Development of in Planta Chemical Cross-Linking-Based Quantitative Interactomics in *Arabidopsis*

Shichang Liu, Fengchao Yu, Qin Hu, Tingliang Wang, Lujia Yu, Shengwang Du and Ning Li

**ABSTRACT:** An in planta chemical cross-linking-based quantitative interactomics (IPQCX–MS) workflow has been developed to investigate in vivo protein–protein interactions and alteration in protein structures in a model organism, *Arabidopsis thaliana*. A chemical cross-linker, azide-tag-modified disuccinimidyl pimelate (AMDSP), was directly applied onto *Arabidopsis* tissues. Peptides produced from protein fractions of CsCl density gradient centrifugation were dimethyl-labeled, from which the AMDSP cross-linked peptides were fractionated on chromatography, enriched, and analyzed by mass spectrometry. ECL2 and SQUA-D software were used to identify and quantify these cross-linked peptides, respectively. These computer programs integrate peptide identification with quantitation and statistical evaluation. This workflow eventually identified 354 unique cross-linked peptides, including 61 and 293 inter- and intraprotein cross-linked peptides, respectively, demonstrating that it is able to in vivo identify hundreds of cross-linked peptides at an organismal level by overcoming the difficulties caused by multiple cellular structures and complex secondary metabolites of plants. Coimmunoprecipitation and super-resolution microscopy studies have confirmed that this mass-spectrometry-based interactomics will be useful in the study of in vivo protein–protein interaction networks in agricultural crops and plant–microbe interactions.

**KEYWORDS:** IPQCX–MS, in planta quantitative interactomics, in vivo cross-linking, ECL2, 4C proteomic workflow, *Arabidopsis thaliana*

**INTRODUCTION**

The dynamic and physical interactions of proteins are involved in various cellular processes, ranging from DNA replication, transcription, translation, signal transduction, enzyme activities, and channel opening and closing to metabolism. These interactions determine the behavior of an organism or a biological system. The proteome-wise profiling of the cellular protein–protein interaction helps to delineate the molecular mechanisms underlying various cellular events.

To investigate protein–protein interactions, numerous in vitro and in vivo approaches have been established previously. These methods include yeast two-hybrid assay, affinity purification–mass spectrometry (AP–MS), protein microarray, bimolecular fluorescence complementation (BiFC), split luciferase complementation assay, fluorescence resonance energy transfer (FRET), bioluminescence resonance energy transfer (BRET), and several proximity-dependent labeling methods, such as engineered ascorbate peroxidase (APEX) and proximity-dependent biotin identification.

**Supporting Information**
The proximity-dependent labeling methods can map both stable and transient protein—protein interactions by fusion of an enzyme to a target protein to label the proximate proteins (e.g., biotin labeling). The tag-labeled proteins or peptides can be enriched by affinity purification and identified by MS. Chemical cross-linking coupled to mass spectrometry (CX–MS) has recently emerged as an alternative means to study protein topology and has become increasingly useful in providing direct evidence of protein—protein interactions at the whole proteome level. The chemical cross-linking of two proteins is generally achieved by joining moieties of two polypeptides via a bifunctional chemical with two reactive ends. The membrane-permeable diisuccinimidyl suberate (DSS)-H12/D12 is a frequently used cross-linker. The cross-linked proteins are first processed by proteases, consequently enriched for MS analysis, and finally identified using computational programs. These CX–MS data containing the protein topology information have been used to complement the 3D structural data derived from X-ray crystallography, nuclear magnetic resonance (NMR), and cryo-electron microscopy (cryo-EM) in the study of the dynamics of protein complexes.

To advance the MS-based study of protein—protein interaction networks in vivo, membrane-permeable, affinity column-enrichable, and MS-cleavable cross-linkers, such as the protein interaction reporter (PIR), have been employed in the study of CX–MS-based interactomics. Similarly, this cross-linker has been applied in the investigation of inter-species protein—protein interactions during bacterial infection. An azide-tagged, acid-cleavable disuccinimidyl bis-sulfoxide (azide-A-DSBSO), which is also a membrane-permeable, enrichable, and MS-cleavable cross-linker, has been applied to identify in vivo protein—protein interactions in HEK 293 cells on both the whole proteome scale and in the targeted proteasome complexes. Moreover, at the animal tissue level, and targeted proteasome complexes. However, the application of CX–MS in plant tissue is quite difficult, and, so far, only a few cross-linked peptides have been identified because of the interference of complex secondary metabolites in plants, which usually contain over 100 amine-containing secondary metabolites. These amines may titrate the penetrated N-hydroxysuccinimide (NHS) ester-containing cross-linker.

The cross-linkers used in CX–MS have generally been classified into MS-noncleavable and MS-cleavable. MS-noncleavable cross-linkers have a relatively long history and have been widely applied and well studied. A significant number of studies have used noncleavable cross-linkers, such as DSS and bis(sulfo)succinimidyl)suberate (BS3), to study protein structures and protein—protein interactions. Of their straightforward experiment protocols, as compared with those of MS-cleavable cross-linkers, such MS noncleavable cross-linkers are still used in biological studies today. Along with these MS noncleavable cross-linkers, many computational programs have been developed. The typical software includes xQuest/xProphet, pLink, Kojak, ECL, and so on. All of these tools apply sophisticated algorithms to identify cross-linked peptides with a high sensitivity and specificity.

In contrast with MS-noncleavable cross-linkers, MS-cleavable cross-linkers have only recently been developed to address the quadratic search space issue often encountered during the application of MS-noncleavable cross-linkers in CX–MS interactomics. In the analysis of MS-cleavable cross-linker-mediated cross-linked peptides, two dissociation steps produce three levels of mass spectrometry (i.e., MS1, MS2, and MS3). At the end of MS analysis, each cross-linked peptide ion produces two MS2 spectra from the fragmentation of two peptide chains. As a result, the cross-linked peptide identification problem is converted to a linear peptide identification problem. Furthermore, Liu et al. proposed a method to avoid using MS3 in analyzing MS-cleavable cross-linker-conjugated peptides. Thus two computational programs have been applied to identify cross-linked peptides linked by MS-cleavable cross-linkers.

To quantitate cross-linked peptides, either a label-free or an isotope-labeled cross-linker-based CX–MS approach has been adopted. The quantified conformational changes of protein complexes include F-type ATPase isolated from spinach leaves, proteasome purified from yeast, commercial bovine serum albumin (BSA), bovine transferrin, chicken ovotransferrin, and commercial plasma of human C3 cells. The label-free quantitation strategy was applied in a study of the interaction between calmodulin and its substrates, whereas a method that integrates PIR-based in vivo cross-linking with SILAC-based quantitative proteomics was successfully introduced to measure protein conformational changes and interaction networks between drug-sensitive and drug-resistant HeLa cells. Chavez et al. developed a method that combines both MS1-based and targeted-MS2 (parallel reaction monitoring, PRM)-based quantitation to study how drugs affect the in vivo conformational dynamics and interactions of cytosolic heat shock protein Hsp90 in HeLa cells. However, quantitative in planta CX–MS interactomics has not been reported so far.

To develop quantitative CX–MS-based interactomics, a relatively quantitative method, dimethyl-labeling-based quantitative proteomics, has been integrated with the CX–MS approach. Dimethyl labeling generally achieves 99% labeling efficiency. Although other MS-based (e.g., ICAT labeling) and MS-based quantitative proteomics (e.g., iTRAQ and TMT labeling) as well as label-free quantitative proteomics have been applied in the study of organisms unavailable for cultivation in the isotope-coded growth medium, dimethyl-labeling-based peptide quantitation, in contrast, is quite useful in the study of proteomes of a mouse cell line, human cell lines, Arabidopsis, rat organs, and human liver tissue. It has also been useful in quantitating post-translationally modified proteins.

Moreover, Cheng et al. applied dimethyl labeling in combination with in vitro AP–MS to quantify and identify β-estradiol-induced components’ changes in the estrogen response element (ERE) complex of MCF-7 cells. Lau et al. applied a similar strategy to quantitatively map interactors of the SH2 domain of human growth receptor-bound protein 2 (GRB2) in HeLa cells.

In the present study, we integrate isotopic dimethyl-labeling-based peptide quantitation with in planta CX–MS. This new strategy significantly increases the total number of in vivo cross-linked peptides and establishes a quantitative in planta CX–MS approach, named in planta quantitative cross-linking coupled mass spectrometry (IPQCX–MS). The IPQCX–MS interactomics workflow is abbreviated as a “4C interactomic workflow.” The “C” is derived from the first English letter in the title of each step of the IPQCX–MS, comprising chemical labeling (i.e., in vivo protein cross-linking and in vitro isotopic dimethyl labeling of peptides), chromatographic enrichment (i.e., strong cation exchange–high-performance liquid chromatography
reported by Yu et al.\textsuperscript{45} our data set. The result showed that ECL2 identified the most protein interactions and protein structures at a multicellular organismal level of plants. To increase the identification of cross-linked peptides from the in planta cross-linked whole proteome, we designed and synthesized a membrane-permeable and enrichable in vivo cross-linker, azide-tag modified disuccinimidyldimethyl pimelate (AMDSP), which has two reactive NHS esters at two ends, with an additional azidomethyl group on the spacer chain of this cross-linker. This azide-tagged cross-linker is accessible to the click reaction for conjugation with a biotin tag, which allows subsequent chromatography enrichment of cross-linked peptides.\textsuperscript{28,76} The cross-linked peptides were subsequently analyzed using a new computational program named ECL2.\textsuperscript{45} ECL2 advances the state-of-the-art tools\textsuperscript{40,42,43} with the ability to exhaustively check all possible peptide pairs with linear time complexity. We also used pLink\textsuperscript{42} and Kojak\textsuperscript{43} to analyze our data set. The result showed that ECL2 identified the most cross-linked peptides, which is consistent with the conclusions reported by Yu et al.\textsuperscript{45}

\section{EXPERIMENTAL SECTION}

\textbf{Synthesis of Cross-Linker AMDSP and Chemical Compound DBLA}

Bis(2,5-dioxopyrrolidin-1-yl)4-(azidomethyl) heptane-dione is an azide-tag-modified disuccinimidyldimethyl pimelate (AMDSP, Figure 1C and Figure S1) chemical compound that was custom synthesized by AQBioPharma (Shanghai, China), whereas N-(2-((3-oxo-3-((prop-2-yn-1-yl) amino)proyl)disulfanyl)ethyl)-5-((3aS,4S,6aR)-2-oxohexahydro-1H-thieno [3,4-d]imidazole-4-yl) pentanamide, commonly called disulfide-linked biotin and alkyne (DBLA, Figure 1C and Figure S2), was custom-synthesized by Medi-tech Bioscientific (Changzhou, China).

\textbf{In Vitro Chemical Labeling of Synthetic Peptides}

Synthetic peptides of Fmoc-EAKEIEGLPR and Fmoc-KEL-DDLR were synthesized by Minghao Biotechnology (Wuhan, China). Fmoc-protected N-terminal amine promotes the cross-linking between two peptides at the side chains of lysine. The AMDSP-based cross-linking of two synthetic peptides followed a previously described method.\textsuperscript{31} The cross-linked peptides were labeled with CH\textsubscript{2}O and NaBH\textsubscript{3}CN (in 1 M NaOH) to produce dimethyl groups on synthetic peptides using a method described by Boersema et al.\textsuperscript{58} After the cross-linked peptides were desalted on an Oasis HLB (hydrophilic-balanced) 1 cc cartridge (Waters, Milford, MA), they were resuspended in 1 mM in the in planta cross-linking buffer. DLBA was added as a reactant, and 1 mM CuSO\textsubscript{4} and sodium ascorbic acid each were added as catalysts in the click reaction. Tris(1-benzyl-1H-1,2,3-triazol-4-yl) methyl amine (TBTA, 100 μM) was added to the reaction to stabilize the generated univalent copper. Consequently, a high-performance liquid chromatography (HPLC) system (Waters 600 Controller, Water Delta 600 Pump, and Water 2487 Dual λ Absorbance Detector, Waters) coupled to a 200 × 4.6 mm SCX column (PolySULFOETHYL ATM, 5 μm, 200 Å, PolyLC, USA) was applied to remove the excess DLBA. The remaining cross-linked peptides were collected and enriched again with an HLB cartridge. The cross-linked peptides were pulled down with high-strength streptavidin agarose resin (Pierce, Rockford, IL). After 2 h of incubation, 50 mM of tris(2-carboxyethyl) phosphine (TCNEP) was used to cleave the disulfide bond on the DLBA. The cross-linked peptides were eluted off the agarose resin to be enriched with a C18 ZipTip (Millipore, Billerica, MA). Consequently, the free thiol group of the cross-linked peptides was blocked by iodoacetamide (IAM), and the peptides were subsequently analyzed using LC−MS/MS. To verify the success of each step of the chemical reactions (Figure 1C), the intermediate and the ultimate cross-linked synthetic peptides were identified using MS (Figure S3). The data on cross-linked peptides were used to test ECL2 (Figure 1C and Figure S3D).

\textbf{Plant Growth and Hormone Treatment}

The seeds of the wild-type Arabidopsis thaliana ecotype Columbia-0 (Col-0) and the T-DNA insertional mutants, SALK_020707 (insertion in ATSG40770, phb3, see Figure S5A for validation) and CS858159 (insertion in AT2G20530, phb6, see Figure S5B for validation) were purchased from the Arabidopsis Biological Resource Center (ABRC, Columbus, OH). The seeds of double-mutants ein3/eil1 were gifts from Dr. Hongwei Guo at the Southern University of Science and Technology. Arabidopsis plants were grown on 50 mL of Murashige and Skoog (MS) basal agar medium in transparent white glass jars of 7.7 cm diameter and 12.7 cm height. Ethylene hormone treatment was performed by adding ethylene precursor, 10 μM 1-amino-cyclopropane-1-carboxylic acid (ACC), into the agar medium.\textsuperscript{77} The growth conditions were controlled at 23.5 ± 1 °C, with a growth regime of 16 h of light (210 ± 30 μE m\textsuperscript{−2} s\textsuperscript{−1}) and 8 h of darkness. Arabidopsis plants of Col-0, ein3/eil1, phb3, and phb6 genotypes were grown in glass jars with a density of three plants per jar and used for phenotype measurements on the 38th day. In a single biological replicate of the ICPQX−MS experiment, the in planta chemical cross-linking was performed on ~2000 individuals of 21 day old ein3/eil1 plants. A total of three biological replicates were performed for the interactomics.

\textbf{In Planta Chemical Cross-Linking}

The chemical cross-linking buffer was modified from methods described previously.\textsuperscript{31,78} The 21 day old plants were immersed in an in planta cross-linking buffer (1.76 mM KH\textsubscript{2}PO\textsubscript{4}, 10 mM Na\textsubscript{2}HPO\textsubscript{4}, 136 mM NaCl, 2.6 mM KCl, 0.1% formaldehyde, 8% DMSO, and 10% glycerol, pH 8.0). The 50 mM AMDSP was made using DMSO and diluted in a working concentration of 1 mM in the in planta cross-linking buffer. The cross-linker was infiltrated into plant cells through five cycles of pressure shift between the atmospheric pressure and a pressure of 600 Torr within 30 min.\textsuperscript{31} The cross-linking reactions were quenched with 50 mM NH\textsubscript{4}HCO\textsubscript{3}. The cross-linked tissues were washed three times with double-distilled water and harvested with liquid nitrogen. The harvested tissues were ground into frozen powder using a ceramic mortar and pestle and subsequently stored at ~80 °C for the next step of protein extraction.\textsuperscript{31} The effectiveness of this type of in vivo cross-linking was accessed subsequently using immunoblot measurement of the mass shift of cross-linked actin proteins.\textsuperscript{31}

\textbf{Cesium Chloride Density Gradient Centrifugation Fractionation of Proteins}

The total cellular proteins were extracted from both the control and the treated tissues using four volumes of detergent-free and urea-based CsCl density gradient (CDG) protein extraction buffer.\textsuperscript{31,79} Centrifugation was performed at 218 000g for 120 min.
Figure 1. Chemical labeling of *Arabidopsis* proteomes and chromatography enrichment for LC–MS/MS analysis of cross-linked peptides. (A) Workflow of in planta chemical cross-linking of the complete plant proteome, fractionation of proteins by CsCl density gradient centrifugation, and peptide preparation, chromatography enrichment, and LC–MS/MS analysis of cross-linked peptides. AMDSP denotes azide-modified disuccinimidyl pimelate. Multiple vacuum infiltration was applied to whole plants submerged in AMDSP solution. The total cellular proteins of *Arabidopsis* were separated into top (t), middle (m), and bottom (b) fractions. The peptides generated from control (C) and treated (T) *Arabidopsis* proteomes in the top, middle, and bottom fractions were chemically labeled as either light- (i.e., 28 Da) or heavy- (i.e., 34 Da) isotope-labeled dimethyl modifications, respectively. The mixtures of light-isotope-labeled cross-linked peptides from the control samples and heavy-isotope-labeled cross-linked peptides from the treated samples were defined as forward (F) replicates, while the mixtures of heavy-isotope-labeled cross-linked peptides from the control samples and light-isotope-labeled cross-linked peptides from the treated samples were defined as reciprocal (R) replicates. A biological experiment produced both F and R replicates. tF, tR, mF, mR, bF, and bR denote F and R replicates derived from top, middle, and bottom protein fractions, respectively. The peptide mixtures were subjected to the click reaction and separated using SCX-HPLC, followed by biotin–streptavidin affinity chromatography enrichment and LC–MS/MS analysis. The chemical labeling scheme and chromatography workflow are shown in Figure S6A. (B) Chemical structure of light- and heavy-isotope-labeled dimethyl modifications; the labeling reaction of the N-terminal and lysine side chain of the cross-linked peptides (CX-p). A cross-linked peptide consists of α and β peptides. (C) Chemical reaction procedure to produce the AMDSP cross-linked synthetic peptides: EAKELEGIR and KELDDLR. DIPEA denotes N,N-diisopropylethylamine. RT denotes room temperature. DLBA was conjugated to AMDSP-cross-linked synthetic peptides through the click reaction. Cross-linked peptides were enriched with streptavidin agarose and eluted by tris(2-carboxyethyl) phosphine (TCEP). The free thiol group of the cross-linked peptides was blocked with iodoacetamide (IAM). The MS² spectra of cross-linking intermediates and the final product of cross-linked synthetic peptides are shown in Figure S3.
at 10 °C to separate the total cellular protein into top (t), middle (m), and bottom (b) protein fractions. The membrane proteins associated with fraction t and b were solubilized in five volumes of a membrane-solubilizing and protein-denaturing (MSPD) buffer containing 20 mM Tris-HCl (pH 7.8), 8 M urea, 10 mM EDTA, 10 mM EGTA, 50 mM NaF, 2% glycerol, 1% glycerol-2-phosphate disodium salt hydrate, 1 mM PMSF, 1% sodium dodecyl sulfate (SDS), and 1.2% Triton-X100. The extracted protein fractions t, m, and b were precipitated by an aceton and methanol mixture (v/v 12:1), resuspended in the urea-based protein resuspension buffer, and quantified by a DC protein assay kit (Bio-Rad, Hercules, CA) according to previously described methods.

Protein Digestion, Dimethyl Labeling, and Peptide Mixing

Proteins were digested by trypsin protease (Promega, Madison, WI) as previously described. Following the desalting, the digested peptides were enriched using C18 Sep-Pak cartridges (Waters, United Kingdom), and the peptides of the control and ethylene-treated plants were separated into two aliquots, half of which were labeled with light (L)-isotope-coded chemicals while the other half were labeled with heavy (H)-isotope-coded dimethyl chemicals (13CD2O and NaBH3CN), while the peptides of the control and the treated plants, respectively, were combined to produce three mixtures (or called pairs) of peptides and defined subsequently as forward (F)-mixing experimental replicates, that is, tF, mF, and bF. Conversely, the H- and L-peptides derived from the control and the treated plants, respectively, were combined to produce three pairs of reciprocal (R) experimental replicates, that is, tR, mR, and bR.

Conjugation of Cross-Linked Peptides with DLBA via Click Chemistry

Peptides desalted on a C18 Sep-Pak cartridge (WAT020515, Waters) were dissolved in 50 mM of HEPES (pH 7.5) to make a final concentration of 4 mg/mL. A click reaction was performed in a peptide solution, containing 0.5 mM DLBA, 0.5 mM CuSO4, 0.5 mM sodium ascorbate, and 0.1 mM TBT, for 2 h at room temperature. Both L- and H-peptides derived from the control and the treated plants, respectively, were combined to produce three mixtures (or called pairs) of peptides and defined subsequently as forward (F)-mixing experimental replicates, that is, tF, mF, and bF. Conversely, the H- and L-peptides derived from the control and the treated plants, respectively, were combined to produce three pairs of reciprocal (R) experimental replicates, that is, tR, mR, and bR.

Chromatographic Separation, Affinity Enrichment, and Chemical Modification of Cross-Linked Peptides

The six peptide samples (derived from three CDG protein fractions (t, m, b) × two types of mixings (F and R)) were dissolved in a mobile phase solution for the subsequent SCX-HPLC separation. Mobile phase A contained 7 mM KH2PO4 (pH 2.7) and 30% acetonitrile, and mobile phase B contained 7 mM KH2PO4 (pH 2.7), 350 mM KCl, and 30% acetonitrile. Each peptide sample was separated into three subfractions using a 200 × 9.4 mm SCX column (PolySULFOETHYL ATM, 5 μm, 200 Å, PolyLC, Columbia, MD) at a flow rate of 2.5 mL/min. The elution gradient was established as follows: 0–10 min 0–10% B, 10–27 min 10–17% B, 27–40 min 17–32% B, 40–50 min 32–60% B, 50–52 min 60–100% B, 52–60 min 100–0% B, 60–90 min 0% B. Ultraviolet absorption at 214 nm was applied to monitor the eluate. A total of 18 HPLC-fractionated peptide samples (9 from F mixing and 9 from R mixing) were eventually produced from a single biological replicate.

The cross-linked peptides were purified by incubating the HPLC-fractionated peptides with a high-capacity streptavidin agarose resin (Pierce) for 2 h to enrich the biotin-tagged and cross-linked peptides. After washing the agarose resin thoroughly with a washing buffer (50 mM HEPES, 0.05% SDS, pH 7.5), 50 mM TCEP reductant was applied to the resin to cleave the disulfide bond between the biotin and cross-linker to release the cross-linked peptides into solution. The reaction was performed for 2 h. The free thiol moiety of the cross-linked peptides was then blocked by 20 mM of IAM for later LC–MS/MS analysis.

Liquid Chromatography–Tandem Mass Spectrometry (LC–MS/MS) Analysis

Both the final product of cross-linked synthetic peptides and the cross-linked plant peptides were injected into an LC–MS/MS machine, consisting of a Dionex UltiMate 3000 UHPLC and a Q Exactive Hybrid Quadrupole-Orbitrap Mass Spectrometer (Thermo Fisher Scientific, San Jose, CA). A gradient elution was performed on a MonoCap capillary monolith HPLC column (0.1 × 2000 mm, GL Science, Shinjuku-ku, Tokyo) with a flow rate of 0.4 μL/min for 220 min. Mobile phase A consisted of 0.1% formic acid, while mobile phase B consisted of 80% acetonitrile and 0.08% formic acid. The gradient was established as follows: 0–13 min 4% B, 13–14 min 4–8% B, 14–80 min 8–25% B, 80–130 min 25–55% B, 130–150 min 55–99% B, 150–190 min 99% B, 190–192 min 99–4% B, and 192–220 min 4% B. The data-dependent acquisition mode was used to generate the MS data. The normalized collision energy was set at 28% (HCD). In each cycle, the mass spectrometer generated one full scan (300–1800 m/z, 70 000 resolution), followed by 20 MS/MS scans with a resolution of 17 500. The isolation window was 2.0 Da, while the dynamic exclusion duration was 5 s. The charge range was from +3 to +8.

Computational Analysis of Mass Spectrometry Data

The raw MS data were first converted into the mzXML format using ProteoWizard (version: 3.0.11110 64-bit). The converted MS/MS data were consequently analyzed using Mascot (version 2.5.0) to search against the target and decoy TAIR10 Arabidopsis protein databases, which currently contain 35 387 protein sequences (https://www.arabidopsis.org/download_files/Sequences/TAIR10_blastsets/TAIR10_pep_20101214_updated), respectively. The precursor mass tolerance was set at 10 ppm, while the MS/MS mass tolerance was set at 0.01 Da. Trypsin was selected as protease, while the maximum allowed number of missed cleavages was set at 2. Because monolinks were set as 397.165799 and 398.149815 Da on residue (K) and N-terminus, respectively, they were set as the variable modifications. Because both light (28.031300 Da) and heavy isotopic dimethyl (34.063117 Da) were used to label lysine residues and N-termini of peptides, they were set as the variable modifications on lysine and the N-termini of peptides. Oxidation on methionine was set as the variable modification. We also set carbamidomethyl (57.021464 Da) on cyste (C) as the fixed modification. The false discovery rate (FDR) ≤ 0.01 was used to select peptide-spectrum matches (PSMs) from the results of the Mascot search. Normally, researchers convert the FDR estimated based on the target-decoy strategy into a q value for its monotonicity and higher power. In this study, we always convert the FDR into a q value and use the q value in the cutoff. To avoid confusion, we still refer to this value as FDR to be consistent with other researchers. From 77 226 identified PSMs (Table S2a), there were 5538 proteins, which were used to generate a custom protein database of smaller size for the following ECL2 (version 2.1.7)-based cross-linked peptide identification. The precursor mass tolerance was set at 10 ppm. The MZ bin size was set at 0.02, which corresponds to

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MS/MS mass tolerance being set at 0.01 Da. FDR for PSM was set as ≤ 0.05. The mass spectrometry data have been deposited to the ProteomeXchange Consortium via the PRIDE partner repository with a data set identifier PXD008161. Quantitation of cross-linked peptides was performed using the extracted ion chromatogram (XIC)-based SQUA-D software as previously described. In the analysis, we selected the quantifiable cross-linked peptide ions according to the following criteria:

1. The PSM number of light-dimethyl-labeled cross-linked peptides is ≥ 1.
2. The PSM number of heavy-dimethyl-labeled cross-linked peptides is ≥ 1.
3. The total PSM number obtained from at least three out of six independent experimental replicates should be ≥ 3.
4. The number of identified PSMs of a peptide from the forward experiments divided by the total number of its corresponding PSMs is ≥ 0.20.
5. The number of identified PSMs of a peptide from the reciprocal experiments divided by the total number of its corresponding PSMs is ≥ 0.20.

The criteria used to select significantly altered cross-linked peptides are as follows: fold-change ≥ 1.5 (or log-ratio ≥ 0.58) and BH-FDR (Benjamini–Hochberg multiple test correction) ≤ 0.1.

Bioinformatic Analysis

The database used for the gene ontology (GO) analysis of protein was downloaded from the TAIR website. GO analysis was performed using the following equation:

$$R_i = \log \left( \frac{N_i/N}{N'_i/N'_i} \right)$$

where N is the total match number of all categories of the cross-linked proteins, N’ is the total match number of all categories of the leaf proteome of Arabidopsis, N_i is the match number of the cross-linked proteins belonging to the ith category, and N’_i is the match number of proteins from the leaf proteome of Arabidopsis belonging to the ith category. The top three categories sorted by fold enrichment were selected.

The bioinformatics tool used in GO enrichment analysis is the Database for Annotation, Visualization and Integrated Discovery (DAVID) version 6.7 (https://david-d.ncifcrf.gov/tools.jsp). The thresholds were set as the following: gene count ≥ 5, P value ≤ 0.01, and FDR ≤ 0.1.

Protein-Modeling and Protein–Protein Interaction Analysis

Protein modeling was performed using an online software I-TASSER. For each protein, the model of the highest C-score was selected. Docking of interacting proteins was assessed using the online software PatchDock with the following parameters: the clustering root-mean-square deviation (RMSD) is 4.0 and the complex type is default. The distance between two cross-linked lysines was set to be within 20 Å. The 3D structures of the proteins were drawn using the software ICM-Browser 3.8. The identified protein–protein interactions were searched using STRING 10.5 (https://string-db.org/) and software Arabidopsis Interactions Viewer (http://bar.utoronto.ca/interactions/cgi-bin/arabidopsis_interactions_viewer.cgi). The Arabidopsis Interactions Viewer is a database that includes 36 352 confirmed and 70 944 predicted Arabidopsis interacting proteins.

Antibody Production and Immunoblot Assays

Rabbit polyclonal antibodies were raised against the EL-ITRAKDFNVIL peptide of prohibitin 3 (PHB3, AT5G40770) and RLVGIKDKYPEGT peptide of prohibitin 6 (AT2G20530), respectively, by GL Biochem (Shanghai, China). The anti-PIP2a rabbit polyclonal antibody was raised in our laboratory. The antiactin (plant) monoclonal antibody (a0480) was purchased from Sigma-Aldrich (St. Louis, MO). Protein extraction and immunoblotting were performed as previously described.

Coimmunoprecipitation

The coimmunoprecipitation was performed at 4 °C, as previously described. Protein extraction buffer, containing 50 mM Tris-HCl, 100 mM NaCl, 1 mM EDTA, 0.1% Triton X-100, 10% glycerol, 2 mM PMSF, and 2X EDTA-free protease inhibitor cocktail (Complete Roche), was used to lyse plant cells. Following centrifugation, the supernatant of cell lysate was incubated with antibody-coupled beads for 1 h. The protein complexes were enriched with antibodies and eluted with a buffer containing 50 mM Tris-HCl (pH 6.8), 8 M urea, 5 mM dithiothreitol (DTT), 1% SDS, and 10 mM EDTA.

Plant Tissue Section Preparation and Immunostaining

To prepare Arabidopsis tissue sections for immunostaining, photobleaching (1000 W halogen projector lamp with intensity of 1800 μmol photons m⁻² s⁻¹) was performed first in 2% BSA solution for 1 h. Sections of ein3/ell1 plant tissues were incubated with anti-PHB6 polyclonal antibody for 12 h at 4 °C. After washing the plant tissue sections with the microtubule-stabilizing (MTSB) buffer, containing 50 mM pipеразин-N,N'-bis[2-ethanesulfonic acid] (PIPES), 5 mM MgSO4, and 5 mM EGTA (pH 6.9), three times (10 min per washing), these sections were incubated with goat antirabbit IgG (H+L), Alexa Fluor 647 (Thermo Fisher Scientific) for 5 h at 4 °C. Following the first immunostaining with anti-PHB6 polyclonal antibody and secondary antibody conjugated with Alexa Fluor 647 dye, these prestained sections were washed again with MTSB buffer three times and with 10 min of washing per round. The anti-PHB3 polyclonal antibody conjugated to Alexa Fluor 750 dye (Molecular Probes; Invitrogen, Eugene, OR) was then added consequently to locate the PHB3. These two different immune-labeled dyes were also applied to conjugate PHB3/PHB6 and water channel protein PIP2a. The polyclonal anti-PIP2a antibody was conjugated with Alexa Fluor 750, which was used to analyze colocalization coefficients of aquaporin and PHB3/6 proteins.

To test the specificities of anti-PHB3 and anti-PHB6 antibodies, immunostaining was performed on Col-0 and two loss-of-function Arabidopsis mutants, phb3 and phb6. For example, in the Col-0 genetic background, synthetic peptides of PHB6 and PHB3 were used as competitive inhibitors at a ratio of 10:1 with the corresponding antibodies. Furthermore, the anti-PHB3 antibody was tested on both Col-0 and phb3. Sections of both genotypes were incubated with anti-PHB3 antibody conjugated with Alexa Fluor 750 dye. The anti-PHB6 antibody specificity was examined on Col-0 and phb6 mutant. Sections of both genotypes were incubated with anti-PHB6 antibody and goat antirabbit IgG (H+L) labeled with Alexa Fluor 647 sequentially.

Super-Resolution Imaging

Super-resolution images were obtained using a home-built direct stochastic optical reconstruction microscopy (dSTORM) system with two excitation–emission channels based on a Nikon Ti-E inverted microscope. A 656.5 nm diode-pumped laser was used.
solid-state (DPSS) laser and a 750 nm diode laser were used for excitation of samples immune-labeled with Alexa Fluor 647 and Alexa Fluor 750 in imaging buffer. A 100x objective lens (CFI Apo TIRFM 100x oil, N.A. 1.49, Nikon) was used to observe the fluorescence signals. An electron-multiplying charge-coupled device (EMCCD, Andor, iXon Ultra) was applied to collect the emission light that passed through a channel splitter. To block the excitation laser and the channel crosstalk, emission filters FF01-692/40-25 and FF01-794/32-25 were used for the 647 and 750 nm channels, respectively. During imaging, the samples were stabilized using an active locking system with 1 nm accuracy. Static conventional fluorescence images using lower laser intensities (typically 89 W/cm² for 647 nm and 434 W/cm² for 750 nm) were obtained before super-resolution imaging to locate the target cells. The excitation laser intensities were 4.0 and 4.5 kW/cm² for Alexa Fluor 647 and Alexa Fluor 750, respectively. Every super-resolution image was accumulated by 10 000 frames at 33 Hz to record the blinking of fluorescent dye molecules with 200x the electron-multiplying (EM) gain. According to the average fitting error, 20 nm lateral resolution was achieved. The 3D images with 50 nm axial resolution were generated by applying a cylindrical lens. Rohdea 2.0 software (Nanobioimaging, Hong Kong) was used to process the data, and ImageJ software was used to reconstruct the final images.

Colocalization Analysis of Interacting Proteins Based on dSTORM Micrographs

Colocalization is a concept to describe the degree of interaction and relationship between two proteins. The two-color dSTORM system provides 3D super-resolution images with 50 nm axial resolution and 500 nm thickness. To calculate the 3D colocalization, the super-resolution image is divided into 10 layers, from −250 to 250 nm along the Z direction with 50 nm thickness. In the colocalization experiment analysis, a modified Manders split coefficient was applied to calculate the colocalization for each layer and then to obtain the 3D colocalization. The Manders method is widely used to calculate colocalization. In this case, two colocalization coefficients are used to describe the degree of two molecules’ overlapping:

\[ M_1 = \frac{\sum R_{i,\text{colocal}}}{\sum R_i} \]

\[ M_2 = \frac{\sum G_{i,\text{colocal}}}{\sum G_i} \]

where \( R \) and \( G \) are the intensity of the red channel (647 nm) and green channel (750 nm). \( R_{i,\text{colocal}} = R_i \) if \( G_i > 0 \), and \( G_{i,\text{colocal}} = G_i \) if \( R_i > 0 \). Coefficients \( M_1 \) and \( M_2 \) can range from 0 to 1. \( M_1 = 1 \) implies that all of the pixels of the red components are located in pixels of the green components, while \( M_2 = 1 \) implies that all of the pixels of the green components are located in pixels of the red components.

Additionally, if two images are merged together, another coefficient,\( r_{\text{merge}} \), is proposed to calculate the ratio of the total intensity of overlapped pixels over two channels

\[ r_{\text{merge}} = \frac{\sum R_{i,\text{colocal}} + \sum G_{i,\text{colocal}}}{\sum R_i + \sum G_i} \]

The coefficient \( r_{\text{merge}} \) ranges from 0 to 1. \( r_{\text{merge}} = 1 \) implies that the two channels are 100% colocalized.

Measurement of Rosette Area and Root Length of Arabidopsis

Photos of 38 day old plants were captured. In these photos, rulers are used to indicate the scale. The rosette areas were measured using ImageJ software with a downloaded module (http://dev.mri.cnrs.fr/projects/imagej-macros/wiki/Measure_Rosette_Area_Tool). The roots were gently separated from the medium, and their lengths were measured directly using a ruler. In a single biological replicate, typically 15–20 plant individuals of a genotype were assessed. A total of three biological experiments were performed.

Statistical Analysis

The statistical significances of plant phenotypes and immunoblotting were determined using the two-tailed Student’s t test or one-sample t test. The significance values are represented by “*”, “**”, and “***” to indicate \( P < 0.05 \), \( P < 0.01 \), and \( P < 0.001 \), respectively. Multiple comparisons were assessed by one-way ANOVA (analysis of variance) using the IBM SPSS statistical package (version 24, IBM, Armonk, NY). The Tukey’s range test of 5% significance was used.

RESULTS

Establishing Chemical Labeling, Chromatographic Enrichment, and Mass Spectrometry Analysis for IPQCX−MS

To identify protein–protein interactions in Arabidopsis, a comprehensive interactomics of five major steps was adopted (Figure 1A and Figure S6A): (1) in vivo chemical cross-linking with a specially designed cross-linker (Figure S6B), (2) CsCl density gradient (CDG) centrifugation-based fractionation of proteins and subsequent peptide preparation, (3) light- and heavy-isotope-coded dimethyl labeling and mixing of peptides, (4) SCX chromatography-based separation and affinity bead enrichment of the cross-linked peptides, and (5) LC–MS/MS analysis. According to this workflow (Figure 1A), both protein samples of the control and treated plant were extracted and subjected to CsCl density gradient centrifugation, which produced top (t), middle (m), and bottom (b) fractions with a yield (the ratio of protein amount to the tissue amount used for protein extraction) of 0.20%, 0.60%, and 0.07%, respectively. As a result, each biological replicate produced six protein samples (i.e., the control and treated × 3 CDG fractions, Figure 1A and Figure S6A). These proteins were digested into peptides with a yield (the ratio of peptide amount to protein amount) of 65–75%. After dimethyl labeling and peptide mixing, each biological replicate produced six mixing replicates (i.e., tF, mF, bF, tR, mR and bR, Figure 1A,B and Figure S6A).

To enrich the cross-linked peptides from the cellular peptides, the azido on the cross-linker was conjugated to the alkyn moiety of the disulfide bond-linked biotin and alkyn (DLBA) through click chemistry (Figure 1C). Following the click reaction, we further separated each peptide sample into three fractions using SCX-HPLC (Figure 1A). Finally, a single biological replicate generated 18 peptide mixtures (3 CsCl density gradient fraction × 2 types of mixing [F and R] × 3 SCX-HPLC fractions). In total, three biological replicates produced 54 peptide mixtures (18 peptide samples × 3 biological replicates). The biotin-tagged cross-linked peptides were subsequently enriched from each of 54 peptide samples via streptavidin affinity purification. Following a series of subsequent chemical modifications (Figure 1C), the cross-linked peptides were obtained with a yield of 0.13% to 0.22%. (The yield was defined to be a ratio of...
the cross-linked peptide amount to the total amount of cellular peptides in each SCX-HPLC fraction.) The enriched cross-linked peptides were finally subjected to LC–MS/MS analysis, which has thus far completed the first two C steps of IPQCX–MS (Figure 1A and Figure S6A). To facilitate the computational analysis of the mass spectrometry (MS/MS) data, 18 MS data sets prepared from a single biological replicate were combined into two larger MS/MS data sets separately (F and R, Figure S6A).

Identification and Quantitation of in Planta Cross-Linked Peptides

To confirm if the in vivo cross-linking was successful, AMDSP monolinked (dead-end) peptides were identified and measured with a cutoff FDR threshold of ≤ 0.01. Altogether, we found 11 820 unique monolinked peptides (Table S2b) from 77 226 redundant monolinked peptides (Table S2a). Cellular components analysis results suggested that these peptides are from cellular proteins inside the cell rather than secretary proteome (Table S2c), which confirmed that AMDSP had been successfully delivered into plant cells through vacuum infiltration.

To establish a comprehensive and multitask computational program for identifying and quantifying light- and heavy-isotope-labeled cross-linked peptides, we coupled a modified SQUA-D (version 2.0) with ECL2 (version 2.1.7). ECL2 can search all possible peptide–peptide pairs through an exhaustive approach, while other state-of-the-art tools, such as xQuest, pLink, and Kojak, only search a small fraction of all peptide–peptide pairs for each spectrum with prefiltering steps. Such prefiltering steps may cause missed findings. The XIC-based quantification component, SQUA-D, uses the output of the cross-linked peptide identification as an input to locate the ion chromatography profile for each identified PSM (Figure 2). The new version of SQUA-D estimates the intensities and calculates the log-ratio of light- and heavy-isotope-labeled PSMs. Finally, it outputs the log ratios of all identified PSMs and supplies the consequent results to a statistical evaluation component (Figure 2). The statistical evaluation component includes the batch effect adjustment, t test, and multiple test correction. All of these components are illustrated in the workflow (Figure 2).

Because ECL2 included contaminant proteins during the searching automatically, we eliminated the PSMs belonging to those contaminants in the downstream analysis. Furthermore, because our samples were labeled with light or heavy dimethyl labeling, we eliminated the PSMs without the labeling or containing the incorrect labeling patterns. With FDR ≤ 0.05, a total of 3171 PSMs (Table S3a) were identified. These PSMs contained 354 unique cross-linked peptides (Table S3b). We also include a table (Table S3c) containing PSMs with FDR ≤ 0.01.

We also analyzed our data with pLink (version 2.3.3) and Kojak (version 1.5.5). The same parameters and selection criteria were used. For the interprotein cross-linked peptides, pLink identified 2 PSMs, Kojak identified 0 PSMs, and ECL2 identified 92 PSMs (Figure S4A). For the intraprotein cross-linked peptides, pLink identified 3 PSMs, Kojak identified 3047 PSMs, and ECL2 identified 3079 PSMs (Figure S4B). Both pLink and Kojak did not identify many interprotein cross-linked peptides, which may be caused by their prefiltering steps. These steps compare spectra with linear peptide chains and discard low confident peptide chains before generating peptide–peptide pairs and scoring. Although such steps are reasonable to some extent, it may cause missed findings when the database is large. In terms of average running time for analyzing one data file, pLink took 1.17 h, Kojak took 0.95 h, and ECL2 took 2.4 h. Kojak and ECL2 were run in a Linux server with two Intel Xeon E5-2670 v3 CPUs (12-core, 2.3 GHz) and 64 GB RAM. PLink was run in a Windows PC with one Intel Xeon E5-2630 v4 CPU (10-core, 2.2 GHz) and 64 GB RAM. Please refer to the Supplemental File for the parameter files, the log files, and the results.

Among the unique cross-linked peptides identified by ECL2, 241 and 271 cross-linked peptides were light- and heavy-isotope-labeled, respectively (Table S3b, Figure 3A). After combining the three CsCl fraction peptide mixing types, tF1, mF1, and bF1, into a single F1 experiment replicate sample, we found that the number of unique cross-linked peptides accumulated as the number of experimental replicates increased (Figure 3B). Altogether, 21.19% of the 354 unique cross-linked peptides were identified 10 times or more, and 41.53% of them were identified once (Figure 3C). The charges of 53.28% of the unique cross-linked peptides were +4 (Figure 3D). Using the leaf proteome of Arabidopsis as a reference, we defined those proteins having spectral counts ≥ 100 as abundant proteins. As a result, we found, notably, that 38.60% of the unique cross-linked peptides (i.e., PSM number ≥ 1), 40.32% of those identified at least twice among the unique cross-linked peptides (i.e., PSM number ≥ 2), and 41.30% of those identified at least four times among the unique cross-linked peptides (i.e., PSM number ≥ 4) were actually from the abundant proteins in our experiments, and their ratios were much larger than the ratio of abundant proteins in the leaf proteome of Arabidopsis (i.e., 9.12%, Figure 3E).

This finding strongly suggests that the interactions of abundant proteins are preferable for capture by IPQCX–MS-based interactomics.

GO analysis of those proteins derived from the cross-linked peptides showed that the in vivo cross-linked proteins were concentrated in the following categories, molecular function 1–3, biological process 7–9, and cellular component 13–15, and were reduced in the following categories, molecular function 4–6, biological process 10–12, and cellular component 16–18 (Figure 3F and Figure S7). These findings suggest that IPQCX–MS-based interactomics tends to capture the proteins located in the cell wall, extracellular space, and cytoplasm rather than those located in the nucleus. In addition, stable interactions, such as interactions between structural molecules, are preferable to be captured instead of transient interactions, such as interactions between signal transduction molecules (Figure 3F and Figure S7).

Among the 354 unique cross-linked peptides identified, there are 61 interprotein cross-linked peptides and 293 intraprotein cross-linked peptides (Table S3b). The cross-linked peptide AKFIVEK(α)−18-AVEDQKQAQQEAE(β) is one of those interprotein cross-linked peptides found (Table S3b). Its α and β chains were derived from prohibitin 1/2/6 (PHB1/PHB2/PHB6, AT4G28510/AT1G03860/AT2G20530) and PHB3 (ATSG40770), respectively. Its MS/MS spectra of heavy isotope-labeled cross-linked peptides are shown in Figure 3G. Three D structure models and docking of PHB3 and PHB6 are predicted as shown in Figure 3H. The predicted distance between the two cross-linked lysines (i.e., PHB3-K191 and PHB6-K205) was 18.1 Å according to the model (Figure 3I). The predicted distance was reduced in the following categories, molecular function 9, and cellular component 13.
of the LHCB1.1 (AT1G29920) and LHCB4.1 (AT5G01530) interaction, KYGSGGA−176IINEPTAAAIAYGLDK of the ADP/ATP carrier 1 (AAC1, AT3G08580) and heat shock protein 70-1 (HSP70-1, AT5G02500) interaction, AST−SLLK−176LTGTDVGYPGLWFDPLGWGSPA of the fructose-bisphosphate aldolase 2 (FBA2, AT4G38970) and photosystem I light-harvesting complex gene 2 (LHCA2, AT3G61470) interaction, 377VGSAAQLAMK−467TNKPQFQEIIASTKTLTAEESFLK of the ATPase subunit 1 (ATP1, ATM01190) and ATPase subunit alpha (ATPA, ATCG00120) interaction, and 98SGGAGASE−621GSQGAVT DK of the ribosomal protein L36e family protein (AT5G02450) and SRP72 RNA-binding domain-containing protein (AT1G67680) interaction. This alternative evidence supports the results of the IPQCX−MS approach.

During the quantitation of cross-linked peptides, the batch effect adjustment (Figure 2) was applied to 18 replicates of the MS data sets (generated from 3 biological replicates × 2 types of cross-linking). The calculation of XIC log-ratios was followed by a statistical evaluation procedure that included both the t test and multiple test correction (i.e., BH-FDR). The significant cutoff criteria were BH-FDR ≤ 0.1 and |log-ratio| ≥ 0.58 (i.e., |fold change| ≥ 1.5). The quantification component outputs are provided in Table S4.
Figure 3. Mass spectrometry and bioinformatics analysis of cross-linked peptides. (A) Venn diagram presentation of the identified unique light- and heavy-isotope-labeled cross-linked peptides. (B) Accumulation of the identified unique cross-linked peptides from six experimental replicates. (C) Relationship between the spectral count and the index of unique cross-linked peptides. (D) Charge distribution of unique cross-linked peptides. The charge range for identification ranged from +3 to +8. (E) Percentages of abundant proteins in the leaf proteome of Arabidopsis and cross-linked proteins from the cross-linked peptides with different identification times. (F) Comparison of the GO analysis results between the cross-linked proteins and the leaf proteome of Arabidopsis. Protein categories of the highest and lowest three log-ratios are shown. (G) MS/MS spectra of interprotein cross-linked peptide AKFIVEK-AVEQKQVAQEAER between PHB3 (Prohibitin 3, AT5G40770) and PHB6 (AT2G20530) proteins. (H) 3D structure of the protein–protein interaction between PHB3 and PHB6. (I) Magnified view of the cross-linked sites between PHB3-K191 and PHB6-K204.
mixings × 3 CsCl protein fractions, Figure 1A and Figure S6A). This batch effect adjustment aims to fine-tune the corresponding technical and experimental errors resulting from treatment, the CDG centrifugation fractionation of proteins, and the peptide digestion as well as the chemical labeling/mixing.

According to the criteria mentioned in the Experimental Section, 86 L- and H-labeled cross-linked peptide pairs were selected for quantification (Table S4). The criteria for selecting the cross-linked peptides for quantitation analysis are defined as follows: fold change |≥ 1.5 (or log-ratio |≥ 0.58) and multiple-testing-corrected FDR (BH-FDR) |< 0.1. Nine and three cross-linked peptides were found to be hormone-enhanced and -suppressed, respectively (Figure 4A and Table S4). For example, the intraprotein cross-linked peptide KKEVEEK-KGETPETAVVEEK derived from the plasma-membrane-associated cation-binding protein 1 (PCAP1, AT5G38410) changed 4.94-fold in response to ethylene hormone treatment (Figure 4B and Table S4), while the intraprotein cross-linked peptide VQTSSEGEKPVR-ELVKDDAWLDGEFISTVQQR derived from cytosolic-NAD-dependent malate dehydrogenase 1 (C-NAD-MDH1, AT1G04410) had a ~2.41-fold change (the negative sign corresponds to down-regulation) due to the ethylene hormone treatment (Figure 4C and Table S4). The ethylene production rate of the ACC-treated plants is much higher than that of the control (Figure S8A). We also found that ethylene treatment induced a smaller rosette area and shorter root length in both the wild-type Arabidopsis Col-0 and ein3/eil1 mutant (Figure S8B,C).

These hormone-regulated cross-linked peptides, reflecting possible ethylene-regulated protein–protein interactions and protein conformation changes, may participate in ethylene-regulated plant growth.

**Confirmation and Validation of Interaction of PHB3 and PHB6 with Alternative Method**

To confirm the protein–protein interaction and conformation changes instantly captured in vivo, we have designed alternative biochemical and microscopic methods. The cross-linked peptide derived from the interaction of PHB6 and PHB3 was chosen for this validation. To that end, anti-PHB3 and anti-PHB6 antibodies were generated (see the Experimental Section). To test the specificities of anti-PHB3 and anti-PHB6 antibodies, immunoblotting was performed on Col-0 and the loss-of-function Arabidopsis mutants phb3 and phb6 (Figures S5 and S9B,C).

As compared with Col-0, the phb3 mutant still retained a background of weak immune-reactivity signal (i.e., 29.87% of the full signal) using anti-PHB3 antibody because of the similarity of the primary amino acid sequences among PHB3, PHB4, and PHB5 (Figure S9A). We found that the protein level of PHB3 was ethylene hormone-suppressed in the genotypes of Col-0, ein3/eil1, and phb6 (Figure S9B,D), whereas the background signal generated by the anti-PHB3 antibody in the phb3 mutant was not ethylene-regulated (Figure S9B). Similarly, when the anti-PHB6 antibody was employed, immunoblotting was performed on both the Col-0 and phb6 mutant. These results show that the PHB6 protein missed the immuno-reactivity signal in the phb6 mutant background (Figure S9C), suggesting the specificity of the anti-PHB6 antibody, and, interestingly, the protein level of PHB6 was ethylene hormone-enhanced in both the Col-0 and ein3/eil1 genetic backgrounds (Figure S9C,E).

Given the specificity of the anti-PHB3 and anti-PHB6 antibodies, we adopted the coimmunoprecipitation approach to confirm the results of IPQCX–MS. The corresponding preserums of the anti-PHB3 antibody and anti-PHB6 antibody...
were applied as a negative control. To ensure that the same amount of IgG was used for the antibodies and the preserums, calibration was performed according to immunoblot analysis (Figure S10A,B). The anti-PHB3 antibody was able to pull down both PHB3 and PHB6, whereas the anti-PHB6 antibody was able to pull down both PHB6 and PHB3 reciprocally (Figure SA).

A smaller protein band could be visualized in the input when it was set against the anti-PHB3 antibody, which may represent a segment of the PHB3 protein (Figure SA). This possible partial PHB3 protein did not come from in vitro artificial proteolytic degradation because it could be detected in both the input and flow-through of similar percentages (Figure S10C). It is likely that the segment of PHB3 protein was more easily enriched by coimmunoprecipitation using the PHB6 antibody (Figure SA).

The coimmunoprecipitation experiment strongly suggests that the PHB3 protein interacts with PHB6 in plant cells, as shown in the IQCX–MS analysis.

The interaction between PHB3 and PHB6 protein was also examined by mass shift assay. To do this, the plants were separated into two groups: One was infiltrated with 1% formaldehyde in the cross-linking buffer, while the other group had the cross-linking buffer only as a control. After the cross-linking reaction, both PHB3 and PHB6 proteins were shifted to ∼63 kDa on SDS-PAGE according to the protein size markers (Figure 5B). Because the size of PHB3 and PHB6 was determined to be 30.4 and 31.6 kDa, respectively, according to bioinformatics, the 63 kDa size of the PHB3 and PHB6 protein detected on SDS-PAGE suggested that they were successfully cross-linked under formaldehyde treatment (Figure 5B).

To further validate the interaction between PHB3 and PHB6 proteins, the super-resolution imaging technique was also applied. To do this, 750 nm dye was conjugated to the anti-PHB3 antibody, while 647 nm dye was conjugated to goat antirabbit IgG antibody, which was used as a secondary antibody to recognize the primary anti-PHB6 antibody. Because the autofluorescence of plant cells could be observed in both channels by conventional fluorescence imaging (or called wide-field micrographs, Figures S11A and S12A), only dSTORM micrographs were used to verify the colocalization of PHB3 and PHB6 protein. The titration experiments (Figures S11C and S12C) and phb3 and phb6 loss-of-function mutant (lack of PHB3 or PHB6 protein) immunohistological experiments (Figures S11D and S12D) using the anti-PHB3 and anti-PHB6 antibodies revealed the specificities of these two antibodies in recognizing the target PHB3 and PHB6 proteins. Figure 5C and Figure S13A,C,E show the overlapping localization (yellow) of PHB3 (green) and PHB6 (red) inside cells. The colocalization results between PHB3 and plasma membrane intrinsic protein 2A (PIP2A, AT3G53420) (Figure S14A,C,E) as well as between PHB6 and PIP2A (Figure S15A,C,E) were used as negative controls. These two controls showed that both PHB3 and PHB6 were located far from the membrane-localized water channels.

Three 3D super-resolution images were obtained for each pair of proteins. Every 3D image was divided into 10 layers, from −250 to 250 nm, along the Z direction with a thickness of 50 nm. Co-localization coefficients of PHB3 versus PHB6, PHB3 versus PIP2a, and PHB6 versus PIP2a were calculated according to a statistical method (see Experimental Section, Figure 5D) based on the protein pairs found in a total of 30 layers of the super-resolution micrographs (Figures S13B,D,F, S14B,D,F, and S15B,D,F). The average colocalization coefficient of the PHB3 versus PHB6 pair was 0.77, which was significantly larger than that of the PHB3 versus PIP2A and PHB6 versus PIP2A pairs (i.e., 0.14 and 0.31 colocalization coefficient, respectively, Figure 5D). The larger colocalization coefficient means the higher possibility of colocalization of the two proteins. Taken together, these alternative molecular and microscopic data confirmed the interaction of PHB3–PHB6 protein initially identified via the IQCX–MS approach.

### Discussion

The IQCX–MS has facilitated the identification of hundreds of unique in planta cross-linked peptides (Table S3b) from Arabidopsis. The identified cross-linked peptides provide new insights into in vivo protein conformation changes and protein–protein interaction dynamics simultaneously. In addition to size exclusion chromatography (SEC) and SCX-based chromatography,7,22 a biotin–streptavidin affinity enrichment was applied in the experiment to highly enrich the cross-linked peptides.24,28,95 On the basis of our multistep workflow, 0.13 to 0.22% cross-linked peptides were yielded from the total cellular peptides. TCEP was found to be efficient in eluting the cross-linked peptides off biotin–streptavidin resin. The removal of biotin from the cross-linker is believed to facilitate MS/MS analysis.28

The identification of 354 unique cross-linked peptides by a combination of both AMDSP-based cross-linking and ECL2 is comparable to the finding of 240 cross-linked peptides by the DSBSO-based cross-linking in HEK 293 cells,28 even though it seems smaller than the 3323 cross-linked peptides identified by the PIR-containing cross-linker in HeLa cells.22 One possible explanation for the difference is the multiple cellular structures and the more than 100 different amine-contained secondary metabolites present in plants,52 which may titrate the penetrated AMDSP, impeding the in vivo cross-linking of proteins in higher plants. Another possible explanation may be the different lengths of cross-linker spacers. AMDSP-, DSBSO-, and PIR-containing cross-linker spacers are 9.6, 14, 33, and 43 Å, long, respectively. The application of various arm lengths of cross-linkers together in a single experiment was considered. However, because this hybrid cross-linker approach may raise the risk of computational analysis and divide the ion intensity of one cross-linked peptide into several, we therefore abandoned it. Moreover, the working concentrations of AMDSP-, DSBSO-, and PIR-containing cross-linkers applied in various experiments were 1, 2,28 and 10 mM,22 respectively. The relatively lower concentration of cross-linker used may result in fewer cross-linked peptides in our case.

Biological process and cellular component enrichment analysis were performed on 386 cross-linked proteins (corresponding to 354 cross-linked peptides) identified by AMDSP-based cross-linking, 56 cross-linked proteins identified by DSBSO-based cross-linking,28 and 893 cross-linked proteins identified by PIR-containing cross-linkers.22 AMDSP-based interactomics’ results were concentrated in protein neddylation, the reductive pentose-phosphate cycle, and carbon utilization by fixation of carbon dioxide, whereas DSBSO- and PIR-containing
Figure 5. Confirmation of in planta PHB3 and PHB6 interaction and their functions during growth. (A) Coimmunoprecipitation of PHB3 and PHB6 in Arabidopsis crude extract. The crude extract (3%) was used as input. Precipitates of preserum (collected before immunoreaction) of each antibody were used as a negative control. The left panel shows the precipitates of anti-PHB3 antibody, and the right panel shows the precipitates of anti-PHB6 antibody. The presence of PHB3 and PHB6 were visualized by immunoblot analysis using antibodies against PHB3 and PHB6, respectively. (B) In vivo cross-linking (CX) of the PHB3-PHB6 complex by 1% formaldehyde. The left panel is against anti-PHB3 antibody, and the right panel is against anti-PHB6 antibody. Proteins extracted from the plants that went through infiltration in cross-linking buffer without cross-linker were used as a control. (C) Super-resolution imaging of PHB3 and PHB6. The upper three photos show wide-field fluorescence imaging, and the lower three photos show dSTORM super-resolution imaging. The left two photos show labeling with anti-PHB3 antibody with 750 nm dye. The middle two photos are labeled with anti-PHB6 antibody with 647 nm dye. The right two photos are merged images. (D) Colocalization coefficients of PHB3 versus PHB6, PHB3 versus PIP2a (plasma membrane intrinsic protein 2a, AT3G53420), and PHB6 versus PIP2a. Three photos of 3D dSTORM super-resolution imaging were collected for each pair of proteins. Every photo is divided into 10 layers, from −250 to 250 nm, along the Z direction with 50 nm thickness. There were 30 layers in total for one pair of proteins. The colocalization coefficient of each layer was calculated. Average values and error bars (±SEM) are shown. ANOVA and t test were used to evaluate significant differences. (E) Measurement of the Arabidopsis rosette area and root length. Three biological replicates were assessed. Average values and error bars (±SEM) are shown. The total plant numbers for every genotype to measure the rosette area were S4 for Col-0, S7 for phb3, and S5 for phb6. The total plant numbers for every genotype to measure root length were S5 for Col-0, 60 for phb3, and 60 for phb6. One-way ANOVA and t test were used to evaluate significant differences.
cross-linker-based interactomics’s results were enriched in nucleosome assembly, chromatin assembly, and protein–DNA complex assembly in addition to ribosomal large subunit biogenesis, ribosomal small subunit biogenesis, and translational elongation (Table S5). Furthermore, the cellular component enrichment analysis of three cross-linker-identified peptides indicated that AMDSP-dependent interactomics showed an enrichment in the light-harvesting complex, mitochondrial envelope, and photosystem I, whereas DSBSO and PIR cross-linkers were enriched in the nucleosome, protein–DNA complex, and chromatin in addition to the chaperonin-containing T-complex, proteasome core complex, alpha-subunit complex, and the eukaryotic translation initiation factor 3 complex eIF3m (Table S5). These results suggest that the three different cross-linking strategies were enriched for different biological processes and cellular components. Thus they may be complementary to each other in the discovery of various interactomes of plants.

As both the DSBSO cross-linker and PIR-cross-linkers used for in vivo cross-linking are MS-cleavable, this class of cross-linkers used in the identification of cross-linked peptides relies on the MS³ spectra. More cycling time must be used to generate MS³ spectra, which may reduce the number of MS² spectra and result in reduced identification. As compared with the number observed using the MS² spectra-based identification, there is an overall 18% reduction in the number of total redundant peptides and a 13% reduction in the number of nonredundant peptides using MS³ spectra. In our case, we adopted an approach to combine the in vivo chemical cross-linking with the identification of cross-linked peptides using MS² spectra assisted by ECL2 software. It is likely that the application of both MS-cleavable and MS-noncleavable approaches in a single cross-linking experiment may help identify a greater number of cross-linked peptides.

In contrast with other cross-linked peptide identification tools, ECL2 searches all possible peptide–peptide pairs so that missed findings can be avoided. We have used various data sets to demonstrate that ~30% of the findings are missed. Most importantly, this missed-finding issue is exacerbated for larger databases. ECL2 also performs exhaustive searching of all peptide–peptide pairs with a linear time complexity. With such a strategy, it can identify cross-linked peptides by searching all possible peptide–peptide pairs from a larger database (e.g., S538 proteins) within a few hours.

The previous transgenic plant approach and affinity-tag-based enrichment have demonstrated that PHB1/2/3/4/6 can be copurified with PHB3 and PHB1. In the present study, we have confirmed the interaction of PHB3 and PHB6 by in vivo chemical cross-linking (Table S3b and Figure 3H), which is considered to occur under native cytoplasmic conditions. The unique interaction between PHB3 and PHB6 is confirmed using alternative biochemical methods and super-resolution imaging. We also provided structural information about the interaction data deposited in the Arabidopsis Interactions Viewer database. Therefore, it is currently unable to differentiate whether it is the intraprotein or the interprotein cross-linking occurring among these FBA protein isoforms that shares homologous amino acid sequences.

The ethylene hormone-regulated isotopic cross-linked peptides possibly result from one of two situations. The first possibility is that ethylene alters the gene expression of ethylene-responsive proteins, and the interaction of either increased or decreased ethylene-responsive proteins may contribute to the change of the cross-linked peptides’ levels. The second possibility is that ethylene alters the protein conformation via ethylene-regulated post-translational modifications (PTMs), which further generate hormone-regulated intraprotein and interprotein cross-linked peptides. To differentiate these two possibilities, we have quantified some of the total cellular peptides (non-cross-linked linear peptides) and found that some ethylene-regulated linear peptides share the same protein origins as ethylene-regulated cross-linked peptides (Table S6a). For...
example, the cross-linked peptide KYEAGAR−GILA-ESTGTTGKR derived from FBA4/6/8 isoforms had a 1.63-fold (1.5-fold) increase, whereas the linear peptide IGENEP-SESHIHENAYGLAR derived from the same protein group had a 2.23-fold increase (1.5-fold) upon ethylene treatment (Table S6b), which suggests that the up-regulation of this cross-linked peptide probably resulted from an increase in protein level. Moreover, both cross-linked peptides, AASFNIIPSSTGAAK and GILGYTEDDVVSTDFVGDNR, were insignificantly altered to −1.23- and −1.22-fold, respectively. However, their corresponding linear peptides, AASFNIIPSSTGAA and GILGYTEDDVVSTDFVGDN, were ethylene-suppressed significantly to −2.12- and −1.95-fold, respectively (Table S6b), suggesting that ethylene regulates both the protein level and conformation of GACP1. The third example is that the cross-linked peptide LKNVP- GVTA−TQYAYGSKNEIR derived from sedoheptulose-biphosphatase (SBPase, AT3G55800) had a 4.89-fold increase, whereas the linear peptide YTGGMPVDVNQIVKEK from the same protein was insignificantly altered upon ethylene hormone treatment (Table S6b). Given that SBPase is an enzyme involved in the Calvin cycle and photosynthetic carbon fixation, the breaking and forming of the disulfide bond between the Cys165 and Cys170 of wheat SBPase resulted in its structural changes, leading to activation and deactivation of this enzyme. These two Cys are conserved between wheat and Arabidopsis SBPases. Ethylene has a crossstalk with hydrogen peroxide (H2O2) and H2O2 is involved in the homeostasis of protein thiol redox in Arabidopsis; we hereby hypothesize that the ethylene-induced structural change in SBPase is caused by a redox alteration of disulﬁde bonds in this enzyme induced by ethylene and H2O2 crossstalk. Of course, the alternative possibility would be that ethylene regulates the post-translational modification on SBPase (e.g., acetylation on K368 of SBPase), which consequently altered the structure of SBPase. Consistent with the previous findings that ethylene regulates photosynthesis, our quantitative interactomics study has further conﬁrmed that ethylene regulates the protein structures of the light-harvesting complex of photosystem II 5 (LHCB5, AT4G10340) and Rubisco small subunit 1B/2B/3B (RBCS1B/2B/3B, AT5G3840/AT5G38420/AT5G38410) (Table S6b) in addition to the novel ﬁnding on SBPase. It is therefore likely that ethylene may alter the protein structure to either an active or inactive state of these photosynthesis-related enzymes via altering both thiol redox and post-translational modification.

In conclusion, to identify in vivo protein–protein interactions and protein structure alteration in Arabidopsis, we have developed an IPQCX–MS workflow. Preliminary quantitative analysis of cross-linked peptides provided a means to monitor a limited change of interactomes in responding to a signal at the organismal level. This MS-based quantitative interactomics may be applied to the study of protein–protein interactions and protein structures of various crop plants and that between host and pathogen interactions.

**ASSOCIATED CONTENT**

**Supporting Information**

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**AUTHOR INFORMATION**

**Corresponding Authors**

*N.L.: E-mail: boningli@ust.hk. Tel: +852-23587335.*

*W.Y.: E-mail: eeyu@ust.hk.*

**ORCID**

Shichang Liu: 0000-0002-0251-5898

Fengchao Yu: 0000-0002-7695-3698
Author Contributions
S.L. conducted plant growth measurements and hormone treatment, protein isolation, peptide preparation, proteomics-related experiments, and immunoblots analysis. F.Y. and T.W. performed preliminary MS data analysis. F.Y., W.Y., and N.L. performed extensive MS data analysis. Q.H. and S.L. contributed to chemical reaction of synthetic peptides. F.Y., W.Y., and N.L. contributed to the establishment of ECL2 software coupled to a quantification module. S.L. provided the home-built super-resolution microscope. S.L., L.Y., and S.D. participated in super-resolution microscopy study. L.Y. and S.D. performed the colocalization efficiency analysis. N.L., S.L., and F.Y. wrote the manuscript. N.L. supervised the project planning, the experimental design, the project execution, the coordination with multiple authors, and the communication with collaborators and was responsible for distribution of materials integral to the findings.

Author Contributions
©S.L. and F.Y. contributed equally to this work.

Notes
The authors declare no competing financial interest. The mass spectrometry data have been deposited to the ProteomeXchange Consortium via the PRIDE partner repository with a data set identifier PXD008161.

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