

# Plant Physiology and Biochemistry

## Computational prediction of NO-dependent posttranslational modifications in plants: current status and perspectives

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<b>Abstract:</b>	<p>The perception and transduction of nitric oxide (NO) signal is achieved by NO-dependent posttranslational modifications (PTMs) among which S-nitrosation and tyrosine nitration has biological significance. In plants, 100-1000 S-nitrosated and tyrosine nitrated proteins have been identified so far by mass spectrometry. The determination of NO-modified protein targets/amino acid residues is often methodologically challenging. In the past decade, the growing demand for the knowledge of S-nitrosated or tyrosine nitrated sites has motivated the introduction of bioinformatics tools. For predicting S-nitrosation seven computational tools have been developed (GPS-SNO, SNOsite, iSNO-PseACC, iSNO-AApAir, PSNO, PreSNO, RecSNO). Four predictors have been developed for indicating tyrosine nitration sites (GPS-YNO2, iNitro-Tyr, PredNTS, iNitroY-Deep), and one tool (DeepNitro) predicts both NO-dependent PTMs. The advantage of these computational tools is the fast provision of large amount of information. In this review, the available software tools have been tested on plant proteins in which S-nitrosated or tyrosine nitrated sites have been experimentally identified. The predictors showed distinct performance and there were differences from the experimental results partly due to the fact that the three-dimensional protein structure is not taken into account by the computational tools. Nevertheless, the predictors excellently establish experiments, and it is suggested to apply all available tools on target proteins and compare their results. In the future, computational prediction must be developed further to improve the precision with which S-nitrosation/tyrosine nitration-sites are identified.</p>
<b>Suggested Reviewers:</b>	<p>Mounira Chaki, Dr. mounira@ujaen.es She is an expert in plant nitric oxide-dependent posttranslational modifications.</p> <p>Marek Petrivalsky, Dr. marek.petrivalsky@upol.cz He is an expert in plant nitric oxide signalling.</p> <p>David Wendehenne, Dr. david.wendehenne@inra.fr He is an expert in plant nitric oxide signalling.</p>

## COVER LETTER

**Dear Editorial Board of *Plant Physiology and Biochemistry*,**

Hereby, please find our review manuscript entitled „ **Computational prediction of NO-dependent posttranslational modifications in plants: current status and perspectives**” written by Zsuzsanna Kolbert and Christian Lindermayr for consideration to publish in *Plant Physiol Biochem*. Previously, we contacted Professor Hiroshi Ezura, who has approved the proposal of this review topic.

This review collects, categorizes and characterizes the currently available online software tools for predicting nitric oxide (NO)-dependent posttranslational modifications (GPS-SNO, iSNO-PseACC, iSNO AAPair, SNOsite, RecSNO, PreSNO, GPS-YNO<sub>2</sub>, iNitro-Tyr, PredNTS, iNitroY-DeepDeepNitro). Additionally, the recently developed software tools are tested and their performances are compared on plant proteins for the first time. The aim of this work is to give a state-of-the-art overview for plant biologists about the computational prediction tools which are useful to establish and support laboratory experiments. Considerations for the future (e.g. what developments will be needed in the future) are also included. Previously two papers have been published in the topic by the authors. Chaki et al. (2014, PLOS ONE) evaluated S-nitrosation prediction software tools which were available at that time. In 2017, Kolbert et al. published a highly cited (32 independent citations) review paper in *Plant Physiology and Biochemistry*, in which they tested software tools for predicting protein tyrosine nitration on plant proteome. Compared to the previously published papers, this review paper would cover a wider topic evaluating both S-nitrosation and tyrosine nitration predicting software tools. The further novelty of this work is that it evaluates the recently developed algorithms (e.g. PreSNO, RecSNO, PredNTS) which hasn't been tested on plant proteins so far.

We prepared the manuscript to our best knowledge and we are confident about its positive evaluation.

9<sup>th</sup> of June, 2021

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**Highlights:**

- Eleven computational tools for predicting *S*-nitrosation and/or tyrosine nitration have been developed in the last ten years.
- On plant proteins, the predictors show distinct performances.
- The predictors can efficiently assign potentially modified amino acids in plant proteins.

# 1 **Computational prediction of NO-dependent posttranslational modifications in** 2 **plants: current status and perspectives**

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11

## 12 **Abstract**

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14 posttranslational modifications (PTMs) among which *S*-nitrosation and tyrosine nitration  
15 has biological significance. In plants, 100-1000 *S*-nitrosated and tyrosine nitrated proteins  
16 have been identified so far by mass spectrometry. The determination of NO-modified  
17 protein targets/amino acid residues is often methodologically challenging. In the past  
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25 software tools have been tested on plant proteins in which *S*-nitrosated or tyrosine  
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27 performance and there were differences from the experimental results partly due to the  
28 fact that the three-dimensional protein structure is not taken into account by the  
29 computational tools. Nevertheless, the predictors excellently establish experiments, and  
30 it is suggested to apply all available tools on target proteins and compare their results. In

31 the future, computational prediction must be developed further to improve the precision  
32 with which S-nitrosation/tyrosine nitration-sites are identified.

33 **Keywords:** computational prediction, nitric oxide, posttranslational modification, S-  
34 nitrosation, tyrosine nitration.

## 35 **Introduction**

36 Nitric oxide (NO), previously known as an air pollutant gas, has been shown to be an  
37 endogenously produced jack-off-all-trades plant signal molecule. In higher plants, nitrite  
38 is the major substrate for NO formation (**Astier et al., 2018**), while in primitive algae,  
39 similar to animals, NO is primarily derived from the amino acid L-arginine (**Astier et al.,**  
40 **2021**), indicating that reductive pathways of endogenous NO formation have become  
41 dominant during the evolution of terrestrial plants (**Fröhlich and Durner, 2011**). NO is an  
42 integral regulator in a wide range of physiological processes such as vegetative-  
43 reproductive development (**Sánchez-Vicente et al., 2019**), photosynthesis (**Lopes-**  
44 **Oliveira et al., 2021**), stomatal movements (**Van Meeteren et al., 2020**), abiotic stress  
45 responses (**Fancy et al., 2017**), symbiotic interactions (**Berger et al., 2019**) and defence  
46 mechanisms against phytopathogens (**Lubega et al., 2021; Jedelská et al., 2021**). In  
47 biological systems, NO reacts among other things, with molecular oxygen, reactive  
48 oxygen species, glutathione, and amino acids to form the diverse group of reactive  
49 nitrogen species (RNS) including peroxyxynitrite (ONOO<sup>-</sup>) and S-nitrosoglutathione (GSNO)  
50 as the most relevant ones. While the blood pressure regulating effect of NO in animals  
51 and humans is mediated by cGMP-dependent signalling and soluble guanylate cyclase  
52 (sGC) functions as a NO receptor (**Horst et al., 2019**), in plants NO-induced cGMP  
53 signalling seems to be unlikely (**Astier et al., 2019**). In recent years, the view has become  
54 prevalent that the transfer of NO's bioactivity is conveyed mainly through posttranslational  
55 modifications (PTMs) of specific protein targets. PTMs occurring following or during  
56 translation aim to increase the size and complexity of the proteome. Protein modifications  
57 result from enzymatic or nonenzymatic bounding of specific chemical groups to amino  
58 acid side chains (**Santos and Lindner, 2017**). Due to the alterations in the protein  
59 structure, protein activity, stability, localization, and molecular interactions may be  
60 modified (**Vu et al., 2018**). The biological function of more than 200 different enzymatic  
61 and non-enzymatic PTMs has been revealed so far (**Virág et al., 2020**). Among them,  
62 NO and its reaction products are responsible for the induction of non-enzymatic PTMs  
63 called nitration, S-nitrosation and metal nitrosylation. Nitration may covalently modify

64 tyrosine, tryptophan, cysteine and methionine (**Corpas et al., 2009**), S-nitrosation affects  
65 cysteine-containing proteins (**Hess et al., 2005**), and during metal nitrosylation NO reacts  
66 with metallo-enzymes (**Ignarro et al., 1999**). In biological systems, the most actively  
67 studied NO-dependent PTMs are S-nitrosation and tyrosine nitration affecting a large  
68 number of proteins thus having wide-ranging impact in the cells. Protein S-nitrosation has  
69 been established as a significant route by which NO transmits its ubiquitous cellular  
70 function (**Hess et al., 2005; Spadaro et al., 2010; Astier and Lindermayr, 2012**), while  
71 tyrosine nitration seems to have a major role as an irreversible modification leading to  
72 protein inactivation (**Kolbert et al., 2017**).

### 74 **S-nitrosation: mechanism, specificity, selectivity, identification in plants**

75 The mechanism of S-nitrosothiol formation is an important issue for understanding  
76 the biological actions of NO. Often thiol-containing molecules like cysteine and  
77 glutathione have been used for S-nitrosation to yield low-molecular-weight S-nitrosothiols  
78 such as S-nitrosocysteine (CysNO) and GSNO and to study the S-nitrosation mechanism.  
79 However, the reactivity of NO with thiol groups is very low. Therefore, the formation of  
80 SNOs depends on the generation of reactive intermediates (**Hill et al., 2010; Broniowska  
81 and Hogg, 2012**). As a free radical ( $\cdot\text{NO}$ ), it can lose or gain electrons to become oxidized  
82 nitrosonium cation ( $\text{NO}^+$ ) or reduced nitroxyl anion ( $\text{NO}^-$ ) species, each with different  
83 oxidation state for the nitrogen atom (+2, +3, and +1 respectively) (**Arnelle and Stamler,  
84 1995**). Moreover, in aerobic, biological milieu, NO can be oxidized to its +5 oxidation state  
85 to form non-reactive nitrate anion ( $\text{NO}_3^-$ ). The existence of NO in different redox status  
86 multiplies the possibilities to form S-nitrosothiols *via* various pathways (**Fig 1**). For  
87 instance, NO can be oxidized to the highly reactive dinitrogen trioxide ( $\text{N}_2\text{O}_3$ ), which is an  
88 effective S-nitrosating agent. Moreover, the NO radical can react with highly electrophilic  
89 thiyl ( $\text{RS}^\bullet$ ) radicals. Furthermore, redox-active metals, e. g. such as those present in  
90 heme groups, can catalyze SNO formation. Finally, S-nitrosothiols can transfer their NO  
91 moiety to cysteine thiol in a trans-nitrosation reaction. This is of special importance in  
92 context of the physiological NO donors CysNO and GSNO (**Hess et al., 2005; Smith and  
93 Marletta, 2012; Kovacs and Lindermayr, 2013**). But also S-nitrosated protein cysteine  
94 residues can function as NO donors. Several nitrosated proteins are described to  
95 transferring their NO group to target proteins or low molecular weight thiols, e. g.  
96 hemoglobin (**Pawloski et al., 2001**), thioredoxin (**Mitchell and Marletta, 2005; Mitchell**

97 **et al., 2007; Wu et al., 2010)**, caspase-3 (**Nakamura and Lipton, 2013**), cyclin-  
1 98 dependent kinase 5 (**Qu et al., 2011**), glyceraldehyde 3-phosphate dehydrogenase  
2  
3 99 (**Kornberg et al., 2010; Zaffagnini et al., 2013**), and non-canonical catalase ROG1  
4  
5 100 (**Chen et al., 2020**).  
6

7 101 The microenvironment around a cysteine residue defines its NO accessibility and  
8  
9 102 reactivity. Cysteine residues exhibiting a low-pKa sulfhydryl group are particularly  
10  
11 103 susceptible to certain types of redox modification (**Spadaro et al., 2010**). In the past,  
12  
13 104 different consensus motifs for S-nitrosation have been defined by comparing the amino  
14  
15 105 acid sequences around identified target cysteine residues. In general, such NO sensitive  
16  
17 106 cysteine residues are often located within an acid-base or hydrophobic motif (**Stamler et**  
18  
19 107 **al., 2001**), while **Greco et al. (2006)** supported the idea of extending the motif beyond  
20  
21 108 the primary sequence including hydrophobic motifs nearby the target cysteine residues  
22  
23 109 (**Greco et al., 2006**). Based on amino acid sequence comparison of S-nitrosated proteins,  
24  
25 110 several different consensus sequences for S-nitrosation have been described. **Stamler**  
26  
27 111 **and colleagues (1997)** proposed an acid-base motif for protein S-nitrosylation and  
28  
29 112 denitrosylation. The acid-base motif comprises flanking acidic (Asp (D), Glu (E)) and basic  
30  
31 113 (Arg (R), His (H), Lys (K)) residues to the reactive thiol cysteine sites ([KRHDE]-C-[DE]).  
32  
33 114 Moreover, a GSNO binding motif is described ([HKR]-C-[hydrophobic]X[DE]) (**Hess et al.,**  
34  
35 115 **2005**). Analysis of 1195 sequences of S-nitrosated peptides identified in *GSNOR-KO*  
36  
37 116 plants (**Hu et al., 2015**) revealed 10 motifs, including EXC, EC, CD, CE, CXXE, CXD,  
38  
39 117 CXE, DXXC, DC, and EXXXC, harboring conserved negatively charged amino acids  
40  
41 118 glutamate (E) or aspartate (D) in close proximity of the S-nitrosated cysteine residue.  
42  
43 119 Although such charged motifs have been shown to be predictive in a number of cases,  
44  
45 120 the common features of acid-base motifs are still object of intense discussions and there  
46  
47 121 are still no general rules, which can explain which cysteine residue is a target for NO.

48  
49 122 In contrast, other studies have demonstrated on the peptide level that the  
50  
51 123 sequence of the surrounding amino acids has no significant effect on the reactivity of  
52  
53 124 cysteines towards S-nitrosation (**Taldone et al., 2005**). Moreover, analysis of 70 S-  
54  
55 125 nitrosation sites revealed that proximal acid–base motif, Cys pKa, sulfur atom exposure,  
56  
57 126 and hydrophobicity in the vicinity of the modified cysteine do not predict S-nitrosation  
58  
59 127 specificity. Instead, a revised acid-base motif that is located farther from the target  
60  
61 128 cysteine and in which the charged groups are exposed has been identified (**Marino and**  
62  
63 129 **Gladyshev, 2010**). This emphasizes also the importance of the three-dimensional  
64  
65

130 folding, which needs to be considered whenever defining the NO sensitivity of a cysteine  
131 residue (**Kovacs and Lindermayr, 2013**).

132 In recent two decades, much effort has been made to identify S-nitrosated proteins  
133 in plants. A number of indirect mass spectrometry (MS)-based proteomics approaches  
134 have been developed to identify S-nitrosated proteins and their modification sites from  
135 complex biological samples (**Jaffrey and Snyder, 2001; Hao et al., 2006, Camerini et  
136 al, 2007; Chouchani et al., 2010; Hu et al., 2015**). The biotin switch technique (BST) is  
137 the most widely used method and is based on the conversion of S-nitrosated Cys to  
138 biotinylated Cys (**Jaffrey and Snyder, 2001**). Such a labelling allows the detection of S-  
139 nitrosated proteins using specific anti-biotin antibodies and their enrichment by affinity  
140 chromatography using neutravidin matrices. Finally, the enriched proteins are identified  
141 by MS. Variants of the BST assay, including quantitative approaches and the use of  
142 protein microarrays have been reported and successfully used (**Torta et al., 2008; Astier  
143 et al., 2011; Seth and Stamler, 2011; Wang and Xian, 2011; Lee et al., 2014**). Including  
144 a digest step before purification allows the enrichment of peptides containing NO-targeted  
145 cysteine residues (SNOSID) (**Hu et al., 2015**). Modification of the BST method enabled  
146 quantification of S-nitrosated proteins *via* fluorescent labelling (**Santhanam et al., 2008**)  
147 or *via* the use of isobaric iodoacetyl tandem mass tags (iodoTMT) (**Qu et al., 2014**).  
148 Furthermore, proteins can also react with a thiol-reactive resin allowing on-resin  
149 enzymatic digestion before MS analysis. This resin-assisted capture (SNO-RAC) requires  
150 fewer steps, detects high-mass S-nitrosated proteins more efficiently, and facilitates  
151 identification and quantification of S-nitrosated sites by mass spectrometry (**Forrester et  
152 al., 2009; Kolbert et al., 2019**).

153 Until now, several hundreds of endogenously S-nitrosated proteins have been  
154 identified in proteome wide-scale studies in plants, whereas NO donor treatments are  
155 often used to increase the amount of S-nitrosated proteins. S-nitrosated proteins function  
156 in major cellular activities of the primary and secondary metabolism and regulate  
157 processes related to biotic and abiotic stress response (**Astier et al., 2012**). However,  
158 these candidates need confirmation by candidate-specific approaches for the  
159 physiological relevance. This includes also the identification of the NO-sensitive cysteine  
160 residue(s) of these proteins.

161  
162 **Tyrosine nitration: mechanism, specificity, selectivity, identification in plants**

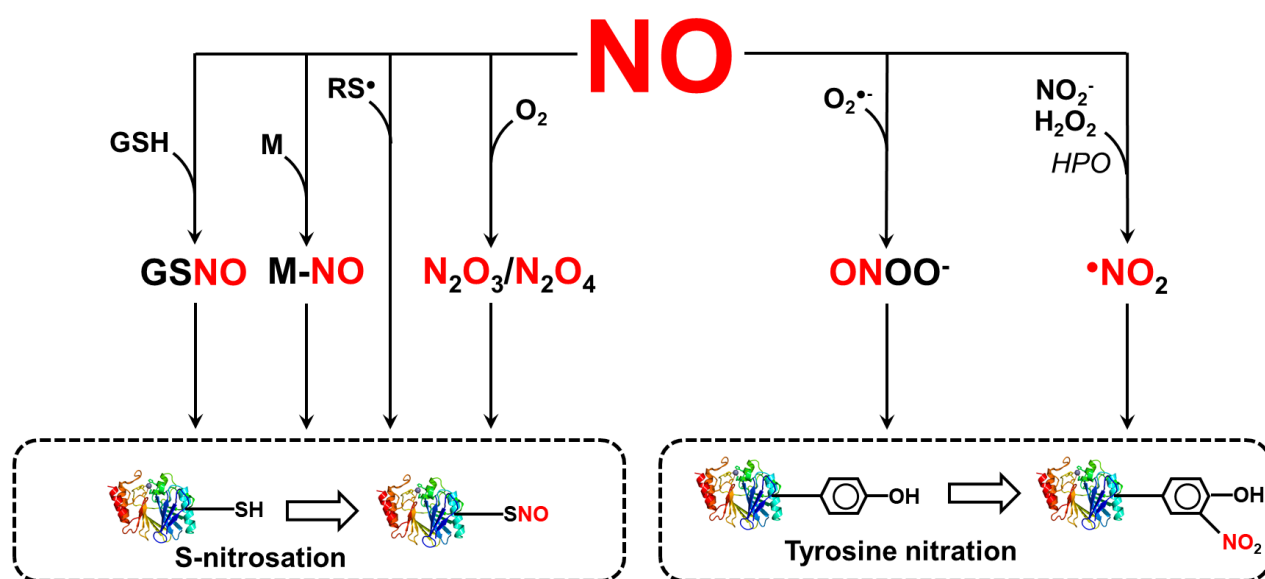


163 Tyrosine is a moderately hydrophilic aromatic amino acid, which is therefore often on  
164 the surface of the protein and thus subject to modifications. Nitration reaction may be  
165 catalysed by ONOO<sup>-</sup> or by nitrogen dioxide radical formed in the reaction between  
166 hydrogen peroxide and nitrite in the presence of hemoperoxidase enzyme. Peroxynitrite  
167 is a strong oxidizing and nitrating agent resulting from the reaction between superoxide  
168 anion radical and NO, mainly at the sites of superoxide formation (**Radi et al., 2001,**  
169 **Szabó et al., 2007, Fig 1**). During nitration of tyrosine amino acid, a nitro group is  
170 attached to the hydroxyl group of the *ortho* carbon atom in the aromatic ring leading to  
171 the formation of 3-nitrotyrosine (YNO<sub>2</sub>). The process takes place in two steps, since the  
172 attachment of the nitro group is preceded by a one electron oxidation of the tyrosine  
173 aromatic ring to tyrosyl radical. The major oxidants are hydroxyl radical and carbonate  
174 radical which originate from ONOO<sup>-</sup> due to diverse reactions (**Kolbert et al., 2017**). As a  
175 consequence of YNO<sub>2</sub> formation, the key physical and chemical properties including pKa,  
176 redox potential, hydrophobicity/hydrophilicity, molecular size of amino acids may be  
177 modified (**Sabadashka et al., 2021**). Due to these physico-chemical alterations, the  
178 structure and function of the target protein may be changed. In animal systems,  
179 accumulating evidence suggest the reversibility and consequently the signalling function  
180 of tyrosine nitration (**Sabadashka et al., 2021**). In contrast, most of the nitrated plant  
181 enzyme proteins examined in detail so far show activity loss indicating that tyrosine  
182 nitration may be a signal for degradation (**Kolbert et al., 2017**).

183 Protein tyrosine nitration is a relatively widespread PTM because it affects numerous  
184 proteins in different organs of plants grown under diverse conditions (both unstressed  
185 and stressed). At the same time tyrosine nitration can be considered as highly selective,  
186 since only 1-2% of the total tyrosine proteome (3% of the whole proteome) may be  
187 exposed to *in vivo* nitration (**Bartesaghi et al., 2007**). Consequently, the total yield  
188 (expressed as mole of 3-nitrotyrosine/mole tyrosine) is low, as was determined in  
189 hypocotyls of sunflower grown under physiological conditions (**Chaki et al., 2009**).  
190 Nitration of protein tyrosine is a selective process despite the fact that no consensus  
191 sequence ensuring selectivity has been convincingly confirmed (**Bartesaghi and Radi,**  
192 **2018**). Rather, some common features appear to affect YNO<sub>2</sub> formation such as the  
193 presence of acidic residues next to the YNO<sub>2</sub> site, cysteine or methionine neighbouring  
194 the target tyrosine residue and the presence of loop-forming amino acids such as proline  
195 or glycine (**Souza et al., 2008**). Beyond the amino acid sequence, additional factors

196 influence the nitration process including the centrifugal-centripetal position of the tyrosine  
 197 residue within the three-dimensional (3D) structure of the protein and the cellular and  
 198 redox environment of the target protein (Yeo et al., 2015; Bartesaghi and Radi, 2018).

199 In plant studies, the one- and two-dimensional gel electrophoresis followed by  
 200 immunochemical detection of nitrated proteins are frequently used approaches. Protein  
 201 identification by regular MS/MS in combination with immuno-enrichment of tyrosine-  
 202 nitrated peptides is possible. For detecting the nitrated peptides matrix-assisted laser  
 203 desorption/ionization-time of flight (MALDI-TOF) MS and LC-MS/MS can be used (Yeo  
 204 et al. 2015; Batthyány et al., 2017). In most plant studies, immune-affinity based  
 205 approaches was optimized for identifying tyrosine nitrated-proteins (e.g. Corpas et al.,  
 206 2008; Lozano-Juste et al., 2011; Cecconi et al., 2009; Tanou et al., 2012; Begara-  
 207 Morales et al., 2013ab, 2019; Takahashi and Morikava, 2019). However, false positive  
 208 detection may happen due to non-specific antibody binding and the identified protein  
 209 occasionally mismatch the protein database (Corpas et al., 2013a). Thus MS assays are  
 210 being continuously improved in order to provide more accurate detection of tyrosine  
 211 nitrated proteins and peptides (Ng et al., 2013; Tsikas and Duncan, 2013; Yeo et al.,  
 212 2015; Batthyány et al., 2017; Chaki et al., 2018). To date, large-scale studies identified  
 213 more than one hundred plant proteins as *in vivo* targets of tyrosine nitration in the organs  
 214 of healthy and stressed plants. For most of these proteins, the YNO<sub>2</sub> site and the change  
 215 in activity/function have not been studied.



216

**Fig 1.** Reactions leading to the formation of reactive nitrogen species which are responsible for posttranslational modifications such as S-nitrosation and tyrosine nitration. See explanations in the text. Abbreviations: NO, nitric oxide; GSH, glutathione; GSNO, S-nitrosoglutathione; M, metal; RS•, thiyl radical; O<sub>2</sub>, oxygen; N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>, dinitrogen trioxide; N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub>, dinitrogen tetroxide, O<sub>2</sub>•<sup>-</sup>, superoxide anion radical; ONOO<sup>-</sup>, peroxyntirite; NO<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup>, nitrite; H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>, hydrogen peroxide; HPO, hemoperoxidase; •NO<sub>2</sub>, nitrogen dioxide radical.

### Computational tools for predicting NO-dependent PTMs

Although many different experimental methods have been developed for accurate identification of NO target cysteine residues, these are often still associated with technical difficulties based on the instability of SNOs. For instance, direct detection of NO-modified thiols by MS or X-ray crystallography is still very challenging and only possible on recombinant proteins. Moreover, such approaches are time-consuming and cost-intensive. The situation is similar with the analytical determination of YNO<sub>2</sub>, as there are methodological challenges during the detection: (i) endogenous levels of YNO<sub>2</sub> are very low, (ii) the vast excess of tyrosine in the samples disturbs the detection and quantification of YNO<sub>2</sub> (iii) special precautions must be taken since YNO<sub>2</sub> may be formed during sample preparation (Tsikas and Duncan, 2013). Therefore, the computational approach of screening proteins for NO sensitive cysteine or tyrosine residues is an attractive alternative since the recent progress of machine learning makes possible the efficient use of computational prediction preceding the laboratory experimentation. With the availability of a huge amount of amino acid sequences, it is possible to develop computational methods for predicting SNO or YNO<sub>2</sub> sites in proteins. Such kind of information is very useful for both basic research and application. **Table 1** summarizes the developed tools either for predicting SNO sites or YNO<sub>2</sub> sites, or both.

**Table 1** List of software tools developed so far for predicting NO-dependent PTMs (S-nitrosation and tyrosine nitration). Modified from Bignon et al. (2018).

Name	Year	Availability	Link	number of citations (1st of June 2021)	Citation	Note
<u>SNO prediction</u>						

1	GPS-SNO	2010	web server, standalone	<a href="http://sno.biocuckoo.org/">http://sno.biocuckoo.org/</a>	157	Xue et al., 2010	
2							
3							
4							
5							
6	SNOSite	2011	web server	<a href="http://csb.cse.yzu.edu.tw/SNOSite/">http://csb.cse.yzu.edu.tw/SNOSite/</a>	69	Lee et al., 2011	link does n't work
7							
8							
9							
10							
11							
12	iSNO-PseACC	2013	web server	<a href="http://app.aporc.org/iSNO-PseAAC/index.html">http://app.aporc.org/iSNO-PseAAC/index.html</a>	345	Xu et al., 2013a	
13							
14							
15							
16							
17	iSNO-AAPair	2013	web server	<a href="http://app.aporc.org/iSNO-AAPair/">http://app.aporc.org/iSNO-AAPair/</a>	249	Xu et al., 2013b	
18							
19							
20							
21							
22	PSNO	2014	web server	<a href="http://59.73.198.144:8088/PSNO/">http://59.73.198.144:8088/PSNO/</a>	82	Zhang et al., 2014	link does n't work
23							
24							
25							
26							
27							
28	PreSNO	2019	web server	<a href="http://kurata14.bio.kyutech.ac.jp/PreSNO/">http://kurata14.bio.kyutech.ac.jp/PreSNO/</a>	21	Hasan et al., 2019	
29							
30							
31							
32							
33	RecSNO	2021	web server	<a href="http://nscbio.jbnu.ac.kr/tools/RecSNO/">http://nscbio.jbnu.ac.kr/tools/RecSNO/</a>	1	Siraj et al., 2021	
34							
35							
36							
37							
38	<u>YNO<sub>2</sub> prediction</u>						
39							
40							
41	GPS-YNO2	2011	web server, standalone	<a href="http://yno2.biocuckoo.org/">http://yno2.biocuckoo.org/</a>	66	Liu et al., 2011	
42							
43							
44							
45							
46	iNitro-Tyr	2014	web server	<a href="http://app.aporc.org/iNitro-Tyr/">http://app.aporc.org/iNitro-Tyr/</a>	209	Xu et al., 2014	
47							
48							
49							
50							
51							
52	PredNTS	2021	web server	<a href="http://kurata14.bio.kyutech.ac.jp/PredNTS/">http://kurata14.bio.kyutech.ac.jp/PredNTS/</a>	1	Nilamyani et al., 2021	
53							
54							
55							
56							
57	iNitroY-Deep	2021	webserv er	<a href="http://3.15.230.173/">http://3.15.230.173/</a>	0	Naseer et al., 2021	link does
58							
59							
60							
61							
62							
63							
64							
65							

						n't work
<i>Both SNO and YNO<sub>2</sub> prediction</i>						
DeepNitro	2018	web server	<a href="http://deepnitro.renlab.org">http://deepnitro.renlab.org</a>	33	Xie et al. 2018	

## Tools for computational prediction of S-nitrosation sites and testing their performance

The algorithms developed to identify NO-sensitive cysteine residues include GPS-SNO, SNOSite, iSNOPseAAC, iSNO-AAPair, RecSNO, PreSNO, and DeepNitro (Lee et al., 2011; Xu et al., 2013a; Xu et al., 2013b; Xue et al., 2010; Hasan et al., 2019; Xie et al., 2018; Siraj et al., 2021; Zhang et al., 2014). A big disadvantage of these computational methods is still the non-consideration of the 3D structure of the proteins. Cysteine residues, which might be predicted as target for S-nitrosation could be buried inside the protein and in this way inaccessible for NO. Moreover, for calculating the NO-sensitivity of a cysteine residue, the algorithms consider only amino acids, which are nearby a cysteine residue in the primary structure. However, in the folded protein amino acids, which are far away in the primary structure, could get in close vicinity of a cysteine residue and affect its microenvironment.

The first released online tool for SNO-site prediction was GSP-SNO 1.0 in 2010 (Xue et al., 2010). The leave-one-out validation and 4-, 6-, 8-, 10-fold cross-validations were calculated to evaluate the prediction performance and system robustness. The GPS 3.0 algorithm performed quite well with an accuracy of 75.70%, a sensitivity of 55.32% and a specificity of 80.11% under the low threshold. The online service and local packages of GPS-SNO 1.0 were implemented in JAVA 1.4.2 and freely available at: <http://sno.biocuckoo.org/>.

One year later, the software tool SNOSite was presented (Lee et al., 2011). The authors used a total of 586 experimentally identified S-nitrosation sites from S-nitroso-L-penicillamine (SNAP)/L-cysteine-stimulated mouse endothelial cells for an informatics analysis on S-nitrosation sites including structural factors such as the flanking amino acids composition, the accessible surface area and physicochemical properties, i.e. positive charge and side chain interaction parameter. Maximal dependence

275 decomposition (MDD) has been applied to obtain statistically significant conserved motifs.  
1 276 Support vector machine (SVM) is applied to generate predictive model for each MDD-  
2 277 clustered motif. According to five-fold cross-validation, the MDD-clustered SVMs could  
3 278 achieve an accuracy of 0.902, and provides a promising performance in an independent  
4 279 test set. The MDD-clustered model was adopted to construct an effective web-based tool,  
5 280 named SNOSite (<http://csb.cse.yzu.edu.tw/SNOSite/>), for identifying S-nitrosation sites  
6 281 on the uncharacterized protein sequences. At the time of writing this review, SNOSite is  
7 282 not available.

14 283 In 2013, a new predictor, called iSNO-PseAAC, was developed for identifying the  
15 284 SNO sites in proteins by incorporating the position-specific amino acid propensity  
16 285 (PSAAP) into the general form of pseudo amino acid composition (PseAAC) (**Xu et al.,**  
17 286 **2013a**). The predictor was implemented using the conditional random field (CRF)  
18 287 algorithm. The overall cross-validation success rate achieved by iSNO-PseAAC in  
19 288 identifying nitrosylated proteins on an independent dataset was over 90%, indicating that  
20 289 the new predictor is quite promising. A web server for iSNO-PseAAC is available at  
21 290 <http://app.aporc.org/iSNO-PseAAC/>, where users can easily obtain the desired results  
22 291 without the need to follow the mathematical equations involved during the process of  
23 292 developing the prediction method. Then same group published another prediction tool  
24 293 called iSNO-AAPair (**Xu et al., 2013b**). This algorithm was developed by considering the  
25 294 coupling effects for all the pairs formed by the nearest residues and the pairs by the next  
26 295 nearest residues along protein chains. A web server for iSNO-AAPair was established at  
27 296 <http://app.aporc.org/iSNO-AAPair/>.

40 297 In 2014, Zhang and co-workers presented a new bioinformatics tool, named  
41 298 PSNO, to identify SNOs from amino acid sequences (**Zhang et al., 2014**). They explored  
42 299 various promising sequence-derived discriminative features, including the evolutionary  
43 300 profile, the predicted secondary structure and the physicochemical properties and used  
44 301 the relative entropy selection and incremental feature selection approach to select the  
45 302 optimal feature subsets. Afterwards, they trained their model by the technique of the  $k$ -  
46 303 nearest neighbour algorithm. Using both informative features and an elaborate feature  
47 304 selection scheme, the PSNO method achieved good prediction performance with a mean  
48 305 Mathews correlation coefficient ( $MCC$ ) value of about 0.5119 on the training dataset using  
49 306 10-fold cross-validation. The PSNO web server was established at  
50 307 <http://59.73.198.144:8088/PSNO/>, but at the time of writing this review it is not accessible.

308 Four years later, Xie and colleagues developed a computational tool for predicting  
1 nitration and nitrosation sites in proteins (**Xie et al., 2018**). They constructed positional  
2 amino acid distributions, sequence contextual dependencies, physicochemical  
3 properties, and position-specific scoring features, to represent the modified residues.  
4  
5 Based on these encoding features, they established a predictor called DeepNitro using  
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7 deep learning methods for predicting S-nitrosation. Using n-fold cross-validation, the  
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9 evaluation shows great AUC value for DeepNitro, of 0.70 for cysteine nitrosation,  
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11 demonstrating the robustness and reliability of the predictor. The application of deep  
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13 learning method and novel encoding schemes, especially the position-specific scoring  
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15 feature, seems to improve the accuracy of S-nitrosation site prediction. DeepNitro is  
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17 implemented in JAVA and PHP and is freely available for academic research at  
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19 <http://deepnitro.renlab.org>.  
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22 A novel predictor PreSNO has been developed that integrates multiple encoding  
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24 schemes by the support vector machine and random forest algorithms (**Hasan et al.,**  
25  
26 **2019**). The PreSNO achieved an accuracy and MCC value of 0.752 and 0.252  
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28 respectively in classifying between SNO and non-SNO sites when evaluated on the  
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30 independent dataset, outperforming the existing methods. The web application of the  
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32 PreSNO and its associated datasets are freely available at  
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34 <http://kurata14.bio.kyutech.ac.jp/PreSNO/>.  
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36  
37 The latest SNO-site prediction tool is called RecSNO and was published in 2021  
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39 by Siraj and colleagues (**Siraj et al., 2021**). They proposed an end-to-end deep learning  
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41 based S-nitrosation site predictor with an embedded layer and bidirectional long short-  
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43 term memory. This method uses amino acid sequences as inputs without any need for  
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45 complex features interventions. This sequence-based protein prediction method is  
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47 associated with a significant improvement in identification of S-nitrosation sites. The best  
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49 prediction of the proposed architecture showed an improvement of in MCC 3% on 5-fold  
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51 cross validation and 5% on an independent test dataset. The user-friendly publicly  
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53 available web server is accessible at <http://nscbio.jbnu.ac.kr/tools/RecSNO/>.  
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56 It has to be emphasized that the prediction tools GPS-NO and DeepNitro have  
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58 both an option for selecting a threshold (low, medium, high) allowing to altering the  
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60 stringency of the SNO site prediction. Similarly, a threshold between 0 and 1.0 can be  
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62 selected in RecSNO. All other available SNO site prediction tools work with a fixed  
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64 stringency.  
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341 NO-sensitive cysteine residues can be experimentally identified/verified by MS or  
1 342 by generation and analysis of cysteine mutants. Although MS allows the direct  
2 343 identification of the modified cysteine residues, cysteine mutants are often additionally  
3 344 analysed, especially if the physiological function of the S-nitrosated protein needs to be  
4 345 characterized. In this case, knock-out/knock-down plants of the NO-sensitive protein is  
5 346 complemented with corresponding cysteine mutants to get hints to the physiological  
6 347 function of the S-nitrosated proteins and to verify the NO-sensitivity of the cysteine  
7 348 residue(s) *in vivo*. This approach is the gold standard for characterisation of protein S-  
8 349 nitrosation. However, because of different reasons such as *in vivo* analyses are not  
9 350 always possible, e. g. if knock-out/knock-down lines are not available. In this case,  
10 351 recombinant proteins of the cysteine mutants can be produced and analysed for their NO-  
11 352 sensitivity, provided, that enzymatic or functional assays are available. Until now, 32 NO-  
12 353 sensitive cysteine residues have been identified/verified in 26 plant proteins by MS or by  
13 354 generation and analysis of cysteine mutants (**Table 2**). We have chosen these 26 proteins  
14 355 to compare the prediction efficiency of the available SNO site prediction software. **Table**  
15 356 **2** shows that the different computational programs have predicted SNO sites in the  
16 357 selected proteins with different efficiency. GPS-SNO, iSNO-PseAAC, iSNO-AAPair and  
17 358 RecSNO identified between 20 and 22 of the 26 analysed proteins as targets for S-  
18 359 nitrosation, whereas DeepNitro and PreSNO identified 15 and 10, respectively. Moreover,  
19 360 the first published online tool for SNO site detection, GPS-SNO, as well as the newer  
20 361 tools DeepNitro and PreSNO predict 31, 24 and 16 putative SNO sites, respectively,  
21 362 including 13 (GPS-SNO) and 9 (DeepNitro and PreSNO) verified SNO sites. These three  
22 363 prediction tools have a hit rate (number of matched SNO sites divided by the total number  
23 364 of predicted SNO sites) of 42% (GPS-SNO), 38% (DeepNitro) and 56% (PreSNO). The  
24 365 other computational tools, such as iSNO-PseAAC, iSNO-AAPair or RecSNO predict a  
25 366 much higher number of putative NO-sensitive cysteine residues - 83, 39, and 60,  
26 367 respectively – whereas only 11 (iSNO-PseAAC), 7 (iSNO-AAPair) and 10 (RecSNO) are  
27 368 matching with experimentally identified/verified SNO sites. This quite high rate of mis-  
28 369 prediction is making these three tools less useful. The prediction efficiency of the different  
29 370 online tools is further characterized by calculating their sensitivity (Sn), specificity (Sp)  
30 371 and accuracy (AC) as described by **Nilamyani et al. (2021) (Table 3)**. Sensitivity is the  
31 372 proportion of true positives that are correctly identified by the prediction algorithm,  
32 373 specificity is the proportion of the true negatives correctly identified by the software and



374 accuracy is the proportion of true results, either true positive or true negative, in a  
1 375 population (**Wihinen, 2012**).

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379 **Table 2** List of plant proteins in which the S-nitrosated cysteine residues have been  
 1 380 experimentally identified. S-nitrosated sites in the listed proteins were computationally  
 2 381 predicted using GSP-SNO 1.0, iSNO-PseAAC, iSNA-AAPair, DeepNitro, PreSNO and  
 3 382 RecSNO software. Bold indicates matched cysteine residue.  
 4 383

Protein name	Accession number	Total number of Cys	Identified by LC-MS/MS or mutation	Predicted by GPS-SNO 1.0 (medium threshold)	Predicted by iSNO-PseAAC (2013)	Predicted by iSNO-AAPair (2013)	Predicted by DeepNitro (2018) (medium threshold)	Predicted by PreSNO (2019)	Predicted by RecSNO (2020) (0.6 threshold)	Citation
NPR1	At1g64280	17	<b>C156</b>	<b>C156</b> , C385	C212, C306	C223, C306, C394, C457	non	non	C82, C212, C216, C223, C378, C394, C457	Tada et al., 2008
SAMS1	At1g02500	8	<b>C114</b>	<b>C114</b>	C161	C31, C90, C161	non	<b>C114</b>	C45, C73, C90, C161	Lindermayr et al., 2006
OST1 (SnRK2.6)	At4g33950	7	<b>C137</b>	non	C107, C159, C203	C131, C203	non	<b>C137</b>	C159,	Wang et al., 2015
ASK1	At1g75950	3	<b>C37</b> , <b>C118</b>	<b>C118</b>	non	C59, <b>C118</b>	<b>C118</b>	non	C59, <b>C118</b>	Iglesias et al., 2018
SCE1	At3g57870	4	<b>C139</b>	non	C94, <b>C139</b>	<b>C139</b>	<b>C139</b>	non	non	Skelly et al., 2019
SRG1	At3g46080	7	<b>C87</b>	<b>C87</b>	<b>C87</b>	C28	non	non	C18, C28,	Cui et al., 2018
AHP1	At3g21510	4	<b>C115</b>	non	C104	<b>C115</b>	non	non	non	Feng et al., 2013

cALD2	At2g3646 0	6	<b>C173</b>	C68, C326	C326	C208	C326	non	C197, C208, C326	van der Linde et al., 2011
TIR1	At3g6298 0	23	<b>C140</b>	C516, C551	C34, C53, C121, <b>C140</b> , C155, C210, C269, C288, C311, C405, C480, C491	C121, <b>C140</b> , C405, C551	C53, C516	non	C53, C121, C551	Terrile et al., 2012
MC9	At5g0420 0	7	<b>C147</b>	C17, <b>C147</b>	C17, C29	C117	C17, C29, <b>C147</b>	<b>C147</b>	C17, C29, C117, <b>C147</b> , C251	Belengh i et al., 2007
PRXII E	At3g5296 0	2	<b>C121</b>	<b>C121</b>	<b>C121</b> , C146	<b>C121</b>	<b>C121</b>	<b>C121</b>	<b>C121</b> , C146	Romero -Puertas et al., 2007
GAPDH	At1g1344 0	2	<b>C156</b> , <b>C160</b>	<b>C156</b> , <b>C160</b>	non	non	<b>C156</b> , <b>C160</b>	<b>C156</b> , <b>C160</b>	<b>C156</b>	Holtgref e et al., 2008
SABP3	At3g0150 0	7	<b>C280</b>	C34, C173, <b>C280</b>	C230, C257	C34	non	non	C34, C173, C230	Wang et al., 2009
NADPH Oxidase (RBOH D)	At5g4791 0	10	<b>C890</b>	non	C208, C387, C433, C480, C695	C412, C480, C695, <b>C890</b>	C695, <b>C890</b>	non	C433, C695, <b>C890</b>	Yun et al., 2011

TGA1	At5g6521 0	4	<b>C172,</b> <b>C287</b>	<b>C172</b>	non	non	non	C260, C266	non	Linderm ayr et al., 2010
CDC48	Q1G0Z1 <i>Nicotiana tabacum</i>	14	<b>C110,</b> <b>C526,</b> <b>C664</b>	C426, C576	C74, C82, <b>C110,</b> C526, C539, C576, <b>C664,</b> C699	C74, C426, C539, C576	<b>C110,</b> C419, C539, <b>C664</b>	<b>C526,</b> C539	C74, C82, <b>C110,</b> C272, C539, C695	Astier et al., 2012
MYB30	At3g2891 0	7	<b>C53</b>	C6	C6, C7, C49, <b>C53,</b> C257, C289	C6, C7	C49	C49, <b>C53</b>	non	Tavares et al., 2014
PDK1	Q5I6E8, <i>Solanum lycopersic um</i>	4	<b>C128</b>	C214	C128, C214, C244, C466	non	non	non	non	Liu et al., 2017
GSNOR	At5g4394 0	15	<b>C10</b>	<b>C10,</b> C283	<b>C10,</b> C59, C77, C117, C125, C189, C283, C296, C385	C59	non	non	<b>C10,</b> C382, C385	Guerra et al., 2016; Zhan et al., 2018
ROG1	At1g2062 0	7	<b>C343</b>	non	C230, C370, C402, C420	C402	C230	non	C86, C230, C370, C402	Chen et al., 2020
cFBP1	AAD1021 3, <i>Pisum sativum</i>	7	<b>C153</b>	C173	C178	C92, C306	C306	non	C49, C92, C306	Serrato et al., 2018

1	APX1	At1g0789 0	5	<b>C32</b>	C119	<b>C32,</b> C138	C19, <b>C32</b>	C138	<b>C32,</b> C49	<b>C32,</b> C49, C138	Yang et al., 2015
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4	ABI5	At2g3627 0	4	<b>C153</b>	<b>C153,</b> C440	C56, C440	non	C440	non	<b>C153,</b> C293	Albertos et al., 2015
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10	PRMT5	At4g3112 0	12	<b>C125</b>	<b>C125</b>	C17, C70, <b>C125,</b> C141, C189, C238, C260, C610, C611	C238, C260	non	non	<b>C125,</b> C160	Hu et al., 2015
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24	GAPC1	At3g0412 0	2	<b>C149</b>	C156, C160	non	non	C156, C160	C156, C160	C156	Zaffagni ni et al., 2013
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29	VND7	At1g7193 0	4	<b>C264,</b> <b>C340</b>	C320	C58, C153, <b>C264,</b> C320	non	non	non	non	Kawabe et al., 2013
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36	<b>Number of proteins predicted as targets for NO</b>			<b>26</b>	<b>21</b>	<b>22</b>	<b>20</b>	<b>15</b>	<b>10</b>	<b>20</b>	
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49	<b>Predicted SNO sites</b>			<b>32</b>	<b>31</b>	<b>83</b>	<b>39</b>	<b>24</b>	<b>16</b>	<b>60</b>	
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54	<b>Cys match (verified vs.</b>				<b>13</b> <b>(42%)</b>	<b>11</b> <b>(13%)</b>	<b>7</b> <b>(18%)</b>	<b>9</b> <b>(38%)</b>	<b>9</b> <b>(56%)</b>	<b>10</b> <b>(17%)</b>	
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**Table 3** Values of sensitivity, specificity and accuracy of SNO predicting software tools. Metrics were calculated based on the predictions in 26 experimentally identified S-nitrosated plant proteins listed in Table 2.

Software	Sensitivity (Sn, %)	Specificity (Sp, %)	Accuracy (Acc, %)
GPS-SNO (medium threshold)	46.07	67.48	61.59
iSNO-PseAAC	42.66	45.14	46.89
iSNO-AAPair	26.00	63.92	56.64
DeepNitro (medium threshold)	24.66	47.96	43.38
PreSNO	29.20	29.96	29.77
RecSNO (0.6 threshold)	33.20	42.69	44.00

### Tools for computational prediction of tyrosine nitration sites and testing their performance

The first software for predicting YNO<sub>2</sub> sites in proteins using the FASTA format of peptide sequence was GPS-YNO<sub>2</sub> 1.0 which was published in 2011 by **Liu and co-workers (Liu et al, 2011)**. The algorithm is based on the biochemical properties of neighbouring amino acids and it showed promising performance (accuracy of 76.51%, sensitivity of 50.09%, specificity of 80.18%) using leave-one-out validation and 4-, 6-, 8-, 10-fold cross-validations. The tool can be used online or as a local package both implemented in JAVA. It is freely available at: <http://yno2.biocuckoo.org/>.

In 2014, a novel predictor algorithm called iNitro-Tyr was developed (**Xu et al., 2014**). It is based on the incorporation of the position-specific dipeptide propensity into the general pseudo amino acid composition which allows the proper discrimination of the YNO<sub>2</sub> sites from the non-nitrated ones. It was demonstrated by the rigorous jackknife tests that iNitroTyr shows higher success rate and stability and is less noisy than GPS-YNO<sub>2</sub>. This algorithm indicates the total number of tyrosine residues within the protein sequence which is useful information. iNitroTyr is freely available online at: <http://app.aporc.org/iNitro-Tyr/>.

In 2018, DeepNitro a predictor simultaneously identifies sites of S-nitrosation, tyrosine nitration and tryptophan nitration has been developed (**Xie et al., 2018**).

One of the most recent computational predictors for identifying YNO<sub>2</sub> sites is PredNTS published by **Nilamyani et al. (2021)**. The algorithm was developed by integrating multiple sequence features including K-mer, composition of k-spaced amino acid pairs, AAindex and binary encoding schemes. Using a comprehensive dataset,

415 PredNTS outperformed the previously developed predictors. The software is freely  
416 available at: <http://kurata14.bio.kyutech.ac.jp/PredNTS/>.

417 The other recently developed predictor is iNitroY-Deep which uses pseudo amino  
418 acid compositions and deep neural networks (DNNs) (Naseer et al., 2021). Using widely-  
419 accepted model evaluation measures, iNitroY-Deep outperformed the previously  
420 published nitrotyrosine predictor tools. The web server was established at  
421 <http://3.15.230.173/>, but at the time of writing this review it is not accessible.

422 In order to evaluate the performance of the available tyrosine nitration predicting  
423 tools, we performed *in silico* analysis of proteins with nitrated tyrosine residues identified  
424 by LC-MS/MS. Among those, 11 proteins were tested by GPS-YNO<sub>2</sub> and iNitro-Tyr in our  
425 previous work (Kolbert et al., 2017) and the list has been supplemented by recently  
426 identified proteins (Table 4). Of the 15 nitrated proteins, 14 were identified as candidates  
427 by GPS-YNO<sub>2</sub> software, 12 by iNitro-Tyr, 13 by DeepNitro and 15 by PredNTS. In the 15  
428 proteins, 36 YNO<sub>2</sub> sites have been experimentally identified and the number of YNO<sub>2</sub>  
429 sites predicted by the software tools was variable. The DeepNitro tool assigned 27  
430 tyrosine amino acids as candidates for being nitrated (which is the 75% of the  
431 experimentally identified sites), while the recently developed PredNTS indicated 104 sites  
432 in 15 proteins, which is 3-fold more than the experimentally identified sites. Both GPS-  
433 YNO<sub>2</sub> and iNitro-Tyr predicted 41 YNO<sub>2</sub> sites in 15 proteins. The highest number of YNO<sub>2</sub>  
434 sites were assigned by PredNTS, and accordingly this tool showed the highest match  
435 rate, since one or more predicted nitrated sites matched the experimentally identified  
436 ones for 12 of the 15 proteins. When we calculated the hit rate, we found that those are  
437 relatively low, and DeepNitro had the highest hit value (26%). It has to be noted that of  
438 the 36 MS-identified YNO<sub>2</sub> sites only 18 sites matched the predictions of one of the  
439 programmes indicating 50% agreement between *in silico* and experimental results. This  
440 number was significantly lower (only 4 out of 26, 15%) when two software tools (GPS-  
441 YNO<sub>2</sub> and iNitro-Tyr) were tested (Kolbert et al., 2017). It can be concluded that all  
442 available tools are advisable to use for a certain protein in order to predict as many YNO<sub>2</sub>  
443 sites as possible.

444  
445 **Table 4** List of plant proteins in which the nitrated tyrosine residues have been  
446 experimentally identified. Nitration sites in the listed proteins were computationally  
447 predicted using GSP-YNO<sub>2</sub> 1.0, iNitro-Tyr, DeepNitro, PredNTS software. Bold indicates  
448 matched tyrosine residue.



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Protein name	Accession number	Total number of Tyr	Identified by LC-MS/MS or mutation	Predicted by GPS-YNO2 (2011) (medium threshold)	Predicted by iNitro-Tyr (2014)	Predicted by DeepNitro (2018) (medium threshold)	Predicted by PredNTS (2021)	Citation
MS1	At5g17920	26	Y287	Y463, Y469, Y698	Y141, Y623, Y650	Y141, <b>Y287</b> , Y463	Y8, Y132, Y141, Y161, Y188, Y226, Y243, <b>Y287</b> , Y453, Y463, Y581, Y740	Lozano-Juste et al., 2011
OASA1	At4g14880	7	Y302	Y158	non	<b>Y302</b>	Y20, Y91, Y143, Y158, Y192, Y203, <b>Y302</b>	Álvarez et al., 2011
psbA	AtCg00020	12	Y262	Y73, Y107, Y237, Y246	Y246	Y237, Y246	<b>Y262</b>	Galetskiy et al., 2011
IDH (NADP)	Q6R6M7 <i>Pisum sativum</i>	14	Y392	Y69, Y210, Y221, Y274	Y172, Y185, Y221, Y233, Y241, Y259, Y274	Y274	Y43, Y69, Y141, Y172, Y185, Y210, Y221, Y233,	Begara-Morales et al., 2013a

							Y274, <b>Y392</b>	
APX, cytosolic	P48534 <i>Pisum sativum</i>	7	Y5, Y235	<b>Y5</b>	<b>Y5</b> , Y93	non	<b>Y5</b> , Y12, Y224, Y235	Begara-Morales et al., 2013b
HPR, peroxisomal	At1g68010	11	Y97, Y108, Y198	Y10, <b>Y108</b> , Y150	Y10,Y150, Y251	<b>Y97</b> , Y180	<b>Y97</b>	Corpas et al., 2013b
PYR1	At4g17870	4	Y23, Y58, Y120	non	non	<b>Y23</b>	<b>Y23</b> , <b>Y58</b> , <b>Y120</b> , Y143	Castillo et al., 2015
MnSOD1, mitochondrial	At3g10920	10	Y38, Y40, Y63, Y67, Y198, Y199, Y202	<b>Y63</b> , Y226	<b>Y63</b> , <b>Y67</b> , Y226	<b>Y63</b>	<b>Y63</b> , <b>Y67</b> , Y209, Y221, Y226	Holtzmeister et al., 2015
Leghemoglobin-1	P02232 <i>Vicia faba</i>	3	Y25, Y30, Y133	Y134	non	non	<b>Y25</b> , <b>Y30</b> , Y134	Sainz et al., 2015
MDHAR	Q66PF9 <i>Pisum sativum</i>	22	Y213, Y292, Y345	Y154, Y34	Y7, Y192, <b>Y292</b>	<b>Y292</b> , Y383	Y7, Y44, Y53, Y89, Y114, Y143, Y154, Y172, <b>Y292</b> , Y305, Y383	Begara-Morales et al., 2015

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PSBO1	At5g66570	8	Y9	Y94, Y102, Y328	Y236	Y94, Y102, Y131, Y236	Y94, Y102, Y169, Y328	Takahashi et al., 2015
NADP-MAE1	At2g19900	25	Y73	Y129, Y204, Y235, Y248, Y522, Y528, Y550	Y235, Y263, Y286, Y550, Y580	Y235, Y248, Y550	Y66, Y92, Y99, Y114, Y235, Y148, Y263, Y343, Y522, Y528, Y550, Y573, Y577, Y580	Begara-Morales et al., 2019
CDKA1	A0A3L6F4W4 <i>Zea mays</i>	11	Y15, Y19	Y11, Y178, Y222	Y78, Y231	<b>Y15</b>	Y11, <b>Y15</b> , Y73, Y78, Y178, Y194	Méndez et al., 2020
NIA1	At1g77760	30	Y548, Y614, Y714, Y771,	Y10, <b>Y548</b> , Y908	Y10, Y83, Y431, Y851, Y908	Y241, Y266, Y395, Y624	Y10, Y62, Y82, Y83, Y266, Y286, Y330, Y331, Y333, Y390, Y395, Y397, <b>Y548</b> , <b>Y614</b> , Y624, <b>Y714</b> ,	Costa-Broseta et al., 2021

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							Y771, Y802, Y851, Y862, Y908	
NIA2	At1g37130	34	Y545, Y714, Y771	Y10, Y77, <b>Y545</b> , Y908	Y77, Y392, Y428, Y568, Y802, Y908	Y182, Y271	Y10, Y76, Y77, Y99, Y182, Y271, Y328, Y387, Y382, Y394, <b>Y545</b> , Y611, Y621, <b>Y771</b> , Y802, Y819, Y822, Y843, Y851, Y908	Costa-Broseta et al., 2021
<b>Number of proteins predicted as targets for NO</b>			15	14	12	13	15	
<b>Predicted YNO2 sites</b>			36	41	41	27	123	

<b>Tyr match (verified vs. predicted)</b>				5 (12%)	4 (10%)	7 (26%)	21 (17%)	
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Furthermore, based on the previously identified 15 nitrated proteins, sensitivity, specificity and accuracy were calculated in order to evaluate the performance of the software tools (**Table 5**). The highest Sn value (~62%) was obtained in case of PredNTS, but the Sp and AC values of this tool were relatively low. The highest AC value was shown by the DeepNitro software supporting its better performance compared to the other programmes. In general, the above mentioned values are relatively low which indicates that the agreement of the *in silico* predictions with experimental data is moderate. This is partly due to the limitations of MALDI based methods used for identifying YNO<sub>2</sub> sites in proteins (**Ytterberg and Jensen, 2010**) and to the fact that prediction algorithms do not consider the 3D structures of the proteins which greatly affect the sensitivity to tyrosine nitration.

**Table 5** Values of sensitivity, specificity and accuracy of YNO<sub>2</sub> predicting software tools. Metrics were calculated based on the predictions in 15 experimentally identified nitrated plant proteins listed in Table 2.

Software	Sensitivity (Sn, %)	Specificity (Sp, %)	Accuracy (Acc, %)
GPS-YNO2 (medium threshold)	10.00	65.70	57.36
iNitro-Tyr	7.40	60.66	52.36
DeepNitro (medium threshold)	24.21	77.11	62.86
PredNTS	61.76	39.15	49.38

## Conclusion and future perspectives

Both S-nitrosation and tyrosine nitration are NO-dependent PTMs affecting plant proteins of various kinds from structural proteins to transporters and enzymes. S-nitrosation is directly involved in cell signalling while tyrosine nitration is thought to result in protein instability and degradation and it may indirectly affect signal transduction. Both PTMs are selective and specific, since not every Cys/Tyr is nitrosated/nitrated in a

475 protein's amino acid chain and not every Cys/Tyr-containing proteins are targets of these  
1 476 modifications. In the case of *S*-nitrosation various consensus amino acid sequences have  
2 477 been suggested; however, there is still no general rule explaining which cysteine residue  
3 478 is a target for NO. Similarly, there is no amino acid motif or any definite pattern in the  
4 479 protein structure which determines the target tyrosine for nitration. For both NO-  
5 480 dependent PTMs, some common physico-chemical features have been revealed. In the  
6 481 future, intensive effort should be directed on revealing the high-resolution structure of the  
7 482 microenvironment around each cysteine/tyrosine residue to get information about the  
8 483 physicochemical features that determine *S*-nitrosation/tyrosine nitration specificity.

16 484 In order to assign the target Cys and Tyr residues within a certain protein, specific  
17 485 computational tools have been developed. In the last ten years, 11 computational tools  
18 486 for predicting *S*-nitrosation, tyrosine nitration or both based on different algorithms have  
19 487 been created. In Table 1, the number of references indicates that these tools are  
20 488 frequently used by the scientific community. This is not surprising, since the predictors  
21 489 rapidly generate extensive information, while the laboratory experiments are lengthy and  
22 490 often technically cumbersome. Our tests on plant proteins showed that there are  
23 491 discrepancies between the experimentally confirmed and the predicted PTM sites, which  
24 492 may be due in part to the fact that the algorithms don't take into account the 3D protein  
25 493 structure.

34 494 Therefore, computational prediction of SNO or YNO<sub>2</sub> sites can't substitute  
35 495 laboratory work but can provide a starting point for experimental verification and the  
36 496 combination of computer-based prediction and experimental verification represents still a  
37 497 promising approach for a better understanding of the molecular mechanisms and the  
38 498 regulatory functions of protein *S*-nitrosation and tyrosine nitration. Before planning  
39 499 experiments, it is advisable to use all the available tools on the proteins of interest and  
40 500 compare the results of the predictions. Based on our analyses on plant proteins, *S*-  
41 501 nitrosation sites can be predicted by the available tools with higher confidence compared  
42 502 to the sites of tyrosine nitration. However, computational prediction still must be  
43 503 developed further to improve the precision with which *S*-nitrosation/tyrosine nitration-sites  
44 504 are identified. In this context, probably machine learning systems (artificial intelligence)  
45 505 based on experimentally verified *S*-nitrosated cysteine residues and nitrated tyrosine  
46 506 residues and 3D protein structures could provide a step further to successful prediction  
47 507 of NO-dependent PTM sites. But all these prediction approaches can finally not replace

508 the experimental analysis of the function of S-nitrosated or tyrosine nitrated proteins,  
509 including recombinant proteins, site-directed mutagenesis and *in vivo* experiments.

510  
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**Contributions:**

ZsK: Conceptualization; Analyses (Bioinformatics); Writing - original draft; Writing - review & editing.

CL: Conceptualization; Analyses (Bioinformatics); Writing - original draft; Writing - review & editing.



**Declaration of interests**

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

The authors declare the following financial interests/personal relationships which may be considered as potential competing interests: