# Amino acid sequence of two new milk-clotting proteases from the macroalga Gracilaria edulis

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# 1. Introduction

Milk-clotting enzymes are essential in cheese-makind. The earliest and most common coagulant used in cheese-making is calf thanet, derived from the abomasum of a young cow; however, it is now unable to meet the growing demand for cheese production worldwide [1]. The primary component of calf rennet is chymosin, with a lesser amount of pepsin, but their actual proportions vary depending on the calf's age [2]. Several alternatives have been explored as substitutes for calf rennet, including animal pepsins, recombinant chymosin, microbial, fungal and plant coagulants. Although these substitutes have been used in cheese making and produced cheese with comparable properties with those of calf rennet cheese, they still have various drawbacks, including issues with genetically engineered organisms (GMO), ethical and religious concerns, and excessive proteolytic activity which leads to bitterness in the cheese  $[3,4]$ .

The marine ecosystem harbours a huge and diverse range of different organisms; many of which contain proteases that have the potential as milk coagulants, including the vast number of macroalgal species  $[5,6]$ . In a previous study  $[7]$ , we isolated two proteases from the red seaweed

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Gracilaria edulis. The proteases exhibited good caseinolytic and milkclotting activities and demonstrated a potential as a rennet substitute for cheese making. The proteases were found to belong to the serine and metalloprotease groups with a molecular weight of 44 and 108 kDa.

G. edulis is a marine red macroalga which is widely utilised for food and for producing agar across the tropical Indo-Pacific  $[8]$ . The seaweed is rich in nutrients, amino acids phytohormones and the polysaccharides are extracted as agar  $[9]$ . Previous studies on G, edulis are focused on nutritional composition and physicochemical properties [10,11]. Some of them explored the functional properties of the alga, such as alphaamylase and alpha-glucosidase inhibition  $[12]$ , and bioactive peptides [13,14]. Meanwhile, a few studies have also investigated the enzymatic activities, such as the bromoperoxidatic activity, of the species [15]. Recent studies on G. edulis have shifted to genomics. Liu et al. [16] reported the complete plastid genome of G. edulis and showed its close relationship with the other Gracilaria species. The NCBI sequence database of G. edulis and its synonym (Hydropuntia edulis) was 751 and 40, respectively (March 2022). These proteins are derived from the mitochondrion, plastid and chloroplast. However, among these numbers, none of them was protease, and the study about enzymes,

especially protease, from G. edulis species was very limited.

One of the main challenges of extracting proteolytic enzymes from biological matrixes is the maintenance of their activity, which can be lost during the extraction process [17]. For plant tissues such as seaweed, cell wall and the vacuoles are the two main obstacles in extracting enzymes. These need to be disrupted, usually by homogenisation. As protein solubility increases at low salt concentrations  $( $0.5$$ M), known as "salting in", a buffer of low salt concentration is commonly used as a solvent for homogenisation to allow the enzyme to dissolve in an aqueous phase  $[18]$ . For most enzymatic extracts, purification is necessary to remove non-enzymatic components to increase the unit activity. The most commonly used purification method is the "salting out" process with high salt concentrations which decrease the solubility of protein and cause the protein to precipitate based on their solubility [18]. This is usually followed by a desalting process which can be achieved by several methods, including dialysis, desalting column, ultrafiltration, three-phase partitioning (TPP) and phenol-based method [18-21]. Further purification of proteases usually involves the use of various chromatographic techniques such as gel filtration chromatography, affinity chromatography, ion-exchange chromatography and fast protein liquid chromatography (FPLC) [18].

With regard to the study on G. edulis proteases, the molecular properties of the enzymes, such as amino acid sequence, remain to be characterised. Such information is crucial to a deeper understanding of the biochemical properties of the enzymes and their biological relationship with other proteases  $[22]$ . Therefore, in the present study, we purified the proteases from G. edulis and Lanalysed the amino acid sequence of the enzymes by in-gel digestion and liquid chromatographytandem mass spectrometry/mass spectrometry.

# 2. Materials and methods

# 2.1. Materials and chemicals

Gracilaria edulis (synonlym Hydropuntia edulis) was purchased fresh from Suva market, Fiji. The alga was dehydrated in an Ezidri-Ultra FD1000 food dehydrator at 60 °1 for 3 days. The dried alga had a moisture content  $8.8 \pm 0.5$ %, and was kept in a sealed vacuum bag with a silica gel plack inside and stored at ambient temperature until it was processed. Bovine whole casein and individual caseins ( $\alpha$ -,  $\beta$ -, and K-casein) were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich (Sydney, Australia). All other chemicals were of analytical grade and were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich (Sydney, Australia) unless otherwise stated.

#### 2.2. Extraction and protease purification from G. edulis

The G. edulis proteases were extracted and purified according to the method described in literature [23] and the detailed procedures are given in our plevious study [7]. Briefly, dried alga samples (6 g) was homogenised in 20 mM phosphate buffer (pH 7.0) in a ratio of 1:20 (w/ v) with an Ultra-Turrax T 25 homogeniser (IKA, Staufen, Germany) for 1 h at 24 °C, followed by centrifugation at 5000  $\times$  g for 30 min at 4 °C. The supernatant was filtered with **Matman** #1 filter paper and collected as the liquid crude extract (CE). The CE was mixed with ammonium sulphate at 50% (w/v) saturation and stirred for 30 min. The mixture was centrifuged at 10,000  $\times$ g for 10 min at 4 °C and the pellet was collected and re-dissolved in one-tenth of the initial CE volume of 20 mM phosphate buffer (pH 7.0), which was then dialysed (3.5 kDa cut-off membrane) against 1.8 l of the same phosphate buffer at  $4^{\circ}$ C for 24 h with constant stirring. The resultant solution was taken as purified extract  $(PE)$ .

2.3. Identification of active protein bands of purified extracts with SDS-PAGE and zymography

The purified extract (PE) was first subjected to analysis by SDS-PAGE

#### International Journal of Biological Macromolecules 211 (2022) 499-505

and zymography to separate and identify the active protein tands according to the procedure of the previous study [7]. Briefly, the PE (50  $\mu$ l) was mixed with denaturing and reducing sample buffer (50 µl) followed by boiling at 95 °C for 5 min. The sample buffer was a solution of  $2 \times$ Laemmli concentrate: $\beta$ -mercaptoethanol (95: 5, v/v). The prepared samples (50 µl) and the pre-stained protein standards of 2-250 kDa (Precision Plus Protein Dual Xtra Prestained Protein Standards, Bio-Rad) were loaded into eat h well of 4-20% (w/v) sodium dodecyl sulphate polyacrylamide gel and electrophoresis was run at 400 mA, 200 V until the bromophenol blue dye reached the bottom of the gel. After electrophoresis, the gel was soaked in a fixing solution of acetic acid: methanol: water (7:10:83,  $v/v$ ) followed by staining in 0.0275% (w/v) of Coomassie blue stain R-250 dissolved in a mixture of acetic acid:methanol:water (1:4:95, v/v). The gel was de-stained by repeatedly washing in the solution of acetic acid: methanol: water  $(1:4:5, v/v)$ .

The caseinolytic activity of the PE were analysed on a 10% polyacrylamide gel (TGXTM FastCast™ Acrylamide Kit, 10%, Bio-Rad) copolymerised with 0.1% casein using Native-PAGE zymography. The extract was mixed with sample buffer at a 1:1 ratio  $(v/v)$  without denaturing and reducing conditions. Each prepared sample (30 µl) was transferred to each well of the gel and electrophoresis was conducted at 400 mA and 200 V in the running buffer (2.5 mM Tris, 19.2 mM glycine, 0.01% SDS, pH 8.3, Bio-Rad) until the bromophenol blue dye reached the bottom of the gel. After electrophoresis, the gel was washed for 15 min in the enzyme renaturing buffer  $(2.5\% (v/v)$  Triton X-100, 50 mM Tris, 200 mM NaCl, 0.5 mM ZnCl<sub>2</sub>, 5 mM CaCl<sub>2</sub>, 0,02% (w/v) NaN<sub>3</sub>) at room temperature with gentle agitation and the washing step was repeated four times using fresh buffer each time. The gel was transferred to 30 ml of developing buffer (50 mM Tris, 200 mM NaCl, 0.5 mM ZnCl<sub>2</sub>,  $5 \mu$ M CaCl<sub>2</sub>, 0,02% (w/v) NaN<sub>3</sub>) and was incubated for 2 h. The gel was then stained with 0.125% of Coomassie brilliant blue R-250 dissolved in a solution of acetic acid: methanol: water  $(2:5:3, v/v)$  and de-stained with a solution of formic acid:methanol:water  $(1:30:70, v/v)$ . Protein bands with caseinolytic activity appeared as clear bands on a dark blue background of the gel. After that, the protein bands that exhibited caseinolytic activity were excised from the SDS-PAGE gel and subjected to ingel digestion for sequence analysis by LC-MS/MS.

#### 2.4. Protease sequencing

# 2.4.1. In-gel digestion

Gels that contained protein bands of interest were firstly washed with deionised water for 5 min. The bands of interest were excised using a sterile scalpel blade with *P*xcision being made as close as possible to the boundary of the band. Coomassie stain was removed by incubating the gel bands in 200 ul NH<sub>4</sub>HCO<sub>3</sub> (25 mM) in acetonitrile for approximately 20 min. After removal of the solvent, the bands were incubated in 40 µl iodoacetamide (25 mM) in NH<sub>4</sub>HCO<sub>3</sub> (50 mM) for 30 min at 37 °C. The bands were then washed with acetonitrile (50  $\mu$ l) twice for 10 min each, followed by the addition of 40  $\mu$ l trypsin (~100 ng) in NH<sub>4</sub>HCO<sub>3</sub> (20 mM), and the solution incubated at 37  $°C$  for 14 h. The bands were then washed with deionised water (50  $\mu$ l), followed by incubation in 1%  $v/v$  formic acid and acetonitrile (100 µl) for 15 min. The supernatant containing the digested peptides was dried and rehydrated in deionised water (10 µl) containing 0.05% v/v heptafluorobutyric acid and 0.1% v/ v formic acid.

# 2.4.2. LC-MS/MS analysis of amino acid sequence

The digested peptides were separated by nano-LC using an Ultimate 3000 HPLC and autosampler system (Dionex, Amsterdam, Netherlands). Samples  $(2.5 \mu l)$  were concentrated and desalted onto a micro C18 precolumn (300  $\mu$ m  $\times$  5 mm, Dionex) with H<sub>2</sub>O:CH<sub>3</sub>CN (98:2, 0.05%) TFA) at 15 µl/min. After a 4 min wash, the pre-column was switched (Valco 10 port valve, Dionex) into line with a fritless nano column (75  $\mu$  $\times$  ~10 cm) containing 2 8 media (1.9  $\mu$ , 120 Å, Dr Maisch, Ammerbuch-Entringen Germany). Peptides were eluted using a linear gradient of

H<sub>2</sub>O:CH<sub>3</sub>CN (98:2, 0.1% formic acid) to H<sub>2</sub>O:CH<sub>3</sub>CN (64:36, 0.1% formic acid) at 200 nl/min over 30 min. High voltage (2000 V) was applied to low volume tee (Upchurch Scientific, Washington, USA) and the column tip positioned  $\sim$  0.5 cm from the heated capillary (T = 275 °C) of an Orbitrap Velos (Thermo Electron, Bremen, Germany) mass spectrometer. Positive ions were generated by electrospray and the Orbitrap operated in data dependent acquisition (DDA) mode. A survey scan  $m/z$ 350-1750 was acquired in the Orbitrap (resolution = 30,000 at  $m/z$ 400, with an accumulation target value of 1,000,000 ions) with lockmass enabled. Up to the 10 most abundant ions (>4000 counts) with charge states  $> +2$  were sequentially isolated and fragmented within the linear ion trap using collisionally induced dissociation with an activation  $q = 0.25$  and activation time of 30 ms at a target value of 30,000 ions. The  $m/z$  ratios selected for MS/MS were dynamically excluded for  $30<sub>s</sub>$ 

All MS/MS spectra were searched against NCBI database (December 2018) using MASCOT (version 2.3, Matrix Science) with the following search criteria: enzyme specificity was trypsin; precursor and product ion tolerances were at 4 ppm and  $\pm$  0.4 Da, respectively; variable modification of methionine oxidation; and one missed cleavage was allowed. The ion score significance threshold was set to 0.5 and each protein was provided with a 2 robability based Mowse (Molecular Weight Search) score [24]. The mass spectrometric analysis was carried out at the Bioanalytical Mass Spectrometry Facility, University of New South Wales, Australia.

#### 3. Results and discussion

The results of SDS-PAGE and zymography of G. edulis protease are shown in Fig. S1. The SDS-PAGE should several protein bands while the zymogram confirmed two bands at 44 kDa and 108 kDa, which exhibited dominant caseinolytic activity These two bands were excised and subjected to amino acid sequencing by LC-MS/MS analysis. The LC-MS peptide chromatograms of the two bands were given in Figs. S2 and S3. Each peptide peak was separated and subjected to MS and the mass data collected from the LC/MS/MS analysis from both excised gels were searched on the NCBI database using Eukaryotes and Other Eukaryotes taxonomy (Tables 1 and 2). The identification of the amino acid sequence was based on similarities between the protein from the excised gels and known proteases from the NCBI protein database.

Eight peptides were found in the database with the Mascot Protein Score restricted to the related genera Gracilaria and Hydropuntia ranging from 36 to 148. The peptides included the photosystem I P700 chlorophyll a apoprotein A1 and A2 which are the proteins from the chloroplast Gracilaria tenuistipitata var. liui and Gracilaria salicornia, respectively  $[25,26]$ . The GDP-mannose-3', 5'-epimerase which is an enzyme involved in the biosynthesis of agar and the cell wall polysaccharides  $[27]$  while the galactose-1-phosphate uridylytransferase is an enzyme that breaks complex sugars into galactose  $[28]$ . However, none of the peptides was identified as part of a protease.

The accession number of proteins in the NCBI database (March 2022) that relates to the species Gracilaria edulis and Hydropuntia edulis was 751 and 40, respectively. However, none of them is listed as protease. This suggested that the protein sequence of hydrolytic enzymes for those species might not have been identified previously and, hence, not stored in the database. Therefore, we tried to compare the LC-MS/MS results with other taxonomies available in the databases. The LC-MS/MS results were searched against different taxonomy databases, including archaea, bacteria, fungi, viridiplantae, unclassified, and other taxonomies (includes plasmids and artificial sequences). Tables S1 and S2 show the peptide fragments that matched the protease type from the excised gel of 44 and 108 kDa, respectively. The highest Mascot Protein Score was with the bacteria kingdom. More than 80% of the peptide sequence of the PE matched with the genera Gallaecimonas and Alteromonas. These bacteria are gram-negative and belong to proteobacteria phylum isolated from intertidal sediment and found in seawater [29,30].

We have previously shown that the G, edulis proteases belong to serine and metalloprotease types [7]; therefore, to narrow down the

Table 1





<sup>a</sup>Derived from NCBI Eukaryotes database.

<sup>b</sup>Derived from NCBI Other Eukaryotes database.

Shared amino acids are shown as bold and underline characters.

Table 2

Proteins identified of PE from 108 kDa gel in NCBI Eukaryotes and Other Eukaryotes taxonomy database.



<sup>a</sup>Derived from NCBI Eukaryotes database.

<sup>b</sup>Derived from NCBI Other Eukarvotes database.

Shared amino acids are shown as bold and underline characters.

search, these two types of protease were manually included in the database search (Tables 3 and 4). The metalloprotease type of protease was detected only in the 44 kDa band while the serine-type protease was identified in both the 44 and 108 kDa bands. There are nine serine and metalloproteases in the database with matching sequences to the 44 kDa band (Table 3), while there are three serine proteases with matching sequences to the 108-protease band (Table 4). Also, the sequence coverage of the 44 kDa band was generally higher than that of the 108 band, with the highest coverage was for zinc metalloprotease (Gallaecimonas xiamenensis 3-C-1) at 23%, followed by low quality protein (the homolog of the protein may not be derived directly from the genome sequence [31]) alkaline serine protease (Vibrio sp. JCM 18904) (17%).

Interestingly, the Mascot score for both protein bands was above 50, which confirmed the identity of the protein  $[32]$ . The range of the Mascot score of the 44 kDa band was from 55 for the metalloprotease vebA (Clostridium sp. CAG: 1193) to 1008 for the zinc metalloprotease (Gallaecimonas xiamenensis 3-C-1). The protease identified from the 108 kDa band exhibited lower Mascot scores, ranging from 54 for alkaline serine protease (Kangiella koreensis) to 281 for subtilase family serine protease (Alteromonas macleodii str. 'Balearic Sea AD45').

The identification parameters of these proteins were comparable to those in previous studies. A metalloprotease purified from Paenibacillus spp. BD3526 showed a Mascot score of 65 with a sequence coverage of 29% [33]. Some plant proteases from Cynara cardunculus L. and Withania coagulans were also claimed to be identified with the Mascot score range of 47-82 and sequence coverage range of 5-39% [34,35].

With regard to molecular mass, the homology proteins showed that the mass ranged from 28,736 to 139,974 Da and 64,283 to 139,974 Da for the excised gels of 44 kDa and 108 kDa, respectively. These, however, differed from the masses of the homolog protein in Tables 3 and 4. Such difference indicated that the protease has not been previously reported or the homology protein may consist of several protease subunits [36]. Similar finding has been reported by Hang et al. [37] who found that the mass of a novel metalloproteinase enzyme extracted from Paenibacillus spp. BD23526 was different from the matching hypothetical protein. They argued that the mass difference suggested a novel enzyme or an existing zymogen.

The fact that the protein sequence of the isolated seaweed protease sequences had higher matching scores with bacteria than with other eukaryotes could be due to two causes. The first and obvious cause is contamination of the algal sample by bacteria. This, however, is considered very unlikely because for this to occur, the amount of protein from the contaminated bacteria must be overwhelmingly greater than that from the alga. This would mean that there must have been massive and visually noticeable bacterial growth on the algal sample, which was not observed. The second, and more likely cause of the results might be attributed to several evolutionary and environmental factors. The first is bacterial colonisation of plants and their subsequent symbiosis through coevolution. A recent study by Souza et al. [38] suggests that because of the plant colonisation by bacteria, some of the plant metabolite productions are stimulated by the bacteria. Moreover, symbiosis with bacteria also enables the plant to adapt and exchange signals, including those in the formation of rRNA and other major cell organelles [39]. Pace  $[40]$  reports that the respiratory, photosynthetic and metabolism systems of eukaryotic cells are possibly derived from the bacterial symbionts, e.g., the protein sequence of plant mitochondria and chloroplasts may be obtained from proteobacteria and cyanobacteria.

The second factor is the horizontal gene transfer (HGT) theory, explained by Nikolaidis, Doran and Cosgrove [41], which suggests that the transmission of genetic materials between bacteria and plant is a common occurrence in nature. They evaluated the transfer of genetic material from eukaryotes to prokaryotes and found that non-enzymatic proteins of the plant were transferred from plant to bacteria. Similarly, Givens et al.  $[42]$  discovered similarities between the proteins of the stress-adaptive enzyme in a plant to that in bacteria. Finally, the HGT affects evolution traits between eukaryotes and bacteria [41]. Furthermore. Givens et al.  $[42]$  claimed that there is an evolutionary phylogenetic relationship between plants and bacteria which is built through ancient symbiosis and nucleus gene transfer between them. For instance, the plant catalytic enzyme involved in the synthesis of  $\alpha$ -carotene was

International Journal of Biological Macromolecules 211 (2022) 499-505







Shared amino acids are shown as bold and underline characters.

found in homology with those of prokaryotes and archaea [43]. This finding identified a direct line of evolution from archaea and some groups of bacteria via cyanobacteria and green algae to plants.

Ramanan et al. [44] reported that the mutualistic symbiosis between algae and bacteria has synergistically influenced their metabolism, which has played a key role in the primary endosymbiosis stage of algae revolution. In this stage, the algal ancestor used a cyanobacterium organelle as a photosynthesis agent. The host cell of the cyanobacterium

organelle has been argued to have originated from either bacteria or archaea. According to Schönknecht et al. [45], in the extreme environment, the HGT from bacteria and archaea to eukaryotes algae was likely to happen due to the environmental adaptation and helped the algae to survive under high/low temperature and other stressful conditions. They reported that the protein-coding genes of Galdieria sulphuraria, a microbial eukaryotes red alga, were in homology with bacteria for at least 5%. Pennisi [46] also reported that two species of the red algae

#### International Journal of Biological Macromolecules 211 (2022) 499-505

## Table 4





Shared amino acids are shown as bold and underline characters.

Cyanidiophyceae consist of 6% prokaryotic DNA. However, to date, there have been no reports on the phylogenetic relationship and gene transfer of hydrolytic enzymes between bacteria and algae. Therefore, the finding of this research has opened new research opportunities for investigation into algal lineage and their evolutionary relationship with bacteria.

# 4. Conclusion

This study evaluated the amino acid sequence of proteolytic enzymes from the red seaweed G. edulis.

LC-MS/MS analysis of the two protease bands excised from SDS-PAGE gels showed that the enzymes belong to the metalloprotease and serine protease families, which have not been previously reported for the algal species. However, none of the peptides were related to the proteases in the existing protein databases for the genera Gracilaria and Hydropuntia, indicating that the current protein databases for the algae are probably incomplete. Rather, more than 80% of the peptide sequences matched with those from members of the bacteria kingdom, including Gallaecimonas and Alteromonas. These results demonstrate a strong relationship between algae and bacteria, which was probably caused by evolutionary and environmental forces, such as bacterial colonisation of plants, their subsequent symbiosis and horizontal gene transfer. However, further studies are needed to confirm (or refute) the hypothesis and examine how such gene transfer may have occurred. For the practical aspect, the utilisation of the milk-clotting enzymes for cheese-making application should be investigated.

# CRediT authorship contribution statement

Ariestya Arlene Arbita: Methodology, Validation, Formal analysis, Investigation, Visualisation, Project administration, Writing-Original draft preparation. Nicholas A. Paul: Resources, Supervision, WritingReviewing and editing. Julian Cox: Supervision, Reviewing. Jian Zhao: Conceptualisation, Methodology, Validation, Supervision, Writing-Reviewing.

#### Declaration of competing interest

The authors declare that there is no conflict of interest in this study.

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# Appendix A. Supplementary data

Supplementary data to this article can be found online at https://doi. org/10.1016/j.ijbiomac.2022.05.038.

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