



# Sulfonation of the resolving cysteine in human peroxiredoxin 1: A comprehensive analysis by mass spectrometry



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## ABSTRACT

Peroxiredoxin 1 (Prx1) is an essential peroxidase that reduces cellular peroxides. It holds 2 indispensable cysteines for its activity: a peroxidatic cysteine (C<sub>P</sub>) for peroxide reduction and a resolving cysteine (C<sub>R</sub>) for C<sub>P</sub> regeneration. C<sub>P</sub> can be readily sulfonated to C<sub>P</sub>-SO<sub>3</sub>H by protracted oxidative stress, which inactivates Prx1 as a peroxidase. By comparison, sulfonation of C<sub>R</sub> to C<sub>R</sub>-SO<sub>3</sub>H in mammalian cells has only been reported once. The rare report of C<sub>R</sub> sulfonation prompts the following questions: “can C<sub>R</sub>-SO<sub>3</sub>H be detected more readily with the current high sensitivity mass spectrometers (MS)?” and “do C<sub>P</sub> and C<sub>R</sub> have distinct propensities to sulfonation?” Answers to these questions could shed light on how differential sulfonation of C<sub>P</sub> and C<sub>R</sub> regulates Prx1 functions in cells. We used a sensitive Orbitrap MS to analyze both basal and H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>-induced sulfonation of C<sub>R</sub> and C<sub>P</sub> in either recombinant human Prx1 (rPrx1) or HeLa cell Prx1 (cPrx1). In the Orbitrap MS, we optimized both collision-induced dissociation and higher-energy collisional dissociation methods to improve the analytical sensitivity of cysteine sulfonation. In the basal states without added H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>, both C<sub>P</sub> and C<sub>R</sub> were partially sulfonated in either rPrx1 or cPrx1. Still, exogenous H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> heightened the sulfonation levels of both C<sub>P</sub> and C<sub>R</sub> by ~200–700%. Titration with H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> revealed that C<sub>P</sub> and C<sub>R</sub> possessed distinct propensities to sulfonation. This surprising discovery of prevalent Prx1 C<sub>R</sub> sulfonation affords a motivation for future investigation of its precise functions in cellular stress response.

## 1. Introduction

Peroxiredoxins (Prxs) are potent antioxidant proteins. Understanding how their functions are regulated is important for managing stress-induced diseases. The antioxidant activity of some Prxs depends on two conserved cysteines: a peroxidatic cysteine (C<sub>P</sub>) for peroxide reduction and a resolving cysteine (C<sub>R</sub>) for C<sub>P</sub> regeneration. In this study, we've optimized a mass spectrometry (MS) method to analyze cysteine sulfonation in Prx1, and to demonstrate that besides the familiar sulfonation of C<sub>P</sub>, sulfonation of C<sub>R</sub> is a physiological phenomenon that occurs in select cells. Plausible significance of C<sub>R</sub> sulfonation in regulating the plethora of Prx1 functions to counter oxidative stress is discussed.

Prxs reduce peroxides at the expense of the free thiol on C<sub>P</sub> (C<sub>P</sub>-SH),

whose oxidation - proton loss - has to be replenished by thioredoxins, before Prxs can reenlist in another cycle of peroxidase catalysis. Different classes of Prxs use distinct mechanisms to replenish C<sub>P</sub> protons and renew Prxs' readiness to combat peroxides. Prx1 is a member of the 2-Cys classes of Prxs, whose C<sub>P</sub> (C52 in human Prx1) interacts with C<sub>R</sub> (C173 in human Prx1) on two antiparallel-facing Prx1 molecules. Within physiological peroxide concentrations, Prx1 attacks the O-O bond in a peroxide substrate, while sacrifices C<sub>P</sub>-SH into a sulfenic acid (C<sub>P</sub>-SOH, [Supplemental Fig. S1](#), scheme I) [1–5]. C<sub>P</sub>-SOH, in turn, can conjugate with the free thiol on the C<sub>R</sub> (C<sub>R</sub>-SH) of a neighboring Prx1 molecule, to form a disulfide-linked homodimer ([Supplemental Fig. S1](#), scheme II). This C<sub>P</sub>-C<sub>R</sub> intermolecular disulfide can then be specifically reduced by thioredoxin 1 (Trx1, [Supplemental Fig. S1](#), scheme III), returning C<sub>P</sub> to a catalytically active C<sub>P</sub>-SH. Alternatively, with elevated

**Abbreviations:** ACN, Acetonitrile; CBB, Coomassie brilliant blue; C<sub>P</sub>, Peroxidatic cysteine, C52 in human Prx1; C<sub>P</sub>-SH, Peroxidatic cysteine with free thiol; C<sub>P</sub>-SOH, Peroxidatic cysteine with sulfenic acid; C<sub>P</sub>-SO<sub>2</sub>H, Peroxidatic cysteine with sulfinic acid; C<sub>P</sub>-SO<sub>3</sub>H, Peroxidatic cysteine with sulfonic acid; C<sub>R</sub>, Resolving cysteine, C173 in human Prx1; C<sub>R</sub>-SH, Resolving cysteine with free thiol; C<sub>R</sub>-SO<sub>3</sub>H, Resolving cysteine with sulfonic acid; CID, Collision-induced dissociation; HCD, Higher-energy collisional dissociation; IAA, Iodoacetamide; LC, Liquid chromatography; MS, Mass spectrometry; NCE, Normalized collision energy; NEM, N-ethylmaleimide; Prx1, Peroxiredoxin 1; Prxs, Peroxiredoxins; rPrx1, Recombinant human Prx1; cPrx1, Prx1 present in cells; PTM, post-translational modification; Srx, Sulfiredoxin; Trx1, Thioredoxin 1; XIC, Extracted ion chromatogram

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oxidative stress, C<sub>p</sub>-SOH can be progressively over-oxidized to either a sulfonic acid (C<sub>p</sub>-SO<sub>2</sub>H) or sulfonic acid (C<sub>p</sub>-SO<sub>3</sub>H) (Supplemental Fig. S1, schemes IV–V). Overoxidation of Prx1 prevents the formation of the C<sub>p</sub>-C<sub>R</sub> intermolecular disulfide, thus hinders Prx1 reactivation by Trx1 and inactivates its peroxidase activity [1,4–8]. Fortuitously, sulfiredoxin (Srx) and related enzymes can reduce C<sub>p</sub>-SO<sub>2</sub>H to C<sub>p</sub>-SOH and pave the path for Trx1 to reactivate Prx1 [9–12]. By comparison, overoxidation of C<sub>p</sub>-SH to C<sub>p</sub>-SO<sub>3</sub>H has long been characterized as a mechanism for the permanent inactivation of Prx1 as a peroxidase, which may lead to its demise via proteolytic degradations [13,14].

Two main methods for analyzing Prx sulfonation are Western blotting using an anti-Prx-SO<sub>2</sub>/SO<sub>3</sub> antibody [9,10] and MS, following gel electrophoresis or liquid chromatography (LC) separations of either recombinant Prxs [15,16], Prxs isolated from cell lines [11,12,14], blood or tissues [14,17,18]. Rabillound *et al.* used a Finnigan TSQ7000 MS to analyze Prx2, a member of the 2-Cys Prxs, and a close relative to Prx1 [17], and revealed for the first time of C<sub>p</sub>-SO<sub>3</sub>H in a Prx. The same group also used a matrix-assisted laser desorption/ionization MS in the negative ion mode, to discover that C<sub>p</sub>-SH in Prx2 isolated from HeLa cells could be oxidized to C<sub>p</sub>-SO<sub>2</sub>H in addition to C<sub>p</sub>-SO<sub>3</sub>H [11]. Remarkably, they further identified C<sub>p</sub>-SO<sub>3</sub>H in both Prx1 and Prx3 in the same study, articulating a general mechanism for the irreversible inactivation of Prxs by sulfonation. These pioneering studies exemplified standard MS approaches to identify Prx sulfonation in additional species. For example, using both an antibody against C<sub>p</sub>-SO<sub>3</sub>H from a yeast Prx (Tsa1p) and a QSTAR pulsar QTOF MS, Lim *et al.* discovered that C<sub>p</sub> sulfonation is the driver for switching Tsa1p from a peroxidase to a molecular chaperon, a phenomenon that exists for Prxs in many other species [3]. Based on the frequent observations of C<sub>p</sub>-SO<sub>3</sub>H, a general 2-Cys Prx [19,20] catalytic model has been proposed wherein only C<sub>p</sub>, but not C<sub>R</sub>, is sulfonated by excessive oxidation (Supplemental Fig. S1. See review [21]).

Our interest in studying Prx1 sulfonation stemmed from a serendipitous discovery of Trx1-directed S-nitrosation of Prx1, another redox post-translational modification (PTM), which can attenuate H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>-induced sulfonation of Prx1 [5]. In order to confirm that S-nitrosation can indeed mitigate C<sub>p</sub>-SO<sub>3</sub>H formation in Prx1, we used an Orbitrap MS to map the sulfonation sites in rPrx1. Unexpectedly, we detected astonishingly high levels of C<sub>R</sub>-SO<sub>3</sub>H (data shown below). Through a thorough literature search, we discovered only a single report of using an Orbitrap XL MS to discover C<sub>R</sub>-SO<sub>3</sub>H in Prx1 isolated from the livers of rats suffering from ischemia reperfusion injuries [18]. In fact, C<sub>R</sub>-SO<sub>3</sub>H has also been detected in a rapeseed 2-Cys Prx [16]. Here, we set out to determine whether C<sub>R</sub>-SO<sub>3</sub>H is indeed a reproducible physiological phenomenon. To this end, we optimized the Orbitrap MS parameters and compared the relative efficiencies of collision-induced dissociation (CID) and higher-energy collisional dissociation (HCD) for mapping C<sub>R</sub>-SO<sub>3</sub>H in Prx1-derived tryptic peptides. With an optimized MS method, we comprehensively compared whether C<sub>p</sub> and C<sub>R</sub> have different propensities to sulfonation, and assessed whether C<sub>R</sub> sulfonation occurs in assorted cell types. Since diverse PTMs on Prx1 have been correlated with its diverse functions in cells and organisms [22, 23], we will discuss how differential sulfonation of C<sub>p</sub> and C<sub>R</sub> may regulate the diverse Prx1 functions in handling cellular stress responses.

## 2. Materials and methods

### 2.1. Materials

Purified recombinant full-length human Prx1 protein (rPrx1) and all antibodies used in this study were from Abcam (Cambridge, MA, USA). All chemical reagents were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich (St. Louis, MO, USA), unless otherwise indicated. MS-grade trypsin was purchased from Thermo Fisher Scientific (Waltham, MA USA). LC-grade acetonitrile (ACN) and water were obtained from T. J. Baker (Center Valley, PA, USA). HeLa cells, human neuroblastoma SH-SY5Y cells, human

embryonic kidney 293 (HEK293) cells, and human fibroblast GM08680 cells were purchased from the American Type Culture Collection (ATCC, Manassas, VA, USA) and maintained in growth media according to ATCC's instructions, and HL-1 cells were cultured in Claycomb Medium (Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis, MO, USA). All media were supplemented with 10% FBS and penicillin/streptomycin at 37 °C and 5% CO<sub>2</sub>.

### 2.2. Oxidation and analysis of rPrx1

Twenty-five µg of rPrx1 were initially reduced with 100 mM DTT at 37 °C for 1 h to obtain the reduced rPrx1. The ensuing proteins were precipitated using ice-cold acetone to free them from DTT. Reduced rPrx1 was then oxidized with 0–100 mM H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> at 37 °C for 30 min, followed by acetone precipitation to remove H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>. The resulting proteins were analyzed by either reducing or non-reducing SDS-PAGE gels. Two hundred ng of the gel-resolved rPrx1 from each sample were analyzed by Western blotting to detect both total and sulfonated Prx1 (see methods below). The remaining proteins were purified by SDS-PAGE and stained with Coomassie Brilliant Blue (CBB) for in-gel digestion and sulfonation-site identification by LC/MS/MS described below.

### 2.3. Cell culture and induction of oxidative stress in cells

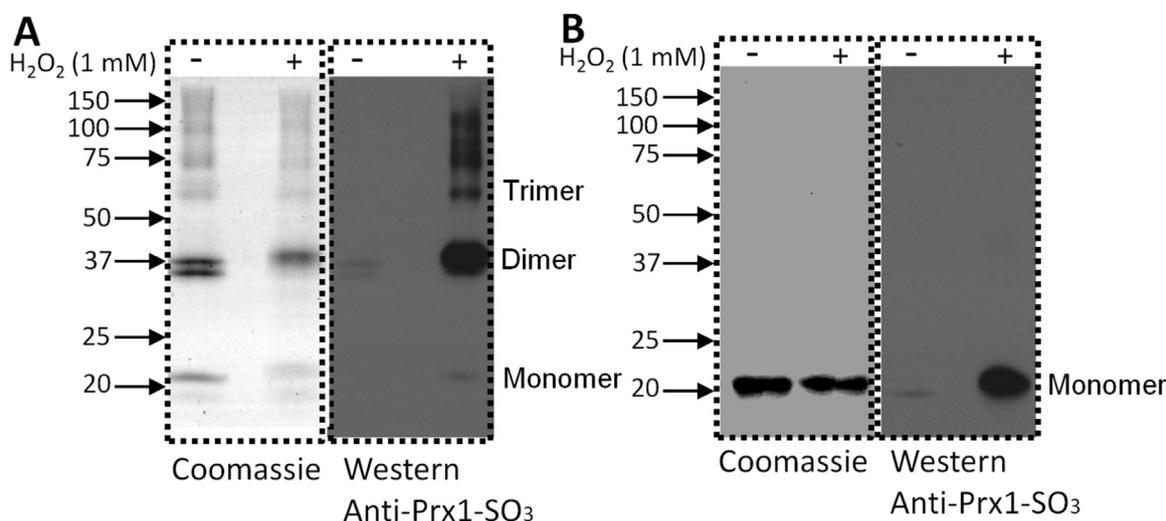
HeLa cells were grown in 10 cm plates at 37 °C in Dulbecco's modified Eagle's medium. The confluent cells were treated with either 1 mM H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> or media - as a control for 30 min. The cells were then harvested via centrifugation at 500 × g for 5 min and washed with PBS prior to SDS-PAGE and MS analyses. To analyze Prx1 sulfonation in other cells, SH-SY5Y cells, HEK293 cells, GM08680 cells, and HL-1 cells were also treated with or without H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> and analyzed as described for the HeLa cells.

### 2.4. Western blotting

For Western blotting analysis of rPrx1, 200 ng of rPrx1 in each sample were analyzed by both reducing and non-reducing gels and transferred onto the nitrocellulose membranes. Non-specific binding sites on the membranes were blocked with 5% milk and Prx1 were probed with either an anti-Prx1 (1:5000) or an anti-Prx-SO<sub>3</sub> (1:2500) antibody. For Western blotting of Prx1 in HeLa cells (cPrx1), proteins were extracted using a lysis buffer (50 mM Tris, 150 mM NaCl, 1% Triton X-100, 1 mM EDTA, 1 mM EGTA and pH 7.4), supplemented with 0.5% protease inhibitor cocktail (P8340, Sigma-Aldrich). The protein concentrations were measured using a Bradford assay kit (#5000201; BioRad, Hercules, CA, USA). Sixty µg of proteins from each cell extract were separated using a 12% reducing SDS-PAGE gel, transferred onto a nitrocellulose membrane and probed with the antibodies as described above.

### 2.5. In-gel digestion

Fifty µg of the proteins extracted from each cell treatment that contains cPrx1, or 1 µg/sample of rPrx1 protein were separated by SDS gels and the Prx1 bands in CBB-stained gels that migrated to the same positions as the Prx-SO<sub>3</sub> signals obtained from the Western blotting were excised for in-gel digestion. For the proteins in each gel band, the disulfide bonds were reduced using 100 µl of 10 mM DTT at 37 °C for 30 min. After the removal of DTT, the free thiols were alkylated with 55 mM of either iodoacetamide (IAA, pH 8.5) or N-ethylmaleimide (NEM, pH 7.2) at 37 °C for 30 min. After alkylation, the gel species were washed 3 times with 100 µl of 30% ACN in 25 mM NH<sub>4</sub>HCO<sub>3</sub> and dehydrated successively using 80, 60 and 40 µl of 80% ACN for 10 min each. To digest the proteins in each sample, 30 µl of 10 ng/µl trypsin in 25 mM NH<sub>4</sub>HCO<sub>3</sub> (pH 8.3) were first added and incubated at 37 °C for



**Fig. 1.** SDS-PAGE and Western blotting of sulfonated rPrx1 following  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$  treatment. rPrx1 was reduced with 100 mM DTT for 1 h at 37 °C. After acetone precipitation to remove the DTT, reduced rPrx1 was treated with or without 1 mM of  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$ . The resulting proteins were separated using either non-reducing (A) or reducing (B) 12% SDS PAGE gels. Two hundred ng of rPrx1 in each sample was analyzed by Western blotting with an anti-Prx-SO<sub>3</sub> antibody.

30 min, and then sufficient 25 mM  $\text{NH}_4\text{HCO}_3$  were added to cover all the gel pieces. The reactions were carried out at 37 °C overnight. Tryptic peptides were extracted for 3 times, using 60  $\mu\text{l}$  of 1% trifluoroacetic acid for 10 min each, and for 3 more times with 80% ACN for 10 min each. The pooled peptide solutions were dried to  $\sim 10$   $\mu\text{l}$  with a SpeedVac (Eppendorf North America, Hauppauge, NY, USA). The peptides were desalted using the Pierce  $\text{C}_{18}$  spin columns according to the manufacturer's protocol (Thermo Fisher Scientific).

## 2.6. LC/MS/MS

The desalted peptides were analyzed on an LTQ Orbitrap Velos mass spectrometer coupled with a Dinosex Ultimate 3000 RSLC nano LC system through a Proxeon nano-electrospray ion source (Thermo Fisher Scientific). The peptides were separated by a RPLC capillary column (75  $\mu\text{m}$   $\times$  150 mm, 3  $\mu\text{m}$ , 100  $\text{\AA}$ ,  $\text{C}_{18}$ , CMP Scientific, Brooklyn NY, USA) at 250 nl/min using a 85-min gradient (Solvent A: 2% ACN, 0.1% formic acid, Solvent B: 85% ACN and 0.1% formic acid), which included a 45-min gradient from 3% B to 30% B, followed by a 5-min gradient from 30% B to 50% B, and another 5-min gradient from 50% B to 95% B. The eluted peptides were directly introduced into the MS with a spray voltage of 2.2 kV and a capillary temperature of 275 °C. The MS spectra were acquired in the positive ion mode using a data-dependent method, where after each full MS scan, the ten most intense peptide ions with multiple-charge states were fragmented using either CID or HCD, with a 60-sec dynamic exclusion window. To ensure that peptides containing  $\text{C}_p$  and  $\text{C}_r$  in Prx1 were selected for MS/MS analysis, the  $m/z$  values of 2<sup>+</sup>, 3<sup>+</sup>, and 4<sup>+</sup> of both sulfonated and carbamidomethylated (or NEM-alkylated) tryptic peptides were specified in an inclusion list for targeted fragmentation. The MS1 mass range was set from  $m/z$  300 to 1650 at a resolution of 60,000 at FWHM, with the lock mass option enabled. For MS/MS peptide fragmentation, the normalized collision energies (NCE) were evaluated between 24% and 40% for both CID and HCD. An optimized NCE of 32% in CID mode was later used to acquire all the biological data in this study.

## 2.7. Database search

Protein database searches were performed with the Proteome Discoverer software (Thermo Fisher Scientific, version 1.4.12). The LC/MS/MS spectra were searched against a Swissprot human or rat protein sequence database (downloaded in July 9th, 2016, with 20,255 human or 7724 rat entries), using a local MASCOT search engine

(V.2.4). The search parameters were set as the following: trypsin with 2 missed cleavage sites; precursor mass tolerance was set at 10 ppm and the fragment mass tolerance was set at 0.5 Da for CID and 0.1 Da for HCD. Oxidation of methionine, sulfenation, sulfination, sulfonation and carbamidomethylation of cysteine were set as variable modifications. Both protein and peptide False Discovery Rates (FDR) were filtered to less than 1%.

## 2.8. MS quantification and statistical analysis

For peptide quantification, MS1 extracted ion chromatograms (XIC) for the selected peptides were obtained with the MS1 Full-Scan Filtering Module of the Skyline Software (v3.5) (<https://skyline.gs.washington.edu/>). Briefly, a spectral library was first created from all the raw LC/MS/MS data. A Prx1 FASTA file was imported to obtain the XIC for all Prx1 peptides identified, including the sulfonated peptides. The MS scans within two minutes of the LC retention times from each MS/MS spectrum that matched to a given peptide were included for the quantification. For each peptide, up to 3 ion charge states (2<sup>+</sup>, 3<sup>+</sup>, and 4<sup>+</sup>) were summed for quantification. For each ion, up to 3 isotope peaks ( $M$ ,  $M+1$ , and  $M+2$ , at a resolution of 60,000) were used for XIC integration. Following the Skyline analysis, the XIC of the  $\text{C}_p$ - or  $\text{C}_r$ -sulfonated peptides were confirmed manually by the retention time, charge states and MS/MS spectra. The XIC signals for the sulfonated peptides were normalized to the combined XIC signals of all the Prx1 peptides identified in that LC/MS/MS run. In each experiment series, sulfonation change was calculated as the fold change in percentage (%) over one of the controls with no added  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$  oxidation, whose value was set as 100%. ImageJ software was used for the quantification of the Western blotting results. Three biological repeats were conducted for all experiments, unless noted otherwise. The changes were considered statistically significant based on the Student's  $T$ -test,  $p < 0.05$ .

## 3. Results

### 3.1. Western blotting of differential sulfonation of rPrx1 oligomers

In order to identify the sulfonation sites in Prx1, we first examined the levels of sulfonation by Western blotting of rPrx1 oxidized with 1 mM  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$ . As expected, the sulfonation levels of rPrx1 were dramatically increased after  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$  treatments (Fig. 1). Besides being a peroxidase, Prx1 is also a protein-folding chaperon; an activity can be

induced by its oligomerization following oxidation [22,24]. To detect H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>-induced sulfonation changes among the different rPrx1 oligomers linked by disulfides, we also compared the results of both non-reducing and reducing gels to separate the disulfide-linked oligomers for the Western blot analyses. The resulting blots revealed that after the H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> treatments, rPrx1 dimers contained the highest sulfonation level compared to those in the other rPrx1 oligomers and the monomer. Likewise, hydrogen peroxide also induced dramatic sulfonation in rPrx1 tri-mer to high mass oligomers; yet surprisingly little sulfonation occurred in rPrx1 monomer (Fig. 1A, right panel). In order to comprehensively map the sulfonation sites by LC/MS/MS in all rPrx1 oligomeric states, we reduced all the rPrx1 oligomers to a monomer and attained a single H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>-induced sulfonation band in the Western blot (Fig. 1B).

### 3.2. Optimization of a LC/MS/MS method to map Prx1 sulfonation

In order to obtain optimal CID and HCD MS/MS spectra for sulfonated cysteines, we tested five different NCEs – 24%, 28%, 32%, 36%, and 40% – to evaluate their impact on detecting C<sub>R</sub>-SO<sub>3</sub>H in a rPrx1 tryptic peptide (amino acids 169–190). Spectra obtained from an Orbitrap Velos MS showed that both CID and HCD approaches were effective for identifying C<sub>R</sub>-SO<sub>3</sub>H (Supplemental Figs. S2 & S3). Compared to HCD, CID was more robust at detecting the b<sup>4</sup> and b<sup>5</sup> and y<sup>17</sup> and y<sup>18</sup> MS/MS ions surrounding C<sub>R</sub>-SO<sub>3</sub>H, with a wider range of NCEs of 28–40% effective for locating C<sub>R</sub>-SO<sub>3</sub>H (Supplemental Figs. S2A-E compared to Supplemental Figs. S3A-E). The best NCE in CID for both detecting C<sub>R</sub>-SO<sub>3</sub>H and obtaining rich y- and b-series of ions for peptide identification was 32% (Supplemental Fig. S2C). By comparison, the best NCE in HCD for detecting C<sub>R</sub>-SO<sub>3</sub>H was at 28% (Supplemental Fig. S3B), with other NCEs produced less b<sup>4</sup> and b<sup>5</sup> and y<sup>17</sup> and y<sup>18</sup> ions that are necessary for the unambiguous mapping of C<sub>R</sub>-SO<sub>3</sub>H (Supplemental Fig. S3).

Besides C<sub>R</sub>-SO<sub>3</sub>H, 32% NCE in CID was also effective for mapping C<sub>P</sub>-SO<sub>3</sub>H (Supplemental Fig. S4 & Fig. 2). However, none of the NCEs in HCD tested could provide an informative MS/MS spectrum for mapping C<sub>P</sub>-SO<sub>3</sub>, indicating that HCD was inferior to CID for this study. In lieu of these observations, all subsequent data were obtained in the CID mode at 32% NCE. Representative MS/MS spectra in Figs. 2 and 3 demonstrate that both C<sub>P</sub> and C<sub>R</sub> were partially sulfonated under H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> treatments, with the remaining cysteine free thiols alkylated by IAA.

### 3.3. Basal and H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>-induced sulfonation of C<sub>P</sub> and C<sub>R</sub> in rPrx1

From the Skyline MS1-based quantitative analyses, basal sulfonation can be detected at both C<sub>P</sub> and C<sub>R</sub> in rPrx1, even without H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>. As expected, a 30-min H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> treatment at 1 mM significantly boosted rPrx1 sulfonation at both C<sub>P</sub> to ~300% and C<sub>R</sub> to ~670%, when compared to the 100% basal levels (Fig. 4). Remarkably, H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> more than doubled the increase of the sulfonation at C<sub>R</sub> at 670%, over C<sub>P</sub> at 300% (Fig. 4).

Since C<sub>R</sub>-SO<sub>3</sub>H is a relatively new PTM of Prx1, it is important to determine whether this PTM could simply be an artifact from the in-gel digestion, especially during DTT reduction and subsequent IAA alkylation. Thus, we evaluated whether NEM, an alkylating reagent that is more efficient than IAA [25], can diminish the LC/MS/MS detection of C<sub>R</sub>-SO<sub>3</sub>H. Still, with identical H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> treatments, we observed the opposite: ~670% sulfonation induction with IAA and ~900% with NEM (Supplemental Fig. S5).

Given the new evidence of C<sub>R</sub>-SO<sub>3</sub>H, we performed an H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> titration to ascertain whether first, C<sub>R</sub> and C<sub>P</sub> have similar propensities to sulfonation and second, whether the commonly used PrxSO<sub>3</sub> antibody can detect the sulfonation of both C<sub>P</sub> and C<sub>R</sub> equally. Western blotting confirmed the anticipated increase of PrxSO<sub>3</sub> from escalating H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> (Supplemental Fig. S6A). We then plotted the Western blotting titration curve along with the LC/MS curves for the tryptic peptides with either C<sub>P</sub>-SO<sub>3</sub>H or C<sub>R</sub>-SO<sub>3</sub>H (Supplemental Fig. S6B). Since the LC/

MS curve for C<sub>P</sub>-SO<sub>3</sub>H, instead of C<sub>R</sub>-SO<sub>3</sub>H, aligns better with the Western blotting curve, we conclude that this antibody mostly reacts with the C<sub>P</sub>-SO<sub>3</sub>H epitope. From the LC/MS titration curves, at 1 mM H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>, C<sub>R</sub>-SO<sub>3</sub>H signals were higher than those of C<sub>P</sub>-SO<sub>3</sub>H. By comparison, C<sub>P</sub>-SO<sub>3</sub>H was indeed superior to C<sub>R</sub>-SO<sub>3</sub>H, only when being induced at a pharmacological concentration of 100 mM H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>. Thus, C<sub>P</sub> and C<sub>R</sub> appear to have distinct propensities to H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>-induced sulfonation.

### 3.4. Basal and H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>-induced sulfonation of C<sub>P</sub> and C<sub>R</sub> in cPrx1

In order to confirm that C<sub>R</sub> sulfonation can also occur in cells, we treated the cultured HeLa cells with either the media control or supplemented with 1 mM H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> for 30 min and analyzed PrxSO<sub>3</sub>H by Western blotting. Unexpectedly, we readily observed basal Prx1-SO<sub>3</sub>H in the unoxidized HeLa cells (Fig. 5A). As expected, we saw significantly elevated Prx1-SO<sub>3</sub>H after the H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> treatment (Fig. 5B). We quantified both C<sub>P</sub>-SO<sub>3</sub>H and C<sub>R</sub>-SO<sub>3</sub>H-containing peptides by LC/MS/MS (Fig. 6). Thirty-minute H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> treatments significantly raised C<sub>P</sub>-SO<sub>3</sub>H to ~200% and C<sub>R</sub>-SO<sub>3</sub>H to ~400% of their respective control peptides in the unoxidized cells (Fig. 6).

### 3.5. C<sub>P</sub> and C<sub>R</sub> sulfonation in other cells

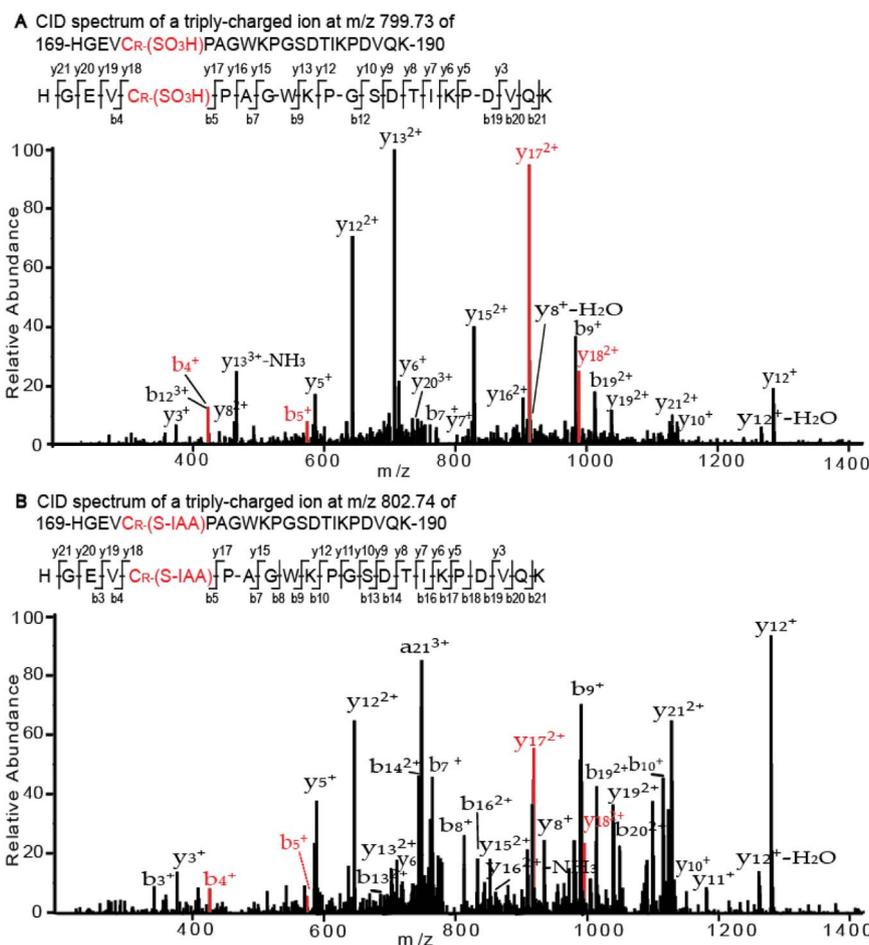
So as to examine whether C<sub>R</sub>-SO<sub>3</sub>H is a widespread phenomenon in other cells, we also used LC/MS/MS to examine both C<sub>P</sub>-SO<sub>3</sub>H and C<sub>R</sub>-SO<sub>3</sub>H in cPrx1 of 4 other cell types. Both HEK293 and GM08680 cells behaved like HeLa cells. Without the added H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>, basal C<sub>P</sub>-SO<sub>3</sub>H and C<sub>R</sub>-SO<sub>3</sub>H occurred in cPrx1 (Supplemental Table S1). With H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> added, both C<sub>P</sub>-SO<sub>3</sub>H and C<sub>R</sub>-SO<sub>3</sub>H were elevated. On the other hand, SH-SY5Y cells contained only basal C<sub>R</sub>-SO<sub>3</sub>H, which was increased by H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>. Surprisingly, SH-SY5Y cells had no detectable C<sub>P</sub>-SO<sub>3</sub>H, even with added H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>. Still, HL-1 cells were the most remarkable, regardless of H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>; they contained no measureable sulfonation at either site in Prx1; instead, HL-1 cells had abundant IAA-modified C<sub>P</sub> and C<sub>R</sub> in Prx1 (not shown).

## 4. Discussion

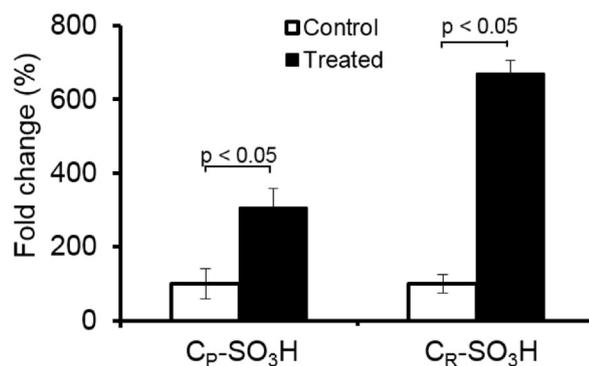
Prx1 is an enigmatic protein with assorted cellular functions. Besides its “day job” as a guardian against oxidative stress, it is also a jack of other fascinating trades [26]. For example, oxidation-induced oligomerization can transform Prx1 into a molecular chaperone to preserve the proper folding in the midst of cellular stress [20,22]. Furthermore, blood circulations of sulfonated Prx1 in animal models synchronize with their circadian rhythms [27], making it a rare molecular marker for biological clocks and sleep cycles. The ability of Prx1 to play distinct roles is predicated, in part, on its ability to wear different hats – different PTMs – on evolutionarily conserved residues. In addition to serine phosphorylation and lysine acetylation [28,29], numerous PTMs have been discovered on the four conserved cysteines in Prx1 [30,31]. Among them, progressive oxidation of C<sub>P</sub> is the best studied in the context of the peroxidase enzymatic mechanism of Prx1. Those PTMs include sulfonation (-SOH), sulfination (-SO<sub>2</sub>H) and sulfonation (-SO<sub>3</sub>H) [2,3,8,32]. Apart from C<sub>P</sub>, partial oxidation of C<sub>R</sub> has also been observed [4], whose PTM functions are largely unexplored. In this study, we aim to demonstrate that C<sub>R</sub>-SO<sub>3</sub>H is an overlooked PTM of Prx1, which may play important roles in regulating some of the diverse functions of Prx1.

We have shown that sulfonation of C<sub>R</sub> is a reproducible phenomenon that occurs readily in several cells, by capitalizing on Orbitrap's fast MS/MS scan speed. From our experience, MS/MS fragmentations of the C<sub>R</sub>-SO<sub>3</sub>H-containing peptide ions were not as efficient as those with C<sub>P</sub>-SO<sub>3</sub>H (Figs. 2 & 3), which could account for the rare detection of C<sub>R</sub>-SO<sub>3</sub>H in previous studies. This technical challenge can be overcome with proper optimization of the NCEs and other relevant MS/MS



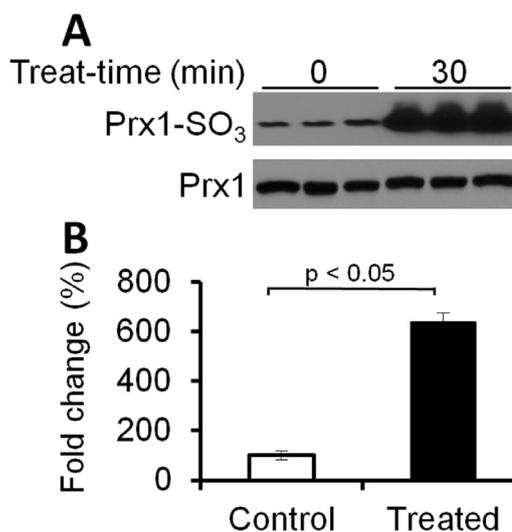


**Fig. 3.** CID spectra of a Prx1 peptide (amino acids 169–190) with C<sub>R</sub>-SO<sub>3</sub>H or C<sub>R</sub> alkylation. (A) An MS/MS spectrum of a 3H<sup>+</sup> ion at  $m/z$  799.73 for the sulfonated peptide. (B) An MS/MS spectrum of a 3H<sup>+</sup> ion at  $m/z$  802.74 for the alkylated peptide. Sulfonated rPrx1 was obtained from the reducing gel outlined in Fig. 1. The strings of b- and y-series ions from the MS/MS spectra matched to 169-HGEVCPAGWKPGSDTIKPDVQK-190 in human Prx1. The sulfonated peptide with a Cys + 47.98 amu was identified with a Mascot score of 52 (A). The alkylated peptide with a Cys + 57.02 amu was identified with a Mascot score of 68 (B). The PTMs were found between b<sup>+</sup> and b<sup>5</sup> and between y<sup>17</sup> and y<sup>18</sup> ions in each spectrum (marked red), which confirmed the sulfonation and alkylation of C<sub>R</sub> in rPrx 1 (For interpretation of the references to color in this figure legend, the reader is referred to the web version of this article.).



**Fig. 4.** Comparison of H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> induction of C<sub>P</sub>-SO<sub>3</sub>H and C<sub>R</sub>-SO<sub>3</sub>H in rPrx1. Following a 30-min and 1 mM H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> treatment, sulfonated rPrx1 was obtained from the reducing gels outlined in Fig. 1 and analyzed by LC/MS/MS as described in Section 2. XIC for the precursor ions that matched to the peptides containing either C<sub>P</sub>-SO<sub>3</sub>H or C<sub>R</sub>-SO<sub>3</sub>H were obtained by Skyline. The XIC signals for the sulfonated peptides were normalized to the combined XIC of all the identified rPrx1 peptide ions. Sulfonation change is presented here as the fold change (%) over a control with no added H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> oxidation, whose value is set as 100%. The changes were considered statistically significant based on the Student's *T*-test (N = 3/group).

induces Prx sulfonation and irreversibly inactivates its peroxidase activity, and in turn, activates its oligomerization and chaperone activities [33]. Thus, the Yin and Yang relationship of the peroxidase and chaperone activity of Prx is crucial for maintaining protein home-



**Fig. 5.** Western blots for Prx1-SO<sub>3</sub> in HeLa cells. Cells were treated for 30 min with either media alone or supplemented with 1 mM of H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>. Sixty μg of proteins from each sample were separated using a 12% reducing SDS-PAGE gel. (A) An anti-Prx1-SO<sub>3</sub> antibody (Abcam, 1:2500 dilution) was used to detect Prx1-SO<sub>3</sub>. Total Prx1 was detected using an anti-Prx1 antibody. (B) Substantial basal Prx1-SO<sub>3</sub> was readily observed in the untreated cells and significantly increased Prx1-SO<sub>3</sub> was detected after the H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> treatment (N = 3/group).

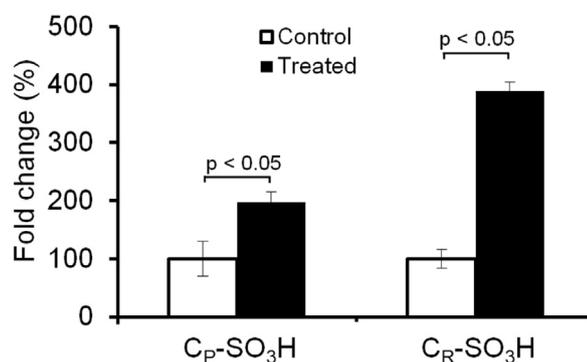


Fig. 6. Comparison of H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> induction of C<sub>P</sub>-SO<sub>3</sub>H and C<sub>R</sub>-SO<sub>3</sub>H in cPrx1. Following a 30-min and 1 mM H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> treatment of the HeLa cells, peptide sulfonation events were analyzed and quantified as described in Fig. 4 (N=3/group).

ostasis in cells. The novel observation of basal Prx1 sulfonation suggests that some Prx1's chaperone or other signaling activities may already be primed for activation in cells with low oxidative stress, perhaps to prepare for counteracting anticipated escalation of oxidative stress in certain cells.

Besides basal sulfonation of Prx1, the second novel finding from this study is that C<sub>R</sub> and C<sub>P</sub> possess distinct propensity to H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>-induced sulfonation. Overall, the LC/MS signals for peptides containing C<sub>R</sub>-SO<sub>3</sub>H were much stronger than those containing C<sub>P</sub>-SO<sub>3</sub>H (Supplemental Table S1). For example, in H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>-treated SH-SY5Y cells, we observed no peptides containing C<sub>P</sub>-SO<sub>3</sub>H, but only the ones with C<sub>R</sub>-SO<sub>3</sub>H. Furthermore, from the LC/MS titration curves (Supplemental Fig. S6 & Fig. 6), 1 mM H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>-induced C<sub>R</sub>-SO<sub>3</sub>H signals were higher than those of C<sub>P</sub>-SO<sub>3</sub>H, suggesting at modest concentrations, C<sub>R</sub> reacted more efficiently than C<sub>P</sub> with H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>. By comparison, at a pharmacological concentration of 100 mM H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>, C<sub>P</sub> was far superior to C<sub>R</sub> to become sulfonated, confirming it as the main catalytic cysteine for peroxide reduction by Prx1.

Based on the distinct propensities of C<sub>P</sub> and C<sub>R</sub> to H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> titration, we appraised whether a widely used rabbit polyclonal Prx-SO<sub>3</sub> antibody, which was developed against a C<sub>P</sub>-based antigen (Abcam, ab16830), may also recognize C<sub>R</sub> sulfonation with equal efficiency. From the H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> titration experiment, we plotted the Western blotting titration curve along with the LC/MS curves (Supplemental Fig. S6), and found that this antibody likely reacts more specifically with C<sub>P</sub>-SO<sub>3</sub>H. More conclusive determinations will require synthetic peptides containing either sulfonation sites, which is beyond the scope of this study. To accurately study the functions of C<sub>R</sub>-SO<sub>3</sub>H, a specific antibody targeting C<sub>R</sub>-SO<sub>3</sub>H is needed to delineate probable divergent functions for C<sub>P</sub> and C<sub>R</sub> besides their "day jobs" in the peroxidase cycle.

Since C<sub>R</sub> sulfonation is a new phenomenon, we have paid extra attention to ensuring that this is not an analytical artifact, especially following H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> treatments. Since during sample handling, extended exposure of cysteine thiols to oxidants is likely a key factor for artificial as opposed to biological sulfonation, we've evaluated both alkylation timing and alkylating reagent types on the relative yield of C<sub>R</sub>-SO<sub>3</sub>H in rPrx1. If C<sub>R</sub>-SO<sub>3</sub>H was largely an analytical artifact, we would expect to see more of it with delayed alkylation or with a slower alkylating reagent. After the induction of rPrx1 sulfonation with 1 mM H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> for 5 min, we compared C<sub>R</sub>-SO<sub>3</sub>H levels between immediate IAA alkylation of proteins with delayed alkylation during in-gel digestion, and found no significant difference (data not shown). To go one-step further, we then compared the impact of conventional IAA and NEM, another alkylating reagent with purported higher alkylation efficiency than IAA [25], as the alkylation reagents for the in-gel digestions. Remarkably, we didn't observe significant decrease of C<sub>R</sub>-SO<sub>3</sub>H from alkylation with NEM over IAA (Supplemental Fig. S5). We shall note that the alkylation reaction conditions were slightly different between IAA (pH 8.5) and NEM (pH 7.2), according to the manufactures' datasheets. Thus H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>-

induction of C<sub>R</sub> sulfonation is not an analytical artifact from alkylation.

The unusual findings of high level of C<sub>R</sub> sulfonation lead to at least two implications: (1) Sulfonated C<sub>R</sub> cannot form a disulfide with C<sub>P</sub>; thus foils Trx1's ability to replenish protons at both C<sub>P</sub> and C<sub>R</sub> for another round of peroxidation reaction. Data from this study suggests that C<sub>R</sub> is highly amenable to sulfonation in some, but not all cells, because they (e.g. HL-1 cardiac cells) may possess protective mechanisms to selectively attenuate the sulfonation of either C<sub>R</sub> or C<sub>P</sub>, thus preserving their free thiols in the continuation of the peroxidase cycle of Prx1, and (2) Sulfonation of C<sub>R</sub> is likely a means to divert a portion of Prx1 away from the peroxidation cycles, for other possible redox signaling functions. For example, Prx1 can form dimers, decamers and even higher molecular weight oligomers [34]. From this study, we found that each Prx1 complex has different propensities to sulfonation (Fig. 1). Therefore, it is conceivable that C<sub>R</sub> sulfonation may signal the partition of a portion of Prx1 away from the offensive actions against cellular peroxides, but to the defensive functions of maintaining the proper folding of key cellular proteins or other redox signaling functions.

With the novel findings in this study, we propose that both C<sub>P</sub> and C<sub>R</sub> in Prx1 can be oxidized to C<sub>P</sub>SO<sub>3</sub>H and C<sub>R</sub>SO<sub>3</sub>H (Supplemental Fig. S7). Compared to the well-known canonical mechanism for C<sub>P</sub> sulfonation (Supplemental Fig. S7A), we propose here two alternative mechanisms for C<sub>R</sub> sulfonation (Supplemental Fig. S7 B & C), under increasing oxidation in cells. In the canonical mechanism for progressive oxidative modifications of C<sub>P</sub>, C<sub>P</sub>-SH in a reduced Prx1 monomer becomes oxidized to C<sub>P</sub>-SOH (I), which leads to the formation of a covalent Prx1 dimer (II). Trx1 restores this covalent Prx1 dimer back to the active and reduced Prx1 monomers (III). Too much peroxide produces C<sub>P</sub>-SO<sub>2</sub>H (IV) and C<sub>P</sub>-SO<sub>3</sub>H (V). Srx can reduce C<sub>P</sub>-SO<sub>2</sub>H back to C<sub>P</sub>-SOH.

In the alternative mechanism 1 (Supplemental Fig. S7B), C<sub>R</sub>-SH in reduced Prx1 monomer becomes oxidized to C<sub>R</sub>-SOH (VI), which may also lead to the formation of the covalent Prx1 dimer (VII). Too much peroxide produces C<sub>R</sub>-SO<sub>2</sub>H (VIII) and C<sub>R</sub>-SO<sub>3</sub>H (IX). The alternative mechanism 1 for C<sub>R</sub>-SO<sub>3</sub>H formation does not preclude simultaneous oxidation of C<sub>P</sub>; this model may also apply to non-covalent Prx1 dimers/oligomers. Since sulfonation appears to occur more prevalently in covalent Prx1 dimers and oligomers (Fig. 1A), we also proposed an alternative mechanism 2 (Supplemental Fig. S7C) to account for the sulfonation of C<sub>R</sub>, in which too much peroxide produces an over-oxidized covalent Prx1 dimer, with C<sub>R</sub>-SOH (X), subsequently C<sub>R</sub>-SO<sub>2</sub>H (XI) and C<sub>R</sub>-SO<sub>3</sub>H (XII). The alternative mechanism 2 for C<sub>R</sub>-SO<sub>3</sub>H formation does not preclude simultaneous oxidation of C<sub>P</sub>; this model may also apply to covalent Prx1 oligomers. Ultimately, sulfonation of C<sub>P</sub> and C<sub>R</sub> may differentially regulate downstream signaling molecules to regulate the diverse biological functions of Prx1 [4,5].

## 5. Conclusion

In summary, C<sub>R</sub> sulfonation is a robust physiological phenomenon in several but not all cells. Despite the vast knowledge on Prx1 and related molecules, there is still much to be learned about these evolutionarily conserved redox-signaling molecules. We report here that C<sub>R</sub> sulfonation is readily induced by both chemical and cellular oxidative stress. Understanding the regulations C<sub>R</sub> sulfonation can shed light on Prx1's diverse functions beyond peroxidase, and may lead to the discovery of novel redox signaling pathways.

## Disclosures

The authors declare that they have no conflict of financial interest.

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## Appendix A. Supporting information

Supplementary data associated with this article can be found in the online version at <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.freeradbiomed.2017.04.341>.

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