Results from examination of the MS data prior to filtering seemed to indicate the presence of P-Ser, however the results were not of sufficient quality based upon FDR assessment. Overall, the results seen in this study support the large majority of phosphorylation sites of many proteins observed previously *in vivo*. In addition, many novel phosphorylation sites were identified within the AtPPI-2 sequence (Table S5).

Kinase-specific phosphorylation preferences in AtPPI-2, a type-one protein phosphatase inhibitor

Our results clearly show that a single client can be targeted by multiple PK. As a model, we have focused on AtPPI-2 as a client. AtPPI-2 is a type-one protein phosphatase inhibitor that

inhibits the activities of all nine type-one phosphatases from *A. thaliana*¹⁹. A total of fourteen phosphorylation sites were reported in AtPPI-2 by several *in vivo* phosphoproteomic studies (P³DB), however the PK responsible for these phosphorylation events remain unknown. Employing the KiC assay with purified, recombinant AtPPI-2 we found a total of five *in vivo* sites phosphorylated by three different PK (Figure 2A). Comparison of these results with those available in public phosphorylation databases P³DB and PhosPhAt additionally revealed that phosphorylation of Ser⁷⁷ and Thr¹⁷⁸ had not previously been reported (Figure 2A). For example, MS/MS spectra of the phosphopeptide NVLNDAASSSR which showed many b and y product ions (including the phosphorylated Ser) and the phosphate neutral loss on either fragment or precursor ions (Figure 2B) provides clear evidence of phosphorylation of Ser⁷⁷. A relative comparison of phosphorylated to unphosphorylated sites for AtPPI-2 showed that phosphorylation status varies with specific sites and kinase (Figure S2). Notably, Ser¹⁵⁵ was only phosphorylated by AME3 whereas Ser⁴⁵ was phosphorylated by CK1-like 10 and Ser-PK like protein (Figure 3).

While there are individual PK-specific sites (e.g., Ser⁴⁵ and Ser⁷⁷) present in the AtPPI-2 sequence, a C-terminal region characterized by a RKxHY motif includes a Ser¹⁴⁰ site that was phosphorylated by all three kinases. Full-sequence phosphorylation site preferences were quantified by spectral counting. The results indicate that Ser⁴⁵ was the site most extensively phosphorylated, however this site was not phosphorylated by all three kinases. Whereas the Ser¹⁴⁰ site was the second most phosphorylated site, and additionally was phosphorylated by all three PK (Figure 3). Although in the RKxHY motif, Ser¹³⁷, Ser¹³⁸, and Tyr¹⁴² were also phosphorylated by all three kinases, due to low (>50) pRS score and pRS site probability these sites were considered as low confidence (Figure 3). It is important to note, however, that *in vivo* phosphorylation of Ser¹³⁷, Ser¹³⁸, Ser¹⁴⁰, and Tyr¹⁴² has been previously reported (P³DB).

Inhibition of type 1 protein phosphatase (TOPP) activity by AtPPI-2

To evaluate the effect(s) of AtPPI-2 phosphorylation on TOPP-inhibiting activity, we used the distantly-related lambda phosphatase (λ PPase) as a surrogate since the sequence and structural features responsible for TOPP docking of PPI-2 inhibitor are conserved²⁵ (Figure S3). To determine the inhibitory effect of AtPPI-2, pNPP was used as substrate for λ PPase. Initial results using non-phosphorylated recombinant AtPPI-2 showed a dose-dependent inhibition of λ PPase with an IC₅₀ near 140 ng (Figure S4A). Inhibition was time-dependent, reaching 80% by 30 min (Figure S4B). Recombinant AtPPI-2 was also phosphorylated by a single PK, combinations of two PK, or all three PK prior to assaying PPase inhibition. Inhibitory activity was expressed as a percentage of the control value (λ PPase activity without AtPPI-2). The results showed phosphorylated AtPPI-2 was a more potent inhibitor of λ PPase than non-phosphorylated protein (Figure 4). Among the various combinations, there were substantial differences in inhibition efficacy. The most potent form of the inhibitor was that phosphorylated by CK1-like 10 and either of the remaining PK (Figure 4). Overall, the results show that phosphorylated AtPPI-2 is a more potent *in vitro* inhibitor of TOPP activity, and imply the potential for effective multi-site phosphorylation as a component of a signaling network.

Discussion

A relatively small number of experimental strategies have been applied to PK-client identification^{5, 9, 11–13, 26}. Although useful, none of these methods offer the resolution necessary for characterization of either multi-site or multi-PK phosphorylation, both requisite for dissecting complex signaling networks. In the present study, we present results

obtained using a previously-described medium-throughput analysis, the “KiC assay”^{15, 16}, which measures *in vitro* phosphorylation of synthetic peptides. The library of peptides described herein is based on the sequences of 377 *in vivo* phosphorylation-sites, and was screened with 71 recombinant PK. Almost all of the 71 PK were active based upon auto phosphorylation analyses (data not shown) and thus indiscriminate phosphorylation of the 377 peptides was a possible outcome. However, this was not observed. Only 17 PK showed activity against this equimolar peptide library, phosphorylating a grand total of 23 peptides (Table 1). In most instances, the *in vitro* results (Table S4) recapitulate the results obtained from *in vivo* phosphorylation-site analysis¹⁷.

Because many proteins integrate signals from multiple PK, quantitative analyses of individual sites are required to develop a better understanding of how signaling networks function^{13, 14}. We have identified several proteins as potential clients for multiple PK. The topological relationships among *A. thaliana* seed-expressed PK and their cognate client-proteins were determined (Figure 5). As expected, the preferred clients for the CPK family members exhibited a range of specificity and redundancy that ultimately reflect kinase similarity. The client connectivity among unrelated kinases was surprising and may offer clues about the potential for cross-talk between signal transduction pathways. One of the peptides that was phosphorylated by multiple kinases belonged to the TOPP regulatory protein PPI-2 (At5g52200), a potential hub in an as yet undiscovered signaling network (Figure 5).

The AtPPI-2 primary sequence is 58–81% similar with other plant orthologs and the phosphorylation sites themselves are conserved (Figure S5). Comparison of the phosphorylation sites of *A. thaliana* and mammalian PPI-2 (human or mouse) revealed comparatively fewer sites in the plant protein (16 versus 19 and 11, respectively) than human (Figure S6A). Phosphorylation at the N-terminal PxTPY motif of PPI-2 is conserved in both plants and animals, however, phosphorylation at the PP-binding RKxHY motif has thus far been identified only in plant PPI-2 (Figure S6B). It has been previously established that mammalian PPI-2 is phosphorylated by multiple PK, and that phosphorylation is important for both selectivity and activity as an inhibitor^{27, 28}. We observed that the situation is similar in the plant-derived system but with additional elaborations. The Thr-residue within the PxT⁷²P motif is phosphorylated in mammalian cells by glycogen shaggy-like protein kinase-3 (GSK3) and cyclin-dependent protein kinases 2 (CDC2)^{28–30}. The *A. thaliana* homologues of these two PK were included in our study (Table S2), however they did not phosphorylate the “Thr⁷²”-containing peptide (Table S4). In contrast, we observed that AtPPI-2 was phosphorylated at multiple sites by the CK1-like 10, AME3, and Ser PK-like PK (Figure 2). There is no report that homologues of these plant PK phosphorylate mammalian PPI-2, although a CK2 family protein does phosphorylate a Ser residues near the PxTPY motif of human PPI-2³¹.

Results from analyses of phosphorylation-site preferences indicate that Ser⁴⁵ was the most intensely phosphorylated site of any individual PK whereas Ser¹⁴⁰ residue was strongly phosphorylated by three different PK (Figure 3). Additional support for the importance of multi-site phosphorylation comes from crystallography and 3-D modeling analyses of mouse PPI-2 which revealed that residues 130–169 near the C-terminal RKxHY motif are directly involved in both protein interactions and inhibition of TOPP catalytic (c) activity³¹. This region is highly conserved among plants (Figure S5) and between *A. thaliana* and mouse PPI-2 (Figure S6). Moreover, comparative 3-D modeling of this conserved region supports a similar interaction between the non-phosphorylated form of AtPPI-2 with Arg⁹⁶, His¹²⁵, Arg²²¹, and Tyr²⁷² of TOPPc (Figure 6) to that previously demonstrated with the mouse proteins³¹. To determine whether phosphorylation in the RKxHY motif could alter the interaction of TOPPc-PPI-2 binding structure, Ser¹⁴⁰ which is phosphorylated by all three

kinases was mimicked by either Glu or Asp (Figure 6C and D). Interestingly, the 3-D modeling showed that phosphorylation of Ser¹⁴⁰ in this region produces conformational changes (Figure 6) that could affect binding^{32, 33}.

Participation of AtPPI-2 in a regulatory signaling network could be amplified by phosphorylation-dependent modulation of TOPP activity. To evaluate this possibility we employed a reconstitution assay consisting of recombinant AtPPI-2 and λ -PP. We observed that the phosphorylated forms of AtPPI-2 had significantly higher PP-inhibitory activity in comparison with the non-phosphorylated form (Figure 4), and this activity is affected by location and degree of phosphorylation. Consistent with our model, it has been reported that phosphorylation of human PPI-1 at Thr³⁵ and Ser⁶⁷ produces a potent inhibitor of TOPP activity whereas no inhibitory effect was observed in the non-phosphorylated form³⁴.

More recently it has been observed that human PPI-2 forms an inactive complex with TOPP that can be reversed by phosphorylation of Thr⁷² by GSK3 or CDC2 kinases³⁵. Currently the precise role of phosphorylation of different amino acids at AtPPI-2 in inhibition of TOPP remains largely unverified, however 3-D modeling and crystallography studies of mammalian PPI-2³⁶ provide support for the proposal that phosphorylation of amino acids in the TOPP binding motif may play a role in a conformational change that affects the binding and/or inhibition activity (Figure 5). Moreover it has been suggested that the action of one kinase enhances phosphorylation of other residues by different kinases and is required for potentiation of different kinase action³⁰. Although the RVxF, PxTPY and RKxHY motifs are conserved among *Arabidopsis* and mammalian PPI-2, some features of the mammalian PPI-2 such as the SGILK and SQ motifs at the N-terminal region are believed to be responsible for the TOPP interaction³¹, but these motifs are absent in AtPPI-2 (Figure S6). Therefore, it could be possible that phosphorylation events act differently between the *Arabidopsis* and mammalian PPI-2. Based upon our results and those of others, we propose a working model that includes the involvement of AtPPI-2 in complex network-signaling interactions (Figure 7). This model shows AtPPI-2 is located at the interface of multiple signaling networks. It has been reported that the inactive form (unphosphorylated) of AtPPI-2 could inhibit all nine TOPP in *Arabidopsis*¹⁹. The phosphorylated form of AtPPI-2 is, however, a more effective protein-phosphatase inhibitor wherein activation can be mediated through phosphorylation of AtPPI-2 by three separate kinases (CK 1-like 10, AME3, or a Ser/Thr PK-family protein), any pair of these kinases, or all three kinases. Conceptually, phosphorylation of AtPPI-2 would result from transduction of a signal from the respective kinase network.

We have previously established the utility of the KiC assay for analysis of defined PK/client pairs, as well as for PK-client discovery^{15, 16, 20}. Although in this experiment, we limited ourselves to synthetic peptides corresponding to known *in vivo* phosphorylation sites of the proteins of *Arabidopsis* and *B. napus* developing seeds, a library including all of the potential Ser, Thr and Tyr-containing tryptic peptides and maximum number of recombinant PK could scale up to encompass the majority of the potential clients for each PK. However, this would be impractical in terms of expense. And even if this were not the case, it would still be constrained by issues such as the necessity of prior phosphorylation (or some other post translational modification) of site 1 before site 2 can be phosphorylated, the potential of a hierarchy of phosphorylation, phosphorylation-mediated protein interactions, etc.

In principle, the use of multiple PK with an individual synthetic peptide would allow the quantitative phosphorylation preferences of each PK to be determined. Furthermore, we demonstrate this extension to the PK-client identification strategy, and reveal an additional application of the assay for the identification/characterization of the topology of signaling networks (Figure 5). Our results suggest that AtPPI-2 occupies a position at the intersection

of multiple signaling pathways. Stanger *et al.*³⁷ recently reported a similar topological position for the yeast adaptor protein, Nbp2p, which influences protein phosphatase function. It is thus possible that inhibitor or adapter proteins could occupy important positions as global regulators for specific protein phosphatases or classes of protein phosphatases, as reported here.

Supplementary Material

Refer to Web version on PubMed Central for supplementary material.

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Figure 1.
Experimental strategy used for identification of kinase-client relationships.

Figure 2.

Comparative phosphosites mapping of AtPPI-2 (At5g52200). Experimentally-determined, *in vivo* phosphorylation sites for AtPPI-2 from P³DB and PhosPhAt database, compared with sites obtained *in vitro* (KiC assay) using recombinant AtPPI-2 and PKs (CK1 like-10, AME3 and Ser PK like protein) (A). Letters in gray indicates low-confidence phosphosites. B, represent a MS/MS spectrum of a novel phosphosite in AtPPI-2. The phosphopeptide NVLNDAAASsSR represent an example of an additional novel phosphosite (Ser⁷⁷) of the AtPPI-2. Small letter in the sequence indicating the phosphosite. Arrow and asterisks indicates the detection of the neutral loss of the phosphate on fragments or precursor ions and the phosphorylated Ser residues, respectively.

Figure 3.

Comparison of the *in vitro* phosphorylation-site specificities of recombinant CK1-like 10, AME3, and Ser PK like protein. In separate experiments, recombinant AtPPI-2 was phosphorylated with an individual kinase, digested with trypsin, and the tryptic peptides analyzed by MS. Data presented are means of three biological replicates. Percentage shown above the bars indicates the pRS site probability for each amino acid. Based on the pRS score and pRS site probability (Table S5) solid and empty bars represent the phosphosites with high and low confidence, respectively.

Figure 4.

Phosphorylation of AtPPI-2 makes it a better inhibitor of λ TOPP activity. Recombinant AtPPI-2 was incubated with λ TOPP either before or after phosphorylation by the indicated kinases. TOPP activity was measured at an absorbance A_{405} wherein p-nitrophenyl phosphate (pNPP) was used as substrate. Inhibitory activity is expressed as a percentage of the control values. Values are means $\pm$ SEM for control ($n = 9$) or plus AtPPI-2 ($n = 3$) reactions. Different letters above the bars indicate a statistically-significant difference ($p < 0.05$) according to the Duncan multiple-range test.

Figure 5.

The topological relationships among *A. thaliana* seed-expressed PK and their cognate client-proteins. The data were obtained by in vitro screening of a synthetic peptide library derived from *in vivo* phospho-proteomic analyses of developing *A. thaliana* and *B. napus* seeds (P³DB) with 71 recombinant *A. thaliana* PK. Based upon the peptide sequences, 23 proteins were identified as presumptive clients for 17 PK. The cartograph was assembled using the organic layout from Cytoscape version 2.3.2³⁸. The PKs that belong to the same family are presented as hubs of the same color, while the client nodes are uncolored. Each edge represents a single PK-client pair. The spatial distribution of hubs, nodes, and edges is arbitrary.

Figure 6.

Predicted conformational changes in the AtPPI-2 structure induced by phosphorylation of Ser¹⁴⁰. Panel (A) includes the model of the rat TOPP catalytic domain 1 subunit (cyan, PDB accession 2O8AA0) docked with mouse PPI-2 (purple, PDB accession 2O8AI0). Panels B, C and D contain the model of the rat TOPP catalytic domain docked with non-phosphorylated (B) or phosphorylated (C and D) AtPPI-2, respectively. Protein phosphorylation was mimicked by Ser to Glu (C) and Asp (D) changes. Phosphorylation of Ser¹⁴⁰ cause conformational changes in AtPPI-2. Panels E, F, G and H include close-up views of the interaction between the conserved RKxHY motif of mouse PPI-2 (E) and/or AtPPI-2 (F–G) with residues Arg⁹⁶, His¹²⁵, Arg²²¹, and Tyr²⁷² of TOPP. The AtPPI-2 binding sites in TOPP are colored magenta. Structures were produced using PyMOL (www.pymol.org).

Figure 7.

Analysis of the topology of signaling network interactions. This model shows AtPPI-2 located at the interface of multiple signaling networks. Both inactive and activated (phosphorylated) forms of AtPPI-2 bind to TOPP, inhibiting protein-phosphatase activity. The phosphorylated form of AtPPI-2 is, however, a more effective protein-phosphatase inhibitor. In this model, activation of AtPPI-2 can be mediated through phosphorylation by three separate kinases (CK 1-like 10, a LAMMER-type protein kinase (AME3), or a Ser/Thr PK-family protein), any pair of these kinases, or all three kinases. In all instances, phosphorylation of PPI-2 would result from transduction of a signal from the affiliated network. A, B, and C represent phosphorylated residues. In the un-phosphorylated form they are represented by –OH groups, while in the activated form of AtPPI-2 they are designated by –P. A (CK 1-like 10) includes Ser⁴⁵, Ser⁷⁷, Ser¹⁴⁰, and Thr¹⁷⁸; B (AME3), Ser⁷⁷, Ser¹⁴⁰, and Ser¹⁵⁵; and C (S/T PK-like), Ser⁴⁵, Ser¹⁴⁰, and Thr¹⁷⁸. This model depicts the complexity of interactions (multiple networks, kinases, and phosphorylation-sites) that might be controlled from a single-interface among pathways.