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# Exploring urinary proteomics and peptidomics biomarkers for the diagnosis of mekong schistosomiasis

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# ABSTRACT

Schistosomiasis caused by *Schistosoma mekongi* is one of the causative agents of human blood fluke infection in the lower Mekong River. Traditionally, the detection of egg morphology in stool samples has served as the prevailing method for diagnosing *Schistosoma* infection. Nonetheless, this approach exhibits low sensitivity, particularly in early infection detection. Urine has been extensively studied as a noninvasive clinical sample for diagnosing infectious diseases. Despite this, urine proteomic analysis of *S. mekongi* infection has been less investigated. This study aimed to characterize proteins and peptides present in mouse urine infected with *S. mekongi* both before infection and at intervals of 1, 2, 4, and 8 weeks post-infection using mass spectrometry-based proteomics. Proteomics analysis revealed 13 up- and only one down-regulated mouse protein consistently found across all time points. Additionally, two *S. mekongi* uncharacterized proteins were detected throughout the infection period. Using a peptidomics approach, we consistently identified two peptide sequences corresponding to *S. mekongi* collagen alpha-1(V) in mouse urine across all time points. These findings highlight the potential of these unique proteins, particularly the *S. mekongi* uncharacterized proteins and collagen alpha-1(V), as potential biomarkers for early detection of *S. mekongi* infection. Such insights could significantly advance diagnostic strategies for human Mekong schistosomiasis.

### **1. Introduction**

Schistosomiasis is a neglected tropical disease caused by blood flukes of the genus *Schistosoma*. This disease remains one of the most serious parasitic diseases, causing chronic human illness with serious consequences for socioeconomic development in tropical countries [\[1\]](#page-12-0). It is a widely distributed trematode infection in tropical regions with an estimated over 200 million people worldwide [\[2\]](#page-12-0). In Africa and South America, human schistosomiasis is caused mainly by *Schistosoma mansoni*, *S. haematobium,* and *S. intercalatum*, whereas *S. japonicum* and *S. mekongi* are the most common causative agents of intestinal schistosomiasis in Asia. *S. mekongi* affects communities in the Mekong River Basin, particularly in the southern Lao People's Democratic Republic (Lao PDR) and in northern Cambodia [[3](#page-12-0)]. At present, an estimated 140,000 people are still at risk of *S. mekongi* infection; 80,000 in Cambodia and 60,000 in Laos

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#### [\[4\]](#page-12-0).

Severe hypersensitivities such as acute Katayama syndrome and chronic granulomatous diseases are the main pathogenicity of schistosomiasis. The patients can have fever, malaise, myalgia, headache, eosinophilia, fatigue, and abdominal pain lasting 2–10 weeks. The systemic hypersensitivity reaction occurs during the migrating schistosomula stage, worm maturation, egg production, and the release of egg antigens [[5](#page-12-0)]. The parasite eggs trapped in the host organs and tissues cause the granulomatous inflammatory reaction that causes chronic schistosomiasis [[2](#page-12-0)]. Accurate diagnostic methods are the first step in eliminating schistosomiasis and reducing morbidity [\[5\]](#page-12-0). The Kato–Katz method is commonly used to detect *S. mekongi* eggs based on the egg morphology in stool samples using microscopy. However, this method is insensitive when patients have a light infection with low egg intensity [\[6\]](#page-12-0). An immunochromatographic test (ICT) based on anti-schistosomal antibody detection in human sera has been developed using somatic antigens from adult *S. mekongi* [\[7\]](#page-12-0). Schistosome-specific antigens have been evaluated using *S. mansoni* antigens [[8](#page-12-0)], and crude antigen and recombinant antigens of *S. japonicum* to detect *S. mekongi-*directed antibodies in human serum [\[9\]](#page-12-0). Immunodiagnostic techniques are sensitive, easy to perform, and useful as epidemiological tools for screening targeted populations in schistosome-endemic areas [[10\]](#page-12-0). Serological assays for detecting anti-schistosome specific antibodies are beneficial for travelers, migrants, and individuals in low-transmission areas. However, this technique may show cross-reactivity with other helminth infections, and the assay results can remain positive for several years after treatment [\[2\]](#page-12-0). The circulating anodic antigens (CAAs) and circulating cathodic antigens (CCAs) are proteoglycans that can be identified in urine using enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay (ELISA) or monoclonal antibody-based lateral flow tests. Detection of CAA and CCA indicates active infection in the presence of worms before egg production begins [\[5\]](#page-12-0). The antigen test offers higher specificity and can differentiate between active and past infections. Unlike other schistosome species, there are currently no CAA- or CCA-based ELISA or lateral flow tests available for detecting *S. mekongi*. Molecular methods based on polymerase chain reaction (PCR) have been developed to differentiate and identify *S. mekongi* from the major important human schistosomes including *S. mansoni*, *S. haematobium*, *S. japonicum* [[11\]](#page-12-0). A real-time PCR assay combined with melting-curve analysis has been developed for detecting *S. mekongi* DNA in infected snails and rat feces [\[12](#page-12-0)]. PCR is more sensitive than microscopic egg detection [\[13](#page-13-0)]. However, the use of stool or urine samples for molecular techniques is limited due to inhibitors present in the samples [[14\]](#page-13-0). PCR-based methods are costly, require skilled personnel, and are not practical in field settings [[1](#page-12-0)]. Improvements in diagnostic methods are necessary to enhance the precision of schistosomiasis diagnosis and reduce morbidity. The selection of specific biomarkers is crucial for diagnosing various phases of infection, including acute and chronic phases, as well as post-treatment stages [[15\]](#page-13-0).

Proteomic analysis is a high-throughput technology that analyzes protein expression using gel- or non-gel-based protein separation techniques, coupled with mass spectrometry and bioinformatics [\[16](#page-13-0)]. Protein identification from biological samples including tissue, blood, urine, and stool can provide biomarkers for the detection and development of the disease, guiding targeted treatment [[17\]](#page-13-0). Urine serves as a biological fluid for identifying novel biomarkers that could potentially aid in diagnosis. The non-invasive procedure is generally painless and low risk for patients undergoing diagnosis  $[18]$  $[18]$ . Proteomics has been applied to identify schistosome proteins from complex samples including the egg protein of *S. mekongi* [\[19](#page-13-0)] and somatic and excretory-secretory proteins of adult *S. mekongi*  [\[20](#page-13-0)].

This study aimed to identify a candidate protein biomarker for early detection of *S. mekongi* in urine samples utilizing a mouse model of schistosomiasis. Urine samples collected before infection and at various timepoints (1, 2, 4, and 8 weeks post-infection) were analyzed by gel electrophoresis coupled with mass spectrometry (LC-MS/MS). These findings provide new candidate biomarkers in urine samples for protein-based diagnosis of early *S. mekongi* infection.

### **2. Materials and methods**

#### *2.1. Preparation of infected mouse*

All animal experiments were approved by the Faculty of Tropical Medicine Animal Care and Use Committee (FTM-ACUC), Mahidol University (FTM-ACUC 017/2022). Mice experimentally infected with *S. mekongi*, were maintained in the Animal Care Unit, Faculty of Tropical Medicine, Mahidol University. Eight-week-old female ICR mice (3 mice) had their abdomen area shaved and were infected by 30 cercariae of *S. mekongi* using a hairpin loop. Urine was collected at 1, 2, 4, and 8 weeks post-infection. The urine samples were kept at − 80 ◦C until use.

#### *2.2. Protein separation from mouse urine*

The urine samples were thawed on ice and centrifuged at 1000 g for 30 min at 4 ℃. The supernatants were collected, and the protein concentration in the urine supernatants was determined using the Bradford method. The average concentration was 4.17 mg/ ml. According to the protein concentration measured by Bradford, the volumes of urine containing thirty μg of protein were dissolved in 2x Laemmli Sample Buffer (BIO-RAD, CA, USA) and loaded onto gel electrophoresis. The urine proteins were separated using 12 % SDS-PAGE. The gel was stained with Coomassie Brilliant Blue R250. All gel bands were excised into 12 pieces in each lane and processed for in-gel tryptic digestion.

### *2.3. In-gel tryptic digestion*

Proteins within each gel piece were destained with 50 % acetonitrile in 50 mM ammonium bicarbonate until colorless. The gel pieces were reduced by 4 mM dithiothreitol at 60 ◦C for 45 min. After reduction, the gel pieces were alkylated with 250 mM <span id="page-2-0"></span>iodoacetamide at room temperature in the dark for 30 min, and the reaction was quenched by adding 4 mM dithiothreitol at room temperature for 5 min. Gel pieces were dehydrated by adding 100 % acetonitrile. The supernatant was removed. Gel pieces were rehydrated by adding 10 ng/ul trypsin (Sigma-aldrich, USA) in 50 mM ammonium bicarbonate followed by 50 mM ammonium bicarbonate containing 5 % acetonitrile. The solution was incubated at 37 ◦C overnight. The peptides were extracted by adding acetonitrile and incubating at room temperature for 20 min. The peptide solution was transferred to a new microcentrifuge tube and dried by using a centrifuge concentrator (Tomy, Japan).

# *2.4. Peptide preparation*

The urine samples were centrifuged at 1000 g for 30 min at 4 °C. The urine supernatants were filtered using Amicon Ultra 0.5 mL with 30 kDa molecular weight cutoff (Millipore, Germany), centrifuged at 15,000×*g*, 4 ◦C for 20 min. Peptides in the samples were desalted and enriched using C18 ZipTips (Millipore, Germany). The tips were rinsed with 50 % acetonitrile and then equilibrated with 0.1 % trifluoroacetic acid (TFA). The samples were washed with 0.1 % TFA and eluted in 5 μl of 80 % acetonitrile, 0.1 % TFA solution. The peptide solution was dried by using a centrifuge concentrator (Tomy, Japan).

#### *2.5. Mass spectrometric analysis*

The peptide was resuspended with 0.1 % formic acid and injected into a nano-liquid chromatography system (Dionex Ultimate 3000, Surrey, UK). The peptide mixture was loaded onto the Acclaim PepMap RSLC 75  $\mu$ m  $\times$  15 cm nanoviper C18 with a 2  $\mu$ m particle size and a 100  $A<sup>°</sup>$  pore size (Thermo Scientific, Waltham, USA). The nanoflow LC system was coupled with a MicroTof Q II mass spectrometer (Bruker; Bremen, Germany). Mass spectrometer data covered *m*/*z* ranges of 500–3500 *m*/*z*.

The MS/MS spectra were analyzed with data analysis software (Bruker Daltonics), converted to mgf files, and searched against the mouse database using the MASCOT search engine 2.3 (Matrix Science, Chicago, USA) with the following parameter settings: trypsin digestion; one missed cleavage; variable modifications of carbamidomethyl (C) and oxidation (M). Peptide tolerance was 0.8 Da, and fragment mass tolerance was ±0.8 Da.

To identify the proteins and peptides of *S. mekongi* in the urine sample, we used an in-house *S. mekongi* transcriptomic database. Detailed information about the *S. mekongi* transcriptome can be found in the study by Phuphisut O et al., 2018 [\[21](#page-13-0)]. The protein



**Fig. 1.** SDS-PAGE analysis of *S. mekongi* infected mouse urine before (uninfected) and at 1, 2, 4, and 8 weeks after infection.

abundance was performed semi-quantitatively using the exponentially modified protein abundance index (emPAI) [\[22](#page-13-0)].

To identify mouse serum protein differentiation, the UniProt database was used for analysis, and the organism was set as *Mus musculus*. The statistical analysis was performed using the Perseus software platform [\(https://maxquant.net/perseus/\)](https://maxquant.net/perseus/). A fold change cutoff of 2 was applied for both upregulated and downregulated proteins, and a *t*-test was used to determine significance at p *<* 0.05. Principal component analysis (PCA) and partial least squares discriminant analysis (PLS-DA) were analyzed using MetaboAnalyst 6.0. Protein-protein interaction of up-regulated mouse urine proteins was analyzed using the String database. Gene ontology was assigned using the Uniprot database.

# *2.6. Bioinformatic analysis*

The protein sequence of the *S. mekongi* accession no Gene.25154 and Gene. 22949 were retrieved from the nonredundant protein database of the National Center for Biotechnology Information (NCBI). The protein sequences of *S. mansoni*, *S. japonicum*, *Mus musculus,* and *Homo sapiens* were obtained from the nonredundant protein database of NCBI. The sequences of identified proteins were submitted to a BLAST server ([http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/BLAST/\)](http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/BLAST/) to find similar sequences. All sequence alignments and calculations of percent identity were performed using the Clustal Omega software.

The peptide sequences of the *S. mekongi* were retrieved from an in-house transcriptome database. The protein sequence of *S. mekongi*, *S. mansoni*, *S. japonicum*, *Mus musculus,* and *Homo sapiens* were obtained from the nonredundant protein database of NCBI. Sequences of identified proteins were submitted to a BLAST server [\(http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/BLAST/\)](http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/BLAST/) to find similar sequences. All sequence alignments and calculations of percent identity were performed using the Clustal Omega software.

# **3. Results**

#### *3.1. Proteomic analysis of mouse urine infected with S. mekongi*

Urine samples obtained from experimental mice infected with *S. mekongi* were subjected to SDS-PAGE separation [\(Fig. 1\)](#page-2-0) followed by Mass spectrometry analysis to identify up-regulated and down-regulated mouse proteins in the urine at four timepoints relative to pre-infection. Volcano plots of mouse urine proteins quantification at 1, 2, 4, and 8 weeks post-infection relative to pre-infection determined by LC-MS/MS were provided in Supplemental Data 1. Principal component analysis (PCA) and partial least squares discriminant analysis (PLS-DA) were performed for feature extraction and discriminant analysis between uninfected and infected mice (Fig. 2A and B). Uninfected mouse samples clustered separately from infected mouse samples. PLS-DA provided better sample differentiation. Throughout the time course, the number of up-regulated proteins was higher than the down-regulated proteins. Twenty, twenty-five, twenty-four, and thirty-seven mouse proteins were up-regulated at 1, 2 4, and 8 weeks respectively, whereas only one mouse protein was down-regulated at each time point [\(Table 1,](#page-4-0) [Table 2\)](#page-6-0).

The up-regulated mouse urine proteins at 1, 2, 4, and 8 weeks post-infection were analyzed for their protein-protein interaction [\(Supplemental Data 2](#page-12-0)). The results indicated that structural molecule activity (GO:0005198) and negative regulation of insulin secretion involved in the cellular response to glucose stimulus (GO:0061179) were observed at 1, 2, and 4 weeks post-infection. At 8 weeks post-infection, in addition to the interactions found earlier, acute phase response (KW-0011) and complement alternate pathway



**Fig. 2.** Clustering mouse urine samples based on protein expression with (A) Principal component analysis (PCA) and (B) Partial least squares discriminant analysis (PLS-DA). Samples from three mice before (uninfected) and at 1, 2, 4, and 8 weeks after infection were included.

<span id="page-4-0"></span>Mouse proteins up-regulated at 1, 2, 4, and 8 weeks post-infection relative to pre-infection, as determined by LC-MS/MS.



(*continued on next page*)

# **Table 1** (*continued* )



<span id="page-6-0"></span>



(KW-0179) were also detected. All mouse urine proteins exhibiting up-regulation were also used to construct a Venn diagram (Fig. 3). The common thirteen mouse proteins demonstrated up-regulation consistently at 1, 2, 4, and 8 weeks post-infection. These include keratin, type I cuticular Ha5; major urinary protein 2; keratin, type II cytoskeletal 5; keratin, type II cytoskeletal 2 epidermal; proepidermal growth factor; complement factor D; keratin, type I cytoskeletal 24; kallikrein-1; serum albumin; major urinary protein 6; major urinary protein 3; uromodulin and major urinary protein 1. Conversely, only one protein - monocyte differentiation antigen CD14 - was consistently down-regulated across all four infection timepoints ([Table 3\)](#page-7-0). These identified differentially expressed mouse proteins hold promise as potential diagnostic markers for Mekong schistosomiasis.

# *3.2. Proteomic analysis of S. mekongi proteins in mouse urine*

Urine samples obtained from experimental mice infected with *S. mekongi* were determined by SDS-PAGE separation. Mass spectrometry analysis was performed to identify the proteins. All identified *S. mekongi* proteins are shown in [Table 4](#page-8-0) and S2. There were 11, 11, 8, and 18 *S. mekongi* proteins in infected mouse urine at the 1st, 2nd, 4th, and 8th weeks after infection. Among all *S. mekongi*  proteins in urine, only two *S. meknogi* proteins were detected in all four infection time points [\(Fig. 4\)](#page-10-0). The proteins were accession numbers as Gene 25154 and Gene 22949 and identified as uncharacterized proteins [\(Table 4\)](#page-8-0). The alignment of these two proteins was conducted, comparing them with corresponding counterparts in the human and mouse proteomes, aiming to assess their potential candidacy as biomarkers for Mekong schistosomiasis.

# *3.3. Alignment of S. mekongi protein sequence*

The sequence of *S. mekongi* uncharacterized protein (Gene.25154) was aligned with orthologs in other *Schistosoma* species including *S. mansoni* and *S. japonicum*. The protein was also aligned with the mouse (*Mus musculus*) and human (*Homo sapiens*) proteins. All sequences were provided in Supplemental Data 3. The sequence of *S. mekongi* uncharacterized protein (Gene.25154) showed stronger similarity to its orthologs in *S. mansoni* (52.1 %) and *S. japonicum* (81.6 %) than to its orthologs in mouse (27.4 %) and human (27.8 %) [\(Fig. 5](#page-10-0)).

Whereas the BlastP analysis revealed none of the hit of similarity between the *S. mekongi* uncharacterized protein (Gene.22949) to the human and mouse genomes. These observations together underscore the potential of the *S. mekongi* uncharacterized proteins (Gene.25154) and (Gene.22949) as promising biomarker candidates, given their divergence from the host proteins.



**Fig. 3.** Venn diagram of up-regulated proteins at 1, 2 4, and 8 weeks after infection.

<span id="page-7-0"></span>Mouse urine proteins up-regulated or down-regulated at all four timepoints of infection.



#### *3.4. Peptidomics analysis of S. mekongi in mouse urine by mass spectrometry*

Peptides from infected mouse urine at 1, 2, 4, and 8 weeks were identified by mass spectrometry and searched against the in-house *S. mekongi transcriptome. Among the identified <i>S. mekongi peptides, only two peptides were found in all four timepoints. Peptides* GLPGLPGLPGLPGHRGHKG and GLPGLPGLPGLPG were found in all four timepoints. The parent protein of these two peptides was collagen alpha-1(V) [\(Table 5](#page-11-0)).

The sequence of *S. mekongi* collagen alpha-1 protein was aligned with other *Schistosoma* species including *S. mansoni* and *S. japonicum*. The protein was also aligned with mouse (*Mus musculus*) and human (*Homo sapiens*) proteins. All sequences were provided in Supplemental Data 4. The sequence of *S. mekongi* collagen alpha-1 protein showed strong similarity to the sequence of *S. mansoni* (90.4 %) and *S. japonicum* (97.3 %). In addition, *S. mekongi* collagen alpha-1 protein demonstrated much lower percent similarity to mouse and human sequences [\(Fig. 6\)](#page-11-0). Based on these findings, the collagen alpha-1 protein could be a viable candidate for the diagnosis of Mekong schistosomiasis.

# **4. Discussion**

In this study, the use of only female mice may be considered a limitation. The mice were infected with *S. mekongi* cercariae at 7 weeks of age, with an average weight ranging from 26.3 to 31.3 g. After 8 weeks of infection, the weight of the infected mice ranged from 30.1 to 37.3 g, showing an increase in weight with age. Proteomic analysis of mouse urine before and after *S. mekongi* infection was performed using SDS-PAGE and mass-spectrometry. Urine is easy to collect, providing a noninvasive means to obtain a sample in large quantity and a valuable source for diagnostic biomarker discovery [[23\]](#page-13-0). In our study, structural molecule activity (GO:0005198) and negative regulation of insulin secretion involved in the cellular response to glucose stimulus (GO:0061179) were up-regulated at 1, 2, and 4 weeks post-infection with *S. mekongi*. Cells of the immune system also express the insulin receptor and its downstream signaling components. The role of insulin signaling in controlling the immune response has been documented  $[24]$  $[24]$ . Therefore, the up-regulation of insulin signaling may be involved in the immune response following *S. mekongi* infection. Additionally, at 8 weeks post-infection, the acute phase response (KW-0011) and complement alternate pathway (KW-0179) were detected, indicating the activation of the mouse immune response to schistosome infection. Our analysis identified 13 up-regulated proteins at 1, 2 4, and 8 weeks in the urine after infection of mouse with *S. mekongi*. The major urinary protein (MUP) is a member family of lipocalin that is secreted in the circulation by the liver. MUP binds to lipophilic pheromones and regulates pheromone transportation and is excreted in urine. The function of circulating MUP is in metabolic glucose regulation and lipid metabolism [\[25](#page-13-0)]. The complement system is the first-line defense against invading pathogens. The human ortholog of MUP, lipocalin, is documented to be up-regulated in the uroepithelium and kidney of patients with urinary tract infections [\[26](#page-13-0)]. The up-regulation of MUPs could potentially be attributed to a host immune response, indicative of a defensive mechanism. Complement factor D is a 228-amino acid serine protease that circulates in a resting state at low plasma concentrations, primarily produced in adipocytes. Its main function is to cleave factor B, generating alternative pathway C3 convertases, making it a crucial and rate-limiting component in the alternative complement pathway amplification loop [[27\]](#page-13-0). The complement system comprises a set of plasma proteins capable of activation either directly by pathogens or indirectly through pathogen-bound antibodies. This activation triggers a cascade of reactions occurring on the pathogen's surface, resulting in the generation of active components with diverse effector functions  $[28]$  $[28]$ . The up-regulation of complement factor D may be implicated in the host immune response to *S. mekongi* infection. Epidermal growth factor (EGF) is the prototypical member of a family of peptide growth factors that activate the EGF receptors. The EGF receptor signaling pathway plays an important role in the proliferation, differentiation, and migration of a variety of cell types, especially in epithelial cells [\[29](#page-13-0)]. Patients undergoing anti-cancer

<span id="page-8-0"></span>therapy through the inhibition of the epidermal growth factor receptor (EGFR) were found to frequently experience skin infections attributed to *S. aureus*. The EGFR pathway plays a role in the induction of IL-1alpha and IL-1beta [\[30](#page-13-0)]. The observed up-regulation of EGF may be indicative of immune activation within the host organism. Kallikrein is a serine proteinase that produces the vasodilator kinin peptide from the kininogen substrate. The kallikrein–kinin system plays a role in the cardiovascular, renal, and central nervous systems [[31\]](#page-13-0). This system maintains homeostasis of arterial pressure. The disturbance of this system may cause the pathogenesis of arterial high blood pressure and other cardiovascular disorders [[32\]](#page-13-0). In *Trypanosoma cruzi* the proteolytic mechanisms governing the host/parasite equilibrium in peripheral sites of *T. cruzi* infection induced inflammatory edema and activated the kallikrein-kinin system, thereby promoting the stimulation of protective type-1 effector T cells [[33\]](#page-13-0). The parasitic infection has the capability to activate the kallikrein-kinin system, thereby facilitating an immune response. The infection by *S. mekongi* may contribute to an

### **Table 4**

The proteins of *S. mekongi detected by LC-MS/MS* in the urine samples from *S. mekongi infected mice at 1, 2, 4, and 8-week timepoints*. The red color denotes proteins that are consistently identified at all timepoints. The protein abundance represents in terms of the Exponentially modified protein abundance index (emPAI).





<span id="page-10-0"></span>

**Fig. 4.** Venn diagram of identified *S. mekongi* proteins in mouse urine at 1, 2 4, and 8 weeks after infection.

	Homo sapiens	Mus musculus	S. mansoni	S. mekongi	S. japonicum
Homo sapiens	100.0	610	24.4	27.8	28.0
Mus musculus	61.0	100.0	24.9	27.4	26.0
S. mansoni	24.4	24.9	100.0	52.1	53.0
S. mekongi	27.8	27.4	52.1	100.0	81.6
S. japonicum	28.0	26.0	53.0	81.6	100.0

**Fig. 5.** Percent identity matrix of *S. mekongi* uncharacterized protein (Gene.25154) in *S. mansoni*, *S. japonicum*, mouse, and human.

elevated expression of Kallikrein, consequently promoting mouse immune responses. Uromodulin is a glycoprotein, produced and secreted by tubular epithelial cells. The highly expressed uromodulin is related to kidney development and urinary tract obstruction leads to leukocyte recruitment and inflammatory kidney diseases [[34\]](#page-13-0). The observed augmentation in urinary uromodulin levels may be indicative of a host immune response. Serum albumin is a common protein found in serum. In Brazil, an estimated 1.5 million individuals are afflicted with *S. mansoni* infection, and up to 15 % of diagnosed cases progress to renal impairment. Renal involvement in schistosomiasis is characterized by high-incidence glomerular lesions, particularly prevalent in chronically infected individuals residing in regions of elevated endemicity. Urinary creatinine and albumin were observed in *S. mansoni* infection resulting from kidney injury [\[35](#page-13-0)]. Nevertheless, the literature addressing schistosomiasis was correlated with urinary albumin as a biomarker of kidney injury. The down-regulated monocyte differentiation antigen CD14 was found in mouse urine at 1, 2, 4, and 8 weeks after infection The monocyte differentiation antigen CD14 is a pattern recognition receptor (PRR) that enhances innate immune responses against bacterial infection [\[36](#page-13-0)]. In humans, monocyte antigen CD14 was found in normal controls [[37\]](#page-13-0). The major secretory product derived from *S. mansoni* eggs induces the release of IL-4/IL-13 from basophils, thereby inhibiting the release of inflammatory cytokines from human monocytes. These observations underscore the pivotal role of egg antigens in mediating the regulatory influence exerted by schistosomes on host inflammation [\[38](#page-13-0)]. The downregulation of the monocyte differentiation antigen CD14 could potentially indicate the *Schistosoma* parasite's suppression of host immunity. Due to the differential expression of mouse proteins identified in the urine of *S. mekongi* infected mice, a substantial proportion of these proteins are implicated in host immunity and contribute to the pathological response after infection. The differential observed in mouse proteins holds potential as biomarkers for diagnosing Mekong schistosomiasis. Nevertheless, it is essential to acknowledge that these alterations may lack specificity exclusive to *Schistosoma* infection, as similar protein differentials could manifest in response to infections by other pathogens. Consequently, these mouse proteins could serve as valuable supplementary diagnostic information when integrated with other diagnostic techniques. The identification *S. mekongi* proteins and peptides in urine could be more specific for schistosomiasis diagnosis. For *S. mekongi* protein identification, uncharacterized proteins (Gene.25154) and (Gene.22949) could be observed in infected urine. They could be potential biomarkers for Mekongi schistosomiasis diagnosis. Some *S. mekongi* proteins were upregulated in the 2nd, 4th, and 8th weeks but not in the 1st week. This finding may be related to the 1-week incubation periods, during which the schistosomula mature into adult forms without producing eggs [[39\]](#page-13-0). Symptoms typically appear between 2 and 6 weeks after exposure, aligning with the maturation of adult forms, mating, and egg-laying [\[40](#page-13-0)]. It has been postulated that the condition is caused by the passage of soluble antigens from the eggs into the bloodstream, resulting in an inflammatory response [\[41](#page-13-0)]. The increase in *S. mekongi* proteins found in the urine in the 2nd, 4th, and 8th weeks of exposure might be related to these soluble antigens and the excretory-secretory products from *S. mekongi* eggs.

For *S. mekongi* peptide identification, two peptide sequences derived from collagen alpha-1(V) could be observed at all time points. Collagen is the most abundant protein in the extracellular matrix and the major structure element of connective tissue [[42\]](#page-13-0). Collagen alpha-1(V) is a regulator of collagen fibril formation, matrix assembly, and tissue function [\[43](#page-13-0)]. In *S. japonicum*, the collagen alpha-1 (V) chain was among the top 25 genes enriched in cercariae, hepatic schistosomula, mixed adult worms, and eggs [\[44](#page-13-0)]. Upon invading a mammalian host, schistosomes have developed intricate mechanisms to adapt to and thrive in the challenging host environment. Notably, they manifest a distinctive syncytial tegument and employ strategies such as antigenic mimicry [\[45](#page-13-0)], immune modulation

<span id="page-11-0"></span>The peptides originating from *S. mekongi*, observed in urine samples from *S. mekongi* infected urine across the 1, 2, 4, and 8-week intervals identified using LC-MS/MS. The red color denotes proteins that are consistently identified in all weeks after infection.





**Fig. 6.** Percent identity matrix of collagen alpha-1 proteins in *S. makongi*, *S. mansoni*, *S. japonicum*, mouse and human.

[\[46](#page-13-0)], and evasion [[47,48\]](#page-13-0). Among extracellular matrix constituents within hepatic schistosomula are collagen components, exemplified by collagen alpha-1(V) chain, alpha-1(IV) chain, alpha-1(XXIV) chain, alpha-2(I) chain, and alpha-2(V) chain. This observation explained the intriguing possibility that collagen components may serve to construct a protective barrier on the worm surface, potentially facilitating schistosomula in evading host immune responses. The identification of elevated expression levels of *S. mekongi*  collagen alpha-1(V) in mouse urine suggests a potential association with the heightened synthesis of this protein, contributing to the formation of the worm surface. This phenomenon may also play a role in facilitating host evasion strategies employed by the parasite. The uncharacterized proteins (Gene.25154), (Gene.22949) and collagen alpha-1(V) exhibited notable homology with *Schistosoma* spp., displaying comparatively lower similarity to corresponding proteins in mice and humans. This suggests that uncharacterized proteins (Gene.25154), (Gene.22949) and collagen alpha-1(V) hold promise as a candidate biomarker in the development of *Schistosoma*  diagnostic assays, particularly in urine samples.

Based on our results, these protein and peptide biomarkers could be detected by mass spectrometry. However, further validation is

<span id="page-12-0"></span>required to assess their sensitivity for antigen-antibody interaction detection. Additionally, validation is needed to confirm the crossdetection of other pathogen infections. The characterization of the identified candidate biomarker within human urine may yield valuable insights, potentially contributing to the early diagnosis of schistosomiasis.

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#### **Data availability statement**

All the mass spectrometry raw data have been deposited in the Science Data Bank repository, accession number 10.57760/sciencedb.08682 [\(https://www.scidb.cn/en/anonymous/YlFCZmlt](https://www.scidb.cn/en/anonymous/YlFCZmlt)).

# **Additional information**

No additional information is available for this paper.

# **CRediT authorship contribution statement**

**Tipparat Thiangtrongjit:** Writing – review & editing, Writing – original draft, Methodology, Formal analysis. **Poom Adisakwattana:** Writing – review & editing, Writing – original draft, Investigation, Formal analysis, Conceptualization. **Yanin Limpanont:** Resources, Methodology. **Wang Nguitragool:** Writing – review & editing, Writing – original draft, Supervision, Funding acquisition, Conceptualization. **Phiraphol Chusongsang:** Resources. **Yupa Chusongsang:** Resources. **Nuttapohn Kiangkoo:** Resources. **Onrapak Reamtong:** Writing – review & editing, Writing – original draft, Supervision, Methodology, Investigation, Formal analysis, Conceptualization.

# **Declaration of competing interest**

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.

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# **Appendix A. Supplementary data**

Supplementary data to this article can be found online at [https://doi.org/10.1016/j.heliyon.2024.e35439.](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.heliyon.2024.e35439)

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